The men who fought bravely for the empire and independence

History’s most catastrophic couple

The mysterious decline of a native population

WHAT HAPPENED TO THE EASTER ISLANDERS?

The rise and fall of the First Persian Empire

WHEN IRAN WAS A SUPERPOWER

The men who challenged the power of the Vatican

MEET THE ANTIPOPEs

Discover the bloody battlefields that turned Prince Hal into a conqueror

QUEEN OF BOHEMIA

Meet the woman who inspired Picasso and Hemingway

INDIA’S WWI HEROES

The men who fought bravely for the empire and independence

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History’s most catastrophic couples

FORGING THE WARRIOR KING

HENRY V

CHINA’S WILD EAST

Crime, corruption and murder before the rise of Mao

ISSUE 087
Welcome

Thanks in part to William Shakespeare’s ‘Henriad’ (being his plays Richard II, Henry IV: Part 1, Henry IV: Part 2 and Henry V) the fact and fiction around the life of the real Prince Hal who became the warrior king of England can feel a little muddled. The Bard’s portrayal has become a cornerstone of the representation of Henry on stage and in film and as such is the abiding image in the public consciousness. No surprise then that the most recent film about Henry’s ascension to the throne, *The King* on Netflix, carries very little historical truth. Thankfully, we’re not looking to cinema to answer our questions about Henry V this issue.

That responsibility has gone to Tom Garner, features editor of our esteemed sister magazine *History Of War*, who has looked to pick apart the young life of Henry, Prince of Wales to find the moments, events and decisions that helped to shape the young man into the hero of Agincourt that he would become. How did being an honoured hostage of Richard II play into his relationship with his father? What did his campaigns in Ireland, Wales and England teach him? What did surviving an arrow to the face do for his reputation? We explore all this and more.

Elsewhere this issue we look at crime in pre-communist China, when Iran was a superpower and some terrible romances through history. I hope you enjoy it.

Jonathan Gordon
Editor

Editor’s picks

Queen of the Salon
We welcome Roy Morris Jr to look at the role Gertrude Stein play in fostering the Lost Generation of artists and writers from her home in Paris.

Meet the antipopes
Schisms in the Catholic Church and competing claims to papal authority were common for centuries. Sharon Bennett Connolly delves into the history for us.

Island mystery
Why did the population of the Rapanui, the native people of Easter Island, drop off so dramatically? Dr Cat Jarman unpicks the theories for us to reveal the truth.

Henry V has seen many portrayals, often by some of the best young actors of their day. Here we see Richard Burton in the role from 1951.
28 How did the events of Prince Hal's life prepare him for leadership and victory on the battlefield?

THE FIRST PERSIAN EMPIRE

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A quick overview of the key events

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Crime and corruption in pre-communist China

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Exploring the fate of the Rapanui
What If
Professor William Philpott explains how an Allied victory at Gallipoli could have changed WWI
The Yalta Conference of February 1945 was the second meeting of President Roosevelt of the United States, Prime Minister Churchill of Britain and Premier Stalin of the USSR. It followed a conference in Moscow between Churchill and Stalin that had established Western and Soviet spheres of influence in post-war Europe. This meeting was intended to lay out a roadmap for the reestablishment of sovereign nations after the war.
At the Audubon Ballroom in Manhattan on 21 February 1965, Malcolm X was about to address 400 members of the Organization of Afro-American Unity, which he’d founded in 1964. But as he prepared to speak, a man ran up to the stage and blasted him with a shotgun. Two more assailants followed firing semi-automatic weapons. Malcolm X was pronounced dead shortly after. This image shows the aftermath.
The Winter Olympics ice hockey medal round match between the United States and the USSR is considered to be one of the greatest sporting upsets in history. The professional players of the USSR were firm favourites against the young amateur US side, yet the American team (the youngest in the competition by average age) managed to overturn a 2-3 deficit to win 4-3 in the final period. They went on to win gold by beating Finland.

1980
“What other man but Cyrus, after having overturned an empire, ever died with the title of The Father from the people whom he had brought under his power?”

Xenophon, in *The Cyropaedia*
Where modern Iran now sits was the heart of one of the ancient world’s most powerful and feared empires.
THE REIGN OF CAMBYSES II
530-522 BCE
After the death of Cyrus (according to Herodotus, in battle against the Massagetae), his son Cambyses II ascends to the throne and becomes king.

Succession of Darius I
522 BCE
Darius launches a military expedition against the Scythians. With no major cities, the Scythians remain mobile and avoid a direct confrontation.

INVASION OF GREECE
492 BCE
In an attempt to punish the cities of Athens and Eretria for their support of the Ionian revolt, Darius launches a massive campaign into Greece.

The Fall of Babylon
539 BCE
Cyrus the Great conquers Babylon, signifying the end of the Neo-Babylonian Empire. A Biblical account states that the takeover lasts a single night. Following this event, Cyrus permits a number of foreign exiles to return to their own lands.

IONIAN REVOLT
499-494 BCE
Sensing dissatisfaction with his rule Aristagoras (the Tyrant of Miletus) incites the whole of Ionia into rebellion against Darius the Great.

Did you know?
Cyrus is seen as an early advocate of human rights, freeing slaves and allowing lots of religions.

The Rise of Cyrus the Great
553 BCE
Cyrus succeeds to the throne of his father (King of Anshan) and stages a three-year campaign against his grandfather, Astyages. Cyrus is victorious and unites the twin kingdoms of Parsa and Anshan. This begins the Achaemenid Empire.

The Battle of Pelusium
525 BCE
The first major battle in the Persian-Egyptian war, it’s a decisive victory for the Achaemenid army, with some sources stating 50,000 Egyptian losses.

Did you know?
Cyrus is seen as an early advocate of human rights, freeing slaves and allowing lots of religions.

Succession of Darius the Great
522 BCE
Following Cambyses’ death his brother Bardyia rules for a short period. However, Herodotus states that Cambyses had murdered Bardyia and instead a Magi imposter took his place. Darius, the king’s personal lancer, travels with six noblemen and kills the usurper.
Battle of Thermopylae
480 BCE
The Spartan army holds back the Persian forces for three successive days at the mountain pass of Thermopylae. Only after the Spartans are betrayed and a path around the pass is revealed is Xerxes able to secure victory.

Death of Darius III
330 BCE
Darius, unable to muster further support, is murdered by his cousin and would-be usurper Bessus. Found chained to an ox cart and dying, he is given a grand funeral by Alexander. His death signifies the end of the Achaemenid Empire.

Persepolis 515 BCE
Darius I moves the capital of the Achaemenid Empire to Persepolis and oversees the construction of its terraces and palaces. Evidence suggests that it is only inhabited seasonally, serving more the function of a grand ceremonial complex rather than a large city.

Battle of Gaugamela
331 BCE
Having lost large sections of his empire, Darius hopes to use sheer force of numbers to overwhelm Alexander. However, when the Persians mistakenly think Darius has been killed the army collapses into chaos, leading to victory for Alexander.

Timeline
The longest ruling king was Artaxerxes II, who ruled from 404-358 BCE, a total of 45 years.

Did you know?

Darius I moves the capital of the Achaemenid Empire to Persepolis and oversees the construction of its terraces and palaces. Evidence suggests that it is only inhabited seasonally, serving more the function of a grand ceremonial complex rather than a large city.

The Persians confront the Athenians, some sources state the latter are outnumbered 2-1. But the Athenians surround the Persian centre and the opposing army flees.

Following Thermopylae, Xerxes captures and raises Athens. The city is torched, with sites such as the Temple of Athena and the older Parthenon destroyed.

Beginning with a massacre of the Royal family, the reign of Artaxerxes is marked by campaigns against Egypt and a renewed building policy at Persepolis.

The last king of the Achaemenid Empire, Darius III’s reign is marked by a crumbling empire governed by jealous and unreliable individuals controlling dissatisfied inhabitants.
Described by the Greek architects Satyros and Pythius, the Mausoleum at Halicarnassus was developed as a stately tomb for Mausolus, the satrap of Caria, a Persian Empire province that is now the city of Bodrum in Turkey. Mausolus had been a ruler over the region between 377 BCE and 353 BCE and he enjoyed the status of king. His achievements were many: he conquered swathes of Lycia, co-waged the Social War against Athens with the Rhodians, invaded Ionian cities and moved his capital from Mylasa to Halicarnassus. Indeed, his standing was such that wife Artemisia II, who also happened to be his sister and who succeeded him, commissioned a tomb that was so impressive that mausoleums forever became associated with his name.

As expected, the building was the work of hundreds of craftsmen who toiled on the statues and ornate decorations for many months and years. Some believe Mausolus originally planned the tomb himself and that his wife continued the work. The very best artists were brought in from across Greece, and such was the resulting grandeur it would go on to become one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World.

But it was not to last. Although the Mausoleum survived for some 16 centuries, natural and man-made disasters eventually saw it crumble. First earthquakes shook the pillars to the point that the roof came crashing down and, by 1404, all that was left was the rectangular base. In 1522, there were fears of a Turkish invasion, so the Knights of St John made use of the fallen stones to fortify their base at Bodrum.

There have been plans to revive the Mausoleum. Although a number of statues reside in the British Museum, there are artefacts in Bodrum Castle and some ancient parts of the building survive, including the tomb chambers, bits of precinct wall and marble column drums. But if any restoration work does go ahead, it’s likely to take many years.
Numerous statues
In between the columns were yet more statues, and it was such ornate attention to detail that ensured the Mausoleum became a noted landmark. Many of the statues around the tomb were also larger than life-size – their precise location can only be seen by referring to historical accounts.

The pyramid roof
The roof that was erected on top of the columns formed the final third of the Mausoleum building. It consisted of a set of 24 steps that created a pyramid shape, and the roof’s height was precisely that of the columns beneath. Some sources suggest there were yet more statues on the roof.

The base block
The Mausoleum was situated in the middle of the courtyard and there were three distinct sections. The largest was the rectangular base measuring 38 by 32 metres, as seen from the position of the surviving cornerstones on the site today. This section bore the entrance to the tomb and made up a third of the Mausoleum’s height.

Numerous statues
In between the columns were yet more statues, and it was such ornate attention to detail that ensured the Mausoleum became a noted landmark. Many of the statues around the tomb were also larger than life-size – their precise location can only be seen by referring to historical accounts.

Four-horsed chariot
At the very top of the Mausoleum, sitting on a platform at the head of the pyramidal roof, was a sculpture of a quadriga – a four-horsed chariot that, in this case, was being ridden by Mausolus and his widow Artemisia II. The sculpture had been designed by Pythius, the tomb’s co-architect who worked alongside Satyros in designing the Mausoleum’s overall look.

Funeral chamber
Located deep inside the Mausoleum was the funeral chamber. This was the resting place for Mausolus, who died in 353 BCE, as well as his wife (and sister) Artemisia II, who died in 351 BCE while the tomb was still being built. The funeral chamber was accessed via the western side of the tomb.

The pyramid roof
The roof that was erected on top of the columns formed the final third of the Mausoleum building. It consisted of a set of 24 steps that created a pyramid shape, and the roof’s height was precisely that of the columns beneath. Some sources suggest there were yet more statues on the roof.
PROTECTIVE HEADGEAR
According to the ancient Greek historian Herodotus, who was born in the First Persian Empire, the Immortals wore a loose felt cap called a tiara that, when pulled over the face, would have protected against dust, wind and dirt. With some sources suggesting a cloth headdress, there is uncertainty over the actual form the tiaras took, however.

SHEER FORCE
The Immortals were so-called because they would always be 10,000-strong. Should one die, become sick or injured, they would be replaced to maintain the number. The Immortals were also psychological fighters. Matching uniforms gave the impression they were unkillable, while dead and injured warriors were quickly removed from battle to maintain a sense of immortality.

VARIous WEAPONS
Aside from carrying a bow and arrow, the Immortal warriors would also have a large, heavily curved dagger and a Sagaris, with such an array of weapons making them flexible in battle. The dagger would have been worn at waist level on the right thigh while the Sagaris was a kind of light, easily swingable battle-axe with a flat blade and sharp point.

COLOURFUL TUNICS
Underneath the breastplate was a sleeved embroidered tunic decorated in diverse colours. There’s also a suggestion that the Immortals also wore an equally colourful outer robe that covered their armour, but some sources say it’s unlikely that such a garment would have been worn during combat.

SCALE ARMOUR
In order to protect their bodies, the Immortals wore scale armour breastplates that would have small bronze or iron plates in overlapping rows. Herodotus called them a “coat of mail looking like the scales of a fish”. They were worn with straps slung over the shoulders to keep them firmly in place.

WICKER SHIELD
An oval-shaped shield made of wood and wicker and covered in leather would have provided some protection against the enemy, although it wasn’t very effective against strong spear-thrusts. During the Immortals’ victory over the Egyptians at the Battle of Pelusium, cats are said to have been painted on the shields, mindful that Egyptians saw harming these animals as sacrilege.

SHORT SPEAR
The spear was the Immortals’ primary weapon and, while six feet in length, they were shorter than their Spartan enemies. At one end was a sharp bronze point. The other end would have a silver or gold counterbalance that, aside from helping to denote the warrior’s rank depending on material and shape, could also be used as a weapon.

A PERSIAN IMMORTAL WARRIOR
550 BCE – 330 BCE
**THE EARLY WWII FIGHTERS**

**A55100 SUPERMARINE SPITFIRE Mk.Ia**

The Spitfire gained immortality during the Battle of Britain in the summer of 1940. The main role was to intercept and destroy the Luftwaffe’s fighters whilst the Hurricanes of the RAF attacked the incoming bombers.

**A55101 CURTISS TOMAHAWK IIB**

The P40, in its various incarnations, served the United States Army Air Force throughout the Second World War fighting in Europe, across Asia and in the deserts of North Africa. The first model to see active service, the P40B proved to be an effective and tough low level fighter able to withstand heavy enemy fire and bring its pilot home safely.

**A55111 HAWKER HURRICANE Mk.I**

The Hurricane was developed as a replacement for the RA F’s pre-war bi-plane fighters such as the Hawker Fury and Gloster Gauntlet. Considered revolutionary when it was unveiled in 1935, by the start of WWII the earliest versions with fabric covered wings and two bladed propellers had fallen behind the performance of the best German fighters. Nevertheless, once fitted with 3-blade propellers these early Hurricanes were very successful during the Battle of Britain in 1940.

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**KINGS AND QUEENS OF PERSIA**

From the founder of an empire to an imposter king, meet the royal figures who played an important role in the Persian Empire

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**ARTEMISIA I OF CARIA**

A Greek queen of the city state of Halicarnassus, she fought on the side of Xerxes in the Greco-Persian war. During the battles of Artemisium and Salamis she personally commanded the five ships from her kingdom. In the latter battle she had advised Xerxes against attacking Salamis - despite disregarding this advice sought her counsel often. It was on her recommendation that Xerxes commanded Mardonius to conduct the war in Greece.

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**BARDYIA (SMERDIS)**

Persian Unknown – 522 BCE

Following the death of Cambyses II, his brother Bardyia took his place. However, numerous accounts (most notably that of Herodotus) claim that this was an imposter planted by the Magi. The Magi were priests in the Zoroastrianism religion, one of the key faiths during the Achaemenian era. During the reign of Cyrus the Great, their powers had been curtailed significantly and they sought to regain control through an imposter. Phaidyme, one of the members of the king’s harem, felt for the king’s ears when he slept and confirmed he had none.

---

**PARYSATIS**

Persian N/A-N/A

The illegitimate daughter of Artaxerxes I, Parysatis would marry her half brother Darius II, becoming a powerful figure. Maintaining a large network of spies, she had great influence in court. Her surgeon Ctesias wrote of how she identified and executed potential threats to the throne. Her favourite son was Cyrus the Younger. After his death, one source states that the king’s eunuch cut off his head. Upon hearing this, Parysatis had him flayed alive. Her bitterest rival was Strateria, the wife of King Artaxerxes II. After a long feud, Parysatis poisoned her rival and was banished, yet returned years later, maintaining much control.

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**DARIUS I**

Persian 550 BCE – 486 BCE

Ruling when the empire was at the height of its powers, Darius was met with a number of rebellions that he was able to crush, restoring order and his superiority. Although he is primarily remembered for the first invasion of Greece (which ultimately ended in failure) there were many other aspects to his rule. It was under Darius that Achaemenid coinage was introduced, a vast number of construction projects were implemented (in Persepolis, Egypt, Susa and Babylon, among others) and Amic became the official language of the empire.

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Artemisia I of Caria fought on the side of Xerxes in the Greco-Persian war.
XERXES PERSIAN 519 BCE – 465 BCE
Xerxes was the fifth King of the Achaemenid Empire. He is primarily remembered for his campaign against Greece, as well as his successful defeat of rebellions in both Egypt and Babylon. He's also known for his completion of several construction projects at Persepolis, including the Gate of All Nations and the Hall of a Hundred Columns. Xerxes was assassinated by Artabanus, the commander of the royal bodyguard who hoped to dethrone the Achaemenids and take control for himself. Some sources state it was General Megabyzus switching sides that saved the Achaemenian dynasty.

BEISSUS PERSIAN UNKNOWN – 329 BCE
A prominent Satrap, Bessus governed Bactria. Satraps were at this time incredibly powerful individuals and had proven their ability to stage rebellions in the past. Bessus commanded the left-wing of the Persian army at the Battle of Gaugamela and survived the conflict, fleeing alongside Darius III. However, Bessus and several others chained Darius to an ox cart before stabbing him multiple times. Proclaiming himself to be the new king, he was soon captured and executed by Alexander.

SISYGBAMBS PERSIAN UNKNOWN – 323 BCE
The mother of Darius III, Sisygambis would actually renounce her son and instead become devoted Persia's conqueror, Alexander the Great. Of her early life little is known. She may have possibly married her own brother, which some sources have stated was not uncommon at the time (though others have argued against this). At the Battle of Issus, Darius fled leaving his family to the mercy of Alexander. Following this, Alexander treated Darius's family with respect and Sisygambis became loyal to him.

ARTAXERXES I PERSIAN UNKNOWN – 424 BCE
Artaxerxes became king following the murder of Xerxes I, and it was he who slew Artabanus and his sons for their plot. Artaxerxes' reign is marked by an interesting change of policy with Greece. After their defeat at the Battle of Eurymedon, the war became a stalemate with neither side able to make significant progress. As a result, Artaxerxes chose to fund the Athenians' enemies within Greece, hoping to weaken their foe from the inside. This inevitably caused renewed fighting.

CYRUS THE GREAT IRANIAN C.598-600 BCE – 530 BCE
Founder of the Achaemenid Empire, a mythological account of his birth states his grandfather King Astyages prophesied he would one day be overthrown by his grandson and he ordered him slain. His advisor Harpagus delegated the task to a shepherd who, sparing the boy, raised him as his own. The deception discovered, Astyages boiled the son of Harpagus, tricking his father into eating him. After a three-year campaign, Cyrus overthrew Astyages. His reign is marked by the taking of the Lydian and Neo-Babylonian empires. One of the key surviving relics of his empire is the Cyrus Cylinder, an inscribed clay artefact currently housed in the British Museum.

DARIUS III PERSIAN N/A – C.330 BCE
Born Artashata, he adopted the name Darius as a dynastic name and was king during Alexander's invasion of the empire. Darius took the throne at 43, after vizier Bagoas had poisoned Artaxerxes III. Bagoas had hoped to install a leader he could control, however the new king quickly demonstrated an independent streak and when Bagoas attempted to eliminate him as well, Darius forced the vizier to drink the poison himself. Unfortunately, Darius's empire was weak and unstable.
DREMMABRIDGES

HOW MUCH DO THE ANCIENT GREEKS STILL INFLUENCE OUR PERSPECTIVES ON THE FIRST PERSIAN EMPIRE?

DR EMMA BRIDGES

“How much do the ancient Greeks still influence our perspectives on the First Persian Empire?”

Imagining Xerxes is out now from Bloomsbury

Imagining Xerxes is out now from Bloomsbury

"A fascinating and comprehensive survey of ancient attitudes to Xerxes." Tom Holland, The Spectator

Imagining Xerxes is out now from Bloomsbury

Emma Bridges is Public Engagement Fellow in Classics at the Institute of Classical Studies, London, working primarily in the field of ancient Greek literature. She is the author of Imagining Xerxes: Ancient Perspectives on a Persian King (Bloomsbury, 2015). You can find her on Twitter @emmabridges.
Q. HOW MUCH HAS THE WESTERN VIEW OF THE PERSIAN REGION AND THE FIRST PERSIAN EMPIRE IN PARTICULAR BEEN COLOURED BY ANCIENT GREEK HISTORICAL RECORDS?

A. A number of historical and social factors (among them some deeply problematic ideas about what constitutes ‘civilisation’ and about whose cultures are worthy of our attention) have conspired over the centuries to ensure that the cultural legacy of Greece has to a large extent shaped Western views of the ancient world. It seems that the Persian Wars - and the defeat of Persia - came to be seen as a defining moment in Greece's history very soon after Xerxes' retreat. This means that much of the literature and art produced in the fifth century BCE draws on Greek ideas about Persians. The ‘David and Goliath’ element of the story, with the relatively tiny Greek states uniting to defeat the mighty Persian empire, apparently against all the odds, is doubtless one reason why it continues to capture our imagination. The fact that comparatively little written evidence survives from ancient Persia - despite the region's rich archaeological record - also has a part to play here.

Q. DID GREEK DEPICTIONS OF XERXES BECOME INCREASINGLY LESS RELIABLE AS THEY GOT FURTHER AWAY FROM THE BATTLE OF THERMOPYLAE?

A. We might think that the earlier depictions of the king would be more reliable, since they were produced when the Persian invasion of Greece was still within living memory. However, even the very earliest Greek representation of Xerxes that we have - Aeschylus' tragic play Persians, produced in Athens in 472 BCE, just eight years after Xerxes' invasion of Greece - is a fictional text. We can perhaps learn more from this play about Athenian attitudes towards Persians in the aftermath of the war than we can about actual Persian practices, or about Xerxes' personality. Over time, representations of Xerxes became more one-dimensional. For example, in later centuries a few key elements of his story tend to be selected, with very little elaboration: Athenian rhetoricians of the fourth century BCE pick out brief episodes symbolising his imperialistic mission. Later still, Xerxes becomes a kind of shorthand for bad behaviour - the writers Suetonius and Cassius Dio, for example, suggest that the notorious Roman emperor Caligula's excesses were attempts to copy or even outdo Xerxes.

Q. WHAT ELEMENTS OF HIS REIGN DO YOU THINK DESERVE GREATER CREDIT OR INVESTIGATION?

A. When we focus only on the Greek sources, and therefore on his role in the Persian Wars, we see Xerxes from a very limited perspective. It's only in recent years that people have thought more about what the rich and fascinating heritage sites of ancient Persia/modern Iran can tell us in order to consider that there are alternatives to the Eurocentric view of his reign.

Q. WHAT DO WE HAVE BY WAY OF PERSIAN SOURCES TO ACT AS A COUNTERBALANCE TO THE GREEK DEPICTION OF XERXES?

A. The fifth-century BCE historian Herodotus gives us the most nuanced surviving representation of Xerxes - his Xerxes is a recognisably human figure whom the author uses to explore the fleeting nature of power and the changing fortunes of mortals. In much of Herodotus' narrative Xerxes is still very much the cruel enslaver, but in places we also catch glimpses of a different side to him. For example, there is one famous episode, in Herodotus' seventh book, where Xerxes takes a look at his vast military force before crossing the Hellespont from Asia into Europe. He begins to weep, and explains his tears by saying that the sight has caused him to reflect on the brevity of human life, since not one of all the men before him will be alive in 100 years' time. It's an almost philosophical moment and a reminder that even mighty kings are at the mercy of the vacillations of fortune.

Q. WHAT SYMPATHETIC PORTRAYALS OF XERXES BY GREEK AUTHORS?

A. The fifth-century BCE historian Herodotus gives us the most nuanced surviving representation of Xerxes - his Xerxes is a recognisably human figure whom the author uses to explore the fleeting nature of power and the changing fortunes of mortals. In much of Herodotus' narrative Xerxes is still very much the cruel enslaver, but in places we also catch glimpses of a different side to him. For example, there is one famous episode, in Herodotus' seventh book, where Xerxes takes a look at his vast military force before crossing the Hellespont from Asia into Europe. He begins to weep, and explains his tears by saying that the sight has caused him to reflect on the brevity of human life, since not one of all the men before him will be alive in 100 years' time. It's an almost philosophical moment and a reminder that even mighty kings are at the mercy of the vacillations of fortune.

Q. WHAT DID XERXES COME TO REPRESENT IN GREEK CULTURE?

A. There isn’t one single answer to this question, as every representation of him is influenced by a whole range of factors. Having said that, there are some key themes which emerge, and that would endure for centuries, and indeed (as we see in the way he’s represented in the 2006 film 300) millennia, after his invasion of Greece in 480 BCE. Most often he’s represented as a brutal despot at the head of a massive army, who whips his subordinates or beheads those who displease him; sometimes he’s used as a very simplistic image of the idea of the ‘barbarian’, as contrasted with Greek ‘civilisation’. Elsewhere, authors (like the historian Ctesias, writing in the fourth century BCE) focus on the decadence, luxury and supposed corruption of the Persian court.

Q. WERE THERE ALSO SOME MORE SYMPATHETIC PORTRAYALS OF XERXES BY GREEK AUTHORS?

A. Most of the sources we have from Persia are archaeological – inscriptions, buildings and sculptures created during Xerxes' reign, and found at important cultural sites like the royal palaces of Susa and Persepolis, in modern Iran. It's striking that, where Greek accounts are dominated by Xerxes' invasion of Greece, this expedition isn't mentioned at all in any of the surviving Persian material. The Persian sources present an image of a Xerxes who was building on the imperial legacy left by his father Darius – for example, father and son are represented as being almost identical in the visual sources, and some of Xerxes' inscriptions copy the exact phrasing of those of Darius. Here we find an image of Xerxes as a competent military strategist who rules by the divine will of Ahuramazda, the Persians' supreme god. This is a very different Xerxes from the version we find in many of the Greek literary texts.
**Places to Explore**

**PERSIAN RUINS**

Five breathtaking sites from one of the largest empires in history

1. **SUSA**
   **SHUSH, KHUZESTAN PROVINCE**
   This ancient city of the Achaemenid Empire, located in the region of the Zagros Mountains, was founded c.4200 BCE and is one of the oldest cities in the world, although there is also evidence that there was a community living there as far back as c.7000 BCE. The favourite capital of Darius I, it was eventually abandoned in 1218 and later excavated by French archaeologists at the end of the 19th century. Although many of the objects found at Susa are now housed at the Louvre in France or at the Archaeological Museum of Tehran, at the edge of the site there is a small archaeological museum that features ceramics, weapons, glazed reliefs and some remains of the Palace of Darius – the foundations of which can still be seen outside. It is also worth noting that Susa also claims to be the location of the Tomb of Daniel, the traditional burial place of the prophet Daniel.

   *The Susa Museum is open every day from 8am-1pm, and 5pm-7pm.*

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2. **TAXILA**
   **RAWALPINDI**
   The famous archaeological site of Taxila is one of the most visited in Pakistan and it features the ruins of four major cities, each one from a different time period. The Bhir Mound is one of the oldest surviving ruins found at Taxila and it was likely founded by the Achaemenians in the 6th century BCE after they conquered the region of Gandhara. The Bhir Mound is also associated with Alexander the Great's triumphant entry into Taxila in 326 BCE. The site was excavated during the late 19th and early 20th centuries, largely by Sir John Marshall, the British archaeologist who founded the Taxila Museum. The museum specialises in Gandharan art but also has an extensive coin collection on display, including ones from the Achaemenid Empire that were found at Bhir Mound. A unique location that was declared a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 1980, Taxila is worth visiting for its fascinating history.

   *The Taxila Museum is open every day from 9am-4pm.*
Persepolis, the ancient capital of the Achaemenid Empire, was founded by Darius I in 518 BCE. He built the city's remarkable terrace, which formed the foundation for successive kings, including Darius’ son Xerxes I and his grandson, Artaxerxes I, to erect their own palatial buildings, including the Apadana Palace and the Throne Hall. The capital was designed for ceremonial purposes and visitors can feast their eyes on an endless array of magnificent sights, including monumental stairways, colonnades, throne rooms, the tombs of Artaxerxes II and III and the well-preserved bas-reliefs of the Apadana, which remain one of the most important surviving examples of Achaemenid art. The city was eventually burned down by Alexander the Great in 330 BCE and it was only excavated in the 1930s, with the objects discovered now housed in the Persepolis Museum, located in the Queen's Palace. Persepolis has been a UNESCO World Heritage Site since 1979 and is an hour’s drive from the city of Shiraz, making it the perfect location for a day trip. There are plenty of private tour guides that can be hired to take you around the ruins. The site is one of the greatest ancient wonders in the world and a must-see for anyone wanting to learn more about the Achaemenid Empire. The ruins are open every day, 8am-6pm, but opening hours can vary throughout the year. Average adult ticket for foreign tourists is 200,000 Rials. persepolis.info/en/

Ephesus was originally a Greek colony before it was conquered by the Achaemenid Empire, along with the rest of Anatolia, during the reign of Cyrus the Great. The most important seaport for trade in the Mediterranean, Ephesus was also involved in the Greco-Persian Wars, which lasted between 499 BCE and 449 BCE, and it was eventually liberated by Alexander the Great in 334 BCE. Overall, Ephesus was ruled by an array of different empires including the Persians, the Byzantines and the Ottomans, making it a constant feature of the ancient world and a witness to ever-changing history. An extensive site, excavations of the ancient city began in 1869 and today it features astonishing architecture – largely of Greek and Roman origin - for visitors to see, including the Library of Celsus, the Great Theatre and the Gate of Mazeus and Mithridates. It was named a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 2015 and the city attracts around 3 million visitors a year, making it one of the top tourist attractions in Turkey. Ephesus is one of Turkey’s best-preserved cities. Open every day. 8am-7pm between April and October and 8am-5pm between November and March. Average adult ticket is €11.
Often described as the Rosetta Stone of Assyriology, the Behistun Inscription has been crucial to the decipherment of the cuneiform script, which had previously been lost, opening up a whole new world to scholars of antiquity. To add to its significance, the inscription is the only known monumental text to have been created by the Achaemenids that documents a specific historical event, and it is also the longest royal inscription to exist from the empire. No wonder it was declared a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 2006.

The inscription is carved into a limestone cliff on Mount Behistun in the Kermanshah province in Western Iran. It features a life-sized bas-relief of King Darius I, who commissioned it to document the re-establishment of the Achaemenid Empire after defeating revolts against his rule, and three versions of the same text written in three different cuneiform script languages. The inscription begins with an autobiography written by Darius, exploring his lineage, his divine right to rule, the territories he reigns over and, of course, his ultimate victory. He provides his own account of the events that led to his triumph, including how he crushed the rebellions that rose up following the deaths of Cyrus the Great and his son, Cambyses II, and he explains that as Cambyses’ cousin, he was the rightful and legitimate king. This particular part of the account is reflected in the bas-relief, as Darius stands in front of nine satraps (provincial governors) who revolted against him and have now been taken as his prisoners, with their hands and necks bound with rope, with his two servants stood behind him.

It is believed that the inscription was inspired by the Anubanini rock relief, an older relief that is located in Sarpol-e Zahab, close to Mount Behistun. Created by the Lullubi ruler Anubanini, the relief dates back to c.2300 BCE and follows a similar story to Darius’, with Anubanini depicted defeating his enemies. As well as the inscription, the area of Behistun is also home to a number of historical monuments that are of national importance for Iran.
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HENRY
THE MAKING OF THE WARRIOR KING

The future victor of Agincourt won his spurs as a young Prince of Wales while defending his father from enemies across Britain

Written by Tom Garner
Henry V is one of England’s most famous monarchs. Often presented as the epitome of medieval kingship, he’s best known for winning the Battle of Agincourt in 1415. One of the greatest ‘against the odds’ victories in military history, Henry led a bedraggled English force of 6,000-8,000 men against a French army many times their size - and won. The king’s success was attributed to his generalship as well as the skill of his soldiers, the majority of whom were longbowmen.

Agincourt became one of the most notable battles of the Hundred Years’ War and Henry was lionized, not just in his own lifetime but most notably by William Shakespeare. His 1599 play Henry V cast the king as “this star of England”, a heroic leader with the common touch who collectively identified himself with his men as “we band of brothers”.

This interpretation of Henry V has dominated popular conceptions of the king but should be regarded as a rousing, largely fictional characterisation. However, the truth about Henry’s military career is no less fascinating. Agincourt was a remarkable victory but if Henry’s previous fighting experiences are examined, it becomes apparent that his success in 1415 was not entirely by accident. The king was only in his late twenties when he won his defining battle but he had already spent much of his life serving a unique military apprenticeship. It is the story of a teenage prince who campaigned across the British Isles, fought battles and defended a fledgling dynasty to protect his future crown.

Monmouth, Ireland and usurpation
When Henry was born, there was little indication of the trajectory that his life would take. He was a great-grandson of Edward III through his father Henry, Earl of Derby (who was popularly known as Bolingbroke after his Lincolnshire birthplace) while his mother was Mary de Bohun, the daughter of the seventh earl of Hereford. Bolingbroke was a first cousin to the ruling King Richard II but he was not his heir. Henry’s birth was deemed so unimportant that the exact date is disputed. Some historians believe he was born in August 1387 while others claim it was earlier, in September 1386.

Nevertheless, Henry’s family traditions made his future life as a warrior inevitable. Edward III had achieved military successes in France during the early stages of the Hundred Years’ War, while Bolingbroke was an adventurous soldier who fought on crusade with the Teutonic Knights in 1390. Henry was born in Monmouth Castle, which was an important fortress on the Anglo-Welsh border. Monmouth had a formidable keep and the town was built around its defences, which included curtain walls and a fortified bridge. For someone whose early military service would be
“Henry owned a sword at the age of ten and could ride, swim and practice archery. This emphasis on martial skill was essential for an aspiring soldier.”

Henry V

Henry did belong to the House of Lancaster, one of the most powerful dynasties in England. At Henry’s birth it was headed by his grandfather John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster whose power was almost the equal of Richard II. Many doubted Lancaster’s loyalty to the crown but the duke was one of Richard’s most loyal supporters.

The eldest of six children, Henry grew up on his father’s estates and in the care of his maternal grandmother Joan, Countess of Hereford. He was trained in military affairs from an early age. His Lancastrian retainers were veterans of Bolingbroke’s Lithuanian crusade and battles from Edward III’s period of the Hundred Years’ War. Some would fight alongside Henry in France as older soldiers when he became king and the young boy would have been well aware of England’s longstanding claim to the French throne.

Henry owned a sword at the age of ten and could ride, swim and practice archery. This emphasis on martial skill was essential training for an aspiring soldier but Henry was also personally tutored by his uncle Henry Beaufort. A future cardinal, Beaufort made sure that Henry was not only literate but grounded in theology. As king, Henry was noted for his piety and had ambitions to lead a crusade so it’s likely that he developed his religious fervour under his uncle’s tutelage.

In 1398, Henry’s life changed when his father was exiled from England by Richard II. Bolingbroke (who was now Duke of Hereford) had accused the Duke of Norfolk of treason and Richard ordered that their dispute be settled at a tournament at Coventry. For Richard, the duel was an opportunity because both noblemen had been part of the ‘Lords Appellant’ faction who had sought to impeach some of his favourites ten years earlier. As an absolutist, but unstable and insecure ruler, Richard sought to reassert his power and when both men were in the lists he dramatically ordered the combat to stop.

Norfolk was exiled for life while Bolingbroke was banished for ten years. To ensure that he did not attempt to return prematurely, Richard held his son Henry as an honoured hostage at court. Relations soured further when John of Gaunt died in 1399, leading to his downfall.

Richard II in Ireland

The Emerald Isle was the scene of two forgotten expeditions led by the doomed king, with the latter becoming the future Henry V’s first military experience.

Richard II was the son of the Edward, the Black Prince who was one of the most distinguished warriors of the medieval period. However, Richard was largely uninterested in military affairs and was more famous for his sophisticated court. Nevertheless, he led two expeditions to Ireland, the first of which was quite successful.

As Lord of Ireland, Richard was technically the most powerful ruler on the island but English rule was limited to the area around Dublin known as ‘the Pale’. Irish chieftains and Anglo-Irish lords descended from Norman invaders lived independently and Richard decided to lead an expedition to reassert his authority.

Landing in October 1394 at the head of 7,000-8,000 men, Richard was the first English king to visit Ireland since King John in 1210. The scale of his army meant that he was able to secure the submissions of many leading Irish lords and chieftains, including the powerful Art MacMurrough, King of Leinster. He returned to England with his reputation enhanced, but not for long.

Many of the Irish lords reneged on their submission and began fighting among themselves. Richard’s nominated heir was also killed in battle at Kellistown in 1398. The king sailed again in 1399, albeit with a reduced force, to once more assert his authority – particularly over MacMurrough. It was on this expedition that Henry of Monmouth accompanied Richard but this time the campaign was a failure.

MacMurrough refused to fight in open battle and used scorched-earth tactics against the English. Supplies became scarce for Richard’s men and the king had to return from the Irish countryside to Dublin.

MacMurrough did not re-pledge his allegiance to the crown but Richard’s gravest mistake was being in Ireland at all in the wake of Bolingbroke’s invasion of England. In a sad irony, Richard’s eagerness to return to the scene of one of his greatest successes directly led to his downfall.
in February 1399. Bolingbroke was now Duke of Lancaster and the recipient of a vast inheritance. He asked Richard if he could return but the king seized his estates and extended his exile to life. Seemingly oblivious to the political crisis he had created, Richard made preparations for a campaign in Ireland. Irish chieftains, who had only been recently pacified in a previous campaign, had risen up in revolt while Roger Mortimer, 4th Earl of March had been killed in battle. March was Lord Lieutenant of Ireland and had also been the childless Richard’s nominated heir. The campaign was quickly underway and the king took most of the English nobility with him, including the young Henry.

Although Henry was taken to Ireland as a surety for his father’s good behaviour, Richard treated him well. During the campaign the boy was knighted by the king, but political storm clouds were brewing. Bolingbroke sailed from Boulogne with a small company and landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire to claim his inheritance. His passage through England was filled with Lancastrian castles that openly greeted him and his small force was boosted by the retinues of influential noblemen. This included the powerful earl of Northumberland whose son, Sir Henry ‘Hotspur’ Percy, was one of the greatest knights of his generation.

Royal authority soon drained away. When Richard heard of the invasion in Ireland he reputedly said to Bolingbroke’s son, “Henry, my boy, see what thy father hath done to me.” The boy apparently pleaded his father’s innocence but events were beyond his control. He was placed in Trim Castle, County Meath while Richard left for North Wales. The king was soon betrayed and captured at Conwy Castle before he was imprisoned by Bolingbroke in the Tower of London.

By now, Bolingbroke knew he wouldn’t survive if he simply claimed his Lancastrian inheritance from Richard. It’s not certain when he decided to claim the crown, and by strict hereditary principles Richard’s heir was now the seven-year-old Edmund Mortimer, 5th Earl of March. But March’s claim was ignored and on 30 September 1399 the English throne was officially vacated.

“BOY THOUGH HE WAS, HE DID NOT FALTER, BUT WITH COURAGE BEYOND HIS YEARS, DISREGARDING HIS WOUNDS, CHEERED ON HIS TROOPS TO VENGEANCE”

There are conflicting accounts over whether Richard abdicated with resignation or unwillingly but Bolingbroke’s claim to the throne was accepted by Parliament. Henry was recalled from Trim Castle and on 12 October he and his younger brothers were knighted by their father in London. The following day, Bolingbroke was crowned as Henry IV in Westminster Abbey.
While his eldest son carried the Sword of Justice. Immediately after the coronation, his father announced that Henry was to be created Prince of Wales, Duke of Cornwall, Lancaster, Aquitaine and the Earl of Chester.

The former Henry of Monmouth was invested with his titles the following month where he received a coronet, ring and rod as signs of his authority. It was a remarkable reversal of fortune for a boy whose father had been exiled only the year before. However, the fact remained that Henry IV had usurped an anointed king and this would create huge problems for his son over the next few years.

**A Rival Prince of Wales**

After Henry IV’s coronation, the former Richard II was taken from the Tower of London and imprisoned in the Lancastrian stronghold of Pontefract Castle in Yorkshire. His continued presence led to a plot for his restoration in January 1400, which was known as the Epiphany Rising. Several noblemen, including the earls of Huntingdon and Kent, planned to seize Henry IV and Prince Henry at Windsor before restoring Richard to the throne.

The rebels were betrayed and the new royal family escaped to London before the plotters were then hunted down and executed. Richard was also dead within a month in murky circumstances. The deposed king’s body was publicly displayed in London before it was obscurely buried at King’s Langley, Hertfordshire. It’s unknown what Prince Henry made of what had become of the man who had knighted him. However, it is perhaps telling that as soon as he ascended the throne in 1413 he had Richard reburied in a state funeral at Westminster Abbey.

Nevertheless, in the immediate circumstance Prince Henry was extremely preoccupied. The Epiphany Rising was just the beginning of almost a decade of warfare that saw English, Welsh and Scottish forces attempt to dethrone Henry IV in what was described as a “scrambling and unquiet time”.

Henry’s first campaign was in the Scottish borderlands where raiding had Prince Henry undergone a horrific but successful surgery after defeating Hotspur, which most likely left him facially disfigured.

**A 1910 depiction of the death of Hotspur. In reality, it was Prince Henry who suffered a severe head wound from an arrow, while the manner of Hotspur’s own death is disputed.**

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**The Shrewsbury Scar**

Prince Henry underwent a horrific but successful surgery after defeating Hotspur, which most likely left him facially disfigured.

Henry IV may have won the Battle of Shrewsbury but Prince Henry’s grave facial wound put his life in danger. He had been hit by an arrow that had penetrated just below the eye and to the side of the nose. The shaft was extracted but the arrowhead remained lodged “in the furthermost part of the bone of the skull to the depth of six inches”.

Such a wound required delicate surgery and Henry was taken to Kenilworth Castle in Warwickshire for treatment. Various doctors unsuccessfully tried to remove the arrowhead by “potions and other cures”. In the end, a London surgeon called John Bradmore performed the operation. Bradmore had been a convicted but pardoned coiner of false money, but he was also an innovative medic.

To extract the arrowhead, Bradmore devised a small pair of hollow tongs that had a screw mechanism running through the middle. Henry’s wound had to be enlarged before the tongs were inserted. The tool was infused with rose honey before it was placed into the socket of the arrowhead. In his treatise *Philomena*, Bradmore describes how “by moving it to and fro, little by little (with the help of God) I extracted the arrowhead”.

To prevent infection, Bradmore “cleaned the wound with a syringe of white wine and placed in new probes, made of wads of flax in a cleansing ointment”. Prepared from bread sops, barley, honey and turpentine oil these wads were reduced over 20 days before the wound was declared clean. Finally, “I regenerated the flesh with a dark ointment... And thus, thanks to God, he was perfectly cured.”

Bradmore made no mention of anaesthetics or stitches. Henry probably experienced agonising pain during his operation and was likely heavily scarred. No mention was ever made of a facial scar but his famous portrait is notable for being a rare side profile of an English monarch. This gives an implicit hint that Henry’s face was disfigured after Shrewsbury, although thanks to Bradmore he remarkably survived.
intensified following his father’s accession. Henry IV travelled north in August 1400 to force King Robert III to swear homage to him but the Scots refused to fight and remained in their fortresses. Shortly afterwards, a much more serious threat developed against English authority in Wales. On 16 September 1400, a previously obscure Welsh nobleman called Owain Glyndŵr proclaimed himself as Prince of Wales, which sparked a major revolt. Wales had been under English rule since the conquests of Edward I in the late 13th century. Powerful ‘Marcher Lords’ reinforced the king’s writ in the border counties but one of them - Lord Grey of Ruthin - had entered a minor land dispute with Glyndŵr that had escalated out of control. Glyndŵr was not a natural rebel because he had been educated in England and even fought for Richard II on several campaigns. Nevertheless, after a series of quarrels Grey petitioned Henry IV to declare Glyndŵr a traitor. This was the catalyst for Glyndŵr proclaiming himself as an independent Prince of Wales.

This action was not as outlandish as it appeared. Glyndŵr was descended from native Welsh royalty and he was the hereditary prince of Powys. His proclamation as Prince of Wales was revolutionary but he was more acceptable to many Welsh people than Henry. Although he was Welsh-born, Henry was an English prince and - most dammingly in the eyes of the rebels - the son of a usurper. Wales had been one of Richard II’s strongest areas of support and the emergence of a rival, native prince became an existential threat to Henry.

At first, the English did not take the threat from Glyndŵr seriously, with one chronicler writing, “The Welsh habit of revolt against the English is an old-standing madness.” Nevertheless, the rebellion spread across the principality and Henry, who was only 14 when it began, was in command of royal forces in Wales. He began attending council meetings at Westminster, which were also attended by Hotspur. A highly experienced soldier who had fought across Europe, Hotspur was most famous for his defence of the English border against the Scots. It is likely that he mentored Henry for a brief time while Glyndŵr strengthened his position.

Henry was initially based in Chester and when rebels took Conwy Castle in April 1401, the prince and Hotspur spent a month recapturing it. Henry IV then led a campaign into Wales that achieved nothing while Glyndŵr defeated and captured Hotspur’s brother-in-law Sir Edmund Mortimer in June 1402.

Henry IV did little to ransom Mortimer, who angered Hotspur, before leading yet another failed campaign into Wales. By this time, Prince Henry and Hotspur had already reported to the king that their troops were not being paid. Although Henry merely informed his father, Hotspur loudly complained before he resigned his Welsh command and returned to the north to defend the Anglo-Scottish border.

### “THESE SCORCHED-EARTH TACTICS WERE AN EARLY LESSON FOR HENRY, WHO USED SIMILAR STRATEGIES AGAINST THE FRENCH”

Prince Henry had lost his mentor but he had more military freedom. Despite this independence, Glyndŵr proved an elusive foe. During one march in the early summer of 1403, Henry’s force attempted to find Glyndŵr “where we thought we should have found him, if he had an inclination to fight” but the rival prince was not found. The English response to the Welsh guerrilla warfare was a scorched-earth policy, including in Merionethshire, where Henry coldly reported, “There we wasted a fair land and one well-inhabited.” These brutal tactics were an early campaigning lesson for Henry, who used similar strategies in his later French campaigns.

### “COURAGE BEYOND HIS YEARS”

While Henry was in Wales, civil war was brewing in England between Henry IV and the Percy family. The latter had won a decisive victory against the Scots at the Battle of Homildon Hill but the king demanded that their prisoners be handed over for ransom. Hotspur refused and repeated a claim that the Percies were funding Henry IV’s campaigns in both Scotland and Wales. He also reminded the king about paying Mortimer’s ransom but when this was not done, Mortimer defected to Glyndŵr.

Henry IV attempted to reconcile with the Percies but Hotspur raised his standard against him at Chester in July 1403. He accused the king of failing to ransom Mortimer or negotiate a truce with Glyndŵr, as well as charges of illegal taxes and corruption. Despite his decisive support during the usurpation, Hotspur withdrew his support of Henry IV as king and intended to seize the crown and restore it to Richard II’s designated heir, the young Earl of March.

Hotspur planned a conspiracy where his forces at Chester would be joined by two armies: one from the north commanded by his father and the other from the west led by...
William Shakespeare immortalised Henry's youth by depicting a fictional friendship with a disreputable knight. Sir John Falstaff is one of the most famous comic characters in English literature. A fat, vain, cowardly knight who is contemptuous of honourable virtues, Falstaff dominates the two Henry IV plays. He also acts as a "father ruffian" figure to the future Henry V, who is known in the plays as Prince Hal. Falstaff introduces Hal to a hedonistic lifestyle amongst the commoners of Eastcheap, London. Shakespeare's depiction popularised the notion that Henry had a riotous youth before he adopted the serious mantle of kingship. It is a dramatically rich tale – but the reality is quite different.

Falstaff was a fictional creation of Shakespeare's, although he was loosely drawn from two of Henry's contemporaries: Sir John Oldcastle and Sir John Fastolf. Oldcastle was a trusted supporter of Henry who was eventually executed for leading a revolt of heretical proto-Protestants known as Lollards. Meanwhile, Fastolf served as a soldier in Henry V's campaigns in Normandy but was later accused of cowardice after being defeated by Joan of Arc's forces. In truth, little links the two men to Falstaff beyond names and tenuous historical influences. The same is true for the interpretation of Hal.

Henry's military role in Wales did become limited after 1408 and he spent more time in London. Relations with his father Henry IV were bad and historical sources imply that he possibly lived beyond his means. Nevertheless, evidence for his wild behaviour is based on speculation. Published comments that fuelled the rumours only appeared after his death but they were drawn by people who knew him. One contemporary chronicler called Thomas Elmham probably had links with men who knew Henry and may have been one of his royal chaplains.

In his book Pseudo-Elmham, Elmham spoke of his memory of Prince Henry as "an assiduous pursuer of fun, devoted to organ instruments (a medieval double-entendre) which relaxed the rein on his modesty; although under the military service of Mars, he seethed youthfully with the flames of Venus too, and tended to be open to other novelties as befitted the age of his untamed youth".

This description does not fit with other contemporary works that adulated Henry but Elmham's possible connections to the king adds some credence and may reveal an intriguing kernel of truth that might lie behind the legendary tale.
Glyndŵr. They aimed to seize Prince Henry, who had recently returned to Shrewsbury Castle in Shropshire. Their scheme might have succeeded if Henry IV had not rushed to reach Shrewsbury a few hours before Hotspur. With the royal forces now united, battle was met against the rebels three miles north of Shrewsbury on 21 July 1403.

This engagement was unusual. Medieval battlefield clashes were relatively rare and it would see two English armies of deadly longbowmen fighting each other for the first time. Henry, who was still only 16, commanded the vanguard of his father’s left flank but it was his first experience of only two pitched battles in his life – the other being Agincourt.

The Battle of Shrewsbury was a particularly grim affair. Henry IV’s attempts to negotiate with Hotspur were rebuffed and 11,000-14,000 royal troops faced 5,000-10,000 rebels. When the king raised his sword, the battle began with huge volleys of arrows on both sides. Hotspur’s men included renowned Cheshire archers who had previously been Richard II’s elite troops. They pointedly wore the dead monarch’s white hart badge and caused so much damage among Henry IV’s men that – according to the chronicler Thomas Walsingham – arrows “fell like leaves that fall in the cold weather after frost”.

One victim of the archers’ accuracy was Prince Henry, who was “wounded in the face when hit by an arrow”. This detail is interesting because he would usually have had his face protected by a helmet. It appears that he lifted his visor, either for air or better vision, and was injured in the process. Nevertheless, Henry fought on, with Walsingham writing, “Boy though he was, he did not falter, but with courage beyond his years, disregarding his wounds, cheered on his troops to vengeance.”

Despite his wound and the rebel archers, the king’s army also fought hard and the prince’s force broke through the rebel flank. Henry IV himself was in considerable danger and deployed several decoys in his royal livery among his troops. Hotspur was determined to kill the king and reputedly killed several of these decoys before he was felled by an unknown soldier.

Hotspur’s death ended the battle but it was a hard-won success for Henry IV. The rebels had been close to winning and “so scattered was the field that when night fell, and the two armies separated, neither knew which had the victory, and they lay down in mixed heaps, weary and beaten and bleeding”. The king had kept his throne, but only just.

ABERYSTWYTH
Prince Henry recovered from his wound but its severity meant that he withdrew from campaigning until the end of the year. Nevertheless, he had proved himself in battle, which persuaded his father to give him more control to suppress the Welsh rebels. Despite the destruction of Hotspur, Glyndŵr gained more control of Wales and was at the height of his powers during 1404-05. The major castles of Harlech and Aberystwyth were captured and Glyndŵr assumed the trappings of royal independence. He held a Welsh parliament, was

\[ \text{“FOR A SOCIETY WHERE MARTIAL PROWESS WAS PRIZED, HENRY HAD NOT DISAPPOINTED”} \]
crowned as Prince of Wales and even gained French military support.

It took years to break the power of Glyndŵr but Prince Henry pacified Wales by changing the English strategy. The French departed and castles were gradually recaptured and garrisoned, which created a blockade that squeezed Glyndŵr’s resources. The prince also liberally issued pardons to rebels, which greatly depleted their numbers. By 1407 Glyndŵr was confined to the mountainous centre and west of Wales. Nevertheless, the fortresses of Harlech and Aberystwyth held out.

Henry himself travelled with a substantial force of ships and siege engines to invest Aberystwyth Castle in the summer of 1407.

Prince Henry’s artillery was ineffective against Aberystwyth’s walls and he was reduced to trying to starve the garrison into surrender. After that failed, Henry returned to England during the winter of 1407-08 while Glyndŵr snuck into the castle in his absence. This was a mistake on Henry’s part and when he returned to resume the siege in summer 1408, Glyndŵr had gone. The castle eventually surrendered but Harlech did not fall until 1409.

By now, Henry had been intermittently fighting in Wales for almost a decade, but his blockades and pardons eventually caused the revolt to peter out. Glyndŵr himself was never captured and disappeared sometime after 1412. Despite the often lacklustre English campaigning, the king’s heir was now undisputedly Prince of Wales.

**FORMATIVE TRAINING**

When Henry finally captured Aberystwyth he was only 21 but he had spent years defending his father’s throne. From 1408, his energies were diverted onto the political scene as he consolidated his position before he succeeded Henry IV as king in 1413. Nevertheless, his military apprenticeship in Ireland, Wales and at Shrewsbury was critical in forming Henry as a warrior king.

For a society where martial prowess was prized, Henry had not disappointed. He made mistakes, particularly at Aberystwyth, but he’d learned how to fight, develop tactics and manage armies. He’d been severely wounded, besieged castles, suffered the privations of campaigning and in Hotspur he had even fought a former mentor. Above all, he’d demonstrated leadership skills and shown great courage on the battlefield, which was vital for earning the respect of his men. These were all valuable experiences and served to turn Henry into a rounded general. It’s perhaps not surprising that by the time he faced the French at Agincourt, Henry V did not fight as a youthful king but as a battle-hardened veteran.
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Gertrude Stein Has Arrived
by Roy Morris Jr is available now from Johns Hopkins University Press
Having moved to Paris in 1903, Stein’s home became a Mecca for aspiring artists and intellectuals in the early 20th century, helping to guide some of the most influential innovators of the era.

Written by Roy Morris Jr.
In the decades bracketing World War I, Paris was the centre of the literary/artistic world, and the epicentre of that world was a two-storey apartment on the city's Left Bank near the Luxembourg Gardens. There, at 27 rue de Fleurus, American expatriate Gertrude Stein reigned supreme, assisted by her lifelong companion Alice Toklas. The two physically mismatched women made a formidable team. Loquacious, heavyset Stein held forth from her favoured chair beside the fireplace, while watchful, diminutive Toklas controlled access to Stein and made conversation at the opposite end of the room with the wives and girlfriends of the various artists and writers who flocked to the couple's Saturday night salons. For more than two decades, chez Stein was the place to be.

Part of the attraction, besides the good food and lively conversation, was the remarkable collection of Modernist paintings that Gertrude and her brother Leo had acquired during a decade of living together in Paris. Leo had arrived first, in 1902, intent on becoming a painter himself. Gertrude followed a year later after dropping out of Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine in Baltimore in the wake of an unrequited love affair with a beautiful young woman. On the short, winding rue de Fleurus the siblings shared a four-room apartment, two rooms above, two below, with a detached courtyard studio for Leo. They began scouring Paris for painters to champion.

With the help of an $8,000 windfall from their late father's estate they purchased a few small paintings by Paul Cézanne at art dealer Ambroise Vollard's gallery on the rue Laffitte. Then, at a show introducing the Fauves, the revolutionary "wild beasts" of French painting, they came across Henri Matisse's much-derided portrait of his wife, Amélie, Woman with a Hat. Leo considered the portrait "the nastiest smear of paint I have ever seen", but Gertrude convinced him to buy it for 500 francs, about £75. It was money well spent.

With those initial purchases, the siblings inserted themselves into the heart of the Paris art scene, quickly amassing one of the most impressive private collections in the city. Soon their walls were adorned with a plethora great French painters: Matisse, Cézanne, Degas, Gauguin, Manet, Renoir, Toulouse-Lautrec and Delacroix. Gertrude called it their "collection of worthies."

An up-and-coming young Spanish painter described by Gertrude as a "good-looking bootblack with big pools of eyes" attracted their particular attention. His name was Pablo Picasso. Leo had discovered the 24-year-old Picasso's work at a gallery on the rue Laffitte. He and Gertrude disagreed about Picasso's merits, if not his burning black eyes, which Leo called "extraordinary seeing... I used to say that when Picasso had looked at a drawing or a print, I was surprised that anything was left on the paper, so absorbing was his gaze". Leo was drawn to Picasso's painting of a nude, barely pubescent young girl holding a bouquet of red flowers. Gertrude, for her part, found the painting "rather appalling". She said the girl's feet reminded her of a monkey's. Gallery owner Clovis Sagot, a former circus clown, jokingly suggested that "if you do not like the legs and feet it is very easy to guillotine her and only take the head". Fortunately, Leo ignored the suggestion and took the intact painting home.

The Steins began hosting regular Saturday night dinners to show off their finds. All sorts of people came: artists, writers, composers, photographers, journalists, art dealers, collectors, students — even minor European royalty. "The Steins," said Ambroise Vollard, "were the most hospitable people in the world." Dinners were prepared by a succession of cooks, including Gertrude's favourite, a stolid, good-natured Norman named Helene. Leo led the after-dinner discussions, which could grow quite heated. He was a persuasive speaker - he called himself "an explainer" - and a gifted mimic. His imitation of famed dancer Isadora Duncan, a childhood neighbour in Oakland, California, was a particular showstopper. Gertrude at first was content to listen, tucking her legs under her chair while Leo paced about holding forth. She looked, someone said, like Buddha, hands folded quietly in her lap. In time, their roles would change.

Leo's initial enthusiasm for Picasso ebbed, to the point that the painter demanded to know, "Why don't you like my painting?" On another occasion, the Spaniard fired back at the overly critical Leo: "You have no right to judge. I'm an artist and you are not." Gertrude, who had grown fond of Picasso as both a person and an artist, defended his work. She found his painting similar to what she was trying to achieve with her writing; a piling on of unexpected effects to evoke complex emotions. Picasso showed his appreciation by painting Gertrude's portrait in 1906. The portrait, done mostly in browns, gave her mismatched eyes, an elongated nose and a severe slash of a mouth that scarcely resembled her rosebud-shaped lips. Leo deemed the painting "as a whole incoherent", but Gertrude loved it. "For me," she wrote, "it is I, and it is the only reproduction of me which is always, I." When visitors remarked to Picasso that Gertrude did not look much like her portrait of her, he simply shrugged and said, "She will."

Increasingly Gertrude and Leo quarrelled, and in April 1914 he moved out of their Paris apartment and decamped to Florence, Italy, with his mistress. He fired a parting shot at Gertrude and Picasso, saying they were "turning out the most Godalmighty rubbish that is to be found". He and Gertrude would never speak again. Gertrude wasn't bothered by Leo's departure. She was the true genius in the family, she said, not him. Besides, she had Leo's replacement already on hand in the person of tiny, indefatigable Toklas. Toklas was a native of San Francisco — her
The Court of Queen Gertrude

Some of the famous faces that passed through Stein's salon

NAME: Pablo Picasso  
DATES: 25 Oct 1881 – 8 April 1973  
PROFESSION: Artist, poet, playwright  
The Stein family were early supporters of Picasso's work and he painted a portrait of Gertrude in 1906 that would hang in her salon in Paris years later. He co-founded the Cubist movement and is one of the most famous painters of the 20th century.

NAME: Ernest Hemingway  
DATES: 21 July 1899 – 2 July 1961  
PROFESSION: Author, journalist  
Stein was Hemingway's mentor when he lived in Paris, helping the ambitious young author to meet other like-minded writers and artists. She was even made godmother to Hemingway's son Jack. However, they fell out in later years.

NAME: F Scott Fitzgerald  
DATES: 24 Sep 1896 – 21 Dec 1940  
PROFESSION: Author  
One of the great writers of the Lost Generation (a term Stein helped coin) of the 1920s, Fitzgerald is best known for his book The Great Gatsby, which Stein expressed her appreciation of in letters to Fitzgerald in 1925. He was also close friends with Hemingway.

NAME: Sinclair Lewis  
DATES: 7 Feb 1885 – 10 Jan 1951  
PROFESSION: Author, playwright  
The author of dozens of novels and short stories, his greatest claim to fame is as the first writer from the United States to be awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature, which he was handed in 1930 with special mention for his satire Babbitt.

NAME: Élisabeth de Gramont  
DATES: 23 April 1875 – 6 Dec 1954  
PROFESSION: Author  
A staunch supporter of socialism and feminism, De Gramont had grown up a wealthy aristocrat. As well as her several books written between 1930 and 1940, De Gramont is known for her ground-breaking ‘marriage contract’ with her partner, playwright Natalie Barney.

NAME: Henri Matisse  
DATES: 31 Dec 1869 – 3 Nov 1954  
PROFESSION: Artist  
Having been critically panned, it was the support of the Steins (who bought Woman with a Hat) that encouraged Matisse to push forward with his revolutionary style. Likewise, it was the Matisse works hanging in the salon that drew new visitors to the residence.
grandfather was an original Forty-Niner – and she had met Gertrude's younger brother Michael and his wife, Sarah, when they visited the city in 1906. On a courtesy call to the Steins' Paris home on September 8, 1907, her first day in Paris, Toklas met Gertrude. Bells went off inside her head. "Only three times in my life have I met a genius," Toklas would recall, "and each time a bell within me rang." (The other two geniuses she cited were Picasso and English philosopher Alfred North Whitehead.) At her first dinner party at the rue de Fleurus, Toklas met Picasso and Matisse. Picasso asked her, in all seriousness, if she thought he looked like Abraham Lincoln. She did not.

Toklas diligently assumed a variety of roles: hostess, housekeeper, gardener, cook, typist, editor, publisher, manager, accountant, nursemaid, travelling companion, debate partner and friend. It would be a lifelong commitment. With Leo gone, Gertrude focused increasingly on her writing. She had published the more or less conventional Three Stories in 1909 and a radically experimental book of poetry, Tender Buttons, five years later. She was currently working on a 1,000-page novel, The Making of Americans. With Toklas's help, Gertrude maintained a regular, if chaotic, writing schedule. She liked to write late at night, after the day's distractions had ended. She wrote by hand, four or five lines per page in a blue French student notebook. She would drop the pages on the floor, and Toklas would tiptoe in and retrieve them the next morning while Gertrude slept. When the author arose – never before noon – she would read over the typescript Alice had prepared of "the daily miracle". She was routinely surprised by what she had written the night before. For Toklas it was heavenly, "like living history - I hoped it would go on forever".

The outbreak of World War I interrupted both the Saturday night salons and the late-night writing sessions. Stein and Toklas volunteered as drivers for the American Fund for French Wounded, delivering supplies to military hospitals throughout western France. They were later decorated by the French government for their service. After the war they returned to Paris and resumed their dinners. Anglo-American writers, many recruited through fellow American Sylvia Beach's Left Bank bookstore, Shakespeare and Company, increasingly replaced French and Spanish painters at their salons. Among those who came to call were such famous or soon-to-be-famous authors as Ernest Hemingway, F Scott Fitzgerald, TS Eliot, Ezra Pound, Sherwood Anderson, Sinclair Lewis, William Carlos Williams, Djuna Barnes, Edith Sitwell and Ford Madox Ford.

Hemingway, the youngest of the group at 22, was just beginning his remarkable career when he and his wife, Hadley, first called on Stein and Toklas in the spring of 1922. He was European correspondent for the Toronto Star, but was eager to discuss fiction writing with Stein and look at her collection of paintings (he was particularly drawn to Cézanne's works). Stein liked the handsome Hemingway at once, but Toklas did not. She spent most of her time talking to Hadley, who like many of Stein's Baltimore friends had attended Bryn Mawr (Stein had attended Radcliffe).

"Without question, the writer Stein liked best was F Scott Fitzgerald"

Hemingway began dropping by regularly to see Stein. She thought he showed promise but deemed one of his early short stories inaccrochable, a painting term meaning that a work is too salacious to be displayed in public. She also dismissed his inevitable coming-of-age novel as pedestrian. "There is a great deal of description in this, and not particularly good description," she instructed. "Begin over again and concentrate." Her most salient piece of advice was that Hemingway quit working as a journalist and focus on his fiction writing. He listened closely to her advice.

Without question, the writer Stein liked best was Fitzgerald. Hemingway brought him to meet
Gertrude Stein

Them of the Lost Generation
What did these artists have in common?

**EXISTENTIALISM**
After WWI, young thinkers reexamined the philosophies and values that seemed to have lead to the conflict. This in turn lead to a great deal of self-examination and reflection on personal identity, as explored by writers like Hemingway.

**SURREALISM**
Explored mostly through art, a more fluid sense of self and lack of grounding in a common world view helped inspire artists to represent the absurdity of the world in new and creative ways, such as Picasso’s Cubism.

**ANTI-MATERIALISM**
While the Lost Generation was seen as somewhat nihilistic and driven by the pursuit of pleasure, it was also quite dismissive of wealth and material gain. Fitzgerald’s *The Great Gatsby* is a good example of this.

**DISILLUSIONMENT**

**LOST GENERATION**

**LOSS OF IDENTITY**

**UNCERTAINTY ABOUT FUTURE**

them in 1925. Stein and Toklas had read his career-making first novel, *This Side of Paradise*, when it appeared in 1920. Stein considered Fitzgerald “the only one of the younger writers who wrote naturally in sentences”, and she was pleased to receive an advance copy of his new book, *The Great Gatsby*. Despite Fitzgerald’s well-deserved reputation as a lush, he was on his best behaviour around Stein and Toklas. “There used to be a good deal of talk about his drinking,” Toklas said, “but he was always sober when he came to the house.”

Less well-liked were poets Eliot and Pound. Stein and the London-based Eliot, at least superficially, were working in the same literary vein. But if Eliot was a revolutionary poet on the page, in person he was still the starchy conventional banker he remained at the time. He disapproved of most people, English or American, including the decidedly unconventional Stein and Toklas. During his visit Eliot held on to his umbrella the whole time as though waiting to catch a bus. He and Stein jousted over her use of split infinitives; when Eliot asked on whose authority she justified such heresy, she responded, “Henry James.” Eliot never made a second visit.

Pound wore out his own welcome a few days later after he bumptiously fell over and broke the women’s favourite armchair, which had been upholstered in a Picasso-designed pattern. As Toklas would recall: “Gertrude Stein liked him but did not find him amusing. She said he was a village explainer, excellent if you were a village, but if you were not, not.” Hemingway, too, fell out of favour after he cruelly mocked Stein and their mutual friend Anderson in his first novel, *The Torrents of Spring*, a blatant parody of Anderson’s *Dark Laughter* intended to get Hemingway out of his contract with his publisher, Boni & Liveright. Stein was furious on Anderson’s behalf and Hemingway, perhaps embarrassed, stopped visiting. It would be years before they spoke again.

To escape the Paris heat and literary infighting, in 1928 Stein and Toklas rented a farmhouse in the southeastern French village of Bilignin. There, in the autumn of 1932, on a whim, Stein dashed off a fictionalised memoir allegedly written by Toklas, *The Autobiography of Alice B. Toklas*. The uncharacteristically lucid and accessible book was filled with reminiscences about their time in Paris. Most of the memories were warm ones, but Stein took Hemingway to task for his apostasy, calling him “yellow” and claiming that she and Anderson were both “a little proud and a little ashamed” of their former pupil, “who does it without understanding it”. Toklas wouldn’t go that far: Hemingway, she said, was “a rotten pupil”.

As the Twenties gave way to the Thirties, Stein and Toklas began spending more and more time at their country home. Toklas concentrated on the gardens and kitchen and Stein oversaw things from her second-floor balcony. People still came to see them, but now it was singly, not in a crowd. In the wake of the surprise runaway success of *The Autobiography of Alice B. Toklas*, they toured the United States for six months in 1934-35, enjoying a homecoming after 30 years abroad. Three years later they were forced to move out of their Paris apartment to make way for the landlord’s recently married son. They found a new apartment at 5 rue Christine, but it was not the same. The magic of 27 rue de Fleurus could not be recreated.

After weathering World War II in the French village of Culoz, Stein and Toklas returned to Paris in late 1945. They hoped to pay a return visit to the United States, but it was not to be. Stein died in Paris on July 27, 1946, following a failed operation for stomach cancer. Her final words, like much she said or wrote during her life, entered into legend. “What is the answer?” she murmured while going under anaesthesia. Getting no reply, she demanded, “In that case, what is the question?” Toklas, sitting at her bedside, made no response.

Today, no one can think of Paris in the Twenties without thinking of Stein, Toklas and their legendary salon at 27 rue de Fleurus. “Paris,” wrote Stein, “was where the 20th century was.” It was certainly where many of the most famous writers and artists of that century came to break bread, argue over style and exchange gossip with their voluble hostess and her ever-restrained companion. In a way, Toklas got her long-ago wish: entrenched in the sepia-timed legend of Paris and the Lost Generation, she and Stein show every sign of going on forever.
Driven by love, ambition, lust and convenience, discover some of the most destructive relationships in history.

With Valentine’s Day approaching this month, it might have been fitting to look at some of the greatest love stories of all time but, in the words of Shakespeare, the course of true love never did run smooth! There are many examples of torrid romances from the past, with couples like Elizabeth Taylor and Richard Burton, who loved each other deeply but at the same time brought out the worst in one another. On the other hand, there are also plenty of couples like Mary, Queen of Scots and Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley who, on paper, could have worked well together but in reality were a complete disaster. From partners who got married, divorced and married again, to those who ultimately just despised each other, take a look at our list of some of the most fascinating and tumultuous relationships in history.
To say that Frida Kahlo and Diego Rivera, two of the greatest artists in Mexico and indeed, the 20th century, had a complicated relationship is an understatement. The couple briefly met in 1922 when Kahlo was 15 and Rivera was 36, and three years later Kahlo was seriously injured in a bus accident that would leave her in lifelong pain. To pass the time during her recovery, she took up painting. In 1928, Kahlo reconnected with Rivera after she joined the Mexican Communist Party, and she showed him her art and he encouraged her talent. The pair quickly developed a romantic relationship and they married in 1929, with Kahlo’s parents describing them as ‘the Elephant and the Dove’ because of their differences in size. The artists truly loved each other but they were both unfaithful, leading to numerous jealous fights, but it was Rivera’s affair with his sister-in-law that left Kahlo deeply hurt and the couple divorced in 1939, only to remarry a year later. Their relationship can be seen through the artwork they produced, particularly Kahlo’s emotive self-portraits and her profound letters to Rivera. They remained married until Kahlo’s early death in 1954, which left Rivera devastated.
The love story of Napoleon and Joséphine is often celebrated for being passionate and romantic, but in reality it was also tumultuous and intense. They first met at a society ball thrown by Paul Barras, Joséphine’s lover and Napoleon’s mentor, in 1795. Napoleon was immediately enthralled with Joséphine, who was six years older than him, and they married in a civil ceremony in Paris in 1796. Just a couple of days later, Napoleon left on his first Italian campaign but he sent his bride numerous ardent and lovesick letters, which she frequently left unanswered while pursuing affairs and racking up debts at home. When he heard rumours of her unfaithfulness, Napoleon bitterly wrote to her: “I don’t love you; on the contrary, I detest you...” and began his own affair. Despite his words, Napoleon still loved Josephine but he could no longer trust her, although she eventually remained faithful to him. Ultimately, the biggest issue the couple faced was the fact that Joséphine had failed to give Napoleon the heir he needed and so he decided to divorce her in November 1809, news which caused her to collapse on the floor. Although their relationship ended, Napoleon still cared for Joséphine and he ensured that she was financially secure for the rest of her life. When she died in 1814, Napoleon locked himself away for two days and it is said that his last words on his deathbed were: “France, the army, head of the army... Joséphine.”

**MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS & HENRY STUART**

An explosive romance

**LENGTH OF RELATIONSHIP: TWO YEARS**

When Mary, Queen of Scots decided to marry her first cousin, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, in 1565, it seemed like a clever move. Like her, Darnley had his own claim to the English throne and their marriage bolstered Mary’s attempts to be officially named as her cousin Queen Elizabeth’s heir in England. The fact that he was tall and handsome was an added bonus. However, Darnley was an arrogant and violent man who demanded that he should be named King of Scots and Mary’s equal co-ruler, which angered both the queen and the Scottish nobles. The marriage quickly disintegrated and Darnley, incensed that he was not being given the power he demanded, took matters into his own hands. On 9 March 1566, he stormed into the queen’s private dining room with his supporters and stabbed her secretary and confidante, David Rizzo, to death in front of Mary, who was pregnant with Darnley’s baby. Almost a year later in February 1567, there was an explosion at Kirk O’Field house and Darnley’s body was found in the orchard, with no markings to show that the blast had killed him. It was quickly concluded that he had been murdered and many believed that Mary ordered his assassination.

**KING HENRY II OF ENGLAND & QUEEN ELEANOR OF AQUITAINE**

A clash of personalities

**LENGTH OF RELATIONSHIP: 37 YEARS**

She was the Duchess of Aquitaine in her own right, wealthy and powerful and a former queen of France, while he was the Count of Anjou and Duke of Normandy, and heir to the English throne. On the surface, it seemed that Eleanor and Henry had everything they needed to become a medieval power couple. Their sudden marriage in 1152, just eight weeks after Eleanor’s divorce from King Louis VII of France, was controversial and whether it was a quick decision - or premeditated - is still debated today. They had five sons and three daughters but, despite securing their dynasty, Eleanor and Henry had a tumultuous relationship and argued frequently, possibly because of his affairs. In 1168, they separated and Eleanor returned to Poitiers to govern her territory, until her younger sons arrived in 1173 after rebelling against their father. Accused of supporting them, Eleanor was placed under house arrest by her estranged husband, where she remained until her son, Richard, released her in 1189 after Henry’s death.
No list of car crash romances in history would be complete without mentioning King Henry VIII and his six wives. His first marriage, to Catherine of Aragon, lasted for almost 25 years and it was largely happy, until it became clear that she was not going to be able to provide Henry with a male heir. This lead to his all-consuming quest for an annulment, which triggered the English Reformation. A failure to produce a male heir sealed the downfall of Henry's second wife, Anne Boleyn, who was beheaded for adultery and witchcraft in 1536. Just 11 days later, Henry married his third wife, Jane Seymour, but she died less than 18 months later after giving the king the male heir he craved, Edward. Henry remained single for the next three years until he married his fourth bride, Anne of Cleves, but their unconsummated marriage was quickly annulled, with the king complaining about her looks and body odour. His fifth marriage to Catherine Howard, who was over three decades younger than him, lasted less than two years after she was found guilty of committing adultery and beheaded. Henry's last wife was Catherine Parr, whom he married in 1543. She was almost arrested for heresy in 1546 thanks to a plot by her enemies, but she managed to reconcile with the king, who died the following year.

HENRY VIII & HIS SIX WIVES

Divorced, beheaded, died, divorced, beheaded, survived

LENGTH OF RELATIONSHIP:

CATHERINE OF ARAGON: 24 YEARS
JANE SEYMOUR: ALMOST TWO YEARS
CATHERINE HOWARD: LESS THAN TWO YEARS
ANNE BOLEYN: 11 YEARS
ANNE OF CLEVES: SIX MONTHS
CATHERINE PARR: FOUR YEARS

DEATH OF THE FATHER OF THE BRIDE

Cleopatra was the daughter of King Philip II of Macedon and the younger sister of Alexander the Great. She was married to her maternal uncle Alexander of Molossis, but the event proved to be a disaster when her father was assassinated at the ceremony by his personal bodyguard, Pausanias of Orestis, resulting in the return of her brother and mother to Macedonia.

A PRETEXT FOR WAR

The Roman Emperor Caracalla had set his eyes on conquering the Parthian Empire, and to gain access to the region he reached out to King Artabanus V and asked to marry his daughter. The king eventually agreed and Caracalla and his men arrived for the wedding, but that night Caracalla ordered his Praetorian Guard to slaughter the Parthians present, who were defenceless because they had not brought any weapons to the celebration.

A DARK DAY IN HISTORY

Just a few days after the wedding of Henry III of Navarre, who was a Protestant, and Margaret of Valois, who was a Catholic, the St Bartholomew's Day Massacre took place. Many prominent Huguenots had arrived in Paris for the nuptials and they were killed in a preemptive attack by the Catholics over fears that their assassination attempt on Protestant Admiral Coligny would lead to a retaliation.

A RELATIONSHIP THAT TRIGGERED A REVOLUTION

This one is cheating a little, but the marriage of Tsar Nicholas II and Empress Alix arguably played a crucial role in triggering the Russian Revolution. Alix's grandmother, Queen Victoria, knew that her granddaughter suffered from poor health and that she was too withdrawn to handle being empress, writing to Alix's sister: “My blood runs cold when I think of her so young and most likely placed on that very unstable throne.” On top of this, Nicholas had been ill-prepared for his role and despite their love for one another, the royal couple proved to be disastrous at ruling, leading to the downfall of the Russian monarchy and the execution of their family.
Norman Mailer & Adele Morales

'Til death do us part?

LENGTH OF RELATIONSHIP: 11 YEARS

Author Norman Mailer and Adele Morales, a painter, met in 1951 and their relationship was tempestuous to say the least. Not only did they argue frequently but Morales usually had to intervene when Mailer fought with others, including bailing him out after an alcohol-fuelled encounter with the police. In November 1960, the couple threw a party at their Manhattan apartment, which was supposed to launch Mailer’s bid to become the mayor of New York City. Just as the party was winding down at 4am they got into a drunken argument, with Morales berating Mailer for his behaviour after he’d challenged several guests to a fight during the night. Mailer reacted by stabbing Morales twice using a pen knife with a two-and-half-inch blade, once in the chest and once in the back, barely missing her heart but puncturing her pericardium. Morales was left in a critical condition and Mailer was arrested for assault, although his wife initially claimed that she had fallen on glass. She later refused to press charges against him because she wanted to protect their children and Mailer was given a suspended sentence after pleading guilty to assault. Unsurprisingly, their marriage soon ended in divorce in 1962 but his career remained unaffected by the incident.

Lord Byron & Lady Caroline Lamb

A disaster in the making

LENGTH OF RELATIONSHIP: SIX MONTHS

Lord Byron and Lady Caroline Lamb, the wife of future Prime Minister Lord Melbourne, scandalised Georgian society with their public and passionate affair between March and August 1812. When she set her eyes on him for the first time, Caroline declared Byron was “mad, bad and dangerous to know”. Nonetheless, they soon became lovers. Their affair was intense and full of jealousy, leading to frequent arguments, and soon enough Byron ended it. Caroline’s husband took her to Ireland but when she returned to London in 1813 she tried to reignite the affair. In their first meeting since their break up, Byron rebuked Caroline and she responded by slashing her wrists. Her unstable behaviour continued and she made numerous attempts to visit Byron at his home, even writing ‘Remember Me!’ in one of his books. In response, Byron wrote the poem Remember Thee! Remember Thee! which included the line: ‘Remember thee! Ay, doubt it not. Thy husband too shall think of thee! By neither shalt thou be forgot, Thou false to him, thou fiend to me!’ Byron married Caroline’s cousin Annabella Milbanke in 1815 and in 1816 Caroline published her popular novel Glenarvon, a thinly veiled attack on Byron and other members of society.
One of the most iconic and tumultuous romances in Hollywood history, Elizabeth Taylor and Richard Burton fell in love while filming Cleopatra in 1962, where they played Cleopatra and Mark Antony, two historical figures who had their own famous love affair. At the time, both Taylor and Burton were married and their relationship caused a huge scandal, with the Vatican condemning their ‘erotic vagrancy’ and the producers of Cleopatra, Twentieth Century Fox, suing the couple for $50 million for breaching their contract, partly due to their conduct. After divorcing their partners, Taylor and Burton wed in 1964 and they went on to star in 11 films together while enjoying a lavish lifestyle. However, the couple were prone to frequent breaks ups, with rumours of infidelity on both sides, and they divorced after ten years of marriage – only to reconcile and marry again in Botswana in 1975 and then divorce a second time in 1976. They later reunited to star in the Broadway adaptation of Noel Coward’s Private Lives in 1983, and despite the negative reviews the show was consistently sold out due to the enormous public demand to see the former super-couple together again. The following year, Burton passed away from a brain haemorrhage and when she was told the tragic news, Taylor fainted. She was banned from attending Burton’s funeral by his widow and Taylor would later declare that “all the men after Richard were really just company”.

LENGTH OF RELATIONSHIP: 13 YEARS
OSCAR WILDE & LORD ALFRED DOUGLAS

A love that dare not speak its name

LENGTH OF RELATIONSHIP: FIVE YEARS

Wilde met Lord Alfred ‘Bosie’ Douglas, an Oxford undergraduate and poet, in 1891 and they quickly began a tempestuous affair. They wrote passionate love letters and it was during this time with Douglas that Wilde wrote his acclaimed tragedy, Salome. In 1895, Wilde was at the height of his success, with his play The Importance of Being Earnest being performed in London, when he decided to expose Douglas’ father, the Marquess of Queensberry, for libel for calling him a ‘sodomite’. Queensberry retaliated and had private investigators dig up evidence of Wilde’s homosexuality, which not only forced the author to drop his case but actually lead to his own arrest for ‘gross indecency’. Wilde was sentenced to two years hard labour in prison, his reputation was ruined and his beloved Douglas left him. While incarcerated, Wilde wrote a 50,000-word letter to Douglas recounting their relationship, which was later published as De Profundis. After his release, he lived abroad in exile and briefly reunited with Douglas, but they lacked the funds to support a life together. After Wilde’s death in 1900, Douglas married and had a son, eventually converting to Roman Catholicism and bitterly denouncing Wilde as “the greatest force of evil that has appeared in Europe during the last 350 years”. But he would soften his attitude towards his former lover in his final years.

NERO & CLAUDIA

There was no love lost between these two!

LENGTH OF RELATIONSHIP: 9 YEARS

Without a doubt one of the most notorious Roman emperors, Nero’s relationship with his first wife and step-sister, Claudia Octavia, was as disastrous as his reign. The couple’s marriage in 53 CE was arranged by Nero’s mother, Agrippina the Younger, who was also Octavia’s first cousin and stepmother. Octavia was the daughter of Emperor Claudius and when he died in 54 CE, Nero succeeded him on the throne. The following year, Octavia’s younger brother Britannicus died, most likely poisoned because he was a threat to Nero’s position as emperor. There was no love lost between Nero and Octavia and their marriage was very unhappy, with Nero engaging in an affair with Claudia Acte and later Poppaea Sabina, who eventually became pregnant. Seizing the opportunity, Nero divorced Octavia in 62 CE on the grounds that she was barren and just 12 days later, he married Poppaea. Octavia was subsequently exiled to Campania and then to the island of Pandateria, falsely accused of committing adultery with Anicetus, Nero’s old tutor. The people of Rome loved Octavia and they were outraged by the divorce, protesting against her treatment and demanding that she should be reinstated. Instead, Nero reacted by having Octavia murdered and her decapitated head was delivered to Poppaea.
WHO WERE THE ANTIPAPES?
In the Roman Catholic Church, ‘antipope’ is the term used for one who claims to be pope, but whose claim has been deemed invalid by the Church. Such antipopes met with varying levels of success, with some reigning, as alternative popes, for mere months while others reigned for a decade or more. Although it’s impossible to create a definitive list of antipopes, given that the records are often obscured or incomplete, and that there were instances where even contemporaries could not decide who was the legitimate pope, there were about 37 antipopes between 217 CE and 1449, when Felix V, considered the last antipope, stepped down. While the 8th and 9th centuries had no antipopes, in the 12th century alone there were 11.

There were many reasons that gave rise to an antipope’s election. Doctrinal disagreement saw the rise of the first antipope, Hippolytus of Rome. In 355 CE Pope Liberius was exiled by Emperor Constantius II for his orthodoxy, after refusing to condemn the orthodox patriarch, Athanasius of Alexandria. The emperor then installed the archdeacon Felix as Pope Felix II. The Roman population, however, refused to recognize the new ‘pope’ and Liberius was recalled, while Felix retired to Porto, near Rome, where he died in 365 CE.

Several antipopes arose from instances of double elections, when opposing factions of secular and clerical authority sought to advance the claims of their own candidate. In 418 CE Eulalius was elected by one such faction, supported by the imperial prefect and the Byzantine court. The rest of the clergy, however, supported Boniface I. Both men were consecrated as pope on the same day, 29 December 418 CE. In 419 CE Emperor Honorius chose to recognize the claims of Boniface I and Eulalius was sent to Campania, where he died in 423 CE. In both the 7th and 15th centuries, there were instances of three rival claimants to the papal throne. In 687...
Paschal manoeuvred to get himself elected as successor to Pope Conon, who died in September 687, but was opposed by Theodore. A compromise saw the election of a third candidate, Pope Sergius I. Theodore stepped aside, but Paschal refused and continued scheming for power. His plotting failed and he was eventually caught, condemned without trial, stripped of his offices and imprisoned in a monastery, where he died in 692.

Another instance where antipopes arose was from Pope Nicholas II's 1059 proclamation of a change in the procedures for electing popes that deprived the German emperors of their role on the elections and limited the influence of the Roman nobility. As a consequence, antipope Honorius II was elected in opposition to Alexander II, who eventually prevailed, having been recognized by the emperor.

The first antipope, St Hippolytus of Rome, was a leader of the Roman church in the early 200s CE. When Calixtus, who would give absolution for even the graveness of sins, such as adultery, was elected as successor to St Zephyrinus in 217 CE, Hippolytus withdrew from the Roman community in disgust. He led a dissident, conservative group who elected him pope in opposition to Calixtus. A reputed scholar, Hippolytus believed the church as a society should be composed exclusively of the just; he reigned in opposition to the three successive legitimate popes, Calixtus (217 CE - 222 CE), St Urban I (222 CE - 230 CE) and St Pontian (230 CE - 235 CE).

In 235 CE, during the persecution of the Christians by Emperor Maximinus, both Hippolytus and Pope Pontian were exiled to the mines of Sardinia, where the two were reconciled. Hippolytus exorted his own supporters to unite with Rome. He and Pontian resigned to allow the undisputed accession of their successor, St Anterus, thus ending the 18-year Schism. Hippolytus was martyred in 235 CE when he was torn apart by horses. His body, and that of Pontian, was returned to Rome for solemn burial in 236 CE, by Pope St Fabian.

A notable scholar, *Philosophumena* (part of the larger work, *Refutation of All Heresies*) is considered to be Hippolytus' most important work. The church order, known as the Apostolic Tradition, setting out the rites and liturgies in use in Rome in the 3rd century, is attributed to him.

The death of Pope Honorius II on 13 February 1130 gave rise to the simultaneous election of two popes, both consecrated on 23 February 1130. Pope Innocent II, now recognised as the legitimate pope, was elected by a minority of the college of cardinals. The majority of cardinals elected Pietro Pierleoni, a Cluniac monk who had been made a cardinal at Rome in 1116, Anacletus II. Supported by most Romans and, in particular, an influential Roman family, the Frangipani, Anacletus forced Innocent out of Rome.

Innocent fled to France, where he was supported by the renowned abbot, St Bernard of Clairvaux. While Anacletus gained the support of Roger II, after investing him as King of Sicily, Innocent was backed by Holy Roman Emperor Lothar II and Byzantine emperor John II Comnenus.

In order to decide who was legitimate pope, Louis VI (the Fat) of France convoked the Council of Etampes in 1130. The Council chose Innocent II, who had returned to Rome by early summer, with the support of Lothar II and St Bernard, and with a German army at their backs. Anacletus and his supporters, however, held onto their small enclave of Rome and when Lothar and his army withdrew, they again forced Innocent to flee Rome.

Having fled to Pisa, in 1134 Innocent held a council that excommunicated Anacletus; his leading supporter, Roger II of Sicily, was expelled from southern Italy by Lothar and Anacletus died in January 1138, his support having evaporated. The Second Lateran Council, called by Innocent II in 1139, ended the Schism, but Anacletus’ claims to the papacy are still supported by some today.

For almost 40 years, from 1378 to 1417, the Roman Catholic Church saw two and even three rival popes vying for superiority and legitimacy at the same time. Shortly after the papal residence was returned to Rome - after 70 years in Avignon, France - the archbishop of Bari was elected as Pope Urban VI on 8 April 1378. The hope was that an Italian pope would end the dominance of the French cardinals. Pope Urban was faced with a College of Cardinals who had been used to running things their own way while the pope was miles away in Avignon. He sought to put the papacy on the road to reform but soon enraged many in the College of Cardinals.

A group of French cardinals, fearing the College of Cardinals would turn against them, left Rome for Anagni, from where they declared Urban’s election “null because it was not made freely but
Who Were the Antipopes?

A quick guide to antipopes

Antipope Facts


There have been at least 37 antipopes spanning the 3rd century CE to the 15th century CE.

The first antipope was Hippolytus of Rome, who reigned 217 CE – 235 CE and was created a saint after his martyrdom.

Four antipopes are included in the *Annuario Pontificio*, the Vatican’s official list of popes.

The Great Western Schism of 1378 – 1417 saw two and, later, even three rival popes, with five popes and four antipopes challenging for legitimacy.

The last antipope was Amadeus VIII, Duke of Savoy, who took the name Felix V and was elected as rival pope to Eugene IV and reigned for 10 years, 1439 – 1449.

The end of the schism: Anacletus kneels to Pope Innocent II.
There are three instances where both pope and antipope are given recognition in the Roman Catholic Church’s *Annuario Pontificio*, its list of popes. And one where three reigns overlap!

**Two Official Popes?**

There are three instances where both pope and antipope are given recognition in the Roman Catholic Church’s *Annuario Pontificio*, its list of popes. And one where three reigns overlap!

† Vigilius was elected pope on 29 March 537, but his predecessor, Silverius, didn’t die until 11 November 537. Given that Silverius never resigned his office, Vigilius was, technically, an antipope, though both are treated as valid.

† Pope Martin I reigned from July 649 until his death in 655. He was arrested by Byzantine Emperor Constans II in 653 and exiled to Constantinople and then the Crimea, where he died in September 655. In order to avoid having a new pope imposed on them by the Byzantine emperor, the Romans elected Eugenius I on 10 August 654, despite the fact Martin I had not resigned office, nor been removed in any valid canonical procedure. Eugenius died in 657 and both he and Martin I are recognised as saints in the Roman Catholic Church.

† The years 963 to 965 confuse even the *Annuario Pontificio* to the extent that it can’t decide which of three popes were legitimate. As a result, all three are included, even though their reigns overlap. John XII had been pope since December 955 and reigned until his death on 14 May 964. Leo XIII was elected on 4 December 963, despite the fact John was still living and had not resigned his office. Benedict V was elected pope following John’s death in May 964, despite the fact Leo was still living and had not resigned. It follows, then, that John was a legitimate pope, but either Leo or Benedict wasn’t and was, therefore, an antipope. The *Annuario Pontificio* remains undecided.

† Pope Benedict IX was a polarising figure. Elected pope in 1032, he was forcibly removed from office in 1044 and replaced with Sylvester II. Benedict managed to regain control in March 1045, before being forced out for a second time – this time resigning – two months later. He was succeeded by Gregory VI and then Clement II before Benedict again engineered his return in November 1047. He was ousted for a third and final time in July 1048, charged with simony in 1049 and excommunicated. He died around 1056, Benedict and his three rivals are each recognised as legitimate popes.

under fear” (Britannica.com). At Frondi on 20 September 1378, these cardinals elected their own pope, a Frenchman, as Antipope Clement VII. Having failed to dislodge Urban from Rome, even with the help of French mercenaries, Clement took up residence in Naples before settling in Avignon on 20 June 1379, dividing the church and causing great confusion, which resulted in a loss of prestige for the papacy. By extension, Europe was also divided in its support of the two candidates. Clement VII soon had the support of France, Scotland, Savoy, Castile, Aragon and Navarre. While Urban VI had the backing of England, Bohemia, the Holy Roman Empire, Poland, Hungary, Flanders and northern and central Italy. Portugal initially supported Clement but switched its allegiance to Urban in 1381. The Schism exacerbated the antagonism between the French and English, possibly prolonging the Hundred Years’ War that they had been fighting – on and off – since 1337 and would not end until 1453.

During his 11-year papacy, Pope Urban sought to exact retribution on those who had opposed him or sought to assist Antipope Clement. Queen Joan I of Naples, who had housed Clement after his election, was excommunicated and her entire kingdom was placed under interdict in 1385. The
Who Were the Antipopes?

Bishop of Aquila, and other cardinals implicated in plots against Urban, were arrested and subsequently killed. It should come as no surprise, then, that Urban died in 1389, little mourned and amidst rumours of poisoning. Clement, on the other hand, died convinced of his legitimacy in 1394, with Charles V of France proclaiming him "the true shepherd of the Church" (Britannica.com).

Urban was succeeded in Rome by Pope Boniface IX, who sought to end the Schism by raising money to buy allies, his high-handed methods arousing hostility. Boniface reigned for 15 years, excommunicating Antipope Clement VII and Clement's successor, Antipope Benedict XIII. Pope Boniface was succeeded in 1404 by Innocent VII, whose election was not universally welcomed in Rome; King Ladislas of Naples helped to suppress the Roman revolutionaries and was given the title of 'defender' of the church by a grateful Innocent, who also promised not to negotiate with Benedict unless the latter recognised Ladislas' claims to Naples. Innocent's short two-year papacy was troubled, to say the least; he again faced rebellion in Rome after his own nephew murdered some of the leaders of the original insurrection. Innocent fled to Viterbo, but was welcomed back to Rome in March 1406 when the Romans submitted to him, realizing the pope was guiltless. He died before he could resolve the Schism and was succeeded as pope in Rome by Gregory XII.

Antipope Benedict XIII was a professor of canon law and had been made a cardinal before 1375. Having given his allegiance to Clement in 1378, he was elected as his successor in 1394, on the understanding that he would abdicate if that would help end the Schism. However, when the French princes did call for his abdication, besieging Avignon in 1398, he was deserted by 18 of the 23 cardinals who had supported him. But Benedict refused to step down. After escaping to Provence and with the support of Louis, Duc d'Orléans, Benedict rallied his cardinals and recovered the obedience of France.

In 1407 Benedict opened negotiations with Innocent's successor, Pope Gregory XII, but they failed to reach agreement. Benedict's position was weakened in 1408, when the French declared themselves neutral. But he still had the support of some states and refused to submit when the 1409 Council of Pisa, summoned by a rival college of cardinals, announced the deposition of both Gregory and Benedict. Gregory also protested. The Council of Pisa elected Alexander V in their stead, creating the situation where there were three popes in Europe, each with their own measure of support among church leaders, the Great Western Schism growing even wider.

Antipope Alexander V only reigned for 10 months before he died, possibly poisoned (some say by his successor, though there's no proof). He was succeeded by Antipope John XXIII on 25 May 1410. As a cardinal, John had supported Pope Gregory XII but deserted him in 1408. He was one of the leading figures of the Council of Pisa, which had hoped to end the Schism. John was supported by Louis II of Anjou, rival to Ladislas for the throne of Naples. Louis and John entered Rome in 1411 and Ladislas was defeated on 19 May but rallied his troops and forced Louis to withdraw. Antipope John XXIII then deserted Louis and allied with Ladislas on the understanding that Ladislas would repudiate Pope Gregory XII and support John. Ladislas reneged on this and sacked Rome. John fled to Florence where the Holy Roman Emperor, Sigismund, was working to end the Schism. Sigismund persuaded John to call the Council of Constance, which was also approved by Pope Gregory XII.

The Council of Constance opened on 5 November 1414, but national and political rivalries soon arose with the Italians wanting to retain John as pope, while the English, French and Germans called for all three claimants to the papal tiara to resign. On 2 March 1415 John agreed to abdicate if Gregory and Benedict would do the same. But over the night of 20/21 March John fled Constance, hoping his absence would deprive the council of its authority. In retaliation, the council pronounced itself supreme and ordered John's arrest. Antipope John XXIII was deposed on 29 May 1415. Pope Gregory resigned on 4 July 1415 and was given the title cardinal bishop of Porto by the council; he died in October 1417. Antipope Benedict XIII was denounced as a heretic and deposed, maintaining to the end of his life that he was the rightful pope.

The Council of Constance elected Pope Martin V on 11 November 1417, ending the 40-year Great Western Schism, which had seen five popes and four antipopes vying for supremacy. John XXIII was released from imprisonment in 1418 and Martin V made him cardinal-bishop of Tusculum in 1419, but he died a few months later. Martin's papacy was faced with the huge task of restoring church unity and the prestige of the Papal States.
The British-Indian Army of 1914-18 was unlike most armies of the First World War. It was hugely diverse, including Muslims, Hindus, Sikhs, Buddhists, Christians, Jews, Zoroastrians and pagans. The official language of the Indian Army was Hindustani, but such a mix of peoples inevitably led to a myriad of languages spoken by its soldiers, such as Hindi, Urdu, Punjabi, Pushtu, Dari, Bengali, Tamil, Burmese and Nepali. It reflected the Indian Empire of the time, which included not only India but also modern-day Pakistan, Bangladesh, Myanmar, Bhutan and Nepal.

Upon the outbreak of the First World War, the Indian Army comprised of 240,000 Indian troops, including combatants and non-combatants, and around 77,000 British. By the time the war ended, some 1.5 million Indians had served, of which over a million had been deployed overseas. Given its size it is remarkable the Indian Army was an entirely volunteer force, the Indian Government never introducing conscription (although it was briefly considered). Nevertheless, the number of men recruited in comparison to India’s population of over 315 million (according to the 1911 Indian Census) was in fact tiny.

Most Indian troops in 1914 were excited to serve abroad, lured by desire to visit vilayet (foreign lands). However, many believed they were going to serve in relative safety in other parts of the British Empire and would return home after a short time. In fact, they were about to be thrown into the bloody battles of the Western Front.

Baptism of Fire
Leading elements of Indian Expeditionary Force A, also referred to as the Indian Corps, made ready to depart India for France in August 1914. They arrived in Marseilles the following month to cries of ‘Vive les Hindoues’ and ‘Les Hindoues’ from jubilant French crowds. The Indian Corps initially consisted of British and Indian troops from the 3rd (Lahore) and the 7th (Meerut) Infantry Divisions, and the 9th (Secunderabad) Cavalry Brigade, as well as engineers and artillery. Thus, the Indian
Army was earmarked for overseas war service from the very start.

As had long been the tradition in the Indian Army, the senior officers of Indian regiments were British, while the VCOs (Viceroy’s Commissioned Officers), NCOs and men were Indian. At the beginning of the war, the Indian soldiers were hampered by lack of equipment and their unfamiliarity with it. For example, the Indian Corps lacked effective artillery guns and were only issued with new MK III Lee Enfield rifles and Vickers Machine guns upon arrival in France. The Indian troops also suffered from the cold European weather, which they were unaccustomed to.

Their baptism of fire on the Western Front came during the battles of La Bassée, Messines and Armentières in October 1914. It would be during this period that the first Victoria Cross was awarded to an Indian soldier. The recipient was a Muslim sepoy (soldier) called Khudadad Khan, a machine gunner in the 129th Baluchis. His citation, published in the London Gazette on 7 December 1914, starkly read: “On 31st October, 1914, at Hollebeke, Belgium, the British Officer in charge of the detachment having been wounded, and the other gun put out of action by a shell, Sepoy Khudadad, though himself wounded, remained working his gun until all the other five men of the gun detachment had been killed.”

Khudadad was not the only Indian soldier to receive the VC for acts of valour on the Western Front. In November, Naik (corporal) Darwan Singh Negi of the 39th Garhwal Rifles, although twice wounded, displayed “conspicuous bravery” during the Defence of Festubert. He received his VC on the same day as Khudadad. During one of the Indian Corps’ other notable battles, the Battle of Neuve Chapelle, Sepoy Gabar Singh Negi received a posthumous VC for leading a bayonet party in a German trench, during which he was killed. His widow proudly wore his VC until her own death in 1981. The first Nepalese Gurkha to receive the award was Sepoy Kulbir Thapa of the 3rd Gorkha Rifles for his actions during the bloody Battle of Loos.

DEFEAT AND VICTORY IN MESOPOTAMIA

The largest deployment of Indian troops outside India during the First World War was in Mesopotamia (modern-day Iraq). Known as Indian Expeditionary Force D, it was involved in several successful early actions against Ottoman forces. However, in late November 1915 the 6th (Poona) Division, under the command of General Charles Townshend, sustained heavy casualties at the Battle of Ctesiphon while advancing on Baghdad. Having failed to break through the Ottoman positions, Townshend decided to withdraw to Kut Al Amara, where he became besieged.

The Siege of Kut lasted from early December 1915 to late April 1916. During the siege, Townshend ordered several assaults against the Ottoman forces, but none succeeded. Essential supplies soon began to run out and deadly disease spread rapidly among the Indian ranks. So bad did the situation become that, on 29 April, Townshend surrendered his force of 13,300, including 7,200 Indian combatants and 3,250 non-combatants. It has been estimated that nearly 70% of Townshend’s soldiers died while in captivity.
due to mistreatment. One Austrian officer present described seeing an army of British and Indian skeletons being driven along by Turkish rifle butts like “a scene from Dante’s Inferno”.

Although Kut was a major defeat, a British-Indian force under General Frederick Stanley Maude retook the city in February 1917, then captured Baghdad the next month. Following the Battle of Sharqat in October 1918, Ottoman forces surrendered and agreed the Armistice of Mudros. The campaign in Mesopotamia had been largely fought by the Indian Army in challenging conditions while lacking supplies and adequate medical care. In all, British-Indian forces suffered over 85,000 killed, wounded and captured in Mesopotamia. Many more died of disease.

Indian troops also served in East Africa, Palestine and Gallipoli, and it’s estimated that around 74,000 died during the First World War, with a further 69,200 wounded. Eleven Victoria Crosses were awarded to Indian soldiers, a testament to their courage and determination in battle. Their contribution to the British war effort was considerable.

**HOPES FOR INDEPENDENCE**

When war broke out in 1914 there was a wave of enthusiastic loyalty from many educated Indians who were eager to support Britain. Such support came as a surprise to the British authorities, but it was not for love of Britain and its empire. Rather, it was partly due to anti-German propaganda the British had spread in the lead up to war and in part due to hopes India would be rewarded politically for its support. The elites of India also believed the presence of Indian troops fighting alongside their British counterparts would raise the status of Indians in the eyes of the British.

Even before the war ended, Indian nationalists were using India’s considerable support for Britain and the loss of so many Indian lives in their argument for self-rule. Unsurprisingly, Britain didn’t want to lose the jewel in the crown of its empire but the need for some form of recognition was clear. As such, the Government of India Act 1919 was passed, greatly increasing participation of Indians in governing the country. But for Indian nationalists this was simply not enough.

In the wake of the war, many Indian veterans returning to civilian life were no longer content being subordinate subjects of the British Empire. So it’s unsurprising that this large pool of ex-soldiers became a prime recruitment ground for the Indian National Congress, which had come under Mahatma Gandhi’s leadership in 1920. Demands for Indian Independence escalated and active measures such as Gandhi’s Non-Cooperation Movement attracted increasing support.

With another war looming in the 1930s, opposition to the loss of more Indian lives for little tangible return led to renewed efforts for independence in the form of the Quit India Movement. In 1947 India left the British Empire and became independent, albeit suffering a tragic partition in the process. Although dreams of independence long predate 1914, the origins of an independence movement that finally succeeded can be traced back to the First World War.
How director Sam Mendes crafted an electrifying, immersive cinematic experience for *1917* while maintaining exceptional detail and realism

Written by Martyn Conterio

Sam Mendes’ *1917* was inspired by his grandfather’s experiences of combat. At 5ft 4in, Lance Corporal Alfred H Mendes was tasked with running messages along the trenches. His height was crucial, as his head wouldn’t be exposed to German bullets.

At the film’s press conference, held at the Imperial War Museum in London on a gloomy winter’s day in early December 2019, attended by key cast and crew, the director explained how intense research at the museum, reading accounts by surviving soldiers, bridged the gap between the dramatic idea, his grandfather’s story and the brutal realities of the conflict.

“The story my grandfather told me was about him carrying a message,” the Oscar-winner said. “The problem with the war generally is it’s a war of paralysis. It was only when I started researching it, and I actually came here [to the Imperial War Museum] and I found this time in 1917, a very specific moment, spring of 1917, when the Germans retreated to the Hindenburg Line and suddenly this land they were fighting over opened up.”

George MacKay and Dean-Charles Chapman play messengers Lance Corporal Schofield and Lance Corporal Blake. Tasked by Colin Firth’s General Erinmore with stopping an attack by the 2nd Battalion against the Kaiser’s men, who mistakenly believe they’ve got the Hun on the run, the Bosch under the cosh, they must venture into scorched-earth battlefields, ruined villages and eerily abandoned farmland, avoiding the enemy at all costs, to save 1,600 British troops from certain death.

Like the filmmaker, the leading men did their homework at the Imperial War Museum, with MacKay especially struck by the expressionist paintings of Stanley Spencer, while Chapman was inspired by photographs of Tommies posing in trenches and even found his own great-grandfather mentioned in *The Western Front Diaries* (2008).

“He was in the cavalry and got shot and was wounded. He survived in No Man’s Land for four days,” said Chapman, who took specific details from period photos, such as flashy rings on fingers and even body posture, to bring Blake to authentic life. “The jewellery thing,” he elaborated, “back at the studio at Shepperton the costume department had a wall of photographs. In this photograph, there were three soldiers, all three completely different types of characters, and in particular, one of them was so relaxed, leaning against a truck, his jacket was undone, his shirt was half hanging off, and he had two rings, one on his middle finger.”

**“LIKE MENDES, THE LEADING MEN DID THEIR HOMEWORK AT THE IMPERIAL WAR MUSEUM”**
finger and one on his little finger. That relaxed mannerism, I nicked it for Blake.” Mark Strong, who appears in cameo as a kindly officer, was also inspired by the same photograph and asked the prop department to make him a walking stick like the one in the photo. “I noticed a lot of officers all had these walking sticks,” he said.

In order to portray a sense of looming and constant danger, Mendes decided to use extremely long takes, therefore crafting a flowing, continuous and palpably intense experience for the audience. Unable to film on locations in France, for obvious reasons, Salisbury Plain was transformed into a war zone. When legendary cinematographer Roger Deakins was presented with the script and discovered the idea to present the film as a single shot, he knew he had a challenge on his hands. “It must be a typo, a mistake!” Deakins joked to the crowd at the Imperial War Museum.

Twinned with the extraordinary production and costume design, the cinematography plays a major role in making 1917 an immersive recreation of the period. Four months of rehearsals took place, with every actor’s movement and camera movement mapped out to the nth degree. Getting it wrong meant they’d have to start from the beginning of a scene. “Getting across terrain, during intense or sensitive scenes, and making it all feel like one piece, using a lot of different techniques, the trick was to make it feel like one camera all the time,” Deakins said.

The art department also faced huge challenges presented by physiological differences between then and now. Producer Pippa Harris described how the Brodie helmets were a particular issue. “The Brodie helmets worn in the film, there are very few of those left, not enough to put them on a bunch of extras – the costume department had to make them. When they started looking at making them, people now are so much bigger [today], when they put the helmets on their heads, it was out of proportion. They had to scan the original helmets and then scale them up.”

1917 impresses with its dedication to replicating conditions, clothing and locations to the finest detail imaginable. It delivers a bravura, at times gruelling, couple of hours that pay tribute to those who fought the war for real.
THE WILD
As the 19th century came to a close and the 20th century dawned, a period of massive transition was being experienced in a number of key places around the world. In Europe, national interests were about to clash as old dynasties gave way to new. In America the Wild West era was coming to an end as civilisation reached the west coast. And in Asia, the power and influence of America, Europe and Japan was being felt like never before as a weakened and unstable China became the playground of competing imperial interests.

It’s into this melting pot of foreign influence and destabilised government that Paul French has headed in his new Audible series, Murders In Old China. With a background in writing about the history of Shanghai, Hong Kong and more in this period, he’s delved into 12 compelling cases between 1900 and 1950, making use of digital archives and original records to get a wider-lens view of the crimes and suspects. We spoke to him about how China became a hotbed of crime and corruption, inheriting the lawlessness once associated with the Wild West, and how the communist revolution brought it all to an end.

Writer of Audible series Murders In Old China
Paul French on how the early 20th century saw Shanghai, Hong Kong and other Chinese cities become a hotbed of crime and corruption

Murders In Old China by Paul French is available now exclusively via Audible
Could you tell us a little about China's place in the world in this period?

We're looking at a very different China. It's really that point around the start of the century and the Boxer Rebellion through to the collapse of the 267-year-old Qing Dynasty and the republican revolution of Dr Sun Yat-sen in 1911. Then I go through the crazy warlord period of the 1920s when China was essentially not under any one central government. The end of the 1920s brought Chiang Kai-shek and the nationalist party unifying China, and then almost immediately going into conflict with Japan, so by 1937 the invasion of China by Japan happens, which I would argue is kind of the start of the Second World War. China fights all the way to August 1945 and then goes straight into civil war between the communists and the nationalists. Then in 1949, Chiang Kai-shek departs for Taiwan, Mao Zedong says the Chinese people have stood up, which they did, but then sat down again very quickly and the next stage of Chinese history, the dark days of Maoism, is ushered in.

Shanghai and Hong Kong were treaty ports with a lot of foreign influence in them. Could you tell us a little about them?

Treaty ports were not colonies, but run by their own municipal councils where the British were very important, but other countries were as well and the justice system was very difficult. They were in China, but not of China, governed as independent places, almost semi-colonial.

The major cities are rapidly modernising in this period. How did that compare with the rest of the country?

You've got 400 million Chinese peasants who are living by candlelight and working in very backwards agriculture in great poverty. They're constantly victims of famine, flood, drought, civil war, arbitrary rule and no justice system. At the same time you've got places like Shanghai, which is the most modern city in Asia at the time. Whatever measure you want to use, it's the first city in Asia with lifts and central heating and telephone systems. It's a massive port with a big Western influence and a wealthy Westernised Chinese population. It has all the things that we associate with Shanghai like fast cars, jazz, neon lights, a film industry and contemporary writing. Modernism, if you like, comes to Shanghai.

Geography never changes, the reason that Shanghai was such a powerhouse was because it was at the head of the Yangtze River. Everything that comes out of China, whether it's food, people, opium, comes down the Yangtze. Everything that goes into China goes in through the Yangtze, so to control the head of the Yangtze means that geography is destiny. It was true in the 1930s for Shanghai and it's true again now for Shanghai.

You're looking at 12 murders in your series. Is there an overarching narrative or observation you're trying to impart?

Hopefully you're going to hear 12 exciting true crime stories, but in each one you're going to learn some aspect of Chinese history. One story is set in Hong Kong and is around the colonial police force. Another is set in Shanghai and shows the relations between foreigners and Chinese and the way that the justice system was structured against Chinese people from getting justice. Another one is about a murder in inner Mongolia, but is really about how that area up on the border with central Asia became an area of the 1930s great game between the Soviets, Nazis, Japanese, British and the Chinese themselves. It became known as the cockpit of Asia for all the ideologies of that period. Another story is about someone who got on the wrong side of the warlords and explains what they are. The last story is set during the civil war and the scramble for everyone to get out of China ahead of the communists and what it took to get out of the country and where they went. Each one tells you a bit about Chinese history and most of them will have something to do with foreign/Chinese relations, which may explain some of the sometimes uneasy relationships between China and the rest of the world today.

The lawlessness is reminiscent of the old Wild West. Is there a degree to which this region replaced that frontier as the United States solidified at the turn of the century?

It definitely happened, particularly under the government of Teddy Roosevelt, that actively encouraged migration, with the occupation of the Philippines, for instance - America's Asian empire. First of all, people on the west coast of America just needing to get away from the law and finding it easier to carry on going west, they start talking about it as the Far East. Obviously, it's easier than turning the other way, which just takes you back into America. Also, from San Francisco we see a large number of prostitutes and brothel madams (and I talk about this in the series as well) who in 1906 after the earthquake all get on boats and go to Shanghai, but also to Yokohama, which was a treaty port in Japan at the time. And they go to other places where there are uses for their services: Singapore, Hong Kong, but mostly to Shanghai. So after the earthquake they just move on. A number of people kept on moving and every time the law catches up with them they move on and on. They get on the first boat out of San Francisco or LA and they wind up in China.

Did the communist revolution bring this all to a swift end?

Nothing ever stops on day one in a revolution, people still carry on. Much of the argument of the communists was to crack down on what they saw as places like Shanghai that one, were foreign controlled, but two, were uber-capitalist in the sense that how you made your money was not of much interest to people as long as you weren't an outright crook. But I look at pictures of the early 1950s in Shanghai that show women still in that classic Shanghai look of the hair done up, makeup, the chongsam dress with a slit up the side. It took some time for it to go away. I think one could also argue that Shanghai is a special place because it's a port city and port cities, whether it's Liverpool, Marseilles, New York or wherever, are very special cities because they're transmission belts for ideas, cultures, peoples and everything. Shanghai has become this incredible economic machine as a port again, as a banking centre, as a manufacturing centre and a services centre. It’s a phenomenal world city again in pretty quick order.

"Shanghai is a massive city and it was the real Casablanca of that time"
 Officials investigate the car of Lieutenant Isao Oyama of the Japanese navy, who attempted to ram the gate of Hongqiao Airport in what’s known as the Oyama Incident.

A suspected communist agitator surrenders to the police.

Western influence in China could be seen through its fashions and cultural changes.

A British soldier larks about with a young Chinese boy in Shanghai, March 1927.
What happened to the Easter Islanders?

The Rapa Nui stone giants have witnessed the rise and fall of a remarkable civilisation. But what happened to those who carved them?

Approximately 2,300 miles off the coast of South America, in the middle of the Pacific Ocean, lies a tiny, solitary volcanic island measuring no more than 64 square miles. Yet despite its diminutive size, few places on Earth have been considered as enigmatic as Rapa Nui (Easter Island). Best known for the 950 stone statues known as moai, the island has had more than its fair share of controversies and debates. In its heyday, the population of Rapa Nui (known as the Rapanui), which may have numbered up to 15,000 people, advanced to astonishing feats of craftsmanship and technology, including a hieroglyphic script - rongorongo - that still hasn’t been fully deciphered. Then, somehow, the population shrank to a mere 111 in 1877 and now, 300 years after the first European contact, the island that was once covered in a lush palm forest is practically barren. So what happened to the Rapanui?

The Ecocide Hypothesis

To many, Rapa Nui is known as a parable for the dangers of the overexploitation of natural resources and a prime example for how human selfishness can wipe out an entire population: this lies at the core of the ‘ecocide’ - ecological suicide - model popularised by the American author Jared Diamond. In his book Collapse, Diamond argues that soon after the island was settled, the islanders used up all their natural resources, stripping the soil of its nutrients in the process and sparking fierce competition over food. Coupled with an obsession with carving moai, this resulted in intense internal warfare and cannibalism, eventually leading to the collapse of the civilisation. We have to learn from Rapa Nui, he says, or else the rest of the world will follow suit. But is this version true, or is there something even more sinister behind the collapse – and could an entire population have been unfairly blamed for its own demise?
To understand the history of the island, we have to go back to its origins. For many in the Western world, the story of Rapa Nui begins on Easter Sunday in 1722. The Dutch explorer Jacob Roggeveen, sent by the Dutch West India Company, was on an expedition to explore the unknown regions of the Pacific. On 5 April that year, the expedition unexpectedly spotted land: Roggeveen had stumbled upon the island known to its residents as Te Pito o Te Henua – the navel of the world – and named it Easter Island. We don’t actually know what the population of the island was at the time but most archaeologists agree on a figure of around 4,000-9,000 people, with natural resources capable of supporting a population of up to 15,000.

A key debate has been where the first settlers came from. The Norwegian explorer and anthropologist Thor Heyerdahl argued that the population must have originated in the Americas, based mainly on similarities between art found in both places but also a belief that a superior race must have been responsible for the advanced achievements of the island. Today, the consensus is that the island was settled from the west, i.e. from Polynesia, sometime around 1200 CE. This is based on a combination of archaeological discoveries, such as pottery styles, which clearly match westerly types, and linguistics, as the Rapa Nui language belongs to the Polynesian language family. Studies of ancient DNA extracted from skeletons buried on the island support this entirely as a recent study found no evidence of South American DNA on the island prior to European contact.

Getting to this remote location was no mean feat, with the nearest neighbour 1,300 miles away. Ancient voyagers would have sailed against the prevailing trade winds in small canoes, taking advantage of occasional shifts in currents and using a sophisticated and well-established system of navigation based on an extraordinary understanding of both the stars and signs carried by the winds and the oceans. Polynesian navigational skills were so advanced that even Captain Cook used a Tahitian navigator, Tupaia, on part of his journeys across the Pacific.

**STONE GIANTS**

Another question that has puzzled the island’s visitors and researchers alike is how the moai were moved such long distances. More than 950 statues remain on the island today: they weigh up to 82 tons, some towering nearly 40ft high. The statues were carved out of the volcanic rocks found in quarries at the island’s centre and transported several miles downhill across uneven terrain. Many were placed on ceremonial platforms called Ahu, with their backs to the sea, as the statues were religious monuments embodying the spirits of the population’s ancestors.

For a long time, the assumption was that the statues must have been moved by rolling them on logs or perhaps being pulled on sleds. None of this could happen if the island’s trees were all cut down, which is why the cessation of statue carving has been linked to the island’s deforestation. However, experiments have shown that the Rapanui used a far more ingenious method: they made the statues walk. It turns out that the stone giants were designed in such a way that they are very stable when rocked, much like...
What happened to the Easter Islanders?
a bowling pin. This means that you can fasten two ropes to the statue’s head and with two teams of people, pulling it from side to side, you can make it rock rhythmically and thereby ‘walk’ forwards. There is even a local word for this motion: neke-neke, which translates as ‘inch forward by moving the body with disabled legs’.

It’s not known when and why the carving of the statues ended. One theory, first put forward by Heyerdahl, is that a civil war in 1680 led to an abrupt termination of this ancient art, as rival clans toppled each other’s moai, leaving them fallen across the island, where they’re still lying today. Obsidian projectile points known as mataa found littered across the island were thought to be further evidence of this warfare. This story is problematic for a number of reasons but largely because it’s based on dubious sources: oral histories recorded by Christian missionaries in the late 19th century. These are unreliable because they report on events that allegedly took place two centuries before, with many of the newly converted Rapanui wanting to distance themselves from ancestors considered to be barbaric. We also know that most of the statues were still standing when Europeans arrived in the 18th century, and recently archaeologists have shown that the mataa were in fact used as domestic and ritual tools rather than weapons.

A MODEL OF SUSTAINABILITY?
The end to statue carving and the population collapse have been closely linked to the island’s deforestation and ecological changes. New research puts this too into question. We don’t know for certain what the landscape of the island looked like before the first human settlers arrived, but it’s clear that it was once covered by a forest.

WHAT WERE THE MOAI FOR?
Easter Island’s famous statues were more than decoration

HONoured Ancestors
The moai (meaning statue) are believed to have represented honoured or deified ancestors of the Rapanui. They began to be made around 1000 CE and production of them slowed down in the late 17th century. Over 900 statues were built over those years, although many were toppled or lost.

Most of the moai were erected to face into the island, their backs to the ocean. This is believed to be so that these honoured ancestors could watch over the people and protect them. The exception are the seven Ahu Akivi that face out to sea to help guide travellers to the island.

Design Choices
The heads on the moai are typically about a third of the size of the sculpture as a whole, with prominent brows and strong jawlines. The empty eye sockets would actually have been filled with coral eyes. Some later moai were also given a topknot, called a pukao, made of red scoria which represented a chieftain.

Lost Detail
The original look of the moai has been lost for many reasons. It’s believed many were painted, perhaps red and white, but the paint has eroded or been washed off. Designs were also carved into the backs of the moai, similar to the tradition of tattoos on the island, but the detail was lost over time.

“GETTING TO THIS REMOTE LOCATION WAS NO MEAN FEAT, WITH THE NEAREST NEIGHBOUR 1,300 MILES AWAY”
of palm trees. Archaeologists have found ancient pollen grains in the island's crater lakes that show such trees were once abundant. The logical assumption was that the trees were cut down by humans, but researchers have found another culprit: the Polynesian rat. When the first settlers arrived, they brought with them rats (either unwittingly as stowaways or deliberately as food), and across the island ancient palm nut shells have been discovered with distinct tooth marks. It turns out that these nuts were a popular food among rodents. As palm trees are exceptionally slow growers, this had a serious effect on the forest's ability to regenerate. So while trees were certainly cut down by humans, it now seems that a combination of factors led to their disappearance. Nevertheless, the barren and infertile landscape that visitors encounter today was actually created much more recently: intense sheep and cattle farming in the 19th century resulted in the extinction of many native species and extensive erosion, with disastrous effects on the ecosystem.

In the past few years, new evidence has come to light that casts a different perspective on the island's past population and its achievements. There is increasing evidence that the Rapanui used farming techniques especially adapted to a challenging environment: by using special planting enclosures known as manavai and fertilising soils with kitchen waste and chicken and seabird manure, they could ensure an adequate food supply, supplemented by fish from the Pacific. New evidence even shows that the soils around the statue quarries were exceptionally fertile, meaning that the 400 or so statues thought to have been abandoned there may have marked out areas particularly suitable for farming.

The evidence coming from new research tells of a population that was extraordinarily well adapted to a challenging environment. So if an ecological catastrophe wasn't to blame, what really caused the civilisation's decline?

**STOLEN FRIEND**

In a gallery on the ground floor of the British Museum, a solitary figure watches silently as visitors take in his chiselled granite features and stern but benevolent gaze. His name is Hoa Hakananai’a, meaning 'Lost or stolen friend'. He is one of several taken from the island in the 19th century, and now the islanders want him back.

Before 1862, more than 50 European vessels visited the island. Unfortunately, most of these visits were far from friendly. The Rapanui were seen as sources of labour and even worse, women were raped and taken advantage of by sailors. By the 1830s, sexually-transmitted diseases were endemic on the island and there were violent conflicts between natives and visitors. But worse was still to come. Between December 1862 and March 1863, up to 1,400 Rapanui were captured and sold by Peruvian and Spanish slave-raiders. Most died soon after. This didn't go unnoticed, however, and an international outcry led to Peru repatriating 100 or so slaves back to the island. But they brought smallpox with them, which further decimated a population already brought to its knees. It was at this point that the civilisation of Rapa Nui really collapsed, as famine set in and civil war erupted: the old social order had been disrupted as most of the hereditary tribal and community leaders had been deported or killed. When Chile annexed the island in 1888, the few surviving Rapanui were confined to the enclosed town of Hanga Roa. It wasn't until the middle of the 20th century that the island could begin its slow recovery. What happened to the Rapanui was never a mystery - the question is how we were able to forget.
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Between 10.20am and 10.25am on Thursday 4 June 1942, Japan lost the Second World War. It took another three brutal years for them to concede, but those five minutes of intense activity made defeat inevitable.

Japan’s war in the Pacific had begun with almost incomprehensible speed and success. On 7 December 1941, they launched strikes and landings all across the Central and Western Pacific. Due to their war in China few land forces were available, but the Imperial Japanese Navy (IJN) was a tremendous force multiplier. Fleets moved rapidly to support operations over vast areas, and the powerful and flexible strike capability of aircraft carriers was crucial to their success. By March 1942, one quarter of the Pacific Ocean had fallen to Japan. Although there was still fighting in New Guinea, all other land masses north of that island as far as Japan itself were secure.

With control of the Western Pacific and much of South East Asia, Japan now had two objectives. First, isolate Australia and New Zealand to prevent them forming bases for an Allied counter-offensive.
Second, to secure the open eastern flank. The first objective was foiled in early May 1942 at the Battle of the Coral Sea. A tactical draw - both sides had aircraft carrier destroyed and one badly damaged - it was a strategic loss for the Japanese, who were unable to complete their plans.

The second objective was to be attempted in June 1942. A strike eastwards was partly a response to the US bombing of Tokyo using carrier-launched B-25 Mitchell medium bombers in April, but mostly it was the need to maintain the strategic impetus. The initial attacks had knocked America back, but not knocked them out. Tiny Japan could never win a long war against America's tremendous industrial and manpower reserves. They planned to strike the outlying US-held islands of Midway (in the middle of the eastern Central Pacific) and the Aleutians in the north. With Midway captured, the IJN could invade Hawaii and the entire US western coastline would be open to Japanese attack. With such leverage, a peace with the US could be negotiated.

The US Navy (USN) knew that Japan needed to maintain its offensive. They had cracked the IJN communications codes and knew from intercepts that a new attack was planned consisting of a main strike against 'AF' and a diversion against 'AL'. While 'AL' was assumed to be the Aleutians, 'AF' was a mystery. That is, until Commander Joseph Rochefort, commander of the Navy Combat Intelligence Office on Hawaii, devised a plan. Suspecting 'AF' was Midway Island, he sent an uncoded message reporting that the island's water filtration plant had broken. Sure enough, within days an IJN message was intercepted reporting that 'AF is short of water'.

With the objective and timeline clear, Admiral William Nimitz, commander of the US Pacific Fleet, laid his plans. He had three aircraft carriers, all of them Yorktown-class able to carry 85-100 aircraft. USS Enterprise and USS Hornet formed the core of Task Force (TF) 16, under Rear Admiral Raymond Spruance. The USS Yorktown had been severely damaged at the Battle of the Coral Sea, but extensive and rapid repairs made her seaworthy just in time. She was the centre of TF 17 under Rear Admiral Frank Fletcher. Although lacking carrier command experience, Nimitz judged Fletcher to have the aptitude for the job and placed him in overall command, while Nimitz remained on Hawaii. The IJN fleet was commanded by Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto, who divided it into several forces. He commanded the Main Force of three battleships and a light aircraft carrier. His main offensive force, which strict radio silence prevented him from contacting, was the 1st Carrier Striking Force, carrying the 1st Air Fleet in four carriers under Vice Admiral Chuichi Nagumo. The Akagi, Kaga, Hiryu and Soryu were all of separate classes, and carried 60-70 aircraft each. The Midway Invasion Forces were separate, waiting for the two fighting fleets to clear the way for their landings.

While the USN had a good idea of Japanese plans, the IJN had almost no intelligence regarding the Americans. Instead, they suffered from severe ‘victory disease’. An ingrained belief in the destiny and superiority of Japan had been stoked by their successes, and there was an overwhelming certainty that victory was assured. Arrogance blinded them to any other possibility.
As the IJN forces sailed towards Midway from the north-west, the USN TFs 16 and 17 had rendezvoused 200 miles to the north-east of the island. On 3 June 1942, a PBY Catalina flying boat from Midway spotted the IJN, and a force of nine Boeing B-17 Flying Fortresses from Midway was despatched. Bombing from high altitude, they failed to score any hits. After this ineffectual start, both sides readied themselves for the following dawn.

In the pre-dawn of 4 June 1942, the IJN prepared their aircraft: 36 Aichi D3A ‘Val’ dive bombers, 36 Nakajima B5N ‘Kate’ level bombers, and 36 Mitsubishi A6M ‘Zero’ fighters. Acknowledging that USN forces may be near, Nagumo’s least-experienced pilots were in this first wave to attack land targets, saving his best pilots for the second wave in case they faced the harder task of attacking ships at sea. After launching the first wave at 4.30am, further Zeros took off as a Combat Air Patrol (CAP) to protect the fleet. Only then were scouts launched to search for American ships, and even then too few to perform a comprehensive sweep.

At the same time, a US strike force had taken off from Midway: 16 Boeing B-17s and a number of Catalinas. These found the Japanese at 5.30am, and the rest of Midway’s aircraft were launched: Sixteen US Marine Corps (USMC) SBD Dauntlesses, 11 USMC SB2U Vindicators, and six TBD Avengers (in their first combat action) - all equipped as dive bombers - and four US Army B-26 Marauders were ordered to attack the IJN carriers, while 25 F2A Buffalos and F4F Wildcats were to defend Midway against the strike assumed to be inbound.

Those IJN aircraft hammered the islands. Fifteen of the defending fighters, mostly outdated Buffalos, were lost to just five attackers, but the airfield remained operational. As the Japanese withdrew they requested a follow-up strike to finish it off. This call arrived just as the B-26s and Avengers from Midway reached Nagumo’s carriers, all but three of the American attackers were shot down. Bouyed by this success, Nagumo decided to press his forces towards complete victory on Midway. He ordered his waiting second wave to re-arm for ground attack, replacing their torpedoes with bombs.

At 7.40am, a Japanese scout reported US ships, but not what type. Minutes later, more US aircraft were spotted (the IJN lacked ship-board radar, so early warning was purely visual) - Dauntlesses and B-17s followed by Vindicators, all from Midway. Again, the attackers were annihilated and failed to score a single hit. At 8.30am a clarification arrived from the IJN scout - they were tracking a US carrier.

Nagumo immediately ordered the aircraft waiting on his decks to re-arm back to anti-ship weapons and fast. The first wave was rapidly approaching and needed clear decks to land, while the CAP fighters also needed to land and refuel. The waiting strike aircraft were moved into the hangars below decks, and chaos reigned. The first strike wave was successfully recovered and the fleet turned to close the distance to the reported US carrier at 9.17am. At 9.20am, US aircraft were spotted. Fletcher’s dawn patrols had spotted the IJN carriers, and their strike forces had launched. They had planned to form a single coherent force, but after the Japanese spotter aircraft was detected Fletcher decided to despatch each unit as soon as they were launched. In the end, five separate groups were formed:

- 33 SBD Dauntless dive bombers, USS Enterprise (Lieutenant Commander Wade McClusky)
- 35 SBD Dauntlesses and ten F4F Wildcat fighters, USS Hornet (Lt Cdr Samuel Mitchell)
- 15 TBD Devastator torpedo bombers, USS Hornet (Lt Cdr John Waldron)

“Flying slowly at extremely low level, the whole squadron was picked off in turn by Japanese Zeros. Only a single US crewman survived”
The Yorktown wing launched 40 minutes behind the others, as they waited to recover scouts. All five formations set course towards the estimated position of the IJN carriers, but some became mingled in flight – the Enterprise’s Wildcats ended up escorting Hornet’s Devastators. The problem now became the Japanese course change. The strike wings were now heading towards empty ocean as Nagumo, instead of carrying on south, had turned north.

The first four waves arrived over the estimated position of the Japanese fleet to find nothing. Commander Stanhope Ring, the Commander Air Group (CAG) for Hornet’s aircraft, decided that Nagumo was further south. He led his Dauntlesses and Wildcats in that direction, before looping back towards Midway; his bombers would land desperately short on fuel, but his escorting Wildcats were forced to ditch in the sea.

The other waves swung north-west. Hornet’s TBDs made contact first, at 9.20am. Waldron led in his men at low level, being swooped on by the Zeros of the Japanese CAP. Flying slowly at extremely low level, the whole squadron was picked off in turn. Only a single crewman survived – Ensign George Gay who was rescued days later. At 9.55am the torpedo bombers from USS Enterprise arrived, but...
again proved easy pickings for the Zeros. Only two of 12 aircraft survived the attack. Neither force had scored any hits on the Japanese ships.

At 10.20am, the final two American formations arrived. Leslie's dive bombers arrived from the south east, while McClusky and the Yorktown's aircraft came from the south west. The Zeros of the CAP had been drawn down to low level by the torpedo bombers, and the arriving dive bombers were unopposed. Over the following five minutes, four bombs hit the Kaga's deck, and three each hit the Akagi and the Soryu. In just five minutes, three Japanese fleet carriers were reduced to flaming wrecks as the aircraft on deck, and the stacks of munitions from the repeated re-arming of the aircraft, exploded. The crews of the second wave, Japan's most experienced airmen, died in their cockpits. It would take the carriers, with their immensely tough hulls, hours to finally sink, but their end was inevitable.

The remaining Japanese forces were quick to respond. At 11am, 18 Kate dive bombers and six Zeroes, launched from Hiryu, the last remaining carrier. An hour later they arrived over the Yorktown just as the Americans were beginning to land. The returning aircraft were waved off, and the CAPs from TF16 and TF17 engaged. Despite the heavy defences, three Japanese bombs hit the first on the deck, the second went down a smoke stack and exploded in the engine room, and the last one penetrated the deck and exploded in the hangar below.

Extensive as the damage was, by 1.40pm the engines were running again. The IJN pilots believed the damage was critical and reported Yorktown as sunk. When another Japanese strike force - ten torpedo bombers with six Zeroes - arrived back over the Yorktown at 2.45pm, they assumed it was a different Yorktown-class carrier. Again, the bombers got through and two torpedoes struck the carrier. This time the ship had to be abandoned, although incredibly it was still afloat the following morning. Yorktown was eventually sunk by an IJN submarine.

As Yorktown burned, Hornet and Enterprise both launched further strikes, totalling 40 Dauntlesses. Hellcat casualties had been so heavy that no escort was possible. They found Hiryu at 6pm, and four US bombs tore into the deck. The Japanese 1st Air Fleet was no match for the American carriers. The Japanese 1st Air Fleet lost its last carrier.

The main battle was over, although the following day the American's harried the retreating Japanese forces. It was a stunning defeat for the IJN. Not only had they lost irreplaceable numbers of their most highly trained and experienced aircrew, they had lost four of their six fleet carriers. These ships were crucial as force-multipliers, and their rapid movement was the lynchpin of Japan's entire strategy. Without them, Japan lost the initiative and much of their offensive capability. Worse, these losses were never made good. Instead, America's immense industrial might came in to play, producing 18 fleet carriers and 99 lighter escort carriers by August 1945, against just 12 Japanese carriers of all types. In the inevitable war of attrition that followed, Japan was doomed to fail.
Five minutes that changed the world

Between 10.20am and 10.25am on 4 June 1942, just ten bombs broke the back of Japanese military power in the Pacific. It was a blow from which they never recovered.

Fateful decisions

At 9.20am, the different USN formations began arriving over the predicted location of the IJN fleet. The sea was empty. They could not confer with Fletcher due to strict radio silence. The formation leaders on the spot had to make their own decisions. Some chose incorrectly, others led their forces straight to the enemy. The outcome of the war turned on the judgement of relatively junior officers working purely on gut instinct.

First strike at Yorktown

At noon, Hiryu’s aircraft struck the USS Yorktown, doing severe damage. The crew began immediate damage control, and incredibly had the carrier back in action after just a few hours, although a second strike then crippled her. Even so, she did not sink immediately, and was taken under tow. The indefatigable Yorktown finally sank on the morning of 6 June after being hit by torpedoes from an IJN submarine.

Last gasp of the IJN

At just after 5pm on 4 June 1942, a USN strike force located the IJN carrier Hiryu. The only surviving carrier of the 1st Carrier Striking Force, and holding the last remaining pilots and aircraft of the 1st Air Fleet, within minutes she went the way of her sister ships. Left a burning hulk, like the other IJN carriers she would take many hours to sink, but her fate was nonetheless sealed.
ENTENTE FORCES WIN IN GALLIPOLI

A devastating loss for the Ottoman Empire and the Central Powers could mean an early victory for Britain, France and Russia.

What's the background to the Gallipoli campaign in 1914 and 1915?

Essentially what happens in 1914 is all military effort is committed by both sides to try and decide the war in Europe, but that stalemates towards the end of November, and the Turks join the war in early November 1914 on the side of the Central Powers. That in some ways distracts attention from the main theatre. Politicians looked outside for other strategic opportunities away from the Western Front, and they identify that they think Turkey is weak and vulnerable. The idea [for the Gallipoli campaign] is to connect the Western and Eastern allies, essentially to open up a sea route through the Dardanelles from the Mediterranean to Russia. So there's a clear strategic rationale behind the campaign. It's also rather rushed, it's driven by what Lord Kitchener at the time described as amateur strategists, politicians who come up with some bright ideas but don't really...
The fighting at Gallipoli soon descended into trench warfare. The Allied victory of Britain and France over the Ottoman Empire in Gallipoli means that the capture of Constantinople is now in sight. Many are turning their appreciation for this major breakthrough in the war towards First Lord of the Admiralty, Winston Churchill. His successful campaign in the Dardanelles helped to split Turkish forces at a crucial time. The young Churchill is now being touted as a future leader of the Conservative party.

CHURCHILL HAILED AS HERO AT HOME

The Allied victory of Britain and France over the Ottoman Empire in Gallipoli means that the capture of Constantinople is now in sight. Many are turning their appreciation for this major breakthrough in the war towards First Lord of the Admiralty, Winston Churchill. His successful campaign in the Dardanelles helped to split Turkish forces at a crucial time. The young Churchill is now being touted as a future leader of the Conservative party.
appreciate the practicalities of mounting military operations. Britain is seen as the driver of the campaign.

**How did the campaign begin?**
Over the winter of 1914, [the Allies] arrived by a complicated series of stages at a decision to mount a naval attack against the Dardanelles, believing that the Allied Anglo-based navy can force a passage up to Constantinople, which will topple the young Turk regime in the Ottoman Empire and lead to a relatively quick, bloodless victory in knocking Turkey quickly out of the war. It's not until after that naval operation is underway that they realise substantial troops are going to be required to make that campaign effective. The first idea is they'll need some troops to occupy Constantinople once the navy's got through, but when it's realised that the Turkish defence is strong, and the navy alone can't force a passage to the Dardanelles, they need an expeditionary force. The Mediterranean Expeditionary Force - a British, French coalition force - needs to actually land on the Gallipoli Peninsula to eliminate the defences, particularly artillery that's preventing the Allied ships advancing through the sea at Marmara up to Constantinople. That's the broad outline of the campaign.

**How did the battle play out?**
I think the Gallipoli Campaign was poorly managed. It was actually investigated after the war. Essentially what happens is that they mount this campaign by stages. They realise they're going to have to have an opposed landing on the Gallipoli Peninsula, which delays the first phase of the amphibious assault. It's not until 25 April [1915] that they actually manage to launch the amphibious operation against the Gallipoli Peninsula, by which time the Turkish defence is much better prepared than it would have been if they'd led the operation some weeks before. When the campaign stalemates into another trench-to-trench operation, then Kitchener has to send in piecemeal, small amounts of reinforcements [from India, New Zealand, and Australia in 1915]. Again it stalemates in the face of a consolidated Turkish defence, and they mount one final large operation in the middle of August to try and push forward at the Suvla Bay beachhead. But that makes no progress and thereafter they start to realise that the campaign is not going anywhere. But again, there's a series of stages before they finally do make the decision to evacuate towards the end of 1915. They learnt a lot from this experience about how better to plan, direct and organise military operations.

**What were the major outcomes of the campaign?**
The outcome for the Allies was a humiliation. They failed in their objective to get through to support the Russians. They had the embarrassment of having to evacuate their troops, and they needed to reinforce the defence of Egypt, which was now under threat from Turkish advances. In some ways, Britain was trying to run a colonial-style campaign, whereas this required more modern methods of military management and administration. The Turks got a national victory, whereas they weren't doing particularly well on other fronts, and they ended up doing well against the Russians in the Caucasus. But in some ways the real bonus in Turkey was that it removed the threat to Constantinople, the centre of the Ottoman Empire. The campaigns that the Allies were mounting against Turkey thereafter, although they were more effective in the second half of the war, in Palestine for example, and later again in Mesopotamia, they were a long way from the Turkish heartlands and in some ways it guaranteed Turkish security. It was really the clash of Bulgaria in 1918 that opened up a land route for the Allies to attack Constantinople again. That really convinced Turkey that they were losing the war and should seek an armistice with the Allies in September and October 1918.

**Is there a scenario where the Allies win the Battle of Gallipoli?**
If the naval attack had been effective in March [1915], that would have really changed the nature of the war. The expectation was if Allied ships appeared at Constantinople, the Turkish government would collapse and a peace party would come to power and take Turkey out of the war. That's possibly a naive expectation but if it had happened of course it would have really changed the complexion of the war in early 1915. It would have removed one of Germany's major allies, and it would have probably dissuaded Bulgaria from joining the war on the Central Powers' side in September [1915], which in some ways was the factor that compromised the Allied positions on the Gallipoli.
WHAT IF THE ALLIES WON AT GALLIPOLI?

Peninsula. It obliged Kitchener and others to take the decision to withdraw.

What would have happened if the Allies had won?
If the Turkish state had collapsed, I think you would have seen an attempt to incorporate large parts of Turkish territory into various European states and empires. One of the diplomatic agreements, before the campaign was launched, between Russia and her allies was that Russia at the end of the war would have control of Constantinople and the straits. This was something that Britain and France had opposed for the best part of a century, so there were some clear changes in geopolitical alignments. But what you’d also have seen was the breaking up of the rest of the Ottoman Empire into different colonial spheres of influence or formal colonies, roughly along the lines of what you would see in 1918.

What were the goals of the Allies at time of the Gallipoli campaign?
I think the mindset of 1915 was to break up the Turkish Empire and incorporate it into the European empires that had been growing throughout the 19th century. Things change by 1917, of course, when you get Woodrow Wilson in America coming into the war. And so the settlement you get in 1918 and 1919 is very much a watered-down version of perhaps the plan that was drawn up by the pragmatic diplomats of imperialist Europe in 1915. You get mandates in some of these areas and these nations, you get the Turks essentially fighting a war of national independence to sustain and develop what is now the modern Turkish secular state.

Would an Allied victory at Gallipoli have brought World War One to a close sooner?
Yes, I think it would. Simply [because] it would have altered the balance of power in the Balkans; it would have given the Allies freedom to use the large number of forces that were tied down in the Middle Eastern war more effectively in Europe either for landing in the Balkans, supporting Serbia, or having more forces to engage Germany on the Western Front. The German position would have been more difficult and potentially the war would have ended earlier, but there would still have been a long, hard war to fight against Germany, Austria, and Hungary before that outcome would be decided. So yes, victory at Gallipoli would make the Allies task easier. They’ll have two enemies to defeat rather than four, but it will still be a difficult task and the effort and the sacrifice would still characterize the First World War. It might have ended in 1917, which would have changed the geopolitical situation, certainly, if Russia hadn’t collapsed [and] if America hadn’t mobilized and joined the war. We would live in a very different world to the one we do today.

THE HORRORS OF GALLIPOLI

Many soldiers involved in the Allied campaign in Gallipoli considered it to be one of the worst fronts of the war, not so much because of the brutality of the fighting, but for the awful conditions that they had to live and fight under. Bodies left in no man’s land, lice infestations, dysentery outbreaks and more made day-to-day life on this front a constant nightmare, with the potential for disease being an ever-present worry. In these respects conditions in Turkey were not so different from those of the Western Front in Europe, but the added pressures of the heat and a lack of water made life even more uncomfortable. Maintaining your strength in such circumstances, not to mention general morale, would have been nearly impossible, which likely contributed to how Allied forces performed on this front.

A field surgeon attempts to work on an injured soldier in the Dardanelles, 1915

AMERICANS OFFER LIMITED AID

While some had hoped that the United States might enter the war in Europe to bring a swift end to the aggressions of the Central Powers, it appears Woodrow Wilson is content to sit on the sidelines now that victory for the Allies looks more and more likely. Congress has, however, approved an aid program to assist post-war reconstruction.

Australia and New Zealand remember the event every year on Anzac Day, 25 April

© Wellcome Collection
The fourth and last monarch of the Georgians, King George IV is remembered for his overindulgent and dissolute lifestyle. As Prince of Wales, he lived at Carlton House on London’s Pall Mall, where he racked up debts worth £400,000 (£31 million in today’s money) in the first ten years. George’s acrimonious marriage to Princess Caroline of Brunswick and his various infidelities also contributed to his poor reputation both during and after his lifetime. In 1811, he became the Prince Regent for his father, King George III, whose mental health was in decline, before succeeding him as king in 1820.

In a new exhibition at the Queen’s Gallery, Buckingham Palace, to mark the 200th anniversary of his ascent to the throne, George IV: Art & Spectacle proves that despite his terrible public image, he had a wide variety of intellectual interests. He acquired and commissioned some of the finest works of art in the royal collection and loved architecture, transforming Buckingham House into a Palace and building the iconic Royal Pavilion in Brighton. While his reputation was not undeserved, this exhibition shows there was more to King George IV than meets the eye.
REGAL SPLENDOUR
The king had a flamboyant coronation costing over £240,000 and he oversaw the design of his coronation robes, which can be seen in this portrait. The Imperial State Crown, which had been set with over 12,300 diamonds hired for the occasion, took pride of place on the day.

AN AVID READER
A first edition of Jane Austen’s Emma was sent to the Prince Regent by her publisher, after she was invited to visit his royal residence at Carlton House. George was a fan of Austen’s work and she was encouraged to dedicate Emma to him, even though she despised him.

FROM REGENT TO KING
This diamond diadem was designed by the jewellers Rundell Bridge & Rundell for the coronation and is set with 1,333 diamonds, including a four-carat pale yellow brilliant diamond. George wore it during the walking procession to Westminster Abbey.

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THROUGH HISTORY

SUMPTUOUS DINNER SERVICE
This silver-gilt tray was created by goldsmith Paul Storr for Rundell Bridge & Rundell and it weighs over 9kg. It was commissioned by George while he was still Prince of Wales as part of a 4,000-piece collection and is still used today for State Banquets.

THE FENCING MATCH
The king was a known lover of sport and he particularly enjoyed horse riding, cricket, boxing and fencing. This painting by Alexandre-Auguste Robineau depicts a celebrity fencing display between the Chevalier de Saint-Georges and the Chevalier d’Eon at Carlton House, watched by George and his guests.

THE ART OF DIPLOMACY
Many of the non-Western pieces in the king’s collection were received as diplomatic gifts, including this red and yellow feather cape, known as an ‘ahu ‘ula. It was given to George by King Kamehameha II and Queen Kamamalu of the Sandwich Islands (now Hawaii).
GEORGIAN SATIRE

Satirists targeted George for his heavy spending and extramarital affairs, but he bought many of the works that lightly poked fun at him. This one, titled The Great Joss and his Playthings, criticizes George for his exotic luxuries and his obsession with building and improving royal residences at great cost.

GILDED TREASURES

George had a collection of exceptional decorative works of silver, known as a Kunstkammer or ‘cabinet of curiosities’. The Nautilus cup was made by Nikolaus Schmidt and is mounted with silver-gilt figures of Jupiter and Neptune, four double-tailed mermaids and a hippocamp.
Who doesn’t like a roast chicken (besides vegetarians, of course)? A family classic, we all have our own way of cooking it, including Alice Toklas, the partner of American author Gertrude Stein. After moving to Paris in 1907 and meeting Stein, Toklas enjoyed collecting traditional French recipes and cooking them for artists and writers such as Henri Matisse and Ernest Hemingway. In 1954, eight years after Stein’s death, Toklas published The Alice B. Toklas Cookbook, which featured her recipes and personal recollections. It became one of the bestselling cookbooks of all time and featured this recipe for roast chicken or, as Toklas called it, Katie’s Capon.

A TWIST ON THE CLASSIC ROAST CHICKEN EUROPE, 20TH CENTURY

METHOD

01 Take the chicken and sprinkle it with a generous amount of salt. Cover and refrigerate until you’re ready to start cooking it. Remove the chicken from the fridge and bring it to room temperature first.

02 Preheat your oven to 200°C. Using a Dutch oven or an oven-proof skillet big enough for the chicken, warm the butter and olive oil together over medium heat. Brown the chicken breast-side down for five minutes then repeat on the other side.

03 Place your Dutch oven or skillet into the oven and roast the chicken uncovered for 45 minutes. Remove from the oven, pour the port over the chicken, baste it and then roast it for 10 minutes. Repeat this step with the orange juice: remove, pour, baste and then roast for 10 more minutes.

04 When the juices of the thigh run clear, the chicken is done. Remove it from the oven, cover with foil and leave it to rest while you make the sauce.

05 Remove as much fat from your Dutch oven or skillet as you can and then place it on the hob over medium heat. Add the cream and stir in the remaining juices left in your pan before adding half of the orange zest. Continue to stir for a few minutes while the sauce reduces.

06 Taste the sauce and add salt and pepper if you need to. Carve the chicken into slices, transfer to a platter and spoon over some of the sauce, transferring the rest to a gravy boat. Sprinkle the remaining orange zest over the chicken and serve with roast potatoes and your choice of vegetables.

Ingredients

- 1 medium roasting chicken
- 120ml ruby port
- 120ml orange juice
- 3 tbsp heavy cream
- 2 tbsp extra virgin olive oil
- 2 tbsp unsalted butter
- Zest of 1 orange
- Salt and pepper

Did you make it? Let us know!

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Everyone knows her as the goddess of love and beauty – she’s the timeless deity remembered for sex and lust. Venus and Aphrodite, whichever name you prefer to call her, has been celebrated and venerated for thousands of years, but why?

That’s something that renowned classicist, author and broadcaster Bettany Hughes aims to find out in Venus & Aphrodite.

You always know that you’re in safe hands with Hughes, and her latest book is no different. She charts the history of Aphrodite-Venus (as she refers to the deity when not talking about her in a Roman or Greek context) from the tumultuous, salty birth in the seas off Cyprus to modern-day remembrance and everything in between.

But there are a few twists along the way. Did you know that the famous Greco-Roman goddess was once a prehistoric deity? Or that the imagery of the patron of prostitutes was used in depictions of the Virgin Mary? Hughes covers this and so much more.

Hughes always makes sure to identify her sources both in the main copy and in footnotes, with a healthy select bibliography at the end of the book. Her references come from a whole host of places – archaeology, primary (or as primary as the Classical world can get) evidence, and more recent research and scholarship – which lend an authenticity to her conclusions.

Nonetheless, while so much information is packed into 256 pages (in the hardback version, at least), the writing isn’t heavy and dense. Hughes adopts a light-hearted yet informative tone and it makes for very pleasant reading. Perhaps best of all, she doesn’t get bogged down in her own personal experiences of researching like other popular historical writers today, instead letting her main character take centre stage.

Images of pottery, famous paintings and statues also pepper the pages, highlighting certain points with helpful captions. These are great in understanding how depictions of Aphrodite-Venus changed over time, from ancient Mesopotamia and the Classical world to the 19th-century satirical magazine Punch and the ‘Armed Venus’ that adorned a plane in the 494th Bombardment Group in World War II.

This book has certainly been a long time in the making – Hughes has said herself that the idea for it came to her 20 or so years ago – but it has been well worth the wait. Venus & Aphrodite is lively, engaging and, perhaps most important of all, accessible; the necessary context is given at every stage for antiquity, the Renaissance, the Enlightenment and every other period covered.

Don’t be put off by the rather lacklustre strapline on the cover – Venus & Aphrodite is an engrossing read that will keep you thinking long after you’ve finished reading it. If you’re looking to find out the truth about the goddess of love, sex and lust, this is a great place to begin.
Sspanning 500 years and a wide range of disciplines, this compelling series of biographies highlights the significant contributions women have made to science. While some names included are well-known, such as Marie Curie and Ada Lovelace, this volume seeks to draw attention to those whose work and achievements have not always received the attention they deserve.

Entries include Caroline Lucretia Herschel, who, in 1828, was awarded a gold medal by the Royal Astronomical Society. Elizabeth Blackwell was rejected by multiple medical schools, including Harvard and Yale. When one finally accepted her in 1847, it was the result of a prank. Defying their expectations, she graduated in 1849. She was the first woman in the USA to do so. In June 1963, Valentina Vladimirovna Tereshkova became the first woman in space. Over the course of almost three days, she orbited the earth 48 times. This handful of examples illustrates the kind of short but powerful stories told by Women of Science that cross centuries and countries.

The bibliography, clearly organised against the name of each scientist, should be useful to those wishing to take their reading further. There is also a moving introduction by Rosalind F Croucher, President of the Australian Human Rights Commission and an Adjunct Professor of Law at Macquarie University.

In short, John S Croucher has created an important survey of women's contributions to science, extending into the present day. It's an absorbing, thought-provoking read.
When Walt Disney decided to build an amusement park, everybody thought he was mad. Even his wife, Lillian, and his brother, Roy, thought it was going to be a mistake. Yet Disney was undeterred, choosing to finance his dream against his own life insurance policy, selling his summer home and borrowing everything he could in order to make Disneyland a reality.

For those who don’t know much about Walt Disney’s life, Disney’s Land is definitely a good starting point, beginning with a simple biography of an undeniably complicated man. However, Snow’s book also goes beyond the man himself, delving into the witty stories and anecdotes about the talented team, which included engineers, landscapers and artists, who all faced the same challenge - designing and building an amusement park.

It’s clear from the outset that Snow admires Disney a lot.
In 1933, Welsh reporter and former foreign policy advisor to Prime Minister David Lloyd George, Gareth Jones, heads to Soviet Moscow. Objective: interview Stalin about his nation’s march to modernisation and extraordinary growth as a powerhouse economy. Jones was the first journalist outside Germany to interview the country’s new chancellor, Adolf Hitler, and believes Uncle Joe will be impressed enough by this fact to sit down for a chat.

Upon arrival, the Kremlin by nature suspicious but accommodating enough, Jones experiences a more decadent side of life: all sex parties, jazz and flowing champagne. Taken aback and alarmed by such sights, he begins to hear murmurs among his libertine, Moscow-based brethren about mass starvation in Ukraine (known as the black earth region, due to its rich soil). It’s an open secret they dare not write about. “Grain is Stalin’s gold,” one hack tells Jones. With the dictator’s office door firmly closed, he heads out on a startling fact-finding mission, one which subsequently attempted to shatter the international image of Russia as a workers’ paradise.

Agnieszka Holland’s gripping biopic intends direct parallels between contemporary political situations and historical ones, telling us history isn’t always linear but occasionally cyclical, with the feeling of déjà vu attached. Fake news, state-sanctioned attacks against the press, assassination, misinformation, the Kremlin meddling in foreign affairs, and two politicians with iron man images who are popular at home but anaethema abroad - Holland uses Jones’ story to highlight Russia might appear to be playing at democracy these days, but its autocratic nature remains firmly in place.

Neither is the film a one-sided tirade. It points the finger at the morally corrupt West and its leftwing intelligentsia beguiled by Russia’s growth and achievements. The closest to a villain the film has is British-American Pulitzer Prize winner, Walter Duranty, played by Peter Sarsgaard, whose award-winning writings today stand as shameful toadying up to an evil regime. Yet even when several journalists let it be known their unease at Stalin’s policies, they still excuse them, for the Soviet project is “bigger than any of us” as Vanessa Kirby’s conflicted journo claims.

In our world of political spin running amok over objective facts, Mr. Jones is a stirring homage to journalists everywhere unwilling to kowtow to party lines and accept deception, and instead reveal what’s really going on. In this instance, the film is valuable and successful in its thematic aims and James Norton is excellent as the titular character. After his daring, clandestine excursion into Ukraine and witnessing the starvation, the cannibalism and the countryside strewn with corpses, Jones is mentally burdened with the savage reality of Stalin’s policy and the deaths of millions. Back home, he’s met with indifference and the Soviet machine running at full steam to discredit him. The film and his performance hail this forgotten hero of the 1930s.
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HISTORY VS HOLLYWOOD
Fact versus fiction on the silver screen

THE KING

Director: David Michôd Starring: Timothée Chalamet, Robert Pattinson, Joel Edgerton Country: UK Released: 2019

Shakespeare's Henriad given an abridged and gritty modern retelling, but still lacking in accuracy

01 Since this movie is based on the Shakespeare plays Richard II, Henry IV Part 1 and Part 2 and Henry V, its depiction of young Prince Hal is closer to those productions. He's reluctant to reign and would much rather drink and party. It's unclear how true that was.

02 Sir John Falstaff is one of Shakespeare's most loved characters and he unsurprisingly appears in this film as Hal's only confidante. He remains, however, a fictional character inspired by a combination of real historical figures, including Sir John Oldcastle.

03 The film paints Henry as a reluctant warrior. Historically, however, Henry seems to have been keen to wage his war as he believed his claim to France's throne was legitimate. He had campaigned since he was 12 and fought his first battle at 16.

04 The details of Agincourt are not that accurate militarily. The French actually had to charge up a muddy hill rather than down and the English lines were defended by spikes, making it even harder. It was these factors that helped the outnumbered English win.

05 Robert Pattinson's Dauphin is a scene-stealing firework when he's on screen, but his death scene at Agincourt couldn't be further from reality. In fact Louis, Duke of Guyenne was nearly 100 miles away from the battle and died from dysentery a few months later.
Alexander Unmasked
At the peak of his power, why were cracks appearing in his empire?

From dance to ritual sport

Henry’s Seventh Wife?

The life of Katherine Willoughby

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