

RABID WOLVES AND THE MAN IN ESTONIA OF THE 18TH–19TH CENTURIES

Ilmar ROOTSI

Estonian Naturalists Society, Struve 2, 51003 Tartu, Estonia

Abstract. During the period 1763–1891, seventy people, i.e. 34% of 203 people were attacked by rabid wolves in Estonia. In 1811–1860, of 70 attacks on humans 70% of the cases occurred in winter and spring, i.e. between December and May, and 67% of all these cases fell on four counties. In 1763–1877, the mean latent period of rabies of 44 days could be observed in 78 fatal cases in which the dates of the attacks had been registered. 29 persons or 37% of their total number fell ill during the 1st month, 37 persons or 47% fell ill during the 2nd month, eight persons or 10% fell ill during the 3rd month and four persons or 5% fell ill later. Thus, almost half of the victims who perished of rabies died during the 2nd month and 84% died during the first two months.

Key words: rabid wolf, attacks on humans, human susceptibility to rabies, mortality rate, latent period

INTRODUCTION

Man-eating wolves (*Canis lupus*) as well as rabid wolves have endangered the life and health of the man since times immemorial. As a rule, with rare exceptions, the victims of man-eaters were mainly children. However rabid wolves attacked people of any age encountered by them. Cases involving man-eating wolves were recorded only in particular districts of Estonia in the first half of the 19th century, but rabid wolves were active in all parts of the Estonian territory during the whole century, and their appearance can not be excluded even at the present time.

A rabid wolf that had intruded into a human settlement caused a tragedy by infecting both the humans and domestic animals. Naturally, the latter had to be slaughtered. Certainly, a part of the domestic animals that had contracted rabies from such a wolf were not noticed in due time and, as a result, they started spreading the virus in the country and in towns. Wolf-bitten dogs were especially dangerous: they caused a lot of human suffering in numerous cases.

In this paper an attempt has been made to present conclusive data on the human victims of rabid wolves in the ethnic territory of Estonia of the 19th century. This research covers only the population belonging to the Lutheran Church since the records and reports of the Lutheran congregations served as the source of statistics for the research. Although the author has examined all reliable available documents deposited in the Estonian and Latvian archives, it has turned out impossible

to detect all cases involving the rabid wolf due to the following reasons. In their annual reports to the Consistory of the Lutheran Church, some pastors did not specify the human victims of rabid wolves. The reports covering certain years have not been preserved. Some pastors did not add the cause of death in the registration book of births and deaths. The registration books were lost in some cases.

It should be explained that the analysis below deals only with the cases in which humans suffered from rabid wolves. Thus, cases involving domestic animals without any human victims have not been included.

Analysis of the attacks by rabid wolves

The earliest written information on the attack by a rabid wolf in Estonia belongs to Adam Olearius, a German scholar and author, who in his book of travels described how a rabid wolf attacked twelve Russian peasants hauling hay on their sleighs near Narva on 24 January 1634 (Olearius 1647). According to Olearius (1647), all six men injured by the wolf died of rabies. However, later cases indicate that not all humans attacked by a rabid wolf fell ill and died.

The following cases of rabid wolves attacking people date from the second half of the 18th century. The oldest record of 6 February 1763 reports about 14 humans, two dogs and two pigs who fell victims in Torma parish, Tartu County. Four persons of them died of rabies (Estonian History Archives (EHA) stock 1265, list 1, item 59).

As it was mentioned above, due to the scarcity of the

source material and several drawbacks in the books of registration of births and deaths, the data from the 18th century are rather casual and incomplete. However, the author has succeeded in discovering the following cases: of 15 February 1781 in Lügause parish, Viru County; of 14 March 1784 in Põlva parish, Võru County; of 22 April 1793 in Torma parish, Tartu County; of 17 January 1794 in Lügause parish, Viru County and of 19 December 1798 in Röpina parish, Võru County. These data are not analysed in the present treatment since they do not belong to a systematic recording framework.

Documentary sources of the 19th century are more complete and have been better preserved. Accordingly, they can serve as the basis for our analysis.

We know now that in the period of 1806–1891, at least 70 attacks on humans by rabid wolves were recorded. Those cases can be characterised by their cycle, season and location.

By grouping all 70 cases according to 5-year-periods, we can distinguish two peaks. The first peak dates from the period of 1811–1820 when in 1811–1815 sixteen attacks took place in seven counties (out of nine counties) and in 1816–1820 nine attacks were recorded in six counties.

Another peak can be observed during the period 1851–1860 when in 1851–1855 rabid wolves attacked humans in nine cases in five counties and in 1856–1860 in six cases in three counties. Thus, the first peak characterises the second decade of the 19th century and the second peak belongs to the 6th decade of the century. The fact that the second peak has some 1.5 times cases less than the first peak can be determined by a decrease in the number of wolves in general, especially in the territory of present-day South Estonia, then a part of the guberniya of Livonia.

Interestingly, similar peaks occurred during the peaks of activity of man-eating wolves, but five years earlier than the periods given above, namely in 1806–1815 and in 1846–1850 (Rootsi 2001).

During the 30-year period of 1821–1850 between the two peaks of the activity of rabid wolves ‘only’ 17 cases of attacks on humans were recorded in seven counties. In the period of the first peak (1811–1820), some years witnessed more attacks than others. For instance, people were attacked in four cases in 1813, in six cases in 1814, in three cases in 1815, in six cases in 1816 and in three cases in 1820. During the second peak of 1851–1860, there were three attacks in 1851, four attacks in 1854 and three attacks in 1859.

The worst evildoings of rabid wolves were carried out namely during the two peaks of the 19th century. Let us recall some of them.

In 1814, six rabid wolves raged in five counties, i.e. in

Võru, Harju, Tartu, Viru and Järva counties. They caused suffering to over 30 people, of whom at least 11 persons died, let alone the loss of domestic animals. A typical case takes us to the hamlets of the landlord’s estate of Röpina in the parish of Röpina, Võru County, where on 30 April and on 1 May 1814 a rabid wolf injured 10 people and 64 various domestic animals in two days. As a result, five persons died, the first one on 15 May and the fifth on 21 July. As for the animals attacked by the rabid wolf, 22 of them revealed symptoms of rabies during the following three weeks (EHA, stock 950, list 1, item 251; stock 3147, list 1, item 137; stock 3148, list 2, item 3).

The most serious wrongdoing of the century by a rabid wolf took place in the same Võru County (Karula parish) six years later, on 9 February 1820, when a rabid animal bit 32 people in twelve hours starting in the darkness of a winter morning. Some injuries were severe, some lighter. In the worst cases the rabid predator tore off or bit through the nose, lips or cheeks and caused wounds in the scalps not speaking of injuries of the limbs or other parts of the body. During the next 16 days, two victims died: one from injuries and the other of rabies. Altogether, 17 victims (11 males and six females) died in 71 days, two of them from injuries and the others from rabies. The eighteenth victim, Tido Hans of the hamlet of Kärrikülla, Karula landlord’s estate, died of rabies at the age of 37 two years and 20 days (i.e. 750 days) after the accident (EHA, stock 950, list 1, item 254; stock 1297, list 2, item 4).

By the way, a similarly long 2-year latent period of rabies was reported by the Bulletin of the Ministry of Internal Affairs in 1852 when in Gaisin County, Podolsk guberniya, a rabid cat bit the hand of 14-year-old boy in 1850. Two years later on 14 June 1852 pain appeared in the hand and the symptoms of rabies appeared on the next day. The boy died on 17 June 1852 (MoIA 1852). Another serious case dates from 24 March 1851 when in the parishes of Ambla and Järva-Jaani in Järva County a rabid wolf inflicted injuries to 16 people as well as domestic animals during 2.5 hours. Only two persons died, both of rabies (EHA, stock 29, list 3, item 612; stock 31, list 1, item 319 and 320; stock 1233, list 1, item 24; stock 1248, list 1, item 5).

Clearly, the activity of both man-eating and rabid wolves was higher in certain seasons. The researchers and written sources disagree on the peak seasons of the activity of such animals (Nolde 1873; Aaver 1970; Rudnev 1959). The first and fourth quarters of the year as well as summer and autumn months were characterised as the most active periods. It was even claimed in one analysis that the cases were evenly distributed throughout a year.

However, the present research has revealed that winter

and spring months dominated according to the data collected in Estonia as well as cases recorded in Russia in the 19th century. Our opinion is also confirmed by the printed sources of Russia and the former Soviet Union. Thus, our analysis of 54 cases in Estonia in 1763–1891, the dates of which had been registered, shows that 20 cases (37%) happened in spring (March–May), 18 cases (33.3%) in winter (December–February), 14 cases (25.9%) in summer (June–August) and only two cases (3.7%) in autumn (September–November). Consequently, 70.3% of the attacks by rabid wolves occurred in winter and spring months. Analogical conclusions can be drawn on the basis of data recorded in Russia in the 19th century. The issues of 1843–1861 of the information bulletin of the Russian Ministry of Internal Affairs report on 338 attacks by rabid wolves. The cases are seasonally distributed as follows: 113 cases (33.4%) occurred in spring months, 100 cases (29.6%) in winter months, 69 cases (20.4%) in summer months and 56 cases (16.6%) in autumn months.

It must be recognised that rabid wolves caused terror in all nine counties of the ethnic Estonian territory of the 19th century as compared with restricted local areas where attacks by man-eating wolves were reported. Still, there were differences between the counties in the number of cases involving rabid wolves. The distribution of 70 cases is as follows: 15 cases in Tartu County, 14 cases in Viru County, nine cases in Võru County, nine cases in Harju County and only two cases in Saaremaa County and three cases in Järva County. The remaining 18 cases in the other three counties are modestly placed between the extremes. Remarkably, the northern, north-eastern, eastern and south-eastern areas of Estonia with a higher activity of rabid wolves coincided with the areas where man-eating wolves attacked humans more frequently (Rootsi 2001). They were Tartu County, Võru County, Viru County and Harju County with 47 cases, i.e. 67.1% of the total number of 70 cases. To sum up, attacks on humans committed by rabid wolves occurred in 46 parishes out of 104 in the ethnic Estonian territory, thus reaching 44.2%.

Wolves as the spreaders of rabies

Numerous cases involving a rabid wolf have documentary evidence characterising the attacking animal in its rage both from Estonia and Russia. According to this evidence, the rabid wolf constituted a horrible monster whose raving could only be stopped by a bullet. The sick predator unselectively attacked all humans and domestic animals whom it encountered or who attracted its attention. However, cases were reported in which a rabid wolf passed a human without causing any harm. But when attacking a human, the rabid wolf acted in a

flash, sometimes rising to its hind legs and pushing the victim to the ground. In the following fight, accompanied by screams and calls for help, the animal's fangs tore the human body thus inflicting numerous serious wounds mainly in the head and upper body.

Only seldom did the attacked man act bravely in his pain and did not let the wolf get away by pushing his fist into the animal's throat or clenching its tongue until his companions could kill the attacker with clubs, pitchforks, axes, knives or other tools. Namely, this was the peasants' choice of 'weapons' against attacking wolves both in Estonia and Russia. Frequently, the rabid wolf succeeded in attacking scores of people and domestic animals before measures could be taken. Repeatedly, rabid animal escaped after raging in a human settlement. A rabid wolf manages to devastate a large area since the raging stage of a rabid wolf lasts longer than that of a rabid dog. From a more recent period it is known that a rabid wolf covered 150 km in Belarus during 1.5 days in 1957 and bit 25 people (19 of them seriously), 50 domestic animals and an unknown number of wild animals (Nazarova 1978).

This is the portrait of the rabid wolf in the past and at present. In Greek, the word 'lyssa' means 'rabies' as well as 'wolf's disease' (Keller 1887). Thus, it is possible to assume that rabies and wolves were almost synonyms since rabies, specific of the canines (Canidae) was spread by the wolf already in ancient times. In that way rabies was brought from woods to the human settlement where the injured dogs became the most active spreaders of the disease.

In the periods when the number of wolves was great, they possibly infected 1/3 of humans who had contracted rabies from animals. At the end of the 19th century, in 1886–1890 in Russia this was the case in some regions of the country according to the statistics of the Pasteur Stations of Moscow, Odessa, Warsaw, Kharkov, Samara and Tiflis (Anonymous. Undated). Even after the World War II, when the number of wolves rose everywhere in the Soviet Union, rabid wolves were responsible for 28% of all attacks on humans by rabid animals in Belarus in 1949–1956. In the late 1950s, when the wolf population dropped in that huge country, the wolf's role in spreading rabies fell essentially and, accordingly, the role of dogs and foxes rose (Adamovich *et al.* 1995).

Rabies and its occurrence in humans

Before the detection of the virus of rabies in 1885, it was believed that the disease was caused by a specific poison in the saliva of a sick animal. The strength of the poison was considered different in various species of animals. The wolf's 'poison' was said to be the strongest, next came that of the dog, fox and the cat (MoIA

1850). In addition, rabies was believed to be inborn or to evolve spontaneously in an organism (Maroketti 1840). The basis for such conclusions could lie in the cases when no evident injury of the tissue preceded the disease.

Among several factors supposed to cause spontaneous rabies, these were considered more essential:

- Hunger. Because of the scarcity of food the number of rabid wolves was said to be greater in winter and early spring (Estonian Literary Museum (ELM) ERA II 203, 412 (109); Otepää 1938).
- Insatiable sexual drive. This was considered a conducive factor since in nature male wolves outnumbered the females and rabies occurred in male wolves more often, in addition to the fact that rabies spread mainly in winter thus coinciding with the wolf's mating season (Zürn 1876).
- Negative psychic emotions suffered by the wolf, resulting from irritation, some harm inflicted to the animal, etc. (Anonymous 1823; Levshin 1813).
- Unsuitable weather conditions, especially severe frost or unbearable heat (Kreutzwald 1854; Reuter 1916).
- A non-lethal amount of poison swallowed by the wolf, for instance, with poisoned food (Estonian National Museum (ENM) KV 80, 483 Kadrina, J. Valdur 1959).

Next we are going to discuss the occurrence of rabies in man, namely two aspects of the phenomenon, i.e. the susceptibility of the human body to rabies, on the one hand, and the latent period, on the other hand.

It is true that not everything is clear in the way the human body responds to the biting by a rabid animal. Why did some people fall ill earlier, some later and the remaining did not catch rabies at all, although all of them had suffered injuries from the same rabid predator?

It is believed that the explanation lies in the particular species of the attacker, in the peculiarities of the victim and the state of his organism, in the character of the injury and in the first aid given.

First, let us recall that the rabid wolf was considered to have the strongest 'poison' in its saliva. Without doubt, injuries inflicted by the wolf were the most dangerous. In old times it was said that the probability of contracting rabies depended on whether the attacked person belonged to the animal's first or last victims. Based on the human experience, the 'poison' of the rabid dog was claimed to turn powerless after having been transmitted to the fifth victim (MoIA 1839, 1850). Evidently, there is a grain of truth in this assertion since the concentration of the virus of rabies in the saliva is probably supposed to decrease in the course of successive bitings.

The victim's fate is also supposed to be related to the amount of the rabid animal's saliva in the wounds, and

therefore the clothes are believed to protect the attacked human (Rudnev 1959).

Concerning the peculiarities of the personality and the organism of the victim it is generally claimed that easily irritable persons with a weaker nervous system, alcoholics and drug addicts are destined to catch rabies more easily. Likewise, malnutrition and general weakness of the body are considered conducive factors. Children and teenagers are said to be more susceptible to rabies than adults (Reuter 1916; Aaver 1970). Even the person's gender and the constitution of the body were supposed to play a role (MoIA 1839).

Evidently, the probability of getting infected by rabies also depends on the character of the injuries, the size, depth and location of the wounds as well as the first aid given. Thus, our ancestors considered it really essential that the injuries must be treated as soon as possible in order to remove the 'poison', i.e. the virus. For that purpose, the wounds were let to bleed and washed with the respective solutions, most frequently with saturated salt solution. Parts of the injured tissue were removed. However, the most necessary method was to scorch the wounds with red-hot iron in order to destroy the 'poison' before it entered the blood circulation. The method was praised by the old-time printed sources. Convincing data from France were presented with the following observations. It was stated that only 42 persons (31%) had died from rabies in France after the wounds of 134 victims had been treated with red-hot iron. In comparison, 56 persons (85%) were reported to have died among 66 victims whose wounds had not been treated with hot iron (Anonymous 1870).

According to popular belief, the susceptibility of man to the virus of rabies is considerably lower than in several animal species. But the respective data collected are rather contradictory, since, according to various sources, the mortality rate of humans injured by rabid animals is 5–65%. For instance, in the Württemberg area 18 persons (5.3%) died among 341 people attacked by rabid dogs in 1867 compared to a case in Minsk guberniya when 41 persons (65%) died among 63 people injured by a single rabid wolf on 27 January 1861 (Zürn 1876; Anonymous 1862a). The remaining data range between these two extremes.

Wounds inflicted by the wolf are more hazardous since they are often extensive and deep, and are frequently located in the upper body and head close to the central nervous system. Therefore, mortality rate among the victims of rabid wolves is considerably higher than that among the victims attacked by other rabid animals. According to various sources, the difference can reach 15 times.

With preventive injections through the network of the Pasteur Stations in Soviet Russia, it was possible to di-

minish the mortality rate among the victims of other rabid animals by 9–10 times as compared with 2–3 times among the victims of rabid wolves (Anonymous 1927). The mortality rate of 34.4% is revealed in an analysis of 37 cases in Estonia in 1763–1891 in which the death of 66 victims from rabies and four from injuries among 203 injured persons was documented. Surprisingly enough, the survivors included some badly wounded persons. For instance, Karl Abroi of Palamuse parish and Karl Tamm of Torma parish, Tartu County, recovered after a severe attack of a rabid wolf on 31 of January 1833. Among the survivors were Jaan Metstack of Jõelähtme parish, Harju County, who suffered serious injuries in the head and hand on 18 May 1851 and Gustav Treufeld of Viru-Jaagupi parish, Viru County, who got twelve wounds when fighting a rabid wolf on 2 August 1857. And they were not the only survivors (EHA, stock 29, list 3, items 612 and 4492; list 1, item 4516; stock 902, list 1, items 1135, 1580; stock 949, list 1, item 523; stock 1864, list 2, items 57:7, 128:10, X105, X207).

Next, a few lines should be devoted to the latent period of rabies. According to various sources, the latent period is shorter in children and longer in adults, shorter with injuries in the head and longer in case of foot injuries, shorter with wounds inflicted by a rabid wolf, longer after an attack by a rabid dog, etc. Generally, the period is claimed by published sources to last 20–60 days, but periods of 7–8 months can also occur.

In the above-mentioned case of 1861 in Minsk guberniya, 41 victims died within 20 days – 8 months after being injured by a rabid wolf. In Estonia, 24 persons who died of rabies in 1947–1955 had the latent period of 15 days – 11 months and 22 days (i.e. 357 days). Thus, exceptionally short periods of three days and extremely long periods of 1 or 2 years have been reported (Anonymous 1862b; Anonymous 1970; Maroketti 1840; Rudnev 1959; Tamm *et al.* 1971). According to the data collected by Savateyeva in 1927, among those who died, 24% of the victims fell ill during the first month, 43% during the second month, 17% during the third month and 16% later (Rudnev 1959).

The dates of the injury and death of 78 victims involved in 38 cases in Estonia in 1763–1877 were documented. According to the present research, their average latent period including a few days of illness, was 44 days, thus ranging from two days to 235 days. An extremely brief period of two days was recorded when on 7 May 1840 Jaan Shönberg of Kolga-Jaani parish, Viljandi County, was attacked by a rabid wolf and the initial symptoms of rabies appeared on 9 May 1840. He died three days later (EHA, stock 1285, list 1, item 135). But the longest latent period was recorded when a man injured on 9

February 1820 died of rabies two years and 20 days (i.e. 750 days) later.

Among 78 victims who died of rabies, 29 persons (37.2%) fell ill during the first month, 37 persons (47.4%) during the second month, eight persons (10.3%) during the third month and four persons (5.1%) later than the third month.

Thus, almost half of the victims who perished of rabies died during the second month and 84.6% died during the first two months.

Concerning the opinion expressed in some treatments asserting that the latent period of rabies in children is shorter than in adults, I can state that the data at my disposal do not confirm that assertion. There were 16 children among the above-mentioned 78 victims, i.e. five boys at the age of 12–17 and 11 girls aged 4–18. Their mean latent period lasted for 44 days, ranging from 26 days to 72 days.

As far as the gender of the victims is concerned, it is known that among 115 victims (including persons whose injury was not dated) whose death was caused by a rabid wolf, there were 77 males and 38 females, the majority of the men being at the age of 20–50.

Our present discussion has not covered the aspect of economic damage caused by the wolf in earlier centuries. But data on the economic losses resulting from the activity of innumerable packs of wolves in old-time Estonia are rather impressive. For instance, 30,152 domestic animals fell prey to wolves in nine counties of Livonia, i.e. in South Estonia and North Latvia, during a single year from 1 November 1822 to 1 November 1823.

Information presented in the present paper enables the reader to arrive at an inevitable conclusion what a nuisance the numerous wolf's population was to the Estonian society in old time.

REFERENCES

- Aaver, E. 1970. *Forest rabies*. Tallinn: Eesti raamat (in Estonian).
- Adamovich, V.L., Bibikov D.I. and Rootsi, I.H. 1995. Rabid wolves. *Priroda I Ohta* 2–3: 72–74 (in Russian).
- Anonymous. 1823. Ostsee-Provinzen Blatt (a newspaper) 32: 286.
- Anonymous. Undated. New Encyclopaedic Dictionary. Vol. 11. Sankt-Peterburg (in Russian).
- Anonymous. 1862a. *Journal of Hunting* 8: 102–104 (in Russian).
- Anonymous. 1862b. *Journal of Hunting* 12: 305–310 (in Russian).
- Anonymous. 1870. Statistics about rabies in France. *Domashneye hozajstvo* 12: 197–198 (in Russian).

- Anonymous. 1927. *Great Soviet Encyclopaedia* 6: 531 (in Russian).
- Anonymous. 1970. *Great Soviet Encyclopaedia* 3: 640 (in Russian).
- Keller, O. 1887. *Thiere des classischen Alterthums in culturgeschichtlicher Beziehung*. Innsbruck.
- Kreutzwald, Fr.R. 1854. *Reader for schools*. Part III: 157. Tartu (in Estonian).
- Levshin, V. 1813. *Book for hunters*. Part II: 297. Moscow (in Russian).
- Maroketti, G. 1840. *Practical and theoretical treatment on rabies*. Sankt-Peterburg (in Russian).
- Ministry of Internal Affairs [MoIA] 1839. *Bulletin of the Ministry of Internal Affairs* 4: 1–10 (in Russian).
- Ministry of Internal Affairs [MoIA] 1850. *Bulletin of the Ministry of Internal Affairs* 4: 107–120 (in Russian).
- Ministry of Internal Affairs [MoIA] 1852. *Bulletin of the Ministry of Internal Affairs* 9: 495–496 (in Russian).
- Nazarova, N. 1978. Wolf and the spread of diseases. *Okhota okhotnichje hozjaistvo* 11: 24–25 (in Russian).
- Nolde, von Fr. 1873. *Aus der Jäger-Praxis*. Heft II. Berlin.
- Olearius, A. 1647. *Offt beehrte Beschreibung der neuen orientalischen Reise*. Schlesswig.
- Reuter, M. 1916. Die Tollwut des wildes. *Zeitschrift für Forst-und Jagdwesen*. Nov. *Elfte Heft*: 581–596.
- Rootsi, I. 2001. Man-eater wolves in 19th century Estonia. Human dimensions of large carnivores in Baltic countries. *Proceedings of BLCI symposium*. Šiauliai, Lithuania, 27-29 April 2001.
- Rudnev, G.P. 1959. *Infection diseases of animals*. Moscow (in Russian).
- Tamm, O., Stserbakov, I., Tokalova, K. and Stepanova, L. 1971. Cases of rabies in Estonia during 1947–1970. *Nõukogude Eesti Tervishoid* 3: 185–187 (in Estonian).
- Zürn. 1876. *Die wuthkrankheit der Hunde und ihre Gefahr*. Leipzig.
- stock 29, list 3, item 612, 4492
stock 31, list 1, item 319, 320
stock 902, list 1, item 1135, 1580
stock 949, list 1, item 523
stock 950, list 1, item 251, 254
stock 1233, list 1, item 24
stock 1248, list 1, item 5
stock 1265 list 1, item 59
stock 1285, list 1, item 135
stock 1297, list 2, item 4
stock 1864, list 2, item 57:7, 128:10, X105, X207
stock 3147, list 1, item 137
stock 3148, list 2, item 3
2. Estonian National Museum (ENM):
KV80, 483, Kadrina, J. Valdur 1959.
3. Estonian Literary Museum (ELM):
ERA II 203, 412 (109), Otepää 1938.

PASIUTUSIŲ VILKŲ UŽPULTI ŽMONĖS ESTIJOJE 18–19 A.

I. Rootsi

SANTRAUKA

Per 1763–1891 metų laikotarpį Estijoje pasiutę vilkai apkandžiojo 203 asmenis, iš kurių mirė 34%. Iš 1811–1860 m. laikotarpio dokumentuota 70 tokių užpuolimų, iš jų 70% įvyko žiemą ir pavasarį (nuo gruodžio iki gegužės mėn.), didesnė jų dalis (67%) teko keturioms šalies apygardoms (šiaurėje, šiaurės rytuose, rytuose ir pietryčiuose). Vidutinė pasiutligės latentinio periodo trukmė žmonėms buvo 44 dienos (78 mirties atvejai). 37% apkandžiotų žmonių susirgo pasiutlige per pirmą mėnesį po užpuolimo, 47% – antrą, 10% – trečią, ir tik 5% – vėliau.

Manuscripts:

1. Estonian History Archives (EHA):
stock 29, list 1, item 4516

Received: 3 September 2002

Accepted: 6 February 2003