ALL ABOUT HISTORY

Boudica vs Rome
The terrible truth behind Britain's warrior queen

THATCHER & REAGAN
Highs and lows of the Cold War power duo

DA VINCI'S DEMONS
Inside the mind of a tortured genius

AXIS OF EVIL
How World War II's deadly alliance was forged

Titanic
Kim Jong-il
History of money
Day in the life of a plague doctor
Apollo 13

The lost city of Angkor
What happened to this mighty medieval empire?

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Battle of Gallipoli
100 years since the disastrous campaign
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This year celebrates 70 years since the end of World War II, and an end to years of death and destruction. The atrocities committed by both sides are burned into the minds of those who lived to see them, but it is perhaps Hitler’s brutal treatment of ‘non-Aryans’ that appalls us most. Yet so many states chose to fight alongside him. What was it that lured world leaders to aid his evil plan? This issue we look past the pretences of friendship to find out what really drove Hitler, Mussolini and Hirohito to form the deadly Axis powers. Turn to page 44 to read the full article.

Elsewhere, on page 62 we get inside the mind of a tortured genius to discover Leonardo da Vinci’s dark secrets, from his troubled childhood to his scandalous love affairs. On page 70, historian Clive Bloom investigates Thatcher and Reagan’s turbulent relationship, while on page 54 John Man returns to uncover the lost city of Angkor.

Finally, make sure you turn to page 6 to find out how you can take part in our reader survey and be in with a chance of meeting the All About History team.

Welcome

Editor’s picks

Battle of Gallipoli
We remember the disastrous World War I campaign 100 years after it happened, and find out what really unfolded on the Turkish peninsula.

Da Vinci’s dark secrets
The Mona Lisa is known the world over, but who was the man behind her enigmatic smile? We explore the troubled life of the Renaissance genius.

Boudica vs Rome
We reveal the tragic story of Britain’s Celtic warrior queen and find out what compelled her to rebel against the almighty Roman Empire.

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Deputy Editor
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TIMES SQUARE
Decades before AC/DC filmed their video for It’s A Long Way To The Top (if You Wanna Rock ‘n’ Roll) on a truck in Melbourne, legendary jazz pianist Art Hodes and his River Boat Jazz Band promoted their benefit show on the streets of New York - on a horse-drawn cart. This photograph captures the energy of post-war USA, the epicentre of which was, and still is, Times Square in New York City.

1947

© Jordan Lloyd
Workmen excavating the world’s first underground railway using little more than picks and shovels. The idea was conceived in the 1830s, when London’s roads were already heavily congested. In 1863, the Metropolitan Railway was opened, along which ran gas-lit wooden carriages hauled by steam locomotives.

1800s
MAO'S CULTURAL REVOLUTION

A kindergarten student thrusts a spear into a straw effigy labelled ‘US bad’. In 1966, Chairman Mao ordered that China be purged of capitalism, calling upon the youth to spearhead the movement. The Red Guard was mobilised to rid the country of anyone deemed untrustworthy. In schools, textbooks were heavily censored and pupils were encouraged to openly criticise the West.

1967
Disasters

DEVASTATING ACTS OF NATURE AND HUMAN ERROR

The Great Fire of London burned for four days in September 1666, destroying the homes of 70,000 of the city’s 80,000 inhabitants.

A magnitude 7.0 earthquake and at least 52 aftershocks devastated Haiti in 2010.
After an oxygen tank exploded on board, the crew of Apollo 13 abandoned their mission but returned safely to Earth on 17 April 1970.

On 26 December 2004, an earthquake and tsunami in the Indian Ocean killed 230,000 people in 14 countries.

In 79 CE, Mount Vesuvius erupted, destroying the city of Pompeii and killing all its residents.

Soldiers with Spanish flu, which killed 50-100 million people in a three-year long epidemic, at Camp Funston, Kansas in 1918.

In 1970, the crew of Apollo 13 abandoned their mission but returned safely to Earth after an oxygen tank exploded.

After hitting an iceberg in the Atlantic on its maiden voyage, the RMS Titanic sank, taking 1,517 souls down with it.

The Black Death killed between 75 and 200 million people across the world.

The Chernobyl disaster was the worst nuclear power plant accident in history, with the surrounding area contaminated by radioactive waste to this day.

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**Disasters across history**

**Toba Catastrophe**  
**Indonesia 67,000-75,000 BCE**

Much of the discussion surrounding this catastrophic event is steeped in the realm of hypothesis. The theory is that a huge volcanic eruption at Lake Toba, Indonesia, was responsible for plunging the world into a volcanic winter. This extreme winter destroyed vegetation and food sources for mankind, causing the population to “bottleneck” and reducing the numbers to just 3,000-10,000 surviving individuals. Genetic evidence backs up the theory that humans today are descended from a very small number of breeding pairs. If accurate, this would make the Toba eruption and resulting catastrophe the closest mankind has ever come to extinction.

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**Disasters timeline**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The sinking of Helike</td>
<td>373 BCE</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>The Great city of Helike is submerged and destroyed by a tsunami caused by an earthquake. The fate of Helike is believed to be the origin of the story of the lost city of Atlantis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plague of Justinian</td>
<td>541-542</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>The Eastern Roman Empire is ravaged by one of the most devastating plagues in human history, resulting in the deaths of an estimated 25-50 million people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pompeii perishes</td>
<td>79 CE</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Mount Vesuvius erupts, spewing molten ash, pumice and sulphuric gas into the atmosphere. The citizens of nearby Pompeii perish. The extreme heat causes instant death, freezing bodies in their dying positions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death turns black</td>
<td>1348-1350</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>With a lack of medical knowledge to fight the disease, the Black Death tears across the Medieval world claiming 1.5 million people in England alone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North American smallpox epidemic</td>
<td>1492</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>As Christopher Columbus travels to America, he brings the virus with him. During the Revolutionary War, the disease reaches epidemic proportions, killing as many soldiers as the war itself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland goes hungry</td>
<td>1755</td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Potato blight devastates crops in Ireland, causing the country to sink into a horrific famine. The mass starvation prompts thousands of Irish people to emigrate, reducing the population by 20-25 per cent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The collapse of the Great Yarmouth Suspension Bridge</td>
<td>1845</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>A fire starts in the Church of the Company of Jesus in Santiago, Chile, which is packed for the Feast of the Immaculate Conception. A devastating 2,500 people die in the blaze.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Halifax Explosion</td>
<td>1917</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>The SS Mont-Blanc, packed full of explosives, collides with another ship and explodes. The nearby city of Halifax, Canada, is devastated with 2,000 killed and 9,000 injured by debris and fire.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Fidenae Amphitheatre stadium disaster**  
**Rome 27 CE**

For years the emperor Tiberius had banned gladiatorial games and when the ban was lifted, the eager public flocked to the nearest events. An entrepreneur named Attilus decided to take advantage of this and constructed an amphitheatre out of wood. But when the 50,000-strong audience amassed upon it, the stadium collapsed, killing 20,000 people and making it the worst stadium disaster in human history.

---

**Lisbon earthquake**  
**Portugal 1 November 1755**

In 1755 Lisbon was one of the most beautiful cities in the world, and on 1 November thousands of people flocked into its churches to celebrate All Saints’ Day. When the earthquake struck, the churches were among the first buildings to collapse, crushing thousands of worshippers. The earthquake almost completely destroyed the city, and those who looked to escape by sea were faced with a vicious tsunami. The death toll of the 8.5-9 magnitude quake was between 10,000 to 100,000 in Lisbon alone.
DeceMBER 1920

The real figure is likely to be as high as 12,000.

To drive in formed over the capital. Although coal, a layer of smog so thick that it was impossible of cold weather, lack of wind and excessive use of it claimed thousands of lives. Due to a combination in 1952 there was a period of air pollution so severe - even as far as the Arctic. About 500 million people were infected and it killed 50-100 million people, more than all the casualties of World War I.

1918 FLU PANDEMIC

WORLDWIDE JANUARY 1918- DECEMBER 1920

Otherwise known as Spanish Flu, as the neutral Spanish press were the first to cover it, the 1918 flu outbreak was the worst pandemic since the Black Death. The influenza pandemic was unusual as it claimed the lives of young, healthy people rather than the very young and old population that usually fall victim to flu. Because of the unhygienic conditions in the trenches of World War I, the disease rapidly spread worldwide - even as far as the Arctic.

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China floods

CHINA JULY-NOVEMBER 1931

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Of all the times and places of history to be born in, Europe during the height of the Black Death was probably the worst. The plague ravaged the continent, claiming the lives of 75-200 million people. Cities were wiped out in months and doctors were unequipped to fight its vicious and devastating symptoms. This led most trained doctors to flee, clearing the way for the plague doctors – often second-rate or young physicians trying to make a name for themselves. Although they likely did more harm than good, the image of a doctor in gown and beaked mask has become a dark symbol of a world in turmoil.

GET DRESSED
The most memorable and haunting aspect of the plague doctor was their garb. The outfit was designed to cover the wearer from head to toe, so that no skin was exposed. Plague doctors wore gowns that were covered in wax as well as leather gloves and masks with glass eye openings. Some also wore a beak, which would be filled with aromatic items such as herbs, dried flowers and spices, believed to protect the wearer from the bad smells thought to cause the plague.

EXAMINE PATIENTS
Plague doctors were responsible for examining people suspected of contracting the plague. Symptoms often included swollen lymph nodes called buboes in the groin, neck and armpits that oozed pus, fever and vomiting blood. In order to avoid contact with patients during examination, plague doctors would use a wooden cane, which also came in handy for pushing any of the desperate suffering souls away if they got too close.

ADMINISTER TREATMENT
Not everyone who contracted the plague died, so people were desperate to discover the magical ‘cure’. Plague doctors practised a number of peculiar and harmful remedies such as putting leeches on the buboes or giving patients lucky charms. A cure that likely accelerated death was to coat the victim in mercury and bake them in an oven.

How do we know this?
Some of the most startling and memorable descriptions of the Black Death and those who treated it come from those who lived through it. Many of the writers of the period such as Giovanni Boccaccio, Lodewijk Heyligen and Samuel Pepys recorded their experiences in diaries and letters that offer a fascinating and horrific glimpse into history. The Black Death by Philip Ziegler offers a full and comprehensive study of the plague, from its origins to the various remedies of the period, supported by contemporary literature. Although it masquerades as fiction, Daniel Defoe’s A Journal Of The Plague Year builds upon real-life accounts 60 years after the plague ravaged London, to create a truly chilling eyewitness-style account of the terror.
The beak doctor mask or ‘Medico della peste’ is now one of the distinctive masks worn during the Carnival of Venice.

**Offer Additional Treatments**

The plague could strike anyone - regardless of how rich or poor they were, and some of the more corrupt plague doctors were eager to exploit this. Some families were willing to try absolutely anything if they thought it would cure their loved one, and dishonest docs would sell their ‘cures’ at high prices. One example of such a cure was ‘plague water’, which apparently contained frogs’ legs and powdered unicorn horn.

**Do Paperwork**

Just like doctors today, the vast majority of the plague doctors’ time was taken up by filling out paperwork. As they were officially hired as public servants by the town, the doctors’ main task was to record the number of deaths caused by the plague in public records. They were also called upon to testify and witness the signing of wills, not only for those who were dying but for those who had already passed as well.

**Perform an Autopsy**

The people of Medieval Europe were desperate to rid themselves of the devastating plague and so were willing to waive certain rules in order to do so. Although autopsies were generally forbidden at the time, plague doctors were allowed to perform them on plague victims. It was hoped that the procedures would help the doctors to determine the exact cause of death and hopefully lead to the discovery of a cure.

**Receive Salary**

The plague doctors were officially hired by the city officials, and it was from the city that they received their salaries. Because of the lack of qualified medical doctors due to the outbreak, plague doctors often received an inflated salary. For example, when Matteo fu Angelo was hired by the city of Orvieto, they paid him four times the normal rate of a doctor. Despite this, some plague doctors would still sneakily charge their patients extra for special treatments.

**Catch the Plague**

Due to their close contact with plague victims, the ‘beak doctors’ were often placed under quarantine, unable to interact with the general public for a set period of time. For example, some doctors were isolated for up to 40 days at a time. This was for good reason – unsurprisingly, the vast majority of plague doctors caught the plague from their patients and soon perished themselves. During the outbreak in Venice, 18 plague doctors were hired for the city by officials. Less than a year later, just one remained.
Hall of Fame

THE GOOD, THE BAD & THE MISUNDERSTOOD

These men and women found themselves at the epicentre of some of the most famous disasters in history

Erin Brockovich

AMERICAN 22 JUNE 1960

Despite having no formal education in law, Brockovich was instrumental in exposing a scandal concerning the Pacific Gas & Electric Company. The company had knowingly contaminated the groundwater in the town of Hinkley, California, with hexavalent chromium since 1952. The dangerous substance was linked to cancer cases and other health issues in the town. Due to Brockovich's determination in exposing the contamination, a $333 million (£218 million) settlement was awarded on behalf of Hinkley residents.

Max Pruss

PRUSSIAN 13 SEPTEMBER 1891-28 NOVEMBER 1960

After 20 years of experience on airships, Max Pruss was appointed to the Hindenberg Zeppelin. On the day of the ill-fated flight he was serving as commanding captain. While Pruss was in command the airship caught fire and was destroyed, killing 36 people in the process. Years of investigation went into determining the reason for the disaster and Pruss was blamed, saying his orders for sharp turns when landing caused gas to leak. Pruss maintained he was not at fault and that he acted heroically throughout the crash, carrying crewmembers out of the wreckage and searching for survivors so fervently that he had to be restrained.

Sir Thomas Bouch

BRITISH 1822-1880

Bouch rose to fame as manager of the Edinburgh and Northern Railway and went on to become a consulting engineer. His reputation reached its peak when he was knighted after completing the first Tay Railway Bridge. However, on 28 December 1879, the bridge collapsed during a violent storm. A train was travelling over the bridge at the time and all aboard perished. The responsibility for the disaster was placed firmly on Bouch, as when constructing the bridge, he used lattice girders supported by iron piers, which were narrow and weak. A second bridge was built to replace the first, but Bouch's reputation was in tatters and he died within the year.

Charles II

ENGLISH 29 MAY 1630- 6 FEBRUARY 1685

Prior to the Great Fire of London, Charles II had warned the Lord Mayor of London of the dangers of the narrow streets and timber houses, but his wishes to tear them down were ignored. When the fire broke out, the king immediately ordered the houses to be torn down and travelled to the site at great personal risk. Charles gave orders and even got involved himself, armed with a bucket and spade. By the end he was covered in soot, but his bravery turned him into a hero in the eyes of his citizens.
Disasters

THOMAS ANDREWS
IRISH 1873-1912
Andrews was the head designer for the most infamous ship in history – the RMS Titanic. He oversaw the construction of the ship, but sadly his insistence that the ship carry 46 lifeboats was overruled. Instead, it ended up with just 20. He also suggested the ship have a double hull and watertight bulkheads up to B Deck, but again was ignored. Andrews travelled on the ship on its ill-fated maiden voyage and when it struck the iceberg, he hurriedly went to passengers’ rooms telling them to put on life vests and get to the deck. Andrews himself went down with the ship and his body was never found. Newspapers immediately hailed him as a true hero.

Galen
GREEK 130-210
In 165 the Roman Empire was plagued by a horrendous pandemic that, at its height, caused up to 2,000 deaths a day in Rome. By the end, an estimated 5 million people had fallen victim to it. This ancient pandemic is known now as the Antonine Plague, or the Plague of Galen. Galen was a physician in Rome during the outbreak and became very involved in treating the disease. Although he failed to discover a cure to the disease, now believed to be smallpox, his records of the outbreak and his work during it proved revolutionary to the world of medicine.

Tony Hayward
BRITISH 1957
The Deepwater Horizon oil spill was the largest accidental marine oil spill in history. Not only did it claim 11 lives, but it also created a host of health, economic and environmental consequences. Blame for the disaster was placed squarely on oil company BP. Hayward, as chief executive, downplayed the disaster and then made a series of controversial comments. The company was eventually found guilty of a string of charges, including manslaughter, and paid more than $4.5 billion (£3 billion) in fines. Hayward eventually resigned.

Gene Kranz
AMERICAN 17 AUGUST 1933
When the Apollo 13 spacecraft was nearing the Moon, an oxygen tank overheated and exploded. All onboard oxygen and two of the fuel cells were lost. The mission was immediately aborted and Kranz, as lead flight director, was in charge of the team responsible for getting the crew home. His team worked under extreme pressure and time restraints to bring the astronauts home safe and well. Kranz and his team received the Presidential Medal of Freedom for their efforts.

Kelvin MacKenzie
ENGLISH 22 OCTOBER 1946
On 15 April 1989, during an FA Cup football game at Hillsborough Stadium, a human crush resulted in the deaths of 96 people and injuries to 766 others. In the aftermath of the disaster, MacKenzie, as editor of The Sun, published a controversial headline that placed the blame on the fans themselves. The paper also printed graphic photographs and claimed fans had stolen from the dead, urinated on policemen and committed a host of other offences. The headlines caused widespread uproar and sales of the newspaper in Merseyside have never recovered.

It was ultimately ruled that the Hillsborough disaster occurred because of errors by the police and inadequate crowd control.

Nero
ROMAN 16 DECEMBER 37 CE-9 JUNE 68 CE
In 64 CE a fire broke out and ravaged Rome, causing widespread destruction for six days. Since then, multiple theories have emerged concerning the involvement of Emperor Nero. Some theorised he wished to destroy the city to create room for his new villa and there were reports he watched the city burn with glee, singing and playing the lyre. Although it’s impossible to confirm these claims, it seems unlikely, as the fire also destroyed his palace. Other reports say Nero rushed to the city without his guards to help fight the flames and later brought in food supplies for the refugees.

Nero ultimately blamed Christians for the Great Fire of Rome.
**A 19TH-CENTURY FIREMAN**

**HELMET**

**THE FIREFIGHTER’S PRIDE AND JOY**

The helmets were made from specially treated leather in a reinforced dome shape that ensured durability and strength. It featured an elongated rear brim, which water would run off the back of, and a high crown identifying the wearer. The brass eagle on the front was first created as a commemorative piece that quickly gained popularity.

**BEARD**

**THE ORGANIC SMOKE FILTER**

The first respiratory protection used air pumped from a bellows through a hose to a mask, but these devices were often unreliable and bulky. Instead, firemen would soak their beards in water, bite them, then breathe through them. Although the beard did act as a filter, it wouldn’t have protected them from the fire’s dangerous by-products.

**RED SHIRT**

**THE HEIGHT OF FASHION**

In the 19th century, a bright red bibbed shirt immediately identified a man as a firefighter. Often coupled with a black necktie, these shirts gave the men elevated social status and became something of a fashion statement. It was not unusual for firemen to show off their uniforms at social occasions.

**HOSE**

**A WORK IN PROGRESS**

Early firefighters used leather hoses, but these were troublesome as their sewn seams would often rupture under the pressure of the water. In the early 19th century a leather hose with seams held together by metal rivets was developed. These riveted hoses soon became the popular choice, but it was necessary to constantly wash, dry and preserve the leather.

**LEATHER BOOTS**

**THESE BOOTS WERE MADE FOR FIREFIGHTING**

These knee-high boots would often be worn by early firefighters and, like the boots worn today, were made from leather. However, unlike today, the 19th-century firefighters’ outer clothing was designed more for warmth and dryness than protection as the majority of the firefighting would take place outside the building.

**SPEAKING TRUMPET**

**THE ESSENTIAL CONDUCTING INSTRUMENT**

The 19th century was a time when many volunteer firefighting companies emerged; when these companies attended a call it attracted an excited and avid crowd. In order to be heard above the noise, engineers and officers would use brass speaking trumpets that they would yell through to relay commands to their men and keep order.
LOVELL: FRIEND & AVENGER of RICHARD III

The Last Rebel
the eagerly awaited sequel to The King's Dogge


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STAYING ALIVE IF THE COLD WAR HAD TURNED HOT BRITAIN, 1960S

The world came closest to nuclear Armageddon in the 1960s. Tensions between the superpowers of the United States and the Soviet Union reached crisis levels. As a key American ally, and a nuclear power itself, Britain faced being drawn into the conflict. The threat was real enough for the government to publish pamphlets and films on what the public should do in the event of an imminent attack. The material was in parts frank and honest about the threat, but in others optimistic about what people could use to protect themselves. Nevertheless, strategies for survival were available...

5 TYPES OF WARTIME SHELTERS

ANDERSON SHELTER
1938 BRITAIN
A garden shelter for six people. Made of curved and straight panels of corrugated steel covered over with soil and earth.

TUBE STATIONS
1939-1945 BRITAIN
Popular with Londoners due to the deep tunnels. Eventually fitted with canteens, first-aid posts and 22,000 bunk beds.

STREET COMMUNAL SHELTERS
1940 BRITAIN
Surface-level shelters of brick with concrete roofs for anyone caught outside during raids. Unpopular, however, due to frequent collapses.

MORRISON SHELTER
1941 BRITAIN
Essentially a reinforced metal table and cage for indoors. No protection against direct hits, but saved many from blasts and debris.

FALLOUT SHELTERS
1961 UNITED STATES
In the Community Fallout Shelter Program, appropriate structures (mostly with basements) were designated shelters and stocked for a two-week stay.

Avoid strategic target areas
Major cities and centres of government, such as London, Birmingham, Manchester, Edinburgh and Glasgow, will be on the enemy’s hit list, so, if you can, live somewhere else. Rural areas are more advantageous, though not one that’s close to a military airfield. Setting up home next door to a Ministry Of Defence establishment is not recommended either.

Outside and unprotected
You know the political situation is bad. If you’re outside, away from buildings, and see the telltale bright flash, get low, in a ditch or hole if possible. Roll up, knees to chest, hands over the neck, staying put for several minutes. Although ridiculed, this ‘duck and cover’ approach is the best chance you have against the initial heat and blast.
Inside, and sort of protected

The United States has a programme for organising fallout shelters, but Britain doesn’t. For someone at home on doomsday, the advice is to select a ‘fallout room’, preferably a basement. Failing that, choose a room with only one outside wall, sandbagging it if there’s time, to minimise radiation contamination. Sandbagged doors can also increase protection.

Time on your hands

If you’ve read the runes and seen which way the nuclear wind is blowing, you’re better prepared. Your basement is well stocked with food and water supplies, plus you’ve got considerable battery power to hear the radio and run the air-filtration system you’ve rigged up. You’re there for the long haul – it’s going to be at least two weeks before you can venture outside.

Serious survivors

The group of people with the best chance of survival are those members of the government, the military and the civil service assigned to the Central Government War Headquarters in Corsham, Wiltshire. Accommodating 4,000 people and able to sustain them for three months, this vast bunker complex is the seat of power in post-nuclear war Britain.

Aftermath

You’ve survived the bombs of the nuclear conflict. Months later the radioactive contamination is subsiding due to half-life decay, though some ‘hot-spots’ will remain deadly for years. Short periods of time beyond your bunker can be risked. Venturing out, you see a landscape blasted and burned back to a primordial state. Was survival worth the effort after all?

The two-time nuclear survivor

On 6 August 1945 a nuclear device exploded above the Japanese city of Hiroshima. An estimated 130,000 people died as a result. Among the survivors was Tsutomu Yamaguchi, in the city on business. He was three kilometres (1.8 miles) from the centre of the blast. Tsutomu suffered serious burns to his left side, damaged eardrums, and was temporarily blinded. He rested that night in an airraid shelter but felt well enough the next day to travel back to his home... in Nagasaki. Tsutomu was back working on 9 August 1945 when a nuclear bomb was dropped on Nagasaki. An estimated 50,000 people died in that attack. Among the surviving was, again, Tsutomu Yamaguchi. He lived until 2010, aged 93, and is recognised officially as the only person to have survived two nuclear attacks.

4 FAMOUS... NUCLEAR CRISIS

THE KOREAN WAR

1950-1953 KOREA

With USSR/China approval, communist North Korea attacked the South. General MacArthur, commanding UN forces protecting the South, advocated nuclear strikes on China, but was replaced.

BERLIN

1958-1961 EAST GERMANY

Rejected USSR ultimatums for Western forces to leave the divided city resulted in the Berlin Wall standoff, one misstep away from conflict.

CUBAN MISSILES

1962 CUBA

Soviet warships carrying nuclear-armed missiles headed for the island. The US Navy blockaded their path, threatening military action unless they turned back.

ABLE ARCHER 83

1983 WESTERN EUROPE

Preceded by recent international tensions, this ten-day NATO exercise came close to convincing the USSR that a real nuclear attack was under way.
01 BINOUCULARS COULD HAVE PREVENTED DISASTER

Frederick Fleet was the first person on board the Titanic to see the iceberg. He later testified that if he had been issued with a pair of binoculars he could have seen it sooner, describing it as “darker than darkness” on the night of the sinking. On the 100th anniversary of the disaster, binoculars were placed on his grave with the message “better late than never.”

02 There weren’t just humans on board

Everyone knows that women and children were ordered to fill the lifeboats first, but they weren’t the only ones able to get a seat. Although several lifeboats were launched less than half full, some dogs made it onto them. Of the nine dogs on board, three survived – two Pomeranians and a Pekingese.

03 It was used as Nazi propaganda

In 1943 Nazi Titanic was released. Commissioned by Joseph Goebbels, it told a highly fictionalised account of the disaster, in which a German officer spots the iceberg but is ignored. Shipowner Joseph Bruce Ismay is portrayed as a power-mad Jewish businessman ultimately responsible for the collision.

04 The voyage was plagued by disaster

A combination of unlucky circumstances doomed the Titanic. Had it set out six weeks earlier, as was originally planned, there wouldn’t have been any icebergs in its path. Once it had hit the iceberg, it sent out the wrong rocket signal for distress and the final SOS position given was also incorrect.

05 It wasn’t all luxurious

The first-class passengers were able to enjoy the finest luxuries, including a library and a swimming pool, but those in steerage weren’t so lucky. Although they could use a washbasin in their shared cabin, there were only two bathtubs, one for men and one for women, to be used by all 700 third-class passengers.
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Heroes & Villains

Kim Jong-il

Discover how the world gained its first hereditary communist leader and the impact he had on the Democratic People's Republic of Korea

Written by David Crookes

When Kim Jong-il was born on 16 February 1942 at a secret military base on Mount Paektu – North Korea's highest and most sacred mountain – the occasion was marked by a double rainbow and a bright star. Or at least that is the official version of the event. As with many aspects of North Korean life, facts are often subverted for reasons of propaganda and control. In reality, Kim Jong-il was most likely born in 1941 outside of North Korea in or close to the city of Khabarovsk in the far east of Russia, but that story would have proved rather less impressive and dramatic for a regime keen to promote a cult of personality. Kim Jong-il's father was Kim Il-sung, who at the time of his son's birth was commanding the 1st Battalion of the Soviet 88th Brigade against imperial Japanese rule over Korea. Kim Il-sung's endeavours meant he was often absent while his son was growing up. So when, in 1948, he assumed control of what became the newly established, self-reliant socialist Democratic People's Republic of Korea, it was hard for him to devote much time to family matters.

It meant Kim Jong-il had an emotionally tough childhood, made worse for the fact that his younger brother, nicknamed Shura, drowned, aged four, at the family's home in Pyongyang. A year later, on 22 September 1949, his 32-year-old mother, Kim Jong-suk, also died. By the following summer - thanks to North Korea invading South Korea on 25 June 1950 - the family, including Kim Jong-il's younger sister, fled to the safety of the Chinese mountains, remaining there for the duration of the three-year Korean War.

At school, Kim Jong-il proved himself to be a great athlete, musician and academic - a genius able to spot mistakes others failed to see. Educators would bow to his greater knowledge and change their teachings when they were 'enlightened' to the 'correct' ways. But since most of the official stories about Kim Jong-il's childhood did not emerge until he assumed the role of managing North Korea's propaganda output during the 1980s, it is difficult to ascertain the real truth. For the record, he was made chairman of the Children's Union while attending Namsan Higher Middle School in Pyongyang and he was also a member of the Democratic Youth League.

His home life continued to cause turmoil. His father married Kim Song-ae and they had two sons, Kim Pyong-il and Kim Yong-il. As is customary in Korean society, she persuaded her husband to become less affectionate toward her stepson in favour of her own children. In response, Kim Jong-il over-compensated, seeking to show loyalty to his father. He basked in the reflected glory his connections brought him and also promoted with deep devotion the 'greatness' of North Korea's leader. To remain close to his father, he decided against studying at Moscow University and enrolled at Kim Il-Sung University in Pyongyang, where he studied political economy. He also joined the Workers' Party, the official ruling group of North Korea.

As expected, he was reported to be a bright and prolific student. His body of work encompassed about 1,500 talks, speeches, letters and essays on a broad range of subjects, none of which actually appeared in print until the 1970s - a time when, incidentally, he had control over a large group of writers. Official accounts say he was a well-behaved, selfless, model student, but he enjoyed female attention, fast cars and partying and he developed a taste for fine food and alcohol. He would also bully some of his fellow students knowing no teacher would dare reprimand him.

In 1994, on his very first round of golf, Jong-il achieved 11 holes in one - at least according to official accounts from North Korea

Life in the time of the Dear Leader

Controlled media

Back then, as now, tight state controls governed the media, with all journalists being Workers' Party members. Citizens could listen to the radio and watch limited broadcasts on television, but they were fixed to state-run, pro-leadership channels managed by the Radio and Television Committee of the DPRK. Illegal tampering with them attracted harsh punishment.

Secret police

Established in 1973, North Korea's large and brutal secret police force came to number some 300,000 recruits by 1990. Initially reporting directly to Kim Il-sung and then to Kim Jong-il, it would monitor residents and official departments to ensure work was being carried out correctly and that people were not speaking against the regime.

Food shortages

The Great Famine of North Korea coincided with Kim Jong-il's rise to power following his father's death. Between 1994 and 1998, estimates of the resulting death toll from hunger-related illnesses range between 500,000 and 3 million. Many sold their clothes to buy food and defectors spoke of corpses in rivers and skeletal waifs.

Soviet-style prison camps

Most living in Pyongyang were university graduates, party members or in the bodyguard service. Beggars and disabled people were firmly banned. Political prisoners were sent to penal labour camps called Kwan-li-so where they had little food, were regularly tortured and made to complete hard, physical work.

Single-minded education

With 300 universities and thousands of secondary schools, all children were educated under Kim Jong-il as they were under his father. They were taught literacy and numeracy skills and given lessons in science, but a good bulk of the curriculum surrounded the teachings of the regime. In the late-1990s schools were ordered to have dedicated rooms for lectures about Jong-il.

North Koreans would sell their belongings to buy food during The Great Famine
Kim Jong-il was very conscious of the fact he was just 157cm (5'2'') tall. He wore 7.5cm (3in) heels to compensate.

"As expected, he was reported to be a bright and prolific student."

Jong-il remained largely out of sight, saying he disliked public speaking.
KIM JONG-IL

Graduating from university in March 1964, he was already being earmarked as Kim II-sung’s future successor. Officially, the North Korean regime said it would not be grooming Kim Jong-il for office and that his eventual rise would be purely down to his merit and intelligence. But he was given highly prized roles in the Central Committee of the Workers’ Party. He also used his influence to put his father’s name centre-stage, not least coining the word Kimilsungism, a set of principles that pointed to the self-reliance and self-sufficiency of North Korea.

Kim Jong-il’s role was to ensure the country would not deviate from the party’s ideological system. In 1973, two years after his mistress bore his first son, Kim Jong-nam, he was appointed the party secretary for organisation and guidance by the Central Committee. A year later his daughter, Kim Sul-song, was born to his wife Kim Young-sook, the same year his portrait began appearing alongside that of his father — they were removed in 1976 for reasons that have never been explained. By the late-1970s, Kim Jong-il was effectively North Korea’s co-leader and in 1980, the regime officially announced he would succeed his father.

It heralded a busy time for the son. He headed the construction industry and ordered architects to come up with grand designs for the capital of Pyongyang, although a lack of money and resources meant many of the buildings would be mere fronts, succeeding only in showing off the might of the regime. He assumed control of the party, government and military and looked after art and culture. However, he still remained largely out of sight, pointing to a dislike for public speaking. He rarely went abroad during this period, except for a visit to China in 1983.

He returned from China wanting North Korea to be open but open while remaining self-sufficient. He felt North Korea could more than match the growth being seen in South Korea. He also tossed and turned over the idea of opening the country to tourism, but he lamented: “If Pyongyang is opened up, it will be the same as calling back the forces along the border. It’s the same as being disarmed.”

In the late-1980s, relations with South Korea were deteriorating. In 1987 - the year he had a second daughter, Kim Yo-jong, born to Ko Young-hee - Jong-il was said to have ordered the bombing of Korean Air Flight 852, an act that killed all 104 civilian passengers and 11 crew on board. This was supposed to put a spanner in South Korea’s plans to host the Olympic Games in 1988, emphasising, as Kim Jong-il feared, the immense financial gulf between the countries. His battle against South Korea took instead to the streets of his country in the guise of a mass building programme, as high-rise apartments transformed the capital’s skyline.

“Under his leadership, North Korea became more outwardly aggressive”

Defining moment

Becomes party secretary
September 1973

The Central Committee of the ruling Workers’ Party appoints Jong-il as the party secretary for organisation, guidance and propaganda affairs. It is an important moment in his life, effectively making him number two and marking him as the unofficial successor to his father, Kim II-sung. As such, he begins to assume more control as he works to ensure the country does not deviate from the party’s ideological system. Reports also go through him en route to II-sung. He becomes known by the mysterious title ‘Party Centre’. The press begins referencing Jong-il using this title over his name.
By this time, Jong-il was very much the power behind the country. He became supreme commander of the People’s Army in 1991, and he was presiding over a nuclear weapons programme, which the regime publicly denied. But the economy was struggling thanks to the fall of the Soviet Union and Kim Jong-il needed to find sources of funding. The United States and North Korea agreed on a programme to dismantle Korea’s nuclear weapons in exchange for fuel, economic aid and two nuclear power reactors.

In 1994, Kim Il-sung died. His son put the country into mourning for three years and ordered punishments for those who were not showing sufficient grief. In 1997, he officially assumed his role as new leader under the title of general secretary of the Workers’ Party and chairman of the National Defence Commission. He began working to eradicate ill feeling caused by the terrible famine that blighted the country in the mid-1990s.

Under Kim Jong-il’s direct leadership, North Korea became more outwardly aggressive. The regime paraded its long-range weaponry as a show of strength and sanctioned the launch of missiles over Japan. In an attempt to foster peace in 2000, Kim Jong-il received South Korean president Kim Dae-jung in Pyongyang. It marked a new era of international relations.

The leader visited China in the early-2000s and continued to seek investment into the country. He implemented new economic measures, having been inspired by how China had managed to adapt socialist principles to a market economy. Private enterprise was being allowed in very small measures.

But North Korea remained a pariah in the world. Not only was international pressure mounting against human rights abuses, as huge prison camps were scattered across the country; but in 2001 the United States also named it as one of the countries making up the “axis of evil”. North Korea was also selling missiles to Iran and Syria.

It began producing plutonium and withdrew from the Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty. That led to talks between North Korea, Japan, South Korea, Russia and the United States aimed at scrapping Pyongyang’s nuclear weapons programme but, despite ongoing talks, in 2006 the Central News Agency reported a successful underground nuclear bomb test. This led to relations with the South souring yet again.

In 2007, there were mass floods and Pyongyang was forced to appeal for relief. South Korea sent $50 million (£32 million). Later that year, another inter-Korean summit was held with South Korean president Roh Moo-hyun, becoming the first of its leaders to step across the Demilitarised Zone. A cross-border rail link was discussed. But the following year, diplomatic efforts collapsed and South Korean officials were expelled from the joint Kaesong Industrial Park.

Around this time, speculation began to mount over Kim Jong-il’s health. He failed to attend the celebrations of the 60th anniversary of North Korea in 2008 and it was said he had suffered a stroke. Rumours swirled as to who would eventually take over, with the belief that the leader had little time left. There were hopes – and fears – that the country could collapse. But it didn’t. Kim Jong-il died from a heart attack on 17 December 2011, aged 69 and his third son, Kim Jong-un, took his place.

Defining moment
Blamed for bombing 1983

In the same year Jong-il visits China, his second mistress, Ko Young-hee, gives birth to his third son, Kim Jong-un. Jong-il is also accused of ordering North Korean commandos to bomb a South Korean delegation in the Burmese capital of Rangoon, killing 21 people including cabinet members. It is an assassination attempt against the president of South Korea, Chun Doo-hwan who is set to lay a wreath for Burma’s independence hero General Aung San. He escapes the blast only because his car is stuck in traffic, causing him to be late.

Defining moment
Jong-il takes control 8 October 1997

Following three years of mourning for Kim Il-sung, Jong-il takes over his father’s post as general secretary of the Workers’ Party of Korea until 1997. He is re-elected as chairman of the National Defence Commission the following year. The period between 1994 and 1997 is torrid for Kim Jong-il, as the economy nosedives and famine blights North Korea’s citizens. While Kim Jong-il agrees with the US to halt its nuclear programme – it later admits it continues to produce weapons – it also announces it would not abide by the armistice that halted the Korean War.

Death of Kim Il-sung
Kim Il-sung, who had led North Korea autocratically for 46 years and, with the help of his son, established a cult of personality, dies, resulting in enforced nationwide mourning.

8 July 1994

A South Korean guest
Kim Jong-il receives South Korea’s President Kim Dae-jung in Pyongyang and he appears relaxed and charismatic. Reports suggest he drinks cognac and ten glasses of wine during the meeting.

June 2000

Axis of evil

January 2002

Underground nuclear testing begins
Kim Jong-il gives the go-ahead for underground nuclear weapons tests just months after attempting to test-fire long-range missiles. South Korea starts to take a more determined, hardline approach against the North.

October 2006

Kim Jong-il dies

17 December 2011

Heroes & Villains

Kim Jong-il

KIM JONG-IL
MONEY

From the ancient art of bartering to the digital age of cyber currency, money and trade have been fundamental to society for millennia.

COINS 7TH CENTURY BCE

The first coins were used in the Kingdom of Lydia (modern-day western Turkey) about 2,700 years ago. They were made from electrum - a naturally occurring alloy of gold and silver - and had specific weights for different values. The coins had designs printed on one side, such as lions' heads, which possibly signified royalty. The use of coinage quickly spread from Lydia to Asia Minor and Greece, and from there many other countries derived similar coinage systems.

BANKNOTES 7TH CENTURY CE

Paper money was first used in China almost 1,000 years before it became commonplace elsewhere. Word spread to Europe via explorers like Marco Polo, who observed with disbelief how Chinese locals treated this currency 'as if it were actually of pure gold or silver'. In Britain, banknotes were originally issued by the Bank of England in exchange for gold at the end of the 17th century. Notes were originally handwritten specifically for the depositor, but by 1853 they were fully printed, including the phrase 'I promise to pay the bearer on demand the sum of...' that remains to this day.

CREDIT CARD 1946

The first credit cards were introduced in 1946 by banker John Biggins in Brooklyn, New York. His "Charg-It" cards could be used by customers of his bank to pay shopkeepers in the local neighbourhood. The Diners' Club scheme launched in 1950, offering the first general-purpose credit card that could be used in a selection of different restaurants and hotels. The flexibility of a 'buy now, pay later' approach proved popular, so other companies and banks across the world soon followed suit. Today, credit cards are used for over $70 billion (£45 billion) worth of transactions every year.

LIVESTOCK CA 9000 BCE

Since the dawn of humanity, people have traded goods such as food and tools on a quid-pro-quo (something for something) basis for mutual benefit. The difficulty with bartering was that it required finding someone who had what you needed when you needed it and was willing to exchange. This problem gave rise to the use of commodities - items with some intrinsic value. Livestock is believed to be the oldest commodity, with evidence of cattle being traded as early as 9000 BCE.
Through History

**PRECIOUS METALS**

**4TH-3RD MILLENNIUM BCE**

Precious metals like gold and silver have been valuable commodities for thousands of years thanks to their rarity. Even the Ancient Egyptians and Mesopotamians used standardised measures of gold and silver bars for trade. It wasn't until the advent of coinage that these metals were widely used as currency, with their worth dictated by weight and purity. Coins were originally minted by hand, either by hammering the metal against engraved dies or casting them in moulds. As technology developed and minting became industrialised, coins and bars were mass-produced with improved purity.

**BITCOIN** 2009

A currency for the digital age, Bitcoin is a virtual form of money that bypasses the middlemen - such as banks and payment service providers like PayPal - to eliminate transaction charges. The concept of digital currency emerged in 2008 in a research paper by Satoshi Nakamoto - believed to be an alias - that described how such a system would work. A year later, the Bitcoin network was created and the first Bitcoins issued. Despite safety concerns, these digital payments are becoming widely accepted.

**TRADE BEADS**

**15TH CENTURY CE**

Small glass beads were used by European explorers and colonists to trade with native populations across Africa and the Americas. In parts of the world where glassmaking was rare or non-existent, the ornate beads were highly prized by the local people, who regarded them as unusual and precious. Settlers used the beads, which were relatively cheap to produce, to buy many more valuable items such as gold or ivory, exploiting the resources of the colonies. Their role as a currency in the slave trade earned them the nickname 'slave beads'.

**SHELLS** 1200 BCE

Shells have been used as currency by many different civilisations across the world. The most commonly used pieces were the shells of small molluscs called cowry, which were particularly common in the Indian and Pacific oceans. The Chinese introduced cowry as a currency more than 3,000 years ago, and they were such an important aspect of their culture that the character for money is based on an image of a shell. Despite being difficult to counterfeit, when the natural supply of cowry in coastal regions ran low, people tried making imitation shells from other materials such as bones or horns.

**KNIFE MONEY**

**6TH CENTURY BCE**

In Ancient China, bronze replicas of familiar objects were usually exchanged as a form of money. The form of the object usually reflected an important aspect of the region it was from, for example, spade money was used in agricultural regions while knife money was used where blades were common tools. Knife money was often inscribed with words or numerals that may have indicated particular values. Others were specially engraved in commemoration of important events - such as the inauguration of a new dynasty - much like modern coins are today.

**Mansa Musa I**

**CA 1280-1337, MALIAN**

According to estimations, Emperor Musa I of Mali was the richest man in history. He amassed the modern equivalent of £258 billion from his empire’s vast supplies of gold and salt. During a pilgrimage, his procession gives out gold bars to the poor.

**Bill Gates**

**1955-PRESENT, AMERICAN**

Topping rich lists since 1995, software entrepreneur Bill Gates is the wealthiest person in the world. After dropping out of Harvard in 1975, he cofounded Microsoft and was a billionaire by 1987. Gates now works for his charitable foundation.
Naval hopes sink
A fleet of British and French warships sortied to muscle through the Dardanelles, knocking out the defensive positions on both banks with raw firepower. Yet undetected mines took a heavy toll on the ships, halting the action. A naval assault alone was not going to suffice.

Gallipoli landings
Hastily arranged amphibious landings by the Allied troops began, but they were badly unrehearsed for such an assault. Worse, the command structure was poor, with soldiers scrambling up beaches disconnected from their senior offices who remained at sea. Some faced little resistance getting ashore, but others were savagely machine-gunned down.

Enter the ANZACs
Adding to the chaos, the combined Australian and New Zealand force - the ANZACs - actually landed in the wrong place. Instead of facing a gentle shore, they had to claw up steep, craggy cliffs to make progress. This inhospitable landscape was thinly protected by Turkish forces, but reinforcements were rapidly summoned.

An enemy underestimated
Another huge error was in underestimating the enemy’s fighting determination. The stubborn, fierce resistance displayed confounded the Allies. In Colonel Mustafa Kemal, who hastily marshalled defences to halt the ANZAC advance, they had an inspirational officer who later led his nation and became Ataturk, the founding father of modern Turkey.
With the war on the Western Front bogged down in stalemate trench conflict, other avenues were sought to attack the Central Powers. When Britain’s ally Russia asked for help in repelling the Turkish forces of the Ottoman Empire – fighting alongside Germany and Austria – a tantalising opportunity to outflank the enemy presented itself.

If the Dardanelles could be opened, allowing Constantinople to be captured, Turkey would be cut in two, severing supply lines from Germany. A divided Turkey faced elimination from the war and there would be relief for Russia, with a supply route to and from it opened up.

As a strategy, it made sense. In terms of execution, it was incredibly difficult to achieve. Detailed planning, a well-trained assault force with strong reserves, and an efficient, forward-thinking command structure were the minimum needed to secure a foothold on a hostile coastline and then push inland. Unfortunately, the Gallipoli Campaign had none of the above.

Winston Churchill championed the strategy in the war cabinet, urging a speedy naval assault. The might of British and French warships was considered sufficient to bombard and destroy the Turkish forts guarding the Dardanelles, opening up the Sea of Marmara and Constantinople. There was initial success, but bad weather slowed the mission. When mines inflicted heavy losses as the Navy rushed the straits, it became clear the peninsula could not be taken without a land assault.

Command of the expeditionary force was given to General Sir Ian Hamilton. He had British and French troops, but also Australians and New Zealanders, or ANZACs, who were largely untested in battle. Landings were made at Cape Helles and what later became known as ANZAC Cove. However, Hamilton and his two beach commanders stayed at sea, too far from the action to communicate properly with their forces. This mismanagement led to many errors, particularly with the ANZACs, who faced little resistance at first but were not commanded to exploit that advantage.

Another mistake was underestimating how doggedly committed the Turks would be in defending their positions. Heavy losses were inflicted at Cape Helles, where five landings took place, but only three could be held. When attempts were made to press inland from there, the attacks were beaten back and Turkish reinforcements arrived to halt the belated ANZAC advance.

Over the next three months, grisly trench warfare set in. Disease in the cramped conditions became as deadly as sniper fire. Attempting to break out, Hamilton landed fresh troops at Suvla Bay. But again, poor leadership squandered the opportunity of the surprise attack and when Turkish resistance was mustered, that push inland was halted too.

At all three beachheads, the Turks held the advantageous higher ground. Confidence in the mission was evaporating back home. In October, Hamilton was replaced by Lieutenant-General Sir Charles Monro, who quickly called for evacuation. Winston Churchill later witheringly summed up Monro’s attitude by declaring: “He came, he saw, he capitulated.” Yet with a bitterly cold November claiming frostbite victims, it really was the only course of action.

The campaign’s final act, the evacuation itself, was superbly orchestrated with scarcely any addition to already grim casualty figures. It was the smallest of triumphs at the end of a truly disastrous campaign.
01 The naval assault
Allied battleship bombardment of the Turkish-held forts on both banks of the Dardanelles begins on 19 February. Poor weather, firm resistance and mines in the strait hamper progress. Under fire, mine-sweeping proves hazardous, but the waters are thought sufficiently clear to launch a multi-ship assault on 18 March. The aim is to force a way through the channel to take Constantinople, but a new line of mines lurks undetected.

02 EARLY LOSSES
Three ships are sunk, three more are heavily damaged. The naval action is halted. As Admiral Fisher had argued before the campaign, a combined land and sea assault is required. An expeditionary force of mostly British, French and ANZACs is dispatched.

03 The enemy strengthens
Before the force can land, and with any semblance of surprise having long disappeared, the Turks bolster their numbers significantly. Under German General Otto Liman von Sanders, they are ferociously determined.

04 ALL AT SEA
The Allied force lands on 25 April. It is poorly trained for landing on beaches overlooked by steep cliffs, which offer the enemy ideal defensive positions. Worse still, the high command of the force remains at sea, unable to respond or give orders to the units as they scramble ashore.

05 Slaughter and chaos
At 'V' beach at Cape Helles, large numbers of men put ashore are cut down by machine guns on the cliffs. Elsewhere, other units land without resistance and, receiving no orders to press forward, simply hold their positions. The ANZACs actually land at the wrong beach, though still make progress towards the Chunuk Bair Ridge. Unfortunately, there they encounter a brilliant adversary, the formidable Colonel Mustafa Kemal, who halts their advance.
06 DEADLOCK
After the haphazard, disjointed landings, the resistance faced is fierce. Attacks and counter-attacks across the craggy, ridged terrain achieve little except to swell the numbers of casualties. Both sides dig in.

07 Two beachheads, no progress
Just as on the Western Front, it’s trench warfare. Attempts are made to push forward from the beachheads at Cape Helles and Ari Burnu - later renamed ANZAC Cove - but all fail. Likewise, the stubbornly resistant Turks cannot force the Allies back into the sea. In the summer heat of May, June and July, putrefying corpses from both sides litter the battlefields. Disease, particularly dysentery, is the new enemy.

08 History repeats at Suvla Bay
Lord Kitchener sends reinforcements in August. Fresh troops land at Suvla Bay. It is relatively unguarded, but the force, commanded by the elderly General Stopford who has never before seen active service, fails to push forward. Crucial time is lost waiting for artillery support. Kemal rapidly deploys reinforcements, halting the advance when it finally begins. Both sides suffer heavy losses as the stalemate of trench warfare resumes.

09 Continue or curtail
General Sir Ian Hamilton lobbies to battle on but is replaced in October by Lieutenant-General Monro. He recommends evacuation, but Kitchener waits, wanting to see for himself. Meanwhile, misery for the men is compounded when many suffer frostbite in a bitterly cold November. When Kitchener sees conditions on the peninsula, withdrawal is sanctioned.

10 Evacuation
The final act of the campaign is the only part of it that goes well. Under cover of night, and using clever deception tactics, Suvla Bay and ANZAC Cove are cleared of men and artillery over ten days in December. Cape Helles is evacuated by early January. Official figures quote just three casualties for the entire withdrawal operation - a merciful conclusion to an ill-planned, ill-commanded, ill-fated endeavour.

Ottoman Empire
TROOPS 6 DIVISIONS RISING TO 16 DIVISIONS CASUALTIES 250,000-300,000 (ESTIMATED)

GENERAL OTTO LIMAN VON SANDERS
LEADER
Von Sanders was made head of the German military mission to Turkey in 1913, commanding its army once it entered the war.
Strengths Foresaw the importance of defences along the Dardanelles and strengthened accordingly.
Weakness Initially deployed troops inadequately to meet a coastal invasion threat.

57TH REGIMENT
KEY UNIT
Following Kemal’s famous command “I do not order you to attack, I order you to die!” it halted the ANZAC breakout from ANZAC Cove.
Strengths The regiment fought tenaciously, holding the line with bayonets and valour.
Weakness Poorly equipped and lacking ammunition.

NAVAL MINES
KEY WEAPON
Seeking a ‘Trafalgar’ moment, the sea-based campaign to seize Constantinople via the Dardanelles ended after mines sank three ships and holed more.
Strengths Undetected, one mine can cause fatal damage to a ship.
Weakness A random, untargeted weapon that effective mine-sweeping will easily neutralise.

FOR MORE ON GALLIPOLI SEE HISTORY ISSUE 14 ON SALE NOW!
A UN peacekeeping soldier checks children for weapons.
As was usually the case in Southeast Asia, the Jakarta hotel was an island of air-conditioned coolness in the equatorial furnace of another afternoon. Lying on the bed, I felt the coolness give way to a chill. On the television, network correspondents recounted terrible events from the violence-wracked territory I had just escaped. For once I could see images of burning houses and refugees on a television screen and remember the smells of smoke and sweat, the clatter of gunfire.

According to the reporters, missiles were being exchanged between Jakarta, Washington, Lisbon and the United Nations. A mostly Australian UN peacekeeping force was now poised to enter East Timor. But the UN’s failure to forestall the violence that erupted when the results of an independence ballot were announced was another stain on its reputation, recalling the debacles of Bosnia, Rwanda and Cambodia.

And, as I eyed my rucksack propped against the wall, my camera and film rolls on the carpet, it was my shame too. I had gone to East Timor seeking adventure. Months later I was among the hundreds of foreigners who escaped, saved by our foreign passports while our Timorese friends were terrorised and killed.

By any reckoning, the Indonesian invasion of East Timor in 1975 was an international crime. But Indonesia’s strongman General Suharto was a loyal Cold War ally. The governments of the United States, Australia and Britain preferred to turn a blind eye to the Suharto regime’s efforts to quell the independence movement. Over the next 24 years, nearly 200,000 Timorese were slaughtered by his forces.

In autumn of 1998, fresh out of a journalism course, I had travelled to Asia for some months, eventually ending up in Darwin, Northern Australia. There was a heady but nervous vibe among its small expatriate East Timorese community. In May 1998, popular protests had swept Suharto from power. The new caretaker regime of BJ Habibie promised Indonesia’s first free elections since 1955, and something else: after the same desultory meeting between Jakarta and Lisbon that had been ongoing for years, Habibie suddenly announced that if the East Timorese rejected an ‘autonomy package’ being floated, Indonesia would withdraw from the territory.

Among the Timorese in Darwin there was more suspicion than jubilation. What was Habibie, a Suharto crony, up to? Indonesia had lost about 20,000 soldiers since 1975 in its never-ending battle with the Armed National Forces of National Liberation in East Timor, known by its Portuguese acronym of FALINTIL. And there were already reports of attacks by shadowy ‘pro-autonomy’ militias in the countryside.

Some suspected the militias were being secretly backed by the security forces, intended to intimidate the population into voting the ‘correct’ way later that year.

In February 1999 I flew to the West Timorese capital of Kupang and eventually made my way to the Eastern capital of Dili. Pressed into a crowded bus, I crossed through an almost prehistoric landscape of jungle, ravines and villages of palm leaf and bamboo.

Dili itself was a modest town with houses of plaster and tile, shaded from the sun by eucalyptus and banyan trees. There were street names like Alvez Aldeia and Antonio de Corvalho together with Portuguese-style churches and town houses. The centre of the town stretched out into a wide, sun-bleached esplanade. Down by the wharf a large ship was getting ready to disembark. Many transmigrasi (migrants), resettled from other Indonesian islands after 1975, were said to be fleeing, sensing that independence was imminent.

Beyond the Areia Branca (White Sands) beach, the barnacled wrecks of old Indonesian landing craft poked
The road to independence

- **Indonesian U-turn**
The Habibie government is prepared to let East Timor go if an autonomy offer is rejected.

- **International offers**
Various governments offer to assist a UN peacekeeping force if Indonesia withdraws.

- **Major militia attack**
Independence opposition attacks Liquica Church, which shelters 2,000 people. Dozens are killed.

- **Militias enter Dili**
While Indonesia's military governor is on a tour, militias attack independence supporters.

- **Agreement on referendum**
Portugal and Indonesia sign an agreement to hold a ballot. Indonesia will supply security.

- **Accusations of collusion**
There are reports of Indonesian intelligence giving militias lists of independence groups.

- **UN arrives**
The UNAMET opens a compound in Dili that will have responsibility for overseeing the referendum.

- **East Timor votes**
The population travel to polling booths. Four out of five voters have arrived by 1pm.

- **Result announced**
It is announced that 78.5 per cent of the electorate has rejected Indonesia's autonomy offer.

- **Violence spreads**
The UN reports the militias have expelled 5,000 people from Dili. Dozens are massacred in Suai.

- **Peacekeeping go-ahead**
President Habibie announces that Indonesia will allow a UN force to restore order.

- **New troops arrive**
The Australian-led international peacekeeping force in East Timor sends in 2,300 troops.

- **Transition to independence**
UN Security Council Resolution 1272 establishes a UN-monitored transitional authority in East Timor.

- **End of Era**
The last Indonesian troops leave after 24 years in East Timor.

Thousands of refugees fled the country in 1999 after the election to escape the impending violence out of the turquoise water. And just south of the town a headland boasted a Rio de Janeiro-style giant Jesus. The statue was, I was wryly told later, a 'gift' from the Muslim Suharto to the predominantly Roman Catholic '27th province' of Indonesia.

I remained in Dili until April, making occasional forays into the countryside. By the time I returned in July, the United Nations Assistance Mission in East Timor (UNAMET) was there in full force. Dili was a town transformed. White Toyota Land Cruisers rumbled along the streets. The few hotels, once flyblown half-empty places, were booked out by journalists, lawyers, election observers and military attaches.

I was lucky to have a Timorese family put me up. Placido, head of the house, was in his fifties and in his youth had worked for the Revolutionary Front for an Independent East Timor (FRETILIN), the major independence party in 1974-1975.

“A car pulled up, a friend stuck his head out and said I was best not walking these streets alone”

These independence groups were over ground for the first time in more than two decades, organised under an umbrella organisation called the National Council of Timorese Resistance (CNRT).

An agreement was worked out between Jakarta, the UN and Lisbon, as Indonesian control of East Timor had never been officially recognised, on 5 May. Under its terms, the CNRT and the 'autonomy' factions would hold electoral rallies on alternate days. The PALINTIL guerrillas had retreated to three mountain cantonments.

Worryingly, the UN had also conceded security duties to the Indonesian police and military. This was despite overwhelming evidence of their collusion in the attacks regularly being carried out by pro-autonomy militias.

One such group was known as Aitarak (Thorn). With other journalists, I watched them gather by Dili's Hotel Tropicale one morning. They were impoverished, thuggish-looking young men, some perched on flatulent motorbikes. They made a circuit of central Dili, winding up at the football stadium where their swaggering leader, 29-year-old Eurico Guttenres, predicted a 'sea of flames' if East Timor voted for independence.

Later that day, Aitarak clashed with locals in a strongly pro-CNRT suburb. Some of Commandante Eurico's goons were rumoured to have been out of it on 'mad-dog pills' - amphetamines. Indonesia's Mobile Police Brigade (Brimob) acted as a shield for Aitarak. A photographer filmed Brimob shooting a young man dead.

I awoke just after dawn on 30 August. Placido's wife perked me up with coffee from Ermera's highlands, one of Timor's most noted exports. The morning air was still cool as people emerged from Dili's houses. Although twice postponed because of militia violence, there was a 98 per cent turnout. UNAMET helicopters drored over the territory, collecting ballot boxes and transferring

East Timorese people hold up their ballot papers on their way to vote.
them to Dili. Flying over Timor, the Pakistani UN Special Envoy Jamshed Marker praised Indonesia’s police chief Colonel Timbul Silaen. Despite fears of widespread violence, the day was largely peaceful.

I hitched a lift by truck to a polling station west of Dili. It was moving to see the lines of Timorese, ballot papers in hand, some with umbrellas up against the sun.

But the calm did not last. The next day, watched by BriMob, the autonomy militias were parading along Dili’s waterfront, stopping ships from leaving and blocking the road to the airport. I attended a press conference where the spokesman of their equivalent to CNRT, the woefully misnamed Forum for Unity Democracy and Justice, snarled that UNAMET had been ‘biased’ against them.

South of Dili, the militias burned down the houses of two known CNRT activists. They took pot shots at locals employed by UNAMET. Three days later in Maliana, a town near the West Timor border, they burned down 20 houses, killed several locals and forced a UN pullout.

I will never forget 4 September, the day the ballot result was announced. Hundreds of media personnel gathered in the ballroom of the gloomy Hotel Mahkota at 9am. A thin, bespectacled man strode out: this was the UNAMET head Ian Martin, there to announce that 78.5 per cent of the electorate had rejected the autonomy offer. Now it was official: a new nation was born.

Even as a prepared statement from Secretary General Kofi Annan was being read out, people were leaving the hall. Most media congregated in the reception area but I decided to venture outside. There should have been cheering crowds and street parties. Instead, in the stinging sunshine, Dili’s streets were eerily empty. Most locals knew what was coming.

I was ambling away from the Mahkota when a lone Land Rover pulled up beside me and an Australian friend - a charity worker who was married to a Timorese woman - stuck his head out and said I was best not walking these streets alone. He drove me to Placido’s house, now empty. The whole family, known to the militias, had taken off to the hills. None were harmed, but their home was later burned to the ground. That night I stayed at the Australian’s house, listening as gunfire cracked around Dili. The next morning I returned to the Mahkota, now deserted with a fearful bullet hole in the central facade of the building.

Along with another reporter, I went up onto the hotel roof. In the seas of the Wetar Strait, two Indonesian war ships silently coasted. More gunfire spluttered around the town.

But at this time, reports were coming in that outside Dili, UN personnel were retreating to the police stations as the militias went on the rampage. I went down to the Hotel Tourismo, generally considered safe for foreigners. There were now about 30 Westerners there and we were told to stay in radio contact with the UNAMET compound on the southern fringe of the town. Eventually, Martin and all his staff would retreat there along with hundreds of Timorese.

A truck filled with BriMob police now guarded the Tourismo entrance, supposedly for our ‘protection.’

Next door, some 1,500 civilians were sheltered in the compound of Dili’s Catholic bishop. The BriMob would collaborate when the militias stormed the compound the next day, killing dozens.

By that time, I had been bundled onto a truck with several other foreigners and driven to Dili’s airport, eventually ending up in Jakarta. I saw at least 13 army trucks lined up on the runway. In addition to the nearly 2,000 people killed over the next month, some 500,000 were displaced, many forcibly so. I am certain that was the purpose of the trucks.

BJ Habibie’s administration recognised the ballot result on 19 October, pulling the last Indonesian troops out of East Timor by the end of the month. The UN Security Council authorised an Australian-led UN peacekeeping force to secure the territory ahead of a two-year transition period. The Democratic Republic of Timor Leste formally came into being in May 2002. But its independence had been won at a terrible price.

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In the wake of World War I, ruthless ambition, dark determination and lust for power drove three men to plunge the world into an era of death and terror

Written by Frances White Illustration by Joe Cummings
Adolf Hitler 1889-1945
Leader of Nazi Germany, Commander in Chief
A corporal in the German army, Hitler earned many medals for bravery until he was supposedly injured in a mustard gas attack. Hitler then became involved in the German Workers’ party and used his skill as an orator to dominate the political world.

NAZI HIGH COMMAND

Hermann Goering 1893-1946
Commander in Chief of the German Luftwaffe
A veteran ace fighter pilot of World War I, Goering was a close confidant of Hitler and quickly rose through the Nazi ranks. Although he enjoyed success after the attack on Poland, Goering later became consumed in fighting his rivals within the party.

Joseph Goebbels 1897-1945
Minister of Propaganda
Rejected by the army due to his clubbed foot, Goebbels’ embittered feelings drove him to the Nazi party. He soon became one of the most powerful people in Nazi Germany, but his devious tactics earned him the nickname ‘Poison Dwarf’.

MACHINES OF WAR

Messerschmitt Bf 109
A trailblazer of modern fighter planes, the Bf 109 formed the backbone of the German air force. Originally used in the Spanish Civil War, this fighter plane was constantly developed and improved upon throughout the war. The Bf 109 became the most produced fighter aircraft in history and was supplied to many Axis countries, not just Germany.

STRENGTHS Small, fast, powerful, cheap to produce
WEAKNESSES Narrow wheel track making it unstable on ground, hard to control in high winds

Tiger I
When German forces encountered the impressive Soviet tanks during their invasion of the Soviet Union, they realised they would need to produce their own. The Tiger I was their answer. With a focus on firepower and armour, the Tiger I was employed on all German battlefronts. Five British Sherman tanks were generally needed to take down a Tiger I.

STRENGTHS Powerful 88mm gun, near-indestructible armour
WEAKNESSES Limited mobility, frequent breakdowns, difficult to transport

Bismarck
One of the famous ships of the 20th century, Bismarck was one of the largest ships ever built by a European country and served as a symbol of Hitler’s supremacy and power. In design Bismarck was a throwback to the ships of World War I, and at a massive 50,000 tons it defied the restrictions placed on the German Navy following the war.

STRENGTHS Supremely strong armour, speed, mobility
WEAKNESSES Lack of turret protection, steering issues made it difficult to keep on course

GERMANY
One man’s quest to reclaim Germany’s honour

Everything was perfectly aligned for Adolf Hitler’s rise to power. The army veteran had tasted the bitter pill of German defeat in World War I and witnessed the once-great nation descend into a broken land that could barely feed its own people. Determined to rebuild the country, he joined the German Workers’ party and his charismatic speeches soon caught the nation’s attention. He was saying everything the struggling people wanted to hear – he promised them food, employment and, most importantly, reclaimed pride. The ranks of the Nazi party swelled and the people spoke; in July 1932 they voted Hitler and he was appointed chancellor.

In control of all of German life and having banned all other political parties, Hitler and his Nazi Party focused their efforts on unravelling the Treaty of Versailles. The Fuhrer legitimised his actions by claiming the treaty denied Germany adequate ‘living space’. One by one, Hitler broke the post-war agreements. He withdrew the country from the League of Nations, built up the military and began to stretch Germany’s legs, occupying the German Rhineland, annexing Austria and invading Czechoslovakia. He was testing his enemies. He had already angered France and Britain, who promised to declare war if he invaded Poland, and he was well aware that alone he didn’t stand a chance of taking on the Soviet Union – his ultimate goal. Hitler was ruthless and power hungry, but he wasn’t stupid. He knew he couldn’t achieve his goals with German forces alone. He needed help. He needed allies.
ITALY
The would-be Caesar desperate to carve out an empire to rule

Benito Mussolini had big plans for Italy. He was the father of the Fascist party and had built it from the ground up, swelling its ranks with embittered war veterans. By 1922 Italy had descended into political chaos and the king had no option but to appoint Mussolini prime minister. Mussolini was intelligent, shrewd and ambitious, and when his leadership brought new jobs to the unemployed, he became popular too. Mussolini was a war hero - he had fought on the front lines in World War I until he was injured - and the pride he wished to instil in his country drove his ruthless actions.

Mussolini believed it was his destiny to re-forge the Roman Empire with himself ruling as a modern-day Caesar. In 1935, he invaded Ethiopia with the full might of his army. The ill-equipped Ethiopians easily fell and the Italian Empire grew. When civil war broke out in Spain, Mussolini leapt on the opportunity to spread his influence and sent support to the fascists.

Mussolini was making enemies, and fast. But there was one nation that offered support - Nazi Germany. The ruthless actions of the Italian dictator caught Hitler’s attention and he invited him to Germany, with aims to impress the brash Italian leader. Mussolini too had been paying close attention to Hitler. With the return of the Roman Empire as his aim, Mussolini was keen to hold a prime spot at the table if the world was to be carved apart. If it went well, the meeting of these two power-hungry dictators could be the beginning of a strong and dangerous partnership.

FATHERS OF FASCISM

Italo Garibaldi
1879-1970
Role: Commander at the Battle of Stalingrad
Garibaldi’s military skill saw him rise through the ranks of the Italian army, receiving several medals. By 1941 he was supreme commander of the Italian forces in Africa, and in 1942 he became the head of the army in Russia.

Ugo Cavallero
1880-1943
Role: Chief of Italian Supreme Command, Marshal of Italy
A talented tactician, Cavallero achieved success during World War I and became Mussolini’s Undersecretary of War in 1923. When Italy entered War II he was made Commander in Chief of the Italian Supreme Command and was involved in many major battles.

MACHERS OF WAR

Macchi C.202 Falgore
This aircraft served as proof that the Italian air force was capable of producing a world-class fighter plane. The Falgore saw service on all the fronts where Italy fought during the war, proving itself a deadly foe.

**STRENGTHS** Speed, manoeuvrability

**WEAKNESSES** Under-gunned, inefficient oxygen system, unreliable radio

Zara-class cruiser
The Zara cruisers were developed to combat the latest French-designed cruisers. By using the French designs as a base, the Zara cruisers were heavily armoured and powerful. The British Navy struggled to match them when they faced each other in conflicts in the Mediterranean Sea.

**STRENGTHS** Heavy firepower, well armoured

**WEAKNESSES** Not able to carry radar

L3 tankette
This two-man tankette saw action before, during and after World War II. It was the most common Italian armoured fighting vehicle throughout the war, with between 2,000 and 2,500 L3 tankettes built in various models and also sold to a variety of countries.

**STRENGTHS** Cheap to produce, speed

**WEAKNESSES** Thin armour, weak firepower
**MACHINES OF WAR**

**Mitsubishi Zero**
A symbol of Japan's aerial power, the Zeros served throughout the war from the attack on Pearl Harbor to the very last kamikaze missions. There were 11,283 Zeros produced between 1935 and 1945, and the planes were regarded as near invincible.

**STRENGTHS** Long range, manoeuvrability

**WEAKNESSES** Limited firepower, armour and engine power

**Mitsubishi G4M Betty**
Nicknamed the "Flying Cigar" due to its shape, this Japanese bomber operated from the start of the war through to the end, with a total of 2,435 built.

**STRENGTHS** Incredible range, high speed

**WEAKNESSES** No armour plating or protection for crew, unprotected fuel tanks that easily ignited

**Yamato**
The gigantic battleship was the heaviest and most powerful armed battleship ever constructed. It was specifically designed to counter the United States' battleship fleet.

**STRENGTHS** Massive firepower, speed

**WEAKNESSES** Structural weaknesses in the armour made it susceptible to air-dropped torpedoes

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**JAPAN**
The developing power striving for domination

Japan needed help. The country had undergone a dramatic industrialisation in the mid-19th century and now considered itself a major world player. The rest of the world, however, disagreed. Japan had played a part in the allied victory in World War I but the Western powers were wary of Japan's growing imperialist tendencies. Instead of forging powerful new alliances, Japan found its military limited and America even prohibited Japanese immigration into the country. To the Japanese nationalists these were racist actions, and those who could have been allies became enemies.

This was bad news for Japan. It was struggling under a domestic crisis and economic collapse. Flooded the country in a brutal depression. Control slipped away from the government and the military began to act alone. Eventually, even the role of prime minister was filled by an admiral. Desperately in need of natural resources and hungry for the power it felt unfairly deprived of, Japan undertook plans for a unification of Asia under Japanese leadership. This meant one thing: an invasion of their long-time rivals, China.

With domination of the Far East as their aim, Japan began an offensive against China that erupted into a full-blown war. The League of Nations criticised Japan, so the country simply left the League and continued its conquest. Although Japan occupied almost the entire coast of China, the Chinese government refused to surrender and the war continued. Japan, with its limited resources, was pushed to breaking point. The country needed resources. It was too late for Japan to make friends, but partnering with the enemies of its enemies was now a very appealing prospect.

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**LEADERS OF IMPERIALISM**

**Fumimaro Konoe**
1891-1945
Prime Minister of Japan 1937-1941
Born to a noble family, Konoe was made premier in 1937. When Japanese troops clashed with Chinese he was keen to avoid an all-out war and as the conflict escalated he resigned.

**Hideki Tojo**
1884-1948
Prime Minister of Japan 1941-1944, Minister of War
A decorated general, too became prime minister after Konoe's resignation. He supported expansionist policies, was responsible for the attack on Pearl Harbor and pumped nationalist indoctrination into the education system.
THE TRIPARTITE PACT
27 September 1940

Japanese ambassador Saburo Kurusu, Italian foreign minister Galeazzo Ciano and Adolf Hitler sign a mutual defence treaty in Berlin. With this, the three nations agreed to unite against any aggressor who violated their sovereignty, officially making them allies in war. After this, Germany, Italy and Japan formally took the name 'Axis powers.'
A DEADLY ALLIANCE

Hitler spared no expense to impress Mussolini. When the Italian leader met the German dictator, Hitler put on an elaborate show of his nation’s power with a long parade of German troops and impressive demonstration of military equipment. It sent a strong message - this is the nation you want to fight with, not against. Italy agreed and Mussolini was impressed. Two months later in November 1936, Italy joined Germany and Japan in signing the Anti-Comintern Pact. Although appearing to aim at the Communist international organisation Comintern, in reality the pact was directed towards the Soviet Union. By signing, the countries agreed if any of them should become involved in war with the Soviet Union they would consult on measures “to safeguard their common interests.” On the outside it painted Hitler and Mussolini as crusaders defending Western values against communism, but in reality they were promoting their expansionist goals. It was the first sign of what would become known as the Axis powers.

By May 1939 Germany and Italy knew war was inevitable, and the countries again demonstrated their allegiance by signing the Pact of Friendship. The agreement committed the two nations to supply aid to the other if they found themselves at war. However, it also contained secretive protocols preparing Italy and Germany for a future European war they would wage together. Japan originally intended to sign this so-called ‘Pact of Steel’, but as the focus was aimed at Britain and France, not the Soviet Union, they declined. The wartime alliance was now a very real, tangible thing. But when Germany invaded Poland in September 1939, Italy was not ready. It needed years to train its army for war, so there was no way it could join the German invasion. In fact, Italy was not ready to declare war until June 1940, by which point Hitler had waged most of his war across Western Europe. However, this was irrelevant to Japan and Italy, as, conveniently, all Axis powers wished to obtain territory in different areas of the world. Although they fought for domination in different arenas, the three leaders knew the power of presenting a united front. But on 27 September 1940 the Tripartite Pact was signed. The main aim of the pact was to keep the huge power of the USA out of the war. By signing the pact the powers agreed to unite against anyone who opposed the three nations, except for those already at war with them. It also established two spheres of influence, with Japan acknowledging Germany and Italy as the leaders of a new European order, and vice versa for Japan in East Asia. The message was clear – the three powers were now an alliance that would eliminate anyone who stood in the way of the creation of their new empires. What had begun as three separate states with grand ambitions had transformed into a united, deadly and dangerous force, prepared to take on the mightiest nations on earth. The Axis was born.

AXIS STRENGTHS & WEAKNESSES

+ Technology
  German scientists and engineers were, at the beginning of the war, miles ahead of their Allied counterparts. They were already equipped with new technological advances like jets, synthetic oil and the latest rockets and bombs. These German scientists were so impressive that after the war they were employed by the Allies under ‘Operation Paperclip’.

+ Numbers
  The German army was already 3 million strong by 1936. Hitler had been preparing his forces for war years in advance, and it showed. For his 100 infantry and six armoured divisions in 1939, Great Britain had just ten. Italy too had one of the largest bomber forces in the world, while Japan boasted one of the largest navies.

+ Initiative
  At the beginning of the war, the Axis felt the benefits of having the strategic initiative. While the Allies were still waiting to see how far Hitler would push his luck, the Fuhrer had already made plans to invade Poland and eventually the USSR. Initially the Allies had no choice but to wait and react to what their enemies did, putting the Axis in a very powerful position indeed.

- Lack of resources
  The problem that fuelled the war for the Axis powers also plagued them throughout it. The three powers were going bankrupt, and as the war dragged on they struggled to obtain enough resources for their forces. By the time the conflict had ended, Germany didn’t even have enough oil to fuel its airplanes.

- Sole command
  Although this was initially an advantage, as Hitler was free to take whatever actions he saw fit, this came to be a major weakness as the war progressed. Hitler attempted to micro-manage all his battles, when in reality this job should have been handled by his skilled and talented generals – as in the Allied countries.

- Fractured alliance
  The Axis aligned with each other, essentially, because their enemies were the same, and cracks gradually began to form. Italy was hesitant throughout the war due to its own lack of military strength. Hitler’s early victories had inflated his ego and he was unwilling to compromise his goals. Japan was generally distrustful of any European power, allies or not. A true alliance was, ultimately, impossible.
**Mussolini + Hitler**

On paper the Fuhrer and the Duce should have got on well: Italian Fascism and Nazism were very similar ideologies, and Hitler was a great admirer of Mussolini. In reality, their relationship did not run smooth. Mussolini immediately disliked Hitler. He described *Mein Kampf* as boring and refused to use a translator when they first met. Mussolini spoke little German and could barely understand Hitler’s accent and after the meeting described the dictator as ‘a silly little monkey’. This scorn was not helped by the fact that Mussolini did not agree with Hitler’s extreme racial views. Despite their differences, they both realised that personal clashes were subservient to their political aims. Propaganda that displayed the two as friends was pumped out, and their alliance was one that was to alter the course of European history.

**Hitler + Hirohito**

There is no record of Hitler and the emperor meeting in person, and this fact is symbolic of their entire relationship. It was a friendship of convenience and, had it continued, might have ended disastrously. Despite dubbing the Japanese as ‘honorary Aryans’ to legitimise them as allies, in private he was recorded as saying: ‘Let us think of ourselves as masters and consider these people at best as lacquered half-monkeys who need to feel the ‘knout.’’ Japan was no better as they considered themselves racially superior to Europeans. However, both saw the advantages of having the other as an ally, and despite their differing racial views, the two leaders were almost mirror images of the other. Had the Axis clinched victory, the ultimate outcome of this relationship would have likely been very grim indeed.

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**AXIS DIPLOMACY**

On the surface the Axis Powers were brothers united for a common cause, but just how close were these alliances behind closed doors?

**Mussolini + Hirohito**

If there was little interaction between Hitler and Hirohito, there was even less between the Italian dictator and Japanese Emperor. It’s unlikely the two had much, if any, communication. However, Mussolini was convinced of Japanese support, even when Hitler was dubious. Mussolini was especially delighted by the attack on Pearl Harbor as he viewed the US as cowards for not joining the war and approved that Japan forced their hand.

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**TANKS | WAR PLANES | WARSHIPS | TOTAL MANPOWER**

| TANKS | 210,950 | WAR PLANES | 50,400 | WARSHIPS | 582,500 | TOTAL MANPOWER | 174,200 | 10,853,200 TONS | 2,244,200 TONS | 109,750,100 | 61,160,400 |

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51
A WORLD DIVIDED
States slowly joined the forces of evil, some willing, some with no choice

02 Vichy France
Joined: June 1940
Willing? No
After the fall of France, a Vichy government was set up that collaborated with the Axis. However, it never became a full military partner as Hitler prevented the military from building strength.

05 Slovakia
Joined: 24 November 1940
Willing? Yes
Slovakia was a close ally of Germany and entered into a treaty of protection with the country in 1939. Slovak forces were part of the invasion of Poland and declared war on the Soviet Union.

03 Romania
Joined: 23 November 1940
Willing? No
Although originally starting as a neutral country, pro-fascist elements grew in popularity after the fall of France and a coup led to a military dictatorship, which aligned the country with the Axis powers.

06 Greece
Joined: April 1941
Willing? No
Greece was occupied by Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany after the invasion of Greece, resulting in the death of tens of thousands of civilians by starvation.

FORGING THE AXIS POWERS

19 September 1931
The Kwantung Army of Japan invades Manchuria. They will later create a puppet state named Manchukuo. Mussolini and Hitler watch closely as the League of Nations is powerless to stop the invasion.

3 October 1935
Under Mussolini’s instructions, Italy invades Abyssinia (modern-day Ethiopia). The League of Nations condemns the invasion and votes to impose sanctions, however these are largely ineffective.

25 October 1936
The Italian and German leaders sign a treaty that formally links the fascist countries, which will serve as the basis for the Rome-Berlin Axis.

November 1937
The Anti-Comintern pact is signed – it extends the Rome-Berlin axis to Tokyo, and the three nations unite against the Soviet Union.

12 March 1938
The German army marches into Austria and annexes the country. The country is then annexed into the Third Reich. The Allies do nothing to stop it, despite verbally condemning German expansion.

September 1938
The Munich Agreement is signed. It allows Germany to annex parts of Czechoslovakia. Churchill says: “England has been offered a choice between war and shame. She has chosen shame, and will get war.”

1 September 1939
Germany and the Soviet Union invade Poland. By 6 October the country will be divided between them.

9 April 1940
Germany invades Denmark and Norway in the early hours of the morning.
ANGKOR
The Lost City

Written by
John Man
Illustrations by
Abigail Daker
Deep in the Cambodian jungle, the ruins of a Medieval civilisation lay forgotten for centuries, until one day an explorer stumbled upon the jewel of the Khmer Empire

In 1860, a French naturalist, Henri Mouhot, exploring the Cambodian jungle some 30 kilometres (18 miles) north of the great lake of Tonle Sap, came across a vast and mysterious mass of ruins – walls, towers, statues and friezes gripped by ancient trunks and roots. For Mouhot, it was a revelation, “grander than anything left to us by Greece or Rome.” He died the following year but his diaries, published in French and English, took Europe by storm. France, busy establishing colonial rule in Indo-China – today’s Cambodia, Vietnam, Laos and Thailand - took the lead in bringing to light a little-known empire whose temples form the world’s most lavish religious complex.

Recent research has revealed that the foundations for growth were laid in the 8th century. In 802 Cambodia was united by a Khmer king, Jayavarman II, who fought off Javanese overlords, named his realm Kambuja after an early north-Indian state, and introduced the cult of the ‘god-king’, the earth-bound counterpart of the Hindu god Shiva. With more conquests, Kambuja grew to include present-day Thailand, half of Laos and the southernmost part of Vietnam.
In 1296, as the Khmer Empire approached its end, Zhou Daguan arrived on a mission from the emperor of China. As well as recording the king's public appearances, his diary reveals a fascination for his host's domestic life.

**Childbirth**

As soon as they have given birth, the native women prepare hot rice, knead it with salt, and apply it to their private parts. A day and a night later, they remove it. In this way the birth has no undesirable consequences, and causes a concretion that leaves the women like a virgin... I could hardly believe it. But in the family where I lodged, a girl gave birth to a baby, and I was able to inform myself completely about it.

**Bathing**

The country is terribly hot and one cannot pass a day without bathing several times. Even at night one does not fail to bathe once or twice. In the houses, there are neither baths, washtubs nor buckets. But usually each family has a pool; if not two or three families share one. Everyone, men and women, enters the pool naked. Women hide their private parts with the left hand as they enter the water. Every three or four days, the women go in groups to bathe outside the city in the river... several thousand gather there in the water. Even the ladies from the noble houses participate in these baths.

**Cooking Utensils**

Ordinary people have a home, but no tables, seats, basins or buckets. They only use an earthenware pot for cooking rice, and in addition use an earthenware stove to prepare sauces... For sauces, they use leaves of trees that they make into small cups, which, even when full of liquid do not leak. They also make small spoons out of leaves... When they have finished eating they throw them away. At night there are many mosquitoes, so they use cloth mosquito nets.

**Toilet Arrangements**

For two out of three families, people dig a ditch and cover it with grass. When it is full, they fill it up and dig another elsewhere. After going to the toilet, they always enter the pool to wash themselves, but only use their left hand - the right hand is kept for eating. When they see a Chinese going to the toilet and wiping himself with paper, they tease him... There are some women who urinate standing - that is really absurd.

**The Royal Procession**

When the prince goes out, he is preceded by an escort of soldiers; then come the standards, the pennants and music. Between three and five hundred palace maids, dressed in fabrics decorated with foliage, and with flowers in their chignons, hold candles and form a troop of their own, even in full daylight their candles are lit. Then come other palace maidsens carrying the royal gold and silver utensils and a whole series of ornaments, all of very unusual design and whose purpose I do not know. Then came palace maidsens holding spears and shields - they are the palace's private guard, and they too form a troop of their own. Afterward come carts drawn by goats and carts drawn by horses, all of them decorated with gold. The ministers and the princes are all mounted on elephants; their innumerable red parasols can be seen from afar. After them come the king's wives and concubines, in palanquins, in carts, on horses, on elephants - certainly they have more than one hundred parasols flecked with gold. Behind them, there is the king, standing up on an elephant and holding in his hand the precious sword. The elephant's tusks are likewise sheathed in gold. There are more than 20 white parasols flecked with gold and with gold handles. Many elephants crowd around him, and here too there are troops to protect him.
Angkor: The Lost City

It was its capital Yasodhapura became better known by its later name of Angkor (from the Sanskrit nagara, ‘city’ or ‘capital’), which evolved into a cluster of temples, each the heart of a suburb, or sub-capital. Empires need armies and buildings require workers, and both need food, so Jayavarman and his heirs turned the plain on which they built into a giant agri-business devoted to rice production.

To control the water supply, the Khmer kings deployed tens of thousands of labourers to dig canals and reservoirs, known as barays, which in the wet season collected water from the rivers that flowed into the Tonle Sap, and dispensed it in the dry season. Over some three centuries, Angkor acquired four barays, the largest, the West Baray, being 8 kilometres (5 miles) long and 2.2 kilometres (1.4 miles) wide. The whole system, sealed in laterite, a sort of clay, and regularly dredged of accumulating silt, turned Angkor into a so-called ‘hydraulic city’.

Cambodia’s god-kings apparently served several functions. They were the embodiment first of Shiva, spirit of the ancestors and the earth and the fount of fertility, and then of Vishnu, upholder of all creation. As national heroes, they were a personification of all virtues: bravery, artistry, sexuality and spirituality. After they died, their temple became their symbolic body, animated by ritual, connecting past to future. The cult guaranteed not only the kings’ authority but also that of the elite below them, ensuring an upward flow of wealth from the land into the temples, the statues and the 1,300 inscriptions that provide highly selective details of their reigns.

With well-watered rice paddies, the Khmer kings could feed the soldiers and labourers on which their empire and vast building projects depended. At its height, Angkor supported some 750,000 people, all living in a low-density city the size of New York. Eventually there would be some 100 temples, scattered among huge numbers of wooden palaces and administrative buildings that have since vanished. These are increasingly being revealed by aerial surveys, such as those used by Roland Fletcher of Sydney University.
The temples were immense artistic and technical achievements. The stones, each weighing up to eight tons, were first cut in quarries to the north then dragged onto barges by elephants, floated downriver, and rubbed by labourers until they fitted exactly, held in place by tongue-and-groove joints and iron struts.

No two blocks are alike – every structure is a patchwork of irregular stones. These stone templates were carved to form windows, doors, bas-reliefs, inscriptions and even mock tiles to simulate roofs. For 500 years, each successive king created new temples, palaces and carvings in honour of his ancestors, his gods and himself.

Initially, in the 9th and 10th centuries, the barays framed ‘temple mountains’ that represented Shiva’s mythical sea-girt dwelling place, Mount Meru, and also acted as royal tombs. In later designs, the towers were surrounded by courtyards, moats, galleries, colonnades and corner-towers, all wreathed in statuary. In 968, Jayavarman V inherited the throne. This shadowy figure, about whom little was recorded, was a boy of ten when he succeeded and spent some years supervised by relatives and officials. The role of his supervisors is recalled in the inscriptions of one of Angkor’s finest temples, Banteay Srei (Fortress of Women), named after the female figures decorating its towers.

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Angkor: The Lost City

had been making an increasing impact from the early 10th century. His apparently peaceful renaissance reinforced the tradition by which Buddhist elements fused with – and later dominated – Hindu ones, apparently without conflict.

Angkor's most astonishing creation, built by Suryavarman II in the mid-12th century, is Angkor Wat ('city-temple'). Its nine towers and 800 metres (2,625 feet) of bas-reliefs depicting royal processions, battles and lines of slim, full-breasted maidens all form a memorial to the king's 37-year rule, his conquests and his power. For the first time in Angkor's history, the ruler himself appeared on the walls, riding on a war elephant in a sea of fluttering parasols, the symbols of royalty. Perhaps the most spectacular carving is the immense bas-relief known as the Churning Of The Sea Of Milk, 48 metres (157 feet) long and three metres (9.8 feet) high, set in a long narrow corridor that makes it impossible to take in the carving all at once. In this version of an ancient Indian story, Lord Vishnu persuades demons (asuras) and gods (devas) to co-operate in finding the elixir of immortality in the cosmic ocean for him. Using a sacred mountain as a pivot and a supernatural five-headed snake as a rope, they pull back and forth, causing the mountain to swivel and stir the waters to produce the sought-after elixir.

A small, delicate temple of pink sandstone, standing some 25 kilometres (15 miles) apart from Angkor's main temple complex, it was recovered from the jungle in 1914. Later, Jayavarman built the Royal Palace, which was 600 x 250 metres (1,968 x 820 feet) big – now inside the 12th-century Angkor Thom, two rectangular buildings – North and South Khleang ('emporium'), the purpose of which is unknown and a huge five-tiered temple-mountain, Ta Keo, which was left unfinished.

Jayavarman has one other claim to fame. Although a Hindu Shaivite – a worshipper of Shiva – he was tolerant of Buddhism, which had first appeared in the area over two centuries before and had been making an increasing impact from the early 10th century. His apparently peaceful reign reinforced the tradition by which Buddhist elements fused with – and later dominated – Hindu ones, apparently without conflict.

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A generation later, after a time of destruction at the hands of invaders from today’s south Vietnam - Jayavarman VII became determined to exceed his predecessor’s achievement, building the moated city of Angkor Thom, with its complexes of Preah Kai, Ta Prohm, Ta Som, Banteay Prei and dozens of other structures that may have been hostels and hospitals for pilgrims. He built more than all the other kings put together. Each project demanded immense quantities of manpower and food: an inscription in Ta Prohm mentions a staff of 12,640 sustained by rice from 66,000 farmers. Jayarvarman’s Buddhist temple, Bayon, displays worshippers, deities, floral patterns, huge faces (possibly self-portraits) and a naval battle on the Tonle Sap, which hints at the threats from increasingly powerful neighbours.

It was too much. The immense effort had drained the empire’s economic lifeblood.

A generation later, after a time of destruction at the hands of Cham - invaders from today’s south Vietnam - Jayavarman VII became determined to exceed his predecessor’s achievement, building the moated city of Angkor Thom, with its complexes of Preah Kai, Ta Prohm, Ta Som, Banteay Prei and dozens of other structures that may have been hostels and hospitals for pilgrims. He built more than all the other kings put together. Each project demanded immense quantities of manpower and food: an inscription in Ta Prohm mentions a staff of 12,640 sustained by rice from 66,000 farmers. Jayarvarman’s Buddhist temple, Bayon, displays worshippers, deities, floral patterns, huge faces (possibly self-portraits) and a naval battle on the Tonle Sap, which hints at the threats from increasingly powerful neighbours.

It was too much. The immense effort had drained the empire’s economic lifeblood. With the surrounding forests cleared, the Khmers had undermined their own ecology. The death blow - according to archaeologist Roland Fletcher - came from climate change, as the northern hemisphere entered the so-called Little Ice Age, which lasted for some 150 years from the mid-13th century. In Fletcher’s words, warm and relatively stable conditions gave way to “terrible fluctuations between very intense monsoon rains and extreme drought.” Taxes could no longer sustain the bureaucracy, the army, the artists and the labourers. The barays silted up, dams collapsed, and the metropolis died. With Thai and Lao peoples sweeping down from the northern hills, tribute from outlying regions vanished.

In 1431, destruction at the hands of invaders from Thailand forced the court to the safety of Phnom Penh (today’s capital of Cambodia), and the abandoned temples of Angkor were left to the encroaching jungle. The population declined, leaving only a few rice growers. Tree roots prised stones apart, galleries became caves for bats and bat-dung ate away at the foundations, until the reports of Mouhot and other western researchers started the process of restoration.
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The Dark Secrets of

Today he is celebrated as one of the greatest minds of all time, but Leonardo da Vinci had to battle his own share of demons to produce his legendary work

Written by Frances White Illustrations by The Art Agency

The name Da Vinci conjures up an array of images: a magnificent painter who created some of the most celebrated masterpieces of all time, an inventor who questioned the very fundamentals of the world he was living in, and a scientist who was years ahead of his time. Da Vinci inspires as much fascination and awe now as he did 500 years ago, but the man himself remains an elusive and mysterious figure. The superhuman legacy he left behind is magnified by the fact that we don't have a face to put to the name - and every portrait of him is littered with question marks. The man who dreamed of humans taking flight was the same man who filled the pages of his notebooks with mundane interruptions, shopping lists, accounts and recipes, and whose final written words were not some great philosophical statement but rather 'the soup is getting cold'. There is a collision between the Da Vinci whose work fills the halls of the Louvre and the scatterbrained man who sipped soup all those years ago. Just who exactly was the man behind the Mona Lisa?

From the day he entered the world, Da Vinci faced adversity. Born in the Tuscan town of Vinci, he was the son of the wealthy and respected notary Messer Piero Fruosino di Antonio da Vinci. However, his mother, Caterina, was a peasant and Da Vinci was the result of a prenuptial liaison. Raised for five years by his mother, the illegitimate son then moved in with his father. Despite this unconventional family upbringing, Vinci was an idyllic setting for Da Vinci's youth. The town was surrounded by mountains, trees and crystalline rivers, and he marveled at the vast array of animals that called it home. It is no wonder, then, that this child would grow into a man fascinated by the beauty and wonders of the natural world.

As an illegitimate son, Da Vinci was only granted a basic, informal education in Latin, geometry and mathematics, but already at this early stage he was demonstrating the proficiency and skill that would turn him into a legend. He took to arithmetic like a duck to water, baffling his teacher with the complex and intriguing questions he posed. However, this skilled and brilliant child was the same one who 'was always setting himself to learn a multitude of things, most of which were shortly abandoned': Time and time again the young Da Vinci failed to live up to his promising ability. Not yet 14, he was already struggling to juggle a talented mind with a stream of boundless, unstoppable curiosity - it is a balancing act he would attempt to maintain his entire life.

Da Vinci was lucky. If he had been born the son of a poorer, less respected man, he probably would have languished in the town of Vinci his entire life,
“The world of Borgia, driven by war and blood and revenge, even managed to sweep up the gentle Da Vinci”
brilliant but unfulfilled. As an illegitimate child, he could not hope to attend university to achieve any respected profession such as a notary, banker or doctor, but his father managed to secure for his son the best apprenticeship available. In 1466, at the age of 14, Da Vinci took up an apprenticeship with the artist Verrocchio in Florence.

Verrocchio's workshop was a centre of learning and excellence and the perfect place for the boy who wanted to discover absolutely everything to continue his education. From metalworking and carpentry to sculpting and painting, Da Vinci was eager to excel at it all. Although his natural talent served him well, it was this boundless curiosity that drove him to dedicate himself fully to any task that was given to him by his master. Soon he was rising above the other apprentices and became Verrocchio's protégé. It is said that the angel Da Vinci painted in The Baptism Of Christ was so superior that after seeing it, his master refused to touch a paintbrush again.

For a boy who had grown up in a slow, peaceful, pastoral land, the city of Florence must have been astonishing. Florence was in the process of shaking free of the shackles of medieval critical thought and embracing the wonders of classical antiquity. The city served as the birthplace of the Renaissance, an era of great cultural and social change, a time when artists were encouraged to disregard the conformist past and embrace new, inventive ideas. It infected every part of society, from the architecture of the city to people's beliefs toward life and death.

It was the perfect place and time for the curious boy from Vinci to flourish. He had the ambition and drive to prove himself that existed in all illegitimate sons of wealthy men, but rather than being controlled by ruthless desire, it was wonder and awe that gripped the young Da Vinci. He knew those without power could rise up and claim it - he had watched the Sforza family emerge from rural obscurity to sit as the rulers of Milan, and it was the respect he bore for powerful men that drove him to pursue excellence in his own career. By the age of 20, Da Vinci's obvious skill had led him to become a master, but instead of building on the buzz surrounding his name and beginning his own studio, Da Vinci remained by his master Verrocchio. He was ambitious, yes, but something else was also apparent in the illegitimate son - a fear of failure, inadequacy, and crippling self-doubt.
Mysteries of the Mona Lisa
Unlocking the secrets hidden in Da Vinci’s masterpieces

**Smile**
The most debated and curious part of the painting is the mysterious smile, seen differently by different people. Explanations for this range from the theory that the smile was drawn in low spatial frequencies, so can be seen clearer when focusing on her eyes, and that the smile is affected by random noise in the human visual system.

**Background**
The location of the background has long been in debate. One of the most popular theories is that it is inspired by the Val di Chiana, a valley in Tuscany. However, much more likely is that it is an imaginary landscape devised by Leonardo from a combination of places.

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**Who was the Mona Lisa?**
Her smile is the most famous in history, but just who was the real Mona Lisa?

**Lisa del Giocondo**
The most popular theory, Lisa del Giocondo was the wife of a wealthy Florentine silk merchant. The painting may have been created to celebrate the birth of their second son and their move to a new home.

**Da Vinci himself**
After digital analysis showed a similarity between the features of Da Vinci and the Mona Lisa, scholars have theorised that the painting is a disguised self-portrait, perhaps as a hint towards his homosexuality.

**Salai**
Salai served as Da Vinci’s student and remained his servant for his entire life. It is theorised that the two were lovers, and Salai was ultimately left the Mona Lisa after his master’s death, indicating the portrait may have depicted him.

**Another noblewoman**
There are many other noblewomen who have been linked to the painting: Caterina from the house of Sforza, Beatrice D’Este who was married to Leonardo’s employer Ludovico Sforza, Isabella D’Este – a leading woman of the Renaissance, and a host of others.

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**Pregnancy?**
Because she has crossed arms and seems to have a slightly enlarged stomach, there have been theories that the model was pregnant. In 2006, this theory was confirmed as infrared scans showed that Mona Lisa is wearing a gauzy dress, typically worn by women who were expecting or had just given birth.

**High cholesterol?**
In a 2010 study, it was argued that the Mona Lisa shows all the signs of high cholesterol, such as a build up of fatty acids under the skin and a lipoma, or benign tumour, behind her right eye.
In 1476, an event was to irrevocably damage Da Vinci’s approach to his own career. Da Vinci and three other men were arrested and charged with sodomy. Whether this charge came from the actions of a jealous rival or was a legitimate accusation, Da Vinci was aware of the damage it could do to his career. Although the charge was eventually dropped, the terror that gripped the young man who had given everything to make a name for himself was very real. Da Vinci’s standing in the art world does not seem to have been damaged by the accusation, though, as in 1478 he received two independent commissions to paint an alabaster in a chapel and paint the Adoration Of The Magi for the monks of San Donato a Scopeto. These grand works of art were supposed to be a sparkling debut for the brightest young artist in Florence, but Da Vinci failed to complete either of them.

It is a trend that would continue throughout Da Vinci’s career - and although he is celebrated as one of the finest painters in the world, he only finished a comparative handful of works when considering how long his career lasted. Throughout his entire life, Da Vinci simply failed to work to deadlines or specifications. His patrons became increasingly irritated by his unreliability and the young master was plagued by lawsuits after lawsuits for his string of unfinished projects. When three of Verrocchio’s star students were selected to help paint the Sistine Chapel, Da Vinci was not one of them.

Although he had all the drive and talent for success, something was stopping Da Vinci from achieving it. When commenting on his unfinished Adoration Of The Magi, Da Vinci scribbled in his notebook ‘to conceive an idea is noble, to execute the work is servile’. For the man who was at heart the curious Vinci boy marveling at the beauty of nature, it seemed conceiving the idea of these grand works of art was enough. It was, after all, his own mind he strived to satisfy, his own bounding enthusiasm that had led him this far. For a man who lived in the realms of relentless imagination, grounding these lofty thoughts into reality was a dull, laborious and time-consuming process.

But great men were not willing to pay for imagination alone, and Da Vinci knew that in order to succeed he needed to produce something magnificent - and soon. For the flourishing warlord princes who had gained their land and prestige on the strength of their blades, art was becoming a powerful weapon to prove their legitimacy. Da Vinci was not ignorant to this, and he planned to use it for his own benefit.

In 1482, Da Vinci offered his talents to Ludovico Sforza, the Duke of Milan, who had risen to power after the assassination of his brother. In his letter appealing for employment with Sforza, Da Vinci chose to list his talents in engineering, while adding as an afterthought: “Likewise in painting, I can do everything possible as well as any other, whosoever he may be.” It must have impressed the duke, as Da Vinci moved to Milan the same year.

It was perhaps the experience of being surrounded by powerful men who had achieved greatness that inspired Da Vinci to have a sort of creative revelation. He began to finish commissions and created some of his greatest works of art: the
Da Vinci was very careful to make sure his designs for weapons did not fall into the wrong hands.

EXPERT OPINION

What do you think it is about Leonardo da Vinci that inspires such fascination from people, even today?

Martin Kemp is Emeritus Research Professor in the History of Art at Oxford University. His book Art in History is on sale now.

Da Vinci had a greater sense of the unity of nature and the cosmos and of our human place in this wider context than anyone in his era, and certainly greater than anyone in our age. He also insisted that we should not abuse nature since we are part of it. He was, and is, the greatest user of drawing to explore how the world functions, ranging from the human mind to vast changes in the body of the world. In art, he invented a 'brainstorm' method of sketching that resulted in dynamic compositions. He formed how narratives are told, how Madonnas are characterised, how portraits communicate, how light, shade and colour are handled, and how compositions are invented in drawings. He radically affected the course of art. He made the world's most famous painting and the most famous drawing (the Vitruvian Man).

“Da Vinci was, at heart, a pacifist, but he wished to succeed in a world surrounded and dictated by war”

Vign Of The Rocks and the much celebrated The Last Supper. His working style was still somewhat unorthodox – spending entire days from dawn until dusk painting without stopping to eat, and then taking breaks of three or four days. However much this irritated his patrons, his magnificent work spoke for itself and he quickly became a firm favourite of the Sforza family. Da Vinci worked on a variety of different projects for the ambitious duke – from designing the dome of Milan’s cathedral to creating a model in clay for a huge bronze horse. The confidence Sforza showed in him, and the acclaim his pieces received, finally demonstrated to the daydreamer that putting his grand ideas into the real world could be a very worthwhile pursuit.

However, with the outbreak of the Second Italian War in 1499, Da Vinci’s time in Milan came to a brutal end. He was forced to flee to Venice as the bronze designed for his monumental horse statue was melted down and crafted into cannons. Da Vinci was, at heart, a pacifist, but he wished to succeed in a world surrounded and dictated by war. This is why the man who questioned the morality of eating meat and purchased caged birds just to set them free came to work for one of history’s most notorious princes of war, Cesare Borgia.

Whether it was the flight of birds or the way the light reflected on a sheet, Da Vinci was absolutely fascinated by the marvels of life. It is no wonder then that he was drawn to Cesare Borgia, half...
Mysteries of the Last Supper
Unlocking the secrets hidden in Da Vinci’s masterpieces

Mary Magdalene?
People have speculated that the figure commonly believed to be John the Apostle is actually Mary Magdalene. Although the figure seems feminine to modern eyes, in the Renaissance it was common to depict the youngest apostle as a feminine man.

A secret score
Discovered by the Italian musician Giovanni Maria Pala, the position of hands and leaves of bread when read right to left (Da Vinci’s preferred style) produce a musical composition. Da Vinci himself was an accomplished lyre player, so it’s not out of the question that he could have snuck a composition into his piece.

No holy grail
Although there have been speculations about the lack of the holy cup in the painting, Jesus’ right hand is pointing to a glass of wine. It is unusual that it is not portrayed as a jewelled chalice, but this is because Da Vinci always preferred to keep his paintings as realistic as possible.

Da Vinci was one of the most remarkable and driven men that the world has ever seen. His age, but already the most feared person in the known world, Da Vinci was compelled to become a part of Cesare’s dynamic world, and in 1502 Da Vinci produced a map that impressed the Duke of Valentinois so much that he instantly appointed Da Vinci as his chief military engineer. While in Cesare’s employment, Da Vinci produced designs for devastating war machines - a strange action for a man with gentle, pacific tendencies. The world of Borgia, driven by war and blood and revenge, even managed to sweep up the gentle Da Vinci. It is no mystery why - not only was Cesare ambitious, but he was also illegitimate and wholly unconventional for his age, just like Da Vinci.

Perhaps it was keeping the company of such remarkable and driven men that piqued the curiosity of the master toward the most bewildering creatures of all: humans. It was in the advent of his life that Da Vinci, the man who had excelled in thought but struggled in action, became consumed in doing, writing: “I have been impressed by the urgency of doing - knowing is not enough, we must apply.” This was a very different man to the one who had previously dubbed the execution of work as ‘servile’. Eager to crack the code of the human body, Da Vinci began to conduct autopsies.

As a successful artist, Da Vinci was able to obtain corpses from various hospitals and cut, probe and explore the cadavers. It was dark, grim work for a man who abhorred violence. But the pursuit of knowledge drove him on. From his dissections Da Vinci produced notebooks full of intricate anatomical drawings. These sketches were unlike anything the world had ever seen, and had he published them, would have pushed scientific study forward by centuries. But he didn’t. Whether it was due to a remnant of that persistent self-doubt, or if they fell victim to his inability to focus on anything for long, Da Vinci’s remarkable drawings languished in his notebooks until the end of the 19th century, having absolutely no impact on science. But would Da Vinci have minded? The answer is almost certainly no. He was a man who lived entirely in the present.

Now in his old age, Da Vinci moved to France after an invitation from King Francis I. He spent little time painting, but rather dedicated his final years to exploring and editing his scientific studies. He had well and truly managed to break free of the shackles of illegitimacy, but he had done so by embracing and overcoming the things that seemed, for so many years, to hold him back: his boundless imagination, indecision, a wandering, erratic mind and even his bouts of pessimism. Da Vinci was a magnificent painter, his inventions were groundbreaking and his scientific mind was unrivaled. But for the curious boy from Vinci, it was not his own talents he wished to highlight, but instead the wonder, beauty and majesty of the world around him.

1495 Work on The Last Supper begins. It will finally be completed three years later.
1499 With the Sforza’s fall from power, Da Vinci leaves Milan and spends time in Venice.
1502 Da Vinci is employed by the formidable Duke Cesare Borgia as senior military architect.
1503 Da Vinci begins work on the Mona Lisa. He keeps it with him until his death.
1532 At the request of Francis I, Da Vinci leaves Italy and serves at his court in France.
2 May 1519 Da Vinci dies at Clos Luce. At his funeral, 60 beggars follow his casket, per his request.
The final phase of the Cold War began with the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1979 and ended with the break-up of the Warsaw Pact in 1991. The 1980s marked the end of ‘détente’ and the realisation dawned that a ‘thaw’ might be beginning. As such, it was also one of the most dangerous eras in East-West relations when Russian instability and American intransigence almost brought the world to war. At the heart of this final phase were Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher.

Thatcher met Reagan in 1975, when he was Governor of California. He had called on her at the House of Commons because Jim Callaghan, the prime minister, had been ‘unavailable’, advised no doubt that his potential guest was from the right of the Republican party. Moreover, Callaghan had no interest in upsetting President Jimmy Carter, with who the Labour Party had good relations. Thatcher had only recently become leader of the Conservative Party and was meeting anybody who might further her prospects. She had already impressed the American establishment and her broadcast on CBS from the National Press Club in New York gained her recognition as ‘quite a dame’, as well as the joking admission that if she stood for election she’d be the next Republican president. Her subsequent speech at a Kensington party rally earned her the name ‘the Iron Lady’ from the Soviet newspaper The Red Star, which played well with Republicans.

Reagan, of course, was best known in Britain for being a Hollywood actor, but Thatcher had no real interest in the cinema and rarely went – her daughter Carol Thatcher remembered having to nag her mother to see a film in the school holidays. So whatever Thatcher expected at her first meeting, she was pleasantly surprised by the suave and sophisticated politician who knew how to use his Hollywood skills to advantage.

Reagan was an older man, and throughout her early career Thatcher had relied on older male mentors she could confide in. Reagan would meet all her criteria for political reliability in a world where she felt she could no longer fully trust her fellow British Conservatives. Their first meeting was a meeting of minds, and they began producing a wish list for the future, as neither was in any position to act on the national or international stage. The formal meeting soon turned into an informal chat. It was scheduled for 45 minutes, but continued for an hour and a half.

Few leaders have epitomised the UK and US’s special relationship quite as unreservedly as this Cold War power duo. Clive Bloom investigates just how their political congruence helped bring an end to decades of international tension.
Reagan and Thatcher soon realised they had much in common. Reagan was impressed with their coincidence of views. “We found,” he recalled, “that we were really akin with regard to our views on economics and governments,” and, more pertinently, the “government’s place in people’s lives.” Denis Thatcher had already encountered Reagan in 1969 and had been impressed. Thatcher herself was vaguely in awe, for his success in California had showed her that moral conviction and political action could be united.

Reagan appeared not to be a traditional politician at all, rather the embodiment of the principles he put into practice. The fact that the British political establishment had underrated him because he appeared ‘detached’ and worked with ‘a broad brush’. Yet for her he was the very epitome of a potential leader of the United States. Reagan’s self-confidence, breezy smile and willingness to call the Soviets’ bluff appeared crass and simplistic to those with jaded palettes. To Thatcher, however, who was ever busy in the nitty gritty of party politics, he was a breath of fresh air.

Thatcher and Reagan met again at Westminster in 1978. The meeting sealed the political and moral achievement that had been stifled, so the two leaders believed, by collectivist interference in ordinary lives. The roll back of the state was to be the first blow in ending collectivism and socialism. ‘Reaganomics’ concentrated on what became known as ‘supply-side’ or ‘trickle-down’ economics, which was adapted on both sides of the Atlantic as the free market. In America, the free market, based on the drastic reduction of government spending and the restriction of the money supply, would stop the so-called ‘stagflation’ (unemployment and inflation) of Carter’s presidency, while in Britain such policies as curbing the money supply,

With the East and West struggling for dominance, the world became a much scarier place as powers stockpiled deadly nuclear weapons.
dramatically cutting local government spending and the ‘destruction’ of union power were intended to achieve similar results. Thatcher added to Reagan’s programme of patriotic regeneration a strong, and very English, nationalism – a belief in ‘self-help’ (Victorian values) and a strongly developed moral compass in her Methodism.

Reform at home was to be reinforced by a vigorous foreign policy designed to curb the Soviet Union, whose invasion of Afghanistan was seen as part of the ‘Brezhnev Doctrine’ of Soviet expansionism first conceived in 1968. Such expansionist policies might be accomplished through the use of the Cubans in Angola, revolution in Latin America, global assassination plots or infiltration of government departments and the trade union movement in Britain by Russian agents, sympathisers or ‘pacifists’.

**USSR**
The USSR had tested a nuclear warhead as early as 1949 and by 1960 it had reached parity of weaponry with the United States. This led to urgent talks (SALT I) to limit intercontinental ballistic missiles and submarine-launched ballistic missiles to avoid mutually assured destruction (MAD). Nevertheless, by 1986 the Soviets had 45,000 nuclear warheads, of which 20,000 were tactical.

**China**
China was in many ways the most secretive country in the Cold War. Having fought the United States to a standstill in Korea in 1952, China tested a nuclear device in 1964. By the 1980s, estimates suggest China had a stockpile of 170 to 180 nuclear warheads. At the same time, China obtained the miniaturisation techniques being developed by the United States for the W88 warhead.
To defend the US against Soviet aggression, Washington developed what became known as the ‘Reagan Doctrine’, essentially the use of money and influence and the support of right-wing guerrilla groups to stop Soviet encroachment. Thatcher, on the other hand, wanted to defeat Sovietism by strengthening NATO and Europe and by negotiations over weapon deployment. In many ways, the foreign policy aims of the US and Britain were incompatible. Both Thatcher and Reagan were Cold War warriors, but they differed in as much as the American plan made Europe the first line of defence for the United States rather than somewhere to be defended in its own right.

Nevertheless, Thatcher implicitly believed in the principles of the doctrine that Reagan spelled out when he addressed both Houses of Parliament in 1982. The speech marked a decisive stage in the battle against socialism on behalf of the ‘democratic revolution’. The achievement of a resurgent Britain and an unassailable USA would, despite the sense of unity, result in quite different approaches to power and, while both sides might applaud the other’s success at home, they would often sharply differ in attitudes towards foreign policy.

The unexpected belligerence of Argentina and the subsequent Falklands War of 1982 saw Britain emerge almost accidentally from its supposed decline of the 1970s, while later the United States would deliberately develop the Strategic Defence Initiative (SDI) in order to make itself invulnerable from missile attack. Such policies underpinned the need to defeat the ‘enemy within’ – socialists apparently bankrolled by the Warsaw Pact. Thatcher had to constantly paper over the cracks in her different approach to foreign policy to allow herself to look united with Reagan in negotiations.

An example of a potential rift came on 8 March 1983, when Reagan made his most inflammatory speech, calling Russia “the Evil Empire.” Reagan’s own belief in SDI was nevertheless attractive to Thatcher, who wanted to know more “as a scientist.” In February 1985, Thatcher addressed both houses of Congress and, using Churchillian rhetoric, defended the ‘shield’ of nuclear weaponry. Foreign Secretary Geoffrey Howe, unhappy with the hawkish attitude, insisted that there was ‘no advantage in a new Maginot line… in space.’
For this gaffe in protocol, Thatcher had to personally apologise to Reagan and his staff, which, nevertheless, still left her wanting to know about this exciting new development in defence strategy. It was, however, such a secretive operation that Thatcher actually did not know what Reagan was talking about and probingly asked Bud McFarlane, the national security adviser: "Are you keeping SDI under appropriate restraint, adhering to the ABM (anti-ballistic missile) treaty and so forth?" She did not get any further in finding out if SDI was all a fairy story or not.

The shoe was on the other foot when Reagan had to phone Thatcher to explain his reasons behind the decision to invade Grenada, which had a left-wing government backed by Cuban troops but was also a full member of the Commonwealth. When US bombers flew from RAF bases to bomb Libya on 15 April 1986, Reagan gallantly asked for permission he did not need.

Where tensions emerged most was in nuclear disarmament discussions with the Russians. Reagan seemed to have had little concern for Europe; there were, however, two sets of problems to be resolved. There was the problem of intermediate-range nuclear forces, dealt with in INF diplomacy. This had its origins in a speech by Leonid Brezhnev, who had proposed a moratorium on theatre nuclear forces, which was seen as a sleight of hand. There was also the ongoing SALT negotiations to limit strategic weapons (from which the United States eventually withdrew in 1986). Both could be used as leverage to create a final arms race for which the Russians were economically unprepared, but the INF negotiations might leave Europe vulnerable to a Soviet invasion or first strike. The need to understand the Soviet mind even led Thatcher to hold a series of seminars at Chequers, the prime minister’s country house retreat, in 1983.

Nothing seemed to change until the death of Soviet leader Konstantin Chernenko and the accession of Mikhail Gorbachev, a man Thatcher came to like and a man she could “do business with.” She met him first at Chequers and later in Moscow. Gorbachev and Reagan met in Reykjavik in November 1985, by which time Thatcher concluded the Russians ‘had lost the game’. 

"The rollback of the state was to be the first blow in ending collectivism and socialism"
ON WELFARE
As early as 1975, Thatcher had stated: “It’s not that our people are suddenly reverting to the ideals of laissez-faire... it’s rather that they are reviving a constructive interest in the noble ideals of personal responsibility.” Reagan made the ‘curse’ of welfare central to his address to the nation in 1986. “We’re in danger of creating a permanent culture of poverty as inescapable as any chain or bond - a second and separate America,” he said.

ON THE STATE
Reagan made the destruction of Washington bureaucracy central to his policies. He told Congress: “Let us speak of our responsibility to redefine the government’s role: not to control, not to demand or command, not to contain us, but to help in times of need and, above all, to create a ladder of opportunity to full employment so that all Americans can climb toward economic power and justice on their own.” At the same time, Thatcher talked of “rolling back the state.”

ON COMMUNISM
Nowhere were Thatcher and Reagan more vehement than on the nature of socialism. In a television interview in 1976, Thatcher made her first assault on socialist lifestyle. “Look at the large numbers of people who live on council estates,” she declared, “many of them would like to buy their own homes. Oh, but that’s not approved of by a Socialist government.” Her attitude was encapsulated by Reagan’s blunt hatred of the communist menace. In his address to the Houses of Parliament he was clear that: “There is now a plan and a hope for the long term – the march of freedom and democracy that will leave Marxism-Leninism on the ash-heap of history.”

ON NUCLEAR ARMAMENT
The holding of nuclear arsenals was central to the defeat of ‘Sovietism’ and the victory of the democratic individual. Reagan was in no doubt that the allies “must continue... efforts to strengthen NATO even... with our Zero-Option initiative in the negotiations on intermediate-range forces and our proposal for a one-third reduction in strategic ballistic missile warheads.” Thatcher felt that: “A world without nuclear weapons would be less stable and more dangerous for all of us.” Regardless of whether this was the case, both Reagan and Thatcher planned for a war to protect the individual rights of those who would inevitably end up dead. Like the Russians, they too were caught in a contradiction that was never resolved.

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Following the Reykjavik summit, Reagan inadvertently suggested a nuclear-free Europe. This sent Thatcher into a spin; seeing her jetting to Washington in November to get the President to rethink, which he did, issuing a joint communiqué to explain just what he meant. Thatcher concluded that she ‘had reason to be pleased.’

Reagan always acted unilaterally when he could. His decisions on Libya and Grenada were taken in Washington, not in consultation with his closest European ally. His willingness to develop nuclear defence strategies without regard to British interests and his sometime lack of diplomatic tact and disinterest in the fine detail meant Thatcher would have to fire-fight or fly across the Atlantic to get the presidential message on track. The fact that she recognised she was a ‘moral’ force that tempered American haste and diplomatic disinterest in European affairs was, perhaps, her greatest diplomatic achievement.

Although Thatcher would not deal with terrorist blackmail, she had visited the US and publically supported Reagan during the Iran-Contra scandal of 1987, in which National Security Council staff member Oliver North sent arms to Iran to secure the release of American prisoners in Lebanon and filter money to anti-communists in Nicaragua. She also publically supported the American strategic aim of eliminating all intermediate-range nuclear weapons and the modernisation of short-range equipment, although she privately doubted the effectiveness of the policy. Appearing on the US’s Face The Nation, her performance was described by Reagan as “magnificent” in its defence of American values. In November that year, Thatcher made her last visit to see Reagan. He praised her stance on nuclear weaponry while she praised the efforts of them both to bring an end to the Cold War.

At a State Department dinner held in Thatcher’s honour, Secretary of State George Shultz presented her with a new handbag, in honour of the role her handbags had played in East-West relations. He claimed that she might fish a text out of her handbag stating that the “special relationship was as strong as ever.” Later, Reagan wrote to her saying that their partnership had “strengthened the ability and resolve of the western alliance to defend itself and the cause of freedom everywhere.”

Thatcher returned the compliment by congratulating Reagan on “changing attitudes and perceptions about what was possible.” It was hardly a last set of love letters, but it was testament to the closeness of the ties between these two heads of state that admired each other while pursuing aims that sometimes coincided and sometimes diverged.

Reagan and Thatcher had policies that were intended to contain and neutralise the Soviet threat and world socialism. They were caught entirely by surprise by Russia’s collapse and they had not considered policies that might create a better world after the end of the Cold War. Both miscalculated the rise of Boris Yeltsin and the demise of Gorbachev and both failed to see what might happen in the Middle East.

Support for American foreign policy also came at a price. Thatcher’s first government had plans for a new series of nuclear bunkers and had issued pamphlets in case of an immediate nuclear strike. Against a background of Labour unilateralism, Thatcher paid a price for relying on American diplomatic acquiescence in the Falklands War and American supplies of Sidewinder missiles. Britain agreed to update Trident to continue Britain’s ‘independent deterrent’ and agreed to adopt cruise missiles for use on American air bases. It was also confirmed that Britain would hold no ‘dual’ key to any American nuclear weapons in Britain.

Opinions regarding Thatcher’s close relationship with the president have always been mixed and sometimes scurrilous. One famous poster represented her as the romantic heroine Scarlett O’Hara saved from the flames of Atlanta by Ronald Reagan as Rhett Butler. Her biographer John Campbell suggested Thatcher had a soft spot for Reagan that went beyond politics and into friendship, while Neil Kinnock called her Reagan’s “poodle.” Thatcher herself felt that she had “some influence on… Reagan.” In the final analysis, Thatcher was sometimes the voice of moderation and occasionally the Reagan administration listened. Either way, the stakes could not have been higher and the result no less certain.
While Boudica of the Iceni was still mourning the death of her husband Prasutagus, a horde of Roman agents forced their way into her home. The armed men seized the Celtic queen, along with her two daughters, and dragged them all into public view. There, before the eyes of her people, Boudica was brutally flogged as if she were a slave and her two virgin daughters raped. When the violence was over, the Romans continued their acts of cruelty on the Iceni by confiscating the land of their chief nobles. Furious at their actions, the queen quickly gathered her people. She would stop at nothing until she had her revenge against the Roman Empire.

The Roman commanders gave the orders for these acts in 60 CE after they received the will of recently deceased King Prasutagus. To show his loyalty to Rome, the British ruler left half of his kingdom to the emperor, but bequeathed the other half to his daughters – an act of love that would backfire in ways he could never have imagined. According to Roman law, contracts with client kings terminated upon their death, and thus turn all of the possessions of the kingdom into Roman property. Usually, this transition from a native monarchy to Roman rule was carried out with far less brutality, in the hope of gaining the loyalty and allegiance of the newly conquered people.
Yet the Romans were greatly insulted, not just because Boudicca assumed to think he could leave such a large portion of his kingdom to his heirs—the shocking reaction to his will was mostly because these heirs were women. While powerful women were relatively common among the Britons, female rulers were an absurd concept in the patriarchal society of Rome, and the Romans would make their feelings about this very clear.

It did not take long for thousands of aggrieved Britons to hear of the uprising of the Iceni, as well as the atrocities committed on Boudicca and her family. The Romans had only conquered Britannia less than 20 years before, during the reign of Emperor Claudius in 43 CE, and the oppressive treatment of their new subjects by imperial officials had created numerous rebels all over the island.

For several years after the conquest, most insurgents became a part of the full-fledged guerrilla war led by Caratacus, king of the Catuvellauni. After the decisive victories of the Romans over his forces during the invasion, the king learned not to face the legions on the battlefield, instead using his superior knowledge of the local terrain to carry out successful guerrilla tactics on the foreign army.

Though the Iceni officially became allies of the Roman Empire after the conquest, a faction of the Iceni also participated in a minor revolt in 48 CE, when the governor Publius Ostorius Scapula enacted a draconian measure to discourage Britons from joining Caratacus. The governor had his men force their way into the homes of the Iceni and confiscated all weapons. However, when the Iceni insurgents revolted with warriors from the neighboring Catuvellauni and Conisii, they had no chance against the Roman army. Scapula quickly crushed the rebel forces when he stormed the Iceni hill fort they fought from and slaughtered all of the rebels.

The Iceni had more than enough cause to rally behind their queen, but the main reason Britons from other tribes flocked to swell her ranks was that they no longer had any rebel army to join. In 51 CE, Scapula concluded his campaign to quell the unrest throughout the island by targeting its source, Caratacus. And once the rebel king was forced to meet the Roman army in pitched battle, the governor defeated him. Caratacus then fled to the court of Cartimandua, queen of the Brigantes, to seek refuge. Yet instead of aiding a fellow British ruler, the queen betrayed her tribal rival to the Romans, gaining much trust from her overlords but losing the respect of many of her people. Among those who had fallen out of favor with her was Venutius, her husband. After Cartimandua divorced him in 57 CE, he attempted to seize her kingdom from her but was thwarted by the Roman forces that came to the aid of their client queen. Although he would later become the next great rebel leader, Venutius would not make another move until more than a decade later and remained in hiding during the Boudican rebellion.

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**“Female rulers were an absurd concept in Rome”**

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**THE ROMANS**

**Gaïus Suetonius Paulinus**

When Paulinus became the governor of Britannia in 58 CE, he had already proven himself to be a very skilled general. In 40 CE, he was the first Roman to lead an army over the Atlas Mountains in North Africa.

**Quintus Julius Agricola**

Agricola was only a military tribune under Paulinus during the Boudican revolt. However, his participation in the conflict was one of the major reasons that his son-in-law, Tacitus, recorded the event.

**Petlius Cerialis**

Cerialis was a young and imperious commander when he first entered the historical record as the legate of the ninth legion. Yet even after his disastrous failure against Boudica, he managed to become governor of Britannia in 71 CE.

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**THE ROAD TO REBELLION**

**55 and 54 BCE**

The invasions of Britannia by Gaius Julius Caesar were the first violent conflicts between the Romans and the Britons. Though successful, no permanent Roman presence was created.

**40 CE**

The failed attempt of Caligula to invade Britannia. Instead of crossing the channel, the emperor ordered his soldiers to gather seashells and place them in their helmets.

**43 CE**

The Roman conquest of Britannia. While Aulus Plautius was the chief military commander, he patiently waited for Emperor Claudius to join him in the end and claim the overall victory.

**48 CE**

Governor Publius Ostorius Scapula suppressed a revolt carried out by a faction of the Iceni, angered over the unwarranted search of their homes and seizure of their weapons.

**50 CE**

The colonia at Camulodunum was established over the former capital of the Trinovantes. Native nobles were appointed to oversee the construction of the temple of Claudius.
Unable to join the forces of Caratacus or Venutius, many discontent Britons who still wished to make a stand against the empire continued to increase Boudica’s forces as she led them south into the lands of the Trinovantes. Like the Iceni, the Trinovantes harboured deep resentment towards the Romans for the past decade, and so became the second major tribe to join the revolt. While warriors from tribes all over Britannia rallied to the movement, none of the tribes contributed as much manpower as the Iceni and the Trinovantes. Both tribes were so invested in the cause that their warriors were followed by an enormous trail of carts driven by their families and loaded with their possessions. To restore their people’s honour, the Iceni and the Trinovantes were willing to risk everything.

Including the women, children and elderly who accompanied the march, the British horde may have increased to well over 100,000 people, with a core of warriors that was tens of thousands strong. Confident of overwhelming any meagre force the Romans sent against her, Boudica led her army towards their first target – the colony of Camulodunum. The town was not only the most obvious choice for the rebels to attack, as it was in line to become the capital of the province, but its destruction was also the main reason the Trinovantes joined the revolt. It was imperative the colony was burned to the ground.

Camulodunum was once the capital of the Trinovantes until the Romans established it as a colony. The Romans benefited from their alliance with Cartimandua, as the vast territory of her tribe served as a buffer zone between the province and hostile tribes further north.
Boudica’s Battle
The Iceni Queen Crossed the Country in Pursuit of Vengeance

Boudica, with her daughters, leading her army of rebels

1 The Call to Arms
As Boudica gathered her people, warriors flocked from all over Britannia to join her rebellion against the Roman Empire. The queen then led her army south to combine with the substantial forces of the Trinovantes before advancing towards Camulodunum.

2 Legion IX Ambushed
The moment the commander of the ninth legion, Petillius Cerialis, was alerted about the uprising of Boudica, he immediately advanced his forces to save the undefended colonia of Camulodunum. However, his army was surrounded and destroyed in a clever ambush.

3 Destruction of Three Cities
Boudica and her army moved almost completely unopposed to devastate Camulodunum, Londinium and Verulamium, and slaughtered well over 30,000 Romans citizens. The queen then advanced down Watling Street to confront the Roman army as it returned from the west.

4 Battle of Watling Street
Boudica’s forces faced the Roman army in the Midlands, most likely near Manduessedum. The battlefield was chosen by Governor Gaius Suetonius Paulinus to decrease the advantage of the queen’s vastly superior numbers.

The curvature of the Roman shields helped to provide more protection and allowed the soldiers to create their famous tortoise formation.

Colonia for retired veterans in 50 CE. Arable land was also required for the farms of the soldiers, so it was taken from members of the tribe. As some of the strongest supporters of the Romans, the nobles of the Trinovantes were ‘rewarded’ even further for their loyalty with membership into the priesthood of the Augustales. As priests dedicated to the worship of the deified emperors, it was the duty of the Augustales to build the grand temple of Claudius within their former capital. To pay for the temple and the construction required to transform Camulodunum into a colonia, the Trinovantes were given considerable loans by both the Roman state and the fabulously wealthy statesman Seneca. However, the top financial officer, or procurator, of the province, Catus Decianus, had recently demanded that all loans given to the tribe were to be paid back in full immediately, or the funds would be taken by force. After enduring excessive taxation and then given such an ultimatum, the Trinovantes decided that their support for the empire had come to an end.

When the Roman citizens of Camulodunum became aware of the approaching horde led by Boudica, they desperately pleaded for help to the procurator in nearby Londinium. Since the governor, Gaius Suetonius Paulinus, was leading a campaign in the far west of the province, Decianus was the second highest-ranking Roman official in the vicinity. But the procurator was not a military commander and, therefore, was only able to send little more than 200 ill-equipped men to reinforce the small garrison already stationed in the town. Shortly afterwards, the financial official fled to Gaul in disgrace for his approval of the severe maltreatment of the Iceni...
What did not know was Quintus Petillius Coriatis, was already on its way to save the town before Boudica was able to reach it. In the hope of intercepting the rebel horde, Coriatis rushed towards their presumed location. The Roman commander moved with too much haste; for he and his men were unable to detect the trap they had walked into before it was too late. Suddenly, British warriors appeared from all directions and an onslaught ensued. Of the 2,000 soldiers under his command, only 500 made it out of the devastating ambush alive with Coriatis. Boudica continued on her course to Camulodunum as the beaten legion fled to the safety of a small fort.

With no solid defences constructed yet to protect the growing colonia, the citizens of Camulodunum watched in horror as Boudica led her army into the town, unopposed, and ordered the destruction of everything in sight. Dozens of buildings were set on fire and thousands of people were slaughtered in the streets. Boudica did not intend on taking prisoners, nor did her warriors, so any Roman caught by the armed mob was killed. The Roman soldiers and the rest of the survivors barricaded themselves within the massive temple of Claudius, but the desperately outnumbered force was completely surrounded. Amid the black smoke filling the sky and reek of decaying flesh surrounding the edifice, the defenders held off the British horde for two long days. But, by the end of the second day, the besiegers finally broke through the remaining barricades and massacred all who remained within the despoied temple.

Boudica and her men pillaged as many spoils as they could find in the ruins of Camulodunum before they moved on towards the merchant town of Londinium. This time around, the citizens were aware of the advancing army, with ample time to allow them to gather their possessions and abandon the town. Yet hope was with the Romans, for Governor Paulinus had arrived with a small contingent of cavalry to survey the situation. Soon afterwards, however, optimism gave way to feelings of horror as the citizens of Londinium realized that Paulinus planned to retreat from the city and leave it open to the British marauders.

In order to reach the town as quickly as possible, the governor had been forced to travel ahead of the vast majority of his army. Since he was hopelessly outnumbered, Paulinus decided and Trinovantes that led to the rebellion. What the citizens of Camulodunum did not know was that the ninth legion, led by Quintus Petillius Coriatis, was already on its way to save the town before Boudica was able to reach it. 

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Boudica Vs Rome

“Boudica led her army into the town and ordered the destruction of everything”

Boudica left a path of destruction that may have included the deaths of as many as 70,000 Romans and Romanised Britons.

The legionaries that Paulinus was forced to leave behind when he made his rapid trek east were returning from the successful invasion of the island of Mona, off the coast of Wales. As a major religious centre of the druids, Mona was perceived as a huge threat to the Romans, for the Celtic priests had long been the supporters of nearly every uprising against imperial rule across Gaul and Britannia. Therefore, when Paulinus became the governor of Britannia in 58 CE, he made it his top priority to crush all resistance on Mona and massacre all of the rebel priests found there. After their major triumph against the druids, the legionaries were highly motivated to eradicate the British insurgents of Boudica.

After the devastation of Verulamium, Boudica continued down Watling Street as Paulinus gathered his forces. With only Legion XX, some units from Legion XIV and auxiliaries, as well as the small remnant of Legion IX, Paulinus’ army only numbered about 10,000 soldiers. The

Boudica Vs Rome

to reunite with his forces and meet Boudica in a place of his choosing, where her superior numbers would not be such an advantage.

Londinium was almost deserted by the time that Boudica reached the town, and any Roman left behind was slain and imperial buildings were destroyed. Unspeakable atrocities were also perpetrated on some of the aristocratic women caught in the town, possibly in revenge for the crimes committed against Boudica. After the Britons mutilated their breasts and faces, these unfortunate Roman noblewomen were executed by impalement on spikes. Once the destruction of Londinium was complete and sufficient booty gathered, the horde moved on to sack another smaller town, Verulamium, before it headed down the road now known as Watling Street towards the ultimate confrontation with the Roman army under Paulinus. In her wake,
governor would have had slightly more men at his disposal, but the commander of Legion II failed to muster his troops and combine with the forces of Paulinus. Boudica, on the other hand, led a horde of hundreds of thousands that may have consisted of as many as 230,000. But Paulinus had two advantages – the training and discipline of his men, and the fact that they were all battle-ready soldiers.

When Boudica finally reached the Romans in the Midlands, they were most likely positioned near Manduessedum. Paulinus had chosen an ideal location to assemble his men, with a thick forest behind them and slopes protecting their flanks. The legionaries formed the centre of the army with auxiliary units on each side and cavalry contingents on the wings. The warrior bands of Boudica’s massive host gathered before the Roman legions, brandishing their swords and screaming war cries as Boudica rode along the front lines in a chariot with her daughters. As her long hair flowed in the wind, the tall warrior queen raised her powerful voice above the tumult to give a rousing speech that reminded her troops of the cruelty and oppression they were fighting against. On the other side of the field, Paulinus also raised the confidence of his men through very direct words. He emphasised their extensive training, for them to see that their professionalism was a much greater asset than overwhelming numbers.

When the two forces collided at the battle of Watling Street, the chariots of the Britons wreaked havoc down the Roman lines. However, the large infantry of each army inevitably clashed and the superior equipment and martial skills of the Romans won the day. Furthermore, when the Britons broke and fled from the slaughter caused by the deadly Roman short swords, they were trapped by the semi-circle of carts and could not escape. In the end, everything in the path of the victorious legionaries was slain, including women, children and the pack animals travelling with the Britons.

In defeat, Boudica drank poison, choosing to end her own life rather than fall into the hands of the Romans. Although ultimately unsuccessful at removing the Romans from Britannia, Boudica had her revenge with the deaths of thousands of her imperial oppressors. In fact, so much devastation had occurred that Emperor Nero nearly gave up on the fragile fledgling province, for it was more costly to maintain than financially beneficial. He would have done so if it were not for the courageous efforts of Paulinus. Afterwards, the governor went on to continue the savagery of the Romans, focusing his brutality primarily on the remaining Iceni and Trinovantes until they were sufficiently subdued. Boudica may have achieved the vengeance she sought, but the sad truth is that her people faced even more oppression after her death because of her actions against the empire.
Especially in the earlier centuries, it's easy to get lost among the ever-changing current of ancient, and oft-forgotten, history.

Another niggling issue with History Without The Boring Bits is just how factually correct it is. In particularly questionable historical anecdotes, Crofton acknowledges that it might simply be a rumour, but it really begs the question of just how historically accurate the book is. It's not clear where Crofton found his quirky tales, and it seems like the facts provided should be taken with a pinch – heck, sometimes even a shaker – of salt.

Ultimately, however, it's not exactly being read for its status as a factual reference book. What you've somewhat revolting – chronology that pinpoints the more exciting elements of history. Just how grounded in fact the curiosities are isn't the point of it – it's not a textbook, after all.

Philippa Grafton

"It seems like the facts should be taken with a pinch - heck, sometimes even a shaker - of salt"
n Edwardian/Victorian marriage scandal – how very tiring, you might sigh to yourself. But this isn’t another forcedly titillating look at yet another sordid affair. It’s the breakdown of a series of trials surrounding the mysteries of a strange Duke’s private life. And if that sounds less interesting, you couldn’t be more wrong.

The Dead Duke reads like the very best kind of engaging conversation, or a vibrant lecture perhaps, from someone passionate about and knowledgeable on a subject.

We’ve all read supposedly purely factual textbooks with a clear emotional bias and historical fiction that leaves you bored to tears with how dully inaccurate it is. The Dead Duke is not a sensationalised account, perhaps – as a great many sources are referenced – but it is certainly a well semi-fictionalised one.

It is so engaging that you do find yourself carried along in a wave of tangential musing without really noticing the core subject matter is often cast aside until you return to it again. Bolstering the various facts of the legal procedures, court cases and so on are fascinating insights into life at the time.

And because these insights are offered in a form that is more reminiscent of sitting through a wonderfully vivid lecture by someone well-informed and excited to discuss the subject, it builds up an incredibly strong picture of this late Victorian age, with all sorts of subjects from the changing social mobility to the changing consumption of news as side notes to the investigation as a whole. Snippets of conjecture and little asides to the reader place the narrator firmly in the present day, but more than that, they frequently offer a brief, modern (and therefore relatable) interpretation of certain events.

Blending pure fact with unavoidably subjective narrative is certainly not going to be to everyone’s taste. But for those looking for something to engage them while they learn, we can’t recommend this title enough.

Rebecca Richards

THE DEAD DUKE, HIS SECRET WIFE AND THE MISSING CORPSE

Where did fact end and fiction begin?

Author Piu Marie Eatwell Publisher Head of Zeus Price £8.99 Released 7 May

The American Revolutionary War is an event that has long captured the imagination. For years American citizens have marked and commemorated the series of events that sealed their status as a free nation. The Boston Tea Party aside, relatively little has been written to be –

which is where An Empire On The Edge comes in. Bunker has proved his capacity for peering behind the veil of the more evocative tales of history previously in Babylon, which explored the legacy of the Mayflower settlers, and An Empire On The Edge sees him doing more of the same. Instead of gunpowder and gore, this story is one of British petty bureaucracy intruding on the lives of the American nation to the extent that co-existence was rendered untenable. As far as critiques of the British Empire go, this rendition is more subtle, but no less scathing in its appraisal.

For all the detail included within its pages, the narrative that brings it all together isn’t the most interesting one. So heavy is the amount of information piled onto the reader’s shoulders that it’s difficult to take everything in without repeat readings. Bunker leaves no stone unturned in his quest to paint an in-depth picture of two world powers before the tumultuous events that would divide them forever, but what he uncovers doesn’t always make for enjoyable reading.

Still, especially in the current political climate, it’s refreshing to read an account of history that isn’t bordering on jingoistic in favour of a British institution, with a more measured account being favoured. That said, this is one for the scholars rather than those with a casual interest. Unless you come armed with knowledge of the American Revolutionary War and its background, there’s a chance you will end up very lost indeed.

Steve Wright

AN EMPIRE ON THE EDGE: HOW BRITAIN CAME TO FIGHT AMERICA

Late to the tea party Author Nick Bunker Publisher Bodley Head Price £17 Released Out now

An engraving showing Americans throwing tea into the river
ISLAND ON FIRE  Eruptive history

**Author** Alexandra Witze, Jeff Kanipe  
**Publisher** Profile Books  
**Price** £10.99  
**Released** Out now

Island On Fire goes in depth into the cataclysmic eruption of Mount Laki in Iceland in 1783. Not only does it recount the Laki eruption, its effects on the people living close to it - through the journals of pastor Jón Steingrímsson - and its repercussions throughout Europe and farther, but it also provides a snapshot of some of the other biggest volcano eruptions found throughout recorded history and prehistory.

Thankfully, it doesn’t go the route of elevated academic rhetoric, catering only for the initiated, but instead engages the reader with simple, straightforward language while sacrificing none of its scientific accuracy.

Best of all, Island On Fire reads like an apocalyptic survival drama of the highest order; in particular, the chapters on pastor Jón Steingrímsson’s account of the eruption as it took place on his doorstep. It’s written with cinemetic flair, painting a vivid portrait of an unimaginable terror unfolding before your eyes.

More eerie are the chapters focusing on the experience of Europeans who witnessed a literal fog of death descend on their towns and lands, not knowing where it came from, when it would lift or why people were dying.

Combined with the snapshots of other, some even bigger, eruptions through history, such as Krakatoa and Toba, in Island On Fire Witze and Kanipe manage to combine their extensive research and knowledge with thrills in a manner not too dissimilar to Michael Crichton - at times a writer who frequently used real scientific developments as base premises for his novels. While Crichton used science for his drama, Witze and Kanipe have used drama for their science, and boy, does it work.

Although the book does veer into speculative climatology at a couple of junctures as it winds down, especially when predicting future development of volcanic activity and its effects on the climate, it makes a very engaging argument for the importance of researching and understanding volcanoes better than we do today.

**Erlingur Einarsson**

The Tower of London: The Biography  

**A torturous account of the terrible tower**

**Author** Stephen Porter  
**Publisher** Amberley Publishing  
**Price** £9.99  
**Released** Out now

Prison, fortress, treasury, royal mint, tourist attraction and even a zoo – in its 1,000-year history, the Tower of London has garnered a fascinating and gruesome history. It’s probably most infamous for its torture rooms and for being the four walls to house ousted monarchs and political enemies of the power at the time before they were sent to the gallows. Although its use as a military fortification became redundant as the centuries rolled by, today it is an enduring and familiar London landmark and a powerful symbol of English heritage.

Stephen Porter’s biographical version of the Tower of London is as informative as you might expect from a Fellow of the Royal Historical Society and history lecturer, tracing the events surrounding this iconic building from the time of William the Conqueror to the modern day, which are inextricably linked to the tower itself. As far as being an insightful guide into the millennia-long history of the tower and, no doubt, a useful research tool for any student of history, The Tower Of London: The Biography packs in the kind of detail you’d hope for – the kind of detail only years of research and experience can muster.

But a casual read this is not: it seems that engaging prose has been sacrificed for a raw chronology of events and the only relief from this dry account are the dozen illustrations at about the mid-way point. This is the book we’d hope to find on a musty shelf at the back of a library, where only bookworms and researchers could hope to find it, beyond the reach of anyone looking to be inspired.

**Ben Biggs**
**HITLER’S WAR**

An illustrated history of how Germany portrayed World War II to the world

**Author** Jeremy Harwood  **Publisher** Apple  **Price** £14.99  **Released** Out now

The fight for supremacy in World War II was not only fought on the battlefields and in the skies. A stream of misinformation, disinformation and propaganda was designed to inspire those fighting for the cause and demoralise the enemy. *Signal* was a propaganda magazine that spread far and wide across the globe forming a crucial part of Germany’s armoury.

Jeremy Harwood has selected dozens of incredible photographs and editorials from *Signal* to illustrate one of the most tumultuous periods in world history. About half of the book is a historical account of the main events of the war from Germany’s perspective, such as the battle for Stalingrad and the loss of the Battle of Britain. It is described in a very accessible way, reading easily and providing a lot of fascinating insight behind the scenes of the German war effort.

The other half is made up of carefully selected pages from *Signal*, which documented the events of the war for five years. These photographs invariably showed the German fighters to be in good spirits and good health, while revelling in Allied failures.

One particular passage delights in showing the scene at Dunkirk after the British and French army escaped from the shores, despite this generally being considered a failure on the part of Germany for failing to push home their advantage.

It would have been interesting to learn more about the inner workings of *Signal* itself, as many of the photographs show an incredible daring and dedication to the cause of propaganda journalism, with photographers sitting in fighter planes and even warships undergoing a mock bombing raid.

Despite this, *Hitler’s War* is well written, interesting and the pictures portray a version of World War II that very few people today will have seen.

**Rebecca Richards**

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**WOLF HALL**

Not your usual Tudor drama

**Publisher** BBC  **Price** DVD: £25.52 / Blu-ray: £30.63  **Released** Out now

The story of *Wolf Hall* is one that has been told countless times and is perhaps the most well-known tale in English history - that of Henry VIII and the disastrous fall of Anne Boleyn. But *Wolf Hall* offers a new spin on this popular story as it is not told from the viewpoint of Henry or any of his queens, but instead Henry’s most trusted adviser, Thomas Cromwell.

Cromwell is an unusual choice for a protagonist, and there is a reason he does not often play that part - he ticks all the boxes of villain, not hero. It is here that the story comes somewhat unstuck from history, adding imaginary scenes to inspire sympathy for the scheming Cromwell as well as twisting the truth of others.

It is somewhat vital for the viewer to sympathise with Cromwell, so it is essential to view this series as what it is - historical fiction, not fact.

If you are able to look past the historical inaccuracies, then *Wolf Hall* truly begins to shine. If you're expecting a bodice-ripping, sword fighting epic then you're looking in the wrong place, the brilliance of *Wolf Hall* lies in its fantastic scripts and mounting tension.

It is a subtle, cleverly told tale that gives the viewers credit rather than spoon-feeding them history. There are superb performances all around, but Damian Lewis as Henry VIII is truly remarkable. He offers a more understated, intimate portrayal of the infamous king, which makes him all the more terrifying when he begins to transform into a monster.

The DVD itself is definitely one for the fans. It has a few short behind-the-scenes features as well as interviews with the cast and a collection of deleted scenes. The extra features of the DVD are perfect for anyone interested in learning about the thought processes behind the performances as well as a glimpse at what goes into making a historical drama like *Wolf Hall*.

**Frances White**
Through series one, Athelstan's main plot concerned him being torn between his Christian beliefs and the Norse gods - will this continue into season two?

Athelstan is one of the most conflicted characters I've ever come across. Through season two he shifts and shapes into something very fractured and fragile. There are lots of events that are extremely traumatic for Athelstan. At the start of season two he seems to be comfortable with the Viking way of life, but as the season goes on we discover that he wasn't as comfortable as we first thought. That's what's so great about getting to play him, I'm constantly kept on my toes.

Athelstan's battles in series one are very internal. Do you finally get to do some physical fighting in season two?

Before season two started I did get to go to the Viking boot camp to learn how to use an axe and shield. Season two involves Athelstan going on a raid to the west, so who knows what he'll discover or what he'll have to go through when he gets there.

Vikings was the highest rated series ever on History UK - what do you think it is about the show that people love?

The scripts that Michael Hirst has written are very intelligent; he knows perfectly how to balance historical accuracy with entertainment. I think that's why the show is so interesting – it's also educational. A lot of people have learned a lot about Vikings from the show. It's not looking at these people from a distance, it gets in under their skin and sees the human aspect as well.

You've acted in quite a few historical dramas - what is it that appeals to you about these types of shows?

Someone once said to me “you have a historical face.” I don’t know whether that’s the case or not but I love it because it's the purest form of escapism. I can’t walk out of my flat nowadays and walk into Lindisfarne or get to be a French revolutionary. It’s not what we get to experience in our everyday lives.

What sort of preparation goes into portraying a character from the past? Is it different to playing a modern one?

I don’t know if the time period is such a major factor than if they’re actual people - it becomes suddenly a great responsibility as an actor if you’re playing someone who actually existed to portray them the right way. I took a trip to Lindisfarne before we started season one and did a lot of research into what it was like to be an Anglo Saxon monk at the time. I love that my job gives me an opportunity to educate myself further.
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Who invented the telephone?

Tony Bianchi

The invention of the telephone is nearly always attributed to Alexander Graham Bell but this may be one of history’s greatest inaccuracies. In 2002, the US House of Representatives passed a resolution honouring Antonio Meucci for his work on the groundbreaking invention. The Italian devised a sort of talking telegraph known as a ‘teletrofono’ in 1849 after sharing a laboratory with Bell. As the story goes, Bell came up with his own invention and applied for a patent for the ‘telephone’. Many say Meucci saw this as plagiarism but could not afford to sue Bell. As all of this was going on, American electrical engineer Elisha Gray submitted another patent for a telephone but was beaten to the patent office by Bell. An issue still hotly contested, the official and technical answer is Bell, but gratitude must always go to the work of Meucci and Gray.

What was the Battle of the Bulge?

Fiona Wright, Gloucester

In December 1944, Hitler had one throw of the dice left. His decision was the Ardennes Offensive, which he hoped would be a devastating blow to the Western Allies. The attack caught the Allies by surprise and the Germans initially scored a streak of victories. Citing the historical legacy of Frederick the Great, Hitler went against the wishes of his generals Von Rundstedt and Model and hoped that the operation would surround and cut off the supply lines to the Canadian, US and British armies. The battle gets its name from the bulge-shaped 80-kilometre (50-mile) offensive that the Germans managed in the first few days of the battle. Unfortunately for the Third Reich, the attack and the bulge lost momentum as the Germans began to run out of fuel to power their advanced panzers and jet bombers. The stronger Allied forces responded and the last major Nazi offensive of the war was over. The battle was the largest fought by the USA in the war with more than 600,000 American troops involved. The offensive is significant as an example of Hitler’s increasing military miscalculations and distance from reality as the Third Reich fell around him.

This day in history 2 April

Charlemagne born
The king of the Franks and a Christian emperor, Charlemagne instigated the Carolingian Renaissance in Europe. His mighty empire dominated central Europe and also spread into Italy, France and Spain at its peak.

Beethoven’s First Symphony
Ludwig van Beethoven’s First Symphony was premiered to an audience in Vienna. This extravagant, even risky, piece of music echoed the works of Mozart and Haydn.

Battle of Copenhagen
Part of the Second Coalition against Napoleon, the Battle of Copenhagen saw the British Fleet face off against their Danish equivalents. Led by Nelson, the British Fleet scored an important victory after a three-hour battle.

Richmond Bread Riot
A Union blockade during the American Civil War had taken its toll on the people of the South. A protest led by the women of Richmond, Virginia, it was so violent that it had to be broken up by soldiers.
What happened at the Battle of Isandlwana?

Steven Bennett, Stoke

This battle is considered one of the greatest ever shocks in warfare. On 22 January 1879, a small Zulu skirmish encountered a British camp on the slopes of Isandlwana Hill. Confident of a quick victory, half of the British column gave chase until they were scattered over the plateau in pursuit of the warriors. To the colonists’ horror, they were outflanked by a 20,000-strong Zulu force in a buffalo horn formation, while the British struggled to get into their usual tight formation. Unable to execute their favoured strategy, the British failed to keep the ferocious Zulus at bay and were quickly overwhelmed. As soon as the Zulus came in close, they dominated the colonists in hand-to-hand combat. The overconfident British lost 52 officers and more than 1,000 soldiers as the Zulus spared no one as they advanced. A small band managed to escape and set up a stronghold at Rorke’s Drift, where they would later record one of their greatest victories.

How many coalitions fought against Napoleon?

Chris Jones, Blackpool

In wars spanning more than 12 years, seven European coalitions faced off against the might of Revolutionary France. The United Kingdom, Russia, the Holy Roman Empire and Prussia all fought against the Republic with both successes and failures. The French Empire was at its greatest extent in 1812 before the disastrous invasion of Russia that severely weakened Napoleon’s fighting force. The French were eventually defeated at Waterloo in 1815 in what was the final coalition against Napoleon.
Toryn Westcott
Alfred Frank Hardiman, my first cousin twice removed, was born on 21 May 1891 in London, to a family of metal workers. His father, Alfred William Hardiman, was a reputed silversmith whose pieces are still in circulation today.

The young Alfred's talent was for sculpture, and in 1911 he began studying at the Northampton Institute in Clerkenwell. He then won a London County Council Scholarship to the Royal College of Art and in 1914 he joined the Royal Academy School. During World War I he worked as an engineer's draughtsman in the Royal Flying Corps, but returned to sculpture at its conclusion and in 1920 was awarded the British Prix de Rome scholarship, seeing him study for two years at the British School at Rome. Alfred was considered one of the best sculptors in post-war Europe.

Best known of all his sculptures, and widely accepted as the most controversial, was his statue of infamous World War I commander Earl Haig, which stands near Horse Guard's Parade on Whitehall. In an article entitled A Kick In The Teeth, art historian Nicholas Watkins wrote: "Such was the public outcry over Hardiman's first model, when it went on exhibition at Westminster in July 1929 with photographs appearing in the national press, that he was obliged to produce a compromise version in 1930, which pleased no one, and a third definitive state that, after considerable delays and grave financial difficulties for the artist, was finally unveiled on 10 November 1937."

It seems that criticism came from all quarters and opinions on the model's riding position, his uniform, and the anatomy and stance of the horse all widely differed.

In a letter written to The Times, Lord Mildmay of Flete thundered: "There is nothing symbolical about badly and wrongly made boots and breeches. And then the horse!... Why must we... present a horse that no real horseman would be paid to ride and that Lord Haig would not have looked at?"
But Alfred wasn’t defeated by this negativity. He remained steadfast and true to his artistic vision. He wrote to William Ormsby-Gore, first commissioner at the Office of Works, stating: “I have hardened my heart to the fact there must be many people who will criticise the horse, not so much for its stance, but because it is not more like a modern charger, and I have no doubt the generals will criticise the composition because the very things that go to make up its monumental quality will be repugnant to anyone expecting to see a realistic rendering of the horse.” Lionel Earle, too, fought in Alfred’s corner, explaining to the Duke of Portland that “Hardiman has more genius than any other living sculptor in the country. I believe if he had been allowed to carry out his original design he could have made a fine work of art.”

On 5 February 1931, Lansbury wrote to ask Alfred to proceed with a free hand and told him: “I feel confident that if your genius is unfettered you will give us a memorial worthy of the Field Marshal, the nation and yourself.”

The final memorial was unveiled by Prince Henry, the Duke of Gloucester, on 10 November 1937, with King George VI laying a wreath at its base on Armistice Day itself.

For Alfred, the statue was a major achievement but one that had left him penniless. The lengthy and drawn-out process of twice redesigning the monument had proven extremely costly, and he found himself considerably out of pocket by the time of its completion.

It’s somewhat ironic, given all the trouble there was for Alfred in getting the statue suitably designed and made, that by 1929 politicians and a host of anti-war writers were already blaming Haig and other generals for the tragic number of deaths on the Western Front. What began as a monument to one of the most respected commanders in British military history is now, to some, a reminder of the barbaric slaughter of British soldiers across the Western Front.
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The famous phrase “Houston, we have a problem” was never actually uttered. The actual exchange started with Jack Swigert saying “I believe we have a problem here” and when he was asked to repeat his words, he said “Houston, we’ve had a problem.”

The astronauts’ families are shown wishing goodbye to their loved ones on the other side of a road. This was used to prevent the transmission of disease, but not until the Space Shuttle programme some ten years after the events that are shown in the film.

In the film, mission controllers try to work out how to make the resources in the spacecraft last. Although this is partly true, the movie depicts the men inventing the methods on the spot, when in reality NASA had a procedure in place for events such as this.

The famous NASA ‘worm’ letter logo is clearly shown on a window when the astronauts are getting into their spacesuits. This is inaccurate as that particular logo was not used by the agency until 1975, while the events of the film take place in 1970.

The film has been repeatedly praised for its exact replicas of the Apollo 13 modules and control rooms, and real zero-gravity scenes were even filmed in the same aeroplane used by NASA to train astronauts. Additionally, nearly all the dialogue between the astronauts and ground control was taken direct from transcripts.
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