MURDER IN THE HOUSE OF ROMANOV

- How a family photo shoot turned into a massacre
- Roots of the Russian Revolution
- Rasputin's affair with the tsarina exposed
- Did Anastasia survive?
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In September, the world heard that the Romanov murder case was to be reopened, the bodies of Tsar Nicholas II and his wife exhumed, and the remains of their children DNA tested in an attempt to get to the bottom of one of history's greatest mysteries. Ever since their execution in 1918, speculation has been rife that some or all of the family had survived, namely the youngest daughter Anastasia, with many coming forward claiming to be the lost princess. It wasn’t until 1991 that the bones of five of the royal family were unearthed, and those of the remaining two were found in 2007... or so we believed. Now, under the orders of the Russian Orthodox Church, who have refused to accept that the remains are the Romanovs, previously unavailable evidence will be used to determine whether there is any truth in the conspiracy theories. Before the results are published, we asked Will Lawrence to weigh up the evidence to paint as clear a picture as possible of those final days in the Ipatiev House. Might one of the Anastasia impostors have been telling the truth? On p28, we reveal all.
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SCOTT’S GROTTO

T. Griffith Taylor and Charles Wright of the British Antarctic Expedition stand inside an ice grotto; the ship that carried them there, Terra Nova, is visible in the background. The expedition was led by Captain Robert Falcon Scott, who reached the South Pole with his four companions only to discover that their Norwegian opponents had beaten them to it. Tragically, the entire team died on the return leg.

1911
At the end of the Vietnam War, with Saigon under attack, more than 3,000 children were evacuated from the country and adopted by families around the world. This attracted controversy, as questions were raised as to whether it was in the children’s best interests, and not all of them were orphans. Further controversy was raised when one plane crashed, killing all 78 children on board.

1975
Anti-German sentiment was widespread in the US during WWI. John Meints, a German American, was kidnapped by a group of men after being accused of being disloyal by not supporting war bond drives. They drove him to the South Dakota border, where they covered him in tar and feathers and told him he would be hanged if he ever returned.

1918
On a typical weekday, 50,000 people worked in the Twin Towers of the World Trade Center.

A man sells his wares at a bazaar stall in Afghanistan.

Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama was the first European to reach India by sea.

Trade & Commerce
Discover the history of buying, selling and bartering.
One of the UK’s most successful businessmen, Alan Sugar was made a peer in 2009 to advise the government on enterprise issues.

Zhang Qian’s missions during the second century BCE opened up China to other parts of the world.

More than 11 million Africans were forcibly removed from their homes and transported across the Atlantic as part of the transatlantic slave trade.

London’s Oxford Street is Europe’s busiest shopping street, with about 500,000 daily visitors.

The Bank of England £1 note was withdrawn from circulation on 11 March 1988.

During the Great Depression of the 1930s, Washington DC residents wait in a soup line.

The Money Brothers, the sons of William Money, an early director of the East India Company.

When financial crisis hit the US in 1907, it sparked a panic in New York City.

The Bank of England £1 note was withdrawn from circulation on 11 March 1988.
Trade and commerce across history

The Silk Road is a hugely important historical trading route that provided a cultural bridge between China, India, Persia, Rome and Greece. It was named the Silk Road in 1877 due to the popularity of Chinese silk at the time. The route was used for about 1,600 years, and was mapped by Zhang Qian during the Han Dynasty. It not only helped the spread of international trade, but also helped spread art and religion throughout the world and established peace between many of the nations that traded on it.

**SILK ROAD ESTABLISHED IN ASIA**

**WORLDWIDE 138 BCE**

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**Trade timeline**

- **First currency in use**
  The oldest currency known to man comes in the form of gold bars. These are known to be very valuable, and are used in Egypt and Mesopotamia. **3000 BCE**

- **Busy trading economy in Ebla**
  A busy trading economy had already been founded in a country we now call Syria. It is reinforced by strict military policies. **2400 BCE**

- **Ancient Egyptians establish trade routes**
  Hatshepsut, the fifth pharaoh of the 18th Dynasty of Egypt, restores trade routes to buy frankincense and myrrh. **1478 BCE**

- **China develops paper currency**
  The Chinese begin to develop paper money to replace their coin system. This aspect of Chinese life hugely impressesMarco Polo when he visits. **1290**

- **Italy develops accountancy**
  Northern Italian bankers develop a simple method of bookkeeping, which would eventually develop into modern-day accountancy. **1300**

- **Edward III bankrupts Florentine bankers**
  Edward III of England decides he will refuse to pay back his debts to Bardi and Peruzzi, which drives the two Florentine banking families into bankruptcy. **1345**

- **Alexander the Great’s Persian conquest**
  Known for his tireless military campaigns, Alexander the Great conquered far and wide until he commanded an empire stretching from Greece to Egypt and into Northwest India. While he set about founding more than 70 cities in the lands he had acquired, Alexander also implemented the first form of multinational trade. He linked lands thousands of miles apart with a common language and culture, helping them to trade among themselves fairly. The man himself also adopted foreign customs so he could better understand the needs of each part of his empire. **336 BCE**

- **Portugal uses slaves on Brazilian sugar plantations**
  The Portuguese were the first nation to introduce the new world to modern slavery. Ship owners desperately transported as many slaves as they could to South America, particularly Brazil, where they could be sold on as labour in coffee, tobacco, cocoa and sugar plantations and gold mines. By the middle of the 17th century, slavery had become a racial caste; the children of slaves automatically became slaves, to work for free for the rest of their lives. The slave trade in Brazil continued until 1807, when William Wilberforce abolished it. **1510 CE**

- **Britain’s East India Company founded**
  In 1600, Queen Elizabeth I granted a Royal Charter to the newly founded East India Company, giving them a monopoly on trade with the East Indies. Although it started out as a trading organisation, it quickly grew to become involved in Indian politics, helping to enforce British rule. By the 19th century, the company was operating in China, helping to expand British influence in this part of the world. During its reign of more than 200 years, it faced competition from a number of rival companies, but managed to maintain its monopoly on the area until 1813. **1600**

- **Trade and commerce across history**

  **3000 BCE**
  The oldest currency known to man comes in the form of gold bars. These are known to be very valuable, and are used in Egypt and Mesopotamia.

  **1650 BCE**
  Ancient Egyptians establish trade routes.

  **1478 BCE**
  Hatshepsut, the fifth pharaoh of the 18th Dynasty of Egypt, restores trade routes to buy frankincense and myrrh.

  **1750 BCE**
  The Chinese begin to develop paper money to replace their coin system.

  **1345**
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The Industrial Revolution

Although its exact date is still hotly contested, the Industrial Revolution is known to have brought about huge improvements in agriculture, transport, communications and (of course) industry. It was spearheaded by various scientific breakthroughs and technological innovations that changed society forever. This helped rapidly increase iron and coal production, which fuelled economic growth in more ways than one. Factories were able to boost their production, while new trade routes were quickly put in place as roads, railways and canals grew in number. This was hugely significant in the UK, helping it amass a worldwide trading empire covering a fifth of the globe by 1914.

Income Tax is introduced in the UK

At the suggestion of Dr Beeke, the Dean of Bristol, Prime Minister William Pitt the Younger introduces Income Tax to pay for weapons and other equipment for the French Revolutionary War. 1799

First British train runs

The first train runs between London and Birmingham on the railway designed by Robert Stephenson, helping to transport goods from the capital. 1837

Bretton Woods system introduced

Planned since 1944, this system provides an international economic structure to help prevent further wars and depressions, and also aims to stop national trade barriers. 1946

Shipping containers invented

An American named Malcolm McLean invents the shipping container, drastically reducing the cost of transporting goods internationally. 1956

Gold found in Brazil

As soon as gold is discovered in this large South American country, the first great American gold rush is launched. 1693

Jefferson embargoes US exports

Thomas Jefferson decides to embargo all US exports in an attempt to damage the economy of France and Britain. 1807

The Cobden-Chevalier Treaty is finalised

This represents the first international trade agreement, and is signed between France and the United Kingdom. It sparks a number of similar agreements between other European countries. 1860

US introduces paper money

After discontinuing Demand Notes, which had been used to finance the civil war, Congress issues Legal Tender Notes, which are the first notes to be used nationally as legal tender. 25 February 1862

The Euro becomes available

On this day, the Euro becomes the sole legal tender in 12 EU member countries, leaving currencies that had been established for hundreds of years worthless. 1 January 2002

The Panama Canal

On this day in 1914, the United States built, ships sailing between the ports of New York and San Francisco had to undertake a 12,000-mile journey, which would take them about 67 days to complete. Once the canal was opened after 33 years of construction, roughly 8,000 miles were eliminated from the trip. This helped increase the number of ships making the journey to San Francisco exponentially, massively boosting trade in the area by saving time and money. Today, more than 280 million tons of cargo passes through the canal each year, which is set to increase once the current renovations are complete.

Wall Street Crash

USA 24 October 1929

On this day in 1929, the United States suffered the most devastating stock market crash in its history. It plunged the world's economy into the Great Depression, heavily affecting all Western industrialised countries. It brought a period of economic wealth known as the roaring twenties to an abrupt end. The United States had essentially manufactured more goods than they required, and there was too much being risked on the stock market by the middle class. It left 13 million people unemployed, many of whom went hungry.

World Trade Organisation is created

Switzerland 1 January 1995

Although the World Trade Organisation (WTO) wasn’t established until 1995, its trading system has existed since the 1940s. Put simply, the WTO monitors the rules of trade between nations at a global level. It aims to liberalise trade and help governments negotiate an agreement that is fair for both countries. Another role of the WTO is to maintain trade barriers, which can be important when there is risk of disease spreading or illegal items being smuggled across borders. By ensuring that trade flows as freely as possible, the WTO helps small economies to grow and established economies to remain healthy.
A SILK ROAD TRADER

MAKING MONEY ON THE MOVE
ALONG THE ANCIENT TRADE ROUTE,
TAKLAMAKAN DESERT, CHINA, 629

Stretching from the East’s opulent city of Chang’an, China, far beyond the horizon to Kashgar, then further west to India, Iran, Constantinople, Damascus and, ultimately, Rome, the Silk Road remains one of the greatest trade routes in history. Despite the name, silk made up only a small portion of the goods traded along the route, where magnificent caravans of merchants walked parched deserts and snow-capped mountains. Gemstones, precious metals, spices and incense were all staples of the trade route. Well-travelled sellers risked attack by bandits, the elements and even demons along their way.

WORSHIP YOUR CHOSEN GOD

Valuable goods were not all that was traded on the Silk Road. Religions and belief systems also travelled, and Buddhism, Judaism and Christianity, as well as Zoroastrianism, Manichaeanism and Nestorianism, all expanded along the route. Each prescribed different methods of worship, and some travellers that met along the way would preach the virtues of their own beliefs.

LOAD UP THE CAMELS

Success on the Silk Road meant trading goods bought cheaply in your home country with merchants from other lands, where your goods were rare and expensive. Before the caravan set off for the day, the animals would be loaded with the cargo. Rolls of silk, bags of spices and whichever other precious commodities were being transported were all hauled onto the animals’ backs.

SEE OFF BANDIT ATTACKS

Bandits sought the precious cargo coursing through the route and, as such, many merchants carried weapons to defend themselves. Bronze weapons were often traded and so could also have been carried by the merchants themselves. The threat of attack meant that the route branched out across different roads of the main track over time, created in the hope of avoiding bandits.
LEAVE YOUR MARK
Silk Road traders made their mark on the land as they travelled with different forms of art. Indo-European Sogdians carved rocks in Pakistan, travellers painted on cave walls in Mogao, and magnificent cave temples were built in Subei County. Many of these caves contained statues or paintings of Buddha, and the imagery was intricate and colourful.

FACE THE SAND DEMONS
Desert storms made an already inhospitable environment even more dangerous. Sand dunes were whipped into storms by high winds, making it impossible to see, so markers were set in the sand showing the direction of approach to avoid disorientation once the storm had ended. The sound of the wind was often thought to be famed desert demons that plagued unlucky travellers.

MERCHANTS’ MEETING
Throughout the desert were oasis towns like Dunhuang, home to Mogao caves, as well as landmarks like Tashkurgan’s stone tower, providing places for groups of merchants to congregate – similar to modern service stations. Important information was exchanged here, like whether trades could be made with nearby groups, and any hazards to watch out for on the road ahead.

MAKE A SALE
Having heard at the meeting stop that a group travelling from the west may be willing to trade and are located nearby, the direction could be changed and a meeting arranged. The groups met in an open space, with the goods then placed between them for inspection. If the transaction was beneficial, goods were traded – silk might be exchanged for gold, silver and jewels.

TIME FOR BED
After a long day’s travelling, a resting spot was picked and fires made to warm the caravan as they slept. Simple meals of meat and rice were eaten, and water, if in short supply, was rationed (the camels were last to drink, needing it less than their human leaders). The traders slept with half an eye on their cargo and their weapons in case of attack.
5 shocking facts about...

THE TRANSATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE

THE EVIL AND HORRIFYING VIOLATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS THE SLAVE TRADE TRIANGLE, 1540-1888

01 ONE IN FIVE DIDN’T MAKE IT ASHORE
The conditions on the slave boats were so atrocious that many never made it off. Crammed together in the ship’s hold, slaves were exposed to Old World diseases that spread in the squalid conditions. Each slave only had about 1.2 metres of space on the six to eight-week voyage.

02 80% of slaves went to countries outside of the USA
Many modern accounts portray the slave trade as being primarily based in North America and especially the USA. However, only 450,000 of the 10.7 million slaves who arrived between 1525 and 1866 were taken to work in the USA. South America and the Caribbean were much more common destinations for slaves.

03 Slaves had their toes cut off to prevent them escaping
A cruel example of pseudoscience, every slave who tried to escape was believed to have the mental disorder ‘drapetomania’. ‘Dysaesthesia aethiopica’ was another invented condition put forward as the reason for black slaves’ laziness. To stop slaves from fleeing, often their big toes were cut off. The worst of scientific racism.

04 Escaped slaves often had harder lives than imprisoned ones
If a slave managed to escape, dogs would be used to track and apprehend them. Once caught, escapees would be punished with hundreds of lashes from a whip and treated even more poorly than before. Those who succeeded in their attempts faced a long search for food and shelter.

05 Some tribe leaders sent away their people for profit
The trade was based primarily on the western coast of Africa, from Senegal to Angola, but almost all of the continent was affected. In total, up to 17 million Africans were forcibly refused from their homeland and sent overseas as slaves. Some African rulers were happy to send their own people away for profit.
Stories from the Great War: Part 2

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Your community, your University
EARLY DEPARTMENT STORE
TRANSFORMING SHOPPING FROM NECESSITY TO LEISURE ACTIVITY, EARLY-20TH CENTURY

The Industrial Revolution saw factories, coal mines and shipyards spring up across the countryside and coast, but this era also ushered in the dawn of a very different kind of establishment: the department store. With the booming economy came a new consumer society and the rise of the middle class, with disposable incomes and plenty of leisure time. The department store provided an easy way for affluent women to shop safely and decorously away from the company of men.

The first was Harding Howell & Co's Grand Fashionable Magazine in Pall Mall, London, which opened in 1796. It was divided into four departments: furs and fans, haberdashery, jewellery and clocks, and millinery (hats). By the end of the 19th century, all major British cities had flourishing department stores, including Kendals (now House of Fraser) in Manchester and Bainbridge's (now owned by John Lewis) in Newcastle. Harrods opened in 1834 and became the world's most famous luxury department store. However, it was another store that changed the way we shop forever.

Selfridges on Oxford Street opened its doors in 1909. Founded by American entrepreneur Harry Gordon Selfridge, his aim was to transform shopping from a chore into a source of pleasure and entertainment. It offered 100 departments in which 'everyone was welcome', and his innovative marketing campaigns were mimicked the world over.

Shop assistants
These employees were taught to be on hand to assist customers, but never pushy. The shifts were long and gruelling. During busy periods, employees were expected to be on the shop floor between 8am and 10pm when the shop closed, and would then have to stay to restock. One described it as 'the lowest form of animal life'.

Roof terrace
From the 1920s, the roof hosted terraced gardens, cafes, a mini golf course and an all-girl gun club. With its spectacular views across London, it became a popular place for relaxing after a shopping trip.
Trade

A one-stop shop
Other departments included reading and writing rooms, special reception rooms for French, German, American and 'colonial' customers, and a silence room with soft lights and deep chairs. The aim was to keep customers in the store for as long as possible.

Perfume counter
The highly profitable perfume counter was located front and centre on the ground floor, so that it would be the first port of call for customers. Merchandise was placed on display so that they could be tested and examined freely.

Dressed windows
Selfridges was one of the first shops in Britain to use its windows as a tool to entice customers into the store. Previously, this was the shopkeeper's job, who would stand in the door and encourage people to come in, but the beautifully dressed windows were seen as a less aggressive way of doing this.

China department
Selfridges had the British love of tea to thank for its success. Funding for the store was provided by the tea tycoon John Musker, and with its boom in popularity came a new demand for all things tea related, including teapots, cups, saucers and sugar bowls.

Linen department

Book shop

Gentlemen's outfitting

Tailoring

Blouses

Ladies' boots

Jewellery
**Hall of Fame**

**TRADING TRAILBLAZERS**

From the dawn of mankind, humanity has been concerned with improving its lot, with trade and commerce being its means for this. From setting up trade routes to making the internet profitable, here are ten pivotal pioneers.

**JOHN CABOT**

ITALIAN 1450-99/1500

Also known as Giovanni Caboto, Cabot’s exploration of North America has led to him being recognised as the first European to do so since the Vikings hundreds of years earlier. Having reached Newfoundland in 1497, he subsequently mapped the island and large parts of the continent’s coast. His discovery paved the way for many more to follow his lead and set up various trade routes, as well as establishing the viability of settling in America.

**JOHN MAYNARD KEYNES**

BRITISH 1883-1946

Widely recognised as one of the most influential economists of the 20th century, Keynes – alongside his American counterpart Harry Dexter White – played a pivotal role in establishing the Bretton Woods system in 1946. This was put into place as a reaction to World War II in an attempt to avoid any more depressions like the ones that had played a role in the lead up to the conflict. In the Bretton Woods Conference of 1944, the outcome included the establishment of the International Bank For Reconstruction And Development (which offers loans to developing countries) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF).

**ZHANG QIAN**

CHINESE 200 BCE – 114 BCE

A diplomat and official during the time of China’s Han dynasty, Qian was largely responsible for mapping the routes of the Silk Road, a huge trade network that connected the country with India, Africa and parts of Europe. Having been sent out in 138 BCE by Emperor Wudi to map central Asia, he achieved his mission despite being imprisoned for ten years. In the years following this, he documented much information on India – as well as doing so second hand with places like Uzbekistan and Afghanistan – all of which greatly contributed to China’s future prosperity.

**ELON MUSK**

SOUTH AFRICAN 1971-PRESENT

Although he is responsible for a great many business ventures going beyond trade and commerce – such as Space Exploration Technologies Corp, responsible for resupplying the International Space Station – his relevance here is because of his invention of the PayPal online payment system in 1999 (originally known as X.com, renamed PayPal in 2001). Ultimately, after being purchased by eBay for $1.5 billion, it would go on to become the standard for online payment around the world.

**ZHANG QIAN is best remembered for mapping the Silk Road.**

**Cabot was the first European to explore North America since the Vikings.**

**It was under Keynes’ guidance that the Bretton Woods system was implemented.**

Musk has declared his admiration for British PM Margaret Thatcher, describing her as “tough but sensible and fair.”
VASCO DA GAMA
PORTUGUESE 1460-1524
The first man to mark down a sea-based trade route between Europe and India, Vasco da Gama’s discovery would prove to be influential. In 1497, he was appointed by the Portuguese government to command an expedition to discover a maritime trade route to the east - which he managed by sailing round the west coast of Africa, docking on the south coast of the continent before circling the Cape of Good Hope and heading on to India.
In addition, he personally secured a trading post at Calicut, establishing ports in Mozambique. His trade routes are still used today.

ADAM SMITH
BRITISH 1723-90
A world-renowned philosopher and economist - indeed, he is credited with founding economics as a discipline - Smith is perhaps best recognised for penning *An Inquiry Into The Nature And Causes Of The Wealth Of The Nations*, which looked into the division of labour and free markets in advanced nations, and in turn influences a great many people in their decision-making. Smith himself argued in favour of free trade over regulation of trade and commerce, saying that it would produce increased prosperity for individuals. Although his theories have polarised many over the years, his name lives on today via the influential Adam Smith Institute.

ELI HECKSCHER
SWEDISH 1879-1952
The name Eli Heckscher will forever be remembered in tandem with that of his pupil, fellow economist Bertil Ohlin, with whom he proposed evidence-based arguments in favour of free trade. Their hypothesis stated that certain countries’ trading advantages were due to productive factors being different, which subsequently became known as the Heckscher-Ohlin Theory. In turn, their work would go on to be referenced by a number of free trade-advocating economists.

GERTRUDE BELL
BRITISH 1868-1926
As well as working as a traveller, administrator, archaeologist and even as a spy, Gertrude Bell is best remembered for travelling through areas of Asia and helping build up the modern state of Iraq post-World War I, establishing trade links and assisting the governance of the country. She was memorably described as “one of the few representatives of His Majesty’s Government remembered by the Arabs with anything resembling affection.”

PIERRE OMI DYAR
FRENCH-BORN AMERICAN-IRANIAN 1967-PRESENT
Best known today as the founder of online auction site eBay, Omidyar revolutionised the way we buy and sell things online, helping to entice the public online when it was still relatively young. After graduating from Tufts University in 1988 with a degree in computer science, he worked at Macintosh and Apple before founding eBay in 1995. By 1998, it had 2.1 million members and generated revenues of $750 million, and has since spawned numerous similar auction sites. Omidyar is the 57th richest man in the world, with a real-time net worth of $8.4 billion.

ADAM SMITH’s *An Inquiry Into The Nature And Causes Of The Wealth Of The Nations* sold out in just six months.

“It was Omidyar’s founding of eBay that propelled him to wealth.”

“While securing trading routes, Vasco da Gama also successfully defended ports from Arab-Muslim attackers.”

“JACQUES COEUR
FRENCH 1395-1456
An enterprising and wealthy merchant, Coeur was one of the founders of the trade route between France and the Levant, which helped furnish the country with cloth, silks, jewels, armour and spices. A charismatic individual, he won the favour of Charles VII, being given a number of important roles – such as master of the mint and steward of the royal expenditure – through which he greatly enhanced the prosperity of the country.

“Together with Bertil Ohlin, Eli Heckscher put forward the Heckscher-Ohlin Theory.”

Coeur’s founding of trade routes greatly contributed to France’s prosperity.

“Gertrude Bell has been described as the female Lawrence of Arabia.”

What makes eBay successful... is the community. It’s the buyers and sellers coming together and forming a marketplace.”

Pierre Omidyar

“Vasco da Gama established the first maritime trade route between Europe and Asia.”

ELI HECKSCHER

While securing trading routes, Vasco da Gama also successfully defended ports from Arab-Muslim attackers.

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“Adam Smith is credited with founding economics as a discipline.”

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ELI HECKSCHER
How to CREATE AN INTERNATIONAL BRAND

TAKING ON THE WORLD WITH THE PERFECT PRODUCT USA, 20TH CENTURY

As the 20th century dawned on the New World, the continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific was populated by white settlers. With the advent of the American railroads, firms rapidly sprang up, and the USA became the ideal environment for up and coming entrepreneurs. Constant streams of supply and demand were readily available, but to really corner the market, companies needed to create a product that hadn't been seen before and would appeal to a mass audience. Getting these right meant global domination was there for the taking.

WHAT YOU'LL NEED

01 Scout out your audience
As the old adage goes, the customer is always right. Get a good sense of the market first before you go straight in with a new killer creation. There will always be a gap in the market – a gap that a new release can exploit. Also ensure that your supply lines are safe before launch – you don't want to be running out of product.

02 Choose a catchy name
The name needs to be quirky yet friendly and stand out on the high street. Coca-Cola, for instance, successfully moved itself away from its alcohol and cocaine origins before it became an international behemoth. A label must stick in the consumer's mind and make them want to buy it again and again. It must also look good in your upcoming advertisement.
How not to... react to competition

In 1985, Coca-Cola was increasingly wary of competition from rivals. Despite solid sales, its response was to cease production on its current brand and release ‘New Coke’. Designed to usher the company into a new age, the release flopped as the public became outraged at the demise of the original flavour. Bowing to popular demand, New Coke was scrapped and the original flavour reinstated. The disastrous decision was motivated by the recent growth of Pepsi that had taken on the old timer Coca-Cola at its own game and was closing the sales gap. The drive for a new flavour seemed like a logical idea, especially as Pepsi began to corner the youth market, but the firm had underestimated the strong and even emotional attachment the US population had to the original brand. Today, the company sells nearly 1.8 billion beverages worldwide every single day. If it ain’t broke...

Advertise your product

$3.5 billion was spent by Coca-Cola on advertising in 2012 alone. In the company’s early days, it put a huge emphasis on patriotic imagery, which was a raging success and key to getting the American audience on its side. It always helps to get environmental concerns sorted early on. Coca-Cola benefited from a public-financed recycling programme.

Take on commercial partners

As well as other companies, consider getting local government on your side. Coca-Cola managed to get both independent businesses and local governments to help get the company off its knees and spread out around the USA. Getting a major name, whether it be in sports, entertainment or music, to sign up to the brand is always a plus.

Get trendy

Free samples are a good way to get the public on your side, as is the mystery of a secret formula. Be wary of ‘selling out’, but, especially at the start of your beverage’s career, emblazon the product on everything from calendars to clocks. By throwing everything you can at marketing, your empire can begin to grow.

Go global

Once your country has been conquered, the next step is to take on the world. By now you should have enough funds to spread out your web of contacts and infrastructure. Your rivals should have also been eliminated, so there will be nothing to stop the juggernaut. Either that or you might overreach and go bankrupt. Even Coca-Cola stumbled from time to time. Remember New Coke?

4 FAMOUS... ENTREPRENEURS

JOHN D ROCKEFELLER
1839-1937, USA
The founder of Standard Oil, Rockefeller became one of the world’s richest men and revolutionised the petroleum industry in the USA.

ASA GRIGGS CANDLER
1861-1929, USA
Born on a farm, Candler turned his hand to business and purchased the Coca-Cola formula, building it into an empire.

MADAM CJ WALKER
1867-1919, USA
Walker was the first African-American woman to become a self-made millionaire due to her successful beauty industry.

CATERINA FAKE
1969/70-PRESENT, USA
The US businesswoman co-founded the photo hosting service Flickr and is now in various top 100 most influential people lists.

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Friends in High Places

Influential Allies for When a Sword Isn’t Protection Enough

It was probably wise to stay clear of family politics but if dragged into it, it was best to befriend the powerful. Italy was a collection of independent city-states all vying for power, and securing a deal with a powerful family or political party could set a merchant up for life.

Savings

Preparing for the Worst

Bad harvests and the spread of disease could strike at any time, so a wise merchant would make sure his earnings were safe. Also, traders would be ready to up sticks at any time as centres of trade shifted between city-states and expeditions went further into Asia.

The Anatomy of a Venetian Merchant

Italy, 13th Century

Spices

Ideal for Trade with Other Realms

Venice had great links to the Islamic world, which was keen to trade with its Western counterparts. Textiles, spices, grain, wine and salt were popular commodities. This industry was one of the most important on the whole of the Italian peninsula and only became more prosperous with the Marco Polo Silk Route.

Compass

Always in the Right Place at the Right Time

A good merchant knew the best trade routes. Venice was the city of choice for many merchants who utilised its European and Asian trade in the Holy Roman and Byzantine Empires. Competition was fierce and a merchant would have to be on his toes to get his nose ahead of rivals.

Crusader Contacts

Making Money Out in the Holy Land

The Crusades were still raging in the 13th century and Italian merchants did their best to exploit the conflict for their own gain. The sheer amount of soldiers and horses going east required many ships, so each merchant would drive a hard bargain for transport and supplies.

Merchant Fashion

Looking Sharp for Business

A trusted and successful merchant would dress the best he could when in the company of clients. The wealthy aside, 13th century fashion was very plain and very simple. Men and women dressed similarly and would wear tunics and linen shirts with bras (trousers) or leggings.

Sword

Defence Was a Priority in 13th-Century Italy

Italy was divided into factions so it was imperative that a trader protected himself from any rivals that would try and steal his booty or take his ship. Daggers and swords were usually the best way to keep a merchant in one piece.

Avoid Black Death Like the Plague

Disease Could Be Just Around the Corner

Due to its trade, Venice became one of the largest cities in Europe. However, a high population with a continuous influx of overseas traders meant the threat of plague was never far away. Plague constantly affected Europe throughout the Middle Ages and would cripple many industries.
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When they awoke on the morning of Tuesday 16 July 1918, it was just another day in captivity for the Romanovs. The former tsar of all the Russians, Nicholas Alexandrovich Romanov, his wife Alexandra and their five children had spent the last 16 months in captivity, Nicholas having abdicated in March 1917, bringing to an end 300 years of Romanov rule over the Russian empire.

To begin with, the family was held under arrest at the palace at Tsarskoye Selo, enjoying a life of relative luxury. Some say that Nicholas, never a confident or comfortable ruler, had never been happier, reveling in the trappings of rule without the responsibilities. In late April 1918, however, the family were transferred to the bleak Urals and settled in the town of Ekaterinburg.

Here, at Ipatiev House, their lives became monotonous, their Bolshevik captors depriving them of the luxuries to which they were accustomed and treating them with increasing disdain. The tsar’s four daughters, Olga, Tatiana, Maria and Anastasia, were harassed; graffiti appeared on the walls making lewd suggestions about Alexandra and her murdered favourite, the peasant holy man Rasputin. Still, the family lived in hope. The arrival in early July of Yakov Yurovsky had brought the Romanovs some relief. A close friend of Lenin’s, Yurovsky introduced more disciplined guards to the house who treated Nicholas’s daughters with respect.

The tsarina Alexandra, meanwhile, was boosted by an upturn in her son’s constitution. Alexei, the couple’s youngest child, was afflicted by haemophilia and had often suffered ill health. When she went to bed at about 10.30pm on 16 July, Alexandra penned a positive note in her diary. It was cool, she wrote, about 15 degrees. Maybe the family’s ordeal, suffering amid the heat and tedium of Ekaterinburg, would soon abate.

Shot and stabbed by drunken revolutionaries, the murder of the Russian royal family still reverberates today

Written by Will Lawrence

MURDER IN THE HOUSE OF

ROMANOV

28
“As the gun smoke cleared, groans from the blood-spattered floor testified to a bungled execution”
THE MAD MONK

Few figures from the early 20th century arouse as much curiosity as the peasant holy man Grigori Rasputin

The Siberian peasant Grigori Rasputin was born around 1869, and by the age of ten was already said to have demonstrated considerable powers as a healer. His reputation was murky from the outset, with his younger years suffused by all sorts of ridiculous tales. In 1903, he arrived in Saint Petersburg, and two years later was introduced to the tsar and tsarina as a potential healer for their son. He clearly had success with the imperial heir, though the exact nature of his healing ability remains a mystery. Whatever the truth, the tsarina hailed him as a gift from God. He enjoyed high status at court, accepting gifts and sexual favours from those who hoped he could use his influence on the royal family to further their aims. Those distrustful of the man, or of his patrons, perpetuated the legend that sprung up around his licentiousness. He was even said to have had relations with the tsar's sister.

The most damaging rumours, some perpetrated by himself, claimed that he was the tsarina’s lover and that the pair engaged in orgies – though there is no evidence for any impropriety beyond a letter leaked to the press in 1912. “All I want is to sleep, sleep forever on your shoulder, in your embrace,” it read. Given what we know of the empress, says Orlando Figes, “it would be a travesty to read this as a love letter.” She was, he says, a devoted wife who only sought spiritual guidance.

When Russia entered World War I, Alexandra’s meddling in domestic policy, often with Rasputin’s advice ringing in her ears. According to one of his biographers, Frances Welch, the tsarina “found Rasputin indispensable as a war-time helpmeet.” Despite protests from advisers, the tsar refused to dismiss Rasputin and his presence eroded the Romanov’s relationship with all levels of society. Few beyond the royal family mourned his murder in 1916.

THE ROAD TO REVOLUTION

- November 1894
  Nicholas II accedes to the throne after the death of his father, Alexander III, who was a far more open-minded and able monarch than his son will prove to be.

- February 1904
  The Russo-Japanese War erupts. The results will be devastating for Russia, Nicholas’s signing of the Treaty of Portsmouth ceding power in East Asia.

- January 1905
  Revolution breaks out across the Russian empire amid a wave of political and social unrest. Workers go on strike and military units mutiny.

- January 1905
  Bloody Sunday unfolds as the Imperial Guard fires upon unarmed demonstrators, who are attempting to present a petition to the tsar at the Winter Palace.

- October 1905
  The October Manifesto sees Nicholas guarantee civil liberties to all Russian citizens. By signing, he creates the duma, an elected legislature.

- November 1905
  The peasant holy man Grigori Rasputin arrives at court. His influence there alienates many, especially after the outbreak of World War I in 1914.
A few hours later, she was woken from her slumber. Yurovsky, it transpired, was not a harbinger of hope. He roused the family and their servants at about midnight, reporting that the anti-Bolshevik White Army was approaching and that the family might be in danger from heavy shelling. They were urged to dress as quickly as possible. The women wrapped themselves in clothes sewn full of precious stones, hoping, perhaps, that this night might yet end in liberation.

At 2:15am on 17 July, the seven Romanovs along with their doctor, Eugene Botkin, and three other servants – the valet, a maid and the cook – hurried into the cool night air. Yurovsky led them from the main house across a courtyard to a small basement room at the far corner of the house. According to one source, Nicholas was heard to say to his daughters reassuringly: “Well, we’re going to get out of this place.” Some believe he was simply acting as a comforting father knowing full well the fate that lay ahead. Others believe he was speaking what he perceived as the truth. After all, if the approaching White Army were to take the town, perhaps they could be returned to more favourable circumstances. There were some monarchists among the White ranks.

The room into which the Romanovs were ushered was a tight space, less than 13 square feet, with iron bars covering the one window. There was no furniture. A single bulb hanging overhead cast a weak light. “What, no chairs?” asked Alexandra. “May we not sit?”

Two chairs were brought in and Alexandra and Alexei sat down. Yurovsky told the 11 captives that he needed a photograph of the group to send to Moscow, where there were concerns that the family might have escaped. He set them up in two rows, Nicholas standing front and centre with his son seated next to him. Alexandra sat in her chair close to the wall and her daughters gathered around her. The servants, meanwhile, lined up behind Nicholas and Alexei.

The family was then left in peace for 30 minutes as they awaited the photographer. When Yurovsky returned, however, he brought not a camera and tripod, but a firing squad. There were six Hungarians and five Russians. As the men crowded into the room and confusion ran across the faces of the family, Yurovsky stood in the front of Nicholas holding a small piece of paper from which he read their death sentence.

“In view of the fact that your relatives are continuing their attack on Soviet Russia, the Ural Executive Committee has decided to execute you.” Nicholas’s jaw dropped. He couldn’t believe what he was hearing. “What?” he said to Yurovsky. “What?”

Yurovsky repeated the statement and pulled a pistol from his pocket. He shot Nicholas at point-blank range. The tsar crumpled to the floor. The firing squad then opened fire. Each man had been assigned a target but, in the constrained space, and with plenty of vodka running through the shooters’ veins, a melee ensued.

The men shot poorly. Alexandra and her eldest daughter Olga each tried to make the sign of the cross but they did not have time. The tsarina took a bullet in the left side of her skull and died immediately. The doctor and two of the servants also died swiftly.

As the gun smoke cleared, groans from the blood-spattered floor testified to a bungled execution. It was the tsar’s children who suffered most horribly. They had not died quickly. Some of the executioners had been temporarily deafened by the gunfire and their clothing streaked with powder burns from where their comrades had shot over their shoulders.

Alexei, at least three of the daughters and the maid all remained alive. Their clothes stuffed with jewels had, apparently, acted like bulletproof vests. According to the scholar Robert Massie, “barely visible through the smoke, Marie and Anastasia pressed against the wall, squatting, covering their heads with their arms until bullets cut them down.”

Another scholar, Helen Rappaport, writing more recently, contends that the sisters were finished off with bayonets, Olga having been shot in the jaw, and Tatiana in the back of the head as she tried to escape. Last of the women to die, she says, was...
Anastasia, stabbed in the chest by a drunken guard before Yurovsky finished the job with his pistol. 13-year-old Alexei, it seems, was the last family member to die. Lying on the floor, says Massie, he raised his arm to shield himself before clutching at his father's shirt. “One of the executioners kicked the tsarevich in the head with his heavy boot,” Massie writes. “Alexei moaned. Yurovsky stepped up and fired two shots into the boy’s ear.”

What scholars do agree upon is that what was planned as a quick and clean execution played out as a grim slaughter. They also agree on the time frame. It took 20 minutes for the Bolsheviks to murder the royal family and toss their mangled bodies into a truck.

“Given all the evidence that has come to light,” writes the historian Orlando Figes, “it is inconceivable that any of the Romanovs survived this ordeal.” The only certain survivor, he says, was Alexei’s pet King Charles spaniel, Joy.

The official announcement appeared two days later on 19 July, an editorial in the newspaper of record, Izvestia, claiming that Nicholas had been executed and the family sent to a safe place. News of the murder, they believed, could incite public sympathy. The truth remained largely unknown until the publication in 1924 of a book by Nikolai Sokolov, which revealed much of the horror.

Even when evidence for the death of the entire family began to leak, legends sprung up that perhaps some had survived. The only certain survivor, he says, was Alexei’s pet King Charles spaniel, Joy.

The murder of the Romanovs has emerged as a story of huge significance in the history of the Russian Revolution, even though, at the time, news of the tsar’s death and rumours about the fate of his family elicited little response from the populace. Many historians, meanwhile, regarded the execution as little more than a footnote in a much larger story. After all, the revolution claimed millions of lives. Why should the death of this one family deserve particular attention?

The answer, says Figes, lies in the fact that these murders were “a declaration of the Terror. It was a statement that from now on individuals would count for nothing in the civil war.” He points to the words of the Red Army founder Leon Trotsky: “We must put an end once and for all to the papist-Quaker babble about the sanctity of human life.” Certainly, as the Russian Revolution unfolded, it showed little consideration for human life.

The Russian Revolution is, in fact, a collective name for two separate revolutions, the first coming in February 1917 and sparking the dismantling of the tsarist autocracy and the founding of a new Provisional Government. The second came in October of the same year when the Bolsheviks overthrew the Provisional Government and stirred a civil war against the anti-socialist White Army. Some scholars put the number of deaths in this conflict in the region of 12 million. The terror wrought by the Bolshevik state security service, the Cheka, meanwhile, accounted for thousands more.

It began with the February Revolution of 1917, which erupted upon the streets of the Russian capital city Petrograd (formerly Saint Petersburg), as food shortages took hold. On 22 February, thousands of metal and textile workers took to the streets. By 27 February, more than 200,000 workers went on strike, marching in the streets and hurling missiles at the police.

Nicholas

Age at Death: 50

The last tsar of Russia oversaw a disastrous war with Japan and the establishment of the duma. He took command of the army during 1915 and was asked to abdicate two years later.

Alexandra

Age at Death: 46

A pious and spiritual woman, Alexandra was a devoted mother. She fell under the influence of Rasputin and meddled in governmental policy during WWI.
As a youngster, Olga was devoted to her father but often quarreled with her mother. She was said to be a generous and charitable woman.

The youngest daughter was energetic though sometimes in poor health. She had a close relationship with Rasputin.

Tatiana was said to be practical with a knack for leadership, her sisters calling her the 'Governess'.

Alexei's haemophilia was severe and it was the tsarina's bid to help him that allowed Rasputin into the family fold.

Dr Botkin was said to have felt it his duty to follow the Romanovs into exile to help Alexei. He shared the Romanovs' 16 months of captivity.

Anna Demidova travelled with the tsarina as her maid when the family went into captivity. The executioners bayoneted her more than 30 times.

Trupp was born in modern-day Latvia and became a footman in the royal household. Serving as Nicholas's valet, he shared the family's captivity and died quickly.

Ivan Kharitonov was the cook at the royal court, he too shared the family's captivity and, like Trupp and Botkin, is thought to have died quickly during the executioners' initial salvo.

Posed for a family photograph, the Romanovs were slaughtered instead.
THE LAST SECRET

The final resting place of the Romanovs remained unconfirmed for more than 70 years

Talk of the Romanov murders was a taboo subject in the Soviet Union. Still, in 1976, movie producer Geli Ryabov and the ethnographer Alexander Avdonin set out to find the graves. They had spoken to Yakov Yurovsky's son, Alexander, who passed on an essay that his father had written on his execution of the family and the subsequent disposal of the bodies. They had also read the findings of Nicholas Sokolov, who was commissioned to investigate the Romanovs' fate in 1919, and a diary written by a local Bolshevik official, Pavel Bykov, published in 1926 under the title The Last Days Of Tsardom.

In May 1979, Ryabov and Avdonin found human bones in the Koptyakiforest, near the Isetsk factory, about 12 miles from Ekaterinburg. They removed three skulls. Fearing the consequences of their discovery, however, they kept their findings quiet and in the following year they re-interred the skulls. Ryabov eventually admitted their secret in 1989.

Two years later, with the support of Boris Yeltsin, a group of archaeologists began working on the site and nine bodies were exhumed. The archaeologist Dr. Koryakova had exhumed bodies from many sites but, she told the Sunday Times, she had never seen remains "so badly damaged, so violated." The executioners had used acid on the bodies to try and hide their identities.

There should have been 11 bodies, however, but only nine were found, and forensic investigations concluded that Alexei and Maria's bodies were missing. For a while, some argued that the missing female was Anastasia, fueling rumours of her survival. In July 2007, the final two bodies were discovered 70 metres away from the mass grave, and DNA testing concluded that they were indeed Alexei and Maria.

The Russian Orthodox Church never recognised the remains as those of the royal family, and when they were buried in Saint Petersburg's Peter and Paul Cathedral in 1998, the priest avoided speaking their names as he read the funeral rites. In September 2015, Russia's investigative committee reopened the murder case after the church demanded further testing of the remains. The reasons for the church's scepticism remain a perennial source of debate.

This torrent became a flood, and by the start of March, 170,000 soldiers were mingling with the insurgents and clamouring for change. The revolution was in full swing. The members of the duma, the elected legislature, then established a temporary government having already persuaded the army generals that the tsar must abdicate. He duly obliged. Two forces brought about his downfall: the mass mobilisation of the workers and soldiers, and the political machinations of a middle-class parliamentary opposition.

"The collapse of the autocracy," says historian Steve Smith, "was rooted in a crisis of modernisation." During the latter half of the 19th century, the Russian state worked tirelessly to keep up with the military and economic development of the western powers. "The government hoped that it could carry out modernisation while maintaining tight control over society," writes Smith. "Yet the effect of industrialisation, urbanisation, internal migration and the emergence of new social classes was to set in train forces that served to erode the foundations of the autocratic state."

This erosion was concentrated in the emergence of an industrial proletariat "snatched from the plough and hurled into the factory furnace," in Trotsky's famous words. Concentrated in large numbers for the first time, they emerged as a collective with considerable political clout.

As Smith points out, the workers' new urban lives offered them education and cultural diversity while also exposing them to the "subversive political ideas of Social Democrats and Socialist Revolutionaries. The wretched conditions in which workers lived, the drudgery of their work and their pitiful wages heightened their sense of
separateness not only from the government but from privileged society in general.”

In addition, a new social group had emerged during the 19th century, defined less by its socioeconomic position than by its attitude towards imperial power. This ‘intelligentsia’ filtered through different strata of Russian society as time went on, seeping into the new middle classes, and even the upper classes as the aristocrats became more commercially aware.

These social groups united to ignite the flames of revolution that burned during the 1905 uprising. This the tsar survived, having in the October Manifesto agreed to the formation of an elected legislature, the duma, and the concession of many civil rights. Though autocratic power was weakened, it was not necessarily doomed.

It took the outbreak of World War I to finally bring down the tsar. The first year of conflict proved disastrous for Russia, and in November 1915, Nicholas took command of the armed forces. This was a misguided decision. Hundreds of thousands died in the trenches. “Throughout his reign,” writes Orlando Figes, “Nicholas gave the impression of being unable to cope with the task of ruling a vast empire in the grips of a deepening revolutionary crisis.”

He certainly could not cope with commanding the armed forces, a task for which he was poorly qualified. Alexandra, meanwhile, interfered in governmental business on the home front while her relationship with her favourite, Rasputin, caused outrage among common folk and officials alike. Stories of sexual relations between the peasant and the tsarina, though unfounded, were rife. Nicholas, meanwhile, was forced to raise taxes to pay for the war. Foreign debt increased, as did inflation. When food shortages set in, the populace could take no more. The tsar’s days were numbered. Indeed, Figes points to a popular Russian joke that says the tsar himself should have been awarded the Order of the Red Banner for services to the revolution.

Once Nicholas abdicated and the Bolsheviks under Lenin took control of the country later in the year, they pledged to put ‘Bloody Nicholas’ on trial. Yet both he and his family were murdered. Was this because the Bolsheviks were worried that the White Army would take Ekaterinburg, liberate Nicholas and use him as a totem? As Figes notes, it is highly unlikely that the Whites would want such an unpopular and discredited figure as their ‘live banner’. Rather, he says, it was the idea of a trial that became problematic.

To put Nicholas in the dock, Figes says, was to presuppose the possibility of his innocence. “And in that case, the moral legitimacy of the revolution would itself be open to question. Nicholas had to die so that Soviet power could live.”

“Foreign debt increased, as did inflation. When food shortages set in, the populace could take no more”

With the fate of the Romanovs shrouded in mystery, a host of imposters emerged. The most notable claimed to be Anastasia.

**The Anastasia Imposters**

With the fate of the Romanovs shrouded in mystery, a host of imposters emerged. The most notable claimed to be Anastasia.

**Nadezhda Vasilyeva**

Vasilyeva appeared in Siberia in 1920 while travelling to China and was arrested by the authorities. She sent letters to the British King George V asking him to help her. In 1971, she died in an insane asylum in the city of Kazan, the head of the hospital claiming that “except for her claim that she was Anastasia, she was completely sane.”

**Eugenia Smith**

Though not as famous as Anderson, Smith wrote the Autobiography Of HIH Anastasia Nicholaevna Of Russia in 1963, in which she recounts in great detail her life in the Russian Imperial family up until their execution. She eventually distanced herself from the claim and is said to have refused a DNA test shortly before her death in 1997.

**Anna Anderson**

During the 1920s, Anna (a Pole called Franceska Schanzkowska) appeared in Germany claiming to be Anastasia. Her lack of Russian and rebuttals by Romanov relatives undermined her case but she received support from Rasputin’s daughter. The most famous of the imposters, her story inspired a 1956 film, Anastasia, starring Ingrid Bergman.
Gold is discovered in Cherokee land in Georgia, resulting in a gold rush. Pressure on the Georgia government to remove Indian rights to land begins to mount.

The Indian Removal Act is passed, which authorises the president to negotiate with Native American tribes for their relocation.

The Treaty of Dancing Rabbit Creek is signed. 11 million acres of the Choctaw Nation are ceded for 15 million acres in the Indian territory.

The Treaty of New Echota is signed. Despite not being approved by the Cherokee National Council, it becomes the basis for their forcible removal.

Did you know?
The Native American population halved within a few years of European colonisers arriving on their soil.

Timeline

1829
Gold is discovered in Cherokee land in Georgia, resulting in a gold rush. Pressure on the Georgia government to remove Indian rights to land begins to mount.

May 1830
The Indian Removal Act is passed, which authorises the president to negotiate with Native American tribes for their relocation.

September 1830
The Treaty of Dancing Rabbit Creek is signed. 11 million acres of the Choctaw Nation are ceded for 15 million acres in the Indian territory.

December 1835
The Treaty of New Echota is signed. Despite not being approved by the Cherokee National Council, it becomes the basis for their forcible removal.
What was it?
In the bitter cold winter of 1838, a Native American tribe called the Cherokee were forced off their homeland and made to walk 1,000 miles across the Deep South. Earlier that year, they had been rounded up and taken to concentration camps, while their homes were burned, their property plundered, and their farms put into a lottery to be won by white settlers. With the tribe now removed from their land, the US military was able to force them to march to a new location west of the Mississippi River. Many were scantily clothed and bare foot, and half of the party were children. An estimated 4,000 Cherokee out of 15,000 died on the march that was to become known as the Trail of Tears as a result of starvation, disease, exposure and exhaustion.

Why did it happen?
Prior to the 19th century, relations between white settlers and Native Americans had been relatively friendly. As it struggled to expand its empire, the US knew that it was important for political and trading reasons to have the Natives as their allies. But when relations with the UK and Spain settled, it was the tribes, not the ‘civilised’ foes, who were considered an obstacle to expansion. With rapid population growth, the discovery of gold and the expansion of slave-operated plantations in the Deep South, the demand for more land was greater than ever. In 1830, the Indian Removal Act was passed, which called for the voluntary relocation of tribes living east of the Mississippi River, but often resulted in forced removals. In 1835, the Treaty of New Echota was negotiated and signed by a small fraction of Cherokee tribal members, not the tribal leaders. Despite objecting to Washington, the tribe was forced to relocate, with disastrous outcomes. By 1837, 46,000 Native Americans had been removed from their homelands, 10,000 of which died before reaching their destination.

Who was involved?
Andrew Jackson
1767-1845
Elected president of the United States in 1829, Jackson signed and enforced the controversial Indian Removal Act.

John Ross
1790-1866
Ross was the principal chief of the Cherokee nation and campaigned fiercely against their removal. His wife died on the trail.

Winfield Scott
1786-1866
US Army general Scott was in charge of rounding up the Cherokee, who he then held in rat-infested stockades with little food.
How to capture a Medieval castle

From demolishing walls to starving out defenders, a siege in the Middle Ages required innovative tactics, stamina and determination

Written by Jack Griffiths
How to capture a Medieval castle

A selection of the largest, longest, and most destructive sieges from across the Middle Ages.

5 BLOODY MEDIEVAL SIEGES

Calatrava

La Tour de Nesle

Rochester

Château de Château

Jerusalem

Acte 1881

The siege of Jerusalem in 1099 was one of the longest and most destructive sieges in history. The city was surrounded for three months before the Crusaders were able to breach the walls and take the city.

Acre 1882

The siege of Acre in 1189 was another long and destructive siege. The Crusaders at Acre were eventually able to break through the city walls after a week of heavy bombardment.

Rouen 1883

The siege of Rouen in 1346 was a siege of a city that was eventually taken by the French. The Crusaders were able to breach the city walls after a three-week siege.

Paris 1884

The siege of Paris in 1418 was a siege of a city that was eventually taken by the French. The Crusaders were able to breach the city walls after a three-week siege.

Constantinople 1885

The siege of Constantinople in 1204 was a siege of a city that was eventually taken by the Crusaders. The Crusaders were able to breach the city walls after a three-week siege.

A selection of the largest, longest, and most destructive sieges from across the Middle Ages.

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A selection of the largest, longest, and most destructive sieges from across the Middle Ages.
Choose your weapons

With money to burn and a realm to conquer, barons would splash out on the biggest and best siege engines available.

For the best possible chance of victory during a siege in the Middle Ages, huge siege engines were financed to bring death and destruction upon a fortress and its inhabitants. These imposing machines, rumbling into view, could even frighten castles into submission before an arrow was fired. Different siege engines were useful against different types of castles, so commanders would purchase what they needed. Depending on the terrain and defences they were going to face. As castles were often built with sieges in mind, many were surrounded by moats and steep climbs. It was also important to take a range of siege engines to keep the attack varied and relentless. For example, siege towers could soak up arrows and keep the defenders at bay while trebuchets and battering rams did damage to other parts of the stronghold. To ensure their machines would last and be as effective as possible, barons would source the best builders and tools to create their wooden army.

Three storeys high
The largest of the towers would have three levels of attack. While the top section peered over the walls, the middle housed more troops who could fire out at will and also had a ladder to reinforce the top level.

Ladder help
Siege towers were very expensive and labour intensive to make, so their use on the battlefield could be limited. Ladders were used to supplement towers, but as they had no protection, only the bravest soldiers would dare climb up them.

Firing platform
Archers and men-at-arms would hitch a ride on the siege tower and storm over the walls. The towers were often covered in non-flammable material such as animal hides to protect from fire.

Drawbridge
Protecting the soldiers until they were right at the gates, the drawbridge would be flung up and the infantry would pour out. One snag was the narrowness of the drawbridge, which would often only let soldiers out in single file.

Dimensions
At eight metres (26 feet) high, siege towers were tall enough to rise over most castle defences. In response, many fortifications dredged moats or were constructed on the top of a hill to nullify their effectiveness.

Battering ram
As well being effective weapons on their own, battering rams could be housed within a siege tower. Now covered and part of a larger mechanism, the ram would bring down gates and walls while troops attacked the top of the battlements.

Ammunition
Using the counterweight to great effect, huge 90-kilogram (200-pound) rocks battered down stone walls and knocked defenders off battlements. Diseased animals and even dead human bodies were also chucked into the castle courtyard in an attempt to infect inhabitants.

SIEGE TOWER
These towering structures were deadly in the Medieval era.
TREBUCHET

Prior to the age of cannon, these were the most forbidding siege engines of the Medieval era.

Diversion tactic
The relentless barrage from a team of trebuchets could keep castle defenders constantly pinned down. This enabled other siege engines and methods of attack to be more effective while the defenders dealt with the trebuchet threat.

Dimensions
At up to 18 metres (59 feet) long, the trebuchet was a menace of Medieval siege warfare. With a range of about 200 metres (650 feet), it could be constructed far out of range of fortifications.

Firing system
The huge arm gave the trebuchet an excellent range in which to launch its projectiles. On average, the beam would be about 8-12 metres (26-40 feet) long and the arm turned on an axle that was joined to the machine’s structure.

Counterweight
The use of a weighted system rather than tension gave the trebuchet an advantage over a mangonel. By using weights, it could launch larger loads at a quicker rate. The technology was some of the most sophisticated of the Medieval era.

Drawing the defenders out
As it was often out of range of a castle’s archers, trebuchets could entice the defenders into raising the portcullis and coming out to battle, away from the safety of the battlements.

Triggers and levers
The efficiency and reliability of a trebuchet was demonstrated by its trigger. When the system was activated, it let go of the counterweight, launching the arm into attack mode.

BATTERING RAMS & CATAPULTS

Better known as a mangonel, the catapult was an update of the Roman onager, which used torsion technology to fling projectiles. Perhaps the most primitive of all siege weapons, the battering ram was also very effective. Used to pound down walls, the wooden stake was often steel capped and could be part of a larger mechanism.

Stakes
Despite its imposing figure, a trebuchet could be quite brittle. Stakes were hammered into the ground to prevent it falling or lifting when fired. It would have to be well protected as one direct hit could break the whole mechanism.
Launch the attack

When negotiations failed and intimidation proved futile, siege was the only option.

Getting a siege under way wasn’t just a matter of loading up the engines and firing the first projectile. Depending on the forces available and the layout of the castle, each attack would begin differently. Most of the time, though, attackers would first attempt psychological warfare by launching severed heads into the castle. Then, the first target would be a weak point of the wall. In response, defenders barricaded their weakest points and increased attacks on the most potent siege engines. The key to a successful siege was continuous attack, as a break in hostilities would give defenders time to repair damage.

Also essential was stopping supplies reaching the castle, preventing the arrival of weapons and resources. If the breakthrough still didn’t come, aggressors would spread out their attacks. Castles were often undermanned, so attacking from all angles could overwhelm them. If this still didn’t work, it was time to get creative. Mining was a common way of getting in to a castle while staying out of the line of fire. Sieges could take months or even years, but attackers could often wait it out for longer than defenders. If the castle supply lines were cut off, it was only a matter of time before malnutrition and then starvation set in.

Reinforcements
A long siege required more than the initial raiding party. Reinforcements were a necessity for a long drawn-out siege when fatigue and body counts could become too much for an attacking force to handle.

Unsung heroes
Sieges were just as much about constructors as they were soldiers. Siege engines would often need repairing or rebuilding, and without these men, a siege could easily grind to a halt.

What have the Romans ever done for us?
Both battering rams and siege towers were first used in the ancient era but had been substantially improved on by the Middle Ages. Towers were now bigger and better and could scale higher walls while rams had stronger steel caps for more penetration.

Infantry defence
With the amount of missiles raining down from the parapets, a standard shield wouldn’t hack it for an advancing soldier. Instead, reinforced wooden defences would be set up to protect the whole body from projectiles.
**Key defensive areas**
The biggest and strongest turrets were placed in the areas most likely to be attacked. Designed to be higher than the tallest siege tower, they would be manned by archers and reinforced with extra stone.

**Drawbridge**
The only crossing point of the moat was the drawbridge. Closed at times of siege, it would be further protected by a metal portcullis and murder holes above it where defenders threw projectiles at advancing enemies.

**Earth defences**
A moat was a common feature of many castles. A simple dredged channel, it was effective in preventing battering rams and siege towers getting close to the battlements. Soldiers who tried to cross it were sitting ducks for archers.

**The next era**
Cannon was the weapon that brought the end of the Medieval castle. Able to blast through stone with ease, it swung sieges into the favour of the attackers.

**HOW TO DEFEND A CASTLE**
When the attackers were on your doorstep, these measures could get you out of trouble.

**Look for spies**
Prior to a siege, spies were often sent out to report on a castle's frailties. To prevent a Trojan horse-like attack, castle rulers would keep close tabs on who and what was entering and leaving their gates.

**Ripples in the water**
Underground, some of the most vicious fighting of the entire siege was fought in tunnels. If defenders lost here, their perimeter would be compromised, so guards would place a pot of water near the walls that rippled when miners were below.

**Specialised battlements**
Castle walls, built with attack in mind, were littered with anti-siege measures. Arrow loops gave archers a good shot at attackers while towers and gatehouses were constructed as troop garrisons. A barbican passage at the entrance would act as a death trap to oncoming foes.

**Retreat to the keep**
When the outer walls were breached, a strong keep was essential. The centrepiece of a castle, if the keep was surrounded, the only chance would be to hold on until help arrived and hope the food didn’t run out.

**Allied assistance**
If an assaulting force was preoccupied with a siege, it would be vulnerable to attack from the rear. Any distraction would relieve the pressure and allow a counter-attack to vanquish the enemy once and for all.
How to capture a Medieval castle

WHAT TO DO WITH THE ENEMY

After defeat, what was left of the defenders had to be dealt with

Take prisoners

The defenders would eject women and children out of the keep. This cruel tactic gave the attackers prisoners to be used as a bargaining tool for surrender, but now only the best fighters remained with a much larger food supply.

Total annihilation

A popular method of ending a siege was killing all that stood in the way. Sometimes the nobility were held for ransom but, like at the siege of Bedford Castle in 1224, everyone could be killed as a warning to others.

New tenants

If the castle was in a strategic location or was an influential power base, the invading army would take it. It would act as an outpost on the frontier of a land and the former defenders would be exiled or enslaved.

It’s a trap!

Defenders of a castle would implement all types of booby traps. These would be left for the new occupants to find for themselves, and sometimes it was done the hard way. Using a captured prisoner would be a good tactic.

Raze to the ground

The advent of cannon made castles much easier to demolish. For many castles, the English Civil War was the last hurrah but they still proved valuable, such as when Stirling Castle held out against the Jacobites a century later.
Take the castle

With the outer walls down, it was time to storm the courtyards and break into the keep.

When the walls were overrun and bodies lay strewn around the bailey, the keep, the centrepiece of the castle defences, was the only thing standing in the way of victory. Some keeps were merely the central building, but many had defences of their own. They could contain arrow loops and crenellations to help with the last-ditch defence of the castle. As the attacking soldiers gathered in the bailey, they would be vulnerable to arrow fire. Only plate armour could stand against the power of a crossbow bolt, so soldiers with chain mail would be in danger until the keep was breached. The keep would also contain the castle’s stores, so in the event of a siege, the population were best placed to try to hold out for as long as possible.

With the keep the only structure now occupied by the defenders, the attackers could benefit from controlling the other buildings in the castle. The armoury could be pillaged for extra weapons and tools, and after the siege ended, stores could be raided and horses taken from stables to bolster the army for the next assault. The defence of the keep was always a last resort and usually meant victory for the aggressors.

Once the castle was taken, it was up to the attackers to decide the fate of the castle ruler: this depended on how merciless they were. When the enemies had all been dealt with, there was a choice to be made: rule the castle and make it the centre of a new occupied kingdom, or raze it to the ground and let the ruin stand as an example of what happens when a castle puts up resistance. Either way, the next siege is most likely not too far away. Pack up your trebuchets!
Winston Churchill

Was Winston Churchill a Great Briton who saved a nation or a narcissist whose policies echoed those of Hitler himself?

Written by Catherine Curzon

Sir Winston Churchill occupies a unique position in the history of Great Britain and his place in the pantheon of fame is assured. Soldier, author, artist, and the statesman who steered a beleaguered country to victory in World War II, his name has become a byword for dedication, defiance and unbending patriotism. But was he really the hero who saved Britain from the Nazi regime, or was he a villain who harboured ideals that Adolf Hitler himself would have been proud to put his name to?

Churchill was born in Blenheim Palace on 30 November 1874 to a family of rich aristocratic lineage. His childhood was one of privilege, and although he did not shine academically, when he joined the army, he truly found his calling. Churchill saw the world as a soldier, supplementing his income by journalism and writing. However, even as he advanced steadily through the ranks of the army, Churchill was planning his next move, and it would take him away from the army and into a new battleground: the House of Commons.

In 1900, Churchill took his seat as Conservative member of parliament for Oldham, yet he wasn’t quite settled, and within four years he had crossed the floor to the Liberal Party. As he had impressed in the military, so too did he advance swiftly in government, climbing the ranks seemingly effortlessly. There are few careers that can turn sour more quickly than those of a politician, though, and Churchill suffered a jarring setback when he presided over the catastrophic Gallipoli campaign, a disaster that resulted in his resignation from office and a return to the military career that had served him so well.

When Churchill returned to cabinet as chancellor of the exchequer in 1924, he was once again a Conservative. His own finest hour was yet to come, and as Adolf Hitler rose to power in Germany, the seeds of his reputation were already being sown. He
Churchill was voted The Greatest Briton of Them All in 2002 by more than 1 million BBC viewers.
Hero or Villain?
WINSTON CHURCHILL

fiercely opposed appeasement and believed that, far from “peace in our time,” Neville Chamberlain’s efforts could only end in disaster.

As history has since proved, he was absolutely right, and when Chamberlain resigned, it was Churchill who assumed the office of prime minister. He is familiar now as the immovable, cigar-chomping statesman, a leader who defiantly stated “we shall never surrender,” and never did, who battled with the “black dog” of his depression to the end and shouldered the burden of a nation, but there were two sides to this complex figure, a darkness that belies his colossal reputation.

In the raging fires of the war that claimed more than 60 million lives, it is not hard to see how Churchill’s heroic reputation was forged. A master orator, he gave the nation the figurehead it needed; unbending as granite, strong as steel and possessed of a self-assurance that could lurch all too easily into arrogance. When he became prime minister, there were few outside of his own party who cheered him into the job.

Churchill’s status as a national hero rests, of course, on his masterful leadership of the nation during wartime. Historian Max Hastings left little room for doubt when he stated: “The plain fact is that, in his absence, Britain would have made terms with Hitler.” This claim is difficult to deny. Behind the scenes, the government seriously considered appeasement, convinced that Britain’s forces were no match for those of Germany. Yet Churchill would not hear of it. He was, as Isaiah Berlin stated, a man who believed in “the battle between simple good and simple evil,” and when Churchill addressed the cabinet, who were faced with the unthinkable task of committing a nation to war, his take on the situation boiled down to one simple thing: the country must at least try to fight.

Yet this single-minded, unshakeable conviction in his own opinion was not always a good thing. Just as he spoke freely on the matter of defending Britain, so too was he vocal on issues that to our eyes are indefensible. His belief that indigenous American and Australian people were displaced by “a stronger race, a higher-grade race, a more worldly wise race,” leaves the modern reader with a queasy sense that this should not be how a hero sees the world. Yet we cannot read statements such as these in a vacuum: Churchill was a Victorian, a soldier in the heart of the British Empire, and these opinions echoed those of his contemporaries and the world in which he was forged.

Surely one of the darkest moments in Churchill’s administration occurred with his handling of the Bengal famine in 1943. Millions died, and as the people begged for wheat to feed those who were starving, Churchill continued to export rice out of India even as Allied ships laden with grain sailed on by. Leo Amery, secretary of state for India, wrote that “on the subject of India, Winston is not quite sane,” and today historians continue to disagree on Churchill’s part in the famine. Some argue that he was focused on the broader canvas and the world war in which he was engaged, and that once he became aware of the extent of the catastrophe, he did take action to alleviate it. Others point out Amery’s recollection of Churchill’s anti-Indian diatribes in which he blamed the people for their own famine as “they breed like rabbits,” and the fact that he ignored reports of the famine as long as he possibly could, choosing simply to do nothing.

“The plain fact is that, in his absence, Britain would have made terms with Hitler”
Ironically for a man whose reputation rests on his resistance to the Nazi threat, Amery commented in 1944 that he “couldn’t help telling him that I didn’t see much difference between his outlook and Hitler’s, which annoyed him no little.” Although Amery was speaking of the famine, more than three decades earlier, there were other elements of Churchill’s beliefs that would later be echoed by those of Hitler.

An enthusiastic champion of eugenics, as early as 1910 Churchill informed Herbert Asquith that “the multiplication of thefeeble-minded is a very terrible danger to the race.” In 1911, he addressed the House of Commons and announced plans to introduce compulsory labour camps for those judged as “mental defectives,” while those considered as such and convicted of a crime would be transported to labour colonies. It was a political hot topic, and in 1912, Churchill was once again publicly discussing eugenics at a major conference in London, in the company of some illustrious colleagues.

Although he had no objection to labour camps, Churchill’s favoured approach was to sterilise rather than confine those who were considered “feeble minded” and had not been convicted of any crime. It was cheaper, for a start, and he considered the protection of the bloodline as paramount, but when the Mental Deficiency Act went through Parliament in 1913, it advocated only confinement, with no quarter given to sterilisation.

Again, such a policy is abhorrent to our 21st-century sensibilities, yet the Mental Deficiency Act was passed by the overwhelming majority of MPs and remained on the statute books for more than 40 years. By the time the 1945 General Election rolled around, the war was over and the people of Britain were hungry for social reform. Despite Churchill remaining personally popular with the public and retaining leadership of his party, the Conservatives were voted out of power. Churchill returned to Downing Street in 1951, but ill health blighted his final term, and in 1955, following a series of strokes, he resigned.

It is a fallacy to say that Churchill won the war - no man could have - yet when Chamberlain urged a softly-softly approach, he spoke up loudly about the Nazi threat, and when the country went to war, Churchill was the leader that the people of Great Britain could believe in and rally around.

He remains the hero of a nation, the man who spoke stirringly of its “finest hour,” who said he would “never yield to the apparently overwhelming might of the enemy,” and who continues to serve as the symbol of wartime Britain. Yet like all iconic figures, he is undoubtedly painted from shades of grey. Forged in the cultural melting pot and politically charged fires of the British Empire, Churchill was a product of a bygone Victorian age and his personality held up a mirror to his formative years.

Winston Churchill will likely forever enjoy a reputation as a Great Briton and deservedly so. He was indeed the man of the hour, but when that hour ended, shadows still remained.

Was Winston Churchill a hero or a villain?
Let us know what you think

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Through History

UNDERWEAR

From loincloths and corsets to codpieces and chastity belts, take a peek at the fashions that have graced our nether regions over the centuries.

HOOP SKIRT 16TH CENTURY
Much like corsets, the popularity of hoop skirts is one that somehow endured centuries despite their uncomfortable and restrictive nature. With different styles and sizes available, the desire for hoop skirts waned towards the end of the 18th century, yet they experienced something of a renaissance in the mid-19th century. The first of these skirt cages was the voluptuous farthingale. Later, the pannier style took off – it exaggerated the wearer’s hips, creating a saddlebag look. Thankfully, these cumbersome garments eventually underwent a dramatic overhaul, with the crinoline skirts of the mid-19th century mass produced and made of hard-wearing steel.

THONG UNKNOWN
Mentioning it may bring to mind modern women’s underwear, but the thong actually has a history steeped in masculinity. Like the loincloth, it was an early form of underwear, but it had a few perks that its hanging counterpart couldn’t provide. With a stretch of material to hold the genitals in place, it supported and protected active men. Sumo wrestlers wear a variant of the thong, known as the mawashi, and the thong’s supportive capabilities inspired the creation of the jockstrap.

DRAWERS 1840s
Along with Christmas trees and white weddings, Queen Victoria is thought to have inspired her nation to wear undergarments as a matter of norm. Variants on drawers had existed for centuries before, but it was only during Victoria’s reign that they became an essential to every social class. Drawers often reached below the knees for both male and female wearers, and most people wore open drawers that featured a large opening in the crotch area, which facilitated bathroom-going and apparently kept the nether regions fresh and well ventilated.

CODPIECE 14TH CENTURY
The common codpiece has celebrated a long and illustrious history in the fashions of underwear, with nobles such as King Henry VIII himself among the ranks of wearers. Initially invented to cover the modesty of men in their open drawers, the codpiece experienced a surge in popularity thanks to its most famous patron. As codpieces evolved to emphasise the shape of men’s genitals, King Henry VIII began the popular trend of stuffing it for a more well-endowed appearance. Little did many of his contemporaries realise that this trendsetter was attempting to calm the sores caused by syphilis with cool, wet cloths.

LOINCLOTH 1330 BCE
The most rudimentary form of underwear – and probably the most comfortable from this list – the loincloth harks back millennia to the time of the Ancient Egyptians. Upon excavating his tomb, it was discovered that among many other treasures, Tutankhamun was buried with 145 loincloths – presumably to see him through his afterlife. King Tut wasn’t the only one to cover his modesty – the Romans were also renowned for their loincloths. The loincloth could be worn as outer or underwear, mainly depending on the climate, but it’s known that Ancient Egyptians wore theirs underneath kilt-like dress.
Both men and women embraced the chemise, a thin shirt that was worn underneath other clothing. Purely practical in purpose— and with its own modern-day deviations still commonly worn—the chemise absorbed the skin’s sweat and body oils, protecting the finer clothes that covered it. Men tended to wear theirs underneath their robes and women often wore corsets and petticoats over theirs.

Corsets may have been horrifically uncomfortable, but it took centuries for them to fall out of fashion.

Both men and women wore a chemise, though women’s were usually worn underneath the corset.

While female chastity belts prevented infidelity and rape, male chastity belts intended to discourage masturbation, which many physicians claimed caused insanity.

The first ever brassiere was patented in 1914 by a young American, Mary Phelps Jacob, which formed the foundation of modern-day bras. As the story goes, Phelps Jacob stitched together two handkerchiefs and a ribbon to form her chest support, much to the envy of her corset-wearing friends.

Before elastic was used in underwear, stockings were held up with garters, usually below the knee.

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While female chastity belts prevented infidelity and rape, male chastity belts intended to discourage masturbation, which many physicians claimed caused insanity.

Not underwear in the strictest sense, but who can resist the charms of a chastity belt? While it was first referred to in the early 15th century, the chastity belt may have been around for considerably longer than history lets on. Cast in metal, chastity belts protected the virtues of its wearer—usually female—from the perils of temptation and adultery. It’s said that during the Crusades, wives would wear the belts to safeguard them until their husbands’ return. Chastity belts really took off in the Victorian era, when physicians deemed masturbation to be the cause of insanity, and it was—and still is—possible to get hold of belts for both men and women.

Synonymous now with traditional weddings, garters historically served a very practical purpose for women of the 1930s. Before the use of elastic in women’s undergarments, garters were used to hold up stockings. They were usually affixed at the narrowest part of the leg to ensure that the stockings didn’t slip, but they also provided women with a handy way to carry small necessities, such as purses, valuables and hip flasks. The suspender, or garter belt, later caught on, particularly as skirts became shorter and more revealing.

Now known as a teddy, the history of this sultry one-piece dates back to the 1920s, when fashion got friskier and hems got higher. Not only did the camiknicker accommodate for the shorter dresses of the flapper era, it also provided a seamless fit, which meant unsightly underwear creases couldn’t be seen through dresses. The camiknicker was so versatile, in fact, that women wore it during World War II as they took on working roles while the men were at war.

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Cyrus the Great was the founder of one of the most impressive regimes of the ancient world, the Persian Empire, which lasted for two centuries (550-330 BCE) until it was destroyed by Alexander the Great. Despite its significance, undisputed facts about Cyrus's conquests are thin on the ground. Scholars tease what they can from legend, from scattered cuneiform tablets, from brief, one-sided accounts in the Biblical Old Testament, and from Cyrus's own statement justifying his conquests.

Before Cyrus's time, Turkey and the rest of the Middle East was divided between three empires: Lydia in western Turkey; Media, which spread across to today's Central Asia; and Babylonia, spanning Iraq, Iran and the Mediterranean coast. The ancient Assyrian empire had recently been divided between the Medes and the Babylonians. Away to the east and north, in the unknown heart of Asia, were the Scythians (also known as Saka), nomadic horsemen who lived in a shadowy world beyond the horizons of civilisation.

Cyrus's homeland, Persia, had been founded by his ancestor Achaemenes when his tribe emerged from inner Asia two centuries earlier. Cyrus, the seventh king of the Achaemenid Dynasty, was born either in about 600 or 575 BCE - a 25-year difference that points to the unreliability of the available sources. When Cyrus was a child, Persia was an unremarkable dependency of the closely related Medes.

Herodotus, Greece's great historian and traveller, writing 100 years later, told of Cyrus's rise. His grandfather, Astyages, king of the Medes, dreamt of a vine growing out of his genitals. Priests told him its meaning - that a descendant would overthrow him. His daughter, Mandane, was pregnant. So the king told a noble to kill the child. The noble delegated the task to a humble shepherd, who disobeyed, and raised the child as his own. The truth came out when the boy played the king so convincingly that he came to Astyages' attention. Astyages recognised his grandson, who was, of course, Cyrus.
The Cyrus Cylinder, only ten inches long, is a major source for the king’s achievements, though an unreliable one. For one thing, it is damaged, and the text is incomplete. For another, it is in effect propaganda justifying Cyrus’s conquests and rule. The Babylonian king, Nabonidus, is denigrated and Cyrus is praised as the protector of Babylonian interests. The cuneiform text, here selected from the British Museum translation, reads in part:

“Rites inappropriate to [the cult-cities] were daily gabbled, and as an insult, he (Nabonidus) brought the daily offerings to a halt. In his mind, reverential fear of Marduk, king of the gods, came to an end. He did more evil to his city every day, and to his people. Enlil-of-the-gods became extremely angry at their complaints. The gods left their shrines, angry that he had made them enter into Babylon. Enlil-of-the-gods inspected and checked all the countries, seeking for the upright king of his choice. He took the hand of Cyrus, and called him by name, proclaiming him aloud for the kingship over all of everything. Marduk, the great lord, who nurtures his people, saw with pleasure his fine deeds and true heart, and ordered that he should go to Babylon. He had him enter without fighting or battle. He handed over to him Nabonidus, the king who did not fear him. All the people, nobles and governors bowed down before him and kissed his feet, rejoicing over his kingship, and their faces shone. I am Cyrus, king of the universe, the great king, the powerful king, king of Babylon, king of Sumer and Akkad, king of the four quarters of the world.”

The Cyrus Cylinder was found broken into several fragments and is now housed at the British Museum.
The boy spent his childhood with Astyages, being trained and educated. According to the Greek historian and diarist Xenophon, he was a boy of rare intelligence and charm: “[He] was something too much of a talker, in part, may be, because of his bringing-up. He had been trained by his master, whenever he sat in judgment, to give a reason for what he did, and to look for the like reason from others. And moreover, his curiosity and thirst for knowledge were such that he must needs inquire from every one he met the explanation of this, that, and the other… talkativeness had become, as it were, his second nature. But… the impression left on the listener was not of arrogance, but of simplicity and warmheartedness… However, as he grew in stature and the years led him to the time when childhood passes into youth he became more chary of his words… but his company was still most fascinating, and little wonder: for whenever it came to a trial of skill between himself and his comrades he would never challenge his mates to those feats in which he himself excelled: he would start precisely one where he felt his own inferiority… and then, when he was worsted, he would be the first to laugh at his own discomfiture.”

Eventually, as a young man, Cyrus returned to his father’s court in Persia, where he acceded to the throne in about 559 BCE. Herodotus picked up the story. To prevent his dream coming true, Astyages invaded Persia. But Cyrus defeated him, and in about 550 BCE, took Media. In revenge, Astyages summoned the son of the disobedient noble and had him chopped, roasted and boiled, and then tricked the noble into eating the boy.

Next in line was Lydia, which fell a few years later. No details are recorded, though Herodotus has a story to fill the gap. The Lydian king was Croesus, of legendary wealth. Croesus consulted the great oracle at Delphi and was told that if he attacked the Persians he would destroy “a great empire.” He attacked, and Cyrus, strengthened by Median troops, drove Croesus back inside his capital, Sardis. Persian troops then scaled a supposedly unscaleable wall, and the city fell. The great empire that Croesus destroyed was his own.

In 540 BCE, Cyrus turned on his next target, Babylon. Famous as the capital of a great empire for more than 1,000 years, Babylon had fallen on hard times until its fortunes revived under Nebuchadnezzar in the early 500s BCE, during which he sacked Jerusalem (587-586 BCE) and captured numerous Jews, an event vividly recorded in the Bible. By Cyrus’s time, though, Babylon had become a soft target because its king, Nabonidus, had been absent for ten years (553 BCE - 543 BCE), leaving the city in the hands of his son, Belshazzar. His unexplained absence - perhaps trying to extend trade routes in Arabia - seems to have made him unpopular. Or perhaps he was unpopular because on his return he had all the images of Babylonian gods brought from their sanctuaries into the capital for safekeeping. Whatever the reason, it gave Cyrus a chance to present himself as the protector of Babylonian religion.

In autumn 539 BCE - one of the few firm dates in the history of the time - Cyrus invaded Babylonia, won a battle at Opis, to the north of the capital, and then entered Babylon, seemingly without further resistance. According to Herodotus, the Persians did this by diverting the Euphrates, lowering the water-level until they could march across the riverbed. Nabonidus was captured, and vanished from history, his fate unknown.

Cyrus recorded his conquest in the clay document known as the Cyrus Cylinder, a blatant piece of PR designed to justify his conquests. It claims that Nabonidus had been unstable and impious, and that the great god Enlil had chosen Cyrus as his instrument to bring peace by restoring the shrines, allowing refugees to return and rebuilding the capital. The cylinder declares: “I returned the images of the gods, who had resided there, to their places and I let them dwell in eternal abodes. I gathered all their inhabitants and returned to them their dwellings.” As a result, “all nobles and governors bowed down before him (Cyrus) and kissed his feet, and their faces shone.”

His generosity did not apply only to the local religions. The Jews, too, were allowed to return from their captivity to Israel. Possibly (as the Bible says), Cyrus actually funded the rebuilding of the temple in Jerusalem. In fact, the rebuilding occurred under Cyrus’s grandson, Darius, but Cyrus’s role became accepted as a fact. The first-century Jewish historian Josephus claimed to quote a letter from Cyrus: “I have given leave to as many of the Jews that dwell in my country as please to return to their own country, and to rebuild their city, and to build the temple of God at Jerusalem on the same place where it was before;” (though Josephus was writing 500 years later, and presents no evidence for this).

In any event, the Jews developed huge admiration for Cyrus. The prophet Isaiah called Cyrus God’s ‘anointed’ - in effect the Messiah - and prophesied God-given victories over all nations. Another prophet, Ezra, has Cyrus saying that God “hath given me all the kingdoms of the Earth.”

After Babylon, where now? To the north and east lay another world to conquer, the land of the nomadic horsemen, the Scythians. Having appointed governors and officials to rule the different provinces and peoples of his empire, Cyrus probably died fighting the Scythians in 530 BCE. Again, we have no firm records, just stories, the best of which is told by Herodotus. One of the Scythian tribes was called Massagetae, known for drinking fermented mares’
Cyrus the Great

milk and for the outlandish equality of the sexes. Armoured in helmets and war belts, they fought on horseback with battle axes and bows, men and women alike. At the time, they were ruled by a queen named Tomyris.

Nomadic horse-archers were almost impossible to defeat, because they vanished like mist across the steppe. So (in Herodotus's tale) Cyrus resorted to trickery. He set out a banquet with much wine, which was unfamiliar to the milk-drinking nomads. The Persians withdrew, the nomads advanced, found the banquet, ate, drank and fell into a stupor. The Persians returned, killed most of them and took Tomyris's son prisoner. When he awoke, he committed suicide. Tomyris swore to get her revenge: “Leave my land now... or I will give you more blood than you can drink.” In the next battle, the nomads destroyed the Persians and killed Cyrus. Tomyris found the king’s corpse, filled a skin container with blood, cut off his head and thrust it into the blood with these words: “Although I am alive and gained victory over you in battle, you have destroyed me because you took my son by trickery. Now I shall do just as I threatened, and give you your fill of blood.”

It is a vivid tale, but its truth for Herodotus was probably less in the details than the moral: great leaders should not resort to trickery.

Cyrus had ruled for some 30 years, and created an empire more than 2,500 kilometres across, the largest in the world to date, reaching from the Black Sea to present-day Afghanistan. His son, Cambyses and another descendant, Darius, extended the empire into Egypt, the Libyan and India. It was not to last. In the 330s BCE, Alexander the Great defeated the Persians, and the Achaemenids came to an ignominious end.

However, Cyrus's creation sent echoes down the corridors of time. Scholars agree that his success as an imperial ruler owed much to his form of government, balancing central administration with local freedom. His system was retained by subsequent dynasties, and served for more than 1,000 years until the Arab conquest of Persia in the seventh century.

The Cyrus Cylinder even proclaims such a modern-sounding commitment to religious freedom and justice that, in the 1970s, the Shah of Iran called it “the first human rights charter in history.” More likely, according to others, it resembles modernity in a different form, as a puffed-up piece of propaganda. But Iran still sees it as a foundation stone of national identity.

The memory of Cyrus lives on at his supposed burial site near Shiraz, in southern Iran. The tomb, standing on a rock plinth, is close to the ruins of Pasargadae, Cyrus’s capital until his son Cambyses changed it to Susa. There is no hard evidence that it is his tomb, but if it is - and the same as the one honoured two centuries after his burial by Alexander - it bore a long-gone inscription, which ran in one version: “Passer-by, I am Cyrus, who gave the Persians an empire, and was king of Asia. Grudge me not therefore this monument.”
Cyrus the Great

The Birthplace of Persia
The Persians were originally nomadic pastoral people in the western Iranian plateau. By 850 BCE, they were calling themselves the Parsa and had begun to develop infrastructure to support their growing influence. Pasargadae was the capital of the Achaemenid Empire under Cyrus the Great.

Expanding Its Borders
The walls of Babylon had been considered impenetrable, but Cyrus devised a plan to take it via water. The city fell in 539 BCE, and the Neo-Babylonian Empire became part of Cyrus’s kingdom.

Diversity
The history of the Persian Empire is full of cultural exchanges. They assimilated peoples’ traditions from Egypt to below the Caspian sea and the Persian Gulf. The incorporation of tradition was one of its constant characteristics.

Pottery
Pottery was one of the first artistic expressions of the ancient empire. Later on, goldsmithing and silversmithing became more important.

Religion
Persian people were tolerant of other regions’ religions. Their official religion was Mazdaism. With the Muslim conquest, Islam became the official and state religion.

The Persian Immortals
Of all the terrors that the Persian army brought, the most feared were the “Immortals”, an elite bunch of fighters who were nicknamed thus due to their apparent inability to die in combat. When one of its 10,000 infantry fell, they were immediately replaced, maintaining the corps as a cohesive entity with a constant strength.

The Immortals were armed with a short spear that was tipped with silver or gold counterbalances to differentiate their rank. The shortness of the spear gave mobility at the cost of reach. They also carried a short bow and arrow quiver. This granted them the flexibility to alter their combat range quickly, switching deftly from hand-to-hand to ranged combat in the blink of an eye.

The Immortals played an important role in Cambyses II’s conquest of Egypt in 525 BCE and Darius I’s invasion of India’s smaller western frontier kingdoms (western Punjab and Sindhi, now in Pakistan) and Scythia in 512 BCE and 511 BCE. Immortals participated in the Battle of Thermopylae of 480 BCE against the Spartans and were among the Persian occupation troops in Greece in 479 BCE under Mardonius.
**WHERE TO STAY**

Arriving in the trenches, one thing goes without saying: for the best chance of making it out alive, avoid going 'over the top'.

Despite the incredibly basic conditions here, constant gunfire and shells to and from the other side of the battlefield, and the threat of no man's land just over the walls, almost nine out of every ten soldiers posted to the trenches will survive. However, millions will die on Europe's Western Front, and there will be particularly immense losses on violent days such as the beginning of the Battle of the Somme. However, if you are lucky enough to avoid these life-threatening situations, you could just make it back to Blighty in one piece.

**Dos & Don'ts**

- **Pull your weight.** Even rest time is occupied with maintenance duties, as labour is in short supply at the front. Shirking these duties will lead to punishment.
- **Prepare for the worst.** If the call comes to go over the top, you must be psychologically and physically ready. Ensure your fitness is at a high level and your weapons are in full working order.
- **Brush up on card games.** Although downtime is in short supply, card games are a popular way to pass the time. Gambling games like 'Crown and Anchor', though officially banned, are played often.
- **Hold on to that debris.** 'Trench art' is an unusual phenomenon that helps occupy soldiers and gives a creative outlet. Pick up that shell case and turn it into a vase or tobacco jar.
- **Take off your helmet.** If you are lucky enough to have a steel helmet, keep it on at all times to lessen the impact of shrapnel and other things falling from above into the trench.
- **Get nibbled by rats.** Rats are rife in the trenches, and any food left unattended will be snatched. While shooting rats is prohibited (it wastes ammunition), you can use a bayonet if you're fast enough.
- **Neglect your weapons.** Part of the daily chores in the trench, rifles need to be cleaned using 'pull-throughs' – a device that is used like a pipe-cleaner, made of cord and weighted on one end.
- **Forget to write home.** Write to your loved ones as often as you can; their replies will only take two days to reach you. You could also receive parcels, with food and provisions.
**WHO TO BEFRIEND**

**Senior officer**
Although you are unlikely to see them due to the sheer size of the army you are now part of, a senior officer is the person to impress if you happen to come across one. Although many of the war’s most senior figures, such as General Sir Douglas Haig and Major General Richard Hutton Davies, will be seen as incompetent in the years after the war, they are some of the very few men with military experience. Most in the trenches are inexperienced volunteers, so the advice and good favour of senior officers will help you navigate the threats you face here.

Extra tip: As well as commanding troops, senior officers are required to be seen mixing with the men, which could make them feel uneasy. Try to make this easier for them, whether that is engaging them in light but respectful conversation or completing your duties to the highest standard.

**WHO TO AVOID**

**German Landser**
The equivalent of a British Tommy, the German Landser is a German soldier who fights just like those on your side of the field - but is instead behind enemy lines. Landseres are, for the most part, between 20 and 22 years old, with a similar level of training to that of the British conscripts.

They have some gruesome weapons; flamethrowers, phosgene, diphosgene, chlorine and mustard gas are used against the enemy, not to mention weapons like machine guns and knives. You’ll feel their effect in the shelling and gunfire across the battlefield, but avoid coming face to face with them if you can.

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**Helpful Skills**

Whether you’re on the front line or helping behind the scenes, these are three essential skills to aid your survival

**Courage**
Many medals, the most famous being the Victoria Cross, will be awarded for valour, which might mean looking after wounded soldiers on the battlefield or fighting on despite your own injuries.

**Medical knowledge**
If you are female, you’ll likely find yourself nursing the wounded. Both men and women populate the medical services for the troops, and you’ll treat injuries from cuts to severed limbs and more.

**Discipline and obedience**
Part of the short three-month training given to each WWI recruit aims to instil discipline and obedience in the men. Failure to obey orders can result in prison or, in the worst cases, even death to the offending soldier.
“Chaplin became increasingly beset by comment, reaction and endeavours to diminish him”
The fall of Charlie Chaplin

This is the story of the controversies that surrounded screen legend Charlie Chaplin in his later years; his golden age morphing into something more tarnished.

Written by James Clarke

If anyone needed proof that there’s no such thing as ‘just’ entertainment, they need look no further than south-London boy turned global pop-culture icon Charlie Chaplin. His career has been the subject of an immense range of research and reflection that has explored his movie-making achievements; the influence of his London childhood on his imaginative life; his political sympathies; and his personal life. For a slightly built man, he has made for an immense cinema presence and an equally immense cultural force. Like Shakespeare and Dickens, people may very well know the Chaplin name even though they have never directly encountered any of his work. The image of the man has superseded all else. The image of his creation The Tramp is as much a part of a worldwide lexicon of film character images that can sit right alongside Mickey Mouse, ET, The Extra Terrestrial and C3PO. The American cinema might largely be characterised by being ‘just’ entertainment, but what a powerful force entertainment is.

When the late, great film composer John Barry scored the movie Chaplin (1992), he wrote a main musical theme that, rather than emphasising the fun and laughter of the man’s movies, picked up on a melancholy mood. It’s a melancholy that we can identify in Chaplin’s beginnings and in his later years, too. This is the story of some of the key events that defined that later part of his personal and professional life. We might say that it was a professional life that ended in tragedy; in a fall from grace.

Discovering the fallibility of those who seem blessed with some sort of genius and whose work has astounded us – it’s as though they are imbued with a superhuman facility of thought, feeling and perception – can shock us by virtue of how it reminds us of the necessarily flawed humanity of that person. In Charlie Chaplin we have a filmmaker and actor who was a star in both
### Anatomy of The Tramp

Alongside a handful of other movie characters, Chaplin’s persona of The Tramp became globally recognised; recognisable, even, just as a silhouette. Chaplin designed the costume and it remained iconic through 22 years of work. The Tramp’s outfit is the underdog’s suit of armour against a crazy world.

#### Hat
The bowler is just too small for Charlie’s head, and so it only enhances The Tramp’s misfit status and tells us that this is the best he can do.

#### Moustache
One story has it that Chaplin, in 1914, when working at the Keystone Comedy Studio in the US, and waiting for the rain to stop so they could resume filming, found the moustache as part of makeup intended for a villain.

#### Jacket
The jacket that’s too tight accentuates The Tramp’s physically slight presence in a modern world that’s often all-too daunting, but which he always finds a way to survive and outwit.

#### Trousers
With his way-too-big trousers, The Tramp’s legs get lost in the shuffle and subsequently he moves with a particular grace as though not quite anchored to the ground.

#### Stick
Chaplin’s stick is an integral, character-enhancing prop. Critically, the stick is a tip of the metaphorical hat to the 19th-century music hall costuming traditions that Chaplin knew so well.

#### Shoes
The size 14 shoes are far too big and helpfully distort Charlie’s physicality. This results in visual comedy even when Chaplin is motionless. The shoes are always worn on the wrong feet.
spheres of his work. That's rare air that the south-London visionary breathed.

The story of Charlie Chaplin's life has often been framed as an ever-appealing rags-to-riches story, and suffice to say at this point that Chaplin's life became something of a lens through which to view poverty in early 20th-century south London. It's certainly the case that, in Chaplin, we have, what film scholar Richard Dyer might identify as a powerful example of the film star's fascination to audiences as the embodiment of behaviour, and perhaps appearance, that appeals to many.

From very early in his professional life as an entertainer, Chaplin was very much considered a wunderkind: someone whose creative invention, energy and popularity was tangible in one way and unfathomable in another. As of 1913, Chaplin had become a global movie star, constructing an image of The Tramp as an innocent making his way in the perils modern world. It was a role that, in part, owed a creative debt to the Dickens novel Oliver Twist that Chaplin read many times over. Inevitably, though, to invoke the words of the poet Robert Frost: “Nothing gold can stay.” In the latter half of his life, Charlie Chaplin became increasingly beset by comment, reaction and endeavours to diminish him either professionally or personally.

The Great Dictator (1940)

In an edition of Sight And Sound magazine, published in October 2003, a piece about Chaplin observed that: “He made movies that danced to the rhythms of modernity and captured the anxieties of changing political times.” The description could not be more true of The Great Dictator, the film that marked a watershed of sorts in Chaplin's professional life.

Movies are political; not party political, but ideological and, as such, they will always express a particular view of the world. You may or may not agree with the perspective on offer, but there’s always one lurking at varying depths below the surface. With The Great Dictator, Chaplin wrote and directed perhaps his most overtly political film using it to make a sharply humorous and unforgiving critique of the rise of fascism. The film sits well right alongside another of Chaplin's films, Modern Times (1936), which had criticised modern work life in an increasingly, rapidly mechanising world. Indeed, with that film, Chaplin took the idea of being a cog in the machine of work and pretty much makes it literal. Tellingly, his character's name in the film is simply A Factory Worker.

Rightly concerned by the rise of fascism in Europe and the particular event of the Spanish Civil War, Chaplin was committed to deploying his work as a filmmaker to a very pertinent, timely and complex subject. In this way, he made good on something he had reflected on in essays that he had written early in his career. In his essay We Have Come To Stay (1922), Chaplin reflected on how cinema could function as a form capable of exploring serious themes. Making the broadest of statements here, the vast richness of Chaplin's career, and diverse reflections on it, finds a home in the BFI's extensive Chaplin archive: a must-visit online resource.

The premise of The Great Dictator turns on a humble barber, from the country of Tomania, who is injured during World War I. Experiencing memory loss, he is kept in a hospital for 20 years. When he is released, he finds that a man named Adenoid Hynkel has become dictator of Tomania, and he has set about persecuting the Jews. The film dramatises and satirises a number of key reference points that relate eerily to what Hitler would go on to do through World War II. Via a series of confusions and mistaken identities, the humble barber is mistaken for Hynkel and uses it to humanitarian advantage, giving a speech that runs counter to all that Hynkel has been espousing. Where Hynkel’s vision was based on hate and distrust and racial prejudice, the barber’s vision embraces shared humanity. Even in this brief précis, we can see how this comedy touches on the very tensions that have always characterised so much human conflict. As such, this is a film that works so well today; it’s a ‘classic,’ which, to borrow an idea from the Italian writer Italo Calvino, means that it’s a story that hasn’t finished with what it has to say.

In The Great Dictator, Chaplin focuses on a vivid parody of Hitler and the film concludes with a
The fall of Charlie Chaplin

speech being given by the character of The Barber, performed by Chaplin, in which he includes the following statement: “Greed has poisoned men’s souls, has barricaded the world with hate, has goose-stepped us into misery and bloodshed. We have developed speed, but we have shut ourselves in. Machinery that gives abundance has left us in want.” In this moment of the film, Chaplin’s movie is no longer a fiction but instead functions more as an overt piece of propaganda, stating clearly the need for a culture that’s empathetic to difference rather than fearful of it or violent towards it.

One of the most resonant scenes in the film runs about seven minutes in duration and centres around Hynkel initially talking about his ideas for a perfect race, before then becoming entranced by a globe showing a map of the world wrapped around it. Hynkel’s gestures and his performance are camp and silly - not the gestures we might expect of a man hell-bent on world domination. How can we take such a figure seriously?

The camera pushes in on Hynkel as he looks spellbound at the globe, which we then see is just a big balloon that he plays with like a dancer. At this point, a sense of realism gives way to something more fanciful, allowing Chaplin to use a playful metaphor to express his repulsion at how the real world can be toyed with by those who abuse power.

While The Great Dictator was hugely popular in Britain, in the USA (where it had been made), the film received a cooler reception and, as Chaplin’s career became evermore successful and well regarded, forces came into play that sought to neutralise his cultural and political resonance.

Like Modern Times, The Great Dictator reminds us that often comedy is the best route to saying something ‘meaningful’ about a subject. The film made Chaplin lots of friends and plenty of enemies, creating new tensions for Chaplin and renewing and reigniting others. In Germany, it was an unpopular film release, a fact that may not surprise. That said, in the 1920s, a number of German intellectuals had found much to appreciate in Chaplin’s movies.

In concert with Chaplin’s professional angst around the reception of his film and the attacks on his political sympathies, he also had to contend with a volley of personal dilemmas; notably a paternity suit. As part of their written assault to diminish Chaplin, a cultural icon in his own lifetime, the FBI exploited the paternity suit...

Charlie on the big screen
court case that was brought against Chaplin by a mentally fragile young actress named Joan Barry with whom Chaplin had had a relationship. A certain mob mentality fuelled the interest in the case, the American Legion supporting the paternity claim. Chaplin was duly declared the father of Barry’s baby and was ordered to pay child support until the child became 21. In a review of Simon Louvish’s relatively recent biography of Chaplin, entitled Chaplin: The Tramp’s Odyssey (a title suggesting a journey home after conflict), Simon Callow noted that: “The ever-increasing gap between the Little Fellow and his creator was lost on neither Chaplin nor the commentators: the Tramp, impotent; Chaplin…, hugely potent, both as artist and as male.”

Chaplin’s personal life, then, offered up a number of opportunities to address broader social issues. Indeed, the ‘fantasy’ of the film star has often been a way for the culture to address very real issues that play on its mind.
Wives & lovers
Chaplin married four times. His first, second and third marriages were all short lived. His fourth and final marriage, however, lasted 44 years.

Mildred Harris
DATES OF MARRIAGE: 1918-20
When actress Mildred thought she was pregnant, she and Charlie married. She wasn’t pregnant, but later they did have a baby, who died at three days of age. The pair divorced.

Claire Sheridan
DATES OF RELATIONSHIP: 1920-21
British writer and aristocrat Sheridan went to Hollywood to interview Chaplin, after which they had a brief romance. Chaplin encouraged her to focus on art, not politics.

Sigrid Holmquist
DATES OF RELATIONSHIP: 1922
Swedish Holmquist was a successful Hollywood actress. One story relates that she held a gun to Charlie’s head until he pledged his eternal faithfulness to her.

Lita Gray
DATES OF MARRIAGE: 1924-27
Gray appeared as the angel in The Kid and almost starred in The Gold Rush. By then, she was involved with Charlie and they had a baby on the way. The marriage ended in court.

Virginia Cherrill
DATES OF RELATIONSHIP: 1928-29
After appearing in Chaplin’s City Lights (1931) as the Blind Girl, Cherrill became widely recognisable. She is perhaps best regarded as a muse to Chaplin.

Paulette Goddard
DATES OF MARRIAGE: 1936-42
Goddard starred in Modern Times, in which she made a dazzling entrance into the action. She went on to star in The Great Dictator. While the marriage did not last, their divorce was amicable.

Joan Berry
DATES OF RELATIONSHIP: 1942-43
This fraught relationship culminated in a paternity suit and fraught court cases for Chaplin, in which the judge referred to Chaplin’s “moral turpitude.”

Oona O’Neill
DATES OF MARRIAGE: 1943-77
Chaplin met Oona when she auditioned for a role in an unproduced film in 1942. Oona and Charlie were the parents to eight children and lived most of their family live ‘in exile’ from the US at Lake Geneva.
charges against charlie

charlie's dream of a career was countered by a number of forays into courtrooms and a host of media-fuelled accusations about his political sympathies

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Paternity suit</th>
<th>Anti-capitalist</th>
<th>Sympathiser</th>
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<th>Un-American</th>
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<td>Joan Barry, after separating from Charlie in 1943, came back on to the scene claiming she was pregnant by him. Chaplin denied this. The incident was exploited by the press.</td>
<td>The story of Monsieur Verdoux offers a critique of capitalism and the military-industrial complex, and it received a controversial reception. The film was a flop in America.</td>
<td>Chaplin was friends with suspected communists and attended events hosted by Soviet diplomats. In 1947 the FBI investigated him, and continued to for the next five years.</td>
<td>Chaplin made a public declaration of protest about the House Un-American Activities Committee, which had been established to identify communists in America.</td>
<td>Chaplin's choice to never naturalise as an American citizen despite spending much of his career there was enough for some to consider him a threat who should be deported.</td>
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On 27 September 1991, Oona O'Neill died. She had been married to Charlie Chaplin. Her obituary in the New York Times described her as "...wife of one of the screen's greatest comic geniuses." In 1943, Oona O'Neill had married Chaplin. He was 54 years old. So appalled was Oona's father, the playwright Eugene O'Neill (also aged 54), that he disinherited his 18-year-old daughter. When asked once about the age difference between her and Charlie, Oona had once replied that: "He is my world. I've never seen or lived anything else."

For most of their marriage, Chaplin and Oona lived at Lake Geneva, and the New York Times obituary said that: "Their home became a kind of intellectual watering hole; Pablo Casals, Nikita Khrushchev, Jawaharl Nehru and Zhou Enlai were among those who visited the Chaplins."

Every life has its critical days and dates: for Chaplin, 17 September 1952 was especially so. Charlie and Oona, with their four children, sailed from the US to London for the premiere of Chaplin's movie Limelight. En route, Chaplin's re-entry visa to the US (he was always a British citizen working in the States) was rescinded. It was the summation of the unease around Chaplin's political sympathies, and after this date he would only set foot in the US once more. Since 1923, the FBI had monitored Chaplin and Chief of the FBI J Edgar Hoover had a particular focus on him. The FBI's mission was to prove that Chaplin was a communist.

In the 1940s and 1950s, the anti-communists in the US pointed to what they considered hard evidence of Chaplin's left-wing politics: his WWII speeches supporting the American ally Russia. Of the communist 'witch hunt', Hollywood film star Burt Lancaster noted: "Can anything be more un-American than the Un-American Committee?"

The emotional strain on Chaplin of his ejection from the US in 1952 was immense, and in his later film A King In New York, this hugely accomplished filmmaker found a way to give expression to the complicated relationship with the country where his career had flourished. Chaplin biographer Simon Louvish has made the point that with this film, in which Chaplin portrays King Shahdov, "Chaplin knows well, as we do, that Shahdov is still Charlie the Tramp, grown older, shorn of his old clothes and toothbrush moustache, the mask of the eternal vagrant who had last been seen in the traditional from Modern Times in 1936."

In the promotional programme accompanying the film's UK premiere of Modern Times, an extract from the film's final speech is included, and tellingly it is not described as the character's speech in the film but as Charlie Chaplin's. As such, it distils so much of what Chaplin was committed to, deploying his popular appeal to wake people up to the dangers inherent in the world. With his talent, he sought to enliven the audience; a heroic ambition for sure. Was it a form of heroism without a home, though?

Chaplin's later life encapsulates the tensions that can emerge between art and commerce in the film industry (that latter word tells you so much that you need to know as a place to start from); cultural values around marriage and parenting and the ease with which a widely recognised figure can be used as a scapegoat in terms of a bigger picture around certain kinds of paranoia.

Let's end, then, with an anecdote that speaks to the immutable power of comedy and playfulness to subvert authority: when the House Un-American Activities Committee were due to call Chaplin to testify, they made a last-minute decision not to. Chaplin had planned to attend dressed as The Tramp. Chaplin was a trickster figure, seeking to puncture the self-aggrandising aura of those with a lust for power. In The Tramp, Chaplin's hero stood for the powerless, and that was his power. There is no tragedy in making that stand.
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Mysteries of the Ancient World

Editor’s Pick

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Prior to Naseby, the war between the Royalists and the Parliamentarians had been raging for three years. With neither side ever quite taking complete control of the conflict, there needed to be an encounter that decided the war before both sides ran out of steam. Naseby would be that battle.

Lobster pots
Nicknamed ‘lobster pots’ or ‘ironsides’, the soldiers of the New Model Army were recognisable due to their metal helmets. They would traditionally cut their hair very short and wear plain clothes as well as a cuirass breastplate.

Get in line!
Both sides took different approaches to battle formations. The Royal Army incorporated three lines of musketeers in the centre with cavalry on the flanks. The Parliamentarians had two lines rather than three with musketeers out at the front.

Cavaliers
Lacking the discipline of their adversaries, the Royalist cavalry often attacked individual targets rather than staying in rank. Although they were fighting a Parliamentarian army, about half of the MPs fought for the king. In contrast to the Roundheads, they would often wear fancy clothes with long hair and beards.
Naseby may only be a tiny English village in the Midlands, but on the morning of 14 June, it played host to a pivotal battle in the English Civil War. The bloody nationwide conflict had been drawn out for more than three years, with neither side managing to assert any clear authority. The Parliamentarian forces were now more determined than ever to finally bring down the Royalist cause, and on this day, the New Model Army, a modernised professional fighting force, would prove its supremacy.

The Roundheads’ influential leader, Oliver Cromwell, was present but would not be leading his forces, so the task fell to the talented commander Thomas Fairfax. The Royalist army would be led by the king, Charles I, and supported by his loyal band of subjects.

As the clock ticked past 9am, battle began on the misty open fields of Northamptonshire. Overlooking the village from a ridge, the 12 regiments of the New Model Army made the first move and marched into Naseby. The opposing armies now lined up face to face, with the cavalry regiments on the flanks and the infantry occupying the centre ground. The Royalists had a German commander in their ranks, and it was Prince Rupert of the Rhine who began proceedings with a rapid cavalry charge through the fog after he spotted enemy dragoon movement on the battlefield’s western edge. The charge crashed into the Roundhead ranks, sweeping aside the stunned Parliamentarian horsemen, but instead of attacking the now exposed infantry, they pressed on to assault a baggage wagon in the centre of Naseby. Next came Charles’s infantry and remaining mounted units, who engaged in a full frontal assault on the reeling Parliamentarians. The sheer ferocity of the attack drove the Roundheads back but could not maintain its momentum, and the Royalists failed to strike a crippling blow as the Parliamentarians slowly but surely began to regroup.

Rupert’s decision to concentrate on the baggage train was a timely reprieve for Fairfax, who responded by directing his mounted troops, led by Cromwell, to attack the opposing flank. This attack became a key part of the battle. Sir Marmaduke Langdale’s Royalist troops wilted in the face of the rapid cavalry attack and the Royalist infantry were sucked into a perfectly executed pincer movement before completely breaking. If Langdale’s flank had held out, the Royalists could have potentially recovered, but it wasn’t to be. Charles and his forces were now wide open to attack left, right and centre. Surrender was not far away.

Prince Rupert returned from the baggage train soon after but was now too late to bail out his allies. As the dust settled, it became clear that the Royalists had lost the battle and more than 1,000 men had died in only three hours of fighting. In contrast, the ruthless New Model Army only recorded casualties of about 200 men. Many of the king’s best officers lay dead and his artillery abandoned as the remaining Royalists fled the scene. The battle was a hammerblow to the king, and within a year, the final pockets of royal resistance were taken care of. Cromwell was now the undisputed leader of his country and the age of the Lord Protectors began.

**Fairfax’s tactics**
The New Model Army based its strategy around its lightly armed cavalry. Their attacks were built on speed and surprise and would aim for the flanks to avoid and outmanoeuvre the strong centre of the Royal Army.
**The Royal Army**

**Infantry** 6,000  
**Cavalry** 5,500

**King Charles I**  
Leader  
Dismissive of parliament’s role in governing the country, Charles preferred absolute rule, which led to tension and eventually civil war.  
**Strengths** Unshakable belief in his God-given right to rule.  
**Weakness** Declining support base due to his actions while in power.

**Cavalier**  
Key Unit  
The iconic mounted units were key to Charles’s military strength.  
**Strengths** Experience of a long and hard civil war.  
**Weakness** Position was based on status, not fighting ability.

**Matchlock**  
Key Weapon  
A type of musket, it was wielded by both the cavalry and infantry.  
**Strengths** Power and range of shot.  
**Weakness** Slow reload time and poor aim.

**The road to Naseby**  
June 1645 and the civil war is reaching fever pitch. King Charles is persuaded to march from his stronghold in Oxford to relieve Chester, which is being besieged by Parliamentary forces. Away from the siege, the main crux of Oliver Cromwell’s New Model Army is assembling and evading any confrontation as it moves north. This delay allows it to reach maximum strength on the road to Naseby.

**Leaving the ridge**  
Fresh from sacking Leicester, the king’s men arrive atop a ridge but soon make their descent to the battlefield. Cromwell and Fairfax meanwhile move their dismounted dragoons (musket-armed horsemen) along the Sulby Hedge, positioning them to fire into the Royalist flanks. The small skirmish works as Prince Rupert gives up his superior position on the high ground to charge at the New Model Army. The battle has begun.

**Initial Royalist success**  
Rupert’s cavalry attacks with intense ferocity and the Parliamentary line buckles under the pressure. Instead of turning in to harass the infantry, they decide to focus on the Parliamentary baggage train.

**Fairfax’s master plan**  
By 11am, the Royalist infantry has engaged the Parliamentarians and is also enjoying some early successes. However, with a significant amount of the Royalist mounted troops now occupied with the baggage train, Fairfax seizes the initiative. Cromwell, who is marshalling the left flank, moves against the right side of the Royalist ranks, which are led by Langdale. The Ironside left wing is unleashed to devastating effect.
Aftermath
Naseby is a critical loss for the Royalists, who are chased down for 12 miles. Cromwell and Fairfax now have control of the jettisoned Royalist artillery and supplies. Charles and his supporters do not recover from this dire defeat and his military machine breaks completely at Oxford in 1646.

Flight of the king
Quickly evaluating the rapidly deteriorating situation, Charles declines to commit any more men and flees the battlefield. The remains of Rupert's cavalry return, but at this late stage, their efforts are futile.

Roundheads in the ascendancy
The superior number of Roundheads now begins to tell. Cromwell's cavalry bolsters the Parliamentary left, which in turn boosts their flagging centre. Now under attack on all three fronts, the Royalist infantry gets sucked into the pincer. Unable to mobilise their reserve troops, there is now no way out.

The tide turns
As Rupert's cavalry makes almost no gains at the bravely defended baggage train, the New Model Army begins to tip the balance in its own favour. Langdale's forces are swiftly eradicated, leaving the Royalist soft underbelly vulnerable. Cromwell does not repeat Rupert's earlier mistake and turns inside to create a deadly pincer movement against Charles's infantry. The situation has been reversed and the Royalists are now struggling.

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FOR MORE GREAT BATTLES SEE HISTORY WAR
The British Empire began to assert itself upon the world in the late Tudor period during the reign of Elizabeth I. A queen who openly encouraged exploration and trade, Britons began to make trips to lands far beyond their own nation's borders. After the spectacular defeat of the Spanish Armada, Britannia ruled the waves and was ready to start its empire building.

The strength of the Royal Navy allowed Britain to expand significantly, and by the 18th century, colonies had been set up all over the world. The abundance of land put Britain top of the pile in the world of trade, and this monopoly helped expand the economy while the military became one of the strongest on Earth. The empire would expand and contract over time, but successfully maintained its supremacy for centuries.

The empire helped spread British culture across the globe. The English language as well as features of its religion, economy, society and politics were incorporated into other cultures. At the end of World War II, it became clear that the empire had outstayed its welcome in many colonies, and began to decline. The British Empire may have crumbled, but the memory of its successes and failures will last for centuries to come.
Australia

From convict colony to independent settler haven

The loss of America presented Britain with many problems, not least what to do with the huge numbers of convicts now not welcome in the New World. Where would the prisoners go now? The answer was Australia. Convict colonies were first set up in 1788 when 11 ships from the ‘First Fleet’ arrived. In the 1800s, the country became appealing to settlers, and when gold was found in the 1850s, immigration stepped up as people made the most of the ‘Australian gold rush’. The Aboriginal Australians saw their numbers dwindle due to factors like old world diseases and annexation of their land.

Naturally, Britain now saw the country as a useful economic tool. The gold and wool trade boomed but there were frequent conflicts between the settlers and rulers over taxes and land. In return, the Royal Navy protected Australia from the German and French Empires, but this was not enough, and by the 1880s, the communities began to think of themselves as ‘Australian’ and the empire’s grip loosened. The population was growing at three per cent a year while national wealth was increasing at double the rate of Britain’s. Despite an economic slump in 1890, Australia became independent in 1901. However, Australia still rushed to help Britain in World War I as the brave Anzacs fought with distinction at Gallipoli and on the Western Front.

Baden-Powell

“Life without adventure would be deadly dull”

A man who always preferred the great outdoors to the confines of the classroom, Robert Baden-Powell was obsessed with adventure. The colonel’s finest hour would come in Africa during the 1899-1900 Siege of Mafeking. The siege was during the Second Boer War, a vicious conflict that pitted the British Empire against the Orange Free State. 20 special service officers, including Baden-Powell, were sent to defend the frontier. They were surrounded in the town but managed to hold out against 7000 Boers for 217 days. The now Major-General Baden-Powell was a hero, but within a few years he had turned his attention from military to scouting. The first book of the movement, Scouting For Boys, was written in 1908 and from here, the organisation developed rapidly.

Cricket

The game of the empire had sinister origins

Now commonly played in many Commonwealth countries, cricket’s popularity spread quickly through the colonies of the British Empire. The 1787 founding of the MCC (Marylebone Cricket Club) and passing of the 1788 Code of Laws kickstarted the professionalisation of the sport, which was first played in Barbados in 1806 and South Africa in 1808. Cricket was also embraced elsewhere in the empire and the sound of leather on willow was heard in Australia, New Zealand, India and the Caribbean. Cricket wasn’t just a sport, though – it was used as a political tool by the British. The rules and regulations were used to remind the indigenous people of the hierarchy between them and the white settlers. It reinforced racial stereotypes and was a symbol of social control. It was seen as a crude way of spreading civilised values to those who the British Empire deemed uncivil. The empire always based itself on an aura of superiority, and this control continued even after the abolition of slavery.

Cricket remained a popular pastime even after many of the colonies gained independence. Now it was the sport of the people rather than a symbol of oppression. The most famous contest between Australia and England was held in 1882. The former colony recorded a shock victory causing the Sporting Times to remark that “English Cricket had died.” The Ashes were born and the sport became even more popular than before.
Decolonisation
The sun sets on the British Empire

Despite emerging victorious from World War II, the conflict had adverse effects on what was now a failing empire. Britain may still have had the largest empire of all, but as two new world power blocs, the USSR and the USA, arose, the country became a weak link and, financially crippled, was forced to abandon its treasured possessions. The road to oblivion began with the 1947 partition of India, just five years after the suppression of the Quit India movement in 1942. A huge loss, the empire’s military muscle was quickly diminishing. Worse was still to come with the Suez Crisis of 1956. Losing control of the economically important Suez Canal, this event wrecked Britain’s finances, military and international standing further.

As Britain began to rebuild its fractured cities and towns after war, it had no resources to maintain an empire that had been experiencing a wave of nationalism for a long time. Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika were all independent by 1963 and the White Settler Revolt in Southern Rhodesia in 1965 was another example of the decline of British military power. The fragmentation of the empire was down to a lack of funds and British weakness, but also due to many of the colonies’ profound efforts on the Allied side in the war. Britain’s entry to the EEC in 1973 effectively ended its imperial ambitions, and the idea of empire could now only be seen in traditions and culture, not frontiers and firearms.

East India Company
The company that evolved from minor trader to outright ruler

One of the empire’s major institutions, the East India Company was a business juggernaut at its peak. The organisation’s roots originate in 1601 when British ships first set sail to the ‘East Indies’. Hearing of the wealth of spices and materials available, more and more ships made the journey and the trade links began to grow. The British weren’t the first European power to make the journey, but they pumped resources into the business venture, and by 1690, had trading centres all over the west and east coasts of India. As British influence increased and the Indian Mughal Empire weakened, trade began to turn into occupation. The company could now charge high taxes and defend its interest with force. This had a disastrous effect on the local Indian communities who saw their economy and society effectively taken over.

The East India Company was at its most profitable in the first half of the 18th century as Indian cotton was being mass exported, providing the British consumer with cheap, good-quality clothing. The company soon began to take more than it was giving as it started to meddle in Indian politics. This caught the attention of the British government, who took the decision to put the firm under government control in 1783. The East India Company is an example of British trade outstaying its welcome, and its harsh affect on India helped develop a nationalist feeling within the country. By 1858, it was abolished completely and the British Raj was created.

Falklands War
The nation’s determined clung to territory

By the 1980s, the empire was no more but Britain was still determined to protect what was left of its legacy. The Falkland Islands, a remote colony in the South Atlantic, was one of the few remaining territories. Neighbouring Argentina’s military dictatorship, under Leopoldo Galtieri, decided to invade on 2 April 1982, citing its inheritance from Spain and geographical location as reasons for its occupation. Going against advice from other nations, Margaret Thatcher’s government decided the UK had to fight back. The conflict lasted for two months and 649 Argentine and 255 British servicemen lost their lives along with three islanders. The Argentinean surrender came on 13 July.
Great Game
The Cold War of the 19th century that put Britain and Russia on the brink of war

The signing of the Russo-Persian Treaty in 1813 alarmed the British. Concerned at the recent expansion of Russian interests in Asia, the British Crown moved to protect India by expanding its own empire northwards. The battleground between the two blocs ended up being Afghanistan, which acted as a buffer zone between the two powers. Britain wanted to use Afghanistan for its own imperial desires, resulting in three Anglo-Afghan wars. The most prominent was the Second Anglo-Afghan war, in which a British victory gained a new protectorate for the empire.

The Great Game also played out in Persia. Originally an ally of the British, Persia switched its support to Russia in 1825 and was persuaded in 1837 to attack Herat, a British territory in Afghanistan. The attack was beaten back by the British but Persia stayed Russian until the Crimean War in 1853. The Great Game officially ceased with the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907, ending almost 100 years of tension and conflict. Persia was divided between the two superpowers and Afghanistan remained a British protectorate until it gained independence after World War I.

Hong Kong
An important trading centre that was almost constantly ravaged by war and conflict

The East India Company arrived in Hong Kong in 1635 keen to trade with both the Chinese and the Portuguese, who had major cartels in the area. Silk, spices and tea were essential commodities for the British, but trade was restricted by the Chinese government, who insisted that all trade went through the port of Canton and select Chinese merchants. By the 1800s, opium had become the major product in the region and in an effort to end the first Opium War, Hong Kong was ceded to the British in 1841.

After the wars were over, Britain signed a lease in 1898 that gave it ownership over the island for 99 years. During World War II, the island was completely taken over by the Japanese. The occupation lasted until 1945, but afterwards, Hong Kong was forced to adapt to the new communist China. It adjusted well, with an economic revival in the 1950s that helped it develop into a financial powerhouse by the 1970s. In 1997, the British lease on Hong Kong expired and China demanded its return. The British government initially tried to negotiate but soon realised the potential administrative and economic difficulties, and backed down. Hong Kong’s loss represented the last economically viable colony to leave the empire. The imperial adventure was over.

Irish famine
More than 1 million people died in a disaster that the British government failed to act upon and improve

The effects of the potato famine were devastating for the Emerald Isle. An estimated 1 million (a staggering eighth of the country’s population) died and 1 million more emigrated elsewhere to avoid the famine. Potatoes had been the staple food of Ireland, but became inedible as a late blight disease spread around the crops turning them into black gooey messes. A 50 per cent loss in crops crippled the country for three successive harvests from 1845-47.

The British Whig and Tory governments decided to be as laissez-faire as possible over the issue of Ireland. Preventing the export of Irish grain to elsewhere would have been an effective policy, but it was not enacted as the government virtually disengaged itself from the problems of the famine. Ireland did have supplies of corn sent over, but it was either not distributed efficiently, there was no machinery to turn it into flour or it was too pricey for the average Irish person to afford. Also critical was the cancellation of the soup-kitchen scheme after only six months, which was an efficient system that fed 3 million people on a daily basis. The idea of feeding Ireland was simply not on the Whig or Tory agenda and was not considered an imperial responsibility. A few public works were attempted to relieve the situation but, overall, the British government’s ideology of free trade prevented any sort of structured aid. For many, emigration was the only option and the population of Ireland headed to the harbours as America and the New World beckoned.
Jingoism
The aggressive foreign policy and the stubborn imperialism of the empire

Jingoism - the nationalistic and patriotic belief that your country is best - was rife within the empire, especially at its peak in the late-19th century. The aggressive shows of force by Britain to maintain and expand its empire were naturally exaggerated by the press and clever propaganda spin put almost anything the empire did in a positive light.

The rise of other superpowers such as Germany and Russia only helped fuel jingoism, resulting in arrogant ideology such as splendid isolation and the naval arms race. Invasion literature of the era such as HG Wells's *The War Of The Worlds* also stoked the fires of Russophobia and paranoia. Jingoism wasn't a new phenomenon (Britain had always had fierce rivalries with Spain and France, for instance) but politicians were worried that a working-class electorate was dangerous to British politics. Both the Conservatives and Liberals came to realise that an assertive foreign policy was the best way to appeal to the public. The wave of jingoism lasted up until World War I, when the Great War changed people's perception of conflict forever.

Livingstone
A man who devoted his life to exploring many new countries

David Livingstone was born into working-class Glaswegian life and was taught to read and write by his father. Studying at Anderson's University, he had soon gathered enough funds to move to London. By 1841, his dream of exploration was realised and he was posted to Africa as a missionary doctor. Livingstone was a man of God, and upon reaching the Kalahari Desert region of Africa, he began converting many of the locals to Christianity. As well as his religious values, he learned about the true extent of the horrors of the slave trade and explored Botswana and lake Nagami.

Livingstone made several trips to Africa and whether on foot, canoe or ox-back, he regularly diced with death from wild animal attack or disease. Meeting many local tribes, Livingstone's writings helped advance knowledge of the slave trade and the dangers of malaria and scurvy. Government funding ran out in the late 1850s, but by 1866, the Scot had accumulated enough funds of his own to finance another trip. This time, the destination was the source of the River Nile, and it would end up being his final expedition. With almost no crew left and suffering from pneumonia, Livingstone went missing and was only found in October 1871 in Ujiji, Tanzania. Physically exhausted but always dedicated to his job, Livingstone died in May 1873. The British Empire owes him greatly for mapping out vast swathes of the previously uncharted African continent.

Kitchener
The British military leader who was immortalised in the famous army recruitment poster

Born in Ireland and educated in Switzerland, Horatio Kitchener (and his instantly recognisable moustache) are now iconic images of Britain and its empire. Kitchener's military career was extensive and lasted from 1871 until his death in 1916. Beginning as a royal engineer, Kitchener's career soon took off, and by 1886 he was appointed governor general of Eastern Sudan. This upward trajectory continued and his efforts in the Mahdist War, and in particular the victory at the battle of Omdurman, made him a national hero back in Britain.

Kitchener's methods were not all popular though, and his use of concentration camps in the Boer War was severely criticised. Nevertheless, Kitchener was made a viscount in 1902 and was promoted to secretary of state for war at the outbreak of war in 1914. Unlike many of his contemporaries, Kitchener foresaw a long conflict and acted accordingly, creating the New Army. However, it was here that his career took a turn for the worse. He was notoriously difficult to work with and his support for the poorly planned Dardanelles campaign was a turning point; then the shell crisis of 1915 damaged his stock even further.

Kitchener didn't survive the war and was killed when aboard the HMS Hampshire, which was sunk on 5 June 1916 by a German mine while on a mission to encourage Russian resistance against Germany. Kitchener had questionable methods when it came to war but he is remembered for the sheer number of men he organised at the start of World War I and, of course, that poster.
Mau Mau
A bloody uprising that shook the foundations of an already failing empire

In the post-World War II world, a wave of nationalism spread over Africa. The rule of the European powers was coming to an end as decolonisation took place. The British Empire was one of the nations to take the brunt of this nationalistic drive, especially in Kenya. Known as the Mau Mau Rebellion, the aim of the revolt was to completely eradicate all forms of British rule in Kenya. The first anti-British secret meetings were held in August 1951 in the capital Nairobi, and the Mau Mau oath was taken by every member. By October 1952, the frequent arson attacks and assassinations carried out by the Mau Mau had finally caught the attention of the British government, who sent troops over immediately. The uprising had escalated.

A state of emergency was declared in Kenya as hostilities continued. 40 people, both white settlers and black non-Mau Mau followers, were murdered in the space of just four weeks as the Mau Mau was officially declared a terrorist organisation. British soldiers responded by arresting thousands of insurgents and cordoning off tribal lands to restrict Mau Mau movement. By 1954, the rebellion was lessening as more leaders were captured and interrogated. An offer of amnesty was tendered by the British, but this was blankly rejected and the killings continued. By 1955 70,000 suspected Mau Mau were imprisoned, slowing the uprising which led to the state of emergency finally ending in 1959. The uprising was a bloody episode that demonstrated the wane of European power in Africa and was a catalyst towards Kenya’s independence in 1963.

Nelson
The naval genius that expected every man to do his duty

Horatio Nelson was one of the greatest military minds to ever grace the Royal Navy. Raised in a small village in Norfolk, he began his navy career at the age of 12 as an apprentice midshipman. The young man’s talents shone through and he was fast-tracked through the ranks, making captain in 1779. Prior to Trafalgar, Nelson served in the Americas and the Caribbean. The Battle of St Vincent in 1797 was one of his earliest victories as the Royal Navy struck a devastating and critical blow to the Armada Española. Now revered at home, Nelson once again utilised his genius with a stunning victory over the French at the Battle of the Nile in 1798. Once an admiral, Nelson found time to defeat a strong force at Copenhagen in 1801. What Nelson will be remembered for, and what the British Empire is forever grateful to him for, however, is Trafalgar. The War of the Third Coalition was raging on mainland Europe, but Nelson helped the navy score an impressive victory. The victory cost him his life but confirmed his place in history.

Opium Wars
Two conflicts that had a lasting effect on the Far East

Opium was big business for the British Empire. A commodity that sold big in China, its trade helped finance the British demand for tea and silk. However, the downside to the business was the nasty effects opium had, with addiction to the drug becoming a problem. When the Chinese government realised what was happening to their people, they imposed restrictions on the trade, denting British profits. The result was war.

The first war began after the Chinese destroyed 20,000 chests of opium. To support their interests the British government sent an expeditionary force to occupy the city of Canton in May 1841, and the capture of Nanking in August ended the war with a British victory. The second war was larger in scale as the French waded into the conflict. Military operations began in late 1856 and by 1858 British gunboat diplomacy had forced the Chinese into negotiations. A number of treaties legalised the importation of opium once again but hostilities resumed when the Chinese shells the British in June 1859. Angered, the British and French returned with a huge force in August 1860 and captured Beijing, ending the war once and for all.
Penal Colonies
The empire had many prisoners that all needed to be locked up
Perhaps one of the most efficient uses of America for the British Empire was its role as a huge prison. An estimated, 50,000 of the empire’s convicts were sent to the New World, making up a quarter of all British settlers during the 1700s. The first convicts were sent over in 1718 under the government’s new Transportation Act, which introduced mass penal transportation to what are now the states of Virginia and Maryland. When the 13 colonies were lost after the American Revolution, Britain needed to create more penal colonies to lock away its criminals. Initially, many of the convicts were held upon ships (prison hulks) on the River Thames and forced to clean the river, but this was not a long-term solution. In 1786, an answer was found, and penal colonies were set up in Australia, the Caribbean, India and Singapore.

The British Empire was by no means the only empire to utilise penal colonies, but it did oversee some of the most extensive. The theory was that criminals could provide cheap labour on plantations and workhouses while being totally disconnected from the rest of the populace. It all changed in 1779 as the Penitentiary Act authorised the opening of state prisons that aimed at ending corruption in jails. The introduction of penal colonies was an ambitious project but eased the pressure on the empire and was a sustainable solution to Britain’s huge amount of convicts.

Queen Victoria
The long-standing queen who was famous for being not amused
Queen Victoria ruled Britain in an era of prosperity and relative peace. Her rule coincided with a long period named ‘Pax Britannica’, where Britain became the leading empire of the world. Victoria married her German cousin Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha in 1840 and the couple went on to reign over an immensely popular monarchy. The Victorian age is remembered for industrial expansion and economic progress, but also development in the arts and science, such as the Great Exhibition of 1851. Britain functioned as a constitutional monarchy with the queen occasionally having an input in politics.

Conflict broke out in 1854 in the form of the Crimean War. The conflict saw the first awarding of the Victoria Cross in 1856, a medal that would become the pinnacle of military achievement in Britain. Domestically, Britain advanced rapidly with the industrial revolution in full flow. In 100 years, the population grew from 16 to 41 million.

Raj
The successor to company rule, the Raj was a new era for India
In 1858, the faltering East India Company was relieved of its political duties after the Indian Rebellion and British India came into the hands of the British Crown. The Raj didn’t cover the whole of India and instead ruled over approximately two-fifths of the subcontinent. A succession of British viceroys ruled India, as the area remained an economic and military asset to Britain. 20 per cent of Britain’s exports went to India and many Indians were assumed into the British Army. 20,000 troops and officials ruled over 300 million Indians. Eventually the local population began to resent British rule, as it often left them poor and unfed with empire profits and ambition put first. The Indian National Congress was formed in 1885, giving the natives an intellectual and centralised voice. The organisation helped aid the rise of Mahatma Gandhi in the early 20th century and get the nation on the road to independence, which was eventually achieved in 1947.

Seven assassination attempts were made on Victoria’s life between 1840 and 1882
Viceroy Lord Canning meets Maharaja Ranbir Singh in 1860 as talks are held to extend British progress through upper India
With the empire ever expanding, shortages of labour in British territories were common. To remedy this, Britain (along with many other European powers) decided upon a terrible solution: the slave trade. The first trip was undertaken by John Hawkins in 1562 and the transatlantic slave trade was born. A triangle between Europe, the Americas and Africa, millions of Africans were removed from their homes and forced to work on plantations in the New World. This free workforce greatly benefited the economies of the European powers. In 1807, the Abolition of the Slave Trade Act was passed, finally bringing an end to the vile practice, but it continued in some colonies until 1838. Up until the 20th century, a Royal Navy fleet of ships known as the West Africa Squadron scoured Africa’s coast, freeing all the slaves they could as attitudes changed.

Tea
The drink that became a major commodity in the empire

One of the finest results of Britain’s expansion into Asia was the tea trade. Primarily a drink for the wealthy due to its high price, the first order was taken in 1664. Tea leaves soon became big business and the East India Company quickly stepped up tea production, especially in Assam, India. Hiring cheap tea-picking labourers, it became a profitable industry and a cultural phenomenon back in Britain, rivaling coffee for the nation’s favourite drink. Each crossing from China or India to Britain would take months and taxation on tea was very high, which often resulted in tax avoidance through smuggling. After the demise of the East India Company, the tea trade became a free-for-all and merchants chartered fast ships known as clippers to get a piece of the action. Since it was first traded, it has undoubtedly become the drink of Britain and the drink of empire.

Uganda Railway
The ‘Lunatic Express’ that blazed a trail through both Uganda and Kenya

1,062 kilometres of track, the Ugandan railway began its life on 30 May 1896 when the first plate was laid. The first train would leave Mombasa station two years later. The track was the brainchild of George Whitehouse, a veteran of railway construction in England, South Africa and India. Many of the first engines to hit the tracks were second-hand imports from India. 31,983 Indians were sent to Africa to construct the railroad along with a few thousand East Africans. The conditions were harsh for the workers and they would sometimes go for days without water due to late or derailed water trains. The most dangerous part of the job, however, was the so-called ‘man-eaters of Tsavo’. When the railway was being constructed over the Tsavo River, the workers were preyed upon by a number of lions that killed about 20 men.

There were many perils along the way, but the railway was finally completed in 1901. The Lunatic Express helped the British prevent German influence in the area and was an effective political move to control the Nile and access to the east African coast. The railway wasn’t popular with the natives and was known as the ‘Iron Snake’. The Kedong Massacre of 1895 resulted in 500 deaths after a worker’s caravan was attacked by the Maasai people who were incensed after two girls were allegedly raped. Parts of the track are open today and have been incorporated into the Kenya Railways Corporation.

The Boston Tea Party
was the most famous act of defiance against tax and contributed to the outbreak of the American War of Independence

Slavery
A shameful blot on the empire’s legacy

With the empire ever expanding, shortages of labour in British territories were common. To remedy this, Britain (along with many other European powers) decided upon a terrible solution: the slave trade. The first trip was undertaken by John Hawkins in 1562 and the transatlantic slave trade was born. A triangle between Europe, the Americas and Africa, millions of Africans were removed from their homes and forced to work on plantations in the New World. This free workforce greatly benefited the economies of the European powers. In 1807, the Abolition of the Slave Trade Act was passed, finally bringing an end to the vile practice, but it continued in some colonies until 1838. Up until the 20th century, a Royal Navy fleet of ships known as the West Africa Squadron scoured Africa’s coast, freeing all the slaves they could as attitudes changed.

Tea bags weren’t invented yet, so the precious tea leaves were transported back to Britain in wooden chests known as caddies

The entirety of the railway was actually located in Kenya and helped build up the city of Nairobi

Uganda was part of British East-Africa and many local men were hired to build the tracks

The Boston Tea Party was the most famous act of defiance against tax and contributed to the outbreak of the American War of Independence

A-Z of the British Empire

Right: Tea bags weren’t invented yet, so the precious tea leaves were transported back to Britain in wooden chests known as caddies

The "Iron Snake" The Lunatic Express helped the British prevent German influence in the area and was an effective political move to control the Nile and access to the east African coast. The railway wasn’t popular with the natives and was known as the ‘Iron Snake’. The Kedong Massacre of 1895 resulted in 500 deaths after a worker’s caravan was attacked by the Maasai people who were incensed after two girls were allegedly raped. Parts of the track are open today and have been incorporated into the Kenya Railways Corporation.
Vimy Ridge

A defining moment for Canadian troops fighting on the side of the empire in World War I

Vimy Ridge was the WWI battle in which the bravery and effectiveness of Canadian soldiers came to the fore. The troops were ordered to seize the heavily defended ridge, which had a commanding view over the British lines and was strategically important for the Central Powers. A French attack had already failed, so the assault was carefully prepared. The plan of attack was an artillery barrage that would keep the Germans pinned down while the Canadians charged through subterranean tunnels towards enemy lines. The battle began at 5:30 am on 9 April with the thunder of 1,000 artillery pieces as 15,000 Canadian infantrymen stormed the German trenches while under heavy machine-gun fire. By the end of the day, 10,000 were killed or wounded, but Hill 145, the highest point of the ridge, was successfully captured by a bayonet charge on the final machine-gun nests. A monument now stands at this spot to commemorate the immense acts of courage and sacrifice.

Westminster system

How legislation and governance made its way from Britain to the outer reaches of the empire

The loss of the USA resulted in a political rejig in the empire. The Durham Report, written in 1839, has been described as "the book that saved the empire" and put forward the idea of colonies governing themselves. Britain ruled a fifth of the world's population at its peak, and as time progressed, could not keep all the political institutions of its sprawling empire in check. A two-party system evolved in many of the British dominions with Canada allowed a responsible government in 1848 and Australia in 1855. The system benefited Britain as it reduced the pressure on its parliament to make decisions for all the lands it governed but still gave it supreme rule over the colonies. It benefited the colonies as it gave them the ability to rule with a sense of independence and freedom. Most colonies took on what is known as the 'Westminster System'. For many of these countries today, the political system is a final remnant of British rule and, with some adaptation, has served their politics well. For example, India, despite huge rebellions and a successful drive for independence, still utilises the system. It has, however, become unpopular in some former colonies. Riots in the Solomon Islands in 2006 were motivated by the April 2006 election and many have criticised the Westminster system as it can fail to reflect who the electorate vote for with its first-past-the-post system.

Xmas Tree

The invasion of evergreens into British households

They may be a staple of Christmas tradition now, but prior to the Victorian age, Christmas trees, as we know them today, were a rarity. The first trees were brought over to Britain in 1800 by George III's German wife Queen Charlotte, but they only achieved any sort of popularity in the 1840s, thanks to Queen Victoria's German husband Prince Albert. Their popularity only soared further when the royal family were pictured with their own tree and companies first got in on the Christmas act in 1880 when Woolworths began selling Christmas tree ornaments. Originally, the German Springlebaum was the tree of choice, but they began to be replaced by the Norwegian spruce as demand grew in the 1880s. By the end of the 19th century, Christmas in the British Empire had transformed from a barely recognised date to a national holiday.
Yorktown
The important siege that brought an end to major hostilities in the American War of Independence

Perhaps one of the most pivotal battles in the history of empire, Yorktown signified the end of the British grip on America. The British commander, Lord Cornwallis, had moved his troops to Yorktown, Virginia, in hope of maintaining communication with the main British army in New York. George Washington ordered French General Lafayette and an American and French coalition army to prevent Cornwallis’s escape from Yorktown. A sea blockade was put in place and shortly after land troops advanced on the British positions. After the British lost naval superiority at the Battle of Virginia Capes, Cornwallis and his men were isolated. After 20 days, the situation was hopeless and Yorktown was surrendered with 8,000 British prisoners taken. The defeat itself wasn’t a huge loss but it started to persuade the British government to consider peace.

Zulu
Prior to the Boer War, the British found another great threat to their desire to rule southern Africa

In the early years of the 19th century, the Zulus were the major holders of power in southern Africa. However, with settlers arriving from overseas, it wasn’t long until violence broke out between them and the new Boer and British colonists who had discovered gold and diamonds in Zulu lands. Back in London, the British government weren’t keen on war, but High Commissioner for South Africa Bartle Frere had other ideas; he issued an ultimatum to the Zulus. The harsh conditions imposed were not adhered to and predictably led to war.

The Anglo-Zulu War began in January 1879. The Zulus had a numerical advantage with King Cetawayo boasting forces of 40,000. The first major conflict was at Isandlwana, where 806 British soldiers died in what became an emphatic victory for the Zulus. The same day, a small British encampment called Rorke’s Drift was assaulted by huge numbers of Zulus, but the garrison of just 145 men remarkably held out.

As the war progressed, the tide turned against the Zulus, who were no match for British tactics and firepower. A telling example of this came at Kambula in March 1879, when 2,000 Zulus perished while the British only lost 18 men.

This defeat broke the Zulu nation and effectively handed their lands over to the British. British imperialism had conquered South Africa and the area would become an important part of empire until war broke out again in 1880, this time against the Boers.
When we see some of the first-hand reports of what went on during World War II, it’s easy to get so caught up in the vivid descriptions of events that we forget that there was someone holding the pen, operating the camera or manning the typewriter.

Brian Best’s *Reporting The Second World War* does a good job of filling in the blanks, chronicling the exploits of the likes of Ernest Hemingway, David Dimblebey, Robert Capa and more as they put themselves directly in harm’s way in order to capture the biggest scoops of their time. Whether it was the evacuation at Dunkirk or the D-Day landings, what would be considered a situation of utmost peril to most was simply a job to them.

However, for many it was their last job. Of the Allies, 54 Americans, 20 British and six Australians died while doing their job. The journalists themselves would be first to admit that the peril they faced wasn’t always on the level of that of the average soldier - indeed, CBS reporter Eric Sevareid notably stated that “only the soldier really lives the war; the journalist does not” - but as the opening sentence of this paragraph pays testament to, the danger they faced was very real.

But threats to their lives weren’t the only obstacles these men and women had to face. With censorship heavily monitored by the various authorities, much of what they produced invariably didn’t make its way to the page intact, with many of those who chose to ignore or circumvent censorship invariably having their careers ruined. In an age where any assaults on our right to freedom of speech are attacked from the outset, this book does a good job in making us appreciate how far we’ve come.

Other than that, it feels like something’s missing. The majority of the accounts here are from Allied journalists. It’s pretty safe to assume that the censorship implemented by the Axis powers would have been just as severe - and probably more so - than their counterparts, but accounts from the other side would have been nothing if not enlightening. The events regaled here are exciting and enlightening, but it would have been nice to have heard the alternative interpretations too.

Beyond this, the book also stands out for its revealing descriptions of larger-than-life figures. Take Edward Kennedy’s report on the actions of General George Patton - a man who, while admired for his prowess in the field, also approved tactics like murdering prisoners of war while hurling abuse at a young soldier suffering from shell-shock, for instance. When you read accounts like this, it’s easy to see why some correspondents faced the problems that they did.

With the amount of books dedicated to World War II out there, new books on the subject need to not only be well-researched and engaging, they need to cover new ground, and it’s certainly safe to say that *Reporting The Second World War* does this. It’s interesting that so few books are dedicated to the people who informed much of what we understand about history’s most destructive conflict - well, now there’s at least one more.

“What would be considered a situation of utmost peril to most was simply a job to them”
Rhodesia survived as an independent country for only 90 years, but during much of this time the world was at war. Throughout its history it remained ostracised, isolated and largely bereft of allies, not to mention a considerable lack of military force.

As communism grew in strength all over the world, South Africa became a particularly high profile target for both Moscow and Beijing, as it possessed superb strategic value and hugely valuable resources. To get to South Africa, communist forces had to go through Rhodesia, but this tiny nation refused to buckle under global pressure, standing firm where most nations would have fallen. A Handful Of Hard Men focuses on the story of Captain Darrel Watt of the Rhodesian SAS, who spent 12 grueling years battling tirelessly in the cauldron of war, resisting the forces of Robert Mugabe and Joshua Nkomo. His story is told brilliantly throughout; the trials and tribulations both him and his team endured are nothing short of mind blowing, drinking their own urine and eating used tea bags to survive when resupply missions failed. Like many books of this genre, it’s impossible not to marvel at the bravery and determination of these soldiers - the term ‘hard men’ fails to do them justice.

Captain Watt’s story is the highlight, but what the author also excels in is the retelling of the world governments’ involvement in Rhodesia’s demise. The White House, Whitehall, the Kremlin and Beijing all get a mention; it’s worth reading the book just to learn the part they played. In the end, Rhodesia was lost due to a lack of political know-how rather than on the battlefield. Sadly, Captain Watt’s fight had been in vain, but at least he lived to tell the tale and relay much of his story to the author of this book.

Author: Hannes Wessels
Publisher: Casemate
Price: £19.99
Released: Out now

A HANDFUL OF HARD MEN
A comprehensive look at the battle for Rhodesia, including detailed first-hand accounts from members of the Rhodesian SAS

A AFTERNOON TEA: A HISTORY AND GUIDE TO THE GREAT EDWARDIAN TRADITION
Discover how tea became the quintessentially British drink

Author: Vicky Straker
Publisher: Amberley
Price: £9.99
Released: Out now

It’s undeniable that the afternoon cup, whether it’s served in fragile china or a sturdy mug, is universally understood as a British staple. Enjoying a cuppa unifies our nation, but also creates serious divides: milk before or after water, sugar or no sugar, Yorkshire or PG Tips? Luckily, we don’t have to bear the weight of the cultural associations of tea experienced during the Edwardian and Victorian periods. Can you imagine having to change your dress up to five times a day, and wearing a specific garment to pour and drink tea with your high society friends? If you’re hoping to fit in with the Edwardians and learn the proper teatime etiquette, Straker is here to help. She explains the initial negative connotations associated with the concept of afternoon tea as a lazy and gluttonous pastime, and follows its rise to a significant tradition among the most fortunate in society to discuss gossip and business. Straker uncovers the domino effect of the cuppa in all areas, from trade, fashion, culinary traditions, and even emancipation of the sexes.

Inspired, perhaps, by the recent surge in interest in traditional British baking due to a little television baking competition, Straker has included a range of recipes and instructions on how to serve tea for a proper afternoon tea party. The recipes include classics like scones, tea cakes, and cucumber sandwiches, but also explain the history and significance of dishes like Sally Lunns and pikelets. We have personally put these recipes to the test and can conclude that they are both informative and delicious. Now excuse us while we return to stuffing Peach Melba in our corseted torsos (just pray we don’t develop gallstones).
Reviews

IN BED WITH THE ANCIENT EGYPTIANS
Get under the pharaohs’ sheets with this saucy exposé

Author Charlotte Booth Publisher Amberley
Price £20 Released Out now

They’re one of the most sexualised civilisations in history, but just how accurate are the modern-day depictions of the Ancient Egyptians? In her latest book, author Charlotte Booth demystifies the lives and loves of the pharaohs and their subjects, ensuring not a single sordid detail is left out of what is acclaimed as the first general history book on sex in Ancient Egypt.

Of course, filling 300-odd pages with wisdom solely on their bedroom antics would be quite a feat, so Booth looks at sex in the wider context of beauty, love, marriage and childbearing. She also examines Egyptian attitudes to prostitution, homosexuality and incest, some of which may surprise you. Rather than the inbred folk they are made out as being, incest was in fact forbidden outside of the royal family, and the Egyptians had a relatively modern outlook on same-sex relations.

Sex in general was not considered the taboo subject that it became in the centuries that followed, and it was often performed outside of marriage and within the confines of crowded family homes.

But the book is not all about lust and procreation. Extracts from their love poetry reveal a more sensitive side to the Ancient Egyptians that many readers may not have been aware of previously, as so many of the studies focus on their immense building projects and gruesome funerary rituals.

Frustratingly for the less prudish reader, the 16 gallery pages at the centre of the book aren’t quite as graphic as you’d find in a book on Roman sex lives, for example, but provide a useful visual aid regardless. Overall, In Bed With The Ancient Egyptians is an accessible and enjoyable read that will thrill any enthusiast.

THE VOYAGE OF THE BEAGLE
Or, ‘A 19th-century guide to spending your gap year’

Author Charles Darwin Publisher Zenith Press Price £25 Released Out now

Today, if a 22 year-old natural history student mentioned that they were going to spend a couple of years globetrotting, you might raise an eyebrow and ask a few questions. But 200 years ago, when a young Charles Darwin was handed the opportunity of a lifetime, this was unheard of. What must his friends and family have made of what would have been quite a risky adventure?

There’s little of this kind of personal reflection in Darwin’s account of his five years circumnavigating the planet, although he is quite sentimental when drawing comparisons with the many new horizons that he encounters and his homeland.

His famous voyage took him to untouched wildernesses that gap-year travellers and scientists alike can only read about today. So between paragraphs of infinitely detailed discussion of strange new flora and fauna he trapped (and often dissected), Darwin describes volcano islands and soaring cliffs with the fabulous prose of an educated early Victorian gentleman.

Turns out, Darwin’s grandfather was a poet and natural philosopher, which doesn’t surprise us a bit.

This edition is, thankfully, more than just a reprint in hardback. It’s been furnished with illustrations and excerpts from Darwin’s later, scientific and cultural watershed work On The Origin Of Species, as well as modern photos that give his memoirs appreciable context. And there are notes from the captain of the Beagle, Robert Fitzroy, in the form of small boxes of text for a well-rounded perspective of their journey from start to finish. The Voyage Of The Beagle is compulsory reading for any biologist and this particular volume, while far from travel-sized, could be a source of inspiration for those bitten by the travel bug.

Uncover the story of the monarch that faced the Vikings

Author Edoardo Albert and Katie Tucker Publisher Amberley
Price £9.99 Released Out now

After a high-profile excavation in Winchester in early 2014, led by osteologist and archaeologist Katie Tucker, the remains of an iconic British monarch were found in a rather un-royal cardboard box, kept in a museum’s storage for years.

This reignited interest in one of Britain’s most famous kings, and inspired the release of this retelling of Alfred the Great’s life. While arguably the book’s largest selling point, the actual discovery is not covered until chapter 12: The Post-Mortem Story of Alfred. Edoardo Albert spends the remaining chapters following his “main character”, a distraught and defeated King Alfred.

Chronicling Alfred’s rise as a leader from an early age, including the untimely death of his father Æthelwulf, Albert paints a picture of a wise and conflicted ruler. Often taking Alfred’s point of view, Albert’s contribution to the book reads more like a cinematic experience resembling the History Channel show Vikings than a work of nonfiction. His resume, including the historical fiction trilogy The Northumbrian Thrones, explains this style, and it certainly increases the entertainment value of the book.

It is, however, in stark contrast to Dr Katie Tucker’s contribution to the book. The book comes with a few pages of informative images, including artefacts and documents from Alfred’s time as a ruler, and the very pelvic bone thought to belong to the king himself. While they certainly add to the experience of the book, they appear quite abruptly amid Albert’s retelling of Alfred’s life story. While certainly an entertaining and well-written read for fans of historical fiction, if you were hoping for an in-depth breakdown of Alfred’s rule, the book might not deliver.

SOLDIER SLANG OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR

From ‘ack-ack’ to ‘ziff’, soldiers used slang to help get them through the horrors of war

Author Emily Brewer Publisher Amberley Price £8.99 Released Out now

Emily Brewer’s Soldier Slang Of The First World War introduces the reader to almost every piece of dialect used by soldiers during the Great War. Whether it was used to describe a German mortar (blind pig) or a local Belgian town (Wipers instead of Ypres), the puns, neologisms, slang, dialect, and mispronunciations entertained the troops, kept them out of trouble with their officers and could even help them escape a sticky situation. The book does a sterling job of presenting the many phrases of the era. Appearing in alphabetical order, words can easily be found on repeated reads and are all accompanied by a short and interesting description. Did you know ‘Tommy’, slang for a British soldier, came from the standard recruitment form example name ‘Tommy Atkins’?

Flicking through the book, familiar words still in use today jump out. ‘Backchat’, ‘binge’, ‘blighty’, ‘chat’, ‘chum’, ‘posh’ and ‘scrounge’ were all used frequently by Brits during the war and ‘bootcamp’ and ‘cake walk’ arrived from over the Atlantic as popular American slang. Brewer doesn’t just stick to the Allied side and also delves into the words used by the Germans and Austrians. Perhaps not quite as interesting for the British reader, they nevertheless provide an interesting and alternative view on the war. One notable phrase is ‘England’s Schrecken’, which translates to ‘England’s Fear’. This terrifying nickname was used for the Zeppelin airships that terrorised Britain. Overall, the book does exactly what it says on the tin and makes some interesting insights into how soldiers on both sides chatted during the war. A personal favourite from the book is ‘dream sack’, which was a lovely piece of slang for ‘hammock’. The drive for it to be included in the Oxford English Dictionary starts here.
Where is this landmark located?

This golden roof was built by Emperor Maximilian I to quash rumours of financial difficulties in the Holy Roman Empire, but in which Austrian city can you see it?

Is it...
A. Salzburg  B. Innsbruck  C. Vienna

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What happened to Leon Trotsky?

Nick Connors, Macclesfield

Once a major player in the Bolshevik seize of power, Trotsky was, at a time, second only to Lenin in the communist pecking order. After the death of Lenin, there was a power struggle, and despite being Lenin's preferred successor, Trotsky was outmanoeuvred and lost out to fellow party member Joseph Stalin. Subsequently, he was banished to Alma-Ata in Central Asia. He was later exiled and lived abroad in various countries, including Turkey, Britain and Norway. Enraged and bitter over his shunning from the country he helped transform, he wrote frequently criticising Stalin and the new Soviet government. As a result, Trotsky was named an enemy of the people and 16 of his allies were executed. He eventually settled in Mexico in 1936 and resided there for four years before a machine-gun attack on his house. Trotsky survived, but a communist assassin by the name of Ramón Mercader, debatably sent by Stalin, infamously attacked him with an ice pick. Trotsky’s skull was punctured and he died in hospital the next day aged 60. Since Stalin’s demise, Trotsky’s memory has been put into a more positive light and if he had led the USSR, history could have been very different.

What was the key battle of the Spanish Civil War?

Mark Boyd, Maidstone

The ad-hoc nature of the civil war meant small skirmishes were more common than large battles. The Battle of Guadalajara is often cited as a major battle, and was an important victory for the Republicans against the Italian-supported Nationalists, but the 1938 Battle of the Ebro claims the title for bloodiest and perhaps most key battle. After surprise Republican attacks in July, the Nationalists were initially surrounded, but quick thinking by Franco turned the battle on its head. Fighting lasted until November when the Republicans were eventually exhausted with losses of 75,000 men. The battle was the most brutal of the war and helped extend the war as both sides reeled from their losses. The last Republican offensive of the war, the effects were felt harder by them as the Nationalists launched an offensive into Catalonia.
Who reached the South Pole first?

Sophie Turner, Warminster

This accolade goes to Roald Amundsen. The Norwegian explorer reached the southernmost point of the surface of the Earth with his four companions in December 1911. The last unexplored continent, many European nations registered an interest in achieving the feat but by 1911 it had boiled down to two countries: Norway and Britain. The experienced campaigner beat a British team led by Robert Falcon Scott, whose ‘Terra Nova Expedition’ arrived 33 days after Amundsen, and despite the Norwegians leaving a tent of surplus supplies behind, the journey ended in tragedy when they failed to make it out of the freezing Antarctic.
In 1963, when I was nine years old, I was taken to say a final goodbye to my grandfather, Albert Michel. This solemn visit is the only recollection that I have of him. There was always a mystery surrounding Albert’s early life. No one knew, for sure, anything about his parents or his siblings. Even his wife and their seven children knew very little about his early life. Later, I began to hear stories about how he once lived on a distant island named Jersey and how he had run away to serve on a British sailing ship. As I grew older I began to ask family members about my granddad and his life on the island of Jersey. Information was sketchy to say the least. When I was about 14, at a family gathering, I wrote on the back of a swimming certificate all I had learned that evening from my merry relatives. It wasn’t much, but I knew that I had to find out more. However, growing up got in the way and the certificate was forgotten for a while. 35 years later I came across it, and this became my prompt to get on with it. It had all the clues I needed.

Albert Michel was born on 22 April 1896 in Saint Helier, Jersey. His birth certificate names his father as Guy Michel and mother as Augustine Leferve. Albert left home at 14 for a life on the sea because he did not want to follow in his father’s footsteps as a shoemaker. The ship he joined was British and the captain, so the family story goes, wrote his name incorrectly in the ship’s log. From then on Albert Michel became Albert Mitchell.
Life in the Royal Navy was short lived, and six weeks after joining he was transferred to the Royal Naval Reserve (RNR). In that same month Albert married Zillah Isobel Jones. He was 20 years old and Zillah gave her age as 19. She was in fact only 16. The next record of Albert shows that he made two trips on Imperator, a passenger liner believed to have been taken from the Germans after World War I. It became the flagship of the Cunard Line and was rechristened Berengaria. It was one of the most popular liners of her time but was scrapped in 1938 after the introduction of Queen Mary and Queen Elizabeth two years earlier. After a succession of ships, there seems to be quite a gap between SS Innisholm in 1925 and his next voyage on 21 January 1939. Later that year, Britain and France declared war on Germany.

The last ship that I have a record of is Wild Rose. Albert sailed on it during World War II, and in 1941, on a voyage from Dublin to Cardiff, the Wild Rose was attacked by German aircraft. It received severe bomb damage and was beached. After temporary repairs were made, the ship was towed to Dublin where permanent maintenance was carried out and it returned to service. Albert was discharged from duty on 2 April 1940.

The family have no records or recollection of Albert Mitchell having gained any war medals. Neither is it known if he ever returned to Jersey. Albert is described by older family members as being a quiet man who rarely spoke about where he originated from or his time in the navy. Albert and Zillah lived for many years in Sussex until Albert died in 1963, with Zillah passing in 1969.
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At the Epsom Derby, Emily Davison says to the main character “never surrender, never give up the fight.” It’s a moving line, but it hints that she committed suicide, a theory many historians now disagree with. She is also believed to have worked alone on the day.

The gaining of the vote wasn’t down to just violence and hunger strikes. Obviously the film can’t cover everything, but it fails to mention the change of tactics during WWI, which was key to gaining the vote. Suffragettes weren’t always violent.

The Suffragists do not appear in the film. The members of the NUWSS were not as violent as the Suffragettes but still helped win the vote. One line at the start of the film dismisses the Suffragists’ contribution entirely. Sylvia and Christabel Pankhurst are also absent.

The absence of the Labour Party is questionable. Sylvia Pankhurst was a socialist feminist and the Suffrage movement did have links with the young Labour Party. It barely mentions Prime Minister Asquith and Lloyd-George is the sole antagonist.

The film makes a point of showing that the movement wasn’t just led by Pankhurst. The WSPU is correctly portrayed as a group that attracted members from all levels of society and different classes, and appealed to those who laboured in the workhouses as much as it did to upper-class ladies.
Presenting a selection of World War One figures perfect for depicting life behind the lines in the third year of one of the biggest conflicts of the 20th century.

1:30 Scale

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