HANNIBAL: ENEMY OF ROME
The vengeance, ingenuity and war elephants that brought the Republic to its knees

ENEMY

DE GAULLE vs PÉTAIN
From WWI brothers-in-arms to WWII's bitter rivals

FALL OF THE KKK
Death of a muse
The tragic life story of Lizzie Siddal, the original supermodel

MEDIEVAL ALCHEMY
& THE SEARCH FOR ETERNAL LIFE

Elizabeth under attack
Suzannah Lipscomb & Dan Jones on the threats to the Tudor throne

+ Marie Stopes
Ancient homes
Great Siege of Malta
Richard II
Battle of Goose Green
As the Carthaginian army gazed upon the vast Roman legions, they knew the odds were stacked against them. Reportedly, officer Gisgo expressed his concern: “It is astonishing to see so great a number of men.” Not missing a beat, Hannibal replied: “Another thing that has escaped your notice, Gisgo, is even more amazing – that although there are so many of them, there is not one among them called Gisgo.”

That day, the Carthaginians would claim their greatest victory and the Romans would experience their worst defeat at the Battle of Cannae. Such was the easy confidence of Hannibal Barca, and his genius strategy, that numbers didn’t matter. Perhaps best remembered for leading his troops, including cavalry and African war elephants, across the Alps, Hannibal did much more to secure his position as one of the greatest military commanders of all time. Discover how one man and his mercenaries overcame the odds and crushed the Roman Republic.
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First Female Tycoon

Born Sarah Breedlove in 1867, and orphaned at the age of seven, Madame C.J. Walker’s beginnings were humble. In 1905, Walker created a pomade to improve hair condition, and in the years following, began selling the product across America. On her death in 1919 her business was valued at over $1 million, making her America’s first female self-made millionaire.
Here, a German air force corporal of an anti-aircraft artillery unit in occupied France enjoys the company of the 'squadron dog'. Working canines were a familiar sight on both sides in World War II. The animals boosted morale and carried out duties such as delivering messages and guarding prisoners. The history of dogs being used in warfare dates back to ancient civilisations, including Egypt and Greece.

c.1940
In a bid to ease the rapidly increasing congestion in 19th-century central London, the first underground railway, the Metropolitan line, was opened in 1863. The men in this picture are constructing a section of the Central Line, between Shepherd’s Bush and Bank, which opened in 1900. They are working on the British Museum station, which closed in 1933 (but was later used as an air-raid shelter).
The iconic female Japanese performers, known as ‘geisha’, pose here with a row of shamisen players in the back row. The shamisen is a Japanese lute-style instrument, with three strings and a stretched animal skin (either real or synthetic) across the body of the instrument (much like a banjo). The role of the geisha was, and still is, to entertain and continue historic traditions, such as calligraphy.

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Unlock the door to the history of family life and discover how people from the past cooked, slept, cleaned and entertained.
Houses across history

From mammoth bones to mammoth tower blocks, house building has changed a great deal as we strive to find a place to call home.

**House of Bones**
One of the earliest recognisable houses is built in Ukraine using 116 mammoth bones, but it isn’t used by humans – the bone shelter is a Neanderthal dwelling.

**Building Skara Brae**
Eight stone houses on Orkney have stone furniture inside.

**Eights**
50 to 100 people live in the small village.

**Native American Nomads**
European settlers make first contact with the Sioux of the Great Plains who use tips – cone-shaped tents made from bison skin – as mobile homes to follow the bison during their migrations.

**Birth of the Country House**
With domestic warfare less of a threat, rich Tudor courtiers move out of their fortified castles and into more stately homes with a chance to live in more comfort.

**The Forbidden City**
At 72 hectares, it is one of the largest residences in the world.

It comprises 980 buildings with 8,886 rooms.

It remained the imperial home for 492 years.

**Big On the Inside**
The Japanese respond to growing urban centres with machiya, wooden townhouses that have a narrow frontage (often only six metres wide) but are very deep, stretching back more than 20 metres.

**Adams in Washington**
John Adams becomes the first US president to take up residence in the Executive Mansion. Only in 1811 is it first referred to as the White House.

**City Slums**
The rapid population growth of the Industrial Revolution sees Brits gather in town and city slums – crowded, unsanitary districts where disease and crime are rife, and whole families live in a single room.

**Suburban Sprawl**
The opening of the Metropolitan Railway and other lines allows the working population to commute from further afield, leading to a middle-class rush to suburban living, away from the much dirtier urban centres.
PYRAMID BUILDERS
Workers building the pyramid complex at Giza live in a mud-brick village, sleeping in communal dormitories that are partially open-air to allow sunlight in and smoke out.

THE FIRST SIHEYUAN
The Zhou dynasty sees the building of wooden courtyard houses called siheyuan, a design that becomes a staple of Chinese houses for 3,000 years. Only in the 20th century do siheyuan become outdated in China’s overcrowded cities.

HEARTH AND HOME
Bronze and Iron Age Britons make use of the ample woodland around them to construct timber roundhouses. Smoke seeps out through the thatched roof, allowing a hearth to be lit for light, warmth and cooking.

LORD LIVING
Viking and Saxon lords live in long, one-room timber halls; servants bed down there too like a vast dormitory. The halls are also the scene of raucous feasting and occasional outbursts of violence.

SUSSEX’S ROMAN PALACE
Fishbourne is the largest Roman house north of the Alps.

THE CUPID ON A DOLPHIN MOSAIC IS MADE WITH MORE THAN
360,000 TESSERAE

ROMAN APARTMENTS
With Ancient Rome’s population peaking at 1 million, all but the wealthiest live in apartment blocks called insulae and benefit from luxuries like running water. Construction is often shoddy in the pursuit of profit, leading to building collapses.

IN THE WATER CLOSET
Thomas Twyford’s patents and the building of urban sewers mean that indoor flushing toilets become cheaper, and new working-class houses need an extra room for the water closet.

POST-WAR PREFABS
Prefabricated houses are built in six years to solve the housing shortage.

ONLY DESIGNED TO LAST
TEN YEARS

BEHIND THE IRON CURTAIN
Czechoslovak leaders combine communist ideology with housing design in the panelák, prefabricated concrete tower blocks designed to promote collectivism. Czech paneláks contain 1.17 million flats.

CUPID ON A DOLPHIN MOSAIC IS MADE WITH MORE THAN
360,000 TESSERAE

INSULA CAN REACH OVER SEVEN STORIES HIGH. HIGHER FLOORS ARE LESS DESIRABLE DUE TO THE STAIRS

CUPID ON A DOLPHIN MOSAIC IS MADE WITH MORE THAN
360,000 TESSERAE

PHOTO OF A CONCRETE PANELÁK
Domestic houses in Ancient Egypt were constructed using mud bricks, or adobe bricks, and were home to several generations of the same family. Egyptian families were typically large and relatively poor, meaning that extended family members would often be crammed into the same modest living space, or living room, where food, conversation and housework were shared.

Windows were built high up on the building to prevent dirt blowing through the property, as well as to minimise the harsh direct glare of the sun roasting its occupants. Walls were painted white to help repel the intense heat, though decorative patterns were often applied to bring a little colour into the rooms.

Egyptian society bore a rigid hierarchy, and the structure of the home, and even its location within the town or city, reflected this. Elite families, those richest, and the most well-connected would own houses closest to the settlement’s palace or temple. Within these homes, the heads of the family, usually the eldest male and his wife, would commonly have the privilege of their own chambers, often connected to a religious shrine that was itself incredibly important in the home. These would usually be positioned centrally in the house, with the children’s rooms, kitchen areas and servants’ quarters positioned in the peripheral.

However, the majority of city populations were poor farming families, who lived and profited off the fertile Nile delta. Their homes were located further away from central, prestigious locations, and were also much more modest in size and structure. Even in these smaller dwellings, Egyptian hierarchy, and more specifically patriarchy, was visible, with the husband and father sitting, eating and sleeping in the more comfortable positions in the house.

**Front of house**
The entrance to the dwelling was commonly constructed of much thicker wood than other doors on the property. This would have been as much for impressing the neighbours as for security - with no safes or alarms, much of the family valuables would be hidden in the basement of the property.

**Ventilation**
Small, rectangular openings, usually secured with bars but entirely without glass, acted as ancient windows to cool the house and its occupants. They were positioned around the building and high up on the walls to prevent dust and sand coming into the home.

**Roof terrace**
The average dwelling had several storeys, with stairs made from adobe bricks leading to the roof terrace. This was the perfect spot for leaving salted meat and fish to cure in the sun, or do work during the day in the vain hope of catching a breeze. The roof itself was constructed from logs - normally from date palms - laid in a row and covered in Nile mud to prevent leaks on the rare occasions it rained.

**A warm welcome**
This is where visitors and messengers would be received, and where the women would congregate. There would often be an altar honouring the god Bes, a dwarfish creature who was believed to protect the home, as well as the family, from evil. The entrance hall would be intensely decorated in order to impress guests and display the family’s prestige.
**The bedroom**
Mattresses were made from rushes threaded together and rolled out on the floor or lashed around a simple wooden frame, with a curved wooden headrest underneath to support the head at the neck. There may have been boxes to store belongings, but furniture was generally limited.

**Safety features**
Without glass, the windows were covered with stone bars or grids to prevent unwanted visitors. Doors were planks of wood attached by metal spikes at the top and bottom, which pivoted inside a stone hole. Bolts and clasps made of metal or wood provided security.

**Communal area**
This central room was where the family would congregate. There would be pottery, and simple wooden stools and tables carved from wood. The rich would have furniture decorated with ebony, ivory and gold, and chairs were considered a luxury item. Walls were sometimes brightly painted with pictures of gods and scenes from nature.

**Building materials**
The Nile provided plenty of mud that Egypt’s inhabitants used to build their houses. It would be mixed with sand or chopped straw to help bind it together, and shaped into bricks (known as adobe) using rectangular wooden frames and left to dry. This was the main construction material of the time for both rich and poor, but the searing heat would often cause the bricks to crumble.

**Into the basement**
In the intensely hot Egyptian climate, under ground was the coolest place to protect and preserve food, such as onions, pulses, radishes and fruits. The entrance to the basement would commonly be in the form of a concealed or covered trapdoor.

**Well-equipped kitchens**
Bread was a staple of the Egyptian diet, and was baked in clay ovens by the women in the household. Kitchens were stocked with spices, fruits, vegetables and meat, and they even had a rather primitive form of refrigerator: a hole dug in the ground that was covered with a lid to keep its contents cool.

**The bedroom**
Mattresses were made from rushes threaded together and rolled out on the floor or lashed around a simple wooden frame, with a curved wooden headrest underneath to support the head at the neck. There may have been boxes to store belongings, but furniture was generally limited.
Anatomy of THE SACK

MULTIPURPOSE SLEEPING BAG

After climbing the chimney, the boy would sweep the dislodged soot into a sack and take it back to their master, who would then sell it on to farmers to be used as fertiliser. Once emptied, the filthy sacks doubled as a blanket for the boys to sleep in at night.

SMALL BRUSH AND SCRAPER

UP THE CHIMNEY

To clean tall and narrow chimneys, master sweeps would purchase boys as young as four from their parents to scale the flues. These ‘climbing boys’ used small brushes to clean away soot and metal scrapers to remove hard tar deposits left by wood fire smoke.

CLOTHING

FUNERAL CHIC

The top hat and tails worn by many chimney sweeps were usually cast-offs from local funeral directors. Their black colour was practical for the dirty work and they helped give an air of authority to an otherwise lowly profession.

BRUSH

TOOL OF THE TRADE

Master sweeps used long-handled circular brushes made from whalebones to clean chimneys. As well as sweeping from below, they could also weight the brush with a lead or iron ball and lower it down the flue with a rope from the roof.

BADGE

PLEASE RETURN TO...

Climbing boys were required to wear a curved brass badge on their caps detailing their master’s name and address. This served to advertise their master’s services as well as let the authorities know whom the child belonged to in the event of an accident or any criminal activity.

PIN

PAINFUL ENCOURAGEMENT

Reluctant climbing boys were sometimes forced up the chimney by their master, who would prick their behinds or the soles of their feet if they tried to come back down. Some even lit the fire beneath them, giving them no choice but to continue upwards.

CAP

A MAKESHIFT MASK

While scaling chimneys, climbing boys would often pull their caps down over their faces in an attempt to keep the soot out of their eyes, nose and mouth. The cap was typically made of coarse cloth so they could breathe and also be able to see daylight through it when they were nearing the top.

SACK

MULTIPURPOSE SLEEPING BAG

After climbing the chimney, the boys would sweep the dislodged soot into a sack and take it back to their master, who would sell it to farmers to use as fertiliser. Once emptied, the filthy sacks doubled as a blanket for the boys to sleep in at night.

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During the Roman Empire, up to a third of the population of Rome consisted of slaves. These men, women and children had often been captured in battle, and were then bought by wealthy Romans to work for them in exchange for basic food and lodging. As well as providing manual labour and domestic duties, such as cleaning, cooking and transport services, slaves were also considered a symbol of wealth for Rome's elite, and so the more servants a man owned, the greater his social standing. A very rich man could own as many as 500 slaves, while an emperor could have 20,000. Living conditions for a slave were brutal, and they lived relatively short lives as a result of this.

**GET UP**

Slaves were expected to be up at dawn and dress in linen or wool tunics and wooden shoes issued by their master. Their outfits were similar to those of Roman citizens, but when the Senate once suggested the idea of a slave uniform, it was rejected for fear that the slaves may revolt if they could easily see just how large their numbers were.

**DO THE CHORES**

A slave's day began with lighting fires for the under-floor heating, fetching water and preparing the master's breakfast. Once the master was awake, they would wash and dress them and serve their morning meal, all while being seen and not heard. The slaves themselves would receive meagre rations of bread, fruit and cheap wine to set them up for the day.

**START WORK**

Household slaves would spend the majority of their days cooking, cleaning and running errands, such as taking the children to school, buying groceries and repairing clothes. Some were treated well in recognition of their hard work, but they still had no right to own anything or have a family. Skilled slaves could also work as teachers, accountants, doctors and musicians, sometimes for minimal pay.
The major slave rebellions were known as the Servile Wars. Slaves were bought and sold at market, priced depending on their age and skill level. Tired of having no rights to freedom, the slaves of Rome staged three separate rebellions, but were defeated every time. The most famous revolt was led by Spartacus between 73 and 71 BCE, and ended in his death and 6,000 of his followers being recaptured. However, some slaves preferred to use more subtle methods of resistance, such as embezzling their master’s money.

If a slave was caught misbehaving or simply did something their master didn’t approve of, they could be whipped, chained, tortured and even killed with no legal repercussions. The Roman equestrian Publius Vedius Pollio was well known for his particularly cruel method of punishing his slaves: feeding them alive to his pet lamprey eels.

If their master was invited to a banquet, slaves would be tasked with carrying him there in a portable bed called a litter. Meanwhile, the slaves of the banquet’s host would be busy preparing the feast. Once the guests had arrived, it would then be the slaves’ job to serve them food, provide the entertainment, and clean up afterwards.

During the Roman festival of Saturnalia, an annual celebration of the deity Saturn, it was common for slaves and their masters to switch places. For the seven days of festivities beginning on 17 December, masters would serve their slaves lavish banquets, permit them to gamble, and even swap clothes with them, all in the spirit of goodwill.

Slaves could only be set free by their owner in a process called manumission, or by buying their own freedom, enabling them to become Roman citizens but not hold public office. However, this was a rare occurrence, so many would resort to escaping, killing their masters or even killing themselves to avoid a life of abuse as a slave.
How to Build a Crannog

These Stilted Houses Kept Their Inhabitants Safe and Dry

Scotland, 500 BCE

Shelter and security have always been at the forefront of people’s minds when building dwellings, and the crannogs of northern Europe are no different. Iron Age inhabitants of Scotland, Ireland and Wales hit upon the idea of constructing their houses on rivers, lakes and lochs for protection and status. The definition of a crannog is still widely debated with anything from a stilted house to an artificial island fitting the bill. The most striking of these are found in Perthshire, Scotland, where a reconstruction has been made from remnants found in the surrounding area.

Status
Crannogs are a great display of wealth due to the backbreaking labour and amount of materials needed.

Longevity
Keep your house well maintained so that future generations of your family can build here. Crannogs were built and inhabited up until the 17th century.

Security
Having only one entrance to your house means that any would-be attackers are in for a tough fight.

Supplies
Fresh produce from the loch or river, coupled with farming the surrounding area, means that your family need not ever go hungry.

Family
A crannog was designed to house an entire family, with living space given to each generation inside.

WHAT YOU’LL NEED...

01 CHOOSE A LOCATION

The first step is to find a suitable location to begin construction of your crannog. Rivers, lakes or lochs are ideal as they provide protection and sustenance, and are used as highways for trade during this period, meaning you have access to everything you need. As timber will be your main construction material, having a wooded area nearby is ideal.

02 START THE PROCESS

To lay your foundations you will need plenty of timber. Forests can provide the different types of wood you need, from stout trunks to smaller, woven branches. Take the strongest and longest pieces, usually made of Alder wood, for the foundations. They should be eight to ten metres long. Use boats or rafts to drag them to where you want to start.
03 LAY THE FOUNDATIONS
To drive the piles into the loch bed, lash a cross pole to the upright pile then twist back and forth. This should create enough momentum to drive the pile up to two metres into the loch bed. You will need strength and patience for this, because it can take up to 12 days to lay more than 150 piles needed for the foundations.

04 MAKE YOUR PLATFORM
It’s now time to start making the platform to build your house on. Rounded wooden poles lashed to the foundations should provide a sturdy base to erect your Iron Age roundhouse on top. You’ll need to weave hundreds of flexible hazel stems together to create the walls and overall structure of the house.

05 ADD FINISHING TOUCHES
Being located on a loch means that there are plenty of reeds you can use to thatch a roof. When you’re laying down the roof, don’t forget to leave a hole in the centre, over the fire pit, for smoke ventilation. Wet firewood, or other fuels like peat, will make the room smoky, so make sure it has somewhere to go.

06 MOVE IN
Now the house is completed you can move in. There is room for the whole family, and everything from cooking, cleaning and relaxing is done in the central area around the fire pit, with other sections set aside for sleeping quarters. Make sure that you utilise the surrounding countryside for farming and breeding livestock.

4 UNIQUE... DWELLINGS

ROUNDHOUSE
IRON AGE, BRITAIN
The standard form of housing in Iron Age Britain, these structures were a mixture of thatched roofs and wattle-and-daub walls.

PETRA
4TH CENTURY BCE, JORDAN
This astounding city, also known as the Rose City, is located in the Jordanian desert, and was carved from the natural sandstone.

CLIFF PALACE
1190, COLORADO, USA
Native American ancestors toiled for 20 years to create this unique cliff dwelling, which is the largest in North America.

How not to... house a family
Housing in cities has always been a challenge. Multi-floor flats have been in use for thousands of years, but housing many people in a small space is usually followed by poor hygiene and poverty. One of the first known tower blocks was the Roman insula, Latin for island. These buildings housed much of the population of Ancient Rome, and were constructed out of timber, mud brick and later, primitive concrete. The cost-effective nature of these buildings often meant that they were somewhat prone to deadly fires or that they would collapse from faulty construction. The problem grew so great that the Emperor Augustus restricted their height to 20 metres, with the Emperor Nero going even further and reducing the height to just 17 metres. They were also fodder for satirists at the time, with the poet Juvenal stating: “How the bailiff patches cracks in old walls, telling the resident to sleep peacefully under roofs ready to fall down around them.”
5 amazing facts about...

TOILETS

WORLDWIDE, 3000 BCE – PRESENT DAY

01 The Romans did their business communally
Roman forts featured rooms containing up to 30 toilets lined up along a bench with no partitions for privacy, with just a shared sponge on a stick to use as toilet paper. They did have advanced plumbing, however, as overflow from nearby bathhouses was sometimes used to flush away the waste.

02 Medieval toilets doubled as wardrobes
In Medieval castles, toilets called ‘garderobes’ were built on to the sides of buildings so that the waste dropped into the moat or on to an invading army. These areas were also often used for storing clothes, as the bad smells kept moths away. This is where the word wardrobe comes from.

03 A ‘toilet’ used to be worn on the head
The word toilet is an English translation of the French word ‘toile’, meaning ‘cloth’, and was originally used to describe a shawl or head covering. It was later applied to the cloth that covered a lady’s dressing table, then the dressing table itself, before describing the wash room in which the bladder and bowels are emptied.

04 The first flush was tested by a queen
The flushing toilet was invented by Sir John Harrington in 1596 and featured a raised cistern that released water into the pan when a handle was turned. He installed one for his godmother, Queen Elizabeth I, at her palace in Richmond, but the design didn’t catch on until improvements were made many years later in the 18th century.

05 Apollo astronauts urinated into a hose
As there was no toilet on board, the Apollo spacecraft’s suction hose released urine into space. Even worse, the astronauts had to defecate into a bag that was emptied by hand. Thankfully those on the International Space Station today are spared this ordeal, as it has a more conventional vacuum toilet.
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DOMESTIC APPLIANCE INVENTORS

Although many didn’t become household names, we can thank these ingenious engineers for making our daily lives so much easier.

**JOSEPHINE COCHRANE**
*American 1839-1913*

Frustrated that her expensive crockery was often chipped by the servants when they were washing it, Cochrane decided to invent a machine that could do a better job. Her automatic dishwasher featured a wooden wheel lying flat inside a copper boiler that could be turned by hand or by a pulley driven by a power source. Attached to the wheel was a wire-framed rack for holding the dishes, and this was showered with hot soapy water as it spun. After demonstrating the device at the 1893 Chicago World’s Columbian Exposition, hotels and restaurants began placing orders and the dishwasher went into production.

Cochrane’s company later became KitchenAid, which is still around today.

**HUBERT CECIL BOOTH**
*British 1871-1955*

Early dust-busting machines simply blew dirt away, leaving it to settle somewhere else, but bridge designer Hubert Cecil Booth had a better idea. He believed sucking up the grime was a better solution, and was so confident in his idea that he tested it in a crowded restaurant. Placing his handkerchief over his lips, he sucked up the dirt from his chair, and then showed the black debris it had collected to the room. He transferred this principle into an enormous horse-drawn vacuum cleaner called the Puffing Billy, which parked outside customers’ homes and used hoses that were sent through the windows. Booth’s machine was used to clean the carpet for King Edward VII’s coronation.

**SIR BENJAMIN THOMPSON**
*American-British 1753-1814*

After earning a knighthood for his services to England during the American War of Independence, Sir Benjamin Thompson moved to Bavaria to work for the government. Tasked with solving the beggar problem in Munich, he established workhouses for the poor, complete with industrial kitchens to feed them. As an inquisitive scientist with an interest in heat, he made this job easier by developing a kitchen range that retained heat and allowed the temperature to be regulated. Although too large for use in domestic kitchens, it proved more efficient than an open hearth and was eventually developed into the stoves we use today. Sir Benjamin was also made a count of the Holy Roman Empire.

**JACOB PERKINS**
*American 1766-1849*

A prolific inventor whose creations include a machine for manufacturing nails, a method of producing unforgeable banknotes and a steam engine, Jacob Perkins is also considered to be the father of refrigeration. After meeting fellow American inventor Oliver Evans, Perkins began building on his new friend’s refrigeration principles and patented his own closed-cycle vapour compression refrigerator in 1834. However, as the machine used dangerous substances such as ether and ammonia to lower the temperatures of nearby objects, it was not suitable for domestic use. He retired soon after, leaving others to adapt his ground-breaking idea into the commercial success it is today.

As well as the kitchen range, Sir Benjamin Thompson invented a drip coffeepot, a nutritious soup for the poor, and improved the fireplace.
“When you invent, you change the world”

Dr John Taylor

When you invent, you change the world

Dr John Taylor OBE

Across the world, Dr John Taylor’s invention is used about a billion times a day. His simple yet effective thermostat was developed to solve the problem of plastic kettles melting or catching fire when people failed to switch them off once the water inside had boiled. The bimetallic strip in the invention automatically breaks the electrical circuit when the optimum temperature is reached, and is now used in a wide range of thermostatically controlled appliances around the home.

DR JOHN TAYLOR OBE
BRITISH 1936-PRESENT

A cross the world, Dr John Taylor’s invention is used about a billion times a day. His simple yet effective thermostat was developed to solve the problem of plastic kettles melting or catching fire when people failed to switch them off once the water inside had boiled. The bimetallic strip in the invention automatically breaks the electrical circuit when the optimum temperature is reached, and is now used in a wide range of thermostatically controlled appliances around the home.

ANTONIO MEUCCI
ITALIAN 1808-89

Many people recognise Alexander Graham Bell as the inventor of the telephone, but in 2002, US Congress ruled that Bell had in fact stolen the idea from Antonio Meucci. The impoverished Italian had discovered that sounds could travel through copper wire while working on electric shock treatments in the 1830s, and demonstrated his communication device in New York some 30 years later. He struggled to find financial backing for his invention and could not afford a patent, but Bell, the man who shared his laboratory, could. Meucci tried to sue Bell for stealing his idea, but died before he could secure the victory he deserved.

ISAAC SINGER
AMERICAN 1811-75

When tasked with repairing a sewing machine, mechanic Isaac Singer decided he could do one better. Just 11 days later he had invented a superior model, one that could sew continuously on any part of an object at a rate of 900 stitches per minute. Despite a patent war with fellow inventor Elias Howe, Singer began manufacturing his machines. By 1860, his company was the biggest producer of sewing machines in the world.

JOHN LOGIE BAIRD
BRITISH 1888-1946

In an attic room in Soho, London, on 26 January 1926, a group of scientists and one journalist watched as the head of a ventriloquist’s doll located in another room appeared on the small screen in front of them. They had become the first to witness the ‘television’, John Logie Baird’s mechanical television, and by 1928, the Baird Television Development Company had achieved the first transatlantic television transmission. However, his invention was dropped for an electronic system in 1937.

FRANZ SAN GALLI
RUSSIAN 1824-1908

The bitterly cold Russian winters were likely to be businessman Franz San Galli’s inspiration for inventing the radiator. He called his creation, patented in 1857, the ‘hot box’, and it led the way for modern central heating systems. However, his claim to the invention is disputed, as an American patent for a primitive radiator was awarded to American Joseph Nason in 1841. Nevertheless, he is still considered a Russian hero, honoured with a sculpture of his initial invention in Moscow.

JACOB CHRISTIAN SCHÄFFER
GERMAN 1718-90

The first patent for a washing machine was issued in Britain in 1691, but little is known about the device or its inventor. Therefore, the first garment-cleaning machine is often credited to Jacob Christian Schäffer, who published his designs in 1767. It appeared to be a wooden drum that could be rotated by hand, but he was much better known for his work as a scientist, as he published many books about the natural world.

As well as sewing machines, Isaac Singer also designed a vehicle that featured 31 seats, a toilet and room for a band to play on board.

When you invent, you change the world

Dr John Taylor

When you invent, you change the world

Dr John Taylor OBE

Across the world, Dr John Taylor’s invention is used about a billion times a day. His simple yet effective thermostat was developed to solve the problem of plastic kettles melting or catching fire when people failed to switch them off once the water inside had boiled. The bimetallic strip in the invention automatically breaks the electrical circuit when the optimum temperature is reached, and is now used in a wide range of thermostatically controlled appliances around the home.

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Two armies waited at Zama, in October 202 BCE, ready to do battle. On the one side were the Romans, on the other the Carthaginians. At stake was the very survival of Carthage. The commander of the Carthaginians, Hannibal Barca, had been hurriedly recalled from Italy to defend his home city from Roman attack. The young Publius Cornelius Scipio, in command of the Romans, rode out to meet him in the no-man’s land between the armies. Would the Romans be interested in negotiating, Hannibal asked? Why risk a battle when peace could be had without a fight? Scipio refused outright. Carthage had already cynically used a previous truce to summon Hannibal back to Africa, he said, and then resumed the war once he arrived to command its army. Scipio accused Hannibal of now trying to profit from Carthage’s own treachery.

The fates of the titanic powers of Rome and Carthage could only be decided by a great trial of arms. The generals returned to their men and prepared them for the battle to come. Hannibal would fight one last time on behalf of his people. Though he had rampaged through Italy for 16 years and had won spectacular victories there, he had been unable to defeat Rome.

Hannibal’s road to Zama began even before his birth in 247 BCE, during the First Punic War with Rome. The battle for supremacy lasted more than 20 years, before Carthage finally succumbed to Roman persistence and naval might. Crushed at the battle of the Aegates Islands, Carthage was forced to accept humiliating peace terms from the triumphant Romans. The empire was stripped of its holdings in Sicily, which had been built up over centuries of colonisation, and forced to pay a huge indemnity to Rome.

Making matters worse was the subsequent arrogant behaviour of the Romans. In 238 BCE, they seized Sardinia under the pretext that Carthage was plotting another strike on the Romans. At the time, however, Carthage was distracted by a brutal war with its former mercenaries, and could do nothing to prevent it. The theft of the island may have gone unchallenged, but it instilled a fervent desire for revenge in the hearts of many Carthaginians.

Foremost among these was Hamilcar Barca, Carthage’s leading general in the latter years of the First Punic War. Hamilcar had fought the Romans to a standstill in Sicily, operating out of his base of Mount Eryx where he conducted daring hit-and-
Hamilcar intended to restore Carthage's position in an eventual second war with Rome. First, however, he needed to rebuild the Carthaginian army, which had been battered by the wars with Rome and then the mercenaries. His plan was to go to Spain, where he would expand Carthage's holdings and recruit tough Spanish tribesmen to fight. Carthage's armies had long been composed exclusively of mercenaries from around the Mediterranean world. Only the officers were natives of Carthage; the rest were foreigners. From Africa, Spain, Gaul, and the Balearic Isles they came, lured by the generous pay of the Carthaginians. Among the best fighters were the superb light cavalry of Numidia in North Africa. The Romans would be at a deep disadvantage in battle until they found a way to recruit Numidians of their own.

Wealth was something Carthage normally possessed in abundance. Known to the Romans as 'Punics' because their ancestors had originally come from Phoenicia, the Carthaginians had the same talent for commerce. After the war with Rome, however, money was in short supply and Carthage was burdened by the weighty indemnity. In search of much-needed silver and territory, Hamilcar led an expedition to the Iberian Peninsula in 237 BCE. He was confident they would run raids on the Romans around him. The decision of Carthage's government to make peace on Roman terms was a shock, and he never reconciled himself to defeat. Hamilcar intended to restore Carthage's position in an eventual second war with Rome. First, however, he needed to rebuild the Carthaginian army, which had been battered by the wars with Rome and then the mercenaries. His plan was to go to Spain, where he would expand Carthage's holdings and recruit tough Spanish tribesmen to fight. Carthage's armies had long been composed exclusively of mercenaries from around the Mediterranean world. Only the officers were natives of Carthage; the rest were foreigners. From Africa, Spain, Gaul, and the Balearic Isles they came, lured by the generous pay of the Carthaginians. Among the best fighters were the superb light cavalry of Numidia in North Africa. The Romans would be at a deep disadvantage in battle until they found a way to recruit Numidians of their own.
be successful, having taken part in a sacred ritual before departing: a human had been sacrificed to the gods. Hamilcar had brought his nine-year-old son, Hannibal, to the altar, made him place his hand on the blood of the victim and swear his unending hatred of the Romans. The young boy is said to have recited the oath: “I swear so soon as age will permit I will use fire and steel to arrest the destiny of Rome.” It was a promise the young Hannibal would keep.

Together, father and son sailed for Iberia, and their forces were ruthless in their suppression of the Spanish. Hamilcar killed many, and recruited others to his cause. He also increased the productivity of Spanish mines, sending silver by the shipful to Carthage. With this money, Hamilcar easily paid the mercenaries of his swelling army. Yet Hamilcar was never to lead this army of vengeance against Rome. In 228 BCE, he was betrayed by Spanish allies, and died trying to escape them. Control of Carthage’s army in Spain eventually fell to Hannibal, who had been raised among the soldiers of his father and held their unwavering loyalty. He increased Carthage’s dominion in the peninsula, but then ran into trouble when he struck at Saguntum, a city friendly with Rome. Though he quickly captured it, his aggression caused Rome to declare war on Carthage in 218 BCE.

Hannibal had cleverly deployed some 1,000 cavalry and 1,000 infantry under the command of his youngest brother, Mago Barca, in a concealed position behind some marsh reeds. When the Romans passed them, the Carthaginians ambushed. The Romans were taken completely by surprise, and their army of some 40,000 was crushed, with just 10,000 escaping the trap alive. Worse was to come. In 217 BCE, Hannibal met a Roman army head-on at Lake Trasimene. The battle was, “...savage at every point,” wrote the Roman historian Livy. Valour was not enough to turn the tide against the better-led Carthaginian army. The Roman general Gaius Flaminius was slain, along with 15,000 of his men, though the Carthaginians lost some 2,500 of their own troops, too. In a bid to win the support of the local people, Hannibal began to free his non-Roman Italian prisoners of war. Stunned and severely beaten, the Romans began to understand that Hannibal was no ordinary general. They appointed Quintus Fabius Maximus as dictator, a post that carried with it vast powers to be used only in a time of emergency.

Hannibal continued to cause havoc throughout Italy as he marched south. Fabius dogged him at every turn, always refusing outright to battle. 

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with the nigh-invincible Hannibal. Instead, Fabius picked off straggling Carthaginians or fought small skirmishes to restore Roman confidence. This strategy brought modest but real results. It also caused dissatisfaction among more aggressive Romans who wanted to take on Hannibal once again. They called Fabius 'cunctator' (meaning 'delayer') for his unwillingness to face the enemy in battle, and despite restoring Roman fortunes, Fabius’s six-month dictatorship was not extended.

In the following year, a Roman army of unprecedented size – some 80,000 men – met Hannibal in a pitched battle at Cannae in southern Italy. The Romans charged ahead, pushing their way deep into the Carthaginian centre, which seemed to give way. However, this was all part of Hannibal’s cunning plan, and as the Romans pressed forward, the wings of his army closed in. Trapped, the Romans became so closely packed that they could not even swing their swords and were slain almost to a man. “Some were discovered lying there alive,” Livy wrote, “with thighs and tendons slashed, baring their necks and throats and bidding their conquerors drain the remnant of their blood.” About 50,000 Romans died in that single day.

In the aftermath of Cannae, Maharbal, Hannibal’s talented cavalry commander, urged him to strike at Rome, promising that they would be having dinner there in just four days if he did so. But Hannibal did not march immediately on Rome. The Carthaginian army was exhausted and he had lost thousands of men. He had defeated three Roman armies, inflicting terrible losses, but the Romans could always raise new legions to replace them. Hannibal, on the other hand, had bled his own army white in winning these battles, and may have been left too weak to contemplate a siege of Rome at this time.

When Hannibal refused to follow his subordinate’s advice, a frustrated Maharbal remarked, “You know how to win a battle, Hannibal; you do not know how to use the victory.” This decision was one of his most controversial. Rome might well have fallen to the Carthaginians had he appeared outside its gates soon after Cannae. Instead, the Romans found the will to continue the war, and, by and large, Rome’s allies stood by them.

Hannibal would enjoy limited successes in Italy after Cannae. The city of Capua defected to him in 216 BCE and, in 212 BCE, Tarentum joined his cause too. But these were scattered victories and reinforcements from Carthage were very limited. The Romans could not eject Hannibal from his base in southern Italy, but he could not defeat Rome either, and so a stalemate prevailed.

When the war began, the Romans had shrewdly sent an army to Spain to put pressure on the Carthaginians there. Hannibal, in his eagerness to get to grips with the Romans in Italy, had left behind him an incompletely pacified territory, and Rome found willing allies there who wanted the Carthaginians gone. The Romans suffered terrible reverses in Spain, but it also became a training ground for the one Roman general who would prove to be a match for Hannibal in military skill: Publius Cornelius Scipio. With his father and uncle killed, Scipio was just 25 years old when he took command of Roman forces. He was no callow youth, but a battle-hardened survivor of the disaster at Cannae.

After seizing the main Carthaginian stronghold of Carthago Nova in a surprise assault in 209 BCE, Scipio next defeated Hannibal’s brother, Hasdrubal Barca, at the Battle of Baecula. This was followed by another victory at the Battle of Ilipa in 206 BCE over Hasdrubal Gisgo and Hannibal’s brother Mago. All the while, Scipio strengthened his soldiers and developed the tactics that would eventually make the Romans more than a match for the mercenaries who fought for Carthage.

While Hannibal was in Italy, unable to do much against a Rome that had largely recovered from its earlier defeats, Scipio was developing into one of the finest generals Rome would ever produce.

This 15th-century Italian painting embodies the classical idea of the ‘noble savage’
Mago would quit Spain altogether by 205 BCE, leaving Scipio as the master of the country. The loss of this territory also encouraged Massinissa, a Numidian prince, to switch his loyalty to Rome. Scipio would later have use of the excellent cavalry Massinissa brought with him, and this would go a long way to remedy the Roman weakness in cavalry that had long plagued them in their battles with the Carthaginians.

In 208 BCE, the Carthaginians launched a major bid to bring aid to Hannibal, but this did not come directly from Carthage. Instead, Hannibal's brother, Hasdrubal Barca, escaped Scipio's clutches and marched his army out of Spain. He retraced his brother's footsteps through southern Gaul to Italy, which he reached in 207 BCE. Lying between Hasdrubal and his older brother in the south were the Roman legions. The Romans struck at Hasdrubal before they could join together and smashed his army along the Metaurus River, killing some 10,000 of his Spanish and African mercenaries. Hannibal learned of his younger brother's defeat only when the Romans tossed Hasdrubal's head into his army's camp. "Now, at last," Hannibal said grimly, "I see the destiny of Carthage plain!"

Having driven the Carthaginians from Spain, Scipio was placed in command of a large army in Sicily, which he then took to Africa in 204 BCE for a final showdown with Carthage. After landing, Scipio besieged the city of Utica and then defeated a large Carthaginian army sent against him. Scipio was successful in all his endeavours, and Carthage sued for peace. In 203 BCE, while peace terms were being discussed under truce, Hannibal and his brother Mago, who was now in northern Italy, were recalled home.

It is said that Hannibal was furious when this recall order reached him, and that he complained bitterly that his government had not supported him during the 16 years he had campaigned against the Romans in Italy. However, at the root of it all, Hannibal had only himself to blame. He had incautiously moved against Saguntum years before, bringing on a war with Rome when Carthage was not fully prepared to wage one. He then invaded Italy with an army that was too small to win that war, no matter how many battles he was able to win with it.

For many years after Cannae, he was unable to do more than hold his own as events unfolded elsewhere, such as in Sicily and Spain. The city of Syracuse, which fell to Carthage in 215 BCE, was captured three years later in 212 BCE, and Spain was entirely in Roman hands by 205 BCE. Capua was retaken by the Romans in 211 BCE, as was Tarentum in 209 BCE. Over time, Hannibal's army deteriorated, while the Romans fielded ever-increasing forces. Hannibal's political opponents in Carthage noted that despite Hannibal's grand triumphs in Italy, he had failed to detach any of Rome's Latin allies, the foundation of its power, from the Republic. Thus, they argued, Hannibal had gotten no closer to defeating Rome than when he entered Italy in 218 BCE. For the bulk of Carthage's leading citizens, Hannibal was useful in keeping large numbers of Roman soldiers busy in Italy after Cannae while the more important contests for Spain, Sicily, Corsica and Sardinia played themselves out.

We can discount the notion that Roman sea power prevented Carthage from ever trying to do more for Hannibal. While Rome had the stronger navy, it was not so powerful that it could prevent any and all Punic sea-borne crossings. Successful reinforcement missions were sent to Spain in 215 BCE and 207 BCE. A crossing was also made to Sicily in 213 BCE and then again in 212 BCE. In 205 BCE, Hannibal's brother Mago travelled by sea with his troops from Spain to northern Italy and was himself reinforced by Carthage in 204 BCE. It is clear then that the Carthaginians could have sent reinforcements by sea to Hannibal. They made the conscious decision not to.

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**KEY**

- Carthaginian possessions, 265 BCE
- Carthaginian losses, 238 BCE
- Carthaginian conquests by 218 BCE
- Carthage, 201 BCE

In the aftermath of the Second Punic War, Carthage had vast tracks of land stripped from it.
ROME’S DARKEST DAY

The Battle of Cannae was one of the worst disasters that ever befell a Roman army. Often aggressive to a fault, the Romans were, for a time at least, chastened by the thrashings they had received at the hands of the wily Hannibal Barca and his army at the Trebia river and at Lake Trasimene. Shocked by the scale of their defeats, they followed the cautious military policy of the dictator Quintus Fabius Maximus. After a while, however, they could no longer abide the Carthaginian general pillaging his way through Italy virtually unchallenged. They insisted on once again confronting Hannibal in a pitched battle.

In 216 BCE, the Romans elected consuls who would seek to bring Hannibal to account. These were Lucius Aemilius Paullus and his colleague, Gaius Terentius Varro. In all, their army numbered about 80,000 men. This giant muster marched on Hannibal in Apulia in south-eastern Italy, finding him at Cannae in late July 216 BCE. The Romans made matters more difficult for themselves by alternating command of their army between the two consuls. Paullus would have command of it on one day, and Varro the next, and so on. On the day of battle, 2 August 216 BCE, overall command rested in the hands of Varro.

Roman battle tactics of the period were very simple – essentially a straightforward rush at the enemy intended to overwhelm him by brute force alone. The Roman legionary was a highly skilled and very efficient killer, fighting as heavy infantry in several ranks. In contrast, the Carthaginian army at Cannae was a heterogeneous mix of troops from all over the Mediterranean world. It was perhaps Hannibal’s greatest talent to weld such men into a cohesive, successful fighting force. He made good use of the varied troops at his disposal. Knowing that the Gauls and Spaniards that were on foot in the centre of his line would likely be pushed back by the Roman infantry charge, he positioned them well forward of his wings, in an effort to use the Romans’ own power against them. During their charge, the legionaries drove the Gallic and Spanish warriors backwards, and succeeded in punching their way through, only to find that by doing so, they had helped to encircle themselves. When the gore-drenched day of 2 August came to an end, close to 50,000 Romans lay dead on the battlefield.

HANNIBAL’S MERCENARIES

**Numidian**
Numidians provided Hannibal with fantastic light cavalry. Riding up to the enemy, the unarmoured Numidians would hurl javelins, retire, and then attack once more.

**Iberian (Spaniard)**
Iberian Spanish infantry wore white tunics and carried a small round shield. Their typical weapons were the falca, a curved sword well suited for chopping, and javelins.

**Libyphoenician**
The Libyphoenicians from North Africa spoke Punic but were not Carthaginian citizens. They mainly fought as heavy infantry with a spear, armour, and a large shield. By Cannae, many had re-equipped with captured Roman weapons and armour.
The battle begins
Hasdrubal’s cavalry drives off the Roman horse on the Roman right wing. Meanwhile, Maharbal’s Numidians battle the Italian allied cavalry on the Roman left. As the lines of infantry close, they hurl their javelins at each other. The fighting becomes hand-to-hand and both sides fight fiercely. The Romans begin to push the Gauls and Spaniards backward.

The Romans advance
Numbering some 80,000 men, the Romans under their consuls Gaius Terentius Varro and Lucius Aemilius Paulus approach the Carthaginians confidently, intending to smash through them. Varro is on the Roman left with the Italian allied cavalry, while Paulus is on the right with the Roman cavalry.

Surrounded
Hasdrubal’s horsemen on the Carthaginian left reform, wheel around and attack the Italian allied cavalry under Varro in the rear, who flee for their lives, pursued by the Numidians. Hasdrubal next descends on the rear of the Roman infantry. The Romans find themselves totally surrounded by their enemies.

Slaughter
A massacre ensues as the Punic noose tightens around the doomed Romans. Some legionaries cannot even swing their swords as they are bunched so tightly together. Consul Paulus is slain and, by the end of a day of brutal slaughter, about 50,000 Romans lie dead, along with some 8,000 Carthaginian troops.
more legions that they used to hold him at bay in southern Italy. With eventual Roman victory looking ever more certain, Hannibal’s allies in Italy began to desert him. Hannibal was forced to make his last refuge in Bruttium, in the toe of Italy, where he remained until his recall. With Hannibal back in Africa (Mago would die at sea from wounds while on his way home) the Carthaginian government regained a measure of confidence, and peace negotiations with Rome broke down. War resumed, and Hannibal was put in command of Carthage’s remaining troops. With an army of about 40,000, comprising his best troops rescued from Italy and whatever else he could scrape together, including a handful of elephants, Hannibal met Scipio in battle at Zama in 202 BCE in modern Tunisia. Alarmingy, he was weaker in cavalry than Scipio, who had the aid of 4,000 of Massinissa’s fine Numidian horsemen.

In the hard-fought battle that followed, the Romans had the better of the Carthaginians. Roman tactics had vastly improved after years of war and were no longer simplistic headlong rushes at the enemy. Scipio’s men deftly stepped aside as Hannibal’s elephants thundered through their lines, and then surrounded and slew the beasts. Hannibal’s troops wavered and then cracked when the Roman and allied Numidian cavalry swung around and attacked them in their rear. The Carthaginian army crumbled, and Hannibal was forced to flee the field. The Carthaginian government again sued for peace, and in 201 BCE, the long war that had begun 17 years earlier officially came to an end. Subsequently Hannibal did much to restore Carthaginian finances to better pay the huge indemnity the Romans placed on them. Roman connivance with anti-Barcid factions in Carthage saw him driven out of the city, but Hannibal would never give up the struggle against Rome. In 191 BCE, he was commanding fleets against the Romans on behalf of King Antiochus the Great of the Seleucid Empire.

After Rome’s eventual triumph over the Seleucids, Hannibal made his way to the kingdom of Bithynia in Asia Minor. Roman vengeance found him there, and they pressured its king to extradite him to Rome. King Prusias agreed to do so, and in c.183 BCE, he sent his soldiers to Hannibal’s house to place him under arrest. Knowing well what fate was in store for him if he fell into Roman hands, Hannibal poisoned himself. One of the greatest generals of antiquity lay dead by his own hand.

ZAMA: THE BATTLE THAT NEVER WAS?

Professor Yozan Mosig explains why there’s so much doubt surrounding the event

WHAT DON’T WE KNOW ABOUT ZAMA?

No one has been able to find the exact location of the battle. The village of Jama, close to Siliana, some 150 kilometres southwest of Tunis, and a number of other candidates have been suggested but without archaeological verification. The site remains unknown, while those of practically all other major battles waged during the Second Punic War are reasonably well established. This is particularly troublesome in view of the Romans’ penchant for erecting monuments in situ to commemorate their greatest victories - there is not even a lonely column, statue or ruin marking the place.

ARE THERE DISTORTIONS ABOUT THE BATTLE OF ZAMA IN THE HISTORICAL RECORD THAT NEED CORRECTING?

The classical accounts of the Battle of Zama are strangely inconsistent and contradictory. The course of the struggle is inconsistent and contradictory. The course of the struggle is unequal to the vision of a great general. The 80 elephants are not credible, in view of their lack at the preceding battles of Utica and the Great Plains.

The recent dating of the famed military Punic port of Carthage to the 2nd rather than the 3rd century BCE has created a paradox leading to further doubts. According to HR Hurst, in his Excavations At Carthage, the port was built at some point between 201 and 146 BCE, after the end of the war. As Abdelaziz Belkhodja argues in his book, Hannibal Barca: L’histoire Veritable Et Le Mensonge De Zama (2014), this casts serious doubts on the authenticity of the peace treaty that Carthage was required to sign after the alleged defeat at Zama. The treaty, which dates back to 201 BCE, limited the Carthaginian navy to no more than ten warships, but the port had berths for 220, which means that at least that provision of the treaty is fictitious. If the war ended with a peace agreement giving concessions to Rome and without the dissolution of the Punic navy, as proposed by Hannibal in his meeting with Scipio, no final battle was needed. The construction of the military port after the war would then make sense, as would the lack of a monument to mark the location of the fictitious battle. It is therefore possible that the Battle of Zama was a fabrication of Roman propaganda to heal their wounded pride from Hannibal’s underrated years in Italy, and especially their defeat at Cannae, which necessitated creating the illusion of having achieved a comparable victory.

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The Channel Islands are steeped in history. Discover their heroes. Meet Victor Hugo, a French author exiled in Guernsey for 15 years. Visit his eclectic island home and see where he wrote “Les Miserables”. Inspired by the beauty of the island, he famously dedicated his work (Toilers of the Sea) to Guernsey.

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Humans have been playing games for millennia, developing elaborate boards and clever rules to entertain and even impart moral lessons. 

**SENET**

3500 BCE

Believed to be the world’s oldest board game, Senet was popular among the pharaohs of Ancient Egypt, with examples and illustrations found in Predynastic and First Dynasty tombs. Senet means ‘game of passing’ as it is thought to have been a representation of the journey to the afterlife. Two players threw sticks to decide how many spaces to move, and the aim was to knock your opponent off the board. However, the rules are a subject of much debate.

**ROYAL GAME OF UR**

2600 BCE

So called because it was first discovered in the Royal Tombs of Ur in Mesopotamia (modern Iraq), this board game has been played for longer than any other. After originally being excavated in the 1920s, it was thought that the rules had long been forgotten. However, later on in the 1980s, game enthusiast Irving Finkel found them carved into an ancient stone tablet at the British Museum, and soon after discovered that it was still being played in modern India. Also known as the Game Of Twenty Squares, the aim is to race your counters across the board, very much like in backgammon.

**Tutankhamun**

Egyptian 1341 - 1323 BCE

Among the many treasures found in the tomb of Egyptian pharaoh Tutankhamun were several Senet gaming boards, suggesting that he was a rather big fan of the board game. One board is made from ebony and rests on animal-shaped legs, while another is a smaller travel set made from ivory.

**SNAKES AND LADDERS**

200 BCE

Branded as Chutes And Ladders in the United States, this game originated in India where it was known by many different names, including Moksha Patamu, Leela and Vakuntapaaali. It was developed to teach children about morality, with the board symbolising their life’s journey. Along the way, they would climb ladders representing good deeds, and slide down snakes representing evil sins. Originally the snakes outnumbered the ladders, but when it was brought over to England in the late 19th century, the numbers were evened out and the aim of the game became a simple race to the finish.

**Chess**

c.600

The popularity of Chess has spread across the globe, spawning many different versions of the game. However, they all have one common ancestor: chaturanga. This strategy game was developed in the Gupta Empire of ancient India around the 6th century. The name translates as ‘four divisions’, namely infantry, cavalry, elephants and chariots; the four divisions of the military that were represented by the game pieces. Chaturanga then evolved into shatranj in Sassanid Persia before being brought to late-medieval Europe, where it was developed into the game played today.

**Milton Bradley**

American 1836 - 1911

Originally a draughtsman and lithographer, Bradley began selling The Checkered Game Of Life in 1860, and it became America’s first popular parlour game. Its success led him to form the Milton Bradley Company, often credited with launching the board games industry.

**Through History**

**BOARD GAMES**

The queen piece replaced the earlier vizier chess piece towards the end of the 10th century.
THE MANSION OF HAPPINESS
1843
The Mansion Of Happiness was one of the first board games published in the United States, marketed as an ‘instructive, moral and entertaining amusement’ based on the Puritan world view. Instead of rolling a dice, which was associated with Satan and gambling at the time, players spun a teetotum to decide how many spaces to move around the board. Landing on honesty, temperance or gratitude meant you could advance forwards towards The Mansion Of Happiness, while those who landed on audacity, cruelty or immodesty were instructed to stay where they were and not even think of happiness, much less partake of it until their next turn.

“Early die were made from wood, brass and marble”

SCRABBLE 1938
After losing his job during the Depression, New York architect Alfred Mosher Butts turned his attention to games. Noticing the popularity of number games such as bingo, move games such as chess and word games such as crosswords, he decided to combine them all. His original creation was called ‘It’, then ‘Lexiko’, then ‘Criss-Cross Words’, and he devised the scoring system by counting the letter usage on the front page of the New York Times. Butts struggled to secure a patent for the game until civil servant James Brunot offered to help, coming up with a new name and setting up the first Scrabble factory.

DICE C.3000 BCE
The oldest die ever found were discovered among a series of 49 gaming pieces in a tomb in Başur Höyük in southeast Turkey. They are thought to have been sculpted from stone around 5000 years ago, but the game they were intended to be used for is unknown. Other early die were made from wood, brass, marble and even the anklebones of sheep, but were irregular in shape. Cubic dice with markings very similar to the ones we recognise today are thought to have first appeared in Egypt around 2000 BCE and were used for games such as the Royal Game Of Ur.

MONOPOLY 1903
Many consider Charles Darrow to be the inventor of Monopoly, as he patented the game in 1935. However, the idea belonged to American actress Elizabeth Magie, who was awarded a patent for The Landlord’s Game in 1903. She designed it to illustrate the social injustice of land ownership at the time, and it slowly caught on with left-wing intellectuals and Quakers, who customised it with local street names. When Parker Brothers bought the rights for £500, Magie was thrilled, but realised they had only done so to eliminate the competition for Darrow’s Monopoly, which they also now owned.

SETTLERS OF CATAN 1995
Developed by German dental technician Klaus Teuber in his basement, Settlers Of Catan is the first Eurogame to become popular outside of Europe. Eurogames, also known as German-style games because the majority are made in Germany, are board games that emphasise strategy over conflict and luck, and keep all players in the game until the end. Catan sees players compete to establish a successful colony on the island of Catan by winning and trading resources to build settlements and roads. After winning awards in Germany, it became popular with hobby gamers in the US, and then early adopters of the internet helped it to go viral.

MANCALA C.700
Mancala refers to a genre of board games known as count-and-capture games, which are particularly popular in Africa. All you need to play are a few pits, which can be dug in the ground, and a handful of counters, which could be seeds or pebbles, and the aim is to distribute them in a path around the board. The simple equipment used, and the resemblance to agricultural practices, has led some to suggest that the game could date back to the beginning of human civilisation. However the oldest evidence of mancala boards has been found in Eritrea and Ethiopia, and dates back to the 7th century.
I cannot give to thee the love
I gave so long ago,
The love that turned and struck me down
Amid the blinding snow.

Excerpt from the poem *Worn Out* by Elizabeth Siddal
John Everett Millais’ depiction of Ophelia is among the most recognised Pre-Raphaelite paintings in the world. It portrays the last heart-wrenching moments of Shakespeare’s tragic heroine. It is unlikely that Elizabeth Siddal, the young, optimistic model, truly understood the depth of Ophelia’s suffering. As she posed for the painting she was at the start of her career, her ears were full of promises and her mind brimming with beautiful scenes and enchanting men. However, Lizzie’s story, like Ophelia’s, was not fated to be one of love, but of longing, tragedy, instability, crushed dreams and ultimately death.

Lizzie’s story began at the height of summer in 1829. Like a heroine of many great tales, she came from modest means. Her family were not impoverished but they were far from wealthy. Lizzie’s upbringing was not remarkable, but she developed a love of drawing and poetry from an early age. Though she was too poor to be formally educated, she was captivated by the poems of Tennyson, and spent hours daydreaming about a world of excitement, romance and dashing heroes as she gazed over the slum streets of London.

Despite her dreams of adventure beyond the bustling city, Lizzie still had to earn a living, and she found work in a hat shop. It was here that her unusual looks were first noticed. In an era when voluptuous women were regarded as beautiful, she was far from the conventionally attractive woman. She was thin, willowy, with long limbs and a pale complexion. Most peculiar of all was her flaming red hair, which many believed was unlucky. However, it was these unique looks that caught the eye of the promising young artist, Walter Howell Deverell. The painter was seeking a slender woman to model as Viola in his painting of a scene from Twelfth Night. Deverell appealed to Lizzie and requested she model for him.

It is unlikely that Lizzie had ever been told she was beautiful – striking perhaps, but never desirable. She probably considered her looks strange, and to be singled out in such a manner was shocking to the unconfident girl. In a family struggling to break through the social ranks, she had been raised to be acutely aware of the impact of her actions. Being a painter’s model, as glamorous as it may appear today, was synonymous with prostitution, and Lizzie, as much as she adored art, wanted to protect her reputation at all costs. An ordinary girl would have said no, and it was certainly safer to do so – no mean nothing changed, no mean zero risk.

But Lizzie was far from ordinary.
Inside the secret society

The Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood were on a mission to reform art with detail, colours and complexity.

Her first experience of modelling was staggering for the young, naive girl. For so long she had desired an escape from the drudgery of everyday life. She had dreamt of a poetic existence of art and splendour and for the first time in her young life she was the focus, not because of her strange red hair, but because she was adored, unique and captivating. Diverell, like many others after him, was completely enthralled by Lizzie, and his gushing compliments of the new model he had plucked from obscurity ensured her entry into the world of the Pre-Raphaelites.

The Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, despite the somewhat stuffy name, was far from boring. Its seven members were young, handsome, exciting and truly passionate about art. They were the rebels of the art world, wanting to defy tradition and, to the chagrin of their older peers, believed that art had become dry, boring and unappealing. They wanted it to be robust, colourful, sublime and dramatic. For a while they operated privately, secretly signing the initials PRB into their canvases, but when the truth was revealed they faced a brutal backlash and criticism for their arrogance. It was an incredibly dynamic era of art, where the young dared to question the old, and youthful Lizzie Siddal found herself thrust into the centre of it.

One member in particular took a shine to Lizzie. Dante Gabriel Rossetti was passionate, from an Italian family, had flowing black hair and dark, penetrating eyes. Charismatic, charming and brimming with fervour, he was the Sun that ultimately traumatising relationship.

Many believe that their love was doomed from the start. There was a huge gulf between their financial and social standing and as much Rossetti liked to paint himself the dashing hero, he was embarrassed by the situation. Unable to face the backlash from his family, he hid his lover away and the two lived in their own little bubble. For Rossetti this was perfect - obsessed with the tragic love of the Italian poet Dante and his muse Beatrice, he desired his own complicated, painful...
romance to fuel his art, and that is exactly what he ended up with.

Lizzie was more than Rossetti’s muse, she influenced every aspect of his painting and after their introduction, she featured in almost all of his pieces. His fellow brotherhood members were just as taken with her, and she was in high demand among the talented artists. For a ‘plain’ shop girl this was beyond a dream, she had become a beautiful nymph, a figure from legend to be admired and adored. Modelling for Lizzie was far from just a money grab; she was completely intoxicated with her new life and the vision of beauty she had become.

These early days of modelling were the happiest of Lizzie’s life, and if things had remained the same, her story would be one of love and joy. However, it was not meant to be. Lizzie’s dream first began to fade when a new model became the favourite of the group. Annie Miller was a busty, sexy, working-class girl who couldn’t have been more different from Lizzie. Lizzie’s fragile self-esteem wasn’t helped by the fact that, because of the bad press surrounding the group, the paintings of her had been criticised and her appearance insulted.

When Rossetti requested Lizzie model only for him she, completely addicted to his attention, agreed and gave up her day job. Despite her brash show of commitment, Rossetti did not reciprocate. He was still unwilling to admit the nature of their relationship publicly, while behind closed doors he lovingly called her ‘dove’ and whispered promises of eternity. Lizzie had given up everything for the passionate man, but she was terrified he would leave her. For someone usually so measured, she felt humiliated by letting herself get swept away in the glamour and excitement.

Suffering for her art

The model
Lizzie was 19 years old when she posed for Millais, and it would be the first and last time. She replicated the floating pose of Ophelia in a bathtub for hours. The figure of Ophelia in the finished portrait was described to be “wonderfully like her.”

Preparatory sketches
Millais often sketched straight onto the canvas to mark out the figure and landscape, and for Ophelia he penned only a few preparatory sketches; a study of Lizzie’s head and face and a finished sketch of the painting. A watercolour version of his study of the head also exists today in a private collection, and an oil version with a wreath did exist but its whereabouts are currently unknown.

Improvised heating
As Millais was painting during the cold winter, the water in the bathtub was kept warm by oil lamps placed underneath it. However, Millais was so engrossed by his painting that he didn’t notice the lamps go out, and Lizzie did not complain. She became ill as a result and her father demanded Millais pay her medical bills.

Ophelia’s gown
Millais purchased the dress worn by Lizzie from a second-hand shop. The fine silver embroidered dress cost the princely sum of £4, approximately £250 today. Millais later wrote that “I have purchased a really splendid lady’s ancient dress… you may imagine it is something rather good when I tell you it cost me, old and dirty as it is, four pounds.”

The landscape painting
Unusually for the era, Millais finished the landscape section of the painting first, spending several months painting in the open air. The Pre-Raphaelites thought that the landscape was just as important as the figure, which was commonly believed to be the central focus of paintings and usually completed first.

Secret sketches
By examining the frame at the curved edges, it has been revealed that Millais originally added a water colour to the painting, edited it out, added it again and finally removed it after discussing it with a friend. Sketches of birds have also been revealed as well as what appear to be notes to himself such as “SS Changing Lane.”

Tools of the trade
A Pre-Raphaelite artist would have access to a variety of brushes, from hard brushes made from pig’s hair to soft brushes made from squirrel’s tails. Due to the detail and complexity of Millais’ work he used small, fine brushes to apply oil paints. He also used a palette made from porcelain to mix colours.
A year after Lizzie's death, Rossetti painted Beata Beatrix, featuring Lizzie as Dante's tragic Beatrice.

She had begun as Rossetti’s adored model, but his neighbours gossiped that she was his ‘mistress’ and Lizzie was beginning to fear this was true.

Lizzie’s own declining health did not help her tears of abandonment and her increasing reliance on laudanum had a disastrous effect on her health. Use of the painkiller was commonplace, but when combined with Lizzie’s tendency for depressive periods, it was incredibly dangerous. She had not received much love or attention in her life, and now she had tasted it, it was all she wanted. Although Rossetti would often rush to her side, at other times he was simply too busy to be with her, and Lizzie would lay suffering in bed as he socialised with the family that hated her and friends that thought her a cheap harlot.

However, the redheaded beauty was also fiery and determined, and she poured her complex emotions into drawing and painting. Her works mesmerised John Ruskin who immediately bought her entire collection. For a woman of her time it was an astounding achievement, but it was not enough to impress Rossetti’s parents. Regardless of how hard she worked, how much she earned and how dearly she loved their son, Lizzie could not escape her own low birth. She had never desired riches - the poems she adored and the paintings she posed for were tales of love and it was this that Lizzie wanted most. Without it she spiralled further into depression and addiction.

During a trip to Paris to help her health, Lizzie’s worst fears were confirmed. Rossetti, the man who had idolised and claimed her for his own, had an affair with Annie Miller. It was an act that would have prompted many women to end such a relationship, but Rossetti’s hold on Lizzie was unbreakable. She simply couldn’t leave him, because every part of her - her ruined reputation, her image, her soul – belonged to him entirely.

All Lizzie desired was to be with Rossetti, and more than anything she wished for him to proclaim it publicly in marriage. On several occasions, when Lizzie became strong and stubborn and threatened to break off the relationship, he ran to her and made endless promises of union and, like an addict, Lizzie went back for more. Time and time again he broke his promises. On several occasions Lizzie held her own

**Words from beyond the grave**

As complex and tragic as their love may have been, Rossetti adored his wife and when she died, he buried another one of his great loves - his poetry. He slipped the book in her fiery red locks as she lay in her coffin. Seven years later, however, Rossetti was battling his own demons. Dangerously addicted to drugs and alcohol, he was convinced that he was going blind, and had left his brushes untouched. He decided to focus on his poetry and became determined to retrieve his book, hidden in the hair of his dead lover. Desperate, he had his agent, Charles Augustus Howell arrange an exhumation. The deed was carried out in the dead of night, but Rossetti found the prospect of gazing upon the face he had painted countless times in a state of decay unbearable, and did not attend. Howell, who did, claimed that Lizzie was perfectly preserved and her coffin was filled with her flowing locks. This legend of Lizzie’s pristine and beautiful corpse has continued to grow over time. Howell, however, was a notorious fraud and a liar, and it is likely he had a personal motive in mind when retelling this scene. Perhaps he sought to thrill his client, an avid believer in the supernatural, or even to gloss over the hideousness of the entire situation. Again, Lizzie became a character from fantasy, and even in death, her humanity stripped away for a beautiful, but ultimately untrue, image. This did little to ease Rossetti’s guilt, the poems themselves were not well received, and he experienced a mental breakdown that only hastened his death.

The poems themselves were not well preserved, and a worm had got into the book, making pages hard to read.
After a whirlwind honeymoon, Lizzie finally began to live her dream. The couple enjoyed their married life, and soon enough the new bride fell pregnant. Together they transformed their house into one that was fit for a child and, with the prospect of a baby on the way, Rossetti’s family was unconsciously in bed, and did not stir when he tried desperately to wake her. After destroying the note he called a doctor, when he was unable to help her he called another, then another, then another. Desperate and grief-stricken, the painter was unable to save his wife and on 11 February 1862, Lizzie was pronounced dead. She was a mere 32 years old, pregnant and, even in death, still oddly beautiful.

Though some of Rossetti’s friends were genuinely sad for the loss, others were relieved the talented artist was free of such a fiery and troublesome woman. For many, Lizzie was simply a cheap harlot, a mistress, and a pauper who dared to dream above her station. In the years to come she was nothing; a model with no energy remaining to paint, the talented artist was free of such a fiery and dangerous muse. Rossetti did indeed drain the life from his tragic muse – not by one dramatic force – but by a by-product of this was dysphoria and depression. The potent morphine it contained produced feelings of euphoria when ingested and people quickly became dependent, but a by-product of this was depression. Despite these symptoms, the use of opium was not prohibited until 1928. Lizzie would no longer allow herself to believe that she could be happy.

All it took was for Rossetti to go off on an unscheduled errand for Lizzie to think he was having another affair, that she would be abandoned again, that she would be nothing again, and that she was nothing, a model without a painter, a wife without a husband, and a mother without a child. When Rossetti returned home he found an empty bottle of laudanum and a rumoured suicide note. Lizzie was unconscious in bed, and did not stir when he tried desperately to wake her. After destroying the note he called a doctor, when he was unable to help her he called another, then another, then another. Desperate and grief-stricken, the painter was unable to save his wife and on 11 February 1862, Lizzie was pronounced dead. She was a mere 32 years old, pregnant and, even in death, still oddly beautiful.

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Timeline

5 JUNE 1963
Ayatollah Khomeini is arrested after publicly denouncing the Shah as a “wretched, miserable man.” He spends the next 15 years in exile.

23 OCTOBER 1977
Khomeini’s son and chief aide, Mostafa Khomeini dies under mysterious circumstances. Many believe he was killed by the Shah’s SAVAK secret police.

FEBRUARY – AUGUST 1978
Demonstrations break out in all major cities. Bars, cinemas, banks and police stations are looted and burnt. The army responds with lethal force.

27 AUGUST 1978
Prime Minister Jamshid Amouzegar resigns and is replaced by Jafar Sharif-Emami. He begins a policy of appeasement: censorship ends, SAVAK commanders are sacked.

Did you know?
10 per cent of Iran’s population took part in the protests. The 1789 French Revolution barely involved more than 1 per cent.
What was it?

In the 1970s, Iran was a prosperous country ruled by a hereditary monarch who was backed by the US and Britain. But internal opposition groups were brutally suppressed by a powerful secret police force, known as SAVAK. Although Iran was secular, Islamist opponents of the regime were harder to silence because of the cultural influence that the religious leaders, or Ayatollahs, had. When Mostafa Khomeini, a prominent cleric and the eldest son of Ayatollah Khomeini, died suddenly of a heart attack, many religious students suspected a SAVAK cover up. This triggered a cascade of ever-larger protests, with a heavy-handed police response that inevitably led to deaths - which in turn led to more protests.

By the summer of 1978, there were demonstrations happening across the whole country. The Shah reacted slowly to the development, and the more he tried to appease the mobs, the weaker he seemed and the more the unrest grew. By December, support for Ayatollah Khomeini was strong enough that he was able to return from exile and install himself as the supreme political and religious leader of Iran.

Why did it happen?

Most of those who opposed the Shah wanted to replace him with a democratic government, while keeping Iran broadly secular. Ayatollah Khomeini was seen as a popular figurehead but had repeatedly stated in interviews that he didn't personally want to rule. That all changed as soon as the Shah was deposed and within a few years virtually all Khomeini's political opponents had been removed from office. The hated SAVAK secret police was replaced by SAVAMA - an organisation with a radically different ideology but similar methods and in fact, many of the same personnel. In addition, the Islamic Revolutionary Guard Corps was created as a branch of the armed forces, and tasked specifically with ensuring that Iran's Islamic system was defended.

On 4 November 1979, revolutionary students took over the US embassy in Tehran and held 52 American diplomats and staff hostage in a protest against US interference in Iranian politics. The hostages were held for over 14 months.

Who was involved?

Mohammad Reza Pahlavi
27 October 1919 - 27 July 1980
Shah of Iran for 38 years, his woefully slow response to the protests effectively allowed revolution to take hold.

Ruhollah Khomeini
24 September 1902 - 3 June 1989
From his exile in France, the Ayatollah agitated for revolution, returning to become the first Supreme Leader of Iran.

Shapour Bakhtiar
26 June 1914 - 6 August 1991
Last prime minister under the Shah, serving for 36 days. Denounced by Khomeini as a traitor, he fled to France.
In late 1865, in the aftermath of the American Civil War, a group of defeated Confederate officers conspired to form a social club at Pulaski, Tennessee. They modelled their club's bizarre regalia, and its complete insistence on secret membership rites, on a harmless fraternity known as the Sons of Malta.

They called their group the Ku Klux Klan. For the next 150 years, the Klan’s racism and violence would disfigure American life. Throughout the Klan’s existence, its members lynched, raped and murdered, committed acts of terrorism, disseminated racist propaganda, and intimidated black Americans from exercising their democratic rights in the voting booths.

At the same time, black and white Americans have fought against the Klan’s tyranny, and not just in the courts. The US government has twice suppressed the Klan, once in the late 19th century, and again in the mid-20th century, yet they have twice risen again, each time adding new resentments to old.

The Civil War transformed the South from an economic powerhouse to the North’s poor relative. The freeing of southern slaves was a blow to the prestige of southern whites, and to the economy and leisurely life they had built on their slaves’ backs. The Klan spread rapidly across every state in the south, bringing a reign of terror to a region already disordered by war.
The Klan meetings were a bizarre affair, with odd rituals.

Each country unit was led by a Grand Giant. His four aides were titled Goblins. A Grand Exchequer controlled the finances, and a Grand Scribe kept the diary. This absurd nomenclature belied the racism and cruelty with which the Klan brought to a region already disordered by war.

Ulysses S. Grant’s Republican administration in Washington, DC wanted to establish the legal equality of the former slaves of the south in law, and to commit federal money to Reconstruction, the building of a new South. But many Southern Democrats wanted to rebuild the old South – by discriminatory state laws, and by violence.

In May 1866, a brawl between white civilians and black ex-soldiers at Memphis, Tennessee led to the whites rioting in a black section of the city, with white policemen joining in. Schools and churches were burnt, 46 people were killed, and a further 70 wounded. Two months later, white vigilantes attacked a black suffrage convention (a meeting to encourage black people to exercise their legal voting rights). Thirty-seven attendees were murdered, as well as three white people who had come to their defence.

By 1888, the Klan was calling itself ‘The Invisible Empire of the South’, and may have had more than 500,000 members. Its invisible emperor, who called himself the Grand Wizard, was said to have been ex-Confederate general, Nathan Bedford Forrest. Groups were attacking black ‘freedmen’ with impunity, burning homes and schools, and killing and intimidating Republican politicians.

The Klan’s ultimate target, however, was the Republican government in Washington, DC. In July 1868, Congress passed the Fourteenth Amendment to the US Constitution, confirming the legal equality of all citizens. Later that year, President Grant ran for re-election. The Klan launched a campaign of terrorism to intimidate Republican voters. In Kansas, more than 2,000 were murdered. In Georgia, thousands were threatened and beaten. In Louisiana, more than 1,000 black people were murdered in the weeks before the election.

The Klan threatened the American republic, but it could not sway the election. Grant won, and

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the Republicans took Congress. In February 1869, Congress passed the Fifteenth Amendment, giving the vote to black men in every state. In 1870 and 1871, the government passed two Enforcement Acts, protecting black voter rights. And then, in 1871, the Grant administration secured the passage of the Ku Klux Klan Act, an anti-terrorism bill.

The Klan's crude and vicious methods had backfired. When they challenged the authority of the federal government, they reminded Northerners of why the Civil War had been fought in the first place. They also created a backlash of public opinion. Many white people, especially in the north, were disgusted by the Klan's anti-black violence. They pressured their representatives in Congress to act. The Klan had failed to defeat the Republican state governments in the south, and had also failed to intimidate Southern voters. Its methods had galvanised the public to resist it. In the 1870s, the Klan weakened. But it did not die.

Grant and the Republicans had created the legal means for integrating ex-slaves as free citizens, and for building a new and fairer South. But reconstructing peaceful relations between the South and North was a higher priority than asserting democratic rights for Southern black people, and especially after 1873, when a financial crisis threatened to undo the national economy.

While the Klan's violence and defiance of the federal government provoked legal repression,
Southern Democrats built a line of defence in their state laws. The ‘Jim Crow’ laws created a web of discriminatory laws to annul the theoretical rights of black voters. Southern Democrats controlled state courthouses and state legislatures. This allowed them to create a climate of intimidation powerful enough to neutralise the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments. The Enforcement Acts were invoked in the 1870s and 1880s, but not enough to root out sympathies for the Klan. Some 5,000 Southern whites were indicted under the Acts, but only 1,000 were convicted.

The Southern white community continued in their near-unanimous support for the Klan. Similar groups appeared – the White League in Louisiana, and the Red Shirts in Mississippi and South Carolina. The large number of ex-Confederate soldiers, many of whom had returned from the Civil War to find their families destitute, formed a dangerous pool of members. In a further setback for the government, in 1882 the US Supreme Court declared parts of the Ku Klux Klan Act to be unconstitutional. The government, the Court ruled, could not regulate against ‘private conspiracies’.

The Klan had formed and then faltered in a period of post-war poverty and dissatisfaction. But it revived in an era of peace and affluence, the decades of the late 19th and early 20th century that Mark Twain called the Gilded Age. The spoils of this period of railroad building and industrialisation were not shared equally. The North’s industrial economy raced ahead, while the South remained an agricultural backwater.

Tensions rose between rural America and urban America; the 1890s was the age of William Jennings Bryan and the Populist Party. And the old legacies of anti-black racism continued to define social life in both the country and the city. In DW Griffith’s film epic of 1915, The Birth Of A Nation, the Klan is portrayed as defenders of freedom. Griffith’s film inspired the founding of the Klan at Atlanta, Georgia under the leadership of William

**UNITED STATES OF HATE**

**THE JIM CROW LAW ENFORCED RACIAL SEGREGATION IN THE SOUTH BETWEEN 1877 AND THE 1950s**

1. **KENTUCKY**
   Under an 1866 ‘Black Code’ law against miscegenation (racial intermarriage), white Kentuckians were prohibited from marrying fellow Kentuckians with more than 12 per cent “black blood.” The penalty was up to five years in jail.

2. **NORTH CAROLINA**
   In 1889, the North Carolina legislature ruled that “Books shall not be interchangeable between the white and colored schools, but shall continue to be used by the race first using them.” The state librarian was ordered to create a “separate place” for “colored people who may come to the library for the purpose of reading books.”

3. **TENNESSEE**
   In 1875, the Tennessee legislature ruled that hoteliers, “carriers of passengers” and “keepers of places of amusement” had the same right to reject customers as a homeowner had to refuse entry to a private home.

4. **MISSISSIPPI**
   In 1950, Mississippi levied a fine of $500 or six months in prison on anyone convicted of advocating in word or speech for “social equality” and “intermarriage between whites and Negroes”.

5. **LOUISIANA**
   If a white landlord rented accommodation to a “Negro person or Negro family” in a building that had a majority of white inhabitants, the landlord was liable for prosecution.

6. **ILLINOIS**
   In 1927, the City of Chicago adopted ‘covenants’ to ensure racial separation between different neighbourhoods. The practice was eventually ruled illegal by the Supreme Court in 1948.

7. **GEORGIA**
   No “amateur white baseball team” could play “within two blocks of a playground devoted to the Negro race,” and no “amateur colored baseball team” could play “in any vacant lot or baseball diamond within two blocks of any playground devoted to the white race.”

8. **VIRGINIA**
   “Every person... operating... any public hall, theatre, opera house, motion picture show or any place of public entertainment or public assemblage which is attended by both white and colored persons, shall separate the white race and the colored race.”
INSIDE THE ‘INVISIBLE EMPIRE’

HOW THE KLAN MADE ITS RETURN IN THE 20s AS A BLOODTHIRSTY BUSINESS

When William Joseph Simmons revived the Klan in 1915, he built a national network like a business. New members paid a joining fee and bought their robes. Recruiters celebrated their work with iconic cross-burnings. Much of the money found its way back to the Klan’s national leadership, via an elaborate hierarchy, including these ranks...

**IMPERIAL WIZARD**
The Klan’s national leader. During the second Klan era they had day jobs in professions such as medicine, dentistry and veterinary medicine.

**KLAN**
The basic unit of second Klan organisation, each Klan had an area of jurisdiction called a Klanton. This spread in all directions from the middle point between one Klan and the next.

**KLEAGLE**
A Kleagle was a travelling recruiter. He was paid a commission on each new member’s fees, and often organised violent acts against opponents of the KKK to attract members.

**NIGHTHAWK**
A Nighthawk was the lowest rank in the organisation, a local courier or general assistant. Also described as the “guardian of the fiery cross.”

Joseph Simmons. Simmons’ program reflected the changing times. Apart from its traditional anti-black racism and its nostalgia for the pre-Civil War South, the Klan now attracted members by opposing immigration by Catholics and Jews – historians estimate that two out of three Klan lecturers were Protestant ministers – strongly promoting traditional views on relations between the sexes, and even opposing communism.

In a further reflection of its modernisation, the ‘second Klan’ ran like a business. The ‘first Klan’ had been a casual affair, with no membership rolls and little communication between its branches. The second Klan extracted initiation fees and sold its notorious white robes to the members. It sent out officers, known as Kleagles, to recruit new members and, in an innovation that has come to define the Klan in the popular imagination, organised mass rallies with cross-burnings to celebrate their expansion into a district.

In 1920, Simmons engaged two publicists, Elizabeth Tyler and Edward Young Clarke, to run the Klan’s national office. By aligning the Klan with Prohibition, they grew the Klan’s membership rolls almost overnight. By 1924, the Klan had between 1.5 million and 4 million members: up to 4 per cent of the American population. The Klan was strongest in the west and south, but it was now a national organisation.

The second Klan had members in both Republican and Democratic parties. It had significant memberships in the cities, where lower-middle-class white people contended with immigrants from Europe as well as black migrants drawn by economic opportunity. Detroit, Michigan had more than 40,000 Klansmen. When the 1924 Democratic Party Convention voted on a resolution condemning the Klan, the resolution failed by a narrow margin.

The second Klan collapsed for similar reasons to the first Klan. Its brutality galvanised protests and counter-movements, like the Anti-Defamation League and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). The trial in 1925 of DC Stephenson, Grand Dragon of the...
Indiana Klan, for the kidnap, rape and murder of a white schoolteacher named Madge Oberholtzer, focussed white attention on the Klan in a way that its barrage of violence against black people did not.

Another unwelcome source of attention for the Klan in Indiana was the publication of its membership rolls. By 1930, membership had declined to around 100,000. In 1939, the Imperial Wizard, Hiram Wesley Evans, a dentist from Texas, sold the Klan to a veterinarian from Indiana, James Coleslott, and an Atlanta obstetrician, Samuel Green. Coleslott and Green were unable to revive the membership. When in 1936 the Inland Revenue Service issued a demand for $685,000 in unpaid taxes, the guardians of white Protestant morality were obliged to dissolve the national organisation.

As after the dissolution of the first Klan, local groups survived the collapse of the second Klan. And, as with the revival of the second Klan, a third phase of Klan activity developed in a different political setting. The 1950s and 1960s saw growing campaigns by both black and non-black groups for civil rights – in effect, campaigns to ensure that the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments applied to all black Americans, especially in the Southern states where political Reconstruction had been incomplete. The Klan had survived at a local level after the dissolution of the national organisation, and it was at the local level that it now revived.

Through the 1950s and 1960s, Klansmen in Alabama, Mississippi and Georgia firebombed dozens of black homes in areas where the black population was rising. In Birmingham, Alabama there were more than 50 bombings between 1947 and 1965, leading to the city being nicknamed
THE KILLING OF MEDGAR EVANS
THE SAD TALE OF DELAYED JUSTICE IN THE MURDER OF A WAR VETERAN AND CIVIL RIGHTS CAMPAIGNER

On 12 June 1963, Medgar Evans, a Mississippi-born civil rights worker campaigning to overturn discrimination at the University of Mississippi, was shot in the back on his driveway. Refused access to the local hospital because of his race, he tragically died within the hour. As an Army veteran, he received a military funeral.

His killer, Byron De La Beckwith, was a salesman. Two all-white juries failed to agree on Beckwith’s guilt. Finally, after the discovery of new evidence, in 1994 a third jury convicted him of Evans’ murder. Beckwith was sentenced and died in prison in 2001, aged 80.

Mississippi, the murder later that year of four black schoolgirls in the bombing of the 16th Saint Baptist Church in Birmingham, Alabama, and the 1965 killing of Viola Liuzzo, a white activist and mother of five from Detroit, only disgraced the Klan in the American public’s estimation.

The Civil Rights Act in 1965 was another defeat for the Klan. Its members continued their struggle through the 1970s, committing acts of violence against affirmative action, the use of ‘busing’ to desegregate schools, and the opening of immigration to non-Europeans. None of it worked, and all was resisted by black and white activists.

By the end of the 1970s, the Klan’s third
In March 1981, after black and white jurors had failed to convict a black man, Josephus Anderson who was accused of shooting a white police officer, Klansmen burned a cross outside the courthouse at Mobile, Alabama. Later that night, they abducted, beat and murdered Michael Donald, then left his body hanging from a tree in a mixed neighbourhood.

After a two-year FBI investigation, four men were indicted. One, Bennie Jack Hays, was the second-highest ranking leader of the United Klans of Alabama; he died before he could be fully tried. His son, Henry Francis Hays, was convicted of murder, and in 1997 became the first white person to be executed in Alabama for crimes against a black person since 1913. Two other men were sentenced to life in prison.

At the same time, Michael Donald's mother, Beulah Mae Donald, launched a civil case against the United Klans of America. In 1987, an all-white jury found in her favour and held the Klan liable. The Klan was fined $7 million in damages. To pay part of the fine, the Klan gave Beulah Mae Donald the deed to the United Klans of Alabama's meeting hall. She used some of the money to buy her first house. Then, in 2006, the city of Mobile decided to rename the street in which Michael Donald was hanged to Michael Donald Avenue.

Yet once again, the Klan survived. In 1995, while Henry Hays waited on Death Row, Don Black and Chloe Hardin (the ex-wife of current KKK Grand Wizard David Duke), launched a website named Stormfront. The site has become a clearing-house for incitement against blacks, Jews and Muslims, and a focus of white nationalism and neo-Nazism.

While the fight against the hatred of the Ku Klux Klan has been long and harrowing, each incarnation of the group has ultimately been crushed. The stories of triumph over hate and violence give hope that even in the face of terrifying deeds, extreme intolerance can eventually be brought to justice.

THE LAST LYNCHING?

WHEN MICHAEL DONALD WAS MURDERED IN 1981, HIS MOTHER TOOK ON THE KLAN AND WON

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What if...

Richard II had kept his throne?

Explore how different the 15th century might have been if Richard II had not been deposed in 1399

Written by Matt Lewis

On 29 September 1399, the 32-year-old King Richard II was deposed by – or, according to the official account, abdicated in favour of – his cousin Henry Bolingbroke, who became Henry IV, the first Lancastrian king. It represented a breach in the Plantagenet line of descent, which ultimately led to further ructions throughout the 15th century that are remembered as the Wars of the Roses and resulted in the end of Plantagenet rule and the birth of the Tudor dynasty. However, the century could have been very different if Richard II had survived the attempt on his throne.

Returning from Ireland, Richard finds that his cousin Henry made a failed bid for the crown, but rather than winning him the throne, his power-grab has seen him arrested and executed on landing at Ravenspur by Henry Percy, Earl of Northumberland. Percy is then made a duke for his loyal service to King Richard II.

The king is made even more wary of the wider nobility as a result of this attempt at betrayal. Absolute monarchy grips England and, with no need for taxation for war and a thriving economy, there is no reason to summon Parliament for the rest of Richard’s reign, while the increase in wealth and social mobility at the lower levels of society keep the population happy.

After a 55-year reign peppered with success, Richard dies in 1432. He is succeeded by his and his wife Isabella’s eldest son, the 20-year-old Richard III, who is supported ably by his 17-year-old brother Edward, named for Richard’s father, the Black Prince. Charles VII succeeds his father in France in 1422 and the peace allows France, never cowed by a defeat at Agincourt, to focus its attention south into Italy. After almost ten years of war, Charles VII asks his young cousin King Richard III for aid but the new king finds that he is unable to raise a feudal levy after decades of weakening of the nobility, and is only able to send hired mercenaries. An early Renaissance flourishes under Richard II’s patronage of art and building, funded by a full treasury. England, not war-torn Italy, leads European cultural development with its merchants travelling the length and breadth of the continent. However, Richard III’s inability to raise an effective army at home later marks England out as a soft target that has grown plump and ripe for the picking. The Holy Roman Empire sees a chance for expansion and England must summon the first Parliament for decades. Taxation for the maintenance of an army is voted through but Parliament is denied the wider constitutional role it desires, leaving England secure throughout the 15th century but open to internal revolution.

How would it be different?

- **Execution of Henry Bolingbroke**
  Landing at Ravenspur, Yorkshire, Henry’s attempt to take the crown under the guise of claiming his late father’s duchy of Lancaster fails and he is executed. **20 July 1399**

- **The return of the king**
  Richard returns to London from Ireland, rewarding those loyal to him but with his suspicion of the wider nobility heightened. **25 August 1399**

- **Post-Black Death wage laws repealed**
  To balance the threat of the nobility, Richard repeals laws created after the Black Death to restrict wage increases and free movement of workers. **June 1402**

- **Birth of Prince Richard**
  Richard II and his second wife Queen Isabella celebrate the birth of the king’s first child and long-awaited heir, Prince Richard. **15 March 1412**

- **England becomes a Renaissance powerhouse**
  With a full treasury, no foreign wars and a thriving merchant class, Richard II’s England becomes the home of the early Renaissance. **1420-1430**
What if... RICHARD II HAD KEPT HIS THRONE?

RICHARD II HAD KEPT HIS THRONE

Call for assistance from France
Charles VII of France asks his English cousin for aid in his wars in Italy but Richard III finds himself unable to raise a feudal army. April 1434

Parliament is summoned after decades
Parliament had not been summoned since 1397, with no need to vote taxation to the wealthy crown. England’s Parliament never acquires a constitutional role. February - March 1436

The English Revolution destroys the monarchy
England succumbs to the European trend of revolution as the people finally kick against the absolutist monarchy that was never challenged or moderated by parliament. 1760

Death of King Richard II
After 55 years as king of England, Richard II dies in his bed at the age of 65, mourned by his two sons Richard and Edward. 14 February 1432

After his attempt to usurp the crown fails, Henry Bolingbroke makes his peace with God before his death.
In 1666, the renowned English mathematician, astronomer and natural philosopher, Sir Isaac Newton, observed a light ray entering a prism, and from this experience he made a brilliant discovery about light and colour; that white light is made up of a spectrum of several colours. Newton was fascinated with light, and believed that it had a close relationship to the concept that the early modern scientist knew as ‘the vegetable spirit’.

Newton was constantly awed by the beauty and complexity of the nature that surrounded him. Over time, he concluded that the massive variety of life and processes that occur in nature, such as growth, decay and fermentation, meant there must be some driving force that makes it all happen. He believed that ‘the vegetable spirit’ was that force, and thought it might also be linked with light.

To those only familiar with Newton’s discoveries in mathematics and physics, the idea of the ‘vegetable spirit’ might seem quite strange, and even pseudo-scientific. On the other hand, this idea and several others of the famous scientist were closely associated with a subject that he is not very often known for studying, and yet spent a great amount of his time devoted to alchemy. In his lifetime, Newton wrote around one million words on alchemy, which shows how committed he was to the practice. Through his research into alchemy, Newton hoped to uncover the secret of the ‘vegetable spirit’, or the spirit of life.

Even to Newton in the 17th century, alchemy was an archaic art with hundreds of texts available for him to study. But Newton was not the first to turn to alchemy in order to find what he was looking for, and was in fact one of the last in a long line of alchemists who sought to use the art for the purpose of discovering remarkable secrets.

The primary mission of ancient and Medieval alchemists was finding the way to create gold and the elixir of life. Unfortunately for them and Newton, alchemy has been shrouded in secrets and mystery throughout its existence, particularly during the Medieval period. Alchemists have repeatedly defended this secrecy, stating that its purpose is to keep the spectacular knowledge hidden from unworthy individuals who might use it for nefarious gains (though today we might suspect that the true reason for the secrecy is that, from the very beginning, the goals of the alchemists were impossible to achieve).

The origins of alchemy can be traced back 2,000 years before Newton to the Ancient Egyptians and Greeks. In fact, the word ‘alchemy’ may be derived from Khem, which was an Ancient Greek term for the land of Egypt. Even though alchemical tradition often states that the founding father of the practice was Hermes Trismegistus, it is very difficult to tie the root of alchemy to any one person. On the other hand, it is much more likely that the first proto-alchemists were Egyptian metalworkers, who would have worked with several different types of metal. It was gold that had the most value,
The origins of alchemy can be traced back 2,000 years before Newton to the Ancient Egyptians and Greeks.

Therefore many focused their attention on this precious metal. Over time, the experience of working with gold, silver and other metals led the most talented craftsmen to develop impressive alloys. Eventually, many different types of ‘gold’ entered the market, with major economic consequences as the manipulated metals and alloys were not in fact gold, but convincing fakes. By the time the Romans controlled Egypt, counterfeit gold had become such a problem that the Roman Emperor Diocletian (reigning between 284-305) ordered for the destruction of every single text that covered the making of gold or other metalwork.

The Greeks also played an important role in the early development of alchemy. However, these men were philosophers who were more often than not thinkers rather than doers, so their contribution was primarily focused on theories involving the nature of substances. The first alchemical documents were papyri written in Greek, often including processes and recipes in the creation of gold-like metals and alloys.

The teachings of Aristotle from the 4th century BCE made a profound impact on alchemical thought, as well as other Greek writers both before and after him. Yet it was not until Zosimos of Panopolis, who thrived c.300, that numerous alchemical texts began to emerge, which differed from the earlier papyri. In the writings of Zosimos, the practice of alchemy became less straightforward and more vague. For instance, he began to speak in riddles and used phrases whose meaning is difficult to determine. Zosimos may have been one of the first alchemists to conceal his ideas through secrecy and symbolism, but he started a tradition that later became central to the alchemical world.

After the fall of the Western Roman Empire in the 5th century, the Islamic conquests made the Arabic civilisation one of the chief powers of the world. In this golden age of Islamic culture, Arabic scholars worked diligently to translate earlier Greco-Roman texts and assimilate as much of their ancient knowledge as possible. Especially after Egypt fell under Arabic control, documents that covered alchemy were also discovered and incorporated into the works of the early Islamic scholars. It is often thought that the term ‘alchemy’ was actually created in this period, because it combined the word Khem with the Arabic definite article al-, such as in the words alcohol and algebra. Furthermore, the key to immortality – which was just as important to alchemists as gold creation - is known as the elixir of life, from the Arabic word ‘al-iksir’.

The most prominent Arabic alchemist was Jābir.
he admitted it was very difficult to do. In 1244-5, changing of matter into another form (transmutation) was possible, and although he believed that transmutation (the philosopher’s stone) was comprised of the old metals, he was most likely a mythical figure, he was believed by many to have lived at the same time as Moses. Other theories about alchemy were attributed to Jábir ibn Háyyan. It is possible that he was the first type for he truly believed that, if done right, the processes could improve metals and make them better than the state in which they are found in nature. Albertus, Bacon and the other prominent alchemists of the era all believed that transmutation could be achieved, especially with metals. However, none of them could prove it. It was during this time that the philosopher’s stone began to increasingly appear within alchemical texts. Since transmutation was possible according to the alchemists, many began to believe that they simply lacked one vital ingredient to make the philosopher’s stone. And as the idea of the stone became more popular, so too did the alchemical texts become increasingly more difficult to interpret, as riddles, symbolism and coded language became more and more prevalent. It is basically impossible to know exactly what the philosopher’s stone was, or would have been, because there have been so many different theories written about the substance. Some alchemists believed that the stone was comprised of the old metals. However, none of them could prove it. It was during this time that the philosopher’s stone began to increasingly appear within alchemical texts. Since transmutation was possible according to the alchemists, many began to believe that they simply lacked one vital ingredient to make the philosopher’s stone. And as the idea of the stone became more popular, so too did the alchemical texts become increasingly more difficult to interpret, as riddles, symbolism and coded language became more and more prevalent. It is basically impossible to know exactly what the philosopher’s stone was, or would have been, because there have been so many different theories written about the substance. Some alchemists believed that the stone was comprised of the old metals.

Thomas Aquinas became the pupil of Albertus, and the master taught him what he knew, including his knowledge of alchemy. The other major alchemist of the 13th century, Roger Bacon, wrote about two different kinds: practical and theoretical. Bacon praised the first type for he truly believed that, if done right, the processes could improve metals and make them better than the state in which they are found in nature. Albertus, Bacon and the other prominent alchemists of the era all believed that transmutation could be achieved, especially with metals. However, none of them could prove it. It was during this time that the philosopher’s stone began to increasingly appear within alchemical texts. Since transmutation was possible according to the alchemists, many began to believe that they simply lacked one vital ingredient to make the philosopher’s stone. And as the idea of the stone became more popular, so too did the alchemical texts become increasingly more difficult to interpret, as riddles, symbolism and coded language became more and more prevalent. It is basically impossible to know exactly what the philosopher’s stone was, or would have been, because there have been so many different theories written about the substance. Some alchemists believed that the stone was comprised of the old metals. However, none of them could prove it. It was during this time that the philosopher’s stone began to increasingly appear within alchemical texts. Since transmutation was possible according to the alchemists, many began to believe that they simply lacked one vital ingredient to make the philosopher’s stone. And as the idea of the stone became more popular, so too did the alchemical texts become increasingly more difficult to interpret, as riddles, symbolism and coded language became more and more prevalent. It is basically impossible to know exactly what the philosopher’s stone was, or would have been, because there have been so many different theories written about the substance. Some alchemists believed that the stone was comprised of the old metals.

Thomas Norton, who lived from c.1433-1513, was the disciple of another famous English alchemist called George Ripley. As an alchemist, Thomas was supposedly successful in creating the elixir of life not once but twice, only to have it stolen from him on both occasions; however, he is most well-known as an alchemist for writing the Ordinal Of Alchemy.
common alchemical ingredients of mercury and sulphur, along with the new addition of salt, but with one major twist; these components were not just simply mercury, sulphur and salt, but rather special substances in a pure state with magical qualities, commonly referred to as the ‘essences’ of mercury, sulphur and salt.

There were other theories about the makeup of the stone, too. Similar to Newton’s idea of the ‘vegetable spirit’, some alchemists thought of the philosopher’s stone as the seed of gold that could be obtained from the metal. To the Medieval mind, metals were similar to vegetation, in that they both grew in the earth. Therefore, metals had seeds and the most precious seed of all was that of gold.

Regardless of the increasing secrecy surrounding alchemy, hundreds of alchemists from many different backgrounds were desperate to find or manufacture whatever was necessary in order to obtain the philosopher’s stone. Since the incredible substance could be used to serve the purpose of creating gold and the elixir of life, some alchemists sought enormous wealth, some desired fame, and others wanted the key to never-ending life, while...
Secrets of the Alchemists

...there were some who had the grand aspirations of flooding the market with so much gold that the economic system would collapse and the world would be turned upside down. There were those who did gain fame or notoriety for their alchemical exploits, yet all of the other dreams were never fulfilled. In the end, the failures of others did not stop the alchemists, especially at a time when the supposed success stories achieved a legendary status that carried a lot more weight than the numerous average practitioners who simply faded into obscurity over time after years without success.

The Medieval alchemists who still focused on the quest either attempted to interpret the substantial corpus of texts, or conducted their own experiments in a laboratory. The heating of metals and other substances was a fundamental part of their work; therefore, the furnace was the core to the alchemist’s laboratory. This work area was also filled with many different types of utensils, tools and other equipment, such as beakers, crucibles, flasks, phials, jars, pestles and mortars, ladles, strainers and filters. As the alchemists worked hard in order to achieve their impossible goals, they constantly made improvements to their techniques. This 16th-century illustration from the Splendor Solis shows the four colours that appear when working with the ingredients of the philosopher’s stone.

Materials and methods

For the practical alchemists, many different methods and a wide range of equipment were essential.

All alchemists frequently used their furnaces to heat metals and other substances, but they also literally tried to test every single other process they could think of, some of which seem quite absurd today. This was primarily due to their lack of understanding about the true nature of metals. For instance, Geber believed that matter could be changed into its perfect form by mixing it with a pure, perfect substance. Essentially, alchemists considered this method as the fermentation of gold by leavening it with base metals in order to achieve their goal. Other common processes used were distillation, sublimation, mortification and calcination. The furnace fire was used for methods like calcination, which broke down solid substances into powder, but heat was not always utilised. Alchemists distilled many different types of liquids in their experiments, such as vinegar, egg yolks and even horse manure. Acid was also commonly used in the laboratory to dissolve ingredients like silver and mercury. And outside of the laboratory, some alchemists hoped to achieve their goal by exposing their work to the Sun for long periods of time. Alchemists did acknowledge at times that there were limits to what they could accomplish. One example is that experts knew they could not simply change a dead thing into a living thing. On the other hand, alchemists did believe that if they returned the dead item into its original form as simple matter first, it was then possible for it to be changed into its opposite form (that is, living).
Secrets and symbols

To ensure knowledge was kept from the unworthy, manuscripts were filled with symbols and codes

The Dark Sun
One of the lesser-known alchemical symbols, the Dark Sun, or sol niger, is symbolic of change, essential to the goals of transmutation that alchemists worked towards. It can also be linked to the blackening of matter, or even putrefaction. This image is from the Splendor Solis, a 16th-century German book of colourful watercolour images with symbolic significance, relating to alchemical processes and ideas. Though the images date from later in alchemy’s Medieval history, their style is reminiscent of much earlier alchemical images.

The Four Elements
This symbolic emblem from the 17th century shows the four key elements - air, water, earth and fire - at its edges. Alchemists believed that if they could master the different aspects of the four elements, they could create whatever they wished to make, including gold and the elixir of life. The triangle within these corners symbolise the ‘tria prima’ or three primes, which were mercury, sulphur and salt. The alchemist Paracelsus believed that combinations of these three substances made up all metals.

The Great Hermaphrodite
An engraving from the 17th-century work Symbola Aureae Mensae by Michael Maier, which depicts Albertus Magnus pointing to the alchemical symbol of the hermaphrodite. The image expresses a common idea found in many alchemical texts that everything has both a uniting, singular nature, but is comprised of two parts. Alchemists believed that harmonisation of these opposing forces (such as wet and dry, Sun and Moon, male and female) could hold the key to the power of creation they sought. The hermaphrodite symbolises this union.

The various apparatus that they used. Centuries later, much of this same equipment was incredibly important to the first chemists, and could often be found in their laboratories as well.

Alchemy remained very popular and indeed respectable well into the Renaissance, with many other important individuals emerging on the scene, including Arnald of Villanova and Ramon Llull in the 13th century, George Ripley and Thomas Norton in the 15th century, and then Thomas Charnock in the 16th century, to name just a few. However, during the beginning of the early modern era, the art gradually began to lose its prestige.

Advancements in metallurgy that led to the discovery of the true nature of metals was one of the first causes, followed by many other scientific breakthroughs, which over time made so-called pseudo-sciences like alchemy and astrology obsolete. By the 17th century, Newton was at the forefront of this new scientific age, yet even a forward thinker such as him looked back upon and used the ancient knowledge of alchemy in order to uncover the secrets of life.
Present-day Malta conjures images of glorious sun-drenched beaches and crystalline water as far as the eye can see, but in the year 1565, Malta is about to become the scene of one of the most remarkable and heroic sieges in history.

The Ottoman Empire, led by Suleiman the Magnificent, has already conquered the Middle East, sacking the great city of Constantinople and laying waste to any Christians who were foolish enough to stand in their way. Malta however, has proven to be a persistently irritating thorn to pluck. Home of the Knights Hospitaller, for many people Malta represents Christian Europe. The Ottomans had already attacked Malta, seizing a huge number of the population as slaves, and now they wish to come back and finish the job. Knowing that the feared force is soon to return, the Knights, although massively outnumbered, scramble their defences, gather their strength and bravely prepare to fight to the bitter end.

WHERE TO STAY

On a besieged island there are few ‘safe’ places to take up residence. Food is scarce and disease is rife wherever you choose to stay. However, there are central points of conflict that it would be wise to avoid at all costs. The Fort of Saint Elmo, at the entrance of the Great Harbour, will become the centre of most of the fighting. Although the Ottomans believe they can take it easily, the Knights will hold out for an incredible 30 days but this will come at a very heavy cost. Forts Saint Angelo and Saint Michael are next on the hit-list, along with the villages of Birgu and Senglea. These are all located near the harbour, so it would be wise to travel inland to secure your safety.

Dos & don’ts

- Ration your food. De Valette has ordered all crops be harvested to deprive the enemy of local food supplies and poisoned all the wells.
- Wear an army uniform. Civilians dress in military clothes and patrol the ramparts to trick the enemy into believing Malta has more troops than it does.
- Take advantage of any opportunity. Every action, no matter how small, can be a huge contribution in siege warfare.
- Prepare to go where the fighting is thickest. The 70-year old Valette reportedly rushes headlong into the most dangerous places, encouraging his troops with his presence.
- Give up hope. Siege warfare can be exhausting and seemingly never ending, however, this will weigh just as heavily on the enemy.
- Panic. Townsfolk who think they see an enemy standard instigate a huge panic that results in several innocent people killed by friendly fire.
- Abandon your post. Because of the unwavering loyalty of the soldiers stationed at Saint Elmo, Malta is able to hold the fort for nearly a month.
- Be squeamish. The Ottoman raiders decapitate their prisoners and send their corpses back across the harbour nailed to crosses, while the defenders use enemy heads as cannonballs.
Construction
If there is one vital aspect in defending a city, it’s strong walls and if you want to stay alive you’ll have to help. Men, women and children alike all work together to rebuild the broken walls, repair the defences and even prepare ammunition.

Medical
Despite the fact that the siege will ultimately be a Maltese victory, the casualties are severe. With so few men, a rumoured 8,500 to the Ottoman’s 48,000, any lives you can help save will be crucial.

Espionage
In siege warfare, having knowledge of your opponent’s next move is crucial to success. It was only through his espionage network that Valette was informed of the imminent invasion in good time.

WHO TO BEFRIEND
Jean Parisot de Valette
A living legend, the 70-year-old Grand Master of the Order of Saint John is the illustrious leader you want by your side. Serving as a knight since he was 18 years old, de Valette is the definition of a survivor, having spent a year as a galley slave, rowing 20 hours a day. He was also present during the Siege of Rhodes in 1522, and speaks at least five languages fluently. Although French, he was elected general captain of the Order’s galleys, a position traditionally held by those of Italian descent. Despite his great age, he is undoubtedly the man to befriend in the hard times to come.

Extra tip:
De Valette’s name is held in high regard, but you don’t need to worry about impressing him. He is known as a modest, humble man and one who never breaks his promises. As long as you prove yourself of good moral standing, and don’t shy away from battle, you are sure to win his respect.

WHO TO AVOID
Dragut
The respected and feared Muslim naval commander intends to lead the force to invade the city, and many believe stopping him to be impossible. This ferocious pirate warrior has proved his worth in countless victories, and has led the Ottoman Empire to become the greatest maritime power in the world. To the Christian defenders he is a source of great fear, known for his cruel and ruthless tactics. You are best to avoid Dragut at all costs, unless you wish for your head and your body to part ways.

Helpful skills
Fighting skills are useful, but these activities will keep you alive during the long, arduous siege

FIG.04
Dragut
The respecte d a n d f e a r e d M u s l i m n a v a l commander to lead the force to invade t he city, and many believe stopping him to be impossible. This f erocious pirate warrior has proved his worth in countless victories, and has led the Ottoman Empire to become the greatest maritime power in the world. To the Christian defenders he is a source of great fear, known for his cruel and ruthless tactics. You are best to avoid Dragut at all costs, unless you wish for your head and your body to part ways.

FIG.06
Medical
Despite the fact that the siege will ultimately be a Maltese victory, the casualties are severe. With so few men, a rumoured 8,500 to the Ottoman’s 48,000, any lives you can help save will be crucial.

FIG.07
Espionage
In siege warfare, having knowledge of your opponent’s next move is crucial to success. It was only through his espionage network that Valette was informed of the imminent invasion in good time.
In March 1916, Charles de Gaulle, a 25-year-old French lieutenant wielding a sword, led his men into an attack in the murderous Battle of Verdun. Overcome by German gas, he was bayonetted in the leg and collapsed to the ground. “Fell in the mêlée. An incomparable officer,” read his obituary in the Official Journal. Those words came from the French commander at Verdun, Phillipe Pétain, who had been appointed to rally the defences in the battle that would take more than 700,000 casualties. Charles de Gaulle had joined an infantry regiment out of admiration for its commander, Pétain, and had been wounded twice already in the brutal trench warfare of the Western Front. The obituary was, of course, premature. Far from being dead, de Gaulle would spend the rest of World War I as a German prisoner, and then go on to have an extraordinary career culminating in 1958 with the establishment of the Fifth Republic. The army had brought the two men together, melding the destinies of two very different figures – destinies that would stretch over the following three decades and end in the shame of one man, but the positioning of the other as the saviour of the nation. Both claimed that their only desire was to serve their country, a subject on which de Gaulle wrote that he had “a certain idea.” Both Pétain and de Gaulle had always wanted to be soldiers, entering the elite Saint Cyr military academy in their youth.

Born into a farming family in 1856, Pétain was entranced as a boy by tales told by his great-uncle of his service in Napoleon's armies. De Gaulle, who was born in 1890 into a strictly royalist family, followed France's colonial campaigns closely and spent his pocket money on tin soldiers. When playing mock battles with his brothers, he always commanded the French troops and, it was said, always won. Soldiering was seen at that time as a glamorous profession, with colonial wars and dashing cavalry. But Pétain ended up commanding an infantry regiment in northern France and de Gaulle, impressed by what he had heard of Pétain's achievements, opted to join his unit in 1913. The younger man already radiated a sense of greatness – one of his officers said that he already carried himself like a general.

They were certainly very different characters. Pétain, who ended World War I as France’s commander-in-chief, was cautious and conservative when it came to military matters and politics, but was a notorious womaniser in his private life. De Gaulle, on the other hand, was a rebel, a man who believed in his own special destiny and was devoted to his wife and family, including a daughter with Down syndrome, who he particularly cared for. Pétain was a man in no hurry, savouring foods and wine as he went, while de Gaulle was impatient, opposed to the military hierarchy the other man headed between the world wars (and regarded eating as a waste...
Collaboration & Resistance

How Pétain and de Gaulle came to take opposite sides in World War II

Pétain & Hitler
Following the fall of France at the hands of Germany in June, 1940, Pétain made the decision that France's best interests lay in collaboration with, rather than resistance against, the Nazis. He headed the 'Free Zone' regime of southern France based in the town of Vichy and did absolutely nothing to alienate the Reich.

Now in his late eighties, Pétain acted more as a father figure than a fearless leader, becoming increasingly removed from reality by age. The day-to-day running of the government was delegated to the prime minister, Pierre Laval, who said he wished for German victory over Britain. Pétain had a two-hour meeting with Hitler in October 1940, during which he blamed Britain for France's humiliation. When the Germans occupied the Free Zone in 1942, he did not resist and became increasingly impotent as the war drew to its close, being moved around France and Germany at the will of his protectors.

De Gaulle, Churchill & Roosevelt
Winston Churchill greeted de Gaulle warmly when he arrived in London in June 1940, at the beginning of what would be a two-year stay. Churchill put the BBC at the Frenchman's disposal and retained his admiration for the leader of the Free French, whom he once called "the last survivor of a warrior race." But relations weren't always to be so smooth.

Discord between the two men was often stormy, with de Gaulle's prickly defence of French interests regularly infuriating the prime minister. Churchill also referred to de Gaulle as the 'Monster of Hampstead' (where he lived for a time) and, on the eve of D Day, proposed he would fly him out of Britain in chains.

If that seems bad, the Frenchman's relations with Franklin Roosevelt were even worse: the US retained diplomatic links with the Vichy regime until 1942 and the US president thought that de Gaulle had all the signs of a military dictator in the making.

Timeline
The lives of the two French icons at-a-glance
of time). Despite these differences, de Gaulle was Pétain’s protégé; the two had formed a friendship since they had come together in 1913.

After World War I had ended, de Gaulle joined a French advisory mission to Poland to help beat back an attack by the Bolshevik Red Army, served with French forces in Germany and then worked for the planning staff at military headquarters in Paris. Pétain also went overseas, to command French troops fighting a rebellion in the colony of Morocco, but he spent most of his time as the father figure for the French military, revered by the country as the ‘Victor of Verdun’ and made a marshal of France.

He favoured the defensive strategy that had France sheltering behind the highly fortified Maginot Line in the event of a fresh war with Germany, which he, like most of his compatriots, feared as Hitler became an increasing threat. De Gaulle, on the other hand, advocated mobile, aggressive war using tanks, and he wanted to stand up to Nazi power. At the crisis over the German reoccupation of the Rhineland and the Anglo-French cave-in at Munich on Czechoslovakia, de Gaulle was distraught while Pétain, now French ambassador to Franco’s regime in Spain, was relieved.

The disagreement between the two men was sharpened when de Gaulle ghost-wrote a military history for Pétain, who did not get the recognition he felt was due. Then, a row about a preface that de Gaulle asked Pétain to write for a book of his own sparked a breakdown in their relationship, as Pétain turned him down. The younger man wrote a speech for the older man, who then did not deliver it. Pétain remarked that de Gaulle was “an ambitious man, and very ill bred.” De Gaulle was cruelly dismissive of what he called Pétain’s ‘senile ambition.’ “He covers the solitude of his wretchedness with pride,” he noted privately. “Too sure of himself ever to give up.” Much later, he would add that his one-time mentor’s life had been “successively banal, then glorious, then deplorable,”
but never mediocre.” The relationship of mutual admiration between the great French leaders had descended into name-calling and distrust.

World War II would provide the backdrop to the end of their tumultuous friendship. In 1940, as France faced the Nazi invasion, the prime minister, Paul Reynaud, appointed Pétain as deputy premier, counting on his prestige to rally the nation. Shortly afterwards, he made another key appointment. De Gaulle, who had sent tank units into battle against the advancing Germans, became the deputy defence minister.

The 84-year-old marshal and the 49-year-old two-star general once again took radically different views on policy. Pétain thought the war was lost and urged that France surrender to save what it could. De Gaulle called for resistance, shuttling back and forth to London to try and get Britain to commit the RAF to the fight and, at one point, presenting Winston Churchill with an ephemeral scheme for a union of the two countries.

By mid-June, 1940, France was in a state of collapse with millions of refugees on the road. Pétain took over from Reynaud as head of government and negotiated with the Germans. De Gaulle flew to London and, with a broadcast on the BBC, raised the flag of resistance. Pétain was voted in by a huge parliamentary majority to head the collaborationist regime set up in the spa town of Vichy with its ‘Free Zone’ run by the French under German supervision. Most

De Gaulle after the war

De Gaulle found himself having to endure a frustrating 18 months as prime minister after the Liberation because party political in-fighting prevented him ruling as he wished to. He stormed out in a rage at the beginning of 1946 and, a year later, launched a political movement to replace the parliamentaryism of the new Fourth Republic with an executive administration led by himself. The movement, the RPF, performed well at elections but de Gaulle refused to compromise with the republic and withdrew from active political life to brood in his country home in eastern France.

De Gaulle would have his moment, though, which arrived in 1958 when France was torn by the division over the war in Algeria. To rescue the situation, de Gaulle returned to found the Fifth Republic and remained president for 11 years.

Under him, the country asserted itself on the global stage, the economy was restored, France became the political leader of Western Europe and a friendship treaty was signed with the old enemy, Germany. But de Gaulle, in his late seventies, was unable to cope with the student riots and strikes of 1968 and, the following year, held an unpopular referendum which amounted to political suicide. He went back to his country home where he died of a massive brain seizure in 1970.
and a return to the traditional values their leader tried to engineer a new state without parliament. Big crowds greeted him with the cry of “Marshal, here we are!” The Vichy technocrats were introduced. Anti-Semitic measures were proclaimed and French police were sent out with the instruction to round up Jews for deportation, with Laval decreeing that children should be included in the sweep.

When the Allied landings in North Africa in 1942 led to the Germans occupying the Vichy zone, Pétain became even more their prisoner, showing signs of increasing senility, realising that the Allies would win the war but throwing himself ever deeper into the arms of the Nazis. The resistance grew and, though much of it was home-grown, adopted de Gaulle as its figurehead. For de Gaulle, the man he had once admired became the symbol of France’s abandonment of the lofty role he always saw for his nation.

From offices overlooking the Mall in London, he built up the Free French movement, despite the recurrent rows with Churchill caused by his defence of what he saw as French interests. Insisting that in a quasi-mystical way he represented the true France, whose spirit he always carried with him, he had to fight with the British - and, even more, with the Americans - to show that he was not their poodle, unlike Pétain and his colleagues who would do whatever the Germans wanted. He felt strongly that he had made the right decision in 1940, and had grabbed the moment of destiny he had first sketched out in his notebook while being held as a German prisoner-of-war.

When de Gaulle returned to his country at the Liberation in 1944 to march triumphantly down the Champs-Élysées and celebrate at a mass in Notre-Dame cathedral before becoming prime minister, Pétain, Laval and the other leading collaborators were fleeing eastwards with Nazi escorts. They ended up in a castle in Germany where they bickered among themselves before being captured and returned to France.

Pétain was put on trial in Paris for treason, an occasion that de Gaulle did not particularly relish but nonetheless knew was a necessary process. The old man said little in his defence, cupping his ear to hear what was being said and sometimes dozing off. In his final statement he said he had “no ambition other than to serve France.” He was handed a death sentence that was ultimately commuted to life imprisonment due to Pétain’s advanced age. Instead, he was exiled to a barren island off the Atlantic coast. After a tragi-farce trial, former prime minister Laval was shot.

As Pétain eked out his last years to his death in 1951, de Gaulle instead encountered the rigours of French democratic politics. During the war, he had been able to dominate through his stature as the rallying point for resistance and French glory, but now he had to deal with competing political parties that annoyingly refused to bend to his will. At the beginning of 1946, he resigned as prime minister and, after the failure of an attempted comeback a few years later, remained on the sidelines until he returned to power in 1958 to found the Fifth Republic amid the crisis set off by the war in Algeria. He outlived Pétain by 19 years, retiring from the presidency after losing a referendum in 1969 and dying from a massive cerebral attack the following year as he played a card game at his country home.

One particularly telling mark of the legacies of these political titans lies in the terms they inspired, and how they are perceived today. ‘Gaullism’ stands for national pride and self-belief bordering on intransigence, while ‘Pétainism’ stands for surrender, made particularly bitter by the contrast of his success as a commander at Verdun. As a result, today’s French politicians revere de Gaulle, while most would do all they could to avoid being seen as Pétainist.

His prime minister, Pierre Laval, said he wanted a German victory.
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Outside an unassuming shop front in Holloway, London, crowds of women gathered in the street. Many had walked for miles to get there, only to be left in tears after being turned away from the help they desperately wanted. In front of them was the Mothers’ Clinic, Britain’s first family-planning centre offering a free service to married women. Since opening in 1921, it had become overwhelmed with patients who were finally able to access contraception and have control over their fertility. The nurses staffing the centre struggled to cope with the sheer number of women coming through the door, and the clinic was soon forced to move to larger premises in central London in 1925.

The woman behind this pioneering centre was Marie Stopes, a scientist and contraception campaigner who divided opinion greatly. Although her work for women’s rights has seen her labelled a feminist heroine, she was also known to be a passionate advocate for eugenics who harboured racist views. Marie’s entire life was one of division as she made the decision to split her career between science and humanitarian endeavours at a young age. Born into a middle-class Victorian family in 1880, her father was a leading archaeologist, while her mother was a Shakespearean scholar and suffragette.

Throughout her studies in botany and geology, Marie refused to let her gender hold her back. When the University of Manchester tried to rescind a job offer, claiming they did not realise the brilliant young Dr Stopes was a woman, she fought to get herself instated as the first female member of the science faculty. While a lecturer of palaeobotany, aged just 24, she threw herself into expeditions that her male colleagues feared to tackle. Scrambling through damp coal mines and muddy streams, she dug up plant fossils that were millions of years old, and helped to shape our knowledge of the origins of flowers and coal. However, it was in her thirties that Stopes began to branch out into more humanitarian interests.

In 1911 she married scientist Reginald Gates, but upon realising he was impotent, she had the marriage annulled on the grounds it was...
“Stopes quickly became famous as a sexual revolutionary, receiving thousands of letters from women seeking her advice.”
unconsummated. Having spent most of her life studying the sexual habits of plants, Stopes realised she knew little about her own sex life, and that poorer, uneducated women must know even less.

Stopes then shifted her attention to the study of women’s sexuality, and began writing her first book, *Married Love*, in 1916. It took her two years to find someone willing to publish it, but despite being condemned by the church, press and medical establishment, it still became a bestseller. 2,000 copies flew off the shelves in a fortnight and Stopes quickly became famous as an sex revolutionary, receiving thousands of letters from women seeking her advice. In that same year, she followed up the book with *Wise Parenthood*, a guide to birth control that further championed a woman’s right to contraception.

A few years later she and her new husband, businessman Humphrey Roe, opened the Mothers’ Clinic, and received yet more criticism from the medical community. Neither was medically trained and they employed nurses, rather than doctors, to consult with the patients, yet their simple and clean practice helped countless women in the area. They didn’t offer abortions, but instead provided contraception, giving the working classes a choice to opt out of struggling to raise large families in poverty, as they were often destined to do. Soon a small network of clinics was established across the UK, while an adapted horse-drawn caravan provided mobile outreach to isolated communities. Inside these clinics, patients could pick up a copy of *Birth Control News*, Stopes’s self-published newsletter that brought to light her real motivation for supporting contraception. As an advocate for eugenics, she believed in the perfection of the human race through selective breeding, and thought the poor, sick and “racially negligent” should not be allowed to produce their “inferior” offspring. In one edition, she wrote: “Sterilisation of the unfit raises a hornet’s nest, but no one worries at all about the daily sterilisation now going on of the fit. Young married men of the professional classes are today often forced by conditions to remain sterile, though they passionately desire the healthy children they could have if they did not have hordes of defectives to support in one way or the other.”

At the time, many of Stopes’s right-wing views were also held by Adolf Hitler, a man she seemed to greatly admire. Just before the outbreak of World War II, she sent the Nazi leader a book of her own poems entitled ‘Love Songs For Young Lovers’, with a letter that read: “Dear Herr Hitler, love is the greatest thing in the world: So will you accept from me these [poems] that you may allow the young people of your nation to have them? The young must learn love from the particular ‘till they are wise enough for the universal. I hope too that you yourself may find something to enjoy in the book.”

Love wasn’t the only subject of Marie’s poetry, however, as one piece of her work penned in 1942 featured the verse: “Catholics, Prussians, the Jews and the Russians, all are a curse, or something worse.” She certainly wasn’t shy about her racist views.

*Married Love* is published 1918

*Defining moment*

*Married Love* caused a sensation at a time when female sexuality and birth control were rarely discussed, and the work has since been translated into 13 different languages. It encouraged women to assert their rights, prompting one publisher to remark that if women demanded too much in the bedroom, then they wouldn’t find a man at all.

1918

Stopped died from breast cancer in 1958, leaving the bulk of her estate to the Eugenics Society and the Royal Society of Literature.
“Many of Stopes’s right-wing views were also held by Adolf Hitler, a man she seemed to greatly admire”

ideas, and there are reports that when friends asked if they could bring a young Jewish refugee they were caring for to lunch, she objected on the grounds that it would offend her other guests.

Eventually her prejudice even caused division in her family. When her son, Harry Stopes-Roe, announced he was to marry Mary Eyre Wallis, the short-sighted daughter of ‘bouncing bomb’ engineer Sir Barnes Wallis, Stopes was horrified. “She has an inherited disease of the eyes, which not only makes her wear hideous glasses... but the awful curse will carry on and I have the horror of our line being so contaminated and little children with the misery of glasses,’ she wrote. Stopes passionately objected to the marriage, claiming it would, “…make a mock of our lives’ work for Eugenic breeding and the Race,” and so refused to attend the ceremony and wrote Harry out of her will.

Harry was used to his mother’s controlling behaviour. As a child he had been forbidden from reading books because Stopes felt it encouraged second-hand opinions, and forced to wear a skirt until the age of 11 because she believed trousers produced heat in the wrong places. His father also buckled under Stopes’s emasculating influence, and towards the end of their marriage he was banished to the attic and made to do household chores in exchange for permission to see his son.

However, Harry insisted that his upbringing did him no harm and defended his mother’s unorthodox ways. When campaigners objected to the use of his mother’s image appearing on stamps in 2008, he said that they were, “...out of touch with the realities of the 1920s [when] eugenics had been very widely accepted as responsible action.” Indeed, many claim that Stopes’s views were simply shaped by the inherently snobbish and racist society in which she lived, and that she did well to at least rebel against the sexism she regularly faced.

This is perhaps attested by the fact that the thousands of women who visited her clinics didn’t seem to care about her personal views. They simply wanted a way to take control of their own fertility, believing in her maxim, ‘Every baby a wanted baby’, above all else. It is this ideology that inspired the establishment of Marie Stopes International in 1976, a family-planning charity that has helped more than 100 million women choose when to have children, regardless of their race, creed or class. Although the organisation tends to distance itself from Stopes’s eugenicist views, it prides itself on recognising her pioneering work in providing contraception to underserved women.

Whether the historical context of her life is enough to forgive her controversial views is a subject of much debate. There are still those who are appalled by the use of Stopes as a figurehead, seeing her only as a monster who championed women’s rights to further her ambition to create a ‘super race’. Meanwhile others see her as someone who made the world a better place, making sure children were born by choice, not chance – the motto of the charity that bears her name.

Was Marie Stopes a hero or a villain? Let us know what you think
Lost helicopters
At the start of the campaign, the ship containing the Task Force’s troop-carrying Chinook helicopters was destroyed. This meant British commanders had to rethink their strategy. While some troops could be transported by smaller helicopters like the Sea King pictured here, most had to slog across the islands on foot tackling Argentine strongholds.

Camouflaged uniform
Britain’s 28,000-man Task Force was assembled and dispatched within just three days of the Argentine invasion in April 1982. The South American landscape they encountered at Goose Green and beyond proved uncannily similar to Northern Europe, for which their green-and-brown-camouflaged Cold War uniforms had been designed.

Elite troops
Spearheading the ground war were 3,000 soldiers of the Parachute Regiment and Royal Marines. With their specialist training and superior tactics, these battle-hardened professionals proved vastly superior to Argentina’s inexperienced, largely conscript army, from the first battle at Goose Green until the Argentine surrender just over two weeks later.
By 25 May 1982, the British had established a beachhead at San Carlos Bay on East Falkland. The main body of its force headed east towards the island’s capital, Port Stanley, to liberate it from General Menéndez’s army of occupation. However, a smaller force of about 500 men was yomping south. The Second Battalion of the Parachute Regiment (2 Para) had been tasked with taking Goose Green, a tiny settlement where Argentinian troops had established a stronghold. Located on land eight kilometres long by one kilometre wide, this isthmus joined East and West Falkland. Its shape made it difficult to attack, and the commander of Argentina’s occupying army, General Menéndez, assigned the 1,200-strong Task Force Mercedes under Colonel Piaggi to defend it.

Outnumbered and with no option but to attempt a frontal assault, 2 Para’s commander, Colonel H Jones, planned to attack in darkness. The aim was to seize Goose Green’s airfield and take its settlement in daylight to avoid civilian casualties. First, 2 Para had to take Darwin Hill at the mouth of the isthmus that the Argentinians were dug in on.

The attack on the hill began at 3.35am on 28 May. Led by 2 Para’s A Company, Argentine machine-gun fire had pinned the advance down by dawn. Frustrated by the lack of progress, Jones made a fatal decision at around 9.30am. Identifying an isolated Argentine position at the top of the hill, he charged it single-handedly in an act of reckless bravery. His men watched incredulously as, just short of his objective, he was felled in a blizzard of bullets.

When the coded message ‘Sun Ray Is Down’ reached Major Keeble, the 2 Para’s second-in-command realised that he would need to take Goose Green. As poor weather prevented air support, Keeble ordered A Company to pour heavy fire onto the Argentine hilltop positions, while B and D Companies looked to outflank them from the west. Darwin Hill fell after 14 hours of fighting, much of it done at close quarters with bayonet and bare hands.

With A Company now holding Darwin Hill, Keeble sent C and D Companies to fight their way to the airfield, while B Company made for Goose Green Settlement to the south. By nightfall his exhausted paratroopers had surrounded the Argentinian defenders, but they hadn’t taken them.

Keeble sent a message to Piaggi telling him that if he didn’t surrender, his forces would flatten Goose Green, and Argentina would be held responsible for any civilian casualties. His bluff worked, and at 10am the following morning, around 1,000 Argentinians surrendered to a British force of less than 500.

Britain had won the first major land battle of the Falklands’ Conflict, but at the cost of 82 killed and wounded. The Argentinians had suffered around 150 casualties. That number would rise to over 2,000 before the killing was over.

**BATTLE OF GOOSE GREEN**

EAST FALKLAND, THE FALKLAND ISLANDS, 28-29 May 1982

Written by Nick Soldinger
A, B and D Companies (Coys) of the 2nd Battalion the Parachute Regiment move south from the start line under cover of darkness at 3.34am on 28 May. Led by A Coy, the force makes good progress, quickly overcoming Argentine-held defensive positions near Burntside Pond and Coronation Point.

The attack is halted
Confronted with the more formidable obstacle of Darwin Hill, A and B Coys are now raked by machine-gun fire from at least 11 concealed Argentine positions on top of the ridge. In the dark, it’s impossible to dislodge them with accurate mortar fire or an air attack. As night gives way to dawn, the Paras find themselves exposed in the featureless terrain, pinned down at the base of the hill.

First assault
A first attempt by the A Coy to take the ridge ends in failure as an Argentinian sniper wreaks havoc, killing several paras as they try scrambling up the hill.

Second assault
Having grown increasingly frustrated with the stalemate, 2 Para’s commander, Lieutenant Colonel H Jones, now orders his headquarters team forward, and leads an unsuccessful charge up a small gully. Three men following him are killed, including his adjutant, Captain Wood, and A Company’s second-in-command, Captain Dent.

Jones goes alone
Undeterred, and to the astonishment of his men who watch on dumbfounded, Colonel Jones now charges uphill alone. Argentine forces see that he’s outflanked, but open fire on him. Bullets start hitting the ground behind him, chasing him up the escarpment as he closes in on his intended target – an Argentine trench at the top of the ridge - finally thudding into his back when he’s just a few feet from it.

LT COLONEL H JONES VC
LEADER
Jones’ exploits at Goose Green made him somewhat of a tabloid hero. He was posthumously awarded Britain’s highest military honour: the Victoria Cross.

Strengths
A forceful character who always led from the front.

Weakness
His aggression and impatience cost him his life.

2 PARA
KEY UNIT
Some 17 members of 2 Para were decorated for bravery during the brief Falklands war.

Strengths
Highly motivated and trained to be incredibly aggressive in combat.

Weakness
Lightly armed and equipped, making them vulnerable during long engagements.

L1A1 SELF-LOADING RIFLE (SLR)
KEY WEAPON
The British army’s chief infantry weapon during the Falkland’s War.

Strengths
Reduced flash suppressor allowed easier use with a bayonet.

Weakness
Weighing in at five kilograms (unloaded) it could be relatively cumbersome.
06 Supressing fire
It is now 10am. Jones is dead and command of 2 Para falls to Major Chris Keeble. When a third attempt to advance up the hill fails - with poor weather still ruling out an air strike - he orders his men to hit the Argentine positions with heavy suppressing fire.

07 Darwin falls
As the hilltop is hit by more than 1,000 mortar rounds, plus small arms fire, B and D Coys move around the west of Darwin Hill. After a fierce fire fight, Argentine troops abandon their position at Boca House, and as B and D Coys outflank the Argentinians entrenched at the top of Darwin Hill, A Coy finally begin to move forward, seizing the ridge line after hours of brutal hand-to-hand fighting.

08 The airfield is attacked
A Company now occupies Darwin Ridge, as C and D Company move to take the airfield below. Spotting C Company approaching, Argentinian defenders open up on them with 35mm anti-aircraft guns inflicting heavy casualties. These same guns then reduce the nearby schoolhouse to rubble after sniper fire is reportedly seen coming from there. The guns are then put out of action in an air strike by British Sea Harriers.

09 Halted again
B Coy, meanwhile, has looped around south of the airfield to take Goose Green Settlement. Having received reinforcements from Port Stanley, however, the Argentinians are able to halt their advance.

10 The Argentinians surrender
As night falls on the evening of 28 May, 2 Para still hasn’t taken its objectives. Although the Argentinians are surrounded, Keeble’s men are exhausted and, with supplies running low, he takes a gamble. He offers the Argentinians a choice: surrender or he will “flatten Goose Green” and wipe out everyone. His bluff works. Knowing he won’t receive reinforcements, the Argentinian commander, Piaggi, surrenders the following morning.
In the new series, actress and model Lily Cole plays a young Elizabeth in dramatised scenes. The series, "Elizabeth And Her Enemies," will air on Channel 5 this spring.
You might have seen them co-presenting Channel 5's 2016 series *Henry VIII And His Six Wives*, and now Tudor historians Suzannah Lipscomb and Dan Jones are back for a new docu-drama exploring the reign of Elizabeth I and the threats posed by her enemies. Dan and Suzannah were excited to share a new view of the Virgin Queen's time on the throne, which is perhaps not as solid as we have come to think.

*Henry VIII And His Six Wives* was a big hit, and the new series sounds intriguing. Can you give us a flavour of what to expect this time around?

**Dan Jones:** I really enjoyed making this series. You make some shows and you feel like you’re telling a story that has been told before, but with this show, particularly with the focus on Elizabeth’s enemies, we were telling a story that I think many people just don’t know about Elizabeth.

You see this Gloriana image, this picture of strong, female rule in the 16th century, but beneath that, it’s a story of constant vulnerability, fragility, things being in the balance. It is an amazing dramatic story, and I think that’s such a gift when you’re making history for television - to just have to lift the drama out of the story and not impose it on to the tale.

**Do you think Elizabeth I really was that great Gloriana figure that we have all come to know?**

**Suzannah Lipscomb:** That view comes from the perspective of looking back over 45 years of a reign where she survived threats like the Armada, lived past the deaths of many of her enemies, and saw the executions of others. But actually as it is lived out, things don’t look that glorious. It looks pretty dangerous to be Elizabeth as a princess and then as a queen. We now know that she lived for this great period of time and it was wonderful, but there are distinct moments where it was very likely (if you were placing bets at the time) that Elizabeth wouldn’t live. And yet, she did. So it’s both true and not true.

**Is the way we see Elizabeth today purely a product of hindsight in that case, or is there a part of it that is a product of her own PR?**

**Dan Jones:** Whenever you’re looking at particular history with an established and rich mythology around it, the simplest thing you can do to understand it is just play the story forwards and look at things in sequence. Often what you see is a completely different view of the story. The trouble with Elizabeth is you’re always looking through the lens of Gloriana, the Great Portraits, and the Armada having been defeated. Take that away, and you see chaos, danger, betrayal and uncertainty - all the things that are gifts in television terms, and fascinating when you look into the history.

**What was Elizabeth’s perception of her own enemies - can we know this? Did she feel secure on the throne or did she feel the burden of the threats?**

**Suzannah Lipscomb:** One scene in the dramatised section of the show is based on the portrait from 1600, which shows her coronation. That was being painted in 1600, while she was crowned in 1559, many years earlier. By the time it was painted, she was an elderly woman, with blackened teeth and a wrinkly chest, using wigs to cover up her balding head. But we’ve got this powerful image, and we’ve bought into it. It’s exactly the same as her father, so actually in both cases, we’re trying to fight against those images to find the real people.

**“It was likely Elizabeth wouldn’t live”**

Interview by Alex Hoskins

*Suzannah (left) and Dan (right) visit the Tower of London among other Tudor history hot spots*
**Threats to the Throne**
The foes, favourites and family who dared to cross the Virgin Queen

**Pope Pius V**
In 1570 Pius issued a papal bull in which he dramatically excommunicated Elizabeth for heresy, and released all English Catholics from their allegiance to her. Although Pius posed little threat to Elizabeth personally, his bull placed her in great danger: it made her a target for all of those who wished to depose her in favour of the Catholic Mary, Queen of Scots, and plots against Elizabeth’s life began to increase. In retaliation, Elizabeth began to persecute English Catholics with severity.

**Mary, Queen of Scots**
They were cousins but, as queens of countries with a history of hostility, they were also natural enemies. Despite their attempts at friendship, when Mary’s disastrous queenship came crashing down in 1568, it soon became startlingly clear that, despite her status, Mary was in fact Elizabeth’s prisoner. After 19 years of imprisonment and numerous plots to free Mary and assassinate Elizabeth, Elizabeth signed the death warrant of her fellow queen. Mary was executed on 8 February 1587.

**Philip II**
Philip had been married to Elizabeth’s half sister, Mary, and later proposed to Elizabeth too. Despite her refusal, for many years the monarchs enjoyed peaceful communications. However, as Elizabeth’s reign progressed, so too did relations with Spain deteriorate. Matters came to a head in 1588 when Philip sent his Armada across the English Channel in an attempt at invasion. It was repelled, but Philip did not stop there. Two further forces were sent, both of which failed, and Philip remained a threat to Elizabeth until his death in 1598.

**Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex**
Essex had been Elizabeth’s dashing favourite. However, in 1599 things started to go badly wrong. Having been given a command in Ireland, Essex returned to England against the queen’s express orders, but after a period of house arrest he was eventually set free. Essex was disgruntled however, and began plotting against the queen. The Essex Rebellion of 1601 was a dismal failure, and Essex was arrested and sent to the Tower. Condemned for treason, he was executed on 25 February 1601.

**Thomson Seymour**
The uncle of Edward VI, Seymour cherished hopes of a royal bride. However, plans to marry both Elizabeth and her half sister, Mary, came to nothing, and instead Seymour wed Katherine Parr, Henry VIII’s widow. Elizabeth was living in Katherine’s household, and before long she became entangled in a dangerous flirtation with Seymour. It was discovered, and Elizabeth was banished. Seymour was executed for treason in 1549, and Elizabeth’s liaison with the convicted traitor came to light. She was questioned over her involvement with him, but survived unscathed.

**Elizabeth’s life was peppered with threats to her throne**

**You get peak Tudor dysfunction in the 1540s and 50s**

Interview

SL: You can also read letters she wrote. There’s a letter that she sent to her sister when Mary was queen and Elizabeth was suspected of being involved in a rebellion. Elizabeth is laying out her case for how great a supporter she is of her sister, Mary, and obviously there’s a rhetoric there that has a purpose: ‘Please don’t kill me’. But underneath that, there’s the elegance of the way it’s written, the persuasiveness of it, all testifying to her knowing that there is a threat. So, of course we don’t know what she is thinking or feeling most of the time, but what we do have are these clues.

If all the enemies we meet in the new series, are there any you particularly engaged with?

SL: I am most intrigued by the Essex story, because he is such a strange person.

DI: I think you fancy Essex.

SL: Have you seen the pictures of him? No way! But he’s very, very arrogant, very charming. He stages a ludicrous coup that could never have in any way succeeded, which suggests that perhaps he didn’t governness, which gives sufficient insight to make judgements about what she was most likely feeling or thinking. I’m judging those words carefully because obviously we don’t want to say: “Yeah, we worked out exactly how scared on a scale of one to ten Elizabeth was, as the first ship of the Armada sailed through!” But you can make informed and reasoned judgements. As historians, that’s our job.
plan for it to work, that it had a different purpose. It’s a real threat in terms of being close to home, in London, and must have seemed terrifying at the time. I think he’s intriguing because he’s very close to her before it all happens. It’s a nuanced story, and he’s a bit of an oddball.

**DJ:** I quite like the early stuff. I think you get peak Tudor dysfunction in the 1540s and 50s. Henry VIII chops off Elizabeth’s mother’s head - that’s the 30s, but it’s the prequel to the brother and sisters having the most weird sequence of interactions and relations with one another, culminating with Mary I ‘umming and erring’ over whether to chop off her own sister’s head. What’s good about that and what’s good about the Henry VIII series we did, again from an ‘amazing TV point of view’, is that we have that sweet spot of storytelling where family feuding, family disagreement, is national history at the same time. It’s beautiful.

**SL:** It’s got to be Philip, really.

**Dj:** It has to be Philip.

**SL:** If the Duke of Parma had been ready on the other side of the channel, to meet Philip’s ships coming up from Spain, picked them up and dropped them off in England, then everything would have gone wrong. Robert Hutchinson put it like this: the English militia at the time made Dad’s Army look like a highly honed war machine. There’s no way they could have succeeded on land, there was just no organisation. So, it’s just luck that Parma’s not there, and it’s just by luck that the weather works in the favour of the English.

**Dj:** Today we call it luck, and at the time, they thought it was God.

**SL:** But the problem historically is that suggests that they would have been saved either way, and my point is that it was by the merest breath that they escaped with their lives.

**Would the threats have differed if Elizabeth were a king?**

**Dj:** I think Elizabeth certainly thought so, or thought that others felt that way. Her famous speech at Tilbury, for example: ‘Weak and feeble body of a woman...’

**SL:** “Heart and stomach of a king.”

**Dj:** That tells you that either she feels pressure because she is a queen, or she feels that this is something she needs to say because that’s what other people are thinking. So, manifestly, it’s a central part of the story.

**SL:** But I think the question is really whether if there had been a king, would he also have been a Protestant? Because much of the threat to Elizabeth from the pope, from Philip II, comes not from the fact that Elizabeth is a woman, but that she’s not a Catholic.

Being a woman gives her some mechanisms for dealing with things that, if she were a man, she would not have had. She has her male advisors at her beck and call, with this sort of game of courtly love, and there is rhetoric about weakness that she can play to when she doesn’t want to make a decision, even if that is actually the politic thing to do. She uses the conceit of what womanliness means at the time, to her advantage.

**What are you most looking forward to viewers seeing in this series?**

**SL:** There are some real surprises in here; things people don’t know. I think there’s going to be a lot of history that people are unfamiliar with, that will really make people sit up and look, and I can’t wait for the reaction when it goes out!

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**THE BABINGTON PLOT**

The deadly trap that sealed the fate of Mary, Queen of Scots

In July 1586, Sir Francis Walsingham, Elizabeth’s spymaster, received a letter. For some months he had been aware of a new plot to assassinate Elizabeth and replace her with Mary, Queen of Scots, but so far he had lacked any evidence of Mary’s personal involvement. Walsingham had been active in Elizabeth’s service for many years, during which time he had built up an intricate spy network consisting of double agents and code breakers. There had been other plots to free Mary and kill Elizabeth, all of which Walsingham had successfully uncovered, but none had provided him with enough evidence to convince Elizabeth to take action against her fellow queen. The Babington Plot, Walsingham had decided, would leave Elizabeth with no choice. Anthony Babington and the Jesuit priest, John Ballard, were the main plotters, and had spent some months laying their plans and devising a way to communicate with Mary. They had employed Gilbert Gifford, who was tasked with smuggling letters to Mary by means of a beer barrel delivered to Charley Manor, where she was held. Unbeknown to the conspirators, Gifford was one of Walsingham’s double agents, and his code breaker, Thomas Phelippes, was deciphering the letters - written in code - before passing them on to an unsuspecting Mary. In July, Babington wrote to Mary detailing his plans for her escape and seeking her approval for ‘the dispatch of the usurping competitor’: Elizabeth. On 17 July Mary replied, agreeing to Babington’s plans. As Walsingham was handed her response, he finally had the written evidence that he needed. The conspirators were rounded up and executed, and Mary’s fate was sealed.
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ARCTIC STOCKFISH

A VIKING STAPLE NORWAY, 793 – PRESENT

Cured by salty spring winds, stockfish is Norway’s oldest export. The Arctic Ocean yields large catches of cod, and as the Vikings developed the technique of air-drying the headless fish on wooden racks, they also realised the monetary value of this delicacy. The spring Arctic winds are the perfect temperature for curing the fish – just cold enough to keep the stock from rotting without freezing it solid. The result is a hardy food that keeps for almost a decade – a perfect commodity to trade with sailors and take on long voyages. As exports reached Europe, stockfish became popular in Catholic communities in countries like Spain and Portugal, as it was a useful foodstuff for fasting and meat-free diets.

METHOD

01 To begin drying your cod, find a place outside with a suitable climate – the Arctic spring is ideal. Set up wooden racks, known as ‘hjell’, and tie your fish by the tail with string. Leave to air-dry for about three months – the best time is between February and May.

02 Move your dried cod inside (to a light, dry and well-ventilated area) to mature and ferment for another 12 months. This is where the intense flavours will develop.

03 When you’re ready to enjoy your stockfish, you need to rehydrate it. The drying process removes the majority of the moisture, so you’ll need to submerge the whole fish in clean, cold water (2-4 degrees Celsius) for about seven days, changing the water at least once a day.

04 After three or four days of soaking you’ll be able to remove the skin and cut the partially rehydrated fish into portions, before leaving it to finish the rehydration process.

05 When the fish has plumped up and almost doubled in weight, it’s ready to be cooked. Salt the fish on both sides and place in to a pan. The fish doesn’t need any extra water, so place the lid on the pan and steam-cook on a low heat for 20-25 minutes.

06 Cooking the stockfish this way makes the traditional Norwegian dish known as ‘lutefisk’. While the fish is cooking, boil some potatoes, mash some peas and fry some bacon to serve.

Ingredients

For the stockfish
- 1 (or more) whole cod, skin on, filleted and head removed
- To serve with traditional ‘lutefisk’
  - Peas
  - Potatoes
  - Bacon

Did you know?

In the southern reaches of Norse territory salt was used to preserve the fish – another delicacy still enjoyed today known as ‘klippfisk’.
REVIEWS
All About History on the books, TV shows and films causing a stir in the history world

THE WARS OF THE ROOSEVELTS
Secrets and scandals abound in this history of America’s most powerful political family
Author William J Mann Publisher HarperCollins Price £25 Released Out now

US politics is dominated by dynasties: wealthy families like the Bush clan or the Kennedys, who own or broker power over decades. They come and they go. During the first half of the 20th century the one family that towered over the American political landscape bore the name Roosevelt - arguably the most powerful and influential of them all.

William J Mann’s account of what he describes as “the ruthless rise of America’s greatest political family” is part history book and part soap opera. This isn’t a criticism, as any storyteller would be hard pushed to recount the lives of its main protagonists without getting drawn into some of the more intriguing aspects of their personal lives and internecine rivalries.

Although the Roosevelt family’s involvement in US politics goes back to the 17th century, when the first Roosevelts arrived in the Dutch settlement of New Amsterdam (on present-day Manhattan Island), but Mann’s melodrama opens with Theodore Roosevelt. Born in 1858, the man who would be America’s 26th president was a weak and asthmatic boy, while his younger brother, Elliott, was more handsome and athletic. This seemed to spur Theodore on. Intensely ambitious, highly competitive and more than a little macho, he overcame his early frailties to become a rancher, hunter and soldier, before ending up in the Oval Office in 1901.

Elliott became hooked on morphine after a riding accident, and eventually succumbed to alcoholism. As well as suffering from substance addiction, he repeatedly cheated on his wife. When young servant girl Katy Mann gave birth to an illegitimate son, it was the final straw. Theodore, who was now carving out a political career, had Elliot committed to an asylum to prevent further gossip. Two years of incarceration followed, only ending in 1892 when Elliott died following a failed suicide attempt. He was just 34 years old.

Of the four children Elliot fathered in wedlock, his eldest daughter, Eleanor, would become best known. Born in 1884, she married her fifth cousin, Franklin Delano Roosevelt (FDR), in 1905, becoming America’s longest-serving First Lady during FDR’s presidency from 1933-45. But their marriage was a sham. Despite producing six children, they were never sexually compatible. His numerous clandestine affairs eventually drove her to seek comfort in the arms of several female companions - including pioneering pilot Amelia Earhart - leaving their marriage more of a political partnership than a loving one.

As a result, their large family was spectacularly dysfunctional. While their children struggled with failed relationships, multiple marriages and scandals, FDR and Eleanor toiled to hold the country together during its most tumultuous period since the Civil War. This is a highly entertaining read that shows how rivalries and betrayals helped to create the dynamic political force that forged modern America.

“THEodore, who was now carving out a political career, had Elliot committed to an asylum”
ISABELLA OF FRANCE: THE REBEL QUEEN
Searching for the truth beyond the myths of Isabella

**Author** Kathryn Warner  
**Publisher** Amberley Publishing  
**Price** £14.99  
**Released** Out now

"Can we discover the real Isabella underneath centuries of myth?" This is the question Warner opens with, and she does an admirable job of answering it. She casts aside everything we think we know about Isabella of France, from her part in her husband's death to her alleged affair with Roger Mortimer. Called a she-wolf by some and an abused victim by others, the real Isabella, Warner proposes, was somewhere in between.

The author is hesitant to make any statements about Isabella or her husband, Edward II, without finding it directly in a contemporary source. Warner refuses to read between the lines, whether it is regarding Edward II's relationships with men, Isabella's relationship with Mortimer, or Charles IV's support of the rebellion. Since what is documented is, of necessity, often less than the full truth, one almost wishes for more interpretation. However, Warner holds to her vow to uncover facts where others have made assumptions.

This makes her arguments regarding Edward II's alleged murder even more compelling. As the author has not followed her peers in accusing Edward of sodomy or Isabella of adultery, her case for Edward's survival beyond 21 September 1327 carries greater weight. Since one of the crimes Isabella is often accused of is ordering her husband's murder and delighting in its supposed cruelty, this part of Warner's research is intriguing.

Dismissing long-accepted myths, the writer makes a case for a happy marriage between Isabella and Edward until Hugh Despenser the Younger hit the scene, and disdains the idea that any of their children were the result of Isabella's adultery. Of course, some of what we hear about Isabella is true. She was pious and charitable, but also ruled just as poorly as Edward had once she was in control.

Some of the greatest questions are those we can never find certain answers for. The relationships that Edward II had with Piers Gaveston, Hugh Despenser and his niece will remain inspiration for historical fiction, just as Isabella and Mortimer will, but Warner successfully causes us to rethink the assumptions that we have been making of them.

A QUIET PASSION
One of literature's great recluses is given the biopic treatment

**Certificate** 12A  
**Director** Terence Davies  
**Cast** Cynthia Nixon, Jennifer Ehle, Keith Carradine, Johdi May  
**Released** 7 April 2017

Emily Dickinson (1830-1886) spent her life haunted by death and disappointment. In Terence Davies's excellent and suitably melancholic biopic, *A Quiet Passion*, the posthumously acclaimed American poet is played by *Sex And The City*'s Cynthia Nixon. It is an electrifying performance, Dickinson's rapier wit and comic retorts for all occasions are equalled by a gloomy life philosophy. For Dickinson, the known world ended at the garden gate.

A chamber piece drama – Dickinson rarely left the house and in later years rarely left her bedroom – Davies uses the poet's famous works to mark passages of time and key moments. This inventive directorial tactic reaches an emotional crescendo during final scenes, when the morbid 'Because I Could Not Stop Death' is read in voiceover, accompanied by a sequence of shots: Emily lying in her deathbed, Emily in a coffin, and Emily being carried to her burial plot. “Because I could not stop Death – he kindly stopped for me.”

Set in 19th-century Amherst, Massachusetts, though shot entirely in Belgium, the film has a pleasantly bucolic look. Yet to anybody yearning for freedom and success, Dickinson's austere and formal daily routine would have constricted the life out of them like an anaconda squeeze. It was, in fact, a great comfort and joy to Dickinson. Her father Edward (Keith Carradine), brother Austin (Duncan Duff) and sister Vinnie (Jennifer Ehle) meant everything. Although she would have haughtily dismissed it as cliché, for Emily, home is where the heart is.
The most problematic of Australia’s outlaw antiheroes, received wisdom holds that Harry Harbord Morant was stitched up by the aristocratic British officer class and unjustly given a death sentence for his conduct in the Second Anglo-Boer War (1899–1902).

It’s fair to say that this narrative resonates, but – as West and Roper make clear – the real story is less forgiving. Morant’s murder of his Boer prisoners was motivated by malice and constituted a war crime. That he faced the firing squad while others responsible faced lesser sentences is an injustice, but that doesn’t detract from his conduct.

As its name suggests, The Final Roundup aspires to be the last word on the matter, and largely succeeds. West and Roper are forensic in their examination of the primary sources, legal arguments and the competing claims of later memoirs and contemporary historians, but this is perhaps to a fault.

First-hand accounts are dropped in with little analysis, while the meticulous researching of Morant’s shady origins gives way to tangents. The ferocity of the pro-Morant community might have forced them to cling to surer ground, perhaps fearing that any omission in their sources might be used as a stick to beat them, but West and Roper let some wider themes go undeveloped.

One thread begging to be pulled is whether early glimmers of violence in Morant’s history – in particular a story about selecting an Indigenous Australian for his skull and then killing him – were typical of him or typical of the time, and what they can tell us about his military conduct and his attraction to the brand of irregular warfare made infamous by the Bushveldt Carbineers.

QUEER CITY: GAY LONDON FROM THE ROMANS TO THE PRESENT DAY

A gay old time

Author: Peter Ackroyd
Publisher: Penguin Random House UK
Price: £16.99
Released: 25 May 2017

Queer City revises the bleak outlook of the community’s history. The past is still bleak, but Ackroyd’s frank approach makes it more than just mildly interesting.

Ackroyd starts with Roman Londinium and the queer activities surrounding pleasure houses and hot baths, and works his way through the queer history of everything from palaces and nightclubs to churches and monasteries, up to present day.

Queer City is packed full of all the British history left out in school. For example, London men used to kiss as a greeting, but toned it down to a hug, and shortly after a handshake, to avoid being mistaken for sodomites.

Both queer and straight women became obsessed with masturbation in 18th-century Britain, which led to people wandering around St James’ Park selling wares from a basket of dildos disguised as dolls.

Though Ackroyd adopts an ironic tone through most of the book, there are passages that are devastating, such as the stories of queer men hanged in the 19th century for engaging in sexual relationships with other men.

The death penalty for such ‘crimes’ was abolished in 1861, but replaced by penal servitude for life, even though other sexual assaults usually warranted sentences of two months to three years in prison. Queer City constantly highlights how far we’ve come while also acknowledging how far we’ve still to go.
SCANDINAVIANS:
IN SEARCH OF THE SOUL OF THE NORTH
Melancholy, sexually candid and politically progressive
*Author Robert Ferguson*  
*Publisher* Head of Zeus Ltd  
*Price* £25  
*Released* Out now

Scandinavians seeks to encapsulate 1000 years of history across Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Iceland. It's a leisurely and digressive account, full of personality, with time for author Robert Ferguson to include a play about poet Henrik Ibsen's illegitimate son, as well as a personal encounter, across a train carriage, with mass murderer Anders Breivik.

The "bright and shadowless entities" of IKEA and ABBA appear alongside the region's enduring taboo on religious swearwords. We meet Queen Kristina of Sweden, an intellectual of ambiguous gender who studied with philosopher Descartes before abdicating in 1654. Then there's Johann Friedrich Struensee, who briefly held the ear of Christian VII of Denmark and the heart of that mad king's wife, using his influence to introduce free speech as early as the 1770s, before being arrested, tortured and savagely executed.

The discussion of World War II is striking, with overt resistance leading to the mass deportation of Jews from a Norway ruled by Nazi puppet Quisling, whereas a largely quiescent Denmark got the majority of their much larger Jewish population free into neutral Sweden. Elsewhere, Ferguson relates early Scandinavian depictions of an oddly heroic Christ to the contempt that warrior Vikings felt for suffering, and fondly describes Odin, dethroned by that same Christianity, gracefully setting aside his god-like duties to wander the world as a one-eyed tramp.

We read about sexual frankness and gender equality, conformity of social democracy versus insistence on open debate, how famously liberal prison regimes relate to the murders at Malexander and Utøya, and consider Scandinavian "melancholy and darkness of mind." When Ferguson quotes from a Norwegian novel: "History isn't always what you think it was," it's a summary of his own impressive book. You won't get strict chronology or dispassionate judgment, but there's plenty for historians to chew on.

SHAKESPEARE AND COMPANY, PARIS:
A HISTORY OF THE RAG & BONE SHOP OF THE HEART
The story of a wild-haired American and the bohemian bookshop he made in the heart of Paris
*Editor Krista Halverson*  
*Publisher* Shakespeare and Company, Paris  
*Price* £24.95  
*Released* Out now

"I want to open a tearoom with a fountain of mercury like a cascade of jewels, and, in a small pool, two baby seals," wrote George Whitman in 1960. "The shop will still be modest and uncommercial, but it will be the most unusual bookstore anywhere on Earth." This immaculately produced book about his shop is a kind of scrapbook, lovingly pasted together from fascinating photographs, advertisements, contemporary newspapers and the personal reminiscences of everyone from Anaïs Nin in the 1950s to Ethan Hawke in the 2000s.

We begin in 1919 with the original Shakespeare and Company: Sylvia Beach's Paris bookshop, which was the very first to publish James Joyce's then-shocking *Ulysses*. It inspired irascible ex-Army drifter Whitman himself to open up a shop where the workaday business of selling books was secondary to hosting indigent writers and artists ('Tumbleweeds'). There are plenty of heroic bohemian anecdotes - Beat poet Greg Corso tries to sell back to George books that he had stolen from him, Pablo Neruda drinks wine from tuna cans with Italo Calvino - however, the problems of such otherworldliness are evident: one Tumbleweed discovers a record of sales dated 30 and 31 February.

Soon the overriding problem for George - in his eighties and still living upstairs - is who will take over: he even offers the shop to super wealthy humanitarian George Soros. Then Whitman's estranged daughter re-enters the chaos. George secretly tidies up the premises and even the bookkeeping, but sabotages every improvement she attempts - memorably stealing his own shop's new-fangled cash till one night.

Via detours into the likes of the 1966 anti-Beatnik clampdown and May 1968 riots, this story of "a socialist utopia masquerading as a bookstore" is a vigorous cultural history of mid-century Paris. He would never let on, but George would have been absolutely delighted.
Was Julius Caesar the first person born by C-section?

Mia Jones

Definitely not. Long before Julius Caesar, in the 7th century BCE, Roman law already required that women who died in childbirth be cut open so that the mother and baby could be buried separately. In extreme circumstances, a woman might have a caesarean section during labour to save the baby, although this was always fatal to the mother.

The story that Julius Caesar was born this way probably comes from a 10th-century Byzantine-Greek encyclopedia called *The Suda*. However, this account can't possibly be true because we know that Julius Caesar's mother, Aurelia, survived into his adulthood. Roman physicians wouldn't have even attempted a C-section unless they were certain she was going to die, so Aurelia would have had to miraculously survive both the reason for attempting the C-section and then the operation itself for this to be true. As late as 1865, the survival rate for a C-section was just 15 per cent.

So Julius Caesar wasn't a caesarean birth at all, never mind the first. It is much more likely that one of Caesar's ancestors was born this way, and ended up taking his family name from this Roman law – the Lex Caesaria, which means 'the law of the incision'.

Did Germany still trade with other countries during World War II?

Martin Carter

The German war effort was mostly financed by borrowing and theft. A third of the cost of the war was paid for with confiscated Jewish wealth, and most of the rest took the form of war bonds in the banks of occupied countries. But Germany also traded with neutral countries for certain essential raw materials. Sweden provided iron ore and Spain supplied tungsten, for example. In fact, one of the reasons these countries were left neutral was that Germany knew it was safer to trade with them for their vital resources than invade and risk losing them to a counter invasion.

German citizens were encouraged to save into government schemes for their own Volkswagen, but all the cars were kept back for the war effort.

This day in history 30 March

- **1282**
  - The Sicilian Vespers
    - As the church bells begin to chime for evening prayers on Easter Monday, Sicilian peasants rise up against the French immi grants, in protest over the rule of French-born King Charles I. 3,000 French are killed.

- **1296**
  - Capture of Berwick
    - Edward I sacks the border town of Berwick-upon-Tweed as his first strike against the Scottish. As many as 17,000 die in battle, and Scotland loses a vital trading port.

- **1842**
  - First anaesthetic surgery
    - American surgeon Dr Crawford Long performs the first operation using ether as an anaesthetic. He successfully removes a tumour from the neck of James Venable. His breakthrough goes unrecognised for the next 12 years.

- **1856**
  - Treaty of Paris
    - The Crimean War between Russia and the British Empire comes to an end with a treaty that makes the Black Sea neutral territory and forbids any military presence on its shores.
Carla Brandon

During the United States of America’s Prohibition era of 1920-33, the average alcohol consumption was halved, falling from two gallons of drink per adult per year to just one. However, this statistic comes from official figures, which means that it doesn’t account for any of the illegal trade. But studies that have looked at the rates of cirrhosis of the liver – a disease directly caused by alcohol consumption – estimate that by 1925, alcohol consumption in the USA had probably dropped by about 40 per cent.

What is the history of the postcard?
Antony Larman

Postcards have existed for almost as long as organised postal services. The earliest we know of is a satirical cartoon mocking the Royal Mail, painted by the humourist Theodore Hook in 1840 and probably sent to himself as a joke. The first printed postcards didn’t have a picture – they were just postage paid cards, with the stamp printed directly onto the card. These were available in the USA in 1861 but didn’t catch on in Britain until 1870. This was the same year that a card with a printed design first appeared, as a souvenir for soldiers who were training for the Franco-Prussian war in France. However, these cards didn’t include a printed stamp, or any room to stick one, and were probably all posted in envelopes. The modern design, with a picture on one side and space for the address on the right-hand side of the reverse, wasn’t used until 1907.

The saucy seaside postcard reached its heyday in Britain in the 1930s

How much did Prohibition in the US affect alcohol consumption?
Carla Brandon

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ELIZABETH

Emotion trumps history in this lavish, if inaccurate, biopic


Fact versus fiction on the silver screen

01 Elizabeth’s use of lead makeup, while accurate, was almost definitely used to hide smallpox scars she had, not tied to her adopting the image of the ‘virgin queen’. This transformation would be gradual and wigs would have been fashionable at the time.

02 The queen would not marry in her lifetime, and while an affair between Her Majesty and Robert Dudley has been hinted at, it is not proven it was a sexual relationship, as depicted in the film. Elizabeth likely stayed the virgin queen throughout her life.

03 The portrayal of Francis Walsingham could not be more different to his historical counterpart. Walsingham was a devout Protestant who married twice, not an irreligious homosexual who murders Mary of Guise. Mary died naturally from edema.

04 While the flamboyant Duke of Anjou is fun to watch, there is no record of him travelling to England to meet Elizabeth to make outrageous comments. However, the queen would go on to court his younger brother, Francis, who was 20 years her junior.

05 For a costume drama, the outfits in Elizabeth are a little suspect. While some of the queen’s dresses do seem to be closely based on the real thing, they are worn either too early or too late to fit in with the court fashion and the film’s timeline.

VERDICT: The film gives Elizabeth’s life a Shakespearean overhaul, leaving facts behind.
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Blood Royal
Picturing the Tudor Monarchy
24 July - 25 August

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Battle of the Denmark Strait
Bismarck’s Pyrrhic Victory

In the early morning of May 24, 1941, several giants rocked the Atlantic in the Battle of the Denmark Strait. Kriegsmarine battleship Bismarck and heavy cruiser Prinz Eugen clashed with the pride of the Royal Navy, battle cruiser Hood and the battleship Prince of Wales, who were all that stood in the way of operation Rheinubung. Vice Admiral Lancelot Ernest Holland, the commander of Hood, issued the attack order.

Just 15 minutes after the start of convergence—at 05:52—Hood unleashed a salvo from around 13 miles (21 km) away. But in doing so, Hood could not escape covering fire from Bismarck. At 06:00, an explosion engulfed the artillery cellars in Hood’s hold. All the while, Prince of Wales fired blindly—her management positions divided—and scored a hit. A great wound tore Bismarck open; British ships bouched her oil trail, following her as she attempted to escape her fate.

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