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Folder Title:
Koivisto of Finland 5/7/91 [OA 8322]

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PRESIDENT KOIVISTO OF FINLAND DEPARTURE STATEMENT
SOUTH PORTICO \ TUESDAY, MAY 7, 1991 \ 1:15 P.M.

PRESIDENT KOIVISTO, "TERVETULOA" [TARE-VAY-TA-LOA] ["WELCOME"]. WELCOME AGAIN TO THE UNITED STATES. IT'S A PLEASURE TO RETURN THE HOSPITALITY YOU SHOWED PRESIDENT GORBACHEV AND ME IN HELSINKI LAST SEPTEMBER. OUR MEETING TODAY WAS ONLY THE LATEST OF MANY EXCHANGES WE HAVE SHARED.

IT'S BEEN NEARLY A DECADE SINCE WE FIRST MET -- AND TODAY, AS ALWAYS, I GREATLY VALUE YOUR VIEWS ON WORLD EVENTS, AND YOUR EFFORTS OVER MANY YEARS TO BUILD THE EXCELLENT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND FINLAND.

THIS VISIT ALSO GAVE ME AN OPPORTUNITY TO THANK YOU PERSONALLY FOR FINLAND'S CONSTRUCTIVE POLICY IN THE MIDDLE EAST.

YOUR COUNTRY'S STRONG LEADERSHIP ON THE U.N. SECURITY COUNCIL AND THE IRAQI SANCTIONS COMMITTEE LAST FALL -- AND YOUR GENEROUS AID TO PEOPLE SUFFERING FROM IRAQI OPPRESSION -- REPRESENT FINLAND'S FINE TRADITION OF ACTIVE PARTNERSHIP IN THE COMMUNITY OF NATIONS.

THIS SENSE OF RESPONSIBILITY LED FINLAND, WITHIN A YEAR OF ITS ADMISSION TO THE U.N., TO SERVE AS PART OF THE U.N. EMERGENCY FORCE IN 1956, FOLLOWING THE SUEZ CRISIS.

FINNS HAVE SERVED BRAVELY IN VIRTUALLY EVERY PEACEKEEPING FORCE SINCE THEN, CONTRIBUTING MORE TROOPS THAN ANY OTHER COUNTRY. YOUR NATION CONTINUES THIS PROUD TRADITION IN THE CURRENT U.N. OBSERVER FORCE IN KUWAIT AND IRAQ.

FINLAND AND THE UNITED STATES ENJOY A LONG AND HEALTHY TRADE RELATIONSHIP. TODAY WE TOUCHED ON SOME NEW ECONOMIC ISSUES, INCLUDING THE ADVANTAGES THAT COULD COME FROM A FINNISH PURCHASE OF OUR ADVANCED AIRCRAFT.

WE ALSO DISCUSSED THE NEW EUROPE -- FROM ECONOMIC INTEGRATION TO ARMS CONTROL -- FROM NEW CHALLENGES TO THE CSCE TO THE CONTINUING ROLE OF NATO IN EUROPEAN SECURITY.

THE UNITED STATES AND FINLAND SHARE A DEEP INTEREST IN EVENTS IN THE SOVIET UNION. I HAVE ALWAYS VALUED THE OPPORTUNITY TO EXCHANGE VIEWS WITH PRESIDENT KOIVISTO, WHO IS A KNOWLEDGEABLE AND PERCEPTIVE OBSERVER OF THE U.S.S.R.

WE DISCUSSED THE COMPLEX SITUATION IN THE BALTIC STATES. I REAFFIRMED THE POLICY OF THE U.S. TO SUPPORT A PROCESS OF CHANGE THROUGH CONSTRUCTIVE AND FAIR NEGOTIATIONS. WE AGREED ON THE INADMISSABILITY OF THE USE OF FORCE -- AND THE IMPORTANCE OF PRAGMATISM -- BY ALL PARTIES IN THE SEARCH FOR A SOLUTION TO THIS PROBLEM.

THE UNITED STATES AND FINLAND WILL CONTINUE TO SUPPORT THE PROCESS OF REFORM IN THE U.S.S.R., WHICH WAS INITIATED BY PRESIDENT GORBACHEV.

WE WANT TO SEE THAT PROCESS CONTINUE AND BE STRENGTHENED -- AND WE WILL BE READY TO ASSIST THE SOVIET AND REPUBLIC GOVERNMENTS IN ATTAINING THE TWIN GOALS OF DEMOCRATIZATION AND MARKET ECONOMIC REFORM.

FINALLY, WE DISCUSSED ANOTHER ISSUE OF MAJOR IMPORTANCE TO BOTH OF OUR COUNTRIES -- THE TRANSITION TO FREE MARKETS AND LIBERAL POLITICAL SYSTEMS BY THE NEW DEMOCRACIES OF EASTERN EUROPE.

WE ARE DETERMINED TO MAKE EVERY EFFORT TO ASSIST THEM IN THEIR HISTORIC QUEST TO REMAKE THEMSELVES AND FIND A SECURE PLACE IN THE NEW EUROPE. THIS MUST BE A PRIORITY FOR ALL WESTERN COUNTRIES.

AS DEMOCRATIC PEOPLES, FINNS AND AMERICANS SHARE MANY SPECIAL BONDS OF FRIENDSHIP, AND FINNS HAVE LONG ADDED TO THE AMERICAN EXPERIENCE. MR. PRESIDENT, YOUR COUNTRYMEN WERE AMONG THE FIRST TO SETTLE IN THIS COUNTRY -- THREE HUNDRED AND FIFTY YEARS AGO -- ESTABLISHING NEW LIVES IN THE DELAWARE RIVER VALLEY.

OVER A CENTURY LATER, JOHN MORTON -- A FINNISH-AMERICAN DELEGATE TO OUR CONTINENTAL CONGRESS -- CAST THE DECIDING VOTE FOR THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE. THE IDEALS THAT LED HIM -- LIBERTY AND SELF-GOVERNMENT -- REMAIN DEAR TO BOTH OUR NATIONS: JUST LOOK TO PHILADELPHIA, 1776, AND HELSINKI, 1917.

SINCE THAT TIME, WE HAVE ENJOYED OVER SEVENTY YEARS OF WARM DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS -- AND I LOOK FORWARD TO CONTINUING THIS FRIENDSHIP. MAY GOD BLESS THE PEOPLE OF FINLAND AND THE UNITED STATES.

# # #

To Tony

Cawley/Grant
April 26, 1991
a:koivisto - 1

PRESIDENTIAL REMARKS: DEPARTURE OF PRESIDENT KOIVISTO
TUESDAY, MAY 7
1:15 P.M. (?)
DIPLOMATIC ENTRANCE (?)

(VAH?)

President Koivisto, "TERVETULOA" [tare-VEH-ta-loa] ["welcome"]. Welcome again to the United States. It's a pleasure to return the hospitality you showed ~~to~~ President Gorbachev and me in Helsinki last September. Our meeting today was only the latest of many exchanges we have shared in the decade since we first met -- and today, as always, your views on world events are of great value to me.

This visit also gave me an opportunity to thank you personally for Finland's constructive policy in the Middle East. Your country's strong leadership on the U.N. Security Council and the Iraqi Sanctions Committee last fall -- and your generous aid ~~those peoples countries~~ to people suffering from Iraqi oppression -- represent Finland's tradition of active partnership in the community of nations.

This sense of responsibility led Finland, within a year of its admission to the U.N., to serve as part of the U.N. Emergency Force in 1956 -- ~~and~~ Finns have bravely served in virtually every peacekeeping force since then, contributing more troops than any other country. ~~Finland~~ Your nation continues this proud tradition ~~by participating~~ in the current Observer Force in northern Kuwait.

Finland and the United States enjoy a long and healthy trade relationship. Today we touched on some new economic

issues, as I outlined the advantages of a Finnish purchase of our recently proven military equipment -- including two outstanding versions of U.S. aircraft.

We also discussed our evolving relations with Europe -- from trade relations to arms control, from the new challenges to the CSCE to the continuing role of NATO in European security. We were able to carry forward our dialogue on the Baltics, and developments in the Soviet Union. At times our perspectives may differ, but they share a common commitment to democracy, free markets, and an enduring peace.

Finns and Americans share many special bonds of friendship, and Finns have long added to the American experience. Mr. President, your countrymen were among the first to settle in this country -- three hundred and fifty years ago -- establishing new lives in the Delaware River Valley. Over a century later, John Morton -- a Finnish-American delegate to our Continental Congress -- cast the deciding vote for the Declaration of Independence. The ideals which led him -- liberty and self-government -- are dear to both our nations: just look to Philadelphia, 1776, and Helsinki, 1917.

Since that time, we have enjoyed over seventy years of warm diplomatic relations -- and I look forward to continuing this friendship. May God Bless the people of Finland.

# # #

EMBASSY OF FINLAND
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Tel. (202) 363 2430
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TELEFAX-MESSAGE

91 APR 24 P3:20

Date: 24.4.1991

TO: Ms. Carolyn Cawley
The White House

FAX: 456 6218

FROM: Pekka Karhuvaara

PAGES: 2

Dear Carolyn,

As per our telephone conversation this morning I am pleased to send you the following information.

1) Perhaps the most notable American with Finnish roots was **John Morton** who signed the last and crucial signature on the Declaration of Independence in 1776. His ancestor was Martti Marttinen of Rautalampi, Finland. First Finns settled in the Delaware River Valley in 1638.

2) The fundamental message of the Finnish national epic **KALEVALA** is for peace and friendship. The following excerpt is from Runo 1; 21-28. You might be able to use a part of it.

Strike we now hand into hand,
Fingers into curve of fingers,
So that we may sing good songs,
Voice the best of all our legends

For the hearing of our loved ones,
Those who want to learn them from us,
Those among the rising young ones
Of the growing generation.

3) There are not many single-word salutations in Finnish. The most common good will salute is TERVEYDEKSI (= for your health). The word is used both when toasting and sometimes as a general salutation. A more folksy version KIPPIS (= cheers) is used by Finns when toasting to a friend.

Some other words: KIITOS (= thank you); YSTAVA (= a good friend);

TERVETULOA (= welcome); NAKEMIIN (= good bye).

I will be happy to assist with the pronunciation as well as with any further questions you might have.

Sincerely,

Pekka Karhuvaara
Press counselor



tson, *The Russian Empire 1801–1917*,

-1917

in Turku, the University of Turku was moved to Helsinki in 1827. The University of Helsinki soon became the center of the Finnish nationalist movement. Finnish-language nationalism, or the Fennoman movement, became the most powerful political force in nineteenth-century Finland. A famous phrase of uncertain origin that was coined in the early nineteenth century summed up Finnish feelings as follows: "We are no longer Swedes; we cannot become Russians; we must be Finns."

The leading Finnish nationalist spokesman was Johan Vilhelm Snellman (1806–81), who saw increasing the use of the Finnish language as a way for Finland to avoid assimilation by Russia. Snellman stressed the importance of literature in fostering national consciousness; until the nineteenth century, however, there had been almost nothing published in Finnish except for religious works. The publication in 1835 of the *Kalevala,* the Finnish folk epic, filled the void, and in the late twentieth century the *Kalevala* continued to be the single most important work of Finnish literature. Its author was a country doctor named Elias Lönnrot, who, while practicing medicine along Finland's eastern border, compiled hundreds of folk ballads that he wove together into an epic poem of nearly 23,000 lines. In the years following the publication of the *Kalevala,* numerous other works of Finnish literature were published. Of special importance was the work of the Swedish-language poet Johan Ludvig Runeberg (1804–77), who authored a collection of poems called *The Tales of Ensign Stål.* The first poem of the cycle, called "Our Land," was soon set to music, and it became the national anthem of Finland.

The growth of the militant and increasingly powerful Fennoman movement threatened the traditional dominance of the Swedish speakers in Finland, who reacted by forming a Swedish-speaking nationalist countermovement, the Svecoman movement. The main idea of the Svecomans was that the Swedish-speakers of Finland were a separate nation from the Finnish-speakers and needed to preserve their Swedish language and culture. The Svecomans became a small but powerful political movement that won the backing of much of the Swedish-speaking community in Finland.

A third political faction at this time was the short-lived Liberal Party. This party sought to obtain reforms for Finland, especially freedom of the press, greater self-government, and increased economic freedom. It was split, however, by the growing language controversy, and most of its members were absorbed into either the Fennomans or the Svecomans.

Emerging as a debate among educated Finns, the nationalist movement reached ever wider circles of the Finnish people in

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Phil Museum

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atoga, race track and build-
nd lost several fortunes on
N.Y., May 1, 1878.

senator, gov. Ohio; b. Gettys-
1; s. John and Mary (Lock-
hill, Feb. 19, 1799, 6 chil-
Territory (now Ohio), 1795;
o. of Reps., 1801-02, mem.
; mem. U.S. Ho. of Reps.
26th-27th congresses, 1803-
Ho. of Reps., 1829, 35;
Ohio, 1813-19; Ohio canal
hio, 1822-26; became pres.
, 1836. Died Twenty-Mile-
852; buried Union Cemetery,

ressman. Mem. U.S. Ho. of
th congresses, 1805-09.

aughan, pioneer in eclectic
y., Apr. 14, 1804; s. Thom-
han) M.; attended Transyl-
l. Coll. of N.Y.; m. Isabel
of. materia medica, obstet-
ice of medicine Reformed
830-39; organized Reformed
i, 1842, became Cincinnati
1845, dean, treas., prof.
and theory and practice,
eclectic system of medi-
ths. of that cult in West;
l. Assn., 1848; wrote arti-
estern Med. Reformer and
Died Cincinnati, July 16,
emetery, Cincinnati.

chitect; b. 1818. Practiced
R.I., more than 30 years;
k Bldg. (with G. A. Hall),
at Brown U., 1862, R.I.
. (with Hall), 1868, Sayre
81 (all Providence); built
50's; mem. A.I.A., 1st pres.
Nov. 25, 1893.

arlow, congressman, diplo-
. 19, 1807; s. William and
Nancy Leavitt, Apr. 21,
loyed as ship-carver, Bath;
s. (Whig), 1840, 41, 43,
of Reps. from Me., 28th,
1843-45, 57-61; mayor
tended Peace Conv., Wash-
.S. consul, London, Eng.,
.869-70; became Brit. citi-
rey, Eng., Feb. 5, 1891;
Ditton, Surrey, Eng.

n, diamond cutter; b. Bos-
Hazen and Lucy (Cary) M.;
, 1849; 4 children. Partner
unnewell & Morse, Boston,
forse Diamond Cutting Co.,
rn technique of diamond-
nents which revolutionized
aving machinery for sawing
cut 1st modern brilliants
rs of refraction; cut Dewey
Tiffany No. 2 diamond, 125
carats in cutting (largest
in U.S.). Died Jamaica
88.

, congressman; b. Attakap-
); attended Norwich (Vt.)
d, 1829; studied law. Ad-
ced in New Orleans and St.
lem. La. Senate, 1842-44;
ps. (Democrat) from La.,
c. 2, 1844-51; del. Dem.
; atty. gen. La., 1853-55;
New Granada to negotiate
fficers of U.S. across Isth-
w Orleans, Feb. 11, 1866;
ery, New Orleans.

clergyman, geographer; b.
23, 1761; s. Jedidiah and
Yale, 1783; studied the-
, 1783-85; S.T.D. (hon.),
d), 1794; m. Elizabeth
11 children including Sam-
ey Edwards, Richard. Li-
egational Ch., 1785, or-
; pastor 1st Congregational
1789-1819; proponent of
mem. bd. overseers Harv-
The Mercury and New Eng-
founder, editor The Pan-
der, Gen. Assn. of Mass.,
808, Park St. Ch., Bos-
act Soc., 1814, Am. Bible
Bd. Commrs. for Fgn. Mis-
by sec. war to study con-
itions, 1820, published re-
Beta Kappa; known as
Geography." Author: Ge-
784 (1st published Am.
an Geography, 1789; The
graphy; Elements of Geography, 1795; The American Gazeteer, 1797; A New Gazeteer for the Eastern Continent, 1802; co-author A Compendious History of New England, 1804; True Reasons on which The Election of a Hollis Professor of Divinity in Harvard College Was Opposed by the Board of Overseers, 14 February, 1805, 1805; A Report to the Secretary of War—On Indian Affairs, Comprising A Narrative of a Tour Performed in the Summer of 1820, 1822. Died New Haven, June 9, 1826.

MORSE, Leopold, congressman; b. Wachenheim, Bavaria, Aug. 15, 1831; attended common schs., Wachenheim. Came to U.S., 1849, settled in Sandwich, N.H.; moved to Boston, employed in a clothing store, later became owner; del. Democratic nat. convs., St. Louis, 1876, Cincinnati, 1880; mem. U.S. Ho. of Reps. (Dem.) from Mass., 45th-48th, 50th congresses, 1877-85, 87-89; elected pres. Post Publishing Co., 1884. Died Boston, Dec. 15, 1892; buried Mt. Auburn Cemetery, Cambridge, Mass.

MORSE, Oliver Andrew, congressman; b. Cherry Valley, N.Y., Mar. 26, 1815; grad. Hamilton Coll., Clinton, N.Y., 1833; studied law. Admitted to N.Y. bar, began practice in Cherry Valley; mem. U.S. Ho. of Reps. (Republican) from N.Y., 35th Congress, 1857-59; writer, translator. Died N.Y.C., Apr. 20, 1870; buried Cherry Valley Cemetery.

MORSE, Samuel Finley Breese, inventor, artist; b. Charlestown, Mass., Apr. 27, 1791; s. Rev. Jedidiah and Elizabeth (Breese) M.; grad. Yale, 1810, LL.D. (hon.); attended Royal Acad., London, Eng., 1811-15; m. Lucretia Walker, Sept. 29, 1818; m. 2d, Sarah Griswold, Aug. 9, 1848; 8 children. Painter in Eng.; noteworthy works include: Hercules, 1812 (recipient gold medal), The Dying Hercules, 1813, The Judgment of Jupiter, 1815; engaged in portrait painting in U.S., 1815-29, best-known were two portraits of Lafayette, 1821, 22, also The Old House of Representatives; a founder N.A.D., 1st pres., 1826-42, also pres., 1861; made trip to Europe for artistic study, 1829-31; prof. painting, sculpture N.Y.U., 1832; invented electro-magnetic recording telegraph; invented sending and receiving apparatus, code (Morse Code), by 1832; worked out system of electro-magnetic relays to be placed in the telegraph line weak points, 1836; Congress voted $30,000 for an exptl. line from Washington, D.C. to Balt., 1843, line completed, May 24, 1844; Morse's rights to profits from his invention were upheld in the courts; electrician for Cyrus W. Field's Co., engaged in laying Transatlantic Cable, 1857-58; a founder Vassar Coll., 1861. Died N.Y.C., Apr. 2, 1872; buried Greenwood Cemetery, Bklyn.

MORSE, Sidney Edwards, editor, inventor; b. Charlestown, Mass., Feb. 7, 1794; s. Jedidiah and Elizabeth (Breese) M.; A.B., Yale, 1811; attended Litchfield (Conn.), Law Sch., then Andover Theol. Sem., 1817-20; m. Catharine Livingston, Apr. 1, 1841, 2 children. A founder, Recorder (1st religious newspaper in Boston), 1816; a founder N.Y. Observer, 1823, sr. editor, propr., 1823-58; editor (with father) A New System of Modern Geography . . . Accompanied by an Atlas, 1822; patentee (with brother Samuel) flexible piston pump; inventor process "cerography" (map of Conn. was first example), 1839; patentee (with son) bathometer, 1866. Author: The New States, or a Comparison of the . . . Northern and Southern States: With a View to Expose the Injustice of Erecting New States at the South (collection of reprinted articles), 1813; An Atlas of the United States, 1823; Cerographic Atlas of the United States, 1842-45; A System of Geography for the Use of Schools, 1844. Died Dec. 23, 1871.

MORTIMER, Mary, educator; b. Trowbridge, Eng., Dec. 2, 1816; d. William and Mary (Pierce) Mortimer; attended Geneva (N.Y.) Sem., 1838-40. Came to U.S. with family, 1821; pioneer in higher edn. of women in period before and after Civil War; inaugurated (with Catharine Beecher) a college system of instrn. for young women, Milw., 1st prin. Milw. Female Coll. (merged with Downer Coll. to form present-day Milw. Downer Coll., 1895); 1851, head coll., 1850-57, 66-64; formed (with Catharine Beecher) Am. Woman's Edn'l. Assns. at home of Harriet Beecher Stowe; prin. sem. Baraboo, Wis., 1857-66; initiated and organized Woman's Club of Wis. Died Milw., July 14, 1877

MORTON, Charles, clergyman, educator; b. Pendavy, Eng., 1627; s. Rev. Nicholas and Francis (Kestell) M.; B.A., Wadham Coll., Oxford, 1649, M.A., 1662; m. Joan Morton, 1 child. Set up Newington Green, most famous of Dissenter's academies nr. London, 1666; landed in Boston, July 1686; minister, Charlestown, Mass.; fellow Harvard, 1692, 1st v.p., 1697; wrote Compendium Physicae and System of Logic, used as textbooks at Harvard into 18th century; best known work The Spirit of Man..., 1693; founded assn. of 22 leading ministers from Boston vicinity, 1690; 1st minister in New Eng. to perform marriages; began ceremony of "installation" among Congregationalists. Died Apr. 11, 1698.

MORTON, George, colonist; b. nr. Scrooby, Eng., 1585; s. Anthony Morton; m. Juliana Carpenter, July 23, 1612, 4 children including Nathaniel. Converted to Puritanism as a youth by William Brewster; became financial mainstay of Pilgrims while at Leyden, circa 1612-23; went as agt. to London to negotiate with mchts. for a charter for colonization, 1619; an organizer of voyage of ships Anne and Little James on which he came with wife and children to Am., 1623; published 1st writings sent from Am. under title A Relation or Journal of the Beginnings and Proceedings of the English Plantation Settled at Plimoth in New England... London, printed for John Bellamie, 1622, Died June 1624.

MORTON, George, architect; b. Edinburgh, Scotland, 1790; ed. Edinburgh. Came to U.S., circa 1815, settled in Pitts.; moved to St. Louis, 1823, became partner (with Joseph Laveille) in archtl. firm Morton & Laveille. Works include (with Laveille): 1st Court House (no longer standing), 1825; old Jefferson Barracks, 1825; Episcopal Ch., 1825; Roman Catholic Cathedral (Greek Revival style, most noteworthy work), 1834 (all St. Louis). Died 1865.

MORTON, Jackson, senator; b. nr. Fredericksburg, Va., Aug. 10, 1794; grad. Washington Coll. (now Washington and Lee U.), Lexington, Va., 1814, Coll. William and Mary, 1815. Moved to Pensacola, Fla., 1820, engaged in lumber bus.; mem. Fla. Legislative Council, 1836-37, pres., 1837; del. Fla. Constl. Conv., 1838; Navy agt. at Pensacola, 1841-45; Whig presdl. elector, 1848; mem. U.S. Senate (Whig) from Fla., 1849-55; dep. to Provisional Congress of Confederate States Am., 1861; mem. Confederate Congress from Fla., 1862-65. Died "Mortonia" nr. Milton, Fla., Nov. 20, 1874; buried "Mortonia."

MORTON, James St. Clair, army officer, engr., author; b. Phila., Sept. 24, 1829; s. Dr. Samuel George and Rebecca Grellet (Pearsall) M.; grad. U.S. Mil. Acad., 1851. Asst. engr. in constrn. defenses of Charleston harbor, S.C., 1851-52; commd. 2d lt., 1854, asst. prof. engring. U.S. Mil. Acad.; promoted 1st lt., 1856; charge Potomac Water Works, 1859-60; engr. in charge Chiriqui Expdn. to C.Am. of Washington Aqueduct, 1860-61; capt. engrs., 1861; chief engr. Army of the Ohio, 1862; brig. gen. U.S. Volunteers, 1862; chief engr. Army of the Cumberland, 1862-63; brevetted lt. col. engrs. in regular army, 1863; maj. Corps Engrs., 1863; brevetted col., 1863; supt. defenses of Nashville, Murfreesboro, Clarksville, Ft. Donelson, 1863-64; asst. to chief engr., Washington, D.C., 1864; brevetted brig. gen., 1864. Author: Memoir on the Dangers and Defences of New York City, 1858; Memoir on American Fortification, 1859. Died Petersburg, Va., June 17, 1864; buried Laurel Hill Cemetery, Phila.

MORTON, Jeremiah, congressman; b. Fredericksburg, Va., Sept. 3, 1799; attended Washington Coll. (now Washington and Lee U.), 1814-15; grad. Coll. William and Mary, 1819; studied law. Admitted to Va. bar, practiced in Raccoon Ford; engaged in farming; mem. U.S. Ho. of Reps. (Whig) from Va., 31st Congress, 1849-51; trustee Theol. Sem. of Va., Alexandria; mem. Va. Secession Conv., 1861. Died "Lessland," Orange County, Va., Nov. 28, 1878; buried "Morton Hall," Orange County.

MORTON, John, Continental congressman; b. Ridley, Pa., circa 1724; s. John and Mary (Archer) M.; m. Anne Justice, 1754, 8 children. Surveyor of land, Delaware County, Pa., before 1757; justice of peace, Delaware County, 1757-67; mem. Pa. Gen. Assembly; 1756-66, 69-75, speaker, 1771-75; mem. Stamp Act Congress, 1765; high sheriff Delaware County, 1766-70; judge Delaware County Ct. Common Pleas, 1770-74; asso. judge Supreme Ct. Appeals of Pa., 1774; mem. Continental Congress from Pa., 1774-77, cast deciding vote for Declaration of Independence, also signer. Died Ridley Park, Delaware County, Apr. 1777; buried St. Paul's Churchyard, Chester, Pa.

MORTON, Marcus, gov. Mass., congressman; b. Freetown, Mass., Feb. 19, 1784; s. Nathaniel and Mary (Cary) M.; grad. Brown U., 1804; attended Litchfield, (Conn.) Law Sch.; m. Charlotte Hodges, Dec. 23, 1807, 12 children including Marcus. Admitted to Mass. bar, 1806; clk. Mass. Senate, 1811; mem. U.S. Ho. of Reps. (Democrat) from Mass., 15th-16th, 18th congresses, 1817-21, 24-25; R. gov. Mass., 1823; judge Mass. Supreme Ct., 1825-40; gov. Mass., 1840, 41, 43, 44; collector of customs, Boston, 1845-49; del. Mass. Constl. Conv., 1853; mem. Mass. Ho. of Reps., 1858. Died Taunton, Mass., Feb. 6, 1864; buried Mt. Pleasant Cemetery, Taunton.

MORTON, Marcus, jurist; b. Taunton, Mass., Apr. 8, 1819; s. Marcus and Charlotte (Hodges) M.; grad. Brown U., 1838, Harvard Law Sch., 1840; m. Abby B. Hoppin, Oct. 19, 1843, 3 children. Admitted to Suffolk (Mass.) bar, 1841; mem. Mass. Constl. Conv., 1853; mem. Mass. Ho. of Reps., 1858; judge Superior Ct. of Suffolk County,

an original mem. Mass. Superior Ct., 1859-69; justice Mass. Supreme Jud. Ct., 1869, chief justice, 1882-90. Died Andover, Mass., Feb. 10, 1891.

MORTON, Nathaniel, colonist, author; b. Leyden, The Netherlands, 1613; s. George and Juliana (Carpenter) M.; m. Lydia Cooper, Apr. 29, 1635; m. 2d, Ann (Pritchard) Templar, 1674. Came to Plymouth, Mass., 1623; sec. of colony, keeper of records, Plymouth, 1647-85, entrusted with most of routine work of govt., drafted most of laws of colony, statute book probably largely his work, tax collector, assessor, constantly mem. coms. to survey land, determine boundaries, lay out roads, settle disputes; mem., sec. council of war to conduct campaigns against King Philip, 1671; town clk. of Plymouth, 1674-79; sec., compiler records, prominent mgmt. and affairs of Pilgrim Ch.; prepared New Englands Memorial, painted Cambridge, Eng., 1669, which remains only authority for list of signers of the Compact in 1620, for the name of Speedwell, also for many minor biog. details, and period after 1646; author Symposium of Church History of Plymouth, 1680; also some of earliest verse in Am. Died Plymouth, June 16, 1685.

MORTON, Oliver Hazard Perry, senator, gov. Ind.; b. Salisbury, Ind., Aug. 4, 1823; s. James Throck and Sarah (Miller) M.; grad. Miami U., Oxford, O., 1845; m. Lucinda Burbank, May 15, 1845, 5 children. Admitted to Ind. bar, 1847; practiced in Centerville, Ind., 1847-60; judge 6th jud. circuit of Ind., 1852; lt. gov. Ind., 1860-61; gov. Ind., 1861-67, an active supporter of Civil War efforts, dissolved state legislature after Peace Democrats won control in 1862 elections, ran state without calling legislature, 1863-65; del. from Ind. to Nat. Rep. Conv., 1872, 76; mem. U.S. Senate from Ind., 1867-77, a radical reconstructionist in Senate, largely responsible for ratification 15th Amendment which prohibits laws against suffrage because of race; mem. Electoral Commn. apptd. to determine outcome contested presdl. election in several states, 1876. Died Indpls., Nov. 1, 1877; buried Crown Hill Cemetery, Indpls.

MORTON, Samuel George, physician, naturalist; b. Phila., Jan. 26, 1799; s. George and Jane (Cummings) M.; M.D., U. Pa., 1820; M.D., U. Edinburgh, 1823; m. Rebecca Pearsall, Oct. 23, 1827, 7 children including James St. Clair. Became mem. Acad. Natural Scis. Phila. circa 1820, recording sec., 1825-29, corr. sec., 1831, v.p., 1840, pres., 1849-51; prof. anatomy Pa. Med. Coll., 1839-43; collected large number human skulls for comparative study, concluded that races of man were of diverse origin; credited with describing new species of hippopotamus. Author: Synopsis of the Organic Remains of the Cretaceous Group of the U.S., 1834; Illustrations of Pulmonary Consumption, 1834; Crania Americana, 1839; Crania Egyptiaca, 1839; Human Anatomy, Special, General and Microscopic, 1849. Died Phil.., May 15, 1851.

MORTON, Sarah Wentworth Apthorpe (pseudonym Philenia), poetess; b. Boston, Aug. 1759; d. James and Sarah (Wentworth) Apthorp; m. Perez Morton, Feb. 24, 1781, 5 children. Contbr. to Massachusetts Mag., 1789-93; enjoyed great popularity in her time, style widely copied and imitated; there is some question as to whether she authored earliest Am. novel, The Power of Sympathy; works include: Ouabi, or the Virtues of Nature, an Indian Tale, 1790, Boston, 1790; The African Chief (verses), 1792; Beacon Hill, a Local Poem, Historical and Descriptive, 1797. Died Quincy, Mass., May 14, 1846.

MORTON, Thomas, pioneer; b. England. Came to Am. for a year, 1622, returned, 1625, settled nr. Quincy, Mass.; moved to Merry Mount, Mass., became fur trader; sold guns to Indians; chastized by Pilgrims who cut down his maypole, 1627, captured by Capt. Miles Standish, 1628, sent to Eng. to be tried; returned to Am., 1629, tried to re-establish fur trade; captured by Puritans (who burned his trading post), sent to Eng. for trial; returned to Plymouth, again banished, 1643; arrested and held prisoner in Boston, 1644-45; moved to Me. Author: New English Canaan, 1637. Died Me.

MORTON, William Thomas Green, dentist; b. Charlton, Mass., Aug. 9, 1819; s. James and Rebecca (Needham) M.; studied dentistry Coll. Dental Surgery, Balt., 1840-42; also studied dentistry Harvard Med. Sch.; M.D. (hon.), Washington U. of Medicine, Balt.; m. Elizabeth Whitman, May 1844, 4 children including William James. While experimenting with mesmerism and nostrums became involved with sulfur ether which he later concentrated and linked to use in dental anaesthesia; used ether in drops as local anaesthetic during filling of a tooth, 1844, extracted a tooth with this method, 1846; etherized a patient from whom Dr. John Warren removed vascular tumor from left side of neck, 1846; applied for patent to protect his rights, received patent for 14 years, 1846; issued weekly circular Morton's Letheon, 5 editions, under his direction, 1846; awarded Montyon prize of 5,000

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this assignment, from 1858 to 1859, he
ghthouse engineer of the third district
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Next he was in charge of the Potomac
Works (1859–60), then engineer in
of the Chiriqui Expedition to Central
a, and from 1860 to 1861 of the Wash-
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vas promoted captain of engineers Aug.
. Later that year he became superin-
engineer of the construction of Fort Jef-
Dry Tortugas, Fla., and in 1862 was in
of repairs at Fort Mifflin, Pa. From June
t. 27, 1862, he was chief engineer of the
f the Ohio. He was appointed brigadier-
United States Volunteers, Nov. 29, 1862.
ct. 27, 1862, to Aug. 22, 1863, and from
to Nov. 14, 1863, he was chief engineer
rmy of the Cumberland and from Nov.
v. 7, 1863, commanded the pioneer bri-
ached to the XIV Corps of that army.
cipated in the Tennessee campaign and
nt and meritorious services in the battle
River, Dec. 31, 1862–Jan. 2, 1863, was
lieutenant-colonel of engineers of the
Army. Until June 1863 he was engaged
ing Nashville and Murfreesboro, Tenn.
promoted major, corps of engineers,
363, and participated in the advance on
ıa, June 24 to July 4, and in the cross-
e Cumberland Mountains and the Ten-
ver, Aug. 15 to Sept. 4 of that year. He
ıded in the battle of Chickamauga and
20, 1863, was brevetted colonel for gal-
meritorious services at that battle.
ptember to November of the same year
ıgaged in fortifying Chattanooga, and
7 was mustered out of the volunteer

s superintending engineer of the de-
Nashville, Murfreesboro, Clarksville,
Donelson, Nov. 14, 1863, to Jan. 30,
n he became assistant to the chief en-
Washington, D. C. On May 18, 1864,
ointed chief engineer of the IX Army
participated during the Richmond
in the battles of North Anna, May 24,
potomoy, May 28–29, 1864; Bethesda
ay 30, 1864; and the assault of Peters-
June 17, 1864, where he was killed
ing the attack. On the same day he
ted brigadier-general, United States
gallant and meritorious service. He
n Laurel Hill Cemetery, Philadelphia.
the author of a *Memoir on Fortifica-*
); *Memoir on the Dangers and De-*

fences of New York City (1858); *Memoir on American Fortification* (1859). These are analytical studies of European fortifications, and of American fortification as it should have been. Written in the days when cannon had a maximum range of less than 5,000 yards, their value today is entirely in their historical interest. His *Memoir of the Life and Services of Captain and Brevet Major John Sanders, of the Corps of Engineers, U. S. Army* (1861) is an appreciation of the work of a great military engineer.

[G. W. Cullum, *Biog. Reg. Officers and Grads. U. S. Mil. Acad.* (1891), vol. II; War Dept. records; F. B. Heitman, *Biog. Reg. and Dict. U. S. Army* (1903), vol. I; Clarence Pearsall, *Hist. and Geneal. of the Pearsall Family in England and America* (1928), vol. II.]

J. W. L.

MORTON, JOHN (*c.* 1724–April 1777), signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born after his father's death in Ridley, Chester (now Delaware) County, Pa., the son of John Morton and Mary Archer. His great-grandfather, Morten Mortenson, had sailed from Gothenburg, Sweden, in 1654, a member of the Tenth Swedish Expedition under Johan Classon Rising, the last governor of New Sweden. Young Morton received only three months of public schooling, but he was efficiently educated at home in all common branches of learning by his foster father, John Sketchley, an Englishman of excellent training and a surveyor by profession, who had married the widowed Mrs. Morton and had taken an affectionate interest in her son. Possessed of an alert, mature mind, great industry, and a fondness for precision, the stepson was soon able to share the work of his teacher, so that his early employment consisted in surveying lands and cultivating his "patrimonial farm." Many tracts on Tinicum Island were surveyed by Morton. In 1754 he married Ann Justice (or Justis), a descendant of the Delaware Swedes, and had by her three sons and five daughters, who survived him. Their descendants are numerous and many have attained distinction.

Morton was early called into public life and served his state and country with unusual faithfulness. Elected a member of the Provincial Assembly from Chester County in 1756, he was reëlected to the same office for ten consecutive years. In February 1767 his position was filled by another—apparently because of political disagreements with the views of Morton—but he was returned to the Assembly in 1769 and served seven more terms, acting after Mar. 15, 1775, as speaker of that body. Beginning in October 1766, he held for three years the position of high sheriff of Chester County. In 1757 he had been chosen justice of the peace for Chester County

and in 1770 a judge for the trial
also served for a time as preside
court of general sessions and c
his county, and became in Apri
ciate judge of the supreme court
In 1765 he was one of the fou
delegates to the Stamp Act Cong
delegate to the Continental c
1774 until early in 1777. In the
1776, his vote together with tho
Franklin and James Wilson place
on the side of independence by a
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portant committees and was chairm
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[Sources include: *Minutes of the Pro*
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(1880); M. A. Leach, "John Morton,
navian Rev., July–Aug. 1915; J. H. M
(and Its Vicinity), Delaware County,
Geo. Smith, *Hist. of Delaware County,*
D. Paxson, *Sketch and Map of a Trip*
Tinicum Island, Delaware County, Pa.
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MORTON, JULIUS STERLIN
1832–Apr. 27, 1902), agriculturist,
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and in 1770 a judge for the trial of negroes. He also served for a time as president judge of the court of general sessions and common pleas of his county, and became in April 1774 an associate judge of the supreme court of the province. In 1765 he was one of the four Pennsylvania delegates to the Stamp Act Congress and was a delegate to the Continental congresses from 1774 until early in 1777. In the session of July 1776, his vote together with those of Benjamin Franklin and James Wilson placed Pennsylvania on the side of independence by a majority of one. While in Congress Morton served on many important committees and was chairman of the committee of the whole on the adoption of the Articles of Confederation finally ratified after his own death. After the battle of Lexington he had been offered the colonelcy of a volunteer corps in Pennsylvania, but he declined the honor because of his other duties.

Morton was essentially a self-made man, of pleasant social and domestic qualities, sound in judgment, and modest in manner. His character is revealed in his unrelenting stand in favor of colonial freedom, in a state where opinion on the matter was seriously divided. A museum of Swedish-American interests erected in Philadelphia has been named the John Morton Memorial Building.

[Sources include: *Minutes of the Provincial Council of Pa.*, vols. IX and X (1852); *Pa. Archives*, 2 ser. IX (1880); M. A. Leach, "John Morton," *Am. Scandinavian Rev.*, July–Aug. 1915; J. H. Martin, *Chester (and Its Vicinity), Delaware County, in Pa.* (1877); Geo. Smith, *Hist. of Delaware County, Pa.* (1862); H. D. Paxson, *Sketch and Map of a Trip from Phila. to Tinicum Island, Delaware County, Pa.* (1926). There are brief biographies of Morton in the various works on the Signers, though they are for the most part mere eulogies of character. Since there were several contemporaries by the same name, no portrait of Morton, the Signer, is considered authentic. His tombstone in St. Paul's churchyard at Chester, Pa. and the tablet to his memory in the Independence Chamber of the State House in Philadelphia give 1724 as the year of birth, but it may have taken place early in 1725, N.S.]

A. B. B.

MORTON, JULIUS STERLING (Apr. 22, 1832–Apr. 27, 1902), agriculturist, was born at Adams, Jefferson County, N. Y., of New England lineage, the son of Julius Dewey and Emeline (Sterling) Morton. In 1834 Julius Morton followed the tide of emigration into the west, locating first at Monroe, Mich., and later at Detroit, where he became a well-known and prosperous citizen. Young Julius Sterling Morton, who showed signs of mental alertness at an early age, was given excellent educational opportunities. He spent two years at the University of Michigan, but, owing to his independence of the constituted authorities, he was expelled in his

senior year. Although he was apparently never in residence at Union College, Schenectady, N. Y., he received the A.B. degree there in 1856. In 1858 the Regents of the University of Michigan voted to confer the A.B. degree as of the class of 1854. On Oct. 30, 1854, he was married to Caroline Joy French, the daughter of Hiram Joy and the adopted daughter of David and Cynthia French of Detroit. The wedding trip was the journey to a new home in Nebraska, then much advertised by reason of the discussion Douglas' Kansas-Nebraska Act had aroused. After a short stay at Bellevue, Neb., he located at Nebraska City, where for a number of years he edited a pioneer newspaper, the *Nebraska City News*, writing, as he was also accustomed to talk, vigorously and with small regard for the consequences.

He early interested himself in territorial politics. As a member of the territorial legislature, the second assembly, 1855–56, and the fourth, 1857–58, he opposed the efforts of Omaha and the North Platte country to dominate the affairs of the territory, and he fought valiantly against the numerous wild-cat banking projects then so generally approved by local speculators. In 1858 his leadership in territorial affairs was recognized when he was appointed by President Buchanan to be secretary of the territory, an office he held until 1861. For several months of that time he also served as acting-governor. He was a Democrat, and as such he was repeatedly a candidate for office. Twice he ran for territorial delegate to Congress, and four times he was his party's nominee for governor. Many times, also, he received the Democratic vote of the legislature for United States senator. In the days when the railroads figured largely in Nebraska politics, he was regarded as the especial friend of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad. His highest political honor came in 1893, when he was appointed secretary of agriculture by President Cleveland, a post in which he distinguished himself by his emphasis upon economy. Among other things he eliminated temporarily the free distribution of seeds by congressmen, in his opinion a sheer waste of money.

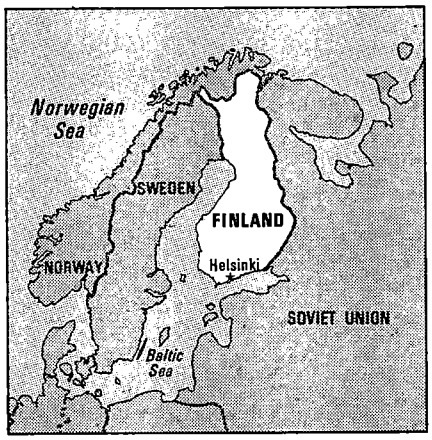
Cleveland's appointment came to Morton not merely because of his political record and his low-tariff, hard-money views but also because of his standing as an agriculturist. He was a student of agriculture; he owned and lived upon a quarter-section of land adjacent to Nebraska City, and he esteemed it his duty to instruct the people of the state in the subject of farming by precept, perhaps, even more than by example.

background notes

Finland

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs

August 1990



Official Name: Republic of Finland

PROFILE

Geography

Area: 337,113 sq. km. (130,160 sq. mi.); about the size of New England, New Jersey, and New York combined. **Cities:** *Capital*—Helsinki (pop. 484,399). *Other cities*—Tampere (167,335), Turku (163,655). **Terrain:** Low but hilly, more than 70% forested, with more than 60,000 lakes. **Climate:** Cool; mean annual temperature in Helsinki (1977–86) +5 °C (41 °F); July +17 °C (63 °F); January -6 °C (21 °F).

People

Nationality: *Noun*—Finn(s). *Adjective*—Finnish. **Population** (1989): 4,971,844. **Annual growth rate** (1989): 0.4%. **Ethnic groups:** Finns, Swedes, Lapps, Gypsies, Tartars. **Religions** (1987): Lutheran 88.7%, Orthodox 1.1%. **Languages:** Finnish 93.6%, Swedish 6%. **Education:** *Years compulsory*—9. *Attendance*—almost 100%. *Literacy*—almost 100%. **Health** (1989): *Infant mortality rate*—6/1,000. *Life expectancy*—males 71 yrs., females 79 yrs. **Work force** (1989, 2,559,000): *Agriculture*—8.7%. *Industry, commerce, and finance*—53.3%. *Services* (public and personal)—24.7%. *Government*—5.4%. *Transport* (storage and communication)—7.1%.

Government

Type: Constitutional republic. **Constitution:** July 17, 1919. **Independence:** December 6, 1917.

Branches: *Executive*—president (chief of state), prime minister (head of government), Council of State (cabinet). *Legislative*—Unicameral parliament. *Judicial*—Supreme Court, regional appellate courts, local courts.

Subdivisions: 12 provinces, provincial self-rule for the Aland Islands.

Political parties: Four largest, in order: Social Democratic Party (SDP), National Coalition (Conservative) Party, Center Party, Leftist Alliance.

Central government budget (1989): $28.91 billion.

Defense (1989): 1.4% of GDP.

Flag: Light blue cross on a white field.

Economy

GDP (1989): $114.9 billion. **Annual growth rate:** 5% (GDP). **Per capita income** (1989 est.): $23,153. **Inflation rate** (1989): 6.6%.

Natural resources: Forests, minerals (copper, zinc, iron), farmland.

Agriculture (3% of GDP): *Products*—meat (pork and beef), grain (wheat, rye, barley, oats), dairy products, potatoes, rapeseed.

Industry (27% of GDP): *Types*—metal and steel, forest, foodstuffs, textile and clothing.

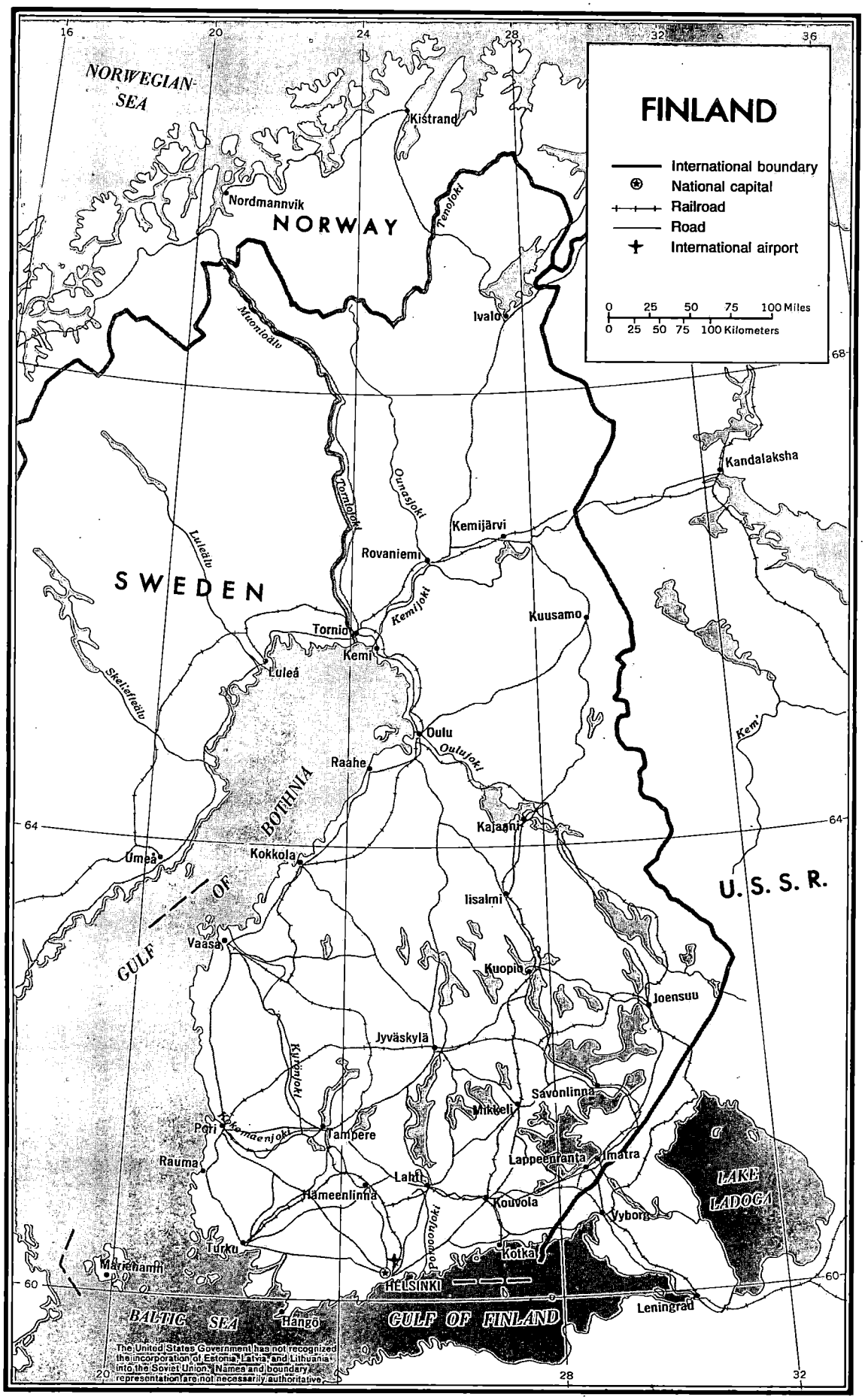
Trade (1989): *Exports*—$23.2 billion: paper and paperboard, machinery and equipment, ships, lumber, woodpulp, chemicals. *Major markets*—USSR 14.5%, Sweden 14.4%, UK 12%, FRG 10%, US 6.4%. *Imports*—$24.6 billion: fuels and lubricants, machinery and equipment, including motor vehicles, basic manufactures, chemicals; foodstuffs. *Major suppliers*—FRG 17.3%, Sweden 13.6%, USSR 11.4%, US 6.3%.

Official exchange rate (1989): 4.295 Finnmarks=US$1.

Fiscal year: Calendar year.

Membership in International Organizations

UN and some of its specialized and related agencies, including the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), International Monetary Fund (IMF), General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), International Finance Corporation (IFC), International Development Association (IDA); Bank for International Settlements (BIS); Asian Development Bank; Inter-American Development Bank (IDB); Council of Europe; Nordic Council; European Free Trade Association (EFTA); European Community (EC)—free trade agreement; Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD); INTELSAT.


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SWEDEN
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Kandalaksha
Kemijärvi
Rovaniemi
Kuusamo
Tornio
Kemi
Luleå
Oulu
Raahe
Kajaani
Kokkola
Umeå
Iisalmi
Vaasa
Kuopio
Joensuu
Jyväskylä
Savonlinna
Mikkeli
Pori
Tampere
Rauma
Lahti
Lappeenranta
Imatra
Hämeenlinna
Kouvola
Vyborg
Turku
Kotka
Mariehamn
HELSINKI
Hangö
Leningrad
LAKE LADOGA
BOTHNIA
GULF OF
BALTIC SEA
GULF OF FINLAND
Tenojoki
Muonioälv
Torniojoki
Ounasjoki
Luleälv
Kemijoki
Oulujoki
Kymijoki
Kemi'
Pohjanmaenjoki
Vuoksenjoki
Skellefteälv
The United States Government has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania into the Soviet Union. Names and boundary representation are not necessarily authoritative.

PEOPLE

The origins of the Finnish people are still a matter of conjecture, although most scholars agree that their original home was in what is now west-central Siberia. The Finns arrived in their present territory thousands of years ago, pushing the indigenous Lapps into the more remote northern regions.

The Finnish language is Finno-Ugric, of the Uralic language family (of which Hungarian and Estonian also are a part) and not Indo-European. Lappish, the language of the small Lapp minority, also is Finno-Ugric.

Swedish became the dominant language following Finland's incorporation into Sweden in the 12th century. Finnish recovered its predominance after a resurgence of Finnish nationalism in the 19th century. Today, although 94% of the people speak Finnish as a first language, both Finnish and Swedish are official languages.

The population is ethnically homogeneous with no sizable immigrant population. Few tensions exist between the Finnish-speaking majority and the Swedish-speaking minority.

Finns are highly literate, and poetry has played a key role in Finnish history. Publication in 1835 of the Finnish national epic, *The Kalevala*, a collection of traditional myths and legends, first stirred the nationalism that led to independence in 1917.

An important theme in Finnish literature is humanity's unity with nature, which identifies human fate with impersonal forces and which gives Finnish literature a somber, sometimes tragic, sometimes heroic, tone. Another theme is the importance of the common people—the Finnish folk. One of the country's major writers, Frans Emil Sillanpaa, received the Nobel Prize for literature in 1939.

Finland is one of the most active publishing countries in the world. Although major literary works have been translated into English, Finnish music, because it does not require translation, is better known. This is especially true of the works of Jean Sibelius who, along with many other Finnish artists, was profoundly influenced by *The Kalevala*.

Finns also are outstanding in other artistic fields; their jewelry, textile, glass, and furniture designs have gained prominence throughout the world.

Finland enjoys complete religious freedom as well as free education through the university level. An extensive social welfare system, constituting about one-fifth of the national income, includes a variety of pension and assistance programs and a comprehensive health insurance program.

In the mid-1970s, the educational system was reformed with the goal of equalizing educational opportunities. Beginning at age 7, all Finnish children are required to attend a "basic school" of nine grade levels. After this, they may elect to continue along an academic *(lukio)* or vocational *(ammattikoulu)* line. However, most pursue vocational studies. About one child in four receives a higher education in this highly competitive system. The number of openings in higher educational institutions is less than the demand.



Finnish folkdancing.

HISTORY

Finland's nearly 700-year association with the Kingdom of Sweden began in 1154 with the introduction of Christianity by Sweden's King Eric. During the ensuing centuries, Finland played an important role in the political life of the Swedish-Finnish realm, and Finnish soldiers often predominated in Swedish armies. Finns also formed a significant proportion of the first "Swedish" settlers in 17th-century America.

In 1809, Finland was conquered by the armies of Czar Alexander I and thereafter remained an autonomous grand duchy connected with the Russian Empire until the end of 1917. On December 6, 1917, shortly after the Bolshevik Revolution in Russia, Finland declared its independence. In 1918, Finland experienced a brief but bitter civil war that colored domestic politics for many years.

During World War II, Finland fought the Soviet Union twice—in the Winter War of 1939–40 and again in the Continuation War of 1941–44. This was followed by the Lapland War from 1944–45 when Finland fought against the Germans as they withdrew their forces from northern Finland.

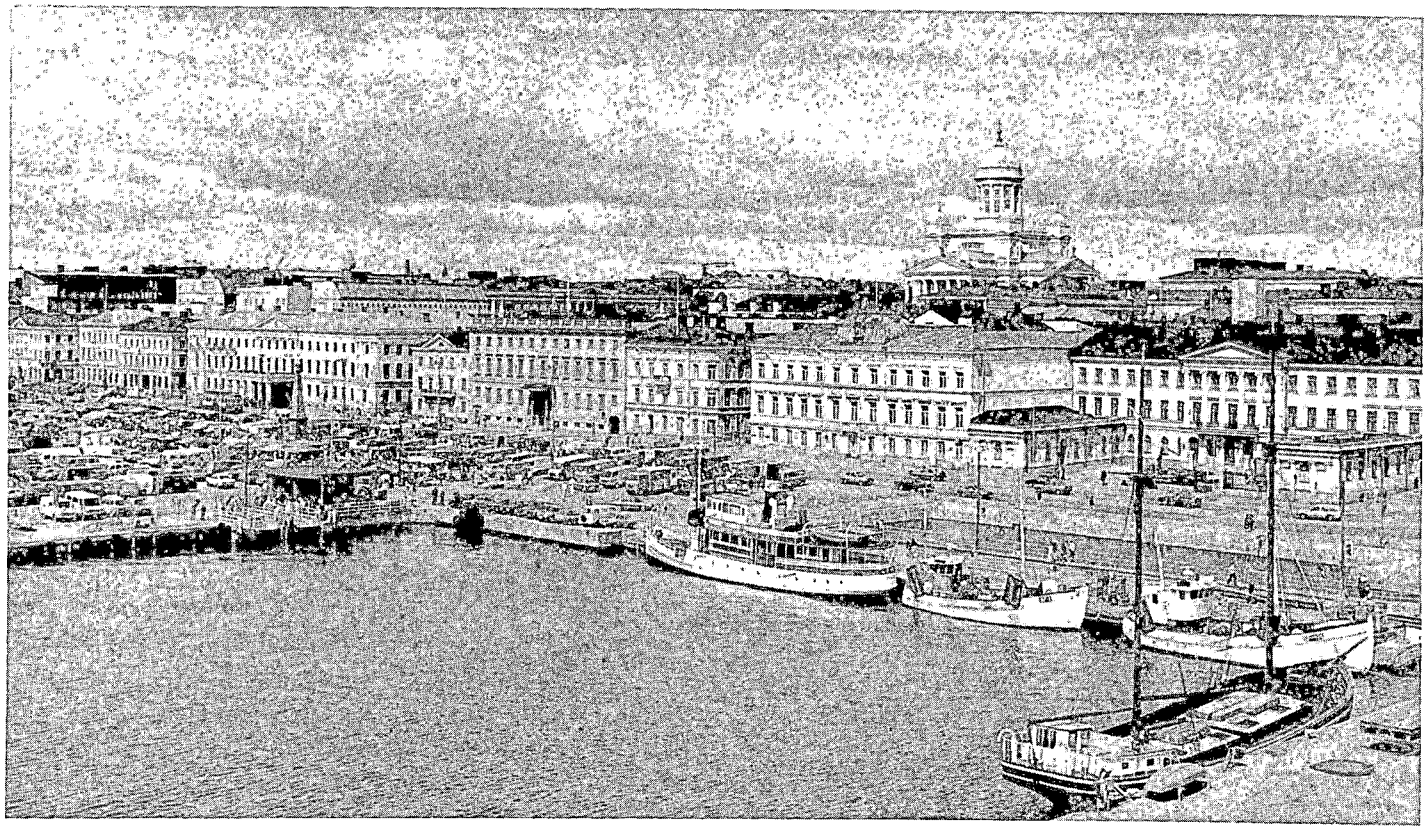
The Treaty of Peace, signed at Paris on February 10, 1947, limited the size of Finland's defense forces and provided for the cession to the Soviet Union of the Petsamo area on the Arctic coast, the Karelian Isthmus in southeastern Finland, and other territory along the former eastern border. Another provision, terminated in 1956, leased the Porkkala area near Helsinki to the USSR for use as a naval base and gave free access to this area across Finnish territory. The peace treaty also called for Finland to pay to the Soviet Union reparations of 300 million gold dollars (amounting to an estimated $570 million in 1952, the year the payments ended). The United States was not a signatory to the treaty because it had not been at war with Finland.

GOVERNMENT

Under the Finnish constitution, political power is divided between the *Eduskunta* (parliament) and the president of the republic, with the highest executive power vested in the president.

Elected for a 6-year term, the president:

- Handles foreign policy, except for certain international agreements and decisions of peace or war, which must be submitted to parliament;
- Is commander in chief of the armed forces and has wide decree and appointive powers;
- May initiate legislation, block legislation by pocket veto, and call extraordinary parliamentary sessions; and
- Appoints the cabinet.



A view of Helsinki's neoclassic center.

The Council of State is made up of the prime minister and ministers for the various departments of the central government as well as an ex-officio member, the Chancellor of Justice. Ministers are not obliged to be members of the *Eduskunta* and need not be formally identified with any political party.

Constitutionally, the 200-member, unicameral *Eduskunta* is the supreme authority in Finland. It may alter the constitution, bring about the resignation of the Council of State, and override presidential vetoes; its acts are not subject to judicial review. Legislation may be initiated by the president, the Council of State, or one of the *Eduskunta* members.

The *Eduskunta* is elected on the basis of proportional representation. All persons 18 or older, except military personnel on active duty and a few high judicial officials, are eligible for election. The regular parliamentary term is 4 years; however, the president may dissolve the *Eduskunta* and order new elections at any time.

The judicial system is divided between courts with regular civil and criminal jurisdiction and special courts with responsibility for litigation between the public and the administrative organs of the state. Finnish law is codified. Although there is no writ of habeas corpus or bail, the maximum period of pre-trial detention was recently reduced to 4 days. The Finnish court system consists of local courts, regional appellate courts, and a supreme court.

Finland's 12 provinces are divided into cities, townships, and communes administered by municipal and communal councils elected by proportional representation once every 4 years. The 11 mainland provinces are administered by provincial boards composed of civil servants and each headed by a presidentially appointed governor. The boards are responsible to the Ministry of the Interior and play a supervisory and coordinating role within the provinces.

The island province of Aaland is located near the 60th parallel between Sweden and Finland. It enjoys local autonomy by virtue of an international convention of 1921, implemented most recently by the Act on Aaland Self-Government of 1951. The islands are further distinguished by the fact that they are entirely Swedish speaking. Government is vested in the provincial council, which consists of 30 delegates elected directly by Aaland's citizens.

Principal Government Officials

President—Mauno Koivisto
Prime Minister— Harri Holkeri
Foreign Minister—Pertti Paasio
Ambassador to the United States—Jukka Valtasaari
Ambassador to the United Nations—Klaus Tornudd

Finland maintains an embassy in the United States at 3216 New Mexico Avenue, NW, Washington, DC 20016 (tel. 202–363–2430).

POLITICAL CONDITIONS

Finland's proportional representation system encourages a multitude of political parties and has resulted in many coalition governments.

Political activity by communists was legalized in 1944. Although four major parties have dominated the postwar political arena, none has a majority position. The largest is the Social Democratic Party (SDP), which commands the support of nearly 25% of the electorate, mainly among the urban working class but also with some support among small farmers, white-collar workers, and professionals. The SDP's rival on the left is the Leftist Alliance, formed in May 1990, which replaces the People's Democratic League (SKDL), the parliamentary group in the *Eduskunta* that represented the Finnish Communist Party. The SKDL's parliamentary effectiveness and potential participation in government were impaired, however, by the deep split in the Communist Party between its "moderate" majority and "hardline" minority.

The two other major parties are the Center Party, traditionally representing rural interests, and the Conservative Party, which draws its major support from the business community and urban professionals.

In the February 1988 election, President Koivisto won a new 6-year term. Parliamentary elections in March 1987 led to the formation of a "red-blue" coalition government that includes both the SDP and the National Coalition (Conservative) Party.

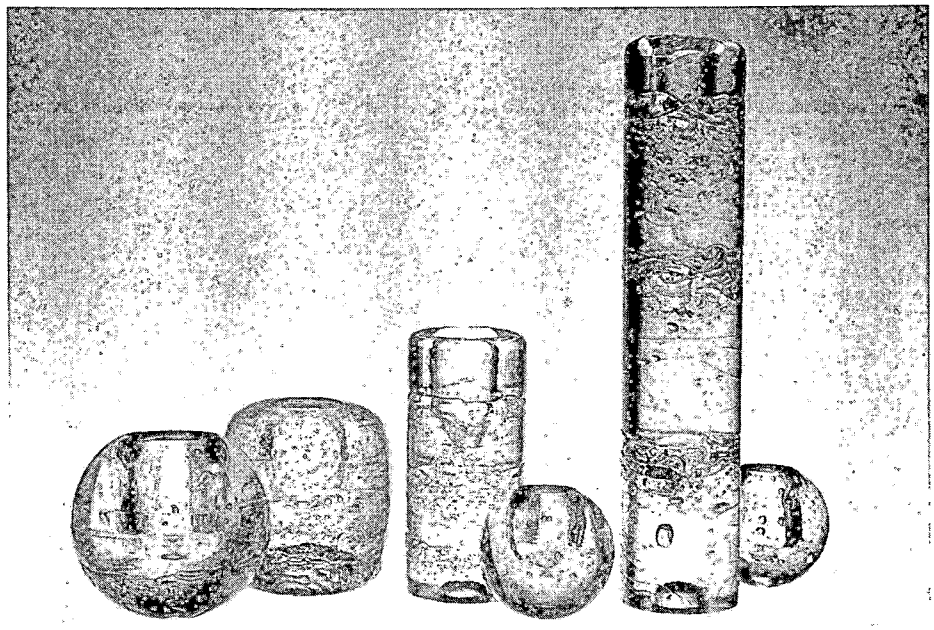
ECONOMY

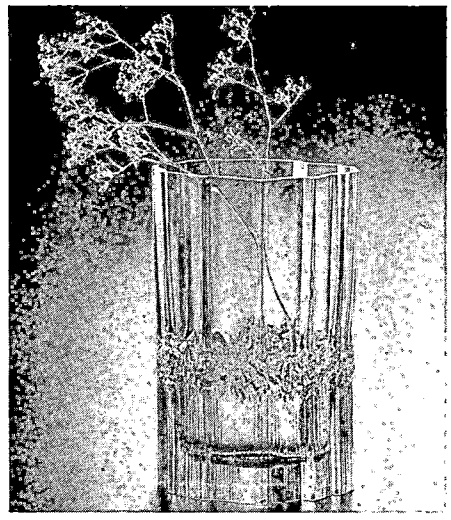
Finland has a dynamic industrial economy based on abundant forest resources, capital investments, and technology. In the 1980s, Finland's economic growth rate was one of the highest of industrialized countries. Exports contribute more than 20% of the gross domestic product (GDP); combined exports of goods and services amount to about 25% of GDP. Exports and imports of goods total about 40% of GDP. Timber and steel are the main industries, but other industries produce manufactured goods ranging from electronics to motor vehicles. Finnish-designed consumer products such as textiles, porcelain, and glassware are world famous.

Finland is self-sufficient in dairy products and meats, as well as in grains in good harvest years, but it imports large amounts of fruits and vegetables. Farms tend to be small, but sizable timber stands are harvested for supplementary income in winter.

Except for timber and several minerals, Finland depends on imported raw materials, energy, and some components for its manufactured products. Traditionally, Finland is a net importer of capital to finance industrial growth.

Finland imported 70% of its energy in 1989. Oil imports met 31% of Finnish requirements while nuclear power provided 15%, coal 11%, and natural gas 6%. Domestic energy sources include hydroelectric power, peat, and wood products.





Iittala Glassworks are famous worldwide. Classic designs capture the atmosphere of Finland's clear, cold waters.

DEFENSE

Finland's active duty defense forces are limited by the 1947 Treaty of Peace to 41,900 troops (army 34,400, navy 4,500, air force 3,000). The country has military conscription under which all young men serve from 8 to 11 months. A reserve force of about 700,000 ensures readiness as one means of deterring involvement in war. The basic tenet of Finnish security policy is that, while foreign policy is important, the nation's ability to defend itself is a prerequisite for a successful policy of neutrality.

Political Parties

In order of respective seating placement

Democratic Alternative	4
Leftist Alliance	16
Social Democrats	56
Rural Party	8
Free Democrats	1
Center Party	40
National Coalition Party	53
Swedish People's Party	13
Greens	4
Christian League	5

FOREIGN RELATIONS

Finland's basic foreign policy goal since 1944 has been to avoid great-power conflicts and to build mutual confidence with the Soviet Union. Although the country is culturally, socially, and politically Western, Finns realize they must live in peace with the USSR and take no action that might be interpreted as a security threat.

The principal architect of the post-1944 foreign policy was J.K. Paasikivi, who was president from 1946 to 1956. Urho Kekkonen, president from 1956 until 1981, further developed this policy, stressing that Finland should be an active rather than a passive neutral. This policy is now popularly known as the "Paasikivi-Kekkonen Line."

In April 1948, Finland signed an Agreement of Friendship, Cooperation, and Mutual Assistance with the Soviet Union, under which Finland is obligated (with the aid of the Soviet Union, if necessary) to resist armed attacks by Germany or its allies against Finland, or against the USSR through Finland. At the same time, the agreement recognizes Finland's desire to remain outside great-power conflicts. This agreement was renewed for 20 years in 1955, again in 1970, and most recently in 1983 to the year 2003.

Finland joined the United Nations and the Nordic Council in 1955, is a full member of the European Free Trade Association, and in 1973 signed a free trade agreement with the European Community. It also has entered into free trade agreements with Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, and the German Democratic Republic; a 15-year economic cooperation agreement with the

Further Information

Available from the Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402:

American University. *Area Handbook for Finland.* 1974.

US Department of Commerce. *"Finland." Foreign Economic Trends and Their Implications for the United States.* International Marketing Information Series: Published annually.



Soviet Union, last extended in 1980; and a cooperation agreement with the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance.

Finland also emphasizes cooperation with the other Scandinavian countries and has been a member of the Nordic Council since 1955. Under the council's auspices, the Nordic countries have created a common labor market and have abolished immigration controls among themselves. The council also serves to coordinate social and cultural policies of the participating countries and has promoted increased cooperation in many fields.

In recent years, Finland has emphasized its participation in international organizations. In proportion to its population, Finland is well represented in the UN civil service. Finnish troops have participated in UN peacekeeping activities since 1956 and Finns now serve with UN forces in the Middle East and with the UN good offices mission in Afghanistan.

Finland has hosted major international meetings such as the first and final stages of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE). The summit-level CSCE meeting in July and August 1975 brought 35 heads of state from Europe and North America to Helsinki for a conference unique in diplomatic history. Finland also hosted a 10th anniversary CSCE commemorative meeting in the summer of 1985 and will host the next CSCE review meeting in 1992.

US-FINNISH RELATIONS

Relations between Finland and the United States are cordial. It has been longstanding US policy to support Finnish neutrality while maintaining and reinforcing Finland's historic, cultural, and economic ties with the West. Economic and trade relations between Finland and the United States are active. President Reagan proclaimed 1988 the Year of US-Finnish Friendship.

Travel Notes

Climate and clothing: Helsinki's winter climate is similar to Boston's; summer temperatures rarely exceed +24 °C (75 °F). Northern and parts of interior southern Finland sometimes experience Arctic conditions in mid-winter. Buildings are well-heated. Bring warm outdoor clothing during late autumn, winter, and early spring. Sweaters and raincoats are recommended for other seasons.

Health: Public health standards are similar to those in the United States. Tapwater is potable. Medical facilities are good.

Telecommunications: Telephone and telegraph services are efficient and available to most parts of Finland and the world. Helsinki is seven time zones ahead of eastern standard time.

Transportation: Bus and taxi service is available in most cities as well as tram and subway service in Helsinki. At least one US carrier provides US-Finland flights 5 days a week. Finnair flies to New York daily and offers flights to Los Angeles several days a week. Flights to many European cities depart Helsinki daily. Finland's domestic air network is one of the best in Europe. The country also has efficient rail and long-distance bus service. Roads are well maintained; nearly all major highways ,and most important secondary roads are paved.

Tourist attractions: With many islands and lakes, evergreen forests, and granite outcroppings, Finland's countryside is striking. Many tourists enjoy cruises on stately historic steamers that travel on Finland's biggest lake, Saimaa. Lapland, with its flora and reindeer, also is popular.

The US educational exchange program in Finland, comparatively large for a West European country of Finland's size, is financed in part from a trust fund established in 1976 from Finland's final repayment of a US loan made in the aftermath of World War I.

Principal US Officials

Ambassador—John Giffen Weinmann
Deputy Chief of Mission—Max N. Robinson
Public Affairs Officer—William P. Kiehl
Chief, Political Section—William Kushlis
Chief, Administrative Section—William J. Burke, Jr.
Defense and Air Attache—William A.J. Mackie
Chief, Economic Section—Lawrence E. Butler
Commercial Attache—Richard Newquist
Consul—Robert O. Tatge

The US Embassy in Finland is at Itainen Puistotie 14 B, Helsinki 14 (tel. 171931). The public affairs section is located at Kaivokatu 10 A, Helsinki 10 (tel. 176599). ■

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NATIONAL SECURITY COUNCIL

TO: CAROLYN CAWLEY

FROM: NICK BURNS

Presidential Departure Statement for Koivisto Visit

President Koivisto, I am delighted to have the opportunity to welcome you to Washington and to return the hospitality you gave me and President Gorbachev last September in Helsinki. This meeting today was only the latest of the many exchanges I have had with my good friend, the Finnish President, whose views on world events have been of great value to me through many years.

This visit also gave me an opportunity to thank President Koivisto in person for Finland's very constructive policy in the Middle East. Finland's strong leadership on the Security Council and Iraq Sanctions Committee last fall, its generous humanitarian and economic aid to countries hurt by Iraqi aggression, and its offer of observer and peacekeeping troops to the United Nations are in the best Finnish tradition as an activist, responsible member of the world community.

We also touched on our economic ties. I underlined the economic and military advantages of a Finnish purchase of our recently proven military equipment, including two very fine versions of U.S. military aircraft.

Our very fruitful talks today allowed us to carry forward our dialogue on the Middle East, the Baltics, developments in the Soviet Union, and the "new architecture" of Europe -- including CSCE, arms control negotiations, EC-EFTA relations, and NATO's continuing role in European security. At times our perspectives may differ, but they have a common basis in our two nations' commitment to free market democracy, Western values, and enduring peace.

Drafted:EUR/NE:EDKeeton
7-6071, 4/19/91
SENE 4019, "FI: Koivisto Departure Statement"

Cleared:

P:AWolff
E:MSeiber
C:MFoulon
S/P:DWagner
PA:RBoucher
EUR/NE:EMHeaphy
EUR:RRJohnson

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Ken Walsh → Harcum
↓ Lewinsky
↓ j. awards

↓ Pope

To Carolyn

Date 4/26 Time 11:40

WHILE YOU WERE OUT

M Bill Brookover

of Indepn Nat' Hist. Parks

Phone 215 - 597 - 7104

Area Code Number Extension

TELEPHONED		PLEASE CALL	
CALLED TO SEE YOU		WILL CALL AGAIN	
WANTS TO SEE YOU		URGENT	
RETURNED YOUR CALL			

Message Has some answers
call back after 13:00

Operator

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Staffed Factcheck Copy

Cawley/Grant
April 30, 1991
a:koivisto - 1

PRESIDENTIAL REMARKS: PRESIDENT KOIVISTO OF FINLAND
DEPARTURE STATEMENT
TUESDAY, MAY 7, 1991

Fax from Finnish Embassy

President Koivisto, "TERVETULOA" [tare-VAY-ta-loa] ["welcome"]. Welcome again to the United States. It's a pleasure to return the hospitality you showed President Gorbachev and me in Helsinki last September. Our meeting today was only the latest of many exchanges we have shared in the decade since we first met -- and today, as always, your views on world events are of great value to me.

OVP travel report

This visit also gave me an opportunity to thank you personally for Finland's constructive policy in the Middle East. Your country's strong leadership on the U.N. Security Council and the Iraqi Sanctions Committee last fall -- and your generous aid to people suffering from Iraqi oppression -- represent Finland's tradition of active partnership in the community of nations.

NSC/State

This sense of responsibility led Finland, within a year of its admission to the U.N., to serve as part of the U.N. Emergency Force in 1956. Finns have served bravely in virtually every peacekeeping force since then, contributing more troops than any other country. Your nation continues this proud tradition in the current Observer Force in northern Kuwait.

Finnish Embassy

Finland: A Country Study, p. 326-7 + p. 286

Embassy

Finnish Embassy

Finland and the United States enjoy a long and healthy trade relationship. Today we touched on some new economic issues. I

Ed Keeton

Ed Keeton - State Desk Officer, 647-6071

Our meeting today was only the latest of many exchanges we have shared. It's been ~~a decade~~ nearly a decade since we first met -- and today, as always, your views .....

outlined the advantages that will come from your buying some of our recently proven military equipment -- including two outstanding versions of U.S. aircraft.

We also discussed our evolving relations with Europe -- from trade relations to arms control -- from new challenges to the CSCE to the continuing role of NATO in European security. We continued our dialogue on the Baltics. We talked about developments in the Soviet Union. At times our perspectives may differ, but we share a common commitment to democracy, free markets, and an enduring peace.

Finns and Americans share many special bonds of friendship, and Finns have long added to the American experience. Mr. President, you countrymen were among the first to settle in this country -- three hundred and fifty years ago -- establishing new lives in the Delaware River Valley. Over a century later, John Morton -- a Finnish-American delegate to our Continental Congress -- cast the deciding vote for the Declaration of Independence. The ideals that led him -- liberty and self-government -- remain dear to both our nations: just look to Philadelphia, 1776, and Helsinki, 1917.

Since that time, we have enjoyed over seventy years of warm diplomatic relations -- and I look forward to continuing this friendship. May God Bless the people of Finland and the United States.

# # #

April 24, 1991

MEMORANDUM

TO: MARY KATE GRANT

FROM: CAROLYN CAWLEY

RE: FINLAND DEPARTURE

Draft to TS: Monday, April 29

Event: Departure of President Koivisto [koi-VEES-toe] of Finland -- official working visit

Date: Tuesday, May 7

Time: TBD (Probably early afternoon, per usual)

Place: TBD (Probably Diplomatic Entrance, per usual)

Conversation with Ed Keeton, Finland Desk Officer -- State

- Koivisto is coming at the personal invitation of the President. They are old friends from POTUS' UN days -- at that time, Koivisto was the Governor of the Bank of Finland and a prominent politico in his country (former prime minister among other things.)

  ((I will contact Don Rhodes about personal anecdotes))

- The reason/s for the visit include:

  -- they are friends; POTUS really likes him and wants to meet with him privately. They are in frequent telephone contact.

  -- POTUS and Koivisto share their views regarding the Soviet Union and the Baltic States

  -- to thank Koivisto/Finland for their hospitality during the September meeting between Bush and Gorbachev

  -- On the Gulf:

  Finland is officially a neutral country, and steadfastly sticks to this position, as they are nestled on the Soviet border. In the Gulf, however, since the Soviets did not block our efforts, neither did the Finns -- in fact they were very helpful.

  They sat on the UN Security Council and backed us on all the resolutions until the seat expired on January 1.

  They do not use military forces in any situation, except under UN auspices -- so, they provided no military help in the war. Presently, however, they will participate in the UN peacekeeping force and will be providing humanitarian aid inside Iraq.

  NOTE: Finnish forces have taken part in every UN peacekeeping mission since the early 1960's. ((I guess this means Beirut, then -- If you want to use this fact, I can find out if any Finns died when our barracks were blown up. I know Frenchmen died there.))

- State has a suggested draft which they are sending to NSC today -- we should get it from them tomorrow.

NOTES FROM ON FINLAND

- The signal achievement of Finland has been its survival against great odds: against a harsh climate
  physical and cultural isolation
  international dangers

- In 1987 Finland celebrated the 70th anniversary of its national independence, which was a hard-won achievement.

  -- Independence was threatened at the start by a bloody civil war in 1918 between Finnish leftists (Reds) and rightists (Whites). A Red victory could have meant absorption by the USSR -- as a result, political extremism in Finland was more pronounced than in other European countries. It was eventually neutralized, however, and Finnish democracy is now firmly rooted.

  -- For most of Finland's history, the country lived on the perphery of world events, but for a few weeks during the winter of 1939, Finland stood at the center of the world stage. Their stand against Soviet aggression aroused the world's admiration.

  During World War II, the Finns twice faced attack by overwhelming Soviet force. They fought heroically but were defeated both times. Having come so close to Soviet occupation, the Finns have sought and achieved reconciliation with the Soviets and they have tenaciously pursued a policy of neutrality.

  -- Since its present system of government was established in 1919, Finland has been one of the more fortunate members of the community of democratic nations. The country was only moderately affected by the turmoil of the inter-war period; it passed through WWII relatively unscathed; and although it is right on the line that divided Europe in two hostile blocs, it survived as an independent nations with its democratic instituitions intact.

- Foreign Relations

  -- Geographic realities -- having the USSR as a neighbor, and defeat in WWII led Finland to adopt a postwar national security policy of neturality. As the official political doctrine, nonalignment has helped to establish friendly relations with other nations regardless of their political systems.

o President Mauno Koivisto

-- He was born in 1923, the son of a carpenter, and fought bravely during WWII.

A major change occurred in domestic politics in January 1982 when the Social Democratic politician Mauno Koivisto was elected President. He was the first member of the SDP to reach this position and his election meant a full integration of social democrats into public life.

He had been a leading public figure since the late 1960's, when he served as Prime Minister for 2 years. During the 1970's, as the governor of the Bank of Finland, and for a short time, as Minister of Finance, he worn respect for accurate economic forecasts. His personality won him considerable popularity across party lines.

Full declassified bio to come from State today.

GB + Koivisto

-- met when GB was @ UN; friends ever since

-- 1983: GB visited Finland
Koivisto state visit to US w/ Reagan

-- 1990: Helsinki hosted GB/Gorbachev summit

OTHER NOTES OF INTEREST

- Looking back at past Presidential remarks (IE: Reagan etc) it seems that the gist of them is **"Friendly relations".**

  Nothing of importance in any of the remarks.

- **Notes on Finns**

  -- EERO SAARINEN and his father ELIEL, Architects
  One of Eliel's most famous works in Finland is the magnificent Helsinki railway station -- a sort of national symbol in that country.

  Later, they emigrated to the US in 1923 from Kyrkslatt, Finland. Together they designed the giant stainless steel arch that rises 630 feet above the city of St. Louis, MO as part of the Jefferson National Expansion Memorial -- today it is one of the visible symbols associated with America.

* Lines from Kalevala to come.
* Finns in US history to come.
* A toast/expression of goodwill to come.

} From Embassy.

THE SIGNAL ACHIEVEMENT OF FINLAND has been its survival against great odds—against a harsh climate, physical and cultural isolation, and international dangers. Finland lies at higher latitudes than any other country in the world, and the punishing northern climate has complicated life there considerably. Geographically, Finland is on the remote northern periphery, far from the mass of Europe, yet near two larger states, Sweden and Russia—later the Soviet Union, which have drawn it into innumerable wars and have dominated its development (see fig. 1).

At the beginning of its recorded history, in the eleventh century A.D., Finland was conquered by its powerful neighbor, Sweden. Christianization and more than 600 years of Swedish rule (c. 1150–1809) made the Finns an essentially West European people, integrated into the religion, culture, economics, and politics of European civilization. The Finns have, however, maintained their own language, which is complex and is not related to most other European languages.

The centuries of Swedish rule witnessed Finland's increasing involvement in European politics, particularly when the country served as a battleground between Sweden on the west and Russia on the east. Over the centuries, Russia has exerted an especially persistent and powerful pressure on Finland. Many wars were fought between Swedes and Finns on the one side and Russians on the other. Eventually, Russia conquered Finland and incorporated it into the Russian Empire, where it remained for more than a century, from 1809 to 1917.

Until the nineteenth century, the Finns were, like many other peoples of Europe, a subject nation seemingly without a culture or a history of their own. The national awakening of the nineteenth century brought recognition of the uniqueness of the Finnish people and their culture, and led to Finland's independence in 1917. Complicating the emergence of the Finnish people into national consciousness, however, was the split between the majority of Finnish speakers and a powerful and influential minority of Swedish speakers. Only during the twentieth century was this conflict gradually resolved.

In 1987 Finland celebrated the seventieth anniversary of its national independence, which was a hard-won achievement. Independence was threatened at the start by a bloody civil war in 1918 between Finnish leftists (Reds) and rightists (Whites); a victory by

s in Savonlinna

submarine flotilla visited Helsinki, and it was greeted warmly by the people and by the government. In April and in May 1938, the Finnish government presided over two great celebrations, marking the twentieth anniversary of the entry of German troops into Helsinki and of the entry of Mannerheim's forces into Helsinki, respectively, events that numerous prominent Germans attended. The Finns were also indiscreet in allowing a German naval squadron to visit Helsinki. Soviet suspicions were fuelled again by the visit to Finland in June 1939 of the German army chief of staff, General Franz Halder, who was received by the government in Helsinki and who viewed Finnish army maneuvers on the Karelian Isthmus. In summation, Finnish foreign policy between the wars was genuinely unaggressive in relation to the Soviet Union, but it lacked the appearance of unaggressiveness, a deficiency that Finland since World War II has been at pains to remedy.

With German help, Finland established regular armed forces in 1918 to 1919, using the army of the Whites as a foundation. Beginning in the 1920s, conscription was introduced, and most Finnish males were trained for military service. Finnish military doctrine presumed an essentially defensive war in which Finland's forests, lakes, and other geographical obstacles could be exploited to advantage. The Defense Review Committee, in its report of 1926, called for the establishment of a Finnish army of thirteen divisions, equipped with the most modern arms, as the surest means of deterring a possible Soviet invasion. Because of budget restraints, however, these recommendations were instituted only in part, so that when the Soviet Union did attack in November 1939, Finland had only nine available divisions, and their equipment was generally inadequate. Beginning in 1931, however, General Mannerheim had contributed ably to Finnish military preparations from his position as chairman of the Defense Council, and thousands of citizens spent the summer of 1939, without pay, strengthening the Mannerheim Line of fortifications on the Karelian Isthmus. The line later proved to be the anchor of Finland's defenses in this important area.

World War II, 1939–45

For most of Finland's history, the country had lived on the periphery of world events, but for a few weeks during the winter of 1939–40, Finland stood at the center of the world stage. Finland's stand against Soviet aggression aroused the world's admiration. The Winter War, however, proved to be only a curtain-raiser for Finland's growing entanglement in World War II.

The Winter War

The underlying cause of the Winter War was Soviet concern about Nazi Germany's expansionism. With a population of only 3.5 million, Finland itself was not a threat to the Soviet Union, but its territory, located strategically near Leningrad, could be used as a base by the Germans. The Soviets initiated negotiations with Finland that ran intermittently from the spring of 1938 to the summer of 1939, but nothing was achieved. Finnish assurances that the country would never allow German violations of its neutrality were not accepted by the Soviets, who asked for more concrete guarantees. In particular, the Soviets sought a base on the northern shore of the Gulf of Finland, from which they could block the Gulf of Finland from hostile naval forces. The Finnish government, however, felt that accepting these terms would only lead to further, increasingly unreasonable, demands.

The Nazi-Soviet Non-Aggression Pact of August 1939, by bringing together these former archenemies, revolutionized European politics. The secret protocol of the pact gave the Soviet Union a sphere of influence that included Finland, the Baltic states, and parts of Eastern Europe. When the Germans won a stunningly quick victory over Poland in September 1939, the Soviets hastened to take control in their sphere of influence. In addition to the land taken from Poland in September, the Soviets quickly turned the three Baltic states into quasi-protectorates. Finland followed these events closely; thus, when, on October 5, the Soviets invited Finland to discuss "concrete political questions," the Finns felt that they were next on the Soviets' agenda. Finland's first reaction was to mobilize its field army on October 6, and on October 10 Finland's reservists were called up in what amounted to a general mobilization. The following day the two countries began negotiations that were to last until November 8.

In the negotiations, the main Soviet demand was that the Finns cede small parcels of territory, including a naval base on the Gulf of Finland that the Soviets wanted to help them protect Leningrad. In exchange, the Soviets offered to cede to Finland about 8,800 square kilometers of Karelia along the Finnish border, or about twice the amount of land to be ceded by Finland. Unlike the previous negotiations, these talks were conducted in the public eye, and the Finnish people, like the government, were almost unanimous in rejecting the Soviet proposals. The ostensible reasons for Finland's refusal were to protect its neutral status and to preserve its territorial integrity. In addition, moving the Finnish border on the Karelian Isthmus away from Leningrad would have given the



Finnish machine gunners during the Winter War (1939–40)
Courtesy Embassy of Finland, Washington

Soviets possession of much of the line of Finnish fortifications, the loss of which would have weakened Finland's defenses. Underlying the hardline Finnish negotiating position were a basic mistrust of the Soviets and a feeling that the Soviet offer was merely a first step in subjugating Finland. In this suspicion of an ulterior motive, the Finns were matched by the Soviets, who believed that Finland would willingly assist Germany in a future war.

The Finnish government appears to have underestimated the Soviet determination to achieve these national security goals. The two main Finnish negotiators, Väinö Tanner and Juho Paasikivi, vainly urged the Finnish government to make more concessions, because they realized that Finland was completely isolated diplomatically and could expect no support from any quarter if events led to war. General Mannerheim also urged conciliating the Soviets, because Finland by itself could not fight the Soviet Union. When he was ignored, he resigned from the Defense Council and as commander-in-chief, saying that he could no longer be responsible for events. Mannerheim withdrew his resignation when war broke out, however, and served ably as the Finnish military leader. Some historians suggest that the war could have been prevented by timely Finnish concessions. It appears that both sides proceeded from a basic mistrust of the other that was compounded by mutual miscalculations and by the willingness to risk war.

The Soviets attacked on November 30, 1939, without a declaration of war. The Soviet preparations for the offensive were not especially thorough, in part because they underestimated the Finnish capabilities for resistance, and in part because they believed that the Finnish workers would welcome the Soviets as liberators. However, almost no Finns supported the Soviet puppet government under the veteran communist Otto Kuusinen. In addition, in one of its last significant acts, the League of Nations expelled the Soviet Union because of its unprovoked aggression against Finland.

The task facing the Finnish armed forces, to obstruct a vastly larger enemy along a boundary of about 1,300 kilometers, appeared impossible. Geography aided the Finns, however, because much of the northern area was a virtually impassable wilderness containing a few, easily blocked roads, and Finland generally presented difficult terrain on which to conduct offensive operations. Thus the Finns were able to use only light covering forces in the north and to concentrate most troops in the crucial southeastern sector, comprising the Karelian Isthmus and the area north of Lake Ladoga, that protected the isthmus from rear assault. The position on the isthmus was strengthened considerably by the Mannerheim Line. An additional Finnish advantage lay in the Finns' unorthodox military doctrine. They were trained in the use of small, mobile forces to strike at the flanks and the rear of road-bound enemies. By means of the so-call *motti* tactic (the name is taken from the Finnish word for a cord of firewood), they sought to break invading columns into small segments, which were then destroyed piecemeal. The final advantage of the Finns was their phenomenally high morale; they knew they were fighting for their national survival. Finland's main disadvantage lay in the glaring, fifty-to-one disparity between its population and that of the Soviet Union. The Finnish hope was to hold out until help could arrive from the West, a forlorn hope as events turned out.

Most observers expected an easy Soviet victory. The Soviets simply advanced all along the front with overwhelming forces, apparently intending to occupy all of Finland. Thanks to the foresight the Soviets had shown in previous years by constructing bases and railroads near the Finnish border, they were able to commit much larger forces than the Finns had anticipated. The main Soviet assault on the Mannerheim Line was stopped, though, in December 1939. Farther north along the line, the Finns were able to employ their *motti* tactics with surprising effectiveness. At the most famous of these engagements, the Battle of Suomussalmi, two Soviet divisions were virtually annihilated. By the end of December 1939,

the Finns had dealt the Soviets a series of humiliating defeats. For a few weeks, the popular imagination of the outside world was captured by the exploits of the white-clad Finnish ski troops gliding ghostlike through the dark winter forests, and in general by the brave resistance of the "land of heroes."

The Soviet invasion brought the Finns together as never before. In an act that only a few years before would have been unthinkable, on Christmas Eve in December 1939, middle-class Finns placed lighted candles on the graves of Finnish Red Guards who had died in the civil war. The magnificent courage displayed by Finnish soldiers of all political persuasions during the Winter War of 1939–40 led Mannerheim to declare afterwards that May 16 would no longer be celebrated, but that another day would be chosen to commemorate "those on both sides who gave their lives on behalf of their political convictions during the period of crisis in 1918."

The defeats and the humiliations suffered by the Soviet Union made it even more determined to win the struggle. The military command was reorganized, and it was placed under General S. K. Timoshenko. The Soviets made intensive preparations for a new offensive, assembling masses of tanks, artillery, and first-class troops. On February 1, 1940, the Soviet offensive began, and this time it was confined to the Karelian Isthmus. Soviet tactics were simple: powerful artillery bombardments were followed by repeated frontal assaults, using masses of tanks and infantry. The Finnish defenders were worn down by the continual attacks, the artillery and the aerial bombardments, the cold, and the lack of relief and of replacements. On February 11, 1940, the Soviets achieved a breakthrough in the Mannerheim Line that led to a series of Finnish retreats. By early March, the Finnish army was on the verge of total collapse. Finland was saved only by agreeing quickly to Soviet terms, which were encompassed in the Peace of Moscow, signed on March 13, 1940.

By the terms of the Peace of Moscow, Finland ceded substantial territories: land along the southeastern border approximately to the line drawn by the Peace of Uusikaupunki in 1721, including Finland's second-largest city, Viipuri; the islands in the Gulf of Finland that were the object of the negotiations in 1938–39; land in the Salla sector in northeastern Finland (near the Murmansk Railroad); Finland's share of the Rybachiy Peninsula in the Petsamo area; and the naval base at Hanko on the Gulf of Finland, which was leased for thirty years. The ceded territories contained about one-eighth of Finland's population; virtually all of the inhabitants moved over to Finnish territory, thereby losing their homes and livelihoods (see fig. 7).

SINCE THE ESTABLISHMENT of its present system of government in 1919, Finland has been one of the more fortunate members of the Western community of democratic nations. Compared with other European states, the country was only moderately affected by the political turmoil of the interwar period; it passed through World War II relatively unscathed; and, although right on the line that divided Europe into two hostile blocs after the second half of the 1940s, it survived as an independent nation with its democratic institutions intact.

This enviable record was achieved against formidable odds. Although the constitutional basis of their government grew out of long-established institutions, Finns had never been fully free to govern themselves until late 1917 when they achieved national independence. Swedish and Russian rulers had always ultimately determined their affairs. Finnish society was also marked by deep fissures that became deeper after the brief civil war (1918), which left scars that needed several generations to heal. In addition to class and political divisions, the country also had to contend with regional and linguistic differences. These problems were eventually surmounted, and by the 1980s the watchword in Finnish politics was consensus.

A skillfully constructed system of government allowed Finns to manage their affairs with the participation of all social groups (although there were some serious lapses in the interwar period). Checks and balances, built into a system of modified separation of powers, enabled the government to function democratically and protected the basic rights of all citizens. The 200-member parliament, the Eduskunta, elected by popular vote, was sovereign by virtue of its representing the Finnish people. An elected president wielded supreme executive power and determined foreign policy. Although not responsible politically to the Eduskunta, the president could carry out many of his functions only through a cabinet government, the Council of State, which was dependent upon the support of the Eduskunta. An independent judiciary, assisted by two legal officials with broad independent powers—the chancellor of justice and the parliamentary ombudsman—ensured that government institutions adhered to the law.

Working within this system during the 1980s were a variety of political parties, an average of about a dozen, ranging from sect-like groups to large, well-established parties, the counterparts of

which were to be found all over Western Europe. The socialist wing consisted of a deeply split communist movement and a moderate Finnish Social Democratic Party that by the late 1980s was a preeminent governing party. The center was occupied by an agrarian party, the Center Party, which had been in government almost continuously until 1987; the Swedish People's Party; and a formerly right-wing protest party, the Finnish Rural Party. The right was dominated by the National Coalition Party, which was fairly moderate in its conservatism. In the 1970s and the 1980s, the mainstream parties, and even a good part of the Communist Party of Finland, had moved toward the center, and the political spectrum as a whole was slightly more to the right than it had been in previous decades.

A constitutional system that was conservative in nature had allowed these parties to work together, yet within constraints that permitted no single group to usurp the rights of another. Nevertheless, the variety of parties had made it very difficult to put together coalitions that could attain the strict qualified majorities needed to effect fundamental changes. Only since the second half of the 1960s had it been possible, though at times difficult, to find a broad multiparty consensus.

Powerful interest groups were also involved in Finnish politics, most noticeably in the negotiation and the realization of biannual income policy settlements that, since the late 1960s, had affected most Finnish wage-earners. Interest groups initially negotiated the terms of a new wage agreement; then it was, in effect, ratified by coalitions of parties in government; and finally the Eduskunta passed the social and economic legislation that underlay it. Some observers complained that government's role had become overly passive in this process and that the preeminence of consensus actually meant that Finnish politics offered the populace no real alternatives. Yet most Finns, remembering earlier years of industrial strife and poverty, preferred the new means of managing public affairs.

There was also broad agreement about Finnish foreign policy. The country was threatened with extinction as an independent nation after World War II, but presidents Juho Paasikivi and Urho Kekkonen, both masters of realpolitik, led their countrymen to a new relationship with the Soviet Union. The core of this relationship was Finland's guarantee to the Soviet Union that its northwestern border region was militarily secure. Controversial as the so-called Paasikivi-Kekkonen Line was initially, by the 1980s the vast majority of Finns approved of the way Finland dealt with its

large neighbor and were well aware, too, of the trade advantages the special relationship had brought to their country.

Working in tandem with good Finnish-Soviet relations was the policy of active and peaceful neutrality, the backbone of Finnish foreign policy. Advocating, as a neutral state, the settlement of disputes through peaceful, legal means was a role Finns adopted willingly. A high point of this policy was the part the country played in planning and in hosting the 1975 Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe. Another facet of active neutrality was a committed membership in the United Nations, most notably in the organization's peacekeeping forces.

Constitutional Framework

Finland's government structure has remained largely unchanged since it was established in 1919 with the passage of the Constitution Act (see The Establishment of Finnish Democracy, ch. 1). Building on a combination of old institutions from both the Swedish and the Russian periods, this law, together with three others also of constitutional status, has given Finland a system that has been remarkably successful in allowing a once deeply divided nation to govern itself.

Constitutional Development

Finland, although independent of foreign rule only since 1917, has traditions of self-government extending back into the Middle Ages. Because their country belonged to the dual kingdom of Sweden-Finland for more than 600 years, Finns had long enjoyed the common Nordic right to manage local affairs by themselves. Beginning in 1362, Finns took part in the election of the Swedish king, and they thus became involved in the government of the realm as a whole. This role was increased after 1435, when they began sending representatives to the kingdom's governing body, the Diet of the Four Estates (Riksdag).

The Swedish Diet Act of 1617 and the Form of Government Act of 1634 formalized the Finnish tradition of estates, whereby leading members of the country, representatives not only of regions but of social classes as well, met to decide matters of common concern. Although the acts restricted local government somewhat, they brought Finns more than ever into the management of the kingdom's affairs. At regular intervals a Finn presided over the nobility, the most important of the four estates of the Diet; consisting also of the estates of the clergy, burghers, and peasantry, the Diet continued to be Finland's representative governing body until early in the twentieth century.

Royal power was strengthened by the constitution of 1772, forced on the Diet by King Gustav III. This constitution, in effect in Finland until 1919, long after it had been abrogated in Sweden, gave the king final say about the decisions of the Diet. The king's power was further augmented by the Act of Union and Security of 1789, which gave him exclusive initiative in legislative matters.

Ceded by Sweden to Russia in 1809, Finland was not incorporated fully into the empire by Tsar Alexander I, but retained its own legal system (see The Russian Grand Duchy of Finland, 1809-1917, ch. 1). A small body, the Senate, was established to administer the country. Its two sections, finance and justice, later became the basis of independent Finland's cabinet and supreme courts. The Senate's head, the governor general, the highest official in Finland, was a Russian appointed by the tsar. An indication of the country's relative autonomy, however, was that all other officials of the Grand Duchy of Finland were native Finns.

The tsar, who had the right to determine when the Diet met, dissolved the assembly in 1809, and it did not meet again until 1863 when recalled by Alexander II, the Tsar Liberator. Thereafter the Diet met regularly, and in the late 1860s it ushered in the "Golden Age" of Finnish legislation, a period of several decades during which the country's laws were modernized and were brought into harmony with the legal codes of Western Europe. It was during this period, too, that political parties appeared, emerging first from the campaign to give the Finnish language its rightful place in the country, then from the growing resistance to Russian rule, and finally from the question of how to contend with the coming of industrialization and labor strife.

The aggressive Russification campaign that began in the 1890s sought to end the relative autonomy Finland had enjoyed under tsarist rule (see The Era of Russification, ch. 1). A military defeat in East Asia weakened the Russian empire and gave Finns a chance for greater freedom. The Diet unanimously dissolved itself in 1906, and a parliament, the Eduskunta, a unicameral body elected by universal suffrage, was created. Finland became in one step a modern representative democracy and the first European nation to grant women the right to vote.

The tsarist regime allowed the assembly few of its rights, however, and only after the collapse of the Russian Empire and the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917 were the Finns able to secure their independence. A civil war and bitter political debates about whether the country should be a monarchy or a republic preceded the passage of the Constitution Act of 1919, which established the present system of government in Finland.

that as few as one-sixth of the Eduskunta's members can prevent the passage of amendments. The large number of Finnish political parties makes attaining qualified majorities nearly impossible, unless an amendment has widespread support. This protects the rights of minorities.

The individual rights of Finnish citizens are delineated in Section II of the Constitution Act, Article 5 through Article 16, and, with a single addition, they have remained unchanged since their adoption in 1919. The additional amendment, enacted in 1972, promises all Finns the opportunity for gainful employment, to be provided by the state if necessary. The list of rights is, of necessity, rather general. How they are exercised, protected, and limited is set out in ordinary laws. The state reserves for itself the right to limit them "in time of war or rebellion."

First and foremost, all citizens are equal under the law, with a constitutional guarantee of their rights to life, honor, personal freedom, and property. The reference to honor provides for protection against false and slanderous charges and reflects the importance of reputation in Finnish tradition. The protection of property and the requirement for full compensation if it is expropriated for public needs indicate the conservative nature of the Finnish Constitution. The right of freedom of movement encompasses residence, protection from deportation, and guaranteed readmittance into Finland. Only in special cases, such as convictions for criminal activity, are these freedoms abridged. Complete freedom of religious worship and association is guaranteed, as is freedom from religion.

Finnish citizens are guaranteed free speech and the right of assembly, as well as the right to publish uncensored texts or pictures. The inviolability of the home is promised, and a domicile can be searched only according to conditions set by law. Privacy of communications by mail, telegraph, or telephone is likewise provided for. A Finn may be tried only in a court having prescribed jurisdiction over him. The safeguarding of the cultural affinities of the country's citizens is regarded as a fundamental right, and, as a consequence, the two languages spoken by native-born Finns, Finnish and Swedish, both enjoy the status of official language. The act stipulates that a Finn may use either of these two languages in a court of law and may obtain in that language all pertinent legal or official documents. Finally, in accordance with its nature as a republic, Finland grants no noble or hereditary titles.

Governmental Institutions

The four acts that make up the Finnish Constitution provide for

to the government. The system had long been used in the region to gather a range of opinions on public matters. It consisted of committees, both temporary ad hoc organs formed to deal with a single question and permanent statutory bodies created to handle broad issues, that were composed of experts and representatives of affected interests. Thus, advocates of labor and business, experts from local and national government, and, when appropriate, single-issue groups, could argue their cases. A committee report, if there was one, could be sent for review to concerned parties, and thereafter to a ministry, where its findings might figure in a government ordinance or in a legislative proposal.

The Presidential Election of 1982 and Koivisto's Presidency

A major change occurred in Finnish domestic politics in January 1982, when the social democratic politician, Mauno Koivisto, was elected president. He was the first member of the SDP to be elevated to the country's highest post, and his election meant the full integration of social democrats into Finnish public life and an end to the postwar dominance of Kesk.

Koivisto had been a leading public figure since the late 1960s, when he had served as prime minister for two years. During the 1970s, as governor of the Bank of Finland and, for a short time, as minister of finance, he had won the public's respect for the accuracy of his economic forecasts. His personality and considerable media astuteness also won him a very considerable personal popularity across party lines. Born in 1923 in Turku, the son of a carpenter, he fought bravely during World War II. After the war he returned to his native city, and through years of part-time study, earned a doctorate in sociology in 1956. He was active within the moderate wing of the SDP, yet did not seek an elective office. He began his banking career by directing a large employees' savings bank in Helsinki.

Summoned again in 1979 to serve as prime minister, Koivisto retained the public's esteem and became a strong potential candidate for the presidential election scheduled for 1984. Seen by Kesk politicians as a threat to their party's hold on the presidency after Kekkonen's inevitable retirement, Koivisto was pressured to resign in the spring of 1981. He refused, telling Kekkonen that he would continue as prime minister until a lack of parliamentary support for his government was shown. Koivisto's survival despite Kekkonen's challenge was seen by some observers as the end of an era in which the president had dominated Finnish public life.

In the fall of 1981, failing health forced Kekkonen to resign the presidency, and Koivisto assumed the duties of the office until the

presidential election set for January 1982, two years ahead of schedule. He won handily, taking 43 percent of the votes—from the high turnout of 87 percent—and 145 of the electors. With the support of some electors pledged to the SKDL candidate, he won, with 167 ballots, in the first vote of the electoral college. His popularity remained high during his first term, and he easily won reelection in 1988.

In his years in office, Koivisto has adhered to the Paasikivi-Kekkonen Line, renewing in 1983 the FCMA treaty, for example. In addition, he has supported the traditional policy of neutrality, has spoken often of the danger of the arms race, and has encouraged international trade. One innovation he introduced was allowing greater policy roles to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Eduskunta's Foreign Affairs Committee, and other institutions concerned with foreign policy.

On the domestic front, he has been more restrained than his predecessor. He has preferred to let day-to-day politics run its course, and he has tended to see the presidency as an office from which he could direct the nation's attention to long-term goals. At times, however, delphic presidential statements have confused the public about his intentions. On occasion, too, he has been harsh, berating the press for its irresponsible coverage of foreign policy issues, or striking down politicians he thought too meddlesome in international affairs. Overall, Koivisto's presidency has marked a coming of age for the Finnish polity, an emergence from the harsh tutelage of the Kekkonen years, and the increasing resemblance of Finnish political life to that of other successful Western democracies.

The Parliamentary Election of 1983

As is customary in Finland after a presidential election, the government resigned after Koivisto's victory in January 1982. It was re-formed the next month with the same four-party coalition (the SDP, Kesk, the SKDL,and the SFP) and many of the same ministers, with veteran SDP politician Kalevi Sorsa as prime minister. Two devaluations in October 1982, amounting to a 10 percent fall in the value of the Finnish mark, caused complaints by the SKDL that low-income groups were the main victims of this measure designed to enhance Finnish competitiveness abroad. The cabinet fell at the end of the year, when Sorsa dissolved it after the SKDL ministers refused to support a government defense proposal. Immediately asked by the president to form a new government, Sorsa did so, but with LKP participation and without the SKDL. The government's slender majority of 103 votes in the

War II, it was ineligible for charter membership in the UN in 1945. Finland applied for membership in 1947, but Cold War disagreements among the great powers on UN admissions policies delayed Finland's entry until 1955.

Finland had not been very enthusiastic about membership in the UN in the 1945 to 1955 period. The country tried to pursue the Paasikivi policy of passive and cautious neutrality and feared that joining the UN would be incompatible with its nonaligned status. A strict interpretation of the UN charter made membership in it incompatible with neutrality. According to Article 25 of the charter, members of the UN are obliged to follow the decision of the Security Council in applying economic or military sanctions against other member states.

Since becoming a member, however, Finland has been a committed and active participant in accordance with its official foreign policy of a peaceful and active neutrality. In the late 1960s, it was a member of the Security Council, and one of its UN officials, the diplomat and historian Max Jakobson, was a strong contender for the post of secretary general. His candidacy is said to have failed because of reservations on the part of the Soviet Union. In the fall of 1988, Finland was reelected to the Security Council for a two-year term, and it was expected to assume the council's chairmanship in 1990.

There have been two main lines of Finnish policy in the UN. The first is that Finland avoids any political or economic confrontation in which the interests of the superpowers are directly involved. This policy explains why Finland has refrained over the years from condemning Soviet actions, most recently the Soviet military presence in Afghanistan. Finnish officials hold that their country can be more effective on the international level if it has good relations with all countries. (They commonly explain that Finland wishes to work as a doctor rather than as a judge.) The second current of Finland's UN policy is that country's role as part of the Nordic bloc within the organization. Finland consults and collaborates closely with other Nordic members, generally voting with them, participating with them in aid projects to the Third World through the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), or being part of the UN forces sent to troubled areas. Finnish forces have taken part in every UN peacekeeping mission since the early 1960s. In addition, the country maintains a permanent military force available to the organization (see United Nations Peacekeeping Activities, ch. 5). Finnish aid to the Third World has not been so extensive as that of the other Nordic countries. Finland, for example, has never met the goal of contributing 0.7 percent of its gross national

in the Life of Ivan Denisovich," based on the eponymous novel by Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn. Several films from the German Democratic Republic (East Germany) were banned after having been judged potentially offensive to the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany).

Foreign Relations

Finnish foreign policy is aimed at preserving the nation's political and territorial integrity and safeguarding the continuity of its national existence. Geographical reality—having the Soviet Union as a neighbor, and defeat in World War II led Finland to adopt a postwar national security policy of maintaining its freedom of action by dissociating itself from the conflicts of major powers. The main feature of contemporary Finnish policy, therefore, is neutrality. As the official political doctrine, nonalignment has helped in the establishment of friendly relations with other countries regardless of their political systems.

Within the framework of Finnish neutrality, there are three important policy orientations: a special relationship with the Soviet Union; a traditional policy of close collaboration with the other Nordic countries—Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and Iceland; and an active policy as a member of the UN.

Neutrality

Finland, independent only since 1917, does not have a long tradition of neutrality. In the interwar period, it declared itself neutral, but its foreign policy was not neutral enough to satisfy the security concerns of the Soviet Union, and Finland was drawn into World War II. The years immediately after the war were taken up by the country's struggle to survive as an independent nation. The treaties of 1947 and 1948, which confirmed the existence of a Soviet military base on Finnish territory and created a defensive alliance with the Soviet Union, seemed to preclude Finnish neutrality (see The Cold War and the Treaty of 1948, ch. 1).

The Treaty of Friendship, Cooperation, and Mutual Assistance (FCMA) of 1948 mentioned in its preamble, however, Finland's desire to remain outside the conflicts of the great powers and to maintain peace in accordance with the principles of the UN. A first example of the Finnish policy of avoiding entanglements in superpower disputes was the decision in early 1948 not to participate in the European Recovery Program, also known as the Marshall Plan. Finnish rejection of the much-needed aid was caused by Soviet contentions that the program was an effort on the part of the United States to divide Europe into two camps.

In the late 1940s, Finland joined the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT—see Glossary) and the World Bank (see Glossary), participating in their economic programs, but avoiding any political implications of membership that could be seen by the Soviets to link the country to the West. Finland also stayed out of the discussions of the period about the formation of a Nordic defense union.

During these early years after World War II, there were few official Finnish statements about neutrality, but in a speech in 1952 Prime Minister Kekkonen held that the FCMA treaty presupposed a kind of neutrality for his country. In 1955 a major impediment to Finnish neutrality was removed by the closing of the Soviet military base located near Helsinki, and in the following years leading Soviet officials praised the neutrality of their neighbor. In 1955, too, Finland was able to join the UN and the Nordic Council, acts that reduced its isolation and brought it more fully into the community of nations.

By the early 1960s, Finnish neutrality was recognized by both the West and the East, and the country entered a more confident period of international relations when it began practicing what came to be officially termed an active and peaceful policy of neutrality. Finland participated in local and in global initiatives aimed at creating conditions that allowed nations to avoid violence in their relations with one another. As President Kekkonen noted in 1965 in an often-quoted speech, Finland could "only maintain its neutrality on the condition that peace is preserved in Europe."

An essential element of Finland's active neutrality policy was the concept of a Nordic Nuclear-Weapons-Free Zone (Nordic NWFZ), first introduced by Kekkonen in May 1963 against the background of a Europe increasingly armed with nuclear weapons. The Finnish president proposed the creation of a zone consisting of Finland, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and Iceland. Their de facto nuclear-weapons-free status was to be formalized by the creation of a Nordic NWFZ that would remove them somewhat from the strategic plans of the superpowers. The zone idea was based on the supposition that, as these countries had no nuclear weapons in their territories, they might avoid nuclear attacks from either of the two alliances, whereas the presence of nuclear weapons would certainly invite such attacks.

The Nordic NWFZ idea was not realized at the time it was initially proposed. A major impediment was the membership of Denmark and Norway in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and hence their pledge to consider the deployment of nuclear weapons on their territories in a time of crisis. Despite its



President Koivisto with President Ronald Reagan at the White House, September 1983
Courtesy The White House (Pete Souza)

lack of success, the zone proposal remained part of Finnish foreign policy, and in 1978 it was reintroduced in an altered form in the light of new developments in weapons technology. In Kekkonen's opinion, the cruise missile made the use of nuclear weapons in war more likely. His new Nordic NWFZ proposal contained the concept of a negative security guarantee, according to which the superpowers would bind themselves to refrain from attacking with nuclear weapons those countries belonging to the zone.

The zone proposal has since become a permanent part of security discussions in Nordic Europe, with support from a variety of quarters. President Koivisto declared his firm support for the zone proposal in a speech at the UN in 1983, and in 1985 a Nordic parliamentary group convened in Copenhagen to discuss the idea and to set up a commission to study it.

In addition to the problem of Danish and Norwegian membership in the Atlantic Alliance, other problems continued to prevent the zone's realization. A central question was how, and to what extent, the Baltic and Barents seas and the adjacent areas of the Soviet Union would be included. The Soviet Union, the only power of northern Europe that had nuclear weapons in its arsenal, always welcomed the zone proposal but left its participation in the zone uncertain. Finnish officials seemed content to hold continued talks

about the zone. Foreign affairs specialists occasionally commented that Helsinki was more interested in using discussion of a Nordic NWFZ as a means of emphasizing the existing stability of northern Europe than in the realization of such a zone.

Another core element of Finland's active policy of neutrality was the country's participation in arms control and disarmament initiatives. In 1963 Finland signed the Nuclear Test Ban Treaty, prohibiting nuclear testing underwater, above ground, and in outer space; and in 1968 it approved the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons. It was the first country to form an agreement with the International Atomic Energy Agency concerning the peaceful use of nuclear power. In 1971 Finland signed the treaty banning the placement of nuclear weapons on the world's seabed, and in 1975 it joined in the prohibition of the development, production, and stockpiling of biological weapons. Since the early 1970s, Finnish scientists have been developing technology for the detection of chemical weapons, and since the mid-1970s, they have been engaged in perfecting a global seismic verification station system.

Helsinki was the site for some of the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT), and in 1973 and 1975 Finland was the driving force behind the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE) and the host of its first and third meetings. The signing of the Final Act of the CSCE in Helsinki in 1975 was the high point of the country's policy of active neutrality. The signed document recognized the legitimacy of neutrality as a foreign policy, a point demonstrated by Finland's hosting the conference. The country has continued to work as a member of the neutral and nonaligned group at later CSCE meetings, where the emphasis has been on the formation of confidence-building and security-building measures (CSBM). The fourth CSCE meeting was scheduled to take place in Helsinki in the spring of 1992.

Soviet Union

Two hard-fought wars, ending in defeat and in the loss of about one-tenth of Finland's land area, convinced some leading Finnish politicians by the end of World War II that the interwar policy of neutral distance from the Soviet Union had been mistaken and must be abandoned if the country were to survive as an independent nation (see The Cold War and the Treaty of 1948, ch. 1). Juho Paasikivi, Finland's most prominent conservative politician and its president from 1946 to 1956, came to believe that Finnish foreign policy must center on convincing Soviet leaders that his country accepted, as legitimate, Soviet desires for a secure northwestern

border and that there was no reason to fear an attack from, or through, Finland.

The preliminary peace treaty of 1944, which ended the Continuation War, and the Treaty of Paris of 1947, which regulated the size and the quality of Finland's armed forces, served to provide the Soviets with a strategically secure area for the protection of Leningrad and Murmansk. The deterioration of superpower relations, however, led the Soviets to desire a firmer border with the gradually emerging Western bloc. In February 1948, Finnish authorities were notified by Soviet officials that Finland should sign a mutual assistance treaty with the Soviet Union.

The treaty that Finnish and Soviet negotiators worked out and signed in April 1948 differed from those the Soviets had concluded with Hungary and Romania. Unlike those countries, Finland was not made part of the Soviet military alliance, but was obliged only to defend its own territory if attacked by Germany or by countries allied with that country, or if the Soviet Union were attacked by these powers through Finnish territory. In addition, consultations between Finland and the Soviet Union were required if the threat of such an attack were established. According to the FCMA treaty, Finland was not bound to aid the Soviet Union if that country were attacked elsewhere, and the consultations were to be between sovereign states, not between military allies. Just what constituted a military threat was not specified, but the right of the Finns to discuss the posited threat and how it should be met, that is, to what extent military assistance would be required, allowed Finnish officials room for maneuver and deprived the treaty of an automatic character.

Since its signing, the treaty has continued to be the cornerstone of Finnish relations with the Soviet Union; that both found it satisfactory was seen in its renewal and extension in 1955, 1970, and 1983. For the Soviet Union, the FCMA treaty meant greater security for the strategically vital areas of Leningrad and the Kola Peninsula. Any attack on these areas through Finland would meet first with Finnish resistance, which many observers believed would slow an offensive appreciably. The prohibition of Finnish membership in an alliance directed against the Soviet Union meant hostile forces could not be stationed within Finland, close to vital Soviet installations.

Finland's neutral status had an effect on the Nordic area as a whole. Its special relationship with the Soviet Union reduced pressure on Sweden and eased that country's burden of maintaining its traditional neutrality. The consequent lowering of tensions in the region allowed Norway and Denmark NATO membership,

although each of these countries established certain restrictions on the stationing of foreign troops and the deployment of nuclear weapons on their soil. The interdependence of security postures in northern Europe, sometimes referred to as the Nordic Balance, has removed the region somewhat from the vagaries of the Cold War over the last few decades. The Soviets have closely monitored developments in the area, but their basic satisfaction with the security situation that has prevailed there has allowed Finland to survive as an independent country, bound to some degree to the Soviet Union in defense matters, but able to maintain its democratic institutions and its membership in the Western community of nations.

During the years immediately following the signing of the FCMA treaty, the Finns complied with their obligation to pay reparations to the Soviet Union; the last payment was made in 1952. The preceding year the two countries had signed a treaty setting up trade between them on the basis of a barter arrangement, which has been renewed every five years since then. In 1954 Finland became the first capitalist country to sign a scientific and technical agreement with the Soviet Union.

Despite the provisions of Article 6 of the FCMA treaty, which enjoined each contracting party from interfering in the domestic affairs of the other, Soviet comments on Finnish domestic politics were often quite harsh. Soviet attitudes toward Finland softened, however, with the death of Joseph Stalin and the advent of better relations with the Western powers in the mid-1950s; consequently, no objections were raised to the 1955 decisions to admit Finland to the Nordic Council and to the UN (see Nordic Europe, this ch.). Late in the same year, the Soviets gave up their base at Porkkala in exchange for an extension of the FCMA treaty, due to expire several years after Paasikivi's scheduled retirement in 1956. Soviet uncertainty about the conduct of his successor made Moscow anxious for the treaty's renewal.

The departure of Soviet troops from Finnish territory removed an obstacle to Finland's full sovereignty and to its achievement of neutrality. In 1956 Nikita Khrushchev, first secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU), spoke for the first time of Finnish neutrality. Soviet tributes to Finland's neutrality and nonaligned status grew common in the next few years.

Finnish-Soviet relations were shaken by two crises—the Night Frost Crisis of 1958–59 and the more serious Note Crisis of 1961 (see Domestic Developments and Foreign Politics, 1948–66, ch. 1). The Note Crisis was a watershed in Finnish-Soviet relations in that Kekkonen, whose successful resolution of the crisis made

him the virtual master of Finnish foreign policy, and others realized that in the future Finnish foreign policy ought to be formulated only after its effects on Soviet interests had been carefully weighed. Another effect of the crisis was that it led to the inauguration of a policy of active and peaceful neutrality (see Neutrality, this ch.).

Finnish-Soviet relations since the Note Crisis have been stable and unmarked by any serious disagreements. Trade between the two countries has remained steady since the 1951 barter agreement. In 1967 Finland became the first Western country to set up a permanent intergovernmental commission with the Soviet Union for economic cooperation. A treaty on economic, technical, and industrial cooperation followed in 1971, as did a long-term agreement on trade and cooperation in 1977 that, in 1987, was extended to be in effect until the turn of the century. The first joint venture agreements between Finnish and Soviet firms were also arranged in 1987. In 1973 Finland was the first capitalist country to cooperate closely with the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA, CEMA, or Comecon—see Glossary) (see Regional Economic Integration, ch. 3).

The Soviet Union has carefully monitored Finland's adherence to the FCMA treaty, and Finland's awareness of this scrutiny has influenced Finnish policy. For example, Finland refrained from full membership in the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) and instead joined the body through an associate membership in 1961. The entry into a free-trade relationship with the European Economic Community (EEC—see Glossary) in 1973 occurred only through a carefully orchestrated preliminary plan that included formal links with Comecon and a special re-election of Kekkonen in 1974 to assure the Soviets of continuity in Finnish foreign policy.

Since the Note Crisis, Soviet interference in Finnish domestic concerns has been limited to occasional critical comments in the Soviet press and from official spokesmen. Clarification about Soviet policy toward Finland could be obtained from Soviet officials themselves, or from articles published in authoritative newspapers or journals. Since the 1970s, a frequent source of enlightenment about the Kremlin's attitudes toward Finland, and about Nordic Europe in general, were articles written under the name of Komissarov, many of which were commonly believed to have been written by Iurii Deriabin, a well-placed and knowledgeable Soviet specialist on Finnish affairs. As valued indicators of Soviet attitudes, the articles were examined line by line in Finland. Komissarov articles, for example, disabused Finnish foreign affairs specialists of the notion, which they had entertained for a time, that Finland had the

right to determine on its own whether consultations according to Article 2 of the FCMA treaty were necessary. A Komissarov article that appeared in January 1984 in a Helsinki newspaper expressed the disquieting Soviet view that the passage of cruise missiles through Finnish airspace might conceivably mean the need for consultations.

Two examples may indicate the restraint exercised by the Soviets in their dealings with Finnish affairs since the early 1960s. In 1971 the Soviet ambassador was recalled from Helsinki after he had become involved in the internal feuds of the Communist Party of Finland (Suomen Kommunistinen Puolue—SKP). A suggestion in 1978 by a Finnish communist newspaper, which was repeated by the Soviet chief of staff General Dmitri Ustinov, that Finnish military forces should hold joint maneuvers with Soviet forces was quickly dismissed by Finnish officials as incompatible with their country's neutrality; there was no Soviet rejoinder.

Finnish foreign policy vis-à-vis the Soviet Union enjoyed widespread support from the Finnish people. Polls in the 1980s consistently measured an approval rate of over 90 percent. Another proof of the acceptance of the Paasikivi-Kekkonen Line was that foreign policy played virtually no part in the parliamentary elections of 1983 and 1987. From the Soviet side, comments on these elections were neutral, with no hints of preferred victors.

Nordic Europe

Finland is an integral part of Nordic Europe. With the exception of a small Swedish-speaking minority, the country is ethnically distinct from the Scandinavian countries, but the 700 years that Finland was part of Sweden gave it a Nordic inheritance that survived the century during which Finland was an autonomous state within the Russian Empire. During the interwar period, it entered into numerous agreements with the other states of Nordic Europe. After World War II, relations resumed, but with caution owing to the tensions of the Cold War. Finland could undertake no initiatives in international relations that might cause the Soviet Union to suspect that Finland was being drawn into the Western camp.

The gradual relaxation of superpower tensions meant that in 1955 Finland could join the Nordic Council, three years after its foundation. The Nordic Council was an organization conceived to further cooperation among Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Iceland. Meeting once a year for a week in one of the capitals of the member countries, the council was an advisory body, the decisions of which were not binding; it did carry considerable weight, however,

as the delegates at the annual meetings were frequently leading politicians of the countries they represented. At the insistence of Finland, security matters were not to be discussed, and attention was directed rather to economic, social, and cultural issues. Unlike the European Community (EC—see Glossary), the Nordic Council was not a supranational organization, and membership in the council did not affect Finland's status as a neutral nation.

The Treaty of Helsinki of 1962 gave birth to the Nordic Convention on Cooperation, which defined the achievements and goals of the regional policy of increased interaction. This agreement was followed by the formation in 1971 of the Nordic Council of Ministers, which instituted a formal structure for frequent meetings of the region's cabinet ministers. The issue at hand determined which ministers would attend. In addition to these larger bodies, numerous smaller entities existed to further Nordic cooperation. A study of the second half of the 1970s found more than 100 such organizations. The efforts of these bodies and the many formal and informal meetings of Nordic politicians and civil servants stopped short of full integration, but they yielded numerous agreements that brought Finland and the other Nordic countries closer together. This so-called "cobweb integration" has given the citizens of Nordic Europe many reciprocal rights in one another's countries. Finns were able to travel freely without passports throughout Nordic Europe, live and work there without restrictions, enjoy the full social and health benefits of each country, and since 1976, vote in local elections after a legal residence of two years. Citizenship in another of the Nordic countries could be acquired more easily by a Finn than by someone from outside the region.

Economic cooperation did not proceed so smoothly. Nordic hopes, in the mid-1950s, of establishing a common market were disappointed, and EFTA was accepted as a substitute. An attempt in 1969 to form a Nordic customs union, the Nordic Economic Union (NORDEK), foundered when Finland withdrew from the plan. The withdrawal may have been caused by Soviet concerns that Finland could be brought into too close a relationship with the EEC via Denmark's expected membership in the Community. This setback was mitigated, however, when the Nordic Investment Bank began operations in 1976 in Helsinki. The bank's purpose was to invest in financial ventures in the Nordic region.

In the second half of the 1980s, Finland continued working with its Scandinavian neighbors, being a part, for example, of the Nordic bloc in the UN and participating in Nordic Third World development projects. Finland's Nordic NWFZ proposal was being studied and furthered by an inter-Nordic parliamentary committee,

and Finland was always present at the semiannual meeting of Nordic foreign ministers.

Western Europe

Finland had to adjust its foreign policy after World War II to the changed international environment; however, it continued to enjoy good relations with West European countries, particularly in the field of economic cooperation. The country joined economic projects such as GATT and the International Monetary Fund (IMF—see Glossary), but, wary of arousing Soviet apprehensions about potential political ties to the West, did not seek membership in the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC). Through a clever device, however, Finland did manage to participate in the trade benefits provided by the OEEC's European Payments Union: in 1957 Finland formed its own body, the Helsinki Club, which was subsequently joined by all OEEC countries. In 1961, for imperative economic reasons, Finland worked out a special relationship with EFTA after complex negotiations. Finland's relationship, an associate membership in the body, became feasible after the Soviet Union agreed that it was compatible with the Finnish policy of neutrality and after tariff arrangements ensured the continuity of Finnish-Soviet economic cooperation. A more stable world meant that in 1969 Finland was able to join the OEEC's successor, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). In 1973 Helsinki, in a balancing effort, signed agreements with both the EEC and Comecon and was given a special status with both organizations.

Another subtle act of diplomatic balancing was Finnish treatment of the thorny question of what kind of relations it should have with the two German states. To recognize either would antagonize one of the superpowers. The Finnish solution was to establish two separate trade missions, one in each of the Germanies. This arrangement allowed diplomatic relations and alienated no one. Once the two German states recognized each other in 1972, Finland was able to establish normal diplomatic relations with each of them.

The years since the early 1970s have seen a steady normalization of Finland's relations with Western Europe. In the 1980s, Finnish trade with the region accounted for about 60 percent of its exports; the country participated in European economic and research endeavors like Eureka and the European Space Agency (ESA); and 1986 saw full Finnish membership in EFTA. In addition, by the end of 1988 all obstacles appeared cleared for Finland's

membership in the Council of Europe (see Glossary) the following year.

The increasing integration of the EC, however, presented problems for Finland and for EFTA's other neutral states. The supranational character of the EC, which was always incompatible with Finnish neutrality, became even more so with the signing in 1985 of the EC's Single European Act. The act aimed at foreign policy cooperation among members, and it therefore made Finnish membership in the EC inconceivable. Exclusion from the EC, however, could threaten Finland's export-based economy if the "internal market" that the EC hoped to have in place by 1992 led to trade barriers directed against nations outside the Community. The late 1980s and the early 1990s were certain to be a time of intensive Finnish dicussion on how this challenge was to be met.

United States

The United States recognized Finland as an independent state in 1919. In that year, the United States assisted Finland with deliveries of food through an organization led by Herbert Hoover. Since then assistance has been in the form of loans, all of which have been repaid. This has contributed to the development of friendly relations between the countries. The American public expressed great sympathy for Finland during the Winter War, and, although the United States ambassador was recalled in June 1944 after Finland's decision to continue the war against the Soviet Union, the United States did not declare war on Finland (see The Winter War, ch. 1). In the postwar period, Finnish-American relations have been exceedingly cordial. Even though political considerations did not allow Finland to participate in the Marshall Plan after World War II, in the immediate postwar years, Finland received about US$200 million in credits from the United States to help rebuild its industrial base.

Both Kekkonen and Koivisto paid state visits to the United States, and United States presidents have occasionally expressed their support for Finnish neutrality. In early 1983, however, the supreme commander of NATO forces in Europe, United States general Bernard Rogers, expressed uncertainty about the Finns' desire to defend themselves. His press conference remarks caused much consternation in Finland. Other military officials have since praised Finland's defense readiness; among them was United States admiral William Crowe, who paid Finland an official visit in 1986 as chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

United Nations and the Third World

Because Finland had fought with the Axis powers during World

product (GNP—see Glossary) to Third World development, and critics have charged that Finland gets a "free ride" from the achievements and good reputations of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. Efforts were underway in the 1980s, however, to come closer to this figure. The foreign aid programs in which Finland was involved were not only multilateral, but, with regard to a few selected countries, were carried out on a one-to-one basis. Finland's record as a provider of asylum for refugees did not always match the records of the other Nordic countries. A quota system instituted in 1985 provided for the acceptance of 100 refugees a year. Criticism of this figure led to the quota's increase to 200 a year in 1987, and in mid-1988 Finnish officials decided to admit 300 refugees that year. As of late 1988, there were about 1,200 refugees in Finland, nearly all of them from the Third World.

* * *

An excellent introduction to Finnish political life is David Arter's *Politics and Policy-Making in Finland.* The same author's *The Nordic Parliaments* presents in great detail the workings of the Eduskunta, the Landsting, and the Nordic Council. Somewhat dated, but still useful, is Jaakko Nousiainen's classic *The Finnish Political System.* The second edition of *The Finnish Legal System,* edited by Jaakko Uotila, will meet the needs of many readers on this subject; in addition, it has expert surveys of various Finnish political institutions. *Small States in Comparative Perspective: Essays for Erik Allardt,* edited by Risto Alapuro et al, contains a number of valuable articles. Klaus Törnudd's *Finland and the International Norms of Human Rights* examines Finnish legal protections for human rights and provides much information about law and the media.

Stimulating brief accounts of Finland's unique international position are George Maude's *The Finnish Dilemma: Neutrality in the Shadow of Power* and Max Jakobson's *Finnish Neutrality.* Roy Allison's more recent *Finland's Relations with the Soviet Union, 1944–84* is also very useful. *Foreign Policies of Northern Europe,* edited by Bengt Sundelius, treats the Nordic region as a whole, yet it will help the reader seeking more specific information about many aspects of Finnish foreign relations. The Nordic quarterly *Cooperation and Conflict* often contains excellent articles that deal with Finnish foreign relations, as does the *Yearbook of Finnish Foreign Policy,* published by the Finnish Institute of Foreign Affairs. (For further information and complete citations, see Bibliography.)

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THE ETHNIC ALMANAC

by Stephanie Bernardo

Dolphin Books
Doubleday & Company, Inc.
Garden City, New York
1981

BELGIAN

Belgian American Educational Foundation
Graybar Building
420 Lexington Avenue
New York, NY 10017

American organization concerned with exchange fellowship program for Belgian and American scholars having a master's degree or working for a Ph.D.

BYELORUSSIAN

Byelorussian-American Association in the U.S.A. and
Byelorussian-American Youth Organization
166-34 Gothic Drive
Jamaica, NY 11432

2,400 members in both divisions promote lectures and celebrations to preserve Byelorussian culture in America. Maintains library of 4,000 volumes; publishes monthly Byelorussian journal, *Bielarus*, and quarterlies.

CHINESE

Chinese Information Service
159 Lexington Avenue
New York, NY 10016

China Institute of America
125 East 65th Street
New York, NY

Lectures and exhibits on Chinese art and culture.

CZECHOSLOVAKIAN

Czechoslovak Society of America
2138 S. 61st Street
Cicero, IL 60650

Fraternal benefit life insurance society.
Founded: 1854
Membership: 52,000

DANISH

Danish Information Service
280 Park Avenue
New York, NY 10017

Danish Brotherhood in America
3717 Harney Street
Omaha, NE 68171

ESTONIAN

Estonian Educational Society
Estonian Student Association in the U.S.A.
World Association of Estonians
243 East 34th Street
New York, NY 10016

These three organizations of Americans of Estonian descent seek to spread "culture and friendship between the United States and Estonia" and to preserve Estonian culture in America.

202/363-2430 Embassy

FINNISH

Finnish-American Historical Society of the West
P.O. Box 3515
Portland, OR 97208

Collects and preserves history of Finns in American West.

Finnish Consultate General
540 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10022

League of Finnish-American Societies
USA office, c/o Ms. Leena Korhonen
Suite 200
Erik B. Paulsson, Inc.
151 West 51st Street
New York, NY 10019

FRENCH

Committee of French-Speaking Societies
11 West 42nd Street
New York, NY 10036

Sponsors celebrations of French holidays in America.

Union Saint Jean Baptiste
One Social Street
Woonsocket, RI 02895

Fraternal benefit life insurance society of almost 50,000 members.

GERMAN

German American National Congress
4740 N. Western Avenue
Chicago, IL 60625

Also known as the Deutsch-Amerikanischer National Kongress (DANK); some 20,000 members of German ancestry promote German language, customs and culture in the United States.

German Society of the City of New York
150 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY

Aids German immigrants with counseling, welfare services, medical care and employment opportunities.

Steuben Society of Amer
Suite 2003
369 Lexington Avenue
New York, NY 10017

Members are America
tion; publishes monthly

The Society for German
204 Franklin Drive
Berea, OH 44017

Organization devoted
American history, lingu
ogy, literature, music an
vention at Baldwin-Wa
OH.

Society for the History
land
231 St. Paul Place
Baltimore, MD 21202

Pennsylvania German
R.D.1
Breinigsville, PA 1803

German Society of Per
611 Spring Garden Str
Philadelphia, PA 1912

GR

Greek American Prog
3600 Fifth Avenue
Pittsburgh, PA 15213

10,000 members, a
birth, belong to 150 lo
publishes *Tribune* five

HIS

The Hispanic Society
613 West 155th Stree
New York, NY 1003

Founded in 1904 a
library dedicated to p
The museum collecti
ture, and decorative
Iberian Peninsula cu
to present day. The li
umes, and is a center
Portuguese art, litera

Sells publications
the mail.

El Museo del Barric
1945 Third Avenue
New York, NY

Museum devoted
cultural traditions
Hispanic enclave. I
folk art, and a small

Institute for the Stu
in U.S. Life and Hi
4340 Birchlake Ct.
Alexandria, VA 22

ran a lumberyard, where Louise Berliawsky first learned to appreciate the beauty that might be sculpted from a plain block of virgin wood.

After marrying Charles Nevelson, Louise moved to New York in 1920 to study painting, drawing, voice and dramatics. She also studied at the Art Students League, but it wasn't until 1933 that she began to exhibit her sculptures. Nevelson has made liberal use of "found" objects over the years—such items as wheels, chair backs, furniture legs and the like. The reason? "I always wanted to show the world that art is everywhere." Another "reason for my use of 'found' materials is that I never could afford much else."

I. M. PEI (1917–) When Pei designed the National Gallery's new East Building in Washington, D.C., his main criterion was that it take no more than 45 minutes to see the exhibits. "In forty-five minutes one doesn't get bored, one's feet don't hurt, and one comes away with a sense of accomplishment." Born in China of well-to-do parents, Pei studied at MIT and Harvard under the tutelage of Walter Gropius, the founder of Bauhaus. In addition to the $95 million gallery, Pei has designed Syracuse's Everson Museum of Art; National Airlines' terminal at JFK Airport in New York and Boston's John Hancock building. He became a naturalized citizen in 1954.

PETER RINDISBACHER (1806–1834) Although he is not as well-known as George Catlin and other artists who painted the American West in the early nineteenth century, he was one of the first to paint native Americans. A Swiss immigrant who came to America at the age of fifteen, Rindisbacher died at the age of twenty-eight—some say it was cholera, others claim that he inadvertently poisoned himself by his habit of putting paintbrushes in his mouth to give them a better "point." Although his life was short, he left 187 known watercolor paintings that depict life on the American prairies in the early 1800s.

SIMON RODIA (1879–1965), an Italian immigrant, began constructing Los Angeles' most unusual artistic tourist attraction, the Watts Towers, in 1921. Threatened by demolition, the towers were saved by art buffs, who call the columns one of the most significant achievements of twentieth-century folk art. Rodia constructed the towers from concrete and steel, to which he added bits of tiles, bottles, dishes, seashells and other objects he could scavenge, simple because "he wanted to build something big for America."

MARK ROTHKO (1903–1970) Marcus Rothkowitz journeyed from his native Russia with his mother and sister in 1913 to join his father, a Jewish pharmacist who had already established a business in Portland, Oregon.

Rothko entered Yale in 1921, dropped out in 1923, and ended up at New York City's Art Student's League. After his first exhibition in 1929, this basically self-taught painter turned more and more toward abstraction—large canvasses characterized by diffuse rectangles of color. One critic wrote of Rothko's art, "I know that many people only find it an insult to their intelligence; but if by some miracle, Rothko's attitude to painting were to prevail, we should all be on the way to becoming converts to Zen Buddhism." (*Architectural Review*, Oct. 1957, R. Melville)

Rothko committed suicide in 1970, leaving behind 798 unsold paintings; their sale during the early 1970s erupted into a major scandal in the art world.

EERO SAARINEN (1910–1961) and his architect father, ELIEL (1873–1950), emigrated to the United States in 1923 from Kyrkslatt, Finland. Together they designed the giant stainless steel arch that rises 630 feet above the city of St. Louis, Missouri, as part of the Jefferson National Expansion Memorial. They are also the creators of the TWA terminal at Kennedy Airport in New York.

PAOLO SOLERI (1919–) is an Italian-born architect famous for his "earth homes"—structures that are half in the earth and half out, with soil roofs covered with concrete. Soleri coined the word "arcology" to describe his marriage of "architecture and ecology."

EDWARD STEICHEN (1879–1973), one of the photographic geniuses of all time, the man behind the 1955 Family of Man exhibit and best-selling book of the same name, was born, as few American immigrants have been, in the picturesque Grand Duchy of Luxembourg. Steichen was director of the department of photography of the Museum of Modern Art between 1947 and 1962.

JOSEPH BAE
(1870–1938) was t
Golden Gate Bridg
Born in Cincinnati,
Baermann designed t
36½-inch-thick suspe
it the longest single-s
of its day. First ope
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that decade. The bo
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pass which entitled
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SAUL STEINE
makes his comments
pen and ink drawing
the cover of the *N*
Born in Rimnicu-Sar
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In addition to his
berg's watercolors h
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seum of Art and th
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MINORU YA
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Tom Jones won th

Remarks of President Reagan and President Mauno Koivisto of Finland Following Their Meetings
September 27, 1983

President Reagan. President Koivisto and I have just completed a cordial and fruitful discussion about relations between Finland and the United States and about the current international situation. And it's a pleasure to say that we did not discuss problems in the Finnish-American relationship, because there are no bilateral problems between Finland and the United States. Our relations are excellent and have been for a long time.

The United States supports Finland's position of internationally recognized neutrality, and we value their perspective on world problems.

I welcome this chance to hear President Koivisto's views and expressed our own commitment to international cooperation and world peace. Americans have always had a warm place in their hearts for the Finnish people, and it's been a pleasure to welcome their President to our country today. Thank you, and thank you, sir, for being here.

President Koivisto. I appreciate very much this opportunity to meet with President Reagan here in Washington today. It confirms a longstanding tradition of good relations and personal contacts, both warm and friendly, between our two countries.

Our talks have given me a very ample opportunity to gain insights into the policies of the United States. Naturally, I have also expressed our own views and aspirations with regard to the international situation. Finland's foreign policy is based, in the first place, on good relations and confidence with regard to our neighboring countries. In accordance with our policy on neutrality, we want to have good relations with all nations of the world.

Finland's impact on world affairs is understandably limited. However, we remain determined to make whatever contribution we can to restrain international conflicts and promote peaceful solutions.

Finland recognizes with deep appreciation the friendship she has always received from the people of the United States, for whom we have the greatest respect and affection.

Note: President Reagan spoke at 1:06 p.m. to reporters assembled at the South Portico of the White House.

Earlier, the two Presidents met privately in the Oval Office and held a working luncheon, together with U.S. and Finnish officials, in the State Dining Room.

Letter to Congressional Leaders on United States Participation in the Multinational Force in Lebanon
September 27, 1983

Dear Mr. Speaker:

I know you were as gratified as I with Sunday's announcement of a cease fire in Lebanon. While there were many things that contributed to the cease fire, it is my belief that your agreement to advance the compromise resolution on war powers—and the favorable action by the Foreign Affairs and Foreign Relations Committees—were particularly important. At a crucial point, your agreement and the supporting committee actions expressed a commitment to bipartisanship in U.S. foreign policy. Please accept my thanks.

Let me also take this opportunity to clarify an issue with respect to the interpretation of the compromise resolution. The compromise resolution refers to the requirements of section 4(a) of the Lebanon



Full Moon - Flower Moon, Milk Moon
First Monday - Wool and Cattle Fair at Tenterden, Kent, England
First Friday - Arbor Day in Rhode Island
First Friday after May 1st - Arbor Day in Idaho
First Saturday - Kentucky Derby Horse Race at Churchill Downs
First Sunday (of every year ending in 0 - First of the season's Passion Plays at Oberammergau, Germany
2nd Sunday - Mother's Day
Diaper Day at Jacksonville Beach, Florida
Third Saturday - Armed Forces Day
Last Monday - Memorial Day observances (as of 1971)
First week - Bangtail Muster Festival at Alice Springs, Australia

May 1st

International Worker's Day in Venezuela
May Day (Political celebrations in Communist countries; Morris Dancers in England)
Feast of St. Joseph the Worker (Malta)
Feast of Sts. Philip and James
Loyalty Day in U.S.
Start of Festival of St. Efisio at Pula, Sardinia
Dedication Day of the Good Goddess's temple on the Avantine in Rome
Tivoli Gardens, Copenhagen, opens for the season
St. George's Day in Greece
Race of the Old Man in Arachova, Greece

Fair at Penryn, Cornwall, England
Feast of St. Brieuc
Lei Day in Hawaii
Labor Day in Aruba, Bulgaria, Burundi, Costa Rica, Dahomey, Honduras, Iceland, Kenya, Malagasy Republic, Philippines, Poland, Uganda, Yugoslavia

305 AD Roman Emperor Diocletian abdicated
686 St. Ultan died (Feast Day)
1308 King Albert of Germany murdered by his disinherited nephew
1316 Edward Bruce crowned King of Ireland
1345 St. Peregrine Laziosi died (Feast Day)
1572 Pope Pius V died
1625 King Charles I of England married Henrietta Marie of France by proxy
1693 Weekly postal service begun between Portsmouth, N.H. and Virginia
1703 Czar Peter the Great founded St. Petersburg (Leningrad), Russia
1704 First American newspaper advertisement appeared (Boston News-letter)
1778 Third and unbreakable chain strung across the Hudson River at West Point
1784 New York University established
1792 Rufus Porter, founder of Scientific American magazine, born
1795 U.S. flag changed to 13 red and white stripes plus 15 white stars on a blue field
1815 Georgetown University, Washington, D.C., founded
1841 First emigrant train for California left Independence, Mo.
1851 Great Exposiiton, Crystal Palace, opened in London
1854 Construction of Great Eastern steamship began
1861 First patent issued for a shaving mug to Thomas E. Hughes
1861 Erie Railroad began operating a ferry between New York and New Jersey
1862 General Butler, Union, took control of New Orleans
1867 Treaty of London guaranteed neutrality of Luxembourg
1871 First U.S. postal card issued
1873 International Exposition opened in Vienna
David Livingstone, African explorer, died
1885 First skyscraper, 10 stories, with a steel skeleton, begun (Chicago)
1893 Columbian Exposition, Chicago, opened
1896 Nasr-ed-Din, Shah of Iran, assassinated
1898 Admiral Dewey was victorious at Manila Bay, sinking 7 Spanish ships

1901 Pan-American Exposition opened (Buffalo, New York)
1904 Anton Dvorak, composer, died
1909 Kate Smith, singer, born
1912 Winthrop Rockefeller, Arkansas governor, born
1915 German ads in American newspapers warned that ships flying the British flag were subject to being sunk
1916 Irish revolt leaders imprisoned
1917 Glenn Ford, actor, born
Carranza became legal president of Mexico
1918 City of Athens involved in a collision off Delaware
Jack Parr, television personality, born
1920 Princess Margaret of Sweden died
1931 Empire State Building completed and dedicated
1936 Haile Selassie, Ethiopian emperor, escaped Italian advance
1941 Howard Johnson, songwriter ("When the Moon Comes Over the Mountain"), died
1948 People's Republic of Korea formed (Communist North Korea)
1958 Memorial to the People's Heroes completed in Peking, China
1960 U.S. U-2 reconnaisance plane shot down by the USSR
1963 James W. Whittaker became the first American to reach the top of Mt. Everest
2011, 2095 Quasimodo or Low Sunday

May 2nd

Adoration of the Cross (Venezuela)
373 AD St. Athanasius died (Feast Day)
903 Boris I, Tsar of Bulgaria and Orthodox Saint, died
1459 St. Antoninus died
1519 Leonardo da Vinci, artist-inventor, died
1670 Hudson Bay Fur Company chartered
1729 Catherine the Great, Russian Empress, born
1740 Transit of Mercury
1780 French set sail to support the Americans in the Revolution
1791 British man-of-war Alligator became the first British ship to salute the U.S. flag
1813 Battle of Lutzen (Prussia and Russia against Napoleon)
1814 King Louis XVIII entered Paris, his capital
1840 The Log Cabin, weekly campaign paper for William Henry Harrison, begun

1842 Fremont set out on his expedition to the Rocky Mountains
1863 Gen. "Stonewall" Jackson shot at Chancellorsville, Va.
1865 $100,000 reward offered for the capture of Jefferson Davis
1880 Columbia became the first steamboat with electricity (San Francisco to Portland, Oregon)
1885 Good Housekeeping magazine first published
1890 Oklahoma became a U.S. territory
1903 Dr. Benjamin Spock, pediatrician-writer, born
1904 Bing Crosby, singing actor, born
1917 First Liberty Loan subscriptions started
1923 First non-stop transcontinental flight made
1926 "Man-eating leopard of Rudraprayag," credited with 125 deaths, killed
1927 Alaskan territorial flag adopted
1931 First televised wedding performed
1932 Congress accepted Theodore Roosevelt Island
1935 King Faisal III of Iraq born
1945 Russian troops captured Berlin
1952 First jet plane passenger service began (London to Johannesburg, South Africa)
1960 Caryl Chessman executed, 12 years after being convicted of robbery and kidnapping
1964 Mt. Gosaintham in Tibet climbed by a Chinese team who set a bust of Mao Tse Tung on the mountaintop
1965 Early Bird television satellite first used
1969 Israeli Independence Day
Wawona Tunnel Tree, a sequoia in Yosemite National Park, was discovered to have fallen
19[illegible]0 Labor Day in the Cameroons
San Gennaro Festival in Naples, Italy
1971 Buddha's Birthday in Hong Kong
1972 J. Edgar Hoover, head of the FBI since its inception, died
1943, 2038 Quasimodo or Low Sunday

May 3rd

Japanese Constitution Day
Feast of St. Alexander
Bury, Lancashire, England fair
Invention of the Holy Cross
Beginning of 3 days of kite battles at Hamamatsu, Japan
Girls' Festival (Doll Displays) in Japan

St. Helena for the Cross of Christ at Jerusalem died
died (Feast Day)
1074 St. Theodosius of the Caves died (Feast Day)
1270 King Bela IV of Hungary died
1469 Mathias I, King of Hungary, elected King of Bohemia
Machiavelli, Italian statesman-writer, born
1471 Battle of Tewkesbury ended the War of the Roses (England)
1679 James Sharp, Scotch Episcopalian archbishop, beaten to death
1772 Christian Indians, founders of the New Philadelphia, Ohio, arrived there
1786 Transit of Mercury
1810 Lord Byron, the poet, swam the Hellespont
1814 King Louis XVIII installed on the French throne
1826 Beginning of a general strike in England
1833 Mormons adopted the name Latter-day Saints
1851 America's Cup yacht America christened in East Boothbay, Maine
1887 Tombstone, Arizona, rocked by an earthquake
1895 Rhodesia named by proclamation
1898 Golda Meir, Israeli Prime Minister, born
1907 Earl Wilson, columnist, born
1913 William Inge, playwright, born
1919 Airplane passenger service began
1921 "Sugar Ray" Robinson, boxer, born
1926 Beginning of a general strike in England
1933 Nellie Taylor Ross named first woman director of the U.S. Mint
1952 First commercial jet plane went into service
First plane landed at the geographic North Pole
1965 El Salvador rocked by an earthquake
1967 Replica of the America's Cup yacht America christened in East Boothbay, Maine
1970 Corn Dance at Cochiti Pueblo, New Mexico
Ceremonial races and corn dance at Taos Pueblo, New Mexico
Third Annual Flowering Crabapple Festival at Canfield, Ohio
Tenth anniversary of Brasilia celebrated (Brazil)
Old Dover Day, Dover, Delaware
Florida Folk Festival at White Springs
Santa Cruz Feast, Peumo, Chile

May 4th

Primary Election Day in Ohio
Rhode Island Independence Day (1776; declared itself free from England)
Youth Festival in Communist China

End of the 6-day festival honoring Flora, Roman goddess
Feast of St. Florian (patron of Austria; invoked against fire)

387 AD St. Monica died (Feast Day)
1038 St. Gothard died (Feast Day)
1244 Catholic hierarchy captured by Pisa in a dispute between Pope Gregory IX and the Holy Roman Emperor
1483 King Edward V of England arrived in London
1493 Columbus was given a Spanish coat of arms
1626 Peter Minuit, purchaser, landed on Manhattan Island
1769 Sir Thomas Lawrence, English artist, born
1780 First English Derby horse race run at Epsom Downs
1796 Horace Mann, educational reformer, born
1800 Napoleon proclaimed Emperor of France
1803 John H. B. Latrobe, artist-philanthropist, born
1807 Russia defeated by France at the battle of Friedland
1824 Rufus Putnam, "father of Ohio," died
1826 Frederick Church, artist, born
1827 John Speke, discoverer of the source of the Nile, born
Georges Karaiskakis, Greek independence leader, killed in action
1849 Battle of Mestre (Austria-Hungary)
1850 Part of San Francisco destroyed by fire
1851 Start of a fire that destroyed 3/4 of San Francisco
3/4 of St. Louis, Missouri destroyed by fire
1873 William H. McGuffey, educator and founder of the Eclectic Reader, died
1886 Haymarket labor rioting broke out in Chicago
1889 Francis, Cardinal Spellman, born
Maritime Canal Company of Nicaragua organized
1896 The Daily Mail, London newspaper, founded
1897 Disastrous fire in a Paris motion-picture theater
1927 Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences formed
1930 Roberta Peters, opera singer, born
1945 German troops began to surrender
1969 Clam Prix at Ocean Shores, Washington
1970 Labor Day on Antigua

May 5th

Children's Day, a Japanese Holiday Feast of Banners for boys

Boys' Day in Communist China (reed-wrapped cumplings eaten)
Korean Festival of Tano (youth activities)

449 AD St. Hilary of Arles died (Feast Day)
884 Pope Marinus I died (Feast Day)
1045 Gregory VI elected Pope
1260 St. Jutta died (Feast Day)
1292 Adolph of Nassau became King of Germany
1352 Rupert, King of Germany, born
1474 Cornerstone laid for Magdalen College, Oxford, England
1572 Pope St. Pius V died (Feast Day)
1606 Jean Nicot, French diplomat who brought tobacco back to his country, died
1617 Nicholas Hilliard named English royal artist
1673 England recaptured St. Helena Island
1705 Leopold I, Holy Roman Emperor and King of Germany, died
1707, 1753, 1832, 1957 Transits of Mercury
1747 Leopold II, Holy Roman Emperor, born
1760 Earl of Ferrer hanged for murder, the last English nobleman to die a felon
1778 George Washington announced France's alliance with the U.S.
1818 Karl Marx, founder of Communism, born
1821 Napoleon Bonaparte died on St. Helena Island
1826 Eugenie, wife of Napoleon III of France, born
1827 Andrew Johnson, U.S. President, married Eliza McCardle
1831 Detroit Free Press newspaper founded
1842 Great fire burned in Hamburg, Germany
1846 National Medical Association founded (U.S.)
1847 American Medical Association founded out of the National Medical Association
1851 San Francisco's fire put out, but 3/4 of the city destroyed
1862 Battle of Williamsburg, Virginia
1864 Battle of the Wilderness
Confederate ironclad Albemarle defeated Union sidewheeler Sassacus
1868 Memorial Day established for May 30 by the Grand Army of the Republic
1871 Cochise and the Apaches defeated the 3rd Cavalry at Bear Springs
1883 Rev. Josiah Henson, the original Uncle Tom, died
1884 Start of two days of financial panic in New York City
1890 Christopher Morley, poet-novelist, born
1902 Bret Harte, author, died
1906 Freer Gallery of Art given to the Smithsonian Institution
1912 Pravda, Russian newspaper, first published
1914 Tyrone Power, actor, died

1925 John Scopes arrested for teaching theory of evolution
1936 Italian Premier Mussolini announced annexation of Ethiopia
1938 French Lafayette burned in drydock at Le Havre
1941 Haile Selassie returned to Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (Liberation Day National Holiday)
1954 Netherlands Carillon installed in a temporary tower in Washington, D.C.
1955 West Germany became a sovereign state
1960 Netherlands Carillon permanently installed and dedicated
1961 Alan B. Shepherd in Mercury's Freedom 7 made the first U.S. manned space flight
1962 "Bo" Belinsky pitched a no-hitter and Los Angeles beat Baltimore 2-0
1967 New York World Journal Telegram ceased publication
1970 Coronation Anniversary in Thailand

May 6th

Fair at Walsall, Staffordshire, England
Feast of St. John of Damascus
2348 BC Noah's ark grounded on Mt. Ararat, according to Blair and Usher
1491 Moses climbed Mt. Sinai
973 AD Henry II "the Saint," Holy Roman Emperor, born
1092 Lincoln, England, cathedral consecrated
1210 Rheims, France, cathedral destroyed by fire
1211 New Rheims cathedral begun
1501 British brig Speedy captured Spanish frigate El Gamo
1527 Duke of Bourbon killed after sacking Rome with the Lutheran Army
1536 Jacques Cartier's third expedition left Canada for France
1542 St. Francis Xavier arrived in Goa, India
1545 King Henry VIII's Primer henceforth to be used in all English churches
1634 Beacon set on Beacon Hill, Boston
1682 King Louis XIV of France moved into Versailles
1697 Trinity Church founded in New York City
1758 Robespierre, French politician, born
1781 Battle of Newport, Rhode Island
1808 First ocean-going steamboat completed its maiden voyage (Hoboken, New Jersey, to Philadelphia)
1835 New York Herald began publication
1840 First postage stamp, "black penny," issued in England with adhesive on it

Father Gallitzin, "apostle of the Alleghanies," died

1851 John Gorrie received the patent for basic modern refrigeration method

1856 Sigmund Freud, psychologist, born
Robert E. Peary, Arctic explorer, born

1859 Gregory gold mine discovered in Colorado
Alexander von Humboldt, explorer, died

1861 Arkansas seceded from the Union

1862 Henry David Thoreau, naturalist-philosopher, died

1870 Sir James Young Simpson, anesthesia pioneer, died

1877 Crazy Horse, Sioux Indian, surrendered

1878, 2003 Transits of Mercury

1882 William, last Crown Prince of Germany, born

1884 New York Produce Exchange opened

1889 Universal Exposition at Paris, with the Eiffel Tower, opened

1895 Rudolph Valentino, actor, born

1896 Samuel P. Langley tried to fly his experimental plane

1908 Manoel became King of Poland

1910 King Edward VII of England died

1915 Orson Wells, actor, born
Theodore H. White, journalist-author, born

1916 First telephone conversation with a ship at sea took place

1919 Frank Baum, creator of The Wizard of Oz, died

1931 Willy Mays, baseball great, born

1937 Hindenberg zeppelin exploded and burned (Lakehurst, N.J.)

1941 Stalin succeeded Molotov as Premier of USSR
Igor Sikorsky first showed his helicopter

1942 Corregidor surrendered to the Japanese

1951 Cliff Chambers pitched a no-hitter and Pittsburgh beat Boston 3-0

1953 "Bobo" Holloman pitched a no-hitter and St. Louis beat Philadelphia 2-0

1954 Roger Bannister ran the first sub-4-minute mile (3:59.4)

1960 Princess Margaret Rose of England married Anthony Armstrong Jones, photographer

1970 Procession of St. Martin de Porres, first black saint, in Peru
Coronation Day Anniversary, holiday in Thailand

1972 Start of a weekend of Turtle Races at Joshua Tree, Calif.

May 7th

685 AD Marwan, Moslem caliph, died
721 St. John of Beverly died (Feast Day)
973 Otto I, "the Great," Holy Roman Emperor, died
1577 Queen Elizabeth I forbade Puritan meetings in England
1655 England took the island of Jamaica from Spain
1665 Great festival held at Versailles, France
1718 Mary of Modena, widow of King James II of England, died
1724 Catherine I crowned Empress-consort of Russia
1777 U.S.S. Suprise captured H.M.S. Prince of Orange in the English Channel
1789 First U.P. Presidential inaugural ball held (New York City)
1799, 1924 Transits of Mercury
1800 Indiana became a U.S. Territory separate from the Ohio Territory
1812 Robert Browning, poet, born
1826 Varina (Mrs. Jefferson) Davis, first lady of the Confederacy, born
1833 Johannes Brahms, composer, born
1834 Coorg Province of India annexed to the territory of the British East India Company
1840 Peter I. Tchaikovsky, composer, born
1842 Disastrous fire in Hamburg, Germany, finally put out
1847 City College of New York chartered
1873 Salmon P. Chase, U.S. statesman, died
1875 Schiller wrecked off the Scilly Islands
1884 End of two days of financial panic in New York City
1891 First successful photographs of solar flares taken
1892 Archibald MacLeish, poet, born
1901 Gary Cooper, actor, born
1915 Lusitania sunk off Ireland by a German submarine; 1,198 died
1919 Japan was given control of former German Pacific Islands north of the Equator
1923 Anne Baxter, actress, born
1933 Johnny Unitas, football player, born
1939 Italy and Germany announced their military and political alliance
1945 Germany surrendered unconditionally to the Allies at Reims, France
1963 Telstar II, communications satellite, launched
1969 Cunard liner, Queen Elizabeth II, sailed into New York
1970 Holy Blood Procession at Bruges, Belgium

Ascension Day in Dahomey
Sardinian Cavalcade (Folk Festival) held at Sassari (& 1971)
1971 Mohammed's Birthday in Malaysia

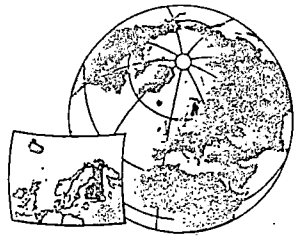
May 8th

Helston, Cornwall, England holiday
Fair at Sherborne, England
Feast of St. Victor
615 AD Pope Boniface IV died
1147 St. Peter of Tarentaise died (Feast Day)
1222 Henry VII crowned King of Germany
1429 Seige of Orleans, France, raised (100 Years' War)
1444 St. Michael, one of the Azores Islands, discovered
1521 St. Peter Canisius born
1541 Hernando DeSoto discovered the Mississippi River
1559 Act of Supremacy made the Anglican (Episcopalian) Church the state religion of England with the ruler as head of the Church
1660 Monarchy restored in England with proclamation of Charles II as King
1758 Pope Benedict XIV died
1769 New York Chronicle newspaper founded
1806 Robert Morris, signer of the Declaration of Independence, died
1819 Kamehameha, King of Hawaii, died
1820 Act of Congress created the U.S. Botanical Gardens
1823 "Home, Sweet Home" first heard, in the production of Clari, or the Maid of Milan opera
1828 Jean Henri Dunant, Swiss philanthropist and founder of the Red Cross, born (Red Cross Day)
1844 Echigo, Japan, rocked by an earthquake
1845, 1970 Transits of Mercury
1861 Richmond, Virginia, became the capital of the Confederacy
1862 Confederate forces evacuated Pensacola, Florida
1869 Religious freedom proclaimed in Spain
1879 George B. Selden applied for the first U.S. automobile patent
1884 Harry S. Truman, 33rd U.S. President, born
1895 Thomas B. Costain, author, born
Fulton J. Sheen, Roman Catholic clergyman and writer, born

1899 Boundary between Mexico and Guatemala set
1902 Mt. Peelee volcano on the island of Martinique erupted, wiping out St. Pierre and 30,000 people
1905 First U.S. transcontinental auto race began
1906 Roberto Rossellini, filmmaker, born
1929 Jan Mayen, Arctic island, annexed to Norway
1942 U.S. carrier Lexington sunk in the Battle of the Coral Sea but the Japanese were defeated
1945 Germany surrendered (V-E Day)
1954 Dien Bien Phu, Vietnam fell to the Communist forces
1968 Jim Hunter pitched a perfect game and Oakland beat Minnesota, 4-0
1970 Last Day of week-long Bangtail Muster Festival at Alice Springs, Australia
Inferno Slalom Ski race held at Tuckerman's Ravine, N.H.

May 9th

National Liberation Day (Czechoslovakia)
Feast of St. Christopher (Orthodox)
389 AD St. Gregory of Nazianzus died (Feast Day)
1204 Baldwin I elected Emperor of Rumania
1216 Droitwich, England fair held
1386 Treaty of Windsor allied England and Portugal
1476 Charles, Duke of Burgundy, reviewed his troops near Lausanne, Switzerland
1502 Columbus left Spain on his last voyage
1598 King Henry IV of France entered Rennes, Brittany in state
1671 England's royal jewels stolen from the Tower of London
1689 Free government restored in Connecticut with the recovery of the Oak Tree Charter
1754 First newspaper cartoon appeared (Philadelphia Gazette)
1763 Pontiac and the Ottowa Indians attacked Detroit
1781 Pensacola, Florida, captured by the Spanish and French from the British
1791 Francis Hopkinson, signer of the Declaration of Independence, died
1800 John Brown, abolitionist-raider, born
1859 First mail coach of the Leavenworth and Pike's Peak Express Line reached Denver, Colorado
1865 Jefferson Davis was captured by the U.S. Cavalry
1879 Fort Assinniboine established in Montana
1881 Phoenix, Arizona, adopted its seal





TOPOGRAPHY

0 100 200 Mi.

0 100 200 Km.

Below Sea Level	100 m. 328 ft.	200 m. 656 ft.	500 m. 1,640 ft.	1,000 m. 3,281 ft.	2,000 m. 6,562 ft.	5,000 m. 16,404 ft.

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Total Population, 4,706,000

PROVINCES

Ahvenanmaa, 21,054 ..... A 5
Häme, 621,677 ..... D 5
Keski-Suomi, 247,137 ..... D 4
Kuopio, 267,523 ..... E 4
Kymi, 349,376 ..... F 5
Lappi, 218,458 ..... E 2
Mikkeli, 229,117 ..... E 5
Oulu, 424,495 ..... E 3
Pohjois-Karjala, 196,708 ..... F 4
Turku-Pori, 676,156 ..... C 5
Uusimaa, 978,352 ..... D 5
Vaasa, 449,402 ..... C 4

CITIES and TOWNS

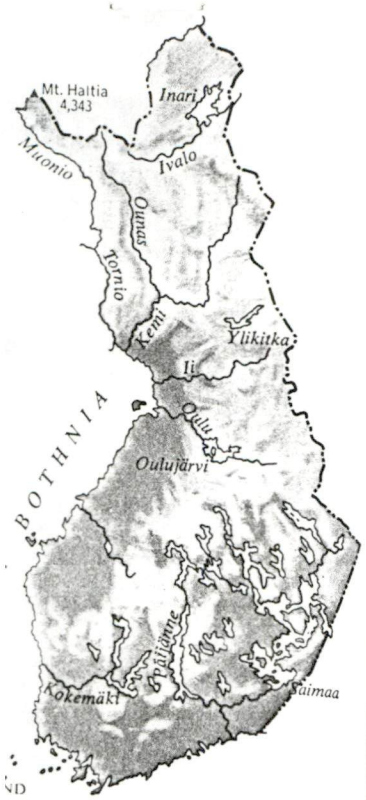
Äänekoski, 7,812 ..... D 4
Åbo (Turku), 146,619 ..... C 5
Ahtäri, †8,205 ..... C 4
Alavus, †11,422 ..... C 4
Borgå, 15,139 ..... D 5
Ekenäs, 6,314 ..... C 5
Enontekiö, †2,531 ..... C 1
Espoo, 85,224 ..... D 5
Forssa, 12,790 ..... C 5
Haapajärvi, 8,847 ..... D 4
Haapamäki ..... D 4
Hailuoto, †1,180 ..... D 3
Hämeenlinna, 36,828 ..... D 5
Hamina, 10,790 ..... E 5
Hango (Hanko), 9,345 ..... C 6
Harjavalta, 8,041 ..... B 5
Haukipudas, 19,656 ..... D 3
Heinola, 13,617 ..... E 5
Helsinki (capital), 522,307 ..... D 5
Helsinki, *696,000 ..... D 5
Himanka, †3,334 ..... C 4
Huutokoski ..... E 4
Hyrynasalmi, †5,670 ..... F 3
Hyvinkää, 25,447 ..... D 5
Iisalmi, 7,554 ..... E 4
Ikaalinen, 610 ..... C 5
Ilomantsi, †12,232 ..... G 4
Imatra, 35,223 ..... F 5
Inari, †7,637 ..... E 1
Isojoki, †4,393 ..... B 4
Ivalo ..... E 1
Jakobstad, 18,158 ..... C 4
Joensuu, 34,591 ..... G 4
Jomala, †2,032 ..... A 5
Juuka, †10,424 ..... F 4
Jyväskylä, 54,834 ..... D 4
Kajaani, 18,724 ..... E 3
Kalajoki, †7,242 ..... C 3
Karhula, 22,179 ..... E 5
Karis (Karjaa), 5,305 ..... C 5
Karkkila, 5,557 ..... C 5
Karunki, †2,455 ..... D 3
Kaskö (Kaskinen), 1,375 ..... B 4
Kauliranta ..... D 2
Kauttua ..... B 5
Kelloselkä ..... F 2
Kemi, 29,771 ..... D 3
Kemijärvi, 6,444 ..... E 2
Kerava, 12,995 ..... D 5
Kiiminki, †2,857 ..... E 3
Kittilä, †8,285 ..... D 2
Kokemaki, 19,008 ..... C 5
Kokkola, 20,284 ..... C 4
Kolari, †5,718 ..... D 2
Kontiomäki ..... F 3
Korsnas, †3,237 ..... B 4
Kotka, 33,557 ..... E 5
Kouvola, 24,521 ..... E 5
Kristinestad (Kristiinankaupunki), 2,620 ..... C 4
Kuhmo, †14,829 ..... F 3
Kuivaniemi, †3,436 ..... D 3
Kultala ..... E 1
Kuopio, 55,020 ..... F 4
Kurikka, 11,612 ..... B 4
Kuusamo, †20,913 ..... F 3
Lahti, 85,547 ..... D 5
Lappajärvi, †5,329 ..... D 4
Lappeenranta, 50,238 ..... E 5
Lieksa, 4,740 ..... G 4
Loimaa, 6,361 ..... C 5
Lovisa, 6,630 ..... E 5
Luiro ..... E 2
Mänttä, 7,289 ..... D 5
Mariehamn (Maarianhamina), 8,072 ..... B 6
Mikkeli, 24,292 ..... E 5
Muonio, †3,324 ..... D 2
Naantali, 6,542 ..... B 5
Nivala, †11,081 ..... D 4
Nokia, 18,935 ..... C 5
Nurmes, 2,604 ..... F 4
Nykarleby, 1,342 ..... C 4
Oulainen, 7,847 ..... D 3
Oulu, 84,379 ..... D 3
Outokumpu, 10,993 ..... F 4
Paavola, †5,079 ..... D 3
Parainen, 10,551 ..... B 5
Parikkala, †7,253 ..... F 5
Parkano, †8,686 ..... C 5
Pelkosenniemi, †2,655 ..... E 2
Pello, †7,050 ..... D 2
Pieksämäki, 12,605 ..... E 4
Pietarsaari (Jakobstad), 18,158 ..... C 4
Piippola, †1,956 ..... E 3
Pokka ..... D 1
Pori, 70,858 ..... B 5
Porkkala ..... D 6
Porvoo (Borgå), 15,139 ..... D 5
Posio, †7,454 ..... F 2
Pudasjärvi, †15,622 ..... E 3
Puolanka, †6,825 ..... E 3
Pyhäjärvi, †9,449 ..... E 4
Raahe, 7,226 ..... D 3
Ranua, †7,294 ..... E 3
Rauma, 24,798 ..... B 5
Riihimäki, 22,036 ..... D 5
Ristijärvi, †3,531 ..... F 3
Rovaniemi, 26,868 ..... D 2
Saarijärvi, †11,586 ..... D 4
Salo, 16,628 ..... C 5
Savonlinna, 17,291 ..... F 5
Savukoski, †2,392 ..... F 2
Seinäjoki, 19,621 ..... C 4
Sideby (Siipyy), †1,946 ..... B 4
Simola ..... E 5
Sippola, †16,500 ..... E 5
Sodankylä, †11,745 ..... E 2
Sotkamo, †14,127 ..... F 3
Suolahti, 5,348 ..... D 4
Suomussalmi, †15,507 ..... F 3
Suonenjoki, 10,120 ..... E 4
Taivalkoski, †6,543 ..... E 3
Tammisaari (Ekenäs), 6,314 ..... C 5
Tampere, 150,983 ..... C 5
Tanhua ..... E 2
Tapiola ..... D 5
Tervola, †7,187 ..... D 2
Teuva, †8,280 ..... C 4
Toijala, 7,598 ..... C 5
Törmänen ..... F 1
Tornio, 6,943 ..... D 3
Turku, 146,619 ..... C 5
Turtola ..... D 2
Ulvila, †7,800 ..... C 5
Utajärvi, †5,608 ..... E 3
Utsjoki, †1,436 ..... E 1
Uusikaarlepyy (Nykarleby), 1,342 ..... C 4
Uusikaupunki, 5,924 ..... B 5
Vaala, †6,675 ..... E 3
Vaasa (Vasa), 48,262 ..... B 4
Valkeakoski, 15,965 ..... C 5
Vammala, 5,908 ..... C 5
Varkaus, 24,116 ..... F 4
Vuotso ..... E 1
Ylitornio, 19,605 ..... D 2
Ylivieska, 10,616 ..... D 3

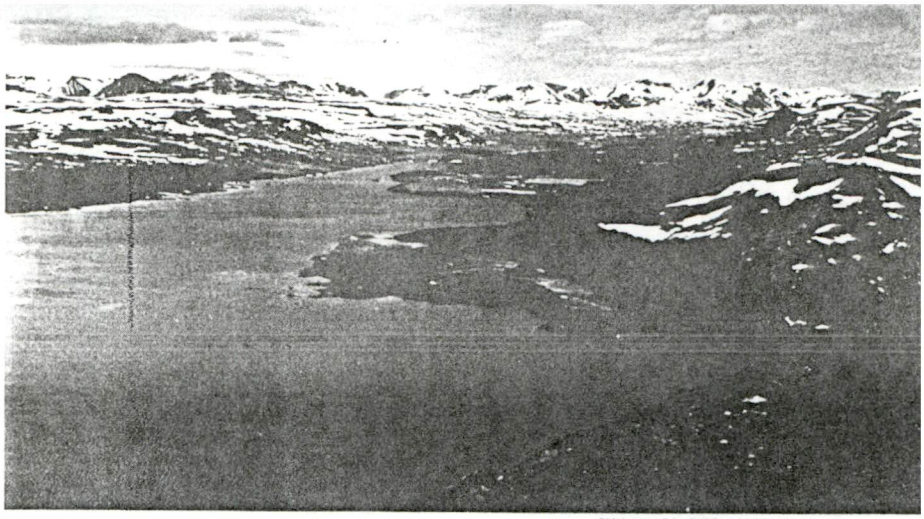
OTHER FEATURES

Aland (isls.), 21,054 ..... A 5
Botnia (gulf) ..... B 4
Finland (gulf) ..... E 6
Hailuoto (isl.), 1,180 ..... D 3
Haltia (mt.) ..... B 1
Hangoudd (prom.) ..... C 6
Hauki (lake) ..... F 4
Ii (river) ..... D 3
Inari (lake) ..... E 1
Ivalo (river) ..... E 1
Juo (lake) ..... F 4
Kala (river) ..... D 2
Kalla (lake) ..... F 4
Karlo (Hailuoto) (isl.), 1,180 ..... D 3
Keitele (lake) ..... D 4
Kemi (lake) ..... F 2
Kianta (lake) ..... F 3
Kilpisjärvi (lake) ..... B 1
Kitinen (river) ..... E 2
Kivi (lake) ..... D 4
Koitere (lake) ..... G 4
Kokemaki (river) ..... B 5
Kuusamo (lake) ..... F 3
Längelmä (lake) ..... D 5
Lapland (region) ..... D 1
Lappa (lake) ..... D 4
Lapuan (river) ..... C 4
Lesti (lake) ..... D 4
Lokka (res.) ..... F 1
Lotta (river) ..... F 1
Muo (lake) ..... G 3
Muonio (river) ..... B 1
Näsi (lake) ..... D 5
Onkivesi (lake) ..... E 4
Orihvesi (lake) ..... F 4
Oulu (lake) ..... E 3
Oulu (river) ..... D 3
Ounas (river) ..... D 2
Päijänne (lake) ..... D 5
Pasvik (river) ..... F 1
Pielinen (lake) ..... F 4
Puru (lake) ..... F 5
Puula (lake) ..... E 4
Pyhä (lake) ..... B 5
Pyhä (lake) ..... D 4
Saimaa (lake) ..... F 5
Siika (river) ..... D 3
Simo (lake) ..... E 2
Simo (river) ..... D 3
Teno (river) ..... E 1
Tornio (river) ..... D 2
Vallgrund (isl.), 1,651 ..... B 4
Ylikitka (lake) ..... F 2

*City and suburbs. †Population of commune.

Total pop.—1970 off. est.; other pops—1968 off. est.





FINNISH TOURIST ASSOCIATION

FINLAND'S highest mountains are found near Lake Kilpisjärvi, in the extreme northwestern corner, well beyond the Arctic Circle.



FINNISH TRAVEL ASSOCIATION

KEMIJÄRVI, in Lapland, is one of many small towns that were built by Finnish settlers as they moved north along the river valleys.

villages of central and eastern Europe are not characteristic of Finland.

Except for differences in types of dwellings, however, life in town and life in the country are quite similar. There are no major variations in food, drink, or dress. Rapid improvement in communications and the spread of cars, radios, and television have helped to standardize customs and tastes, reducing distinctions between various provinces and regions as well as between town and country. This same process has also tended to weaken efforts led by the youth societies to activate rural life by putting on plays and reviving interest in folk dances and old customs.

In some forms, however, folk culture has been well preserved in Finland. The Finnish folklore archives are probably the largest collection in the world. National costumes are occasionally worn on festive days. Wood carvings and various types of woven goods, such as *ryijy* rugs, are the main handicraft products.

A national interest in outdoor life and sports makes the lives of most Finns fairly similar both in winter and summer. In the winter practically all the people, from three-year-olds to grandparents, ski cross-country through the woods. The older Finnish children are active fans of ice hockey and ski jumping. In the summer the exodus from town to country is repeated, as hundreds of thousands of Finns flock to the lakes and coast to the summer cottages and saunas, the Finnish steam baths. There are some 500,000 saunas to satisfy the national passion for dry-heat bathing.

Social Structure. The social structure of Finland has changed considerably since World War II, and the 1960's were a period of especially rapid transformation. During its half century of independence, Finland made the transition from an agrarian country to a modern industrial and commercial society. Agriculture and forestry together provided work and a livelihood for most Finns before 1940, but by 1966 the percentage had fallen to less than one third. Within the same period, 1940 to 1966, the percentage of the work force employed in industry doubled and that in commerce and the service occupations—the fastest growing fields of employment—increased more than four times.

These changes, combined with the general availability of higher education, have brought about greater social mobility in Finland. At the turn of the century class distinctions were sharp and difficult to overcome, and some attitudes of an earlier period survive even today, such as the strong concern for occupational, professional, and academic titles.

The middle class has continued to grow—from an estimated 11% of the population in 1940 to about 30% in 1960. At the same time, the working class diminished from 62% to 51% of the population and the farmers from 24% to 16%.

Women form an important part of the Finn-

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Ylivieska, 10,616 ..... D 3

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Bothnia (gulf) ..... B 4
Finland (gulf) ..... E 6
Hailuoto (isl.), 1,180 ..... D 3
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Hauki (lake) ..... F 4
Ii (river) ..... D 3
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PHOTO TRENDS

Helsinki, the national capital, is Finland's largest city as well as its commercial center and busiest port.

ish work force. Over one third of the industrial workers and civil servants in Finland are women, although they generally receive lower salaries than men who have corresponding positions and training. Women are also strongly represented in some of the professions, such as dentistry.

Finland's high standard of living makes it one of the more prosperous countries in the world, although it has areas of poverty in the north and in the east. In the national income per capita it ranks 15th in the world and 11th in Europe. The growth rate of its national income has been among the highest in Europe, averaging about 5% a year.

The major social problems of Finland are related to regional discrepancies in the distribution of wealth. The northern and eastern parts of the country are economically depressed and seem continually to fall behind the rest of Finland. These regions have the highest birthrate in the country, but, faced with unemployment at home, the young people emigrate in search of a better life.

Population Changes. After World War II there was a baby boom in Finland, but more recently the birthrate has been falling, to 16.5 per 1,000 inhabitants in 1967. The death rate has been dramatically reduced during the 20th century and the rate of infant mortality is the fourth smallest in the world. Life expectancy in Finland has reached 65.4 years for men and 72.6 years for women. Finland's population density is 39.4 per square mile, but its distribution has been undergoing considerable change since World War II.

Movement to the urban centers is one of the two basic population trends in Finland. Urbanization has been rapid, and almost half the population now lives in urban communities, as opposed to 26.8% in 1940 and only 12% in 1900. The second basic trend is the increasing concentration of population in the southernmost corner of Finland, where the population density per square mile is sometimes 50 times greater than in the northland.

Large-scale resettlement had to be started immediately after World War II, when Finland had to find new homes for 425,000 refugees, or about 12% of its population, who had fled from the Karelian region lost to the Soviet Union. The largest number of refugees resettled in the southern areas of Finland, which have continued to attract people from other parts of the country.

Finland has not been able to provide adequate employment for its whole population, and this, combined with the high standard of living in neighboring Sweden and the freedom of movement, has encouraged considerable emigration. An estimated 200,000 Finns have moved to Sweden since World War II, and there has also been some emigration to Canada and Australia. Before World War I, Finnish emigration reached a peak of 159,000 in the first decade of the 20th century. During this period the greatest number of Finns resettled in the United States.

Religion. The Evangelical Lutheran Church, to which 92% of the population belongs, is by far the largest church in Finland. The Greek Orthodox Church is second in size, with a membership of 1.4% of the total population. There is freedom of worship in Finland, but in practice the Evangelical Lutheran Church enjoys a privileged position as the former state church. It is now often called the People's Church and still retains close ties to the state, with the president of Finland as its supreme head.

Traditionally, the Lutheran Church has been a conservative element in Finland. The working class and the socialist movement, especially in the past, have viewed it with some resentment and suspicion. Such attitudes, however, have had little effect on church membership. An overwhelming majority of marriages are celebrated in the church, and christenings and confirmations

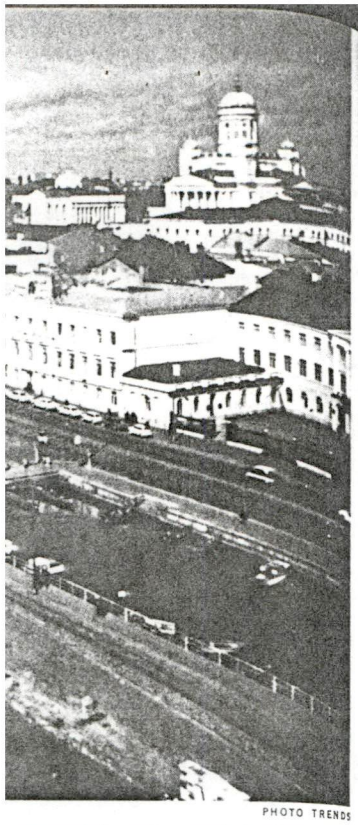


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are universally accepted by the membership. But attendance at church services and an active participation in church affairs are not common. Furthermore, the church's influence as a social force has weakened, particularly in the cities.

2. The Land and Natural Resources

Most of Finland is low lying, with elevations averaging between 200 and 400 feet (60–120 meters). The hills generally increase in size toward the northeast, but the highest elevations are found in the extreme northwest of Finland. Many hollows in the surface soil have filled with water to form a myriad of interconnected shallow lakes, which create the long, complex waterways characteristic of Finland.

Finland is a land of ancient granite bedrock, mostly covered by glacial debris and postglacial marine deposits. Retreating glaciers left morainic ridges, eskers, hills, and mounds of boulder clay. The long, pine-covered morainic ridges of Salpausselkä, in the southern part of Finland, are the most notable example of this debris.

Geographical Regions. Finland can be divided into four basic regions: the coastal lowlands of the south and west; the lake-studded central plateau, or lake district, of the interior; the uplands of the north and east; and the archipelago, or belts of coastal islands, which are broadest in the southwest. These regions differ quite clearly in their dominant physical characteristics and natural conditions, though they do not coincide with historical or political divisions.

Coastal Lowlands. The coastal lowlands include some of the most fertile areas of the country and have a more settled look than the other regions. There are more fields and plains and fewer forests than elsewhere, and the hills and lakes are small. The southwestern corner of Finland is well cultivated, and its climate is the mildest in the country. It was the first area to be permanently settled, and Turku (Swedish, Åbo), the earliest town, was founded there.

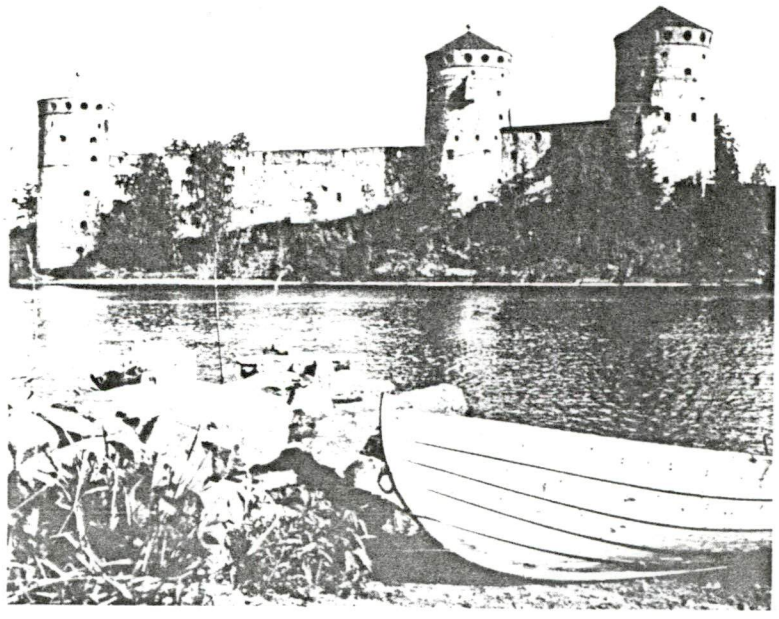
Turku was the capital of Finland during the centuries of Swedish rule, and though devastated by fire several times, it still contains monuments that show its ancient origin. A medieval castle overlooks the harbor, and a 13th century cathedral, on the tree-lined shores of the Aura River, stands at the center of the city. Finland's first university was established in Turku in 1640. The city continues to be a center of learning, with both a private Finnish and a private Swedish university. With its population of over 150,000, Turku competes with Tampere for the title of second-largest city in Finland.

Helsinki (Swedish, Helsingfors), the capital city of Finland, is situated on a peninsula roughly in the middle of the southern coast. With a population of over 530,000, it is Finland's largest city. It is also Finland's main business and cultural center and busiest port, and the region around the capital is the fastest-growing district in the country. Helsinki has never been a heavily industrialized city, though it is now the hub of Finnish manufacturing. The city developed in the 19th century as an administrative center, and its neoclassical buildings give a pleasing unity to the historical heart of the city.

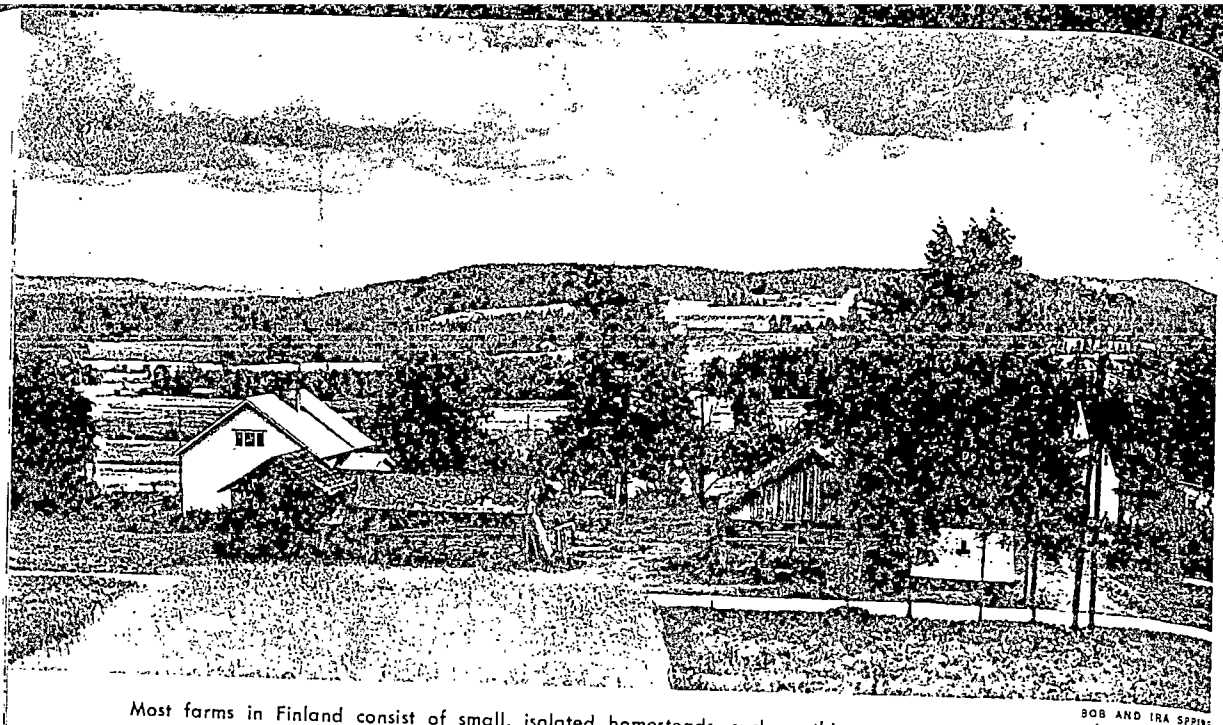
While small hills and valleys are characteristic of the southern coastal lowlands, the coastal plains of Ostrobothnia in western Finland are relatively flat. The two largest towns in Ostrobothnia are Vaasa (Swedish, Vasa) and Oulu, where the northernmost university in the world is situated.

Central Plateau. The lake district of central Finland, the second geographical region, is a labyrinth of waterways. Tens of thousands of lakes, with thousands of little islands, are connected in numerous water systems, some hundreds of miles long. Lakes cover about 9% of the total territory of Finland, but in the lake district they occupy 20% to 50% of the area.

EDITORIAL PHOTOCOLOR ARCHIVES



SAVONLINNA CASTLE, a 15th century stronghold, stands on an island in Lake Saimaa, the largest of Finland's many lakes.



BOB AND IRA SPEIRS

Most farms in Finland consist of small, isolated homesteads, such as this one at Imatra, near the Soviet border.

Lakes and forests dominate the landscape. Most of the arable land in the lake district lies to the southwest, the location of the earliest settlement in the area.

Rivers flowing from the lakes generate much of Finland's electric power. Some of the rapids in the lake district were the sites of early industrial centers, such as Tampere. An industrial town situated between two lakes, Tampere is also a cultural center, with a university and well-known theaters.

Lahti, situated on the southern edge of the lake district, is a rapidly growing modern town. It is a center for winter sports, especially skiing. The city of Lappeenranta, on the shores of Saimaa, Finland's largest lake, is the gateway to the Saimaa Canal connecting the rivers of the eastern part of the lake district with the Gulf of Finland. Savonlinna, a center of lake traffic in the Saimaa area, is the site of a handsome 15th century castle. Kuopio, the largest town in eastern Finland and the seat of the archbishop of the Finnish Orthodox Church, is on the northern edge of the lake region.

Uplands. The third district, the uplands of the north and east, covers about 40% of Finland's territory but does not play a role in the nation's economy commensurate with its size. The climate is harsher, the soils poorer, and the vegetation sparser than in the other areas. To the north the forests and hills become interspersed with large swamps, bogs, and marshlands. Stunted pines still grow here and there but gradually give way to small Arctic birches, willows, and finally the tundra, a treeless plain.

The largest rivers of Finland traverse this area, and meager farming settlements spread northward along the river valleys. The rivers are not easily navigable, but their energy is harnessed by power stations. The mineral potential of the region has not been exactly determined, but the Outokumpu copper mines in eastern Finland are the most important known source of mineral wealth. The forests in the northern and eastern uplands region are not so valuable as those of the lake district, since they replace themselves more slowly and are less accessible.

Archipelago. The islands along the coasts make up the fourth geographical region. They are barren in comparison with the rest of the country. Although some of the larger islands have rich flora, their stern granite base is visible almost everywhere, and the smallest islands are only bald cliffs. Except as summer retreats and bases for a dwindling number of fishermen, the islands have little economic importance. Åland (Finnish, Ahvenanmaa) in the extreme southwest is the largest single island and a shipping center.

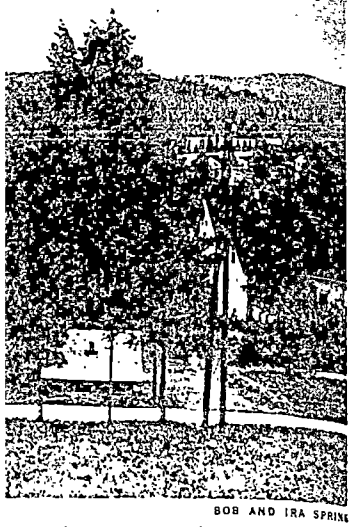
Climate. The climate of Finland is more hospitable than the climates of Alaska and Greenland, which are located at the same latitudes. Finland's average temperature in January is similar to that of the Great Lakes region in North America. However, snow covers the land about five months of the year in the south, and seven months in Lapland, the northernmost district.

The climate is mildest in the southwestern part of the country, which is the most densely populated and most prosperous region.

3. The Economy

Finland's economy since the 1920's has shown substantial progress and growth, although economic development slowed during the depression of the early 1930's. World War II brought a period of absolute decline in production, and Finnish recovery during the period of reconstruction was slower than from the depression. With the armistice that ended the fighting, Finland lost roughly one tenth of its productive capacity and resources and had to pay war reparations to the Soviet Union from its diminished national output. Since 1957 the economy has displayed an accelerated rate of growth. By 1965, Finland's domestic product was four times larger than in 1926.

World War II accelerated significant changes in the structure of the Finnish economy. Before the war Finland still had a predominantly agricultural economy. Agriculture and forestry accounted for about 34% and manufacturing for only 25% of the domestic product, but the relative share of agriculture-forestry was already



BOB AND IRA SPRING

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II accelerated significant changes of the Finnish economy. Before d still had a predominantly agri- ıy. Agriculture and forestry ac- out 34% and manufacturing for the domestic product, but the agriculture-forestry was already declining. During the period of postwar reconstruction, manufacturing and construction developed rapidly. The metal and shipbuilding industries expanded to meet the reparations demands. Since 1957 service sectors have become the most rapidly growing part of the economy. Manufacturing and construction have held on to their relative shares of the domestic product, while agriculture and forestry have continued to decline, amounting to about 15% of the national output in 1968. A still higher degree of industrialization is probably the key to increasing Finland's economic well being.

The Finnish economy is based mainly on private enterprise. The public sector accounts for about 25% of the domestic product and has been expanding. The state has a monopoly on railroad, radio, mail, and telegraph services, and on the sale of alcoholic beverages. It also dominates television.

The Finnish government is involved in many industries, frequently sharing the ownership of companies with private individuals. Often the government's involvement has been necessary because of the scarcity of capital in the country, which caused the government to intervene in the power, communications, and mining industries.

Agriculture. Finland comes close to being self-sufficient in agriculture. It now produces almost all the bread grain it consumes. The country has long been self-sufficient in dairy products, eggs, and meat, and also exports these foods. The climate and soils of Finland and the small family farms with their ample labor supply favor dairy and livestock production, which amounts to about 80% of the value of the agricultural output. Wheat and rye are the main grain crops in southwestern Finland. The growing season there is 210 to 220 days, while in northern Finland it is reduced to 120 to 150 days. Spring and fall frosts may sharply influence crop yields.

Small family farms dominate Finnish agriculture. The average farm has only 22 acres (9 hectares) of arable land, and 79% of the farms have fewer than 24 acres (10 hectares) and 53% fewer than 12 acres (5 hectares) of arable land. The average size of farms has diminished since the prewar years because of the need to distribute land to Karelian refugee farmers, who fled from the Soviet-occupied areas in the east.

Mechanization of farming was rapid, especially during the 1950's, and the number of tractors well surpasses the number of horses. Mechanization and increased use of fertilizers have contributed to a rise in productivity, with the largest increases in yields per acre occurring in grain and fodder production.

Though agricultural productivity has been improving, output per worker has increasingly lagged behind that in other segments of the economy. This has necessitated heavy subsidization of agriculture to prevent the standard of living of the farming population from falling drastically behind. Future improvements in the farmers' standard of living will probably depend on increased efficiency, which would necessitate increasing the size of the average farm while reducing the total number of farms.

In the 1950's new farms were set up and land reclaimed at a considerable rate, and by 1958 enough new arable land had been cleared to compensate for the loss of farm acreage to the Soviet Union. Much of the new land was cleared in northern Finland, where farming has not proven successful, and problems of overproduction have led to the practice of soil banking (leaving land uncultivated) and reforestation of recently cleared land.

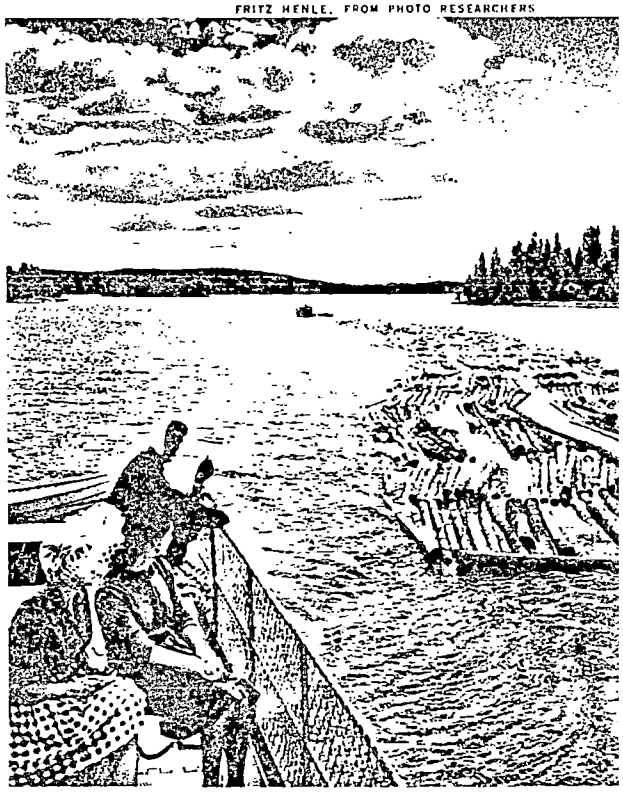
Forestry. Forests are Finland's most important source of natural wealth and are still the base for its national economy. Pine constitutes 46% of the growing stock, spruce 36%, and birch 16%. Over 60% of the forests are privately owned, mainly by farmers who receive a large share of their cash income from selling timber and from working as loggers in the winter. The state owns almost one third of the forest land, but its share of the total annual growth amounts to only 16%, largely because the state-owned forests are mainly in northern Finland, where the growing season is short. Forest holdings of corporations are small, and their acquisitions are limited by law. Generally speaking, the share of privately owned forests has increased during the decades of independence and especially since World War II, when many new farms for refugees were established on public land.

Forestry has counterbalanced seasonal fluctuations of employment and income in agriculture, but increasing mechanization and rationalization have been reducing the demand for human labor in forestry. This has brought hardship to the small lumber farmers who have been accustomed to earning extra income by working in the forests. The number of people exclusively dependent on forestry for a living is very small.

Industry. Finland's manufacturing industries have produced mainly for domestic markets, but

LUMBER, Finland's most important natural resource, is being pulled in large floats to a mill near Tampere.

FRITZ HENLE, FROM PHOTO RESEARCHERS



are increasingly exporting their products. By 1967 manufacturing amounted to 30% of the gross national product, and construction to 10%. Woodworking, paper, and pulp industries traditionally have dominated the Finnish industrial economy, but their share of the industrial working force has been decreasing. However, they still have the largest share of the country's exports and accounted for 27.3% of the gross value of industrial output in 1967. Within the forest-based industries, the manufacturing of paper and pulp has since the 1920's exceeded the other sectors in value. The plants and mills of the forest industry are located along water routes, since much of their raw materials is floated to them.

Metal and engineering industries are the most rapidly expanding industries in Finland. They accounted for 21.9% of the gross value of industrial production in 1967 and have become the largest source of industrial employment. The demands of wartime and of reparations to the Soviet Union encouraged the growth of the metal industry, though its sources of raw materials are rather poor. Mining plays an insignificant part in the national economy. Its main product is copper, which is also exported.

Wood and hydroelectric power are the main sources of energy. Finland lost one third of its electric power capacity to the Soviet Union, but the harnessing of rivers and rapids in northern Finland has compensated for the losses. There are no deposits of coal, oil, or natural gas in Finland, and these fuels must be imported in increasing amounts to meet the demands for power. An atomic energy plant is to be built as an additional source of power.

Labor. In 1967 two sectors of the Finnish economy, manufacturing and agriculture-forestry, each employed 25% of the labor force, with farm owners making up about 90% of the number employed in agriculture. Trade, banking, insurance, and other services employed 28% of the labor force, construction 10%, communications 7%, and public administration and defense 5%.

Finnish labor unions grew rapidly in membership and strength after World War II, but political disagreements between the Social Democrats, Left Socialists, and Communists have weakened their unity. In 1960 the SAK (Central League of Finnish Trade Unions) split into two rival organizations.

Collective bargaining between unions and employers' organizations came into general practice during World War II and now cover almost all labor. Disputes and interpretations of agreements have been handled by official mediators since 1925 or by a labor court, set up in 1947. The frequency of strikes and the number of people involved in them have been somewhat higher in Finland than in the Scandinavian countries. The purchasing power of both blue- and white-collar Finnish workers has increased from the prewar period.

Transportation. In net value of operations, road transport is the leading form of transportation in Finland, followed in order by maritime shipping, railroads, and air services. The road network expanded rapidly and was much improved during the 1960's. Major roads now have a hard-top covering, which has reduced the adverse effects of the climate on them.

About 90% of the country's foreign trade and passenger traffic abroad goes by sea. Icebreakers keep the harbors of the southwestern coast open in winter. The inland waterways are of little importance in transportation.

The gauge of the Finnish railroads is the same as that of the Soviet Union but different from that of the rest of Europe, and this has reduced the importance of railroads for foreign trade. Railroad transport has been declining, but there are plans to develop an electric system in Finland.

Finland has been served by international airlines since 1924, but domestic routes were not started until the late 1930's. Both services have expanded rapidly since the 1950's.

Trade. Both wholesale and retail trade are divided between private enterprises and cooperatives, although private enterprises have the largest share. Cooperatives handle about one-third of the retail trade.

Like other small European countries, Finland is very dependent on foreign trade. Paper, pulp, and wood products account for about two thirds of Finnish exports. Machinery, ships, and other highly processed goods have become increasingly important export items. In 1967 industrial goods accounted for 94% of the total value of exports. Finland's international trade position has been enhanced by an influx of foreign tourists. As of 1968 the country's income from foreign visitors exceeded the expenditures of Finnish tourists abroad. Raw materials and fuels are the most important items imported by the Finns.

Most of Finland's foreign trade is conducted with other European countries. In 1961, Finland became an associate member of EFTA (European Free Trade Association), which is the regional economic bloc most important to its trade. Finnish trade with EEC (European Economic Community) countries surpasses its exchanges with COMECON (Eastern bloc) countries. Britain traditionally absorbs the largest single share of Finland's trade, and West Germany, the Soviet Union, and Sweden are its other principal markets. Trade between Finland and the Soviet Union has greatly increased since the prewar period. Today Russia is a major market for Finland's metal products, while the Western countries absorb the traditional paper and wood products.

4. Government

A republican constitution was adopted in Finland in 1919. The parliament and the president exercise legislative power, while executive power is vested in the president and in the council of state (cabinet), which must enjoy the confidence of the parliament. The president's term of office is six years, and he is elected indirectly through an electoral college of 300 members chosen by popular vote. The president has extensive powers. He can temporarily veto bills passed by parliament and may also dissolve it and call for new elections. The president makes all appointments to higher offices in the state, including the cabinet. He conducts foreign policy and is the commander in chief of the armed forces.

The president's powers clearly exceed those of the prime minister, but the prime minister has an important role in the formation of a cabinet and its general program, and he acts as its spokesman. His defeat or resignation results in the dissolution of the cabinet.

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the cabinet.

The parliament, whose term is normally four years, consists of a single chamber of 200 members. Finland's system of proportional representation favors a multiparty system. Since independence no party has received an absolute majority in the parliament; therefore the cabinets have been either coalition or minority governments.

There are eight political parties in the parliament. Most of them tend to represent the economic interests of particular groups. The Social Democratic party has generally been the largest. It is predominantly a left-center party and attracts mainly the votes of workers and the lower-middle class. In the past it has been averse to cooperation with the Communists, but this policy changed after the elections of 1966. The Center party (before October 1965, the Agrarian party) traditionally has been the key force in Finnish politics, due to its position at the center of the political spectrum and to its size. Since independence, it has been the largest non-socialist party. It represents the farmers' interests, but as the size of the agricultural population has declined, it has tried to continue as a major political force by also appealing to other groups. The Communist-dominated People's Democratic League, which grew up after World War II, is now the third-largest party in Finland. Its support comes from workers and small farmers who are seasonal laborers.

The National Coalition party is closely associated with business and receives support from middle- and upper-middle-class professional groups. The Liberal party also appeals to these economic and social groups. The Swedish People's party is a middle-of-the-road party that does not appeal to any particular social or economic group alone, but represents the cultural interests of Finland's Swedish-speaking minority. The Social Democratic Union of Workers and Small Farmers is a small splinter group of the Social Democratic party, while the Small Farmers' party is a splinter group of the Center party.

The cabinet members, the ministries and the central boards that are subordinate to them are responsible for general administration. For purposes of local administration, Finland is divided into provinces and communes. The state administers the provinces, but the communes govern themselves.

The Finnish constitution guarantees the independence of the judiciary from the other branches of the government. By a unanimous decision a jury can overrule the judge. The supreme court and the supreme administrative court are the highest judicial authorities.

The largest amount of government funds is spent on welfare and health, followed in order by education and cultural activities, public debt, transportation and communications, and agriculture. National expenditures for social welfare in Finland have continually increased. Through social welfare legislation, an elaborate structure that attempts to provide security for families and individuals of all ages has been set up. Provision is made for old age and disability insurance, and health, accident, and unemployment insurance. Various family allowance acts give child and maternity benefits. The government maintains most hospitals, and patients are expected to pay only 13% of their expenses.

The share of Finland's national income spent for defense is one of the lowest in Europe. The Paris Peace Treaty of 1947 limits the strength of the Finnish armed forces to 41,900 men. Military service is compulsory for all able men. The period of initial service varies from 270 to 330 days, depending on the branch of the armed forces and the level of training.

Radio broadcasting is a state monopoly, but Finland has both a state-owned and a commercial television station. Radio and television broadcasts are in both Finnish and Swedish.

Most of the Finnish newspapers are associated with, or support, a political party. *Helsingin Sanomat*, an independent newspaper, has the largest circulation. Other leading papers are the conservative *Uusi Suomi* and the Swedish-language *Hufvudstadsbladet*.

5. Education

The Finns have a long tradition of literacy. As early as the 17th century they had to prove their reading ability before they were allowed to marry. The basic outline of the present educational system was developed in the 1860's, though primary school attendance did not become compulsory until 1921. Primary education is publicly financed, and every child must attend school for at least eight years. There are no fees; pupils receive textbooks, one hot meal a day, and medical and dental care free of charge, as well as clothing if needed.

Following four years in primary school, the majority of students enter secondary school after taking competitive entrance examinations. The number going on to secondary school is steadily increasing, whereas previously only a small percentage of children had this opportunity. Secondary education is provided by private, communal, or state schools. All students receive state subsidies, which cover most of their expenses, but they also have small tuition fees, which are highest in the private schools.

Finnish secondary schools are divided into two sections—the 5-grade middle school and the 3-grade upper-secondary school. Emphasis is placed on the academic subjects, particularly in the three upper grades. Although the students have a choice of concentrating either on mathematical subjects and natural sciences or on languages and humanities, the basic curriculum is inflexible and the same for all. During their last spring in secondary school, students take nationally administered graduation examinations. Those who pass may apply for admission to universities or other similar institutions.

The Finnish school system is undergoing radical changes. A new type of school is being created that combines the curriculum and functions of the present primary and middle schools. The aim of the new system is to provide a similar basic education for all Finnish children irrespective of economic situation or geographical location.

Finland has seven universities and many other specialized institutions of higher education. The oldest and largest of them is the University of Helsinki, which has over 20,000 students. It was founded in Turku in 1640 and transferred to Helsinki in 1828. Renamed the Imperial University of Alexander, it received its present name after independence. It is a state institution, and instruction is given in both Finnish and Swedish. Tuition fees are small or nonexistent in Finnish institutions of higher education, even the private ones.

Children who do not transfer from primary schools to secondary schools, or who do not continue in the upper-secondary schools, may enter various kinds of vocational schools and colleges. Finland also provides public adult education in many forms, including people's and workers' colleges, institutes, and study circles, which offer instruction in a wide variety of subjects. Together their enrollment exceeds by far the combined enrollment of the academic institutions of higher learning.

6. History

The first known homeland of the Finns was probably in the area between the middle Volga region and the Ural mountains. The ancestors of the Finns migrated from there to the northwest, reaching the eastern coast of the Baltic about 3,500 years ago. Eventually, they settled in southwestern Finland and gradually spread eastward, reaching Karelia about 800 A. D. Karelia also received settlers from the southeast. The new arrivals gradually pushed the small population of Lapps then living in the area northward, to their current home in Lapland.

The early Finns were divided into three loosely organized tribes. In the southwest, or Finland proper, lived the Suomalaiset, who gave their name to Finland (Finnish, Suomi). Inland, around the southwestern part of the lake district, was Häme, the heartland of the Hämäläiset (Tavastians). Farthest east lived the Karjalaiset (Karelians). Large areas of wilderness separated these three regions, and only a few scattered Lapp hunters occupied the vast forests to the north. The new Finnish settlers introduced agriculture as they spread inland, but hunting, trapping, and fishing were very important in their economy. Furs were perhaps their major export and exchange item.

The Finnish tribal groups lacked any national political organization and were frequently hostile toward one another. They were slower to organize themselves in political groups than their western and eastern neighbors, the Swedes and the Russians, who by the 11th, 12th, and 13th centuries were striving to extend their influence over Finland. Territorial aspirations of these neighbors were mixed with religious motives. The Swedes tried to convert the Finns to the Roman Catholic Church, while the Russians attempted to bring them into the Eastern Orthodox Church. This rivalry between east and west foreshadowed Finland's destiny for many centuries.

Swedish Domination. Most Finns eventually became Roman Catholics and fell under Swedish domination. Individual Roman Catholic missionaries worked in southwestern Finland as early as the 11th century. About 1155, King Eric of Sweden made the first crusade to Finland to strengthen the hold of the new faith. The second Swedish crusade (1238 or 1249) consolidated the new order in Häme. By the end of the 13th century the Swedes had extended their power into Karelia by building the castle of Vyborg (Finnish, Viipuri) in 1293. However, in Karelia the Swedes were entering territory that the Russian state of Novgorod considered its own. This resulted in intermittent fighting until a peace treaty was concluded in 1323, dividing Karelia between Sweden and Russia and formally establishing the eastern boundary of Finland for the first time.

It had taken little over a century and a half for Finland to become part of the kingdom of Sweden. This development brought a wave of Swedish settlers to Finland, where they concentrated along the southern and western coasts. For the first time the tribal groups of Finland, with the exception of many Karelians, were united under the same administrative authority. In 1362 the Finns gained the right to participate in the election of Swedish kings, and this concession signified that Finland had become the equal of the other provinces of Sweden and was considered an integral part of the realm.

Until the end of the Middle Ages, Finland was in a sense under dual authority. There was first the Swedish crown and its highest representatives, the lords of the castles. Then there were also the bishops of Turku (Swedish, Åbo), who headed the Finnish Church and were frequently the most influential men in the country. Most of the medieval Finnish bishops were cultured men who had studied abroad, usually at the Sorbonne in Paris, and two of them even served as rectors there. One bishop of Turku, Mikael Agricola (1510–1557), made Finnish a literary language and encouraged the Lutheran reformation in Finland.

The Swedish King Gustav I Vasa (reigned 1523–1560), a contemporary of Agricola, ended Danish supremacy over the Swedish realm, including Finland. Gustav also broke off relations with the Roman Catholic Church. He encouraged the Finnish settlement of Finland toward the north and east, which led to further conflicts and lengthy warfare with the Russians. The latter half of the 16th century was a restless period both for Sweden and Finland, when the sons and grandson of Gustav Vasa struggled for the throne. Finland's internal troubles culminated in a widespread rebellion in 1596–1597, known as the War of Clubs, against the rule of Klaus Fleming, a Finnish nobleman who had been the country's actual master.

During the 17th century Sweden became a great power, development that had significant consequences for Finland. The early part of the century was a period of renewed warfare with Russia, until the Swedish King Gustavus Adolphus (reigned 1611–1632) concluded the Peace of Stolbova in 1617. This treaty moved the eastern boundary of the Swedish realm farther east to include much of the shore of Lake Ladoga and the province of Ingria, where St. Petersburg was to be built a century later. After his successful campaigns in the east, Gustavus Adolphus became involved in the Thirty Years' War and Continental politics. Participation in the war was costly in men and treasure, and Finland suffered its share of the losses.

Other characteristics of the age were increased administrative centralization, the rapidly growing wealth and power of the nobility, and religious zeal and bigotry. Centralization of the administration tied Finland more closely to the rest of the Swedish kingdom and weakened its distinct identity. The nobles benefited from the prolonged warfare, gaining land grants and tax concessions from the Swedish crown as rewards for their services. This development tended to impoverish and weaken the position of the peasants. However, during the latter part of the 17th century there was a reclaiming of lands granted earlier to the nobles, which prevented the development of feudalism in Finland.

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Religious bigotry brought about efforts to convert by force the Greek Orthodox Karelians in the territories that had been won from Russia. This led to large-scale emigration of the Orthodox population into Russian territory, and Lutheran settlers in Karelia replaced them. Some aspects of Lutheran sternness were valuable, however, since the church saw to it that the peasants learned to read.

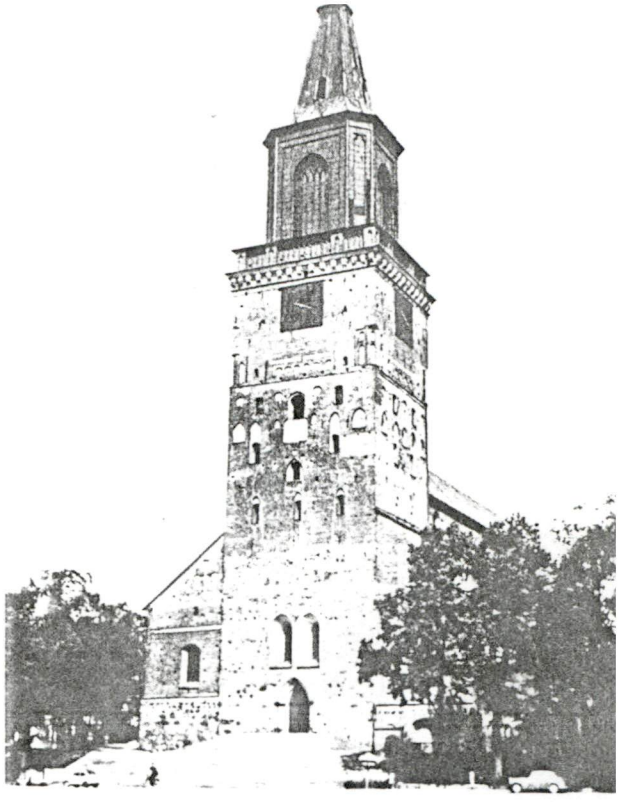
There was a severe famine in Finland in 1695–1697, during the reign of Charles XI of Sweden. The rule of Charles XII (reigned 1697–1718) began with the Great Northern War of 1700 to 1721. This war, in which the Swedes fought all of their neighbors, cost Sweden its eastern possessions, including Ingria and southeastern Finland, as well as its position as a great power. During the war Russia occupied Finland for eight years (1713–1721) and devastated the country thoroughly, a period known to the Finns as the Great Wrath. In the next war with Russia (1741–1743) the Russian Empress Elizabeth tried to turn the Finns against Sweden by suggesting the creation of an autonomous Finland under Russian protection. However, nothing came of the plan, and Russia annexed another slice of Finland.

The experiences of these two wars and the growing power of Russia caused the Finns to doubt Sweden's ability to protect them from the hardships of war in the future. This pessimism caused some Finnish officers, during a new war with Russia (1788–1790), to conspire to create an autonomous Finnish state that was to be under Russian protection. The conspiracy failed, but it was an indication of the growing feeling among Finns that Finland had an identity apart from Sweden. The new mood was exemplified in the studies and activities of Henrik Gabriel Porthan (1739–1804), a professor at the University of Turku, who encouraged his students to study the past and the potential of their homeland.

Russian Domination and the Rise of Finnish Nationalism. In 1808 a war broke out between Sweden and Russia. While the war was still in progress, Alexander I of Russia (reigned 1801–1825) assembled a Finnish Diet in the town of Borgå (Finnish, Porvoo) in 1809 and promised to respect the existing constitution, laws, and institutions of Finland. When a defeated Sweden ceded Finland to Russia in 1809, the Czar allowed Finland extensive autonomy instead of integrating it into the rest of the Russian Empire. Furthermore, Alexander agreed in 1812 to return to Finland the Karelian territories that had been annexed to Russia during the 18th century wars.

Russian rule changed little in Finland except the person of the ruler, with Alexander becoming Grand Duke of Finland in place of the king of Sweden. The Grand Duchy of Finland remained an entity apart from Russia. A governor-general acted as the czar's personal representative and as the highest administrative official in Finland. The first to hold this office was Göran Magnus Sprengtporten (1740–1819), a former Finnish officer who had plotted for Finnish independence decades earlier and had left Swedish for Russian service. After him the governors-general were Russians, but the rest of the administration remained in Finnish hands.

The period of Russian suzerainty started under favorable auspices for Finland. The country had grown in size, and had developed from being an integral part of the Swedish kingdom into an autonomous state. These conditions, combined with the new ideas of romanticism and nationalism sweeping Europe, encouraged the development of a national identity in Finland. The first clear signs of a distinct Finnish nationalism appeared about 1820 at the University of Turku, when Adolf Ivan Arwidsson, a young teacher, suggested improvements in the position of the Finnish language. Over the centuries Swedish had become the sole language in Finland's administration, law, and schools, as well as in most of its cultural life. Of the educated people only the clergy were still proficient in Finnish.



EDITORIAL PHOTOCOLOR ARCHIVES

Turku's cathedral was the seat of Finland's first bishop.

There were no immediate changes in the position of Finnish. However, after the publication of *Kalevala* (1835), an impressive collection of folklore gathered by Elias Lönnrot, interest in the language grew. Indirectly, this trend was encouraged by the work of Johan Ludvig Runeberg, who wrote in Swedish but whose patriotic poetry idealized the common Finnish worker and soldier. Johan Vilhelm Snellman, a publicist, philosopher, and statesman, demanded that the educated class adopt Finnish as it language and that Finnish be used in administration and schools.

When the Finnish Diet started meeting regularly again in 1863, after being moribund for over 50 years, political parties gradually developed along language lines. Their feuding and rivalry were characteristics of the late 19th century. Only gradually did Finnish gain ground in schools, cultural life, and government, finally reaching official equality with Swedish in 1902.

Reaction Against Russia. By the turn of the century both language groups were confronted by the new threat of Russian nationalism, which

aimed at the integration of Finland into the empire. Russian decrees revealing this goal turned the Finns' loyalty to the czar into hatred.

In trying to decide on proper tactics to meet Russian pressures, the Finns divided into three basic groups. The Compliers argued that Finland should go along with Russian demands to some extent in order to maintain a certain influence over the course of events, gain time, and reduce the number of appointments of Russian officials. The Constitutionalists wanted to resist Russian violations of the Finnish constitution by refusing to obey such decress. The kind of passive resistance advocated by the Constitutionalists required complete national unity to be effective, and the Compliers' views made this impossible. But passive resistance had some success, and young Finnish men failed to appear for the Russian military draft. However, passive resistance in the long run did not work, and this caused the growth of the Activist movement, which made preparations for armed resistance and rebellion.

Political Reform. The Russo-Japanese War and the abortive Russian revolutionary movement of 1905 brought a temporary end to russification policies in Finland and opened the way for an important political reform. In 1906 the traditional Finnish Diet of four estates voted to abolish itself in favor of a new unicameral parliament to be elected by universal and equal suffrage. In the elections of 1907 the Socialists captured 40% of the seats, becoming the largest single party. Their success reflected the magnitude of Finland's unsolved social problems and the existence of a large rural proletariat.

However, the new parliament could do little to solve these problems, since the czarist regime again took control of Finland. Russification was renewed with fresh vigor in 1908 and by the start of World War I the idea of an armed revolt was gaining ground, especially in university circles. Young Finns had had no military training after disbandment of the Finnish Army (1901–1905), and failure of the Russian military draft. To overcome this handicap, students and other young men started to slip into Germany for military training.

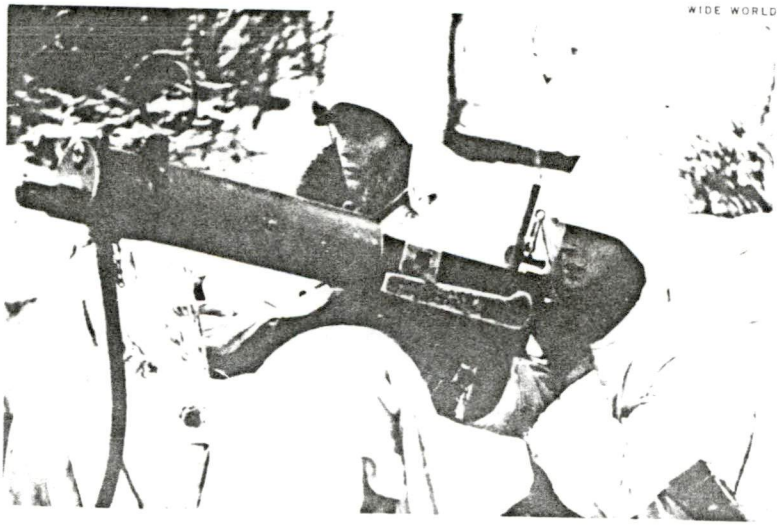
Before any Finnish revolt materialized, the March Revolution of 1917 occurred in Russia, and a new period in Finnish-Russian relations began. The Russian provisional government restored Finnish autonomy, but this no longer satisfied the Finns. In July 1917 the Socialist-dominated Finnish parliament assumed supreme power in the country, except in foreign and military affairs, which were left to Russia. This situation was unacceptable to the Russian government and it dissolved the parliament. New elections in the fall of 1917 put the embittered Socialists in the minority.

Besides these political events, Finland was also troubled by rapidly increasing unemployment, food shortages, and unsolved social problems. The Bolshevik Revolution in Petrograd in November 1917 was followed by a general strike in Finland, and radicalism and a revolutionary mood quickly gained ground among the Finnish Socialists. The internal situation was becoming chaotic, and the presence of undisciplined Russian military forces added to the confusion.

Independence and Civil War. The parliament proclaimed Finland independent from Russia on Dec. 6, 1917, but the declaration did not at once solve matters. In spite of the Bolsheviks' recognition of Finnish independence, Russian troops remained in the country. Furthermore, the gulf separating non-Socialist Finns from the radical Socialists, who wanted a social revolution, continued to widen.

Both groups wanted complete independence from Russia but, suspicious of one another, had been setting up separate armed units, which became known as the Red and White Guards. In January 1918 the government of Pehr Evind Svinhufvud, who was a former leader of the passive resistance movement, ordered the White Guards commanded by Carl Gustaf Mannerheim to expel the Russian troops from the country and restore public order. The Whites started operations against the Russian garrisons in western Finland. However, the Finnish Reds seized power in the south and the war of national liberation turned into a civil war as well.

The Germans and the Jägers, those young Finns who had gone to Germany for military training, aided the Whites, while the Russians helped the Reds. The Whites were finally victorious in the war, which ended in May 1918. After the war, Svinhufvud and Mannerheim acted as regents of Finland until a republic was



WIDE WORLD

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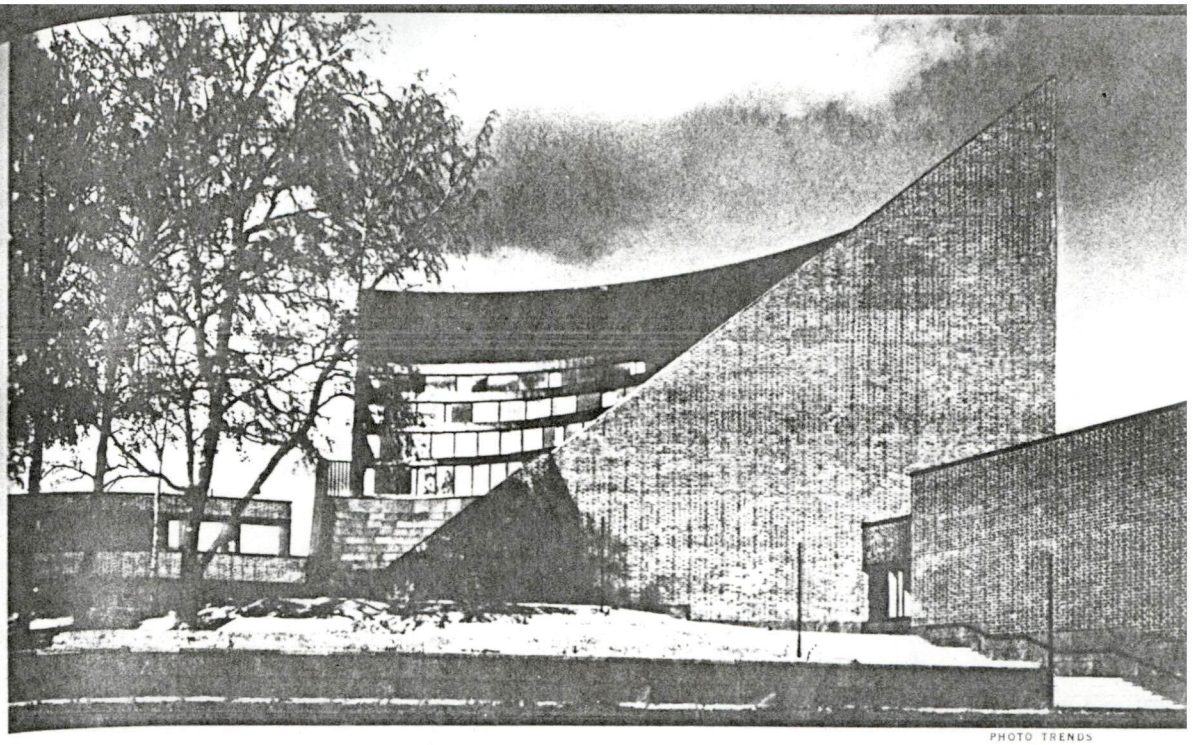


PHOTO TRENDS

Architect Alvar Aalto's skillful use of materials is evidenced in this Institute of Technology building at Otaniemi.

proclaimed in 1919. Kaarlo Juho Stahlberg, who stood for reconciliation between the Reds and the Whites, was elected the first president.

Interwar Period. Independent Finland faced vexing problems in both its foreign and internal affairs. Relations with Sweden and Russia were tense. Sweden was claiming possession of the Åland Islands, off the Finnish coast, and had the support of the local Swedish-speaking population. After prolonged disputes the League of Nations awarded the islands to Finland in 1921.

Problems with Russia centered around Eastern Karelia, a border area largely inhabited by Finnish-related peoples but which was now included in Russia. Many Finns wanted either to annex Eastern Karelia to Finland or help the area gain independence. Expeditions to end uprisings in Eastern Karelia against Bolshevik rule failed to achieve either aim. In 1919, however, a Finnish volunteer force helped the Estonians gain independence from Russia. Peace with Russia was concluded in 1920, but relations remained strained throughout the interwar period, in spite of the signing of a nonaggression treaty in 1932.

In domestic affairs the rise of an anti-Communist movement and a running feud between Finnish-language enthusiasts and Swedish-speaking Finns disturbed the tranquillity of the republic. For a short interval in the early 1930's hatred created by the civil war, Communist activity, and economic depression contributed to the rise of the Lapua movement. This anti-Communist, but eventually also antiparliamentary, Fascist-style movement developed into a powerful pressure group. The Lapua movement caused the outlawing of Communist organizations; but it lost its popularity after an attempted coup d'etat in 1932. Its successor IKL (People's Patriotic Movement), which organized itself as a political party, never gained a mass following.

The constitution had in principle placed the Swedish language on a level equal with Finnish, a provision that many Finnish-speaking people disliked. Their resentment was aroused by the view held by some Swedish speakers that the Swedish-speaking population should be allowed a great degree of self-government. The Finnish-speakers were also displeased by lingering frustrations and traces of past Swedish dominance, particularly in cultural and business life. The language strife continued through the 1930's but quieted when, as international tensions increased, Finland sought closer relations with traditionally neutral Scandinavia.

Although the politics of the country had at times been stormy, Finland's overall economic advance had been impressive during the two decades of independence. An important land reform had taken place, which leveled class distinctions by allowing tenant farmers to become landowners. Thus, when the Soviet Union demanded islands and a naval base in the Gulf of Finland and part of the Karelian isthmus from Finland in the fall of 1939, it confronted a unified nation. The Social Democrats and Agrarians dominated the coalition government, which refused to comply with Soviet demands and invited other parties to join it.

The Winter War and World War II. On Nov. 30, 1939 Russian troops invaded Finland, thus beginning the Winter War. Shortly afterward Soviet authorities set up a Finnish puppet government composed of men who had fled from Finland to Russia after the civil war in 1918. The Russians and the puppet government signed a treaty that joined most of eastern Karelia to Finland. However, the Russians encountered unexpectedly strong Finnish resistance, based on the Finn's wide use of highly mobile ski troops. This, and the possibility that Britain and France would aid the Finns, persuaded the Soviets to abandon the puppet regime and come to terms with Finland. In the peace concluded on March 12, 1940, Finland lost southern Karelia and Viipuri (Vyborg), the second-largest Karelian city. The area ceded to the Soviet Union included 12% of Finland's total population. In addition, the Finns had to leave Hangö (Finnish, Hanko) peninsula to the Russians as a naval base.



THE OLYMPIC STADIUM in Helsinki, with its statue of Paavo Nurmi, the Finnish long-distance runner, reflects the national interest in sports.

SVEN SAMELIUS

Following the Winter War, Finland turned toward Germany for protection in the face of Russia's continued pressure, its refusal to accept a Swedish-Finnish alliance, and its incorporation of the three small Baltic republics (Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania) into the Soviet Union in 1940. When Germany invaded Russia on June 22, 1941, Finland declared itself neutral in the conflict. However, there were German troops in Lapland, and the Russians bombed Finland. The Finnish troops, commanded by Mannerheim, crossed the Russian frontier, recaptured lost territories, and occupied Eastern Karelia. After that, the front remained stable until 1944.

In the summer of 1944 the Russians tried to break Finnish resistance completely, but their advance was stopped near Vyborg in some of the bloodiest battles on the Finnish front. An armistice with Russia was signed on Sept. 19, 1944. It was followed by fighting against the Germans, who refused to leave northern Finland peacefully and systematically levelled the area in their retreat. Throughout the war the democratic form of government was maintained in Finland, and no measures were taken against the Jews, who were treated like all other Finnish citizens.

The wars were costly. Nearly 100,000 Finns died, and 50,000 were permanently disabled. These were almost exclusively battlefield casualties. Although there were foreign troops in some parts of Finland, the country escaped foreign occupation. Again, Finland lost southern Karelia and other territories along its eastern border, including its corridor to the Arctic Ocean. It also had to lease a military base to the Soviets at Porkkala, less than 20 miles (32 km) from Helsinki. The inhabitants of the lost territories, over 420,000, were allowed to move to Finland, where they received compensation for their property losses and were resettled. Finland also had to pay war reparations amounting to about $445 million.

The Postwar Era. The postwar era started with a popular-front style government of the leftist parties—the Social Democrats, the Agrarians (since 1965, the Center Party), and the Communists. Communist party efforts to dominate the government failed, in spite of their temporary control of the premiership and of the ministry of the interior. After 1948 the Communists were kept out of the government until 1966.

Mannerheim, who as president since 1944 had led the country out of war, resigned in 1946 and was succeeded by Juho Kusti Paasikivi. Paasikivi was the creator of Finland's postwar foreign policy of neutrality. In order to gain security, Finland cultivated close relations with both the Soviet Union and the Scandinavian countries. A treaty signed with the Soviet Union in 1948 stated that if Finland were attacked or threatened by a third party, the two countries would negotiate about appropriate cooperation. In 1955 the Soviet Union returned its military base in Porkkala in exchange for a 20-year renewal of the 1948 treaty.

Finnish internal politics during most of the 1950's were dominated by the Agrarians and the Social Democrats. In 1956 the Agrarian leader Urho K. Kekkonen, by a narrow electoral vote of 151 to 149, succeeded the retiring Paasikivi as president of the republic.

While attempting to pursue a policy of neutrality in international relations, Finland was subjected to recurring Soviet pressure. In 1958 the Soviet Union succeeded in causing the dissolution of a Social Democrat-led coalition government by cutting off trade and recalling its ambassador. This pressure induced the Agrarian members of the coalition to withdraw their support from the government, and as a result it fell. For the next eight years the Agrarians kept their distance from the Social Democrats, who were excluded from the government on the grounds that they supposedly were unacceptable to the Soviet Union.

The next notable example of Soviet interference came during the presidential election campaign in 1961. The Soviet government claimed that it feared a possible German attack and proposed military consultations with Fin-



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notable example of Soviet inter- during the presidential election 1961. The Soviet government feared a possible German attack military consultations with Finland on the basis of their Treaty of Friendship, Cooperation, and Mutual Assistance. Apparently the Soviet leadership was disturbed also by the possibility of a change in leadership in Finland. Satisfied with the way Kekkonen implemented his policy of neutrality coupled with friendship with the Soviet Union, the Soviets openly backed his candidacy. The Social Democrat candidate, Olavi Honka, withdrew from the race, Kekkonen was reelected in 1962, and the call for a military consultation was forgotten.

The Social Democrats won a clear victory in the parliamentary elections of 1966, and a coalition government with members from several parties, including the Communists, was formed under their leadership. In the years that followed, Finland generally was ruled by coalitions of the left and center.

On Oct. 27, 1981, Kekkonen resigned the presidency, which he had held for over 25 years, because of poor health. He was succeeded by the Social Democrat premier, Mauno Koivisto, who won a clear majority of the electoral vote on Jan. 26, 1982. Koivisto, whose candidacy had been neither opposed nor endorsed by the Soviets, was Finland's first president to be drawn from the left of the political spectrum.

7. Culture

The existence of two major languages in Finland is reflected in its cultural traditions. Though Finnish had been a literary language since the 16th century, it was little cultivated in written form during the era of Swedish domination. Apart from folk traditions, Finland's cultural development was intimately connected with the general development of Swedish culture. There were intellectuals particularly interested in Finnish culture, and some, like Henrik Gabriel Porthan, made notable studies of the language, geography, history, and economy of Finland.

Finnish cultural life in the 19th century acquired a more distinct character. Folklore collections and publications revealed the wealth of ancient Finnish traditions, enriched the literary language, and inspired the development of the arts. One of the most important 19th century Finnish writers was the poet Johan Ludvig Runeberg, who wrote in Swedish. He won wide renown in Scandinavia and gained the stature of a national poet through his patriotic works on the 1808–1809 war with Russia. Another prominent 19th century writer was Aleksis Kivi, author of popular plays and of the classic epic *Seven Brothers*. Minna Canth, who protested against social injustices and championed women's rights, was another important playwright. In one of his major works, *Juha*, Juhani Aho, a remarkable stylist, depicted the tensions between the western and eastern elements in the Finnish people.

Eino Leino, who is considered the greatest poet to write in Finnish in the 20th century, was strongly influenced by native folklore. But it remained for the Swedish-speaking poets Edith Södergran and Elmer Diktonius to introduce modernism to Finland. The Nobel Prize-winner Frans Eemil Sillanpää, a 20th century Finnish author, became internationally known for his lyrical descriptions of the Finnish countryside and its people. Toivo Pekkanen wrote about working-class life and the effects of industrialization. Mika Waltari's historical novels became international best sellers, and Väinö Linna produced powerful novels about war and rural life in Finland.

The Finns are great theater enthusiasts. There are more than 35 publicly supported professional theaters in Finland, four of which perform in Swedish. Towns with populations of about 20,000 have professional theaters, and there are many amateur groups.

In music the figure of Jean Sibelius (1865–1957) towers above all others. Sibelius wrote symphonic poems based on the Finnish epic *Kelevala*. Many of his other works, such as the famous *Finlandia*, were inspired by the landscape of his country.

Eliel Saarinen and Alvar Aalto are probably Finland's leading 20th century architects. One of Saarinen's most famous works is the Helsinki railroad station. He went to the United States in 1923, where his ideas greatly influenced the development of designs for skyscrapers. The versatile Alvar Aalto, who introduced functionalism to Finland, is well known for his building and furniture designs and for his skillful use of natural materials.

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8. Language

With Karelian, Estonian, and several other languages, Finnish (or Suomi) forms the westernmost, or "Baltic," subbranch of the Finno-Ugrian branch of the Uralic family of languages (see FINNO-UGRIAN LANGUAGES). It is spoken by about 4.6 million people in Finland proper and in adjacent counties, as well as overseas. Finland is divided into two main dialect areas, East and West, but the literary language used in Finnish schools is known throughout the country. This dates from the 16th century and especially from the writings of Mikael Agricola, the Finnish Lutheran bishop and reformer.

In the course of their history, speakers of Finnish have come in contact with groups of people speaking older forms of Baltic (Latvian-Lithuanian), of Germanic, and of Slavic. Finnish has borrowed vocabulary items from all of these—for example, *hammas* ("tooth"), from Baltic; *kuningas* ("king"), from Germanic; *risti* ("cross"), from Slavic. In addition, it has taken a few items from still older sources—such as *sata* ("100"), from an Indo-Iranian language—and many from more recent sources, including Swedish, Old Scandinavian, Low German, and others. Finnish is constantly being enriched by neologisms in all fields of modern life, from government to psychiatry to rocket physics. Some of these terms are international, but many are composed of Finnish roots: for example, *Yhdysvallat* ("United States"), derived from *yhtyä* ("to be united with")—itself from *yksi* ("one")—and *valta* ("power"), with the plural suffix *-t*.

The syntax of modern spoken Finnish resembles that of modern spoken Swedish. In the formal written style can be found complexities reminiscent of German syntax. Archaic features can be encountered in folklore; the youth of Helsinki favors racy words, often derived from English.

Finnish has 8 vowels—*i*, *e*, *y* (as *ü* in German), *ö*, *ä* (as *a* in English *cat*), *u*, *o*, and *a*—and 12 consonants—*m*, *n*, *ng*, *p*, *t*, *k*, *s*, *r*, *l*, *j*, *v*, and *h*. It is a quantitative language; all vowels and consonants may be either short or long, excepting *j*, *v*, and *h*, which are always short.

Letters written double represent long sounds, which are pronounced about twice as long or twice as slowly as the corresponding shorts. There are no consonant clusters (such as *pr, str, nt*) at the beginnings or ends of native words; thus *koulu* ("school") has lost the *s*, which began the word from which it was derived. Due to this avoidance of consonant clusters and to the relatively small repertory of basic sounds, the stems of Finnish nouns and verbs tend to be relatively long (generally bisyllabic); examples are *isä* ("father"), *käsi* ("hand"), *pilvi* ("cloud"), *jalka* ("foot," "leg"), *talo* ("house"), and *navetta* ("cowshed"). The stress in Finnish always falls on the first vowel of the word.

A typical feature of the phonology of Finnish is the phenomenon known as vowel harmony, according to which no front vowel (*ä, ö, y*) may stand in the same word with any back vowel (*a, o, u*); thus *halu* ("desire," "eagerness") and *halussa* ("in the desire") contrast with *häly* ("clamor," "tumult") and *hälyssä* ("in the clamor"); note *-ssa* as opposed to *-ssä*.

Another typical feature is gradation, examples of which include *vati* ("basin") as opposed to *vadissa* ("in the basin") and *kukka* ("flower") as opposed to *kukassa* ("in the flower"). Gradation at times involves complex phenomena, as in *laki* ("law") and *laissa* ("in the law"), or *hylje* ("seal") and *hylkeessä* ("in the seal"). Both of these features are conditioned by the distribution of vowel and consonant sounds in Finnish words.

Nouns and Verbs. Finnish nouns have 16 cases, of which 12 are fully productive; 4 others are only found sporadically. Examples include the genitive, indicated by the suffix *-n;* the inessive, indicated by *-ssa/-ssä* ("in . . ."); and the essive, indicated by *-na/-nä* ("as . . ."). Each case indicates the relation of the noun to the other members of a phrase or sentence; for example, *isä-n talo-ssa,* using the genitive and inessive, means "in father's house." Nouns can also be modified by possessive suffixes: *talo-ni* ("my house"), *talo-mme* ("our house"), *talo-ssa-ni* ("in my house"), *talo-i-ssa-ni* ("in my houses"; here the suffix *-i-* is the plural marker of the stem, corresponding to the suffix *-s of houses*). There are five possessive suffixes, meaning "my," "thy," "our," "your," and "his/her/its/their."

Finnish verbs have three persons in the singular—as in *anna-n* ("I give"), *anna-t* ("thou givest"), and *anta-a* ("he gives")—and three in the plural. They have two tenses—present and past—four moods, and a special device for indicating an impersonal agent, comparable to *man* in German or *on* in French; thus *annetaan* ("one gives"), *annettakoon* ("may one give!"). There is also a negative verb, very much like *don't* in English, which is conjugated for person: *minä en anna* ("I do not give"), *sinä et anna* ("thou dost not give"), *hän ei anna* ("he/she does not give"). Finnish abounds in infinitives and participles—for example, *antaa* ("to give"), *antanut* and *annettu* ("given"), *antava* ("giving"), *annettava* ("which is to be given"), *antaen* ("while giving"), *antaessa* ("in the act of giving"), *antama* ("which has been given"), and *antaminen* ("the activity of giving"). Most of these can be inflected, like any noun, for case and for person.

Finnish has many derivational suffixes that serve to enrich its vocabulary. Words exemplifying this phenomenon include *anta-utu-* ("to give oneself up"), *ant-el-ias* ("generous"), *ant-o* ("location," "credit"), *ann-os* ("a portion"), *ime-* ("a gift"), *ann-iskele-* ("to retail," "to sell on the premises"), and *ant-ee-ksi* ("forgiveness," "pardon"), all of which are derived from the verbal root *anta-* ("to give").

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FINLAND, Gulf of, an arm of the Baltic Sea extending about 250 miles (400 km) from west to east between Finland (north) and the Estonian republic of the USSR (south) to Leningrad. Its breadth at the widest part is about 80 miles (128 km). The gulf is relatively shallow and freezes over for three or more months during the winter. It receives the Neva River at Leningrad, the Saimaa Canal at Vyborg, USSR, and the Narva River at the eastern border of Estonia. It is also connected by canal, via lakes Ladoga and Onega, with the White Sea. It contains many islands, including Kotlin, site of the Soviet naval base of Kronshtadt. Helsinki, capital of Finland, and Tallin, capital of the Estonian republic, are on its shores.