

ESSAYS

Sergei Stadnikov. The Allurement of Ancient Egypt

Egyptologist Sergei Stadnikov reflects in his essay *The Allurement of Ancient Egypt* on the meaning and lasting appeal of that ancient civilisation for contemporary man, both from the viewpoint of an Egyptologist and from the level of the understanding of the so called ordinary person. First of all, the art of ancient Egypt is very aesthetic. Additionally, we have received a great deal of knowledge and skills from the Egyptians by way of other peoples (the ancient Greeks, for example). All of this appeals to contemporary man. Sometimes the heritage of ancient Egypt manifests itself even in certain subconscious forms – the joy of recognition of something from long ago, whether it be art, literature, architecture, and so on.

ARTICLES

Juhan Kreem. Livonia and the Augsburg Interim 1548. Additions to Knowledge of the Spread of the Reformation in the Baltic Region

This article considers the reception in Livonia of the temporary religious law (the so called Augsburg Interim) passed by the Diet of Augsburg in 1548. The Interim was an attempt by Emperor Charles V to overcome the religious schism that had occurred with the Lutheran Reformation. The Interim was obligatory for Livonia for two reasons: first, Livonia was a part of the Holy Roman Empire; second, this law applied to Protestants in particular and there were many of them in Livonia by that time.

A heated controversy broke out in Livonia against the implementation of the Interim. This article closely examines two lengthy writings that were written in connection with the Interim, one composed in the office of the Livonian Master of the Teutonic Order, and the other in the City of Tallinn. Criticism from Lutheran viewpoints and opposition to the Interim are characteristic of both writings. The text composed in the office of the Master of the Order compiles two pamphlets published in Magdeburg: Andreas Osindr's position concerning the Interim, and Nicolaus von Amsdorf's confession of faith. Tallinn's position is more voluminous and relies on the church fathers, treatments of church history, and canon law in addition to the polemical writings of the time from the pen of Amsdorf, Melancthon and Calvin. Along with opposition to the Interim, these writings indicate how very intensely the discussions held in Germany in those days were followed and their immediate reception in Livonia.

The attitude towards the Interim also provides us with the opportunity to appraise the strength of the Lutheran camp in Livonia in the year 1548. In

addition to the cities, which had by then unequivocally joined the Reformation, two influential overlords of the country also held Lutheran views, namely Wilhelm the Archbishop of Riga and Hermann von Brüggene, Master of the Livonian branch of the Teutonic Order. The group enumerated above effectively contributed to the failure of the Interim in Livonia. True enough, the Interim was also removed from the agenda quite quickly in the Holy Roman Empire as well, conclusively with the religious Peace of Augsburg in 1555.

Heino Arumäe. Common Traits and Differences in Estonian and Finnish Foreign Policy during the Early Years of Independence II

This is the second part of the article which considers only one aspect of Estonian-Finnish relations, namely security policy considerations and attempts at political and military cooperation in 1919–1922. It is a generally known fact that Estonia received diverse assistance from Finland during the years of the Estonian War of Independence in 1918–1920 and Estonians hoped that Estonia and Finland would be close allies in the future as well. This article analyses what kind of factors influenced the fact that the active attempts of Estonia's political and military leadership to work more closely with Finland did not achieve significant results. Read more about the topic in TUNA no 3, 2011, pp. 34–50, summary in English pp. 157–158

Tanno Tilgar. On the Criticism and Reception of the Reports of the J. Laidoner Commission, and Matters Associated with the General's Activity Related to Iraq II

The topics of the second chapter (the first part in TUNA no. 3, 2011, pp. 51–71, summary on page 158) are the reception of the reports by the Laidoner Commission, the treatments used in the appraisal of the main and auxiliary reports and their criticism and the reliability of those treatments, and some aspects of General Laidoner's work in Iraq that have thus far not come to light. It was found that the President of the League of Nations Council, the substitute member of that organisation representing Great Britain, three of Great Britain's active representatives of political power and one former representative (a member of the House of Lords, two officials from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and the former High Commissioner for Iraq) have all appraised the telegram sent by General Laidoner on 16 November 1925, and one or both of the mission's reports either positively or very positively. One member of the House of Lords, however, did not consider the main report to be important while also casting doubt on the competence of the Commission in terms of reporting what was taking place on the Turkish side of the temporary border. On the contrary, the Turk-

ish prime minister and foreign minister consider the main report to be correspondingly politically motivated and unacceptable to Turkey. Non-Turkish researchers have as a rule avoided the general appraisal of Laidoner's reports. As a common trait, the effect of raising awareness of the deportation of Christians on the decision made by the League of Nations Council to give Mosul Province to Iraq is emphasised. Turkish authors have considered the report to be negative, anti-Ankara and anti-Turkish, designed to influence Christian members of the League of Nations. Estonian authors have considered the report to favour Great Britain and in this respect their position resembles that of Turkish authors. The main sources used in formulating the position of this article in terms of the main and auxiliary reports and criticism of those reports are the summary of border incidents by Sir Henry Dobbs intended for Laidoner, Martin Donohue, who visited Iraqi refugee camps, published reports based on telegrams from G. F. Gracey, an article by an anonymous *The Times* correspondent who had been to the same places, and a report by Chaldean priest Paul Bedar. The first four sources have not been in academic circulation thus far according to the author of this article. The places that the author of the League of Nations report visited on the way to the vicinity of the Brussels line from the 6th to the 13th of November 1925 were placed in chronological order in synch with Laidoner's work in Iraq; it was asserted that High Commissioner for Iraq Dobbs submitted a position based on a bluff in his summary to Laidoner, according to which refugees would be let down if the Iraqi government were to stop supporting them in the event of a report that would not make it possible to request help from Europe's Christian communities. Actually, Europe's Christians took steps to assist the refugees already before Laidoner arrived in Baghdad; verification was found that Puech, the French consul in Mosul applied pressure to the Laidoner Commission on at least two occasions by way of agitation in support of Turkey and attempted to discredit Laidoner in the eyes of the British. Yet not one of his undertakings had any effect; it was pointed out that the danger of military conflict between Great Britain, Iraq and Turkey was greatest when Laidoner was present in Iraq on 21–25 November 1925. In the event of Turkish aggression, the members of the mission should have arrived at the scene of the event as quickly as possible and obtain all possible evidence as quickly as possible. If it were not possible to contact them at a critical moment, the British would have asked the League of Nations to increase the size of the Commission.

The third chapter analyses the criticism thus far of the main and auxiliary reports as well as some assertions and presumptions of the Commission that have not yet been considered. The reproaches of Turkish Prime Minister Ismeti (Inönü) and researcher Ihsan Kaymazi are critical appraisals

that are considered. It is found that by and large, the opponents were not right. Nevertheless, in the case of the criticism by Ismeti, the statement that the village of Nevzuri (Nuzuri) was located north of the Brussels line proved to be true. In the case of the criticism by Kaymazi, the claim of hostility between Kurds and Christians found verification with qualification – Kurds were hostile towards Christians only during the deportation; when Turkish military forces were present, they were favourably disposed towards fleeing Christians. The analysis of assertions and presumptions that had thus far not been considered brought to light that a) the categorisation of incidents is incorrect in terms of the first classification of complaints; b) the assertion of the continuation of incidents until the demarcation of the border proved to be correct on one hand, since incidents really did occur up until the demarcation of the border; yet it also proved to be false because incidents occurred after the demarcation of the border as well, although less frequently; c) the presumption of the resolution of border incidents on the condition that Turkey stops setting up sentry posts and sending out patrols proved to be true earlier regarding the sentry posts and later regarding the patrols; d) the victims of deportation who arrived in Iraqi camps originated from more villages that partially differed from the villages mentioned by the Commission; e) the assertion that deportations continued was not true.

Hiromi Komori. Memories and Recognitions; 2011 as the Anniversary of the Establishment of Diplomatic Relations between Japan and Estonia

The Republic of Estonia celebrated the 20th anniversary of regaining its independence this year, while this year is also the 90th anniversary of the official recognition of Estonia's independence by the Entente Powers, including Japan. In the face of this historical year, this article aims to shed light on diplomatic relations between Estonia and Japan before WW II based on diplomatic documents and to introduce some findings to both countries.

The original of the credentials sent from the Emperor of Japan to the President of the Republic of Estonia have been preserved at the Estonian state archive. The context in which these credentials were sent may illustrate the relations between the two countries at that time. The credentials were presented at the end of 1930's. Until then there had been no permanent official diplomatic relationship between Japan and Estonia, although Japan had been interested in establishing close contacts with Estonia, especially because the former hoped to collect information about the USSR through the latter. The appointment of Voldemar Puhk as Japanese honorary consul for Estonia in 1935 was certain proof of such interests.

The Japanese diplomatic bureau was opened in Tallinn after the outbreak of WW II. Shigeru Shimada, who was the one of the best specialists on matters concerning the USSR among Japanese diplomats, arrived in Tallinn in 1939. He witnessed a chain of events in the summer of 1940 and reported them to the Japanese Foreign Ministry in detail. Based on diplomatic documents, we can say that the Japanese Government intended to renew the diplomatic bureau in Tallinn as the one of its Consulates for the USSR without reservations about the Soviet western border, which should have meant the de jure recognition of the incorporation of Estonia. This plan was not implemented and the Japanese diplomatic bureau was closed in September of 1940 against its will. Thus, Japan implicitly extended de facto recognition of the Soviet annexation.

Aivar Niglas. One Possibility for Systematising the Repressions of the Soviet Union

The clarification of concepts is important in the systematisation of repressions carried out by the Soviet Union. One of the most important concepts is that of repression. This is a legal concept that bears in mind the content of penalties. In the case of the Soviet Union, it is important to focus on the meaning of the penalty in terms of its content since measures that resembled penalties were also applied in the Soviet Union without formally referring to them as penalties. The concept of repression helps to connect measures resembling penalties to penalties through their similarity in terms of content. A clear distinction cannot be made between repressive and non-repressive measures due to the large relative proportion of state coercion in governing the Soviet Union since the severity of means for assuring coercion differed and the repressiveness of all means cannot be clearly defined.

Bringing concepts of justice into play also inevitably raises the need to answer the question of to what extent the research of Soviet repressions or of the history of the Soviet Union can rely on justice at all. Regardless of the existence of the sphere referred to as justice, the Soviet Union was not a state based on the rule of law and when using legal terminology in reference to the Soviet Union, it should be placed in quotation marks. This article proposes a method of equalising meanings as a solution. According to this method, the analysis of the Soviet Union and its legal system takes place from the position of a state based on the rule of law but at the same time, Soviet justice is not identified with the justice of a state based on the rule of law. Justice according to a state based on the rule of law has a supportive role. It helps to explain the functioning of the Soviet Union as a state that is not based on the rule of law. The method also stresses the difference between Soviet justice and the justice of a

state based on the rule of law, and their artificial, formal dovetailing.

The concept of legal provisions and the three-pillar theory of penal law form the basis for systematising Soviet repressions. Repression carried out in accordance with Soviet legal provisions was standard repression, and repression carried out in accordance with other enactments was non-standard repression. The most important criterion for differentiating between standard legal instruments and non-standard legal instruments is the public accessibility of the legal instrument. The addition of a preparatory stage for repression to the three pillars of penal law (material, procedural law, and executive law) creates a four-level background system, so to speak, by which one type of repression can be divided up into different stages. This division provides a common basis for comparing different types of repression and makes it possible to also point out the attributes that distinguish them from one another.

This mode of systematisation applies first and foremost to the Soviet Union of the Stalin era. Even though it can be extended to the post-Stalin Soviet Union as well, it is nevertheless not as representative since the Soviet legal system gradually began to externally resemble a state based on the rule of law as a result of de-Stalinisation, and ascertaining repression after the fact that did not conform to legal provisions is more difficult.

This article directs separate attention to the concept of political repression that has been used relatively extensively in historical literature, and to categorising repression as justified and not justified. It is difficult to define the concept of political repression. One of the reasons for this may be the fact that these concepts are given the additional meaning of unjustified acts. There is, however, no point in categorising Soviet repressions as justified and unjustified from the standpoint of legality because the Soviet Union was not a state based on the rule of law. In the legal sense, all Soviet repressions were unjustified.

All modes of repression cannot be clearly categorised using the means of systematising Soviet repressions proposed in this article, yet it at least provides some sort of framework for obtaining an overview of repressions. It should be viewed as a device for describing the system, not as a device for precisely defining the system, not as an exact reflection of the system.

Peeter Kaasik. On the Abuse of Coercive Psychiatric Treatment in the Soviet Union Based on Examples from the History of the Estonian SSR

One trait characteristic of totalitarian society is the appraisal of all manner of dissidence through psychiatric criteria. Thus sending genuinely anti-Soviet

persons or persons suspected of being anti-Soviet to closed mental hospitals evolved into a Soviet technique for political castigation.

The aim of “political psychiatry” was not only the segregation of dissidents from society. The other, perhaps even more important objective was to “break their spirit” or to at least create the impression among the public that dissidents are mentally ill.

It was chiefly the employees of the Forensic Psychiatry Institute in Moscow named after Professor Serbski that dealt with the ideological and medical issues of applying coercive treatment to dissidents. The employees of this institute among other things invented diagnoses for use on unofficially political dissidents and later identified symptoms of these invented diagnoses in patients.

The Criminal Trial Code defined coercive treatment more precisely. Coercive treatment could be applied by court decision according to the corresponding psychiatric examination. The role of the psychiatric expert was always secondary in repression. He was not in the role of initiator in providing his expert opinion and regardless of what his personal views may have been, he had to examine the person under investigation from the medical aspect. If the doctor was a loyal communist or otherwise compliant person, the psychiatric persecution of dissidents contradicted his medical ethics. Yet there have also always been persons whose conscience and ethical convictions are very flexible.

There were two types of mental hospitals in the Soviet Union. The general type of mental hospital was administered by the USSR Ministry of Health Care. Prison-psychiatric hospitals administered by the Ministry of Internal Affairs were for particularly dangerous mental patients. The prison-psychiatric hospitals were later renamed special psychiatric hospitals to give them a better-sounding name. Political dissidents as a rule were sent to such hospitals. Units of MVD Forces guarded the special psychiatric hospitals in addition to guarding prisons and prison camps. The regimen at these hospitals was similar to that of the prisons and prison camps.

The high point for applying special psychiatry, so to speak, in relation to dissidents was the late 1960's and the early 1970's. Law enforcement authorities ran the special psychiatric hospitals and medical employees had less say. While some laws still protected persons held in custody in prison camps, essentially nothing protected persons shut up in special hospitals – this means that a mental patient was mentally ill and it was permissible to ignore his protests. While prison camp sentences were for specified terms, people could be detained in special hospitals for however long the authorities wished (formally, a commission was supposed to review each case every six months). Moreover, means and substances were used in these hospitals to “pacify patients” that really could lead to mental instability.

Ritvars Jansons. The Soviet Union's Struggle against Ideological Diversion by Capitalist Countries

The Soviet regime defined ideological diversion as acts of sabotage by the intelligence services and propaganda centres of imperialist countries. Dissatisfaction with the regime or freethinking was explained exclusively by the effect of subversive activity by foreign countries, not any sort of factors associated with the internal affairs of the state. The struggle against ideological diversion began in 1966 and supplementary measures were implemented in 1967. The new 5th Administration was created in the central apparatus of the Committee for State Security (KGB) for this struggle, as were the corresponding ideological counterintelligence departments in the union republics. Latvian SSR security organs attempted to block public demonstrations at cemeteries and the Liberty Monument in 1967, 1968, 1987 and 1988. The Latvian SSR Committee for State Security applied to the Moscow authorities to limit entry of Latvian émigrés into Latvia in order to reduce the effect of foreign émigrés.

The primary factor in the struggle against ideological diversion was the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union and its Politburo. The USSR Committee for State Security was its underling yet also the initiator and presenter of proposals.

DOCUMENTS AND COMMENTARY

Enn Tarvel. The Submission of the Estates of Livonia to Polish Authority in 1561

The fate of Northern Estonia, and thereafter of all of Estonia, was tied to Sweden for 150 years in 1561. In the same year, the fate of Southern Estonia was tied to the Polish-Lithuanian nation for 60 years. Tuna no. 3 (2011) published an article by Enn Küng that discussed Estonia's submission to the king of Sweden. This article is its companion and discusses Livonia's submission to the king of Poland.

Support for Polish-oriented foreign policy strengthened in Livonia in 1558 when assistance was sought first from Denmark and Poland against the attack by the Muscovite state. The king of Poland signed a protectorate agreement with the Livonian Order in August of 1559, setting the subjugation of Livonia as his objective. On 28 November 1561, the Master and the nobility of the Order, the Archbishop of Riga, and two cities submitted and swore an oath of loyalty to the king of Poland. The Estonian translation of the text of the *Pacta subjectonis* subjugation agreement is published as an appendix to the article.

The primary content of the agreement is the regulation of Livonia's system of government. The Livonian Order was to be disbanded and its Master

Gotthard Kettler became the ruler of the Duchy of Courland, which was to be established, as a vassal of the king of Poland. The king affirmed Livonia's freedom to observe the Augsburg Confession (the Lutheran faith) and affirmed all the old liberties, rights and privileges, and the fiefs of vassals, and granted them extensive hereditary rights. All public offices were reserved for persons of local origin.

Surrender to Poland had little effect on the land of the Estonians since it was by then occupied for the most part by the Muscovite state, Denmark and Sweden. The period of actual Polish rule in Southern Estonia began in 1582 and lasted for only 40 years. The Polish era in Estonian history is something entirely different compared to Latvia, and even more so compared to Lithuania. Lithuania and South-eastern Latvia remained under Polish rule until the divisions of Poland at the end of the 18th century. In those areas, reminiscences of the period of Polish rule can still be vividly discerned to this day. The Polish period is nevertheless a very interesting time in Estonian history even though there are no traces of it in Estonia that extend into the present.

Ivo Juurvee. British SIGINT Activities against Estonian Communists

Documents of the Government Code and Cipher School (GC&CS, British SIGINT service 1919–1946) made available for researchers at the National Archives (TNA) in recent years reveal rather close co-operation between Estonian and British SIGINT services starting in 1931 and continuing until World War II. Some of this co-operation – like using British warships on the Baltic Sea for intercepts to GC&CS in the period of 1931–1939 – has already attracted the attention of historians. However, new documents shed light on the intimate nature of that co-operation, including the British side providing Estonia with Marconi radio direction finding equipment and probably sharing the solution of some ciphered Soviet messages.

Among GC&CS are also decryptions of Comintern (Communist International – Soviet subversive organisation 1919–1943) radio messages. This material includes more than fifty messages exchanged between Estonian Comintern agents in Stockholm and Copenhagen and the Soviet Union. A document published in this volume was sent from Moscow on 16 January 1936 and GC&CS decrypted and translated it into English in only six days. Instructions issued by the Comintern to its agent Frederick (*alias* Johannes Meerits *alias* Leo Looiring) show poor knowledge of the political situation in Estonia. Although the Comintern demonstrates its eagerness to influence Estonian domestic affairs, it highly overestimates Frederick's ability to gain support in Estonia. In his reply, Frederick demonstrates an even higher degree of ignorance regarding current politics.

Estonian Film Archive: Tallinn before and now

CULTURAL HISTORY ARCHIVE

Tiina Saluvere. Old Animosity and the Terrible Old Man – Two Attic Army Veterans. Arno Vihalemm's Letters to Kaarel Ird

Arno Vihalemm's (1911–1990) letters to Kaarel Ird (1909–1986) are preserved in Ird's personal archive at the Estonian Cultural History Archives (EKLA, f.307, m.26:33). The friendship between Ird and Vihalemm began in the early 1930's in Pärnu, where they were active together in the workers' building and in the bohemian literary club that met in Ird's attic room. The later poet and translator August Sang (1914–1969) also participated in the same literary club and has written the poem *Attic Army Soldiers*, inspired by that coterie. All three friends went to study in Tartu in the mid-1930's: Vihalemm at the Pallas Higher Art School, Ird at the Theatre Arts Studio of the Tartu Drama Theatre, and Sang at the University of Tartu. Vihalemm emigrated to Sweden in 1944, where he became an internationally recognised artist and a uniquely distinctive poet. Ird was a well-known director, theatre manager and publicist in Soviet Estonia. Their friendship from their youth lasted in their mature years – the letters preserved in the EKLA bear witness to that. The personal archives of Ird, Vihalemm and Sang are preserved in the Estonian Museum of Literature cultural history archives.

Confidentiality and nostalgia arising from their memories of their youth are ambivalently interwoven with resignation and a certain stubbornness, which from time to time turns into an ostracising attitude. The letters were surprisingly candid regardless of the fact that the Iron Curtain separated the two friends. A few letters were delivered to the addressee by hand to circumvent censorship. This provides grounds to surmise that in researching informal networks that functioned in Soviet society, attention should be paid to the micro-historical analysis of egodocuments while also bearing in mind the possible informal paths by which they travelled.

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