HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 47

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Editorial Note.

In the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connection with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous enquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

G. W. PROTHERO,

General Editor and formerly

January 1920. *Director of the Historical Section.*

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) Position and Frontiers

Finland lies at the north-eastern corner of the Baltic, north of the Gulf of Finland and east of the Gulf of Bothnia: it does not quite reach the Arctic Ocean. The mainland is comprised between 59° 45′ and 70° 10′ north latitude, and 21° 5′ and 32° 50′ east longitude. It has a total area of 144,253 square miles. The neighbouring countries are Sweden on the west, Norway on the north, and Russia on the east.

The present land frontiers of Finland are somewhat arbitrary, and have little relation to physical features.

Except for the Lapps in the north, who pay no attention to frontiers, Finland is racially a unity. The only branch of the Finns who extend beyond the frontiers are the Karelians, but these have been more or less Russified outside Finland. From the linguistic point of view the unity of the country is still more pronounced, despite the Swedish population on the coasts. No suggestions have been made by Finnish writers for any readjustment of boundaries. Outlets to the sea in the north and north-west would be of little value to Finland in view of the long routes they would entail through barren and mountainous country from the inhabited centres of the south. The unproductiveness of Russian Karelia and the shortness of the navigation season in the White Sea preclude the possibility of any route developing to the

north-east. The distinctive features of its physiography and population give Finland a unity and national life which its position intermediate between two strong Powers, Sweden and Russia, has served to accentuate.

(2) Surface, Lakes, Rivers, Coasts, and Islands

Surface

Of the total area of Finland nearly 12 per cent. is covered by lakes. The country consists of a plateau of hard crystalline rocks, granite, gneiss, and schist, covered in most parts with a thin layer of infertile sands and clays. The drainage is bad and the soil is soaked with water during most of the year.

Three regions may be distinguished: the southern or lake plateau, the northern plateau or Lapland, and the low coastal plains.

The lake plateau has an elevation of about 300 ft., rising to greater heights in the north. There are no mountains, but in the north a few hills rise to 1,000 ft. or more. The most noticeable feature of the southern plateau, especially in the south and south-east, is the large number of lakes.

The northern plateau is much more elevated and rugged; heights are numerous, and the general elevation is over 500 ft. The lakes are mostly small and scattered, though Lake Inari in the north is one of the largest in Finland.

The low coastal plains slope gently from the lake plateau to the sea. The surface of the plains is scored with many shallow valleys of winding rivers draining from the lake plateau. In this region there are few lakes.

Lakes

The lakes of Finland have an important influence upon the social organization and characteristics of

its inhabitants. There are said to be upwards of 35,500 lakes, large and small, chiefly on the southern plateau. Some of these are quite isolated, others are linked one to another in festoons by short channels. It is therefore difficult to distinguish sharply between rivers and lakes except in the northern plateau and on the low plains, for many lakes are merely expanded portions of rivers. Most of them are shallow and studded with islands, but can be used as waterways by small steamers.

The chief lakes lie in three groups, and most of those within each group are linked by natural or artificial waterways. These groups, and the area of the largest lake in each, are as follows: south-west group, Näsijärvi, 106 square miles; central group, Päijänne, 429 square miles; south-east group, Saima, 502 square miles. Among the large solitary lakes are Inarijärvi (Enareträsk, 534 square miles), Oulujärvi (Uleåträsk, 387 square miles), and Ladoga (7,000 square miles, of which 3,100 square miles are in Finland). There are 27 canals or canalized channels connecting lakes or navigable stretches of rivers. Along the lake waterways the Finns originally spread into the interior; and water transit has been a principal factor in the civilization of the country. Its value has been increased by the difficulties of building good and direct roads.

Most of the lakes are frozen over by November, with the exception of the large lakes in the south, which may remain open for a month later. The ice is at its thickest, sometimes as much as 15 ft., in March; and the last lake-ice breaks up during May. Lake Ladoga is obstructed by ice from October to April or May, but its ice is seldom over 4 ft. thick except for ridges of pack-ice which may be 50 ft. in thickness.

Rivers

There are many small rivers, but, unless the lakes be regarded as expanded river-beds, few long ones except in Lapland. Most of the rivers drain to the Baltic; and only a small part of the drainage reaches the Atlantic and Arctic Oceans. There is little difficulty in bridging any river except near the mouth. The rivers are of value for floating timber, but of little use for navigation of any kind.

A total of 1,442 rapids has been mapped and named, but the list is incomplete for Lapland. Many are utilized for water-power; but their partial or complete failure from frost in winter is a great drawback.

Coasts and Islands

Disregarding minor inlets, the length of the Baltic coast-line is 1,000 miles; but so numerous are the indentations and islands that the total length, when they are all taken into account, is over 3,000 miles. On the northern part of the west coast and on some stretches of the south-east coast islands are few, but elsewhere they are numerous. In the south-west they form the Åbo archipelago and its western extension, the Åland archipelago, which stretches to within 10 miles of the islands off the Swedish coast.

The Åland archipelago has a total land area of about 550 square miles, including the island of Åland itself, the extent of which is 200 square miles. It consists of over 200 low islands and many rocks, separated by navigable channels, which in many cases are known only to local sailors and fishermen and to the Russian naval authorities who have studied them in recent years. The Åbo archipelago is of the same nature; but, although it contains more islands, it has a smaller land area.

The coasts behind the islands are low, rocky, and indented with fjords, which tend to become silted up with alluvial matter from the many rivers, yet afford good natural harbours for small craft. The west coast north of Uleåborg is the only coast that is fringed with sand-dunes. None of the fjords stretch far inland. In all cases approach to harbours is difficult and tortuous, but is facilitated by a good system of lighthouses, lightships, buoys, and beacons.

The coastal waters of the Baltic are relatively fresh and so freeze readily in winter. Freezing is further facilitated by the almost complete absence of tide in the Baltic. Most of the Finnish ports are closed to navigation from November or December to April or May. Mariehamn in the Åland Islands and Hangö are, however, open throughout the winter; and Åbo and Helsingfors can usually be kept open by ice-breakers.

(3) Climate

The climate more nearly resembles that of Arctic Russia than that of western Europe. There is a brief hot summer from June till August and a severe winter from December to February or March. In summer there is almost continual daylight even in the south, and in winter a corresponding period of darkness. In winter the south-west and in summer the south-east are the warmest parts of the country.

The wettest period of the year occurs in late summer and autumn, but there is no marked dry season. The annual rainfall varies from about 30 in. (750 mm.) in the south to about half that amount in Lapland. From October to May practically all the precipitation falls as snow. By March there is usually about 30 in. (0·75 metre) of snow on the ground in Lapland and about 16 in. (0·4 metre) in south-west Finland. The Åland Islands have a milder winter with comparatively little

snow. The winter snow is of importance as it facilitates travelling, especially in Lapland, by means of reindeer sledges. Moreover, to a certain extent it protects the ground from winter frost and so facilitates agriculture in spring.

Sea Ice.—The waters of the south-western Baltic are rarely frozen, although from Öland and Gotland northward to the Åland Sea there is generally enough pack-ice to impede navigation during the winter. The greater part of the Gulfs of Bothnia and Finland are frozen every winter. Freezing generally begins in the north of the Gulf of Bothnia in December, and by January most of the coastal waters of the Gulf, including the Åbo archipelago, are ice-bound. By that time only the extreme head of the Gulf of Finland is frozen. The Baltic ice reaches its greatest extent in March. The whole of the Gulf of Bothnia, except the Åland Sea, and the whole of the Gulf of Finland, except its western end, are then frozen. The south and south-west of the Åland Islands are always open except for a little drifting pack-ice, and it is probably only in exceptional winters that the centre of the Gulf of Bothnia is frozen solid. The Åland Sea was frozen sufficiently firm to allow traffic to cross between Finland and Sweden in only nine winters during last century.

By the end of April the ice has broken up in the Åbo archipelago and round the south and south-west coasts, and during May the Gulf of Bothnia rapidly clears, it being rare to find any ice in June. The Gulf of Finland is clear early in May.

(4) Sanitary Conditions

The climate is healthy. Preventive measures against the few diseases which occur have met with considerable success. The natural conditions of the country are ideal for the mosquito which carries the infection

of malaria, but, although the disease is widespread, it occurs only in a mild form which is not dangerous. Pulmonary tuberculosis is prevalent, particularly along the Gulf of Bothnia.

(5) Race and Language

Race

About 90 per cent. of the total population are Finns. Most of the remainder are Swedes, with a few Lapps, several thousand Russians, about 1,000 Jews, and 1,000 Gypsies. There were at one time about 2,000 Germans, principally in Wiborg and Helsingfors.

The Finns are generally thought to belong to the Finno-Ugrian family, a people of Mongolian origin allied to the Lapps and Ostyaks and more remotely to the Magyars and Turks. They probably entered Finland twelve to fourteen centuries ago, after a certain amount of admixture with Slavs. One branch of the Finns, the Karelians, is found in the Kem district of Russia on the White Sea. There, however, they are largely Russified. The Finns form the middle and peasant classes in Finland.

The Swedish element, which dates from the days of Swedish rule, is found round the coasts, particularly in the west and south-west, and in the Aland Islands. The Swedes are mainly sailors and merchants, and in the towns, where they form a high proportion of the population, they are the most prosperous section of the community. Admixture between Swedes and Finns has taken place only in recent years; the racial feeling is still very strong on both sides. Two factors are operating to break it down; the growing prosperity of the Finns and their consequent mingling with the higher classes, which were formerly exclusively Swedish, and the growth of factories, which has brought many Finns into the towns.

The Russians are mainly to be found in the south-east and south. They mix little with the rest of the population. Across the Russian frontier there is a certain infiltration of Russian Karelians, but this is without effect on the Finnish race, as they are of the same stock.

Language

Of Finnish there are two chief dialects ; the Karelian or eastern, showing Russian influence, and the Tavastland or western, which has been much modified by Aryan influence and contains many Swedish words. The written form of the language has been common to all educated Finns for about a century. Finnish is the sole tongue of the peasants and of most of the lower and middle classes in the towns, and it is understood, though not used, by most of the Swedish population. It is spoken by the majority of Finns, both cultured and uncultured. Most of the Lapps speak Finnish as well as their own allied language. The number of people who speak Swedish only is steadily decreasing. Swedish is understood in all the towns, and in many is the predominant language. Russian is little understood and less used, except in the Wiborg district. Well-educated Finns nearly always understand Finnish, Swedish, Russian, French, and German.

(6) Population

The general poverty of the country has hindered the growth of large centres of population; and the factors which now stimulate the growth of Finnish towns—the export of wood and the use of water-power for industrial purposes—have been of importance only in recent years. The towns on the sea-coast and for some distance inland, south and west, are Swedish and have Swedish names. But those in the interior

and eastern parts are predominantly Finnish. Nearly all the villages of the interior are on lake shores or river banks.

The densest population is on the southern and south-western coastal plains, but even in the north the coastal plains are more populated than the interior. The population of the interior is sparse and confined mainly to the southern part of the lake plateau. Lapland is inhabited almost solely by nomadic Lapps. The frontier lands, except in the district of Karelia, have few inhabitants.

Of the total population 15 per cent. are urban dwellers, and the proportion is steadily growing. The population of Helsingfors, the largest town, is about 167,000. The total population at the end of 1914 was given as 3,269,401, but this figure is probably too high.

The net rate of increase since 1899 has been very slow, owing to extensive emigration. In 1911 the birth-rate was 29 per 1,000, and the death-rate 16·5 per 1,000. Both these low rates are about the same as in the British Isles.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

Chronological Summary

1809 Oath of Alexander I to maintain the religion, laws, and Constitution of the Grand Duchy (March). Oath repeated in a Proclamation (March).

1809-63 Finland ruled by Governors-General and a Finnish Governing Council.

1812 Province of Wiborg united to Finland, with similar constitutional rights.

1816 Oath of 1809 proclaimed binding on the descendants of Alexander I.

1835 The *Kalevala* first published by Lönnrot.

1863 Reassembling of Diet.

1866 Passing of Primary Instruction Law.

1869 Constitution of Finland accepted by Alexander II.

1878 Reconstruction of the military system of Finland.

1890 Finnish trade unions banded together as a Labour Party.

1894 Finnish language placed on an equality with Swedish in the Senate.

1895 *Tyomies*, Finland's first Labour journal, founded.

1898 The Military Law proposed by the Tsar Nicholas II and his advisers rejected in the Landtdag.

1899 The Finnish Constitution suspended by an Imperial manifesto. Military Dictatorship conferred on Major-General Bobrikoff. Formation of the Social Democratic Party.

1903 Social Democratic Party joined by the Finnish trade unions.

1904 Bobrikoff assassinated.

1905 Universal suffrage discussed by the Landtdag and the Senate. The Great Strike. The Landtdag reassembled.

1906 Bill passed restoring the Landtdag as it existed in 1809. Sveaborg mutiny. Tsar's manifesto conceding national demands.

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1907 First elections on adult suffrage and proportional representation.

1908 Dissolution of the Diet. Measures passed by the Landtdag and Senate of Finland to be submitted to Russian Council of Ministers. Second elections. Coalition Senate formed.

1909 The Landtdag reassembled and immediately dissolved by the Tsar.

1910 Bill for Imperial Legislation signed by the Tsar and promulgated by the Senate. The Landtdag convoked for a special session. Opposition to the Law for Imperial Legislation. Dissolution of the Landtdag.

1912 Imprisonment of members of Supreme Court for resisting extension of Finnish citizenship to Russians.

1912-13 Extension of Finnish railways towards Swedish frontier.

1914 The Great War. Russian censorship established. Finnish battalion in Russian Army. Finnish exiles in German Army.

1917 Constitution restored by Provisional Government of Russia (March). Diet summoned. Coalition Senate chosen. Congress of Swedish party. Independence demanded. Diet dissolved (July), but reassembles and exercises provisional supreme power (November). Bourgeois Senate elected. Bolshevik rule in Russia. Intrigues of bourgeois *bloc* with Sweden and Germany. Declaration of independence (December). Disturbances in Åbo.

1918 Independence confirmed by Russia, and recognised by Sweden, Germany, and other Powers. Trouble in Åland Isles. Social Democrats attempt a *coup d'Etat*. Conflict between Red and White Guards. Germans land in Åland Isles and in Finland. Complete defeat of Red Guards (May). Landtdag, re-established, votes for a monarchy.

1918 Election of a German prince to the Finnish Crown in a secret session of the Landtdag by a vote of 64 to 41. France withdraws her recognition of Finnish independence. The German prince shows no anxiety to mount the throne of Finland. German troops begin to withdraw from the country (October).

(1) *Finland under Swedish Rule.*—There are no historical records of Finland before 1157. The Finns are a people of Mongolian origin, who, according to tradition, had been settled in Finland for many hundred years before King Eric of Sweden undertook a "crusade" into Finland at the instance of Pope Adrian III. He was accompanied by Bishop Henry, of Upsala, an Englishman; and a permanent Swedish settlement was made in 1157, at Åbo, in South-Western Finland. A hundred years later the Swedes fortified Åbo, and built a castle there, which was first held by Bishop Thomas, also an Englishman, and then by a succession of fighting bishops, who gradually extended the rule of Sweden eastward. From 1249 onwards Finland became a Swedish province, and the Finns were subject to the rulers and the laws of Sweden. But they voted through their representatives for the election of a Swedish King in 1362, and were generally treated as Swedish citizens.

(2) *Its Condition as a Swedish Province.*—The Finns came under the common law (the code of Magnus Erikson, 1350, and of King Christopher, 1442). As in Sweden, the law was administered locally by a judge, a president, and a body of peasants chosen by the people, called the Nämd. Taxes were collected throughout the counties or districts by *kronofogder*, or Crown bailiffs. All the waste and uninhabited Finnish lands belonged to the King of Sweden, and to this day are known as Crown lands. Settlers upon them paid rents to the Crown, and were able finally to buy their own holdings if they chose.

By the middle of the fifteenth century there were many flourishing towns along the south and west coasts, governed mainly by *Birkarlar*, or guilds of traders. In 1527 the "House of Burgesses" and the

"House of the Peasantry" were added to the "Estates"; and these often formed a counterpoise to the "House of Nobles" and the "House of the Clergy," usually acting to the advantage of the King. A native aristocracy of Swedish origin, freely crossed with Finnish blood, was also growing up, firmly established in fortified castles near the various towns. When not fighting abroad, this aristocracy was chiefly occupied, in Finland as in Sweden, by struggles with the Crown or the peasantry. The nobles were perpetually trying to get land at the expense of the farmers and the workers on the soil. Land was often held by these on very unsatisfactory tenure; they paid in service, and were liable to chastisement, but there was no actual serfdom in Finland. Nor was any injurious distinction made between Swedes and Finns. The language of the nobles, the burghers, and the Law Courts was Swedish; and no one could hold any official post without taking a Swedish name. But the peasantry and country folk all spoke Finnish; and in a general way their priests and pastors spoke Finnish with them. On the other hand, it was criminal to publish any book in Finnish except the Bible, the Catechism, and Luther's hymn-book.

It is worth while to consider these early conditions of Finland in detail, for they form the basis of her present Constitution. John, the second son of Gustavus Vasa, was in 1556 invested, by his father's will, with the Duchy of Finland, as a vassal of the Swedish Crown. He dethroned his brother, King Eric XIV; and the title of Duke (or Grand Duke) of Finland became henceforth inseparable from the Crown. Finland was a Swedish territory having no constitutional individuality; and the representatives of Finland went regularly to the Swedish Diet, although, on some special

occasions, Finnish local Diets were held. Until the middle of the eighteenth century the Finns generally were quite contented to be Swedes.

(3) *Advance of Russia.*—During the reign of Gustavus Adolphus (1611-1632) Finland extended a good way into Russian Karelia, and included the isthmus of St. Petersburg; but under his successors Russia was allowed to advance until the River Kymmene formed the boundary of Swedish territory. From Peter the Great onward, the rulers of Russia desired to extend their territory westward until it reached open, ice-free water; and in the Great Northern War of 1700-21 they came near to gaining their desire. At the Peace of Nystad (1721) all Finland, excepting Wiborg, was restored to Sweden. In the next war (1741-43) Russia was again successful, and in the Peace of Åbo Sweden had to cede a considerable portion of Finnish territory.

The rulers of Russia since Peter the Great have had two policies regarding Finland, which were generally put forward alternately, according to circumstances—the policy of annexation and the policy of the "buffer State." The Empress Elizabeth tried the latter in 1742. She issued a general manifesto to Finland offering to establish the country independently "as a barrier and boundary" between Sweden and Russia. This had curiously little effect at the time. But then and thereafter the discontented Finnish nobles were always ready to coquet with Russia.

(4) *Swedish Charters of Liberty.*—In the reign of Gustavus III two important Acts were passed, which defined and modified the Swedish Constitution. The first of these, known as the Form of Government (*Regeringsformen*) of 1772, limited the Royal power; the Act of Union and Security (*Förenings- och Säkerhets-Akt*) of

1789 largely restored it. These two Acts have ever since been the Fundamental Laws on which the Constitution of Finland has been based, their maintenance in full force having been guaranteed to the Finnish people by the Act of Assurance of the Emperor Alexander I, March 17, 1809; and both Acts are expressly mentioned as of binding force by the Emperor Alexander II[1] in the Act known as "the Regulation of the Diet," April 3, 1869.[2]

The provisions of the Form of Government and the Act of Union and Security show that Sweden (including Finland) was before the Russian conquest a single homogeneous country and monarchy. For instance, three Courts of Law are appointed: one in Stockholm to legislate for "the old Swedish dominion; one at Jönköping for the Gothic dominion; and one at Åbo for the Grand Duchy of Finland." This appears to be the only reference to that country in both Acts.

Gustavus III began another war with Russia in 1788, which hardly lasted two years. Part of the Swedish nobility "struck," because war had been made without the consent of the Estates; therefore, in the Act of Union and Security of 1789, the King endeavoured to legalise his own action by providing, in the first clause, that foreign policy is in the King's hands, and that he alone has power to declare war and conclude peace.

[1] Regulation of the Diet, April 3/15, 1869:—"While we reserve Our Right as it is assured in the Form of Government of August 21, 1772, and the Act of Union and Safety of February 21, 1789, and in so far as it has not been altered by express words in the present Regulation of the Diet, We graciously promise to perform and ratify the Regulation of the Diet as an inviolable Fundamental Law."

[2] The Finnish Senate, when proclaiming the independence of Finland on December 9, 1917, declared the Diet to be based upon Article 38 of the Form of Government of 1772.

Meanwhile (in 1788) some of the Swedo-Finnish nobles were conspiring with Catherine of Russia, in the hope that she would revive Elizabeth's project of making Finland into a buffer State. But again nothing came of this attempt.

(5) *Russian Conquest.*—In 1808, at the Congress of Erfurt, Napoleon is said to have promised his consent to the incorporation of Finland in the Russian Empire. War began again in 1808. Sweden was too weak to defend her Finnish soil unaided; and, in spite of vigorous resistance, Finland was conquered and formally annexed by Alexander I in 1809. That monarch was inclined to the second of the two policies mentioned above—that of the buffer State; for he expressed himself thus in a rescript to Steinheil in 1816 :—

> " As regards the condition of Finland, my intention has been to give this people a political existence, so that they may not feel themselves conquered by Russia, but united to her for their own clear advantage; therefore not only their civil, but their political laws have been maintained."

(6) *Constitution assured.*—Unfortunately, the government of Russia by Alexander I was an autocracy; and the enlightened monarch, who so wisely decided to rule this new portion of his dominions constitutionally, and further (February 9/21, 1816) proclaimed this decision to be binding on his descendants, involved them and their supporters in a legal dilemma. How can one separate portion of the whole autocratic Empire be constitutionally ruled? Finland either was or was not part of Russia. If it were, then the Duchy was subject to the same rule as the rest of the Empire; if it were not, it should forcibly be made one with Russia as soon as possible.

This, briefly, sums up the arguments of a whole library full of books upon the Finnish question from

the Russian point of view. The Finnish case, which has also given rise to a great deal of writing, consists of the actual oath taken by Alexander in March 1809, and repeated by him in a general proclamation of April 1809, and the speech of Alexander II in 1863. The Finns, naturally, have seen nothing specially inconsistent in an autocratic Empire with a constitutional annex.

The conquest of Finland by Russia was complete in December 1808; and a provisional Committee of Government was appointed, with a Governor-General[1] at its head. A Finnish deputation was at the same time called to St. Petersburg, and its members presented a Memorandum containing a summary of the provisions of the Fundamental Laws for the calling of a legal Diet. They also furnished a description of Finland's Constitution, which runs thus :—

> " Finland, which has been from the most remote times united with Sweden, has been governed according to the fundamental and civil laws of the latter. These are founded on three principles :—
>
> " (1) The country is governed by a King who is subject to law.
>
> " (2) All the citizens are free and protected in life and property.
>
> " (3) The nation, through its representatives, has the right to make its own Constitution, dictate its own laws, and stipulate what the contributions [*i.e.*, taxes] of the country are to be. . . . . The Estates used to assemble every third year, and even more often, but since the change of rule in 1772 and the Act of Security in 1789 they have been restricted."

The deputation asked for the convocation of such a Diet; and the Tsar, though he had no legal power to summon a Diet, granted the request. The " Estates of Finland " assembled at Borgå in March 1809. These

[1] The appointment of a Governor-General as a permanent institution was forbidden by the *Regeringsform*, Art. 33.

Estates were (1) all the "heads of noble families," making the Order of Nobles; (2) bishops, representatives of clergy, and a few representatives of the University of Helsingfors and of the teachers of the lyceums and public schools, making the Order of Clergy; (3) the Order of Burgesses, representing all the property-holders in the towns; and (4) the Order of Peasants, representing the taxpayers of the rural communes. Before this assembly, meeting in the so-called cathedral of the little wooden-built riverside town of Borgå, Alexander I gave his solemn assent to the "assurance,"[1] which was read aloud in Swedish, and runs as follows:—

> "We, Alexander I, by the grace of God Emperor and Autocrat of the whole of Russia, Grand Duke of Finland, &c., do make known:
>
> "That, Providence having placed us in possession of the Grand Duchy of Finland, We have desired to confirm and ratify the religion and fundamental laws of the country, together with the privileges and rights which each class in the said Grand Duchy in particular and all the inhabitants in general, whether high or low, have hitherto enjoyed, according to the Constitution. We promise to maintain all their benefits and laws firm and unshakable in their full force. In confirmation whereof we have signed this Act of Assurance with Our own hand."

This was on March 15/27, 1809. At the opening of the Diet Alexander had made a brief and friendly speech, and on March 23/April 4 he published a manifesto which was also very friendly. The Diet, having done homage to the Tsar on 17/29 March, sat for three months, and was then dissolved. A manifesto of March 15/27, 1810, contains this passage:—

> "From the moment when Providence placed the fate of Finland in our hands We resolved to govern this country as a free nation enjoying the rights guaranteed to it by its Constitution."

[1] This Act of Assurance differs but slightly from that which was given by each Swedish King on his accession.

This solemn undertaking was, however, not carried out, as no Diet was summoned to meet for fifty-three years.

(7) *Growth of Finnish Nationalism.*—From this time onward, for about 108 years, Finland was considered part of the Russian Empire, and acknowledged the rule of Russia's Tsars. For some ninety years of this period the Finns were fairly contented with their rulers; and the relations between Russia and Finland, though hardly ever cordial, were quite easily endurable for both sides. But the acquired national characteristics of both nations were, and are, so extremely different that any close intercourse, any sustained common effort, seems impossible. Mongolian though the Finns are if traced to their ultimate origins, they have always looked westward, assimilating Western civilisation, thought, science, art, and scepticism. Formed and educated for 600 years by the Swedes, then thrown by the fortune of war into the lap of a barbaric and half-Eastern Empire, they could not possibly become one with their conquerors. Their Swedish habits of life and thought continued for a time, but the influence of Sweden naturally faded; and then—to put the change in a few words—since they might not be Swedes, and would not be Russians, they became *Finns*.

That awakening of nationalism, which stirred here and there throughout all Europe during the last century, touched Finland soon after the Russian conquest. The Grand Duchy quite unconsciously carried out that alternative policy of Russia to which we have already referred, and became, by the mere development of Finnish national feeling, a buffer state between Sweden and Russia, alien to both and sympathetic to neither. But none of the rulers of Russia after Alexander I were able to comprehend this simple, natural, and beneficial

development. Count Witte, for instance, firmly believed to his dying day that all Finland was burning to be reunited to Sweden.

The actual Finno-Ugrian race is not confined to the limits of Finland. It spreads across a large part of Northern Russia, and reappears in Esthonia, where the language and the mythology of the peasantry are very similar to those of the Grand Duchy. Within Finland itself two racial types are to be found : the Tavastians, or Finns of the west and the Bothnian shore (where the original Finno-Ugrian stock has been largely crossed with Swedish blood), and the Karelians, or Finns of the east, who have inter-married considerably with Russians. The Tavastians are perhaps the ugliest race in Europe; they have fair hair and blue eyes, with modified Mongolian features, and squat, heavy figures. But their faces are nearly always redeemed by fine, intellectual foreheads; and their clumsy bodies answer with extraordinary quickness and accuracy to the rhythm of dance and song. The Karelians are darker, better-looking generally, and livelier in manner, while mentally they have a touch of Slavonic instability. Long before the perils of close intercourse between Finns and Russians could be manifest, certain of the wisest heads in Finland were always strongly opposed to Russian intellectual influences; to Russian political movements, whether Tsarist or Progressive; to the influx of Russians as visitors or residents; and, generally speaking, to fraternisation with Russia in any form. "We are of the West, and they are of the East," these people said.

Finnish nationalism grew up in a condition of double opposition, so to speak; for the original Finnish language had to fight its way into the educated and bourgeois world of Finland against the influence of

Swedish as a general, and Russian as an official, tongue. It began when Elias Lönnrot, a Swedish-Finn physician, first collected the various legends together which form the epic of the *Kalevala*. He was well acquainted with Finnish, and took down these beautiful and remarkable pieces of mythology from the chants of the peasantry on long winter evenings in the lonely forest farms. He first published the whole *Kalevala* in 1835; and this, together with the second edition published in 1849, and the *Kanteletar*, a collection of lyrics which followed, gave a wonderful impetus to the study of Finnish in Finland. On every hand educated and well-to-do people, the bourgeoisie, even the Swedo-Finnish "nobility," were learning again from the lips of the peasantry their own extremely rich and beautiful language. From this period we may trace a genuine and very remarkable Finnish literature, although a number of popular authors in Finland chose (and still choose to-day) to use the Swedish tongue.[1]

(8) *Growth of Democratic Feeling.*—The development of nationalism in Finland was accompanied by the growth of democracy, or what passed for it in the last century; that is to say, the power of the middle classes, the intellectuals, and the skilled hand-workers increased, while that of the leisured and hereditary governing classes

[1] Those who wish to understand the conditions of Finland cannot pass over her language and literature, for it was for many years a most integral part of her people's development. The educated class, turning from Swedish to Finnish, entered a new, rich, varied, and poetical world, which was by inheritance their own. Swedish is a language of homely charm and flexible but limited vocabulary; Finnish has endless inflections, and falls naturally into lyric forms which give a winged quality even to its prose, while for subtlety and variety Finnish can hold its own even with English and Russian.

waned. The Finnish noble families, always rather isolated and provincial, found themselves completely cut off from Sweden and Scandinavia generally; and a few of them contracted Russian alliances or went to find power and place at St. Petersburg. Some Russians settled in Eastern Finland, accommodating themselves easily enough to the different atmosphere. Meantime, the majority of the Finnish aristocracy went into commerce, dropped the prefix of nobility, and became, of late years especially, much more powerful as capitalists than they had been as nobles.

(9) *Alexander I and Nicholas I.*—From 1812 onward Finland was ruled by Governors-General and a Council of Finns nominated by the Tsar, and called the Imperial Senate of Finland. A Committee of Finnish Affairs at St. Petersburg transmitted the business done by this body to the Tsar. Alexander I made his celebrated voyage through Finland in 1819, and penetrated far and wide into the land of forest, lakes, and rivers; even, it is said, going down the wonderful cataracts of the Ulea. He won a great deal of easy popularity, and effected the necessary change of the Finnish capital from Åbo, at the extreme western point of the country, to Helsingfors, which commands the magnificent harbour of Sveaborg. He never carried out his intention of giving a Constitution to Finland, but he also never came into serious collision with the Finns. The Governors-General he appointed were of Finnish or Esthonian extraction except one, Count Lakrewski, who took the post in 1823, and drew up a series of ordinances, to which he obtained the Imperial signature without the necessary sanction of the Finnish Senate. This situation (repeated, as we shall see, in 1899) was very suitably dealt with by Alexander I, who obliged

the Governor-General to present his reports through the proper constitutional channels—that is, the Committee of Finnish Affairs.

The Diet was never called together during the reigns of Alexander I and Nicholas I. The latter signed the Assurance of the Liberties of Finland, as his brother had done; and practically nothing was attempted either for or against those liberties during his reign. In 1826 the Committee for Finnish Affairs was replaced by the Finnish Office, with a Secretary of State at its head; but, as Count Rehbinder, who held this post for many years, was a man of much intelligence and tact, Finland was governed more or less in accordance with the wishes of her population, though not constitutionally As will appear later, the office of Finnish Secretary of State was a post of the highest importance to Finland's welfare. Politically tranquil, Finland prospered commercially during the long reign of Nicholas I; and the national life was fostered by the progress of education.

(10) *Alexander II.*—On the occasion of the Tsar's visit to Finland in 1856 it was made known to him that the people desired the reassembling of the Diet. In 1859 the Senate drew up a list of matters which really needed the co-operation of the Diet; and in 1861 the Tsar called, not a Diet, but a "Committee of the Four Orders of Finland." This gave great dissatisfaction; and at last a legally elected Diet met in 1863. The deputies were received at Helsingfors by Alexander, who informed them that he intended to maintain the principle of constitutional monarchy "essentially involved in the character of the Finnish people," and that he wished to extend the rights of the Diet respecting taxation, and to give them the power of legislative action (*droit de motion*), reserving to himself the initiative in all questions touching alterations in the Fundamental Laws.

This speech (the full text of which is given in the Appendix) has generally been passed over in silence by Russian writers upon the Finnish question. If they have considered it at all, they appear to have judged it a regrettable and illegal derogation from autocracy on Alexander's part. The "Constitution of 1863," as it is generally called, did not come into working till after the "Law of the Diet" was passed in 1869. It was the result of the labours of the Diet of 1863, which was assembled according to the Constitution of 1809. As Senator Mechelin says, it was based on the "Form of Government" of 1772, the "Act of Union and Security" of 1789, and the Constitution of 1809. A very complicated and unsatisfactory Constitution it proved to be; but, such as it was, Finland received it with joy, bitterly resented the suspension of it by Nicholas II, and did not even expand it according to modern requirements until 1907.

(11) *Constitution of* 1863.—The electors continued to vote by Estates or Orders. The 'Order of Peasantry' was elected by all owners of real estate paying land tax and by owners of Crown property; and this limited electorate was further restricted by a system of electors of first and second degree. They returned about sixty members, according to the rural communes. The 'Order of Burgesses' was elected by all tax-paying town residents, at the rate of one representative per 6,000 inhabitants. They came to about fifty-five in number. The 'Order of Clergy' was elected by the Lutheran pastors, the professors and officials of Helsingfors University, and the professors and teachers of other public schools. These, with an archbishop and two bishops, made from thirty-four to thirty-six representatives. The 'Order of Nobles' consisted of one

person from each of the "noble families," who were generally over 200 in number. Numerically, this body of landowners and capitalists formed a permanent majority of the Diet.

Such an electoral system left a very considerable part of the population permanently unrepresented. Against this must be set the large amount of local self-government possessed by the rural communes, in which the workers had some voice, and by the municipalities. Also, the general rights of citizens were considerable; there were no class privileges in the matter of military service or admission to Government employment; the public schools (and the university) were open to all classes, and liberty of conscience was recognised. Every Finlander was free to acquire real estate, and had a right to exercise any trade or profession. (After the 'seventies this right was extended to women.) In a word, the ordinary freedom of the individualist State, founded upon a basis of capital, prevailed in a fuller form, socially and practically, than was generally found in Europe at that time.

The only legal alterations to the Finnish Constitution, apart from the various illegal changes attempted by the Tsars, were made in 1886, in 1907, and in 1917, and did not affect the machinery of the Constitution at all. The electoral basis alone was broadened. In 1886 the burgess electorate was increased, and the Estates were given the right of initiative. In 1907 the Diet was elected by full adult suffrage, with proportional representation; women became eligible for Parliament: and the separate sittings of the Four Orders ceased to exist. In 1917 the Diet, being the only directly representative part of the Government, naturally assumed the supreme political power.

As instituted in 1869, the four Estates, each having the same authority, met in the capital for a four months' session, and by custom they usually met every year. They were convoked by the Emperor, who was not obliged to call them together more than once in every five years, and dissolved them as he chose. Whenever there were disputes with Finland, the Emperors dissolved the Diet (and the Provisional Government of 1917 was so injudicious as to follow their example). The Diet, being assembled, formed five Committees—legislative, economic, finance, extraordinary taxes, and bank. Swedish was spoken in the House of Nobles; Finnish and Swedish in the other Houses. In 1894 the Finnish language was admitted into the Senate on an equality with Swedish. Any member of the Diet might " propose a petition," that is, suggest that the Tsar should introduce such and such a measure; this formula practically meant that the Diet gave notice to the Emperor, the Senate, &c., that they intended to introduce a Bill on some particular subject.

Mechelin says : " The Emperor is assisted in the work of governing Finland by the Senate, the Governor-General, and the Secretary of State's office."[1] The Senate consisted of about twenty Finnish subjects nominated by the Tsar, divided into two Departments, the Judicial and the Administrative. The Judicial Department was the final court of appeal, and nominated candidates for the Justiciary. The Administrative Department included home affairs, financial control, Crown lands and fisheries, the military budget (until the Army was disbanded), public worship and instruction, agriculture and canals. All further matters of

[1] That is, the Senate, confirmed by the Secretary of State, held the executive power.

administrative work were carried out by the *Plenum* of the Senate. The Budget was drawn up by the Financial Department of the Senate, and voted (after 1869) by the Diet. It was generally arranged for a year ahead. Finland has always, from the very beginning of her connection with Russia, been financially independent. She has raised her own revenues and administered them herself for her own needs. This arose, in the early days, from her poverty; Russia, then relatively prosperous, was glad to avoid the burden of subsidising a very poor and war-worn country. In 1869 the situation was different, but even then Finland's prosperity was certainly not such as to cause envy in the great Empire; so the Constitution affirmed the financial independence of the Finns. By 1910 it was clear that Finland's resources would be of considerable value to the Empire, yet the financial part of the 1910 Bill was never put into force. It is remarkable that the Russian Administration, so incredibly corrupt in most matters, has always shown the strictest probity in dealing with Finnish finance. This the Finns themselves readily acknowledge.

The Governor-General was nominally President of the Senate, and was supposed to "supervise the work of the Senate"; but in actual practice he, being usually a foreigner, took no share in administration. After the destruction of the Finnish Army the Governors-General were usually military and official functionaries responsible for Russian troops quartered in Helsingfors and other towns.

There was also a Procurator-General, a kind of judicial head, being the chief of the public prosecutors of the country. Part of his duty was to preside at the sittings of the Senate and see that the rules of procedure were duly observed. He was supposed to be the

coadjutor of the Governor-General, but in practice he had usually little to do with that functionary, and exercised the duties of President of the Senate. These functionaries, like the Secretary of State, were nominated by the Tsar; but during those periods in which Russia and Finland were not at enmity they were chosen on Finnish suggestion. At other times the Governor-General, the Procurator-General, the Secretary of State, and even the members of the Senate were active in their support of Russian interests, to the detriment of the Finns.

The Secretary of State for Finland transmitted to the Tsar all measures passed by the Diet and Senate, and generally acquainted him with the course of public affairs in Finland. Obviously, this Minister had remarkable powers for good or ill over the fate of Finland. In 1908 this duty of the Secretary of State was transferred to the Russian Council of Ministers by an Act of Russian administrative legislation, with the Tsar's sanction; but this change, being made without the consent of the Diet, was illegal and temporary, not affecting the Constitution.

(12) *Finland under the Constitution.*—Finland is a surprising example of the manner in which a nation's will to progress can develop, and even carry into effect material reforms, under a very limited and ineffective parliamentary system. The defects of the Constitution were obvious, but the Finnish people literally loved it; and, when it was suspended by Nicholas II in 1899, the popular cry was not for a new and better form of government, but for a restoration of the old. From the first years of constitutional government the Diet gradually assumed the initiative in legislation; it proposed and drafted measures, and the Senate carried them out. Probably owing to the preponderance of

power lying with the House of Nobles, there were very few serious disputes between Senate and Diet; while within the Diet itself the bourgeois interests of the nobles apparently kept them in harmony with the other Houses.

Between 1869 and 1898 the history of Finland is bare of notable events, but it was a period of rapid social and national development. Finland became a country of prosperous bourgeois, liberal and even radical, but scarcely socialist, in tone. Education reached a very high level, and to a great extent culture determined a person's social status. All those who had been through the university met upon an equal footing; leisured or idle persons were hard to find. The nobility had gone into commerce; and the industry, simple tastes, and intelligence of the bourgeoisie enabled them to develop the resources of the country and provide comfortably for themselves. But there was little that could be called wealth; and the social tone was such that the few wealthy men bore their riches apologetically. Finland was not only a poor country, but a land of wholesome delights and high ideals.

Generally speaking, the country was poor; and, by reason of a series of bad harvests, it was visited with two severe famines. The improvement of agriculture, the intelligence of the farmers and yeomen, and their readiness to learn, made such disasters rare; but it was still true in 1908 to say: "There is always a food shortage somewhere in Finland." The geological fact that the country is slowly rising from the level of the Baltic—some 6 ft. in a century—was disturbing; lakes, and even sea-shore, were liable to become marsh; the course of rivers was altered. Under the very best conditions, Finland can, so far, grow five-sixths of her food supply at home; but the general policy of the country

was to produce export wares for exchange. These were mainly timber and paper and dairy produce; and in spite of the Finnish climate agriculture became a source of real wealth. The railways had the advantage of starting under State direction, and were admirably suited to the needs of the very large country and a scattered population. The area of Finland is about 144,253 square miles, one-third of which lies within the Arctic Circle; and the population in 1914 was some three millions. Trains were comfortable, cheap, frequent, and reliable. The lake steamer service was also cheap and excellent, though necessarily suspended in winter. Besides many small canals, there are two which admit large vessels far into the country. The taxes were not heavy; and the tariffs, in spite of many threats from Russia to level them up to her own, were never interfered with, and always remained low.

(13) *Political Parties.*—Class antagonisms, then, hardly showed themselves in the Diet or in Finnish society; but their place was amply filled by very bitter racial quarrels. The "Old Finn" party, which stood for the development of Finland's own language and national character, as opposed to Swedish culture and Swedish language, was first formed early in the 'sixties. Its politics were strictly nationalist, and the group contained both moderate and radical elements. But, in their desire to throw off Swedish tradition, the Old Finns laid themselves open, now and then, to the charge of "looking eastward" and being too ready to accept Russian influence, and even bend to Russian tyranny. The "Young Finn" party was formed after some years to embody a sound nationalist policy which was equally free of Sweden and Russia; it was a party which really did mean Finland for the Finns. A considerable but diminishing number of Finns continued to speak and

read Swedish and to look with affection to Sweden and to the past.[1] In this "Swedish party" the nearest approach to Conservatism might be found. Though at the beginning of the war the Swedish-speaking population of Finland was only one-tenth of the whole, it has of late played an important part. To it belonged the nobility in their new capitalist form, such landlords as remained, and a number of commercial men along the western coast; also, generally speaking, the ultra-bourgeois part of the population. However, it must be remembered that the Swedish group of the Social Democrats is not insignificant. All three parties—Swedish or "Sveckoman," Finnish or "Fennoman," Old and Young, as represented in the Diet—were, of course, purely bourgeois. No Socialists appeared there until 1907; and then they astonished everyone, even themselves, by the size of their representation. Before the period of repression (1899-1905) neither the Diet nor the Finns generally showed any sympathy with the various Russian groups which were struggling to abolish the tyranny of Tsardom.

(14) *Action of Nicholas II.*—Returning to the course of history, we find that, though the Finnish policy of Alexander III was in tendency reactionary, that monarch made no serious attempt to abolish the constitutional liberties granted by his father. A new departure was made by Nicholas II in the closing years of the century. In 1878 Finland's military system had been reconstructed on the basis of a small standing army of 5,000 men and some 20,000 in the *Landvärn*, or territorial force. With the exception of a battalion, known

[1] It must be remembered that in all the towns the majority of Finns are bi-lingual and even tri-lingual, for German is readily understood in all the offices and shops.

as the Finnish Guard, these troops were intended for the defence of Finland. In 1898 Nicholas II decided to impose conscription upon the Finns, who were henceforth to serve in the Russian Army under Russian officers. The Diet unanimously rejected the Bill for effecting this; and it was found impossible to impose conscription in Finland. The result, however, was that the old autonomous Finnish military establishment disappeared, and Russian troops were permanently quartered in all the chief towns of the country.

In February 1899 the Tsar suspended the Finnish Constitution, abolished the Diet by manifesto and appointed a Military Dictator, Bobrikoff, to govern Finland.[1] The people resented this bitterly, and from 1899 to the autumn of 1905 the whole nation carried on a perfectly legal and remarkably effective campaign of passive resistance. There were innumerable official dismissals, illegal arrests, banishments, and so on, but no acts of violence on the part of the Finns save one—the assassination of Bobrikoff by Eugene Schaumann in June 1904. This act was, by its very isolation, more effective than political assassinations usually are; and the strenuousness of Russian rule in Finland was slightly relaxed.

(15) *Revolt of* 1905.—In October, 1905, came the Great Strike, in which the whole civil life of Finland was suspended for five or six days; and the Social Democrats, being organized and prepared to administer, took temporary power. The party was but six years old, having been formed at the Congress of Åbo in 1899 upon a pure Marxist basis from a confederation of

[1] "The Diet," says this manifesto, "will be abolished, having ceased to be essential to the government of the country. His Majesty Nicholas II will in future legislate for Finland without the latter's advice or assistance."

trade unions formed in 1890. There were soon three separate groups—Finnish, Swedish, and Russian—having each its own journal; but *Tyomies* ("the working-man"), founded in 1895, was the representative Social-Democrat paper for all Finland. The party was always uncompromising, strictly Marxist, and in the main anti-militarist; the citizen army had no place on their programme, and force was represented by that dangerous, uncertain, and sometimes inefficient body, the Red Guard—a body of Socialists in military training, but unarmed.

In 1905 the party numbered more than 45,000 members (of whom 10,000 were women), and during all that year it had pressed steadily for adult suffrage. At the time of the Great Strike it was popular in the country, and no resistance was made when it took the provisional government of Helsingfors and a few other towns into its hands. It suppressed the ordinary police and other functionaries of the Government, proclaimed safety of person and freedom of speech and the press, and kept very good order.

(16) *New Constitution.*—On November 4, 1905, came the Tsar's manifesto, conceding all that the nation had demanded through the petition of the Social-Democratic Party. And these demands were studiously moderate. They acknowledged the Imperial supremacy; they left the Senate a co-opted and nominated body with all the executive powers; they did not alter the financial administration or demand the expulsion of the Russian soldiery. They merely established the Parliament of the country on the broadest possible basis—full adult suffrage, regardless of property, class, or sex, coupled with proportional representation based on D'Hondt's distributive principle, which contains elaborate safeguards against the tyranny of the

majority. All measures passed by the Diet had also to be sanctioned by the Senate, and to be conveyed through the Secretary for Finland to the Tsar, to obtain the Imperial assent. Nothing whatever was done to assure the position and character of this most important official link between Finland's Government and the Sovereign.

The old Diet assembled in June 1906, and hurriedly passed a Bill, which was confirmed in St. Petersburg, creating the new Diet. In July 1906 occurred the Sveaborg Mutiny, an abortive revolt in the Russian Navy. The Social Democrats, in general, knew nothing of it, but the Red Guard sympathized actively, came into collision with the bourgeoisie, and was soon after disbanded.

In April 1907 followed the first election with adult suffrage. The 200 representatives elected were divided as follows : 80 Socialists, 50 Old Finns, 26 Young Finns, 25 Swedes, 7 Agrarians, 2 Christian Labourers. Of these 19 were women. In the elections between that date and 1914, when the Diet was last called together before the Revolution,[1] only two factors have been constant, the increase of the Social Democrats and the decrease of the Old Finns. At the election of 1914 the Socialists won more than half of the seats, while the Old Finns and Young Finns together only reckoned 12 per cent.

The old Diet of June 1906 granted a sum of £400,000 to Russia as the first of three payments in lieu of military service. A regular annual sum was finally agreed upon for this purpose—a concession always protested against by the Socialists. After June 1908 measures passed by the Diet and Senate were no longer

[1] There was an election in 1916, but the Diet never met.

presented for the Tsar's approval by the Secretary of State for Finland, but had first to be submitted to the Imperial Council of Ministers for their sanction. This arbitrary interference with the constitutional rights of the country was provocative.

(17) *Political Conflicts.*—The years 1908-10 present a record of conflict and apprehension. Large measures of domestic reform were passed by the Diet and generally accepted by the Senate, sent to the Tsar and never heard of afterwards. Such was the Bill for the total prohibition of alcohol, several times introduced and passed by the Diet, finally accepted by the Senate, sent up to the Tsar as usual, and at last approved (after the Revolution) by the Provisional Government. Two years were allowed the trade for getting rid of stocks and readjustment to circumstances. Other measures related to the care of children, insurance, old-age pensions, education, public health, and the better condition of the *torpare* (the landless workers upon the soil). No legislation, however, in the true Social-Democratic sense was ever introduced by the various Diets. There was nothing calculated to shake the capitalistic and wage-earning system.

Of these proposed reforms only a few became law. Civil marriages were instituted; illegitimate children were placed in a much better position; and the principle of "equal pay for equal work," regardless of sex, was applied in teaching and to some extent in the printing trade, and in 1913 to the General State Service.

(18) *Imperial Legislation Act.*—Early in 1910 the Bill for Imperial Legislation came forward. There is no need to dwell on it in detail, since much of it never came into working; but a summary is given in Appendix III. Briefly, it was a measure for the destruction of Finland's

Constitution and the unification of the Duchy with Russia in language, education, finance, customs, laws, monetary system, press restrictions, rights of meeting, &c. Fully carried out, it would have been a far more dangerous blow to Finnish prosperity than a military dictatorship; but the Imperial Russian Government was, above all, inconsequent, and, having asserted its principles, made little use of the Bill when passed, except in those sections which related to navigation and to the rights of Russians in Finland.[1]

However, it roused great indignation in Finland, and even in Europe. While the Bill was pending, a number of international jurisconsults met in London at the house of Professor Westlake " to examine the relations between Finland and Russia," and decided that Finland's claim to retain her Constitution was legal as well as just (see Appendix II). Such claim as the Bill of 1910 might have to be in any sense constitutional was based upon the notion that the assurance given by Alexander I to Finland (an assurance made by him binding upon his descendants) depended on the Tsar's autocratic rule, and became null when the Tsar delegated some of his governing power to the Duma. This claim is shown by the signatories of the Westlake Committee to be void in law as well as in equity. An opinion to the same effect (printed below, Appendix II, p. 122) was given by Sir Edward Fry.

In May 1910, when this Bill was under consideration in St. Petersburg, 120 members of the British Parlia-

[1] We may note here that the Jews laboured under civil disabilities in Finland as in Russia. Two or three attempts to remove these were made between 1907 and 1910, all cancelled by the Tsar. In December 1917 a Bill giving citizen-rights to the Jews was passed. Until the great increase of industrialism during the war there were very few Jews in Finland.

ment signed a memorial to the Duma expressing the apprehension with which they regarded the proposal to deprive Finland of her constitutional rights. A German memorial to the same effect was signed by 165 Reichstag members; 150 French deputies and senators addressed the Duma in a similar manner; and so did members of the Italian, Dutch, and Belgian Parliaments. The German National Union of Austria did the same, while many English and German Chambers of Commerce, fearing the disastrous increase of the Finnish tariff which would result from unification with the Russian Customs, begged their Governments to protest. However, the Bill was passed in July 1910. By a curious piece of irony it was sent to the Diet "for consultation," and vigorously and decisively rejected.

(19) *Russianisation of Finland.*—In the summer of 1910 the Finnish pilot system was transferred to the Russian Admiralty. This step created great confusion in the home and foreign coast traffic of Finland, since on those shores, with their myriad islands and constantly varying waterways, piloting is a science to which men must be born and bred. However, the Russian Navy declined to be responsible for accidents; and the Finnish pilots, who had all resigned rather than be under Russian naval rule, were reinstated.

Directly the Imperial Legislation Bill was passed, a crop of difficulties with regard to Russian residents in Finland sprang up. Except in the bad years 1899-1905, there had been no general boycott of Russians, many of whom enjoyed Finnish surroundings and climate, and used Wiborg as a holiday resort. Now the Imperial Legislation Bill gave these temporary residents, military or civilian, full citizen rights in Finland; and this the Finns all opposed to the best of their power. So the years 1910-1914 are a dreary record of official

dismissals, punishments, and exile—very like the years 1899-1905. All the provincial Governors, many of the judges, and numerous other officials were dismissed or imprisoned, and their places filled with Russians. One peculiar and ingenious hardship of this law was that it provided for the trial of Finnish offenders in Russia —which was tantamount to wholesale condemnation. The government of the country was carried on by a packed and russianised Senate; the Diet was occasionally assembled and capriciously dismissed. Everything except municipal work was at a standstill, and the press was subjected to an intermittent censorship.

During the first period of Russianisation (1899-1905) the Finns carried on a vigorous national propaganda in Europe, and won a good deal of sympathy, particularly in England. The press generally followed their doings with sympathy, and gave a reasonably full and fair account of events in Finland and Russia during the Great Strike. But in the second period (1910-16) things were very different. Anglo-Russian relations had become, since 1907, more friendly; and it became more and more difficult to get any account of Finland's oppression into the newspapers.

(20) *First Effects of the War.*—Naturally, the Diet was never summoned after the summer of 1914. Governor-General Seyn was encouraged to whatever acts of political repression seemed good to him; yet on the whole the Finns did not suffer in life and limb during the war as they expected. The most stringent censorship of press, correspondence, and all written matter was instituted, but, with the strange inconsequence of Tsarist tyranny, telephonic communication was not interfered with. Even the Russian authorities themselves were divided; for, early in the war, the Dowager Empress returned

from Denmark by way of Finland, and showed much courtesy and common-sense on her passage. She caused her personal guard to be greatly relaxed, talked to Finns everywhere, and obviously took pains to create a good impression. But, shortly after her return, the Finns were specially and officially warned "not to build any false hopes of restored liberty" upon the friendly demeanour of the Dowager-Empress.

The war rolled on; and, after the first few months, Sweden, Denmark, and Finland began to reap extraordinary commercial advantages from it. There were drawbacks, of course, such as the loss of a considerable amount of Finnish merchant tonnage (reckoned at 40,000 tons) which was sailing under the Russian flag. The export butter and milk trade was completely destroyed; railway fares and telephone costs were raised 25 per cent.; and there was a special 5 per cent. tax on property and mortgage. But the annual military indemnity was not raised, although the garrisons in all Finnish towns were greatly increased; and two lines of trench, covering the chief railway lines, were made across Finland, from Torneå down to Helsingfors, and from Kajana to Kotka. There were, however, very few disturbances or collisions with the military. Some 2,000 Finns volunteered for the Russian Army, with full Red Cross and ambulance provision; they appear to have been formed into companies apart from the Russians, under Finnish officers. They distinguished themselves for valour, as their forbears had done in the Swedish armies. Other Finns enlisted also, but in a different direction; some who were already in exile and many others who were threatened with prison or banishment under Russian rule reached Germany and joined the army there. There were about

2,000 of these; and, when the Revolution was proclaimed, many of them endeavoured to return to Finland, but they were not permitted to do so. They remained in Sweden until the *coup d'état*.

Finland was not able, like Sweden and Denmark, to take advantage of leaks in the Allied blockade; but work was found for all hands in taking up Russian trade. Iron, leather, glass, tobacco, drugs, polishes, celluloid, paper of every kind—these are only a few of the industries which received a gigantic impetus in Finland. Labour streamed in from the country, and wages rose with the increasing price of food, while all the difficulties of the wage-system were greatly intensified. The town life of Finland was a microcosm, as it were, of England in the first full swing of the industrial period (child labour excepted); and Finland's sudden industrial prosperity was due to the same cause, a low or non-existent tariff as compared with the highly protected districts that afford her trade. All the country's labour was, with few exceptions, directed to producing riches; and it was not until the third year of the war that Finland began seriously to suffer, because she was not producing necessities. Agriculture neglected for industrial effort, at a time of world shortage and highly effective German sea blockade, eventually brought its own punishment. The conservative parties did not notice this until too late; and the Social Democrats were so deeply concerned with political questions that they neglected economic essentials.

(21) *Russian Revolution.*—On March 15, 1917, the Tsar abdicated; and a Provisional Government was formed which, almost with its first breath, restored the Constitution of Finland. Hitherto the business of the country had been carried on solely by a Senate composed of Russians and Russianised Finns. This Senate was

dissolved and a temporary body of twelve, six of whom were Social Democrats and the remainder apportioned among the bourgeois parties, took up the executive power. This was usually called later the Coalition Cabinet. Governor-General Seyn was removed and M. Stakhovich took his place, which proved something of a disappointment, for the Finns expected to see Baron Rosen, an old and tried friend of the country, there instead. M. Rodichev became Secretary of State for Finland.

On March 29 Kerenski spoke at Helsingfors, saying :—

> "The Provisional Government, of which I am a member, only wants to carry out the wishes of the peoples of Russia; and the representative of this Government, the Governor-General of Finland, is going to do all that is necessary for the Finnish people."

Kerenski also placed a wreath at the foot of the statue of Rüneberg, the national poet, and uncovered his head when the Finnish National Anthem was sung.

The former Socialist Speaker of the Diet, M. Tokoi, was nominated President of the Senate. For the Diet a Speaker and two Vice-Speakers were chosen, Kullervo Manner, Lauri Ingman, and Vaino Jokinen. Manner was a young Finnish Social Democrat who had taken a university degree. Ingman, a Swede of the Swedish party and a clergyman, was Vice-Speaker in 1914; Jokinen was a literary Social Democrat, connected, like Manner, with the workman's journal, *Tyomies*.

(22) *New Diet*.—The Diet reassembled on the very date appointed by the order issued before the Revolution, April 5, 1917. It contained 80 per cent. Social Democrats, 12 per cent. Old and Young Finns, 6 per cent. Swedes, and 2 per cent. Agrarian Labourers. The usual party differences reappeared at once. The bourgeois group discovered that the Diet (elected in 1916)

was "not really representative," because it had been elected at a time when, representation being only a farce, most people had boycotted the Diet, and only the Swedish party and the Socialists (who never gave up the class war in any circumstances) had taken the pains to be returned.

(23) *Political Problems.*—But the trouble did not lie with the Diet, although it might certainly be considered rather stale; the source of all the recent difficulties between Russia and Finland lay considerably deeper. In the first place, the Constitution of 1863, even as amended in 1906, remained very unsatisfactory. As regards internal affairs, it left all the executive power in the hands of the Senate, which was not even, as recently nominated, a fully representative body. Its legislative and executive powers were dependent on the will of the Russian Government. All Bills passed by Diet and Senate had to be confirmed by the rulers of Russia, whoever they might be; and these same rulers could dissolve the Diet at will, and omit to call it together again even when re-elected.

In the second place, the Revolution, the general unrest, and the very precarious financial condition of Russia were a natural source of alarm to the still prosperous little country which was then united to her. Financial prosperity, as regards the State, was no new thing to Finland. In spite of the threats of the 1910 law, Finland had remained, as she always was from the beginning, financially independent of Russia, raising and administering her own revenues. Also, as we have said, the various Russian Administrations had never taken advantage of their power to mishandle Finnish finance. Even in 1900 there was wealth enough in the Duchy to have paid its debt several times over; and the amount of capital had greatly increased since then.

Thus, during the last three years, capitalism had grown more powerful; and it was the capitalists of Finland who were most anxious to cut off all communication with the huge, bankrupt, and distracted country that lay to the east of them. It might be that the dictates of self-preservation would urge the governors of Russia to swallow up Finland and her gains, legally or illegally, in the effort to stave off bankruptcy; but self-preservation equally called upon the Finnish bourgeois parties to resist such action to the last. Their patriotism and their interests alike demanded it.

The Social Democratic point of view was slightly different. Possibly they believed that a Socialist Government would permanently gain power in Russia, and would be likely to repudiate all the crushing financial obligations which previous Governments had undertaken; possibly also the seizure of Finnish capital would hasten the birth of a co-operative Commonwealth in Finland. However that may be, although both parties have used words signifying " independence " in the loosest manner, the Social Democrats hoped, as will be seen that Finland would hold towards Russia a position more like that of the English Dominions than anything else. They demanded complete internal and economic freedom for Finland, but they were always ready to recognise Russia's supremacy in military matters and in foreign policy.

(24) *Question of Independence.*—The Diet met on April 5; and already, on the 8th, one of Finland's leading moderate papers published a long sober, and explicit article upon the future of Finland. In this every form of autonomy was considered and dismissed as unsatisfactory, and complete independence was distinctly shadowed forth. The ideal of the writer and his party

was a State like Switzerland, whose independence should be guaranteed by the European Powers in their own interest. The whole article was marked by a singular detachment from the war and from European affairs generally; and this characterised a good deal of Finnish journalism at that time. The danger of Finland falling into German hands was never contemplated; and, strange to say, none of the parties then accused each other of intriguing with Germany, though the charge of "courting Russia" was very freely bandied about.

The Finnish Socialists hoped for an autonomy in which they would conduct their own affairs and administer their own revenues in perfect freedom, not even paying a military indemnity, while Russia undertook the duty of keeping up an army to protect them from invasion. Meantime, there was hardly a Socialist in the country who was not Maximalist and anti-militarist, averse even from a democratic Citizen Army, maintained for purposes of order and defence. This forced them into the unpleasant position of "courting Russia"—that is, the Russian garrisons in Finland—and depending upon that uncertain factor, the Russian soldier, to support them in their active differences with the bourgeoisie. For a few months the Russian garrisons did support them; but, as common-sense would have foreseen, this alien army of occupation, starved, unpaid, full of internal dissension, soon began to prey upon the civilian population. Having disposed of their officers and any bourgeois element that remained among them, some of these soldiers entered the Finnish Red Guard, and some wandered about the country as bandits; while the Social Democrats, who had lost reputation and support by trying to cajole these barbarians, were utterly unable to handle them. By September

1917 all parties in Finland had terribly good reasons for desiring to be rid of the Russian soldiery, whether they called themselves Red Guards or not.

Thus the Russian Revolution only increased the internal difficulties of Finland; while the vigorous campaign for autonomy or independence which was at once entered upon neither improved the situation nor united the opposing parties. Unhappily, the Russian Provisional Government showed a kind of weak obstinacy; having restored the unsatisfactory Finnish Constitution, they made it quite clear that they did not mean to grant any further degree of autonomy.

(25) *Domestic Policy.*—The domestic policy of the Diet, that is to say, of the Social Democratic majority, was, in the main, this: not to attempt any large measures of collective reorganization until the economic situation was ripe; to allow the capitalist development of the country to follow its own course, merely introducing reforms such as total prohibition, the eight hours' day, and the democratisation of the municipal councils. Food Control Committees already existed in every commune; maximum food prices were fixed; and a war bonus was added to the wage of all workers, part being paid by the employer and part by the State.

The fuel supply was controlled by the municipality; butter and milk also were subject to control; and bread and sugar cards were in operation. Some of this necessary work had been carried out under the pre-Revolution Senate; the rest was done in the early days of April. On April 18, 1917, the metal-workers' union organized a strike asking for an eight hours' day, with increased wages; and their deputations and their demands were supported by the Russian soldiers. There appears no reason why an eight hours' day Bill should not have been passed through the Diet and the Senate in the

ordinary parliamentary manner, and then, if necessary, have been put into working without reference to Russia; but in these days a passion for strikes and processions had seized the Finns.

A committee representing many Finns and some 4,000 Russian soldiers notified Manner, the Speaker of the Diet, that they were prepared to take charge of all municipal works if the eight hours' day were not at once granted; whereupon the town councillors gave in. This change applied to the iron trade and to all municipal workers; in the paper trade it was already the rule. At the end of May the Diet drew up a proposal for an eight hours' day in all trades (overtime being paid 50 per cent. extra during the first two hours and 100 per cent. extra for any further period). Under the industrial pressure then ruling in the country, this measure did not really mean less work and a healthier life, but only larger wages.

(26) *Strikes.*—Upon the declaration of the Revolution the police force in Finland was greatly disorganised, for many of the gendarmerie were Russian, and some of the others were Finns of doubtful character. All these were dismissed, and their places taken by a body called the "militia," mainly Socialists, and officered, where possible, by members of the old Red Guard. The Moderates then established special constables of their own, and a similar militia called the White Guard. The disturbing strike habit affected this militia, as well as the fire brigades, who demanded better pay and different chiefs. Their demands were conceded. A strong feeling of lawlessness and a desire to reach the ideal co-operative State by short cuts was in the air all over the country. At the end of May (a very disturbed time in Finland) the Social Democrats,

wishing to make quick work with the reform of the municipalities, and not waiting for the completion of the usual parliamentary forms, demanded that 51 per cent. of the town council seats in every town should be given up to them without election. The proportion of their party in all the towns may have justified this demand; but, to its detriment, the movement was supported by the Russian soldiery. In some of the provinces this forcible reform was not successful.

From the middle of May until the end of August almost every trade or committee that could go on strike or resign appears to have done so; and there is no evidence that those of the community who happened not to be striking resented it. A long printers' strike took place; and from the beginning of July to the middle of August no Moderate papers appeared. *Tyomies* and the local Social Democrat journals continued, however, to be published. The Food Control Committee resigned; and finally Tokoi, who might be called the Prime Minister of the Coalition Cabinet, resigned also, for reasons presently to be considered. But, by the end of August, political events became so interesting that economic questions were allowed to rest; and the prospect of the elections for the new Diet took hold of people's minds. Meantime, the course of politics had been as follows.

(27) *Resolutions for Autonomy.*—When Kerenski first visited Helsingfors, at the end of March 1917, a number of proposals were made to him by the Social Democrats bearing on the autonomy of Finland. These entailed the principles we have already described, placing Finland on something like the footing of an English Dominion, politically and economically independent of Russia, leaving only matters of foreign policy and military

control in Russia's hands. There was also a request for the withdrawal of Russian troops from Finland in time of peace, and a suggestion that this relationship of the Grand Duchy to the Empire should be guaranteed by some European Power. Kerenski gave fair words to these proposals, demurring only to the idea of the guaranty from outside.

In a little while the Senate sent up to Petrograd the very reasonable request that the Provisional Government should confirm all measures passed by the Diet and Senate, hung up by the Tsar and his advisers since 1910. To this request the Provisional Government unfortunately returned a vague and dilatory answer. Then, in the last week of May, the Congress of the Swedish Party passed a resolution favouring the complete separation of the Grand Duchy from Russia. At the time, this resolution really only represented the aims of the Swedish and commercial group, but bourgeois opinion generally rallied to it during the following months. About May 24 Burtsev and Kerenski both visited Finland; and the latter was rather stormily received and much questioned. The Finnish Social Democratic Congress of June 1917 made the position of the party quite clear in a long resolution, containing the following clause :—

> "As an independent republic, free side by side with the free Russia, Finland may have its right place. The Finnish people is, of course, not trying to isolate itself economically from Russia, and cannot disregard the just interests of the Russian people. By voluntary agreement the economical relations of Finland to Russia may be organised, as in other countries."

Then, after receiving unexpected support from some of the Russian people's representatives, on July 18 the Diet took a serious step affecting the Constitution. After much discussion, this body assumed to itself the

supreme power in Finland, *i.e.*, legislative and executive, over all matters, political and economic, without reference to the Senate, the Governor-General, or the Russian Government, only leaving to the latter questions of foreign policy and military control. This measure, which was carried by 136 to 55 votes, runs as follows :—

The law of administration of the highest State power in Finland.

Herewith be proclaimed :

The powers of the monarch having ceased, the following statutes are declared to be in force by the Finnish Diet :

(1) The Diet of Finland alone passes, sanctions, and proclaims all Finnish laws, including those which concern the State Budget, taxation, and Customs. The Diet decides ultimately all questions which, according to the statutes hitherto, were decided by the Emperor and Grand Duke. The regulations of this law apply not to foreign politics, and not to military legislation and military administration.

(2) The Finnish Diet assembles for the legal session without a special call, and itself decides its dissolution. Until a new Constitution is ratified the Diet exercises the right to dissolve and proclaim new elections.

(3) The Diet has the right to decide the executive power of the country. This power shall be provisionally exercised by the Economic Department of the Finnish Senate, the members of which the Diet shall nominate and dismiss.

The weakness of the original Constitution was that it left all the executive and much of the legislative power in the hands of the Senate. The Diet, as the only directly representative body, was obviously entitled to the supreme power, as expressing the will of the people. After the reception of their recent request to the Provisional Government, the Finns could hardly have been expected to send this Bill to Petrograd for confirmation; but the question was raised by a Young Finn, and a majority (104 to 86) voted against doing so.

However, an address was forwarded to the Provisional Government explaining the situation, and claiming that, since Finland had always been in relation with the Tsars of Russia, and not with any Russian Government, the dissolution of the Tsardom had automatically set the country free. Yet the Finns were quite willing to enter into new relations with Russia, so long as the claims of the Diet to supreme rule in Finland were recognised, leaving foreign policy and military control to the larger power. But all parties absolutely refused to be represented on any sort of Council of Empire.[1] This matter was concluded by July 20. The Provisional Russian Government met it by passing a resolution very soon after declaring that in no circumstances could they consent to the separation of Finland from Russia.

(28) *The Diet and the Russian Provisional Government.*—At the end of July came a wordy answer from the Provisional Government to the Finnish Senate's Address, dissolving the Diet, and fixing the date of re-election for the beginning of October. Certain *pourparlers* took place between Governor-General Stakhovich and the Finnish leaders, which came to nothing. Meanwhile (August 17 and 18), the Russian Federalist Congress was held at Petrograd. Its object was " to work out a basis upon which the federalists could unite, and then prepare for the elections to a Constituent Assembly." They also hoped to form plans for a Republic of All the Russias, in which the various nations comprised in Russia would unite, having complete autonomy in everything except matters relating to the whole and united Russian State. Obviously, everything turned on the definition of these

[1] The Finns of all parties have from the beginning been most anxious to avoid taking any part in Russian affairs—the Chambers of Commerce excepted.

matters; and the leading Finnish Moderate paper, considering this point, found that the sphere of business "relating to the whole united Russian States" was so large that Finland would hardly be better off than she was under the 1910 law. Unfortunately—for it drew the Finnish Socialists into sympathy with the extreme Russian party—the All-Russian Congress of Workers and Soldiers (C.W.S.D.), meeting early in July, had passed a resolution demanding autonomy for Finland, and requiring the Provisional Government to grant full executive powers to the Diet.

The nation, or rather the townsfolk, were much excited; and by August 16 certain proposals for a "general strike" were carried, against the wish of Manner and Tokoi. It was also decided that the Diet should reassemble as soon as possible; to which the Governor-General retorted by threatening that the doors of the Assembly House should be guarded and sealed. However, the stable elements of Finnish life, the country people and the men upon the land, saw no reason for a general strike; so, after two or three days of disturbances, the ill-considered revolt collapsed.

About the same time the Russian Provisional Government suggested that the Finnish Senate, particularly the Economy Department, should have the supreme power in Finland, and embodied this proposal in a letter on September 2. Tokoi now gave up the unwieldy business of the Coalition Senate, saying that in times of stress and danger no Coalition Government, especially one so evenly balanced as this body of twelve, could carry on affairs. He must have, he declared, a small, strong, representative Government which possessed the confidence of the country. The Social Democrat senators resigned; and, after some trouble, a handful of Moderates was induced to form a Senate to carry on

business. The resignation of the Socialists was most regrettable, for on August 24 the Provisional Government ratified a number of reforming measures passed by the Diet and Senate between 1911 and 1914. However, since it was left to an inimical Senate to carry these out, they proved of small use; and the country had once more cause to complain of ill-considered Socialist action.

The Moscow Conference, held on August 25, passed almost unnoticed. It was practically indifferent upon many matters, but unhappily the members showed briskness and unanimity in expressing a desire to retain all the power over Finland that the restored Constitution might give them.

On August 29 some hundred deputies, mainly Social Democrats, went to the Assembly House, were refused admittance by a sentry and troops, and retired in an orderly way. Manner then lodged a protest with the Governor-General. Afterwards the same deputies returned to the old Assembly House to hold a session. But they were only 79 in number (all Socialists), and not wholly united, since they merely passed, by 9 votes, a resolution declaring that the sitting they held was a legal one. This marks a momentary return to sense in contemporary Finnish politics; for the failure of the proposed general strike showed an abatement of the strike fever, and the affairs of August 29 were conducted in an orderly way, without any endeavour to influence the Russian soldier. Nekrasov was appointed Governor-General on September 20, in place of Stakhovich, but the change made very little difference in the course of affairs.

The country was for the time concerned with two things, the elections and the possible shortage of food. It was easy to see that famine threatened Finland.

Much labour had been diverted from production for use at home to production for exchange and profit; while the great difficulty of getting from abroad the most important produce, corn, has prevented Finland from re-establishing itself on a new basis as an industrial country living on foreign supplies. The problem was aggravated by the presence of at least 20,000 Russian summer visitors, who flocked to Finland in the hope of quiet; and nearly as many more drifted in during the autumn and early winter.

The Swedish party and the commercial elements of Finland went to the country with the cry of "Independence, Law, and Order!" The Swedes, at any rate, were clear that they wanted absolute independence as a free State, guaranteed by the Powers at the Peace Congress. They were not averse from that idea of a Baltic Union (a federation of Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Finland) which many friends of the Baltic countries have long desired. The Young Finns, the Old Finns, and the Social Democrats were agreed in one thing—they all opposed Russia's claim to sovereign power over Finland. The attitude of the two former parties concerning absolute independence was not quite clear; at any rate, they did not place this in the foreground. The Social Democrats would have been content with a guaranteed autonomy, leaving foreign policy and military affairs to Russia.

(29) *Diet of November* 1917.—The elections for the Diet, concluded on October 2, 1917, proved a set-back to the Social Democrats. They returned only 92 members to the Diet; while the Old and Young Finns had 61, the Swedish party 21, and the Agrarians, a growing party, 26. These last three parties formed a Moderate *bloc* of 108, in which the

Agrarians were the most uncertain factor. In Finland, as in Russia (although social conditions are very different), the land is the crux of all questions, political and economical. As in Russia, again, there are powerful co-operative societies and a national gift for co-operative action, but the majority of the land workers, although doing lip-service to Marxian economics, had set their hearts on some form of peasant proprietorship. Much Finnish agriculture was carried on under almost feudal conditions; the *torpare* paid rent for their little farms, like the Balkan peasants, in produce and labour, and were nearly starved. Many independent small farmers had been squeezed out by the timber companies, which bought up the forests all round them for wood-pulp, or simply for fuel. Finally, there were the "Crown tenants" on the State lands, holding their farms on good terms. Now, the Moderate parties had for years prevented the Socialists from amending the condition of the *torpare*, while the Socialists were averse from any measures—such as the general allotment of all Crown lands that would bear tillage—tending to increase the small proprietor class. Thus, nothing was done during the summer of 1917 to increase production. All parties looked forward to the winter with anxiety; the Governor-General tried to obtain a supply of wheat from Russia; and Tokoi succeeded in buying 40,000 tons of corn from America, but the difficulties of transport were such that the foodstuffs were not even on their way before civil war began.

On November 1 the Diet assembled, and the Socialists made great efforts to carry out the proposals of the United Trades Unions (*Landes-organisation*) that all food supplies should be inventoried and placed in the hands of the municipal and rural food control com-

mittees, maximum prices fixed, and all untilled or badly tilled lands taken by the State. But the Diet was entirely occupied with the political question, whether the Senate (through its Economy Department) or the Diet should hold the supreme power. It was finally settled in a very long sitting on November 15 that the Diet should exercise the supreme power until further notice. This was proposed by Alkio, leader of the Agrarians; and his party, together with some 25 Radical members of the Moderate *bloc*, carried it. The so-called "communal laws," which put the municipal vote and some of the affairs of the rural communes on a proper democratic footing, were also carried, with a Bill for the eight hours' day. On November 28 the Diet chose a Moderate Senate of eleven members.

(30) *Bolshevik Revolution.*—Meanwhile, events had gone fast and far in Russia. On September 14 the Provisional Government was reconstructed; a preliminary Parliament of the Russian Republic was opened on October 20, and the Maximalists left the Chamber; between November 4 and 15 the Bolsheviks or Maximalists were establishing themselves in power. It was inevitable that the Socialist party in Finland, thrown into sympathy with the Bolsheviks by the regrettable policy of Kerenski's Government. should weigh the pros and cons of a similar *coup d'état*. They considered the matter in sober Finnish fashion, and decided against it. Equally inevitable was it that the Moderate *bloc* should be more determined than ever to break free from Russia. Some of their leaders openly discussed the chances of union with Sweden, and of the adoption of some German prince as Grand Duke. The advent of the Bolsheviks to power made no change in the views of either group; it merely deepened the pro-

Russian sympathies of the Socialists and the pro-German leanings of the Moderates. German arms and explosives were now imported by one side and Russian bayonets by the other.

Seeing the general disorder of the country, and the inability of the Finns to get rid of the Russian troops quartered upon them, it is no wonder that the Moderate press wrote openly of reconstructing the old national army. By December 1 proposals to this effect were made in the Diet, but the Socialist groups, supported by some of the Moderates, combined to reject them

(31) *Russian Troops in Finland.*—Meanwhile, the condition of Finland with regard to the Russian troops quartered there was simply appalling. These were not paid, and certain Finnish contractors allowed the Russian Government credit while providing them with food and clothing, which they supplemented by looting. Sometimes whole Russian regiments would demand special trains to Petrograd, which were thankfully furnished, and they embarked; but there was no means of hindering their return. And they did return, after helping themselves freely to Government stores in Petrograd, bringing back sugar, coffee, and other necessaries, including rubber, which they sold at fancy prices in Helsingfors, making themselves a little less unwelcome, it is true, by this course of action. Negotiations for getting rid of the Russian troops went on; and both parties were unanimous in the desire to be freed of them. About the middle of December arrangements were made for a considerable loan from Finland to Russia, to be used by the Russian Government in paying off the Finnish contractors; and some 10,000 Russians were sent back to Russia. But shortly afterwards 16,000 Russian soldiers reappeared in Finland as Red Guards—whether to oppose the growing German

influence in the Baltic, or to bring about the Finnish Revolution and so unite Finland and Russia again, who shall say?

(32) *Declaration of Independence.*—Towards the end of November there was much inconclusive talk in the Diet about the form of the future Government. However, all agreed that the declaration of November 15, reaffirming the law of July 18, amounted to a Declaration of Independence for the Finnish Republic. Therefore, on December 6, the leaders of the various Moderate parties drew up and signed a declaration inviting the Diet, as exercising the supreme power, to authorise the Executive to take all necessary steps to make Finland's independence known. The Socialists did not sign this, and proposed instead a declaration which, while recognising the supreme power of the Diet and the independence of Finland, continued: "This independence must be realised by means of a mutual understanding with Russia." They also proposed a Commission, made up of an equal number of Finns and Russians, to discuss a basis for this understanding. But the Moderate majority were in a hurry, and threw out the proposal by 102 votes to 88.

Delegates were thereupon sent to Sweden and Germany, while at the same time a Socialist deputation went to Russia. Trotski told the latter that Russia would be perfectly ready to recognise Finland's independence if this were put before them, in proper order, by the Finnish Executive. Meanwhile, Sweden and Germany both replied that Finland must first obtain a Russian recognition of her independence by applying to the Constituent Assembly. This was not allowed to meet in December; so the Senate and Diet appealed to the Bolshevik Government for a formal

recognition, which was given by January 4, 1918; and Sweden and Germany then followed suit. Delegates were also sent to France, England, and the United States to ask for full formal recognition in both places, but France was the only one of the three which acquiesced.

(33) *Domestic Disturbances.* — The declaration of independence did not eliminate internal troubles. No wheat could be conveyed from the United States, although bought and paid for; and a serious disturbance of several days occurred at Åbo, about Christmas-time, which kept the town in a state of siege, and occasioned the loss of much property and several lives. Trouble had been brewing for a long while. The Socialists, who were anxious to appoint a partisan of their own as Governor of Åbo, took the step of imprisoning the man who held the post, and then the chief of police. The police consisted of two antagonistic bodies—the White Guard or militia, which contained some members of the old gendarmerie; and the Red Guard, a body not specially well fitted in this case to maintain order. However, they went on with their duties for a week after their pay had been suspended by the Moderate powers in Åbo. Then they struck; and the Russian troops and "hooligan elements," for which neither party would be responsible, seized their opportunity. After some days' trouble the original Red Guard and some more White Guards from another district restored order. After this it was not surprising that proposals were made in the Diet by Senator Castrèn to form a central body, under command of the Government, to work together with the sharpshooters (part of the White Guard) for the maintenance of law and order. This

was discussed for ten hours, without result, on January 11, and finally agreed to by the 17th.

The forcible closing of the Constituent Assembly in Russia on January 19, with some attendant slaughter, furnished an example which was fatal to Finland; but, even now, the outbreak might have been delayed for a month or two if the question of the Åland Isles had not become pressing. The revelations of Tsarist diplomacy published by Trotski showed that Russia had hoped to see the embargo on her desire to fortify the Åland Isles removed. This meant danger to Sweden. It appears that some important members of the Moderate *bloc* invited the Swedish Government to occupy these isles as a preliminary to landing in Finland, and aiding the bourgeoisie to "crush revolution." Certainly, the leading paper of the Swedish party (which stood to lose much influence and many voters if the Åland Isles went to Sweden) wrote in favour of the cession of these islands to that country.[1]

(34) *Outbreak of Civil War.*—On January 29 the Finnish Government—that is, the Senate—addressed to the various countries which had recognised Finnish independence a protest concerning the action of the Russian Government, which was sending arms, munitions, and troops into Finland ostensibly to help the Social Democrats. The Red Guards seized Helsingfors on January 29; and by February 8 White Guards and Red Guards were in full conflict everywhere. Mannerheim, a Russian Cavalry General, and Von der Goltz, a Bavarian, were directing the Whites, with German arms and the promise of German-trained Finnish troops —the remnant of those same 2,000 Finnish exiles who

[1] For further particulars regarding this subject, see *The Åland Islands*, No. 48 of this series.

joined the German Army in the first years of the war. Branting offered to mediate on February 12, but his offer was not accepted. The Germans landed in the Åland Isles on March 3, and in Finland about the 12th. They helped the Whites to regain Tammerfors and Helsingfors, and gradually rolled the Red Army back eastward to Russia. The war ended in the complete victory of the Whites.

In the beginning of June 1918, a Moderate Landtdag was formed, by excluding all Socialists—that is, 46 per cent. of the electorate—from the register; and the Senate brought forward proposals for a monarchical form of government, while a number of smaller steps were taken to bring Finland into close relations with the German Empire. Such opposition as there was came chiefly from the Young Finns; but, in spite of severe press censorship, some Swedo-Finnish journals were able to express their disapproval of this pro-German policy. Early in October a secret session of the Landtdag offered the Finnish Crown to a German prince by a vote of 64 to 41. This personage showed no hurry to accept the position, and signified that he could not enter upon his duties for at least two years Upon this vote of the Landtdag, France withdrew her recognition of Finnish independence.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) Religious

"The religion of Finland is Lutheran, and some of the country people are very pious." Such is the stereotyped answer which was given to any question about the religious feeling of the Finns up to 1914, and it would have been superficially true. Like the other Scandinavian countries, Finland was affected by "Pietism" in the earlier part of the nineteenth century. This was a Protestant revival of strongly ascetic character, which increased the natural sobriety and melancholy of the people. But the pastors of the Church were in the first place, as a rule, State officials; and in the first period of Russian repression they lost influence with their flocks by supporting the Government. After the Russian revolt of 1905, and in the years that followed, it would be nearly true to say: "The religion of Finland is Nationalism and Democracy."

(2) Political

The present political conditions (November, 1918) are too confused and unstable to be described here, but the aims and character of the different parties may be gathered from the preceding section.

(3) Educational

The educational standard of Finland has always been very high. It was second only to Denmark in 1908; and certainly 96 per cent. (if not more) of the Finnish inhabitants are literate. (We must exclude the

Laplanders in Arctic Finland and the gipsies.) Education being free, sectarian, and compulsory, scholarships numerous, and the educational ladder a real fact, it is hardly an exaggeration to say that all the bourgeoisie and a good number of the rising proletariat before the war had been through the universities. Besides this there were adult schools on the Danish system for country workers; and the Social Democrats continued the education of their own people, very few of whom entered the universities. Thus there was never a university opinion distinct from popular bourgeois feeling, all the bourgeoisie having been students.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The sense of common danger seems to have appeased, for the time being, the violent racial differences between the Swedish Party and the Young and Old Finns. In 1908, their mutual recriminations in the press were exceedingly bitter. But in the autumn of 1917 even the Young Finns and the Agrarians never detached themselves from the Moderate *bloc*, nor did they make any effective protest against the pro-German policy of the Government. They fought in the White Army, and few followed the example of Mannerheim in leaving the country when German troops landed.

The Social Democrats have issued a programme of which the chief items are: The removal of German troops; the safeguarding of Finland's independence; the maintenance of absolute neutrality; negotiation with the Western Powers for help in food and clothing; dissolution of the present Landtdag, new elections, and release of political prisoners; reduction of the army to a minimum.

In spite of famine, the Finns have been far-seeing enough to keep the chief necessities of their dairy trade with Denmark ready for use directly peace is proclaimed. For instance, the prize-cattle strains have been preserved. They also count upon resuming their timber trade with England shortly, and have immense quantities of sawn wood ready for shipment. But many look to an expansion of trade with Russia, and an extended railway system which would make Finland the wharf, as it were, of Russian north-western traffic. The Kandaiakska and Kola Railway is not thought highly of by commercial authorities. It is a military line leading, through country that is not attractive even to sporting tourists, up to a port where the daylight is only four hours long for a good part of the year. These commercial authorities are very anxious to see the great Siberian trunk railway completed, which would connect Sordavala, on Lake Ladoga, with a line running south of Lake Onega and then due east to Samaravskaia at the junction of the Obi and Irtish rivers. Sordavala has already a good connection with the Helsingfors-Petrograd line; and only a very few extra miles of railway are needed to make the Sordavala-Åbo line direct and complete. The Siberian trunk line was planned and concessions had been granted before the war; the concession-holders are ready and anxious to take it up.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) Internal

(*a*) *Roads*

There are 27,500 miles of post-roads in Finland. By an ancient law of the country the landowners are compelled to keep these in order, and in general perform this duty satisfactorily. The obligation to maintain a system of post-stations at fixed charges, with relays of horses, was imposed upon landowners in the sixteenth century, and still exists where passenger traffic by road is the necessary means of communication. Owing to the vast area of Finland which is under water, traffic on local roads is largely transferred to the lakes from April to November. In the winter months cross-country traffic is carried on by means of sledges. As the entire area is solidly frozen over and snow-covered from December to April, traffic can go by the shortest line from point to point over land and water indifferently.

In north-eastern Finland and in Karelia there are tracks known only to the local inhabitants, and no metalled roads exist at all.

(*b*) *Rivers and Canals*

Communication by water plays a very important part in the internal economy of Finland, under conditions which in Europe are almost unique. The actual length of navigable waterway in the country is 3,560 kilometres. The traffic by water is under State control.

For the greater part of their length the rivers are almost useless for navigation, owing to the sharpness of the fall from the lacustrine plateau, which constitutes the greater part of the country except in the northern regions. The rivers are therefore of strong current, with frequent falls and rock-strewn rapids. These characteristics, however, make them the ideal means of floating timber from the interior to the sea, and this is an important industry (see below, p. 100).

Two other means of traffic by water remain, by canal and by lake. These two are so interwoven in their working that they must be considered together, and divided for purposes of description into a series of systems, usually named after the principal lake-basin.

The foremost in importance is that known as the Saima. Willmanstrand, at the southern end of this large sheet of water, is 59 kilometres from Wiborg, on the Gulf of Finland, with which it was connected in 1856 by a canal, which remains substantially of its original dimensions to-day. It is 59 kilometres long, and has 28 locks to overcome the difference in level between Lake Saima and the Baltic. These locks are 35 metres long, 7·42 metres wide, and 2·67 metres deep, and the tonnage of vessels is restricted to the capacity which these dimensions allow. Connected with this system are other short canals at Taipale, Kounus, Ahkionlaks, and Nerkoo, completed 1867–71, with locks of the same dimensions, which serve to create a continuous chain of waterways from the Gulf of Finland to northern Savolaks. The cost of the Saima Canal in all was Fmk.[1] 23,000,000, and it has been increasingly successful from the date of its opening. The latest figures show that over 10,000 vessels pass through it annually, and it should be recollected that

[1] Finnish marks. See p. 114.

navigation is closed for at least four months every year.

The second system in importance is that of the Lake Päijänne basin. The original project was to connect this system with the sea by canalizing the Kymenne river, but this was abandoned, and the canal was only brought far enough to connect with the railway between Wiborg and Riihimäki. Canals from Lake Päijänne to Lakes Keitele and Konnevesi give this system a total length of 600 kilometres, capable of accommodating vessels drawing from 1·8 to 2·1 metres.

The third important system is that of west Tavastland, with a navigable length of 730 kilometres for vessels drawing up to 1·8 metres.

In Österbotten there is the canalized portion of the river Uleå (Oulu), with locks 22 metres long, 2·38 metres wide, and 1·19 metres deep. This system was instituted to accommodate the pitch and tar traffic, which is carried in oared boats.

To facilitate navigation in the lake portions of the systems above mentioned many hundreds of kilometres of channel are buoyed and lighted.

The average quantity of goods transported annually in vessels on the canal systems from 1908 to 1912 inclusive was 320,000 tons. Besides this, vast quantities of timber were carried, mainly on rafts. The total quantity of all kinds of goods averaged over 2,000,000 tons annually during the same period. These are official figures, to which is appended a note that the totals are in some cases too high, because some of the goods pass through several canals and are thus reckoned more than once.

(*c*) *Railways*

The Finnish railway system belongs almost in its entirety to the State. Less than 10 per cent. of the

mileage in 1913 belonged to private companies, which, moreover, worked in conjunction with the State lines. This percentage has recently been further reduced by purchase on the part of the State. The State does not lease any lines, but works the complete system itself.

As Finland's situation renders it of high importance in the strategic plans for the defence of the Russian Empire, the Russian Great Staff have the right to take over control of the Finnish railways, if circumstances in their view demand it. In the recent war they have done so. Lately, an extraordinary strain has been thrown upon a large portion of the lines owing to the fact that by these lines alone can goods and passengers be brought into Russia from western Europe and eastern America. Archangel has long been closed to private traffic, and the Trans-Siberian line has been too much congested with war-traffic, and too slow and costly, to be much used. The result has been chronic congestion of the Finnish lines and the putting of the system to a totally different use from that for which it was designed. Briefly, before the war the Finnish railways were of national importance only, with short haulage and sectional working; now, a large portion of the mileage is of international importance, with long hauls (extreme, 1,185 kilometres) and main-line working.

A description of the line from Petrograd to Torneå, the frontier town opposite Haparanda in Sweden, at the head of the Gulf of Bothnia, will make this clear. The full run is now covered by through passenger and goods trains, and all passengers entering Russia from the west use it. Leaving Petrograd in a north-westerly direction, the line reaches the Finnish frontier at Bjeloostrow (20 miles). Continuing *via* Terijoki (the first Finnish station and custom-house), Wiborg is the

first important place. Thence the line proceeds in a westerly direction to Kuovola (with a branch southward to Kotka), thence to Riihimäki (with a branch to Helsingfors). Resuming a north-westerly direction the line passes Tavastehus, Toijala (with a branch to Åbo), Tammerfors (with a branch to Björneborg), and for the remainder of the distance runs in a due northerly or north-easterly direction to Torneå. The principal intermediate stations are Seinäjoki (with a branch to Vasa), Gamla Karleby, Paavola (with a branch to Brahestad), Uleåborg, and Kemi (with a branch to Rovaniemi, a great timber centre).

The work of this line is to carry passengers between Torneå and Petrograd, to carry goods, land-borne in Sweden as far as Haparanda, into Russia, and to carry goods sea-borne from Swedish harbours to Finnish Bothnian ports from the place of landing to the destination in Finland or Russia.

The remaining lines are: (1) from Wiborg *via* Elisevara (with a branch to Nyslott) and along the north-west shore of Lake Ladoga *via* Sordavala to Joensuu; (2) from Kuovola northward *via* St. Michel and Kuopio to Kajana. The district served is much frequented by tourists.

A new section of line is under construction, the object of which is to create an alternative route between Wasa and other Bothnian ports and Petrograd, and thus relieve the route *via* Tammerfors and Riihimäki. This route runs from Petrograd *via* Hiitola and Kexholm (on Lake Ladoga) to Nyslott, thence westwards to Pieksämäki (between St. Michel and Kuopio on the line mentioned above) and Jyväskylä. In July 1917 it was almost completed, and may be now in use.

The total mileage of the Finnish railways in 1913 was 2,537 English miles. This has been increased

lately by the new lines already mentioned. It is mainly a single line system, but the necessity for doubling all important lines is recognized, and in sections this has been already undertaken. The gauge is 5 ft., the same as that of the Russian railways, the only system with which the Finland lines come into actual contact. The connexion with the Russian system is made at Petrograd by means of loop lines recently constructed in the outskirts of Petrograd. There is no through passenger traffic.

In July 1917 a bridge between Haparanda (Sweden) and Torneå was in a fairly advanced state of construction. Spanning the Torneå river (400 yds. wide) it will, when completed, permit of through traffic and obviate the ferrying or sledging of goods at this point. The Swedish gauge is standard (4′ 8½″), so bulk will have to be broken at the frontier. A system of flat-cars and detachable boxes, such as are in use between London and Paris, will no doubt be used to obviate this in the case of the more highly-rated and urgent classes of traffic.

Steam locomotives are at present used throughout, although electric traction with power supplied from large central hydro-electric stations is a probable future development. Up to 1914 coal fuel, almost all imported from Great Britain, was in use, but wood fuel has now had to be substituted, no coal being available. The locomotives have been supplied from Sweden, Germany, Switzerland, and Great Britain, but the most recent are productions of the State work-shops at Tammerfors, and include some powerful 4-6-0 passenger-traffic engines, capable of hauling the heaviest main-line trains of twelve to fifteen bogie coaches without double-heading.

Owing to the conformation of the country, which has no heights more than a few hundred feet above

sea-level, no outstanding engineering works have been necessary in constructing railways in Finland. The viaducts at Wiborg, Uleåborg, and Kemi over the rivers at these points are sound pieces of overhead girder construction, but merit no special description. The gradients throughout are easy, there being no serious changes of level or natural obstacles to surmount. Tunnels are rare and of short length. The permanent way is composed of flanged rails spiked to transverse sleepers, and is fairly well ballasted on the main lines. It in no way compares with British permanent way for strength and solidity.

As already mentioned, almost the entire system is the property of the State, the private mileage being of local importance only. No concessions to foreigners have been or are likely to be given, nor are private companies likely to be granted leases to construct railways in Finland. An exception may occur in one district (see below, p. 107).

The capital for the railways of Finland has been very largely raised in the country. State railway loans held abroad amount to £1,719,000. The capital cost per mile is £7,300. As the average for Europe is £27,000 per mile, it is plain that construction has been cheap and cost of land low. The gross receipts in 1913 were Fmk. 58,000,000, and the net income averages 16 per cent.

The average annual amount of traffic carried by the State railways during the period 1908–12 was 4,028,000 tons, of which more than 50 per cent. was timber traffic. The next items in importance were grain, bricks and tiles, and paper with paper-pulp.

Before the war the Finnish railways were fairly well equal to the country's needs. The alternative route above mentioned, from Vasa to Petrograd, was planned and surveyed before the war. A new line is

projected from Abo to Riihimäki, in order to shorten the route from Åbo to Petrograd; this is in connexion with the Åbo development scheme (see below, p. 80).

Another important new line projected, and according to recent reports partially constructed, is an extension northward of the existing line from Kemi to Rovaniemi to a terminus at Pechenga, which is situated on a bay in the Arctic Ocean, just within the Russian frontier, adjoining the Norwegian province of Finmark. An ice-free port could be made here. It is an old ambition of the Finns to possess this port, instead of depending entirely on Baltic ports, which are extremely difficult to keep ice-free and are for the most part situated a long way from the best timber-producing regions of the country.

Further mileage on any large scale is not likely to be constructed. Main and branch line doubling and widening will be the principal form of expansion. Concessions for construction and working might possibly be granted to foreigners for these lines, but it is improbable. The people are opposed to it, and accumulated capital in the country itself will find here a needed outlet. The rolling stock will require heavy renewals, and opportunity to tender for supply of locomotives, box-wagons, bogies, rails, and other plant is sure to occur.

(*d*) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

Posts.—The postal system of Finland has up to the present been under Russian control. Russian stamps are in use for all purposes. Finnish stamps for local use are in existence, but Russian stamps can also be used for local correspondence. The parcel-post, money order, international money order, post-office savings-bank and insurance departments are fully developed. The postal cash on delivery is also part of the system.

Either Finnish or Russian money is accepted for all payments except for Finnish local stamps. In general, the staff is Finnish except in the highest grades, and the system is equal to any in western Europe. In 1912 the postal receipts from all sources amounted to Fmk. 7,750,000, and the expenses to Fmk. 6,750,000.

Telegraphs.—These are entirely under Russian control and censorship. The employees are Finns. There is adequate service and prompt delivery internally, but international and Russian telegrams suffer much vexatious delay, having to pass the Petrograd censorship in all cases. The Finnish State railways have a telegraph system of their own, separate from the postal telegraphs, which has the right to transmit private telegrams in the country.

The total length of telegraph line in working in Finland in 1912 was 4,884 miles.

Wireless Telegraphy.—For internal purposes this system of communication plays no part in Finland. Stations exist at Helsingfors and Wiborg, but they are the property of the Russian Admiralty, and no private messages are received or sent.

Telephones.—The telephone system has been brought to a very high pitch of efficiency and cheapness in Finland. It is worked by a series of concessions granted by the State covering local areas. These number several hundreds, and are combined for trunk-line purposes by an agreement which covers the whole country except Osterbotten. The subscriber's fee per instrument varies from 40–60 Fmk. in a large town to as low as 10 Fmk. in a small one, with unlimited calls. Telephones are in very free use in town and country, and public call-boxes in large towns are to be found in squares and streets in great numbers. The standard instrument (of Swedish origin) is handy and efficient; the service is prompt and

correct. Trunk communication with Petrograd is to be had from Helsingfors and other towns, but is bad.

(2) External

(*a*) *Ports*

(i) *Accommodation.*—Owing to the great length of coast-line, the ports of Finland are numerous in proportion to the population and importance of the country. They are, in general, difficult of entry, since nearly the whole of the coast-line is fringed with an archipelago of rocky islands and skerries, but in most cases they are safe in all states of weather.

Tide has small influence in the Gulfs of Bothnia and Finland. From December to February the variation at the Gulf entrances is 4 to 6 centimetres only; at the heads of the Gulfs, 12 to 20 centimetres. From June to August the variation is less than 4 centimetres at the entrances and 10 to 14 centimetres at the extremities of the Gulfs. Tidal influence can be said, therefore, to be negligible, and variations of depth in harbours are due more to wind, strong or long-continued wind from any quarter increasing or decreasing depth by as much as 4 ft. in some cases.

The prevailing wind on the Finnish coast is south-west. Registers show that tempestuous winds (8 Beaufort) blow on an average 169 days in the year, of which 77 are in winter. Real gales (9 Beaufort) occur on an average ten times a year, of which eight are from November to March, and last from three to four hours. December is the worst month for tempests.

Ice plays a large part in navigation to and from Finnish ports. The Gulf of Bothnia is generally closed to navigation entirely from December to April. The Gulf of Finland is also closed from December to

March, but at one or two ports ice-breakers are kept. The greatest effort is made at Hangö, for the sake of the important butter and passenger traffic; this port is usually kept open all the winter by the continuous use of large ice-breakers of 3,000–4,000 horse-power. Ice-breakers also work at Åbo and Helsingfors, two specially successful vessels, constructed in England, being in use at the latter port. So far, this expedient has shortened the period of closed navigation, but has never eliminated it.

Helsingfors.—This is the largest harbour in Finland. It is completely land-locked by the skerries and larger islands which fringe the coast, and is safe in every kind of weather. Besides being the principal commercial port of Finland, it is a highly important Russian naval base, to which the largest battleships have access. In the outer harbour there is good holding ground in perfect shelter, but many of the best anchorages are under the control of the Russian navy. The island-fortress of Sveaborg is in the centre of the outer harbour. The inner harbour is divided into several completely separated parts owing to the heavily accidented nature of the coast. The promontory of Skatudden is completely occupied by the Russian navy, and has repairing shops, slips, &c., for lighter craft. On the opposite side of this promontory is a portion of the commercial harbour with bonded warehouses and rails alongside. This is used for merchandise discharged in bond for eventual re-export to Russia. Opposite lies the town quay, where all local vessels from Revel, Petrograd, and neighbouring Finnish ports discharge, as also those from Lübeck, Stettin, Hull, and Newcastle.

On the west side of the town, which in shape is roughly an isosceles triangle with its base to the north, is Sandviken, a semicircular bay with deep-water

anchorage and considerable quay and wharf space. The wharves are used largely by the Russian navy, but at the wooden quay, which has rails and warehouses alongside, timber vessels load.

The town quays have three 5-ton electric movable jib-cranes and two 2-ton travelling transporters. Vessels drawing from 18 to 26 ft. can come alongside the quays. A dry dock $350 \times 56 \times 18\frac{1}{2}$ ft. is in use. The chief imports are coal, iron and steel, machinery, cotton, and cereals; the exports, timber, paper-pulp, paper, and butter. A ship-repairing yard does dry-docking and general ship-repairs.

Hangö.—This port has had special importance hitherto, as it can generally be kept open throughout the winter by means of ice-breakers. The State railway authorities own the port, and have done everything possible to keep it in first-class order.

There are 30 ft. of water alongside the mole; and there is a quay 500 ft. long, with sheds and cranes. Two powerful ice-breakers are kept. There are no port charges. The imports are coal, cotton, and general merchandise; the exports, timber, wood-pulp, paper, butter. A great effort has been made to keep open the passenger traffic to Sweden all the winter by means of a specially-constructed steamer. Owing, however, to unexpected difficulties with pack-ice, which hinders the approach in windy weather, it has recently been decided to incur no further expenditure at Hangö, but to transfer activity to the port of Åbo (see below, p. 80).

Åbo.—This port is 50 miles from the open sea, being deeply inset in a mass of skerries and rocky islands. There are 20 ft. of water in harbour and 18 ft. at the quays, but only vessels drawing up to 17 ft. can get up to the town. A patent slip for repairing will take vessels up to 1,100 tons. The general imports are coal and coke, iron, groceries, cereals, and

manufactured goods. The exports are principally timber and butter. An important project for creating a free port at Åbo is in contemplation (see below, p. 80).

Vasa, also sometimes known as *Nikolaistad*, lies on the north side of a long inlet from the Gulf of Bothnia, and is a well-sheltered harbour, being protected by the island of Valgrund and a fringe of smaller islands. There is a general depth of 20–22 ft. in the outer harbour, where vessels can load by lighter. At the quay in the inner harbour there are 13 ft. of water. Vessels up to 400 tons can be docked and repaired.

Wiborg.—This port is situated on a deep inlet of the Gulf of Finland, and is completely safe in all weathers. Vessels drawing up to 14 ft. can reach Wiborg; those drawing up to 15 ft. can load at the outport of Drangsund, 10 miles from Wiborg, where there is an 18-ton crane. The imports are general colonial produce, cereals, and manufactured articles; the exports, timber, wood-pulp, and butter.

Björneborg.—This port is now in small use, as there is only a depth of 9 ft. in the Kumo river on which it is situated. It is served by two outports, Räfsö and Mäntyluoto, respectively 18 and 12 miles nearer the sea, and connected with Björneborg by rail.

At *Räfsö* there is good holding-ground in 31 ft. of water in the roads, but vessels cannot load, as it is too exposed. In the harbour there is perfect safety, with 12 to 20 ft. of water. The depth at the quays is 10 to 12 ft. Loading and discharging is effected by lighters.

At *Mäntyluoto* there is a stone quay 984 ft. in length, with rails alongside and three large warehouses, three sheds, and a 35-ton crane. The depth of water alongside is 18 to 22 ft. The imports are coal, coke, chemicals, cereals, and general produce; the exports, sawn wood, pit-wood, and pulp.

Kotka.—This important and well-protected port for the export of wood and wood products consists of three parts: Kotka proper, West Harbour or Keisarhammen, and East Harbour or Halla. All three have separate entrances. The depth at entrance is 54 ft., in harbour 26 to 45 ft., and at the quays 12 to 20 ft. Vessels loading wood always lie at anchor and load from lighters. Wood-pulp is loaded at the quay at Halla, other merchandise at Kotka. There is quay space of 900 ft. with a railway alongside and two cranes of 8 and 10 tons respectively.

Gamla Karleby.—There is a depth of 12 to 25 ft. of water in the harbour, which is safe in all winds, and has a breakwater at the entrance. There are two piers with rails alongside. The imports are coal, cereals; the exports, lumber, pit-wood, and sawn wood.

Uleåborg.—This port lies at the mouth of the Uleå river. The depth alongside the quays is 14 to 18 ft., dependent on wind. The imports are coal, iron, and colonial produce; the exports, tar, pitch, lumber, sawn wood, fish, and butter.

(ii) *Nature and volume of trade.*—The total number of vessels entering Finnish ports in the year 1913 was 11,901 vessels, of 3,696,330 tons. Departures numbered 11,937 vessels, of 3,628,905 tons. In general it may be said that Finnish ports are entered entirely by vessels from western European ports north of the Bay of Biscay. Such goods as are received from greater distances are trans-shipped at Hamburg, Hull, Newcastle, Rotterdam, Antwerp, or a Swedish port.

For passenger traffic, Helsingfors comes first with regular lines to Hull, Newcastle, Lübeck, Stettin, Stockholm, Revel, and Petrograd, besides local traffic to Borga, Lovisa, and other small towns on the Gulf of Finland. Åbo has a regular daily

line to Stockholm. Hangö is especially used in winter when all other ports are closed. For the timber trade, Kotka is prominent, with sailings to all North Sea destinations. Butter traffic goes from Helsingfors, Hangö, and Åbo to British and German ports. Coal from England and timber exports to England are distributed fairly among all the ports. German manufactured goods largely come in at Helsingfors. Cereals and flour, chiefly of American origin, arrive from Hull, Newcastle, or Hamburg at Helsingfors, Wiborg, Åbo, and in less quantities at Bothnian ports.

Domestic traffic is small, and consists mostly of the distribution of imported manufactures, cereals, and colonial produce from Helsingfors to smaller places on the Gulf of Finland. An exception must be made of the local traffic in wood fuel, carried in small sailing vessels of from 20 to 100 tons everywhere along the coast, and loaded and discharged at places of purely local importance with primitive appliances.

(iii) *Adequacy to economic needs.*—The ports of Finland appear to be quite adequate to the needs of the country. The imports and exports of greatest bulk, coal and timber respectively, need little weather-proof accommodation, and can be loaded and discharged cheaply in open harbour. For manufactured goods and cereals imported there is in general sufficient local storage for all needs. Water space is good ; shelter is seldom lacking. Docks are not needed, as there is no perceptible tide variation. Additional quay-space and warehouse-room will probably be needed at Helsingfors as time goes on, as this port is likely to develop as a distributing centre for imported raw materials and manufactures. Up-to-date coal-discharging facilities are likely to be required at this and other ports.

An extensive scheme is projected in connexion with

the port of Åbo. More powerful ice-breakers are needed here than at Hangö to keep the port free through the winter, but the latest type of ice-breaker has made this possible. Moreover, the harbour of Åbo enjoys the advantage of two entrances from the open sea, so placed that whatever the direction and force of the wind, one or the other is free from pack-ice. It is proposed to create at Åbo a great free port, on the lines of Hamburg and Copenhagen, with an extensive area for storing goods, duty free, and even with space for the erection of factories. The most up-to-date loading and discharging facilities are to be installed. Great railway ferries of 10,000 tons dead weight are to be constructed, carrying loaded trucks from Åbo to Stockholm. The main object of this ambitious scheme is to transport goods to and from Scandinavia, north-west Europe, and Great Britain *via* Åbo and Petrograd to the interior of Russia without break of bulk and without winter interruption. To obviate the railway gauge difficulty, an extra rail of 5′ gauge is to be laid between Stockholm and Gothenburg, and another of 4′ 8½″ gauge between Åbo and Petrograd, thus allowing trucks of both gauges to run freely throughout. It has even been suggested that ferries might be run between Gothenburg and Hull, whereby it would be possible to ship between the Eastern States of America and Moscow, only breaking bulk once, at Liverpool. A direct new line of railway from Åbo to Riihimäki is projected in connexion with this scheme.

(*b*) *Shipping Lines*

By far the largest owner of steamers under Finnish registry is the Finska Angfartygs Aktiebolag, of Helsingfors. This company owns steamers of an aggregate dead-weight carrying capacity of 54,000 tons.

It maintains regular services between Helsingfors and United Kingdom ports (Hull and Newcastle), Antwerp, Rotterdam, Stettin, Bremen, and Petrograd, and also *via* Finnish ports to Stockholm. The largest vessels carry passengers to Hull, Stettin, Stockholm, and Petrograd; they are noted for their excellent accommodation and catering.

Other Finnish steam vessels are all of small tonnage and of the tramp class, owned by single-ship companies or private owners. They are mostly engaged in Baltic trade and local coastal passenger services. Sailing vessels form by far the larger part of the Finnish mercantile marine. A list of sea-going ships shows a total dead-weight capacity of 201,145 tons. Many fine steel ships formerly of British register have recently been placed under Finnish register, retaining their English names. The four-masted barque, *Marlborough Hill*, 5,907 tons dead-weight, is one of the largest.

A regular German passenger line ran between Helsingfors, Stettin, and Lübeck. Finnish ports are visited besides by large numbers of tramp steamers, mostly of British or Scandinavian register, with coal, coke, cereals, and raw-iron cargoes. These load timber and wood products, frequently proceeding coastwise in ballast to another Finnish port for this purpose. Vessels discharged at Petrograd, mostly coal-laden, also enter Finnish ports in ballast for loading.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) Labour

(*a*) *Supply of Labour; Emigration and Immigration*

The general indications suggest that the supply of labour in Finland is ample if not excessive. The population increased in the period 1880–1910 from just over two millions to more than three millions. During that

period the land under crops has not appreciably increased, and there must therefore be an ample supply of agricultural labour. Some movement of the excess country population to the towns of course takes place, but as the total urban population only increased from 173,000 in 1880 to 456,000 in 1910 it is plain that this movement is not rapid and that the demands of industry for labour are not very insistent. Figures published by the public labour bureaux show that during the period 1907–13 inclusive, an average of 43 per cent. of persons seeking for work obtained places through the bureaux, while during the same period 78 per cent. of employers requiring hands secured them by means of the bureaux. These figures point to an adequate supply of labour.

Emigration up to 1899 was on a small scale, averaging for the previous five years under 3,000 persons. From 1899 onwards, in consequence of political and social unrest, the figure has been much higher. For the period 1901–10 the average annual emigration exceeded 15,000 persons, and the figure was increasing. America and Canada were the destinations of almost all the emigrants. Immigrants during the same period averaged 5,000 per annum. These were almost all of Finnish origin and were partly returned emigrants, whose numbers were swollen for a short period during an industrial crisis in America. The industries of Petrograd were supplied very largely with Finnish labour; some of the excess already mentioned was absorbed in this way. The figures were fairly large, but it is not possible to be exact on this point, as the Finnish frontier is so close to Petrograd that thousands crossed it daily going to and from work, while many villages on the Russian side all round the city had a population of purely Finnish breed, although resident outside Finland.

(*b*) *Labour Conditions*

The overwhelming majority of the people in Finland are agricultural labourers. The climate and northern latitude of the country combine to make conditions severe. Wages on the land are low, the weekly wage of a labourer being on an average throughout the country rather below than above 10*s*., without food. Moreover, winter wages are considerably lower than those paid in summer, and the winter period lasts at least six months of the year. Employment upon home industries fills up the gap, but pay in most branches is low. The Finn is industrious and steady, if somewhat sluggish in character, and as he has never suffered from serfdom, he is morally and materially much better off than his Russian neighbour. In general, the peasantry are hardy and laborious; and their life, taking into consideration the extreme climate, is at least as well ordered as that of any similar class in western Europe. The labouring population of the towns is in general well housed and appears to enjoy a comfort and prosperity of a reasonably high level. Strikes and lock-outs showed a decreasing tendency between 1907 and 1913. Those that occurred were mainly in reference to questions of wages, in a very much less degree to questions of working hours. The results of the disputes were heavily in favour of the employers. During the period 1907–13 there were 32 strikes settled by arbitration or agreement, 38 by acceptance of the employers' conditions, and 13 by acceptance of the workpeople's conditions. Almost 50 per cent. of the workers striking belonged to the wood-working trade, the youngest and most rapidly expanding industry of the country, in which conditions have as yet not consolidated.

The following table shows the principal industries of

the country in 1912 and the scale of their operations as regards operatives, wages, and output:

Industry.	*Number of workers.*	*Wages paid in Fmk.*	*Value of output in Fmk.*
Mining and ore-producing . .	226	126,200	403,700
Foundries and metal works . .	3,351	3,690,000	39,249,000
Machinery works, including steel shipbuilding	9,531	16,624,900	41,917,200
Making of instruments of precision .	245	218,500	861,300
Stone, coal, glass, clay, and peat industries	11,317	10,677,200	27,236,400
Chemical industries	1,042	611,000	3,839,000
Pitch, tar, and oil industries . .	494	481,800	7,937,200
Leather and skin industries . .	2,411	2,577,000	23,214,500
Textile industries	14,548	11,388,100	79,428,000
Paper industries	11,832	12,124,800	97,594,000
Timber industries	31,347	27,981,700	149,693,600
Food products, including breweries, distilleries, and tobacco factories.	11,878	9,000,900	190,488,400
Electric lighting and power . .	1,025	1,493,500	9,650,500
Printing and allied industries. .	3,384	4,908,400	12,572,600
Miscellaneous industries. . .	120	98,400	342,200
Total	102,751	102,002,400	684,427,600

(2) Agriculture

Agriculture is carried on in Finland under very serious natural difficulties. The chief of these are as follows: Firstly, the northerly situation of the country, with long winters and short summers, much restricts the choice of crops; cereal crops can only be grown with success in the south and south-west. Secondly, the climate is of a continental type, and is adversely affected by the absence of any large body of ocean water of warm temperature. Hence the winters are severe and the summers treacherous. Disastrous night frosts occur in midsummer, and frequently ruin the cereal crops. Thirdly, much of the soil is poor, and special methods have to be applied to reclaim moor and bog, and so to increase the cultivable area.

Workable land is found in the greatest proportion to the total area of the country in the south-west corner and in the district surrounding Vasa. Its

extent in these districts is 15 to 30 per cent. of the total area. In the remainder of the country it never exceeds 15 per cent., and in the aggregate it has a much lower ratio.

The State has subsidized agriculture in Finland to a considerable extent since the middle of the nineteenth century. In 1910 Fmk. 5,000,000 were allocated for this purpose. Of this sum about one-third was devoted to agricultural schools and one-quarter spent in subsidies to agricultural societies, of which about twenty were at that date in existence.

(*a*) *Products and Live Stock.*

The principal crops are rye, barley, oats, potatoes, and hay and other fodder grasses. The quantities harvested by no means satisfy the wants of the population. The barley suffices for about half the home consumption, oats for two-thirds, rye for less than half, potatoes for 80 per cent. in good years. Wheat is a small crop, and the wheat-flour used is almost all imported.

Rye.—In the twenty-five years 1882–1907, the ground under rye remained about stationary at the figure of 4,000,000–4,500,000 hectares.

Barley was grown on 2,000,000 hectares, and showed a slight tendency to decrease.

Oats.—The area sown increased from 3,500,000 to 7,250,000 hectares. It should be noted that oats are solely used for animal feeding and not for man's use. Imported American oat products have a certain sale.

Potatoes.—This crop varies enormously from year to year. The area sown is from 4,500,000 to 6,500,000 hectares.

Live Stock.—During the period mentioned (1882–1907) the head of horses increased slightly, and reached 300,000.

The head of male horned cattle was slowly decreasing. Cows, on the contrary, showed a great increase from 800,000 to 1,110,000 head. This is owing to the persistent building up of a great dairy industry, the product of which forms a valuable staple export after supplying a free home consumption. Pedigree Ayrshire and Jersey dairy cattle have been imported from time to time, and a valuable native breed established. Dairying is carried on largely by co-operativecreameries. In 1912 these numbered some 350, most of which are situated in the south-western districts.

Sheep have fallen off steadily since 1895 from 1,100,000 head to 900,000 in 1907.

Pigs numbered 200,000 head in 1907 and showed an inclination to increase.

Reindeer have increased from 50,000 to 150,000 in the period under review.

The proportion of live stock per head of the population of the country showed a decrease in every case, except in that of cows.

Dried peat-moss is largely used as stable and byre litter, and returns to the land as a valuable manure. Peat is used as a domestic fuel, and only awaits a practicable commercial method to be largely used as industrial fuel.

With regard to the area upon which the most important crops can be grown, it may be said that rye is cultivable up to the Arctic Circle, oats up to the 65th parallel, root crops generally to a fairly northerly latitude, potatoes even beyond the Arctic Circle. This applies only to the extreme limits, and the general cultivable area is much farther south in each case. Green vegetables succeed only in South Finland, and autumn wheat only in the extreme south-west.

Irrigation is not needed in Finland. On the contrary, drainage of water-logged and even water-covered areas

has absorbed enormous effort and expense, not by any means always with proportionate return for the outlay.

(*b*) *Methods of Cultivation and Land Tenure*

Methods of cultivation in Finland vary very much according to the district. The most primitive is that of clearing forest-land by fire, using the wood ash as manure, and practising an intensive rotation of crops. This leads to quick exhaustion of the soil, which is then abandoned by the squatters and a further patch submitted to the destructive process. This method is being gradually abandoned, and should eventually be stamped out.

Cultivation of moor and marsh land, and even reclamation of land under water, has been practised to a great extent. After draining the land so as to reduce the moisture to a suitable proportion, clay and sand are brought from a distance and added to the peaty earth, and a cultivable soil thus artificially produced. Nevertheless, it is now seen that much of such reclaimed moorland is really only suitable for afforestation. In the relatively good farming area of the south and south-west districts ordinary methods of cultivation with rotation of crops obtain. The spread of agricultural knowledge is carefully fostered in these districts, and the importation of chemical manures to enrich the land tends to increase. In the northern districts, rotation of grasses, the only possible above-ground crop, is practised. Farms are large, according to European standards, but power-machinery is not much relied upon for cultivating.

Outside the State lands, the bulk of the land is owned in freehold and in large parcels, with tenant farmers paying money-rent. A strong movement is on foot to break up these large estates into parcels of

200–400 acres, with farmer-ownership, and the State is encouraging this process.

Small holdings exist in great numbers, the farm-labourer renting a plot from the farmer and paying rent partly in kind from the produce of his plot.

In the centre and north-east districts some land is owned by agricultural joint-stock companies, principally for dairy-farming purposes.

(*c*) *Forestry*

The vast acreage of Finland under natural forest, and the suitability of a large proportion of the country for timber-growing, would lead one to suppose that the art of forestry would be ancient and flourishing. This, however, is not the case. The main reasons are, first, that the supposed inexhaustibility of the supplies led to indifference and waste, so that only in recent years have the value of the timber and the possibilities of the wood-pulp and paper-making trades been realized; and, secondly, that land-hunger and a desire to increase agriculture have overborne the claims of forestry. The forest has been looked upon as an impediment to be cleared away rather than as a source of wealth. During the nineteenth century enormous acreages of land were cleared of forest by firing, the wood-ash being used as manure. Not until after the middle of the century did the Government take measures to restrain this highly wasteful and uneconomic squatting on fire-cleared land, which the squatters left after having exhausted the soil in a few years. The practice still exists, but is receding eastwards.

The first forestry institute was founded in 1859 at Evo. It had small success, and was closed from 1866 to 1874 for lack of pupils. Since then it has made slow but steady progress.

Ownership of forests can be grouped under three heads: (1) State-owned forests; (2) those owned by private individuals and village or urban communities; (3) those owned by industrial companies.

The State-owned forests cover 32,500,000 acres out of a total of 49,500,000 acres of forest land in the country. The value of these forests and the lands adjacent is calculated at Fmk. 317,000,000. Receipts from the State forests show a steady increase in value. In 1870 the expenditure still exceeded the receipts. This deficit was converted shortly afterwards into a profit, which by steady increases reached Fmk. 9,000,000 in 1910. The general average proportion of expenses to receipts for the first ten years of the twentieth century was 29 per cent.

Of the total area of State forests, 90 per cent. is north of the 64th parallel of latitude. North of the 66th parallel they cover almost the entire dry area of the country. The State has recently made fresh purchases in the south and centre. For purposes of organization the forests are divided into 8 inspections and 81 districts. The forest guard corps numbers 800 men. The wood is usually sold by auction, except small parcels for local consumption, which are disposed of by private treaty. Formerly the wood was sold standing, but now much is felled and prepared before sale, to avoid wasteful methods of cutting by the purchasers.

The State has by no means been able completely to protectits property against the depredations of individuals, especially in remote districts. Very wasteful methods of cutting for local fuel and other needs are still practised, and in north Finland the owners of reindeer herds cut down much good fir timber for the value of the lichens on the bark, upon which their animals feed, leaving the wood to rot on the ground. In

general, the tendency is for the land to reclothe itself with forest by natural means, but where bad methods of cutting obtain, or ground becomes water-logged, this beneficent process is arrested. Where ground cleared by burning for agriculture is subsequently abandoned, the lost forests are succeeded by a crop of alders of very low value.

Of the forest land not owned by the State, the bulk is owned by private individuals, the residue by industrial companies engaged in the lumber, paper, and paper-pulp trades. In both cases the owners have tolerably full liberty under the law to dispose of their property as they prefer. The best economy is practised by the industrial companies, which in general look carefully after the reafforestation and rational rate of felling of the timber on their areas.

The methods of procuring wood for domestic purposes leave much to be desired. Excessive cutting and failure to renew growth have had disastrous effects, and the law has not proved powerful enough to restrain effectively these uneconomic depredations. Forest fires are also a source of serious havoc.

The best trees of commercial value are pine (*Pinus sylvestris*), fir (*Picea excelsa*, *Picea obovata*), and birch (*Betulus alba*). Ash, willow, and alder also are found, but have much less general value.

In general it may be said that the fact that in the forests lies the greatest actual and potential wealth of Finland is being increasingly recognized. The desperate efforts to increase the cultivable and pastoral area have been attended by much disappointment, whereas forestry and industries dependent upon wood products, if wisely and energetically developed, are likely to have a great future in the country. The value of the products of the State forests increased from Fmk. 3,300,000 in 1901 to Fmk. 6,412,000 in

1906 and further to Fmk. 11,600,000 in 1910. This includes every class of timber and the value of sales of by-products such as pitch, charcoal, bark, resin, and underwood. It is worthy of note that the value of the wood products used domestically is five times that of the exported product in all forms.

(3) Fisheries

Considering the length of coast-line and the amount of lake and river water in Finland, the fisheries do not attain the importance that might be expected. As regards sea-fish, this is partly accounted for by the lack of salinity of Baltic water, which is for this reason stocked with limited quantities and varieties of fish as compared with the North Sea or the White Sea.

The most important species is the Baltic herring (*Clupea harengus*), which is fished in good quantities all along the coasts of the Gulfs of Finland and Bothnia. After the supply of home needs, an export of about 5,000,000 kg. goes to Russia annually. Next in importance is the sprat (*Clupea sprattus*), which is found on the south-west coast. The appearance of this fish is very capricious, and the catch varies enormously from 20,000,000 to 200,000,000 kg. from year to year. In good years a large export of this fish in the dried state goes to Russia. Other sea-fish, named in order of importance, are bull-head, eel, salmon, lamprey, and smelt. In 1912 the catch consisted of 107,150 kg. of salmon and 10,480,000 kg. of other fish.

As regards method, the sea-fishing industry is carried on in a somewhat primitive way. The vessels are small, and steam is little employed. The seine net, the large-mesh net, and the line are used.

In the winter, in the Gulf of Finland, a method of fishing with lines under the ice is practised. The fishermen are frequently absent for weeks at a time,

and work out of sight of land, living in huts constructed on the ice. Stormy weather, or an unexpected break-up of the ice, has led to serious loss of life at times. The catch commands a high price in Petrograd, whither all of it goes.

Of the varieties of fresh-water fish found, the most valuable are the *salmonidae* (salmon, salmon-trout, &c.). Other varieties are the fresh-water herring or gwiniad, roach, perch, pike, and eel-pout. The catch in 1912 from river and lake fisheries was 117,380 kg. of salmon and 3,690,000 kg. of other fish.

According to a law of 1902, the rights of fresh-water fishing belong in general to riparian owners, whether they be individuals, corporations, or village communities. An exception is made in the case of certain large lakes where all the owners of the shore-lands have common fishing rights in the lake. The State also steps in with regard to the fishing for salmon and gwiniad, which it reserves on all important rivers, and leases to individuals or corporations. Some revenue is brought in by leasing water for angling, but the bulk of the fish is caught with nets and traps. The average annual catch of *salmonidae* is 200,000 kg., 70,000 kg. of which are exported to Russia.

Fishery in the lakes is not important in proportion to the area of water. The lake bottoms are in most cases rocky, marshy, or peaty, and in the two latter cases the water is unsuitable to fish life. A national fishery association was formed in 1891 to improve methods, stocking of rivers, &c., but a good authority characterizes the results as meagre.

(4) Mining and Quarrying

The mining industry of Finland is on a small scale, and is in general dwindling. This is in no way due to lack of enterprise, but solely owing to the geological

formation, which almost precludes the possibility of any great development of mining activity. Of the rarer metals, gold alone has been worked, mostly in alluvial deposits on the Kemi river. Dredging for gold still goes on on a small scale at Ivalojoki. The annual output for the ten years 1903–12 averaged 2,500 grammes of pure gold. Silver is not found. Copper has been mined with varying success at Orijärvi, but the mines are now closed. A new copper mine has been recently opened at Outukumpu, and the ore is smelted at Imatra, where the plant is driven by the great waterfall.

There remains the iron-mining industry. Iron ore is found here and there, but the yield is of so poor a percentage that the workings have had a chequered career. An important deposit occurs, however, near Jussarö, an island in the Gulf of Finland to the east of Hangö. It contains 38 per cent. of iron, but the greater part of the deposit is under the sea and is known only from magnetic survey. When the country was under Swedish rule the ores from that country easily dominated the situation. During the period dating from 1809, when a policy of exclusion of Swedish imports held sway, the industry made some progress, but with a freer intercourse between the two countries during the latter half of the nineteenth century the competition of Swedish ores broke down the native mining, which is now negligible.

A method of extracting free hematite iron from the lake bottoms by dredging has been in practice with moderate results, but this industry is also dwindling, and will probably cease to exist. It has no industrial importance and no statistics in reference to it are available.

No coal is found in Finland.

Under the conditions described it is natural that

no very elaborate code of mining law should have developed. The metals under the surface are considered State property, and concessions are given to work stated areas under regulations as to labour, &c.

The quarrying industry is of some importance. Finnish granite has proved itself a valuable and durable building material. It was formerly exported to Russia for monumental purposes, and the colossal columns of St. Isaac's Cathedral, Petrograd, are built of granite from near Wiborg. It was found, however, that when used in large pieces and polished, certain defects developed, and its use for this purpose has ceased; but used in blocks and in an unpolished state for quays, bridges, &c., the granite has no equal. It makes also good macadam, and, when crushed, a good concrete basis. Hangö granite, however, stands polishing well. At Vehmaa in south-west Finland and at Taivassalo a granite is quarried and much exported to Great Britain. It is known in Aberdeen, where it is worked, as 'Balmoral Red', and is esteemed above the local and other imported granites for building purposes. A grey granite is quarried at Nystad and is known in the trade as 'Birkhall Grey'; this is considered the best grey granite for building and monumental purposes.

It is noteworthy that Helsingfors is gradually being rebuilt of granite structures, a novel and striking type of architecture having been evolved purely through its use.

The average annual value of quarrying and stone-working production in 1910 was Fmk. 2,500,000.

(5) Other Industries

(*a*) *Metallurgic Industries*

It is in the production of metal goods from imported iron and steel that Finland has made most progress.

The most important metal works and machinery firms in Finland are combined in an association entitled the Bureau of Metallurgical Industry of Finland. The aim of this organization is to work towards a general union of the mechanical and metallurgical enterprises of the country, with a view to dividing the production in such manner that each firm takes in hand its own specialities and is aided by other firms to undertake every portion of the work with the least displacement of material and labour. For this purpose the association is divided into seven categories as follows: (1) General mechanical construction; (2) boats and marine engines; (3) rolling stock; (4) machines for the paper and allied industries; (5) agricultural machinery; (6) water and heat-conducting materials; (7) electrical machines and apparatus.

The Bureau comprises fourteen of the principal concerns in the country, of which six are at Helsingfors:

1. *Sandviken Works, Helsingfors.*—Makers of boilers, and machines up to 50 horse-power, also of rolling stock, boats, and small marine engines.

2. *Machine and Bridge Construction Co., Ltd., Helsingfors.*—Makers of fixed boilers, bridges, gas motors, wagons, and cellulose machinery. The company owns a dry dock.

3. *Helsingfors Shipbuilding Co.*—Makers of ships and marine engines.

4. *John Stenberg Machinery Co., Helsingfors.*

5. *Robert Hüber, Helsingfors.*—A mechanical workshop.

Both the latter firms make boilers and marine engines, and do marine engine repairs.

6. *Gottfrid Strömberg, Ltd., Helsingfors.* — Manufacturers of electric motors and generating machinery.

7. *Tammerfors Thread and Forge Works.*—Makers of

turbines, marine engines, and locomotives, also of wood-pulp machinery.

8. *Tammerfors Machine Works.*—Makers of steam engines, boilers, pumps, and fittings thereto, steam vessels, wagons and machinery for saw-mills.

9. *Åbo Forge, Ltd.*—Makers of locomobiles, agricultural motors, saws, nails, and safes.

10. *Lehtoniemi and Taipale Works.*—These make boats of all kinds, boilers, &c., and do ship repairs.

11. *Åbo Wagon Factory.*—This makes exclusively rolling stock.

12. *Jakobstad Machinery Works.* — These make agricultural machinery.

13. *Fiskars Foundry.* — This makes agricultural machinery.

14. *Högfors Foundry.*—This firm constructs boilers, ventilators, and drying machinery, and undertakes sanitary engineering work.

Other important metallurgical concerns are :

Crichton & Co., Åbo.—A first-class firm for ship-building. It has a torpedo factory which works for the Russian Government.

Vulcan Engineering Co., Åbo.—Makers of locomobiles and petrol motors.

Björneborg Machinery Works.—Ship and engine builders. They have the distinction of having launched the largest steam vessel built in Finland.

In all, the metal industries are said to employ 13,000 hands, and 2 per cent. of the population is dependent upon them. The value of the output of the metallurgical industries in Finland amounted in 1910 to Fmk. 57,000,000.

(*b*) *Timber Industries*

The industry which overshadows all others in Finland, both in the value of its product and the number

of people it employs, is that dependent on the greatest natural resource of the country, the forest. The preparation of pit-props, sawn timber, paper-pulp, and cellulose, and paper-making from wood-pulp are all branches of this industry.

The principal woods commercially in use are: (1) Scots Pine. This is shipped in logs, and in the sawn state, under an extraordinary diversity of trade names. (2) Spruce. This is also sent abroad in the sawn state in large quantities. Both (1) and (2) are extensively used in the wood-pulp trade. (3) Birch, which is much used as fuel wood internally. (4) Aspen, used in the paper-pulp trade. (5) Alder. (6) Silver Fir.

The timber is, to a great extent, carried by water from the felling place. Large rafts are formed and towed long distances on the lakes and canals. Special log-floating companies, which undertake the movement of all timber in their areas, carry out the work. On arrival at the places, usually not far from the sea, where the natural fall of water provides cheap power, the timber destined for the saw-mill is brought ashore and treated, and subsequently loaded in barges and placed alongside sea-going shipping for export. The paper-pulp and paper-making works are also situated near waterfalls, and the timber is treated on the spot. Logs to be shipped entire are floated down the rapids to sea-level, collected and loaded direct on sea-going vessels.

Paper-pulp is made by two methods: (1) Cellulose is produced by the sulphite method, by which the wood is chemically treated, the sulphur being imported, mostly from Italy, for the purpose. (2) Wood-pulp is mechanically produced, the material being reduced to pulp by friction against stones. Scots pine and spruce are used for these products, small quantities of aspen being employed for specially white pulp used in certain papers.

The saw-mill industry is the greatest in Finland. The saw-mills number over 500, employ 21,000 hands, and the annual value of the product is in round figures Fmk. 75,000,000, The product of the paper factories is estimated at Fmk. 8,000,000 annual value, that of the cellulose and mechanical wood-pulp factories at Fmk. 2,000,000 and 3,000,000 respectively.

Bobbin-making from birch wood is carried on on a large scale.

Pitch-distilling from wood, formerly a great industry, especially on the Uleå river, is now declining, largely owing to the substitution of steamers for sailing vessels.

(*c*) *Textile Industries*

The textile industries in Finland, in so far as they are carried on in factories, are of comparatively recent growth. They are dependent, to a very large extent, upon imported raw material.

In 1821 a British subject, named Finlayson, founded the cotton-spinning industry at Tammerfors, and this concern remains to-day the principal one of its kind in Finland. Other mills were started, at Åbo in 1843, at Forssa in 1847, at Vasa in 1850, at Tammerfors in 1899 (the Lapiniemi mills), and at Björneborg in 1900. All these factories have cotton-spinning and cotton cloth-weaving plant, and possess their own dye-houses. A moderate quality American cotton is mostly in use and is imported duty free. The production is steadily increasing. In 1912 the cloth produced amounted in value to Fmk. 32,000,000 and the yarn to Fmk. 10,000,000.

Woollen cloth is produced in twenty-seven factories, mostly on a small scale. The output is purely for the home market and of moderate quality. In 1912 the yarn produced amounted in value to Fmk. 3,900,000

and the cloth to Fmk. 16,200,000. Knitted goods are made in six factories, of which the largest is at Tammerfors. The output is not at all equal to domestic necessities, and there is a large import. The value of knitted goods produced in 1912 was Fmk. 4,600,000.

Linen is a small item. One factory only at Tammerfors makes linen cloth. Two-thirds of the raw material comes from Russia, and a good proportion of the production is exported to that country. The value of the annual product is about 3,500,000 Fmk.

(*d*) *Miscellaneous Industries*

The chemical industry has small importance in Finland. Raw chemicals for the wood-pulp and paper trades are imported, sulphur and bleaching powder being the most important.

Glass-making is carried on in twelve plants. The output, the annual value of which is from Fmk. 3,000,000 to 4,000,000, is absorbed by domestic demand. The raw materials are imported.

Porcelain and earthenware are produced for local needs only, but the art products of the 'Arabia' factory at Helsingfors have attained a recognized place in modern ornamental ware, and are exported. Porcelain and earthenware products are valued at over Fmk. 2,000,000 annually.

Matches are made in seven factories both for domestic consumption and for export to Russia.

Tanning of leather and the making of leather goods, especially boots and shoes, has one great centre, Uleåborg, where is situated the important firm of Aström Brothers, reputed the largest in northern Europe.

One rubber factory exists in Finland, at Nokia.

Tobacco factories are twenty-six in number, and have an output valued at Fmk. 21,000,000. Two-

thirds of the total weight of raw material imported comes from Russia.

The sea-faring industry employs a good number of Finns. The merchant marine of the country is officered and manned entirely by natives. As sailors in foreign employ, Finns are fairly numerous, and are much esteemed by their employers for their good seamanship and sobriety, though, owing to their taciturnity and certain superstitions concerning them, they are not popular among their mates.

In considering Finnish industry as a whole it should be remembered that factory industries are of comparatively recent growth, and that domestic industry still plays a very important part in the economy of the country. Despite the tendency of the age towards factory industry, the product of home industries during the whole of the nineteenth century was of greater value than that of all factories combined. This activity still holds its own, and even permits of development. The reason is climatic. During a period varying from four to six months of the year the rural dwellers, who form a large proportion of the population, have their outdoor occupations reduced to a minimum by short days and a frost-bound country-side, so that indoor occupation is a necessity for bodily and mental well-being.

Statistics of domestic industry are unreliable, but the actual items of importance are: wool-spinning, weaving, knitting, dyeing, flax-scutching and linen-making, carpet-making, manufacture of soap and candles and of alcoholic liquors, and furniture-making. In general, the products of home industry are absorbed locally, but Finnish furniture goods have a high reputation in Russia, and a special depot for their sale exists in Petrograd.

(6) Water-power

Water-power would appear at first sight to be of great importance in Finland, but, while aiding industry to a considerable extent, it suffers from handicaps which cannot be avoided. The severity of winter frosts and snows and the frequent droughts in summer curtail the period of the year in which a good head of water passes over the falls and rapids where power can be developed. Lack of native raw material and labour also prevents the fullest use of such power as does exist.

The rapids in general are the property of the riparian owners, sometimes private individuals, frequently village communities. The course of one rapid or fall is often owned by a series of separate proprietors. Its use then becomes a matter of arbitration by the State. The great fall at Imatra has been acquired by the State in order to preserve its great natural beauty and regulate its industrial use.

The obvious artificial method of preserving a good head of water in dry periods by dam-building is regulated in the general interest by the State. What is described as the *chenal royal* must be left open by any one holding up water for power storage. This watercourse must be at least one-third of the width of the full natural course at its deepest point, and this must be open all the year. Dams must be provisional only, and removed each year before the spring floods to prevent damage lower down the course by derelict material from a broken dam.

The principal development has taken place in the valley of the Kyminjoki. On its course are many large saw-mills and paper-pulp mills, four paper factories, and a woollen-spinning plant. At Stockfors is a hydro-electric power plant for wood-pulp making. There is

also a bar-iron foundry and forge worked by water-power. The falls of the upper Vuoksen also provide much power. In 23 kilometres of its length the river falls 64 metres, 50 metres being in large rapids. The principal fall at Imatra has a drop of 18 metres in 1,300. The falls of Pyhakoski on the Uleå river have a drop of 57 metres in 20 kilometres, and owing to their length are somewhat costly to use for power.

If the demands of industry require more water-power, it is still abundant and waiting to be tapped. It is estimated that of 3,000,000 horse-power available, only 90,000 horse-power is in use. Of easily accessible power there are on the Kyminjoki river 28,000 horse-power in use out of a possible 274,000. On the Vuoksi and Kumo rivers the proportion in use is less. For a full list of available power with details of every fall and rapid in the country the *Atlas de Finlande*, map 14, should be consulted, with the accompanying text.

Various comprehensive schemes for generating electric power have been proposed, notably one to supply Petrograd industries with power from Imatra, but the Finns are loath to part with their natural forces for any scheme which is not directly to benefit their own people.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) Domestic

Finland is so small a country and the predominance of rural life is so overwhelming that trade has not had the opportunity to develop on any spacious lines. For its own wants the rural population caters largely by domestic industry, while the distribution of imported goods is usually made direct from abroad to the retailer, nearly every importing firm having its agent,

who easily covers the ground, selling as a rule for a number of firms in allied trade branches.

A few wholesale firms exist in Helsingfors for distributing dry goods and ready-made clothing. The distribution of cereals is also effected by wholesale firms in some cases.

The internal trade in timber is large. Houses are largely built of wood, and disastrous town fires necessitate frequent rebuilding; but Helsingfors and other large towns contain many stone buildings. In Helsingfors are some bonded warehouses whence goods are sent to Russia, but the business is on a moderate scale.

(*a*) *Towns*

Helsingfors, the capital, has a population of about 167,000. It is a first-rate seaport, and a shipbuilding and repairing centre. The official life of the country is centred in it, and a Russian garrison occupies the fortress of Sveaborg in the harbour. It is the principal Russian naval station, after Kronstadt, in the Gulf of Finland. The city has been handsomely rebuilt in granite, and possesses every convenience of a modern European town. Apart from the occupations usual in a commercial and official capital, the clothing and printing trades are of importance. A tobacco factory of considerable size, and the work of the import and distributing trades absorb most of the remaining labour. There is a daily market for provisions, food-stuffs and farm-produce, which does a large business. A retail fish-market on the quay supplies local needs. (For port accommodation, see above, p. 75.)

Åbo, the ancient capital, is an important port, which for some time past has been kept ice-free all the year. Full use of its possibilities has not so far been made, but far-reaching schemes for a free port are planned (see above, p. 80). The town has a university, a relic of

Swedish times. The trade, besides shipping, consists of a sugar refinery, cotton-mills, shipbuilding, and engineering. There is also an oil factory and a cement works. The population is 52,000.

Vasa is an important seaport (see above, p. 77). The town is new, having been built on a new site several kilometres nearer the sea, after a disastrous fire in the middle of the nineteenth century. It was then renamed Nikolaistad, but the ancient name is in more general use. The activities of Vasa comprise a cotton-mill, pitch factory, flour-mill, iron and steel works, lace factory, saw-mills, tobacco factory, and a sugar refinery. The population is 23,000.

Björneborg, a decaying seaport, revived by the creation of its outports, Räfsö and Mäntyluoto (see above, p. 77), has saw-mills, a cotton-mill, engineering and shipbuilding works, a flour-mill, and an electric light and power plant.

Wiborg has a population of 28,000. It has a good harbour (see above, p. 77), the full use of which has not yet been developed. It has saw-mills, soap, tobacco and match factories, and is interested in the export of timber and wood-pulp. It is the outlet to the sea of the Saima canal system, the most important in the country.

Tammerfors, called with pride by the Finns 'the Manchester of Finland', is industrially the most important town of all. It owes its rise to the enterprise of a British subject, Finlayson, who founded the first cotton-spinning power plant in 1821. The falls, which provide a great deal of the power, are 1,100 metres long, with a total depth of 18 metres of fall, in three stages. Cotton-spinning and weaving, paper-making, the manufacture of saw-mills machinery, shipbuilding, and the construction of locomotives and wagons are carried on.

The population was 46,192 at the last census, and is increasing quickly. Tammerfors lies inland, but is on the west Tavastland canal and lake system. The centre of the town has recently been rebuilt in granite.

Kotka (population 11,609) is almost wholly concerned with the timber trade. It is the first port in Finland for timber shipment, and its safety and facilities are first-rate. (For port accommodation, see above, p. 78.) It is the outlet of the busy Kyminjoki valley, which teems with saw and paper-pulp mills and paper factories. The town has its own saw and pulp mills, also a boxboard factory.

Uleåborg (population 21,271) is the centre of the leather trade in Finland, its tanneries and boot factories being renowned, both inland and in Russia. The annual output of these industries is valued at Fmk. 2,500,000. Its importance as a timber port lies in its situation at the mouth of the Uleå river, down which vast quantities of timber are floated. Its former pitch trade is declining.

Kuopio, the largest inland town in Finland, is a timber centre and the head of a lake navigation system and log-rafting area, there being direct communication *via* the Saima canal system to the Gulf of Finland. British capital is interested in a large bobbin factory.

The other centres of population in Finland are small. They comprise the small seaports of Kemi, Brahestad, Nya Karleby, Gamla Karleby, Raumo, Borga, Lovisa, and Jacobstad, all of which export timber in small vessels. Hangö was forced into prominence as the first ice-free port, owing to the efforts made by the State railways, but it is understood that it has only partly solved the ice problem, and Åbo will be the scene of future developments. The remaining inland towns of Finland are small and of local importance.

(*b*) *Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce*

The Finns appear to have a gift for association and co-operation in commerce and industry which is being rapidly developed. The success of co-operative retail trading is assured, although the movement is young. The first co-operative society was founded in 1899. No laws dealing with co-operative trading existed at the time, but a series were rapidly passed in 1901 to settle the legal basis of the enterprise. In 1909 there were in existence 1,816 co-operative societies, having a membership of 180,000 and a turnover of Fmk. 99,000,000. These comprised:

	Members.	*Fmk.*
354 Co-operative dairies .	33,000	29,000,000 turnover
384 Co-operative savings-banks . . .	11,900	3,000,000 loans
506 Co-operative consumers' shops . . .	100,000	52,000,000 sales
568 Other co-operative societies . . .	35,000	8,000,000 turnover

A central co-operative bank was founded in 1902. The Exporting Society of Finland, established in 1891, receives an annual subvention of Fmk. 25,000 in aid of its work.

Other organizations are: the Technical Association of Finland, the Finnish Industrial Chemists' Association, the Association of Industrial Arts of Finland, and the Bureau of Metallurgical Industry in Finland (see above, p. 95).

(*c*) *Foreign Interests*

Foreign firms and companies have small foothold in Finland. Without entering closely into the matter, it suffices to say that the Finns discourage the establishment of foreign firms in their country, and have

peculiar methods of attaining their ends in this respect. Foreign life and fire insurance companies do some business, but it is declining owing to severe restrictions. Swedish, British, and German companies are mostly interested. One American office has had some success. The tramway systems of Åbo and Viborg are the property of the Allgemeine Electricitäts-Gesellschaft, of Berlin.

(*d*) *Methods of Economic Penetration*

For the reasons mentioned above, economic penetration has no appreciable activity in Finland, and the Finns themselves have no surplus population or energy to accomplish any noteworthy penetration into neighbouring countries. It should, however, be noted that an organized attempt to capture the import trade in coal and allied fuel in the interests of Germany was planned shortly before the war. The greater part of these imports has always come from Great Britain, but about 1912–14 a Westphalian syndicate, headed by Aug. Thyssen, the Westphalian coal and iron magnate, had determined to secure a monopoly of this for their benefit, to be followed by a similar absorption of the iron, steel, and manufactured metal trade. The war, however, suspended this far-reaching scheme.

(2) Foreign

(*a*) *Exports*

As an exporting country, Finland is steadily assuming a greater importance; and the annual value of her exports during the last three decades has increased by leaps and bounds. At the same time there is a steady trend of direction of the exports towards western and north-western Europe, the share of

Russia proportionately declining. Thus in 1867, 61 per cent. of all exports went to Russia, whereas the figure for 1887 was 40 per cent., and for 1908 28 per cent.

The principal export is invariably lumber, of which 10,000,000 metric tons in the form of logs, deals, boards, and battens were shipped abroad in 1913. Wood-pulp and paper accounted in the same year for 359,871 metric tons. Butter is a large and increasing article of export, 12,000,000 kilograms being exported in 1912. Ten million kilograms of fish were exported for some years of the last decade. Granite has a good market abroad.

The wood, wood-pulp, and paper trades can be looked to for expanding exports in the future. It is probable that the dairy produce export reached its limit of increase before the war, and its future will be precarious until live stock can be placed on a sound footing again. The tar and pitch trade is steadily decreasing, and glass exports are now almost nil. The production for export of methylated spirit from wood-pulp is looked to as a business with a great future.

In normal times the principal market for Finnish wood exports is Great Britain. France and Germany come next in order. Wood-pulp and paper are mostly distributed between Russia and England. Butter goes almost entirely to England, though a small quantity goes to Germany in seasons when the price rules high, and some produced in the regions near Petrograd is sold there. Other dairy produce, and almost the entire export of fish, go to Russia. Granite goes principally to Russia and Great Britain.

The values of the principal exports in recent years were as follows:

Articles.	*Average for* 1908–12. *Fmk.*	*Year* 1912. *Fmk.*
Boats and ships	1,500,000	3,000,000
Dairy and farm produce	36,000,000	40,000,000
Fish	5,000,000	5,000,000
Hides, skins, and furs	10,000,000	13,000,000
Machines, motors, and tools	1,700,000	4,000,000
Minerals	3,600,000	5,000,000
Paper and wood-pulp	51,000,000	64,000,000
Woods and woodwork	154,000,000	173,000,000

The value of the exports to the principal countries concerned was in 1912 as follows:

	Fmk.
Russia	98,000,000
Great Britain	87,000,000
Germany	48,000,000
Sweden	15,000,000
Denmark	12,000,000

The chief exports were in that year distributed as follows:

Articles.	*Value in thousands of Fmk.*		
	Great Britain.	*Germany.*	*Russia.*
Boats and ships	125	197	2,198
Dairy and farm produce	26,445	6,671	9,058
Hides, skins, and furs	11	3,812	5,702
Machines, motors, and tools	19	179	2,309
Minerals	170	79	5,947
Paper and pulp	14,232	5,377	44,040
Woods and woodwork	66,765	32,132	18,386
Woven goods	—	—	6,915

The total exports to all countries for the year 1912 were valued at Fmk. 340,000,000. The average figure for the years 1908–12 was Fmk. 290,000,000.

(*b*) *Imports*

Since its entry during the last fifty years into the world of international commerce, Finland has been, for its size and population, a country of large and varied imports, these much exceeding the exports in

value during recent years. As Finland is self-supporting only in timber, stone, and dairy produce, the imports are of every kind. Cereals are the most important and vary according to harvests. In normal times they come mostly from Germany or England, being originally American or Argentine produce. Coal, coming nearly all from Great Britain, is the most important article for bulk, but not for value. Metals and machinery come from Great Britain and Germany. For general machinery and electrical goods the market is monopolized by the latter. Yarns, cloth, and clothing also come from Great Britain or Germany. General food products, chemicals, rubber goods, coffee, and sugar, are entered as coming from Great Britain or Germany generally, but for the most part consist of re-exports from these countries, little or nothing entering Finland direct from distant countries of origin.

The values of the principal imports in recent years were as follows:

Articles.	*Average* 1908–12. *Fmk.*	*Year* 1912. *Fmk.*
Cereals	87,000,000	87,000,000
Groceries	46,000,000	57,000,000
Machines, motors, and tools	23,000,000	28,000,000
Meat products . . .	10,000,000	12,000,000
Metals and metal goods .	32,000,000	44,000,000
Minerals and manufactures thereof	20,000,000	25,000,000
Rubber goods . . .	10,000,000	13,000,000

The values of the imports from the principal countries concerned were as follows in 1912:

	Fmk.
Germany . . .	186,000,000
Russia	131,000,000
Great Britain . . .	68,000,000
Sweden	25,000,000
Denmark . . .	12,000,000

The origin of the principal imports in that year was as follows:

Articles.	*Value in thousands of Fmk.*		
	Great Britain.	*Germany.*	*Russia.*
Cereals	2,543	49,881	37,834
Groceries	898	27,249	23,483
Luxury goods . . .	96	386	352
Machines, motors, tools, and other metal goods . .	11,485	26,603	6,897
Minerals	14,960	5,430	1,815
Woven goods . . .	4,507	9,619	7,879
	34,489	119,168	78,260

The total imports from all sources in 1912 were valued at Fmk. 470,000,000, and the average for the years 1908–12 was Fmk. 405,000,000.

(c) *Customs and Tariffs*

The customs tariff of Finland may be described as moderately protective. Two separate tariffs are in force: (1) that for goods imported from Russia, which is exceptionally favourable to that Empire; (2) that for all other countries. Tariff (1) has been occasionally modified, especially in the direction of protective duties on spirituous liquors, but in spite of its favourable provisions the imports from Russia tend to decrease steadily in proportion to the whole. The latest modifications took place in 1897. Duties are imposed only on sugar, tobacco, and alcoholic liquors, on which the rates are lower than those imposed on goods from other countries. All other goods enter free of duty. Finnish industrial goods, on the other hand, pay duty on entering Russia, but at a lower tariff than goods from other countries.

(2) The Finnish general tariff is worked out on what are usually considered 'scientific' lines. Raw or partially-worked materials come in free or under low

duties. Higher rates prevail for manufactured goods. Luxury articles are the most highly taxed. Sugar is highly rated for revenue reasons. Alcoholic liquors are very highly rated in response to public feeling against excessive consumption. Food-stuffs in general, especially cereals, are admitted free of duty.

Imported goods are assessed in general by weight, every article of possible import being separately scheduled, the rate per 100 kilograms figuring as the basis of reckoning in the official list, unless otherwise quoted.

The total customs receipts for the year 1912 amounted to Fmk. 58,500,000, and for 1913 to Fmk. 60,464,885.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

The annexed statistics show the state of the public finances of Finland in 1913. The Budget shows that the principal form of taxation is indirect, revenue from the railways, State forests, customs, post office, and alcoholic liquors accounting for seven-eighths of the total. Direct taxation, in all, accounted for only one-thirtieth. In local taxation, on the other hand, direct taxes (income-tax, legacy duty, &c.) accounted for over one-quarter of the total receipts for the year given.

BUDGET OF THE YEAR 1913

(*a*) *Receipts.*	*Fmk.*
Direct taxes	6,500,000
State properties :	
Lands	1,700,000
Fisheries	92,000
Forests	16,000,000
Railways	58,000,000
Canals	1,000,000
Interest	1,900,000

	Fmk.
Indirect taxes :	
Customs	58,000,000
Duties on alcoholic liquors and playing cards	13,000,000
Mixed receipts :	
Stamp duties, licences, registration fees .	5,000,000
State institutions :	
Posts, lighthouses, hospitals, schools . .	11,500,000
Sundry receipts :	
Fines, sales of land, prison labour, control of distilleries, &c.	8,308,000
Total receipts	181,000,000

(*b*) *Expenditure.*	*Fmk.*
Funds for imperial residences	429,000
Expenses of Diet	682,000
Government :	
Governor-General's salary, Imperial (Russian) Senate of Finland, Secretary of State .	3,000,000
Justice	5,400,000
Civil administration	15,300,000
Customs, mint, public granaries, stamp offices, bank inspection	4,000,000
Administration of canals and forests . . .	5,926,000
Military contribution to Russia in lieu of military service	14,000,000
Religion, education, sciences and arts . .	20,950,000
Agriculture and fisheries, schools and institutes connected therewith and subsidies . . .	7,700,000
Roads, railways, bridges, canals, posting, pilotage, schools of commerce and navigation . .	51,000,000
Control of distilleries	7,500,000
Pensions and gratuities	5,500,000
Public debt expenditure	8,027,000
Sundry expenditure	9,286,000
Total expenditure	158,700,000

Local Expenditure and Income for the Year 1913

	Fmk.
Income of urban authorities	47,000,000
Expenditure of urban authorities . . .	52,000,000
Income of rural communes	28,000,000
Expenditure of rural communes	30,000,000

The total debt of the towns and rural communes amounted to Fmk. 84,000,000. The value of the property owned by them was Fmk. 191,000,000.

The public debt of Finland amounted in

	Fmk.
1911 to	176,000,000
1912 ,,	174,000,000
1913 ,,	172,000,000

The loans were raised almost entirely for railway construction purposes. The capital was found by (1) the Bank of Finland, (2) S. Bleichröder, of Berlin, (3) the Crédit Lyonnais, (4) C. J. Hambro & Son, of London.

(2) *Currency*

The unit of currency is the Finnish mark (Fmk.), value approximately $9\frac{3}{4}d.$; the usual exchange on London is Fmk. 25 per £. This currency was finally established in 1860 after an irregular period dating from the transfer, in 1809, from Swedish to Russian rule. The bullion basis was silver, but in 1877 this was altered to a gold basis on the same currency weight as that of the Latin Union. The Finnish mark is divided into 100 pennia.

The only currency notes now authorized are those of the Finlands-Bank. This institution is under the authority and guaranty of the estates of the realm, and is managed by bank deputies, an equal number being elected from each order; the managing director is, however, appointed by the Government. The Finlands-Bank had a power of note issue of £2,800,000, but this must have been increased lately for the recent issue of large numbers of notes of small denomination. Bank-notes are issued for Fmk. 1, 3, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 500, and 1,000. They are printed at the bank's own press.

As the Russian officials, soldiers, and sailors in Finland are paid in rubles, Russian money has a certain circulation in large centres; moreover, railway and postal charges can always be paid in rubles. The normal exchange is Fmk. 2·66 per ruble.

(3) *Banking*

Besides the Finlands-Bank, there are a number of joint-stock banks of purely Finnish ownership. The principal are the *Forenings Banken i Finland*, *Kansallis Osake Pankki*, *Wasa Aktiebank*, *Nylands Aktiebank*, *Nordiska Aktiebank*, and the *Helsingfors Folksbank*.

A number of private banks, largely in the hands of Jews, exist in Helsingfors, with one or two branches. No Russian or foreign banks have branches in Finland, and facilities for opening any are restricted by law.

The loaning capacity of the native banks is fairly well equal to the needs of commerce, but the banks have the reputation of extreme caution and conservatism. Facilities for procuring foreign drafts and for general international banking transactions are complete. Government inspection of working is close. The bank staffs, which consist of a large proportion of women, are usually of high efficiency, and business is quickly and accurately dispatched.

(4) *Influence of Foreign Capital*

The influence of foreign capital in Finland appears to be small, and is likely to remain so, as long as the present restrictive laws against foreign banking and insurance enterprises are in force, and the State control of certain industries and natural power-forces continues to discourage it. The interest and instalment on foreign capital loaned to Finland was in 1913 £600,000.

Some foreign capital has in the past come into Finland in connexion with a new industry or the

development of an existing one, the capitalist foreigner working the business himself. The existence of a number of concerns with British names is evidence of this. These concerns have been usually turned into limited liability companies and bought out by Finns when success was assured. Great caution is needed in endeavouring to introduce foreign capital, especially if accompanied by foreign management or foreign labour, as the Finns are fanatically exclusive, and commercial boycott is a weapon they have not hesitated to use with great effect.

(5) *Principal Fields of Investment*

The timber industry, paper and paper-pulp making, the safety-match industry, and butter-exporting are the activities likely to absorb invested capital in the near future in Finland. All these are certain of good returns in properly managed concerns. Mining is not likely to develop, as the geological nature of the country holds out small prospect of success.

Textile industries may develop, but the growth will probably be slow. Hydro-electric installations are much discussed, as water-power is not lacking, but any schemes will be carefully controlled by the State, and the possibility of foreign investors acquiring an interest in them will be very slender.

APPENDIX

I.—SPEECH OF ALEXANDER II ON THE OPENING OF THE DIET, 1863

Representatives of the Grand Duchy of Finland,—In seeing you assembled around me, I am glad to have been able to fulfil my desire and your hopes.

My attention has long been directed to a certain number of questions successively raised which concern the most serious interests of your country. These questions have remained in suspense because their solution required the co-operation of the Estates. Certain important considerations, the appreciation of which is reserved for me, prevented me from convening the representatives of the four Orders of the Grand Duchy during the first years of my reign. Nevertheless, I took in good time preparatory steps to attain this object; and, now that circumstances are no longer of a nature to cause a further postponement, I have convoked you in order to lay before you, after having previously heard the report of my Senate of Finland, the proposed laws and the administrative business which will require your attention in the course of the present session.

Considering their importance, I have had them examined first by a Committee composed of men enjoying the confidence of the nation. The publicity given to the debates of this Committee has acquainted you beforehand with the object of your deliberations, and you have been enabled thoroughly to examine these projected measures by consulting the opinions and the wants of the country. Consequently, in spite of their number and importance, it will be possible for you to dispose of them finally within the period fixed by law.

The financial statement which will be communicated to you will show that the revenues of the State have always sufficed to cover the current expenditure, and that the substantial increase of

the indirect taxes—a proof of the national prosperity—has made it possible to apply these additional resources to the material and intellectual development of the country.

I have authorised the Government of the Grand Duchy to contract loans solely in order to meet the requirements of the last war, and to cover the expense of constructing the railway between Helsingfors and Tavastehus.

An account of the use made of these loans will likewise be communicated to you, and will show that the present revenue of the State is sufficient to pay off this debt, with its interest, gradually. It is my wish, however, that for the future no new loan be raised without the concurrence of the Estates of the Grand Duchy, unless an unexpected invasion by the enemy, or some other unforeseen national calamity, should make it a necessity for us.

The new taxes that I propose to the Diet are designed to carry out different measures destined to augment the welfare of the country and to advance the cause of popular education. You have to decide as to the urgency and extent of these measures.

Many provisions of the Fundamental Laws of the Grand Duchy are no longer applicable to the state of affairs existing since its union with the Empire; others lack clearness and precision. Being desirous of remedying these imperfections, I intend to have a measure carefully prepared which shall contain explanatory and supplemental provisions. These will be submitted to the consideration of the Estates at the next Diet, which I purpose convoking three years hence.

Whilst maintaining the principle of constitutional monarchy essentially involved in the character of the Finnish people, and of which all their laws and institutions bear the impress, I wish to include in this projected measure a more extended right than that which the Estates now possess as to the adjustment of taxation, as also the power of legislative action which they formerly possessed, reserving to myself, however, the initiative in all questions which affect the alteration of the Fundamental Laws.

You know my sentiments and my wishes for the happiness and prosperity of the peoples entrusted to my charge. None of my acts have been such as to disturb the good understanding that ought to exist between the Sovereign and the nation. I desire that this understanding may continue, as in the past, to be a guarantee of the good relations which unite me to the brave and loyal Finnish people. It will contribute powerfully to the prosperity of

a country very dear to my heart, and will supply me with a new motive for assembling you periodically.

It is for you, the representatives of the Grand Duchy, to prove, by the dignity, the moderation, and the calmness of your discussions, that in the hands of a wise and well-conducted people, determined to work hand in hand with the Sovereign in a practical manner for the development of its well-being, liberal institutions, far from being in danger, become a guarantee of order and prosperity.

I declare the present Diet open.

II.—CONCLUSIONS OF THE WESTLAKE COMMITTEE, 1910

March, 1910.—The proposal of the Bill for Imperial Legislation was now matter of general European knowledge. A meeting of international jurisconsults was held in London at the house of Professor Westlake, " to examine the relations between Finland and Russia," and the results of their deliberations is embodied in the following statement:—

We, the following: Gerhard Anschütz, LL.D., Professor of Public Law, University of Berlin; L. von Bar, LL.D., Geheimer Justiz-Rat, Professor of Law, University of Göttingen, Hon. Member and Past President of the Institut de Droit international, Member of the Court of Arbitration of The Hague; A. de Lapradelle, Professeur agrégé à la Faculté de Droit de l'Université de Paris, Directeur de la Revue de Droit international privé, Co-directeur du Recueil des Arbitrages internationaux, Associé de l'Institut de Droit international; Leon Michoud, Professeur de Droit public à l'Université de Grenoble; Ernest Nys, Professeur de Droit international à l'Université de Bruxelles, Conseiller à la Cour d'Appel de Bruxelles, Membre de l'Institut de Droit international; Sir Frederick Pollock, Bart., LL.D., D.C.L., late Corpus Professor of Jurisprudence, University of Oxford; W. van der Vlugt, Professeur de la Philosophie du Droit à l'Université de Leyde; J. Westlake, K.C., LL.D., D.C.L., late Professor of International Law, University of Cambridge, Hon. Member and Past President of the Institut de Droit international, declare:—

Led by our studies to an examination of the relations between Finland and Russia;

Having followed attentively and incessantly since 1899 the different phases of the Russo-Finnish conflict and its variations, in

which, according to the circumstances and the time, the difficulties have seemed now to vanish, as in 1905, now to appear, as in 1908;

Noting that on both sides Finlanders and Russians affirm that the question is not, as one might believe, a political, but a juridical problem;

Appreciating the admirable sentence of M. Stolypin, that in Russia " might cannot go before right ";

Holding that questions, even political ones, which can be formulated juridically, are, when so formulated, very near to a solution;

And being impressed by the conviction that a collective study of the Russo-Finnish differences might not under present circumstances be without its value in bringing about a solution of a conflict between two parties in a great Empire; a conflict which, if continued, must enfeeble that Empire;

Having welcomed the suggestion made by a group of Dutch jurisconsults to meet in London, in order to examine the arguments adduced on both sides, and to deliberate in common;

After having collected all the documents on the subject which they were able to bring together, both on the Finnish and Russian side, notably the speech of M. Stolypin at the Duma on May 18, 1908, and those of MM. Deutrich and Korevo at the Russo-Finnish Committee of 1909 for drafting regulations on a procedure for common legislations;

And having made, with the help of these documents, an examination of the Russian regulations of June 2, 1908, and of the work of the Russo-Finnish Committee of 1909 on Imperial legislation;

On the Report, expressly approved, of one among our number, and after the Chairman's reading of the opinion of the Right Hon. Sir Edward Fry, ex-Lord Justice of Appeal of England, appended to the present *procès-verbal*:

Have unanimously agreed on the following conclusions:—

(1) The rights of Finland in respect to her Constitution are not a figment of Finnish " imagination," but an historical reality; they do not form a " dogma " in which the Finlanders believe without being able to offer proof, but a juridical truth scientifically demonstrated.

(2) It is not only from Sweden, under the Treaty of Frederikshavn (Article IV), but, as was recognised by the same document (Article VI), before this treaty, from the Finlanders themselves,

that Alexander I, on his solemn promise to them to respect their Fundamental Laws, took possession of Finland.

(3) When, at the Diet of Borgå, the Oath of the four Estates followed on the promises of the Tsar, Finland, "free as regards her internal affairs," "from henceforth placed in the rank of nations," did not enter into the Russian Empire as a conquered province, precariously endowed with temporary privileges, but as an autonomous organism, united by free agreement to a sovereign State, which, on account of this Agreement, is obliged to respect this autonomy.

(4) In whatever fashion authors analyse and define the tie between Finland and Russia, according to their conception of a State and their different modes of classifying institutions of public law, they are, with very few exceptions, all agreed, Russians included, on this point, that Finland has the right to demand that the Russian Empire should respect her Constitution.

(5) The introduction in Russia of a constitutional system could not modify the position of Finland.

It cannot be said, from a practical point of view, that the autonomy of Finland, arising from a difference of governmental systems —autocratic in Russia, constitutional in Finland—has no longer any reason for its existence now that absolutism has ceased in Russia. Finland, whose political education is more ancient, and whose national civilisation is different from that of Russia, requires her liberty, already greater and always "inherent in her customs"; moreover, Alexander I and his successors have not merely guaranteed in perpetuity to the Finlanders their individual liberties, but in order to sustain and vivify these they have guaranteed to Finland the liberty of her people.

Again, it cannot be said, *de jure*, that after the new Russian Fundamental Laws of 1906 (Article I), Finland, instead of being a part of the Russian Empire (Finland and Russia), is only a part of the Empire of Russia; that in virtue of these same laws (Article 2) the Diet has not the right to legislate on all internal questions that do not touch the interests of Russia—interests of which Russia is the sole judge; and that in the case of a conflict between the new Constitution of Sovereign Russia and the old Constitution of non-Sovereign Finland, it is the first which ought to prevail. The Tsar, in limiting his rights as regards Russia, could not increase them as regards Finland; no one can create a right for himself; being unable to withdraw from the Diet the right to legis-

late, he could not transfer from the Diet to the Duma all, or any part, of this right; no one can give to another more than he possesses.

(6) Being unable, by direct means, to withdraw either from the Diet or from the Finnish administrative organs all or any part of their powers, Russia cannot do so by indirect means, though reserving to herself the right to determine the scope of this competence.

(7) If the superior interests of the Empire demand the establishment of a common procedure for dealing with certain internal affairs, it pertains to the Diet either itself to determine those affairs or to consent to the creation of a body charged with determining them.

FREDERICK POLLOCK.
L. VON BAR.
A. DE LAPRADELLE.
GERHARD ANSCHÜTZ.
ERNEST NYS.
W. VAN DER VLUGT.
J. WESTLAKE.
LEON MICHOUD.

The following is the opinion of Sir Edward Fry, referred to in the above preamble:—

Failand House, near Bristol,
February 23, 1910.

In my opinion, the transactions at the Diet of Borgå in 1809, including the Decree summoning the Diet, the Tsar's Address to the inhabitants of Finland, March 15, 1809, and his Proclamation of March 23, 1809, on the one hand, and the Oath of Allegiance taken by the members of the Diet as representing the Finnish people on the other, constitute a public act of the most solemn nature, by which the Tsar bound himself and his successors to recognise the autonomy and to maintain the Constitution of Finland, and by which the inhabitants of that country bound themselves to be the loyal subjects of the Emperors as Constitutional Grand Dukes of Finland.

I am further of opinion that the Treaty of Frederikshavn recognises the existence of the previous transaction between the Tsar and the people of Finland, and that as *res inter alios acta* it could in no case rescind the solemn contract of Borgå.

I also think that the autonomy and Constitution of Finland have been recognised as existing, down to a very recent time, by the successive Grand Dukes of Finland. Amongst the most important evidences on this point, I refer to the Proclamation of February 9, 1816, the successive promises made by the successive Grand Dukes of Finland on their accession, the convocation of the Diet according to the ancient usages of the country, and, lastly, the administration of Finnish affairs in a manner independent of Russia and implying the existence of a Constitution.

My conclusion, therefore, is that, from a juridical point of view, the people of Finland are entitled to maintain their right to a Constitution, of which they could only legally be deprived by their own consent.

EDWARD FRY.

A telegram has been received in London from Copenhagen stating that the name of Herr C. V. Nyholm, a former member of the Supreme Court of Denmark, should be added to the list of those signing the joint statement given above.

III.—BILL FOR IMPERIAL LEGISLATION, 1910

The Bill for the destruction of Finland's autonomy, in spite of the attempts of the "Octobrists" to modify the more drastic clauses, was passed in a form substantially the same as that in which it first appeared; consequently the Finns were to be entirely subject to the Imperial legislation upon the following matters (Clause III):—

(1) The participation of Finland in State expenditure, and the institution for this purpose of payments, collections, and taxes; (2) the discharge by the population of Finland of recruiting as well as other obligations for military purposes; (3) the rights in Finland of Russian subjects who are not Finnish subjects; (4) the execution in Finland of decisions, decrees, and sentences passed by the Courts, as well as of the demands of the authorities of other portions of the Empire, also the execution of the agreements and other legal instruments made in the rest of the Empire; (5) the rights, duties, and order of action in Finland of the general (Imperial) institutions and authorities; (6) the establishment of any exceptions from Finnish laws concerning the Penal Code and the course of justice in the interests of the State; (7) the guaranteeing of State interests in popular education; (8) rules concerning

public meetings, societies, and unions; (9) the rights and conditions of activity in Finland of societies and companies formed in the rest of the Empire; (10) legislation concerning the press in Finland and the importation into it of printed matter from abroad; (11) the relations of Finland to other localities in the Empire with reference to Customs; (12) the protection in Finland of trade marks and trade privileges, as also of literary and artistic copyright; (13) the monetary system of Finland; (14) the postal and telephone services, aviation, and other means of communication with Finland; (15) the railways in Finland, so far as they concern the defence of the State and Finland's communication with the rest of the Empire or international communications; the railway telegraphs; (16) commercial navigation in Finland; (17) the rights of foreigners in Finland.

IV.—DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, December 9, 1917

The Finnish Diet, basing itself on Article 38 of the Fundamental Law of 1772, has decided to assume the sovereign power, and has consequently chosen an Executive Senate. In consequence of this decision, the heads of the Finnish Government have submitted to the Diet a project of constitutional law, constituting Finland an independent republic.

Appealing to the principles proclaimed by the Powers of the right of all peoples to dispose of themselves, the President of the Senate solemnly declares, in the name of the Finnish Government, that it is the right and the duty of the people of Finland to take their own destiny in hand, and to request the foreign Powers to recognise their independence.

Russia has now no Government. Her representatives having ceased to exercise their functions in Finland, no legal Russian authority remains. The troops stationed in the country are a source of terror, and they incite the revolutionary elements of the populace to revolt. The anarchy in Russia obliges the Finnish people to free themselves from now onwards from all dependence upon Russia. Finally, imminent famine menaces Finland.

Under these conditions, the Finnish Government, being no longer able to appeal to the Allied Powers by the mediation of the Russian Secretary for Foreign Affairs (since the Council of the People's Commissaries has not been recognised), considers that the only means to save Finland from famine and anarchy is to declare

her a Sovereign Power. She will thus be able to enter into relations with other States, and cease to be isolated. Basing itself upon the generous declarations of the French Government concerning the rights of small nations, the Finnish Senate respectfully requests the Government of the French Republic to recognise the Republic of Finland, and to authorise them to send a delegation to Paris.

V.—TREATY BETWEEN GERMANY AND FINLAND

[The text of the peace treaty between Germany and Finland is given by the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, and the *Deutsche Reichsanzeiger*, March 8, 1918, as follows:—]

Inspired by the wish to establish a condition of peace and friendship between the two countries, after the announcement of the independence of Finland and its recognition by Germany, the Imperial German Government and the Finnish Government have resolved to conclude a peace treaty, and for this purpose they have appointed as plenipotentiaries the following:—

For the Imperial German Government, the Chancellor of the German Empire, Dr. Count von Hertling; the Finnish Government, Dr. of Philosophy Eduard Immanuel Hjelt, State Councillor, and Vice-Chancellor of the University of Helsingfors, and Dr. Rafael Woldeman Erich, Professor of State and International Law at the University of Helsingfors, who, after reciprocal notification that their plenipotentiary credentials were found to be correct and in due form, agreed on the following provisions:—

CHAPTER I.—RATIFICATION OF THE FRIENDSHIP BETWEEN GERMANY AND FINLAND, AND GUARANTEE OF FINLAND'S INDEPENDENCE

Article **1.**—The contracting parties declare that no state of war exists between Germany and Finland, and that they are resolved henceforth to live in peace and friendship with one another. Germany will do what she can to bring about the recognition of the independence of Finland by all the Powers. On the other hand, Finland will not cede any part of her possessions to any foreign Power or grant a servitude on her sovereign territory to any such Power without first having come to an understanding with Germany on the matter.

Article 2.—Diplomatic and consular relations between the contracting parties will be resumed immediately after the ratifica-

tion of the peace treaty. Provision for the most far-reaching admission possible of consuls on both sides will be reserved for special agreements.

Article 3.—Each party shall make good the damages done in its territory by its public bodies or population to the life, liberty, health, or property of consular officials of the other party on account of the war, by actions contrary to international law or damage done to the consular buildings of such party or to their fixtures.

CHAPTER II.—WAR INDEMNITIES

Article 4.—The contracting parties mutually renounce indemnification for their war costs, that is to say, the State expenditure for the conduct of the war, as also compensation for damage done by the war, that is to say, those damages done to them and to their subjects in the war zones by military measures, including all requisitions made in enemy country.

CHAPTER III.—RESTORATION OF STATE TREATIES

Article 5.—The treaties which lapsed as a consequence of the war between Germany and Russia shall be replaced as soon as possible by new treaties for relations between the contracting parties, which shall correspond to the fresh views and conditions. In particular, the contracting parties shall at once enter into negotiations in order to draw up a commercial and shipping treaty. In the meantime, the trade relations between the two countries shall be regulated by a commercial and shipping agreement to be signed at the same time as the peace treaty.

Article 6.—Treaties to which, in addition to Germany and Russia, third Powers are parties, and in which Finland appears together with Russia, or in the place of the latter, shall come into force between the contracting parties on the ratification of the peace treaty, or, in so far as the entry takes place later, at that time. As regards collective treaties of a political nature to which other belligerent Powers are parties, both parties reserve their attitude until after the conclusion of a general peace.

Chapters IV-IX (inclusive) deal with "restoration of private rights," "confiscated properties," "compensation for civil damages," "exchange of prisoners," "amnesty," and "merchant shipping."

CHAPTER X.—SETTLEMENT OF THE ÅLAND QUESTION

The contracting parties are agreed that the fortifications erected on the Åland Islands shall be removed as soon as possible, and that the permanent non-fortification of these islands and their treatment in other respects from a military and technical shipping point of view, shall be regulated by a special agreement between Germany, Finland, Russia, and Sweden; should Germany so desire it, other States situated on the Baltic shall also become parties to this agreement.

CHAPTER XI.—FINAL PROVISIONS

This peace treaty shall be ratified. The ratifying documents shall be exchanged as soon as practicable in Berlin. So far as is not otherwise stipulated, it shall come into force with its ratification. Representatives of the contracting parties shall meet in Berlin within four months of the ratification, to make supplementary additions to the treaty, in witness whereof the plenipotentiaries on both sides have signed and sealed the present treaty. (March 7, 1918.)

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MAPS

The Finnish "Suomen Yleiskartta: Generalkarta öfner Finland," on the scale of 1:400,000, is published by T. Tilgmann, Helsingfors, in 30 sheets; 19 of these sheets cover Finland, and the latest editions are of various dates between 1899 and 1910. Some of the northern sheets have been reproduced by the Admiralty Intelligence Division.

There are Russian maps of Finland on three scales, viz., 1 verst, 10 versts, and 25 versts to an inch. The 1 verst map (1:42,000) covers only a small part of Southern Finland. The whole country is covered by 15 sheets of the 10 verst map (1:420,000), and by three sheets of the 25 verst map (1:1,050,000), "Communications of Northern European Russia."

Finland is covered, on the scale of 1:1,000,000, by nine sheets (R. 33, 34, and 36; Q. 33, 34, and 36; P. 33, 34, and 36) of the "International" map (G.S.G.S. 2758).

A special map of Finland, on the scale of 1:5,000,000, has been issued by the Intelligence Department of the Naval Staff in connexion with this series.

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