



ESPIONAGE GOES ON: FURTHER INQUIRIES INTO THE LIFE AND WORK OF GREAT SPYMASTERS

Dr. Nicolas Laos
Mathematician-Philosopher-Noopolitics Expert
Partner R-Techno Ltd.

ver. 1.00

25.08.2022

r/techno



МИССИЯ КОМПАНИИ Р-ТЕХНО

Предоставлять партнерам достоверные и исчерпывающие сведения. Создавать целостное видение картины мира, понимание рисков и возможностей развития.

ОСНОВНЫЕ ЗАДАЧИ ДЕЯТЕЛЬНОСТИ Р-ТЕХНО:

- Содействовать повышению капитализации предприятий и успешной деятельности организаций;
- Предоставлять информационную поддержку управленческих решений;
- Обеспечивать непрерывность бизнеса предприятий и выполнение задач организациями.

Р-ТЕХНО ВЕДЕТ ДЕЯТЕЛЬНОСТЬ ПО ВСЕМУ КОМПЛЕКСУ ИНФОРМАЦИОННО-АНАЛИТИЧЕСКОГО ОБЕСПЕЧЕНИЯ:

- Корпоративная разведка и due diligence;
- Финансовые расследования и поиск активов;
- Комплаенс, управление рисками и контроллинг системы управления.

Р-ТЕХНО ВЫПОЛНЯЕТ ПРОЕКТЫ ПО:

- Формированию разведывательного подразделения в соответствии с задачами предприятия или организации;
- Информационному противоборству и защите деловой репутации акционеров, бренда, проведению специальных информационных операций в интересах заказчиков;
- Исследованию региональных и геополитических проблем, глобальных мировых трендов и в сфере экономики, конкуренции, и в сфере рисков по заданиям государственных и муниципальных учреждений, общественных организаций, ведомств и служб.

Специалисты Р-Техно имеют компетенции профессионального уровня, используют лучшие практики и ноу-хау по всем направлениям деятельности.

НАШИ КОНТАКТЫ:

- +7.495.723.01.19
- r-techno.com

Introduction

With this essay, I continue my research into the history of espionage and intelligence in general. In the first part of this research project, which was published by R-Techno Ltd on 15 August 2022, I discussed important aspects of the thought and the actions of Sun Tzu, Alexander the Great, Sir Francis Walsingham, Christopher Marlowe, Daniel Defoe, Cardinal Richelieu, and Benjamin Franklin in the fields of espionage and intelligence in general. You can download and read that essay in the following link: <https://r-techno.com/en/blog/1613-Pioneers-Of-Espionage-Profiles-Of-Some-Of-The-First-Spymasters.html>

R-Techno Ltd, having created its own databases and training programs regarding intelligence studies in general and history of espionage in particular, offers high value-added services to its corporate and political, individual and institutional clients, both in terms of transferring know-how and solving specific problems.

The present essay is arranged in ten sections as follows:

Tsar Alexander II of Russia and the Okhrana	4
V. I. Lenin, the Cheka, and the rise of the KGB	7
Theodorus B. M. Mason and the office of naval intelligence	10
Lord Baden-Powell	12
William Somerset Maugham	13
Jamal Ad-Din Al-Afghani And Salafism	15
Imam Hassan Al-Banna and the Muslim Brotherhood	16
Lord Palmerston and the Young Turks	17
Thomas Edward Lawrence, Arab nationalism, and Jewish nationalism	19
Sir Basil Zaharoff	25

Tsar Alexander II of Russia and the Okhrana

The Department for Protecting the Public Security and Order, usually called the Guard Department and commonly abbreviated in modern sources as the Okhrana, was a secret-police force of the Russian Empire. The Okhrana was formed in the reign of Tsar Alexander II (1818–81) in order to combat political terrorism and left-wing revolutionary activity, and it operated offices throughout the Russian Empire as well as satellite agencies in several foreign countries (main image: photograph of Tsar Alexander II). Moreover, it was systematically monitoring the activities of Russian revolutionaries abroad, including in Paris, where the Okhrana spymaster Pyotr Rachkovsky (1853–1910)—a one-time Okhrana prisoner given the option of exile in Siberia or a career in the political police—was based before returning to service in Saint Petersburg.

The year 1848 was marked by revolutions in France, Germany, Hungary, and Bohemia as well as by the publication of Karl Marx's *Communist Manifesto*. Russia—instead of taking advantage of the social upheaval in Western Europe in order to promote Russia's geostrategic interests in the collapsing Ottoman Empire and support the nationalist movements of the Greeks and the Serbs—chose to support the Western European autocracies, because Tsar Nicholas I (1796–1855) was under the illusion that, after the consolidation of the Western European authoritarian regimes, Russia could cooperate with them on the Eastern Question and earn their trust and gratitude for Russia's support to them. The policy of Tsar Nicholas I was part of a broader Russian political tradition, according to which the ruler manages Russia's alliances for his own ends, and merges his regime's vested interests, the national interest, and ideological principles or pretenses into a passive managerial policy, without a real strategic vision about the world, and without the determination to primarily create history rather than merely incurring and managing it. After its stance in the revolutions of 1848, Russia once again established itself as a devoted protector of the authoritarian regimes and feudal elites of Europe, but, very soon, it became clear that Russia's Western European "partners" would not return the favor. In fact, during the Crimean War (1854–56), the United Kingdom and France supported the Ottoman Empire against Russia. Moreover, by the reign of Tsar Nicholas II (1868–1918), there were about five thousand revolutionary émigrés preparing for the overthrow of Tsarism. Paris was the main émigré center. It is worth pointing out that several members of Tsarist Russia's ruling elites, including senior Okhrana officers, failed to fully grasp the fact that, even though several of their Western counterparts were espousing feudal and authoritarian political concepts similar to those prevalent in Tsarist Russia, those Western elites were not geostrategic or political allies of Russia itself, far from it.



As it grew and matured more and more as an intelligence service, the Okhrana deployed multiple methods, including the following: covert operations, undercover agents, and perustration (the reading of private correspondence). In 1882, the Okhrana's Foreign Agency (Zagranichnaya Agentura) set up its headquarters in the Russian Embassy in Paris under the leadership of Pyotr Rachkovsky. Recruiting and using "external" surveillance operators (plain-clothes detectives, concierges, and servants) in support of its "internal" agents (police spies, turned agents, and double agents), the Okhrana began to gather a wealth of information, but it was not equally adept at evaluating and analyzing this wealth of information. Regarding the attitude of the French National Police (Sûreté nationale) towards the Okhrana's covert operations, it should be mentioned that the French National Police welcomed the Okhrana's covert operations as a means of extending its own intelligence-gathering operations. In addition, smaller groups of the Okhrana's Foreign Agency were tolerated in London, Berlin, and Rome, and they were made particularly welcome after a spate of anarchist assassinations had claimed the lives of President Marie François Sadi Carnot of France (1894), Prime Minister Antonio Cánovas del Castillo of Spain (1897), Empress Elizabeth of Austria-Hungary (1898), and King Umberto of Italy (1900).

The Okhrana's Foreign Agency did not limit itself to intelligence gathering. It also pioneered a wide variety of "active measures," designed to influence foreign governments and public opinion, as well as "special actions," involving acts of violence, many of them engineered with the aid of agents provocateurs. In general, the use of agents provocateurs by secret services developed particularly during the nineteenth century, when the social establishment in various European countries was faced with social crises associated with industrialization and urbanization. The concept of an agent provocateur initially referred to an activist secretly working with a secret service in order to provide his/her handlers with information, to foment suspicion and internal dissension among members of a social movement or a subversive group (which he/she joined for that purpose), and/or to provoke violent actions that would turn public opinion against a social movement or a subversive group and offer legal and moral grounds for its repression.

Finally, the Okhrana made a major contribution to the Tsarist regime's foreign policy in the field of SIGINT (Signals Intelligence). Cabinets noirs (namely, secret stations of the Okhrana) were placed in the post offices in Saint Petersburg, Moscow, Warsaw, Odessa, Kiev, Kharkov, Riga, Vilna, Tomsk, and Tiflis in order to intercept mail to and from known or suspected dissidents. Coded letters were deciphered, and new codes were sent to Ivan Zybin, the Okhrana's chief cryptanalyst, for breaking. Diplomatic messages sent by electric telegraph were also routinely intercepted by the Okhrana. Under Alexander Savinsky, an experienced and outstanding diplomat who served as the Director of the Chancellery of the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs for several years, active measures were taken to purchase or steal embassy codes and ciphers as well as plain-text versions of diplomatic telegrams for comparison with the coded originals.

In 1895, Sergei Zubatov, a police spy, was appointed as the head of the Moscow section of the Okhrana. He introduced several modern methods of detection, including photographic files, a systematic registration of suspects, and a flying squad specialized in counter-terrorism policing. Moreover, Zubatov used his agents to set up the Mutual Assistance League of Workers in the Mechanical Industry. His agents became the leaders of this trade union, and, in this way, they attempted to manipulate the labor movement

and to persuade the workers not to make demands for higher wages and better working conditions. However, this project proved unsuccessful, and, by 1903, the aforementioned trade union had to be disbanded, because its members had participated in strikes.

In general, the Okhrana achieved significant successes, but it was easily infiltrated by the many revolutionary groups working within Russia, and it was a victim of the internal contradictions that characterized the Russian Court, which, at the end of the nineteenth century, was the field of competition between rival Russian elites, and it had been infiltrated by foreign agents of various countries. The Okhrana was destroyed by the Bolsheviks when they seized power in 1917.

It is worth mentioning that, in the late nineteenth and the early twentieth centuries, mythology and, generally, spirituality were systematically distorted, abused, desecrated, and manipulated by British, French, and German imperialists and occultists, and, in that milieu of mystical imperialist strategies, Russian occultists, primarily Madame Helena Petrovna Blavatsky (1831–91), the founder of a mystical “school” called Theosophy, articulated a Eurasian theory of mystical imperialism. Blavatsky was a friend of Russian Tsar Nicholas II and the Oriental enthusiast Prince Esper Ukhtomsky, a close confidant of Tsar Nicholas II. Moreover, Blavatsky was connected with Ukhtomsky’s Tibetan friend Shamzaran (Pyotr) Badmaev, who lobbied for the unification of Russia, Mongolia, and Tibet into a peculiar mystical Eurasian entity, and with the imperialist Russian publicist Mikhail Katkoff. In fact, Blavatsky fascinated Tsar Nicholas II and his wife, the notoriously superstitious Tsarina Alexandra Feodorovna, with her book entitled *The Secret Doctrine*. Blavatsky’s book *The Secret Doctrine* is a peculiar synthesis of several mystical traditions, but it is primarily focused on Indo/Tibetan spirituality. Many of Blavatsky’s adherents formed the impression and cultivated the belief that Tsar Nicholas II was the prophesied northern “White Tsar,” uniquely gifted and divinely destined to balance the British Empire, to fight against materialism and rationalism, and to become a Eurasian emperor. Indeed, a romantic and superstitious type of mysticism was an important blind spot of Tsar Nicolas II, his wife, and many members of the Tsarist elites, often rendering them vulnerable to illusions, daydreaming, extreme emotionalism, and manipulation by devious minds.

Moreover, the French doctor of medicine, occultist, and Freemason Gérard Encausse (alias Papus, 1865–1915), who was the publisher of the occult journal *L’Initiation*, and his friend L.-N.-A. Philippe went to Saint Petersburg on several occasions at the request of Tsar Nicholas II, whom they initiated into Martinism, known also as the Order of the Elect Coëns, which originally began by Martinès de Pasqually, continued by Louis-Claude de Saint Martin, and morphed into a high-grade Masonic system by Jean-Baptiste Willermoz. Finally, Martinism, especially under the leadership of Gérard Encausse, known as Papus, who revived and restructured the Martinist Order in 1891, became one of the most influential Masonic and occult movements opposing the liberal and rationalist trends of the Grand Orient of France and advocating various forms of occult autocracy, for which reason Tsar Nicholas II, who was an autocrat and strongly inclined to superstitions, endorsed and, in fact, joined Martinism. The award-winning American historian and translator Douglas Smith, in his book entitled *Rasputin* (London: Macmillan, 2016, p. 34), writes that, “according to the later French ambassador to Russia, Maurice Paléologue, Papus held a séance at court during the Revolution of 1905 at which he summoned the spirit of Tsar Alexander III who instructed his son [Tsar Nicholas II] to remain strong and

brave in the face of the danger and to resist the revolution at all costs,” while “Papus told Nicholas that he, too, would use all his power to prevent revolution in Russia.”

In 1937, a Russian mystic called Alexander Barchenko, having a close affinity to Martinism and a fascination for Tibet, Buddhist spirituality, and the search for Shambhala (an ideal, mystical city of Eurasian mythologies), was arrested by the Soviet secret service GPU. During his interrogation by the GPU, Alexander Barchenko confessed that, in 1923, he was approached by two members of what he called the “Great Brotherhood of Asia,” which, according to Barchenko, was an occult umbrella organization for the whole of Inner Asia, uniting diverse Mongolian and Tibetan brotherhoods, Muslim and Dervish Orders as well as Jewish Hasidic and Christian sectarian groups. The Soviet regime prevented the degeneration of Russia into a superstitious Asian society, it wisely and effectively resisted the attraction of the superstitions of Christian sects, Jews, Muslims, and Mongol-Tibetans to the Russian popular soul, and it systematically tried to enable Russian society to assimilate the best elements of modern Western civilization and to be at the forefront of modernity through Marxism–Leninism.

V. I. Lenin, the Cheka, and the rise of the KGB

In 1917, Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, the leader of the Bolshevik Revolution, ordered the liquidation of the Tsarist intelligence and security police, the Okhrana, and he created a new intelligence and security service, commonly known as the Cheka (Extraordinary Commission for Combating Counter-Revolutions and Sabotage), whose first leader was Felix Dzerzhinsky (main image: a painting showing Lenin (sitting on the right) and Dzerzhinsky (standing on the left), drawn by the Soviet artist Boris Valentinovich Shcherbakov).

In 1922, the Cheka was changed into the State Political Administration (GPU), and it was brought under the control of the People’s Commissariat of Internal Affairs (NKVD). The NKVD guaranteed that the new intelligence service, the GPU, would not only serve conventional purposes, like those prevalent in Western intelligence services, but would also have an ideological mission, namely, the protection and promotion of socialism. However, things became more complicated when Trotsky created a Chief Intelligence Administration (GRU) within the Red Army. Dzerzhinsky, the head of the GPU, insisted that Trotsky’s GRU should be overseen by the GPU. In 1923, the GPU was strengthened, reorganized, and renamed the United Political Administration (OGPU). The creeping competition between the two intelligence bureaucracies, that is, between the GRU and the OGPU, came to an end during the Great Patriotic War (1941–45), and, in 1944, as the Soviet Union’s victory against Nazi Germany was now certain, Stalin ensured the domination of political officers over military intelligence, placing the Red Army under NKVD supervision. On 13 March 1954, the NKVD was replaced by the Committee of State Security, commonly known as the KGB, which became a very powerful force internationally. The KGB was created in 1954 with the declared goal to serve as the “sword and shield of the Communist Party,” instead of merely serving a policy of “raison d’état,” not to mention particular capitalist groups.

Lenin has wisely argued that, “without revolutionary theory, there can be no revolutionary movement,” and that “the role of vanguard fighter can be fulfilled only by a party that is guided by the most advanced theory” (V. I. Lenin, *What Is to Be Done?*, originally published in 1902; Marxists Internet Archive, online: <https://www.marxists.org/archive/lenin/works/download/what-itd.pdf>, pp. 12–13). What can be achieved with the right theoretical tools can be understood by considering the great achievements of the former Soviet Union, which achieved real economic, technological, scientific, and cultural miracles, even though the way it implemented socialism, the science of planning, and cybernetics was incomplete and full of errors, and even though capitalist and traditional elements survived in the Soviet Union throughout its history. In Tsarist Russia, people travelled by carriage, and, forty years later, Soviet Russia could reach space and developed the largest thermonuclear experimental system in the world, 10 Tokamak, a prototype fusion reactor. Some of the most important milestones in the history of Soviet technology are the following:

- 1957: (i) Launch of the first intercontinental ballistic missile R-7 Semyorka. (ii) First orbiting satellite, Sputnik 1. (iii) First living in orbit, the dog Laika on Sputnik 2.
- 1959: (i) Launch of a missile, the first man-made object to leave the Earth’s orbit, Luna 1. (ii) Telemetry: First communication to and from the ground, Luna 1. (iii) First object to pass near the Moon, and the first object in orbit around the Moon, Luna 1. (iv) First satellite hit the Moon, Luna 2. (v) First images of the dark side of the Moon, Luna 3.
- 1960: First satellite to be launched to Mars, the Marsnik 1.
- 1961: (i) First satellite to Venus, Venera 1. (ii) The first person to enter orbit around the Earth, Yuri Gagarin in Vostok 1. (iii) The first person to spend a day in orbit, Gherman Titov, Vostok 2.
- 1962: First flight of two astronauts (estimate), Vostok 3 and Vostok 4.
- 1963: First woman in space, Valentina Tereshkova, Vostok 6.
- 1964: First flight of several astronauts (3), Voskhod 1.
- 1965: (i) First spacewalk, Alexei Leonov, Voskhod 2. (ii) First probe to another planet Venus, Venera 3.
- 1966: (i) First probe to descend on the Moon and send from there, Luna 9. (ii) First probe in lunar orbit, Luna 10.
- 1967: First meeting of uncrewed spacecrafts Kosmos 186 and Kosmos 188.
- 1969: First docking and crew exchange in orbit, Soyuz 4 and Soyuz 5.
- 1970: (i) First signals sent to the Moon by Luna 16. (ii) First mobile robot, Lunokhod 1. (iii) The first data sent by a probe from another planet (Venus), Venera 7.
- 1971: (i) First space station, Salyut 1. (ii) First satellite in orbit around Mars and landing on Mars 2.
- 1975: First satellite in orbit around Venus and sending data to the Earth, Venera 9.
- 1984: First woman to walk in space, Svetlana Savitskaya (Salyut 7).
- 1986: (i) First team to visit two space stations, Salyut and Mir (7). (ii) First permanent space station in Earth orbit, the MIR orbit from 1986 to 2001.
- 1987: First team to spend more than a year aboard Mir, Vladimir Titov and Musa Manarov.

Whereas Tsarist Russia was a backward, feudal society immersed in extreme social inequality and superstition, the socialist system ensured the transformation of Russia into a modern society of educated and self-assured people, and, in particular, it ensured public health and education, universal and free. Health and education services as well as housing, namely, some of the most important and most expensive pursuits of people in the capitalist West, were ensured for every Soviet citizen.

The Soviet Union was created to function neither according to the logic of feudalism nor according to the logic of the bourgeois-capitalist system, but to function according to the basic principles of scientific socialism. Inextricably linked to the founding mission and identity of the Soviet Union were the fight against imperialism and the struggle for the replacement of capitalist globalization, promoted by the Western bourgeois-capitalist elites, not by nationalism, nor by any reactionary communitarianism, but by socialist internationalism, that is, by an alternative theory of cosmopolitanism, inspired by the very content of scientific socialism and in accordance with the rationalist tradition of the European Enlightenment.

Anything that has power and value in itself—for good or for evil—tends by its nature to globalize, as, for example, an intellectual seeks to have as many students around the world as possible. If we think systemically, that is, at the level of political and social systems, the dilemma between globalist capitalism and nationalist capitalism is, in the final analysis, a false dilemma, since, in either case, it is the capitalist system that remains the global dominant institution. Thus, the evil (or the good) is not in globalization per se, but in the idea or institution that a historical actor is trying to globalize. Regarding the study of imperialism, which is a peculiar phenomenon of capitalism, one must understand the intrinsic contradictions of the capitalist system itself. For what it is worth, my argument is that three of the most important, and I daresay essential, readings for the study of imperialism are the following books: V. I. Lenin's book *Imperialism, the Highest Stage of Capitalism* (first published in 1917; Australia: Resistance Books, 1999), G. A. Trofimenko's book *The U.S. Military Doctrine* (Moscow: Progress Publishers, 1986); and Jean-Paul Sartre's book *Colonialism and Neocolonialism* (first published in 1964; London: Routledge, 2001).

As Vladimir Lenin has explained in his book *Imperialism, the Highest Stage of Capitalism* (first published in 1917), in order for capitalism to generate greater profits than the home market can yield, the merging of banks and industrial cartels produces "finance capitalism" and the exportation and investment of capital to countries with undeveloped and underdeveloped economies; and, in turn, that financial behavior divides the world among monopolist corporations. In the context of colonial and neocolonial policies, business and governments tend to merge in geopolitical conflict over the exploitation of labor of most of the population of the world. Hence, imperialism is the "highest stage of capitalism," in the sense that monopolies exploit labor and natural resources, and capitalism is sustained by the exportation of finance capital, rather than manufactured goods. In this context, for example, the U.S. financial establishment attaches vital importance to the use of the U.S. dollar as a clearing currency for energy transactions and to the SWIFT system as the backbone of a dollarized global economy. Moreover, as

Lenin has pointed out in his book *Imperialism, the Highest Stage of Capitalism*, in the capitalist homeland, the super profits yielded by the colonial/neocolonial exploitation of a people and their economy permit businessmen to bribe native politicians, labor leaders, and the “labor aristocracy” (i.e., the upper stratum of the working class) to conform to the established capitalist system.

Under the chairmanship of such highly skilled spymasters as Yuri Andropov (May 1967 – May 1982), Vitaly Fedorchuk (May 1982 – December 1982), and Viktor Chebrikov (December 1982 – October 1988), the KGB managed to carry out major reorganization projects and achieved significant operational successes on an international scale.

In 1982, a few months before he briefly became Brezhnev’s successor, Yuri Andropov (1914–84), recognizing that Soviet socialism had been compromised and undermined by internal corruption, organizational flaws, and the imperfect way in which the reform of people’s consciousness was sought, declared that a long and complex transitional period would be necessary before the completion of the socialist transformation of society, he admitted the possibility of “the non-coincidence of the interests of various social groups,” and he conceded that specific mechanisms should be established “to record, compare and reconcile various interests.” However, a degenerate faction of the Soviet establishment managed to impose itself on the KGB and eventually sell out socialism completely, leading to the final betrayal and dissolution of the Soviet Union by the Gorbachev regime in the late 1980s.



Above: Badge commemorating five years of the Cheka-GPU.

Theodorus B. M. Mason and the office of naval intelligence

In 1882, the United States Bureau of Navigation appointed an “Officer of Intelligence.” The Officer of Intelligence was tasked with “collecting and recording such naval information as may be useful to the Department in time of war, as well as in peace.” Thus, the Office of Naval Intelligence (ONI) became the first true government intelligence agency to function in Washington, D.C. The ONI’s first head was Theodorus B. M. Mason (1848–99), who graduated from the United States Naval Academy in 1868, and he was

promoted to Lieutenant Commander in 1894 (main image: photograph of Theodorus B. M. Mason).

In 1898, the ONI proved to be of great strategic importance, since more than six hundred people within the United States were denounced as spies during the Spanish-American War. Most of the denunciations came from within the United States, but some other denunciations were due to the work of a Texan agent of Spanish descent, who was infiltrated into Madrid. In particular, he masqueraded as Fernandez del Campo, a wealthy American with Spanish sympathies, and, thus, he managed to discover the presence of a fleet being prepared for an attack against an American cruiser squadron in Philippines. This American agent escaped to Tangiers, from where he cabled the ONI. Using this information, the United States Navy reinforced its fleet in the Pacific, and, ultimately, it managed to defeat the Spaniards.



Gradually, the ONI's powers grew as it became responsible for the "protection of Navy Personnel, censorship and the ferreting out of spies and saboteurs." In 1929, the Chief of Naval Operations made these functions the permanent duties of the ONI. Moreover, during World War II, Naval Intelligence became responsible for the translation, evaluation, and dissemination of intercepted Japanese communications, and its budget and staff increased even more. After the end of World War II, Fleet Admiral Chester W. Nimitz ensured the ONI's continued strength, which proved to be of paramount importance during the Cold War (for a systematic study of the history of the United States Navy, see: Nathan Miller, *The U.S. Navy: A History*, third edition, Annapolis, MD: Naval Institute Press, 1997).



Above: Seal of the Office of Naval Intelligence.

Lord Baden-Powell

Lieutenant-General Robert Stephenson Smyth Baden-Powell, 1st Baron Baden-Powell (1857–1941), is better known as the founder of the Boy Scout movement, but he was also an active spy (main image: photograph of Lord Baden-Powell). He became famous for his eccentricities and skills, and he served Great Britain in the field of espionage throughout Europe and southern Africa, in Turkey, Algeria, Tunisia, and deep into the Sahara (see: Michael Deacon, “The Eccentric World of Robert Baden-Powell,” *The Telegraph*, 8 January 2016, online: <https://www.telegraph.co.uk/books/authors/the-eccentric-world-of-robert-baden-powell/>).

In 1876, Baden-Powell was commissioned into the 13th Hussars. After seven years’ service in India, his regiment was posted to Natal, South Africa, where he carried out his first intelligence assignment, specifically, a covert reconnaissance of the 600-mile frontier of that province. After spending two years in England, Baden-Powell returned to South Africa in 1887, and, in 1888, he acted as an intelligence officer for the Flying Column in the Zululand campaign against Dinizulu (the king of the Zulu nation).



In 1890, Baden-Powell was appointed Military Secretary to his uncle, the Governor of Malta, and, in 1891, he became intelligence officer for the Mediterranean. When he was ordered to obtain detailed information about the weapons kept in the fortress of Kotor, in Montenegro (which had been given to the Austrian Empire with the Congress of Vienna of 1814–15), he disguised himself as an entomologist, and he learned how to handle a butterfly net before leaving for his mission. Thus, being a skilled artist, he was making sketches of those butterflies he was likely to meet prior to setting out, and, later, he was secretly incorporating details of the weapons and fortifications into their wing patterns.

Subsequently, he was ordered to investigate a rumor that a large dry dock was being constructed in Hamburg, in northern Germany. During that mission, he posed as a drunk, and he even saturated his clothes in brandy in order to appear more convincing. Indeed, when he was arrested by the German military, he managed to convince them that he was too drunk, and, since they did not find out any secrets, they released him.

Moreover, Baden-Powell took an active part, as an agent of the British Secret Intelligence Service, in the second Boer War, a bitter colonial war fought by the British Army against the two Boer Republics (the Transvaal Republic and the Orange Free State) regarding the British Empire’s influence in southern Africa from 1899 to 1902. In particular, Baden-Powell was ordered to reconnoiter into the Drakensburg Mountains. During that mission, he managed to make friends with several Boer farmers. Subsequently, during the defense

of Mafeking, he managed to recruit and train several Zulu scouts. In fact, during the Boer War, he wrote a Guide to Scouting, which was published in 1903, and it was a best-seller. Initially, it was meant for military purposes, but, after the Boer War, he felt that it could be used as a method of organizing and training young boys in a way that would give them more meaning in life (in 1908, Baden-Powell published his seminal book *Scouting for Boys: A Handbook for Instruction in Good Citizenship*). In addition, it is worth mentioning that, during the Boer War, Baden-Powell was convinced that Germany was guiding the Boer fighters against the British Empire, but he was unable to convince the authorities in London. Even though the German Army did not fight directly against the British Empire during the Boer War, German public opinion was largely in favor of the Boers, Germany's Kaiser Wilhelm II sent a telegram to S. J. P. Kruger, the President of the Transvaal Republic, on 3 January 1896, congratulating the president on repelling the Jameson Raid (a sortie by 600 British irregulars from Cape Colony into the Transvaal under the command of Leander Starr Jameson, who served as the 10th Prime Minister of the Cape Colony), and the Boers were armed with weapons made by the German Krupp and Mauser companies.

William Somerset Maugham

W. Somerset Maugham (1874–1965) was a distinguished and highly successful English playwright, novelist, and short-story writer as well as an agent of the British Secret Intelligence Service (main image: W. S. Maugham photographed by Carl Van Vechten in 1934). His father, Robert Ormond Maugham, was a lawyer and handled the legal affairs of the British Embassy in Paris. William Somerset Maugham was born in the British Embassy in Paris, and he grew up completely bilingual (in English and French). His parents died before he was ten, and he was raised in Kent by a paternal uncle who was emotionally cold.

Maugham studied medicine for seven years before deciding to become a professional writer, and his first novel, *Liza of Lambeth* (1897), sold out rapidly. In 1915, he published his novel *Of Human Bondage*, which is widely considered his masterpiece. During World War I, he joined the Red Cross in France as a dresser, ambulance driver, and interpreter, but later he joined the British Secret Intelligence Service, spending a year as an agent in Geneva.



In 1914, there were six major geopolitical powers in Europe: Great Britain, France, Russia, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire, which was in control of the Holy Land. In June 1914, the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, who was the heir presumptive of the Austro-Hungarian throne, was assassinated in Sarajevo, and, as it was intended by the conspirators who wanted to lead Europe to a great war, the “footprints” led to Russia. Officially, Franz Ferdinand was assassinated by the organization Young Bosnia and the Serbian secret society The Black Hand. The secret society The Black Hand was founded

in 1911 by Colonel Dragutin Dimitrijevic (alias Apis), who was the chief of the Intelligence Department of the Serbian General Staff and a Freemason (with links to Lodges in London, Germany, Austria, and Hungary), and, after having founded his secret society, he sent assassins to Vienna to kill the Austrian Emperor Franz Josef, but the plan failed. In 1917, Dimitrijevic was convicted of high treason and executed. Finally, after the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, Austria-Hungary declared war on Russia, and, then, Great Britain and France, which had a defense treaty with Russia, came to the assistance of Russia and joined the war. The French President Raymond Poincaré wanted Alsace-Lorraine from Germany, Great Britain wanted to contain the German power and deter the further development of the German Navy, and the Russian Foreign Minister Sergei Sazonov believed that Russia could seize Constantinople/Istanbul and the Bosphorus Strait. Germany entered the war on the side of Austria-Hungary. The Ottoman Empire was pushed on the side of Germany.

In 1917, Russian society was in intense turmoil. In March 1917, in the midst of World War I and the February Revolution, Tsar Nicholas II of Russia, renounced the throne of the Russian Empire on behalf of himself and his son. Thus, the Russian Provisional Government was established in order to govern Russia in place of the Tsar until elections could be held. The Provisional Government, led first by Prince Georgy Lvov and then by Alexander F. Kerensky, lasted approximately eight months, and it ceased to exist when the Bolsheviks gained power in the October Revolution of 1917.

Maugham was sent by the British Secret Intelligence Service to Saint Petersburg in order to support the Russian Provisional Government in its attempt to prevent the Bolsheviks from negotiating an independent peace with Germany. It is worth pointing out that the socialist Provisional Government, whose dominant figure and prime minister was Alexander F. Kerensky, sought assistance from Western allies—the U.S.A., Great Britain, France, and Italy—in order to face the Russian financial crisis and prevent the bankruptcy of the Russian economy. The U.S. President Woodrow Wilson sent a mission to assess conditions and discuss aid to Russia. The leader of that mission was a conservative Republican former Secretary of State, Elihu Root. After long discussions with Kerensky, Root was prepared to recommend loans and credits under one key condition: Russia must continue to fight Germany. Other Western allies backed Root. Even though the Provisional Government leaders argued that the existence of their regime depended on making peace, they finally, agreed with Root's terms in order to survive financially. American credits came to \$325 million, and Kerensky launched a new offensive against Germany in July 1917. After initial successes, the Russian Army retreated in disarray. As a result, confidence in the Provisional Government plunged, and the Bolsheviks became the major political force in Russia.

Even though Maugham failed in his primary aim, since the Bolsheviks acceded to the terms of the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (1918), he provided the British Secret Intelligence Service with considerable intelligence on the German spy network in Russia. The Treaty of Brest-Litovsk was a separate peace treaty signed on 3 March 1918 between the Bolshevik government of Russia, which was new and fragile, and the Central Powers (namely, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and the Ottoman Empire), ending Russia's participation in World War I.

Maugham drafted a proposal for the formation of “a Propaganda and Secret Service organization in Russia to combat German influence,” but, even though it was well received in London, it was not adopted. When Maugham was in Russia, he used the cover name “Somerville,” which he later gave as a code-name to a character in his espionage novel entitled *Ashenden*.

Jamal Ad-Din Al-Afghani And Salafism

In the late nineteenth century, in order to promote its geostrategic plans for the Middle East, in general, and for the Suez Canal in Egypt, in particular, the British establishment, especially, British Foreign Secretary Lord Salisbury and Lord Churchill, used Salafism and its founder, Jamal ad-Din al-Afghani (1838–97), as assets of the British intelligence and the British Foreign Office (main image: photograph of Jamal ad-Din al-Afghani).

Al-Afghani believed in the need for a moralistic and legalistic religion for the management of the masses, while reserving a subtler atheistic truth for the elite. In Egypt, he initially joined the “Star of the East” Lodge, which was founded in Cairo in 1871 and belonged to the jurisdiction of the United Grand Lodge of England. In fact, the British Vice-Consul in Cairo, Raphael Borg, himself a Mason, urged al-Afghani and his followers to join the “Star of the East” Lodge. In 1878, al-Afghani became the Worshipful Master (namely, the chairman) of that Lodge, whose membership included prominent members of the Egyptian elite, such as Tewfik Pasha, Sherif Pasha, Boutros Pasha Ghali, etc. When al-Afghani’s superiors in the Scottish Rite became aware of his atheistic tendencies, they dismissed him from it, and, when al-Afghani realized that he could not politicize the “Star of the East” Lodge in the way that he wanted, he established his own Masonic Lodge in Cairo, a “national Lodge” (“mafyalan wataniyyan”), under his leadership and under the auspices of the Grand Orient of France (which was tolerant towards atheistic views), and he encouraged the students of his Salafi reform movement to join. In fact, there were two types of Freemasonry in Egypt: one type of Freemasonry adhered to the traditionalist English Freemasonry and was particularly attractive to Egypt’s landed elite, while the other type of Freemasonry, leaning towards nationalism, followed the path of liberal French Lodges led in Egypt by al-Afghani and Muhammad Abduh.



Salafism is a literalist approach to Islamic religious scriptures, which gives rise to a technocratic, narrow-minded religious system, resembling the Biblical literalism or Biblicism of fundamentalist Protestants and, particularly, Evangelical scholars. As a result of literalism, any religious text is stripped of its inner, existential dimensions, and it reduces to a moral and legal recipe that aims to moralize the citizens of a nation-state according to the dictates and the expediencies of the ruling national elite (for an introduction to Islamic political thought in general, see: P. Bearman, Th. Bianquis, C. E.

Bosworth, E. van Donzel, and W. P. Heinrichs, *Encyclopedia of Islam*, second edition, 12 vols., Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1960–2005).

During his career as an asset of the British intelligence system, al-Afghani was guided by two British experts in Islam and occultism, namely, Wilfrid Scawen Blunt, a British secret agent and Orientalist who was given the responsibility by the Scottish Rite to organize Masonic Lodges in the Middle East and in Persia (in order to operate as intelligence hubs and noopolitical networks), and Edward G. Browne, who was Great Britain's leading Orientalist in the nineteenth century. In 1885, al-Afghani went to London together with Wilfrid Scawen Blunt, and he stayed there for three months. Al-Afghani and his network were supporting the British Empire against the Ottomans, and they played an important role in fomenting a revolt that, in 1882, provided a pretext for the British military intervention in Egypt for the "protection" of the Suez Canal, followed by a formal invasion and occupation that made Egypt a British colony. In 1899, Muhammad Abduh (1849–1905), who was the most prominent student of al-Afghani and a member of the aforementioned "Star of the East" Lodge, was appointed as the Grand Mufti of Egypt and was imposed as the leading authority on Islamic law in Egypt by Evelyn Baring, 1st Earl of Cromer, who was Great Britain's Consul-General in Egypt from 1883 to 1907 (during the British occupation of Egypt).

Imam Hassan Al-Banna and the Muslim Brotherhood

Muhammad Rashid Rida, a student of Muhammad Abduh (the most prominent student of al-Afghani), a Freemason, too, and a prominent representative of the movement of Islamic Modernism, was the mentor of the Egyptian scholar and Imam Hassan al-Banna (1906–49), who founded the Muslim Brotherhood (main image: photograph of Imam Hassan al-Banna). The Muslim Brotherhood was founded in 1928 with the generous financial support provided by the British Suez Canal Company, and it endorsed the model of Western nationalism and the modern thought about rationalist historical action and progressive reformations. For the next at least twenty-five years of its history, the Muslim Brotherhood was used by British diplomats and secret agents as an instrument of the British foreign policy, and, occasionally, al-Banna was also financed by the German Nazi regime in order to offer services to the German secret services in the Middle East (see: Angel Millar, *The Crescent and the Compass: Islam, Freemasonry, Esotericism and Revolution in the Modern Age*, Colac: Numen Books, 2015).



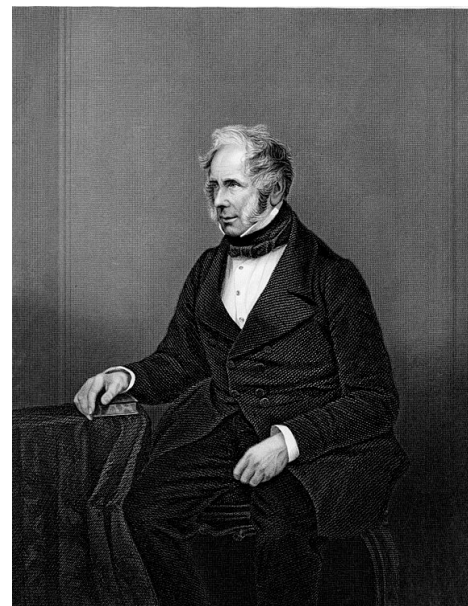
Moreover, the authoritative French geopolitician and investigative journalist Thierry Meyssan, in his book entitled *Sous Nos Yeux: Du 11-Septembre à Donald Trump* (Plogastel Saint-Germain: Éditions Demi-Lune, 2017), has revealed that, in the beginning

of the 1950s, British and U.S. secret services started using the Muslim Brotherhood in order to assassinate persons who were resisting the Anglo-Saxon policy, and, in the late 1970s and throughout the 1980s, they used hordes of armed Jihadists who belonged to the Muslim Brotherhood in order to fight against the Soviet Union in Afghanistan and in the Caucasus as mercenaries of the West. In addition, according to Meyssan's research, since the 1990s, Muslim Brothers have been integrated into NATO, and, since the 2010s, they have been used as social agitators and agents of insurrection against Arab regimes that are unwanted by the ruling elite of the Euroatlantic system (ibid).

Lord Palmerston and the Young Turks

In the Balkans and the Near East, in the late nineteenth and the early twentieth centuries, several Masonic Lodges were systematically used by Great Powers as instruments for the conduct of foreign policy and espionage with regard to the Eastern Question (in diplomatic history, the term "Eastern Question" refers to the strategic competition and the political considerations of European Great Powers with regard to the management of the dissolution of the collapsing Ottoman Empire from the eighteenth to the early twentieth century). In 1908, the Committee for Union and Progress, better known as the "Young Turks," carried out a military coup d'état, overthrew the Ottoman Sultan, and took power in the Ottoman Empire. Once in power, they carried out an aggressive nationalist campaign of suppressing all non-Turkish minorities. Within four years, their anti-minority campaigns provoked the Balkan wars of 1912–13 between the Ottoman Empire and the members of the Balkan League, namely, Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro. By 1914, these wars had triggered World War I, and Turkey was an ally of Germany.

When the Young Turks took power, the Ottoman Empire still included Syria, Iraq, Jordan, Palestine, and the Arabian Peninsula, including Mecca and Medina. But, within seven years of coming to power, the Young Turks destroyed the Ottoman Empire and abolished the Caliphate. British intelligence had manipulated every nationalist group in the Ottoman Empire, both the Young Turks and their opponents, because Great Britain aimed at playing the preeminent role in the management of the dissolution of the Ottoman Empire, eliminating the Caliphate, and becoming the leading Power that would guide the integration of the post-Ottoman Middle East into the world capitalist system and modernity.



The Young Turks came to power proclaiming the principles of democracy, liberal nationalism, and modern values, but soon they picked up the rhetoric of Pan-Turkism, and they raised the banner of a Pan-Islamic state. The ideology of Pan-Turkism was not originally created by the Young Turks, but it was originally created by a Hungarian Zionist

scholar named Ármín Vámbéry (1832–1913). Vámbéry became an adviser to the Ottoman Sultan, and secretly he worked for Lord Palmerston (who dominated British foreign policy during the period 1830–65) and the British Foreign Office (main image: Lord Palmerston, original engraving by D. J. Pound, from a photograph by Mayall, ca. 1855–58). Lord Palmerstone (Henry John Temple, 3rd Viscount Palmerston) was twice the Prime Minister of Great Britain (February 1855 – February 1858 and June 1859 – October 1865), and he held the following ministerial positions: Home Secretary (December 1852 – February 1855), Foreign Secretary (November 1830 – November 1834, April 1835 – September 1841, and July 1846 – December 1851), and Secretary of War (November 1809 – May 1828). In fact, Lord Palmerston, Cecil Rhodes, Prince Edward Albert (“The Prince of the Isles”), and Lord Milner were providing the geopolitical theory and the ideology that were underpinning the British Empire, while the agents of the British secret services were the main administrators of the British Empire.

Being one of Lord Palmerston’s agents, Vámbéry tried to broker a deal between the leader of the Zionist movement, Theodor Herzl, and the Ottoman Sultan. The Young Turks’ vision of a Pan-Islamic state was not originally created by them, either, but it was originally articulated by the British secret agent, Orientalist, and high-ranking Freemason Wilfrid Scawen Blunt. Blunt advocated using Islam in order to geostrategically encircle and contain Russia, and, with this goal in mind, he was handling Jamal ad-Din al-Afghani.

While the Young Turks were pursuing their Pan-Turkic and Pan-Islamic strategy, Great Britain was also supporting anti-Turkish nationalist independence movements within the dismantling Ottoman Empire in order to implement the policy of “divide and rule” and in order to counterbalance the separatist tendencies of the Young Turks and their cooperation with Germany. The key British operative intelligence officers who managed the contending Balkan nationalist movements were the following: Aubrey Herbert, who controlled the Young Turks and the Albanians; Noel Buxton (a decades-long crony of Aubrey Herbert), who controlled the Bulgarians, and he had much influence in Serbia, too; James David Bouchier and Arthur Evans, who controlled the Greeks; and Robert William Seton-Watson, who controlled the Serbians and played an important role in encouraging the breakup of the Austro-Hungarian Empire and the emergence of Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia during and after World War I. Aubrey Herbert was a son of Henry Howard Molyneux Herbert, 4th Earl of Carnarvon, who officially oversaw British Freemasonry on behalf of King Edward VII, since he served as the Pro Grand Master of the United Grand Lodge of England from 1874 to 1890. Herbert’s control of the Young Turks was based on the systematic use of Freemasonic institutions, since the founder of the Young Turks was an Italian-Jew high-ranking Freemason named Emmanuel Carasso.

Carasso was a senior officer of the Jewish Para-Masonic fraternity B’nai B’rith and the leader of the Italian Masonic Lodge “Macedonia Resurrected” (“Macedonia Risorta”), which was set up in Ottoman-ruled Thessaloniki under the protection of the Italian Consulate. The Lodge “Macedonia Resurrected” was the de facto headquarters of the Young Turks, and all the top leadership of the Young Turks movement were members of that Lodge (see: Mark Mazower, *Salonica: City of Ghosts, Christians, Muslims and Jews 1430–1950*, London: HarperCollins, 2004).

One of Carasso's most important associates was Alexander Helphand (born Israel Lazarevich Gelfand), better known as Parvus, a controversial activist in the Social Democratic Party of Germany and a major financier of the 1905 and the 1917 Russian revolutions. Shortly after 1905, Parvus moved to Turkey, where he became the economics editor of the pro-Young-Turks newspaper The Turkish Homeland. Parvus became a business partner of Carasso in the grain trade, and he was an arms supplier to the Turkish Army during the Balkan Wars. He later returned to Europe, where he arranged the secret train that took the Russian revolutionary Vladimir Lenin back to Russia in 1917.

Thomas Edward Lawrence, Arab nationalism, and Jewish nationalism

Colonel T. E. Lawrence (1888–1935) was a British archaeologist, army officer, diplomat, and spy who played a key role in the Arab Revolt (1916–18) and the Sinai and Palestine Campaign (1915–18) against the Ottoman Empire during World War I (main image: photograph of T. E. Lawrence in 1918).

The British Empire, realizing the strategic importance of the Hejaz area (which includes the Islamic holy cities of Mecca and Medina) for the legitimacy and the survival of the Ottoman Caliphate, concentrated its foreign policy in the First World War on wresting the Hejaz from the control of the Ottoman Caliph. This was achieved when Hussein ibn Ali al-Hashimi, the Ottoman appointed “Sharif” (steward and protector) of Mecca, was successfully induced by the British to rebel against the Ottoman Caliph and to establish his own authority over the Hejaz under British alliance and protection. By 1916, the Ottoman Caliph had lost control over Mecca and Jeddah, and his control over Medina came to an end in 1919 when certain Ottoman troops within the city of Medina were induced to rebel against their leader, Fakhri Pasha.



Under the nationalist regime of the Young Turks, the Turkish National Assembly officially abolished the Caliphate on 3 March 1924, endorsing the Western nationalist and secular model of statecraft. Great Britain and France wanted to bring about a radical regime change in the Ottoman Empire, not in order to promote a superior civilization, but merely in order to promote their geostrategic and economic interests. In particular, because Great Britain wanted a friendly regime in control of the Hejaz, so that it could better be able to manipulate the politics of the “Jaziratul Arab” (the Arabian peninsula) and, in general, of the Middle East, it chose Abd al-Aziz ibn Saud over Sharif Hussein as the new leader of the Hejaz.

Ibn Saud was another important political asset of the British Foreign Office in the Arabian peninsula, and he received a monthly payment of five thousand pounds sterling from the British Treasury in return for his neutrality in Sharif Hussein's rebellion against the Ottoman Caliph. The Saudi power in the Kingdom of Hejaz and Nejd, which re-emerged after the capture of Riyadh in 1902, was the consequence of an old alliance between a tribal chief, namely, the head of the House of Saud, and the religious leader of a puritanical and fanatical Islamic sect known as Wahhabism (belonging to the religious "family" of Salafism). In particular, the alliance between the House of Saud and Wahhabism was formalized in 1744 through the marriage of the son of Muhammad ibn Saud (died 1765) with the daughter of Muhammad ibn Abd al Wahhab (1703–92), a religious leader and theologian from Nejd, who founded the movement of Wahhabism.

It is worth mentioning that Ibn Abd al-Wahhab's teachings were rejected and opposed by many of the most notable Sunni Muslim scholars of his period, including his own father and his brother, but he charted a religious and political pact with Muhammad ibn Saud to help him establish the Emirate of Diriyah, the first Saudi State. By supporting Ibn Saud, the British ensured that, so long as the Saudi-Wahhabis ruled over the Hejaz, the genuine Islamic Caliphate could never be revived, since Ibn Saud was a strategic ally of the West, and Wahhabism represented a minority in the Islamic world. The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was officially founded on 23 September 1932, following the unification of the Hejaz and Nejd kingdoms under the reign of Abd al-Aziz ibn Saud.



Above: photograph of Emir Faisal's party at Versailles, during the Paris Peace Conference of 1919; from left to right: Rustum Haidar (an aide to Emir Faisal), Nuri al-Said (an Iraqi politician during the British mandate of Iraq and an asset of the British

Foreign Office), Emir Faisal (front), the French officer Captain Rosario Pisani (rear), T. E. Lawrence, Faisal's servant (name unknown), and Captain Tashin Kadri. Emir Faisal, the third son of Sharif Hussein of Mecca, became the King of the Arab Kingdom of Syria or Greater Syria in 1920 and the King of Iraq in 1921.

In a letter of December 1910, T. E. Lawrence defined civilization as “the power of appreciating the character and achievements of peoples in a different stage than ourselves” (quoted in: Jeffrey Meyers, “T. E. Lawrence and the Character of the Arabs,” The Virginia Quarterly Review, vol. 80, Fall 2004, p. 135). Indeed, Lawrence achieved a high level of understanding of the Arab history as well as of the modern contrast between nomads and city folks (ibid). He studied history at Jesus College, Oxford. Shortly after the outbreak of World War I, he was joined the British Army, and, given his knowledge of the Arabic language and the history of the Arabo-Islamic world, he was posted to Egypt to work in military intelligence. In 1916, Lawrence was sent from Cairo to the Arab Peninsula in order to act as a liaison officer for Sharif Hussein’s rebellion against the Ottoman Caliph. Over two years, Lawrence worked with local Arabs, dynamiting railways and attacking Ottoman outposts. In October 1918, Lawrence and the Arab army supported by more conventional allied troops commanded by the British General Edmund Allenby, 1st Viscount Allenby, captured Damascus.



Above: *Middle East peace map presented to the British cabinet by T. E. Lawrence in 1918*; source: <https://blog.nationalarchives.gov.uk/on-the-record-lawrence-and-bell/>

Furthermore, T. E. Lawrence played a very important role not only in the manipulation of Arab nationalism, but also in the manipulation of Jewish nationalism, namely, Zionism, as part of the geopolitical calculations and plans of the British Foreign Office for the Middle East. Chaim Weizmann, the Zionist leader and first president of the State of Israel, has commented on Lawrence's attitude towards Zionism as follows: "His [i.e., Lawrence's] relationship to the Zionist movement was a very positive one, in spite of the fact that he was strongly pro-Arab . . . It was his view . . . that the Jews would be of great help to the Arabs and that the Arab world stood to gain much from a Jewish homeland in Palestine" (quoted in: Cecil Bloom, "T. E. Lawrence and Zionism," *Jewish Historical Studies*, vol. 38, 2002, p. 125).

In November 1917, Great Britain, which was the leading force of secularism, which takes religion out of politics, issued the Balfour Declaration (a letter of Great Britain's Foreign Minister, Lord Balfour, addressed to Baron Lionel Walter Rothschild), according to which it was the intention of His Majesty's Government to work for the establishment of a Jewish national home in the Holy Land. Why would a secular state which is also the leading force of secularism declare its intention to work for the establishment of a Jewish national home, meaning a Jewish state, in Palestine? Moreover, in December 1917, a British Army led by General Edmund Allenby defeated the Ottoman Islamic Army and liberated the Holy Land, including Jerusalem. When Allenby entered Jerusalem, he declared: "the wars of the crusades are now complete." But on what grounds did Allenby claim that his secular Britain continued the religious wars that were started by the Papacy about nine hundred years before his era? The previous strange behavior of the British establishment can be explained only if one bears in mind the reality of the First World War, and it indicates the manipulation of Zionism by geostrategists and other historical speculators.



Above: A Zionist meeting in Tel Aviv, in 1925. From left to right, beside the Guard: Meir Dizengoff (a Zionist activist who served as the first mayor of Tel Aviv during 1922–36), Chaim Weizmann (a Russian-born biochemist who served as the president of the Zionist Organization during 1921–31 and 1935–46 and as the first president of Israel during 1949–52), the British statesman Arthur James Balfour, 1st Earl of Balfour (also known as Lord Balfour), Otto Warburg (a distinguished German-Jewish botanist who served as the president of the Zionist Organization during 1911–21), and Nahum Sokolow (a Zionist activist, author, translator, and pioneer of Hebrew journalism); photographed during Lord Balfour's visit to Tel Aviv.

In 1915, Great Britain, which was still the greatest geopolitical power in the world and wanted to conduct a preemptive war against the rising power of Germany, was facing defeat by Germany, because Germany unveiled and employed new military technology that had never been used before, primarily the submarine (German U-Boat warfare was inflicting colossal losses on British cargo). Under the pressure of the aforementioned adverse circumstances, during the fighting of the First World War, the British government made a peculiar deal with the Zionist movement represented by Chaim Weizmann and the multinational (German-French-British-Jewish) Rothschild family. The British government promised the Zionist movement that Great Britain would support the creation of a Jewish national home in Palestine if Great Britain won the war, for two reasons: firstly, because each of the Allied Powers was trying to carry favor with all sorts of ethnic minorities in Europe in order to gain an advantage in the conduct of war; secondly, because, in the context of the aforementioned British–Zionist deal, the Zionist movement undertook to work through its transnational networks to bring the United States into the war on Great Britain's side in exchange for Great Britain's support for the Zionist cause (see: Cecil Bloom, "Sir Mark Sykes: British Diplomat and a Convert to Zionism," *Jewish Historical Studies*, vol. 43, 2011, pp. 141–57).

In parallel with the increasing British influence on the Middle East, especially, from the 1860s onwards, France was also trying to consolidate its own geopolitical spheres of influence, which were officially determined with the Sykes–Picot Agreement (Colonel Sir Mark Sykes was the representative of Great Britain, and François Georges-Picot, a French diplomat and lawyer, was the representative of France). The Sykes–Picot Agreement was signed secretly in 1916 by Great Britain and France: it allocated to Great Britain control of what is today southern Israel and Palestine, Jordan, southern Iraq, and an additional small area that included the ports of Haifa and Acre (to allow access to the Mediterranean and contain the Russian Navy), and it allocated to France control of southeastern Turkey, the Kurdistan region, Syria, and Lebanon.

On 8 February 1920, the London-based newspaper *Illustrated Sunday Herald*, on page 5, published an article entitled “Zionism versus Bolshevism: A Struggle for the Soul of the Jewish People” written by the British statesman Winston Churchill (1874–1965), who was then both the Secretary of State for War and the Secretary of State for Air (under Prime Minister David Lloyd George). In that article, Churchill argued that “at the present fateful period there are three main lines of political conception among the Jews, two of which are helpful and hopeful . . . and the third absolutely destructive.” In particular, in the same article, Churchill classified Jews into the following three categories: (i) National Jews: “the Jews who, dwelling in every country throughout the world, identify themselves with that country, enter into its national life, and, while adhering faithfully to their own religion, regard themselves as citizens in the fullest sense of that State which has received them.” (ii) International Jews: “The adherents of this sinister confederacy are mostly men reared up among the unhappy populations of countries where Jews are persecuted . . . Most, if not all, of them have forsaken the faith of their forefathers . . . This movement among the Jews is not new. From the days of Spartacus-Weishaupt to those of Karl Marx, and down to Trotsky (Russia), Bela Kun (Hungary), Rosa Luxemburg (Germany), and Emma Goldman (United States), this world-wide conspiracy for the overthrow of civilization and for the reconstitution of society on the basis of arrested development, of envious malevolence, and impossible equality, has been steadily growing.” (iii) Zionism: “In violent contrast to international communism, it presents to the Jew a national idea of a commanding character. It has fallen to the British Government, as the result of the conquest of Palestine, to have the opportunity and the responsibility of securing for the Jewish race all over the world a home and a center of national life.” Therefore, according to Churchill’s aforementioned rationale, the British Government should cooperate with “national Jews” and Zionists against the rising power of Germany, communism, and the “international Jews.” In fact, Churchill’s aforementioned rationale underpins the Balfour Declaration and the attitude of the Anglo-American establishment, including Anglo-American Freemasonry, towards Zionism (regarding the instrumentalization of Zionism by Western capitalist and colonial elites, see also: Hannah Arendt, *Eichmann in Jerusalem: A Report on the Banality of Evil*, New York: Viking Press, 1964).

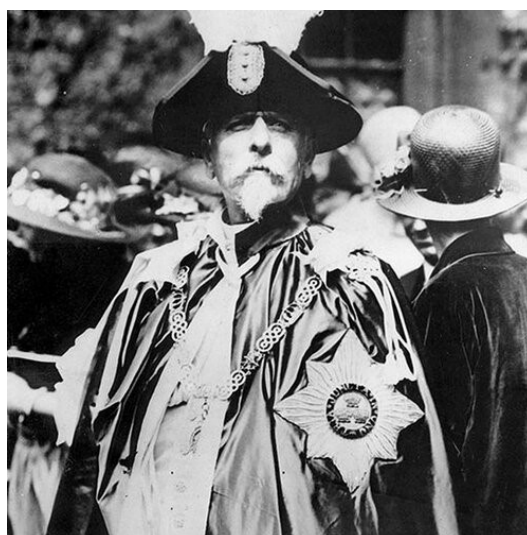
Regarding imperialism, it should be stressed that, as the German-American political theorist Hannah Arendt has thoroughly explained, imperialism is an anti-cosmopolitan variety of universalism, since it is an attempt of a particular political actor to universally impose one’s own selfish interests and perceptions, whereas genuine cosmopolitanism is based on intrinsically universal values and norms, which transcend each and every particular actor’s own political and economic expediencies (Hannah Arendt, *The Origins of Totalitarianism*, new edition, San Diego: Harvest Book/Harcourt Brace and Company,

1973, Part Two: Imperialism). For a systematic and in-depth analysis of Western imperialism, one should study the following book: G. A. Trofimenko, *The U.S. Military Doctrine*, Moscow: Progress Publishers, 1986

Sir Basil Zaharoff

Sir Basil Zaharoff was born on 6 October 1849 in Muğla, part of the Ottoman Empire, and he died in 1936 in Monte Carlo, Monaco (main image: photograph of Sir Basil Zaharoff wearing the insignia of a Knight Grand Cross of the Most Honorable Order of the Bath). He was the eldest child of a Greek merchant, and his original Greek name was Vasileios Zachariou. However, his family had become the Zaharoff's when they lived in Russia as exiles after the anti-Greek "Easter pogroms" of 1821. They returned to the Ottoman Empire in the 1840s.

From the late 1880s to 1927, Sir Basil Zaharoff worked internationally as an agent for the following armaments manufacturers: Nordenfelt Guns and Ammunition Company (founded by Thorsten Nordenfelt, who was a Swedish arms designer), Maxim-Nordenfelt Guns and Ammunition Company (an arms company formed by Thorsten Nordenfelt and the American-British inventor Sir Hiram Stevens Maxim, best known as the creator of the first automatic machine-gun), and Vickers (a British arms company, which, in 1895, took over Maxim-Nordenfelt). Moreover, Sir Basil Zaharoff was active in the oil, the shipping, and the banking industries. In the 1910s, he was one of the largest arms dealers and industrialists in Europe, and he was intimately linked to the Shell group and the Banque de l'Union Parisienne (of which he was a major shareholder). He sold munitions to many nations, including Great Britain, Germany, the Russian Empire, the Ottoman Empire, Greece, Spain, Japan, and the United States of America.



He became a French citizen in 1913, and he worked with Allied intelligence during World War I. By 1915, Zaharoff, once known as "the Merchant of Death," who was called "the wickedest man in Europe," had close ties with both the English statesman David Lloyd George, who was the Prime Minister of Great Britain from 1916 to 1922, and the French statesman Aristide Briand, who served eleven terms as the Prime Minister of France during the French Third Republic (specifically, between 1909 and 1929). For his services to the Allies during World War I, Zaharoff was knighted by King George V of Great Britain and decorated by the French government. In 1919, he was decorated by the French Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau with the Grand Cross of the Légion d'Honneur (the highest French Order of Merit), while Great Britain honored him with the titles of a Knight Grand Cross of the Most Excellent Order of the British Empire (1918) and of a Knight Grand Cross of the Most Honorable Order of the Bath (1919). In 1922, a formal interpellation in the French Chamber of Deputies demanded details of Zaharoff's

citizenship, but the then French Foreign Minister, Raymond Poincaré, vouchsafed no answer, even though, under French parliamentary rules, replies to interpellations are obligatory.

Sir Basil Zaharoff promoted the Greek-Turkish War (1919–22), he owned the Monte Carlo casino, he married a rich Spanish duchess (the 1st Duchess de Villafranca de los Caballeros), and he endowed university chairs in England, France, and Russia.

In Greece, Sir Basil Zaharoff acted as a manager of British assets in the Greek political system. In Greece, during the 1910s and the 1920s, the most important political asset of the British intelligence and the British Foreign Office was Eleftherios Venizelos. As the leader of the Liberal Party, Venizelos served as the Prime Minister of Greece seven times between 1910 and 1933. He was initiated into Freemasonry in the Lodge “Athena” under the auspices of the Grand Lodge of Greece, and, through English Masonic and political channels, he was inculcated with a liberal nationalist ideology. In 2005, the British government released a series of previously top secret documents under the title The Records of the Permanent Under-Secretary’s Department: Liaison Between the Foreign Office and British Secret Intelligence, 1873–1939, within which lies a torrid story regarding the activities of the British secret agent and arms dealer Sir Basil Zaharoff. Sir Basil Zaharoff was the major financial sponsor and political handler of Eleftherios Venizelos on behalf of the British Foreign Office, and, in World War I, he convinced Venizelos to fight against the pro-German lobby that was operating in Greece during that period and to bring Greece on the side of the Entente Powers (source: Foreign and Commonwealth Office, The Records of the Permanent Under-Secretary’s Department: Liaison Between the Foreign Office and British Secret Intelligence, 1873–1939, U.K.: FCO Historians, March 2005; online:

<https://issuu.com/fcohistorians/docs/therecordsofthepermanentundersecret>).

In the aforementioned declassified British state documents, we read the following (ibid, pp. 29–31):

Zaharoff set out his stall in a letter to Caillard of 12 November 1915 [Sir Vincent Caillard had, after service with the Royal Engineers and in the War Office’s Intelligence Department, embarked on a career in business management, and, in 1915, Caillard was well-placed to act as a channel of communication between Zaharoff and the UK Government]. He [namely, Zaharoff] claimed that over the past nine years he had given Greece £1.2 million, and that if he were to add a further £300,000 to this “he could make Greece join the Allies and start fighting the Bulgars within 20 days.” He and Venizelos, he added, were “dear friends,” and the octogenarian Skouloudis, whom

Constantine [the King of Greece] had appointed Prime Minister “would gladly follow me.” “All that is needed,” Zaharoff observed, “is to buy the Germanophile papers, also 45 Deputies and one Frontier Commander.” For £1,500,000 properly spent, he reckoned, the war could be shortened by months . . . In a letter of 11 December 1915 Herbert Henry Asquith, the Prime Minister, informed Caillard that he had discussed the matter [namely, Zaharoff’s aforementioned plan] with Reginald McKenna, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and that Caillard was to let his “friend go straight ahead: the sum named by him [would] be paid by the Govt.” The money in question, £1,407,000, was subsequently placed to Zaharoff’s credit at Barclays, and, after communicating the news to Venizelos via the French Legation in Athens, Zaharoff prepared to leave for Naples and Messina with a view ultimately to meeting dissatisfied politicians and representatives of the Greek press in Athens . . . The British Government supported Zaharoff’s operations in Greece.

Regarding the German intelligence networks that were operating in Greece and Zaharoff was trying to neutralize, it should be mentioned that, during the first three decades of the twentieth century, Germany created powerful networks of intelligence and political influence in Greece. One of the most important members of the pro-German lobby in Greece was the Greek military officer and politician Ioannis Metaxas, who was a high-ranking Freemason belonging to the Grand Lodge of Greece (he served as the Worshipful Master of the Lodge “Hesiod” under the auspices of the Grand Lodge of Greece during 1921–23). In 1915, Ioannis Metaxas, Sofoklis Dousmanis (who was appointed Chief of the Greek Navy in 1914), George Streit (a distinguished Greek diplomat and academician), and Queen Sophia of Greece (whose father was the German Kaiser Frederick III) established a powerful pro-German network and lobby in order to influence the Greek King Constantine I and the Greek political system in favor of Germany. In 1917, under Entente’s pressure, the Greek King Constantine I was deposed, Eleftherios Venizelos became the Prime Minister of Greece, King Constantine I and Ioannis Metaxas were exiled to Italy, and Greece declared war on the Central Powers (i.e., the German Empire, Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire, and the Kingdom of Bulgaria), ending three years of neutrality by entering World War I alongside Great Britain, France, Russia, and Italy. Zaharoff’s plan and operations in Greece had now been vindicated and had produced the intended results. However, in Italy, through Freemasonry and fascist political networks, Metaxas created a protective network for himself and his political

friends. Metaxas returned to Greece in 1920 after the electoral defeat of Eleftherios Venizelos, and, on 4 August 1936, he managed to establish a fascist dictatorial regime, thus ruling the Kingdom of Greece until his death in 1941.

A Few Concluding Thoughts

Gorgias is the first of Plato's political dialogues in which the authentic art of politics—which, according to Socrates's definition, cares for the good—is contrasted with that which merely imitates it and deals only with the question of enforcement. Under the capitalist system, for the most part, politics is a counterfeit of the authentic art of politics, a theatrical event. To explain what I mean by this assertion, I would, first of all, like to recall that one of the most commonly cited examples of a metaphor in English literature comes from William Shakespeare's pastoral comedy *As You Like It* (Act II, Scene VII):\

*All the world's a stage,
And all the men and women merely players:
They have their exits and their entrances.*

Inspired by Shakespeare's aforementioned metaphor, I could synoptically describe the socio-political reality ("historical incidents") under capitalism as a series of theatrical plays in the following way: A theater is a building or an outdoor area in which dramas are performed. Additionally, every theater has a backstage, which is the resource for actors, movers and shakers in the performing arts. In my metaphor, the theater allegorizes the mainstream social and political sphere and the overt historical becoming.

First of all, the spectators of a theatrical performance have to buy a ticket in order to enter the theater. After entering the theater, they sit in a seat. In front of them is the theater stage, where the play will be played. The spectators who sit in the theater are the popular masses that are acculturated to the established system; hence, they have bought a "ticket" to the "mainstream," whereas, the "others" are the "pariahs." There are four main forms of drama (namely, states of historical becoming under capitalism): comedy, tragedy, tragicomedy, and melodrama. For instance, crises and wars are tragic plays; the consumer society and the welfare state fall under the category of comedy; petty-bourgeois behaviors fall under the category of tragicomedy; and the phenomena of social climbing, political contestation, patriotism, and piety fall under the category of melodrama.

In order for a theatrical performance to be played, first of all, there must be a scriptwriter, who has written the play. The scriptwriters (of the theatrical plays that the popular masses see and perceive as historical reality) are the members of the ruling transnational capitalist elite. Every theatrical performance also needs a stage director. The stage directors are the state intelligence and national security agencies, and they have assistant stage directors. The assistant stage directors are the diplomats, the members of the

diplomatic corps of the various nation-states and international organizations. Furthermore, in order for a theatrical performance to be played, we need actors, who will take on different roles. The actors who have leading roles are the politicians. The actors who have supporting roles are the journalists. The background actors are the members of the judiciary, the police, and the armed forces, as well as the establishment's technocrats. Theatrical productions usually have sponsors. The sponsors are the businesspeople, specifically, those capitalists who are hierarchically inferior to the ruling transnational capitalist elite (the scriptwriters). Finally, theaters have stage managers, who provide technical and organizational support to the director, the actors, the designers, the stage crew, and the technicians throughout the production process. The stage managers are the various priests, the religious leaders, the establishment's spiritual "gurus," and the leaders of the conformist Freemasonries and other fraternities or private exclusive membership clubs.

Consequently, the way in which culture, history, politics, and economics are taught and presented to the masses in the capitalist system is inextricably linked to the capitalist establishment's aim to manipulate the minds of the masses and even to stupefy the petty bourgeoisie, no matter how cultivated a consciousness the petty bourgeoisie may possess.

My conception of correct and effective intelligence is based on a broad and scientifically rigorous understanding of the concept of a historical structure. Thus, my approach to the theory and the practice of intelligence is based on a dynamic, global, and multidimensional analysis of history.

A historical structure consists of three mutually interacting categories of forces:

- (i) Material capabilities: they are productive and distributive potentials, which are manifested as technological and organizational capabilities.
- (ii) Ideas: they are of two kinds. One kind consists of intersubjective meanings, that is, shared notions of the nature of social relations that tend to perpetuate habits and expectations of behavior (see: Charles Taylor, "Hermeneutics and Politics," in: Paul Connerton, ed., *Critical Sociology*, Harmondsworth: Middlesex: Penguin, 1965, Chapter VI). The other kind of ideas consists of collective images of social order held by different social groups.
- (iii) Institutions: they are particular mixtures of ideas and material power, which, in turn, influence the further development of ideas and material power. In particular, institutions are means of stabilizing and perpetuating a particular order, and they provide ways of dealing with conflicts.