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# Sweden

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NATIONAL INTELLIGENCE SURVEY

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The Society

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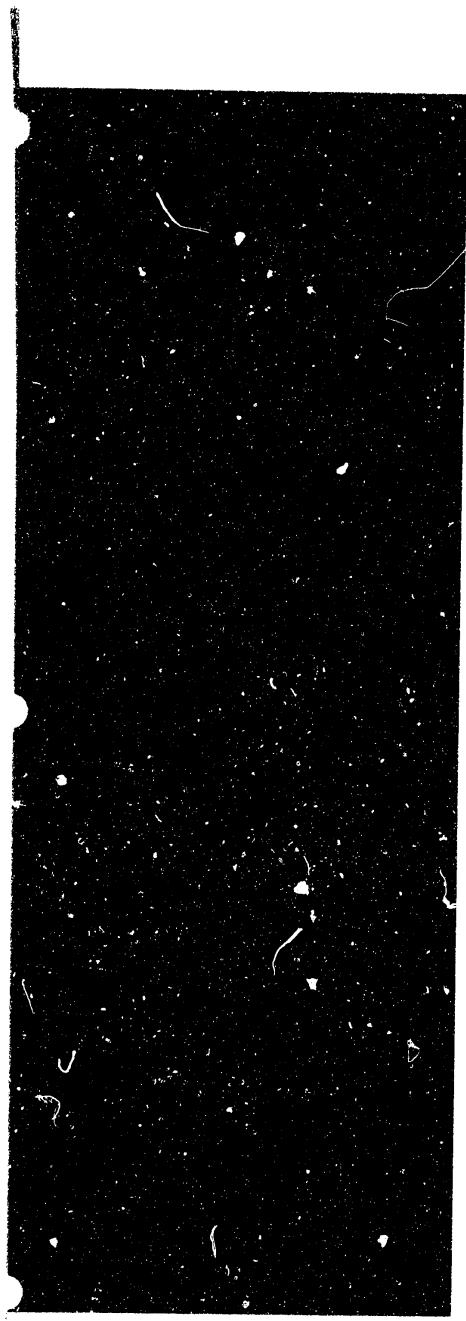
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*This chapter was prepared for the NIS by the Central Intelligence Agency. Research was substantially completed by November 1972.*



# SWEDEN

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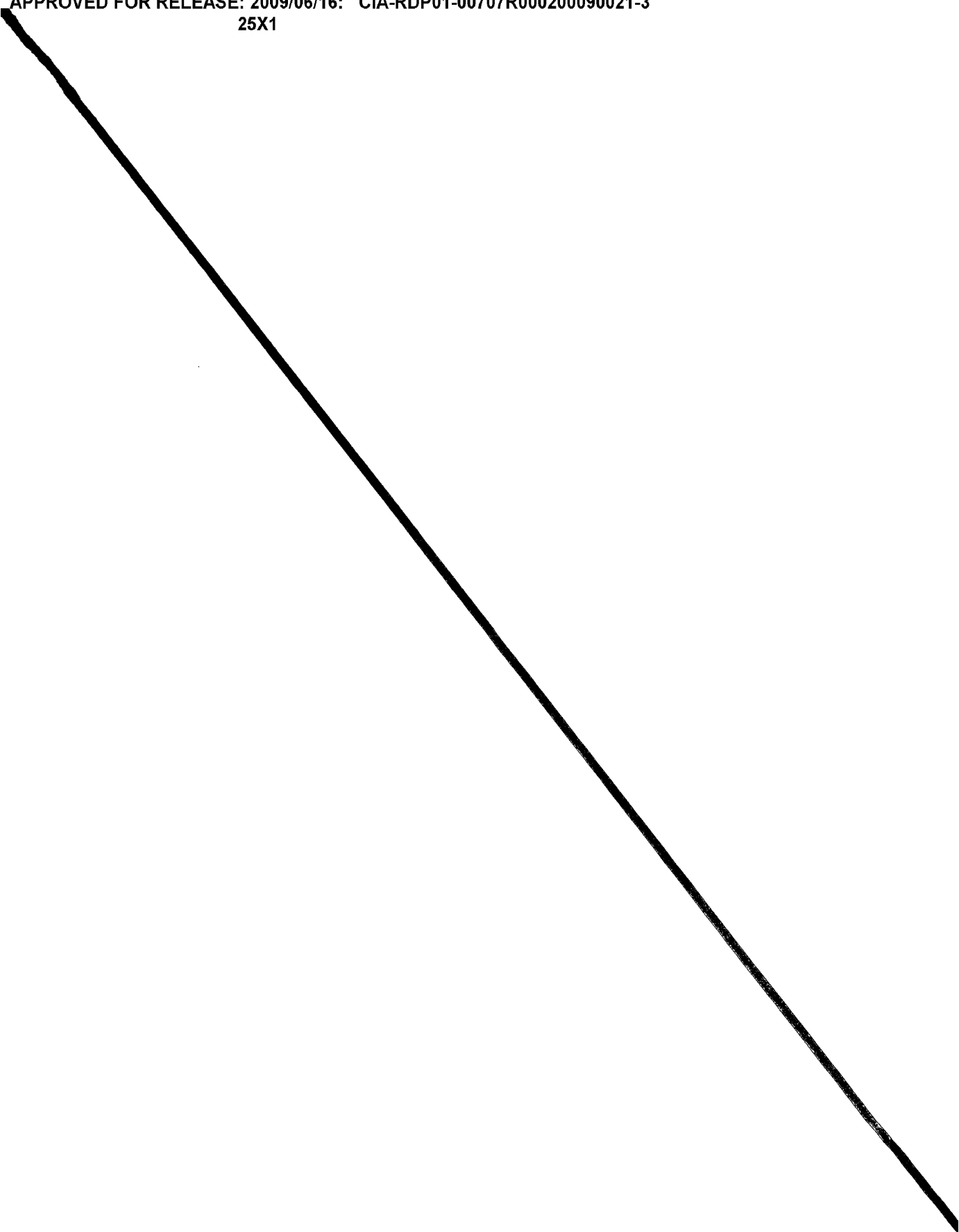
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democracy help to guide the affairs of a free enterprise economy for the benefit of a state-directed welfare society. Geographic isolation and the insulating effect it had on Swedish social development during the medieval and early modern era enabled the society to avoid most of the abuses associated with feudalistic Europe to the south and east. The impact of the social and industrial revolutions was therefore less disruptive in Sweden than in most other countries of Europe, because the privileged classes were not so firmly entrenched and determined to protect their interests, and there was no severely oppressed peasant class overly anxious to migrate to the cities. Existing rural population pressures in the latter part of the 19th century found relief through emigration—principally to North America. During this period the essential decentralization of Swedish industry and consequent reduced pace of urbanization, the establishment of a pervasive public welfare system in step with the accelerated industrialization of the 20th century, plus the avoidance, or at least minimization, of wartime disturbances during the modern era further mitigated the shock of far-reaching socioeconomic change.

Although Swedish society has remained decentralized and has retained many values and attitudes associated with rural life, it is essentially industrial, with a highly skilled and productive labor force, over 90% of which is employed in nonagricultural pursuits. Because industrialization came relatively late, management and government leaders profited from the experience of the United Kingdom and Germany and anticipated many of the difficulties associated with augmented labor forces in congested urban areas. The agitation of the growing Social Democratic Party in the 1890's and early part of the 20th century for legislation protecting labor was met by the business leaders and other conservative government elements with relatively enlightened labor codes.

Relations between employers and workers never became as severely strained as in some other Western democratic nations—notably France. The period of greatest tension, principally over labor's right to organize and its socialist doctrine, ended shortly after the abortive general strike of 1909. Labor became a force in politics with the extension during the same year (1909) of the suffrage to nearly all adult males. Labor's political arm, the Social Democratic Labor Party, helped obtain the extension of basic civic rights to all sections of the population in 1921 with the full exercise of universal suffrage (introduced in 1919). By 1928 the government recognized the binding force of labor-management agreements, and general long-term labor peace was achieved by the late 1930's through

agreements on negotiating procedures between the central trade union and employer federations.

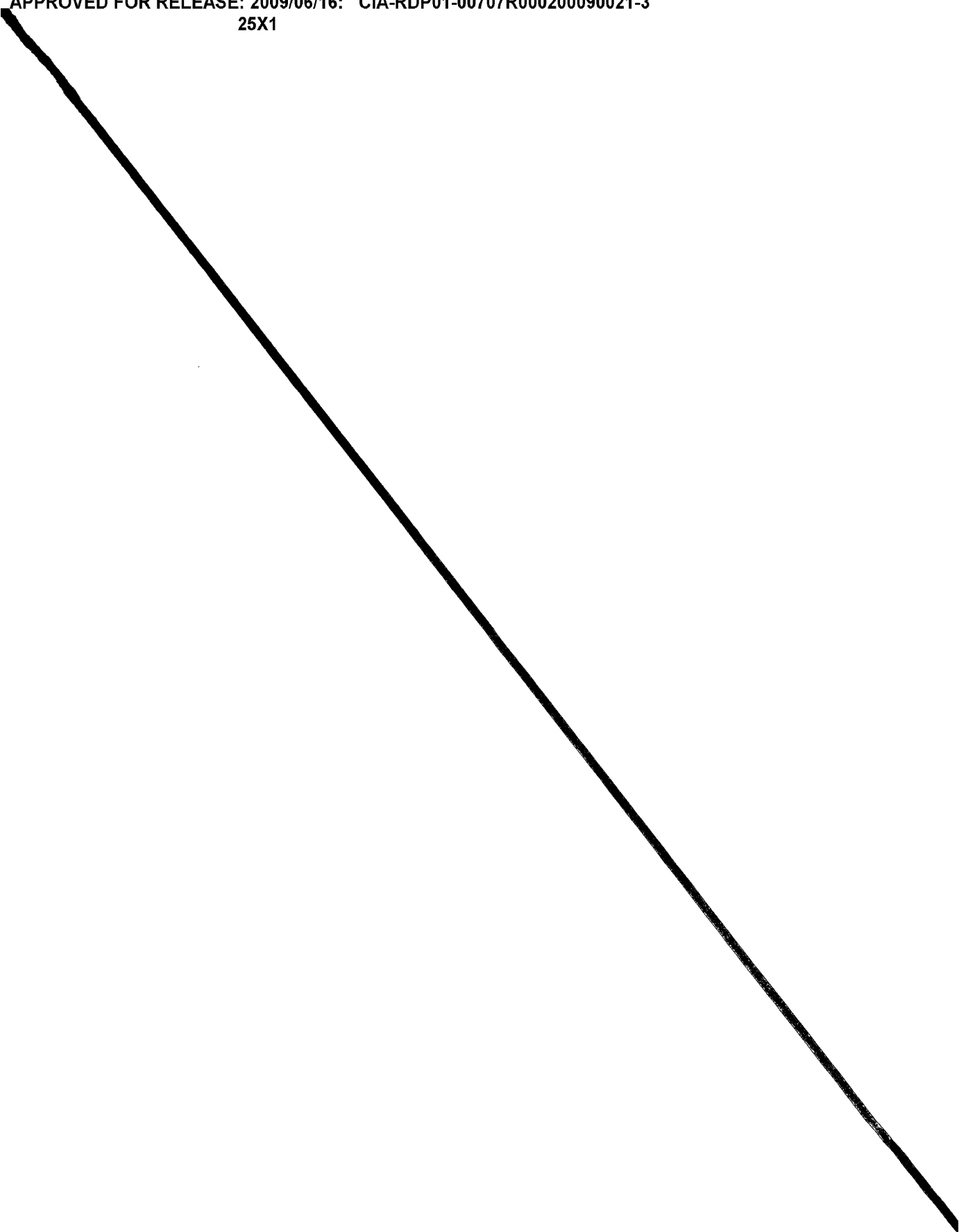
Continued adherence of socialist working class leaders to democratic practices and the Swedish habit of moderation in domestic politics have encouraged the use of peaceful methods for reconciling conflicting interests. The concept of extensive governmental social responsibility received general acceptance, and organized labor, the principal exponent of such doctrine, became politically dominant in the 1930's. Powerful national organizations representing capital, labor, agrarian interests, and others have since come to play a major role in promoting group objectives. Partly because industrialization came more slowly to Sweden and partly because the labor movement turned from revolutionary to democratic socialism at an early date, there was never any important hostility to a free enterprise economy, and negotiation between different interest groups has been noted for its successful spirit of mutual accommodation. The practice of compromise has been most highly developed in labor-management relations. Disputes rarely require utilization of government facilities, and then only for purposes of mediation and judicial interpretation of contracts.

Swedish society, through the government, has acted to reduce extremes of wealth as well as to assume responsibility for the consequences of individual adversity. The objectives of social policy over the past three decades have been to raise standards of living (now among the highest in the world), improve the already high health standards, expand existing social welfare programs, and enlarge the population. While this policy commands the support of an overwhelming majority of Swedes, there has been some criticism by conservative elements that such elaborate social measures tend to discourage initiative and risk-taking and may undermine the self-reliance of the people.

The "subservience" of the orderly Swede to the omnipresent state bureaucracy has inspired some adverse commentary by foreign observers. They note, albeit somewhat less critically, a similar acquiescence in the authority of an efficient civil service in neighboring Denmark, Norway, the Netherlands, and to a degree in West Germany. The remarkable freedom of cultural expression throughout the area, however, as usually seen in books and journals, in the cinema, and on television, is hardly a sign of moral, spiritual, or intellectual regimentation.

In Sweden, nonetheless, it is not easy to oppose the prevalent radical-chic lines on a few specific topics, notably Vietnam, national independence movements, and race relations. Here, there is in fact a notable

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## 2. Lingering class stratification

The sharp socioeconomic cleavages associated with the industrial revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries never fully developed in Sweden. Since many of the new factories, which came relatively late to Sweden, were dispersed in the countryside and in small towns, the massive migration to the towns and cities that characterized industrialization in Europe to the south did not occur. Class differences initially accentuated by the more moderate population movements blurred again with the rapid development of the comprehensive welfare system during the present century. A traditional relative egalitarianism, fostered in part by the historic absence of great landed wealth, was similarly stimulated in modern times. Whereas the crown retained title to the choice lands in an earlier period, allowing the nobility to maintain its privileged position largely through service to the state, the new industrial barons were prevented from acquiring too much independent wealth and hence personal power through the early imposition of the progressive income tax. Other factors militating against the development of sharply defined social classes in modern times are the political strength of the industrial workers, stemming from a powerful, well-organized trade union movement; the traditionally respected position held by farmers as a class; and a level of living second to none in Europe and dispersed with remarkable evenness among all elements. Many sons of small farmers have risen to influential positions within the church and in the school system, and a number of individuals in the working class have attained positions of political prominence as the result of capabilities for leadership developed in the labor movement.

At the same time an attitude of exclusiveness still pervades the essentially industrial upper class, whose ranks include members of the old aristocracy. The extent to which some class consciousness lingers with all Swedes is perhaps reflected in the continued popularity of the monarchy as an institution. It was also seen as recently as the 1950's in the official breakdown of lists of persons entitled to vote for the now defunct Upper House of the old *Riksdag*. The register was divided into three social groups: upper class (approximately 5%), middle class (approximately 40%), and manual workers' class (approximately 55%), with roughly the same economic and educational affiliations as elsewhere in Western Europe. The somewhat exaggerated attachment to social leveling evident in the 1960's and 1970's not only put an end to such official classifications, but also

has tended to foster attitudes of envy, with the result that a mild jealousy of the material well-being and success of others has become a rather pervasive characteristic.

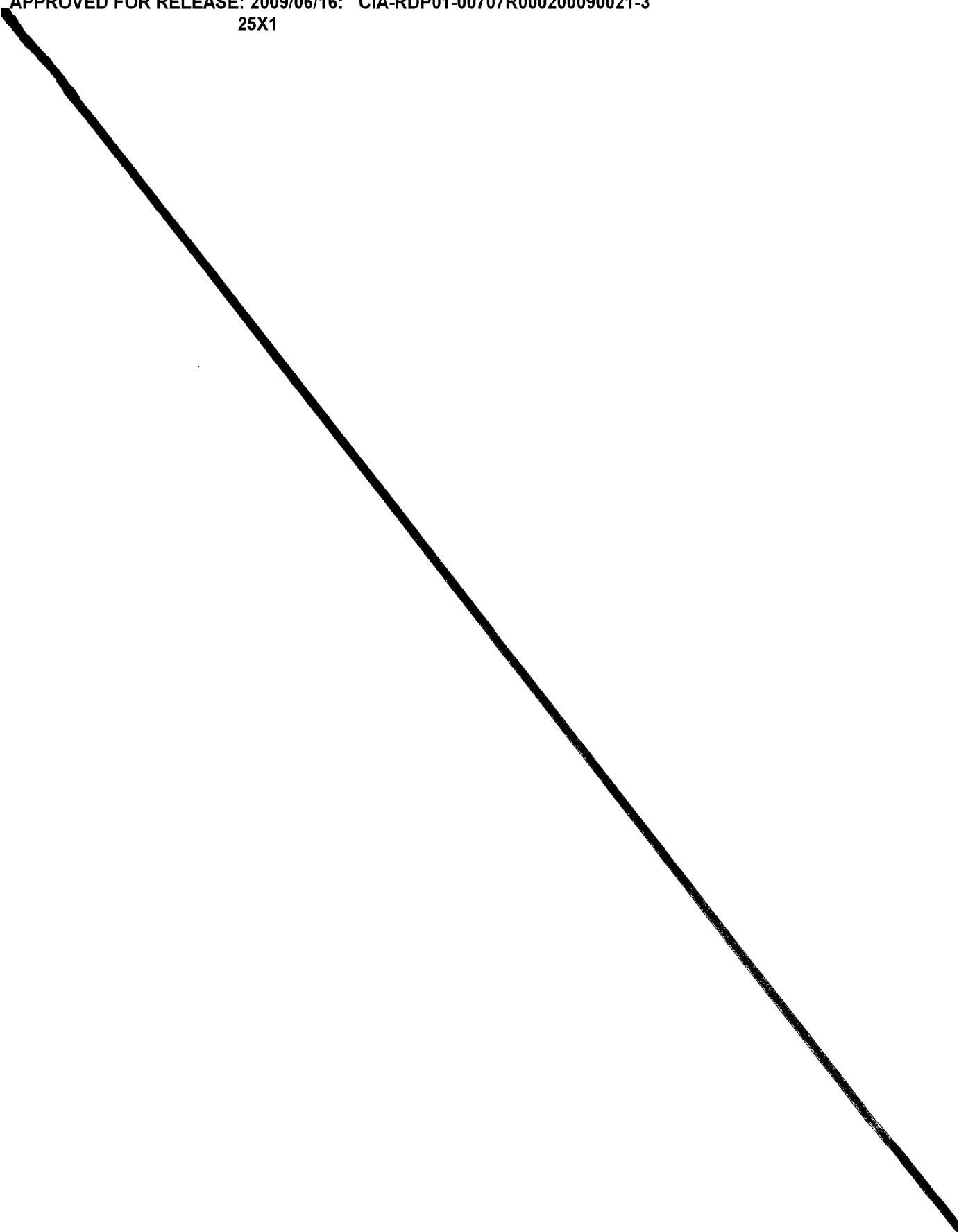
The behavior patterns of the average modern Swede still reflect an awareness of distinctions based on occupation. Formality, reserve, and a certain deference to "position" may still characterize social relations. Here, as in other northern societies, the successful industrialist or engineer may command a higher measure of regard, than, for example, he enjoys in Latin countries. More universally European is the respect accorded advanced educational attainment in the arts as well as the sciences and membership in the traditional learned professions. As in other European areas, the use of honorifics is common, even in ordinary conversation. While social mobility has been enhanced by the accessibility of secondary, advanced technical, and higher education to all classes, intermarriage between persons still identified with the lower classes and those above is not yet common. Conversely, members of the working class are more class conscious than their counterparts in the United States and derive a feeling of strength and cohesiveness from their size and preponderant influence in politics.

The most frequently traveled routes for social and economic advancement are politics, journalism, the arts, the civil service (including the school system), and cooperative enterprises. Channels in the flourishing manufacturing industries as well as in the traditional professions are still relatively restricted, although here too there is ever increasing movement. Tensions between the still identifiable classes are slight, and the population adheres to a generally uniform code of social mores.

## 3. The family

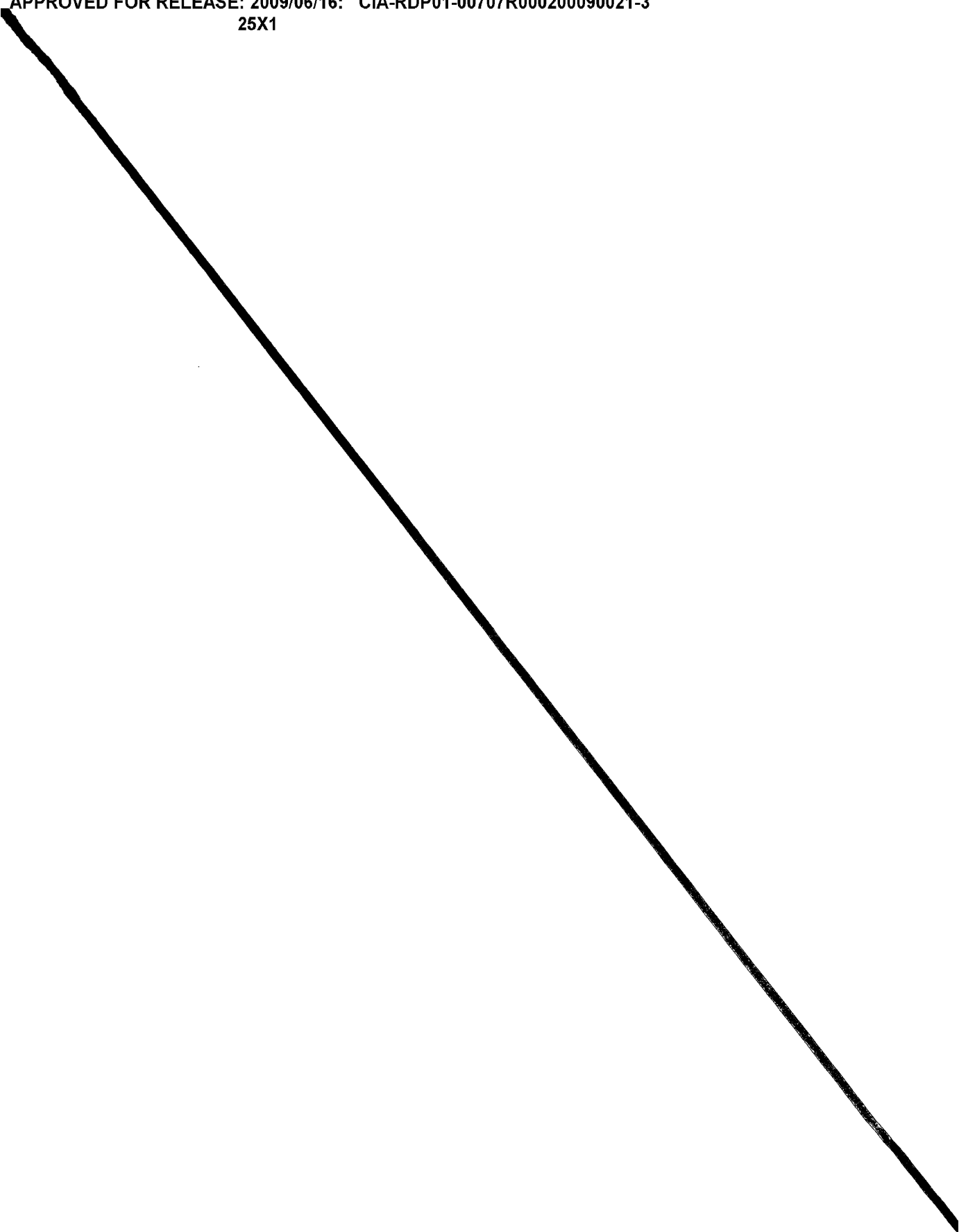
Partly because of the marked influence exerted by Lutheran Protestantism on the manners and customs of the Swedes, the society was patriarchal, with the women's role preferably confined to the home. Along with the development of the welfare state over the past half century and the resultant redistribution of the national wealth, went a somewhat delayed, but equally dramatic extension of the role of women in the national life. Urbanization, the labor shortage, and high living costs have prompted an increasing number of mothers to seek work outside the home. In 1950 gainfully employed married women comprised only 7.6% of the labor force; their participation had risen to 17% by 1965, and may now be more than 20%. The traditionally closely knit and disciplined family unit

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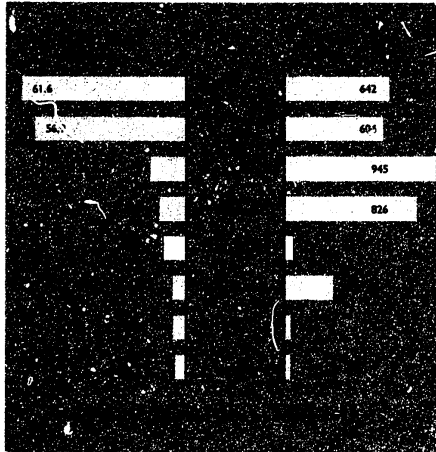


FIGURE 1. Population and population density, 1972 (U/OU)

selected countries. The overall concentration of settlement in the southern third of Sweden is depicted in Figure 2. The average density of population in the area near Malmo, on the southern tip of Sweden, is about seven times the national average, while in the northern province of Norrbotten (which accounts for almost one-fourth of the country's total area) the density is only about one-sixth of the national average. This disparity is explained partly by the severe climate and rugged topography of the northern part of Sweden, which limit its attractiveness for human habitation. Figure 3 shows the population densities per square mile in each of the 24 provinces (Lanner).

The urban population remains relatively decentralized in small communities, towns, and cities despite the development of Sweden into one of the most highly industrialized nations of Europe and despite an accelerating migration of rural workers to the towns. Some 65% of the population may be classified as

FIGURE 2. Major areas of population, 1969 (U/OU)

C. Population

1. Size and distribution

With an area of approximately 175,000 square miles, Sweden has the third most extensive land area in Europe (excluding the Soviet Union), and it occupies almost one-tenth of the land surface of the European continent. In size of population, however, it ranks only 18th, accounting for less than 2% of the non-Russian European total. Furthermore, Sweden's population is characterized by an extremely slow growth rate. As of 1 July 1972 the population of Sweden was an estimated 8,133,000, of which 48,700 derived from net immigration. The excess of births over deaths, however, reached only 30,213 in the previous year. Thus, while the population growth rate averaged 0.98%, without immigration the rate would be an infinitesimal 0.38%.

The most striking aspects of the distribution of the population within Sweden are low density, unevenness, and the existence of relatively small urban agglomerates compared to other highly developed countries in Western Europe. The average density of Sweden's population, 47 persons to the square mile in 1970, is somewhat less than that of the United States—55 persons per square mile—and considerably less than those of Western Europe south of the Baltic. Figure 1 depicts population and population density in

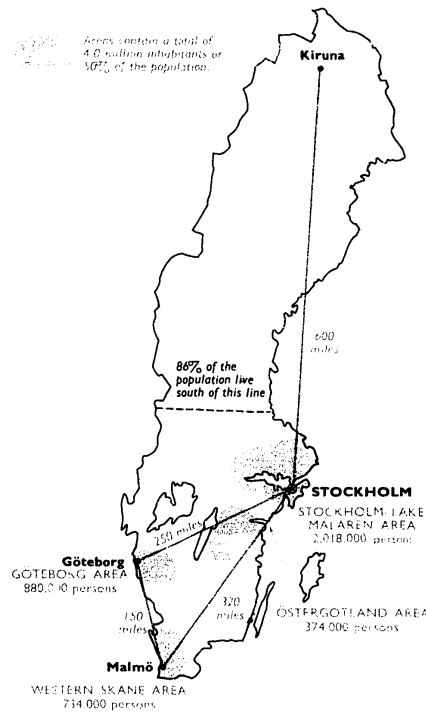


FIGURE 3. Area, population, and population density by province (Lan), 1969

PROVINCE	AREA <i>Square miles</i>	POPULATION	PERSONS PER SQUARE MILE
Stockholm (city)*	72	....	....
Stockholm*	2,866	1,459,814	489.5
Uppsala	2,020	201,882	98.4
Sodermanland	2,432	247,703	103.6
Ostergotland	3,868	375,947	95.8
Jonkopings	4,073	305,045	75.1
Kronoberg	3,452	166,105	51.8
Kalmar	4,268	242,150	54.3
Gotland	1,208	54,093	44.0
Blekinge	1,119	152,702	134.7
Kristianstad	2,368	265,772	111.3
Malmohus	1,828	707,323	383.3
Halland	1,828	194,266	106.1
Goteborg och Bohus	1,906	699,395	352.2
Alvsborg	4,504	400,995	90.6
Skaraborg	3,104	255,964	85.4
Varmland	6,733	284,930	41.4
Orrebro	3,210	275,243	82.8
Vastmanland	2,470	260,869	103.6
Kopparberg	10,904	270,138	25.9
Gavleborg	6,996	293,377	41.4
Vasternorrland	9,278	274,104	28.4
Jamtland	18,272	126,158	7.7
Vasterbotten	21,306	233,971	10.3
Norrbottn	38,042	256,750	7.7
Total	158,136	8,013,696	49.2

NOTE—Figures may not add to totals because of rounding.  
 ... Not pertinent.  
 \*The city and province of Stockholm are counted together.

urban in the sense that it lives in communities of over 2,000. This relatively low degree of urbanization in view of the advanced industrial development is explained by the absence of domestic fuels and the concomitant necessity in earlier days for Swedish industry to disperse along rivers and streams, the most economical sources of power. There are numerous small plants along the waterways, particularly in the north, where mining and forestry are important industries. For this reason some demographers have counted as urban all communities in Sweden of over 200 inhabitants. The highly developed public works and social welfare programs provide many of these small communities with the basic amenities of urban living. Using this criterion, Sweden is about 80% urbanized.

The internal migration of the population has meant a continuing shift out of the north and out of the rural

areas into urban centers in the south. The most important of these expanding urban centers are Greater Stockholm, with offshoots extending toward Uppsala, Enkoping,<sup>1</sup> and Sodertalje; urban places in western Sweden centering on Goteborg; and western Malmohus province in the south. Of the approximately 132 towns and cities in Sweden, however, only five exceed 100,000 people (Stockholm—747,490, Goteborg—446,875, Malmo—258,311, Vasteras—113,589, and Uppsala—101,696), and only 17 have more than 50,000 inhabitants. The population in these 22 cities accounts for 33% of the total population; this proportion rises to about 45% if suburbs are included.

The rural population is concentrated in the cultivated areas, namely the plains of Skane and Halland, the Malaren lake district, Ostergotland, Vastergotland, Varmland, the river valleys in Dalarna, and the Gota Kanal valley. Rural settlements in the past consisted of both villages with the inhabitants attending outlying fields and single farms. During the sweeping land reforms of the 19th century, however, the villages were either split up or greatly changed, and today they appear more as clusters of private farms. The most common type of dwelling in rural areas is now the private farm, although in certain districts numerous remnants of the older building arrangements give the landscape a distinctive local character.

## 2. Ethnic types

Because of Sweden's relative geographic isolation, no significant ethnic mixing took place from the end of the Viking period (around 1050) to the mid-20th century. The population is remarkably homogenous, with only about 5% consisting of outside strains. Nearly half of this very small nonindigenous group is from southern and eastern Europe, having been introduced in the post-World War II period to relieve the labor shortage. The only linguistic and ethnic minorities which have long been resident in Sweden are the 10,000 Lapps of the far north and the Finnish-speaking population, numbering about 50,000 along the border with Finland. Several thousand gypsies have been resident in Sweden since the last century and have been the subject of special laws and ordinances. Figure 4 shows a typically Nordic woman and child, the overwhelmingly predominant strain, and a Lapplander.

<sup>1</sup>For diacritics on place names see the list of names at the end of the chapter.



FIGURE 4. Swedish types.  
Nordic and Lapp. (U/OU)



### 3. Emigration and immigration

The orderly and continuous compilation of vital statistics in Sweden since 1749 probably comprises the second oldest system of its kind in the world after that of Iceland, which dates from 1735. The population of Sweden, 1.8 million in 1750, grew slowly, with high birth and death rates, until the 1820's. Then, as elsewhere in Europe, the mortality rate began to fall, and the population increased rapidly. The total population nearly doubled between 1750 and 1850 and then doubled again during the next 100 years. The inability of the primarily agricultural economy of the time to absorb the excess of workers, however, resulted in the Great Emigration that began in the middle of the 19th century and continued into the early 1900's. During this period more than a million Swedes—one-fifth of the mean population—left Sweden to go to America.

The outflow of population that made Sweden one of Europe's major countries of emigration during these years subsided as the economy shifted from a chiefly agricultural to a predominantly industrial base. By 1930 the direction of migration had been reversed, and during the following 23 years Sweden had a net gain

of some 210,000 immigrants or about 3% of the mean population. Among the total number of immigrants during this period were many World War II refugees from the Scandinavian and Baltic countries. The flow of immigrants increased markedly during the 1950's and 1960's, chiefly in response to the growing demand for industrial workers. Between 1960 and 1970 the total number of immigrants each year ranged from 25,000 to 77,000, with an annual average of 41,000. During the same period the emigration rate ranged from 15,000 to 29,000, with an annual average of 18,000. Thus, from 1960 to 1970 Sweden had a net gain in immigration, averaging 23,000 annually. The majority of the immigrants have come from other Nordic countries, particularly Finland, although an increasing number have been from the Mediterranean countries.

### 4. Structure

The age structure of Sweden's population is that of a demographically mature country, with comparatively few children and a high proportion of elderly persons. In 1970 the total population of 8,091,800 was almost equally divided between females and males (Figure 5). The ratio of 1,003 to 1,000

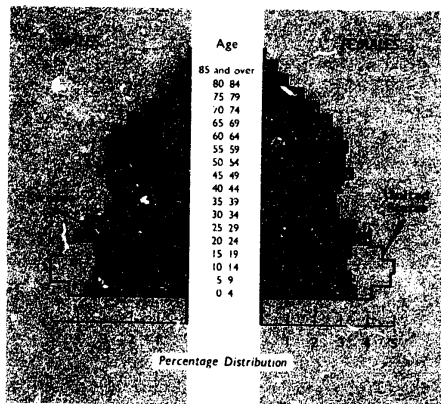


FIGURE 5. Age-sex distribution, Sweden and the United States, 1970 (U/OU)

reflected both the high living and medical standards, permitting the less robust male infants and old people better chances of survival, and the relatively insignificant emigration, which normally involves a larger proportion of able-bodied males. The proportions of children, able-bodied persons, and aged held fairly constant from at least 1750 to the end of the 19th century. During the first two-thirds of the 20th century, however, significant changes occurred (Figure 6). The proportion of children dwindled from one-third to one-fifth, while the proportion of aged nearly tripled, to make up 13% of the total, and by 1980 a projected 17%. The average age of the population in 1970 was one of the highest in the world—36.6 years.

5. Vital rates

Sweden's birth rate, conforming to the Western European and North American norm, declined markedly with the industrialization of the 19th and 20th centuries, falling from 31.5 per 1,000 in the decade 1830-40 to 14.5 in the period 1930-40. After an upsurge during World War II, followed by a further decline to 13.7 in 1960, the birth rate rose again until 1965 but then declined fairly steadily to 13.6 in 1970, one of the lowest rates in the world (Figure 7). The rate of illegitimate births is high, particularly in relation to non-Nordic European countries. It has increased from 10% of all births in 1959 to 18% in 1971. This is a somewhat higher incidence than in neighboring Norway (5%), Finland (5%), and Denmark (10%), but

lower than in Iceland, where approximately 30% of all births occur out of wedlock.

Sweden has experienced a virtually uninterrupted decline in the infant mortality rate. The 1970 rate of 11.7 per 1,000 live births, the lowest in the world, compares with rates of 21.0 in 1950 and 16.6 in 1960. Figure 8 shows selected international comparisons. The average life expectancy at birth for Sweden's population—71.85 years for males and 76.54 years for females in 1967—is the highest in the world. As elsewhere in Western Europe, the death rate has declined almost steadily in the past 100 years, dropping from 21.7 per 1,000 in the mid-19th century to 9.5 per 1,000 in 1959. Since that year it has remained relatively constant at about 10.0 per 1,000 because of the increasing proportion of elderly people in the population. Sweden's relatively constant death rate and declining birth rate since the mid-1960's have meant a decrease in the excess of births over deaths from 46,003 in 1964 to 30,213 in 1970.

The marriage rate in Sweden is one of the lowest in Europe. It declined steadily from a high of 9.9 per 1,000 inhabitants during World War II to 6.7 in 1960. It then rose in 1966, but then followed by a downward turn to 6.0 per 1,000 in 1969. The number of divorces in Sweden, as in most other Western countries, increased sharply between 1940 and 1950, but, unlike the situation in many other Western nations, the rate did not subsequently decline. From 1955 to 1965 it remained static, averaging 1.2 per 1,000 population, and then increased to 1.4 per 1,000 in 1968.

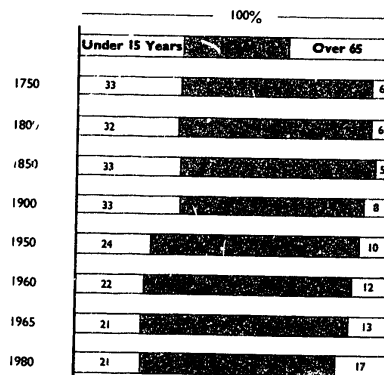
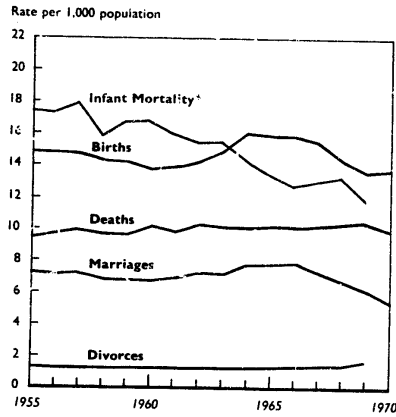
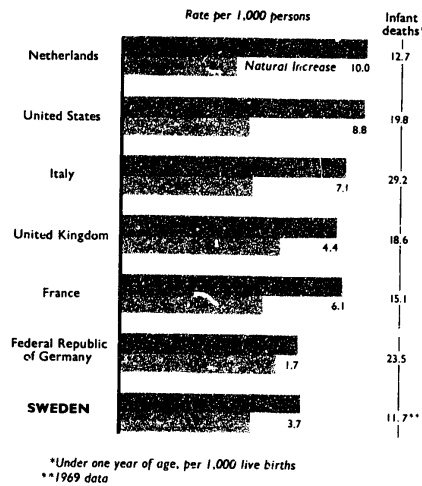


FIGURE 6. Percentage distribution of age groups (U/OU)



\*Deaths per 1,000 live births  
 FIGURE 7. Vital rates (U/OU)



\*Under one year of age, per 1,000 live births  
 \*\*1969 data  
 FIGURE 8. Comparative birth and death rates in selected Western countries, 1970 (U/OU)

Sweden's annual rate of population increase averaged 0.7% from 1960 to 1970. In view of the low birth rate and high longevity, Sweden appears to be facing a decelerating rate of growth in the coming decades, which could result in a static population of about 8.5 million by 1980.

**D. Manpower and labor**

**1. Labor force**

In 1970 Sweden's labor force averaged 3,913,000, up about 56,000 over the 1969 figure. The percentage increase in the labor force was 4.5% from 1950 to 1960, and 17% from 1960 to 1970. About one-third of the rapid increase from 1960 to 1970 is explained by the wholesale immigration of foreign workers, who now constitute 5% of the population and 5.7% of the labor force. There has also been a rise in the employment of married women. The working-age group (comprising ages 15 to 64) expanded from 4.7 million in 1950 to 5.3 million in 1970—an increase of 12.7% and approximated 66% of the total population for the entire period. The size of the total population relative to the labor force as established by the 1965 census is shown in Figure 9.

The labor force has absorbed about three-fourths of the conventionally (UNESCO) defined working-age group (ages 15-64), one of the highest proportions in Europe. The remaining 25% represents a labor reserve composed mainly of women. Notwithstanding a number of factors tending to reduce the proportion of the population actually in the labor force—longer periods of schooling for youth, shortening the work week, granting pensions at an earlier age, and longer life expectancy—the proportion will remain about the

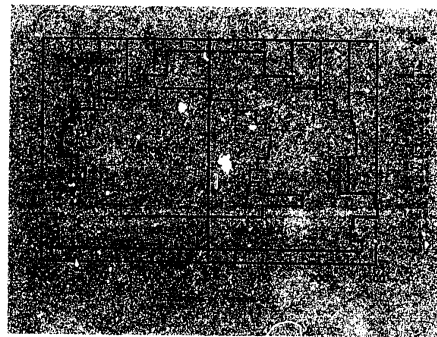


FIGURE 9. Population and labor force, 1966 (U/OU)

FIGURE 10. Gainfully occupied by sectors of the economy (Percent)

	1940	1950	1955	1960	1965	1970
Agriculture.....	28.9	20.3	17.4	13.9	11.2	7.4
Mining, manufacturing, and construction...	36.0	40.8	40.3	40.9	40.7	39.7
Trade, transportation, and communications.....	19.9	24.1	26.2	27.2	25.0	21.5
General administration and professions.....	8.8	11.1	12.7	15.3	22.1	29.9
Domestic services.....	5.3	2.9	2.7	2.1	1.0	1.5
Unspecified.....	1.1	0.8	0.7	0.6		
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number in thousands.....	3,000	3,105	3,398	3,550	3,690	3,821

same, at least through the 1970's, because of continued immigration and growth of female employment.

Since 1940 there has been a marked increase in the proportion of the labor force moving from agriculture to other occupations. Figure 10 shows the changes in the distribution of the force that have taken place since 1940 among the various sectors of the economy. There has also been a significant shift in the number of women in the labor force: in 1950 working women numbered 819,000, or 26.4%, of the total, compared with 966,000, or 29.8%, in 1960 and 1.1 million, or 33.9%, in 1965. Between 1950 and 1965 the number of married women in the labor force more than doubled, whereas the absolute number of male and other female workers declined. There has also been a marked relative increase in the number of married women seeking employment; this group made up 17.0% of the labor force in 1965, compared with 13.1% in 1960 and 7.6% in 1950.

The following tabulation shows the percent of women aged 16 to 74 in the labor force in selected years:

	MARRIED WOMEN	UNMARRIED WOMEN
1965.....	44.0	57.4
1967.....	46.2	54.5
1969.....	49.4	55.2
1970.....	51.5	55.1
1970 (August).....	52.5	56.0

Figure 11 shows the age-sex distribution of the labor force in 1965 and 1950, as established by the respective censuses.

The number of aliens in the labor force has exceeded 100,000 almost every year since 1950. In 1970 there were 209,289 foreign workers in Sweden, or about 5.5% of the nation's labor force. Roughly 60% of the total number of foreign workers come from the Nordic countries, which constitute a common labor

market. Thus, a citizen of one of these countries can hold employment and take up residence in any one of the other Nordic countries without any employment or residence visa. Furthermore, he can cross the borders without holding a passport, belong to the unemployment benefit society of his profession, and receive government assistance, even retraining, should he become unemployed. Finns make up the largest number of foreign workers in Sweden, numbering about 110,000 in 1972. There has been a considerable increase in Yugoslavs in the last 4 years. There are a substantial number of other north Europeans, and east and south Europeans as well, as may be seen in the following tabulation:

	1952	1960	1965	1970
Finnish.....	33,779	47,493	70,445	102,385
Danish.....	21,827	19,430	19,157	18,710
German (East and West).....	18,423	14,246	16,723	14,520
Yugoslavian.....	0	780	7,475	18,462
Norwegian.....	13,350	10,212	12,861	13,627
Greek.....	0	178	4,066	7,056
Italian.....	0	3,648	5,234	4,727
Austrians.....	0	0	3,104	3,322
Hungarians.....	0	0	4,393	2,870
Others.....	31,746	18,136	17,837	23,610
Total.....	119,125	114,123	161,295	209,289

## 2. Employment and unemployment

Full employment has been one of the principal objectives of national policy since the mid-1930's. The capacity of organized labor and management for effective cooperation was enhanced by the general prosperity of the period—one of consistently rapid industrial growth. Furthermore, the very slow rate of natural population increase was inadequate to meet the manpower needs, and foreign labor had to be imported, particularly after 1960. Sweden maintained almost full employment throughout the sixties, and its

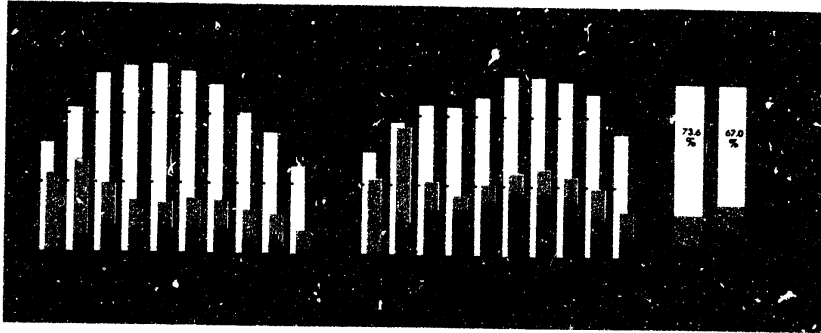


FIGURE 11. Age-sex distribution of labor force (U/OU)

rate of unemployment compares favorably with rates in other Western nations (Figure 12). In the early fall of 1972, however, unemployment hovered close to 2.5%. Still not really severe, particularly for so highly industrialized, socialized, and solvent a nation, the higher rate, nevertheless, causes concern to the ruling Social Democrats. It is the first significant unemployment in over two generations, and it appears to be fairly evenly distributed throughout the country. The sharp decline in unemployment from 2.8% of the labor force in April 1972 to 2.3% in May has been encouraging. The normal seasonal fluctuation would account for less than a third of this improvement.

Of the 87,000 unemployed in April 1971—2.2% of the labor force—64,000 were registered at unemployment exchanges, and of those registered 14.4% were under 25 years of age and 30.3% were 60 years or

older. Among persons covered by unemployment insurance the rate was 11.2% for construction workers, 2.7% for blue-collar workers in mining and manufacturing, and 0.5% for white-collar workers. Not counted as unemployed were approximately another 1.2% of the labor force—27,248 persons on work relief projects, 23,511 undergoing vocational training not connected with regular schooling, and 5,621 receiving subsidized on-the-job training.

Both to overcome labor shortages and to cope with unemployment, the government has adopted a number of different programs and services. For example, a national employment service with 247 exchanges provides vocational guidance and matches applicants with vacancies. The latter function is computerized and accomplished on a nationwide basis in a matter of minutes. The government also provides

FIGURE 12. Percentage of yearly average unemployment

	1960	1962	1964	1966	1968	1970 (EST.)
United States*	5.6	5.6	5.2	3.8	3.6	5.0
Belgium**	5.2	3.3	2.2	2.7	4.5	3.2
Italy***	4.1	3.0	2.7	3.9	3.5	3.3
Finland	1.5	1.2	1.5	1.5	4.0	2.2
United Kingdom***	1.7	2.1	1.6	1.6	2.5	2.8
Denmark**	4.3	3.3	2.8	2.6	5.0	2.9
Federal Republic of Germany***	1.2	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.6	0.7
Netherlands***	1.2	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.9	1.3
SWEDEN	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.6	2.2	1.9
Norway***	1.7	1.4	1.5	0.8	1.2	1.2

\*Persons in all branches of economic activity out of work and looking for jobs during the survey week.

\*\*Members of the unemployment insurance funds registered as being without a job and available for employment.

\*\*\*Excluding persons employed on public relief work.

relocation grants for persons moving to localities where work is available, such grants consisting of transportation costs for the worker and his family and a special resettlement allowance. In 1969, 32,400 persons throughout the country received these grants. A vocational training and retraining program is also operated by the government. Vocational training centers throughout the country accept trainees referred by employment exchanges, give them room and board if necessary, and provide training in needed skills. During training, workers receive about 80% of their normal pay. In March 1970, 44,600 persons were in training. Other measures adopted by the government include early retirement benefits to elderly workers who are less fit for work or who are having difficulty finding employment, the development of public works projects and the subsidizing of other needed work projects—notably in construction, and cash grants to the unemployment insurance funds sponsored by the trade unions.

**3. Wages, hours, and working conditions**

Swedish wages are the highest in Europe and the third highest in the world after the United States and Canada. When account is taken of family allowances and other social benefits, they more nearly match their North American counterparts. The following tabulation shows the increases in average hourly wages in U.S. dollars for male workers in various industries over the past decade:

	1960	1965	1970
Iron and metal works	1.29	1.89	2.89
Engineering	1.27	1.88	2.85
Timber	1.09	1.68	2.80
Pulp and paper	1.21	1.78	2.87
Food	1.10	1.73	2.55
Textiles and clothing	1.03	1.60	2.27
Total industry	1.22	1.83	2.77

NOTE—The figures include vacation, accident and illness payments, and payments in kind, but do not include some other social benefits, such as family and student allowances.

The nominal wages of industrial workers increased 300% between the end of World War II and the latter 1960's, a period in which inflation caused a 100% rise in consumer prices, yielding a rise in real wages of a little over 4% annually. An initial impetus to this growth was provided by the Marshall Plan and was enhanced shortly by the boost given the economy by the Korean War. The trend in nominal and real wages is portrayed graphically in Figure 13.

Labor costs include direct pay, which is determined by wage rates established in collective agreements plus

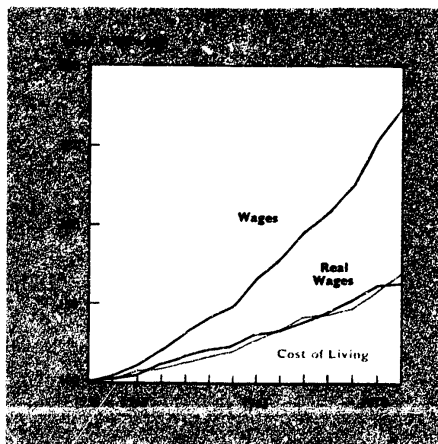


FIGURE 13. Indexes of hourly wages, cost of living, and real wages (U/OU)

“wage drift” (the amount by which employers, competing for scarce labor, raise wages over and above the rate provided in contractual agreements), and indirect labor costs. In the year ending 1 March 1971 hourly wages in mining and manufacturing increased 7.2% and then averaged US\$2.41 an hour. The following tabulation compares direct hourly earnings (in U.S. dollars) for Swedish workers in manufacturing with those of other Western European countries and the United States:

	1960	1965	1967	1969
United States	\$2.26	\$2.61	\$2.83	\$3.33
SWEDEN	1.11	1.62	1.89	2.28
Denmark	.83	1.32	1.69	na
Norway	.90	1.21	1.45	1.72
West Germany	.72	1.13	1.25	1.52
United Kingdom	.75	1.02	1.30	1.45
Finland	.58	.86	1.00	1.21
France	.42	.75	.87	1.06

In mining, the highest paid industry, the average wage was \$3.03 in 1970; in textiles and clothing manufacturing, the lowest paid industry, it was \$1.96.

Taxes and fringe benefits in 1970, amounting to 21.4% of the direct blue-collar wages and largely paid by the employers, consisted of the legislated pension plan, 7.7%; health insurance, 3.1%; accident insurance, 0.4%; group life insurance, 0.4%; severance pay fund, 0.2%; vacation pay, 8.1%, and government payroll tax, 4.0%. In the public sector the hourly wages of blue-collar employees in the national

government averaged US\$2.42 in 1970, with general increases for the year averaging 4%, including 2.1% to compensate for a shortened work week. The wage drift in 1970 was about 0.5%.

The gross income of white-collar employees in private industry averaged US\$580 per month in 1970, up 8% over 1969. Salaries in manufacturing and commerce, however, were up 9% in 1970, while those in banking and insurance increased by 11%. Employers and government had to pay another 31% of direct wage costs in 1970 for white-collar benefits and social services, including the legislated pension plan, 7.7%; health insurance, 2.9%; accident insurance, 0.4%; union negotiated supplemental pension plan, 8.6%; group life insurance, 0.3%; severance pay fund, 0.2%; vacation pay, 8.2%; sick pay, 0.6%; and payroll tax, 2%. In the public sector white-collar wage rates for national government employees ranged from \$244 to \$2,094 per month, with the average being \$528. The net increase in 1970 was 5.3%, of which 0.9% was wage drift.

Legislation governing hours of work applies only to employees whose working time is not covered by collective agreements—about one-third of the total labor force. The work week for industrial workers is 42½ hours, with some exceptions, such as shift workers who work 42 hours a week and underground workers in mining operations who work 40 hours per week. White-collar workers have a 40-hour week, and additional hours are regarded as overtime. The law provides for annual paid vacations of 4 weeks.

In Sweden, as in other Scandinavian countries, the constant amelioration of working conditions receives high official priority. The Workers' Protective Act of 1949 as amended in 1963, which covers all paid employment except household work and military service, requires that employers provide adequate air space, lighting, and temperature (Figure 14), as well as clean restrooms and eating facilities. It also establishes standards for safety devices to prevent accidents and for protective clothing and other equipment to lessen the chance of occupational diseases. Between 1957 and 1967 the work injury rate in industry decreased from 24.6 to 24.1 per million hours worked, while the total number of hours worked increased from 5.2 million to 5.6 million. Of the total number of injuries in 1967, 98% resulted in temporary incapacity, 1.7% in disability, and 0.3% in death.

#### 4. Organization of labor

Sweden's labor force is one of the most highly organized in Western Europe and, therefore, in the free world, with close to 80% of all wage earners



FIGURE 14. Workers in plant of Ericsson Telephone Corporation, manufacturer of telephone, radar, and electronic equipment (U/OU)

belonging to trade unions. Sweden's labor unions grew in size by about 67,000 during 1970, while the average labor force growth was 56,000. The percentage of unionization among blue-collar workers is about 90%, while about 70% of the white-collar workers are organized. Reflecting the rationalization of industry and the emergence of white-collar services as a larger labor user than industry, however, the principal white-collar union confederation grew by almost 40,000 in 1970, nearly double the growth of the blue-collar one.

The first unions in Sweden were organized in the 1880's and were recognized by the end of the decade as legitimate groups for the purpose of bargaining. In 1898 several significant unions came together to form the Federation of Trade Unions (LO), which dominates the labor movement. During 1970 its membership grew by 20,400, to a total of 1.68 million. Thus, about every fifth Swede is a member of the LO, and half of all families in the country have ties with it. About 480,500 women belonged to the LO in 1970, and its membership of persons under the age of 30 totaled 415,000. While the LO is principally a blue-collar union, having organized about 90% of the industrial workers, an estimated 250,000 low-level white-collar workers are also members.

The number of affiliated unions comprising the LO—29 in 1970—has been gradually reduced over the years by consolidation, as authority has become increasingly centralized in the LO, and as the trend toward labor organization along industrial rather than craft lines has become more pronounced. The affiliated unions are still theoretically sovereign, free

to approve contracts or to call strikes; however, they are obligated to keep the central organization informed of important wage negotiations and disputes. If, without the prior consent of the LO, a union initiates a strike which involves more than 3% of its membership, its right to financial assistance from the LO during the conflict is forfeited. The Metal Workers remain the largest affiliate, with 370,146 members in 1970, while the Municipal Workers held second place with 231,247 members. The next four affiliates in order of size are the Building Workers (177,353), the Government Workers (163,351), the Commercial Workers (117,159), and the Factory Workers (90,195). Local level coordination among affiliates and between them and the LO is maintained by 254 regional labor councils throughout the country.

The governing bodies in the LO are the congress, the general council, and the executive board. The LO congress, in which each affiliated union has at least one delegate, ultimately determines policy for the LO. Its 300 delegates elected by the national unions meet only once every 5 years, however, and then only for a brief session. In the long intervals between congresses the general council, composed of about 140 delegates elected by the affiliated unions, decides policy. It meets once or twice a year, although additional meetings may be called. Two of its principal functions are the discussion of collective bargaining issues and the formulation of wage recommendations to the unions. The real power in the LO is the executive board, which consists of three full-time LO officials—the president, vice president, and secretary, who sit *ex officio*—and 10 part-time members. The part-time members are elected by the congress for 5-year terms; the three top officers, also, by definition, congress designees, sit for indefinite terms. The executive board, which meets at least once a week, is primarily concerned with investigating and settling conflicts between affiliated unions, assisting and participating in collective bargaining by these unions, and representing the LO on various governmental and private bodies.

The primary activity of the LO is to represent the interests of the workers vis-a-vis management. This function is especially important in the case of the LO because of the highly centralized bargaining process in the labor market and the large proportion of that market for which the LO acts as a bargaining agent. In addition, the LO is engaged in a number of important ancillary activities. For example, it maintains a large research staff of experts who provide the detailed studies of economic conditions on which much of the bargaining process rests. The LO is also

engaged in educational and informational programs. It operates four training schools, which together can accommodate 556 trainees at a time. The cost of these training programs came to SKr15.8 million in 1968. The official organ of the LO, Trade Union Movement, is published biweekly and goes to the union leadership throughout the country.

Although the LO is a private organization, it plays such an important role in society that it has come to be regarded as semipublic in nature. As such, the LO is frequently called upon by the executive branch, legislative committees, and commissions of inquiry to provide information or to express its opinion on a wide variety of matters. The LO manages some public funds, such as unemployment insurance. Perhaps its most important link with public authority, however, is a product of its special connection with the ruling Social Democratic Party. When the LO was established, members were required to join the party—a stipulation that was formally dropped in 1909. But this abolition did not diminish in any way the cooperation and ties which exist between these two organizations. The LO and its member unions provide the major financial support and membership of the party. About 600,000 LO members are collectively affiliated with the Social Democrats through their unions.

The Central Organization of Salaried Employees (TCO) represents the interests of white-collar workers. The TCO was founded in 1944, a latecomer compared to the other major labor organizations; however, it has grown with remarkable rapidity, almost tripling in size within two decades. The TCO grew by 6% in 1970 to reach a total of 657,725 members, excluding pensioners (including pensioners the total membership is almost 720,000). Of the total membership, 56.6% are men, 58.3% are in private industry, 26.7% work for the national government, and 15% for local government. The TCO has organized about 70% of all white-collar workers, and as technological development continues to cause more and more workers to trade in blue collars for white ones, its size and influence are likely to continue to grow. The TCO is composed of 23 affiliated unions, which range in size from the Swedish Union of Clerical and Technical Employees in Industry (202,951 members in 1970) and the Swedish Association of Supervisors and Foremen (66,245) to the Swedish Union of Organists and Choirmasters (2,100).

The organization of the TCO resembles that of the LO, and there is a similar strong tendency toward centralization. Policy is made mainly by the triennial congress of 200 delegates, who are chosen by affiliated



organizations and the executive board. Between congresses decisions are officially made by the general council, 100 members chosen in the same way as the delegates to the congress. Since the general council meets only twice a year, however, actual power resides in the executive board which meets once a week and is composed of a chairman and nine members chosen by the congress.

Other labor organizations include the Swedish Confederation of Professional Associations (SACO), the National Federation of Government Employees (SR), and the Central Organization of Swedish Workers (SAC). The SACO, founded in 1947, grew by 6.2% during 1970 to 115,000 members in 30 unions, including professional associations. Of the total membership, 25,000 (mainly students) are not in the labor market, 49,000 are national government employees, 18,500 work for local governments, 15,000 are in private industry, and 7,500 are self-employed. The SR, founded in 1917, is composed of middle and upper level national government officials in 34 affiliated unions. During 1970 it grew by a modest 3.2% to 19,289 members. The SAC, the syndicalist organization founded in 1910, barely held its own during 1970, claiming 23,482 members—a drop of 218 from 1969—in 307 local associations.

Swedish labor organizations have played an active role in the international labor movement. They helped to establish the World Federation of Trade Unions (WFTU) in 1945, but they withdrew 4 years later because of Communist control of WFTU and participated at that time in the formation of the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU). Both the LO and the TCO have maintained their affiliation with ICFTU and have supported it financially. Arne Geijer, president of the LO, was president of the ICFTU from 1957 to 1965. The labor organizations, with the exception of SAC, strongly support the various international trade secretariats and maintain close working relations with their counterparts in other Nordic countries.

##### 5. Organization of management

Strong, centrally controlled unions with powerful political connections require similar employer organizations to maintain a collective bargaining balance. The most powerful management organization is the Swedish Employers Confederation (SAF), which was founded in 1902 in response to the growth of the trade unions. The SAF comprises 43 member federations, representing about 23,132 firms. During 1970, 1,602 firms dropped out and 139 merged. The

member firms employ a total of 1,240,000 persons—813,000 blue-collar and 427,000 white-collar workers.

The organization of the SAF is highly centralized, with the power of the central organization over its affiliates being somewhat greater than that of the LO over its members. The highest policy body is theoretically the general assembly, which is composed of 300 delegates chosen by the member associations. It meets only once a year, however, and it seldom makes the real decisions. The general council is smaller, with 72 members chosen by the associations, and meets regularly once a year and at other times when the executive board wishes to refer urgent matters to it. The executive board, composed of 26 members and 26 alternates, ordinarily meets once a month to make decisions on current matters, such as increasing membership, handling strikes and lockouts, and drawing up the annual budget. It has an executive committee, made up of five members and two alternates, which can act any time on minor matters or make stopgap decisions on more urgent problems, pending review by the executive board.

The SAF's major function is to conduct—not coordinate—collective bargaining for its members in the initial overall negotiations for a central agreement and to support member federations and individual employers in their bargaining efforts subsequent to its conclusion. The SAF's power to maintain a united wage front among all employers is secured by its ability to fine firms which breach its guidelines. Like the LO, however, the SAF's activities extend beyond the bargaining table. It maintains a staff of experts; it is normally represented on the more important government commissions; and it is consulted by legislative committees and administrative departments when policies affecting its interests are under consideration. The SAF is also very active in public relations and education. It publishes the biweekly *Arbets-givaren*, which goes mainly to members; a monthly, *Industria*, designed for the outside public; and an English-language magazine, *Sweden Now*, which is published 10 times a year. The SAF also supports the activities of several research institutes, which it helped found but which are legally independent of it (i.e., the Industrial Institute for Economic and Social Research and the Council for Personnel Administration). In addition, the SAF offers a number of management courses to the employees of its member firms. In 1968 more than 700 courses were attended by over 13,000 persons.

The Swedish Government owns, in whole or in part, a number of firms which until recently were all in the SAF. The Social Democratic government came under

increasing criticism, however, for using a "capitalistic" organization such as the SAF to represent the employer interests of its firms. Therefore, in September 1970, 26 such government-owned companies formed a separate organization, the Government Companies Negotiation Organization (SFO). In theory the SFO negotiates independently of the SAF with unions representing its 34,000 employees. In practice, however, the SFO has not yet undertaken much independent negotiating, since most of its member firms continue to maintain their membership in the SAF.

The broad economic interests of Sweden's proprietor farmers are represented by cooperative associations affiliated in two central organizations: the Federation of Swedish Farmers Associations (SL) and the National Farmers Union (RLF). The former is basically concerned with the rationalization of agricultural production, while the RLF occupies itself with prices and marketing, and its activities are directed at reinforcing the individual farmer's influence and his sense of occupational solidarity.

Management, like labor, is active in international organizations. The SAF has an international division; its director is the representative of Scandinavian management at the International Labor Organization (ILO). He is also Swedish management's representative at the Council of Europe, Industrial Federations and other international bodies. Swedish management is further represented in the International Chamber of Commerce, and the Swedish Chamber of Commerce functions in several foreign countries.

#### 6. Labor-management relations

Several factors have contributed to the peaceful labor relations in Sweden since World War II, not the least of which has been the national penchant for pragmatic compromise. Such special economic factors as the near complete unionization of labor, the tightness of the labor market, the discipline of the management federation, and the increasing prosperity have helped to steady the atmosphere. Swedish labor relations, however, are not immune from disruption. Since 1969 there have been sporadic strikes, which, though relatively confined and short lived, could become more severe. In terms of recent Swedish experience they are already regarded with concern.

In the first two decades of the 20th century a series of strikes and lockouts shook the growing union movement. During the 1920's and early 1930's relations between labor and management did not significantly improve, and there was widespread pressure for government intervention. In 1935 a

government commission recommended that both sides sit down to resolve their differences, and the commission's report made it clear that if this were not done, the only alternative would be government action. As a first step, labor and management formed the Labor Market Committee in 1936. This body of seven representatives from each side has since become a permanent institution for the discussion of common problems, and it has produced a number of important "Saltsjobaden Agreements," a series of agreements named after the resort outside Stockholm that has become a traditional meeting place for representatives from labor and management.

The first of these agreements, the Basic Agreement of 1938, is the principal instrument for regulating labor-management relations, and it set the pattern for all subsequent agreements. It provides uniform procedures for the compulsory negotiations of disputes, imposes limits on the employers' right of dismissal, bans certain strikes and lockouts, and provides for arbitration of conflicts threatening to disturb essential public services. The six succeeding agreements have widened the scope of labor-management relations: they cover workers' protection, vocational training, work councils, time and motion studies, promotion of cooperation in plants, and occupational health. These matters are dealt with by separate bodies which usually have their own offices with costs underwritten jointly by the SAF and the I.O. For example, the Labor Market Council was set up as a supervisory and enforcement agency, the main function of which is to act as the final tribunal in disputes relating to employee dismissals. Similarly, a joint council has been established to deal with issues involving female employees. Basic Agreements for salaried employees were produced in 1957 and 1959.

Labor and management participate in the formulation of government labor policy and in the administration of existing labor laws through representation on a number of autonomous boards. Responsibility for the general formulation and implementation of Swedish manpower policy rests with the National Labor Market Board (AMS), which functions under the Ministry of Interior and its branch organizations. Maintaining full employment is the responsibility of the AMS, which administers the public employment offices, area relocation programs, vocational training and retraining programs, emergency public works, and an investment reserve fund designed to stimulate industrial investment during slack periods. In fiscal year 1971 the AMS received US\$441.9 million to finance its activities. The approved budget for fiscal year 1972 is \$503 million,

with priority given to vocational retraining (up 25.3%), measures to train and employ the handicapped (up 18.2%), and advance orders to industry and public works (up 15.3%). The AMS centrally controls all facets of the manpower program but works through county labor market boards to insure maximum effectiveness in solving local problems. Throughout the country the AMS employs 5,400 persons, 1,100 of them part-time.

Other autonomous boards include the Workers Protection Board, which insures implementation of laws governing hours of work and industrial safety; the National Social Insurance Board, which supervises most of the social insurance programs; and the National Board of Health and Welfare, the central authority for all social welfare administration and research, and an instrument for labor-management mediation.

In comparison with other countries, labor legislation in Sweden is limited in scope; there are no labor code, no minimum wage law, and no compulsory arbitration. If negotiations reach an impasse, the assistance of a government-appointed mediator can be requested. In the event that either side threatens to break off negotiations, the law makes the intervention of a government mediator obligatory. The mediator, however, can do no more than offer his services, and the parties can resort to strikes or lockouts any time after giving the required 1 week's notice. Ordinarily, though, an impasse is temporary and is resolved through discussions which may go on around the clock—a process which the Swedes refer to as "night-mangling."

In 1969 man-days lost due to labor disputes increased almost tenfold over the previous year, and totaled 112,300 in 32 strikes. Wildcat strikes numbered

25 and accounted for 63,900 man-days lost. While there were no significant legal strikes in 1970, wildcat strikes involving some 31,000 employees accounted for 157,000 man-days lost. Figure 15 compares the number of working days lost in Sweden, in other Western European countries, and the United States.

Labor agreements usually conclude with a collective settlement drawn up following negotiations between the two sides. Once ratified, the contract is binding all along the line from the national federations to the individual employers and union members. Even resignation from the organization does not free them from the terms of the contract. During the lifetime of the agreement, neither party can resort to direct action to settle a dispute over interpretation or application.

When disputes over the operation or interpretation of an existing agreement cannot be settled by the parties concerned, either party may refer matters to the Labor Court, a special tribunal set up in 1928. This court, the main agency for settling disputes arising out of collective agreements, is composed of seven members: two each from the SAF and the LO and three from outside, two of whom must have had experience as judges. If a case involves white-collar workers, one of the LO members is replaced by a TCO member. The verdicts of the court are final: there is no appeal from its decisions. The court also has the power to impose damages. Resort to strike or lockout is, in effect, banned in disputes falling under the court's jurisdiction. They may be permitted only in the rare instance that the court calls for a new contract and the parties fail to agree on the terms of such a contract. Of the total 3,500 cases handled by the Labor Court in the period 1929-69, nearly 90% were submitted from the employees side. Fewer than 1% of the disputes

FIGURE 15. Working days lost because of labor disputes

	1964		1965		1969	
	In thousands	Per 1,000 persons	In thousands	Per 1,000 persons	In thousands	Per 1,000 persons
United States .....	22,900	119.2	23,300	119.5	49,000	243.6
France .....	2,497	51.6	980	20.0	na	na
United Kingdom .....	2,277	42.0	2,925	53.2	4,690	84.8
Argentina .....	636	28.9	591	26.4	16	0.7
Belgium .....	444	47.3	70	7.8	364	37.8
SWEDEN .....	34	4.4	4	0.5	1.2	0.15
Federal Republic of Germany .....	17	0.3	49	0.8	25	0.4
Denmark .....	17	3.6	242	48.4	34	7.0
Netherlands .....	44	3.6	55	4.6	14	1.1
Norway .....	1	0.3	9	2.3	14	3.7

na Data not available.

concerning the application and interpretation of agreements ever reach this tribunal, however; the great majority are settled through advice of counsel on the basis of adjudicated cases.

Until recently LO-SAF negotiations set the pattern of collective bargaining which determines the wages and working conditions of most wage earners and salaried employees. This procedure is changing, however, as the result of difficulties in the negotiations for the 1966-68 agreement between the LO and the SAF, between the SAF and the TCO affiliates representing salaried employees, and between the governmental Collective Bargaining Board and the four federations representing government employees (LO, TCO, SACO, and SR), which severely tested the Swedish collective bargaining system. The LO-SAF agreement for production workers was exceeded by the TCO-SAF agreement for white-collar workers, which in turn was exceeded by the agreements of government workers with the Collective Bargaining Board. The LO has taken the position that it will no longer set the wage pattern and permit its gains to be the basis for still further gains by other groups, leaving its workers in the same relative position as before.

**E. Living conditions and social problems**

**1. Material welfare**

Social welfare efforts by the government since the mid-1930's, together with a protracted period of internal and external peace and the highly developed technological and mercantile skills of the population, have given Sweden the highest level of living in Europe and the second highest in the world. In conformity with the Scandinavian pattern, the "good life" is evenly spread; contrasts in living standards between the social classes are less pronounced than in virtually any other country. The average Swede, while obtaining on the whole somewhat fewer material goods on a smaller money income than the average

U.S. citizen, eats almost as well in terms of quantity and nutritional value and enjoys more social services and benefits. Only the confining housing accommodations—albeit adequate and comfortable by European standards—would seem to the middle class American to place restrictions on an otherwise comparable level of living.

If the social services and benefits enjoyed by the average Swede are second to none, so are his taxes. More than one-half of the total money income of a family of four goes for direct and indirect taxes, principally to support the pervasive welfare system. A typical budget for a family of four has three major items: direct taxes, household operation, and housing, in that order. Figure 16 depicts such a budget for both an industrial worker head of family with a total annual income of US\$6,400 (SKr31,800) and a professional with a total income of \$12,400 (SKr61,800). Figure 17 compares the distribution of family income in selected Western countries.

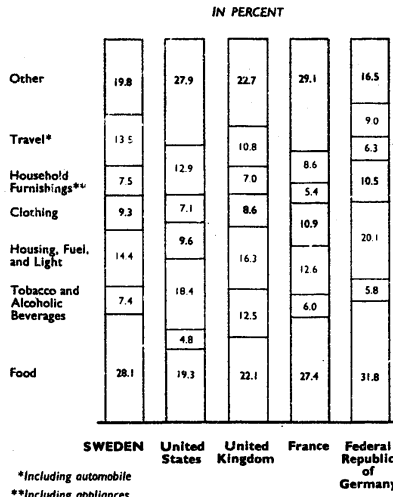
The average money income of a male industrial worker in Sweden in 1969 was between US\$4,400 (SKr22,000) and \$5,000 (SKr25,000). However, many families receive extra income from the wife's earnings or from secondary employment. In the white-collar sector, a business executive may earn an average income of between \$10,000 (SKr50,000) and \$12,000 (SKr60,000) per year. If both husband and wife work, the total income may reach \$15,000 (SKr75,000) or more. The average income per gainfully employed male in various age groups in 1971 (in U.S. dollars) is shown in the following tabulation:

-19 years .....	\$1,730
20-34 years .....	5,140
35-49 years .....	7,250
50-66 years .....	6,220
67- years .....	3,230

Since 1938-39 real private per capita consumption in Sweden has almost doubled—from US\$1,090 to \$1,930 in 1970 (at 1968 prices). This increase in

FIGURE 16. Budget for a family of two adults and two children. Husband's earnings and uniform children's allowances of SKr900 per child in each case, 1970

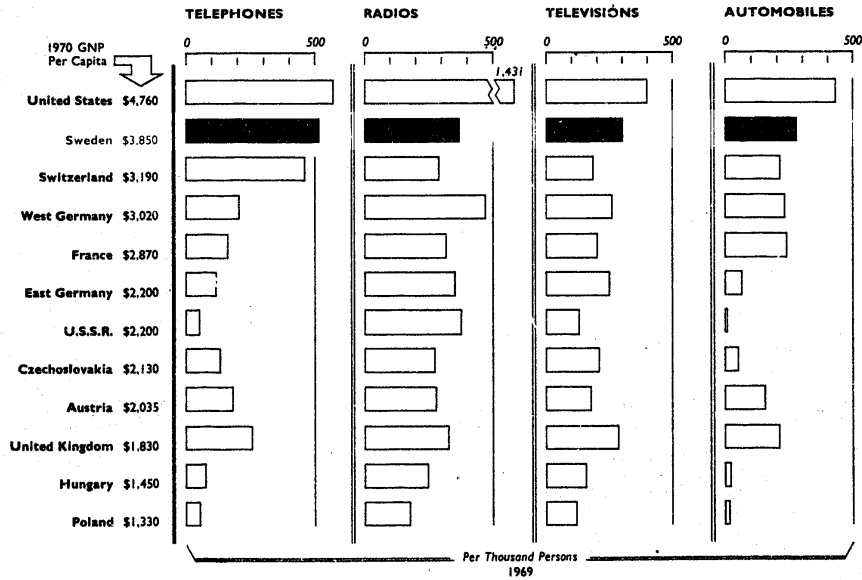
EXPENDITURES	THOUSANDS		THOUSANDS	
	OF KRONUR	PERCENT	OF KRONUR	PERCENT
Income taxes and social security.....	9.6	30	25.5	41
Household operation.....	10.5	33	14.0	23
Housing including heat.....	5.0	16	8.0	13
Clothing.....	3.0	10	4.8	8
Recreation, health care, transportation.....	2.0	6	7.0	11
Insurance, savings, miscellaneous.....	1.7	5	2.5	4
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>31.8</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>61.8</b>	<b>100</b>



consumption, together with higher incomes and changes in income distribution, has led to shifts in the consumption pattern which reflect the rising level of living. Sales of deep-frozen foodstuffs in 1969, for example, were about four times higher than in 1960. In 1969 consumption per capita reached 25 pounds, which is the highest in Europe, although it is still far below the 70 pounds per person consumed in the United States. An annual increase of 17% is forecast for sales of deep-frozen foodstuffs, with consumption expected to reach 55 pounds per capita in 1975. An increase in the consumption of sportswear and recreational products is also a reflection of Sweden's rising standard of living. Higher incomes and longer vacations enable people to spend more time and

FIGURE 17. Distribution of net income in selected Western countries (U/OU)

FIGURE 18. Comparative levels of living, Sweden and selected countries (U/OU)



money for their leisure. There are about 600,000 motor boats and 150,000 sailing boats in Sweden, and the number of both is increasing rapidly. In 1971 there were an estimated 500,000 summer and weekend cottages.

Sweden ranks very high in the availability of material goods which reduce drudgery and make possible a greater enjoyment of life (Figure 18). According to public surveys conducted in 1971, all Swedish households have TV sets and refrigerators. The ratio of 557 telephones per 1,000 inhabitants in 1971 was the second highest in the world after the United States, as was the ratio of 283 passenger cars per 1,000 inhabitants (1970).

Modern housing, with all the amenities deemed adequate in the United States and Sweden, was in short supply until the concentrated construction effort started to catch up with the demand in the early 1970's. Families may now rent modern apartments, even in Stockholm, after a wait of only a few months. The accommodations are confining by U.S. standards, however, averaging only four smallish rooms per dwelling unit, including kitchen and bathroom. Renting rather than ownership predominates, with rents controlled at about 15% of gross income after application of a small housing allowance. Such allowance varies with income and size of family; the average worker family with two children receives about SKr1,000 a year.

While the high proportion of rented accommodations—about 52% nationwide—conforms more or less with European, as opposed to North American practice, it has inspired criticism in the Swedish press and has provided grist for the mill of the bourgeois parties in their attempt to fault the long rule of the Social Democrats. Many Swedes satisfy the proprietor instinct through ownership of vacation cottages, over a quarter of all Swedish families having access to such facilities. Summer and weekend cottages are being constructed at the rate of about 25,000 per year.

## 2. Social security

Sweden has attracted attention in recent years as a highly functional welfare state. Its social welfare program, one of the most comprehensive in the world, is distinctive in that it is supported by an economy which is only about 10% nationalized. The general acceptance of the philosophy and principles of universal social insurance protecting all citizens from birth to death was manifested by the *Riksdag's* virtually unanimous endorsement of the National Social Insurance Act of 1962, which consolidated and liberalized benefits under the then existing social insurance programs.

The development of the Swedish welfare system to its present stage of refinement is almost entirely a 20th century phenomenon. Conforming to European experience, Swedish reformers drew much of their initial inspiration from the landmark social reforms instituted by Chancellor Bismarck in neighboring Germany in the 1880's. The flourishing Danish cooperatives and mutual insurance schemes at the turn of the century also provided models. But it was not until the Social Democrats came to power in the 1930's that the rapid progress leading to today's comprehensive schemes was initiated.

The social security system comprises five programs: universal old-age and disability pensions, universal health insurance, workmen's compensation, unemployment insurance, and family allowances. All of these programs are compulsory except unemployment insurance, which is normally contractual between unions and management. Non-Swedish citizens who live and work in Sweden are equally affected. The pensions and health insurance programs are comprehensive in coverage, with benefits graduated to some extent according to contributions. The National Social Insurance Board under the Ministry of Social Affairs supervises the administration of social insurance, except for unemployment insurance, through its 27 regional offices. All insured persons are registered with one of these insurance offices from the month in which they reach 16 years of age. It is at this level that basic decisions are made concerning eligibility and the amounts of money dispensed. Anyone dissatisfied with the decision of an insurance office can appeal to the National Social Insurance Board. Further appeal can be made to the National Social Insurance Court, which is the final court of appeal in such cases.

Social welfare expenditures in Sweden account for a greater portion of the national budget than does any other single item. In the 1968-69 national budget the Ministry of Social Affairs received about SKr10.6 billion, or 30.3% of the total budget. Figure 19 illustrates the dramatic growth in welfare expenditures from 1963 to 1968. The total welfare expenditure in Sweden amounts to about 20% of the net national income. Although comparisons are difficult to make, this percentage is only a little above the corresponding figures for other Nordic and for Common Market countries, while it is considerably higher than the proportion allocated for welfare in the United States. The large expenditures for social welfare purposes in Sweden stem not only from high social aims, but also from the large proportion of older people, who require large outlays for pensions and health, the two most important welfare programs. The welfare bill is paid

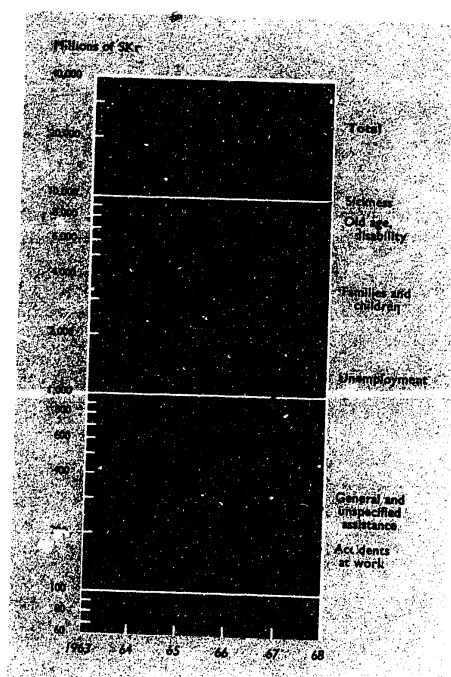


FIGURE 19. Dramatic growth of welfare expenditures (U/OU)

mainly by the national government and by local authorities, with a small share defrayed by fees and taxes on the insured and employers (Figure 20). A basic principle of the Swedish welfare program is that most social benefits should be available to everyone, regardless of personal income. Therefore, about 85% of national and 75% of local expenditures for social purposes are for benefits distributed without means tests.

*a. Old-age, disability, and widows' pensions*

Pensions are paid to the elderly, to invalids, and to widows and their children. The national pension scheme consists of a basic and a supplementary pension. Both pensions are calculated as a percentage of a base sum, which follows the general level of prices and is adjusted each month. The initial index was the general price level in September 1957, when the base sum was set at SKr4,000. In January 1970 the base sum was SKr6,000.

To qualify for the basic pension a person must be a Swedish citizen domiciled in Sweden. A Swedish citizen living abroad can receive this pension if he has been registered in Sweden for census purposes for 6 years preceding his 63rd birthday. Resident aliens covered by reciprocity agreements—generally from the other Nordic countries—can also receive a basic pension under certain conditions. A retirement pension is normally received from the month in which a person reaches the age of 67, and such a pension is paid only after application. It is, however, possible to take out the pension earlier, but the sum paid is then lower by 0.6% for each month between the commencement of payments and the normal month for retirement. The earliest month from which advance payments can be drawn is that in which the insured person reaches the age of 63. A person can also have his old-age pension deferred up until the age of 70 in order to receive a higher amount by 0.6% for each postponed month. The old-age pension for a single person is at present 90% of the base sum. If husband and wife are both pensioners, then the pension amounts to 70% of the base sum to each. In August 1970 a full term old-age pension amounted to SKr5,760 a year for single persons and SKr8,960 a year for a married couple.

A person 16 years of age or older whose working capacity has been reduced by at least half because of sickness, mental retardation, physical disability, or other handicap can obtain an advance pension if the disability is permanent. If the person concerned can be expected to regain wholly or partially his ability to work within a year or so, he receives a sickness benefit instead of an advance pension. The advance pension can be paid in full, to two-thirds, or to one-third, depending on how much working capacity has been reduced. The full advance pension or the full sickness benefit is as large as the old-age pension.

The basic pension also provides for widows and children. A pension is paid to a widow who has reached the age of 36 at the time of her husband's death, provided the marriage continued for at least 5 years. A full pension, which is identical in amount to the full old-age pension allowed a single person of 67, is paid if the widow has reached the age of 50. A full pension is also temporarily paid to a widow, regardless of age or length of marriage, if she has the custody of a child under 16 years of age. A pension is paid to children under 16 years of age on the death of one or both parents. This pension amounts to 25% of the basic sum on the death of one parent and 35% on the death of both parents. The basic pension provides a number of additional special benefits, including

FIGURE 20. Apportionment of cost on the five branches of social insurance in 1968, in thousands of kronur and percent

	NATIONAL GRANTS	LOCAL GRANTS	EM- PLOYERS' CONTRI- BUTIONS	CONTRI- BUTIONS FROM INSURED PEOPLE	OTHER INCOME (INTEREST, ETC.)	TOTAL
Sickness insurance.....	495,110	0	1,857,694	1,482,214	37,861	3,872,879
Occupational injury insurance*.....	8,044	0	154,879	0	77,504	240,427
Unemployment insurance.....	224,062	0	0	80,996	28,032	333,090
National basic pensions.....	3,924,407	596,339	0	1,846,026	61,880	6,428,652
General supplementary pensions.....	0	0	4,894,714	300,391	1,356,881	6,551,986
			Percent			
Sickness insurance.....	12.7	0	48.0	38.3	1.0	100
Occupational injury insurance*.....	9.3	0	64.5	0	32.2	100
Unemployment insurance.....	61.3	0	0	24.3	8.4	100
National basic pensions.....	61.0	9.3	0	28.7	1.0	100
General supplementary pensions.....	0	0	74.7	4.6	20.7	100

\*Includes employers' administration contribution.

supplements for disability, and, where the need exists, a housing allowance and supplements for specialized child care.

The national supplementary pension (ATP), like the basic pension, is tied to the cost-of-living index. Unlike the basic pension, however, which (with minor exceptions) is equal for all regardless of income, that ATP is related to previous income. A ceiling on such income is set, beyond which earnings do not qualify for benefits. For 1970 the ceiling was SKr45,000. In August 1969 the supplementary pension came to about SKr8,800 for a person who earlier earned an annual income of SKr20,000 and to about SKr23,400 for a person previously earning SKr45,000 a year. The supplementary pension is added to the basic pension, and, generally, the total amounts to about two-thirds of the income earned by a pensioner during his 15 best-paid years.

Figure 20 describes the financing of the basic and supplementary pensions. The basic pension contributions by the insured are paid by all persons between 17 and 66 years of age who are not receiving a pension. The charge is a certain percentage (about 4%) of the insured person's taxable income. In 1970 the employer's contribution to the supplementary pension was 10% of the employee's pay. Since coverage for the self-employed is not compulsory, they must pay their own premiums.

**b. Health insurance**

All Swedish citizens and resident aliens registered for census purposes are covered by health insurance. Under the program, allowances and reimbursements defray payments for treatment by a doctor and in

certain cases a dentist, for hospitalization, for travel costs, and for medical prescriptions. Health and medical care is mainly the responsibility of provincial councils, each of which has a general hospital under its jurisdiction. A uniform tariff applies to the public outpatient services of these hospitals: SKr7 for visiting a doctor in his office, SKr15 for a home visit, and SKr2 for a telephone consultation. If a patient chooses to consult a private practitioner, he is reimbursed for three-fourths of the cost of the doctor's bills. A necessary condition for reimbursement of dental fees is that treatment be related to disease, and that it be provided at one of the central departments of the National Dental Service, a general hospital, or a college of dentistry. No payment is received for ordinary visits to a dentist, although women can receive reimbursement amounting to three-fourths of actual expenditure for ordinary dental care in connection with pregnancy.

The health insurance program provides basic free hospitalization in connection with sickness or maternity. Payment to the insured generally corresponds to the costs of care in a public ward, although the insured may assure himself better accommodations through payments of slightly augmented premiums. Patients desiring a semiprivate or private hospital room usually, however, pay the difference between the cost of the room and ward care; few avail themselves of the opportunity to pay higher premiums. In the case of travel to a doctor or dentist, compensation is paid only for sums in excess of SKr4. Should the insured require hospitalization, the entire cost of travel to the hospital is paid. Reimbursement for charges involving other care and



treatment, for example convalescent care or physiotherapy, amounts to three-fourths of actual expenditure. The expenses of convalescent treatment are paid for a maximum of 60 days following each period of illness. Finally, certain prescribed medicines for the treatment of chronic and serious diseases are provided free of charge under the program, while other pharmaceutical preparations are sold at reduced rates.

Sweden's national health insurance program provides an added sickness or maternity benefit. A sickness benefit is the compensation paid for income lost due to illness, and it is calculated according to estimated annual income. The lowest (basic) sickness benefit paid is SKr6 per day. Payments made in excess of this sum are supplementary sickness benefits, and the maximum amount paid is SKr52 per day. The sickness benefit is tax free, and the period for which it can be paid is in principle unlimited. It is paid from and including the day after a person falls sick, provided that the person has reported sick to the insurance office. Women without an earned income of their own (i.e., housewives) also receive a sickness benefit. Housewives and students who are not insured for any supplementary sickness benefits can take out voluntary sickness benefit insurance. For a low premium they can receive, if sick, a maximum sum of SKr15 per day. In certain cases a children's bonus of SKr1, SKr2, or SKr3 per day is paid, depending on the number of children in the family.

The health insurance program additionally provides a maternity benefit of SKr1,080 to women giving birth. In the case of multiple births SKr540 extra is paid for each additional child. An employed woman is entitled to a supplementary sickness benefit for 180 days provided that she has been insured for a sickness benefit of at least SKr7 per day for 270 days or more prior to delivery.

Figure 20 describes the financing of national health insurance. The following tabulation shows the national annual health insurance charges in kronur for various income levels in 1970.

INCOME	CHARGE
5,000-5,800	274
10,200-12,000	316
18,000-21,000	388
30,000-33,000	460
39,000	514

The health insurance charge, which is listed on the income tax return, consists of a premium paid by all persons who are registered with an insurance office at the end of the year. Certain persons (i.e., pensioners) are exempted from part of these charges, while a

reduction may be made on the basis of declared income if it is below a certain minimum level. The charges for self-employed persons, however, are considerably higher than the regular fees.

*c. Workmen's compensation*

All employees in private and public employment are covered under work injury insurance. Although this insurance program falls outside the National Insurance Act, it is coordinated with the national health insurance program, so that all compensation during the first 90 days is paid according to the provisions of the act. After this 90-day period, the Occupational Injuries Insurance Program pays all necessary medical costs. Sickness benefits are then received at special rates, and the rates are never below those received in the case of ordinary sickness. The program offers life-long payments for permanent disability, and in case of death dependants receive insurance compensation. This type of insurance is financed primarily through assessment of employers, although employees and the national government contribute indirectly through their payments for health insurance (Figure 20).

*d. Unemployment insurance*

Unemployment insurance is a voluntary program, which, like workmen's compensation, comes outside the National Insurance Act. The program is subsidized by the national government and supervised by recognized unemployment insurance societies, of which there were 46 in 1969, with approximately 1,766,000 members, or roughly one-half the total number of employees. Although coverage is generally limited to employees, employer associations are permitted to set up unemployment insurance societies for their members. To qualify for benefits from a society, a member must be at least 16 years of age, unemployed, able to accept employment, and registered with the public employment service. No benefit is payable unless the insured person has been unemployed for 5 days over a period of 5 calendar weeks. During these 5 days the person must be registered with the public employment service as unemployed and looking for work. An applicant need undergo this waiting period only once during the insurance year. Payments from unemployment insurance societies take the form of a daily benefit ranging from SKr18 to SKr50, and a supplemental benefit of SKr2 per day for each child. These benefits, which are tax exempt, are payable for only 5 days a week and may not (except under a few special

circumstances) run for more than 150 days during the course of one insurance year. The financing of unemployment insurance is described in Figure 20.

*e. Family allowances*

The national government supplements its efforts to insure social security in all its facets by seeking to defray the cost of child care and thus encourage both larger families and greater educational opportunities. In addition to a cash maternity grant, the government pays a family a tax-free allowance of SKr1,200 for each child under 16 years of age. A study allowance of SKr675 per year is paid to the parents of every boy and girl who pursues his or her education past the age of 16. Studies at university-level institutions qualify for further government support in the form of both grants and loans, which in 1970 total SKr4,410 per semester.

Families with low incomes and young children can also obtain a housing allowance, which is subject to a means test. For example, a family with one child under 16 years of age and an income of SKr17,200 per year receives a government housing allowance of SKr720 per year. The amount decreases with rising income, the upper limit for a one-child family to receive any assistance being about SKr22,000 per year. A family with five children receives an allowance of SKr1,680-SKr3,840 per year, depending both on its income and on the number of rooms in the house. The upper income limit for assistance in this case is about SKr40,000. In most communities families with children and low income can also receive local housing allowances, if the cost of housing is high for the family budget. Newly married couples can apply for a home furnishing loan up to SKr4,000, repayable at low interest over a 5-year period. And a growing number of day nurseries, nursery schools, and play centers have been established at public expense to make it feasible for mothers of young children to enter the labor market.

**3. Social problems**

Sweden has few serious social problems. There is no real poverty, slum areas have practically disappeared, and illiteracy is entirely confined to that infinitesimal fraction of the population that is incapable of learning. Thus, the country is not subject to the social tensions that arise from great inequalities in opportunity and in the distribution of wealth. Even in socially conscious Sweden, however, there is some social malaise. Sweden's suicide rate has consistently been among the 10 highest in the world. The 1968 rate of 21.5 suicides per 100,000 inhabitants compares with rates of 23.9 in Czechoslovakia (1967), 21.6 in

Finland, 21.3 in West Germany (1967), 20.5 in Denmark, 17.0 in Switzerland, 15.5 in France (1967), 8.9 in the United Kingdom (1969), 8.1 in Norway, 4.5 in Spain (1967), and 10.7 in the United States. In Sweden, as in most other European societies, nearly three times as many men as women take their lives. The rate for males was 31.4 and for females, 11.7. The highest suicide rate for both sexes occurred after the age of 45, when the rate for males increased to 51.1 and for females to 16.8. Swedish psychologists have proffered any number of reasons for the high national suicide rate, including rising living standards, the long, dark winters, and the increasing number of old and middle-aged persons.

Over and above the known integrity of all Scandinavian statistics, which may account in measure for the relatively high number of people listed flatly as having taken their own lives, qualified investigators concur that there is some cause and effect relationship between a high number of suicides and high living standards. Austrian-born Professor Erwin Stengel has noted in connection with a worldwide study of suicides that "the majority of the people who kill themselves are elderly and many of them are physically sick." He goes on to point out that the great medical discoveries—uniformly exploited in "well-off" societies—have benefited mainly the younger age groups, while the diseases of middle and old age still remain to be conquered. Therefore, in the most advanced European societies the average person may now expect to live well into his late sixties, seventies, and often eighties. Thus, Stengel suggests that the welfare state may indeed encourage suicides, but not because of boredom, as has been suggested by some critics, but by enabling people to live longer so that they can reach an age when suicide may be a more attractive alternative than chronic, hopeless, degenerative illness.

Crime, juvenile delinquency, and drunkenness have increased in recent years. One causal factor is the increased concentration of industry, which is bringing a belated wave of urbanization and increased antisocial behavior as one of its attendant ills. Another less clearly defined factor is advanced by a school of psychologists who correlate the increased social malaise in all advanced Western nations with an inability to put greater leisure time to constructive use. In Sweden, as in the United States and other advanced countries, young people seem especially prone to misuse their increased leisure time. In this regard, Swedish psychologists point to an ironic byproduct of the welfare system—parental neglect caused by the need for mothers to work in order to help meet the high costs of the comprehensive welfare

benefits. In general, however, antisocial behavior in Sweden, with the exception of suicides, remains within the relatively low parameters that characterize Western Europe.

The traditionally very low crime rate first increased sharply following World War II. In 1944 the prison population numbered some 2,000; on 1 January 1959 it totaled 4,470 and on 1 January 1969, 5,530. The ratio of about 69 prisoners per 100,000 population in the latter 1960's was nearly twice that in Norway and Denmark. After a continued rise through the 1950's and early 1960's, there is evidence that the incidence of crime or antisocial behavior then started to level off. Between 1961 and 1970 the number of persons of all ages admitted annually to prison rose from 10,767 to 11,647, an increase of 8% during a period in which the population increased by 7%. The age group 21 to 24 registered the greatest increase (42%), followed by the group 18 to 20 years (24%). Of those persons imprisoned each year, slightly over 90% receive sentences of less than a year, and over 50% receive sentences ranging from a few days to 3 months. Thus, the proportion of serious crimes or felonies committed remains very small. Larceny, burglary, and robbery make up about three-fourths of all offenses against the penal code.

As elsewhere in Europe, the relative number of crimes of violence is markedly lower than in the United States. Although it is difficult to compare directly the crime rate between countries because of great differences in reporting practices, such differences narrow sufficiently in the case of homicides to afford some validity in comparative statistics. Even here, however, internal inconsistencies limit ability to compare precisely. Both official Swedish and U.N. statistics state that in 1968, 0.7 persons per 100,000 population, in Sweden "died" of homicide. Yet the official figure citing "convictions" for homicides was 0.8 per 100,000, and that for "offenses of homicide known to police" was 2.8 per 100,000. The preliminary figures for 1970 were very close, with 0.7 persons per 100,000 again "dying" of homicide and 2.2 per 100,000 such offenses known to police." In the United States, according to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, there were 7.7 cases of homicide per 100,000 population known to the police. Whatever the precise frame of comparison, it is clear that the incidence of homicide in the United States is at least nearly four times that in Sweden, and may be as high as 11 times. Available evidence suggests that the incidence of forcible rape is significantly higher in the United States than in Europe. But here the rate in Sweden is somewhat on the higher side for Western Europe, a

fact that may stem in part from greater precision in reporting. In Sweden in 1970 there were 8.2 incidents of rape per 100,000 population known to police as compared to a rate of 18.1 per 100,000 in the United States.

Sexual promiscuity, car theft, drunkenness, and narcotics use are the most common offenses among juveniles. Well over 50% of the girls in reformatory schools are guilty of loose sexual relations. Of the total number of boys in these schools in the mid 1960's, over 50% were convicted of car theft as compared with 35% at the start of the decade. During the same period both sexes showed a rising addiction to alcohol—in the case of boys, from 20% to 35% of the total; in the case of girls, from 24% to 38%. Concomitant with this trend, there has been a growing use of narcotics among young adults.

The consumption of intoxicating beverages throughout Sweden is high in terms of pure alcohol, averaging seven and one half quarts annually per inhabitant 15 years of age or older in 1969. For many years the national and local governments have sought to combat alcoholism and to limit its injurious effects on the individual and on society. Penalties of imprisonment and loss of driving license are provided by law and strictly enforced against those persons driving automobiles while under the influence of liquor. Numerous temperance committees throughout the country are appointed by the local authorities and are often affiliated with church groups. Among other duties, they investigate alcoholics, provide them with guidance, and, if necessary, place them in public institutions for rehabilitation. There is tentative evidence that these official actions may be having an effect. In 1968 there were 64,372 convictions for drunkenness (62,477 for men and 1,895 for women), down 13% from 1967, 15% from 1966, and 20% from 1965—a 4-year period in which the population increased by about 3.2%. The rate of convictions for drunkenness was highest in the age group 18 to 24.

## F. Health

Two sensitive indicators of physical well-being attest to the excellent public health conditions in Sweden. With the lowest infant mortality and the highest life expectancy rates in the world, the Swedes have set standards for public health which serve as models in the rest of Europe and in North America. Contributing to the general national awareness of health requirements and their effective implementation are such factors as universal literacy, cultural and racial homogeneity, a northern temperate climate,

and a period of internal and external peace that has remained unbroken since 1814. Coupled with the energy and pragmatism of the population, these factors have brought general advancement in material and social well-being and the creation in the present century of a comprehensive medical and social welfare system second to none.

**1. Incidence of disease and causes of death**

As in other developed countries of Western Europe with a high level of living, mortality is caused principally by the degenerative diseases, as is shown in the following tabulation listing the four leading causes of death in 1968:

	NUMBER OF DEATHS	DEATHS PER 10,000 POPULATION
Diseases of the circulatory system	34,215	43.1
Neoplasms	18,011	20.1
Diseases of the nervous system	9,860	12.1
Respiratory diseases	6,109	7.7

Among the health hazards to the indigenous population of all ages, rheumatic and respiratory disorders have the highest incidence. Such disorders are aggravated by the relatively high humidity as well as the cold, and are particularly common in the far northern section of the country. The main communicable diseases are influenza, gonorrhea, childhood diseases, hemolytic streptococcal disease, tuberculosis, infectious hepatitis, and salmonellosis. Because of the efficient application of modern preventive and therapeutic measures throughout the country and the relatively even distribution of income, no significant differences exist in the communicable disease pattern between the urban and rural areas or among the various economic levels.

The prevalent moral and social attitudes toward sexual behavior influence the high venereal disease rates. Medical authorities acknowledge difficulties in controlling the rising incidence of gonorrhea—from 18,510 reported cases in 1960 to 34,624 cases in 1969. The government has instituted numerous control programs, including free treatment, and widespread health education through news media, lectures, publications, and study groups. Reported cases of syphilis have also increased sharply—from 88 in 1960 to 379 in 1969. Among the other reported communicable diseases, scarlet fever showed a marked decrease from 11,827 cases in 1960 to 6,371 cases in 1969. Tuberculosis has also been greatly curtailed from 4,194 cases (6 cases per 10,000 inhabitants) in

1960 to 2,321 cases (2.9 per 10,000) in 1968. Listed additionally in 1969 were salmonellosis (1,494 cases), infectious hepatitis (1,289), and meningococcal meningitis (107). Cases of influenza increased from 34,988 in 1968 to 65,679 in 1971. None of the internationally quarantinable diseases are endemic in Sweden; their importation is adequately controlled by quarantine stations in ports and international airports.

**2. Animals and plants**

Sweden is remarkably free of serious zoonoses. A vigilant veterinary service exercises prompt and stringent action against threats of reintroduction from countries with contagious diseases or through import of livestock products. Brucellosis has been eradicated and bovine tuberculosis all but eradicated. Anthrax is effectively controlled through vaccination, and trichinosis occurs infrequently. Tularemia appears only in certain limited areas. The principal diseases affecting the food and working animal population are actinomycosis, foot-and-mouth disease, parasitic infection, salmonellosis, swine erysipelas, and blackleg.

Few species of insects or other animal life are known or suspected to be vectors or reservoirs of disease. Mosquitoes, gnats, flies, and other biting insects appear in enormous numbers during the arctic summer. One species of mosquito (*Aedes cinereus*) is believed to be the chief vector of tularemia, which is harbored in rabbits and squirrels. Several species of house flies are mechanical transmitters of enteric infections, while lice are potential vectors of epidemic typhus and louse-borne relapsing fever. Numerous species of ticks in the forest areas have been incriminated in the transmission of meningo-encephalitis. The brown rat, found throughout most of Sweden, may play a role in transmitting typhus. The only poisonous snake is the common European viper (*Vipera Berus*), found in central and southern Sweden, but death rarely occurs as the result of its bite.

Poisonous or allergenic plants grow over a wide area. The most common plants poisonous upon ingestion are wood sorrel, yellow iris, buttercup, common foxglove, monkshood, and horned poppy. Species of plants implicated in allergies include alder, birch, hazel, and sheep fescue.

**3. Nutrition**

The dietary level of the Swedish population is satisfactory both quantitatively and qualitatively. While there are slight variations of diet between age groups and occupations, the food intake and diet of

virtually all Swedes exceed the standards recommended for the Swedish climate and body build. In the following tabulation a comparison of the average daily per capita caloric intake in grams is made among Sweden and other selected countries for 1967-68:

	GRAMS	PERCENT OF ANIMAL ORIGIN	PER CAPITA PROTEIN CONSUMPTION IN GRAMS
United States	3,200	40	90
Canada	3,180	45	95
United Kingdom	3,160	41	88
Denmark	3,150	41	89
France	3,100	38	101
West Germany	2,960	37	81
Norway	2,950	49	81
SWEDEN	2,850	41	80
Spain	2,790	21	82

The earlier Swedish habit of eating a high proportion of bread and potatoes has changed to a healthier consumption of meat, fish, dairy products, vegetables, and fruits. Deep frozen foods are very popular, and semimanufactured products for baby foods and baking are appearing on the market to an increasing extent. The Swedes usually prefer cheese to eggs at breakfast, the former constituting the principal form of animal protein eaten at this meal. Meat prepared in pate form, meatballs, and elaborate fish dishes are frequent delicacies. Smorgasbords or large buffets with many kinds of fish, salads, cheese, and egg dishes are popular in cities, at gatherings, and in hotels and restaurants. Dietary deficiency is rare. With the exception of the excessive consumption of alcoholic beverages, there are no particularly dangerous food habits or unsatisfactory (unhealthful) cooking procedures.

**4. Public sanitation**

Meat and milk processing, storage plants, and sanitary handling facilities in Sweden are modern and adequate. Standards of food inspection and of supervision of food distribution are high. The widespread use of refrigerators and deep freezers, the cool climate, and the consciousness of sanitation among a universally literate population combine to assure a minimal incidence of food spoilage.

Urban areas, containing about 80% of the population, are well provided with piped water, which is adequately treated and continuously tested for purity. In rural areas water is supplied by small regional or private water works or from individual wells, springs, or streams. During the last two decades the expansion of sewage purification plants has

proceeded at an increasing rate. In 1969 there were about 1,000 sewage purification plants using biological purification as opposed to about 10 in 1950. In spite of this rapid development, however, 20% of all communities with over 200 inhabitants were without sewage treatment plants in 1971, while another 25% had mechanical plants, and about 55% had either biological or biochemical purification plants, the only type now deemed adequate. Government subsidies covering up to 50% of the costs involved are available to communities in order to hasten the construction of biological purification plants. All new plants are of the tertiary treatment variety, and older plants are being converted as rapidly as funds permit. This was aided to some extent by the increased unemployment, which enabled the government to stimulate the labor market by constructing new treatment facilities. Sweden's problem is somewhat different from that of the United States, since its wastes are discharged largely into lakes, which are more vulnerable to contamination than rapidly flowing rivers. Over half of the research funds of the Environmental Protection Board was devoted to studies on the eutrophication of lakes. The fouling of the Baltic Sea represents an international rather than a Swedish problem, and Sweden is attempting to develop agreements with the other Baltic nations to prevent further pollution. Several conferences were held in 1971 and 1972 to define the technical problems and to formulate remedial action.

Collection and disposal of garbage and trash are governed by strict laws. Refuse is collected frequently in urban areas, mostly in open trucks, and is disposed of by incineration or controlled dumping.

Sweden has significant air and water pollution problems, and several special committees have been established to coordinate pollution control measures among different governmental and nongovernmental agencies. The National Environmental Protection Board, founded in 1967, is the central administrative authority for environmental affairs. In 1969 the *Riksdag* passed an environmental protection law which incorporates measures against water and air pollution, noise, and other disturbances. Under this law, the government is empowered to monitor the discharge of waste in the operation of factories and to require conformity with official guide lines. Municipalities are required to obtain special permission to discharge sewage, and biological purification is a minimum requirement for new applicants.

The largest single item in the environmental budget represents subsidies for municipal waste water treatment. The total annual investment for this

purpose will approximate SKr250-300 million, which authorities believe will provide all Swedish municipalities with adequate treatment facilities by 1975. Of the approximately 1,300 purification plants with biological and chemical purification Sweden now has, only 50 are considered of high efficiency. About 330 three phase plants are under construction or projected.

The discharge of oil and other refuse at sea is forbidden in Swedish territorial waters. In order to combat the discharge of sulphur dioxide in the air through the extensive use of oil for heating purposes, the sulphur content of heating oils is now limited by the law of 1969 to 2.5% by weight. Following the new law on environmental protection, directives and norms are presently being drawn up for air purification in industry. Rules have also been imposed to reduce the discharge of motor vehicle exhaust. Beginning in 1971 carbon monoxide and hydrocarbon discharge was to be reduced to prescribed levels. The new environmental protection law also applies to industrial and traffic noise. As early as 1967 the government declared that supersonic civil air traffic would not be permitted over Swedish territory if the noise from such aircraft proved adverse to health. All of these measures reflect the growing concern for environmental protection. This concern for the environment is also demonstrated by Stockholm's hosting the United Nations Conference on the Problems of the Human Environment in 1972.

#### 5. Public health administration

Public health measures in Sweden are directed by the Ministry of Social Affairs. The ministry has direct control over the National Institute of Public Health; the National Board of Occupational Health and Safety; and the National Social Insurance Board, the supervisor of regional insurance funds. The ministry also coordinates with other national and with international organizations on matters of social welfare and health. International coordination is maintained, for example, with the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in the provision of health facilities and training of personnel in underdeveloped countries, and with the World Health Organization, notably for providing medical education in Sweden and abroad.

The National Board of Health and Welfare, which was established in 1968 as a result of a merger of the National Social Welfare Board and the National Board of Health, is the central administrative authority for matters relating to social welfare, medical care, and the supply of pharmaceutical products. Approximately 95% of all health care is

under the jurisdiction of this board and its associated public bodies. In addition to licensing all medical doctors, the board establishes qualifications for, and gives licenses to, dentists, nurses, pharmacists, and others working in health-related fields. It also oversees physicians, pharmacists, and dentists with private practices to insure that they meet government policies and standards. Authority for functional implementation of board policies is delegated to the provincial councils. These councils, one in Stockholm and in each of the 24 provinces, are responsible for hospitals, dental health services, and medical officers within their areas. The county medical officer and his staff represent the national board and perform supervisory and inspectional functions for the board.

#### 6. Medical care

The quality of medical and paramedical personnel in Sweden is excellent, and training compares favorably with that in the United States. Most doctors serve as full-time or part-time public health officials; only a few devote all their time to private practice. The total number of physicians, however, is inadequate for the needs of the population. In 1969 there were 10,380 doctors, or 1 doctor per 770 inhabitants. The 1967 ratio of 1:850 compares with figures of 1:860 in the United Kingdom, 1:850 in France, 1:750 in Norway, 1:710 in Denmark, 1:650 in West Germany, and 1:650 in the United States. With increased numbers of students being admitted to medical schools, the physician to population ratio in Sweden is expected to improve to approximately 1:450 by 1985. Most physicians tend to settle in the more developed, urban centers, causing a marked shortage of qualified medical personnel in rural and sparsely populated areas. In many rural areas such shortages on hospital staffs have caused an unreasonably large workload in daily medical care. The Swedish Medical Association has established group consultation centers throughout the country in order to obtain a better geographic distribution of physicians.

The number of medical facilities is sufficient to provide adequate medical care for the population. In 1968 there were 729 general and specialized hospitals, with a total of 115,390 beds, a ratio of 146 beds per 10,000 population. In the past decade the emphasis has been on the construction of larger, well-equipped hospitals in the large population centers and the gradual reduction in the number of peripheral facilities. A striking example of the advantages to be derived from this trend is afforded by Danderyd Hospital (Figure 21), situated a few miles north of Stockholm and administered by the Stockholm

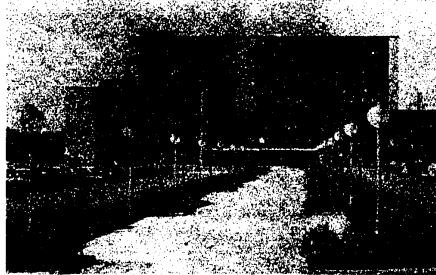


FIGURE 21. Danderyd Hospital, outside of Stockholm (U/OU)

provincial council. This institution, which is probably the most modern and best equipped of the general hospitals in Sweden, was originally constructed in 1917-22 with a capacity of 118 beds. It was subsequently enlarged and rebuilt mostly under a program begun in 1956; its total capacity was increased to 950 beds by 1970. This hospital handles patient data in a highly developed computer communications system; its Univac computer stores data on 1.4 million people. The complex of buildings in attractive rural surroundings includes a 14-story "skyscraper," postoperative recovery and intensive care sections with up-to-date accessories, such as television screens in an observation room to enable the staff to watch the patients, psychiatric clinics, an ophthalmic clinic with a special unit for treatment of children with eye squint (some 200,000 Swedes suffer from this defect), a recreation room, swimming pool, and sports hall. In 1966, 21.1% of the hospitals were operated by the central government, 70.5% by the provinces, 1.6% by local authorities, 5% by private enterprises, and 1.8% by health funds and associations. The private hospitals are small and have bed capacities of fewer than 100.

### G. Religion

Religious homogeneity, as well as ethnic and linguistic homogeneity, has contributed importantly to the cohesiveness and stability of Swedish society. The Constitution of 1809 established the Evangelical Lutheran faith as the official religion and the Church of Sweden as the state church. All Swedish citizens are members of this church by virtue of their citizenship, unless they are born to parents who do not belong, or unless they exercise their right to join another church. About 94% of the population are nominal adherents of

the Church of Sweden, but only 3% or 4% from among this group attend church regularly. Approximately 5% of the population are members and regular communicants of the Protestant "free" churches. Thus, about 10% of all Swedes (counting the handful of Roman Catholics and other faiths) attend religious services every Sunday, while perhaps one-fifth attend church at least once a month. Even in comparison with most other Western European countries, this is low church attendance, and very low when compared with church attendance in the United States. Nearly all Swedes, however, have their children baptized and confirmed in the church; probably more than 90% of the population approve of the present practice of giving religious instruction (Christian but not denominational) in the public schools, and fewer than 10% favor the disestablishment of the state church. Also, religious fulfillment may be achieved by means other than frequent church attendance. For example, many people listen more or less regularly to church services and devotional programs on radio and television, and the total number of religious broadcasts (about 1,200 a year) is thought to be higher in Sweden than in any other European country.

### I. The Church of Sweden

#### a. Organization and activities

For administrative purposes the Church of Sweden is divided into 13 dioceses, 179 rural deaneries, 1,148 pastorates or rectorial districts, and 2,566 parishes. The highest authority is the Church Assembly, which is under the chairmanship of the Archbishop of Sweden. The assembly, which is called into session by the King at least once every 5 years, comprises 30 pastors and 57 laymen, in addition to the Archbishop and the 13 bishops, who are members by virtue of their office. Each diocese selects two pastors, and the national universities at Uppsala and Lund each name two theological professors as representatives. The laymen are selected by the legislative bodies of the local parishes through an indirect electoral system. The archbishop is the ceremonial head of the Church of Sweden and spokesman for it in relations with the national government and other churches. He also invests the bishops in office, but his only direct power over them is the legal obligation to "warn" a bishop who is "neglecting his work." He is selected in theory by the King and in practice by the cabinet from one of the three candidates who have received the largest number of votes from the Cathedral Chapter and the Council of Pastors of each diocese.

Each of the 13 dioceses is administered by a bishop who is appointed by the King-in-Council (the cabinet acting in the King's name) on the recommendation of church officials. He sits in judgment over the clergy in matters of faith or doctrine and is authorized to issue directives regarding church activities. The bishop calls, usually every 6 years, and presides over meetings of the Council of Pastors, which is composed of all the pastors in his diocese and has the function of advising the bishop and the Cathedral Chapter. The bishop also chairs the Cathedral Chapter, which comprises the dean of the diocesan cathedral, two theological professors in those dioceses containing universities, a pastor, a layman selected by the parishes, and a layman who is an authority on public education appointed by the King-in-Council. The principal function of the Cathedral Chapter is to advise the bishops on matters concerning the administration of the dioceses. Each diocesan deanery, a relatively minor church unity, is headed by a dean, who is appointed by the bishop and advises him on matters within his area.

The pastorate, an administrative unit consisting of one or more parishes, is headed by a pastor who, in addition to being the spiritual leader of the parishes in his area, is the principal administrative church official at the local level. He is an important figure in municipal, social, and civic life and often acts as leader in school activities. The pastor is selected through a complicated electoral system involving the parish assemblies, the Cathedral Chapter, and the King-in-Council.

The parish is the basic territorial unit of the church. Each parish has an assembly, comprising all citizens over 21 years of age who are members of the Church of Sweden. If the parish numbers 1,500 or fewer inhabitants, it is governed by an assembly; parishes with more than 1,500 are governed by a parish council, selected by the assembly and numbering 15 to 40 members, according to the number of inhabitants. Among the principal functions of the assembly or parish council are the handling of funds and the administration of church property. The parish assembly or council selects an executive committee of five to 11 members, charged with insuring that church laws are carried out, watching over the faith and church services, and settling disputes in the congregation. Figure 22 shows a church of the type frequently found in the smaller towns.

The Church of Sweden has created a number of lay organizations, special religious institutes, schools, and religious associations. Special emphasis is placed on voluntary church work and on educational, youth,



FIGURE 22. Church at Leksands-Noret, dating from the Middle Ages (U/OU)

and women's movements. The most important lay organization is the Board of Lay Workers of the Church of Sweden, which is chaired by the Archbishop and comprises six other members—three clergymen and three laymen—selected by the Church Assembly. It functions as both an administrative body and a training agency for voluntary lay work in the church, issuing literature and arranging courses of study in church work, directing scouting activities for children, and preserving church art. Two other important agencies are the Mission Board of the Church of Sweden, which directs all foreign mission work, and the Board for Seamen's Welfare of the Church of Sweden, which ministers to the religious needs of seamen and also supports religious activities among Swedish-speaking congregations abroad.

#### *b. Doctrine and policies*

The doctrine of the Church of Sweden is fixed by the Constitution of 1809, which states that the faith of the King is based on the Bible as interpreted by the



Augsburg Confession and the Church Assembly of the Church of Sweden in 1593. Church liturgy is laid down in the Handbook of the Church of Sweden and the Psalm Book. Few Protestant churches have kept as much of the medieval liturgy as has the Church of Sweden. The church's policies are laid down in law by the Church Assembly and the *Riksdag*. Although the church as such takes no stand on current controversial political or social issues, in practice the clergy in general still maintains its conservative attitude in most such matters; divorce and abortion, for example, are countenanced only in exceptional circumstances. Swedish Protestant leaders, notably of the official church, have been conspicuously active in the ecumenical movement. The first World Conference of Churches met in Stockholm in 1925 at the instigation of the Archbishop of the Church of Sweden.

### c. Relations with the government

Although the Church of Sweden has kept considerable powers of self-government in church affairs, particularly at the local level, the national government is dominant over it, and national government subsidies constitute an important portion of church funds. Laws concerning church-state relations or internal regulatory affairs must be passed by both the *Riksdag* and the Church Assembly; the latter has only what amounts to a veto on such legislation, because it cannot amend but must accept or reject the *Riksdag* bills as a whole. In practice, however, the assembly has rarely used its veto. Although the King is not head of the Church of Sweden, the King-in-Council in his name has the power to appoint the bishops, including the Archbishop, the professors in the theological faculties of the universities, and all church officials. The clergy has a dual civil and religious legal status—its members can be removed from their positions only through civil actions under the criminal code; the church officials then relieve them of their religious duties. The principal government ministry for church-state affairs is the Ministry of Education and Ecclesiastical Affairs. Its most important functions include supervision of the nomination of candidates for the clergy, preparation of that part of the national budget concerned with church affairs, and supervision of the operations of parish governmental bodies and the execution of church law.

Total church revenue in 1969 amounted to SKr1,060 million, of which SKr676 million derived from church taxes, SKr110 million from state grants, and SKr30 million from charges and fees for civil registration duties and other civil services rendered.

An official commission is studying the feasibility of gradually, over a 20-year period, severing all state ties with the national church. A reliable Swedish newspaper reported in December 1971 that the commission favored converting the Church of Sweden into a "free" church in 1976, with the state assuming its civil registration duties as well as its control over funerals. For 5 years after 1976 the church would retain its right to tax revenue, and the government would retain its authority to name bishops and some pastors, these reciprocal rights gradually to be relinquished from 1982 to 1992, a period in which some transitional state support would still be forthcoming. By 1992, according to the newspaper account, all official connections would be discontinued.

### 2. Protestant free churches

About 5% of Sweden's population belongs to Protestant "free" or nonconformist churches. The largest of them is the Pentecostal congregations, with 91,000 members in 1970, closely followed by the Swedish Missionary Society, with just under 87,000 members. Other "free churches" include the Salvation Army (36,200), the Evangelical National Missionary Society (28,200), the Swedish Baptist Church (25,600), the Orebro Missionary Society (19,200), the Swedish Alliance Missionary Society (13,800), the Methodist Church (9,000), and minor splinter groups representing the Seventh-day Adventists, the Society of Friends, and Jehovah's Witnesses. It should be noted that notwithstanding the greater fervency of belief implicit in the establishment of nonconformist sects, even the Protestant "free churches" have been losing adherents in the last decade or two, again reflecting the casualness with which Swedes are increasingly coming to regard the formal practice of their faith. The total number of "free church" communicants decreased from 357,140 in 1960 to 323,045 in 1969; only the small Holiness Mission and Swedish Salvation Army sects registered slight gains.

### 3. Other religions

Non-Protestant churches have very few adherents, amounting to fewer than 1% of the population. Such churches are located principally in foreign colonies of the larger cities. Since 1873 Swedish citizens have been permitted to join the Roman Catholic Church, but until the arrival of refugees from states along the Baltic—notably Poland—and of other continental immigrants seeking work after World War II, the membership was insignificant. In the 1950's these

newcomers continued to arrive, settling principally in central and southern industrial areas. The Vatican subsequently established Sweden as a diocese (1953) with 18 parishes, 18 chapels, and four permanent priests. In 1969 there were 49,150 Roman Catholics in Sweden. The Greek (Old Russian) Orthodox Church has about 4,000 members (principally former Estonians), for whom a synod has been established in Stockholm.

There are about 12,000 persons of the Jewish faith in Sweden, of whom 50% reside in Stockholm and the remainder in other large cities. With the exception of a few German Jewish refugees, nearly all are Swedish citizens of several generations. There is no national religious organization, but there are eight autonomous Jewish congregations. Only the congregations in Stockholm, Goteborg, and Malmo have their own rabbis. Jewish families are generally assimilated into Swedish society, and anti-Jewish feeling among the population is insignificant.

## H. Education

### I. General

Until the post-World War II period, Sweden's educational system closely resembled the systems of other countries in northwestern Europe. Controlled by the church into the middle of the 19th century, Swedish schools were marked by the influence of Lutheran pedagogy, and the academic secondary school hewed close to the scholastic lines established in the neighboring German *gymnasia* more than a century ago. Since the demanding curriculum presupposed a congenial home cultural environment as well as high intellect, academic secondary education, and hence university matriculation, were limited to the small minority destined to run the affairs of the country. Only in the elementary education program was Sweden ahead of its neighbors (except for Denmark) by the first quarter of the present century, accounting that early for the extraordinarily high literacy rate of over 99%. Elementary schooling has been compulsory in Sweden since 1842, and school attendance was well enforced by the latter part of the 19th century.

The state gradually assumed direction of all schools after 1840. The overall responsibility for administration of the educational system is lodged in the Ministry of Education and Ecclesiastical Affairs, which exercises close control over all curriculums and sets uniform requirements for the admission and graduation of students as well as for training teachers.

While the ministry is the central authority on policy, actual administration is handled by three agencies: the National Board of Education, with jurisdiction over the public primary and secondary school system; the Board of Institutes of Technology, with jurisdiction over the university-level technical institutes; and the semiautonomous Office of the Chancellor of Universities, with jurisdiction over the universities. In addition, 24 provincial school boards, one for each province, are appointed by the ministry and the King-in-Council, and more than 1,000 local school boards are elected by the local councils.

The public school system is financed entirely by national and local taxes. Expenditures for educational purposes, including research, are the second largest item in the national budget, exceeded only by social welfare. Between 1961 and 1971—a period in which total national expenditures more than doubled—the proportion of total outlays allocated for educational purposes rose from 13% to about 20%. The following tabulation shows (in millions of U.S. dollars) total central government outlays, and the proportion allocated to the Ministry of Education and Ecclesiastical Affairs (which bears over 90% of central government expenditures for education) and other ministries for FY 1970/71:

	MILLIONS U.S. DOLLARS	PERCENT OF TOTAL
Ministry of Social Affairs .....	2,500	28.4
Ministry of Education and Ecclesiastical Affairs .....	1,615	18.3
Ministry of Defense .....	1,130	12.8
Ministry of Interior .....	795	9.0
Ministry of Local Government and Communications .....	715	8.1
Other expenditures .....	2,065	23.4
<b>Total central government expenditures .....</b>	<b>8,820</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Sweden has an extensive system of public financial aid to students, in the form of free tuition, free school lunches, and free dental care. Since the academic year 1964/65, all students in the secondary and higher educational institutions, including the vocational and technical schools, receive basic cash allowances from the government, and many receive supplementary sums according to their needs. In addition, public study loans on favorable terms are available to students at all universities, teachers colleges, and other institutions of higher technical training.

The Swedish academic secondary schools have traditionally been highly selective, geared to produce a relatively small elite group of capable persons who eventually assume positions of leadership in the

society. Secondary school and university students have thus been drawn largely from the better educated, upper income groups, whose financial independence was prerequisite to keeping the young people out of the labor force for several more years and whose congenial home cultural surroundings were often necessary in getting them through the *gymnasium*. A survey of university and university level technical students in 1949-50 showed that about 58% came from the highest social groups, which then comprised 6% of the population; 36% from families of farmers, businessmen, and minor officials comprising 37% of the population; and 6% from working class families, which made up 57% of the population.

It became increasingly apparent toward the end of the decade of the forties that the evolutionary process in the school system was insufficiently rapid to meet all the needs of a burgeoning modern industrial state and that the mounting demand for highly trained physicians, engineers, scientists, and technicians could be met only by making advanced schooling more accessible to qualified children in the lower socioeconomic groups. In 1950 the *Riksdag* inaugurated a wide-range program of educational reform designed to equalize and extend the opportunity for schooling throughout Sweden. By 1964 the elementary and intermediate school systems were reorganized, and a further reform of secondary schools was begun. In instituting these reforms, Swedish educators looked partly to experience in the United States, where some of the boldest experiments in mass education had already been undertaken. Despite the rapidly expanding enrollments in upper secondary and higher education, however, representation of lower income groups has not broadened appreciably. In 1969/70 some 63% of university level students were from upper and upper middle class family background; 16% from the lower middle class; and only 8% from the working class, which still comprised well over half the total population.

This seeming lag in democratization so far as the working class is concerned must be balanced against the geometric expansion of full-time university enrollment from 17,000 in 1950 to roughly 38,000 in 1960 to 104,000 in 1969. Even allowing for the increase in the size of the university age group from about 450,000 in 1955 to about 600,000 in 1965, the increase in enrollment is more than geometric for the decade of the fifties and forms a nearly precise geometric progression for the sixties. The proportion of 19- to 24-year-olds enrolled in all forms of higher education (i.e., including technical institutes and military academies) increased from 2% in 1945 to 20%

in the early 1970's. Thus, the balance sheet on increased accessibility to higher education seems impressive.

One of only a half dozen nations worldwide where the proportion of young people completing upper secondary school is also expanding geometrically, Sweden is accomplishing this rapid evolution with relatively fewer strains than any nation except neighboring Norway. The following tabulation lists the six nations having the highest percentage of young people completing upper secondary school, plus Spain, where the relatively small proportion is increasing rapidly:

	1956	1966	1976
United States	35	50	72
Canada	na	36	(est) 45
SWEDEN	9	20	36
Japan	na	18	32
France	7	14	28
Norway	9	17	27
Spain	2.4	4	7

na Data not available.

The relatively peaceful manner in which rapid educational change is being implemented in Sweden stems in part from the national habit of establishing committees, scrupulously representative of all interested parties to a dispute, so as to resolve the disagreement and plan for the future. Such committees have been at work on the school system ever since the rapid democratization and modernization of secondary and higher education was undertaken in earnest a quarter of a century ago. Students were already represented on these committees in the early 1950's, well before student unrest elsewhere in Europe, notably in France (May 1968), brought such practice into vogue. Notwithstanding a considerable broadening of Swedish student representation and influence since 1968, there are signs that student unrest, formerly focused more on international issues, is coming to concern itself with university reform and even more participation in decisionmaking. In late 1972, however, this agitation—even though conspicuous in the normally disciplined society—seemed manageable when compared with disruptions in West Germany and France.

Chief among the other factors contributing to the relatively peaceful evolution of secondary and higher education is the marked progress that has characterized it—the rapid transformation from an elite to a relatively mass system, enabling nearly one-third of the appropriate age group in 1973 to complete upper

secondary schools and go on to higher education. Accompanying this progress, indeed requisite to its continuity, is the broad system of student financial aid, largely freed from parental means tests.

To a greater extent than in many other European countries, the university in Sweden has been attuned to the needs of the society it serves. Thus, as in North America, such practical disciplines as engineering enjoyed university level status somewhat earlier than in Europe to the south. And fully one-fifth of all research and development in Sweden is carried out at higher educational institutions.

As elsewhere in Europe, educational development in Sweden is hampered by the strains on plant and personnel resources. Having anticipated the problem somewhat earlier, however, Sweden has thus far proved more able to cope with it, and the physical plant at all levels remains the best in Europe (Figure 23). Apparently influenced to some extent by U.S. practice, the Swedish Government started in the sixties to separate teaching from research, in essence to separate the "college" from the university. New "branch universities" are coming to concern themselves almost exclusively with teaching—for the most part at the "undergraduate" level by U.S. definition. Even in the older universities, in the lower forms there is now an almost exclusive concentration on teaching. What seems to be replacing the classical European university is a system analogous to the U.S. undergraduate college and graduate university. Aiding this process are the vastly increased accessibility to upper secondary education and the inevitable easing of requirements—leaving more of the material formerly taught in the upper forms of the *gymnasium* to be taught in the undergraduate university or "college." In Sweden the rationale is that only in this manner can there be a maximum utilization of teaching personnel and physical plant to cope with the rapidly increasing numbers of students now being educated at higher levels.

Also, as in U.S. colleges, freedom to choose electives has become more restricted in the lower forms of the "free faculties" (see below), and the curriculum more rigidly structured. Concomitantly, the already strongly centralized system is becoming even more so—again in the interest of efficiency. As in the traditional French educational system, which had set the pace for much of Europe for over a century, such centralization made for high, uniformly imposed academic standards. Additionally, in a small country such as Sweden, it facilitates efficient evaluation and planning without impairing to any significant degree local administration and housekeeping. Local

initiative affecting the content of courses or the introduction of new programs, however, tends to be discouraged, as does diversity between institutions of higher learning—both possible sources of future conflict.

The methodical, relatively successful planning and channeling of educational resources to serve the needs of the expanding economy occasionally come into conflict with social exigencies. As in the United States, there is apprehension that the system may shortly be educating through the university more young people than may constructively be absorbed into the economy. Well aware of the danger, the ubiquitous committees are attempting to devise ways to encourage the rapidly increasing number of higher education students into fields where manpower forecasts show a future need.

## 2. Educational system

### a. Elementary and secondary education

Prior to the reform of the elementary and intermediate schools begun in 1950, attendance at the elementary school (*folkskola*) was compulsory for all children between the ages of 7 and 14. Upon completion of the *folkskola*, most of the students either went on to a vocational school or attended a 1-year continuation course with emphasis on vocational guidance, civics, and the Swedish language. A minority of selected students, after 4 or 6 years in the elementary school, went on to 5 or 4 years respectively in the intermediate school (*realskola*). After passing a written and oral comprehensive examination (*realexamen*), they were qualified to enter the 3-year secondary school (*gymnasium*). There were three types of *gymnasia*: the general *gymnasium*, from which more than 80% of those passing the terminal examination went on to the university or other institutions of higher learning; the technical *gymnasium*, from which about half the students went on to a technical institute or to a faculty of science at a university; and the commercial *gymnasium*, from which most graduates went to an advanced commercial institute or directly into business employment. A comprehensive terminal examination (*studentexamen*) to receive the *gymnasium* certificate was usually required for students going on to a university. Of the total number of successful candidates for the *studentexamen* in 1962, 82% were from the general *gymnasium*, 10% from the technical *gymnasium*, and 8% from the commercial *gymnasium*.



FIGURE 23. The classroom in a grammar school, the machine shop area, and the Assembly Hall at Vaxjo senior high school are modern facilities. The swimming pool, built by the school board of Vasteras in cooperation with other city authorities, is used by school children in the morning and by the public in the afternoon. (U/OU)

In 1950, following a 10-year study of Swedish and foreign educational systems by a committee of experts, the *Riksdag* authorized the establishment of a new type of school, the comprehensive school (*enhetsskola*) with 9 years of compulsory attendance for children between the ages of 7 and 16. This school, which was designed to enable every child to advance as far as his capabilities would permit, regardless of his family's social and financial circumstances, was first introduced as a pilot program in 1950. If successful, it was to replace the traditional elementary and intermediate schools throughout the country. In 1962 the *Riksdag* passed legislation replacing all elementary and intermediate schools with the comprehensive school (henceforth called the *grundskola*), and by early 1966 the *grundskolan* were established throughout the area in which 90% of Sweden's population lives. By the academic year 1972/73, the period of nationwide obligatory transition to the new system is scheduled to be completed. The purpose of extending the period of compulsory school attendance from 7 to 9 years is to provide all children with the broader education required by present-day life.

The comprehensive school is divided into three 3-year levels: Junior (grades 1-3), Intermediate (grades 4-6), and Senior (grades 7-9). Pupils start school in the autumn of the year in which they are 7 years of age. One of the most important and distinguishing features of the Swedish comprehensive school is the undivided school, i.e., pupils remain together in the same class as they move upwards through the grades. During the first 6 years all pupils take the same subjects, regardless of ability or interest. Compulsory subjects in the lower level (grades 1-3) are Swedish, mathematics, music, handicrafts, gymnastics, religion, and provincial culture. In the middle stage (grades 4-6) drawing is added, and provincial culture is replaced by civics, history, geography, and nature lore. In the upper level (grades 7-9) domestic science becomes compulsory for girls, and nature lore is replaced by biology, chemistry, and physics. In the first two levels pupils are taught by class teachers, such as in U.S. elementary schools.

while subject teachers teach the last 3 years, as in U.S. junior high schools. However, specialized teachers are also assigned to the lower and middle levels to give instruction in subjects such as music, gymnastics, and art. In addition, special instruction is provided for pupils with physical or mental handicaps. Classes in the lower stage are not permitted to have more than 25 pupils, while the middle and upper levels are allowed a maximum of 30 pupils. The concept of the "class," however, is becoming increasingly irrelevant, as instruction is given more and more in groups of varying size, depending on the subject and teaching matter. Instead of 40-minute periods, longer working "shifts" of 120 minutes are being introduced at the Junior and Intermediate levels, each shift containing elements from between one and three subjects.

From the beginning of the Senior level, pupils have certain options, although the bulk of their schedule is still devoted to compulsory subjects. Out of a total of 105 hours during the 3 years of upper stage, 88 are devoted to subjects compulsory for all pupils. English, for example, is a compulsory language from grade 3, and at the Senior level the pupils choose between a more difficult and an easier English course. From Grad. 7 the pupils have also to choose between four optional sets covering 3-4 hours per week. These sets consist of French or German, art, economics, and technology. For 2 hours per week the pupils also work on a freely chosen project, occupying themselves with something that interests them. There is no direct preparatory vocational training in the comprehensive school, but in grade 9 the pupils undergo 2 weeks of practical vocational orientation, during which time they work as trainees at a place of work.

If those pupils who have completed the compulsory 9-year comprehensive school wish to continue their education, three basic possibilities are open: the *gymnasium*, the continuation school, and the vocational school (Figure 24). The expansion of compulsory schooling has generated a rapidly increasing flow of pupils to the secondary schools, as is illustrated by the following tabulation:

	1950	1960	1969
Gymnasium .....	20,100	66,600	109,300
Continuation school .....	.....	.....	33,600
Vocational school .....	12,900	49,400	*76,100
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>33,000</b>	<b>116,000</b>	<b>219,000</b>

... Not pertinent.

\*Excluding private schools.

It is estimated that by 1972/73 the capacity of the secondary schools will correspond to almost 90% of every school generation, 30% being admitted to the

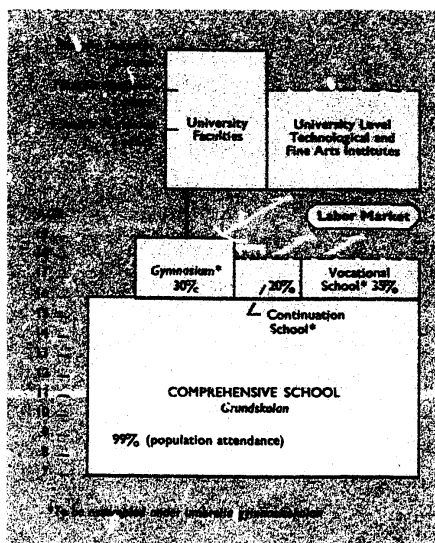


FIGURE 24. Educational system (U/OU)

*gymnasium*, 20% to the continuation school, and more than 35% to the vocational school. The percentage increase of various age groups in the Swedish education system during the past three decades may be seen in the following tabulation:

	7-15	16-18	19-24
1940 .....	79	10	5
1950 .....	85	25	10
1960 .....	92	34	17
1965 .....	98	44	21
1970 (est) .....	99	62	30

The importance of the role traditionally played by the *gymnasium* would be difficult to exaggerate. The final comprehensive examination magically transformed the "pupil" into a "student" and qualified him for admission to the university. However, time and policy have been working great changes in the *gymnasium*. In 1946 only 8% of the pupils finishing lower secondary education went on to the *gymnasium*, while in 1969 the average proportion was around 30% and even higher in some areas.

In 1966 the *gymnasium* was reformed, and a single "municipal" *gymnasium* replaced the three types of *gymnasiums* (general, commercial, and technical). The new *gymnasium* is entered directly from the comprehensive school, and it gives 3 years of education in one of five programs: liberal arts

(humanities), social sciences, natural sciences, business, and technical arts. Students enrolled in the technical program can take a fourth year at certain central *gymnasiums* and receive an engineering diploma. Provision is made for a core of common subjects supplemented by a number of subjects specific to each of the five curriculums in each grade. The common core of subjects is largest in the first year, when 70% of the teaching matter is common to all students. All students, except those concentrating in technical arts, are required to study three foreign languages for at least 1 year each. Latin and Greek are no longer compulsory, but may be pursued as electives in the liberal arts curriculum instead of a modern foreign language. No comprehensive examinations are now set in the *gymnasium*. Replacing the *studentexamen* are marks given on a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 as the highest possible mark. In the second and third years of the *gymnasium* standardized tests are given in certain subjects. With the help of these tests the level of marks in each class can be established, and marking can be standardized throughout the country. The requirement for university entrance is a given minimum mean mark. The new *gymnasium* thus remains the avenue to university admission, and the level of study is comparable to that of a good junior college in the United States.

The continuation school is a new 2-year *gymnasium*-level school that was introduced in 1966. The requirement for admission is the completion of the comprehensive school, and, like the *gymnasium*, admission is based on the final grades received in the last year of the comprehensive school. In order to make the continuation school training available to those who after a period of employment wish to resume theoretical studies, 25% of the places in the first year class are reserved for students with a minimum of either 2 years of vocational school training or 3 years of practical experience to their credit. The continuation school is somewhat less theoretical than the *gymnasium*, and it aims at a practical application of the theoretical courses. It offers three distinct 2-year programs: social science, business, and technical. The social science course provides a basis for further training for different kinds of social service employment. The business and technical courses can lead either to employment or to further education. After completion of the continuation school, students may move to the second year of the *gymnasium* if there is space available. Unlike the *gymnasium*, completion of the continuation school does not qualify the students for entrance into the university.

Vocational training is being revised in 1972 to afford a 2-year program for most trades, although both longer and shorter courses of training will be available. The new curriculums are to be more broadly structured, and further training will therefore be necessary on the job after completion of school. The first few months of course work will be the same for all students, but then it will become increasingly specialized. Direct vocational training will be supplemented by an increased amount of general education; for example, Swedish and physical education will be compulsory subjects, in addition to at least one theoretical subject. At present vocational training is considerably more specialized and of a more varying duration.

During 1972 the *gymnasium*, the continuation school, and the vocational school will be merged into one type of school known as the secondary school (*gymnasieskolan*). The *gymnasieskolan* will have 21 lines of study: five of these are contained in the present *gymnasium*, three in the present continuation school, and the remaining 13 in the present vocational school. The *gymnasium* and continuation school syllabi will be transferred essentially intact to the new secondary school, while the vocational lines of study will be given new syllabi based on the reform of vocational training taking place in 1971 and 1972.

#### b. Higher education

The continuing rapid increase in university enrollments outlined above will probably not slacken, at least for a while. Since the suppression of the difficult university matriculation examination, the *studentexamen*, and the ever increasing availability of student financial aid, provided even handedly by the state without parental means tests, a much larger proportion of upper secondary students is completing *gymnasium* studies and going on to higher education. Going further back toward the source of the stream that has become a flood, the creation of the comprehensive school in the presecondary phase of education permits the postponement of decisions on specialization until the age of 16, thus encouraging more students to continue their education after the 9-year period of compulsory schooling.

Between 1920 and 1960 the number of Swedes holding university degrees doubled roughly every 20 years, and from 1960 to 1980 it is estimated that the number of degree holders will double every 10 years. The number of first degrees awarded increased from 326 in 1950/51 to 7,690 in 1967/68, and is expected to be 20,000 by 1975. The proportion of 26-year-olds

with first degrees went up from 2.5% in 1950 to over 10% in 1970. The number of persons enrolled as active students working toward postgraduate degrees increased from about 3,100 in 1960/61 to approximately 5,700 in 1965/66. Postgraduate degrees awarded increased from 360 in 1950/51 to over 800 in 1966/67.

University level institutions in Sweden may have several faculties, or they may be single faculty or specialized universities or institutes. There are at present six multifaculty universities in Sweden: Uppsala University (founded in 1477) with about 20,000 students in 1969, Lund University (1666) with 21,000 students, Goteborg University (1891) with 14,000 students, Stockholm University (1877) with 27,000 students, and Umea University (1965) with 7,000 students. Linkoping University, established as a branch of Stockholm University in 1967, became a state university in 1970 and has 3,060 students. Together they include faculties of law, theology, natural science and mathematics, social science, humanities, medicine and pharmacy, dentistry, and technology. Between 1950 and 1968 the total number of university faculties increased from 23 to 46. In 1967/68 three new affiliated universities or branches of the universities of Uppsala, Lund, and Goteborg, began functioning in Orebro, Vaxjo, and Karlstad, respectively.

Three of the specialized, or single-faculty, universities provide technical education: the Royal Institute of Technology in Stockholm (founded in 1876) with about 5,000 students in 1969, the Chalmers Institute of Technology in Goteborg (1939) with 4,000 students, and the Technological Institute of Lund (1961) with 3,000 students. In addition to the medical schools at the universities of Uppsala, Lund, Goteborg, and Umea, there is in Stockholm the world-famous Royal Caroline Medical-Surgical Institute (founded in 1810), which had an enrollment of 3,300 students in 1960. Sweden also has a number of colleges or institutes (*högskolor*), each covering a specialized field, such as veterinary sciences (Stockholm), forestry (Stockholm), agriculture (Uppsala), journalism (Stockholm and Goteborg), and art and music (Stockholm). In addition, there are schools of social work in Stockholm, Goteborg, Lund, Umea, and Orebro, and schools of economics are located in Goteborg and Stockholm.

Much of the teacher training in Sweden falls outside the universities. There are about 20 colleges with 2- to 4-year programs for training students for teaching in

the first years of the comprehensive schools. Most tenured teachers, of theoretical subjects in the upper 3 years of the comprehensive schools and the continuation schools and nearly all in the *gymnasia* obtain a university degree. After obtaining their degrees, they have about a year or more of pedagogical and practical training at one of the six specialized colleges of education, located in Stockholm, Malmo, Goteborg, Uppsala, Umea, and Linkoping. These colleges also train teachers for the first 6 years of comprehensive school and are centers for educational research and evaluation.

A distinctive feature of Swedish university level education is that certain faculties and advanced technical courses are "closed." In spite of constant efforts to increase the capacity for admissions, it has been necessary to limit enrollment in the faculties of medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, technology and engineering, agriculture, forestry, and veterinary medicine by a quota. Other faculties known as "free" faculties (law, theology, and philosophy, the last named including humanities, social sciences, mathematics and natural sciences subfaculties) have no such restrictions. Therefore, a larger proportion of matriculants have been channeled into the quota-exempt faculties than would have occurred otherwise. The net new enrollments in free faculties increased from 5,840 in 1960/61 to about 22,000 in 1967/68, whereas the number of places in closed faculties increased from 2,621 in 1960/61 to 5,835 in 1967/68, and the figure is expected to be only about 7,300 in 1979/80. About 70% of all university level students in 1970 were enrolled in the free faculties.

The enrollment imbalance between free and closed faculties has been a matter of increasing concern because of the much lower persistence rate of students in the quota-exempt faculties (especially natural science), and because students who remain in the free faculties take relatively longer to obtain their degrees. The minimum number of years required to obtain a first degree varies among faculties from 3½ to 4 years in the humanities to 5 years in engineering and law to about 8 years in medicine. Students in the free faculties have tended to take longer than the normal period, because the tradition of academic freedom has permitted them to defer taking examinations until they choose, to repeat examinations and courses with few restrictions, and to delay decisions on their area of concentration. In the closed faculties requirements and sequences of courses are such that most students complete their first degree in not much more than the



normal period. In the fall of 1970 the number of undergraduates enrolled in different university disciplines was as follows:

Theology .....	1,373
Law .....	7,707
Medicine .....	7,570
Dentistry .....	1,804
Philosophy:	
Humanities .....	27,610
Social sciences .....	35,568
Mathematics and natural sciences .....	14,413
Total .....	96,045

An additional 28,395 students were enrolled in university level technical and artistic institutes, the large majority of which are "closed," i.e., have fairly rigidly fixed quotas of incoming students.

The fact that many students enrolled in the philosophical faculties take much more than the normal period of 3 to 4 years to complete their first degree work and that nearly half leave the university without completing their studies has led to a number of reforms. Thus, so that students are not delayed in taking certain basic courses, these courses are offered more than once a year. The examination system has also been tightened up, so that a student may be refused permission to take a final examination in any one subject more than four times except in unusual circumstances. In 1969 the *Riksdag* adopted legislation restricting the students' former freedom to select courses for the first degree in the philosophical faculties. The whole program is now more structured, as in the closed faculties. The 1969 reforms have also replaced the traditional system of units (6 required for a first degree) with credits (40 to be earned each year). Most students are expected to complete their first degree in 3 years, although the reforms permit some to continue their studies, earning up to a maximum of 60 credits beyond the 120 required for the first degree.

Swedish university students are not classified according to year as is customary in U.S. universities. A typical student passes a general examination in the philosophical faculties leading to the degree of *filosofie kandidat* or *filosofie magister* 3 or 5 years respectively after admission. The latter degree includes added course work in the field of specialty and in pedagogy, and it qualifies the recipient for teaching in upper secondary schools. Until recently, the degree of *filosofie licentiat* could be acquired after several more years of study. The minimum time for completion of this degree, which corresponded roughly to the American Ph.D. degree except that there was less emphasis on independent research, was generally 4 or

3 years after graduation as *filosofie kandidat* or *filosofie magister*. Also, until recently, the *filosofie doctorsgrad* (doctorate in philosophy) could be attained several years after the *licentiat*. This degree was awarded in recognition of a major scientific contribution through independent research, and it had a standing somewhat higher than that of the American Ph.D. degree. Because of the demanding requirements of the *licentiat* and *doktor* degrees, the average student generally received the former at the age of 32 and the latter at the age of 37. Beginning in 1969, the traditional *licentiat* and *doktor* degrees were replaced by a new U.S. style doctorate degree. The new Ph.D. degree was introduced in order to shorten the period of degree candidacy, and may be obtained in 4 instead of the traditional 6 to 9 years after the first degree. It was felt that the long period of study required for the traditional doctorate served to restrict the number of students pursuing careers in science.

Postsecondary education in Sweden is financed almost entirely by public funds. Total public expenditures on all higher education increased from SKr50 million in 1951 to an estimated SKr650.8 million in 1967/68. Expenditures for the universities amounted to SKr443.2 million in 1967/68 and are expected to increase to SKr535 million in 1972. In 1966/67 the average recurrent cost per year per student ranged from SKr1,300 in the faculty of social sciences and SKr1,600 in law, to SKr9,600 in the institutes of technology and SKr18,400 in the dental colleges. Since 1960 there has been only one private university level institution in Sweden, the Stockholm School of Economics, and it receives about 40% of its income from the government. The Wallenberg Foundation, the chief source of private funds, grants about SKr5 million annually to the universities.

Sweden has a highly developed system of financial assistance to students in higher education. The university level institutions charge no tuition fees, although students are required to pay annual fees of between SKr50 and SKr100 per term to their local student unions. Students over 20 years of age, who are treated as though they are economically independent of their parents, receive a grant of SKr175 per month during the school year. All students in need of further financial assistance are entitled to loans of up to SKr6,500 per academic year. Study funds available to undergraduates in higher education total about SKr8,800 per year per student, of which SKr1,750 is an outright grant. Child supplements may also be added to this amount. An undergraduate with one child to support, for example, is entitled to about SKr10,400 per year. Students engaged in postgraduate research

can receive special scholarships of SKr10,750 per year. Together with ordinary grants and loans, they provide the student with an annual tax-free income of almost SKr20,000 per year. In addition, students in higher education receive indirect benefits, including health care at state subsidized health services, low-cost housing in student housing facilities, reduced transportation costs, low-cost meals at government-subsidized student restaurants, and low-cost merchandise at shopping centers run by student unions.

#### *c. Extracurricular student activity*

As in other northwest European societies, organized extracurricular student activities at the secondary level are somewhat more in evidence than in the Latin countries to the south. They are not, however, pursued on the scale of their U.S. counterparts—which are probably unique in the free world—and may be organized by the village or town authorities, rather than specifically by the schools. As in other Teutonic societies, team sports, as opposed to individual sports, enjoy popularity, and ski and hiking clubs, choral groups, and various hobby organizations are in evidence. But the high school bands, drama clubs, and even debating societies, so much a part of the U.S. scene, are less in evidence.

At the university level students still associate in "student nations," comparable to the traditional German fraternities (although hardly devoted to fencing) or U.S. fraternities and sororities, except that most are coeducational. These nations are rooted in the Germanic past. In the large metropolitan university, their principal function is to bring together socially these students from the same local area or province. Each nation has its own "house" or meeting place, comparable to the U.S. fraternity or eating club, where the students meet for conversation and occasional dancing, choral singing, or other group activity.

As is the case throughout free Europe, students organize to protect and to try to advance their special interests. In Sweden, membership in the one umbrella Swedish Union of Students (SFS) is mandatory. The SFS has succeeded, as of late 1972, in pursuing student interests inside rather than outside of the establishment. Although student participation in decision making in the universities was relatively limited before the launching of the period of experimentation with student democracy in 1969/70, the SFS has long had considerable influence with governmental bodies concerned with higher education and has maintained good relations with them. It is represented on many of

the special committees set up to study particular problems, and it is consulted on all government proposals for change affecting student interests. Membership in the SFS is normally attained simply by joining the component student union at the university or institute where one is enrolled. Neither the individual unions nor the SFS receives government financial support for their activities, so all costs must be met by dues. The SFS annual income from student fees is about SKr16.5 million. The individual unions are entirely self-governing and are in no way subject to control by school officials. Each student union represents the student body before the faculty, public authorities, and other organizations. The SFS represents the various unions nationally.

#### *d. Adult education*

Close to one-fourth of Sweden's population is enrolled in some form of adult education. One distinctively Scandinavian institution which has long played an important role in adult education is the folk high school (*folkhogskolor*). Imported from Denmark, where it was developed by Bishop Nicolai F. S. Grundtvig and Kristen Kold, the folk high school arrived in Sweden in 1868. Its purpose is to provide a sense of national community and general cultural awareness—to make, in essence, better free citizens. Curricular emphasis is not on vocational training, although such training is included. The schools attempt to round out the students' general education in such subjects as Swedish, arithmetic, civics, history, geography, bookkeeping, and religious values, while also employing lessons, lectures, and study groups to help "develop character" and give the students a deeper understanding of their environment and community. In 1970 there were 105 folk high schools plus 12 affiliates throughout the country. About half of the schools are operated by provincial councils and the remainder by different popular movements and organizations, such as the trade unions, temperance societies, and churches. The minimum age of eligibility is 18 years. Instruction is usually given in residence and is free, although the students must pay for board and lodging. Many of the students hold scholarships from municipalities and organizations, however, while other financial aid is available in the form of small state stipends. The folk high schools were voted appropriations of SKr76.8 million in the FY71 government budget. Three different kinds of courses are offered: winter, summer, and special subjects. The winter course, running from 2 to 3 years, commands the largest enrollments, with about 13,500 students in the 1969/70 academic year. About 7,000

students took special subjects in 1969/70. No centrally determined syllabus is laid down for the folk high schools, which are free to shape their own programs within the parameters outlined above. (For a more detailed discussion of the philosophic origins of the folk high schools, see Denmark, General Survey, March 1968.)

Another significant form of adult education has been undertaken by the study circles run by educational associations. The informal educational technique was first adopted by the temperance movement at the turn of the century. In 1970 there were 12 officially recognized educational associations that receive and allot government subsidies to adult education programs; SK98 million in government subsidies was appropriated for FY71. A study circle must have at least five and no more than 20 participants in order to qualify for financial aid from the sponsoring association. There are at present about 150,000 study circles with 1.5 million participants. The study circles cover a wide variety of interests ranging from academic subjects to hobbies. The circles do not operate according to any fixed syllabus.

Educational broadcasting adds importantly to adult education in Sweden. In 1967 the Committee for Education by Television and Radio (TRU) was formed, its main purpose being to conduct experiments with educational broadcasts addressed to adult learners. The first TRU courses in English and business economics, both at the secondary level, got underway in 1968. During 1970 TRU broadcasts by radio and television were on the air about 18 hours per week. TRU collaborates in its work with other sponsors of adult education.

The government-run schools in Norrköping and Harnosand combine correspondence studies with residence training, in alternating cycles, in the hope of recruiting adult learners nationwide. The instruction given at the schools follows the curriculums of grades 7-9 in the comprehensive school, the continuation school, and the *gymnasium*. Enrollment at both schools was estimated at 7,500 in the 1969/70 academic year, of whom 3,750 were studying by correspondence. By the mid-1970's 12,000 students are expected to take advantage of these courses. No tuition fees are charged, and the government underwrites staff salaries and pays the cost of study materials. Appropriations totaling SKr10.2 million were voted in the 1970-71 government budget.

Local government authorities also sponsor conventional community adult education classes. Since 1967 the municipal education committees have had the task of providing education opportunities for

adults, mainly in the form of evening classes. The instruction, which is free of charge, follows the curriculums of the comprehensive school, the *gymnasium*, the continuation school, and the vocational school. In the 1967/68 academic year about 30 municipalities offered adult education courses in night high schools, while in the 1969/70 year adult education was available in about 240 municipalities with an enrollment of 65,000 adults.

Although completion of work in the *gymnasium* or its equivalent is required for university entrance, since 1969 adults may undertake studies at the university level even if they lack the formal qualifications. Under the new regulations, an adult student must have reached the age of 25 at the time of registration and either have been employed for at least 5 years or have acquired equivalent knowledge by some other means. The program is still in the experimental stage, with present enrollments confined to certain courses offered by the faculties of arts and sciences. In 1970 more than 800 adult learners were enrolled at the universities and their branches.

### 3. Scientific research

Higher education and scientific research are tied together closely in Sweden, with scientific research an integral part of the program of all the universities and technological institutes. About one-fifth of all research and development is carried out at institutions of higher education. Total investment in research in FY69 amounted to SKr2,000 million, or about 1.7% of the gross national product. The government accounts for about two-fifths of the total cost of research, while commercial and industrial interests account for the rest. The major portion of government research funds is allocated to the universities and the institutes of technology, with about one-third of the higher education budget of the Ministry of Education and Ecclesiastical Affairs devoted to scientific research.

Sweden's university level institutions have only limited basic resources available for research, and their ordinary appropriations are generally not sufficient for extensive research projects. Supporting research by institutions of higher education, therefore, are 12 publicly financed research councils. They are attached to various ministries and allocate government funds to various research projects for which grants have been requested or to projects initiated by the councils themselves. Government grants for research at universities, including those provided through the research councils, increased from SKr68.5 million in FY65 to SKr89.9 million in FY67.

Three scientific academies also play an important role in the supervision of research. The oldest of these academies, the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences, runs various scientific institutions, publishes a number of journals, arranges for Swedish membership in many international scientific organizations, and is responsible for awarding the Nobel prizes in chemistry and physics, in addition to conducting research in mathematics and the natural sciences. The Royal Swedish Academy of Engineering Sciences, the first of its kind in the world, supports various kinds of technical research. The Royal Swedish Academy of Agriculture coordinates research in agriculture and related industries.

## I. Artistic and cultural expression

### 1. Literature

Swedish literature has generally presented a picture of a culture shaped to the European pattern—at times creative and original, at other times merely reflecting current cultural forces. The oldest stone-carved and written literary references show Sweden to have been strongly influenced by Old Norse traditions. The sagas and ballads—common literary expressions of the Scandinavian ethical and mythical heritage—are an important part of Swedish literature. Certain unique folk song forms, such as the lyrical dance song, were Swedish contributions to the region's 12th and 13th century literature and may be regarded as the first original Swedish literature. Sweden, however, did not figure as prominently as Norway or Iceland in this early literary output, and it was not until the Reformation placed the stamp of approval on intellectual expression in local languages that Swedish literature began the steady development which has continued to the present day.

The Latin alphabet superseded runic characters throughout most of Sweden by the 14th century, and with the advent of the printing press in the 15th century, came into general use. Literary activity centered in religious writings, beginning in earnest with the vernacular translation of the Bible in 1541. During the 16th and 17th centuries the language took on new standards of clarity and precision. Georg Stiernhielm (1598-1672), hailed as the Father of Swedish poetry, proved through his poetry that the Swedish language could be used for intricate classic meters. He worked incessantly to purify the language, to revive and preserve old Swedish words and expressions, and to refine and standardize the grammar.

European consciousness in Sweden and Swedish willingness to accept foreign cultural influence increased sharply in the 17th century with the reigns of Gustavus II, Adolphus, and Christina. During the Swedish period of greatness numerous universities were founded, the Swedish Academy was organized, libraries and art collections were formed, theaters were opened, and all the forms of high cultural expression were fostered by the increasingly self-conscious and Europeanized aristocracy. Initially the chief cultural influences were Dutch and then German, but in the 18th century a thin French overlay was applied to the life at court and among the very small aristocratic elite. This only partially filtered down to the growing burgher class and did not overwhelm the intellectual circles; as a result, Sweden avoided the extremes of Francophilia which so inhibited indigenous currents in central and east Europe's cultural expression during the essentially French Enlightenment. Instead, the 18th century produced such local geniuses as the naturalist, Carl von Linné (1707-78), whose literary production was prodigious, and Emanuel Swedenborg (1688-1772), scientist and philosopher, who is today most noted for his work in theology. Anders Celsius (1701-44), the originator of the centigrade thermometer, was also a scientific writer of some note. The outstanding purely literary figure of the period was the poet Carl Mikael Bellman (1740-95), who drew much of his inspiration from everyday life in Stockholm.

Military defeat by Russia and political change at home, marked by the adoption of the Constitution of 1809, were reflected with some lag in literature. Romanticism came to the Swedes, as to other Europeans, as a reaction to the rationalism of the previous century, which, instead of bringing the promised progress of humanity, plunged the continent into a quarter century of warfare. Romanticism was also peculiarly suited to the rising tides of nationalism, set in motion by that warfare, which were to wash over Europe throughout the 19th and into the 20th century. Sweden disengaged from its flirtation with French culture and reoriented its focus to Germany. German influence was preeminent until the 1920's, and Swedish literature successively reflected German romanticism, idealism, and realism. The principal early 19th century exponent of romantic interest in Sweden's past was Erik Gustav Geijer (1783-1847), an eminent historian, philosopher, poet, and musician.

During the middle decades of the 19th century, Swedish literature oscillated between realism and idealism, new interests in everyday life, and a romanticizing of peculiar national traditions. Modern Swedish literature begins with the work of August

Strindberg (1849-1912), for the modern drama dates from his *Master Olof* (1872) and the modern novel from his *The Red Room* (1872). By his originality, his mastery of prose and dialogue, and the influence of his work and personality on Swedish, not to say European literature, he is by far the greatest writer Sweden has produced. The sharp social satire to which he devoted himself throughout his life has been of marked significance both socially and literarily within Sweden. Reaction to Strindberg in the 1880's took the form of a neo-romanticist movement, two leaders of which were Verner von Heidenstam (1859-1940) and Selma Lagerlof (1859-1940). Among Heidenstam's best known works is a series of romantic stories woven around Charles XII, St. Bridget, and the 13th and 14th century Folkung kings. With *The Wonderful Adventures of Nils Holgerson*, Lagerlof has entertained children throughout the world, and with her romantic *Costa Bertlings Saga*, she established herself as one of the most popular authors of the neo-romanticist school. Both Heidenstam and Lagerlof received the Nobel Prize in literature.

The early years of the 20th century were a period of decadence and pessimism in Swedish literature, as in European literature in general. Representative of this mood are Hjalmar Soderberg (1869-1941) and Bo Bergman (1869-1967). Soderberg's forte was the short story, in which his psychological subtlety and irony are combined and in which, as in his novels *Martin Bircks Ungdem* (1901) and *Doktor Glas* (1905), he appears as a master of Swedish prose. Bergman also produced memorable short stories, but his real medium was the lyric; he developed and refined his talent in a series of collections from *Marionetterna* (1903) to *Riket* (1944). By 1930 a new group of "proletarian" writers appeared on the scene. These writers, known as "The Young Five"—Artur Lundkvist (1906- ), Harry Martinson (1904- ), Gustav Sandgren (1904- ), Erik Askhnd (1908- ), and Josef Kjellgren (1907- )—opened new fields for literary production. Close to them stands Eyvind Johnson (1900- ), one of 20th century Sweden's most gifted novelists, who was interested primarily in urban and industrial society and its problems.

World War II produced an ultrarealist school of writers, eager to experiment with new styles and impatient with what they considered the slow rate of progress made by the "proletarian" writers. Par Lagerkuist (1891- ), who won the Nobel Prize for literature in 1951, is regarded by many as the greatest Swedish writer of the 20th century. By the outbreak of World War II, Lagerkuist had already shown himself strongly influenced by the literature and art of

Expressionism. In his poetry and drama he gradually shaped his own style, the power and simplicity of which characterize his later prose works—*The Dwarf* and *Barnabas*—in which the difficult conflicts of the times are clearly apparent under the historical disguise. Gunnar Ekelof, who began writing surrealist poems early in the 1930's, later demonstrated a mastery of more traditional forms, and finally arrived at a uniqueness of style and vitality that makes him one of Sweden's most popular poets.

## 2. Theater

The theater did not become an important factor in Swedish cultural life until the 19th century. Drama of this century followed to a large extent the path of historical romance, early introduced in Sweden. No first-rate playwright, however, emerged before August Strindberg (1849-1912), whose many great plays have made his name one of the most important in modern drama. Another successful dramatist is Par Lagerkuist.

Close cooperation between motion pictures and the legitimate stage exists in Sweden probably to a greater degree than in most other countries. This close relationship gives to Swedish films an artistic flair and to many stage plays a modern, dynamic rhythm. Among the great Swedish performers of the stage and screen are Greta Garbo, Ingrid Bergman, Viveca Lindfors, Ingrid Thulin, Signe Hasso, Max vo Sydow, and Bibi Anderson, all of whom graduated from Stockholm's Royal Dramatic Theater. Ingmar Bergman, the internationally famous film producer and successful dramatist as well, was director of this theater from 1963 to 1965. As a filmwriter and director, he follows in the footsteps of Victor Sjöström and Mauritz Stiller, the great pioneers of Swedish motion picture art. Bergman is in many respects a disciple of Sjöström. Both preferred a realistic style of acting and insisted on authentic settings in which the landscape and moods of nature are almost as essential as those of the actor. Sweden's leading producer of documentary films, Arne Sucksdorff (1917- ), is best known for his films dealing with the world of animals and civilized man's existence. A new generation of Swedish film producers has already begun to make its mark, perhaps most effectively represented by Lars-Magnus Lindgren. He is best known for comedy rather than the heavier fare represented by Bergman.

The leading theater is the Royal Dramatic Theater, which was founded in 1788 by King Gustavus III. Of historical interest is the 18th century Court Theater at Dräffningholm Castle, which uses the stage properties and machinery of that age with the original scenery.

Outside of Stockholm, which is amply endowed with private theaters, the legitimate stage is heavily supported with public funds. Many of the larger cities have municipal playhouses; the Malmo City Theater is one of the largest in Europe. A number of touring companies, which operate under the educational system, give over 2,000 performances each winter. In the summertime various companies appear in municipal recreation parks. The theater department of the Swedish Broadcasting Corporation also produces plays for radio and television.

### 3. Music

The latter part of the 18th century was an age of vigorous cultural activity in Sweden, and music in particular flourished at the court of King Gustavus III. He founded the Academy of Music in 1771 and the Royal Opera, including the Royal Ballet, in 1773. However, it was not until the creation of organized concert activities with professional orchestras at the end of the 19th century that Swedish musical life can be said to have reached any breadth or independence. This is one of the reasons why Sweden's greatest symphonist, Franz Berwald (1796-1868) was not acknowledged in his own country until many years after his death. Sweden's foremost symphony composers include, in addition to Berwald, Wilhelm Stenhammar (1871-1927), Hugo Alfvén (1872-1960), whose *Midsommar Vigil* is often heard in the United States under the title, *Swedish Rhapsody*, Hilding Rosenberg (1892- ), and Karl-Birger Blomdahl (1916-68).

Since the beginning of the 20th century, symphony orchestras subsidized by national and local governments have been formed in the larger cities. In addition to the three outstanding Stockholm ensembles—the Royal Opera Orchestra, the Stockholm Philharmonic, and the Radio Orchestra—and the permanent symphony orchestras in the five largest cities, some 60 orchestras throughout the country are composed of professional and amateur musicians. During the 1960's musical life has expanded greatly because of the formation of a government-supported national concert bureau, which arranges concert tours by outstanding artists to various parts of the country. These performances, which number over 1,000 annually, include both evening concerts and daytime appearances in schools. Many of Sweden's finest singers and instrumentalists are periodically engaged in such activities.

Contemporary orchestral and chamber music, both international and Swedish, are fairly well represented in the Swedish musical repertory. The most important

modern Swedish composers include Sven-Erik Bäck, Ingvar Lidholm, Allan Pettersson, and Lars Johan Werle. Vocal music is popular in Sweden, as in the other Germanic countries, and draws heavily from the reservoir of folk songs, as well as a series of inspired ballad writers, among them Carl Mikael Bellman, Birger Sjöberg (1885-1929), and Evert Taube (1890- ). Sweden's international reputation in vocal music, however, stems principally from a number of famous opera singers, such as Jenny Lind (1820-87), the "Swedish Nightingale"; Kristina Nilsson (1843-1921); Jussi Björling (1911-60), the great tenor; Birgit Nilsson (1918- ); and Nicolai Gedda (1925- ), probably the greatest living tenor. All of them began their careers at the Swedish Royal Opera in Stockholm, whose extensive repertoire includes, besides classical and modern European works, such Swedish operas as Peterson-Berger's *Amlöft*, Rangström's *Kronbruden*, and Blomdahl's two contemporary works, *Antara* and *Herr von Hancken*. American recognition of Swedish operatic accomplishments was marked by the calling of the Royal Opera's director Geran Gentele to take over the New York Metropolitan Opera. Unfortunately Gentele was killed in 1972 in an automobile accident shortly after he had assumed the position.

### 4. Art and architecture

None of the Swedish painters can rank with the truly great international figures, but several have attained eminence in their own country. Ernst Josephson (1851-1906) and Carl Fredrik Hill (1849-1911) are widely regarded as the most gifted Swedish painters of the 19th century. Both anticipated to some extent the expressionism and surrealism of the 20th century. Anders Zorn (1860-1920) achieved international recognition during his own lifetime through his portrayals of Swedish peasant life. The same holds true of the sculptor Carl Milles (1875-1955), whose allegorical creations may be found in cities throughout Europe and North America. His old home and studio near Stockholm have become one of the historic attractions of the Swedish capital.

The wooden huts and lofts of the Middle Ages are the earliest examples of a peculiarly Swedish form of architecture. Numerous examples may still be seen in the province of Dalarna. Wooden structures characterize the architecture of the smaller Swedish towns to this day.

The art of building with stone and masonry came with Christianity. Sweden possesses a large number of stone country churches constructed from the 12th to the 15th centuries. The Gothic cathedrals of Lund, Uppsala, Linköping, and Skara represent more self-

conscious borrowings in design from Europe to the south, as do the renaissance additions to the medieval castles at Kalmar, Uppsala, and Gripsholm, and some of the baroque mansions constructed in the 17th century.

From the end of the 17th century until well into the 18th century, Tessin is the leading name in Swedish architecture. Buildings by Tessin include the Drottningholm Palace and the Royal Palace in Stockholm, both of which are in use today. The traditions of skilled craftsmanship and a feeling for the natural beauty of stone, wood, and other materials were continued, but it was not until after the start of the industrial revolution that significant architecture of some originality developed. A milestone was Stockholm's romantic city hall, designed by Ragnar Ostberg (1866-1945) and completed in 1923. An internationally known Swedish architect is Sven Markelius (1889- ), who designed the Swedish pavilion at the New York World's Fair in 1939 and later helped to design the New York buildings of the United Nations.

While contemporary Swedish architecture has conformed to the general European and North American functional trends, the sometimes unique, highly artistic combination of glass, metal, and light-colored stonework enriches the movement and inspires emulation abroad. Frequently recurring characteristics of Swedish architecture are simplicity and directness of design, a striving for light, and close harmony with the surroundings. Sweden's outstanding single contribution to the field of modern architecture, however, lies in urban planning.

The development of Stockholm and its suburbs over the past three decades offers one striking example of urban planning. The imaginative renewal of the center of the capital city, and the parallel construction of the satellite communities of Arsta, Vallingby, Farsta, Taby, and Skarholmen have attracted world attention as models of rational urbanization. Most notable have been the separation of vehicular and pedestrian traffic, the provision of esthetically pleasing "weather protected" promenades and shopping centers, and the imposition of effective noise control through both structural design and traffic regulation. Similar new planned suburbs include Johannelund in Linkoping, Vastra Frolanda in Goteborg, and the southside center in Orebro. Residential areas constructed within or contiguous with cities are also carefully planned so as to improve the quality of life. A fairly recent planned urban residential community is Brittguarden in Tibro, the furniture manufacturing town. This prototype "garden apartment" complex

contains "high rise" apartment houses of three to five floors, and one family single dwellings with one or two floors.

#### 5. Handicrafts and industrial arts

The decorative and industrial arts are perhaps the outstanding example of peculiarly Swedish cultural expression. The design and quality of Swedish industrial art products are still influenced by the traditional handicrafts. Progress in the modern field of industrial art and design has been promoted by organized effort, represented in the first place by the Swedish Society for Industrial Design, founded in 1845. This organization has played an important role in furthering close cooperation between artists and manufacturers. In order to foster modern development of a valued national patrimony, the State School of Arts, Crafts, and Design was founded in Stockholm. This school, along with the School of Industrial Art in Goteborg, trains textile artists, ceramicists, silversmiths, furniture designers, industrial designers, painters, and sculptors.

In contemporary furniture design, Carl Malmsten and Bruno Mathsson join their Danish and Finnish colleagues in bringing world recognition to Scandinavia. The latter's bentwood chairs from the 1930's—still in production—are among the classics in Scandinavian furniture. After furniture, ceramic art and silver work have attained the most recognition in Europe and America. Noted names are artists and silversmiths Sven Arne Gillgren and Sigurd Persson. The glass industry, long Sweden's pride, continues to be dominated by Orrefors Glassworks, as well by such firms as Boda and Kosta (Figure 25). In the important field of textile arts, The Friends of Art Weaving and Needlework, founded in Stockholm in 1874, is the central organization for the production of original wall hangings and tapestries.

#### 6. Recreation

The Swedes are typically Scandinavian in their appreciation of outdoor recreation. The Swedish Sports Federation, founded in 1903, covers nearly 13,000 clubs and more than 1,800,000 members. The Sports Federation receives annual government subsidies from the proceeds of government-owned soccer pools.

Soccer is the Swedish national sport in the summertime, and there are over 3,000 clubs throughout the country. The most popular winter sports are skiing and ice hockey, with about 2,500 and 1,600 clubs, respectively. A typically Swedish sport is

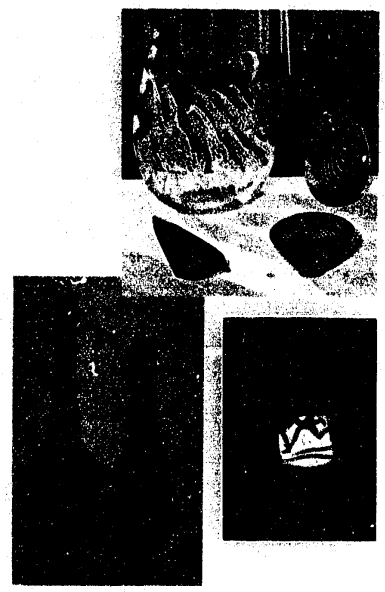


FIGURE 25. Elegant in their simplicity, the two long-necked vases were made by Orrefors. A herd of giraffes in flight, the graceful lines frosting gemlike colors and the joyous abandon of dancers enhance the beauty of the crystal made by Kosta. (U/OU)

bandy, which, though similar to hockey, is played with a small ball by 11-man teams on a rink of the same dimensions as a soccer field. Another popular outdoor sport is path-finding, in which the participants run through unknown and often difficult terrain, and, using a map and compass, seek their way with the help of strategically placed markers. Varpa is still another unique Swedish sport that is similar both to discus throwing and horseshoe pitching.

Sweden maintains a good record in many international winter sports competitions, especially ice hockey, cross-country skiing, and speed skating. The more than 55-mile long Vasa Race on skis is an extraordinary athletic event that each year attracts throngs of participants. In 1968 over 7,600 skiers completed the demanding run. Swedish athletes have performed well in international competition in summer sports, such as canoeing, cycling, swimming, tennis, sailing, and track and field.

### J. Public Information

#### 1. Press and periodicals

The Swedes are avid newspaper readers. In the first half of 1969 there were 106 daily newspapers with a combined circulation of 4.3 million, which comes to about 540 copies per 1,000 inhabitants, the highest readership rate in the world. Almost all Swedes read at least one newspaper, and half the population regularly reads more than one. As in virtually all advanced Western countries, however, the number of newspapers continues to decline. In 1950 the number of daily newspapers in Sweden was about 180. Nearly 90% of the closures since that year have affected newspapers competing with others of larger circulation in the same community. Consequently, an increasing number of communities have become one-newspaper towns, as shown in the following tabulation:

NEWSPAPERS IN COMMUNITY	PUBLISHING COMMUNITIES					
	1945	1950	1955	1960	1965	1969
5 or more	2	2	2	1	1	1
4	3	3	2	2	2	1
3	15	15	11	6	3	1
2	31	31	24	23	16	17
1	42	42	53	56	60	60

The increasing concentration of newspaper ownership in fewer hands has affected even relatively large-scale enterprises. For example, *Stockholms-Tidningen*, with a 1965 circulation of 156,900 copies, discontinued publication at the beginning of 1966. Of the newspapers still in existence, 20 or more are published at a loss, and they continue to appear only because of political subsidies. Figure 26 lists the principal daily newspapers, their circulation, and their political affiliation in 1970.

Most Swedish newspapers tend to be partisan, reflecting the point of view of the particular political party they support, although only the Communist press is actually owned by its party. For the most part, however, the Swedish press is in the hands of publishing companies or individuals who maintain some editorial autonomy vis-a-vis the party organizations. Bonnier, the one major press syndicate in Sweden, owns the largest morning and afternoon newspapers, and in addition publishes many of Sweden's general circulation magazines. Its political affiliation is with the Liberal and Conservative Parties, though such affiliation does not necessarily guide its publishing policies.

The increasing costs associated with newspaper publishing prompted a demand in the mid-1960's for some form of public support so as to maintain a



FIGURE 26. Selected daily newspapers, 1970

NEWSPAPER	PLACE OF PUBLICATION	CIRCULATION, WEEKDAY AND SUNDAY	PARTY AFFILIATION
		Thousands	
Expressen .....	Stockholm .....	623	Liberal.
Aftonbladet .....	do .....	684	Social Democratic.
Dagens Nyheter .....	do .....	507	
		531	Liberal.
Goteborgs Posten .....	Goteborg .....	455	
		559	Do.
Svenska Dagbladet .....	Stockholm .....	285	
		202	Moderate Coalition.
Sydavenska Dagbladet .....	Malmo .....	162	
		165	Independent Liberal.
Arbetet .....	do .....	120	
		154	Social Democratic.
		103	
		117	

thriving press. In 1966 the government began a program of subsidies involving a total of SKr23 million to be divided among the parties in proportion to the number of seats they held in the *Riksdag*. It was left to each party, however, to decide how the subsidy should be spent, the respective presses constituting one of several outlets. The tendency has since been for the strongly organized parties with a weak press (i.e., the Social Democratic Party) to spend the money on their newspapers, and for parties with strong press support and weaker organization (i.e., the Liberal and Conservative Parties) to devote these additional resources to strengthening their organization. The total subsidy for FY71 was SKr24.5 million. This program of subsidies has not proven adequate in checking the process of newspaper concentration, however, and in 1969 the *Riksdag* approved a plan specifically for a press loan fund. The plan is based upon recommendations by a 1967 government commission that a press loan fund be established from which government loans totalling SKr125 million would be advanced to newspapers over a 5-year period. These loans could be used to invest in buildings and machinery, to help pay for marketing programs, and to put the finances of losing enterprises in order. The *Riksdag* approved the commission's recommendations in May 1969, and the loan fund went into operation on 1 July 1969.

More than half of the daily newspaper circulation in Sweden is accounted for by the press of the three major cities: Stockholm, Goteborg, and Malmo. Their daily newspapers circulate throughout the entire country and, therefore, constitute the national press. The metropolitan newspapers do not, however,

completely dominate the field. Large regional papers are published in Karlstad, Linkoping, Sundsvall, Jonkoping, Orebro, Vasteras, and Boden. Furthermore, one of the most significant aspects of Swedish journalism is the strength of the local press, and there are few localities which do not have a newspaper. The newspapers in the three largest cities are published, with only few exceptions, 7 days a week. In the rest of the country, 6-day publication is the rule. Alongside these daily newspapers are 40 or more local papers which appear 2, 3, 4, or 5 days a week.

Sweden's national newspapers compare favorably in quality and coverage with the better metropolitan papers in other countries, although there is no Swedish equivalent of the *New York Times*, *The Times* of London, *Le Monde*, or the *Neue Zurcher Zeitung*. In appearance and content Swedish newspapers are similar to those in the United States. Front pages feature the important world, national, and local news of the day arranged in horizontal display with two-, three-, and four-column headlines. With the exception of the evening tabloids, all newspapers are standard size. The larger metropolitan newspapers have 50 to 60 pages, while the smaller regional and local papers have 10 to 20 pages. Most Swedish newspapers give considerable space to foreign, national, provincial, and local news from the various wire services; editorials; financial and business news; cultural matters; and sports events. There are no syndicated columns, unless one counts the recent introduction in some newspapers of selected columns by prominent U.S. columnists. A noteworthy feature of Swedish newspapers is the daily editorial summary, which reprints selected editorials from other newspapers

around the country. In this way, opinions voiced in local and provincial newspapers may be given a national audience.

The majority of Sweden's newspapers are serviced with domestic and foreign news by the Central News Agency (TT), which is owned and operated jointly by the entire Swedish daily press. TT has an exchange agreement with, inter alia, Reuters of London, the French and West German news agencies, and the news agencies of the other Nordic countries. The U.S. press is represented in Sweden by the Associated Press (AP) and United Press International (UPI), both of which provide foreign news to the Swedish press and cover Sweden for numerous foreign newspapers.

The marked disparity between the circulation figures of the daily newspapers and the relative strength of the political parties they support may be seen in Figure 27. What is most striking about these figures is the dominance of the Liberal press (48% of the circulation, but only 15% of the vote in 1968) and the weakness of the Social Democratic press (21% of the circulation, but 50.2% of the vote in 1968). Thus, the popular support for the party which has dominated Swedish politics for over a generation is not reflected in the purchase of newspapers. The Social Democrats attribute the failure of their newspapers to the fact that the Liberal and Conservative papers are older and have acquired a preferred position among readers and advertisers. The relative paucity of important advertising accounts—the Liberal and Conservative papers are preferred by advertisers because their readers are presumably more affluent—further weakens the financial position of the socialist press. The Social Democrats suffered a damaging blow in 1966 when their Stockholm morning newspaper, *Stockholms-Tidningen*, was compelled to cease publication, leaving one evening tabloid, *Aftonbladet*, as their sole press voice in the capital. Since Swedish evening newspapers are less dependent on advertising

than those published in the morning, however, the odds are better that a Social Democratic evening newspaper will succeed. With the demise of *Stockholms-Tidningen*, the role of public spokesman for the views of the government and the Social Democratic leadership has been assumed by the Malmö daily morning newspaper, *Arbetet*, which is the largest Social Democratic newspaper outside Stockholm.

The Liberal press occupies the dominant position in Sweden. *Dagens Nyheter*, which has the largest circulation of all the Swedish morning newspapers, is considered by many observers to be Sweden's best national newspaper. Its earlier, somewhat exclusive appeal to intellectuals and to the middle class has been broadened, and the paper's readership now includes all classes of the population. *Expressen* has the largest evening newspaper circulation in the country and, in fact, in all of Scandinavia. Picture tabloid in format, it presents up-to-date coverage of foreign and national news. Next in importance to these two papers are *Goteborgs Posten*, which is Sweden's second largest morning newspaper and the largest newspaper outside Stockholm, and the Malmö-published *Sydsvenska Dagbladet*, which is the largest newspaper in southern Sweden and is characterized as independent Liberal.

The chief spokesman of the Conservative Party, the morning paper *Scenska Dagbladet*, is one of the best and most respected newspapers in Sweden. It has high journalistic standards, and its foreign news coverage and financial analysis have long been regarded as the most comprehensive and lucid in the country. Rich in cultural material, it directs its appeal to the educated and upper income circles. Also of importance is the Karlstad-published *Nya Varmlands Tidningen*, which is the largest newspaper outside major population centers (1970 circulation of 76,000).

FIGURE 27. Newspapers classified by political affiliation, correlated with proportion of votes cast for each party in the 1968 elections

PARTY	NUMBER		PERCENT	NUMBER	
	OF PAPERS	NET CIRCULATION		OF VOTES	PERCENT
Conservative.....	45	818,500	19.0	670,500	13.9
Center.....	13	136,500	3.0	778,740	16.1
Liberal.....	43	2,078,600	48.0	724,736	15.0
Social Democratic.....	34	890,800	21.0	2,420,277	50.2
Communist.....	1	401,400	8.9	145,172	3.0
Others.....	16	22,700	3.9	88,036	1.8
Total.....	145	4,329,300	100.0	4,829,370	100.0

The Center Party and the Communist Party are both represented throughout the country by a very small press. *Skanska Dagbladet*, which is published in Malmo, is the Center Party's major newspaper. Its 1970 circulation of 35,000 is confined mostly to the rural areas of central and southern Sweden. The influence of the Communist press, except among the party faithful, is negligible. *Ny Dag*, the official biweekly (before 1965 it was a daily) had a 1970 circulation of 15,000. The one daily newspaper, *Norrskensflammen*, is published in Lulea and had a circulation of 3,000 in 1969. The Communist press has not been a paying proposition, and its circulation has steadily declined, from 1.2% of the total newspaper circulation in 1954 to less than 0.1% in 1970.

Perhaps no other civil right is more jealously regarded by the Swedes than freedom of the press. Originally achieved by a law of 1766, which was rescinded after only 6 years, it was reestablished by the basic laws of 1810 and 1812. The most recent press legislation, the Freedom of the Press Act, passed in 1949, reflects public reaction to the brief period of limited press control exercised during World War II as a result of German pressure. This legislation expands upon the constitutional guarantee against government censorship of writings for publication and specifically reconciles freedom of the press with national security. A publisher may not print officially classified information, and he need not reveal news sources except in cases involving treason or defamation of character. He may be subject to prosecution under criminal law for the disclosure of military or other classified secrets, for defamation of character, for printing pornography, and for other violations of press propriety. A new official office, known as the General Public's Press Ombudsman or grievance commissioner, was established in 1969 to prosecute violations of press ethics.

To a very great extent the press polices itself. For example, a code of self-regulation aims at the protection of the individual's right to privacy, the printing of correct and objective information, responsibility in the use of pictures, and care in the use of names. The Press Fair Practices Commission, a journalists' tribunal, stands watch on matters of taste and propriety.

There are about 2,500 periodical publications in Sweden. The most significant in terms of circulation are the popular variety weekly magazines and other light periodical literature. As of 1969, there were 38 such publications, with a combined circulation of 7.2 million copies. More than 90% of the Swedish population regularly read these periodicals. The

largest popular weekly magazines are *Aret Runt* and *Hemmets Veckotidning*, with 1969 circulations of 497,500 and 398,000, respectively. Two popular weekly consumer magazines, *ICA-Kurien*, devoted to problems of home and family, and *Vi*, similarly oriented, but also including serious discussions of social and economic problems, had 1969 circulations of 720,700, and 531,100, respectively. There are no significant political weeklies of the type found in the United States. A very significant part of the periodical press in Sweden consists of professional and trade association journals. They number about 500, and the largest are put out by the trade unions and by organized agricultural interests.

## 2. Book publishing

Book publishing is an important industry, reflecting both the avid reading habits of Swedes and the still competitive prices of locally produced books. In 1970, 7,709 titles were published as compared with 6,666 titles in 1965. Of the total in 1970, about three-fourths were first editions, the remainder reprints. There were 6,040 titles by Swedish authors, writing in Swedish (4,934), English (975), German (45), French (18), and other languages. As in confined language communities elsewhere, scholars, researchers, and, indeed, creative writers in Sweden often write in a language with broader international accessibility. As may be noted, English—understood by the majority of their educated countrymen—is the most popular such language among Swedish writers. Another 1,669 titles were translations, principally from English (1,113), French (130), German (124), Danish (108), and Norwegian (47). About 83% of the total 7,709 titles were works of 50 pages or more. The most popular subject matter included foreign creative writing translated into Swedish (771 titles), social science and law (707), technology, manufacturing, and communications (698), economics (680), juveniles (637), and Swedish creative writing (620).

A significant long-term growth in demand for books was especially evidenced in three fields: social sciences, physical sciences, and technology. Interest in Swedish creative writing remained at a high level without, however, experiencing the notable increase in popularity enjoyed by Swedish and English translation of foreign literature.

## 3. Libraries

Sweden has a modern library system that is excellent by any standard. In 1969 there were 1,566 public libraries with a total of 22,907,353 books. Although

there were a greater number of public libraries in 1966—1,824—they contained fewer volumes—19,124,540. In addition, the public libraries are supplemented by numerous school libraries. Of the total number of public libraries in 1969, 790 municipal libraries held 15,152,077 volumes, 603 study circle libraries had 578,311 books, and 24 county and regional libraries had 6,399,993 volumes. Some of the large public libraries in the cities are highly functional show places, whereas even the most isolated communities are reached by local branches or bookmobiles. Sweden also has about 24 research and specialized libraries. The major general research collections are those of the Royal Library in Stockholm, Uppsala University Library, Lund University Library, Stockholm University Library, Goteborg University Library, and Umea University Library. The libraries of the Chalmers Institute of Technology in Goteborg, the Royal Institute of Technology in Stockholm, the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences in Stockholm and the Royal Caroline Medical-Surgical Institute in Stockholm, have important collections of a specialized nature.

#### 4. Radio and television

All radio and television broadcasting in Sweden is the responsibility of the government-controlled *Sveriges Radio*, or Swedish Broadcasting Corporation (SBC), which is owned jointly by the press, private organizations, and commercial and industrial interests. The board of governors consists of 11 members, six appointed by the government and including the chairman, and five representing the shareholders. The board is charged by the government with insuring balanced programming, impartiality, and a sense of social and cultural responsibility. The government exercises no control over programs prior to broadcast, but the Radio Council, composed of seven members appointed by the government, is empowered to raise objections to specific programs after they have been broadcast if they violate guide lines.

There are no commercial advertisements on either radio or television, and operating revenue comes from the sale of annual licenses which are compulsory for all set users: radio owners pay a fee of SKr50 annually; a combined black and white television and radio license costs SKr180 annually; and a combined color television and radio license costs SKr280 annually. In 1970 there were 2,491,399 combined television and radio licenses and 334,062 radio licenses only. Licenses cover only the one most sophisticated set owned by a family and not each set; hence, many families have more than one receiver.

*Sveriges Radio* operates three domestic stations, each of which is programed for different tastes. Program 1, broadcast between 6 a.m. and 11 p.m., emphasizes news, commentary, lectures, and other more serious programs. Program 2, broadcast between 9 a.m. and 11 p.m., presents educational programs during the day and serious music at night. Program 3, broadcast around the clock, features light music and entertainment interspersed with frequent headline news summaries. The SBC also operates an international service, which sends regular shortwave programs in English, German, French, Spanish, and Portuguese to listeners outside Sweden. *Sveriges Radio* uses 62 AM transmitters on long and medium wave, while FM service is provided by 60 FM transmitters on ultra-short wave.

Television was introduced in Sweden in 1957, and it has experienced a phenomenal rate of growth. There were 23,000 TV licenses in 1957, while in 1970 there were over 2.4 million; more than 85% of all Swedish households have TV sets. In FY68 transmission totaled 2,250 hours, averaging 43.3 hours per week. There are four TV stations in Sweden and two channels. In 1970 there was a total of 246 TV transmitters, and virtually the entire country is capable of receiving at least one of the two channels. Color broadcasting was introduced on an experimental basis in 1967, and regular color programs commenced in 1970. Swedish television is tied in with the Eurovision and Nordvision networks.

The two channels of Swedish television are meant to compete with each other except for factual news, which is provided by a common news department. Each channel, nonetheless, produces its own programs of news commentary and backgrounders on current events. Channel 1 is on the air about 40 hours per week, while Channel 2 appears about 20 hours per week. Approximately half the total transmission time is devoted to programs imported from other European countries and the United States. Figure 28 offers a comparison between radio and television broadcasting in Sweden.

#### 5. Motion pictures

Motion pictures have considerable popularity in Sweden, although attendance has steadily declined in recent years as television has become more available. The number of motion picture theaters in 1969 was 1,527 as compared with 2,275 in 1962 and 1,996 in 1965. The number of movie-goers has decreased from 50.0 million in 1962 to 38.2 million in 1965 to 30.4 million in 1969. Each inhabitant averaged five visits to the motion pictures in 1968 as compared with three

FIGURE 28. Radio and television broadcasting, 1969-70

	RADIO				TELEVISION
	Program 1	Program 2	Program 3	Total	
Program time (hours).....	6,073	3,282	8,512	17,847	3,489
Percentage of which:					
Cultural and social programs.....	28.3	0.1	0.5	9.9	13.2
Religious services.....	4.5	0.0	0.0	1.5	0.0
Education programs.....	0.1	17.0	0.0	3.1	2.4
News.....	21.9	8.8	4.0	10.9	11.7
Serious music (i.e., classical).....	14.0	57.5	0.0	15.3	2.6
Theater.....	4.9	0.0	0.0	1.3	3.5
Children's programs.....	6.4	0.0	1.0	3.0	10.1
Light programs.....	13.7	2.3	89.9	48.0	23.4
School programs.....	0.0	12.4	0.0	2.3	9.9
Sports.....	1.5	0.4	3.5	2.3	10.7
Others.....	4.7	1.5	1.1	2.4	12.5

visits in West Germany, four visits in France (1967), four visits in the United Kingdom, six visits in Denmark (1967), 11 visits in Spain, and seven visits in the United States (1967).

Under the terms of an agreement with the government, the film industry established the Swedish Film Institute in the early 1960's in order to stimulate the production of artistically ambitious films and to promote and perform a number of noncommercial film activities. The institute is financed by 10% of all box office receipts, and it annually gives large sums of money in awards for Swedish films of superior merit, in addition to operating a film school, a film archive, and a film library. In 1968, 30 films were produced in Sweden by domestic studios as compared with 215 in the United States (1967), 120 in France (1967), 117 in Spain, 115 in West Germany, 83 in the United Kingdom (1967), and 22 in Denmark. The number of new Swedish films produced by domestic studios in 1970 was 17, while the number of new foreign films in Sweden was 253 in 1970, as compared with 305 in 1961 and 258 in 1965. Motion pictures intended for public showing in Sweden are viewed beforehand by the National Board of Film Censorship, which is empowered to delete certain sequences or to issue a general ban. Censorship is concerned chiefly with scenes depicting excessive brutality on the grounds that they are detrimental to mental health. Prurience is also allegedly to be banned. Nevertheless, many television dramatizations go beyond current U.S. limits of propriety for excessive sexuality. Of the 542 films reviewed by the board in 1969, 57 were classified "red" (allowed for all ages), 69 were "green" (barred to children under 11 years of age), 193 "yellow" (barred to children under 15 years of age), and 23 were "white" (banned).

**K. Suggestions for further reading (U/OU)**

**1. General works**

The most readable, balanced overview of Swedish society, placed in its Scandinavian setting, is still Donald S. Connery's *The Scandinavians* (1966). Roland Huntford, *The New Totalitarians* (1972), a critical evaluation of the welfare state, is useful in pointing out some of the pitfalls inherent in so tightly organized a society as the Swedish, but it is generally too facile and forced, its criticisms too strident, while the historical analyses offered are at best highly original. *Scandinavia* (1972), by W. R. Mead and Wendy Hall, contains a more balanced current treatment of Sweden. Noteworthy is the criticism of state incursions upon privacy and personal liberty in order to impose greater equality. Frederick Fleisher, *The New Sweden: the Challenge of a Disciplined Democracy* (1967), is another balanced and scholarly work, with informative sociological evaluations. *Facts About Sweden* (1969), periodically updated by the Swedish Institute, is an official presentation touching lightly on all facets of Swedish society. While containing much sound information and analyses, its slight propaganda intent occasionally shows through, and it should be exploited with reasonable care. A still useful older general work is Roy Millward's *Scandinavian Lands* (1964).

**2. Manpower, health, and welfare**

A summary outline of Swedish labor is contained in the *Directory of Labor Organization: Europe* (Washington, 1965) issued by the Bureau of International Affairs of the U.S. Department of Labor. Its statistical material may be updated by consulting

the *International Labor Organization Yearbook*, 1970 (Geneva, 1971). Timely information is also provided by a number of fact sheets published by the Swedish Institute, including *Active Manpower Policy in Sweden* (1971) and *Swedish Labor-Management Relations and Collective Bargaining* (1971). The *Annual Labor Reports* issued by the U.S. Embassy in Stockholm are perhaps the most up-to-date, well-focused summaries available.

Clear, concise summaries of the complex welfare programs may be found in the pamphlet, *Social Policy and How It Works* (1970), and in the fact sheets, *Social Insurance in Sweden* (1970), and *The Economy of the Swedish Family* (1970), all published by the Swedish Institute. Detailed information on the cost of the most comprehensive welfare system in the world is found in *The Cost and Financing of the Social Services in Sweden* (1970), issued by the National Central Bureau of Statistics.

Cooperation in the labor, health, and welfare fields has been extensively promoted by the Nordic Council, leading to the publication, under its auspices, of several studies covering the Nordic area as a whole. Among the useful surveys are *Nordic Cooperation in the Social and Labor Fields* (Oslo, 1965) issued by the Nordic Committee on Social Policy; *Social Security in the Nordic Countries, 1966/67* (Copenhagen, 1970) issued by the Nordic Social Statistics Committee; and *Housing in the Nordic Countries* (Copenhagen, 1968), a publication sponsored by the ministries concerned with housing and urban development in each of the five countries, and issued by the Nordic Council.

### 3. Education, public information, and cultural expression

The annual *International Yearbook of Education*, 1970 (1971), issued by UNESCO, is one of the better timely basic summaries of the Swedish educational system. A more comprehensive survey is *Education in Sweden* (1970), published by the Swedish Institute. The best, most up-to-date comparative study of Swedish higher education is the well-focused, *Higher Education in Nine Countries* (1971) by Burn, Altbach, Kerr, and Perkins. *The Organization and Planning of*

*Swedish Research* (1969) and *Adult Education in Sweden* (1970), both put out by the Swedish Institute, are good basic treatments of those subjects.

Mass media are adequately described in the fact sheet, *Mass Media in Sweden*, published by the Swedish Institute (Stockholm, 1970). The Swedish press is covered briefly in *Media Scandinavia '70* (Copenhagen, 1970) issued by the Danish Association of Advertising Agencies. *The Foreign Press: A Survey of the World's Journalism* (Baton Rouge, 1970), prepared by John C. Merrill, Carter R. Bryan, and Marvin Alisky is of only marginal use because of shallow analyses and occasional factual errors.

A brief survey of cultural life is presented in the previously cited *Facts About Sweden*. Frequent short, albeit authoritative, articles on social and cultural topics appear in *The American-Scandinavian Review*, issued quarterly by the American-Scandinavian Foundation.

### 4. Statistical and other reference works

The basic source for statistical information on Sweden is the *Statistisk Årsbok*, 1971 (Stockholm, 1970), the yearbook published annually with English summaries and subheadings by the National Central Bureau of Statistics. *Some Data About Sweden*, published by Stockholms Enskilda Bank (1970) is also a reliable source for statistical data. A summary of the Swedish budget, *The Swedish Budget 1971/72*, is published by the Ministry of Finance and Economy. Useful comparisons with the other Nordic countries are provided in the *Yearbook of Nordic Statistics*, 1970 (Stockholm, 1971), published by the Nordic Council, and *The Scandinavian Market, '70, A Statistical Survey of the Four Scandinavian Countries* (Zurich, 1970), issued by the Scandinavian-owned Zurich Nordfinanz-Bank and Paris Banque Nordique de Commerce. International statistical comparisons are to be found in the *United Nations Statistical Yearbook*, 1971 (New York, 1972), the *United Nations Demographic Yearbook*, 1971 (New York, 1972), and the *United Nations Compendium of Social Statistics*, 1967 (New York, 1968).

## Glossary

ABBREVIATION	SWEDISH	ENGLISH
AMS	Arbetsmarknadsstyrelsen	National Labor Market Board
ATP	Allmän tilläggs pensionering	National supplementary pension
LO	Landsorganisationen	Federation of Trade Unions
RLF	Riksförbundet Landsbygdens Folk	National Farmers Union
SAC	Sveriges arbetares centralorganisation	Central Organization of Swedish Workers
SACO	Sveriges akademiernas centralorganisation	Swedish Confederation of Professional Associations
SAF	Svenska arbetsgivareföreningen	Swedish Employers Confederation
SBC (SC)	Sveriges Radio AB	Swedish Broadcasting Corporation
SFO	Statsföretagens Förhandlings Organisation	Government Companies Negotiation Organization
SFS	Sveriges förenade studentkårer	Swedish Union of Students
SL	Sveriges Lantbruksförbund	Federation of Swedish Farmers Associations
SR	Statistjänstemannens riksförbund	National Federation of Government Employees
TCO	Tjänstemannens Centralorganisation	Central Organization of Salaried Employees
TRU	Television och radio uppfostran	Committee for Education by Television and Radio
TT	Tidningarnas Telegrambyrå AB	Central News Agency

### Places and features referred to in this Chapter

	COORDINATES				COORDINATES		
	°	'N.	° 'E.		°	'N.	° 'E.
Årsta (sec of Stockholm)	59	18	18 03	Malmö	55	36	13 00
Boden	65	50	21 42	Norrköping	58	36	16 11
Dalarna (region)	61	01	14 04	Örebro	59	17	15 13
Enköping	59	38	17 04	Saltsjöbaden	59	17	18 18
Farsta (sec of Stockholm)	59	15	18 05	Skåne (region)	55	59	13 30
Göta Kanal (canal)	58	50	13 58	Skara	58	22	13 25
Göteborg	57	43	11 58	Skärholmen (sec of Stockholm)	59	17	17 53
Gripsholm (castle)	59	15	17 13	Stockholm	59	20	18 03
Halland (region)	57	01	12 42	Södertälje	59	12	17 37
Härnosand	62	38	17 56	Sundsvall	62	23	17 18
Johannelund (sec of Linköping)	58	25	15 37	Täby	59	30	18 03
Jönköping	57	47	14 11	Umeå	63	50	20 15
Kalmar	56	40	16 22	Uppsala	59	52	17 38
Karlstad	59	22	13 30	Vallingby (sec of Stockholm)	59	22	17 52
Leksands-Noret	60	44	14 59	Västerås	59	37	16 33
Linköping	58	25	15 37	Västergötland (region)	58	01	13 03
Luleå	65	34	22 10	Västra Frölunda (sec of Göteborg)	57	39	11 52
Lund	55	42	13 11	Växjö	56	53	14 49
Mälaren	59	30	17 12				

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