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Welcome to issue three

‘History is written by the victors’, so the famous saying goes, and while we can’t lay claim to any military prowess here at All About History we certainly seem to be winning the war when it comes to making an entertaining and accessible history magazine. Thanks to all of you who have bought and subscribed and offered feedback through our social media channels - it seems most of you are very happy with our work so far!

This somewhat martial opening to issue three reflects much of what lies in store for new and regular readers alike. Our front section offers a history of conflict across the ages, highlighting key wars and battles that shaped the world into what it is today. Some of the hardest work this issue was put into securing an interview with Dutch Van Kirk - the only surviving crew member from the Enola Gay aircraft. The effort was well worth it though and it’s equally fascinating and sobering to hear his vivid account of the first atomic weapon ever used in warfare.

The military theme continues in our cover feature this month with a look at the achievements of arguably England’s most famous monarch, Henry VIII, as well as his failures on the battlefield. Henry was a king who strived for his very own Agincourt only to be thwarted by politics, economics and religion. Should this prove too much bloodshed then I recommend turning to page 76 for an overview of the civilisation of Babylon - home to the ancient world’s finest scholars, artists, engineers and mathematicians now lost to the desert sands.

Enjoy the issue, and do please keep sending us your stories and thoughts on the mag.

Dave Harfield
Editor in Chief

Highlights of issue three

Heroes & villains: Vlad the Impaler
Bloodthirsty despot to many but a folk hero to his people, we chart the life of the brutal ruler upon whom Bram Stoker based Dracula.

Eye witness: Hiroshima
Dutch Van Kirk recounts the day on which he and his crewmates dropped an atomic bomb on Japan, killing 80,000 people but, he says, saving many more.

The Black Death
With unclear origins the plague spread across Europe like wildfire, claiming millions of lives; follow the progress of one of the deadliest pandemics in history.
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Police and Secret Service agents draw weapons and scramble to protect President Ronald Reagan during an assassination attempt in Washington DC. Reagan was hit by one of the five or six shots fired by John Hinckley, who also seriously injured Reagan’s press secretary and a police officer.

30 March 1981
The England football team are forced to give the Nazi salute before playing an international game that they would go on to win 6-3. The players later said that they were pressured into the gesture by diplomats following a policy of appeasement with Hitler – a policy that ultimately had failed by September 1939.

14 May 1938

© Getty
Prince William, Duke of Cambridge and Catherine, Duchess of Cambridge, depart the Lindo Wing with their newborn son at St Mary's Hospital, London, England, to scenes of jubilation from the crowds gathered outside. Later named Prince George of Cambridge the eight-pound, six-ounce royal is currently third in line to the throne.

23 July 2013
The Battle of Antietam was one of the first major battles in the American Civil War. Street combat was a common part of hostilities in the Korean War, as illustrated by these US soldiers. Nelson’s ship, HMS Victory, at the Battle of Trafalgar in October 1805. Soldiers on the Western Front had to fight under horrendous conditions during WWI. The Battle of Agincourt in 1415, a decisive English victory. A US airman with the Navy Seawolves fires an M60 from a helicopter. A British square standing firm against the French cavalry at Waterloo. Soldiers on the Western Front had to fight under horrendous conditions during WWI. Street combat was a common part of hostilities in the Korean War, as illustrated by these US soldiers. The Battle of Antietam was one of the first major battles in the American Civil War.
Whether it was over territory, politics or human rights, get up to speed on major conflicts from ancient times to the present day

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The Battle of Pharsalus was the key conflict in Caesar's Civil War, leading to him taking over the Roman Republic until his assassination. Pharsalus saw Caesar's forces form up against those of the Republic under the command of Gnaeus Pompeius Magnus (Pompey the Great).

Pompey's forces hugely outnumbered Caesar's as he had the backing of the majority of Rome's senators, but Caesar's men were veterans who had fought in many battles against Rome's enemies. On the battlefield, Pompey also enjoyed a positional advantage and was better supplied, with newer weapons and horses. Despite these advantages, Pompey lost due to tactical errors - he did not engage Caesar offensively when he should have – and Caesar decimated his forces. After the battle of Pharsalus, Pompey fled to Egypt where he was killed.

British Library

**Conflict timeline**

- **Battle of Troy**: A real battle from a real war yet embellished with fictional extras, Troy saw the Achaeans defeat the Trojans at Ilium. Circa 1200 BCE
- **Battle of Gaugamela**: Of all Alexander the Great's battles, this was his most epic, defeating the Persian army of Darius III and essentially leading the Persian Empire to collapse. 331 BCE
- **Battle of Cynoscephalae**: The battle that saw the passing of imperial power from Ancient Greece to Rome, Cynoscephalae was a key Roman victory over Macedonian forces. 197 BCE
- **Battle of Hastings**: The battle that led to the Norman conquest of England, Hastings saw Duke William defeat Anglo-Saxon King Harold. 1066
- **Battle of Actium**: A war that saw the 13 colonies of North America take on the might of Great Britain and win, the American Revolutionary War led to the birth of the USA. 1775-1783
- **Battle of Trafalgar**: The Duke of Wellington - along with the Seventh Coalition - defeat Napoleon at Waterloo, Belgium, in one of the most famous battles of all time. 1815
- **Battle of Yorktown**: Arguably the climax of the American Revolution, Yorktown saw the British finally lose their grip on the American colonies. 1781
- **Wars of the Roses**: A series of dynastic battles fought between two rival branches of the House of Plantagenet - York and Lancaster, the Wars of the Roses reshaped 15th-century Britain, eventually resulting in the Tudor dynasty. The reason these battles are referred to as the Wars of the Roses is because the Houses of York and Lancaster both took roses as their heraldic symbols; York took a white rose and Lancaster a red rose.

**Siege of Jerusalem**: 1099

The culmination of the First Crusade, the Siege of Jerusalem left the city in ruins, much of its population slaughtered and would kick-start a series of campaigns and battles between the Christian Crusaders and Muslims that would last for over 200 years, ending with the Fall of Acre in 1291.

**Battle of Trafalgar**: OFF THE COAST OF SPAIN 1805

Despite the death of famed Admiral Horatio Nelson, this decisive victory established the British Royal Navy as the predominant naval force in Europe and left them in control of vast swathes of ocean. The win was largely ensured by Nelson dividing his fleet into two columns perpendicular to the French and Spanish fleet - a tactic that remained uncountered, enabling Nelson to capture or destroy at will without the loss of a single British ship.

**Battle of Gettyburg**: 1863

The most pivotal battle during the American Civil War, Gettysburg saw the forces of the Union defeat the Confederacy, 1-3 July 1863

**Battle of Marathon**: GREECE 490 BCE

The Battle of Marathon - part of the wider Greco-Persian Wars - saw a combined Greek army decisively defeat the invading forces of Persian king Darius I. Famously, after the battle a Greek messenger named Pheidippides is said to have run from the battlefield all the way to Athens to deliver the good news - a distance of about 42 kilometres (26 miles). This is where both the distance and name originate for the modern-day marathon race.
BATTLE OF AGINCOURT
France 25 October 1415

One of the most well-known English victories, with King Henry V commanding a numerically inferior army against one twice as large, the Battle of Agincourt was a brutal defeat for France.

The battle took place near the town of Agincourt in northern France, where Henry was intercepted by French forces under the command of Constable Charles d’Albret. D’Albret believed that his superior numbers would easily dispatch Henry’s smaller, archer-heavy army. As such, D’Albret deployed his troops without much concern for tactical nuance, relying on shock-and-awe cavalry charges.

Things did not go to plan though. Henry’s archers were, in fact, longbowmen—the best archers in the world—and, as a result, they caused widespread havoc whenever the French attacked. What’s more, D’Albret did not consider the terrain, with much of his cavalry getting bogged down on the battlefield due to heavy rainfall and mud. Henry was left to claim an epic victory. In the long run, however, Agincourt had little significance in the result of the wider Hundred Years’ War.

The famous D-Day landings on the beaches of Normandy, France on 6 June 1944

Battle of Britain
Prior to the Battle of Britain a Nazi invasion of the UK was likely, but a decisive victory for Allied air units meant that the Germans never managed to take Bighty. 10 July – 31 October 1940

Battle of the Bulge
A surprise offensive during the last months of WWII, the Battle of the Bulge saw German forces overrun Allied positions in the forested regions of Ardennes, Belgium. 16 December 1944 – 25 January 1945

Bosnian War
Resulting from the breakup of Yugoslavia, the three-year Bosnian War led to over 100,000 casualties as a result of territorial conflict and genocide. 1992-1995

Iraq War
Led by the USA and the UK, the war in Iraq saw a coalition force overthrow the rule of Iraqi president Saddam Hussein, though the motives for invading the country have sparked a lot of controversy. 2003-2011

War in Afghanistan
A conflict triggered by terrorist attacks on the World Trade Center on 11 September 2001, this war has seen several Western nations fight the forces of the Taliban and al-Qaeda for almost 12 years and counting. 2001 – present

World War II
Europe 1914-1918

With imperialism resurgent throughout many of the great powers of Europe at the start of the 20th century tensions were high. Unfortunately, when Archduke Franz Ferdinand was shot in 1914, it triggered a political crisis that would lead to the worst war the world had ever seen. By the closing days, over 9 million soldiers had been killed.

World War I
Europe 1914-1918

This 20th-century conflict is primarily remembered today in the West for the role played by the USA, but the war had been raging for several years before the Americans joined the fray. Stretching from Vietnam, through Laos and into Cambodia, the Vietnam War saw the country divided into North and South, based on a communism/capitalism split. By the time the US withdrew its troops in 1973, almost 60,000 Americans and hundreds of thousands of natives had been killed in the fighting.

Vietnam War
1955-1975

The most infamous trench warfare battle in history, the Battle of the Somme saw Allied and Axis powers battled for supremacy. 1 July – 18 November 1916

Battle of the Somme

The famous D-Day landings on the beaches of Normandy, France

Battle of Normandy
The battle that began the Allied advance across Nazi Europe towards Berlin, Normandy was one of the most daring and bloody offensives in WWII – and history. 6 June – 25 August 1944

Korean War
A key element of the wider Cold War, the Korean War saw the United Nations-backed Republic of Korea go head to head with the China/Russia-backed Democratic People’s Republic of Korea. 1950-1953

The Battle of the Bulge took place in bitter winter conditions!
The bloody culmination of the Waterloo Campaign, the Battle of Waterloo was one of the most explosive of the 19th century, with a British-led allied army under the command of Arthur Wellesley, the Duke of Wellington, defeating a French army under the command of Napoleon Bonaparte and ending the latter’s 100-day reign as emperor of France.

The war had begun after Napoleon I returned from exile on Elba (an island off Tuscany) to Paris on 20 March 1815. This set into motion a chain of events that would see Napoleon reclaim his position as emperor, the Congress of Vienna declare him an outlaw and the Seventh Coalition pledge to field a large army to bring his rule to an end.

With hundreds of thousands of soldiers drafted to take Napoleon down, it was only a matter of time before blood was spilt – something that occurred two days prior to Waterloo when Napoleon struck at the Prussian army before it could join up with Wellington’s on 16 June.

Protecting Napoleon during the battle were his Old Guard – elite veterans of the Imperial Guard that he handpicked based on their combat experience. One of the most common traits was above average height, meaning that they towered over many other units on the battlefield.

The French ruler did this by splitting his army into three groups, with two dedicated to the Prussians. The following exchange was the Battle of Ligny and saw Napoleon defeat the Prussians by causing their centre to collapse under repeated French assaults. While the Prussians lost men, they were not routed however and – as we shall see – were disastrously left to retreat uninterrupted, with only a cursory French force giving chase.

On the same day as the Battle of Ligny, Napoleon’s army’s remaining left flank had been engaged with some of Wellington’s forces at Quatre Bras, where they had attempted unsuccessfully to overrun the Prince of Orange’s position. With the Prussians apparently defeated, Napoleon turned his attention on Quatre Bras, reaching the area the following day. By this point, however, Quatre Bras had been abandoned by both sides, Wellington could not hold it without the Prussians. After catching up with his left flank commander, Marshal Michel Ney, who was pursuing a retreating Wellington towards Waterloo, Napoleon ordered his right flank commander, Marshal Emmanuel de Grouchy, to see off the Prussians more definitively.

By this time, with Napoleon issuing the order late on the afternoon of 17 June, the Prussians had already made significant ground and regrouped at the town of Wavre – a position from which they could easily rejoin Wellington at Waterloo – and Marshal Grouchy was unsuccessful in catching them. Despite eventually defeating a solitary Prussian Corps at Wavre on 18 June, by this time the Battle of Waterloo was in full swing and Grouchy was unable to take part.

After Napoleon had issued the order to Marshal Grouchy he continued to hunt down Wellington with his remaining forces before making camp south-west of Wellington’s position at Waterloo. The scene was now set for the Battle of Waterloo the next day (18 June), which, as we all know, resulted in a famous victory for the Duke of Wellington and a final defeat for Emperor Napoleon.

As a consequence of Napoleon’s loss at Waterloo, the French monarchy was restored, with King Louis XVIII regaining the throne on 8 July 1815, while the emperor himself was banished to the volcanic island of Saint Helena in the Atlantic Ocean. Napoleon would live on Saint Helena for a further six years, before passing away in May 1821.
The charge of the Royal Scots Greys at Waterloo became symbolic of the courage demonstrated by Coalition forces in the face of the might of Napoleon's army. Their charge famously repelled a key French advance, caused the complete destruction of a large French infantry column and led to the capture of Napoleon's 45th Regiment of the Line's eagle standard.

While the primary antagonists of the Battle of Waterloo were the UK and France, a host of other nations played a part, joining with the British to form a coalition against the new emperor of France. These included the Netherlands, Hanover, Nassau, Bavaria and Prussia – the latter contributing most significantly.

While Waterloo was not a medieval meat-grinder of a battle, with tactics very firmly on display, it still had a huge casualty list. Of Napoleon's 72,000 troops, around 25,000 were killed outright or wounded, 8,000 were taken prisoner and 15,000 went missing. The total for Wellington and his allies' soldiers killed, wounded or missing came to around 24,000.
After the Coalition’s lines had been weakened, Napoleon began his attack proper, with numerous infantry corps advancing. The initial fighting went the way of the French, with the left’s infantry pressing Wellington’s forces back. However, just when it looked like Napoleon would make a decisive break, he was informed that Prussian troops were fast approaching. He tried to send word to Marshal Grouchy to engage with them, but his commander was in Wavre.

Around midday Napoleon ordered his grande batterie of 80 cannons to open fire upon Wellington’s position. The cannons caused many casualties in Wellington’s cavalry, opening a potential weak point in the defending lines.

Seeing their infantry was about to buckle, Wellington’s First and Second Brigade of heavy cavalry charged and smashed into the French infantry. By the time they reached the bottom of the hill, they had completely halted the infantry’s advance. In doing so, however, they had left themselves exposed and without backup.

With the French left, right and centre now disintegrating, the only cohesive force left available to Napoleon were two battalions of his Old Guard. Despite hoping to rally his remaining troops behind them, the strength of the Coalition’s forces left this untenable, and all Napoleon could do was order a retreat. His exit was covered by the Old Guard, many of whom died holding back the Coalition’s advance.
05 Napoleon counters
With the Coalition's heavy cavalry now facing squares of French infantry to the front and with no support, Napoleon ordered a counterattack, dispatching his cuirassier and lancer regiments from his own cavalry division. A massive central battle ensued, with cavalry, infantry and artillery all involved. While Napoleon's cavalry regiments took out much of the Coalition's heavy cavalry, they could not wipe them out. Napoleon also dispatched troops to intercept the Prussians.

06 Stalemate
At the heart of the battle, Coalition and French squares then undertook a series of back-and-forth exchanges. All the while cannon and musket fire continued to rain down from all sides and, aside from one more combined arms assault by the French on the centre-right of Wellington's lines, a general mêlée ensued, with each side seeing their numbers steadily chipped away.

07 Prussians arrive
Wellington had been exchanging communications with General Blücher, commander of the Prussian army, since 10am and knew he was approaching from the east. At roughly 4.30pm the Prussians arrived and, noting the village of Plancenoit on Napoleon's right flank was a tactically important position, began to attack the French forces in position there. After initially taking the village though, French forces reclaimed it.

08 Imperial Guard attacks Wellington
With his forces temporarily holding off the Prussians at Plancenoit, Napoleon went on one last major offensive. He sent the supposedly undefeatable Imperial Guard into Wellington's army's centre in an attempt to break through and attack his flanks from within. While the guard had some success, breaching multiple lines of the Coalition force, eventually they were overrun by Wellington's numerically superior infantry and wiped out.

09 Plancenoit recaptured
The Prussian army retook Plancenoit and targeted Napoleon's right flank, giving Wellington the upper hand. The Old Guard who had been supporting the French position at Plancenoit beat a hasty retreat.

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**France**

TROOPS 72,000
CAVALRY 14,000
CANNONS 250

**Napoleon Bonaparte**
LEADER
Emperor Bonaparte became famous for his tactical genius, enabling him to take over much of central Europe.

**Strengths**
- A savvy strategist with plenty of battle experience

**Weaknesses**
- Erratic; he took a detached approach to fighting

---

**Cavalry**
IMPORTANT UNIT
French light cavalry was considered the best of its kind in the world and played a large part in holding off the Coalition's heavy cavalry charges.

**Strengths**
- Fast, agile units capable of easily outflanking the enemy

**Weaknesses**
- Direct cavalry charges rely on surprise to be most effective

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**Musket**
KEY WEAPON
The musket was wielded by Napoleon's Old Guard with deadly accuracy, picking off large numbers of Coalition soldiers at Waterloo.

**Strengths**
- Excellent medium-range stopping power

**Weaknesses**
- Slow to reload and also poor in hand-to-hand combat
Britain was in the grip of rationing during WWII and immediately after, so meals needed to be filling and nutritious without using too many restricted goods like dairy products. This vegetable pie from 1941 was named after the then minister of food, Frederick Marquis, First Earl Woolton.

**METHOD**

**01** Chop the vegetables and potatoes into equal-sized chunks, roughly two centimetres (0.8 inches) in size. You can use any vegetables, but remember that in wartime Britain they would have used only crops that grew well in the climate, and only in season (eg swede, turnips, broccoli, carrots – depending on the time of year). If you like, you can keep the skin on the potatoes, as it adds extra vitamin C.

**02** Put the vegetables and potatoes in a pan, pour in water (enough to just cover them) and bring to the boil. Once it reaches boiling point, stir in your yeast extract, salt and pepper, and seasoning (see step 3). Cover and boil for about ten minutes, or until the potatoes are just tender.

**03** Your seasoning depended on what you had. Yeast extract could have been Marmite, mushroom ketchup or, if you were lucky, meat stock-based Bisto or Bovril. Herbs would have been homegrown and used dried.

**04** While the vegetables are cooking, make up your suet mix according to the packet instructions using a palette knife; draw together and turn out the dough onto a floured surface to flatten it into a pastry lid. Cover with baking parchment or a cotton tea towel to keep it cool and fresh.

**05** Combine a tablespoon of cornflour with a teaspoon of water (add more if necessary) to form a paste – you’re looking for something with the colour and consistency of runny PVA glue. Take the vegetables off the heat and stir in the cornflour paste – fairly quickly the water should transform into a thicker gravy.

**06** Place the vegetable mix into a pie dish. Flour a rolling pin and use it to pick up the pastry lid and lay it over the dish. Press down around the edges with your fingers and use a pastry brush to glaze with milk.

**07** Bake in a preheated oven at 200 degrees Celsius (390 degrees Fahrenheit; gas mark 6) for 25-30 minutes, or until light golden brown. Once cooked, stand for 20 minutes before serving.

**08** If you have any suet pastry left over, you can make a jam roly-poly or apple dumplings for pudding. Serve with packet-made or powdered custard – fresh custard wouldn’t have been possible with a ration of just one egg per week!
A PARATROOPER

THE US AIRBORNE TROOPS
USA, WORLD WAR II

RESERVE PARACHUTE

BECAUSE YOU COULDN'T ALWAYS Rely ON YOUR MAIN PARACHUTE...

If the main parachute malfunctioned, then they could pull the red cord on the spare parachute worn on the front. During WWII, American paratroopers were the only ones to pack spare parachutes.

THOMPSON SUBMACHINE GUN

ON LANDING, PARATROOPERS WERE READY FOR BATTLE

Commonly nicknamed the ‘Tommy gun’, it was standard issue for US paratroopers during the Normandy landings and beyond, and was popular for its volume of fire and large round capacity.

JUMPSUIT

THE ONESIE THAT CAME WITH ALL THE STORAGE SPACE YOU NEEDED

US paratroopers’ M42 jumpsuits, designed by William Yarborough, came with large, slanted pockets secured by two snaps on each flap. These enabled their wearers to pack extra supplies of ammunition, rations or grenades.

JUMP BOOT

WHEN YOU'RE LEAPING OUT OF PLANES YOU NEED A LOT OF SUPPORT...

Also designed by Yarborough, these were fully laced up from the instep to the top in order to provide more support to the wearer’s ankles in the event of a heavy landing.

HELMET

THE HEADGEAR SPECIALLY ADAPTED FOR FREEFALL

US paratroopers used the same helmet as the rest of the army corps, albeit with a modified liner and chinstrap to prevent it from coming loose during jumps. The chinstraps were moulded into a ‘D’-shaped wire which would lead on to the M2 helmet.

MAIN PARACHUTE

THE KEY KIT FOR DISCREETLY GLIDING BEHIND ENEMY LINES

The T-5 was the main parachute used by US forces during WWII and the first to be designed specifically for paratroopers. It was activated by the static line pulling the cover from the trooper’s backpack.

LIFE PRESERVER ‘MAE WEST’ VEST

IF YOU FELL IN WATER, THIS COULD SAVE YOUR LIFE

So nicknamed partly for being rhyming slang for breasts and for the resemblance they supposedly bore to the eponymous Hollywood icon, these yellow rubber vests were inflated via carbon dioxide cartridges. In the case of these failing, a back-up tube allowing for manual inflation was also included.

KNIFE

A MULTIPURPOSE TOOL USED FOR BOTH PROTECTION AND ESCAPE

With enemies never far, it was essential to get undercover as soon as you landed. If you got tangled up in your parachute, either on the ground or in trees etc, an easy-to-reach knife could quickly get you free. It also served as a close-range weapon.
During the Vietnam War, the USA had the most advanced military in the world. Boasting technology and resources other nations could only dream of, their entrance to the conflict on the side of South Vietnam against the communist North Vietnam looked certain to turn the tide of the war.

But the Viet Cong, a guerrilla force on the side of the communists who were stationed in the South, had other ideas. Beneath the Cu Chi district near Saigon (now Ho Chi Minh City), communist forces had been digging tunnels here and there since the 1940s during their war of independence with the French. By the Sixties, however, this tunnel network spanned 250 kilometres (155 miles).

The Americans had expected a war above ground, but what they found instead was a determined Viet Cong force that, despite the Americans’ military superiority, were able to use their subsurface tunnel network to great advantage. They caused huge casualties, and were partly responsible for the US withdrawal in 1973.

These small, narrow tunnels - big enough for the smaller Viet Cong troops but cramped for the larger American and Australian troops - were dug mostly using hand tools. Conditions inside them ranged from poor to terrible. They were dark and dangerous, riddled with ants, scorpions, poisonous centipedes and other deadly creatures. Thousands of Viet Cong lived underground during the war, including civilians and children. They would eat, go to school and even get married underground, coming out only to tend their crops. The advanced network of tunnels had numerous features to ensure the long-term survival of their residents, including air vents and secret exits.

The Viet Cong used the tunnels to mount surprise attacks, often appearing out of nowhere through trapdoors and hidden entrances, and they were always quick to improvise too. For example, when the Americans started sending out sniffer dogs to find entrances to the tunnels, Viet Cong troops used uniforms from dead American soldiers to mask the smell and fool the dogs.

At first, US and Australian troops attempted to flush out the Viet Cong with tear gas, grenades and other weapons. Eventually, though, they began sending their own troops down, called ‘tunnel rats’, to fight the Viet Cong in their own domain. This would prove largely unsuccessful. Later in the war the Americans resorted to bombing the tunnels before troops moved in, with mixed results.

**How do we know this?**

Many of the tunnels used by the Viet Cong have now been turned into tourist attractions. The tunnels have been widened, reinforced and cleaned to enable visitors to see the startling conditions in which the Viet Cong lived and fought. During the Vietnam War, however, the tunnels were not well understood until America and Australia started to send troops known as tunnel rats into these dangerous mazes. Tunnel rats - often armed only with a flashlight and a gun - would attempt to navigate the human warrens and flush out any Viet Cong. The extent of the tunnel network came as a big shock to many.

**01 Vent**
The Viet Cong would vent fumes and smoke from their underground kitchens far from the tunnels to fool their enemies into thinking the base was elsewhere.

**02 Punji trap**
Fake entrances to the underground tunnels would be filled with bamboo spikes to stop potential intruders in their tracks.

**03 Conference chamber**
Some tunnels had a makeshift conference room where the Viet Cong planned their next offence or defence.

**04 Kitchen**
The Viet Cong dined on simple food like rice, with kitchens based near the surface so cooking fumes could be vented elsewhere.
05 Storeroom
Viet Cong troops could spend days at a time underground, so they needed adequate supplies to avoid venturing to the surface.

06 Tunnels
The tunnels themselves were tiny in width - often big enough only to crawl through. Once you went in, it was difficult to turn back.

07 Dormitory
The Viet Cong would often rest during the day, only coming out at night to gather supplies or to attack under the veil of darkness.

08 Hospital
Disease was rampant, with many dying from malaria and almost all the Viet Cong had intestinal parasites.

09 Tunnel Rats
At first the Americans attempted to draw out the Viet Cong with grenades and tear gas, but eventually they started sending down soldiers called tunnel rats.

10 Booby Trap
The maze-like tunnels also included booby-trapped areas intended to injure and/or kill intruding tunnel rats.

11 Ground Forces
Infantry and personnel carriers were unable to conquer the vast network of tunnels. Later in the war the Americans resorted to carpet bombing, but even this tactic had limited success.

12 Air-raid Shelter
This air-raid shelter provided protection and amplified the noise of aircraft when the Americans began carpet bombing in the hope of destroying the tunnels.
William the Conqueror
FRENCH CIRCA 1028-1087
In 1035, William became Duke of Normandy, but his detractors preferred to call him William the Bastard. He used his political and military skills to put down a series of rebellions between 1046 and 1055. By far his biggest success was the invasion of England in 1066. After a day-long battle against Harold II's army on 14 October at Hastings, he emerged victorious. Harold, the last Anglo-Saxon king, was killed and his army fell apart. William crowned himself and established a strong Norman influence in England. Returning to Normandy, he spent the rest of his life dealing with continental disputes.

SHAKA KASENZANGAKHONA
ZULU CIRCA 1787-1828
As the leader of the Zulus, Shaka trained 50,000 warriors over 11 years to create a brutal force, which fought primarily with short spears and shields. His innovations included surrounding enemy armies and then wiping them out. Rather than colonising and incorporating new territories, he simply destroyed settlements and enslaved or massacred the inhabitants. Shaka is renowned for being easily offended.

Napoleon Bonaparte
FRENCH 1769-1821
Napoleon rose to power during the French Revolutionary Wars that raged from 1792 to 1802. He made himself emperor in 1804 and successfully repelled the advances of the Russian and Austrian armies at Austerlitz in 1805. His army was able to secure most of western Europe for his empire, but in 1812 it suffered a major defeat in Russia.

Two years later, a coalition of forces defeated him at Leipzig, Germany. Napoleon managed to escape from exile to raise an army in France, but was ultimately defeated at the Battle of Waterloo on 18 June 1815 by the Seventh Coalition force commanded by the Duke of Wellington (see page 26 for more details).

Jalaluddin Muhammad Akbar
INDIAN 1542-1605
Known as Akbar the Great, he was tolerant of the majority Hindu population in India and established firm administrative control of the Mughal Empire.

He used a system of ranking called mansabdari to assign his troops into 33 classes for maximum efficiency. Akbar's armies won many victories in northern India and, during his rule, he tripled the size of the Mughal Empire.
**Attila the Hun**

**HUNGARIAN**  CIRCA 406-453

Attila was able to consolidate the Hunnic Kingdom and expand his influence from Hungary into Poland, Austria, Germany, Russia and south-east Europe. His forces had a reputation for looting and pillaging, and were so feared that even the Roman Empire negotiated a peace treaty in order to ward off their advances.

In 48 BCE, his army defeated that of his political rival Gnaeus Pompeius Magnus (Pompey) and Caesar declared himself dictator of the Roman Republic.

Caesar then became embroiled in a civil war between the Egyptian rulers Cleopatra VII and Ptolemy XIII. In 47 BCE, his small army survived the Siege of Alexandria and – with help from reinforcements – they defeated the Egyptian army at the Battle of the Nile.

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**Gaius Julius Caesar**

**ITALIAN**  100-44 BCE

Caesar began his military career in Asia. When he was kidnapped by Cilician pirates, his powers of persuasion and military skills came into play. He convinced them to ask for a higher ransom for his release, and as soon as Caesar was freed, he returned to capture them. Caesar led four Roman legions to keep control of Gaul and invaded Britain in 55 BCE. It was claimed that during the conquest of Gaul, a million enemies were killed.

In 48 BCE, his army defeated that of his political rival Gnaeus Pompeius Magnus (Pompey) and Caesar declared himself dictator of the Roman Republic.

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**Alexander the Great**

**GREEK**  356-323 BCE

Alexander III of Macedon (in northern Greece) won virtually all of his many battles. In 334 BCE, two years after succeeding his father to the throne, he launched a series of military campaigns against the Persian Empire. In 331 BCE, his greatest military victory occurred at the Battle of Gaugamela in northern Iraq. His expansionist policies even included an ill-fated attempt to invade India, and shortly before his death he planned to launch an attack on Arabia.

His empire covered an area of 3.2 million square kilometres (2 million square miles), ranging from Greece and eastwards towards India and southwards to Egypt. His style of rule and tactical genius helped international trade flourish using Greek as a common language and culture.

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**Saladin**

**MESOPOTAMIAN**  CIRCA 1137-1193

Saladin was a Muslim leader who successfully fought against the Christian Crusaders. In 1174, he led an invasion of Syria and his forces came to dominate much of north Africa; he was declared Sultan of Egypt and Syria in 1175. At the Battle of Hattin in 1187, the Crusaders suffered a heavy defeat fighting Saladin’s army. This enabled Saladin’s forces to regain control of many key settlements and cities, including Jerusalem.

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**Hannibal Barca**

**TUNISIAN**  CIRCA 247-183 BCE

Hannibal commanded his Carthaginian armies against the might of the Roman Republic. One of his most audacious campaigns was to invade northern Italy by marching his army over the Alps. He fought his opponents by determining their strengths and weaknesses, and then capitalising on this knowledge to defeat them.

His tactics won three major battles (Trebis, Trasimene and Cannae) in Italy, which he occupied for 15 years. The Romans eventually forced Hannibal back to Carthage (in Tunisia), where Roman General Scipio Africanus defeated him at the Battle of Zama in 202 BCE. Nonetheless, his strategic skills were later employed by Prusias I in Asia Minor to great effect to repel Roman forces on land and sea.

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**George Smith Patton**

**AMERICAN**  1885-1945

In 1913, Patton designed the Model 1913 ‘Patton Saber’ based on his study of swords and sabres in battle. He went on to apply his knowledge of cavalry battle techniques to the use of mechanised warfare during WWI.

In WWII, he successfully led the invasion of Casablanca in 1942 and introduced tough discipline to the demoralised US II Corps in northern Africa. He led the Seventh Army in the invasion of Sicily and commanded the Third Army after the invasion of Normandy in 1944. He decisively mobilised forces at the Battle of the Bulge to quell the last-ditch offensive by the German army.

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“May God have mercy upon my enemies – because I won’t”

*George Smith Patton*
How to SWORD FIGHT

TOP TIPS FOR WINNING A DUEL
BRONZE AGE – 19TH CENTURY

5 TYPES OF SWORD

XIPHOS
ANCIENT GREECE
A single-handed weapon with a double-edged, leaf-shaped blade that could reach up to 60 centimetres (24 inches) long. It served as a backup to the spear.

LONGSWORD
MEDIEVAL EUROPE
A thin, double-edged, two-handed sword with a cross-shaped hilt and pointed blade used for penetrating thick medieval plate armour.

BROADSWORD
16TH-CENTURY EUROPE
A single-handed sword with a double-edged, pointed blade. Also known as a basket-hilted sword due to its protective grip.

KATANA
14TH-CENTURY JAPAN
A two-handed, single-edged blade with a slight curve, used by samurai warriors for both its strength and cutting ability.

RAPIER
16TH-CENTURY EUROPE
A slender but sharp sword used in the 16th and 17th centuries in duels. Its light weight and small size made it ideal for practicing sword skills and rarely deadly.

SWORDPLAY: KEY CONSIDERATIONS

Choose your weapon
When it comes to selecting your sword, be sure to choose a weapon that gives you the maximum reach as well as a sharp cutting edge and stabbing point - this greatly increases your attack capability. Size isn't everything though - make sure that it's light enough for you to wield effectively, so that you can move around without tiring too quickly.

Ground control
In a formal duel both combatants would agree on a neutral area that doesn't give either of them an advantage, but when you're on the battlefield anything goes. Always take the higher ground and press your enemy downhill; they have to work harder to lift and wield their sword, while you can rain down blows from above.

Distraction
Making sudden noises and flashes of reflected light/colour, or manoeuvring the enemy so that the Sun is shining directly into their eyes can distract them from both attack and defence.

Use the terrain
The best tactical advantage comes from being uphill. Attacking from above tires the enemy out as they are also fighting gravity.

The right footing
The ability to move and dodge quickly means that enemy blows can be avoided; moving about also saps your opponent’s energy levels.

Weak points
Aiming for unarmed areas or key parts of the anatomy (eg throat) will increase the chances of striking a deadly blow rather than causing a lesser injury.

Modern warfare is packed with high-tech weaponry, but until the end of the 19th century close combat on foot was still the order of the day. To win a sword fight, you had to be able to pull off a range of moves designed to distract, maim and ultimately defeat the enemy - whether that was within the sacrosanct rules of a duel or the chaos of a battlefield. There were many variations of sword fighting around the world, but despite their stylistic differences they all relied on a few essential techniques to win, as we reveal here...

Type of weapon
Single or two-handed swords come in many sizes and weights with different cutting edges and points. Fighting style, strength and agility must be considered when choosing a weapon.
**How not to win a sword fight**

In 19th-century Paris, a colonel called Barbier-Dufai and a young guards captain called Raoul de Vere got into a fight. The young officer forced the colonel to a duel, but was at a disadvantage: he wasn’t a trained swordsman. Barbier-Dufai beat him at fencing, but de Vere pushed to continue, so the colonel called for another weapon to be chosen. He decided to stop a passing horse-drawn cab and continue the fight inside. It gets even stranger: the combatants were tied together with only their right arms free. Each had a poignard – a long dagger with a thin, tapering blade and sharp point. With the coach doors locked shut, they were then driven twice around the Place du Carrousel. When the coach was stopped and the doors opened, they found De Vere dead and Barbier-Dufai horribly wounded. De Vere had stabbed him four times and even bitten him. As he was helped away, Barbier-Dufai is reported to have said, “At least, gentlemen, you will do me the justice to declare that I killed him fairly.”

**Don’t hold back**

From the word go, you need to attack fast and unpredictably to put the enemy at an immediate disadvantage. Distract your opponent by making sudden noises or manoeuvring them so that sunlight is shining in their eyes - this will lessen their offensive ability and, at the same time, give you more openings to strike.

**First blood**

With the enemy off-balance, your first serious move needs to damage or disable their sword arm, knee or heel – all injuries that will impair their ability to fight and so give you the advantage. In a duelling scenario the first blood is generally a cut to the enemy's upper arm, but this gentlemanly tactic is useless on a ruthless battlefield.

**It’s just a flesh wound...**

A duel might end here or go on to the death - in which case the same tactics as the battlefield are needed. Follow up your strike by pressing your enemy backwards. Stay agile and out of your opponent’s reach, and aim for areas like the arteries in the thighs and armpits to weaken and disorient them through blood loss.

**Finish the job**

With the enemy now weakened it’s time to go for a killing blow. If they are wearing armour then the joins at the shoulders, armpits, neck and thighs are generally the best places to target. Aim to hit an artery, stab the lower chest or stomach to cause a serious wound, or go for a slice to the neck to take your opponent down.

**TOP SWORD FIGHTERS**

**WILLIAM WALLACE**

**CIRCA 1270-1305**

The late-13th-century Scottish commander was renowned for his innovative use of terrain in sword battles during the Scottish Wars of Independence.

**CHARLEMAGNE**

**CIRCA 747-814**

The first Holy Roman Emperor was also a master swordsman. His sword had a suitably warrior-like name: Joyeuse (Joyful).

**MIYAMOTO MUSASHI**

**1584-1630**

One of the most famous ronin in Japan (samurai with no master), Musashi won his first duel at 13.

**JULIE D’AUBIGNY**

**1670-1707**

This French swordswoman duelled with young aristocrats as well as pursuing careers as a courtier and opera singer.
He wrote the manual for war

Sun Tzu is generally credited as the author of The Art Of War, an ancient Chinese military strategy guide that effectively served as the rulebook for warfare. The likes of Mao Zedong, Napoleon Bonaparte, Douglas MacArthur and George Patton have all studied it.

He defeated enemies with his mind

Many of Sun Tzu’s theories towards war were centred around psychologically defeating the opponent rather than doing so through brute force. He emphasised the importance of deception and convincing the enemy they were strong when they were weak, and vice versa.

His methods were brutal

One popular anecdote about Sun Tzu is the time a king challenged him to train an army of his concubines in military drills. When they failed to take him seriously, he had the king’s two favourite concubines, who were at the front, both executed. Not surprisingly, they proved to be more receptive to his commands after that.

He may never have existed

Even though he is credited as a military mastermind, there is no concrete proof he existed. His name is only mentioned in passing during his supposedly biggest achievements, like the Battle of Boju - the argument being that for such a supposedly major figure, little factual information has been recorded.

His methods remain effective today

As well as being required reading for many a budding army general, The Art Of War is also considered an essential read among politicians, diplomats and those involved in international relations. Moreover, business gurus often teach from Sun Tzu’s tome, using war as a metaphor for the global market.
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Visit www.historyanswers.co.uk and tell us

It is...
A. Dover Castle
B. Warwick Castle
C. Portland Castle

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A heroic outlaw. A rebellious streak. A morally righteous man who punished the rich and was hailed by the poor. You might be thinking of Robin Hood but Romanians would use similar words to describe their national hero Vlad the Impaler, a leader who once dined while surrounded by the twitching bodies of his enemies, pierced with sharp wooden spikes. How does someone with such inhumane and extreme methods become seen as a folk hero?

Vlad III didn’t have a normal upbringing – not surprising for a leader who would become notorious for impaling his enemies. Even though his family descended from a Romanian warlord who founded the state of Wallachia (now southern Romania), they didn’t act like noblemen. War was in their DNA and the urge to spill blood was simply too strong to spend their days debating politics. It was inevitable that as a young Vlad grew up surrounded by the horrors of war, he too would one day participate in it.

But history might have been very different had it not been for a bizarre decision by Vlad’s father, Vlad II, that sparked a chain of events responsible for what his son would eventually become.

Wallachia was a state teetering on the brink of destruction, stuck directly between the hated Ottoman Empire and untrustworthy Hungarian Empire. Lacking the necessary political skill needed to manage such an explosive and delicate situation, Vlad II made the decision as Wallachia’s leader to side with the bigger threat – the Ottoman Empire – sending his two sons to be held captive in Turkish court as a sign of loyalty to the Sultan. In the short term, it worked, prompting a shaky peace agreement between the two states. But in the long term, this would have devastating consequences.

For this is where Vlad III, already a young boy with a hostile mentality, would learn the art of torture and have his psyche twisted into something extreme and unpleasant. If Vlad II believed that his former enemy, the Hungarians. Vlad III stubbornly believed his time in captivity meant they could control him as a puppet leader and supported Vlad III’s return to Wallachia, but, incredibly, Radu declined to join his brother in the quest for revenge, deciding to stay behind with the Ottoman Empire. Vlad III was beside himself with outrage. The two may have entered captivity as brothers, but they left as bitter rivals.

The boys had become young men when devastating news hit that would shatter their brotherly bonds for good. The struggle for power in Wallachia had proved too much for the father who sent them away, who now lay assassinated along with their older brother, Mircea. Vlad III demanded revenge on those who had taken the lives of his father and brother. The Turks foolishly believed his time in captivity meant they could control him as a puppet leader and supported Vlad III’s return to Wallachia, but, incredibly, Radu declined to join his brother in the quest for revenge, deciding to stay behind with the Ottoman Empire. Vlad III was beside himself with outrage. The two may have entered captivity as brothers, but they left as bitter rivals.

When Vlad escaped to Moldavia, he put the shoes on his horse backwards to confuse anyone who tried to follow him.

Outside Romania Vlad III is most known for inspiring Bram Stoker’s Dracula, but how did this folk hero acquire his bloodthirsty reputation?

In a 2011 documentary, Prince Charles claimed that genealogy shows he is descended from Vlad the Impaler.

Written by Ryan King
A 1449 German woodcutting of the infamous scene where Vlad took supper surrounded by impaled corpses.

Birth of propaganda
The first mechanical printing technology was created in Germany by Johannes Gutenberg around 1450. As it became widespread, Germans started to print pamphlets of Vlad – the most famous example showing the leader eating dinner while surrounded by impaled bodies (as pictured below).

Superstition era
The 15th century was an extremely superstitious time in Romania, with burning of those accused of being witches or warlocks. Witch-hunting texts began to circulate such as Malleus Maleficarum (The Hammer Of The Witches) in 1486, which described how to torture those suspected of witchcraft.

The Black Death aftermath
The first wave of the bubonic plague, commonly known as the Black Death, swept through Europe in 1347 and there would be six more waves before 1400. As a result the 15th century began with Europe's population cut in half by the Black Death, as the long road to recovery – both socially and economically – got underway.

War had changed
While gunpowder had become common after 1300, it wasn't until the early-1400s that the number and calibre of guns rose dramatically – to the point where these new weapons would be a regular sight on the battlefield. As the price of gunpowder fell in the late-14th century, the use of cannons increased too.

Europe starts to explore the world
Europe's trade tours with the East meant there were plenty of middlemen who took their cut on the way, and the routes themselves were hostile and dangerous. It wasn't until the Ottoman Empire began taking bigger cuts that Europe was finally spurred on to start voyages and exploration quests – mostly to find another way to reach the Far East.
“Vlad wanted his people to be independent and free of the shackles that bound them to the noblemen”

army had driven him out. However this wasn’t the same naïve leader who had previously taken charge. Hardened by a fierce rivalry with his brother and the bitter failure of his first reign far from forgotten, Vlad III was now a man ready to lead his people. Wallachia demanded a strong leader too. The state had fallen into ruin while he was away, torn apart by years of war as trade ground to a halt, crime ran rampant and leading noblemen squabbled with each other for power. Extreme measures were called for to restore the proud state of Wallachia to its former glory.

Independence was the key. Spurred on by his own memories of being locked up in Turkish dungeons, Vlad III wanted his people to be independent and proud, free of the shackles and chains that bound them to the noblemen who poisoned Wallachia with extortion and corruption. He built a number of new villages for the peasants and recruited among their ranks positions in the council, while limiting foreign merchant trade so the economy of Wallachia could thrive once more. But the noblemen would not escape that easily - particularly as Vlad III considered their class to be guilty of assassinating his father. He doled out extreme punishment for those who dared break the law and, just like the beggars and thieves who suffered death by burning, mutilation or any other inhumane methods, any noblemen who committed crimes received exactly the same fate. It was a strange, cruel and twisted view on equality that crushed any thoughts of rebellion against his leadership, particularly in high society.

It was his infamous torture methods that ultimately defined his reign. Vlad III had a thirst for impaling those who had wronged him, slowly inserting the wooden spikes into his victims so they wouldn’t die from shock, then watching with amusement as they twitched. As the printing press became widespread around Europe and tales about the leader began to spread, one particular image from a German printing block stood out - Vlad calmly eating his dinner surrounded by a forest of impaled victims. Even the Turks, who had once held Vlad captive, were fearful of the monster he had become and now referred to him as Kaziklu Bey - ‘The Impaler Prince’. In Wallachia, he was known simply as Vlad the Impaler.

However despite Vlad the Impaler’s reign of terror, the hatred of his brother Radu that would never fade ultimately caused his downfall.

Eventually the Ottoman Empire became restless with the growing reputation of Vlad - and particularly with his successful campaigns along the Danube River, which saw the slaughter of many Turks. The Sultan decided that it was time to punish the fearless

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**Timeline**

- **Vlad is born**
  Vlad III is born in Sighişoara, Transylvania. His father is Vlad II, however his mother remains a mystery because of the high number of mistresses Vlad II had.
  Circa 1431

- **Vlad’s first reign**
  The Sultan releases Vlad III to install him as the puppet leader of Wallachia following the power void when Vlad II is assassinated.
  1448

- **Vlad’s short-lived first rule ends**
  Hungarian military leader John Hunyadi leads his army on a successful campaign to invade Wallachia and oust the Turks. Vlad III is forced to flee to Moldavia.
  1448

- **Joining the former enemy**
  A desperate Vlad is forced into action when his guardian in Moldavia, Bogdan II, is assassinated. He meets with John Hunyadi and is pardoned. Vlad is then put forward as the Hungarian candidate to lead Wallachia.
  1451

- **The Easter Massacre**
  Vlad the Impaler’s reign of terror sees him killing thousands of noblemen and merchants by impalement.
  1459

- **Defining moment**
  **Vlad is held captive 1442**
  A young Vlad III and his younger brother Radu are sent to Adrianople by their father, hoping to keep Wallachia safe. It doesn’t work. Just one year later Hungary launches the Varna Campaign against the Ottoman Empire and demands Vlad II join their side. Vlad II sends their brother Mircea to support the Hungarian cause, not wanting to get directly involved in case the Sultan holding his sons captive would take their lives in retaliation. The Hungarians suffer a crushing defeat

- **Defining moment**
  **Vlad’s reign of terror 1456**
  After Vlad III becomes the Hungarian candidate for leadership, two campaigns are executed simultaneously - Vlad III invades Wallachia while Hungary invades Serbia to oust the Turks. Both campaigns are successful, as Wallachia leader Vladislav II is killed by Vlad III in hand-to-hand combat. Vlad III takes the throne for the second time and it is during these years that his reign of terror truly begins. At this point he becomes better known as Vlad Tepes (Vlad the Impaler).
leader and he marched with a huge army, greatly outnumbering Wallachia’s forces.

Vlad was forced to retreat to the capital of Targoviste, setting fire to his own villages and poisoning wells along the way to slow the Turkish army’s advance. But the most gruesome sight was saved for when the Sultan arrived at the capital, as he was greeted with a field of impaled Turks, stretching as far as the eye could see. This take on psychological warfare worked.

Enter Radu. The Sultan knew he had failed and so he turned to Vlad’s brother to continue the charge and pick up where the Ottoman Empire had left off. Radu accepted the task with relish. Although Vlad had a terrifying reputation, Radu knew his brother well and didn’t fear him as others did. He also had something that would prove far more important in battle: money. With the financial backing of the Ottoman Empire, Radu pounded the Turks impaled on a field of spikes, stretching as far as the Eye could see. This take on psychological warfare worked.

Vlad’s final reign

Vlad III was held captive for in Hungary, it is known that he was imprisoned in Visegrád Castle for almost 12 years. Conditions would eventually favour Vlad’s release – Radu’s policies as leader openly favoured the Ottoman Empire while Stefan cel Mare of Moldavia petitioned for Vlad to be released. Finally, Vlad renounces his Orthodox religion and converts to Catholicism. He takes Countess Iona Szilágyi - Corvinus’s own cousin - as his wife and the king of Hungary agrees to release Vlad from prison.

Defining moment

Vlad escapes captivity 1474

While it’s not known exactly how long Vlad the Impaler was held captive in Hungary, it is known that he was imprisoned in Visegrád Castle for almost 12 years. Conditions would eventually favour Vlad’s release - Radu’s policies as leader openly favoured the Ottoman Empire while Stefan cel Mare of Moldavia petitioned for Vlad to be released. Finally, Vlad renounces his Orthodox religion and converts to Catholicism.

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Back behind bars

With the battle draining his resources, Vlad becomes desperate. He turns to the king of Hungary, Matthias Corvinus, for help. Instead he is arrested for treason, as Corvinus wants to avoid war. Vlad no longer had the burning hatred necessary to motivate him – he was killed in battle just a few months later.

Some argue Vlad the Impaler was an inhumane monster who tortured for his own pleasure. Others argue he was a fierce defender of his homeland, using extreme measures to cut through the corruption and lawlessness rife in the Middle Ages. But however you see him, there’s no denying that Vlad the Impaler is bigger than the state he ruled and has left an indelible mark on history.

Vlad to vampire

Bram Stoker’s world-famous novel Dracula from 1897 is often credited as being inspired by Vlad the Impaler, which is little wonder as the notorious antagonist of the Irish author’s novel shares much in common with the historical figure. There was the birthplace of Transylvania, the bloodthirsty tendencies and, crucially, the name: Vlad Dracula. However, it’s not entirely accurate to say that Stoker’s vampire was actually based on Vlad.

Vlad the Impaler never drank blood, showed no aversion to sunlight or any other of the other mythological traits associated with Dracula or, by extension, vampires. Bram Stoker’s novel was inspired partially by Sheridan le Fanu’s Carmilla from 1872 and partially by notorious Hungarian countess Elizabeth Bathory, said to have killed up to 700 women and bathed in their blood in the 16th and 17th centuries. Dracula’s mannerisms were inspired by Sir Henry Irving, the actor-manager at the theatre where Stoker worked.

So why Transylvania? Why Dracula? The vampire connection with Transylvania had already been established prior to Stoker’s novel, the most well-known example being the blood-drinking vampires in Jules Vernes’ The Castle Of The Carpathians (1892). As for the name Dracula, Bram Stoker stumbled upon it in a book he consulted for research purposes – Count Wampyr was the original name.
What was it like?

EDO 1868

Today we know it as the metropolis Tokyo, but the decline of Edo marks the end of the feudal shogun tradition and the beginnings of modern-day Japan.

Home to well over a million people in the mid-19th century, Edo (now Tokyo) was the capital of the Tokugawa shogunate – a dynastic military government that ruled Japan for over 250 years. During this time, known as the Edo period, Japan went through a relatively peaceful and isolated existence, for the most part cut off from the increasing Western presence in the region.

However, by the middle of the 19th century this policy of isolation – sakoku – was lifted and trade in Western technology, industry and commerce greatly accelerated. After a string of unfavourable dealings between the shogunate, or bakufu, and foreign powers, support grew for the restoration of the imperial Meiji emperor, who was the spiritual if not actual ruler of the country at the time.

Edo was surrendered to the imperial forces in May 1868, during the Boshin War between Shogun Tokugawa Yoshinobu and those loyal to the young Emperor Meiji. Four months later the city was renamed Tokyo – which translates as ‘eastern capital’ – and its castle was adopted as the emperor’s imperial palace.

While this saw the end of the Edo period and the ruling samurai class, it also signified a break from feudal tradition and the building of modern Japan. Today Tokyo remains the largest and among the most prosperous cities in the world.

Religion
Shinto and Buddhist practices were jointly observed by all classes in Japanese society, mainly taking the form of praying at shrines and celebrating pastoral festivals. Though temples were maintained by the city authorities, there was no organised religion, or shukyo, until after 1868, when Emperor Meiji formed State Shinto and appointed himself as its spiritual head.

Industry
Recently adopted iron-smelting techniques using Western-style furnaces resulted in an increased production of guns, cannons and warships. However, after new spinning machines were imported from abroad, cotton and silk weaving also rocketed.

Emperor Meiji reigned from 1867
Finance
Taxes were commonly paid to local lords in rice, which could then be resold for a profit. Money existed in the form of gold and copper coins, which had standardised values, as well as silver that was measured by weight.

Technology
Western methods for smelting iron ore, producing glass, brewing alcohol, refining sugar, etc., were gradually taken up by the bakufu in the 19th century, though progress was hampered by the isolationist policy. Using translated Dutch books and foreign experts, the use of electricity was also spreading.

Government
Edo’s daily running was handled by a network of offices, the foremost of which were two magistrate offices, which judged criminals and collected taxes. These offices were supported by samurai-class administrators. The bakufu also employed ometeke (inspectors) to monitor the daimyo (regional lords).

Art
The Rinpa painting school was established in Edo by Sakai Hoitsu and followed the yamato-e tradition of depicting famous places and stories from literature. This was later incorporated with the popular ukiyo-e woodprints, illustrating nature and the seasons.

Military
Each regional daimyo lord commanded his own bushidan (band) of loyal samurai, who carried katanas. Small numbers of lower-class samurai were tasked with keeping Edo’s streets safe, but groups of self-appointed kyokaku (street knights), made up largely of ordinary citizens, also often emerged to deter criminals.

Education
Samurai children studied Neo-Confucian writings, received military training, and were taught to read and write Chinese as well as Japanese. Later the bakufu even established language schools where Dutch and English were taught. Edo’s children were mostly literate.

A Japanese samurai followed by his servant – note the contrast in their clothing as dictated by their status.

Japanese gunboat Chiyodagata, 1868
What if the Bolsheviks hadn’t come to power in Russia?
The Bolshevik uprising was a coup d'état, a power seizure. The masses were not involved in any way and, in fact, the general public did not know that anything was happening. If you read the newspapers from that time you find that the theatres were operating, there were concerts, and nobody knew what was happening. It was [just] a real power seizure. So I think if the Bolsheviks had not seized power in November 1917, the most likely scenario is that the military - the officers - would have overthrown the Provisional Government and probably established some type of military dictatorship for a while and eventually reinstated Tsar Nicholas II to the throne. I think that's probably the most likely scenario.

Could the Bolshevik uprising have been stopped?
Well, I think if the Provisional Government that [the Bolsheviks] toppled had been more effective then, yes, it could have been. But the trouble was that the prime minister [Alexander Kerensky] was a weak leader and he didn’t know how to cope with the Bolsheviks. So it’s possible that if there had been a stronger leader then the Bolsheviks would have been stopped. But the leadership was weak and Russia had no experience in governing because they had so many years under an autocracy that they didn’t develop an effective [government]. Kerensky, whom incidentally I knew personally, didn’t know how to stand up to Lenin.

Was there ever a turning point when the course of events could have gone either way?
The Provisional Government could have rallied the army [to stop the uprising]. In August 1917 there was a general [Lavr Kornilov] - a very effective and popular man - who tried to save the Provisional Government [by rallying the army].

But Kerensky disarmed the army [in fear of a coup from Kornilov] and armed the Bolsheviks [to defeat the army], so when the uprising began in November Kerensky had no one to help him. He really mismanaged the whole thing very badly. There were military people who realised the danger of Bolshevism and tried to stop it, and they wanted to help the Provisional Government, but [Kerensky] rejected their help and disarmed them. Kornilov sent troops to Petrograd, which was then the capital, and they were disarmed. And the Provisional Government armed his own opponents. So when November came the army just stood by and didn’t help.

Would Russia still have become a communist nation without the Bolshevik uprising?
Oh no, certainly not. The only support that the Bolsheviks had for communism at that time was that they wanted peace [from World War I]. The nation was quite tired of a war that wasn’t getting anywhere, and the Bolsheviks were the only party that advocated peace. And that’s what got them some support – not the communist [ideology]. Communism was never an [important] issue [for the Russian people].

What do you think Russia would have been like without communism?
Russia probably would have developed into what it is today - a kind of semi-autocratic and semi-democratic government. According to public opinion polls, Russians do not like democracy. They identify democracy with crime, anarchy and so on. And they like a strong hand - a strong ruler. So probably what you would have had is an autocratic regime with some civil rights and very likely private enterprise. They probably would have reinstated the monarchy in this semi-autocratic and semi-democratic regime. I think you would have had a parliament as you had before the war, before the revolution, which would have had limited powers although they would have had to approve the legislation, but the monarchy would have been very strong.

How would Russia’s relationship with the West have differed without communism?
I think [relations] would have been comparably better than
What if… Communism Had Failed?

With the Bolshevik Revolution, Russia began its transformation from imperial autocracy to a communist state: the Soviet Union.

“The military would have eventually reinstated Tsar Nicholas II to the throne.”
they were under the communists. The Russian monarchy was on the whole friendly to the West, and learned a lot from it. It was not anti-Western [indeed, Tsar Nicholas II and King George V were cousins]. The anti-Western strategy and tactics were brought in by the communists because they wanted to communalise the whole world, including the West.

Without a communist Russia would other nations like China still have followed suit?
I don’t think so, no. Russia provided a model and also provided support — so, for example, China wouldn’t have become communist if Russia was not communist. Communism was essentially imported from Russia and I don’t see that anywhere had anything like a [notable] communist party [before Russian influence].

“THERE WOULD HAVE BEEN NO CIVIL WAR AND I THINK IF THERE WAS NO COMMUNISM THERE PROBABLY WOULD HAVE BEEN NO WORLD WAR II EITHER”

Was communism important for Russia? Did it help the country develop in any way?
It was a disaster in every respect. Tens of millions of people perished. It’s true that they built up their industries, but the bulk of their industries were directed towards the military. And, as you can see today, after all these years of communism, Russia cannot export anything abroad except primary materials. You don’t see any Russian consumer goods, all the consumer goods that we import here come from China, not from Russia. [Before the Bolshevik uprising] Russia was developing very rapidly towards an industrial country. In the 1890s Russia had an industrial role and was leading in the world, and I think Russia would have become an industrial country without the communists. The communists industrialised but just in a military way. Under the communists roughly 25 per cent of the gross domestic product (GDP) went on military expenditure.

Would Russia still have had a civil war in 1918, and would they have entered World War II?
There would have been no civil war, certainly, and I think if there was no communism there probably would have been no World War II either, because this [conflict] broke out only because communists in Germany helped Hitler come to power, and in August 1939 Russia gave him carte blanche to launch a war against Poland, France and England. I can’t guarantee [there would have been no war], but, you know, the Russians certainly helped Hitler come to power. If the communists [in Germany] in 1933 had aligned themselves with the social democrats they would have won the elections [rather than Hitler’s Nazi party]. But Stalin ordered the communists in Germany not to collaborate with the social democrats, so they divided the opposition and Hitler won.

Without communism would Russia not have had figures like Stalin and Lenin?
There would have been no such dictatorship [and so no such dictators]. Russia before the revolution was a semi-constitutional country, but there were no dictatorships. The laws were obeyed and parliament had a right to veto legislation, but there’s no comparison between what happened before the revolution and what happened after.
If Russia hadn’t been losing to Germany in WWI, would the Bolsheviks still have seized power?
The Bolsheviks were [able to take power] not because people wanted communism but because they wanted an end to [WWI], and if [Russia] had won the war I think the communists would have had no chance. They brought in communism on an anti-war platform. Lenin was very careful not to propagate communism when he first came to power, he was just talking about peace, and when he made peace with the Germans a few months after seizing power it was very popular. But, you know, in the elections to the constituent assembly that were held in November 1917 when the Bolsheviks were already in power, the Bolsheviks only got one-quarter of the vote. They did not have widespread support around the country, and to the extent that they had support it was on the platform of peace, not of communism. The majority [of the public] were for socialism - for regular democratic socialist parties that were not [in favour of] dictatorship and abolition of private property and so on [like the Bolsheviks were]. The [socialists] had the majority in the constituency general elections.

So would you say that communism was forced upon Russia and the rest of the world?
Lenin had a very clear goal, but he knew that he couldn’t establish a communist Russia without spreading communism worldwide, so his idea was to spread communism first through Europe and then the rest of the world, and he knew that communism in Russia alone could not work. Mao Zedong in China emulated both Lenin and Stalin, then [communism started] in North Korea, Cuba and so on, but it never became a worldwide phenomenon.

Would the Cold War with America still have broken out in the latter half of the 20th century?
No, there would have been no Cold War. The Cold War was the result of the desire of the communists to spread communism worldwide - and particularly to defeat the US as their main rival. I mean, before the Bolshevik Revolution relations between Russia and America were quite friendly. I think without the revolution relations would have been as good as they had been at least from the 18th century.

So overall, would Russia back then have been a better country without communism in your opinion?
I think that Russia was developing reasonably well before World War I. It had its problems – [for example] there were too many peasants and not enough land, but these problems could have been solved. When the Bolshevik party came to power they generally exacerbated all these problems rather than solving any of them.

And would Russia have been better off today if the Bolshevik uprising hadn’t happened?
Oh, it would have been much better off in my view - the mentality of the people would have been different. I think that Russians today are very confused about where they belong. They don’t feel they belong to the West, but they don’t belong to the East [either], so they’re isolated.

Without that Bolshevik Revolution telling them for 70 years that they are a unique people and that they are the future I think they would have been much more able to accommodate themselves to the world at large.

Have your say
Do you agree with our expert’s view?

Real timeline

Alternate timeline
Tour Guide

Notre Dame Cathedral

Paris has seen a lot of turmoil over the centuries, but Notre Dame has remained a constant sanctuary.

01 Napoleon crowned emperor
On 2 November 1804, the French general cemented his dictatorship over the country by declaring himself emperor. Having summoned Pope Pius VII to the capital and quickly gotten the requisite church wedding to his wife Josephine out of the way, he defied convention by neither kneeling for a blessing nor kissing the pope’s hand. Moreover, when the time came for him to kneel and be crowned on 2 December – admitting that his authority came from God – he instead seized it with his own hands, crowning himself in front of the altar.

02 Joan of Arc beatified
The cathedral survived the turmoil of the Hundred Years’ War, which played out between 1337 and 1453, and saw the rise and execution of Joan of Arc. Notre Dame was the site of a retrial demanded by her supporters in 1455, in which she was declared innocent. Since then, the cathedral has borne witness to further events aimed at preserving the memory of this legendary figure, ultimately leading to her beatification (being made a saint) in 1909, with a statue later being installed in her honour.

03 THE MARRIAGE OF HENRY IV
The wedding between Henry of Navarre and Margaret of Valois took place outside the cathedral on 18 August 1572, as Henry IV was a Protestant. Many Protestants who had come to Paris for the wedding were caught up in the St Bartholomew’s Day Massacre six days later, in which thousands were killed.

04 The organist who died at the organ
One of the most renowned Notre Dame organists was composer Louis Vierne, who saw off competition from around 500 others to become the principal organist in 1900. He served with distinction in this post for many years, ultimately dying at the organ itself in 1937.

3,000 people saw Vierne play his last performance.
The construction of the cathedral

Notre Dame Cathedral was built under the auspices of Bishop Maurice de Sully, with construction beginning in 1163 during the reign of Louis VII, with the choir being completed around 1177. Work on the western façade was completed in 1225, and the western towers by 1250, with building work on the cathedral itself finally drawing to a close around 1345.

A number of modifications were implemented in the 17th and 18th centuries, with the sanctuary and choir areas being refurbished, as well as the original stained-glass windows being replaced. The cathedral was to see tough times during the French Revolution, with the majority of the statues in the Gallery of Kings being desecrated. Later in 1844, King Louis-Philippe ordered its restoration, with architects Eugène Viollet-le-Duc and Jean-Baptiste Lassus being put in charge of the operation, which included the reconstruction of the spire and statues, in addition to a major cleanup. More recent enhancements have included restoration work on the great organ in the early-Nineties.

08 WHERE THE HUNCHBACK LIVED

The 1831 novel by Victor Hugo – arguably better known today for the 1996 Disney animated film – tells the tragic story of the deformed Quasimodo, confined to the historic tower where he works as a bell ringer.

05 WINDOWS THAT SURVIVED WWII

The stained-glass windows of the cathedral were removed during World War II out of fear that they would be destroyed in bombing raids. Notre Dame emerged relatively unscathed from the war, and would be the site of the Te Deum celebration ceremony, attended by the returning leader Charles de Gaulle.

06 Last respects paid to President Roosevelt

French wartime leader, Charles de Gaulle, and other dignitaries pay their respects to US president Franklin Roosevelt who died on 12 April 1945. De Gaulle’s own Requiem Mass – also known as the Mass for the Dead – would take place here on 12 November 1970, three days after his death.
Eye Witness
THE FIRST ATOMIC BOMB
Theodore Van Kirk, known to everyone as ‘Dutch’, was having trouble sleeping. It was a common affliction among soldiers before a mission, but then again Dutch and his fellow 11 crewmates stationed on the tiny Pacific island of Tinian had more reason than most to be suffering from insomnia that night. The date was 5 August 1945 and tomorrow morning they were to drop the first-ever atomic bomb on Hiroshima.

To pass the time, some of the crew – including navigator Dutch, bombardier, Tom Ferebee, and pilot, Paul Tibbets, played poker. It was quite prophetic considering that in a matter of hours they would be gambling again – but this time with much higher stakes.

Sure, the USA had successfully detonated the first nuclear device the previous month during the Trinity test in New Mexico, and Dutch, like all the crew, had several months’ intensive training at Wendover Airbase in Utah under his belt. Nevertheless the fact remained that what they were about to do had never before been attempted in warfare. Indeed, Dutch recalls, “One of the atomic scientists told us we think you’ll be okay if the plane is [14.5 kilometres] nine miles away when the bomb detonates.” When challenged on his use of the word think, he levelled with them: “We just don’t know.”

Dutch had been hand-picked to join the 509th Composite Group – the unit tasked with deploying nuclear weapons – by his former commander: “I flew with Paul Tibbets all the time in England. We flew General Dwight Eisenhower [later to become US president] from Hurn [on the south coast of Britain] down to Gibraltar, for example, to command the north African invasion. Then we were all separated and doing various things - I was at a navigation school, for example, teaching other navigators. Tibbets was picked to take command of the 509th group and that’s when he looked up some of the people he’d worked with in the 97th [Bombardment Group].”

The history books often paint a picture that the US government and other Allied powers were hand-wringing right up until the final hour over the decision to use the A-bomb. However, although Japan was presented with an ultimatum to surrender on 26 July – which they rejected two days later - Dutch personally felt it was always a foregone conclusion: ‘I knew that I was going to drop the atomic bomb from February of that year [1945]. It didn’t come as a surprise. We were posted to the US airbase at Tinian for about a month prior to dropping the bomb, just keeping in shape.’

Around 10pm, the crew were called from the barracks to have an early breakfast before one last briefing and final checks of the Enola Gay. Dutch remembers they had pineapple fritters because he hated them, but Paul Tibbets loved them. While he might not have seen eye to eye with his commander when it came to breakfast, he has only praise for the man that piloted the specially modified B-29 to Hiroshima - and back again.

“He was an outstanding pilot. His skill saved all of the crew’s lives a number of times in Europe and Africa. When he got in an aeroplane, he [became] part of it.”

I didn’t feel too good about dropping the bomb - but I didn’t feel too bad about dropping it either. It could have been us...”
Countdown to destruction

16 July 1945

- 5.29am
  First detonation
  US scientists successfully detonate the first nuclear device at the Trinity test site

- 6.00am
  Japanese government rejects surrender terms put forward in the Potsdam Declaration

- 2pm
  Calm before storm
  Having been told they have the go-ahead to drop the atomic bomb, Van Kirk and the rest of the crew try to get some sleep

- 3pm
  The Little Boy bomb is loaded onto the Enola Gay

- 5.00am
  Struggling to sleep, Van Kirk, Ferebee, Tibbets and others play poker

- 5.52am
  The crew gets up to prepare for the flight to Hiroshima and eat breakfast

- 6.00am
  Van Kirk and the crew make their way to the Enola Gay, after a final briefing

- 6.52am
  Weather report
  The three weather planes leave North Field Airbase on Tinian to confirm conditions are favourable

- 7.00am
  The Enola Gay takes off, followed by three other B-29s taking part in Special Mission #13

- 7.30am
  The Little Boy bomb is armed
  The planes fly over Iwo Jima Island, where the Enola Gay’s backup, Top Secret, lands. The Little Boy bomb is armed

- 8.30am
  With the all-clear from the weather planes, the Enola Gay, The Great Artiste and #91 head for Hiroshima

- 8.45am
  Pilot, Paul Tibbets, hands over control to the bombardier, Tom Ferebee, to make the bomb run

- 9.00am
  Payload dropped
  Little Boy is released and it detonates 43 seconds after...about 600m (1,900ft) above the city of Hiroshima. The Enola Gay experiences a shockwave moments later

- 3pm
  Mission complete
  The Enola Gay touches down on Tinian, its mission successfully completed.
  Paul Tibbets receives the Distinguished Service Cross

When you flew with Paul Tibbets you didn’t have to have your shoes polished or your pants pressed – and all that sort of stuff – but when you got in the plane, you better damn well know what you were doing!

It’s hard to imagine what the mood on the Enola Gay must have been like as it took off at 2.45am, but from Dutch’s perspective this mission was the same as any other. “We were going a long distance over water, using Iwo Jima as a checkpoint on the way. Now if you got lost between Iwo Jima and Japan, you really were a sorry navigator! Everybody on board was doing his own thing. Ferebee took a nap, for example, (while) our radio operator, as I recall, was reading a whodunnit about some boxer. Everybody was making sure they did what they were there to do, and that they did it right.”

While the Enola Gay and Bockscar (the plane that dropped the Nagasaki A-bomb) are the two that have gone down in history, Dutch is keen to point out that the operation was a lot wider than that: indeed, seven aircraft were involved in Special Bombing Mission #13 to Hiroshima on 6 August. Three were observational planes that flew ahead to ensure conditions were right, Top Secret was a backup to the Enola Gay, which landed on Iwo Jima, while the other two aircraft - The Great Artiste and Plane #91 (later named Necessary Evil) - accompanied the Enola Gay for the full operation.

“The Great Artiste had instruments that were to be dropped at the same time as we dropped the bomb. If you were to ask me the name of them, I couldn’t tell you; I just always called them ‘blast meters’ because that’s what they were measuring. The other aircraft [Plane #91] was flying about [32 kilometres] 20 miles behind with a large camera to get pictures of the explosion. Unfortunately on the day the camera didn’t work. So the best pictures we got were from the handheld camera of the navigator on that plane.”

The three aircraft arrived at Hiroshima without incident around 8am. The city had been chalked as the primary target for several reasons. There were a great number of military facilities and troops there, as well as a busy port with factories supplying a lot of the materials that would be used to defend Japan in the event of an invasion. Beyond these factors, Hiroshima had never been previously targeted by Allied forces, so any damage recorded later could solely be attributed to the nuclear bomb. Tragically for the citizens of Hiroshima, it also meant the Japanese authorities had very little reason to suspect an attack there - even when the tiny squadron of three B-29s was no doubt spotted approaching.

On the actual bomb run, Tibbets relinquished control of the Enola Gay to bombardier and close friend of Dutch’s, Major Tom Ferebee. As the Little Boy bomb (which actually was not so little, weighing in at 4,400 kilograms/9,700 pounds) was released, the plane experienced an upward surge, but Tibbets managed to stabilise the B-29 and bring a hasty retreat.

“We made the 150-degree turn that we’d practised many times and pushed down the throttle to get away. All people were doing was holding on to something [in preparation for] the turbulence that was sure to follow. A loose person or a loose anything in the plane was going to go flying, so we all made sure we were in position and wearing our goggles." They were about 14.5 kilometres (nine miles) away when the bomb exploded, 43 seconds after it had been released. “We couldn’t hear a thing over the engines, but we saw a bright flash and it was shortly after that we got the first shockwave.”

“When we turned to look back, all we could see of Hiroshima was black smoke and dust. The mushroom cloud was well above us at about [12,190 metres] 40,000 feet and still rising. You could still see that cloud [480 kilometres] 300 miles away.” What the crew of the Enola Gay couldn’t have known at that point was just how destructive the atomic bomb had been. Underneath all that smoke and dust nearly 70 per cent of the city’s buildings had been laid to waste and 80,000 people...
were dead – and that figure was set to rise with the much-underestimated effects of radiation.

Unlike The Great Artiste with its faulty camera, as far as Dutch was concerned on board the Enola Gay “everything had gone exactly according to plan. The weather was perfect. I could probably see Hiroshima from [120 kilometres] 75 miles away. My navigation only off by six seconds,” he says with pride. “Tom put the bomb exactly where he expected. We got a lot of turbulence, but the plane did not break up, which it could have done, and we got home. Now, as for the second mission to Nagasaki, everything went wrong. They had a lot of luck on that mission…”

Indeed, three days later on 9 August, a different bombing crew on Bockscar almost didn’t make it to Nagasaki due to a combination of bad weather and logistical errors. However, they managed to salvage the mission, the result of their success, or ‘luck’ as Dutch describes it, was the instant obliteration of another city and at least 40,000 of its inhabitants. Less than a week later Emperor Hirohito made a radio announcement to his subjects, declaring Japan’s surrender due to “a new and most cruel bomb, the power of which is incalculable, taking the toll of many innocent lives.”

A few weeks after the bombings, Dutch Van Kirk was part of the crew transporting scientists to Nagasaki to measure the devastation of one of these ‘new and most cruel bombs’ first-hand. “Having picked up some scientists in Tokyo from the Japanese atomic programme – they were also working on atomic bombs, you see – we flew down to Nagasaki; we couldn’t land at Hiroshima at that time. We landed on a dirt field and the Japanese commander of the base came out, looking for someone to surrender to. We were given old cars – 1927 Chevrolet models, or similar – to drive to the city centre, but they all broke down three times before getting into Nagasaki.

“There wasn’t really anything that shocked us, though there is one thing [that has stayed with me]. The Japanese military was being broken up at the time and one of the soldiers arrived on the bus looking for his home – but it had been destroyed. I remember looking at Tom Ferebee, and saying, ‘You know, Tom, that could have been us if the war had gone the opposite way’. I didn’t feel too good about dropping the bomb – but I didn’t feel too bad about dropping it either. This was one man among many that were saved by dropping the bomb” – because it had precluded a full-scale invasion of Japan. “It was very important we saw that, and we both recognised how lucky we were.”

Along with all the other Enola Gay crew, who have since passed away, Dutch Van Kirk has no regrets about dropping the atomic bomb, seeing it as the lesser of two evils. Asked whether he believes the result would have been the same – ie World War II would have been forced to end – if things ‘had gone the opposite way’ and Japan had dropped an atomic bomb on America first, there’s a long pause, before Dutch responds, “No, I don’t think so. I think we would have been more resilient.”

But underneath the assured bravado of his reply, there’s no getting around how long he had hesitated before he answered – or the fact that, like that atomic scientist who couldn’t offer any certainties on Tinian back in 1945, he had used the word think.

Gaining his altitude, Dutch watched the Fat Man atomic bomb depart Tinian to drop on Kokura, but due to overcast conditions they reverted to their secondary target of Nagasaki.

If you’d like to read more about Dutch Van Kirk and his missions, My True Course: Northumberland To Hiroshima (by Suzanne Dietz) is available from www.amazon.com

Origins and aftermath

The US started developing the nuclear bomb following a warning from Albert Einstein and other physicists in 1939 that the Germans were close to constructing their own. Project Manhattan got underway in 1941 and by July 1945 had successfully detonated the first-ever nuclear device in the Trinity test. By this point Germany had already surrendered so the Allied forces’ sights were now trained solely on the last remaining Axis power: Japan. Having refused an ultimatum to surrender in the Potsdam Declaration, the Allies felt they were left with two options: a full-scale invasion or the use of nuclear bombs. They opted for the latter. It remains one of the most controversial military decisions ever taken, yet many argue that invading Japan would have claimed many more lives in the long term.
Henry VIII
the warlord

In pursuing dreams of victory in France, Henry threw England into decades of war and the chaos of a Europe in conflict

Written by Jonathan Hatfull

Henry VIII was born dreaming of war. When he took the throne in April 1509, with his bride Catherine of Aragon at his side, Henry knew exactly what kind of king he wanted to be. His would be a glorious reign that would restore England to the magnificence it deserved. His father, Henry VII, had become unpopular by levying punishing taxes to restore the country’s finances, but the new king had no intention of focusing on matters as petty as the treasury. He would be a conqueror.

By the end of his life, Henry was a bloated and frustrated mockery of the athletic youth that he had once been. He had grown up jousting, riding and hunting, and would often participate in chivalry tournaments in disguise. He had grown up hearing the stories of the great Henry V – the hero of Agincourt – and had dreamed of the battles that years of peace had deprived him of. He was determined that he would repeat his ancestor’s triumphs in France and expand England’s territory beyond Calais – perhaps even as far as Paris. He wholly believed that France belonged to him and, fortunately for the English monarch, he did not have to wait long to stake his claim.

Henry had grown up in years of stultifying peace thanks to his father’s treaties with France and Aragon in Spain. Meanwhile, just across the Channel, the continent was in the throes of war. The powers of Europe clashed over the possession of Naples, essentially turning Italy into one big battleground. A quarrel over the region of Romagna had set Venice against the Vatican, and so Pope Julius II rallied France, the Holy Roman Empire and Spain (under Ferdinand II) in the final weeks of 1508, planning to split the Venetian territories among them.

Venice fell, but Julius feared French occupation of Italy. He mounted an impulsive attack on his allies which backfired as French forces stormed south in retaliation. A terrified Julius formed the Holy League, and Spain and the Holy Roman Empire sided with the papacy in 1511.

Henry VIII had now been on the throne for two years with his queen Catherine of Aragon (Ferdinand’s daughter) at his side. A strong royal family was vital to his dream of a glorious England and he announced that he would marry her shortly after his father died.

Catherine was fiercely loyal and determined to meet her king’s expectations. She became pregnant almost immediately but their child was stillborn. It was a matter of weeks until Catherine was with child again, and she gave birth to a
Henry VIII the warlord

As king, Henry spent lavishly, courted conflict and pursued his own leisurely interests. His most enduring legacy is that, to annul his marriage to Catherine of Aragon, Henry separated England from the Catholic church. However, he is still better known for his six wives and how he rid himself of five.

HENRY VIII
English, 1491-1547

Brief Bio

As king, Henry spent lavishly, courted conflict and pursued his own leisurely interests. His most enduring legacy is that, to annul his marriage to Catherine of Aragon, Henry separated England from the Catholic church. However, he is still better known for his six wives and how he rid himself of five.
son, Henry, on New Year's Day, 1511. Sadly, Henry would survive for just seven weeks.

At this point, Henry was a young king just beginning his reign. He was the head of a proud royal family and he had shown his subjects that he was not the penny-pinching tyrant that his father was. The Holy League would enable him to serve his God and show France the power of England’s might. The full force of that might would be delivered by Henry’s expanding Royal Navy, which would boast the world’s largest and most advanced warships. It is important not to underestimate the importance of the pope’s blessing. He was still a devout Catholic and would go on to condemn the Protestant Martin Luther so harshly that the pope would give him the title ‘Defender of the Faith’. His religion also included the concept of Divine Right; France was his God-given property. The Holy League should have been undefeatable.

However, the first attack ended in disaster. An English force sailed to Gascony in June 1512, due to meet up with Ferdinand’s army and claim the region of Aquitaine for Henry. Unfortunately, Ferdinand decided that he was more interested in claiming Navarre for himself and directed his troops in that direction. Ill-equipped and ravaged by dysentery, the English troops were forced to retreat. Henry was furious but resolute.

Less than a year later, a second invasion plan was underway, with much of the organisation left in the hands of the invaluable Cardinal Thomas Wolsey. Wolsey was the perfect right-hand man for a king like Henry, able to counterbalance the king’s violent rages with his own skilled diplomacy while sharing a similarly rabid ambition. Wolsey was a fixer; he made sure that whatever Henry wanted, Henry got. What Henry wanted was France, and so, in April 1513, an army was raised and an attack was made on Brest. This incursion proved even more disastrous than the attempt on Aquitaine, but Henry would not be dissuaded and personally accompanied the English landing at Calais in June.

With his feet on French soil and standing at the head of an English army, Henry was exhilarated. He made straight for the town of Thérouanne and promptly laid siege to it. The Holy League leader, Maximilian, joined Henry, and he kept that town as an English stronghold while giving Thérouanne to Maximilian as a gesture of their allegiance.

What had Henry actually achieved? He’d taken two towns from the French, but Paris was a long way away. Nothing he’d done would tip the scales in either direction, but this was just the

Debacle at Gascony

Henry’s only concern prior to the expedition to Gascony was that he couldn’t be there. It was the first attack on France during his reign and it should have been the first step in a glorious campaign. Henry was all too eager to ally himself with his father-in-law, Ferdinand II, who had similar ambitions to claim French territory. Both kings had joined the Holy League, which had been created in response to France’s military activity in Italy. The League had decided that Ferdinand and Henry should attack together and it should have been an impressive display of force.

The Marquis of Dorset was given control of the English forces and the invaders were due to march with Ferdinand on Aquitaine. However, once the Marquis set foot on dry land he discovered that the Spanish king had not kept his word. Instead, Ferdinand was occupied with his own attack on Navarre, which better served the Spanish king’s own interests. The Marquis’s troops quarrelled with the few Spanish forces that they had been given and many of his men succumbed to dysentery. As a result of all this, he had no choice but to retreat.

Although Henry can’t be blamed for the failure of this attack, it shows the Holy League for what it really was. The kings were fighting with the pope’s blessing and the glory of God, but they were all out for themselves. Once the fighting started, each monarch was really only interested in what land they could claim – their allies only functioned as a bank and backup.

Verdict

The forced retreat enraged Henry, pushing him towards leading his own attack, and also sowed the seeds of distrust that would come to the fore throughout his further campaigns.
Victory at Flodden Field 9 September 1513

With the king's attention focused on France, the timing was ripe for an attack from the north. King Louis XII reached out to his ally in Scotland and James IV was very agreeable. He wrote to Henry instructing him to abandon his war on the French - an instruction that Henry roundly ignored. The Scottish troops rallied and marched south to the border, sending word that they intended to invade. Having appealed their sense of honour, they waited for the English troops at Flodden.

Catherine of Aragon was acting as regent while her husband was at war in France. Catherine was a woman who believed fiercely in duty, honour and loyalty, and the prospect of losing a battle in her husband's absence was too awful to even consider.

Together with the Earl of Surrey, Catherine raised an army from the Midlands to meet the Scottish invaders. Surrey met the Scottish army at Flodden Field and subjected them to a crushing defeat. The number of Scottish dead numbered in the thousands, and King James IV himself was among the fatalities.

While Henry's refusal to leave France may have been the final straw that prompted the attack, he had very little to do with the result of the battle - it was the Earl of Surrey who won the day. The Scottish king fell on the battlefield, and his cloak was sent to France as a trophy for Henry. A decisive victory, but not one which can be attributed to any military excellence on Henry's part.

Verdict

While the victory would assure Henry of England's military might, it was the start of a long and costly struggle with the Scots that would distract him from his goals in France.
Henry VIII the warlord

Father of the Royal Navy

Henry might be known as the founder of the Royal Navy but its creation had begun during the reign of Henry VII. Five royal warships had been built by the time Henry VIII took the throne, but the young king wanted more.

In addition to his plans to sail for France, Henry knew that Scotland had invested in their own navy and that he was potentially facing a two-pronged attack by sea. Henry ordered the construction of two great warships: the infamous Mary Rose (which embarrassingly and mysteriously sank while leading the defence against the French at the Solent) and the Peter Pomegranate. Henry's ambition knew no limits and the English Navy would be the biggest, the most advanced and the most fearsome. He equipped his ships with the latest guns and the heaviest cannons, while employing new innovations like hinged gun ports. By the end of Henry’s reign, his fleet numbered 58.

Enormous gunships aside, perhaps the most important innovations Henry made to the navy were on land. He created the first naval dock in Portsmouth, he gave the Grant of the Royal Charter to Trinity House (which developed beacons, buoys and lighthouses), and he created the Navy Board and the Office of Admiralty. Henry is known as the father of the Royal Navy because he didn’t just bulk up its muscle, he created its backbone.

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Even as Henry celebrated his victories in France, trouble at home soon threatened to bring everything to a halt. All too aware of the English forces currently on their soil, the French reached out to King James IV of Scotland and suggested that this might be the perfect opportunity to mount an attack of their own. James marched south to Flodden Ridge with his armies to await the English. While England may have seemed unanswerable. An army was raised and met the Scots on 9 September. The English victory was brutally decisive and King James was killed. The gleeful queen sent the fallen monarch's bloody cloak to her husband in France, with the message: “In this your Grace shall see how I keep my cloak to her husband in France, with the message: “In this your Grace shall see how I keep my promise, sending you for your banners a king's coat.” Henry was conquering his enemies abroad, while his queen was seeing off attackers at home.

Sadly for the warrior king, peace was just around the corner, whether Henry wanted it or not. He had been acting as a war chest to his allies and England’s coffers were so depleted that there was simply no way that he could carry on alone.

He would have to make peace. The next few years presented Henry with a new potential ally, and a new enemy. The ambitious Francis I took the French crown, while the Austrian King Charles V was elected Holy Roman Emperor (adding Spain and a huge portion of Italy to his kingdom). Wolsey, aware of the financial sinkhole that the wars had been, worked hard to keep the peace. He managed to put quills to paper with the Treaty of London in 1518, while friendship would be forged at the Field of the Cloth of Gold on 7 June 1520. The plan was that Henry and Francis would spend a week enjoying the festivities and settling their differences, while Wolsey met with Charles V. It did not go according to plan.

For all Wolsey’s good intentions, this attempt at friendship was doomed from the start. Henry had never wanted peace to start with, and Francis had no intention of bowing down to his English counterpart. Ambitious, stubborn and proud, the two men were too similar for any attempts at friendship to work. After the first meeting was concluded, the two kings engaged in a week of one-upmanship and competition. It was a week dedicated to flaunting power and status: the cloth of gold referred to the ludicrously lavish tents. Henry was determined to prove his athleticism and joined the competitions, but Francis had a similar idea. Henry had to suffer the humiliation of losing to the French king in a wrestling match, and it is hardly surprising that the only result of the meeting was a greater sense of hatred. Instead, Henry turned his diplomatic attentions to Charles V.

Henry’s alliance with the Habsburgs had continued throughout the years of peace, despite one or two hiccups involving marriage arrangements. Crucially, Charles and Henry shared a mutual loathing of Martin Luther and King Francis. His hatred of the French king meant that war was inevitable and Henry eagerly awaited the perfect opportunity to

Inside the Mary Rose

The Mary Rose looked like a traditional warship, with a low middle between high 'castles' on either end, but it was significantly bigger. The design added a further tier of broadside guns, and the hull grew narrower as it went up in what was known as a tumblehome structure.

Royal Navy

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Gun ports
Although no one knows for sure why the Mary Rose sank, it’s believed that water came in through the open gun ports, possibly due to a sudden gust of wind. The great number and weight of the guns on the ship meant that the ports were lower down and it’s possible they were not kept shut.

“Henry’s ambition to conquer France and claim the throne for himself was hamstrung by the fact that he couldn’t afford it”

Henry’s ambition to conquer France and claim the throne for himself was hamstrung by the fact that he couldn’t afford it. He had previously helped to bankroll Ferdinand and Maximilian and he had seen them make peace without him. Henry was scared that Charles might repeat his father’s trick and, for his part, Charles had no particular interest in seeing Henry on the French throne. Their mutual distrust would only grow.

Trust wasn’t the only problem. In an echo of 1513, Henry was distracted by the constant threat from the north. Whenever he began a campaign in France, the Scottish forces would threaten attack, forcing him to wage a war on two fronts. Henry was enraged and infuriated but he would not give up. He mounted another attack in 1523 to support the rebelling Duke of Bourbon, but Charles sent no help and the English troops were forced to retreat.

The line was finally crossed when Charles captured Francis at the Battle of Pavia in 1525 and showed no interest in sharing his spoils with the English king. Henry decided that the time had come for a full-scale invasion. With nowhere near enough money, Henry and Cardinal Wolsey tried to create the ‘Amicable Grant’ tax to pay for the attack, but opposition proved so fierce that Henry was forced to scrap his plans and publicly blame Wolsey. The humiliation of backpedalling helped Henry to realise that he was not going to get what he wanted. He signed the Treaty of the More with Francis’s mother, Louise of Savoy, and turned his attention towards his family.

Not surprisingly Charles’s rejection rankled Henry. The Holy Roman Emperor’s increased presence in Italy once again caused the panicking Pope Clement VII to create the League of Cognac, which united Venice, Florence and France against Charles. Henry was not a member, but offered to help bankroll the group. His treaty with Francis in the Treaty of Westminster on 30 April 1527 was a sign that his mind was elsewhere. Henry was desperate to be separated from Catherine and marry Anne Boleyn. He had no interest in a divorce and instead wanted to prove that it had been illegal to marry his brother’s widow. This would soothe the good Catholic in him, but it set him against Charles V, who was appalled by what the accusation said about his aunt, Catherine. However, circumstances were not in Henry’s favour; Charles had attacked Rome in retaliation for the League’s advances. Pope Clement VII was now his prisoner and Catherine’s nephew made his influence felt. Clement gained his freedom in December, but the emperor had no interest in peace talks with the League. Once again, Charles had frustrated Henry’s plans and he declared war with the Holy Roman Emperor in January. However, England lacked the finances to mount another attack. When hostilities resumed in 1521, Henry declared that England was now allied with the Holy Roman Emperor and signed the Treaty of Windsor in 1522 to make ‘The Great Enterprise’ official. At this point, Henry could not afford a full-scale invasion and an attack on Picardy failed due to a lack of communication and, perhaps more importantly, trust.

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do any more than declare itself at war; it’s unlikely that this worried Charles too much.

The situation in Europe finally resolved itself in 1529 with the Treaty of Cambrai. However, Henry’s determination to end his marriage had made enemies out of his old allies. Francis offered to plead his case to the new Pope Clement, but he was more concerned with cementing his own alliance with the Holy See. Anne Boleyn’s pregnancy pushed Henry into taking decisive action and his marriage to Catherine was annulled by Thomas Cranmer in 1533. In the eyes of the English court, his secret marriage to Anne was now completely legal. Finally, Henry was recognised as Head of the Church and abolished the right of Appeal to Rome. England was no longer Catholic and the pope had no more influence over the king.

Although he was overjoyed at finally having the queen he lusted after, Henry realised that a Europe united against him was a dangerous prospect. Indeed. He tried to take advantage of the frequent arguments between Charles and Francis, but in 1538 the excommunication order for Henry was finally delivered and the pope declared that the Vatican would support anyone who deposed the English king; his death was something God would turn a blind eye to. Luckily for Henry, Charles was busy with the Ottoman Empire and, if Francis planned to attack England, he had no intention of doing so alone. Henry knew that the differences between Francis and Charles would prevent them from ever remaining allies for long. He just had to be patient. Finally, in 1542, they declared war and Henry could return to the battlefield.

By this point Henry was obese, sickly and prone to violent rages. The war gave him a sense of purpose and Charles was finally back on his side. For all their past differences, now there were no personal reasons why Henry and Charles could not resume their alliance. Catherine of Aragon had passed away and, by executing Anne Boleyn, Henry had removed the insult to Charles’s honour. Across the Channel, Francis wasn’t sitting idly by and he knew how to keep Henry distracted.

Scotland had proved to be a continual thorn in Henry’s paw during his attempts to invade France, attacking every time his attention was focused across the Channel. Having hoped that James V would be a more amenable ally than his predecessor, Henry was livid when Scotland refused to follow him in separating from Rome. When James did not appear at the diplomatic talks at York in 1541, outright conflict followed. Following a minor Scottish victory at the Battle of Haddon Rig in 1542, the two armies met at Solway Moss. In a brutal echo of Flodden Field, the Scottish army suffered a humiliating defeat. James V died of fever about two weeks later and Henry, buoyed by such a decisive victory, turned his attention to France.

Henry was taking no half measures and invaded France on two fronts. Stretching his finances as far as they would go, he sent troops to Montreuil under the Duke of Norfolk, while another force attacked Boulogne under the Duke of Suffolk. While Norfolk had

**Battle of the Spurs**

**16 August 1513**

Henry and his English forces had been laying siege to the town of Thérouanne since July 1513. Following the embarrassment at Gascony, he had finally arrived in France to lead his army to great conquest. He camped close, but not too close to the city, and laid siege. A stalemate ensued until French action on 16 August tipped the scales.

The French forces had seen Maximilian’s Holy Roman Army join Henry’s and decided that the time had come to attempt a counterattack. On the morning of 16 August French light cavalry, a few thousand strong, attacked the invaders’ positions. However, word had reached the Holy League’s camp of the planned attack and a trap had been prepared, leading to a brutal skirmish. It was an attack that was doomed to failure, with Henry and Maximilian’s combined forces coming to roughly 30,000 men. The speed with which the surviving French rode away led to the name of the battle.

It was not a significant military victory in other terms than morale. Henry had been looking for a victory to claim in France, and this encounter was the first real battle of his campaign. He celebrated it but the actual gains from the Battle of the Spurs and the subsequent fall of Thérouanne would impress nothing but his ego. At great financial expense, Henry’s dreams of Agincourt came a little closer.

**Verdict**

The victory at the Battle of the Spurs did more for Henry’s ego than it did for the outcome of his campaign.

**Success**

“Though he was overjoyed at finally having the queen he lusted after, Henry realised that a Europe united against him was a dangerous prospect”
The Siege of Boulogne

19 July – 18 September 1544

The Siege of Boulogne would be the closest thing to an unqualified victory that Henry would get in all his years of war with France. However, the conquest of a single city at tremendous expense tells us that unqualified is not really the most accurate adjective to use. Henry had been waiting for an excuse to resume hostilities with France and he eagerly joined his old ally (and old enemy) Charles V when war broke out in 1544. He raised a huge invasion force to set sail across the Channel.

The English force was split into two; attacking Montreuil and Boulogne, Henry himself joining the latter. While the attack on Montreuil failed, the Siege of Boulogne, though lengthy, would result in success. The siege began on 19 July and the English forces quickly took the lower part of the city. However, they were unable to breach the castle walls and the siege stretched from weeks into months. Henry wrote to his wife (number six, Catherine Parr) praising the strength of his opponents, but it was only a matter of time before the French were forced to surrender, which they did after Henry’s forces tunneled beneath the walls.

However, Henry’s triumph would be short-lived. He learned that Charles, fearful of the Ottoman threat and caring little about Henry’s personal ambition, had made his own peace treaty with France without England. Henry returned home to attend to Scotland, leaving Boulogne occupied, and Francis began preparations for a counterattack.

Verdict

Henry may have taken the city, but the financial cost was enormous. Although Charles’s treaty led to threats of a French invasion, Francis’s attempts ultimately failed.

The Rough Wooing

December 1543 – March 1550

The Rough Wooing was the result of Henry’s failed attempt to subdue Scotland while he turned his attention to France. Although he might have won a huge victory at the Battle of Solway Moss, Henry’s hopes that the Scottish would be amenable to peace proved to be ill-founded. He had given them his terms, but Henry may as well have given them a blank piece of paper, as Scotland declared its renewed allegiance to France.

At the time, Henry was planning his invasion with Charles V and could not afford to be distracted by yet another full-blown conflict with his neighbours in the north. Deciding against open battle, Henry commanded that a force should sail north and show the Scots how furious he was. It was led by Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford, who was told to “Burn Edinburgh town, so razed and defaced when you have sacked and gotten what you can of it, as there may remain forever a perpetual memory of the vengeance of God.”

Towns and villages were to be burned down and the king’s instructions as to what to do with anyone who opposed Hertford were clear, he was commanded to continue “putting man, woman and child to fire and sword, without exception, where any resistance shall be made against you.” Hertford obeyed his liege’s orders with relish, sending frequent reports of his conquests back to his king, and capturing Edinburgh and the nearby port at Leith. However, France did not sit idly by and sent forces to help Scottish counterattacks. Aggression between England and Scotland would only be (temporarily) halted by the Treaty of Camp in 1546.

Verdict

Although it had the immediate effect that Henry wanted, which was to give a show of force and wrath, the Rough Wooing only served to deepen entrench hatred and distrust of the English.
10 murderous kings
In this day and age it’s quite difficult to imagine the sheer power that kings and queens once wielded over their subjects. In many ways these monarchs were more similar to modern dictators than the regents that we know today. Murder was often a means to a political end, while crimes of passion would rarely be met with any immediate consequences.

Although the kings had ultimate power, it was a power they were forced to fight for – often using fear, war and murder, among other methods, to stay at the top. The position of king was a precarious one and, driven by this fact and an unhealthy dose of paranoia, certain monarchs left a bloody trail through history.

But beyond paranoia, what drove them to such bloodshed? Several of these kings earned their place on this list with their military campaigns. War was a show of strength, a display of dominance. With an almost-constant state of conflict, territories were lost and won with great frequency, which, of course, meant that they had to be reclaimed. The glory of a kingdom was not just determined by its size necessarily, but by kings’ unwavering belief that the lands at stake belonged by right to the throne. Look at Edward I’s brutal campaigns in Wales and Scotland, or Charles II of Navarre’s ludicrous notions of what belonged to him – both of whom feature in this roundup of deadly royals.

Murder was often the simplest way to ensure that anyone plotting against the king was removed. Even with the introduction of the Magna Carta in England in 1215 and the emergence of parliament, the monarch’s essentially free rein to end the lives of their subjects remained. Flimsy evidence could be put forward to prove a case for treason and conspiring against the monarch, as Henry VIII demonstrated on several occasions. Meanwhile, with the whole country watching, any hint of rebellion would have to be squashed quickly and brutally, as Louis I of Aquitaine did to great effect.

In other cases, the reason behind a king’s bloodthirsty nature would now be attributed to some form of mental illness. Purity of the bloodline comes with a price, as lineages would abruptly end with offspring suffering from deformities, congenital illnesses and insanity. Whether through violent fits of rage or cold calculation, these ten kings ensured that the pages of history books dedicated to them were written in blood, but which of them takes the crown as the deadliest?
Aethelred's tenure as king of England led to the inglorious epithet of Aethelred the Unready. However, a better translation of the moniker would be ‘ill-advised’, as it is generally agreed that the counsel Aethelred received was little and poor.

Although he was too young to have been complicit in the murder of his older brother (Edward the Martyr), who was killed after having been on the throne for only two and a half years, the crime was carried out by those loyal to him in order that the younger sibling would take his place. This meant that there was a lot of mistrust surrounding the young monarch and, as the reputation of the murdered boy grew after his death, it would become increasingly difficult for Aethelred to unite his subjects.

And the necessity for a united British army was urgent with a renewed threat from the north. The Danes had recommenced raids along England’s coast, breaking the treaty they had made with Aethelred’s father, Edgar. After the English suffered a serious defeat at the Battle of Maldon in 991, Aethelred began paying tribute to the Danes in return for peace. However, the Danes were hard to appease and had restarted hostilities by 997.

Finally, in 1002, Aethelred reached breaking point and took drastic action. On 13 November he issued an order that all Danes in England should be executed, calling it “a most just extermination”. It was an indiscriminate attempt at a show of strength that claimed the life of Danish leader Sweyn’s sister, Gunhilde, and Sweyn invaded in retaliation, leading to Aethelred’s downfall.
Louis the Pious was, in many ways, as sensible a leader as his nickname would suggest. His father, Charlemagne, appointed him king of Aquitaine at the tender age of three. He became king of the Franks and emperor of Rome upon his father’s death in 814 and decided that, in order to avoid any diplomatic issues, any of his unmarried sisters would be packed off to nunneries.

When Louis nearly died in an accident in 817, he decided to ensure that, should he suddenly expire, there would be a neat plan of succession to set out who ruled what in the Frankish empire. He confirmed that his nephew Bernard would remain the king of Italy, but the will described his son Lothair’s position as ‘overlord’, implying that Italy would be submissive to him. Needless to say, the wording of this document did not please Bernard and, spurred on by rumours that Lothair was to invade, he set about preparing a rebellion.

However, word quickly reached Louis I of Bernard’s plan and the king immediately took an army to confront his errant nephew. Bernard was shocked by the speed of the king’s reaction and went to try and negotiate, before being forced into surrender. It’s here that Louis’ place in this list of murderous kings is assured.

He sentenced his nephew to death, before deciding that he should be blinded instead – a punishment that was apparently merciful. However, the procedure was not entirely successful. As a result, while Bernard was indeed blinded, he spent two days in unbearable pain before dying anyway. Three civil wars would follow but the legacy of this killing would haunt the deeply religious ruler for the rest of his life.
There are many who would claim that King Herod committed his most heinous deed with the Massacre of the Innocents. However, the story of the slaughter of all boys in Bethlehem under the age of two is only found in the Bible; there are no historical records from the time detailing such an atrocity. Herod's crimes were much more personal.

In fact, Herod was an excellent ruler of Judaea. Having obtained the position after being forced to flee Galilee when the Palestinians had reclaimed their land, he strengthened his kingship when he divorced in order to marry Mariamne, which pacified a leading sect of Jewish priests (the Hasmonaeans). However, as time went by, it became clear that Herod was not well.

He was prone to fits of mental instability, which made his fierce love for his wife all the more dangerous. At one point, before leaving for a political expedition, he ordered that Mariamne should be executed if he didn’t return because he couldn’t face the idea of her being with another man. His jealousy was used by his sister, Salome - who despised Mariamne - to convince Herod that his wife was plotting against him. Mariamne was executed in 29 BCE and Herod was forced to agree to an alliance with Castile and France. He burned to death in 1387, allegedly when the sackcloth filled with brandy he was bathing in caught fire.

**“His jealousy was used by his sister, Salome, to convince Herod that his wife was plotting against him”**
The man dubbed ‘Lionheart’ spent most of his life fighting. He first took up arms against his father, Henry II, in 1173 and continued to aggressively pursue the throne until Henry’s death in 1189, when some quite reasonably suggested that Richard had driven the king to his grave.

Blood was spilled on the same day that Richard took the crown, when the barring of Jewish figures from the coronation was misinterpreted as an order to instigate violence against all of London’s Jews. Richard ordered the executions of those who took part, but the instances of copycat ‘Christian’ violence would set the tone for a king who was desperate to join the Crusades.

Together with Phillip II of France, who had assisted Richard in his fight for the throne, England joined the Third Crusade. Spending the bulk of his father’s treasure chest to raise a new army, Richard set off for the Holy Lands in 1190. He blazed a bloody trail through Sicily and Cyprus before arriving at Acre, Israel, in 1191.

Following the successful siege of the city, he ordered the execution of 2,700 Muslim prisoners. The crusade eventually ground to a halt and Richard was forced to retreat in 1192, only to be captured in Vienna by Leopold V. Once ransomed, he discovered that his brother, John, had given Normandy back to King Phillip in his absence.

In 1196, Richard built castles in Normandy to fortify his presence. He continued his war against Phillip until 1199, when he was struck by an arrow from the nearly undefended Châlus-Chabrol chateau. The wound turned fatally gangrenous - an undignified end for the warrior king.

When Edward I came to the throne he had a very clear goal in mind: to take back what he saw as English land which had been stolen.

Upon Henry III’s death Edward returned to England from the Crusades and started planning a military campaign in Wales. Beginning with a successful invasion in 1277 he executed the Welsh leader, Llewelyn, in 1282 and Llewelyn’s brother, David, a year later in response to rebellions.

The war in Wales had a devastating effect on the nation’s finances. This was compounded when Edward responded violently to French King Philip reclaiming the territory of Gascony by sailing to attack in 1297, later returning to quell the Scottish rebellion. Edward intervened to such an extent that the Scots allied with the French and attacked Carlisle. Edward invaded in retaliation, beginning a brutal and lengthy conflict that earned him his nickname, Hammer of the Scots.
02 HENRY VIII

English king Henry VIII's voracious nature and hot temper have become the stuff of legend. He is renowned for being a man of ferocious appetites - in all aspects of life - and he was prepared to use any means necessary to quell his opposition.

Shortly after ascending to the throne, Henry married Catherine of Aragon, as his father, Henry VII, had wanted to secure an alliance with Spain. At the time he executed Edmund Dudley and Richard Empson - two of his father's advisors - on the grounds of treason. This was to become a pattern for Henry. From Thomas More to Thomas Cromwell, anyone who Henry perceived as either a threat to the throne or to his secession from the Catholic church was liable to find themselves with their head on the block.

However, he's most notorious for his list of spouses, driven by his desperation for a male heir and straightforward lust. The annulment of his marriage to Catherine of Aragon was prompted by a combination of the two as Anne Boleyn had already caught his eye. As we all know, Anne Boleyn did not last long before facing the executioner's axe - having been dubiously accused of infidelity, treachery and incest. Anne was followed by Jane Seymour, who died in childbirth; Anne of Cleves, who Henry soon separated from; and then the unfortunate Catherine Howard. Henry accused Catherine of being unfaithful with her secretary, Francis Dereham, while she claimed that Dereham had raped her. Despite her protests, she was sent to her death. Fortunately for his last wife, Catherine Parr, he died before she could fall out of his favour.

The exact number of executions ordered by Henry VIII has not been conclusively agreed upon, but it is generally believed to be between 57,000 and 72,000. As a gruesome aside, he also made 'death by boiling' a legitimate form of execution.

"ANYONE PERCEIVED AS A THREAT... WAS LIABLE TO [LOSE] THEIR HEAD"
Desperate to establish a colony overseas, Belgian king Leopold II turned to Africa and the potential riches of the Congo. To circumvent his own parliament, he created a dummy organisation called the International African Association, which he claimed would act in the interests of philanthropy and scientific research with a view to converting the citizens to Christianity. It was all completely legal and it gave the monarch the freedom to act however he wanted in the land under his control.

Its stated aim could not have been further from the truth. What had attracted Leopold to the Congo, in addition to the notion of creating an empire, was the tremendous supply of rubber in the area. He would spare nothing in order to get what he wanted. Despite having promised that he would protect the people of the Congo from slavers, Leopold promptly and brutally turned the country into a slave state.

The treatment of the workers was savage and uncompromising. Leopold allowed some missionaries into the Congo in order to allay the fears of foreign powers who believed he might be doing exactly what he was doing, and reports began to reach Europe about the maiming and executions of the men and women working on the plantations, as well as of the mass dumping of corpses.

It’s impossible to know exactly how many people died during Leopold’s rule of the Congo but the estimated figure is in the millions. The atrocities led to the establishment of the first human rights movement and Leopold was finally compelled to give up the Congo to the Belgian parliament in 1908.
Black Death
The terrifying true story of the outbreak that crippled the world
Written by Gavin Thomas
After enjoying generations of sunshine and warmer climes, Europe had undergone an unprecedented population boom that saw more people living on the continent than ever before. At the turn of the first millennium there were 24 million people in Europe, and by 1340 this had reached 54 million. Entire countries were straining at the edges of their farmlands and eating into the forests, and the availability of food was beginning to reach the limits of population support. A dire evil, however, stalked the land, just as the Little Ice Age began, and a century later Europe’s population had plummeted to 37 million.

The true origins of this bringer of death are unknown, though many people believe it emerged in south-east Africa centuries ago and crept along the Nile to the Eurasian continent. This monster scurried on a million legs through the dank holds of ships, grain-stuffed silos and mills, filthy streets and docks slick with grime – and much worse in the years to come.

It sprang from the backs of great black rats, borne in the blood of fleas infected with Yersinia pestis, and thrived in the blood-flecked sputum of the plague’s violently coughing victims. It wept from the bulbous, stinking sores that erupted in people’s groins and armpits. It struck fiercely and mercilessly, bringing down towns in a matter of days, erasing families in mere hours.

While we now call this great pandemic that brought Europe to its knees in the mid-14th century the Black Death, it was known by a different name at the time - the apocalyptic moniker, Pestilence. With the Hundred Years’ War sweeping western Europe and conflicts with the unstoppable Golden Horde in the east, famine beginning to cripple countries whose populations were at the limits of sustainability, and then sickness swiftly following - bringing with it death - the people of the world knew that Pestilence was upon them, and many feared the apocalypse drew near.

Pestilence is shrouded in mystery, and even now researchers still debate the exact components of the beast and the path it took across the continent. What is certain is that it originated in the eastern end of the continent, and worked its way through the Mongolian Empire before piercing Caffa (now Feodosiya in Ukraine), Sicily and southern Europe, reaching peak strength as it smashed into France and England.

Scientists agree that its main weapon was bubonic plague, a bacterial disease carried by infected fleas that fed on the black rats ubiquitous to the continent, but were also known to dine on other types of rodents, rabbits and, sometimes, larger mammals like cats. The bacterium itself - Yersinia pestis - was a rather nasty piece of work; it would infect the blood of fleas and then cause a buildup of old blood and cells within the proventriculus (a valve preceding the flea’s stomach). This blockage meant that when a hungry flea tried to bite its next victim, the high pressure in its stomach would force some of the ingested blood back into the open wound, along with thousands of bacterial cells that had accumulated in the proventriculus.

This swarm of Yersinia pestis would then drain along the lymphatic tract of the victim from the source of the bite down to the nearest lymph node. Once there, the bacteria would proceed to colonise the lymph node so entirely that it would swell, stiffen and ooze a rancid pus.
Since most people were bitten on their legs, this would usually be the lymph node in the groin. These enlarged lymph nodes, known as buboes, were the main sign of Pestilence, ugly and painful, they ranged from the size of a grape to a fat orange and they made any movement unbearable.

Before the appearance of the buboes though, victims would have a slight warning. Flu-like symptoms would appear first, swiftly followed by a high fever. Within a day or two these would be joined by ‘God’s tokens’ - small circular rashes, also called roses - that would spread over the body and particularly around infected lymph nodes. Caused by weak blood vessel walls and internal haemorrhaging, they were a sure sign that you didn’t just have a nasty cold, as noted by Shakespeare: ‘the tokened pestilence where death is sure’. Things tended to move quickly once the buboes had boiled up through the skin. Diarrhoea and vomiting would ensue, as would often septic shock due to the buboes bursting, with respiratory failure and pneumonia wiping up the last sops of life. Within two weeks, four out of five people who contracted the plague died.

Agnolo di Tura del Grasso, a chronicler from Siena, Italy, captured the terror of the time well: ‘I do not know where to begin describing its relentless cruelty; almost everyone who witnessed it seemed stupefied by grief. It is not possible for the human tongue to recount such a horrible thing, and those who did not see such horrors can well be called blessed. They died almost immediately; they would swell up under the armpits and in the groin and drop dead while talking. Fathers abandoned their children, wives left their husbands, brothers forsook each other; all fled from each other because it seemed that the disease could be passed on by breath and sight. And so they died, and one could not find people to carry out burials for money or friendship.’

In the face of Pestilence and the approaching end-times, King Philip VI of France commissioned the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Paris to deduce the source of the evil so that it might be eradicated. The findings of these professors did not bode well, for they ascribed the tragedy to the conjunction of Saturn, Mars and Jupiter in Aquarius, and to the position of Saturn in the House of Jupiter – and nothing could be done to challenge the will of the cosmos. At the time, Jupiter was believed to be the source of warm, humid vapours, while hot, dry Mars was thought to ignite them. These pestilential vapours were thought to form a thick, stinking smog of sickness known as a miasma, which was compounded by the sulphurous eruptions of volcanoes and wrathful power of earthquakes.

Believed to be the main culprit of the Black Death, people gave up bathing (as it opened the pores to miasma), barricaded themselves in closed rooms hung with thick tapestries to block out the poisoned air and took to carrying rosegays and pomanders to avail themselves of the evil stench. None of this would save them though.

In 1346, amid reports from the east of biblical plagues – rains of frogs and serpents, hail, stinking smoke and thunder – the Mongols of the Golden Horde attacked Caffa – an island port off the north coast of the Black Sea. The horde laid siege to the city and were all set for a protracted campaign when the Black Death struck them in the back ranks. Suddenly, their army was dying and the siege began to fall apart. What followed is the first known incidence of biological warfare: about to pull back and return to the east, the horde first gathered up the diseased bodies of their dead and catapulted them over the walls of Caffa.

Instantly, Pestilence struck Europe, and though it took around 15 years to cross Asia it would destroy Europe in less than five. As the horde went home, defeated, the Black Death ran around the coast of the Black Sea and straight through the Byzantine Empire (south of modern Bulgaria). By 1347 – just as Joan of England, of the House Plantagenet, was departing Britain to marry Prince Pedro of Castile and form a political alliance – it had arrived on the Mediterranean and struck Messina in Sicily. Here, frightened peasants were beginning to realise that the monster attacked by sea and had started to refuse ships at the port, but it was a case of too little, too late.

Trading ships from Genova and Constantinople carried the plague to the Italian mainland, where it ran up and down the infected rivers, canals and walkways. By 1348, 600 people were dying each day in Venice; Rhodes, Cyprus and Messina had all fallen. The invasion gathered pace and then punched up into the heart of Europe, striking down 60 per cent of Marseille’s population and half of Paris’s. The bewildering death toll was so high that the mayor of Bordeaux even set fire to the port, in a remarkably prescient move considering the fact that serpents and smog were more feared than rats at this stage.

Britain fared little better at the time. Arriving on the south coast of England in 1348 - primarily through ports like Bristol, Weymouth and London - the Black Death was to claim 50 per cent of the population and reach a height of around 300 souls each day in London by spring 1349.

It was a staggering loss in this age of arable farming, where the majority of the country’s wealth lay in the land. Acres and acres of golden cornfields were left without farmers to sow or plough them; knights and churchmen found themselves working by the sweat of their brows - and this led to the growth of the new yeoman

**Kill or Cure**

A number of herbal treatments were thought to be effective against the Black Death. Sufferers were regularly prescribed, depending on their income, solutions of ground emeralds or poisons made from the crushed shells of newly laid eggs mixed with chopped marigolds, ale and treacle. Treacle was, in fact, a leading remedy, though it had to be at least ten years old to have any potency. Another effective, if less appealing, curative was urine - two glasses a day was widely thought to strengthen the constitution and fend off disease.

Treatment of the buboes was a trickier affair. In their terror, people believed they could draw out Pestilence by holding bread against the boils and burying it – or, more incredibly, by strapping a live hen to the swelling, rinsing and repeating. Physicians later discovered that lancing buboes, draining the pus and applying poultices was relatively effective in the affliction’s early stages. Such poultices usually consisted of tree resin, white lily root and then dried human excrement, arsenic or dried toad, depending on availability. Less extreme ointments were mixed from cooked onions, butter and garlic, while bloodletting through leeches or incisions and the application of clay and violets was also practised.

For the most part, since the Black Death was allegedly miasmatic, the best preventative measure was thought to be carrying pouches of sweet herbs and spices (or balls of perfume called pomanders), and burning them in your home. Most felt their only options were to fast, pray and join the Flagellants in order to pay penance for their sins, and kill suspected witches or well-poisoners, while waiting for Saturn to move out of the House of Jupiter.
The Black Death is brewing in the heart of the Golden Horde, the north-western chunk of the disintegrated Mongolian Empire, which stretches from the Black Sea deep into modern Kazakhstan and Russia. Struck down as they lay siege to Caffa, the invaders launched the diseased bodies of their dead over the walls.

1346
The Black Death is brewing in the heart of the Golden Horde, the north-western chunk of the disintegrated Mongolian Empire, which stretches from the Black Sea deep into modern Kazakhstan and Russia. Struck down as they lay siege to Caffa, the invaders launched the diseased bodies of their dead over the walls.

1347
Spreading along the sea lanes and coastal trade routes of the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, plague sends ships thronging with bacteria into Constantinople, Crete, Sicily, Sardinia and south France. People blame cursed ships and the foul air they bring, but fail to spot the rats.

1348
Southern Europe is overrun with Pestilence. A swath of plague-lands stretches from the west coast of Spain to Bucharest, with fingers of disease pushing up into France and Britain. Bordeaux burns and the mainland is caught up in a frenzy of religious penance for God's wrath.

1349
Believed to be poisoning wells, Jews are driven out of every country as the Black Death consumes central Europe, now reaching from the coast of Scandinavia to Morocco. Poland provides a home to the stricken Jewish population, while in London the death rate is now 300 souls each day.

1350
The Black Death hits Sweden and begins to complete its clockwise circle from the Mongol steppes east of the Black Sea, through southern Europe and into the north.

1351
In its death throes, the plague threw itself into eastern Europe with abandon. By this time, however, the worst was over. Half of Europe had died and the survivors - whether serf, squire or churchman - found themselves working the fields in ever colder seasons.

When Pestilence strikes...

Flu hits
The Black Death begins like a bad cold, with aches, pains, chills and a fever setting in.

God's tokens
Just a few hours later, circular red rashes appear around infected lymph nodes.

Bubo breakout
Within a day or two, the lymph nodes blacken and swell to the size of oranges.

Vomiting
Severe fluid loss, including blood, accompanies and exacerbates the bloating buboes.

Septic shock
Two to three days after infection, septic shock and pneumonia often hit the victim.

Respiratory failure
Weakened under the assault, the body’s central systems begin to shut down.

Death
Usually within two to four days, Pestilence conquers the host.
the Peasants’ Revolt of 1381. The same was true elsewhere in Europe, with the effects of the Black Death also leading to the Jacquerie in France (1358) and the Revolt of the Ciompi in Italy (1378). Despite the reassurance that the clergy provided, religion was powerless against the Black Death. Churchmen, who were often the closest thing to a doctor, were forbidden to dissect the bodies of God and so could not perform autopsies to learn the exact causes of death. Priests afraid of the plague refused to administer last rites, and urged people to confess to each other. Funeral rites were similarly abandoned, with corpses stacked several layers deep with a smattering of earth between each row, and entrepreneurial peasants began to gather and bury the dead for a fee. Eventually, the clergy refused bodies entry into cities and, since death had become such a constant companion, ordained that no funeral bells were to ring. In 1348, however, a much greater religious threat abounded. The Brotherhood of Flagellants rose up in Germany and led 1,000-strong marches through the country for 33 and a half days at a time (to mark the Saviour’s years on Earth), brutally whipping themselves with iron-studded belts of leather to display their penance to God and earn protection from his wrath. They had something of a rockstar status and many people reached out to catch the sacred drops of blood that spattered from their holy wounds. By 1349 the movement had petered out - falling prey to a bandwagon effect that led to too many misfits and vagabonds exploiting the Flagellants’ notoriety - but the effect it had on public sentiment was grave. The reinforcement of extreme Christian ideology in the face of the apocalypse inflamed anti-Semitism across Europe and the Jews were persecuted like never before. Associated as they were with the mystical Kabbalah (and black magic), the 2.5 million Jews living in Europe at the time were prime suspects for witchcraft and nefarious deeds. Having been strong international merchants in 1000, they were in a period of decline that would ultimately lead to their replacement in economic terms by Italian merchants by 1500. Divided and wandering across Europe, they were accused of brewing poisons from basilisk skin, spiders, lizards and frogs - even Christian hearts and the wafer of Christ – and then infecting wells with disease.
False confessions under torture, such as that of Agimet the Jew during the plague's peak in 1348, certainly didn't help matters, and on Valentine's Day of 1349 in Strasbourg 2,000 Jews were burned in a cemetery. The crime was repeated in other cities across Germany and Switzerland, prompting a mass Jewish migration across Europe.

It was to Poland that they fled, as King Casimir was in love with a Jewish woman and so opened the borders of his country to his lover's kinsmen, where they would remain until the Holocaust. Yet while the Jews were fleeing death and destruction at the hands of humans, the monster itself was winding down. Pestilence reached Sweden in 1350 and, by the time it got to Russia, the plague had all but passed in France and England.

Historians have never reached complete agreement on what exactly stopped the disease, though quarantines, slightly better hygiene and the reduced number of people travelling back and forth through Europe – as a result of mass depopulation and a growing fear of infective trade routes – are all thought to have played a role. The plague had claimed an estimated 40-50 per cent of the European population – that’s around 20 million people. By way of comparison, the Spanish Flu that followed the end of WWI in 1918 – raging across a far more populous Europe – claimed 50 million lives. Never before or since has such a potent infection wracked the continent.

There is a nursery rhyme still sung today that is believed by some to bear the terrible mark of the plague, an unconscious testament to the deep psychological impact it had upon the survivors: ‘Ring around the roses; a pocketful of posies; ashes, ashes; we all fall down!’ In the early stages of the plague, the afflicted were known to develop rosy red rashes on the skin in the shape of a ring, and ‘posies’ – nosegays of dried flowers, or small pouches of sweet-smelling herbs – were often carried to ward off the disease.

Unaware of the true nature of the monster, many believed the Black Death was a miasmatic illness, caused by noxious, pestilential fumes in the air. As such, posies were carried and incense burned in homes, people forwent bathing (as it opened the pores) and even splashed themselves in urine to bolster their natural protection against external fumes and vapours. It is thought that the first two lines of the rhyme refer to this.

As for the closing lines, historians believe that the Great Fire of London (1666) – which wiped out the black rats – was the only thing that saved England from succumbing entirely. It took Europe 150 years to fully recover, and those who survived believed they had witnessed the apocalypse.

With war, death and famine rampant in the century following the Black Death, it was as if the four horsemen themselves had ridden out in force to bring Europe to its knees. To a superstitious, God-fearing populace, it was a hell on Earth that they were utterly powerless to defend themselves against, and which would never be forgotten.
It was late-summer of 1901 and the eyes of the world were on Buffalo, NY, the eighth-largest city in the United States at the time. Buffalo was hosting the Pan-American Exposition, where electric light was still a novelty and the first X-ray machine was on display. On 5 September, US President William McKinley toured the exposition and gave a speech on the glories of progress and human genius. It was the last speech he'd ever give.

On 6 September, while standing in a receiving line outside the Temple of Music, McKinley was approached by an unemployed factory worker named Leon Czolgosz, an American-born anarchist inspired by the writings of Emma Goldman. Hidden beneath Czolgosz’s white handkerchief was a .32 Iver Johnson revolver. Czolgosz shot McKinley twice in the abdomen at point-blank range. Ironically, the doctors on the scene chose not to use the X-ray machine to locate the bullets, as they were worried about the effects of radiation.

Born of anarchist bombers and gangsters, the early FBI was a crack team of ‘Commie hunters’ and counter-spies bending the law to protect the USA.

Written by Dave Roos
Theodore Roosevelt assumed the presidency under a cloud of homegrown terror. Czolgosz was a lone gunman, but he was not alone in his beliefs. Pockets of anarchists worldwide were spreading their ideology of equality through the destruction of all forms of power. McKinley was one of many late-19th-century political leaders - including the president of France and prime minister of Spain - who were assassinated by anarchists.

Roosevelt was intent on rooting out political extremists on American soil, but he was hamstrung by the legal landscape of the early-20th century. When Roosevelt took office, the federal government was not in the criminal investigation business. Why? Because there were almost no federal laws that gave it jurisdiction over criminal activities. All criminal investigations were handled by local and state police forces. Not all of these squads were equal either. Many policemen were poorly trained and underpaid, and a good number of the police chiefs were political appointees with no investigative experience.

This method of fighting crime worked fine in largely rural 19th-century America, but it wasn’t remotely equipped for the realities of the new century. Rapid industrialisation led to rapid urbanisation. America’s expanding cities - 100 with populations over 50,000 by 1908 - were not only absorbing the rural poor but also waves of European immigrants. Italian, Polish, Irish and German arrivals settled in unsanitary, overcrowded tenements - conditions ripe for organised crime, prostitution and political upheaval.

Before Roosevelt, the United States was just that - a union of largely independent, self-governing states. But industrialisation, urbanisation and technological innovation - the railroads, the telephone, electricity and the car, etc - had combined to erase the old borders and call into question the old ways of keeping law and order.

Roosevelt was a former New York City police commissioner and outspoken progressive. The progressives believed that the federal government played a critical role in reforming broken institutions, upholding the rule of law and creating a more just society. In 1902, Roosevelt used the Sherman Antitrust Act of 1890 to bust the ‘trust’ (read: monopoly) of the most powerful industrialist in America at the time, JP Morgan.

Roosevelt championed the conservation of public lands under national parks for the use and enjoyment of the people. And he wanted the federal government to play a stronger role in the protection of the American people from threats like the anarchists, organised crime and corruption.

In 1906, Roosevelt appointed Charles Joseph Bonaparte, another prominent progressive and civic reformer, to be his attorney general in charge of the Department of Justice (DOJ). But Bonaparte was like a cop without a gun. He had no staff investigators of his own, so he rented them case-by-case from the Secret Service and even hired private detectives. When US lawmakers caught wind of this expensive habit, Congress passed a law forbidding Bonaparte from renting agents.

The law was a blessing in disguise. With Roosevelt’s approval, Bonaparte quietly recruited nine Secret Service members to join a new corps of federal investigators reporting directly to Bonaparte’s chief examiner, Stanley Finch. In a one-page memo dated 26 July 1908, Bonaparte proposed the creation of a ‘regular force of special agents’ to aid Department of Justice investigations. The earliest seeds of the FBI were sown.

Bonaparte’s under-the-radar investigators didn’t have a name yet, but their ranks rose to 34 before the attorney general stepped down with Roosevelt in 1909. It was Bonaparte’s successor, Attorney General George Wickersham, who officially christened the Department of Justice’s agents the Bureau of Investigation on 16 March 1909.

The nascent Bureau of Investigation might have had a name, but it still had no teeth. There were few federal laws that gave it jurisdiction to act in criminal cases. That changed with the passing of the Mann Act in 1910. Known as the White Slavery Traffic Act, the law forbade the interstate transportation of females for ‘immoral purposes’.

Progressive reformers, railing against prostitution in America’s cities, declared a crisis of white slavery, in which unwitting young white women were being tricked by nefarious foreigners into lives of prostitution. Pulp journalists were happy to supply the lurid - if not entirely accurate - details, and the issue made it all the way to the US Congress.

The Bureau of Investigation was given the lead in all Mann Act cases and earned a dubious reputation of being tricked by nefarious foreigners into lives of prostitution.

The cabinet of President Theodore Roosevelt (sat far left); Charles Bonaparte is two places to the right behind the table.

"Industrialisation and technological innovation combined to call into question the old ways of keeping law and order"
enforcing a dubious law. The black prizefighter Jack Johnson was trailed by federal agents for years and eventually convicted of transporting prostitutes across state lines. The Bureau followed him to Europe and Mexico before the beleaguered champ turned himself in to authorities.

Later, the Bureau would redeem itself by using its Mann Act powers for good. In the 1920s, the white supremacist organisation the Ku Klux Klan made a resurgence in the American South. Leading the KKK recruitment efforts was Edward Young Clarke, an advertising executive from Louisiana who served as the terrorist organisation’s ‘Imperial Kleagle’. The KKK became so powerful in Louisiana - through lynchings, kidnappings and extortion - that the state’s governor begged the Bureau to take action. Without the jurisdiction to investigate Clarke on murder charges, the Bureau jailed the Imperial Kleagle for driving his mistress across state lines.

Back in 1916, the US claimed neutrality in the conflict roiling in Europe. But German spies knew otherwise. Early on a Sunday morning in July, a massive explosion ripped through lower Manhattan and Jersey, shattering windows for dozens of blocks and killing four people. German agents had ignited 2 million tons of American munitions stowed in a railroad for secret transport to the British. Incensed by Germany’s provocations, the US finally declared war in 1917 and Congress quickly passed three new laws that greatly expanded the wartime powers of the young Bureau of Investigation: the Selective Service Act, the Espionage Act and the Sabotage Act.

When President Woodrow Wilson signed the Selective Service Act, he created the first mandatory conscription, or draft, in America. The Bureau was charged with pursuing draft dodgers and identifying ‘enemy aliens’ - suspicious German citizens living on American soil. With the Espionage Act, the Bureau’s agents entered the counter-spy game. In a famous case, the New York office of the Bureau received word that the German Embassy had stashed top-secret documents in the Swiss Consulate to avoid capture by the US military. Rather than raid the Swiss offices in broad daylight, the local Bureau chief, Charles DeWoody, staged a covert series of night-time break-ins.

When Bureau agents located the cache of documents, they were sealed in boxes with colour-coded tape, ropes and wax seals. Each night, the agents would peel back the tape on a single box, carefully remove the ropes and seals, swape a few of the most interesting documents, then meticulously return the boxes to their original condition. After months of covert work, they delivered thousands of pages of classified German documents to the Justice Department, where translators uncovered critical intelligence like clues to Germany’s coded spy transmissions and its complicated system for transporting war materials under neutral flags.

When the war ended in Europe, a new battle began on American soil. The Bolshevik Revolution in Russia spawned a legion of communist and anarchist sympathisers in the United States. In April 1919, a gang of Italian anarchists attempted to mail at least 36 packages stuffed with dynamite to some of America’s most prominent politicians and judges. One package blew off the hands of an unfortunate housekeeper who answered the door for US Senator Thomas Hardwick. Luckily, most of the dynamite-laden packages were never delivered - due to ‘insufficient postage’.

June 1919 brought more explosions in eight American cities, including a failed suicide bombing in front of the attorney general’s home in Washington DC (the blast blew out the windows across the street at the residence of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, who was then assistant secretary of the US Navy, and his wife, Eleanor). The Department of Justice suspected that Moscow was funding anarchist terrorists in America, and determined to put its best men on the task of rooting out ‘Reds’ and other radical elements. A young J Edgar Hoover, the man whose 48-year career as director of the FBI would define the institution for generations, was named the chief of the Justice Department’s newly minted Radical Division.

Hoover proved more than up to the task. Assembling a crack team of Bureau agents and undercover informers, Hoover quickly gathered secret files on more than 60,000 individuals suspected of communist and anarchist sympathies. Using the powers granted to the federal government by the broad Immigration Act of 1918, Hoover and congressional supporters won the deportation of Emma Goldman, the public face of American anarchy, whose writings had inspired the young assassin Leon Czolgosz. The Bureau also orchestrated raids on the American Socialist Party and the Union of Russian Workers. In December 1919, Goldman and a boatload of other convicted radicals were shipped to Russia on an ocean liner nicknamed the Red Ark by the press.

Hoover’s boss in the Justice Department, and his closest collaborator in extinguishing the Red menace, was Attorney General Alexander Mitchell Palmer. Palmer, who had his sights set on the White House, was the same attorney general whose home was almost destroyed by an anarchist suicide bomber. Empowered by broad immigration law and emboldened by Palmer, Hoover orchestrated a co-ordinated series of raids in the week after New Year’s Day 1920. In just two nights, Bureau agents arrested more than 2,500 suspected communists. Over the next week, thousands of legal aliens were swept up in the so-called ‘Palmer Raids’. "The Bolshevik Revolution in Russia spawned a legion of communist and anarchist sympathisers in the USA"
The birth of the FBI

1870
Congress authorises the creation of the Department of Justice (DOJ) to detect and investigate crimes against the USA.

14 September 1901
Theodore Roosevelt is sworn in as president of the United States, vowing to root out the anarchist elements behind the assassination of his predecessor, McKinley.

May 1908
Roosevelt orders Attorney General Charles Bonaparte to assemble a team of investigators to pursue corporate criminals. The US Congress rejects Bonaparte's request to fund the force, against the idea that it would be authorised to spy on Americans.

26 July 1908
While Congress is on vacation, Bonaparte issues a one-page memo announcing the creation of a special force of full-time investigators bought with DOJ expense fund money.

1908
Roosevelt orders Attorney General Charles Bonaparte to assemble a team of investigators to pursue corporate criminals. The US Congress rejects Bonaparte's request to fund the force, against the idea that it would be authorised to spy on Americans.

26 July 1908
While Congress is on vacation, Bonaparte issues a one-page memo announcing the creation of a special force of full-time investigators bought with DOJ expense fund money.

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15 June 1917
Congress passes the Espionage Act, affording the Bureau significantly broader powers in seeking out foreign spies and subversives potentially plotting against the US.

15 June 1917
J Edgar Hoover is hired by the Department of Justice as a filing clerk after an admirable stint in the Library of Congress.

6 April 1917
The USA enters World War I. President Woodrow Wilson imbues the Bureau of Investigation with new powers, including the detention of suspected 'enemy aliens'.

25 June 1910
Congress passes the Mann 'White Slavery' Act, giving the fledgling Bureau its first meaningful jurisdiction for federal crimes.

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March 1909
The special force of investigators is named the Bureau of Investigation by Bonaparte's successor, Attorney General George Wickersham.

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15 December 1919
The Bureau issues its first wanted poster for a soldier named William Bishop. Agent Frank Burke cables the first identification order (IO) to help apprehend him.

16 May 1918
Congress enacts the Sedition Act, outlawing 'disloyal, profane, scurrilous or abusive language' directed at the US government. The law gives the FBI free rein to crack down on communist sympathisers.

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12 May 1918
Congress enacts the Sedition Act, outlawing 'disloyal, profane, scurrilous or abusive language' directed at the US government. The law gives the FBI free rein to crack down on communist sympathisers.

June 1933
With the Prohibition over, Hoover asks Congress to rename the Division of Investigation to avoid confusion with other federal agencies. They settle on Federal Bureau of Investigation.

11 October 1925
Special Agent Edwin Shanahan, while pursuing car thief Martin James Durkin, is shot by the suspect, becoming the first agent of the Bureau of Investigation to be killed in the line of duty.

22 March 1935
President Franklin Roosevelt reorganises the Department of Justice and renames the Bureau the Division of Investigation – a combination of the Bureau of Investigation and the Bureau of Prohibition, still in effect at the time.

14 September 1901
Theodore Roosevelt is sworn in as president of the United States, vowing to root out the anarchist elements behind the assassination of his predecessor, McKinley.

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14 September 1901
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Hoover and Palmer truly believed they were protecting America from a revolutionary menace in its own backyard. Palmer openly warned of massive terrorist acts corresponding with May Day 1920. But as 1 May came and went without incident, and reports of false arrests during the Palmer Raids began to surface, Palmer and Hoover were called to task by Congress. Palmer’s political aspirations were quickly snuffed and the young Bureau learned a lesson about sacrificing civil liberties for security.

The 1920s brought increasing criticism and public distrust of the Bureau of Investigation. The Bureau’s agents were charged with enforcing Prohibition, a wildly unpopular law in many circles. Then there were concerns that the Bureau was nothing more than America’s ‘secret police’ intent on suppressing political dissent more than upholding the law. The Bureau further sullied its reputation by spying on congressmen who had exposed the Teapot Dome Scandal – an ugly example of government corruption leading all the way up to the presidency. In 1924, during the aftermath of the scandal, the attorney general lost his job, as did the head of the Bureau. His replacement? None other than the 29-year-old J Edgar Hoover.

True to his name, Hoover set out to clean the Bureau ranks of incompetents and political hacks. Hoover believed in bureaucracy and meritocracy. He imposed rigorous standards for all new agents – only men between the ages of 25 and 35 need apply – submitting aspiring ‘G-men’ (government men) to a series of interviews, plus psychological and physical tests. In 1928, he launched the first formal training programme for special agents, which included a two-month intensive course. In his first five years as director, the ranks of active special agents thinned from 441 to 339 as Hoover built his ideal investigative force.

From the start, Hoover wanted to employ the latest scientific techniques in Bureau investigations. The first big step came with the consolidation of the nation’s fingerprinting records under the Bureau’s new Identification Division (Ident). The new division assumed responsibility for matching fingerprints from every crime scene in America with the centralised archive. In 1936, Ident managed more than 100,000 fingerprint cards on file. By 1946, Ident grew so large - its archives containing more than 100 million sets of fingerprints - that it was moved to a federal armoury the size of an aircraft hangar.

Hoover was also instrumental in creating the FBI Lab in 1932 – one of the first forensic crime labs in the country. For its first year or so, the FBI Lab was staffed by one man: Special Agent Charles Appel, an expert in handwriting analysis. Under Hoover’s direction, Appel received more training from the Scientific Crime Detection Laboratory in Chicago in the latest forensic techniques like serology (study of blood and other bodily fluids), toxicology, moulage (for taking plaster cast impressions), metallography and typewriter analysis. Appel’s handwriting comparisons helped to convict Bruno Richard Hauptmann of the kidnapping and murder of the Lindbergh baby, a major murder case of the 1930s.

With Hoover at the helm, the Bureau transformed from a loose band of federal lawkeepers into a highly trained, highly secretive army of well-educated, well-armed G-men. In the 1930s, the Bureau would chase down – and gun down – notorious gangsters like John Dillinger and Bonnie and Clyde, and also earn itself a new name: the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI).

Today, 105 years after its controversial founding, the FBI is the top law enforcement agency in America, and the most technologically advanced investigative unit in the world.
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BABYLON: THE LOST CIVILISATION

Now lost to the sands of time, Babylon was once the largest and most awe-inspiring city in the world, but how did this Mesopotamian metropolis fall from such glory?

Written by Robert Jones

Babylon! The most famous of cities. The centre of civilisation. The majestic home of the Hanging Gardens. To imagine what it must have been like to walk the ancient city's cedar-lined roads, sail past its awesome walls on the snaking Euphrates River or ascend its mighty ziggurat tower contended by some to be the biblical Tower of Babel – that is the stuff fantasy is made of. What sights this city would have to show, what tales it would have to tell.

However, today Babylon is reduced to rubble, ruin and pitiful reconstruction in a country wracked by conflict. Suffering from years of war and total neglect, the once world-leading Mesopotamian capital is a ghost of its former self, trapped within an Iraq that has neither the resources nor the will among those in power to see this ancient hub of culture, commerce and learning excavated or maintained for future generations.

Home at one time or another to Hammurabi, Nebuchadnezzar and even Alexander the Great, Babylon was the foremost city of its age. Emerging from a small settlement that formed between the Euphrates and Tigris Rivers in the late-third millennium BCE, Babylon soon grew due to the fertile terrain and bountiful natural resources in the region into a prosperous and independent city-state under the rule of the Akkadian peoples.

And so it remained until Hammurabi became the first king of the Babylon Empire in 1792 BCE. Upon his ascension Hammurabi undertook a series of wars across Mesopotamia, winning much of the surrounding territory and establishing Babylon as the capital city. It was during this first period of the empire that Babylon was transformed into an unparalleled centre for culture and learning, with Hammurabi establishing the Code of Hammurabi – a set of laws that governed Babylonia - and pushing through the development of many civic structures.

While Hammurabi's influence would cease with his death, despite a series of later invasions - first by the Hittites and Kassites and then by the Neo-Assyrian Empire in 911 BCE - Babylon continued to grow and made ever-more scientific discoveries. As such, by the time a Neo-Babylonian Empire emerged to once again reclaim power and overthrow the Assyrian rule around 605 BCE, the stage was well and truly set for Babylon to become the most important city that Earth had ever seen.

From its striking and technically advanced architecture, through to its introduction of cutting-edge agricultural processes (such as irrigation) - not to mention its redefining developments in
“Babylon was transformed into an unparalleled centre for culture and learning”
astronomy – Babylon strived to be, and arguably reached, the pinnacle of civilisation. It prospered over several centuries and under a series of rulers – including King Nebuchadnezzar II, who built the amazing Ziggurat of Etemenanki, Ishtar Gate and, most famous of all, Babylon’s Hanging Gardens.

When the city fell into the hands of the Persian Empire in 539 BCE, while its commercial, cultural and academic qualities continued, now the city also took on a role as an administrative capital, effectively controlling the economy of a region that stretched from the shores of Asia Minor (modern-day Turkey) through to Egypt and beyond.

This would seem the natural high point for the city and indeed it was for almost 200 years. But after numerous Persian kings fought a succession of wars against the West, Babylon became increasingly taxed and militarised, leading to a decline in its prosperity by the time King Darius III came to the throne, reigning from 336-330 BCE. The once-busting canals and waterways now remained largely empty; the temples poorly maintained and the busy bazaars were muted.

However all was not lost at this point. Babylon had one last roll of the dice to rekindle its former greatness and that was, oddly enough, catalysed by another foreign invasion – that of Alexander the Great of Macedon, who took charge in 331 BCE after chasing down the fleeing Darius III, who had just defeated at the Battle of Gaugamela. Alexander, far from the conquering general, took the city but soon went about a renovation campaign to rebuild Babylon. And it might have worked too, if it were not for Alexander’s untimely death in 323 BCE. A period of intense warfare then began between his successors and, by 275 BCE, the constant fighting in the region had become so fierce that the city was all but abandoned, with most of its population migrating to the city of Seleucia in the north. From this point Babylon never really recovered, becoming ever-more run down until it was reclaimed by the desert.

Today, the once mighty city is a buried ruin, with barely any sign of its former glory evident amid its dusty alleys and crumbling structures. Whether or not this will always be its fate, only time will tell. One thing is clear though – Babylon was one of the greatest cities the world has ever known.

TOUR OF BABYLON

Ishtar Gate
Dedicated to the Mesopotamian deity Ishtar – goddess of love, war and sex – the Ishtar Gate was one of Babylon’s most impressive structures. Built around 575 BCE, the gate led into the inner city of Babylon, and was built from glazed, coloured bricks and cedar wood.

Temple of Nin Makh
Among the most important of Mesopotamia’s goddesses of birth and fertility, Nin Makh had a large temple dedicated to her close to the Ishtar Gate and accessible by the Processional Way. Babylonians would refer to Nin Makh as ‘Mother’.

Processional Way
With its main axis parallel to the Euphrates, the Processional Way ran for over half a mile and connected many of Babylon’s most important buildings and temples with a road made from burned bricks and shaped stones laid in bituminous mortar.

Walls of Babylon
At one time also considered an Ancient Wonder of the World, Babylon’s many miles of inner and outer walls were considered impregnable at the time. And no wonder too, as classical geographer Strabo noted the inner walls reached up to 27m (90ft) high.

Rise of the New Babylonian Empire
A power that stretched from Asia Minor to northern Africa

From 626 to 539 BCE the history of Mesopotamia was dominated by the Neo-Babylonian Empire, which saw the city consolidate much of the region’s power. Prior to this Babylon had been part of the Assyrian Empire, but with its collapse, the city and its new rulers were left to reap the benefits. As such, for almost 100 years Babylon entered a golden age that would see society, urban life and culture flourish under the now-freed Babylonian economy. This non-violent advancement, partnered with select tactical military strikes into Assyria, saw the central Babylon government control an area that stretched from the Mediterranean Sea right through to the Persian Gulf.
Bazaar
A buzzing hive of traders and produce, Babylon's market was one of the most impressive on the planet. From ceramics produced on potters' wheels to tapestries woven on state-of-the-art looms, everything was available here.

Palace of Nebuchadnezzar
A grand central complex of buildings including a throne room, royal quarters, selection of temples, ziggurat and series of administrative rooms, the Palace of Nebuchadnezzar dominated central Babylon and only the city's highest ranking officials and aristocrats would have been allowed to enter it.

Ziggurat
Impossible to miss, the 91m (299ft) high Ziggurat of Etemenanki had seven storeys and was topped with a temple shrine; some argue it is the Tower of Babel mentioned in the Bible. According to its builder, Nebuchadnezzar II, the tower was 'completed with silver, gold, other metals, stone, enamelled bricks, fir and pine'.

Esagila Temple
Dedicated to the deity Marduk, the Esagila – which comes from the Sumerian name for 'temple' – sat near the ziggurat and consisted of a complex of three courtyards and an inner sanctum and shrine adorned with statues.

Hanging Gardens
Believed to have been built under the rule of King Nebuchadnezzar II, the world-famous Hanging Gardens of Babylon were a stand-out feature, demonstrating unrivalled technological and cultural knowledge.

Euphrates River
A key life source of Babylon and the surrounding region, the Euphrates River split the city in two, with a series of ports and canals extending into the city. The wares of Babylonian craftsmen were carried upon the Euphrates far and wide.

Alexander's Great metropolis
Following Alexander the Great's victory over king of the Persian Empire, Darius III, at the Battle of Gaugamela in 331 BCE, Babylon was left unprotected from a Hellenistic advance that would not cease until it reached India. By October of that year Alexander and his army had reached Babylon and – after ordering his men not to enter or pillage any of the residents' houses – he swiftly assumed governance of the great metropolis.

And so began what historical documents imply were the last prosperous decades of Babylon. Alexander realised immediately the strengths of the city and encouraged both trade and learning, while ordering the start of many civic building projects. He also pushed for the sharing of Greek and Persian culture and customs, he himself starting to wear elements of Persian dress. Through this cultural interchange many scientific breakthroughs, from agriculture to astronomy, were fed back to the West.

Unfortunately, with Alexander's unexpected death in the Palace of Nebuchadnezzar II in June 323 BCE, much of this advancement slowed and then petered out altogether, with a 40-year war between Alexander's potential successors heralding the end of one of the greatest ever cities.
Babylon: the lost civilisation

DID THE HANGING GARDENS EXIST?

Described with majesty and awe in many historical texts, the Hanging Gardens of Babylon were said to be one of humanity’s greatest achievements. They were a multi-tiered, irrigated paradise and in many ways they epitomised the core values of Babylon: beauty, wealth and engineering prowess.

But what if they never even existed? After all, while the Hanging Gardens are mentioned in numerous later texts, no documents from the time have identified them. What’s more, ‘Father of History’ Herodotus does not mention them at all in his histories, despite visiting the city and describing many of its other features in detail. Surely one of the Seven Wonders would have warranted a line or two? As a result, today debate rages fiercely over whether or not these legendary gardens were real.

Some academics consider them pure myth; others place them in Babylon built by Neo-Babylonian King Nebuchadnezzar II; while others still think the gardens were actually built by Assyrian king Sennacherib (704-681 BCE) in his capital city Nineveh. Unfortunately, while much of the region today remains overrun by conflict, excavation work to pin down if the Hanging Gardens did once exist is not possible.

WHAT DID BABYLON EVER DO FOR US?

Mathematics
The Babylonians, along with Mesopotamia as a whole, introduced the concept of a base number system, with the civilisation using base 60 to divide time (60-second minute, 60-minute hour, etc) – something that we still use to this day. They also spearheaded the use of geometric shapes and algebra – the latter appearing in their detailed city account records.

Astronomy
No other city in the world advanced astronomy like Babylon. Using their keen grasp of mathematics, Babylonian scholars discovered how to track the movements of planets and stars, as well as discerning the phases of the Moon, allowing them to create the very first calendar. Today, all calendars are derived from this original, 12 lunar month calendar.

Medicine
Babylonian medicine was, for centuries, among the most advanced on Earth. By introducing the concept of medical history, physicians soon learned how to identify illnesses and develop crude pills, pastes and bandages to treat them. Indeed, the Diagnostic Handbook from this time contained a list of medical symptoms and corresponding remedies.

Technology
Irrigation systems, weaving looms and metallurgy (science of metals) were all greatly developed in Babylon – the former supposedly used to keep the famed Hanging Gardens lush. Levelling and measuring instruments were also invented, helping to construct Babylon’s many complex buildings and temples.
What does the future hold for All About History?

NEXT ISSUE

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HE GREAT WAR?

led to World War I
What caused the Great War?

1 February 1864

PRINCE EDWARD NURSES A GRUDGE

British foreign policy is redefined after the Prussian invasion of Denmark

Prussia and Austria's devastating seizure of the ethnically mixed territories of Schleswig and Holstein, which separated Denmark from what is now Germany, shocked the young British Prince Edward - the future King Edward VII - who was only months into his marriage to Alexandra of Denmark. The pair openly supported the Danes in the conflict in spite of an increasingly pro-German Queen Victoria.

This conflict, the Second Schleswig War - coupled with his cold relationship with his mother - formed the bedrock of Edward VII's foreign policy, and he cultivated a staunchly pro-French and anti-German clique that would survive in government long after his death in 1910. Under Edward VII's influence, the Royal Navy was reformed and modernised to counter the growing German navy, and Britain's aloof isolation slipped away in favour of treaties with France and Russia that would one day become the Triple Entente, dragging the United Kingdom and its empire into war.

19 July 1870

Germany unites at France's expense

Believing "a Franco-Prussian War must take place before a united Germany was formed", Otto von Bismarck goaded France into attacking. The French defeat brought down the Second French Empire of Napoleon III - the monarch was captured along with the remainder of his army - and a vast Prussian occupation of huge swathes of France until war reparations were paid.

This humiliation, along with the annexation of the valuable and heavily industrialised Alsace-Lorraine border region became a huge national tragedy. It remained at the heart of French culture in the run-up to World War I, as foreign affairs revolved around preparing for a new conflict with Germany, and public opinion called for the return of the lost provinces. In the aftermath of the Franco-Prussian War, the North German Confederation was dissolved and replaced by a unified German Empire, led by Kaiser Wilhelm I and Chancellor Von Bismarck, while the French Third Republic formed in Paris.

8 February 1867

THE OLD EMPIRE CRASHES DOWN

The Austrian Empire is replaced by the Dual Monarchy

A dispute between the traditional guiding hand of the Germanic states - Austria, whose Habsburg family had ruled since 1278 - and the increasingly powerful Kingdom of Prussia - under Prime Minister Otto von Bismarck and King Wilhelm I - allowed the growing rivalry between the two powers to bubble to the surface in open war.

Left weakened and with Hungary set to break away, the Austrian Empire was dissolved in favour of a cumbersome Dual Monarchy of Austria-Hungary, in which each state was governed independently and then together by a convoluted system of joint-ministers. This solution to Austria's internal instability in turn created a whole new set of stress points in the vast edifice, including Hungary's oppressive policies towards its non-Hungarian subjects, made them easy prey to Serb and Russian-sponsored agitation that would prove so toxic in Austrian-run Bosnia in 1914.

With Austria's traditional dependencies, the myriad small German principalities, now under the banner of one Prussian-dominated North German Confederation, Austria-Hungary had to look toward the Balkans and the waning Ottoman influence for opportunities to expand.
What caused the Great War?

Though Otto von Bismarck’s role in the birth of the German Empire and a renewed enmity with France left him with a reputation for belligerence, the ‘Iron Chancellor’ was a stabilising force for central Europe. He kept Germany back from the rush for colonies that would bring it into direct competition with other powers, declaring in 1876 that a war in the Balkans wouldn’t be worth “the healthy bones of a single Pomeranian musketeer”. He also signed the Reinsurance Treaty with Russia in 1887 that limited their involvement in conflicts with each other.

Wilhelm II succeeded his father, Kaiser Frederick III, with a very different set of priorities and the two clashed constantly, the toxic atmosphere in the court eventually forcing Bismarck to resign in 1890. His replacement – Leo von Caprivi – was far more in step with Wilhelm’s vision, fatally letting the Reinsurance Treaty lapse – pushing Russia towards France – in favour of a friendship with Britain that would never come to fruition, leaving Germany isolated in Europe by 1914.

German foreign policy turns belligerent as the Kaiser takes over

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France and Russia form a modern military alliance

A less likely love affair it would be difficult to imagine: democratic republican France and archaic autocratic imperial Russia cozy up despite public outcry in both countries.

France felt encircled by Britain and Germany who were enjoying a rare cosiness at this point, while likewise Russia saw itself threatened by the British Empire in central Asia, and the Far East, and by Germany’s allies Austria-Hungary in Europe.

Where past treaties were agreements between governments designed to keep them from interfering in each other’s business, this was primarily a military pact with a guaranteed military response if the other was attacked.

With no room for ambiguity, the Franco-Russian Alliance was the first of many that would bind the military powers of Europe together like mountain climbers, just waiting for one to fall and the rest to go tumbling after.

The scramble for Africa reached crisis point as France and Britain coveted control of the Nile to link up their African colonies. France especially felt threatened by Britain’s occupation of Egypt in 1882 and quickly dispatched a small force to Fashoda (now Kodok in south Sudan) where the lines of both powers’ empires intersected.

After a daring 14-month trek across Africa, the French force seized Fashoda on 10 July 1898, however reinforcements turned back, and a flotilla of British gunboats led by imperialism’s posterboy, Horatio Herbert Kitchener, arrived at the isolated fort – both sides politely insisting on their right to be there, and rather nobly agreeing to fly British, French and Egyptian flags over the fort in compromise. At home, meanwhile, talk of war gripped both parliaments – only when it looked as though victory would hinge on sea-power, putting the lighter, faster French fleet at the mercy of the heavier British one, did the French withdraw and an official boundary was agreed between the two powers.

The normalisation of British and French relations after the Fashoda Incident, and the clear demarcation of influence, relieved the constant pressure between the two to an extent, setting them off from hundreds of years of semi-regular bloodshed on a new course towards alliance.
What caused the Great War?

In a scandal that shocked all of Europe, Serbia’s deeply unpopular and pro-Austrian king Alexander Obrenović and his wife were murdered by a cabal of army officers who forced their way into the palace and rousted the royal couple from their hiding place. Perpetrated by the Black Hand, a radical nationalist secret society dedicated to absorbing ‘Serb’ lands (whether Bosnian, Macedonians or Croatians liked it or not) from the rule of the Austro-Hungarian and Ottoman Empires, the Black Hand were already so entrenched in Serbia’s powerful military that the new government refused all foreign diplomatic pressure to have them arrested for fear they’d be the next rulers to be brutally murdered. One of the key conspirators - Dragutin ‘Apis’ Dimitrijević - would later become the leader of the Black Hand and Serbia’s head of military intelligence - a powerful combination that would allow him to organise a failed attempt on the life of Austro-Hungarian Emperor Franz Josef in 1911, and a more successful and infamous attack on Franz Ferdinand three years later.

Austro-Serbian friendship dies with Serb king at hands of secret society

Keen to test the extent of France and Britain’s Entente Cordiale – signed 8 April 1904 and putting an end to colonial rivalry in Africa and Asia – Wilhelm II arrives in Tangier to deliver a speech in favour of Moroccan independence – much to the chagrin of France, who planned to take over Morocco as a protectorate. The Kaiser expected to use the ensuing conference to resolve the situation as an opportunity to magnanimously grant France limited control, bringing them closer to Germany and isolating Britain, but to his surprise British foreign secretary, Sir Edward Grey, backed the French in the strongest possible terms, and it’s Germany that, once again, came away isolated. The Tangier Crisis paved the way for the Agadir Crisis in 1911, which despite higher stakes - a German gunship limited control, and French and Spanish troop deployments on Morocco’s streets - the German aims were the same, and so were the results. Franco-British military dependency increased, as did the French hold on Morocco and Germany’s political encirclement.

Imperial Russia’s colonial ambitions in Asia finally overreached themselves, and the Japanese launched a devastating night attack on 8 February 1904 against the fleet anchored at Port Arthur (now Lüshunkou). This blow to Russia not only brought the Tsarist autocracy to the brink with the Revolution of 1905, but forced Russia to look to the west to expand its influence. The factions in the imperial court fixated on increasing Russia’s influence over the Slavic and Orthodox Christian nationalities were strengthened, and foreign policy became increasingly fixed on Bulgaria and Serbia especially. The desire to gain control over the Turkish Straits which would allow the Russian fleet in the Black Sea access to the Mediterranean also grew.

Austro-Hungarian troops had been in the Ottoman province of Bosnia and Herzegovina since 1878 running it in all but name. In a series of letters and a six-hour secret meeting, Russian foreign minister, Alexander Izvolsky, and Austro-Hungarian foreign minister, Alois Aehrenthal, agreed a revision to the treaty of 1878, allowing Austria-Hungary full control of Bosnia. When the Austrians announced their intent Izvolsky acted as outraged as the rest of Europe’s political movers and shakers (but not nearly as outraged as Serbia) and only when Vienna threatened to release secret records proving Izvolsky’s duplicity did Russia back down and force Serbia to accept the annexation.

This affair prompted a shift in the direction of Serbian nationalism and public outrage that had so far been more preoccupied with Macedonia and Kosovo. Italy, meanwhile – part of the Triple Alliance with Austria-Hungary and Germany – had been long promised territory on the Croatian coast if Austria were to take Bosnia. Affronted, the Italian government would cite this breach of trust when they joined WWI on the side of the Triple Entente in 1915.
What caused the Great War?

With both powers exhausted by boat-building fever that had formed the backbone of Britain's national self-esteem and the key German status as its equal, the war secretary, Richard Haldane, paid a secret visit to Berlin to try and halt the escalation. The balance of national egos was simply too fragile. Germany wanted a guarantee of British neutrality in any future conflict, and Britain saw its own naval superiority as something they didn't have magnanimously gifted by Germany in exchange.

As a result, Haldane returned empty handed, the naval buildup continued unabated and, more importantly, Germany pushed Britain further into a military death-grip with Russia and France.

Negotiations for a cap on boat building are rejected

Though Britain and France had carved off Egypt and Morocco from the fringes of the Ottoman Empire, Italy's sudden invasion of Libya – one of the empire's central provinces – stunned the world. The superior technology of the Italians and their use of air reconnaissance saw them quickly take key cities before becoming bogged down in guerrilla warfare and counterattacks, while the brutal naval assault on the Dodecanese - the southernmost Greek islands - bloodied the Turks and forced them on the defensive.

While it kicked off a chain reaction (goaded on by the Russian ambassador to Belgrade) in the Balkans that led to the First Balkan War, the Italian seizure of Libya demonstrated a shift in Italy's foreign relations away from its traditional allies. Rather than consult its Triple Alliance partners Germany and Austria-Hungary – both invested in the integrity of the Ottoman Empire – they cleared the campaign with France and Britain beforehand instead.

Voted in on a wave of nationalism following the Agadir Crisis in July 1911, hardline anti-German prime minister Raymond Poincaré presided over a lurch to the right. Made president the following year he consolidated control of foreign policy and the Higher Council of War, and dispatched veteran statesman Théophile Delcassé - dubbed “the most dangerous man for Germany in France” by Wilhelm II – as ambassador to Russia to better co-ordinate Franco-Russian military strategy.

As Poincaré's government prepared for war he also made it more likely, telling Russian ambassador, Alexander Izvolsky, that any conflict with Austria-Hungary arising from the First Balkan War would have France's backing. The hawks in the French government calculated that not only would a war over the Balkans be the surest guarantee that Russia would commit all of its forces to the field, but an Austro-Hungarian invasion of Serbia would bog down the Dual Monarchy, leaving the allies free to tackle Germany.
What caused the Great War?

30 September 1912

RUSSIA FLEXES ITS MILITARY MUSCLE

As the First Balkan War gets underway, Russia points its guns towards Austria

With the Balkan League of Serbia, Bulgaria, Greece and Montenegro gearing up to snatch territory from the Ottoman Turks in the wake of Italy's invasion of Ottoman-held Libya the year before, their great protector - Russia - made its stance clear.

If Austria-Hungary was alarmed by this potential shakeup of the borders, the rapid mobilisation of 50,000-60,000 Russian reservists along the Polish border with Austria-Hungary alarmed them more. This was the first major aggressive move by Russia against its rivals, breaking with the tradition of covert deal-breaking that would foreshadow the events of 1914, and the robust defence of Serbia that would swallow much of the planet in war.

Russian foreign minister, Sergei Sazonov, observed that were it to come to conflict, “We can probably rely on the real support of France and England.”

14 December 1913

Constantinople looks to Germany

Russia’s lust for the Turkish Straits may have been pushed to second place during the Balkan wars, but they hadn’t lost sight of their long-term goal. The arrival of Otto Liman von Sanders’ German military mission on 14 December 1913 to train and command the first corps of the Ottoman army following humiliating Turkish defeats in the Balkans gave them even greater cause for concern than the presence of a British admiral doing the same job with the Ottoman navy.

Though Germany compromised heavily to keep the diplomatic crisis from boiling over (which in turn left the Germans with a sense of resentment), Russia’s lack of backing from even the ardently anti-German Delcassé was a potent reminder to Russia that, despite the Triple Entente, its allies had very different priorities.

Viewing for the first time Germany, and not just Austria-Hungary, as a direct threat to Russia’s aims, they realised that the only way they could gain control of the Turkish Straits would be against the backdrop of a wider European war, in which France and especially Britain were bound to Russia.

17 October 1913

SERBIA DIGS IN OVER ALBANIA

The Second Balkan War teaches Austria the value of brute force

The success of the Balkan League in the First Balkan War alarmed Austria-Hungary no end. Now the Second Balkan War had begun, with each combatant eager to consolidate its gains. Serbia - the chief cause of their anxiety - had won crushing victories in Macedonia and then marched into Albania and Kosovo to hold vast swathes of territory. Reports of massacres followed, and even rumours that the Austro-Hungarian consul in Prizren, Kosovo, had been abducted and castrated.

Alternately claiming ignorance of any occupation and then lying about withdrawal, Austria-Hungary grew convinced that Serbia couldn’t be bargained with and would only respond to force. On 17 October 1913, Austria-Hungary gave Serbia eight days to leave the contested territory or they would face military action, and Russia advised them to do as they were told. By 26 October Albania was free of Serbian troops and the success of the Albanian ultimatum - and the demonstration of a clear limit to Russia’s support - would lead Vienna to try and repeat the performance in 1914, with very different consequences.
What caused the Great War?

In June 1914, the Serbian prime minister, Nikola Pašić, sent a telegram to the Serbian legation in Vienna warning of a plot against Franz Ferdinand. Belgrade's man in Vienna, Jovan Jovanović, then met with the Austro-Hungarian finance minister on 21 June 1914 to warn in the vaguest terms that a visit by the Archduke could end in tragedy. That Pašić didn't communicate the threat directly to the Austro-Hungarian foreign minister, instead choosing the ultranationalist Jovanović - who is rumoured to have commanded guerrilla bands in Bosnia after annexation - who could be relied upon to tell someone further from decision making and probably tell them as unconvincingly as possible, suggests that this might have been a warning Pašić felt he needed to be seen to issue, but didn't necessarily want to be heard.

Serbian prime minister fails to warn of plot against Franz Ferdinand

On 28 June 1914 the Archduke Franz Ferdinand - nephew and heir to Emperor Franz Josef of Austria-Hungary - along with his wife - Duchess Sophie - were shot and killed while inspecting the troops in the Bosnian capital, Sarajevo. The man pulling the trigger was radicalised Bosnian-Serb student, Gavrilo Princip - an assassin from the secret military society, the Black Hand, which was equipped and supported by conspirators within the Serbian army.

Though unpopular, the Archduke's death provided all the pretext the Habsburg court needed to curtail the belligerent Serbia. Beyond the excuse it provided, Franz Ferdinand was the leader of a think-tank within the Austro-Hungarian military that advocated reorganising the empire along federal lines.

A more representative Austria-Hungary could have silenced demands for independence from the Slavic communities in the empire - many of whom were still relatively loyal to Franz Josef himself, just critical of the state - loosening Serbia's influence in Croatia and Bosnia. It also would have undermined Russia's self-proclaimed mission to 'protect' the Slavic and Orthodox Christian people. But it was never to be.

Concerned that public opinion would not back war, the Austro-Hungarian government - champing at the bit to knock the Balkan upstart down a peg or two since 1912 - prepared an ultimatum that would be near impossible for Serbia to accept. Wilhelm II in Berlin voiced his support for Austria-Hungary, advising the German ambassador to Vienna, "We must finish with the Serbs, quickly. Now or never!" Indeed the conditions were too humiliating for Serbia to agree to and, on 28 July 1914, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia. Like a chain of dominos tumbling in succession Russia, Germany, France, Britain and all their overseas dominions were plunged into war. Italy, the Ottoman Empire, Japan and eventually the US would follow, as World War I progressed.
“Wilson makes clear just how incredible a transformation this ‘third-rate naval power’ underwent”
TIGER
Under the hood of the battlefield’s apex predator

Author: Thomas Anderson  Publisher: Osprey  Price: £25

For World War II gearheads, all your Christmases really have come trundling over a French hedgerow at once in a cloud of diesel and rumbling roar of engines. Identical in format to Osprey’s previous doorstopper about the German Panther, there’s no getting around the Tiger tank’s fearsome reputation on the battlefield.

Introduced in 1942 to counter the Soviet’s surprisingly versatile T-34, the extra thick armour of the Tiger made it twice as heavy as the German army’s widely used Panzer IV and near impenetrable to the M4 Sherman - then the primary battle tank for American forces, and used heavily by the British and Commonwealth forces. The Tiger’s North African debut in support of the Afrika Corps in Tunisia effortlessly gave the Germans command of wide open spaces and forced the Allies to rush out solutions in new heavier artillery that couldn’t always be relied upon.

German military historian Thomas Anderson unearths never-before-published photographs and translates reams of instruction manuals to provide the most complete possible guide to the development, engineering and operational history of one of warfare’s most iconic fighting machines. He also uses first-hand reports to provide a more balanced account of their effectiveness as well as the effectiveness of Allied responses - a rare triumph given the mythologised status of the Tiger courtesy of both fatalistic Allied reports and triumphant Axis propaganda.

The wealth of contemporary technical drawings, range tables, lists of deployment and full analysis of the Tiger’s performance in the European, North African and the crucial Russian theatres makes it essential for any serious understanding of motorised warfare’s coming of age.

As you’d expect, there’s a high barrier to entry on a book that has the real tankies in mind; the sheer volume of data makes it a tough read, while the mechanical pacing which ploughs chronologically through the Tiger’s history, assigning equal weight to almost every phase in its use is rewarding if you’re already engaged, but feels like a bit of a slog for those more comfortable with personable accounts.

Verdict ★★★★★

If you like this try...
Tigers At The Front  Thomas L. Jentz

A luscious coffee-table tome that sacrifices specs in favour of visually spectacular spreads laid out in a photo essay style.

NAPOLEONIC HEAVY CAVALRY & DRAGOON TACTICS

Napoleonic horseplay 101

Author: Philip Haythornthwaite  Publisher: Osprey  Price: £11.99

Historical wargamers and modellers have long been in the thrall of Osprey’s lean primers, and coupling romance with innovation, the Napoleonic Wars are, without a doubt, one of the headlining events in both fields. Tackling one small corner of the conflict with Osprey’s signature cocktail of fact-driven analysis and supporting illustration, this latest text is an example of just why the Peninsular War has captured the imagination of historians and hobbyists alike. An exciting time for mounted combat as the traditionally armoured cavalry role evolved in the face of firearms, the new class of dragoons (skirmishers who dismayed to fire or fired carbines from the saddle) and the waning heavy cavalry (who focused on sabre charges but increasingly incorporated ranged weapons) are explored in detail in this title by Osprey veteran Philip Haythornthwaite.

Moving from equipment and history to everything from sabre-slashing techniques and formations, to the engagements and commanders who pioneered them, Napoleonic Heavy Cavalry & Dragoon Tactics is the definitive text it claims to be and ideal for anyone looking to stage an accurate re-enactment.

Verdict ★★★★★

THE SECRET LISTENERS

Codebreaking beyond Bletchley

Author: Sinclair McKay  Publisher: Aurum  Price: £20

The role of Bletchley Park is quite rightly at the centre of Britain’s World War II experience, but it’s by no means the beginning and the end of Britain’s long and colourful history of codebreaking. Keen to redress this, The Secret Life Of Bletchley Park author Sinclair McKay moves briskly through the adventures of Y Service. Often working in the shadow of the frontline in the likes of Murmansk, Malta, Singapore and Hong Kong, these wireless eavesdroppers risked their lives to harvest the intelligence that would be fed back to the Home Counties.

More journalist than historian - as this reprint’s pastel cover is the first warning - McKay lends the same firm delivery to The Secret Listeners that made the earlier volume such a bestseller, punctuating the whip-tight narrative with bursts of Fleming-worthy scene setting.

A fascinating, much-needed introduction by a high-profile author, but those with a dedicated interest in signals intelligence are better off looking to more comprehensive texts.

Verdict ★★★★★

Reviews
BOOKS
“Griffith's view of noble southern gents defending their way of life from freed slaves is still shocking”

Coming to HD from Eureka's award-winning Masters Of Cinema series nearly a century after its release, DW Griffith's infamous 1915 Civil War epic remains a discomfiting viewing experience.

Adapted from Thomas Dixon Jr's 1905 historical romance, The Clansman, The Birth Of A Nation paints a romanticised, idyllic view of slavery in the southern states of the US, before the north's victory in the American Civil War brings their way of life crashing down.

Using the same basic tools that would come of age two or three decades later in the industrial-scale propaganda operations of Nazi Germany and Soviet Russia, the artistry - however morally repugnant - at the heart of The Birth Of A Nation makes DW Griffith every bit as deserving of respect as Triumph Of The Will's Leni Riefenstahl and Battleship Potemkin's Sergei Eisenstein. Battlefield scenes are impressively epic, and the mythologised structure steers audience expectations as persuasively as any great adventure or epic movie from the half a century that followed.

Griffith's view of noble southern gents defending their way of life from crude anamorphic caricatures of freed slaves (blacked-up white actors) is still shocking. That his glorification of the racist Ku Klux Klan led to a direct resurgence of the organisation and its murderous practices is unforgivable, but just as the passage of time renders the revisionist history of this three-hour epic - which makes Gone With The Wind look politically correct - even more abhorrent, it increases the film's value as a historical artefact in its own right.

With the Civil War itself still in living memory - hostilities ceased in 1865, while production began on this in 1914 - the cast used genuine military surplus, and period artillery was even provided by West Point military academy, with engineers to advise on how it should be used. For those interested in military history, the first part of Birth at least is a fantastic opportunity to see uniforms authentically worn and equipment authentically deployed, while social historians will find a great deal to chew over in how divided the attitudes of early-20th-century America were toward such a key period in the foundation of modern America. Of particular interest is how Birth reflects the theories of the Dunning School, which persisted until the 1950s, depicting Abraham Lincoln as a friend of the Confederacy - 'the Great Heart', according to Birth - whose death prevented any reasonable reconciliation, and set the country off on the 'failed' integration of African-Americans into white American society.

Outside of The Birth Of A Nation, it's difficult to pin DW Griffith's ideology down. The anti-censorship disclaimer that opens the film came from its second run as a reaction to the accusations of racism, and suggests DW Griffith's position was to defend the bigotry of his creation with a shield of artistic freedom. However, Birth was followed in 1916 by his second great epic - Intolerance - which told the story of prejudice through the years, and later in his career by the still affecting Broken Blossoms, depicting in 1919 cinema's first interracial love story between a white American and a Chinese immigrant at a time when America was in the grip of 'Yellow Peril' hysteria.

The Birth Of A Nation then is perhaps the perfect case study for its awkward pioneer and his compelling and controversial career - beautiful and ugly in equal measure, and similarly grossly stupid and curiously informative too.

**Verdict ★★★★★**

**If you like this try...**

This 1988 dramatic retelling of the murder of three civil rights workers in 1964 by the Ku Klux Klan is a perfect counterpoint to this.

---

Henry B Walthall plays Confederate officer Ben Cameron
AQUILA children's magazine is perfect for lively 8-12 year olds who are always asking questions. Using a fun mix of science, arts and general knowledge, AQUILA will capture children's interest as they learn about the world. The magazine will also nudge their awareness in the right direction with thought-provoking articles that include philosophy and health.

Sure to ignite bright sparks!

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Claire and Lee Arnold share the tale of how their grandfather, Jack Arnold, outwitted prison guards and the SS to escape to Russia and then home to Britain.

Born Douglas John Arnold on 5 August 1919 in Bournemouth, our grandfather was known as Jack to friends and family. Although he passed away when we were very young, our father, Martyn Arnold, has told us many stories about him and has a collection of photographs and letters.

Grandad Jack was a Royal Marine and served in World War II. In 1941 he was taken prisoner by the Germans when they invaded Crete, and taken to the prisoner of war camp known as Stalag VIII-B in Austria. He was put to work on a farm with ten others and was there for four years. On 12 July 1941, a telegram was sent to our grandfather’s parents explaining that he had been reported ‘missing’ and that there was insufficient evidence to say whether he was alive or not.

When news arrived that the Russians were advancing towards their village, the Germans ordered all prisoners of war to go on a long march into Germany. Our grandfather and five of his friends were reluctant to go and, with the help of the farmer, they found different hiding places on the farm. They hid for a week while the Germans moved out, but the Russians never arrived.

Once confident that the Germans had well and truly gone, the six men left the farm and started walking. They had to dodge the SS several times as they walked, but eventually met up with Russian soldiers. They and over 100 other prisoners of war spent 21 days on a train to Odessa, Russia, and were then shipped back home to Britain.

We’re incredibly proud of our grandfather and fascinated by the photos and letters that have been left behind and kept so well. The following is a transcript of one of the letters he sent.

11 May 1945

Just a few lines to all of you at home hoping that you are in the best of health. As for myself I am on top of the world because, after four years a prisoner of war, I am now a free man. I escaped on 30 March (Good Friday). We had orders from the German guide that the Russians were advancing...
towards our village and that we would have to be moved farther into Germany (marching). We had to take four days’ food with us which our farms had worked at supplying. Of the 11 of us that were at the camp six of us escaped and the other five did the march, as far as we know. We had different hiding places which our farmer supplied, they also gave us arms. We hid out for a week, but the Russians did not come, so we decided to go and pick them up. We were successful in doing this after dodging the Jerry SS on a number of occasions. Since that day of meeting the Russians, I and about 150 other POWs have been travelling on a train. Altogether we were 21 days on a train. We are now waiting for our ship which we expect in a few days. I’m now in Odessa in Russia at a rest camp. I have had a uniform, plenty of chocolate and cigs - also a Red Cross parcel and toilet gear. I don’t know how long it will take before I arrive home, but from what I hear it will be a matter of three weeks to a month...

Jack

Have any of your relatives ever been prisoners of war?

/AllAboutHistory
@AboutHistoryMag
Rachel Dawson
I have been researching this piece of my family history for years now, and was wondering if it would be something you’d be interested in, as it’s not a story that is overly known in Britain.

The story is of my great uncle, Thomas Mullis, who was the youngest of five brothers (my grandfather being the second eldest of the five). Thomas was only 17 when the war began in 1939 and, being the youngest, he was not obliged to sign up, but we suspect that through pride and the fact that his other brothers all joined he felt it was his duty to join the army too. So at the beginning of 1940 Thomas and his best friend, Arthur Abbotts, went to a recruiting centre for the Staffordshire regiment, lied about their ages and enlisted.

After completing basic training they were both assigned to be a part of a guard of 200 on the commandeered ex-Blue Star Line luxury passenger liner then troop carrier, the Arandora Star. The ship was to carry internees of Italian and German descent from Britain to Newfoundland, and then on to the Canadian mainland.

The ship set sail on 30 June 1940 with barbed wire around it in order to stop prisoners from jumping ship, a few heavy guns for protection, and a crew of 137 and 200 guard. There were 1,560 internees and prisoners on board when it left Liverpool, England; it didn’t have an escort.

Two days later they were sailing between Ireland and Scotland when U-boat captain [Günther] Prien spotted the Arandora Star and, although she was clearly not a warship, she was in a combat zone and he ordered a torpedo fired. It hit the bow and the ship’s fate was sealed. From that moment panic set in with all the passengers piling on to the deck and soldiers ripping at the barbed wire with their bayonets and launching the lifeboats.

As the ship began to sink boats were physically thrown in and people jumped to them. A lot of the Italian prisoners wouldn’t get off the boat as they thought that they were safer on the ship. This tragedy claimed 486 Italian internees and 173 Germans; the rest of the casualties came from the crew and 37 soldiers. 805 in total were killed, including my Great Uncle Tom and his friend, Arthur – they were both still just 17.

The way internees were treated changed after this – they no longer transported them but were put in camps in this country, but that was little consolation for the families of those killed. Although there are memorials to the tragedy,
Roy Jones

Having enjoyed your first issue very much I remembered we had several magazines from 1939 in the attic - one of which is pictured here. I'd like to know if any of your readers know anything about this magazine? My father, John Jones, would have been 16 and living in Grangetown, Cardiff, at the time of collecting the magazines. He went to work at Cardiff Docks and remembered how the German bombers would come over and bomb the area in WWII.

Do you recognise this mag? If so, drop us a line!

@AllAboutHistory  @AboutHistoryMag

“Years ago, Arthur Guinness bought up lots of real estate around his factory in the heart of Dublin”

Jonny O’Callaghan

This was pulled out of a friend’s garden, right in the heart of Dublin. I’m told it was a stout jar of some description, most likely containing the world-famous brew, Guinness, as the factory is just up the road from where it was discovered. Years ago, Arthur Guinness bought up lots of real estate around his factory in the heart of Dublin to provide housing for his hundreds of workers and it still owns parts of the city today. Incredibly, he got it on a 9,000-year lease! The Guinness company was noted for treating its workers very well - no doubt they celebrated this with the odd jar or two of the black stuff...

Guinness in the garden

Have you unearthed any unusual items while digging in your garden?

@AllAboutHistory  @AboutHistoryMag

hardly anyone has heard of the story of this ship and those caught up in its terrible last journey.

As for the rest of the ‘fighting Mullis family’ - as the Burton-on-Trent papers called them, as it was unusual for five of the same family to be at war - the others came home (some injured), but they never spoke about Tom. I only know through what was mentioned and, as there is no grave - just names on one or two memorials - everything I know is through extensive research, but I feel this piece of history shouldn’t be forgotten.

I hope you find this story interesting and that it’s useful to you. I would also like to say, as a lifelong history addict and now a mature university student studying the subject, how nice it is to have a magazine that doesn’t preach history but instead brings it alive. After all, history is vitally important to both our present and our future.
When you start scrutinising the details of this epic blockbuster, you can’t avoid that sinking feeling...

**WHAT THEY GOT WRONG...**

01 Though lots of scenes take place on the bow, passengers were not allowed so close to the front of the real Titanic. Also first and third-class passengers occupied completely different decks, so Rose and Jack would have struggled to meet in reality.

02 A virtual model of RMS Titanic was created for the film. Only the starboard (right) side was built and mirrored for use as the port (left) side. This means the side of the ship we see docked as the port (left) side. This means the side of the ship we see docked

03 After the ship has sunk and the lifeboats return to find survivors, we see the crewmen searching for people in the water. Though in the film they are using large torches that emit a strong white beam, flashlights of this strength and quality weren’t in mass production at the time.

04 Towards the film’s climax, crowds flock around the lifeboats. Lieutenant William Murdoch, the first officer, is shown threatening the passengers and shooting one dead before killing himself. However, there are conflicting accounts of Murdoch’s exact actions during the sinking.

05 As Rose gazes up to the sky while floating on a broken door, the star field she sees is actually wrong for the ship’s position. Astrophysicist Neil deGrasse Tyson informed James Cameron of the inaccuracy, who amended it in a re-release in 2012.
What Was It Like to Live during the Middle Ages?

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