WHAT IF ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA HAD WON AT ACTIUM?

THE MAKING OF ANNE BOLEYN

THOMAS BECKET MURDER IN THE CATHEDRAL

YOUR ESSENTIAL GUIDE TO THE
SUFFRAGETTES

How millions of women fought, and sacrificed, for their right to vote

PLUS Q&A: What did night soil men do? Who invented sliced bread?
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In the Spring of 1945, a Spitfire aircraft crashed on the Russian tundra during a Dogfight. Her incredible story is captivated in the RJM BLUEBIRD – limited to 334 pieces.

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REC Watches is a Danish watch brand founded in 2013. We give new life to classic icons recycling vehicles beyond repair into truly unique timepieces. Every single timepiece incorporates recycled parts from the salvaged icon.
In 1928, after decades of campaigning, British women finally gained the right to vote on the same terms as men. But the road to women’s suffrage had been a hard one, with many sacrifices and disappointments along the way. In this month’s essential guide, we’ve teamed up with historian Dr Diane Atkinson to find out more about the women who drove the fight for the vote. Why did the suffragettes turn to militant activism? Who were the key people of the suffrage movement? What happened to suffragettes who went on hunger strike in prison? Discover the full story from page 28.

Elsewhere, as a new series on the ambitious Boleyn family is set to air on BBC Two, historian Amy Licence takes a closer look at Anne Boleyn before she met Henry VIII – from her time as a child at the royal courts of the Netherlands and France, to the artistic and literary influences that shaped her into the queen she would eventually become (page 66).

We also consider how history might have been different had Antony and Cleopatra won the battle of Actium in 31 BC (page 70); examine the tiny world of ‘insect man’ Percy Smith, the pioneering natural history filmmaker whose moving images of juggling bluebottles wowed the world (page 60); investigate Portugal’s near-bloodless military coup of 1974, which ended decades of authoritarian rule in that country (page 21); and look at Henry II’s role in the murder of Thomas Becket in 1170 (page 24).

Plus, we answer some intriguing historical questions, such as who carved the Easter Island heads? And who was the Cripplegate Ghost? Find out on page 73.

Until next month, stay safe.

Charlotte Hodgman
Editor
CONTENTS JUNE 2021

YOUR ESSENTIAL GUIDE TO THE SUFFRAGETTES

30 The road to the vote
An overview of the key milestones towards achieving suffrage for all women across the United Kingdom

32 Everything you wanted to know about the suffragettes
Historian Dr Diane Atkinson answers the key questions

38 The pioneering Pankhurs
How one family came to have such a seismic impact

40 A common cause
The battles to secure women’s suffrage around the globe

44 Deeds not words
Inside the controversial tactics used by the suffragettes

48 Suffering for suffrage
A look at the punishments meted out on activists – and the pain of prisoners who endured force-feeding

50 Fighting a new battle
How suffragettes served king and country during WWI

52 Eight things you (probably) didn’t know about the suffragettes
Some lesser-known facts about the movement revealed

56 Champions of the cause
Discover eight other figures who supported women’s suffrage

58 Victory at last?
Why the battle was still not quite over when the first women went to the ballot box in 1918

FEATURES

60 Percy Smith: the quiet revolutionary
Celebrating the life of the man whose natural history films wowed audiences during the early years of the 20th century

66 Becoming Anne Boleyn
Find out why the queen’s upbringing in the royal courts of Europe made her the ultimate Renaissance woman

70 What if... Antony and Cleopatra had won the battle of Actium?

▲ How much money did the suffragettes raise? And why did some activists refuse to complete the 1911 census?

▲ The story of the civil servant who spawned a genre of filmmaking
EVERY MONTH

6 Snapshots
Carnival fun in Cologne and more

12 What We’ve Learned This Month
An ancient Egyptian golden city, a Roman stately home, and much more

14 My Life In History
Annie Gray, food historian

16 This Month In... 1944
The WWII battle for Normandy begins

21 In A Nutshell
Portugal’s Carnation Revolution of 1974

24 Spotlight on: Thomas Becket
Discover the life of Henry II’s ‘most turbulent priest’

73 Ask the Experts
How many died at Pompeii? What did Hitler do in World War I? These and more historical questions answered

79 TV, Film & Radio
This month’s history entertainment

82 What’s On
Five recently reopened historical sites

84 Books & Podcasts
The latest historical releases and podcasts

86 Historical Fiction
CJ Carey shares an extract from her recent book, Widowland

87 Prize Crossword

89 Next Issue

90 Photo Finish

LIKE IT? SUBSCRIBE!
13 ISSUES FOR THE PRICE OF 8

32 ▲ The charisma and rhetoric of the Pankhursts brought many women over to the suffrage cause

38 ▲ Meet Emmeline Pankhurst and her three daughters

40 ▲ Learn about the battle for women’s suffrage overseas

44 ▲ Why the suffragettes’ radical tactics shocked Britain

48 ▲ Discover how suffragettes were treated in prison

66 ▲ Inside the formative years of Henry VIII’s doomed second bride

70 ▲ Why Antony had little hope of saving the Roman Republic
PREPARING FOR PEACE

Women carefully restore the carpets inside the 17th-century Palace of Versailles, helping to prepare the building for the signing of the peace treaty of 1919 – the famous document, signed on 28 June, formally ended World War I. As part of the terms of the treaty, Germany was required to accept responsibility for the loss and damage of the war, to pay reparations of 269 billion gold marks (the equivalent of around 100,000 tonnes of gold), and to accept severe restrictions on its armed forces. The treaty devastated the German economy and is thought by many to have sowed the seeds for World War II.
The inventive residents of Bound Brook, New Jersey, traverse a makeshift bridge over a flooded Main Street. The historic US town, located alongside the Raritan river, has been liable to flooding throughout its history – in 1896, the waters reached the limehouse of a lumber yard, triggering an explosion. The ensuing fire caused devastation across the town, destroying the local Presbyterian church and a number of houses. Several people drowned in the floods.

SNAPSHOTS

JUNE 2021

A BRIDGE OVER TROUBLED WATER

The inventive residents of Bound Brook, New Jersey, traverse a makeshift bridge over a flooded Main Street. The historic US town, located alongside the Raritan river, has been liable to flooding throughout its history – in 1896, the waters reached the limehouse of a lumber yard, triggering an explosion. The ensuing fire caused devastation across the town, destroying the local Presbyterian church and a number of houses. Several people drowned in the floods.
Dressing in drag certainly isn’t a modern concept, as demonstrated by this group of gentlemen from the Orchestra of Cologne Milkmaidens performing at the Cologne Carnival. One of the largest street festivals in Europe, the event is held annually in the week before Lent, although the official carnival season starts back in November. Revellers go all out and don intricate fancy dress costumes, while bands write new songs to be performed each year, adding to the party atmosphere. Carnivals have been held in the German city since its time as a Roman colony, but the official Cologne Carnival Festival Committee wasn’t established until 1823.
THINGS WE LEARNED THIS MONTH...

RECENT HISTORY HEADLINES THAT CAUGHT OUR EYE

BENIN BRONZE TO BE REPATRIATED TO NIGERIA

A Benin bronze sculpture - looted by British soldiers in 1897 during the destruction of Benin City (in modern-day Nigeria) - is to be returned to Nigeria by the University of Aberdeen. Bought by the university in 1957, the sculpture, which depicts a king of Benin (an Oba), is one of thousands of religious and cultural treasures seized during the city’s destruction. Now seen as symbols of injustice, calls for such items to be returned to their country of origin have increased over the past 40 years. The University of Aberdeen is the first to agree to the full repatriation from a museum of a Benin bronze.
LARGEST-EVER EGYPTIAN CITY UNEARTHED
A 3,000-year-old ancient Egyptian city, unearthed near Luxor, has been described as one of the most significant archaeological finds since the discovery of Tutankhamun’s tomb in 1922. Known as Aten, the city dates to the reign of Amenhotep II, who ruled between 1391 and 1353 BC, and continued to be used during the reigns of pharaohs Tutankhamun and Ay. Excavations of Aten – the largest ancient city ever uncovered in Egypt – have unearthed jewellery, amulets and pottery, as well as mud bricks. Evidence of residential areas and a bakery have also been found.

COLONIAL FORT FOUND IN MARYLAND
The remains of a wooden fort erected by European settlers in 1634 have been found in Maryland, US. The site – known as St Mary’s Fort – was Maryland’s first colonial settlement and one of the earliest to be established in the US, after Jamestown, Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay. Initially inhabited by around 150 settlers, the site was later abandoned in favour of Annapolis. In consultation with local Piscataway tribal members, excavations of the fort – and research into its occupants and their relationships with the local native peoples – will continue.

£4,000
The sum of a cheque recently unearthed in Greece’s state archives. The money (roughly £332,000 today) was loaned by English poet Lord Byron to support Greece in its fight for independence.

YORKSHIRE SALT HUB REWRITES THE PAST
Salt-making kilns and fragments of ceramic bowls found at a site in North Yorkshire suggest that Neolithic people were manufacturing salt more than 2,000 years earlier than previously thought, according to archaeologists. The discovery, believed to date to c3,800 BC, is the earliest salt production site ever found in the UK, and one of the first of its kind discovered in western Europe. It’s thought that early Neolithic people collected seawater at beaches nearby, which then evaporated to a concentrated brine. This brine would have been heated in pots to form salt cakes.

ROMAN VILLA REVEALED, THEN RAIED
A highly significant Roman villa discovered in Scarborough has been damaged during a break-in. The large dwelling, believed to be the first of its kind ever found, comprises a large complex of buildings including a circular central room with a number of rooms leading off it, and a bath house. Unfortunately, just days after the discovery was announced, illegal metal-detectorists broke into the site; it’s not yet known if anything was stolen. The villa was discovered on the site of a new housing development and has been described as a Roman version of a stately home.

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“Churchill could be a brilliant host if he was in the mood, but I don’t think I’d want to be at one of his dinner parties”
Food historian

Annie Gray

HOW DID YOU BECOME A HISTORIAN SPECIALISING IN FOOD AND DINING?
I did modern history for my undergraduate degree, and I was a bit underwhelmed by the focus on great men. I had no idea what to do afterwards. Then the economy tanked, and it also turned out I was totally unsuited for employment, so my first few jobs all ended rather abruptly. Part of the issue was that I still loved history, and I wanted to work in heritage, doing something I believed in. So I did an MA in historical archaeology at York and it was a real gamechanger.

Historical archaeology is focused on the tangible: on what people built, touched and ate. I knew I wanted to work as a public historian rather than full time within academia, and when I discovered that food was a thing I could study and use for public engagement, I was sold. I was already a keen food person — my father was a food chemist and the eureka moment came when preparing for a class session on 17th century chocolate. I had access to cocoa liquor — the raw material of chocolate via my dad, so I thought I’d try making a recipe I’d found. It was brilliant: the class got high on sugar and chilli, and that was it! I later did a PhD during which I worked as a costumed interpreter and met loads of fascinating people in both the history and food worlds. I made a point of saying ‘yes’ to everything interesting that came my way.

WHAT ARE YOUR FAVOURITE AND LEAST FAVOURITE PARTS OF YOUR JOB?
Favourite parts? I have two. One is the moment when you’re pouring words onto a page, after months of book writing and editing to talk about the project I was part of was inaccurate because we all had our own teeth.

WHAT IS YOUR FAVOURITE HISTORIC FOOD FACT?
That what we now call Christmas pudding has a long history as plum pudding and was originally served with roast beef. The two are fantastic together. Much better than serving it at the end of a meal when everyone is full!

WHO, FROM YOUR RESEARCH, WOULD MAKE THE BEST HOST FOR A DINNER PARTY IF YOU COULD GO BACK IN TIME?
I’ve written books about Queen Victoria and Winston Churchill’s cooks. Victoria could be brilliant fun, but was more often than not a terrible host. Churchill could also be brilliant if he was in the mood, but I don’t think I’d want to be at one of his dinner parties. William Kitchener, perhaps: he was a Georgian gentleman, who wrote a slightly bonkers but very good recipe book. He was renowned as a fantastic host (and he did his own washing up). Brillat Savarin, the French food writer and raconteur was in a similar vein. Or Elizabeth Robins Pennell, an early 20th century American writer whose food essays are just fantastic. All, I think, would be entertaining and far more interesting than dining with the huge egos of past queens or political leaders.

WHAT IS YOUR FAVOURITE HISTORIC PARTY IF YOU COULD GO BACK IN TIME?
That’s quite magic. Then there’s getting to take it out for a spin. There’s nothing like the high you get from emerging from a car after weeks spent reading and thinking about it all in front of an audience. The questions! The interactions! The chance to inspire and educate and bring people together.

My least favourite part is either cleaning maggot eggs out of a hare’s bum (honestly, not a good day), or dealing with the tiny minority of people at a site who are horrid. The men who think it’s okay to grab you just because you are in a historic outfit, the parents who let their kids trash a set of objects (meaning the site staff have to take them off display), or the people who point blank refuse to believe there was curry in 1780. I once had a letter from someone complaining that the project I was part of was inaccurate because we all had our own teeth.

STAY WHERE IT IS?
A lot of the delicacies from the past still thrive outside the UK. Cardoons [artichoke thistles], which I adore, are still widely eaten in France, Italy and Spain. I think I’d revive ‘whipt syllabub’, though an 18th century dish with single cream, sugar, booze and lemon juice. It’s frothed to form a foam, which is then dried on a sieve. The result is ethereally light, slightly cheesy, sweet and rich.

Something that can stay there? Overboiled vegetables. There is no getting round it, vegetable cookery wasn’t always great. Eating birds to extinction can stay there too. But pretty much everything else — even if I’m not keen, some people will be. Food is very personal.

Dr Annie Gray is a historian specialising in British food and dining between the 17th and 20th centuries. She is the historian on BBC Radio 4’s The Kitchen and is the author of several books, including Victory in the Kitchen: the Life of Churchill’s Cook
On 6 June 1944, the coast of Normandy bore witness to an incredible sight as around 156,000 American, British and Canadian forces stormed five beaches along a 50 mile stretch of French coastline. As droves of Allied soldiers splashed out of landing crafts and made their way across the sand, facing enemy fire from gun emplacements overlooking the beaches and at the mercy of mines, barbed wire and other deadly obstacles that littered the ground before them, they could only hope and pray that their sacrifice would lay the foundations of an Allied victory on the western front.

FORWARD PLANNING
The battle for Normandy was the result of years of preparation. Following the defeat of France in the third week of June 1940, Britain had successfully withstood the threat of invasion by decisively defeating the German Luftwaffe; without control of the skies over southern England, a German invasion was impossible and the Nazis were consigned to a long, drawn out war they could ill afford, forced to invade the resource-rich Soviet Union far...
earlier than they had planned.

The United States, meanwhile, had been gearing up for war since the fall of France, and when Germany’s Axis partner, Japan, attacked the US naval base at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii (on 7 December 1941), America was finally drawn into the increasingly global conflict.

In December 1941, British and American war leaders met and agreed that defeating Nazi Germany was their first priority and determined that the best way to achieve this was by an invasion of France, using Britain as a launch-pad.

The build-up of US forces in Britain began in January 1942, but it soon became clear this new coalition of Britain and the United States was not ready to crack Nazi-occupied Europe any time soon. Instead, a joint invasion of northwest Africa, held by pro-Germany Vichy France, was launched first in November 1942. With the British Eighth Army attacking from Egypt and the Anglo-US First Army from Algeria, the German-Italian forces were caught in a pincer in Tunisia, which fell in May 1943.

With increasingly large Allied forces now in the Mediterranean and with Italy teetering, it made sense to follow up with an assault on Sicily in July 1943 – and so tight the noose around the Third Reich.

Gaining air superiority over western Europe was a non-negotiable prerequisite for any invasion, and it wasn’t until the spring of 1944 that that condition was met. In addition, a massive deception operation was carried out in the months and weeks leading up to D-Day to fool the Germans into believing that the anticipated Allied invasion would take place at Pas de Calais (the narrowest point between Britain and France) rather than Normandy.

The deception worked and finally, in early June 1944, the Allies had the weight of men and materiel, and control of the skies, with which to invade. Crucially, they also had the element of surprise.

IMMENSE UNDERTAKING

Code-named Operation Overlord, the invasion took place on Tuesday 6 June (commonly known as D-Day), having been delayed by 24 hours because of poor weather. The plan was to land American, British and Canadian troops on five different beaches across the Normandy coastline: the Americans at Utah at the base of the Cotentin peninsula and at Omaha at the western end of the northern Normandy coast; the British were to land at Gold beach, east of Omaha; then the Canadians at Juno; and the British again at Sword, the easternmost invasion beach.

Allied airborne troops would be dropped by parachute or glider and secure the flanks – the Americans in the west and the British and Canadians in the east. Ultimately, it was Supreme Commander of the Allied Expeditionary Force, General Dwight D Eisenhower, who gave the go-ahead for Operation Overlord. “You are about to embark upon the Great Crusade, toward which we have striven these many months,” he declared in his order of the day, issued on the eve of D-Day. “The eyes of the world are upon you.”

The time of the seaborne landings was planned for 6.30am on the two western beaches (Utah and Omaha); an hour later at 7.30am a little further to the east for the British landings; and 7.45am for the Canadians at Juno. This was because the Allies wanted to land when the tide was out in order to both avoid the beach obstacles (the Germans assumed any invasion would be at high tide so the Allies had less beach to cross and so had placed them closer to the high tide line) and because they needed the beach at low tide to allow successive waves of troops and vehicles the space and time to unload.

The operation was an immense undertaking. In all, some 7,000 vessels were deployed, including 1,213 warships and 4,127 landing craft of various types and sizes. Some 23,000 airborne troops were dropped with 132,000 men landed on the beaches; they were also supported by a staggering 12,000 Allied aircraft. Contrary to popular myth, more British
Normandy on D-Day, while two-thirds of the aircraft, more than three-quarters of the landing craft and 892 of the warships involved were British, not American.

**PATH TO VICTORY**

The immediate goal of Overlord was to make sure the invasion was successful. The Allies had amassed vast forces, but despite the thousands of warships and landing craft, only a fraction of Allied strength could be initially transported across the Channel. Allied intelligence was superb, and so long as the exact location and timing of the invasion remained secret to the Germans, attackers would achieve tactical surprise when they began landing in Normandy. This proved the case, but thereafter the race was on as to which side could build up a decisive weight of forces in Normandy first.

This was where Allied air power came in. Bombers and fighter-bombers were responsible for slowing German reinforcements to the front, both of infantry units, but particularly their panzer divisions – formations of motorised infantry, artillery and tanks – which were the best Nazi Germany had. Bridges, railways and roads were destroyed in a bid to slow up German movement to Normandy and allow increasing numbers of Allied troops and materiel to cross the Channel.

The Allies’ strategy was to use ‘steel not flesh’: they wanted to use their enormous global reach and access to resources to make the Allied war effort as mechanised and technologically advanced as possible and to use machines – steel – in order to keep the number of men at the coal-face of war as low as possible. This they achieved very well: in Normandy only 16 per cent of British troops were infantry and just 7 per cent in tanks – figures that were much the same for the Canadians and Americans, too.

More than 40 per cent, however, were service troops (men supporting the front line – Royal Army Service Corps, Royal Army Medical Corps etc); this was the long supply tail that was a benchmark of Allied strategy. They harnessed naval and air brilliantly with the troops on the ground, while in contrast, by 1944 Nazi Germany’s much-reduced navy and Luftwaffe were able to contribute to the battle hardly at all, suppressed by massive Allied superiority.

“The Allies’ strategy was to use ‘steel not flesh’; to keep the number of men at the coal-face of war as low as possible”
The Allies were fighting the ‘big war’, whereas the Germans were forced to fight largely on land only. For too long, the narrative of D-Day and the battle for Normandy has focused on the fighting on land, whereas it needs to be understood in its wider context and from the perspective of the Allies’ broader strategy.

THE HUMAN COST

The Allies had braced themselves for as many as 40,000 casualties on D-Day, but they were far fewer – around 10,000 all told. On the American-assaulted Omaha beach, made famous by films such as The Longest Day (1962) and Saving Private Ryan (1998), 842 Allied lives were lost; German casualty figures on D-Day are not at all precise, but estimates put them at a similar number.

Overall, however, the Normandy campaign – which lasted until 30 August 1944 – was brutal and incredibly violent, as Allied forces fought their way across the Normandy countryside and on to Paris, which was liberated from its four years of Nazi occupation on 25–26 August. Including both sides as well as civilians – and some 15,000 French civilians were killed during the bloodshed – the average daily casualty rate of each of the 77 days of the battle for Normandy was 6,675: higher than the Somme, Passchendaele and Verdun during World War I.

But by brilliantly coordinating their forces in the air, at sea and on land, and by using the full weight of their industrial and technological superiority, the Allies not only secured a foothold on D-Day, they won the race to build up forces at the front. The result was overwhelming victory in Normandy 77 days later, in late August 1944, and a catastrophic defeat for Nazi Germany.

James Holland is a historian, writer and broadcaster who specialises in the history of World War II. His most recent book is Sicily ’43: The First Assault on Fortress Europe (Bantam Press, 2020)
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The Carnation Revolution

Words: Emma Slattery Williams

**WHAT WAS THE CARNATION REVOLUTION?**
It was an almost bloodless coup, led by members of the armed forces which on 25 April 1974 brought down more than 40 years of dictatorship in Portugal and ended Europe’s longest surviving authoritarian regime.

**WHY DID THE REVOLUTION HAPPEN?**
Since 1933, Portugal had been ruled by the Estado Novo (New State), formally the Second Portuguese Republic. Initially under the authoritarian rule of António de Oliveira Salazar (until 1968), the new authoritarian regime ushered in an era of oppression, and the censorship of newspapers and books. Catholicism was reinstated as the state religion, with the principles of the dictatorship closely allied with that of the Church.

The regime also had its own secret police, which quashed political freedoms as well as civil liberties, including the right to strike or join a trade union. Opponents to the government were imprisoned and sometimes killed.

The Estado Novo was unpopular with much of the international community as well as many Portuguese people. At this time the nation was in the midst of a colonial war that had been raging for 13 years. Many nationalist movements were rebelling against Portuguese rule in their African territories, which included Angola, Guinea Bissau and Mozambique. This was an extremely unpopular conflict, and many of the troops had been conscripted. The majority of the population approved of decolonisation to put an end to the bloody and costly war something the Estado Novo regime opposed.

**HOW WAS THE COUP CARRIED OUT?**
In March 1974, General António de Spinola was dismissed from his position as deputy minister of the armed forces. He had written a book in which he suggested that the Portuguese colonial wars should come to an end. He was critical of the current Portuguese regime, something that was regarded as heretical by Portugal’s right-wing establishment.

The Armed Forces Movement (MFA) was soon formed by dissident and low-ranking officers who supported Spinola. Captains within the armed forces were

“The majority of the population approved of decolonisation to put an end to the bloody and costly colonial war”
also unhappy with a law which would grant privileges to conscripted officers, to the resentment of professionally trained officers. The armed forces' support for the government was rapidly deteriorating.

Just before midnight on 24 April, Portugal's entry for the Eurovision Song Contest – 'E Depois do Adeus' (And After The Farewell) – was played by the radio station Emissores Associados de Lisboa, as had been arranged by the rebels. This was the first of two secret signals that the army was waiting for.

Tanks entered the centre of Lisbon in the early hours of 25 April and soon the airport, television and radio centres were taken over, as well as the Salazar Bridge over the river Tagus. Prime Minister Marcello Caetano, along with other ministers, had taken refuge in the Carmo barracks, which housed the National Republican Guard, and these were stormed by troops, armed with machine guns. With little resistance, Caetano surrendered to Spinola. After initially being taken under custody to the Portuguese island of Madeira, Caetano spent the remaining years of his life as an exile in Brazil.

Radio appeals by the revolutionaries asked people to stay inside, but many flooded the streets and joined in, supporting the troops. By the time the sun had risen on 26 April, the MFA was in charge and promised to hold democratic elections for a national assembly as soon as they could.

**WHY WAS IT CALLED THE ‘CARNATION REVOLUTION’?**

Unlike many military coups, almost no shots were fired, and red carnations were given to soldiers by the jubilant crowds to celebrate the overthrow of the government. The soldiers placed the flowers inside their guns and pinned them on their uniforms. Carnations soon became a symbol of the revolution and its success in bringing democracy to Portugal.

**WAS ANYONE HURT DURING THE UNREST?**

Although the revolutionaries didn’t use violence, four civilians were shot by the DGS – the regime’s political police – when they fired into crowd surrounding the police headquarters. They were later arrested.
Adelino Gomes, a young journalist in Lisbon in 1974, shares his memories of the revolution on the BBC series Witness History: bbc.co.uk/programmes/p01xkdlr

WHAT HAPPENED AFTER THE CARNATION REVOLUTION?
Spinola was briefly installed as interim president and was succeeded by general Francisco de Costa Gomes at the end of September 1974. Power was initially held by the National Salvation Junta. A chaotic period followed with attempted coups, until the Portuguese Constituent Assembly election was held on 25 April 1975. Another election, held the following year, saw the first constitutional government come into power, with Mário Soares of the Socialist Party becoming prime minister.

“Decolonisation was one of the key driving forces behind the new government”
Decolonisation was one of the key driving forces behind the new government. The Portuguese Colonial War came to an end and the former Portuguese territories of Angola, Cape Verde, Guinea Bissau, Mozambique and São Tomé and Príncipe gained their independence. Portugal also left East Timor, which was almost instantly invaded by Indonesia. The more than one million Portuguese citizens who left the former territories for Portugal became known as the retornados (the returned). Under the new democratic government, censorship was prohibited, political prisoners were released, and free speech was allowed. People were free to practice any religion. A major redistribution of land was carried out and 60 per cent of the economy was nationalised.

HOW IS THE CARNATION REVOLUTION REMEMBERED TODAY?
Today, 25 April is celebrated in Portugal as a national holiday, known as Freedom Day. One of Lisbon’s bridges, formerly known as the Ponte Salazar, was renamed Ponte 25 de Abril to commemorate the revolution.

Graffiti of a female soldier with a red carnation in her gun on a building in Lisbon, in memory of the 1974 revolution
The murder of Thomas Becket

As Archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas Becket sought to extend the powers of the church. As Nige Tassell reveals, Becket’s outspoken nature infuriated King Henry II – but did it lead to his grisly demise?

Thomas Becket was a man who rose quickly through the ranks of the Catholic church but whose demise was even swifter, not to mention more bloody and brutal.

Born in London in around 1120, when his property-owning father hit financial difficulties, the young Becket was forced to take work as a clerk, first for a relative and then for Theobald of Bec, the Archbishop of Canterbury. So impressed by Becket was Theobald that, when the role of Lord Chancellor became vacant, he recommended his clerk to Henry II. Becket was now responsible for collecting revenue for the king from various landowners, including churches.

When Theobald died in 1161, Becket was nominated as his successor, an appointment approved by a royal council of bishops and noblemen. If Henry was hoping that Becket would continue to prioritise the interests of the royal government over those of the church, he would be sorely disappointed. Instead, Becket resigned his governmental role and sought to extend the powers of his new bishopric. The king and archbishop clashed on several matters, including the extent to which secular courts had authority over the English clergy. To weaken the archbishop, Henry sought the favour of other bishops as he tried to bolster the legitimacy of the royal government in religious affairs.

CHALLENGING AUTHORITY

The Constitutions of Clarendon were a series of legislative measures introduced by Henry in an attempt to curb the powers of the church and weaken its connections with Rome. Gathering at Clarendon Palace near Salisbury in January 1164, the highest ranking clergymen in the land assembled before Henry and, having heard the legislation outlined, almost unanimously agreed to the proposals. The one dissenter was Becket. Eventually, he was persuaded to give his agreement to the principles underpinning the constitutions, but the documents were never graced by his signature.

Nine months after the assembly at Clarendon, Becket was summoned to Northampton Castle to answer charges of being in contempt of royal authority. On being convicted, Becket fled to mainland Europe. Henry tried to bring the archbishop home, who had been afforded protection by Louis VII. Becket spent two years in the sanctuary of the Cistercian abbey in Pontigny, before relocating to Sens. There he retaliated against Henry’s continued orders for him to return by issuing threats of excommunication against the king and his bishops.

Pope Alexander III was largely in agreement with the principles that Becket was upholding, but sought a resolution to the crisis, sending his representatives to arbitrate between the two sides. In 1170, Becket felt conditions were sufficiently safe for his return to England.

In June 1170, Henry the Young King was crowned as co-ruler at Westminster Abbey, but not by Becket. Instead, the coronation was performed by Roger, Archbishop of York. Five months later, a naturally disgruntled Becket excommunicated the archbishop, along with the bishops of London and Salisbury. The almost certainly apocryphal – response of Henry II is said to have been the exclamation: “Will no one rid me of this turbulent priest?!” A more reliable record comes from the 12th century historian Edward Grim: “What miserable drones and traitors have I nurtured and promoted in my household who let their lord be treated with such shameful contempt by a low-born clerk?”

MAKING A MARTYR

The wording may be disputed, but the message was clear, at least to the ears of Henry’s loyalists, four of whom interpreted it as a direct call to action. These knights – Reginald Fitzurse, William de Tracy, Richard le Breton and Hugh de Morville – swiftly set out for Canterbury. It would be a date with destiny for the archbishop.

Accounts report that, upon reaching Canterbury, the quartet left their weapons outside the cathedral before approaching Becket inside. When he declined to accompany them to Winchester to explain the excommunications, the knights retrieved their swords and re-entered the cathedral. By now, Becket was in the main hall, into which the knights burst in, calling “Where is Thomas Becket, traitor to king and the kingdom?” Becket didn’t try to escape and instead acknowledged his certain fate: “I am no traitor and I am ready to die.” The knights then set about him with their swords. Edward Grim, then working as a clerk, was present, and later described the fatal blow in rather graphic detail: “his crown, which was large, separated from his head so that the blood turned white from the brain; it purpled the appearance of the church.”

The murder distressed the Catholic church in Europe to whom Becket had been so faithful. His martyrdom was honoured with canonisation by Pope Alexander III, who also excommunicated the four knights responsible for the slaying. The church may have punished them, but the murderers were never arrested and nor did Henry recall their lands from them. Failing to do so gave the definite impression that this had been a state-sponsored assassination.
A 15th-century painting depicts Thomas Becket’s gruesome killing at the hands of knights fiercely loyal to Henry II.

“Becket retaliated against Henry’s orders by issuing threats of excommunication against the king and his bishops.”

LEFT: An effigy of Becket lies in Canterbury Cathedral. His original shrine – a site of pilgrimage – was destroyed during the dissolution of the monasteries in the 1530s.

FAR LEFT: Henry II and Becket were frequently locked in dispute, causing the latter to flee to mainland Europe.
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Diane Atkinson discusses the suffragettes on the HistoryExtra podcast historyextra.com/suffragettes-qa

Emmeline Pankhurst, co-founder of the Women’s Social and Political Union (WSPU), is undoubtedly one of the most influential figures in 20th-century British history.
Little more than a century ago, women in Britain did not have the right to vote. Deprived of having their say at the ballot box, millions of wives, mothers, daughters and sisters were effectively rendered voiceless by a political establishment that did not see their views as worthy of being heard.

But this didn’t stop people from fighting back. Having first gained traction during the 19th century, the campaign for women’s suffrage would explode in the 1900s with the formation of the militant Women’s Social and Political Union (WSPU). Whether smashing windows or going on hunger strike, its activists – commonly known as ‘suffragettes’ – were determined to make those in power sit up and listen.

In this month’s essential guide, we’ll be investigating the battle for women’s suffrage in Britain and beyond, examining the radical tactics of the WSPU, as well as other organisations that sought a more peaceful means to securing the vote. With guidance from historian Dr Diane Atkinson, we’ll also look at how suffragettes were punished for their ‘crimes’, and the work undertaken by campaigners during World War I.

We begin over the page with a timeline charting key events in the struggle for suffrage...

30 The road to the vote
An overview of the most important milestones on the path to achieving suffrage for women across the United Kingdom

32 Everything you wanted to know about the suffragettes
Dr Diane Atkinson answers key questions about those who fought for the vote

38 The pioneering Pankhurs
How one family came to have such a seismic impact on the suffrage movement

40 A common cause
From western Europe to the islands of the Pacific, we examine the hard-fought battles to secure women’s suffrage around the globe

44 Deeds not words
Discover the radical tactics used by suffragettes to draw attention to their cause

48 Suffering for suffrage
A look at the harsh punishments meted out on those who campaigned for women’s rights – and the ordeals of prisoners who endured force-feeding

50 Fighting a new battle
How suffragettes served king and country during WWI

52 Eight things you didn’t know about the suffragettes
Why did some activists refuse to complete the 1911 census? This, and other lesser-known facts about the suffrage movement revealed

56 Champions of the cause
Discover eight other prominent figures who, like the Pankhurs, played important roles in the fight for women’s suffrage

58 Victory at last?
Why the battle was still not quite over when the first women voted in 1918

DR DIANE ATKINSON
is an author and historian who specialises in women’s history. Formerly a lecturer and curator at the Museum of London, her books include Rise Up, Women! The Remarkable Lives of the Suffragettes (Bloomsbury, 2018)
THE ROAD TO THE V

An overview of the century-long struggle to achieve suffrage for all women

WORDS: CHARLOTTE HODGMAN

KEY DATES IN WOMEN’S SUFFRAGE HISTORY

3 AUG 1832
The radical MP Henry Hunt (shown addressing a rally, below) presents the first women’s suffrage petition to parliament on behalf of a Mary Smith from Yorkshire.

1866
Barbara Bodichon (above) founds the Women’s Suffrage Committee. It sets up a new petition that gains 1,499 signatures.

1867
The Manchester National Society for Women’s Suffrage (MNSWS) is formed. Among its committee members is barrister Richard Pankhurst (right), who goes on to marry fellow activist Emmeline Goulden after their paths first cross at a public meeting in 1878.

DEC 1870
The Married Women’s Property Act is passed. Among other things, it allows women to hold wages and investments for their own use, independent from their husbands. Wives can now also inherit up to £200 and keep the money.

17 JUN 1911
Around 40,000 women from 28 suffrage societies march through London on the eve of King George V’s coronation. The march is led by WSPU member Marjorie Annan Bryce, who rides on horseback dressed as Joan of Arc.

18 NOV 1910
Some 300 WSPU suffragettes march on parliament in retaliation for the failed Conciliation Bill, which would have granted suffrage to women owning property over the value of £10. They are met with police brutality on what will later become known as ‘Black Friday’.

JUL 1908
The Women’s National Anti-Suffrage League is formed by Mary Humphry Ward (right) to prevent women from getting the vote. It will later merge with the Men’s National League for Opposing Women’s Suffrage, with a combined 42,000 members.

21 JUN 1908
The WSPU organises a mass campaign event in Hyde Park dubbed ‘Women’s Sunday’ and attended by an estimated 250,000 people. The organisation’s colours of purple, white and green are seen in public for the first time, launching the WSPU ‘brand’.

NOV 1911
A mass window-smashing campaign in response to Prime Minister Herbert Asquith’s manhood suffrage bill (which would allow all men to vote) heralds a period of heightened militancy in the women’s suffrage campaign.

MAR 1912
The Labour Party becomes the first political party to include female suffrage in its manifesto.

APR 1913
The so-called ‘Cat and Mouse’ Act is introduced by parliament, permitting the release of hunger-striking suffragettes and their immediate re-arrest after a period of recuperation.

14 JUN 1913
Huge crowds (below) join the funeral procession of suffragette Emily Wilding Davison after she steps in front of the king’s horse at the Epsom Derby. Later that month, 50,000 people take part in the NUWSS’s ‘Pilgrimage for Women’s Suffrage’.
VOTE

men across the United Kingdom

Spinsters and widows on the Isle of Man owning property in their own right become eligible to elect representatives to Tynwald – the island’s parliament. Later, in 1893, New Zealand becomes the first country in the world to give the vote to all people aged 21 and above.

Later, in 1893, New Zealand becomes the first country in the world to give the vote to all people aged 21 and above.

The Representative of the People Bill is passed, giving the vote to 8.4m women over the age of 30 who fulfil certain property criteria, and all men over the age of 21. Nine months later, further legislation enables women to stand as MPs.

The non-violent Women’s Freedom League is founded by dissenting WSPU members, including Teresa Billington-Greig (above).

Braving mud and rain, a crowd of more than 3,000 women and over 40 suffragist societies march from Hyde Park to Exeter Hall in London in the first large-scale procession organised by the NUWSS.

The WSPU suspends militant suffrage activities following the outbreak of World War I. Million of women undertake essential work to support the war effort, with some serving in traditionally male roles (such as police volunteers) for the first time.

Conservative politician Nancy Astor (below) becomes Britain’s first female MP to take up her seat in the House of Commons. Sinn Féin’s Constance Markievicz had previously been elected to Westminster in 1918, but refused to take her seat due to her party’s politics.

Emmeline Pankhurst (right) dies in London, aged 69. Some three weeks later, the Representation of the People Act gives the vote to all women over the age of 21. ©
EVERYTHING YOU WANTED TO KNOW ABOUT THE SUFFRAGETTES

Historian and author Dr Diane Atkinson answers key questions about the fight for women’s suffrage in Britain

Q: What was the difference between suffragettes and suffragists?

A: Suffragists were women who were asking for the vote – drawing up petitions and meeting their local members of parliament – in a peaceful and genteel way from the 1860s onwards. Emmeline Pankhurst herself started off as a suffragist and they remained on the scene right the way through to 1918, when some women gained the vote. The suffragettes were members of the Women’s Social and Political Union (WSPU), an organisation that was founded in 1903 by the Pankhurst family. From the start, the methods of the WSPU were always going to move towards direct action. The clever slogan they used – ‘Deeds not Words’ – really describes the way they had decided things were going to be done. They weren’t going to ask nicely for the vote; they were going to demand it. Their campaign was so out there and their behaviour was so unfeminine and startling. The nickname ‘suffragette’ was actually coined by the Daily Mail and was meant to be condescending, but of course, being suffragettes, they took it and owned it. So, the term suffragette really refers to the women who were prepared to do more than just politely write petitions and go to parliament.

Q: Was there any animosity between the suffragists and the suffragettes?

A: There’s a misconception that the suffragists and the suffragettes were at loggerheads with each other, which is simply not true. The strategies of the suffragettes may have been different, but they worked in parallel with the suffragists right the way through until 1912. It was always understood the suffragists were going to do it their way and that wasn’t an issue until the suffragettes turned more militant. Until then, the suffragists and the suffragettes attended each other’s meetings and fundraisers. They wore each other’s badges. Together they made a really good, strong, broad movement that reached right across the political spectrum, working to get women the vote.

Q: What propaganda tactics did the suffragette campaign adopt?

A: The suffragettes were good at getting attention. One of their favourite acts...
was to don special leather corsets and chain themselves with bolts and chains to important buildings, such as Buckingham Palace. After padlocking themselves to the railings, they would throw the key into a crowd of friends and supporters and it would take the police about an hour or so to cut them free with hacksaws. And while that was happening, they used the time to make their political speeches. Those sorts of actions attracted big audiences and added to a snowball of publicity.

The suffragettes were very good at propaganda and brilliant at writing leaflets, which they called handbills. On these, they would ask direct questions like: ‘why do women want to vote’ and ‘why we are militant’? Their message was clear, and their literature made the argument for women’s suffrage very, very effectively.

A lot of their ‘marketing’, of course, was done through the purple, white and green colours they adopted, a colour scheme launched at a huge demonstration in Hyde Park in 1908. Banners, sashes, hats, badges and logos designed by Sylvia Pankhurst, who was responsible for so much of the movement’s visual identity its ‘branding’, if you like also helped spread the message of women’s suffrage.

Q: How were the suffragettes organised?

A: They had some very effective women organisers at a national level. The leadership was tight and attracted some highly capable women who offered all kinds of skills to the organisation. All around Britain there were organisers often being paid £2 a week and volunteers who were organising local...
women to carry out activities and fundraising at a local level. So, in that regard, they were brilliant.

The suffragettes had an almost military mindset and saw themselves as crusaders for women’s freedom. Within the organisation there were generals and captains to mobilise local women, right across the class structure. It wasn’t just middle-class women who got involved at different levels, either, whether it was door-to-door canvassing, holding street corner meetings, giving money, raising money, going to London or getting groups of women to come from Preston and Dundee, for example. Every big event was viewed as an opportunity for stage management and was of huge propaganda value. They were pretty astonishing, really.

Q: What did women’s suffrage activity look like in Scotland, Ireland and Wales?

A: Scotland had a big part in the story and Scottish suffragettes were very active, right from the beginning. Within two years of the WSPU’s founding, they had a branch in Glasgow, and the movement spread to Edinburgh, Dundee, Aberdeen and all over Scotland. Scottish women were very active with their own dynamic local campaigns as well as travelling to London and Manchester for big events. The same was true in Ireland – in Dublin and Belfast for example. Irish suffragettes were fiercely criticised for focusing on votes for women rather than getting involved in the fight for home rule in Ireland. And women in Wales – Cardiff, Swansea and towns around the country – were also getting involved. It really was a nationwide, dynamic and brilliantly run campaign.

Q: Is it accurate to describe Emmeline Pankhurst as the leader of the suffragettes?

A: She was certainly the figurehead of the suffragette movement, but her daughters played a big part, too. Christabel in particular was instrumental in taking the WSPU in a new, militant direction. Sylvia, an art graduate, gave the movement its distinctive look and brand, creating the logos and imagery we’re now so familiar with. So all the Pankhurst women were very important as leaders. And they were so charismatic – hundreds of women were recruited through the force of their personality and rhetoric alone. They were fashionable and well-dressed, and lots of young women...
saw them as aspirational figures. But, of course, so much of the hard work was done by women all around Britain.

Q: What was the role of working-class women in the suffragette movement?

A: It’s a bit of a misconception that the suffragettes were a predominantly middle-class organisation – that was something the press always played on, when in reality, right at the beginning, it was working-class women making things happen. When I was researching my book, *Rise Up, Women!* I delved into the backstories of these women to find out who they were and how they came to join one of the most controversial and popular movements of the early 20th century. You had to be brave and strong and really thick-skinned to join the suffragettes, because most people really disapproved of them.

I discovered some really interesting working-class women including an elementary school teacher called Mary Gawthorpe, who was very active in the Leeds area.

Another really interesting character was Minnie Baldock, who co-founded the first branch of the WSPU outside Manchester, in her own community of Canning Town in East London. She worked in a shirt factory and was a Labour activist who was very rooted in the Docklands community. She recruited lots of local women from 1906 onwards and became something of a poster girl for working-class women who wanted to become recruiters themselves.

Q: Was there any support for women who had lost homes and jobs as a result of their association with the suffragettes?

A: A lot of women did lose their jobs, and even their homes, as a result of their suffragette associations, and there were often adverts on the back pages of the organisation’s newspapers, *The Suffragette* and *Votes for Women*, asking for help finding new employment or accommodation. People would also make call-outs for unwanted clothing and shoes for women who needed them, so there was a lot of social and financial support for women out there when things got really tough. The WSPU was very mindful of the sacrifices that were being made and tried to help as much as they could.

Q: What sort of abuse did the suffragettes receive?

A: Often, people would go to suffragette meetings and blow whistles when campaigners were trying to talk, or throw clods of earth and rotten vegetables at them. Sylvia Pankhurst was even pelted with dead cats and dogs at her meetings in the East End of London.

Making the sound of hissing geese was another popular insult inferring that the suffragettes talked nonsense, like the cackling of geese. They would often be accused of being men in drag, of being bitter and twisted because no men would look at them. It was very infantile in

Both *The Suffragette* and *Votes for Women* newspapers carried adverts from members in need of housing or financial support

Some of the wealthier women involved within the suffragette movement gave Minnie money so she could hire someone to help look after her husband and children while she was busy on the road recruiting and training.

The most famous working-class suffragettes were probably Annie Kenney and her sister, Jessie, who were able to engage with, and relate to, working-class communities and bring lots of working women into the movement.
a way, but it was also a concerted effort to try and stop women talking in this way in public. There were also many accusations of suffragettes being neglectful mothers who abandoned their children and who expected the husband to do chores, which was seen to be undermining society. All sorts of insults – and objects – were thrown at them, really.

Q: How much support did anti-suffrage movements have?

A: Anti-suffragism manifested in various ways. Organisationally, there was the National League for Opposing Woman Suffrage – it was mostly men, of course, but some quite high ranking and prominent women supported it. Mary Humphry Ward, a bestselling novelist, was very anti women’s suffrage – she wrote books and articles criticising women’s suffrage campaigners and founded the Women’s National Anti-Suffrage League.

One of the anti-suffrage movements’ main arguments was that women having the vote would be a disruption to the natural order of things, and a belief that men could look after women’s interests in parliament, so women didn’t need to have the vote. That voice of conservatism was really strong at the time. There was this idea that if women got into politics, domestic life would be destroyed, children and husbands would be neglected, men would have to do childcare and domestic chores. And that, again, was seen as an inversion of how things should be and would have long-term implications – women would stop getting married, stop having babies and the British race would die out. The term ‘race-suicide’ was one that was frequently used and it was a real concern of the Edwardians – that the British race was somehow teetering on the verge of something awful and that women gaining the vote would lead to a loss of respect from Britain’s colonies and an end to the traditional way of life.

But of course, the oldest and the most pervasive argument, although it was not explicitly expressed, was the idea that women were biologically unsuited to making important decisions, particularly during menstruation and throughout the menopause. What if voting in an election coincided with the beginning of a woman’s menstrual cycle, for example? That sort of thing.

Anti-suffrage groups were never as good at putting their message out as the suffragettes, but there were hundreds and hundreds of anti-suffrage postcards produced with images of manly-looking women in dresses, cackling geese and women who are depicted as being unhinged, shrieking and out of control. These postcards were sent around and became part of the currency of conversation. Suffragettes were frequently depicted as old, badly dressed, unattractive, with lots of facial hair. But of course, this comic caricature was completely at odds with what the suffragettes were actually like.

**“SUFFRAGETTES WERE FREQUENTLY DEPICTED AS OLD, HAIRY AND UNATTRACTIVE”**

_DID YOU KNOW? THROWING SHADE_ Just like its opponents, the Women’s National Anti-Suffrage League adopted its own colour scheme, regularly covering campaign materials with the colours black, white and pink – in contrast to the suffragettes’ famous purple, white and green.

**MAIN:** Author Mary Humphry Ward was fiercely opposed to women’s suffrage, and founded the Women’s National Anti-Suffrage League in 1908

**RIGHT:** Anti-suffrage postcards portrayed the suffragettes as unattractive and ‘manly’

**BELOW RIGHT:** Some cartoons likened the arguments of the suffragettes to the cackling of geese

**WHAT A SUFFRAGETTE KNOWS**

_GOODNESS ONLY NOSE_ **MISS HISSY ADDRESSES A MEETING OF THE GOOSE’S SOCIAL AND POLITICAL UNION**

_EVERY PROPER GOOSE SHOULD HAVE HER OWN PROPAGANDER!_
Q: Do you think it’s fair to describe the suffragettes as terrorists?

A: I think with terrorists, as we understand terrorism, the aim is always to take human life and that’s not something the suffragettes ever set out to do. They always researched the places they intended to bomb or burn to ensure there would be no loss of human life. Locations would be reconnoitred more than once and were always empty or abandoned buildings, or areas where there would be no members of the public – sports facilities, empty train carriages, empty buildings and private houses. Causing damage to public and private property was a way of drawing attention to the cause and demonstrating that the government cared more about property than it did about women and their suffering in prison.

It’s interesting, though, that some of the suffragists actually labelled themselves terrorists, declaring that they were terrorising the Liberal government for its oppression of women. But most of the violence that was experienced was at the hands of the police against the suffragettes, not the other way around. The ‘suffragettes as terrorists’ question is a big one, but I don’t think we could ever regard them as terrorists in the way that we have come to understand and experience terrorism today.

Q: Would the suffragettes have succeeded in their campaign if World War I hadn’t happened?

A: I think it would have happened eventually, but more women would have died for the vote. So I think it would have been a different kind of victory. The war, terrible as it was, was a breathing space for the campaign, and suffragettes, mostly, but not wholly, threw themselves into the war effort. Virtually all suffragettes paused their campaigning but were ready to return to the fight after the conflict if necessary.

Women were so badly needed in the war to do the work that men would normally have been doing that it meant that, when the war was over, nobody in their right mind could say that women didn’t deserve the vote. Women had fought the war on the home front, in a way, it was a moral argument. I’m absolutely certain, though, that if some women hadn’t gained the vote in 1918, acts of militancy would have been revived and the government was definitely aware of that. It was one of the factors in the debates around agreeing to let women over 30, who fulfilled specific property requirements, have the vote. World War I gave people on all sides a chance to salute what women had done and actually made it almost inevitable that some women would get the vote in 1918.

Q: Do you think it was the suffragettes or suffragists who got women the vote?

A: Well, I’d have to say both sides made a huge contribution, but as a suffragette historian, I’m bound to say that the WSPU campaign was highly effective but extremely punishing for its members, and that’s something they just accepted. Their actions made sure that suffrage remained top of the political agenda because their tactics were so extreme. They were so confrontational. They were in everybody’s faces and they were so despised by so many people, but they just kept going.

Yes, all women’s suffrage activists were persistent, but the suffragettes took it to the extreme. They persisted with going to prison; with hunger striking; with force feeding. And I think that they just created a different kind of energy around the campaign. I wouldn’t like to suggest that the suffragettes were universally praised; they were almost universally condemned, but the women’s suffrage argument was something that was never, ever going to go away as long as they were still alive.

DR DIANE ATKINSON is an author and historian who specialises in women’s history. Her books include Rise Up, Women! The Remarkable Lives of the Suffragettes (Bloomsbury, 2018)
Emmeline Goulden was born in 1858 to parents who fiercely supported reform and activism. She accompanied her mother to suffrage meetings and her grandfather had witnessed the Peterloo Massacre of 1819. Emmeline attended schools in both Manchester and Paris and soon noticed the stark differences between her education and that of her brothers – they studied business, the sciences and mathematics, while she was taught how to cook and look after the home. This would light a fire within her; a burning desire to one day see women treated as equal to men.

Emmeline married likeminded lawyer Dr Richard Pankhurst in 1879 – he was a radical and a supporter of women's rights, free speech and educational reform. Together they had five children: Christabel, Sylvia, Adela, Henry Francis Robert (Frank) and Henry Francis (Harry). The younger brother was named after the elder, who died of diphtheria at the age of four.

The Pankhurs moved from Manchester to London in 1886, and it was while there that Emmeline became interested in the experiences of working-class women. She followed with great interest the Match Girls’ strike of 1888. Girls and women worked up to 14 hours a day in match factories for low pay, suffered ill health caused by the chemicals they used, and were threatened with fines for talking or going to the toilet without permission. More than a thousand women walked out on a strike that lasted for three weeks – the protest was one of several that inspired Emmeline.

By 1889, Emmeline had helped to form the Women's Franchise League in London - its main goal was to secure married women’s right to vote in local elections. The Pankhurs returned to Manchester in 1893 and it was then that Emmeline began establishing herself as an activist.

She set up the WSPU – the Women’s Social and Political Union - in 1903 with her daughters Christabel and Sylvia, and from 1908 they were using militant tactics to garner support and attention. Emmeline was imprisoned several times, including for the charges of striking a police officer, damaging property and conspiracy to incite violence; she undertook hunger strikes to improve conditions in prison for herself and others.

When World War I began, Emmeline put her support behind the war effort, organising rallies and encouraging the government to allow women to enter the workforce, taking the places of the men who had gone to fight. The more violent actions against the government by the WSPU were halted in favour of the war effort.

A devoted anti-communist, Emmeline joined the Conservative Party in 1926 and was chosen as a prospective parliamentary candidate. She died in June 1928 – just a few weeks before all women gained the same voting rights as men.
The eldest daughter of Emmeline and Richard Pankhurst, Christabel was born in 1880. She was educated in Southport and Manchester and briefly lived in Geneva, but returned home with Emmeline after Richard died in 1898. She had a particularly close relationship with her mother, and played a key role in founding the WSPU.

After relatively peaceful beginnings, the WSPU evolved into a militant movement and gained national attention when, in 1905, Christabel and fellow WSPU member Annie Kenney disrupted a Liberal Party meeting in Manchester. The following year, Christabel became the WSPU’s ‘chief organiser’ and used her skills as a law graduate to deliver informed and impassioned speeches and arguments – even though, as a woman, she wasn’t allowed to practise as a lawyer.

In March 1912, a warrant was issued for Christabel’s arrest on a charge of conspiracy to commit damage. She went on the run and escaped to France, where she remained until the outbreak of World War I, continuing to manage the WSPU and edit its newspaper from overseas. In September 1914, Christabel returned to London and threw herself into the war effort, encouraging women to engage in war work as a way to win their enfranchisement.

In the 1918 general election, Christabel stood as a candidate for the Women’s Party but narrowly missed her chance of becoming an MP by 775 votes. She left England for the US in 1921 and there became heavily involved with the Second Adventist movement – a Protestant denomination that believed in the imminent Second Coming of Christ – and adopted a daughter, Betty. After returning to the UK in the 1930s, she left for the US again in 1940 where she remained until her death. Made DBE (Dame Commander of the Most Excellent Order of the British Empire) in 1936, Christabel died in California in 1958, aged 77.

Sylvia was also active in the WSPU. A graduate of the Royal College of Art, Sylvia created the WSPU’s distinctive ‘look’ and was imprisoned numerous times for her suffrage activities. Notably, she also spearheaded the WSPU’s campaigns in East London, witnessing the dire poverty of women in the local slums.

Eventually, Sylvia’s views on militant action began to diverge from those of her mother and sister Christabel, and she founded the East London Federation of Suffragettes – initially part of the WSPU. When Britain went to war in 1914 – a conflict she vehemently opposed – she set up several mother and baby clinics in the capital to offer support as supplies ran short.

A passionate left-winger, Sylvia went on to host the inaugural meeting of the British Communist Party in 1920. In 1927, aged 45, she gave birth to a son but refused to name or marry his father. Her refusal saw Emmeline break ties with her daughter and the pair never spoke again. Sylvia continued to rally against fascism and colonialism, moving to Ethiopia to continue her activism. She died there in 1960.

The youngest Pankhurst daughter, Adela (b1885), shared her family’s views regarding women’s rights but, like her sister Sylvia, disagreed with the violence advocated by the WSPU. After becoming estranged from the rest of the Pankhursts – her socialist and pacifist beliefs were deemed a ‘risk’ to the WSPU’s success – she was given a one-way ticket to Australia by her mother, along with £20 and a bundle of clothes. She would never see her mother or sisters again.

In Australia, Adela married trade unionist Tom Walsh and together they founded the Australian Communist Party. Later, however, she moved away from communism and abandoned left-wing politics altogether. In the late 1920s, she formed the Women’s Guild of Empire – a Christian group against communism that sought to preserve Australia’s place within the British empire. After spending a portion of World War II in prison for supporting the Japanese, she died in Sydney in 1961.
A COMMON CAUSE

From western Europe to the islands of the Pacific, we examine the hard-fought battles to secure suffrage across the globe.

In the electoral history of Australia, the state of South Australia was a true trailblazer. Property-owning women had been able to vote in the then colony’s local elections as far back as 1861, but it wasn’t until the final decade of the 19th century that all women could go to the polls.

The Women’s Suffrage League, the most significant of South Australia’s campaigning groups, was co-founded by activist Mary Lee who, in 1890, wrote: “It follows that it is an arbitrary and unjust government which compels its support from those whose will in relation to it is never consulted. That as women assist in maintaining the government, they have a right to say how and by whom they shall be governed, in other words – to the vote.”

The fourth attempt to secure women’s voting rights in South Australia (including those of indigenous women) was finally passed in 1894. It meant that the state was the first place in the world where women could both vote in local elections and stand as candidates themselves. Other Australian states subsequently fell into line, with Victoria the last to extend the vote to women in 1908 (albeit delaying a further 15 years before allowing female candidates in its state elections).

When it came to federal elections, the freshly minted Australian parliament allowed women to vote from 1902 onwards. But not all women. That year’s Commonwealth Franchise Act denied the right to any “aboriginal native” who wasn’t already on the 1901 electoral register. It wasn’t until 1962 that all indigenous Australians secured voting rights equal to those of the white population.

THE ISLE OF MAN

In 1881, nearly 40 years before mainland Britain did so, the Isle of Man – part of the British Isles but not the United Kingdom – became the first national parliament in the world to allow women to vote in a general election. The House of Keys Election Act permitted widows and spinsters over the age of 21, and who owned or occupied property with a value of at least £4, to cast their votes in that year’s election.

A letter to the Manx Sun was all in favour. “Something is said as to the sharpness, intelligence and activity of the women voters,” gushed the letter-writer, “a matter for gratulation, and an argument in favour of a further extension of female franchise.”

Minor amendments to eligibility were made in subsequent legislation, but it wasn’t until 1919 when the requirements were eased to permit all Isle of Man citizens to vote on the basis of residency.

An Isle of Man postage stamp commemorating Emmeline Pankhurst and her mother, Sophia, who was of Manx birth.

Women in Saudi Arabia were only allowed to vote in elections for the first time in 2015.

DID YOU KNOW?
A LONG STRUGGLE

Above: Indigenous Australian Doug Nicholls casts his vote in the 1949 federal election.
Right: A bust of Mary Lee, co-founder of the South Australian Women’s Suffrage League.

An Isle of Man postage stamp commemorating Emmeline Pankhurst and her mother, Sophia, who was of Manx birth.
The first modern European country to offer universal suffrage wasn’t one of the agenda-setting major powers. Up in the continent’s north-east corner, for most of the 19th century, Finland had been a Grand Duchy of the Russian Empire, with little legislative clout of its own – just a less-than-productive assembly of upper-class men with miniscule powers. In 1905, though, Finnish opposition to tsarist control manifested itself as a general strike, one only resolved when the tsar himself offered Finland its own parliament to keep check on the government of the day. Election to this new parliament was to be decided by a vote offered to every citizen aged 24 and above, ensuring Finland to be the European pioneer of electoral universality, and its female population to be the first women to vote, irrespective of class, economic position or marital status. They were spurred to the polls by a number of women standing for parliament, among whom was Mrs Hedwig Gebhard, whose campaign literature was a true rallying call: “Sisters! Let us ensure that not one of us is absent when the composition of Finland’s first truly democratic parliament is being determined. A heavy burden of responsibility will lie on the shoulders of the woman who stays away from the election without due cause.”

FINLAND

CHINA

Tang Qunying was a key activist who campaigned vigorously for women to be given the vote in China during the early 20th century, being both chair of the Women’s Suffrage Alliance and the founder of the Women’s Rights Daily newspaper. Applauded for her work in helping to overthrow the last imperial dynasty, the Qing, in 1912, Tang then hoped that a new constitution would formalise universal voting rights across the country. Despite fierce campaigning to produce this end, the movement proved unsuccessful. However, Tang had played a significant role in recalibrating China’s political agenda. As a result, during the 1920s several regional authorities across the country handed women the right to vote on local affairs. In 1936, the ruling Chinese Nationalist Party – aka the Kuomintang – introduced the concept on a national basis, although, because of World War II, it was not enacted until 1947. Two years later, the Kuomintang lost control of mainland China and retreated to the island of Formosa (now Taiwan). The constitution of the new People’s Republic of China upheld equal voting rights between the sexes, albeit operating within a severely limited electoral system.

ARGENTINA

The movement towards women’s suffrage was slower off the mark in Argentina than in other countries, and it wasn’t until 1900 that its first all-female political organisation – the National Council of Women – convened. However, the body’s broad base meant it was an incohesive group, often divided over which issues were most important and the means by which progress would be attempted. Nonetheless, momentum for the cause grew over the subsequent decades, along with demands for improved marriage rights and more access to education for women. Yet it wasn’t until Juan Perón came to power in 1946 that true action was taken, guided by his famous wife, Eva. “Argentine women have superseded the period of civil tutorials,” Eva declared. “Women must affirm their action. Women must vote. A woman is the moral foundation of her home and she must occupy a place in the complex social framework of her people.”

Women’s right to go to the polls was enshrined in law in September 1947, after which the not-insignificant process of registering female voters began. At the next presidential election in 1951, nearly four million women cast their ballots for the first time, helping Perón to secure 63 per cent of the vote.
“The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.”

The Nineteenth Amendment, which became part of the US Constitution on 18 August 1920, was unequivocal in its wording. The legislation had been a long time coming, the result of 70 years of campaigning by American suffragists who had repeatedly filed lawsuits with the Supreme Court for the vote to be extended. After an 1874 ruling found against the campaigners, it was generally acknowledged by the various, often competing, suffragist groups that an amendment to the Constitution was the necessary means to achieve this goal.

Their tactics weren’t always in line with each other, though. The National Woman’s Party picketed the White House and went on hunger strike, for instance. The moderate National American Woman Suffrage Association (NAWSA), the membership of which numbered an impressive two million, was more successful, having chosen a pragmatic approach within the existing political framework. The struggle to get the amendment passed through state and national legislatures was fierce, but eventually achieved, just in time to welcome a nation of female voters to the polls for the 1920 Presidential Election.

Carrie Chapman Catt, the president of the NAWSA, observed how it had taken decades of “pauseless campaign” to get the vote, along with great sacrifice on the part of its supporters. “Hundreds of women gave the accumulated possibilities of an entire lifetime, thousands gave years of their lives.”

However, the struggle continued because of the determination of certain southern states to deny citizens the vote along racial lines. It wasn’t until 1965, when the Voting Rights Act ironed out the discrepancies on these states’ definitions of voter eligibility, that true universal suffrage was achieved.

A woman of Indian heritage, Sophia Duleep Singh was a significant voice within the British suffragette movement. Despite being very much part of the Establishment – she lived in an apartment at Hampton Court; Queen Victoria was her godmother – Singh saw “the advancement of women” as her calling. And although she kept her campaigning to Britain, this maharajah’s daughter was a clear inspiration to activists out in India.

In granting some women the vote in 1918, Britain hadn’t extended this right across its empire. The previous year, the Women’s India Association had been founded with the express purpose of enfranchising women. Significant progress, though, was far from express. The 1919 Government of India Act refused to take the initiative, preferring to drop the matter into the laps of provincial legislatures to individually decide upon; most did in some form, extending the vote to women in local elections over the next 10 years.

During this time, the first female MPs elected to the House of Commons were campaigning for the rights they now enjoyed to be transferred to women in India, which they were partially – very partially – by the 1935 Government of India Act. Wives or widows of existing male voters could now go to the polls, along with single women with a literary qualification. This still only covered 2.5 per cent of women in India.

In 1946, with independence on its way, the Constituent Assembly of India was established, to which 15 pioneering women were elected. They effectively became their country’s founding mothers, playing a significant part in drafting the new Indian constitution which extended the right to vote to all citizens, irrespective of sex.
The Constitutional Act of 1791 had given the right to vote to those people living in Canada who owned property of a particular value or higher, but didn’t restrict this to male voters. However, when the Imperial Reform Act of 1832 officially disenfranchised all women, the waves of this legislation soon broke on Canadian shores.

Within two years, an electoral act passed by the Legislative Assembly of Lower Canada (the region now known as Québec) featured a clause outlawing women’s participation in elections, citing the supposed “dangerous conditions” faced on polling day. The act’s ripples were soon felt elsewhere with several other provinces – including Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia – similarly disenfranchising all women.

In 1876, women’s rights activist Dr Emily Stowe founded the Toronto Women’s Literary Club, a forum for educated women to pursue discussion and debate. When it became clear that the securing of voting rights was the most pressing issue of its members, the club rebadged itself as the Canadian Woman’s Suffrage Association in 1883, with one goal on its agenda.

The struggle for suffrage in Canada was drawn out over time and splintered across its provinces. Campaigning was more moderate than in Britain, with Canadian suffragists patiently making gains through the levels of government, from local legislative chambers upwards. In January 1916, Manitoba was the first province to offer full voting equality, a move followed by other provinces over the next decade – although Québec held on as late as 1940.

In 1838, the Pitcairn Islands became the first British territory to extend voting rights to women. The captain of the warship HMS Fly had landed on one of the four South Pacific islands when he was approached by islanders in search of protection from visiting American whaling ships. Captain Elliott duly drew up a constitution for the archipelago, in which the female half of the modest population was granted electoral equality.

The successful candidates in any future election, wrote Elliott, would be “determined by a simple majority vote of all native-born islanders, both male and female, who had attained the age of 18 years and of all other persons who had resided on the island for five years or more”. The concept of universal suffrage had been born.

Today is a day like no other before it,” declared Nelson Mandela on 27 April 1994. “Voting in our first free and fair election has begun. Today marks the dawn of our freedom.” For the entire population of black South African women, this would be the first time they had been permitted to engage in the electoral process.

The original impetus for women’s suffrage in South Africa was, as often elsewhere, through a temperance union which, aside from railing against the perils of alcohol, strongly supported female involvement in elections. The more focused Women’s Enfranchisement League was established in Durban in 1902, but the complexities of the South African political landscape meant that the country’s white women had to wait nearly three decades before being enfranchised in 1930, the result of an election promise from prime minister JBM Hertzog. However, the suffragists’ motivation was largely self-interest, with nary a mention about the voting rights of the much larger constituency of South African women of colour.

In 1983, in the depths of the apartheid years, a new constitution was drawn up, giving the vote to South Africans of Indian or mixed-race heritage. But it wouldn’t be until substantial global pressure came to bear on the country to release Nelson Mandela from jail and disassemble the apparatus of apartheid that full voting rights were accorded to all South Africans, regardless of colour or sex.
DEEDS NOT WORDS

The suffragettes used a variety of methods to try and persuade the government to give women the vote – some more extreme than others.

During the early years of the women’s suffrage movement, a number of campaigning organisations were established in towns and cities across Britain. Members would give public talks to draw attention to their cause and submit regular petitions to MPs – between 1866 and 1918, nearly 17,000 petitions calling for women’s suffrage were sent to parliament. In 1866, a group of women, known as the Kensington Society, presented a petition to MP John Stuart Mill requesting that women be given the vote. Despite gaining more than 1,500 signatures, Mill was unable to get the matter debated in parliament. The following year, Mill tried (unsuccessfully) to raise the issue again when the Second Reform Bill was passed – around a million more men were enfranchised, including a portion of the working class, but not women.

Women’s suffrage societies continued to campaign for the vote, and in 1897, 17 of these merged to create the National Union of Women’s Suffrage Societies (NUWSS), led by Millicent Garrett Fawcett. The new society adopted a peaceful, law-abiding approach to campaigning, but as the years went on without progress, some believed it was time for change.

Having grown increasingly frustrated by the situation, Emmeline Pankhurst, with her daughters, established the Women’s Social and Political Union (WSPU) in 1903. Founded in Manchester, the women only WSPU adopted the motto ‘Deeds not Words’ this new, militant organisation believed in direct action to get the vote, whatever the cost.

The year 1905 saw the WSPU’s first militant act. During a meeting of the Liberal Party at Manchester’s Free Trade Hall, two of its members, Christabel Pankhurst and Annie Kenney, continually interrupted the speakers. The pair were arrested, and after refusing to pay their fines, were sent to prison. This act gave the WSPU the publicity it was looking for. The WSPU moved its base from Manchester to London in 1906, and its members openly adopted the name ‘suffragettes’, originally coined as a pejorative term by the Daily Mail. WSPU members continued to confront politicians on the street, interrupt meetings, and even tried to physically enter parliament, gaining more members and press attention. Rosettes and other propaganda created in the suffragette colours of purple, white and green were sold to raise money for the WSPU. Among other things, this was used to fund campaigning and pay the legal fees they often needed.

PEOPLE POWER
The most visible and peaceful way that suffragettes could get their message across was to form a large group. Emmeline Pankhurst had her own contingent of suffragette bodyguards to protect her from being rearrested while out on licence. The 30-strong group were all trained in jujitsu and hid clubs inside their skirts to protect their leader.

DID YOU KNOW?

SAFETY IN NUMBERS
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across was to organise marches and rallies. In April 1908, Herbert Henry Asquith became Britain’s prime minister and huge marches were planned by both the NUWSS and WSPU to show him that there was national demand for women’s suffrage. Around 250,000 people joined multiple WSPU processions across London on 21 June, which became known as Women’s Sunday.

Three years later, another march took place a few days before the coronation of George V, staged by all the suffrage societies – militant and non-militant. Intended to gain the new king’s support, as well as catch the attention of the world’s press, who were gathering in London ahead of the coronation, the march culminated with a huge rally, but women still remained disenfranchised.

In 1909, the Women’s Tax Resistance League (WTRL) was established – if women were not considered as citizens who deserved the vote, some women decided they should not have to pay taxes either. During its existence, 220 women joined in with the cause, including Adela Pankhurst and Mary Russell, the Duchess of Bedford.

**DISRUPTION AND IMPRISONMENT**

Breaking the law in small ways just enough to get sent to prison was another tactic the suffragettes used to grab the government’s attention. Even if they could avoid jail by paying a fine, some would deliberately refuse to pay so that they could take up unnecessary space in prison and cause a nuisance. Upon their release, crowds of suffragettes would gather to cheer and newspapers would capture and report on their first moments of freedom.

A further form of direct action was for suffragettes to chain themselves to the railings of important buildings. Edith New and Olivia Smith did this in 1908 outside 10 Downing Street, shouting “Votes for women!” while three other women attempted to gain entry into the prime minister’s home. After the police had cut the chains, all five were arrested. Chaining oneself to railings or monuments soon became a regular tool in the suffragette arsenal.

In 1907, the WSPU started its own newspaper, Votes for Women, which was co-edited by Emmeline and Frederick Pethick-Lawrence. Originally...
published monthly, it became so popular that it became a weekly publication, selling 30,000 copies per week in 1910 alone. Volunteers from the WSPU would sell the paper on the street, often facing attacks and verbal abuse as they did so.

In 1912, the Pethick Lawrences criticised the increasingly militant direction of the WSPU and were purged from the organisation but carried on campaigning for votes for women. Undeterred, the WSPU created its own independent newspaper, edited by Christabel Pankhurst and simply titled The Suffragette.

TIME FOR ACTION

After Black Friday on 18 November 1910, during which around 150 suffragettes were injured and assaulted by police officers, many within the WSPU felt justified in taking an even more militant stance. A protest outside the House of Commons on 21 November 1911 saw 220 women arrested after mass window smashing, with more than 100 charged with malicious destruction of property. Suffragettes would regularly attend protests armed with coshes—heavy sticks or bars—or small hammers usually used to break up slabs of hard toffee. This was both for their own protection, as well as to cause damage to windows or property. Hatpins could also double up as weapons if needed.

In 1911, members of the Women’s Freedom League, the Women’s Tax Resistance League and the WSPU refused to complete that year’s census if the government did not think women counted enough to warrant the vote, they would not be counted in the census either. Women were encouraged to spoil their census forms by writing ‘Votes for Women’ across them, or ask their husbands not to include them in the census at all. This could have led to a fine, so some chose to stay away from home on the night of the census to evade it legally.

Many suffragettes held census evading parties, but Emily Wilding Davison went one step further. She managed to hide herself in a broom cupboard inside the Houses of Parliament so that she could legitimately record it as her address.

DAVISON MANAGED TO HIDE IN A BROOM CUPBOARD IN THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT

ABOVE: A button bearing the emblem of the Women’s Tax Resistance League, founded in 1909

ABOVE RIGHT: Suffragettes hide together on the night of 2 April 1911 to avoid being counted on the UK census

THE ULTIMATE SACRIFICE

On 4 June 1913, the annual Derby took place at Epsom Downs racecourse. Thousands gathered for the event, including George V and his wife Queen Mary. Emily Wilding Davison, who had been a member of the WSPU for some years, stepped out in front of the king’s horse during the race. The jockey was thrown from the horse and Davison was trampled – she would die from her injuries four days later. The tragic incident was captured on film and was on the front page of newspapers across the world. A huge funeral procession was organised by the WSPU, which championed Davison as a martyr to
Contemporary newspaper reports often described some of the suffragettes’ more violent activities as terrorism – a term that some historians still use to describe their actions today. Although the stunts were not intended to endanger life, there were a few occasions in which people were allegedly injured. During the 1909 by-election in Bermondsey, for instance, suffragettes poured acid into the ballot boxes, causing minor injuries to an election officer. Acid was also poured into numerous post-boxes, causing major disruption to the postal network, as well as danger to the postal workers.

Some suffragettes also created homemade bombs. Two such devices were planted by Emily Wilding Davison at the newly completed house of Chancellor of the Exchequer David Lloyd George, in 1913. One of the bombs failed to detonate, but the other inflicted major damage to the building. Later that year, in December, a fire at Portsmouth dockyard killed two men and was reported at the time as being a suffragette attack, although there is no proof that the suffragettes were responsible for the fire. Newspapers frequently exaggerated any injuries and damage allegedly caused by the WSPU, but rarely described police brutality towards the suffragettes. Indeed, far more violence was done to the suffragettes by the police and public than any violence they may have inflicted.

THE DARKER SIDE OF THE SUFFRAGETTES?

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UPPING THE STAKES

With the vote still a distant hope, WSPU tactics turned even more militant, and Emmeline Pankhurst herself encouraged the suffragettes to cause as much trouble as they could. Pavilions, railways stations and even the private houses of politicians were burned or damaged, once they had ensured they were clear of people and pets. Defending the organisation’s aggressive actions, Pankhurst declared: “The condition of our sex is so deplorable that it is our duty to break the law in order to call attention to the reasons why we do.”

It wasn’t just government, commercial or private property that felt the ire of the suffragettes, however. Churches were also attacked, and in March 1914, Mary Richardson, forever after known as ‘Slasher Mary’, entered the National Gallery in London. Using a meat cleaver, she slashed the 17th-century work *Rokeby Venus* – painted by Diego Velázquez – at least five times in protest at Emmeline Pankhurst’s arrest a few days earlier. Richardson was sentenced to six months in prison. She would later say that she chose the artwork, which depicts a nude Venus looking in the mirror, because it was worth a lot of money and she disliked the way that male visitors would stare at the female body in the painting.

Richardson wasn’t the only one to target galleries and museums. A glass case containing an ancient Egyptian mummy was damaged in the British Museum, while Manchester Art Gallery saw 13 of its paintings damaged in 1913.

WORDS: EMMA SLATTERY WILLIAMS

MAIN: Men inspect damage to David Lloyd George’s Surrey home following Davison’s 1913 double-bomb plot. INSET: An anti-suffrage postcard depicts an activist vandalising a golf course with acid.

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WORDS: EMMA SLATTERY WILLIAMS
The early years of campaigning for women’s suffrage was largely law-abiding, but with the formation of the militant Women’s Social and Political Union (WSPU) in 1903, more radical campaigning tactics began to be deployed, particularly from around 1908 onwards. Consequently, WSPU members soon started to feel the long arm of the law.

Fines were often handed out for crimes such as vandalism and disrupting the peace, with many poorer women unable to pay them. Yet even when suffragettes could afford the fine (providing their husbands didn’t settle it on their behalf), they would often refuse to pay the fines as an act of defiance — something that would usually see them facing a spell in prison as a result.

**LOCKED UP**
For militant suffragettes, punishment was par for the course. Many activists, including the Pankhursts, were imprisoned numerous times — sometimes even deliberately provoking arrest as an act of protest. Between 1905 and 1914, more than 1,000 women and 40 men were jailed for their suffrage activities — many of whom were jailed multiple times — and many more appeared in court.

Their punishments may appear excessive by today’s standards: protesters could be imprisoned for simply standing on the pavement holding a placard, or for selling their newspaper, Votes for Women. In April 1913, Emmeline Pankhurst was sentenced to three years’ penal servitude for incitement to place an explosive in a building in Walton, Surrey, although she was soon released under the terms of the so-called Cat and Mouse Act (see box opposite).

Conditions in prison could be horrific, but even inside, there was a deference to class. In 1910, Lady Constance Lytton, an earl’s daughter, disguised herself as a working-class woman named Jane Warton and deliberately got herself arrested in Liverpool. She wanted to show how poorer women were treated in prison — she knew working-class suffragettes were far more likely to be force-fed compared to those of a higher social status.

In the end, Lytton’s instincts were proven correct. Whereas she had previously been imprisoned and swiftly released, taking on the guise of a working-class woman meant she was force-fed a total of eight times.

Another danger for the suffragettes was the possibility of losing their families. If their husbands were unsupportive of their actions their marriage could end and mothers could lose custody of their children. Other women found themselves cut off by their parents, leaving them without any support or future inheritance.

Crucially, jobs were also at risk, and if employers got wind of a prison sentence or allegiance to the suffrage campaign, many risked being dismissed.
School teachers would often limit their campaigning to during the holidays. Newspapers, too, were overwhelmingly critical of the cause, and frequently ridiculed suffragettes through rife and unflattering cartoons, painting them as hysterical, fanatical and lacking in ‘femininity’. Many campaigners were verbally and physically abused, with stones and eggs flung at them by a largely unsympathetic public.

VIOLENCE FOR VOTES Events could take a violent turn when suffragettes held a mass protest or tried to reach parliament; some would stuff their clothes with padding to protect themselves from police brutality. One of the most notable incidents occurred on 18 November 1910, when more than 300 women took part in a public demonstration after Henry Asquith’s Liberal government refused to grant the Conciliation Bill the facilities to become law – something that would have offered the vote to a small number of women. After delegates from the WSPU failed to get an audience with Asquith, they tried to enter the House of Commons, but were confronted by large numbers of police. To make matters worse, hostile crowds opposing the suffragette cause joined in with the melee. Some police officers were dressed in plain clothes as agents provocateurs to attack the women.

In total, the riot lasted more than six hours; 150 women were badly injured, including 39 who had been sexually assaulted by police officers. No official investigation was held, and the next day, the 119 protesters who had been arrested were released without charge upon the orders of Home Secretary Winston Churchill, who himself had been accused of encouraging the violent police response.

The events were to become known as ‘Black Friday’ and heralded a period of militant, and often violent, campaigning by the WSPU.

WORDS: EMMA SLATTERY WILLIAMS

THE TORTURE OF FORCE-FEEDING

As the battle for the vote reached fever pitch, jailed suffragettes embarked on hunger strikes, refusing all food and drink in protest against their harsh treatment and classification as criminal (rather than political) prisoners.

The first woman to embark on such a campaign was Marion Wallace-Dunlop, who began her hunger strike in London’s Holloway Prison after her incarceration in July 1909. While hunger strikes weren’t sanctioned by the WSPU at first, the actions of Wallace-Dunlop soon inspired many women in the organisation to do the same, including Emmeline Pankhurst.

Fearful that the strikers might starve to death and become martyrs to their cause, the prison authorities began a harsh programme of force-feeding. Prisoners would be restrained so that a long rubber tube could be inserted into their nose and down their throat, into which mixtures of egg, milk and other liquid food would be funnelled directly into their stomachs.

Overall, it was a harrowing and traumatic affair – the feeding tubes could cause bleeding or block the prisoner’s airway by entering the lungs rather than the stomach. Vomiting, facial bruising and broken teeth were also particularly common, and some women claimed that they had been administered drugs in advance to make them more submissive.

Perhaps unsurprisingly, the effects of force-feeding could lead to longer-term health problems. Lady Constance Lytton suffered a heart attack and several strokes as a result of her ordeals, while Mary Jane Clarke – the younger sister of Emmeline Pankhurst – died on Christmas Day 1910, shortly after leaving prison. It was soon discovered that Clarke had suffered a brain haemorrhage, partly caused by the violent force-feeding she had endured over the previous weeks. In 1913, as more suffragettes took up their painful cause – and the British public expressed growing dismay for their plight – the government passed the Prisoners (Temporary Discharge for Ill-Health) Act, commonly known as the ‘Cat and Mouse’ Act. Hunger-strikers whose health was in imminent danger could be released on licence in order to gain strength and recuperate, only to then be rearrested and serve the rest of their sentence – upon which the process would start all over again. One particularly prominent suffragette, Kitty Marion, was force-fed 232 times in 1913 alone. Despite this, suffragettes continued to go on hunger strike, with the WSPU celebrating them for their courage and welcoming them home upon release. Hunger strike medals were even issued, with silver bars representing different periods of strike and enamel bars to show episodes of force-feeding.
FIGHTING A NEW BATTLE

When war reared its ugly head in 1914, thousands of suffragettes paused their campaigns to serve king and country. Thrust into roles once occupied by men, society would never be the same again.

When Britain entered World War I in August 1914, the WSPU immediately suspended its activities. Initially, Christabel Pankhurst declared her belief that the war was a punishment from God upon men who had refused to give equality to women. Soon, however, an amnesty was negotiated between the WSPU and the government: suffragette prisoners were released and militant suffrage activities ceased. The WSPU thus changed tack – votes for women was put on the backburner while its members passionately threw themselves into supporting the war effort.

Conversely, the suffragists from the NUWSS – the National Union of Women’s Suffrage Societies – opposed the war altogether, with many of the organisation’s supporters taking part in a peace rally just hours before war was declared. But when leader Millicent Garrett Fawcett was warned that the NUWSS could lose the backing of sympathetic MPs if they allied with the pacifist cause, they, too, suspended campaigning activities, although not all agreed with the decision.

PATRIOTIC FERVOUR

As troops went off to the trenches, suffragettes gave up window-smashing and took on jobs such as welding and bus-conducting. Some members of the NUWSS notably set up the Women’s Service Bureau, which matched women with roles that would allow them to support the war effort in the best way they could.

Some women even set off for the front to help, only to be turned away. Not one to be deterred, doctor and founder of the Scottish Women’s Suffrage Federation, Elsie Inglis, established the Scottish Women’s Hospitals Committee, which would end up sending more than a thousand female doctors, nurses and ambulance drivers across Europe during the course of war. Inglis went on to set up the first women-run medical unit near Royaumont Abbey, northern France, with the support of the French government.

By 1915, the conflict had led to an unlikely alliance as the government and suffragettes embarked on joint initiatives to get women to support the war effort. In July that year, David Lloyd George, then Minister of Munitions, asked Emmeline Pankhurst to organise a procession through London. Called the Women’s Right to Serve March, and led by the WSPU, it encouraged female participation in the workplace – munitions factories, for example, were in particular need of support. Crucially, it was also an opportunity to show how willing women were to do their bit.

Sometimes, this patriotic fervour manifested itself in other, more controversial, ways. In late August 1914, the so-called Order of the White Feather was established by Admiral Charles Fitzgerald. Aimed at shaming ‘shirkers’, its supporters would approach men spotted wearing civilian clothes and hand them a white feather – a symbol of cowardice. Many women, including suffragettes, joined in with the ritual, with the hope of shaming the men into joining the armed forces. However, as well as targeting those who refused to fight, feathers would also be mistakenly given to those on leave, those discharged...
due to injury, or those who had been rejected from joining up. Men who opposed the war on moral or religious grounds, such as conscientious objectors, were also viewed with suspicion.

Yet there were also some among the suffragettes who disagreed with the temporary hiatus that had been placed on the campaign for the vote. One of the most vocal in her dissent was Sylvia Pankhurst, whose group, the East London Federation of Suffragettes (which had split from the WSPU by 1914 and was known as the Workers' Suffrage Federation from March 1916) continued to call for women’s sufrage, as well as an immediate end to the war. Sylvia vehemently opposed conscription and was arrested in August 1917 for sedition after writing anti-war articles.

**A GLIMMER OF SUCCESS**

As the war rolled on, MPs began to realise that thousands of men would be unable to vote in the next general election – because they were still away fighting, had not been a resident at their usual home address for a year or more due to the conflict, or didn’t fulfill the required property qualifications.

To extend the franchise, the Representation of the People Bill was passed by the House of Commons in June 1917 by a large majority and became law in February 1918. As a result, all men over 21 and women over 30 who paid property rates of £5 or more per annum could vote. Women were now also able to stand for election and sit in the House of Commons.

The work put in by women to support the war effort had certainly helped get the bill passed, as had the great strides and sacrifices made by the suffrage movements. Their help in enlisting men into the armed forces and women into the workforce helped soften the views of their opponents and highlighted the huge positive impact that women could make on society.

It would be another decade, however, before all women were given the right to vote on the same terms as men – the journey to universal sufrage was not over yet.

**WORDS: EMMA SLATTERY WILLIAMS**
8 THINGS YOU (PROBABLY) DIDN’T KNOW ABOUT THE SUFFRAGETTES

Dr Jacqui Turner reveals some lesser-known facts about the militant political movement that shook Britain

Passionate about the fight for women’s rights, in 1903, Emmeline Pankhurst founded the WSPU with their motto ‘Deeds not Words’ signalling a new approach. Their militant tactics, such as heckling at political meetings, would earn them the nickname ‘suffragettes’, which they were only too happy to embrace.

In the years that followed, they took radical steps to force a change in the laws in Britain for women. But how much do we really know about the suffragettes? And why did some campaigners decide to boycott the 1911 census?

1 WOMEN DID NOT GET THE VOTE ON THE SAME TERMS AS MEN IN 1918

Many people assume that, as a direct result of women’s war work during World War I, they were given the vote on equal terms to men. However, this was not the case.

The Representation of the People Act of 1918 was primarily needed to resolve the issue of soldiers returning from service in World War I who were not entitled to the vote, as they did not meet existing property qualifications. The 1918 act abolished almost all property qualifications for men over the age of 21 and gave the vote to women over 30 – but only if she met one of the following criteria: as a householder/wife of a householder/occupier of a property with an annual rent of £5, a graduate of a British university, or similarly qualified but not a graduate.

Women could also vote as part of a university constituency if they were a university graduate. The age differential was to ensure that, following the loss of men in the war, women did not become the majority voters. After the act was passed, women made up 43 per cent of the electorate.

Women were not given the vote on the same terms as men until a decade after the act was passed: on 2 July 1928, when the Second Representation of the People (Equal Franchise) Act became law.

2 SUFFRAGETTES WERE ACCUSED OF BEING ‘UNLADYLIKE’ AND ‘UNNATURAL’

The bedrock of the anti-suffrage movement was an appeal to women’s femininity and the ‘natural order’. Suffragettes supposedly fell foul of the ‘norm’ and engaged in ‘unladylike’ and public activities. They were presented as women who had failed to reach the ultimate female goal in life of marriage and motherhood, depicted as bitter spinsters, and caricatured as masculine, plain and ‘unnatural’. Their presence also apparently ‘feminised’ men, too.

The suffragette represented a figure outside of the order of society; they supposedly lacked ‘womanliness’, were seen to be sexually repressed, and were even against ‘God’s order’.
NOT ALL CAMPAIGNERS WERE WOMEN

The suffrage campaign – and particularly militancy – is almost always presented as a protest by women only. However, this is untrue, as many men were committed to the cause. The founder and leader of the Labour Party, Keir Hardie, regularly raised questions in the House of Commons, and his colleague George Lansbury went as far as to resign his seat over the issue. Lansbury was also arrested after a suffrage rally in 1913, having spoken in support of arson attacks.

Even more closely involved with the movement was Frederick Pethick-Lawrence. The WSPU did not admit male members, but Fred and his wife, Emmeline, became joint editors of the WSPU newspaper Votes for Women. Fred also represented the WSPU in legal matters, including trials, as women were not permitted to do so.

Fred was imprisoned on numerous occasions for his involvement with the movement. Like his wife and other suffragettes, he went on hunger strike and was forcibly fed by the prison staff.

In his autobiography, Fate Has Been Kind (1943), he would later recall the experience: “The head doctor, a most sensitive man, was visibly distressed by what he had to do. It certainly was an unpleasant and painful process and a sufficient number of warders had to be called in to prevent my moving while a rubber tube was pushed up my nostril and down into my throat and liquid was poured through it into my stomach.

“Twice a day thereafter one of the doctors fed me in this way. I was not allowed to leave my cell in the hospital and for the most part I had to stay in bed.”

NO ONE KNOWS HOW MANY SUFFRAGETTES THERE WERE

The question of how many suffragettes there were is impossible to answer. Many women drifted in and out of the various movements due to personal circumstances, as well as political disagreements. Many suffragists and women in the Labour movement often had other affiliations, including involvement with trade unions. Others held membership under pseudonyms to protect themselves and their families.

Furthermore, the NUWSS and the WSPU were not the only suffrage organisations – there were many other national and local groups with varying longevity.

We can estimate the number of women who went to prison at somewhere more than 1,000, but many were imprisoned under public order offences and are not always easy to identify. Neither can we be certain how many went on hunger strike.

What we can be certain of is that votes for women had mass support. Marches attracted vast numbers of militant and non-militant supporters, both male and female, from all walks of life. The Women’s Sunday Procession in June 1908 attracted a crowd of around 250,000, with protesters carrying 700 banners through London. There were certainly more suffragist members of the NUWSS than militant members of the WSPU. By the start of World War I, the NUWSS had over 50,000 members, but estimates on numbers for the WSPU vary massively from between 2,000 to 5,000.
The WSPU quickly became better-funded than the early Labour Party. In 1908, Labour Party subscriptions and donations were around £10,000, while by 1909 the WSPU had an annual income of £21,213 and growing. However, this was of little comfort to the poorer individuals involved in the movement. In her autobiography, Memories of a Militant (1924), Annie Kenney (pictured) acknowledged: “I left the movement, financially, as I joined it – penniless. Though I had no money I had reaped a rich harvest of joy, laughter, romance, companionship, and experience that no money can buy.”

In addition to highly visible acts of civil disobedience, such as smashing windows and setting fire to postboxes, many women also carried out quieter forms of civil protest. Early in 1911, the Women’s Freedom League (founded in 1907 by former members of the WSPU) launched a campaign encouraging women not to complete the upcoming census, and in April that year a meeting to promote the cause was held in Trafalgar Square.

The protesters followed the motto: “I don’t count so I won’t be counted.” Some spoiled their papers with slogans such as “No persons here, only women!”, gave their occupations as ‘suffragette’, and listed ‘not enfranchised’ in the column headed ‘infirmitry’. It has been estimated that around 4,000 women evaded the 1911 census.

In 1910, the organisation led a boycott of the census the following year.
Lady Nancy Astor was the first woman to take her seat in parliament. Her husband, Waldorf, was a sitting MP, and with his support she managed to win his own Plymouth Sutton seat at a by-election in 1919.

Astor was not the first woman to stand for parliament or to be elected, however – this was Sinn Féin's Constance Markievicz, who was elected at the general election of 1918 but did not take her seat in Westminster due to the party's Irish republican politics. The 1918 general election had seen a total of 17 female candidates, including Christabel Pankhurst, who stood for the Women's Party in Smethwick. Despite the Conservatives agreeing not to field a candidate, Christabel narrowly lost to the Labour candidate by 775 votes.

In 1919, suffragettes were dismayed that the first sitting woman MP had played no role in the suffrage movement and had succeeded her husband. Not only that, she was also an upper-class American. Astor soon won them round though, by making clear her commitment to women's causes, supporting other female MPs, and by campaigning vigorously for the Equal Franchise in 1928.

SUFFRAGETTES USED THE ROYAL ALBERT HALL FOR RALLIES

London's Royal Albert Hall was regularly hired by both suffrage and anti-suffrage groups, including the National League for Opposing Women's Suffrage. There were also more than 20 suffragette meetings and rallies at the Royal Albert Hall between 1908 and 1918. The WSPU became the first group to be banned from the hall, because of costly disruption and damage.

In February 1909, two women – Miss Solomon and Miss McClelland – posted themselves by express messenger (something permitted by the Post Office at this time) to Prime Minister Herbert Asquith at No 10 Downing Street. They were refused entry.

EXPRESS DELIVERY

Above: MP Constance Markievicz (left), with Kathleen Barry, whose brother had been executed for Irish republican activities. Markievicz's politics meant she never took her seat in Westminster

Left: Lady Nancy Astor (centre) is declared MP for Plymouth Sutton in November 1919

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CHAMPIONS OF THE CAUSE

Eight other people who supported the campaign for women’s right to vote

LADY CONSTANCE LYTTON
THE ARISTOCRAT IN DISGUISE

As the daughter of the Viceroy of India, Lady Constance Lytton (1869–1923) was born into a life of immense privilege. But her involvement in the women’s suffrage movement saw her swap palaces for prison cells.

Lytton was converted to the cause after meeting suffragettes while campaigning for prison reform. Soon she was speaking across the country and petitioning her influential political connections on behalf of the Pankhursts. In 1909, Lytton was imprisoned in Holloway but was swiftly released when officers learned of her illustrious family background.

In order to avoid similar special treatment on later arrests, Lytton adopted the alias Jane Warton, disguising herself as an “ugly London seamstress” during activities that might land her in prison, such as pelting MPs’ cars with stones.

Lytton’s dedication to the cause ran so deep that she even attempted to carve the words ‘Votes for Women’ into her skin while in prison. However, after carving a letter ‘V’ over her heart, she was prevented from completing the job by prison doctors. In 1914, she published a book about her experiences of incarceration and force feeding, reflecting: “When the ghastly process was over, I tapped on the wall and called out... ‘No surrender’ and there came the answer past any doubt... ‘No surrender’.”

SOPHIA DULEEP SINGH
THE PUBLICITY-GRABBING PRINCESS

Princess Sophia Duleep Singh (1876–1948) didn’t fit the standard profile for a street-fighting political activist. Descended from Sikh royalty that had once ruled in northwest India, Sophia was a goddaughter of Queen Victoria and a fixture of the royal court. She spent her earlier years as a well-known socialite, preoccupied with parties, fashion and scandal.

But after a 1903 trip to India opened her eyes to racism and Indian nationalism, Sophia became increasingly politically minded. On her return to Britain, she turned her attention to women’s suffrage. Sophia’s fame put her in a unique position to generate publicity for the cause, with attention-grabbing antics such as refusing to pay taxes (since she couldn’t vote on how they were spent), spoiling census papers and selling suffragette newspapers outside Hampton Court Palace. She donated huge sums to the WSPU and was even embroiled in fights with police during the infamous ‘Black Friday’ march of 1910.

EMILY WILDING DAVISON
THE ULTIMATE MARTYR

Today, Emily Wilding Davison (1872–1913) being trampled by the king’s horse at the Epsom Derby in 1913 is probably the most famous incident in the suffrage campaign. Yet although Davison’s death is to whether she intended the fatal consequences of her actions. While Davison had spoken of the movement needing the “sacrifice of human life”, some believe her death was accidental and she was simply trying to interrupt the race.

Either way, by the time of her death, the 40-year-old Londoner was an ardent supporter of votes for women, with years of activism under her belt. After joining the WSPU in 1906, Davison was arrested several times for activities including throwing stones, obstruction, smashing windows in the House of Commons and setting fire to a postbox.

Five thousand women marched in her funeral procession.
Edwardian Britain first-hand, Annie Kenney (1879–1953) saw the vote as a means of improving their lives. Hailing from Springhead, an area of Oldham, Kenney worked in a cotton mill from the age of 10. She and her sister Jessie became involved in the movement after witnessing a speech from Christabel Pankhurst.

Kenney was an important recruiter and co-founded the first London branch of the WSPU, becoming one of the only working-class women in the WSPU’s leadership. Arrested 13 times in total, postcards of her were sold to adoring fans.

Edith Rigby (1872–1950) was a woman who confounded society’s expectations. Married to a doctor in Preston, the unconventional Rigby raised eyebrows with her sandals, Turkish cigarettes, heavy amber necklaces and “extraordinary dresses that looked as if they were made of blue sacking”. She ruffled the feathers of her middle-class neighbours by arguing that servants should be treated as equals and even deigning to scrub her own doorstep. Keen to help those less well off, in 1899 Rigby opened a night school for working women.

Edith’s neighbours’ disapproval turned to disgust when she became involved with the WSPU. She was an influential recruiter and actively engaged in militant activities, planting a bomb in Liverpool Corn Exchange and setting fire to a bungalow belonging to former MP William Lever. Like other WSPU members, Rigby was force-fed in prison, and received a hunger strike medal for her efforts.

“Whenever I was out of prison my object was to burn two buildings a week,” Lilian Lenton (1891–1972) wrote of her time as a suffragette. “The object was to create an absolutely impossible condition of affairs... to prove it was impossible to govern without the consent of the governed.”

Known as the “tiny, wily, elusive Pimpernel”, Lenton – who gave up a career as a dancer to join the suffragettes – spent much of 1912–13 leading the police on a wild goose chase. After being suspected of a Doncaster arson attack in 1913, she evaded the police disguised as an errand boy before jumping on a yacht and escaping to France.

Lenton was also at the centre of a scandal over the treatment of suffragettes in prison, when it was made public that she had contracted pleurisy after being force-fed (due to food entering her lungs). The Home Secretary falsely denied Lenton’s ordeal, and serious embarrassment ensued when the truth was revealed. Despite her contributions, Lenton was too young to vote when the Representation of the People Act was passed in 1918.

To most politicians, the suffragettes were objects of derision and even hatred. But they did have one key ally on the inside - Keir Hardie (1856–1915). The founder of the Labour Party saw suffrage as the key to improving the lives of working women and was a frequent speaker at rallies. Hardie spoke out in the House of Commons against the brutal treatment of suffragettes in prison, and even helped smuggle WSPU members into political meetings in order to cause mayhem.

Although this gained Hardie many political enemies, he saw the suffrage question as one that transcended party divisions, writing in 1905: “To those who are opposed on principle to women having the vote at all I have little to say. These I find it easier to pity than to reason with...”
VICTORY AT LAST?

By the end of 1918, the suffragettes had partially succeeded in their aims – millions of women now had the vote, and could also stand as MPs. But there was still further progress to be made.

After the Representation of the People Act became law in February 1918, around 8.4 million women were granted the vote. This was roughly 43 per cent of all adult women in Britain, but still only applied to those over 30 who met certain property qualifications.

However, despite its shortcomings, the other most radical change brought in by the act was that it allowed women stand for election to parliament – the first such occasion being the general election of December 1918. Overall, 17 women threw their hats into the ring, including Christabel Pankhurst, representing the newly formed Women’s Party.

Yet, even after some spirited campaigning, the only woman to emerge victorious was Sinn Féin’s Constance Markievicz, who refused to take her seat due to her party’s calls for a united and independent Ireland. It wasn’t until the by-election for Plymouth Sutton the following year that the first female MP – Lady Nancy Astor – would take her place on the famous green benches, representing the Conservative Party.

Following Christabel Pankhurst’s failure to win her seat, the Women’s Party followed the same path as the WSPU (which had been dissolved in 1917) and was wound up in June 1919. Meanwhile, the NUWSS became the National Union of Societies for Equal Citizenship and campaigned to lower the voting age of women, as well as fight for equality in the workplace and within the law.

Regarding employment rights, there was positive progress. Having proven they could take on roles traditionally deemed ‘men’s work’ during the war, the Sex Disqualification (Removal) Act came into force, trebling the size of the British electorate.

Despite women first securing the vote in 1918, there have only been two female British prime ministers to date, and until 1987, female MPs made up just 5 per cent of the House of Commons. The figure is now 34 per cent, but Britain still only ranks 39th when it comes to female representation in national parliaments around the globe.
into force in December 1919 – women could now join all the professions (such as law), except the church.

Opportunities in education began to improve, too. Higher education institutions began allowing women to study for more degrees, and in 1920, the University of Oxford became the penultimate British university in existence at the time to allow women to graduate (Cambridge wouldn’t follow suit until 1948). In 1923, the Matrimonial Causes Act also allowed women to divorce their partners on the grounds of adultery alone – previously, they would also have to prove an aggravating factor of the adultery, such as rape or incest.

However, it wasn’t until 1928 – with the introduction of the Equal Franchise Act – that all women over the age of 21 were finally given the vote, with no caveats. Fortunately, this time around there was little opposition. The suffragettes, once declared criminals and fantasists, were now hailed as inspirational heroes, and a statue of Emmeline Pankhurst was unveiled near the Houses of Parliament in 1930.

Further milestones were to follow. In 1969, the voting age for both men and women was lowered to 18, while the women’s liberation movements of the 1960s and 1970s would adopt similar rallying cries as the suffragettes while they campaigned on issues such as workplace discrimination and reproductive rights.

Indeed, many of those fighting against sexism today proudly pay tribute to those who served a century before. From the purple, white and green colours adopted by the Women’s Equality Party, to the work of feminist charities such as the Fawcett Society, the heritage of the women’s suffrage movement still remains visible within the fabric of modern Britain.

WORDS: EMMA SLATTERY WILLIAMS
Percy Smith was a pioneer of natural history filmmaking, creating movies that would prove the antecedents of the David Attenborough documentaries so beloved today.
PERCY SMITH
THE QUIET REVOLUTIONARY

One man can truly be seen as the godfather of natural history filmmaking. Nige Tassell celebrates the life and work of Percy Smith
In 1995, the David Attenborough written and fronted television series *The Private Life of Plants* aired. It was a six part study of the lifecycle and behaviour of plants from around the world, as shown through extensive timelapse sequences. The series was another feather in Attenborough's already feather laden cap, winning both international acclaim and a much vaunted Peabody Award.

But the seeds of the series were sown 65 years earlier by a short black and white film called *The Strangler*, which showed how a parasitic vine called a dodder entwines and smothers other plants. With its revolutionary embrace of timelapse techniques (which its director called 'time magnification'), it is a clear antecedent to *The Private Life of Plants*. Its director was the pioneering natural history filmmaker Percy Smith.

As pioneers go, Smith (sometimes known by his full name, Frank Percy Smith) cut an unlikely figure. Born in Islington in 1880, he was a neatly put together man, smart and precise, and looking every inch his occupation: a clerk for the Board of Education. But, after work and at weekends, Smith indulged his fascination for photographing nature. He had started young. As a boy, Smith had built his own, rather rudimentary, microscope and dabbled with close up photography. But it wasn’t just the technology that captivated him. He also knew his subject matter in great depth and, as a young adult, gave lectures in natural history accompanied, of course, by his striking photographic slides.

In 1907, a significant pair of eyes caught sight of one of Smith's photographs. They belonged to the film producer Charles Urban, a man whose news and non fiction films played to packed houses at venues like the Alhambra Music Hall in London’s Leicester Square. Urban was searching for someone to make scientific films for him and, having seen Smith’s striking portrait of a bluebottle’s tongue as it drank milk, sought him out. Smith – who at this point may not have yet visited a cinema – was given a film camera by Urban and told to go out and film whatever insects piqued his interest.

The resulting film, *The Balancing Bluebottle*, was a huge hit. Designed to show the strength of the fly, Smith had tied the bluebottle to a stick using a thread of silk, before turning it onto its back and placing a cork on top of it. The bluebottle then deftly balanced and juggled the cork with its legs.

**FLYING HIGH**

*The Balancing Bluebottle* fulfilled Urban’s company motto – ‘We put the world before you’ – by combining the elements that would fascinate naturalists with what would intrigue an unscientific audience. The shy Smith, unfamiliar with the impulses of showbusiness, nevertheless quickly understood how films for a picture-house audience needed sugar coating, how his filmmaking had to hide “the powder of instruction in the jam of entertainment”.

More films followed, including *To Demonstrate How Spiders Fly*, and
a re-release of The Balancing Bluebottle under the name The Acrobatic Fly. In 1910, after failing to persuade his employers at the Board of Education to create a scientific film department, Smith quit the civil service to join Urban’s company full time. The following year, he and his wife Kate moved to a house in the London suburb of Southgate, whereupon a conservatory was immediately constructed to serve as a studio.

Working in the house in which he lived, Smith’s art became all pervasive; decades later, his obituary in Nature noted that “he had no thought for anything other than his work”. Smith was fastidious and precise, even setting alarms for himself in case a camera needed changing in the middle of the night. And he was incredibly patient. Taking a couple of years to make a short film about the growth and blooming of a flower wasn’t seen as an indulgence.

Not only was Smith creating a film genre, but he was also inventing original techniques for timelapse and microcinematography as he went. In a manner not dissimilar to that of his contemporary Heath Robinson, he built a range of contraptions to aid the filming process, innovatively making use of whatever was close to hand — whether gramophone needles, pieces of Meccano, or items from his wife’s haberdashery box. He was certainly more of an eccentric figure than his conservative three-piece suit and immaculately parted hair suggested.

**POST-WAR PROWESS**

More than 50 films later (including the celebrated *The Birth of a Flower*), Smith found himself diverted into making animated maps when World War I broke out; they were an effective way of showing cinema audiences how the war was progressing. He was conscripted as a photographer for the Royal Naval Air Service and, returning home at the war’s end, found Urban had returned to his native US.

In 1922, film producer Harry Bruce Woolfe recruited Smith to head up a series of short films for his company, British Instructional Films. The 144 part series *Secrets of Nature* was extremely popular and Smith enjoyed a wide remit when it came to his subjects. Floating tadpoles, pollinating bees, anything that would increase the knowledge of Smith’s keen audience, while doing so in an entertaining way, was permissible.

From initially working as a one-man operation in his conservatory, Smith increasingly worked with another director, Mary Field, who became the series’ editor so that Smith could concentrate on filming. The pair embraced developing technology sound, colour, commentary while doing their utmost to not lose the simplicity and quintessence of their...
Percy Smith died on 24 March 1945. The biography included in the book See How They Grow, co-authored by Smith but published posthumously, declares that his death was the “result of bombing toward the end of World War II”, but this is incorrect. Smith died in the kitchen of his house/studio in Southgate, north London, from coal gas poisoning. The coroner recorded a verdict of suicide, explaining that Smith had put his head in the oven “whilst the balance of his mind was disturbed”. The writer Linda Rodriguez McRobbie has speculated that the various ailments Smith suffered from in later years were possibly linked to depression. Without a suicide note, it is difficult to determine the reasons why he took his own life, although his films had certainly declined in popularity by the middle of the 20th century. As McRobbie observes, “he seemed to feel himself to be a person out of time”. Nonetheless, as the subject of many newspaper profiles during his heyday, Smith made headline news in death.

THE LONESOME DEATH OF PERCY SMITH

Smith’s suicide remains a tragic mystery

Percy Smith died on 24 March 1945. The biography included in the book See How They Grow, co-authored by Smith but published posthumously, declares that his death was the “result of bombing toward the end of World War II”, but this is incorrect. Smith died in the kitchen of his house/studio in Southgate, north London, from coal gas poisoning. The coroner recorded a verdict of suicide, explaining that Smith had put his head in the oven “whilst the balance of his mind was disturbed”. The writer Linda Rodriguez McRobbie has speculated that the various ailments Smith suffered from in later years were possibly linked to depression. Without a suicide note, it is difficult to determine the reasons why he took his own life, although his films had certainly declined in popularity by the middle of the 20th century. As McRobbie observes, “he seemed to feel himself to be a person out of time”. Nonetheless, as the subject of many newspaper profiles during his heyday, Smith made headline news in death.

“He gave moulds the run of the house, which was subsequently rendered uninhabitable”

Most unkind of all,” he observed, “was the pampered wretch which had been raised on clarified fruit jelly” and which, having discovered distemper contained gelatine, “completely stripped the rather moist wall of the living room”.

A LIFE LIVED SLOW

The Smiths were forced to move to a bungalow around the corner, but retained the original house affectionately known as Southgate Studios where Smith continued to work, albeit with declining impact as audiences encountered alternative, possibly more sophisticated ways of being entertained. He took his own life in 1945 at the age of 65 (see box, top right), a sad demise for someone whose legacy still resonates: the creator of an entire genre of filmmaking.

Smith kept things simple. While he remained a man who understood that his films needed a coating of showmanship to engage the audience, the quintessential essence of nature going about its business was always the focus. And this simplicity needed protection from the urgency of modern life.

“The world now sacrifices everything to speed,” Smith once observed. “Quiet seems to be regarded as a detestable condition to be expurgated by any means which applied science can devise; and this state of airs does not encourage the production of the type of individual who can satisfy himself in an investigation of the hidden beauties of Nature.”

All hail the quiet man in his conservatory.

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ABOVE: Smith relied on timelapses and micro-photography, techniques he pioneered

RIGHT: The posthumously published See How They Grow entwined Smith’s death with enemy action during World War II

IMAGE: PERCY SMITH/SCIENCE PHOTO LIBRARY

ABOVE: Smith made sketches with observational notes in addition to his films

MAIN: A frog photographed by Smith, who took great pains to release his subjects unharmed
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Though her childhood home was Hever Castle, Anne Boleyn spent much of her formative years on the continent, at the Habsburg court in Mechelen (background) and France – giving her experiences and airs that set her apart on her return to England.
In May 1513, a young English girl stood on the deck of a ship cresting the waves of the English Channel. She may have been as old as 12, or as young as seven, but Anne Boleyn already understood that she had an important international role to play. As the daughter of a leading diplomat to the court of Henry VIII, her father’s connections had offered her an opportunity that was both thrilling and terrifying for one so young. She had left behind Hever Castle, her home set amid the rolling Kentish countryside, in favour of the perilous seas, and a new mistress and court in a distant land. As it happened, this would be the making of her.

It is often assumed that we know little about the years Anne spent in the courts of the Netherlands and France, between 1513 and 1521. Yet this is not entirely the case. Sources do exist that make it possible to follow her trail and understand the influences that contributed to her allure.

**MARVELS IN MECHelen**

Anne’s first destination was the court at Mechelen of Margaret of Austria, regent of the Netherlands, a journey that could take several days, depending on tides and the weather. With her father, Thomas Boleyn, already across the Channel, a guardian was appointed to accompany her daughter. Claude Bouton, Seigneur de Corbaron, was then aged around 40, with a distinguished record of service to the Habsburgs, one of Europe’s principle ruling dynasties. Bouton had become Captain of the Guard and Master of the Household to Margaret’s brother Philip, then his son, Prince Charles. Anne was in safe hands. Bouton’s years of service and status at the Burgundian court guaranteed his chivalric conduct: such a man would not have been entrusted with the task if there were any doubts about his character. Anne’s guardian was also a poet of considerable reputation and enlightenment, having composed his *Éloge des Femmes* (In Praise of Women). He is also cited as the possible author of the moral work *Miroir des Dames et de Mademoiselles*.

Arriving in Mechelen, Anne found a dazzling city being refashioned along Renaissance lines. Margaret’s newly built residence, known as the Hof van Savoye, was situated only a few streets to the west of the town centre. Its inner courtyard was a dazzling mix of patterned red brick, tall, narrow stepped gable ends, and long windows. Improvements had been made as recently as 1507, giving Anne a taste of the latest in northern Renaissance architecture and interiors; it has been suggested that she was so impressed that she included some of its features when Whitehall Palace was being planned in the early 1530s.

Anne was in good company at Mechelen. She was educated alongside future royalty, as Margaret’s young Habsburg nephew and nieces Prince Charles, grandson of the emperor, and his three sisters, Eleanor, Isabel and Mary – were all in residence. During her stay, Anne would have had access to Margaret’s extensive library. An inventory of its contents compiled in 1516 includes the beautiful illuminated manuscript of the *Très Riches Heures du Duc de Berry*, a number of Bibles, St Augustine’s *City of God*, the *Lives of the Saints* and *The Golden Legend*, *Froissart’s Chronicle*, the lives of Titus Livius and Julius Caesar, Seneca’s *Letters*, Aristotle, Ovid, Boethius, Ptolemy, Alexander the Great, and many more. Anne was certainly spoiled for choice when it came to reading matter. She would also have been unable to avoid Margaret’s imposing art collection, hung on
the walls of the palace, representing figures from European royalty, the Bible, and history. Among them were Jan van Eyck’s Arnolfini Portrait of 1434, Juan de Flandes’ The Marriage Feast at Cana of 1501-04 and at least one work by Hieronymus Bosch. The walls of the Hof van Savoye were also adorned with tapestries depicting scenes from Christine de Pizan’s The Book of the City of Ladies, based on the 1405 work celebrating 200 admirable women. This became a favourite of Anne’s, who possibly commissioned a set for herself—they are recorded as being in the collection of her daughter Elizabeth in 1547.

There were exotic items in Margaret’s household, too: portraits of men and women in Spanish, Italian and Portuguese dress, and, among Margaret’s possessions, a tunic and pearls from India, a dead bird of paradise wrapped in taffeta, branches of coloured coral and tapestries from Turkey and Morocco. These influences, stemming from a formidable mentor, placed the young Anne firmly in the European humanist Renaissance, at a stage of her life when her opinions and tastes were being decisively formed.

Anne gained a perspective beyond the narrow focus of an island nation: specifically, while abroad, she developed a European picture, even a world picture, so far as the world was then known. Perhaps in a quiet moment she poured over Margaret’s mappa mundi, looking at all the different continents, including the newly discovered Americas.

BOUND FOR FRANCE

After around 18 months in Mechelen, Anne was recalled to France due to the marriage of Henry VIII’s sister Mary to Louis XII of France. Her own sister Mary Boleyn had been part of the bride’s entourage, but it appears that Anne arrived later, only experiencing a few short months in the new royal household prior to Louis’s death. While the Dowager Queen Mary and her sister Mary Boleyn returned to England, Anne entered the service of Claude, the new French queen, wife to the cultured and urbane Francis I.

Over the next six years, the young English woman came to understand the dynamic of a royal marriage that was based upon mutual respect, despite the obvious incompatibility between Francis and Claude. Anne saw behind the scenes in the queen’s bedroom, in terms of sexuality, bodily functions, illness, pregnancy and childbirth. She saw how Claude endured the presence of Francis’s many mistresses, and the upper hand she retained by bearing the king’s children. Anne learned that delivering an heir was the trump card in any royal marriage.

Claude’s primary residence was the Chateau of Blois, where the wall carvings featured her personal devices of the ermine, knotted rope, full Moon and the swan pierced by an arrow. When Anne arrived there for the first time, probably early in 1515, she would have found a fairytale castle of a style and scale she had never experienced before. While Margaret’s Burgundian court had echoed aspects of the northern Renaissance, it was still very much Low Countries in style, while the influence of Italian architecture had made its way into France in the late 15th and early 16th century. Over the coming years, Francis redesigned Blois further, introducing a grand central staircase inspired by the architecture of the Vatican, and laying out ornamental gardens. He brought the garden designer Pacello da Mercogliano to France from Italy to create the terraced formal gardens at both Blois and his own home, at Amboise.

On the walls at Blois, Anne saw painted and woven images presenting the anatomical, realistic and balanced ideal of the Renaissance, with their dark backgrounds and chiaroscuro (contrasts between light and dark) focus, often set indoors, with glimpses out through open doors and windows. Yet Queen Claude’s was a specific, female, maternal,
representation of the Renaissance. One work she owned was Sebastiano del Piombo’s Visitation, depicting St Elizabeth visiting the pregnant Virgin Mary (pictured above). Painted in 1518, it hung in Claude’s bedchamber, but it is not a romantic image: the weary set of Mary’s features bear a realism that would have been familiar to Claude through her own experiences, undergoing three pregnancies and severe ill-health by the age of 19.

Anne may well have witnessed the delivery, in 1517, of the tiny prayer book commissioned by Claude, full of dazzling miniatures, so small it can be held in the palm of the hand, and a companion volume, a book of hours. Less than three inches tall and 2.5 inches wide, the prayer book’s diminutive size was a mark of its value; perhaps Anne had the opportunity to glimpse its jewel-like colours, depicting the Passion of Christ, or read the story of St Christopher and those of St Nicholas and St René, who were responsible for restoring dead children to life.

Pregnancy had delayed Claude’s coronation, but Anne finally got to witness the event in 1517. Seven sites of pageantry had been created in Paris, along Claude’s route. Francis had hired Pierre Gringore, the most famous Parisian poet, actor and playwright of his day, who had recently composed a mystery play about Louis XII, but was also known for his satires on the papacy. Claude was carried into Notre-Dame Cathedral in a litter draped with cloth of silver, clad head to toe in jewels. Under Notre-Dame’s gothic vaulting and great rose window, she was anointed and made her promises. Anne would then have accompanied her to the banquet held afterwards in her honour at the nearby Palais du Justice.

LESSONS IN QUEENSHIP
One of the messages that Anne would have absorbed from the day’s proceedings was that blood mattered. Claude may have possessed the desirable qualities of being virtuous, chaste and good, but she was no match for Francis physically, culturally and intellectually. Yet none of this mattered in the face of her pedigree, as the pageantry and symbolism was designed to prove. Claude’s personal qualities, even her very identity, were far less important than her ability to unify France. The women whom Francis entertained in private may have been beautiful and witty, but that alone did not qualify them for queenship. It would be a long journey, beginning a decade later, for Anne and Henry to overturn this status quo.

During her time at the French court, Anne is likely to have met the most important artist of her time: Leonardo da Vinci. Francis had invited the polymath into his service in 1515, housing him in the grounds of Amboise. One surviving sketch Leonardo made of the chateau shows the array of little roofs and walls in faded sepia. Anne may well have been resident in one of those rooms while the artist sat and drew, perhaps perched just inside one of the windows that were traced by the master’s pen. In Claude’s company, ushered through his secret passage by Francis, Anne is likely to have seen such works as the Mona Lisa, and heard them spoken of by their creator. She may also have attended Leonardo’s funeral in 1519.

It is difficult to know exactly what effect the culture, ceremony and experience of northern Europe had upon Anne Boleyn, but there is no doubt that it did have an impact. The francophilia she later displayed, permeating her style, air, conversation and polish, leaves little doubt that her time on the continent was a defining period in her life. As the epitome of everything French and fashionable, Anne’s exposure to Renaissance culture gave her an exotic edge upon her return to England.

Anne returned to England in late 1521 or early 1522. The rest of her story is well known. She was a European Renaissance woman who dared to sit upon the English throne, at a time when English notions of queenship were limited and inflexible.
IN CONTEXT

Following the assassination of Julius Caesar in 44 BC, Rome descended into civil war. Three of the Republic’s most powerful men – Caesar’s adopted son and heir Octavian and statesmen Mark Antony and Lepidus – formed a fragile alliance to bring stability, but this Second Triumvirate failed to work together and instead divided up the land among themselves. By 31 BC, the Triumvirate had collapsed and Octavian had gone to war with Antony and his lover Cleopatra, queen of Egypt.

Their fleets clashed on 2 September 31 BC in the battle of Actium, off the coast of western Greece, which ended with Cleopatra fleeing with her 60 ships before being followed by Antony, leaving his ships to be decisively defeated. Octavian pursued the lovers to Alexandria, where they both took their own lives the following year. The victorious Octavian then secured his place as the master of the Roman world and soon became the first emperor, taking on the name Augustus.

WHAT IF...

ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA
HAD WON AT ACTIUM?

Within four years of his victory in the naval battle of Actium, Octavian, the most powerful man in Rome, had taken the name Augustus and begun his reign as the first emperor. The beginning of the end of the Roman Republic had been signalled when Octavian’s former ally turned rival Mark Antony and his lover, the Egyptian queen Cleopatra, fled that clash of fleets on 2 September 31 BC in the Ionian Sea near Actium. If they had stayed, could the Republic have been saved?

“Antony and Cleopatra might certainly have won. They had more ships at their disposal and were aided by allied leaders,” says Catharine Edwards, professor of classics and ancient history at Birkbeck, University of London. But a lot would have had to go differently. “Octavian had outmanoeuvred them with a blockade, cutting off their supply route from Egypt.”

Lack of provisions led to disease and desertions sweeping through Antony’s camp, so he could muster crews for around 230 ships, only half his estimated fleet. A key deserter was a general, Quintus Dellius, who defected to Octavian and took Antony’s battle plans with him. Antony had hoped to gain the advantage by striking first; now he had a smaller force and the enemy would be anticipating his every move.

Even if some or all of these factors had gone Antony and Cleopatra’s way, winning at Actium was unlikely to have been enough. While Antony held domain in the Republic’s eastern provinces including the client kingdom of Egypt, he had to win back his reputation in Rome itself, which was firmly under Octavian’s control. Edwards says: “Antony and Cleopatra conferred various eastern territories as well as grand titles on Cleopatra’s children. This was readily presented by Octavian as an outrageous misuse of Antony’s power.”

CHANGING LOYALTIES

Octavian was, as Edwards puts it, “tremendously skilled as a manipulator of opinion” and had launched a propaganda campaign to discredit Antony, who had been one of his partners in the Second Triumvirate. He even had a document he claimed to be Antony’s will publicly read in Rome, in which Antony allegedly named his children with Cleopatra as his heirs rather than those he had with his wife Octavia (Octavian’s sister). “This was taken as evidence that Antony was under the thumb of the queen of Egypt and was no longer committed to Rome,” says Edwards. “Octavian, by contrast, made a point of advertising his own traditional Roman family.”

Antony could still have won back many in Rome with victory at Actium, though. He had already secured the support of legions formerly led by Julius Caesar assassinated a little over a decade earlier and, says Edwards, Octavian was hard pressed to raise the funds for this war. A strong naval victory for Antony and Cleopatra could have been followed by securing commitment to their cause from some of Octavian’s forces, “who might have switched sides if they thought they had a better chance of rewards.”

Perhaps the main problem for Antony and Cleopatra was that Octavian was not actually present at the battle, and his 400 or so ships were commanded by an experienced admiral named Agrippa. So even if Antony and Cleopatra somehow won at Actium, Octavian would have lived to fight another day, still likely with the support of Rome.

“It’s quite possible that civil war would just have dragged on,” says Edwards. Octavian had a big advantage in that he

Professor Catharine Edwards tells Jonny Wilkes why the famous lovers had little guarantee of rescuing the Roman Republic – even if they had emerged victorious against Octavian’s navy.
had consolidated control over Italy during the time of the Second Triumvirate, while Antony’s power base was in the east. While that did give Antony access to significant resources, especially land forces and money, in the eyes of many in Rome he was a traitor. Perhaps his best chance after Actium would have been to keep Octavian out of the eastern provinces, where he could have built his own influence with Cleopatra. In essence, the Roman Republic would have been divided in two.

**A FRAGILE STATE**

But, as Edwards claims, “Antony surely could not have remained in control for long without winning over hearts and minds back in Rome.” That would have been a daunting prospect, but not implausible. “It is worth remembering that it was Antony who roused the people of Rome against Caesar’s assassins in 44 BC and ensured the implementation of a number of popular measures initiated by Caesar,” says Edwards. “Whether he would have had success with the Senate is a different question.”

So if Antony and Cleopatra had been able to launch their fleet at the battle of Actium with no issues with provisions, disease and desertions; and they had committed to all out victory rather than engineering a hole in Octavian’s line for them to flee; and Antony had then courted support in Rome successfully after all that, they still faced an angry Octavian seeking revenge and a protracted civil war. “Provided Octavian survived, I think he would eventually have been victorious one way or another,” says Edwards. “He was a master strategist, always ready to adapt.” And even if Antony and Cleopatra had emerged decisively victorious, the Republic might not have survived anyway. Edwards says: “Many would argue that the Roman republican system was fundamentally unsuited to the government of a geographically extensive empire. The Senate was a deeply conservative institution, resistant to radical change, and failed to set up a centralised system.” That is what Octavian or Augustus would address as the Republic turned into an empire.

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**TOMB-MATES**

According to historians Suetonius and Plutarch, the victorious Octavian granted the wishes of Antony and Cleopatra. They be buried together. Despite ongoing searches, however, their shared tomb somewhere near Alexandria in Egypt has never been discovered.
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Who carved the Easter Island heads?

**SHORT ANSWER** Don’t call them ‘heads’ in front of the Rapa Nui people – they made sure to carve the bodies, too

**LONG ANSWER** Carving and transporting those characteristic stone statues, known as moai, that keep watch over Easter Island was no small feat. There are 887 documented figures in total, with probably more to come, standing four to 21 metres tall and weighing tens of tonnes. What’s more, they’re bigger than they look: they’re not just heads, it’s just that their bodies have been buried over time.

The moai were carved by the Rapa Nui people, who inhabited the island in the Pacific Ocean sometime in the first millennium. Various clans made their own, engaging in a certain one-upmanship as they made sure to make theirs bigger, and then dotted them around on different sites, or ahu. The largest is Ahu Tongariki, with 15 moai including, at 140 plus tonnes, the heaviest single statue. The Rapa Nui were hard at work on the moai from around AD 1000 to the 17th century, quarrying the volcanic rock mainly from one spot, Rano Raraku, and moving the statues on sledges with tree trunks for rollers.

It wasn’t them, however, who named their home Easter Island. That was Dutch admiral, Jacob Roggeveen, who became the first European to sight the place on you guessed it Easter Sunday 1722.
Who was Milo of Croton?

**SHORT ANSWER** Perhaps history’s greatest wrestler, an unorthodox ox-wrangler and no friend to wolves (or lions)

**LONG ANSWER** To this day, those wanting the muscles of a bodybuilder turn to the workout tips of an ancient Greek wrestler. Milo of Croton won wrestling titles in six Olympic Games, as well as seven Pythian Games, 10 Isthmian Games and nine Nemean Games. For those not adding that up, he won a total of 32 titles in a career lasting approximately 24 years. According to legend, Milo built his strength as a boy by lifting and carrying a baby calf every day as it grew into an adult ox. Today that’s called ‘progressive overload training’. Another legend recounts how the athlete met his end: while trying to rip a tree apart with his bare hands, he got stuck and was eaten by wolves (or a lion, in some versions of the tale).

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Did William the Conqueror have a claim to the throne?

**SHORT ANSWER** Nothing more than a supposed promise, which was why, as his name suggests, he took it by force

**LONG ANSWER** In 1066 he came, he conquered, and he was crowned. But William, Duke of Normandy, was far from the clear choice to be the next king of England. When Edward the Confessor died childless, the strongest claimant in terms of bloodline was his great nephew, sickly teenager Edgar Atheling. Instead, it was Harold Godwinson, a powerful earl with no dynastic claim but the support of the nobles, who took the throne after he handily said Edward had named him successor on his deathbed. Yet William was a distant cousin of the deceased king, as grandson of Edward’s uncle, and claimed he had been promised the crown back in 1051. And he wasn’t about to give it up, so began preparing his invasion. Meanwhile, another claimant got in on the act, King of Norway Harald Hardrada, so the whole thing ended up being decided on the battlefield, not by family trees.

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What did Hitler do in World War I?

**SHORT ANSWER** The 20th century could have been very different had a shell exploded just that little bit closer

**LONG ANSWER** Adolf Hitler had been a struggling artist living in Munich at the outbreak of World War I in 1914. Although Austrian, and failing his medical exam, he managed to sign up for the Bavarian army and was whisked to the front. As part of a young batch of troops, he fought at the first battle of Ypres – the so-called ‘Massacre of the Innocents’ – where his 3,600-strong regiment shrank to just 611. Hitler spent much of the war as a despatch runner, delivering messages on the western front, for which he became a corporal and won two Iron Crosses. In 1916, at the Somme, Hitler was wounded when a shell exploded near him, and in 1918, he was temporarily blinded during a mustard gas attack. While recuperating in hospital, he heard of Germany’s surrender and the end of the war. Needless to say, he remained bitter about that.
How many died at Pompeii?

**SHORT ANSWER** At least 2,000. It’s a bit of guesswork aided by some extraordinary discoveries.

**LONG ANSWER** Mount Vesuvius in the Bay of Naples, Italy, lay quiet for three centuries until it erupted back into violent life in AD 79. The towns of Pompeii and Herculaneum were smothered by pyroclastic flows—super hot and super quick waves of ash, gas, and rock capable of boiling blood and transforming brain matter to glass—and those who had not already fled perished in seconds and were buried under volcanic debris. Pompeii had a population of 12,15,000 people, of which it is thought some 2,000 died. Since excavations began, well over 1,000 ‘bodies’ have been discovered; cavities left in the ash and rock when the actual bodies decomposed, which have allowed plaster casts to be made of the dead. Herculaneum was closer to Vesuvius, but had a smaller population of around 4,5,000 residents. For a while, it was hypothesised that not many had stayed in the town, until the 1980s when excavations of the boat houses uncovered more than 340 skeletons huddled together as they desperately, yet futilely, tried to shelter from the deadly eruption. Despite these discoveries, the true death toll remains unknown. Some estimates go much higher than the 2,000 in Pompeii and 300 ish in Herculaneum, all the way to 16,000 casualties.

Did any Ancient Greeks visit Britain?

**SHORT ANSWER** One explorer certainly claimed he did, but not everyone believed him.

**LONG ANSWER** In around 330-320 BC, Pytheas of Massalia set out from the Mediterranean bound for far off and fabled lands where no known Greek had been before: the northern reaches of Europe. He navigated the Atlantic coast, sailed to Scandinavia, and landed on the British Isles. There, he observed the tin mines of Belerion, or Cornwall, and made estimates of how far away it was from home.

Pytheas wrote an account of his voyage, *On the Ocean*, which became something of a sensation. It has since been lost, though, so what we know about Pytheas comes from other Greek or Roman scholars, many of whom believed he made it all up—his claims of solidified or frozen seas was deemed too outlandish. Yet it has been suggested that Pytheas actually made it to the Shetland Islands, Denmark and the Baltic—possibly even Iceland, too.

What was the Judas Cradle?

**SHORT ANSWER** A nasty torture device from the medieval period.

**LONG ANSWER** Beware, this is not for the squeamish. You have been warned. The Judas Cradle was an addition—possibly from the time of the Inquisition in 16th-century Spain, hence the religious name—to the embarrassment of medieval torture devices. It looked like a stool, but with a sharply pointed pyramid on top. The victim would be held above by ropes and lowered, slowly impaling them on the spike. The phrase ‘pain in the arse’ doesn’t cover the agony this must have been. The torture could last for several days and gravity could be helped along by hanging weights off the unfortunate recipient’s legs.
When did Japan open its borders?

**SHORT ANSWER** The borders were closed for more than two centuries until the US forced them open.

**LONG ANSWER** Japan closed its borders to the world in the 1630s, fearing that European traders were spreading their heretical Catholic beliefs, and this isolationism, called Sakoku (or 'closed country'), lasted around 220 years. European powers attempted to negotiate, but the United States made the decisive move, wishing to use Japanese ports to refuel and supply their whaling ships and commercial vessels bound for China. On 8 July 1853, American commodore Matthew Perry led four ships into the bay at Edo (Tokyo) and made a show of force with cannon shots. Envoys approached and Perry, presenting a letter from President Millard Fillmore, demanded an end to the isolationism. The Japanese, ruled by the Tokugawa shogunate, knew they couldn't match these four ships in terms of arms and were ultimately forced to concede. The Treaty of Kanagawa was signed on 31 March 1854 and Japan officially opened its borders for American business.

Where did the Resolute Desk come from?

**SHORT ANSWER** Now a desk from which presidents steer the United States, it once used to be an actual ship.

**LONG ANSWER** The oak that made the Resolute Desk went through quite a trip on its way to becoming the US President’s desk in the Oval Office. In the 1850s, the British ship Resolute was sent to find a lost Arctic expedition – led by Sir John Franklin to locate the Northwest Passage – but got stuck in the ice and had to be abandoned. An American whaling ship stumbled on the Resolute a year later, adrift more than 1,000 miles from its last known position, and the US returned the still-seaworthy ship to the Royal Navy. It would not be retired until 1879 when it was salvaged for timber, from which a series of desks were built. The most ornate, made by William Evenden, was presented by Queen Victoria to President Rutherford B Hayes in 1880 both as a sign of friendship and as gesture of thanks for his nation’s role in rescuing the beleaguered ship.

What did ‘night soil men’ do?

**SHORT ANSWER** Here’s a clue: night soil was a euphemism for poo.

**LONG ANSWER** Before proper sewers and everyone deciding they had had enough of living with the permanent stench of excrement, towns were malodorous and unhygienic places where waste piled up in holes in the ground. The job of cleaning out these foul pits fell to night soil men, so-called as they carried out their work under cover of darkness. Having shovelled this ‘night soil’ onto carts, they moved it to, well... a dumping ground, including into the rivers. There was money to be made, though, as the pay was good and the waste could be sold as fertiliser. The huge advances in sewage systems in the 19th century were universally welcomed, although maybe not by the night soil men.

Dirty Work

A night soil man poses for a snap in the village of Dunston, Lincolnshire, 1872

37

The number of African forest elephants taken by Carthaginian general Hannibal when he marched across the Alps to attack the city of Rome.
Were sails on Viking ships really red and white?

**SHORT ANSWER** Horned helmets? No chance. Red and white sails? Quite possibly...

**LONG ANSWER** The classic image of the Vikings seen countless times in art, television and movies has a lot to answer for (enough of the horned helmets, already), so it can be difficult to know whether their longships actually caught the wind with red and white sails or if that is another embellishment.

It is highly unlikely that archaeologists are about to unearth a fully preserved, full sized Viking sail, given they were made with perishable materials, but there are fragments of evidence to suggest that Viking shipbuilders liked a splash of colour.

Seeing that the woollen sails reached 100 square metres, it made sense to make them in strips and sew them together – the ideal opportunity to add different colours and then they had to be treated to make them sturdy in the wind, which could easily be combined with a dyeing process.

Norse sagas and carvings certainly depict longships as having sails of all colours and patterns to go along with the colourful shields displayed on the sides. As for the red and white look, small scraps of sail were found in Norway on the famous ninth-century Gokstad ship (excavated in 1880) that seem to be white with red strips. Maybe the classic image gets some things right, then!

When was sliced bread invented?

**SHORT ANSWER** Otto Frederick Rohwedder definitely used his loaf

**LONG ANSWER** The US inventor Otto Frederick Rohwedder took 16 years to develop a bread slicing machine, but is that really such a long time? He was, after all, making the best thing since… we don’t even know what. Eventually, his first sliced loaf of bread went on sale in Chillicothe, Missouri, on 7 July 1928 – Rohwedder’s 48th birthday.

Although it took a while for people to get used to, his sliced bread was soon accompanied with the slogan “The greatest forward step in the baking industry since bread was wrapped” – which, while not as catchy as today’s phrase, proved to be a stroke of marketing genius.

Who was the Cripplegate Ghost?

**SHORT ANSWER** This real-life Corpse Bride could really sleep like the dead

**LONG ANSWER** One morning, Elizabeth, a woman living in 19th-century London, was found dead by her husband. As he made plans for her funeral at the church of St Giles Cripplegate, his chief request was that she be buried wearing her wedding dress and wedding ring. This all seems pretty supernatural so far, but when thieves went to the church, opened her coffin and tried to steal the ring, Elizabeth opened her eyes.

It turned out she wasn’t dead, but suffered from narcolepsy, and the moment she awoke was when the thieves decided to cut off her finger to get the ring. Elizabeth, unsurprisingly, let out a piercing scream. She staggered home in the middle of the night, and the maid had a fright when she saw her supposedly deceased mistress at the door, pale, sickly and in her wedding dress. Elizabeth recovered and for her remaining 35 years was known as the ‘Cripplegate Ghost’.

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Extra Life: A Short History of Living Longer / BBC Four & BBC iPlayer, Tuesday 18 May

In less than a century, scientific breakthroughs and advances in medicine led to a doubling in life expectancy for many people. So why isn’t this a story more often told? “I studied journalism, and one thing that you are told in journalism is that good news is no news,” says David Olusoga, “so you don’t hear about companies, organisations or institutions that are ticking along fine.”

Extra Life, hosted by Olusoga (A House through Time) and the American writer Steven Johnson (How We Got to Now), takes a different approach. Over four episodes focusing respectively on vaccines, data mapping and fact-based research, medical inventions that combat illness directly and public engagement to influence behaviour—the series, planned before the Covid-19 pandemic began, tells the story of public health advances and shows how the past can help us to understand the present.

It’s a series that hunts out stories that will be unfamiliar to many. The episode on vaccines, for example, doesn’t just focus on the work of Edward Jenner (1749–1823), the doctor who famously developed the world’s first vaccine against a contagious disease, smallpox, it also looks at variolation. This was an earlier practice first used in China, India and the Middle East, and centred on patients developing a mild version of smallpox.

The practice of variolation arrived in North America via an enslaved West African man trafficked to Boston – Onesimus. Before a smallpox outbreak in 1721, his master, Cotton Mather, had asked Onesimus if he had suffered with the disease. “His response was, “Yes and no,” explains Olusoga, “because he had been given a small amount of smallpox, in what was effectively a controlled infection. That is what variolation is. It’s using the ground up pustules of smallpox scabs to administer a small amount of the disease, triggering the immune system but not causing death.” Mather subsequently became an advocate for inoculation.
Concerned with misrepresenting what happened in the past, academics usually steer clear of counterfactual histories. In contrast, writers and filmmakers, concerned with making us look at the past in a fresh light, often prefer to blur the edges of historical events.

This was the approach taken by Colson Whitehead in his 2016 novel, *The Underground Railroad*, which reimagined the secret routes used by slaves fleeing the Antebellum South as a physical system of subterranean tracks. Unusually, the novel won both the Pulitzer Prize for Fiction and the UK’s leading prize for literary science fiction, the Arthur C Clarke Award. This was testament to the novel’s rare mix of imagination and, in its unflinching description of slavery and the violence meted out within a racist system, emotional punch.

Before the book was even published, director Barry Jenkins, who won an Academy Award for his script for the 2016 film *Moonlight*, began discussing the possibility of an adaptation with Whitehead. Five years later, the result is a 10-part series that, according to Jenkins, he made partly because the book reignited a romantic childhood misinterpretation of the past.

“I got that feeling again of being a kid growing up in the projects and imagining black people [literally] on trains underground,” he has noted.

At the centre of the story is Cora Randall (newcomer Thuso Mbedu), a character we follow as she flees north from a plantation in Georgia. On her trail is bounty hunter Ridgeway (Joel Edgerton), a man as singleminded as the Terminator and yet who travels in the company of a sidekick kid, Homer (Chase W Dillon).
Other perspectives

Once Upon A Time in Northern Ireland / BBC iPlayer, streaming now

When looking at the recent history of Northern Ireland, the violence associated with The Troubles inevitably dominates many narratives. Yet, as a new season of four documentaries reminds us, there are other stories to tell from the province, albeit stories often at least partly rooted in Northern Ireland’s sectarian divide.

Different League: The Derry City Story is a case in point. In the 1970s, the club was effectively exiled from senior football because of security concerns centred on the location of its Brandywell Stadium in a nationalist area of the city. Enter four former players with a big idea: what if Derry City were to compete against clubs from Eire in the League of Ireland?

The two-part DeLorean: Back from the Future (broadcast as a 90-minute film on BBC Two earlier in the year) revisits a time when a charismatic American entrepreneur dreamt of building the sports car of the future in Belfast – and how his dreams foundered.

Heist: The Northern Bank Robbery recalls events shortly before Christmas in December 2004, when employees of two banks, with their families being held hostage, were forced to take £26.5m in cash from Belfast’s Northern Bank. Suspicion immediately fell on the Provisional IRA, but the case has never been solved.

GONE: The Lost Boys of Belfast tells the harrowing story of how two boys, Thomas Spence (11) and John Rodgers (13), disappeared from a Belfast street in 1974. They have never been found – in part because the police, in the midst of a de facto civil war, had few resources and little time to devote to the search for missing children.

As well as these films, check on iPlayer for other classic docs, including the feature-length George Best: All By Himself, which charts the troubled life of one of football’s first superstars.

A city in flames

Archive on 4: The Tulsa Tragedy That Shaped America / BBC Radio 4, Saturday 29 May

On 31 May 1921, residents and businesses in Greenwood District in Tulsa, Oklahoma, came under attack. After two days of violence following the arrest of a black shoeshiner who was suspected of assaulting a white elevator operator, a neighbourhood so wealthy it was known as the ‘Black Wall Street’ lay in ruins. Greenwood District had been destroyed by mobs of white Tulsa residents, some of whom had been deputised and given weapons by the authorities.

It’s estimated that hundreds of black residents may have died, while thousands more were left homeless, yet few Americans even know this ever happened. As we approach the centenary of one of America’s worst outbreaks of racial violence, that’s at long last beginning to change, as Alvin Hall charts in a documentary that draws on eyewitness testimony and interviews with descendants of those caught up in the terrible violence.

Also being broadcast on 29 May, a BBC World Service documentary, Hip Hop and Healing: Commemorating Tulsa, presented by Jerica D Wortham, looks at how the community in Greenwood is using art and music to commemorate the attack.

Ancient and modern

Natalie Haynes Stands Up for the Classics / BBC Radio 4, Tuesday 18 May

For the seventh series of her show profiling people and deities associated with the Classical world, writer and sometime comedian Natalie Haynes tells the stories of four female figures from Greek mythology: Medusa, Pandora, Jocasta and Clytemnestra (pictured above).

The questioning tone of the episodes, and the way they touch on contemporary issues, is set by the first show, on serpent-haired, stony-eyed Medusa. Why is she portrayed as a monster when Midas, whose predicament really wasn’t so different, is a figure we pity? You’d guess that sexism will play in here. Featuring contributions from classicist Professor Edith Hall.
**Tudors to Windsors: British Royal Portraits**

**28 MAY – 31 OCTOBER, NATIONAL MARITIME MUSEUM, LONDON**

A major new exhibition of British royal portraits from the past 500 years is coming to the National Maritime Museum this summer. Originally scheduled for 2020, the landmark display will showcase more than 150 works, including a wealth of paintings, miniatures, sculptures, photographs and stamps, dating from the Tudor dynasty to the present day.

Drawing from the rich archives of the National Portrait Gallery and numerous private collections, highlights on show will include the famous ‘Ditchley Portrait’ of Queen Elizabeth I, painted by Flemish artist Marcus Gheeraets the Younger, plus several paintings of King Charles II and some of his mistresses.

The oldest work on display will be a portrait of King Henry VII, painted by an unknown artist in 1505, which was used as part of the monarch’s ultimately unsuccessful marriage negotiations with Margaret of Austria. Looking to more recent times, visitors can also view a selection of 19th-century domestic photographs of Queen Victoria, alongside snaps of Queen Elizabeth II by luminaries such as Cecil Beaton, Andy Warhol and Annie Leibovitz.

Tickets for the exhibition cost £10 for adults and £5 for children, but must be booked in advance to ensure that the gallery does not exceed capacity.
Death Marches: Evidence and Memory
17 MAY – 27 AUGUST, THE WIENER HOLOCAUST LIBRARY, LONDON
bit.ly/deathmarches_wiener

As World War II drew to an end and the Allies closed in, hundreds of thousands of prisoners in Nazi concentration camps were forcibly evacuated to camps inside Germany, to be used as forced labour and avoid discovery. Prisoners were made to march long distances in bitter cold on what became known as death marches, with little food, water or rest. Many died of exhaustion, while countless others were shot en route. This new exhibition at the Wiener Holocaust Library examines the history of the marches, revealing the journeys the prisoners took and the stories of those who did not survive them.

The National Football Museum reopens
FROM 27 MAY, MANCHESTER
bit.ly/national_football_museum

Manchester’s National Football Museum will reopen its turnstiles this May with several new objects and displays that are sure to appeal to die-hard fans of the beautiful game and armchair supporters alike.

The museum’s biggest signing is undoubtedly the 1863 minute book belonging to Football Association secretary Ebenezer Morley, outlining the original 13 ‘Laws of the Game’ and often dubbed the Magna Carta of football. Other new additions include the FA Cup trophy awarded to victorious clubs between 1896 and 1910, plus an exhibition devoted to the museum’s English Football Hall of Fame, telling the stories of players such as Bobby Charlton, Kenny Dalglish and Alex Scott.

Chalke Valley History Festival
23–27 JUNE, WILTSHIRE
cvhf.org.uk

After a Covid-imposed ‘fallow year’, the Chalke Valley History Festival will be returning to the Wiltshire countryside this June for a live, in-person, event packed with talks, debates and historical re-enactments. As ever, attendees will be able to enjoy a star-studded line-up, with Max Hastings, Tracy Borman, Neil Oliver, Rana Mitter, Antonia Fraser and Antony Beevor all set to make an appearance over the five-day event.

Tickets for the festival – including camping passes – go on sale from 19 May via the website address above.
The Light of Days: Women Fighters of the Jewish Resistance – Their Untold Story

By Judy Batalion
Virago, £20, hardback, 576 pages

A testament to the power of human courage in the bleakest of times, this book illuminates the previously overlooked stories of Jewish women confined to the ghettos of Eastern Europe by the Nazis during World War II. They formed an underground resistance movement that smuggled weapons and food, fought and killed their captors, and proved inspirational in a series of uprisings. In the face of such systematic brutality, these women’s victories were often modest, but their stories are remarkable, and incredibly moving.

Doom: The Politics of Catastrophe

By Niall Ferguson
Allen Lane, £25, hardback, 496 pages

How does humanity cope when the routines and securities of everyday life are upended by catastrophe? That’s the question at the heart of this wide-ranging look at doomsday scenarios across history, from volcano and flood to nuclear error and, of course, disease. While informed by the ongoing coronavirus pandemic, bestselling historian Niall Ferguson is more interested in how it fits into a longer history: the factors that shape which societies survive. This is thought provoking, fascinating and, alas, timely stuff.

The Case of the Married Woman: Caroline Norton, a 19th Century Heroine Who Wanted Justice for Women

By Antonia Fraser
Weidenfeld & Nicolson, £25, hardback, 304 pages

In April, English Heritage announced that 19th century social reformer Caroline Norton will be honoured with a blue plaque at her former London home and this biography from renowned author Antonia Fraser offers a great chance to learn more about Norton’s pioneering activism. Denied access to her three children after her jealous husband accused her of having an affair with Prime Minister Lord Melbourne, Norton had to fight his cruelty, and society’s conventions, to achieve justice. Her determination is both remarkable and inspirational.
Everybody: A Book About Freedom
By Olivia Laing
Pan Macmillan, £20, hardback, 368 pages

As perhaps befits its subject, this study of how our bodies have been understood across history is heady, intimate stuff. From pain and illness to sex and sexuality, it’s an idiosyncratic look at how people have made sense of their physical being, and how forces such as politics, medicine and prejudice have sought to control it. This forthright, sometimes challenging book isn’t for everyone, but is nonetheless history at its most personal and eye-opening.

Henry VII and the Tudor Pretenders: Simnel, Warbeck and Warwick
By Nathen Amin
Amberley Publishing, £20, hardback, 384 pages

Taking us deep into the intrigue and rivalry that shaped the early Tudor period, this riveting book explores the forces and figures who challenged Henry VII for the throne in the late 15th century. Focusing on three such individuals – Lambert Simnel, Perkin Warbeck and Edward of Warwick, the first two of whose identities remain disputed – the book also features an array of vividly drawn supporting characters. It’s both a new take on a captivating dynasty and a reminder that the course of history could easily have run very differently.

Beyond: The Astonishing Story of the First Human to Leave Our Planet and Journey into Space
By Stephen Walker
William Collins, £20, hardback, 512 pages

Wednesday, 12 April, 1961: Soviet cosmonaut Yuri Gagarin blasts into the upper atmosphere on board Vostok 1, becoming the first human to reach outer space. This look at a key moment in both the Space Race and the Cold War blends new archive research and eyewitness testimony to produce a forensically detailed account of a remarkable endeavour.

Brixton: Flames on the Frontline
bit.ly/BrixtonPod95

Forty years ago, the London district of Brixton was convulsed by rioting as economic deprivation, tension between residents and the police and racial injustice reached boiling point. This new BBC Radio 5 Live series sees rapper Big Narstie explore the forces that led to the unrest and the impact they had on Britain as a whole.

You’re Dead to Me
bit.ly/JennerPod95

Greg Jenner’s podcast series sees a historian team up with a comedian to tackle a specific story from the past, and this recent instalment – featuring Professor Joanne Freeman and Chris Addison – explores the first years of the United States after it gained independence from Britain. It’s lively, upbeat fare, as appealing to children as it is to adults, and a great way to learn about a hugely diverse array of historical subjects.

Dan Jones on 1,000 Years of British History
bit.ly/1000Pod95

To mark the 1,000th episode of the HistoryExtra podcast, bestselling historian Dan Jones embarks on a whistlestop tour of a thousand years of British history. Clocking in at almost 90 minutes, it’s a bumper offering, featuring Jones’ typically lively take on key moments in the nations’ past – and the stories we tell about them today.
Widowland

By CJ Carey
10 June 2021, Quercus, £14.99

London in 1953 is gearing itself up for a coronation but not for Elizabeth II. Edward VIII is taking the throne after his brother George VI has been removed. An alliance has been established between Britain and Germany for 13 years, and all the country’s power lays in the hands of the Protector. Rose Ransom, who works for the Ministry of Culture rewriting literature to correct the attitudes of the past, has now been given the task of infiltrating a group of rebels. These women, who live in the slums known as Widowland, are thought to be behind the vandalism of public buildings, writing graffiti from illegal books written by subversive women.

Q&A

CJ Carey

Why did you choose to use a pseudonym for this book?

Widowland is quite different from anything I’ve written before. Whereas my previous novels have been grounded in the real events of World War II, this thriller re-images history, so I felt it was time to re-imagine myself. Therefore, I reversed my own initials and used my mother’s name.

Why did you choose to have Edward VIII continue his reign and what difference do you think this might have had on Britain?

The potential reign of Edward VIII has to be one of the most intriguing ‘what if?’ historical scenarios. It’s staggering how close Britain came to being governed by a petulant, Nazi-friendly king who spent his honeymoon visiting Hitler. Many historians believe Edward informally agreed to reign in an alliance with Germany. That would have strengthened Germany’s assault on the eastern front and delayed America’s involvement in the war. Certainly, Edward’s commitment to his countrymen’s liberties has been questionable since documents emerged showing he urged the Nazis to bomb England more heavily to bring about peace.

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Heroine Rose has been tasked with a new job of rewriting classic English literature to reflect the new order for the Alliance.

He laughed shortly. ‘Then don’t. You know the Party believes there’s no shame in illiteracy. We discourage reading for lower orders. It’s hardly revolutionary. American slaves weren’t permitted to read. For centuries Catholics held the mass in Latin. Besides, most people don’t actually want to read. They’d rather listen to the wireless or go to the movies. Once this new television gets off the ground, reading will wither away in a generation, you’ll see. People will fall out of the habit, and once that happens, the mere act of reading will be harder.’

Rose knew what he meant. It had been hard for her. To someone unaccustomed to them, the long, archaic rhythms of Victorian literature were tricky to grasp. It required discipline to summon the sustained concentration necessary for novels that often ran to six or even seven hundred pages. In a way, her correction work was almost superfluous. No doubt Martin was right, and reading would soon become a specialized interest, like Sanskrit, or Ancient Greek, with no relevance to everyday life.
CROSSWORD NO. 95

Test your history knowledge to solve our prize puzzle – and you could win a fantastic new book

ACROSS
8 German city; imperial residence of Charlemagne (6)
9 Welsh Labour Party politician (1897–1960) (3,5)
10 Lady Caroline ___ (1785–1828), aristocrat, novelist and lover of Lord Byron (4)
11 One of a network of far-left guerrilla groups active in Italy in the 1970s and 80s (3,7)
12 City in North Rhine-Westphalia, influential in the Hanseatic League (4)
13 Region of the northeast US, colonised by Europeans in the 17th century (3,7)
17 Pacific nation, devastated by measles in 1875–76 (4)
18 Old Testament spy, son of Jephunneh (5)
19 River of Cairo, Khartoum and Thebes (4)
21 Byname of Superman (1938–present) (3,2,5)
23 British ____ land force established in 1707 (4)
24 1942 film directed by William Wyler (3,7)
25 Wife of Zeus (4)
26 South African statesman and military officer (1870–1950) (3,5)
27 Swiss city known to the Romans as Turicum (6)

DOWN
1 Dutch dancer and alleged spy, born Margaretha Geertruida MacLeod (1876–1917) (4,4)
2 Nickname of baseball star Babe Ruth (1895–1948) (3,7)
3 Titus ____ gruesome Shakespeare tragedy (10)
4 Lover of Geraint, in Welsh myth (4)
5 Edward ____ (1812–88), illustrator and nonsense poet (4)
6 Legendary chieftain of the Jutes (4)
7 ____ Town, London district (6)
8 Edward ___ (1854–1900), writer and wit (5)
9 Award first presented in 1901 (5,5)
10 Historic county of northwest England (10)
11 Ancient city on the Shannon (8)
12 Name adopted by five popes (1728) (4)
15 ___ Town, London district (6)
16 17th-century Swedish warship, salvaged in 1961 (4)
18 City in North Rhine-Westphalia, influential in the Hanseatic League (4)
19 River of Cairo, Khartoum and Thebes (4)
20 Wife of Zeus (4)
21 Byname of Superman (1938–present) (3,2,5)
22 British racing driver (4)
26 Greenland city, founded in 1728 (4)
27 17th-century Swedish warship, salvaged in 1961 (4)

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BEVIN BOYS PREPARE TO DESCEND 1943

As World War II dragged on, Britain found itself facing a severe coal shortage due to a lack of manpower in its mines. To solve the crisis, thousands of young men – known as Bevin Boys after Minister of Labour Ernest Bevin – were conscripted to serve in coal mines from December 1943. Regardless of their backgrounds or aptitude for the role, 10 per cent of men aged between 18 and 25 who had registered for national service were randomly assigned the duty.

Some men and boys volunteered for the role, including those who had just left school. The school leaving age in 1943 was 14, which could explain the apparent youth of the boys pictured here, seen undergoing training at Markham Main Colliery in South Yorkshire.
The HistoryExtra podcast, from BBC History Magazine, is released up to seven times a week and has recently topped 100 million downloads. It features interviews with world-leading experts on topics spanning ancient history through to the world wars and beyond. Why not check it out today, and explore our archive of over 1,000 previous episodes.

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It started with her name.

Which led me to a ten year old girl made to work.
Her brothers went to school, her wages went to the family.

This unfairness must have ignited something in her as years later she boycotted the 1911 census. Imprisoned and willing to risk everything for the movement, she never gave up.

The Suffragettes paved the way for women to vote and I discovered she was one of them. My Great, Great Aunt. Eliza Dobson.

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