The First World War ends circulating gold in Great Britain

But British collectors get an unexpected chance

On 4 August 1914, Great Britain declared war on Germany following Kaiser Wilhelm II’s refusal to honour Belgium’s neutrality. It was the start of the world’s first global conflict but also a watershed in the history of gold coinage.

Since 1814, Britain had been on the gold standard, its coinage and banknotes exchangeable for gold. When war was declared, the British government immediately began to recall its gold supplies. On 5 August 1914, the Chancellor, David Lloyd George, announced the issue of One Pound and Ten Shilling Treasury notes to be exchanged for Sovereigns and Half Sovereigns. His appeal to the British people to give up their gold came with a warning that anyone selfish enough to withdraw gold from the bank would be “assisting the enemies of his native land”.

Millions of British Sovereigns gone
In spite of concerns that the notes were too small and looked like lottery tickets, the people dutifully exchanged their Sovereigns for paper. Of the £123m worth of gold coin circulating in Britain at the outbreak of the First World War, around £100m ended up in the Bank of England. Simultaneously, the Bank dramatically reduced the number of Sovereigns struck from 30 million in 1913 to just over one million in 1917.

War ends 100 year old British tradition
The vast costs of the First World War saw much of Britain’s gold used to pay the United States. Ultimately, far more money was printed than could ever be redeemed for gold and, in 1925, the Gold Standard Act ended the exchange of paper money for gold coins. Britain no longer had a circulating gold currency, and a 100 year old British law allowing exchanging banknotes for gold was put to a halt.

Immortalised in solid sterling silver
As this year marks the centenary of the first great global war and its undeniable impact on British coinage, The London Mint office is proud to reveal a limited edition WWI Silver Commemorative. Struck in solid sterling silver and to the highest quality possible, its superb design depicts King George V Gold Sovereign, the last British gold coin in circulation. Fittingly, the commemorative is accentuated in pure 24 carat gold and is now available to British collectors for a limited period of time. Secure yours today for as little as £49.95 (plus £4.95 P&P). If you are not satisfied, you can return it within 14 days of receipt, no questions asked.

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Welcome

Our issue six cover star Winston Churchill was quoted as saying in the House of Commons in 1947: “It has been said that democracy is the worst form of government, except all those other forms that have been tried from time to time”. As with so many of his quotes, the flippancy of the remark hides the deeper truth of the words.

Many of us happily criticise our governments, but those fortunate enough to be living in a democracy at least get the chance to vote them out. This is a right that has been hard-fought and has evolved from a time when most civilisations were ruled by a single figure not accountable to the people. This issue’s themed section focuses on democracy and the individuals and events that have shaped its development.

One individual far removed from democracy was Alexander the Great. To find out more about the great warrior’s tactical acumen, leadership skills and fearsome army turn to our cover feature on page 48. By the time of his death aged just 32 he had put most of the known world to the sword and had done so leading from the front.

In another historically eclectic issue we also have a feature on the ten dirtiest tricks of WWII on page 66 (think itching powers and exploding animals) and examine the story behind the Titanic, the ‘unsinkable ship’, on page 58. I hope you enjoy the issue as much as we did pulling it all together.

Andrew Brown
Editor

This issue’s highlights

36
Eye Witness
Jack Garman, a NASA computer engineer who was inside the mission control room, played a key role in helping the first man to land on the Moon in 1969.

40
Heroes & villains
Jesse Owens wasn’t just racing against his fellow competitors at the 1936 Olympics, but also the racial prejudices of Nazi Germany and his own countrymen.

84
Robin Hood
His legend is one of history’s most enduring, that of stealing from the rich and giving to the poor, but just how much of the myth is based in reality?

A crowd gathers in New York as news of the Titanic’s sinking becomes known Page 58

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CONTENTS
Welcome to All About History

ALEXANDER THE GREAT

48 How one man’s military genius, inspirational leadership and fearsome army conquered most of the known world

DEMOCRACY

12 From humble beginnings democracy has become the form of government most aspire to

14 Day in the life
   Of a 19th-century English MP

16 Democracy throughout time
   Come with us to witness the birth, awkward adolescence and development of democracy

18 How to...
   Get elected as a Roman senator - do you have what it takes?

20 Top 5 facts
   Pericles is known as one of the founding fathers of democracy

22 Greatest battles
   The Battle of Marathon saw the fledgling democracies of Greece take on a formidable Persian force

26 Hall of fame
   Ten pioneers of democracy

28 Anatomy of...
   A soldier in the Spanish civil war

FEATURES

58 Titanic: The unsinkable ship
   How a symbol of modern technology became a byword for disaster

66 Ten dirtiest ticks of WWII
   Exploding rats, itching powder and other dastardly deeds

76 Killing for honour
   The tragic tale of the last fatal duel between Englishmen at a time when gentlemen demanded 'satisfaction'

84 Robin Hood
   Just how much of the legendary folk hero and outlaw’s myth is actually based on fact?
EVERY ISSUE

06 **Defining moments**
Images that capture an iconic moment in history

30 **What if?**
Prohibition had never been repealed in the US in 1933 and the consumption and production of alcohol had continued to be illegal

34 **What was it like?**
England in 1070, four years after William the Conqueror’s victory

36 **Eye witness**
John ‘Jack’ Garman was in the NASA control centre when man first walked on the moon; he gives us his fascinating insider’s account

40 **Heroes & villains**
How Jesse Owens raced against not just the clock but racial prejudice

44 **Tour guide**
Tour through the Piazza di Spagna, home to the Spanish Steps and some of the great Romantic poets

90 **Reviews**
The books, apps and DVDs on WWII worth your time and attention

92 **Competition**
Grab yourself a great prize

94 **Your history**
Two readers share with us amazing stories from their past

98 **History vs Hollywood**
Critics were dismissive of Pearl Harbour’s acting and storyline – will it fare any better on the historical accuracy front?

ENJOYED THE MAGAZINE?
SUBSCRIBE & SAVE 50% Page 46
American actress Faye Dunaway takes breakfast by the pool with the day’s newspapers at the Beverly Hills Hotel. At the previous night’s Academy Awards ceremony she won the Oscar for Best Actress for her role in Network. She had previously been nominated for roles in Bonnie and Clyde and Chinatown.

29 March 1977
DEFINING MOMENT
A MAN’S WORLD?
During World War I women at an English workhouse watch four women firefighters during a drill to ensure they could perform their duties adequately. During the conflict women—who at this point still did not have the right to vote—worked and excelled in a number of different roles previously not allowed to them.

1917
IRAQI SOLDIER
A young girl poses with a rifle in Baghdad. A month later Iraq invaded Kuwait to start the Gulf War, which would lead to international intervention.
01 September 1990
DEFINING MOMENT

I'M THE GREATEST
Boxer Cassius Clay stands aloft over the Beatles, in America for their first US tour. Later that month Clay became world champion, defeating Sonny Liston.
01 February 1964
A protest against Poll Tax led to this riot, London, March, 1990

An RAF Aircraftman in North Africa drops his vote off for the 1945 general election

The signing of the Magna Carta in 1215 established written law in England for the first time and granted some basic human rights.

Democracy
THE FIGHT FOR JUSTICE AND EQUALITY

A protest against Poll Tax led to this riot, London, March, 1990
13
Democracy
14  Day in the life 
Of a 19th-century British MP 
16   Democracy through 
the ages  
From early Greek states to 
21st-century governments
18 How to…
Become a 
Roman senator
Hint: you will need to get your hands 
dirty to get elected
20 Five amazing facts
Pericles, known as one of 
democracy’s ‘fathers’
22 Greatest battles
When the fledgling democratic states 
of Greece stood up against the might 
of Persia
26 Hall of fame
Let us introduce you to ten of 
democracy’s most important and 
influential figures
28 Anatomy of...
A volunteer Republican soldier in the 
Spanish civil war

This issue

14 Day in the life
Of a 19th-century British MP

16 Democracy through the ages
From early Greek states to 21st-century governments

18 How to…
Become a Roman senator
Hint: you will need to get your hands dirty to get elected

20 Five amazing facts
Pericles, known as one of democracy’s ‘fathers’

22 Greatest battles
When the fledgling democratic states of Greece stood up against the might of Persia

26 Hall of fame
Let us introduce you to ten of democracy’s most important and influential figures

28 Anatomy of...
A volunteer Republican soldier in the Spanish civil war

Suffragette Emily Davison stepped in front of the king’s horse at the 1913 Derby to draw attention to women’s rights. She died from her injuries

The Ottoman Empire attempted a representative democracy in 1876

Gathering of the Areopagus, a court that the death of Pericles is often used as an example of the unreliability of democratic rule

Iraqi voters in Baghdad, 2005

This democracy monument was built in Thailand after the military overthrew the absolute monarchy in 1932

The USA’s founding fathers etched on Mt Rushmore (left to right): George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Theodore Roosevelt and Abraham Lincoln

Staff of the European Union assist members of its parliament in making decisions that affect all EU countries
The 19th century was a time of substantial change for democracy in the UK. Thanks to the Reform Acts of 1832, 1867 and 1884, the political landscape was constantly changing, going from one where voting was the exclusive privilege of the elite to something closer to the universal suffrage we see today. By the end of the century there was still a long way to go, of course, but it was a start.

Driving this significant change were the MPs, with such pivotal figures as William Gladstone and Benjamin Disraeli, spurring change in the country before going on to further shape the nation’s fortunes as prime ministers.
DAY JOB
As positions for members of Parliament were unpaid until 1911, many of them had jobs in order to make a living, which they undertook before entering Parliament. As well as aristocrats and lords, common professions among MPs included barristers, retired businessmen and manufacturers.

HOUSE MEETS
The House of Commons would normally meet in the afternoon to allow its members the time to earn a living or sit on committees. The House would occasionally meet earlier on in the day in order to allow more time for particularly important issues to be discussed, as well as to ensure a full attendance.

PRIVATE TIME
As well as attending the sessions in the House of Commons, members of Parliament also had other responsibilities to keep them occupied. In particular, governmental ministers could retire to private rooms to avoid the potentially distracting chatter of the House and get on with departmental work.

RETURNING TO SESSION
The time members spent debating in the House of Commons varied depending on the person. For instance, the more hard-working and dedicated MPs might spend upwards of 12 hours a day in the House, although this wasn’t by any means the norm; young men were often bored by extended sessions, while the older ones found it uncomfortable.

DINNER
As well as acting as a break in which to divide up the often long and hard working days, dinner also marked the point where some members that had been working during the day appeared in the House of Commons for the first time.

DIVISIONS
As many members of Parliament chose not to appear in the House until after dinner, the divisions of the assembly - the voting method by which the assembled members of the House either took a rising vote (standing up) or departed to different areas of the chamber as a means of casting their vote - literally divided them into groups.

HOME
When all business was finished with the MPs would depart from the House. This usually occurred at a fairly reasonable time, as plenty of time for debate was allowed during the course of the day. All-night sittings occasionally took place for discussions of more serious issues, but these were rare before 1880.
One man above others is considered the founder of Athenian democracy - the progenitor of all modern-day western democracies - and that is Cleisthenes. Born in 570 BCE, Cleisthenes entered an Athenian society that just 24 years before had seen the reforms of famous lawgiver Solon give the city its first comprehensive code of law and, following his ascent to leadership of the council of Athens, he proceeded to propose a complete reform of the system of government.

This was soon approved and Cleisthenes reorganised the city's population into ten tribes, thereby breaking the dominance in political decision-making of the historic noble families. Following this, Cleisthenes introduced the concept of isonomy, the principle that everyone shared equality of rights and access to democratic decision-making. The term 'democracy' itself was coined, directly translating as 'rule by the people'. Cleisthenes also made improvements to the organisation of the Athenian army.

These developments led Athens into its Golden Age, a period of political hegemony, economic growth and flourishing culture. Concepts we take for granted today, such as lot elections and rotations in office and courts all followed, with Cleisthenes and then Pericles - the great Athenian statesman - directly making the democracy in Athens the most accessible and direct in the world, with large proportions of the population individually involved in the political process of running the city-state.

Democracy timeline

- **The tribes unite**
  - The birth of democracy arguably begins within early tribal societies, with dominant males making decisions regarding their society as a collective.
  - **4000 BCE**

- **Sumerian states spring forth**
  - The Sumerian peoples of ancient Mesopotamia create autonomous city-states, controlled via citizen assemblies.
  - **2900 BCE**

- **Rule by the people**
  - The Athenians of ancient Greece establish a system of government based on the concept of 'rule by the people', with male members of a central assembly voting on proposals.
  - **500 BCE**

- **Witenagemot advises**
  - The Anglo-Saxon political institution of the Witenagemot is created, with an assembly of the society's ruling class regularly advising the king on national matters.
  - **627 CE**

- **Althingi parliament founded**
  - 'Althingi', the parliament of the Iceland's Commonwealth, is founded. 'Lögretta', the legislative section of Althingi, consists of an assembly of 39 individuals.
  - **930 CE**

- **Edward calls Parliament**
  - The unique aristocratic political system of the Golden Liberty is established in the Kingdom of Poland. Under it, all nobles have the same legal rights and voting privileges.
  - **1573 CE**

- **Magna Carta signed**
  - Following his defeat against the noble barons of England, King John I is forced to sign the Magna Carta, establishing written law and basic human rights in England.
  - **1215 CE**

- **Democracy is dissolved**
  - The Parliament of England was challenged many times during the reign of James I with the king dissolving it multiple times after it failed to cede to his wishes.
  - Indeed, the concept of democracy was completely alien to James - it was to his son, Charles I, who would famously lose his head for it - with the king believing power to rule was his alone, as granted by the Christian god. As such, throughout the 17th century England was ruled for long periods as an autocracy, with only the English Civil War and stubbornness of parliamentarians preventing an outright dictatorship.

- **A Roman Republic is founded**
  - Following the overthrow of the ancient Roman Kingdom in 510 BCE, the Roman Republic was founded and soon Roman law was altered to become a democracy, with 300,000 land-owning citizens eligible to vote on state affairs. As many of these landowners lived far away from the capital, their representation in the senate was incredibly important and the institution grew to great power, with 300 senators debating and voting on the most important issues of the day.

- **A Sumerian statue**
  - A Sumerian statue

- **Cleisthenes**
  - Cleisthenes

- **Rock painting**
  - Rock painting

- **A citizen of the Roman Republic**
  - A citizen of the Roman Republic

- **A Roman Republic**
  - A Roman Republic

- **A dictator is assassinated**
  - By the time Julius Caesar was assassinated, Rome had become largely dysfunctional. Caesar, who was determined to unite the country once more through military and political conquest, was attacked and stabbed multiple times in the Roman Senate by a group of disgruntled senators, angry that Caesar had stripped them of much of their powers in the fulfilment of his goal. 77 years later, the partially democratic Roman Republic fell and the autocratic Roman Empire began.
Party system originates in England
ENGLAND 1678
Following the creation of the Bill of Rights in England, documentation that established the civil and political rights of English citizens, representative party systems began to form, with the Tory Party one of the first to gain traction, starting in 1678. England’s party system grew and evolved to encompass a myriad of political parties, with many of today’s worldwide multi-party democratic systems directly or indirectly stemming from them.

Slavery abolished in the United States
USA 1865
One of the most brutal opponents to democracy throughout history has been slavery, with slaves stripped of any rights and totally prohibited from voting. Indeed, it was not until 1833 in Britain and then 1865 in the USA that slaves were made free people, and they were not granted a vote until much, much later. The 19th Amendment to the US constitution ensured that state governments could not deny any citizen regardless of ‘race, color, or previous condition of servitude’ from voting.

First recorded referendum
SWITZERLAND 1847
A short-lived civil war in Switzerland lead to a national referendum, one of the earliest recorded uses of this directly democratic mechanism in history. The referendum was used to vote on a new federal constitution, which was loosely based on that of the United States. The resultant constitution created a central authority based in Bern, however left the country’s cantons (county-style regions) free to self-govern on local issues. Today, Switzerland maintains this heritage, holding more referendums than any other country in the world.

LONE PARTY
GERMANY 1933
Democracy was dealt a large blow in the early Thirties with Adolf Hitler becoming chancellor and passing the Enabling Bill, a piece of legislation granting him absolute power. He proceeded to instate a one-party system, with the Nazi party - known in Germany as the National Socialist German Workers’ Party - ruling unopposed. World War II followed shortly after.

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How to Become a Roman Consul

Roman Republic 509-27 BCE

DUTIES OF THE CONSUL

CHIEF JUDGE
This power was transferred to the praetors in 366 BCE, but consuls would still serve as judges in serious cases and whenever called upon.

SENATE
Consuls were responsible for passing the laws of the senate, as well as acting as ambassadors on behalf of it.

MILITARY
Consuls were the commanders-in-chief of the vast and strong Roman army, which they governed with the assistance of military tribunes.

GOVERNORSHIP
After leaving office, each consul was assigned – at random – a province or area to govern for a term of anywhere between one and five years.

VETO
Each consul had the power to block his colleague’s decree, in the process ensuring that important decisions were only made in unison.

Get educated
Roman consuls are expected to have the immense confidence and education necessary to be superb public orators. For this reason, find yourself a private tutor - known around these woods as a pedagogue - to make sure you have the basic reading skills to lay the foundations you need to learn the art of rhetoric.

Marry into a wealthy family
If all else fails, attempt to increase your influence by marrying into it. In Rome, powerful and wealthy families often support each other in the form of alliances known as amicitia, which are generally made concrete in the form of arranged marriages. Being associated with a great family is a quick way to get some votes.

INSIDE THE SENATE

Venue
Many locations were used for senate meetings, such as the Temples of Jupiter Capitolinus, Fides, Concord and Apollo.

Consul
As the consul would frequently address the senate, he was expected to have a dominant presence and strong oratory style.

Open doors
Meetings were public. To highlight this, doors were left open during meetings, so anyone could observe them.

Audience
The senate originally comprised 100 men but increased to around 300 at the height of the Republic.

Traditions
One way to keep your opponents from the floor was to keep talking - a tactic employed several times by Cato the Younger.

It was the highest elected office in the days of the Roman Republic, and two consuls were elected at any one time, each serving a one-year term before being replaced. Their duties spanned a vast range of civil and military tasks, and from 367 BCE a plebeian (common) citizen could even stand for office. This kind of democracy wouldn’t last, however, as the death of Julius Caesar and subsequent wars led to the establishment of the Roman Empire in 27 BCE. The consuls’ powers were absorbed by that of the emperor, leaving them as mere figureheads.
Be a showman
The better you present yourself to the people, the higher your odds of becoming a consul. As Marcus Tullius Cicero himself says: “Surround yourself with large numbers of people from every class and rank… Make sure your campaign has plenty of ceremony, brilliance and entertainment for the people.”

Indulge in bribery
Bribery is common, especially in these waning days of the Roman Republic. Should you decide upon this as an option, be aware that it can take two forms: direct bribery (paying off officials with money in return for votes) or indirect (provision of free grain, entertainment and outdoor banquets).

Intimidate your rivals
You mustn’t be afraid to use less than savoury means in order to get what you want. This can include inciting riots or hiring heavies - gladiators are particularly effective options here – to beat people up. If you happen to be a general, even better; simply make use of your heavily armed troops to threaten disorder.

Become a mob favourite
A man who has the support of the mob is a powerful man indeed, and should help you in your quest to become a consul. Putting on a series of gladiatorial games - preferably with a host of exotic animals - is a safe method of getting the mob on your side and willing to support you.

How not to... seize power
Lucius Sergius Catilina, more commonly known as Catiline, was a prospective consul whose attempts to seize power went horribly wrong. Having been forbidden to campaign for election as a consul at an earlier date due to facing charges of extortion (he was ultimately acquitted), he was later defeated in 64 BCE by Cicero. Angered by this, he planned to take power by force, gathering a number of followers by promising to cancel debts, as well as appealing to the wants and needs of the poor. However, Cicero was constantly kept abreast of Catiline’s actions, forcing him to flee Rome after denouncing him as a traitor. Catiline later tried to enter Gaul (France) with his army, but he was prevented from doing so by forces led by general Gaius Antonius Hybrida in 62 BCE at Pistoria, where he and the majority of his followers were killed.

(IN)FAMOUS CONSULS

LUCIUS JUNIUS BRUTUS
509 BCE
The founder of the Roman Republic, he was one of the first consuls and is claimed to be an ancestor of Marcus Junius Brutus, one of Julius Caesar’s assassins.

JULIUS CAESAR
100-44 BCE
Caesar was consul on five separate occasions, before being murdered after declaring himself a dictator for life.

MARK ANTONY
83-30 BCE
A consul on two occasions, he later ruled with Octavian before falling out, losing against him in battle and committing suicide with his lover, Cleopatra.

AUGUSTUS
63 BCE-14 CE
Formerly known as Octavian, he first became consul in 43 BCE, before becoming the first Roman emperor in 27 BCE.
02 He secured Athenian democracy
Pericles is remembered as a great orator and is famed for his speeches espousing the value of democracy. In an address during the Peloponnesian War he declared: “[The Athenian] constitution favours the many instead of the few; this is why it is called a democracy.”

03 Early theatre patron
From early on in his career, Pericles patronised the theatre, including the tragedian Aeschylus. Later, in his attempts to promote Athenian culture, Pericles used state funds so poorer citizens could attend the theatre, subsidising their entry fee. He was also a friend of the playwright Sophocles.

04 He created an Athenian empire
During Pericles’ rule, Athens became the foremost member of the Delian League, a group of hundreds of Greek city-states formed to oppose Persia’s invading forces. This became an Athenian empire, establishing colonies in Italy and expanding into the Mediterranean.

05 He ruled almost unchallenged
Pericles’ popularity with the citizens made it easy for him to remove political opponents, many of which, such as his predecessor Cimon, were exiled by popular vote or ostracism. Though he suffered accusations of corruption and tyranny himself, his political influence was such that he was only deposed once, briefly, during his entire rule.
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Democracy

Athenian might

Athens was the most powerful city-state in Greece during the first Persian invasion of Greece and at Marathon that showed, with 10,000 professional, well-equipped and trained Athenian hoplites joining with 1,000 Plataeans to repel the much larger invading force. Meeting the Persian troops in a bay near the town of Marathon, the outnumbered Greeks overwhelmed the enemy forces with a mixture of tactical prowess and patriotic fighting verve, driving them from the mainland and ending their invasion.

Greek charge

Accounts of the battle indicate that a key opening moment in its outcome was a high-speed and totally unexpected charge by the Greek forces. Prior to Marathon, the Persian forces had become accustomed to repelling forces with long-range weaponry, with thousands of bowmen picking Greek soldiers off from afar. At Marathon that was not possible and driven by hatred for the invading enemy, the Greeks charged hundreds of metres until they collided with the Persian front line with brutal force.

Red rivers

Surrounded by a fresh and savage defending force, even the famous Persian Immortals could not resist the Greeks, and soon the rout transformed into slaughter, with thousands upon thousands of the Persian soldiers cut down. Reports indicate that tributaries and nearby ocean waters turned red with blood and many Persian troops who attempted to flee inland fell into nearby swamps and drowned. By the battle's end, 6,400 of the Persian army lay dead and seven of their ships had been destroyed or captured.

Persians outflanked

The second key part of the battle was the Greek leader Miltiades' decision to arrange the Greek troops with reinforced flanks in an ox-horn arrangement. This, after the initial surprising charge, drew the Persians' best troops towards the centre of the Greek lines, allowing them to be enveloped once the Persian flanks broke. The enlarged Athenian wings soon routed the inferior Persian levies on the flanks and surrounded the Persian centre.
Long before those 300 Spartans held Persian king Xerxes I at the Hot Gates, another battle between Greece and Persia saw the Greeks withstanding the greatest military force the Earth had ever seen and consequently helped secure a democracy in its fledgling years. After all, Xerxes' burning desire to subjugate Greece was bestowed upon him by his father Darius I whose troops, starting in 492 BCE, began making their way to the Greek mainland while besieging any Greek islands and cities their massive fleet came across.

The Persian fleet dispatched by Darius I was colossal. According to Herodotus, the Persian invasion force consisted of 600 triremes, which could hold a fighting force numbering between 25,000 and 100,000 men. The Greeks had never seen this scale of force before and, as news broke of its various scalps on its way to the mainland – including the crushing of the Ionian revolt in Asia Minor – fear and concern grew.

If the might of Persia came knocking on the doors of Athens, the voice of the people's ideology they were currently cultivating would be eradicated; the dream of democracy crushed under Darius' foot.

By 490 BCE, the invaders – led by admiral Datis and Darius' own brother Artaphernes – had brought the Greek Cyclades islands under Persian control, besieged and sacked the city of Eretria and were now headed for Athens itself. Darius had long wanted to punish Athens for aiding the Ionian revolt and generally resisting Persia's expansion into the West, so taking down Athens would be the feather in the proverbial hat. Buoyed by his resounding victory at Eretria, Datis made a beeline for the Greek capital.

Datis chose the bay of Marathon to land his invading force. It was near the small town of Marathon and lay roughly 40 kilometres (25 miles) from the Athens. In response, the Athenians quickly dispatched their most experienced general, Miltiades, along with 10,000 soldiers. The Greek strategy was to block the Persian army at Marathon and prevent their ingress. Meanwhile, help from Sparta would be sent for, with the larger Persian army checked until the Spartans and Athenians could unite and eradicate the invading force.

Arriving at Marathon, Miltiades quickly put the Greek plan in action, blocking off the exits and bracing for a Persian attack. For five days that attack didn't come, and while this puzzled Miltiades and his generals, they were unconcerned as each day that passed brought the Spartan support troops closer. The reason Datis delayed his attack is not documented in historical sources, but it is believed that indecision regarding how the Persians' deadly cavalry should be used was a primary factor.

What is clear is that little of the Persian cavalry was deployed at Marathon and, on the fifth day of stalemate, something gave. Whether Miltiades realised that without cavalry the Persians were vulnerable to a direct charge and decided to move against them, or that Datis grew impatient and pressed the offensive is not known. But on the fifth day the Greeks charged down the Persian enemy in a massive shock assault, breaking their weak flanks and enveloping their centre. Indeed, despite being outnumbered two to one, the Greeks secured a decisive victory.

The fallout from Marathon was huge. The Persians, who the Greeks expected to make a resurgent attack on Athens, were so badly broken by the battle that instead they were forced to return straight back to Persia, angering King Darius I greatly and setting in train the second Persian invasion of Greece, undertaken by Xerxes after Darius' death. By contrast, the victory at Marathon was a defining moment for the young Athenian democracy, kick-starting a golden age for the city that would last almost 300 years.
01 BATTLE LINES DRAWN
The last battle of the first Persian invasion of Greece began with the two armies closing to a distance of 1,500 metres (4,900 feet), the Greek forces arranged in a defensive formation pinning the Persian army against the coast. If the Persians managed to get around, then Athens and all of Greece was theirs for the taking.

02 Stacking the flanks
The Greek army consisted primarily of hoplites who, while well-trained and equipped, were vulnerable to cavalry whose agility and speed led to them being easily outflanked in the open, so Miltiades stacked his forces' flanks. Persian cavalry was some of the best in the world, with their horses world-renowned for their speed. It must have been a surprise for the Greeks to see that the invading Persian force at Marathon had almost no cavalry, instead mostly made up from archers and Persian Immortals, the supposedly indestructible elite fighters.

03 "At them!"
Despite outnumbering the Greek soldiers two to one, Persian force seemed hesitant, refusing to initiate battle, probably as they had little experience in fighting Greek hoplites up close. Miltiades took advantage of this and with one simple order: "At them", he unleashed a massive Greek charge. According to Herodotus, the Greek troops charged at the Persians while shouting their famous war cry "Eleleu! Eleleu!"

04 A rain of arrows unleashed
Upon the instigation of the charge Datis immediately ordered his archers to fire upon the advancing horde, who appeared to be on a suicide mission. Upon his order, a huge barrage of missiles were unleashed that rained down upon the advancing Greeks. However, due to the speed at which the Greeks were advancing, the inability of the Persians to retreat backwards to gain a better firing position and the sturdy armour and shields carried by their enemy, the casualties were few.

05 Brutal first impact
The impact of the Greek charge was devastating. The Athenian hoplites had honed their battle prowess against other Greeks who fought in phalanxes, with large shields and bronze armour. However, the Persians - especially their archers - merely wore cloth and quilted jerkins and when Miltiades and his men connected, there was nothing but the sound of metal crashing into flesh and bone. The Persians troops were completely unprepared for such an assault and the initial shock left their battle line in tatters.

06 A bronze wave
The bronze wave of Athenian breastplates pushed forwards. Datis, seeing that his centre was now badly punctured, redistributed his best fighters, the feared Persian Immortals, to shore it up. For a little while, this tactic succeeded, checking Miltiades in his continuous advance toward the moored Persian fleet.

07 PERSIAN WINGS ROUTED
With Datis' best fighters now holding up the remains of the Persian centre, their wings were poorly protected. Miltiades, who had stocked his wings in defence of the Athenians being out-flanked, took advantage.
**10 Persian fleet flees**

After capturing seven Persian ships, the Greeks had their victory, watching the battered remnants of the invading force sail away into the Aegean Sea. The body count told a tale of one of the most crushing victories the Greeks had ever scored. 6,400 dead Persians were counted lying on the battlefield, while only 203 Greeks had perished. But Miltiades had no time to bury the dead and immediately ordered his troops to begin their march back to the undefended Athens in case of a reprisal. No attack came, though; the first Persian invasion of Greece had ended.

**09 Drowned in the swamps**

Upon the collapse of the Persian centre, the remaining Persian troops began to flee. Most fled to their moored ships and were chased and harassed by the Greeks, with many of them cut down as they retreated. Others, who had been cut off from making a dash for the vessels, fled inland and – unfamiliar with the local terrain – fell into a series of nearby swamps and drowned. Whether Datis died on the battlefield at Marathon, fled back to Persia or drowned is unknown to this day.

**A marathon myth**

According to Herodotus, prior to the Battle of Marathon, a runner was sent from Athens to Sparta to ask for military assistance, with a man named Pheidippides covering the 225-kilometre (140-mile) journey in under two days. In addition, Herodotus also recounts that upon Miltiades’ troops defeating the Persian force at Marathon, they marched back to Athens at great speed in order to protect the city in case of an attack. Over time, these two events have become mingled to create the now-famous story of the Battle of Marathon, where a runner was sent to Athens, 40 kilometres (25 miles) from Marathon, and exclaiming upon arrival: “We were victorious!” Indeed, this story is why the marathon run is named thus at the Olympic Games, with the original organisers wanting to emulate the famous run. Pheidippides never made that run from Marathon to Athens, but with Herodotus’ account being written approximately 40 years after the climactic events and based on eyewitness testimonies, he probably was a real historical figure and the much-longer run from Athens to Sparta probably did occur.

**How do we know this?**

The vast majority of our information about the Battle of Marathon and the wider first Persian invasion of Greece comes from Herodotus. Herodotus recounts the events before, during and after the Battle of Marathon in his Histories, arguably the first history book ever written, where he describes everything in detail, albeit with a pro-Greek viewpoint. Other snippets of information come courtesy of the writings of Thucydides, Pausanias, Cicero and Plutarch.

**08 Persian centre enveloped**

The ox-horn formation allowed the Greek wings to pressure the Persian centre from the flanks, with the elite Immortals fighting in the midst of the fray soon surrounded. While the Persian wings were collapsing, the Immortals had unleashed their battle prowess to deadly effect, belting and checking the Greek front line. However, with enemies now on all sides, not even their insane fighting skills could withstand the myriad thrusts of Greek spears and soon, fighting to the last man, they were overcome.

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King John
BRITISH  1166-1216
Although not a willing advocate of democracy, John is a pivotal figure thanks to his acceptance of the Magna Carta. Signed in 1215, it was put forward by a group of barons with the intention of making the king rule according to feudal law. The charter was the first step towards undermining the total rule of the monarchy and introducing human rights, and parts of it are still enshrined in British law today.

Thomas Jefferson was the third president of the United States

King John I became a pivotal figure for democracy, somewhat against his will.

“The boisterous sea of liberty is never without a wave”

Thomas Jefferson

The father of Athenian democracy, Cleisthenes is credited with reforming the system of government in Athens in order to make it more representative of the population. He altered the existing ruling system of four tribes into ten, which were decided according to their geographical location rather than family. In each tribe, people were selected by ballot to rule on a council for a year. This new method increased representation and reduced the nobility’s power.

THOMAS JEFFERSON
AMERICAN 1743-1826
As the main author of the US Declaration of Independence of 1776, Jefferson was a key proponent in both the development of democracy and the formation of the United States of America. A man of many talents, he served as a diplomat in France before becoming secretary of state in 1790 and vice president to John Adams in 1797, before being elected as the third US president in 1801, where he remained in office until 1809. He attracted criticism for publicly opposing slavery, despite owning hundreds himself, yet he is still remembered for the important role he played in US history.
Aung San Suu Kyi
BURMESE 1945-
The chairperson of the NLD (National League for Democracy) in Burma, Kyi was placed under house arrest during the 1990 general election (in which she received 59 per cent of the popular vote, although the result wasn’t recognised by the ruling military regime). Imprisoned on and off over the next two decades, she nonetheless continued to fearlessly speak out in favour of democracy and against the increasingly oppressive and violent ruling regime, which did its best to curb her activities. Her unwavering stance helped shine the world media’s spotlight on the escalating situation in Burma, gradually forcing the regime to loosen its iron grip on the population. After being released in 2010, she finally took a place in the Burmese parliament in 2012.

Giuseppe Mazzini
ITALIAN 1805-1872
A 19th-century activist and politician, Mazzini is best remembered for his attempts to unite Italy, at that time separated into a number of disparate states. Through his organisation ‘Young Italy’ he spearheaded the movement toward the unification of Italy – Risorgimento – ultimately achieved in 1861 with the establishment of the Kingdom of Italy. His vision of a united Europe would later be realised through the formation of the European Union over a century later.

Karl Marx
GERMAN 1818-1883
One of the most iconic theorists of all time, Marx lent his name to the political dogma that would become espoused in numerous regimes worldwide, both democratic and dictatorial in nature. A renowned philosopher, economist, journalist and historian, he was an ardent campaigner of socialism during his lifetime, denouncing capitalist governments and advocating social change via revolutionary action from the lower classes to topple those in power.

Montesquieu
FRENCH 1689-1755
Most famous for his theory of the separation of powers – the tripartite system – which is in place in many constitutions around the world, Montesquieu decreed there were three types of ideal government: monarchy (a single person governs by fixed and established laws); despotism (a single person directs everything by his own will) and republicanism, which could be either a democracy or aristocracy. He also believed a woman could lead a state, but doubted she would be as effective as a man.

Emmeline Pankhurst
BRITISH 1858-1928
At a time when women lacked the right to vote, Pankhurst was one of the leading voices in the Suffragette movement aimed at breaking this status quo. As head of the WSPU (Women’s Social and Political Union), which she cofounded in 1903, she led a series of protests and demonstrations against the government, which later took the form of more violent objections like vandalism and bombing. After suspending activity during World War I, women aged over 30 were granted the right to vote. Emmeline died in 1928 – the year the Fifth Reform Act gave women the same voting rights as men.

Martin Luther King
AMERICAN 1929-1968
A guiding light in the African-American civil-rights movement, Martin Luther King made use of nonviolent protests like marches, often in the face of increasingly violent opposition and repression from the police. After gaining prominence during the Montgomery Bus Boycott of 1955, he would later speak out on topics like black voting rights and segregation, most notably in his ‘I have a dream’ speech in Washington in 1963. Having gained recognition for his actions, such as winning the Nobel Peace Prize in 1965, he was assassinated by James Earl Ray.

Who did we miss out?
Let us know /AllAboutHistory @AboutHistoryMag
The climate and terrain across Spain varies from a frozen winter in the northern mountains to the searing heat of the southern summer desert. Republican troops had a variety of footwear to match: calf-length field boots or ‘granaderos’ (gaiter trousers) with ankle boots. In the summer, many could be seen wearing ‘alpargatos’ sandals.

Berets were ubiquitous among the ranks of the Republican forces, usually found in khaki, black or brown, alongside ‘sabelino’ forage caps, army-issue M1926 helmets and even cotton sunhats. In winter, a woolen balaclava known as the ‘pasamontana’ was worn, which had a peak that covered the opening over the face.

Most of the Republicans’ gear was salvaged from an earlier time, including their leather belts, part of the 1926 standard issue to the Spanish army. It was brown leather with either a square brass plate or buckle that bore the branch insignia of the brigade.

Republican soldiers were only different from the Nationalists in the variety of their kit. If anything was standard, they all needed ammunition, which was often held in three rigid leather pouches supported by leather Y-straps. If the soldier was lucky enough to have grenades, these were kept in larger cylindrical pouches.

Furnishing its troops with weapons was a problem for the Spanish Republic, which could only receive aid from the USSR due to the European Non-Intervention Agreement. Thus, the Spanish M1893, M1913 and Mausers could be seen alongside Russian Mosin-Nagant rifles and DP M1928 machine guns. Some of these had been in service for 40 years or more.

Those with the foresight to bring some of their own gear might have furnished themselves with a wider array of basics, otherwise the best-equipped Republican soldiers would have had a small backpack containing a metal canteen and a blanket or sleeping roll.
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What if Prohibition hadn’t been repealed in 1933?

**Jack Blocker:** It’s hard to imagine enforcement of national Prohibition improving and it’s easy to imagine it deteriorating if Prohibition had remained in place. The problem was the division of authority between the states and the federal government that was mandated by the 18th Amendment. That caused problems during the Twenties because some states devoted few resources to enforcement, leaving the whole burden on the federal government, which itself was not adequately funded to do the job of enforcement. As a result, enforcement against Prohibition was never carried out to the level necessary to provide full compliance with the Volstead Act. It’s extremely unlikely that things would have gotten any better in the Thirties because both the states and the federal government were hard-pressed for revenues [due to the Great Depression of 1929]. So it’s quite likely that enforcement would have been cut back.

**Would organised crime have increased?**

**Deborah Toner:** In that kind of scenario it’s very difficult to imagine how organised crime could have been reined in. This is where most people dwell on one of the key problems of Prohibition, this explosion in organised crime growing out of networks that had existed for at least 40 to 50 years before Prohibition came into effect. They really expanded rapidly because of the huge new economic opportunities that Prohibition created. And so one might have seen a escalation of organised crime and associated violent crime with gang warfare that we now see between the drug-dealing organisations in the US and elsewhere. It’s quite possible that if the hardline approach [by the authorities] to Prohibition had remained, there could have been a massive escalation in organised crime. The continuation would have supported the development of super-organised crime gangs, the kind of cartels that we see in the drug business, across these two illegal industries [drugs and alcohol].

**Is it likely the law would not have survived this increase in crime?**

**Blocker:** Anybody transporting, selling, manufacturing or importing liquor was by definition a criminal, but they might not have been part of a criminal organisation. In other words, the deterioration of enforcement might have opened up a lot of space for ordinary citizens to make their own booze and pass it back and forth among friends. The decline in enforcement might also have reduced one of the real problems in public perception of Prohibition, in that when enforcement did take place it was often perceived as unfair when gun battles broke out in the streets between Prohibition agents and bootleggers. If enforcement was cut back that could have declined, which would have meant that one of the more visible problems as far as the public saw them would have been reduced. US citizens might have said: “Why not leave the law in the books because it’s not having much effect, we’re able to obtain liquor and the gun battles in the streets aren’t taking place.” So the law might have survived, in spite of or perhaps because of deterioration of enforcement.

**Could Prohibition have been modified in some form?**

**Toner:** My view is that the only way Prohibition could have survived, so that it could have avoided being repealed, was if the Prohibition camp, or the ‘dry’ lobby as they’re often referred, accepted some modifications to the way Prohibition was being enforced through the Volstead Act. If that had happened and Prohibition had remained in a more revised format then actually a lot of the aims of Prohibition would have been achieved. For instance, with that change a lot more resources would have been diverted towards cracking down on the higher-level organised crime led by mobsters like Al Capone and so on.

**Blocker:** One of the proposals made consistently through the Twenties was to modify Prohibition to allow consumption of beer and light wines. If that change had been made Prohibition may well have lasted quite a long time because, as
What if... PROHIBITION HADN'T BEEN REPEALED?

If Prohibition had not been repealed it could have led to riots and running battles in the streets.

“It’s quite possible that if the hardline approach to Prohibition had remained, there could have been a massive escalation in organised crime.”
you know, beer and wine now make up the largest contributor of per capita alcohol consumption. It is possible to imagine an amended Prohibition continuing long after 1933.

Would that have been more successful?
**Toner:** If there had been a more moderate approach towards scaling back Prohibition, making it less of a burden to the average American and concentrating resources on cracking down on the highest levels of organised crime, then we might have seen a more effective management of that process. If things like beer and light wine had been legalised during the course of Prohibition, even if spirits and other high-percentage alcohol drinks had remained illegal, that really would have reduced the market that organised crime had to sell to. I strongly think that had those changes towards the legalisation, particularly of beer and wine, been taken in the Twenties, Prohibition would have continued for a very long time.

Was there a turning point where Prohibition might not have been repealed?
**Blocker:** The turning point probably came in the late Twenties after Herbert Hoover’s election as US president in 1928. He created a commission to look at Prohibition, the Wickersham Commission, and if that had recommended modifying Prohibition that could well have been a turning point. But by that point the main Prohibitionist organisation, the Anti-Saloon League, was in extreme disarray, although there were a lot of people who continued to support national Prohibition, so there could have been a political firestorm had they recommended modifying it.

**Toner:** In the mid-to-late Twenties there were continued attempts to try to persuade the government to introduce changes to the Volstead Act so that things like beer and wine could be legalised. But members of the ‘dry’ lobby, particularly led by the Anti-Saloon League, completely refused to countenance any changes whatsoever, either to the Volstead Act or to the 18th Amendment. It’s really that intransigence and unwillingness to compromise in any way that pushes the two camps, pro-Prohibition and pro-repeal, into completely opposite positions.

How would the economy have fared if Prohibition had remained unchanged?
**Toner:** It’s possible that there may have been a very entrenched period of depression in the Thirties that Prohibition contributed to. From the Fifties onwards there might have been a positive effect in terms of greater worker Act or to the 18th Amendment. It’s really that intransigence and unwillingness to compromise in any way that pushes the two camps, pro-Prohibition and pro-repeal, into completely opposite positions.

“If anything, continued Prohibition would have helped to cement that [economic] depression”

How would it be different?

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**Real timeline**

- **18th Amendment**
  The 18th Amendment to the Constitution of the United States is ratified, prohibiting the production, transport and sale of alcohol. The country will go dry later that year. **16 January 1919**

- **Prohibition struggles**
  With resources stretched, the government struggles to successfully police Prohibition laws, allowing criminal alcohol gangs to grow in wealth and power. **1921-1928**

- **Decision on Prohibition**
  The Wickersham Commission must make its decision on whether Prohibition should be modified or tackled with more enforcement to combat crime. **6 January 1931**

- **Wickersham Commission**
  Hoover establishes the Wickersham Commission to study the effects of Prohibition and suggest changes to lower crime levels. **20 May 1929**

- **The Great Depression**
  The Wall Street crash of October 1929 sends the US economy plummeting into a downturn. **October 1929**

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**Alternate timeline**

- **Enforcement of Prohibition begins**
  Over 1,500 federal Prohibition agents are tasked with enforcing the strict laws of the Volstead Act. **17 January 1920**

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32
productivity, higher levels of personal savings and so on. Those were major goals for the Prohibition campaigners before it was brought into force, but that simulating effect on the economy didn’t manifest itself in the Twenties to any great degree because of the knock-on effect of people going out of work, there being lower tax revenues coming in and so on. With the dire situation of the US economy in the midst of the Great Depression, if anything, continued Prohibition would have helped to cement that depression. What we have to think about is the temptation for more and more ordinary people to take a criminal path. If we are imagining an even further expansion of organised crime, then with that comes a greater need for the government to tackle organised crime. With the government having less and less resources in the midst of the Great Depression and having to spend ever-more on enforcement it doesn’t spell a happy picture for the economy.

Would a lack of repeal have encouraged attempts by other countries to bring in prohibition?
Blocker: A number of other countries and territories adopted forms of Prohibition during the early-20th century. There were various international Prohibitionist organisations at work, such as the World League Against Alcoholism, and I suspect the repeal of US Prohibition represented a real body blow to efforts to internationalise that reform. Without repeal, there may well have been an instance where Prohibition became more widespread around the world.

Would continued prohibition have affected the USA’s involvement in World War II?
Toner: The only thing that might have prevented that was an economic situation if Prohibition had continued and affected the economy very badly. But it’s widely believed that with World War II came an economic recovery because of all the additional opportunities for exporting and manufacturing goods and weaponry, and that probably still would’ve had that effect in the context of continued Prohibition. If anything a continued commitment to Prohibition might have enhanced the sense of the USA being able to export a kind of morale-idealised society to other parts of the world, that kind of evangalising undertone to US foreign policy might have actually been heightened by continued Prohibition.

States that voted to keep Prohibition, 1933

How long might Prohibition have lasted if it was not repealed in 1933?
Toner: If a more modified form of Prohibition had been introduced, it might have been gradually lifted according to provincial interests and be replaced by regulatory systems, in effect lifting Prohibition once its job had been done. An altered form of it could have lasted for decades, and in several states even now Prohibition is still effectively in force. But I think the Sixties or Seventies would probably have been the maximum life span for Prohibition in that modified form. If Prohibition had remained unchanged in its radical original version, it’s difficult to see how that would have survived for long. The mounting economic pressures, expansion of organised crime and generally being out of sync with the rest of the world on this issue would probably have brought itself to bear by the time of World War II. In terms of the economic demands of the US in the post-World War II era, it’s difficult to see how that kind of radical Prohibition could have survived.

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What was it like?

ENGLAND
1070

A nation bloodied and bruised by a conquering king, where the people were as concerned with ensuring they had food as with fighting their Norman ruler.

William the Conqueror had just won a bloody victory at Hastings against Harold Godwinson, the last Anglo-Saxon king of England, but if he thought the country was simply going to roll over following this and let a Norman be crowned king of England without opposition he was mistaken. Following his triumph William experienced serious resistance and it wasn't until more than two months after Hastings, on Christmas Day 1066, that he was declared king, after he had advanced on London and burnt a ring of fire around the city.

Large parts of his new domain remained resistant throughout his rule, but after the first five years of his reign he was confident enough to return to Normandy for long periods. At that time, England was a nation of rigid structure and hierarchy where the lords often ruled with an iron fist. Education, art and culture were limited and the grandest ambitions of most of the population were to ensure they did not go cold and hungry.

In 1070, William's process of placing Normans into positions of authority and power was well under way, although he did not change the feudal structure of the country significantly. By the time of his death his Domesday Book (completed in 1086), designed to let the king know if there were more taxes he could collect, provided invaluable information. By then, the Normans were firmly established in the country and would remain so.

Government

William spent the early part of his reign trying to consolidate his power by taking lands from those who had fought against him at Hastings and giving them to his own Norman supporters. England was governed as a feudal system at the time, where lords and large landowners held great power.

Military

William's conquering army remained mostly intact following his victory, and he would require it to put down a number of revolts and uprisings. In 1069, Harold and Canute of Denmark launched an attack on the Yorkshire coast. At first, the king's forces were swept aside but William's army regained control and burnt the city of York.

Art

There was very little art in this period but it is believed that the Bayeux Tapestry was made in this decade. The Tapestry is an embroidered cloth nearly 70 metres (230 ft) long and depicts the events leading up to the Norman conquest of England.

The Bayeux Tapestry has been described as one of the Norman's finest achievements.
Industry
England's industry was overwhelmingly agricultural. The most reliable information about this comes from the Domesday Book of 1086 which reveals that wheat was the most important arable crop over a third of England was covered in arable land.

Education
The vast majority of the population had no access or need for education as most worked the land. The Domesday book of 1086 reveals just how common work in the fields was and how children were expected to work from an early age. Churchmen were generally the most educated members of society.

Religion
England was a predominantly Catholic country that acknowledged the Pope's authority. William replaced most of the English-born bishops and abbots with Normans and brought bishops into the feudal military structure, which meant they had to provide a certain number of knights for him.

Society
Society was very hierarchical, with the king at the top, followed by his lords. Further down were different classes (such as the villein and the bordar, depending on how much land they owned). The serfs were at the bottom of the pile.

Like most of the rest of the world at this time, agriculture was England's main industry.

The Domesday Book of 1086 is an invaluable source of information.
At 8.18pm (GMT) on 20 July 1969, Americans Neil Armstrong and Buzz Aldrin became the first humans to land on the Moon. It is arguably mankind’s greatest accomplishment to date, but over 380,000 kilometres (240,000 miles) away, those people in NASA’s Mission Control Center at the Johnson Space Center in Houston, Texas, were celebrating out of relief as much as joy, having just overcome one of the most difficult and technical missions in human history. Inside Mission Control, computer engineer Jack Garman was at the heart of the celebrations, having just saved the mission from disaster minutes prior to the landing.

At the time of the Apollo 11 landing, Garman was very young in comparison to his colleagues. He’d joined NASA as a fresh-faced 21-year-old in 1966, straight out of college. Within just three years he had acclimatised himself with the workings of the computer that would power and control the Apollo 11 spacecraft, and on the day of the landing was tasked with watching over those computers to ensure the landing went without a hitch. These computers were rudimentary at best in nature, though and not easy to operate.

“It was strange, different, to have a system, a vehicle, that was run by computer. I mean, today even our cars are run by computers, but back then almost all the systems were analogue,” explains Garman as he tells us about his work in Mission Control: “They wanted a so-called expert in the control centre, so they gave me a council in the Apollo Guidance Computer support room and that’s where I spent a lot of time during most of the flights to the Moon.”

On the day of the landing, Mission Control was bustling and buzzing with hundreds of people: “During the landing itself I remember that when they got near the lunar surface, Buzz Aldrin made a call-out saying [softly]: ‘We’ve got dust now,’” Garman tells us. “The descent engine was firing up dust from the lunar surface. With all the simulations we’d been through it was kind of like a script, but he’d never made that call before! He didn’t follow the script! That was an awakening. I mean, you knew it was real, but still, wow! This is it, they’re about to land.”

It turns out though, that as they were preparing to land, unbeknownst to the astronauts, Garman had performed some vital preparations that would ensure the mission could continue and history would be made that night. Garman and his team were responsible for ensuring they could overcome any programme alarm that might be thrown up by the primitive computer, but one alarm still seemingly stumped some of the brightest minds ever assembled.

During one simulation prior to the landing a computer alarm came up, known as a ‘1202 alarm,’ which Garman and his team hadn’t seen before. His superior at the time, guidance officer Steve Bales, called for an abort. “Afterwards Gene Kranz, who was the flight director for the Apollo II landing, boy did he get mad,” explains...
Garman. "He was all over the simulation guys for putting in a simulation that caused an abort this close to the real flight. And the simulation guys said: 'Uh uh, wrongo bongo fella, you're supposed to recover from this.' After the debriefing, oh boy, did the fur fly."

Kranz told Garman to make sure he knew every possible programme alarm that could come up. So the young computer engineer studied them all and drew himself a cheat sheet he could refer to during the mission. It just so happened that Garman's diligence in doing his homework helped save the mission when it was just minutes away from landing.

During the mission, as Armstrong and Aldrin were descending to the lunar surface, an error reading came up that suggested the on-board computer was running over capacity, the same 1202 alarm that had come up during the simulation. As had been witnessed in the simulation, such a reading was a cause to abort the mission, as Aldrin and Armstrong would not be able to operate the Lunar Module if the computer was not working. Thanks to the flight director's insistence that he brushed up on programming alarms, Garman was the only person in the room who knew this alarm was no reason to abort the mission, and he quickly let his superiors know.

"I looked down at the cheat sheet, saw what [the alarm] was and told them it was okay," says Garman: "As long as there weren't other indications like that the computer was guiding the vehicle to turn upside down or something, we were go. And that's the call they made."

"But it was nerve-racking, there was still a couple of seconds when you're going from the Moon to Earth, and that's the same rate at which voice or radio transmission goes. So when the alarm happened we didn't hear Buzz Aldrin asking what it was for several seconds. And then take a few seconds to give a response and give it back to them, then for the CAPCOM [Capsule Communicator] to call up and say they were go, then add the reaction time for human beings, it was probably [in total] 19 or 20 seconds for the crew before they got a response from us, very nerve-racking. We know it's one of the reasons Armstrong lost track of where he was [above the Moon] because he wasn't looking out of the window. They didn't know where they had landed for quite a while after they touched down, probably in a large part due to the disturbing nature of these programme alarms."

Just a few seconds later, though, Apollo 11 did indeed land safely. As Aldrin and Armstrong celebrated, so...
“As long as there weren’t other indications like that the computer was guiding the vehicle to turn upside down or something, we were go”

too did everyone back in Mission Control on Earth. “I remember Kranz had to calm everybody down, get back to your seats, it’s time to go through the landing checklist, and get everything safe and get them ready to get out and all that jazz,” says Garman. “It was a very, very euphoric kind of atmosphere, by jove, we actually did it, they actually landed on the Moon.”

Garman describes the mood in Mission Control at the time of the landing as eerie. “What I mean is it’s like being an actor in a play,” he explains. “You go through a lot of rehearsals and dress rehearsals, and then there’s actually opening night. When that curtain goes up there’s a real audience out there and it’s a different feeling. It’s eerier. And that’s as close as I can get to describing what I mean by eerie. When you have been through the procedures and lots of simulated problems, and you’ve been through vehicle tests where you’re watching the real vehicle on the launchpad and then you actually do it for the first time, and they actually land, you go wow, this is something. That’s what I mean by eerie. Not eerie in a sense of unreal, but eerie in the feeling it gave. It was very real, for sure.”

It was an incredibly proud achievement for Garman and his colleagues. “I think that any time you can be in a job where you feel like you’re higher up on the triangle - and I don’t mean that in a superior way - but you’re not in a factory building stuff or supplying food, you’re not even in education providing teaching, but you may actually be helping to further the knowledge of the human race in some way, you can feel good about that. I certainly did. We certainly did. And to be in that kind of a job and to have the excitement and risk and adventure that goes with it, it’s a very self-fulfilling feeling. It was pretty easy to be dedicated and tenacious, spend way too much time at work, that kind of thing. I was very proud to have been part of that, and I was proud to have been part of the on-board computer for the Space Shuttle as well, and for everything else I did for NASA.”

For Garman, Apollo 11 was an experience of a lifetime that will remain one of mankind’s greatest achievements in the history books. “I doubt that sort of accomplishment will be repeated, at least not in my lifetime. I think apart from putting a human being on Mars or something like that, that’s a ways away. Even going back to the Moon or going to an asteroid, even if that happens, it won’t be quite the same as the first time. It never is.”

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Origins and aftermath
The Apollo 11 lunar landing was the culmination of the space race between the USA and the Soviet Union that had begun with the Soviets launching the world’s first satellite, Sputnik 1, on 4 October 1957.

For much of the Sixties it had seemed the Soviets were ahead due to the many ‘firsts’ they achieved, including the first human in space in 1961. But ultimately, the Soviets’ failure to build a capable manned lunar rocket saw USA claim victory. Five more lunar landings would take place before the Apollo programme was finished, but ultimately this competition would pave the way to cooperation in space exploration between the USA, USSR (now Russia) and other countries that we are still seeing the benefits of today, with programmes such as the International Space Station.

Launch of Apollo 17, the final mission of the Apollo lunar landing programme
Heroes & Villains

Jesse Owens

An athlete who fought poverty, discrimination and some of the best Olympians in the world to become the fastest man alive

Written by Chris Fenton

In 1936 Jesse Owens lined up alongside his competitors at the starting line for the 100 metres final at Berlin’s Olympia Stadium. A stunning 10.3 seconds later and he was the fastest man alive. As he stood on the victor’s podium the men around him gave the Nazi salute. Owens knew a black man winning gold in the 100 metres was an embarrassment to the Nazi officials standing around him, but he couldn’t have cared less as he looked at the stars and stripes hoisted into position and remembered the reason he became an athlete in the first place. He’d left his home and family in Cleveland, Ohio behind, suffered a grueling nine-day sea voyage from New York to Hamburg in third class and endured years of training to do one thing; become somebody.

Born in Oakville, Alabama in 1913, Owens’ family suffered the discrimination and segregation that thousands of other black families endured during this deeply intolerant period. Owens was expected to work to earn his keep and at a young age he was holding down jobs alongside going to school. In 1922, Owens’ father decided it would be best for his family to move north in search of jobs. The US Deep South with its racist intolerance gave families like the Owens very few opportunities to grow and thrive. They moved to Ohio in search of opportunity away from the poverty and racism of the former slave states.

Owens had always been a keen sportsman, enjoying baseball, but lacking any money for expensive sport equipment he took up athletics at his new school. He immediately shone on the track and his high school coach, Charles Riley, saw natural ability he had rarely seen in other students. He coached Owens in sprinting and long jump at the beginning of the school day so the young student could continue to work evening jobs and support his family. After winning the national high school championships, he was accepted into Ohio State University on a sports scholarship but once he got there reality quickly kicked in; he was not allowed to sleep in halls of residence with white students and he and other black students were forced to stay in a boarding house along the main street where no restaurants would serve them.

Despite the prejudices held within the town, Owens blossomed as a top athlete. College coach Larry Snyder tuned his technique, fixed his slow starts and made him run like a pro. He told his protegé to sprint using as little of his feet as possible so he could glide across the track. After his success at the Olympic tryouts in New York where he broke the world record, he said goodbye to his family, he was one of only 19 African-American athletes on the US Olympic team of over 350.

Owens broke the 100m world record before the Olympics in June 1936, at 10.2 seconds. The record would stand until 1956.

A culture of discrimination

Segregation
During the early stages of Owens’ career the US was deeply intolerant of African-Americans and other minority races. Segregation was the driving force of this discrimination, black people were not allowed to attend better funded whites-only schools, be allowed to walk into whites-only shops or even drink in whites-only bars.

Poverty in the Great Depression
Owens’ family was poor and since his father was a labourer the Great Depression hit his livelihood hard. They were forced to move from Oakville in Alabama to Cleveland in Ohio in search of work in what became known as the ‘great migration’ of poor Americans from the economically depressed southern states to the industrial north.

US politics
US politics, especially in the south, were tied up in the problem of segregation and the calls to end discrimination against black people through constant protests. Despite this increased pressure, politicians in Washington were reluctant to act since it would cost them precious votes from a white middle class fearful of militant civil-rights groups.

Black power
Throughout Owens’ career, black civil-rights groups became increasingly vocal about demands for justice and equality. Owens himself became affiliated with a number of pro-civil rights organisations, including some militant groups that did not reject violence as part of their struggle. FBI director Edgar Hoover even had a file on these associations and placed Owens under surveillance.

A changing world
With the outbreak of WWII and the devastation it brought, the old colonial empires of Europe died and USA emerged as the dominant western power. Owens became a peace ambassador for the world’s new superpower, spreading the ideals of freedom and liberty throughout the globe in the Fifties and Sixties.
When the gun fired he didn’t step heavy and remembered what his father told him: ‘Imagine you’re sprinting over a ground of burning fire’.

Owens came from a large family and had nine siblings that his mother and father struggled to support.
James Cleveland Owens is born into a family of nine brothers and sisters. He is the youngest and his mother and father struggle to make ends meet and support their large family. He was born into a society in which black people did not have the right to vote or other fundamental rights.

**12 September 1913**

James gets his name

When Owens enrols in his new school in Cleveland he answers the register ‘JC’ for James Cleveland. Due to his southern accent, the teacher thinks he says ‘Jesse’ and the name sticks.

**1922**

The Great Migration

Owens’ family move from Oakville, Alabama to Cleveland, Ohio to look for better opportunities for work. They are part of a million-strong movement of people migrating from the southern US.

**1922**

Student champion

Owens astonishes the nation when he matches the Olympic record for the 100 metres sprint and long jump during the 1933 national high school championships.

**22 April 1933**

College years

9 October 1933

After achieving record-breaking times in the national high school championships, Owens is given his pick of colleges to attend on scholarship. He chooses Ohio State University despite not gaining a scholarship to go there and therefore has to work various part-time jobs in order to support himself and his wife Ruth. He wins a number of awards for his athletics and achieves national recognition for his accomplishments, putting him in line for the 1936 Olympics and the possibility to project his new country (and himself) onto a worldwide scale and receive international recognition.

Despite doubts from the International Olympics Committee about the suitability of Nazi Germany hosting the games, Hitler was determined preparations would be ‘complete and magnificent’ in order to showcase the dominance of the Nazi state. The head of the Reich Sports Office, Hans von Tschammer, said the physical demands of the Olympics would be an excellent way of, “weeding out the weak, Jewish and other undesirables.”

In preparation, Hitler ordered all people of Jewish and Roma descent ineligible for participation in the Olympics and made sure all athletes engendered the Nazi credo of racial purity. In response, Jewish political groups in the US fought for a boycott and some Jewish athletes from Europe and USA refused to participate in protest of Nazi tyranny. There was even an attempt by French, British and Czechoslovakian pressure groups to organise an alternative games in Barcelona, but nothing ultimately came of this ambitious plan. When the games got underway and non-white athletes like Owens began to win medals over the supposedly superior Aryan competitors, Hitler was forced to leave the stadium in order to avoid shaking their hands or congratulating them in front of the watching crowd and the eyes of the world.

The German athletes selected to compete emphasised the Nazi ideal of racial purity, men like Erich Bockmeyer, 1.8-metre (six-foot) tall, muscular, Germanic-looking and had held world records for running. When the 100 metres final got underway, Owens crouched onto the starting blocks and forgot about the other athletes around him. When the gun fired he didn’t step heavy and remembered what his father told him: “Imagine you’re sprinting over a ground of burning fire.” He put as little weight as possible on his feet and almost tip-toed to the finish line. The training paid off and he quickly accelerated ahead of the pack and won his first gold medal. Much to Hitler’s dismay, Owens’ victories did not end there, as he also won gold in the long jump, 100-metre relay and 200 metres, in which he also broke the world record with a time of 20.7 seconds. He was the only male US athlete to win multiple golds across different events.

He was a star.

The award ceremonies involving Owens and other black athletes were steeped in controversy. Hitler
His college coach Larry Snyder tuned his technique, fixed his slow starts and made him run like a pro. Did not attend, even though he shook hands with other champions in events before the 100 metres final. Owens was told Hitler had an urgent appointment. He knew it was political. As Owens won medals, pressure mounted on Hitler to show his face at the award ceremonies. In the end the Olympic committee told him he would have to attend all or none of them. He chose the latter and in private he was furious, screaming to an aide: “These Americans should be ashamed of themselves, letting Negroes win their medals. I shall not shake hands with any of them, letting Negroes win their medals.”

In order to raise money to support his family, Owens raced horses in foreign countries for entertainment.

Defining moment
The Berlin Olympics 1 August 1936
At the high point of his athletics career, Owens is selected to represent his country at the Berlin Olympic Games. The games are already steeped in controversy even before he sets foot in Nazi Germany, as many minority groups call on world powers to boycott the games because of the Nazis’ racist policies. Owens is determined to compete like he never has done before and win gold for his country. He competes in track and long jump competitions and goes on to win four gold medals in the 100 metres, 200 metres, relay and long jump events. Hitler refuses to shake his hand by excusing himself from the stadium when Owens is awarded his medals.

Owens was no fool; he knew Nazi Germany would never accept him as their equal. The biter pill he had to swallow was when he returned home and realised that neither would America. Despite the ticker-tape parade in New York and the fame from the national press he was still a black man living in the Thirties. After the parade he was refused service in all hotels in the city apart from The Pennsylvania but only on the condition that he used the service lift. In Owens’ own words: “When I came back to my native country, after all the stories about Hitler, I couldn’t ride in the front of the bus.” He and his fellow athletes had been treated like ‘trained seals’ by the Amateur Athletics Union (AAU), they had gone on tour before they came home, appearing at events in Europe where the athletes were forced to sleep in aircraft hangers because the AAU refused to pay for hotels. When he finally came home, Owens was penniless but the commercial deals he was being offered on a daily basis would allow him to support his family. The AAU told him flatly that he wasn’t allowed to accept them and that he had to ‘do what he was told.’ Shocked and angered at the way he was being treated, he took the deals anyway and was stripped of his amateur status.

He found the commercial money quickly dried up after he turned his back on amateur athletics. By the end of the Thirties he was one of the most famous Americans alive, yet he was desperately poor. In an effort to raise money he started his own dry-cleaning business but it quickly folded. He then did celebrity appearances and founded a baseball league, but still it was not enough. So he decided to turn himself into a fairground attraction and race whatever his employers told him to, including horses. Despite critics saying it was below an Olympiad’s dignity to sell himself as a circus act Owens felt he had no choice. He found steady employment during World War II through the US government, running fitness clinics and showing off his physical prowess to keep up morale at home. When the war ended he broke his speed record, running 100 yards (91 metres) in 9.7 seconds during a baseball game in 1950. At the age of 37 he was still dubbed the ‘greatest track man of the past 50 years.’

Owens’ celebrity never completely waned and in the rock-and-roll years of the Fifties, when an offer came through to go on a goodwill trip to Berlin, he jumped at the chance. In the 15 years since he had last been there, Berlin had changed dramatically. Bombs had decimated the city and the only way into the Olympic stadium was via army helicopter. When he set foot inside the stadium he was met with thunderous applause; the racial prejudice had been replaced with acceptance. He addressed the crowds and spoke of liberty for all, proclaiming: “Stand fast with us in the fight for freedom and democracy.”

As the United States government and its people moved on from segregation laws and inequality, Owens finally gained the recognition he deserved. In 1976, president Gerald Ford awarded him the Presidential Medal of Freedom, the highest US civilian honour. Owens had come a long way since the small Alabama boy left his home with his family for better opportunities in 1922. In the words of his wife Ruth: “Jesse was not an angry or bitter man. He didn’t hate anyone... he just wanted to make something of himself.” He died four years later, his place cemented as one of the greatest sportsmen the world has ever seen.

Owens won gold in the long jump at the 1936 Olympic Games.

In recognition of his service to his country and the world of sport, American president Gerald Ford awards Owens the Presidential Medal of Freedom, the highest civilian honour in the United States. 1976.

Owens becomes a national hero and is awarded a ticker-tape parade when he returns home, but is still poor. He takes money from commercial organisations, leading the Amateur Athletics Union to strip him of his amateur status, preventing him from competing at amateur events. 24 August 1936.

Owens is convicted of tax evasion. This comes after Owens publicly supports the fight for civil rights. August 1956.

Owens is convicted of tax evasion, a crime that carries a hefty jail sentence. He apologises for his inability to keep track of his finances and pays his tax bill, avoiding a prison sentence. 1 February 1966.

Owens dies of late-stage lung cancer caused by his excessive smoking habits since his teenage years. His legend as a top Olympiad lives on to this very day. 31 March 1980.
Rich in architecture and cultural heritage, Rome's famous Spanish Square has attracted the creative and the powerful in its lifetime.

**01 Building French Power in Rome**
Louis XII commissioned the Trinita dei Monti after his successful invasion of Naples at the end of the 16th century. Like many buildings in the area, it served to demonstrate superiority, in this case of the French monarchy, which officially endorsed it.

**02 Linking two European powers**
The path leading from the Trinita dei Monti is known as the Spanish Steps because of its proximity to the Spanish Embassy of the Holy See, which provided the country close access to the Pope. With the French church at their top and the Piazza di Spagna at the bottom, the steps were built in the 18th century and funded by the French government as part of a wider political rivalry with its old enemy Spain, making the steps' modern nickname somewhat ironic.

**03 The death of a poet**
On 15 November 1820 English Romantic poet John Keats arrived in Rome under the grip of tuberculosis. He and companion Joseph Severn stayed at the Piazza using the money from his recent publications. His health was in rapid decline and he admitted to 'leading a posthumous existence.' He died in Rome on 23 February 1821 and was buried in the city's Protestant Cemetery.
The great Tiber floods and that boat
The Fontana della Barcaccia, literally meaning ‘the fountain of the old boat’, was commissioned by Pope Urban VII in the 17th century. It commemorates one particularly large flood of the Tiber, during the winter of 1598, when a large boat is supposed to have come to rest in the middle of the Piazza. As he lay on his deathbed, poet John Keats said he could hear the soft sound of the fountain’s flowing water.

A NEW DOGMA FOR THE FAITHFUL
The Column of the Immaculate Conception was dedicated to the Catholic dogma of the Virgin Mary’s immaculate conception, espoused by Pope Pius IX on 8 December 1854. The statue of Mary is 19th-century, while the column itself is ancient Roman.

A VERY ENGLISH TEAROOM
Founded in 1893, Babington’s tearooms have survived two world wars and were even frequently visited by high-ranking members of Mussolini’s Fascist regime, despite being a foreign establishment.

The Piazza di Spagna has long been a centre of culture and tourism in the Eternal City, with numerous poets, artists and young noblemen visiting over the years. Like much of the rest of Rome, the rich architecture found here is a testament to the location’s importance to the rest of the European powers, and the eagerness of governments to assert their authority at the centre of the Christian world. Today the Piazza is still a popular destination for foreign tourists and a famed shopping destination, attracting tourists from all over the world. The Spanish Steps and the Trinita dei Monti complete one of the most popular and recognisable spots in all of Rome.

Based here for over 100 years, the Collegio San Giuseppe was attended by the poet Trilussa and was also, like many Catholic schools in the city, used to shelter Jews fleeing Nazi Germany.

The Column of the Immaculate Conception was dedicated to the Catholic dogma of the Virgin Mary’s immaculate conception, espoused by Pope Pius IX on 8 December 1854. The statue of Mary is 19th-century, while the column itself is ancient Roman.

SURREalist inspiration
Neo-classical artist Giorgio de Chirico moved onto the Piazza in 1948. Already a well-known and controversial artist, he remained based in Rome until his death in 1978.

The European legacy
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Neo-classical artist Giorgio de Chirico moved onto the Piazza in 1948. Already a well-known and controversial artist, he remained based in Rome until his death in 1978.
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The king died quickly, his white robes soaked red. The laughter and rejoicing of a royal marriage – the wedding of his daughter – had quickly turned to screams and wails of lament as Pausanias, a member of the king's personal guard, turned on his master, driving a dagger between his ribs. Tripping on a vine as he fled the scene for his getaway horse, the assassin was brutally stabbed to death by the furious spears of pursuing guards. Philip II died as he had lived: awash with blood and surrounded by intrigue. His legacy would leave bloody footprints across the whole of Central Asia and the Middle East.

Over a 23-year reign from 359 to 336 BCE, the king of Macedon – a mountainous land overlapping modern northern Greece, Albania, Bulgaria and Macedonia – had gone from ruler of a barbarous backwater of tribal highlanders to the overlord of the fractious Greek kingdoms and city-states. Bringing his rival monarchs in line through war, military alliance and marriage, Philip II had reformed the Macedonian army into one of the most feared fighting forces in the ancient world, with a view to bloodying their most hated foes, the Achaemenid Empire of Persia, which had humbled and humiliated the Greeks in the Greco-Persian Wars a century earlier. Aged just 20, Alexander III of Macedon – soon to be remembered as Alexander the Great – took the throne as the head of a military machine on the brink of war and legendary status, and gleefully drove it full throttle over the edge.

Like so many civilisations before and after them, the Ancient Greeks loved to gossip. Philip's death, they said, was an act of revenge from his scorned lover Pausanias, but two other people immediately benefited: Olympias, mother of Alexander and once-favoured wife of Philip, had been in danger of losing her status to a younger...
Becoming king of Macedon after his father’s murder, Alexander led the Greeks into war against the powerful Persian Empire. With charisma and cunning, he led from the frontline to create an empire that stretched from Libya to India, creating a new golden age for Hellenic culture.

Greek, 356-323 BCE

ALEXANDER THE GREAT

Brief Bio

Becoming king of Macedon after his father’s murder, Alexander led the Greeks into war against the powerful Persian Empire. With charisma and cunning, he led from the frontline to create an empire that stretched from Libya to India, creating a new golden age for Hellenic culture.
bride; and Alexander himself, who promptly executed all other contenders for the crown and crushed rebellions across Greece. Olympias, too, set about consolidating her power, having Cleopatra Eurydice, her replacement as consort to the dead king, and her baby daughter burned alive.

The dubious heroes of myth were Alexander’s own blueprint for greatness. With legendary figures on both sides of the family tree, it was hard not to be convinced of his own special destiny. His father’s bloodline claimed descent from Hercules - the son of Zeus and bull-wrestling demigod of Twelve Labours fame - while his mother’s family looked up to Achilles, the all-but-invulnerable champion of the fabled Siege of Troy. Omens and portents prefigured every decision, but as much as this ambitious new king gave every appearance of being a slave to destiny - looking for meaning in flights of birds and consulting oracles at every turn - he steered destiny himself, consciously building a legend that would lift his accomplishments well beyond those of his father and into the same world of the legendary journeys and heroic battles that had once inspired him. In just shy of a decade, he crushed the life out of the once-mighty Persian state and expanded the borders of his domain from Libya to India to create a mighty empire.

Fittingly, this conquest began with some mythical brand management. Picking up where Philip II’s army of invasion had been poised, Alexander crossed the Dardanelles - the narrow channel connecting the Black Sea to the Mediterranean, and Europe from Asia Minor - in early 334 BCE with 47,000 soldiers and mercenaries from across Macedon and the Greek kingdoms. Leaping from his warship in full ceremonial armour, vast plumed helmet and golden breastplate, the emperor-to-be sent a spear whistling through the air to crash into the undefended soil of Asia Minor. It was the first blow in a war that would claim for Alexander over 200,000 square miles of land and leave between 75,000 and 200,000 dead.

The coastline of what is now Turkey was littered with Greek cities ruled by the Persian invaders, and of them Troy had particular significance for Alexander. The alleged site of his maternal ancestor Achilles’ most celebrated victory and tragic death, Alexander carried with him on his journey the story of the Trojan War, Homer’s epic Iliad (a gift from his tutor Aristotle), and quoted from it often. First, he had the tomb of Achilles opened so he could pay tribute, then riding to a nearby temple of Athena, the Greek goddess of wisdom, the Macedon king was shown what they claimed were the weapons of Achilles. There, he took down a shield, replacing it with his own. Alexander wasn’t merely content sharing a fanciful familial association with Achilles; he wanted to rival him, visiting this site of bloodshed and heroism, and taking the mantle of one of Ancient Greece’s greatest heroes.

Was it a propaganda stunt that spurred on his army, or did he believe it? His fierce pragmatism and ambition would suggest both - a dangerous and unpredictable combination that made him one of the battlefield’s most iconic generals.

First meeting the Persians in battle in 334 BCE, Alexander quickly established a formula for swift and decisive victory at the Battle of the Granicus, just outside of his beloved Troy. Leading from the front ranks, a feint drew the stronger Persian units and their battle-hardened Greek mercenaries out, spreading their line thin and allowing Alexander’s cavalry to hammer through their scattered ranks. He was welcomed as a liberator by the Greek subjects of Asia Minor, and endeavoured to win over the local population too. Claiming to distrust tyrants, he appointed local rulers and allowed them relative independence, but with a new centralised tax system he ensured their autonomy was reliant upon his handouts.

With Persia’s control of the vast expanse of Asia Minor resting on its superior navy, Alexander opted to scatter his own vessels rather than fight a sea war he couldn’t win, and marched down the coast to take the enemy’s largest naval port, Halicarnassus – now Bodrum in Turkey – by land, forcing his way through the walls until the Persians
BATTLE OF THE GRANICUS (334 BCE)
Alexander’s first victory against the Persian Empire

The first real clash between Persian troops and Alexander’s newly minted invasion force remains the best example of his signature battle tactic. Using heavy cavalry to prise apart the weakest part of the enemy line while his finely drilled infantry kept the bulk of the enemy tangled up on their spears, it relied upon the professionalism of Macedon’s army, as well as the unique talents of its core units. It showed that Alexander knew how best to use the forces that his father had amassed.

1. Mind games
The Persians expect the thrust of the attack to come from Alexander’s right flank and his feared Companion Cavalry, so deploy more units on that flank.

2. Feint
Alexander’s Thessalian cavalry and pikemen feint from the left. The Persians reinforce the line from the centre to drive them back.

3. Attack
Alexander and his Companion Cavalry then smash through the weakened centre of the Persian lines in wedge formation.

4. Cavalry charge
Alexander’s cavalry charge sweeps left and into the flanks of the Persians, who are locked in battle with his phalanx and cavalry.

5. Persian retreat
More Greek pikemen pour through in the wake of Alexander’s charge and into the Persian infantry. The Persians begin to withdraw.

The Battle of the River Granicus, in which Alexander secured his first victory over the Persian Empire.
had to abandon their own city. After passing through Cappadocia with scarcely any resistance thanks to incompetent local governors in 333 BCE, Darius III, the Persian Shahanshah – king of kings – could stomach this embarrassment no longer, and with an army that outnumbered the Greeks by two to one, confronted Alexander at the Battle of Issus. Were the king to fail here then Darius’ army would be able to link up with his powerful navy and Alexander’s whole campaign, resting as it did on his thin line of victories down the coast, would be wiped out and all dreams of Greek civilisation free from the menaces of its aggressive Eastern neighbour would spill out into the dust like so much wasted Macedonian blood. At Issus, like many battles before and after, Alexander rode up and down his ranks of assembled men to deliver an address worthy of heroes, playing on old glories and grudges. “He excited the Illyrians and Thracians by describing the enemy’s wealth and treasures, and the Greeks by putting them in mind of their wars of old, and their deadly hatred towards the Persians,” wrote the historian Justin in the 3rd century CE. “He reminded the Macedonians at one time of their conquests in Europe, and at another of their desire to subdue Asia, boasting that no troops in the world had been found a match for them, and assuring them that this battle would put an end to their labours and crown their glory.”

With shock etched upon his face, Darius fled the battlefield as the Greek charge cut through his ranks like a scythe, with Alexander at its head, crashing straight through the Persian flanks and then into their rearguard. With their king gone they began a chaotic and humiliating retreat. With only one Persian port left - Tyre, in what is now Lebanon - and the hill fort of Gaza in modern Palestine both falling in 332 BCE, the thinly stretched Achaemenid defences west of Babylon quickly crumbled or withdrew before the relentless march of Alexander.

Unexpectedly, he then turned his attention not east toward the enemy’s exposed heart, but west in the direction of Egypt and Libya. They, like the Greek colonies of Asia Minor, would welcome him as a saviour. With no standing army and whole swathes of the country in the hands of Egyptian rebels, the Persian governor handed over control of the province outright. The last set of invaders had disrespected their gods, so perhaps the Egyptians were keen to take advantage of Alexander’s vanity and safeguard their faith by placing this new warlord right at the heart of it. Maybe, too, Alexander had seen how illusionary Persian authority was in Egypt, and wanted to try a different tack. He may have been one of the world’s greatest generals, but he knew the sword was not the only path to acquiring new territory.

Riding out to the famous Oracle of Amun – the Egyptian answer to Zeus – at the Siwa oasis, Alexander was welcomed into the inner sanctum of this ancient temple, an honour usually afforded only to the ordained priests of Amun, while his entourage was forced to wait in the courtyard. The exact details of Alexander’s exchange with the Oracle remain a mystery, but the end result was unambiguous. Alexander was now more than merely a hero of legend. Even the myth of Achilles reborn could scarcely contain his ambition, and he declared himself the son of Zeus. His worship spread across Egypt, where he was raised to the rank of Pharaoh. This didn’t sit well with Alexander’s countrymen, but here at least, the king didn’t push it.

“Alexander bore himself haughtily towards the barbarians,” recalled the army’s official historian Plutarch, “and like one fully persuaded of his divine birth and parentage, but with the Greeks it was within limits and somewhat rarely that he assumed his ‘haughtiness’, Alexander had been raised on tales of the Egyptian gods from his mother, and Greeks - the philosopher Plato among them – had long journeyed to this ancient land to study in what they regarded as the birthplace of civilisation. Standing amid the great pyramids and temples, the 25-year-old Alexander either saw around him an ancient power to be held in great respect or feats of long-dead god-kings that he had to better.

The result was the city of Alexandria, planned in detail by the king, from wide boulevards and great temples to defences and plumbing. Construction began in 331 BCE, and it remains the second-largest city and largest seaport in Egypt, linking the king’s new world to his old one, both by trade across the Mediterranean and by culture. In making Alexandria the crossroads between two great civilisations, a great centre of learning where Greek and Egyptian religion, medicine, art, mathematics and philosophy could be bound together was created, and the city came to symbolise the

“The power-drunk Alexander burnt the palace to the ground in, it is believed, retaliation for the sack of Athens”
better aspects of Alexander's nature, his desire for education and learning and his patronage. Darker days, though, lay ahead.

Like an angel of death, Alexander turned from his 'liberation' of the Achaemenid Empire's downtrodden subjects and drove east with a vengeance. Now in the belly of the beast, Alexander's less heroic qualities were beginning to show themselves with greater regularity – an arrogance, cruelty and obsessive drive that had he failed in his conquest, would have been remembered as the madness of a tyrant rather than the drive of a king.

Breaking out of a pincer movement to defeat Darius again at the Battle of Gaugamela in 331 BCE, Alexander seized Babylonia. Provincial rulers loyal to the humiliated king of kings promptly surrendered. With his authority crumbling, Darius was stabbed by one of his generals, Bessus, and left by the roadside, where pursuing Greek scouts found him in 330 BCE. Overcome with pity – and perhaps respect for this foe they had chased across mountains and deserts – they offered the dying king of kings water from a nearby spring. In declaring himself Shahanshah, Bessus's throne was
1. Companion cavalry
Strengths
Well trained, wedge formation made turning easier, heavy bronze armour.
Weaknesses
Vulnerable to tightly packed infantry.

How did Alexander deploy them?
Led by Alexander personally, the Companion Cavalry were the unstoppable knights of Macedonia. Usually stationed on the right flank, they would punch through the enemy lines with their xyston lances and then wheel round to charge the rear.

2. Thessalian Cavalry
Strengths
Well trained, diamond formation for manoeuvrability, variety of weapons.
Weaknesses
Lighter armour than most heavy cavalry.

How did Alexander deploy them?
Similar to the Companion Cavalry, the Thessalian Cavalry’s lighter armour and shorter spears and javelins made them an effective defensive unit. Stationed on the left flank, they could go where they were needed to see off any attackers.

3. Hoplites
Hoplites were the basic foot soldier of the Greek states.
Strengths
Versatile and adaptable.
Weaknesses
Low training, light armour.

How did Alexander deploy them?
Hoplites were the citizen men-at-arms of the other Greek states and one of the army’s main cornerstones. Versatile but not necessarily as well-trained or heavily armoured as other units, Hoplites were placed behind the phalanx to prevent the army being encircled.

4. Phalanx
Strengths
The phalanx formation is devastating against cavalry, well trained and fast moving.
Weaknesses
Vulnerable in the flanks and rear, lightly equipped.

How did Alexander deploy them?
Created by Alexander’s father the well-drilled and fast-moving pikemen fought in the dreaded Macedonian phalanx with their 18-foot sarissa lance. Deployed in the centre of the battle line, the phalanx could rush forward to tie down enemy cavalry or infantry.

5. Hypaspists
The Hypaspists were Alexander’s close-quarter shock troops.
Strengths
Versatile close combat specialists, well-trained veterans.
Weaknesses
Vulnerable to cavalry and massed infantry.

How did Alexander deploy them?
Macedonia’s elite commandos, the Hypaspists carried large round shields, thrusting spears and swords, and were placed on the flank of the Foot Companions for their protection. Devastating in closed spaces.
Failure could have left Alexander’s Persia divided between the Macedonian king and usurper Bessus, vulnerable to revolt and invasion from central Asia. Despite a rare crushing defeat in the bloody bottleneck of the Persian ambush, Alexander was able to make use of local knowledge, as well as his hardy skirmishers and turn the wild terrain in his favour, ambushing the Persians in turn and decimating them with his two forces. Historians have called the victory ‘complete’ and ‘decisive’ and it left him able to take the ancient capital of Persepolis unopposed and claim its massive wealth for himself. On leaving the city he burnt it to the ground.

Left: A painting showing Alexander the Great and his forces battling an Indian army.

6. Light cavalry

Strengths
Easily replaced, some horse archers.

Weaknesses
Variable equipment and training, light armour of leather or linen.

How did Alexander deploy them?
A combination of lighter armed and armoured cavalry from the other Greek states and local horsemen conscripted in Asia. Deployed dependant on weapons and training, Alexander came to rely on them as the traditional Greek heavy cavalry dwindled.

a fiction, and only a handful of frontier provinces remained in the usurper’s blood-slick hands. The once glorious Persian Empire, for 220 years the largest in the ancient world, had died by the roadside, humiliated and betrayed. Taking the capital Persepolis after a last-ditch attempt to hold back the Greeks at a narrow pass called the Persian Gates, the power-drunk Alexander burnt the great palace to the ground in, it is believed, retaliation for the Persian sack of Athens in 480 BCE. Casting the first torch into the building himself, looting and burning spread across the city. Priests were murdered and Persian women forced to marry his soldiers. Zoroastrian prophecy had foretold ‘demons with dishevelled hair, of the race of wrath’ and now, Persia’s holy men realised, the demons were here.

As his predecessor Darius had been, Bessus was chased down by the ferocious and dogmatic Alexander into what is now Uzbekistan and Afghanistan. Across deserts with little supplies, Alexander rode along his lines, picking up men who fell and lifting their spirits. A charismatic leader even against the backdrop of the bloodiest of campaigns, he had the power to inspire his weary soldiers. A charismatic leader even against the backdrop of the bloodiest of campaigns, he had the power to inspire his weary soldiers. Eventually, Bessus’ support collapsed. With no army worth a damn, he had been forced to burn crops and stores before the Greek advance in a last-ditch attempt to slow Alexander’s terrible pursuit. Fittingly for the betrayer of the last Shahanshah, his own men handed him over to the Greeks. His nose and ears were cut off at Alexander’s command, and he was sent back to Persia in chains to be impaled, the Persian punishment for traitors.

This rampage across Persia and her furthest fringes wasn’t the first time Alexander’s determination had taken on a more murderous hue. In 334 BCE, he had marched his men into the sea up to their chins rather than turn back along the beach, only surviving because the tide began to change direction with the wind, and in 332 BCE this sheer bloody-mindedness joined forces with his ruthlessness at Tyre – the first of many appalling massacres. Refusing to surrender and believing their island fortress was impregnable from land, Alexander laid siege, blockaded the port from the Persian navy and over seven months built a causeway from the mainland to the city – an incredible feat of engineering that allowed his catapults to come within range of the city. Tyre was soon breached, and Alexander’s fury fell upon the city’s population. Of the 40,000 inhabitants of Tyre, 2,000 were crucified on the beach, 4,000 were killed in the fighting, a handful were pardoned, and over 30,000 sold into slavery.

This act of impossible engineering and bloody vengeance was later repeated in northern India at the Battle of Aornos in 327 BCE, where the crossing of a mountain ravine by improvised wooden bridge – built over seven days and seven nights – was followed by the massacre of the tribal Aśvakas. Welcoming Alexander with open arms, the Greek-speaking Branchidae were set upon when it became known their ancestors had collaborated with the Achaemenids, while other defenders were murdered because they surrendered too late, or been promised safe passage to lure them from behind their walls and into the spears of the Macedonian phalanx. Like arterial spray on armour, growing accounts of sackings, burnings, enslavement and murder pepper the record of Alexander in gore. It seemed like the further he got from home, the darker his deeds became.

While the rewards of conquest – plunder, wives, riches and glory – had been great, the Greeks were
beginning to tire not just of this endless war that had taken them further and further from home, but Alexander’s increasing pretensions. This monarch, from Greece’s barbarian hinterland had begun to dress in Persian robes, train Persians for the army and insist on courtiers throwing themselves to the ground in the manner of subjects before the Persian king of kings – an affront to the dignity of the Greeks, who took pride in never bowing to their monarch. Either Cleitus wasn’t fully removed or escalating, those present quickly began bustling Cleitus from the room and tried to calm their monarch. Either Cleitus wasn’t fully removed or then returned, but having clearly passed the point of no return, continued to vent his spleen, until Alexander, finally grabbing hold of a javelin, threw it clean through the old warhorse’s heart.

Cleitus was one of the first to challenge the king, but he wasn’t the last. In 327 BCE, a plot against him was betrayed, and the conspirators – his own royal pages – stoned to death. Then, later that year he struck another body blow against his traditional supporters. Callisthenes, grand-nephew of Alexander’s tutor Aristotle and one of the many historians in Alexander’s retinue, had become increasingly critical of his delusions of grandeur, and taunted him with a line from his beloved Iliad

“A better man than you by far was Patroclus, and still death did not escape him.” In short – you’re no god, and you’ll die just like the rest of us. Alexander accused Callisthenes of collusion in the pages’ conspiracy, and had him put to death.

It was the beginning of the end. Convinced he was a god, it would be the needs of men that would bring the conquests of Alexander to heel. Adaman that they were at the edge of the world and expecting to see the great sea that the Ancient Greeks believed ringed their continent from which they could return home, Alexander pushed his increasingly mutinous army into India. Confronted with valley after valley of new lands to conquer and battles to wage, they drove on - winning a costly victory against 200 war elephants fielded by King Porus on the banks of the Indus River. Batterered and broken after 22,000 kilometres and eight years, monsoon season arrived and drenched the army in water and disease. Rumours also reached the camp that India was a bigger than they had previously heard, and contained armies even greater than that of Porus.

Alexander’s generals, mindful of the fate that had befallen other critics of their king, approached cautiously and appealed to his nobility. Coenus - one of Alexander’s most trusted commanders - implored him to let them return home to their families, saying so eloquently, “We have achieved
so many marvellous successes, but isn’t it time to set some limit? Surely you can see yourself how few are left of the original army that began this enterprise... Sire,” he concluded, “the sign of a great man is knowing when to stop.’

Reluctantly, the warrior king agreed. Building a temple to Dionysus on the riverbank and leaving the inscription ‘Alexander stopped here’, they built a fleet of flat-bottom ships and began a long voyage home. Alexander the Great’s conquest began with Homer’s Iliad as its guide – a tale of triumph and conquest – and ended with the Odyssey – a desperate voyage home.

There were more battles, tragedies and triumphs to come, and many would never see home thanks to the long-running battles with the Indian kingdoms they passed through on their way down the Indus River toward the Arabian Sea, from where they could sail to Persia’s southern coast. One battle in early 325 BCE against the Malhi people of Punjab nearly cost Alexander his life as a siege ladder collapsed behind him, leaving him stranded on enemy ramparts, with his bodyguard panicking below. Even with his dreams of ceaseless conquest doused like campfires before battle, Alexander fought fiercely until an arrow pierced his lung, his chronlers describing air escaping with the blood. Even with all Alexander had subjected them to, his army remained devoted to their monarch – believing him dead, they rampaged through the city, looting, killing and burning in retaliation. Patched up by his doctor, gaunt and unsteady, Alexander had to be sailed past his army while lined up on the riverbank before they would accept he was still alive.

With one force exploring the Persian Gulf, Alexander led the remnants of his army through what is now the Balochistan province of Iran – a sparsely populated landscape of arid mountains and desert. His men died in their hundreds, gasping for water, stumbling through the baking sands in their tattered sandals and blinking into the brilliant sun. By 324 BCE they had reached the Persian city of Susa, but back in the heart of the empire he had stolen, his trials continued – his childhood friend, stalwart general and, some historians have implied, lover Hephaestion died, and then in August the Macedonians in his army mutinied. The Macedonians he placated, but the grief he felt at the loss of “the friend I value with my own life” could not be so easily put right.

While his father died with dreams of a Persian conquest upon his lips, Alexander succumbed to a fever in 323 BCE with greater dreams still. Before his eyes poured the spears of the phalanx south into Arabia and west into Carthage and Rome. “Who shall lead us?” his followers whispered to their dying king. “The strongest,” he replied, and with his passing the great empire splintered.

In his tactical genius, charismatic leadership, enduring legacy and fanatical drive, Alexander was far removed as to be incomparable. He was never defeated in battle, partly because of his tactical skill, leadership and army, but also because he was prepared to pay a toll in human lives.

Tales of the Greek gods endure not just because they present an ideal of heroism and greatness, but because they were flawed beings – a soap opera on a cosmic scale. Like the squabbling deities of Mount Olympus, Alexander the Great was violent, vain, petty and cynical, and like them he overcame impossible odds and accomplished breathtaking feats through ingenuity, charisma, martial prowess and force of will. His example were venerated by emperors, tactics studied by leaders for over 2,000 years, and in the Middle East, tales of ‘Alexander the Cursed’s savagery are still told in the lands he wronged. For good and ill, the shadow he casts is still the stuff of legend.
“God himself could not sink this ship”

It was the first word in luxury travel but the Titanic disaster shook the world

Written by Andy Brown
At 12.15pm on 31 May, 1911, the largest ship that had ever been constructed was launched into the water for the first time, causing a not-inconsiderable wake in the River Lagan in Northern Ireland as all 52,000 tons of it entered the water. Over 20 tons of soap and candle wax were spread on the shipway to help lubricate the great beast’s entry into its natural habitat where, like a seal labouring on the land before gliding in the water, all of a sudden the great monster changed from an inert piece of metal into something imbued with grace and power.

Members of the press and tens of thousands of spectators were in attendance, with tickets actually being sold for the event. This was not just a national event, but something with international appeal; the unveiling of the largest ship ever to take to the water, the industrial marvel of its day.

The launch might have occurred without a champagne bottle smashing onto the bow of the ship, but this was a rare moment lacking in pomp. The chairman of White Star Line, the prominent British shipping company behind this new venture, J. Bruce Ismay, was in attendance as well as other important businessmen. This was an exciting time for the company as the Titanic – the name derived from Greek mythology meaning gigantic – was actually only one of three of their new Olympic-class ships that were designed to bring a new meaning to size and luxury when it came to sea travel. The other two ships – Olympic and Britannic – would, along with the Titanic, usher in a new age.

On the same day the Titanic was launched, the Olympic successfully finished its sea trials. A new age of sea travel had truly begun.

The Titanic was the flagship and the ship everyone clamoured to get a ticket to travel on; Titanic was the name on everyone’s lips. This last point would be realised, more so than the company could ever have wished, but for markedly different reasons, when the ship sunk in the cold and murky waters of the Atlantic Ocean and claimed with her the lives of over 1,500 souls.

The Titanic and her sister ships had been built by White Star Line to compete with the ship builders Cunard, which had built the fastest ships ever constructed. In the early-20th century, before air travel had entered its golden age and become available to others than only the super-rich, travel by the oceans was the main form of transport from country to country, and indeed, continent to continent. White Star Line decided to compete on not just speed but also on luxury and extravagance. Their new ships were forged in Queen’s Island in the industrial docklands of Belfast and no expense was spared – the estimated cost of the Titanic was $7.5 million (£4.6 million), an absolute fortune for the time.

The Titanic was constructed at the same time as the Olympic, with both ships taking around 26 months to make. It would be generous to even label the safety precautions as adequate, although to be fair to the makers of the ship, they were fairly standard for the time and injuries were probably
made worse due to the fact that no ship building of this size had been attempted before. Construction of the Titanic began in the spring of 1909 and was carried out by the men of Harland and Wolff, the firm given the mammoth task. During its construction just under 250 injuries were recorded, with 28 of these classified as 'severe', where limbs were severed by the gigantic cutting machinery or workers were crushed on the building site by stray pieces of metal. Official figures put the death count during the making of the ship at nine; these would not be the last deaths caused by the ship made to be the last word in luxury.

The docks at Southampton on 9 April 1912 were a flurry of activity; high-class gentlemen and ladies arrived in motorcars with servants carrying their luggage filled with the finest clothes, silent-film stars milled about and families looking for a new life and adventure on the other side of the world in the United States tried to control their excitable children from running around the deck. The ship may have been luxurious but it was financially unfeasible to fill a ship this size with only the upper class, so different-class tickets were available: A first-class ticket cost between £30 ($50) and £660 ($1,080) – or £1,875 ($3,060) to £41,000 ($67,000) in today's money. Second-class tickets were available from £12 ($20) – £750 ($1,230) in today's money, and buried out of sight in the bottom of the ship, a third-class ticket could be purchased from £3 ($5), which equals £190 ($310) today. The largest third-class cabins could hold ten passengers, a world away from the resplendent luxury of first class.

At 12pm the next day the passengers boarded the ship and its journey began. There were 2,223 people on board (1,324 passengers), of which there were 13 couples on their honeymoon. The journey almost got off to an inauspicious start when, after pulling away from Southampton docks, the wash from the giant ship's propeller caused a laid-up ship called New York to break from her moorings.
The unsinkable ship

15,000 bottles of ale, 8,000 cigars, 40,000 eggs, 36,000 apples and 57,000 pieces of crockery. The ship also carried 20 lifeboats, which was more than the law required but too few to safely evacuate all of the passengers on the world’s largest ship, with the lifeboats capable of holding approximately 1,178 people. However, this fact was not given much thought or care, and why should it have been? The Titanic was a triumph of modern technology.

It is unclear whether anyone ever explicitly referred to it as the ‘unsinkable ship’ but this sentiment was certainly the general feeling at the time. It has been reported that a Titanic crew member remarked to an embarking passenger: “God himself could not sink this ship!” Part of this
The unsinkable ship

confidence was that the ship's double-plated bottom and 16 watertight compartments designed to close if water entered them were believed to offer the utmost in security. Several years before he took command of the Titanic, Captain Smith was quoted as saying: “I cannot imagine any condition which would cause a ship to founder. I cannot conceive of any vital disaster happening to this vessel. Modern shipbuilding has gone beyond that.” This comment tragically sums up the overly confident attitude of the time.

With the voyage under way and the ship generally travelling full steam ahead, the ship’s two radio operators were busy. Senior operator John George Phillips and his junior, Harold Sydney Bridge, had agreed a system where the radio was operated for 24 hours a day. They also had one of the most powerful radio systems in the world, giving them a 640-kilometre (400-mile) transmission range with the large antennae between the two masts used to send and receive the messages. A large part of the radio operators’ job was to pass on and send messages from the crew and this responsibility – and perhaps pressure to keep some of their rich and privileged passengers content – contributed to the disaster.

Starting 11 April, the ship began to receive ice warnings from other ships further ahead of her in the voyage and by the time of the disaster they had received at least five warnings.

Perhaps the most striking of these both occurred on 14 April. First, the radio operators overheard an ice warning that was passed onto the bridge but was not brought to Captain Smith’s attention as he was at dinner. The second incident occurred when the ship Californian – which was approximately 32 kilometres (20 miles) from the Titanic - reported to the Titanic that she was blocked in by ice. Phillips, the radio operator on duty at the time, signalled back to tell him to stop bothering him, that he was busy. The Californian’s radio operator switched his radio off and went to bed. Less than an hour later the Titanic, rushing through the water at just under 23 knots (42km/h / 26mph) on the cold and clear evening collided with an iceberg.

Would things have been any different if the message had been passed onto the bridge and the captain? With the benefit of hindsight it seems like an astonishing neglect of duties by the radio operator. However, the captain and other senior members of the crew were well-aware of

Inside the Titanic

The ship had 20 boats, all located on the upper deck: 12 at the bow and 8 at the stern, capable of carrying a total of 1,178 people.

How the sinking unfolded

The rubbing of the iceberg against the hull created six cracks below the waterline, flooding five watertight compartments. If only four had been flooded, the ship would not have sunk.

How the collision happened

11.40pm

Just 37 seconds after sighting the iceberg and having tried to avoid it, the Titanic touched it at a speed of 22.5 knots (41.7km/h / 26mph).

90% submerged

The impact would create six large cracks in the submerged part of the bow hull.

2.20am

The stern rises vertically for a moment before sinking.

2.15am

Water floods the compartments and its weight sinks the prow.

The hull’s front part is detached.

109%

Pure luxury

The first-class decks had luxurious cabins, gyms, Turkish baths, cafés, à la carte restaurants, libraries and a squash court.

Boiler rooms

They were six, where each one had five boilers - except the sixth one, with only four - of almost 100 tons each.

11.40pm

The keel is subjected to tremendous pressure. The ship breaks.

How the sinking unfolded

The first-class decks had luxurious cabins, gyms, Turkish baths, cafés, à la carte restaurants, libraries and a squash court.

Lookout booth

Main staircase

Stern

Pure luxury

10%

The hull's front part is detached.

90%

submerged

À la carte restaurant

Decorated in Louis XIV-style furnishings and with an exquisite wooden paneling. The menu was designed by Auguste Escoffier, the most famous chef of that time.

Boiler rooms

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2.20am

The stern rises vertically for a moment before sinking.
On 11 April the ship began to receive ice warnings from other ships that were further ahead of it.

the ice warnings, as several had been passed on previously. It’s unlikely that even if this final warning had been relayed that anything different would have occurred. What we do know is that at 11:40pm, lookout Frederick Fleet spotted an iceberg immediately ahead and alerted the bridge. First Officer William Murdoch ordered the engines to be put into reverse and for the ship to be steered around the obstacle but it was too late. Far, far too late. Just 30 seconds after the iceberg had been spotted the giant ship, the embodiment in man’s industrial prowess, careered the starboard side of its frame into the iceberg, cutting open a series of holes below the waterline.

The actual collision wasn’t that strong. Indeed, many of the ship’s passengers who had already retired to bed remained asleep, their dreams undisturbed. However, after a survey of the ship Captain Smith realised that serious damage had been done and that water was rapidly being taken on. The Titanic was sinking.

At the British enquiry following the accident, Edward Wilding (chief naval architect for Harland and Wolff), calculating on the basis of the observed flooding of forward compartments 40 minutes after the collision, testified that the area of the hull opened to the sea was, “Somewhere about 12 square feet (1.1 square metre).” Modern ultrasound surveys of the wreck found that the damage consisted of six narrow openings in an area of the hull covering about 1.1 to 1.2 square metres (12 to 13 square feet). Regardless, the ship was going down.

Less than 20 minutes after the iceberg had been struck, lifeboats were launched into the water.
and the radio operators had started sending out a distress signal. The standard distress signal at this time was the 'CQD' signal – ‘CQ' was the signal to other ships to stop transmission and pay attention and the 'D' was added to indicate distress. In 1906, the signal 'SOS' was created for the characters' simplicity in Morse code: three dots, three dashes and then three dots. The radio operators on the Titanic used both distress signals – for the help that they immediately received though they may as well have invented some new distress signals and used them as well.

The California – the ship that had earlier warned the Titanic about ice – was by some distance the doomed vessel’s nearest ship, although how far away it was has become a topic of hot debate. The radio operators called to it, saying: “Come at once. We have struck a berg. It’s a CQD, old man.” However, neither this nor any of the other messages they sent was met with a response. A later, more desperate message read: “We are putting passengers off in small boats. Women and children in boats. Cannot last much longer. Losing power.”

Not getting any response from the California on the radio the Titanic began firing their distress rockets into the air. However, the ship still did not respond and at a later enquiry apprentice officer James Gibson admitted that they had seen the lights but, after attempting to contact the Titanic through Morse code - not radio - and getting no reply it was decided that no action should be taken.

On the doomed boat itself, the crew members were attempting to take control of the situation but most were criminally unprepared. On that very morning Captain Smith had planned a lifeboat drill but for an unknown reason it was cancelled. If it had gone ahead it is likely that many lives could have been saved as no one on the ship seemed to be aware how many people each of the lifeboats could safely hold. The captain’s call for ‘women and children first’ was, in the main, observed and the result was that many men stood on the slowly sinking ship and could only watch as lifeboats were filled to half capacity before they were lowered.
That very morning Captain Smith had planned a lifeboat drill but for an unknown reason it was cancelled

into the ice-cold water below. The first lifeboat that launched (Lifeboat 7) only carried 24 people, despite having a capacity of 65. The fewest-recorded people carried on a lifeboat through was one that only took 12 even though it had a capacity of 40.

It may have been women and children first but to even have a chance of getting off the ship social class was all-important. The third class were located in the depths of the ship and had to navigate a mini-maze in order to get out onto the deck, and that was if they even realised that something was wrong. The boat had no public address system and while the first-class stewards were responsible for only a few cabins the second and third-class stewards had much greater numbers to take care of. In the third class the best passengers received was simply being informed of the need to come up on deck. In some cases it was much worse. Titanic survivor Margaret Murphy was a third-class passenger. She wrote later: “Before all the steerage passengers had even a chance of their lives, the Titanic's sailors fastened the doors and companionways leading up from the third-class section... A crowd of men was trying to get up to a higher deck and were fighting the sailors; all striking and scuffling and swearing. Women and some children were there praying and crying. Then the sailors fastened down the hatchways leading to the third-class section. They said they wanted to keep the air down there so the vessel could stay up longer. It meant all hope was gone for those still down there.”

The first lifeboat entered the water at 12.45am, although the crew had initial difficulty in persuading passengers that they would be safer on them rather than the ‘big ship’. Soon after the first, a number of other lifeboats entered the freezing water while the ship continued to sink. The survivors entered their rescuing ship by any means they could; some had enough strength left to climb up the rope ladders that were dangling down, others were hoisted up in slings, with mail sacks being used for children. Either way, for a lucky few the ordeal was over. The Carpathia arrived in New York in the evening of 18 April to be greeted by a throng of 40,000, among them family members of passengers and some of the world’s media. It was only several days after the ship docked that the sheer scale of the disaster became public knowledge. Trips would have to be made to try to collect those who had perished and inquiries would be held to determine the cause of the disaster. The ‘unsinkable ship’, the great marvel of modern technology that was a symbol of man’s advancement and skill had vanished into the depths, claiming the lives of over 1,500 souls. The world would never be quite the same again.
10 DIRTY TRICKS OF WORLD WAR II

DURING THE WORLD’S LARGEST CONFLICT, COUNTRIES LOOKED TO GAIN THE UPPER HAND THROUGH UNSCRUPULOUS TRICKS

Written by David Crookes
It is often said that wars are won and lost on the battlefield but things are not always quite so simple. History has taught us that a battle of minds and morale can be just as crucial for success. Secret agents, propagandists and underground armies have operated below the radar in countless conflicts over the centuries. In World War II, all of the involved nations had their own devious plots but standing out more than most were Britain, the United States, Germany and the Soviet Union. In the UK, for instance, agents working within the Special Operations Executive (SOE) conjured up ingenious devices not dissimilar to the gadgets found in a typical James Bond film - given that author and 007 creator Ian Fleming’s brother, Peter, worked for the SOE perhaps this should be no surprise. The SOE was formed by Hugh Dalton, the minister of economic welfare, on 22 July 1940, with prime minister Winston Churchill directing him to “Set Europe ablaze.” One of Dalton’s first moves was to appoint guerrilla warfare expert Brigadier Colin Gubbins as director of operations and training. The organisation operated in every country either occupied by or under fire from the Axis forces and it specialised in espionage and sabotage. Agents were well trained and tested. Pretty girls would test their discretion, burglars would teach them how to enter premises and pick locks and fight experts would guide them through the methods of a silent kill. These were desperate times, calling for special and unorthodox thinking by all involved to try to bring the world’s most damaging conflict to an end and break the stalemate. Very little was ruled out, whether it was using animals as bombs or trying to depress and upset ordinary soldiers into submission. Even the strangest ideas were given consideration and some of them actually worked, although sometimes indirectly. Over the course of the next few pages, we take a closer look at some of the most jaw-dropping and eyebrow-raising tricks of WWII.
EXPLODING RATS

DEVELOPED IN 1941, the exploding rat was one of the most ingenious inventions devised by SOE scientists. An SOE officer pretending to be a university student, claiming they were to be used for laboratory experiments, obtained the dead rodents from a supplier in London.

The idea was that the rats would be skinned, filled with plastic explosives and sewn back up again. Still resembling rodents, albeit dead ones, the intention was to place them close to German boilers, such as those used on trains or on military bases. Left among the coal, unsuspecting Nazi soldiers would, it was expected, scoop them up and throw them on to the fire, causing them to blow up.

The small amount of explosive contained within a rat would be amplified by the high pressure within the boiler and could cause a serious explosion. Not only would this prove to be shocking and life-threatening for the opposition, the plan was that it would also destroy key infrastructure and inject panic among the German hierarchy and population. It was also assumed that it would take a while for the German high command to suspect that the rats were to blame for the explosions.

Devised by: Britain

DID IT WORK? They were never used. A container full of dead rats was intercepted by the Germans, which alerted them to the wheeze. But they subsequently spent many man-hours trying to find more evidence of them, believing them to be more prolific on mainland Europe than they actually were. "The trouble caused to them was a much greater success to us than if the rats had actually been used," the SOE summed up.

"The rats would be skinned, filled with explosives and sewn back up again."

Skinned rat
Space needed to be created inside the rat so it could be filled with plastic explosive so scientists skinned them and sewed them back up.

The primer
A standard No 6 primer was set within the plastic explosive. A primer is a small primary explosive device used to detonate a larger, less sensitive secondary explosive.

Safety fuse
Leading out from the primer was a short length of safety fuse with a detonator on one end and a copper tube igniter on the other.

Red Army soldiers examining an exploded Nazi train, 1943. This was the kind of result the British were hoping for with their rats.
INCENDIARY CIGS

Using ordinary cigarettes so as not to arouse suspicion, the SOE would insert a small incendiary pellet inside the stick. They would ensure that it was closer to one end than the other and they would allow agents to discover which end the pellet was located in by letting them touch the cigarette and feel for it.

This was important. Although the aim was always the same – to light the cigarette and cause a small explosion – the end that was lit would determine the length of time it would take for detonation to occur. One end would give around two minutes while the other would give around three or four, according to the official documents.

The flame would last for up to five seconds. Agents were advised not to bury the cigarette more than an inch under any kindling otherwise the flame would not take hold. Oxygen was key for the success of this particular cigarette.

Incendiary cigarettes would be placed within packets looking like ones that would be bought from a shop in the agent’s territory. They would even have the usual government seal around the packet.

DID IT WORK? Small and easily squirrelled away, they proved to be a handy addition to an agent’s repertoire.

Warning
Disclosing this information will result in Court Martial

DEvised BY: Britain

BALINESE WOOD CARVINGS

In the Thirties and Forties, Balinese wood carvings became very popular and were highly prized by art lovers around the world. The British SOE made note of this trend and so came up with its own reproductions of them, albeit with a little twist of its own to aid the war effort. Instead of making them out of wood, they were produced using solid high explosives.

“IT IS INTENDED TO USE THESE THROUGH native agents posing as hawkers frequenting the quaysides, and selling them to Japanese troops about to embark,” the SOE document said of the plan. Made to look like wood, sandstone or porcelain, to cater to the particular whims of interested buyers, the ‘carvings’ were placed on a wooden base. Those who took them on board their ships would have been completely unaware that the carvings really contained a bomb with a time delay and that they would explode.

The idea also extended to Chinese stone lanterns, which the Camouflage Section of the SOE reproduced using light wood coated with plaster to resemble the originals. Their five compartments were filled with high explosives that would be detonated by a time delay or via an anti-removal switch. They were specifically designed so that they could be assembled or unassembled “as if the lantern had been knocked over”.

DID IT WORK? There is no documentation with regards to their success or otherwise but the Camouflage Section of the SOE had form in this area, placing explosives into items as small as nuts and bolts and as sizable as bike pumps and books.
A substance called ‘Who me?’ was so stinky that it earned itself an entry in the Guinness Book of Records for being the smelliest substance on Earth. It was created by the United States Office of Strategic Services with the intention of allowing French Resistance fighters to force German occupiers to hold their noses not only in disbelief at the smell but in sheer disgust.

It is believed the smell was made up of white mineral oil, skatole, n-butanoic acid, n-pentanoic acid, n-hexanoic acid and pentanethiol. Shipped to Paris, this sulphurous, putrid-smelling compound was designed to humiliate. It was distributed in pocket atomisers and all a Resistance member had to do was get close enough to a German officer and spray him. Others would then reel away from the victim, horrified by the smell, which was akin to faecal matter. Unfortunately, due to the way the smell was distributed, it was easy enough for the Resistance member to be accidentally sprayed as well, which meant the plan didn’t always go quite as well as hoped.

Stink bombs were commonly used during World War II. US soldiers in Italy would pretend there was poison gas around buildings that had been bombed to deter looters and they would sometimes back this up with stink bombs to make entering such premises far less appealing. Norwegian resistance fighters would throw them in public places where the occupiers tended to congregate.

Devised by: United States
DID IT WORK? ‘Who me?’ worked in the sense that it made the capital of France smell worse than the sewers that ran beneath the beautiful city. The experiment ultimately ended after two weeks and was deemed a failure.

Devised by: Britain
DID IT WORK? In some quarters, very much so, causing irritation and discomfort among the opposition troops and amusement among the perpetrators in an almost childish fashion.
When the Russians needed to push German tanks back on the Eastern Front, one of their ideas was to use anti-tank dogs trained to carry a bomb to their target, release it using their teeth and run. In practice, after six months of trying, the trainers found it hard to encourage the dogs to act as they wanted. They would usually return with the bomb having failed to go off which, in battle, would have been a disaster for the handlers.

So the Red Army began to use more ruthless means: they forced the dogs to carry 12-kilogram (26-pound) bombs and, when they got to their target, blew up both the device and the animal.

The Russians used around 40,000 dogs for this task as well as other less damaging pursuits. By making the dogs believe food awaited them beneath the tanks and ensuring they were ravenous enough to be inquisitive and willing, the animals would dart away in the hope of a good feed and, when a lever attached to the bomb struck the bottom of the tank, it would trigger an explosion and cripple the tank.

Although the Red Army had approved the training of dogs for military purposes in 1924, they weren’t deployed as bombers until the Thirties. They were used in WWII between 1941 and 1942 to some success. The following year, 1943, saw the Americans follow suit, training their own dogs, but they never actually ended up using them in battle.

DEVELOPED BY: Soviet Union

DID IT WORK? The Germans feared them so much that they began to shoot any dog they saw. It has been estimated that around 300 German tanks were blown up by anti-tank dogs, although some experts believe this figure to be inflated by Soviet propaganda.

“Each device had a lever that, when striking the bottom of a tank, would set off the bomb”
When the attack on Pearl Harbour by the Japanese Army forced the US into WWII, it demanded a widespread response that would shock Japan into submission. The result was Project X-Ray. More commonly known as the Bat Bomb, Dr Lytle S Adams suggested attaching tiny incendiary bombs to more than a thousand bats crammed into a 1.5-metre (five-foot) high refrigerated container on 26 trays. Sufficiently cool, the bats would hibernate and so could be left alone while further preparations were made.

Dr Adams implored the White House to take his idea on and president Roosevelt approved the plan in January 1942. The containers would, he said, be placed in bombers that would fly over Japan. It was envisaged the containers would open and unleash the flying rodents across whatever city was being targeted. There they would nestle in eaves and attics and, once the small, individual bombs were set off (they had timers set for 30 minutes), the bats would start fires in the most difficult-to-reach places and cause widespread chaos.

Those with concern for the bats were told by the Chemical Warfare Service that the mammals would chew through the string that attached them to the bombs and enable them to escape safely well before detonation. Experts also suggested the Mexican free-tailed bat would be best for the role and would have little problem flying with an 18-gram explosive in tow.

Tests were successful. A replica town was built in the desert and the weapon was taken up in December 1943. Fires raged across the fake town in Utah and the US testers loved the fact the bats were able to place themselves in areas that made them difficult to be discovered.

And yet the plan was taking too long and officers were becoming restless. Despite more tests being prepared for the following summer, Fleet Admiral Ernest J King became nervous at news that the bomb would not be ready for proper use until at least mid-1945. He was also concerned about the $2 million (£1.2 million) the project had cost up until that point. The project was subsequently cancelled and never used in war.

**DID IT WORK?** Fed up with waiting, attentions turned to an alternative method of bombing: the atomic bomb.

**Tiny bombs**

Each bat would have a small incendiary device attached to it.

**The canister**

Produced by the US Army Air Forces, the canister contained 26 trays on which 1,000 bats would hibernate.

**Opening up**

As the canister dropped from the sky with the aid of a parachute and reached 305m (1,000ft), it would open up and free the bats.

**The bomber**

The canisters were to be carried in a bomber aircraft high above a targeted city.

"The bats would start fires in the most difficult-to-reach places and cause chaos"
The Descriptive Catalogue of Special Devices and Supplies of 1945 was a top-secret manual produced by the SOE. In a section labelled 'toilet articles', items perfect for concealing other materials were listed; each one something a typical student would carry, including bath salts, a razor box, lipstick, sponge, talcum powder, shaving soap, toilet roll and toothpaste. The document also described the various substances that could then be concealed within the packaging.

Ointment that could be used to frost glass was typically hidden inside tubes of toothpaste. The cream could be smeared over the glass of optical instruments such as binoculars or cameras. Within five minutes, the glass would be fully frosted, rendering the item useless.

Care was taken to ensure that the newly created replica packaging was of a brand available in the country in which the agent was residing. Operatives of the SOE then placed substances that they wanted to conceal either within the tube itself or inside a rubber balloon that was then inserted into the tube.

Additionally, some of the toothpaste would then be placed into the top of the tube, so that should a soldier from the Axis powers ever become inquisitive, the only thing they would find would be fresh, minty goodness. If a larger space was needed in order to hide something, then agents would be handed shaving cream tubes instead of toothpaste but again with the same attention to branding detail as with the toothpaste.

Although suitcases with false bottoms were perfect hiding places for weapons and radios, some were made to have a real impact if opened by the wrong person. It was very important to keep particular items safe when being transported, otherwise the war effort could have been compromised.

Made to look like an ordinary suitcase, they were, in fact, explosive devices and became the perfect places for the Allies to store secret documents when they were on the move. Opened correctly and carefully by the agent, they posed no problem and they were widely used. Should the case have fallen into the wrong hands, then upon opening, the item would have exploded, killing any soldier or policeman nosy enough to want to check for any documents inside. This protected the documents and ensured no embarrassing secrets or war techniques were leaked.

SOE experts inserted two Thermite charges into the lid and the case bottom. Thermite, a mixture of metal powder fuel and metal oxide, is ignited by heat. Not all varieties are explosive.

But potassium nitrate is - it is found in fertilisers, rocket propellants and fireworks. With five quilts of potassium nitrate also placed within the case and carefully hidden, all it needed was something to make the Thermite heat up.

Within the case lining was an electric battery and wiring. This was connected to the case locks. They then acted as switches. If the knob of the right-hand lock wasn't pressed and held to the right when the case was opened and closed, it would fire the charges. The Thermite would heat and ignite the potassium nitrate, turning the unassuming case into a fiery incendiary device. Agents would therefore take care when opening and closing the case. Safety comes first, after all.
As well as influencing their own civilian populations and armed forces into rallying behind the war effort, propaganda was also used by both sides in attempts to demoralise the opposition. ‘Black’ propaganda was popular and would fool people with lies and deceptions to distract them. British and German leaflets would be sent to their enemies, encouraging them to feign illness or try and cheat their way out of fighting, hammering home the point that it was better to return alive than dead.

More obvious propaganda manifested itself in German leaflets, falsely claiming that British prisoners of war were being put up in luxury accommodation. These were produced following the D-day invasion of June 1944. But perhaps the most devious was material that played on the emotions of soldiers. In 1940, German aircraft bombarded the French Maginot Line with see-through postcards carrying pictures of French soldiers dying in action beneath an empty sky inscribed with the words “Où le Tommy est-il resté?” (French for ‘Where’s Tommy?’). Held to the light, the cards would reveal a hidden scene showing Tommy in bed with half-naked French women and they were designed to make the recipient naturally jealous, powerless and despondent.

The Germans also dropped documents on British lines in Europe showing an American GI snuggling up with the wife of a British soldier. Most likely created under the influence of Joseph Goebbels, Adolf Hitler’s head of propaganda, they stated: “You are fighting and dying far away from your country while the Yanks have got loads of money and loads of time to chase after your women.”

The fact that propaganda is still used in conflicts today shows its effectiveness. Hitler was so convinced of its power he devoted two chapters of Mein Kampf to analysis of it.
Although some of the dirty tricks listed could be deemed rather frivolous, the campaigns waged by both sides, each desperate to gain an advantage in the raging conflicts of World War II, had very real and serious consequences.

Far from stopping at plans that could have filled the pages of boy’s-own comic books, proposals were drawn up that worked to devastating effect and caused great loss of life. The targeting of civilians was not only cynical in the extreme but also a massive departure from the stance taken by the US and UK in the years leading up to the war. If president Franklin Roosevelt had called civilian bombing “inhuman barbarism”, then the change of mind as both the US and UK bombarded their enemy with wave after wave of bombs was as dramatic as the destruction it caused to life and property.

Adolf Hitler was the spur for such action, his directive on 16 July 1940 preparing the Nazi regime for an invasion of England. The Luftwaffe initially pummelled channel ports but, in August 1940, dropped bombs on residential areas of London in an attack that has been said to be accidental. The response was swift and the RAF hit Berlin. “We will eradicate their cities,” said Hitler, clearly jolted by the subsequent attack on German civilians. Winston Churchill’s rhetoric was just as direct. The Blitz in Britain caused great hardship and, likewise, there was unrestricted bombing on German targets, including Essen, Duisburg, Düsseldorf and Cologne.

The threat of poison gas – used sporadically in WWI and seen by both sides as an ‘unfair’ weapon – constantly hung on the outskirts of the conflict, its use threatened but never fully realised. It was common for children and adults to wear gas masks and practice putting them on, frightened of the consequences of breathing in the deadly particles. Nerve gas, particularly Soman, was so deadly that convulsions would begin within seconds and death would result within minutes. Putting people through the pain of nausea, vomiting, muscular damage and convulsions was cruel but all sides had their stockpiles despite great reluctance to use them for fear of fierce retaliation.

It didn’t stop napalm from being developed in 1942 in the US, though. It was routinely used on Japan by the US in the Pacific War. The US army also deployed weapons containing white phosphorus, severely burning victims. Most devastating of all was the atomic bomb, used twice in the course of warfare by the US and causing years of pain and suffering in Hiroshima and Nagasaki, with more than 200,000 civilian deaths. This was arguably the logical and natural conclusion to a whole war in which all sides had invented new weapons and tricks to gain an upper hand and escalate the conflict. For all its questionable morality, the nuclear bombs did put an end to the bloodiest conflict the world had ever known.
For centuries, duelling was a gentleman's right to keep their honour, before the practice was made unlawful. However, there was still time for one last duel in England...

Written by Martyn Beardsley

Late in the afternoon on 20 May 1845, four young men slip out of Gosport near Portsmouth and make their way to a remote beach. Minutes later, pistol shots echo across the afternoon sky and two men are seen fleeing the scene, as another crouches over a prostrate body that is crying out in agony. The four men have just taken part in the last fatal duel between Englishmen on English soil.

Duelling had been the way officers and gentlemen settled matters of honour for centuries. Up until the mid-19th century there were certain situations where a meeting with pistols or swords was seen not just a possible response to a perceived insult, but the only honourable one. Men risked being ostracised from society for not issuing a duelling challenge in response to an insult.

One of the reasons for the decline of duelling was that the definition of what constituted an insult requiring 'satisfaction' became so broad that men were dying over trifles and a hasty word or two, where the pettiest of quarrels could lead to pistols at dawn. For instance, in 1805 two officers, one army and the other navy, were riding their horses in Hyde Park while exercising their dogs. The dogs got into a fight, the owners argued about whose dog was at fault, and the result was a duel that same evening at the almost suicidal distance of six yards. One was wounded, the other killed. A duel over such an incident was not uncommon.

By the time of the 'last duel', duellists were likely to be condemned, ridiculed or both. The attitudes of society and those in positions of power had changed. It became so hard to arrange a meeting without it being discovered and intercepted by the authorities that adversaries were having to go to ever-greater lengths of secrecy and subterfuge. Queen Victoria made her displeasure of the practice known; Prince Albert called it 'barbarous' and was a prime mover in putting an end to it. Wellington, the iconic military figure of the day, worked with Prince Albert in changing attitudes. Ironically, Wellington himself took part in a duel that was one of the nails in the practice's proverbial coffin.

Throughout history, some form of combat has often settled disputes between men, making it difficult to pinpoint when duelling began. The concept evolved to a certain extent from trial by Ordeal, which had become an accepted avenue for settling grievances in early medieval Europe, but it was during Elizabethan times that the 'true' duel, the duel of honour, became an established
phenomenon in Britain. Written guides imported from Italy began to influence English thinking on such things as etiquette, chivalry and honour - as did the idea that breaches of such codes should be settled by duelling.

When duelling became unfashionable in the mid-19th century, there wasn't any need for a specific new law because existing legislation to do with violence, manslaughter and murder already covered all aspects of the practice. The one important move at this time was a change to the Articles of War, which governed the behaviour of army officers. Prince Albert had wanted to introduce a 'court of honour' to which officers could take their grievances instead of duelling. Although this was rejected, the sending and accepting of challenges was banned in 1844 under the revised Articles of War, and the Royal Navy adopted the same principle. In this respect, Britain was ahead of the times. Duelling in Europe continued for much longer - for several decades in France.

The last fatal duel in England had its roots in 1845 when Lieutenant Henry Hawkey of the Royal Marines and his attractive wife Isabella met James Alexander Seton, a former cavalry officer in the genteel Portsmouth suburb of Southsea. They were all in their mid-twenties. Before long, the wealthy Seton was paying Isabella a great deal of attention. He offered her gifts, suggested trips in his carriage and visited her at home when he knew Hawkey was on duty. Isabella Hawkey later portrayed herself as a completely innocent victim of his predatory ways but this account has been questioned. Seton was an arrogant, determined man and barely made a secret of his lecherous designs. Hawkey certainly had his suspicions and instructed the landlady to make excuses to interrupt Seton and his wife if the former ever called on her while he was out.

Things came to a head during a ball, when Seton insisted on dancing with Isabella against Hawkey's wishes. Seton made overt advances while they danced, having already said he had no fear of 'going out' (i.e. duelling) with her husband if it meant he had his way with her. Hawkey knew something was amiss and, finally provoked beyond the limits of his patience, took Seton to one side. No one knows exactly what words were spoken, but Hawkey almost certainly demanded a meeting, because Seton's air of bravura was instantly dropped and he claimed it was beneath a cavalryman to duel with a mere 'infantryman.' This was not only insulting to both Hawkey and the Royal Marines but a cowardly way of avoiding a duel. It didn't work. Hawkey knew that if he made a big enough scene, Seton would be humiliated into having to offer a challenge. As Seton attempted to leave the King's Rooms, Hawkey accosted him, threatening to 'horsemarch him up and down the high street,' and even kicked out at him. Seton had been backed into a corner. Early the next morning, a friend of his arrived at Hawkey's house and issued Seton's challenge.

Hawkey chose young, inexperienced fellow marine Edward Pym as his own second, probably because they were close friends, but then found himself in the awkward position of not owning duelling pistols. As a military man he would obviously have had access to firearms of all kinds, but duelling pistols were specialist weapons whose design had evolved over the years to suit their sole purpose. He and Pym were obliged to trawl the gun shops of Portsmouth until they were able to obtain a good pair.

There were rumours Hawkey had been involved in a previous duel and he was certainly not a man to be trifled with, he was a serving officer from a family with a strong military tradition and had seen military action. His own father had killed a man in a duel. Seton, by contrast, was something of a fraud. He liked to boast about his cavalry background and his time with the illustrious Eleventh Hussars, of Charge of the Light Brigade fame. But the reality was that the grossly overweight Seton's time in the saddle was brief and unglamorous. He had purchased his cavalry commission, and although this was common at the time, he was not the captain he was often described as at the time and in subsequent retellings of the story, but a mere cornet - the lowest commissioned rank. Moreover, his 'career' only lasted 12 months.

At 5pm, Hawkey and Seton took up their places at a distance of 15 paces and readied themselves. In the public consciousness, dawn is the typical time for duels and it was indeed a fairly common time for duels to take place because it lessened the chances of being interrupted or witnessed. However, there were no set rules and basically any time and place that suited the participants was considered acceptable. The same applies to duelling distances; it was up to the principals and seconds to come to an agreement. A kind of convention did evolve over time, though, and most duels were

"Men risked being ostracised from society for not issuing a duelling challenge in response to an insult"
fought at around 12 paces; 15 was at the upper end of the scale, but not uncommon. Eyesight occasionally played a part in the decision, and it may have done so here. Seton was afterwards to say: “Had we stood at the distance my opponent wished (six paces) he would now have been in my place and I his.” This could well indicate that he was near-sighted and hampered by the much longer distance.

One of the seconds gave the command to fire – but only one pistol shot rang out. When Pym had handed Hawkey his pistol, it had been at half-cock and so incapable of discharging its ball. An experienced second would have realised that his man was about to receive a shot without being able to return fire himself and alerted him. Luckily for Hawkey, Seton missed with his shot. Smooth-bored flintlock pistols firing round balls weren’t the most accurate of weapons, so this was hardly surprising. An ex-army officer carried out a statistical analysis of known duels in the pistol era and calculated that around half of duellists were wounded and about a fifth killed.

By the accepted principles and etiquette of duelling, the duel should now have been halted.

**Etiquette**

Duels were very rarely fought on the spot when tempers were hot, which was one of the things that distinguished a gentlemanly way of settling matters from the sort of unseemly fight the lower classes might indulge in. A gentleman would fight, but only if the proper procedure and conduct had been met.

A ‘heat of the moment’ duel was more likely in the days when swords were the primary duelling weapon, as they were worn by most gentlemen as part of everyday dress. Certainly into the 19th century, when swords were no longer carried and pistols became the weapon of choice, duels tended to be arranged in a quite businesslike manner. The challenge might be presented in the form of a letter or even a calling card, as if issuing an invitation to some pleasant social engagement.

The principals rarely took part in any of this themselves. Third parties were engaged – usually the men who were to act as seconds at the duel itself. The idea was that they should be experienced and level-headed men, both in regard to duelling and in the wider world – men who could be trusted, to act with sufficient impartiality to ensure fair play and ‘good sport’ at the eventual meeting.

If, after the initial exchange of shots, neither party was hit, the duel could be ended with both men keeping their honour. It was the duty of the second of the challenged to approach the other second and state that shots had been fired and ask if there was any reason for the duel to continue. In the case that is was a serious matter of honour – rather than a petty dispute – the duel continued until one of the participants was hit. When someone was hit it was the duty of their second to announce this to the other second.
Killing for honour

A history of duelling

Seton had fired and missed and Hawkey’s misfire also counted as a shot. Both men could leave with their honour intact. The seconds could and should have intervened. But now, controversially, Hawkey and Seton were handed their second pistols. According to Seton’s wife, it was Hawkey who demanded that they both shoot again - but even if this is true, Isabella drew attention to the fact that Rowles did not withdraw Seton after his man’s first shot had been “received but not returned”.

Perhaps Hawkey’s simmering hostility towards Seton was such that neither second could impose their will on him. For whatever reason, Hawkey and Seton went to their marks once more and faced each other, waiting for the word. Seton missed again, but this time Hawkey made no mistake. Because of the sideways stance adopted by duellists, the ball entered his opponent’s right hip. It passed through his lower abdomen wall and exited from his left groin. Blood from the wound sprayed the shingle for a distance of 70 to 100 centimetres, (two to three feet), signifying an arterial bleed, and Seton crumpled to the ground. Hawkey is reported to have simply uttered: “I’m off to France”, as killing someone in a duel was the same as killing them under any other circumstances – against the law - and a witness reported seeing two men dressed in black running along a lane, hiding their faces as they raced desperately past him.

Seton was transported to a hotel, where a life-threatening aneurism was diagnosed. The artery was repaired, but within days Seton began to exhibit signs of a major infection. He died about two weeks later - the last Englishman to die in a duel on English soil. Hawkey and Pym went to ground and that appeared to be the end of the matter. There was something of a national sensation a year later, therefore, when Pym resurfaced and handed himself in. A young and promising officer, he was visibly affected by the way his life and career had been turned upside down out of a sense of loyalty to his friend. He gained the sympathy of the jury and was acquitted. This was perhaps the signal Hawkey himself had been hoping for, because he now also offered himself up for trial.

His barrister’s strategy was the same that had been employed at Pym’s trial: Seton hadn’t been killed in a duel, but as the result of surgery that...
Killing for honour

according to the defence, might not even have been necessary. Just as in Pym’s trial, the judge made it quite clear that this was no defence in law. Seton’s surgery was performed in good faith and only as a direct result of his being shot, but again the jury blithely ignored him. A verdict of innocence was announced and cheers echoed around the Winchester courtroom. Hawkey left the building a free man, blissfully unaware this would not be his last courtroom appearance. Duelling was by now officially banned in all branches of the military, one of the last vestiges of society where it had still been partly accepted, but politicians had imposed this and old ways die hard. Not long after the trials, both Pym and Hawkey were quietly reinstated into the Royal Marines and in fact were promoted within two and four years, respectively. Pym went on to have a successful career, retiring as a general. Hawkey was not so fortunate.

Seven years after the duel, a Royal Marines officer riding his horse to the Woolwich barracks intervened when he saw one fellow officer attacking another while a distressed woman looked on. The woman was Isabella Hawkey, and her husband Henry was assaulting Lieutenant Henry Swain with his stick and fists. At the subsequent court martial, the whole humiliating story came out. Isabella had been having an affair with Swain that everyone seemed to know about, including Hawkey, but he had been kidding himself. When he and Isabella came upon the man at the centre of the rumours, Hawkey snapped. At the subsequent court martial, Swain’s regular calls on Isabella when Hawkey was on duty – echoes of James Seton – were revealed in lurid detail. One servant spoke of entering a room and witnessing Swain jumping.
up from the settee and buttoning up his trousers. Hawkey, conducting his own defence, would have been hearing these stories for the first time. The military court decided that Hawkey was ‘… guilty of having violently assaulted First Lieutenant Swain… but that he is not guilty of conduct unbecoming the character of an officer and a gentleman.’

He was acquitted, his sword was returned to him and there were handshakes all round but within weeks of the verdict Hawkey (along with Swain) was placed on permanent half-pay. In modern parlance, he had been forced into early retirement. He tried to sue Swain, tried to buy a commission in the army – but his meagre pay and savings were stretched beyond breaking point and in 1853 he was back before the Winchester courts, this time as an imprisoned debtor as Isabella married a poet 11 years her junior. Hawkey died a few years later aged 39 of tuberculosis, alone in a lodging house. Even in military circles, attitudes towards duelling had changed. Officers against the practice had previously been drawn into duels for fear of being labelled cowards, but a sign of the times was when General Sir Eyre Coote, a battle-hardened soldier whom no one could accuse of cowardice, refused to accept a challenge by another officer but instead referred the matter to his commander-in-chief – who happened to be King George, the nominal head of the army. The king made it known that Coote had acted quite properly, and gave his challenger a devastating public dressing-down. By the time of the duel between Seton and Hawkey, the general public were far less inclined to tolerate such a method of settling grievances. This may in part have been a result of the drawn-out and bloody conflicts with France. Countless brave men had lost their lives in defence of their country, and for one to shoot another in cold blood over petty squabbles was no longer a noble act.

“Even in military circles, attitudes towards duelling had changed”

An extraordinary feud between two French army officers was the inspiration for a story by Joseph Conrad and a 1977 Ridley Scott film. Captain Fournier had a reputation as a skilled swordsman with a cold, callous streak. He challenged Captain Dupont to a duel with swords in 1794 and was wounded by him. However, Fournier is supposed to have said: “That’s the first touch,” meaning he had every intention of confronting Dupont again at a later date.

Several similar encounters took place, and the story goes that they made a pact to continue until a decisive outcome, so 17 duels between the pair took place over the 19 years. Finally, in a ‘hide-and-seek’ pistol duel, Fournier expended his shots wildly and ran out of bullets, leaving Dupont facing him with two fully-loaded guns. He allowed his rival to live on the understanding that if ever saw him again he had the right to use his unspent bullets.

Duels have been fought by poison, at long range with rifles, at four paces because of the nearsightedness of one of the adversaries, and on horseback with lances like knights of old. However, one of the most bizarre duels ever occurred in 1808, where two Frenchmen met above Paris in gas-filled balloons. Two Frenchmen, Monsieur de Grandpre and Monsieur de Pique, allegedly caught up in a love triangle decided to duel, but for some convoluted reason, to do it in hot-air balloons to show society that they were of a higher class. On May 3 1808, each entered his hot-air balloon with a primitive shotgun and a second also acting as copilot to help them operate the balloon. De Pique fired first, but failed somehow to hit his opponent’s balloon. De Grandpre was more accurate, so de Pique, his copilot and his second plummeted to the ground and to their deaths.

The 19-year duel

Ballon duel

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NEXT ISSUE
What does the future hold for All About History?
The myths of Robin Hood
Robin Hood; maybe you’ve heard of him? Medieval lovable rogue-type chap with green tights, good with arrows (and women), lives in a hideout in Sherwood Forest with a band of jolly outlaws where they fleece greedy travelling rich folk of their cash under the threat of violence, before sending them packing. His generosity to the downtrodden is renowned and he’s loved by the common folk, hated by the wealthy and powerful and he’s a devil with the ladies, if you know what we mean – especially high-born damsels trapped in their metaphorical towers (or actual towers, depending on the story). He doesn’t see eye-to-eye with corrupt authority figures either but don’t think that Robin Hood is anything but a loyal and patriotic Englishman: everything he does, he does for his country and the rightful king, Richard I of England, who’s off fighting a noble crusade against evil heathens, thousands of miles away.

Written by Ben Biggs

The MYTHS of ROBIN HOOD

Hero, archer, lover, poacher, murderer, thief, vagabond... The story of Robin Hood has taken many forms through the ages, but is there any truth in the legend?
No one blindly believes the story of Robin Hood as we know it today, but long periods of English history have had a funny habit of recycling these tales until it’s hard to tell fact from fiction, or what the original truth was - if it wasn’t a complete fabrication to begin with. Like a giant, generational game of Chinese whispers, the legend of Robin Hood has been passed along the popular media of the times with a bit of embellishment added here, something considered dark, unflattering or politically unsavoury removed there. And so, via the 20th century’s communication revolution, it has boomed into world fame. In the last few decades we’ve been adding our own tint to this rose-hued tale of the arrow-slinging rebel, like the stories of Russell Crowe’s disaffected soldier, Kevin Costner’s noble Prince of Thieves and Errol Flynn’s jubilant swashbuckling rogue. If we’re going to sort some fact from fiction here, we have to unravel the Hollywood-spun Batman of the Middle Ages back to where it began, sometime in the 12th century, and look at the direct origin of today’s tale.

The legend himself, if not the tales, can be traced to the time of King John of England, who was born in 1166 and reigned from 1199 until his death in 1216. These ballads and stories were born and cultivated out of an era of social upheaval. The end of King John’s reign saw the English barony revolt and the signing of the Magna Carta, which was the first step along a long road to the breakdown of the ancient feudal system of government. While characters like Maid Marian appeared in tales from a later date, some of Robin’s band of ‘Merry Men’ can be clearly identified at this time, but things get a lot murkier when it comes to the titular hero.

According to one of the more recent theories backed by, among others, historian David Baldwin, Robin Hood’s real identity was that of a 13th-century farmer called Robert Godberd, whose escapades were far from the sugar-coated tales we see today. The crimes him and his band of outlaws around Nottinghamshire and nearby counties were accused of were of the brutal era.
The myths of Robin Hood

Who were the Merry Men?

Where did they come from and what were the skills that made them an important member of Robin Hood’s gang?

Little John
Character: Burly lieutenant
Special skill: Staff-swinging
He’s one of the first men to be recruited into Robin Hood’s band in modern stories and he was one of the first mentioned in the ballads of yore, too. Little John was a loyal, intelligent and, of course, strong man in poet Andrew of Wyntoun’s lore. He was the only one of the Merry Men supposed to be present when Robin died and he’s thought to be buried in Derbyshire.

Will Scarlet
Character: Vain swordsman
Special skill: Wielding blades
There’s been much confusion over William Scarlet’s character and his plethora of names over the centuries, with one bard even including both a Scarlock and a Harley character in his work. He was still the youngest of the Merry Men in medieval versions of the Robin Hood story, but he liked to dress in finery and was also the most able swordsman, besting even Mr Hood himself.

Much the Miller’s Son
Character: Willy boy
Special skill: Poaching
This sneaky character has fallen into obscurity in favour of other characters in modern adaptations of Robin Hood but Much, or Midge as he’s also known, appears in the oldest of the known Robin Hood ballads. A poacher caught killing a deer on the Sheriff’s land, he escaped punishment and became an outlaw in his gang.

Friar Tuck
Character: Drunken holy man
Special skill: Holding his drink
If the legend as it appears today is to be taken at face value, Friar Tuck is a boozed wily character who still has his heart in the right place. His character is thought to derive from a certain 15th-century Robert Stafford from Sussex, and he entered the story of Robin Hood’s exploits at the same time as Maid Marian did, during the May Day festivities in the 15th and 16th centuries.

“In the last few decades we’ve been adding our own tint to this rose-hued tale of the arrow-slinging rebel”

in which he lived: burglaries, arson, assaulting clergymen and murdering travellers. The nature of their law-breaking has slowly been eroded throughout history to suit an increasingly gentle audience, compared with a medieval population accustomed to violence and who found Godberg’s activities entirely palatable. Godberg and his fellow brigands were in defiance of a tyrant who had an iron grip on the extensive forested regions of Nottinghamshire. King John enforced the enormously unpopular Forest Law, which allowed the royal court exclusive access to vast swathes of hunting grounds, with utter ruthlessness. Thus, morally speaking, Godberg’s actions were justified by the common man as necessary for the greater good of the people.

There are a number of other recorded Robin Hood-type characters with similar names and lives that span a period of 150 years or so during this time. The earliest is Robert Hod of Cirencester, a serf who lived in the household of an abbot in Gloucestershire. He murdered a visiting dignitary early in the 13th century, fled with his accomplices and was subsequently outlawed by King John’s reviled minister Gerard of Athee. Four other Robert Hodds existed in 1265, at the Battle of Evesham during King Henry’s time. Each became fugitives and outlaws for various reasons, including robbing travellers and raiding an abbey in Yorkshire, which could explain how the character of Friar Tuck eventually made his appearance in later tales. Later versions, namely two Robyn Hodds, appeared respectively as an archer in a garrison on the Isle of Wight and as a man jailed for trespassing in the King’s Forest and poaching deer in 1354. The name Robert was a common one around this time, while the surname Hod or Hode likely came from the old English word for a head covering. It’s also possible his surname was derived from the story of ‘Robin of the Wood’.

With the array of similar characters and names of people who existed at this time, it’s not surprising that historians have trouble pinning the character’s origin on any one man. The earliest surviving ballads of the Robin Hood story don’t even elaborate on his exploits: they make no mention of the troubles of the time, Robin Hood’s cause or the years he was active, simply that he was an outlaw who lived in and around Sherwood or Barnsdale. To further confuse things, there are numerous accounts of outlaws in the 13th and 14th centuries adopting the name of Robin Hood and Little John, which suggests the story had achieved some popularity even then, although adopting the name of a famous outlaw - fictional or otherwise - was common among criminals at this time.

This Robin Hood had no spouse or family, no land and certainly no title. No reason is given for his criminality and his characteristics were likely drawn from some real-life outlaws of the time. One of the most telling aspects of these stories is the language they were written in: up until 1362, when Parliament decreed that English was to be used in court, French was widely spoken in the country - whereas even the earliest stories of Robin are in English, which helps establish a date.

By the 14th and 15th centuries, the tales of Robin Hood had gained some fame as they were disseminated in the traditional May Day festivities, while his story had begun to be written into plays and ballads. There’s no mention of the folk hero living at the time of King John, but he can be found in the 15th-century stories of Robin Hood and the Monk, The Lytell Geste of Robyn Hode, Robin Hood and Gay of Gisborne, Robin Hood and the Cartal Friar and Robin Hode his Death. The plays Robin Hood and the Friar and Robin Hood and the Potter were written specifically for the May Day Games in 1560 and were based on earlier ballads of the same name. During this period, his Merry Men began to accrete together from various sources as
Robin was embellished with details like so many layers of varnish. Word of the character had began to spread beyond the counties of the midlands and in the late-15th century, he is referred to in plays written as far afield as Somerset and Reading. He was well known even to the famous womanizing, warmongering king of England, Henry VIII, and his royal court. The young monarch’s idea of celebrating May Day involved walking into Queen Catherine of Aragon's chambers with his nobles, “apparelled in short cotes of Kentish Kendal, with hodes on their heddes, and hosen of the same, every one of them his bowe and arrowes, and a sworde and a buckler, like outlawes, or Robyn Hode’s men,” according to Hall's Chronicle by Edward Hall, a 16th-century scholar.

By the late-16th century, the Merry Men had acquired a friar, Robin had a love interest and he’d also gained nobility. Playwright Anthony Munday wrote two plays on the outlaw, The Downfall of Robert Earl of Huntington and The Death of Robert Earl of Huntington, in which Robin (Robert) has clearly been lofted into high society. Or at least, it was his position to lose: in the plays, Munday makes Robin an earl in the reign of Richard I who is disinherited by the king. Fleeing into the Greenwood, he is followed by the daughter of Robert Fitzwalter, one of the leading barons who rallied against the king, where they fall in love and she changes her name to Maid Marian. King John, angry that his would-be bride has been stolen from him by an outlaw, pursues her in the second play and poisons her at Dunmow Priory.

The idea that Robin was a fallen noble and some kind of love triangle existed between King John, Maid Marian and Robin still endures in some stories today. But by introducing a lover and giving him blue blood, the Robin Hood of the 16th century makes the transition from a brutal and often murderous outlaw in defiance of the monarchy to a more domesticated hero, a protagonist the ruling classes could admire and relate to — someone with just cause against an evil ruler. His status as an outlaw had been relegated to a trait that added an element of drama to the story, rather than one that defined it.

From the 16th century onward, with the advent of the printing press, the story of Robin Hood becomes more refined and much more familiar. Across the next few centuries, the character and the stories would pick up traits...
and themes that generations to come would adopt when turning to their own adaptations. The 18th-century Robin Hood sees him encounter farcical situations. For example, the ballads of the time talk of a series of tradesmen and professionals getting the upper hand with the hapless outlaw, while the Sherif of Nottingham is the only one to be bested by Robin. Robin dresses up as a friar in *Robin Hood's Golden Prize* and cheats two priests out of five hundred pounds - nearly £16,000 (£10,000) in today's money - before he's caught and summons the Merry Men with his horn.

The Victorians, notorious for enamelling history with their own style and values, weren't shy about leaving their mark on Robin Hood either. By the mid-19th century, the cost and efficiency of printing books was such that they had become available to the masses. US writer and illustrator Howard Pyle took the traditional folk tale of Robin Hood and adapted it to his own children's version, serialising it numerous adaptations, most of which aren't remotely faithful even to the 16th-century versions. The Sean Connery and Audrey Hepburn film *Robin and Marian* made much of the romance but for the first time, cast King Richard as a less-than-benevolent character. The *Robin of Sherwood* television series went as far as to add a Muslim character in the form of Nasir the Saracen, a trend the famous Kevin Costner film followed through *Morgan Freeman's Azeem*.

The character of the lovable rogue has international appeal, so almost every country has its own version of Robin Hood: in Wales, Twm Siôn Cati is likened to Hood as a high-ranking highwayman driven to robbery as an income by his Protestant faith under a Catholic monarch. Ukrainian rebel Ustym Karmaliuk made his name in the 19th century for robbing the rich and distributing the proceeds of his crimes to the poor, and over a millennium before Robin Hood came to the fore, Boudicca, queen of the Iceni, defied the Romans when they forcibly took control of her lands and people. She led a successful revolt that destroyed a Roman legion and the Roman capital before it was put down. Almost every generation has a story that is similar to Robin Hood, illustrating the very human desire and need to have a figure who stands for right against wrong, light against dark.

Given that nearly a millennium has passed since the first tale of Robin Hood was told, in addition to his murky origins that even 13th-century bards cannot agree on, it's unlikely any historian will be able to settle on who Robin Hood and his Merry Men were exactly, or what little truth there is to their deeds. As far as history is concerned, the Robin Hood legend has become a victim of its own popularity, obscured by generations of storytelling taking it firmly into the realms of fantasy.
REVIEW ROUNDUP: WORLD WAR II

Our selection of films, books and apps on mankind’s largest conflict

FIRST-HAND ACCOUNTS

Für Volk and Führer
Author: Erwin Bartman (translated by Derik Hammond)
Publisher: Helion
Bartmann was seduced by Hitler’s spell from a young age and aged 17 volunteered for active service, which took him from a front-line communication squad to fighting on the Eastern Front. His accounts provide a compelling account of the dreariness and excitement of life at war.

If you like this try...

CIVILIANS

Living on the Home Front
Author: Megan Westley
Publisher: Amberley
Those who stayed behind in WWII were left with not only a gnawing fear about what would happen to husbands, sons and fathers but also genuine danger. Westley’s book looks at rationing and the effects the war had on morale. Her personal accounts of recreating the conditions of rationing may divide opinion, but her attempt to get into the period’s mindset should be commended.

If you like this try...

MILITARY HARDWARE

How the Spitfire Won the Battle of Britain
Author: Dilip Sarker
Publisher: Amberley
The Spitfire has acquired a place in the British consciousness for its use in WWII. In recent years this perception has been challenged, with some historians claiming the Hurricane caused the enemy far greater damage. Sarker sets out to examine in what esteem the Spitfire should be held through meticulous research.

If you like this try...

OVERVIEW

The aptly named World War II: The Definitive Visual Guide, published by DK, is a gorgeous 360-page hardback that covers the conflict in painstaking detail. With ten chapters dealing with the conflict chronologically – from the path to war, the war becoming global through to the ‘new world’ created afterwards – the pages are packed full of information and colour photos. The battle maps that are liberally scattered throughout are a highlight, as are the helpful and informative timelines.

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Charlotte Clementson

My grandpa, Harry Russell Ingle, passed away when I was aged 15. He never talked about his past even though I had tried to ask him about it several times. He had worked on the Cambridgeshire Fens as a boy, working in the fields. I knew he was in the Suffolk Regiment 5th Battalion during WWII, that he had worked on the ‘Death Railway’ in Burma and was a prisoner of war and had been taken to Japan, Thailand, Singapore and several other countries. It is only after asking my grandma more questions about it that more facts have come to light and some truly amazing letters and artefacts have been shared. I find it very sad to think that he kept all this hidden for so many years after it happened.

He went abroad to fight during World War II and was made a sergeant. He was captured by the Japanese and forced to work on the Death Railway and in factories from 1942 to 1945. One of the camps he was held at was Kanose Branch Camp (Tokyo 16-B). He was starved and beaten and saw many of his friends die. He used to tell me the odd story, such as when Japanese troops would tie soldiers to the ground over bamboo and it would grow through their bodies, slowly torturing them. He said he had watched soldiers have bamboo splints hammered down their fingernails and that many soldiers were electrocuted as they were forced to work through storms while building the railway in Thailand and Burma.

I know he was shot in the lower leg at one point as he used to show his scar, although he did not talk about why. Grandpa was taken to several concentration camps. He made a detailed map of the camp with labelled sections and where each nationality was kept in the camp. It shows the kitchens and where the animals were kept, and the Japanese areas are labelled as ‘administration’. He was starved, which affected him until the day he died; I remember he would let no food ever go to waste and would eat anything instead of it going in the bin. I have seen pictures of people in newspapers that were taken from the death camp and they looked like skeletons. Grandpa has some amazing artefacts, which my grandma still has today. He and another prisoner, Private LF Wallace, made a pipe while in the camp. A Japanese soldier befriended him and grandma has a pouch with his tobacco in it that the soldier had given him. He brought back his ‘uniform’ that he had to wear too.
He was eventually rescued by US troops and was taken to Australia with other prisoners of war on the SS Emperor of Australia and a US bomber, where he was served a huge meal by an air hostess. He stated in a letter he wrote aboard the bomber to his family that he was: “...surrounded by chocolate, sweets, coffee, cigarettes, books and any other commodity I wish to ask for so I am really being treated like a lord in a palace.” It must have been so strange to have been surrounded by all these things. There are several telegrams from his family that he was sent in the camp which he returned with too; even in these he tries to pretend that everything is fine. When he returned he had a dental and medical check by doctors, which showed he was suffering from a case of tropical ulcers, he had previously had diphtheria as well as dengue fever.

After the war, grandpa received his medals and was expected to rise to a senior rank in the army for looking after his regiment in the camp and keeping their spirits up. Unfortunately, this would not be the case and no such opportunity was given. There is also a letter from a captain who was a prisoner of war in the same camp as grandpa. He writes about his self sacrifices and loyalty, unfortunately this had no bearing on his future in the army. He was offered a house to be built as were so many soldiers and located in Peterborough to a new development.

He worked as a policeman on the railways and soon met and married my grandma, who was a clerk in the booking office at Peterborough Station. He had a son and a daughter but found it very difficult to adjust after the war and had a breakdown. He was in hospital for a long time and became good friends with the nurse who looked after him.

All of his life grandpa worried about things and collected things, saved his money carefully and never wasted anything, all because he was a prisoner of war. I wish I would have known what he had been through and I wish he could have spoken about it.
Richard Severn, Peterborough

There were many times over the years that I saw my mother’s uncle. What I did know about Reginald Hallam was that he fought in World War II and like many he never really spoke about what he did, but on the occasions he did speak about his experiences it made you sit up and listen. On one of those occasions, he told me that he had served as Major in the King’s African Rifles, fighting in Kenya and Abyssinia. He then proceeded to tell me about one of the operations he was involved in.

What was called the Locust operation took place in Kenya. Reginald was to train local Turkana tribesmen to be scouts for the British Army. He worked and trained with them for nearly six months, and the only help he had was a tribesman who spoke a few words of English to translate and a Swahili phrase book. They were to report to the main Allied forces on the locations of the Italian troop positions. They did this until the Italian surrender in November 1941 after the Battle of Gorda, as well as carry out rescue operations to find downed airmen, which they continued to do well into 1943.

In mid-March 1941 Reginald and ten scouts spent three days in the bush trying to find a downed South African Air Force pilot. It was a tough three days with searing temperatures and a search area around 260 square kilometres (100 square miles). Neither pilot nor plane were ever found, the search was called off and they returned to base camp at Nanyuki. It would seem, according to Reginald, that part of the scouts’ time was spent searching for lost soldiers or downed airmen. One incident would have a tragic outcome for the Turkana scouts.

In May 1940 they received a radio message that a training flight was overdue and was listed as missing. With the last known position and flight path being given to help the search, Reginald and the scouts set off. They were two days into the search through the African bush, the scouts had moved through heavy scrub and trees into an open plain that was covered as far as the eye could see with grass nearly to head height. There was an ear-piercing scream from one of the lead scouts, Toto, who had just walked straight into a male lion and, before the rest of the scouts and Reginald could react and drive the lion off, the poor scout was attacked and killed. There was no time for the scouts to mourn their loss, they buried the body and continued on with the search. After four days searching and no sign of pilot or plane they headed back to camp.

On arriving back at base camp they were informed that the pilot had walked into camp a day earlier from the bush fit and well, though a little thirsty. The pilot was completely off his flight path, so Reginald and the scouts had been sent to the wrong area to search.

It was that afternoon that Reginald witnessed the Turkana tribe’s burial ceremony for the scout they had lost, with the head man of the tribe leading the ceremony. The headdresses they wore were a huge mass of black and white feathers and lion pelt was wrapped around their shoulders. The men danced and chanted and the women wailed into the early evening. I remember Reginald saying: “To witness that ceremony was one of the most memorable events of my time in Africa.”

Many times Reginald and the scouts had success though, rescuing six pilots and soldiers, which was remarkable considering the vast areas they had to search. He was to see action not only in Kenya but also in Abyssinia and after 1943 was reassigned leaving the King’s African Rifles and was to be part of the 8th Army in North Africa and Italy.

I count myself fortunate that over the years Reginald told me some of his experiences from the war, and that a few years before his passing away, he gave me all his annotated photographs of his time with the King’s African Rifles.
PEARL HARBOUR

It was a hit at the box office, but how on target was its historical accuracy?

Director: Michael Bay  Starring: Ben Affleck, Josh Hartnett, Kate Beckinsale, Cuba Gooding Jr  Country of origin: United States  Year made: 2001

WHAT THEY GOT WRONG...

01 The Japanese torpedo bomber planes attack the Pearl Harbour military airfield, where one of the film’s main characters is taking shelter. But why would torpedo bombers take a large detour to attack an airfield? How would they be effective? And what on Earth would they torpedo there?

02 President Franklin D Roosevelt discusses the possibility of the Japanese invasion of the United States mainland, and then pulls himself out of his wheelchair to make a point. This is completely out of character for Roosevelt and besides, Japan had no such lofty ambitions.

03 The characters played by Ben Affleck and Josh Hartnett, based on real-life pilots George Welch and Kenneth Taylor, are sent on a Tokyo bombing raid by Lieutenant Colonel James Doolittle – but he would have needed bomber pilots, not fighter pilots.

04 Following the first wave of attacks, a naval officer is handed a telegram stating: “Be on alert. Attack by Japan considered imminent.” The Navy was actually warning all its officers as early as 26 November that Japan was going to attack, they just didn’t know where.

05 Several scenes show pilots communicating easily with the control tower and at one point a radio operator listens to the dogfighting via pilot radios hundreds of miles away in Hawaii. This wasn’t possible with the radio technology of the Forties.

What they got right

A radar operator at Pearl Harbour did see the Japanese attacking forces approaching, but a flight of B-17 Flying Fortresses was expected to be arriving at the time so he was instructed to ignore his radar reading, much like the film portrays.
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