

# SUMMARIES



## The Formation and Development of the Estonian Officer Training System 1919–1940

Andres Seene, Ph.D. (History)

Head of the Estonian National Defence College Museum (2003–2013)

Several military educational institutions were founded during and after the Estonian War of Independence (1918–1920). The Military School of the Republic of Estonia was officially founded by order of the Commander-in-Chief on April 3, 1919. In 1920, the Non-Commissioned Officers School was established in Tallinn. In addition, the Military School, the Navy School and the Military Technical School were established in 1920 and 1923. In 1921 General Staff Courses were started at a higher military level (named as the Higher Military School in 1925). In the field of officer training all the concepts and principles inherited from Imperial Russia were no longer applicable in the new economic and social environment. The uniform military background (obtained in Russia) helped to form common ground and understanding among senior leaders. By general consent, it was deemed absolutely necessary for a small nation to have well-prepared armed forces and highly qualified leaders in order to provide successful resistance against larger numbers of enemy troops in wartime. The main aim of the army conversion during the transitional period to peacetime was to save money. This attempt at establishing a Joint Military School ended in founding the *Joint Military Educational Facilities* (in Estonian *Sõjaväe Ühendatud Õppeasutused*), by the decree of the Government of the Republic on August 29, 1923. The former General Staff Courses (Military Academy), the Military School and the Non-Commissioned Officer School that had functioned independently were united. The provision of education was centralized under one commander to ensure harmonized training and reduce the staff of units.

The initial system of training and education (1920–1928) was considered to be too theoretical and purely knowledge, not ability- or skill-based. Predictably this system did not give good results. Therefore the importance of practical methods, troop practice and long probation of future officers was overstressed in the second half of the 1930s. In order

to make the officer profession more attractive and get the best candidates, the armed forces leadership had to make compromises and started to shorten the overall preparation and probation time in 1940. It can be seen that the initial theoretical approach could not satisfy the needs for competent officers and as a reaction to that the reforms overstressed the importance of practice and probation. However, we can see that the Estonian system of officer training of the period in question was very quality-driven.

The planning of officer personnel was not very systematic from the outset due to lack of experience and the constant need to cut expenses. There was also a lack of knowledge and experience in how to organize all arms of services cadre preparation in the conditions of a small state, because the overall need for specialties was too small in number. It was obvious that the infantry was the main arm of service and needed the most attention, but there was a lack of knowledge how to renew systematically and permanently other arms and specialties cadre. Therefore the proper balanced approach for training officers had to be tested and cleared out in practice. The early experience of Estonia demonstrates the difficulty of long term planning for the national military high command and how a small state can create the military leader training system appropriate for its requirements.

### **Formulation of Estonian National Defence Policy in 1996–1999: From Main Directions to NATO Membership Action Plan**

**Hellar Lill, M.A. (History)**

Head of Military Service Department, Estonian Ministry of Defence

This article concentrates on the formulation of the main issues of the Estonian defence policy in 1996–1999. In 1996 the Estonian Parliament approved the “Guidelines for the Estonian National Defence Policy”. This document declared that Estonian National Defence should be constructed upon two inter-dependent and complementary orientations. These orientations were independent self-defence capability, supported by state defence structures, and international defence-related cooperation. That was the first time that Estonia officially declared its willingness to join NATO. In 1996, retired Colonel Ants Laaneots presented his

own conceptual and systematic approach to defence. In 1997 and 1998 there was a public debate on defence-related issues in the newspapers. Although the official policy was to join NATO, there was another understanding among some intellectuals. These certain individuals proposed the idea of neutrality or suggested that no defence forces would be needed at all. Some alternative ideas were presented in articles. By the end of 1998, defence questions, especially those of joining NATO and fixing a defence budget with a certain percentage of General Domestic Product (GDP), were emphasised as issues of high importance by President Lennart Meri. The government, which was formed after the elections in spring 1999, declared security and defence questions as one of their priorities. In the same year, Estonia presented its first Annual National Programme (ANP) within the MAP (Membership Action Plan) process to NATO. In the ANP document Estonia provided information about its fundamental aims and principles for accession to NATO and developing its defence in five spheres: political and economical, defence and military, resource, security, and legal. Defence issues were related with other statehood functions. This document can be also presented as defence conception. The ANP included a more comprehensive approach to security than previous documents. The MAP/ANP process became a framework for negotiations with NATO and the development of Estonian Defence Policy and the structures based on it. Estonia lowered its ambitions for wartime force structure to 25,000–30,000. That figure took into consideration the real resources available. Although the Estonian government of this period mentioned international cooperation and a desire to join NATO in their programmes, not enough was done to formulate a clear conception and action plan in this direction until 1999. There was a lack of serious discussion between political parties about defence issues. The main subject of discussion was the question of compulsory conscription, but the statements were more rhetorical than based on analysis. Until 1999, there was not enough political interest to pay attention to defence questions. In summary, the biggest achievement in developing the Defence Forces since 1999 can be considered the abandonment of the idea of primary self-defence capability against large-range foreign attack forces in order to reach NATO membership.

## Planning, Programming and Budgeting in Defence Management

**Jaani Murumets**, Ph.D. (Strategic Studies)

Senior Research Fellow in the Centre for Applied Studies at the ENDC

The PPB system is a **set of rules, procedures, and techniques** introduced for the specific purpose of **improving high level planning**. Its product is a multi-year budget, which lists the programs and/or major activities of an organization, and assigns all costs associated with each. **The system enables the decision-maker to see the future implications of today's choices and to evaluate the organization's progress toward its stated objectives.** The PPBS combines systems analysis and program budgeting.

The **purpose** of the PPBS is to support informed and responsible decision-making about the allocation of resources to meet crucial security challenges, i.e. ensure that the Secretary of Defense could consider several alternatives in which costs, forces, and strategies had been considered together; and to promote consensus on strategic objectives and priorities.

The **instrument of choice** to pursue these goals is program budgeting that ensures orientation of the defense organization to quantifiable outputs projected over extended time horizon.

The PPBS – in order to support informed decision making at the top levels of defense management – is **based on** the following central ideas:

- It seeks to develop a framework of defense programs that should guide, based on explicit criteria, the identification, modification, development and sustainment of alternative ways and means to meet national objectives.
- The PPBS should ensure credible analytical support for top-level decision makers to choose among balanced and feasible solutions. This analysis should look several years into the future and be focused on potentially multi-service force package output capabilities across broader mission areas instead of service-centered, and consequently environment-limited, options.
- The backbone of the process is a comprehensive plan that looks several years into the future, incorporates key activities and milestones from the established program framework, and provides, based on output-focused analytical support, a blueprint of the dynamics of the outcomes of current decisions.
- Management of the PPBS is based on participatory management and centralized decision-making.

The PPBS system consists of three phases. The planning phase addresses national security and defense concerns in medium-term framework. In particular, broad national and derivative military security objectives and policies to attain these objectives are defined, military responses to identified security challenges are developed, outlines and priorities of military organization tailored to meet set objectives are established, and milestone activities to develop or sustain military capabilities required to implement established policy and carry out strategy are identified.

The programming phase encompasses, first, the development of fiscally constrained service program proposals, representing a comprehensive and detailed expression of the total requirements to accomplish the service mission set in planning phase. Secondly, the programming phase encompasses cross-program analysis in order to ensure compliance with political guidance, as well as the effectiveness of utilization of resources, measured against military output.

The budgeting phase encompasses converting resource requirements into a comprehensive defense budget, based on the information from the approved medium-term plan and incorporating the latest fiscal and policy decisions.

## **Gender as a Qualifying Factor: Females in Clergy and Military**

**Kalmer Marimaa**, M.A. (Sociology)

Lecturer of Religious Studies, Theological Seminary of Tartu;

Assistant of Philosophy and Religious Studies, Tartu Health Care College

Religion and warfare are universal phenomena in human history. Both of them have been historically characterized by sex segregation, especially in leading positions and – in the case of military – in combat. Women are usually excluded or clearly in the minority in those positions. Thus the sex of an individual has been the qualifying factor which determines the roles one can fill. This segregation has its roots in cultural traditions and human biology, which leaves womenfolk in the domestic sphere while the public sphere is predominantly a male domain.

The aim of the present article is to contribute to the discussion on gender problems in church and the military. The article consists of three parts. The first part contains a short overview of women's ordination in

Christianity, the second part of the article focuses on female participation in military forces, and the third part considers the common problems that clergy and military women may face and the questions that may arise from women's participation in traditionally male jobs. A short overview of the article is given as follows.

Christianity sprouted in a patriarchal sociocultural background of classical antiquity, which subsequently determined quite clearly the roles of women in the early church. Even if women were relatively free to practice leading roles in the churches of the first century (in Christian heterodoxical groups this trend continued even later), the institutionalizing of the Christian church cemented their traditional roles during later centuries. There is evidence that women were involved in priestly roles and acted as deaconesses in the first centuries of Christianity, but in time they were excluded from those positions and leadership functions. The next discussions about the ordination of women were held again only in the middle of the 19<sup>th</sup> century within the women's rights movement in the US. The actual ordination of women (re-)started only a few years later, but it was a very slow and toilsome process. A more noticeable inflow of women into clergy positions sped up with the new wave of feminism more than a century later. Today women have access to even higher clergy positions (bishops) in many denominations, but there are still churches who do not ordain women at all or do it with certain limitations.

The second part of the article deals with women in the military. There are a few examples of individual women (sometimes in male disguise) and female units who have taken part in direct combat. Despite their success, they are still usually underrepresented or even fully excluded from the roles and fields that are traditionally male domains (e.g. combat forces). At this point, the different views that try to explain that tendency are explored. The weakest arguments come from representatives of so-called biological and social masculinism. They point out the differences between sexes in physiology, sex hormones (especially different testosterone levels), cognitive skills and group dynamics, but none of those seem to be sufficient reasons for women being so underrepresented in military forces. The cultural explanations, on the other hand, refer to differences in male and female socialization that influence ideas about masculinity and femininity, the first of which relates to warfare and the latter to women supporting men behind the scenes. Next, the article describes feminist interpretations, which are divided into three different views. Those feminist movements that demand equal rights

argue that sex segregation in military forces is patriarchal legacy that does not allow women to achieve their full potential. Differential feminists believe that men and women basically have different natures with their own distinct interests and values, so warfare is simply more natural for men. Finally, the post-essentialist feminists find that gender is just a product of discourses where the limits of masculinity and femininity are defined, however, this does not say anything about the real characteristics of both sexes. Cultural and feminist explanations both account for some reasons why there is strong sex segregation in the military, but their explanatory power is limited as well (besides having few unempirical claims as in the case of differential feminists about human nature, for example). Probably one of the best explanations comes from a view that combines the “cumulative bureaucratization of violence with the centrifugal idealization of gender roles”. This connects a strong division in gender roles with the large-scale warfare that began with the birth of civilizations. For centuries the power and security of evolving states was based on the strength of its military. Therefore the status of warriors was held in high esteem. But those warriors needed supporting laborers and their unique biological role made women reproducers of both warriors and supporting labor force. This societal need turned into social rule where women had no place in warfare. This division in gender roles became supported by ideology that legitimized it. However changes in the culture of military and its forces in modern Western societies have made it possible for women to slowly move into those military roles that have traditionally been reserved for men.

The last part of the article takes into consideration the problems that females may face while working in the military and clergy. The issues mentioned here include such questions as their acceptance, gender stereotypes, and tendencies for the primary focus to be on gender, not on real abilities. One of the central questions in this part is whether people serve with their gender or with their abilities in their positions. Additionally the problems of the feminization of clergy and military and role models in those fields are touched upon. The discussion of these problems is partially based on the interviews used to study opinions about clergy-women among female theology graduates.

The conclusion states that the question is not whether and how widely men and women should be included in certain positions in military and in church, but rather if people who are willing and do have proper skills, knowledge and abilities can apply themselves in positions where they are potentially fitted regardless of their sex.



## **The Role of the Security Council in the Exercise of Self-Defence**

**René Värk, *dr. iur.***

Associate Professor of Constitutional and International Law at the ENDC,  
Associate Professor of International Law at the University of Tartu

The right of self-defence has always been considered an inherent right of states. The United Nations Charter reaffirms that right, but at the same time, imposes certain limitations. States may exercise self-defence until the Security Council has taken measures necessary to maintain international peace and security. The idea that the Security Council, a guardian of international peace and security, has a collective supervisory role over the exercise of self-defence is reasonable, but there are significant uncertainties. What are necessary measures? States have emphasised that they are not satisfied with condemnations or other soft reactions, but want effective action ending the aggression. Who decides whether the measures are effective? While third States accept that it is the Security Council who has the exclusive right to decide over the effectiveness, the victim States wish to retain ultimate control and the possibility to resume their exercise of self-defence if the Security Council is not able to repel the aggressor. In any case, States have an obligation to inform the Security Council of the measures taken in the exercise of self-defence. Such information is vital so that the Security Council can perform its duties, i.e. to assess the situation and to decide whether and how it should get involved. But what if the State fails to report its measures of self-defence? Does this mean that the State cannot classify its action as self-defence? The obligation to report is procedural in nature, i.e. to inform the Security Council of what is happening, and does not affect in itself the legality of the measures taken in self-defence.



## **The War and Peace of Mentoring in the Estonian National Defence College**

**Svetlana Ganina**, Ph.D. (Physics)  
Associate Professor of Physics, ENDC

**MSG Tanel Otsus**  
Instructor of Military Pedagogy, ENDC

**Lt. Col. Allan Parv**, M.A. (Military Science)  
Chief of Chair of Tactics, ENDC

**Nele Rand**, M.A. (History)  
Curriculum Development Advisor, ENDC

**Triinu Soomere**, M.A. (Conference Interpreting)  
Lecturer, Head of Foreign Language Teacher' Section, ENDC

The mentoring system in the Estonian National Defence College (ENDC) was first established in 2009. Its first year of implementation indicated that there was a need for a structured and regulated system of mentoring that would best reflect the nature of the college. As a result, a mentoring directive was developed in the ENDC and signed by its commandant. Further development was supported by the Primus Programme of quality improvement for higher educational establishments by the Archimedes Foundation with the help of the European Union's European Social Fund. Following this directive, a systematic mentoring system was put into practice for the 2011/2012 academic year and the first board of mentors was established. This board is an independent body whose activities are based on the principles outlined in the ENDC mentoring directive. It is responsible for the operation and sustainable development of mentoring, also helping to solve any issues mentors or mentees might face.

The target group for mentoring in the ENDC in the broadest sense are all members of the teaching staff who wish to improve their teaching and supervision skills and integrate into the organisation quickly.

The ENDC has defined four main goals of mentoring:

- 1) Improving the quality of teaching through activities facilitating teaching and learning;
- 2) Promoting the development of self-directed professional teaching skills and the supervision of new teaching staff;
- 3) Supporting the professional development of mentors and mentees, enabling the former to achieve their professional goals and pass on

- knowledge and experience, and the latter to receive the feedback and support necessary for their work in the ENDC;
- 4) Fostering the process of adaptation and enhancing cooperation between departments within the ENDC.

All new members of the teaching staff are obliged to choose a mentor for the coming year. In order to help mentees in the decision-making process, mentoring meetings with all mentors and mentees present are organised at the beginning of each academic year. This is an opportunity for mentors to introduce themselves, mentees to meet mentors and for the previous year's mentees to talk about their experiences. As the ENDC is a military school, the board of mentors considers the most effective approach to be based on the "cross-mentoring" principle: a mentoring relationship between a civilian and a military mentor and mentee. The duration of the mentoring relationship is one academic year.

The mentor's task is to introduce the mentee to the organisation, management of work and the staff. Regular meetings (1–2 times a week or a month according to the agreement between mentor and mentee) are an essential part of mentoring. During those meetings previous and future activities are discussed. Some of those activities might include classroom observation, analysis of teaching methodology and drawing conclusions on developments for the mentee's own teaching. Together with the mentor, the mentee can examine the curricula and syllabi and find common denominators with other subjects, possibilities to help link their subject to others (e.g., other civilian and military subjects). The new civilian teaching staff is introduced to the background of the Estonian Defence Forces, including its structure and division of work and military terminology. Besides face-to-face contact, the mentor and mentee correspond to settle any issues that may arise and the mentor provides information regarding in-service training, seminars, conferences, etc.

In conclusion, there have been positive changes after the first year of officially regulated mentoring in the ENDC. First of all, the administrative level of the college has a very positive attitude towards mentoring as the commandant signed the document to promote mentoring in the ENDC. What is more, all new members of the teaching staff in 2011 signed agreements with mentors and their feedback on the mentoring system was positive.

## **Learning Outcome Based Assessment of Physics Subjects in the Estonian National Defence College**

**Svetlana Ganina**, Ph.D. (Physics)

Associate Professor of Physics, ENDC

This article is based on learning quality research. The article consists of three parts. The first and the second parts are in the form of instructional material, which include examples of exploiting the learning outcome based assessment. The third is the research part that reflects the exploiting of the learning outcome based assessment in Estonian National Defence College and its effect on achieving the learning outcomes.

The main purpose of the article is to introduce the outcome-based assessment principles and students' preferences based on a curriculum. The subject has lately been widely debated on in Estonia: both positive and negative sides have been found. Corrections and changes have been made in almost every college curricula and syllabi.

In the article there is a brief introduction of the main characteristics of outcome-based teaching, observation of the assessment methods and criteria and their accordance with the curriculum and the syllabus. The main focus of the article is on the primary experience of outcome-based assessment in Estonian National Defence College physics subjects, namely on the choice of the assessment method, the naming of the assessment criteria and the students' feedback. There is an introduction of the results of the research conducted in 2009–2012, which deal with the exploitation of the assessment methods and criteria and their conscious use in the physics subjects of the Estonian National Defence College.

## **War and Warship in Theological Texts by Martin Luther: Some Thoughts About his “Whether Soldiers Can Also be in a State of Grace” (1526) Origins and Message**

**Andres Saumets, M.Th.**

Research Fellow, Centre for Applied Studies, ENDC;

Associate Professor of Church History at the Theological Seminary of Tartu

Preparations for the 500<sup>th</sup> anniversary of the Reformation proceed within the framework of “Luther’s Decade”, which encompasses a large number of conferences, thematic lecture series, disputes and publications focusing on the most important ideas and texts by Luther, and their timeless message to the current Christian church and society in general. Luther’s letter “Whether Soldiers Can Also Be in a State of Grace” is one of his more controversial texts. Luther wrote it in 1526 in a pastoral mood, though it also contains fundamental ideas of war and warfare concerning professional soldiers.

Both in Luther’s times as well as today this letter has given ground to the following controversial ideas: on one hand, Luther appears here as a militant man, who obeys authorities justifies violence and glorifies warfare and on the other hand as a wise pastor, whose greatest goal is educating responsible and peace-oriented Christians, who are capable of critical thinking and have a good conscience. Which Luther opens to us from the pages of this letter depends very much on our own ability to reflect and generalize. However, this letter is worth reading and reflecting upon, if only to better understand its religious-political context and the message. It is indispensable to know certain historical assumptions as well as some characteristics of Luther’s theological thinking.

In order to better understand Luther’s letter, “Whether Soldiers Can Also be in a State of Grace”, the background of conflict law, questions about mixing religious and secular power and the contemporary image of war are discussed. Attention is drawn to Luther’s understanding of law and order, internal and external freedom, and the abuse of reformation freedom in peasants’ socio-political demands, which instigated the blood shedding of the German Peasants’ War. This letter should be understood as a response to the acutely raised questions in the context of the Peasants’ War, therefore the topic is discussed more profoundly. Since western society at Luther’s time lived in constant danger of the Turkish invasion, attention is paid to Luther’s ideas about how to stand up against Islam in a military way. However, it is important to

comprehend that Luther is clearly opposed to any thought of a crusade. The characteristic war image of the era is closely connected to the “mercenary wars”, which are discussed in Luther’s letter as well.

To understand the goal and central message of the “Letter to the Soldiers”, attention is first paid to the inducement of writing the letter and the addressee, the mercenary leader Assa von Kram, who was involved in the bloody events of the Peasants’ War. He posed a number of existential questions regarding his work and faith, which led Luther to answer with the letter, which combines both deeply personal and counselling relationship dimensions as well as inferential and religious-political levels of thought.

Thematic text parsing gives an idea of the major topics that Luther tries to open in the letter, where his argumentation is both biblical and rational. Starting with the fundamental distinction between profession and person, he moves on to the matters of conscience and justification of the sword-bearing profession. He explains it using the doctrine of two countries and two governments, which states that being a warrior is the will of God and required by the society. The core of the text consists of Luther’s explanations of the three different military scenarios. Mainly within the frames of the medieval “just war” doctrine, Luther warns against unfair and wrong motives behind wars and armed conflicts: offensive wars, preventive wars, violent overthrow of tyrants, subjects’ rebellion against the rulers, and crusades. The only war which can be justified is fighting for self-defence, but such an argument also means unfortunately the justification of violent repression of any revolt threatening the “God-set order”.

In the last part of the letter, Luther answers the soldiers’ questions about soul care, and has a say regarding some external good and bad habits spread among the soldiers. These responses can be regarded as a sort of deontological code of timeless values equally important nowadays. Luther emphasizes that every soldier must do his job with full responsibility before God and his fellow people, using critical thinking and heeding the voice of his conscience.

Luther gives an affirmative answer to Assa von Kram’s core question of whether it is possible to be both a soldier AND a Christian. Luther is able to reassure and instruct the hesitant conscience of a professional military man, and this answer is applicable today as well. Although we live in a world which has changed beyond recognition compared to Luther’s era – in a very different political, social, legal and security system –, and we perceive that many of Luther’s views no longer meet

today's realities, still Luther's "Letter to the Soldiers" provides us with certain timeless and valuable ideas. For example, he explains how to be the right "peacemaker" in this world and move deliberately towards a "just peace" status; how to be a realist in the real world without losing faith and hope. Questions about whether participating in wars and armed conflicts is justified are equally relevant today for individuals, as well as for countries. And finally he reminds Christians that their best weapons are the word and prayer and that they have an obligation to bear witness to the truth, and not to remain silent when unrighteousness is uncovered.

Luther hopefully has an enlightening and encouraging message to say to modern-day Estonian soldiers who do difficult and dangerous work both at home and abroad.