ALL ABOUT HISTORY

ROME’S CIVIL WAR

CAESAR VS THE SENATE

Did tyrannical ambition doom the Republic and forge Rome’s imperial legacy?

GANDHI: THE RISE OF A REVOLUTIONARY

ELIZABETH I’S ALCHEMIST

Meet the dark magician at the heart of the Tudor court

EVACUEE STORIES

How Britain’s children were saved from Nazi bombs

AMERICAN WASTELAND

Survivor stories of the USA’s Dust Bowl disaster

HISTORY OF TATTOOS

From ancient artistry to modern inked Marines

VIVE LE VIN!

Raise a glass to the rich and varied history of wine
A strong and disciplined Roman Army was the key guarantee of that.
In towns, forts and camps throughout the Empire Rome’s many Legions manned the ramparts, fought the battles and led the way in extending the borders of the Empire to the farthest reaches of the then-known world.

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Welcome

As one of the most influential figures in ancient history, Julius Caesar's story is well known and well trodden, but we wanted to focus a little closer on a particular period in the Roman leader's life; the last few years before he met his bloody end. What has come to be known as Caesar's Civil War is a story of betrayed former allies, power-hungry ambition, political collapse. It's the story of a rising autocrat but also of a collapsing political system fighting for its life and so much more.

We're pleased to have historian and author Paul Chrystal join us this issue to walk us through the key events in the build-up to this conflict, from Caesar's victories in Gaul to the collapse of his relationship with Pompey and ultimately to his assassination and how his killers were able to align against him. He's written extensively on the fall of the Roman Republic and rise of the Empire and he has some excellent insights to share this issue.

Elsewhere we explore the environmental collapse of America's farming communities during the Great Depression in what's known as the Dust Bowl, we mark Gandhi's 150th birthday, chart the history of tattoos and celebrate the teachers who protected children in World War II, among other things. We had particular fun this issue looking at the history of wine for our All About section. Any drinking that occurred was purely for research purposes.

Jonathan Gordon
Editor

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Editor's picks

Gandhi Anniversary
To mark his 150th birthday, we welcome Dr Tanzi Ahmed who looks at the evolution of Gandhi's protest philosophy and some of the challenges it faces.

Magic And Maths
Our own Andrew Lioy explores the fascinating career of mathematician Ada Lovelace, John Dee, and his peculiarities of science and mysticism.

Taking Care
We're delighted to have WWII evacuation expert Gillian Munson join this issue to tell the story of the teachers who looked after Britain's evacuated children.

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CONTENTS

ROME’S CIVIL WAR

CAESAR VS THE SENATE

28 Inside the historic fight for the soul of Rome as the mighty Julius Caesar wrestled for control of an empire

WINE

14 Timeline
From vine to vino

18 Anatomy
A medieval enologist

20 Hall Of Fame
Champions of wine

22 Q&A
Dr Patrick McGovern

24 Places To Explore
Historic vineyards

26 Historical Treasures
The spyere: wine bottle

FEATURES

40 Gandhi: Rise Of A Revolutionary
To mark his birthday, we take a look at the evolution of the Mahatma and how his approach to activism changed throughout his life.

48 Elizabeth I’s Alchemist
Learn about the work of John Dee, the man who melded magic and mathematics for the Tudors

54 American Wasteland
The herbs of life inside the Dust Bowl during the Great Depression

60 History Of Tattoos
Ancient ink to modern markings

68 Teachers And Evacuation
Stories of the educators who protected Britain’s children

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DEFINING MOMENTS

SOMETHING COMPLETELY DIFFERENT

On 5 October 1969 the first episode of Monty Python's Flying Circus aired on BBC 1. Created by and starring John Cleese, Eric Idle, Graham Chapman, Michael Palin, Terry Jones and Terry Gilliam, the show would run for four series until 1974 and spin off into live shows and feature films. The first series included the famous Dead Parrot Sketch, which aired in episode eight.

1969
Defining Moments

Start of a Legacy

Seventeen-year-old Serena Williams won her first ever singles grand slam at the US Open on 11 September 1999. A hard-fought victory over world number one Martina Hingis would kick off a dominating singles career for the next 20 years that has seen Williams win 23 grand slam titles since. The very next day, having won her first singles grand slam, she would win her second doubles grand slam with sister Venus Williams.

1999
COMMUNIST CHINA

After four years of civil war between the Communist Party and Kuomintang, communist leader Mao Zedong stood in Peking (now Beijing) to declare the creation of the People’s Republic of China. Nationalist forces led by Chiang Kai-shek retreated to the island of Taiwan and hostilities would continue. Here Mao and other Communist Party officials gather at the Gate of Heavenly Peace north of Tiananmen Square to announce their victory.

1949
“A bottle of wine contains more philosophy than all the books in the world”

Louis Pasteur
ALL ABOUT WINE

From the earliest fermentation of grapes to vast vineyards scattered around the globe, we explore the rich and curious history of wine making.

Written by Jessica Leggett, Jonathan Gordon, David Croulkes
History of Wine

Grape cultivation 3000 BCE
The production of wine through grape fermentation comes on leaps and bounds in the Levant and spreads to Egypt where it takes hold in the Nile Delta. Red wine was an important element of symbolic ceremonies given its similarity to blood. However, white wine residue was found in the tomb of Tutankhamun.

Did you know?
Yeast occurs naturally in the skins of grapes, which is likely how alcoholic drinks like wine were discovered.

FIRST WINES 7000 BCE
The first known evidence of wine production dates back to ancient China. It has been confirmed to have been made from fermented ingredients, similar to red wine from later periods.

7000 BCE

EARLY WINERY 4000 BCE
The Negev Desert Province in Armenia is home to the earliest known example of a winery. Sining on the Arar River, the Assi River, the Lake Tsimihegeannom is known for its winemaking.

4000 BCE

BRAND NAME 2000 BCE
The first recorded named wine, Demetra, is from this period and is thought to have been made from the Lamella grape, a variety of which, Lamella, is still grown today.

2000 BCE

Feast of Wine 1800 BCE
Mythological Greece celebrates the month of midwine with a Feast of Wine. Dionysus, the god of the grape harvest, was honoured regularly.

1800 BCE

Wine Famine 83 CE
The eruption of Vesuvius in destroying Pompeii and Herculaneum devastated the Roman wine industry. The city was renowned for its wine drinking and its 78 CE crop was lost, leading to reduced wine production.

83 CE

WINE LAWS 70 CE
The wine laws were made with wine being a tax in the provinces and being sold in bulk at a wine shop.

70 CE

Saving wine knowledge 75 CE
When the Romans destroy the city of Carthage in the Third Punic War, it is notable that the work of Mago, an agricultural author, is saved from the Library and taken back to Rome to be translated. His chronicle of North African wine-making was clearly valued highly.

75 CE

Drinking pearls 22 BCE
It was thought to be a legend that Cleopatra drank a pearl from a cup of wine to win a bet with Mark Antony that she could "drink the value of a province", but it appears that the practice may have been more common than previously imagined. It was thought dissolved pearls had health benefits.

22 BCE
Scientific breakthrough 1859
Louis Pasteur's research with pasteurisation promises significant advances in the fight against disease for wine crops going forward. Something similar to Pasteur's methods had been used in China, but his scientific method helps to spread the knowledge even further, revolutionising food safety.

Did you know?
Louis Pasteur studied fermentation extensively, publishing his 'germ theory of fermentation' in 1857.

Prohibition 1920
Alcohol prohibition in the United States has a massive effect on the wine industry there, with closures of vineyards up and down the nation as well as of distilleries and haulage firms. In California, only 150 of an original 700 wineries manage to survive prohibition.

Bordeaux and Britain 1152
The marriage of Henry II and Eleanor of Aquitaine brings Bordeaux under British control and spurs a boom for wine production, especially among Catholic orders.

Perignon principles 1778
The Comte de Guevara publishes a list of wine-making tips and guidelines based on the teachings of Dom Perignon, helping to spread the wine-making knowledge of Champagne.

America wins 1976
In a stunning upset, Californian wines from Chateau Montelena beat French competitors in a blind taste test at the 1976 Paris Wine Tasting, known as the Judgement of Paris.

War and wine 1337
Wine production in Europe is hit severely by the Black Death, followed by the Black Death sweeping across the continent.

Missionary Drew 1808
The Spanish ship, planting grapes in Mexico for use in making wine for Catholic mass. The name of Mission-Grape is still around to this day with varieties spreading into South America.

Champagne riots 1919
Despite advances, crops continue to be lost to disease with the latest affecting the Champagne region. Claims that some vineyards are importing non-Champagne grapes leads to mass protests by farmers.

Wine blight 1883
French wine-makers are struck with a Phylloxera (an almost microscopic insect, similar to aphids) infestation that begins to reach across Europe. Between two-thirds and nine-tenths of European vineyards are lost to the vine-sapping blight, with wine production in France dropping from 84.5 million hectolitres in 1875 to 23.4 million hectolitres in 1889.

Battle of the wines 1224
Philip II of France puts on the first wine tasting contest, recorded in a poem by Henry d’Andeli. The wines were tasted by an English priest who rated them as Celebrated (good) or Ecommunicated (bad). The victor was a sweet wine from Cyprus, which was named the Apostle (winner) of the contest.
In 1990 and 1991, a Roman winery was discovered in the Mosel region of Germany. It is understood that the Romans had brought viticulture to this region by cultivating and harvesting grapes in vineyards along the Mosel and Rhine rivers so it was fitting that they had created facilities best equipped for creating wine.

This particular example was unearthed near Brauneberg on the vineyards of Brauneberger Jurfer Sonnenelb and it is believed to date back to 210 CE. It was a tidy-looking construction, with thoughts given over to both the process and the workers – a good number of them slaves. Dug into the deepening earth, it remains in use during an annual wine festival, showing the continued effectiveness of this age-old idea.

Brauneberg is certainly typical of a wooden winepress that used large beams and a screw to exert pressure on the solid remains of grapes in order to produce a juice that would ferment into wine. It was more productive than simply trampling the grapes alone and a good 150,000 square metres (35 hectares) could be served by each winery, ensuring that there would be a plentiful supply for market.

Such wineries have been found across the former Roman Empire, in areas that can take advantage of a mountainous landscape and sunny climate, such as Israel. It’s no surprise, however. Wine was a popular drink – and remains so today – so quenching that thirst needed producers to constantly refine the process.

It would affect the wine, though. Presses such as these would result in darker wines that were sometimes more bitter but it would usually depend on the care taken. Of course, the Romans knew that storing wine would allow small amounts of oxygen to react with the tannins and make the taste more complex and pleasant so they gave good thought to that too.
The pressing basin
When ready and needed, the stomped-upon grapes from the treading pool would be manually transferred to the adjacent pressing basin that contained a wooden basket press. The idea was to carefully extract as much juice as possible from the grapes without crushing the seeds – doing so would release bitter tasting ‘tannins’.

Allowed to ferment
The fermentation process began when the wine was in the large vessel. The yeast on the skin of the grapes reacts with the sugars in the juice, turning them into alcohol. To ensure a stable temperature, the containers or wooden barrels storing the juice would be buried close to their tops in the earth.

Transporting them away
Following fermentation, the ceramic containers or barrels were dug back out of the ground and taken to the market where they were sold to enthusiastic buyers. In most cases, water was added to the wine before it was drunk and it would also be mixed with other substances such as honey.

The treading pool
The earliest wine presses are likely to have involved bare-footed workmen manually treading grapes and it was a practice which stood the test of time. Up to five cubic metres of fresh grapes would be poured into a large pool such as this where they were crushed under foot by workers who would often hold each other for support.

Filling up
After flowing into a trough, the juice would make its way from the top-left basin and settle into the two basins below. It was now ready to be collected by the workers, with all of the basins containing steps so that the men could get inside and empty them properly.

Easy access
The workers would be able to get around the wine press by using the middle steps that would lead to a wide accessible platform. It would allow them to easily fill the top basins and climb inside, although ladders may have also been used, propped up against the press’ side.

Collecting the wine
More workmen would lean over the bottom basins to scoop out the juice that was flowing down through the hole or spout from the upper-left basin. They would do this using easily handled pottery that they would then use to fill larger ceramic containers or wooden barrels, ready for storage.
**Honoured Role**

While acting as a cupbearer was a position of service to the monarch, it was also often filled by high-ranking and noble members of the court since the person was both the ruler at all times and needed to be trusted implicitly. It was a highly esteemed position to have in the court.

**First Defender**

Monarchs through ancient and medieval history were always paranoid about attempted assassinations, but not without reason. The threat of poisoning was real and so the role of cupbearer was the first line of defence for the life of the ruler. It was potentially a high-risk role.

**Trusted Advisor**

A cupbearer could be trusted enough to protect the cup of the monarch as well as testing all of their food. From it, it stands to reason they could be trusted with national secrets. A cupbearer would often be a loyal advisor to the monarch, offering their advice and input behind closed doors.

**Ancient Heritage**

The role of cupbearer goes back many thousands of years in ancient history and was held by many notable figures. Perhaps one of the more famous was Sargon of Akkad, who acted as cupbearer for Cbibarba of Ur and would later ascend to be the first emperor of the Akkadian Empire himself in 2334 BCE.

**Server of Wine**

On top of serving the monarch and making sure their cup was always filled, a cupbearer would also serve other honoured guests at the king or queen’s table, pouring wine and so on. This would also make them privy to a lot of conversations with leading figures.

**Taste Tester**

One well-known activity of the cupbearer was to be the taster of drinks and often also food before the monarch would drink and eat. This was to make sure that refreshment brought to the monarch had not been tampered with, poisoned or generally be of poor quality. However, this was sometimes a separate role entirely.
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Hall of Fame
CHAMPIONS OF WINE
Discover ten figures known for their association with wine

JAMES BUSBY
Scottish 1802-1871
Having studied viticulture in France, Busby took his knowledge and love for wine with him when he moved to Australia in 1824. Travelling back to France and Spain to learn more about winemaking, Busby brought back the first vine cuttings to Australia, including the popular Shiraz vine. As a result, he is often referred to as the father of the Australian wine industry, which is further honed by the fact that he planted, produced and sold the first New Zealand wine in 1835.

ZHANG QIAN
Chinese 214 BC - 141 AD
During the Han Dynasty, Emperor Wu sent military, diplomatic, and exploratory missions to the West. Through the course of his travels, Zhang Qian encountered grape wine in the kingdom of Dian and brought the grape vines back, introducing both wine and winemaking to China. The Chinese vines were used to establish vineyards for the Emperor, who became very interested in vine cultivation and encouraged Western winemakers to visit China.

MADAME BARBE-NICOLE CLICQUOT
FRENCH 1772-1866
Often cited as the ‘Great Dame of Champagne’, Clicquot inherited her husband’s failing wine business, Veuve Clicquot, following his death in 1805. Convincing her father-in-law to invest in the business, she learnt the skills necessary to make champagne, creating the world’s first known vintage in 1810. Realising that the Russians enjoyed sweet champagne, Clicquot made the risky decision to export her bottles to Russia following the end of the Napoleonic Wars, where it proved extremely popular and saved Clicquot’s business from bankruptcy. To meet demand, Clicquot also invented the method of riddling to quickly remove dead yeast from the champagne and speed up production.

ELEANOR OF AQUITAINE
FRENCH 1122-1204
While Eleanor of Aquitaine was not overly interested in wine, her marriage to the future King Henry II of England in 1152 changed the fortunes of the Bordeaux wine region. As a result of the marriage, Eleanor’s lands in Aquitaine— which included Bordeaux—were joined with the crown of England. Following Henry’s accession in 1154, the wine trade between the two countries grew significantly, with Bordeaux wine earning the royal seal of approval.
ÉMILE PEYNAUD  
FRENCH 1912-2004

Peynaud revolutionised winemaking in the 20th century, producing better, more flavoursome wines by showing winemakers the importance of detail in both the vineyards and cellars. His work particularly benefited his native region, Bordeaux, where he worked as Professor of Oenology at the University of Bordeaux.

KING JAMSHID  
PERSEAN NA-XA

It is said that the legendary king of Persia, Jamshid, was so fond of grapes that he kept them in jars so that he could eat them all year round. However, when they fermented it was assumed that the liquid was poisonous and therefore drunk. After losing the king’s favour, one of his mistresses drank the liquid out of despair and fell ill. When she woke up feeling much better, the mistress showed the liquid to Jamshid, who loved it. Welcoming her mistresses back, Jamshid declared that from that moment onwards, all the grapes in Persia would be used to produce wine.

DIONYSUS  
GREEK NA-XA

In Greek mythology, Dionysus was the god of wine, winemaking, ecstasy and fertility. The son of Zeus and Semele, a mortal princess, Dionysus was known for his dual personality, which encompassed joy as well as drunkenness and rage. His image was widely used in ancient Greek art, with a number of surviving vases depicting Dionysus presiding over the process of winemaking, often while holding grapes and wine from a cauldron. Every year at the beginning of spring, the Dionysia festival was held in his honour to celebrate the cultivation of the vines, with various performances of tragedies and comedies.

DOM PÉRIGNON  
FRANÇAISE

According to the popular tale, Benedictine monk Dom Pérignon discovered bubbles in still wine whilst working as the cellarmaster at the Abbey of Hautvillers in the old province of Champagne. However, this is a fanciful story, as sparkling wine was already being produced in France and it was actually Pérignon’s task to find a way to prevent the wine from fermenting for a second time, which caused the bubbles. Nevertheless, he did successfully develop a technique that produced a white wine from red grapes and introduced pioneering winemaking methods.

PLINY THE ELDER  
ROMAN 23 CE-79 CE

As a man who loved wine, it is perhaps no surprise that Pliny dedicated a whole book in his Naturalis Historia to wine. Book 14 (out of 37) was solely on the history of wine, viticulture and vitification, in which he wrote extensively on the process of wine making and complained about the popularity of cheap wines. Pliny also described around 90 different grapes used by the Romans to make wine and declared that Italy is at the centre of wine production. Although he admitted that he personally knew very few skilled viticulturists.

THOMAS JEFFERSON  
AMERICAN 1743-1826

Before he was the president of the United States, Thomas Jefferson was America’s minister to France. He travelled to France in 1787, where he explored the vineyards at Burgundy and Bordeaux, igniting his love for wine. Even after his return, Jefferson continued to order large quantities of wine from Bordeaux and even established two vineyards at his home in Monticello, Virginia. Although these were unsuccessful, they were re-established in the 1980s and today produce many award-winning wines.

The most expensive bottle of wine ever sold at auction, believed to have belonged to Thomas Jefferson, was uncovered as a fake in 2005.
Q&A With...

DR PATRICK McGOVERN

THE LEADING EXPERT IN ANCIENT WINES TALKS ABOUT HIS GROUNDBREAKING WORK DISCOVERING AND EVEN RECREATING LOST ALCOHOLIC BEVERAGES

Ancient Brews: Rediscovered & Re-Created is out now from WW Norton & Company

Dr. Patrick E. McGovern is the scientific director of the Biomolecular Archaeology Project for Cuisine, Fermented Beverages and Health at the University of Pennsylvania Museum in Philadelphia. His previous books include Ancient Wine and Inebriating The Past. Learn more at https://www.museum.upenn.edu/museum/press/archaeology.
Q&A With...

1. HOW DID YOU GET STARTED HUNTING FOR EVIDENCE OF FERMENTED BEVERAGES AROUND THE WORLD?

As an undergraduate at Cornell University, I was drawn to both the humanities and sciences, and finally settled on a major in chemistry and a minor in English literature. I went to medical school and studied neurochemistry, but then I got interested in the origins of humanized and went into archaeology. After my Ph.D. at the University of Pennsylvania, I returned to the scientific community with the archaeology and science, especially when I went to work at the Museum of Anthropology and Archaeology (MAA) at the Penn Museum, where I began an innovative archaeological chemistry and economic program focusing on inorganic analytical remains (pottery, glass, etc.) and then moving on to organic 'eyes' foods and ultimately ancient fermented beverages.

2. YOU'VE ALSO EXPLORED HOW AGRICULTURE COULD BE DRIVEN BY THE PURSUIT OF FERMENTED PRODUCTS, SUCH AS WHEAT CULTIVATED TO MAKE BEER OR BREAD?

The question of 'Which came first? Bread or Beer' crucially depends on how difficult each is to make. Beer is easier, in my opinion, because as a liquid, its starches will readily be converted to sugar that then ferments due to insects inoculating the 'wort' with yeast in their bodies when they are attracted to the sugary connection. No baking is required, like bread. But other high-sugar products as well, like honey, and also high-sugar fruits and tree nectars are even more easily fermented, because yeast is directly associated with them and requires no inoculation of the diluted honey, fruit juice, or sap. To make any of these natural products in quantity, additional expertise (eg beekeeping, poultry and archeology) are needed, and this would have stimulated the rise of more complex societies and eventually civilization, as we know. In the case of beer in Luristan Mesopotamia and Egypt where the first literate societies arose, specialized systems of agriculture and irrigation spurred on the rise of cities.

3. SOME OF YOUR DISCOVERIES HAVE BEEN FROM ARCHIVED ARTIFACTS. OTHERS FROM NEW DISCS. DOES IT MAKE A DIFFERENCE TO YOUR WORK TO BE PHYSICALLY IN THE FIELD?

Being in the field is always better, but not always possible. In the field, I get to see the situation in which the find was made so you can assess how suitable it is for chemical residue analysis. You can assess the surrounding soil, the water table, and other non-human factors of importance. Assessing the human context is also very important. Was the artifact of interest found in a tomb, an occupational context, or possibly a garbage pit? Can it be exactly dated? What was found in association with it that might elucidate its significance? You don't want to spend time and money on poorly dated, possibly contaminated artifacts of little importance. So I always feel that being in the field is the best idea, but then you have to travel there and that can sometimes be a bit of a struggle. The second-best option is to ensure you've got good archaeologists excavating there. Washing the artifacts should be minimal. Originally the Georgian sherds were put through a hydrochloric acid bath and of course hydrochloric acid really destroys organic detail, so we had problems getting good results from those early sherds that I got from earlier excavations. Now we send the sherds from current organic excavations without washing it. They also collect the soil around the artifact to serve as a chemical background for microbial production of the fragmentary compounds that we are in search of to determine the original natural products. Then, we lightly wash the artifacts with distilled water and then proceed from there with our analysis.

4. FROM ANALYSING SAMPLES YOU'VE TAKEN THE NEXT STEP OF RECREATING DRINKS AND ENTIRE MEALS, SUCH AS THE KING MIDAS FUNERARY FEAST?

That was the first chemical reconstruction of an ancient fermented beverage that we did, and it turned out remarkably well. We had literally pounds of residue from the University of Pennsylvania Museum's excavation of Gordon in central Turkey, dating to about 790-700 BC. We hit the food and beverage residues inside the largest Iron Age drinking set with every sensitive scientific technique available at the time. As a result, we were able to recreate the culinary dimensions of the funerary feast in great detail at the Penn Museum in September 2000. A fitting way to mark the new millennium from Culinary at Dogfish Head Brewery took charge of the drink, while Penn Hortz, the Museum's excellent chef prepared the spectacular main course, the spicy, barbecued lamb stew. The event was huge success, and many more recreations followed around the States.

5. THAT PRESUMABLY LED YOU WORKING ON AWARD-WINNING DRINKS WITH DOGFISH HEAD BREWERY?

Yes, Midas Touch has won a ton of awards. Gold - which is appropriate - but also plenty of silvers and bronzes. It is the most awarded of any Dogfish brew. But I have a special place in my heart for what is thus far the most ancient alcoholic beverage identified. Chateau Juifs is the name of the Dogfish recreation, and its formulation based on our analysis of residues from inside pottery jars excavated at Juifs in the emirate of Bahrain Yellow River, dated to about 6000-5500 BCE. The Midas discovery is relative newcomer by comparison. I was fortunate enough to be at the Great American Beer Festival in Denver in 2008 when Chateau received its gold medal. I plowed in our lab, together with one of the sherds we analyzed and the first bottle of Chateau Juifs, to make a small shrive. I bow down to it when I enter the lab, in the hope that we will make more discoveries.
**Places to Explore**

**WINE-MAKING LOCATIONS**

Raise a glass to the world’s finest traditional wineries and vineyards

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1. **Boschendal Winery**

   After 800 French Huguenot refugees fled religious persecution and arrived in South Africa in 1685, one of them, Jean le Long, was granted 60 hectares of land by the Dutch East India Company. He promptly set about establishing a farm, introducing vines in an area considered perfect for growing grapes.

   Although the farm has changed hands many times since — with the De Villiers family owning it between 1775 and 1879 — it continues to produce high-quality wine. Tastings take place in the Manor House, a splendid example of Cape Dutch architecture built in 1892, and it is possible to take tours of the vineyards, farm, and cellars.

   The vineyards had been largely destroyed in 1890 by sap-sucking insects called phylloxera that had been introduced into Europe by Victorian English botanists more than three decades earlier. The estate was promptly rescued by South Africa’s then Prime Minister Cecil Rhodes whose decision to re-establish vineyards on the best of the area’s land has seen winemaking flourish.

   The Manor House is open daily between 10am and 5pm, with tours of the vineyard taking place on Saturdays between November and April, and the cellar’s daily tours at 1:30pm and 3pm daily. Booking is essential for each, with prices ranging from 60 to 250 South African Rand (R33 to R48). [Visit website](https://www.boschendal.com)

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2. **Maison Ruinart**

   Ruinart began producing champagne in 1729 and his cellars have been used since 1998, lying as deep as 38 metres below ground level. But while they are among the Champagne region’s largest, you get to spend two hours on your subterranean stroll, they nevertheless make up a mere fraction of the dozens of miles of tunnels and cellars that offer producers a constant 11 degrees Celsius.

   Such is their significance, the cellars have been classified as a historic monument since 1941. They were also the attraction that prompted other Champagne Houses to form, which is certainly something to celebrate.

   Visits to the crayères must be booked in advance though Ruinart’s website, with adults charged at CA$ per person and children able to accompany for free. Choose your date at [Visit website](https://www.ruinart.com/en).
Having begun grape planting in New York's Hudson Valley in 1810, Jean Jacques bought extra land in 1827 and, in 1840, ordered the digging of underground cellars so that he could ferment his first wine. He went on to pass the winery to his three sons, John Jr., Oren and Charles, who renamed the business 'The Jacques Brothers Winery.'

The same network of cellars - the largest in the US - is still in existence and it is filled with more than 200 oak barrels. Guides take visitors on a tour of the vaults, with an option to taste some of the blends at the end. You’ll also get to see a 19th century stone building constructed by the Emmons called the Grand Saloon, which is now used for events. It contains the original wooden floors and impressive iron chandeliers.

The winery has actually been an active wine making center for many decades. Louis Farrel and son, Louis Jr., bought the business in 1931 and steered the winery through Prohibition by producing sacramental wine for the Catholic Church. But it was taken over by three Farrell cousins in 1947, with Francis Farrell starting a visitor tour. Time your visit right and you may get to nosy around a large house built by Jean Jacques in 1837, too. It has been renovated and it will be opening to the public soon.

Tours run Monday to Friday at 11.30pm, 1pm, 2pm and 3.30pm but at weekends, the times depend on how many people form each group. Tours cost $10, tastings $10 and combined tickets $15. [https://www.brotherhood-winery.com]

**KAKHETI REGION**

A mere visit to the region of Kakheti in Georgia will make you tipsy since offers of a glass of wine are seemingly on every corner. This is to be expected, however, since the country’s winemaking traditions stretch back to 6000 BCE, stemming from a realisation that burried grape juice stands aged in large earthenware vessels called Kvevri would ferment and become wine over winter. Production has certainly had its ups and downs. Between 1855 and 1867 in the latter part of Georgia’s long spell as a Soviet Socialist Republic, for instance, President Mikhail Gorbachev started an anti-alcohol campaign and it took some time for the wine industry to recover. But it flourishing once again today and you can visit many wineries, a good number of which continue to use traditional techniques of production.

Stay at Chateau Mere winery or just embark on a wine tasting tour with prices starting from €105 Georgian Lari (€30). See [https://mere.ge](https://mere.ge) for more details. Kakheti is home to many other wineries.

**CODORNIU WINERY**

Freixenet and Codorniu go head-to-head for the accolade of best cava. But although both are produced in the north-eastern Catalonia region of Spain, Codorniu can trace its wine-making roots to 1551 (going back to Jaime Codorniu) whereas Freixenet began production in 1872. Initially, the Codorniu family operated their winery alone but when Anna Codorniu married Miguel Raventós in 1629, it brought another maker into the fold. Indeed, it was Josep Raventós Fatjós who produced the company’s first batch of cava in 1872. It makes Codorniu the oldest producer of Spain’s sparkling wine and it is also the country’s oldest family firm. Visitors are most certainly welcome and it’s also an opportunity to appreciate the Modernist architecture of the winery building. Commissioned by Manuel Raventós, who wanted the cellars to be close to the vineyards, it was enlarged by Josep Puig i Cadafalch, a contemporary of Gaudi and it is of such merit that it was declared National Historical-Artistic Heritage in 1976.

There is certainly much to do and see. It’s possible to descend into the underground cellars and see traditional cava-making machinery. There are exhibits of the traditional grape press and fermentation machinery too. Those over 18 will get to taste premium-range Codorniu cava and there is a cata tasting beginners course if you fancy educating your palate.

Reservations for the tours which last 90 minutes are recommended. They cost €36 for an adult ticket with a concessionary €12.80 ticket also available. Cava tasting beginners courses cost €42, for more, go to [https://www.visita2codorniu.com](https://www.visita2codorniu.com)
**Historical Treasures**

**THE SPEYER WINE BOTTLE**

**THE WORLD'S OLDEST UNOPENED BOTTLE OF WINE**

**GERMANY, C.325-350 CE**

When tracing the history of wine, it is impossible to deny the impact that ancient Rome had on the practices of winemaking and viticulture. As the Empire expanded, the Romans became increasingly influenced by the advanced winemaking techniques used by the regions they conquered, while also introducing production of the alcohol in countries such as France and Germany to provide a constant supply of wine for the Roman settlements located there.

This explains why the Speyer wine bottle, an extraordinary artifact of the ancient world, was discovered in the Rhineland-Palatinate region of Germany in 1967. It was found during the excavation of a tomb belonging to a Roman nobleman and his wife who, like many other Romans during the 4th century, were buried with a series of everyday items such as food and wine. Out of the 16 bottles found inside the grave, the Speyer bottle was the only one to remain intact and – to the amazement of archaeologists – it still contained its alcoholic liquid.

It is believed that the Speyer bottle, which is 1.5 litres, contains a white wine that was locally produced by the Romans and diluted with herbs. Against all odds, the wine had stayed preserved thanks to the bottle's wax seal and a thick layer of olive oil, successfully keeping it airtight for over 1,600 years. While the addition of oil has kept the wine protected, it has also caused a solid layer to form inside the bottle which, frankly, looks less than appetizing.

Although it was analysed by the Kaiser's chemists during World War I, the bottle has never been opened and remains on display at the Palatine Historical Museum in Speyer ever since its discovery, alongside other unique artifacts associated with wine. For years, it has been debated whether the bottle should be opened for scientific analysis but it is feared that the contents would not handle being exposed to air after remaining undisturbed for around 1,600 years and so far now, the Speyer wine bottle will remain unopened.

**GLASS BOTTLE**

Although wine is commonly sold in glass bottles today, glass was scarcely used for wine containers during the Roman era because it was considered too fragile, making the already rare Speyer wine even more remarkable.

**AN ACQUIRED TASTE?**

While microbiologists have stated that they believe the liquid inside the Speyer bottle would be safe to consume, it is likely that the wine will not taste like new after having aged for well over a millennium.

**ALCOHOL FREE**

Although it is famously known as the oldest unopened wine bottle in the world, scientists have speculated that it has lost its ethereal content over time and consequently, it is no longer the alcoholic wine that it once was.
HMS Victory
A09252V 1:180

Mould Tools made in 1965
Pack Illustration by Brian Knight, 1965.

Launched on May 7th 1765, HMS Victory gained its fame by becoming Admiral Nelson’s flagship during the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805. The victory at this battle ended Napoleon’s bid for mastery of the sea, but cost Admiral Nelson his life. She is now the oldest serving Royal Naval ship still in service.

Length 383mm Width 68mm Pieces 353

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ROME’S CIVIL WAR

CAESAR VS THE SENATE

Did tyrannical ambition doom the Republic and forge Rome’s imperial legacy?

Written by Paul Chrystal

We have all had our Rubicons to cross, we have all rolled the dice of fate, metaphorically if not actually. Important as these dilemmas are to us, they are nothing to what Julius Caesar agonised with: he was struggling with one of the most pivotal and challenging gambles in world history. We can of course only speculate, but as decision nights go, the night of 9/10 July 49 BCE for Caesar must have been the longest night of his life: to cross or not to cross...

The 91 BCE siege of Thessalodum was the last major conflict of Caesar’s Gallic Wars. After the fall of the town and the decisive Roman victory, Gaul was under Roman rule at last. Caesar decided to set an example and dispensed with the usual punishment of execution or selling the survivors into slavery. Instead, he had the hands of all surviving men of military age cut off, dispersing the mutilated prisoners throughout the province as an all too vivid demonstration of what happened to those who rebelled against Rome and how they were unable to take up arms again. Caesar then took two legions and marched into Aquitania. Confident that there would be no further Gallic insurrection, he marched with the Legio XIII for Italy, the Rubicon and Rome in his sights.
To put Caesar's achievement into perspective, the Transalpine Gaul he subdued and brought into Rome's orbit was double the size of the whole Italian peninsula and more populous than the province of Hispania. Caesar got the military glory he wanted at a critical juncture in his career, and the prodigious booty he acquired paid off some of his enormous debts, allowing him to buy political favours and alliances on a scale that would not have disappointed a Hannibal. Rome also got stability in Gaul, which lasted until the second century CE. Caesar returned to Italy, cast his die, crossed the Rubicon and eventually died amid a salvo of stabbing daggers in the Forum on the Ides of March 44 BCE.

In 50 BCE, a victorious Julius Caesar returned to Italy to find a Rome in which Pompey was in the ascendant. Caesar, though, was a war hero and ever popular with the people, factors that made the Senate nervous. In a bid to prevent him from being voted consul in absentia on the conclusion of his governorship, the Senate demanded he resign command of his army. In December 50 BCE, Caesar wrote to the Senate agreeing to do this if Pompey did likewise. An outraged Senate repeated its demand to Caesar, saying he must agree or be declared an enemy of the people. This was an illegal move, since Caesar was entitled to retain his command until the expiry of his governorship.

But Caesar too was nervous and anxious. The much-coveted second consulship would bring with it the welcome safety of imperium and immunity against the inevitable prosecutions which awaited him for alleged irregularities during his consulship and in his Gallic campaigns. These prosecutions, if brought and proven, would send Caesar politically impotent and marginalise him. While Caesar's supporters — the tribunes Marcus Antonius and Quintus Cassius Longinus — vetoed the bill against Caesar, they were expelled from Rome by the Senate. They joined Caesar, who had by now assembled his army ready for action. Pompey levelled charges of insubordination and treason against Caesar. The agonising decision for Caesar as to whether or not to ford the Rubicon with his troops beckoned, all the time made all the easier.

The rift between the two widened further when Pompey fell ill in Naples in 50 BCE. His recovery was met with public rejoicing and sacrifices of thanksgiving throughout Italy. Nothing could have been more galling for Caesar; indeed, Plutarch records that this was said to have done more than anything else to ignite the subsequent civil war. However, the adulation and dancing in the streets that Pompey enjoyed on his journey back to Rome made him arrogant, careless and contemptuous of Caesar. The following year would see the two men fighting each other in a civil war.

On 7 January 49 BCE, the Senate demanded that Caesar, then in Ravenna, surrender his ten legions to a new Cisalpine Gaul governor. Caesar recorded that this was said 'The agonising decision for Caesar as to whether or not to ford the Rubicon with his troops beckoned'
chose not to, quoting Menander: “the die is cast” (alea iacta est). During the night of 10/11 January, the Legio XIII and Caesar advanced to Rimini.

If the Senate believed that the northern threat would oppose Caesar then they were mistaken. If anything, the Italians were quite blase, unexcited because the coming conflict was for once not going to destroy their fields and towns. Moreover, the establishment Senate was up against a legion, the XIII, that was highly incentivised and motivated. They were fighting for significant bonuses and for their pensions: no win, no pension payments. All the Senate could depend on was the Legio XV - which was far from dependable as it had fought with Caesar in Gaul. The Legio V, VIII, XII and XVI soon joined Caesar. Aware of Pompey’s seven veteran legions in Spain, Caesar posted three legions to the Pyrenees to block any Republican moves from the west.

Pompey held three legions in Italy, as well as his main army in Spain, with access to thousands of recruits from African and Asian provinces, whose rulers owed their sovereignty to him. Pompey was also at the helm of Rome’s fleet of 500 warships and light galleys, maximising his mobility and enabling him to transfer forces from one theatre to another as events demanded.

When Caesar rolled his metaphorical dice and made his decision on 10 January 49 BCE to cross the Rubicon at the head of Legio XIII Gemina, he was only too aware of the associated aftermath and of its irrevocable consequences. The river was the boundary between Cisalpine Gaul and Italy: crossing it with an army was a legally proscribed action, forbidden to every commander. The prohibition and the prescription were designed as a last resort protection for the Roman Republic from a coup d’etat; Caesar was on the verge of deliberately compromising that.

Caesar then crossed the Rubicon and precipitated years of civil war.

According to Suetonius, Caesar, after some deliberation, grabbed a trumpet from one of his troops who were massed on the banks of the Rubicon, sounded the ‘Advance!’ and plunged across the river, exclaiming: "Let us go where the oaths of the gods and the cries of our enemies take us! Iacta ali est!" - Suetonius, De vita Caesarum.

Appian also describes that morning’s momentous events:

It was Caesar who brought Caesar and Pompey together.

Every Woman’s Man, Every Man’s Woman

Stories of Julius Caesar’s gender non-conforming past explained.

Caesar was forever the butt of jokes and innuendo regarding his sexuality. The bicoque offered by Suetonius, scandal-monger supreme, is full of side-swipes: Licinius Calvis refers to Bithynia as ‘Caesar’s bunga’, Caro describes Caesar as the queen conscript, and refers to the ‘shrine of Nicomedes and the “Bithynian brothel”’ to Marcus Brutus.

Caesar was queen to Pompey’s King. Galus Memmius describes him as cupbearer to Nicomedes along with other catamites. Cicero reminded Caesar in court while he was defending Verus, Nicomedes’ daughter, that ‘it is well known what you gave you and what you gave him’. Marcus Calpurnius Bibulus bitterly referred to Caesar as the Queen of Bithynia, an allusion to Caesar’s alleged dalliance with the King of Bithynia when he apparently lived the life of a girl in the court of King Nicomedes, and was later referred to behind his back as every woman’s man and every man’s woman.

Even his soldiers joined in the fun, singing a ribald marching song during the Gallic campaign: ‘Caesar had his way with Gaul, Nicomedes had his way with Caesar, behold now Caesar, conqueror of Gaul, in triumph, not so Nicomedes, conqueror of Caesar.’
“Caesar got into his chariot and drove in the direction of Ariminum with his cavalry following closely behind. When he reached the river Rubicon, which forms the frontier with Italy, he stopped and stared at the stream, contemplating the outrage that would result if he crossed the river bearing arms. Caesar pulled himself together and proclaimed: ‘My friends, to leave this stream uncrossed will cause me a lot of distress; to cross it, much distress for all mankind. At that he rushed over as if possessed, saying, ‘The die is cast; bring it on.’ He then continued his rapid advance and took Ariminum at the break of dawn, advanced beyond, posting guards at the strategic positions, and subjugated all whom he encountered, either by force or by generosity.’ – Appian, Civil Wars 2, 35

There was no going back. Rome and everything it stood for was in Caesar’s sights. Fast forward to September 45 BCE. A priority for Caesar on his return to Italy was to finalize and fix his will with the Vestal Virgins. In this, was no longer fit for purpose, the Senate was enfeebled and the provinces were allowed to act independently of central government in Rome; the army, under their commanders, effectively dictated things. Corruption was rife, as was fear, but the status quo was still welcomed by conservative factions in the Senate.

Caesar resolved to put things right. He came up with a three-point plan to: extirpate all armed resistance in the provinces, restore order and strength to the Republic and simultaneously create a strong central government in Rome; and harness all provinces into a single cohesive political unit. This would prevent any recurrence

“The chaos, lameness and dysfunctionality inherent in the Roman administration were plain for all to see.”

he named his adoptive grandson, Gaius Octavius (Octavian, later known as Augustus Caesar), as his principal heir, bequeathing his immense estate and property, including his powerful name. If Octavian predeceased Caesar, then Decimus Junius Brutus Albinus – ironically a future assassin – would be next in line. The citizens of Rome also did well out of the will: ‘His gardens were given to the people as a place of recreation, and to every Roman still living in the city he gave 75 Attic drachmas.’

The chaos, lameness and dysfunctionality inherent in the Roman administration were plain for all to see. The machinery of state of the problems which sparked the Social Wars (91–88 BCE), when individuals outside Rome and Italy were not considered ‘Roman’ and were denied full citizenship rights.

When Caesar defeated Pompey and his supporters, he had, in effect, dealt with the first matter. Absolute and unquestioned sway over the government was required to achieve the second and third points, so he set about augmenting his personal power and, simultaneously, eroding the authority of Rome’s other political institutions. He also put in place reforms intended to address several issues that had long been neglected, one of which was his reform of the Roman calendar.
Caesar’s Guide To Becoming A Dictator

Following these six easy steps you too can topple a democracy and enthrone yourself as the sole emperor of an ancient nation.

1. Build Your Reputation
   If you want to change the political landscape you must first prove that you are not of that landscape. Caesar worked as a criminal lawyer to establish his credentials as a fighter for the people and the rule of law.

2. Be Pious
   For religion and politics supposed to be separate entities? Perhaps, but establishing humility before the gods won’t do you any harm. Caesar was made Pontifex Maximus (chief high priest) in 63 BCE.

3. Break The Gridlock
   Timing is everything: if you want to knock an established political system off its paws and the right time is typically when that system is eating itself alive. Caesar was the strong voice, leading a new movement.

4. Ally With The Rich & Powerful
   Even if you’re independently wealthy or claim to be fighting for the people, you need money and influence behind you. Caesar teamed up with Cassius and Pompey as the Triumvirate proved his national leadership.

5. Ignore The Haters
   You’ve taken up a lot of power, but now the system is looking back and demanding to be heard. What do you do? Ignore them, of course. When the system screamed, Caesar shot back harder and got his way.

6. Write Your Own Press
   To be the single figurehead of a movement the message needs to be born you and not filtered through a third party. Caesar knew this and wrote his own public reports on his victories in Gaul and elsewhere, building his myth.
Affairs To Remember

Whatever the fibs of his enemies, Caesar seduced a lot of people.

Caesar was implicated in a string of adulterous affairs at the highest level: they included Postumia, wife of Sulpicius; Lelia, wife of Aulus Gabinius; Tertulla, wife of Marcus Crassus; Mucha, Pompey’s wife; Servilia Caepionis, though was different - the woman he loved, according to Suetonius, and mother of Marcus Brutus. He invested a six million sesterces pearl on her and sold off some properties to her on the cheap; the price, according to a slyly punning Cicero, was discounted by one third because Servilia was allegedly prostituting Tertila, her daughter, to Caesar. The armies, too, were up to speed on his adultery in Gaul: ‘Men of Rome, watch your wives, we’re bringing home the bald-headed adulterer! In Gaul your F***ed your way through a fortune, which you borrowed here in Rome,’ Foreign queens were amongst his conquests; they included Eunoa of Mauretania and, of course, Cleopatra VII of Egypt.
More legislative and constitutional housekeeping followed: Caesar conducted a census, which led to a reduction in the state-subsidized grain dole, imposing a fixed number of recipients, all of whom were entered into a register. Laws decreed that jury service be restricted to the Senate or the equestrian ranks. A summary law restricted the purchase of certain luxuries. A fertility law rewarded families for producing certain numbers of children, to expedite the repopulation of Italy. He banned professional guilds, except those which could claim an ancient foundation—guilds were often hotbeds of anti-government sedition. The length of time governors could hold office in the provinces was restricted, to close down the risk that another general might attempt to challenge him. Debts were restructured, wiping out almost a quarter of all outstanding debt.

Caesar then turned his attention to public works. Among his projects he built the Forum of Caesar, with its Temple of Venus Genetrix. Between 47 and 44 BCE, he organised the all-important distribution of land to around 15,000 of his veterans. He set up a police force, appointed officials to officiate on his land reforms and ordered that Carthage and Corinthis be rebuilt. The prevailing tax system was abolished, reverting to an earlier version that allowed cities the freedom to collect tribute independently, while the inhabitants of Rome gained to the more lenient and often confrontational Roman bureaucrats. Other plans included the construction of a temple to Mars, a large theatre and a library to match the Library of Alexandria—all of these were abandoned after Caesar's assassination.

Plans were also in place to upgrade Ostia to a major port, and cut a canal through the Isthmus of Corinth. Military campaigns against the Illyrians and Parthians, to avenge the catastrophic defeat at Carthage (53 BCE) in which precious legionary standards were captured by the Parthians, were on the drawing board, resulting in a huge recruitment push. With encouragement from Caesar, the fawning Senate honoured him with the post of censor for life, Father of the Fatherland and Imperator.

Some of these actions and honours clearly had about them more than a whiff of monarchical, divinity and despotism, and were later used to justify his assassination. Most blatantly and obviously, the Senate named Caesar dictator perpetuo (‘dictator for life’). Caesar now could wield real power. As dictator perpetuo, he elected his other magistrates, selected the provincial governors and, crucially, in doing so, the army commanders. He enjoyed the support of the many to whom he had shownlenity in the recent past. To add to this, Caesar matched his powers as consul to replenish the membership of the Senate, which had been depleted through proscription and exile. New senators were appointed to bring membership up to 900—all the novices were, of course, Caesar's men. While this strengthened Caesar's arm immeasurably, it also further diluted the democratic nature of the Senate and compromised its status and prestige.

It was all decidedly counter mass majority (Cenotaph custom). It rode roughshod over tradition. It was devoid of 'Romanitas' (the concept and ideology by which Romans defined themselves) and, of course, it had more than just a hint of monarchical about it. Mark Antony, who had been elected co-consul with Caesar, seemed to confirm this when he delivered a speech from the Rostra at the 44 BCE Lupercalia and charmingly tried to placate the crowd on Caesar's head—that a mistake attempt to confer eulogy on Caesar. Caesar had said it aside to use as a sacrifice to Jupiter Optimus Maximus.

Denarius coins were minted bearing his image, the text 'dictator perpetuo' and with an image of the goddess Ceres and Caesar's title of Augustus Pontifex Maximus on the reverse. Dio records how when a senatorial delegation went to inform Caesar of his new honours in 44 BCE, Caesar 'hurtlessly, tactlessly and arrogantly remained sitting in the Temple of Venus Genetrix, rather than standing to meet them. A statue of him was placed in the company of those of the old, dreaded kings of Rome. Caesar was now becoming the not so accidental king.
Obsequiously, he was granted a golden chair in the Senate, a gesture smack of regal orientalism, and was allowed to wear triumphal dress whenever he pleased. Caesar was now the constant triumphant: life was becoming one long triumph. He was offered a popular cult, with Mark Antony as his high priest. More toadyingly came when he was privileged with the right to speak first during senatorial debates.

Back in 48 BCE, permanent tribunial powers had been conferred on Caesar, which rendered him sacrosanct and allowed him power of veto over the Senate. Suetonius tells how when a crowd gathered to greet Caesar on his return to Rome, one of them placed a laurel wreath on the statue of Caesar on the Rostra. Tribunes Gaius Epfulius Marullus and Lucius Cassius Flavus ordered the wreath be removed as it was a symbol of Jupiter and of royalty. Caesar reacted by having the tribunes stripped of their powers and removed from office. Suetonius believes that, from this point on, Caesar was not able to dissociate himself from 'royalness'. After this, Caesar was never bothered again by annoying members of the Tribunical College.

Suetonius also relates how a crowd on the Alban Hill shouted, bailing him 'rex' ('King'), to which Caesar replied, "I am Caesar, not Rex!" The tribunes arrested a member of the crowd, but the plebeians protested his right to freedom of speech. Caesar had the tribunes removed from office and erased their names from the records. The accidental king was settling history.

Pompey was assassinated by Pidemnus’s men in Egypt and his severed head presented to Caesar as a trophy.

In 46 BCE Caesar demonstrated that he was getting carried away with all this obsequiousness: he rewarded himself with the title of Prefect of the Moirs (praefectus moeris), a post by any other name, which allowed him censorial powers but exemption from the checks and balances to which the regular censors were subject. Democracy was walking out the door; totalitarianism was waiting in the wings.

In early 44 BCE, Caesar made plans for that war against the Parthians. This, of course, would involve his lengthy absence from Rome and the seat of power, and would compromise his ability to install his own consuls. Accordingly, he put in place legislation which gave him the right to appoint all magistrates for 44 BCE and all consuls and tribunes in 42 BCE well in advance. The Roman constitution was thus turned on its head: the magistrates were no longer representatives of the people, but were now representatives of a dictator.

The Ides of March dawned. Caesar’s diary had him down to appear at a session of the Senate, led by Gaius Cassius Leogorgus, Decimus Junius Brutus and Marcus Junius Brutus, several senators, ‘liberators’, had other plans for Caesar’s day: they had had enough of his despotic behaviour and conspired to assassinate him. Mark Antony had picked up vague rumblings and rumours of a plot the previous night from a perturbed librarian and future assassin, the eunuch Servius Scausa, tribune of the people. Antony went to warn Caesar, but the conspirators had taken such a move into account.

The work of Suetonius, Dio Cassius, and Lives Of The Twelve Caesars, gives us an insight into the physical hang-ups that Julius Caesar may have experienced. Here’s an excerpt from the 1913 Loeb edition of the work.

"His baldness was a disfigurement which troubled him greatly; since he found that it was often the subject of the gibes of his detractors. Because of it he used to comb forward his scanty locks from the crown of his head... They say, too, that he was ostentatious in his dress: that he wore a senator’s tunic with fringed sleeves reaching to the wrist, and always had a girdle over it, though rather a loose one. And this, they say, was the occasion of Sulla’s jibe, when he often warned the nobles to keep an eye on the ill-girt boy... I won’t mention either, the invectives of Dolabella and the elder Curio, in which Dolabella calls him “the queen’s jest, the joker of the royal court,” and Curio, “the brother of Nicomedes and the stow of Bitina.”

Caesar, indeed, is not content with having written in sundry letters that Caesar was led by the king’s attendants to the royal apartments, that he lay on a golden couch arrayed in purple, and that the virgins of his son of Venus was lost in Bitina.”

Even when he was granted the precious of Gaul and Illyria by the senate, his constant boast that he would be mounting on their heads, that is committing oral rape on the enemy, was met with the quip that that would be rather difficult for a woman to do.

 Bust of a clothing julius
Caesar, ptolemaic period of the 1st century AD, Altes Museum, Berlin
and arranged for Gaius Trebonius to intercept him as he approached the portico of the Theatre of Pompey, the temporary home of the Senate where the session was to be held, and detain him outside. As it happened, Antony fled when he heard the murderous din coming from the Senate chamber. Trebonius had been a loyal friend of Caesar, but later defected to the assassins.

More importantly, the omens for the day were, predictably, decidedly bad. Calpurnia, his wife, dreamt of him bleeding to death; Spartacus - a soothsayer - gave him the clearest of advice, telling him in no uncertain terms, 'beware the Ides of March'. Regal hubris compelled him to ignore her.

Plutarch reports that when Caesar arrived at the Senate, Tullius Cicero presented him with a diversionary and apologetic petition to recall his exiled brother. Cicero, like Trebonius, had been a loyal supporter of Caesar, but he too had defected. The other consulsions milled around irately to feign support. When Caesar motioned Cicero away, Cicero grabbed his shoulders and pulled Caesar's tunic down. Caesar then indignantly cried to Cicero, "Hic tibi gladium vis est?" (" Truly this is violence?"). Casca drew his dagger and thrust at Caesar's neck, only to have Caesar spin around and catch him by the arm, protesting, "Casca, you good for nothing, what are you doing?" A frightened Casca could only call for his brother, "Help, brother!" At this the conspirators, as a man, lashed out at the dictator. Caesar attempted to get away, but to no avail, blinded by blood amidst a blizzard of daggers, he fell. The assassins plunged in their daggers time and time again as Julius Caesar lay bleeding.

"Casca drew his dagger and thrust at Caesar's neck, only to have Caesar spin around and catch him by the arm."

helpless, alone and defenseless, on the steps of the portico. Polybius records that the killies numbered about 60 men, inflicting between them 21 stab wounds.

If Suetonius is to be believed, a doctor later established there had been only one fatal wound inflicted on Caesar, the second strike, which pierced his aorta. Caesar's last words, if indeed he uttered any, have been a matter of dispute ever since. Suetonius maintains that he said nothing, but that others believe his dying words to have been "You too, my child!" When he saw Brutus amongst the mob of assassins, Plutarch agrees, adding that Caesar pulled his toga over his head when he caught sight of Brutus among the conspirators. The most famous, unhistorical version comes down from Shakespeare's Julius Caesar: "Et tu, Brute?" ("And you as well, Brutus."). The assassins could not have predicted the consequences of their actions. They were to become as far reaching and consequential as Caesar's Rubicon crossing five years earlier. To them, the murder of Caesar was supposed to be a short-term expedient, simply ridding Rome of a tyrant. Now that he was gone, they presumably thought that things would revert more or less to as before the civil wars. The free magistrates would be reelected and resumed their office with the status quo would take over again. All good Romans would be free once more to continue their journeys unhindered along their own personal cumus honorum.

**EXPERT BIO**

**PAUL CHRYSTAL**

Paul Chryystal is author of Rome from Republic to Empire: The Civil Wars of the 1st Century BCE (2019) published by Pen & Sword
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Gandhi
Rise of a Revolutionary

To mark Mohandas Gandhi’s 150th birthday, we explore the evolution of his activism and examine some of the complex challenges to his disciplined approach

Written by Dr. Talat Ahmed
EXPERT BIO

Dr. Talat Ahmed
Dr. Ahmed is a lecturer in South Asian History, Co-Director of Centre for South Asian Studies and Deputy Director of Equality and Diversity at the University of Edinburgh. Her book, Mahatma Gandhi: Experiments in Civil Disobedience is available now from Pluto Press.
2019 marks the 150th birth anniversary of Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi (1869-1948), one of the most iconic and important figures of the 20th century and someone seen as the father of modern India. The great US Civil Rights leader Martin Luther King travelled to India in 1959 to pay homage, commenting admiringly that “Gandhi was able to mobilise and galvanise more people in his lifetime than any other person in the history of the world.” This is a bold statement indeed, but arguably not an inaccurate one, especially given the transnational dimensions of Gandhi’s strategy of Civil Disobedience, which was initially tested in South Africa, where Gandhi lived for over 20 years, leading the struggles of Indians in Natal and the Orange Free State for civil and political rights.

On his return to India, hundreds of thousands committed themselves to mass civil disobedience in the struggle for independence under Gandhi’s leadership. Following his non-cooperation campaign of 1930-32, over 60,000 people were thrown into jail in 1930 for non-payment of the colonial salt tax. In 1942, over 100,000 Indians were detained and imprisoned over the Quit India agitation, another movement Gandhi initiated.

Gandhi himself was imprisoned four separate times in South Africa, and a further five times in India, meaning that it has been estimated he spent a total of 2,538 days in jail across the course of his life. Yet each wave of his campaigning ignited mass mobilisations and sapped the will of the British to hold onto their jewel in the crown. Gandhi’s political philosophy was termed satyagraha, satya meaning truth and gahya referring to insistence or force. Truth force translates as non-violent resistance. It is not passive resistance, but the active engagement to resist unjust laws, using non-violence. For Gandhi it was not ‘sneak submission to the will of the evildoer’, but it means the putting of one’s soul against the will of the tyrant.” The politics of non-violence represented moral force against an unjust order that entailed a refusal to cooperate with authorities and a willingness to undergo conscious suffering to attain objectives.

The power of moral persuasion combined with non-violent mass civil disobedience certainly retains its inspirational appeal for many activists, including campaigns against climate change such as Extinction Rebellion (XR).

As XR organisers stated, ‘The “social contract” has been broken ... [and] it is therefore not only our right but our moral duty to bypass the government’s inaction and flagrant dereliction of duty and to rebel to defend life itself’. A protest in Manchester saw protestors “willing to get arrested to raise awareness if that’s what it takes.” And they did, with each protester standing up and cooperating with police once arrested. "An eye for an eye only ends up making the whole world blind.

Jones, the Green Party peer stated, “basically, conventional politics has failed us – it’s even failed me and I’m part of the system – so people have no other choice.” These words could have been penned by Gandhi in the pages of Indian Opinion or the Young India – his newspapers in the early part of the 20th century.

Gandhi’s life was one of complexities, contradictions and ironies: the apostle of non-violence who was融媒体 by an assassin’s bullet; a deeply religious individual who fought passionately for Hindu-Muslim unity only to see India free but partitioned; a man who was imprisoned as a dangerous secessionist nine times by colonial governments, and yet every British victory from 1945 onwards had to deal with him; and a “saintly” figure who never held political office and is seen to be above the grubby business of political horse-trading and yet, was a shrewd political operator who weighed every action and word in a calculated manner.

While many other political figures who played a key role in the birth of new nations, such as Lenin, Mao, Nasser or Nkrumah are held as sullied by political expediency and a readiness to resort to violence, Gandhi is held as the mahatma, the ‘Great Soul’. In 1949, George Orwell noted that Gandhi left a “clean smell behind,” unlike other politicians yet he had the political organisational skills to transform the Indian National Congress from an elite group to a mass organisation. These contradictions go to the heart of the enigma of Gandhi – how could this little man from small-town India, a London-trained barrister, with a penchant for eloquence, dancing classes and French lessons come to dominate Indian politics in the first half of the 20th century and inspire a variety of social movements and liberation struggles ever since?  

Childhood

In many respects Gandhi could not have been a more unlikely figure to become an icon of the Indian freedom movement. He was not from a staunch nationalist family, like that of future ally Jawaharlal Nehru, nor was he from the professional urban elite like future rival Muhammad Ali Jinnah. Gandhi was born in 1869 into a family of Modh Banias, a middle caste trading and moneylending community who had a reputation for being shrewd, thrifty and good businessmen. His birthplace was the small town of Porbandar, in a semi-independent princely state on the west coast of Gujarat, where his father’s family had for two generations been diwanis (advisers) to the princes and kings. After primary school Gandhi was sent to be educated at the only English college in Kutch, but growing up in a princely state resulted in him having very little contact with or experience of direct British imperial rule. This had the advantage that it instilled in him a deep conviction that Indians could and should rule themselves. But it also shielded him from the full might of the empire and its oppressive state apparatus.
The Salt March against the salt tax is one of Gandhi's most famous acts of peaceful resistance against British rule in India.

22 August 1894
Scheduled to leave South Africa, Gandhi instead decides to remain when he learns of a bill planned to strip Indians in South Africa of their voting rights. He forms the Natal Indian Congress to fight for equal rights.

9 July 1896
Work on the 'Green Pamphlet' starts, in which Gandhi chronicles the injustice faced by Indians living in South Africa. Publication of this document puts Gandhi on Britain's radar as they view it as anti-government sedition.

10 January 1908
Gandhi is arrested for the first time having refused to register with the South African government and carry an ID card. It's believed that having been put in prison again later that same year he read Civil Disobedience by Henry David Thoreau, further cementing his non-violent philosophy.

6 November 1913
The Great March begins, hoping to gain Indian rights in South Africa. It is attended by 2,037 men, 127 women and 57 children from Charlestown. This same year Indian poet and Nobel Laureate Rabindranath Tagore refers to Gandhi as 'Mahatma' or 'Great Soul'.

26 June 1914
The Indian Relief Bill is passed by the government, which included greater freedoms for Indians in South Africa as well as pardons for those who had resisted the previous, unjust laws, bringing the protest to a close.
London

"The home of philosophers and poets, the very centre of civilization" in how Gandhi saw London. Coming from a small-town family, it is easy to imagine his excitement when he was sent there in 1888 to train as a barrister. In 1893 there were only 207 Indians in London and Gandhi initially found life quite solitary and perplexing. Lacking the benefit of an English public school and Cambridge education he did not possess the self-confidence of an upper-class Nehru or Jinnah. In order to overcome these handicaps Gandhi decided to turn himself into a typical English gentleman. He bought his clothes at the Army and Navy Store, evening suits from Bond Street, learnt to tie his ties and sported a double watch chain of gold. Not content with this he began to take lessons in dancing, French and elocution.

More profoundly, Gandhi was exposed to two influences in London that would begin to shape his philosophical outlook. Firstly, the Vegetarian Society, the goals of which were not more dietary concerns but to "seek the conditions necessary to teach a human ideal that valued the spiritual, physical, mental and moral aspects of human life." Secondly, the Theosophy Society, which drew heavily on Hinduism and Buddhism, encouraging the reading of Sanskrit texts and seeking to reconcile new developments in Western science with organised religions. In this sense Theosophists offered a modernised, reformed form of Hinduism fused with elements of Christianity and other belief systems — a sort of scientific spirituality. Gandhi was introduced to the Bhagavad Gita and other religious texts that he had never read before. The combination of these texts pointed to an alternative way of being religious, one that synthesised a variety of texts and influences but simultaneously emphasised a similar message that renunciation was the highest form of religion, the imperative of offering the other cheek and love to an opponent. This curious mixture of Christian suffering, Hindu mythology and denial would come to epitomise the adult Gandhi. The vegetarian and theosophy societies were part of a larger movement of radical reformers who were anti-urban and anti-industrial in their views. These middle-class dissenters were interested in change through individual effort and moral fibre. It was the simplicity of their message that appealed to Gandhi.

South Africa

The scene from Richard Attenborough's 1982 film will have etched into people's minds the deep humiliation that Gandhi suffered at the hands of a ticket inspector on his way from Durban to

Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru addresses members of the Congress Party

2 August 1920
The non-cooperation movement, the first nationwide non-violent resistance movement for Indian independence begins, led by Gandhi. The campaign is a response to the Rowlatt Acts that restricted Indian rights and to the Massacre at Jallianwala Bagh the previous April.

4 February 1922
Gandhi calls an end to the non-cooperation movement after policemen are killed in a station fire by protesters in Chauri Chaura. Despite this he is arrested by British authorities for inciting the violence.

17 September 1924
Having been released from prison earlier in the year, Gandhi begins a 21-day fast in an attempt to bring Hindus and Muslim Indians together, with the groups having splintered while he had been in prison.

26 January 1930
The Declaration of the Independence of India is published by the Indian National Congress, committing the party to the fight for self-rule and the end of British imperial occupation.

12 March 1930
The Salt Marches begin as part of a new policy of civil disobedience, challenging unjust laws imposed by the British on India. Thousands join Gandhi as he journeys to the sea to make salt in defiance of the law.

Gandhi addresses a meeting in West Bengal in 1930
Pretoria. Racial segregation, discrimination and violence characterised the lives of all non-whites in South Africa. Gandhi had not experienced direct racism before, so to be treated as a ‘cooler’ barrister mortified Gandhi because he believed that as a subject of the empire Indians had a right to equal treatment before the law. Gandhi did not however extend this sympathy to the majority African population of South Africa and was initially horrified that Indians were placed on the same level as Africans.

Gandhi was then very much in the mould of a ‘Victorian’ Indian who sought accommodation and acceptance into the empire and this was reflected in his early campaigns that used methods that suited middle-class politics such as letter writing, lobbying parliament and emphasising that their campaign was not for equality of all Indians but for equality of the respectable classes of Indians.

By now Gandhi had been introduced to the ideas of Henry David Thoreau, author of the essay Civil Disobedience, originally referred to as ‘Resistance to Civil Government’. Gandhi recalled that Thoreau’s work had ‘left a deep impression upon him. Thoreau was renowned for his espousal of simple living, and his opposition to the Mexican-American war and slavery led to his imprisonment for refusing to pay taxes to an unjust government. Two other texts also had a deep impact. Leo Tolstoy’s The Kingdom Of God Is Within You (1894) turned Gandhi’s attention to the concept of non-violence. “Before the ... profound morality and the truthfulness of this book,” he later wrote, “all the books ... seemed to pale into insignificance.” His reading of John Ruskin’s Unto This Last made him “determined to change my life.” He learnt that “the good of the individual is contained in the good of all ... the lawyer’s work has the same value as the barber’s ... a life of labour, i.e., the life of a tiller of the soil and the handicraftsman, is the life worth living.”

These myriad influences impacted deeply upon Gandhi’s political practice. From Thoreau – the duty to resist unjust laws; from Ruskin – the dignity of all human labour and community welfare; from Tolstoy – the imperative of non-violence as the guiding principle of all activity. Gandhi applied these effectively in South Africa, where he went from being the chief organiser and tactician of the merchant and professional Indian community to attention-grabbing mass protests of burning registration documents leading illegal marches across different states and calling on Indian workers to down tools and strike. Gandhi began to rethink his views, not only on caste, class and race, but also on tactics, as he realised how mass politics and mass action could build and retain a broad base of support.

**Return to India**

In 1915, Gandhi returned to India after 23 years in South Africa. He was welcomed as a national hero and hailed the Mahatma, Great Soul. Previously an empire loyalist who had recently helped in recruitment for the British war effort in World War I, as that war came to its bloody end Gandhi’s politics turned increasingly towards nationalism. Gandhi had called a hartal (stay away) in spring 1919 over the Rowlatt Act – a piece of draconian legislation that ensured that the colonial state retained wartime powers of search and arrest without warrant and detention without trial. Censorship resulted in publications being banned, including Gandhi’s writings, Alfred Swamy.

Gandhi received a warm welcome from the workers of Greenfield Mill in Barwon.

**29 August 1931**
Gandhi travels back to London to attend a second round table conference representing the Indian National Congress to the British government. While in England he meets local workers in the East End and Lancashire.

**8 August 1942**
In the midst of World War II, the All-India Congress Committee launches the Quit India Movement as an attempt to put further pressure on the British government to end its imperial presence and allow self-rule in India.

**22 February 1944**
Rastahfa Gandhi, wife of Mohandas Gandhi for 60 years, passes away having suffered from chronic bronchitis, pneumonia and having suffered two heart attacks in recent months.

**15 June 1947**
Britain passes the Indian Independence Act, creating independent nations of India and Pakistan and establishing a transfer of power from the British government to the newly formed Indian and Pakistani governments.

**30 January 1948**
Mohandas Gandhi is assassinated by Nathuram Godse, a Hindu nationalist, on his way to a prayer meeting. Godse is arrested at the scene and his accomplices also picked up by authorities in the weeks that followed.
Three Stages of the Movement

How the wider independence movement evolved its message

Non-Cooperation
Launched as a response to greatly restricted rights and police brutality (including hundreds of deaths), Gandhi's non-cooperation movement kicked off in 1919. It involved restricting the purchase of British goods, buying and using only natively produced crafts and goods and the picketing of establishments that sold alcohol. It was the first sign that a movement of national unity could be achieved, but it was ultimately suspended by Gandhi in 1922 after protestors became violent and police and were killed in Chauri Chaura. He feared that the philosophy of non-violence was at risk of being lost.

Civil Disobedience
The next evolution of the non-violent protest philosophy was to actively oppose laws that were unjust to confront the British with the inferiority of their own rule. This started with the Salt March that lasted from 12 March to 6 April 1930. Gandhi and 80 of his supporters joined by thousands more, walked ten miles a day for 24 days to Navsari (now Dandi) where Gandhi would evaporate sea water to make salt, breaking the government monopoly on salt production. The march continued along the coast with speeches and salt making until Gandhi was arrested on 5 May 1930.

Quit India
The first push to force the end of British rule was the Quit India Movement, or August Movement, started at the All-India Congress Committee in Bombay on 8 August 1942. This stage of the movement met unified resistance not just from the British, but also many business leaders who were supporting the war effort of the Allied powers. However, they did have the backing of the United States, with President Roosevelt pressuring Winston Churchill to heed the demands of the protestors. Suppression of the movement was swift and violent, with some leaders and protestors imprisoned until 1946, but the postwar conversation finally moved to peaceful exit for the British.

Yet it was the Amritsar massacre of 1919 where a British brigadier ordered indiscriminate firing on a peaceful gathering that resulted in hundreds dead and over a thousand injured—an event that came to epitomise colonial brutality—that transformed Gandhi from an empire loyalist to an irreplaceable opponent of British rule, someone who would soon be advocating peaceful, non-violent self-rule.

In its aftermath, Gandhi and other leaders of the Indian National Congress announced a new mass campaign of non-cooperation to bring independence within a year. This campaign saw the boycott of British goods and the burning of British symbols of power by crowds in the streets, and businesses were shut down. Within the first month of the campaign around 9,000 children withdrew from British schools and colleges to join new national institutions and all official institutions of state were boycotted. Trade in foreign cloth collapsed, its value reduced by around half. The ideas of Ahimsa (non-harm) and non-violence, and Gandhi’s ability to rally hundreds of thousands of ordinary Indians towards the cause of independence, were first seen on a large scale in this movement through the summer of 1920. Gandhi united Hindus, Muslims and Sikhs into a mass movement demanding meaningful change. Gandhi was arrested, released, detained and released again but the movement marked the transition of Indian nationalism from a middle class to a mass basis, and established Gandhi as its undisputed, popular leader.

A decade later in 1930, Gandhi was able to launch Civil Disobedience on a mass scale as he walked some 240 miles to break the salt tax and hundreds of thousands of men, women and children followed suit. Gandhi was arrested but colonial jails were filling up with protestors and the only way for the British government to halt this was to release all prisoners and invite Gandhi to London for talks on Indian self-rule. On his return to Britain, Gandhi was now faced by politicians, the clergy, East Indians and royalty.

Similarly, in 1942 boycott in the middle of World War II, Gandhi launched the Quit India Movement. Even more peasants, workers and the urban poor now joined the ranks of middle class and professional people in the nationalist movement. As before, Gandhi was arrested and detained for the duration of the war but the movement he initiated continued in his name to sabotage, resist and act as a thorn in the side of the British Empire.

A Complex Legacy
The rise of the mass nationalist movement around Gandhi’s campaigns was critical to the ultimate achievement of independence, but regularly presented problems and questions for his specific programme of non-violence. Gandhi called a halt to his harrel after the massacre in Amritsar and lasted in penance. The non-cooperation movement was brought to halt in 1922 over violence erupting in revolt by the Muslim Mappilas of Kerala.
Gandhi: Rise Of A Revolutionary

southwestern India in August 1921 and after an angry crowd murdered police officers in the village of Chauri Chaura, (now in Uttar Pradesh state) in February 1922 following the police shooting dead three people. In all cases Gandhi blamed the masses for not being ‘ready’ for non-violence. After the Chauri Chaura event, the Congress leaders under his instructions offered their sympathy to the families of the policemen, but referred to Indians as a ‘mob’.

These examples point to some tensions, contradictions and complexities between Gandhi’s intentions and the outcomes of movements he initiated. It also betrays a certain type of elitism - the masses are declared undisciplined, uncouth and ruled by irrational passions, whereas middle class educated people are hailed as natural leaders. We see this most starkly in 1946 with the Indian Navy mutiny. This entailed a total strike and subsequent mutiny by Indian sailors on board ship and at shore establishments in Bombay. From here the mutiny spread throughout British India, from Karachi to Calcutta and Madras, with the slogans ‘Strike for Bombay’ and ‘Long Live India’, and came to involve 78 ships, 20 shore establishments and 20,000 sailors. This united Hindu and Muslim sailors, whose grievances covered poor food rations and lack of career advancement, but also racism at the hands of navy personnel. The mutineers took down the Union Jack and hoisted the flag of the Congress, the Muslim League and the Combined Party of India onto their ships in a symbolic display of national unity. Thousands of people brought food for the rebels and patronised at the harbour with the sailors. A general strike in support of the mutiny involved 300,000 across Bombay and protests spread to Karachi.

This mutiny had not been initiated by Gandhi, and in his statement on 3 March 1946 Gandhi criticised the strikers as ‘thoughtless and ignorant’ and without the ‘guidance and intervention’ of ‘political leaders’. And finally, as it to clarify his notion of freedom, Gandhi insulted the mutineers by stating, ‘swaraj is not to be obtained by what is going on now in Bombay: Calcutta and Karachi.’

For Gandhi action from below was not legitimate. He feared this type of activity would not adhere to his prescription of non-violence, self-discipline and the art of compromise. His emphasis on negotiations, making concessions so that both sides in battle feel they have gained something as well as turning the other cheek in the face of state violence ensnared him towards certain sections of imperial Britain, who preferred his non-violent satyagraha to any mass militant strategy. This point was well understood by the great Italian revolutionary Antonio Gramsci who observed that elevating ‘spiritualism’ over ‘materialism’ leads to an ‘exaltation of purely spiritual values, etc, to passivity, to non-resistance, and to non-cooperation - but in reality, it is a debilitating and diluted from of resistance, the muzzle against the bullet.’

While we still have much to learn from Gandhi and his often inspiring experiments in civil disobedience, we should also recognise the limitations of his approach - indeed, the British did not walk out of India simply because of Gandhi. Popular movements from below such as the Mappila Rebellion in 1921, which saw tenant farmers and peasants rise against British authority and landlords (to face mass reprisals by the government) and the Indian naval mutiny of 1946 that paralysed the ports of Bombay, Karachi and Calcutta were quite insurrectionary. These mass militant actions were independent of Gandhi, and yet contributed to making India ungovernable for periods in the early to mid-20th century.

Gandhi with his granddaughters Shushila and Mansi in New Delhi
Arguably one of the most enigmatic men of Elizabethan England, John Dee has been simultaneously celebrated as a genius and lambasted for his interest in the occult. Facing accusations of sorcery and necromancy throughout his life, Dee still remains a questionable figure to this day—so what is the true story behind the queen’s ‘dark’ conjurer?

From a young age, Dee proved that he had a strong aptitude for academic learning. In 1542, when he was just 15 years old, Dee joined St John’s College, Cambridge, where he studied for the next three years. In his diary, Dee admitted that he was ‘evidently bent to study’ and dedicated 18 hours to learning every day, leaving only two hours for food and drink and the remaining four hours for sleep.

When Trinity College was founded in 1546 by King Henry VIII, Dee was elected as one of the original fellows, and during this time he became involved with the production of Peace by Aristophanes, for which he created a flying machine for the stage effects. However, the machine worked so well it sparked the accusations of sorcery that would plague Dee for the rest of his life.

While at Trinity College, Dee made his first visit to Europe in May 1547 and he travelled to Antwerp to meet a group of learned mathematicians and cosmographers, including Gerard Mercator and Gemma Frisius, and developed his interest in navigation. He returned to Cambridge a few months later but Dee would later become acquainted with Pedro Núñez, Ortelius of Antwerp and Oronce Fineau, some of the most pre-eminent thinkers of their day. Studying mathematics, geography and astrology at the University of Louvain, Belgium, from 1548 to 1550, Dee quickly made a name for himself lecturing across Europe. Returning to England towards the end of 1551, he was brought to the attention of King Edward VI by Sir William Cecil, with the king granting him a healthy pension worth 160 pounds. Dee’s income was further supplemented when he began working under the patronage of the Earl of Pembroke and the Duke of Northumberland, who was the father-in-law of Lady Jane Grey, the following year.

Unfortunately for Dee, he lost Northumberland’s patronage when the latter was executed for high treason by Edward’s Catholic sister, Queen Mary I, after attempting to place his daughter-in-law on the throne in 1553. Moving to London, Dee taught mathematics and joined the Merchants’ Company, where his navigational talents were put to use in matters of trade.

After a quiet couple of years, Dee was suddenly arrested in May 1555 for the false
charge of 'wicked and vain practices of divining and conjuring' for casting horoscopes for the queen, her husband Philip and her sister, Princess Elizabeth, without permission. The situation was not helped by the fact that after his arrest, the children of one of Dee's accusers, George Ferrers, had thenceforth been struck, one with death, the other with blindness.

Although Dee cleared his name, he was placed under house arrest with Bishop Bonner, who was tasked with assessing Dee's religious orthodoxy. Luckily, Dee passed the examination and was freed, forming a friendship with Bonner in the process, and he turned his attention to his growing library at his home in Mortlake. Passionate about the idea of a national library, Dee presented a proposal for one to Queen Mary in 1556 but ultimately failed to gain the support for it. Undeterred, Dee hoped that his own library— which eventually held around 4,000 books— would provide the foundation for one. After a tumultuous time during the reign of Queen Mary, Dee had a promising future ahead with the accession of Queen Elizabeth I in 1558. Although Dee had earned himself enemies thanks to his connection with Bonner, a Catholic, he was supported at court by Pembroke, his former patron, and Robert Dudley, and he was chosen to pick an auspicious date for Elizabeth's coronation.

Dee quickly became one of the queen's most trusted advisors, which was evident given that he was known to visit his house at Mortlake on the way to her palace in Richmond to see his magnificent library. One of her visits coincided with the death of his first wife, Katherine. In 1570, with Dee marrying his second wife, Jane, in 1578, a marriage which produced eight children. As it turned out, the crown had a lot of use for Dee's occultist and book-keeping talent. He travelled to Europe again in 1562 and uncovered a rare copy of Abbot Trithemius's Steganographia, which discussed cryptography.

Alongside rituals and essays on spirits and angels, the manuscript claimed to contain magical techniques to send secret messages in an instant, regardless of distance. Making his own copy of Steganographia, Dee wrote to Sir William Cecil, Elizabeth's secretary of state, about his discovery. Excited at the prospect of these magical techniques, Cecil granted Dee a certificate that stated that his time abroad had been well spent on issues of national importance.

Dee also gained Elizabeth's interest by practicing alchemy, a chemical process that aimed to convert base metals into gold. Unsurprisingly, the queen and her advisors hoped that if Dee was successful in his attempts to create gold, then England's economic problems could be solved in an instant. When Dee fell seriously ill after a trip to Europe, where
he had been gathering items to furnish his laboratories at Mortlake. Elizabeth sent her own physicians to attend to him, a strong indication of how much she favoured him.

Dee’s work with the occult also influenced his belief that Europe could be united as one and he is credited with coining the term ‘British Empire’. He argued that Elizabeth had the right to rule the lands as a descendant of King Arthur and he believed that England’s economic and political future lay through expansion and trade in the New World. Casting himself in the role as Merlin to Elizabeth’s Arthur, Dee was convinced that this was the correct policy for England after apparently having a conversation with angels through using a ‘shew-stone’, a reflective surface such as a mirror or crystal ball.

Naturally, Dee was frequently consulted for his navigational talents when it came to Tudor exploration, and he was equipped with prized instruments that he had collected during his earlier travels to Europe. As a consultant for the Muscovy Company, he notably used his knowledge of both cosmography and geography.
to advise on the voyage to North America in 1570 as well as the search for the North-west passage through the Arctic.

Although Dee's work with the occult was respectable by Elizabeth's, God and some high-ranking members of the Tudor court, there was still wider controversy surrounding magic and its perception with witchcraft. In fact, while Dee was in Antwerp, England passed the Witchcraft Act (which had previously been repealed), which again set witchcraft a crime punishable by death.

In Tudor England, there was a common misconception that mathematics was equal to astrology, which resulted in a rise in the number of cases. One of the reasons why Nicholas Copernicus's heliocentric theory which placed the Sun rather than the Earth at the centre of the universe, was controversial was the fact that he had used maths to calculate it. Of course, it didn't help that like Dee, most of the mathematicians in England were also astrologers, with the fields going hand in hand. It is unsurprising that Dee, constantly named as a conjurer and a sorcerer by common folk, travelled to Europe where the understanding of mathematics and its relationship with the occult was far more developed.

Despite the suspicion of ordinary people, Dee always enjoyed Elizabeth's faith and support. In one letter, Elizabeth had expressed to him great security against any of her kingdom, that would try to reason any of her rare studies and to seek Bellum armatum, unless the result of any overthrow, and after all, the queen and her court turned to Dee for reassurance when they saw a council. In the sky and when an image of Elizabeth was found with a pin stuck in her heart.

Throughout his career, Dee published numerous occultist works, including two editions of his Philosophia Reformata Apologistica in 1568 and 1569, which he presented to Elizabeth, and his Monas Hieroglyphica in 1564. However, arguably one of his most important pieces of work was his ‘Mathematical Preface’ to the English translation of Euclid's Elements of Geometry in 1570, in which he included his 'Degression Apologistica', a passionate defence of mathematics.

And for these, and such like marvellous Achates and Thales. Naturally, Mathematically, and Mechanically, wrought and contrived, he taught his honest Student and Modern Christian Philosopher, be counted & called a Conjurer. Shall the folly of idlers and the malice of the scornful so much prevail that he who seeks no worldly gain or glory at their hands but only of God the treasure of heavenly wisdom and knowledge of pure hands, shall he live (if it so be) in the mean space be robbed and spoiled of his honest name and fame?'

Dee's work was conducted in the name of science and he continued to develop his interests in mathematics, astrology and magic in the face of controversy, spending the last three decades of his life exploring the occult. In 1602, he met Edward Kelley, a medium three decades his junior, who claimed he could communicate with angels while gazing into a crystal ball. Dee had been unsuccessful in his own attempts at scrying, the practice of communicating with spirits through a crystal ball or reflective surface - and he had hoped Kelley's abilities would help in his scientific inquiries.

That same year, Dee began holding séances with Kelley and published his Heptarchia Mystica, a guidebook to summoning angels. Receiving an invitation from noblesman Albert Laski to join him in his native Poland, Dee and Kelley left England with their families in 1584 and continued their séances on the continent, with Dee recording the transcripts of the angelic dialogue communicated through Kelley, which were later printed during the 17th century. After receiving instructions from the angels during one of their séances, Dee and Kelley travelled to France to visit the court of Rudolf II, Holy Roman Emperor, who was known for his own interest in magic and alchemy. Although Dee failed to impress the emperor, who was suspicious of his loyalties to his Protestant queen, he was offered a place at the Russian court with Tsar Feodor I having certain
knowledge of his great learning and wisdom, an offer which he respectfully declined.

The relationship between Dee and Kelley grew more distant as the latter became increasingly interested in alchemy, with the last transcript of their sessions recorded in 1587. It was during this session that Kelley was supposedly told by a spirit named Maddini that the two men had to share everything they had, including their wives. The scandalous request upset Dee but after some angelic insistence, through Kelley, it is believed that the pair did agree to share a mob during his absence, with many of his books and mathematical instruments stolen.

It is well known that during the final years of her reign, Elizabeth suffered the deaths of her closest and most trusted advisors, which not only affected her deeply but impacted Dee as well. Antipathy towards the occult had become increasingly critical whilst Dee was away and with the deaths of his friends, including Dudley, Cecil and the queen's spymaster, Sir Francis Walsingham, he found that he had little support at court. Instead, there was a new generation of courtiers who had no time for Dee or his work, with never-ending rumours swirling that he was a necromancer.

For years, the queen had sent Dee financial gifts and requests that he attend her court more often. However, Elizabeth knew that Dee's negative reputation in a court would make it difficult for her to find him an acceptable position and so she repeatedly delayed on delivering her promise, much to his annoyance. Finally, she granted him the Wardenship of Christ College, Manchester, in 1596 but Dee was met with great hostility by the Fellows of the College, who mistrusted and hated him despite his long years of service to the crown.

His life became even more difficult after King James I succeeded Elizabeth to the English crown in 1603, because James was obsessed with the threat of witches and witchcraft and had even written his own book on the subject, Daemonologie. Dee petitioned the king in 1604 demanding to be tried for sorcery, hoping that it would clear him of the accusations that he was a 'Conjuror, or Caller, or Invocator of Devils, or damned Spirit'. It was a desperate plea that the king ignored and while Dee never got the vindication he wanted, he was at least spared the painful death he would have received if he had been tried and found guilty.

There are discrepancies surrounding Dee's date of death, but it is believed he died sometime between the end of 1608 and the beginning of 1609. At the age of 87, three years after losing Jane and several of his children to the plague. Sadly, Dee spent his final years living in poverty at his home in Mortlake and selling his possessions to stay afloat, a far cry from the celebrated genius that dazzled minds across Europe, leaving behind a contentious legacy that has continued to overshadow his intellectual achievements for over 400 years.
AMERICAN WASTELAND
How the hopes of a nation’s heartland turned to dust

Written by David J Williamson

Even by the first decades of the 20th century, the United States was, by global standards, still a relatively young country but it had come a long way. Following fairly slow and steady growth through the 18th and early 19th centuries, with the expansion west from the well-established coastal cities and States that were the foundation of the nation, the pioneering spirit and the desire to exploit the country’s vast natural resources drove a rush of interest in opportunity and ownership, especially land.

Fuelled by Government support - the Homestead Act of 1862 gave 162 acres of public land to each new settler for their own use - and the ideals of the founding fathers, vast amounts of natural wilderness in the heart of the growing nation were to be claimed and owned in the name of progress. Following the Civil War there was a marked increase in this expansion westward and people came in ever-increasing numbers, many of them, most importantly, with little or no idea of farming. As new states were born (Oklahoma was not an official state until 1907), long trains of covered wagons gave way to the modern technology of the railways, and towns and even cities rose out of the plains and the prairies. Those who had made the journey to the mid-west hoping for a better life were not to be disappointed. Open land stretched as far as the eye could see, the land appeared fertile with tall grasses and the weather seemed to give just the right mix of sun and rain. Convinced by the folklore that “rain followed the plough” it seemed a prime location for farming and to grow what was needed - especially wheat and the grazing of cattle for meat - for the ever-increasing numbers of mouths to feed, whilst of course making a good living and profit into the bargain.

By the early decades of the 20th century the USA had developed into a global power, and following its intervention into World War I there was a huge increase in the demand for wheat both at home and abroad. The farmers of the plains of the mid-west answered the call and were not to disappoint. As a result of the huge demand wheat prices rocketed and a good living was to be had for all - farmers, their families, and the banks who were quick to give ready loans to finance the farming explosion.
Nature, however, could not sustain this onslaught. In the haste to settle and succeed, vast swathes of natural grassland was ploughed, then ploughed, and ploughed again, eager to satisfy the appetite of a nation and the rest of the world, hungry for whatever its farmers could produce. Little thought was given to how the land and its precious soil could be managed properly and sensitively. And with ingenuity of invention through the introduction of petrel tractors and early combine harvesters the mechanisation of farming methods meant even more acres could be put to the plough in a shorter time as the ferocity of the assault on the land intensified. At first things were plentiful, and the weather on the farmers’ side; but it soon became increasingly apparent that the prairies and plains of the mid-west were not the promised land many had been told or believed. The weather began to be less stable and predictable, with spells of drought that would scorch the earth and the crops, destroying the harvest. In an effort to maintain their planting and their profits more wilderness was cultivated. But this was now a desperate spiral that stripped more and more land of its richness. With the destruction of the natural grass that held the very fabric of the soil together, plus the continued neglect of ploughing the valuable rich topsoil that was at the very heart of a healthy crop began to break up and by the 1920s its richness and fertility were all but gone. In the eagerness to expand, feed a nation and make a profit, the land had been farmed to death, with terrible consequences. It was nature’s fury that was to have the upper hand, but it was a combination of natural and man-made events that were to shape the entire decade of the 1930s in America.

The Wall Street Crash of 1929 was the start of a chain reaction that was to devastate the heartland of the USA and plunge the entire country into a ‘Great Depression’. In a perfect storm of events, with the destruction in confidence of the stock markets, the high price of wheat that had been the lifeline of the mid-west farmers now plummeted, destroying lives and livelihoods in a single stroke. At the same time, almost as if an act of revenge by nature for the way the land had been so poorly treated in the name of profit, the rain failed to come. For some areas the drought was to last almost the entire decade. Where there had been thousands upon thousands of acres of healthy valuable wheat, the soil was now barren and dry and the sun baked the earth mercilessly. Vast areas of Oklahoma, Texas, New Mexico, Colorado, Nebraska and Kansas were, almost overnight, transformed from being a bread basket for the US and the wider world into a desolate desert of dust and despair. The erosion of the topsoil had turned the land to fine powder, and great expanses of wide open country with few trees or hedgerows allowed the winds to gather speed and whip the dust high into the air in huge dense clouds that raced across the plains. The ‘Dusty Thirties’ had begun. Those in the way of these ‘black blizzards’ could do little but seal up their homes as best they could and ride out the storm, but still it seemed to be able to find a way through. Often people would find themselves completely trapped, with an upstairs window the only means of escape. And as the decade progressed, nature’s onslaught took on a new momentum. In 1932 the US National Weather Bureau recorded 14 dust storms. The following year this had increased to 38. In 1934 a storm two miles high swept 2,000 miles to the east coast, covering the cities, national monuments and even ships in a fine layer of dust. The worst storms of all have found a place in history as ‘Black Sundays’ when in just one day, in April 1935, an estimated three million tons of soil were lifted high into the atmosphere and swept off the Great Plains, blackening the sky and turning day to night. It was a newspaper report of this awesome event that was to first use the term ‘Dust Bowl’ to describe the stricken states of the mid-west.

"People would find themselves completely trapped, with an upstairs window the only means of escape"

- There was a plague of grasshoppers - as many as 33,000 per acre - that ate what was left of the crops.
- One desperate Texas town paid $500 to a ‘rainmaker’ to fire rockets into the sky to try and create a downpour. It didn’t work!
- Static electricity built up between the ground and the dust clouds. Car engines would cut out and people out in the storm could be knocked to the ground with the electric shock.
- There was such hostility to the migrant ‘Okies’ in one part of California that one sign read ‘Okies and dogs not allowed inside’.
- Nearly one third of migrants were professionals such as teachers, lawyers and business owners, proving that whole communities had been devastated.
Florence Thompson was, at the age of 32, mother of seven children and no permanent roof over their heads.

Migrants in California looking for work with their jalopy crammed with family and all they have left in the world.
For many, every prospect of farming and making a living was fading fast. In the good times the money had flowed like honey, but now there was no harvest, no profit and no way to repay the mortgages and the loans that had sustained them in the good years. With no means to make a living and pay the bills, for many the obvious choice was to leave. And so began the largest single migration of people the United States had ever seen. Not all left their homes; some estimates place the figure at around 25 per cent of the population, but at between 2.5 and 3 million people this was still a staggering amount of humanity on the move. They packed their trucks and jalopies (car with all they could and moved on in search of work, any kind of work for whatever pay they could get. The majority did not travel too far, perhaps to the neighboring states where they may have had friends or family, and which they hoped carried better prospects than what they had left behind. And not all were farmers. Whole communities were devastated by the drought and the dust, and this included office workers, bankers and store owners: the despair touched everyone who had built their lives around a successful harvest and now all they had achieved was blown away on the wind. Those who stayed desperately tried to plough something from the land, but with little success, and even made matters worse. Those who left found other parts of the country in almost as poor a state as themselves. With the Great Depression unemployment had soared and money was tight. Branded ‘Okies’ by the local populations (although not all came from Oklahoma) the migrants were viewed with disdain and in many areas sympathy was thin on the ground, with people suspicious that outsiders would try and steal jobs and livelihoods when there was little to go around. One farmer farmer camping with his family on the roadside told local authority agents, “1937 made $7000 in cotton. 1938 lost everything. 1939 hit the road.”

Something had to be done, and in 1933 a new president brought new hope to help get the mid-west states and the entire country back on its feet. The New Deal programme of Franklin D Roosevelt directly tackled the issues of the Great Depression by targeting the core needs of the people. If they had the basics to survive then this was a sound foundation upon which to rebuild the country and the economy. For the farmers of the plains this meant giving them what they had been unable to do themselves – make money from their land and their cattle. Legislation was passed to ensure that farmers were compensated for losing their land, fallow, reducing the surplus of food and driving up prices to a healthier level. Their cattle, weakened by wind, dust and drought, were purchased by the government and slaughtered, with those still fit for human consumption being used to produce food.
American Wasteland

The despair touched everyone who had built their lives around a successful harvest and now all they had achieved was blown away on the wind.

Almost a decade after it had abandoned the farmers, in 1939 the rain returned. So did many, but not all, of those who had taken their chances on the open road. Specialist government departments would now oversee more conservation-based farming methods, with education programmes available for farmers to promote sustainable farm management. There would be some success, but as technology continued to flourish and the population continued to grow, the temptation was always there to farm as much from the land as possible. Communities began to rebuild their lives and their businesses. For those choosing not to return they would continue to struggle until another world war ignited the need for labour to satisfy a hungry war machine of manufacturing. The times of the Dust Bowl are a series of contradictions: the pioneering spirit and the fulfilment of dreams but with little or no thought or care to nature and its delicate balance. An era of enduring determinations and inner strength of those who fought and lost against the elements but refused to give in, and an era of infirmity from those who showed them contempt and treated them as unwelcome intruders. At the very least it is a lesson to be learned, but it also a warning that should the land not be treated with the respect it deserves then the future could literally crumble to dust.
To many the art of the tattoo may appear to be a wholly modern phenomenon. However, that is far from the truth. We have evidence of preserved skin in some cultures dating back to 6000 BCE in South America and tattooing equipment from some 60,000 years ago. It would seem that the practice of marking human skin with pigments, whether for artistic and personal expression or to identify a person in some manner, has been going on for many, many years. It’s still extremely popular today; it’s estimated that around 10 per cent of people in the UK and US have tattoos.

Given that there is more to the history of tattooing than meets the eye, we thought we would take a look back over its long history and mark some important moments of transition and evolution. Where and how did this art begin and what are the meanings behind the art? Where have different recurring styles and meanings come from and how has the art of tattooing grown and diminished over the years? Join us on a journey around the world and through time as we discover some of the secrets behind body art and how it has developed through the millennia.
Ancient Tattoos

Time period: 700 BCE – 550 BCE

Way back in ancient Egypt it was often the women who were heavily tattooed, wearing designs as part of a beautifying ritual and also as a form of punishment. In fact the first tattooed mummy to be excavated in Egypt was female. The ancient Egyptians were also the first civilization to use tattooing as a way of marking their animals. In other civilizations and throughout Persia tattoos were frequently seen on statues and stone carvings from 550 BCE.

Many people in pre-Christian Germanic, Celtic and northern European tribes were heavily tattooed. Around the Mediterranean tattooing was also popular, however in ancient Greece the only people who had tattoos were slaves and this continued into 700 BCE in both the Roman and Greek world. Ancient Romans hated tattoos and anyone with them would have been banished from the city. This belief goes hard and hand with their view of life and the body, considering it as being sacred and valuing purity.

There is however some evidence of tattooing in the Bible, with Saint Paul said to have tattoos similar to wounds suffered by Jesus Christ. During the fourth and fifth centuries, Christians used the tattoos to identify who was and who wasn’t a true believer, many of whom had a small cross tattooed on the inside of their wrists. This was the start of a strong and powerful form of religious identity.

A Tattooed King

Time period: 1066

Many Anglo-Saxon kings of England were great fans of tattoos and some had the first designs of text tattoos written on their bodies to show devotion to their country and their loved ones. One such king who chose to be tattooed was King Harold, who was defeated at the Battle of Hastings in 1066. After being fatally wounded on the battlefield, King Harold’s body was identified by some tattoos that he had on his skin. Some accounts explain that his wife Edith was asked to identify him after his death. She was able to do this by looking for the tattoo that was positioned over his heart, which read ‘Edith and England’, signifying the great importance of both of these to the great king. Also during this period many soldiers were found to have the Jerusalem Cross tattooed on their skin and this was believed to protect the bearer from evil as they went into battle.
Big In Japan
Time period: 1600 - 1800

It was during the 1600s that the art of tattooing began to grow in Japan, which continued until the mid 1800s. However, during this time the art was mainly practised by manual workers, firemen and prostitutes to communicate their status, which to many was not looked upon as a positive attribute and so their tattoos would act to warn others of their trade.

The mid 18th century saw tattoos in Japan really take off, although they were generally forbidden. They grew in popularity due to the fact that only those of noble blood were permitted to wear highly decorative kimonos. This in turn led to much unrest amongst the people and they turned to getting their bodies elaborately tattooed in rebellion. In 1870 the government outlawed tattoos and the artists were forced underground with strict consequences for anyone flaunting the art. However, this for many meant that wearing a tattoo was like a badge of honour.

Today in Japan the lifetime commitment of a tattoo is taken very seriously indeed. Designs have deeply significant meaning to the wearer and are chosen to represent purity or wealth. It is believed they transform both the body and soul.

Interestingly it was during this period that the word tattoo itself is said to have first entered the English language and this was largely due to it originating from the Samoan word tapo. The story behind this is when Dutch ships landed in the Samoan islands in the 1700s crew members wrote in their journals that they had met with local island people who were adorned with woven tights and breeches, when they were actually tattooed. The islanders' tradition of applying tattoos has changed very little over 2000 years, with the skills being passed from generation to generation using bored reeds and turtle shell as tattooing tools.

A traditional Samoan body tattoo takes weeks to complete and gaining one is a very painful experience.
**Empire And Ink**

*Time period: 1850 - 1900*

The 19th century was a busy time for the getting of tattoos. Sailors were coming home from fateful voyages and explorations with tattoos. Earlier in the 18th century Captain James Cook had made his way to the South Pacific; the crew told of native communities they had seen and the word tattoo was introduced into the English language by Cook's expeditions. From the 1850s onwards tattoos would appear more and more in the public eye, with artists who had had them being very highly paid. This led to tattoo shops popping up both in the USA and the UK, with the first twin-coil electromagnetic tattoo needle being invented in 1891. Despite tattoos spreading and being more talked about there was a distinct class divide in who was getting tattoos, with the art form mostly associated with sailors, the lower classes and often criminals. However, by 1898 it was said that one in five members of the gentry was also tattooed. Indeed, Edward VII and George V both had tattoos from trips abroad. Edward had a Jerusalem Cross tattoo on his arm from his time in the Holy Land and George (then Duke of York) had a dragon tattooed on his arm while in Japan with his brother, the Duke of Clarence. It is interesting to note that during this period the upper and lower classes were united in their attraction to tattoos, while the middle classes seemed to reject them.

Meanwhile, during the 1860s European sailors bringing back home from their voyages started an alarming new trade. There were accounts of Maori people being murdered purely for their head, to be traded back in England.

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**Early Prison Tattoos**

*Time period: 1600 - 1900*

The history behind the prison tattoo is captivating, with little changing from the 1800s to modern day. There is evidence that criminals from ancient times to modern day have been marked in some way to show their crime, whether by themselves or by a figure in authority, from branding iron used in the 1800s to meaningful tattoos gained during a prison sentence. All of them have significant meaning.

It's thanks in part to prison records and detailed descriptions of inmates that we have a source on the kinds of popular tattoos that were around in the 19th century. For instance, in an old Cornish town known as Bodmin you will find an intriguing building that was known as Bodmin Jail. Many of the inmates at Bodmin had committed petty crimes and were largely repeat offenders. Inmates were listed on entry to the gaol and also when leaving and while some of the records are very limited in the information they can provide we use them. The information recorded included whether they had any markings of significant scars. Here are just a few examples of the descriptions of tattoos of several offenders who were committed to Bodmin Gaol.

### James Snell

James Snell, admitted 3 December 1850 for ten years, was charged with breaking and entering the house of Mr William Miles and taking a dish. James was marked with the inked words 'Kings Evil' on his left thigh. Meanwhile, John Marks, a seaman from Coxheath, Hampshire, was admitted to Bodmin Gaol in 1866. Marks was charged with refusing to proceed to sea on a ship and was thrown in jail. He was marked with several tattoos of a star, an anchor and a ship. Henry Williams, aged 18, was employed as a shrimper in 1877. He was sentenced to the treadmill for assault and grievous bodily harm. He was marked with four dots on his hand (a tattoo which is commonly used in prisons worldwide today). Emma Knoet, aged 26, was single at the time of her conviction and had been employed as a charwoman (cleaner). She was charged with assault and beating in 1869, this being her 20th visit to gaol. Knoet was marked with several tattoos that included the letters W5 and W1 on her arm.
Circus Attractions

**Time period: 1800 - 1890**

During this period tattooing and circuses went hand in hand: when one flourished so did the other and likewise, when a circus faced bankruptcy, this had a knock-on effect on many tattoo artists.

The link between tattooing and the circus started in 1804, when Jean Baptiste Cabri, who had been tattooed by the people of the Mamparas, picked up the art from them, returned to England and became a carnival performer. He was able to replicate tattoos for an audience. However, as amusements grew and the audience demanded more, he found that he could not compete with other acts and died in 1832, poor and forgotten.

The first tattooed English showman was John Rutherford, allegedly captured by the Morois who tattooed him. On his return to England he told of his adventures to large crowds.

The 1840s saw the growth of the sideshows and the great showmen of this time was PT Barnum who had the first tattooed man to be exhibited in the United States in 1842, one Captain George Costentenus. He captivated his audience with tales of being captured by Chinese Tartars and forced into being tattooed by women from the island, one of whom he ended up marrying. His audiences, who had never seen tattooing before, were bewitched by his tales and greatly impressed. In the 1880s Barnum exhibited and exploited George Costentenus, whose skin was almost completely tattooed. At this time rival circuses would compete for the most elaborately tattooed show people and paid them handsome salaries, as having tattooed show people meant that this would attract more customers.

Tattooed Ladies

**Time period: 1907 - 1940**

Maud Wagner (1877 - 1963) was famous as a circus performer in the early part of the 20th century. She was best known for her acrobatic and contortionist acts. She is also believed to have been the first female tattoo artist in the United States. She met Gus Wagner, a tattoo artist, and it is said that she only agreed to date him if he gave her lessons in how to tattoo. Maud progressed to becoming a very well respected tattoo artist using the 'hand-poked' method rather than using a machine. She and Gus ran a very successful business together as well as travelling around the UK as a tattoo act. They married and had a daughter, Lottie, who went into the tattooing business too.

Another famous tattooed lady in this period was Betty Broadbent (1909 - 1983) from Philadelphia. She performed with major circuses in the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand.

The story goes that Betty became fascinated in the art of tattooing when she met Jack Redcloud, a tattoo artist who was covered in tattoos, at the age of 14. At the age of 16 she had her own collection and by 18 had over 565 tattoos make up her body suit of art. She went on to perform in circuses and learnt how to ride horses in order to take part in other acts. She also challenged tradition by entering a beauty pageant at the 1939 New York World's Fair.

Today it feels quite uncomfortable to think that individuals were put on show in this way due to their desire to ink their skin to be different. However, whatever you feel about this subject, a visit to a circus was very popular to view these tattooed people and by the end of the 1900s more than 300 tattooed people were employed by the travelling circus industry. For many of the individuals the circus would offer a place of safety away from the comments of middle class society somewhere that they could show off their art in a welcoming environment with like-minded people around them.
Modern Prison Tattoos

Time period: 20th and 21st Century

There was an interesting story that appeared in the Daily Mirror in 1965 of a plastic surgeon who was travelling the UK to visit prisons and removing tattoo marks from prisoners to help them forget their criminal past. It was felt that by removing the tattoos this would help the inmates upon release to re-enter the community and live a life free of crime. Tattooing is currently illegal in prison today, but of course it still does take place and many talented artists work behind bars. However, if they are caught they are often sent to solitary confinement as punishment. Here are several of the meanings found on 21st century prison tattoos:

- A cubit represents a lengthy prison sentence as well as an inmate being trapped behind bars. This design can commonly be found around the elbow area, which in itself is a very painful part of the anatomy to have tattooed.

- Teardrops are one of the most common prison tattoos and have different meanings, from murder to the passing of a loved one to a particularly lengthy sentence.

- Dots - these are commonly found on the hand or close to the eye and can be in clusters of three or five. These dots can indicate a gang lifestyle or Christianity's Holy Trinity, whilst five dots relate to the time spent inside.

- A clock or timepiece is a common tattoo found on prisoners, with the timepiece showing numbers but often no hands.

The making of prison tattoos has to be creative today and it's interesting to note that the ingredients used for the tattoos, where improvisation is needed, are often linked with what has been used historically for the creation of this artwork. It's unlikely that tattooing in prison will die out anytime soon.

What's In A Rose?

Time period: 1800 - Present

Throughout tattoo history there are few designs that have more meaning than a rose or a flower. Each flower has different meanings to the wearer and hidden messages are concealed within the design. The language of flowers has long captivated the wearers of these tattoos and continues to be popular today. It would be impossible to include the meanings for all flower tattoos, so here are a few to begin with.

- Roses originated in ancient Persia and they were first recognised as masculine. However, over the years they have become associated with femininity, but remain popular with both men and women. There are 101 meanings associated with this flower, but for many it is used to simply represent love.

- Cherry blossom tattoos are a very common in Japanese style tattooing. The tattoo is often designed as falling petals being carried along in the wind, reflecting Japanese culture. The cherry blossom is fragile and beautiful and they do not stay in flower for very long, with its beauty fading quite quickly. This is looked on by many as a metaphor for life and mortality.

- Chrysanthemums are also significant in Japanese tattoo art, the flower having associations with royalty and perfection. These flowers also symbolise good luck and longevity.

Today flower designs are in no doubt the mainstay of the tattoo business and have been for many centuries.
Military Tattoos

Time period: 1909 – Present

Professional tattooing was well established in the United States and the United Kingdom by the start of the 20th century and had become a popular art form for members of the armed forces and particularly for sailors around the world. At one point it was documented that 90 per cent of American sailors had tattoos.

For many World War I soldiers there was one thing that helped them bond with fellow comrades and remember their families and loved ones back home - a tattoo. A London cobbler by the name of George Burchett was called upon to give thousands of men tattoos at this time, earning him the moniker the ‘King of Tattoos’. He learnt tattooing when he travelled with the navy and ended up in Japan where he got his first tattoo. He then settled in Jerusalem for a time where he tattooed pilgrims for a while, marketing himself as the only British and hygienic tattooist in the city, which did not go down well with established artists. He returned to London and set up his own cobbler's business in Mile End. Word soon got around about his other business and he was linking more tattoos than repairing boots. Burchett appreciated and understood the need for having a powerful tattoo for many during the war years, as it gave strength to them when they needed it the most, reminding them of home, loved ones or simply the spirit they needed to fight on.

In 1909 a recruitment flyer from the US Navy stated that indecent or obscene tattooing was a cause for rejection, and applicants should be given the opportunity to alter the design so that they could enter the navy. When America entered World War II this order led to a boom for tattoo artists as young men looked to alter their tattoos in order to be eligible for enlistment in the US Navy. To this day, heavy restrictions are in place on obscene, racist and drug or gang related tattoos in the US military.

Following the war the popular styles of tattoos for service members changed and this time it was flags, gravers and loved ones. Designs of military insignia are still hugely popular. It is uncertain when the first military design appeared, but it has its own place in the history of tattoos given its heritage and symbolic meaning.
“WE WILL TAKE YOUR CHILDREN TO SAFETY!”

Operation Pied Piper and the forgotten evacuated teachers of World War II

Written by Gillian Mawson
EXPERT BIO

GILLIAN MAWSON

Before working as a museum volunteer on the evacuation, Mawson has interviewed over 600 evacuees to preserve their stories and written four books on the subject. Her work includes Rhymes and Remembered Poetry written by Britain’s Second World War Evacuees and Britain’s Wartime Evacuees. Learn more at guestpoemvoices.wordpress.com
During World War II, thousands of British teachers were evacuated with their pupils, yet we hear their stories far less often than those of child evacuees. Sadly the majority of teachers have now passed away, but their surviving diaries and private correspondence make their wartime memories all the more precious. These men and women took on a great responsibility. Cut off from their own families for the duration of the war, they not only educated the children in their care, but did their best to monitor their health and happiness. They visited local organisations such as the Women’s Voluntary Service and Red Cross, to ask for clothing for their pupils. Crucially, they provided hope and comfort to the children when they were homesick or emotionally distressed.

**THE TEACHER TOUCHED MUM’S ARM AND SAID SOFTLY, ‘YOU CAN LEAVE THEM NOW, MOTHER, THEY’LL BE SAFE WITH ME’**

On 1 September 1939 the British government’s plans for evacuation swung into operation and millions of schoolchildren, teachers, mothers and infants were moved. Before war was declared on 1 September, in the weeks leading up to the evacuation, teachers had liaised with parents regarding the preparations for evacuation and carried out evacuations of teachers and pupils in their schools. In her school log book, Maureen Bras described the preparations that were made for the evacuation of St Dominic’s Infant School, in London. ‘The week before the evacuation, we gave parents lists of what the children should bring with them, made labels showing their names, the name of the school and the school number. Ours was school number 0202. On the morning of September 1st 1939, the children assembled in school around 7:00am. The staff had arrived at 6:00am. At 8:00am we set out from the school, waved off by tearful mothers, grandmothers and others. The groups, Seniors, Juniors and Infants, with staff and helpers, walked in buses to Kentish Town West Station. We all boarded a train that was waiting for us and set out into the unknown. Mr A V Wilson was asked to prepare for the evacuation of pupils in Ilford, Essex, and he made the following entries in his diary: Friday, August 25 - Evacuation duty in Ilford has fallen to Mr. Dymonds, Mr. Bryce and me. My party, which will consist of children under five with their mothers, together with expectant mothers, will be known as a non-school party. It will number at least 650 and will go from South Park School. Thursday, August 31 - We learnt that the government has ordered the evacuation to take place tomorrow, Saturday and Sunday. I am going on Sunday - I know not where to. My party totals 800.

Although some children and teachers were evacuated by coach or boat, the majority travelled to their billets by steam train. As a result, strong memories remain with them of emotional scenes at railway stations and their subsequent journeys into the unknown. When a large group of children from Hackney, London, boarded a train, their parents gathered to witness their departure. One of their teachers Miss Griffith, wrote in her diary: ‘Will any of us ever forget the departure, the route lined with sad but relieved parents?’ In his memoir, nine-year-old John Hawkins described the kindness of his teacher when his school was evacuated from Birmingham: ‘When my Mum,
sister and I arrived at school that day our teacher was marking names off a clipboard. The teacher touched Mum's arm and said softly, 'You can leave them now, Mother, they'll be safe with me.' Mum's lips begin to tremble - she crossed down and kissed us tenderly on the cheek. Then on we children and teachers marched, past the houses, shops and factories that we all knew so well, from which poured housewives, factory workers, shop assistants, men and women, young and old, to loudly cheer us on our way. When we reached Twyley station, we were swiftly but gently ushered into a compartment. Suddenly, everyone turned in amazement to see a frantic mother dash from the crowd and blindly force her way through the barrier onto the platform, to scoop her tiny, frightened daughter into her arms. She then ran, sobbing bitterly, from the station.

Teachers also wrote about the arrival of their schools in the evacuation reception areas. Mary Richardson taught at Cork Street School, Camberwell, and travelled with her pupils to Kent. Mary's daughter, P.J. O'Sullivan, shared her mother's story, saying: "Each teacher was assigned ten children and after a long train journey, we arrived at Sevenoaks where we were nearly put into cattle pens to be counted. We then caught another train and arrived at Twyney station, which is quite a distance from the village, so when we arrived at the church hall we were a sorry sight - tired, thirsty and afraid. Mothers came and chose us and I was settled upon by the lady at the village shop and bakehouse. We had promised to try to keep families together but with four Peabody girls and four Sparrows, we proved impossible. Some of the younger children had wet themselves and their clothing was dirty, ragged and unsuitable. However, the Kent ladies were brilliant, extra clothing was found, menus were changed to accommodate townies who never ate greens' and cuddly toys were given to comfort the weepy ones."

As described, evacuated teachers had to ensure that children who had left with just a small bag were properly clothed during their years away from home. Some teachers actually approached the local newspaper office to ask if they could place an appeal for clothing in the paper. A Cheshire newspaper printed the following appeal: 'Boots and clothing for 90 boys are needed in Hale. These boys are in our midst through no fault of their own. Cash donations also welcome.'

As a result of such appeals, local communities donated clothing and footwear to thousands of child evacuees. Teachers also approached the Women's Voluntary Service (WVS) to ask for clothing for their pupils. When Mr Percy Marriott brought his pupils to Chadeaux House, Cheshire, he relied heavily on the help of the local WVS. His diary entry for October 1940 shows that the weather had become much colder and he was anxious about the children's clothing. "Today we all had to spend hours in the school air raid shelter, a wet, slippery muddy lake and the roof is leaking. To take children from a warm school into such an atmosphere is scandalous and with, as yet, no winter clothes." Luckily the ladies of the WVS came to the rescue. They quickly organised several fundraising events and were able to supply...
Children were inspected to ensure they were in good health.

"Too many of the truth-producing areas have experienced such life."
the evacuees with warm clothing. Mr. Mantle praised the VVS in his diary. “The work done and the sympathy extended to us by these ladies is indeed marvellous. As our troubles increase, their sympathetic support and kindness seem to attain greater heights.”

When Wimborne Central school was evacuated by train to Chichester, the children were immediately put onto buses. However, four of the buses were accidently sent to a completely different destination. One of the teachers, Miss I.C. Eccles, recorded this event in her school log book and on 5 September he wrote, “Continued to check the houses where our pupils have been billeted. Children very happy but bewildered. I then went to the evacuation distribution centre to find the exact destination of the other four buses but no news.” He spent the evening at local vicars, before he finally discovered the whereabouts of the rest of his pupils.

When the children arrived at their new billets, their teachers told them that they must write their new address on a postcard and send it, together with a short message, to their parents. The teachers suggested messages which would cheer up worried parents, such as: “Dear Mum and Dad, am living with nice people. Don’t worry about me.” However, this had tragic consequences for one little boy and his family. He left his billet, placed his postcard, with the above message, in the letter box then went for a walk. Sadly he fell into a canal and drowned. His family were advised of his death that evening, but two days later, his postcard with its poignant little message arrived at their home.

There is a common misconception that most evacuees were sent from poor urban housing to the countryside where the facilities were far superior. Even today, some people still assume that all evacuees came from inner city slums, were dirty, had head lice and were not house trained. Gateshead teacher Jesse Hetherington talked about the poor facilities that she and her pupils had encountered in Bishop Auckland: “We were welcomed warmly by our prospective hosts and, after distribution to our new homes, a long day ended. Mine was to a village comprised of long rows of pit houses with outside ‘notties’ (toilets) and very few bathrooms. Saturday was spent seeing that the children were settled in. We had all come from a new housing estate where every house had an indoor toilet and bathroom, but here most were housed in homes without either – as I was. The kindliness of most of the hosts made up for the lack of amenities.”

From May 1940, further waves of evacuation occurred in Britain when German forces invaded Belgium, Holland and France. New children from the south and east coasts of England were moved inland to safety. A House of Commons report shows that one MP declared, “In the weeks that lie ahead, none of us knows whether he may not be evicted from some place which at the moment appears to be quite safe?” Then, on 20 June 1940, around 25,000 Channel Island children and teachers were evacuated to England, just days before their islands were occupied by German Forces. Mrs Marjorie Atkins’ diary described the evacuation of her pupils from Amherst Girls’ School in Guernsey. “News came through at about 5am that things were getting very dangerous and that a ship was on its way to fetch us and we must be back at school by 9am! By now most of the children were in bed whilst their parents were making the necessary arrangements. Gradually, wide-eyed sleepy girls came with bewildered parents, ready to tick them off on our list as they arrived.”

Britain sent ships of all descriptions, including coal barges and mail boats, to transport the children and teachers across the English Channel to Weymouth. After they disembarked, they were taken into the Pavilion Theatre where they received tea and sandwiches, gave their personal details and underwent a brief health check. In 1972, Guernsey teacher Miss Grace Fry shared her story with the Guernsey Retired Teachers Association. “We had only been in Weymouth for a few minutes when an air raid took place. My pupils and I were pushed out of the building onto a bus then, to my horror, the driver locked the doors and disappeared. After an hour, I thought, ‘Well, this is the end, if a bomb falls on us, I hope it happens quickly!’ Then the driver unlocked the door and said ‘Out!’ We were then sent to the railway station. Young soldiers began to push the children onto a train, then suddenly this big Major came out of the darkness, and said ‘Madam will you go on with your children?’ and I said ‘But where?’ Well, the train started to move and a young Lieutenant came running down the platform, grabbed my hand and said ‘Can you run?’ and we set off at a terrific lick! A steward appeared at the open train door and this young soldier pushed me into his arms, and then off we went. We were sent to Pollokshields, Glasgow, where one of the volunteers asked me if my group were Belgian.”

It may appear strange that Channel Island evacuees were sent to the industrial towns and cities of northern England and to Glasgow but the only railway lines available at that time led straight into those areas. Few evacuees were given any idea of their final destinations, despite the efforts of the teachers to obtain information. Guernsey teacher Alex Lowe explained, “I repeatedly asked the guard about our destination and was eventually told, ‘You’re going to Oldham”.

“We will take your children to safety!”

The Poetry of Wartime Evacuation

How the evacuated teachers encouraged evacuees to share their feelings, through poetry

During the war, many evacuees wrote poems to describe their experiences and often it was their teachers who encouraged them to do this. Evacuees wrote about their involvement in the war effort, their thoughts of home, family and their feelings regarding the eventual return home. Some described the joy of ‘Victory in Europe’ Day whilst others revealed their sadness at leaving behind the ‘foster families’ who had cared for them and whom they had come to love. Poems about victory and the return home are mostly provided by evacuees from Guernsey who came to England and Scotland in 1940. Perhaps this is because they felt physically separated from their homes and families by the English Channel. Many evacuees composed poems in their later years, often after attending evacuation reunions. After talking about their experiences with each other, they wrote poetry that examined the effect that wartime evacuation had upon their lives. Katharine Barber was seven when she was evacuated, from Lowestoft to Glossop, Derbyshire, with her younger brother. Fifty years later, she attended a meeting of the Lowestoft Evacuees Association where she read out her poem, ‘The Market Place’. The opening verse describes the wartime ‘selection process’ that had occurred in Glossop Market Place in June 1940.

“The cream wound through the market place
Its fields still standing bare
A silent witness to a day
That she remembered there.
When children stood around the plain.
On sit down and a still
‘They people come and picked those out.
She gladly would recall.
For some a long for more a short
For some just one week.
Her memory spanned many years
That day never to read
Some had slept, all were scared.
‘Thank God that time held such love and care.”

73
THE PRESIDENT'S WIFE AND THE YOUNG EVACUÉE

How one young girl became a wartime pen pal to Mrs Eleanor Roosevelt

When Father Bleach brought Guernsey's La Charniere Catholic School to Onslow, he faced huge financial difficulties. However, his fortunes changed when he discovered the existence of the 'Toster Parent Plan for children Afflicted by war' (1939). The PFP asked people to donate a regular amount to provide a child with food and shelter. They were also asked to write letters to the child to show that someone cared about them, creating what we now call 'child sponsorship'.

In November 1943, Eleanor Roosevelt, wife of American President, Franklin D Roosevelt, sponsored three PFP children. One was Paulette Le Muscar, one of the children at La Charniere School. Paulette became 'Toster child 306' to Mrs Roosevelt who became 'Toster Parent 200'. Soon, many of Pauline's school friends were sponsored by Americans.

When Pauline received letters from the White House and wrote letters back, the address moved little into her. She explained: "I was only 11 years old, there was no television then so we didn't hear about famous people. To me, she was just my Auntie Eleanor, I remember receiving some Lux soap which had a lovely smell, and a lovely red dress." In May 1943 Pauline discovered who Auntie Eleanor actually was and wrote back to talk about the work of the PFP and about Mrs Roosevelt. When the Channel Islands were liberated on 9 May 1945, Pauline received a final letter from Mrs Roosevelt and an invitation to visit the White House. However, Pauline was unable to accept this offer: "I hadn't the money or support to enable me to do this. Cut off from my Guernsey family, Auntie Eleanor's letters were the only correspondence I received during the war."

- and God help you! The guard was referring to a town of coal pits and slag heaps!" The Channel Island evacuees relied very heavily on the care and guidance of their teachers as they were totally cut off from their own parents for five long years.

Although many of Britain's evacuees received loving care from their wartime foster parents, others did not. Children endured physical and mental cruelty at the hands of unsuitable hosts because billets were not fully vetted before children were placed there. Luckily, some children were rescued from these terrible situations because their teachers noticed their unhappiness, or observed bruises and marks. Peggy and Betty White were evacuated to Oxford with their teachers and lived very happily in the home of a local couple, Mr and Mrs Murphy. However, when Mrs Murphy was due to have a baby, the girls had to move out. Peggy recalled that their next billet was very different.

"We moved in with Mrs Fisher who turned out to be the most wicked woman we had ever met. From the very next day we were beaten and made to do all the housework before going to school. We had to get up at five each morning and we were sent to bed as soon as we got in from school. As an extra punishment we would be shut, one at a time, in a dark coal-shed all night. We lived there for about a year, which to us seemed like forever. One day Betty's teacher, Mrs Payne, saw the terrible bruises on her. She questioned us both, and we said that Mrs Fisher would kill us if we ever told anyone. Mrs Payne took us back to the house and told us to pack our belongings while she had words with Mrs Fisher. Then we were all left. As we walked along the road in the gathering dusk, Mrs Payne said, 'Where would you like to live most of all?' Betty and I cried in unison, 'With Mrs Murphy.' She replied, 'That's just where we are going.' We skipped the rest of the way there. Mrs Murphy cried when she saw us and so did we.'

In some cases, schools were evacuated to open-air camps in the countryside. When Derby School was evacuated to Amber Valley Camp in 1940, the accompanying teachers became full time 'foster parents' to 200 boys. Elizabeth Bowden shared her story with the Derby Evening Telegraph: "My father was headmaster of Derby School and Mother and I moved into the camp with him. We lived in a bungalow whilst the pupils and the other teachers were billeted around the camp in wooden huts. It was a huge responsibility for those adults, in charge of 200 boys. Mother had a petrol allowance because she drove the emergency vehicle. Several times she had to take boys with broken arms and to the hospital."

It is clear that, during the war, the teachers who remained with their evacuated pupils carried a huge burden of responsibility. Miss Grace Fry's life was completely changed by her experience of caring for 300 children. In a 1975 interview for the Guernsey Retired Teachers' Association, she stated: "It was the evacuation that decided me, I wasn't going to have children, because I had had enough with all that during the war." The child evacuees have never forgotten the care they received from their teachers. John Davis said to me: "My memory is of the unfailing kindness of the staff at a time when their own personal lives must have been under great stress, as well as the responsibility of teaching and caring for such a large number of children in very difficult circumstances."
The Mongol Empire's assault on Hungary in 1241 was not inevitable. Despite their reputation for unleashing panic and bloodshed on an epic scale, the Mongols did at first attempt to reason with the state they would soon seek to crush, but, as was so often the case during the medieval period, the path of diplomacy was a short one. Unfortunately for Hungary and its proud king, the road to recovery would be anything but.

Since their crushing victory over a contingent of Rus' principalities at the Battle of the Kalka River in 1231, the Mongols were confident in their ability to fight their way deeper into a Europe just beginning to appreciate the terror that had swept throughout central Asia since 1206.

Eager to follow in the footsteps of his father Genghis, in 1235 Ögedei Khan ordered Batu Khan (leader of the Iron Horde since 1227) to conquer East, a network of states in eastern Europe. By November 1240 Batu's armies had slashed their way through Christian lands and entered Hungary.

**BATTLE OF MOHI**

**SAJÓ RIVER, NEAR MOHI, HUNGARY, 10-11 APRIL 1241**

Written by Charles Ginger
way to Kiev, a city they promptly sacked, its 50,000 citizens slain without mercy.

In the same year as the sacking of Kiev, Mongol emissaries were dispatched to Pest to pay tribute to King Bela IV. The reason for their journey was the recent influx of German refugees into the country following the Mongols’ devastation of their homeland. The Cumans, as their rightful masters, had been invited into the Hungarian army, a welcome addition to forces that Bela wished to keep busy. Determined to take advantage of their new status, they assembled an army once more.

Enraged by Bela’s refusal to hand over the Cumans, the Mongols now had their cause built; and preparations for the conquest of Hungary were drawn up by the greatest strategist in the Mongol army, Subuhat. Responsible for the entire Mongol advance into Europe, Subuhat took every opportunity to install spies throughout newly taken territories, informers who provided him with information on the political and military landscape of states yet to be brought to heel. His foresight would soon pay off handsomely.

For Bela, this was not the threat his kingdom now confronted. Realizing that the Mongols would not accept being ignored, he summoned his forces to Pest. The chance to ensure his survival would prove a potent thing to come.

Widely hated by nobles due to his domestic policies, many prominent figures ignored Bela’s commands. Their insubordination was further compounded by the murder of the Cumans’ leader, a man who had been placed under Bela’s protection since he fled to Hungary. The news of the killing sparked a Cumans uprising that saw them declare war on the army and pillage their way through much of southwest Hungary, pinning down indispensable troops as they went.

The situation was unfortunately little better outside of Hungary’s borders. Poland, a longtime target of the Golden Horde, soon found itself struggling to fight off a Mongol incursion, meaning it was in no position to support Bela. Devoid of the heavy cavalry usually provided by the nobles and with Mongol soldiers swarming into Transylvania, Bela’s hopes of taking the fight to the enemy were fading by the day. In fact, such was his luck that when help finally did arrive it did nothing but hinder. Duke Frederick II of Austria’s minor victories over some Mongol raiding parties only served to make Bela appear even more vulnerable. The fact that Frederick then promptly turned tail and fled for home seems to have passed Bela entirely by.

With the icy grip of winter reeling the spring of 1241, there seemed little chance of a Mongol incursion, and not a moment too soon. Disrupted at every turn, Hungary’s beleaguered monarch now had little choice but to pursue the Mongols. His desperation to rid central Europe of the Mongol scourge (three Mongol armies had now punctured Hungary’s borders) would play right into Subuhat’s hands.
Greatest Battles

Since the dawn of the expansion of the Mongol Empire its wily warriors had often deployed a cunning tactic to lure opponents into a trap the foe regarded. Whether through ignorance or arrogance, King Béla failed to grasp that he was set to be the next victim of this ploy when Subutai began to pull his forces back from the outskirts of Pest. Eager to shake the label of coward that had recently been bestowed upon him, Béla made a hasty retreat.

On the morning of 10 April the Hungarian army was ordered to make camp near the village of Mohács just south of the Sajo River in northwest Hungary. Weary from a week of forced marching, Béla’s men were too happy to halt. A series of sargans were quickly chained together to create a circular fort inside which the troops could set up camp and weather the enemy. It wasn’t long before they sighted them.

Sent forwards to get a better look at the enemy, a small gathering of Mongol troops was spotted on the far bank of the Sajo on the afternoon of the 10th. Fortunately for them the Hungarian scouts dispatched to cross the bridge that flowed over the river and apprehend them were halted by hailstorm, their inability to close on the Mongol spies leaving Béla blind to the presence of the main Mongol army just behind the woodland into which they had escaped. Béla, on the other hand, had ensured that he would not be similarly clueless, the experienced general watching Béla’s camp from a hill to the north.

Even so, the Mongols didn’t have it all their own way. As night closed in and Hungarian guards tired to their stations, a sarge lurched into view from the direction of the river, a slave on the run.

The courageous escapee was promptly matched to Béla’s tent, where he revealed the Mongols’ audacious plans to seize the bridge that very night. Upon hearing this grave news Béla’s brother Coloman, Duke of Slavonia, hurried to prepare a detachment to secure the crossing.

Trailing out between the tents and tables adorning the camp, Colomans’ sargans broke into a gallop and raced through the darkness, hoping desperately to have moved fast. The sound of clanking weapons and foreign tongues up ahead sharpened their hopes just seconds before they came upon Béla’s vanguard, the front section of which had already begun to fan out on the Hungarian side of the river. A furious fight ensued as started Mongol forces raked Béla’s vanguard with the onslaught of hooves and crossbow bolts. Determined to hold their ground, Béla’s men slanted at the flames of enemy they could see, but soon men began to fall, punctured by arrows or scythed down by cavalry to form up and race towards the Mongol troops pouring over the Sajo.

Lances lowered, the courageous chargers smashed into Béla’s front lines, but this time the Mongols (most of whom were mounted) were ready. Cities of anger and anguish filled the night sky as troops on both sides stabbed and shot at one another, bolts and arrows lodging in all directions.

Remarkably, given the sheer weight of Mongol numbers, Coloman’s cavalry began to force Béla back towards the river, turning what seemed like a strong position into an increasingly vulnerable one. But just as Béla began to run out of room Hungarian riders spurred Shiban’s force, which had by now managed to cross the river, charging in from the north. Terrified of being encircled, the Hungarians were forced to relinquish the advantage and flee to safety. Still, valuable time had been bought for Béla to mobilise the bulk of the army.

Inexplicably, King Béla had not capitulated on his brother’s courage in hurrying to the Mongol in by waving the rest of his army, an oversight for which he was openly lambasted by Archbishop Ugolin, one of several prominent religious figures present at Mohács. Evidently embarrassed, Béla finally called his men to arms and a patchwork formation of troops started to trudge out of the camp. Using their heavy horses as sledges populated with which to carry Béla’s centre, the main Hungarian army began to move towards the bridge.
**Kingdom of Hungary**

**Number of Troops:** 25,000

**Number of Losses:** Virtually the entire army

**Béla IV of Hungary**

Dwindled despite his father’s reservations, Béla IV proved larger-than-expected at Mohács, but would recover to lead Hungary’s defence and later be hailed as the second Lion of the state.

- Under-equipped and poorly led, the army fought bravely and stood its ground, but eventually succumbed to overwhelming numbers.

**Crossbowmen**

- A key part of the Hungarian military, their precision at long range was devastating.

**Crossbow**

- Typically constructed from wood, a pull of 240 pounds was needed to launch an arrow.

**Composite Bow**

- Also a key part of the Hungarian military, the composite bow was lighter and more powerful.

**Golden Horde of the Mongols**

**Number of Troops:** 20,000

**Number of Losses:** A few hundred

**Subutai “The Valiant”**

- Commanded an army of Mongol warriors renowned for their lightning-fast attacks.

**Cavalry**

- The horde’s horsemen were skilled and deadly, equipped with bows and arrows.

**Composite Bow**

- Developed to shoot arrows more accurately and efficiently, it was a key weapon in the Battle of Mohács.
Greatest Battles

10-11 April 1241
How the Mongol Empire was nearly crushed by Hungarian enemies over just two days in spring

Batu prepares his assault
Without the bridge the Mongol advance would be dead before it began. With Subotai having ordered the stone-throwers onwards, Batu gives the signal to pound the Hungarian bowmen with the stone-throwers as they reach the far bank. Once on the other side the Mongol soldiers begin to fall out and form up in preparation for a direct assault on the Hungarian encampment to the south.

Batu fords the river
Remarking that many Hungarian reinforcements were on the march to the bridge, Batu takes advantage of this and orders a massive cavalry charge directed at the enemy, who, still in the process of forming up, are vulnerable. Halting at the finest rider in Europe, the Hungarian horsemen dash for the bridge and crush into the front ranks of Batu’s army. Momentum wins, the Hungarians gain the initiative and force Batu back.

Here comes the cavalry
Alerted to the impending disaster of a full-scale Mongol crossing of the river, Coloman bravely leads a cavalry charge directed at the enemy, who, still in the process of forming up, are vulnerable. Halting at the finest rider in Europe, the Hungarian horsemen dash for the bridge and crush into the front ranks of Batu’s army. Momentum wins, the Hungarians gain the initiative and force Batu back.
Battle Of Mohi

10 A lethal escape
Those within the camp not immediately killed hurry to escape via a gap deliberately left open by the Mongols. Flowing men are easier to kill, and the Mongols fall upon the stragglers without mercy, shooting them as they run or closing in and cutting them down. Béla’s defeat is total.

9 Surrounded on all sides
Subutai has Béla right where he wants him. He easily gives the signal and all hell is let loose as flaming arrows, stones and according to some sources Chinese gunpowder engulfs the camp.

8 The trap springs
Yet again Subutai has executed his plan perfectly, leaving his enemy no option but to fall straight into the trap set by Mongol. Pouring behind the wagons, battle-weary Hungarians group together and face towards the approaching Mongols. Swords at the ready, they’ve nowhere else to run, it’s fight or die. A few rallies are sent forth but each one is beaten back almost instantly as the Mongol troops close in.

7 Subutai marches to the rescue
Despite their valiant efforts, faced with the prospect of encirclement, the Hungarians have no option but to give up the fight once more, but they do so having inflicted and characteristically heavy casualties on the Mongols. Hundreds of the mettre invaders lie dead around the River banks.

6 The Mongols are pushed back
For the third time the Hungarians collide with the invading Mongols, and for the third time they batter them back towards the much-caked banks of the Sajó River.

5 The rabble emerges
Colomon and his surviving cavalry fall back into Béla’s camp expecting to be met with a fully mobilised army. Unfortunately, Béla has neglected to ready his men for the coming onslaught. Eventually a very public dressing down calls him into doing so, and the back of the Hungarian army begins relatively 25,000 men variety to file out. Despite not being in their correct formation the troops are ordered to make for the river.

4 Fall back!
To the mid-stone of every man in Béla’s camp, Coloman’s triumph is temporary. Just when the furious hand-to-hand fighting threatens to engulf Béla himself, Subutai materialises to the north and south respectively, the latter fresh from finding a deeper section of the river with the help of a hastily erected wooden pontoon. The Hungarians heading their way towards Béla during 30 of his personal guards as they get are forced to retreat.

3 The Mongols charge
The Mongols bring on their cavalry to charge, under the lead of Cimer, who was wounded in the battle, but not before his last battle cry is heard: "Mongol, Mongol!"
SHOCK FRENCH VICTORY OVER THE BRITISH!

The rise of Britain as a world power has been severely curtailed as France emerges victorious in globe-spanning conflict.

What was the background to the Seven Years’ War from 1756 to 1763?
In some ways, the Seven Years' War is part of a much longer war. There's 100 years of warfare between Britain and France in the 18th century. I think something like one year out of every two in the 18th century Britain and France were at war. Some historians would see the Seven Years' War as a kind of unfinished business from the previous war, the War of the Austrian Succession [1740] to [1748]. They're working out those problems on the European continent. The second thing is a kind of ratcheting up of tension between these two emerging global superpowers. So, Britain and France going toe-to-toe around the globe looking for more trade, more commerce, more influence. That is another spark, as it were, that ignites the fire of the Seven Years' War.

Who were the major belligerents on each side of the conflict?
You've got France and Austria, quite unusually. Normally, France and Austria tend to be on opposite sides, and that suits Britain from a diplomatic perspective, the two major European powers. You've also got Spain allying herself with France. Spain doesn't enter the war until the early 1760s. So those three major powers are on one side. Then you've got Britain and Prussia on the other side.

How did the war play out?
The war between Britain and France officially breaks out in 1756, but it starts a little bit before that, actually in 1754 in the interior of North America when Britain and France are fighting out a border skirmish in the Ohio country. But from the 1750s, it doesn't look terribly good for Britain. 1757 is a terrible year.

BRITISH KICKED OUT OF INDIA

In a shocking turn of events off the back of the collapsing coalition of Great Britain and Prussia and the French and Austrian victory over them in Europe, the Nawab Nazim of Bengal launched an audacious and ultimately successful attempt to eject the British East India Company from India. Emboldened by French victory and with their explicit support, the weakened international standing of Britain was laid bare for all to see with this latest defeat.
The American War of Independence may have played out differently had Britain lost.

The war gave rise to the British Empire.
for Britain it lost Menorca; the French are on the verge of invading the south coast of England. It doesn’t start off well. The turning point for many people at the time and for many historians since has been the year 1758, the so-called Year of Victories. The Year of Miracles, Amiens, Minden, Blenheim. While this series of battles in different places around the world, from West Africa to the Caribbean to India, and then ultimately the Battle of the Plains of Abraham outside Quebec City in North America. That marks the tide in favour of Britain. It takes another four years for peace, eventually signed in 1763. But ultimately, these victories in 1759 are the ones that had turned the tide for Britain.

With so many different theatres of war, was this essentially a world war? Yes, it is called the Seven Years War, the First World War. But I’ve got a lot of other colleagues who use the same term for lots of other wars, like the Crimean War. There are plenty of historians who work on particular wars and term them global wars. But yes, I can see this being described as a world war, and that is the mobilisation of resources on a global scale. There are battles on three, four continents.

What were the major outcomes of the war? What did Britain become a global superpower? I think, one of my favourite questions from the Seven Years War is did the Seven Years’ War cause as many problems as opportunities for Britain? So yes, it absolutely did because there were lots of opportunities for Britain to establish herself as a global superpower. It is worth saying that Britain is a really young country when the war breaks out. It’s less than 50 years old, so after the Union of the Parliament in 1707, the outbreak of the war is 49 years later. The Seven Years’ War is one of those events that helps to forge some sort of national identity. Just as important of course, is the trading and commercial opportunities the Seven Years’ War and victory in it affords to Britain are really important. It gives Britain that opportunity to expand over the course of the next three or four decades.

What if the war hadn’t swung in Britain’s favour in 1759 and they had lost the war? In some ways we need to think of what 20th century approach to warfare where it’s total surrender. That is not the way they did things in the 18th century. Fighting a war was basically a way of gathering credits that you then bargained off at the negotiating table. If France had won the war, it would depend on what France had captured. Which Caribbean islands would France have captured?

Which bits of North America would France have captured that would then bring with Britain? What kind of balance of power would there have been at the end of the Seven Years War? It would depend on how successful the French were. If they managed to invade Britain, well then that would’ve been a quite different matter. I guess it would’ve obviously led to a drain on national resources and all the rest here in Britain. Some historians would say that winning the Seven Years War wasn’t all it was cracked up to be. It had increased national debt tremendously, put a lot of pressure on the East India Company in Asia, and led, ultimately, to some of the problems in the North American colonies that led to the War of American Independence.

Were there any key territories that France had its eye on? The French are interested in Europe, principally. Obviously, they’d been keen to capture some of those really rich, sugar-producing colonies in the Caribbean if they could do that. But I think there are two different strategies at play here. There’s the French strategy of trying to clear Britain out of the Mediterranean, so capturing the island of Menorca in the Western Mediterranean. But essentially, France got forced into supporting her ally Austria and fighting the war in Europe. Whereas Britain, particularly under the prime-ministership of William Pitt the Elder, focused on the wider world and winning the war by winning lots of colonies. So it’s two different approaches to the war.

How would the balance of power in North America had shifted? If France had been successful in North America. If they’d managed to hold onto those territories, it would’ve kept a screw on the British settlers in North America. It would’ve prevented them from expanding into the interior. It would’ve prevented them from setting in places like Ohio and those kind of places in the interior of North America.
Did the Seven Years’ War allow the British Empire to grow into the global superpower it became?

I think it definitely played a major role in it, in some cases because of the direct effects of the war. In India, for example, because of Britain being at war with France. It gave the East India Company an opportunity to beat the French in India. In terms of capturing areas in West Africa and in terms of protecting Britain’s colonies in the Caribbean, it definitely cemented that Atlantic Empire for Britain as well. By holding onto these colonies it meant that their sugar-producing, profit-making ability was retained for the Empire. Ultimately it set the ball rolling for all those upheavals in North America over the course of the next decade or two that led to the emergence of the United States. If you want to take it a step further, you might say it forced a re-imagining of the British Empire, as it were, forcing it to move away from the Atlantic and turn more towards Asia and India. So yeah, it helps to put Britain on the map as a global superpower. It also helps to put Peasola on the map as a European superpower.

Would Britain’s place in the world ultimately have changed dramatically if they had lost?

It would’ve definitely changed Britain’s place in the world and Britain’s view of itself. If it had lost the war, it depends on how catastrophically they would’ve lost the war, because Britain loses the War of American Independence but isn’t particularly bothered by that because it’s managed to hold on to Jamaica. Would they have lost the war catastrophically? I don’t know. But as I said, Britain is a pretty young country in the 1750s and 1760s, so it definitely would’ve had an effect on its view of itself and its place in the world for a while to come.
THE ART OF ABRAM GAMES

A brand new exhibition brings the work of the legendary poster artist to life while breaking down his most famous pieces.

In the era before television, being able to get a visual message across to the public was the preserve of newspapers and poster notices and the business was central to the British war effort in the 1940s. Abram Games is one of the most celebrated artists of the era with his inventive, progressive and minimalist style and almost cinematic approach to design.

The National Army Museum is currently running an extensive exhibition of Games’ work that includes over 100 of his posters as well as some of his equipment and some interactive features. It’s a great showcase of his approach to graphic design and the wide array of subjects he covered, from hygiene for soldiers to providing support for Holocaust survivors after the war. It also looks at his techniques, in particular how he employed an airbrush, which happened to be a very efficient use of paint too.

The National Army Museum exhibition runs until late November with adult tickets £6.55 concessions and free entry for serving army personnel and under 16s.
THE ART OF ABRAM GAMES

YOUR BRITAIN

FIGHT FOR THE FUTURE

Reducing the odds to support the war effort was not Games’ only task; he was also employed by the Army Board of Camouflage to instruct soldiers that would show soldiers what they were fighting for. His concept was to show off progressive architecture and the ruins of old buildings, showing the promise of a brighter future once the war was over.

LOOSE LIPS

The poster that Games himself was reportedly most proud of is a series of posters released to warn soldiers against careless talk in case of sabotage and infiltration by the enemy. The ghostly soldier’s head in the background is actually a self-portrait of Games.

JEWISH RELIEF

In 1943 Games joined the Jewish Relief Unit and would spend his evenings, weekends and days off from the army working on posters for the group, with the aim of supporting displaced Jewish populations and support their return to their homeland after the war. After seeing footage from concentration camps in 1945, he designed three posters urging public support for aid for Holocaust survivors, such as this one.

GIVE CLOTHING
FOR LIBERATED JEWRY
THROUGH HISTORY

FACING LEFT

In her book on her father's wartime work, Naomi Garmey points out that figures in her mother's often looked left. Apparently this was a nod to his socialist political values, with the head looking left indicating a progressive viewpoint. However, Garmey's work was increasingly drawing controversy more for its modernist style. The poster to promote ATS savings accounts for the public only had a limited run.

JOIN UP

The look of the ATS recruitment poster (the first of many Games would design) was based on one by Dennis Murphy, an ATS recruit who passed in exchange for Games designing some ATS social club posters. While seemingly effective in making the ATS seem more attractive, it proved controversial for its seeming glamorisation of service.

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On the Menu
LORD WOOLTON PIE

Did you know?
Savoy chef Latry created a Christmas dinner of the favourite dishes of historical figures like Elizabeth I.

A VEGETABLE PIE FOR THE RATIONING ERA UNITED KINGDOM, 1940-1954

The British reputation abroad for the poor quality of its cuisine was unlikely to have been aided by dishes such as this one, no matter how well-intentioned its creation may have been. The Woolton Pie, named after Minister of Food Frederick Marquis, Lord Woolton who helped to promote the dish, was a recipe devised to offer broad nutritional value with limited access to ingredients because of rationing. The British love of pies would not wane, but without meat how were they to be filled and flavoured?

The recipe itself was created by François Latry, the Maître Chef at the Savoy Hotel, but despite this rather lofty source its basic elements couldn’t really be disguised for what they were: a lot of root vegetables with a pastry top. It doesn’t appear to have ever been a popular dish and disappeared quickly from menus once rationing of meat came to an end. Still, it’s a curious creation to take a look at.

**Method**

1. Trim and chop the cauliflower, spring onions and carrots into small pieces. Peel, trim and chop the swede and potatoes as well, a little smaller than the rest as they will take longer to cook. Place all of the vegetables into a large pot.
2. Add the Marmite or vegetable extract (you could also use a stock cube or two) and the tablespoon of oats to the pot. Add salt and pepper and then add water so that it covers about ⅔ of the vegetables in the pot.
3. Bring the water in the pot to a boil on the stove top, stirring regularly so that the mixture doesn’t stick to the pan. Cook until the vegetables are all tender and most of the liquid has been absorbed. Add a little extra water if it has all been absorbed and the vegetables are still undercooked. Once done set aside.
4. Mix the flour, butter and lard in a large mixing bowl, rubbing the fat into the flour to create a breadcrumb-like consistency. Then add the grated potato to the bowl and mix well, adding a little water where needed to form a consistent dough (and do so quickly, otherwise the potato will turn the pastry grey).
5. Place the vegetables into a pie dish, sprinkle parsley over the top. Roll the pastry out to a size that can cover the dish and then place that on top. Trim the edges of the pie and make cuts to allow steam to escape. Brush with milk for a nicer finish.
6. Cook the pie in a 200°C oven (400°F, gas mark 6) for 20 minutes or until the crust is nice dark golden brown. Serve with some rich, savoury gravy.

**Ingredients**

For the filling:
- 450g potato
- 450g carrot
- 450g cauliflower
- 450g swede
- 3 spring onions
- 1 tsp Marmite or vegetable extract
- 1 tbsp rolled oats
- Fresh chopped or dry parsley

For the pastry:
- 200g flour
- 40g butter
- 40g lard
- 160g grated raw potato

Did you make it? Let us know! www.historyanswers.co.uk /AllAboutHistory @AboutHistoryMag
THE WONDERS

Bringing to life the tragic and triumphant stories of Victorian freak show performers

Author John Woollf Publisher Michael O’Mara Books Price £20 Released Out now

The Greatest Showman was a surprise hit when it arrived in cinemas almost two years ago and its catchy soundtrack dominated the music charts, but the musical failed to address the dark reality of PT Barnum’s ‘freak’ shows and the unethical exploitation of his performers. In his own words, Dr. John Woollf gives a voice to those frequently silent performers, who created the world of the freak in his book The Wonders: Lifting The Curtain On The Freak Show: Circus And Victorian Age.

Woollf provides a detailed history of the freak show from the royal courts of early modern Europe to the Victorian fair and eventually the museums of America. Performers with deformities were displayed in a variety of venues ranging from theatres to aquariums and demand was so great, it became a struggle to find enough performers to fill them.

One of the best parts about The Wonders is that we are introduced to a cast of performers who all led extraordinary lives, from the conjoined twins Millie and Christine McKoy - commonly known as the ‘Carolina Twins’ - to Charles Stratton, known by his stage name General Tom Thumb, who became one of the world’s first international celebrities, meeting Queen Victoria, President Abraham Lincoln and even Tsar Nicholas I of Russia.

Woollf successfully sheds light on the figures whose biographies have largely remained in pamphlets which are sold and written by the showmen that owned them, and questions the reliability of the source material that was created to serve an agenda. For example, the author of the autobiography of Joseph Merrick - the Elephant Man - cannot be verified, but as Woollf states, it was written to encapsulate the Victorian values of self-help and hard work.

Although it would be easy to focus solely on the negatives, Woollf offers a balanced argument and highlights some of the positives of freak shows. Anna Swan, who was aged 71, fell, performed at Barnum’s American museum and she was treated well by the showman. She married a fellow performer who was also over 71, Martin Moran, and they set up homesteads with the money they had earned through freak shows. Their story is a reminder that for many performers, being exploited for their deformities was their only way to secure a living.

The book also highlights the uncomfortable reality that in many ways, thanks to television and social media, the modern world is not so different to the world of the voyeuristic Victorians. It is an extremely thought-provoking book that considers our fascination with the ‘other’, which in many cases still comes at the cost of exploitation.

Woollf has clearly done extensive academic research for The Wonders but somehow manages to keep it captivating and easy to read. It is clear to see that he is passionate about the topic and he approaches the discussion around the performers and the freak shows in an appropriate and humane manner, transforming the so-called ‘freaks’ into people and giving their lives the recognition they deserve.

The book highlights the fact that the modern world is not so different to the world of the voyeuristic Victorians.
UNDERSTANDING HIEROGLYPHICS
A fun introduction to ancient Egypt and its hieroglyphs

Author Hilary Wilson Publisher Michael O’Mara Books Price £16.99
Released Out now

In Understanding Hieroglyphs: A Quick And Simple Guide, Hilary Wilson sets out to provide an introduction not just to ancient Egyptian hieroglyphs, but to the world and society in which they were used. Before we can begin to understand hieroglyphs we must first understand the society in which they were used, and much of the book is devoted to painting a picture of the Egyptian society.

By providing a wealth of everyday information regarding life in ancient Egypt, Wilson aims to demystify hieroglyphs and place them in their proper context, and it must be said that she certainly succeeds in doing so. What emerges is a world in which hieroglyphs weren’t the keepers of ancient and mystic wisdom, but an everyday system of communication that certainly embraced mysticism, but also the most everyday minutiae of life.

Whilst dedicated Egyptologists would do well to look elsewhere, for those with a more casual interest in Egyptian hieroglyphs, Wilson’s book will be an accessible and entertaining primer. It is illustrated throughout in black and white and of course contains plenty of hieroglyphs to aid the reader in their understanding. Whilst a few more detailed hieroglyphic texts and translations would have been welcome, as an introduction to a complex subject Understanding Hieroglyphs is a solid and accessible foundation from which readers will be able to progress to more in-depth volumes on the topic.

THE ECCENTRIC MR CHURCHILL
A small book that’s full of big surprises

Author Jacob F Field Publisher Michael O’Mara Books Price £9.99
Released Out now

As a general rule, Winston Churchill is a figure who requires no introduction. However, this highly-readable volume introduces a more personal and intimate portrait of his life than might otherwise be expected.

The Eccentric Mr Churchill tells the story of the man behind the wartime leader and national hero. The man who would tip his jacket ring against the arm of his chair during Cabinet meetings, wearing layers of lace, and the man who travelled to his first love, to sell her in person that his son had died at the Battle of El Alamein.

Further surprising stories and unexpected anecdotes abound. As a rather plump infant, his parents nicknamed him ’Skinny’. When he served on the Western Front in 1916, he took his own bathtub with him. He liked the bread for his sandwiches to be sliced water-thin. And in 1934 his wife, Clementine, put him on a diet largely made up of tomatoes. He didn’t like it.

Divided into ten chapters — with titles ranging from 'Writer and Soldier' to 'Winston's Menagerie' — the broad scope of this book is clear, yet the text is presented in what might be best described as bite-sized chunks, with individual subheadings. The formatting is clear, accessible and enjoyable to read.

While this is certainly not intended to be a critical study, The Eccentric Mr Churchill is an absorbing account of an extraordinary life. It will undoubtedly appeal to those interested in Churchill in particular, or World War II more generally.
THE SABOTEUR OF AUSCHWITZ

The moving chronicle of a British PoW's imprisonment in Auschwitz

Author Colin Rushton

Publisher Summersdale Publishers

Price £8.99

Released Out now

When soldier Arthur Dodd returned to England following VE Day on 8 May 1945, he was carrying a heavy burden that extended beyond the hardships of serving in World War II. The 25-year-old driver/mechanic had been imprisoned for two years in Auschwitz, where he witnessed on a daily basis the savage beatings and mass killings of Jewish men, women and children at the hands of their Nazi captors. This book is a new edition of Arthur’s account, written with author Colin Rushton, which was first published in 1998.

Arthur had been captured in North Africa in 1944 and was sent to Auschwitz along with some other British soldiers. In a clear breach of the Geneva Convention, the men were forced to work at the IG Farben factory at the camp. But they took every opportunity they could to sabotage its operations, filling pipes with stones and loosening nuts after equipment had been inspected.

NIKOLA TESLA AND THE ELECTRICAL FUTURE

A fascinating journey into the mind of an icon

Author Iwan Rhys Morus

Publisher Icon Books

Price £12.99

Released Out now

As an enigmatic man of science and one of the star names of the 19th century's electrical pioneers, Nikola Tesla has been the subject of numerous biographies, novels and films since his death in 1943, including the recently released The Current War. Now this compact new non-fiction book by Iwan Rhys Morus, professor of history at Aberystwyth University, seeks to set Tesla's life and career inside the context of an era in which electricity was an exciting aspect of the modern world that was to come, a world that found itself the subject of breathless speculation and fantasy in the minds of inventors, writers and the wider public. As Tesla sought to establish himself, the public at large were being won over by the showmanship of electrical inventors such as Thomas Edison at the world conventions inspired by the success of Britain's Great Exhibition of 1851. Such events were covered in great detail by the newspapers and specialist electricity magazines that covered the exhibitions demonstrating everything from huge displays of incandescent lamps to electric fountains and arc lights. Tesla quickly realised that he needed to emulate the success of Edison and other inventors in crafting their public image, and he spun his own persona of an outsider genius that still dominates today. Hyperbole eventually fused with reality, meaning it can be difficult to decipher how much Tesla believed of his own type, and how much he was simply playing up to the media. Nevertheless, it's clear that this very mystery has been key to Tesla's weighty cultural resonance. Morus's book is a compelling account of the inventor's impact on a rapidly changing world for which electricity was the spark of countless imaginations and the key to a new modern way of life.
Amazing Grace

A spine-tingling performance long lost and lovingly resurrected

Certificate U Director Sydney Pollack Cast Aretha Franklin, the Southern California Community Choir Released: Out now

Describing Amazing Grace as a documentary feels somewhat misleading and to call it a concert film suggests more artifice than it is the case. Having sat in a vault for nearly 40 years, this footage of Aretha Franklin’s performances at the New Temple Baptist Mission Church in Los Angeles, 1972, is a time capsule. She was there to record both this live film and her gospel record of the same name. The record went on to be her best-selling album as well as the highest-grossing gospel record of all time. The footage was discovered and technical and legal issues that kept it locked away until now.

The story of how this film finally came to be released is as fascinating as the concert itself. From the production team’s mission to rescue the footage to the legal battles that followed, each element of the film’s journey reveals another layer of the project’s significance.

“She stands at the lectern of the church or sits behind the piano to play, hardly even making eye contact”

Franklin herself is unflappable and virtually mute save for when she’s singing. She stands at the lectern of the church or sits behind the piano to play, hardly even making eye contact with the audience. All of her effort and concentration seems to be in her performance and her voice, so the audience - and rather wonderfully the choir at her back - begins to rise to their feet. Watching the Southern California Community Choir being swept up in Franklin’s performance more and more over the two nights creates a wonderful feedback loop with the audience in front of her and with you watching it all unfold.

Sydney Pollack was a pretty raw but clearly inventive director at this point, having just been nominated for a best director Oscar for They Shoot Horses, Don’t They? While he has to take much of the blame for the footage not being synced to the audio (for lack of a clapperboard), the energy of what he caught on camera can’t be denied. Not least, you get to see Pollack and his crew dashing around the front of the church trying to get every nuance of the event like a warzone dashing from cover to cover.

All of this energy and the unequalled performance of Franklin herself is set against a starkly humble backdrop of parishioners and the odd celebrity pushed into cramped theatre seats in a small church room, a muscular painting of Jesus hanging up behind the choir, an American flag off to one side. Franklin herself is simply - if still glamorously - dressed on both nights, reflecting her own deference to the setting. Something magical is being created with minimal grandstanding or support. Franklin and even Rev. James Cleveland seem perfectly at ease and comfortable under the hot lights, with Franklin’s own father mopping her brow at one point while she’s in the midst of singing. It’s small moments like this, visuals that feel in such stark contrast to the angelic audio they accompany, that make Amazing Grace such a fascinating and emotionally powerful experience.

Eccentric, Emotional, Transcendent

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HISTORY VS HOLLYWOOD
Fact versus fiction on the silver screen

MOLLY’S GAME

Director Aaron Sorkin Starring Jessica Chastain, Idris Elba, Kevin Costner, Michael Cera Country USA Released 2017

Aaron Sorkin’s directorial debut may look promising but does it fold when it comes to the truth?

01 At the start of the film, we meet professional skier Molly Bloom (played by Jessica Chastain) suffer a horrific crash while attempting to qualify for the Olympics. Bloom really was a competitive skier and that crash ended her skiing career.

02 On screen, Molly moves to LA and works as a waitress, before she is employed by Dean (played by Jeremy Irons) who introduces her to his underground poker games at the Colos Lounge. This is true, although in reality the club was called The Viper Room.

03 Just like in the movie, the real Molly started her own underground poker games after she was fired by Dean, using the contacts she had gained from running his games. She later revealed in her memoir that Dean was nothing to his employees.

04 In one terrifying moment, a conman holds a gun to Molly’s head after she accepts Maloof’s protection in return for a share of her profits, and she is physically assaulted - this also happened in real life and the men were later stopped up by the FBI.

05 Molly’s lawyer, Charlie Jaffrey (played by Idris Elba), is a fictional character and not based on her real-life lawyer. Also, the movie portrays Jaffrey mailing her convent before their first meeting. When in reality, the real Molly published it after she was arrested.
Joan of Arc
UNCOVERING THE REAL STORY BEHIND ONE OF HISTORY’S MOST LEGENDARY WARRIORS

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