The battle of Agincourt

600th Anniversary Exhibition

Discover the medieval armour, art, music, sculpture and manuscripts which together reveal the story, legacy and myths of this extraordinary battle.

Tower of London

The national collection of arms and armour at the Tower of London

www.royalarmouries.org
#Agincourt600
Welcome

"Remember, remember the fifth of November."
It’s hard to forget the story of Guy Fawkes and his plot to blow up Parliament. It’s a tale we’re told as children and reminded of every year, so it’s easy to assume there’s little more to know about this fateful day beyond the traitor whose effigy we burn each Bonfire Night.

In fact, the origins of the plot lie not with Fawkes but with another man – one who has almost been lost to history. His name was Robert Catesby, and it was he who masterminded the plan to smuggle barrels of gunpowder beneath the House of Lords. His aim: to blow its occupants to smithereens. On page 28, uncover the truth behind the most audacious terrorist plot of the 17th century.

This autumn also marks 600 years since the Battle of Agincourt – perhaps the most infamous clash of the Hundred Years’ War. On page 58, you’ll find a blow-by-blow account of the battle as told through the eyes of Henry V. We also investigate the Epsom Derby ‘suicide’ – did Emily Davison really mean to die for women’s rights? Find out on page 80.

Alicea Francis
Editor

Editor’s picks

The Great Wall of China
From its backbreaking construction in the 3rd century BCE to the Mongol invasions 1,000 years later, discover the history of this ancient wonder.

The butcher of Agincourt: Henry V
We mark 600 years since the remarkable English win on the French battlefields with a special feature on Henry V.

The Epsom Derby suicide
With the release of Suffragette, we expose the truth behind one of the movement’s most infamous deeds.

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On its 600th anniversary, we look back at this epic clash on the bloodstained French battlefield

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Did Emily Davison really mean to kill herself on that fateful day?

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HISTORY IN COLOUR

SILENT PREDATOR

Ojibwe Native Americans survived largely on a diet of meat and fish, and clung to the ancient technique of spearfishing right up until the 20th century. The spear was made from local wood and had a sharp tip made of copper or bone. Fishermen would float silently in their birch-bark canoes or stand in the shallows for as long as it took for their prey to swim by.

1908
BATTLE OF BRIGHTON

While the Cold War raged between the West and East, another conflict had broken out in seaside resorts across Britain that was anything but cold. The battle was between Mods and Rockers - two very different youth subcultures. In the spring of 1964, the holidaying gangs clashed on the streets and promenades, using fish hooks, bike chains and deck chairs as weapons.

May 1964
HISTORY IN PICTURES

THE USA'S MOST FAMOUS FELINE

When Socks the stray cat jumped into the arms of a young girl as she left her piano lesson in 1991, little did he know that he would soon become the most famous pet in the United States. The girl's name was Chelsea – the only daughter of the future president Bill Clinton – and Socks had secured himself a place not only in their home but also in the hearts of every cat lover in the country.

1992
Launched on 27 October 1961 from Cape Canaveral, rocket SA-1 was the first mission of NASA's Apollo programme.

**SPACE & ASTRONOMY**

12 PAGES OF EXPLORATION, DISCOVERY AND DISASTER

Elon Musk founded SpaceX in 2002 with the goal of creating technologies that will reduce the cost of space travel and enable the colonisation of Mars.

Edward H White became the first American astronaut to walk in space on 3 June 1965.

Newton's First Telescope is the earliest known functional reflecting telescope.
This view of the rising Earth that greeted the Apollo 8 astronauts as they came from behind the Moon after the fourth nearside orbit.

When the 26-inch telescope of the US Naval Observatory was installed in 1873, it was the largest refracting telescope in the world.

NASA and Manned Spacecraft Center officials celebrate the historic event of man successfully walking on the Moon.

Maria Mitchell, the first American woman to work as a professional astronomer.

The first ever photo of the surface of a comet was sent back after the Philae Lander's successful touchdown on 11 November 2014.

Spectators moments after witnessing the explosion of Space Shuttle Challenger 73 seconds after liftoff on 28 January 1986. All seven astronauts aboard were killed.

Galileo Galilei demonstrates how to use a telescope.

Flying aboard Voyagers 1 and 2 is the Sounds Of Earth gold-plated record, which contains greetings in 60 languages, samples of music and electronic information that can be converted into photographs. The diagram is a key to playing the record.

Sally Ride became the first American woman in space in 1983.
**THE SUPERNova OF 1054**

**China 1054**

When a brilliant new star arose in the sky in the constellation that today we call Taurus, the Bull, the ancient Chinese astronomers—or astrologers, as they were at the time—did not know what to make of it. The ‘guest star’, as they referred to it, was bright enough to be seen in the daytime. Today, we know that it was the supernova explosion of a giant star, which has left behind an expanding cloud of debris that we call the Crab Nebula. Inside the nebula is the spinning core of the destroyed star. This is the Crab Pulsar, and was discovered in 1967 by Cambridge astronomers.

**Galileo observes Jupiter’s moons**

**Italy 1610**

Although Galileo didn’t invent the telescope, he did build his own and was the first person to use one to make ground-breaking discoveries about our universe. When he pointed his small refracting telescope at Jupiter, he saw four bright dots either side of the planet. These dots moved over the coming nights and Galileo realised they were orbiting Jupiter, proving not everything orbits Earth, which was what people believed at the time. He also saw phases on Venus with his telescope, looking like the phases of the Moon, again providing evidence that the phases were changing as Venus orbited the Sun.

---

**Space timeline**

1054

**The supernova of 1054**

Chinese astronomers witness the appearance of a ‘new star’, or ‘nova’, in the constellation of Taurus, the Bull. The nova is actually a supernova – an exploding star.

1543

**The birth of Copernicanism**

Nicolaus Copernicus publishes his theory that the Earth goes around the Sun, on its deathbed. His views are seen as heretical.

1610

**Galileo observes Jupiter’s moons**

Using a small telescope that he built himself, Galileo Galilei observes the moons of Jupiter orbiting the giant planet, proving that not everything goes around Earth, giving a boost to Copernicus’s theory.

1667

**Laws of gravitation**

Sir Isaac Newton publishes his famous ‘Principia’, which describes the laws of motion and gravity, which retrospectively explain Kepler’s laws of orbital motion.

1830

**Measuring the first accurate distance to a star**

Using the mathematical principle of trigonometric parallax (how objects in the distance seem to shift position when viewed from a different perspective), German scientist Friedrich Bessel measures the star 61 Cygni to be 10.3 light years away.

750 BCE

**The Moon becomes predictable**

Ancient Babylonian astronomers realise the Moon rises and sets in a cycle that repeats every 18.6 years, allowing them to predict the position of the Moon.

1608

**The invention of the telescope**

Dutch optician Hans Lippershey builds the first known telescope—a simple refractor—using tiny glass lenses. Word of his invention quickly spreads.

1609

**Kepler’s laws of orbital motion**

German astronomer Johannes Kepler publishes his three laws that describe the characteristics of the orbits of the planets.

1781

**Discovery of Uranus**

William Herschel discovers the seventh planet from the Sun, the first planet to be discovered with a telescope.

1814

**The birth of spectroscopy**

The Sun’s spectrum is taken for the first time by German optician Joseph von Fraunhofer. He discovers dark lines in the spectrum, which are named Fraunhofer lines.

1846

**Discovery of Neptune**

Johann Gottfried Galle discovers the eighth planet from the Sun, based on a prediction of the French astronomer Urbain Leverrier.

1705

**The return of Comet Halley**

Comets were a mystery to astronomers in the 17th and 18th centuries. Edmund Halley, however, realised that the stories of several bright comets over the years, including in 1066 when the comet appeared on the Bayeux Tapestry, were actually all of the same comet. Halley measured the time between each appearance as being around 76 years and predicted it would return in 1758. It did, setting in place our study of comets.

1761

**The discovery of Uranus**

Prior to the invention of telescopes, all the planets visible in the night sky—Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter and Saturn—had been known since ancient times. On March 13, 1781, however, William Herschel discovered a new planet from his back garden in Bath. At first he thought it was a comet, until he realised it was actually an undiscovered planet. He later named it Uranus after the Greek god of the sky, Ouranos.
**Galaxies beyond the Milky Way**

**USA 1923**

Our Sun exists inside the Milky Way galaxy - a great spiral of 200 billion stars. When 19th-century astronomers began discovering faint spirals of light in the night sky, they assumed these were nebulae, because they were too faint to be able to identify individual stars within them. By the 1920s, however, astronomers were able to use the 2.5-metre-wide Hooker Telescope and with it, Edwin Hubble observed individual stars in these spiral nebulae. He found them to be so far away they must lie beyond our own Milky Way.

**First man in space**

**SOVIET UNION APRIL 1961**

After the launch of Sputnik 1, the race to put the first person in space was on between the Soviet Union and the USA. The Soviet Union won the race and, on 12 April 1961, Yuri Gagarin blasted off in Vostok 1, which was a tiny capsule with no room to move in. He completed one orbit of Earth before parachuting to the ground. The USA followed up the Soviet's success with the launch of Alan Shepard in the Freedom 7 mission, achieving sub-orbital flight on 5 May 1961, less than a month after Gagarin. Sadly, Yuri Gagarin died aged 34 in an aeroplane crash in 1968.

**Discovery of the expanding Universe**

Edwin Hubble finds that the galaxies are, with a few exceptions, all moving away from us, which other scientists interpret as being the cosmic expansion from a 'Big Bang' 13.8 billion years ago. 1929

**The first satellite**

The Soviet Union launches Sputnik 1, the first ever artificial satellite, into space, beating the United States of America to be the first nation in space. 1957

**Space shuttle blasts off**

The first ever space shuttle launch takes place, as NASA launch shuttle Columbia, commanded by Apollo astronaut John Young. 1981

**Challenger disaster**

Tragedy strikes as the space shuttle Challenger explodes shortly after launch, killing all seven astronauts on board. 1986

**The launch of the Hubble Space Telescope**

Named after Edwin Hubble, NASA's Hubble Space Telescope blasts off on board space shuttle Discovery. After its faulty vision is fixed in 1993, Hubble goes on to be the most famous and successful telescope ever built. 1990

**Columbia disaster**

The space shuttle Columbia disintegrates during atmospheric re-entry over the United States, killing all seven astronauts on board. 2004

**Discovery of Pluto**

Clyde Tombaugh, an astronomer at Lowell Observatory in Arizona, discovers distant Pluto. It becomes the ninth planet from the Sun. 1930

**The dawn of radio astronomy**

Radio waves from space, coming from the Sun, are detected for the first time by Karl Jansky of Bell Labs in New Jersey, USA. 1931

**First human in space**

The Soviet Union achieves another first by sending the first man into space. Yuri Gagarin made history by going into space on board his Vostok 1 spacecraft. 1961

**First men on the Moon**

Neil Armstrong and Buzz Aldrin take the first footsteps on the lunar surface when they land in the Sea of Tranquility during the Apollo 11 mission. 1969

**Building the space station**

Construction begins on the International Space Station, the largest structure ever built in space. It is completed in 2011. 1998

**Discovery of exoplanets**

**SWITZERLAND 1995**

Science fiction has always presented to us planets beyond our own Solar System. It wasn't until the 1990s though that the first extra-solar planets, or exoplanets for short, were discovered. The first were giant gas bags that orbited very close to their stars and, consequently, were very hot, in the most extreme cases over 1,000 degrees Celsius. The first planets around Sun-like stars were found in 1995. NASA's Kepler Space Telescope, launched in 2009, has found thousands of exoplanets, including a handful that could potentially be suitable for life.

**Apollo 11**

**USA JULY 1969**

On 20 July 1969, two astronauts went where no man had gone before, stepping onto the surface of the Moon. Neil Armstrong and Buzz Aldrin made history when they piloted the Eagle down to the lunar surface, but nearly came close to disaster twice: before landing. Armstrong had to take manual control to steer the Eagle away from dangerous boulders, and then before leaving the Moon, they had to fix a broken switch that would fire the main engine by jamming a felt-tip pen in it. Apollo 11 was followed by five further successful landings on the Moon.
How to DISCOVER A PLANET
TIRELESSLY SCANNING THE GALAXY TO MAKE A MONUMENTAL DISCOVERY EUROPE, 18TH CENTURY

Only two of the planets in our solar system have been officially discovered - Uranus and Neptune (three including Pluto). All the rest have been known since antiquity and can be observed, unaided, by the human eye. When the telescope made its debut in the 17th century, it opened up the sky for an array of curious minds and astronomers to explore the galaxy in a way never before fathomed. Interest in astronomy skyrocketed, and increasingly accurate instruments were created. In the late 18th century, Sir William Herschel gazed upon the planet of Uranus and became the first person in history to officially discover a planet.

Focal length
The focal length is where this telescope got its name from: it was 40 foot, or 12 metres, long, making it the largest telescope in the world for 50 years.

Mount
The body of this huge, cumbersome telescope was fixed on to a fully rotatable alt-azimuth mount - which has two perpendicular axes.

Scaffolding
The telescope was surrounded by scaffolding that rose 50 feet into the air. To reach the eyepiece, Herschel, and even the king himself, had to climb it.

Mirrors
The telescope featured a 46-inch diameter mirror. Most telescopes of the era featured another small diagonal mirror, but these had poor reflectivity, so Herschel eliminated it.

Discoveries
When Herschel first used this telescope on the night of 28 August 1789, he discovered a new moon of Saturn; in the same month another moon was discovered.

WHAT YOU’LL NEED

01 Study hard
Astronomy in the 18th century is a complex art that has to be studied. You can't simply point a telescope at the sky and hope to find something. No amateur has ever discovered a planet, so be sure to swot up on everything about space. As astronomy is a rapidly developing art, it's also important to keep up with the finest minds in the business.

02 Build your telescope
Although gaining popularity, astronomy is still a flourishing art, and shops don't stock telescopes. So, you're going to have to either befriend the right people and borrow theirs or build your own. Herschel constructed more than 400 telescopes during his career, and many of these were made in his own home.
How not to... earn credibility as an astronomer

Several 18th and 19th-century astronomers, who are otherwise acclaimed in their field, have attracted some criticism today because of their claims and beliefs about extra-terrestrial life. The same William Herschel who discovered Uranus and was celebrated as a genius believed that alien life inhabited basically every planet and object in the universe, including stars. He claimed to have found evidence that life survived on the Moon and described it as similar to the English countryside. He even claimed that beings were inhabiting the Sun, explaining: “Its similarity to the other globes of the solar system... leads us to suppose that it is most probably inhabited... by beings whose organs are adapted to the peculiar circumstances of that vast globe.” He wasn’t the only one: Percival Lowell, an early 20th-century astronomer, dedicated years of his life to creating intricate drawings of what he called the ‘canals’ of Mars. He believed these surface markings were wells dug by intelligent species living on the planet.

Search the galaxy

When Herschel discovered Uranus, he wasn’t actually looking for a planet, he was studying stars, which is not a bad place to start. Spend some time studying the ways that stars behave. The more familiar you get with how objects act, the more something unusual will stand out. It is also key to take lots of notes and start a detailed scientific journal.

Strike lucky

With an 18th-century telescope, you won’t easily be able to spot a planet. In fact, it will likely look identical to the many stars you see - a fuzzy blob. It may take months, or even years, but hopefully you’ll strike lucky and discover a new planet. For Herschel, this wasn’t a eureka moment; he studied Uranus many times before concluding it was a planet.

Give it a name

As the discoverer, you have the honour of naming the planet - which can be tricky. Herschel originally named Uranus ‘Georgium Sidus’, or ‘George’s star’, after King George III, but this did not go down well in France. It was then known as ‘Herschel’ for several years, until finally the name Uranus, with roots in Greek and Roman mythology, stuck.

Enjoy your fame

A discovery such as this is monumental, and you’ll be the subject of much praise. If your experience is anything like Herschel’s, you’ll be an overnight sensation, made court astronomer and even knighted. Of course, all eyes are now on you for more amazing discoveries, so you better dust off that telescope and settle down for a few more years.

4 FAMOUS... ASTRONOMERS

Hipparchus
GREECE, 190 BCE – 120 BCE
Known as the father of astronomy, Hipparchus created the first-known star catalogue and the method of measuring a star’s brightness, which is still used today.

Nicolaus Copernicus
ROYAL PRUSSIA, 1473-1543
Although not the first to propose that the Earth travelled around the Sun, Copernicus’s theory was a landmark in the history of science.

Tycho Brahe
DENMARK, 1546-1601
Before the invention of the telescope, Brahe paved the way for astronomers by developing instruments and making accurate astronomical observations.

Charles Messier
FRANCE, 1730-1817
Known as a ‘comet chaser’, while scanning the skies Messier created one of the most significant catalogues of deep sky objects, aiding countless astronomers.
5 things you probably didn’t know about...

STEPHEN HAWKING

THE TRAILBLAZING PHYSICIST WHO HAS MADE SCIENCE ACCESSIBLE TO THE MASSES

01 His school grades were mediocre
Hawking is now considered one of the greatest physicists of our time, but his grades at school were average at best. Luckily his teachers were able to see something special in him and put him forward for the Oxford scholarship exam. His score was almost perfect.

02 His family were eccentric
Hawking’s parents were poor but they lived in a large, cluttered house that was in various states of disrepair. Their car was an old London taxi, they usually ate dinner in silence while all reading books, they had bees in their basement and would even make fireworks in the greenhouse.

03 His success came after diagnosis
Before he was diagnosed, Hawking was not a dedicated student, averaging about one hour of study a day. He commented that: “Before my condition was diagnosed, I had been very bored with life.” The news that he may only have a few years to live prompted Hawking to pour his time into his research.

04 He believes time travel is possible
Hawking isn’t afraid to make dramatic or unusual statements in regards to physics and cosmology. He has stated he believes humans will colonise other planets in the future, and thinks forward time travel could happen. He has outlined three different theories of how humans may be able to travel through time.

05 He is wary of the power of AI
A robot revolution may seem the stuff of science fiction, but Hawking believes that it is a very real possibility. He has warned those developing AI to do more research into the possible ramifications, stating that success in creating AI could be the biggest event in human history, but also the last.
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The development of the calendar

The Sumerians were among the first civilizations to create a calendar. This was based on the lunar cycle, with 12 months of 28 days making up a year, and was synchronised with the seasons with the addition of an extra month every four years. The early Egyptians, Greeks and Semitic peoples had similar calendars, and the Romans also had a calendar based on the Moon, but by the time of Julius Caesar, the summer months were arriving in the spring. He corrected this by introducing the Julian calendar in 46 BCE, with a 365-day year and an extra day added every fourth, or leap, year.

Since the dawn of humanity, civilisations have looked to the skies for their gods, divine messages, signals for their prophecies and reference points for their calendars. For the Egyptians, the Milky Way was the path that was traced by a huge celestial cow. For the Mayan people, the universe was defined by cosmic trees: one at its centre and four set at its corners, with branches that reached up to the heavens and roots that burrowed down into the underworld. The primitive tribes of India thought that the Earth was held on the backs of elephants standing on the shell of a tortoise. Many of the beliefs of those times have long been proved wrong, while others, like those of the Sumerian astronomers, are astonishingly similar to present-day interpretations.

This ancient Mesopotamian civilisation was well aware of the predictability of celestial bodies, and plotted the movement of the Sun and Moon to establish an accurate calendar. They mapped the stars into sets of constellations, many of which survive in the zodiac, and were also aware of the five planets that are visible to the naked eye from Earth. These early astronomers used their observations to plot the seasons, as well as to make astrological prophesies.

**Tablets**
The Sumerians developed one of the world’s earliest writing systems in the late 4th millennium BCE, known as cuneiform. Priest-scribes used this to record their celestial observations onto clay tablets, many of which have survived to this day.

**TRAVEL TO THE STARS**
Human cultures have contemplated the sky and have found many meanings to explain it, mythological and practical. Astronomy, the oldest of the natural sciences, illuminated our environment and redefined the Earth’s and mankind’s situation in the immensity of cosmos.

**SOLAR ECLIPSE**
The Greek Thales of Miletus uses Babylonian methods and manages to predict a total solar eclipse. His disciple, Pythagoras, conceived the idea that the Earth was spherical.

**COSMIC DISTANCE**
Hipparchus, the greatest of the ancient astronomers, uses trigonometry to calculate the distance between the Earth and the Moon, and he got very close to the real figure.
New Moon
The Sumerian month began at sunset, with the first visible crescent of the new moon. Days also began and ended at sunset.

Astrolabe
This simple instrument allowed the priests to determine the position and movement of the stars they could see.

Baru priest
Religion and astronomy were very much intertwined in the ancient world. Priest-astronomers were responsible for keeping track of the Sumerian calendar, as well as making astrological divinations. They believed they could use the stars to make predictions about the future of city-states and the outcomes of battles, but they did not believe personal prophecies could be made.

GEO-CENTRISM
Claudius Ptolemaeus summarised ancient astronomy and describes the Earth as the centre of the universe with the rest of the planets turning around it.

NEW PARADIGM
The Polish astronomer Nicolaus Copernicus revolted against the geocentric system of the Greeks and considered that all the planets, including the Earth, orbited around the Sun.

IMPORTANT FINDINGS
Galileo makes his first astronomical observations with his telescope, discovering the craters on the moon and the satellites of Jupiter.

READ MORE ON ASTRONOMY IN
All About Space
ISSUE 44 ON SALE NOW!
Hall of Fame

STARS OF THE SKIES

The scientists and explorers (and one chimp) who worked to help humankind conquer the final frontier and make sense of the stars

CARL SAGAN
AMERICAN 1934-96
A gifted astronomer and leading consultant to NASA, Carl Sagan brought the wonders of the universe into people’s homes as the co-creator and presenter of TV series Cosmos. His hunger for discovery challenged popular beliefs, like suggesting that Venus was not as Earth-like as previously thought. Today, his legacy lives on in the students he inspired, including Steven Squyres – the man who’s looking for life beyond Earth as principal scientist of NASA’s Mars Rover mission.

“Somewhere, something incredible is waiting to be known”

EDWIN POWELL HUBBLE
AMERICAN 1889-1953
It took many cold nights next to the largest telescope in the world, but Edwin Hubble discovered we are not alone. He proved that the universe is expanding and our galaxy – the Milky Way – is just one of many galaxies scattered throughout space. This theory, known today as Hubble’s law, laid the foundation for the Big Bang theory – that the universe exploded into existence and has been expanding ever since. Surprisingly, Hubble never won a Nobel Prize (there was no category for astronomy at the time), but our most powerful eye on the universe, the Hubble telescope, is named after him.

NEIL ARMSTRONG
AMERICAN 1930-2012
“Houston, Tranquility Base here. The Eagle has landed.” With those words, households across the globe erupted with joy – for the first time, man had made it to the Moon. On 20 July 1969, Neil Armstrong became a hero. A childhood fascination with flight led him to serve in the US Navy, before becoming an astronaut in 1962. Though he has passed away, Armstrong’s footprints will remain on the Moon for millions of years – there’s no wind to blow them away.

HAM THE CHIMP
CAMEROonian 1956-83
Ham was just one of hundreds of animals used in space experiments, but he was the first chimp to show that tasks could be performed in space. He was chosen from six ‘astrochimps’ that underwent training as part of NASA’s Project Mercury – the USA’s programme to put a human in orbit around Earth. Prior to launch, Ham was known as No 65, but when he survived with nothing but a bruised nose. NASA had nothing to fear about public reaction and gave him a name. Christened Ham after the Holloman Aerospace Medical Center, he lived out the rest of his days in a zoo.
ALEXEI LEONOV
RUSSIAN 1934-PRESENT
The Soviets beat the US to the first spacewalk in history in 1965. Drifting alongside the Voskhod 2 capsule, Alexei Leonov was overwhelmed by the view. On Earth, his young daughter watched as he took his first steps, sobbing and shouting for him to get back inside. What no one knew is that Leonov nearly died that day. Oxygen levels almost turned the spacecraft into a fireball, but Soviets censored the truth for years after.

HENRIETTA SWAN LEAVITT
AMERICAN 1868-1921
Leavitt went largely unrecognised for her work, but her method for calculating the distances of objects in space was ground breaking for astronomy as a whole, enabling astronomers to work out our position in the universe. At the time, female astronomers weren't even allowed to operate telescopes. Working for astronomer Edward Pickering, she was paid a measly 30 cents an hour to wade through reams of data, which makes her discovery all the more inspiring.

VALENTINA TERESHKOVA
RUSSIAN 1937-PRESENT
Hungry to achieve another ‘space first’, the Soviet Union searched for the candidate who would become the first woman to travel to space. That’s how 26-year-old textile factory worker and keen skydiver Valentina Tereshkova ended up making history in 1963. Her passion for parachuting meant she was equipped to eject from the Vostok 6 spacecraft when returning to Earth at about 20,000 feet (3,786 miles). After a year of intense cosmonaut training, she was ready for her mission, saying: “Hey, sky! Take off your hat. I’m coming!” After nearly three days and 48 orbits, Tereshkova returned as a global celebrity. It would be 19 years before another woman, Svetlana Savitskaya, would follow in her footsteps.

GALILEO GALILEI
ITALIAN 1564-1642
People have been studying the Sun, Moon and stars for more than 5,000 years, in Babylon and Ancient Egypt. But it wasn’t until Galileo Galilei created the world’s first telescope in 1609 that we found that the Moon was filled with craters. A gifted mathematician, Galilei tweaked the design of the spyglass – a device that magnified distant objects – and developed the first telescope. He then went on to discover four moons orbiting Jupiter and gathered evidence that suggested the Earth revolved around the Sun. This clashed with the Catholic Church’s beliefs and resulted in him being put on trial and sentenced to life imprisonment.

ERATOSTHENES
GREEK 276 BCE – 194 BCE
Contrary to popular belief, Christopher Columbus did not discover the Earth was round – the concept dates back to 6th century BCE. With that knowledge, Greek astronomer Eratosthenes was able to estimate the Earth’s circumference. While head librarian in Alexandria, Egypt – the centre of science and learning in the ancient world – he observed the angle of the Sun’s rays and was able to calculate our planet’s size with impressive accuracy.

YURI GAGARIN
RUSSIAN 1934-63
The first human to ever journey to space was a 27-year-old fighter pilot from the Soviet Union in 1961. Yuri Gagarin was only given a 50 per cent chance of surviving the trip, so it was kept a secret from the public until he returned. When news broke of this amazing achievement, a six-hour parade on Red Square was held in his honour and Gagarin became a national treasure. He travelled all over the world, speaking of the wonders of space and the beauty of our planet, but his fame made him too valuable to send on further missions. He died in a military training flight, aged 34.

The first space flight lasted just 108 minutes. One trip around the Earth at 17,500mph took less than an hour and a half!
AN ISS ASTRONAUT

CONDUCTING VITAL RESEARCH AT A LABORATORY THAT IS OUT OF THIS WORLD, EARTH’S ORBIT, EARLY 2000s

In 1998, the first component of the International Space Station was launched into orbit. Over the next 13 years, a further 159 components were added to what is now the largest artificial body in orbit. Originally conceived to serve as an observatory, laboratory and base for future missions, over the years the role of the ISS has greatly expanded. The first long duration stay on the station, called Expedition 1, began on 2 November 2000. The three-person crew was on board for 136 days. Responsible for activating numerous systems, all eyes were on this monumental mission, which would be the start of an uninterrupted human presence on the station.

EXERCISE

Aboard the ISS, the microgravity of space causes muscles to lose mass and bones to lose calcium; daily exercise reduces the risk of this. The first crew on the ISS had three pieces of equipment - a stationary bicycle, a treadmill and a device for weight lifting that had all been specially modified to work in space. Many astronauts aboard the ISS are required to exercise a couple of times each day.

STAY REFRESHED

There was only one toilet aboard the ISS during Expedition 1, and using it was no easy feat. The astronaut had to be strapped down to the toilet and then use a lever that operated a fan and suction hole. Although showers have existed on space stations since the 1970s, the extremely difficult and lengthy procedure was simplified on the ISS. There is no shower on board and instead astronauts use a water jet and wet wipes to clean themselves.

BEGIN WORK

The first crew on the station had an incredible amount of work to do. Not only did they have to unpack equipment, but they were also responsible for activating a large number of on-board systems. The commander, Bill Shepherd, commented that they had to fit 30 hours of work into an 18-hour workday. As well as initial set-up procedures, later crews also had research and maintenance tasks to complete and even spacewalks.
EAT LUNCH

Although astronauts on the ISS today are able to enjoy a great variety of food, early inhabitants were not so lucky. There is no refrigerator on board, so all fresh food had to be consumed immediately. Everything eaten was either frozen, dehydrated or heat stabilised, with most of it being vacuum sealed. Generally, food was not very enjoyable due to the reduced sense of taste in space, and early efforts were concerned more with ensuring the astronauts received their required calories, rather than providing a palatable meal.

WELCOME VISITORS

In the early days of the ISS, visitors were frequent, and Expedition 1 hosted three space shuttle crews and also accepted two unmanned Progress resupply vehicles. Although seeing new faces helped socially, these were vital visits as the space shuttles carried essential supplies, equipment and further components of the space station itself. Later crews also occasionally accepted ‘space tourists’ - individuals who purchased a spare seat to the ISS.

PERSONAL TIME

Every crew member aboard Expedition 1 was given several hours of free time each day, which was essential for their well being as well as helping to bond the crew. This was usually a two-hour period before bed in which the astronauts could read emails, make phone calls and watch movies. On Expedition 1, the crew watched movies including 2010: The Space Odyssey.

SLEEP

The crew followed a strict schedule when it came to sleep, with the sleep period beginning at 21:30 for approximately eight hours. Although resident astronauts on the ISS have their own quarters, visiting crews have to attach their sleeping bags to spaces on the wall. Because of the microgravity, all astronauts have to strap themselves down, else they might float off and damage equipment.

AVOID DEBRIS

Risk from space debris is quite high at the low altitudes in which the ISS orbits. This space debris is tracked from the ground and the crew are alerted if it approaches the station. In order to avoid the debris, which can cause significant damage to the station, thrusters are used to lower or raise the ISS by about one to two kilometres. In the early days of the station, these Debris Avoidance Manoeuvres were quite common, with seven occurring between October 1999 and May 2003. Because of this danger, it was essential for the early crews to be alert and, if necessary, ready to evacuate the ISS at a moment’s notice.
The Anatomy of a Russian Cosmonaut

Soviet Union, 1960s

Back Hatch

For the All-in-One Garment

The Kheche-94 was a rear-entry, as opposed to a waist-entry, suit. This meant that the cosmonaut had to enter the suit through a hatch in the back. It was quite common at the time for zippers to be used in space suits, but these would quickly deteriorate and were not reliable. The life-support backpack was also stored in this hatch, and it could be opened with a lever located near the right elbow.

Shoulder Joints

Enough Mobility to Mount a Flag

The Kheche-94’s shoulder joints were developed after much testing and experimenting. The original Kheche had hard shoulder joints, which badly affected the field of vision and mobility. So the Kheche-94 featured soft single-axis shoulder joints, which allowed more freedom. However, mobility was still somewhat limited, so the Soviet lunar lander was fitted with a finger controller that even a suited pilot could use.

Back Ring

The Life-Saving Hula Hoop

After many near misses and several disasters, the Soviet Union wanted to make sure that their cosmonauts were prepared for any eventuality, and that included falling down. This simple metal ‘hula hoop’ style ring in the back of the suit could actually save a cosmonaut’s life. It allowed any solo traveller who fell on his back to roll on his or her side, and then get up on their feet.

Control Panel

Perfect for Forgetful Cosmonauts

The major control panel of the suit was located on the chest. This was designed for ease of use so the cosmonaut could fold it out when needed, then store it flat against the chest when it was not in use. This also ensured that it was always to hand when required. The control panel was similar to modern versions, allowing the cosmonaut to monitor the status of the suit and make adjustments if need be.

Visor

The Soviet Space Programme’s Answer to Sunglasses

This suit featured two snap-down visors, one clear and the other with a gold coating. As well as adding a bit of colour to the dull beige suit, the outer gold visor had an important purpose - its high reflectivity would reflect glares from the sun. Although the Kheche-94 differed from the Apollo space suit in many ways, they both shared this gold visor.

Food

A 100 Billion Star Meal

The very first human in space, Yuri Gagarin, had tubes of pureed meat and chocolate in the form of paste to snack on. Cosmonauts in the late 1960s had it a little better, with most food stored in cans and plastic pouches, but drinks and soups were still stored in tubes.

Torso

A Giant Leap in Suit Design

The Kheche-94 was something of a trendsetter in its design - it was the first semi-rigid spacesuit. The torso was hard and rigid, made from an aluminium alloy, while the legs and arms were made from soft fabric. This design worked well and was employed in a variety of Russian suits from then on the American Extravehicular Mobility Unit suits also used this design.
THE UNTOLD STORIES BEHIND THE MOST INFAMOUS CRIMES

REAL CRIME

I CHASED OJ SIMPSON

CAN YOU CRACK THE I-70 CASE?

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HOLIDAY HELL

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PLUS

MURDER STATUS GREAT WHITE SHARK

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CAN YOU CRACK THE I-70 CASE?

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5/11 Gunpowder Plot

Everyone remembers the fifth of November, but the true story of the men who plotted the gunpowder treason is often forgotten.

Written by Frances White

When Queen Elizabeth I drew her last breath on her mammoth 44-year-long reign, Catholics around England let out their own sighs of relief. Life under Elizabeth had not been easy. Perhaps in retaliation to the brutal rule of her sister Mary, the devout Catholic queen, Elizabeth had introduced a range of legislations that hit Catholics hard. She was likely fearful of Catholics, and she had reason to be, as a Papal Bull declared that a Catholic’s allegiance was not to the Crown, but to God. In one swift move, every Catholic in England was branded a traitor. Simply being a Catholic, or even sheltering Catholics, was not only illegal but akin to high treason. Terrified, but devoted to their faith, Catholics were forced underground and some 130 priests were executed. As the queen aged, many of the people who had suffered most under her reign began to hope for a successor who would be more sympathetic to their plight.

Considering how much was at stake, the crown passed to its next bearer incredibly smoothly. James I was the grandson of Henry VIII’s sister, Margaret, Queen of Scots, and although he was a Protestant, his mother had been a devout Catholic. For the struggling Catholics, King James’s early acts to relax the fines that they suffered were very encouraging. However, this joy quickly turned sour. Realising how the fines filled up the treasury, James reinstalled them and openly damned the Catholic faith. The hopes of many Catholics were crushed, and for some, this was the final straw.

If one man had felt the bitter sting of anti-Catholicism in England, it was Robert Catesby. A man from an illustrious family line that stretched back to William Catesby, trusted adviser of Richard III, his entire life he had watched his family’s wealth be chipped away by harsh fines. When Catesby was only eight years old, he witnessed his father arrested and tried for harbouring a priest. For the remainder of his young years, his father was constantly in and out of prison. Catesby was tall, handsome and gifted, but he had been forced to drop out of his studies, as obtaining his degree required him to take the oath of supremacy, which swore allegiance to the queen and the Church of England. The Protestant monarchy had taken everything in Catesby’s life; his childhood, his father, his fortune and his future.
Catholic Crime & Punishment

Life for Catholics was anything but easy under the Protestant monarchs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Crime</th>
<th>Punishment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not attending Anglican service</td>
<td>Initially fined 12 shillings, then raised to £20 per month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attending a private Catholic mass</td>
<td>Imprisonment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not paying fines</td>
<td>Imprisonment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fleeing abroad for longer than six months without permission</td>
<td>Forfeit the profits of lands and all goods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being a Catholic priest</td>
<td>Death</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refusing to accept the monarch as head of the Church</td>
<td>Imprisonment and death</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reconciling any person to the Catholic church</td>
<td>Death</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Catesby possessed not only good looks, but also a generous and affable nature, and as a result, he had amassed a large and powerful circle of friends. His allegiance to the Catholic faith was no secret, and he had taken part in a previous rebellion. When Elizabeth fell ill in 1596, Catesby was arrested simply because the government feared he would take advantage of the situation and organise an uprising. Catesby's experiences typified the lives of all Catholics of the time: he was the beating heart of the Catholic struggle, and he was rich and influential enough to actually do something about it.

Catesby had a plan. Killing the king was not enough; Elizabeth's demise had proved that the death of a monarch did not ensure change. The status quo was against him, so the status quo needed to change. To do this, he would blast it to smithereens. In February 1604, Catesby invited Thomas Wintour and John Wright to his house. Wintour, Catesby's cousin, had also felt the sting of anti-Catholicism as his own uncle had been executed for being a priest. Wright was an old friend of Catesby's and had taken part in a rebellion against Elizabeth. In his house in Lambeth, Catesby revealed his grand plan - he would re-establish Catholicism by blowing up the House of Lords during the opening of Parliament. Not only would the king be present, but also the most powerful Protestants in the land. The attack would produce a power vacuum, and the Catholics would be poised to fill it.

Understandably, Wintour was shocked by his cousin's plans. He was quick to argue that, should they fail, it would put back their cause several years. Catesby responded: "The nature of the disease requires so sharp a remedy." He launched into an impassioned speech about the righteousness of his cause, and how Parliament was the perfect target as "in that place they have done us all the mischief." Catesby's natural charisma quickly won around his cousin, who pledged his loyalty and life to the impassioned leader.

Catesby had recruited his first co-conspirators, and more were to follow. Seeking support from the Catholic Spain, Wintour travelled to Flanders. Although he struggled to obtain Spanish support, while there he sought out the man who was fated to become the face of the gunpowder plot - Guy Fawkes. Fawkes had made his Catholic allegiance very clear by fighting on the side of Spain during the Eighty Years' War and had been attempting to drum up support in the country. He was tall, well built with a mop of thick red-brown hair, and he was also determined, driven and skilled in all matters of war. However, there was one of Fawkes's talents that attracted Catesby in particular - his proficiency and knowledge of gunpowder.

The Gunpowder Plot

A royal warrant suggested that if 'gentler tortures' proved fruitless, Guy Fawkes should be racked

When the man met again at the Duck and Drake Inn, they had drafted another conspirator, Thomas Percy, a dear friend of Catesby's. Percy had a reputation as a wild and rebellious youth. He had attempted to build a strong relationship with James I for the good of his religion, but now felt the bitter sting of betrayal. Percy, on a previous occasion, had to be stopped by Catesby from storming into the palace and taking down the king single handedly. Together, these five passionate and wronged men met in the Catholic safe house and Catesby outlined the plan. Percy's support was almost a given, and he proclaimed: "Shall we always, gentlemen, talk and never do anything?" Swayed either by their enigmatic leader or their own hatred of Protestants, the five men swore an oath of secrecy upon a bible and received the Holy Communion from a priest secretly celebrating mass, completely unaware that the men were planning regicide.

With his first co-conspirators in place, Catesby sprang into action. The opening of Parliament had
In the years following Henry VIII’s break from Rome, the religion of the reigning monarch swung from Protestant to Catholic, with devastating effects for their subjects.
The Gunpowder Plot

The conspirators
Each with his own motive for treason

Thomas Bates
1567-1606
Role: Catesby’s servant
Born in Warwickshire. Bates was employed as Catesby’s servant and was seen as a hard-working and loyal man. Due to his close proximity to Catesby, he became suspicious of his unusual activity and was invited into the plot. He became a useful accomplice - as an ordinary man he could perform many actions without arousing suspicion.

Robert Wintour
1568-1606
Role: Financial support
The eldest Wintour brother, Robert inherited the majority of his father’s estate, including Huddington Court. Through marriage, Robert aligned himself to a strong Catholic family, and his home became a refuge for priests.

Christopher Wright
1570-1605
Role: Conspirator
The younger of the Wright brothers, Christopher was described as taller, fatter and fairer than John. A private and discreet man, since his conversion he was fully committed to the Catholic faith, and took part in the same rebellion as his brother and Catesby.

John Wright
1565-1605
Role: Original conspirator
The older of the two Wright brothers, John was a school friend of Guy Fawkes and was thrown in prison for taking part in rebellions. With a reputation as a brave, loyal and skilled swordsman, he converted to Catholicism and became associated with Catesby.
Thomas Percy
1560-1605
Role: Logistics
Percy had a reputation as a wild youth, having possibly abandoned his wife and killed a Scot in a duel. When Percy converted to Catholicism, it helped to calm some of his more rebellious ways, formalizing his fiery nature into bettering the Catholic cause in England.

Guy Fawkes
1570-1606
Role: Explosives expert
Born in York, Fawkes lost his father at a young age, and when his mother married a Catholic, he converted to the faith. He fought for Spain in the Eighty Years’ War and adopted the Italian form of his name, ‘Guido’. He was fiercely opposed to James I, describing him and all of Scotland as heretics.

Robert Catesby
1573-1605
Role: Leader
The only surviving son of Sir William Catesby, Robert Catesby gained a reputation as a Catholic sympathizer after taking part in a rebellion in hopes of usurping the queen. Desperate to reclaim Catholic power, Catesby concocted a plot that would require the co-operation of only a few trusted men but was capable of destroying Protestant power in England.

Thomas Wintour
1571-1606
Role: Original co-conspirator
Thomas Wintour was intelligent, witty and well educated. He fought against Catholic Spain, but his views quickly changed and he became a faithful Catholic. Thomas travelled to Spain in an attempt to drum up support, also known as the Spanish treason, but his success was lacking and he was driven to other, more drastic methods.
been postponed until 5 November the following year due to plague. This gave him plenty of time to prepare everything. Initially, Catesby figured the best way to get the gunpowder beneath the House of Lords would be to dig a tunnel, but the men soon realised a safer way was to lease one of the storerooms that lay beneath. Luckily, Percy had a business in London, so could easily lease a storeroom without attracting suspicion. Explosives expert Guy Fawkes posed as John Johnson, Percy’s servant, and was placed in the premises. The conspirators stored the gunpowder in Catesby’s house and gradually ferried it across the Thames into the dwelling under the cover of darkness.

Steadily, more and more men were drafted into the conspiracy, as it proved impossible for five men alone to handle such grand plans. Catesby’s servant, Bates, became suspicious, and his master had no option but to recruit him. Robert Keyes, Robert Wintour, John Grant and Christopher Wright were also all inducted. Not only were they all passionate Catholics, but many possessed large fortunes and manor houses that would certainly aid the cause.

Secretly, Catesby was worried. He wasn’t a terrorist motivated by blind revenge; he was a moral and religious man, and he wanted to be sure that what he was doing was right. Struggling with his conscience, he repeatedly visited two priests. Father Henry Garnet and Oswald Testermont. Catesby had no doubts that the king was guilty, but he worried about the innocent people who would inevitably be killed in the blast. He asked if this could be excused; was it okay to kill innocents for the greater good? Sworn to the law of confession, Garnet could tell no one of Catesby’s plot, but he attempted to dissuade him.

Despite the priests’ warnings, Catesby continued bringing gunpowder into the storage hold. He also began to make plans for the second part of their scheme. Eager to maintain some order after the king’s death, he decided that James’s child, Princess Elizabeth, would be put in place as his successor. At only eight years old he believed she could be moulded into the figurehead they desired. Elizabeth was also located not in London but in Coombe Abbey near Coventry. In order to make sure this final stage went off without a hitch, Catesby recruited his final three conspirators. Ambrose Rookwood, Everard Digby and Francis Tresham.

By October, everything was in place. Fawkes would remain in London and light the fuse, before escaping the city and travelling to Europe to drum up support. Meanwhile, in the subsequent madness, a revolt would break out in the Midlands and Elizabeth would be captured. Catesby seemed to have recovered from his earlier concern, but the same could not be said of his co-conspirators. A number of the men had friends in Parliament who were fellow Catholics. Late in the evening on 26 October, a letter arrived at the house of one of these fellow Catholics: Lord Montague, a man who had, in his youth, played a part in a fair number of Catholic plots himself. The contents of the letter were shocking. It warned him to abstain from attending Parliament on 5 November, as “they shall receive a terrible blow, this Parliament.”

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**A plot unravels**

As the plot was uncovered, the men fled their separate ways, clinging to hope of revolution.

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**Evening 4 November Westminster**

Catesby, John Wright and Bates decide that the plot will go ahead, despite the discovery that a warning letter was sent to Montague, and begin setting out towards the Midlands.

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**Night 4 November Parliament vaults**

The king’s men search the vaults under Parliament. They stumble upon Fawkes standing by a pile of wood, who informs them his name is John Johnson, and that he works for Thomas Percy.

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**Late night 4 November Parliament vaults**

Under the king’s orders, the men return to the vault and find Fawkes dressed ready for a getaway. He is immediately arrested, and taken to the king in the early hours of 5 November.

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**Morning 5 November Westminster**

Christopher Wright learns of the plot’s discovery and rushes to the Duck and Drake Inn to inform Thomas Wintour. Wintour warns those still in London – Percy, Keyes and Rookwood.

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**Midday 5 November Near Milton Keynes**

Rookwood rides furiously for two hours and manages to catch up with Catesby and the others to warn them of the plot’s failure and Fawkes’ arrest. They decide to continue on to Dunchurch.

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**6pm 5 November Ashby St Ledgers**

The six fleeing conspirators meet up with Robert Wintour, then continue on and meet with Digby, who is accompanied by a hunting party. They continue west to Warwick.

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Very aware of how serious this threat could be, Montague alerted the Earl of Salisbury.

News of the letter quickly found its way back to Catesby, and Tresham was immediately suspected, as Montague was his brother-in-law. Catesby and Thomas Wintour furiously confronted the new recruit, threatening to hang him for his idiocy, but Tresham was able to convince his fiery leader of his innocence. However, Catesby was unwilling to listen to Tresham’s urges to abandon the plot - he was too committed. Risks be damned, the plot would go ahead as planned.

Meanwhile, the king had learned of the mysterious letter. Unlike many of his advisers, he took the warning very seriously. However, he decided to bide his time until the night in question, and see if the conspirators would carry out their alleged plot. When 4 November dawned, both the king and Catesby leapt into action. Catesby, with John Wright and Bates, left for the Midlands to launch the second part of the plan, while Fawkes prepared for his pivotal part.

The king was preparing too. James's men were searching all the buildings around Parliament for signs of anything suspicious. It was in the cellar during one of these searches that they stumbled upon Fawkes. Dressed as a serving man, he stood before a large, suspicious pile of firewood. He explained that he was a servant of Percy. Though he came across rather desperate, apprehensive but not willing to upset him further, the men left to report their findings to the king. As soon as James heard Percy’s name, he was suspicious, and ordered another search of the cellar.

When the men returned, Fawkes was still there. Dressed in his hat, cape and spurs, ready for a quick getaway, he was arrested and searched. Although he stuck to his story and insisted his name was John Johnson, they discovered matches and touchwood on his person. The king’s men inspected the firewood and uncovered 36 barrels of gunpowder, enough to blow the houses of Parliament sky high.

Everything now rested with Fawkes. The plot had failed, but that much was obvious. If he held out long enough, the lives of his friends could be saved. As Fawkes was questioned, he displayed remarkable courage in the face of almost certain death. He stuck by his story that he was indeed John Johnson. However, he did not for a moment deny his intentions, proclaiming that it was his plan to destroy the king and Parliament. When

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“Killing the king was a step too far; even his fellow Catholics had deserted him.”

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**Morning**
6 November
Warwick Castle
Catesby and his men raid the castle for supplies, arming themselves for the fight they believe will follow, before continuing to Norbroke where they pick up more weapons.

**Afternoon**
6 November
Huddington
The conspirators arrive in Huddington to meet with Thomas Wintour. Despite Catesby’s hopes, nobody is willing to ally with them, and they are forced to continue alone.

**Evening**
6 November
London
The Lord Chief Justice questions Rookwood's servants and uncovers the identity of several of the men involved, including Catesby, Rookwood and Wintour.

**Evening**
6 November
Tower of London
With Guy Fawkes still holding, James permits the use of torture to loosen his tongue. He orders that 'gentle tortures' are used first.

**Night**
7 November
Holbeach House
The fugitives arrive at Holbeach House. They spread out their damp gunpowder before a fire, and many of them are set alight. Some of the men choose to leave. The others are arrested.
The Gunpowder Plot

The Gunpowder conspiracy
Was the plot really a state conspiracy?

The mystery
Much of the suspicion surrounding the plot has involved, in some part, the role of the Earl of Salisbury. It was Salisbury who Montague alerted upon receiving the letter, and his peculiar actions have prompted many to ponder if he had more knowledge of the plot than he let on. First of all, he failed to immediately inform the king of the plot, who was out hunting and did not return for several days. Salisbury’s involvement in the plot actually began before the letter even arrived, as he was aware that something was being planned. When the king did learn of the letter, Salisbury denied this knowledge completely, and allowed the king to take full credit. This may have been a clever political play, but perhaps it hints at more.

The motive
The foiling of the plot benefited the king immensely. The feeling of goodwill towards the monarch encouraged Parliament to grant astonishingly high subsidies for the king, and the thanks for this lay at Salisbury’s feet. An ambitious man, Salisbury expertly exploited the situation to garner favour with the monarch, and also allowed him to introduce more anti-Catholic legislation. Salisbury’s anti-Catholic feelings far outstripped the monarch’s, and he wished to rid England of the religion once and for all.

His involvement
Conspiracy theorists summarise that Salisbury may have invented the entire plot himself, targeting known Catholic agitators and penning the letter to Montague. Others argue that instead of inventing it, Salisbury infiltrated the plot far earlier than the letter reveals, and simply allowed it to continue, knowing that he could use it later to fuel the fire of anti-Catholicism.

Evidence
The ease in which the conspirators conducted the plot is the main evidence here. The fact that they were able to get 36 barrels of gunpowder in a country where gunpowder was strictly controlled by the government and store them under the Houses of Parliament would have been very difficult. However, the lack of any other evidence makes this conspiracy impossible to prove. If Salisbury invented the plot, it is unlikely all the men would have confessed to the crime, knowing that death would be the result. The more likely conclusion is that Salisbury was a quick thinking opportunist, who, upon uncovering the truth, exploited the situation for all that it was worth.

The men continued on to the Midlands, but the support Catesby had promised did not come. Word of the treasonous plot had spread rapidly through the country, faster than the men could travel, and even their friends and families turned them away. Catesby had misjudged the situation. Killing the king was a step too far, even his fellow Catholics had deserted him. Wet, miserable and dejected, when the men finally reached their safe house of Holbeck House in Staffordshire, they spread out the gunpowder in front of a fire to dry it off. A spark ignited it, and engulfed Catesby, Rookwood and Grant in flames.

Meanwhile, in London, the king’s men were steadily breaking Fawkes’ steely resolve. He was placed upside down in manacles and hung from a wall, and most likely strapped to the rack, his limbs agonisingly dislocated. By 7 November, what remained of Fawkes’s resolve had crumbled. Broken and drained, he confessed the details of the plot and the names of all his co-conspirators. Catesby was alive, but for some the explosion was a grim sign and their commitment to their leader finally waned. Gradually, the team began to

“Before the trials even began, the verdict was a foregone conclusion”

People lit bonfires as soon as the news of the plot spread to celebrate the King’s survival.
Fawkes's legacy

The link between the gunpowder plot and bonfires was created almost immediately. While Fawkes was still subject to interrogations on 5 November, people around London lit bonfires in celebration of their monarch's escape. These fiery pyres spread all across the country as the news travelled, and instantly became part of the tradition. The king introduced an act declaring that all his people had to attend a thanksgiving service to celebrate his survival. This annual service continued until 1859, cementing the Gunpowder Plot in the nation's memory. Even in 1847, when all feast days were abolished, the 5 November celebration remained in place. Bonfire night took on a new form in the 18th century, with people burning effigies of the pope and treating it as a general anti-Catholic event. As Fawkes's association with the plot grew, people began to burn effigies of Fawkes instead, a tradition that continues to this day. However, the religious overtones have been all but extinguished.

The people didn't care how charismatic their leader was. They wanted blood, and they were going to get it. The men were declared guilty of treason, and on a chilly 30 January, the first four faced their punishment. They were dragged through the street strapped to a wooden panel on the back of a horse. Then, the men were stripped down to their shirts and their heads placed in a noose. They were briefly hung, but cut down while still breathing so they could experience the pain of having their genitals cut off and burned before their eyes. The bowels and the heart were then removed, and the bodies cut into pieces and displayed for the birds to pick at. The bodies of Catesby and Percy were also decapitated, and their heads exhibited as a grim warning. Only one man, the final to face punishment, managed to escape the pain of castration and disembowelling - Guy Fawkes, broken and barely able to stand, used his final ounce of strength to leap from the gallows and break his neck, dying instantly.

The plan had been a disastrous failure, and the unearthing of such a dangerous Catholic plot almost ended in tragedy did little to help the lives of Catholics in England. Although James was quick to make it clear that he did not blame all Catholics in his nation, strict laws against them were soon implemented. True Catholic emancipation would take a further 200 years, and the men who had schemed, fought and died for it would live on only in legend and rhyme.
Bluffer’s Guide

ALGERIA, 1954-62

The Algerian War

Did you know?
The French army used helicopters to pursue and attack FLN guerrilla units - a strategy that was later adopted by the USA in Vietnam.

Timeline

1 NOVEMBER 1954
Between midnight and 2am, FLN guerrillas attack 30 military and police targets in French Algeria, killing seven. It becomes known as Red All Saints’ Day.

20 AUGUST 1955
A failed attack on Philippeville is the first time that civilians are targeted by the FLN. It ends any hopes of reconciliation.

30 SEPTEMBER 1956
Three bombs explode in Algiers, starting a year-long FLN guerrilla campaign in the capital. The French keep control but are criticised for their brutal methods.

13 MAY 1958
A coup d’etat, started in Algiers, leads to Charles de Gaulle becoming the new leader of France. He offers a more conciliatory approach to the FLN.
What was it?
The Algerian War was part of the Algerian nationalist campaign headed by the National Liberation Front (FLN) seeking freedom from France. It was a bad-tempered conflict marked by guerrilla warfare, acts of terrorism and torture. The FLN targeted civilians who refused to back them, while the French authorities retaliated with torture and assassination. The war was a military defeat for the FLN – the French army was left in control of the region and Algerian leaders were killed – but the conflict alienated the government in Paris and led to the fall of the Fourth Republic. The new French president, Charles de Gaulle, surprised many when he opened negotiations with the Algerian nationalists. The resulting agreement, the Evian Accords, was ratified in both war-weary France and Algeria in 1962. Algeria had won independence, but it wasn’t the end of the fighting – many Algerians who supported the French were later abducted, tortured or murdered, and 800,000 ‘Pied-Noir’ Algerians with European ancestry were evacuated to France.

Why did it happen?
The Algerian War was part of the wave of decolonisation that occurred after World War II. Algerian nationalists began to stir, demanding independence. However, Algeria’s situation was unusual in that it was not classed as a colony, but an integral region of France, meaning French leaders were unwilling to let Algeria secede. The Séthif Massacre in 1945 was a turning point in relations – French authorities and vigilantes killed about 6,000 Algerians following unrest. The FLN was formed in 1954, including an armed wing. It hoped to replicate the success of French Indochina, which ejected France the same year. Over the next two years, other Algerian nationalist movements became subsumed into the FLN, making it a powerful movement that offered a real threat to French control.

Who was involved?
Larbi Ben M’hidi
1923-57
A prominent figure in the FLN at the outbreak of war, M’hidi was killed in captivity by French soldiers.

Charles de Gaulle
1890-1970
Expected to back French control in Algeria, de Gaulle instead brought about a negotiated end to the war.

Ferhat Abbas
1899-1985
Abbas was persuaded to join the cause after initially opposing it. He acted as a figurehead leader, beginning dialogue with France.
GOVERNMENT EVACUATION SCHEME

BLITZ KIDS

Torn away from their families or kept at home in cities pummelled by bombs, children were forced to face the merciless might of Nazi Germany.

Written by David Crookes
By 6 September 1940, Britain had been in the grip of war against Nazi Germany for just over a year, and things were not going well. France had fallen in June and the Luftwaffe had been directly assaulting airfields, factories and shipping in Britain. But while an invasion seemed likely, the chief of the air staff’s 1939 prediction - of a bombardment of civilian targets in London causing 175,000 casualties in the first 24 hours - had not materialised. There was relative calm on the streets. Then on 7 September 1940, that all changed.

The Blitz, as it became known, was an all-out attack that started in London and spread to other cities across the United Kingdom. It continued for eight months, one week and two days, and aimed to test the resolve of the British public in the cruellest and most devastating of ways. 159 major air raids were conducted, and 31,822 tons of bombs were dropped. On 14 November 1940, 500 Luftwaffe bombers almost wiped Coventry off the map as it sought to destroy the city’s munitions factories. On 29 December 1940, 1,400 fires raged across London following the heaviest night of Blitz bombing. St Paul’s Cathedral was miraculously left standing.

The bombs left millions of homes destroyed and 42,000 civilians dead. They also had a profound effect on the nation’s children, whether they had been sent away to the homes of strangers in the countryside or abroad, or were spending nights huddled with their families in cramped air-raid shelters. Playground friends would be killed or injured, mothers would be maimed, babies would gasp their first breaths and children would see limbs in the most unusual of places, having been propelled by a blast. Gas masks were as much an accessory as smartphones are for youngsters today.

At the same time, the children also came to have greater freedom and responsibilities than they had ever previously experienced. They acted as comforters, worked side by side with adults in assisting the war effort, broadened their minds in new environments and became skilful in household tasks. They learned to cope with the harsh realities of rationing (which severely cut down the number of sweets they could eat) and they had to prove resourceful.

When the Blitz ended on 21 May 1941 and the evacuees returned, life began returning to some normality, although air raids continued. In 1944, Hitler unleashed a second Blitz, this time using his secret weapons: the V1 and V2 flying bombs. The first V1 fell on 13 June 1944 and London suburbs began suffering greatly. Juvenile crime also rose and police blamed it on the returning evacuees wanting to have fun by smashing up and playing on bomb-damaged properties. There was no denying the impact the Blitz had on Britain’s children - and the impact the children had on Blitzed Britain.
Blitz Kids

GOVERNMENT EVACUATION SCHEME

EVACUATION

Posters urged parents to evacuate children from the cities as cardboard coffins were stockpiled in preparation for an expected onslaught.

LEAVE THIS TO US
SONNY — YOU OUGHT
TO BE OUT OF LONDON

MINISTRY OF HEALTH EVACUATION SCHEME

Eleventh Edition
September 1940

— EYEWITNESS —

Phyllis Davies
Home town: Manchester
Age during the Blitz: 6
Brief bio: Phyllis’s only taste of country life before evacuation had been planning from trips to Manchester’s Heaton Park, so when she was evacuated, she was largely inexperienced.

Was it hard as a child to suddenly have to leave home?
It was. I remember being taken to London Road Railway Station, which is now Manchester Piccadilly, and it was horrendous. I had never been away from home and, as far as I knew, I was going on holiday. People were waving goodbye and my mum was crying. I cried too. They kept saying I was going to flood the train but I just wanted home.

What was it like when you arrived?
We went to a school room in Uttoxeter and people picked who they wanted, a bit like a cattle market. It wasn’t a happy time. My job was to clean the kitchen, living room and parlour and keep the fire going. I had to clean the hen house too. My mum visited and asked me how often I did that; I said every week. I was home that night.

Did you stay at home?
No, I was evacuated again to Marchington. I was always hungry, though. I would have porridge with no sugar or milk, school dinners and a piece of toast in the evening. I used to get food from the fields and eat that. They were tough times.

By the time the Luftwaffe began raining bombs from the air on 7 September 1940, millions of children had already been evacuated from British cities to the safety of the countryside or abroad. The British government had acted some four days before it declared war on Germany, issuing an order on 31 August 1939 at 11:07am to “evacuate forthwith.”

The evacuation was codenamed Operation Pied Piper and, during the first few days alone, 735,000 unaccompanied British children and 426,500 mothers with children were being moved as a precaution against a possible German invasion. It was an audacious plan, and had been in the making for more than a year. In 1938, children were issued with gas masks and London County Council put its own evacuation plan into action, moving nursery children and disabled people when Germany threatened to invade Czechoslovakia. By July 1939, residents had been privately leaving the capital, but those were mere trickles in comparison.

While evacuation was voluntary, the many leaflets and public information films proved persuasive, and children were sent to gather at their schools where they were handed identity labels. Some were taken on double-decker buses and many were marched to railway stations, each child carrying their gas mask and a few personal possessions, ready to begin their journeys on one of the 1,500 special trains that had been laid on.

There were harrowing scenes. Young children cried for their parents while their mothers screamed instructions for the children to look after themselves. Siblings clung tightly to each other while the 100,000 teachers that were sent with the children tried to keep spirits high with bursts of song.

Older children were more excited and saw the trip as an adventure. They would mock the frightened younger ones for crying, and their exuberance led reporters to write about Operation Pied Piper as a largely positive experience.

When the children reached their countryside destination, they were either taken to a sizeable venue – typically a village hall – or driven from house to house. Potential foster parents would cast their eyes over the youngsters and decide who they wanted. Usually, the most presentable children were taken first, and children who insisted on being accompanied by a sibling were often rejected. An emergency order meant that evacuees had to be housed in spare bedrooms, so some foster parents were forced to take children in. As a result, amid the happy recollections of being sent away were tales of beatings, enforced work and neglect. Operation Pied Piper was also a culture shock for many foster parents and children.

But the evacuations saved countless lives. Although large numbers of children returned home at the beginning of 1940 when the expected bombardment failed to materialise, the falling of France on 13 June 1940 prompted a second wave of evacuations. Even more moved away in September when it became clear the Blitz attack was to be relentless. It was not without its heartache, though. On 18 September 1940, a Nazi U-boat sunk a liner taking evacuees to Canada, killing 83 children.

Bombs tore apart key cities including London, Coventry, Manchester and Swansea. Had all of the evacuated children remained behind, the death toll would have been much higher and the strain on the air-raid shelters immense. The plan may have had a curious name – the fictional Pied Piper of Hamelin lured children away never to be seen again – but it ensured the majority would eventually return safe and well.

A report of the death of 83 evacuated children on the front page of the Daily Mirror on 23 September 1940

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Many of the children would not have fully understood why they were being evacuated from cities to rural locations.

LEAVING HOME
Britain's biggest cities sent thousands away

- NEWCASTLE 52,494
- TEESIDE 8,052
- LEEDS 26,419
- SHEFFIELD 13,871
- LONDON 241,000
- NECSEYISIDE 79,530
- MANCHESTER 84,343
- BIRMINGHAM 32,568
- PORTSMOUTH 23,145

In the period between the first wave of evacuations and the Blitz, many evacuees returned home, but the government urged parents to keep them out of the cities.

DON'T do it, Mother—
LEAVE THE CHILDREN WHERE THEY ARE

For older children, the change of scenery and a trip on a train (even in third class) was a big adventure.
Hundreds of thousands of children were not evacuated from the cities, as their families decided it was preferable for them to stay together during the onslaught. It wasn’t such a bad idea, as there was evidence following the war that it had actually proved better for them than being moved into the country (Penny Stanns writes in her book *Blitz Families: The Children Who Stayed Behind* of children growing taller and more robust in the cities than in the country. She says they were less depressed, more emotionally stable and enjoyed the moments of family intimacy the air raids brought.

**WHERE TO SEEK SHELTER IN AN AIR RAID**

**Anderson shelter**
- **Pros:** Available free to anyone earning less than £260 a year. These shelters were incredibly sturdy safe havens that were ideal for anyone with enough land.
- **Cons:** Families had to build them and they were no deterrent against a direct hit. They were also cold, damp and very cramped. They were liable to flood.

**London Underground**
- **Pros:** Warm and deep enough underground to keep the thousands of people who used them safe from bombs. There were beds and entertainment.
- **Cons:** It initially cost a penny to go down to the sheltering platform and jobsite for a position amid hundreds of people. Could be unsanitary.

**Morrison shelter**
- **Pros:** These were heavy steel cages that could be used indoors, ensuring there were warm places for up to three people to sleep in. They were also easy to access.
- **Cons:** Claustrophobic and hot, and some people felt they looked unsightly, ineffective against direct hits and if the house collapsed, the residents could be trapped.

**Public shelter**
- **Pros:** Built from March 1940, these offered protection for people who were nowhere near home during an air raid. Some tunnels were built into sandstone cliffs in Stockport.
- **Cons:** The cheap and hurried construction of many shelters meant they were not bombproof. One flooded, drowning many. There was also evidence of anti-social behaviour.

**Railway arches**
- **Pros:** Built out of brick and very strong, existing railway arches could shelter thousands of people. Sand bags or large physical barriers would protect against blasts.
- **Cons:** The Nazis would target railways, so the possibility of a direct hit was increased. Some initially at least didn’t have effective toilet facilities.
But wartime Britain nevertheless turned their lives upside down. 1 million city children were left without education for months at a time as their schools were taken over for military purposes. Some had also been destroyed, such as Hallsiville Junior School in the East End of London, which was crowded with refugees when it was directly hit on 10 September 1940, killing an estimated 600 people. The schools that were open were overcrowded, and so the children who remained found they had a lot of time on their hands.

It was a difficult period. As well as being on edge while the bombs fell, their homes were destroyed, and people were maimed and killed. A small number of children also fell into trouble. In *The Secret History Of The Blitz*, author Joshua Levine says 48 per cent of those arrested by police between September 1940 and May 1941 were children, and in *Blitz Kids*, historian Sean Longden writes of juvenile delinquency rates rising by 40 per cent in the early part of the war. Young so-called blackout gangs caused problems, as did looters. There were also cases of teenage boys raiding Home Guard armaments in order to steal ammunition. Police were simply too stretched and they struggled to keep control.

It didn’t help that call-ups to the armed forces were ripping families apart, but efforts were nevertheless made to keep children occupied. The movie industry continued and cinemas proved attractive, as did youth clubs. For the most part, though, children made their own entertainment, playing in side streets and parks. They would collect shrapnel and compare their finds. Plane spotting was also a popular hobby, with the excitement of seeing Spitfires and Hurricanes or aerial dogfights being a particular treat. But as the air-raids senns wailed and the Luftwaffe dropped bomb after bomb, danger was never far away.

Cities burned and the skies choked with smoke. Night virtually turned to day in the flicker of the flames and it was both frightening and fascinating for young minds. Orphans were created in seconds and life was entirely disrupted. Each night, families would desperately seek protection within cramped Anderson shelters. In London, thousands headed for the Underground, buying tickets and piling on to the platforms even as the trains shunted past. Some stations were closed and children would bed down in the track area. They would scream as the bombs shook the ground and shudder as rats clambered over their small bodies.

Older children tried to lead as normal a life as possible - a prime example of the infamous ‘Blitz Spirit’ - and it wasn’t unusual for them to die with danger and walk the battered streets. Away from the arguments that often raged within the shelters, as hormonal and tired teens resented the restrictions placed upon them, the adventurous explorers would encounter the bodies of those killed by falling bombs or spraying debris. Some brave young souls insisted on sleeping in their own homes, preferring to risk their lives rather than huddle with strangers in dark and smelly places devoid of even the most basic of toilet facilities.

When those homes were destroyed, the children would have to move. Families were constantly seeking new places to live, but even in transit, there was danger. Trains and buses would be targeted and there were tales of children being fired at in the streets from above. The Nazi bombers were unflinching and determined to pummel the British into submission, and children would become understandably, bitter about the enemy. For if the cities in which they lived were being altered before their eyes, then their transition to adulthood was proving just as rapid. During eight months of the first Blitz, 5,028 children were killed.
Girl Guides work on their hospital allotment to produce vegetables.

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**EYEWITNESS**

Ken Currah
Home town: Stockton
Age during the Blitz: 15

Brief bio: Ken Currah was a Boy Scout who was briefly evacuated from his home in Stockton to the Scarborough coast. He spent most of the war in Teesside.

**What was it like in the Boy Scouts during the war?**

It was interesting. I ran the Scout troop at the age of 15 for a while until the local association found out and stopped me because I was too young to get a warrant. We would help the local community, getting shopping for older people who struggled to leave the house and things like that.

**Did you directly help the war effort?**

We had paper collections. Paper was never thrown away and it became one of the salvaged items at the start of the war. The Scouts helped to collect it. There was a photograph of me on top of a mountain of newspapers in the Northern Echo. The Scouts also collected pots and pans from housewives, which were melted down and used for aircraft. Recycling became ingrained in you because of the shortage of everything.

**Were you also trained in first aid?**

I was. We had to do so much first aid. One of the badges to take to become a first-class Scout was the ambulance badge. I took the exam and passed. I didn’t have to use the skills luckily because we didn’t get the air raids that the country got elsewhere.

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**GOVERNMENT EVACUATION SCHEME**

**CHILDREN AND THE WAR EFFORT**

Many children wanted to do their bit, and as well as trying to enlist in the armed forces, they provided useful back up on the Home Front.

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Comics were popular among children during the Blitz but the humorous strips contained some serious messages. Popular papers including The Dandy carried propaganda that deliberately made fools of the Axis leaders. While children enjoyed the hapless adventures of Musso, Addie and Hermy, they were being encouraged to support the Home Guard, ensure blackouts were adhered to and to collect waste paper for recycling. “If you keep waste paper saving going with a swing,” The Beano said alongside a drawn image of Adolf Hitler in a noose, “maybe you’ll soon see Hitler swing.”

Waste paper collections, along with scrap metal salvage, were important during a period when supplies were limited. Children would gather what they could find and it allowed them to feel they were doing their bit for the war effort. But this was just the tip of the iceberg, as children carried out a host of essential duties. From Girl Guides and Boy Scouts to children working alongside Air Raid Precautions (ARP) and the Home Guard; they effectively formed their own army of mini-helpers.

Guides collected various items such as jam jars as well as lots of money. But, as Jane Hampton’s book How The Guides Won The War explains, they also kept up morale by singing songs in bomb shelters, which quickly became known as Blackout Blues. They assisted families in digging their own shelters and knitted warm clothes for those who needed them. Guides helped children understand how to fit their gas masks and, as Sean Longden notes in Blitz Kids, they even went as far as converting canvas latrine cubicles into gas decontamination facilities.

Like the Guides, the Boy Scouts helped to build air-raid shelters and administer first aid. They would also stretcher people injured by falling bombs and they would unload ambulances and take patients to specific wards. Scouts would nimbly cycle at speed to deliver messages and they’d work with the firemen to put out fires. It could be horrific work, with older children collecting the bodies of those killed during the raids and seeing some horrific injuries that no level of first-aid training could patch up. But their sense of pride was evident throughout.

Since many fathers had gone to war, the children were keen to assist. Many of them had, in a sense, become the temporary heads of their households and the confidence it gave them meant they would take on life-risking, dangerous work without a
second thought. Guides who had achieved their Pathfinder badges would navigate the dark streets at night and show people how they could get to a shelter - an act of kindness and selfless duty that could have resulted in them being killed or maimed by a bomb or blast. Boys and girls were also called upon to smother or move thermite incendiary bombs. Such devices were a favourite of the Luftwaffe, and they were often dropped in batches of about 72, producing devastating fires that tore entire areas apart if left alone.

Alan Wilkin was 16 when he tackled an incendiary bomb in 1941, and he suffered permanent chest injuries as a result. His bravery was rewarded with one of Scouting’s highest awards, the gilt Cross, but he was not alone. Charity Bick was a 14-year-old civilian dispatch rider who claimed to be 16 in order to join the ARP in West Bromwich. When the town was bombed in 1940, she put out an incendiary bomb with her father but fell through the roof they were on. She survived with minor injuries. She borrowed a bike, dodged further dangers and delivered messages to the control room. She was awarded the George Medal for bravery, becoming the youngest person to ever receive it.

Scores of children lied about their age to join the volunteer ARP (or the Civil Defence Service, as it became known) as well as the Home Guard and the armed forces. Recruiters often just turned a blind eye, having been impressed by their enthusiasm and patriotism. The Home Guard became a way of training youngsters before conscription and the ARP’s wardens appreciated having extra pairs of eyes as children clambered onto school roofs to act as spotters, sped along on bikes delivering messages from one ARP post to another, and even set up their own assistive child divisions.

At any time, their families could have been affected or their homes bombed. In their minds, though, the task at hand was the most important thing and they would often stop at nothing to achieve their objective. The children may have had unconventional childhoods, but their involvement in the war effort helped shape their future lives.

**BADGES OF HONOUR**

Scouts and Girl Guides had many roles during the Blitz

**Messaging**
To earn a telegraphist badge, Girl Guides were required to make their own wireless receivers and send messages in Morse code at a speed of 30 letters per minute.

**First aid**
Both Scouts and Girl Guides were given training in first aid to enable them to tend to people wounded by falling bombs, debris and blasts. They manned first-aid stations too.

**Mechanics**
Youngsters proved to be useful electricians and mechanics, helping maintain equipment and infrastructure. They would come to have solid knowledge of vehicles and planes.

**Spotting**
Acting as spotters, children would help ARP by keeping an eye out for fires and enemy bombers. They would use whistles to alert others to the incoming danger.

**Evacuations**
Guides and Scouts would assist in the logistically complex evacuation of youngsters to the countryside and they would be waiting to help as the children reached their destinations.

**Fundraising**
During Guide Gift Week in 1940, £46,217 was raised to help the war effort. Two air ambulances, a lifeboat, mobile canteens and rest huts were among the resulting purchases.

**Morale-boosting**
By singing songs and assisting with problems, the Guides and Scouts would help keep up spirits in air-raid shelters. They would also grow food and cook for people.

**FIND OUT MORE**
A free exhibition featuring more than 200 objects, sound recordings, film clips, artworks and photographs from the Imperial War Museum’s national collections is taking place in Manchester. *Horrible Histories: Blitz Brits* is running in the special exhibitions gallery of the Imperial War Museum North until Spring 2016. Go to www.lwm.org.uk for more details.
Walt Disney

Legendary filmmaker Walt Disney blazed a trail for what feel-good film and TV entertainment could be. In his lifetime and beyond, he became the subject of criticisms that remind us of his human frailty.

Written by James Clarke

Walt Disney’s life as an artist and an industrialist embodied many of the contradictions and successes of what the American publisher Henry Luce dubbed ‘The American Century’. For all of the fun-loving entertainment produced by Walt’s studio, and its often hugely accomplished application of technology to the art and craft of storytelling, it’s important to recognise that a man, with all-too-human frailties and shortcomings was at the centre of things. Walt became both a symbol of creative energy and ambition, as well as a reminder of how life’s complications inevitably shape us as individuals.

Walt Disney was born in 1901 in Chicago and was raised on a farm in Marceline, Missouri. The Disney family then moved to Kansas City in 1911, and it was in that year that lightning struck: Walt discovered the joy of watching movies and was soon entranced by how to make pictures move. As Walt’s teenage years advanced, so too did tensions in Europe, and the young cartoonist found himself in France, serving on the battlefields.

Returning home from World War I, Walt settled back into daily life, and in 1920, he and his associate and friend Ub Iwerks took jobs at the Kansas Slide Company. In his own free time, Walt began producing advertising and short animated films. He moved quickly: by 1922, he had established Laugh-O-Gram Films, and in 1923, he moved to Hollywood, where the film industry had begun to prove itself as a viable industry producing and selling well-told stories to a global audience.

In Hollywood, Walt and his brother Roy established Disney Brothers Studio; their earliest project was producing a series of Alice Comedies that combined live action and animation. Critically, in 1924, Walt shifted from being an artist to being a director and ultimately a producer, and his old pal, Ub Iwerks, returned to the fold as an employee. Ub would be vital to Walt’s earliest movies. Indeed, over the decades, criticism had
Hero or Villain?

WALT DISNEY
In 1961, Disney founded and funded the California Institute of the Arts, a school for young artists.

been directed at Walt for not having sufficiently credited, or more publicly acknowledged, those that he collaborated with so successfully. Animation historian Michael Barrier writes of Walt that “what made him different, and so much more exciting and interesting than most entrepreneurs, was that he emerged as an artist through realising his ambitions for his business.” One way to understand Walt, then, is as somebody who orchestrated the contributions of others towards the creation of a film project, and he was justly celebrated.

Creative and commercial success was hard won for the Disney brothers. In 1927, with the Disney cartoon character Oswald the Lucky Rabbit proving very popular, the brothers found themselves having to sell the rights to the character in order to protect the longer-term life of the company. Suddenly, they were without a character design identifiable with the company, and so they were compelled to develop a new character with which to replace Oswald. What had seemed a catastrophe had a very happy ending and Mickey Mouse was drawn to life. In 1928, Mickey debuted in the landmark film Steamboat Willie, which established Mickey’s hugely appealing personality and was the first animated film with synchronous sound. This short film would lead on to Disney’s eventual feature film breakthrough of Snow White And The Seven Dwarfs in 1937.

For all of the upbeat entertainment that Walt produced, it’s rather jarring to consider the degree of material that’s been generated around his contradictions. Walt has been deemed to have been anti-Semitic, yet Jewish artists worked at his studio, he made financial contributions to Jewish charities and was granted the Man of the Year Award from the Jewish organisation B’nai Brith in 1955.

Staying with issues around racial and ethnic sensitivities, it is reasonable to consider a particularly well-known project that’s informed by Walt’s less progressive attitudes. In 1946, Disney released the controversial feature film Song Of The South (1946), an adaptation of the Uncle Remus stories of Joel Chandler Harris. Certainly, from our 21st-century viewpoint, we can look with reservation at the movie and recognise the film’s perpetuation of caricatures and stereotypes of black people. Even at the time of the film’s original release, the NAACP objected to the film and the last time that the Disney studio released Song Of The South was more than 20 years ago. In 1991, it looks unlikely to be re-released in the future.

Certainly, it can be useful to consider the ways in which the personal is political and the political is personal, and in the USA in the 1940s and 1950s, this complex dynamic churned away in various forms—notably in terms of actions and reactions towards the perceived threat of communism. In 1947, The New York Times ran a story proclaiming “Disney Denounces Communists.” Walt’s decision to express concern in this way about the political left in Hollywood was the result of a watershed event reaching back to 1941. In that year, Walt’s liberal sympathies gave way to a more strident, right-of-centre political view. His staff went on strike as part of their move to become unionised in order to more effectively protest for better wages. Furthermore, the record suggests that part of the strike was motivated by some of Disney’s artists feeling that their contributions were not duly recognised or identified. Walt abhorred this
unionising effort, arguably considering it more as a personal affront than a political and ideological one. Indeed, Walt was so frustrated by the strike that in July 1941, he ran an advert in the film industry trade paper Variety that made it clear he believed communist agitators had motivated the strike. In the years after 1941, Walt considered the strike to have prompted a significant fracture within the studio and his concerns seem to have certainly tied in with a wider public concern about traditional American values being compromised by both communism and fascism. In 1944, Walt founded and was co-president of the Motion Picture Alliance for the Preservation of American Ideals (MPA). In that same year, the Council of Hollywood Guilds and Unions was formed, and deemed the MPA as a threat to democratic free speech in film. Quite quickly, the wider public's sympathy was with the Council rather than with the MPA.

Walt oversaw his studio at a time when only men worked as animators. This was common practice at the time for animation companies in North America and certainly Walt has been criticised for not providing women equal opportunities in the workplace. However, a speech that Walt made in February 1941 to his employees contains the following statement that suggests a recognition of a changing workplace: “If a woman can do the work as well, she is worth as much as a man. The girl artists have the right to expect the same chances for advancement as men, and I honestly believe they may eventually contribute something to this business that men never could or would.”

Culturally conservative, Walt was a man of immense creative capacity. He was a true American entrepreneur who was excited by technological innovation and mass communication, displaying a fairly dazzling facility with organising and industrialising animation production. Walt understood how entertainment could enrich people’s lives. However, his essentially conservative and traditionally minded attitudes do complicate the picture, suggesting that here was a man who, while being a captain of the American creative industry, found himself increasingly grappling with a forward-thinking post-World War II world.

“In 1924, Walt shifted from being an artist to being a director and ultimately a producer, and his old pal, Ub Iwerks, returned to the fold”
STALIN’S GREAT TERROR

Sergei Kirov, member of the Bolshevik party and close friend of Joseph Stalin, has been murdered in cold blood. The events surrounding his assassination are suspicious, with hints that Stalin himself may have played a part, but regardless of who is responsible, it has plunged the Soviet Union into a dark and bloody era of terror.

Stalin, convinced that his own downfall is being plotted, has launched the Great Purge—the systematic oppression and persecution of basically anyone he regards as suspect. The Soviet Union has suffered purges before, but this is different: with no clear boundaries of who is a target, absolutely anyone could find themselves arrested, imprisoned and even killed. The Soviet secret police, the NKVD, prowl the streets to snuff out anyone who endangers the status quo. Ordinary men and women live in constant fear of a single slip up, while the unlucky ones are carted off in the night, thrown into a dark cell, worked to death in a Gulag camp, or lined up against a wall and shot.

Did You Know?

Interrogators focus on two questions: “Who recruited you?” and “who did you recruit?”

WHERE TO STAY

Because of the mass migration of rural peasants to the cities due to the famine that ravaged the countryside in 1932, housing is at a premium. Only six per cent of households have more than one room, and to cope with the increasing demand, sub-par apartment blocks have been quickly erected. Housing belongs to the government here, and you have to make do with what you are given, and more often than not this means communal living. If you manage to find work with certain organisations, you may get a slightly better standard of housing. In reality, though, living somewhere vaguely comfortable is the best you should expect. There is great envy and animosity between families regarding the size of apartments, and even instances of people being murdered for possession of their housing. Bearing this in mind, living in a big place will not necessarily work in your favour.

Dos & Don’ts

- Turn up to work on time.
- Repeat offences of tardiness, such as being late to work three times, could result in you being sent to the Gulag for three years.
- Praise Stalin. Everyone is required to do so - newspapers credit him with every success and people applaud every time his name is uttered.
- Avoid crime of any kind. Even the smallest offences can see you sent to the Gulag. Petty theft is seen as stealing state property, carrying a ten-year sentence.
- Keep your morals. In an era this dark and dangerous, it can be easy to lose hope, but you absolutely do not want to become part of the problem. Remain true to yourself.
- Say anything bad about Stalin, laugh at a joke at his expense or read anti-Stalinist literature. You never know who is watching you.
- Show off any remarkable talents you may possess. Intellectuals are a target and seen as a threat.
- Get on anyone’s bad side. Annoying a neighbour could get you turned in to the NKVD and arrested, never to be seen again.
- Bother trying to escape elsewhere. If you’re on their list, they will find you. Trotsky was assassinated and he made it all the way to Mexico.
WHO TO BEFRIEND

An NKVD officer
Befriending anyone in this climate of terror is a risk, even neighbours and family members are driven by fear and greed to report each other to the authorities. However, it's hard to survive alone, so genuine, reliable people are important to keep around you. A great friend to have would be someone in immediate authority, such as an NKVD officer. The NKVD are responsible for kidnappings and assassinations, so getting in an officer's good books can mean the difference between life and death. It's not without risk, but few things are in communist Russia.

Extra tip: To ensure survival, there are groups of people you want to make sure you're not associated with. The orthodox clergy have basically been wiped out; writers, intellectuals and artists are also hunted down and imprisoned or killed. Anyone at all who poses a threat or is seen to upset the status quo is to be avoided.

WHO TO AVOID

Joseph Stalin
Although it may seem a good idea to befriend the figure with the most power, getting close to Stalin is extremely risky. The leader is a very volatile, ruthless and unpredictable man, paranoid that everyone is determined to oust him from power. These beliefs have led him to put to death even his closest friends, such as Nikolai Yezhov, his old Bolshevik allies and even his own tutor. If you are able to befriend him, it's a very powerful card to have in your hand, but the risks may be too great. It will aid your survival to keep your head down and avoid attracting the dictator's attention in any way.

Helpful Skills

Every action you make can mean life or death, so make sure you go in prepared with these essential skills.

Specialist skills
Everyone in the Soviet Union is required to work. As Lenin wrote: “Those who don’t work don’t eat,” so getting a high-paying job is paramount. If you have specialist skills, such as engineering, this will help put food on the table.

Acting
You are not free to air your real thoughts in Soviet Russia - doing so will get you arrested or killed. If you're able to create a front and play the role convincingly, it could save your own life and those you love.

Language
Anyone who belongs to an ethnic group that isn't Russian is persecuted, and Russification - the enforcing of Russian language and customs - is spread across the country. Not speaking Russian will make you an easy target.
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AUTOMOBILES
From two miles an hour to 240 miles an hour - how has the car become our most popular form of transport?

ROLLS-ROYCE SILVER GHOST 1907
Henry Royce initially only wanted to design a functional successor to his coarse Rolls-Royce 30hp, but the 40/50, later known as the Silver Ghost, was more reliable, far smoother and very quiet. It stayed in production for 20 years, with more than 7,000 being made in the UK and USA, and it became the luxury car of choice among the upper classes. Unfortunately, Royce's business partner, Charles Rolls, did not live long enough to enjoy the fruits of the Silver Ghost's success — he died in a plane crash in 1910 at the age of 32.

FARDIER À VAPEUR 1770
The first powered automobile large enough to carry a driver was Frenchman Nicolas-Joseph Cugnot's fardier à vapeur (steam dray), an artillery cart driven by a steam piston rather than horses. It was produced as a trial for the French army but was impractical and unreliable. It was unstable, did not get above three miles per hour, and the fire needed to be relit every 15 minutes. However, Cugnot had proved that a powered automobile was possible.

BENZ PATENT-MOTORWAGEN 1886
German engineer Karl Benz owned a factory producing stationary engines but always dreamed of building a horseless carriage. He succeeded with the three-wheeled Benz Patent-Motorwagen, the first automobile specifically designed to be powered by an internal combustion engine. Benz continued to improve his invention and an extra gear was soon added after it was discovered that it struggled to climb hills. The Patent-Motorwagen was only ever a series of prototypes - 25 were produced in all - but its successors, the Viktoria and Velo, sold in the thousands in Germany and France.

TESLA ROADSTER 2008
Electric cars were popular at the turn of the 20th century until petrol became a more reliable and convenient form of fuel. However, electric cars have experienced a recent revival due to environmental concerns regarding petrol and diesel. The Roadster, produced by electric-only manufacturer Tesla, became the first mass-produced electric car since World War II. It travelled more than 200 miles between charges and could reach 60 miles per hour in 3.9 seconds, but did not sell well in comparison to mainstream electric-petrol hybrid cars and was withdrawn in 2012.

GOOGLE SELF-DRIVING CAR 2012
The biggest cause of road traffic accidents is driver error. One way to eliminate this is to remove the need for a driver. Driverless cars are powered by computers that sense their external environments through laser imaging and GPS. Among the frontrunners in this new technology is Google, which first put a modified, self-driving Toyota Prius on the road in Nevada in May 2012. Although still only legal in four American states, Google is aiming to make its driverless cars available to the public in 2020.
FORD MODEL T 1908
At the turn of the 20th century, cars were still expensive luxuries, handcrafted by skilled workers. By producing his Model T on an assembly line, Henry Ford was able to significantly reduce costs and make the Model T as the first affordable automobile. It was a staggering success; by 1918, half of all cars in the USA were Model T's and Ford no longer needed to advertise. The number of man-hours required to produce each car reduced from 12.5 to 1.5, and one was completed every three minutes. Just before production halted in 1927, the 15 millionth Model T was made.

MINI 1959
The Mini was born after the 1956 Suez Crisis caused petrol shortages and showed the British Motor Corporation (BMC) the need for a small car with an economical engine. Its radical layout meant that, although small, 80 per cent of the area was available for passengers and the boot. The Mini quickly became a symbol of the swinging sixties in Britain. The Beatles and Princess Margaret were among purchasers, helping to seal its place in pop culture, and an increasingly affluent public flocked to buy one too.

MCLAREN F1 1992
Not all cars were produced with the mass market in mind. Designed solely to appeal to those with thick wallets, only 106 McLaren F1’s were produced with a price tag of about £500,000. Produced by a spin-off company from the motorsport team, the McLaren F1 became the fastest road car in 1998 when it reached 240.1 miles per hour on a test track. It helped increase the value of the model - comedian Rowan Atkinson put his twice-crashed F1 up for sale in 2015 at a cost of £8 million.

VOLKSWAGEN BEETLE 1938
In 1934, Adolf Hitler demanded a “volkswagen” - literally translated as “people’s car” - an inexpensive, reliable automobile that could allow Germans to cruise the new autobahns. The result, the Beetle, first rolled off the production line of the new state-owned Volkswagen company in 1938, but war meant that no more than a handful were made. After 1945, the Beetle was resurrected and became much more than Hitler’s pet project. Its iconic looks made it popular throughout the world, with more than 21 million produced before the original Beetle platform was retired in 2003.

STANLEY STEAMER 1896
At the start of the 20th century, steam-powered cars outsold those powered by internal combustion engines. The most notable was the Stanley Steamer, produced between 1896 and 1924. They were quick - in 1906, a Stanley Steamer called the Rocket covered a kilometre at an average of 127 miles per hour, breaking the land speed record. Steam cars began to wane in the 1920s as internal combustion engines became cheaper and easier to use - drivers were no longer prepared to wait 20 minutes for their steam engine to fire up.

The Volkswagen Beetle has many international names, including Ladybird (France), Hax (Colombia), Frog (Indonesia) and tortoise (in Lanka).
In 1415, England’s warrior king was on the cusp of greatness or obliteration, risking his crown and his countrymen in a deadly clash of kingdoms

Written by Tim Williamson

On 14 August 1415, Henry V of England landed on the beaches of the Seine estuary, in northern France. Falling to his knees, he embraced the wet sand, giving thanks to God and praying for victory. In doing so, he emulated his great-grandfather, Edward III, during his own campaign in 1346, which culminated in the legendary Battle of Crécy. With this gesture, rehearsed again and again in the king’s mind over the past weeks, Henry not only evoked the memory of the great man and his great victory, but also reinforced his holy mission.

Everything about the invasion, from the choice of landing sites to the king’s royal gesture, had been meticulously planned for months and even years in advance. To many, it seemed the king was gambling everything by venturing into France, but for Henry, this was a very personal mission. On this campaign he would finally discover whether or not it was God’s will for him to ascend the throne of France, settling the long dispute with the French monarchy. His cause would be put to the bloody test of the battlefield. If he were granted victory, it would prove God judged him the rightful king of France. If he failed, he would lose his honour, his crown and even maybe his life.

With the rest of his invasion force landing and unloading around him, the king knighted several of his companions, again in emulation of Edward III. Before long, the 15,000-strong force was camped near the town of Harfleur. This was just the start of a long and gruelling campaign that would test not only England’s king, but the thousands of men that had followed him to France. Ahead lay endless possibilities for gold and glory, and the men from across the channel had come to claim both.

Origins of the Warrior King

Events in Henry’s life, and even before his birth, had led him inevitably to war in France. The ongoing dispute between the two kingdoms had already lasted nearly 80 years, and Henry’s predecessors had fought bitterly for their hereditary lands, as well as France itself. Henry IV, his father, had struggled establishing his legitimacy at home, facing down numerous rebellions during his reign, so had been distracted from pressing any claim the English throne held on the French one.

Among the most formative moments for Henry came while he was prince of Wales. During the Battle of Shrewsbury in 1403, when he was aged just 16, the prince was fighting against Henry Hotspur and a rebel army, in the thick of the melee, alongside his father the king. During the clash, an arrow struck the prince in the face, burying itself six inches deep in his right cheek. Many around him feared the worst, but Henry was able to continue fighting and refused to be pulled from the field. The renowned surgeon John Bradmore saved the prince, first extracting the arrowhead embedded deep in his cheek, then tending to the ghastly wound it left.

The prince of Wales would carry the scar from that battle for the rest of his life, as a constant reminder of just how close he came to death that
THE BUTCHER OF AGINCOURT: HENRY V

THE MARCH TO AGINCOURT

Henry V's campaign came after decades of armed conflict and political wrangling.

4 December 1259
Under the Treaty of Paris, Henry III renounces his claim to the duchies of Normandy and Anjou, but retains the duchies of Gascony and Aquitaine.

1 February 1268
Charles IV of France dies without a male heir, leaving his cousin Philippe de Valois to take the crown.

24 May 1337
Philippe VI confiscates the duchy of Aquitaine from Edward III, prompting the English king to pursue his claim to the French throne.

19 September 1336
The Black Prince is victorious at the Battle of Poitiers, and the French King John II is captured and taken to London.

26 August 1346
At the Battle of Crécy, the invading English army under Edward III and his son the Black Prince defeat Philippe VI's forces.

24 October 1360
The Treaty of Bretigny is signed, granting 3 million livres ransom for John II's freedom, in return for Edward III renouncing his claim to the French crown.

Henry and his men seen praying before the battle commences. Religion was extremely important to the young king.

upheaval across the Channel, where France was at war with itself. On 23 November 1407, Louis, the Duke d'Orléans, was assassinated in the streets of Paris. As the brother of the king of France, Louis had acted almost as de facto regent of the infant Charles VI, but his lecherous lifestyle particularly in taking the wives of many noblemen into his bed, had made him deeply unpopular. He had garnered many enemies among the French nobility, including John the Fearless, the duke of Burgundy, who had ordered his assassination.

This immediately threw Burgundy and the king's allies into conflict, with civil war breaking out between the rival French factions, including the new duke of Orleans, Charles, and his protector the Count of Armagnac. It was during this chaos and uncertainty that Henry would finally succeed his father's throne in March 1413, and he was more than ready to take advantage of the situation unfolding on the continent. The next phase of what would be known as the Hundred Years' War was about to begin.

THE CAMPAIGN IN FRANCE

Before setting off from Southampton on his campaign to invade France. In August 1415, Henry wrote a letter to his adversary, the Dauphin of France, imploring him to acknowledge his hereditary rights in France. In doing so, he was fulfilling a moral imperative - he had presented all the means for the French to gain peace, if only his claim were acknowledged. At the gates of the town of Harfleur some weeks later, he presented the same ultimatum, demanding the town's surrender. Like his earlier offer to the French dauphin, his demand was refused.

Soon after landing, the English laid siege to Harfleur, with Henry's cannons being immediately brought forward to breach the town's walls, as well as crush the morale of its inhabitants. He demanded that the bombardment of the walls be maintained day and night, not only to bring a quick end to the siege, but to demoralise the enemy into submission.

However, the siege did not initially go to plan. As well as being situated along a river, Harfleur was also next to a marshland that would make it impossible for Henry's army to effectively encircle the town. Sure enough, shortly after the English first attacked, a French knight named Raoul de Gaucourt and a small band of men-at-arms slipped through a gap in the English army and entered the town to aid the defenders. This was a massive blow to Henry's confidence, being totally outmanoeuvred by the enemy, but it was every bit a cause for celebration among the French.

The siege dragged on for weeks, with the population of Harfleur resisting doggedly, all the while smuggling out letters to the French dauphin and sneaking in provisions through the English line. Dysentery spread across the English army during September, claiming a number of noblemen and soldiers. One morning, a French force even sallied out to attack the invaders, who were taken totally by surprise and forced into a desperate defence.
Meanwhile, the Dauphin and his nobles still stalled and stumbled in their organisation, failing to respond to Henry’s attack. Receiving Harfleur’s letters pleading for assistance, the dauphin responded that an army would be coming, but as the weeks passed, no such army was ready to take on the English. The dauphin sent out a general call to arms from among the French nobility, including the duke of Brittany, an English ally. He did not appeal to John the Fearless, duke of Burgundy, who he suspected would simply lead his army to the gates of Paris to take the throne.

By late September, the situation in Harfleur was becoming desperate, but the siege was gradually coming to its end. Dysentery was rife in the English camp, as well as in the town’s population, which was starving. On the 22nd, the town surrendered to King Henry, who now turned his attention to the next phase of his campaign. Realising he had nowhere near enough strength to march south towards Paris, Henry decided on a route north east towards the safety of Calais — but first the dangerous path through enemy territory.

Before the army set out, Henry had his commanders remind them of the king’s strict rules of conduct. On no account was any man to pillage, set fire to houses, or rape in any French settlement. In keeping with the king’s own abstinence, prostitutes were also not permitted into the camp. Additionally, no unarmed persons were allowed to be taken prisoner. Although these rules were not always followed to the letter, they reveal Henry’s firm belief in not only his holy mission, but also the need to respect the French population, who he saw as his subjects by right.
WHY DID THE FRENCH LOSE THE BATTLE OF AGINCOURT?

Weather
After being soaked by torrential rain the previous night, the ground between the French and English armies was soft and muddy. The French knights became easily stuck in the mud and were unable to charge at full speed at the English. As the day wore on, the men and beasts churned up the turf between the two armies made it even more difficult to assault the English position.

Weaponry
With a range of over 250 yards, at a rate of eight arrows per minute, Henry V’s longbowmen proved deadly for the French knights, who were left vulnerable to volley after volley of arrows. With their crossbowmen moved to the rear of the army, out of effective range, the French did not even have the ability to return volleys of their own against the English.

Leadership
While the English army fought united under the overall command of their king, the French soldiers were divided in their loyalties, often serving their lords first and their king second. Notably, the French forces were answerable to Charles d’Albret, the constable of France, but in reality, each nobleman argued his own opinion on how the battle should be fought, causing a fractured and inept command structure.

Discipline
With the king of England within their grasp, many of the French nobility saw the opportunity to gain not only glory, but great rewards in capturing him. Many repositioned themselves to the vanguard, at the front of the army, leaving the ranks further back severely under strength. After the first waves of French attacks faltered, panic spread through the ranks and many in front began to run backwards, sending the formation of the French army into further disarray.

Terrain
Henry had positioned his army at an ideal location for bottlenecks and the advancing French troops between two areas of woodland. With forest on each flank, the French ranks could not spread wide enough to take advantage of their superior numbers against the English. Additionally, the ground sloped slightly away from the French up towards the English position, meaning that any charging cavalry would tire quickly.

Although the some 9,000 fighting men had left Harfleur with provisions for several days’ march, some weeks later the soldiers were forced to scavenge and forage from the countryside they travelled through. Ill and weakened by hunger, the English marched on for several more days until, on 24 October, the French army finally arrived and blocked their route to Calais.

The Battle
On the night of 24 October, one account has a knight remarking on his wish for another 1,000 men to fight the French, to which Henry replied: “...do you tempt God with evil? My hope does not wish for even one man more. Victory is not seen to be given on the basis of numbers. God is all powerful. My cause is put into His hands.” It is this account, in all likelihood a fiction, that largely inspired Shakespeare’s famous St Crispin’s Day speech, which would further immortalise the king and his companions.

Rising early on 25 October, the English camp set about preparing for the coming clash. Longbowmen sharpened their wooden stakes and drove them into the soaked earth, men-at-arms tightened the straps on their armour, while the king moved among the ranks, rallying the spirits of the soldiers. The army was organised into three battles, or groups, with the king himself positioned in the vanguard at the centre. Longbowmen positioned themselves to the sides of each battle, so as to create a channel of sharpened stakes and lethal arrow shot that any advancing French would have to pass through.

A few hours later, neither side had moved and the men were restless. Though heralds from each army had passed terms to the other in a vain effort at negotiation, the outcome was inevitable. Knowing his men were weak from starvation (with many suffering from diarrhoea) and that the French could easily wait them out and watch them weaken, Henry made one of the boldest decisions of his life - he ordered the attack.

Sir Thomas Erpingham, in command of the archers, rode up in front of the English lines, threw a white banner high into the air and cried aloud “now strike!” At this signal, the army advanced. The dismounted men-at-arms ran as best they could, straight towards the enemy. Some longbowmen unhearthed their stakes to bring with them, though others, bewildered that they were actually moving, simply crossed themselves and ran forward. Before the French could realise what was happening, the English bows were in range and unleashed volleys into their ranks. Some Frenchmen had even temporarily left the field to find food. Not believing an attack was imminent. Waves of arrows fell among the startled French with deadly effect, spreading panic and confusion as many scrambled to mount their rides.

Those French knights who managed to rally their men and charge were soon cut down by arrows, which grew ever deadlier and accurate the closer to the English the knights rode. Dead horses crashed into the thick mud that became even more churned in the carnage, throwing men to the ground.

"Waves of arrows fell among the startled French with deadly effect, spreading panic"
**Longbow**
Medieval longbows were traditionally made from yew wood. At about two metres (six feet) in length, they were much longer than conventional bows, and more powerful.

**Wrist guard**
These would be worn to prevent the bowstring from damaging the archer’s arms as it released an arrow.

**Finger tab**
These protected the fingers while drawing back the bowstring, which could take up to about 80lb of force to draw fully.

**Buckle**
For use in close combat, some longbowmen used these small shields to parry sword thrusts, but would have been mostly useless against heavy weapons and missiles.

**Helmet**
Those with enough money could buy a simple capeline, bascinet or sallet-styled helmet. Many would also have retrieved pieces of armour from fallen enemies.

**Gambeson**
These thick-padded jackets were tightly weaved out of wool and often stuffed with hair to offer some protection.

**Sword**
Archers would also be armed with close-combat weapons, such as simple swords or poleaxes, to defend themselves if needed.

**Dagger**
These small daggers were often worn as a last-resort self-defence weapon, or to dispatch a downed enemy quickly.

**Coil purse**
Archers carried what little money and possessions they had with them on campaign. Poorly paid, they would often loot coins and any other valuables from fallen enemies.

**Stakes**
To protect themselves from charging cavalry, each archer would plant a sharpened stake into the ground in front of him, aimed in the direction of the enemy.

**Arrows**
Each archer would plant his arrows in the ground in front of him so they could be quickly grabbed and loaded into the bow.

**Arrow bag**
Each man would travel with an assignment of up to 36 arrows, carried in a simple canvas bag that would split the shafts into sheaves, or groups, of 12.
THE BRITISH LONGBOW

King Henry's fearsome archers were nothing without their expertly crafted weapon.

**Bow**
A Medieval war bow was usually made of yew wood from Europe. The thin layer of living outer sapwood resisted tension – perfect for the flat 'back' of the bow. The dead inner heartwood resisted the massive compressive forces acting against it at full draw, making it an ideal timber for the rounded 'belly' of the bow. This formed a naturally occurring spring.

**Bowstring**
Bowstrings were made from hemp or linen. The strands were coated in beeswax and twisted together to form a strong loop with no knots or joins that could result in weakness.

**Arrows**
The arrows used in military archery varied greatly in size, shape and weight, but the average length was 30 inches. Often half an inch thick at the point, they were armed with hand-forged steel heads, each designed to do a specific job.

**Fletchings**
The flights or 'fletchings' of the arrow were made of goose, swan or peacock feathers. The feathers were fastened to the arrow shaft using animal sinew, and bound firmly in place with silk.

**Arrow strength**
With such powerful bows, the wooden ends of the arrows would often split and break on release. To protect against this, a thin slice of flattened cow horn was inserted into a slot cut at the base of the arrow, going against the grain of the wood, strengthening the arrow considerably.

**Nocks**
To protect the soft yew wood from being damaged by the bowstring when being shot, the tips of cattle horn were used. These horn 'nocks' had a single groove cut into one side, into which the bowstring would be looped or tied.
HEAD TO HEAD
The unskilled French archers were no match for the English and Welsh longbowmen

French crossbow
Draw weight: 1000lb
Firing rate: 2-3 arrows per minute
Range: Approx 380 yards

English longbow
Draw weight: Up to 180lb
Firing rate: 8-10 arrows per minute
Range: 250-350 yards

WHY WERE LONGBOWS SO DEADLY?
War bow expert Mark Stretton explains the lethal range at which longbowmen could strike their enemy. Point blank or around 120 yards is going to be the most lethal or penetrative impact, as the arrow will not have lost any velocity at such a short distance, but will have straightened up enough out of the bow to be able to hit the target square on – to give the maximum delivery of energy. However, there is no maximum lethal range if the arrow can be shot over 220-240 yards. The reason for this is that with my ballistic tests, once the arrow had gone over 220 yards, it would then impact with the same force as if it was shot at 40 yards. At 40 yards, the arrow does not have quite the same energy as at 120 yards, but it is hardly any difference and is still lethal.

The reason for this is simple. For the arrow to be able to make a distance of over 220 yards, it must be shot at 43-degree trajectory, which means that it will reach a certain altitude before returning to the ground. By achieving that altitude, the arrow will fall at terminal velocity, so in actual fact it cannot fall any faster no matter how high it reaches its zenith. So this means that the kinetic energy of an arrow will be the same at any distance over 220 yards, which of course means that it is still deadly at such distances. Add the fact that heavy cavalry will be riding into the shot, and the penetrative force is even greater.

ARROWHEADS OF THE MEDIEVAL PERIOD
Take a closer look at Medieval arrowheads and find out how each was made and used

Lozenge-Shape
Heavy bodkin

Type 10
This was perhaps the most common arrowhead of the Hundred Years’ War – simple and fast to make, and highly effective against the armour of the period. The Type 10 was a simple bodkin – a four-sided point and a rolled socket. Forged by a master armsmith, this was the evolution of the needle-bodkin arrowhead. As chainmail armour gave way to plate armour, the Type 10 arrowhead found its way into the Medieval arms race.

Type 15
This arrowhead has a very distinct difference from the bodkins. It contained barbs on either side, which made it incredibly difficult to remove from whichever target it may have pierced. The barbs would most likely have been ‘fire welded’ to the head separately. The popularity of such a head is unknown, but surviving examples of Type 15 do show surface from time to time. This may have been a military-adapted version of a hunting head.

Tudor Bodkin
As with the Type 10, this arrowhead would also have been cheap and fast to produce. According to master armsmith Mark Stretton, once the socket has been formed in the usual way, the red-hot arrowhead is placed into a press or ‘swage’, which is then hammered shut. The corners are then cut and ground to produce the sharpened edges. This type of head would have been mostly ineffective against plate armour, but would pierce many types of textile armour, such as padded Gambesons.
THE BUTCHER OF AGINCOURT: HENRY V

THE BATTLE OF AGINCOURT

In the battle that would define his campaign in France, Henry sent his weary troops to destroy the enemy.

01 Forward banners
Once within range of the French archers, the English troops halted, the divisions closed and the archers set a series of pointed stakes in the ground, forming a fence. Within the woods surrounding the two armies, Henry directed groups of archers and men-at-arms to move through the trees and shoot at the French.

02 French attempt to move forward
After the shock of this assault, the French forces tried to advance in order to take the battle to the English. However, having already suffered massive casualties, they were impeded by the dead and dying horses and men already shot down in front of them. Reduced to walking pace, they were easily picked off by the English archers.

03 French second line moves forward
The French second line, led by d’Alençon, moved forward in earnest to assist in the beleaguered first line, but was overwhelmed in a similar fashion. Seeing the futility in continuing, he attempted to surrender to Henry, but was killed before he could reach the king.

04 Third line retreats
Seeing the fate that had met the first and second waves, the third line of the French forces waited on the edge of the field, pondering whether to join. After being greeted by a messenger sent by Henry, who informed them that if they joined the battle, none of them would be spared, they made their decision. Unsurprisingly, considering their options, they left the battlefield.

EXPERT OPINION
Is Shakespeare’s depiction of Henry V accurate?

Professor Anne Curry
Anne is Professor of Medieval History at Southampton University and among the foremost authorities on the Battle of Agincourt. She has produced numerous publications on the subject, including the recently released Great Battles: Agincourt.

Caught under unrelenting showers of arrows, several hundred each second, the French army panicked. Without any other option, the order was sounded to charge across the field. The dead and dying men and horses began to pile up, blocking the way of those who came behind them. Instead of an overwhelming charge, this meant the French knights arrived at the English lines piecemeal, but nonetheless, the sheer weight of numbers began to tell.

Pressed in the centre, where Henry’s standards were still proudly raised, the English were forced to fight fiercely to hold back the French men-at-arms. Though surrounded by guards and knights, the king fought in the thick of it, and at one point even saved the life of his brother, Humphrey, right in front of the advancing enemy. All the while, to the rear of the English lines, priests knelt on the wet ground, praying feverishly to God for deliverance and mercy.

Before long, all of the English arrows had been loosed into their targets, and the French army was in a full retreat. Men swarmed all over the field of the dead and the dying, to loot and take prisoners for ransom. The waves of enemy knights had crashed against the English wall of steel, and had been stopped. However, victory was not yet won. As the Englishmen gathered together their hostages and caught their breath, a cry went out that the French were rallying for another attack.

With his arrows all but spent and his men-at-arms now tired and battered, Henry feared his ranks could not hold another onslaught. With his men all around still busy looting the field, he made another bold, but this time terrible, decision – he ordered all prisoners not of royal blood to be immediately executed. This was perhaps one of the most damning acts of his life, as the massacre was against all laws of chivalry and un-Christian. This single, violent, even harrowing act signalled the end of the bloodshed, with the rallying French troops giving up the field. Meeting with French and English heralds later, Henry asked the name of the nearest castle, and proclaimed the battle be named after it: Agincourt. As he wished for, his name and his great victory lived on down the centuries, even surpassing the exploits of Edward III. More importantly, Henry had passed the great test of the battlefield, and God had judged him just in his cause.

Soon he had secured a marriage to the French princess Catherine de Valois and was promised the crown of France. In December 1421, the couple produced a son and heir, the future Henry VI. The long and terrible war between their kingdoms. It seemed, was over for good.

"He ordered all prisoners not of royal blood to be immediately executed"
AGINCOURT 1415
DISCOVER THE TRUTH BEHIND THE LEGEND

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THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

Written by John Man
The Great Wall of China

Spanning thousands of kilometres and centuries of construction, this enduring fortification remains enveloped in myth and wonder.

The Great Wall is one of the world's most popular tourist sites and one of the best known of national icons. It sounds simple enough, and looks it when seen on a tourist T-shirt proclaiming 'I climbed the Great Wall,' yet it is a thing of mystery.

That very phrase - 'a thing of mystery' - is a paradox. The Wall is not a single thing; it is plural. It loops, soars, duplicates itself and often vanishes completely. Bits of it have been rebuilt many times. Tourists see the stone sections north of Beijing and assume that it runs across all of north China, but to the west, stone gives way to earth, sometimes wind-blasted ridges, sometimes nothing at all. There is also much more to the Wall than wall: fortresses, guard towers and beacon towers range out along, ahead and behind it. It is an immeasurable mass of bits.

The Chinese term for the Wall adds to the mystery. They call it the Changcheng, which means both Long City and Long Wall. To English speakers, it makes no sense, but some 2,500 years ago when China was a collection of warring states, walls and cities were synonymous, because all cities had walls. The Wall, of course, is rather more than a city wall, which is why Chinese adds the adjective. Imagine a city wall cut open and stretched out, with farms and garrisons along it - that's how to make a Long City into a Great Wall.

The first Great Wall - though it was not called that until the 20th century - guarded the first Chinese Empire, ruled by the strongest of the warring states, the Qin dynasty. Qin (pronounced 'chin', giving its name to China) was originally a backwater on the southern edge of the Ordos semi-desert. Hardened by 400 years of constant war, Qin grew even harder under its most ruthless leader, Qin Shi Huang Di, the First Qin August Emperor, usually known simply as the First Emperor. It was he who unified the nation in 221 BCE, and later created the vast mausoleum near Xian that contains China's second most famous tourist attraction, the Terracotta Army.

After unification, the First Emperor found he had several problems. To the north, beyond the Gobi desert, was another very different empire, one of predatory nomadic horsemen: the Xiongnu (pronounced 'shung-nu', and often equated with the Huns, though the evidence is much debated by scholars). In addition, the emperor had a vast army...
Inheriting a tradition of wall building that stretched back almost 2,000 years, the Ming dynasty (1368-1644) committed itself to sealing the northern frontier against the ‘barbarian’ nomads - the Mongols - with a wall of unprecedented strength. To the west of the Yellow River, it was mainly made of rammed earth. To the east, its many sections were of stone. It took almost two centuries to build.

**Road**
The brick and stone wall, about 7–9 metres high, also served as a road up to six metres wide. Horses could gallop five abreast, or pass each other in safety.

**Bricks**
Brick-kilns produced the standardised oblong Great Wall brick, which was 36x19x9 centimetres.

**Stones**
Quarries supplied stone. Some slabs weighed 500 kilograms, a few more than a ton.

**Foundation**
A core was made of anything available locally: earth, stones and wood.
The Great Wall of China

that needed employment, and millions of peasants to be controlled and taxed. In 214 BCE, he ordered many pre-existing walls to be joined to make a prototype of the Great Wall, some 2,500 kilometres in length. It took about four years to build. With millions of peasants dragooned into forced labour, an army to guard them and the Xiongnu locked out, the Wall came to define China, dividing the civilised from the barbarous.

So it remained for the next dynasty, the Han, except more so. Han Wudi - Emperor Wu (140-87 BCE) of Han - expanded his empire into Central Asia, despatching explorers and armies to build alliances with local tribes, and building the Wall further westwards into the deserts of the Western Regions. To do this demanded control both of Ordos and the Gansu Corridor, which is hemmed in by the Qilian Mountains on one side and deserts on the other, with rivers forming pastures down the middle. Through this bottleneck, only 25 kilometres across at its narrowest point, nomads galloped to raid north China. Whoever wished to rule China had to rule the Gansu Corridor.

The consequences were huge, and enduring. To seal this frontier involved a range of interlinked strategies, all leading step by step to a Great Wall. Wu had the manpower (1 million conscripts and some 10-13 million available for forced labour). He needed horses by the tens of thousands, mostly acquired through trade. He needed to make allies of a score of oasis kingdoms to the west, bribing them with lavish gifts, especially silk rolls by the thousand. He needed to subdue the Xiongnu. The newly conquered borderlands had to be secured with garrisons, who would have to be fed, which meant sending in colonists to grow grain, and there would have to be the Wall - made of rammed earth, plastered and whitewashed - and fortresses, farms and beacon towers, all creating the Long City we now know as the Great Wall.

Of war there was no end. Almost every year there were invasions and
The Great Wall of China

During the Ming era, Mongol raids were common on the Wall.

Counter-invasions with tens of thousands of cavalry and infantry. In 103 BCE, a Han force of 20,000, which had advanced 1,000 kilometres across the Gobi, was surrounded and massacred. In 99 BCE, a Han army killed “10,000” (i.e. many) Xiongnu yet lost 60-70 per cent of its men. An expeditionary force of 5,000 was trapped by Xiongnu horsemen in southern Mongolia. “The enemy was lodged in the hills, shooting arrows like drops of rain,” according to the official Han history. Just 400 made it back home.

To cap it all, the Xiongnu remained strong. The ruling class had built a rich and varied life for themselves in the mountains of northern Mongolia and southern Siberia. One town was well fortified, and served by carpenters, masons, farmers, iron workers and jewellers. Some houses even had under-floor heating, Roman style. To the west, beyond the Great Wall, the Xiongnu controlled some 30 city-states in the Western Regions, mainly in today’s Gansu.

With both sides unified, neither could win. And what use was the Wall? Very little. The main historian of the period, Sima Qian, records many invasions, but never does he say that the Wall stopped one. Playing many roles - proclaiming the frontier, employing thousands, preventing defections and displaying imperial power - the one thing the Wall could not do was keep out the barbarians.

But there was no alternative strategy. The Wall headed ever further westwards, to Yumenguan, the Jade Gate Pass, on the edge of the vast and impenetrable Taklamakan Desert. Once, the fort was the centre of a thriving city. Now it is a sun-baked stub, with few visitors. Beyond, for a few more kilometres, the Han Wall is still there, a low ridge of sand-blasted earth layered with dried grass. The 2,000-year-old grass, preserved by the bone-dry air, looks as if it had been cut last week.

The Xiongnu collapsed in about the 3rd century, to be replaced by other nomadic empires. Dynasty followed dynasty. Some wished to save cash and backed away from maintaining the Wall, but always there were generals and bureaucrats who argued

Smoke signals can be sent from one tower to another along vast sections of the Wall to relay messages.

How to send a smoke signal
In the case of an enemy sighting, beacons were lit during the night and smoke signals sent during the day in order to alert soldiers further down the Wall.

100 invaders | 500 invaders | 1,000 invaders

“Of war there was no end. Almost every year there were invasions and counter-invasions with tens of thousands of infantry”
for the old policy. The Wall had become part of Chinese identity, and could not be abandoned.

The Mongols, the latest in the ever-shifting tribes to dominate today's Mongolia, forced a change. In the early-13th century, Genghis Khan united Mongolia's feudal clans with a vision of world rule, and he led them into conquest. North China had lost all semblance of unity, having been divided between a succession of non-Chinese tribes. At the time of Genghis's rise, the dominant powers were the Jurchen (from Manchuria, in the north east) and the Tanguts (of Tibetan origin) ruling most of the far west. The Great Wall was a shadow of its former self.

Under Genghis, the Mongols invaded and conquered until, on his death in 1227, they ruled the greatest land empire the world had ever seen, and it was still only half made. Genghis's vision of world rule was inherited by his grandson, Kublai Khan, who conquered all China, establishing a dynasty that lasted until the Mongols were thrown out of China in 1368. Since the Mongols were ruling on both sides of the Wall, it was completely redundant. It mouldered.

But then came a final, astonishing revival, under the successor regime, the Ming. They had seen what happened when China was divided and undefended. It could happen again, for back in the northern grasslands, Mongol princes still claimed they were China's rightful rulers. So the Ming rebuilt — but not well enough. In 1449, a Mongol force advanced on Beijing, destroyed a Ming army and captured the 21-year-old emperor Yingzong. For a moment, China lay at their feet. But their leader, Esen, did not have Genghis's vision. He dithered, giving the Chinese time to retreat. When he tried using the emperor as a bargaining chip, it was too late. A successor had been chosen, and Yingzong was worthless. Esen meekly sent him back, and retreated into insignificance.

The Ming learned their lesson. Though divided by bitter rivalries, the one thing they agreed on was that the Mongols must never, ever return. There were several options — diplomacy, trade, marriage — but all would imply that the barbarians were equals. Conventional thinking won. The Ming would make the Wall so strong that no nomad would ever appear south of it without permission.
A step was taken in 1455, when rebuilding around Beijing got underway at the Juyuan Pass. It would go on, in fits and starts, for another 170 years. A peace treaty with the Mongols in 1571 ended Mongol raids, but not wall building. When the last bits of this vast edifice clunked into place around 1600, the Nine Border Garrisons (as the Ming called it) ran from the Pacific westwards. It switch-backed over the mountains that are Beijing’s natural bastions, it headed over the hills that border Inner Mongolia; jumped the Yellow River into Ordos; and struck westward through the Gansu Corridor to end at the great fort of Jiayuguan, gateway to Central Asia (not so far west as the older Han fort of Yumenguan, but better placed).

It is fantastically over-engineered. Of its many architects, the most effective was an austere polymath named Qi Jiguang (1528-88). Brilliant in martial arts, tactics, poetry and writing, he saw the Wall as an all-or-nothing enterprise. “If there is one weak point, and then 100 strong points,” he wrote, “then the whole is weak.” From this concept grew the Wall as most people know it today: a roller coaster of masonry riding ridges over mountains as chaotic as crinkled tin foil. Every year, millions walk along it, most famously at Badaling, without any effect on its stonework.

Simatai is the most astonishing section. A 2,000-foot wall of rock rises like a fossilised wave, with the Wall as its crest. It defies all sense, for no Mongol cavalry could possibly have climbed that ridge. The Wall teeters up a near-vertical slope, reduced at the top to a stairway no wider than a shoe, with vertiginous drops on either side.

The stone Great Wall of the Ming was completed just in time for the dynasty’s fall in 1644. It never proved itself, because long before it was finished, the Ming and the Mongols were fighting, not fighting. When it might have come in handy for keeping out another upstart people, the Manchus from Manchuria, civil strife in China created a power vacuum. The leader of one Ming faction simply opened the gates to the Manchus, and the wall became instantly redundant, once again, because the Manchus, like the Mongols, ruled on both sides as the Qing dynasty (1644-1911). To cap the peace process, the Mongols became part of the Manchu empire by treaty. The Wall ceased to be a barrier. Chinese colonisation proceeded apace and Mongols increasingly became strangers in their own lands.

For 150 years, no one took any notice of the Wall. It took foreigners to see, admire and record, the first being a young artist, Lieutenant Henry Parish, who accompanied the British envoy George Macartney when he tried (and failed) to negotiate a treaty with the Manchu emperor Qianlong in 1798. Parish’s painting, when turned into a much-copied engraving, presented the Wall as a glorious, photogenic cliche: a monumental curtain of stone reaching (it was widely assumed in the West) right across China.

But still there were no admirers on the ground, for the Wall runs over remote areas far from the ports where Westerners lived in the 19th century. For the first half of the 20th century, internal conflict, war and Mao’s communist revolution in 1949 kept China closed. Finally, after US President Richard Nixon made his famous visit in 1972 and China began to open, the tourists came, and came, and came. Today, the Wall has risen above politics, strategy and controversy to become a symbol of national greatness and unity. It is pure heritage.
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Lessons learned
The Battle of Bunker Hill was remembered by the British for more than just the sheer loss of life suffered by the redcoats. The battle showed General William Howe that attacking American fortifications head on was suicide. From then on, all British engagements with colonial forces used flanking tactics instead.

Less Bunker, more Breed
Despite the fight being associated with Bunker Hill, a great deal of the skirmishes actually took place on Breed’s Hill. This was mainly due to the rudimentary redoubt (a network of small forts linked together) that was built on top of this larger mount.

A high price paid
While the British claimed victory at Bunker Hill, the redcoats suffered terrible losses. When the last musket had finally been fired, a total of 1,150 regulars had fallen to take the hills surrounding Boston Harbor. On the colonial sides, the Americans suffered about 450 deaths.

The fall of Warren
The death of General Joseph Warren in the closing hours of the Battle of Bunker Hill was perhaps as big a blow to the patriots as the loss of the hills themselves. Killed during the taking of the redoubt in the third attack by the British, his death was immortalised in a famous painting by artist and patriot John Trumbull.
The American Revolutionary War was barely a month and a half into its inception, and while the butchery and mass loss of life that would tear the nation asunder lay ahead in the dark eight years to come, the forces of the Kingdom of Great Britain and the rebellion of the colonials were prepared for one of the first formal clashes of arms.

In the wake of the Battles of Lexington and Concord - which saw the colonials drive British forces into Charlestown and across the Charles River into Boston, effectively starting the patriot-led Siege of Boston - the British couldn’t allow for another defeat at the hands of the rebels. By 19 April 1775, a force of 15,000 men surrounded the towns, cutting off supplies and access via land. Thankfully for the small contingent of redcoats stationed there under the command of General Thomas Gage, Boston still had access to the fully prepared Boston Harbor. The Charles River was dominated by British warships, meaning the city could be supplied indefinitely.

However, a large contingent of colonial forces occupying the hills and ridges of the Charlestown Peninsula could not be tolerated. If the colonials managed to obtain and manoeuvre artillery pieces onto these hills, they would have the capability to bombard the city and drive the British to retreat onto the waters to surrender. Geographically, the Charlestown Peninsula was 16 kilometres long (one mile) from its isthmus (a small, neck-like opening of land) to its tip. It consisted of raised hills and ridges, with Breed’s Hill to the south and Bunker Hill to the north. Small it may have been, but controlling it had the potential to accelerate Washington’s siege and pummel Boston into patriot hands.

As May arrived, British reinforcements began to roll in by sea, eventually increasing the population of redcoat soldiers to about 6,000. Later that month, on 25 May, three British generals arrived in Boston aboard the HMS Cerberus. Gage had requested the presence of more generals as he had little intention of staying put in Boston while the patriots amassed their forces outside. Those generals, William Howe, Henry Clinton and John Burgoyne, were ordered to assist Gage in breaking out of the city and bringing the fight direct to the colonials.

By June, Gage, Howe, Clinton and Burgoyne had drawn up a plan to drive the patriots out. They intended to take the Dorchester Neck, thus fortifying the vulnerable Dorchester Heights. British forces would then progress onto Roxbury and meet the colonial forces there. Simultaneously, another force would flank the Charleston Heights and push to drive the colonials out of Cambridge.

The plan was soon thrown out of the window when the British sped militiamen activity on the hills across from the city. That activity consisted of 1,200 colonials under the command of Colonel William Prescott and led to the construction of a fort-like network of barriers around Breed’s Hill. The redoubt was square in shape, roughly 40 metres deep with 1.8 metre-high walls. It wasn’t the sturdiest of structures, but its high elevation and proximity to Boston provided a powerful advantage should the patriots manage to set cannons upon it. While the British thought it little cause for concern to begin with, the steady increase of patriot soldiers made one thing clear: the colonials meant to move on Boston. For the British, something had to be done.
**Great Britain**

**TROOPS** 3,000  
**CASUALTIES** 1,150

**WILLIAM HOWE**  
**LEADER**
While Gage was in charge of protecting Boston, defeating the encroaching patriots fell to British Army officer William Howe.  
**Strengths** Known for his daring military feats.  
**Weakness** He was prone to underestimating his opponents.

**52ND (OXFORDSHIRE) REGIMENT ON FOOT**  
**UNIT**
The 52nd were some of the main infantry groups used.  
**Strengths** Well trained and readily supplied, the redcoats were far more physically prepared.  
**Weakness** Struggled without cavalry or cannon support.

**BAYONET**  
**KEY WEAPON**
When the British broke through the redoubt, they made short work of the patriots with their muskets.  
**Strengths** Ideal weapon for close-quarters combat.  
**Weakness** More cumbersome to carry in battle.

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**01 Under siege**
On 19 April 1775, the American Revolutionary War began. One of the first organised military campaigns of the conflict commenced on the very same day when groups of Massachusetts militia converged on Boston in order to cut off access to the city. The forces, formally named as the Continental Army by Continental Congress, would come under the direct command of Commander-in-Chief George Washington after the battle.

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**02 British reinforcements**
Following a request for support from forces in the surrounding area, General Gage’s contingent of soldiers is steadily bolstered during the month of May until the infantry garrison numbers about 6,000.

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**03 Fortifying the hill**
While besieging the British-occupied city of Boston from the land, the leaders of the colonial forces learn the redcoats are planning to send forces to recoup the surrounding hills. In response, 1,200 men under the command of William Prescott refortify Bunker Hill and Breed’s Hill.

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**04 Confusion and preparation**
The assault, under the command of Major General Howe, was initially intended to be split into three groups, with the main force to move around and attack from the rear. However, Howe misinterprets a group of soldiers on Bunker Hill as reinforcements and pulls back to request backup of his own.

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**05 Held back by snipers**
By 3pm on 17 June, a large consignment of British reinforcements arrive in Boston, however, General Pigot’s forces readying to march near Charlestown Village are being picked apart by colonial sniper fire. Artillery fire from a nearby British warship bombards the village, but Pigot is eventually forced to retreat.
**The aftermath**
Following the battle (in which the British lost about 1,500 soldiers), any military clashes between the patriots and the redcoats would be reduced to small skirmishes and exchanges of sniper fire. Forming part of the greater Siege of Boston, the British would eventually abandon the city on 17 March 1776.

**Colonials in retreat**
With the colonial forces now in full retreat, the regulars finally retake the hills surrounding Boston and the peninsula as a whole. The colonials retreat to the Charlestown Neck and take refuge among fortified positions in Cambridge.

**The third attack**
A total of 400 additional British soldiers arrive, and a further 200 of the wounded are ordered to join the third and final assault on Breed's Hill. With most of their troops consolidated into one force, the British finally manage to rout the redcoats on Breed's Hill. The colonials attempt to regroup at Bunker Hill, but to little avail.

**The second attack**
Pigot is now ordered to attack Breed's Hill head on, with Howe's forces redirected to push towards the railway fence that leads to Bunker Hill. However, much like the original main assault, the colonials manage to repel the British forces, using their dug-in redoubt to drive them back down the hill.

**The first attack**
General Howe's troops attack the left flank of the American forces, expecting a quick and easy contest. However, the colonials position themselves behind a fence that runs along a narrow beach. The two forces collide, but it's the regulars that endure the worst losses, forcing Howe to retreat in disarray.

**United Colonies**
TROOPS 1,500
CASUALTIES 450

**Israel Putnam**
LEADER
Alongside Colonel William Prescott, Putnam led the forces that attempted to repel troops on Breed's Hill.

**Strengths**
A highly skilled tactician and strategist.

**Weakness**
Known to work his men to exhaustion.

**6th Massachusetts Regiment**
UNIT
The 6th were raised in June 1775 to form the Continental Army.

**Strengths**
Made of local men with a greater knowledge of the area.

**Weakness**
Not as well drilled as the British.

**Six-pound cannon**
KEY WEAPON
While not used in the battle fully, the threat of cannons on both sides accelerated the pace of the battle.

**Strengths**
The power to pummel cities as well as troops.

**Weakness**
Muzzle loaded and smooth bored, making them highly inaccurate when fired.
THE EPSOM DERBY SUICIDE

The true story behind the suffragette martyrdom that shocked the world

Written by Frances White
In the earliest days of the 20th century, the Epsom Derby was the most watched race in Britain. It was prestigious – an event so monumental that it coined the word ‘derby’ for races worldwide. It was at this event on 4 June 1913, with thousands watching, that a woman walked onto the track and was struck by the king’s horse. Her name was Emily Wilding Davison, and this act gripped, astonished and appalled the nation in the days, months and years that followed. As she lay dying, two groups were already waging a battle over her memory. Emmeline Pankhurst’s Women’s Social and Political Union (WSPU) needed her to be their martyr, and were trying to squeeze the tragedy for every column inch they could get. Meanwhile, the government, aware of how powerful a martyr could be, were quick to brand her a fanatical suicidal maniac. The funeral was akin to that of a monarch; thousands gathered to watch the suffragettes accompany her cortege through London. To many, Emily was not a woman, but a physical embodiment of the struggle for women’s rights. But she was more than this, and more than a single action on a summer’s day. Emily’s fight had waged for years before the fateful derby.

Emily came from a long line of steely, iron-clad women, and her childhood house was full of loud, ambitious siblings. Emily was a confident, resilient and talented girl with a head of fiery red hair and bright green eyes. She was clever, athletic and excelled at school. When her father died, her mother was left near destitute, and Emily was forced to drop out of college with the mounting fees impossible to pay. For a period she worked as a live-in governess for a household. The mistress was a New Zealander, and two years previously women in New Zealand had earned their right to vote after 20 years of campaigning. As a young woman on the brink of starting her own life, Emily’s fortunes had been dramatically changed and her future was uncertain.

Education, then, became her crutch, and she earned enough to study at St Hugh’s College, Oxford. She naturally excelled, earning first-class honours, but degrees were closed to women, and she was unable to graduate. She then worked as a teacher for several years, and saved her earnings to study at the University of London. She received her first-class honours in 1908.

Emily boasted something many women didn’t have – an education – and she seemed fated to live a quiet but comfortable life of teaching. But perhaps it was this education that opened her eyes to the injustice suffered by women in Britain. In 1906, she joined the WSPU, the same year that ‘suffragette’ was coined by the press. The WSPU had been formed by six women and was led by Emmeline Pankhurst. The organisation was created after a split from the non-militant women’s suffrage societies, which had seen little progress with their peaceful campaigns. The WSPU, by contrast, was a militant organisation that operated by the slogan ‘deeds, not words’, and were not afraid to use violent protests. Joining was easy. It cost a shilling and the promise of remaining with the organisation until the vote was won.

Skilled, determined and educated, Emily advanced up the ranks to become one of the WSPU’s chief stewards at a 7000-strong demonstration in Hyde Park on 21 June 1908. At this point, Emily abandoned her teaching post to completely dedicate herself to the movement. She took the suffragette mantra ‘deeds, not words’ very seriously, and her actions steadily became more and more militant. Throughout 1909 she was arrested multiple times in London, Manchester and Newcastle. When Emily and 20 other women attempted...
to serve Prime Minister HH Asquith with a petition, she was arrested again. Her role in the events was not purely sacrificial; being a suffragette gave meaning to a life in want of it. She wrote that “through my humble work in this noblest of all causes, I have come into a fullness of joy and interest in living which I never experienced.” Four months later, she was jailed again for trying to enter Lime House when David Lloyd George was making a speech. Steadily, her crimes and sentences increased. She was given two months in prison; after a hunger strike, she was out in five days.

Just a few days after leaving prison, Emily was protesting again, and was arrested after throwing stones at the windows of a liberal club. Again she went on hunger strike, except this time the guards had had enough. Well aware of the suffragettes’ methods to escape prison by going on hunger strike, the authorities had authorised force-feeding of the inmates who would not eat. Emily had to undergo the horrific procedure, which she wrote would “haunt me with its horror all my life.” She described herself as being held flat while the doctor attempted to find an opening around her mouth with a steel gag. He found a gap and pushed in the instrument, which prised her mouth open as wide as possible. A foul tasting liquid was then poured down her throat. When she attempted to force it out with her tongue, the doctor held her nose and gripped her tongue. Such practices were common, especially among working-class suffragettes who bore the brunt of prison abuse; many suffered irrecoverable damage due to the brutal procedures.

In order to avoid this grisly fate once more, Emily barricaded herself in her cell with prison furniture. In efforts to force her out, a guard climbed a ladder and pushed a hosepipe through the window. As the cell filled with water, Emily’s steely determination won out. She would not open the door, even if it meant she would drown in her cell. Eventually, the guards broke down the door and Emily was spared. She would later receive 40 shillings in damages for this experience, and the general public were alerted to the appalling treatment of suffragettes in prison.

In April 1910, Emily became an official paid employee of the WSPU and her bold acts increased in number. In 1911, on the night of the census, she hid in a cupboard in the chapel of the Palace of Westminster so she could give her residence as the House of Commons. The intrepid woman grew more daring, and in November 1911, she was arrested for setting fire to letter boxes – an action carried out on her own initiative and not approved by the WSPU. Davison’s violent crimes had begun to distance her from the rest of the WSPU, especially its leadership.

Emily was imprisoned again, once more she went on hunger strike and was force-fed. By this point, she had come to believe that the fight for women’s rights needed a martyr to give their cause the attention it deserved. Desperate to ease the torture endured by women in prison, she climbed to the top of an iron staircase and threw herself from it, with a drop of 30 to 40 feet. However, she was caught on the edge of some wire netting below, which broke her fall. Regardless, she threw herself forward onto her head and lost consciousness. When she awoke, she had suffered severe head and spinal injuries.

By now, Davison was a nationally known suffragette, and her fiery, impulsive nature led her to mistakenly attack a vicar she believed
Did the WSPU’s mantra ‘deeds, not words’ and violent protests help or hinder their cause?

Nine years of relatively peaceful protest by the suffragettes did not yield the Parliamentary vote, primarily because of the prejudices of the Liberal Prime Minister Asquith, an ardent anti-suffragist, and other MPs who sought party advantage rather than supporting women’s rights. Violent protests from 1912, always aimed at property and never to endanger human life, helped the women’s cause since it shook the complacency of the government and public. We must not forget the violence against the suffragettes. They could be punched and locked when campaigning peacefully and then, from 1909, forced to endure the torture of forcible feeding, as Emily Wilding Davison did, if they went on hunger strike when imprisoned. Even when more violent methods were taken up, constitutional tactics of civil disobedience were still deployed, such as interrupting church services.

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**Expert Opinion**

June Purvis
June Purvis is Professor of Women’s and Gender History at Portsmouth University. She has published extensively on the suffragette movement and was one of the historical advisers for the 2015 feature film *Suffragette*, starring Meryl Streep as Emmeline Pankhurst, as well as appearing in the film as an ‘extra’.

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The Rights of Women in 1903

- **Vote in Local Elections**: ✔
- **Parliamentary Vote**: ✗
- **Stand as Candidates in Parliament**: ✗
- **Divorce Husband**: ✔
- **Own Property**: ✔
- **Become Councillors**: ✗
- **Keep Their Earnings**: ✔
- **Graduate from Oxford or Cambridge University**: ✗

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Suffragettes dressed in their white uniforms at Emily Davison’s funeral.
Was it suicide?

When Davison attended the Derby that day, did she have martyrdom in mind?

The idea that Emily thought the race had passed and was walking across the track is disputed by an eyewitness, John Ervine, who said: “I feel sure that Ms Davison meant to stop the horse, and that she did not go on to the course in the belief that the race was over... only a few horses had gone by when I first saw her leave the railings.”

This was not the first event in Davison’s life that indicated she was willing to make the ultimate sacrifice for her cause. While in prison she had thrown herself over the railings twice, very aware that it may result in her death. When she was treated after one of these attempts, she went on record saying “a tragedy is wanted.”

Although Emmeline Pankhurst wasn’t in full support of some of Emily’s radical actions, she was convinced that Emily leapt in front of the horse with the intention of becoming a martyr. In her autobiography, she wrote: “Emily Davison clung to her conviction that one great tragedy, the deliberate throwing into the breach of a human life, would put an end to the intolerable torture of women. And so she threw herself at the king’s horse.”

Many historians are doubtful that Davison’s actions that day were anything to do with other suffragettes. Not only did she campaign independently from the WSPU, but the stories of her practising with horses and drawing straws come from very unreliable sources, and are akin to ‘folklore.’ It is more likely that, as usual, Davison was acting alone and nobody was aware of her plans.

At the time, there was a tradition that once the horses had passed by the crowd, the people would walk onto the course and follow it down to the finish. It is possible that Davison thought all the horses had gone past and was simply attempting to cross the racecourse. This would explain the “calm demeanour” that she reportedly had, and many at the race believed this was the case.

There is evidence that Davison had no intention of dying that day at the Derby. She had purchased a return rail ticket to Victoria station, and although that was the only type available to purchase, she did keep the return slip carefully stored in her purse. She also had a ticket to a suffragette dance that was taking place later that day.

Sylvia Pankhurst, Emmeline’s daughter, disagrees with her mother that it was suicide. She wrote: “She had concerted a derby protest without tragedy - a mere waving of the purple-white-and-green at Tattonham Corner, which, by its suddenness, it was hoped would stop the race. Whether from the first her purpose was more serious, or whether a final impulse altered her resolve, I know not. Her friend declares she would not thus have died without writing a farewell message to her mother.”

A lot of research has suggested that instead of simply throwing herself in front of the horse, Davison intended to attach a WSPU scarf to it, so the horse would be flying the flag when it crossed the finishing line. This is backed up by the two WSPU flags found in her possession after the incident. In the preserved footage of the incident, Davison is clearly seen reaching up to the racehorse.
“Pankhurst was quick to label her a suffragette martyr, willing to die for the cause”

was David Lloyd George at a train station. Pankhurst and the WSPU’s relationship with Emily was now heavily strained, and when she decided to attend the fateful Derby in 1913, it is likely she was acting alone and not as part of the organisation. It is impossible to determine what Emily’s intentions were that day. Sources are unclear if she travelled alone, with a fellow suffragette or even with a whole legion of placard-bearing, banner-raising suffragettes. However, considering what we know of her rebellious, independent and hard-headed character, it seems very unlikely that she was there by chance.

Whatever her intention, with the race under way and the horses approaching Fetterham Corner, Emily dashed under the railing and collided with Anmer, a horse owned by the king. The impact sent her crashing to the ground and the horse trampled her as it fell. Herbert Jones, the jockey, was thrown from his seat, but with his foot caught in the stirrup, was dragged until it came loose. The horse continued, but Emily and Jones were unconscious.

The shock of the crowd quickly transformed into efforts to help the injured people. They attempted to resuscitate Emily but she would not stir, and by the time the ambulance arrived, she was still unconscious. She was taken to hospital and treated for a fractured skull and severe internal injuries, but her condition gradually worsened over the next few days. While Emmeline Pankhurst and other militant suffragettes stood trial in London, Emily was fighting for her life on the operating table. By 7 June, doctors knew it was only a matter of time before Emily passed away, and her fellow suffragettes gathered around her bed and decorated it in the suffragette colours, which were hastily removed once the family arrived. The next day, Sunday 8 June, Emily passed away without ever having regained consciousness. She was the first suffragette to die for the cause, and her sacrifice put the suffragettes straight on the front page.

Emily’s death immediately divided people. Pankhurst was quick to label her a suffragette martyr, willing to die for the cause and the betterment of humanity; others were not so sure. The inquest officially labelled it ‘death by misadventure’ and Emily’s sanity was called into question. Many condemned her as a mentally ill fanatic, and believed the violent act summed up the mad hysteria of the entire movement. Many anti-suffrage campaigners saw her actions as evidence that women could not be trusted with something as important as the vote. Some were disgusted that she put the life of the jockey, who made a full recovery, in danger. Many were worried about the wellbeing of the horse, and others were even frustrated their actions may have robbed them of their winnings had Anmer won the race.

That isn’t to say that there was no public support for Emily; quite the opposite. Thousands lined the streets to watch her funeral cortège pass by. Her body was returned to Morpeth, and hundreds more people stood at railway stations to pay respects. Mrs Pankhurst herself attempted to attend Emily’s funeral, but was arrested in the process.

If it had been Emily’s intention to win over the public, the results were mixed. The suffragette cause continued after her death until World War I brought it to a virtual standstill, especially in regards to the more militant tactics favoured by Davison. In 1918, the Representation of the People Act was passed, which gave women over the age of 30 who fulfilled certain conditions the right to vote. Suffrage for all women over the age of 21 did not come until 1928, 15 years after Emily’s death.

Perhaps what should be focused on is not how Emily’s death helped or hindered her cause, but instead on the struggle facing all women that drove her to step onto the track that day. Whether she intended to commit suicide or not, she was willing to face the very real threat of death in order to spread her message - that all women deserved to be treated as equals. Emily’s death may not have dramatically changed the fate of women in the UK, but it was a monumentally important event in the history of women’s rights.
Agincourt was the defining moment of King Henry V's reign. The second Lancastrian king had barely been on the throne for two years before plunging himself into the middle of a major war with Charles VI. Despite being outnumbered by the French forces, the English battled to a historic victory that secured Henry's place in history. On the 600th anniversary of the battle, WB Bartlett has penned an excellent and thorough account of the lead up to the day and the battle itself.

Bartlett's book is extremely easy to read thanks to his relaxed and almost conversational style that presents the facts succinctly and thoroughly. Bartlett's narrative starts by presenting the back story of how Henry ascended the throne. The reader is guided through this confusing and tangled part of British history with aplomb before the rumblings of war begin. There is plenty of action in the first quarter of the book, and the reader learns an awful lot about the young Henry as he hones his trade on the battlefields and waits to become king.

The rationale behind the war is developed and it is fascinating to learn how the men, transportation and weapons were acquired and paid for. This is a part of historical works that is often overlooked, and Bartlett demonstrates his superb researching ability with an in-depth look at the places Henry's army came from and the desperate lengths to which he had to go to finance this war to reclaim the throne he considered to be rightly his.

Bartlett describes in detail a plot to overthrow Henry on the eve of his departure to France as well. Although this isn't directly linked to the battle, it is still a valuable insight into the tumultuous times in which Henry was operating. All of this builds to create a rounded picture of the determined warrior king. Bartlett lingers for some time over the siege of Harfleur, the first major test of the campaign, and the following march to Agincourt.

This is the only part of the book that feels slightly drawn out, yet it is still full of interesting information. For the first time, the style slips into a more descriptive, novel-like tone, focusing on the probable emotions of the soldiers as they suffered from dysentery, hunger and exhaustion. The change of style is a welcome one and it does help the reader to empathise with the ordeal that these men were forced to go through in the name of their king.

The battle itself is richly described, using an impressive array of historical accounts, of which Bartlett repeatedly recommends taking with a pinch of salt, and the eyewitness accounts of men at the battle itself.

This is an excellent read, entertaining and informative in equal measure. Bartlett has excelled himself with his research and has crafted a worthy tribute to one of the most jaw-dropping military victories of all time and the brave king and soldiers that won it.

“Bartlett's book is extremely easy to read thanks to his relaxed, almost conversational, style that presents the facts succinctly and thoroughly”
AN ILLUSTRATED INTRODUCTION TO THE BATTLE OF BRITAIN

The basics on the battle

Author Henry Buckton Publisher Amberley Publishing Price £9.99 Released Out now

The Battle Of Britain is an event with historical importance that cannot be understated. Pitting the RAF against the might of the Luftwaffe, it was a battle that would not only determine aerial dominance, but Britain’s fate, and by extension the rest of Europe’s as well.

There are numerous stories behind the fight to determine Britain’s history, but unfortunately this illustrated guide seems more interested in detailing a by-the-numbers battle report, going into minutiae regarding the amount of attacks, casualties and what the targets were, but almost completely eschewing any of the more human stories behind the pilots. The end result is rather flat, not coming close to doing any kind of justice to such a pivotal episode in the nation’s history.

Moreover, most of the illustrations are bland, predominantly encompassing free-to-use images that can be easily accessed elsewhere. Accompanying this, it at times reads almost like a Wikipedia article – heavy on technical information and high on facts, but lacking anything that could make it stand out as original or in any way approaching a worthy purchase, especially considering the price tag.

It would have been nice to have some first-person accounts from pilots or people working behind the scenes at Bomber Command – indeed, anyone who could be relied upon to give this a fresh spin that is in some way different to the numerous other publications on the subject matter there have already been.

Essentially, what this offers isn’t all that far removed from what can already be accessed for free elsewhere. There are hundreds of thrilling, inspiring and tragic tales from the Battle of Britain – take our advice and purchase one of those instead.

DOGS OF COURAGE: WHEN BRITAIN’S PETS WENT TO WAR

Yet more evidence that dogs are man’s best friend

Author Clare Campbell Publisher Little Brown Price £7.99 paperback/£14.99 hardback Released Out now

Many great works of nonfiction have covered the grueling strife of World War II, citing diaries, letters, official documents, radio recordings and so forth. But what of those whose suffering was in silence? What of the heroes who did not get a medal, could not express the ringing in their ears in a diary, could not write home to promise they would be back? There is a dog-shaped hole in our documentation of World War II, and Campbell attempts to fill it with this in-depth and sophisticated look at the role of man’s best friend in the conflict. Campbell has previously released Banjo’s War, telling of those pets that were left at home, but this time she follows our furry friends into the war zone, and the result is as fascinating as it is moving.

Campbell’s writing is accessible, yet her voice is one of expertise, as she recounts how dogs came to be a vital part of Britain’s efforts in undermining Germany, and tells of the people who convinced authorities of their worth. Her account is an emotional one, as she follows a long list of specific dogs and handlers on their journey. These include Peggy, part of the platoon of dogs in the prologue, searching for land mines in the Netherlands during the 1944 Hengelo Winter; Wolf, whose return to his owners in 1946 bearing a soldier’s collar will get tears flowing; and Glen, who would never receive such a warm welcome back.

Despite the sad tales, the book never veers off into soppy territory, and still provides a well-researched account of the people who worked hard to create a canine division within the British military, as well as the brave pups that went off to war and wore their collars with pride.
FINDING ARTHUR: THE TRUE ORIGINS OF THE ONCE AND FUTURE KING

Will the real King Arthur please step forward?

Author Adam Ardrey Publisher Overlook Press Price £12.99 Released Out now

We know the character of King Arthur as the quintessential English king. He and his knights of the round table would slay dragons, rescue maidens and go on glorious quests. Yet, in the same vain as his first publication, Finding Merlin, activist and writer Adam Ardrey seeks to turn this image on its head by proposing to us that the real Arthur ruled in Scotland in the 7th century—and his name was Arthur mac Aedan.

What started as research to discover the origins of his own surname turned into a personal quest to find the Scottish Arthur and prove that, along with Merlin, he was active in shaping the Britain we know today. He goes against the grain of scholarly thought, arguing against the presumption that the historical Arthur was a southern Briton. He backs up his arguments using contemporary sources and archaeology, but what he also relies heavily on is etymology.

Ardrey’s background in writing means that the style is kept lighthearted and enables some of his enthusiasm to rub off on the reader. He delights in taking the reader on a tour around Scotland to show that places like Camelot and Arthur’s great battle at Camlann are still accessible to the public. Perhaps inevitably when dealing with a figure that is more fiction than truth, the author is sometimes keen to accept the fanciful as fact, which leads to myth and legend finding their way into what is supposed to be historical evidence. He even stages a reenactment of the sword in the stone myth, telling us that it really happened.

Whether you wish to follow Ardrey to McCameolot or not is up to you, but one thing is clear, this book will open up a new avenue of thought that will keep the Arthur debate alive and kicking for years to come.

SABOTOEURS: FRENCH RESISTANCE AGAINST HITLER’S ARMY

A look at the impact French saboteurs had during World War II

Author Franck Lambert Publisher Histoire & Collections Price £21.95 Released Out now

It took only six weeks for France to fall to the German invasion of 1940, a stunning defeat considering the French army was thought to be one of the strongest in Europe before World War II began. The French natives that had managed to flee to nearby peaceful countries, including Britain, immediately began plotting against the Nazis, in the hope that they could disrupt their activities and help the Allied forces recapture their homeland.

Franck Lambert provides an incredible insight into the operations of La Résistance Française, with thousands of pieces of photographic evidence detailing the saboteurs’ activity, from their early missions right up to their involvement in the D-Day landings. It’s unfortunately obvious that this book was originally written in French; some of the translation is particularly shaky and could have done with another proof read (leaving the French word for ‘and’ in is particularly irritating). Having said that, the level of detail that the book provides makes it well worth a read. The accounts of individual saboteurs are particularly impressive, and cleverly show just how much impact a single individual can have against a giant war machine such as the Nazis.

The author’s passion for military history and World War II in particular is clear throughout the book, and by trawling through the Central Bureau of Intelligence and Operations’ records, he has been able to reveal the exceptional fates of little known secret service operatives, many of whom returned to a normal life once the war ended. Many of these operatives deserve more credit for their acts of heroism, and readers of this book will be quick to realise just how significant their contribution was to the overall war effort.
Where is this statue?

This 71-metre-tall statue is carved out of a cliff face, and is the largest stone Buddha in the world, but where is it located?

Is it...

A. China   B. Japan   C. Thailand

Visit www.historyanswers.co.uk to let us know
What were the Opium Wars?

Chris Price, Brentford

By the middle of the 19th century, the opium trade was booming. Grown in India and sold in China, the Western powers, particularly Britain and France, used the profits from the sale of opium to finance the silk and tea trades in Asia.

War broke out after the Qing dynasty noticed the rising opium addiction in China, leading them to impose restrictions on the smuggling trade to prevent the drug from entering its borders. This caused a dent in British profits, resulting in the First Opium War (1839-42), which prevented the Qing government's efforts to stop the trade as Britain flexed its military muscle through gunboat diplomacy and the Treaty of Nanking.

The second war (1856-60) was altogether larger. France waded into the conflict this time, as the conflict began with the arrest of British smugglers by the Chinese in the 'Arrow Incident'. Britain responded by destroying coastal forts and junks, and later marched on Beijing with the French, annihilating an army of 10,000 and burning the emperor's summer palace in the process.

The wars had a lasting impact on China. They marked the beginning of the end for the long-standing Qing dynasty, sowed the seeds for the Boxer Rebellion and awoke a sluggish Japan, who began an ambitious modernising project known as the Meiji Restoration. East Asia would never be the same again.

“Britain responded by destroying coastal forts and junks, and later marched on Beijing with the French”

This day in history 15 October

1815
Napoleon exiled to the Island of Saint Helena
After his defeat at Waterloo, Napoleon is exiled by the Coalition Powers. A remote island in the South Atlantic, there would be no escape for the fallen emperor.

1884
The Dreyfus affair
French army captain Alfred Dreyfus is convicted of treason after supposedly revealing military secrets to Germany. The dubious sentence is partially motivated by anti-Semitic groups.

1888
First commercial transatlantic flight
The Graf Zeppelin airship holds the record for the first commercial transatlantic flight. It nearly ended in disaster when the port fin was torn off in a violent storm, but made it after emergency repairs.

1894
Nationalists encircle Ruijin
Chinese Nationalist Party leader Chiang Kai Shek surrounds the city of Ruijin, a centre of communist activity. Communist leaders, including Mao Zedong flee in what is known as the 'Long March'.
What was the first assault rifle?

Owen Smith, Altrincham

The StG 44 is widely regarded as the first assault rifle. First introduced in 1943, it bridged the gap between single-shot rifles and fully automatic machine guns.

The design was extremely successful and it gave birth to a new class of weapons such as the AIC-76 and the M16. Before the StG, several automatic carbine designs made steps in the right direction, but it will always be the StG 44 that has the legacy.

The Homestead Act distributed 32 million hectares (80 million acres) of public land by 1900

Who were homesteaders?

Richard Logan, London

One of the US government’s early incentives to ‘go west’ was the Homestead Act of 1862. The act gave every settler 65 hectares (160 acres) of land and five years of residence. Built of sod, the homesteader houses started off primitive but soon grew into bustling communities. This was the beginning of the Wild West, as small towns shot up around the country. Most of the land given out was on the Great Plains, and along with the Gold Rush and the cattle industry, helped the white settlers achieve their manifest destiny as the Native Americans were pushed off their land.

Is Chernobyl still radioactive?

Emma Hall, Chester

Yes, very much so! It may have been in 1986 but the effects of the worst nuclear disaster in human history can still be seen today. Despite the accident, the plant continued to operate until the year 2000, but the area is now a ghost town. Animals and trees still live and grow in the area but experts predict that it won’t be completely safe for human habitation for as long as 20,000 years.

A concrete casing now surrounds the damaged core but plans for a stronger structure are being considered.

Did William Webb Ellis really invent rugby? Find out at... historyanswers.co.uk
Our Dad’s Army

Denis Smith
Now that we are approaching its 75th anniversary, we thought your readers might like to read of a Macclesfield Home Guard exploit. It was recounted many years ago by our father, Henry Smith. He was conscripted to maintain machinery in munitions factories.

The background to the story, in the late summer of 1940, was that Hitler’s forces had destroyed the Polish army in just over a month and forced the French to accept surrender in six weeks. They had compelled the British Expeditionary Force to evacuate the sands of Dunkirk and, with the Battle of Britain at a critical stage, were poised to invade Britain.

About four months after the formation of the Macclesfield Home Guard, Henry Smith was the lone Home Guard on night duty in the Drill Hall. His duties were to sleep beside the phone and report any messages or incidents to his superior officers, the sergeant and captain. If the Macclesfield Home Guard was called out, he was to load into the transport lorry the unit’s single machine gun, which had seen service in World War 1, and the one belt of ammunition.

Late in the night, Henry was woken by the telephone. It was the Colonel of the Cheshire Regiment at Chester. He said that a report had been received that German paratroopers had landed on hills above the town near the Cat and Fiddle, then thought to be the highest pub in England. He ordered the Macclesfield Home Guard to ascertain the truth of the report and should they sight any German soldiers, to monitor their movements but on no account to engage with the enemy. The Cheshire Regiment would rendezvous with the Home Guard at 0630 hours just below the Cat and Fiddle.

Henry’s first thought was that this was a practical joke. He rang back to check that it had been a genuine message. At the time this was no easy task, since long-distance connections had to be made manually by a telephone operator. When he eventually got through to the colonel at Chester, he got very short shrift. The colonel told him that he was delaying carrying out an order of the highest urgency and to get on with the job.

Send your memories to: allabouthistory@imagine-publishing.co.uk
He, the colonel, would have to turn out of bed a whole regiment of professional soldiers and all. Henry had to do was to organise a Home Guard squad. Henry’s immediate superior was Sergeant Riley, a seasoned veteran of World War I. Henry cycled round on his bike but there were no lights on in the building. He banged on the front door. There was no response. He tried banging several times but still no response. He went round to the back and banged on that door with his rifle butt. After several attempts, a voice from an upstairs window told him to “b**** off.” The pub was closed and everybody was in bed. Henry said that he wanted Sergeant Riley but was told that he wasn’t there and that again he should “b**** off.”

He was later to recall that the awful truth hit him then. At that moment, the fate of the British Empire could well be weighing on his shoulders and that, contrary to his nature, he should jolly well be forceful in his demands. He insisted that he wanted Sergeant Riley, that he knew he was there. To emphasise the point, he banged the door again.

When Sergeant Riley came out, Henry gave him the message and then volunteered to go to tell the captain. Sergeant Riley said that he ought to be the one to tell him. Henry was to get on his bike, round up the Guard and load the lorry.

All assembled at the Drill Hall, boarded the lorry and set off. Near the Cat and Fiddle, the Guard disembarked and began reconnoitring. At this point, the realisation hit Henry that although he had loaded the machine gun onto the lorry, he had left the belt of ammunition on the wall in the Drill Hall. The imminent possible encounter with German troops and the prospect that he could be responsible for the slaughter of the Guard appalled him. Fearfully, he crawled over to the sergeant to confess what he had not done. To his surprise, Sergeant Riley replied casually: “Don’t worry, lad; that ammunition belt doesn’t fit that gun anyway.”

They did not encounter any German soldiers so someone put on a kettle at about 0615 hours. There was no sign of the Cheshire Regiment either, so they decided to go home at 0800 hours.
BOSWORTH:
TRIUMPH OF THE TUDORS
Inside Henry VII’s battlefield victory and the birth of the Tudor dynasty
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How the most notorious outlaw in the West was tracked down

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The incredible story of WWII’s first African-American infantry unit

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Uncover its bizarre rituals and gruesome funerary practices

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IN A DIFFERENT ‘1990’

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- IN THE NORTH SEA, HMS Tenacious hunts Soviet Subs...
- IN NORWAY, the SAS mounts a daring commando raid on a Soviet held airbase...
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Studying the Battle of Britain? We have the answers

The new Wing visitor centre at the National Memorial to the Few at Capel-le-Ferne in Kent brings to life the Battle of Britain and the events of 1940.

Set on the top of the famous White Cliffs, the new centre features an interactive, high-tech Scramble Experience that will inspire and excite young people as they learn about the bravery of ‘the Few’.

Alongside the experience is a purpose-built learning area, the Geoffrey Page Centre, which is ideal for follow up work and study. The Memorial, the Christopher Foxley-Norris Memorial Wall and a replica Spitfire and Hurricane will add further interest to the visit.

The Trust has KS2 and KS3 worksheets available, together with teachers’ notes. Well-informed staff are also on hand to provide extra information and coach parking is available.

Ring 01303 249292
or email manager@battleofbritainmemorial.org
for more information or to book.

Bringing 1940 to life

For up to date opening times, and much more information, see www.battleofbritainmemorial.org

Visit us at CT18 7JJ - on the B2011 just outside Folkestone
SAVING MR BANKS

Director: John Lee Hancock  Starring: Emma Thompson, Tom Hanks, Colin Farrell  Country: USA  Released: 2013

Is this 'historical' film sweetened with too many spoonfuls of sugar?

WHAT THEY GOT WRONG...

01 There is a moving scene where the usually stern Travers gets up to dance to Let's Go Fly a Kite. In fact, Travers hated all of the songs in Mary Poppins, and believed that if songs had to be in it, they should be traditional to the time period. She certainly did not ever dance.

02 Much of the film centres on the exchanges between Travers and Disney, but actually Disney grew impatient with Travers' demands and left the studio just a few days into her visit. A lot of the scenes between the two are adapted from letters and phone calls.

03 The film ends with Travers coming around to Disney's way, but this couldn't be further from the truth. She believed the film was a betrayal of her story and demanded he remove all the animated sequences, to which he replied: "Famela, the ship has sailed."

WHAT THEY GOT RIGHT...

04 When Travers first watches the complete film at the premiere, she cries, overcome with emotion. Although she did cry, it wasn't for the positive reasons the film portrays. She commented that: "Tears run on my cheeks because it was all so distorted."

There is no denying Travers was prickly, and she may have even been softened in the film. This is backed up by the 39 hours of audio recordings of her meetings with the screenwriter and song-writing Sherman brothers. Richard Sherman agrees with this portrayal, commenting that she was a very difficult person to work with.
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