



norden

Nordic Council, 1962 (NORD)

MUNUC 34



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CHAIR LETTER

Delegates,

It is my absolute pleasure to welcome you to MUNUC 34! My name is Dannerys Peralta and I will be serving as your Chair in the Nordic Council, 1962! I am a second year student at The University of Chicago from New York City (New York pizza>>> Chicago deep dish) majoring in Global Studies and Linguistics with a minor in Human Rights. I am interested in all things international relations as well as the way language plays a role in the way people interpret law and communicate.

With that being said, I think it would be helpful to tell you a little bit more about myself and my MUN experience. Before coming to college I had never participated in Model UN (and now I'm in all the MUN organizations in college, but we'll get to that later). The closest thing to Model UN in my high school was a club named UN Connection Club (which was nothing like Model UN). It was through this club that I learned about "The United Nations" and how it works. Ever since then, I have been interested in learning more. It wasn't until I was applying to college that I learned about Model UN (yes, I'm embarrassed to admit that considering you all are highschoolers and already know what Model UN is) and how as a club it worked. I knew that I wanted to be involved with it in college, and hence my involvement in MUNUC, ChoMUN (the conference for other universities), and Team (the competitive Model UN team at UChicago). I think that if there were more Model UN organizations I would join them too!

Although MUN is a pretty big part of my life, it's not the only thing (probably best for my sanity). On campus, I'm involved in Students in International Relations Club, Seeds of Justice, Leaders of Colors, and I am a Fellows Ambassador for the Institute of Politics at UChicago. In my free time, I like to explore Chicago with my friends by eating at new restaurants and traveling randomly on the train; at the end of each quarter my friends and I get on the train and get off at a random station with no plans and just walk and explore (what better way to see something new)! Another big part of my life is nutrition and wellness. I like to run, swim, and really do any outdoor activity. I'm also vegetarian, so if you have any vegetarian/vegan restaurants that you would recommend in Chicago please let me know!

Now that you all know a little bit more about myself, I am beyond excited to get to know you all throughout the weekend at MUNUC 34! I am super excited to welcome you all to the amazing Nordic Council Committee and introduce you all to the MUNuniverse! Scandinavian countries are an interest of mine and prior to this committee all I really knew was Norse Mythology and the Vikings Show (which I would highly recommend). Don't worry if you're not too familiar with how MUN works; Kevin (the Crisis Director) and I are here to answer any questions you might have, and we are really excited to explore all the different aspects of what this committee offers!

If you have any questions, concerns, or restaurant recommendations, please don't hesitate to reach out to me at dannerysperalta@uchicago.edu. I can't wait to see you all in person at MUNUC 34!

Best,

Dannerys Peralta

CRISIS DIRECTOR LETTERS

Dear Delegates,

It is my honour to welcome you to Scandinavia! My name is Kevin Yao, and I will be serving as your Crisis Director for the Nordic Council Committee! I am from Vancouver, Canada (thus explaining all the extra u's in words throughout this background guide) and am a second year at the University of Chicago majoring in Chemistry, Molecular Engineering, and Philosophy. Besides MUNUC I am also involved with ChoMUN, the Model UN conference for undergraduates hosted at UChicago, sporadically perform in the various performance and theater groups around the college, and trawl through early modern European history (better known as the age of the horsey boys).

As a high school student, I ran and competed in Model UN events myself, and always enjoyed the experience. Besides the public speaking and critical thinking skills, the community that forms around Model UN is truly incredible. The days of the conference may be intense, but I found that it was often during those moments that bonds are formed. I hope that by the end of everything, you will leave the committee having met a group of amazing individuals just like yourself.

This period is an extremely exciting one, as I hope you will agree, and will offer a wide range of freedom for creative responses towards the issues you will need to face - or create! I hope as Crisis Director to facilitate that freedom and provide interesting challenges. As fitting for a rather tense but peaceful (at least at the start of committee) period in Europe, we want to encourage engaged debate and plenty of backroom intrigue! I urge you to explore the history and context, but don't feel constrained by this framework. We welcome experimentation and believe that mistakes should never be a deterrent to trying new things.

With that said, Dannerys and I believe strongly in creating a safe, inclusive environment for all of that creativity to grow, and thus we require that sensitive issues, when brought up, are treated with both maturity and consideration. If at any time historical accuracy conflicts with what is appropriate, never feel that you need or should go along with it. Such things happen, but they should not be an

excuse nor a reason to put you in an uncomfortable spot! If you ever have any questions about what conduct is or is not appropriate, please send us an e-mail at usgrb.munuc@gmail.com.

All in all, I hope you are as excited as we are to join us in Scandinavia for MUNUC 34, and that you will enjoy your time on this committee. I look forward to meeting you all!

Kindest regards,

Kevin Yao

Dear Delegates,

The intent of the committee is first and foremost educational. We aim to provide a safe environment for delegates to explore an interesting topic of history and to practice their public speaking skills. As such, anything that may damage such an environment will not be tolerated at all. We strongly urge delegates to be always mindful of their behavior, ensuring that they do not make other delegates uncomfortable or violate the general etiquette of the committee. Even as we simulate a committee situated in the past, delegates should remember that they are still themselves, and should follow the standards expected by our modern society. Sensitive topics should only be discussed with the greatest of respect and sincerity for the purpose of pedagogical development.

We trust that delegates will be respectful of this and will be able to enjoy fruitful discussions that help them explore the topic at hand. If at any time delegates feel unsure whether something is acceptable or not, or feel uncomfortable themselves, we strongly urge them to reach out to us in order to help resolve the issue.

Best,

Dannerys and Kevin

COMMITTEE STRUCTURE & MECHANICS

General Assembly (GA)

The Nordic Council is a Regional Body committee because it specializes in one region of the world, that being Scandinavia for our committee. However, don't focus too much on the fact that it is a Regional Body; it is more important to know that our committee will use both GA and Crisis elements throughout the weekend of conference. What this entails is that the first sessions of the committee will be General Assembly (GA) sessions, during which a Final Resolution will be passed. The rest of the committee will then flow based on that resolution. The GA sessions are extremely important because they will establish the decisions and powers of the committee. To help you get a better picture of how this committee comes together, we have included terms and mechanisms that you should be familiar with before the start of the conference.

Clause Writing is a term used in Model UN to describe the process of writing the things that make up a Directive. Clauses are statements that declare actions to be taken by the body, accompanied by bullet points that essentially answer the questions: Who? What? When? Where? and How? Successful clauses include information that answers these questions. Clause writing is going to be essential for the GA portion of the conference, as clauses will make up the Final Resolution. You will want your clauses to be included in the Final Resolution document because that will ensure that your ideas and solutions have an impact on the rest of the committee. A final resolution comes about after a merger, a process in which clauses from various working papers are combined into one document that is called the Final Resolution.

A merger occurs when the Chair decides that only one document will exist at the end of committee. In order to have a successful merger, delegates need to have complete clauses that are unique to their characters to ensure that their clauses are kept in the final document and that the things that they contribute in the frontroom are included for the rest of the committee. Because of the nature of the Nordic Council, delegates will want their clauses and ideas to be in the Final Resolution, as the trajectory of committee will depend largely on the contents of that document.

The Final Resolution, in accordance with the language used before, includes the conditions of the treaty that the Nordic Council (this is all of you) agree on. The rest of the Committee will flow based on the agreement of the Final Resolution. It should be noted that even if these things may sound complicated and nerve wracking, you should not fret; all of these components will come to you once you get into your character. It is important also to remember that while you are representing a historical figure, you don't have to stick to what actually happened in history, and in fact you are encouraged not to do so. All that we ask is that you consider the nationality and role of your character and act accordingly, as the position that you are representing is important to the committee. Finally, MUN is a fun activity and you should let your creative juices flow. Have fun with it!

The last of the useful vocabulary for the GA session of committee are the terms Presentation and Q&A. The purpose of the Presentation and Q&A is to facilitate discourse on the pros and cons of the draft resolutions. It is here that one asks questions on content that is debatable or speaks on the weaknesses of that proposed resolution. Ultimately, you want to point out the flaws of the draft resolution in a respectful and constructive way.

Transition

As mentioned before, the Nordic Council is a committee with both GA and Crisis components. As a result, there will be a transition between the GA session and the continuous Crisis sessions. This transition will take place after the treaty is completed and agreed upon by all of you. The results of the GA sessions are contingent on the success, details, and contents of the treaty signed. As mentioned before, the GA components are extremely important in determining how the rest of the committee will flow.

Crisis section

Committee will proceed through the remainder of the conference as a continuous crisis committee. When the committee is in session, delegates will focus on two main aspects: the frontroom and backroom.

In frontroom, delegates will continue to be ministers of the Nordic Council and follow all procedures of parliamentary debate. However, whereas delegates had a predefined goal for the GA sessions, during continuous crisis delegates will have to work together to draft, debate and vote on directives intended to address a variety of issues that they will not know beforehand.

These issues will be presented to the committee in real time as crisis breaks, which represent news regarding the status of the committee and the greater world. These crisis breaks will greatly depend on the choices made by the committee as well as individual delegates (in the form of backroom). For example, a poor response by the committee towards a famine in one crisis break may lead to the next crisis being a protest by farmers.

Directives should focus on the topic at hand, and will usually only address topics relevant to past crisis breaks. Multiple directives can be submitted and passed for any single crisis break, although each directive will require a certain number of signatories, a quantity which will be based on the size of the committee, in order for it to go to a vote. Thus, delegates will need to work together in groups and merge ideas for directives.

Alongside frontroom debate, delegates will also be able to manage their backroom, which represents the actions taken by their character outside of authority of the committee. Backroom will primarily take the form of writing private notes, which are relatively short letters addressed to people outside of the committee. They compel the recipient to take some particular action, such as asking a brother to start a bakery, a friend in the army to recruit defectors, or a newspaper company to print propaganda. These notes will be accepted at regular intervals throughout the committee by committee staff, receive responses, and then returned, informing delegates of the outcome of their actions and how they can move forward. You can learn more about notewriting and continuous crisis by consulting the training materials on the MUNUC website.

During this committee, a two-notepad system will be used, through which delegates will first write on one notepad, give the notepad to committee staff for a reply, and write on their second notepad while they wait for a response. This system will give delegates a chance to always be working on their backroom, and offers plenty of opportunities for strategy! That strategy can include writing to multiple people simultaneously to maximize time and resources.

In writing notes, delegates should aim to build up resources, such that they will eventually be able to produce outcomes that are able to affect the committee. When that happens, delegates may then be able to create a narrative that becomes a crisis break. In general, delegates should aim to generate interesting and important events with their backroom during committee, and should feel free to be creative. Remember that well-written and detailed notes are more likely to succeed, and delegates who respond well to the outcome of their past notes will be better positioned to impact the frontroom.

In addition to notes, which are written by individual delegates, two or more delegates may sometimes choose to work together to write a Joint Personal Directive, or JPD. In effect, JPDs allow delegates to pool together resources to achieve mutual goals. Often, actions that singular delegates find difficult achieving can become possible with a JPD. JPDs should be written as a normal note, but they should be passed between cooperating delegates and indicate all people involved with the note.

Delegate and country delegations

Delegates in this committee will be representing individuals within the Nordic Council. Moreover, due to the nature of the Nordic Council as an intergovernmental organisation, delegates will each be from one of the nations and territories represented within the Council. Whilst delegates are not required to adhere strictly to their character's beliefs and ideologies, they should nevertheless keep them in mind, especially during the GA portion of committee and in their backroom arcs.

Additionally, delegates from the same country do not need to work together always (and may not always wish to), but are also free to use shared nationality as a basis for cooperation.

TOPIC: NORDIC COUNCIL

History of the Problem

Historical Overview of Scandinavia

The nations that compose the Nordic Council cover a large region from North America to the Arctic to Northern Europe, centered around the Scandinavian area. With such a large geographical distribution, there is inevitably a multitude of narratives that can be told as to how the region became the nations, territories and peoples that comprise the region. That said, however, this brief overview will focus primarily on the Scandinavian area, in what is now Denmark, Norway and Sweden (sometimes more broadly defined to include Finland and Iceland as well), the countries in which a majority of the more than 20 million people of the Nordic Council nations reside.¹ To its Southwest is the Baltic Sea, which connects it with the Baltic Coast and Northern Germany, to its North are the White and Arctic Seas, and to its West is the North Sea as well as the greater Atlantic Ocean.

The history of Scandinavia is one of close interaction within the region as well as with Europe as a whole. While this overview is not intended to be comprehensive, it should offer a general explanation for the historical developments and events that shaped the region up to the time of committee.

Early History

Prehistory to the Viking Age

Early settlement into Scandinavia was initially slow and seasonal due to glacial remains and cold weather, but by the late Stone Age it had been settled by humans. Although it maintained a low population over the next millenniums, the area slowly developed trading ties with European and

¹ "Population of Scandinavia," Tacitus.nu, Accessed August 15, 2021, <http://tacitus.nu/historical-atlas/population/scandinavia.htm>.

Middle Eastern civilisations during the Bronze Age.² Meanwhile, continual waves of settlement by diverse people led to a variety of different cultures inhabiting the area, such as the Sami, a group indigenous to northern Scandinavia, even into the modern era.³ Of the different cultures that formed in Scandinavia, the collection of tribes termed to be Germanic would spread from the region, moving into central Europe and later into parts of the Roman Empire.

The transition of the region from independent tribes and fiefdoms into the more centralized kingdoms of the Middle Ages, however, would only begin during the period known as the Viking Age. During this period, Scandinavians explored, colonised, and traded with much of Europe, going as far west as modern-day Newfoundland in North America and as far East as Constantinople of the Byzantine Empire in modern-day Turkey.⁴ Indeed, it was during this time that island territories such as Iceland and Faroe Islands began to be populated by Scandinavian people. The Scandinavian expansion changed much of Europe, helping to shape the population of the British Isles as well as Russia. This period was also a boom for Scandinavian culture, during which great sagas of heroes were written, the Norse mythology became roughly what it is today, and the Runic language was reproduced on artifacts all over Europe.⁵ Meanwhile, many great Kingdoms were formed during a political period which saw a brief unification of Norway, settlement of Normandy, and even the formation of a North Sea Empire that united England, Denmark and Norway.

With such expansion, the Scandinavian people inevitably came into contact with Christianity, and through varying degrees of resistance, Christianity came to be adopted in all three Kingdoms (Norway, Denmark and Sweden) by the 1200s.⁶ The Christianization of Scandinavia critically occurred first in the upper ruling classes instead of being adopted first by the general populace as in other areas; thus, the region became the northernmost border of Christian civilization. As a result, the social change that typically followed Christianization happened slowly, especially for minority

² "Bronze Age Scandinavia's trading networks for copper: Crossing the North Sea before crossing the Alps!," ScienceDaily, Aarhus University, Accessed August 14, 2021, www.sciencedaily.com/releases/2021/06/210617115530.htm.

³ "The Sami," Northern Norway, January 12, 2021, <https://nordnorge.com/en/tema/the-sami-are-the-indigenous-people-of-the-north/>.

⁴ Hayden Chakra, "The Early History of Scandinavia - Origins, Vikings and More...," About History, March 16, 2021, <https://about-history.com/the-early-history-of-scandinavia-origins-vikings-and-more/#:~:text=The%20Early%20History%20of%20Scandinavia%20-%20Origins%2C%20Vikings,and%20religion.%20..%207%20Conversion%20to%20Christianity.%20>.

⁵ "Ibid."

⁶ Stefan Keßner, "The Christianization of Scandinavia," *Academia*, n.d.

groups and in rural areas, with the new religion often becoming intertwined with local beliefs. Nevertheless, the intermingling of beliefs and introduction of the Scandinavian Kingdoms into Christian European politics led to a slow decline of viking raids, marking the end of the Viking Age for Scandinavia.⁷

The Kalmar Union

The Kalmar Union of 1397 was one of the earliest attempts to unify the Scandinavian region into a single political entity.⁸ As a personal union - where multiple Kingdoms come to be ruled by a shared monarch - between the three Kingdoms of Norway, Denmark, and Sweden (which included the territory of East Sweden, now modern-day Finland), the Kalmar Union was not a centralised nation state. Rather, each Kingdom remained largely independent, and any attempt to centralize the Kingdoms into a single, truly unified Kingdom was thwarted by the local nobility.⁹

The Kalmar Union would break apart and reform again repeatedly over the next century, as various monarchs either gained or lost the support of the nobility. Eventually, however, Swedish dissatisfaction towards increasing Danish dominance over the union led to armed conflict, during which the Swedish nobility elected their own new monarch, Gustav Vasa.¹⁰ With Swedish military victory, the Kalmar Union was effectively dissolved, although the personal union between Norway and Denmark continued to hold, as a new Denmark-Norway Union took the place of the Kalmar Union.¹¹

However, the direct legacy of the Kalmar Union should not be overstated. While the unification of the three Kingdoms was an impressive feat, no true sense of Nordic identity was fostered. To those that supported the union, the aim was primarily economic, with each kingdom intending only to use the union to strengthen its own position against other kingdoms. Furthermore, the personal union had little effect on the common peasantry, to whom life under the Kalmar Union was no different

⁷ "Ibid."

⁸ "Kalmar Union," Encyclopædia Britannica, Accessed August 15, 2021, <https://www.britannica.com/place/Kalmar-Union>.

⁹ Andrew McKay, "Scandinavia's Kalmar Union," Life in Norway, May 24, 2021, <https://www.lifeinnorway.net/kalmar-union/>.

¹⁰ "Ibid."

¹¹ "Kalmar Union," Encyclopædia Britannica, Accessed August 15, 2021, <https://www.britannica.com/place/Kalmar-Union>.

than life under a separate kingdom. Yet the Kalmar Union, as a union of Scandinavian nations, grew into a symbol with the advent of modern ideas of nationalism and pan-national identity.¹² Some see the Kalmar Union as evidence for the inability of the Scandinavian nations to ever be united as one nation, whilst others see it as a historical symbol for a modern Scandinavian union.

The Reformation and the Thirty Years' War

Following the Christianization of Scandinavia, the papacy of The Catholic Church grew over the Middle Ages to become a centralised authority for much of the Christian world. Growing corruption within the Catholic church, theological disputes, and a variety of other issues led to the beginnings of the Protestant Reformation in Europe.¹³ The details of the Reformation itself are much too numerous and complex to discuss here, but critically one branch of Protestantism, Lutheranism, quickly became dominant in both kingdoms (Sweden, which held Finland, and Denmark-Norway), displacing the Catholic church.¹⁴ In Sweden, Gustav Vasa, the same king elected by Swedish nobles following the secession of Sweden from the Kalmar Union, spearheaded the change to Lutheranism, having converted during his time in northern Germany before becoming king.¹⁵ Meanwhile, in Denmark, Lutheranism grew to become popular amongst the population, causing the initial Catholic monarchy to gradually split from the Pope in Rome.¹⁶ With the adoption of Lutheranism, the kingdoms seized church property to form a national church, concentrating religious authority under the monarch rather than the Pope. This shift in religion would be the last major religious transition for the Scandinavian region. Although other movements and branches of Christianity would form over the coming years, Scandinavia would remain predominantly Lutheran up to the 1960s.

¹² Andrew McKay, "Scandinavia's Kalmar Union," *Life in Norway*, May 24, 2021, <https://www.lifeinnorway.net/kalmar-union/>.

¹³ "The Reformation in Scandinavia," *The Reformation*, Accessed August 15, 2021, <https://www.thereformation.info/scandinavia/>.

¹⁴ Martin Schwarz Lausten. "The Early Reformation in Denmark and Norway 1520–1559," in *The Scandinavian Reformation: From Evangelical Movement to Institutionalisation of Reform*, ed. Ole Peter Grell (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1994), 12–41. doi:10.1017/CBO9780511758690.004.

¹⁵ Ingun Montgomery, "The Institutionalisation of Lutheranism in Sweden and Finland," in *The Scandinavian Reformation: From Evangelical Movement to Institutionalisation of Reform*, ed. Ole Peter Grell (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1994), 144–178. doi:10.1017/CBO9780511758690.008.

¹⁶ Thorkild Lyby and Ole Peter Grell, "The Consolidation of Lutheranism in Denmark and Norway," in *The Scandinavian Reformation: From Evangelical Movement to Institutionalisation of Reform*, ed. Ole Peter Grell (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1994), 114–43. doi:10.1017/CBO9780511758690.007.

A direct political issue, however, was that the change to Protestantism aligned the two Kingdoms on one side of a growing internal conflict within the Holy Roman Empire - a large, decentralised empire encompassing much of central Europe - that exploded into the Thirty Years' War in 1618. Protestant princes and kingdoms soon found themselves in a major conflict against Catholic princes and the Catholic Emperor.¹⁷ Both kingdoms, although not themselves members of the Holy Roman Empire, participated in the fighting at different times during the war. Denmark-Norway joined early in the conflict but suffered a series of major defeats which caused it to lose support from Protestant princes.¹⁸ The Treaty of Lübeck in 1629 marked the end for Denmark-Norway in the Thirty Years' War. However, while Denmark-Norway fared poorly, the Thirty Years' War marked the beginning of the rise of Sweden as a major European power.

The Rise and Fall of the Swedish Empire

Following its departure from the Kalmar Union and its conversion to Protestantism, Sweden was able to expand at the expense of its neighbors. By the time of the Thirty Years' War, Sweden had taken much of the Baltic from Poland-Lithuania and the western coast of Russia, securing a strong position within the Baltic Sea. These conquests were made under King Gustavus Adolphus, under whom Swedish military power came to be known and respected in Europe.¹⁹ With the success of Sweden during the Thirty Years' War, during which Sweden became a major military member of the Protestant forces, Swedish power only grew.

Seizing upon Danish weakness following their defeat, in the years following the Thirty Years' War Sweden made multiple attempts to conquer territory from Denmark-Norway, breaking Danish control over the Straits connecting the Baltic to the greater Atlantic by seizing territory which had previously allowed Denmark to extract a toll from passing ships.²⁰ As a result, Sweden was able to

¹⁷ "Thirty Years' War," Encyclopædia Britannica, Accessed August 15, 2021, <https://www.britannica.com/event/Thirty-Years-War>.

¹⁸ Paul Douglas Lockhart, *Denmark in the Thirty Years' War, 1618-1648: King Christian IV and the Decline of the Oldenburg State* (Selinsgrove: Susquehanna University Press, 1996).

¹⁹ "Map of Scandinavia, 1648: Sweden's Golden Age," TimeMaps, May 19, 2021, <https://www.timemaps.com/history/scandinavia-1648ad/>.

²⁰ Erik Esvelt, "The Swedish Empire and the Baltic Nations," Accessed August 15, 2021, <http://conflicts.rem33.com/images/The%20Baltic%20States/svenskrijk.htm>.

quickly grow at the expense of Danish territory, almost all of which remained in Swedish hands and whose populations have become mostly Swedish.²¹

This series of conquests also represented the high watermark of Swedish power in Europe. The growing strength of Russia and the desire of the nations to regain lost land culminated in the Great Northern War of 1700 to 1721. Initial Swedish success was followed by a growing coalition of nations led by a rising Russian Empire under Peter the Great, which dealt multiple defeats to an increasingly demoralised Swedish Army.²² The Swedish Army was eventually forced to withdraw from many of its continental holdings, ceding them to the Russian Empire, Prussia, and Denmark. With Swedish defeat in the Great Northern War, Russia came to replace Sweden as a major European power. Although the core of Swedish territory remained intact, along with some of its other holdings, the economic devastation and military demoralisation resulting from the war left it unable to regain what it had lost.²³

The Swedish Empire, although somewhat brief compared to other major European powers, is a point of national pride. Gustavus Adolphus came to be popularised as a skilled general and king, not only in Sweden but throughout Europe following the surprising successes of Sweden during the Thirty Years' war.

Napoleonic Era

The Second League of Armed Neutrality and the Battles of Copenhagen

With the outbreak of the French Revolutionary Wars in 1793, the British navy began to enforce blockades over shipping that could potentially supply French forces on the continent. This only intensified as French military success on the mainland ended any likelihood of a quick end to the French Revolutionary movement. In response, following the model of a previous agreement made during the American Revolutionary Wars, the Russian Empire formed a second League of Armed

²¹ Sabana Grande, "Peter the Great of Russia vs. The Swedish Empire," Medium, Lessons from History, February 20, 2021, <https://medium.com/lessons-from-history/peter-the-great-of-russia-vs-the-swedish-empire-1a434230edf4>.

²² "Ibid."

²³ "Ibid."

Neutrality with Prussia, Denmark-Norway, and Sweden.²⁴ The purpose of the League was primarily to ensure the safety and freedom of their countries' neutral shipping as it provided an armed deterrent against the indiscriminate searches being conducted by the British Royal Navy.

The British, however, concerned over the potential hostility of the League and even the possibility of their alignment with France, attacked the joint Danish-Norwegian fleet near Copenhagen during the First Battle of Copenhagen in 1801.²⁵ This attack, along with other political events in Russia, caused the League to quickly collapse, once again opening up Baltic trade to the British.

Despite this defeat, the Danish fleet remained intact, and as the French Revolutionary Wars transitioned into the Napoleonic Wars, the territories of the new French Empire bordered those of Denmark. A worried Britain once again attacked Copenhagen, destroying much of the Danish-Norwegian fleet and at the same time setting the city on fire during the bombardment.²⁶ In the aftermath of the attack, Denmark-Norway aligned themselves with Napoleonic France, joining Napoleon's continental system. Now without a naval fleet, however, their position was greatly weakened.

The Formation of Sweden-Norway

Although Sweden initially aligned itself with Britain and Russia against France in 1805, French success on the continent made armed opposition to France more difficult.²⁷ After Russia made peace with France and joined Napoleon's Continental System in 1806, pressure mounted for Sweden to join as well. Swedish's rejection and French diplomatic maneuvering culminated in the Finnish War of 1808 to 1809, during which Russia, with some limited support of France and her allies, invaded Sweden.²⁸ Despite British support, Sweden was defeated and forced to sign the Treaty of

²⁴ "Great Britain, France, and the Neutrals, 1800–02," Encyclopædia Britannica, Accessed August 15, 2021, <https://www.britannica.com/event/Napoleonic-Wars/Great-Britain-France-and-the-neutrals-1800-02>.

²⁵ John Rickard, "Battle of Copenhagen, 2 April 1801," History of War, Accessed August 15, 2021, http://www.historyofwar.org/articles/battles_copenhagen.html.

²⁶ "Ibid."

²⁷ Magnus Olofsson, "The Swedish Army in the Napoleonic Wars," The Napoleon Series, April 2008, https://www.napoleon-series.org/military-info/organization/Sweden/Army/Organization/c_swedisharmy.html#:~:text=At%20the%20outbreak%20of%20the%20Napoleonic%20Wars%20Sweden%2C,economy%20was%20based%20on%20a%20weak%20agrarian%20sector.

²⁸ "Ibid."

Fredrikshamn, which saw the loss of the territory of East Sweden, reorganised under the Russian Empire as the Grand Duchy of Finland. This would mark the beginning of the Finnish state as a nation separate from Sweden, although still not yet independent. Additionally, the treaty saw the cession of the Swedish-speaking island group of Åland to the Grand Duchy of Finland, which became heavily militarised by the Russian navy until a British treaty forced its perpetual demilitarisation.

The military defeat and loss of territory led to a short period of great political instability, during which Napoleon was eventually able to install one of his own generals, Marshall Jean-Baptiste Bernadotte, as the heir to a dying king of Sweden in 1810.²⁹ Upon his ascension to the throne, Bernadotte, styling himself as Charles XIV, aligned Sweden with France, bringing Sweden into the Continental System.

However, unlike France's Danish allies who were in a greatly weakened position after the loss of their fleet, Charles XIV maintained the strength of the Swedish military as a critical but independent ally of France. As French fortunes turned with the disastrous invasion of Russia, Charles XIV reversed Sweden's position and joined the Sixth Coalition against Napoleon. As a result of this defection, as well as Sweden's contributions during the major Battle of Leipzig in which Napoleon was defeated, Charles XIV put Sweden into a strong diplomatic position to demand concessions from Denmark-Norway, who remained allied to France. As a result of the peace treaty signed in Kiel, Sweden exchanged Swedish Pomerania, the last of its continental possessions, for the entire Kingdom of Norway.³⁰

This development marked the end of Denmark-Norway and the beginning of the United Kingdoms of Sweden and Norway, which would last up until 1905.³¹ Critically, however, Norwegian colonial territories, such as Greenland, Iceland, and the Faroe Islands, were not transferred along with Norway. Instead, they became territories of Denmark.³² The Kingdom of Norway showed their rejection of this transfer by electing their own King, forcing Charles XIV to invade. As a result of

²⁹ "Ibid."

³⁰ "The Peace Treaty of Kiel," The Royal House of Norway, February 13, 2007, <https://www.royalcourt.no/artikkel.html?tid=30100&sek=27320>.

³¹ "Independence and Union with Sweden in 1814," The Royal House of Norway, January 8, 2007, <https://www.royalcourt.no/seksjon.html?tid=28691>.

³² Niels Brimnes, "The Colonialism of Denmark-Norway and Its Legacies," Nordics.info, Aarhus University, January 7, 2021, <https://nordics.info/show/artikel/the-colonialism-of-denmark-norway-and-its-legacies/>.

Swedish victory in the brief Norwegian-Swedish war of 1814 - the last war Sweden ever fought - a personal union between Sweden and Norway was established. Since this conflict, however, Swedish diplomacy has shifted to a more neutral position, with the country staying away from any conflict in Europe.

19th Century

Liberalisation

The 19th Century began the slow transition of Scandinavia to Liberal Democracies and Constitutional Monarchies. The Grand Duchy of Finland, although a part of the authoritarian Russian Empire, maintained a relatively liberal constitution from its time as part of Sweden, which made provisions for rights and protections. Political independence and economic development would be gradual, but independence from Sweden and consolidation into a single political entity began Finnish ideas of national consciousness.

Meanwhile, the Kingdoms of Denmark and Sweden both began to make reforms by reducing the power of the monarch in favour of constitutions and parliamentary democracy. Denmark became a full constitutional monarchy through the March Revolution of 1848, while Sweden adopted a more liberal stance, although the monarchy maintained a police force to deter would-be revolutionaries, especially Norwegian nationalists.³³³⁴ However, it should be noted that such reforms were judged to be liberal by premodern standards. Voting was restricted to property holding men, among various other restrictions. Universal suffrage for men would only begin deep into the 19th century, and female suffrage only in the early 20th century.³⁵

³³ "The Nation State: the Constitution of 1849," National Museum of Denmark, Accessed August 15, 2021, <https://en.natmus.dk/historical-knowledge/denmark/the-nation-state-1848-1915/>.

³⁴ "Parliamentary Reform," Encyclopædia Britannica, Accessed August 15, 2021, <https://www.britannica.com/place/Sweden/Parliamentary-reform>.

³⁵ P. Orman Ray, "Woman Suffrage in Foreign Countries," *American Political Science Review* 12, no. 3 (1918): 469–74. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1946097>.

Despite this lack of suffrage, the liberal reforms also encouraged a wave of social reforms.³⁶ The ability for women to hold property and receive equal legal treatment was complete by the latter half of the 19th century. Additionally, due to the lack of serfdom the peasantry quickly became an active participant in national politics once suffrage was granted. Literacy rates improved as schools were established, and although the society's conservative nature meant that new ideas spread slowly at first, concepts such as civil rights, constitutional rights, and democracy eventually became common ideas of the intelligentsia.

Industrialisation

The latter half of the 19th century saw the industrial revolution spread into Scandinavia. The mass cultivation of highly nutritious New World crops such as potatoes, alongside developments in medicine, led to a population boom. The new agricultural society quickly became overpopulated and migration into the city, as well as to North America, began to take place.³⁷ Meanwhile, importation of industrial methods led to the growth of local bourgeoisie and businesses, setting the foundation for the modern industrialised economies of Scandinavia.³⁸ Factories were quickly established, while railroads connected major ports and cities.³⁹

The growth of the urban population also brought with it the formation of labour unions and workers committees, as well as the growth in popularity of social democratic movements. These parties, still being outvoted by larger conservative parties, would grow in strength as the nations modernised, ultimately becoming the future political factions that would come to dominate Scandinavian politics.

³⁶ Vilhelm Aubert, "Law and Social Change in Nineteenth-Century Norway," in *History and Power in the Study of Law: New Directions in Legal Anthropology*, ed. Starr June and Jane F. Collier (Ithaca; London: Cornell University Press, 1989), 55-80. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/10.7591/j.ctt207g6xn.7>.

³⁷ Lennart Jörberg, "The Industrial Revolution in Norway," *Scandinavian Economic History Review* 20, no. 2 (1972): 165-70. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03585522.1972.10407729>.

³⁸ Susanna Fellman, "Economic Development in the Nordic Countries," Nordics.info, Aarhus University, June 13, 2019, <https://nordics.info/show/artikel/economic-development-in-the-nordic-countries/>.

³⁹ Douglas Fisher, "Sweden during the Industrial Revolution," *The Industrial Revolution* (1992): 190-223. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-349-13445-8_6.

Norway's Separation from Sweden

Norway's union with Sweden ended any immediate hope of an independent Norway, but the structure of the personal union allowed the Kingdom to develop its own independent parliament and government. This political situation, coupled with growing nationalism during the 19th century, began a push within Norway to move towards independence. That desire only heightened as Sweden and Norway industrialised, which created a divergence of economic interests and started weakening the strength of the union.⁴⁰ Such pressures eventually caused the Swedish King Oscar II to renounce his claim to the Norwegian throne, leading to the dissolution of the union between the two kingdoms and the election of King Haakon VII in Norway.

The World Wars

The First World War

Denmark, Norway, and Sweden all remained neutral during the First World War, each following their own policies of neutrality that have been developed over the years.⁴¹ As a result, Scandinavia was largely spared from the destruction brought by the First World War, although many neutral sailors did lose their lives as a result of submarine warfare in the Atlantic. This marine interconnection allowed the nations to maintain trading ties, helping grow their economies by exporting the raw materials needed by both sides to maintain the conflict.

Communism, Socialism and Democracy

Finland, on the other hand, participated in the First World War with the Entente as a subject of Russia, contributing volunteers and officers to the Russian Army.⁴² While Finland was not ever invaded, the wartime pressures severely damaged the Finnish economy. When the February Revolution began, initial desires by the new Russian Provisional Government to maintain control

⁴⁰ Lennart Jörberg, "The Industrial Revolution in Norway," *Scandinavian Economic History Review* 20, no. 2 (1972): 165–70. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03585522.1972.10407729>.

⁴¹ "Neutrality and the Nordic Countries," Nordics.info, Aarhus University, Accessed August 15, 2021, <https://nordics.info/show/artikel/neutrality/>.

⁴² Iulian Simbeteanu, "The Finns in the First World War," Europe Centenary, February 7, 2018, <https://europecentenary.eu/the-finns-in-the-first-world-war/>.

over Finland were resisted by the Finnish government, who declared independence in December 1917. This independence was not at first recognised by the Provisional Government, but was recognised by the Bolshevik (Communist) government that subsequently took over Russia in October 1917 in the aptly named October Revolution. By 1918, Russia was in a complete state of civil war with the Communist government (termed the Red Forces) at war against various generals, monarchists, and conservative democrats (collectively termed the White Forces), while a similar conflict was occurring in Finland. The newly independent Finnish government (termed the White Government as opposed to the 'Red' Left-wing governments) was also now challenged by Red Communist uprisings, whose leaders wanted union with the new Communist Russian state.⁴³ Unlike in Russia, the White forces, with Swedish and German support, prevailed. Many Communist sympathisers were jailed or executed in the aftermath.

Communist uprisings also occurred in Sweden, and to a lesser extent Norway and Denmark, in the aftermath of the war, but generally failed to gain any traction. Yet, more moderate Socialist and Social Democratic parties found the postwar years to be a major period of growth. In Denmark, the Social Democratic party that would come to dominate politics gained its first majorities, while liberal parties that favoured social reform made great headway in Norway and Sweden. These political parties would largely survive the Second World War and retain their prominent position to the time of committee.

The Second World War

Invasion and war

During the Second World War, the Nordic countries, especially Norway and Finland, were a strategic target to the German forces. Germany saw that Great Britain was interested in this territory, and as a result, so was Germany. With Finland being geographically close to the Soviet Union, it was just a matter of time until the USSR tried to annex Finland.

⁴³ C. Jay Smith, "Russia and the Origins of the Finnish Civil War of 1918," *American Slavic and East European Review* 14, no. 4 (1955): 481-502. doi:10.2307/3001208.

Finland and the Winter War

During this time Germany and the USSR (The Soviet Union-Russia) had been advancing in their European conquest. They had been successful with Poland, Lithuania, Estonia, and Latvia, and as a result wanted to continue annexing other territories and countries. Germany, up until this point, had been successful in all of its efforts and attempted annexations, and thus the USSR naturally wanted to follow suit. This was the moment when interest turned to Finland. After the annexation of the bordering countries, it was in the best interests of the USSR to advance to Finland.



However, Finland was resistant and not as easy a conquest as Estonia, Lithuania, and Latvia. Finland refused the USSR's offering of territorial compensation for the cessions that it was requiring for its own strategic reasons. As a result of this refusal, Finland and the USSR went to war, now known as the "Winter War." Finland's armed forces amounted to about 200,000 troops in 10 divisions. The Soviets eventually brought about 70 divisions, equating to about 1,000,000 men, to support their attack on Finland, along with about 1,000 tanks. Soviet troops attacked Finland on November 30, 1939.⁴⁴ The invaders succeeded in isolating the little Arctic port of Petsamo in the far north but were repelled on all of the fronts chosen for their advance. On the Karelian Isthmus, the massive

⁴⁴ "The war in Europe, 1939-41," Encyclopædia Britannica, Accessed August 15, 2021, <https://www.britannica.com/event/World-War-II/The-war-in-Europe-1939-41>.

reinforced-concrete fortifications of Finland's Mannerheim Line blocked the Soviet forces' direct land route from Leningrad into Finland. The Soviet planners had grossly underestimated the Finns' national will to resist and the natural obstacles created by the terrain's numerous lakes and forests.



On February 1, 1940, the Red Army launched 14 divisions into a major assault on the Mannerheim Line. The offensive's weight was concentrated along a 10-mile sector of the line near Summa, which was bombarded by a tremendous artillery bombardment. As the fortifications were pulverized, tanks and sledge-carried infantry advanced to occupy the ground while the Soviet Air Force broke up attempted Finnish counterattacks. After a little more than a fortnight of this methodical process, a breach was made through the whole depth of the Mannerheim Line. Once the Soviets had forced a passage on the Karelian Isthmus, Finland's eventual collapse was certain. On March 6, Finland requested peace, and a week later the Soviet terms were accepted: the Finns had to cede the entire Karelian Isthmus, Viipuri, and their part of the Rybachy Peninsula to the Soviets. The Finns had suffered about 70,000 casualties in the campaign, and the Soviets more than 200,000.

Great Britain and German Interests in Norway

Hitler up until this point in the War had never shown any interest in the Scandinavian countries. It wasn't until Great Britain, and particularly Winston Churchill, talked about stopping the Swedish exportation of iron ore to Germany that Hitler became interested in potentially annexing Norway. Rumors got out about Great Britain's plans and it wasn't long after that Great Britain and Germany both went for Norway. The British Cabinet, in response to Churchill, authorized at least the

preparation of a plan for a landing at Narvik. In mid-December of 1939, a Norwegian politician, Vidkun Quisling, leader of a pro-Nazi party, was introduced to Hitler. On January 27, 1940, Hitler ordered plans for an invasion of Norway.

After Germany's conquest of Poland, land operations were not very active on the western powers. This time was called "The Phony War" (which lasted six months), because nothing seemed to be happening with Great Britain or Germany on land. However, that was not the case at sea, as German U-Boats were sinking more and more British boats. Germany was targeting the merchant ships in an effort to starve Great Britain and weaken the effectiveness of the arms and food that the U.S. was sending Great Britain.⁴⁵

On April 9, 1940, the major Norwegian ports from Oslo northward to Narvik, 1,200 miles away from Germany's naval bases, were occupied by advanced detachments of German troops, and so the invasion had started. Norwegian resistance at Narvik, Trondheim (the strategic key to Norway), Bergen, Stavanger, and Kristiansand had been overcome very quickly. Moreover, Oslo's effective resistance to the seaborne forces was nullified when German troops from the airfield entered the city. While all of this was happening in Norway, the Germans occupied Denmark on April 9, sending troopships supported by aircraft, into Copenhagen harbour and marching over the land frontier into Jutland. This occupation was necessary for the safety of their communications with Norway. By occupying Norway, Hitler had ensured the protection of Germany's supply of iron ore from Sweden and had obtained naval and air bases with which to strike at Britain if necessary.

Icelandic Independence

Up until this point, one can see that WWI and WWII had affected the Nordic Countries significantly. However, it wasn't until 1918 that Iceland became an independent and sovereign state separate from Denmark. As a result, Iceland and Denmark have an interesting and unique relationship. Before one can discuss the current relationship, it would be beneficial to see how it was that Iceland came to be a part of Danish rule.

⁴⁵ "The Baltic states and the Russo-Finnish War, 1939-40," Encyclopædia Britannica, Accessed August 15, 2021, <https://www.britannica.com/event/World-War-II/The-Baltic-states-and-the-Russo-Finnish-War-1939-40>.

Early History of Iceland in the 19th Century

Up until the 1840s, the Icelandic people were content with being a “colony” of Denmark; it wasn’t until 1843 that there was a wave of Icelandic nationalism that forced the Danish King to issue a royal decree. The decree was intended to restore the “Althing,” which is the national parliament of Iceland. The people wanted to feel like they had more representation than would a mere colony of Denmark. The first election was held in 1844, and then in Reykjavík on July 1 in 1845. In the summer of 1845, the elected Althing met for the first time in Reykjavík and, in the following decades, met for several weeks every two years with representatives from all over Iceland. In the beginning, the Althing had no legislative power and was only advisory to the Danish king in Icelandic financial and legal matters. The Icelandic nationalist movement was led by Jón Sigurðsson (1811-1879) who, in addition to being the leader of this movement, was a scholar who investigated and published Icelandic manuscripts. He was very much involved in Icelandic culture and wanted to be independent from the Danish monarchy. Sigurðsson was such an important figure for Iceland liberation that the national day is celebrated every year on his birthday, June 17.

In 1871, the Danish Parliament adopted a new law on Iceland's constitutional status. The Danish government subsequently gave Iceland its own constitution with effect from August 1, 1874. Thus, Iceland gained increased autonomy, but executive power was still in Danish hands. To a large extent, the Constitutional Act of 1874 still forms the basis of the Icelandic constitution. The 19th century was a time of great advancement for the country as it saw large population growth and social changes that helped it achieve independence in 1918. The new century saw the start of engines being used on fishing boats, and this new technology quickly replaced the old open rowboats. Increased prosperity followed, urbanisation took off at full speed, and a great need arose to reorganise the political system based on a more modern society. Both women and workers received full civil rights in the first decades of the 20th century, and in 1904 Iceland changed from being part of Denmark to having home rule. However, the political power struggle was not over. The country was still regarded as an integral part of the Danish kingdom and the following years were characterised by strong nationalism. In 1908, Icelandic voters rejected an accord regarding the status of the country reached between the Althing and the Danish parliament, but Icelandic and Danish parliamentarians managed to resolve the crisis by the end of World War I. In November 1918, a Danish-Icelandic law was passed

in both parliaments which came into force on December 1, 1918. Thus, Iceland had become a free and sovereign state in personal union with Denmark.⁴⁶

On November 30, 1918, the Danish Parliament passed an Act of Union (*Forbundsloven*) whereby Denmark recognised Iceland as an independent, sovereign state in personal union with Denmark.⁴⁷ The main elements of the union were the joint monarchy and Denmark's responsibility for Iceland's foreign affairs and the coast guard. In 1940, Denmark was occupied by the Germans and Britain occupied Iceland. The following year, American soldiers replaced the English by agreement with the Icelandic home rule administration. With the German occupation of Denmark in 1940, Denmark was prevented from fulfilling its obligations under the 1918 Act of Union, which is why the Althing decided that, for the time being, the Icelandic government would exercise the authority of the King and take over foreign affairs. In 1944, Iceland wanted to have the issue of its constitutional status and the question of full independence settled, but negotiations with Denmark could not be conducted because of the situation caused by the war. The Danish government wanted to maintain the union, but not if it was opposed by Iceland. From an Icelandic point of view, the personal union was never considered anything but a temporary scheme supposed to last for 25 years. The Althing decided on June 16, 1944 to abolish the 1918 Act and the following day the Constitution of the Republic of Iceland was declared. The personal union was dissolved by Iceland following a referendum in Iceland in May 1944; more than 98% were in favour of a repeal of the union. On June 17, 1944, Iceland was declared an independent republic.

The Cold War

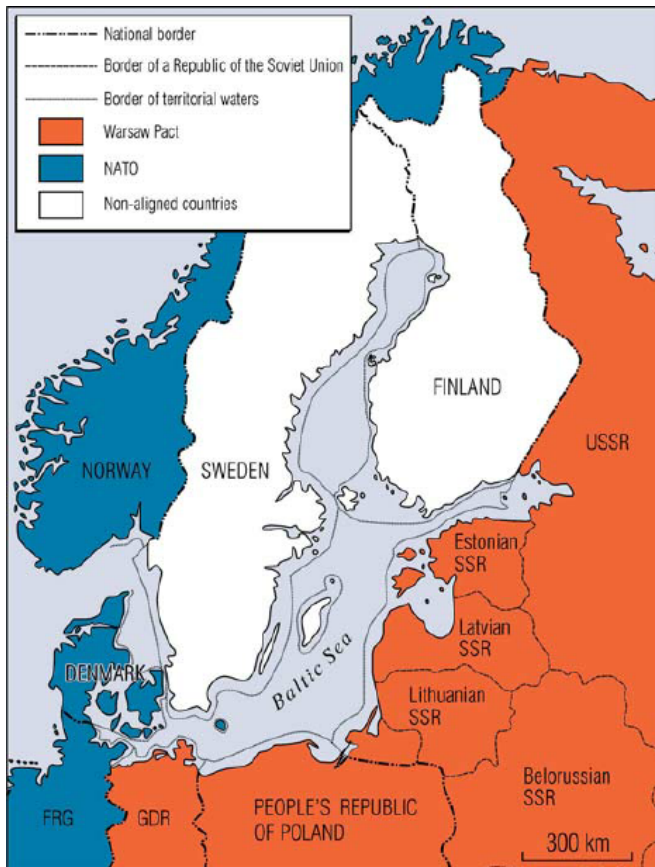
Cold War in Europe

Although other world conflicts had subsided, the U.S. and the USSR continued to struggle. After the period of WWII, the world entered a period known as the "Cold War;" although no physical fighting happened, the world was affected by developments resulting from the war. This period could be characterized as one in which division and clear "sides" were picked, since everyone was either with

⁴⁶ "History of Iceland, 1840s to the Second World War," nordics.info, Aarhus University, Accessed August 15, 2021, <https://nordics.info/show/artikel/history-of-iceland-1840s-to-the-second-world-war/>.

⁴⁷ "Ibid."

the Warsaw Pact, NATO (the North Atlantic Treaty Organization), or was a non-aligned country. The Cold War divided the Baltic Sea in the post-war period. Denmark and Norway belonged to NATO, and Finland and Sweden were considered politically neutral countries (for the map below they will be referred to as “non-aligned countries”). These dynamics will be discussed further in the subsequent section.



The Nordic Council

Initial founding

The Nordic Council was created in 1952 after WWII as part of a worldwide movement to promote international co-operation. This was the time when the United Nations was established, the Council of Europe was created, and the first steps were taken towards the formation of the EU.

Simultaneously, discussions were held on much closer Nordic co-operation, which eventually led to the establishment of the Nordic Council in 1952. The Nordic Council was created as the official body

for formal inter-parliamentary Nordic cooperation among the Nordic countries. It consists of 87 representatives from Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden as well as from the autonomous areas of the Faroe Islands, Greenland, and the Åland Islands. The representatives are members of parliament in their respective countries or areas and are elected by those parliaments. The Council holds ordinary sessions each year in October or November and usually one extra session per year with a specific theme. The council's official languages are Danish, Finnish, Icelandic, Norwegian, and Swedish, though it uses only the mutually intelligible Scandinavian languages—Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish—as its working languages.

Statement of the Problem

Cold War

Cold War Overview

At the time of committee, the Cold War was at some of its most tense moments.⁴⁸ The rivalry between the United States and the Soviet Union had made the two decades of peace following the Second World War dangerously tense for the nations of Europe. This was no different for the members of the Nordic Council, especially with Scandinavia being situated between the Soviet Union and the Western powers. The members of the Nordic Council were therefore in a unique position to be courted by both sides. However, such courtship can easily turn hostile or even volatile if handled poorly.

Diplomacy

The member nations and territories of the Nordic Council have not been unified in their diplomacy. During the Second World War, after the occupation of Denmark and Norway by Nazi Germany, Iceland signed treaties with the United States to allow for basing rights. This agreement built a close framework of cooperation that led to Iceland becoming a signatory to the Northern Atlantic Treaty, a multilateral defense pact that formed The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO).⁴⁹ However, portions of the population of Iceland were opposed to this act as they worried it would lead to the militarisation of Iceland.

Denmark and Norway were likewise founding members of NATO. Such a decision, however, was not universally supported within both countries, which had enjoyed a long tradition of diplomatic neutrality. Indeed, discussions between Sweden, Denmark and Norway were held regarding a joint Scandinavia defensive pact that would have allowed the three nations to act as an independent

⁴⁸ "NATO Update - 1962," NATO, Accessed August 14, 2021, <https://www.nato.int/docu/update/60-69/1962e.htm>.

⁴⁹ "Iceland and NATO," Government.is, Government of Iceland, Accessed August 14, 2021, <https://www.government.is/diplomatic-missions/permanent-delegation-of-iceland-to-nato/iceland-and-nato/#:~:text=Iceland%20has%20been%20a%20member%20of%20the%20North,to%20the%20Alliance%20has%20als%20undergone%20major%20changes>.

neutral entity, thus resisting both NATO and Soviet influence. The governments of Denmark and Norway, however, feared that such a neutral organisation would leave the nations diplomatically isolated without a sufficient military force to secure the neutrality they wanted. Instead, worried about Soviet influence in their own countries following the communist coup that brought Czechoslovakia into the Soviet orbit, Denmark and Norway both signed the North Atlantic Treaty in 1949.⁵⁰



Sweden, however, chose to follow its long history of neutrality. Having never been occupied by any power during the Second World War, Sweden entered the Cold War era without any previous diplomatic pacts with either the US or USSR.⁵¹ Although it received funds from the Marshall Plan, the US program which supplied economic aid to European nations following the Second World War, Sweden officially was not a member of NATO. Nevertheless, many members of the Swedish government were worried about potential Soviet invasion, and this fear led to many close, informal

⁵⁰ "Denmark and NATO - 1949," NATO, Accessed August 14, 2021, https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/declassified_162357.htm?selectedLocale=en#:~:text=Denmark%20was%20involved%20in%20NATO's%20Northern%20Command.%20In,Norway%2C%20Denmark%2C%20the%20North%20Sea%20and%20the%20Baltic.

⁵¹ "Sweden. Some Historical Remarks," Coldwarsites, The Baltic Initiative Network, Accessed August 14, 2021, [https://coldwarsites.net/country/sweden/.](https://coldwarsites.net/country/sweden/)

links between Sweden and NATO. None of these connections, however, were made official due to fear of both the Soviet response as well as the violation of Swedish neutrality. As an officially neutral nation, Sweden pursued military independence far more than did any of the other members of the Nordic Council. As a result, the Swedish coast along the Baltic was strengthened and significant investment was made into developing a strong navy and air force. Indeed, Sweden would even attempt its own nuclear weapons program, and by the time of committee had become a major player in Cold War espionage.

Finland, on the other hand, moved in a different direction. Situated on the border with the Soviet Union and having once been a part of the Russian Empire, relations between Finland and their much larger neighbor have often been complicated.⁵² The Soviet Union, early during the Second World War, demanded annexation of regions around Leningrad, now St. Petersburg, from neutral Finland. Finnish refusal led to the Winter War of 1939, during which Finland was able to initially resist the Soviet advance, damaging Soviet military reputation. Continued conflict and Soviet military reorganisation, however, saw a reversal of fortunes for the Soviet Union as the Finnish army began to see defeats. With Finland at risk of complete Soviet occupation on one hand, and the Soviets concerned about military losses on the other, both parties concluded the conflict with the Moscow Peace Treaty, which saw Finland give up the Karelia and Salla regions. Dispute over these territories would lead Finland to cooperate with German forces during the Nazi invasion of the Soviet Union in 1941, wherein Finnish forces participated in the siege of Leningrad.⁵³ The reversal of fortunes and the Soviet counterattack once again led Finland to sign a peace treaty with the Soviet Union in 1944, reaffirming the loss of territories during the Winter War in addition to the further territory of Petsamo. At Soviet insistence, Finland then forcefully expelled German soldiers remaining in Finland in the Lapland War, concluding the final period of conflict for Finland during the Second World War.

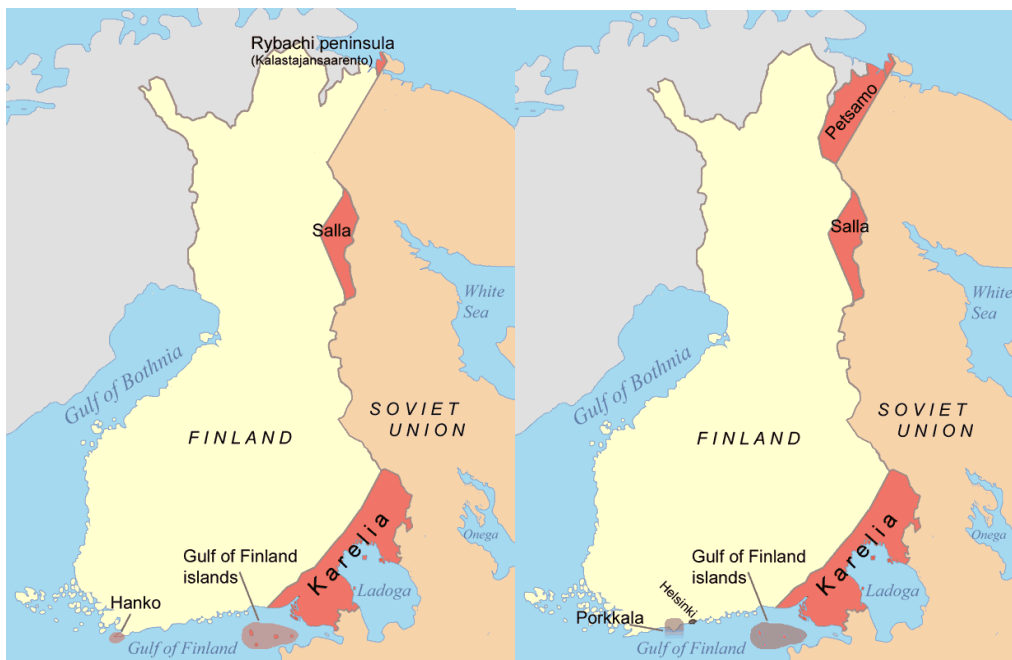
Such a complicated history with the Soviets led to a careful diplomatic balancing act, with the aim of preserving Finnish independence. Finland would refuse both the Marshall Plan aid from the United

⁵² "Finland during the Cold War – Diplomatic Balancing Act or Anxious Subordination?," University of Regensburg, Accessed August 15, 2021,

https://www.uni-regensburg.de/philosophie-kunst-geschichte-gesellschaft/geschichte-suedost-osteuropa/medien/bilder/exkursionen/helsinki-2013/essay_finlandisation.pdf.

⁵³ Geoffrey Roberts, "Why Finland Allied Itself with Nazi Germany," *The Guardian*, February 23, 2018, <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2018/feb/23/why-finland-allied-itself-with-nazi-germany>.

States and NATO membership. Instead, engaging in a policy termed by others as Finlandisation, Finland worked to ensure that their diplomacy was acceptable to the Soviet Union. However, it continued to trade with the West and refrained from empowering its own Communist Party, keeping at bay offers to join the Warsaw Pact.⁵⁴ Reparation payments to the Soviet Union established a framework for trade, and by the time of committee, Finland had become an industrialised nation on reasonably friendly terms and with established trading relations between itself and both the USSR and the West.



Strategic Importance

Each of the member nations of the Nordic Council was geographically important in the context of the Cold War, and as such, each became major considerations in the military and diplomatic strategy of both sides.

Iceland's strategic position over the Greenland-Iceland-United Kingdom (GIUK) gap made it critical in the NATO effort to limit and monitor the movements of Soviet submarines, which only grew in significance with the development of submarine-launched intercontinental ballistic missiles carrying

⁵⁴ "Warsaw Pact," Encyclopædia Britannica, Accessed August 14, 2021, <https://www.britannica.com/event/Warsaw-Pact>.

nuclear weapons.⁵⁵ Using Iceland as a base for aircraft and radar, NATO forces could ensure that, in the case of war, Soviet submarines would have great difficulty entering the Atlantic.⁵⁶ This strategic importance made Iceland a major member of NATO despite an almost complete lack of military forces. However, while the GIUK gap is key to defending northern Russia, it is also a naval choke point for the Soviet Union as well.⁵⁷



Norway maintained a large number of secure ports along the Norwegian and North Sea, and whilst it lacked any large navy, the ability to maintain naval bases so close to the Soviet Union was of major value to NATO.⁵⁸ Norway also controlled much of the coastline, meaning that the Soviet North Fleet leaving Murmansk and Archangel often had to pass through oceans easily patrolled from Norwegian

⁵⁵ "The GIUK Gap's Strategic Significance," International Institute for Strategic Studies, Accessed August 14, 2021, <https://www.iiss.org/publications/strategic-comments/2019/the-giuk-gaps-strategic-significance>.

⁵⁶ Andrew Metrick, "(Un)Mind the Gap," U.S. Naval Institute, October 30, 2019, <https://www.usni.org/magazines/proceedings/2019/october/unmind-gap>.

⁵⁷ Julianne Smith, Jerry Hendrix, and Robert D. Kaplan, "Forgotten Waters," Center for a New American Security, Accessed August 14, 2021, <https://www.cnas.org/publications/reports/forgotten-waters>.

⁵⁸ "Norway and NATO - 1949," NATO, Accessed August 14, 2021, https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/declassified_162353.htm#:~:text=Due%20to%20its%20geography%2C%20Norway%20has%20a%20huge,air%20force%2C%20an%20army%20and%20a%20Home%20Guard.

ports.⁵⁹ On the other hand, the value for Norway to become a submarine base for the Soviet Union was also considerable, as it was capable of significantly threatening NATO trans-Atlantic movement.⁶⁰

Denmark occupied the mouth of the Baltic Sea where it enters the North Sea and thus the greater Atlantic, controlling an important access point for both NATO and Soviet military vessels.⁶¹ Since the Baltic Sea is a critical sea trade lane and home to the Soviet Baltic fleet, both parties likely wish to secure control of these important straits and the islands which guard them. The Danish territory of Denmark was also home to the Thule air base, which would allow aircraft access across the Arctic to the Soviet Union, as well as to Canada and the continental United States.

Sweden's coastline along the Baltic Sea gave it significant control over the traffic in the region.⁶² With much of the Baltic Sea occupied by the Soviet Union or other Warsaw Pact members such as Poland and East Germany, Sweden is geographically positioned to be of great importance in the Cold War.

Finland shared a long border with the Soviet Union and in the south overlooks the Finnish Sea, which connected Soviet naval bases for the Baltic fleet near Leningrad to the greater Baltic. Additionally, although having lost some territory to the Soviet Union, Finland was nevertheless extremely close to many major Soviet cities and bases.

⁵⁹ Rowan Allport, "Fire and Ice: The Defence of Norway and NATO's Northern Flank," Human Security Centre, July 8, 2017, <http://www.hscentre.org/uncategorized/fire-and-ice-the-defence-of-norway-and-natos-northern-flank/>.

⁶⁰ "Norway and NATO," Norgesportalen, Accessed August 14, 2021, <https://www.norway.no/en/missions/nato/norway-nato/#:~:text=As%20a%20founding%20member%20of%20the%20North%20Atlantic,played%20an%20active%20part%20in%20the%20creation%20>.

⁶¹ "Norway and NATO - 1949," NATO, Accessed August 14, 2021, https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/declassified_162353.htm#:~:text=Due%20to%20its%20geography%2C%20Norway%20has%20a%20huge,air%20force%2C%20an%20army%20and%20a%20Home%20Guard.

⁶² "Sweden. Some Historical Remarks," Coldwarsites, The Baltic Initiative Network, Accessed August 14, 2021, <https://coldwarsites.net/country/sweden/>.



EEC and EFTA

By 1962, economic reconstruction and development had led to the formation of two trade blocs in Europe: the European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Free Trade Area (EFTA). None of the members of the Nordic Council were members of the EEC, which by 1962 was still mostly composed of Western European states. Denmark and Norway both submitted applications to the EEC in 1961, but due to distrust amongst the members of the EEC, mainly from France, both nations were rejected.⁶³ However, Norway, Denmark (with Greenland), and Sweden were members of the EFTA alongside Switzerland, Austria, Portugal, and the United Kingdom. Nevertheless, the inclination to join the EEC was present for some in all three nations, although many others feared competition with more industrialised nations such as France, Germany, and the United Kingdom.

⁶³ M. Donald Hancock, "Sweden, Scandinavia and the EEC," *International Affairs* (Royal Institute of International Affairs 1944-) 48, no. 3 (1972): 424-37. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2612718>.

Iceland and Finland were not members of either organisation, with Iceland concerned about preserving its unrestricted fishing access and Finland not willing to aggravate the Soviet Union.⁶⁴



Social Movements

Åland Islands

Sitting in the Baltic Sea between Finland and Sweden, the Åland Islands are a part of Finland that has been and has remained demilitarised after treaties in the 19th century.⁶⁵ The population is largely Swedish speaking, and so after the First World War, when Finland became independent from Russia, there was a movement for the transfer of the islands to Sweden. However, Finland refused to cede the islands, and after deliberation by the League of Nations, made the islands an autonomous part of Finland, whereby its residents would be able to enjoy and use the Swedish language. By 1962, demand for transfer of the islands to Sweden had generally ended in favour of their designation as

⁶⁴ Michael T. Skully, "Finland and the EEC: a historical economic outline of their trade relations," *Journal of Baltic Studies* 7, no. 3 (1976): 220-30. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/43210776>.

⁶⁵ Kate Middleton, "The Åland Islands," Independence Day Project, January 1, 1970, <https://independencedayproject.blogspot.com/2008/06/land-islands.html>.

an autonomous territory of Finland. At this time, the islands continue to maintain a strong independent tradition.



Greenland

At the time of committee, Greenland was considered a county within the Kingdom of Denmark. After being colonised by the Danish in the 17th century, Greenland acted as Denmark's colony for much of its history. By the end of the Second World War, the United States became interested in the region and offered to purchase the territory, a proposal which was refused. In 1953, Greenland became a full county within Denmark, and attempts towards culturally assimilating the residents of Greenland were made. These efforts have led to a growing movement towards independence from Denmark, and although full independence may seem a long way off, supporters for it on the island do exist.



Faroe Islands

The Faroe Islands are located in the North Atlantic, north-northwest of Scotland and halfway between Norway and Iceland. It is a constituent country, which means that it makes up part of a larger political entity, that being the Kingdom of Denmark. The Faroe Islands have a complicated history of being part of different countries. Between 1035 and 1814, they were part of the Kingdom of Norway. In 1814, although Norway was transferred to the Kingdom of Sweden, the Faroe Islands were not and instead remained part of the Kingdom of Denmark. It was while the Faroe Islands were part of Denmark that they established their own autonomous government in 1948. They controlled most areas of government and daily life, except for military defense, policing, justice, currency, and foreign affairs. Additionally, they had their own independent trade policies which established trade agreements with other states.



Minority cultures in the Nordic Countries

One must first define the term “minority cultures.” Whenever minority culture is brought up in this document it describes “a clearly distinguishable group or category of people who comprise less than half of a national population.”⁶⁶ Nordic countries are dominated by ethnic minorities because by “common consensus” these minorities have a distinct cultural identity recognized by both “the majority” and “the minority,” as well as a shared myth of origin based on acknowledged kinship origins. Thus, the Nordic countries are dominated by ethnic majorities - Swedes, Danes, Finns, Norwegians, and Icelanders - and all have minorities. In the time of committee, minorities everywhere faced similar problems when fitting in with the majority: their cultural identity, language, physical features, and religion were oftentimes questioned and demeaned because of these differences. Oftentimes these countries and their governments fail to recognize the diversity in their population and as a result they often fail to achieve equal treatment and equal rights in the educational and labor systems. With all that being said, the Nordic Countries are working towards an equal country for everyone. They strive to find a balance between similarity and difference, and between equal rights and the right to one’s own cultural identity. They are characterized by the

⁶⁶“Ethnic minorities in the Nordic countries,” nordics.info, Aarhus University, August 15, 2021, <https://nordics.info/show/artikel/ethnic-minorities/>.

strong role of the state and, to some extent, by their emphasis on equality. The minority groups in the Nordic countries will be broken down into the following categories: Indigenous Peoples, National Minorities, and Immigrants.

Indigenous People

The Sami people—also known as the Saami, Same, Sadme, and Lapp—are an indigenous group of people from Northern Europe inhabiting Sapmi. The Sapmi region in which they live encompasses parts of Sweden, Norway, Finland, and the Kola Peninsula. Their lifestyle is a nomadic one where hunting, fishing, and trading have been preserved.



The Sapmi region

The only indigenous group in the Nordic region are the Sami. The Sami have faced centuries of ethnic discrimination and assimilation policies from the state. These have led them to truly be a minority that wants to get more recognition from the state and have a legitimate say in the government. The language of the Sami is a topic of tension because they are not allowed to learn in

their native tongue, which is a dialect in the Uralic family of languages.⁶⁷ Attention has started to build regarding this issue as well as that of gaining political representation for the Sami minority.

National Minorities

The groups considered national minorities have a long record of residence in the Nordic countries yet remain culturally distinctive. The main national minorities are Jews (most numerous in Sweden and Denmark), Finns in Sweden and Norway (known as *kvæner* in northern Norway), Germans in southern Jutland, Denmark, and Gypsies and Romani (or travelers, formerly known as *tatere/tattare*), in Sweden, Finland, and Norway.⁶⁸ While they lack formalised linguistic and territorial rights, most national minorities are acknowledged to have been subjected to oppression in the past, and their cultural heritage is, to varying degrees, in the process of being legally protected and recognized.

Immigrants

After World War II, the Scandinavian countries, in particular Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, received a new wave of immigrants from the smaller and poorer countries who had suffered tremendously due to the post-war effects, especially with respect to labor. The largest nationality groups from this period are Turks (Denmark and Sweden), Pakistanis (Norway) and Yugoslavs (Sweden).⁶⁹ During the Second World War, in which Sweden was not directly involved, Sweden became a place of refuge for about 180,000 refugees, in particular from Finland, Norway, Estonia, Denmark, and Germany. In 1954, following the formation of the Nordic Council, Sweden, Denmark, Norway, and Iceland introduced a common labor market. Similar to the freedom of movement enjoyed by citizens of the more recently established EU, citizens of the northern European countries wishing to work in a Nordic partner country have since been able to move freely across internal borders without a work or residence permit. The agreement was also later joined by Finland. By then Sweden had developed into the North's leading economic and industrial nation. Unlike countries

⁶⁷ Hanne Hagtvedt Vik, Steven LB Jensen, Linde Lindkvist, and Johan Strang, "Histories of Human Rights in the Nordic Communities," *Nordic Journal of Human Rights* 36, no. 3 (2018). <https://doi.org/10.1080/18918131.2018.1522750>.

⁶⁸ "Ethnic minorities in the Nordic countries," *nordics.info*, Aarhus University, August 15, 2021, <https://nordics.info/show/artikel/ethnic-minorities/>.

⁶⁹ Bernd Parusel, "Historical Development of Migration to and from Sweden," *Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung*, November 26, 2015, <https://www.bpb.de/gesellschaft/migration/laenderprofile/215650/historical-development>.

such as Germany and the Netherlands, the Swedish government did not pursue a "guest worker policy," but rather assumed from the outset that immigrant workers would stay, integrate, and eventually become Swedish citizens.

Economic Issues

Now transitioning from social policies and movements in the Nordic countries, another important topic is the region's economic situation. The postwar period can be seen as the peak of a longer process: the transformation of the Nordic countries from a poor early 19th century European periphery to privileged status as some of the richest members of the Western world.

The Nordic economies had traditionally linked up with the world market through exports of staples: fish from Iceland and Norway, iron from Sweden, forest-products from Norway, Sweden and Finland, and agricultural products from Denmark. Denmark and Iceland relied on food exports, lacking industrial raw materials. In the early 20th century, it became possible to generate hydro-electric power from waterfalls; this was particularly important in Norway, where a sector of foundries (heavy melting/process-industries transforming raw material inputs to e.g., aluminum) emerged. In the 1960s, offshore oil exploration started on the Norwegian continental shelf, adding yet another energy source to Norway's economic assets. Norway here differs from the other Nordic countries: its economic development, even in the 20th century, is influenced by the discovery of new natural resources.

Denmark and Sweden had a considerably higher standard of living in the nineteenth century than Finland, Iceland, or Norway. The industrialisation of Denmark and Sweden started in the early part of the nineteenth century and became rapid in the late nineteenth century, while the other three countries' industrialisation is considered to have begun only in the latter part of the nineteenth century. Even in the late nineteenth century some Swedish companies, like SKF (originally *Svenska Kullagerfabriken*), Ericsson, *Allmänna Svenska Elektriska AB*, and Alfa Laval were world-leaders.

Denmark too was the home of several large, internationally competitive companies in the early twentieth century.⁷⁰

Up until now all the countries had a rather well-balanced economy; however, after World War I and World War II, the level of economic development became a problem as each country was in a different state regarding its industrialization and economic production. At this time, it was Sweden who was the regional industrial leader, since it was able to continue its production normally through World War II and who was able to quickly deliver many of the goods needed for postwar reconstruction. Because of this “Swedish supremacy,” the small industries of Norway and Denmark started to propose new social democratic reforms, supporting and pressuring transformation of these big industries to increase competition. However, these efforts to increase completion were futile because of the non-socialist parties and business decision-makers who tilted the balance against the proposed Nordic customs union.

Until the late 1950s, the pace of structural change was modest in all of the Nordic countries, except for Finland. The small, open Nordic economies were heavily reliant on their limited number of dominant export sectors: wood, pulp, paper, fish, and timber, as well as iron- and metal-products. In Norway, incomes from shipping services and energy-intensive raw materials also played an important role. A rather narrow range of export products had to finance increasingly varied imports, not just due to increasingly sophisticated tastes among consumers, but also due to the need for upgrading and specializing manufacturing technology. The impact of such dominant export sectors was fundamental because it required a very specific approach. This system works as follows: “Raw materials and semi-finished goods follow quite regular business cycles in the world economy. The products are mostly simple and homogenous, being traded in traditionally competitive markets. Prices are highest at the business cycle peaks. These sectors then work at full capacity, and they are led to plan for extension of capacity. Seduced by current surpluses, they ignore historical experience. As the peak turns to downturn, they are caught — thanks to their recent investment decisions — in profit squeezes and liquidity problems. They seek the help of the state, requesting moderate

⁷⁰ “Economic development in the Nordic countries,” nordics.info, Aarhus University, Accessed August 15, 2021. <https://nordics.info/show/artikel/economic-development-in-the-nordic-countries/>.

incomes policies, possibly combined with devaluations.”⁷¹ In each of the countries where this system took hold there were a few nuances, but this is the system’s most fundamental model.

⁷¹ Lars Mjøset, “The Nordic Economies, 1945-1980,” ARENA Centre for European Studies, University of Oslo, 2000, https://www.sv.uio.no/arena/english/research/publications/arena-working-papers/1994-2000/2000/wpoo_6.htm.

Character Biographies

1. Olfert Viggo Fischer Kampmann, Prime Minister, Denmark

Viggo Kampmann is the Social Democratic Prime Minister who served in multiple governments. Born in Frederiksberg, a municipality of the Copenhagen area, to a middle-class family, Kampmann was well educated by the time of his enrollment at the University of Copenhagen. Obtaining an education in economics and political science, Kampmann first served as a secretary to the newly formed Danish Tax commission until 1948. Afterwards, he served briefly as president of the Kingdom of Denmark mortgage bank, before becoming successful in politics in his own right. He was first elected to the Folketing, the Danish Parliament, in 1953, serving as Finance Minister for three separate cabinets. In 1960, following the death of the previous Prime Minister, Kampmann was made Prime Minister himself, becoming the first Danish Social Democratic Prime Minister to have come from a middle-class and educated background. Indeed, he was one of the first Social Democratic Prime Ministers with a university degree, and one of the most well-educated of all Danish Prime Ministers up to that point. As Prime Minister, Kampmann came to adopt a somewhat reserved nature and his cabinet focused on improving social welfare and health insurance within the country, although he would speak against Denmark becoming a welfare state. In foreign policy he was a strong supporter of both the Nordic Council and NATO, arguing that it was necessary for Denmark to be a member of both.

2. Jens Otto Krag, Foreign Minister, Denmark

Jens Otto Krag is the highly esteemed Social Democratic Foreign Minister for Denmark from Randers, a town that was once quite prosperous from industrialisation, but had fallen behind by the 1960s. Starting from a young age, Krag joined the Social Democratic Youth organisation in Denmark, beginning his long history of involvement with the party. After attending university and earning a degree in political science, he became a coordinator in the directorate of supply, managing labour during the Second World War. In the post-war environment, Krag was elected to the Danish parliament and became a strong proponent of the Danish transition away from strict neutrality and towards NATO in order to pursue a strong defense policy. This marked the end of the first phase of

his political career, when he resigned his seat in parliament and served as an economic advisor for the Danish Embassy to the United States of America, where he built strong foundations for future relations with the United States. His subsequent return to the Danish parliament saw his quick rise, first as a Minister without Portfolio, then Minister of Foreign Economic Affairs before finally becoming Foreign Minister. Krag is a strong supporter of building close relations with the West, especially bringing Denmark in the EEC and fostering closer ties with the United States. With his diplomatic experience and general prominence in Denmark, Krag is also not without connections to achieve this aim.

3. Hans Erling Hækkerup, Minister of Justice, Denmark

Born into a family of prominent Social Democratic leaders, Hans Hækkerup was easily able to quickly rise up the ranks into the position of Minister of Justice. Born in Ringsted in Zealand, Hans worked closely with his family and brother, becoming part of the members of the Danish Social Democrats who, after the Second World War, believed in closer diplomatic ties with the United States and Europe. However, whereas other members of his family focused more on international politics, Hans himself served almost purely within the Ministry of Justice. By the time of committee, he had served on six separate cabinets over a period of more than a decade and had amassed a significant amount of experience. With this, and his extensive familial connections, Hans will likely play a key role in managing the political structure of Denmark.

4. Hans Christian Poul Hansen, Defense Minister, Denmark

Hans Christian Poul Hansen serves as the Minister of Defense for Denmark, having held the position for more than half a decade continuously. The son of a carpenter, he initially trained to be a carpenter as well in the town of Hillerød in Zealand. However, during his apprenticeship, he became involved with the Social Democratic Youth organisation, becoming a co-founder of his local division. This marked the beginning of his transition to politics. Hans first became national chairman for the Social Democratic Youth organisation, before stepping down to become a journalist at a Social Democratic newspaper. In 1945, he was elected to the Danish Parliament, where he served in a series of Defense committees, gradually gaining prominence until he was made Minister of Defense in 1956. As Defense Minister, Hans focused on improving the system of service and volunteer training,

as well as critical defense plans against possible Soviet incursions. Hans rejected the possible placement of American nuclear weapons in Denmark but agreed to further NATO cooperation and the deployment of US soldiers in Denmark. Opposed to both Communism and reactionary conservatism, Hans seeks to find a middle path for Denmark to preserve both peace and independence.

5. Erik Eriksen, Member of Parliament and Leader of Opposition, Denmark

Erik Eriksen is the leader and representative of the Liberal Party called Venstre who, at the time of committee, was the main opposition party against the Social Democratic Party in Denmark. The Venstre party, initially an agrarian organization made by peasants to combat the greater political power of rich landowners, had gradually shifted towards a more general free-market stance. Nevertheless, much of its traditional farmer support base remained through the transition. Indeed, Erik himself was a farmer. Erik served as Prime Minister of Denmark between 1950 and 1953, adopting a variety of reforms on land, both agricultural and urban. Additionally, Erik was also a prime supporter of the Nordic Council during his time as Prime Minister, even becoming its president in 1956. However, the Venstre party suffered a series of political splits, which gradually weakened its support base, allowing the Social Democratic party to maintain a majority in government ever since. Erik Eriksen will likely either prove to be a figure critical in bridging the gap between the government and opposition in Denmark, or the person who will finally unite Danish opposition parties to bring down the dominant position of the Social Democrats.

6. Martti Juhani Miettunen, Prime Minister, Finland

Martti Juhani Miettunen is the Agrarian Party Prime Minister for Finland. Born into a Finnish farming family, Martti initially trained to become a farmer and an agricultural specialist. After inheriting some land from his family and working as an agricultural specialist for a brief period, Martti eventually became a member of the Agrarian Party, quickly being elected to the Parliament in 1945 near the end of the Second World War. He would serve as a member of Parliament, during which time he held positions related to Transport and Public Works, before briefly becoming Minister of Finance in 1957. In 1958, he was appointed as the Governor of the province of Lapland, the largest Finnish province by area in the Northernmost region of the country. A native himself of the region,

Martti worked to improve the economic situation of a generally rural area. In 1961, however, he was appointed Prime Minister as well, beginning a close relationship with the President of Finland, Urho Kekkonen, a fellow member of the Agrarian party. Martti is a supporter of the current Finnish strategy to maintain Finnish independence by appeasing both the USSR and NATO and will play a critical role in helping Finland maneuver through the difficult diplomacy ahead.

7. Johan Otto Söderhjelm, Minister of Justice, Finland

Johan Otto Söderhjelm is the Minister of Justice with an extensive legal career. Born into a middle-class Finnish family, Johan moved through his law education quickly, earning the position of an associate judge in 1925 and becoming a Doctor of Law in 1928. After serving as a Helsinki lawyer and then as a Parliamentary Ombudsman, a position similar to the Chancellor of Justice, Johan stepped down into the private sector. There, he would take up many positions, including representative for the Finnish Confederation of Wood Process Industries, Chief Executive Officer of a Finnish Nickel mine, and a member of the board of Directors of the Gulf Oil Corporation, one of the largest global oil companies at the time. Johan also served as the chairman of the board for ABB, a Swedish-Swiss industrial group. During his illustrious career in the private sector, Johan also returned to Finnish politics where he was a member of the Finnish Parliament, serving in the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Finance. Johan was a supporter of the continued demilitarisation of the Åland islands and made many trips to Moscow during his lengthy career. Importantly, Johan participated in the negotiations that would eventually lead to the treaty of peace and friendship signed between the Soviet Union and Finland at the end of the Second World War.

8. Ahti Kalle Samuli Karjalainen, Foreign Minister, Finland

Ahti Kalle Samuli is the Agrarian Party Foreign Minister of Finland. Ever since his appointment into the Finnish government by President Urho Kekkonen, the two have worked closely, sharing a similar outlook for the need to appease the Soviet Union for the sake of Finnish independence. Ahti served as the Minister of Trade and Industry briefly from 1959 to 1961 before moving to a new position as Foreign Minister in 1961. In addition to this, however, Ahti also held a position in the private sector, working for the Bank of Finland. Using his background in monetary policy, he was initially a director for the Bank's financial research division, before being made a member of the Board of Management

in 1958. As such, Ahti has an interesting mix of experience, both in the private and public sectors, whilst the connections to the Finnish President make him likely a key player for deciding the future of Finland, as well as that of the greater Nordic region.

9. Edvard Björkenheim, Defense Minister, Finland

Edvard Björkenheim was perhaps an interesting choice for Minister of Defense. A dedicated member of the Agrarian Party which held power in Finland at the time of committee, Edvard was initially purely focused on agriculture. Born into a family of farmers, Edvard initially trained professionally to become a farmer. However, his involvement in local politics and support for the Agrarian party eventually led to him being awarded the title of Agricultural Councilor in 1953, which gave him some prominence. This marked his political rise that saw him become Chairman of the Agricultural Society in the following year, and his appointment as Minister of Defense in 1958. Edvard has now served in two consecutive governments, and while the relative peace of the era has meant Finland needed to see no military action, the coming tense political period will likely prove a great test to Edvard's ability and skill.

10. Karl-August Fagerholm, Member of Parliament and Leader of Opposition, Finland

Karl-August Fagerholm is a member of the opposition Social Democratic party and one of the leading political figures in Finland at the time. He was born into a Swedish-speaking working-class family, and after a brief early political position as chairman of the Barber's Union, became a member of the Finnish Parliament in 1930. There he worked for the rehabilitation of the Social Democratic party, which due to its alignment with other more radical left-wing parties had seen scrutiny by the recently victorious conservative White Finnish government. This eventually culminated in Karl-August Fagerholm being made a member of the cabinet, as the Minister for Social Affairs in 1937. He was a strong proponent of a neutral foreign policy, aiming to avoid antagonising the Soviet Union. The outbreak of the Winter War and Finland's participation in it put him on the sidelines for much of the wartime period. However, in the post-war era, Fagerholm came to become a major political player in Finland in his new position as the leader of the Social Democratic Party. Fagerholm, although generally opposed to Soviet influence, had better relations with the USSR and thus faced less opposition in forming his first few governments. Interestingly, Fagerholm also maintained good

relations with the US embassy in Helsinki and, through his Swedish-speaking roots championed a potential military defense pact covering Finland, Sweden, and the rest of the Nordic nations. Nevertheless, after narrowly losing the 1956 Presidential vote to the Agrarian party leader Urho Kekkonen, the Social Democrats seem to perhaps be once more on the decline, a clear challenge with which Fagerholm will have to contend.

11. Bjarni Benediktsson, Minister of Justice, Iceland

Bjarni Benediktsson serves as the Minister of Justice for Iceland and comes from a family with a history of supporting Icelandic politics. Bjarni's father was the leader of the Icelandic Independence movement and served as a prominent member of the Icelandic Independence Party during Bjarni's childhood. This would prove to be a significant influence on Bjarni, who after studying constitutional law took up a teaching position at the University of Iceland in 1932. However, he would enter politics in his own right two years later, first becoming a member of the city council of Reykjavík in 1934 and then the city's Mayor in 1940. He would serve as the mayor of the capital of Iceland through the period of the Second World War, during which German occupation of Denmark led to the declaration of independence of Iceland. Following independence and the founding of the Republic, Bjarni became a member of the newly formed Icelandic cabinet in 1947, serving as Foreign Minister. During this time, Bjarni became known for his controversial push for Icelandic entry into NATO and for the leasing of a strategic airbase near the capital to the United States. This and other factors led to a period of political weakness for the Independence party in 1956, during which Bjarni served as an editor for a major Icelandic conservative newspaper. Yet by 1959, Bjarni was once more in government, serving as Minister of Justice. With a long history of experience in various branches of government, and a position that emphasises both Icelandic independence and cooperation with NATO, the coming times will be full of possibilities for Bjarni.

12. Ólafur Tryggvason Thors, Prime Minister, Iceland

Ólafur Tryggvason Thors serves as the Prime Minister of Iceland, leading a coalition government of both his own Independence party members and Social Democrats. Born into a family of entrepreneurs, Ólafur attended High School in Iceland but moved to Denmark to be educated in Copenhagen. However, after only one semester, Ólafur returned to Iceland and ran the profitable

family fishing company with his brother. This led Ólafur to become a member of the Trawler's Owner's Association in Iceland - which represented the critical fishing industry in Iceland - marking the beginning of a long political career. In 1925, Ólafur became a member of the Icelandic Parliament, before then serving as Minister of Justice in 1932 and Minister of Communications in 1939, during which time he was also a member of the Board of Directors for a major Icelandic bank. In 1942, Ólafur took on the dual positions of Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs. Ólafur would serve in both positions through the Second World War, during which Iceland declared independence from Denmark. Following the war, Ólafur's first term as Prime Minister would end, and from 1947 to 1948 he served as a representative of Iceland to the United Nations. Returning from the UN, Ólafur continued to serve as Prime Minister for various Icelandic governments, also briefly serving as Minister of Industries from 1950 to 1953.

13. Guðmundur Ívarsson Guðmundsson, Foreign Minister, Iceland

Guðmundur Ívarsson Guðmundsson is the Icelandic Minister of Foreign Affairs with a long and extensive career. After obtaining a law degree in 1934 and serving as an attorney for the Supreme Court in 1939, Guðmundur initially began his career in legal practice. In 1945, however, Guðmundur was elected as the mayor of Hafnarfjörður, and ten years later as a Bailiff in Kópavogskaupstaður, during which he became a member of Parliament. As a member of Parliament, Guðmundur worked on various tax and labour reform programs. His entry into the Icelandic cabinet began with his first appointment as Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1956 until 1958, only to be reappointed nineteen days later in 1958 as Minister of Foreign Affairs and Finance. In this position, Guðmundur made the critical contribution as a representative for Iceland to the United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea, which Iceland, heavily reliant on its fishing industries, saw as particularly important. In 1959, Guðmundur returned to his old position as Minister of Foreign Affairs, serving the new coalition government. With nearly half a decade of experience in foreign politics, Guðmundur is keenly aware of the political position of Iceland and will likely be a major player in the coming political period.

14. Emil Jónsson, Member of Parliament and Leader of Opposition, Iceland

Emil Jónsson is a member of Parliament and the leader of the Social Democratic Party. Although not strictly an opposition party, sitting alongside the Independence Party in a coalition government,

Emil's Social Democratic Party maintained its independence as a separate party, holding its own political agenda. Emil himself was born into a working-class family. After moving briefly to Copenhagen for his engineering degree, Emil returned to Iceland in 1926 to serve as an engineer in the town of Hafnarfjörður, where he would be then elected mayor in 1930. Additionally, during this time he founded a vocational school in Hafnarfjörður for engineers, and was its principal until 1944—a position he would hold even while he pursued a long political career. In 1934, Emil joined the Icelandic Parliament and became the Director of Lighthouses and Port Affairs in 1937. After serving as Minister of Transport and Commerce for several years beginning in 1947, Emil became both speaker for the parliament and leader of his own party in 1956. Briefly becoming Prime Minister from 1958 to 1959, Emil oversaw labour and agricultural reforms that improved wages and working conditions. However, the rise of the Social Democratic Party stagnated afterwards, and Emil resigned in 1959 to serve as Minister of Fisheries in the newly formed coalition government with the Independence party. Emil is a passionate politician with a close connection to the people he serves. Heavily focused on internal politics and economic conditions, Emil and the Social Democratic Party aims to help Iceland develop a stronger economy and is less concerned with foreign entanglements.

15. Einar Henry Gerhardsen, Prime Minister, Norway

Einar Henry Gerhardsen is the Prime Minister of Norway who belongs to the Labour Party of Norway. Gerhardsen is well loved by Norwegians, they often refer to him as the "Landsfaderen," which translates to "Father of the Nation," since he is considered to be one of the main architects of the post-war rebuilding of Norway after WWII. In addition to his role as Prime Minister, he served as the second President of the Nordic Council in 1954. Gerhardsen was born in the municipality of Asker to a humble family. His father was a rodesmester and a foreman of the trade communion union. Gerhardsen has always been involved to a certain degree in politics and social movements, whether that be with friends of his father or with the Labour Party's Youth Movement. This would later come to impact his life, especially when he was a road worker, for it was here that he became politically active in the socialist labour movement during the 1920s. In 1932, Gerhardsen was elected to Oslo city council, and he became the city's deputy mayor in 1938. After the German occupation in 1940, he became the acting Chairman of the Labour Party but was forced to resign since no political parties were allowed. During and after his periods in office, Gerhardsen was greatly respected by the

people: even by those who did not share his democratic views. Poverty and unemployment were sharply reduced by his government's policies of industrialisation and redistribution of wealth through progressive taxation, together with the creation of a comprehensive social security system.

16. John Daniel Lyng, Conservative Opposition, Norway

John Daniel Lyng is a Norwegian conservative party politician. Lyng was born in Trondheim to a merchant family. During his student years Lyng was active in the leftist *Mot Dag* student group, and his time in Germany in the early 1930s gave him a strong dislike of totalitarian movements. Before and after World War II he worked as a lawyer and a judge. He joined the Norwegian resistance movement during the occupation of Norway by Nazi Germany. Lyng was originally a member of the Free-minded Liberal Party, heading the local party chapter from 1934 to 1935. He was a member of the executive committee of the Trondheim city council from 1934 to 1940 and in 1945, but had changed to the Conservative Party in 1938, heading the party chapter in Trondheim until 1947. He was then elected to the Norwegian parliament in 1945 and was later reelected in 1949.

17. Helge Sivertsen, Minister of Education and Church Affairs, Norway

Helge Sivertsen was born in Mandal in Vest-Agder, Norway to a humble family. His father was a college professor, and from a young age he appreciated the subjects of history and politics. It was History that he went on to study at the University of Oslo. During the occupation of Norway by Germany he was a member of Milorg, which was the main Norwegian resistance movement during WWII. Resistance work included intelligence gathering, sabotage, supply-missions, raids, espionage, transport of goods imported to the country, release of Norwegian prisoners, and escort for citizens fleeing the border to neutral Sweden. After the liberation of Norway in 1945, he became secretary of the Military Investigation Commission of 1945. Sivertsen pursued a career in politics and was secretary to the Prime Minister Einar Gerhardsen in 1947, state secretary to the Minister of Education and Church Affairs from 1947 to 1956, and Minister of Education and Church Affairs from 1960. He was also a Norwegian school administrator who served as the director of education in Oslo, Akershus, and Ostfold from 1956 to 1960. In addition to all of his positions in government he was a gifted athlete, who was the discus champion at the 1936 Berlin Summer Olympics. His political affiliation was the Labour Party.

18. Halvard Manthey Lange, Foreign Minister, Norway

Halvard Manthey Lange is a Norwegian politician belonging to the Labour Party. He is very involved with the daily occurrences of the party since he sits on its central board, a position he has held since 1945. Lange has also been a teacher and lecturer in the past, particularly at the University of Oslo. In addition to his central position in the Labour Party and academic background, he has served as the Minister of Foreign Affairs since 1946. In fact, it was Lange who signed the NATO agreement for Norway when it was concluded between twelve countries in Washington D.C. in 1949. Like many other Norwegian political figures during German occupation, he was against the occupation and was arrested various times because of his anti-German manifestations. In August of 1940, Lange was arrested by the German occupation authorities and imprisoned for almost a year. In the summer of 1942 he was arrested again, and in February 1943 he was sent to the Sachsenhausen concentration camp in Germany, where he remained in various concentration camps until the end of the war (1945).

19. Gudmund Harlem, Defense Minister, Norway

Gudmund Harlem is a Norwegian physician and politician for the Labour Party. He has been serving as the Norwegian Minister of Social Affairs since 1955. He was born in Kristiania, Norway to a middle-class family. Due to the German occupation, he fled the country for Sweden in 1943 and stayed there until the end of World War II. In the autumn of 1945, he became the leader of the Norwegian Students' Society. He was hired as a physician at Statens Attføringsinstitutt in 1946 and was promoted to chief physician in 1953. His political life, however, started much before his life in medicine. His first steps into politics were in 1934, when he became a member of the revolutionary group called Mot Dag, the revolutionary group that started in the 1920s and continued until the 1930s, which group today would be considered to be affiliated with the Labour Party. After his involvement with the group, he became a member of the Labour Party and sat on the Oslo city council from 1945 to 1947. He then sat on the school district board from 1948 to 1955, before serving as a member of the central committee of the Workers' Youth League from 1946 to 1949 and of the International Union of Socialist Youth board from 1946 to 1951. From 1949 to 1957, he was a deputy

member of the Labour Party's central committee, and he was deputy chairman of the Oslo branch from 1952 to 1957.

20. Tage Fritjof Erlander, Prime Minister, Sweden

Tage Fritjof Erlander has been the Prime Minister of Sweden since 1946 and is the leader of the Sweden Social Democratic Party. He rose to power upon the death of the Prime Minister Per Albin Hansson in October 1946, maintaining the position of the Social Democrats as the dominant party in the country. Known for his moderation, pragmatism and self-irony, Erlander often sought approval from the liberal-conservative opposition for his policies, *de facto* dropping all pretense of wide-scale nationalizations whilst introducing reforms such as universal health insurance, pension additions and a growing public sector, although stopping short of raising tax levels above the average OECD levels at the time. Until the 1960s, income taxes were lower in Sweden than in the United States. For most of his time in power, Erlander ran a minority government of the Social Democrats. The Social Democrats held a majority of seats in the upper house for most of this time, thus allowing Erlander to remain in power after the 1956 general election when the right-wing parties won a majority. In foreign policy, after unsuccessfully seeking an alliance of Nordic countries, he instead maintained strict neutrality while building up one of the most impressive armed forces in the world, surpassed only by the United States, the Soviet Union and Israel in terms of per-capita spending. This made the Swedish Air Force the third largest in the world, although ultimately rejecting nuclear capability. Erlander's mandate coincided with the post-World War II economic expansion, in Sweden known as the record years, in which Sweden saw its economy grow to one of the ten strongest in the world, subsequently joining the G10.

21. Herman Kling, Minister of Justice, Sweden

Herman Kling is a Swedish diplomat and politician who has been serving as the Minister of Justice and ambassador to Denmark and Portugal since 1959. Herman Kling was born in Västanfors as the son of the merchants. He graduated with a bachelor's degree in law in 1938 and became a notary in the same year. From 1944 through 1945, he was an expert at Stockholm City Hall Court and then became temporary head of the law office. In 1947 he ended up at the Ministry of Agriculture as head of expedition until 1950, when he was appointed State Secretary in the Ministry of Civil Affairs. In

1956, Kling became Director General and Head of the State Office. Kling was also chairman of the National Debt Council from 1952–1956, Deputy Chairman of the Swedish General Mortgage Bank from 1954–1957, and board member of AB Atomenergi (a nuclear power installations company) from 1956.

22. Bo Östen Undén, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Sweden

Bo Östen Undén is a Swedish academic, civil servant, and Social Democratic politician who served as acting Prime Minister of Sweden from October 6th to 11th in 1946, following the death of Per Albin Hansson. His resume is extensive—starting with being the Minister for Foreign Affairs of Sweden from 1924–1926 and since 1945, served as the government's chancellor for universities from 1937–1951, and chair of the parliament's committee on foreign relations during World War II. Undén is much respected, particularly within the Social Democratic Party, but was never uncontroversial. He belonged, together with Ernst Wigforss, clearly to the left-wing faction of the Social Democrats, and has been criticised for a much too optimistic view of the Soviet Union. At the same time, Undén must be acknowledged as a chief representative for Sweden's secret Cold War adaptation to the United States; in his view Swedish governmental agencies, including the Defense Forces, were free to conclude any agreements with foreign powers and agencies that did not contradict international treaties to which Sweden was a party, as long as he and his ministry were not formally involved. As an effect, the Swedish government could even, before the founding of NATO, agree to build air bases in eastern Scandinavia suitable for bombing missions against Leningrad, an important city in Russia.

23. Sven Olof Morgan Andersson, Minister of Defense, Sweden

Sven Olof Morgan Andersson is a Swedish Social Democratic politician who has been serving as the Minister of Defense since 1957. He is considered by many to have played a prominent role in the Swedish Social Democrats' fight against communism during the post-war period. Before his involvement in politics, he had a lot of manual jobs, working as a book trade assistant, a bookbinding apprentice, and a carpenter. From 1934–1940, he was a member of the federal board of the Swedish Social Democratic Youth League (SSU), in addition to having spells as secretary and chairman of the Swedish Social Democratic Youth Union in the Gothenburg district. He became a member of the

Gothenburg City Council in 1939, serving as a member of the second chamber between 1941 and 1944 and of the first chamber from 1948. In 1947 he was one of the initiators of the formation of Folkreklam, which later became the ARE companies, an advertising company.

24. Nils Olof Thorbjörn Fälldin, Opposition Representative, Sweden

Nils Olof Thorbjörn Fälldin is a Swedish politician belonging to the Centre Party in Sweden. He was born into a small agrarian family of farmers and in 1956, he and his wife took over a small farm. However, the farming authorities did not approve the purchase, as the farm was considered too small and too run down for production, and so refused to provide farm subsidies. This fight led him into the youth branch of the Swedish agrarian party Farmers' League (Bondeförbundet), which in 1958 changed its name to the Centre Party. It was because of his personal involvement with his farm that he gained popularity and in 1958 was elected to the Swedish Riksdag as a representative of the agrarian-rooted Centre Party. He was not one to allow others to control him, but still maintained friendly relations with all people, as he was willing to listen to all opinions.

25. Peter Mohr Dam, Prime Minister, Faroe Islands

Peter Mohr Dam is the Prime Minister of the Faroe Islands; he has just recently taken office in 1959. Before his rise as Prime Minister he has always been an avid participant in the political sphere of the Faroe Islands. He is considered one of the founders of the Social Democratic Party—or in Faroese, the *Javnaðarflokkurin*, which literally translates to the Equality Party. He has served as the Chairman of this party since 1936. Before becoming Prime Minister, he served as the mayor of the town of Tvøroyri from 1934-1957. In addition, he served as a representative of the Danish parliament, also known as Danish Folketing, from 1948 to 1957, as one of only two Faroese members. As a result, he has formed many Danish connections in addition to Faroese ones.

26. Erlendur Patursson, Representative, Faroe Islands

Erlendur Patursson is a Faroese politician and writer. He was born in Kirkjubøur, and his father was a nationalist leader and representative in the Danish Parliament. Patursson came up with the idea for the Nordic House in the Faroe Islands. In the Nordic Council he pushed for Greenlandic

independence as well as independence for Åland. He was one of the founders of *Tjóðveldisflokkurin*, the Faroese Republican Party, in 1948. The Republicans are a left-wing Faroese political party in favor of national independence from Denmark. He has also been a member of the Løgting since 1958. He also has expertise in fishing and finance, which he hopes to parlay into policy that will bolster the Faroe Islands.

27. Knud Ludvig Johannes Hertling, Minister, Greenland

Knud Ludvig Johannes Hertling, more commonly known as Knud Hertling, is the Minister for Greenland. Hertling graduated from the Metropolitan School in 1949 and, after a period as a fellow at the United Nations in 1952, received his law degree in 1956 in Copenhagen and was then employed as a secretary in the Ministry for Greenland. As a minister, Hertling is very active in promoting a Greenlandic desire for home rule; he wants to see Greenland be its own country with its own rights. Since he is the first Greenlandic minister for Denmark, he is determined to represent his people on a regional and international scale.

28. Elis Andersson, Representative, Åland

Elis Andersson is a Swedish journalist, literary critic, and theater critic. Andersson graduated from the University of Gothenburg with a degree in Latin in 1907, a bachelor's degree in Philosophy in 1911, and a licentiate degree in Philosophy from the University of Gothenburg in 1913. Andersson was a contributor to the weekly *Hvar 8 Dag*, the monthly magazine *Varia*, and to *Göteborgs-Posten* over the course of half a century as a theater and literature critic. He was also active in the scout movement, where he was a member of the Swedish Scout Council. He was a member of the Independent Party, which he coupled with his academic background in his political endeavours.

29. Atos Kasimir Wirtanen, Representative, Åland

Atos Kasimir Wirtanen is a Finnish left-wing intellectual, journalist, member of Finnish parliament from 1936 through 1953, and cultural critic. He was born in Saltvik, Åland. Wirtanen rose to parliament from the Social Democratic Party of Finland (SDP) list, but in 1946 he defected to the Finnish People's Democratic League (SKDL). Wirtanen was also active in the Socialist Unity Party

(SYP) and served as its chairman from 1948 to 1955. In 1955 he led the SYP out of the SKDL. Wirtanen published two memoirs: *Mot mörka makter* (*Against Dark Force*) and *Political Memoirs*. He also published several collections of aphorisms and other literary works. He was also married to a dance artist: he truly enjoyed the arts.

Glossary

Basing Rights: A concession made by one sovereign nation to another that allows the other nation to maintain bases - air, naval, land or otherwise - within their own territory.

Grand Duchy: The official designation for Finland under the Russian Empire. The territory was marked as distinct from Russia itself, and it would operate under its own laws and political system. However, the Russian Emperor was still its head of state as the Grand Duke.

Intelligentsia: The class of the educated peoples engaged in academics, education, art or other media.

Lutheranism: A branch of Protestantism of the Christian faith following the ideas of Martin Luther. Particularly dominant in regions such as North Germany and Scandinavia.

Nordic: A geographic designation that covers Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Iceland, and additional island territories in the North Sea.

Personal Union: A union caused by two or more states coming to share a single monarch. However, states under a personal union can remain largely separate and independent of one another. Should the states come to have different monarchs, such as due to inheritance laws or revolt, the personal union ends.

Runic Language: A set of characters used by various German and Nordic languages for writing.

Scandinavia: A geographic designation that includes Denmark, Norway and Sweden, but not other Nordic regions like Iceland or Finland.

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