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SCANDINAVIAN ADVENTURES,

PART I.

RESIDENCE OF UPWARDS OF TWENTY YEARS,

EXHIBITING STRANGE INCIDENTS AND SUBJECTS OF NATURAL HISTORY,
AND REMARKS ON SCANDINAVIAN WOOD-GNATS.

PART II.

ADVENTURE OF THE NORTHERN YAKA.

BY L. LLOYD,

AUTHOR OF "FIELD STORIES OF THE NORTH."

IN TWO VOLUMES.

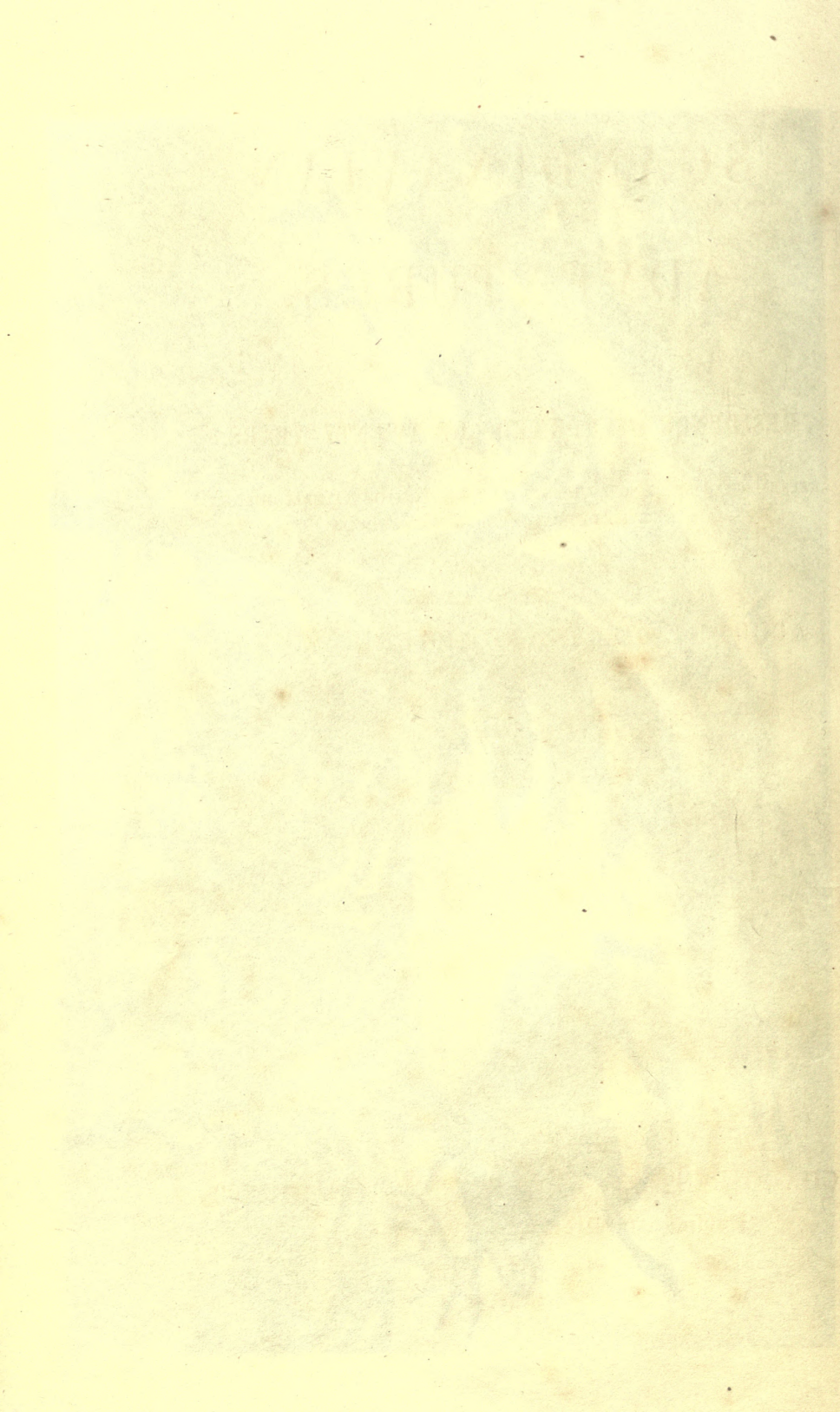
VOL. II.

LONDON:

RICHARD BENTLEY, NEW BURLINGTON STREET,

PUBLISHER IN ORDINANCE TO HER MAJESTY.

M.DCCC.LXV.



SCANDINAVIAN ADVENTURES,

DURING A

RESIDENCE OF UPWARDS OF TWENTY YEARS.

REPRESENTING SPORTING INCIDENTS, AND SUBJECTS OF NATURAL HISTORY,
AND DEVICES FOR ENTRAPPING WILD ANIMALS.

WITH SOME

ACCOUNT OF THE NORTHERN FAUNA.

BY L. LLOYD,

AUTHOR OF "FIELD SPORTS OF THE NORTH."

IN TWO VOLUMES.

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All drawn on stone by EDM. WALKER, and lithographed
by DAY and Co.

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SCANDINAVIAN ADVENTURES.

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POISON.

THE Lynx, or the Northern Tiger, as he is sometimes called (*Lo*, Sw.; *Felis Lynx*, Linn.), was pretty common in the country about Ronnum. This is the case almost everywhere in both Sweden and Norway; but he is more plentiful by all accounts in the northern than in the southern portion of Scandinavia. When my former work was written, it was a much mooted question in Sweden whether there was one species or more in the peninsula. Nilsson, adopting the popular notion, went so far, indeed, as to make out three several kinds, which he designated as the wolf-, the fox-, and the cat-lynx. But the learned Professor, as well

as most others, have now, I believe, come to the conclusion that they are all one and the same species; and that the great dissimilarity amongst those animals in regard to colour and size is solely attributable to difference of age, sex, and season of the year.



THE NORTHERN LYNX.

This beast, which is not much inferior in size to the wolf, is reputed to be more shy than bold. Though he commonly confines himself to the wilds of the forest, hunger occasionally induces him to visit the homestead; and if he finds a crevice in the building—or a window open—he fails not to enter the cattle-house. But if at such times he finds retreat cut off, his courage altogether forsakes him; and though he may be surrounded by numerous sheep and goats, he will not touch a single one of the flock. Unless his life be

jeopardized, man he never assails; but when he does charge, his onsets are described as somewhat desperate. His principal weapons are his claws. "When attacked by a dog," Pontoppidan tells us, "he throws himself immediately upon his back in the manner of a cat, and turns up his forelegs, to be the better able to defend himself: the dog on this lays hold, and thinks himself conqueror; but the lynx then makes use of his sharp talons so effectually, that he flays the enemy alive."

The favourite haunts of the lynx are mountainous and deeply wooded districts, in the hidden recesses of which he is less subject to persecution, and can more readily pounce on his prey. Except during the pairing season, when the male seeks far and near for a mate, he is not a great wanderer—at least in the summer time, when there is greater facility in procuring food. The line of country he hunts over is not very extensive; and it is not until he has destroyed nearly all the game upon his beat that he removes to another, where in like manner he only remains so long as prey is to be found. The singular notion is entertained by some, that when the lynx thus shifts his hunting-ground, the migration, if so it can be called, always takes place either at the end of the last quarter of the old moon, or at the commencement of the new; and that, should he return again to the same district, it is never within less time than a month.

The lynx is not, like the wolf, gregarious. A pair—male and female—generally keep together, and the mother is often followed by her cubs; which, indeed, generally remain with her until nearly arrived at maturity; but otherwise these animals never congregate. The male and female are said

to evince much affection for each other; and if one should be killed, the survivor will remain long in the vicinity—on the look-out, as it were, for its missing comrade.

The lynx—when full grown at least—does not seem to ascend trees from choice. It would rather appear, on the contrary, that only when very closely pressed he seeks their friendly shelter. But it is not from the want of ability; for from the extreme sharpness of his claws, and his cat-like spring, he can climb the smoothest trunk, even though altogether divested of branches. It used to be said he chased squirrels or martin-cats from bough to bough, and that even in the very tree-top; but this fable is now pretty well exploded.

The lynx, like others of the tiger tribe, unless compelled by hunger, or disturbed, rests for the most part during the day. Sometimes he conceals himself in the cleft of a rock, or under the root of a prostrate tree; but far more generally he couches on the top of a boulder, a stump, or the angle of a projecting rock, from whence he can detect the approach of danger, as also of the animals on which he preys. From such situations I have myself repeatedly started the lynx, and that even in the most severe weather; and as he thus from choice would seem to set the rigour of a northern winter at defiance, I conclude he must be a very hardy animal.

At dusk, or early dawn, the lynx most commonly roams the forest in search of prey. Some will have it that he lies in ambush until his victim has approached so near, that two or three springs will bring it within his grasp; but others say, and with much more probability, that he steals upon it unawares in the manner of a cat.

If it be a hare, or other small animal, he destroys it at once, and devours it bodily, or so much of it as his necessities may need. But if it be a sheep, or the like, he seizes it by the back with his terrific talons, and throwing the poor creature to the ground, rends the throat, and gorges himself with the warm blood as it gurgles from the gaping wound. Afterwards he tears open the cavity of the chest, and eats the parts most replete with blood—such as the heart, the liver, and the lungs; and if these should not suffice to stay his hunger, he feasts on the flesh also.

Should it be a larger animal, however, such as a deer—the lynx, according to a popular, though probably erroneous notion, casts himself from some little eminence, from a boulder, or a tree, on to his victim's neck, and then rends open the arteries, the position of which he knows from experience. And as when walking, his talons, in the same way as those of the cat, are always in the sheath which nature has provided, that they may be protected from wear and injury, they are so sharp, that during this barbarous operation they perform the part of lancets.

It is said, that if the lynx fails in his spring, and his intended victim saves itself by flight, he never pursues it any considerable distance, but in like manner with others of the feline tribe, slinks back to his retreat.

“Some years ago,” M. Ekström relates, “whilst a peasant was occupied with agricultural labours in the spring, he observed that some sheep feeding in a wooded pasture shied, when passing near a boulder on the hill-side. Inclination for the green sward, however, having at length got the better of their fears, they once more approached

the spot, when out dashed a large lynx from his ambush, and made several bounds towards them. But as the poor creatures had somewhat the start of him, they were so fortunate as to escape his clutches. Seeing that his efforts were fruitless, the beast now turned about and retreated to his hiding-place, which the peasant observing, he hastened home for his gun, and stealthily approaching the spot, shot him whilst in his lair."

It is generally asserted that if, when the lynx has satisfied his hunger, part of the victim remains, he buries it for a future meal. But I doubt the story for the reason, that, during my wanderings in the northern forests, I have constantly fallen in with hares—or rather their bodies, the heads being usually gone—which had been killed by those beasts, and lying altogether on the surface of the snow; on which remains, indeed, I and my people have often feasted.

In proportion to their numbers, lynxes are probably more destructive than any of the Scandinavian wild beasts. Like the wolf, the lynx is very sanguinary, and slaughters ten times more than he devours; and when he thus commits needless butcheries, he does little besides gorge himself with the blood of his victims. "In a pretty large wood in the vicinity of this place," so we are told by M. Sköldberg, "a she-lynx and her two cubs, killed in a single day no less than twenty-three sheep. The necks of some were partially eaten, but the bodies remained untouched." Pontoppidan, when speaking of the lynx, tells us something of the same kind. "They are very cunning in undermining a sheep-fold," such are his words, "where they help themselves very nobly."

According to the last-cited author, however, the tables are at times turned on the lynx. After informing us that this beast is in the habit of burrowing in the ground, he goes on to say: "It happened lately that a *Goup* (the Norwegian for lynx) was found out by a sly he-goat, who perceiving his subterraneous work, watched him narrowly, and as soon as his head came forth, before the body could be got out, butted him, and gave him such home pushes, that he laid him dead on the grave of his own making."

Not to speak of the ravages he commits in the fold, the lynx, moreover, is the sportsman's greatest enemy, being beyond doubt the most destructive beast that ranges the northern forests. The capercali, the black-cock, &c., are too frequently his victims, and the poor hare, which would seem to be his most choice morsel, he pursues so incessantly and perseveringly, that few within his beat escape him.

According to Ekström, "the lynx, like the house-cat, buries his excrements, and also his urine, in porous earth or sand. From this his custom, it was formerly believed that Amber (the *Lyncurium* of the ancients) originated in the urine of this beast."

The lynx's claws, Pontoppidan says, were in his day considered a specific for the cramp, when worn round the neck; but the worthy Bishop wisely adds, that he cannot affirm such to be the fact.

The flesh of all the tiger tribe is in England considered the worst of carrion; but this is a mistake, as regards that of the lynx at least, which greatly resembles veal in appearance, and to my personal knowledge—for I have often partaken of it—is very palatable. Grimalkin in the hand of Soyer would probably prove equally good.

Savage as the lynx is in his native wilds, he may be readily domesticated. I speak from my own experience; for on two several occasions, I have brought up those animals from cubs, and kept them for a year or more, and they were then sent over to England. Whilst in my possession, they evinced no vice whatever, and we handled them and did what we pleased with them; but though at times allowed their full liberty, they were not, as a rule, permitted to go at large.

M. Grill testifies also to the domesticity of the lynx. Having on one occasion procured two cubs of a very tender age, he placed them with a cat, in exchange for her kittens; and what is singular, the step-mother showed the same affection towards them as to her own progeny. One died; but the other throve well, and soon learnt to eat anything that was given to him. Even when he was half as large again as his step-mother, they got on extremely well together, and the cat licked and caressed him as high up as she could reach; but when he was four months old, the cat began to think he was altogether too large for a veritable kitten, and had an ugly look about him, so that when he would continue his caresses, she would set up her back and spit at him.

Though the lynx may not "tax the peasant higher than the crown," he is sufficiently destructive, and various expedients are therefore employed to compass his death.

Some few are killed in Skalls—though not so many as might be supposed; and probably for the reason, that on these occasions the lynx often takes shelter either in trees, or in fissures of rocks, in which case he may very readily be

passed by the people. From his extraordinary agility, moreover, it is not always easy to keep him within the Cordon. Once, indeed, near to the conclusion of a Skall—under my own management—when he was driven into a corner, and when the people were standing three or four deep, the beast sprang clear over the men's heads, and made his escape! I did not happen myself to see the vault; but every one near the spot where the incident occurred, averred such to have been actually the case.

Many lynxes are hunted to the death with dogs, which, however, must be specially trained to the purpose. It is always desirable to ring the beast in the first instance; for if the dogs be put on the Spår whilst it is quite fresh, he will commonly—more especially if young—either “tree,” or be brought to bay in a short space of time, in which case the sportsman can shoot him at his leisure. If a man on these occasions keeps a respectful distance, there is little or no danger; for it is not once in a thousand times that the lynx becomes the assailant. But should he incautiously approach the beast too near, he may not improbably receive severe maltreatment.

“It was during the last days of February,” Lieutenant C. E. Åberg tells us, for instance, “that I found the tracks of a lynx; but I had to follow them for a day and a half before I had approached the beast sufficiently near to slip the dog, which, as wolves were thereabouts, was provided with *Spik-klädnad*, in other words, a spiked collar. After the run had lasted for two or three hours, and the lynx had become weary, the dog succeeded in bringing him to bay near to a birch tree, which gave me time to come up and to shoot at him, though with no sensible effect, owing perhaps

to the distance being too considerable. But to fire my second barrel was impossible, because the animal, at a single bound, threw himself upon the dog. A sharp combat now ensued between them, to which, on my reaching the spot, I attempted to put a termination; and although I succeeded in making the beast let go his hold of the dog, he struck his claws into one of my thighs, which he lacerated—but not worse than that the wounds healed in a week. As I found his claws sharp and disagreeable, I made a violent effort to escape from the beast; but with no better success than that I fell down with my face in the snow, and with the gun underneath me; and as the lynx would not quit his hold, he therefore lay as it were upon me. When, however, the dog found himself at liberty he presently freed me from the unwelcome guest; and in the battle which afterwards took place between them, the beast was at length destroyed. It was a male, but not very large.—In consequence of his courageous efforts, the dog is still unfit for service; and as his leg was severely bitten, it will probably be some months before he quite recovers. Had it not been for the protection afforded to his neck by the Spik-klädnad, it is most likely he would have been killed.”

Though one's own person is little risked in lynx hunting, it frequently happens that the poor dogs are cruelly mangled by the beast.

“One afternoon in November, 1825,” says M. af Uhr, “I crossed over to Matt-Ön, an island in the river Dal, immediately opposite to Gysinge-Bruk, with four harriers. A man named Hampus accompanied me, as also another man with several untrained dogs. I separated my pack into

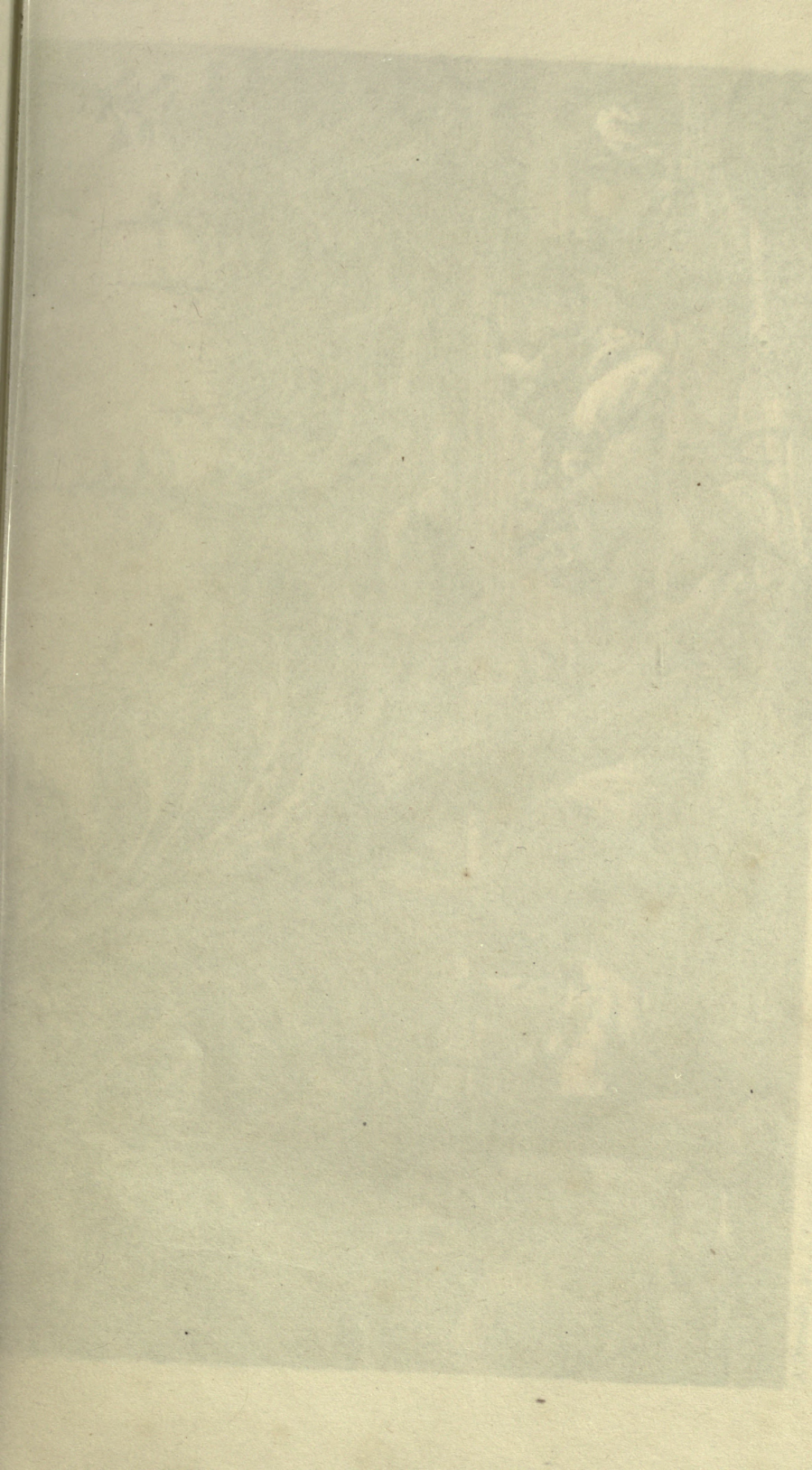
two divisions ; but as the first division were unable to start a hare, the second were also slipped from their couplings. I directed Hampus to take the whole pack to a certain hill-side ; but one of the number parted from the rest, and kept hunting about the eminence on which I had posted myself to wait the coming of Puss. Presently this dog began to challenge in a very unusual manner ; and being soon afterwards joined by the rest, they all went off together in full cry. In a moment, however, the music came to a stand-still, and was succeeded by sounds that gave undeniable evidence that a battle royal was going on. Supposing that the hare was killed, I hastened to the spot. But when I came to a morass, on which there were many prostrate trees that impeded my progress, I jumped on to the top of a large stone to see what was going on ; and I then saw Hampus striking at something with his gun, which the presence of the dogs prevented him from shooting. At the same instant a huge lynx attempted to spring up into a neighbouring tree ; but one of the dogs seized him by the hind leg, and drew him down again, on which the beast cast himself on to his back. A second dog now seized him by the throat, and a third by the belly, which several attacks soon put an end to the contest, and the lynx never moved again. All the dogs were wounded ; one especially was so badly hurt, that it was needful to carry him to the boat. It was a short but terrible combat.”

“During a hare-hunt,” writes my friend M. Anders Oterdahl—famed not only as a sportsman, but for his hospitality—“when sixteen dogs were uncoupled, they exchanged the hare for a lynx, which after some time was brought to bay in a very close thicket. It so happened that

I was nearer to the dogs than my companions ; and anxious to benefit by the opportunity, I ran so hurriedly and heedlessly as to fall just as I reached the spot where the fight was going on, and as near as might be upon the lynx himself. My very unexpected presence so surprised the combatants, that the field of battle was forthwith removed, some twenty to thirty paces, to another brake so very dense, that to enable me to see what was going forward, I was necessitated to crawl on my hands and knees. Encouraged by my presence and cheers, the dogs still more furiously beset the lynx, which repelled their often repeated attacks in the most gallant manner. Lying on his back, he with his sharp and cutting claws, struck out in every direction with the rapidity of lightning, dealing wounds on all sides, and in degree at least keeping his enemies at a distance. The beast's head was towards me ; but the dogs evinced such an extreme degree of ardour and courage, that for a while I dared not to fire, for fear of hitting one or the other of them. At length, however, in the midst of this hot conflict, one of the dogs, more courageous than the rest, rushed between the hind legs of the lynx with the intention apparently of seizing him by the throat ; and as at the same time the beast's breast became exposed to view, I took the opportunity and fired whilst at only four or five paces' distance ; and in an instant a period was put to his existence.

“ It was an old and full-grown male. What with the baying of the dogs—our shouts and the deep growling of the lynx, which was distinctly to be heard in the *mêlée*—the scene to a sportsman was most interesting.

“ Eleven out of the sixteen dogs were so wounded, that





A. Otendahl, del. E. Wilson, lith.

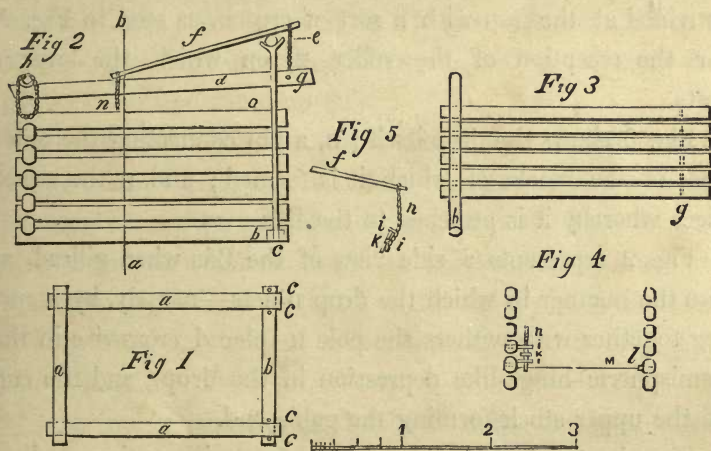
Day & Son, Lithrs to The Queen.

THE DOGS IN A DIFFICULTY.



they could not be used any more on that occasion. Several of them were badly hurt—especially the one that charged so boldly. Although he escaped with life, he could never afterwards be used for hunting.”

The lynx is not unfrequently captured by means of the common steel-trap, which device, owing to this animal not being gifted with the same degree of cunning, commonly succeeds better with him than with the fox. The trap is baited with the remains of a cat or a hare that he himself may have left undevoured, and is placed where they were found, the beast being very apt to revisit the spot on a future occasion.



THE LO-BÂS.

But, perhaps, the device in most general use for the capture of the lynx is the *Lo-bâs*, literally the lynx-crib.

In preference the Bås should be constructed on rocky or hard ground, that the beast may not burrow beneath the walls; and the trouble of making a floor is thereby avoided. It is rectangular in form. Three of its sides are built up of squared blocks of wood, whilst the fourth is open for the admittance of the lynx. But the drop—the after-part of which rests on the closed end of the Bås—is of sufficient length, when down, as entirely to close the entrance.

Fig. 1 shows the ground plan of the Bås; A A A the first layer of blocks, B the threshold, C C C C the holes at the end of the threshold for the reception of the upright poles, between which the side walls are built up; the two outermost of which should be somewhat longer than the rest, and provided at the top with a sort of crutch, as seen in Fig. 2, for the reception of the roller E, on which the lever F rests.

Fig. 3 shows the drop itself; G, a pin connecting the outer ends of the blocks of which it is formed; and H the cross-piece whereby it is attached to the Bås.

Fig. 2 represents a side view of the Bås when gillrad, as also the manner in which the drop D acts—namely, by securing together with withers the pole H (placed crosswise in the hemispheric hinge-like depression in the drop), and the end of the upper stock forming the gable end.

Fig. 4: the Gillring as seen in front, in section, and as shown by the line A B, in Fig. 2. I I are two pins inserted in one of the side walls. K, the Giller-pin, which is about five inches in length, securely fastened by the middle to the line N, appended to the lever F, as shown in Figs. 2 and 5. The upper end of K is placed under and against the uppermost pin

I, and its lower end against the lowermost of the pins I, on the side facing the entrance of the Bâs, and as near to it as possible, that the Gillring may act the more readily. M is the Giller-string, at the extremity of which is a large knot; but instead of this string being fastened to the Giller-pin K (in which case it might be in the way on the latter being released from confinement), this knot is placed in a small angular notch, at its extremity, in such manner that it rests at the edge of the notch. The other end of the string M is secured to the pin L, at the opposite side of the Bâs.

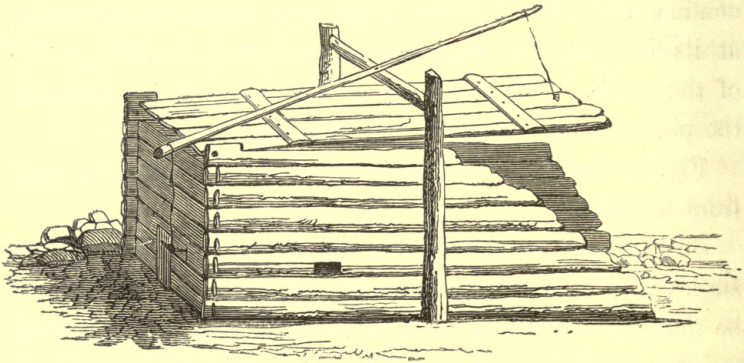
Fig. 5 shows the Gillring clear of the trap itself, as seen from the side.

So long as the Giller-pin K, and the string M, are at right angles with each other, the knot at the extremity of M cannot be drawn out; but as soon as the lynx presses against the string M, and disturbs the Giller-pin, the knot escapes from confinement and the drop falls.

The stuffed skin of a hare, placed in one corner of the Bâs, serves as bait; but it should be white, that the contrast between it and the grey stones, on which the Bâs rests, may be the greater; and it ought to represent the animal in a squatting position, as in that case the lynx, under the idea of seizing Puss on her seat, makes a more than usually desperate spring.

It is not considered advisable to shoot the lynx when a captive, as wild beasts from that time forward are apt to be shy of the trap. The better plan is to pass a wire-snare between the blocks forming the drop; and after placing it about the neck of the beast to strangle him, in which case not a single drop of blood will come into the Bâs.

On several occasions I myself, whilst traversing the northern forests, have fallen in with traps somewhat similarly constructed to the above; and in more than one instance my dogs have been made prisoners.



ANOTHER LO-BÅS.

A more simple kind of Lo-Bås—as regards the Gilling at least—is in common use throughout Scandinavia; but its nature is so well explained in the above drawing, which represents it when gillrad, that very little description is requisite.

It should be constructed of old blocks, of which wild beasts are less apprehensive than of newly-hewn timber; and put so securely together, that the animals cannot work themselves out. The drop, which is also formed of blocks, either rests on a cross-piece at the closed end of the Bås, or is suspended on hinges. The line connecting the drop

with the lever, consists of withes and not of rope. The small aperture at the side of the Bås is for the purpose of shooting the beast when imprisoned. A piece of meat serves as bait. This is secured to a piece of iron or brass wire, previously glödged; a small ring at the outer end of this wire is passed through a hole at the closed end of the Bås, and suspended to a sort of hook fixed in a post immediately in the rear of the trap—as is also the line attached to the after part of the lever; the hold of both on the hook, however, is so slight, that when the lynx tugs at the bait, the lever is at once set at liberty, and the drop falls.

He is also at times shot “för Glugg,” in like manner as the wolf. He can only be decoyed, however, when the carrion is fresh, for when it is rotten or even tainted he will not go near the Luder-plats.

Occasionally the lynx is caught in pit-falls; but this is a circumstance of rare occurrence; for even should he happen to tumble into one, he, from his cat-like agility, generally manages to escape from the prison. Several ingenious methods have been adopted to prevent his egress from the pit:—such as facing its sides with smooth stones, arming the edge of it with a sort of *chevaux-de-frise*, consisting of portions of old scythes, &c.; as also by placing, for the reception of the bait, a narrow beam across the mouth of the pit, instead of having, as is customary, a perpendicular post in the centre. Up to this time, however, all these and other expedients have proved in great degree ineffectual; and the pit-fall will probably continue a less profitable method of capturing the lynx than almost any device now in use.

“As a proof of the great strength and agility possessed by the lynx,” says Captain Sv. Littorin, “I will mention that in the winter of 1808, one of these beasts fell into a pit-fall near to the town of Gefle; and although the pit was ten feet deep, and the planks lining its sides smooth, and that he had a steel-trap hanging to his leg, he nevertheless escaped. The trap he afterwards left behind him near to the spot. On the same morning that this happened, the beast was pursued by three experienced sportsmen with dogs; but although by the tracks he appeared to be much wounded, they could not come up with him.”

Poison does not succeed much better with the lynx than the pit-fall; for so long as he can find game for himself, he will seldom go near the Luder-plats. Nothing but famine, indeed, tempts him to visit it, and much less carrion that has been impregnated with arsenic, or other deadly ingredients.

CHAPTER II.

THE GLUTTON — NOTION OF THE ANCIENTS — DESCRIPTION — PISCATORY PURSUITS—CONCEALS HIS FOOD—READILY TAMED—THE STEEL-TRAP — THE JERF-BÅS — THE JERF-FÄLLA — ANOTHER KIND.

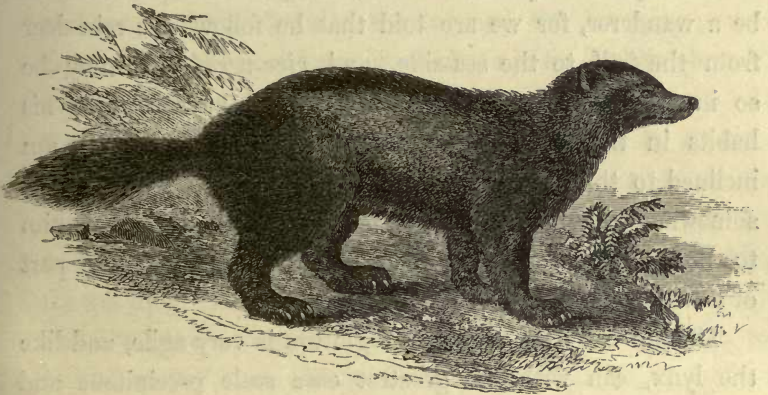
THE Glutton, or Wolverine (*Jerf*; *Filfrass*, Sw.; *Gulo borealis*, Retz.), though not found in my vicinity—or, indeed, in the more southern parts of Sweden, where it has probably been exterminated—is common over all the more northern portions of Scandinavia. Swedish naturalists tell us that the fjäll regions are the proper home of the glutton, but to my personal knowledge they are also pretty common in the Wermeland and Dalecarlian forests.

Many fables used to be related of this animal. Pontopidan informs us for instance: “It is a wild notion that the people here in general have conceived: which is, that the glutton is a bear’s third cub, though she brings but seldom forth more than two at a time. If this creature finds a

carcase six times as big as himself, he does not leave off eating as long as there is a mouthful left; he must therefore be tormented with such insatiable hunger, that even a crammed belly does not abate it. A friend of mine, a man of probity, has assured me from ocular demonstration, that when the glutton is caught alive (which seldom happens) and is chained to a stone wall, his hunger does not decline the stones and mortar; but he'll eat himself into the wall. The best opportunity of catching him, is, when he, according to his custom if gorged, presses and squeezes himself between two trees which stand near together. By this practice, he eases and exonerates his stomach, which has not time to digest what he has so voraciously devoured." "Perhaps," says the worthy prelate in conclusion, "he is created for a moral picture, or an emblem of those people, of whom the Apostle says: 'That their belly is their God.'"

The accounts of Olaus Magnus, the Archbishop of Upsala, respecting the glutton are not less marvellous. He tells us that when this beast has feasted, his belly becomes distended like the skin of a drum; that when, by means of squeezing himself between two trees, he has relieved his stomach of its contents, he again returns to the carcase, and thus the process goes on so long as a particle of flesh remains; that people reposing under coverlids made of glutton skins are oppressed with fearful dreams — they are perishing of famine, as they conceive: but eat what they will, they are unable to satisfy the gnawings of hunger; that the claws of this beast, worn round the head, are a specific for the vertigo, or drumming in the ear; that blood mixed with warm water is a beverage for hunters; that blood with a

little honey is drunk at nuptial feasts; that the pigment is used in the shape of an ointment for malignant sores;—and finally, that the teeth form part of the conjuror's stock in trade.



THE GLUTTON, OR WOLVERINE.

In size and shape this animal somewhat resembles a long-bodied dog; his legs are short and thick, and his claws and teeth very sharp. To quote from my former work: "He measures near three feet in length, exclusive of the tail, which is about six inches; his height is from a foot to a foot and a half; his predominant colour is brown, but his back is marked by a black spot, or rather streak, extending somewhat down the sides, and terminating near the tail, of a beautiful glossy appearance, which is called in Sweden, the mirror. His legs are black. He retains his colour all the year round. His fur, which is not unlike

that of the bear, but finer, is valuable, and is converted to many purposes."

The glutton is not a gregarious animal. The male and female may be seen together, or the mother followed by her cubs; but otherwise one always finds him alone.

As respects Lapland, at least, the glutton would seem to be a wanderer, for we are told that he follows the rein-deer from the fjäll to the sea-side, and *vice-versá*. It may be so in that wild country, but from what I have seen of his habits in the Wermeland and Dalecarlian forests, I am inclined to think his usual beat, like that of the lynx, is somewhat circumscribed; for I have repeatedly known him to hold to the same line of country during the greater part of a winter.

Though not fleet of foot, the glutton is very agile, and like the lynx, can with the greatest ease scale precipitous and comparatively smooth rocks, and climb the branchless trunks of trees. The Rev. J. Borin, Rector of the parish of Öfver-Kalix, informs us, indeed, that in thick woods he may be seen, in the manner of the squirrel, to leap from one tree to the other.

M. Boström, when speaking of this animal, relates an anecdote of a Laplander, which, as showing the cunning of the man, is deserving of record. During his rambles through the forest, the Lapp discovered a glutton in a tree. Unfortunately, however, he had not wherewithal to destroy the beast; but to deter it from descending the tree, whilst he hasted home for his gun, he fixed an upright pole in the ground near to the tree, and with his Pels, or fur cloak, and cap, rigged out a counterpart of himself. This notable expedient perfectly succeeded—for on his return some time

afterwards, he found the glutton still in the tree, and presently made him his prize.

The glutton, like the lynx, subsists almost wholly on fresh meat, and for the most part on such animals as he himself has killed. He preys on birds and on almost every animal found in the northern forests, from the elk, or rather perhaps its fawn, down to the rat and the lemming; more especially on the poor hare, of which, to judge by the glutton's tracks in the snow, he seems to be eternally in pursuit. In the summer season he lives much on fish, which he captures with the skill of an experienced angler. Læstadius tells us, indeed, that on one occasion he saw four half-grown gluttons on a stone in the midst of a rapid occupied in fishing for grayling. At times, also, he devours amphibious animals; and we have accounts of his having been shot on the ice in the winter time in the Gulf of Bothnia, far away from the land, where, like the wolf, he had doubtless roamed in search of seals.

The glutton captures his prey in much the same way as the lynx. Like that beast, he crawls upon his belly until within so short a distance of his victim, that a few leaps will enable him to seize and pull it down. When the animal is large, however, he is said to climb a tree, or overhanging crag, and when it passes underneath, to pounce upon it. He is very destructive to the wild rein-deer, particularly in the winter; for when these animals are necessitated partially to bury their heads in the snow, for the purpose of getting access to lichens and other vegetable substances lying below, he is enabled to approach them with facility. "When once seized by the blood-thirsty beast, it is in vain that the wounded deer endeavours to

disengage itself from its enemy, by rushing amongst the surrounding trees; no force can oblige him to quit his hold: he maintains his position, and continues to suck the blood of the flying animal, till it falls down exhausted with pain and fatigue."

When the glutton has captured a larger animal, he, after satisfying the cravings of hunger, carefully hides away the residue of the carcass, in readiness for another feast. A thick brake, or the cleft of a rock, is his usual depository; and if the spot be at all exposed, he always covers the treasure with moss. At other times, according to the Rev. C. Grönlund, of Qvickjock, in Lapland, "he makes the upper part of a lofty tree, which is *qvistrik*, or well provided with branches, his store-house, so that the fox may not have access to the good things."

Though extraordinary gluttony is attributed to this animal, it seems doubtful if he actually eats more at one time than other beasts of prey of the same size. In proportion to his bulk, which does not exceed that of a moderately large dog, he is one of the most destructive animals in Scandinavia. "When he meets with a flock of sheep in a *Hage*, or wooded enclosure," M. Burman tells us, "he rarely leaves off slaughtering until the whole are killed, although he is unable to eat much of them; and seldom returns to the carcass. He always seeks for fresh victims." Like the lynx, the glutton gorges himself with the blood of the animal, before he devours any part of the flesh.

The glutton is doubly hated by the Laplander, as well from his depredations amongst the rein-deer, as from his plundering the *Stabur* (a small building, placed in the

manner of a dove-cot with us, on a single post at some six to eight feet from the ground), in which, when shifting his quarters, he deposits superfluous provisions, &c. For the beast finds his way even to this ingeniously-contrived larder, and gnawing a hole in the bottom of it, devours the contents.

What length of time the female carries her young, seems not very well ascertained; but it would appear by all accounts that she brings forth in April or May. Though Læstadius, as mentioned, speaks of four cubs, she has seldom, I believe, more than two or three at a birth.

The flesh of the glutton is said to be very palatable. The Lapps at least, after that the beast has fattened at their expense on the rein-deer, relish it exceedingly.

This animal would seem to be easily domesticated. M. Hedberg speaks of three that were captured young in the parish of Gellivaara, in Lapland. "They were allowed their full liberty," he informs us; "but in the autumn, the servant having forgotten to fasten the door of the building wherein the sheep were confined, the gluttons found their way into it, and killed several of the sheep." What became of the depredators does not appear; but the probability is that after this catastrophe, they themselves were shortly destroyed.

The capture of the glutton is effected in various ways in Scandinavia; though, from the comparative paucity of his numbers, and from his somewhat solitary habits, fewer devices are brought into play to insure his destruction, than is the case with the wolf, the fox, and other beasts of prey.

Some are killed in Skalls; but the number is inconsiderable, for the reason probably that when the beast

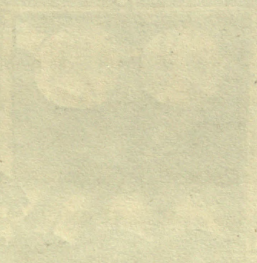
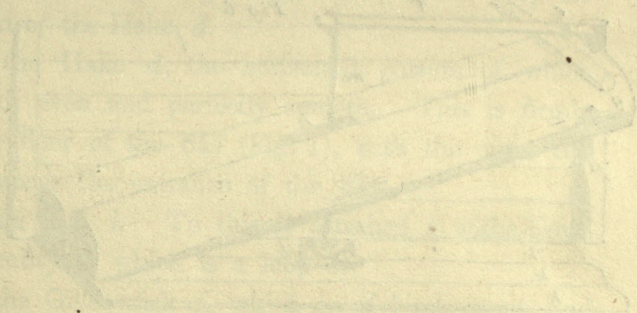
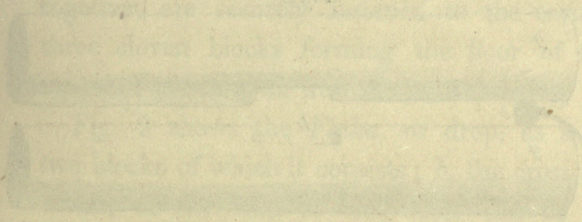
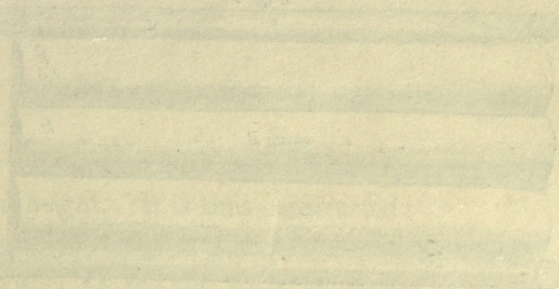
finds himself beset by enemies, he skulks in some hole or corner, and is thus passed by the people.

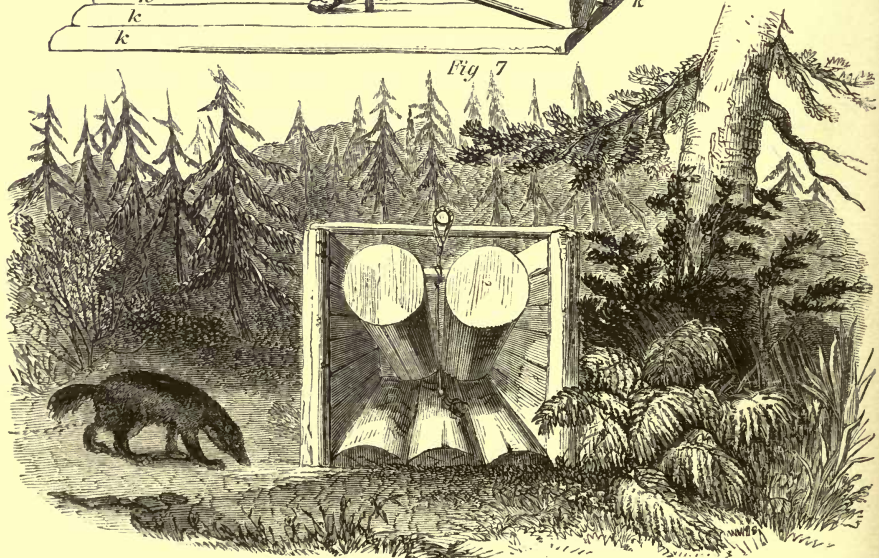
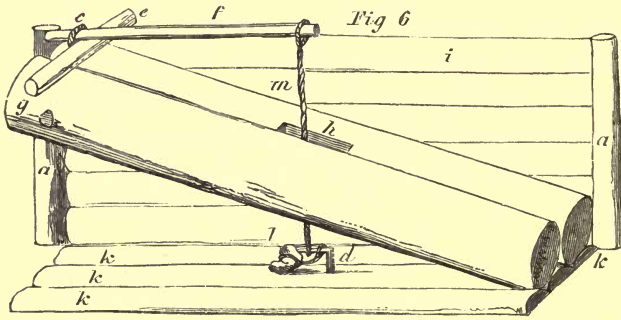
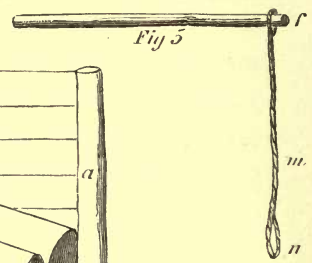
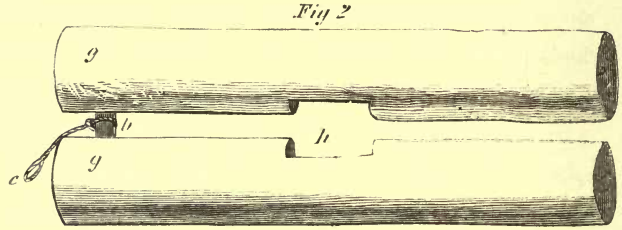
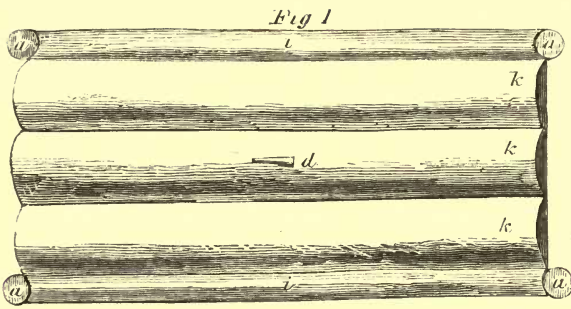
Others again are run down on Skidor, especially in Lapland, where, from the more open nature of the country, the task—provided the snow be in tolerable order—is by no means a difficult one. A good dog is of great service on these occasions; for, owing to the glutton not being fleet of foot, the dog is soon enabled to come up with him. When the beast finds himself hard pressed, he usually trees like a squirrel, or conceals himself in the crevice of a rock, where of course he is easily destroyed.

It may happen that the glutton is captured in a pit-fall, but not, I apprehend, very frequently; as well because the pit is usually situated immediately near to the homestead, as that, were he even to tumble into it, he from his climbing powers would in all likelihood be quickly enabled to extricate himself. The Count Corfitz Beckfriis tells us, indeed, that a glutton on one occasion intentionally descended a Varg-grop of his, for the purpose of preying on a wolf that a day or two previously had fallen into and perished in the pit; and after fearlessly gorging on the carcase, had ascended again without difficulty, in spite of scythes, &c., placed at the edge of the pit.

A good many gluttons are taken by the common steel-trap, more especially in Lapland. In that country, however, during the winter time at least, the trap is seldom baited, but merely concealed in tracks that the beast is in the habit of pursuing.

In the northern parts of Scandinavia, particularly in Lapland, the more general plan of capturing the glutton is in the so-called *Jerf-Bås*, which in form is rectangular, being





THE JERF-BÅS.

[To face page 27, VOL. II.]

about six feet in length, two feet and a half in breadth, and about the same in height. It is thus constructed :

Fig. 1 represents the ground plan of the Bås; *aaaa*, the four corner posts; *ii*, the side walls, consisting of small logs laid lengthwise on each other, which after being pinned together, are securely fastened to the corner posts; *kkk*, three cloven blocks forming the floor of the Bås, in the centre of which is an iron *Hake*, *d* (see Fig. 3).

Fig. 2 shows the *Flaka*, or drop, as a whole; *gg*, the two blocks of which it consists; *b*, the cross-piece connecting them; *c*, the loop at the outer end of the withe-band attached to *b*; *h*, an opening in the centre of the drop for the reception of the Hake, *d*.

Fig. 3, the Hake *d*, the horizontal portion of which is cylindrical, even and perfectly smooth. This is firmly fixed in the floor of the Bås (Fig. 1), with the outer end pointing towards the entrance of the Bås.

Fig. 4, the bait, *l*. To this is attached a withe-band, at the extremity of which is a loop *o*.

Fig. 5, the Giller-stick *f*, which is of birch, stout, and about three feet in length; as also the Giller-string *m*, at the outer end of which is the loop *n*.

Fig. 6, shows the interior profile of the Bås when gillrad; *kkk*, the floor; *aa*, the corner posts; *i*, the side wall; *g*, the drop; *f*, the Giller-stick, which, resting on a bar of wood, *e*, that is placed across both side walls, acts as a lever in raising the drop; *m*, the Giller-string, passing through the aperture *h*, in the middle of the drop; *d*, the Hake, as also the manner in which the Bås is gillrad.

Fig. 7, a front view of the Bås when set, as also the glutton when making his approaches.

Nothing can be more simple than this trap. The loop *o*; at the end of the withe-band attached to the bait *l* (Fig. 4), is first placed on the Hake *d* (Figs. 3 and 6); and outside of this again is the loop *n* at the extremity of the Giller-string, *m* (Fig. 5). When therefore the glutton tugs at the bait, it follows that both loops slip off the Hake, and the drop falling, destroys the beast.

FIG. 1.

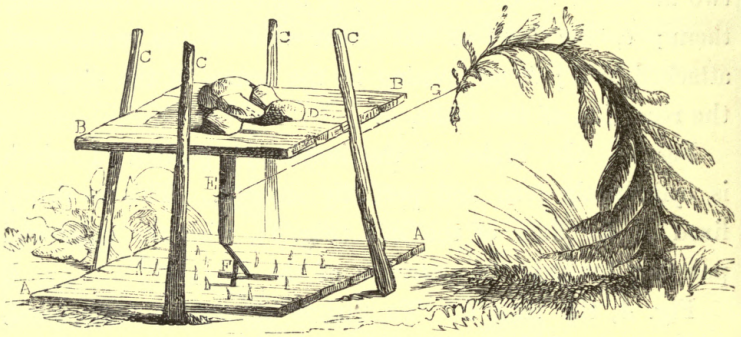
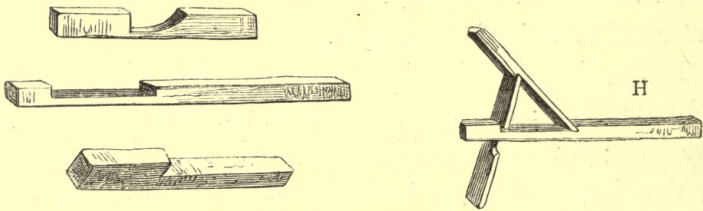


FIG. 2.



THE JERF-FÄLLA.

The *Jerf-Fälla*, or glutton-drop, as depicted above, is another device frequently and successfully had recourse to in

the more northern parts of Scandinavia for the destruction of the glutton. Its construction is as follows :

Fig. 1 represents the Fälla when gillrad ; A A, the *Botten*, or floor, which is about four feet square, and consists of square logs firmly joined together with wooden pins or nails. A number of spikes are inserted in this floor, the better to hold the captured beast ; but when the trap is set, these spikes, for their better concealment, are covered over with moss, &c. ; B B, the fall or drop, which is of the same materials, and similarly constructed as the floor, but somewhat smaller in size ; C C C C, four upright poles inclining somewhat inwardly, fixed in the ground at the sides of the floor, to prevent the drop from deviating in its descent ; D, several large stones placed on the drop that it may fall more rapidly and with more deadly effect ; E, a stout birch-stick about three feet in length, cut perfectly smooth at both ends, which supports the drop ; F, the gillring-apparatus, on which the lower end of the stick E rests ; G, is the line connecting the stick E with the top of a young and supple tree growing in the immediate vicinity, bowed towards the trap.

Fig. 2 represents the gillring-apparatus when put together, and near it the three separate pieces when detached. It is similar to the well known figure of 4, mouse-trap of gardeners, but on a larger scale.

The bait—generally a piece of meat—is fastened to the Giller-pin H, Fig. 2 ; and when this is moved from its place, the stick E, losing its support, is snatched away by the bent tree, and the loaded drop then falls with fearful violence on the unfortunate beast.

The Jerf-Fälla ought to be constructed on level ground, either within or immediately near to a wood ; and though

it is more especially intended for the glutton, it not unfrequently captures other animals—now and then indeed, even the bear. But from the great weight of stones placed on the drop, this sort of trap requires as well skill as caution in the setting.

Another kind of Jerf-Fälla, of a still more simple construction, and one in which foxes are frequently taken, is also common in the more northern parts of Scandinavia. It consists of a sort of trough, formed of boards or planks firmly put together. Within this again is a heavy block of wood, of just sufficient size to fill up the vacant space. This block is gillrad in the manner spoken of, and to an equal height with the sides of the trough. The glutton, as well as the fox, is said to crawl under the block without evincing any remarkable degree of caution; and when the Giller-pin, to which the bait is fastened, is disturbed, the heavy mass above falls and crushes the beast.

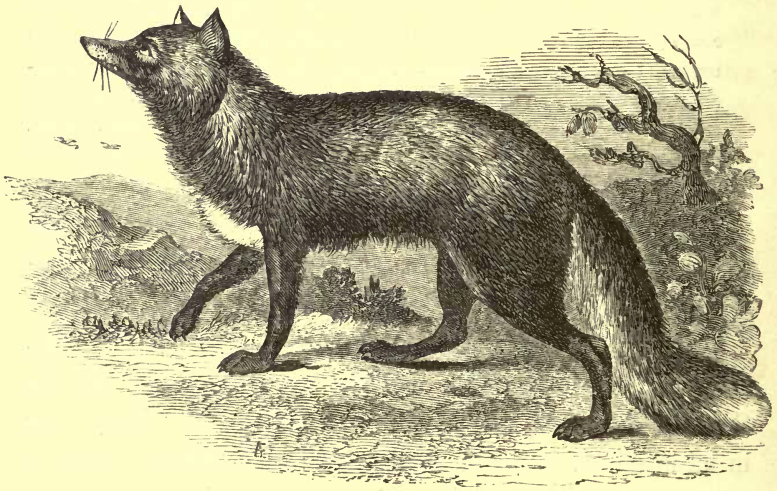
CHAPTER III.

THE FOX — CROSSED-FOX — FOX-COLONY — EXPERIMENTS — RESULTS — CROSS BETWEEN DOG AND FOX—CUBS REARED BY A CAT—MATERNAL TENDERNESS—COURAGE—CUNNING—HOW HE COUNTERFEITS DEATH—GETS RID OF FLEAS—OUSTS THE BADGER—CATCHES SEA FOWL—BEGUILES DUCKS—CHEATS THE FISHERMAN — CIRCUMVENTS RATS — LAUGHS AT THE SOW — FEEDS AT THE ENEMY'S EXPENSE — TAKES HIS REVENGE — TURNS PAINTER.

FOXES were common in my vicinity, as is also the case throughout the length and breadth of Scandinavia. Though it may sound strange to the ears of English sportsmen, I occasionally, when in pursuit of capercali, or black game, shot those animals; but it must be remembered that in Sweden the fox is only looked upon as vermin. They were in all instances of the common kind—the *Canis Vulpes* of Linnæus; for though the Arctic-fox (*Canis Lagopus*, Linn.), which so abounds in the more alpine regions of the peninsula, is occasionally met with in the very south of Sweden, he never came in my way.

On the authority of Nilsson, it was stated in my former work, that the black-fox—the *Renard noir* of Cuvier, and

Canis nigro-argenteus of Nilsson—was indigenous to Scandinavia; as also that the so-called *Kors-rüf*, or crossed-(barred) fox (which he introduced into the Northern Fauna under the designation of *Canis Vulpes var. crucigera*, Nilss.), was, as I understood, a permanent variety of the common-fox. But the Professor, in the last edition of his valuable work, now tells us, he has arrived at the conclusion that the black-fox, as a species, does not exist in the peninsula; as also that both the black-fox and the crossed-fox are merely *accidental* varieties of the common-fox.



THE CROSSED-FOX.

Throughout the whole length of the back of this animal, as above represented, runs a black streak, which is inter-

sected by another line of the same colour, and after crossing the shoulders, extends down the fore-legs. This fox is, besides, distinguished from the common-fox by larger proportions of body, greater breadth of skull, larger eyes, thicker legs, and a more bushy tail. It is also said to be of a more courageous disposition.*

Though Nilsson has quite satisfied himself that the black-fox—that found in Scandinavia, I mean—and the crossed-fox, are mere accidental varieties of the common-fox, there are those in Sweden, nevertheless, who lean to an opposite opinion, and contend, with some show of reason, that not only does the black-fox exist in the peninsula as a species; but that the crossed-fox, if not also a species, is a hybrid between the black-fox and the common-fox.

Not very many years ago, indeed, several lovers of natural history were at the trouble of trying some experiments to elucidate this matter, the results of which, though not decisive of the question, are still curious enough in their way. To carry out their projects, a so-called *Räf-koloni*, or fox-colony, was established at Stenbrottet, near to Stockholm. It consisted of an enclosure, surrounded by palisades, or rather planks, some fifteen feet in height, and

* "In a pit-fall at this place," writes M. Sköldberg from Svartå Bruk, "amongst the great numbers of foxes that have been captured, were two of the crossed species, of which the one was taken during the past winter, and the other the preceding autumn; and it has been remarked that in both instances they not only carried the duck that served as decoy along with them in their descent, but eat it up afterwards, which is not customary with the common red-fox. The latter, indeed, when the duck falls into the pit with him—which, however, does not happen once in twenty times—and that he finds himself prisoner, always allows her to remain untouched. The conclusion to be drawn from this is, that the crossed-fox is of a more courageous disposition than the red-fox.

provided with suitable sheds, where every care was taken of the animals, and their proceedings very closely watched. But M. Björkman, one of the parties interested in the experiment, shall tell the story in his own words.

“In November, 1827,” says that gentleman, “we purchased a brace—male and female—of crossed-foxes. At the end of the following February (1828), pairing took place; and at the beginning of May (nine weeks, as it would appear, having been the period of gestation) three young ones were produced. They were at first blind, and of a blackish-blue colour, which, after the lapse of three weeks, gradually changed in two of them to the colour of the common-fox, and in the third to that of the crossed-fox. The red young ones retained, nevertheless, the peculiarities of the crossed-fox—namely, larger proportions of body, greater breadth of forehead, larger eyes, thicker legs, and a more bushy tail. One of the red, and also one of the crossed-foxes, were, at a subsequent period, sold to the National Museum at Stockholm, where they are still preserved.

“During the year 1829, a red dog-fox, and four bitches were procured and turned into the enclosure, along with the two original crossed-foxes. But although pairing was observed to take place, we did not obtain a single young one that summer; and for the reason, as it was believed, that when the females littered, they had immediately devoured each other’s cubs. Owing to this misadventure, all the red foxes were at once banished the colony.

“In 1830 the two old crossed-foxes produced three cubs (besides one or two others that the male, who was present at the birth, was known to have devoured), all of which

were males, and closely resembled in colour and shape their parents.

“In 1831 the same pair of old crossed-foxes had a litter of four; the dog-fox, as on the preceding year, in spite of the efforts of the bitch to save them, having devoured others. Two of the survivors—both males—exactly resembled the father; but the remaining two—a male and female—with the exception of the tip of each hair all over the body being of a silvery white, were black.

“In 1832, this pair of black-foxes, which were of somewhat smaller size, and of quieter habits than the crossed-foxes, were placed by themselves in a part of the enclosure specially prepared for their accommodation, with the object of ascertaining what their produce might turn out. But owing to an accident, the female escaped and was killed—so that the speculation proved a failure.

“In this same year (1832), the old pair of crossed-foxes produced five cubs, one of which, however, died. Two of the remainder—both males—resembled the parents; but the other two—male and female—were black. In this instance, the female was larger and more handsome than the male.

“At the commencement of the year 1833, the colony consisted of two pair of foxes—namely, the pair of old crossed-foxes, then in their seventh year, and a pair of black-foxes, the male in his third year, and the female in her first. In the middle of January, and consequently before the commencement of the pairing season, the crossed-pair were separated from the black-pair, that the breed might not be mixed. On the 16th of the following April, the pair of crossed-foxes produced five young ones, of which number four—one male and three females—were black; but the fifth was crucigerous.

“Two days subsequently, the young black female littered six cubs, all of which were black. On comparing the black cubs of the two litters together, those of the black female seemed to be somewhat darker than the others.”

Everything now bid fair to solve the question, as to whether the black and the barred-fox were accidental varieties of the common-fox, or whether they were of a separate species. Unfortunately, however, the hopes of those interested in the subject were doomed to be disappointed; for by a tissue of misfortunes, arising from natural and accidental causes, nearly all the foxes perished within a very short period; which circumstance threw such a damp on the spirits of the proprietors of the fox-colony, that further experiments were not, I believe, prosecuted.

Some remarks of General G. A. Hjerta, bearing on this subject, are deserving of notice. After speaking of a black-fox, caught by the late Governor Knut von Troil, in the autumn of 1801, the gallant officer tells us: “What renders the circumstance remarkable is, that although during preceding years, and even in 1802, barred-foxes had been frequently captured thereabouts, yet after that period not a single one had been seen. Hence it was concluded, and with reason, that since the old black dog-fox was killed, the race of barred-foxes had become extinct.”

What conclusion the reader may draw from the experiments carried on at the Räf-koloni, and the observations of General Hjerta, I cannot with certainty predict; but to my notions, so far from gainsaying the existence of the black or the crossed-fox (or rather the former perhaps), as a separate species, they tend to confirm the contrary hypothesis. Otherwise, why should a single pair of crossed-

foxes, captured casually, produce, in the course of three or four years, some twenty cubs, all of which, with two exceptions (and even these differing in size and conformation of body from the common-fox), were either black or crucigerous?—So large a proportion must surely tell against Nilsson's present theory (partly founded, it would seem, on the experiments in question) as to the black and the crossed-fox being mere accidental varieties of the common-fox. And again—why is it that in England, where the common-fox abounds, we never hear of his colour and form varying in any material degree?

Taking the facts together, therefore, it seems to me far from improbable that either in the shape of a black, or possibly a crossed-fox, a species separate from the red, or common-fox, really does exist in Scandinavia.

The reader will excuse some little prolixity on this subject, because it is one that cannot but interest the naturalist, and I should think the sportsman also; for if it really turn out that the crossed-fox is a separate species, it might be expedient to introduce him into England; as from the superior size and courage attributed to him, he might be fairly expected to improve the breed of our foxes, and consequently to enhance the pleasures of our great national pastime, fox-hunting.

But whether the black-fox, or the crossed-fox, be merely accidental varieties of the common-fox, or that they constitute separate species, the habits of all three are in the main alike; and the few observations I am about to make apply with equal force, as well to the one as to the other.

A cross between the dog and the fox is not uncommon in Sweden. "In the year 1816," M. Bedoire tells us for

instance, "I captured several young foxes, but only retained a single male alive, which was chained up, not only until full-grown, but for a whole year afterwards. At this period I had a pointer-bitch, which kept much in company with the fox, and at length paired with him. In process of time she brought forth several puppies, and amongst them one that greatly resembled its father, more especially as regarded the tail, which was nearly straight and very bushy. This I kept until more than a year old, during which I remarked that he very seldom barked, and that when he did so his bark was unlike that of a common dog. That he might in time have become a good sporting dog, I think very probable; but as he was exceedingly addicted to worrying sheep and poultry, I was obliged to destroy him."

Instances are on record with us in England, I believe, of fox-cubs having been brought up by bitches. But I do not remember hearing of the house cat having acted the part of a wet-nurse towards them, as has been the case in Sweden.

"During the month of May, 1830," says the Chamberlain, O. Nordenfeldt, "a fox was found to have littered under a barn, at some distance from the mansion. The discovery was made in consequence of a bitch-fox being seen about noon to chase a cat into a tree, from which, after having been besieged for some time, she fell from fright, and retreated under the building in question. Michel followed close at her heels: and a report having been made of the circumstance, all the outlets about the barn were closed, the door opened, and the fox (which was at once killed) was found within it as well as the cat. Farther search was now made, and under the floor, composed of loose boards, four small, dark, ash-grey coloured and blind cubs were disco-

vered ; and as they did not see until eleven days subsequently, they were without doubt only recently born.

“ For the first day they were fed on milk, which they sucked through a nipple-shaped piece of leather attached to a bottle. But as immediately afterwards a cat happened to breed, the kittens were taken from her, and the fox-cubs put in their place. She appeared to receive the little strangers exceedingly well, licked and fondled them, and brought them up as her own. Two of them died between the tenth and fifteenth day, but the remaining two grew rapidly, and continued healthy and lively.

“ When pretty large, and chained to a kennel, the foster-mother still persevered in her attentions—and such continued until the month of August, when one day the cat by accident got entangled in their chain. This annoying them, they forthwith attacked her with such ferocity, that it was with difficulty a person who was present succeeded in rescuing her, though severely wounded, from the thankless teeth and claws of her adopted brood. At a subsequent period, one of the cubs contrived to make its escape.”

But the sequel of the story is the most curious part of the affair ; for writing at an after-period, M. Nordenfeldt says : “ During a walk in the month of last July (1832), immediately near to the house, I observed an unusual motion in a field of standing rye, and presently to my astonishment a fox, closely followed by the cat in question, made its appearance. I afterwards learnt that the cat had for some time past been in the habit of absenting herself from home during the greater part of the day ; and that on one occasion she had returned from the forest badly wounded. Thus it would appear, that though she had been ill repaid for all her

tenderness, the old attachment between her and the fox her nursling, had been renewed.”

Many interesting stories are told in Sweden of the love the fox bears to her offspring, of which the following are perhaps not the least curious :

“ On the estate of Gunnerstorp in Scania,” writes the Count Corfitz Beckfriis, “ a bitch-fox was discovered with her cubs. The mother gallantly defended them ; and although the cubs were lying almost at the feet of the by-standers, they had a great difficulty in preventing her from carrying them away. In the meanwhile a servant ran home for a gun ; and after his return, several blows of a stick, and finally a shot, which took effect in her hind-quarters, did not deter her from bearing one of the cubs several fathoms from the spot.”

Again : “ Several years ago,” says M. Sköldberg, “ the late Länsmän,* M. Drougge, who resided in the parish of Knista, province of Nerike, set off one spring morning to a *Ting*, or court of assize. He had proceeded but a little distance from home, when he discovered a bitch-fox in the dike by the road-side, with a whole flock of goslings—the Länsmän’s own property, which she had just slaughtered. Our traveller, who had nearly passed the fox unobserved, no sooner caught sight of her, than armed with his whip, he jumped out of the vehicle and sprang to the spot. But Michel waited not his arrival ; for seizing one of the goslings in her mouth, she ran at speed across the fields towards her home. The Länsmän, who would gladly have been both

* A subordinate official ; his duties embracing those of constable, sheriff’s officer, and tax-collector in rural districts, where he is, in short, the acting authority.

judge and executioner in this felonious affair, was necessitated to be a passive spectator of her flight; but he forgot not, nevertheless, to send maledictions by the score after the thief, and to vow within himself that at the first leisure moment she should, for her misdeed, receive a visit from him in her own abode.

“When the Ting was over, he, accompanied by several individuals, set forth to seek out her *Kula*—answering to our ‘earth.’ This was soon discovered; but owing to its depth, and the intricacy of the passage, all endeavours to get at the cubs proved fruitless. Whilst the excavation was going on, the mother kept moving backwards and forwards at a little distance, and the ears of the party received unmistakable evidence of her musical talents. But night at length set in, and for a time their labours were brought to a conclusion. The Länsmän, however, who was something of a sportsman, thinking that the mother, when all was quiet, would return to see after her offspring, posted himself as sentinel near to the *Kula*, hoping thereby to shoot her. But she was too cunning for him, and after several hours he was obliged to return home empty-handed.

“Some days afterwards the *Kula* was re-visited, when it was found deserted; but on search being made in the vicinity a new one was discovered, and five living cubs captured. These were carried to the Länsmän’s residence, where they were deposited in an old hen-house, from whence, however, the mother all but released them during the succeeding night; for in the morning the building was found undermined, and the half-rotten floor nearly bitten through.

“The cubs were now removed to an unoccupied room in the dwelling-house itself; and, even here, by burrowing under the foundations of the building—as she was discovered to be

doing during the two following nights—her attempts to free the prisoners were renewed.

“ But the matter did not rest here ; for one night shortly afterwards a continuous noise, as of some one scraping, was heard in the *Vind*,* where in consequence the Länsmän proceeded to ascertain the cause of the disturbance. On his way up the stairs, he was startled by an animal resembling a dog rushing hastily past his legs, to which circumstance he at the time paid little attention ; but as when he reached the *Vind* he found everything quiet, he returned to his bed again. On the following morning, however, it was discovered that Michel had been the cause of the uproar ; for with the intention of getting access to her cubs, she had been endeavouring to make an aperture in the chimney ; and it then became perfectly clear that it was the fox herself, which in her hurry to escape, had nearly upset the Länsmän whilst mounting the steps the night before. The room below, in which the cubs were confined, was now examined, but they were nowhere to be seen. At length, however, their cries were heard in the flue of the stove itself—the whole of which structure it was necessary to take down before they could be extricated.”

The fox is possessed of great passive courage, as is evidenced from his always meeting death without uttering even a groan. By the following anecdote, it would, indeed, seem that occasionally this animal becomes the attacking party.

“ At the end of last November,” writes M. Wennerström, “ I killed a female crossed-fox. When the shot was fired, which took effect in her hind-quarters, and broke the left

* The upper or attic-floor of a dwelling-house. At times there may be a small chamber at one or both extremities ; but more generally it is quite open in the manner of a hay-loft, and is used for stowing away lumber, drying clothes, &c.

thigh bone, she made for a thick alder-carr near at hand, where the dogs soon came up with her. The first one that attacked her, she bit so severely, that he ran off yelping without daring to go near her again. The other, however, grappled with her in good earnest, and their jaws became locked together in such a manner that they could not separate. The plaintive cries of the dogs having informed me where they were rolling over one another, I hastened to the spot, and struck the fox several times over the head with my gun-stock, to make her quit her hold, which had at length the desired effect. In the hurry, I tripped against a *Tufva*, or hillock, in the deep morass, and fell to the ground, and at the same moment the beast attacked me; but as I fortunately had the gun in my right hand, I immediately drove the stock between her jaws, and thus kept her so far away from my body, that I was enabled to seize her by the throat with my left hand, and thus to suffocate her. This shows of what daring a wounded fox is capable—of carrying it so far, indeed, as to venture to attack the sportsman himself. Before I fired, the dogs had driven her for about two hours in the morning, in which while she had several times attempted to make resistance. She was the largest fox I ever saw, measuring from the point of the nose to the tip of the tail, three feet eleven inches, and weighing fully seventeen pounds.

The fox is cunning to a proverb; but if we are to believe a hundredth part of the stories told of him in Scandinavia, not only by ancient, but modern authors, he must be possessed of almost human intellect.

Olaus Magnus tells us, for instance, that to obtain access to the honey of the wild or the bumble-bee, as also to

the young of the wasp, Michel makes apertures in their nests, into which he introduces his long, hairy tail; and when this is fully covered with the angry insects, he runs with all speed to the nearest tree or bush, against which he strikes it violently, for the purpose of destroying them; or, if there be water in the neighbourhood, he casts himself therein, and thus drowns his troublesome followers;—that when he has not wherewithal to satisfy his hunger, he, after rolling himself in red earth, thereby to acquire a bloody appearance, stretches himself out at length, distends his tongue, and holds his breath, that magpies, and other birds of prey, fancying him to be dead, may approach the supposed carrion; but as soon as they are sufficiently near, he seizes and devours them;—that when caught in a steel-trap, and unable to effect his escape by gnawing off his leg, he counterfeits death, so that when released from his fetters by the hunter, he may take to flight;—that when hungry, he plays, so to speak, with the hare, until such time as he has lured her within his reach, when he pounces upon and devours her;—that when pressed by dogs, he often escapes by imitating their bark, as also by suspending himself to the branch of a tree;—that at other times when, during the chase, he meets with a flock of sheep or goats, he jumps on to the back of one of the number, and allows himself to be carried off by the poor animal, which, frightened at the unusual burthen, exerts its utmost speed; and owing to the other goats following in the track of their companion, the sportsman, fearing that the flock should be scared out of their wits and injure themselves, is compelled to call off the dogs;—that when he wishes to feast on a hedgehog, for which animal he has a great liking, but which, when rolled

up into a ball—its formidable prickles protruding on every side—he would otherwise be unable to molest, he, with his fore-feet, turns the victim on its back, and then inundates its eyes and nose with urine; the pungent nature of this soon causes the poor creature to unroll, and it thus falls an easy prey to its wily enemy.

The body of the fox—according to the same authority—is possessed of healing virtues. People who are afflicted with the gout, are cured, we are told, by tying a piece of fox-skin about their legs. The fat is beneficial to those who suffer from rheumatism in the ears and limbs. The pigment is good for the gripes, and all other complaints; and if the brains are frequently administered to an infant, it will afterwards walk firm on its legs.

Pontoppidan has also some marvellous stories about the fox. “When he wants to get rid of fleas without trouble,” so the worthy Bishop tells us, “he takes a bunch of moss or straw in his mouth, and goes backwards into the water, wading by slow steps deeper and deeper, by which means the fleas have time to retire gradually to the dry places, and finally to the part of the neck and head which he alone keeps above water; and to crown the work, he gathers all his enemies into the aforesaid bunch of straw, and then drops them in the water, and runs away well washed and cleaned. This project is so cunning, that mankind could not teach him better.

“The long bushy tail, with which nature has not supplied him in vain, he uses in Norway, amongst other purposes, to catch crabs and crayfish. They are fond of anything hairy, and generally will lay hold of it, by which means he draws them ashore.

“When he observes the otter fishing, he hides himself behind a stone, and when the otter lands to eat his prey, he comes upon him by a quick and high leap, that the otter, who otherwise fears not the fox, is startled, and leaves him the booty.

“A certain person was surprised on seeing a fox near to a fisherman’s house, laying a parcel of cods’ heads all in a row, and could not conceive what he was going to do, till he saw that he hid himself behind the embankment, and made a prize of the first crow that came for a bit of them.

“When a she-fox is pursued by dogs,” the prelate informs us in conclusion, “and that they come pretty near her, she deluges her tail with urine, and whisks it in their eyes, which makes them smart, and then she escapes.”

We are also told, that “the fox often converts the badger’s den into a habitation for himself; but as he is unable to take possession of this by force, he resorts to stratagem to effect his purpose. When the badger is absent, he repairs to his quarters, where he commits all sorts of dirty practices. These he repeats at intervals, until the olfactory nerves of the poor badger can stand it no longer, and as a consequence he is obliged to seek another abode.”

And farther, that “in the vicinity of the North Cape, where the precipices are almost entirely covered with sea-fowl, the foxes proceed on their predatory expeditions in company. Previous to the commencement of their operations, they hold a sort of mock-fight upon the rocks, in order to try their relative strength. When this has been fairly ascertained, they advance to the brink of the precipice, and taking each other by the tail, the weakest descends first, whilst the strongest, forming the uppermost and last in the row, suspends the

whole number, till the foremost has reached their prey. A signal is then given, on which the uppermost fox pulls with all his might, and the rest assist him as well as they can with their feet against the rocks. In this manner they proceed from rock to rock, until they have provided themselves with a sufficient supply."

Foxes, especially those near to the coast, prey, as is known, much on water-fowl, in approaching which their movements are stealthy and cunning in the extreme. It is asserted, for instance, by fishermen and others, who have ample opportunities of watching their manœuvres, that whilst wading in shallows towards the fowl, Michel is careful when lifting his paws above the surface, to *lick them dry* before re-immersion, in order that the quarry may not be disturbed by the noise of the water dripping from them.

In England we occasionally hear of Reynard, when hard pressed, taking shelter in ivy-covered walls, or it may be in pollard-oaks. But in Sweden there are instances on record, as mentioned in "Northern Sports," of his fleeing for safety to the upper branches of lofty trees. To some this may seem fabulous, but the fact is perfectly well attested.

"When the weather is severe," Olaus Magnus tells us, "and that the fox, famishing of hunger, comes near to dwelling-houses, he imitates the bark of the dog, that domestic animals may be induced to approach him with the more confidence." This story, incredible as it may appear, would almost seem to have some foundation.

"During the past autumn," says M. Ekström, "a son of mine proceeded one evening at sunset to shoot ducks in a small lake nearly overgrown with rushes. But he had not yet reached the water, when he heard the fowl quacking and

flapping their wings, thereby evidencing the presence of some intruder. When, however, with the intention of getting a shot, he had cautiously advanced near to the spot where the turmoil was going on, not a bird was to be seen, they being all concealed in the long grass. But in lieu of ducks he discovered a fox, the cause of the disturbance, wading through the rushes, and now and then making a spring at such ducklings as came near to him. He, however, often remained motionless, as if listening, and when all was quiet, he would utter a hoarse cry, which in great degree resembled that of the old duck, when she calls together the brood. And in this way it was not long before Michel succeeded in enticing towards him, and capturing a duckling. With the prize in his mouth, he was approaching the strand, when the young sportsman, not having patience to watch the fox's farther proceedings, levelled his gun and shot him dead on the spot. And thus the cunning rogue, with the loss of his life, paid the penalty of his ruse. The fox proved to be a very old male, which, either in combat with his fellows or during some one of his marauding expeditions, had lost his right eye."

"When a youth," M. Ekström informs us, "I myself was once an eye-witness to the cunning of the fox.

"In an inlet of a lake, covered for the most part with high reeds, there were several small openings called *Flukor*—free from grass. In these, which were frequented by great quantities of small fish, the peasants from the neighbouring village were accustomed to lay out nets; and as from the confined space it was not practicable to use even an Ekstock, or punt, one end of the net was always fastened to the shore. During the summer time I myself was almost every

evening in the habit of resorting to this piece of water, for the purpose of shooting the young ducks, which towards dark left the shelter of the high reeds, and repaired to the Flukor to feed. But in the first instance, I always repaired to a neighbouring eminence, which overlooked the water, to ascertain the whereabouts of the birds.

One evening, just before sun-set, when, according to custom, I had stationed myself behind a thick juniper bush, at my observatory, I saw a fox squatted near to the edge of one of the Flukor, having before him nearly the half of a net, which had been drawn thus far out of the water, and from which he was plucking several small fish. At first I supposed the peasant who owned the net had himself so placed it to dry, and therefore paid little attention to the matter. But having from necessity become a passive spectator to his movements (the spot being much exposed preventing me from approaching within gun-shot) I had soon cause to alter my views on this point. For when all the fish in that portion of the net that was on shore were devoured, I saw Michel, to my no small wonderment, act the part of fisherman himself. Seizing the cork-line between his teeth, and rearing himself upon his hind-legs, he retreated backwards, and thus actually succeeded in drawing the residue of the net partially to the strand. When, however, the cunning fellow observed any fish entangled in the meshes, he would drop the line, and at once pounce upon his prey.

Astounded at what I had seen, I now made the best of my way to the village, which was close at hand, for the purpose of procuring a person to scare the fox from the spot, and to drive him towards the point where I purposed placing myself in ambush. Luckily I met with the chief

inhabitant of the place—the *Härads-domare**—and informed him that he had a *Fisk-tjuf*, or fish-thief, who plundered his nets. On hearing this, the old man immediately cast away his axe, armed himself with a stout stick, and requested me, as being the more fleet of foot, to assist him in securing the culprit. We cautiously proceeded together to the juniper bush from whence I had just seen Michel. The Domare, who beyond doubt cogitated as to the § of the Missgernings Balken (Criminal Code), on the strength of which he should summon the trespasser, was not a little disconcerted when he got sight of the thief in person. But he presently burst out into so loud a laugh, that Michel took the alarm, and ran off at full speed for the nearest wood, where he, in his turn, might laugh equally loud, as well at the student's gun, as the Domare's law-book.

Dr. Levin, of Säther in Dalecarlia, was also an eye-witness to the way in which the fox, when sharp set, procures a dinner.

“In January of this year,” says that gentleman, “I saw a ridiculous proof of the cunning and calculating powers of Michel. When on a journey, I observed at about one hundred and fifty paces' distance, in an open and extensive field, a large fox, standing with his nose inclined downwards, and evidently speculating on something beneath the snow.

* *Härad* signifies a rural district, *Domare* a judge. *Härads-domare* is a designation applied to the eldest of the twelve men who in criminal, as well as civil cases, form a sort of jury. Unless, however, they are *unanimously* opposed to the opinion of the judge—a circumstance of exceedingly rare occurrence—they have not the power of pronouncing a verdict. Speaking generally, therefore, these men rather act as counsellors to the judge than as jurors. A jury, in the English sense of the word, is only empannelled in political cases, or in those for written libel.

I stopped the vehicle, and having my rifle, I put it in order, and made an effort to get within shot of him ; but from the great depth of the snow, I was soon obliged to give up the attempt. Whilst pondering whether I should fire at so great a distance or not, I observed my wily friend suddenly to leap six or eight feet nearly perpendicularly into the air, and come down, head foremost, with such force that he was buried up to the shoulders. Whilst performing this feat, his tail and hind-legs dangling, he presented so extraordinary an appearance, that I could not refrain from laughing. The cause of this singular manœuvre, is hard to say ; but the probability is, that he either heard or scented some living animal, such as partridges, or rats, beneath the snow, which he cunningly calculated might be captured by a *coup de surprise* ; whereas, if attempted to be got at by the slower process of burrowing, it would probably in the meanwhile make its escape. But whether he succeeded in getting hold of anything on this particular occasion, I could not observe, owing to the distance."

"A certain Jägare," we are again told, "who was one morning keeping watch in the forest, saw a fox cautiously making his approach towards the stump of an old tree. When sufficiently near he took a high and determined jump on to the top of it, and after looking around a while, hopped to the ground again. After Reynard had repeated this knightly exercise several times he went his way ; but presently he returned to the spot bearing a pretty large and heavy piece of dry oak in his mouth ; and thus burthened, and as it would seem for the purpose of testing his vaulting powers, he renewed his leaps on to the stump. After a time, however, and when he found that, weighted as he was, he could make the ascent with facility, he desisted from further efforts, dropped the

piece of wood from his mouth, and coiling himself upon the top of the stump, remained motionless as if dead.

“At the approach of evening, an old sow and her progeny, five or six in number, issued from a neighbouring thicket, and pursuing their usual track, passed near to the stump in question. Two of her sucklings followed somewhat behind the rest, and just as they neared his ambush, Michel, with the rapidity of thought, darted down from his perch upon one of them, and in the twinkling of an eye bore it in triumph on to the fastness he had so providently prepared beforehand.

“Confounded at the shrieks of her offspring, the old sow returned in fury to the spot, and until late in the night made repeated desperate attempts to storm the murderer’s stronghold; but the fox took the matter very coolly, and devoured the pig under the very nose of its mother, who at length with the greatest reluctance, and without being able to revenge herself on her crafty adversary, was forced to beat a retreat.”

The notion is very generally entertained, in Sweden, that the fox seldom commits serious depredations in the vicinity of his breeding-place; arguing, it is presumed, that were he to thief at home, the hue and cry would sooner be raised against him. It is moreover said, that he often makes a distinction between the property of the owner of the soil where his earth is situated, and that of others.

“For a long period,” says Ekström, “a brace of foxes annually bred in a little wooded knoll near to where I was born; and although my father was a very keen sportsman, he never molested them in any way, nor would he permit me to injure them. The consequence was, that during a space of twenty years not a single head of poultry was car-

ried off by them from our property. They were, moreover, not unfrequently seen to capture young wild ducks in the same little river daily resorted to by our geese and ducks, which they never harmed in any way."

"A bitch-fox," Ekström tells us again, "had littered in a Hage, nearly midway between two villages, about a mile apart. When the cubs began to require food, the old fox never touched any animal belonging to the proprietors of the Hage in which they had pitched their tent, but they plundered the other village, not only of all the poultry, but when these failed, of sucking pigs and lambs also. Now, although Michel had certainly not sufficiently studied the map of the country as to know on whose ground he had taken up his abode, it is nevertheless very remarkable that he would at all times be satisfied with lean lamb, &c., if provided at the cost of the enemy; although fat geese and other delicacies, had he so willed it, were always readily obtainable in the village of his friends."

"In another instance, where two large estates were managed by the same Inspector, who was also a sportsman," Ekström goes on to say, "a fox had littered in a sand-hill. This gentleman, during his daily rounds, had not unfrequently observed her; but for a while he would not have her disturbed, as well because she never in any manner molested the numerous turkeys, geese, &c., that daily fed in the vicinity of her abode, as that her cubs were as yet too small to be of any use. At last, however, the time arrived that Michel's skin should be made to pay for his quarters, and a Chasse was in consequence got up; but it proved a failure, and she went off entirely unscathed.

"The next day some people were set to work to dig out

her earth, when two of the cubs were killed, and a third captured alive. This the Inspector carried home, and in the evening secured him with a chain to a tree, immediately in front of, and near to his own bed-room window.

“On the following morning, at an early hour, a person was directed to ascertain how Michel fared. He was found to be not only alive and well, but the strange apparition of a headless turkey was observed lying beside him. The girl who had care of the poultry was forthwith summoned to the presence, and on being questioned, confessed, with tears in her eyes, that having been at the ‘digging out,’ on the preceding day, she, on her return home, had neglected to secure her charge; and the consequence was somewhat serious, for on search being made, thirteen other turkeys, concealed some in one place and some in another, were found to have paid the penalty of their lives. They had beyond doubt been killed by the mother of the cubs, and as it would really appear, out of *revenge* for the destruction of her offspring; for prior to this period neither the turkeys, nor other of the poultry, had been in any way molested during that particular summer.”

If the following story is to be believed, sudden fright would seem to act as a drastic dose as well on foxes as on bipeds.

“In a small town, where the police were not very rigid, and the fowls were allowed to walk about the streets undisturbed, it happened during the past summer that one or more of these feathered beauties daily disappeared. The virtuous wives of the burghers waited unavailingly the return of their favourites; but these not making their appearance, a strict eye was kept on the remainder of the hens, and it was soon discovered that a

fox was the depredator—that he collected them together, not to adorn his seraglio, but for his larder. As legal proceedings in this case could not be resorted to, the owners of the fowls addressed themselves to the Jägare of the place, with the prayer that the detected thief might for his misdeeds be made to pay the forfeit of his life; and in consequence of their pressing solicitations, a mechanic, thinking thereby to win the favour of all the old ladies, as also that his Monday's holiday could not be better employed, volunteered to act as executioner.

“With this motive he put his gun in order, and betook himself to the spot where the fox was wont to pass. Here he concealed himself in some long grass at the back of a high Gärdesgård, and in anxious expectation awaited the animal's appearance. Unluckily, however, it so happened that the watcher himself presently fell into a profound slumber. The fox, on the contrary, who, except on befitting occasions, is seldom found napping, meanwhile pursued his usual track to the town; but when, with the intention of crossing the fence in question, he had leapt on to the top of it, and beheld his sleeping enemy, he was obliged to take a terrific spring, in order to clear the body of the man. This violent exertion, coupled with panic, was attended with disastrous consequences to the unfortunate Jägare; for, whilst Michel was vaulting through space, he discharged such a volley of disagreeable matter full into the face of our friend, as not alone to rouse, but so to blind and bewilder him, that he was unable to fire at the retreating foe. And it moreover compelled him to return home forthwith, to perform the needful ablutions—the laughing-stock of everybody.”

CHAPTER IV.

DEVICES FOR CAPTURING THE FOX—HUNTING—VIPP-SNARA—STEEL-TRAP—
UNGUENTS—RÄF-LÄMM—RÄF-KROK—SHOOTING FÖR LOCK—TANA—THE
JUDGE IN A FIX—TRANSFERRED FROM THE BENCH TO THE DOCK.

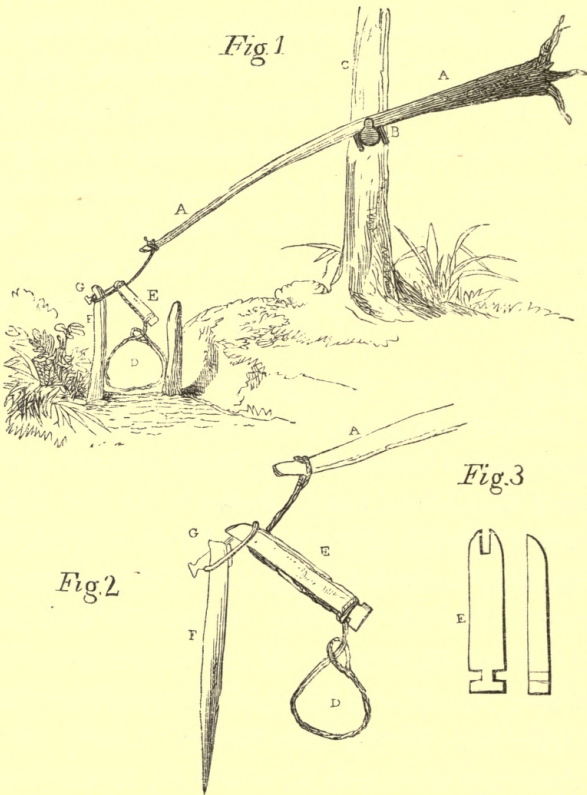
FOXES, from their numbers, are very destructive in Scandinavia, and many kinds of devices are in consequence employed to destroy them. They are the more sought after from their skins being now somewhat valuable, more so indeed than those of the wolf; for when the animal is full grown, they fetch from eight to ten shillings each. The chief market is Russia, where, for the use of the military, they are much in demand.

Some foxes are killed in Skalls; but probably because those animals hide themselves in the clefts of rocks, or other inaccessible places, the number captured by this means is not very considerable. Even at the great bear and wolf hunts spoken of, though frequently embracing a very considerable extent of country, it seldom happens that more than two or three foxes are killed.

Many foxes are hunted to the death with dogs in the peninsula. The sportsman, however, does not, as with us, follow the dogs on horseback—the style of fence and broken nature of the ground effectually preventing one from riding across the country—but on foot. Several individuals, each armed with a gun, usually take part in these hunts, which to a man of active habits, and with a good knowledge of the ground, are very exciting. The fox is in many instances shot, but it more generally happens, that when he finds himself hard pressed, he takes refuge in his earth, or some other out-of-the-way place, where the difficulty of dislodging him is considerable.

On these occasions, the dogs are at times endangered. We are informed by M. Wijkström, for instance: that “at a fox-chase near to Donafors Bruk, in the province of Nerike, it happened that Michel sought shelter in the cleft of a rock, where he was followed by the dogs, who all, with one exception, fortunately succeeded, when called off, in making good their retreat. But this one, from its superior size, and the confined and crooked nature of the aperture, was unable either to turn himself, or to back out. His growls and barking as he fought with the fox were distinctly heard; but as for two or three days afterwards all was quiet, it was imagined the dog had perished. Nevertheless, after the lapse of three days and a half, the fox was found torn and dead on the outside of the aperture, and it was therefore surmised that the dog survived. This proved to be the fact; for though dreadfully emaciated, and badly wounded over nearly the whole of his body, one side of which was entirely stript of hair, he contrived to crawl home. By prudent management, however, and by feeding sparingly at first, he recovered

his strength, and after a time was as good for fox hunting as ever."



THE VIPP-SNARA.

Many foxes are captured in the northern forests by the *Vipp-snara*, which device is also used for several other animals. It is usually placed across a narrow pathway in the forest, and in a well-wooded spot, that it may the less attract attention.

Fig. 1 represents the trap as a whole, and when gillrad ; Fig. 2, the gillring apparatus E on an enlarged scale ; and Fig. 3, the giller-pin (forming part of the gillring apparatus) as seen in front, as also in profile.

AA, Figs. 1 and 2, is the lever, generally consisting of a young tree, or it may be of a stout pole ; and if the thicker end of this is not heavy enough, additional weights are attached ; B, the pivot, or fulcrum, on which the lever rests ; C, a tree, or stump, wherein the pivot B is inserted ; D, the noose, the lower part of which ought to be nine to ten inches from the ground ; E, the gillring apparatus ; F, the outermost of the two posts between which the noose D is suspended, and to the top of which, by means of the hank G, the gillring apparatus is affixed.

As the several drawings go far to explain this contrivance, it would be superfluous to enter into farther details. Suffice it to say, that when the fox gets his head into the noose D, his struggles cause the bevelled end of the giller-pin to slip out of the hank G, by which the lever is set free, and as a consequence Reynard, in the twinkling of an eye, is dangling in the air.

Of all the devices employed in Scandinavia to capture the fox, the common steel-trap is that, perhaps, in most general use. Opinions differ somewhat as to its proper size, and formation ; but all agree in saying that immediately prior to its being brought into play in the autumn, and after that it has been well smoked over a fire composed of the green twigs of the birch or other tree, it should be *Vittrad*, or rubbed over, with some sort of preparation, as well to protect it from rust and to take away the odour of the iron, as to nullify any possible taint it may have received from the hand. What-

ever the unguent may be, it should be applied by means of a piece of clean linen rag; and gloves should be worn whilst the operation is being performed. The Vittringar are various, everybody having a crotchet of his own. M. Norman tells us that his father, a famous trapper, used a kind of oil, extracted from perfectly sweet cream, boiled over a slow fire. Others again recommend goose, or duck fat, &c.

The baits also differ; but things that dogs are supposed not to touch are considered preferable: as, for instance dogs' flesh, dead rats, magpies, &c.; mice have been found very successful.

"When the trap is gillrad," so we are told by Dr. C. A. Kallstenius, who has given the subject very great attention, "its jaws should face the wind; and if placed on an eminence, it should be either on its eastern, southern, or western side; for I have found that if on the northern side, the fox is more shy of approaching it."

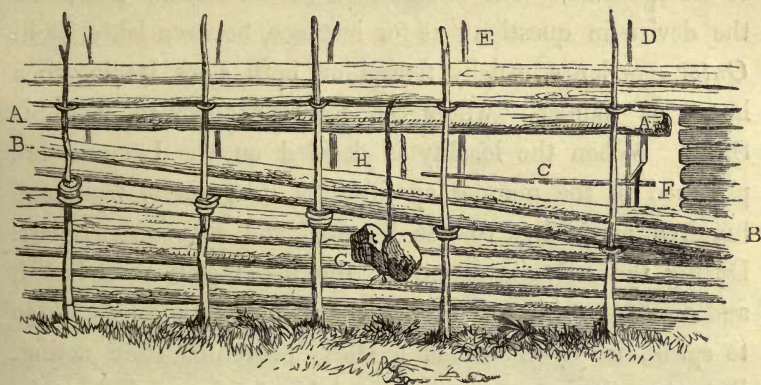
It is always desirable to make use of a Släp, thereby to attract foxes to the spot. Any kind of offal will answer the purpose, but a cat, roasted bodily, is considered preferable to anything else.

When caught by the fore-leg in a gin, the fox is very apt to gnaw away the limb, and thus to effect his escape. Many instances of this are related on good authority.

"My father," M. Norman tells us, for instance, "found, one morning in a trap, both Michel's fore-feet, which the creature himself had bitten off; but he had nevertheless been enabled to make good his retreat on his stumps." And he adds, what is very remarkable, "that the same fox was killed by dogs, during the succeeding autumn, when it was discovered that, instead of feet, hard substances had formed at

the extremity of the last joint of the leg, which had served him as substitutes.”

Foxes that have been once entrapped, are ever afterwards very shy of approaching the engine. It is generally asserted, indeed, that they not only avoid the trap themselves, but have the faculty of communicating its whereabouts to their fellows, and thus causing them also to shun the spot. It is, moreover, said that such foxes, acting on the old adage of burnt children dreading the fire, will burrow under the trap, and thus get at the bait without endangering their own safety; and this more especially if it be winter, and the ground covered with snow.



THE RÄF-LÄMM.

The *Räf-Lämm* is another ingenious contrivance by which Reynard is captured in some parts of Scandinavia. As seen in the above drawing, it is placed in the middle of a Gärdesgård. The drop A A consists of a bar of wood—pretty similar to the

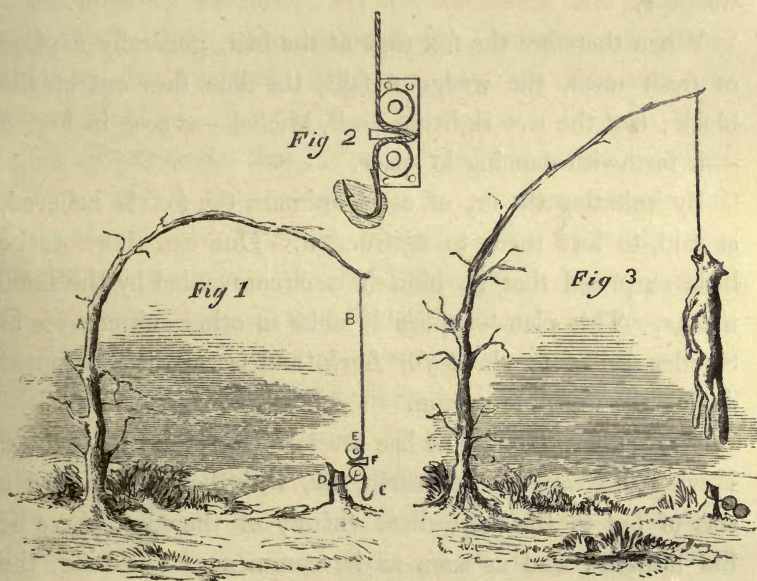
rest of those of which the fence itself is composed—of from ten to twelve feet in length. B B, a bar of the same length, on which the drop A falls. E is the gillring apparatus (the figure of 4 trap depicted at page 28) which is placed between the double stakes D, so as to be but little perceivable when one is standing at the outside of the fence. C, the gillerstick, usually of spruce-pine, and of a length sufficient to fill up the vacant space between the double stakes D and E. H, a band, formed of withes, passed over the drop A, at both ends of which is a heavy stone, G. As will be readily understood, the least disturbance of the gillerstick, C, will set the drop at liberty, which in its fall crushes the fox.

“During the spring, when it is usual to repair the fences,” so we are told, “one should look out for suitable places for the device in question; as for instance, between lakes, or in *Gator*—or lanes, usually fenced on both sides, leading to a house or hamlet—where the fox is known to have his Stråk. When the locality is decided on, the Lämmar are prepared in the manner specified, at intervals of from one hundred and thirty to one hundred and fifty paces apart. During the following summer the fox is left unmolested, and accustoms himself to the trap, which though gillrad, so to speak, is, by means of a stick, prevented from acting. But when the autumn sets in, and his fur becomes valuable, this stick is removed, and the next time he attempts to creep through the opening in the fence, his skin, it is probable, will find its way to the furriers.

With the Lämm, as with other devices for the capture of the fox, great caution is needful to insure success. All new materials used in its construction must be first rubbed over with ashes to give them an old appearance; and when

the trap is gillrad, horse-dung should be superficially applied, so as to take away all human taint. During the operation gloves must be worn, and shoes laid aside; the feet, in lieu of shoes, being wrapped round with pieces of sheep-skin, in the folds of which horse or sheep's-dung has been previously introduced.

The Lämm is a very destructive engine. It is recorded that in the course of thirty years, its inventor captured by its means alone upwards of three hundred foxes.



THE RÄF-KROK.

Another device for the capture of Reynard, though equally available for the wolf, and some other beasts of prey, is the *Räf-Krok*, or fox-hook.

Fig. 1 shows this contrivance when gillrad; A is a young and pliant tree, bent downwards, in the form of a bow; B a stout line, the halter, in short, which at the lower end is provided with the hook c, in preference of bone, as foxes are shy of iron. At some few feet from the tree A, is the stump D, to which a sort of double block E (see Fig. 2) is securely fastened by means of a Hank or otherwise. When the trap is gillrad, the line B (within a foot of the end of which is a knot) is inserted double between the rollers of the block E, where it is fixed as slightly as may be by the wedge F.

When therefore the fox tugs at the bait, generally a piece of fresh meat, the wedge F falls, the line flies out of the block; and the tree righting itself, Michel—as seen in Fig. 3—is forthwith dancing in space.

By imitating the cry of other animals, the fox is believed, as said, to lure them to destruction. One can therefore be little surprised that he himself is circumvented by the same means. This plan—applicable alike to other animals—is in Sweden called to shoot *för Lock*, and is especially adopted during the breeding season.

M. Winberg tells us he has practised the plan with success. Having discovered a fox-earth, he, with boughs, erected a sort of hut in the immediate vicinity of the spot, where he hid himself; and as soon as he commenced Lockning, the cubs, even at some distance in the surrounding wood, would "manifestly and distinctly respond to his call," and after a while approach so near as to enable him to shoot them.

The Count Corfitz Beckfriis has also tried this experiment with success. "On one occasion during a Chasse," he writes, "I heard the barking of a cub, and on approaching the

spot from whence the cries proceeded, I saw the animal, which at once retreated to his Kula. I seated myself down within range of this, and blew a little on my *Lärk-pipa*, or lark-pipe, upon which he immediately came out again, when I shot him. On another occasion, when without a gun, and whilst lying concealed in a thicket, I saw a half-grown fox pass within forty paces of me. I blew my lark-pipe gently, on which he came creeping directly towards me, and had advanced to within some four or five paces, when he became aware of my presence and fled. I have also heard other sportsmen relate, that when engaged in Lockning of young birds, as also mallards, they have shot the fox with the same device."

We farther read: that "if at a late hour of the evening, or very early in the morning, a fox is seen coming out of the forest, and betaking himself to the fields, for the purpose of capturing rats, and that one is quite certain not to have been observed by the animal; as also that the wind and other circumstances be favourable, it is not difficult to shoot him by Lockning. The sportsman, in this case, hides himself near to the path by which the fox sallied forth to the open country; but care must be taken that the ambush be under the wind, or otherwise Michel will get scent of him, in which case he well knows how to avoid the danger. If the fox, when he appears, should halt out of shot, and seems inclined to take another course, he will allow himself, at a distance of from two hundred to three hundred paces, to be enticed within range, should the cries of a hare be imitated; or if the distance be less, one should squeak

like a rat." It will be readily understood that this kind of Jagt can only be followed on certain occasions.



THE TANA.

The *Tana* is another device for the capture of the fox; and certainly few engines are more economical, or better calculated for the purpose. It is chiefly confined, I believe, to the more northern parts of the peninsula.

The *Tana* consists of the stump of a tree, or it may be of an upright plank, of from five to six feet in height, the upper part of which is doubly-forked, in the manner shown in the sketch. The bait, consisting of the head of a cat, a lump of meat, a dead bird, or even a piece of calf-skin,

is fastened on the central point. Should therefore the fox, in making his leap to reach the delicacy, get his foot during the descent into either of the forks, he is usually made prisoner. Instances, indeed, are not rare of two foxes being thus found suspended to one and the same Tana.

Whether this device be formed out of the stump of a tree, or out of a plank, it must be exposed to the weather for some time, prior to being baited ; for as long as it retains a fresh appearance, the fox, or other wild animal, will not come near to it.

The inventor of the Tana would seem to have been an ingenious person. It is possible he took the idea from an incident similar in its nature to what I am about to relate.

“The peasant, Jan Jonsson, one day observed,” we are told, “an immense number of magpies and crows congregated about a large mountain-ash, and making the air resound with their cries. Curiosity tempted him to proceed to the spot, when he found the anger of the birds was excited by the presence of a fox, which was hanging fast by one of his hind-feet in a fork of the tree, from which disagreeable position, in spite of all his twists and wriggles, he was totally unable to extricate himself. The man, in consequence, obtained an easy and valuable prize ; but to this day it is matter of speculation if it was in pursuit of a cat, a squirrel, or the like, or for the purpose of feeding on the berries alone, that Michel was led into the scrape.”

That people may occasionally tumble into pit-falls, or be caught by the leg in gins set for wolves or foxes, I can well understand ; but that a man should be captured in a Räf-tana, seems somewhat extraordinary. Such, however, was once the case.

“A Judge and his *Skrifvare*”—that is, his clerk or amanuensis—thus runs the story, “were not long since journeying between the several places of session in Luleå Lapmark. They were accompanied by two other government officials, one of whom was the chief civil officer of the district. It being winter time, the party travelled with rein-deer, each one having, as usual, his own deer and little *Akja*, a sort of sledge.* It happened one day that the hero of the tale was provided with a very ill-trained and unsteady animal, which was constantly swerving to the right and left of the track, and otherwise so misconducting himself, that his master was always the last of the party; and as a not very unnatural consequence, the unfortunate Lapp who provided the deer, and who acted as guide on the occasion, received maledictions out of number, not only deep but loud.

“The party having just crossed a lake, were ascending by a path-way a rising ground, covered with pretty close young wood. Rein-deer, as is known, are managed with a single and long leather thong, which for the most part is twisted several times around the right arm and hand of the driver. Desirous of keeping up with his comrades, the Judge, as well for the purpose of steering the deer, as to make him quicken his pace, kept casting the thong from side to side, lashing the animal with it as it were. In his anxiety, however, to go ahead, he swung the rein somewhat wide of the deer, and as ill-luck would have it, on to a *Räf-tana* that stood by the side of the path; and as the animal continued to advance, the traveller’s arm was soon fast in the notch.

* A drawing of this vehicle is inserted at page 219 of this volume.

“Here now sat our friend in the trap, the owner of which little thought of making such a capture. To escape from durance was impossible, as well because the deer kept pulling at him, as that, owing to his body being wrapped in furs, and his feet embedded in the Akja, he himself was unable to lift his arm sufficiently high to clear the thong. Necessity compelled him, therefore, to resort to the only expedient left, which was to call lustily for assistance. Fortunately the others heard his *Nöd-rop*, or cries of distress, and without loss of time jumped out of their sledges, and hasted back to the rescue; but when they saw the ludicrous position of the unfortunate wight, and the curious face he put on the matter, their merriment was excited in the highest degree, and peals of laughter, mingled with the angry exclamations of the prisoner, rang through the woods.”

CHAPTER V.

THE LEMMING—TWO SPECIES—HIS ECONOMY—DEVOURED BY REIN-DEER—
VENOMOUS—HE FALLS FROM THE CLOUDS—PERIODICAL MIGRATIONS—
EXPERT SWIMMERS—LIVING PONTOONS—PUGNACITY—RAVAGES—SUICIDE
—RETURN TO THE FJÄLLS.

MOST of the Rat family common to Scandinavia were found in the Ronnum country. The Lemming was an exception, however; for though abounding in the more northern parts of the peninsula, it never, I believe, even during its periodical migrations, wandered farther to the southward than Wermeland. As this singular little animal has of late years greatly excited the attention of naturalists and others, I cannot perhaps do better than devote a chapter descriptive of its habits, migratory and otherwise.

Until very recently it was supposed there was only one species of lemming (*Fjäll-Lemmel*, Sw.; *Lemmus Norvegicus*, Worm.) in Scandinavia; and that, as the name would denote, confined to the higher of the mountain ranges. But of late years naturalists imagine they have discovered a second species dwelling in wooded districts, which, according

to their account, differs somewhat in colour and size from the Fjäll-lemming, and this they call the *Skogs*—or Wood-Lemming. The supposed new species is believed by some to be a recent importation from Northern Russia, by the way of Finland.



THE LEMMING.

Be this as it may, the Fjäll-lemming, the species of which I speak, and numbers of which I myself met with when wandering on the Dovre and others of the Norwegian mountains, is about five inches in length, with round small ears, and long black whiskers; the belly of a whitish-yellow; the back and sides tawny, variegated with black; the tail an inch in length; the feet five-toed; the upper lip divided; and with two teeth in each jaw.

The favourite haunts of the lemming would seem to be

tussocky ground, where the dwarf birch and willow abound. One more generally meets with the little creature pretty high up on the fjälls, but at times also amongst the snow-drifts on their naked summits. It lives in burrows, in the formation of which, its long, strong and crooked claws render it good service. It feeds on leaves, grasses and their roots, the bark of trees, mosses, and insects. It does not hibernate, but is on the move all the year round; neither does it lay up stores for the winter. As with several others of the genus *Lemmus*, the female forms for herself a nest in which to bring forth her young. This is situated at the termination of a burrow, beneath a root or tussock, and consists of dry grass, leaves, &c. She produces five to six at a birth, and it is thought probable that she breeds more than once within the year.

The lemming is a most courageous little animal. His combative disposition has given rise to many fables. Regnard, for instance, tells us, that "these animals are affirmed to be so pugnacious as sometimes to wage war against each other; and when the two armies meet on the field of battle, they fight bitterly."

Owing to its skin being nearly valueless, the lemming is not systematically persecuted by mankind; nevertheless, it has innumerable enemies—amongst the rest, the rein-deer, about the last animal one would have suspected, which eagerly seeks for and devours it. The fact has not, it is true, come under my personal observation; but we have the story from such good authority, that it is hardly to be questioned.

"The rein-deer," says Linnæus, "feeds on frogs, snakes, and even on the lemming, often pursuing the latter to so

great a distance, as not to find its way back again." Regnard tells us likewise, that "the rein-deer eat all the lemmings they meet with." And Pennant, that "the Samoides assert that the rein-deer will greedily devour those animals. Perhaps," he adds, "they take them medicinally, as sheep are known greedily to seek and swallow spiders."

Sir Arthur de Capell Brooke, in the first volume of his very interesting work on Lapland, also assures us that the rein-deer devours the lemming. "The story," he says, "will doubtless appear absurd and incredible to some, in which light it struck me when first told of it. From the repeated questions, however, I put to every mountain Laplander when I was in Norwegian Lapland; and from the answers I uniformly received, confirming the truth of what I had heard from persons who had all repeatedly been witness to it; I was at last induced to give credit to the assertion, particularly when I afterwards saw the rein-deer pursuing the lemming, and striking it with its fore-feet.

"Several of the Finnish merchants at Hammerfest, who themselves kept rein-deer, assured me, they had frequently been eye-witnesses of their eating the lemming. Since my return, I have questioned Jens Holm the Laplander, who is now in England, concerning it, and have learnt from him the following circumstance: One day having met with the lemmings, and killed a considerable number, he laid them up in a heap; and when the rein-deer came home in the evening, they quickly found them out, and devoured the whole of them. He, as well as his wife, knew the lemmings by their skins, which I showed them, and which I offered to the deer, one of which, in particular, took them into

his mouth, began to munch, and seemed well inclined to eat them.

“In addition to the proofs already given of the rein-deer occasionally feeding on the lemming,” says the Baronet, in the second volume of his work, “I am now enabled to bring forward another, which will be considered even more satisfactory, from its having occurred during the last autumn. Mr. Rickards, who has recently returned from an interesting tour through Sweden and Norway, which he undertook at the expense of a distinguished nobleman, and for the express purpose of bringing over rein-deer, different objects of natural history, and some living specimens of the Capercali, has assured me, in the most decided manner, that he is enabled to confirm, from actual observation, the fact of the rein-deer eating the lemming. When passing through Jemtland, in the month of September, before he crossed the frontier mountains into Norway, he met with the lemmings in very great numbers near Åberg, overspreading the country in their usual manner. He had with him ten rein-deer, which he had procured; and on two different occasions he had an opportunity of witnessing the fact; at one time with a buck, and the other with a young doe, which had been tied to a stake, to render her more tractable to lead, and which, upon one of these animals coming within her reach, sprang forward, seized hold of it, and quickly devoured it.”

We are farther informed by M. Malm, the naturalist, who, as said, spent some time in Lapland—and I deem his testimony conclusive on the point at issue—that, “in the summer and autumn, when the lemmings traverse the forests and the fjälls, they are pursued, killed, and eaten by the rein-

deer when pasturing. In a certain sense the lemmings are quite as injurious to the rein-deer as the wolves; for the deer is thereby not only prevented from benefiting by his natural food, the nutritious rein-deer moss (*Cetraria rangiferina*, Ach.); but it is believed to lose its appetite for that vegetable. The Lapps, moreover, look upon the lemming as poisonous. That this is the case, I cannot suppose; but it is a fact, and one that all to whom I have spoken on the subject have corroborated, that during those years in which the lemming makes its appearance, the flesh of the rein-deer is bad and lean. The rein-deer are besides delayed in their progress by the lemmings left by owls in the trees; and the Lapps in the parish of Enare have related to me that for an hour together they will remain under such trees, to the branches of which the lemmings are suspended, in expectation of their falling to the ground. What it can be that impels the rein-deer, which is an herbivorous animal, to pursue and feed on the lemming, I have never been able to discover."

The migrations of the lemming, as known, take place periodically, and in such immense armies as almost to darken the face of the country. For many years in succession these animals are not seen, when all at once, and without any assignable cause, they appear in prodigious numbers; and the hills and the valleys, the swamps, and even the craggy rocks that lie in their route, are literally alive with these remarkable little creatures.

The notions of ancient authors respecting the lemming and its migrations, are very curious.

"In Helsingia and provinces adjacent within the diocese of Upsala," says Olaus Magnus, "small beasts with four

feet, called lemmar, or lemming, of the size of a rat, and with a skin of diverse colours, fall from the air* during tempests and sudden showers; but no man knows from whence they come: whether from the more remote islands, and brought by the wind, or that they are bred of feculent matter in the clouds; yet this is proved, that so soon as they fall down, green grass, not yet digested, is found in their bellies. These, like unto locusts, appearing in great swarms, destroy everything green; and owing to their venomous nature, all living things bitten by them perish. These swarms live so long as they do not feed on young grass. Like unto swallows that are ready to fly away, they gather together in great troops. But at the set time they die of malignant exhalations from the earth (and from the decomposition of their bodies the air grows pestilential and affects the people with vertigo and jaundice), or they are devoured by beasts commonly called hermelin, or weasels, and these grow fat thereby, and their skins grow larger."

"The lemmings," so we are farther informed by Pontopidan, "multiply very fast, by what we see of them, though, God be praised! this is but seldom: about once or twice in twenty years, when they come from their peculiar abodes.

* This singular notion still prevails, and, moreover, is not confined altogether to the lower classes. Many, indeed, solemnly aver they themselves have seen the lemming falling from the heavens into the sea! That these animals may at times have been observed descending, parachute fashion, from above, does not seem to be altogether denied. But assuming such to be the fact, the learned account for the phenomenon, either by supposing that they may have escaped from the talons of birds of prey soaring aloft, or that when traversing the frozen surface of the fjäll, where there is little or no hold for their claws, their woolly jackets have come within the vortex of a strong whirlwind, which has lifted them up from *terra firma*, and carried them bodily away into the neighbouring ocean.

At these times they gather in great flocks together, consisting of many thousands, like the hosts of God, to execute His will—*i. e.*, to punish the neighbouring inhabitants by destroying the seed, corn, and grass; for where this flock advances, they make a visible pathway on the earth or ground, cutting off all that is green; and this they have power and strength to do till they reach their appointed bound, which is the sea, in which they swim a little about, and then sink and drown. Their young they carry with them on their backs, or in their mouths. These vermin prognosticate a bad harvest wherever they take their course; but in return the countryman expects good hunting or sport of the bear, fox, marten, and several other large animals which follow these creatures, to whom they are delicious food. There remains one thing dubious, which is this: whether it is to be believed, according to common report, that the lemmings do fall down out of the air, which many, both in these and former times, will pretend to say they have seen with their own eyes. Wormius, Scaliger, and other great authorities, do not suppose this to be impossible; they imagine that the lemmings, like frogs and other small creatures, may, in their embryos, be attracted to the clouds, and being then come to maturity, may drop down.”

Though naturalists have sorely puzzled their brains to account for the wonderful migrations of the lemming, we appear to be just as much in the dark as ever. Some attribute the wanderings of these animals to their being more than usually prolific during particular years—an argument so senseless as to refute itself. Others say that want of sustenance, consequent on their too rapid increase,

renders it absolutely needful that a part should leave their homes. This conjecture again appears less probable, for if their wanderings were solely dependent on excess of numbers, they would occur more regularly than is the case. But what is the fact? "In later times," says M. Söderhjelm, who writes in the year 1833 from Serna in Dalecarlia, "the migrations of the lemmings into these parts have only taken place during the years 1789, 1807, 1808, 1813, and lastly in 1823—that is, an interval of eighteen years occurred between the first known migration and the second, one year between the second and the third, five years between the third and the fourth, ten between the fourth and the fifth; and since the last, nine years have already elapsed."

There are those, however, who entertain a somewhat more plausible theory than either of the foregoing: "The lemmings," they say, "which live on vegetable matter, make holes in the earth for the purpose of getting at roots, &c.; and during the winter time they form runs beneath the snow. When, therefore, immediately after a rapid thaw, accompanied by copious rains, a severe frost of 10° to 12° of Reaumur, has suddenly set in, by which the surface becomes covered with an *Is-skorpa*, or crust of ice, the lemmings are prevented from obtaining access to their food, and are compelled in consequence to seek it in other quarters: but because near at home this is not to be found so much to their liking as their native mountain herbs, they continue their march to distant districts, in the hope that sooner or later they may meet with that of which they are in search. This would seem to be the secret of their migrations."

Leaving naturalists to settle the cause of these won-

derful migrations amongst themselves, we will now follow the little creatures on their weary pilgrimage.

On leaving the fjälls, which M. Söderhjelm tells us is always in the spring, they seem to diverge towards all points of the compass: many direct their steps towards the North Sea, or the Gulf of Bothnia; some to the southward as far as Wermeland; whilst others again advance in a north-easterly direction for the shores of the Icy Sea. So at least it is affirmed by M. Malm, who assures me he has there seen myriads of their skeletons. It is supposed that they do not start in a body in the first instance, but scattered and each for himself, somewhat in the manner of a *Jägare-Chain*, and that they thus progress until some natural obstacle intervenes and stops the early-comers, when the first and succeeding columns are formed.

Naturalists and others appear to be much in ignorance as to the composition of these migratory hordes. Some little light has been thrown on the subject, however, by M. Söderhjelm, who, speaking of the migration in Dalecarlia in 1823, says: "It is very remarkable that of the numbers that then appeared in this province, neither young ones nor pregnant females were observable. Hence it would seem as if sexual connection ceased during their wanderings, or that they had left their offspring to its fate immediately after birth, or that they had bred in the forest which separates Serna from the more inhabited parts of Dalecarlia, whereby the opportunity of elucidating this matter was lost. As in these periodical migrations the lemmings leave the fjälls early in the spring, it is scarcely to be supposed that the female brings forth her young prior to starting."

According to the concurrent testimony of every one, the

lemmings, on these their migrations, always march straight ahead, and are never to be diverted by any obstacle from the course they have marked out for themselves at setting out. Rivers and lakes they cross by swimming; and if a boat comes in their way, they run in at one end or side of it, and out again at the other. Rocks and fences are surmounted by climbing; and even should it be needful to make detours to avoid precipices, they, so soon as the impediment is passed, continue their course in precisely the same direction as before. For the most part they journey during the night, but occasionally also in the day time; and considering their very diminutive size, get over a greater extent of ground than could be supposed possible. If, during their wanderings, they meet with obstacles of any kind, they display wonderful sagacity in overcoming them. Their sight would seem to be very piercing, for should they come to a lake, or fjord, not more than three or four miles in width, they at once, and without the slightest hesitation, plunge into the water, and make for the opposite shore. But if, on the contrary, the breadth is considerable, they follow the strand for a while—as if distrusting their own powers—in the hope of finding a narrower passage, and continue until their patience becomes exhausted, when they take to swimming. Provided the water be pretty smooth, they keep together in a dense mass, and thus the living column breasts the flood.

Sir A. de Capell Brooke, on the authority of his friend, M. Knudtzon of Drontheim, who was, he says, an eye-witness to the fact, gives a somewhat marvellous account of the proceedings of the lemmings on these occasions. “Their method of crossing rivers is as follows. On arriving at the edge of

the water, the foremost advance, and swimming across, form a kind of floating, or, to use a military phrase, complete pontoon-bridge, the head of each supported by the hinder part of that before it. When a communication is thus formed between the shores, the remainder of the army pass rapidly over the backs of the supporters, and gain the opposite strand. Strange as this may seem," he adds, "the contrivances which naturalists agree are resorted to both by the marmot and the grey squirrel, for the purpose of crossing rivers, appear as extraordinary, though well authenticated; and what has thus been mentioned concerning the lemming, will, I doubt not, be received with attention by those, who have made natural history more particularly their study, and can the better judge of the extraordinary instinct and sagacity of the animal creation."

Though the swimming powers of the lemming may be considerable, it would not appear that they can hold out for any very great length of time; and if the water should be broad, a large portion of them must inevitably perish. This was evidenced some years ago in the great lake Siljan, in Eastern Dalecarlia. "All those that were fallen in with near to the northern shore, whence they took their departure," so we are told by an eye-witness, "were strong and vigorous, and exerting themselves to the utmost in contending with the waves. Farther out in the lake they appeared exhausted, and seven miles from the starting-point large numbers were found dead."

During their migrations, great multitudes of lemmings are drowned, and myriads are destroyed by birds and beasts of prey, that follow in their tracks, more especially by the

common and the arctic-fox, which "just snap them in two pieces, leaving their heads, hind-legs, and tails, with which the ground is everywhere covered." Dogs and cats come in for their share, as do also the voracious portion of the finny tribe, whilst the little creatures are crossing lakes and rivers. Instances are on record of ten to twelve lemmings being found in the belly of a single pike. But still in spite of all these casualties the troop on its arrival at the coast, or other point where it purposes wintering, would not seem to have suffered any very sensible diminution in its numbers.

Even if quite alone, the lemming evinces little fear; but on the occasion of their migrations, when they are collected together in millions, no danger, however great, alarms him. He will then rather perish from superior force, than deviate a step from the route he has chalked out for himself. Be it a man, horse, dog, or cat that he meets, he rarely flies or hides himself; but, on the contrary, he will raise himself on his hind-quarters, assume an attitude of defiance, uttering a squeaking kind of bark; and if at these times a stick be held out to him, he will seize it with such ferocity as to allow himself to be lifted from the ground without quitting his hold! Neither does he entertain any apprehensions from noises, however loud, for he will pass as near to a *Hammar-smedja*, or foundry for bar-iron, as to a barn; and a shot fired above his head does not terrify him in the least. He will not get out of the way of a carriage, but rather allow the wheel to pass over his body.

"Mr. Johansen," says Sir A. Brooke, "mentioned a curious and rather laughable circumstance respecting these

little animals. In the summer of 1788, when there were reviews of large bodies of cavalry near to Drontheim, the lemmings appeared in the surrounding country in immense numbers; and it excited no small amusement, when the regiments were performing their manœuvres and charges, to see these diminutive creatures put themselves into a posture of defence, as if ready to receive the attacks of the enemy."

The ravages committed by the lemmings during their wanderings are differently represented. "When an army of these animals have passed," we are told by Professor Nilsson, "the ground has the appearance as if fire had gone over it, the grass, moss, leaves, &c., are destroyed, and the sward itself furrowed up." M. Söderhjelm relates, on the contrary, "that when on the march, it has not been observed that they have done any considerable damage to the growing crops."

All, however, agree in this, that where they have taken up their quarters for some time their ravages are dreadful.

"The failure of the hay-harvest on the following year," says the Professor N. J. Berlin, when speaking of a great inroad of the lemmings into Norrland in the year 1823, "was supposed to have been caused by these animals, which so devoured the roots of the grass, that whole pasture fields were entirely bare."

"In the summer of 1823," writes M. Littorin, "when residing at my farm in the parish of Söderala in Southern Helsingland, I received an altogether unexpected visit from a multitude of lemmings. Those which did not die during the autumn remained over the winter, and for the most part

took up their abode under the snow, where they formed numerous runs. During their stay with me they committed very great havoc in the corn-fields, the hay-stacks, and in the barns."

"In places where they sojourned during the winter," so we are informed by M. Söderhjelm, "they devoured forage in the barns and outhouses, as also the roots of the grass in the pasture fields, where at that inclement season they had their runs under the snow. Their unwelcome visit had a very injurious effect on the crops of the succeeding autumn. According to the accounts of the Jemtlanders, the lemmings in 1823 very seriously damaged various cultivated fields in the vicinity of Storsjön, where the grass, instead of being green, became altogether grey."

"During certain years," says the Rev. J. Heyerdahl of Stangvig, in Western Norway, "the lemmings at times make their appearance here as well as in all the country round about, in inconceivable numbers. The year 1827, more especially, they did an immensity of injury, having arrived when the grain was still on the ground. In 1834 they did less damage, because the harvest was then for the most part housed. Their ravages might almost be compared to those of the Egyptian grasshopper. In 1827, people erected scaffolding that the corn might be raised above the ground; but they nevertheless climbed up to the sheaves, where they sat as thick as birds. What with battles amongst themselves and with the cats, they made such a noise near to the parsonage, that it was difficult to sleep, and if the door was left open they entered the house itself. They never descend to the valley until the grass on the fjälls is withered

and dried up; and in the places overrun by them they so gnaw the sward itself, that it is needful to send the cattle to the opposite side of the fjord to prevent their dying of hunger. Before the winter sets in, nine-tenths of them commonly swim out into the fjord and perish; but the residue remain during the whole winter, and make for themselves numerous runs under the snow; and so gnaw away the bark from the trees and bushes, that in the spring a white ring is formed near to their roots, from which injury they soon perish."

During their migrations, the lemmings occasionally show themselves in populous towns. Such was the case in Drontheim in the years 1808, 1834 and 1837. On the first occasion, we are informed by Sir A. Brooke, "they infested every part of the town. The boys used to catch them by smearing a board with tar; and great numbers were killed by the dogs, without, however, their eating them."*

The town of Hernösand, on the Gulf of Bothnia, swarmed with these animals in 1823. "The first days of October of that year," writes Professor N. J. Berlin, "a troop of lemmings made their appearance here and in the surrounding country. The number that was either killed or died from natural causes was so enormous, that carts were obliged to be employed to remove them from the streets. Towards the end of the month they gradually disappeared. They were not at all shy. They came from the north-west. How far along

* When in the Norwegian mountains, my own dog devoured them with avidity.

the coast they were visible I cannot say, but believe they were seen the whole way between Sundsvall and Umeå, a distance of some two hundred miles. Their number must be reckoned by millions."

It is a popular notion, and one not confined solely to Scandinavia, that when the lemmings arrive at the coast, to which in many instances their course would seem to be directed, the bulk of them at once take to the water, and, still following the specific direction marked out for themselves at starting from their native mountains, swim straight out to sea until their strength fails them, when they perish. But this I take to be fallacious. Fishermen on the coast, it is true, may have occasionally seen them breasting the waves, and also large spaces of the sea covered with their dead carcasses; but in spite of all this, it is not credible to me that when an army of lemmings thus launches forth on the wide ocean, it is with the intention of committing suicide. To me it seems clear, that unless darkness intervenes, they at all times, before taking to the water, see land of some kind—an island or the opposite side of a fjord, as the case may be—in the offing; but the distance proving too great for their powers, they are in consequence drowned.

On the occasion of their migrations, the lemmings would always seem to reach the land of promise—that I mean where they propose to winter, some time prior to the setting in of the frost; for during the winter months they always, I believe, discontinue their wanderings, and remain stationary till the spring. When, however, that season arrives, the snow has disappeared from the ground, and the temperature

has become milder, and vegetation commenced, such of them as have escaped the manifold perils to which they have been so constantly exposed, almost simultaneously disappear. Some will have it that, from feeding on the young and tender grasses, they all die. Others again contend, and with much greater reason, that they then set off on their return to the fjälls; but few of them, nevertheless, are supposed to reach their homes.

CHAPTER VI.

THE HARE — TWO KINDS — BEWITCHED — BEATS THE DRUM — PROLIFIC —
SUPRA-FECUNDATION — REARED BY A DOG — WEARS STAYS — SINGULAR
SUPERSTITION.

THERE was a sprinkling of hares about Ronnum. With proper dogs I might have killed a considerable number in the course of the season; but not having anything in the shape of a harrier, it was only a straggler that I picked up. Though those animals are not abundant anywhere in Scandinavia, they are found throughout its length and breadth, from Scania to the North Cape itself.

When my former work was written, only one kind of hare, the *Lepus borealis* of Pallas, was supposed to be indigenous to Scandinavia. But Nilsson, in the last edition of his Fauna, published in 1847, now seems of opinion that two species exist in the peninsula. The one kind he calls the *Mo-hare*, or *Syd-hare* (*Lepus canescens*, Nilss.); the other, the *Fjäll-hare*, or *Nord-hare* (*Lepus borealis*, Nilss.):— the former, as one of its names would imply, inhabiting the more southern parts of the country; the latter, the

higher mountain ranges of the north. As the existence of two species is, however, questioned by some sportsmen and others, I will not weary the reader by their description; but in the few observations that I have to make about the hare, shall consider them as one and the same.



THE SCANDINAVIAN HARE.

This animal is grey in summer, but in the winter time, in the northern provinces at least, with the exception of the tips of the ears, which are then black, is, as depicted above, altogether white. In the summer season the Scandinavian hare is not dissimilar in appearance to the hare common to Ireland; and, in the lower parts of the country, it is fully as large as ours in England. Although the

female is generally somewhat larger than the male, there is little or no perceptible difference between the sexes. Experienced sportsmen affirm, however, that when this animal is chased by the dogs, it can be readily distinguished: the ears of the male at such times always pointing forwards, whilst those of the female, on the contrary, lie backwards on the neck. Both sexes are commonly of superior size in the southern portion of the Scandinavian peninsula, attributable, probably, to a greater abundance of food and a more genial climate.

The *Lepidus timidus*, Linn. (according to English naturalists), the hare common to England, is not found in Scandinavia. Queen Louisa Ulrica of Sweden, who flourished about a century ago, caused a considerable number of hares of that species to be turned out near to the palace of Svartsjö, in the province of Upland, but the change which time and climate, or both, have effected, has made them undistinguishable from the hares of the country. Accidental varieties are, however, by no means uncommon. Those of a reddish colour are occasionally met with; as also Albinos. A friend of mine, Lieutenant Uggla, indeed, shot, not many years ago, one of the latter, the eyes of which were blood-red. Black hares have likewise been occasionally killed in the peninsula, principally, I believe, in the southern provinces of Sweden. But these, as wearing the "Devil's livery," are by the superstitious supposed to be *förtrollade*, or enchanted, and capable of effecting mischief in every way!

The hare is proverbially the most timid of animals. Hence the Swedish saw: "Rädd som en hare," or timid as a hare. It is even supposed that fear alone causes her to

sleep with open eyes. In the summer time, when in her "form," she for the most part lies with her face to the north; but in the winter, on the contrary, towards the south, that she may enjoy the benefit of the sun's rays; for in the summer time she can as little endure the heat of the sun, as in the winter the cutting north wind.

As with us, the hare is subject to many diseases. Ekström says that, "few are killed in which a quantity of worms are not found in their intestines." Some years, indeed, a sort of pestilence rages amongst these animals, and they die like so many sheep with the rot.

According to Linnæus, the hare is a great lover of music, attributable to his long ears; and says, that if the animal comes over a board, or other sounding substance, he beats it with his fore-feet, lifting them up alternately, and with such rapidity, that the eye can hardly follow the motion. Hence he is said in Sweden: "att slå på trumma," that is, to beat the drum. The noise made by the animal somewhat resembles that elicited from the instrument in question.

The fur of the hare is not only valuable in itself, but is used, the great Swedish naturalist tells us, as a flea-trap by the Dalecarlian peasant-girls, who, observing that those vermin are fond of creeping into it for warmth and shelter, wear a *Klot*, or ball, formed of that material, about their persons. "In places where fleas abound," he adds, "travellers will do well to place a similar *Klot* in their beds."

The hare pairs early in the spring, the period being somewhat dependent on the latitude and the state of the weather. Although several male hares—ramblers, or dancing-masters,

as they are jocosely called in Sweden—often follow the female at this season, her favours are believed to be bestowed on one alone. The males, especially the old ones, fight desperately on these occasions, and the strongest always carry the day. The female is very prolific, having three broods within the year; the first about March or April, the second near to Midsummer, and the third in August. Each brood generally numbers from three to five; but she has been known to have as many as seven young ones at a time. The female forms no regular bed for her progeny, and only visits them occasionally. It is supposed she suckles them for about three weeks, and then leaves them to shift for themselves. It is well the hare is so prolific, for the young are not only exposed to very numerous enemies, but the mother, by all accounts, is the worst of nurses, and very many of the leverets perish consequently from inattention. There is an old saying in Sweden, so Ekström tells us, and one not altogether without foundation, that “the larger portion of the first brood are frozen to death, the greater part of the second brood live, and the third brood are mostly destroyed by ants and other insects.”

Hares are believed to pair within a few months of their birth, and of course long before they have attained to their full growth, which is not supposed to be until they are a year or fifteen months old. Captain Littorin tells us, for instance, that one of his acquaintance—having first ascertained there were no previous occupants—turned out two leverets of the first, or spring brood on to a certain island, three miles distant from the main land. In the autumn he shot not only these two hares, which were marked on the ear, but three young ones in addition.

The fact of the female hare pairing within a very few days after she has littered, is curious enough; but that when already pregnant, she should be capable of new conception, as asserted by many to be the case, is passing strange. Though this has been a mooted point with naturalists for ages, it seems not yet fully solved. Nilsson, when alluding to the subject in the last edition of his *Fauna*, though he does not commit himself in any way, nevertheless says: "From my own experience, I am unable to testify to such being the fact. But a sportsman, whose veracity I cannot doubt, has assured me that he once shot a gravid female hare, and found, on opening her, five full-grown young ones in the one sack of the womb (the latter, as with all *Rodentia* being divided into two), and four in the other, which were not larger than the joint of one's thumb. Another of my acquaintance shot on the 7th of December, some years ago, a female hare, which had four young ones within her, of which two were small, and still naked, whilst the other two were large and hairy."

The question as to whether the hare be a ruminant animal or not, is also still mooted in Sweden. Linnæus tells us that such is the case, though in an inferior degree to the *Pecora*, which have a stomach of four cavities, whereas the hare has only two; that the hare macerates the food in one cavity, and digests it in the other. There are those who entertain the same opinion as Linnæus; but others again do not admit that the hare chews the cud, or has two cavities in the stomach.

As hares are shot all the year round in Sweden, it oftentimes happens that the young are taken alive from the stomach of the dead parent. And it would seem from what

follows, that even under such untoward circumstances they might, if needed, be reared without difficulty.

“On the 1st of June, 1828,” says M. Jennische, “I killed a female hare; and as the shots went through her heart and lungs, she died on the spot. Without giving the dogs their regular due—that is, the head and entrails—I carried her home, a distance of upwards of two thousand feet, and there caused her to be opened; when, although her legs were stiff, and her whole body all but cold, two young ones were found alive in her womb. And what is more singular still, they lived for three days afterwards. As I looked at my watch when the hare was shot, as also when she was opened, I can vouch for the fact, that a young hare can live in the dead mother for seventeen minutes at the very least.”

Dogs and cats, when deprived of their own young, occasionally display, we know, extraordinary affection even towards the offspring of animals, with which they are in the habit of living in a constant state of enmity. An instance of this kind is related by M. Wetterdal.

“During a hunt that took place at the beginning of this month (June, 1831),” says that gentleman, “after that the hare was killed, and, according to custom, opened, it was found to be a female, which, had it lived, would soon have littered, the young ones being very lively. The most of these were thrown to the dogs, who, with the exception of a bitch which had recently pupped, devoured them most greedily. But she, on the contrary, was very careful of the one that fell to her share, for she laid herself down by its side, caressed it, and licked it all over, by which means it was in a very short time altogether dry, and appeared to have revived somewhat.

The night was passed in the forest, in which while the bitch very carefully tended the leveret. In the morning early it was carried to a cottage, where the attempt was made with a small spoon to introduce a little milk into its stomach, which also succeeded. During the two days that I remained thereabouts, it was several times fed in a similar manner, but died at length, probably from the want of proper attention."

An instance was recently given of a fox not only living, but thriving on his stumps, both of his fore-legs having been lopped off in a steel-trap. A somewhat similar circumstance is related of a hare.

"During the first *Spår-snö*, or tracking-snow, this winter," says M. Littmark, "my dog caught a hare, both of whose fore-legs were broken (probably by shot, a few weeks previously) just below the knee. The leg-bones, some two inches in length, which were almost altogether without hair, and to which were hanging splinters of bone in a very blackened and decayed state, served her for feet: in other respects, and though very lean, she was uninjured. This goes far to show in what a miserable state the hare can continue to exist and feed herself."

If taken quite young the hare may be easily domesticated, and will follow her master like a dog. Witness Cowper's three favourites, Puss, Tiny and Bess, of which the poet has given us so very interesting an account. But to make these animals perfectly docile, they must be allowed, so to speak, the run of the house, to which arrangement, however, from their offensive smell and dirty habits, few people have a fancy. When domesticated, the hare has many amusing tricks. I myself have kept considerable numbers of hares, on one

occasion near a score; but they were never permitted their full liberty. They evinced great pugnacity, and at times cruelly mangled one another. When clad in their winter garb, they were very beautiful; and considering they would be ornamental in our parks, I sent several to England, where, however, I have reason to believe they all soon died.

Hares are destroyed by various means in Scandinavia, which, differ somewhat in the several districts.

Many are captured in snares. "These ought to be made," so Ekström tells us, "of fine copper-wire; but previous to being gillrade they should be well rubbed over with the fresh leaves of the spruce-pine; for however stupid the hare may seem to be, he will never go into a snare that has been touched by the bare hand."

When speaking on the subject, the reverend gentleman mentions a curious incident. "My father," says he, "once shot a very old male hare, whose appearance would have led one to suppose he had worn stays all his life. As a boy, I was accustomed to follow as *Last-bärare*, literally, load-bearer—in other words, to carry the game, &c. It was my office, besides, to disembowel the slain; but when I attempted to rip up the hare in question, the knife would not penetrate the skin. On nearer inspection it was found that the animal had a thick copper-wire snare about its loins, that had actually grown into the flesh, from which cause it had obtained its fashionable and singular shape."

The steel-trap is also had recourse to in some places for the capture of the hare, more especially in the far north; but only, I believe, in the winter time, when the ground is covered with snow. The trap is of less size than that used

for the fox, and is not baited in any way, being merely placed in the runs of the hare, and afterwards well covered with snow.

More hares, however, are probably killed with the assistance of dogs, than in any other way. *Har-jagt*, or hare-hunting (in so far as field sports are concerned), is, in fact, the popular amusement of the country. Several individuals frequently take part in the Chasse, which, from the difficult nature of the ground, is always conducted on foot. As it seldom happens that more than two or three *Stöfvare*—as dogs used for hare-hunting are called—are slipped at a time, all sorts of discordant noises are made to assist in starting Puss. Guns or pistols are frequently discharged, and I have seen watchmen's rattles, and even a huge drum, brought into play on these occasions. When the hare is once on foot, the party separate, and each man stations himself in paths and other places where it is probable she may come; and thus waylaid, the poor animal is pretty sure to meet her doom.

The hare, as soon as killed, is disembowelled, and its head, with the exception of the ears, which remain attached to the skin, is severed from the body. The only reason I could ever hear alleged for this very strange custom, which is usually adopted throughout Sweden, is, that if a woman in a state of pregnancy, was to see the head of the animal, her offspring would inevitably have a hare-lip!

CHAPTER VII.

THE ELK — WHERE FOUND — UNCOUTH LOOK — ANTLERS — HAUNTS — SURE-FOOTED — FOOD — MANNER OF FEEDING — WEAPONS — ENEMIES — DOMESTICATION — NURTURED BY A COW.

THE Elk (*Elg*, Sw.; *Cervus Alces*, Linn.), though not found in the vicinity of Ronnum, is tolerably common in parts of Scandinavia. Formerly this animal was abundant throughout all the more wooded districts of the peninsula; but owing to constant persecution, the breed, at no very remote period, seemed likely to be exterminated. Of late years, however, elks have been protected by legislative enactments, and their numbers are now rapidly on the increase. A quarter of a century ago, with the exception of every tenth year, it was altogether prohibited to kill them at any season; but in Sweden at the present time they may now be shot every year from the 1st of August to the 1st of December, and in Norway from the 1st of August to the 1st of November.

In no part of Scandinavia has the increase of the elk been

more rapid than in the Wermeland and Dalecarlian forests. Twenty years ago I might wander in those wastes for days or even weeks together, without seeing a single track of these animals; whereas at the present day, their tracks—stale or fresh—are quite common. The great increase in their numbers is mainly attributable to M. Falk, who, for years, very strictly preserved a large tract of forest near to his residence, where they grew and multiplied, and subsequently spread themselves throughout the surrounding country.

According to Ekström, the limits of the elk, as relates to Scandinavia, are between 58° and 64° of north latitude. But there are exceptions to this rule; for he is occasionally to be met with, as well considerably to the southward, as to the northward of the specified boundaries. Indeed, when I was in Torneå, which is in about 66° of latitude, they spoke of an elk that had been killed thereabouts some years previously; and stragglers are at times shot even still farther to the north.

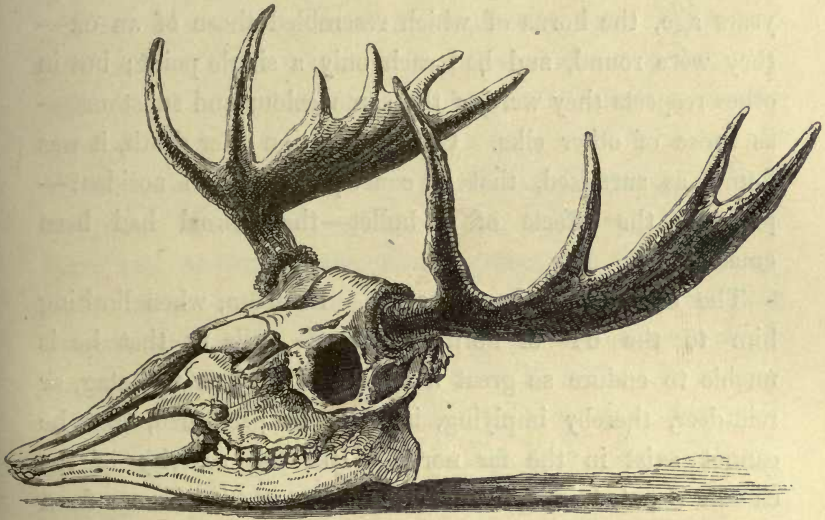
Many curious notions were formerly entertained respecting the elk. It was believed, for instance, that his legs had neither knees nor joints;—that when he slept, therefore, he leant against a tree, for the reason that if he once lay down he could not rise again;—that his long upper lip prevented him from browsing in the customary manner, so that when thus occupied, he was constrained to walk backwards;—that he was subject to epileptic fits, and cured himself by opening, with his hind-foot, a vein at the back of his ear.

By the ancient West Gothland laws, the elk, together with the fox, the wolf, the lynx, the bear, &c., was classed as a *Skade-djur*, or noxious animal; and a price was not only put

on his head, but he was allowed to be killed even on another man's property. The lucky hunter was moreover entitled to the carcase. When the number of elks was great, and the population scanty, they were no doubt inconvenient neighbours; for it cannot be denied that they not only in some degree damage the copse-wood, but occasionally make free with the Hö-hässjor, or little stacks of hay, as also of those of moss, stored up by the peasants as a winter's supply, both of which one so frequently meets with in the northern forests. These animals are besides accused of trampling down, and feeding on grain, more especially in the so-called *Svedje-fall*, or clearings in the woods, of which mention was made in my former work. But now that their numbers are so greatly thinned down, the injury they commit is comparatively trivial; and the Government has perhaps done well—though the squatters are not exactly of that opinion—in transferring the elk from the catalogue of Skade-djur, to that of game, and instead of paying premiums for his destruction, in protecting him in every way.

The elk is most ungainly in appearance; his height at the shoulders, independently of his head and neck, being greater than his length. Pontoppidan, when speaking of this animal, of which it must be confessed he gives a somewhat marvellous account, says: "He is very long-legged, insomuch that a man may stand upright under his belly." It is true, nevertheless, that he attains to an enormous size. Within the memory of man he has been killed in Sweden upwards of seven feet in height, and been known to weigh thirteen to fourteen hundred pounds. His head is of a disproportionate length, and his ears long and pendent.

His usual colour is a very dark brown. A portrait of the elk may be seen a few pages farther on.



THE ANTLERS.

The antlers of the male European elk are of the form represented in the above drawing, from a very fine horn-cranium in my possession. They are inferior in size to those of his compeer on the American continent. It is the generally received opinion that the elk, with others of the deer tribe, sheds his horns every year. But the point, though probably without reason, is questioned: some contending that this is only the case with the younger males, the horns of the adults being less frequently renewed—say

every second or third year. The female elk, as is known, has no antlers.*

The antlers of the elk are palmated; and their formation is, as with other horned animals, intimately connected with the organs of generation. One was, however, shot some years ago, the horns of which resembled those of an ox—they were round, and had each only a single point; but in other respects they were of the same colour and substance—as those of other elks. On examination after death, it was found, as surmised, that in consequence of an accident—probably the effects of a bullet—the animal had been emasculated.

The elk is of a hardy nature. Ekström, when limiting him to the 64° of northern latitude, tells us that he is unable to endure so great a degree of cold as the stag, or rein-deer, thereby implying, it is to be presumed, that he cannot exist in the far north. But the severity of the climate is not, I imagine, the real cause of his absence from the more northern portion of Lapland. This is attributable, in my opinion, to his having been exterminated—so at least it would appear, for more than one writer tells us he was formerly pretty common in that wild region.

The elk is a first-rate swimmer; he ploughs the water with such force and rapidity, that it quite foams in his front. And owing to the peculiar conformation of his hoofs, he has

* There are, however, exceptions to this rule. At the Castle of Aeschaffenburg, in Germany, for instance, there is a horn-cranium of a *female* elk, having eight points, with this significant inscription:

Schau', O Welt, ich bin ein Weib,
Und trag' des Mannes Waffen;
Ich hab' auf meinem Kopf,
Was für ihn ist erschaffen!

great facility in traversing bogs and marshy ground. His usual pace when alarmed is a long trot, very many feet intervening between each stride; but he can, if he chooses, as is not unfrequently the case, go at a tremendous gallop.

The elk's sense of smell is exquisitely fine. With care and caution, if one goes against the wind, he is not very difficult of approach, more particularly during stormy weather. But if he once scents a man, which he can do at an immense distance, he is off like lightning. Bears and other beasts will, when chased, halt every now and then, and perhaps, if the pursuit ceases, remain stationary. But it is not so with the elk; for once started, and whether followed or not, he, without looking behind him for a single instant, speeds on his course. Once in a time, it is true, after running two or three miles, he may halt; but more commonly he goes at least double that distance before coming to a stand-still, and this too in the winter, when there may be two or three feet of snow on the ground.

The elk delights in the recesses of the forests. In the summer time his favourite resorts are low and marshy grounds, where there is abundance, not only of water, but of deciduous trees. In the winter time he seeks the higher grounds and the thicker covers, for the reason, as supposed, that he may be the more sheltered from storms and bad weather.

Though we are told somewhat to the contrary, I have reason to believe that elks are not in the habit of congregating either during the winter or the summer. They would seem to live much alone, or in separate families, for one often meets with father and mother, and perhaps a fawn or two

together. It happens, however, that twelve or fifteen, or even more, are seen in company; but in these cases the animals have, probably, been previously hunted.

The elk is not a great wanderer, at least in the winter time, at which season I have had most opportunity of observing his habits. Possibly, however, this may be owing to the depth of snow impeding, in degree, his movements. If left undisturbed, indeed, he will often remain for weeks, or even months together, on the same hill-side.

If there be several elks in company, and that they be pursued, they for the most part follow in the same track, and that so exactly, and in a string as it were, that it is not always easy to see if there is more than a single one. They at times are said to keep so close together, that the snout of the one nearly rests on the haunches of the other. The old always take the lead, and the young follow in their wake. When going at a good pace, their heads are carried horizontally, so that the antlers of the males necessarily rest on their necks, and as a consequence, offer but little impediment to their progress.

Considering the density of the northern forests, and the very difficult nature of the ground, it has often astonished me to see the manner in which the elk, when pursued, will cross the country—and that as the crow flies. Neither boulders nor Vind-fällen—which, as said, are accumulations of prostrate trees—nor precipitous acclivities, impede his onward course; and he crashes through the thickest brakes and the most tangled coverts as if crossing the level and open plain. Nor does the snow, even if two or three feet deep, unless the surface be frozen, offer any serious hindrance to his movements. It has seemed to me, that when in the winter time

he thus rushes over fragments of rocks and logs, and, owing to the obstacles beneath being concealed by the snow, knows not where he places his feet, he must inevitably break his neck or legs; but such accidents are of rare occurrence, and during my long sojourn in the northern forests, only one or two instances of the kind ever came to my knowledge,

The elk is a ruminant animal. He feeds chiefly in the day time; rarely indeed during the night, unless the moon be shining bright. Hence if he be pursued for two or three consecutive days, more especially in the winter, in which time he has little facility of selecting his feeding-ground, he becomes exhausted, rather from inanition than fatigue, and falls an easy prey to the hunter.

The food of the elk varies considerably according to the season of the year. In the summer time it consists of the bark, leaves, and smaller branches of young trees; such as the aspen, the mountain-ash, the birch, the alder, the willow, and more especially of the different kinds of willow; of the sprigs of the cow-berry (*Vaccinium Vitis Idæa*, Linn.); and bilberry (*Vaccinium Myrtillus*, Linn.); of ferns, and of heather when in blossom; of several species of fungi; of the rein-deer moss; as also of different sorts of grasses and plants, more particularly those growing in marshy situations, such as rushes, sedges, the river horse-tail (*Equisetum fluviatile*, Linn.); and the marsh mari-gold (*Caltha palustris*, Linn.) During the rutting season he eats the *Ledum palustre*, Linn., which has the effect of making him more savage and inflaming his desires. In the winter, when the ground is deeply covered with snow, and when he no longer has access to the herbage beneath, his food chiefly consists of the smaller branches of the trees specified, as well as of the

leaves of the juniper and the Scotch fir ; occasionally, indeed, of those of the spruce-pine. Several kinds of lichens, especially the *Usnea barbata*, Ach., which grows in the greatest abundance on pine-trees and logs, also constitute a considerable portion of his food.

To enable the elk to get at the sprigs of the aspen, the mountain-ash, &c., he depresses the larger branches with his head ; but if the tree be of any height, and slender withal, he leans his breast against the stem, so as to bend it downwards, when, advancing step by step, he thus at length reaches the topmost boughs.

The dung of the elk varies in appearance according to the season of the year. In the summer it is somewhat loose, resembling in degree that of cattle ; but in the winter it is hard, and in size and shape not unlike so many huge cob-nuts. Where the animal has been reposing for a while, one often sees a shovel-full or two collected in a heap.

The rutting season with the elk, as with others of the deer tribe, is in the month of September and October. The male at this time utters a peculiar cry, supposed to be the *Lock-ton*, or call-note, with which he entices his mate. Ekström tells us, "It resembles a *Smäll*, or loud report, and is followed up by a snort like to that of a horse when alarmed, but much louder, and with a note as from a trombone. The *Smäll* is probably produced by his long and overhanging lips, and the snorting noise by the air being hastily and with force blown through his nostrils."

Although just prior to the rutting season, the males wander greatly in search of mates ; yet as soon as they have found a partner, the pair retire together to a dense brake, generally consisting of fir or spruce, in the wildest recesses

of the forest. Here the male forms a *Grop*, or cavity in the ground, which he very plentifully besprinkles with urine, and hence the term — *Grop*. It is said that for some three weeks, during which the rutting season continues, the pair confine themselves to the immediate vicinity of this spot—to within a space, indeed, of some few feet in diameter, which spot, of their own accord, they will on no account desert; and even should they be scared from thence by people or dogs, they will, as soon as the pursuit has ceased, return to it again. Several pair of elk are sometimes found near to the — *Grop*, the situation of which is frequently made known by the males scoring the small trees in the vicinity with their horns, or it may be twisting them in the manner of withes.

During the continuance of the rutting season, the combats between the males are at times very desperate. They usually oppose antler to antler; but occasionally fling out like a horse. When attacked by dogs or wolves, they also use the heels, but the fore-feet would seem to be their principal weapon; and they direct the sharp hoof so adroitly as seldom to miss the object at which it is directed.

The males are, at this season, somewhat savage and dangerous to approach; especially those that are driven from fair ones by more powerful rivals, and consequently necessitated to seek their fortunes elsewhere. Such elks, it is averred, are not infrequently found amongst cattle, and have been actually known to pair with cows.

The period of gestation with the female is about nine months; she brings forth in May or June one to three young ones; but it is seldom she has more than two. After the lapse of two to three days, the fawns, which are of a light brown colour, follow their dam everywhere. They keep

with her until the third year, when they are left to shift for themselves.

She is a very affectionate mother, and at times defends her progeny with desperation. It is even said that if people approach the fawns when so young that they cannot flee from the impending danger, she will attack the intruders with fury; and that though she may have left them to their fate in the first instance, she has been known to return to the spot, and savagely to charge the enemy.

Independently of man, the elk has many enemies in the northern forests. The bear now and then pulls him down, and the lynx and the glutton prey upon the fawns; but the wolf is his worst foe. Though wolves are often beaten off by the elk, they destroy numbers of those animals. No later, indeed, than the winter before the last, and just before my arrival at Halgâ Bruk in Wermeland, the remains of an elk only recently killed by these ferocious beasts, were brought to that place. They had seized the poor creature which there was reason to believe had been long hunted by them, almost immediately after leaving its lair.

Should the elk be wounded, and that the wolves come upon his bloody track—even though it be four or five days old—they are said never to leave it until they have made the deer their prize. The chase is, however, at times of long continuance. In one instance that came in degree under my personal observation, the elk must have run some fifty miles before he succumbed to his pursuers.

But the wolf occasionally pays dearly for his temerity. Only two winters ago, when in quest of a bear in the Wermeland forests, my man, on his return from executing a commission at a distance, reported having seen by the way a quantity of

blood and hair lying on the snow, from which he justly inferred a battle had recently taken place between wolves and an elk. Having other matters to attend to at the moment I took no notice of the communication; but the circumstance being mentioned to another person, he forthwith repaired to the spot, near to which he found, not as he had anticipated, a dead deer, but a wolf; which, from the wounds and bruises about its body, it was clear, had been destroyed by the antlers or hoofs of an elk.

The elk can be readily domesticated. Several instances have come to my knowledge, where they, when brought up from a tender age, have become nearly as tame as the cattle with which they were not unfrequently allowed to consort and pasture. But I never heard of this animal being trained to harness, as formerly was often the case in Scandinavia.

Some years ago I procured one of these domesticated elks, then three years old, for the late Earl of Derby. But during the short time that he was in my possession—whether owing to change of quarters, or to unacquaintance with his keepers—he was not particularly tractable. At times, indeed, he would strike out with his fore-feet—his most formidable weapon—in a very vicious manner.

When the fawns are taken at an early age—and they are difficult of capture subsequently, for after the lapse of two or three days they make exceedingly good use of their legs—they may readily be reared by the hand. In the first instance they should be fed with milk fresh from the cow, or if that be not procurable, milk should be warmed up and administered either out of a horn or a spoon; afterwards,

when they have acquired strength, they may be supplied with grass, leaves, &c.

It is on record that elk-fawns have been nurtured and brought up by a cow. But in this instance, they had for some short time previously been fed by hand.

“At first,” says the President M. of Robson, “the cow showed reluctance to the fawns, but after a while her dislike was converted into a special affection, and she licked and caressed them with great fondness. The smallest of the fawns at once began to suck, and continues so to do until the present time. The larger one will not suck, but nevertheless closely follows her step-mother whenever she goes in a large enclosed pasture; and in the meanwhile it feeds on grass, and treats itself to leaves, especially those of the willow. Its evening repast consists of a bowl of meal, mixed up with milk and water, of which it partakes with much pleasure. When dogs approach, whether it be in the field, or within the narrow enclosure or shed where they have their night quarters, the cow always defends them with courage and success. And she also evinces her displeasure when children, or mischievous boys approach too near to her adopted offspring.”

The elk is a valuable addition to the larder. Its flesh, whether fresh, salted, or smoked, is very palatable. Its skin is converted to a variety of purposes. In olden times soldiers' doublets were made of it. But old Chasseurs assure me that, singularly enough, if the animal has been much hunted, the skin becomes exceedingly thin, and comparatively worthless.

CHAPTER VIII.

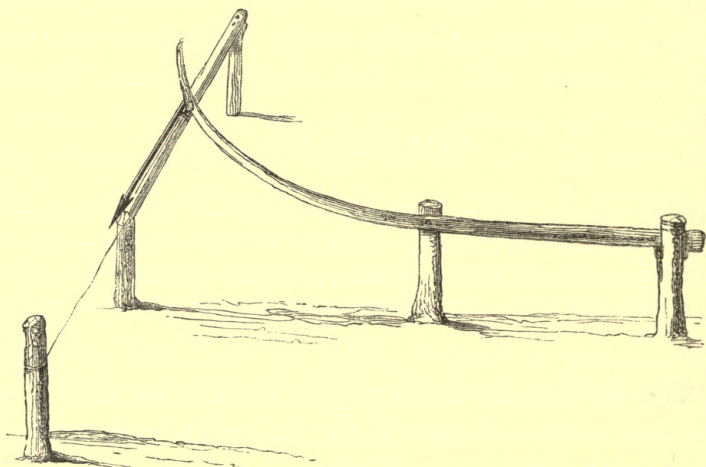
WAYS OF KILLING THE ELK—PIT-FALL—ELG-LED—A MAN IMPALED—A SUPPOSED MISS—ELUCIDATION—THE DOG WHEN IN A LEASH—WHEN AT LARGE—SHOOTING WITH A POINTER—BEGUILLED BY MUSIC—CHASSE ON SKIDOR—IMMERSION—ICE-BRIDGES—DEATH OF THE ELK—WAR TO THE KNIFE.

THE elk, from his intrinsic value alone, to say nothing of the love inherent in man to play the part of a destroyer, is much sought after in Scandinavia.

Many of these animals are taken in the *Elg-grop*, or elk-pit. This device—an illegal one, I believe—is most commonly resorted to in the more northern provinces of Sweden; but of late years it has been introduced, and with considerable success, into parts of Wermeland. The pit is of great depth and capacity, as indeed is needful, considering the bulk of the animal for whose capture it is intended.

Though I am not sure that the plan is adopted at the present day, it was formerly customary to insert crosswise a block of wood called a *Bom*, in the interior of the pit. This *Bom*, which revolved on an axis, bristled with large spikes, or spear-heads, so that when the poor elk fell into the pit, he, in

his struggles to extricate himself, was wounded at all points by the deadly implements. Certain lichens, &c., of which the elk is known to be fond, are strewed on the covering of the pit, at either side of which are high and stout fences, constructed of boughs, the better to lead the animal into the toils.*



THE ELG-LED.

Another contrivance, adopted in the northern forests for the capture of the elk, is the so-called *Elg-led*. It is a self-

* On one occasion, M. Falk, who is a great conservative, accidentally met with an Elg-grop, and being highly indignant that his favourites, the elks, should be so maltreated, he caused his people to cast a huge log into the abyss. The owner of the pit-fall, on visiting it in the grey of the morning, seeing a large dark object lying at the bottom, concluded naturally enough that he had caught an elk, and hasted home for assistance to secure the prize; but when on his return some hours afterwards, he found the trick that had been put upon him, he was perfectly dumbfounded. M. Falk, who related the incident to me, was so much amused at the *dénouement* of the affair, that his anger evaporated, and the culprit, as I believe, got off scot-free.

destroying engine, and is placed by the side of a cattle-track, or of a track of the animal's own making.

The Led—as seen in the above drawing, which represents it when gillrad—consists of a young and pliant aspen, or other tree, which after its thicker end has been fastened horizontally, about four feet from the ground, in notches cut in two upright posts, its free end is bent sideways, in the manner of a bow, and in this position rests on a rail placed at right angles, where it is secured by a wooden pin. The one end of a piece of wire is fastened to this pin, and the other end, after the wire has been drawn across the path, to a post on the other side. The arrow itself is placed in a groove on the rail in question, its end in close contact with the bow.

As with the Elg-grop, there is a fence on either side of the Led; and boughs of trees, lichens, and the like, to which the elk is partial, are scattered about the spot, to lure him to destruction. When now he attempts to pass through the opening in the fence, and breasts the wire, the pin slips out of the notch, the bow is set at liberty, and the spear is driven with tremendous force into the side of the poor animal!

Though the Led may be a very sure means of capturing the elk, it at the same time occasionally places the way-faring man in considerable peril; and hence its use, in some districts at least, is altogether prohibited. No later than the winter of 1852, a Dalecarlian Chasseur, with whom I was much in company, stated to me that a peasant in his neighbourhood had, during the preceding autumn, been pierced in the shoulder by an arrow, discharged by one of these engines. Owing, however, to the shaft having first passed through the

wallet, suspended to the man's shoulders, the wound did not prove mortal. The Chasseur stated, moreover, that at no very remote period, an individual was supposed to have met his death from the like cause; but as the body, when found, was at some little distance from the Led, from whence it was believed to have been secretly removed, and in a state of nearly total decomposition, the fact could not be brought home to the owner of the engine, and he was not therefore put upon his trial.

In certain parts of Scandinavia many elks are shot in Skalls. During the winter, and when there is snow upon the ground, so that the animals can be previously ringed, Skalls, if well conducted, are generally successful. But those that take place in the summer time, on the contrary, owing to the locale of the deer being less certain, very frequently prove failures; such at least is the case in the Wermeland and Dalecarlian forests. Great execution is, nevertheless, at times done in summer Skalls, as evidenced in those under the command of the famous Andreas Schönberg, of which mention was made in the first volume of this work. Only three or four years ago, indeed, M. Falk thus destroyed fourteen to fifteen elks in a single day; but then it must be borne in mind that one thousand or twelve hundred men took part in this hunt, which embraced a very great extent of country.

I myself never happened to be present at an elk Skall on a large scale; but at those in a small way I have seen that animal shot. A somewhat singular incident occurred to me on one of these occasions.

We were a party of eight. The elk was ringed, and as luck would have it, the dimensions of the circle were small.

Six of us were stationed at from one hundred and fifty to two hundred paces apart; and concealed ourselves behind trees or otherwise, as best we might; whilst the other two were directed to start the animal, and drive him towards us. Two shots were presently heard to the right of me; but as for a while afterwards all was still, I began to imagine the animal was either killed, or had made his escape. At last, however, at some fifty paces' distance, and in rather thick cover, I caught sight of the elk as he was on the point of breaking the Cordon. Though the snow was nearly three feet deep, he was galloping, and his movements so silent, that my ears alone would never have made me aware of his presence. Having a double-barrelled gun ready cocked in my hand, I at once let fly right and left, though apparently without effect, for he speeded on his course as if nothing had happened. Being a tolerable shot in cover, the object aimed at large, and the range short, I was somewhat puzzled at this; and the more so when shortly afterwards told by the man posted next to me, and exactly in the line of my fire, that I had missed the elk altogether, both of my balls having struck the snow near to where he stood. And this his assertion bore the semblance of truth; for on examining the track of the deer neither blood nor hair was to be seen. Nevertheless, I had my doubts; and after our party had collected, we went in pursuit, and had not gone far when we perceived the poor creature prostrate, and at its last gasp. A fire was presently kindled, and the deer (large as a heifer) quickly flayed, when it was found that, independently of a ball which one of the party had lodged in his body prior to my firing, both of my balls, known by the greater apertures in the skin, instead of having

missed the animal altogether, as asserted, had not only taken effect in his broadside, but actually passed through and through his carcase; a discovery that at once explained the man's story as to the balls having dropped at his feet.

Though Skalls are all very well, yet the Chasse of the elk, as that of the bear, when a man is alone, so to speak, is a far more exciting and pleasurable amusement; and with the assistance of a good dog, it is not very difficult to kill those animals as well during the winter as the summer.

The plan of operations, as concerns the dog, varies greatly in different districts. In the upper parts of Wermeland, and in certain districts of Norway, the system adopted is somewhat curious. "With his well-trained dog, in a long leash," to quote from my former work, "the sportsman proceeds during the autumnal months to places which there is reason to suppose are frequented by the elk. Whilst traversing the forest, he halts occasionally, more especially on eminences, to give the dog the wind. This the intelligent animal seems perfectly to understand; for raising his head in the air, he snuffs the passing breeze. When, therefore, the dog has got scent of the elk—which I have seen him do from a very long distance—the man allows him, though still in the leash, to draw upon the animal, and follows after as quickly as he is able. When the dog has approached to within a short distance of the elk, he evinces, by his anxiety, that the deer is not far off. The man now proceeds with every deliberation and caution. That his movements may be effected with greater silence, he generally ties the dog—who is too well broke to give tongue

in the absence of his master—to a tree or bush, and alone reconnoitres the surrounding country. Thus the man not unfrequently succeeds in getting a view of the elk, either whilst lying down or feeding, and of slaughtering him with his rifle; but much more frequently the elk, from his exquisite sense of smelling and of hearing, takes the alarm, and goes off at the top of his speed. The sportsman has now the same game to play over again; and thus he may sometimes go on for days, without succeeding in obtaining even a shot. This does not arise so much from the scarcity of elks, as from their extreme shyness.

“It is not difficult to follow the same elk, even during the summer time, for a day or two together; for at that season he, for the most part, holds to the morasses and low grounds, where his track is in general perceptible. At times, however, one is thrown out; but on such occasions a good dog will generally enable the sportsman to retrieve the lost track.

“Hard-blowing weather is the best for the purpose, as the noise made among the trees by the wind prevents the elk from hearing the approach of the hunter; the scent is then breast high, and the dog, in consequence, is enabled to take a man in a direct line up to the game. If it be calm, on the contrary, the dog cannot wind the elk from any considerable distance, and the latter, besides, is then able to hear the slightest noise.

“But when people are pursuing this sport, they must be careful not to allow the leash out of their hands, which is likely enough to occur, owing to the eagerness of the dog. An old Chasseur told me that a circumstance of this kind happened to himself; but though he searched the forest in

every direction for many successive days, he was never able to find the poor animal, who had doubtless perished of hunger, in consequence of the leash getting entangled among the trees."

In other instances the dog is allowed to range at large. If properly trained, however, he should not open on the track of the elk, and not until he is immediately up with him. In that case the deer, taken by surprise, instead of fleeing, frequently stands at bay; and if the dog be high-couraged, and carries on his attack vigorously, the chances are that his master, if at all near to the spot, will have time to approach within range of the elk, and to put an end to his career. But if, on the contrary, the dog, when he first hits upon the trail, at once gives tongue, as is too often the case, the probability is, that the deer will take the alarm, and move off. From their superior courage, one has always the best chance of success with old male elks, and that more especially during the rutting season, at which time, as said, they are very savage.

But high-couraged dogs, when thus in conflict, as it were, with the elk, come badly off at times. Only two years since, indeed, I saw a dog brought down from the forest in a most cruelly mangled state; and though the poor creature eventually recovered, it is doubtful to me if he will ever be himself again.

"The elk," M. Greiff says, "may be readily shot with the assistance of a pointer." But this gentleman has left us in the dark as to the manner in which the feat is to be accomplished. The late President M. af Robson, who often accompanied M. Greiff on his sporting excursions, tells us, however, that it was done in this wise :

“As soon as the dog got scent of the elks, he would draw very carefully, almost upon his belly indeed, towards them. During this time he would occasionally look back upon his master, who followed close behind; and this manœuvre was the oftener repeated, the nearer he approached the deer. When therefore his master was convinced that they could not be far distant, he would signal the dog to make a cast to one side. This the sagacious animal perfectly understood, and fetching a half circle in the same cautious manner as before, he, when sure that the elks were between himself and M. Greiff, would close upon them. They were generally lying on the ground; but on seeing the dog, they would get on to their legs and gaze at him attentively. And he in his turn would challenge to them every now and then. It seldom happened, however, that they were so much alarmed as to take to flight. So far from running away, indeed, they would in most instances show a bold front to the enemy, and either oppose him with their antlers, or strike at him with their fore-feet, the most formidable of their weapons. In this while his master would stealthily approach the spot, and from the attention of the elks being altogether taken up with the dog, he was in most instances enabled to sight the animals before he himself was discovered. It was needful, however, so to place the ball that the deer fell dead on the spot, or at all events at no long distance, because the dog would not follow their tracks, but come creeping back as if to receive farther orders. These were generally that he should remain at the *Valplats*, or battle-field, where the elks often returned after a time in search, as it would seem, of their fallen companion, or they halted again elsewhere in the forest, when the same manœuvre was repeated.”

We have the saying in England, that great fiddlers are never good for much besides. But if there is truth in the story that was current in Dalecarlia, when I last visited that province, the best scrapers on cat-gut are, at all events, the most successful elk-shooters. How the idea was hit upon I am at a loss to divine; but it is affirmed, that if a man places himself in ambush, and plays the violin (the particular tune I know not), the deer, if within hearing, will forthwith make up to the spot, when their doom is usually soon decided. During 1851, or 1852, however, a man in the parish of Wenjan, whilst adopting this expedient, was nearly forfeiting his own life. I could never get at the rights of the story; but it would seem that on the elks nearing the ambush, where, instead of dulcet sounds, they were greeted very differently, they became so enraged as to make a furious charge at the unfortunate wight, and maltreated him to that degree with their hoofs and antlers, that it was with extreme difficulty he made good his retreat; and not altogether unscathed either, for his wounds were so severe as to confine him to bed for more than a month afterwards. The poor fiddler, himself, was unarmed; but he had two comrades in ambush at a little distance. Owing, however, to fright, or some hitch or other, the mischief was done, and the elks had retreated before the men came to the rescue.

The larger portion of elks slaughtered in Scandinavia are probably run down on Skidor in the winter; at times, with the assistance of dogs, which, if well trained, are of immense service; but just as often without their aid. If the snow be deep, and the surface sufficiently hard frozen to support the Skidor, but not the elk, the task is not a

difficult one ; for though it is true, that even under these favourable circumstances the chase may last a day or two, it more commonly is brought to a successful termination in the course of a few hours, or even much less. But should the snow, on the contrary, be in an unfavourable state, the pursuit may be of long continuance, and after all end in disappointment.

This, on several occasions, has happened to myself. In one instance two Finnar and I chased a small herd of elks for four consecutive days on Skidor, and until they were evidently all but beaten. Had the frost continued, one or more of them would in all probability have become our prize ; but unfortunately a rapid thaw set in, which compelled us to give up farther pursuit, and to face for home, from which we were then distant nearer thirty than twenty miles.

Even under the most discouraging circumstances, success has attended my endeavours. One April morning, for instance, I and a Finn started from Brunberget, in the Wermeland Finn-forests, and crossed the Dalecarlian frontier in search of elks. About noon we fell in with the stale tracks of two of those animals. It was a frosty day, and the snow, from there being a crust upon it, in favourable order for the Skidor. The deer had taken an easterly course, and from the tracks being very tortuous, we were led many and many a weary mile ; but as the tracks became fresher and fresher as we advanced, we pushed on with the greater ardour.

Evening nevertheless closed in upon us before we could come up with the animals ; and we therefore prepared a bivouac in the usual manner. The weather was fine, and, though without other covering than the

clothes we wore, which were scanty enough, the night was passed with tolerable comfort. As, however, at that season of the year the hours of darkness were few, our rest was not a very lengthened one, and on the following morning, at an early hour, we were again following the tracks. But it must have been seven or eight o'clock before we succeeded in starting the deer, which was on a pretty lofty and deeply-wooded eminence to the eastward of the considerable river, Westra Dal-Elfvén, that empties itself into the Bothnian Gulf near to the town of Gefle. The dogs were now slipped, and chase given at our best pace, which was by no means a slow one. The deer, when first started, doubled more than once, which somewhat puzzled both us and the dogs; but after a time they separated, and took opposite directions. We pursued the track of the larger one, which for a time kept a pretty straight course. Hill and valley were traversed in turn, and neither broken ground, nor dense brakes, stopped our progress.

The run had not been of any very long continuance, however, when I received, as I imagined, a severe blow on the back of my right leg, accompanied by a report as loud at least as the explosion of a copper cap. Turning round on the instant, I found that, instead of a blow, as I at first supposed, one of the tendons of my right leg had snapped,* and excessive lameness immediately ensued. I was naturally in great tribulation, conceiving it all over with

* At an after-period, and whilst pheasant shooting in England, a similar circumstance occurred to me; but though in both instances I halted for a long time afterwards, my leg, eventually, perfectly recovered, and I now no longer feel the effects of the injuries.

me, not only for that day, but for many to come. In this matter, however, I was in error; for as the forward movement when one is on Skidor is made with the left foot, the right being merely drawn after it, I managed, though in pain, to hobble forwards tolerably well.

For a time the dogs kept well with the elk; and from hearing their challenges every now and then in the distance, we were enabled to make many a short cut, and thus to gain on him considerably. Once whilst crossing a large lake, divested in great degree of snow, the deer, as we observed by his tracks, had slipped on the glassy surface, and fallen heavily;* but the tumble seemed in no way to have injured him, for he had picked himself up again, and speeded on his way as if nothing had happened.

In spite of our best exertions, it was long past mid-day before we sighted the deer on an open morass, as he was crossing a frozen brook; but the ice gave way beneath his weight, and he was instantly plunged into the water. In a few seconds afterwards, however, he landed on the opposite bank, apparently none the worse for his bath, and continued his course.

Later in the day we rested a while, and then renewed the chase. But our strength and spirits had by this time

* Some two or three years ago, whilst the people, after divine service, were returning from Fryksände church in Wermeland, they met an elk, but whether hunted or not was unknown, which, to avoid them, diverged from his course, and made across the lake Fryken. But the ice being slippery, the animal fell; and either during the fall, or the subsequent attempts to rise, he wounded himself so severely, that when put on to his legs again by the spectators, he was unable to retreat. He was therefore left helpless on the strand—the Länsmän, who was present, saying, that as the deer was Crown property, no one must molest him.

somewhat flagged, so that we could no longer proceed with the same speed as in the morning. The deer also evinced symptoms of weariness; but though we did not see him more that day, we were close upon him more than once. This we knew by the dogs, who ever and anon started him from brakes, where fatigue had caused him to make temporary halts.

Pretty late in the afternoon the chase led us back to the Dal, the river we had crossed in the morning, though at a considerable distance farther to the northward. Here the stream was dead and sluggish, and the ice so thick, that all the artillery in the world might have crossed with impunity. A little above this point there was a succession of rapids, also partially frozen over. Everywhere the ice stretched out from the land far into the stream; and in some places spanned it altogether. But as the water had fallen considerably since the commencement of the winter, a vacuum of a foot or two was left between it and the ice, which thus formed a suspension bridge so to speak. There were, however, many and large openings in the middle of the river, where the strong current, rolling over its rocky bed, was visible to the eye. Thirsting perhaps, and desirous of laving its fevered body, the deer had taken to the water at the lower part of the rapids, and, as we saw by his tracks, followed them up for a long distance. How he managed to make his way over the several ice bridges spoken of, more than one of which had broken down under his weight, and had thus caused his immersion in the stream, quite puzzled my comprehension. In some places, from the shoalness of the water, his long legs had, no doubt, enabled him to wade; but in others, it was quite evident, he had been obliged to have recourse to swim-

ming. Whilst we were thus pursuing his tracks amongst the ice and broken water, I, for my part, expected every moment to find him imprisoned in some hole or other, or that the stream had carried him bodily under the overhanging ice, and that consequently he had perished.* But nothing of the kind; for it presently appeared that, after enjoying his bath, which had no doubt greatly tended to invigorate and refresh him, and that he had nearly reached the smooth water above the rapids, he had diverged to the left from the river, and again betaken himself to the forest.

This night we also passed in the open air; and as our fire burnt bright, and the cold was not great, we had no reason to complain of our quarters.

Hitherto the weather had been fine and frosty; and had this favourable state of things continued, there was every prospect of our being enabled on the morrow, to give a good account of the elk, which was evidently greatly wearied and exhausted. To our extreme annoyance, however, we found, on awakening at daybreak, that a rapid thaw had set in, that in every way told against us; for there was no longer, as heretofore, a crust on the surface of the snow, which, whilst it greatly facilitated the movements of ourselves and the dogs, retarded, in the same proportion, those of the deer; and we therefore considered the chances of success as ten to one against us. But remembering the old Swedish proverb, "*Tålmod öfvervinner surkål*,"—literally, patience overcomes sourcroot—we determined to persevere; and after enjoying a cup of strong coffee (the greatest of all luxuries when one is

* Two winters ago an elk, under similar circumstances, betook himself to these very rapids; but the stream carried him under the ice, and he was consequently lost to the hunter.

roughing it in the forest), we again started off, on what was then considered an almost hopeless pursuit.

Coupling the dogs, we at first quietly followed on the tracks of the deer for the purpose of ringing him, which object was effected on an elevated knoll at no great distance from the bivouac. Before starting an elk, it is always desirable to adopt this course, for knowing his whereabouts one has then a better chance of stealing upon the animal whilst in his lair, or whilst feeding. In this instance, however, our endeavour to circumvent the deer proved unsuccessful; for before we could approach to within anything like gun-shot of his lair, he had taken the alarm and decamped.

Nothing now remained for us but to slip the dogs, and to follow on the tracks of the deer, and trust to the chapter of accidents; but owing to the very unfavourable state of the snow, our best pace was a most sorry one. We were greatly out of heart, and the dogs sadly tired from their exertions on the preceding day; and though they did their utmost, they were unable, for some time at least, to close with the elk.

Thus we continued to drag ourselves forward, until long after noon, when, just as we had reached the brow of a pretty lofty and deeply-wooded knoll, the dogs were heard challenging in the valley beneath us. At first we imagined it was a bear they had fallen in with, and hastened to their assistance; but on reaching the spot, it was found to be the elk we had so long chased. He was standing nearly hock deep in the snow, and so completely exhausted, as not only to be unable to advance another step, but unresistingly to allow the dogs to pluck the long hair from his hind-quarters. He was so fairly beaten, indeed, that it is my firm impression

a halter might with facility have been placed about his neck. A bullet that I sent through his head, soon put a period to his miseries and his life.

We now got up a fire, and set to work flaying and dismembering the deer, which occupied a considerable time. Subsequently, and as a protection from the wolves and the weather, we placed the skin and the meat *en cache*, and then made our way to the nearest habitation, distant several miles, where we arrived two or three hours after dark; and though bivouacing is all very well in its way, I was not sorry, I must confess, after the fatigue we had undergone, to turn into something like a bed, and to have the shelter of a friendly roof.

During the rutting season, as said, the elk is somewhat savage, and occasionally attacks people. When chased at other seasons of the year he has also been known to turn on his pursuers.

During the winter of 1850-1—and the incident occurred in the immediate vicinity of where I was then sojourning—a Dalecarlian Chasseur was in great jeopardy from an elk. In company with two other persons, he had long pursued a huge male, which tired out by the length of the chase, and the great depth of snow, finally betook himself to Glynn-sjön, a fine lake in Western Dalecarlia, then firmly frozen over, where the men for the first time viewed the animal. From the ice being but thinly coated with snow, the elk was here enabled to go at his own pace, and consequently had the best of his pursuers; and finding this to be the case, he doubled backwards and forwards on the lake, and would not for a long time leave the vantage-ground. During this time the party, which from some cause or other only

possessed a single gun, fired several times at the deer. And though at the second discharge, the piece burst near to the muzzle—of which some six to eight inches were carried clean away—other discharges, and with good effect, were subsequently made with the stump of the barrel. At length, however, the men succeeded in driving the animal from off the lake, when he again betook himself to the forest.

Here the chase was continued; but all at once, and in pretty close cover, the elk wheeled suddenly about, and retracing his own tracks, which the men were following, made a desperate rush at the headmost—who was somewhat in advance of his comrades, and who, from being encumbered with Skidor, was unable to get out of his way—and instantly knocked him over. Happily for the poor fellow, the infuriated animal, owing to wounds and exhaustion, fell at the same time alongside of him; when the man not being seriously injured, after a while was enabled to rise on his knees; and with great presence of mind, with his left hand seizing hold of one of the long, pendent ears of the deer, and drawing forth his knife with his right, succeeded, after a desperate struggle, in cutting the throat of his antagonist.

CHAPTER IX.

GUSTAVUS VASA—HIS BIRTH—OMENS OF GREATNESS—HIS EDUCATION—
BEAUTY OF HIS PERSON—CHRISTIAN THE TYRANT—HIS DISSOLUTE
HABITS—DUPLICITY—HE FALLS IN LOVE—HIS INAMORATA DIES—HIS
CONTEMPT FOR LAW—HIS ATROCITIES.

WHILST pursuing the elk and the bear in the interminable forests of Dalecarlia, so celebrated for the bravery and loyalty of its inhabitants, I was frequently reminded of the great Gustavus Vasa. When a price was put on his head, and when beset on every hand by enemies, it was here the hero found a refuge. As with Prince Charles Edward in 1745, his perils and escapes whilst wandering in this province were manifold and wonderful; and as they may not be generally known in England, I subjoin some account of his adventures.

To make my little narrative clear, however, it is needful first to say a few words of the then state of political affairs in the north, and of the early life of Gustavus; as also to give some account of more than one of his contemporaries, who acted prominent parts in the same drama as himself.

Towards the close of the fourteenth century, Margareta, surnamed the Semiramis of the North, daughter of Waldemar Atterdag, King of Denmark, in virtue of her own right, and by marriage, succeeded not only to the Crown of that realm, but to those of Norway and Sweden. Having no children, she prevailed on the Estates of the three kingdoms, then assembled at Calmar, to elect her son, Erik of Pomerania, as her successor; as also to make a solemn compact, called from the act being ratified in that town, the "Calmar Union," which ordained that from that time forward the three crowns should be borne by one and the same head.

At Margareta's death, Erik therefore assumed the sceptre of the three kingdoms, under the title, as regarded Sweden, of Erik XIII.; but his misdeeds were such, that he was at length expelled from Sweden. His successors to the thrones of Denmark and Norway—Christopher, Christian I., Johan II., and Christian II.—either met with the like fate, or, in consequence of not conforming to the articles of the "Calmar Union," were unacknowledged by the Swedish Diet. But all these princes, in virtue of the act in question, still severally asserted their right to the Swedish Crown; and as there was always a powerful Danish party in Sweden, wars and insurrections in their favour were of very frequent occurrence.

During these several interregnums, Sweden, with the exception of one king of her own choice, Carl Knutson, was governed by *Riks-föreståndare*, or Regents. Sten Sture the elder; Svante Sture, his relative; and the son of the latter, Sten Sture the younger—all undying names in Swedish history—filled, amongst others, this high office. They were all great and good men, and their measures invariably

directed to benefit their father-land ; and being besides distinguished warriors, which in those troublous times was a matter of vast importance, they were almost idolized by the people.

The exact period of the birth of Gustavus is wrapped in some obscurity ;* but it is supposed to have occurred about the year 1490. It is said that the ladies present at his birth noticed a caul, or what in Swedish is termed *Segeer-hufva* (literally, cap of victory), on the child's head, and a red cross on his breast, which in those days were looked upon as omens of his future greatness.

On the side of both father and mother he could lay claim to some of the best and most ancient blood in Sweden. His correct name was Eriksson (or the son of Erik), the surname of Vasa being derived either from the estate of Vasa, or, more probably, from the family arms—a *Vase*, or sheaf of grain. He was ushered into the world at Lindholmen, a *Borg*, or fortified palace in the province of Upland, the ruins of which are still extant, where his father, like other feudal lords of the time, held a sort of court.

At the age of six, Gustavus was removed from the paternal roof to the Court of his relative, Sten Sture the elder, the then Regent, to be brought up and educated, where every justice was done him. As his food and manner of living were simple, and his great delight was to ramble with his comrades amongst the woods and rocks,

* The annals of Sweden, at and previous to this time, are unfortunately very obscure and uncertain, owing to the dreadful conflagration which occurred in Stockholm in the year 1697, by which event the royal library was consumed, containing eighteen thousand printed books—a very large quantity for that country and those times—together with four thousand manuscripts, many of which referred to anterior epochs.

he acquired a healthy and robust frame, a cheerful and daring spirit, and soon became a general favourite.

About three years afterwards, when by negotiation and compromise, King Johan of Denmark reigned in Sweden, and Sten Sture had in consequence laid down his high office and retired into private life, the monarch paid a visit to the ex-Regent,* and saw Gustavus, then in his ninth year, gambolling about the hall. Calling the boy to him, and attentively contemplating his handsome and animated countenance, he patted him on the head and said: "Should you live, you will be a distinguished man in your day." But reflecting on the youngster's very striking appearance, and high connections, and fearing that in him he should hereafter find an obstacle to his bringing Sweden, as was his object, under the absolute dominion of Denmark, he requested Sten Sture "to send the fine lad to Copenhagen, that he might be brought up at his Court." Seeing at once through Johan's motives, which were to wean the child from love to his country, the ex-Regent instantly replied: "Gustavus, as yet, is too young to be taken from his parents," to whom, indeed, he was privately sent shortly afterwards.

It is said that when the King at an after-period heard the great accomplishments of Gustavus spoken of, he remarked: "The wolf's cub has escaped out of my net."

For some years, Gustavus either spent his time at home, or at the University of Upsala, where he benefited by the best

* It is recorded of Johan, that he at one time had thoughts of putting Sture to death, but was dissuaded therefrom by one of his counsellors, who said: "The ex-Regent is now like an old rotten egg; so long as it is whole, it will injure no one; but if broken, its stink will spread far and wide."

instructors—public as well as private. His talents were such, that he soon made himself master of every subject to which he turned his attention ; and his amiable and condescending manners won him golden opinions, as well from his teachers as his fellow-students, from several of whom, indeed, he in after-life received essential service.

Subsequently he resided at the Court of the Regent, Svante Sture, King Johan having some time before been driven out of the country for misrule ; and after the death of Svante Sture, he remained at the Court of his son, Sten Sture the younger, who held the same high appointment, where he was soon regarded by every one with kindness and favour.

And this more especially by Hemming Gadd—the faithful friend and counsellor, as well of the then Regent, as of his father before him—between whom and Gustavus, indeed, the strictest intimacy soon subsisted. From this experienced statesman, and at that time determined enemy of the Danes (for as with other of his countrymen, he at an after-period went over to the enemy), Gustavus acquired a perfect knowledge of the internal affairs of Denmark, and of the relations, secret and otherwise, between that kingdom and Sweden ; and as a consequence, he imbibed a greater hatred to the Danes and to the Union between the two countries, an increased love for his father-land, and a fixed determination to sacrifice everything for its welfare.

Gustavus was in person handsome, and in his bearing noble and imposing. He was upwards of six feet in height, his body without blemish, his arms strong, and his hands and feet small and beautiful.

In disposition he was cheerful, and in all knightly exercises highly accomplished. His voice was powerful, yet soft and

melodious; and such was the power of his eloquence and persuasiveness, that when addressing an assembly, he seldom failed to convince and to gain adherents.

King Johan died in his hereditary dominions, Denmark, in the year 1513, leaving to his son, Christian II., all his rights to the Swedish crown, which rights, whether real or imaginary, the Dane felt by no means inclined to forego.

The Seger-hufva, or caul, which Gustavus is reported to have had on his head, was considered ominous of his future brilliant fortune. Christian, on the contrary, according to the old chronicles, came into the world with his fist clenched, and his hands filled with blood; from which the superstitions of those days augured that he would turn out—as was unhappily the case—a cruel and sanguinary villain.

It is recorded that on one occasion, during Christian's infancy, a large ape snatched him from his nurse's arms, and ascended with him to the roof of the palace, whence, however, unluckily for humanity, the animal after a time brought him down again in safety. In childhood he evinced a morose and savage disposition, which increased with his years. Much of this was perhaps hereditary, for his father, King Johan, in the latter part of his life, was of a most violent temper, amounting at times almost to insanity.

Christian was first placed under the care of a dignitary of the Church, but neither admonition nor severe punishment could bring him to reason and obedience. This young Prince had a peculiar fancy for climbing upon the highest roofs, walls, &c. His preceptor warned him against the dangerous practice, saying: "Those who climb the highest fall the lowest." But Christian very impudently replied:

“Low places are only fit for low people, high places for those who are high born.” His parts were not bad; but wanting application, he made no very great progress in his studies. He understood and wrote Latin, however, an accomplishment not very common in those days.

As he grew up he led a dissipated life, in which he was encouraged by many who were anxious to win the favour of this rising sun. He and his gay associates were accustomed to bribe the guards of the palace gates, to let them in and out at pleasure; and in company they used to roam the city throughout the night, engaging the while in all kinds of dissolute and ridiculous adventures, and at times indeed in acts of violence. Their orgies, which were drunken and licentious to excess, at length became town-talk; and report of them finally reaching the King's ears, he sent for his hopeful son, and gave him not only a stern lecture, but so severe a thrashing, that he fell on his knees and vehemently promised never more to offend. Johan, however, had but little reliance on either him or his word, and used to say: “He would turn out a degenerate and bad man.”

When in his twentieth year, and for the purpose of giving employment to his hasty and uncertain temper, his father sent him to Norway, to quell an insurrection that had recently broken out in that country. Here, whilst effecting his object, which he gained partly by force, but principally by the vilest treachery and deceit, he displayed both capacity and courage; but was, at the same time, guilty of such excessive cruelty, as to destroy for the most part the Norwegian nobility, who, at that time, were very powerful.

Some few of these unfortunate men escaped, and took shelter in the interior of the country, where their descend-

ants lived obscure and unnoticed. But they were not unmindful of their high descent; and to this day one may occasionally see in the larger of the peasants' houses, amongst the distant fjälls, the pedigree of the family, cut in the broad beams of which the buildings are constructed, and often traced up to their most celebrated heroes and kings.

Prince Christian was subsequently sent by his father, King Johan, on an expedition into Sweden, where also he was guilty of gross duplicity and extreme cruelty. Fire, rapine, and murder followed his footsteps, so that his name carried a terror with it over the whole of the north.

Although in this and the preceding campaign in Norway, Christian, by the frequent forfeiture of his word, by his abominable deceitfulness, and his great barbarities, had dishonoured his rank, one at least of his opponents evinced towards him so very knightly and chivalrous a spirit, as to be deserving of record.

This was a Swedish nobleman, named Åke Johansson Natt och Dag,* who had been sent by Sture, the Regent, with a considerable force—horse as well as foot—to relieve the fortress of Elfsborg, then hard-pressed by the Prince. Leaving the infantry to follow as best they could, the chieftain, with the cavalry alone, hastened to the assistance of the place. On the way he learnt that it had fallen, and that the garrison had been mercilessly put to the sword. But this did not retard his onward course. When, however, he with his people reached the outskirts of the Danish camp, which was situated in a meadow, a thick mist hung over it; and the enemy, unsuspecting of danger, were quietly slumbering

* Natt och Dag literally signifies night and day.

in their tents. "Blow," said the gallant Åke, turning to his trumpeter, "and wake them up." But the man hesitated, and remarked that as the Danes were at their mercy, then was the time to revenge themselves. "No," said the noble-minded Swede, "let us have a fair fight. It would be disgraceful to murder a King's son and so many noble gentlemen in their deepest sleep." The man still delaying to obey his order, Åke exclaimed with an oath: "Blow, I say, or I will send my spear through your body!" At this threat the trumpeter sounded his bugle, on which the knight dashed forward with his cavalry, and committed great slaughter amongst the enemy. But fortune deserted him after a time, and the infantry not coming to his assistance, he and his people were at last driven out of the encampment with considerable loss.

In the early part of his reign, Christian, so far from showing the ferocity and cruelty generally laid to his charge, took many steps in the right direction. Among other beneficial measures, he greatly ameliorated the condition of the peasantry, who previously had been little better than slaves to the nobles. By this course he won their regard. Historians, however, say this was done for the purpose of crushing the powers of the great seigneurs, so that he alone might rule supreme.

When on his Norwegian expedition, he fell desperately in love with a young girl of Dutch extraction, named Dyvika, the handsomest woman, by every account, in all the north. On the death of his father in 1513, he sent for her to Copenhagen; and as she was of a mild and affectionate disposition, it was supposed that the alteration observable in his behaviour originated in great part from the harmo-

nizing effects of his deep attachment to the young beauty: his "Little Dove," as he used to call her—which indeed, by the transposition of a single letter, her own name implied.

In 1515, Christian formed a matrimonial alliance with Isabella, sister to the Emperor Charles V., with whom he received a large dower. Though the Queen was herself a beautiful woman, and that it had been specially agreed before the nuptials that he should separate from Dyvika, he, in total disregard to the feelings of his wife, and to the great displeasure of the *Råd*, or Council, and of the whole kingdom, still openly retained her as his mistress.

Very shortly afterwards Dyvika died suddenly, on which Christian was overwhelmed with grief; and having reason to suppose poison had been administered to her, his anger knew no bounds. And there being no one now to soothe the outbreaks of his ferocious temper, his tiger-like nature revived with redoubled fury.

Torbern Oxe, a distinguished nobleman at the Court of Denmark, was his first victim. This man, who was held in high estimation by every one, and who was remarkable as well for the beauty of his person, as his proficiency in all the accomplishments of the time, had been a great admirer of Dyvika's extraordinary loveliness—a regard which was said to be reciprocal—for which reason Christian always entertained a feeling of enmity towards him. In addition to this, it was reported that from jealousy, or other cause, the knight had had a hand in the death of the poor girl.

The Tyrant therefore caused Torbern to be arraigned, and that on the most extraordinary charge of having polluted the royal bed. But the Council said, and with

truth, that this could never be the case, as Isabella, and not Dyvika, was his lawful wife; and that there was, besides, no evidence to doom him to punishment. The King was furious at this decision. "If I myself had had so many friends in the Council as Torbern had relatives," he said, "the case would have been different;" and added with an oath, "if Torbern had a neck as thick as that of an ox, he should nevertheless lose his head."

The Tyrant now ordered twelve peasants from the country into Copenhagen, where they were surrounded by a strong guard; and Torbern was again put upon his trial. Though this second jury, like the first, saw nothing in the evidence to bring the charge home to the prisoner, they greatly feared the King's wrath, and in their terror brought in the following verdict: "That not they themselves, but Torbern's *deeds* condemned him." This decision, extraordinary as it was, sufficed for Christian. And although all the relatives of the doomed man prayed for his pardon; though all the nobility in a body petitioned to the same effect; though the Pope's Legate and the whole of the Council made interest for him; and finally, though all the most distinguished women in Copenhagen, with Queen Isabella at their head, went up in solemn procession, and, throwing themselves at his feet, sued for forgiveness—nothing could turn the bloody-minded man from his wicked purpose; and before the evening of the following day the head of the unhappy Torbern rolled in the dust!

From that time forward, Christian gave himself up more than ever to his savage propensities. His principal adviser was Sigbrit, the mother of his lost Dyvika, a woman of

mean birth, and of a crafty and ambitious disposition; and few things were done without her counsel and sanction.

Among the Tyrant's other atrocities, it is recorded that though Knut Knutsson, a Norwegian nobleman of great weight and influence, whom he had caused to be arraigned for high treason, before both the Swedish and the Norwegian Council, had been acquitted by both, he nevertheless put him to death, and confiscated his property. On another occasion, when a Danish nobleman—Mogens Tomisson—was accused of having ill-treated his serfs, he, although the poor man was then in his grave, without legal investigation, or judgment of any kind, caused the body to be exhumed and hanged on a gallows, for the purpose of terrifying his compeers.

For a while, Christian had the support of the lower orders; for though fully aware of the injustice of his cruel and atrocious proceedings, they rejoiced to see the destruction of their oppressors. But at length even this class became estranged from the Tyrant, and it was only the fear of his revenge that withheld them from rising in open revolt.

CHAPTER X.

STATE OF POLITICS—BISHOPS IN OLDEN TIMES—ARCHBISHOP TROLLE—THE PAPAL BULL—BATTLE OF DUFVENÅS—CUNNING DEVICE—BATTLE OF BRÄNNKYRKA—GUSTAVUS A PRISONER—HIS ESCAPE—HIS APPEAL TO THE LUBECKERS—HE SAILS FOR SWEDEN—HIS ARRIVAL AT CALMAR—MEETING WITH HIS SISTER—VISIT TO ARCHBISHOP ULFSON—THE PRELATE'S ADVICE.

ON the accession of Christian to the Crown of Denmark, peace—nominally, at least—existed between that country and Sweden, then governed by the Regent, Sten Sture the younger. The monarch, however, was by no means inclined to relinquish his rights to the Swedish throne; and in the event of negotiations, then pending, failing to effect this object in a peaceable way, he only waited a favourable opportunity—which was not long wanting—of asserting them by force of arms.

There was a strong Danish party in Sweden, especially amongst the nobles and clergy; but Christian's chief adherent was the Archbishop Trolle, who was at the head of the Church, and in his way a second Cardinal Wolsey. From his commanding position, and unbounded influence, this prelate was a tower of strength in himself.

In those days, the riches and power of the Swedish bishops, and the splendid style in which they lived, almost exceeded credence. The greater portion of them belonged to the noblest and wealthiest families of the land, and prior to their induction were therefore possessed of both influence and wealth. When to these advantages were added the consideration and reverence attached to their high rank in the Church, and the incomes of their sees, which were always very large, and often princely, their position was far above that of any other class in the community. In the council-chamber, the seat of the Archbishop was placed above that of the Regent; and even a Bishop took precedence of every one else. They had their *Borgar*, or fortified palaces, and held splendid courts, where the sons of poor noblemen officiated as pages, or played the part of courtiers. They had also vast numbers of retainers, servants, horses, &c., and fared most sumptuously every day. When journeying through the country, their *cortège* used at one time to be so inconveniently large, that a law was enacted restricting them to thirty horses. Many of the bishops, not content with wearing the mitre, wielded the sword; and not a few greatly distinguished themselves in the field. Speaking generally, they forgot their sacred calling, and not only neglected the spiritual welfare of their flocks, but under the mask of holiness, led voluptuous and scandalous lives. With habits such as these, it is little to be wondered at that they were so often found in opposition to the governing powers, and mixed up in the feuds and insurrections that at that period so distracted the country.

Great, however, as was the state and magnificence which the bishops of those days kept up, they were very far

eclipsed by Trolle, who held a court exceeding in splendour those of his contemporaries, or even of the Regent himself.

This prelate, who was of a haughty, ambitious and implacable temper, was elected to his See by the Chapter of Upsala, at the time Sten Sture the younger ruled in Sweden. And when the Pope confirmed his appointment, he sent him a missive exempting him from appearing before any Court other than that of Rome, for any crimes, political or otherwise, that he had already committed, or might be guilty of hereafter.

From the very first, Trolle was in league with Christian, and a bitter enemy to the Regent—a fact of which he made no great secret—whom it was the primary object of his life to drive from the high office that he held. The riches and influence of Trolle were boundless, and he was constantly employing both in exciting the people to rise in favour of the Tyrant. Sture, nevertheless, treated him with great kindness and consideration, and used all the means in his power to induce him to amend his conduct. In a letter to the Archbishop, he “prayed and conjured him to have mercy on their unhappy Father-land, and no longer to befriend its enemies.” But nothing could mollify the flinty-hearted man, or bend him from his purpose.

Independently of Trolle’s very numerous retainers, he had collected about him all the disaffected in the kingdom; and puffed up with pride, confident in his own resources, and calculating on assistance from Denmark, the insolence of the haughty priest rose at length to such a height, that he treated the Regent with all but contumely, and set him so at defiance, that in self-defence Sture was at length obliged to lay regular siege to the prelate’s castle of Stäke, situated on an island in

the lake Mälär, where he and his friends, finding that matters had proceeded to extremities, had taken refuge.

But certain warlike munitions were wanting, and Stäke being a very strong place, and operations in consequence going on but slowly, the Regent sent to Lubeck for a farther supply. In the meantime, Sture's step-mother, who was on bad terms with him, gave private information of the circumstance to Christian, in Denmark, on which the latter, though a truce then existed between the two countries, seized upon the vessel on board of which the supplies had been shipped.

The Swedish Diet were highly indignant at this outrageous proceeding, and resolved: "That as the Tyrant had not kept his royal word as to the truce, they would not on any account receive him for King;" and farther: "That the siege of Stäke should be prosecuted with all possible vigour; that when captured, it should be demolished; and that Trolle should be deprived of his bishopric."

As Christian now clearly saw, that having committed an act of direct hostility against Sweden, he should never be able, either by negotiation or perfidy, to obtain the crown of that country, he determined on attempting its conquest by open war.

As a preparatory step, he, in order to estrange the minds of the people from the existing authorities, through his envoy at Rome, procured an excommunication from the Holy Father against the Regent and the whole of the Council: "For that they, by force, had deprived Trolle of his rights, and would not acknowledge him (Christian) as their lawful King."

Archbishop Birger of Lund—that town then belonging

to Denmark—had this anathema translated into Swedish, and caused it, together with a mandate of Christian, calling on the people to support his cause, to be distributed throughout Sweden. But the thunders of the Vatican, as well as the King's commands, were treated with the contempt they deserved. The service, as heretofore, was performed in the churches; and every one retained their former love and fidelity to the Regent.

Subsequent to promulgating this Bull of Excommunication, Christian sent a force of several thousand men under the command of his lieutenants, to the support of Trolle and his other adherents in Sweden. After making a fruitless descent on the coast of Upland, the Danes finally landed near to Stockholm, and shortly afterwards were completely defeated at the battle of Dufvenäs, fought in 1517, when such as escaped with life, were glad to take refuge in their ships.

Several of the prisoners made on this occasion were dispatched by the Regent to Stäke, to inform Trolle of the discomfiture of his friends, and to demand his immediate surrender. Finding that matters had taken so unfavourable a turn, the prelate was now willing to give up the fortress, on condition that he was allowed to retain his Bishopric. But Sture replied: "He ought to have made that proposal long before; that as so much blood had now been shed on his account, he was to be looked upon in the light of a murderer, and as totally unfit to hold his present sacred office." The negotiation was therefore broken off.

A Diet was now convened in Stockholm, at which Trolle was summoned to appear; and being a fearless man, and having a letter of safe conduct from the Regent, he duly

made his appearance before the assembled States. But his behaviour was in the highest degree haughty and insolent. "They were not," he said, "his legal judges. He would prove his innocence before the Holy Father in Rome, who had entrusted him with both the spiritual and worldly sword, with which he had endeavoured to maintain the allegiance they all owed to the royal house of Denmark. He, who had caused them to swerve from their duty"—meaning Sture—"was, of the two, the traitor; and they ought to perceive, that one and all were slaves to a proud youth, who sacrificed them to his own ambitious views."

The States were in the highest degree exasperated at this daring and insulting speech, and drew up a document, which they individually signed and sealed, to the effect: "That Trolle was a traitor to his country; that in consequence, he should be deprived of his Archbishopric; that his Borg of Ståke, of which he had made so bad a use, should be levelled with the ground; and that at the first summons one and all were ready to peril life and fortune against the Danes."

One of the number, however, Bishop Brask, after signing the document, and whilst attaching, as was customary, his enormous seal to it, had the cunning, privately, to slip a piece of paper beneath the wax, on which was written: "To this I am necessitated and compelled," which manœuvre, as will presently be shown, saved his life.

The common people were so indignant at Trolle's indecent conduct on this occasion, and uttered such strong and threatening language, that not one of the prelate's friends present, ventured to say a single word in his defence.

By virtue of his letter of safe conduct, Trolle subsequently returned to Ståke; but his men, fearing to irritate the people

farther, compelled him, shortly afterwards, to surrender at discretion. When, however, he was led to the Swedish camp, it was with the greatest difficulty the Regent was enabled to secure him from the indignant soldiery, who in their rage would otherwise have killed him on the spot.

As far as regarded the deprivation of the prelacy (which Trolle took a solemn oath to relinquish, and for that purpose wrote to the Chapter at Upsala, desiring them to elect another Archbishop in his stead), and the destruction of Ståke, the decree of the Diet was at once carried into effect; but for *crimen læsæ majestatis*, he was not otherwise punished than by being sent as a prisoner to the Cloister of Westerås, from whence, however, he was allowed to retire to his father's estate, Ekholmen, where, for a time, he remained in privacy.

Neither crest-fallen by the loss of the battle of Dufvenäs, fought three years before, nor by the discomfiture of his chief adherent Trolle, Christian, in 1518, determining on making another attempt to subjugate Sweden, landed in that country at the head of a large force. But he met with no better success than his lieutenants; for at the battle of Brännkyrka, which was fought soon afterwards, he also suffered a severe defeat, and was obliged to fall back upon his ships, which having regained, he with the remains of his army returned to Denmark.

We will now return to Gustavus, who, though left at the Court of the Regent, Sten Sture the younger, was not an idle spectator of these stirring scenes. He played a very distinguished part indeed at the battles of Dufvenäs and Brännkyrka; at the latter of which he carried the royal standard, an honour only conferred on illustrious warriors.

Very soon after the last-named action, however, and whilst negotiations were going on between the Regent and Christian, who owing to storms had taken refuge on the Swedish coast, the monarch, by the foulest treachery, seized several of the most distinguished Swedes, and amongst the rest Gustavus himself, and sailed away with them to Denmark, where they were put in prison, and most harshly treated. At first the Tyrant was advised by his minions to put them all to death; but this counsel was overruled, and he determined rather to hold them in confinement, as a curb on their relatives and friends at home.

Fortunately for Gustavus, a Danish nobleman, Erik Banér, who was distantly related to him by the mother's side, compassionated his wretched and forlorn situation, and solicited Christian to permit him to take the young knight to Kallö, in Jutland, the estate on which he himself resided, promising at the same time to be responsible for his keeping. Though much against the Tyrant's inclination, he granted Banér's petition; but only on the condition that he was to pay a fine of six thousand rix-dollars—a very considerable sum in those days—should the prisoner, whom he so much dreaded, make his escape.

Gustavus, therefore, accompanied his relative, by whom he was most kindly welcomed and entertained; and on passing his word, written and verbal, that he would not attempt to leave the place, he was allowed very great liberty, so much so, indeed, that at times he would wander for miles from the mansion—at first, it is true, always accompanied by a guard; but after a time the confidence of Banér was so completely won, that he was permitted to go unattended wherever he pleased.

The following year—1519—Christian, nothing daunted by previous ill-success, again made great preparations to invade Sweden. Prisoner as he was, and unable to assist in his country's defence, this intelligence was torture to Gustavus. His spirits were also galled by constantly hearing the boastful and insulting expressions of the young Danes. "This time," said they, "we shall know better how to manage matters. We shall altogether destroy the most distinguished and wealthiest of the Swedes; and afterwards those amongst us who are poor, and of little consideration, shall marry their widows, and thus obtain power and wealth." He heard much also of the Tyrant's cruel and perfidious proceedings in Denmark and elsewhere.

Driven at length to frenzy by dwelling on these painful matters—though nothing can excuse the forfeiture of his word to his benefactor—Gustavus determined on escaping from Kallö, where, under other circumstances, and if he could have forgotten that he was a prisoner, and had been carried away in so subtle a manner from his native land, he might have lived happily enough.

Disguising himself as a peasant, the young knight therefore departed privately at an early hour in the morning from his cousin's hospitable roof, and avoiding the high roads, made the best of his way to Flensburg, in Schleswig, where he arrived by noon on the following day. Here he fell in with some drovers, then on their way to Lubeck, with a herd of oxen. With these men—having assumed their garb—he joined company; and after several narrow escapes, succeeded in reaching that town in safety.

Immediately on his arrival in Lubeck, Gustavus made himself known to the authorities. He stated the trea-

cherous way in which he had been seized by Christian, his confinement in Denmark, and the manner in which his escape had been effected. And he pleaded his cause so well, that they not only gave him permission to remain in the town, but promised him protection during his stay amongst them.

Shortly afterwards, however, his relative, Banér, learning where he had taken refuge, came also to Lubeck, and complained to the Council, "of Gustavus' perfidy and ingratitude towards himself, in return for the great kindness and generosity shown to him;" and threatened them besides with the Tyrant's enmity, if they protected his declared adversary. But the knight, who was present, boldly replied: "He was no lawful prisoner; that, on the contrary, he had been entrapped by fraud and treachery, and that therefore he had a perfect right to escape from thralldom when opportunity offered. That as regarded the six thousand rix-dollars, for which his kinsman had so generously given security on his behalf, he would thankfully repay them on his return home. I am amongst free-men," said he, moreover, "and rely with every confidence on the promises which have been made to me of protection."

This address had such an effect on the Town Council, that all Banér's endeavours to get the young knight once more into his power, proved unavailing.

Though it was the earnest desire of Gustavus to return forthwith to his father-land, circumstances for a time rendered this impossible. For eight whole months, indeed, he was detained in Lubeck. In that time intelligence arrived of the landing of Christian in Sweden, with an immense armament, partly composed of his own people, and partly of

mercenaries; of his great successes; of the loss of the battle of Bogesund; of the treachery at Tiveden; and the death of the Regent, Sten Sture the younger; and finally, of the subjugation of nearly the whole of the kingdom! The feelings of Gustavus, on the receipt of this disastrous intelligence—which was rendered the more poignant, from his total inability to take part in the struggle—cannot be described.

Though in ignorance of the fact, Gustavus was now in considerable jeopardy; for many of the Town Council, fearing Christian's increasing power, secretly deliberated on the propriety of delivering him up to his persecutor. From this danger he was, however, happily freed by Nils Bröms, the burgomaster, who pointed out to his colleagues the impolicy of the proceeding. "Christian," said he, "had already curtailed the commerce and power of the Hanse Towns. Should he now become master of the whole of the north, he would altogether crush them. That so far, therefore, from surrendering the knight, whom he looked upon as a man of sufficient courage, capacity, and consideration, to set bounds to the monarch's ambitious projects, they ought rather to support him." This address had its due effect upon the Council, who agreed not only to send Gustavus at once over to Sweden, but to supply him with money, and munitions of war.

To the knight's great joy, a vessel was in consequence very soon afterwards placed at his disposal (though of the promised soldiers and arms history says nothing), with which he forthwith put to sea.

At this period Stockholm and Calmar were the only

fortresses that remained in the hands of the Swedes ; and, singularly enough, both were defended by heroic women : the former by Kristina Gyllenstjerna, widow of the late Regent ; the latter by Anna Bjelke, relict of Johan Månsson, the late Governor of the place.

Gustavus would at once have proceeded to Stockholm ; but as the seas thereabouts swarmed with the enemy's cruisers, he dared not make the venture, and therefore directed his course to Calmar. As, however, the celebrated Danish Admiral, Severin Norrby, was lying near to that town with the fleet, he was compelled to land privately at a spot some little distance from thence, called Stensö, since looked upon as classic ground. This was on the 31st of May, 1520. He was quite alone ; but trusting in Providence and his good sword, he determined either to free his beloved country from thralldom, or to leave his bones on her soil.

Gustavus was very joyfully received by Anna Bjelke, who so gallantly held the town against the Danes. But when haranguing and encouraging the citizens, to make a resolute defence, he found them faint-hearted and lukewarm in the cause. With the garrison, which consisted principally of German mercenaries, it was still worse ; for being tired of the war, they were ready, rather than it should continue, to give themselves up to the Danish Admiral. This being the state of things, the knight was looked upon as an obstacle to peace, and he was received in consequence with such evident marks of ill-will, that for his personal security, his kind protectress was obliged to have him conveyed to a place of concealment.

Finding that nothing was to be effected in Calmar, Gustavus took his departure privately, and directed his steps into the interior of the country. Whilst wandering alone and disguised, through the dense forests of Småland, he had the mortification to hear in all quarters how, from jealousy, private pique, and lucre, his countrymen betrayed one another. When he found the inhabitants congregated, at churches and elsewhere, he exhorted them to unanimity, and resistance to the Tyrant—warning them, at the same time, against his perfidy and cruelty. But his endeavours to cause a rising were ineffectual; for the people were not only tired of the war, but favourable to Christian, who, said they, “always treats us well and kindly, so long as we are faithful and obedient.” At times, therefore, not only threats and scoffs, but even missiles, were the returns for his appeals, so that he was forced to make a hurried retreat.

Continuing his way through the wilds of Södermanland, Gustavus at length came to the Castle of Tärnö, the residence of his sister Margareta and her husband, Joakim Brahe, who was a member of the Privy Council, and one of the most considerable men in Sweden. Not having seen each other for a long period, the meeting was a most joyful and affectionate one on both sides; though, on the part of the knight's relatives, mingled with much sorrow, when they learned that it was his full purpose to raise an insurrection against Christian.

By special invitation, Joakim and his wife were just on the point of proceeding to Stockholm, which had recently fallen into the Tyrant's power, to be present at the approaching coronation. They therefore proffered their best services

to Gustavus, to reconcile him with the King, who had, they said, already not only publicly proclaimed forgiveness to political offenders, on their making submission, but a gracious reception. So far, however, from accepting this well-meant offer, the young knight warned Joakim of Christian's treachery, and endeavoured to persuade him to assist in throwing off the usurper's yoke.

Poor Margareta, on hearing her brother thus express himself, was almost wild with grief. She threw herself weeping on to his neck, and conjured him to desist from an enterprise that could not fail to overwhelm in misery and unhappiness, not only himself, but his kindred. But Gustavus had taken his resolution, and nothing could turn him from his purpose, not even the tears and entreaties of his dearly-beloved sister.

After the lapse of some days, the credulous Joakim and his wife set off for Stockholm, to assist in placing the crown on the head of Christian. Gustavus, at the same time, also took his departure from Tärnö, but with an opposite intent—that of tearing the diadem from the Tyrant's brow!

Gustavus proceeded, in the first instance, to Råfsnäs, one of his father's estates, near to the town of Mariefred, where he remained in concealment for some time. On one occasion, whilst in this retreat, he paid a visit in all privacy to the Archbishop Jakob Ulfson, who resided at the Cloister of Gripsholm, communicated to him the unhappy circumstances in which he was placed, and prayed his fatherly counsel and assistance. The prelate, who received the knight with much kindness, pointed out to him that by the treaty of Stockholm, he was certainly included in the amnesty; as also, how gra-

ciously Christian received all Swedes who made their submission; and that it was best therefore that he should follow the example of his friends, and implore the King's pardon; and farther that he himself (the Archbishop) would plead his cause. But all the prelate's arguments could not convince Gustavus. He knew Christian too well; and had learned, whilst in Denmark, too much of his views and intentions, to place himself voluntarily in his hands.

CHAPTER XI.

STOCKHOLM SURRENDERS—FEARFUL SCENE—THE TYRANT IS CROWNED—HIS
PROFOUND HYPOCRISY—TRIAL OF THE NOBLES—NUMBERS ARE DOOMED—
SPIRITUAL COURT—FUNEREAL PROCESSION—PROTEST OF THE PRISONERS—
THE EXECUTION—THE BODIES REFUSED CHRISTIAN BURIAL—VENGEANCE
ON THE DEAD—FARTHER CRUELITIES—NOBLE-MINDED HEADSMAN—THE
CHURCH OF ROME.

WHEN Gustavus landed in Sweden, Stockholm, as already mentioned, was defended by the Regent's widow, Kristina Gyllenstjerna. On the death of her husband, who received his mortal wound at the battle of Bogesund, fought in 1520, this courageous woman, not cast down by her sad bereavement, and the total discomfiture of the Swedish armies, so far from making her submission to the Tyrant—as too many of her countrymen, considering all to be lost, had already done—hastened to the capital, and put it into as good a state of defence as circumstances would permit. Owing to the fatigue of the journey, and her subsequent great exertions, she had the additional unhappiness to lose her infant son. But even this fresh sorrow shook not her resolution. Encou-

raged by her noble example, the garrison was excited to a state of enthusiasm, and together with the citizens, swore to defend the place to the last extremity. The resistance, in fact, was so gallant, that though Christian blockaded the town on one side with his fleet, and his lieutenants attacked it on two other sides by land for several months together, he could make no serious impression.

Finding, therefore, he was not likely to succeed in his object by force, he resorted to his old artifices, and by sending emissaries into the place, succeeded in creating amongst certain of the influential inhabitants a feeling in his favour. Observing at length that treachery existed within the walls, and foreseeing the consequent difficulty of farther defence, Kristina now found herself under the necessity of capitulating.

But the terms of the treaty entered into with the Tyrant were highly favourable; for he not only promised to forget and forgive everything that had passed on the part of the adherents of the Stures against himself and Archbishop Trolle, but that Kristina herself should retain all her husband's property; and, moreover, that he would be to her and her family, not only a gracious King, but a father. These, as well as other similar promises, he confirmed with the most solemn oaths, and set his own signet to the document.

On the 7th of September, 1520, the gates of Stockholm were in consequence opened, when the Tyrant, with great state, made his public entry into the city.

But on the following morning the inhabitants were horrified by a most heart-rending scene. The brave Måns Jansson, who had gallantly defended Westerås against the Danes, had become the special mark of Christian's fury.

Refused the privilege of a speedy death, he was crucified with the most revolting barbarities. Torn from the cross, and still palpitating with life, the cruelly mutilated hero continued to exhort his countrymen to vengeance, and to predict a fearful retaliation on their enemies, whom he defied to shake his spirit, however they might torture his body. Maddened with rage, the murderers proceeded to tear the heart from the bosom of the victim, and finished the bloody work by quartering and dismembering the body. And as this unfortunate gentleman was included in the recent treaty, the Swedes naturally viewed with trembling this first token of their new King's perfidy and cruelty.

Towards all other persons, however, he was exceedingly mild and gracious, and promised the nobility and others, who solicited favours, all they asked. In the meantime he played his old game with the peasants; for he not only distributed largesses amongst them, but was constantly pointing out to them that the cause of all the evils Sweden was then enduring, was the ambition, the obstinacy, and the licentiousness of the nobles. And though there might be some truth in what he said, his sole object in this was to win them to his side, and thus to prepare them for the horrible tragedy about to be enacted.

Christian now sailed for Copenhagen, to consult with some of his creatures, as to what steps were to be taken in regard to Sweden, which was then wholly in his power. It was his object to render her—as Norway afterwards became—a tributary to Denmark. But this was impossible, so long as the proud and warlike population had an equally proud and warlike nobility for their leaders. It was therefore determined that all its most distinguished men, to whichever party

they might belong, should be put to death; and that the rest of the nobility should be so crushed, as to be rendered powerless thereafter.

With this dire resolve, and for the purpose of being crowned, the Tyrant returned to Stockholm on the 20th of October.

The Diet, consisting of the four estates of the kingdom, were summoned to the capital, that they might be present at the ceremony, which took place on the 4th of the following November, and was celebrated with much parade and splendour. To every one's astonishment, however, the regalia, instead of being carried by Swedes, were borne by Danes. On this occasion, Christian took the Holy Sacrament, and renewed his oaths as to the strict observance of the treaty he had so recently entered into with Sten Sture's widow.

When the diadem had been placed on his head—which office was performed by Archbishop Trolle, who once more was in the plenitude of power and favour—the monarch, according to ancient usage, seated himself before the high altar, for the purpose of conferring the honour of knighthood on the most deserving of those present. Several Danes were called forward, and dubbed in due form, and with all solemnity, but not a single Swede had that dignity bestowed upon him! And when the ceremony was completed, a herald advanced and proclaimed: "That as Sweden had been won by the sword, no Swede could therefore claim the honour of knighthood at Christian's hands; but that should they thenceforward prove brave and faithful, he would bear them in remembrance."

After the solemnities were over, the company repaired to

the palace, where a sumptuous banquet was in readiness. The festivities lasted three days, during which the King was in a joyous mood, and particularly kind and gracious to the Swedes, as if desirous of making them some amends for the humiliation to which they had been exposed at the coronation. But this was all base hypocrisy.

Christian now took counsel with some of his more confidential advisers, when it was resolved, that as nearly the whole of those doomed to die—of whom Bishop Otto Svinhufvud had already furnished the list, and amongst whom were all the members of the Råd, or Council of State—were then in Stockholm, and in his hands, so to say, now was the time to put the bloody project into execution. But the Tyrant, wishing to make it appear that he was innocent in the matter, the question arose, under what pretence the hellish design should be carried out? Some proposed that a disturbance should be got up in the town between the Swedes and the Danes, and that afterwards the marked men should be accused of having been the originators of the tumult, and then put to death. But there was danger in this expedient; for as the townspeople by no means loved the Danes, it was thought the feint might turn out a reality, and the fight end in a regular insurrection. This proposal was therefore negatived. Others again suggested that gunpowder should be laid under the palace, and the Swedes charged with having placed it there, for the purpose of destroying the King; but this being thought a too bare-faced scheme, was also laid aside. It was then proposed that the Holy Father's Ban, of which mention has been made, should be had recourse to, and that the proscribed should be arraigned for their transgressions

against Archbishop Trolle. But as Christian had, at his coronation, taken a solemn oath to abide by the treaty of Stockholm, in which pardon was promised to all who had sinned either against himself or the Archbishop, it was very difficult for him to break his word in so open a manner. This point was, however, soon got over by Didrik Slaghök—a barber originally, but then a bishop, and one of the Tyrant's Danish minions—who observed: “It was perfectly true, that so far as the King was individually concerned, he had certainly given such a pledge; but that neither he nor any one else could, on the part of the Pope and the Church, forgive the delinquents.”

This jesuitical reasoning was received with acclamation by the assembled Council; and it was at once determined that Trolle should accuse the doomed individuals of having offended, not only against himself, but against the holy office which he filled; as also that he, in virtue of Christian's oath to administer equal justice to all his subjects, should demand from the King on his own part, as well as on that of the Pope, the immediate and condign punishment of the criminals.

It having been resolved that this most atrocious plan should be carried into execution on the 7th of November—that is, immediately after the conclusion of the festivities consequent on the coronation—a very great number of distinguished Swedes were, under one pretext or another, summoned to the palace. Here, on their arrival, they were ushered into a large and lofty hall, and saw with apprehension the doors closed behind them, and that there was no escape.

When all were assembled, Christian entered, and took his

place on the judgment-seat, having about him his chief nobles. Trolle now stepped forward, and made his accusation against Sten Sture the younger—although then in his grave—as also against the Swedish Råd and others, in the manner previously agreed upon. The King then hypocritically said: “Mr. Archbishop, would you rather that this question were settled by arbitration, or would you prefer its being decided according to law?” The prelate, in reply, demanded, “that such of the accused as were present, might be at once imprisoned, and their case dealt with thereafter, by the Holy Father himself.” But the Tyrant, well knowing that if left to the Pope, they might escape with life, said, in rejoinder: “That the matter ought not to be referred to Rome, but judged in this realm;” with which decision the Archbishop professed himself satisfied.

Some will have it that Trolle was compelled by Christian to adopt this infamous proceeding; that seeing him rather backward in the cause, the Tyrant directed some one to whisper in his ear: “Remember! your head is not safer than that of other people!”

As Sten Sture was the chief offender, and his name the first on the list, his widow, Kristina, who was present, was ordered to step forward, and on the part of herself and of her late husband to answer to the present charge. The noble lady defended herself courageously. She told Christian that what had taken place in regard to the Archbishop, had not been done by the Regent alone, for that the Råd, or Privy Council, and the whole of the nation, had been a party to the act; and in corroboration of her statement, she produced a large sheet of parchment, on which was engrossed the decree of the Diet in 1517.

The Tyrant was highly gratified at getting possession of this document, considering that it would be legal evidence against those whose signatures were attached, all of whom in consequence were at once put on their defence.

Bishop Brask was the first; but when he exhibited to his judges the slip of paper hidden under the wax seal, on which was written: "To this I am necessitated and compelled," he was acquitted.

The Bishop Otto, who was next put upon his trial, from some cause or other also escaped condemnation.

Then came the Bishops Mattias and Vincentius; and after them the members of the Privy Council, amongst the rest the father of Gustavus, and his brother-in-law, Joakim Brahe, all of whom were doomed. Many noblemen and gentlemen followed, numbers of whom were also sentenced. Nor did several individuals who had traitorously gone over to Christian, and afterwards rendered him essential service, fare better than the rest; for independently of being amongst the most influential men in Sweden, the greater part had formerly been adherents of the Stures: an unpardonable crime in the eyes of Christian.

Before the close of the proceedings the King left the hall of judgment; but his minions went on with the trials until so late an hour in the evening, that lights were obliged to be brought into the apartment.

At length several of Christian's high officers, preceded and followed by soldiers bearing swords and torches, entered the hall, and selected from amongst the multitude the doomed individuals. The Bishops were somewhat better cared for than the rest; but the other prisoners, consisting of Privy Councillors, noblemen and gentlemen, clergymen, the three

burgomasters of Stockholm, and many of the most influential citizens, were indiscriminately thrust into a tower, situated at an angle of the palace.

One of those under sentence, a citizen named Klas Boye, an uncommonly fat and big man, got off on this occasion in a very remarkable and somewhat ludicrous manner. The soldiers would have thrown him into the dungeon along with the rest, but were literally unable by fair means to get him in at the narrow doorway; and being much occupied with the other prisoners, they left him in a corner, intending at their leisure to squeeze him through the opening. But this Swedish Falstaff was much too sensible a fellow to allow so fair a chance to slip, and therefore beat a retreat as quickly as possible; and was so fortunate as to keep his unwieldy carcass concealed in the palace during the following two days, when he came out of his hiding-place, and was pardoned by the King.

Even those who had escaped condemnation, were confined together in a room, where they had to pass the whole night in a state of the most horrible suspense and anxiety.

On the following morning, the 8th of November, 1520, at a pretty early hour, several ecclesiastics, who were amongst the last-named body of prisoners, were called into the great hall, where, in conjunction with Archbishop Trolle and other prelates, they formed a sort of spiritual court. One of the number, Jöns Beldenack—by trade a shoemaker, but transformed into a Bishop by Christian—then put the following question: “Ought not those who have conspired against the Pope and the Holy Roman See, to be looked upon as heretics?” Some of the clergy,

who were in league with Christian, answered in the affirmative; others, who were not aware of the drift of the question, responded to the same effect; whilst there were those again, who perfectly well understood the meaning of the interrogatory, but having the fear of the Tyrant before their eyes, replied "yes," likewise. This perfectly satisfied Christian, who himself pronounced the following sentence: "That as the criminals had arrayed themselves against the Holy Father, they were, agreeably to the decision of the Court, heretics, and that as heretics they should therefore die."

The gates of Stockholm had been locked the whole of the morning, so that no one might enter or leave the town; and a trumpeter had proclaimed, that until permission was given, no citizen, on the peril of his life, was to leave his house. Large numbers of Danish troops were drawn up in the squares, and other open places, and loaded cannon were pointed down the principal streets. As may well be supposed, the inhabitants were all in a state of great anxiety at these fearful doings, not knowing what would come next.

At noon the gates of the palace were thrown open, and a large body of armed men marched out and stationed themselves on both sides of the way, leading from thence to the Town-hall. Then came the poor prisoners, consisting of the highest officers of state, many senators, two bishops, the most distinguished nobles of the land, the burgomasters, and the whole of the magistracy of Stockholm, walking in pairs, and conducted by the executioners. Ninety-four persons—the most exalted in the land, whether for birth, office, or virtue; the bishops in their full canonicals, the magistrates in their robes and insignia, as they had risen

from the treacherous board of the Tyrant—thus passed before the eyes of the grieving people, who had now been permitted to leave their houses, and looked on with fear and trembling at these terrible preparations.

On the arrival of this most moving procession at the place of execution, Nils Lycke, a Danish chieftain, who had been knighted at the coronation, addressed the assembled multitude from the balcony of the Town-hall, to the following effect: "Good men," said he, "be not surprised at what you now see. The individuals before you are one and all cursed heretics, who have set at nought the Holy Father in Rome. They have laid gunpowder under the palace, with the intention of destroying the King, who nevertheless would have pardoned them, had not Archbishop Trolle fallen three several times on his knees before his Majesty, and demanded that the Pope's judgment over these doomed heretics, enemies to the Church, and traitors to their country, should be carried into effect."

On hearing these words, Bishop Vincentius, who was bound in fetters, exclaimed with a loud voice: "That it was all a heap of lies; and that God's righteous judgment would some day or other fall upon Christian, for his perfidy and cruelty." Two of the Town Council of Stockholm, who were amongst the condemned, also addressed themselves to the spectators, warning them never again to be deceived by false promises, and exhorting them to revenge this dreadfully outrageous and tyrannical act. But their voices were presently drowned by the sobs and lamentations of the bystanders, and by the soldiers, who, that the multitude might not hear what was said, commenced making great outcries.



Day's Journal in the Queen

"STOCKHOLMS BLODBAD"

Stockholm, 1678

The King, who it is said witnessed the horrible scene from the windows of the Town-hall, now ordered the executions to commence; prior to which, however, one of his high officers, named Klas Bille, stationed himself near to the block, for the purpose of receiving the golden chains and signets with which every knightly person was decorated.

The poor prisoners, seeing their case hopeless, prayed that before they were put to death, they might at least be shrived, and receive the consolation of the Holy Sacrament. But even this poor boon was denied them by the merciless Tyrant.

Bishop Mattias was the first that suffered. Whilst kneeling in prayer, and with hands clasped and uplifted towards heaven, his secretary, Olaus Petri, together with his brother, Laurentius Petri, both of whom afterwards took a distinguished part in the Reformation, came running to the spot; but at the same moment the axe fell, and the head of the venerable prelate rolled at their feet! Horror-stricken at the shocking sight, one of them exclaimed: "This was an inhuman act!" For giving utterance to these words, both were immediately seized, and dragged within the guard of soldiers; and would certainly have been executed with the rest, had not some of Christian's officers, whose acquaintance they had made in Germany, and who believed them to be natives of that country, saved their lives.

Bishop Vincentius was next beheaded; subsequently the Privy Councillors, and such of the nobility and others as had made themselves obnoxious to the Tyrant. Three of the burgomasters of Stockholm, as well as several distinguished citizens, shared the same fate.

Erik Johansson Vasa, the father of Gustavus, and Joakim

Brahe, his brother-in-law, were amongst the sufferers on this occasion. Christian, it is said, would have spared Erik, either because he was a pious and inoffensive person, or that he might hold him as a hostage for the good behaviour of his son; but when this was told the noble old man, he gallantly replied: "My colleagues are all honourable men, and in God's name let me die with them." And whilst uttering these words, he bowed his grey head to the block!

Besides the doomed, others, who were mere spectators, suffered on this occasion. Amongst the rest was a citizen named Lars Hansson, who with tears in his eyes was looking on at the horrible scene, which the soldiers perceiving, they pulled him within the circle; and simply because he had shown sympathy for the sad fate of his countrymen, he also was obliged to submit his neck to the executioner.

Independently of those who perished on the scaffold, and who were principally of the higher classes, very many were also hanged, the Tyrant having caused several gibbets to be erected for that purpose. It is said that in several instances, when the retainers of the knights and of others who suffered, in total ignorance of what was happening, rode into Stockholm from the country, they, booted and spurred as they arrived, were at once suspended to the fatal beam.

As Christian remarked that many whom he was desirous of putting to death had concealed themselves, he, on the following morning, the 9th of November, caused it to be proclaimed, "that every one might now with safety come forth from concealment, as it was not his intention to make

any farther examples." Several relying on his promises, left their hiding-places, on which a new "Blod-bad," or blood-bath—as this diabolical massacre was called—though on a diminished scale, immediately commenced!

Excepting the head of Bishop Mattias—which, as a mark of special grace and favour, for services recently rendered to Christian by the late prelate, was allowed to be placed between the feet of the corpse—the heads of all the other sufferers of note were affixed on stakes in public situations, as an example to misdoers. But to the horror of every one the bodies were left exposed in the streets; and as a heavy rain fell soon after the executions, the blood, mixed with water, ran from the market-place about the streets, evidencing too plainly the horrible tragedy that had been enacted. Here they remained for several days, in which time the people saw with disgust and horror that the dogs began to prey upon them. And as the weather was exceedingly warm at the time, such a stench at length arose, that fears were entertained lest a pestilence might be the consequence!

The poor sufferers having been executed for heresy, their bodies were not deemed worthy of Christian burial; and by the orders of the Bishop, Jöns Beldenack, who had contributed in no small degree to their destruction, they were burnt as befitting heretics. The bleached and disfigured bodies were conveyed to the spot where Katarina Church now stands, where they were thrown on to an enormous funeral pile, previously prepared for the purpose, and soon reduced to the dust from whence they came.

Whilst these dreadful scenes were enacting, Christian was in an indescribable state of rage and frenzy, and indeed quite

beside himself. He commanded the body of the deceased Regent, Sten Sture the younger, and that of his child, who had perished during the siege of Stockholm, to be exhumed. It is said, indeed, that in his fury, he actually tore a piece of flesh with his teeth from the mouldering remains of his former enemy. He even permitted Archbishop Trolle to disinter the corpse of the venerable Mårten Jönsson, who, when secretary to the Regent, had mortally offended him. The worthy couple having thus glutted their vengeance, the three bodies were consigned to the flames along with the rest of the so-called heretics!

Poor Kristina, the relic of the Regent, whose fate had been suspended for a time, was now summoned to the presence, and told she was to die; the choice being given her, either to be drowned, burnt, or buried alive! On hearing her dreadful doom, the broken-hearted woman swooned away, and dropped senseless on the floor. But the prayers of the spectators, her own tears, or what is far more probable, her great riches, at length mollified the Tyrant, and her life was spared.

Her mother, however, Sigrid Banér, who by a previous marriage was grandmother to Gustavus Vasa, was thrust into a sack and cast into the river; but some of the bystanders undertaking to secure her wealth to Christian, he caused her to be rescued from a watery grave.

Though thus saved from drowning, she and her two daughters—the above-named Kristina, and Cecilia, the mother of Gustavus—together with two of Gustavus' sisters, noble and distinguished ladies, were carried as hostages into Denmark, and confined in that horrible prison, the Blue Tower, where the greater part, including the mother and

sisters of Gustavus, perished from hunger, thirst, and cold! And those that survived were solely indebted for their lives to the humanity and kindness of Queen Isabella, who, to her everlasting honour, did all in her power to mitigate the horrors of their miserable fate.

But the atrocious proceedings of Christian were not confined to Stockholm alone. The like cruelties were practised, by his orders, in all parts of the kingdom. The adherents of the Stures were diligently sought and hunted down like wild beasts. To their shame it is recorded, that many people of consideration were found, who, to revenge real or imaginary wrongs, were base enough to inform against their neighbours, so that blood flowed in every direction.

Shortly after the "Blod-bad," Christian set off from Stockholm, on his return to Denmark, telling the people prior to his departure, "that the individuals executed were heretics; and that it was only through their blood that the kingdom could be freed from the Pope's Ban; that now as they were put to death, he should be enabled in peace and tranquillity to govern the land agreeably to its ancient laws and customs."

Unhappily, however, all his promises were still perfidious, for his progress through the country was everywhere marked with blood! Wherever he came the gallows and the headsman were in constant requisition. At Nyköping he even caused his favourite, Klas Holst, to be hanged. Christmas he spent at Munkeboda, with Bishop Brask, who had the infamy to betray two of the most devoted of Sture's followers, both of whom were immediately seized and executed, and their remains exposed on the wheel!

Among his other atrocities, when on this journey, it is

related that on a certain occasion he took up his quarters for the night at the Monastery of Nydala, in Småland. Here the poor monks, from some cause or other, gave him offence; and on the following morning, in revenge, he caused the Abbot, Arvid, together with eleven of the brotherhood, to be drowned in a lake hard by—which, in consequence, is to this day called *Munk-sjön*, or the Monk-lake.

But the greatest enormity committed by this demon in human form remains to be told. When at Jönköping he caused a Swedish nobleman, named Lindorm Ribbing, to be decapitated. The deceased left two sons, the one eight, the other only six years of age. Fearing that when grown up they might avenge their father, he resolved on murdering them both. The elder was beheaded first. The younger, seeing the blood flow, and his brother's bloody clothes, and not knowing what it all meant, said to the executioner when brought out to suffer: "Dear man! don't make my shirt bloody as you did my brother's, for if you do mamma will whip me." The executioner, who, in spite of his horrid calling, had still some of the feelings of humanity left, was greatly affected, and throwing his axe to the ground, nobly exclaimed: "My own shirt shall be dyed in blood, before thine is blooded by me!" The tiger-hearted King, however, who was present, was not turned from his purpose by this most moving scene; but on the contrary, was enraged almost to madness at his orders not being obeyed; and calling forward another of his people, he caused him not only to strike off the head of the poor infant, but also that of the merciful executioner!

It is said that prior to Christian crossing over into Den-

mark, in the early part of 1521, he had caused upwards of six hundred persons to be put to death!

To conclude. In reading this short sketch of the atrocities of the northern tyrant, one is almost inclined to believe that the intriguing and artful Catherine of Medicis, mother of Charles IX., in causing the butchery of the unfortunate Huguenots, on the eve of St. Bartholomew, in the year 1572; that Philip II. of Spain, in recklessly persecuting and slaughtering his Flemish subjects, on account of their leaning to the doctrines of the Reformation; and more recently that the monster Robespierre, in consigning to the knife of the guillotine thousands of people of all grades, had taken the cruel Christian for their model! And yet it is remarkable, that among so many innocent victims, the arm of a Brutus should not have been found to avenge the cause of outraged humanity.

These disgusting sacrifices of human life were, however, (with the exception of the executions in France, during the Reign of Terror, 1793-4) effected at the instigation and through the instrumentality of the Court of Rome, which, thinking that the Catholic Church was in imminent danger through the rapid progress of the Reformation, fulminated excommunications and edicts, inciting bloodshed in every country where the least symptoms of defection were perceptible;—hence the scenes of slaughter so profusely enacted, in the course of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

CHAPTER XII.

GUSTAVUS' RESOLVES—HE DEPARTS FOR DALECARLIA—HE IS ROBBED BY HIS ATTENDANT—RECOGNISED—NEARLY DROWNED—BETRAYED—WOMAN HIS GUARDIAN ANGEL—MEETS WITH AN OLD FRIEND—PUBLICLY DENOUNCED—AGAIN SAVED BY A WOMAN—WOUNDED—HIDES IN A CAVE—ADDRESS TO THE PEOPLE—ONCE MORE SAVED BY WOMAN'S WIT—AGAIN HARANGUES THE PEOPLE—HIS ORATION—ITS EFFECT ON THE MULTITUDE—DEPARTS IN DESPAIR—FINDS ADHERENTS—RETURNS—SUMMARY OF HIS AFTER-LIFE—END OF CHRISTIAN—FATE OF TROLLE—ANCIENT MANNERS AND CUSTOMS—SAVAGE GAMES—THE DUEL.

BUT enough for the present of this treacherous and sanguinary despot. Let us return to Gustavus, who was left at Råfsnäs, an estate of his father's, near Mariefred.

One day while hunting in the vicinity of this place, he unexpectedly met the faithful steward of his brother-in-law, Joakim Brahe, who had followed his master to Court. The old man on seeing the knight burst into tears; and on being questioned as to the cause of his emotion, he, with a broken voice, told of the never-to-be-forgotten "Blod-bad," in which Gustavus' own father and brother-

in-law, together with very many of the most illustrious men in Sweden—lay as well as clerical—perished ignominiously on the scaffold. He spoke of the imprisonment of the knight's mother and sister, and of the large reward offered for his own person, whether brought in alive or dead. All this dreadful news was corroborated to the letter, by a messenger who shortly afterwards arrived from the capital.

Though almost broken-hearted at the cruel intelligence, still, so far from being reduced to despair, the courage of Gustavus, then some thirty years old, only rose the higher with the occasion; and instead of deserting his country in her utmost need, as too many had already done, he nobly resolved on either ridding it of its oppressor, or perishing in the attempt.

At the time of the "Blod-bad," there were numbers of gallant men in Sweden, who, either from patriotic motives, or fear of treachery, refused to bow the knee to Christian, and who, in consequence, had been declared *Fogel-fria*—that is, in a state of outlawry—the penalty attaching to which was, that every one was permitted to put them to death, wherever met with. Many of these unfortunates had sought refuge in the interminable forests covering the face of the country, where, with the hand of every man against them, they wandered in misery and wretchedness—leading a life, in short, little other than that of the beasts of the field.

Not a few of these unhappy men were believed to have sought shelter in the wilds of Dalecarlia. This province was then but little visited by strangers. Owing, indeed, to its mountainous character, its boundless forests, and the numerous and extensive lakes studding every part of it, there was no great communication even between comparative

neighbours, much less of course with other parts of the kingdom. The people were manly and robust, for war and the severity of the climate had hardened their frames; laborious and frugal in their way of living, as was indeed needful, from the sterile nature of the soil; simple and uncorrupted in their manner of life, for as yet it was seldom that either foreigners or their customs had found their way into these wilds; and to crown all, determined haters of tyranny and oppression.

At an after-period, Bishop Beldenack—the same who took so prominent a part in the “Blod-bad,” but who now commanded an army on the part of Christian—was opposed to the Dalecarlians, then drawn up on the opposite side of a river; and when calling to mind the numerous defeats the Danish troops had experienced at their hands, he asked a Swedish adherent, standing by his side: “How many of those white-coated men could Dalecarlia send into the field?” “Twenty thousand at the least,” replied the other; “for the old are just as stout and courageous as the young.” “But what do they live on?” again inquired the prelate. “On bread and water,” was the rejoinder, “and if corn fail them, on the bark of trees ground or pounded.” “If that be so,” said Beldenack, “not the devil himself, much less men, can ever reduce them to submission.”

Many of the disaffected, as just said, were supposed to have taken refuge in Dalecarlia. For the purpose of assembling these, as well as of prevailing, if possible, on the inhabitants—who were believed to be somewhat inimical to Christian—to assist in freeing the kingdom from the bloody sway of the usurper, Gustavus determined on proceeding at once into that province. With this resolve, he lost no time in

collecting together what gold and silver he could obtain, and set forward on horseback on his long and wearisome journey.

The knight had but a single attendant, to whom he entrusted all his valuables. Hitherto this man had proved faithful; but as they jogged on the way, the fellow began to cogitate on the dangers to which he and his master were about to expose themselves. On their arrival, therefore, at the ferry of Kolsund, when Gustavus, who had preceded him in the boat, was on the other side of the river, he seized the opportunity, and jumping on his horse, rode off at full speed, with the intention of stealing the animal, as well as the money. The knight, however, who had observed the manœuvre, lost no time in recrossing the stream, and pursued the runaway with such ardour and success, that to prevent being captured he dismounted, and leaving the steed to its fate, concealed himself in the forest.

Having thus fortunately recovered his property, Gustavus resumed his melancholy journey alone. But his reflections must have been sad in the extreme; for in place of the courage and fidelity for which the Swedes had always been celebrated, he had as yet met with little besides cowardice and treachery.

It was the end of November when he arrived in Dalecarlia. Cutting off his flowing locks, he exchanged his knightly attire for the dress of a peasant, which consisted of a round hat, and a short jacket made of *vadmal*, a kind of coarse cloth. Thus clad like a servant, and with an axe over his shoulder, he went about from house to house, and from village to village, in search of employment.

His first service was with a rich proprietor of mines,

named Anders Persson, resident at a place called Rankhyttan, situated about twelve or fourteen miles to the south of the celebrated copper mines of Fahlun. This individual and himself had been fellow-students together some years before at Upsala; but in the knight's disguise Persson did not recognize him. For several days he was here employed in the barn in thrashing, receiving the wages of a common labourer.*

The other servants, however, having remarked the fineness of his linen, and that he seemed little accustomed to his present occupation, arrived at the conclusion that he was not what he professed to be, and communicated their suspicions to their master. Persson on this took Gustavus aside, and after steadily gazing on his face, recognized in his newly-engaged man his old college chum!

On making the discovery he welcomed him most kindly to his house, inquiring what extraordinary circumstance could have led him to assume his present disguise? In reply, Gustavus informed him, with tears in his eyes, of Stockholm's "Blod-bad;" of the death of his own father, and several of his nearest relations; of the captivity of his mother and sisters; that he himself was outlawed, and sought after in every direction by the emissaries of Christian; but that the fallen state of his poor oppressed country preyed on his mind more heavily than all the rest. He told Persson, moreover, that if he and other patriotic Swedes would place him at the head of an armed force, be it ever so small, he would hazard life itself for the honour and liberty of their common father-land.

* In commemoration of this his occupation, the barn at Rankhyttan is to this day kept in good repair; and the spot is shown on the thrashing floor: "Der Kung Gustaf tröskat"—that is, where King Gustavus wielded the flail.

Though Persson was in reality little favourable to the Tyrant, still reflecting that if he harboured Gustavus, it might cost him dear, he resolved no longer to shelter his friend beneath his roof; and he therefore recommended him (a command under the circumstances) to proceed without delay into the interior; and the better to avoid detection, to change his abode as often as might be.

It was about *Andersmässsa*, or Kermess, when the knight again set out on his wanderings. Late the same evening he came to the Lill-elf—that runs out of the great lake Runn into the river Dal—which it was his purpose to cross; but the ice being thin, and giving way under his weight, he fell into the water. Though no assistance was at hand, he was enabled by a great effort to extricate himself from his very perilous situation; and once in safety he returned to the ferry-house at Glottorp, where he dried his clothes and passed the night.

The next morning Gustavus proceeded to Ornäs, to the house of a person of consideration, by name Arendt Persson, another of his old Upsala friends; and as this man had served under his own banner in the wars of the Stures, and shown great attachment to his person, he naturally expected from him a kind welcome, as well as shelter and protection. Apparently, indeed, nothing could be more cordial than the reception he met with, for Persson not only embraced him warmly; but on the knight, in the innocence of his heart, informing him of his motives for visiting Dalecarlia, and of his intention to incite the people to revolt against Christian, he promised him every assistance.

The rights of hospitality fulfilled, the host showed Gustavus up to his chamber, a pretty lofty one, where, glad at

having at length found assistance, and wearied in mind and body, he soon fell into a profound sleep.

But the knight was sadly deceived in his man, who, unknown to him, was in the Danish interest; and a villain of so black a dye, moreover, as to be ready, for the sake of lucre, to deliver his friend over to the executioner.

No sooner, therefore, had Persson taken his leave of Gustavus, than off he posted to the house of Måns Nilsson, a neighbouring gentleman, residing at a place called Aspeboda, to whom he communicated the fact of Gustavus being wholly within his power, and said that they might now readily gain the promised reward for his head, besides winning the favour of Christian. But Nilsson was an honourable man, and scouted with the contempt it deserved, the base proposal of the mercenary wretch.

On receiving this rebuff, Persson departed in an angry mood; and heading back the way he came, drove straightway to the house of his brother-in-law, Brun Bengtsson—the *Fogde*, or chief civil officer of the district, a Dane by birth, and one of Christian's creatures—to whom he imparted his important secret; when no time was lost by the worthy pair in collecting a posse of men sufficient to effect the capture or death of the knight.

In the common course of things poor Gustavus's days were now numbered; but Providence deemed otherwise, and sent him aid in his extremity from a quarter whence it was little to have been expected. Barbro, the wife of Persson, proved his guardian angel.

This magnanimous woman, who at first sight had taken a deep interest in Gustavus—ill-natured people say in consequence of his good looks—had not been unobservant of her

husband's movements, and seeing him, on his return from Aspeboda, drive past his own door to the Fogde's, she at once suspected the real state of the case; and indignant at his perfidy, took instant measures to defeat his treacherous intentions. Ordering a faithful servant, named Jakob, to prepare a horse and sledge, and to have the vehicle in waiting at the back of the house, she hastened to the knight's chamber, and informed him of his imminent danger, and the necessity of immediate flight. Desiring him to follow, she led the way to a detached and lone room, from the window of which, as it was some twenty feet from the ground, she lowered him down by means of one of the long narrow towels still so commonly seen in the northern parts of Sweden. He then jumped into the sledge, which was in readiness under the window, and set off at a rapid pace for the house of Jon, the parson of Svärdsjö, where his kind protectress had assured him he would be well received, and in safety.

The old house at Ornäs, situated near to the shores of the lake Runn, the bed on which Gustavus slept, and his watch, are still religiously preserved; and strangers often visit the place to see these mementos of one of Sweden's greatest heroes and kings.

Gustavus had made his retreat just in time; for soon after his departure, the Fogde and some twenty armed men arrived at the house, in full assurance of securing their prize. But the bird was flown, and Persson got nothing by his damnable treachery but the curses of his contemporaries and of posterity.

It is said, that to his dying day, the scoundrel never forgave his wife for her noble conduct in this matter; that the sight of her was unendurable to him; and that though

they slept in the same bed, it was so arranged, by means of an aperture in the wall, that each had access to the nuptial couch from their own separate apartments.

After leaving Ornäs, the faithful Jakob drove Gustavus to the north-eastern extremity of the lake Runn, then firmly frozen over. It was sunset, and the man knew the way no farther. The knight therefore left the sledge, and proceeded to the smelting works of Sandvik, to inquire the proper route to Svärdsjö; but on opening the door, the first person he saw was Nils Hansson, with whom he had been formerly acquainted, and who was well known to be a partizan of Christian. Fortunately, however, he was not noticed, and was therefore enabled to make good his retreat, unobserved.

Presently afterwards, Gustavus met a person belonging to the place, who very good-naturedly accompanied him for some distance, and put him on the right track. At parting, the knight presented his guide with a piece of silver, saying: "Should God assist me, come to me, and I will reward thee for thy kindness." As it was now growing dark, he on reaching the hamlet of Bengtsheden, requested and obtained lodgings for the night.

Here, whilst he was meditating over the fire, the mistress of the house, who was occupied in making sausages, turned to him and said: "*Wäg-karl* (that is, traveller, or wandering man), you have nothing else to do, so cut me some *Korf-stickor* (or sausage-skewers)." But he replied: "I cannot make your *Pölsepinnar*," (a somewhat jocose turn of expression for *Korf-stickor*).

On the following day Gustavus reached Svärdsjö. But though he and Jon, the clergyman, had been very good

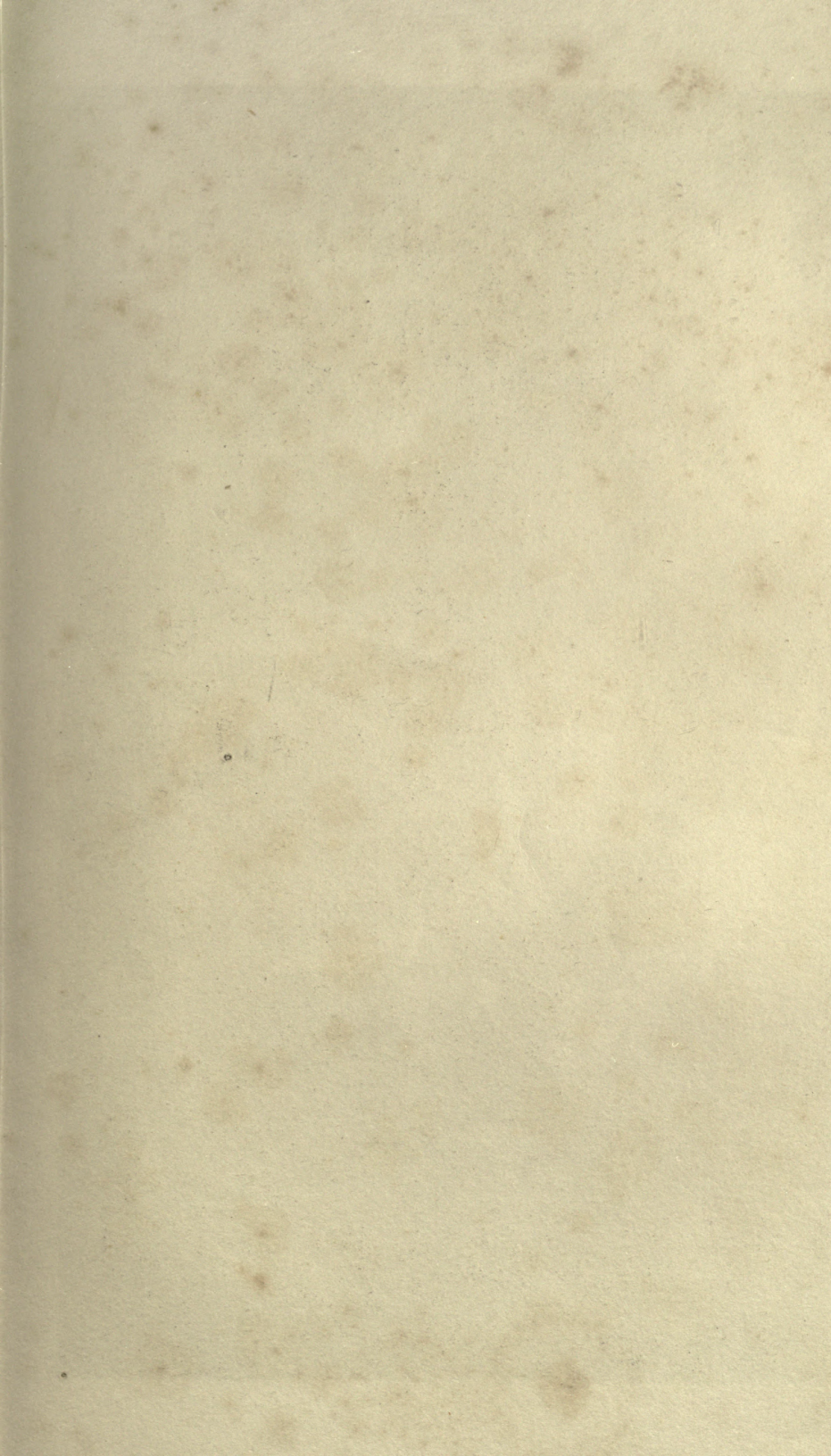
friends when at Upsala (as indeed was the case with his brother collegians generally, for by his kindness and conciliatory manners he had made himself much beloved); yet, after his recent experience at Ornäs, he cared not to make himself known, until after he had ascertained the political bias of the parson. In furtherance of this object, therefore, he went into the barn, and assisted the servants in thrashing. But as he soon learned from the conversation of his comrades that their master was a true Swede, and anything but attached to the Danish party, he boldly avowed himself to Jon, who gave him a most hearty and hospitable welcome. Thus kindly received, the knight spent several days at this place, for the most part in consultation with his generous entertainer, as to the best means of delivering their common father-land from the yoke of the stranger.

But in the meantime Persson and the Fogde had made public proclamation that Gustavus was in Dalecarlia; and all the bridges and passes were in consequence strictly guarded; and the country swarmed with emissaries of Christian, who searched for him in every direction. His situation was now perilous enough, but rendered doubly so by the suspicions of his fellow-servants. On one occasion, Jon's housekeeper coming unexpectedly into her master's room, found him respectfully offering a towel to the strange servant, who was then making his toilet; and though on her inquiring the cause of this singular proceeding, the parson managed to put her off with some excuse or other, he saw it would not be prudent for Gustavus to remain under his roof, and therefore sent him to a trusty peasant, named Sven Elfsson, who lived at a hamlet called Isala.

The knight, however, had hardly reached his new abode, before several of the Danish spies, having learned the route he had taken, entered the room where he was warming himself before the oven—Sven's wife being engaged at the time in baking—and began making inquiries after him. When the woman saw the men, and learned their business, she, to lull suspicion, gave Gustavus with the bread-shovel a heavy whack across the shoulders, saying at the same time: "Why do you stand there, you lout, gaping at strangers? Have you never seen people before? Be off with you to the barn and thrash." The knight said not a word; but assuming the gait of a boor, he obeyed her orders, and forthwith left the apartment. The presence of mind displayed by Sven's wife on this occasion, doubtless saved his life; for the soldiers, never dreaming that he could be the man for whom they were looking, after searching the house in vain, proceeded on their way.

As at Rankhyttan, the barn at Isala, in which Gustavus wielded the flail, is still in existence; and the traveller is shown an ancient inscription, cut in the walls of the wooden building; as also a costly monument, which at an after-period King Gustaf III. caused to be erected there, in commemoration of the event.

Gustavus' next adventure was still more hazardous than the last. Sven, his protector, finding that the knight could no longer remain in concealment at Isala, resolved on consigning him to the care of the two brothers, Mattias and Per Olsson, who dwelt at the hamlet of Marnäs in the heart of the Finn-forest, and were known to be true and upright Swedes. But as the reward offered for his apprehension was now doubled, the country full of Christian's soldiers, and all





Day & Son, Litho & Col. Queen.

GUSTAVUS IN CONCEALMENT.

By the artist, del. by Walker, lit.

the public ways strictly guarded, the difficulties of getting him conveyed to his new retreat were very great. Sven, however, undertook the task in person; and concealing him in a load of straw, and taking by-paths through the forest, they set off on the journey, which was alike perilous to both; for had the fugitive been discovered, Sven himself, there is little doubt, would have been put to death on the spot.

They had not proceeded very far, when they were surrounded by a party of military, one of whom, suspecting that all was not right, forthwith thrust his spear several times into the straw, though happily without doing Gustavus farther injury than inflicting a flesh wound on his thigh. As, however, the knight, notwithstanding his hurt, had the presence of mind to remain motionless, and as his conductor looked on apparently quite unconcerned, the misgivings of the soldiers were quieted, and the man was allowed to proceed on his way.

But almost immediately afterwards Sven observed that a good deal of blood ran from the sledge, which, in the event of another visitation, might give rise to suspicion; with great presence of mind therefore, he drew his knife, and deeply gashed the *Kråka*, or frog, of the horse's foot, so that blood flowed freely, and sufficiently accounted for that already on the snow. Happily, however, they met with no further mishap on the way, and reached Marnäs in safety.

Sven now took an affectionate leave of Gustavus, and returned to his home. It is gratifying to record that this brave and faithful fellow, who had risked all in the knight's service, was not forgotten by him when he came to the throne; a valuable little property having been presented to him by the King, as a reward for his services.

The roof of the church at Svärdsjö, in which parish Sven of Isala dwelt, is decorated with two large gilded crowns; one of which was presented by Gustavus himself, and the other, at a subsequent period, by Queen Christina, to mark their sense of the rare fidelity shown to the King by the inhabitants; who to this day, indeed, are commonly called Kråkor, in commemoration of the cutting of the frog of the horse's foot.

The brothers Mattias and Per, to whose care Gustavus was now entrusted, guarded him most carefully; but as the Danish emissaries showed themselves even in that wild district, they removed him to a sort of natural cave in the Leksand forest, formed partly by a huge uprooted pine; where he remained for several days, during which they supplied him with food and necessaries.

But even here he was not considered safe. For his better concealment, therefore, they shifted his hiding-place to a knoll, situated in the middle of an extended morass, where the overhanging branches of an immense fir-tree partially sheltered him from the inclemency of the weather. This eminence was in consequence called *Kungs-högen*, or the King's Mound, which name it retains even to the present day.

At length, Gustavus thought the time was come for him either publicly to call on the people to assist him in restoring freedom to their father-land, or to fly the country; and as the search after him had now become somewhat less rigorous, his faithful friends at Marnäs conveyed him through almost boundless forests, to the house of an acquaintance of theirs, who dwelt in the vicinity of Rättvik, a large hamlet on the eastern side of the great lake Siljan.

Here he remained hid in a cellar until the following Sunday, when, after Divine Service, he addressed the assembled congregation on the subject next his heart. He spoke to them of Stockholm's "Blod-bad," in which Sweden had been deluged with the blood of her noblest sons; how Christian had caused the remains of Sture, their beloved Regent, to be exhumed; and of the horrible treatment of his widow, Kristina, and her mother, Sigrid Banér; and finally, he reminded them of the glorious example set them by their fathers, in the days of the Stures and of Engelbrekt.* On hearing of these atrocities, the multitude expressed the highest indignation. But when Gustavus exhorted them to take up arms, they replied that, though desirous of expelling the Tyrant from the country, they must first ascertain the feelings of their neighbours, without whose assistance nothing could be effected.

Satisfied with this his first public address to the Dalecarlians, Gustavus took his departure from Rättvik, and proceeded to Mora, situated at the northern extremity of the lake Siljan, and one of the richest and most populous parishes in Dalecarlia, where the incumbent, Jakob Persson, gave him a most hospitable reception. As, however, there

* One of the most illustrious names in the Swedish annals. He played a very distinguished rôle during the reign of Erik XIII. Feeling indignant at the cruel and tyrannical conduct of the Governors and others in authority, more especially in Dalecarlia, his native province, he instigated the peasants to revolt; and putting himself at their head, he made regular war on that monarch. At one time he had no less than one hundred thousand men under his command. After the lapse of about two years, however, in which while his career had been most successful, he was basely murdered by one Måns Bengtsson, with whom, though formerly his enemy, he was then on terms of amity.

were a number of the knight's enemies prowling about, he dared not to shelter him under his own roof, and therefore entrusted him to the safe keeping of a peasant named Tomte Mattes, at Utmeland, a hamlet in the vicinity.

Here he was secreted beneath the cottage in a vaulted cellar, which was entered by means of a trap-door in the floor of the room above. He had not been long here, however, before the Danish soldiers came as usual in search of him. But on the instant of their making their appearance, Mattes' wife, who was at the time occupied in brewing ale for Christmas, hastily rolled a cask over the trap-door, so that the men were in ignorance of the opening. And as in reply to their inquiries, she professed to know nothing about the knight; and the search in the house having proved fruitless, their suspicions were dispelled, and they took their departure empty-handed. Once more, therefore, was Gustavus saved by dear woman's wit.

When one reflects that a large reward had long been offered for the head of the knight, and that he had been diligently sought for in every direction by the creatures of the Tyrant, his escapes from his enemies are indeed wonderful. But then it must be remembered that in those days—and it is to be hoped such is still the case—so high and chivalrous a feeling existed amongst the Swedish people, that if a stranger entered a house, and threw himself on the generosity of the owner, he would guard him at the risk of his own life. It was now a matter of notoriety throughout Dalecarlia, that Gustavus, relying on their well-known honour and integrity, and in the full confidence that they would befriend him, had committed himself into their hands. The inhabitants, therefore, considered him as their guest, and as such, entitled

to protection ; and as a proof of this being the general feeling, no one but the treacherous villain, Arendt Persson of Ornäs, was found so lost to all sense of shame, as to be willing for the sake of gold, to betray him.



GUSTAVUS HARANGUING THE PEOPLE.

Shortly afterwards, on a holiday during Christmas, and as the congregation were coming out of Mora church, Gustavus stationed himself on a rising ground hard by the sacred edifice, for the purpose of addressing the people. It was about noon, and a brisk north wind was blowing at the time, which on occasions of moment like the present, is always considered by the Dalecarlians a favourable omen ; and the sun, which then little more than topped the mountain of Esung, spread its glorious rays over the snowy heights in the vicinity. The knight's intention of making a

public harangue being known, he was presently surrounded by a crowd of people, who contemplated with interest and admiration the noble form and bearing of the man before them, of whose cruel and unmerited persecution they had heard so much.

“Friends and countrymen,” the hero began, and he spoke in so clear and loud a voice, that he was heard by every one, “I rejoice much at seeing your great congregation; but with equal sorrow I reflect on the sad condition of us all! You who hourly hear and see how my life is sought after, must be the best judges of the risk I run in appearing before you. But our unhappy father-land is dearer to me than existence itself. How long are we to be slaves, we who are born to freedom? The aged well know from bitter experience what persecution Swedish men have to expect from Danish kings. The young have heard of their atrocities, and from childhood have learned to hate and oppose their rule. These tyrants have sucked up the juice from our lands, so that nothing is left to us save empty houses, wasted fields and uncertain life. Remember how, under Erik of Pomerania, you were treated by Jösse Eriksson.* The like sad times and misfortunes have again come upon us. The country will soon swim with our blood. Many hundreds of Swedish men have already suffered a shameful and unmerited death. Our bishops and privy councillors have been murdered—I myself have been bereaved of father and brother-in-law (here the feelings of the knight overcame him, and tears came into his eyes). Their blood cries aloud for vengeance, and the condign punishment of the Tyrant. When the welfare of our

* The Governor of the province of Dalccarlia, and part of that of Westmanland, who made himself notorious by his tyranny and cruelty.

father-land has been in question, you Dalecarlians have always shown yourselves fearless and undaunted, and our chronicles are filled with your heroic deeds. All the inhabitants of Sweden, therefore, have now their eyes upon you, for they are accustomed to look up to you as the protectors and champions of the country. I will gladly join your ranks, and spare in the good cause neither my sword nor my blood—more the Tyrant has not left me; but he shall yet be made to remember that Swedish men are both faithful and brave, and that they must be governed by law and not by force.”

To this touching appeal a large portion of the people replied with shouts and cries of vengeance. Some shed tears, and many professed themselves in readiness instantly to take up arms. But there were others—Danish partizans, no doubt—who denied altogether the “Blod-bad,” and said they were tired of the numerous wars in which they had been engaged; that, moreover, they had heard speak of Christian’s friendly feeling towards the peasants, and that his ferocity extended only to the higher classes, by whom they had been oppressed. The assembled multitude could not therefore come to any decision, but as at Rättvik “must first,” they said, “take counsel with their neighbours.”

In the meanwhile, they advised Gustavus to seek for a more secure abode. And the precaution was needful, for the search after him became more rigid than ever. He therefore removed from his hiding-place; and although it was about Christmas time, and the weather dreadfully severe, he concealed himself for several days under the bridge at Morkarleby, which is about a mile north of Mora church.

Finding at length that the Dalecarlians were not willing to take up arms, and wearied out with fatigue and anxiety, Gustavus resolved on bidding adieu to the father-land which he so dearly loved, and ending his days in other countries. Proceeding therefore to the more northern parts of the parish of Mora, he from thence crossed over the wild and deeply-wooded tract, which separates Eastern from Western Dalecarlia.

At Lima, where he emerged from the forest, he made another attempt to incite the people to insurrection against the Tyrant, but without success. Subsequently he followed the course of the western Dal river towards its source in the distant mountains. But the farther he advanced, the more darkly and furiously rushed the stream over its rocky bed—the deeper lay the snow in the boundless forests that environed him on every side—and the less frequent became the dwellings of man. During this wearisome journey he suffered much from hunger and cold, his nights being commonly passed either in the open air, or in the untenanted huts, which on the bridle-ways of the northern wilds are occasionally met with for the convenience of the wayfarer. At length, however, the Norwegian fjälls, which were to separate him for ever from his unhappy country, rose to view.

Although when Gustavus took his departure from Mora, the men at that place could not come to the determination of assisting him, they had, nevertheless, taken a great liking to him, as well from his manly and noble bearing, as from his energetic and heart-stirring appeal to them.

This was more particularly the case with one Rasmus Jute, a Dane, who had formerly served the Stures faithfully,

and who was now settled in Dalecarlia. He having heard that an Under-Fogde, named Nils Westgöthe, had come to the hamlet for the purpose of seizing the knight, got together several of his people, and slew the man. Although a foreigner and a Dane, Rasmus was the first that took up arms in favour of the fugitive.

Shortly afterwards, upwards of one hundred Danish soldiers were one morning observed in the distance, advancing over the ice towards Rättvik (the lake Siljan being then firmly frozen over), where it may be remembered Gustavus addressed the people in the first instance. As so large a party of military had not recently been seen in that part of the country, it was supposed their object was to seize the knight by force as well as to harm the inhabitants in some way or other. Under this impression the church-bells—the usual signal when danger was at hand—were loudly tolled, and in a short time a large number of armed men were assembled at the usual place of rendezvous.

As the wind was high at the time, and blew from the southward, from which quarter the military approached Rättvik, the bells were not heard by them, and consequently they little expected the reception awaiting them. When therefore, on their arrival at the hamlet, the peasants attacked them, they were taken quite by surprise, and many were cut to pieces. The rest took shelter in the wooden tower of the church; and it was only through their prayers and entreaties, and their solemn promises not in any manner to injure Gustavus, that their lives were spared. Even after the soldiers had come down from the tower, and under the idea that some might still be lying concealed there, a number of arrows were directed

against it; and one hundred years afterwards, many were still to be seen sticking there, a convincing memorial of the combat.

At this period a number of the Swedish nobility and others, who had been declared *Fogelfria* by Christian, were wandering in the forests, which covered the face of the country. Several of these unhappy men, hearing that Gustavus was in Dalecarlia, proceeded thither, for the purpose of seeking him out, and in the hope to find shelter and protection. Amongst the number was Lars Olsson, of the family of *Björnram*—or bear-paw—a celebrated warrior, who had served under the Stures, and was well known in those parts. He arrived at Mora soon after the turn of the year; and when addressing the people, he corroborated to the letter all that the knight had told them as to the atrocities of Christian. He said, moreover, that it was the Tyrant's intention to double the taxes, to erect a gallows in every separate district, and to amputate each man's hand and foot, so as to render him powerless for the future; with several similar stories, either true or false. He regretted they had not assisted Gustavus, and blamed them for allowing him to depart as they had done. "Good men," said he, "unless you and the whole of the Swedish nation are to be ground to the dust, ruined, and extirpated, have him back again, for he is the only man amongst us, who has sense and capacity enough successfully to make head against the Tyrant."

On hearing this, the men of Mora were altogether beside themselves. Rage and abhorrence of Christian filled their hearts, and their only thoughts were of war and bloody revenge. They now bitterly lamented their conduct towards

Gustavus, and forthwith dispatched two of their most experienced *Skid-löpare*, or runners on Skidor, in search of the wanderer.



GUSTAVUS ON SKIDOR.

These men, following Gustavus' tracks on the snow, through wilds and fastnesses, were at length enabled to overtake him at Sälen, the very last hamlet in Western Dalecarlia, situated close to the foot of the Norwegian Alps. They communicated to him what had happened since his departure, the people's regret for the past, and their present willingness to risk life and fortune for the deliverance of their father-land.

The knight received this intelligence with joy and thank-

fulness, and in company with the messengers lost no time in retracing his steps.

My story is now soon told. Were I to narrate all Gustavus' after-exploits it would fill volumes; suffice it therefore to say, that the men of Mora and the adjoining provinces received him on his return, with reverence and rejoicing; that they swore fidelity to him, and placed several hundred men at his disposal; that very many of the outlawed Swedish nobility and others, who had distinguished themselves in the wars of the Stures, flocked to his standard, and essentially aided him in drilling his little army, which soon numbered about three thousand men; that with this small force he shortly afterwards commenced the campaign against Christian; that though he met with vicissitudes, he eventually succeeded—mainly through the instrumentality of his faithful friends, the Dalecarlians—in driving the Tyrant out of his kingdom; that by the unanimous consent of the nation, the crown was placed on his own head; that the Reformation amongst other remarkable events, was introduced into Sweden during his reign; that he ruled long and gloriously, and was gathered to his fathers in a green old age; and finally, that some of the most extraordinary men the world has ever seen were numbered amongst his successors.

As we have followed Gustavus throughout his wanderings, it may not be without interest to record the fate of his bitter and implacable enemies, King Christian and Archbishop Trolle.

Almost immediately after the "Blod-bad," the Tyrant returned to Denmark; nor did he again visit Sweden during the war of independence, which lasted for about two years. During this time, as well as at an after-period, his cruel and atrocious proceedings made him so detested in Denmark, that at length the nobility of Jutland took counsel together, and withdrawing their allegiance from him, conferred the crown on his uncle, Duke Frederick, of Holstein. He was therefore obliged to fly the country, and to take refuge in Holland, where, and in Germany, he remained for several years, endeavouring the while to induce the Emperor, Charles V., and others, to assist him in recovering his lost sceptre. And he at length so far succeeded, that they provided him with an army of from ten to twelve thousand men, with which he made a descent on Norway. At first fortune favoured him; but at length, after several reverses, he was taken prisoner by the Danes, who carried him to Copenhagen. Soon after his arrival, he was conveyed to the Castle of Sonderburg, situated on the island of Femern, and together with a dwarf, his especial favourite, was thrust into a dark and confined cell, unprovided with any kind of convenience. The door of the prison was then walled up, and the only light that found its way into it entered by means of an aperture in the wall, through which indeed the food of the captives, scanty as it was, was conveyed to them. In this deplorable place, and without any very great amelioration of his lot, the Tyrant remained for twelve long years; but at the expiration of that time—namely, in 1544—the door of his dungeon was again opened, so that he obtained a supply of fresh air; and several little indulgences were also granted to him, though under the same strict *surveillance* as before. In the year 1549, however, being

then in his sixty-eighth year, and when it was supposed he could no longer do any harm, he was removed to the Castle of Kallundborg, where freedom was granted him, and he was allowed to amuse himself as best he might; and here, in 1559, at the advanced age of seventy-eight, he closed his wicked and chequered life.

The fate of the Archbishop Trolle is soon narrated. After Christian had been taken prisoner in Norway, whither the prelate had accompanied him, he fled to Germany. Here, detested by his countrymen, and despised by foreigners, he served as a volunteer with the Lubeckers, at the battle of Öxneberg—fought in 1535, against the Swedes—where he received his death-wound.

A word in conclusion as to the manners and customs of the times in which Gustavus lived.

Simplicity and frugality in every-day life—and pomp, such as it was, on grand occasions—were the order of the day. Many of the present conveniences and comforts of life were then unknown. Glass windows were very uncommon; linen, parchment, and fine lattice-work being substituted for the *Skjut-luckor*, or apertures closed by slides. Open fire-places were used instead of stoves, and this, indeed, continued to be the case for two hundred years afterwards. Mats or hangings—with the poorer classes of coarse materials, but with the rich, embroidered with silk and gold—were suspended to the sides of the apartments, which were commonly constructed of logs. With the opulent classes thick benches of oak were fastened to the walls, and in front of them were long tables of equally substantial materials.

Chairs were not known, but their place was supplied by moveable benches and stools. The beds, which were few in number, and fastened to the walls, were large and roomy, and several of the guests usually slept together—often, indeed, with the host himself. This was even the case with people of princely rank. It was only in the churches that wax candles were used. The rich burnt tallow candles, and the poorer *Torrvedstickor*—that is, dry wood split into the form of laths.

The dinner hour was ten in the forenoon; that of supper, five in the evening. Each guest was expected to come provided with knife, fork, and spoon. Plates were scarce, and let the number of dishes be ever so numerous and various, they were never changed. At nine or ten o'clock people went to bed, and in consequence rose so much the earlier in the morning.

Clothing was made chiefly of wool; linen was so scarce as seldom to be used excepting as under-garments; holiday-dresses were composed of strong but costly materials. A petticoat often served, in succession, grandmother, mother, and child. The women wore their hair combed upwards; their gowns, which were long, and fitted tight to the body, had high-pointed collars. The men were attired in Spanish dresses. At first they wore their hair long, and their beards close-shaven; but this fashion, excepting by the clergy, was soon exchanged for bushy beards and close-cropped heads.

Watches were then so little known, that when about this period the heir-apparent to the throne of Russia received one as a present from the King of Denmark, he believed it to be an enchanted animal (*Trolldoms-djur*) sent for the purpose of ruining himself and his people; and he therefore with all possible dispatch returned it to that monarch!

The roads were few and wretched, so that wheel-carriages were seldom used. The first covered carriage was introduced into Sweden during the reign of Johan III., son of Gustavus. Most journeys were made on horseback, and when it rained the royal princesses wore capacious cloaks composed of oil-cloth.

High-sounding titles were never made use of. The king was simply called "His Grace;" a Prince "Junker," now an obsolete term; and a Princess "Fröken"—a designation applied also at the present day to all noble-born maidens, but for which we have no equivalent in the English language.

Passing strange as it may appear, knights were then accustomed to lay themselves down in the bridal-bed cased in full armour.

These men, like their predecessors, were very ignorant, more especially those advanced in years. Many of King Gustavus' highest officers could not even read, and were therefore obliged to retain an amanuensis for the special purpose of perusing and replying to his majesty's letters.

The Catholic religion was abolished in Sweden, but many of its superstitions remained; and not only the common people, but the higher classes, still believed in witchcraft.

Medical science was at a low ebb; its remedies, consisting for the most part of aperients and exorcisms.

In those days, owing in great measure to the civil wars which had so long devastated the kingdom, great ferocity and contempt for order prevailed amongst all classes. Brute force was more frequently had recourse to than the law; and deadly weapons were constantly used for the settlement of disputes. From the habits of the people, they would seem to have been bred in camps; alongside of the plough and

the spade were generally to be seen the sword and the buckler, it being very uncertain how soon defensive weapons might be needed.

The inhabitants of Småland were more especially remarkable for their savage customs. Owing to the deep forests, the mountainous nature of the country, and the large lakes that studded the face of it—thereby separating the people from the neighbouring districts, and even from one another—they in a great measure retained their former independence. The peasant dwelling on his own little isolated domain, hardly recognized a superior; whilst his sons, wandering armed throughout the day in the forest, were engaged either in the chase, or in brawls, which formed their chief delight.



THE DUEL.

Amongst other savage games to which they were addicted, two men used to fasten themselves together by means

of a leathern girdle. Each was provided with a knife, and one then asked the other, "how much cold steel he could take?" This point settled, and the blades—excepting the stipulated inch or two—securely wadded, the champions set to and gashed away at each other right and left! And as the girdle with which they were encompassed prevented either from retreating, or even from flinching, the combat only terminated by one of them crying out "enough!"—which was often not until one or both had received their death-wound. These contests were, in fact, of so deadly a nature, that when women went to great banquets, such as marriages, funerals, and the like, where feuds were pretty sure to ensue, they were accustomed to take a *shroud* along with them, it being very problematical whether or no the husband, brother, or son, as the case might be, would return home alive!

CHAPTER XIII.

THE WILD REIN-DEER — NUMBERS — CURIOUS SPECULATION — PORTRAIT —
ANTLERS — DULL OF SIGHT — FOOD — THE SARA KKA — FAWNS — CHASSE
ON SKIDOR — STALKING — THE VILD-REN HAGE — THE PIT-FALL.

THE Rein-deer (*Ren*, Sw. ; *Godde* ; *Potso*, in Lappish ; *Cervus Tarandus*, Linn.)—that in a wild state I speak of—is also an inhabitant of, or at least an occasional visitor to, the upper parts of Dalecarlia. Formerly, as it is believed, this animal was found throughout the greater part of Scandinavia ; but at the present day he is confined to the more northern portion of the peninsula. In Norway he is met with as low down as the 59° to 60° ; but in Sweden the 61° to 62° may be considered as his boundaries to the southward.

The wild rein-deer is pretty abundant in places, especially on some of the mountain ranges of Norway—as, for instance, on the Dovre, the Hardanger, and the Fille fjäll. Some years ago, when traversing (though not on a sporting

excursion) the mountains in question, I saw several of these animals, and in the snow-drifts innumerable of their tracks. My guide assured me, indeed, that only a few days previously, he himself had fallen in with a herd consisting of two hundred at the least. But this number, however great, was nothing to what every one in those parts said are at times to be seen congregated.

“On the high fjälls in the vicinity of Röldahl and Woxlie,” Nilsson tells us, “the rein-deer collect at times in astonishing numbers. One day in the beginning of June, 1826 (a couple of months before my visit to this district), the fjäll, for the breadth of half a Norwegian mile,* was as thickly covered with rein-deer as the ground is where sheep feed in a flock. A number of hinds had recently calved, and the fawns followed their dams. The herd extended such a distance, that the eye could not embrace the whole at once. Subsequently the deer separated into three divisions. The peasants thereabouts, who are for the most part Chasseurs, followed the herd, and succeeded on the following day in approaching sufficiently near to kill several of the deer, both old and young. This reminds one as well of the interminable herds of antelopes in the deserts of Africa, as of the equally large herds of bisons in the prairies of America.” “That this account is literally true,” the Professor adds, “is the more certain, because it was given me in different places and by different persons, who all agreed in their relations. The phenomenon excited a good deal of interest—no person having previously seen so large a number of rein-deer collected on one and the same place.”

* The Norwegian mile is a trifle more than seven English miles; the Swedish mile, on the other hand, is somewhat less than seven English miles.

On the Jemtland and Herjeå dalen mountains in Sweden, as well as in the north-eastern portion of Lapland up to the North Cape, rein-deer are also pretty abundant. But in the intermediate country, which with some propriety may be called Western Lapland, in the widely-extended parishes of Jockmock, Arjeplog, Lycksele and Åsele, though formerly numerous, very few, according to Læstadius, are now to be found. Several reasons are assigned for this. Amongst the rest; that the soil is not peculiarly favourable for the growth of the rein-deer moss, the principal food of the rein-deer in the winter time; that the best feeding-grounds are intentionally burnt by the Finnish and Swedish squatters, so that the Lapps, with their herds of tame rein-deer (which are found troublesome neighbours), may be kept from their vicinity; as also that these parishes are in a measure covered with pine forests, where the snow always lies deep, and greater facility is consequently afforded of running down the rein-deer on Skidor, of which circumstance the Lapps and others have not failed to take advantage.

Nilsson has a curious speculation respecting the rein-deer. He imagines that those once inhabiting Scania came from the southward immediately after the boulder-formation, and whilst that province was still united to Germany; that, on the contrary, those which at present inhabit the northern portion of Scandinavia, came at a much later period (and subsequent to the land stretching between the Gulf of Bothnia and the White Sea having risen from the deeps), by the way of Finnish Lapland. He has come to this conclusion from fossil remains of the rein-deer having been found in abundance in the alluvial peat-bogs of Scania; whereas in the whole of the line of country

between that province and southern Lapland, nothing of the kind has been met with.



THE REIN-DEER.*

The rein-deer in a wild state is far from an ignoble animal ; but he is not so graceful as the stag, owing principally to the position of his neck, which obliges him to carry his head in a somewhat stooping posture—thus forming nearly a straight line with the back—instead of holding it erect like that

* Portrait of the large male now in the Zoological Gardens, Regent's Park, by Mr. Alexander Fussell.

animal, and some others of the deer tribe. His legs are besides shorter and thicker than those of the red deer. Occasionally he attains to a weight of about three hundred and fifty pounds. His colour somewhat depends on the season of the year. In the summer time brown predominates; but in the winter, he has a greyish, or even whitish look. He is of a much lighter and more handsome colour than the tame rein-deer. His coat—in the winter at least—is immensely thick.

The hoofs of the rein-deer, which, as with others of the deer tribe, are cloven—and which the animal has the power of contracting or expanding at pleasure—are large and broad, and enable him to make his way over marshy ground and through deep snow with apparent ease. The snapping or clicking noise, which is heard when the animal walks, is occasioned by the contraction of the hoof when the foot is raised from the ground, and the consequent striking of the inner parts of the hoof against each other.*

Both sexes are provided with antlers; but those of the female are somewhat less than the male's. They are large and slender, with brow antlers, which are broad and palmated; and they are highly ornamented, being entirely covered during the principal part of the year, with a soft, dark, velvety down. Though the male as well as the female shed their horns annually,† it is not at the same

* L. von Buch (and Læstadius says pretty much the same thing) attributes the noise, on the contrary, to "the incessant crackling of his knee-joints, as if produced by a succession of electric shocks."

† "When the rein-deer sheds his horns, and gets new ones in their stead," so we learn from Pontoppidan, "they appear at first to be covered with a sort of skin, and till they come to a finger's length, are so soft, that they may be cut with a knife like a sausage, and are delicate eating even raw. This we have from the huntsmen's account, who, when they are far out in the country, and are pinched for food, eat them, which satisfies both hunger and thirst."

period ; for the males lose theirs soon after the rutting season, in the autumn, whilst the females and the young males do not part with theirs until pretty late in the spring.

Amongst other singularities of the wild rein-deer may be mentioned, that if he comes to a *Kör-väg*, or track on which there is traffic, he never crosses it, but at once turns back again.

The rein-deer's sense of smelling is uncommonly acute ; but not so his sight, which is very dull.* "If he comes under the wind of a man," writes a friend, who has had some experience in stalking that animal, "he instantly takes to flight ; but if one comes suddenly upon him, he will often stop and gaze in wonder. I was once out rein-deer shooting, and got within one hundred and fifty yards of a herd, when I fired and brought one down. My Norwegian attempted also to shoot, but his rifle would not go off. He had time to prime thrice before it exploded, the deer standing still, and gazing in every direction the while, but without discovering us, though fully exposed to view ; and then moving quietly away."

It is probably owing to his exquisite sense of smelling that he almost invariably feeds against the wind. Hence, if it has blown from any particular quarter for several consecutive days—say the westward, for instance—one does not in that case find a single deer on the eastern side of the fjälls, because at such times the animals gradually make for the western fjälls, against the wind.

* "The rein-deer," Pontoppidan tells us, in his usual quaint way, "has over his eyelids a kind of skin, through which he peeps, when otherwise, in the hard showers of snow, he would be obliged to shut his eyes entirely ; a very great proof of the Creator's omniscience and benevolence in providing for each creature's wants according to its destined manner of living."

The rein-deer is possessed of great strength and endurance. His chief power, however, would seem to lie in his hind-legs, which are prodigiously long in proportion to his fore-legs. "I have seen a wild rein-deer," so a friend tells me, "ascend at a gallop the brow of a mountain covered with snow, so steep, that I could scarcely get up, except on my hands and knees."

The food of the wild rein-deer consists of various kinds of herbs, grasses, and lichens. In the summer he eats several species of *Rumex*—more especially *R. digynus*—and of *Ranunculus*, amongst which *R. glacialis* is his favourite food, and in the alpine regions of Western Norway is therefore called *Reinblumma*—that is, rein-deer flower. He also feeds on the French willow (*Epilobium angustifolium*, Linn.), on species of *Cerastium*, as well as tender leaves of the willow and birch tree; on the common buckbean (*Menyanthes trifoliata*, Linn.), and on various species of *Equisetum*, &c. In the winter he feeds for the most part on rein-deer moss (*Cladonia rangiferina*, Ach.) and other lichens. He drinks clear, cold water; but during severe weather, snow serves him as a substitute.

In the summer time, when he lives much on green food, his dung is more loose; but in the winter it consists of dry, so-called beans, like those of sheep.

The chief resorts of the wild rein-deer in the summer time, are the lower ranges of the subalpine regions, where he finds not only good pasturage, but shelter from the heats of noon. But at the opposite season, he ascends the higher ranges of the mountains, where he not only meets with abundance of rein-deer moss, and other lichens—which at that

season constitute his chief sustenance—but obtains ready access to his food; for in exposed situations, where the wind can freely circulate, the snow seldom lies so deep as in the forest. In the early part of the summer these animals are much dispersed in small parties over the fjälls; but towards autumn, and as the rutting season approaches, they get more into herds, and in the winter and spring are frequently to be met with congregated in very large numbers.

The rutting season is about the end of September or beginning of October. The males are then very pugnacious, and desperate battles take place between them. As with the stag, their antlers at times get so locked together, that they cannot separate; and thus they remain until either starved to death, or that they be destroyed by man, or others of their numerous enemies.

Each old male—called in Lappish *Sarakka*, or the leader—has usually at this season a pretty large harem. He, perforce, keeps the *Vajor*, or hinds, together; and so soon as he observes that one has separated from the rest, he immediately runs after her, and in the most ungallant manner, places his antlers under her buttocks, and bodily lifting up her hinder parts, he, wheelbarrow fashion, walks her home again. Other males of inferior strength, however, whom the *Sarakka* has forcibly expelled from the family circle, hover at a respectful distance around the herd, and when one of the females strays or lags behind, one of their number forthwith joins company with her, and in all silence carries her off and mates with her. Should two herds meet, and each be headed by a *Sarakka*, a severe combat usually ensues between them; and he that comes off victorious, adds the seraglio of his antagonist to his own.

Amongst the males of the domesticated rein-deer, battles are also of frequent occurrence; but the conqueror in these cases allows the vanquished to take refuge in the herd. Not so with the Sarakka, for he, like a sensible fellow, will not permit another male, with the exception of the fawns of the year, to remain in the harem.

The period of gestation with the female is from thirty weeks to eight months. She brings forth in May, or the beginning of June, on bare ground, or on a snow-drift. More generally she has only a single young one, but at times two, and it is on record that she has had as many as three at a time. The fawns are not spotted, as is the case with some others of the deer tribe; but (with the exception of the legs, belly, and throat being somewhat lighter, and that there is a dark streak along the back) they are of a uniform red-brown colour. This, however, soon changes; and already in the middle of the month of August the back and sides are blackish. In September they are more grey. The fawns, which are weak and slim, as also less high on the leg than other fawns of the deer-tribe, can, after some days, follow the parent wherever she goes. She is an affectionate mother; and as she does not shed her antlers until some ten days or a fortnight after the birth of her young, she is enabled to defend them against the attacks of the male—who at that season is without horns—until such time as they can shift for themselves. She nourishes them at first with her rich and nutritious milk; but they soon learn to seek for such grasses, &c., as nature has appointed for their support. It is asserted that the young males pair during the first autumn—that is, when only five months old!

Various expedients are resorted to in Scandinavia, to circumvent the wild rein-deer.



CHASSE ON SKIDOR.

In the winter time, or rather in the spring, when there is *skare*, or a crust upon the surface of the snow, numbers are run down by the Lapps and squatters on Skidor; for if the snow will bear the man and not the deer, they are soon overtaken and slaughtered. During the depth of the winter, however, excepting in wooded districts, where the snow is not only deep but loose, this feat is not so easy of accomplish-

ment; for at that season the deer keep much to the naked fjälls, where, comparatively speaking, there is little snow; and that little, moreover, from the wind having free access to it, so hard packed together, that the animals can go at their own pace. On these occasions the Lapps, as when pursuing the wolf, have frequently no other weapon than a stout staff, armed at one end with a pike.

During the summer and autumn many wild rein-deer are stalked in much the same manner as the stag with us. Sometimes the hunter is alone; but at others he is accompanied by a dog, which, in a long leash, and in the manner spoken of when treating of the elk, leads him up to the deer. On other occasions the hunter, under the shelter of tame rein-deer, makes his approaches to the quarry. It happens, moreover, not unfrequently, that such of the younger males as have been driven away from the seraglio by the Sarakka, mingle with the tame herds, and pair with the hinds—an act of temerity that usually costs them their lives.

The number of wild rein-deer killed annually in Scandinavia by one means or another, is considerable. Very many, to my knowledge, are shot on the Norwegian mountains by peasants and others; as also in the more northern parts of the peninsula. One of my guides in Russian Lapland, who was much celebrated as a *Chasseur*, assured me, indeed, that in his time he had destroyed hundreds of those animals—in one instance as many as nine in a single day. For the most part, he had shot them during the autumn, when they were in the best condition; but many he had also run down on Skidor.

Of late years several of our countrymen, and amongst the rest more than one of my acquaintance, have been tolerably successful with rein-deer on the Norwegian mountains. But as yet, to my notions, not a tenth part has been done that might with management be accomplished ; for though rein-deer may not be either abundant, or approachable in one particular district, it is not granted that such is the case in another. Deer-stalking in Scandinavia has not had a fair trial ; and it is probable, that a persevering man, if well appointed, and possessed of good information, might meet with just as good sport there, as in the finest deer-forest in Scotland.



THE VILD-REN HAGE.

In parts of Lapland many wild rein-deer are captured in snares, which is effected in this wise : Where those animals are known to resort, a kind of fence, called a *Vild-Ren Hage*,

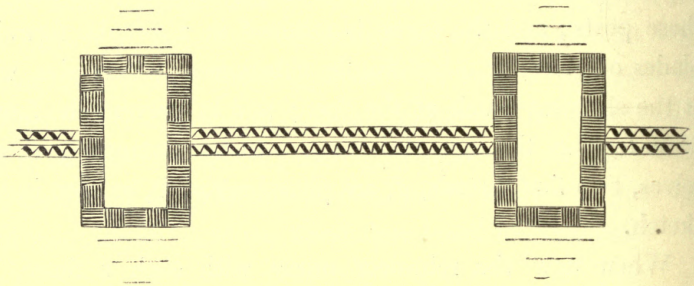
which at times extends for nearly a couple of miles, is constructed out of brush-wood and young trees. Openings, at stated intervals, are left for the passage of the deer. At either side of these openings are posts, *bb*; the halter, *a*, which consists of an inch-thick rope, is affixed to one of these posts; and the noose is retained in a circular form by blades of grass, or other fragile substances, which give way at the slightest touch of the deer; and to prevent the fawns from leaping through the noose without entangling themselves, two fine threads, *d*, are placed across it, as seen in the sketch.

When now the rein-deer meets with such a fence, he follows it until he comes to an opening, through which he attempts to force his way, in which case he commonly gets his antlers or neck fast in the noose, and consequently remains a captive.

This device is chiefly brought into use in the early part of the autumn, at which time the rein-deer resorts to wooded districts; but towards the approach of winter, when he begins to make for the fjälls, the halters are removed, and stored away in readiness for future use.

Bears and wolves are also captured in Lapland in snares somewhat similar to the above; but to prevent the wolf from gnawing asunder the halter—as under ordinary circumstances would almost inevitably be the case—the outer end of it, instead of being fastened to the post, as with the rein-deer snare, is roved through a hole at the top of the post, and then attached to a heavy stone, so placed at some distance from the ground as to fall at the slightest touch. When therefore the beast is noosed, the stone falls, and at

once brings his head to the side of the post, in the manner of an ox when about to be slaughtered ; in which position his teeth can no longer avail him, and die he must.



THE REIN-DEER PIT-FALL.

Formerly, and before the invention of gunpowder—and it is possible the device is still adopted—rein-deer were captured in Scandinavia by means of pit-falls. The remains of many of these, indeed, partially covered with moss, are still to be seen on the slopes and near to the foot of the Norwegian fjälls.

They were oblong in form ; about six feet in length ; from two to two and a half feet in breadth ; and would appear to have been about four feet deep ; the side walls were built up with flat stones. As with the pit-falls for elks recently mentioned, a cylindrical block of wood, called a *Bom*, armed with iron spikes or spear-heads, and revolving on an axis, was placed about half-way down, directly across the pit ; so that when the poor animal was engulfed, he was

not only at once impaled, but the more he struggled, the more fearfully he was lacerated. Stone walls of from four to five feet in height connected the several pits, and formed not only a barrier to the farther progress of the deer, but served to divert them in to the pits. Sticks were placed over the mouth of the pit to conceal it from view; and lichens, &c., of which the deer is fond, strewed over the covering, to lure them to destruction.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE TAME REIN-DEER—AS A BEAST OF BURDEN—FOR DRAUGHT—HIS SPEED AND ENDURANCE—FOOD—ENEMIES—THE MOSQUITO—HERD OF REIN-DEER—THE LASSO—MILKING—BUTTER AND CHEESE—NATURALIZATION—THE RED DEER—THE ROEBUCK.

THE Laplanders, as known, possess vast herds of domesticated rein-deer. Those useful animals not only mainly contribute to the subsistence, but constitute the chief riches of that nomade people. Without the rein-deer, indeed, the Lapp could hardly contrive to exist in the dreary regions he inhabits—the needful provender being too scanty to admit of the well-being of other animals, such as sheep and horned cattle, which in more southern countries are made subservient to the purposes of man. The skins of the rein-deer serve the Lapp for raiment, and the milk and flesh for food and nourishment. With the exception of fish and game, indeed, he lives on little besides. Bread of any kind is unknown to him.

The rein-deer, moreover, is invaluable in other ways. In the summer, in like manner with a pack-horse, he bears the tent and household gear of his owner when removing from

one encampment to another; and it may be at times the children, or even the females of the family; but I never heard of his being regularly used in Lapland for the saddle, as is the case in parts of Siberia. Nothing can exceed his usefulness as a beast of burden. "Several times," writes a friend, "I had those animals to carry my baggage, and after taking them ten to fifteen miles, all that was done was to slip them, and they immediately set off at a hand-gallop to rejoin the herd."



THE AKJA.

In the winter time again, when the ground is deeply covered with snow, the rein-deer is harnessed to a kind of sledge,

called in Swedish *Akja*, or *Pulka*; and in Lappish, *Kerres*. As seen in the above sketch, it is boat-like in form, and instead of two runners, with which sledges are usually provided, it rests on a single and broad keel.

The harness is a very primitive affair. In the fore part of the Akja is a loop formed of the sinews of the rein-deer; to this is affixed a broad leathern thong (*Raktes*, in Lappish)—the traces in short—which passing under the belly of the animal, is fastened to a collar (*Kesas*, in Lappish), that is made of skin, and well stuffed with hair. A stout girth that encircles the body of the deer, keeps both the *Raktes* and the *Kesas* in their proper place. A long plaited leathern thong, which is affixed to the head of the deer, and which, when driving, one holds in the right hand, serves not only to guide the animal, but in lieu of a whip.

As may be readily understood both from the construction of the Akja, and the simplicity of the harness, one has no great control over either the vehicle or the deer. Capsizes, in fact, are of frequent occurrence; and what is worse, the deer is apt to bolt away from the proper track, which it necessarily gives one much trouble to regain. At times, indeed, he becomes restive, and instead of going ahead, turns round and attacks the driver, who has no other resource than to upset the Akja, and shelter himself beneath it until such time as the animal recovers his temper, when the vehicle is righted again, and the journey renewed. Wrapped up in furs, however, as one must unavoidably be in the winter time, these assaults of the deer are seldom attended with much inconvenience.

That the rein-deer is well calculated for draught may be inferred from the strength of his loins, and the bone of his

leg. A good deer is capable of drawing a burden of near three hundred pounds; but the greatest weight allotted to him by the Laplanders, when performing their journeys, is five *Vaags*, or about two hundred and forty pounds; and the *Akja*, from its construction, can only be drawn by a single deer.

The rein-deer is possessed of considerable speed and endurance; but what he is capable of performing when in harness, seems not to be accurately known. Travellers of late years have, with a single deer, accomplished a distance of one hundred and fifty miles within less than nineteen hours—that is, at the rate of eight miles an hour. But this was over a difficult line of country; and the inference therefore is, that under more favourable circumstances, the animal could have got over much more ground within that space of time.

It is on record, indeed, and there may be a good deal of truth in the story—for a portrait of the rein-deer, together with that of the driver, is still preserved in the palace of Drottningholm—that on the occasion of a sudden irruption of the enemy, an officer was dispatched, with the intelligence, with a rein-deer and sledge from Umeå, on the Gulf of Bothnia, to Stockholm, a distance of nearly five hundred English miles, which journey was performed within forty-eight hours; but the faithful animal, lamentable to say, dropped down dead on his arrival in the capital!

The tame rein-deer are almost altogether confined to Lapland Proper. Formerly they were pretty common in parts of Norway; but at the present day—to the south of Finnmark at least—only one or two herds are pastured in that country, and that not far from the town of Rörås, celebrated for its copper mines. The disappearance of the Lapps and their

herds from the Norwegian fjälls, has excited some speculation. Many imagine, and with a show of reason, that it was mainly in consequence of the peasantry from the neighbouring valleys making too free with stragglers from the herds, that the Lapps were necessitated to retreat to their own country.

What the number of tame rein-deer may be in Lapland is hard to say, but it is very considerable. Less than two to three hundred are not supposed sufficient to support even a single family in comfort; and there are men who have one thousand or more. I have indeed heard of individuals reputed to be possessed of two thousand and upwards. When I was at the hamlet of Muonioniska, in Torneå Lapmark, about twenty years since, they told me that in the winter time some ten thousand head of deer were usually scattered in the surrounding woods. And we read that in the year 1770, the two hundred Lapp-families inhabiting the parish of Jockmock, owned amongst them no fewer than twenty thousand head of those animals. Putting all things together therefore, I should imagine the number of tame rein-deer in Lapland, may be estimated at from fifty to one hundred thousand.

There are, so to speak, two kinds of tame rein-deer: the so-called *Fjäll-Ren*, or mountain rein-deer, which for the greater part of the year are herded on such elevated regions as to be destitute, or nearly so, of arboreal vegetation; and the *Skogs-Ren*, or forest rein-deer, that all the year round are pastured in the forests. The *Skogs-Ren* is the larger of the two; but even he is much inferior in size and nobility of appearance to the wild rein-deer. The latter is occasionally killed weighing about three hundred and fifty

pounds; whereas the tame rein-deer, according to Swedish naturalists, never attain to more than two hundred pounds. Several reasons are assigned for this deterioration in the race; but the principal one would seem to be, that as the larger portion of the milk of the dam is reserved by the Lapps for their own subsistence, the fawns, when at a tender age, are stinted of their proper nourishment.

The food of the tame rein-deer, though in great degree the same as that of the wild rein-deer, is to a certain extent, so to speak, artificial; for the tame herds must necessarily pasture where the owner wills, which may not always be where their own inclinations would lead them. In the summer time, as said, the wild rein-deer resort to the sub-alpine regions, and in the winter to the fjälls. But the Lapps, on the contrary, pasture their herds at the former season on the higher mountain ranges, and during the latter on the lower grounds.*

Several reasons are assigned for the Lapps thus pasturing their herds on the fjälls during the summer. The one is, that they themselves and the deer may, in degree at least, be rid of the mosquitoes, that curse to man and beast in high latitudes. Another, that the lichens, &c., in the valleys, may be reserved for the subsistence of the animals during the winter. Necessity, not choice, compels the Lapp to shift his ground perpetually. Like all the deer tribe, the rein-deer requires constant change. The grass and variety of alpine plants, which during summer form, more than lichens, his food,

* It is believed that this reversal of the state of things is, on the part of the wild rein-deer, for the purpose of getting out of the way of the Lapps, who during winter at least, are less able to pursue them on the fjälls than in the forest, where the snow lies much the deepest.

are soon exhausted; and were the Lapps not to shift their encampment, the deer would wander away and be lost to them.

The rein-deer has many enemies. The wolf is perhaps his greatest—less so, however, to the wild rein-deer, than to that in a state of domestication; for the beast finding that he can seldom fairly run down the former, he less molests him. Should the deer, however, stand on the defensive, the wolf dares not approach him. It has happened during the rutting season, indeed, that the *Brunst-Ren*, or rutting male, has killed the beast on the spot.

When attacked by the wolf, the wild and the tame rein-deer conduct themselves altogether differently. The wild rein-deer starts off at the top of his speed, and runs for the most part twenty to thirty miles, without once pulling up or looking behind him; whilst the tame rein-deer, on the contrary, which has neither the endurance nor the speed of the wild rein-deer, halts at times to view the pursuer. Hence the wolf, as well as the Lapp, can distinguish the wild rein-deer, by the *Spår* alone. As soon as the beast scents the herd—which he does from a very long distance—he stealthily makes his approaches towards it, and always under the wind, that the animals may not be aware of his presence, and until close to them, when he pounces on the nearest. In the first instance he fixes his fangs in the hock; but when the deer, in his endeavours to escape, becomes exhausted, the wolf lets go his hold of the leg, and rushes at the throat, on which, for the most part, the poor creature rears up and falls backwards to the ground. If the beast be hungry, he immediately tears open the chest, and thrusting his hideous jaws into the opening, gorges himself with the blood of his victim.

During long and cold winter nights—more especially during great snow-storms, when the Lapp cannot see after the herd for a day or two together—the wolf is most destructive. If he then visit the herd he makes awful work of it, and has been known to slaughter thirty to forty deer in the course of a single night. When thus attacked by the beast, the herd at times makes for the tent of the owner, for shelter and protection.

In the summer time the rein-deer is greatly persecuted by the gad-fly (*Oestrus Tarandi*, Linn.; *Snupok*, in Lappish), which not only perforates the hide of the poor animal, but lays its eggs in the wound it has made, where they are afterwards hatched. The larvæ—called *Kurbma*, in Lappish—are large, of an ugly appearance, and in the spring found in very great numbers along the whole length of the back, so that at that season the hide looks like a sieve, and as a consequence is of little or no value. The gad-fly is particularly dreaded by the rein-deer; and should the Laplander remain in the forest, he not unfrequently loses a large portion of the herd, as he then finds it extremely difficult to keep the deer from wandering, instinct seeming to point out to them the mountains as their refuge from the enemy. Even near to the sea-coast—to which the Lapps often drive the herds in the summer time—the gad-fly, if there be wood thereabouts, is sure to be found.

Another species of insects (*Oestrus nasalis*, Linn.; in Lappish *Pitok*) is, if possible, a still greater enemy to the rein-deer than even the gad-fly. It penetrates their nostrils, where it deposits its eggs. Inhaled by the deer, these eggs lodge in the palate, and parts adjacent, where they fructify during the following winter, and become pretty large worms, which lie

together in large clusters. But in the spring the deer void them by the nostrils, and they fall to the ground, where they are vivified by the warmth of the sun, and as with their forefathers, become the evil genii of the rein-deer.*

The rein-deer is also cruelly tormented by the mosquito, which is similar in appearance to our midge, or gnat; for in wooded and low situations, these insects swarm about the poor creatures literally in clouds. To give some idea of their numbers, I may mention, that if when crossing morasses and other places where they more specially abound, I have seated myself for two or three minutes on a tussock, they would settle down in such multitudes on my person, that a single blow with the palm of the hand, must have annihilated a hundred or two.

The mosquitoes and other insects that fill the air during the summer months in high latitudes, are, in fact, the scourge of man as well as of beast. No one, indeed, who has not traversed the swamps and forests of Lapland or America, can form the most distant conception either of their numbers, or the annoyance to which they subject the wayfarer.

When in Lapland, I myself suffered exceedingly from the bite of the mosquitoes. Until in a state of fever, and that my face was marked, as if recently recovered from the small-pox, I set those troublesome insects at defiance; but after a time, following the example of others, I was accustomed to wear a

* This insect at times also deposits its eggs in the nostrils of people, in consequence of which they, for several days afterwards, not only experience a feeling of nausea and lassitude, but are troubled with *Snuflva*, or catarrh. After the lapse of a few days, however, these ailments cease, probably because the catarrh does not give the larvæ time to embed themselves.

veil—an evil of itself of no inconsiderable magnitude under a burning sun, and when perhaps the thermometer ranges at from 80° to 90° in the shade. Even the hardy Lapps and squatters are obliged to guard the exposed parts of their persons in one way or another. Some smear their faces with tar or the like; whilst others again wear a monk-like cowl, which, leaving little more than the eyes, nose, and mouth uncovered, falls down over the shoulders, and thus completely protects the more vulnerable parts, such as the forehead, the ears, and the neck, from the attacks of the venomous insects. When on a journey, moreover, these men are never without a sort of linen sheet, which they throw over their persons when resting, or at the bivouac. This sheet is a very needful part of one's travelling equipments. When my comrades have been reposing beneath its friendly shelter, I have seen it so completely covered with mosquitoes, that the sheet itself was hardly perceptible; all that met the eye, in short, was a living dark mass.

Even within doors, the Lapland traveller is sadly pestered by these insects; for though peat, placed in an open iron pan, is kept constantly burning at the outer doorway, and the apartment not unfrequently filled with smoke, arising from green boughs, which for that purpose are cast on the fire, yet those troublesome guests find their way into the room in numbers; so that what with their stings and constant buzzing, a man, unless nature be quite exhausted, has little chance of obtaining any repose.

The bite of the mosquito gives rise at times to somewhat ludicrous scenes. On one occasion, for instance, when descending a feeder of the great river Muonio, in Torneå

Lapmark, where I had been fishing, the man who was rowing me was so pestered by these insects, as to be almost beside himself. For a while he resorted to various expedients to rid himself of the enemy; but his patience becoming at length fairly exhausted, he suddenly dropped the oars, and throwing himself over the side of the boat, clothed as he was, plunged headlong into the water! This device, which afforded me much amusement, if it did not altogether relieve the poor fellow from his tormentors, tended at least to cool his blood, and to give him a temporary respite from pain.

But though the Scandinavian mosquito is a sore pest to man as well as beast, it would seem, from the accounts of travellers, that his compeer in the American wild is a still greater scourge. Poor Captain Franklin, when speaking of this insect, very eloquently says: "The food of the mosquito is blood, which it can extract by penetrating the hide of a buffalo; and if it is not disturbed, it gorges itself so as to swell its body into a transparent globe. The wound does not swell like that of the African mosquito; but it is infinitely more painful, and when multiplied a hundredfold, and continued for so many successive days, it becomes an evil of such magnitude, that cold, famine, and every other concomitant of an inhospitable climate, must yield the pre-eminence to it. It chases the buffalo to the plain, irritating him to madness, and the rein-deer to the sea-shore, from which they do not return until the scourge has ceased."

My first introduction to a herd of rein-deer was in Torneå Lapmark. The tinkling of a number of bells, followed by a clattering of hoofs, first reached our ears, and a few minutes afterwards we were surrounded by five to six hundred of

those animals, which came about us like so many domestic cattle.

A large herd of rein-deer traversing the open country, or the surface of a frozen lake, as the case may be, when the Lapp is changing his encampment, is a very magnificent sight. In the front walks a man leading a rein-deer, or perhaps the man is quite alone, and only now and then *lockar*, or calls to the animals, which, at a few paces' distance, faithfully follow where he leads. In the first ranks of the herd one commonly sees many noble males—half as large again as the miserable-looking animals, exhibited some years ago at the Egyptian Hall—who proudly elevate their heads attired with large and branching antlers. The rest of the herd follow one another in close phalanx. It resembles a wondrous moving forest, whose innumerable branched crowns, with their rapid and constantly shifting motion, make the most pleasing impression on the eye and mind of the spectator. The Lapp sometimes calls a great herd of rein-deer a *Säva*, or sea—a figurative expression, beautiful as faithful, taken probably not only from the immensity of the ocean, but from its surface being in constant undulatory motion. It is not surprising that the Lapp is proud of his riches. Even the sight of one of these great herds of rein-deer causes the bosom of the mere spectator to swell with emotion, and what must therefore be the effect on the owner himself?

Several dogs always accompany the herd. If a deer separate from the rest, they, agreeably to orders from their master, start off in pursuit of the deserter, whom they give neither peace nor pardon until he has again joined the herd. So soon, in fact, as the deer hears the dog bark, and

sees him coming, he of his own accord hastens back to the herd. The deer knows so well indeed, that he has no other place of refuge besides the herd, that even should the dog be between him and it, he, instead of running in an opposite direction—which one would suppose to be the easiest way of escape—at the risk of being bitten, rushes past him and joins the herd. When the dog has executed his commission, he either quietly returns to the heels of his owner behind the herd, or, according to his fancy, in a quiet and friendly way, gambols at the side of it. But he never goes in front of the herd, because, in that case, he would destroy the order of march. The dog's instinct, coupled with his training, enables him to play his part thus admirably. Without such an adjutant, indeed, the Lapp could not possibly keep the herd in order. Though such useful and faithful servants, the dogs are often scantily fed. With the exception indeed of what they themselves may pick up out of doors, a little milk mixed with water—the rinsings, in short, of the milk vessels—constitute their sole food, and as a consequence the poor animals have commonly rather an emaciated look.

At times one sees a white rein-deer amongst the herd. There is said to be a breed of that colour in the parish of Jockmock. The Lapp sets a particular value on them, as it enables him the more readily to distinguish the herd when at a distance.

The herd requires very constant care and watchfulness; and the life of the Lapp who tends them is one of great privation and hardship. But no doubt it has its charms; and it is very questionable if he would exchange it for that of others who are considered as more favoured mortals. Day

and night, summer and winter, scorched by the meridian sun by day, and half-frozen by night—for in these inhospitable regions, there are few nights throughout the whole year that the quicksilver does not fall below the freezing-point; and in winter it not unfrequently congeals altogether—does the Lapp watch the herd with his faithful dog, as well to prevent the deer from wandering and intermixing with other herds, as to protect them from bears, wolves, &c. The twenty-four hours are divided into three watches, of eight hours each. Men and women all take their turn, attended by their relays of dogs, which, on a given signal, repair to their posts, and remain as sentinels on duty, as if on guard at Queen Victoria's palace.

When the deer are about to be milked—in the summer time, at least—the herd is driven into a small enclosure, rudely fenced with boughs in the immediate vicinity of the encampment. In this enclosure are several fires damped with wet moss, the smoke from which tends, in a degree, to keep away the mosquitoes. The poor creatures seem fully sensible of the beneficial effects of the smoke in ridding them of their tormentors; for one sees them nestling, as it were, almost into the very fires themselves. They are extremely tame at such times, and on more than one occasion I have myself actually walked over their backs without their rising from the recumbent posture in which they were reposing.

The deer seem rather inimical to being milked; and it is only by force that they are made to submit to the operation. Men, as well as women, officiate on these occasions, each being provided with a long pliant leathern thong, furnished at its extremity with a running noose, which, lasso fashion, they throw over the antlers of the individual singled

out, and with so much dexterity as rarely to miss the mark. During the short time the animal is milking, the thong is either held by one of the women, or made fast to a birch shrub—several of the thickest having been stripped of their leaves, and left standing for this purpose. “Some of the deer are very refractory, frequently even throwing down the women, and butting at them with their horns, for which, however, they care little. But strong as the Lapps are, they appear to have little power over the deer; for when it has the lasso about its horns, and refuses to be milked, it will drag the holder with ease around the fold.”

The skill acquired by these nomade people in throwing the lasso, avails them at times in making captives of other animals besides their own deer. “On one occasion,” so said a clergyman that I met with in Norrland, and who vouched for the truth of the story, “when a Lapp, in company with a young female, was driving the herd through the forest, they accidentally roused a large bear from his winter quarters. The girl, very fortunately, had the lasso in her hand, which, with great coolness and skill, she threw over his head as he was slowly quitting his den, and at the same instant coiled the other end of the thong around a tree. The brute, on finding himself thus in the toils, dashed at the intrepid Amazon; but as she slipped on one side, he fortunately missed his aim, and on coming to the length of his tether was, in sailor language, brought short up, and thrown to the ground. Bruin’s career was now soon at an end, for seizing the thong with his paws, and by so doing tightening the noose, he presently managed to strangle himself. The Lapp, on seeing the beast charge the girl, took fright and ran away; and as a consequence, the bold wench who was to

have been married to him, sent him at once to the right-about, very properly refusing to have anything more to say to so dastardly a fellow."

The quantity of milk given by the rein-deer is inconsiderable—on the average, perhaps, less than half a pint. The flavour of it is highly aromatic, owing probably to the kind of herbage the animal browses upon in summer. In colour and consistency it resembles very rich cream; and its nature is such, that, however gratifying to the taste, it is difficult, and even unwholesome to drink more than in small quantities. In rare instances the milk is converted into butter, which is white, and quite hard. It is more suitable for making cheese, of which it is said to produce from six to ten times more than the same quantity of cows' milk. But though the quantity may be great, the quality of the cheese is certainly not much to boast of. One of our countrymen, indeed, describes it, and with truth, "as extremely bad; being hard as a bullet, white in colour, of a disagreeable taste, and eatable only by a Laplander."

It is for the most part during autumn, when the rein-deer are in the best condition, that the Lapp slaughters such of them as he and his family may require for food during the coming winter. The axe is seldom or never brought into use on these occasions. It is with the knife alone that the deer is slain, as well as quartered. The weapon is driven into the nape of the animal's neck, which at once brings him senseless to the ground, on which the man sticks him in the breast, and in a very few moments life is extinct.

The blood collects in the cavity of the chest; and when the entrails are taken out, it is carefully put into the

Vãm, or paunch (after it has been cleansed), and, together with the meat, is stored away in the *Stabur*—or sort of larder, already spoken of—for future use. Such a *Vãm* is called a *Ren-blod*, or rein-deer blood; and when speaking of the blood, the Lapps do not say such and such a quantity, but so many *Ren-blodar*. The meat, though exceedingly palatable, is, by all accounts, greatly inferior to the venison of the wild rein-deer.

Unless the adult males be slaughtered prior to the commencement of the rutting season, they become emaciated, and their flesh has a rank flavour. Such of them, therefore, as are doomed, are previously emasculated, in which case the animal not only retains his condition, but the flesh is equally well-flavoured.

Though the late Earl of Derby, Sir Thomas Maryon Wilson and others, attempted, at very considerable expense, to naturalize the rein-deer in England, their praiseworthy efforts proved unavailing; for in spite of every care and attention, all the poor animals died; partly as supposed from a deficiency of rein-deer moss, which, as said, in Lapland constitutes the chief food of the rein-deer, but principally from the humidity of our climate. To judge, however, by the fine specimens now in the Zoological Gardens, Regent's Park, the rein-deer would seem to thrive well in this country; for these animals not only look perfectly healthy, but have bred—as indeed they did with Sir Thomas Wilson—in confinement.

The attempt having succeeded so well, it is to be hoped that other experiments will be made, and that on a larger scale. In that case, it will be desirable to introduce the *Skogs-Ren*, in preference to the *Fjäll-Ren*, as from their

feeding more on grasses, &c., than the latter, they would be much more likely to succeed in this country. I am doubtful if the Skogs-Ren is procurable on the western coast of Scandinavia; but with previous arrangement, any numbers may be had, and at a very moderate expense, at the several Swedish ports situated towards the northern extremity of the Gulf of Bothnia.*

In conclusion. It seems strange that no attempts have ever been made to domesticate the rein-deer in the territories of the Canadian Company. As they exist there in considerable numbers in a wild state, they could also exist in a tame—or herds could be exported from Scandinavia. How easily many of the expeditions to the shores of the Polar Sea might have been conducted, without risk of starvation, by the assistance of the rein-deer!

The Red deer, though not in my time, was within the memory of man, found on the hills of Hunneberg and Halleberg, which are close to Ronnum; and still more recently, on Kollandsö, an island situated in the lake Wenern, at a distance of some fifty miles from me; I am not

* For the purpose of procuring a herd of the Skogs-Ren for a friend in England, I some years ago entrusted a considerable sum of money to an individual named Lundberg, residing in the town of Luleå. The deer, it is true, were soon purchased with my money; but the man, instead of sending the herd to me by land, as arranged, sailed away with them for Hamburg, to sell them on his own account. It so happened, however, that he suffered something like shipwreck near to Stockholm; on which, at my request, Sir John Ross, our Consul, took possession of the residue of the deer, eight in number, and subsequently put them on board a ship bound for England; but a storm unfortunately arose, and the poor animals in consequence all perished.

quite sure, indeed, if there be not still some few remaining there.

The notion is entertained by some, that this animal was first introduced into Scandinavia by the great Gustavus Vasa—that is, about three hundred years ago; but from fossil remains having been found in the peat-bogs of Scania, there cannot be much doubt as to his being indigenous to the peninsula. Formerly he would seem to have been pretty generally distributed, but at the present day these animals are only found on one or two large properties in Scania, and even there sparingly; and on one or more islands lying contiguous to the coast of Norway. Their disappearance from the main land of Norway is attributed chiefly to wolves, which have very greatly increased in that country—in the western portion of it, at least—in later times. Those beasts, indeed, have occasionally found their way to the islands in question; and if they have not extirpated the deer, they have, at all events, greatly thinned their numbers.

On that of Hittern, which is situated within less than one hundred miles of Drontheim, the ancient capital of Norway, there are a good many red deer still remaining—several hundreds it is said—and more than one of my friends have here enjoyed tolerable sport with the rifle. They describe the ground as favourable for stalking; and say that no greater difficulties stand in the way of obtaining permission to sport, than a few pounds will remove; but every one agrees in stating that the deer found on this island are remarkably small—one-third less, at the least, than those in the highlands of Scotland. These again are inferior to the German deer, so that it would seem that either a deficiency of proper food, or the severity of the climate, has caused the breed greatly to

degenerate. If this be attributable to a high latitude, it tells much against Ekström's theory, as to the stag being a hardier animal than the elk; for the bulk of the latter is, I believe, fully as great in the more northern, as in the mid-land districts of Sweden.

Speaking of the stag, reminds me of a certain individual who was more famous for his Munchausen stories* than as a shot. He was relating amongst other things, that when he, as an officer, in the campaign of 1813, was on a march to Suabia (where, by the bye, he had never been), he had killed an immense stag, in such manner, that the bullet not only went through the hind-foot, but the ear of the animal! Every one laughed, as well they might. "Is it not all true?" inquired the narrator of the tale of his servant, who stood behind his chair. "You were, I remember, present on the occasion." "Yes, to be sure, Sir," replied John very seriously. "It was at Neustadt, close by the great linden-tree. The deer had—pardon me for saying so—some vermin about his head, and was scratching it. In the same moment you fired, and hit him in the way described." Every one now laughed still more. But the amiable John whispered in his master's ear: "Another time, my noble Sir, don't put your lies so far apart; for this time I had great difficulty in bringing them together."

The Roebuck was also at no very distant day an inhabitant of Hunneberg and Halleberg; but in my time there were

* In England we sportsmen are frequently said to shoot with the long-bow, and it may be so; but at all events, speaking generally, our fibs are facts as compared with the stories of our brethren of the craft in Sweden.

none remaining. That beautiful animal would seem once to have been pretty common in Scandinavia. When Pontoppidan flourished, indeed, now about one hundred years ago, he was met with in Norway as high up as Nummedalen. But at the present day he is confined nearly altogether to the south of Sweden. In parts of Scania, owing to his having been greatly protected of late years, the roebuck is now pretty numerous. Count Corfitz Beckfriis assured me, indeed, that in one large wood, that we walked through in company, he had no fewer than one hundred of these animals.

The common method of shooting the roebuck is by means of *Klapp-Jagt*—a Skall in its way. A number of people, after forming line, and whilst clapping their hands, beat the country before them towards the ambushed sportsmen. Considerable execution is occasionally done in this way during the winter time on some of the great properties in Scania.

CHAPTER XV.

THE SCANDINAVIAN ORNITHOLOGY—THE EAGLES AND THE OSPREY.

FOR the information of the naturalist and the sportsman, I subjoin an account as well of the birds found in the Ronnum country and the adjacent sea-coast, together with the Skär-gård, as of all others included by northern naturalists in the Fauna of Sweden and Norway. The reader is therefore, in point of fact, presented with a complete, though necessarily concise, summary of the Scandinavian Ornithology. He will also find some mention made of that of Denmark.

For the government of the lovers of this branch of natural history, it may be proper to mention, that in the preparation of this matter, the following works (the only ones indeed more particularly treating of the Scandinavian Ornithology) have been consulted by me—namely, Pontoppidan's "Natural History of Norway," (Engl. Transl. London, 1755); Linnæus' "Fauna Suecica," 2^d edition, 1761; Retzius' "Fauna Suecica," 1800; Nilsson's "Scandinavisk Fauna, Foglarna,"

2 vols. Lund, 1835; "Danmarks Fugle," by N. Kjærbölling, 1852; as also that I have derived much assistance from the writings of several other ornithologists; amongst the rest Professor C. S. Sundevall, M. von Wright, M. Malm, and more especially from those of the Rev. C. U. Ekström, who is not only a naturalist of the highest order, but an ardent sportsman; and who, from having seen with his own eyes much of what he relates, gives us information that is doubly valuable.

In the pictorial way the reader is referred to Nilsson's "Illuminerade Figurer till Skandinaviens Fauna," 1832, a work of the highest merit, but unfortunately incomplete; to Körner's "Skandinaviska Foglar," 1839-46, in which, to my mind, the birds, as a whole, are much more truly depicted than in any work of the kind extant in England; and to Kjærbölling's "Ornithologia Danica," 1851.

That I may have fallen into error in many instances is very probable. Even in following where great authorities lead—and I here speak of naturalists of all countries—one is very apt to go astray; for to carry out particular crotchets of their own—mare's nests as they often prove—they frequently put people wrong. If naturalists would confine themselves to telling us what they really do know—and the extent of their information is no doubt very great—instead of so roundly asserting in the one edition of their works, that which is merely guess work, and which they are too frequently obliged to expunge in the next, simple-minded people like myself would get on very much better. Almost every professed naturalist of the present day thinks it needful to have a handle to his name, or to help his friend to one; and the very same animal is in consequence needlessly cut up

into two or more species. Were I so minded, I could relate more than one ludicrous incident to this effect.*

The birds are classed, it is to be observed, in accordance with Jenyns' "Manual of British Vertebrate Animals." Of such as I have anything worthy of notice to relate, I have gone into some few details, which will not, I trust, be considered altogether devoid of interest.

The Golden Eagle (*Kungs-Örn*, or King's-Eagle, Sw.; *Aquila Chrysaëtos*, Vigors), though occasionally seen in the vicinity of Ronnum, was scarce. In the summer season this bird confines himself principally to the more northern parts of Scandinavia; but during the autumn and winter he is pretty common in the south of Sweden. Varieties have now and then been met with in the peninsula. We are told of one killed in Scania some years ago that was perfectly white; and of another that was so in a great degree. A large portion migrate.

Though the golden eagle for the most part breeds in the face of a precipitous rock, he at times has his eyrie on the top of a lofty pine, or other tree. The nest, which is not built for a single year, but for life-time, is nearly six feet in diameter. It is flat, and without any visible depression in the centre; and is formed of sticks, heather, reeds, &c. The female lays two, and occasionally three eggs, of a dirty-white colour, marked with red-brown spots, and sits a month.

* When speaking of naturalists, and when grumbling—as well he might—at their having made out no fewer than thirty-six kinds of thrushes, Pontopidan says: "They give themselves a particular deal of trouble to find out the characteristic marks of each kind of bird in his generation. Yet I am of opinion that one may, in this as in other things, multiply species without occasion, and thereby confuse one's ideas, instead of clearing up or establishing them; for between some of these the difference is so small, that I look upon it to be rather accidental than specific."

Poor people in parts of Scandinavia occasionally derive considerable benefit during the breeding season from having the eagle for a neighbour; for watching the departure of the parents from the eyrie, they plunder it of the game, &c., which have been provided for the young. And when, moreover, these become nearly fledged, they tie their legs to the nest, that the supply to the larder may last the longer.

Some curious notions were formerly entertained respecting the eagle. Amongst the rest, that when hares, &c., failed him, he would attack not only deer, but horses—more especially such as were old and worn out. “In this enterprise,” says Pontoppidan, “he makes use of this stratagem: he soaks his wings in water, and then covers them with sand and gravel, with which he flies against the animal’s face, and blinds him for a time; the pain of this sets him running about like a distracted creature, and frequently he tumbles down a rock, or some steep place, and breaks his neck; thus he becomes a prey to the eagle.”

Many stories are related in Scandinavia regarding the ferocity of the eagle, and of his carrying away children. The author quoted tells us that an instance of the kind occurred in 1737, in the parish of Norderhoug in Ringerige. A boy, aged two years, was, in a state of nudity, playing on the ground not far from his parents, who were occupied with agricultural labours, when in an instant one of these birds pounced down upon the infant, and before assistance could be rendered, bore it away to his eyrie.

Only the autumn before the last, indeed, a little girl, five years old, but of diminutive stature for her years, met with the like fate at Lexviksstrand in Norway. The child had been left alone a short time by the mother, in a field near to

the house, when a *Jätte-örn*—that is, a gigantic eagle—carried her off; and though search was made everywhere, it was not until several weeks afterwards that the remains of the poor creature were found high up on the fjälls.

In the near vicinity of the spot where this catastrophe happened, and about the same time, this very eagle, as it was believed, made a stoop at a little boy near to the strand of a lake; but the father, who was in a boat close to the shore, by forcibly striking the oars on the gunwale, was fortunate enough to scare away the bird.



THE MAN AND THE EAGLE.

In the province of Scania the royal bird was, on one occasion, circumvented in a very singular manner.

“A peasant having observed an eagle soaring near to his homestead in search of prey,” so runs the story, “and having no gun at hand, determined, nevertheless, on attempting his capture. For this purpose he threw a sheep-skin, the woolly side outwards, over his shoulders, and thus equipped, crawled on all fours about the spot haunted by the bird; and his wife had the desired effect, for no sooner did the eagle perceive him, than imagining him a veritable sheep, down he pounced upon his back. Being quite prepared for the onset, the man at once embraced the eagle’s outstretched wings with his arms, and thus in triumph bore him home, where a by-stander quickly knocked the enemy on the head. But the poor fellow suffered severely for his ingenious, though adventurous ruse, for in his death-struggles the eagle not only drove his talons through the sheep-skin, but deep into the man’s flesh, from whence, when life was extinct in the bird, it was found impossible to extract them without having recourse to the knife.”

A somewhat similar story to the foregoing was told me by Dr. Willman.

“During the autumn of 1846,” said that gentleman, “whilst residing with Mr. P. O. Andersson, at Kjefflinge-Mölla, in Scania, the innkeeper of that village, Holmberg, purchased an eagle of a peasant who was on his way to the town of Lund, where he had purposed taking him for sale. On questioning the man as to the way in which he became possessed of the bird, he stated, that during the preceding day, which was cold and misty, and whilst occupied in hewing timber in the forest, he was all at once assailed on the back and shoulders by an unseen enemy; that on turning his head about he found it to be

the eagle in question, which, without injuring him, had driven its sharp talons through and through his thick sheep-skin coat! Seizing hold of a stick, he forthwith commenced belabouring the bird about the head, and continued to do so until such time as life appeared extinct, when, withdrawing the claws from his clothes, he walked off with his prize towards home. On his way, however, the bird began to revive, and by the time he reached the house had quite come to itself again.

“Subsequently,” Dr. Willman went on to say, “Holmberg caused a capacious cage to be constructed for the accommodation of this eagle. One day it happened that a son of his went up to the cage, and by gestures and otherwise so irritated the bird, that with the rapidity of lightning he struck one of his talons between the bars into the tormentor’s hand, and with such force, that the middlemost claw not only passed clean through the hand, but a quarter of an inch of it or more protruded on the other side! Happily, however, a servant-man, hearing the cries of the boy, who was almost beside himself with pain and fright, hastened to the rescue, and soon succeeded in freeing him from his ferocious assailant. After this catastrophe, Holmberg, who had several smaller children, fearing to retain the eagle longer on the premises, gave him to Mr. P. O. Andersson, of Kjöfinge-Mölla, where I had ample opportunity of studying his habits.

“Here we fed him partly on the entrails of calves and other animals, slaughtered for the use of the family, and partly with pigs, that had died from natural causes; as also on rats, crows and magpies, which I shot for the purpose. One day the entrails of a calf were given to the eagle. After

the bird had satisfied his hunger I went up to the cage, which was very roomy, and observed that he sat on the uppermost perch ; and that a full-grown cat, which had passed between the bars, was eating with great appetite of the refuse of the offal. I remained passive, to see how the matter would end. The eagle, with his head inclined downwards, seemed narrowly to watch the movements of the intruder. But when the cat had finished her meal, and was about to move off—one-half of her body being indeed already outside of the bars of the prison—the royal bird, with incredible quickness, struck one of his talons into her side, and drew her back into the cage again. The cat made a most desperate resistance, and attempted to bite her assailant's leg, on which the eagle seized her by the head with the other talon in such manner, that a claw penetrated each eye, and forced both out of their sockets ; and in this posture the bird remained until poor Grimalkin was dead. But as all this took place near to the side of the cage, and as the eagle—probably from fear of interruption—would never touch anything unless he was in the centre of the cage, he therefore withdrew the talon inserted in the cat's head, and, with the other still deeply embedded in the body of his victim, walked or rather stumped away with the cat to his accustomed feeding-place. His first act was to draw out the tongue, which he immediately devoured. Afterwards he made an aperture with his beak below the breast-bone, and eat part of the lungs ; but the remainder of the cat was left until the following day, when he finished it. Several times, when the eagle was supplied with a dead cat, I made the remark that, provided the jaws of the cat were not immovably fixed, he, in the first instance, always devoured the tongue. A dead pig was his favourite food. He was also

contented with rats; and when very hungry, would not tear them in pieces, but swallow them whole. This I saw him do with nearly full-grown individuals of *Mus decumanus*. Once he escaped out of the cage, and whilst being recaptured received much maltreatment, from which he seemed never fully to recover; and one morning towards the spring he was found dead in his prison."

The Cinereous, or White-tailed Eagle (*Hafs-Örn*, or Sea-Eagle, Sw.; *Aquila Albicilla*, Briss.),* though not common, was occasionally met with in my neighbourhood, as also on the coast, where indeed to my knowledge some bred. As with the golden eagle, he is most abundant in the more northern parts of Scandinavia—M. von Wright met with him as high up as $70^{\circ} 31'$ of latitude—and excepting in the autumn and winter, is not so frequently seen in the southern provinces of Sweden.

Though the cinereous, like the golden eagle, has his eyrie for the most part on the shelf of a steep and lofty rock, he also makes his nest in a tree, and frequently at some distance from water. The female lays from two to three eggs, white in colour.

In disposition, this bird is less ferocious than the golden eagle; and if taken when very young is easily domesticated, in which case he is said to evince more cowardice than courage. Instances are on record of his being allowed to go at large with the fowls in the poultry-yard, and of his never injuring them in any way. On the contrary, he rather served

* The so-called *Falco ossifragus*, Linn., which English naturalists formerly considered as belonging to our Fauna, and which Nilsson at the present day includes in that of Scandinavia, is now known to be the young of the *A. Albicilla*.

to protect them ; for his mere presence naturally scared away the smaller birds of prey, which might otherwise have been inclined to molest them. On one occasion I myself reared a pair of cinereous eagles, which were taken from an eyrie near to Uddevalla ; but as I never gave them entire freedom, I had not much opportunity of studying their habits and dispositions.

If what M. Holmstedt tells us of the one in his possession be applicable to the breed generally, it would seem as if this bird soon becomes attached, as well to his home, as to his owner.

“The cinereous eagle, which I have now had for nearly three years,” writes that gentleman, “is very tame and beautiful. He allows himself to be caressed with the hand, and will come to one when called ; and is, in short, very amusing. For this reason he has his full liberty, and is constantly at large in the open air, and flies wherever he pleases. He often visits his wild brethren on the shores of the lake Wenern, but always returns home again, when he is treated to something or other. Fish is his favourite food ; and if he obtain a sufficiency of the finny tribe at home, he remains with us for several days together, but if the reverse be the case, he caters for himself elsewhere.

“That my eagle may be recognized, I have, by means of an iron chain, fastened a metal bell around his neck, which, as he flies, rings constantly and loudly. This unusual noise, when, in majestic circles, he traverses the air, always causes a multitude of gulls and terns to congregate about him ; and it is their cries, and the sound of the bell, that announce his return from distant friends. During his excursions, he often visits the fishermen amongst the islands, to whom he

is well known, and by whom he is always treated to some dainty or other. Once he so far forgot himself as to attack some poultry on the property of Nynäs, which crime proved nearly fatal to him; but with that exception he has never done any harm, and his manifold adventures render him highly interesting."

The cinereous eagle preys not only upon fish, and the larger kind of water-fowl—such as ducks, geese, cranes, herons, &c.—but on young seals, if found basking on a rock, or swimming near to the surface of the water. At times, however, he makes the very grievous mistake of striking his crooked talons into the back of an old seal, which usually costs him his life; for so soon as the seal finds himself thus assaulted, he forthwith dives to the bottom, and the eagle being unable to extricate his claws, is, as a consequence, obliged to follow.

The same fate also at times awaits the eagle, if he fixes his talons into an overgrown turbot or halibut; for, though, as Pontoppidan says, "he may resist for a while, he must yield at last, and become a prey to those he intended to devour.* This," the worthy prelate goes on to remark, "may serve as an emblem to many stupid and inconsiderate enterprizes."

The eagle, moreover, when pouncing on fish or animals of superior power to himself, is occasionally doomed in other ways than by drowning.

* In corroboration of the truth of my statement as to pike and other fish being captured sometimes with the skeletons of eagles on their backs, it may be proper to mention that Pontoppidan gives us pretty much the same story. "I have been told," says he, "that our Sundmoerske fishers sometimes catch the halibut with eagle's talons in the backs of them, and covered over with flesh and fat; this is a mark of the fish's conquering as aforesaid."

“I have been told by several creditable people from their own knowledge,” says the same author, when speaking of the seal carrying the eagle under water, “of another unfortunate expedition of the eagle, which shows that this mighty king of birds is often in the wrong, and extends his attempts beyond his power among the fish. An incident of this kind happened not far from Bergen, where an eagle stood on the bank of a river, and saw a salmon, as it were just under him; he struck instantly one of his talons into the root of an elm close by, and partly hanging over the river; the other he struck into the salmon, which was very large, and in his proper element, which doubled his strength, so that he swam away, and split the eagle to his neck, making literally a spread eagle of him—a creature otherwise known only in heraldry.”

A somewhat similar circumstance to the above was related to me by Magnus, the fisherman at Trollhättan, when I was at that hamlet during the past summer.

“About the year 1787,” said he, “when an uncle and aunt of mine, together with several other persons, were waiting for the parson, at the outside of Naglum Church* (situated at only two or three miles from Ronnum), and immediately near to the river Gotha, they saw an eagle pounce upon an immense pike, basking close to the bank. One of his talons the bird struck into the fish; but with the other, and for the purpose of securing his prey it is to be presumed, he clutched firm hold of an alder-bush, growing hard by. But this manœuvre cost the bird dear; for the pike, in retreating, made so desperate a plunge

* Now altogether in ruins; the sacred edifice, or rather another in its stead, having been erected elsewhere in the parish.

downwards, as literally to tear the thigh from the body of his assailant! The severed limb was found attached to the bush in question; but of the eagle himself, which was carried bodily under water by the pike, nothing more was ever afterwards seen or heard.”



THE CALF AND THE EAGLE.

Again—"My father, the late A. Willman, *Stads-Medicus*, or town doctor, in Malmö, who received the first rudiments of his education in the country," such were the words of Dr. Willman, "related to me that in his boyhood it happened one day in the vicinity of where he dwelt, that an eagle pounced down upon and fixed his talons in the back of a heifer, which in her fright rushed with all speed towards the *Ladu-gård*, or cattle-house. On the way home, the animal passed a gate-post, of which the eagle thought to take advantage; for whilst retaining hold of his

prey with the one talon, he firmly grasped the post with the other, no doubt with the intention of 'bringing up' the runaway. But in this matter the bird somewhat miscalculated his powers; for instead of thereby staying the headlong career of the heifer, her impetus was such, that the lord of the air was himself actually riven in twain."

These spread-eagle stories will probably be considered by the reader as partaking of much of the marvellous; but before setting them down as regular "Munchausens," he will be pleased to hear what Sir John Malcolm, in his "Sketches of Persia," says on the subject.

"When at Shiraz, the elchee (ambassador) had received a present of a very fine shah-baz, or royal falcon. Before going out, I had been amused at seeing the head falconer—a man of great experience in his department—put upon this bird a pair of leathers, which he fitted to its thigh with as much care as if he had been the tailor of a fashionable horseman. I inquired the reason of so unusual a proceeding. 'You will learn that,' said the consequential master of the hawks, 'when you see our sport;' and I was convinced, at the period he predicted, of the old fellow's knowledge of his business.

"The first hare seized by the falcon was very strong, and the ground rough. While the bird kept the claws of one foot fastened in the back of its prey, the other was dragged along the ground till it had an opportunity to lay hold of a tuft of grass, by which it was enabled to stop the course of the hare, whose efforts to escape I do think would have torn the hawk asunder, if it had not been provided with the leathern defences which have been mentioned."

Again—"When the Shaban (falcon) is flown at the hare,"

so we are told by Lieutenant Richard F. Burton, in his interesting work, "Falconry in the Valley of the Indus," "she is invariably breeched—a broad leather thong being passed from the right to the left knee, where it is securely buttoned. Were this precaution neglected, the natives assure us, there is imminent danger of the hawk's being split up."

Several plans are adopted in Scandinavia to destroy eagles; but the common steel-trap is perhaps the device most resorted to.

"In the spring—in the month of March," says M. von Wright, when speaking on this subject, "I placed upon the ice, at about two miles from where I resided, a dead and flayed calf. After it had lain there about two days, I observed, by the marks of claws, that an eagle had preyed upon it. On this I took a common hare-trap, and after baiting it with a piece of meat, of about the size of my fist, I deposited the trap on the snow, near to the carcase; but in such manner that only a very small part of the bait was visible. Already on the following day an eagle, still living, sat with both legs in the trap, exactly in the same way as a misdoer in the stocks. Whilst yet at a distance, I observed that the bird held down his head, as if he would hide himself; but when I had approached immediately near to him, he reared himself up, and giving me several piercing glances, made an attempt to fly, in which effort, nevertheless, although the trap was of no great weight, he was unsuccessful. This eagle weighed eight pounds. The next day I captured another—which was fast by only one leg—that weighed nine pounds and a half. The maws of both were filled with several pounds of meat, whence it is clear they had first fed on the carrion, and it was not until they were about to depart, that they had seized

the bait. At this same spot I caught, in five days, four eagles, all of the same species (*Aquila Chrysaëtos*, Vig.), but varying in size; the last was the largest and heaviest, and weighed fully thirteen pounds."

In Scania (and it may be elsewhere in Scandinavia) eagles are shot from a *Skott-koja*, or shooting-hut, erected for that special purpose. Though the method may not be new, it is, I believe, unpractised in England, and a short description may therefore be in place. It should be remarked, however, that the plan is only adopted in the winter time, as well for the reason that dire hunger alone allures the eagle to carrion, as that but few of those birds are seen in the southern parts of Sweden in the summer.

"The spot selected for the purpose," the Count Chr. W. Dücker informs us, "ought to be in an open part of the country; for when no obstacle intervenes to prevent his sure and sharp eyes from descrying his enemy, the eagle is the more daring. And should there be a large wood, and a lake in the vicinity, it is all the better; for that bird from choice seeks the strand, and in preference selects for his resting-place some ancient and sturdy tree that is unbending during storms.

"A hole of some six feet in depth, by fourteen in diameter, is dug during dry weather, and a small, low hut erected in the cavity. The roof should rise but little above the ground, and be covered with turf, and the like, it being of the utmost consequence that it have as natural an appearance as possible; for if the eagle has the least suspicion, he will not be easily induced to approach the spot. All the interstices between the stones, or boards, of which the hut is constructed, should be filled with moss, to keep out the

cold and wind ; and if needed, a fire-place, together with a chimney, may be added ; for provided the eagle sees nothing, he is exceedingly fearless. Loop-holes, of some six to eight inches in diameter, at a few inches above the level of the ground, should be made in various places in the upper part of the hut ; the entrance to which should be situated on the contrary side to that on which the carrion is placed. A withered tree, with a few branches attached, should, by rights, be set up within easy range of the hut, as it not unfrequently happens that the eagle, before pouncing on his prey, will settle upon it. In case of such a tree being provided, an aperture must be made in the roof, that, let the bird perch on which branch he may, the shot will be sure to reach the mark.

“ Towards the end of October, or beginning of November, a dead horse, cow, or other animal of some size, must be placed within gun-shot of the hut ; but until such time as the first snow falls, the carcass must be protected by *Granris*, to prevent wolves, foxes, &c., from devouring it. So soon as snow falls, however, the covering must be removed, and constant watch be kept. One should take post in the hut before sunrise—the appetite of the eagle being then always the keenest. Soon after noon he also visits the carrion ; and if he has been seen there at that time, one may be quite certain of shooting him on the following morning.

“ When an eagle is killed, one ought to allow him to remain undisturbed where he fell, for it not unfrequently happens that there may be three or four more of these birds in the immediate vicinity of the hut ; and if they have once discovered the lurking enemy, they will know how to avoid him. An eager, and, as regards this species of amusement, inex-

perienced sportsman may get into a very awkward scrape if he should have wounded an eagle, and approached him without being well armed; for such a bird is not to be trifled with. He has indomitable courage, and extraordinary strength; and it is therefore safest to go up to him with a strong and tolerably long stake, so that when at a respectful distance, one may give him the *coup de grâce*.

“One morning I was sitting in a hut of the kind described, which had been erected by my companion—an old sportsman—who, though worn out with age and infirmities, could not forego his favourite pursuit. We had not waited long before we discovered a large and magnificent eagle perched on the top of a lofty tree in the neighbouring forest. Here for a time he remained motionless, and as if undetermined what course to take. But presently he left his perch, and with distended wings, and gradually lowering himself, he soared through the air towards us—the ravens, and other birds, that had collected about the spot retreating, with screams, at his approach—and at length alighted very near to the Luderplats. He now paused for a few seconds, casting his flashing eyes around on every side to ascertain that all was safe, and then pounced fiercely on to the carrion. I was now about to fire, but the old gentleman, my companion, who was deaf as a post, cried out: ‘No, no! let us look at him for a time.’ I was in despair at hearing this exclamation, fancying that the eagle would take wing, and that we should never see him more; but to my great astonishment he remained perfectly passive, and continued his repast. Subsequently I put many questions in a loud voice to my ancient friend, and long contemplated, and admired, the winged hero, which, however, at length fell to my gun.

“Some of my friends were, in another instance, sitting in the same hut, when, as luck would have it, no fewer than three eagles simultaneously paid the carcass a visit, all of which—on the aforesaid old sportsman counting, as on similar occasions, ‘one, two, three!’—fell dead at the same moment.

“In the year 1826, the old man spoken of killed no fewer than thirty eagles from the hut in question; and ever since not less than from twelve to sixteen of those birds have been shot there annually.”

The Osprey (*Fisk-Ljuse*, Sw.; *Aquila Haliaëtus*, Meyer) was pretty common with us, as indeed is the case throughout Scandinavia, from Scania to far beyond the polar circle; and that as well on the coast, as on all the great lakes and rivers of the interior.—Migrates.

He subsists chiefly on fish; and from miscalculating his powers he often, as with the cinereous eagle, pounces on such as are of superior strength to himself, and is carried under water and drowned.

M. Malm related to me a somewhat singular circumstance respecting this bird.

“One day in the month of June, 1835, when in northern Scania,” he said, “I was witness to a rather curious incident. An osprey, whilst in search of prey, was making his gyrations above the lake Ifvösjön, on the banks of which I was standing. Having at length discovered a fish, he pounced down upon it with the rapidity of lightning, and presently afterwards ascended aloft again, bearing a pike of some eighteen inches in length in his talons. Whilst he was making for the nearest strand, he was met by another osprey, who endeavoured to possess himself of the

fish. The chase continued for some time ; the captor, to avoid the pursuer, soaring higher and higher into the air with his booty, and closely followed in all his movements by the intruder. At length, however, the latter also managed to plunge his talons into the pike ; and as both were now fast to it, and neither would let go his hold, their flight became so impeded, that they were unable to support themselves longer in the air, and in consequence the two presently came tumbling headlong into the lake beneath. As this occurred immediately near to where I stood, and as the birds were struggling together on the surface of the water, I at once fired, and was fortunate enough to kill both at a single discharge. They were male and female, and beyond doubt a pair.”

The osprey usually makes his nest in the wilds of the forest, most commonly pretty near to a lake or river, and in the crown of the loftiest and most inaccessible tree he can find. It is composed of sticks and branches, some of them nearly as thick as one's wrist. As with the cinereous eagle, he will, if undisturbed, occupy the same nest for years and years together, so that what with repairs and additions, it becomes at length of so immense a size, that it would require a cart to remove it. But the nest is not always easy of access. A young friend of mine indeed, four summers ago, though acquainted with no fewer than four nests in the Wermeland forests, where he was then sojourning, and though a good climber, was unable, from the trunks of the trees being divested of branches, to get at either. In one, if not in two instances, he was obliged to have the tree felled, before he could obtain possession of the contents of the nest.

About the middle of June the female lays from two to three, though occasionally four eggs. These are nearly oval in form, of a yellowish-white colour, and marked with larger and smaller spots and blotches, which at the thicker end nearly join. They are about two inches three lines in length, by one inch six lines in breadth.

The osprey, like the sea-eagle, migrates. He leaves the Scandinavian shores at the commencement of the winter, when the lakes and rivers freeze, and returns in the spring when the ice breaks up.

Kjærbölling includes three other species of eagles in the Danish Fauna—namely, the *Keiser-Örn*, or Imperial Eagle (*Falco imperialis*, Bechst.), a southern bird, which has been observed in Jutland; the *Skrig-Örn*, or Screeching Eagle (*Falco naevius*, Gmel.)—the proper home of which is the south and east of Europe, and a large portion of Asia—shot, in one instance, near the town of Schleswig; and the *Europæisk Slange-Örn*, or European Snake-Eagle (*Falco brachydactylus*, Temm.), belonging to southern Europe, which he describes as exceedingly scarce in Denmark. He says, moreover, that the questionable species, the *Hvit-hoved Hav-Örn*, or White-headed Sea-Eagle (*Falco leucocephalus*, Temm.), which has hitherto only been found in North America, has been killed in the country.

Though here somewhat out of place, it may be proper to mention, that the *Vultur cinereus*, Linn., has in several instances been shot in Schleswig and Holstein.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE FALCONS AND HAWKS—THE BUZZARDS—THE OWLS.

THE Jer-Falcon (*Jagt-Falk*, or Hunting-Falcon, Sw.; *Falco Islandicus*, Lath.) This fine bird is common in the alpine regions of the more northern portion of Scandinavia, as far up as the North Cape. The old birds remain in the north all the year round; but the young ones—a portion of them at least—migrate occasionally to more southern climes, and, if I mistake not, were more than once seen in my neighbourhood.

The resorts of the jer-falcon, in the summer at least, are wild and mountainous districts. In the forest it is then never to be found. As with others of the hawk tribe, almost everything is game that comes to its net; but it is a special enemy to the *Ripa* (a species of grouse), and has, therefore, obtained the name of *Rip-Falk*. When pursued by this its mortal enemy, the *Ripa* at times flies for shelter to the very tent of the Laplander.

The jer-falcon makes its nest on, or near to, the summit of some lofty and inaccessible rock. The female lays three, occasionally four eggs, of a dull yellow colour, mottled nearly all over with pale reddish-brown; their length is two and a half inches, and breadth one inch and three-quarters. For the first year the predominant colour of the young is brown; but after that time they gradually assume the whiter plumage of the parents.

When hawking was in fashion, people from all parts of Europe—more especially from Germany and the Netherlands—were accustomed to journey to Scandinavia, for the purpose of procuring the jer and other falcons. The distant and lofty mountains of Sweden, as well as those of Norway,* were the scene of their operations. Many of the birds were taken from the nest; but to effect the capture of the old ones, or of those recently fledged, the fowlers would lie concealed in their *Tobbehyttor* (a corruption of the German *Taubenhütten*), or dove-huts; and with a butcher-bird to give warning of the approach of the quarry, and a pigeon as a decoy, lure them into the ready-prepared toils. Those procured from the nest, or at least taken when very young, were naturally the most docile; but even the old white birds might, it is said, be tamed.

The number of falcons obtained in bygone days from Scandinavia was very considerable. We read, for instance, in a Swedish newspaper of 1761, that in the month of October of that year, falconers from Ansbach, in Germany, passed through the town of Linköping, with forty-four living birds,

* Certain districts of that country, famous for the breed of falcons, were in those times leased out by the King of Denmark to a particular family in Flanders.

which they had captured on the fjälls between Jemtland and Norway. It is probable, however, that the supply obtained from the peninsula was trivial as compared with that from Iceland; for we are told of a ship that arrived at Copenhagen from thence, in the year 1754, having one hundred and forty-eight falcons on board.

The *Slag-Falk* (*Falco cyanopus*, C. Gesn.; *F. Lanarius*, Auct.), whose proper home is in the eastern parts of Europe and Asia, is sparingly found, Nilsson tells us, in Sweden; and he describes a young bird, believed to have been taken in Scania. Kjærböbling imagines it to have been met with in Denmark, and says that the female lays four or five eggs of a dirty-white colour, marked with red spots, or *marmorerede* (marbled).

The Peregrine Falcon (*Pelegrims-Falk*, or Pilgrim-Falcon, Sw.; *Falco peregrinus*, Gmel.) was pretty common in my neighbourhood. This bird is found, though, as it would seem, somewhat sparingly, over nearly the whole of Scandinavia; but is more general in the northern than the southern parts of Sweden. It bred near Ronnum. The nest was usually placed in the top of a tree, though at times in the crevice of a rock, or even on the rock itself. The female lays from two to four eggs, of a reddish-yellow colour, mottled all over with pale reddish-brown.—Migrates.

The Hobby (*Lärk-Falk*, or Lark-Falcon, Sw.; *Falco Subbuteo*, Linn.) was not very common about Ronnum, less so than in the southern provinces of Sweden. In the more northern parts of Scandinavia this bird is said not to be found.—Migrates.

The Merlin (*Sten-Falk*, or Stone-Falcon, Sw.; *Falco Aesalon*, Gmel.); not uncommon with us in the summer; but breeds for the most part in the far north. According to

English naturalists, this bird always makes its nest on the bare ground. In Scandinavia, however, it frequently builds in clefts or ledges of rocks, or in trees. It lays from three to five eggs, roundish in form, and of a reddish-yellow colour, marked with diminutive dark brown spots.—Migrates.

The Kestrel (*Torn-Falk*, or Tower-Falcon; Sw.; *Falco Tinnunculus*, Linn.); very common in the vicinity of Ronnum, as also over the larger portion of Scandinavia, though more so in the southern than in the northern provinces of Sweden. It is not supposed to be found beyond the polar circle. Its Swedish designation it derives from making its nest in old ruins and towers, which, as regards Scandinavia, is not the case with any other of the hawk tribe.—Migrates.

The Red-legged Falcon (*Falco rufipes*, Besecke)—whose proper home is eastern Europe—though not included in the Scandinavian Fauna, has, Kjærbölling says, occasionally been shot in Denmark.

The Goshawk (*Duf-Hök*, or Dove-Hawk, Sw; *Accipiter palumbarius*, Will.); common with us, as well as everywhere else throughout the peninsula. This is one of the most destructive of birds; for it attacks as well the smallest of the feathered tribe, as even the capercali.—Migrates.

The female makes her nest, which is of a very large size, in the middlemost branches of a spruce-pine, and generally near to a natural vista in the forest. She lines it with wool, hair, &c., and lays from two to three eggs, which, though they vary somewhat, are commonly of a blueish-white colour.

A curious anecdote is related of this bird.

“During the last summer but one,” writes M. Edgren, “when taking a drive with a neighbouring proprietor through a wood, the sun became so powerful, that we were neces-

sitated to draw up the head of the carriage to protect ourselves from its scorching rays. All at once the horses shied, and began to back, which induced us to look out of the vehicle to see what was the matter; when, to our great astonishment, we observed that they were attacked by a large goshawk, which during a constant flapping of its wings in front of their heads, was savagely attempting to injure them with its beak and talons. The coachman, however, immediately jumped down from the box, and with several severe blows of his whip-handle, succeeded in felling the rash assailant to the ground.

“What might have been the cause of this unexpected enmity,” M. Edgren goes on to say, “we were unable to discover, unless it was the great heat that caused the bird to be seized with some distemper analogous to rabies with dogs and others of their congeners.”

For all I know to the contrary, M. Edgren may be quite right in his conjecture. But as the blood of birds is of a considerably higher temperature than that of mammalia, it seems hardly probable that in these northern climes the rays of the sun could have had the extraordinary effect on the goshawk imputed to them. Neither does it seem likely that hunger, as some suggest, impelled it to the attack. The only solution to the story seems to be that, though M. Edgren was in ignorance of the fact, the bird had its nest in the immediate vicinity, and that attachment to its young, rather than a kind of insanity, caused its furious assault on the steeds.

The goshawk is a most determined enemy to poultry, from which cause it in Sweden very commonly goes by the appropriate name of the *Höns-tjuf*, or hens'-thief; and as a

consequence, war in every form is waged against it. But of all the devices, none perhaps are more simple and ingenious than that recommended by the Rev. J. Wulf.

“One must prepare,” he tells us, “a *Bulvan* (that is, a stuffed decoy bird) of the kind to which the goshawk is most partial. This *Bulvan* is impaled, so to speak, on a barbed spear, affixed to an upright stake, in such manner that the point of the spear extends some two and a half inches beyond the back, and is bound so securely to the stake that it can neither slip up nor down. The spear must be pointed somewhat towards the tail of the *Bulvan*; for birds of prey, which usually make their attacks from behind, are thereby oftentimes pierced in the lower part of the breast and cannot therefore so well extricate themselves.

“That portion of the spear extending beyond the *Bulvan* should be somewhat flat, and the edges, as well as the point itself, very sharp; and it should be filed very smooth, so that when the bird makes its pounce, the spear may the easier penetrate its body. If the spear be bright or polished, the hawk shies at the *Bulvan*; for which reason it is best to pass it through the fire, and whilst still warm to smear it over with a mixture of linseed and olive oil, which causes it to retain its keenness as well as its appearance, during both wet and dry weather.

“The goshawk, when on the look out for prey, always flies low, and the *Bulvan* should therefore be placed on the top of a tree of not more than fourteen to sixteen feet in height, and on one that is near to the poultry-yard. But if a suitable tree is not to be found thereabouts, a young spruce-pine should be inserted in the ground, at the spot considered the most desirable.

“One would naturally imagine that the moment the hawk found itself wounded, it would take to flight; but this is not the case. It would seem, indeed, to attribute the pain it suffers to the resistance made by the supposed bird; for it labours incessantly to thrust its talons deeper into the Bulvan, which has the effect of driving the steel still farther into its body. When, however, the increasing anguish at length obliges it to extricate itself, it can only succeed in so doing with a mangled maw, and with such a loss of blood as soon causes it to perish.

“This invention, which I myself have tried with success,” M. Wulf goes on to say, “is not mine. For the knowledge of it I am indebted to one of my parishioners—the Inspector, M. Forssberger, a very skilful sportsman. By this simple means, his poultry-yard has for several years been protected from the goshawk, and the attempts that the bird has made have always been fatal to it.”

The Sparrow-Hawk (*Sparf-Hök*, or Sparrow-Hawk, Sw.; *Accipiter fringillarius*, Will.) was very common, as well in my neighbourhood as throughout Scandinavia generally.—Migrates partially.

The Kite (*Glada*, Sw.; *Milvus Ictinus*, Sav.); pretty numerous with us, and also in the midland and southern provinces of Sweden; but is said not to be found in the more northern parts of the peninsula.

These birds take their leave of Sweden in the months of September and October, and return in March. Their appearance at an early period of the spring is looked upon as a good omen; the peasants then considering the winter to be at an end. When their flight is high, moreover, they augur that the weather will be fine, but if low,

on the contrary, they deem it a sure sign of storms and rain.

Another kind of Kite, a southern bird, the *Sorte-bruun Glente*, or Black-brown Kite (*Falco ater*, Linn.; *F. parasiticus*, Lath.), is found, according to Kjærbølling, in Denmark.

The Common Buzzard (*Orm-Vråk*, or Snake-Vråk, Sw.; *Buteo vulgaris*, Will.); numerous with us as well as over nearly the whole of Scandinavia. With few exceptions it migrates.

Though perhaps not generally considered in that light, this bird is in reality very harmless, and probably does more good than otherwise. From the slowness of its flight, it is not very destructive (if at all) to the feathered tribe; its food consisting, for the most part, of amphibious animals and insects, such as small snakes and lizards, frogs, grasshoppers, &c. Apparently it is very indolent; one oftentimes at least sees it perched for hours together on a rock or the top of a tree.

The female usually makes her nest, greatly resembling that of the goshawk, in an oak or spruce-pine, and lays from two to four eggs. The colour of them varies at times very considerably. Great authorities believe this to be attributable to the bird being more or less aged; but such cannot always be the case, for only two or three summers ago, we ourselves found three in the same nest, all of which differed widely from each other. One was of a dirty-white, and spotless; a second more or less marked with brown, in blotches, at the thicker end; whilst the third was beautifully spotted all over with dark brown.

The Rough-legged Buzzard (*Fjösbent Vråk*, Sw.; *B. Lagopus*, Vig.); scarce with us, and only seen during spring

and autumn, when on the way to and from its breeding-grounds amongst the fjälls of the far north. It builds as well on the summit, or shelf, of a precipitous rock, as in trees. M. von Wright found its nest in northern Lapland, at Karesuando (68° 25' N. latitude), at the top of a lofty pine, and describes it as being three feet and a half in diameter. The female lays from three to five eggs, greyish-white in colour, and blotched at the larger end with dark brown spots.—Migrates.

The food of this bird is in great degree the same as that of the common buzzard. It also preys freely on the lemming which abounds in the higher latitudes.

The Honey Buzzard (*Bi-Vråk*, or Bee-Vråk, Sw.; *B. apivorus*, Ray) was scarce with us, as indeed is the case generally in Sweden.—Migrates.

The habits of this bird greatly resemble those of the common and the rough-legged buzzard; and like them, says Nilsson, it can capture nothing on the wing. It feeds greatly on insects; and the bee, the wasp, the humble-bee, &c., have in it about their worst enemy; for it scatters abroad their nests, and bears their young, still enveloped in the cells of the comb, to its own family. It also feeds on field-mice, moles, frogs, lizards, and innoxious snakes; at times on lob-worms and snails; and when impelled by hunger, does not, it is said, despise carrion.

The honey buzzard bred occasionally in my vicinity. It builds in trees, and, according to Kjærbölling, lines its nest with green twigs, to which the leaves are still attached. The female lays from three to four eggs, in shape and size resembling those of a barn-door fowl, of a yellowish-red colour, with large red-brown spots and blotches, which are

sometimes so numerous and so close together, that the ground-colour of the egg is hardly discernible.—Migrates.

The Marsh Harrier (*Rödbrun Kärr-Hök*, or Red-brown Marsh-Hawk, Sw.; *B. rufus*, Jen.) was very rare with us, as also in Scandinavia generally. It breeds in many places in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Hen-Harrier (*Kärr-Hök med Halskrage*, that is, Marsh-Hawk with a Ruff, Sw.; *B. cyaneus*, Jen.) was but seldom seen with us, and that only during migration. Its resorts in the summer, and its limits toward the north, seem to be little known. At a distance, says Nilsson, the old male may readily be taken for the common gull; for both its flight, colour and size, are pretty similar.

The Ash-coloured Harrier (*Mindre Kärr-Hök*, or Lesser Marsh-Hawk, Sw.; *B. cineraceus*, Flem.); believed to have been observed in my neighbourhood. This bird would appear to be extremely rare in the peninsula, there being only few instances on record of its having been shot there.

The Eagle Owl (*Berg-Uf*,* or Mountain-Owl, Sw.; *Bubo maximus*, Flem.); common in the neighbourhood of Ronnum. This bird is found almost everywhere in Scandinavia, from Scania to the far north; but is supposed to be more abundant in the central parts of the peninsula than elsewhere. Its chief places of resort are mountainous and rocky districts, as well wooded as altogether destitute of arboreal vegetation.

Some assert that the eagle owl hunts by day as well as by night; but though this is probably seldom the case, it is, I believe, on the prowl at an unusually early hour of the even-

* The designation of *Uf*, which is applied not only to this bird, but to certain other owls, is probably in consequence of their cry somewhat resembling that word. *Ugla* is the general appellation of the owl tribe.

ing, when all animated nature is in motion, and when in consequence it is the better enabled to make its captures. From this circumstance, coupled with its enormous strength, it is perhaps about the most destructive of all the Scandinavian birds of prey. Although few things come amiss to the eagle owl, it more generally attacks the larger game, and is specially fond of hares. It is said, indeed, that even if a fox crosses its way it will not spare him.

It is a very savage bird. Doctor Mellerborg assured me, as mentioned in my former work, that it will sometimes destroy dogs. Indeed, he himself once knew an instance of the kind. He stated another circumstance showing its ferocity, which came under his immediate notice. Two men were in the forest for the purpose of gathering berries, when one of them happening to approach near to the nest of the owl, she pounced upon him, whilst he was in the act of stooping, and fixing her talons in his back, wounded him very severely. His companion, however, was fortunately near at hand, when, catching up a stick, he lost no time in destroying the furious bird.

The female makes little in the shape of a nest, and that little generally in the cavity, or on the ledge of a rock. She lays from two to three eggs of a beautiful white colour, of a much superior size to that of the common hen.

The eagle owl is not infrequently taken in Sweden by means of steel-traps; and others again are captured in pit-falls, prepared for wolves and foxes. Instances have also occurred of their having been taken in fishing-nets; for in their attempts to plunder these of their contents, they have got entangled in the meshes, and been drowned.

I have at different periods had many eagle owls in con-

finement. Some were taken from the nest, but others had been captured when of mature age. As with other birds and beasts of prey, their power of abstaining from food is quite astonishing. In one instance a bird was brought to me that had been captured in a pit-fall during the preceding night. How long it had then fasted is hard to say; but certain it is, that though food was constantly before it in the interim, it never for eight days touched a morsel; and what is perhaps still more singular, it appeared in perfect health the whole while.

But this was not so remarkable an instance of prolonged fasting, as that mentioned by M. von Wright, respecting the cinereous eagle. "An old bird that I winged," he says, "could not for thirteen days be induced to touch the smallest particle of fresh fish, or birds, that were placed before it, so that I was at length obliged to shoot it, that it might not be longer tormented."

For the sake of specimens, I not infrequently shot these birds: on one occasion in a somewhat singular way. Passing through a thick wood, I was startled by something descending, with a great flop, on to my hat. Looking up, I espied to my wonderment a huge eagle owl, perched in a pine tree immediately above me; and at once understood that it was the bird who had favoured me with the missile, which was of a peculiarly disagreeable nature.* Whether it was fright or

* A somewhat similar incident happened on another occasion. Some labourers who were at work on my premises, were eating their dinner in the open air; but whilst sitting around, and amicably discussing a nice dish of stirabout, a raven flew over their heads, and by way of dessert, I presume, fired a shot to their utter discomfiture, and to my great amusement, into the bowl itself! They say the raven is a bird of ill-omen. In this instance the poor fellows were certainly justified in saying that its presence boded no good.

what not, that caused it thus to make me its banker, I am in ignorance; but at all events, the act cost it dear, for I returned the volley, and in a few seconds it was stretched lifeless on the ground.

The Long-eared Owl (*Skogs-Uf*—that is, Forest-Owl; or *Horn-Uggla*—Horned-Owl, Sw.; *Otus vulgaris*, Flem.) was common with us; as also throughout the southern and midland provinces of Sweden. This bird migrates partially.

The Short-eared Owl (*Kort-örad Uf*, or Short-eared Owl, Sw.; *O. Brachyotos*, Flem.) was seen occasionally with us during spring and autumn, when on the way to and from the far north, where it passes the summer months. At that season, according to Nilsson, it is never to be met with in the wooded districts, but confines itself to the mountains and fjälls, where at times it may be seen as high up as the snow-drifts.

The cry of this bird, during the summer, resembles in degree that of the barking of a puppy. It would seem, from what Mr. Dann tells me, to hawk during the day-time, and soar, much in the manner of the falcon tribe, to a great height. It forms its nest on a tussock, or the like. The female lays three to four eggs, roundish in shape, and white in colour.

During migration, these birds occasionally congregate in considerable numbers in the open plains of Scania, where they for the most part hide themselves during the day amongst tufts of grass, near to swamps and morasses.

The Tawny Owl (*Katt-Uggla*, or Cat-Owl, Sw.; *Syrnium Aluco*, Jen.) was very common about Ronnum, as indeed is the case throughout the greater part of the Scandinavian peninsula.

“This owl, whose head is more like a cat’s than a bird’s,” says Pontoppidan, “is greatly hated here, from a superstitious notion people have, that it forebodes death in the family where it happens to take up its abode. The female lays two eggs, and if they are changed for hens’ eggs she will hatch them, but eat the young, when she finds they are not of her own kind. If the owl and the cat happen to quarrel and fight, they do not leave off till one or the other is killed; so that their enmity is not the less for their being in some degree of kin. Thus we see, according to the Norwegian proverb,” he goes on to say, “‘that friends are the greatest foes.’”

The Snowy Owl (*Fjäll-Uggla*, or Fjäll-Owl, Sw.; *Noctua nyctea*, Jen.) This bird is common in the higher regions of the more northern parts of Scandinavia. In the summer time it confines itself altogether to the mountains and fjälls; but in the winter—probably driven from thence by storms and bad weather—it is not infrequently met with in the more southern parts of Sweden; and even on the plains of Scania a good many have at different times been shot. It would not appear, however, to migrate much farther to the southward than that province; for it is rarely seen in Denmark and the north of Germany, and seldom or never in the south of Europe.

The snowy owl is a very shy bird, and in the open country will not readily allow any one to approach it. In the summer time, at least, one generally meets with these birds in pairs. As with some other owls, it hunts by day. Its flight is high, and with the like powerful sweep of the wing as the larger hawks. When in the air it utters a

harsh note, *krä-u, Krä-u*. Its flight is usually short, and it rests very often on rocky eminences or boulders. The female, at this season, frequently emits a shrill note, *rick, rick, rick*, casts herself to the ground as though her wing was broken, and occasionally lies there as if dead with outstretched wings. At such times she has probably her young in the vicinity, and by thus endangering her own safety she endeavours to put the enemy on the wrong scent.

I have myself seen this bird at noonday, and when the sun was shining bright, soaring aloft in the air, in the manner of a falcon; but whether it was then actually in search of prey, or that it was hovering over its nest or young, I cannot take upon myself to say. This was on the Hardanger fjäll, in Norway, where, from the number of these birds that I fell in with on one particular day, I should imagine they must be pretty numerous. Though on this occasion I sent several balls after them from a pea-rifle, as well when they were on the wing, as when perched on boulders, and though more than once the balls scraped off some feathers, it was unfortunately out of my power to obtain even a single specimen.

Though the snowy owl occasionally helps itself to a hare, it is believed for the most part, like the rough-legged buzzard, to subsist on rats and lemmings, which are so abundant in the fjälls.

This bird makes its nest in the cleft of a rock, or it may be on the rock itself. The female is said to lay from two to three eggs, of a white colour; and when the young

are fully fledged, to take them along with her on to the highest fjälls.

Colonel B. Aminoff describes a somewhat singular Chasse after one of these birds. "During a hare-hunt on the 25th of February, near to the town of Örebro," says the gallant officer, "we fell in with a snowy owl. The dogs started off in pursuit and in full cry, and chased the bird in a sort of half-circle, nearly a (Swedish) mile, during which time it very frequently attacked them. This amusing spectacle continued from ten o'clock in the forenoon, until three in the afternoon, when Corporal Blom, who concealed himself behind a stump, had the good fortune to shoot the bird. During the hunt it seldom took refuge in a tree, but rested occasionally either on the top of a naked rock, or a boulder in the open country; but in such situations it was impossible for us with all our endeavours to approach it nearer than six or seven hundred paces, before it again took wing."

The Canada Owl, or Hawk Owl (*Hök-Uggla*, or Hawk Owl, Sw.; *N. funerea*, Jen.), though seldom seen with us, is tolerably abundant in the more northern parts of Scandinavia. In its habits this bird much resembles the falcon tribe. It hunts in the middle of the day, and that without being in any way inconvenienced by the sun's rays. In the rapidity of its flight and in courage, it is more like a hawk than an owl. It commonly perches on the very summit of a lofty spruce-pine, with its tail drooping as it were; but at times it elevates it in like manner with the cuckoo, which bird, when at a distance, and when in this position, it much resembles. It is but little shy.

The Canada Owl makes its nest, formed of twigs, lichens,

&c., in the deep recesses of the forest, in an old fir, or spruce-pine tree. The female, in the commencement of the month of May, lays four white eggs.

The Little Owl (*Sparf-Uggla*, or Sparrow-Owl, Sw.; *N. passerina*, Selby). This, the smallest of all European owls, was scarce with us, and the like is the case in Scandinavia generally. It is said to be more plentiful in the midland portions of the peninsula, than in the more southern or northern. It makes its nest in a hollow tree. The female commonly lays four eggs, which are in form short oval, and white in colour.

As with the Canada owl, this bird hunts in the day-time, without being sensibly affected by the light. When in the winter it appears near the homestead, it, like other birds of prey, is surrounded by sparrows, &c., which with cries follow wherever it goes. But they nevertheless take good care to hold themselves at a respectful distance, and at the slightest movement on its part, hurriedly beat a retreat. Instinct would seem to teach them their danger, for its flight is very quick, and it is possessed of both courage and strength enough to punish them.

This bird is easily domesticated. "Last winter," writes M. Sköldberg, "a living sparrow-owl came into my possession, and I kept her in a cage for several months. This little and very pretty bird was very amusing. From the commencement of her captivity she became very tame, and a person might approach immediately to, or even handle her, without her showing the least fear, or attempting to get out of the way. She would only snap her bill together, and with her eyes closely follow the movements of the spectators; and whilst thus occupied, she would twist her head so

completely round as to give it the appearance of turning on a pivot. She was very voracious; and although her usual allowance each day was only a sparrow or a titmouse, she could easily devour a whole pine bullfinch (*Pyrrhula Eucleator*, Temm.) But then it might happen that for several days together she did not get a particle of food. If a person was present when a bird was given to her, she would never touch it; but so soon as he took his departure, it was quickly despatched. As she never drank any water, I deemed it needful to give her living birds, that she might satisfy her thirst with their blood. Having killed the bird, she would separate the head from the body, and afterwards fly up with the latter on to one of the perches of her cage. But before commencing her repast, which was usually about the breast, she would in great degree deprive the bird of its feathers. She was observed to feed as well by day as by night.

“Having on one occasion winged a magpie, I put it into her cage alive. At first the two sat passive, and looked at each other: the owl, with her usual quiet mien, but the magpie (so at least it might be inferred from it stationing itself in one corner of the cage), with a feeling of respect for its little comrade. After they had been left for a while to themselves, a singular noise was heard in the cage; and on hastening to the spot I found the owl lying on her back, and the magpie endeavouring to pluck out her eyes. The owl, however, made a skilful and gallant defence; for having grasped the breast of the magpie with her claws, she contrived to hold the enemy at a distance. But as I saw she was overmatched, and as I did not wish to lose her, I assisted her in conquering the some-

what too large and powerful assailant. Whether it was that the owl did not like the flesh of the magpie, or that she had taken disgust at the bird from its rough treatment of her, I know not; but so it happened, that though the dead magpie remained in the cage for several days, and in the while no other food was given to her, she never touched a morsel of it."

Tengmalm's Owl (*Perl-Uggla*, or Pearl Owl, Sw.; *N. Tengmalmi*, Selby) was only occasionally seen with us. This bird, as regards the summer time at least, would appear to be chiefly confined to the more northern parts of Scandinavia; its resorts are the depths of the forest. Swedish naturalists, who seem somewhat in the dark as to its habits, describe it as but little shy, as hunting only in the night-time, and as being inconvenienced in the highest degree by the daylight. It is said to build in a hollow tree, and that the female lays from three to four white eggs.

It is remarkable that this species can inflate the membrane forming the upper eye-lid in such a way that a tuft of feathers is raised above each eye, the bird then looking as if provided with short feathered ears.

In confinement this owl becomes readily tamed, and is very amusing from its comical ways and the singular postures it puts itself into. It may besides be used to decoy small birds to lime-twigs, in the manner practised in Italy—that is, by tethering it by the leg with a long string; and it is thus kept hopping and beating the ground without being able to escape. The bird-catcher then hides himself behind a tree, and makes a chirping, which calls the small birds together, and on seeing the owl they gradually approach nearer, and

finding it unable to resist, become so bold, that they at length come within the line of twigs, and are made prisoners themselves.



THE LAPP-UGGLA.

The *Lapp-Uggle*, or Lapland Owl (*Strix Lapponica*, Sparrm.) This fine bird, which is nearly as large as the

eagle owl, or the snowy owl, is pretty much confined, as the name would denote, to the northern parts of Scandinavia, where it, by all accounts, is tolerably common. Once in a time, these birds are met with in the more southern portion of the peninsula. Some years ago, indeed, Count Corfitz Beckfriis shot one, he told me, on his estate of Fiholm, in the province of Södermanland; and a second was killed in the same neighbourhood.

Northern ornithologists appear to be but little acquainted with the habits of the Lapp-Uggla, which circumstance is somewhat singular, as specimens shot in Scandinavia are common in the museums. In that of Gothenburg, if I mistake not, there are no fewer than four. All the information we possess about this bird, besides its scientific description, is that furnished by M. Malm, who says that "it hunts as well by day as by night, and is not in any manner shy; and that it lives almost altogether upon lemmings and rats."

The *Slag-Uggla* (*Strix liturata*, Thunb.) This owl is chiefly confined to the more northern parts of the peninsula. It has been found, however, in Wermeland, and it may be still lower down. As with the Lapp-Uggla, Swedish naturalists know little about this bird. M. Malm merely tells us, that "its places of resort and manner of living are very similar to those of the Lapp-Uggla, but it is more shy, and sees better during the day than that bird;" and Nilsson, that "it is believed to make its nest in hollow trees, and to lay from three to four white eggs."

Minervas Uggla, or Minerva's Owl (*Strix noctua*, Retz. & Licht.) Though this bird is included in the Scandinavian fauna, it can hardly be said to belong to it; for only a

single specimen has hitherto been found in the peninsula, and that, moreover, on the southern coast. It was believed to have got out of its latitude, and to have come from one of the Danish islands, where, according to Kjærbölling, those birds are pretty common.

It was this owl, that the ancients called *Minervæ Noctua*, or *Minervæ Avis*, and which, as a symbol, the Greeks placed on the helmet of the Goddess of Wisdom. In Athens—which town was sacred to Minerva, and where she had a temple—this bird was so numerous, that hence arose the saying, Γλαύκος Ἀθήνας, equivalent to our “bearing water to the well,” or “sending coals to Newcastle.” Minerva’s owl is still to be found among the ruins of Athens.

The White Owl (*Torn-Ugglå*, or Tower Owl, Sw.; *Strix flammea*, Linn.) has even a still less title than Minerva’s owl to a place amongst the birds of Sweden and Norway; for the single specimen seen in Scandinavia—and on the strength of which M. Nilsson has included it in his fauna—was not in reality secured in the peninsula, but on the mast of a ship off the coast. According to Kjærbölling, this bird is not very uncommon in Denmark.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE SHRIKES—THE FLYCATCHERS—THE THRUSHES—THE WARBLERS.

THE Cinereous Shrike, or Greater Butcher Bird (*Större Törn-Skata*, or Greater Thorn-Magpie, Sw.; *Lanius Excubitor*, Linn.), was rather scarce with us; and the like would seem to be the case in the more southern and eastern parts of Scandinavia, where, according to Nilsson, "it is hardly to be found, except during the autumn and winter, and then rather sparingly." In the north, however, this bird is more plentiful. M. von Wright tells us, indeed, it is common in central Lapland.—Partially migrates.

In parts of Sweden the cinereous shrike is called the *Var-Fogel*, or the wary bird, and in Germany, *Wächter*, or watcher, for the reason that on the approach of danger, it utters a peculiar sharp cry, which enables other smaller birds, that perfectly understand its import, to get out of the way of the enemy. When falconry was in fashion, and

that it was wished to capture the jer or other falcons alive, the fowler used therefore to pin a shrike to the ground, near to his ambush; and the bird, from its quick-sightedness, was quite sure to give him timely notice of the coming of the quarry. Hence the shrike obtained the appropriate name of *Excubitor*, or sentinel.

The cinereous shrike feeds on field-mice, sparrows, finches, and other small birds; sometimes it also attacks larger birds, but seldom succeeds in capturing them, unless such as are previously ensnared. Owing to want of strength in its feet, it always seizes its prey with the bill, and kills it by beating it against the ground. If alarmed at such times, it, like the falcon tribe, bears the victim elsewhere in its talons. In the summer it also feeds on lizards, frogs, blind-worms, and other reptiles; but preferably on larger insects, with which it supplies its young.

This bird bred occasionally in my neighbourhood. It makes its nest, which is of a large size, in trees and bushes; and the female lays five to seven eggs, of a greenish-white colour, marked, and this more especially at the larger end, with brown and grey spots.

The *Mindre Törn-Skata*, or Lesser Thorn-Magpie (*L. minor*, Linn.; *L. medius*, Brehm.), though not seen with us, has been killed in more than one instance in Sweden, and is therefore classed amongst the Scandinavian birds.

The Red-backed Shrike, or Lesser Butcher Bird (*Allmän Törn-Skata*, or Common Thorn-Magpie, Sw.; *L. Collurio*, Linn.), was frequently seen, as well near to Ronnum, as on the adjacent coast. It is also pretty common in the southern and midland portion of Scandinavia; but in the more northern parts of the peninsula it would not appear to be found.

The song of the red-backed shrike is both melodious and continuous. It imitates in a wonderful manner that of other birds which dwell in the vicinity; and even if in a cage, it mimics the notes of others of the feathered tribe confined in the same room.

This bird feeds principally on insects, such as coleoptera, grasshoppers, horse-flies; as also on young mice, young birds, frogs and lizards. Birds in general devour their prey at once, but the red-backed shrike (and English naturalists tell us the like is the case with other shrikes), before commencing its meal, transfixes the victim on the sharp thorn of a bush, that it may be the better enabled to tear it in pieces;—hence probably the English designation of butcher bird, and the Swedish one of Törn-Skata. One not infrequently, indeed, meets with bushes—that portion of them near to the ground more especially, where this bird has its resorts—to which a large number of insects, as also either whole or parts of lizards, frogs, mice, and small birds, are impaled in the manner described.

The red-backed shrike makes its nest in a thick bush. The female lays five to six eggs, not very unlike in colour those of the cinereous shrike. Whilst she is sitting, her mate collects a quantity of such insects, &c., on which these birds usually feed; and these he fastens to the bush, round and about the nest, for her subsistence.

Kjærbölling includes in the Danish fauna a fourth species of shrike, the Wood-Chat (*L. rufus*, Briss.), found sparingly, he says, in Denmark.

The Spotted Flycatcher (*Grå Flug-Snappare*, or Grey Flycatcher, Sw.; *Muscicapa grisola*, Linn.) was pretty common in my vicinity; as also over the greater part of

Scandinavia. M. Malm met with it even as high up as near the shores of the Icy Sea.—Migrates.

The Pied Flycatcher (*Svart-och Hvit Flug-Snappare*, or Black and White Flycatcher, Sw.; *M. atricapilla*, Linn.; *M. luctuosa*, Temm.) was very common with us, as well as throughout Sweden and Norway.—Migrates.

The White-collared Flycatcher (*Hvit-halsad Flug-Snappare*, or White-necked Flycatcher, Sw.; *M. albicollis*, Temm.), though not found with us, belongs to the Scandinavian fauna; but it is confined to the island of Gottland, where it breeds. Though exceeding scarce, it is also found in Denmark.

The *M. leucomela*, Lath., belongs also, Nilsson has every reason to believe, on the authority of Fries and Temminck, to the northern peninsula.

The Danish fauna, according to Kjærbölling, claims another species, the *Liten Flue-Snapper*, or Little Flycatcher (*M. parva*, Bechst.), an individual of which was caught near Copenhagen. The proper home of this bird is southern Germany, in which country, however, it would seem to be very scarce everywhere.

The Water-Ouzel (*Ström-Stare*, or Stream-Starling, Sw.; *Cinclus aquaticus*, Bechst.); common with us, more especially during the winter, which it passed in the unfrozen rapids of the Gotha and other rivers. This bird is very generally distributed over Scandinavia; and though some few breed in the midland provinces of Sweden, the greater part retire for that purpose to the vicinity of mountain-streams, in the far north.

The Missel-Thrush (*Dubbel-Trast*, or Double-Thrush, Sw.; *Turdus viscivorus*, Linn.) was rather scarce with us; perhaps more so apparently, than in reality, owing to its great

shyness, and to its holding much to the forest, where it escaped observation. This bird is very general in the wooded districts of Scandinavia; but its limits to the northward do not seem to be very accurately ascertained. Some few migrate; but the principal part remain throughout the winter; their food at that period consisting principally of the juniper berry.

The Fieldfare (*Björk-Trast*, or Birch-Thrush, Sw.; *T. pilaris*, Linn.) was common, during the autumn, in my vicinity; some few, indeed, bred with us. It is also common throughout Scandinavia generally, as high up, indeed, as the North Cape—that is, wherever wood is to be found. It is believed to be the most numerous of the thrush tribe inhabiting the peninsula. Its chief resorts during the summer months are the *Barr-skogar** of the north; but in the autumn it appears in the south of Sweden in immense flocks. Many left us for warmer climes; but unless the weather was specially severe, very many remained during the whole winter.

The fieldfare is more generally known in Sweden under the name of the *Snö-Skata*, or snow-magpie. The former part of the designation is derived from the belief that, when this bird appears in large numbers, snow and hard weather is pending; the latter, from its unusual length of tail, and the magpie-like chattering it constantly keeps up, particularly in the vicinity of its nest.

The vocal powers of the fieldfare are not of the first order. The male bird never attempts a song, except during the period of incubation, at which time, and whilst descending,

* That is, pine-woods, in contra-distinction to *Löf-skogar*, or woods consisting of deciduous trees.

with outspread and nearly stationary wings, on to the tree where his mate has her nest, he will warble forth a few high trills.

During the summer the fieldfare lives on larvæ, small snails, worms, and the like; and in the autumn and winter on berries—such as mountain-ash berries, juniper berries, cow-berries (*Vaccinium Vitis Idæa*, Linn.), and crow-berries (*Empetrum nigrum*, Linn.)

The fieldfare usually breeds in Barr-skogar; at times, however, in those consisting of other trees, such as the aspen, the birch, and the alder; and almost always in colonies. Hundreds of nests may indeed be occasionally seen within a very confined space. The nest, which is commonly placed on a bough or twig of the crown of a tree, is nearly round in form, and ingeniously constructed of small twigs, cemented with clay, &c.; within it is lined with the roots of grass, and other soft substances. The female lays from five to six eggs of a greenish colour, marked with brown spots, not unlike in appearance those of the crow family. They are one inch one line in length, and six and a half lines in breadth. "The fieldfare," according to Ekström, "first prepares its nest in June." Nilsson, on the other hand, says that "it commences breeding in March, and that so early as the middle of May the young are fully fledged;" and adds, that "this bird breeds several times in the year."

This bird is sometimes domesticated in Scandinavia. Linnæus makes mention of one belonging to a publican in Stockholm that was allowed its full liberty, and was accustomed to sip wine out of the glasses of the guests—an indulgence that at length caused it to become quite bald. When at an after-period, however, the great naturalist goes on to

tell us, the bird was confined in a cage, and debarred access to wine, its poll was soon again replenished with feathers!

The Song-Thrush (*Sång-Trast*, or Song-Thrush, Sw.; *T. musicus*, Linn.) was common with us, in the summer time at least. It is also common throughout almost the whole length and breadth of Scandinavia. Next to the field-fare, it is, perhaps, the most abundant of the thrush tribe. If the weather be unusually mild, some remain in the peninsula throughout the winter; but generally they migrate to warmer climes.

In the far north, the song of this bird is heard during nearly the whole of the night. From it thus enlivening the otherwise lone and desolate forest during calm and light nights with its melodious notes, it has more especially attracted people's attention, and given rise to the appropriate name of *Natt-Vaka*, or night-watcher; *Tal-Trast*, or speaking-thrush; *Nordisk Näktergal*, or northern nightingale, and others.

Though the peasantry, as well in Sweden as in other countries, seldom possess any great sensibility for music, the song of this bird has made such an impression upon their minds, that they have attempted to express it in words. When, for instance, the peasant in the spring commences ploughing—at which period, from the want of sufficient forage during the past long and dreary winter, his beast is in but sorry condition—the song-thrush thus mockingly reproaches him:

Si Bon' den token—
 Si Bon' den token,
 Säljer bort oxen och kör med stuten.
 Si hur han stretar—
 Si hur han stretar,
 Ha, ha, ha—ha, ha, ha!

Which, rendered into English, is something to this effect :

Look at the fool—
 Look at the fool,
 He sells his ox and drives with a steer.
 Look how he strives—
 Look how he strives,
 Ha, ha, ha—ha, ha, ha !

Again. When in the morning the women are driving the cows to pasture—an evidence that their duties within doors are for the most part performed—the song-thrush reminds them that whilst the men are occupied with agricultural pursuits, they themselves ought to be employed in fishing :

Brita ! Brita !
 Gädda går i vika, i vika,
 Krok' hit a—Krok' hit a.

That is to say :

Bridget ! Bridget !
 The pike swims in the creek—in the creek,
 Come and hook him—come and hook him.

In Finland the song-thrush holds the following dialogue with the peasant :

Kuka se kyntää—kuka se kyntää ?
 Mies kyntää—mies kyntää
 Tpu . . . liki—tpu . . . liki
 Pp ! pp !—pp ! pp !
 Rikka kijassain !—rikka kijassain
 Mitenkä se sieltä pois suaahaan ?
 Neuwoilla, neuwoilla, neuwoilla
 Minkälaisella neuwwolla ?
 Minkälaisella neuwwolla ?
 —Tir . . . ri—ll—iit— !

The Thuringian peasant, according to M. Bechstein, has also endeavoured to render the song of the thrush in words :

David! David!
 Drey Nössel für eine Kanne,
 Prosit! prosit! Kottenhans,
 Kuhdieb! Kuhdieb!

The song-thrush, we are told, not only uses water to quench its thirst, and make its ablutions, but as a looking-glass. For half an hour together it may be seen standing by the side of a clear pool apparently admiring itself with the greatest complacency. In this while it stations itself in a variety of positions, seemingly for the purpose of ascertaining in which it appears to the greatest advantage.

It is a very voracious bird, and, in captivity at least, will eat almost as much as is given to it. It is said, indeed, to devour its own weight of provisions in a day. The consequence of its gluttony, which is characteristic of the tribe, is that the bird cannot properly digest its food; and a large portion, such as kernels of berries, will pass through its body altogether undigested. Hence the thrush has got the credit of planting trees in a very dexterous manner, which has given rise to the old saying: *Turdus sibi ipse malum cacat.*

The Redwing (*Rödvinge-Trast*, or Redwing-Thrush, Sw.; *T. iliacus*, Linn.). This bird, the smallest of the Scandinavian thrushes, was not seen with us except during migration. It passes the summer months in the more northern parts of the peninsula. "It is very common," Malm tells us, "in all the forests, as well in northern Lapland as on the borders of the Icy Sea." When it appears in the south of Sweden, it is generally in large flocks, and in

company with the fieldfare. With few exceptions, it winters in warmer climates, usually taking its departure about November, and returning in April.

The song of the redwing is not without melody. Some think it beautiful—the rather when heard in the stillness and solitude of the forest; but it is of a plaintive character, and consists of only a few long-sustained notes, which terminate with a short and hurried chirp. “It is the second songster of the polar regions,” says Malm, “and during the pairing season it sings the whole day through. Sometimes it sits on the top of a tree, but just as often concealed amongst boughs and leaves.”

In summer, the redwing, as with others of the thrushes, lives on insects and worms; and in the autumn and winter on different kinds of berries.

From this bird being so generally seen in the winter time in company with the fieldfare, one might be led to imagine that their habits are somewhat alike; but this is not the case, at least as regards the breeding season. The fieldfares, as said, congregate at that time in colonies, and for the most part make their nests in trees; but seldom more than one pair of redwings, on the contrary, are found together, and they mostly build either in low bushes near to the ground, or it may be on a bare tussock close to a bush. The female redwing lays from four to six eggs of a greenish colour, spotted with brown.

The Blackbird (*Kol-Trast*, or Charcoal-Thrush, Sw.; *T. Merula*, Linn.) was common with us, as also in the southern and more central portion of Scandinavia; but it is not an inhabitant of the far north. “This bird,” according to Ekström, “is plentiful in the midland provinces of

Sweden all the year round ;” whence the inference is, that only a portion migrate.

The Ring-Ouzel (*Ring-Trast*, or Ring-Thrush, Sw. ; *T. torquatus*, Linn.). Nilsson tells us, that save during migration, this bird is never seen but in the more northern parts of Scandinavia. In this matter, however, the Professor is somewhat in error ; for according to M. von Wright, it breeds annually in the neighbouring *Skärgård* ;* and the presumption therefore is that it nests in the vicinity of Ronnum also. We ourselves, however, only noticed the ring-ouzel during the autumnal months, when on its way to more genial climes. But at such times it was seldom or never seen in large flocks—more generally indeed singly, or in pairs.

* The belt of islands which, as said, gird in many parts the Scandinavian coasts, as well those of the Baltic as of the North Sea. Some of these islands—of the *Skärgård* in my neighbourhood I speak—are of considerable extent, but by far the larger portion are inconsiderable in size. For the most part, indeed, they are mere *Skär*, or naked rocks, rising little above the surface of the water, and frequently so diminutive as to look like the backs of so many whales, or other monsters of the deep. Islets and *Skär* together, they are as the sands of the sea in number. In former times, several of the most considerable were well wooded ; and some few—Oroust, the largest of the islands, and the residence of M. von Wright, for instance—are partially so at this day ; but in general they are destitute of trees. It is but few of them, in truth, that can boast of even some stunted bushes, which are to be seen creeping forth from amongst the crevices in the rocks. Several of the islands are peopled, and in patches cultivated ; but for the most part they are only tenanted by the feathered tribe, and have a most sterile and desolate appearance. In places large tunnels have been formed by the waves in the dark fronts of the rocks, through which the sea, during storms, rushes to and fro with a monotonous and sullen sound, harmonizing well with the shrill cry of the wild sea-mew—the sole requiem to the unburied bones of the shipwrecked mariner scattered along the coast, and a melancholy foreboding to the poor fisherman of some new disaster.—A faithful representation of our *Skärgård* is given in a future chapter of this volume.

In appearance, habits, and disposition, the ring-ouzel much resembles the blackbird. Its song is plaintive, with but few notes, and nearly resembling the cry of a chicken that has gone astray from its mother. It consists of a lengthened and melancholy, but shrill, *cheep, cheep, chapp*.

The ring-ouzel, like others of the thrushes, feeds on insects, worms, berries, &c.

It for the most part makes its nest on the ground; at times, however, on an old stump, a few feet from the ground. The female lays from four to six eggs of a light-green colour, marked with reddish-brown spots. "In the commencement of June," Nilsson says, "I have seen full-fledged young ones."

Though not enumerated in the Scandinavian fauna, Kjærbölling tells us, that the *T. varius*, Pall. & Horsf. (*T. Whitei*, Eyton, *fidé* Kjærb.) has been found in Sweden, and is believed to have been seen also in Denmark.

He informs us further, that the *Sort-strubet Drossel*, or Black-throated Thrush (*T. atrigularis*, Gloger; *T. Bechsteinii*, Naum.), which is a denizen of southern Europe, has been killed in one instance within the Danish dominions.

The Golden Oriole (*Sommar-Gylling*, Sw.; *Oriolus Galbula*, Linn.) was never observed with us; but a trustworthy person assured me that on one occasion he had met with it near to Gothenburg. It is rare in Scandinavia, as also in Denmark; in parts of Finland it is said to be plentiful.—Migrates.

This beautiful bird is described as being lively and shy; as flying with rapidity from one part of the wood to another; as always holding to the crowns of umbrageous trees; and as having a high whistling call-note, and a song which somewhat resembles that of the thrushes, but not so melodious.

The food of the golden oriole during the spring and summer consists of insects. In the autumn it feeds on berries ; of cherries it is said to be particularly fond.

Its nest is more ingeniously contrived than that of any other Scandinavian bird. It is composed of fine grass, small roots, moss, wool, &c., and in form resembles a purse, or deep basket. It is placed in the fork of a bough of a tree or bush, where it is secured with *Bast* (the rind of a tree), or wool. The exterior of the nest, from being clad with lichens and thin birch-bark, has a whitish appearance. The female lays from four to five white eggs, which around the thicker end are thinly sprinkled with dark-brown spots and blotches.

The Hedge Accentor (*Jern-Sparf*, Sw. ; *Accentor modularis*, Cuv.) was scarce in my vicinity. I am not sure, indeed, that it was found with us unless during migration. For the most part this bird passes the summer months in the more northern portion of Scandinavia, in wooded districts. M. Malm met with it as high up even as Utsjoki, that district of Lapland bordering on the Icy Sea. At the fall of the year a portion winged their way to more southern climes ; but some remained during the winter in the south of Sweden.

The Redbreast (*Rödhake-Sångare*, or Red-throated Warbler, Sw. ; *Sylvia Rubecula*, Lath.) was common with us during the summer months ; as is also the case throughout the greater part of Scandinavia. It is about the first of the migratory birds to return to Sweden in the spring, and amongst the last to leave it. Some few are said to remain in the southern portion of the country during the whole of the winter.

The Blue-throated Warbler (*Blåhake-Sångare*, Sw.; *S. Suecica*, Lath.) was exceedingly scarce with us; as it is indeed in the midland and southern parts of Scandinavia. It is found in Denmark, though sparingly. It breeds most generally in the far north, where by all accounts it is plentiful during the summer months.—Migrates.

“This bird,” M. Malm tells us, “is the first songster within the polar circle; it is common near to the wooded banks of all rivers and streams, even up to the Icy Sea. Towards the end of August, when the period of migration approaches, it comes near to houses in search of flies and other insects.”

The song of the blue-throated warbler, which in itself is very beautiful, strikes one as the more pleasing when heard in the wilds and solitudes of Lapland, where there is a great dearth of songsters. It consists of several varying notes, which are repeated without intermission.

This bird breeds in the month of June, and makes its nest either in a thick bush growing near to the water, or it may be on the ground itself. The female lays five to six eggs of a uniform pale-green colour, sometimes sprinkled with nearly undiscernible brown spots; they are six and a half lines in length, and near five lines in thickness.

The Redstart (*Rödstart-Sångare*, or Red-tail Warbler, Sw.; *S. Phœnicurus*, Lath.) was very common with us, as well as all over Scandinavia, from Scania to beyond the polar circle; and this both on the coast and the interior of the country.—Migrates.

The Black Red-tail (*Svart Rödstart-Sångare*, or Black Red-tail Warbler, Sw.; *S. Tithys*, Scop.). This bird is very rare in Scandinavia, and there are not many instances on

record of its having been killed. I am not aware of its having been seen in my part of the country. It is also very rare in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Sedge Warbler (*Säf-Sångare*, or Sedge-Warbler, Sw.; *S. Phragmitis*, Bechst.) was common with us; as it also is throughout Sweden and Norway generally—from the extreme south of Sweden to beyond the polar circle.—Migrates.

The Reed-Wren (*Rör-Sångare*, or Reed-Warbler, Sw., *S. arundinacea*, Lath.) was not uncommon with us; and several specimens shot in the reed-beds of the river Gotha are now preserved in the Gothenburg museum. It would seem to be little known in Scandinavia, and its limits are at present unascertained. As its name denotes, its resorts are reeds and rushes near to the banks of lakes and rivers. It is very common in Denmark.—Migrates.

The *Sylvia media* (Malm, *sub Calamoherpé*, in the Proceed. of the Ac. of Sc. at Stockholm, 1851, p. 159). Until recently this bird could hardly be said to belong to the Scandinavian fauna; but within the last two or three years, specimens have been shot in the reed-beds of the Gotha; and the presumption therefore is, that it is not unknown in other parts of the peninsula.

The *Sylvia palustris*, Bechst. This bird is also nearly, or altogether, new to the northern fauna. As, however, it has of late years been found to breed in the reed-beds of the Gotha, it is not improbable that, as with the *Sylvia media*, it is an inhabitant also of other portions of the peninsula. It belongs to the Danish fauna, though it is only recently that it has found a place in it.

The *Nordisk Näktergal*, or Northern Nightingale (*S.*

Philomela, Bechst.), was not found in my neighbourhood, but in the southern and south-eastern parts of Sweden, where the localities are favourable, this bird is pretty common, and in places, indeed, it may be said to be abundant. In Denmark it is scarce.—Migrates.

The Nightingale common in England (*S. Luscinia*, Lath.) is not an inhabitant, as it is believed, of the peninsula; but in Denmark it is not uncommon.

As with other warblers, there are better and worse performers amongst nightingales. The one distinguishes itself in the one way, the other in a different manner. There are *virtuosi*, whose voices and modulations embrace to perfection all the beauties of the rest. The nightingale, when singing, evinces great self-love and jealousy, and will not allow itself to be surpassed by a rival. When several are therefore pouring forth their rich notes near to each other, or in the same *volière*, they will so exert their vocal powers as to become quite hoarse. More than one instance is on record, indeed, of its having burst a blood-vessel, and falling at once to the ground as if seized with an attack of apoplexy. M. Goetze, in his European fauna, relates an instance somewhat to the point.

“One of my friends in Brunswick had for several years one of these birds, which was amongst the most beautiful of songsters. A Jew, who had learnt to imitate to perfection the notes of the nightingale, exhibited his talents to the public in that town. The Jew was challenged by the owner to enter the lists with it, and accepted the invitation at a time when it was singing away at its best. The Jew commenced—the nightingale chimed in; the Jew raised his key, as did also the bird; the Jew took a still higher key, and the

nightingale attempted to surpass him; but not succeeding in its efforts, and finding itself over-matched, it at once became silent, and in the course of a few days died of sheer grief."

The *Bröst-vattrad Sångare*—that is, the Wavy-breasted Warbler, Sw. (*S. nisoria*, Bechst.), is said to be confined altogether to the more southern and south-eastern parts of Sweden, and to the islands of Öland and Gottland. It is found in Denmark, though somewhat sparingly as it would seem.—Migrates.

According to Swedish naturalists, the resorts of this bird are thick and leafy bushes, which border on meadows and fields. Like the most part of its congeners, it creeps amongst close thickets to pick up insects and larvæ. With one or two other warblers—the white-throat, for instance—the male has the habit of rising perpendicularly from a bush into the air, and from thence, whilst singing, of lowering itself gradually, with outspread wings, in the manner of the pipits. It builds its nest in a thick bush; the female lays from four to five eggs of a whitish colour, marked with red-grey, or ash-grey spots.

The Black-cap Warbler (*Svart-hufvad Sångare*, Sw.; *S. atricapilla*, Lath.) was rather scarce in my vicinity. This bird is found, though in no great abundance, throughout nearly the length and breadth of Scandinavia, from the extreme south of Sweden to the far north. In appearance it much resembles the greater pettychaps; and its song, which is varying and beautiful, is not unlike that bird's.—Migrates.

The Greater Pettychaps (*Trädgårds-Sångare*, or Garden-Warbler, Sw.; *S. hortensis*, Lath.) was pretty common

with us ; as also throughout the Scandinavian peninsula generally.—Migrates.

The White-Throat (*Grå Sångare*, or Grey Warbler, Sw.; *S. cinerea*, Lath.) was also rather common about Ronnum, as well as elsewhere in the peninsula; but its limits to the northward do not seem very well ascertained.—Migrates.

The Lesser White-Throat (*Ärt-Sångare*, Sw., that is, Pea-Warbler, so called from its greatly frequenting pea-fields; *S. Curruca*, Lath.) was likewise common with us; as it also is in Sweden and Norway generally. The singular song of this bird, *klapp, klapp, klapp*—which much resembles the sound emitted from the clapper attached to the little wind-mills one often sees placed in gardens to scare away sparrows and other birds—has, in parts of Germany, obtained for it the names of *Weissmüller* (White Miller), and *Müllerchen* (Little Miller).—Migrates.

The Wood-Wren (*Grön Sångare*, or Green Warbler, Sw.; *S. Sibilatrix*, Bechst.) is not uncommon in the southern and midland portion of Sweden; but I am not aware of its having been seen in my vicinity.—Migrates.

The Willow-Wren (*Löf-Sångare*, or Leaf-Warbler, Sw.; *S. Trochilus*, Lath.) was common with us; as also wherever trees and bushes are to be found throughout Scandinavia. M. Malm found it in abundance in northern Lapland, on the very borders of the Icy Sea.—Migrates.

The *Gul-bröstad Sångare*, or Yellow-breasted Warbler (*S. Hippolais*, Lath., *fidé* Nilss.), was rather scarce with us; as indeed would seem to be the case generally in Scandinavia. Its limits to the northward appear not to be accurately known. It has been met with, however, as high

up as Drontheim in Norway, and on the borders of the province of Helsingland in Sweden.—Migrates.

“This bird resorts in preference,” Nilsson tells us, “to groves, gardens, outskirts of wood, or such places in which there are deciduous trees; but in the midst of deep and thick woods one seldom finds it. In disposition it is in the highest degree gay and sprightly. Its song, which commonly proceeds from a close, thickly-leaved tree-top, or a bush, is very varying and melodious, and has given rise to its name of Bastard-Nightingale. If one approaches its nest or young, the old birds fly uneasily and angrily about, with a harsh, *tack, tack, tack, tack*; and when worked up into a climax, they cry *täck-täckähjöö, täckähjöö-hj.*”

The *Gran-Sångare*, or Spruce-pine Warbler (*S. abietina*, Nilss.; *S. rufa*, Lath., *fidé* Nilss.; *Ficedula rufa*, Koch, *fidé*, Kjærbo.), was only seen with us, I believe, during spring and autumn. It passes the summer months in the more northern parts of Scandinavia; but does not seem to be found within the polar circle.—Migrates.

M. Malm says this bird is identical with our chiff-chaff; but as, on the contrary, some seem to imagine it identical with the Gul-bröstad Sångare, I deem it best to retain the Swedish name, and to leave the learned to settle the matter amongst themselves.

In addition to the warblers enumerated, belonging to Scandinavia, four other species, according to Kjærbo, pertain to the Danish fauna, namely—the *Sylvia Turdoides*, Mey.; the *S. aquatica*, Lath.; the *S. Cariceti*, Naum.; and the *S. locustella*, Penn., all found in the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, and the third in number, besides, in one instance, near Copenhagen.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE REGULI—THE WAGTAILS—THE PIPITS—THE CHATS—THE TITMICE—
THE BOHEMIAN WAX-WING—THE LARKS—THE BUNTINGS—THE FINCHES
—THE CROSS-BILLS.

THE Gold-crested Regulus (*Kungs-Fogel*, or King's-Bird, Sw.; *Regulus aurocapillus*, Selby) was common in my vicinity; as indeed is the case throughout nearly the whole of Scandinavia. It is found "as far to the north as the pine-woods grow." A portion left the peninsula for warmer climes in the fall of the year, but numbers remained during the winter. It is very common in Denmark, during migration, in spring and autumn, not only in the woods, but wherever bushes and hedges are found; and Kjærbölling believes it to breed there.

The Fire-crested Regulus (*R. ignicapillus*, Naum.), the smallest of all European birds, is not as yet included in the Scandinavian fauna; but Swedish naturalists think it not improbable it may be an inhabitant of the peninsula.

According to Kjærbölling, it has, however, been found in Denmark in four instances.

The White Wagtail (*Ring-Årla* ; *Südes-Årla*, Sw. ; *Motacilla alba*, Linn.) was very common about Ronnum as a summer visitant ; as it also is throughout Scandinavia. M. Malm met with it everywhere in northern Lapland, as high up even as the Icy Sea. It made its appearance with us in the beginning of April, and continued to arrive until the end of the month.*

In the south of Sweden, where this wagtail appears in the spring about the time the ice is breaking up, it is called *Is-Spjärna*—literally the kicker away of the ice. In places it also goes by the name of *Kok-Årla*, or the clod-wagtail, because it is so constantly seen amongst the clods in the new-ploughed fields. There is, moreover, a saying in parts of Sweden, that if the farmer commences ploughing either before the coming or departure of the white wagtail, success will not attend his endeavours.

With us the female made her nest in the crevices of rocks, in old walls, under bridges, &c. ; she lays from four to eight greyish-white eggs, sprinkled all over with larger and smaller, brown and grey spots.

The *Motacilla Yarrellii*, Gould (*M. lugubris*, Temm.,

* "Yarrell, when speaking of the wagtails," writes a friend, a good naturalist, "is greatly in error. He says the wagtail so common in England is not found except in Norway and Sweden ; but another occupies the continent where our wagtail (the English) seldom is seen. A few wagtails are sometimes observed in Cornwall in winter ; and in Devonshire, at the earliest, in the middle of February ; but in the rest of England only occasionally an isolated individual can be seen during winter. What becomes therefore of a purely insectivorous bird, of which such enormous numbers are to be seen in England in summer, and also in Norway and Sweden ?"

fidé Kjærbo.), which some Swedish naturalists consider a mere variety of the *M. alba*, was once in a time seen in my part of the country; and specimens, shot of late years near to Gothenburg, are preserved in the museums of that town.*

The Yellow Wagtail (*Gul-Ärla*, Sw.; *M. flava*, Linn.) was abundant during the summer months in the neighbourhood of Ronnum. It is also common throughout Scandinavia. As with the white wagtail, it has been met with near to the shores of the Icy Sea: often, indeed, high up on the fjälls, on moors and morasses. This bird did not make its appearance with us until some days after the white wagtail. For the most part it bred in marshy ground, or in corn-fields, where it was difficult to find its nest.—Migrates.

The *M. flava* var. *melanocephala* (*M. Feldeggii*, Michah; *M. melanocephala*, Licht.), which materially resembles the *M. flava*, excepting that the head is black, was occasionally seen with us; but as this was only during spring and autumn, it would therefore appear to belong to the more northern parts of the peninsula.

Kjærbölling speaks of a second variety of the yellow wagtail, *M. flava* var. *cinereo-capilla*, Kays. & Blas. (*M. cinereo-capilla*, Savi), killed in a few instances in Jutland. He tells us also, that the *M. boarula*, Lath. (*M. sulphurea*, Bechst.) has been found in one instance in Schleswig.

The Meadow Pipit (*Äng-Piplärka*, or Meadow-Pipelark, Sw.; *Anthus pratensis*, Bechst.) was common with us. It is also abundant throughout the greater part of Scandinavia.

* This bird is already described by Pallas in his "Zoogr. Rosso-Asiat.," vol. I, p. 507, note, thus: "*variat collo toto nigro*;" and by Naumann, "Die Vögel Deutschlands," vol. III, p. 808-9.

M. Malm met with this bird in abundance in northern Lapland, and even on the highest fjäll-moors. He describes it as the last of the smaller migratory birds that in the autumn take their departure for the south.

The *A. rufogularis*, Brehm. (*A. cervinus*, Kays. & Blas.; *A. pratensis* var. *rufogularis*, Schleg.; *Motacilla cervina*, Pallas: omn. *fidé* Kjærb.) belongs to the Scandinavian fauna; and breeds, according to Malm, in eastern Finmark in Norway. It has been shot in one instance in Denmark, and that by Kjærbölling himself.

The Tree Pipit (*Träd-Piplärka*, or Tree-Pipelark, Sw.; *A. arboreus*, Bechst.) was numerous in my vicinity. It is also common in all wooded districts, from Scania to northern Lapland. In the far north, however, it is said not to be so abundant as the meadow-pipit.—Migrates.

The *Fält-Piplärka*, or Field-Pipelark (*A. campestris*, Bechst.), is common in the south of Sweden, as well on the coast as in the interior; but is believed not to be found in the midland or northern portions of Scandinavia. Elevated and sandy heaths are its favourite resorts. This bird makes its nest on the ground amongst grass, under a bush, or by the side of a stone. The female lays from four to six bluish-white eggs, marked with red-brown and violet-coloured spots and blotches. It is scarce in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Rock Pipit (*Skär-Piplärka*, or Rock-Pipelark, Sw.; *A. petrosus*, Flem.) was exceedingly common, not only on our coast, but on that of the whole of Scandinavia—from Scania to the North Cape. Every rocky islet, indeed, is occupied with a pair or two of these birds; but I do not remember having seen them in the interior of the country.—Migrates.

The fishermen in the province of Blekinge look upon the rock pipit as a very useful bird, for the reason, that when the water is low, it repairs to the bare rocks, and feeds on the *Grund-märkla* (*Cancer pulex*, Linn.), a crustacean, which is so injurious to their nets, that during a long autumnal night it will destroy them altogether.

The female forms her nest on grass-grown ledges of rocks; but this, though in appearance pretty substantial, is so fragile, that it falls to pieces at the least handling. She lays from four to five eggs of a greyish-brown or greenish-brown colour, marked with ash-brown spots; and usually hatches in the beginning of May.

The Wheat-Ear (*Sten-Sqvätta*, Sw.; *Saxicola Oenanthe*, Bechst.) was very common with us; as also over the whole of the Scandinavian peninsula, from Scania to northern Lapland. It is found, not only on the lower grounds, but on the fjälls far above the limits of arboreal vegetation; at times, indeed, immediately near to the regions of perpetual snow. Though it generally breeds on the ground, amongst stones, &c., M. Malm, when in Lapland, found its nest, in one instance, in the hollow of a pine tree.—Migrates.

The Whin-Chat (*Busk-Sqvätta*, Sw.; *S. Rubetra*, Bechst.) was likewise abundant in my vicinity. It is also common throughout the length and breadth of the peninsula. This bird, for the most part, frequents bushy districts and the outskirts of woods; but is not, like the wheat-ear, found on the naked fjälls.—Migrates.

The Danish fauna includes a third species of the genus *Saxicola*, namely the *S. rubicola*, Bechst. (*Sylvia rubicola*, Lath.). It is, however, very scarce in Denmark.

The Great Titmouse (*Talg-Mes*, Sw.; *Parus major*,

Linn.) was common with us. It is also common in the southern and midland portions of Scandinavia; but in the more northern parts it is scarcer. Malm speaks of having shot one in northern Lapland, not far from the Icy Sea.

In the summer time the favourite resorts of this bird are woods and bushy districts; but in the autumn it collects about houses "to live," as the peasants express it, "amongst people." The inhabitants of the province of Bohus, indeed, predict the approach of winter when it comes to their dwellings, and, as they say, "*pickar kittet af glasen*"—that is, picks the putty from the windows.

But by Pontoppidan's account, putty alone would not seem to stay its stomach. When speaking of it, he says: "It is hated and persecuted; for according to its name (*Kiöd-Meise*, or the meat-titmouse), it is such a lover of meat, that it watches every opening or hole to get into the farmer's pantry, and falls upon the meat, and will eat its way into it like a mouse; even when the meat hangs up to be smoked, they can hardly preserve it from these birds; they are caught like mice in a trap."

The song of this bird in the spring is not unpleasing, but possesses little variety, and consists almost wholly of *sizidā, sizidā*, which it often repeats. The peasants in the south of Sweden fancy they hear in these notes the words, *litet hö, litet hö*—that is, little hay, little hay—because at that season they have not much forage left for their cattle.

The great titmouse may soon be familiarized. "Some years ago," M. Edgren tells us, "a pair, male and female, were taken during the winter in a trap, near to Sköfde in Westgothland, and afterwards set at liberty in a large apartment of the mansion, about which they flew at pleasure; and

as this apartment was much used by the establishment, they shortly became on friendly terms with every one, and soon lost their natural shyness. They seemed to thrive unusually well when people were in the room, and constantly flew and hopped about them. Their habits and dispositions could thus be easily observed. Above the *Kakelugn*,* or stove, they made a nest for themselves; composed of thread, slips of paper, cotton, wool, and the like, and occupied it together. They always slept in the nest itself, never in any other part of the room. Their food consisted chiefly of oats, previously soaked in water; but a fly, a spider, or other insect that came in their way, was instantly siezed upon. They never captured them on the wing, however, but always on the walls or in the windows. They were, in fact, predatory birds. Candles, whether of tallow or wax, were picked to pieces by them; meat, whether dressed or undressed, they appeared much to prize.

“When spring came, and the windows were opened, they flew away, and disappeared; both, however, having been previously marked with a piece of silken thread tied around the neck.

“The following November, after a frosty night, a servant-maid reported that two small birds were fluttering about the hall; and when the door of the afore-mentioned apartment was opened, they flew in; and after that they had visited the

* In the better class of houses in Sweden, this is not the small iron stove occasionally seen in English workshops, &c., but a somewhat massive pile of brick and mortar, reaching generally from the floor to near the ceiling. Generally it is placed in the corner of the room, but often at the side of it; and from being usually a handsome structure, as well in regard to form, as from its exterior being embellished with Dutch tiles, it serves rather as an ornament to the apartment than otherwise.

old nest, they alighted upon the table, and were recognized as the same birds that had passed the preceding winter in the house. They did not evince the slightest degree of shyness, but seemed quite at home.

“At the approach of summer, they were once more liberated; but in the autumn, only the female returned to the old domicile. It was for the last time, however; for when in the spring she was again restored to liberty, she departed for good and all. Both, it is most probable, met an untimely end.”

The Blue Titmouse (*Blå-Mes*, Sw.; *P. cæruleus*, Linn.) was also common in my vicinity at all seasons of the year. With the exception, indeed, of the more northern parts of the peninsula, it is also common, I believe, throughout both Sweden and Norway.

The Crested Titmouse (*Tofs-Mes*, Sw.; *P. cristatus*, Linn.) was likewise pretty common with us; and the same is the case throughout the more central portion of Scandinavia. It would seem to be confined to Barr-skogar, between the 64° N. latitude and northern Scania. It is not found in Denmark, where, however, it should be remarked, there are no pine-forests.

The Marsh Titmouse (*Kärr-Mes*, Sw.; *P. palustris*, Linn.). This bird was also common in my vicinity, as well during winter as summer. It is very generally distributed throughout Scandinavia, from the south of Sweden, to beyond the polar circle.

M. Malm says, however, that during his sojourn in northern Lapland, “he only met with the marsh titmouse, as a migratory bird, during the winter, and as near the Icy Sea as the birch-tree grows. It is then plentiful; but so soon

as the snow commences melting, it retires to more southern districts."

The *Grå-Mes* (*P. borealis*, Selys) was occasionally found in my neighbourhood, as also in other parts of Sweden. But being a recent addition to the Swedish fauna, northern naturalists seem to know but little of its habits. It has not been noticed in Denmark.

The Cole Titmouse (*Svart-Mes*, Sw.; *P. ater*, Linn.) was pretty common in my neighbourhood at all seasons of the year. It is also common throughout Scandinavia generally, though in a less degree, I believe, in the extreme south of Sweden, than in the more midland and northern parts of it. In the summer, at least, this bird confines itself principally to Barr-skogar.

The Long-tailed Titmouse (*Stjert-Mes*, Sw.; *P. caudatus*, Linn.). This bird was not very plentiful in my neighbourhood; nor is it abundant in any part of Scandinavia, less so perhaps in Scania than in the midland and more northern portion of the peninsula. In the summer time, thick and bushy woods are its favourite resorts.

The *Siberisk Mes*, or Siberian Titmouse (*P. Sibiricus*, Gmel.) was extremely rare in my vicinity. An individual was shot in 1843, by M. von Wright, in the province of Bohus; and several others were seen during the following year by M. Ekström, in the adjoining Skärgård. Though occasionally met with in the more central parts of the Scandinavian peninsula, the proper home of this bird would seem to be the far north. In Lapland it is by all accounts plentiful. The greater portion appear to be pretty stationary the whole year round. M. von Wright tells us, indeed, that

at Mauno, in latitude $68^{\circ} 35'$, it is almost the only bird to be found during the winter.

“The Siberian titmouse,” says M. Malm, “is not only most fearless, but possessed of an extraordinary degree of curiosity ; and I have often had the greatest enjoyment in watching its movements. On one occasion I stood for upwards of half-an-hour, under a thick spruce-pine, on the look-out for one of these birds, which I heard clattering in the branches above me, but without being able to get sight of it. At length, however, it left its perch on the top of the tree, and to my great astonishment, as I was standing perfectly still at the foot of the same tree, with the gun under my arm, it descended with the rapidity of an arrow, and took post on the barrel, near the muzzle ! Here it remained for a long while, and it was not until I had driven it away with my hand, that I was enabled to shoot it.

“Another time, when out for the purpose of shooting Ripor, my gun being charged with large shot, I also met with a Siberian titmouse ; and whilst occupied in changing the shot, it came so very near to me, that I was enabled without difficulty to knock it down with the ramrod of my gun, whereby powder and shot were saved.”

This bird, he adds, makes its nest in a hollow pine-tree. The under portion of it consists of moss, which, without any kind of arrangement, is stopped into the hole. Above this again is a good portion of the hair of the lemming ; at times, indeed, pieces of the skin of that animal. The eggs, which are from seven to nine in number, are white, and marked with light-red spots and blotches. In shape they resemble those of the common creeper.

The *Asur-Mes*, or Azure-Titmouſe (*P. cyaneus*, Pall.), is included in the northern fauna ; but it has only been killed in one or two inſtances, and little, in conſequence, is known of its habits and diſpoſition. Siberia would appear to be the proper home of this bird. It is alſo very rare in Denmark.

The Bearded Titmouſe (*P. Bjarmicus*, Linn.), though unknown in Scandinavia, has found a place in the fauna of Denmark, in which country, however, it is deſcribed as being very ſcarce.

The Bohemian Wax-Wing (*Siden-Svans*, or Silken-Tail, Sw. ; *Bombycilla garrula*, Bonap.) was only ſeen with us during certain winters, but then often in large numbers. During the ſummer months theſe birds confine themſelves to the more northern parts of Scandinavia, more eſpecially to the pine forests of Lapland, where M. von Wright tells us they are numerous.—Migrates occaſionally.

Up to a certain period, moſt birds become more beautiful as they advance in years. Such is the caſe with the wax-wing ; for after a time red, horny, or parchment-like appendages—the exiſtence of which ſeems to have been overlooked by Engliſh naturaliſts—make their appearance at the extremity of the yellow at the end of the tail-feathers ; and theſe increaſe *annually* in ſize and number. It is only when theſe red excrescences are fully developed, that the wax-wing can lay claim to its preſent pretenſions—that of being the moſt beautiful of all Scandinavian birds.

The food of this bird in the ſummer conſiſts of inſects, worms, and ſeeds ; but in the winter, when it viſited us, it fed on all kinds of berries, ſuch as thoſe of the mountain-aſh, the *Sorbus Scandica* (Fries), the hawthorn, the juniper, &c.

As M. von Wright ſtates that he himſelf, on one occaſion,

shot the female wax-wing with immature eggs in its body, there can be no doubt of its breeding in Scandinavia; still it is singular, that not a single well-authenticated instance is on record of its nest or eggs having been found in the peninsula.

The wax-wing is easily tamed. Friends of mine, indeed, have had it long in confinement. It has little besides beauty of plumage, however, as a recommendation for a cage-bird; for its habits are dirty, and its song, which is nearly alike winter and summer, possesses little variety, and consists of a single, long-drawn, trill, *ziziri*, *ziziri*, or *zirrrr*.

In Denmark it is only known as a migratory bird, and, as with us, only appears there certain years. During the winters of 1821-2, 1843-4, 1847-8, and 1849-50, these birds swarmed over the whole of that country.

The Shore Lark (*Berg-Lärka*, or Mountain-Lark, Sw.; *Alauda alpestris*, Linn.). Until within the last few years this bird, whose proper home is the high north, was not included in the Scandinavian fauna; but recently it has been met with, as well in Eastern Finmark, as on the western coast of Scania, where, indeed, upwards of fifty were shot during the winter or spring of 1849. It has been found in a few instances in Denmark.

“During the summer time the resorts of this bird—called in Eastern Finmark the *Sand-Lärka*, or, Sand-Lark,” says M. Malm, and he is the only Swedish naturalist who gives us any information about it, “are the fjäll morasses in Eastern Finmark, where it makes its nest, like the song-lark, by the side of a tussock, or the like. Its habits and manner of living much resemble those of that bird; and when it sings, it, whilst ascending aloft, gives utterance to several varying

trills. During spring and autumn it does not sing, and conceals itself from its pursuer behind a stone, or in a hole in the ground; and it is only when flushed, and during its flight from one place to another, that it emits a short *trrril*, or *tillirl*, in the autumn, and *tjui terrr*, in the spring. It lies very close, and I have several times come within a couple of fathoms of it before it has taken wing. It lives on insects and seeds. It breeds always near to the sea-coast, and except during migration, which commences at the end of August, is never seen in the interior of the country."

The Sky-Lark (*Sång-Lärka*, or Song-Lark, Sw.; *A. arvensis*, Linn.) was very common with us during the summer months. It is also common in all the cultivated districts of Scandinavia, from Scania to far within the polar circle. M. Malm met with it in abundance near to Kare-suando in northern Lapmark, and tells us one was shot on the 15th of October, 1841, near to the church of Utsjoki, which is at no great distance from the Icy Sea. Though the larger portion of these birds migrate, some, I suspect, winter occasionally in the south of Sweden. I judge so, at least, from having once seen considerable numbers of them in the fields near to Gothenburg, only a few days before Christmas.

Of all the migratory birds common to Sweden, the sky-lark is the earliest to arrive in the spring—at times so early as January; and being thus the harbinger of that joyous season, the first carried to the royal palace at Stockholm is, agreeably to an ancient custom, paid for in gold.

The song of this bird recalls to the mind the distich of Taubmann:

Ecce! suum *tirili, tirili, tiritirliri* tractim
Candida per vernum cantat alauda solum.

The Wood-Lark (*Träd-Lärka*, or Tree-Lark, Sw. ; *A. arborea*, Linn.) was tolerably common with us during the summer months, and bred in the vicinity. It is also pretty common throughout the wooded districts of the more midland portion of Scandinavia ; but its limits to the northward do not seem to be very well ascertained. English naturalists say this bird does not congregate in the winter ; but Nilsson speaks of its being often seen, during migration, in considerable flocks in the stubble-fields of Scania.

The *Tofs-Lärka*, or Crested-Lark (*A. cristata*, Linn.) was very rare in my vicinity. One of these birds, as it was believed, was shot near to Ronnum only a year or two ago. It is exceedingly scarce in Scandinavia, and only two or three other instances are on record of its having been killed, and that in Scania. The more southern parts of Europe would seem to be its proper home. It is found, though sparingly, in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Lapland Bunting (*Lapp-Sparf*, or Lapland-Sparrow, Sw. ; *Emberiza Lapponica*, Nilss.). The home of this bird, as its name would denote, is the far north, where it passes the summer months. Though imagined to migrate, it is seldom seen in the south of Sweden, whence northern naturalists infer—with what truth I know not—that when on its way to more southern climes, its course lies through Finland and Russia.

The Lapland bunting, so we are told by Nilsson, does not hop as sparrows and finches, but runs on the ground in like manner with the lark. Its peculiar song is melodious. Whilst singing, it does not sit on the ground, but flutters in the air in the same way as that bird.

This bunting, according to M. Malm, who found it every-

where during his sojourn in Lapland, breeds on moors and morasses high amongst the fjälls. The nest is built on a tussock in marshy ground. It is carelessly constructed of grass and moss, and lined with feathers. The eggs, five to six in number, are of a dirty-yellow colour, resembling that of tripoli, and marked with olive-brown spots and streaks.

The Snow-Bunting (*Snö-Sparf*, or Snow-Sparrow, Sw. ; *E. nivalis*, Linn.). This bird was common with us during the autumn—more especially on the coast and adjacent islands. As with the Lapland bunting, its proper home is the far north, where it is found as high up as the North Cape itself. It seems doubtful whether it migrates ; during mild winters, at least, large numbers remain in the south of Sweden.

Though the fact is known to naturalists, it may be proper to mention that, somewhat contrary to the usual order of nature, this bunting in the winter time is mostly brown—and hence, probably, its designation with us in England of tawny bunting—whereas in the summer, save its back, and parts of the tail and wings, its plumage is of a snowy whiteness. It is the most restless of birds. In the winter, when in flocks, it is never quiet ; one minute it is seen swarming—so to say—in the air, and the next, running or hopping along the ground.

During the breeding season one meets with this bird high upon the fjälls, not only far above the limits of arboreal vegetation, but in regions of perpetual snow. Its nest, which is usually placed amongst stones, is formed of grass, and lined with feathers, hair, and the like. The eggs, which are four or five in number, are whitish, and marked with brown and grey spots, especially towards the thicker end.

The Common Bunting (*Korn-Sparf*, or Grain-Sparrow, Sw.; *E. miliaria*, Linn.) was very rare with us. During a long residence on the neighbouring coast, indeed, M. von Wright has only met with a single specimen. This goes far to corroborate Nilsson's statement as to this bird being "confined to the south of Sweden, where it remains all the year round."

"During the pairing season," the Professor tells us, "the common bunting has this peculiarity, that it flies in a totally different manner to what it does at other times. Its legs hang down, it elevates its wings and moves them rapidly, and thus gradually *släpar sig*—that is, drags itself—as it were, from one elevation to another."

The Professor mentions another peculiarity of this bird. "That *Slättland*, or open line of country," he says, "where it once appears, it never leaves. It is totally devoid of the instinct of the house-sparrow, which in the wilderness finds out the cottage of the squatter, and cultivated patches. It never flies over a forest. It is only this circumstance that can explain the remarkable fact of its being found in incalculable numbers in the plains of Scania, where it remains all the year round; whereas it never shows itself in the fruitful districts of East- or Westgothland, or in those of Hedemarken in Norway."

The Reed-Bunting (*Säf-Sparf*, or Sedge-Sparrow, Sw.; *E. Schæniclus*, Linn.) was pretty common with us in the summer time; as it also is over the whole of Scandinavia. M. Malm met with it everywhere in Lapland up to the shores of the Icy Sea, wherever the banks of the mountain-streams are clad with willow and birch bushes. According

to M. von Wright, the females always arrive fourteen days later than the males at the breeding-grounds.

The *Vide-Sparf*, or Willow-Sparrow (*E. rustica*, Pall.). Of this bird—though included in the Scandinavian fauna—little or nothing seems to be known by northern naturalists. Its proper home would appear to be Russia; but some are believed to breed in Lapland, where more than one has been shot. Its favourite resort, as the name implies, is amongst willow-bushes. It is not found in Denmark—Migrates.

The Yellow Bunting, or Yellow Ammer (*Gul-Sparf*, or Yellow Sparrow, Sw.; *E. citrinella*, Linn.) was very common with us; as also in the greater part of Scandinavia, from Scania to beyond the polar circle. It has been observed, though sparingly, as high up as the parish of Enare, in northern Lapland. This bird does not migrate, but remains in the peninsula all the year round. It is quite common in Denmark.

The Ortolan Bunting (*Ortolan-Sparf*, or Ortolan-Sparrow, Sw.; *E. hortulana*, Linn.) was very common with us in the summer time; and the like is the case throughout the greater part of Scandinavia. Its limits to the northward, according to M. von Wright, are between 67° and 68° N. lat. It is exceedingly scarce in Denmark.—Migrates.

This bird bred in considerable numbers in my vicinity; but for the most part in corn-fields, and there was difficulty therefore in finding its nest. The female lays from four to five eggs, of a pale-grey colour, thinly marked with larger and smaller black spots, as also with other diminutive spots of a greyish colour.

The Chaffinch (*Bo-Fink*, Sw.; *Fringilla cælebs*, Linn.). This bird was very common during the summer months in

my vicinity, as also throughout Scandinavia generally. M. Malm met with it as high up as Enare Lapmark. It is much less plentiful, however, beyond the polar circle, than in the midland and southern parts of the peninsula. The greater portion migrate, but some remain in Sweden throughout the winter, let it be ever so severe. It is very common in Denmark.

The Mountain Finch (*Berg-Fink*, Sw.; *F. Montifringilla*, Linn.) was only seen with us during migration. At times they appeared in flocks of many hundreds—generally intermixed with chaffinches—and the trees where they settled seemed quite alive with them. It passes the summer months in the far north, where it is very abundant. It has been met with in all the woods bordering on the Icy Sea. The greater portion migrate, but some winter in the south of Sweden.

The House Sparrow (*Grå-Spink*, Sw.; *F. domestica*, Linn.) was very common in my vicinity, winter as well as summer. It is also common from nearly the one extremity of Scandinavia to the other. I myself have seen it in northern Lapland, as high up as 68° N. latitude. In fact, wherever the squatter is located, one is pretty sure to meet with this bird.

The Tree Sparrow (*Pil-Fink*, Sw.; *F. montana*, Linn.) was pretty common with us, and the same is the case from Scania to far beyond the polar circle. Its limits to the northward are somewhat more extended than those of the house sparrow, which it in its habits resembles. Like that bird, it is often bred in some building or other; in several instances, indeed, it made its nest under the eaves of our own house. M. von Wright informs us that in Lapland it even takes possession of swallows' nests, where it rears its

young. Although both of these birds may be a good deal on the move during the winter time, especially in the more northern parts of Scandinavia, neither of them are supposed to migrate.

The Common Grosbeak (*Sten-Knäck*, or Stone-breaker, Sw.; *F. Coccothraustes*, Temm.). This bird, which was scarce in my neighbourhood, is confined, Swedish naturalists tell us, to the southern and midland portions of the peninsula; and even there it is anything but plentiful. It is not uncommon in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Green Grosbeak, or Greenfinch (*Grön-Fink*, Sw.; *F. Chloris*, Temm.) was somewhat scarce with us; less so, however, during the summer months. This bird breeds for the most part in the midland and northern portions of the peninsula; but its limits to the northward do not appear to be very well defined. Though during the autumn and winter somewhat wandering in its habits, it is not believed to migrate.

The Goldfinch (*Steglits*, Sw.; *F. Carduelis*, Linn.) was common with us all the year round. It is also pretty common from Scania to *Norrland*,* which Swedish naturalists appear to think its limits to the northward.

The Siskin (*Grön-Siska*, Sw.; *F. Spinus*, Linn.) was abundant with us, in winter as well as summer. This bird is also common throughout a large portion of Scandinavia, as high up certainly as *Norrland*; but its exact limits to the northward seem not to be known. Pine forests would appear to be its favourite resorts.

* The most northern of the three grand divisions of Sweden (exclusive of Lapland); *Svealand*, which embraces the central portion of the country, is the second; and *Götaland*, the third.

The Lesser Redpole (*Grå-Siska*, Sw.; *F. Linaria*, Linn.) was only seen with us, I imagine, when on its way to or from the far north, where it passes the summer months. According to Malm, it is abundant in all the Barr-skogar of northern Lapland, even as high up as the shores of the Icy Sea.—Migrates.

The Common Linnet (*Hämpling*, Sw.; *F. cannabina*, Linn.) was numerous with us in the summer time. It is common also in the southern and more central portion of Scandinavia, but would not appear to be found beyond 61° N. latitude. Though some remain in the peninsula during the winter, the larger portion migrate.

The Mountain Linnet (*Gul-näbbad Fink*, or Yellow-beaked Finch, Sw.; *F. Montium*, Gmel.) was chiefly seen with us in the autumn and spring. This bird passes the summer months in the more northern parts of Scandinavia, where, according to Nilsson, it frequents the lower regions, and is more especially found amongst the boulders and stones at the foot of the fjälls. Some of these birds may migrate, but very many remain in the peninsula during the winter.

“In the summer time, when in its home in the far north,” the Professor informs us, “the mountain linnet is shy; but during its wanderings in the winter time, on the contrary, it is stupid and tame, and easily captured.”

In addition to the several species of *Fringilla* mentioned, Kjærbölling includes two others in the Danish fauna, namely—the *F. canescens*, de Selys Longchamps—whose proper home is Greenland and other arctic countries—in one instance shot in Denmark; and the *F. Serinus*, Linn. (*Pyrrhula Serinus*, Kays. & Blas.), belonging to southern Europe, which has twice been found in Denmark.

The Common Bullfinch (*Domherre*, Sw.; *Dompap*,* Norw.; *Pyrrhula vulgaris*, Temm.) was much more abundant with us in the winter than in the summer. A few pair, however, nested in the woods about Ronnum. This bird is principally confined to the more central and northern parts of Scandinavia. It has been seen in the vicinity of the polar circle; but its limits to the northward seem not to be clearly ascertained. Barr-skogar are its favourite resorts in the summer. It is not supposed to migrate.

When speaking of the musical powers of the bullfinch, M. von Winckell mentions a curious circumstance. "I have seen one of these birds, a male, that so soon as a man approached his cage immediately commenced singing; but on the contrary, he would not utter a single note if a woman sung to him, however beautiful her voice might be. Even the lady who was in the habit of feeding him, could not induce him to sing before she clothed herself in the garb of a man."

According to M. von Wright, the bullfinch, in parts of Finland, is taken in great numbers by means of the *Mjårde*, spoken of in the chapter on fishing devices. In places where it resorts, berries are strewed upon the surface of the snow, and when the birds are collected in sufficient numbers, one places the net on the spot, concealing it partly from view by several pine-boughs. Clusters of berries are fastened just within the entrance of the net, and others are scattered round about. In certain districts of Sweden it is captured not only by means of lime-twigs and other devices, but by the

* Both the Swedish and Norwegian designation literally means a canon of the church. "Perhaps so called in Popish times," says Pontoppidan, "for its melodious voice, resembling an organ, though not loud enough to fill the choir of a cathedral, where the canons sing their Horæ."

aid of the *Pust-rör*, that is, a hollow reed, out of which a pea or blunt shaft is propelled by the breath.

The Danish fauna embraces also the *Karmin-Dompap*, or Carmine-Bullfinch (*P. erythrina*, Temm.), a denizen of Finland, Livonia, Esthonia, &c., which has in one instance been met with on the island of Sylt, off the west coast of Schleswig.

The Pine Bullfinch (*Tall-bit*, Sw.; *P. Enucleator*, Temm.) was only a winter visitor with us, and not a constant one either; for two or three years might elapse without our seeing a single individual. At times, however, they appeared in such numbers, that the country was inundated with them, and multitudes were slaughtered. Swedish naturalists tell us the proper home of this bird is the northern portion of Scandinavia; but I rather suspect that for the most part it breeds farther to the eastward—in Russia or Siberia. I judge so, because travellers describe it as somewhat scarce in the forests of northern Lapland. Only a few are supposed to migrate.

The pine bullfinch, according to Ekström, is amongst the first of the Scandinavian songsters. It sings at times during the night, as well as the day, from which cause it is often called *Vaka*, or watcher. Its song is so remarkably beautiful, as to have attracted the attention of Tegnér—the greatest of Swedish poets.

Hur Vakan sjunger genom lunden!
Den sungen är fran Valhalls strand.

Which may be thus rendered :

Hear how the Vaka warbles in the grove!
The song is from the shores of Valhall.

The pine bullfinch is the tamest of birds, or, as some will have it, the most stupid. M. Zetterstedt, when speaking of it, says: "All its actions betoken stupidity, which at times is carried so far, that it will not get out of the way of impending danger. More from slothfulness of disposition, than affection for its young, it lies quiet in its nest, and looks at the hand stretched out to take hold of it. Recently bereaved of its home and eggs, it hops amongst the boughs as though nothing had happened, and is forthwith ready to seek for food."

During the winter this bird is captured by all sorts of means, one of which, that I myself have repeatedly seen adopted, is of so palpable a nature, that it passes comprehension how it can allow itself to be thus beguiled. It is by slipping a horse-hair snare—affixed to the point of a fishing-rod, or other light pole—around its neck whilst feeding on the berries in the crown of the tree overhead; which operation it seems in no way to resist; and thus, without farther ceremony, it is dragged to the ground. The better plan is to place the noose between the bird's head and the bunch of berries on which it is feasting, as in that case it almost always captures itself. Strange to say, even should it succeed in extricating its head from the noose, it will only hop to another branch of the tree, and presently again allow the noose to be put about its neck. It is on record, indeed, that the same bird has been actually captured three several times in the course of the day, without showing any signs of fear. To avoid alarming the rest of the flock—for at times it happens that, on seeing a companion fluttering in the snare, the others take wing—it is best to commence with the lowermost bird;

and by adopting this precaution, a large portion of the flock may be made prisoners in succession.

The chief resorts of the pine bullfinch are Barr-skogar, where it feeds on the seeds of the Scotch fir and spruce-pine, extracting them from the cone in a very masterly manner. Hence its Swedish appellation of *Tall-bit*, or fir-biter. In the autumn and winter it feeds on the mountain-ash berry, as also on the berries of *Sorbus Scandica* (Fries), the hawthorn, and the juniper, of which, however, it only eats the kernels.

The nest of this bird, according to Swedish naturalists, is placed in a tree at some ten to fifteen feet from the ground, and near to the stem. It is composed of twigs, and lined with grass or other soft substances. In June the female lays from three to four eggs, of a bluish-green colour, thinly sprinkled with black-grey and liver-coloured spots, which at the thicker end are in near proximity to each other, and form a sort of wreath.

The pine bullfinch is readily domesticated, and within a very few days after capture becomes so familiar as to feed out of the hand; and what is more remarkable, even if restored to liberty, will presently, of its own accord, return to the cage. When in confinement, it is an enormous eater.

The Parrot Cross-Bill (*Större Kors-Näbb*, or Greater Cross-Bill, Sw.; *Loxia Pytiopsittacus*, Bechst.). This bird was pretty common with us, as also in all the Barr-skogar from Scania to far beyond the polar circle; less so, however, in the southern than in the more central and northern parts of the peninsula. M. von Wright met with it in the vicinity of Karesuando; but for all I know to the contrary, it may be

found still higher up. These birds are somewhat wandering in their habits; and in the winter especially roam far and wide about the country in very considerable flocks. Few or none of them, however, migrate.

The parrot cross-bill subsists on the seeds of more than one kind of tree; as also on the berries of the mountain-ash and the like; chiefly, however, on the seeds of the pine; and altogether, according to Ekström, who has paid much attention to its habits, on those of the spruce-pine (*Abies excelsa*, De Cand.).

When feeding, it first lays hold of the cone with its claws, bites off the stalk close to the twig, and taking the cone in its bill, carries it along the bough towards the trunk of the tree; where it again seizes hold of it with its claws, and cleverly extracts the seed. This is its usual practice. Sometimes, although very seldom, it perches on, or attaches itself to the cone whilst still fast to the twig; or should the cone happen to fall to the ground, it completes its meal there. Quantities of seed naturally fall whilst the birds are thus dissecting the cones, and one therefore often sees a large portion of the flock descend to the ground and pick it up. When the bird feeds on the seed of the alder, it in the first instance always grasps the twig with its claws before it commences plucking out the seed.

The parrot cross-bill, as with others of the family, would seem to be amongst the least shy of the feathered tribe. Some, however, attribute this tameness to its extreme voracity. Be this as it may; when a flock of these birds are feeding in a pine-tree in the manner described, they usually sit perfectly still, even if one passes directly under the tree; and were it not for the falling cones, one would not be aware

of their presence. In the winter time, and when feeding on the berries of the mountain-ash and other trees, this bird, in like manner with the pine bullfinch, is often captured by means of a noose placed over its neck.

The parrot cross-bill would not seem to be guided by any regular rule as to the period of breeding—for one finds its nest as well at the turn of winter, as at, or near to, Mid-summer; more generally, however, it pairs in February, and the young, for the most part, are fledged in April. Pairing generally takes place whilst the birds are occupied in feeding, and mostly in the morning and in clear weather. One sees as well red as yellow males at this time. The nest, which is placed on two smaller boughs of a young spruce pine-tree, or at the end of a leafy bough, and often a considerable height from the ground, is circular, and composed of small twigs of the spruce-pine. It is of large dimensions, the diameter being two feet or more. The entrance is round, but so small, that the bird must necessarily squeeze itself into it. The interior, however, is of the size of one's fist. Such are the nests prepared for the winter. Those intended for the summer are much less in size, more open, and of a lighter construction. This bird, therefore, builds its nest differently, according to the season of the year and the temperature.

The female lays from three to four eggs, of a somewhat small size, and of a dirty-white colour, thickly marked with brown spots. When the young leave the nest, they follow the mother, who feeds them; but at this period the male deserts the family. One never sees him in company with a female that has newly-fledged young. When these accompany the mother, they keep up a terrible noise, screech most unmercifully, and flutter with their wings. When feeding

the young, the female commonly allows the cone to fall to the ground ; the young follow her to the cone, out of which she plucks the seeds and gives them, whilst they, gaping and screeching, surround her on all sides.

The Common Cross-Bill (*Mindre Kors-Näbb*, or Lesser Cross-Bill, Sw. ; *L. curvirostra*, Linn.) was also common in my vicinity, and the like is the case throughout Scandinavia generally. Its habits and manner of feeding much resemble those of the parrot cross-bill ; and as with that bird, it breeds during the latter part of the winter, as well as the summer. It would seem to be of a very domestic disposition. M. Melchior speaks of three in his possession, which not unfrequently were allowed to roam at pleasure the surrounding woods, but always returned to their cage ; and what is singular enough, they at times lured their wild compeers into their prison.

The White-winged Cross-Bill (*Bändel Kors-Näbb*, or Barred Cross-Bill, Sw. ; *L. leucoptera*, Gmel.). This bird was rare with us ; indeed, I only know one instance of its having been killed in my vicinity. It would also seem to be rare in other parts of Scandinavia, where, Nilsson tells us, it has only been shot on two or three occasions. It has been seen, but very rarely, in Denmark. North America is its proper home.

The Common Starling (*Stare*, Sw. ; *Sturnus vulgaris*, Linn.) was very common with us during the summer months ; and, with the exception of the far north, the like is the case, there is reason to believe, throughout Scandinavia. In Denmark it is also met with everywhere. Though as regards Sweden and Denmark it is a migratory bird, in

the more southern parts of Europe it is stationary all the year round.

In certain districts of Sweden, the starling is looked upon with a sort of veneration, and, as with the stork, is seldom molested; but of the origin of this feeling I am altogether in ignorance.

The Rose-coloured Pastor (*Rosen-färgad Drossel*, Sw.; *Pastor roseus*, Temm.). This bird, which in its habits much resembles the starling, is a very rare visitor to Scandinavia; and only two or three instances are on record of its having been shot. It has on one occasion been found in Denmark. Its proper home is Africa and southern Asia.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE RAVEN AND THE CROWS—THE MAGPIE—THE JAY—THE NUTCRACKER—
THE WOODPECKERS—THE WRYNECK—THE HOOPOE—THE CUCKOO.

THE Raven (*Korp*, Sw. ; *Corvus Corax*, Linn.) was common with us ; as also throughout the length and breadth of Scandinavia. Though it may shift its quarters somewhat according to the season—many of them for instance repairing to the coast in the winter—it remains in the peninsula all the year round. In Denmark it would seem to be much less abundant than in Sweden.

This bird having the trick, when domesticated, of purloining and hiding everything it can get hold of, has given rise to the Swedish saw : *Stjåla som en korp*—that is, thief as a raven.

It breeds early, sometimes in trees, but more often on the shelf, or in the crevice of some precipitous rock. The female lays from four to six eggs, which, though larger, are

of a similar colour to those of the others of the crow family—that is, greenish, with brown or grey spots.

This bird, as known, is easily domesticated, and, whether old or young, can readily be taught to speak. At the German inns they are not infrequently kept to amuse the guests with their prattle. Even in ancient times the raven was much prized for its speaking power. During the reign of the Emperor Tiberius, we read, a tame raven created a great sensation in Rome, for that it in the morning was in the habit of flying to the *forum*, where it saluted, first the Emperor himself, afterwards the princes Germanicus and Drusus, and lastly the Roman people. When at an after-period the poor bird was killed by a shoemaker in revenge for it having spoilt his work, the people not only gave it a splendid burial, but put the delinquent to death. We furthermore read, that when the Emperor Augustus returned in triumph to Rome after a victory, he was greeted by a raven in the following words: *Ave Cæsar, Victor, Imperator!*

Some curious notions are entertained in Scandinavia respecting the raven. It is said, for instance, that besides its usual hoarse croak, it at times, when soaring in circles high in the air, has a peculiarly harmonious note, *klong, klong, klong*. But as this is very rarely heard, the common belief is, that it cannot give utterance to it until after passing its hundredth year, to which advanced age it is supposed to attain.

Then again it has, they say, a certain white feather on its body, which, if a man can get possession of, he will be endowed with all wisdom; but that it is a matter of extreme difficulty to obtain this plume, as the bird, when wounded, and in its dying agonies, always exerts its last

strength to pick it out and gulp it down, that its wisdom may perish along with it.

Another notion is, that in the body of this bird there is a so-called *Korp-sten*, or raven-stone, which is possessed of the remarkable property, that the individual swallowing it, will be invisible to mortal eyes.

The Carrion Crow (*Svart-Kråka*, or Black-Crow, Sw.; *C. Corone*, Linn.); said to have been seen in my vicinity; but it is doubtful, because Swedish naturalists assure us that it has rarely been met with in Scandinavia, and then on the south-eastern coast.

This bird is scarce in Denmark Proper; but in the Duchies, especially in Holstein, it is more plentiful. In the years 1846 and 1847 it paired, we are told, near to Rödby, with the hooded crow, and produced hybrids.

The Hooded Crow (*Grå-Kråka*, or Grey-Crow, Sw.; *C. Cornix*, Linn.) was exceedingly common with us; as also throughout the peninsula to far within the polar circle. Some may probably migrate; but a portion remain during the winter in the more southern parts of Sweden.

It is a destructive bird, and devours not only the eggs of other birds, but their young. On the coast it feeds much on mussels, and as with the raven and some of the gull tribe, is said to bear the fish aloft, and then drop it on the rocks beneath to crush the shell, and thereby get at the contents.

“This bird,” Pontoppidan tells us, “lives on carrion, and such other foul food. It is said to warn other birds of their pursuers; for it smells gunpowder at a distance, and follows the fowler with its shrieks.”

“When a number of hooded crows gather about carrion,” Kjærbölling says, “and indulge too freely of the dainty, they

become, as it were, intoxicated : they fight with each other, but never in earnest, dance, leap and roll themselves in the snow, and, assuming the most ludicrous attitudes, emit, seemingly with great exertion, scarcely audible sounds.”

This bird often congregates in the manner of the rook, and one at times sees it in large flocks of even hundreds together. It does not, however, breed in colonies like the rook, but each pair for themselves. Most commonly it makes its nest in a tree ; but on the coast, and amongst the adjacent islands, which in many instances are destitute of arboreal vegetation, on the ledge of a rock. In such situations, from the want of the usual materials, the nest is not unfrequently composed chiefly of wool, hair, and the like substances. The female lays from five to six eggs, very similar in appearance to those of others of the crow family.

The Rook (*Råka*, Sw. ; *C. frugilegus*, Linn.) was only occasionally seen during the spring, but never bred in the vicinity. It is confined nearly altogether to the south of Sweden and the islands of Öland and Gottland, where, in places, these birds are numerous.—Migrates.

It is pretty common in Denmark. Kjærbölling speaks of a colony at Varnis Strand in Schleswig, consisting of such multitudes as to become a scourge to the surrounding country. One often saw seventy to eighty nests in the same tree. They destroyed the grain, and broke off the tops of the trees as materials for their nests, to such an extent as to threaten destruction to the whole wood. Attempts were made to drive them away by the firing of pistol-shots, shouts, &c., but in vain. At length, however, the parish clerk counselled the people to try the effects of a cannon, the repeated discharges of which, throughout a whole day, shook

their aerial domiciles to that degree as to cause them to move off elsewhere, leaving eggs and young to their fate.

The Jackdaw (*Kaja*, Sw.; *C. Monedula*, Linn.). This bird was now and then observed in company with the hooded crow in the spring. It is found throughout Scandinavia, even as high up as Lapland. More generally it breeds in towers and old buildings; but in the far north, from the want of such like localities, it nests in the wilds of the forest. It is common in Denmark.

The Magpie (*Skata*, Sw.; *C. Pica*, Linn.) was abundant with us; as also throughout Scandinavia, from Scania to nearly the extreme verge of Lapland—wherever, in short, man has fixed his abode.

Accidental varieties of this bird are not of unfrequent occurrence in Sweden; some having been killed altogether white. This circumstance has given rise to the notion that there is more than one species in the peninsula. Ekström, indeed, would appear to have a leaning this way; for after describing a very singularly marked magpie, shot near to the town of Trosa in Södermanland, he goes on to say:

“Such varieties are common amongst the crow tribe; but that the same pair of birds should for two seasons together (as was the case in this instance) hatch young ones, which, though in colour so dissimilar to their parents, exactly resembled each other, has given me reason to think that the disposition with birds to produce progeny altogether different from themselves, should be sought in the parents, and not, as is usual, in some peculiar disease in the young. All that I could gather in regard to the habits of the birds in question, amounted to this, that they confined themselves to the

vicinity of the nest, and that they were constantly pursued and persecuted by other magpies."

This bird, as known, prepares its nest at an early period. Even in Sweden, where the climate is much more severe than with us, it commences operations in the winter, and, there are those who believe, on a particular day.

"I take this opportunity of informing you of an observation that I have made," writes Lieutenant C. J. Linroth, "which, though trifling in itself, may still possess interest to the curious in such matters—namely, that our common magpie always lays the first twig of its nest on Christmas Eve! I and my deceased father noticed the act for several consecutive years; and though I certainly have heard this circumstance mentioned amongst the various traditions of the peasants, it has never, to my knowledge, excited the attention of the naturalist."

In England, the magpie is almost everywhere hunted down, and as a consequence it is one of the very shyest of birds; but in Sweden, on the contrary, from being rarely molested, it is so tame as hardly to take the trouble to get out of one's way. The peasants would seem to cherish the bird; for if there be a tree, or even bush, about their houses, it is generally garnished with its nest. This forbearance towards the magpie may, however, rather arise from fear than a kindly feeling; for amongst other dreadful revelations made about two centuries ago, at some famous trials for sorcery (of which hereafter), it appeared by the confessions, real or forced, of those charged with having sold themselves, to the devil, that whilst revelling with him in the lower regions, and when called upon to curse things in heaven above, and on the earth

beneath, the magpie was always excepted, for the reason that the witches themselves, whilst following the behests of their master, frequently assumed its form.

Pontoppidan tells us something to the same effect. "They,"—the magpies—"feed upon carrion, and if they lay hold of a very young kid, which they do sometimes, the farmer is afraid to avenge himself, being of opinion, that this his neighbour has a greater right than other birds of prey, and knows how to retaliate an injury."

Though this bird is in general left unmolested in Scandinavia, it is subject to persecution in certain districts. One manner of destroying it, as well as the crow, the raven, the jackdaw, &c., is, from its simplicity and ingenuity, deserving of notice. The device consists of a piece of paper, twisted up in the form of an extinguisher—a *Strut*, as it is called—and after that a bit of raw meat has been dropped to the bottom, and the interior smeared with bird-lime, it is placed in a situation frequented by the magpie. When therefore the bird attempts to possess itself of the meat, the Strut at once fastens about its head in such manner as effectually to blind it. In this case it usually flies straight up into the air, as high as it is able; but fright and exertion soon exhaust its power, and down it presently comes again to the ground, in many instances quite dead.

In some places magpies, as well as the birds above enumerated, are also captured by means of fish-hooks, that after being baited with a piece of meat, or other dainty of which they are fond, are fastened to the boughs of trees. Common steel rat-traps are likewise resorted to, for effecting their destruction, the precaution being taken of concealing the

engine from view. Then again they are killed by means of *nux vomica*, and other substances of a poisonous nature.



THE CAT IN TRIBULATION.

Some curious anecdotes are related in Sweden of this bird, amongst which the following is not the least amusing :

“ In some high alder-trees at the banks of the river that runs past Laxå Bruk, in the parish of Bodarne, and province of Nerike,” says the Director, C. A. Malmström, “ several magpies, from finding the situation agreeable and convenient for their purpose, had built their nests. Here for a long time they remained undisturbed ; but at length an old house-cat—with which animal the capacity of climbing is not acquired, but bestowed by nature itself—instigated either by voracity or by love of mischief, took it into his head not only to disturb the birds in their habitation, but to destroy their young.

“ Now, as in the vicinity of the river there was a building used for brewing and other purposes, and amongst the rest for the slaughtering of cattle, and as a quantity of offal was occasionally thrown from thence into the adjoining field, not only the magpies but numbers of crows were attracted to the spot. It would often happen, however, that when the birds were feasting away at their best, the cat would suddenly make his appearance, and snatch the food from them, which gave rise to many ludicrous scenes. But these his constant assaults could not take place without exciting amongst the birds—which, although of unlike dispositions, had now coalesced together—a violent feeling of enmity, that at length broke out into open warfare.

“ Very early one Sunday morning—my bed-room being on the side of the house near to the river—I was suddenly awakened by some extraordinary cries and screams, emanating in great part, it was clear, from my feathered friends ; and accompanied by my servant, Carl Jonsson, who had

also been disturbed by the uproar, I hastened out of doors, to see what could possibly be the matter; when truly a very strange sight met our eyes, for in the direction whence the noise proceeded, what to our extreme astonishment should we see, but an immense number of congregated crows and magpies, bearing away high in the air the old tom cat! What with the piercing shrieks of poor Grimalkin, and the chattering and croaking of the infuriated birds, the concert was most discordant.

“But we were unfortunately the cause of spoiling sport; for so soon as the birds were aware of our presence, and just as they were soaring over the river, they let go their hold of their victim, who, purling over and over, fell at length souse into the water. From hence, however, though dripping wet and terribly alarmed, he contrived at length to extricate himself; his enemies the while dispersing in the air, with continuous cries, as if joyful over their victory.”

The Jay (*Nöt-Skrika*, Sw.; *Garrulus glandarius*, Flem.) was very common with us, as also throughout the greater part of Scandinavia. According to Swedish naturalists, however, it is not found within the polar circle. It is very common in Denmark. Though of wandering habits, it does not migrate.

If reared from a tender age, we are told, the jay becomes very tame. When in confinement, it—especially the male—imitates the notes of other birds; it, besides, mews like a cat, and neighs as a horse, and from its docility and comical ways is, in short, very amusing.

The *Laf-Skrika* (*G. infaustus*, Linn.) is common in the more northern parts of Scandinavia, to far within the polar circle, as high up indeed as the pine-tree grows.

Wermeland would seem to be about its limits to the southward; in my part of the country, at least, I never saw or heard of it. It is not known in Denmark.

Its favourite resorts are the recesses of the forest; and in my wanderings in Wermeland, seldom a day passed that I did not meet with it. It is amongst the most fearless of birds. Linnæus relates that, during his travels in Lapland, it was not only bold enough to approach immediately near to him and his companions, but actually to possess itself of the provisions they were eating; moreover, that a peasant, who was following his daily occupation in the woods, happening to go near its nest, it was so daring as to perch upon the man's hat.

Though unable to corroborate to the full the great naturalist's statement, I can myself testify to the extreme tameness of this bird. In one instance, when our party were seated at mid-day around a fire, it perched, in like manner with a robin, within four or five paces of us; and on another occasion it settled on my Skidor, which were lying on the ground almost immediately beside me, and with the most perfect unconcern pecked away at some drops of coagulated blood that had accidentally fallen upon those implements.

It is of a rapacious disposition. Not unfrequently it chases smaller birds, and often devours larger ones, such as the black cock, the Ripa, the hazel-hen, &c., that are captured in snares. It feeds likewise on smaller mammalia, such as rats and mice, and on larvæ and grubs; and besides these, on several kinds of berries, those of the juniper, the bilberry, for instance.

This bird breeds early—in the winter months, in fact—and already in the month of May one sees full-fledged young.

The nest is described by M. Malm—who met with several, though unoccupied, during his stay in Lapland—as constructed without much art, of lichens and blades of grass. The eggs, according to Nilsson, are five to six in number, and in size somewhat less than those of the magpie.

The Nutcracker (*Nöt-Kraka*, Sw.; *Nucifraga Caryocactes*, Temm.) was only occasionally met with in my vicinity. The more central parts of Scandinavia are its proper home; but with its limits to the northward Swedish naturalists seem unacquainted. It is rather scarce in Denmark.

During the summer the favourite resorts of this bird are Barr-skogar; but in the autumn, when it roams about in flocks, it is met with in woods composed of oak, beech, and hazel. Its food during the summer consists chiefly of insects and larvæ, which it seeks under the bark of trees; as also of worms and snails. In the autumn it eats acorns, nuts, the seed of the Scotch-fir and spruce-pine, mountain-ash berries, &c. Acorns and nuts it swallows altogether whole, fills its crop with them, and flies away to some secure place, where it casts them up again; and either hides them as a supply for the winter, or breaks them in pieces, eats the kernels, and swallows even the shells, which serve to bruise, or rather grind the kernels. These nut-shells are at first large and jagged; but by friction become less in size and round. During the winter it searches for nuts beneath the snow, and in lieu of better food, for oats amongst the horse-dung on the road. It preys on birds captured in snares, as also on the young of birds and their eggs.

The nutcracker makes its nest in the hollow of a tree. The eggs, five to six in number, are dirty yellow-brown, marked with small rust-coloured and dark-brown spots.

The Great Black Woodpecker (*Svart Hackspett*, Sw.; *Picus martius*, Linn.) was common in my vicinity, as is also the case in all wooded districts throughout Scandinavia, to within at least the polar circle; but it is chiefly confined to Barr-skogar. In Denmark it is described as scarce.

In Sweden this bird is generally known under the name of *Spill-Kråka*, or splinter-crow, the former part of the designation being probably derived from the quantity of *Spillror*, or splinters, always found at the foot of the tree where it carries on its labours; the latter, from the bird somewhat resembling the crow family in appearance.

The great black woodpecker, if it does not enliven the northern wilds, at least disturbs their solitude; for not only is its note harsh and loud, but the noise it makes when hammering away with its powerful beak at the trunk of a pine—whether to test its soundness, or whilst perforating it—is almost beyond credence. The forest resounds again, and one might almost be led to imagine that the woodman was following his vocation.

It is rather a shy bird, and not very easy of approach, excepting by stratagem. In parts of Sweden people adopt—especially in the pairing season—the expedient of tapping either the gun-stock, or a tree, with some hard substance in imitation of its own hammering, which frequently lures it within shot.

This bird, like the rest of the woodpeckers, breeds in the hollows of decayed trees. The female—readily distinguishable from the male by the inferior size of the red crest on the head—prepares but little in the shape of a nest, and lays from three to four eggs, glossy, and of a pure white colour.

The Green Woodpecker (*Grön Hackspett*, Sw.; *P.*

viridis, Linn.) was pretty common in my vicinity, and the like is the case almost everywhere in the peninsula. Its limits to the north, however, do not appear to be clearly known. It would seem to prefer woods composed of deciduous trees to those of the Scotch-fir and spruce-pine. It is common in Denmark.

In parts of Norway this bird is considered better than a barometer. It is supposed not only to predict the coming weather, but that three days beforehand. If its notes are loud and monotonous, fine weather may be expected; but if low, on the contrary, rain and storm are at hand; and should it approach the house, and cry, something like a regular tempest is to be looked for.

The Greyheaded Green Woodpecker of Pennant (*Gråhöfddad Hackspett*, Sw.; *P. canus*, Gmel.) was scarce with us. It is found — though sparingly it would seem — in all the more northern parts of Scandinavia. We met with it not unfrequently in the Wermeland and Dalecarlian forests. Though somewhat smaller, it much resembles the green woodpecker in appearance. Its habits are also pretty much the same as those of that bird; as is its note, though rather less sharp. It occurs but very rarely in Denmark.

The Great Spotted Woodpecker (*Större Hackspett*, Sw.; *P. major*, Linn.) was common in my vicinity, more so probably than any of the family. It is also common throughout the peninsula, from Scania to Lapland. It frequents alike Barr-skogar and Löf-skogar. It is common in Denmark.

The Lesser Spotted Woodpecker (*Mindre Hackspett*, Sw.; *P. minor*, Linn.) was pretty common with us, as also in most parts of Sweden and Norway. M. Malm met with it indeed high up in Northern Lapland. It only appears in Scania

in the winter time, and that not every year. In Denmark it is spoken of as scarce.

The *Hvit-ryggig Hackspett*, or White-backed Woodpecker (*P. leuconotus*, Bechst.). This bird, which is believed to be pretty much confined to certain localities, is found over a considerable portion of Scandinavia; but it would seem to be somewhat scarce everywhere, though less so in the more northern parts of the peninsula than in the southern. During the summer, Nilsson tells us, it is for the most part met with in pairs, but in the autumn and winter in flocks. It is not included in the Danish fauna.

The Three-toed Woodpecker (*Tre-tåig Hackspett*, Sw.; *P. tridactylus*, Linn.) was scarce with us. It was at one time looked upon as a sort of rarity in Scandinavia, but is now found to be pretty generally distributed. It is much more plentiful in the more northern portion of the peninsula—where it is found in all the Barr-skogar, as high up nearly as the Icy Sea—than in the southern. It is far from uncommon in the Wermeland forests; but less observed from its seldom uttering any cry, and from confining itself to the thickest part of the wood. Its top-knot—that of the male at least—instead of being red, as is the case with most other woodpeckers, is yellow. It has only been met with in one instance in Denmark.

It is said to breed in a hollow tree, and that the eggs, four to five in number, are white and glossy.

The Middle Woodpecker of Pennant (*Mellanspett*, Sw.; *P. medius*, Linn.) is confined, Swedish naturalists tell us, to the more southern portion of Scandinavia. It forms its nest in the hollow of a tree, and lays from four to five glossy eggs of a spotless white. It is not uncommon in Denmark.

The Wryneck (*Göktyta*, Sw.; *Yynx Torquilla*, Linn.) was very common with us, and also throughout the greater part of Scandinavia. It is found equally in Löv-, as in Barrskogar. It is rather an early visitor, and amongst the first of the migratories to leave Sweden. It is described as rather scarce in Denmark.

The generic name of the wryneck owes its origin to the myth, that the daughter of Echo, the nymph Yynx, through whose incantations Jupiter fell in love with Aurora, was transformed into this bird by the jealous Juno. Its specific name, as well as its English and German (*Wendehals*), is derived from a most singular habit it has of stretching its neck, twisting its head round so that it lies on the back, and turning up the white of its eyes. This is best observable when one holds the bird in the hand. Even a well-fledged young one is capable of the same action. It wriggles about like a serpent; and what with its grey colour, and the black mark running along its back, it bears in reality some resemblance to that reptile.

In Norway the peasants call this bird *Så-Gouk*—that is, the seed-cuckoo—probably because its note is heard during seed time. And in the south of Sweden people on hearing its cheerful *gi, gi, gi, gi*, predict fine weather.

The Common Creeper (*Träd-krypare*, or Tree-creeper, Sw.; *Certhia familiaris*, Linn.) was common with us, as it also is in the southern and more central portion of Scandinavia; but it would not appear to be found very far to the northward. Some of these birds migrate, but the greater portion remain in the country all the year round. It is pretty common in Denmark.

The Common Wren (*Gärd-smyg*, Sw.; *Troglodytes*

Europæus, Selby) was common in my vicinity, and likewise throughout Scandinavia, from Scania to Lapland. In the summer the resorts of this bird (often called *Tumme-liten*, or the little thumb) are for the most part thickets near to water; but in the autumn it draws more towards villages and houses, in the vicinity of which it remains during the winter. It is a common bird in Denmark.

The Hoopoe (*Här-fogel*, Sw.; *Upupa Epops*, Linn.), though scarce, is found in the southern and more central parts of Sweden, and also in Norway. It is a bird of passage, appearing in Scania about the 25th of April, and taking its departure from thence in August or September. It is found, but sparingly, in Denmark.

The hoopoe is a restless and shy bird. Wooded districts—such as are near to water, more especially—are its favourite haunts. During the autumn it is much on the ground, but if disturbed it takes to a tree. It is very fleet of foot. When passive its crest is down, but if irritated or frightened, it is held erect. Its oft-repeated cry, *opp-opp-opp*, *opp-opp-opp*, is frequently heard in the wilds of the forest; and as on one's approach the bird generally moves off unperceived, and is audible in another direction, the sound is believed by the vulgar to proceed from some aerial being, and has given rise to many superstitious notions. Amongst the rest this ominous cry is supposed to forebode seasons of scarcity and war, and hence the origin of the hoopoe's Swedish name of *Här-fogel*, or army-bird.

The hoopoe feeds on insects, especially those found in low and marshy grounds or amongst horse-dung; as also on ants and their eggs. It forms its nest in a hollow tree, in a cleft of a rock, or in a hole of a wall; sometimes also on the ground.

The female lays four or five eggs, oblong in shape, and of a grey-yellowish colour. They are one inch and half a line in length, by six lines in thickness.

The Nuthatch (*Nöt-Väcka*, Sw.; *Sitta Europæa*, Linn.; *S. cæsia*, Wolf & Meyer, *fidé* Kjærbo.) was common with us, as also throughout the more southern and central parts of Scandinavia. But as yet its limits to the northward seem not to be clearly ascertained. It remains in Sweden all the year round. It is very common in Denmark.

This bird breeds in the hollows of trees; and M. von Wright says: "If the entrance be too large, it stops up the superfluous space with clay."

Kjærbölling makes mention of another species, the *S. Uralensis*, Licht., which has been noticed near Copenhagen.

The Common Cuckoo (*Gök*, Sw.; *Cuculus canorus*, L.). This bird was very abundant with us in the summer time, and the like is the case throughout the whole of Scandinavia, from the extreme south of Sweden to near the North Cape. It is found as well on the low-lands as on the fjälls, as far up at least as arboreal vegetation reaches. I myself met with numbers of them on the Dovre-field, at an elevation of several thousand feet above the level of the sea. It is abundant in Denmark.—Migrates.

From the cuckoo common to Scandinavia varying a good deal in plumage, many imagined there were different species; but it is now pretty well understood that age and sex are the sole causes of the great variation observable in their appearance.

Many idle stories used to be told of this bird, the greater part of which are still believed in at the present day.

"In the spring of the year," says Parson Ödman, "peop'

in my parish are much afraid of the cry of certain birds, for that of the cuckoo in particular. They conceive it to cause them to be *Dårade*, or charmed; and for this reason, in the month of April and May, they never go from home fasting. Should a maiden, a widow, or a bachelor, be *Dårade*, it is believed they will be wedded that year; and should this happen to old or married people, heavy sicknesses or misfortunes are anticipated."

Another common belief among the peasantry is, that the fate of an individual for the current year depends on the direction in which he first hears the cry of the cuckoo in the spring. If it proceeds from the north, for instance, it is a lucky omen; but if from the south, on the contrary, it portends death. It is, besides, considered particularly fortunate to stand under a tree where a cuckoo is crying; for if one then embraces the trunk three several times, one acquires the power of ensuring an easy delivery to a pregnant woman, always provided one embraces her, or ties one's garter round her waist. Then again it is said that if one imitates the melancholy cry of the cuckoo, the bird itself is seized with excruciating pains, and *utfrustar*, or vomits forth, its heart's blood; and hence the red spots often observable on the leaves of certain trees.

It is moreover said that the cuckoo is so lazy, that it must always have another bird in its company to bring it victuals; and that it is not only carnivorous, but that the young one, when grown, will eat up its foster-parents. Hence the saying, common in Sweden, *en otacksam gök*—implying an ungrateful fellow.

Again: from the resemblance that the cuckoo, in regard to size, colour, and form, bears to the sparrow-hawk, the

peasants in my neighbourhood firmly believed that so soon as it has ceased *att gala*, or cry—which happens, according to their belief, when it *får känna lukten af färskt hö*, that is, gets scent of the new hay—it is at once metamorphosed into a hawk!

The peasants do not look upon the cuckoo as a bird of passage, but believe that it *ligger i dvala*—that is, lies in a state of trance—during the winter months.

“A man of the name of Lyberg,” such were the words of a paragraph that recently went the rounds of the Swedish newspapers, “related that at the village of Kyrkebys, in the parish of Etelhem, and island of Gottland, it happened, sixteen to twenty years ago, that a peasant and his servant, one Christmas-eve, placed a large block of wood on the fire, to serve as a *Jul-brasa*, or Yule-log; that in the course of the night the warmth of the fire brought to life an entranced cuckoo, which crept forth from its place of concealment, perched itself on a chair, and commenced ‘att gala.’ Lyberg says, that this circumstance can be attested by several trustworthy individuals.”

CHAPTER XX.

THE GARRULOUS ROLLER—THE BEE-EATER—THE KING-FISHER—THE SWALLOWS
—THE DOVES—THE GOATSUCKER—THE GROUSE AND PARTRIDGE FAMILIES
—THE BUSTARDS.

THE Garrulous Roller (*Blå-Kråka*, or Blue-Crow, Sw.; *Coracias garrula*, Linn.), though scarce in my vicinity, is not at all uncommon during the summer months in the southern and more central parts of Scandinavia. Its limits to the northward do not appear to be clearly known. It arrives in the peninsula at the beginning of May, and departs in the middle of September. It is somewhat scarce in Denmark.

The roller is a most noisy bird; hence its specific name. It is described as being of a quarrelsome disposition, as regards individuals of its own species at least; for towards other birds it is peaceable. It is said to be wild and shy, and that it will not readily allow the sportsman to approach within gun-shot. This may generally be the case, but in

the instances when I have fallen in with it, no special wariness was evinced. Its chief resorts are woods consisting of deciduous trees, more particularly of beech and oak; in the summer it is commonly met with in pairs. Owing to its long and pointed wings, its flight is quick, and not altogether dissimilar to that of the dove. It often makes summersets in the air, during which its loud and harsh, *rack, rack, rack*, is constantly to be heard.

The food of the roller consists principally of insects, larvæ, worms, slugs, and snails. It also eats small frogs and lizards. It is never seen to hop about in search of food; but perched on a withered bough, a corn-rick, a boulder, or other elevated place, it looks about on all sides for its prey. As soon as aware of it, it dashes forward, catches it with the bill, and devours it; and then returns to its former look-out, in the manner of the butcher birds and the flycatchers. During the autumn it is said to feed on barley and other kinds of grain, as well as berries, acorns, and beech-nuts.

It makes its nest in the hollow of a tree. This is composed of small twigs and moss, and is lined with feathers and hair. Its eggs are from four to six in number, and of a pure, glossy white. In length they are one inch and three and a half lines; in breadth one inch and one line. Its habits are dirty; it never removes the excrement from the nest, and the young, therefore, sit up to their eyes in filth.

It would seem by the following interesting account, from the pen of Mrs. Bedoire, that this handsome bird is not readily tamed.

“Every summer,” says that lady, “a pair of rollers arrive here, and build in a hollow tree in our *Asp-hage*, or aspen-grove. And as this is not far distant, we can distinguish the

spot from the house. One year, shortly before the brood could fly, our gardener climbed up the tree, and out of five young ones brought down three, leaving the other two to be reared by the parents. When the man came home with these pretty birds, I determined on trying to rear them; and by so doing, I hoped to have the pleasure of seeing them remaining about the place. But the little beauties were more difficult to domesticate than the wolf.* They were so passionate, that they would even peck at the person who gave them food; and as their bills were very large and sharp, it was not advisable to leave one's fingers to their tender mercies. They would eat nothing from the hand excepting worms; but let these be ever so large and long, they soon disappeared in their voracious gullets. When any one approached, they would stretch out their necks to the full extent, and strike to the right and left with their bills, uttering at the same time such piercing cries that it was painful to hear them.

“I kept these birds for a month, in the hope that they would become tame and more amiable; but in this my expectation I was very sadly disappointed, for instead of improving, their bad temper was daily on the increase. One fine day I restored them to their liberty; and when they circled in the air and flew away, I imagined I had seen them for the last time. But about two hours afterwards they returned and alighted in the garden, and as soon as they observed the gardener, they began to cry out, and with open mouths to run towards him, petitioning for food. It so happened he had some worms remaining,

* Of this animal mention is made in Vol. I, page 460.

that he gave them, on receiving which it was amusing to see how they would gape and screech at one and the same time. A week passed in this way. They followed the man everywhere in the garden, and cried for worms; but at length—probably in company with their parents and brethren—obeying the dictates of nature, they flew away altogether. The following summer, as in bygone years, only a single pair were visible.”

The Common Bee-eater (*Bi-ätare*, or Bee-eater, Sw.; *Merops Apiaster*, Linn.). This bird is very rare in Scandinavia, and has only been occasionally met with. An individual was shot some years ago in the parish of Högsäter in Dalsland—say some fifty miles to the north-west of Ronnum. It is also very rare in Denmark. The more southern portion of Europe is its proper home.

The Common King-Fisher (*Blå-ryggig Is-fogel*, or Blue-backed Ice-bird, Sw.; *Alcedo Ispida*, Linn.) was said to have been met with on one occasion in my vicinity. This bird is by all accounts exceedingly scarce in Scandinavia; and as it would appear, confined chiefly to the more southern provinces of Sweden, where some few have been shot. It is occasionally met with in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Chimney-Swallow (*Ladu-Svala*, or Barn-Swallow, Sw.; *Hirundo rustica*, Linn.) was very common with us; as is likewise the case in all the inhabited parts of Scandinavia, from Scania to far within the polar circle.—Migrates.

The House Martin (*Hus-Svala*, or House-Swallow, Sw.; *H. urbica*, Linn.). This bird was equally plentiful as the foregoing in my vicinity; and is also found all over the peninsula. I myself met with immense numbers even as high up as Karesuando in northern Lapland. In some places

it not only breeds under the eaves of houses, but in immense colonies in the face of precipitous cliffs.—Migrates.

Though we in England set little value on this bird, such is not the case in the more northern parts of Scandinavia, where those pests, the mosquitoes, literally swarm; for knowing the destruction the martin causes amongst them, the inhabitants not only protect it in every way, but very commonly fasten great numbers of scroll-shaped pieces of bark of the birch-tree, somewhat resembling the sparrow-pots in use with us, to the sides of their habitations, for the bird to breed in.

“One day when at Juckasjärvi, in Lapland,” says M. Malm, “I took it into my head to examine a number of martins’ nests of the preceding year attached to the walls of the church. Some were empty, but in just as many I found half-grown young ones lying in precisely the same position as when alive. One sees from this that the parents do not always take their progeny along with them when they migrate; but in consequence of the sudden setting in of the winter, are necessitated to leave their beloved offspring to perish of hunger and the severe climate of the north.”

The Bank Martin (*Strand-Svala*, or Strand-Swallow, Sw.; *H. riparia*, Linn.) was also common with us, as well as everywhere else in Sweden and Norway. M. Malm met with it, indeed, on the banks of the Tana, which empties itself into the Icy Sea. As its name would denote, it chiefly breeds in sand-banks.—Migrates.

From its wonderfully keen sight, the swallow is, to a certain extent, the guardian of the poultry, or other birds that may be about the homestead; for so soon as it is aware of a predaceous bird, it announces the presence of the enemy

by a sharp *zifit*—the meaning of which is well understood, for in an instant the poultry leave their food, and gaze round about in evident fear and trembling; and should the warning be repeated, they at once seek for shelter from the coming danger.

If the following account is to be relied on, the swallow would seem to carry on affairs matrimonial in a very amusing and curious manner.

“When on one occasion I was on a fishing excursion,” writes M. Norman, “I landed on an island in the lake Skärsjön for the purpose of drying the nets. I there observed a great many swallows perched at some little distance apart on a withered pine-tree. Immediately afterwards one of the number took wing, and after making a little circuit returned to the rest, and made up to an individual of the party. If it was well received, the whole flock flew away under song and jubilee; but they presently came back again, and the pair in question seemed to make a match of it. Subsequently another swallow made a like excursion in the air, when the same game was repeated. This occurred frequently. At times, however, the suitor, on his return, was coldly received by the bird to whom he made love, in which case he was obliged to repeat the ceremony to other females, until his addresses were accepted. When this happened, the whole flock again took wing, and great rejoicings ensued as before. When, however, my nets were dry, and I left the place, all the swallows were obliged to take wing, no doubt to the great sorrow of such as had not had time either to court, or to celebrate their marriages.”

In Scandinavia the swallow is looked upon with a sort of love and reverence; and it is considered sinful to destroy

the bird or its nest. This kindly feeling towards it is said to have thus originated :

When our Saviour was crucified, a little bird came and perched upon the cross, peered sorrowfully down upon the sufferer and twitted, "*Hugsvala, svala, svala Honom*"—that is, console, console, console Him ; and hence it obtained the name of *Svala*. In consequence of the commiseration thus evinced by the swallow towards the Redeemer, Heaven ordained that blessings and prosperity should ever afterwards attend on those who protected it and its nest.

It is furthermore said that, for a long time afterwards, it would often sit upon the cross ; but when this was taken down by the enemies of Christendom, and buried in the earth, it flew sorrowing away from the spot. When, however, at an after-period the cross was recovered, it returned, and frequently made it its resting-place. For this cause *Kors-messa*, or Holyrood-day, was marked with a swallow on many *Run-stafvar*, or Runic staves—the time tallying with the migration of that bird.

In Scania the superstitious feeling towards the swallow is carried somewhat far. They say, that if one shoots at, or otherwise molests this bird, it is sure, in return, to salute the enemy in the eye, and that the disagreeable application will inevitably cause total blindness.

As was mentioned in my former work, it is believed by many in Scandinavia, that so far from migrating to other climes, the swallow tribe pass the winter months in the mud at the bottom of lakes and rivers. This very strange notion is of long standing. Bishop Pontoppidan, when speaking of the swallow, says :

“ Almost everybody knows that towards the winter, after

they have chirped about a little, or, as we say, sung their swallow-song, they fly in flocks together, and plunge themselves down in fresh-water lakes, commonly amongst reeds and bushes; whence, in the spring, they come forth again, and take possession of their former dwellings. Our fishermen, in the winter, sometimes by accident fall upon whole flocks of swallows in this state, and bring them up by scores, and even by hundreds; they find them coupled two and two together, with their legs entangled and bills stuck in one another; and they appear altogether like a strange mass. If at such times they are brought into a warm room, they will begin to move in half an hour, and in a little while will flutter and fly about; yet this untimely and unnatural reviving does not last longer than an hour at most, and then they entirely die."

Even Nilsson—though nominally repudiating this fable in the last edition of his valuable work, published in 1836,—would not seem to have the crotchet entirely out of his head. "The swallow," he says, "seldom returns to Scania until some time after the lakes and rivers are open; but in the more northern parts of Sweden it appears for the most part immediately after the breaking up of the ice, or perhaps somewhat previously. From this cause it may readily happen that a straggling swallow might have fallen into a *vak*, or aperture in the ice, and have been fished up by the ice-net. Such a frozen swallow might possibly have quickened on being brought into a warm room." Elsewhere the Professor says: "If any one be an eye-witness to, and have certain knowledge of the fact (that of the swallow hibernating in the water), I hope and request he will lay all the particulars, minutely detailed, before naturalists. Until this happens, I

must look upon the swallow, even as regards Sweden, as a migratory bird."

So late, indeed, as the year 1849, this subject was brought before the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm; and the following document, which, coming from the quarter it did, was by some looked upon as irrefragable proof of the truth of this strange story, was submitted to and gravely discussed by that learned body.

"August 16, 1849.

"Near to the estate of Kafvelås, in the province of Westgothland, there is a little lake called Djupasjön, where, on several occasions in the winter time, when the ice-net has been drawn, *stelnade*, or stiffened, swallows have been brought up from the bottom in my presence. My father, then Inspector at Kafvelås, who was also present, directed me to take some of them home, and place them on a chair, at some little distance from the fire. This I did, and to my great astonishment I soon observed the birds to withdraw their heads from under the wings, where they had been previously placed, and in a few moments to fly about the room. But as this was not the proper season for their quickening, they lived but a short time afterwards.

(Signed) "H. J. EDBERG, Rector."

The subject-matter of this letter was well handled by Professor Sundevall, who altogether repudiated this idle notion, and suggested that several circumstances might have originated the delusion.

"That we may not altogether overlook the known phe-

nomena which now and then have given rise to the fable in question," says that gentleman, "we will instance one such. It is ascertained that the larger dragon-flies (of the genera *Libellula* and *Aeschna*) pass their larva-state in the mud of fresh-water lakes and rivers; and that the dark-coloured larvæ of some species are two to three inches in length, and as thick as one's finger; as also that when full-grown they creep up to the surface of the water, and almost immediately afterwards, and without passing through the chrysalis-state, are transformed into flying insects. In case such larvæ, which already in the autumn have acquired their full proportions, should be drawn up from the bottom, and carried into a warm room, it is very possible that in consequence of the genial temperature they should soon have undergone their transition, and have flown about in the form of dragon-flies, which are tolerably large insects. Now if it so happened that a child, who as yet was not well acquainted with the dragon-fly, saw this, and subsequently, and perhaps after the lapse of very many years, recollected for the first time the circumstance, it is very probable that this flying animal was set forth in his imagination in the shape of a swallow! The larva itself may, in the same manner, very easily have been impressed on his mind under the form of a *hopkrumpen fogel*—that is, a bird all in a heap.

"Again: one often hears people say, that though it is true swallows do not lie in the water, they, like other small birds, pass the winter in large numbers, stiffened and huddled together in the holes of trees. This is too palpable a mistake, for it is quite clear that, instead of birds, people have seen bats, which, as is generally known, pass that inclement season in the manner just mentioned, and when taken into a

warm room soon revive and fly about. It is not at all improbable that the stories of swallows being drawn up from the bottom by ice-nets in the winter time, originate in consequence of some of the individuals who took part in the fishing, or who were lookers on, having found a quantity of bats in a hollow tree—either standing or prostrate—by the side of the water, and having carried them into a house where they revived. It is possible that on these occasions some person or other, even amongst those engaged in fishing, may not have known that the bats were found in the tree, but believed they were drawn up with the net; or that these individuals had forgotten the former circumstance altogether, whereas the latter was brought to their recollection a long time afterwards; and these faint reminiscences were at length converted into full belief. Those who were acquainted with the natural solution of the phenomenon, paid no attention to the matter, and soon forgot all about it; but those who, on the contrary, imagined there was something miraculous in it, not only retained their first impressions, but these became more and more strengthened in the course of time merely because of the marvel.”

The learned Professor concluded his address by proposing, that as some phenomenon or other, as yet unknown to science, may have given rise to the fable of the swallow passing the winter in the water, it should be placed on their records, that every supposed instance of the kind, properly authenticated as to dates and localities, would be thankfully received by the academy.

The Common Swift (*Torn-Svala*, or Tower-Swallow, Sw.; *Cypselus Apus*, Flem.) was common with us, as also throughout Scandinavia, from Scania to northern Lapland. On

the neighbouring coast this bird is generally known under the name of *Sval-Hök*, or swallow-hawk, because it is believed to seize and eat up swallows. It breeds not only near to the abodes of man, but in the wilds of the forest, and in hollow trees. The eggs, two to three in number, are quite white. In Denmark it is common.—Migrates.

The European Goatsucker, or Nightjar (*Natt-Skärra*, Sw. ; *Caprimulgus Europæus*, Linn.) was of frequent occurrence in my vicinity, and the like is the case throughout a large portion of the peninsula; but Swedish naturalists do not seem to be well acquainted with its limits to the northward. It is pretty common in Denmark.—Migrates.

“The note of this bird,” Pontoppidan says, “resembles the bleating of a goat, and it is therefore by some called the *Jord-Geed*, or ground-goat.” Its generic name, *Kjærbölling* tells us, is derived from the idle notion that it milks goats.

The Ring-Dove (*Ring-Dufva*, or Ring-Dove, Sw. ; *Columba Palumbus*, Linn.) was pretty common with us, more especially towards the autumn. It is also common during the summer months almost everywhere in Sweden and Norway, and is found as high up at least as the 64° N. latitude. It is tolerably common in Denmark.—Migrates.

“This bird’s mode of living is,” according to *Kjærbölling*, “very regular. At early dawn it is astir, and the male more especially makes known his presence by his ‘ahu,’ ‘puh,’ or ‘hu-huh.’ He perches alongside of his mate, when they both alternately trim their feathers. From six to nine o’clock they fly in search of food; about ten they are to be heard in certain favourite trees; at eleven they generally resort to some piece of water, for the purpose of quenching their thirst, &c.; from twelve to three, P.M., they rest in the

crowns of umbrageous trees; and then again go in quest of food; from five to seven they are once more to be heard in the trees; subsequently they drink for the second, or it may be a third time; after which they retire to roost."

The Stock-Dove (*Skogs-Dufva*, or Wood-Dove, Sw.; *C. Oenas*, Linn.). This bird was common in the vicinity of Ronnum, more so perhaps than the ring-dove. It is also very common in all the southern and more central portions of Scandinavia. Swedish naturalists imagine, however, that it is not found beyond the 61° N. latitude. In Denmark it is less common than the ring-dove.—Migrates.

The Rock-Dove (*Klipp-Dufva*, or Rock-Dove, Sw.; *C. livia*, Briss.). According to Nilsson this bird, believed to be the parent stock of the tame pigeon, is altogether confined to the island of Rennesön, situated about sixteen miles from Stavanger, on the south-western coast of Norway. "Here, in the loftiest and most inaccessible precipices, it breeds in great numbers. From being unmolested it is little shy, and frequently comes down from the fjälls to the cultivated fields in this and the neighbouring islands, at times indeed to the very houses. The ring-dove and the rock-dove migrate, but this bird is stationary all the year round." It is entirely unknown in Denmark.

The Turtle-Dove (*Turtur-Dufva*, or Turtle-Dove, Sw.; *C. Turtur*, Linn.). This bird would seem to be exceedingly scarce in Scandinavia, or to have been overlooked; for it is only very recently included in the northern fauna. The individuals that have been met with were, singularly enough, found in Lapland. It breeds, but sparingly, in Denmark.

There is an equally beautiful legend respecting the turtle-dove, as that touching the swallow. When our Saviour was

crucified, it for a while hovered around the fatal tree, and at length perched there; when, looking mournfully down on the sufferer's blood, it sighed deeply, and gave utterance to its plaintive, *kurrie, kurrie, kurrie* (Κύριε)—that is, Lord, Lord, Lord. Since that time it has never more been joyful, but has constantly winged its flight around the world, repeating its sorrowful cry.

The *Columba gelastes*, Temm. Up to 1842 this bird was, I believe, only known as a denizen of Japan; but in that year an individual was captured in Herjeådalen, one of the most northern provinces of Sweden; and in 1850 a second was taken living, still farther towards the north, in a part of the country where neither tame nor wild doves are found. From the former of these birds being evidently in its first moult, the inference is, that it was bred nearer to Scandinavia than Eastern Asia; possibly, Swedish naturalists suggest, in the very province where it was found.

Hybrids between the dove and the black grouse, called *Duf-Orrar*, have been met with occasionally in Scandinavia. One was shot in the middle of April, 1852, in Dalecarlia. Its length, from the tip of the bill to the extremity of the tail, was eighteen inches; breadth, wings extended, twenty-nine inches; colour in general, that of the common dove, without the enamel or ring round the neck; the bill black, like that of the black grouse. Above the eyes were found the red combs, although at first sight not very apparent. The legs were feathered to the toes.

The Capercali, or Wood Grouse (*Tjäder*, Sw.; *Tetrao Urogallus*, Linn.) was pretty common with us, as also from the one extremity of Scandinavia to the other—that is, wherever Barr-skogar are found; for in woods consisting of

deciduous trees, one seldom or never meets with it. It is not a native of Denmark.

The Black Grouse (*Orre*, Sw.; *T. Tetrix*, Linn.) was also abundant with us, and likewise throughout the greater part of the peninsula, as high up at least as the 68° of latitude, which would seem to be its limits to the northward. It is found in parts of Denmark, in which country, however, it was formerly much more plentiful than at present.*

The Hazel Hen (*Hjerpe*, Sw.; *T. Bonasia*, Linn.) was scarce in my vicinity, which might be considered its limits to the southward. In all the wooded districts of the more northern parts of the peninsula this bird is quite common. M. von Wright assigns the 67° 10' N. lat. as its limits to the northward. It seems questionable whether it can be claimed by the Danish fauna.

The *Fjäll-Ripa* (*Lagopus alpina*, Linn.). This bird, which I imagine to be identical with our ptarmigan, was not found in my neighbourhood. It is abundant in all the higher mountain-ranges of the peninsula, as far up even as the immediate vicinity of the North Cape.

The *Dal-Ripa* (*L. subalpina*, Nilss.). Neither was this bird an inhabitant of my part of the country. As with the *Fjäll-Ripa*, it is very common everywhere in the north, as well in the sub-alpine regions as in the forest, where I was in the habit of meeting with it daily. The 60° N. latitude would seem to be its southern limits. Both the *Fjäll-Ripa* and the *Dal-Ripa* are unknown in Denmark.

The Common Partridge (*Rapp-Höna*, Sw.; *Perdix cinerea*, Briss.) was pretty common with us, and likewise in the

* The Red Grouse (*T. Scoticus*, Temm.), common to Britain, is unknown in Scandinavia, as also in Denmark.

southern and midland parts of the Scandinavian peninsula, as high up, I believe, as about the 60° N. latitude. It is very common in Denmark.*

The Common Quail (*Vaktel*, Sw.; *P. Coturnix*, Lath.) was very rare in my part of the country. Swedish naturalists tell us it is abundant in the summer time in the open fields of Scania; but I am doubtful as to this being the case; because my friend, Lieut. Ugglä, a keen sportsman and excellent shot, informed me that during several years' residence in that province, he had only met with two individuals; and the gamekeeper at Vidtsköfle, one of the largest estates in the south of Sweden, that in the course of fifteen years he had seen but three. It is found, during the summer months, in Denmark.—Migrates.

Of the several species of the grouse and partridge family, as well as of the various methods adopted for their capture, I shall have occasion to speak more at large elsewhere.

The Great Bustard (*Stor Trapp*, Sw.; *Otis tarda*, Linn.) is confined altogether to the southern parts of the peninsula. Formerly this fine bird was pretty plentiful on the extended plains and heaths of Scania; but of late years their numbers are greatly diminished, and only stragglers are now met with. At one time Count Corfitz Beckfriis assured me the bustard was not uncommon on the south-western coast of Scania; but at the present day it is only to be met with in the open fields near to Åhus, on the eastern coast. Three years ago, when traversing that part of the country, my driver spoke of having seen three of those birds that very summer. It is scarce in Denmark.—Migrates.

* The Red-legged Partridge (*P. rubra*, Briss.), so common in parts of Suffolk, is neither found in Scandinavia, nor in Denmark.

The bustard is a cunning and shy bird. It always keeps to open ground, and far away from bushes, fences, &c. In the summer it will not readily take wing, but endeavours to elude its pursuers by means of its wonderful rapidity of foot;—what with wings and legs together, it scuttles along at a most extraordinary pace. When at this season it is desirous of flying, it is compelled first to run a long way before it can rise from the ground; but once fairly on the wing, its flight, which is low and short, is attended with less trouble. In the autumn, on the other hand, it rises with facility into the air, and then flies high, and to a distance.

The pairing season with the bustard is in April and May. Desperate battles then take place amongst the males: the tail of the bird is raised, and spread out in the manner of a fan, the wings hang down to the ground, and they charge each other like turkey-cocks. The strongest collects about him the largest harem, and pairing takes place in the same amusing way as with turkeys. The female lays two to three olive-grey eggs, marked with red and liver-brown spots, in a hole which she scratches in the ground. The period of incubation is said to be twenty-eight days. So soon as the young are hatched, they are forthwith capable of following the mother.

The methods adopted for capturing the bustard are various. From its extremely shy nature, and from always keeping to the open country, it is not easy of approach. Of wayfaring people, however, it seems to have little apprehension; and the usual plan therefore is for the sportsman either to clothe himself like a peasant, or to put on female apparel; and with a basket on his back, and holding the gun close by his side, to make up to it. Sometimes, also, the birds are chased

with greyhounds, which are conveyed towards them in covered carts, until such time as they evince symptoms of alarm, and begin to move off, when the dogs are slipped from their couplings.

The Little Bustard (*Liten Trapp*, Sw.; *O. Tetraz*, Linn.). This is a very rare bird in the peninsula, and but very few instances are on record of its having been killed there. There is a notion, however, that it occasionally breeds in Scania. It is very rare in Denmark. Its proper home is the South of Europe.—Migrates.

A third species of bustard is included in the Danish fauna—namely, the *Trave-Trapp*, or Trotting Bustard (*Otis houbara*, Linn.), in one instance shot in Schleswig. Its proper home is Arabia and Barbary.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE PLOVERS—THE CRESTED LAPWING—THE COMMON TURNSTONE—THE SANDERLING—THE OYSTER-CATCHER—THE COMMON CRANE.

THE Golden Plover (*Ljung-Pipare*, or Heath-Piper, Sw.; *Charadrius pluvialis*, Linn.) was pretty common, during the summer months, as well near to Ronnum as on the neighbouring coast. It was more plentiful, however, during the autumn, when it appeared in large flocks. Wherever moors and the like are to be found, this bird is also common throughout Scandinavia, from Scania to northern Lapland. M. Malm met with it near to the shores of the Icy Sea, both in the lower grounds and in the higher regions. It is common in many parts of Denmark.—Migrates.

The Dotterel Plover (*Fjäll-Pipare*, or Fjäll-Piper, Sw.; *C. Morinellus*, Linn.) was rarely seen with us, and only during spring and fall. It passes the summer months in the more northern parts of Scandinavia, as high up

as the North Cape itself. Its chief resorts are the higher mountain ranges, far above arboreal vegetation. In the summer one generally meets with it in pairs, but nowhere in any abundance. It is said to be less shy than the golden plover. In Denmark it is common.—Migrates.

This bird makes its nest in a little hole in the ground. The female lays four pear-shaped eggs of a yellow-grey colour, spotted and blotched with brownish-black. The young are fledged by the middle of July.

The Ringed Plover (*Större Strand-Pipare*, or Greater Strand-Piper, Sw.; *C. Hiaticula*, Linn.) was in the summer very common with us, or rather on the neighbouring coast. Indeed, few of the islets, with low sandy strands, were without a pair or two of these birds. It is also very common throughout the peninsula, from the south of Sweden to the extremity of northern Lapland. Though it is more plentiful on the coast, it is also found on the sandy shores of the lakes of the interior. M. Boie states, that he once met with it in company with the *C. Morinellus* on a Norwegian fjäll. It is common in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Little Ringed Plover (*Mindre Strand-Pipare*, or Lesser Strand-Piper, Sw.; *C. minor*, Mey.) was rare with us. This bird, according to Nilsson, is found—though somewhat sparingly—in the southern, central, and more northern parts of Scandinavia, and this as well on the strands of lakes and rivers in the interior, as on the coast; but he does not seem aware of its limits to the northward. It is not scarce in Denmark.—Migrates.

On the coast of Södermanland and Upland, where this bird is not uncommon, the fishermen, Ekström tells us, call it the *Nordanvüders-tydare*—or the predictor of a northerly wind

—they believing that it has the power, by means of its plaintive and monotonous *kirv, kirv*, to foretel the approach of that particular wind.

Pontoppidan also speaks of a bird (not improbably this very plover) on the coast of Norway, the *Nordvinds-Pibe*, or north-wind piper, possessed of the like faculty; and of another, the *Söndenvinds-Fugl*, or the south-wind bird, “so designated, because it is never seen but when the south-wind begins to blow, as the before-mentioned Nordvinds-Pibe prognosticates the north-wind; so that these two species of birds serve here as a living weather-glass, forming their prognostications not from deep consideration and conclusions, but from the greater or lesser pressure of air on their bodies; just as the cat’s scratching the trees portends a storm; not to mention the many almanacks people have about their bodies to tell them when bad weather is coming.”

The Kentish Plover (*Hvit-bröstad Strand-Pipare*, or White-breasted Strand-Piper, Sw.; *C. Cantianus*, Lath.). According to Swedish naturalists, this bird is only found on the southern coast of Sweden. It is said to be shy and wary, and quick in its motions; to live on crustacea, insects, and worms; and to make its nest either in a hole in the sand or on a tussock, where the female lays three to four greyish-yellow eggs, marked with ash-grey and black-brown spots. In parts of Denmark it is common.—Migrates.

The Grey Plover (*Kust-Pipare*, or Coast-Piper, Sw.; *Vanellus griseus*, Briss.) was occasionally seen by us on the neighbouring coast during migration. It passes the summer months in the far north, or to the north-eastward, and as it would almost seem, elsewhere than in Scandinavia; for M. Malm says, that during his sojourn in Lapland, he only met

with two individuals (on the 30th of August, 1841), and these on the shores of the Icy Sea. It is only seen in Denmark during spring and fall.—Migrates.

In its habits this bird resembles the golden plover, among which it lives, spread in pairs on fields and heaths. The female is said to lay four large eggs, of a light olive-green colour, marked with black spots. Male as well as female carefully tend the young.

The Crested Lapwing (*Vipa*; *Tofs-Vipa*, Sw.; *V. cristatus*, Mey.) was very common with us in the summer time, as also throughout all the southern and midland portions of Scandinavia. Its limits to the northward seem not accurately determined; but it is found as high up as Wermland. In Denmark it is common.

It is one of the first of the migratory birds that appear in Scania in the spring, often indeed, should the weather be mild, as early as the middle of February. It not unfrequently happens that a severe frost, accompanied with snow, sets in after their arrival (the peasants call such a frost *Vip-vinter*, or Lapwing-winter), in which case the birds either return the way they came, or collect in flocks, and many die of cold and hunger. It has been observed that if they fly altogether away, the frost will be of long continuance; but if, on the contrary, they remain, it will soon be over. The first lapwings that arrive—and as it would seem, they do so in flocks—are always males; the females make their appearance a week afterwards.

The swallow and the turtle-dove, according to popular belief, sympathized with our Saviour in his sufferings, and are consequently regarded with kindness and affection. Not so certain other birds, which, when flying over Golgotha,

instead of commiserating, mocked the agonies of the Redeemer. The *Vipa* is more specially named, and as a punishment it is condemned to dwell for everlasting in fens and morasses.

Some, however, give a different version to the legend. They say that this bird was a handmaiden of the Blessed Virgin, and whilst in servitude, purloined its mistress's silver scissors, and that, as a judgment, the transformation took place; moreover, that as a brand for the theft, its tail was forked in the manner of scissors, and that it was doomed for ever to fly from tussock to tussock, uttering its plaintive *tyvit, tyvit*—that is, "I stole them! I stole them!"

The Common Turnstone (*Roskarl*, Sw.; *Strepsilas collaris*, Temm.; *S. Interpres*,* Leach) was quite common during the summer in the neighbouring Skärgård, where its rich and varied plumage seemed almost out of character with the surrounding sterility and desolation. It is also pretty common on all the coasts of Scandinavia (as well those of the Baltic as the North Sea) from Scania to near the North Cape. Occasionally it is met with in the interior of the country. It would seem to arrive late in Sweden; we at least seldom noticed it before the spring was well advanced. It is tolerably common on the coasts of Denmark.—Migrates.

The turnstone pairs. It makes its nest—which to my knowledge is exceedingly difficult to find—amongst stones, or it may be in a hole in the sand. The female lays from three to four pear-shaped eggs, of a greenish-grey colour,

* The name of *Interpres*, according to Nilsson, originated in mistake on the part of Linnæus. It is not this bird, but the Red-shanked Sandpiper (*Totanus Calidris*, Bechst.), that on the islands in the Baltic is called by the fishermen *Tolk*, or interpreter, because of its constant and shrill cry, whereby it warns other birds of the approach of the fowler.

marked with dark chestnut-brown spots and blotches, and this more especially at the larger end, where they are nearly blended together.

The Sanderling (*Föränderlig Sand-Löpare*, literally, Changeable Sand-Runner, Sw.; *Calidris arenaria*, Illig.) was only seen with us when on its way to or from its breeding-grounds. Swedish naturalists appear to know little about this bird, but imagine it to nest in the northern portion of Scandinavia. It may be so; but as no mention is made of it by travellers and others, in northern Lapland, it seems to me not improbable that it may breed in countries to the eastward of the peninsula. In Denmark it is only met with during migration, and then but seldom.

The Pied Oyster-Catcher (*Strand-Skata*, or Strand-Magpie, Sw.; *Hematopus ostralegus*, Linn.) was very common with us in the summer time, as well on the shores of the Wenern, as in the neighbouring Skärgård. Indeed, almost every islet was usually occupied by a pair or two of these birds. It is also common throughout Scandinavia, to within the polar circle at least; and though found principally on the coast, is met with in the interior. It is common in Denmark.—Migrates.

The specific name of this bird—as well as its English designation—is derived from its expertness in extracting the oyster, which, however, can be done only when the shell is open, and not even then without great caution; for instances have been known of the unfortunate bird being made prisoner by the oyster closing upon its beak.

Parson J. Ödman—the historiographer of the province of Bohus, who flourished upwards of one hundred years ago—tells us, when speaking of the oyster-catcher, what may be

a nut to naturalists, that "its bill and feet are red, and its excrement also deep red; for it feeds on periwinkles and the like on the sea-shore, which beyond doubt causes the red colour, from which purple is extracted!"

This bird, on the coast at least, breeds on the shelf of a rock. It makes no nest whatever. Occasionally, it is true, we saw fragments of shells, &c., at the bottom of the nest, such as it was, but these apparently had been there previously. Hewitson, in his interesting work on Oology, imagines Yarrell to labour under mistake, when saying that he had found as many as four eggs in the nest of this bird. But in this matter I can, from personal observation, confirm Yarrell's statement; for though two to three eggs are more common, it is not unusual to meet with four.

The Common Crane (*Trana*, Sw.; *Grus cinerea*, Bechst.) was not uncommon with us; a pair or two indeed were believed to breed in the vicinity of Ronnum. A few of these birds pass the summer months in Scania, Småland, and other of the southern provinces of Sweden, but much the larger portion in the central and northern parts of the peninsula; at times, indeed, far within the polar circle. A good many, to my knowledge, bred in the extensive moors and morasses studding the Wermeland and Dalecarlian forests, where we not unfrequently obtained their nests. It migrates, and none remain in the peninsula during the winter. It is not uncommon in Denmark, though much scarcer than it was formerly. It breeds in several places in the Duchies, more especially in that of Holstein.

This bird appears early in the south of Sweden. In Scania the peasants have an old rhyme to the effect that on the third Thursday in March, the crane sets foot on

Swedish soil. When in northern Dalecarlia, on the 17th of April, 1851, the ground being then deeply covered with snow, numbers passed over our heads. During migration, these birds always fly in two lines, which in front meet in an acute angle, thus forming a figure somewhat resembling the Greek letter γ , which indeed from this very circumstance is said to have derived its shape. One of the company therefore always flies in advance of the rest and thus constitutes the vertex of the angle; and if the movements of the flock are watched, it may readily be observed that when this individual becomes fatigued with being the first to cleave the air, it falls to the rear, and leaves the next in succession to take its post. It has been noticed, moreover, that when the cranes, on these their migratory flights, meet with a lofty hill, they utter shrill cries, appear anxious and restless, and fly without any kind of order. Gradually, and each for itself, they now ascend spirally, until such time as they have attained to a sufficient height to pass over the eminence, when, assuming their original formation, they proceed slowly on their course. At times their flight is so very high, that notwithstanding each individual occupies a considerable space, the birds themselves, though heard in the air, are not perceptible to the naked eye. Their shrill, loud, and trumpet-like note is audible far and near, and if at a short distance is almost deafening. Their voices are rendered the more powerful, owing to the peculiar conformation of the wind-pipe, which forms several curvatures in the breast-bone, before descending into and joining the lungs.

The crane is one of the tallest and most stately birds in Scandinavia. When it stands upright, it reaches to the breast of a man, and the wings, when extended, are about

seven feet in breadth. It is of a shy and wary disposition ; and when a large flock alight in a field, either for the purpose of feeding or resting, one or more of the party is always seen standing at some little distance, with head erect, and evidently on the watch. On the approach of danger, this individual is the first to give the alarm and take wing, on which the rest forthwith follow its example.

With the ancients the crane, we read, was the emblem of watchfulness. As such it is represented standing on one foot, and holding a small stone between the toes of the other, so that in case it should slumber and let fall the stone, the noise might awaken it.

According to Kæmpher, the Japanese entertain a high admiration for this bird, and never mention it excepting by the name of *Otsurisama*, or his highness the crane. The walls of their temples, and of the imperial palaces, are everywhere adorned with figures of the crane, and of the turtle, both being considered as bringing good luck.

When the crane first arrives in the peninsula in the spring, it feeds principally about the fields, and is then considered as fair eating ; but when, at an after-period, it confines itself almost entirely to boggy ground, where it lives chiefly on frogs and reptiles, the country people become somewhat prejudiced against it, and seldom make use of it for food.

It usually breeds in extended morasses, far away from the haunts of man. It makes its nest, consisting of stalks of plants and the like, on a tussock, and often amongst willow and other bushes. The female lays two eggs, of the size of those of the swan, and oval in form ; in colour they are greenish-grey, and marked—more especially towards the thicker end—with reddish spots, or rather blotches. She is

believed to sit for four weeks, and the young are hatched in the month of June.

From the crane being in but little request for the table, it is not much sought after by Scandinavian sportsmen; and from its shyness, moreover, is not easy of approach. The best way of getting within range of the bird, is by means of a stalking horse, real or artificial; or if the nature of the ground will admit of it, in a cart or other vehicle. In parts of Germany, according to Bechstein, it is captured in strong horse-hair snares, or by means of a similar Strut as that used for the magpie, smeared with bird-lime.

The crane is readily domesticated. I myself had one for a long time in my possession, which was so tame as to be allowed, though with clipped wings, to go at large. It was the most amusing of birds, and could dance to perfection. If a fish was held out to it (and for hours together it would watch the people when angling at the river side, in hopes of coming in for a share of the spoil), and that "Hans" was told it should be rewarded with a fish if it danced, it would at once begin to cut all kinds of capers to the great gratification of the bystanders.

This crane was in general very harmless; but from some cause or other, it had taken a mortal dislike to a certain little boy. Whether it arose from his always exhibiting great fright at its presence, or that he had given offence to the bird, is hard to say; but so it was, that whenever it saw him, it would immediately start off in pursuit, which gave rise to many ludicrous scenes. One day it came unawares upon him whilst bathing. Observing its approach, he became terribly alarmed, and made at once for the shore; but the bird intercepted his retreat, and compelled him to hurry back

into the water again; and it was not until assistance arrived that it could be induced to move off. But the matter did not end here; for no sooner had the boy put on his clothes, and was on his way to the house, than he was met by the crane, which came from an opposite direction; and though he endeavoured to reach the door before the bird—and would have done so, had he not fallen—it came up with him, and immediately commenced a savage attack on his head and face with its long and pointed bill. Happily, however, aid was at hand, and it was soon driven away, though not before the poor little fellow was a good deal hurt—more especially just above the temples, where he had received a rather severe wound, which was some time before it thoroughly healed.

Thence forward the boy became, if possible, still more afraid of the crane; but singularly enough the bird, after that day, never took the slightest notice of him; whence it would seem, that after the severe chastisement it had inflicted on him, its vengeance was fully satisfied.

“The late M. Dahlson, proprietor of Ferna Bruk,” says the President M. af Robson, “had a living crane that had been on the property some fifty years. The thinness of the feathers about its neck, and the nakedness of its throat, indeed, gave visible evidence of its very advanced age. It was perfectly tame, and would gladly be in a room where anything in the shape of eatables—such as cakes, biscuits, and the like—were to be found. The most remarkable thing respecting this bird was, that during the autumn, and more especially in the spring, it served to lure wild cranes passing over head, which not unfrequently fell victims to their *Slägt-kärlek*, or love of kindred. It looked at the shot birds with

the most perfect indifference, and never made an attempt either to follow those that retreated, or to escape itself.

“On the great morass that surrounds the celebrated mineral spring of Porla, in the province of Nerike,” that gentleman proceeds, “to which cranes annually resort to breed, two young ones, male and female, were some years ago captured. They were carried from thence to the estate of Vissbo to be reared. Owing to their incessant and shrill cries they were at first exceedingly annoying; but subsequently, as they grew up, their cries ceased altogether. The male, whilst attempting to strike with his bill at a bull that came too near to him, was killed by the animal, which kicked out and broke the bird’s legs. But the female attained to maturity, and became remarkably large. During the following summer she accompanied the hens and ducks wherever they went. These, nevertheless, feared her greatly, more especially during meal-times, because she, the better to obtain access to the grain that was cast to them, would place her bill and head under their bellies, and, with a jerk, toss them high up into the air. At breakfast-time she would keep a strict watch at the kitchen-door for the return of those boys that had bread, or bread-and-butter in their hands. With long strides she would keep company with them, and by pulling at the bright buttons of their clothes, she not unfrequently so bewildered them, as to cause them to drop the food. In this case she would at once divide the bread by a blow or two with her strong bill, and swallow it so hurriedly, and in such large pieces, that great balls of it might be seen the whole length of her slender neck whilst descending into the stomach.

“She was very fond of finding her way into the kitchen

and the other apartments ; but from whence, if discovered, she was always expelled, by reason of the very disagreeable mementos she left behind her. The attacks of dogs she easily repulsed ; and cats of themselves always took care to keep out of her way. Towards children—more especially mischievous boys—she evinced great dislike, and bristling up would retreat from them backwards with open bill. The lad, however, who tended the cattle, stood specially high in her favour, because he, on his return home of an evening, constantly played with her. On these occasions he would throw his cap into the air, and dance a sort of jig, which she, with distended wings and long leaps, always attempted to mimic to the great amusement of the lookers-on. Between the gardener and herself, on the contrary, there was constant enmity ; for the reason that she was in the habit of plucking up the bulbs out of the flower-beds, some of which she would eat, and cast away others ; and on his approach, therefore, she always made herself scarce. But when other persons were in the garden, she would follow the spade so closely in search of worms and roots, that one would frequently imagine her neck to be in danger. She would eat potatoes ; but when she happened to stick her bill into an unusually large one, without succeeding in dividing it, her mandibles became fixed together, as though she were afflicted with lock-jaw. In this case—to the delight of many—she was sorely perplexed, and had often to wait long, going the while from the one to the other, before any person thought fit to relieve her. Though one of her wings was in degree clipped, she nevertheless managed towards the second autumn to fly a little, and at times to pay visits to the

labouring people, who were occupied in ploughing and ditching in the neighbouring fields.

“Her hearing was very sharp, and she could readily understand the difference between the housekeeper’s call to the poultry when about to feed them, from that intended for herself; for when it was *trana, trana*, she would always, if within hearing, hasten half-flying, half-running, to the spot where the good things were about to be distributed. The next year, when her wings were fully grown, and she was enabled to go where she pleased, she would descend, even if very high in the air, so soon as she heard the well-known and welcome call. On alighting on the ground, however, she could never stop herself at once, but with extended wings would run for some twenty or thirty paces before coming to a stand-still.

“She was especially fond of small fish, but would not take them freely if offered to her tail foremost; but if contrarywise, a dozen or two were always acceptable. Strange to say, she was very partial to meat; but, for the most part, when a piece was given to her, she would first proceed to the neighbouring lake, wash it several times in the water, and subsequently roll it in the sand prior to swallowing it.

“When three years old, and when in the habit of flying seven or eight miles from home to certain morasses, and of absenting herself for days together, she at length came to an untimely end, having probably been killed by some poacher or other, who either wanted her as a roast, or her long and straight legs as shanks for tobacco-pipes.”

Again—“A tame crane died not long ago at the parsonage of Hofva, in Westgothland,” so we are told by the Rev.

P. Carlander, "after having spent fifteen years of its life there. It was captured when young, and before it was fledged; and by degrees became accustomed to eat whatever was to be had in the kitchen, where it soon became a great pet, and grew with extraordinary rapidity. It was a male bird, and for that reason, probably, attached itself principally to females. With men it would not willingly associate, more especially if there were several in company. Towards the lady of the house it soon evinced special affection and regard. If she only appeared in the court-yard, the crane made her presence known by its cries; and even if she was within doors, it could distinguish, not only her voice, but her sneezing, from that of others. It was always on the alert to share with the poultry their meals. If peas and barley were cast to them, and that they did not of their own accord get out of the way, it would take hold of them, one after the other, by the head, and drag them off to a large water-trough near at hand, where it would souse them in.

"For dancing it showed great fondness; but it would not dance with every one. When so inclined, however, it would make high leaps, with distended wings, into the air, and sometimes advancing, and at others retreating, endeavour to imitate all the steps of its partner. Its sight and hearing were wonderfully keen. When the piano-forte was played in the room, it would at first promenade outside of the house, listening the while most attentively; but after a time, even though there were visitors present, it would march into the apartment, and place itself near to the instrument, so long as the music lasted. It readily distinguished the tunes. When, for example, an adagio was played, it would hold its head down, turn it about slowly, and also appear down-

cast. But when, on the contrary, a polka, a quadrille, or other cheerful tune was struck up, it would hold itself erect, turn its head and eyes about quickly, and evince its pleasure by every means in its power. It seized every possible opportunity of admiring itself in the looking-glass. At such times it would station itself in various attitudes, and this more especially when allowed to stand before the full-length mirror in the drawing-room.

“During the period of migration, when wild cranes passed over the place where it was domiciled, its clipped pinions preventing it from joining them, it frequently endeavoured by its cries to induce them to alight; but only on one occasion did it succeed in luring a single individual to its side. Abreast of each other, the pair promenaded during the day in a meadow near to the house; but when evening set in, and that the bird was desirous of marching the stranger to its own lodgings, the visitor took flight, and was no more heard of.

“One morning, without any apparent cause, the poor creature was found dead in its roosting-place; and as during its life it had amused so many, its death was deeply regretted by the whole neighbourhood.”

One more instance, showing the extreme domesticity and intelligence of the crane, and I have done.

“Two of these birds, male and female,” so we are informed, “came, whilst quite young, into the possession of a gentleman. They were kept in an outhouse, and soon made friends with the people and cattle, &c., about the premises. They learned to answer to their names when called, to eat every kind of food, and to permit dogs not only to lie down beside them, but to feed out of the same dish. Although their wings

were partly clipped, they were nevertheless often absent for the whole day, in which while they paid visits to the neighbours, but always returned home in the evening. A great attachment existed between them, and when one was absent, the cries of the other were incessant. When on one occasion the male was wounded, the female participated in his troubles, was constantly in his company, and would not permit any one to approach him.

“At an after-period she herself fell ill, when the male on his part showed the same regard and attachment to her. She died at length, and the male went perfectly distracted. He ran with piercing cries to his owner, and back again to his departed mate, attempted to raise her up with his bill, and when unsuccessful in his efforts, displayed his sorrow in various touching ways. He was afterwards shut up elsewhere, that the dead bird might be removed; but so soon as he regained his liberty, he ran through the house, and up the stairs, pecking with his bill at the several doors, that they might be opened for him; and when he obtained access, he would search for her everywhere. Three days subsequently he was found standing in a field, in a very disconsolate state. It is true he allowed himself to be enticed home once more, but for a long time his melancholy mood continued. It was only by coercive means that he could be made to enter his former abode, which he would not again leave during the whole winter.

“The next spring he sought company, and his affections seemed centered in the bull belonging to the place, whose loud bellowings appeared to make a great impression on him. He kept by the side of this animal in the cattle-house, drove the flies away from him, responded to his bellowings with

cries, and accompanied him to the pasture. He seemed to consider the bull as his master, stood erect and "all attention" by his side, as if awaiting the word of command, kept a few paces behind him when he walked, danced about him when he was standing still, and bowed his head to him in so ridiculous a manner, that one could not well refrain from laughing.

"Meanwhile, he maintained order amongst the poultry when they fell out; but he was more merciful towards the hens and ducks, than to the geese and turkeys. He even took the sheep under his charge, in the manner of a shepherd's dog; and in short exercised a kind of dominion over all the domestic animals, which he often punished with severe blows. When the horses were put to the carriage, he would station himself in front of them like a sentinel. If they were restless, he would raise his wings, shake his head, and shriek with all his might. The younger cattle he would alone and of himself drive home from the pasture. If strange animals made their appearance, either in the farm-yard or in the fields, he would chase them away in spite of their resistance. The pigs alone he did not trouble himself about; he would not even look at them, and seemed to entertain a certain kind of contempt for them.

"When he was hungry, he would post himself outside of the kitchen-window and shriek. If this did not avail, he would enter the kitchen, and make known his wants by a peculiar cry. If disinclined of an evening to enter his dormitory, he would hide himself from the kitchen-maid, when she searched after him; but when she found him, he would go in quietly enough. If he had strayed away, and saw his owner approaching, he would endeavour to

conceal himself, and afterwards, by a bye-path, scuttle home as fast as he could. He had the greatest possible antipathy to beggars and other ill-clad people, and used every means in his power to prevent them from coming near the house. He was afraid of chimney-sweepers, as also of everything black; so that it was with reluctance he associated with dogs, turkeys, &c., of that colour. He did not readily forget an offence, and even for a whole year afterwards would remember it. He took great pleasure in admiring himself in the looking-glass; and whilst standing before it, he would put himself into all kinds of singular postures, as if it afforded him pleasure to see them repeated in the mirror. If the water in his bathing-tub remained too long unchanged, and was dirty, he would turn the tub topsy-turvy, and shriek out for fresh water.

“When the period of migration arrived in the spring, he became very uneasy, greeted the wild cranes that were on their passage to other climes, with his trumpet-like cry, visited them frequently during the night time on the neighbouring morasses, and on one occasion even enticed a female to the vicinity of the house; but she not finding herself at her ease in such close proximity to people, soon flew away again and was seen no more.

“At length another very young female was brought to him, which he received with every mark of affection, led her about everywhere, and taught her to dance; but when she was refractory, or did not conduct herself properly, he would nevertheless punish her with his bill. This bird died in the course of the summer, without his seeming to care very greatly for her loss.

“The following winter was so mild, that half a score of

cranes remained in the neighbourhood. In this while he paid them divers visits, and not unfrequently returned home bloody, and with his feathers disarranged; no doubt because he wished to lord it over the other cranes, and to teach them his tricks, to which they were probably averse. The third spring, during the period of migration, he was absent for whole days together.

“During all this time, however, his friendship for the bull did not cease. It was, moreover, transferred from one bull to the other, when the animals were killed or sold. But at length he was so badly gored by a steer, which he attempted to keep in order, that he shortly afterwards died, to the great regret of every one.”

CHAPTER XXII.

THE HERONS—THE STORKS—THE IBIS—THE CURLEWS—THE SANDPIPERS—
THE AVOCET—THE LONGSHANKS—THE GODWITS—THE WOODCOCK—THE
SNIPES—THE RUFF—THE PHALAROPES—THE RAILS—THE GALLINULES
—THE COOT.

THE Common Heron (*Häger*, Sw. ; *Ardea cinerea*, Lath.) was pretty common with us during the summer months ; as is also the case throughout a large portion of Scandinavia. Its limits to the northward do not appear to be very well ascertained ; but it has been seen as high up as the 64° N. latitude. It would seem to be more plentiful in the southern parts of Sweden than elsewhere. One and all migrate. They arrive in Scania about the last week in March, and take their departure from thence in September and October, prior to which they are frequently seen congregated in considerable flocks. This bird is common in Denmark during the summer time.

Pontoppidan has some singular notions about the heron. Amongst other things, he says : “ It has only one straight

gut, which distinguishes it from other birds. Hence it comes to pass, that all my correspondents unanimously assure me that a heron may eat an eel three times over, which is hardly swallowed before one sees the head or body pass out again from the bird's fundament, and then immediately the bird turns about, and swallows it a second or third time, before he relinquishes it."

The heron—and this even when domesticated—has the singular custom of always first dipping in the water every thing it eats. It feeds greatly on the finny tribe. When fishing, it for the most part remains motionless in the water, until such time, at least, as the small fry approach within reach of its murderous bill, when it seizes and devours them; hence the belief entertained by the common people in Sweden and other countries, that its legs have a peculiar odour, whereby the fish are attracted to the spot. Pontoppidan has another version of the story: "Its long legs," he says, "are a great help to it to get provisions. On these legs are a very few fine hairs, which play softly in the water; and that motion entices the fish, who are not aware of the devouring beak." The real attraction consists probably in the droppings of the bird.

As with us in England, the heron usually breeds in lofty trees, and for the most part in colonies, often numbering a hundred or more. Ten to twelve nests may frequently be seen in the same tree. The female lays from three to four eggs of a uniform bluish-green colour. The period of incubation is about three weeks, during which she alone is said to sit upon them.

The Little Heron, or Little Bittern (*Dverg-Häger*, or Dwarf-Heron, Sw.; *A. minuta*, Linn.). This bird is rare

in Scandinavia, very few having hitherto been met with, and those in Sweden. Its proper home would seem to be the more midland and southern portions of Europe. Its resorts are represented to be wooded districts, for the most part near to lakes, ponds, and morasses, amongst reeds and the like. It constantly keeps itself concealed, runs amongst the grass, and will not willingly take wing. According to Kjærbölling and other naturalists, it is exceedingly rare in Denmark.—Migrates.¹

The Common Bittern (*Rördrum*, Sw.; *A. stellaris*, Linn.) was very scarce in my part of the country, but nevertheless occasionally met with, as well in the reed-beds in the Gotha, as on the neighbouring coast. During the summer months it is found, though somewhat sparingly it would appear, throughout all the more southern parts of Scandinavia; but with its limits to the northward Swedish naturalists are unacquainted. It would seem to be somewhat scarce in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Danish fauna includes two other species of the genus *Ardea*—namely, the Squacco Heron (*A. comata*, Linn.; *A. ralloides*, Scop.), and the Common Night-Heron (*A. nycticorax*, Linn.), both inhabitants of south-eastern Europe, which have been found in a few instances in the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein.

The White, or Common Stork (*Hvit Stork*, Sw.; *Ciconia alba*, Ray) was rarely seen in my vicinity; but on the neighbouring coast, according to M. von Wright, it is not uncommon in the spring. It did not breed with us, however, though I have known it to do so near to Gothenburg. It is very common during the summer months in the southern provinces of Sweden—more especially in those of

Scania and Halland—to which, indeed, it would seem to be almost altogether confined. But it is occasionally met with in the more southern parts of Wermeland, where, to my personal knowledge, five individuals were shot a few years ago. These birds migrate; they usually make their appearance in Scania from the 4th to the 8th of April, and take their departure from thence in August, prior to which they assemble in large flocks. It is common in Denmark. Africa, more especially Egypt and Barbary, would seem to be its proper home.

The common people in Sweden have some curious fancies as well about the stork as the heron. The stork feeds, as known, much on snakes. From the formation of its stomach, however, it is believed that unless some precaution were taken, the reptile, when swallowed, would, unscathed, presently make its exit otherwise than by the mouth. To prevent this inconvenience, the stork, therefore, before bolting the snake, always swallows a bit of turf, or a wisp of grass, to form a stopper as it were, thereby to give fair play to the digestive organs.

As in eastern countries, the stork is, in Scandinavia, looked upon with a kind of veneration. Many reasons are assigned for this; amongst the rest that, as with the swallow and the turtle-dove, it at the crucifixion flew over the Redeemer, crying in a sympathising tone, *styrk, styrk, styrk Honom!*—that is, strengthen, strengthen, strengthen Him. Hence it derived the name of *Stork*; and it was in remembrance of the affectionate solicitude it evinced on this occasion, that the gift was bestowed on this bird of bringing peace and happiness to the roof where it was allowed undisturbed to rear its young.

According to another legend, the time was when all the animals of the creation were gifted with the power of speech; and that at their religious convocations, the stork always officiated as the clergyman.

The belief is also very prevalent that the souls of men are embodied under the feathers of these birds. They are imagined by some to have been originally parsons, who, for their greediness and avidity, were metamorphosed into their present shape, and now wander about the earth constantly occupied in plucking up all the good things they can meet with. This is in unison with the jest recorded in the *Bibliotheca Britannica*, Tom. xix, that the storks always shun those cities and towns in Germany, where people do not duly pay the clergy their tithes.

There is a superstition, moreover, in Germany, that a stork never builds on a wicked man's house; and to such an extent does this notion prevail, that if a man were suspected, even of murder, the people could scarcely be induced to bring him before the magistrates, if a stork was known to build on his house.

Owing to these and similar traditions, the stork is a welcome visitor everywhere; and the peasants so far from wilfully injuring it, protect it to the utmost of their power. This kindly feeling is carried to such a length, indeed, "as not only to subject a person shooting it to the risk of unpleasant consequences, but to actual danger." In parts of the country it is looked upon as a sort of sin to molest it in any way. When I was on a visit to a friend, in the province of Halland, the lady of the mansion told me that, "some time previously, a peasant in the vicinity had shot at, and maimed one of these birds; that shortly afterwards he

himself fell lame without visible cause, and became a cripple for life; which infliction was looked upon by his neighbours as a just punishment for the heinous offence he had committed."

From being left thus unmolested, the stork becomes exceedingly tame, and will hardly get out of one's way. It frequently makes its nest in the wilds of the forest, as also, in the manner of the magpie, in detached trees immediately about human habitations; but it builds just as often on the roof, or it may be on the chimney, of the cottage itself, where, to facilitate its operations, the peasants not unfrequently affix a broken cart-wheel, or the like. The nest is composed of sticks and similar materials; and as it is often made use of for several generations together, it becomes at length, from annual repairs and additions, of a most goodly size. Occasionally it is said to be from four to six feet in height! Though propped up to guard against the contingency, I have heard of the roof of a cottage, or outbuilding, actually breaking down under the weight of a stork's nest. Numbers of sparrows usually breed in the sides of these gigantic nests. The stork, according to popular belief, is not unmindful of the kindness shown to it; and the eggs or young ones, as the case may be, that are frequently found outside of the nest, are considered by the peasants to be tokens of its gratitude.

The female lays from four to five oval-shaped eggs, of a dirty-white colour. They are two inches and seven-eighths in length, by two inches in thickness. She is said to sit for about three weeks.

From the great number of storks that breed unmolested in the south of Sweden and in Denmark, one might be led

to suppose that these birds would be greatly on the increase in these countries; but such is not the case, for according to northern naturalists they would appear to be rather on the decrease than otherwise. Possibly the diminution of their numbers is to be found in the fact that many of the young colonise other and new countries.



THE STORK'S NEST.

The accompanying sketch represents a stork's nest that came more particularly under my own notice. It was situated at the gable-end of a peasant's cottage, and tenanted by four full-grown young ones, which at the time were all standing bolt upright, on or about the edge of the nest. Every now and then the old birds made their appear-

ance with a supply of food, which their progeny devoured with great avidity. It was an interesting sight, the rather as this stork family, thanks to the encouragement and protection it received, seemed quite as tame as any of the domestic animals about the homestead.

The stork evinces more than ordinary affection for its young, and has been known to perish rather than desert them. An attachment of this sort once occasioned the death of an old stork, at the burning of the city of Delft, in Holland. When the flames approached its nest, situated on a house-top, it exerted itself to the utmost to save its young; but finding every effort useless, it remained and perished with them.

At times, however, this bird seemingly acts a very unnatural part towards her progeny.

“Observing a well-grown young stork lying uninjured on the ground near to the nest, which contained two others,” so Count Beckfriis’s keeper stated to me, “and imagining it came there by accident, I replaced it in the nest. But I was mistaken in the matter; for on the return of the mother presently afterwards, I saw her deliberately oust the same pout from the nest, and precipitate it to the ground. Again I put it in the nest, but only to be cast out once more. My curiosity being now greatly excited, I replaced it for the third time, though with still worse results; for I had not retired fifty paces from the spot, when the old bird attacked it with her bill so furiously, as literally to tear it *styckevis*, or piece-meal.

“On another occasion, and under precisely similar circumstances, the like result ensued, whence I came to the conclusion, that this strange and apparently unnatural proceeding

on the part of the parent, was dictated by instinct; for that finding herself incapable of supporting all her progeny, she destroyed one of the number, that the rest might have sufficient sustenance."

The stork, like the crane, shows great attachment to his mate, of which many instances are on record. In return, however, he, according to popular belief, expects the strictest fidelity from his partner; and it would seem, from the following anecdote, that severe punishment awaits the female suspected of inconstancy.

"Some hens' eggs were placed in a stork's nest, in lieu of the others. The female stork, not aware of the change, sat patiently the appointed number of days, till the shells were broken, and the young chickens made their appearance. No sooner were they seen by the old birds, than they testified their surprise by harsh notes and fierce looks; and after a short pause they jointly fell on the unfortunate chickens and pecked them to pieces, as if conscious of the disgrace which might be supposed to attach to a dishonoured nest. Whether the female suffered afterwards we do not know. We shall see, however, by the following, that the expected consequences of such a discovery might well account for the horror and indignation manifested by the wondering parents.

"A French surgeon at Smyrna, wishing to procure a stork, and finding great difficulty on account of the extreme veneration in which they are held by the Turks, stole all the eggs out of a nest, and replaced them with those of a hen. In process of time the young chickens came forth, much to the astonishment of the old birds. In a short time the male bird went off, and was not seen for two or three days, when he returned with an immense crowd of his companions, who all

assembled in the place, and formed a circle, taking no notice of the numerous spectators, which so unusual an occurrence had collected. The female was brought into the midst of the circle, and after some consultation the whole flock fell upon her, and tore her to pieces, after which they immediately dispersed, and the nest was entirely abandoned."

Independently of punishing delinquents for infidelity, judgment is believed to be passed for other offences against the community. But if individuals are actually put to death, as asserted, it would seem more probable that it is because they are sick or disabled, and incapable of following their brethren to other lands.

Though the stork may not at all times sufficiently respect the nuptial tie, certain it is that these birds not unfrequently evince extraordinary constancy towards each other. We read, for instance, of a male stork, who though necessitated to leave his mate behind when he migrated, owing to her wing being injured, returned every year to her at the usual time, and finally remained with her for the whole of three consecutive winters.

The stork is easily domesticated, but in confinement is not nearly so amusing as the crane. If allowed its full liberty, it associates with the domestic animals about the place, and is contented with what it can pick up; or it flies away in the day time to cater for itself, and returns again in the evening. It is not equally friendly towards every one, and shows its gratification by snapping its bill together, and spreading its tail in the manner of a wheel.

The Black Stork (*Svart Stork*, Sw.; *C. nigra*, Ray) was rare with us. It is found, though sparingly, in the southern and more central provinces of Sweden, but not, as it would

appear, in the more northern. It is somewhat scarce in Denmark.—Migrates.

Northern naturalists tell us that the habits of this bird are very similar to those of the white stork, though it is much shyer; that it is not seen in flocks, but only singly or in pairs; that it is said to breed in the crown of lofty trees; that the nest is composed of sticks, and at times three feet or more in breadth; and that the female lays from three to four white eggs, larger than those of a barn-door fowl.

When shooting one autumnal day, at about twenty miles from Ronnum, I was lucky enough to bring down a black stork that was soaring overhead. Fortunately it was but slightly wounded in the pinion, so that I was enabled to carry it home alive, where, in the course of a very few days, it not only perfectly recovered, but became quite tame. It was evidently a very young bird, and remained in my possession for a considerable time.

The Glossy Ibis (*Svart Ibis*, Sw.; *Ibis Falcinellus*, Temm.) is very rare in Scandinavia. It has, however, been occasionally met with in the southern and central parts of Sweden, as also in the island of Gottland; but is not believed to breed in the country. It is also very rare in Denmark. The South of Asia would seem to be its proper home.

The Common Curlew (*Stor-Spof*, Sw.; *Numenius arquata*, Lath.) was very common with us, and likewise throughout Scandinavia, as high up as the polar circle at least; and this as well in the interior, as amongst the islands on the coast. It bred in my vicinity. In Denmark it is also common.—Migrates.

The Whimbrel (*Små-Spof*, Sw.; *N. Phæopus*, Lath.) was common during the spring in the neighbouring Skärgård,

where at that season I have seen it in considerable flocks, and where, according to M. von Wright, some few breed. By far the larger portion of these birds, however, pass the summer months in the more northern parts of Scandinavia, as high up, M. Malm says, as the 70° of latitude. I myself met with numbers in the vicinity of Muonioniska, in northern Lapland. It is common in Denmark during migration, but it is doubtful whether it breeds there.—Migrates.

The whimbrel frequents marshy and wooded districts, and in the breeding season is not unfrequently seen to perch on trees, more especially on the tops of lofty pines. Though usually a shy bird, it at this time loses its natural timidity, hovers about, and pursues with its shrill, whistling note, the man or beast that approaches its nest. This is generally placed on a tussock in a morass, or on a heath. The female lays four pear-shaped eggs, of an olive-green colour, marked, more especially at the larger end, with black-brown spots and blotches.

The Dusky Sandpiper (*Harlekins-Snäppa*, Sw.; *Totanus fuscus*, Leisl.) was not observed by us; but is found in the neighbouring Skärgård, at least during migration. Though, according to Nilsson, some few of these birds breed on the coasts of the Baltic Sea, and on the island of Gottland, the larger portion undoubtedly nest in the far north. M. Malm speaks of it as very common in all the morasses studding the pine-forests of Lapland, as high up, he says, as the Scotch fir grows to any size. It was most plentiful, he adds, in Enare Lapmark, which borders on the Icy Sea. In Denmark it is rather scarce.—Migrates.

The Redshank Sandpiper (*Röd-bent Snäppa*, Sw.; *T. Calidris*, Bechst.) was common with us, more especially on

the neighbouring coast, where M. von Wright describes it to be the most abundant of the family. It breeds on low grounds, in all the islands of the Skärgård. According to Swedish naturalists, it is common everywhere throughout Scandinavia, from Scania to northern Lapland. It is very common in Denmark.—Migrates.

It is this bird, as said, and not the common turnstone, as imagined by Linnæus, that on the islands of the Baltic Sea is called by the fishermen *Tolk*, or interpreter, because of its shrill cry, whereby it warns other birds of the coming of the fowler.

The Green Sandpiper (*Grå-bent Snäppa*, Sw.; *T. Ochropus*, Temm.) was pretty common in my part of the country, though somewhat scarce, according to M. von Wright, in the neighbouring Skärgård. It is also pretty common in all the more southern parts of Scandinavia; but its limits to the northward do not appear to be very well ascertained. It is said to smell of musk, and to retain the odour for a long time after the skin has been stuffed and dried. In Denmark it is rather scarce than otherwise.—Migrates.

The Wood Sandpiper (*Grön-bent Snäppa*, Sw.; *T. Glareola*, Temm.) was not uncommon during the summer months in my neighbourhood. It is generally distributed throughout Scandinavia, from the extreme south of Sweden to northern Lapland. M. Malm met with it in abundance at the mouth of the river Passwig, which empties itself into the Icy Sea: as high up, in short, as the pine-woods extend. It is pretty common in Denmark.—Migrates.

Although in plumage this bird most resembles the green sandpiper, its habits would appear to assimilate nearer to those of the redshank sandpiper. Like the latter, it keeps up

a great disturbance in the vicinity of its nest and young, flies to and fro with a shrill cry above the heads of those who approach, and perches on some elevated object, such as a stone or a bush. On these occasions it is little cautious, and will come immediately near to one.

The wood sandpiper makes its nest on a tussock, and usually in some forest morass. It is simply constructed, consisting of little besides a few blades of grass. The female lays four pear-shaped eggs, yellowish-green in colour, and marked with reddish-brown spots and blotches, more especially towards the thicker end.

The Common Sandpiper (*Drill-Snäppa*, Sw.; *T. Hypoleucos*, Temm.) was very abundant with us; as also over the whole of Scandinavia—from Scania to the extremity of northern Lapland. It frequents the shores of rivers and lakes. It is common in Denmark.—Migrates.

Though this sandpiper is not much larger than the sparrow, its eggs are of a very disproportionate size as compared with those of that bird. This circumstance with the Lapps, who call it *Skillili*, has given rise to the following couplet :

Skillili, skillili ! yvoddan, yvoddan
Reusaka mone mateu,
Patta tjiydrita piedja.

Which may be rendered as follows :

Skillili, skillili ! I carry, I carry
An egg large as that of a Ripa,
So that my tail cocks in the air.

The Greenshank (*Glutt-Snäppa*, Sw.; *T. Glottis*, Bechst.) was somewhat scarce, both in the vicinity of Ronnum and in

the neighbouring Skärgård. Some certainly bred amongst the islands, and most probably with us also. Its proper home would seem, however, to be the far north (as high up at least as the 70° N. latitude), where by all accounts it is very common. In the south of Sweden it is only seen during migration. This is also the case in Denmark.

According to Malm, this bird makes its nest by the side of a tussock, and under a birch or willow bush. The female lays four eggs, pear-shaped in form, and of a dull yellow colour, marked all over with black and dark-brown spots.

The *Snäppa med half-lyckta fötter*, or Snäppa with half-webbed feet (*T. semipalmatus*, Temm.). This bird has found a place in the Northern fauna, though perhaps without much right. It is not pretended that more than a single individual has been killed in Scandinavia, and there are even doubts on that point. It belongs to North America, where, according to Wilson, it is found in great abundance in the summer time near to salt marshes.

The *Damm-Snäppa* (*T. stagnatilis*, Bechst.) is believed to breed in the North of Europe; and though the learned in Sweden think it probable it may be found at times in Scandinavia, no instance is as yet on record of its having been killed there. Neither is this bird included in the Danish fauna, although the naturalists of that country have every reason to believe that it pertains to it.

The Scooping Avocet (*Skär-Fläcka*, Sw.; *Recurvirostra Avocetta*, Linn.). Hitherto this bird has only been met with in Scania, and the islands of Gottland and Öland. On the latter island it is the most plentiful. As its Swedish name would imply, it confines itself chiefly to the sea shore. It is not uncommon in parts of Denmark.—Migrates.

The Black-winged Longshanks (*Himantopus rufipes*, Bechst. ; *H. melanopterus*, Mey.)—whose proper home is Hungary and other parts of Eastern Europe—although never seen in Scandinavia, has in one instance been shot, we are told, in Denmark.

The Bar-tailed Godwit (*Rost-röd Lång-Näbba*, or Rust-red Long-Bill, Sw. ; *Limosa rufa*, Briss.) was not observed near to Ronnum, but is pretty common, spring and fall, in the neighbouring Skärgård, where M. von Wright imagines it nests sparingly. For the most part, however, this bird passes the summer months in the northern portions of Scandinavia. M. Malm found it very common in Enare Lapmark, where, he says, it breeds. In Scania, where I have seen it shot, it is only found during migration ; and from appearing in that province so early as the month of August, it is called the *Augusti-Snäppa*. This bird is pretty common in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Black-tailed Godwit (*Svart-stjertad Lång-Näbba*, or Black-tailed Long-Bill, Sw. ; *L. melanura*, Leisl.) is said to be confined to the more southern parts of Sweden, and to the island of Gottland, where it breeds. In Denmark it is not uncommon, especially during the spring and fall of the year.—Migrates.

The Woodcock (*Mor-kulla*, or Moor-maid, Sw. ; *Scolopax rusticola*, Linn.) was pretty common with us, and bred sparingly in the vicinity of Ronnum. It is also pretty common, during the summer, in wooded districts throughout a large portion of the peninsula. It is common in Denmark during migration ; and some few breed in that country.

Some imagine there are two species of woodcock in Scandinavia — namely, the Common Woodcock, and what Ger-

man sportsmen call *Stein-Schnepfe*, or Stone-Woodcock. The latter is described as being nearly one-third lesser of the two; as of a darker colour and marked with closer black spots and bars; bluish legs; and shorter, ash-grey coloured neck. It flies quicker and frequents more elevated districts. It also arrives earlier in the spring, and departs later in the autumn. But may not naturalists in this matter be splitting hairs, and the difference observable be dependent on the countries where the birds are bred? In Lapland, for instance, the capercali—to say nothing of its being said to differ slightly in plumage—rarely or never weighs more than seven or eight pounds; whereas in the more southern parts of Sweden it is not unfrequently met with weighing fourteen to sixteen pounds.

Though very many woodcocks breed in Scandinavia, the impression on my mind is that a large portion of those that visit England and the central parts of Europe in the winter, pass the summer months in countries to the eastward of the peninsula. And I am strengthened in this belief from the fact, that the island of Gottland is, by all accounts, visited during migration by more woodcocks than any other portion of Scandinavia.

The woodcock, as is pretty well ascertained, is in the habit of bearing her young to the feeding-ground, even though it be at a considerable distance. She is very tender of them. Should a dog approach the nest, she, like the partridge, and some other birds, adopts every expedient to decoy the animal away from the spot. She will run before him with drooping wings and outspread tail; or she will fly with hanging legs and head, as if wounded, immediately before his nose, until such time as she has drawn him to a

sufficient distance, when she presently lets it be understood that she has the full use of her wings.

It was mentioned in my former work, on the authority of M. Greiff, that the woodcock, when her young are in jeopardy, will grasp them with her feet, and fly away with them to a place of safety. Swedish naturalists and others question the truth of this statement, but it would seem without sufficient cause. Not to speak of the same story being current and believed in England, my friend M. Oterdahl, in whose word I have full confidence, was an eyewitness to the fact.



THE WOODCOCK AND HER YOUNG.

“Once during a hare-hunt,” he writes, “I myself shot a

woodcock—flushed by the dogs—when flying at about six feet from the ground, that was bearing an unfledged young one in her claws. It seemed to me she grasped it by the wings; one foot having hold of the one wing, and the other foot of the other. Though in consequence of intervening boughs, I did not observe the old bird when she rose, I was fortunately so near to her as clearly to see what I have stated. I afterwards found two other young ones under a neighbouring bush, where they had retreated for shelter.”

The Great Snipe (*Dubbel Beckasin*, or Double Snipe, Sw.; *S. major*, Gmel.) was pretty common with us, and a few bred, as I believe, in our vicinity. It is also pretty common throughout the southern and more central parts of the peninsula; but would not seem to be found farther to the northward than about the 60° of latitude. It is pretty common in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Common Snipe (*Enkel Beckasin*, or Single Snipe, Sw.; *S. Gallinago*, Linn.) was plentiful during the fall of the year in the vicinity of Ronnum, and stragglers, as we had reason to believe, nested with us. This bird is found almost everywhere in Scandinavia, as high up as the 70° of latitude. It is much more common, however, in the midland and southern parts of the peninsula than in the far north. In Denmark it is common.—Migrates.

From the singular note—with us called drumming—of this bird during the breeding season, it is in Finland designated *Taivanwushi*, or goat of the heavens, and in Germany *Himmel-Ziege*, which has the same signification. In Norway, again, where this peculiar note is imagined to resemble the neighing of a horse, it has obtained the appellation of *Skodde-Föll*, or horse of the mist; and in the

central part of Sweden, that of *Hors-Gök*, or horse-cuckoo. The bird is, indeed, believed to have at one period been a veritable steed.

“Once upon a time,” so goes the legend, common in the province of Westmanland, “a peasant was possessed of a horse, which for several days together was led by a servant to a distant pasture, entirely destitute of water, without having been previously allowed to drink. One fine afternoon the master and man proceeded to the aforesaid pasture, which was well fenced, for the purpose of fetching home the horse. But on their arrival there, they found to their great surprise, that he had vanished altogether. Whilst pondering upon the matter, they, to their still greater wonderment, heard a neighing overhead, and the next instant saw the lost steed quietly drinking from a spring in an adjoining field. They hastened to secure the animal; but so soon as he had drunk his fill, and under their very eyes, he was ‘transmogrified’ into a *Hors-Gök*, and forthwith flew up in the air, where he was afterwards heard neighing, as long as daylight lasted.”

The Jack Snipe (*Half-enkel Beckasin*, or Half-single Snipe, Sw.; *S. Gallinula*, Linn.). This bird—which in the south of Sweden is called the *Stum Beckasin*, or mute snipe—was very abundant with us during the autumn, as indeed is the case throughout the country generally; but where it passes the summer months has always been a mystery to me. Swedish naturalists tell us it nests in various parts of the peninsula; but strange to say I and others, who have been on the look-out, never met with it either in Sweden, Norway, or Lapland, during that season. My notion is that, even admitting some to breed in Scandi-

navia, the greater portion nest in countries to the eastward. During spring and fall, the jack snipe is common in Denmark, where, Kjærbölling will have it, it has been known to breed.

Of the woodcock and the snipes, as well as of the several devices resorted to for their destruction and capture, more will be said hereafter.

The Ruff (*Brus-Hane*, Sw.; *Tringa pugnax*, Linn.) was pretty common with us, more especially during the autumn. It is also pretty common throughout Scandinavia, from Scania to Northern Lapland, where it breeds in numbers on the fjäll morasses. It is also common in Denmark.—Migrates.

These birds, as known, are remarkable for their combative propensities. They have their *Lek-ställe*—which is generally in the middle of an open morass—where they carry on love affairs. Here, soon after their arrival in Sweden in the spring, they congregate in considerable numbers; and whilst the females look on, desperate battles take place between the males.

The Pigmy Curlew (*Båg-näbbad Strand-Vipa*, Sw.; *T. subarquata*, Temm.) was scarce with us, and only observed during migration on the neighbouring coast. Swedish naturalists appear to know little of this bird, but believe it to breed in the more northern parts of Scandinavia. When migrating, it is generally seen in company with the Knot. It is pretty common in Denmark in the autumn and spring.—Migrates.

The Dunlin (*Föränderlig Strand-Vipa*, Sw.; *T. variabilis*, Mey.) was common in the neighbourhood of Ronnum; as also throughout the greater part of Scandinavia. It is said to be the most abundant of the family in the peninsula, and is found as well on the morasses of Scania as on the fjälls of Norway and Lapland. In Denmark it is very plentiful.—Migrates.

According to Faber, one frequently sees in Iceland, during the spring of the year, a solitary dunlin that attaches itself in a most extraordinary manner to a solitary golden plover; and in every way acts towards it the part of a guide and protector, until such time as the plover has found a mate. This singular proceeding on the part of the dunlin has been noticed from olden times, and has probably given rise to its Icelandic name of *Lóu Præll*, that is, the servant of the golden plover. In like manner as the dunlin guards and tends the golden plover in Iceland, the common sandpiper on the islands of the Baltic Sea has been observed to act the part of a servant, or guardian, towards the redshank sandpiper (called, as said, *Tolk*, or interpreter); for which reason it is there commonly designated *Tolka-Piga*, or hand-maid to the interpreter.

The Broad-billed Sandpiper (*Bred-näbbad Strand-Vipa*, Sw.; *T. platyrhinca*, Temm.) was rare with us, though occasionally met with, both in the vicinity of Ronnum and on the neighbouring coast. It is also rare in the south of Sweden, as well as in Denmark. It would seem for the most part to pass the summer months in the more northern portions of Scandinavia. Mr. Richard Dann, who, so far as I am aware, is the only one that has found its nest in the peninsula, describes it as greatly resembling that of the common snipe, and the eggs, of which he does not state the number, as being of a deep chocolate colour.—Migrates.

The Purple Sandpiper (*Svart-grå Strand-Vipa*, Sw.; *T. maritima*, Brünn.) was never observed by us in the vicinity of Ronnum; but in the fall of the year it was very common in the adjoining Skärgård. At this season it is also common along the whole coast as far as Scania; and like-

wise in Denmark. Its proper home is the far north, where it passes the summer months. A portion may probably migrate, but the greater part remain on the outer islands of the Skärgård during the entire of the winter; such at least was the case with us.

The favourite resorts of the purple sandpiper are naked rocks, for the most part such as at flood are under water, and at ebb above the surface, and which in Norway are called *Fjære*. This bird, which from its dark colour, and short legs, somewhat resembles a mouse, has therefore in that country obtained the name of *Fjære-muus*, or Fjære-mouse. It feeds on insects and worms, which abound in such situations; and one often sees the whole flock retreat from the wave, and advance again as soon as it retires. It is among the least shy of birds, and will often allow one to approach quite close to it without showing signs of alarm.

It is said to nest on the plateaux of the fjälls, and to lay four pear-shaped eggs of a greyish-yellow colour, marked with reddish-brown spots.

The Temminck's Stint (*Temmincks Strand-Vipå*, Sw.; *T. Temminckii*, Leisl.) is found, according to Malm, in the vicinity of Gothenburg. Some of these birds pass the summer months in the more central parts of Sweden; but the larger portion are believed to nest in the far north. M. von Wright describes them as common at Karesuando; and M. Malm says, that he met with them, though very sparingly, on most of the fjäll moors and morasses in even higher latitudes. Though admitted by Danish naturalists to be a Northern bird, it is asserted to breed occasionally in Denmark. Its eggs, which appear to be unknown to Swedish naturalists, are described by Kjærbölling as numbering at times

as many as four, glossy, of a pale-yellow colour, and marked with grey, red-brown and dark-brown spots.—Migrates.

The Little Stint (*Liten Strand-Vipa*, Sw.; *T. minuta*, Leisl.) was not uncommon with us in the autumn. M. von Wright says, that when it appears in the neighbouring Skärgård, it is generally in company with the dunlin. During spring and fall, according to Nilsson, it may be seen in flocks of thousands on the coast of Scania. It is believed to breed in the far north; but as with Temminck's Stint, no one, as yet, seems to have met with its nest in the peninsula. Though found during migration in Denmark, it does not breed there. Kjærbölling, however—on what authority I know not—says that it lays three or four eggs; the ground-colour being light olive-green, marked with diminutive, pale red-grey, and larger brown spots and blotches.—Migrates.

The Knot (*Isländsk Strand-Vipa*, Sw.; *T. Islandica*, Linn.). During the autumn this bird was not unfrequently met with on the neighbouring coast, and generally in company with the purple sandpiper. It passes the summer months in the more northern parts of Scandinavia, where, according to M. Malm, it breeds on the moors and morasses amongst the fjälls. No description of its eggs is given by Swedish naturalists; but Kjærbölling, deriving his information from Iceland and Greenland, says that they are three or four in number, greenish-yellow in colour, and marked with larger and smaller brown spots.—Migrates.

The Red Lobefoot (*Smal-nübbad Simm-Snäppa*, or Small-billed Swimming-Snäppa, Sw.; *Lobipes hyperboreus*, Steph.). This bird appears to be altogether confined to the more northern portion of Scandinavia. No instance is on

record, at least, of its having been met with in the central or southern parts of the peninsula. In Lapland—where by the Finnish squatters it is called *Wesitiainen*, or the water-sparrow—it is found, though sparingly, as well on the lower grounds as on the fjälls. Though never observed in the south of Sweden, it has, singularly enough, been occasionally seen in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Grey Phalarope (*Bred-näbbad Simm-Snäppa*, or Broad-billed Swimming-Snäppa, Sw.; *Phalaropus lobatus*, Flem.). Swedish naturalists include this bird in the Scandinavian fauna, and say “it is found, though probably in small numbers, in the northern and north-eastern parts of Lapland.” It may be so; but what is remarkable, neither M. Malm, nor any one else, so far as I am aware, make mention of having met with it in that country. In Denmark it is seen occasionally during migration. The arctic regions would seem to be its proper home. In Greenland, we are told by Holböll, it is the last of the migratories that makes its appearance; most commonly, indeed, not until the latter end of June.

The Collared Pratincole (*Glareola pratincola*, Pallas), pertains to the Danish fauna; having in one instance been shot on the island of Möen.

The Water-Rail (*Vatten-Rall*, Sw.; *Rallus aquaticus*, Linn.) was not uncommon with us. It is also found, though sparingly, throughout a large portion of Scandinavia. Its limits to the northward do not seem to be ascertained. In Denmark it is not uncommon, and some few breed in that country.—Migrates.

The Corn-Crake (*Korn-Knarr*; *Äng-Knarr*, Sw.; *Crex pratensis*, Bechst.) was abundant with us in the summer

time, the fields being, so to say, alive with them. It is also very common in the southern and more central portions of the peninsula. According to Nilsson, it is found as high up as within the polar circle. It is also common in Denmark during the breeding season.—Migrates.

The Spotted Crake (*Små-fläckig Sump-Höna*, or Small-spotted Fen-Hen, Sw.; *C. Porzana*, Selby) was common, and bred with us. It is also pretty common in all the southern and more central parts of Scandinavia, and is believed to be found, Nilsson tells us, as high up as the province of Westerbotten, that is, between the 64° and 66° N. latitude. In Denmark it is also pretty common.—Migrates.

The Common Gallinule, or Moor-Hen (*Grön-fotad Sump-Höna*, or Greenfooted Fen-Hen, Sw.; *Gallinula Chloropus*, Lath.) was scarce with us. This bird is met with sparingly over a considerable portion of the peninsula. It goes pretty high up; but its limits to the northward are not known. It is common in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Little Crake (*G. pusilla*, Bechst.), though not pertaining to the Scandinavian fauna, belongs, Kjærbölling tells us, to that of Denmark.

The Common Coot (*Sot-Höna*, or Soot-Hen, Sw.; *Fulica atra*, Linn.) is common in the reed-beds near to Gothenburg; but it never came under my observation in the immediate vicinity of Ronnum. It is met with in places throughout the southern and more central parts of both Sweden and Norway, as high up at least, it would seem, as the 64° N. latitude. In Denmark it is common.—Migrates.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE GEESE AND METHODS OF CAPTURING THEM.

THE Grey-Lag, or Wild Goose (*Grå-Gås*, or Grey-Goose, Sw.; *Anser ferus*, Steph.) was common with us during spring and fall, both in the vicinity of Ronnum, and in the neighbouring Skärgård. None of these birds, however, bred, I believe, in our part of Sweden. It is true that I have seen small flocks amongst the islands on the coast, about, or a few days after, Midsummer; but, as M. von Wright, who has there noticed similar flocks, observes, "They probably consisted entirely of males that had been unable to mate themselves; for as well amongst geese, as almost all other birds, especially aquatics, the males are much more numerous than females." Yarrell, on the authority of Mr. Dann, states that: "On the inlets (query islets?) and islands from Bergen northwards, this goose is not uncommon during the summer, particularly about Hitteren, where they are tolerably numerous early in August, and one of our party shot one there, which proved to be a very large gander."

If the inference to be drawn from this is, that the grey-lag goose breeds there, Yarrell is altogether at variance with Nilsson, who distinctly tells us that, as far as Scandinavia is concerned, it only nests, and that sparingly, in the more eastern parts of Sweden—from the northern portion of the province of Scania to about the 61° N. latitude—and never on the western coast of Sweden or Norway, or the interior of the latter country.

This bird (whose proper home Nilsson imagines—as is probably the fact—to be Russia and Siberia), Kjær-bølling informs us, breeds sparingly in Denmark, where, however, it would seem in former times to have been much more abundant.

According to the naturalists quoted in the last paragraph, this species is the parent stock of the domestic goose. Jenyns, I notice, considers this to be highly improbable, for the reason that the common gander, after attaining to a certain age, is invariably white; but though the bean or other goose may be the progenitor of many of the tame geese, there can be little doubt that some of the latter, at least, owe their origin to the grey-lag goose.

The eggs of this bird are described to be from five to eight in number, and of a dirty-white colour, inclining to yellow; they are three inches three lines in length, by two inches two lines in thickness.

The Bean Goose (*Süd-Gås*, or Grain-Goose, Sw.; *A. Segetum*, Steph.) was very abundant in my vicinity during migration, and remained, more especially in the autumn, for a considerable time; but I never heard of its breeding with us. According to Swedish naturalists, it nests in the more northern portion of Scandinavia, particularly amongst the

islands off the western coast of Norway, within and about the polar circle. M. Malm describes it as pretty common in both Enare and Utsjoki Lapmark, where it breeds, he says, on the distant fjäll morasses. "It is remarkable," Nilsson observes, "that this goose is altogether unknown in Siberia, and in a large portion of the immensely extended Russian empire, where the grey-lag goose is so common." In Denmark, as in the more southern parts of Sweden, it is only seen during migration.

The bean goose is tamed with great facility. The following very remarkable instance of its domesticity, as well as affectionate disposition, is given in "The Natural History of Ireland."

"At Springmount, near Clough, a male bean goose, slightly wounded in the wing, was placed with a flock of common geese, from which he at once selected a partner, and thenceforth paid no attention to any others of her sex. He was evidently most unhappy when separated from her, even in winter, and on one occasion was the means of saving her life. The cook being ordered to kill one of the geese, laid hold of the first that came to hand, which happened to be the wild gander's partner; when so remarkably vehement were his cries, that even the uplifted hand of the murderess was stayed, and some members of the family, with others of the household, hurrying to the scene of uproar, the cause of the bird's anxiety was discovered, and the intended victim set at liberty. This was told to me in January, 1838, and no further attempts have since been made on the fair one's life. In November, 1848, they were removed to a new residence, where they continue, apparently as happy as geese can be.

"For several successive years after this pair became asso-

ciated, the goose laid a full complement of eggs, and sat on them even beyond the usual time, the gander keeping company at her side during the interesting period ; but unfortunately, no issue appeared. On a subsequent year, the goose sat closely on an empty nest in the bog, her partner never leaving the immediate vicinity, and guarding her most courageously. To test his courage a person once lifted the goose off the nest, and threw her into the water, when her brave and faithful partner instantly advanced, making a loud hissing noise, and flying to the offender, struck him with his feet and wings with all his might. During the last summer (1849) the goose laid a few eggs, but was too much disturbed by dogs to incubate them long.

“To the calls of his wild brethren passing overhead, the gander habitually replied, and in one instance it was feared he had bade adieu to the place, as he took wing and joined a flock high in the air ; but, after holding a little converse with them, he returned like a true lover to his mate. This gander, perhaps in right of a higher descent than his associates who merely ‘walk the earth,’ at once, when put with the common geese, took the ‘lead of the herd, sometimes numbering fifty or more, always heading them, and keeping about two yards in advance. None of the tame ganders had ever the inclination to dispute the chieftainship with him, and he proved a trustworthy guardian ; as when his associates made an occasional sally into a corn-field, he took his station on the fence, and sounded an alarm when the enemy was seen approaching.”

The White-fronted Goose (*Bläs-Gås*, or White-fronted Goose, Sw. ; *A. albifrons*, Steph.). During spring and fall this bird was pretty common, as well in the vicinity of

Ronnum, as on the neighbouring coast. It passes the summer months in the more northern parts of Scandinavia. M. von Wright and M. Malm describe it as common throughout northern Lapland, where it breeds chiefly in the remote and sequestered tarns and morasses among the fjälls. In Denmark it is very common during migration, especially on the west coast of Jutland and the Duchies. The female is said to lay from four to six eggs, which are yellowish-white in colour.

The Common Bernicle (*Fjäll-Gås*, or Fjäll-Goose, Sw.; *A. Leucopsis*, Bechst.). This bird, as with the bean and white-fronted goose, nests in the far north, though sparingly, as it would seem. M. Malm indeed only met with a single pair (in the summer time) during his sojourn in northern Lapland; whence the inference is that its proper breeding-grounds are in the higher arctic regions. Its eggs are unknown to Northern naturalists.—Migrates.

In parts of Denmark it is pretty common during migration. At Gedsörgaard it has been noticed for many successive years by M. Friis—a careful observer—that in the spring of the year this bird never arrives or departs excepting with a westerly or southerly wind; that in the autumn, on the contrary, it neither comes nor goes unless the wind be from the north or north-east.

“At the end of September, or beginning of October, the common bernicle,” according to Nilsson, “appears on the southern coast of Scania in large flocks, where it feeds not only on sea-weed, but on the oat-stubbles; from which cause it, in that province, is called the *Hafre-Gås*, or oat-geese. When congregated they are very shy, and take wing at the least appearance of danger, but when separate,

they are less afraid; and sometimes one meets with single birds so little apprehensive, that they will permit themselves to be killed with a stick."

The Brent Bernicle (*Prut-Gås*, Sw.; *A. torquatus*, Frisch.). Like other wild geese, this bird was only seen with us, and on the neighbouring coast, during migration; and that, according to M. von Wright, not every year. It passes the summer months in the far north. Swedish naturalists tell us that the greater part probably breed in Lapland and Finmark. But this can hardly be the case; for neither M. Malm nor other travellers make mention of seeing it there at that season. Its proper home is doubtless in countries to the northward and eastward of Scandinavia. On the coasts of the Icy Sea, between the rivers Lena and Covyma, as also at the northern extremity of Kamtschatka, Pallas tells us, it is abundant; and from Holböll we learn that it breeds in Greenland, north of the 73° of latitude. In Denmark it is the most common of the migratory geese. Its eggs are unknown in the peninsula.

During migration, this bird, as with the common bernicle, is seen in large flocks in the more southern parts of Sweden, and that as well in the inland lakes as on the coast. Its cry, which is continually heard when on the wing, consists of a deep murmuring sound, and hence its Swedish designation. It is described as being little shy, and easy of approach.

"In Holland formerly," Kjærbölling tells us, "the belief prevailed that the brent bernicle was not engendered by eggs in the same manner as other birds, but by a cirrhiped—a marine testaceous animal (*Lepas anatifera*, Linn.); but Barenz, a Dutch navigator, who visited Spitzbergen in the year 1595, where he met with immense numbers of these

birds, together with their eggs, dispossessed the minds of his countrymen of this idle notion.”

The Red-breasted Bernicle (*Röd-halsad Gås*, or Red-necked Goose, Sw.; *A. ruficollis*, Pall.) is very rare in Scandinavia. It has never been seen there but during migration, and in very few instances captured. Two specimens, however, are preserved in the museum at Lund, both said to have been killed in Scania. In Denmark it is also exceedingly rare.

The proper home of this bird would seem to be the north-western parts of Siberia, where, according to Pallas, it breeds in large numbers in the morasses and lakes of the line of country bordering on the Icy Sea. At the end of August it migrates, and passes the winter months in the more southern parts of the Russian empire. It keeps in large flocks, and is never seen alone. These flocks never alight but in open and extended fields, and are extremely wary. They fly during the night, at which times they are taken by means of nets in a manner that will presently be described. Many are retained in confinement by the inhabitants of the towns for the beauty of their plumage; and though naturally shy, they become in a few days perfectly tame. But they seldom live longer than over the first winter, for on the approach of spring they usually pine away and die. The eggs of this bird are unknown to Swedish naturalists.

The above-named six species of geese are all that, up to the present time, are included in the Scandinavian fauna. Kjærbølling, however, speaks of no fewer than four other kinds, which by his account visit Denmark occasionally during migration—viz. :

The *Anser hyperboreus*, Pall. (*Snee-Gaas*, or Snow-Goose,

Dan.), remarkable, as its Danish name would denote, for its white colour, whose proper home is in the north-eastern parts of Asia and North America, seen on one or two occasions on the western coast of Jutland; the *A. brevirostris*, Brehm. (*Kort-næbet Blis-Gaas*, or Short-billed White-fronted Goose, Dan.), of which several specimens, captured also on the Jutlandic coast, came under his notice; the *A. minutus*, Naum. (*Dværg-Gaas*, or Dwarf-Goose, Dan.), one of the prettiest and smallest of the goose family, breeding in countries to the north and north-east, for instance in Lapland and Russia, which he describes as exceedingly rare in Denmark, and of which he says many skins, and even some living specimens, have been sent of late years from Lapland to Germany; and the *A. arvensis*, Brehm. (*Ager-Gaas*, or Field-Goose, Dan.)—in appearance much resembling the bean goose, with which it often is confounded—which is, he says, pretty common in Denmark, and has been known to pair and have produce with the domestic goose.

One or other of these geese—probably the *A. brevirostris*, Brehm.—answers, it is to be presumed, to the pink-footed goose (*A. brachyrhynchus*; Baillon) of English naturalists; but it is perhaps questionable if even this bird be a separate species. Pink-coloured feet, and a short bill, are said to be its distinguishing marks. The legs of more than one kind of goose, if I mistake not, incline to a pink colour; and should the shortness of the bill be the only character to be relied on, it amounts to little; for difference of latitude, where animals breed, often causes them to vary in size and appearance. It is not granted that because a man happens to have a somewhat squat nose, that he is a distinct species of the genus *homo*.

In certain districts in Scandinavia, where wild geese either breed, or abound during migration, they are looked upon as very injurious to the agriculturists. This is the case as well in the spring as in the fall, at both of which seasons they visit the cultivated fields in large flocks. In the former they devour and trample down the young rye, as well as pluck up the newly-sown grain; and in the latter commit much havoc amongst the standing corn. In some places they are also complained of as doing very considerable damage to the pastures.

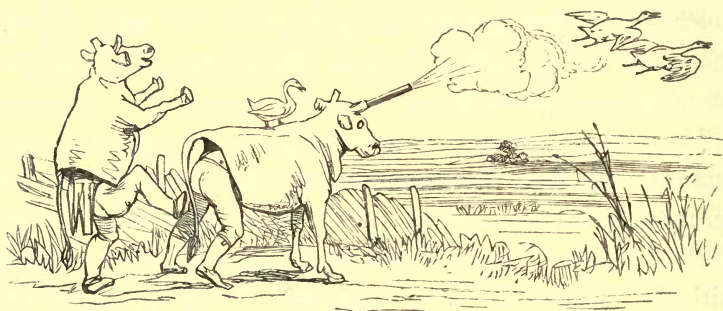
Many devices are had recourse to in the peninsula to capture wild geese. In Lapland they are taken during the spring in steel-traps. These are set near to natural openings in the ice, where the birds are known to resort, and baited with the roots of the river horse-tail (*Equisetum fluviatile*, Linn.), or of the *Ranunculus aquatilis*, Linn.

When feeding in stubble-fields, or elsewhere, wild geese are also not unfrequently shot with the assistance of a stalking-horse; and if the animal be well trained, great execution may thus at times be done. But in lieu of a steed, a so-called *Skjut-Ko*, or shooting-cow, is made use of.

"Such a one," M. Greiff tells us, "is composed of strong canvas, in the form of a cow, and painted brown. For its easier transport it is rolled up, and when used is distended by means of several sticks. One of these is placed lengthwise, and one in each leg; and there is besides an unattached stick, which serves to support the *Skjut-Ko* when placed on the ground. At the shoulder there is a hole for the protrusion of the gun-barrel.

"On a particular occasion," he goes on to say, "I made one of hoops and sticks, and covered it with canvas, so

that it was hollow, and the Jägare could creep into it. The gun constituted one of the horns, and the Jägare's feet the hind-legs of the cow; but it was difficult to carry it when fences and the like intervened; and as one was always obliged to walk in a stooping posture, the fatigue of getting along in it was very considerable."



THE SKJUT-KO.

The above humorous sketch, from the pencil of M. von Dardel, gives no bad idea of the device in question.

But the greatest destruction made among wild geese, and other aquatic birds, is probably during the moulting season. In Lapland this usually begins about the middle of July, and continues for some three weeks; but its commencement and duration much depend on the state of the weather; for if the summer be cold and rainy, it begins later and lasts longer. Whilst moulting, the geese seldom frequent the great lakes, but resort for the most part to the numerous small tarns studding the face of that desolate country. In the night time the moulting fowl are much in the water, but during the day they are generally ashore, and often at a

considerable distance away from the strand, seeking their food, or reposing among the tussocks in the neighbouring bogs and morasses.

“At this season,” so we are told by Lieutenant F. Robson, “the Finnish *ny-byggare*, or squatters, as well as the Lapps, get up regular hunts. Provided with several dogs, they proceed to the morasses where geese are known to resort, which, although frequently very wet and difficult to traverse, are not impassable. Fire-arms are needless, it being considered superfluous to waste powder and shot when the birds may be obtained without; the men therefore are only equipped with stout sticks. When arrived at the scene of action, the dogs are slipped from their couplings, and start the birds, whose only means of escape is by reaching the nearest water. Should they succeed in this, they commonly manage to get off; but should they not be so fortunate, the dogs soon come up with them, and by a bite in the head or neck, presently put them out of their misery. In the meanwhile the sportsman, with his stick, kills such as he falls in with. But as on these occasions the birds retreat very quickly, he would have much difficulty in overtaking them if he did not, during the chase, proceed on the principle of never running directly after, but alongside of and past them, and as if not aware of their presence; in which case they, believing themselves unobserved, squat at once, and conceal themselves in the grass, where they remain entirely motionless, so that one may go directly up to the spot, and secure them with the hand.

“The wild geese often lie so close as to suffer themselves to be wounded and mangled by the dogs, without giving the least signs of life; but swans, and even geese, will neverthe-

less at times place themselves on the defensive, for which reason large dogs are used. As these, however, only kill the birds, and are not taught to retrieve, it may easily happen that the sportsman, after the termination of the hunt, and when collecting the birds, has great difficulty to find them in the high and thick grass.

“The summer of 1827 was not a successful one; but during the preceding year the inhabitants of Killinge, in the parish of Gellivaara, thus captured, of wild geese alone, upwards of sixty.”

Again: “When one meets with the large geese in the moulting season in the mountain lakes,” writes Læstadius, “and that a boat be not at hand, one may drive them to the shore either by casting of stones, or by swimming. In the year 1828, here in Karesuando, upwards of one hundred wild geese were killed by several squatters, in a remote and sequestered lake.”

The Reverend gentleman tells us farther, “that whilst moulting, the geese make long pedestrian excursions from one lake or tarn, to another; and that in the autumn of 1821, a Lapp knocked five of these birds on the head at the summit of the well-known fjäll, Sulitelma.”

“The hunts after wild geese,” says the Major Count Jakob Hamilton, who writes from the province of Småland, where some few of the *Anser ferus* breed, “usually take place about the 28th of June. At that period the old birds have lost their wing-feathers, and the young cannot fly. As geese are very wary and shy, it is difficult to come within shot of them. The most successful plan is either at a late hour of the evening, or at an early one in the morning, to lie in ambush at a favourable spot on the strand, and await

their coming. One then makes use of a gun of large calibre; and when the flock after the first discharge is scattered, dogs are slipped and pursue them. The young then commonly take refuge on the shore, where they can be easily overtaken and captured by the dogs. One can often in the course of the day, if the Jagt be well arranged, bag from thirty to forty geese."

But a still simpler plan of capturing wild geese in the moulting season is adopted in Pomerania—formerly an appendage to the Swedish Crown—which, from its ingenuity, is worthy of description.

"On the isle of Ruden, situated over against Wolgast," so we read in 'Johannis Micrælii Antiquitates Pomeraniæ,' 1725, "there is excellent Jagt to be had after wild geese. During Whitsuntide, when those birds begin to moult,* and consequently, from their inability to fly, cannot avoid, except by diving, the eagles and hawks, they are constrained to remain the whole day in the water. But in the night time, on the contrary, they must of necessity repair to the land to seek their food. In the evening, therefore, nets are laid flat along the shore, and covered with sand, to conceal them from view; but after the geese have, in all innocence, passed over the nets, these are placed upright, and the birds driven towards them; and as they cannot fly over them, they soon become entangled in the meshes, and are quickly knocked on the head with sticks. In this manner forty, fifty, or more, are killed in a single night."

"In Siberia," we are told by Pallas, "the Cossacks, the Tartars, and other nomade tribes, after the harvest is got

* The process of moulting is there called *Ruden*; and it is from this circumstance that the island has derived its name.

in, capture quantities of wild geese (chiefly the *A. ruficollis*, as it would seem), by means of nets.

“A lake is selected, which on one side at least is surrounded by birch wood; the geese prefer such as are sheltered from high winds, for the reason that they are more in quiet, and find a greater abundance of food. Every morning before sunrise, the birds repair to the fields to feed, but return in the evening to the water, there to bathe and pass the night. When their flight is ascertained, a passage of some sixty feet in width is cut through the woods, which should neither be close, nor consist of old trees. If several lakes lie contiguous to each other, a communication is thus formed between the whole of them; and as geese from preference at all times fly low, they soon accustom themselves, in their daily excursions, to make use of these artificial vistas.

“The length of the net is proportionate to the breadth of the opening, and its depth is from fifteen to twenty feet. It is composed of strong twine, the meshes being about one foot in diameter. It is suspended between two birch trees—the one on either side of the vista—that have been previously divested of their branches, and at no great distance from the water’s edge. When the net is set—which, owing to the very early flight of the birds, is generally effected over night—it reaches to within five or six feet of the ground, where, as a protection against storms, it is fastened by several small sticks. Long hand-lines are attached to the upper part of the net, so that the men who work it may be enabled to keep at some distance from it.

“As the geese are on the move very soon after daybreak, and whilst it is still nearly dark, they do not perceive the

peril, but continue their headlong course, until they suddenly find their long necks inserted in the meshes. Retreat is, however, then too late; for at that instant the hand-lines are let go, and net and geese fall together to the ground, where the birds soon become so entangled, as to render escape impossible. The men are now quickly on the spot, and by a sleight-of-hand, acquired by long practice, twist their necks in no time. Twenty or thirty geese are thus oft-times taken at a single haul, and a day seldom passes without few or many being captured.

“Independently of the several kinds of geese, all of which are very excellent eating, many species of water-fowl are caught on these occasions. After the morning’s work is over, the net itself is removed; but the hand-lines, by which it is suspended to the trees, are allowed to remain in their place, as indeed is the case so long as the season for the taking of fowl continues.”

At times wild geese make captives of themselves in a very curious way. M. Malm mentioned an instance to this effect that occurred in the year 1841, at Laxmanså, the residence of his uncle, near to Lund, in Scania.

“It was just at the period,” he said, “that the wild geese were returning to Scandinavia from foreign lands, at which time, however, they seldom alighted and rested in our part of the province, but continued their course to the northward. A lofty fence, or pallsade, surrounded the small enclosure before the house, and on this several tame geese were running at large. When these hear the cries of their wild brethren overhead, they usually respond to it; and this, coupled with the atmosphere being at the time misty and lowering, was, beyond doubt, the cause of what happened.

“On some of the servants looking out of the windows, they noticed a great increase to our own flock of geese, and as they knew the gates were shut, they felt some surprise, and went out of doors to ascertain who and what were the new arrivals. But they had hardly entered the enclosure, when a great commotion ensued amongst the geese, many of which took wing, and attempted to fly away. All these were wild geese (*Anser Segetum*). The tame ones ran backwards and forwards, and from their actions it was evident they would gladly have followed the example of their guests; but to this the muscles of their wings, as a natural consequence of their being domesticated, were totally unequal. Nor had even the wild geese, wearied by their long flight, and from the space being so confined, the power to rise above the pallisades. The one flew here, the other there, sometimes knocking their heads against the fence, and at others against the sides of the house, whence they fell backwards to the ground; and being at length quite exhausted, they were all—nineteen in number—captured by the hand. They were afterwards put into coops, and fattened; and when finally slaughtered, they assisted in no small degree in provisioning the household.”

CHAPTER XXIV.

THE SWANS—GREAT HUNTS, AND OTHER DEVICES ADOPTED TO EFFECT THEIR DESTRUCTION.

THE Whistling Swan, or Hooper (*Vild Swan*, or Wild Swan, Sw.; *Cygnus ferus*, Ray), was exceedingly common with us during spring and fall, when on its way to or from its breeding-grounds in the far north. Some indeed usually remained with us the whole winter, and so did numbers on the neighbouring coast. It is common in Denmark during spring and fall, and many winter there.

During migration, the well-known voice of this bird is often heard in the air above, or on the water. Though it consists of but two notes, yet if the day be clear, in the early part of the winter, or in fine weather during spring, it is beautifully melodious; more especially—as frequently happens—when birds of different ages, whose notes differ, take part in the concert. Some think that in the distance their song resembles the finer tones of the bugle. Kjærbølling likens it

to the sound of distant church-bells; and adds that, in calm weather, it may be heard at more than a Danish ($4\frac{2}{3}$ English) mile's distance. In the south of Sweden, if the hooper is heard somewhat soon in the autumn, people say it portends an early and severe winter; but if shortly after the turn of the winter, that spring is near at hand.

The hooper is a very hardy bird, and ice, rather than cold, would seem to cause it to migrate from the northern regions to more genial climes. This is evidenced by the fact that many winter annually off the coast of Finmark—that is, beyond the polar circle where, however, it should be remembered the water, owing, as some will have it, to the influence of the gulf-stream, never freezes.* I myself indeed have met with the hooper on the southern coast of Norway, in the depth of a very severe winter, when the Cattegat was so full of ice, that we were unable to make the passage to

* "The swan," says Pontoppidan, "is a stranger in this climate, and is properly no Norwegian bird, and therefore is never seen in the east country, where the rivers are always frozen up in the winter; but on the western side, where I have observed that the winters are much milder than in Denmark, or many parts of Germany, and where the sea is always open and unfrozen, there are swans, particularly in Sundfiord, near Svane Gaard, and thereabouts, though not in any great number; for they are but the offspring of some few stragglers, which the severe winters of 1709 and 1740 in particular, drove hither to seek for open waters; at which time the cold was so severe, that even in France the sentinels died on their posts, the vines were killed by the frost, and the birds dropped down dead out of the air; the whole Baltic Sea was at that time frozen over, so that people travelled from Copenhagen to Dantzic upon the ice as secure as if they travelled on land; but all the salt waters in this country were then open. God's wonderful providence brought us at that time many water-fowls, before unknown to us, and among them swans. This must appear marvellous to a philosopher, who would certainly never be persuaded to look for fluid water in the north, when it was frozen in the south."

Gothenburg. And if the bays and inlets be not entirely frozen over—as is seldom the case—astounding numbers pass the whole winter off the western coast of Sweden; where, in many places, the water is shallow, and the birds, in consequence, have facility in procuring their food, at that time consisting almost solely of sea-weed. Mr. Richard Dann, whose estate, Tjölöholm, is situated in $57^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude, writes me that in February, 1846, he, with his telescope, counted in Kongsbacka fjord alone, upwards of five hundred hoopers. . . . “So long as they can get their necks to the ground,” he goes on to say, “they remain; but when the shoals become frozen over, they must of necessity move off to other places.”

Even should the sea be generally congealed, and the larger portion of the birds necessitated to retire elsewhere, “very many,” according to M. von Wright, “still remain in the strong currents outside of the island of Oroust, which, let the weather be ever so severe, are never covered with ice. Here one commonly sees from a single pair to twenty or thirty in company.”

In the rapids of the Gotha, near to Ronnum, the hooper at times also remained throughout even severe winter; and the like is the case in Insjön, a large lake formed by the Östra Dal-Elf, in Eastern Dalecarlia, which, owing to the strength of the current, is never entirely frozen over. In places this lake is so shallow that the swans, without diving, can with facility procure their food; and here about one hundred winter annually. “If they are alarmed,” we are told, “they will fly up, but presently settle down again on the ice in the vicinity; but when the cause of disturbance is removed, they return to the open water. They are very

little molested by sportsmen, and years may pass without any of them being shot. These birds, it is believed, never proceed farther to the southward than the lake in question. Towards the setting in of the winter, they come from the north; and at the breaking up of the frost in the spring, they direct their flight in the same direction."

From personal observation I can also testify to the hardihood of the hooper, two of which I once had for near a year in my own possession; for however severe the weather might be, they appeared not to suffer in the slightest degree. Nor could I at such times, except by compulsion, get them under cover, which under the like circumstances the mute swan seems glad to seek.

Unfortunately I never noted down the exact period when the hooper migrated to the southward, or when, on its return, it bent its course for Lapland; but this would have been in degree useless, as regarded the autumn at least, because so much depended on the state of the weather; for if the frost set in unusually soon, this bird appeared early, and if late, the reverse. Mr. Dann, however, paid attention to this matter, for in his communication to me he says: "They (the hoopers) leave me to a day in the spring. I have marked their departure for three successive years—namely, on the 15th of April. In the afternoon of that day they fly in large circles, and in flocks of from twenty to thirty, around the bay that they frequent the most during the winter, and then fly inland, steering east by north."

M. von Wright tells us something to the like effect. "The larger portion migrate from hence (Oroust) in April, almost always in a north-easterly direction; they commonly fly low, and in larger or smaller flocks. One often at these

times sees two old birds, accompanied by two to four young ones, which evidently constitute a family."

The food of the hooper, during the summer months, when in its breeding-grounds, consists principally of aquatic plants and insects; but when stern winter necessitates it to desert the lakes and rivers of the interior, and to betake itself to salt water, its food is confined almost altogether, as said, to sea-weed.

Bewick states the weight of the hooper to be sixteen pounds, and Yarrell twenty-four. But when unexhausted by long migratory flights, and when unharassed by sportsmen, its weight is more considerable than even the highest of these estimates. Mr. Dann killed one weighing twenty-seven pounds, and M. von Wright speaks of their attaining to the same weight. M. Malm assured me, indeed, that he himself had seen a hooper shot in Scania that weighed no less than thirty-six Swedish, or upwards of thirty-four English pounds (?).

The hooper, except during migration, or in the winter time, is never met with in the more southern parts of Scandinavia. Its home during the summer, so far as the peninsula is concerned, is in the wilds and wastes of Lapland, more especially in the more eastern parts of that desolate country. Here it makes its appearance early in the spring; at times, it is asserted, in the month of March.

Nilsson says the males arrive first; but this M. von Wright thinks extraordinary, "because the swans often take their departure from the coast in separate families;—and what, therefore becomes," he pertinently asks, "of the females and young?" But from the waters generally being at that early season fast bound in the iron chains of winter, they are

for a while confined to natural openings in the ice, caused by springs and currents, then to be found everywhere in rivers and lakes. As the season advances, however, and the ice disappears, they separate in pairs, and retire to the more sequestered of the mountain lakes and morasses.

They make their nests, which are of a very large size, in May or June, either on a floating tuft of grass in the water itself, or on the strand hard by. The female lays six to seven eggs, of a yellowish-white colour, somewhat shorter and thicker than those of the mute swan. The period of incubation is about six weeks, during which the male, though he does not actually assist in the process, often sits alongside of his mate in the nest; the chicks are hatched in the beginning of July.

The hooper, though by nature a shy bird, may, if taken young, be easily domesticated. Bechstein informs us that in parts of Russia one finds it in a state of domesticity more commonly than even the mute swan; and Linnæus that, at the residence of the Governor of the province at Calix, he saw three of those birds, which having been captured at a tender age, were as tame as domestic geese. It has bred with us in England, as known, both in the Zoological Gardens, Regent's Park, and with the late Earl of Derby at Knowsley, and possibly also in other places.

Unless the hooper be taken young, however, it is not, I imagine, easily tamed. Those in my possession, at least—and they had previously been in confinement for two years or upwards—it was impossible thoroughly to domesticate. In fact they were always shy of people, and their efforts to escape from the pond where they were kept, were incessant. This was more noticeable during the period of migration,

when instinct, and the cries of their wild brethren overhead, told them they should be off to other latitudes.

M. von Wright, who had also two domesticated hoopers, says: "Neither of them shed the wing- or the tail-feathers oftener than every other year, possibly in consequence of their being in confinement. Both were perfectly mute from the time they lost the old wing-feathers until the new ones had replaced them. This is the case with all the ducks, for none of them whilst shedding the wing-feathers will utter the least cry, unless their lives be in great jeopardy. All the wing-feathers of the hooper are shed within twenty-four hours; but moulting, as regards the body-feathers, goes on without cessation the whole year round; so that, even during the most severe part of the winter, one always finds at least an odd blood-feather, more especially with younger birds. The hooper when in the water does not carry its wings elevated in like manner as the mute swan; it is only very little, indeed, that it raises them over its back, somewhat more, however, when it is angry, and then in such wise that a furrow, the breadth of one's hand, and extending the whole length of the back, is formed between them."

In Sweden, as with us in England (always excepting the cygnets), no great value, so far as the larder is concerned, is set upon the hooper, or other swan. But such would not seem to be the case in all countries. "Though I must acknowledge that the flesh of the swan cannot be classed amongst delicacies," says a German author, "I have nevertheless found that when cold, and with the addition of mustard, it is not to be despised. When salted, or smoked, it is excellent in cabbage-soup. As the swan, for the most part, subsists on aquatic plants and worms — and never,

as people erroneously imagine, on fish—the flesh has not the slightest oily taste.” Though a tough old swan and cabbage may be *Kung's-mat*, or king's-food—as the Swedish peasants say of anything specially good—for a German stomach, I am very doubtful if our epicures would willingly agree to the doctrine.

Had I been properly appointed, some good swan-shooting might have been had at Ronnum, as well during the winter time in the rapids immediately near to the house, as during migration, when those birds not only frequently alighted in the neighbouring lakes, but remained there for a considerable time. But having no proper gun, I never thought it worth while to go regularly in pursuit of them. Apparently they were not very difficult of approach, and evinced much less fear than many other kinds of water-fowl.

“On the neighbouring coast,” M. von Wright tells us, “a good many are shot during the winter time, either when on the ice, or in the open water. In the former case it often happens that the sportsman, with the aid of a horse and sledge, is enabled to approach within rifle-shot; and in the latter, the bird allows itself to be driven towards the spot where one is ambushed. This must be done cautiously, however, and against the wind, for if the contrary, the bird will rather take wing when a long way off, than be driven down the wind.”

In other parts of Sweden many hoopers also fall to the gun. Near to Christianstad in Scania, by which town flows a pretty broad river, upwards of one hundred were shot, M. Malm told me, one particular winter. Speaking generally, however, and considering their numbers, these birds are not nearly so much sought after in Scandinavia as one might

have expected; no doubt partly for the reason that, at the present day, their skins are of comparatively little value, and partly because the flesh is in no great request for the table. Happily for the poor hooper and other aquatics, the punt-gun is at present all but unknown in the peninsula; for were it in general use, the destruction amongst them would be ten times greater than at present.

Though very many of these birds are shot in Scandinavia, both during migration and in the winter time, it is probable the greater number are slaughtered in their breeding-grounds in the far north.

In Lapland, in the spring of the year, when the bird first arrives from more southern climes, it is often, like wild geese, captured by means of gins or steel-traps, which are placed near to natural openings in the ice. These are baited with such aquatic plants, or their roots, to which the hooper is known to be partial. Many at that time are also shot with the rifle, or fowling-piece; and if there be snow on the ground, as is generally the case for some time after their arrival, the fowler draws a white sheet over his usual attire, and is thus much more readily enabled to approach them. In the autumn, again, many are in that country destroyed whilst moulting.

But though this bird escapes pretty well in Scandinavia, it would seem to be not a little persecuted in some of the neighbouring countries.

“The hooper,” so we read, “comes from the north in the autumn to the inland lakes of Pomerania. In the day time, when these birds keep at a distance from the shore, it is difficult to approach them; but at night, when they come nearer, and fly backwards and forwards, and often

very close to the ground, one may with tolerable facility steal within range and shoot them. When the lakes are frozen over, the swans resort in great numbers to openings in the ice, caused by springs and currents. Immediately near to these holes, the sportsman constructs a sort of hut with boughs, loads his gun with large shot, or small slugs, and lies in ambush at sunset. The swans, on their arrival, make circles around the hut, become by degrees less fearful of it, and at length settle in the open water. The sportsman allows them to swim about and amuse themselves for a while, and then fires into the flock; but after discharging his gun he must remain quiet in his place of concealment. The whole flock utter piercing cries; those that are not disabled take wing, but are often so bewildered, especially during the night time, as to cast themselves down on the smooth ice, from which they can with difficulty rise. The cries of the wounded after a time lure them back again; and they scramble forward along the ice, that they may come to the opening, where they are saluted with a fresh salvo. The bewilderment of the birds is hereby greatly increased, which gives the sportsman time to fire a shot or two more before the rest have succeeded in making good their retreat. That moonlight is very desirable on these occasions is self-evident; but it is nevertheless seldom that the night is so obscure that one cannot, against the dark ice, see and take certain aim at the white birds. At length the sportsman creeps forth from his hiding-place, puts off in a punt, that during the preceding day he has forced through the ice, or drawn along its surface to the opening, collects the booty, which is often considerable, lays it upon a sledge, and proceeds with it, as well pleased as he is frozen, to his home."

“Another method of hunting swans,” we learn from the same authority, “is much more advantageous than the one mentioned, but can seldom be resorted to, because it is absolutely needful the first frost should set in with calm weather, so that the water is only covered with a thin crust of ice. When this is the case, the birds are accustomed to crowd together in close masses, thereby to keep the water around them open, which they effect by constantly swimming backwards and forwards in all directions. This is a hint to those who reside on the shore of the lake, to arrange a regular hunt. Several punts, properly manned, are with facility forced through the thin ice to the spot where the swans are congregated. The birds, so soon as they see the approach of the enemy, press commonly into a corner, from whence they seek to take wing; but it is too late, for the reason, as one knows, that swans when about to fly are first obliged as well to run on the surface of the water, as to strike it with their wings, that they may get the air under them; for now having, instead of water beneath them, only ice before them, which breaks at every blow of their pinions, this cannot be effected; so that, after many fruitless endeavours, they at length lie helpless amongst the fragments of ice. When all the birds are in this manner set fast as it were, the fowlers must so manœuvre the punts, that the swans be surrounded and driven together into the centre of the opening. Should this precaution be neglected, and the attack proceed from only one quarter, they will force their way through the ice in an opposite direction to that of the punts, until they reach the shore, and once on *terra firma*, they immediately take wing. When fairly hemmed in, they are knocked on the head with sticks. It often

happens the discomfiture is so complete on these occasions, that very few escape with life; and only he that has been present can form an idea of the noise and clamour which take place during such a hunt.

“When the frost is of such severity,” we are further informed, “that the lakes become altogether frozen over, the swans leave the coast of Pomerania, and direct their flight more to the westward or southward. Some of them, however, would not appear to fly very far; for so soon as a partial thaw sets in, and the lakes become open in places, those birds reappear, though not in such large numbers as in the spring and autumn. Some people have the incorrect notion that this return of the swans is a certain sign of the near approach of spring. At the utmost, however, their reappearance only portends a longer continuance of mild weather; for it is a matter of common occurrence, that on the renewal of severe frost they are obliged to migrate a second time.”

The Mute Swan (*Tam Swan*, or Tame Swan, Sw.; *C. Clor*, Steph.) is confined to the most southern parts of Sweden, and as it would seem, almost altogether to the vicinity of Falsterbo Reef, so well known to Baltic navigators, which is situated at the southern extremity of Scania. Very many of the hoopers, as said, remain in the peninsula, or on the coast, even during the most severe winters; but not so the mute swan, for at the setting in of the frost, or even before, one and all, as it is believed, take their departure for more genial climes.

Nilsson says the mute swan breeds, though sparingly, in the south of Sweden. This may have happened formerly; but from the increase of culture, and the density of the

population, I feel extremely doubtful, from inquiries made on the spot, as to this being the case at the present day. Half-domesticated birds—such as ours in England—may certainly nest in Scania, but not genuine wild ones.

Neither do any numbers breed in the Danish dominions. In bygone days, according to Kjærbölling, a good many did so in Jutland; but of late years only a few stragglers nest there, and those confine themselves to particular localities.

But admitting that a few mute swans do breed in Sweden, still the paucity of their numbers will not account for the large flocks annually seen on the Scanian coast. From whence do all these birds come? This is a question that has often been asked, but to which no one is able to give a satisfactory reply.

In answer to my inquiries at Falsterbo, and in the vicinity, one and all of the fishermen assured me that the mute swans make their appearance there about Midsummer, and generally in flocks of from ten to twelve; that all are white, or nearly so, and that they invariably come from the eastward. Putting things together, therefore, it may be fairly inferred, as it seems to me, that they are all either old birds, or birds of the second year, and that the eastern shores of the Baltic, or countries still further to the eastward, are their proper homes.

The mute swan is a much less hardy bird than the hooper—which, as said, is not in any manner affected by the cold—and apparently suffers considerably during severe weather. This was remarkably exemplified in two very fine old male birds—captured when adults several years before—that for a long period came almost daily under my notice; for when the cold was unusually great, they would,

of their own accord, waddle one hundred paces or more from the pond in which they usually dwelt, and in which a hole in the ice was always kept open, to an outhouse in the stable-yard appropriated to their use; and here, moreover, they would remain as well during the day as the night, until such time as the temperature became milder.

These birds, their owner informed me, were the best of barometers; for on the approach of great cold they, without waiting for its actual arrival, would retreat to their shed. And the coming of a thaw, on the contrary, might with equal certainty be calculated upon by their movements; for before the frost was really gone, they would retrace their steps to the water.

The mute swan is also much less shy by nature than the hooper. Several instances have come under my personal observation, where wild birds of this species, taken at a mature age, have soon become reconciled to captivity. We read, indeed, that "when adults have been made prisoners, and pinioned, they make no attempt to fly away, although the aperture in the ice occupied by them, and near to which their food is placed, be not much larger than to enable them to turn round." In the more southern parts of Sweden one everywhere meets with the mute swan in a state of domestication, and very few of the domains of the magnates are without these ornaments.

With us in England the mute swan is a sort of privileged bird—witness the preserves in the Thames, the Severn, and elsewhere. In Sweden also, as regards certain districts—and they are the only ones where it is found—it is also privileged. This is within the Government of Malmö, where no person but the Governor, of whose revenues the mute swan forms a

part, or his deputy, is allowed to destroy it. Formerly when swan-skin pelisses and muffs were the fashion, and that toupees, which required an immense number of powder-puffs, were worn, swan-skins* were as valuable as those of the fox; and from producing the Governor a considerable revenue, these birds were much sought after. But now that the articles enumerated are pretty much laid aside, swans are of comparatively little value, and at this day they are captured nearly as much for amusement as emolument.

In the olden time—in the palmy days of powder-puffs, &c.—several grand battues were annually got up, in the moulting season, for the capture of the mute swan; but now seldom more than one regular hunt takes place within the year. It was my fortune to be present on one of these occasions; but though we saw a good many birds, yet owing to the hunt having been put off too long, and until they had finished moulting, it proved all but a total failure. As nevertheless a swan-hunt is somewhat of a novel kind of thing, a few details, partly the result of my own observation, and partly gathered from the Count Corfitz Beckfriis, with whom I was a visitor, and who commanded the hunt in which I took part, may not be without interest.

In the day time, it may be proper to observe, the swans most commonly keep the open sea; but towards evening they make for the bays and inlets, for the purpose of feeding in the shallows; and it is in these bays that the great hunts in question take place.

As with Skalls for wild beasts, the peasants—in the Government of Malmö at least—are compelled by law to

* In bygone days the broad feet, or rather legs of the swan, after being stretched and dried, were converted into candlesticks.

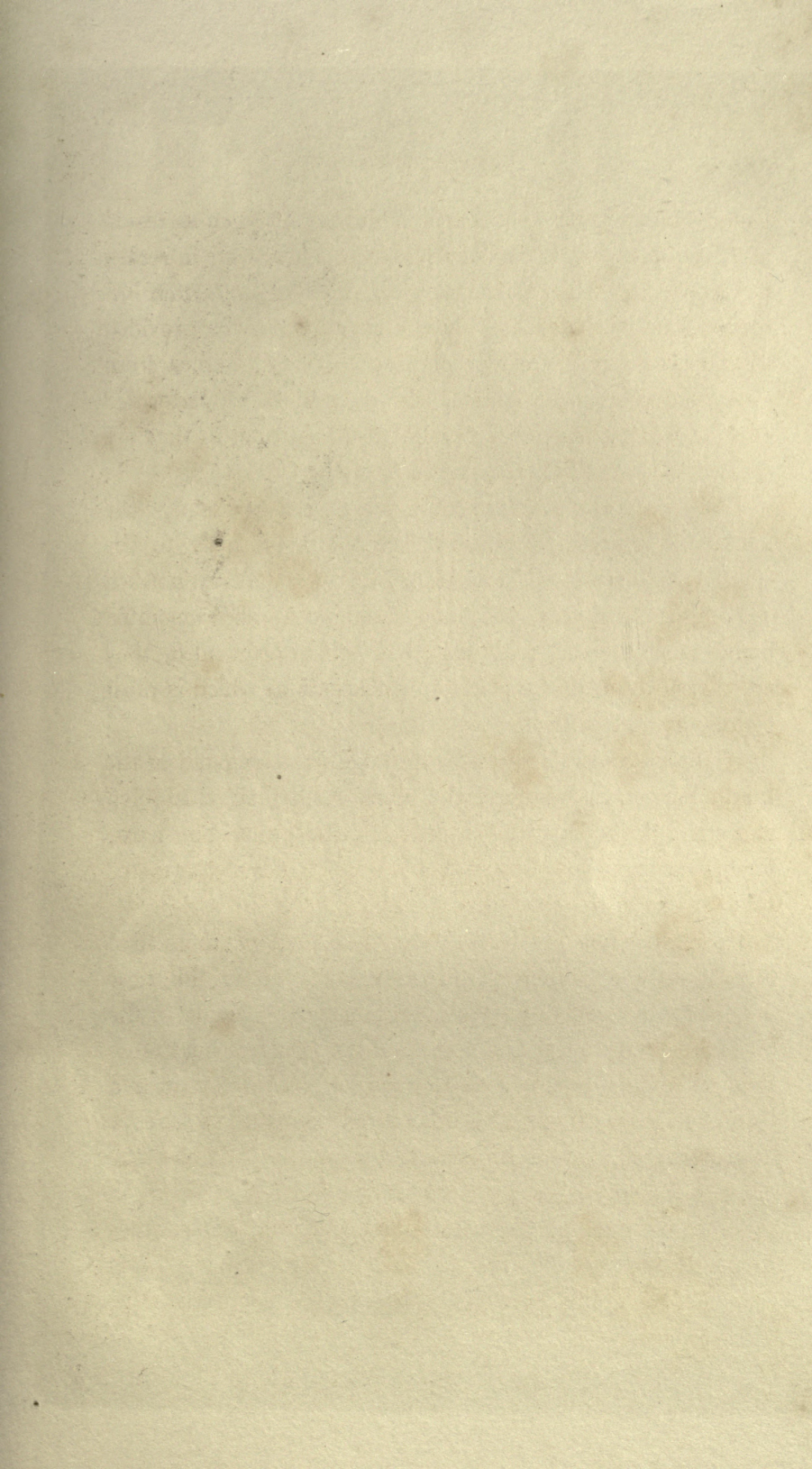
lend a hand on these occasions, or rather only such as reside at *Fisk-Lügen*, or fishing-stations, along the coast; in return for which, and other public services, they enjoy certain immunities and privileges. These men must also be provided with boats suitable for the purpose. If the distance from their homes be inconsiderable, the duty must be performed at their own expense; but if called from a distance, they are entitled to some little recompense from the Crown.

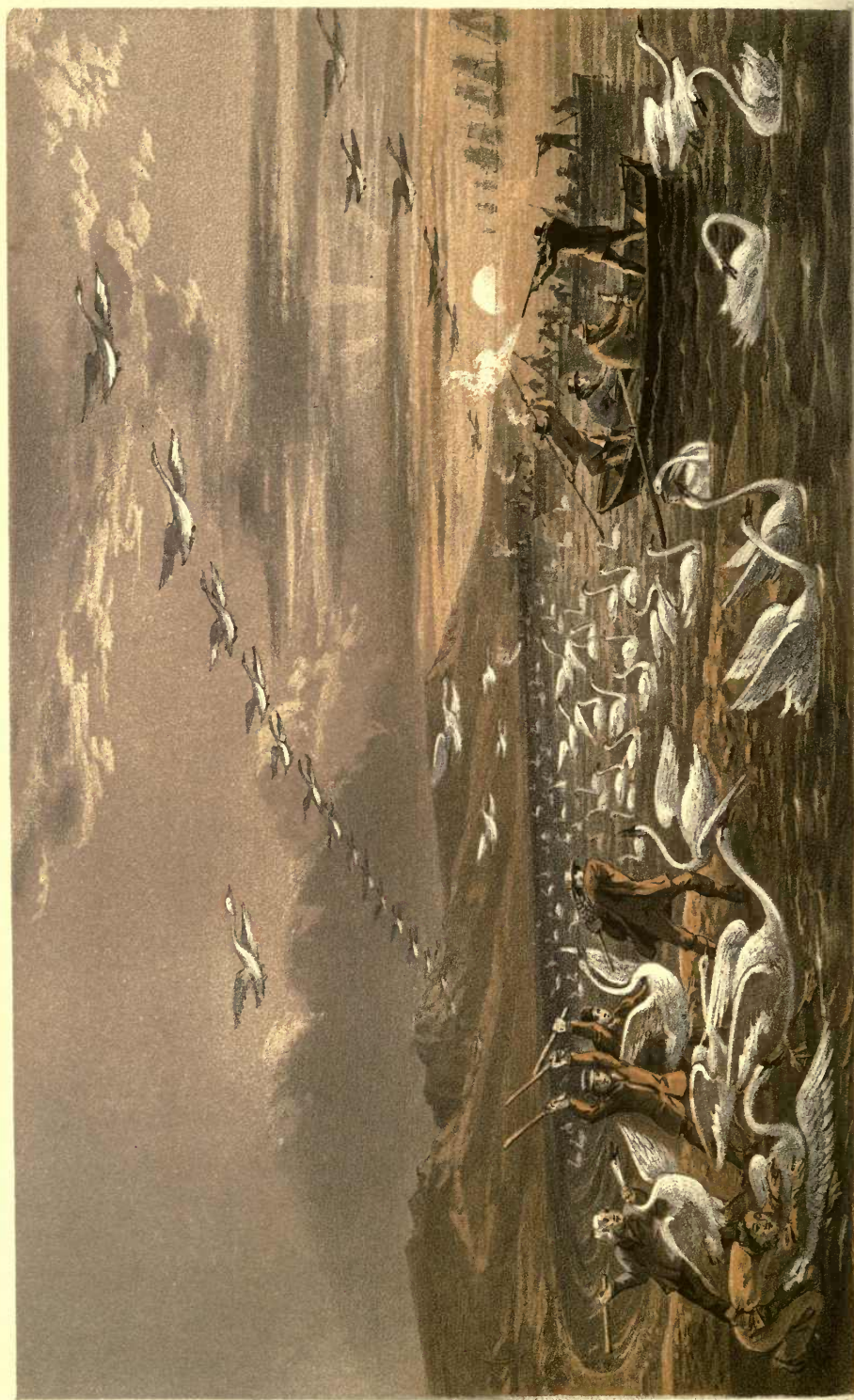
The day and the place of rendezvous (frequently the hamlet of Kämpinge, situated about twenty miles to the south of the town of Malmö) having been publicly notified some time previously, the men assemble at the appointed hour, usually about midnight; and when marshalled, they are marched off to the place of embarkation, which is most commonly near at hand.

If the Governor be present, he takes the command of the hunt; but in his absence, the *Kron-Fogde*, or chief civil authority of the district—at least, of the people on shore; for the management of those in the water is usually entrusted to some one of the sportsmen present.

Formerly, when the hunts were in their glory, more than forty boats were present on these occasions, but at this time only between twenty and thirty are mustered. Some of the boats are pretty large, but in general they will not hold more than six men—namely, four to row, each man his oar, and two, provided with guns, or other implements of capture or destruction, one of whom is stationed in the bow, and the other in the stern-sheets.

When the men are embarked—an operation not at all times conducted with the needful silence—and everything is duly arranged, the flotilla proceeds at break of day to the scene





Pop & Son Litho, to the Queen.

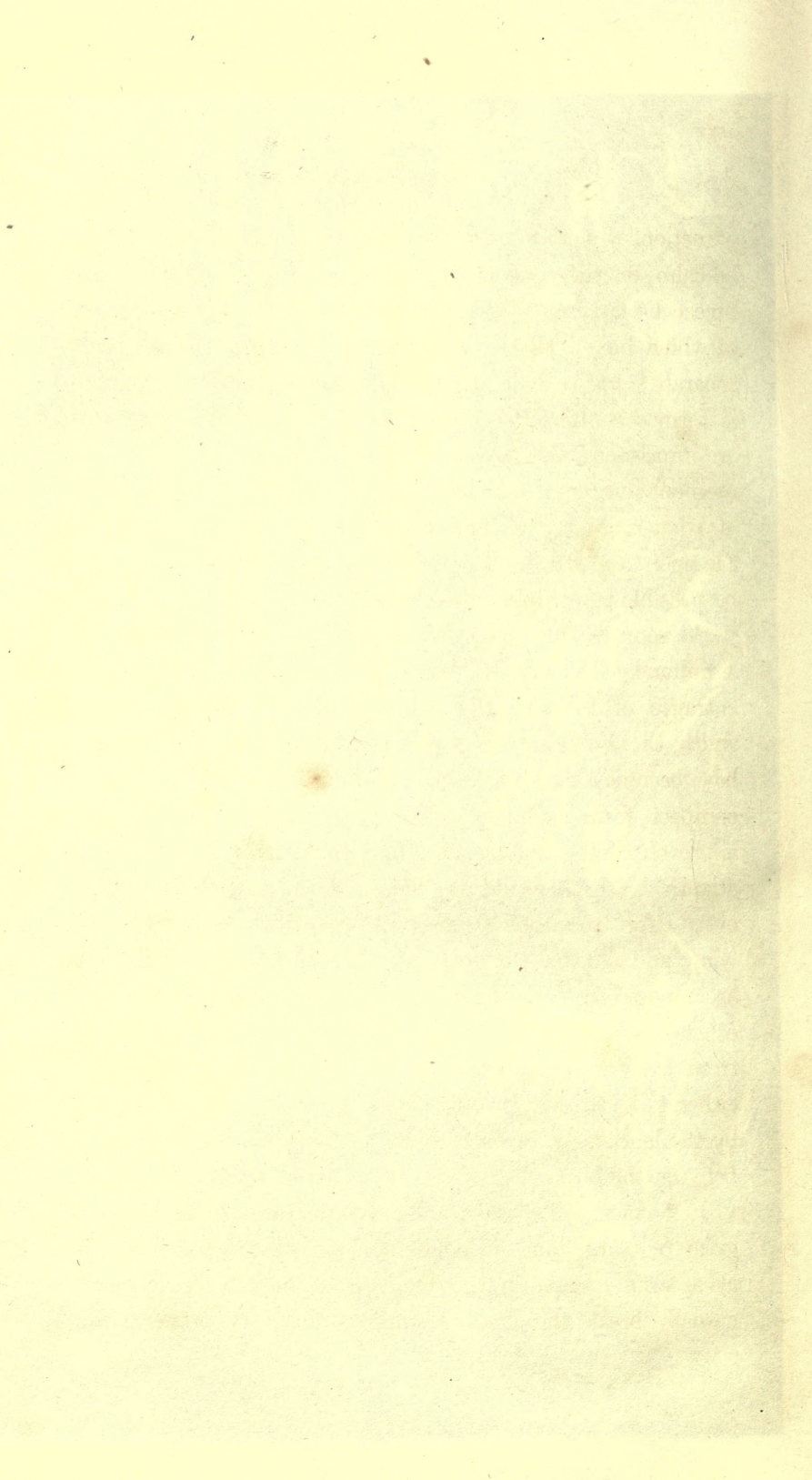
A. Kallier del. - E. Walker lith.

S W A N H U N T

of action, which is often three to four miles distant. If it be calm, or the wind ahead, the boats are pulled, but if the breeze be favourable, sails are made use of. When the bay in which hostilities are to be carried on is neared, the boats separate, and each taking up its appointed station, a Cordon is formed completely across its entrance, and thus the ewes are imprisoned as it were. Profound silence is of the first moment during this operation, for should the birds be aware of what is going on, they will leave the shore and make for the open sea, and in all probability gain this before it would be possible to complete the chain.

So soon as this object is accomplished, the boats advance simultaneously towards the beach. At first, owing to the entrance of the bay thus blockaded being of considerable width, the boats are necessarily pretty far apart; but as the bay becomes narrower, the little flotilla assumes a more compact form. When, however, the ewes perceive the approach of the enemy, and had themselves to our transatlantic brethren would say, "in a decided fix," they make every effort to escape from the toils. Such as can fly take wing and face for the open sea, in their way to which they are exposed to a murderous fire from the boats; whilst the others, usually the major portion of the flock, being unable from the want of sufficient feathers, to rise above the water, either take to the strand, where they are captured living by the land-party, or die at any opening they may perceive between the boats.

In former times, when these hunts were conducted with great regularity and strictness, no one was permitted to fire at a ewe except on the wing, or at such birds as might actually break the line. During the very proper regu-



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In former times, when these hunts were conducted with great regularity and strictness, no one was permitted to fire at a swan except on the wing, or at such birds as might casually break the line. Owing to this very proper regu-

lation, and the consequent greater degree of order kept by the boats, the birds were for the most part driven on shore, and very few, comparatively speaking, succeeded in making good their retreat. But as at the present day people are allowed, or at least take the liberty, to fire at the birds prior to their breaking the line, and every one is anxious to have his shot, the boats too often leave their proper stations, and great numbers of birds are thereby enabled to escape. All order, in short, is soon lost, and the swans being dispersed in every direction, a general scramble ensues, each boat selecting and chasing the bird or birds that may be nearest; and the scene, in consequence, though one of great confusion, becomes most animated.

Were the swans on these occasions to resort to swimming alone, a light boat with an efficient crew would soon come up with them; but when they find themselves hard pressed, they put both wings and legs into requisition, and thus half-paddling, half-flying along the surface of the water, they at first have the advantage of their pursuers. But this violent exertion cannot last for ever, and after a while they again drop into the sea; and though they may make two or three similar efforts, they gradually become exhausted, and are at length fairly run down. Those birds that have the most feathers of course hold out the longest; and indeed it often happens that after a continued and wearisome chase, they succeed in distancing their pursuers altogether. It is the commonly received notion that swans do not dive; but instances to the contrary are on record at these hunts, though it has only occurred, it is believed, when the bird has been previously wounded.

If there is a gunner in the boat when the swan is over-

taken, it is usually shot. But it is not actually needful to kill the bird ; for when so far exhausted as to be within range of the piece, "a long pull and a strong pull" of a few minutes in duration will insure its capture alive. To effect this object, a blunt hook, attached to a long pole—or even a common boat-hook will answer the purpose—is passed around its neck, which it holds stiff and upright ; and it is thus easily hauled on board. At times it makes considerable resistance when being taken out of the water ; but though it is a generally received notion, that a stroke of its wing will break a man's arm, or even leg, I never remember having heard of any casualty of the kind ; possibly because prior to the bird's capture, it has been either partly disabled by wounds, or utterly worn out with fatigue.

When the swan is taken into the boat, it is only needful to place it crosswise, with its breast resting against the side of the boat, and its neck between the seats ; for as the swan only moves ahead, it, unless the course is clear, always remains passive. Singular as it may seem, it has nevertheless been remarked that as many swans are captured by boats in which there are no fire-arms, as in those that are provided with them.

If it be calm weather, these hunts are very amusing ; but if stormy, on the contrary, they are not altogether enjoyable ; for owing to the rapidity with which the boat is propelled through the waves, so much spray flies over her, that one is pretty sure, if stationed at the bow at least, to get a good ducking. The hunt commonly lasts for several hours, and at its conclusion people often find themselves far from the starting-point—sometimes twelve to fifteen miles it is said. As may well be imagined, one's success mainly depends on

the good properties of the boat, and on the strength and endurance of the crew ; but if well appointed in all respects, and everything goes well, ten to fifteen swans, by gun or otherwise, ought to be bagged by a single boat.

Wolf shot is generally used ; but at short range very much smaller shot, if directed at the head or neck, or even at the body of the bird when retreating—the feathers being then ruffled up to such a degree that the flesh is all but visible—would no doubt answer equally well.

Formerly the returns at these hunts were very great. Six hundred swans and upwards have been killed, or taken alive, in a single day ; but at the present time, perhaps hardly a tithe of that number is captured.

Young birds are never seen at these hunts—the plumage of all being white, or nearly so. And what seems singular, the number of males and females is about equal. The sexes are readily distinguishable—the bills of the males being yellow-red, whilst those of the females are liver-brown.

The peasants taking part in the hunt receive a small gratuity for every bird brought in, whether dead or alive ; as also remuneration for ammunition expended. The feathers and down are retained, but the bodies of the birds are usually given to the poor. Those taken alive are bound on to carriages in much the same manner as geese with us, and are thus conveyed to their several destinations, generally the ornamental waters belonging to the neighbouring gentry.

Accidents, though not frequent, do sometimes occur at these hunts ; and instances are on record of boats, during the ardour of the chase, and owing to the neglect of due precaution, having been capsized, on which occasions the whole or portions of the crew were drowned.

In conclusion: At battues in England, we pride ourselves, and with some justice, on the bouquet, or, rush of pheasants; but beautiful a sight as it is to see a hundred or two of these splendid birds on the wing at once, surely a thousand or twelve hundred congregated swans should carry away the palm.

The so-called Polish Swan (*C. immutabilis*, Yarr.) has not hitherto found a place in the Scandinavian or Danish fauna. Swedish naturalists seem somewhat chary of giving an opinion about it; but the learned in Germany* are by no means satisfied as to its being a new species; and they therefore call it a variety of the mute swan. They imagine Yarrell may be mistaken as to the young being, as he assumes, white—the fact, on which he appears chiefly to rely for the establishment of his theory—and seemingly have their suspicions, that those examined by him may, after all, have been adults, and not young birds.

And German naturalists are not alone in conceiving that Yarrell has made a mistake in this matter. Amongst others, Mr. Richard Dann, who has had more opportunity than most men of studying to advantage the swan and its habits, in a letter now lying before me, expresses himself as follows:

“ I consider the *Cygnus Olor* of Swedish naturalists to be identical with ours in England. I myself have had two of those birds in my possession that had been captured when moulting, at the great hunts in Scania. They were evidently young birds, but had only three or four grey feathers in the back. The knob on the beak was scarcely developed, but grew considerably larger, and began to get black before I

* “ Die Wirbelthiere Europas ” von Kayserling und Blasius, 1840, p. lxxxii., genus 134.

parted with them. They were sensible to cold, and soon became tame. Yarrell describes the *Cygnus immutabilis* as a large swan, imported by dealers from the Baltic. My belief is, that they are identical with those caught in Scania, being young birds of the preceding year, with perhaps old ones that had not paired; in the same way as one may see large flocks of scoter and velvet ducks off Dungeness in June and July, which have not migrated for the purpose of breeding. The eider certainly does not breed until two years old, and this is very likely the case with the black duck and many others, which may be seen in flocks in spring and summer together. The specimens shot in England, and designated Polish swans, are probably young birds getting out of their accustomed course southwards, as young birds frequently do—to wit, the numerous specimens of young divers (*Colymbus arcticus* and *septrionalis*)—but it scarcely ever happens that an old one is seen.”

Neither is the *Cygnus minor*, or Lesser Swan—spoken of by Pallas, in his “Zoogr. Rosso-Asiat.,”* under the above expressive and distinctive appellation, nearly a century ago; but to which Yarrell has given the somewhat unmeaning name of *C. Bewickii*—included by Swedish naturalists amongst the Scandinavian birds. But, although no one hitherto seems to have observed it in the peninsula, yet, as it is occasionally met with in Denmark, and not unfrequently to my knowledge killed in the north of Germany, there can be little doubt as to its being an occasional visitor to Sweden. Pallas assigns Siberia as the home of this bird, in which country he describes it as exceedingly common.

* Vol. II, p. 214, No. 316.

CHAPTER XXV.

THE SHIELDRAKES—THE SHOVELLER—THE GADWALL—THE PINTAIL—THE MALLARD—THE GARGANEY—THE TEAL—THE WIGEON—THE EIDER DUCK—THE KING DUCK.

THE Common Shieldrake (*Graf-And*, or Burrowing Duck, Sw.; *Tadorna Bellonii*, Steph.), though asserted to have been seen in the vicinity of Ronnum, was never observed by us. In the neighbouring Skärgård, however, it was quite common. A few individuals made their appearance as early as the middle of March, but they did not generally arrive until the beginning of April; and they left us again in September. This bird, during the summer, is pretty common on the whole of the western coast of Scandinavia, from Scania to about the 65° of latitude, which would seem to be its limits to the northward; and on the eastern coast as high up at least as the province of Södermanland. In the interior of the country it is rarely seen. It is common in Denmark.—Migrates.

The shieldrake pairs. Amongst the islands it made its

nest in *Sten-malar*, or heaps of stones, at times far away from the strand, and not in holes in the ground of its own making. The female lays from ten to fifteen eggs, of a nearly pure white colour, and larger than those of the common hen. If the fishermen are to be credited, this bird, and the red-breasted merganser, sometimes breed together—twenty-six eggs belonging to the two having been found in the same nest; and the shieldrake at the time in possession. The male does not desert the female until the young are half-grown. If captured at a tender age, they thrive wonderfully well, and become very tame.

The shieldrake would appear to be a most devoted husband; one seldom, indeed, sees him separated from his mate. Pontoppidan, however, gives a rather different version to the story; “for when the eggs are taken or destroyed,” he says, “the cock beats the hen with his wings, and makes her cry most dismally.”

When recently in Norfolk, on a visit to Mr. John Henry Gurney, one of our best ornithologists, and possessed of a very fine collection of living birds, I was witness to a remarkable instance of attachment on the part of a male shieldrake towards a common duck, with whom he had mated. For some cause or other the keeper had ejected the duck from the aviary, and the distress of the shieldrake was in consequence excessive. He ran to and fro in every direction, and seemed quite beside himself with grief. The affection evinced on the part of the duck was equally great, and during the time I looked on, her efforts to force her way back through the wire fence that surrounded the aviary, were strenuous and incessant.

The Ruddy Shieldrake (*T. rutila*, Steph.), though not

included in the Scandinavian fauna, has found a place in that of Denmark; a single specimen having been shot in the island of Bornholm.

The Common Shoveller (*Leffel-And*, or Spoon-Duck, Sw.; *Anas clypeata*, Linn.) was not uncommon on the neighbouring coast, especially near to Gothenburg. It breeds in all the more southern and central provinces of Sweden, and in the island of Gottland, and as high up certainly as Haparanda, situated at the northern extremity of the Gulf of Bothnia. It is said to be most plentiful in the eastern districts of the peninsula. In Denmark it is pretty common, and nests there in places.—Migrates.

The Gadwall (*Snatter-And*, or Chattering-Duck, Sw.; *A. strepera*, Linn.) is very scarce in Scandinavia. It has only been met with in a very few instances, and then in the south of Sweden (once near to Gothenburg), and in the island of Gottland; never, I believe, in Norway, or the more northern parts of the peninsula. It is found, though sparingly, in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Pintail (*Stjert-And*, or Tail-Duck, Sw.; *A. acuta*, Linn.) was not unfrequently seen during migration, both in the vicinity of Ronnum and on the coast; but we were not aware of its breeding with us. Scattered individuals nest in the southern and more central parts of Scandinavia; but by far the larger portion proceed for that purpose to the high north, where by all accounts they are very common during the summer months. M. Malm says indeed that it abounds in all the lakes and rivers of north-eastern Lapland, even up to the mouth of the Passwig, which empties itself into the Icy Sea. In Denmark it breeds not unfrequently.—Migrates.

The Mallard (*Gräs-And*, or Grass-Duck, Sw.; *A. Boschas*,

Linn.) was very common during the summer in the vicinity of Ronnum, and also in the neighbouring Skärgård, where many indeed remained the whole year round. Some occasionally wintered with us likewise in the rapids of the Gotha, or in other streams that continued unfrozen. This bird is also common throughout nearly the whole of Scandinavia, from the extreme south of Sweden to far beyond the polar circle. M. von Wright assumes Karesuando to be its extreme limit to the northward, but stragglers have been met with even still higher up. It is very common in Denmark.—Partially migrates.

To judge by what follows, the habits of ducks in after-life, as with men, are much dependent on the manner in which they are reared.

“Near to the mansion of Vissbo, in the province of Nerike,” says the President M. af Robson, “the same difficulty occurred as is common in other places—namely, that of getting ducks to incubate all the eggs they lay. In the present instance the supernumerary duck eggs were placed, together with several hen’s eggs, under a white hen, and in due time a single duckling—a male as it proved—was produced. He was reared in the poultry-yard, and in all amity with his foster-brothers and sisters, and never attempted to accompany the other ducklings—of which there was more than one brood that several times a day descended the hill to the lake beneath—but remained contentedly with the hens. He grew rapidly, became fat, and at length ready to fly. For the fun of the thing, he was often thrown into the lake; but at such times he always made the best of his way to land, quacking loudly in the while, as if he had an aversion to the water, and forthwith waddled back again to look

for the hens. If when thrown from the bridge he was cast sufficiently high into the air as to be enabled to spread his wings properly, he would take a pretty long sweep, to enable him to surmount the hill, and fly directly back again into the poultry-yard.

“It was his daily practice cunningly to lead the hens to the edge of a grass-plot, or some low step, that he might pair with them;* but though he never succeeded in his attempts, they gave rise to all manner of curious scenes. He was not charged, however, with making love to his foster-mother, the old white hen, whom he gladly followed everywhere, more especially to such places where food was to be found; and it was believed that the affection he evinced towards her was fully reciprocated on her part. His fate was sad; for one fine day the kitchen-maid, mistaking him for another, chopped off his head.”

Eggs are incubated curiously enough at times; but that they should be hatched by a cat, as related below, is somewhat of a novelty.

“Whilst the shoemaker Defer, the carpenter Fäldin, and the son of the latter,” writes M. Hamnström, “were engaged in measuring some land on the shores of the lake Hjelmars, near to the town of Örebro, they disturbed a wild duck

* Naturalists, when defining a species, appear to lay no little stress on the fact of birds pairing, or the reverse, with certain other birds; but it seems to me too much dependence is placed on this matter. Even in a state of nature, from too many of the males, or the females, being killed off, or other causes, birds of quite distinct species do not unfrequently breed together; and when in confinement, almost anything is game that comes to the net. It is on record, for instance, that a capercali cock had a numerous family with a turkey hen; and in another instance, a capercali cock made a most determined attempt to pair with a goose.

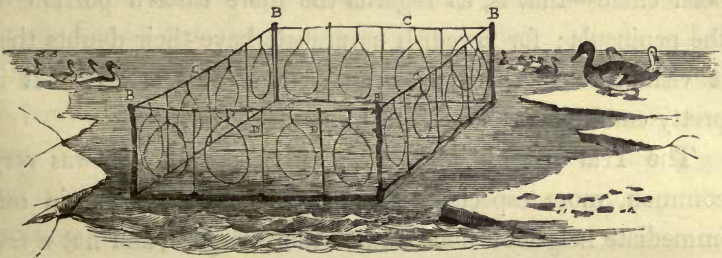
from her nest containing nine eggs, which Fäldin carried home for the purpose of placing them under a hen. On his arrival, however, and whilst making inquiries after a suitable dry-nurse, the eggs were laid on a bed, provided with a sheep-skin coverlid, on which a cat and her kittens—then some eight days old—had previously taken up their abode. This was on the 19th of last May, after which time the cat and the kittens—the former for the most part, the latter constantly—continued to keep them warm, and that without a single egg being injured, or out of its place.

“On Tuesday, the 27th of May, the first of the ducklings was hatched, on which Mrs. Fäldin considered it most prudent immediately to separate the otherwise well-conducted cat from her young step-children, which, nevertheless, were allowed to remain alongside of their four-footed foster-brothers; for these, although born with a savage nature, she conceived not sufficiently old to allow themselves to be tempted. The following day Mrs. Fäldin’s sensible and motherly care was crowned with a successful issue, for four more ducklings were hatched, and all six found themselves very well satisfied with the warmth they derived from the kittens. On Thursday, the 29th, a seventh egg was also vivified, the remaining two proving rotten.

“During the space of near a week, Mrs. Fäldin was fortunate enough to retain all the seven alive. During this time they drank milk like the kittens, and swam and disported themselves in a tub of water placed at hand for the purpose; the old cat looked on with great seeming gratification, and purred, and gambolled about the vessel. Their food afterwards consisted of grits alone. But the best intentions are at times the cause of the greatest misfortunes; and so it

happened in this instance. Mrs. Fäldin would treat her little favourites to some fresh grass. This they eat with avidity ; but in the space of three hours they all died one after the other in convulsions—most probably in consequence of some poisonous herbs amongst the grass. Mrs. Fäldin bewailed greatly over the ducklings, which were always lively and joyous, and declared that from the moment of missing their foster-brothers, the kittens evidently suffered greatly both in health and spirits.”

Decoys are, I believe, unknown in Scandinavia, though the country is in many parts very favourable for the purpose. Many other devices are, however, had recourse to, to beguile the wild duck and other water-fowl.



THE LINTU-LAUTA.

Amongst the rest is the so-called *Lintu-Lauta* (in Finnish). It consists of a small raft of about four feet square, composed of plank ends. At the corners are upright sticks, with the bark on, of about twelve inches in height, B B B ; a line, C C, is passed through the upper part of these uprights, so as to form a railing as it were ; D D are lines connecting the raft itself with the railing, between which the several

snares, composed of horse-hair or other suitable material, are arranged in due order.

In the spring, prior to the frost regularly breaking up, the Lintu-Lauta is used to much advantage. It is baited with fresh grass and the roots of aquatic plants, and anchored in natural openings in the ice. To these holes, from the want of open water elsewhere, the fowl at that season resort in great numbers, and observing the green sod lying so invitingly before them, are lured to their sure destruction.

The Garganey (*Årta*, Sw.; *A. querquedula*, Linn.) was scarce with us, as also on the neighbouring coast. It bred, it was believed, in the vicinity of Ronnum and elsewhere on the river Gotha. It is found, though sparingly, over a considerable portion of Scandinavia, as high up even as the polar circle—that is, as regards the more eastern portion of the peninsula; for Swedish naturalists have their doubts that it visits the southern or western parts of Norway. It is pretty common in parts of Denmark.—Migrates.

The Teal (*Krick-And*, Sw.; *A. Crecca*, Linn.) was very common, more especially during the autumn, both in our immediate neighbourhood and in the Skärgård, and not a few bred with us. As a summer visitor this bird is also common throughout nearly the whole of Scandinavia, from Scania to the far north—as high up at least as the 69° of latitude. It is found as well in the interior as amongst the islands on the coast, and nests both in the low open country of the south of Sweden, and amongst the fjäll morasses of Norway and Lapland. In Denmark it is likewise common.—Migrates.

The Wigeon (*Bläs-And*, or White-fronted Duck, Sw.; *Mareca Penelope*, Selby) was exceedingly common during the autumn, both near to Ronnum and on the coast. Some

few bred with us, as also in the more southern and central parts of Scandinavia; but the larger portion pass the summer months in the far north. M. Malm met with this bird in great abundance in all the lakes and rivers as high up even as the mouth of the Passwig, in north-eastern Lapland. In Denmark it is very common during migration, and Kjærbölling has reason to believe that some few breed there. The female lays six to nine yellowish-white eggs.—Migrates.

The Eider Duck (*Ejder-Gås*, or Eider-Goose, Sw.; *Somateria mollissima*, Leach). This bird, though asserted to have been seen in the Wenern, and even in the river Clara, one of the northern tributaries to that lake, was never observed about Ronnum. It is very common, however, in the neighbouring Skärgård, as also on all the coasts of Scandinavia (eastern as well as western), from Scania to the North Cape; but more especially on certain islands called *Fugle-Vær*, or, bird preserves, on the north-west coast of Norway, where it is protected—which is not usually the case in other parts of the peninsula—and where the eggs and down are only taken in moderate quantities. It is pretty common in some parts of Denmark.

Ekström imagines there may be two kinds of eider in Scandinavia—namely, the Common Eider and the *Smal-näbbad*, or Narrow-billed, Eider, spoken of by Brehm. He is more particularly led to this conclusion from what Faber, in his Ornithology of Iceland, says of the habits of the eider, which do not agree with the habits of those found on the eastern coast of Sweden.

Like the wild swan, the eider does not seem in any manner affected by cold; and unless the sea is entirely frozen over, it remains on the coast during the whole winter.

And even should it be driven from thence by the ice, it is not supposed to retire to any considerable distance; for so soon as the ice breaks up it immediately reappears. Many, however, would seem to winter on the coast of Jutland, where the climate is somewhat less severe. Indeed, I myself on one occasion saw myriads near Christmas time in the Little Belt, which separates Jutland from the island of Fyen.

In the winter time the eider keep together in very large flocks, which are composed as well of males as females; and at that time they are exceedingly shy. Towards the spring they mostly separate into pairs, and in April are to be found in the Skärgård for the purpose of breeding. Until the female has deposited her eggs, the male is always in her company; but when incubation begins, the males congregate, and may be seen in numbers floating, as it were, in the vicinity of the rocks and islets, where their mates are sitting. Subsequently—more especially during the moulting season, which commences in June—the males keep more out to sea, when they become very difficult of approach.

The plumage of the old male eider varies very much according to the season of the year. Towards the autumn he loses his brilliant dress, and becomes in great part black; and is, in fact, so altered in appearance as to be hardly recognizable. The female, on the contrary, retains her brown feathers all the year round, and very little, if any, difference in plumage is observable with her, be the season what it may.

Unless disturbed, the eider appears to pass fully as much of its time on land (or rather on the cold naked rocks just above the surface of the sea, so common on the Scandinavian coast), as on the water; for in such situations groups of these

birds are constantly to be seen in a state of repose. What may be the case in the winter I know not; but in the summer it would seem to pass the night on shore; for when boating, we frequently by moonlight started birds from their roosting-places on the rocks, but never at that time met with them in the water. If this be the case, it would seem that, unlike most other of the duck tribe, the eider does not feed during the hours of darkness.

Excepting from actual necessity, the eider very rarely flies to any distance from the water, its natural element. Even when flying from one bay to another, it will follow the indentations of the coast rather than cross a headland. "As with several of the oceanic birds, if it accidentally loses sight of the sea, its powers of flight forsake it, and it will alight on the ground and look about, as if in a state of bewilderment, and at such times will allow itself to be taken by the hand."

The eider feeds on crustacea and marine insects, and, some great authorities will have it, on fish also. It may be so; but though on very many occasions we have seen it, when dead, disgorge quantities of cockles and crabs—some of a very considerable size—we were never aware of anything in the shape of fish. I speak of the eider in a wild state; for when domesticated it will eat almost anything—fish amongst the rest. The eider obtains its food at the bottom; at times, it is said, at a depth of twenty fathoms. To this fact I cannot testify, but certain it is, that it remains under water for a very long time together.

The weight of the male eider, prior to pairing, and when in tolerable condition, averages near six pounds; that of the female is nearly the same, or it may be, somewhat greater.

The largest bird that we on any occasion killed, did not weigh fully seven pounds.

The female forms her nest of sea-weed, bent grass and other coarse material, and often in very bleak and exposed situations. Most commonly it is placed near to the water, but very frequently a long distance from thence, and high up—one or two hundred feet—on some stony islet. She lines it with a quantity of the soft and elastic down from her own body; and at the end of April, or beginning of May, lays from five to six eggs of a pale green colour, the size of those of a goose. It happens occasionally, we are told, that two or three females deposit their eggs in the same nest, and in company sit amicably upon them. To this point I cannot, from actual observation, speak positively; but I have frequently seen more than one female with the same young brood, which somewhat countenances the received notion.

In those parts of Scandinavia where the eider is protected, it is so tame, we read, as to nest not only in the boat-houses, but in the very huts of the fishermen; and moreover, the female will allow herself to be handled whilst upon the nest. Such domesticity, however, was not common in our Skärgård, where this bird was subject to considerable persecution; for in most instances, when one approached pretty near to the nest, she at once took flight and left the eggs to their fate.

Pontoppidan gives a somewhat curious account of the proceedings of the eider during the breeding season. "If the first five eggs are stole away," he says, "then the bird lays again, but only three, and in another nest; if these are lost, then she lays one more. Four weeks the mother sits alone

on the eggs, and the cock stands watching underneath in the water, so that if any human creature, or beast of prey approaches, he gives her notice by crying, *hu, hu*; and then she covers her eggs with moss and down, which she keeps ready prepared, and comes down to her mate on the water. But he does not receive her very kindly; and if her eggs are lost by any accident, he gives her many blows with his wings, which she must take patiently; and after this he entirely deserts her, and she is obliged to join the flock of her kind, under the same disgrace."

It is commonly supposed that so soon as the young ones are out of the shell, the mother conducts them to the water. Some say, however, that they remain in the nest twenty-four hours afterwards, until they acquire strength; but I doubt this being the fact, and consider that the delay, if there be any, arises from the eggs not being all hatched—as is often the case—at one and the same time.

From the elevated and broken nature of the ground where the eider frequently breeds, it seems pretty certain, that without aid of some kind, the young can never reach the water. But in what manner their transit is effected appears somewhat a mystery. I was assured, however, by a very respectable individual—the superintendent of Winga Lighthouse—that he himself had often seen the old bird thus occupied. "She threw her progeny over her neck," such were his words, "as a fox would a goose, and thus bore them away to their own element."

It is generally believed in Scandinavia, that when her young are in jeopardy, the eider, as with the merganser, and some other birds, takes her young on her back, and either swimming or diving, thus conveys them to a place of safety

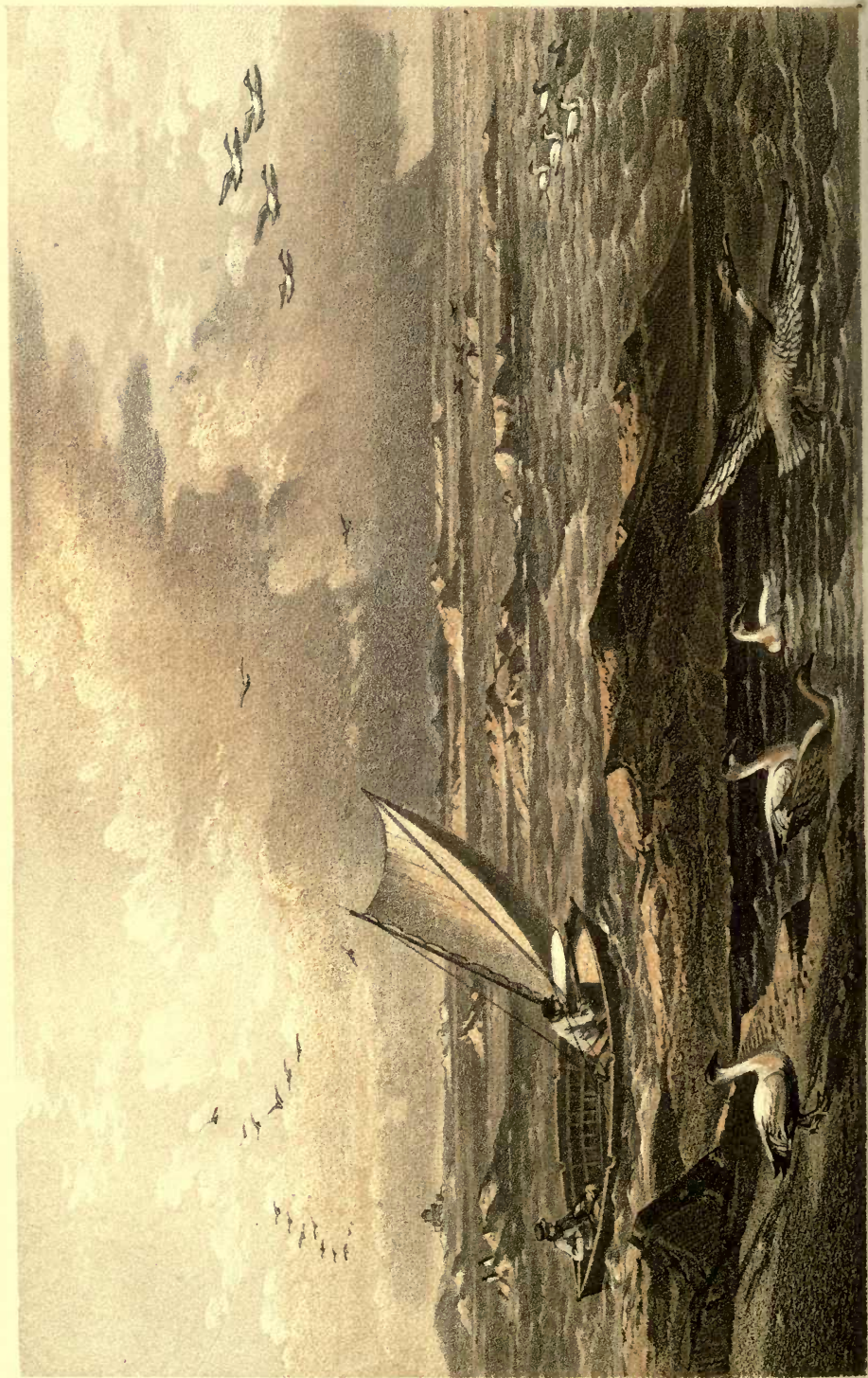
But this is probably a fallacy. It is true that when the body of the old bird is submerged—which is always the case when danger threatens—and that the young brood are collected about her, it looks much as if they were actually seated on her back; but if this were so, they must hold fast by the bill, which they clearly never do, their heads at such times being quite erect.

The eider is easily domesticated. Several are now in the Zoological Gardens, Regent's Park. The late Earl of Derby had also a good many at Knowsley, which were taken near to Gothenburg when only a few days old. I assisted at their capture, and for several weeks afterwards they remained with me. We reared them without any difficulty. They fed freely on worms, shell-fish, &c.—on almost anything in short that was given to them.

In those parts of Scandinavia where the eider is protected, its down becomes a valuable article of commerce. That obtained from the nest, which is plucked by the bird from its own body, is reputed to be infinitely superior to that from the dead bird. If taken from the latter, it ought to be in the winter or spring; for in the summer and autumn, when the eider moults, the down becomes so mixed up with blood feathers, as to be little worth.

I have seen it stated in English books, that each eider's nest produces half-a-pound of down! If several birds be contributors to the same nest, this by possibility may be the case, but individually it cannot be; for the utmost we could procure, even from a bird in full plumage, whether male or female, little exceeded, on the average, half an ounce.

When speaking on the subject, Kjærbölling remarks: "Every nest contains about one-sixth of a pound; and sup-



A. Keiller del. E. Walker, lith.

Payson, Utah, in The Canyon

posing that from Greenland and Iceland alone there are exported about six thousand pounds, it will be seen that these are taken from seventy-two thousand nests. As, at least, three-fourths of this quantity come from Greenland, and as the Greenlanders seldom allow the eggs to remain, even when half-hatched, and kill the bird at all seasons and under all circumstances, it is inexplicable that its decrease is not greater."

In Sweden, as in England, the flesh of the eider is looked upon as coarse, fishy, and nearly uneatable; but all killed by us went nevertheless into the pot, and when properly prepared were not unpalatable—to people at least who had not always the opportunity of enjoying a good dinner.

The accompanying illustration faithfully depicts the nature of our Skärgård; as also the way in which we were accustomed to bear down on eider-ducks and other water-fowl, in my little boat—measuring less than sixteen feet from stem to stern—during a stiff breeze of wind.

A further description of the Chasse of the eider, which bird came much under our personal observation, and of the methods adopted in Scandinavia to effect its capture, will be given hereafter.

The King Duck (*Prakt-Ejder*, or Beautiful Eider, Sw.; *S. spectabilis*, Leach) was never observed either by ourselves, or M. von Wright, in the neighbouring Skärgård. It is rarely, if ever, seen indeed on the western coast of Sweden. But on the eastern coast—though, according to Ekström, not an annual visitor—it is not very uncommon. In the more northern parts of Scandinavia, it is, M. Malm informs us, found winter as well as summer, in all the fjords and inlets on the coast of Finmark (?).

The king duck—the male—is somewhat less than the

eider duck; its length being two feet, whilst the latter measures about two feet two inches. From the two birds being frequently seen in company, and from their appearance and habits being much alike, the Icelanders and Norwegians entertain the strange notion that the king duck is a wonderfully ancient eider, which in his old age has acquired the remarkable orange-coloured comb, or knob, resembling a crown, on his head; and in consequence the Icelanders call him *Aeder-Köngr*, or Eider-King. Hence not improbably his English name.

As with the eider, the plumage of the female king duck differs widely from that of the male; her prominent colour being brown. She forms her nest in the same manner as the eider, lines it with her own down, and lays from five to six eggs of a similar colour, but of somewhat lesser dimensions than those of that bird.

Fabricius tells us the king duck is a first-rate diver, and so capital a swimmer, that it is not easy to make it take wing. In Greenland, he says, a number of the natives in their canoes, armed with darts, often pursue a flock of these birds with loud shouts, when being too much frightened to fly, they dive at once to the bottom. But their course being marked with air-bubbles, it is not difficult to follow on their tracks. As for a while, however, they only occasionally stick their bills above the surface to take breath—at which time it is not easy to strike them with effect—the chase is somewhat protracted; but when at length they become so exhausted that their whole bodies appear above water, they are easily destroyed.

CHAPTER XXVI.

THE SCOTERS—THE POCHARDS—THE GARROTS—THE LONG-TAILED HARELD—
THE GOOSANDERS.

THE Velvet Scoter (*Svärta*, or Black Duck, Sw. ; *Oidemia fusca*, Flem.) was somewhat rare in the vicinity of Ronnum, but common spring and fall in the Skärgård. During the summer it is found, as well in the interior as on the coast, throughout the more central and northern parts of Scandinavia, from the province of Blekinge to near the North Cape. M. Malm describes it as common in all the lakes and rivers of northern Lapland, and as amongst the last of the duck tribe to depart from thence in the autumn. It is ice, he says, and not cold, that causes it to wing its way to the southward. In Denmark it is common during migration, and some winter in that country. Though a northern bird it is, singular enough, not found, Kjærbölling tells us, in the Danish Dependencies of Greenland and Iceland.—Migrates.

In shape the velvet scoter is awkward and thick-set, and

in disposition inert and stupid. The male, according to Pallas, is of a singularly amorous disposition ; and the female, Ekström says, evinces so great a regard for her mate, that if he is shot, she generally remains stationary ; or even should she fly a short distance, she will presently return to the spot to meet the same doom.

This bird makes its nest near to the water, amongst high grass and the like, and lays eight to ten yellowish-white, or buff-coloured eggs, nearly three inches in length, by two in thickness.

The Black, or Common Scoter (*Sjö-Orre*, or Sea Black-Cock, Sw. ; *O. nigra*, Flem.), was common on the coast during migration ; some few, indeed, according to M. von Wright, occasionally passed the summer there. It was said that stragglers bred in the Wenern, but I will not vouch for the fact. This bird nests mostly in the far north—as high up even as the borders of the Icy Sea—where by all accounts it is very plentiful. The velvet scoter, as observed, breeds both on the coast and in the inland lakes ; but the black scoter, Swedish naturalists tell us, only in the fresh waters of the interior. It is common in Denmark during migration.

Though the velvet and the black scoter bear a considerable exterior resemblance to each other, they differ materially in many respects. The velvet scoter, as said, is clumsy and heavy in appearance, and dull and stupid in disposition ; whereas the black scoter is a sprightly and shy bird. It flies rapidly, swims with great facility, and is constantly diving either for amusement or food.

The black scoter makes its nest under a bush, by the side of a lake or stream, and lays eight to ten dirty yellowish-

white eggs, glossy, and somewhat less in size than those of the velvet scoter.

The Surf Scoter (*Hvit-nackad Svärta*, or White-naped Black Duck, Sw.; *O. perspicillata*, Steph.) is scarce in Scandinavia, and as it would seem, confined altogether to the northern parts of the peninsula. "It breeds, though very seldom," M. Malm informs us, "in Enare Lapmark." It appears to be unknown in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Danish fauna includes the White-headed Scoter (*O. leucocephala*, Steph.), which, Kjærbölling says, has bred in one instance near the town of Schleswig.

The Common Pochard, or Dun-Bird (*Röd-halsad Dyk-And*, or Red-necked Diving-Duck, Sw.; *Fuligula ferina*, Steph.), was very scarce as well with us as on the coast, and only seen during autumn and winter. It is also scarce in other parts of Scandinavia; about the most so, according to Swedish naturalists, of all the ducks. M. von Wright, when at Karesuando, in northern Lapland, was informed by trustworthy people, that it was occasionally found in that vicinity.

It is common in Denmark during migration, and though the more northern regions—Iceland among the rest—would seem to be its proper home, some few breed annually in that country.—Migrates.

The female makes her nest on a tussock amongst reed or grass, lines it with down, and lays from nine to thirteen eggs, of a yellow-grey colour, sometimes inclining to green. It is said that the male does not trouble himself either about the eggs or the young.

The Western Pochard (*Al-Förrädare*, or Betrayer of the Long-tailed Hareld, Sw.; *F. dispar*, Steph.). This beautiful bird, whose proper home would appear to be the islands

lying between Northern Asia and North America, is somewhat scarce in Scandinavia, and—excepting in that portion of northern Lapland washed by the Icy Sea, where, M. Malm says, “it is very common, winter as well as summer (?)”—confined altogether to the eastern coasts of Sweden and the adjacent islands. It is said to be more frequently met with in the Finnish Skärgård (including the Åland Islands) than elsewhere. According to Ekström, it is not seen every year; and when it does appear, it is early in the spring, and in company with scattered individuals of the long-tailed hareld. To the last circumstance, coupled with the belief that the hareld will be abundant that particular season, the western pochard owes its Swedish designation. It is not believed to breed anywhere in the peninsula. In Denmark it is very rare; only two specimens, as it would seem, having been killed in that country.—Migrates.

The only facts as yet known with certainty to Swedish naturalists respecting this bird are: “It lives on mollusks and crustaceans; it dives with the greatest facility, and is shy and active in its motions.” Its nesting habits appear to be unknown.

The Scaup Pochard (*Hvit-Buk*, or White-Belly, Sw.; *F. marila*, Steph.) was abundant with us spring and fall, as well in the vicinity of Ronnum as on the coast. It breeds in the far north, and is very common, according to M. von Wright and M. Malm, in Lapland, as high up at least as the 69° of latitude. It is said to migrate, but very many usually passed the winter in the rapids of the Gotha, where great slaughter was made amongst them. In Denmark it is common during migration, as also in the winter time.

The nest of this bird is usually placed amongst high grass, or under some broad-leaved plant. The eggs are eight to

fourteen in number, and in colour yellowish-grey inclining to green; in length they are two and a half inches, and in thickness one inch five lines.

The Tufted Pochard (*Vigg*,* or Wedge, Sw.; *F. cristata*, Steph.) was scarce with us, as also on the coast, where indeed M. von Wright has only seen a very few specimens in the course of ten or twelve years, and these late in the autumn or winter. It passes the summer months in the more northern parts of Scandinavia, where at that season it is very common; more especially, M. Malm tells us, in Enare Lapmark, which borders on the Icy Sea. In Denmark it is not uncommon during migration, particularly in very severe weather; and Kjærbølling thinks it not improbable that some few nest there.—Migrates.

This bird breeds as well in the interior of the country, as near to the coast, though always in fresh water. The nest consists of dry grass and a few feathers, plucked by the bird from its own body. The eggs are six to eight in number, of a pale green, or greenish-grey colour, and much resemble those of the long-tailed hareld.

Besides the above-mentioned four species of pochard, the Danish fauna embraces two others—namely, the Red-crested Pochard (*Fuligula rufina*, Steph.), and the Nyroca Pochard (*F. Nyroca*, Steph.), both of which have been known to breed in the Duchies.

The Golden-Eye Garrot (*Knipa*, Sw.; *Clangula chrysoptalmos*, Steph.) was very common with us, as well as on the coast, during the autumn, when we were visited by

* So called, because the bird, when on the surface of the water, almost always lies with its neck stretched forward, as if ready to dive; whereby the body assumes a somewhat wedge-like shape.

immense numbers; a portion of which, at least, unless the weather was unusually severe, remained throughout the whole winter. A few breed in the more southern and central parts of Scandinavia, but the greater part in the north, up to at least the 70° of latitude. It is described as very plentiful during the summer months throughout nearly the whole of Lapland. In Denmark it is very common during migration; and some few nest in the Duchy of Holstein.—Migrates partially.

From the brilliancy of the eye of this bird, there is a saying in Sweden: *Klart som ett Knip-öga*—that is, bright as the eye of the golden-eye garrot.

This bird, as known, never makes its nest, like other ducks, under the bare heavens, but either in some sheltered situation, such as under a bush and the like, or in the hollow of a tree. The female lays from nine to twelve eggs, of a light blue-green colour, in length two inches two lines, and in thickness one inch six lines.

In Lapland, where the golden-eye, as well as the goosander, abound, the inhabitants protect these birds for the sake of the eggs—to them a valuable article of food—of which, by a very simple device, they obtain a large supply; for knowing the nesting habits of both, they affix so-called *Holkar* (portions of a hollow pine, of some two feet in length, stopped up at both ends, and with a hole in the centre) to the trunks of growing trees, at some few feet from the ground, to encourage and facilitate their breeding; and of these the birds are only too happy to take possession. If a man owns a good many *Holkar*—and I have seen the banks of the Lapland rivers lined with them, so to say—he makes a good harvest; for by despoiling them of only a few eggs at a time, he may obtain as many as twenty from a single bird. To

induce the female to return another season, however, he eventually leaves a few eggs in the nest, which she then sits upon and hatches.

The manner in which the golden-eye and the goosander convey their young from the nest to the ground (which they are believed to do soon after these are hatched), has excited much speculation in Sweden ; but if the following statement—recorded in the Proceedings of the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, 1843—is to be relied on, the matter would seem to be set at rest.

“Whilst the Pastor Björkman and his servant were lying in ambush near to a lake, in the parish of Jockmock, in Luleå Lapmark, to shoot velvet ducks, they saw from their place of concealment a female golden-eye alight amongst some willow bushes very near to them. An instant afterwards, however, she again took wing, and, as they imagined, in consequence of having observed them. But looking with attention towards the spot where she had been, they noticed in her place a newly-hatched young one. They now began to wonder in what manner it came there, when just at the moment the old bird returned to the same place, and after depositing a second duckling, flew off hurriedly as before. As yet they had not been able to distinguish in what way she carried her offspring ; but on her third visit they remarked her head to be inclined in a very peculiar manner ; and on the following, they clearly perceived that in a sort of *Ögla*, or hollow, formed by the head and bill resting on the breast, she conveyed them under her throat. This account tallies also with the relation of the squatters as to the mode in which the female golden-eye transports her young from her nest in lofty trees to the water.”

The Harlequin Garrot (*Brim-Dufva*, Sw. ; *C. histrionica*, Steph.) is included in the Scandinavian fauna, though with very little reason as it seems to me ; for I can find no instance recorded of its having been seen, much less killed, within the peninsula. In Denmark it has been observed occasionally off the west coast of Holstein.

The Long-tailed Hareld, or Arctic Duck (*Al-Fogel*, Sw. ; *Harelda glacialis*, Steph.), whose proper home is the Arctic regions—Lapland, Iceland, Greenland, and Spitzbergen, for instance—was exceedingly common during the autumn in the neighbouring Skärgård, where, indeed, many usually winter. Stragglers—wounded birds probably—were, once in a time, to be seen in our Skärgård, and elsewhere, in the more southern parts of Sweden during the summer ; but it only nests, it is believed, in the northern portion of Scandinavia ; and even that as high up as the vicinity of the North Cape itself. It is very common in Denmark during the winter ; and some few, Kjærbölling says, have been known to breed there.—Migrates partially.

The hareld would appear to be quite indifferent to cold, and that it is ice alone that causes it to migrate to more genial climes. “When the sea freezes during severe winters,” says M. von Wright, “a large portion of these birds leave us, but some remain in the open water—caused by strong currents—near to Oroust. It seems even then unwilling to leave the coast ; for one finds it on such times in no small numbers about the outermost of the islands—where, owing to the constant rise and fall of the waves, the ice is ground almost to powder—labouring through the thick mass to the bottom in search of food.” Nilsson tells us, besides, that even though the sea be for the most part frozen

over, and the cold severe, many pass the whole of the winter off the coast of Scania in natural openings of the ice.

The plumage of this beautiful bird, which has a tail like a cock pheasant, varies very greatly according to age, sex, and season of the year; and what is remarkable, out of fifty specimens, hardly two resemble each other. Its winter dress is well known to us in England, but a description of its summer plumage may not be out of place.

The head, neck, back, wings, and upper part of the tail of the adult male are then black-brown; breast lighter brown; belly, and under part of the tail, white; sides beautifully greyish-white; sides of the head, in front of the eyes, red-grey; around the eyes a white ring, which is enlarged behind, and tapers in a point towards the nape of the neck; the long-pointed shoulder-feathers black, with broad chestnut-brown edges; bill, feet, and irides, the same as in the winter.

The dress of the female does not vary so greatly as that of the male. Its head and neck at the season in question are quite black, most commonly interspersed with greyish-white feathers; throat white-grey; upper part of the breast greyish-brown; lower part somewhat lighter; back black-grey; shoulder-feathers same colour, but with lighter, and most generally with reddish edges; belly and under part of the tail dirty white; upper part of the tail-feathers greyish-brown, with whitish-grey edges, the two in the middle a little longer than the rest.

The hareld is a most restless bird, and perpetually in motion. It rarely happens that one sees it in a state of repose during the day time. The flock—for there are almost always several in company—swim pretty fast against the wind; and the individuals comprising it keep up a sort of race with

each other. Some of the number are always diving, and as these remain long under water, and their comrades are going rapidly ahead in the while, they are of course a good way behind the rest on their reappearance at the surface. Immediately on coming up, therefore, they take wing, and flying over the backs of their comrades, resume their position in the ranks, or rather fly somewhat beyond their fellows, with the object, as it would seem, of being the foremost of the party. This frequently continues across the bay, or inlet, until the flock is "brought up" by the opposing shore, when they generally all take wing and move off elsewhere. There is but little doubt that they are feeding at these times, which is the more probable from the water where they disport themselves being usually shallow, and the bottom studded with rocks; from whence they pluck cockles, periwinkles, &c., which constitute the principal part of their sustenance. "Fair play is a jewel," says the old saw, and so perhaps thinks the hareld; for it would really appear as if it adopted the somewhat curious manœuvre just mentioned, to prevent its companions from going over the ground previously.

Whilst pairing—which takes place in the beginning of April—and long before its departure for the far north, the hareld is very noisy and clamorous. The males are constantly chasing the females, in which while they themselves are pursued by numerous rivals. "It has been remarked," says Ekström, "that certain of the females are much more courted than the rest—a practice at one time supposed to be confined to the human species. Frequently, indeed, one sees an individual surrounded by from six to eight amorous males, the rest of the females looking on

with great dissatisfaction. Pain as well as pleasure await on these *filles de joie* of the ocean; for imagining that even though dead they will be equally courted as when alive, the sportsman always picks them out from the rest, so that when stuffed they may serve to decoy their admirers within reach of the murderous gun."

The song, so to say, of the hareld, is not unmusical. It is something like *calloo*—the name by which the bird goes in the Orkney and Shetland Islands. Some people in Sweden liken it to the notes of the clarinet. Though monotonous, it is very pleasing, especially when many join in the concert; at all events, the sprightliness of the bird, its being eternally on the move, and its wild and interesting cry, tend greatly to give life to the Skärgård, which, without animated nature, would otherwise be desolation itself.

Though Swedish naturalists tell us that the hareld rarely breeds on this side of the polar circle, there is good reason to believe that many nest in the morasses amongst the Dovrefield, and other mountain ranges of Norway which are in a considerably lower latitude. Lapland—more especially the north-eastern part of that country—it is probable, however, is its chief resort during the summer months. It makes its appearance there about May, mostly in its dark summer plumage, which, indeed, it for a great part assumes prior to leaving the sea-coast; and breeds in very great numbers in all the fresh-water lakes and tarns studding the face of that wild country.

It makes its nest, which is lined with down, in marshy ground, near to the water, amongst grass, or under leafy plants, that afford some sort of shelter. The female lays

from five to seven eggs, of a pale green colour, and somewhat smaller in size than those of a barn-door fowl.

When incubation commences, the males, which are not believed to pair until their second or third year, abandon their mates, and, as with the eider and some other species of water-fowl, get together in flocks.

So soon as the young can fly, the mother conducts them to their native element, the sea; and in the early part of August she may be seen with the brood in the bays and fjords of the more northern parts of the Norwegian coast. Shortly afterwards the several families flock, and take their flight gradually to the southward; and in September and October they visited our Skärgård.

When in salt water, the hareld feeds on marine insects, bivalve mollusks and crustaceans, and whilst in the interior, during the breeding season, chiefly on aquatic plants. It would appear, however, to eat the latter from necessity rather than choice, for on its return to the sea in the autumn, it is usually in very poor condition.

The feathers of the hareld are much prized, and the down is held next in estimation to that of the eider. The flesh, though somewhat fishy, may, by good management, be rendered very palatable. The better plan is to skin and scrape away the fat, then soak the bird in water—or, if in milk, all the better—for a day or more, and afterwards pitch-cock, and roast it.

The Goosander (*Stor-Skrake*, Sw.; *Mergus Merganser*, Linn.) was pretty common during the summer months in the vicinity of Ronnum, where, indeed, a few bred. It was also found, though sparingly, on the neighbouring coast, but chiefly during winter and spring. This bird is

very generally distributed throughout Scandinavia, from Scania to northern Lapland, as high up at least as the 70° N. latitude, and that not only on the coast, but in the lakes and rivers of the interior. Properly speaking, it is not migratory; ice, rather than cold, may occasion it to retire for a while, but so soon as the water is open again, it reappears—the young birds, however, which are much more susceptible to cold than the old ones, at a somewhat later period. Unless when the weather was unusually severe, some generally passed the whole winter in the rapids of the Gotha, and the like is doubtless the case in other rivers in Sweden. In Denmark it is tolerably common in the winter time, and some few breed there.

The goosander feeds on fish, worms, and insects—"sometimes also," Ekström says, "on aquatic plants." "It is a most voracious fish-swallower," Nilsson informs us, "its gullet is very capacious, and its stomach possessed of an extraordinary power of digestion. I myself once shot a male bird of this species that had a viviparous blenny (*Zoarces viviparus*, Cuv.) of twelve inches in length, and proportionate thickness, in its throat. The tail of the fish reached up to the very bill itself; and the head, then in the bird's stomach, was already for the most part digested."

The way in which the goosander fishes in the autumn displays an extraordinary degree of ingenuity. At that season these birds resort, either in families or in flocks, to some lake or other water that abounds with the finny tribe. Selecting an inlet, the whole troop form a line at its outer extremity, and, advancing gradually and in regular order, they either by diving, or beating the water with their pinions, drive the fish before them. On the strand being neared,

both wings of the line close up, and the small fry being then in a net, as it were, the birds devour them at their leisure. It is from this its manner of fishing, indeed, that the goosander, in parts of Sweden, has acquired the name of *Kör-fogel*, or driving-bird. These manœuvres are repeated until such time as they have satisfied their hunger, when retiring to the open water to rest and digest their food, they allow themselves to be rocked by the waves. Hence this bird's designation, in certain districts, of *Vrak-fogel*—literally, wreck-bird, implying, that at such times it lies like a wreck on the billows.

In parts of the Swedish Skärgård this curious plan of fishing on the part of the goosander has been taken advantage of by the inhabitants; for seeing the way in which these birds, by thus uniting their forces, drive the fish into certain shallows, they place contrivances under the water to receive the fugitives. The Rector Ilström—who in the Transactions of the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, 1749, gives a description of these *Fisk-hus*, or fish-houses—tells us that he himself has visited such devices when fish had been chased into them in the manner described, and adds: “The inhabitants of my parish thus yearly obtain not only a sufficiency of fish for their own consumption, but are enabled, for moderate payment, to supply their neighbours.”

Though the goosander, as with the golden-eye, at times makes its nest on the ground, amongst heaps of stones and the like, it would seem to breed in preference in the hollow of a tree. The nest is composed of feathers, and lined with down. Unless it be robbed—in the manner spoken of at page 472—the female does not ordinarily lay more than from eight to twelve eggs, which are of a dirty-yellow, or buff,

colour and equally formed at both ends. Incubation lasts from twenty-two to twenty-three days. When the female begins to sit, the male no longer visits her. For a while he remains in some lake or river in the vicinity, and afterwards deserts her altogether. The goosander breeds early; instances are on record, indeed, of its eggs, already sat upon for some time, having been found even on the 22nd of April.

As with the golden-eye, the point is much mooted in Sweden regarding the way in which the goosander, when it nests in a hollow tree—and often at a height of from twenty to thirty feet—gets its young to the ground, which it is known to do the night after they are hatched. Some imagine that whilst in the nest, the poults get on to her back, after which she slowly creeps out of the cavity, and thus burthened, either descends with outstretched wings, and half-hovering, as it were, to *terra firma*, or cautiously takes her flight to the nearest water. Others contend, and with a much greater show of reason, that she takes them up in her bill, and in this way carries them to their native element.

As, however, the brood is generally pretty numerous, and as she is supposed only to remove one chick at a time, the question arises as to what becomes of those deposited on the strand, or in the water, as the case may be, whilst she revisits the nest for the remainder. But the fishermen on the coast have—to their own satisfaction, at least—solved this difficulty; for they say, that to prevent the young from straggling, or swimming away, the mother very sensibly places them on their backs.

The flesh of the goosander is oily, and ill-tasted. In parts of the Skärgård it is nevertheless eaten by the inhabitants,

“who,” according to Dr. Samuel Ödman, “consider soup prepared from it as very delicious.”

The Red-breasted Merganser, or Saw-bill (*Små-Skrake*, Sw.; *M. Serrator*, Linn.), was pretty common in the vicinity of Ronnum, where a pair or two bred. It was much more common, however, in our Skärgård, where it remains as well during summer as winter, until such time at least as the sea becomes frozen over; and even then some are still to be seen in natural openings in the ice. It is also common throughout the length and breadth of Scandinavia, from Scania to northern Lapland; and it nests both in the interior and on the coast. Some, no doubt, migrate, but many remain in the more southern parts of the peninsula all the year round. It is common in Denmark during the winter time and breeds, though somewhat sparingly as it would seem, in that country.

Ekström, when speaking of the birds frequenting the eastern coast of Sweden, says, “the saw-bill is the best of barometers; if, during a partial thaw in the winter it reappears, one may be very sure there will be no more severe frost that year.”

As with the goosander, this bird feeds chiefly on fish, more especially on young eels, viviparous blennys, gunnels, and others with smooth and slimy skins; to seize hold of and retain which, its pointed, saw-like bill would seem to be specially intended.

It breeds at a later period in the spring than the goosander, and never makes its nest, in like manner with that bird, in the hollow of a tree; but on the ground, and under a stone, or amongst thick grass. It was in such situations, at least, that we used to find it in the Skärgård. The female lays

from eight to fifteen eggs, which, though smaller, are of a somewhat similar shape and colour to those of the goosander. In length they are two inches six lines; and in thickness one inch seven lines. Whilst the female is sitting, the male remains in the vicinity of the nest; but when the young are hatched, he deserts her and leaves her to take care of the brood.

The Smew (*Sal-Skrake*, Sw.; *M. albellus*, Linn.). Though this bird was not noticed by ourselves, it is not very uncommon, according to M. von Wright, in the neighbouring Skärgård, more especially during severe winters. A fine male, indeed, was shot two years ago near to Gothenburg, and is now preserved in the museum at that town. It is a very scarce bird in Scandinavia, and seldom seen, excepting on the eastern coast of Sweden, where, Ekström tells us, it appears in company with the golden-eye. Both M. von Wright and M. Malm, when in northern Lapland, were informed that it was at times found in that country, and bred there; but it never came under their observation. It is somewhat rare in Denmark, less so, however, during the spring than in the winter time. Its proper home is supposed to be the northern portions of Russia and Siberia.—Migrates.

The smew is said to make its nest near to the shores of lakes and rivers, and to lay from eight to twelve greyish-white eggs.

It is asserted—and if true, the circumstance is curious—that the smew has been known to pair with the golden-eye. Eimbeck, in “Isis,” 1831, speaks of a hybrid, the produce of this connection, which was shot in Brunswick in the spring of 1825, and which he designates the *Mergus anatarius*.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE GREBES—THE DIVERS—THE GUILLEMOTS—THE ROTCHE—THE RAZOR-BILL—THE GREAT AUK—THE PUFFIN—THE BIRD ISLAND—INCREDIBLE NUMBERS OF SEA-FOWL.

THE Great Crested Grebe (*Hvit-strupig Dopping*, or White-throated Dipper, Sw.; *Podiceps cristatus*, Lath.). This bird is pretty common during the summer months in the southern and more midland provinces of Sweden, especially in the south; but its limits to the northward do not appear to be ascertained. It migrates; arriving in the peninsula in April, and taking its departure in October. It is pretty common in Denmark, where it breeds in many places.

“Its nest,” according to Nilsson, “consists of a floating mass of bull-rushes (*Scirpus lacustris*, Linn.) and other water plants. It is fastened to the reeds in such manner that it cannot be driven away by the wind. Above, the nest is flat; and here one finds in July or the beginning of August, four eggs, oblong in form, and of a dirty-white colour. When the bird observes a boat approaching, it covers the eggs with

rushes or grass; and creeping into the water, dives to the bottom, and does not come up again before it has reached a long distance from the nest. When the young are hatched, they immediately take to the water, and on the approach of danger, the mother shelters them under her wings."

In former times, Bechstein says, the under part of the skin of the great crested grebe, with its beautiful glossy pearl-coloured feathers, was used for muffs and other articles of female adornment. Five skins were required for a muff, which, when ready, was sold for twenty-five silver dollars and upwards.

The Red-necked Grebe (*Grå-strupig Dopping*, or Grey-throated Dipper, Sw.; *P. rubricollis*, Lath.) was not uncommon on the neighbouring coast; but M. von Wright states that he never saw it there, except during the winter. Neither is it scarce, Nilsson tells us, in the south of Sweden. As with the great crested grebe, its limits to the northward do not seem to be known. In Denmark it is described as not uncommon.

The Little Grebe (*Små-Dopping*, or Little Dipper, Sw.; *P. minor*, Lath.) was scarce with us, and on the coast, where, indeed, M. von Wright only met with it in a single instance. According to Nilsson, it is found here and there in the southern and more central parts of Sweden. Its habits are described as similar to those of the other grebes. It is not uncommon in Denmark, especially in the fall of the year; and some few remain there during the whole of mild winters.—Migrates.

In addition to the above-named three species of the genus *Podiceps*, Nilsson includes three others in the Scandinavian fauna—namely, *P. cornutus*, Lath., found sparingly, he

says, in the southern and central parts of Sweden; *P. auritus*, Auct., said to be confined to the southern and eastern portions of Sweden, but everywhere scarce; and *P. arcticus*, Boie, which seems to inhabit the whole of the peninsula, although more common in the northern and north-western parts.

By the Proceedings of the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, 1849, it would, however, appear that Professor C. S. Sundevall has cleared up—to the satisfaction of some, at least—the mystery that has for a long period hung over these species. The *P. arcticus* and *P. cornutus* are, the Professor says, one and the same species, and no other than the *P. auritus*, Linn.: the *P. arcticus* is the bird in the summer dress, and the *P. cornutus* when in its spring dress. The reason, he goes on to say, of these designations having been adopted was, that Linnæus' *auritus* was transferred to the *P. auritus*, Lath., which bird does not belong to the Scandinavian fauna. Instead, therefore, of the three species in question, there is only one, and that is the *P. auritus*, Linn.*

P. auritus, Lath., is another species, which has nothing whatever to do with the Swedish fauna (although found in Schleswig and Jutland, according to Kjærbölling), and respecting which Latham has committed a mistake, in having confounded it with the *P. auritus*, Linn. *P. auritus*, Lath., being therefore without a proper designation, Prof. Sundevall has given it another—namely, *P. nigricollis*, Sundevall.

The Northern Diver (*Is-Lom*, or *Ice-Lom*, Sw.; *Colymbus glacialis*, Linn.) was very rare in the neighbouring Skärgård.

* Kjærbölling, it should be remarked, assumes *P. cornutus*, Lath., to be a distinct species, and considers *P. arcticus*, Boie, as identical with *P. auritus*, Faber, and *Colymbus auritus*, Linn.

M. von Wright states, indeed, that only two came under his observation during his abode at Oroust. It is rare also on the coasts of the southern and more midland portions of Scandinavia; but on those of northern Norway and Finmark it is by all accounts quite common. At times, according to the same authority, it is found in the interior of Lapland; one having been shot near to Muonioniska, which is about the 68° N. latitude. It very seldom makes its appearance on the Danish coasts.

The loud cries of this bird are said to cause a fearful echo on the surrounding rocks, and to resemble those of a man in peril of his life. Hence many idle superstitions.

Pontoppidan gives a marvellous account of the Is-Lom. "The immer, imbrim, ember, or the great northern diver, is a pretty large sea-bird, a little bigger than a goose; it has a long neck, the upper part black, as well as the bill and feet; but from the breast downwards 'tis white; there are also some white feathers at the extremity of the wings and tail. The wings are so short, that they can hardly raise themselves with them; and the legs stand so far backwards, that they are not so fit to walk with, as to paddle themselves along the water. Hence arises that strange account in which everybody agrees, that the immer is never seen to come ashore excepting in the week before Christmas; from whence the fourth Sunday in Advent is called by the people in general Immer, or, according to their way of expressing, Ommer-Sunday. On inquiring how they find place and opportunity to hatch their young, I have been informed they lay but two eggs, which is very likely; for one never sees more than two young ones with them. Under their wings in their body, there are two pretty deep holes, big enough to put one's fist in; in

each of these they hide an egg, and hatch the young ones there as perfect, and with less trouble, than others do on shore. *Relata refero, sed constanter et a plurimis relata.* Herr Lucas Debes, whom I consider as a pretty cautious writer, does not look upon this to be improbable."

Though Swedish naturalists think it more than likely that the northern diver breeds in the peninsula, the fact does not seem to be ascertained. Its eggs are two in number, oblong in form, olive-brown in colour, and marked with brown spots. One of them often proves infecund.

The Black-throated Diver (*Stor-Lom*, or Great-Lom, Sw.; *C. arcticus*, Linn.) was common with us, as well as on the neighbouring coast. With the exception of Scania, where it is only found during the winter time, it is also common throughout the whole of Scandinavia—much more so, however, as it would seem, in the interior than on the coast. Indeed, there is hardly a lake of any magnitude, even in the wilds of the forest, that is not, in the summer, tenanted by a pair or two of these birds. It is occasionally seen in Denmark during the winter time, but would not appear to breed there. Although its specific name would denote it to belong more especially to the Arctic regions, it is, we are informed by Kjærbölling, neither found in Iceland nor in Greenland.

From the very ungainly step of these and other divers when on dry land, the peasants have the somewhat irreverend saying, that when first created, its legs were forgotten, but subsequently thrown after it. This, in their eyes, accounts for its pedestals being placed so singularly far behind!

"They walk excessively slow, and with difficulty," says Pontoppidan, "because their legs stand so far backwards,

under their tail, as they do on the northern diver and the razor-bill; therefore it builds its nest in the rushes, or on the sides of fresh-water lakes; but so close to the water, that the dams can roll themselves down into their proper element from the nest without the help of their legs."

"When this bird," he goes on to tell us, "is in a sportive humour, it makes a frightful ugly noise, just like the cries of a human creature in imminent danger, and calling for relief. It makes another very different noise, which is a signal to the farmer for fine weather, after a great deal of wet and stormy seasons. At these times they are seen to fly pretty high over their nests."

The female forms her nest immediately near the edge of the water, and lays two eggs, very similar in colour to those of the northern diver. From actual measurement made by ourselves in many instances, they are from three inches to three inches three lines in length, by from two inches to two inches one line in thickness. It is said that if the female be killed, the male will incubate them.

Some curious notions, not confined altogether to the vulgar, prevail in Scandinavia respecting this bird.

"It is known," so we read, "that some species of predatory birds do not rear the whole of their young; but it is probably less known that the like vicious practice prevails with the black-throated diver. After having examined eleven of their nests, in none of which the eggs exceeded two in number—and in all cases the circumstances were alike—one may with tolerable confidence draw the attention of naturalists to the fact of it being the custom of that bird to destroy one of its young. Whether it arises from prudence, scarcity of food, or other causes, certain it is that three

to four days after they are hatched, one of them is always found dead in the nest. It would appear as if both parents now transferred all their affections to the surviving chick. They seldom leave it to itself, and if allowed to follow them, one or the other takes it upon the back, and thus swims and dives with it without its falling off. The old bird also adopts this method during storms to transport it across great bays and inlets; and it is really wonderful to see it, even when of the size of a full-grown Garganey duck, sitting perfectly at ease on the mother's back, and without her seeming in any manner weary of the burden. Hence it may be inferred that instinct convinces the parents of their inability to rear two young ones, and they therefore find themselves compelled to destroy one, that the other may be duly cared for."

In Lapland, where this bird is frequently captured in steel-traps, the flesh is eaten by the inhabitants. The skin, drawn off whole, with the down on, is used for the purpose of lining caps, and is considered preferable even to that of the swan.

The Red-throated Diver (*Små-Lom*, or *Little-Lom*, Sw.; *C. septentrionalis*, Linn.) was common in the vicinity of Ronnum, and in the neighbouring Skärgård, where many bred. It is also common almost everywhere throughout the length and breadth of Scandinavia, both in the interior and on the coast, where it for the most part nests. On the shores of Denmark it is described as common during the winter time.

In Finmark this bird, in consequence of its harsh and disagreeable cry, is called in derision, 'Lofodden's nightingale;' and when its *kakerá*, *kakerá*, is heard high in the air, the fishermen predict fine weather.

"The act of pairing with the red-throated diver," says M.

von Wright, " (and this is probably the case with all the grebes and divers), takes place in an upright position in the water ; and so far as I have been able to observe, in such manner, that the male is behind the back of the female."

The latter forms her nest near to the water, and lays two eggs, which, though smaller, bear considerable resemblance to those of the black-throated diver.

The Black Guillemot (*Tobis-Grissla*, Sw. ; *Uria Grylle*, Lath.) was exceedingly common in the neighbouring Skärgård during the summer months. Many, indeed, passed the winter there, unless the sea was entirely covered with ice. It is also common on all the coasts of Scandinavia, eastern as well as western, from Scania to Finmark ; less so, however, in the south than in the north, where its numbers are something like legion. In Denmark it is common during the winter, and some breed there.

This bird, which with us was called the *Teste*, feeds mostly on fish, more especially on the spotted gunnel (*Blennius Gunnellus*, Linn.) ; from which circumstance that fish went amongst the fishermen by the name of the *Teste-Fisk*.

In our Skärgård, where the black guillemot bred in great numbers, it made its nest amongst heaps of stones, with which the ground is everywhere strewed, or in the clefts of rocks. It lays from one to two eggs (not always a single egg, as English naturalists will have it), and, according to Nilsson, occasionally three (?). These are greyish-white, tinged with green, and marked with larger or smaller dark-brown and ash-grey spots and blotches. In length they are two inches two lines, and in thickness one inch five lines.

The flesh of the black guillemot—of the old birds, at least—is hard, black, and not over-palatable ; but on the eastern

coast, according to Ekström, "the *Skärgårds-Karlar*," or men inhabiting the islands, "protect it, because their mouths water for the delicate young ones."

"At the end of August, when these are ready to fly," he says, "the fowler starts on special expeditions in search of them. He is provided with a large basket to hold the spoil, and a long flexible stick with a sort of screw at the end. When he comes to places where they are known to breed, he listens at every crevice among the stones and rocks for the cry of the chicks; and when he has discovered their abode, and finds it impracticable either by removing the stones, or otherwise, to obtain access to the nest with his hand, he forthwith extracts the bird with the screw. If this has only taken hold of the wing, or the feathers, the bird is placed in the basket alive; but if serious injury has been inflicted, its neck is at once twisted. When the spoiler has thus taxed as many nests as he can find, he returns home with the booty, the living portion of which he deposits in a corner of his *Sjö-bod*—that is, the shed, where he keeps his nets, and where he has previously piled up a heap of stones, amongst which the birds may find shelter. They are fed with the offal of fish, or with small fry, until such time as they become indescribably obese; and when this is the case, the good woman of the house converts them, as occasion requires, into soup, which these men—whom nature has endowed with a taste quite in unison with their strong digestive organs—consider most delectable."

The Foolish Guillemot (*Sill-Grissla*, or Herring-Grissla, Sw.; *U. Troile*, Lath.) was very common in the adjoining Skärgård during the autumn and winter. "It usually arrives here in large flocks," says M. von Wright, "towards the end

of October, though sometimes not until November. During its stay, more especially in severe frost, it is very tame, and evinces but little fear for people." Stragglers, it was thought, bred amongst the islands; but speaking generally, these birds pass the summer months on the coasts of Norway and Finmark, where, like the black guillemot, they nest in myriads. In Denmark it is very common in the winter time, and is asserted to breed in one or two places.

Nilsson, it should be remarked, divides the *U. Troile*, Lath., into three sub-species—namely, the *U. Troile*, Temm.; the *U. intermedia* (Nilss.); and the *U. Brünnichii*, Sabine. But M. von Wright, when speaking of the *U. Troile*, Lath., remarks as follows :

"From the opportunities that I have had of examining a great number of recently shot birds, I have arrived at the conclusion that in this Skärgård (that of Bohus), we have only one species. It varies in size and in other respects, so much so, that if a sufficient number of specimens were lying before one, an unbroken series of forms between the two extremes might readily be pointed out; and I therefore fully coincide in the opinion of those naturalists who look upon such dissimilarities in form as being purely accidental and independent of sex, age, or locality. A hair's-breadth, more or less, in the length of the bill, leg or other part, appears to me to amount to nothing."

The Danish fauna embraces the Ringed Guillemot (*U. Hringvia*, Brünn.); as also the Brünnich's Guillemot (*U. Brünnichii*, Sabine). They are both described as extremely scarce in that country.

The Common Rotche (*Sjö-Kung*, or Sea-King, Sw.; *Mergulus Alle*, Selby) was an occasional visitor to our Skär-

gård; but, according to M. von Wright, "only met with, and in small numbers, quite late in the autumn and during the winter; for early in the spring it disappears altogether, and is never seen during the summer time." It is on record that stragglers have been shot in the Wenern, in the lake Mjösen in Norway, and elsewhere. M. Malm describes it as at times exceedingly abundant, during the winter months, on the shores of the Icy Sea; but it is only seen there, he says, at that season. Its proper home is the more northern part of the polar seas, but storms occasionally drive it to the southward. This was the case in the winter of 1830-31, when it appeared on the coast of Scania in immense numbers. The harbour of Ysted was occasionally, indeed, almost covered with these birds. Once in a time it visits Denmark also.

The Razor-Bill (*Tordmule*; *Alk*, Sw.; *Alca Torda*, Linn.) was not uncommon on the neighbouring coast during autumn and winter; but it always took its departure from thence early in the spring. Nilsson says it breeds in the eastern Skärgård; but it never did so with us. Its proper home during the summer months is the coasts of Finmark, where it nests in enormous colonies. It is very common on the Danish coasts in the winter, and some are known to breed there.

Pontoppidan gives a rather remarkable account of the razor-bill. "They can fish and swim beyond many others," he says, "but are very weak at flying or walking, because the legs are placed as if upon the rump—so very far behind, that it is troublesome to move them on land; the bird, therefore, totters like a drunken man. On this account is the saying: 'Drunk as an alk.' The wings are of no great use, and for

that reason it is easily taken on the nest. They always build by the sea-side, on the highest and steepest rocks or cliffs. They are counted the greatest of herring-fishers, and they will dive, according to our fishermen's attestation, twenty fathoms under water. They have sometimes the misfortune to mistake, and bite hold of a fish-hook, and so are drawn up from that depth as fish."

"To shoot the razor-bill on the wing," Ekström tells us, "every one is not equal; and from its expertness in diving, to hit it whilst swimming is far from easy. The people hereabouts (the eastern Skärgård) resort, therefore, to an expedient, which if not uniformly attended with success, is nevertheless constantly practised, and most amusing to witness.

"When the bird is observed on the water, the sportsman, whilst steering his skiff a little on one side, begins singing, at first in a moderately loud voice; but the nearer he approaches the bird, the higher he pitches it, so that at last it becomes a perfect scream. The bird, whether from fright, or fondness of music, will now, with out-stretched neck, and bill pointed upwards, remain altogether motionless on the surface, and by thus neglecting to dive when the fatal trigger is pulled, it falls an easy prey to the pursuer."

The razor-bill makes its nest in a hole in the ground, or in a cleft of the rock, and lays a single, oblong-shaped egg. The colour—which varies endlessly—is commonly greyish-white, marked with brown and grey spots and blotches.

This bird is not in much request for the table. "Its feathers are excellent," says Ekström, "but only a Greenlander can find its flesh palatable."

The Great Auk (*Gar-Fogel*, Sw.; *Alca impennis*, Linn.). This remarkable bird—the largest of its tribe, being the size

of the common tame goose—which at no period of its existence is able to fly, resembles greatly the penguins of the southern hemisphere, the link between birds and amphibious animals. Although at one time, according to ancient authors, it belonged to the Scandinavian fauna, it cannot now be considered as entitled to a place there. The last heard of on the coast of the peninsula, was killed in the Cattegat near to the town of Marstrand some fifty to sixty years ago. About the same period, Denicken tells us, one was shot in the harbour of Kiel, in Holstein.

According to Graba, the great auk has not been seen in Greenland, Iceland, or the Færoe Islands of late years; and the author of an article in the “Edinburgh Cabinet Library,” who cites Graba, says, that “the race may now be regarded as extinct.” English and Swedish naturalists, as respects the countries in question, seem to have come to pretty much the same conclusion. But this is incorrect, for on parts at least of the coast of Iceland it is still to be met with. This is more especially the case on the so-called *Geirfugle-Skjær*, (Danish), or Great Auk-Skär; on which, however, so fearful a surf is said constantly to beat, that it is rarely, excepting at imminent risk to life, that a landing can be effected.

In the year 1813, a colony of these birds, we are told, were here observed by a passing ship. A boat was at once despatched to the spot, and no fewer than twenty were captured on their eggs, all of which were carried to Reikiavig. One of the birds was afterwards stuffed, but the others were eaten. In 1814, again, eight individuals were killed on a flat Skär on the west coast of Iceland. In 1818 a single one was taken at a place in South Iceland, where several others were also observed. In 1823 two old birds were killed on a Skär near

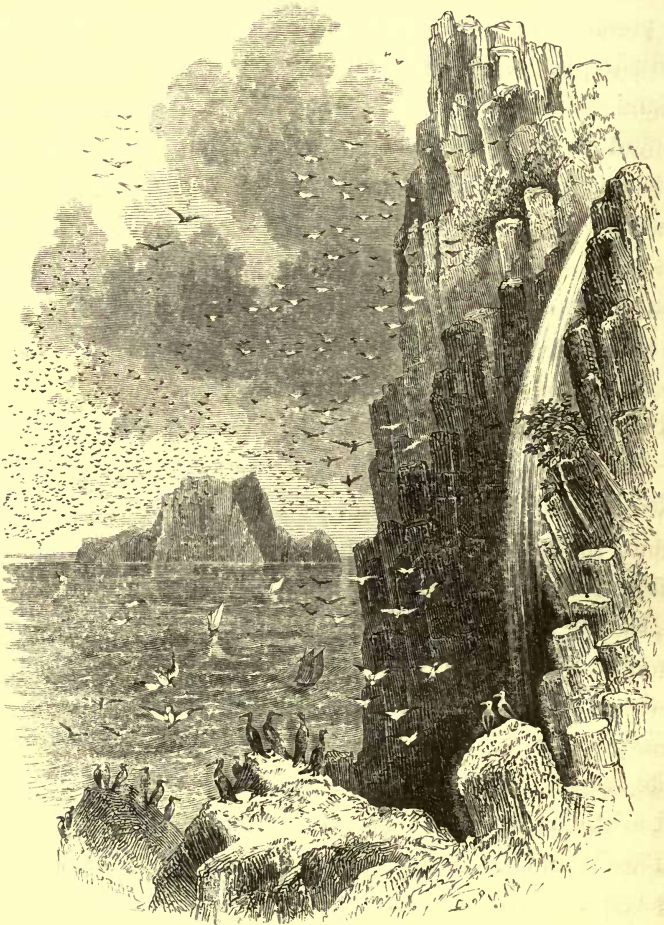
to Örebro, and both were sent to the Royal Museum at Copenhagen. In 1829 a pair, male and female, were killed on the Geirfugle-Skjær, whilst courageously defending their two eggs (they usually lay but one). These birds are now in the possession of the Apothecary Mechlenburg, at Flensburg. Still later, in 1832, at least ten were killed on a Skär near to Iceland. In the year 1834, three birds and three eggs were brought to Copenhagen from that island. In 1844, two birds and two eggs also reached this city from the same quarter. People whose word is to be relied on, Kjærbölling tells us, have informed him that birds have subsequently been seen off the coast of Iceland; but although a large reward has been offered for both birds and skins, no one has had the courage to land upon the Skär.

From the above account, there can be little question as to the great auk still existing in some numbers on the coast of Iceland; and I doubt not that we shall one day hear of some of our enterprising countrymen having overcome all difficulties, and returning home with a rich booty.

The egg of the great auk (occasionally it lays two, as it would seem from the foregoing) is about the size of that of the swan, and in shape resembles that of the foolish guillemot, but is less pointed. The ground colour is dirty-white, tinged with yellow, marked, especially at the thicker end, with black-grey and brown blotches and streaks.

The Puffin (*Lunne-Fogel*, Sw.; *Fratercula arctica*, Steph.) was very scarce in our Skärgård. A few pair bred, according to M. von Wright, amongst the more northern of the islands, where, however, the bird was so little known as, with the fishermen, to go by the name of the *Utländsk Alk*, or foreign razor-bill. In the more southern parts of Sweden it is

seldom or never seen, except during the winter. It is very rare in Denmark. It passes the summer months, for the most part at least, in the far north.



FUGLE-Ö.

This is more especially the case at *Fugle-Ö*, or the Bird-

Island, which lies off the western coast of Norway, in 70° 30' N. latitude. It is nearly circular in form, and about five or six (English) miles in diameter. Its height is some three thousand feet, and it is almost everywhere encompassed by perpendicular cliffs. It can only be ascended on the northern and western side, and even there not without endangerment of life. Fugle-Ö is sublimely beautiful. The summits of the enormous crags overhanging the sea are capped with snow, whilst their sides in places, more especially at their base, are adorned with grass and flowers. The effect is much enhanced by a splendid water-fall, situated on the western side of the island. The height of this is from two to three hundred feet; and though the volume of water meets with no obstruction during its descent, yet, before it reaches the bottom it becomes mere spray.

“When we approached Fugle-Ö,” says M. von Wright, “we met with millions of flying puffins, razor-bills, and other aquatic birds. The incalculable multitude darkened the sky, and can only be compared with the mosquito swarms of Lapland. We were still at some three miles from the island, when they appeared and surrounded the boat, as if they had the intention of preventing us from reaching their home. They might have done so, in truth, had they united their forces, and all attacked us at the same time.”

M. Boie tells us something to the same effect. When near to the Lofodden Islands, they fell in, he says, with such unheard of numbers of razor-bills and other birds, that he was enabled to load and fire his double-barrelled gun no fewer than ten several times before the flight, which was at least a thousand paces in breadth, had passed over them!

The puffin and the razor-bill, as said, breed in colonies.

“Their numbers are so great,” M. Debes informs us, “that when they fly out from the rocks where they are located, they hide the sun like a cloud, and the noise of their wings makes a roaring in the air like a storm.”

Pontoppidan again, when treating of the Ornithology of his native country, says: “This is certainly one of those bounties, not sufficiently regarded, that God has bestowed on Norway, particularly the western side; which, with its numberless harbours, creeks, islands, high cliffs, hollow mountains and caves, is fortified, by the wise and good Creator, as a particular refuge and asylum for an incomprehensible, and indeed almost incredible number of fowl; which sometimes are observed out at sea, at a distance of two or three (Norwegian) miles, in such large flights, that they obscure the heavens, and one would imagine all the sea-fowl of the universe were gathered together in one flock.”

Immense as are the numbers of fowl on the Norwegian coast, they would seem to be equalled, if not surpassed, in places on our own. Lord Huntingfield told me, for instance, that once when on a shooting excursion near to Flamborough Head, Yorkshire—where the cliffs rise nearly perpendicular to a very great height from the sea, for a distance of about five miles—the puffins, razor-bills, guillemots, and the like, were, to use his own words, so incalculable that being in the centre of five hundred swarms of bees would give a very inadequate idea of their numbers; that their party on this occasion consisted of five—all provided with a second gun—and that for three consecutive days each man fired away eight pounds of powder; that though many of the dead birds were taken into their own boats, the greater part of the slain were picked up by two or three other boats closely

following in their wake ; and that once, when it came on to blow, these boats were so overloaded that, to prevent their foundering, the people were obliged to throw a large portion of the birds overboard. Lord Huntingfield mentioned, moreover, that he himself in one instance killed no fewer than five birds with a single ball ; and that in another, a bird in flying past touched the muzzle of his gun-barrel with its wing.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE CORMORANTS—THE COMMON GANNET—THE PELICAN—THE TERNS—THE GULLS—THE SKUAS—THE NORTHERN FULMAR—THE MANX SHEARWATER—THE PETRELS—NONDESCRIPTS.

THE Common Cormorant (*Stor-Skarf*, or Great Skarf, Sw.; *Phalacrocorax Carbo*, Steph.) was very common in the neighbouring Skärgård, more especially during autumn, winter, and spring. Once in a time it was also seen immediately near to Ronnum. According to Ekström, it is met with, though sparingly as it would seem, on the eastern coast of Sweden. Some few breed, we had reason to believe, in our Skärgård, but by far the larger portion pass the summer months on the coasts of Norway and Finmark, where they nest in vast numbers. It was formerly common in parts of Denmark, but of late years would appear to be nearly extirpated.

The Crested Shag (*Topp-Skarf*, or Crested Skarf, Sw.; *P. cristatus*, Steph.) is common, according to Nilsson, in the

Norwegian Skärgård, the most so of the several species of *Phalacrocorax*; and is found, he says, from the Cattegat to within the polar circle. Its habits are the same as those of the cormorant, with which it not unfrequently associates and breeds. In Denmark it is rare.

The *Mellan-Skarf*, or Intermediate Skarf (*P. medius*, Nilss.), is also included by the Professor in the Scandinavian fauna. Its proper home is, he says, Holland, Denmark, Pomerania, &c., and it rarely visits the peninsula. Other Swedish naturalists, however, as also Kjærbölling, would seem to doubt its existence as a species.

The general name in Sweden for the cormorant (or other bird of the tribe) is *Hafs-Tjäder*, or sea-capercali. In our Skärgård the fishermen called it the *Ål-Kråka*, or eel-crow, for the reason, probably, that it feeds greatly on eels.

It is the popular belief in parts of Scandinavia, that the cormorant, like the heron, has but a single straight intestine, and that as soon as it has swallowed an eel, the fish quickly makes its exit the other way. To guard therefore against this mishap occurring a second time, the bird, like a sensible creature, when it again bolts the eel, places its hind parts against a rock, thereby effectually insuring its digestive organ fair play.

We often hear of animals as well as bipeds having capacious "swallows," but that of the *Loon*—as the cormorant, as well as the crested shag, is called in Norway—exceeds, if Pontoppidan is to be credited, anything on record.

"These birds," he says, "are mightily expert at catching fish, and dive, according to the fishermen, very deep, even twenty to thirty fathoms, to fetch up all kinds of small fish, of which one sometimes finds such a number in their craw

when they are killed, that it is impossible to conceive it; and still more surprising it must appear, yet nevertheless it is strictly true, and stands confirmed by many that have made their observations, that though the loon's neck is long and slender, and it would be difficult to thrust down two fingers into it, yet the bird can distend the musculous parts of his throat so wide, as to swallow a flounder half-a-foot broad, such having been found in his stomach.

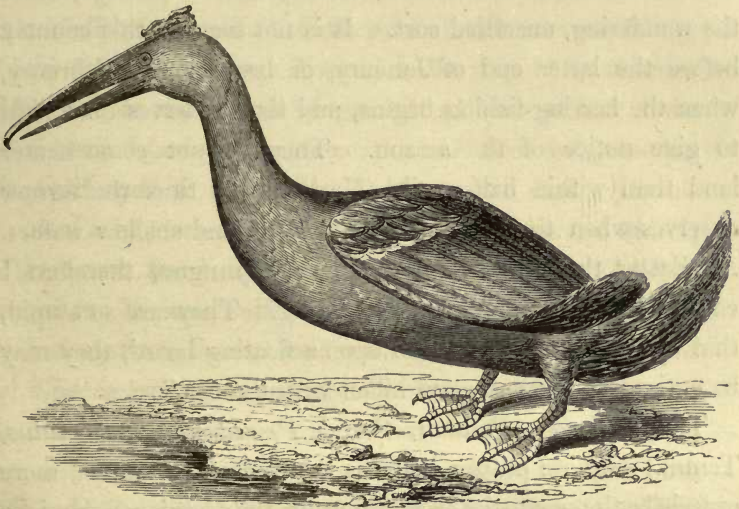
“When the loon comes ashore,” the worthy Bishop goes on to say, “he stretches himself upon his legs against the wind, that he may be thoroughly dried; but as this seldom happens, we call, in this country, anybody that is wet, slovenly, and disagreeable, a loon; or if they have their clothes but seldom dry, we say: He is as wet as a loon.

“As these birds harbour together in great numbers,” he tells us farther, “the farmers use this piece of art to catch them:—In the evening, when they are all got together, they take their boats and row under the rocks, and make a large fire; the sudden heat and smoke intoxicates them, and they drop down in heaps, and are easily killed.”

The Common Gannet (*Hafs-Sula*, Sw.; *Hav-Sule** Norw.; *Sula Bassana*, Briss.) was only seen during the winter, and then very rarely, in the neighbouring Skärgård, where by all accounts it was formerly pretty common. It went by the name of *Sill-Bas*, meaning, probably, herring-persecutor, in consequence of its always appearing in company with that fish. It is said not to be uncommon on the

* *Sule* is an old Norwegian word, still used in the fjäll districts, signifying swallow; hence *Hav-Sule*, or Sea-Swallow—a designation which this bird has obtained in consequence of its lofty and imposing flight. The black stork is for the same reason called Odin's Swallow.

more northern parts of the Scandinavian coast ; and is met with, according to M. Malm, on the shores of the Icy Sea, though only during the winter time. It is not believed to breed in the peninsula. It is an occasional visitant to the Danish coast, driven thither in most instances, Kjærbölling says, by north-westerly tempests.



THE HAV-SULE.

Pontoppidan gives a wonderful account of the gannet ; and his figure of it, as accurately given above, is about as curious as the description itself.

“The *Hav-Sule* is,” he says, “a large sea-bird, which somewhat resembles a goose ; the head and neck are rather like those of a stork, excepting that the bill is shorter and thicker, and is yellowish ; the legs are long ; across the wings

and back the colour is a light blue; the breast and long neck are white; towards the head it is green, mixed with black, and on the top there is a red comb; the tail and wings are both distinguished by some white feathers at the ends, and are large in proportion to the body; when the wings are spread from the end of one to the other, they measure six feet. This bird is eatable either roasted or salted. The Scots call it *Gentelman*; it is a bird of passage, or of the wandering, unsettled sort. It is not seen in this country before the latter end of January, or beginning of February, when the herring-fishing begins, and then it serves for a sign to give notice of the season. They do not come nearer land than within half-a-mile (Norwegian); thus the farmer observes when the fish seek the narrow and shallow waters. At Easter these birds are not seen any more, therefore I cannot say much about their breeding. They are so stupid, that by laying a few herrings upon a floating board, they may be enticed to the boat, and killed with the oar."

The Pelican (*Pelikan*, Sw.; *Pelecanus Onocrotalus*, Temm.)—whose proper home is South-eastern Europe, more especially the countries bordering on the Caspian Sea—is a recent addition to the Scandinavian fauna; one of these birds having been shot on the 8th of June, 1850, in the province of Dalecarlia, the head and feet of which are now preserved in the museum at Stockholm. It was an old and remarkably large male. According to the "Provinzialberichte für Schleswig und Holstein," 1798, this bird has also been killed at Frederiksstad in Schleswig.

The Caspian Tern (*Skrän-Tärna*, or Screaming Tern, Sw.; *Sterna Caspia*, Pall.). This, the largest of all the European terns, though shot occasionally, was scarce with

us; as is also the case in the neighbouring Skärgård, where, indeed, M. von Wright says, it gets scarcer every year. If this be really so, it is probably owing to its nest, as well as that of other sea-birds, being constantly plundered, in a manner that I shall hereafter have occasion to speak of. It is found, though sparingly it would seem, on both the eastern and western coasts of Scandinavia; but its limits to the northward do not appear to be very well defined. From M. Malm not making mention of it when enumerating the birds frequenting the shores of the Icy Sea, or M. von Wright not having observed it on the western coast of Finmark, I am inclined to believe it is not found in the higher latitudes.

According to Nilsson, the Caspian tern is somewhat solitary in its habits; unlike others of its tribe, which breed in colonies, it seldom happens that more than a single pair nests in the same locality.

The female lays her eggs on the bare rock, or in a hole in the sand, without nest of any kind. In shape they resemble those of the common hen, but are somewhat larger. The ground-colour is greyish-yellow, and they are marked with ash-grey and dark red-brown spots.

The Sandwich Tern (*Kentsk Tärna*, or Kentish Tern, Sw; *S. Cantiaca*, Gmel.). This bird, so common in Holland, would seem to be very rare in Scandinavia, for only a very few instances are on record of its having been killed there, and those in the southern parts of Sweden. It breeds, however, in large numbers on the west coast of Jutland—the only part of Denmark where it would appear to be found—from whence its eggs, which are exceedingly well-tasted, are even exported.

The Common Tern (*Fisk-Tärna*, or Fish-Tern, Sw. ; *S. Hirundo*, Linn.) was common with us in the Wenern and Gothia, but still more so in the neighbouring Skärgård. It is also common—most so probably of any of the terns—everywhere in Scandinavia, from Scania to the North Cape, and this as well in the interior as on the coast. From its habit of following the mackerel shoals, that it may pick up marine insects, crustacea, and small fish, that these in their progress frighten up to the surface of the water, it is called, by the fishermen in our Skärgård, the *Makrill-Tärna*, or Mackerel-Tern. It is very common in Denmark.—Migrates.

The Arctic Tern* (*Röd-nübbad Tärna*, or Red-billed Tern, Sw. ; *S. arctica*, Temm.) is, according to Nilsson, confined to the coast of Scania. But M. von Wright says it is common in the Bohus Skärgård, on the northern islands of which not a few nest; and M. Malm describes it as abundant in Enare and Utsjoki Lapmark, as high up as the 70° of latitude. In parts of Denmark it is exceedingly common. Nilsson is inclined to believe this bird, and not the Common Tern, to be the true *S. Hirundo* of Linnæus.

The Lesser Tern (*Små-Tärna*, or Lesser Tern, Sw. ; *S. minuta*, Linn.) is pretty common, according to Swedish naturalists, on the more southern coasts of Sweden. But from M. von Wright making no mention of it, and from its not having come under our personal observation, it seems

* This species is distinguished from the common tern, which it in appearance and habits greatly resembles, by a shorter and altogether straight blood-red bill; darker feathers on the breast and neck; somewhat longer tail in proportion to the wings; less slender legs; shorter legs and toes; shorter and less crooked claws; less black-grey on the first wing-feathers; less grey on the tail.

doubtful whether it proceeds so far towards the north as the Bohus Skärgård. It is not uncommon in Denmark, where it breeds.

The Black Tern (*Svart Tärna*, or Black Tern, Sw.; *S. nigra*, Linn.) was pretty common in the Wenern, where, on one occasion, I myself shot several; but in the adjoining Skärgård it is rarely or never seen. It is found in the southern and more midland provinces of Sweden, chiefly in the interior, and as high up, according to Linnæus, as the 60° N. latitude. It is common in Denmark.—Migrates.

The *Hvit-vingad Tärna*, or White-winged Tern (*S. leucoptera*, Temm.), whose proper home is the inland lakes of the more southern parts of Europe, is numbered amongst the Scandinavian birds; but so far as I am aware, only a single specimen has, as yet, been killed in the peninsula, and that near to the town of Lund in Scania. It is also very rare in Denmark.

According to Kjærbölling, the Danish fauna includes three more terns than the Swedish—namely, the Roseate Tern (*S. Dougallii*, Mont.); the Gull-billed Tern (*S. Anglica*, Mont.); and the Whiskered Tern (*S. leucopareia*, Natterer). The last, he says—and I mention the circumstance, as its nesting habits seem to be unknown to English naturalists—lays three to four eggs of a pale-green colour, marked with brownish-ash-grey and dark-brown spots.

The Little Gull (*Dverg-Måse*, or Dwarf-Gull, Sw.; *Larus minutus*, Pall.). This, the smallest of the gulls, whose home is Siberia and other eastern countries, is confined, Nilsson tells us, to the island of Gottland, where it breeds. It has on several occasions been killed in Denmark, where, however, it is very scarce, and only appears during certain years.

The Black-headed Gull (*Skratt-Måse*, or Laughing-Gull, Sw.; *L. ridibundus*, Linn.), which winters in southern Europe and northern Africa, is only found, we are told, in the south of Sweden. And this would appear to be the case, as it was never seen by M. von Wright, or ourselves, in the neighbouring Skärgård. During the summer months its resorts are, for the most part, the waters of the interior; but in autumn and spring, on the contrary, the sea-coast. It is common in Denmark. Its usual cry resembles a laugh; hence its Swedish appellation of *Skratt-Måse*, and its German of *Lach-Möwe*.—Migrates.

The Kittiwake Gull (*Tre-tåig Måse*, or Three-toed Gull, Sw.; *L. tridactylus*, Lath.) was only seen with us, or in the neighbouring Skärgård, during autumn, winter and spring, and that not every year. Its resorts in the summer time are the more northern coasts of Scandinavia. M. Malm describes it as abundant both winter and summer on the shores of the Icy Sea. It is pretty common in Denmark, especially in the Sound, during the winter.

Three or four years ago, a number of these birds, at the setting in of the winter, made their appearance in Gothenburg, where they disported themselves in the canals that intersect that town in all directions. Boys and others used, for amusement, to cast small herrings, &c., to them; and it was not until the greater part were killed, that the remainder betook themselves elsewhere.

In Scania, when the winter is mild, and the fresh-water lakes remain open, these birds, Nilsson tells us, resort to the interior of the country. A few years ago an old female kittiwake was one morning found alive in the kitchen of a house in the town of Lund; during the preceding night she had

fallen down the chimney, on the top of which she had probably perched to rest herself.

The Common Gull (*Fisk-Måse*, or Fishing-Gull, Sw.; *L. canus*, Linn.) was very abundant in the Gotha and the Wenern, as also in the neighbouring Skärgård; and many remained with us, winter as well as summer. It is the most numerous of the gull tribe, and found throughout the length and breadth of Scandinavia, as well on the coast as in the interior. Nilsson says that, to his no small astonishment, he met with it in numbers in lakes and tarns high amongst the Norwegian fjälls; in those, indeed, that are situated in the region of perpetual snow, and about the strands of which, though then the end of July, there was still much ice and snow. It is also common in Denmark.

The Ivory Gull (*Hvit-Måse*, or White Gull, Sw.; *L. eburneus*, Gmel.). This bird, whose proper home is the high north—Greenland, Spitzbergen, and other Arctic countries—would appear to be only a winter visitant to Scandinavia, and there to confine itself chiefly to the more northern shores of Norway. According to M. Malm, it breeds nowhere in Eastern Finmark, where it is only seen at the setting in of the winter, when migrating. Once in a time, Kjærbölling tells us, it is met with in the coasts of Denmark. Its eggs are unknown to Northern naturalists.

Holböll says the ivory gull is the most stupid of birds, and that by means of a piece of blubber, or what not, tied to the end of a string, the Esquimaux lure it so close to them as to secure it with their hands. One of these men told him, indeed, that the lolling out of the tongue, and wagging it about, was quite sufficient to bring the bird within reach of his weapon!

The Herring Gull (*Grå-Trut*, or Grey-Trut, Sw.; *L. argentatus*, Brünn.) was exceedingly common in the neighbouring Skärgård, where it, for the most part, remained during the winter; its food at that time consisting chiefly, M. von Wright tells us, of star-fishes, which it captures in the shallows. With the exception of the south of Sweden, where it is described as somewhat scarce, it is common also on both the eastern and western coasts of Scandinavia. M. Malm describes it as abundant on the shores of the Icy Sea; and at times, he says, one meets with it, when migrating, in the interior of the country. It is very abundant in Denmark. On the island of Sylt, off the west coast of Schleswig, we read that from thirty to forty thousand eggs, which are in great repute for the table, are taken annually.

The *Hvit-Trut*, or White-Trut (*L. leucopterus*, Faber). This bird, as with the ivory gull, belongs properly to the high north. Nilsson has reason to believe that it is found in the eastern Skärgård; but the evidences he brings forward are hardly sufficient, to my mind, to establish the fact. In one or two instances it has been killed in Denmark.

The Lesser Black-backed Gull (*Sill-Måse*, or Herring-Gull, Sw.; *L. fuscus*, Linn.) was common during the summer months, as well in the vicinity of Ronnum, as in the Skärgård; but few or none, by M. von Wright's account, wintered there. It is also common on both coasts of Scandinavia, more so, however, on the western than the eastern, to far beyond the polar circle. It is found in Denmark, though sparingly, and only during autumn and winter.

The Swedish appellation of this bird is derived from the circumstance of its always following the shoals of herrings, thus serving to point out their whereabouts to the fishermen.

When it flies high, the shoal is known to follow the deeps; and when low, on the contrary, it is certain that the fish are near to the surface.

The Great Black-backed Gull (*Hafs-Trut*, or *Sea-Trut*, Sw.; *L. marinus*, Linn.) was pretty common, as well with us as in the neighbouring Skärgård. It is also pretty common on both coasts of the peninsula, nearly as high up, I believe, as the North Cape. It is pretty common in Denmark during the winter time, and some breed off the western coast of Jutland.

By the fishermen, this bird was more generally known under the name of *Prost*, or *Parson*, possibly from its lugubrious cry, and from its plumage somewhat resembling the attire of a clergyman when in full canonicals.

It bred as well in the Wenern as on the coast, generally on the more remote and recluse islands, and always in single pairs, never in colonies. The female lays from two to three eggs (as large as those of a goose), which in most instances are of a grey-green or olive-green colour, marked with brown-grey or ash-grey spots. It breeds early; and during incubation, which lasts four weeks, male and female are said to sit alternately on the eggs.

The Glaucous Gull (*Stor Hvit-Trut*, or *Great White-Trut*, Sw.; *L. glaucus*, Brünn.) was rare in our Skärgård; but it is common, according to M. Malm, on the shores of the Icy Sea. "It nests," he says, "on Renö, an island in Eastern Finmark, in company with thousands of other sea-birds; and after the young are fledged, countless flocks of this species of gull are seen collected together." According to Kjærbölling, it has occasionally been shot in the Sound and other parts of Denmark.

The Common Skua (*Stor Labbe*, or Great Labbe, Sw.; *Lestris Cataractes*, Temm.) was never observed in our Skärgård, by either M. von Wright or ourselves. Nilsson says it seldom appears on the Scandinavian coasts; and, so far as he is aware, only on those of northern Norway. According to Danish naturalists, it has occasionally been killed during the winter time in the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein.

This powerful, courageous, and daring bird represents the predatory birds amongst water-fowl. It not only furiously pursues gulls and other birds, and compels them to drop the fish they have captured (hence its designation, in common with other skuas, of Parasitic Gull), but actually preys upon them. It has been known with a single blow of its beak, so we are told, to split open the head of gulls, guillemots, and the like; and after rending them to pieces with its crooked talons, to devour them piecemeal; as also to tear out the eyes of lambs.

It breeds in colonies, at times consisting of a hundred pair or more, and lays from one to two olive-green, or reddish-brown eggs, marked with larger and smaller brown and grey spots. In length the eggs are two inches and five-eighths, and in thickness two inches. No other birds, as it is asserted, breed in its vicinity.

It defends its young with great courage. "When one approaches its nest," says Pontoppidan, "they are not afraid to lay hold with the beak, and give hard blows with their wings. The fowlers, therefore, are sometimes forced to make use of knives to defend themselves, against which these birds fly, and are killed."

The Pomarine Skua (*Bred-stjertad Labbe*, or Broad-tailed Labbe, Sw.; *L. Pomarinus*, Temm.). This bird, as with

the common skua, belongs to the more northern parts of Scandinavia. On the western coast of Finmark it would not appear to be scarce; and M. Malm describes it as common on the shores of the Icy Sea. It is also found, Nilsson says, in the more northern parts of the Gulf of Bothnia. It was very rare in our Skärgård. Only two individuals, indeed, ever came under the notice of M. von Wright; both were evidently out of their latitude, and so exhausted as to be captured by the hand. It has in several instances been killed in Denmark.

It makes its nest in marshy ground, and lays two eggs, olive-green in colour, and marked with brownish-grey and dark-brown spots.

The Richardson's Skua (*Spets-stjertad Labbe*, or Pointed-tailed Labbe, Sw.; *L. Richardsonii*, Swains.). This bird was pretty common in our Skärgård, where it was not unfrequently shot by us. It is also pretty common on both the eastern and western coasts of Scandinavia, especially their more northern parts, and as high up, I believe, as the North Cape itself. M. Malm met with it everywhere on the shores of the Icy Sea; and says that after the young are fledged, these birds, as also the pomarine skua, are at times to be seen in the interior of the country. It is scarce in Denmark, where, however, some few breed.

The Richardson's skua, as with others of the tribe, is a great persecutor of the gulls. It is not uninteresting to watch the chase, and the anxiety of the gulls—evinced by their piercing cries and gyrations—at the sight of the enemy, whose coming they descry from a long distance.

Pontoppidan, when speaking of this bird—the *Jo-Tyv*, or Jo-Thief, as he calls it—says: "He is an enemy to other

birds, tho' not a very dangerous one, as may be concluded; for he only strives, in his pursuit after them, to get their prey from them, which he is too lazy to catch for himself; or, if he can't get that, he'll take the other birds' droppings, from whence the Dutch call him *Strunt-Jäger*. As soon as the other drops it, 'tis instantly caught up by the Jo-Tyv, and with that he is satisfied without any farther demand."

This bird bred sparingly amongst the islands off the adjacent coast; and always in single pairs. The female lays from one to two eggs of an olive-green colour, marked, especially towards the thicker end, with brown spots.

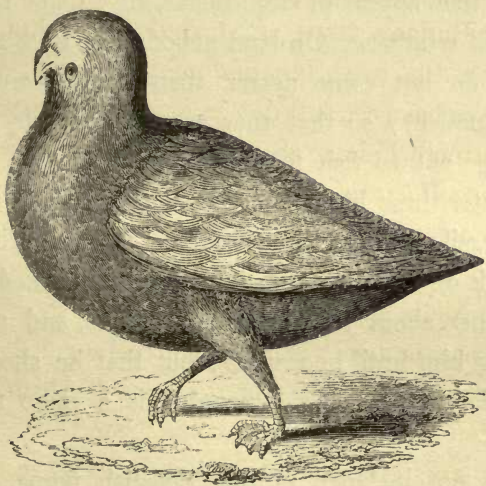
Danish naturalists, in addition to the three skuas named, claim another as belonging to their fauna—namely, the Arctic, or Buffon's Skua (*L. crepidata*, Brehm.; *L. Buffonii*, Boie), the most beautiful of the family, which in a few instances has been killed, they say, in Denmark.

The Northern Fulmar (*Storm-Fogel*, or Storm-Bird, Sw.; *Procellaria glacialis*, Linn.). This bird, according to Nilsson, is only seen during the winter on the Scandinavian coasts, and chiefly on those of northern Norway. At that season, M. Malm says, it is common on the shores of the Icy Sea. In one or two instances, Kjærbölling tells us, it has been observed, after storms, on the coast of Denmark.

The Manx Shearwater (*Skrapa*, Sw.; *P. Anglorum*, Temm.). This oceanic bird, though included in the Scandinavian fauna, would seem to have little right to a place there; for Nilsson says, "it is only known to those Norwegian fishermen, who seek the distant fishing-banks; and it is not ascertained as yet that it breeds on any part of the Scandinavian coast." It is also questionable whether it can be claimed by the Danish fauna.

The Stormy Petrel (*Liten Storm-Svala*, or Little Storm-Swallow, Sw. ; *P. pelagica*, Linn.) is chiefly confined to the Norwegian coast, but to which it does not approach very near. Storms, however, at times drive it into the Cattegat, and even on to the coast of Scania, where an instance is on record of its having been captured alive. In Denmark it is likewise very rare.

It is said to be a fearless bird, and to approach close to fishing-boats, and greedily feed on the offal, more especially on fish-liver, which is thrown overboard. Hence *Lever-Lars*, or Liver-Laurentius, the name by which it is known amongst the Norwegian fishermen.



THE HAV-HEST.

Pontoppidan gives us a singular portrait—as seen above—of the stormy petrel, the *Hav-Hest*, or sea-horse, as he calls

it. He would seem, however, not to be without certain misgivings as to its accuracy, for he says: "But I have this to observe, on the occasion, that the thick and round head is too much like an owl, and should, by a more exact drawing, rather approach the likeness of a cuckoo's head, but broader."

He, moreover, tells us a strange story about it. "The Hav-Hest is a sea-bird not larger than a moor-hen. It is short and thick, with small wings, and feet like a goose, a small bill, and high chest, of a grey colour. It snorts like a horse when he fetches breath, from whence this bird has the name; as well as that its motion in the water resembles the trotting of that animal, with heaving and violent pushing; so that when they appear in large flocks, they make the sea roar even in still weather. On land nobody has ever seen them, and they do not come nearer than half-a-score of miles (seventy English); so that they are only seen by the fishermen that go out to fish for turbot on the main; though in shallow water these birds come about the boats in clusters, to get the entrails that are thrown over. If they strike at them with a stick or stone, that they fall or are stunned, then the others gather about the bird that is hurt, and never leave off pecking him until he revives; but that he should revive, as pretended, though quite mangled, is a mere fisherman's fable."

Though not included in the Swedish fauna, the Fork-tailed, or Leach's Petrel (*P. Leachii*, Temm.), has found a place in that of Denmark; one of those birds having been shot on the 25th of November, 1848, in the vicinity of Copenhagen.

In closing this short account of the Scandinavian orni-

thology, it is to be regretted that I cannot give any information respecting a very remarkable bird spoken of by Pontoppidan, as well as Parson Ödman. The latter says: "There is, in Norway, a peculiar kind of fowl, called, from the singular manner of its birth, the *Stock-And*, or log-duck, which grows on trees in the following way:—The old bird deposits her seed on a log of wood immersed in the water, whence grows a shell in the form of an egg; and from the effects of the sun's warmth, the ducklings are in process of time produced."

The worthy divine tells us further: "The Turkish duck, which has recently been introduced into our part of the country, has a nice appearance, being black and white like a black-cock, and smells purely of balsam under the wings, from whence the Turkish balsam is obtained."

CHAPTER XXIX.

BIRD-CATCHING IN NORWAY.

THE number of sea-fowl, on the coast of Norway, is something incredible. "Their feathers and down, which are gathered and sent to foreign parts," says Pontoppidan, "together with their flesh and eggs, afford the inhabitants a very good maintenance; besides the extraordinary good grass that grows after the manure left by the dung of these birds on the islands."

"The water-fowl egg-shell," the Bishop farther observes, and the remark is curious, "is somewhat thicker than the others, showing the providence of our great and benevolent Creator, to prevent the eggs perishing with the cold, owing to their being near the water, and the dam's long absence when in search of food; though most sort of water-fowl live for that reason in a kind of married state, and orderly take their turns, the cock and hen alternately sitting on the eggs; and when 'tis the hen's turn, the cock often stands at some distance as a watch or sentinel, to guard her.

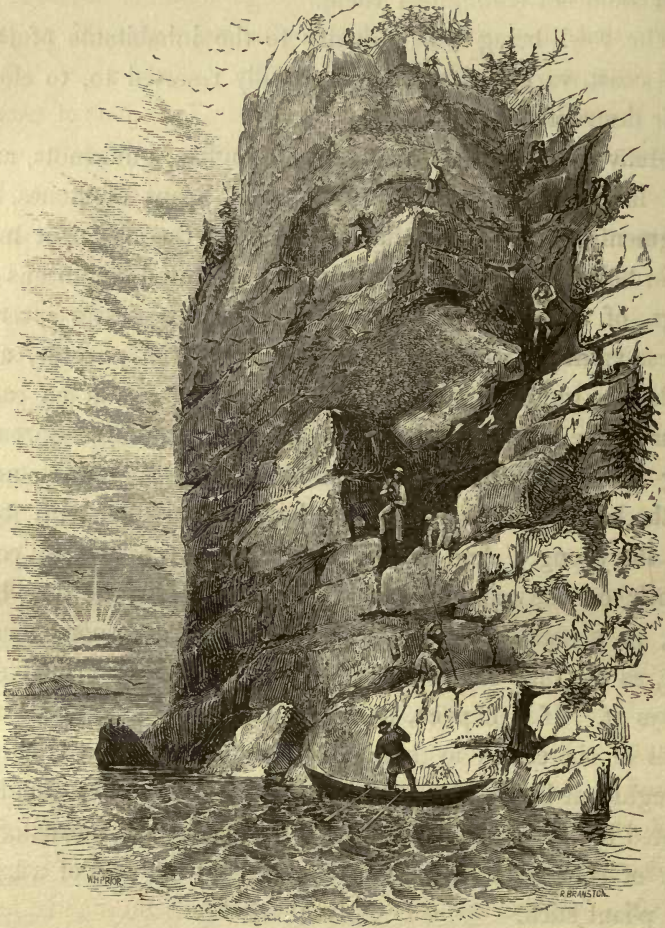
Those that leave their eggs, and come again to them in the hollow cracks and holes of the cliffs and rocks, where hundreds are lying together, never miss their own, though a man could not distinguish them."

The fowl being thus valuable to the inhabitants of this wild coast, various devices are naturally resorted to, to effect their destruction.

Many birds, for instance, such as puffins, guillemots, and the like, which usually nest amongst heaps of stones, or fragments of rock that have fallen from the cliff, or it may be in holes of their own making, are captured by means of dogs, of which, in places, each individual possesses several. These animals, which are well trained to the purpose, are, under the guidance of their owner, turned loose at an early hour in the morning, when separating in every direction, each dog is presently seen to station himself on the watch, near to the hole, where he has seen the old bird enter with food for the young. And as the parents at that season are constantly on the move in tending their offspring, the dog has not, in general, to keep guard very long. So soon, therefore, as the bird comes out again, he pounces upon and destroys it. If it happen, however, that the puffin, catching sight of the enemy in time, retreats into its hole, it is either brought out by the dog, which at times gets rather roughly treated by the bird's sharp bill, or is extracted by means of a sort of cork-screw, or a hook, fastened to the end of a long and pliant stick.

Occasionally numbers of puffins breed in the same hole; in which case it sometimes happens, Pontoppidan tells us, that the bird first seized by the dog grasps hold of its neighbour, and it in turn the next in succession, and so on—

the consequence of which is, that instead of a single puffin, the dog will draw out a regular string of them.



MANNER OF FOWLING IN NORWAY.

Besides capturing sea-birds with the assistance of dogs, in

the manner spoken of, "The fowlers," Pontoppidan says, "either climb up these excessive high and steep rocks, finding but here and there a hold or place for their feet; or else they are let down from the top, one hundred fathoms or more, that they may get into the hollows under the projecting cliffs and caves formed by nature.

"When the men climb up, they have a large pole of twenty to twenty-four feet in length, with an iron hook at the end; those that are underneath in the boat, or stand on a cliff, fasten this hook to the waistband of the man's breeches who climbs, and a rope round his waist; by which means they help him up to the highest projection, that he can reach, and fix his feet upon. Then they help another up to the same place, and when they are both up, they give them each their bird-pole in their hands, and a long rope tied round each other's waist at each end. Then the one climbs up as high as he can, and where it is difficult the other, by putting the pole under his breech, pushes him up till he gets to a good standing place. The uppermost of the two then helps the other up to him with the rope, and so on, till they get to the place where the birds build, and there search about after them as they please. As there are in these rocks many dangerous places which they have yet to climb, whilst they are bound together with a strong rope, the one always seeks a convenient place to stand sure, and be able to hold himself fast, whilst the other is climbing about. If the latter should happen to slip, then he is held up by the other, who stands firm, and helps him up again; and when he has got safe by those dangerous places, he fixes himself in the same manner, that he may assist the other to come safe to him; and then they clamber about after birds where they please. But acci-

dents sometimes happen ; far if the one does not stand firm, or is not strong enough to support the other when he slips, they both fall, and are killed ; and this way there are some every year destroyed.

“ Herr Peder Clauson, in his description of Norway, writes, that in former times there was a law in the country, that when any one by climbing the rocks fell, and was killed, and his body was found, that then his nearest relation should go the same way. If he could not, or would not venture, then the deceased was not allowed a Christian burial, but treated as a criminal, who had by that means been his own executioner ; but that law is not in force now-a-days.

“ When the men, in the manner already related, get up the rocks to the birds, in those places where they seldom come, the birds are so tame that they may take them up with their hands ; for they do not readily leave their young. But where they are wild, there the men either throw a net over them in the rocks, or else they oppose a net, attached to their poles, to those that are flying away, or come flying in again, and thus entangle them.

“ In this way they catch vast numbers of puffins and razor-bills. In the meantime there is a boat lying underneath, on the sea, into which they throw their dead fowl, and so quickly fill the vessel. When the weather is tolerably good, and there is a great deal of game, the bird-men will lie eight days together in the rocks ; for there are here and there holes that they can safely and securely rest in, and provision is let down to them by lines, and others go every day to them with little boats, to fetch what they catch.

“ Many rocks are so frightful and dangerous, that they cannot possibly climb up them ; for which reason they con-

trive to get down from above. This is the second way of searching for birds, and is done thus:—They have a strong rock-line, or rope, eighty or a hundred fathoms long, and about three inches in thickness. One end of this the bird-man fastens about his waist in the place of a belt, and then he draws it betwixt his legs, so that he can sit on it; and so he is let down with his bird-pole in his hand. Six men at top hold the rope, letting it sink by degrees, but lay a piece of timber on the edge of the rock, for it to slide on, that it should not be torn to pieces on the sharp edge of the stones. They have another line fastened round the man's waist, which he pulls, to give signs when he would be hauled up, or lowered, or held still that he may remain on the place he is come to. This way the man is in great danger from the stones loosening by the rope, and so falling, which he cannot keep off. For that reason he generally has on a sailor's blue furred cap, which is thick and well lined, and in some measure saves the blows the stones may give, if they are not too large; otherwise, it often costs him his life. Thus they often expose themselves to the most imminent danger, merely to get a subsistence for their poor families, trusting in God's mercy and protection, to which the greatest part of them seriously recommend themselves, before they undertake the perilous work. There are some indeed who say there is no great danger in it, excepting that when they have not learnt the practice, or are not accustomed to it, the rope runs about with them till their heads are turned, and they can do nothing to save themselves. It is in itself troublesome, and requires dexterity; yet those that have learnt it make play of it; for they know easily how to swing themselves on the line,

how to put their feet against the rock, and throw themselves several fathoms out, and push themselves in again, to what place they will. And they know artfully how to keep themselves fast on the line in the air, and to hold the pole in their hands, in situations where the rocks project over like a cover—as in such the birds gather—and there to catch numbers whilst flying out and coming in. Here they will continue (and this is the greatest art) to throw themselves out, and quickly to fling themselves in again, under the cover, to the birds, and there to fix their feet. When one of them gets into these holes, he loosens himself from the rope, which he fastens to a stone, to prevent its falling out of his reach, and then he climbs about, and catches the birds either with his hands, or with the pole, in the same manner as was said before ; and when he has killed as many as he thinks enough, he ties them together, and fastens them to the small line, and by a pull gives a sign for those above to draw them up. In this manner he works all day ; and when he wants to ascend, he gives a sign to be drawn up, or else he works himself up, with his belt full of birds. Where it happens that there are not people enough to hold the large rope, then the bird-man fixes a post in the ground, and fastens his rope to it, and so slides down, without any help, to work in the aforesaid manner.

“There are also in some places vast steep cliffs, lying under the land, and yet more than one hundred fathoms above the water, which are also very difficult to get at. Down these cliffs they help one another in the manner aforesaid, and they take a strong rope with them, which they fasten here and there in the cliff where they can, and leave it all the sum-

mer; on this they will run up and down, and take the birds at their pleasure.

“ It is not to be described how frightful and dangerous this bird-catching appears to the beholders, particularly to consider the vast height, and how excessive steep these rocks are, and many projecting over the sea. It appears impossible for any human creature to get into the holes of them, and more impossible to climb up them, and yet these adventurous people scale them. They go sometimes where they can but just pitch the end of their toes, or lay hold with their fingers; yet this does not frighten them, though there is hundred fathoms down or more to the sea under them. This must be dear-earned bread for these poor people, for which they so imminently hazard their lives, and many, after long practice, still fall a sacrifice themselves.”

THE END.

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 their fingers; yet this does not frighten them, though their
 feet are often thrown down or blown to the sea under them.
 This seems to be learned from the birds, for these poor people, for
 which they so humanely provide their lives, and many
 after long practice, still call a mountain "the mountain".

THE END

