



MARCH OF THE TITANS

A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

(formerly "Europa - The History of the White Race")

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1999**

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Who we are, where we come from and where we are going!

The complete and unabridged story of the White Race - a work spanning 35,000 years of history - from the emergence of the earliest White racial type to a look into the future . . .

From the mists of time to the present day: the trials, tribulations, terrible tragedies and great triumphs of the White Race are all here, age by age, country by country.



Left: The beautiful White queen Nefertiti of Egypt, circa 1325 BC.
Right: The great Roman Emperor, Octavian Augustus, circa 4 AD.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 1 : IMPORTANT ISSUES

This book tells the story of White people as a racial group and not primarily of any specific geographic area. Hence the backdrop to this story jumps continents, ages and civilizations, linked only by the commonality of a genetic inheritance. Crucial to the understanding of the theme of this book is an understanding of the concepts of race, ethnicity and culture.

RACE, ETHNICITY AND CULTURE

A race is defined as a group of individuals sharing common genetic attributes which determine that group's physical appearance and, more controversially, their cognitive abilities. Ethnicity is defined as the creation of groupings by individuals (most often within racial groups but also possible across racial divides) of certain common traditions, languages, art forms, attitudes and other means of expression.

A culture is the name given to the physical manifestations created by ethnic groupings - the actual language, art forms, religion and social order and achievements of a particular ethnic group. In practical terms then, it is possible to talk of a White race; of a Scottish ethnicity and a Scottish culture. The last two - ethnicity and culture - are directly dependent upon each other, and in fact flow from each other in a symbiotic relationship. This book deals then primarily with White racial history, and flowing from that, White ethnic groupings and cultures.

THE WHITE RACE

What exactly is meant by the White race? Essentially there are three main sub groupings to the White race, with two further divisions of note. The three major sub groupings are known to academics as Nordic, Alpine and Mediterranean.

Although these names have come about mainly as a result of the geographic areas these sub groupings have been associated with in the Christian era (Nordics in northern Europe, Alpines in central Europe and Mediterraneans in southern Europe) it is incorrect to believe that these groupings always occupied these regions. These three main sub groupings have played a role in events in almost every geographical region where the White race as a group has appeared.

Of these three original groupings, only two are existent in any large numbers today: the Nordics and the Alpines. The original Mediterraneans of ancient history are not to be confused with those people loosely termed "Mediterranean" today - the present day inhabitants of the Mediterranean region are largely mixtures of several races, with the original White Mediterranean component for the greatest part having long since been submerged amongst invasions first of the Nordic and Alpine White sub-groupings, and then under Nonwhite Arabic, Turkish and other Middle Eastern and North African racial groupings.

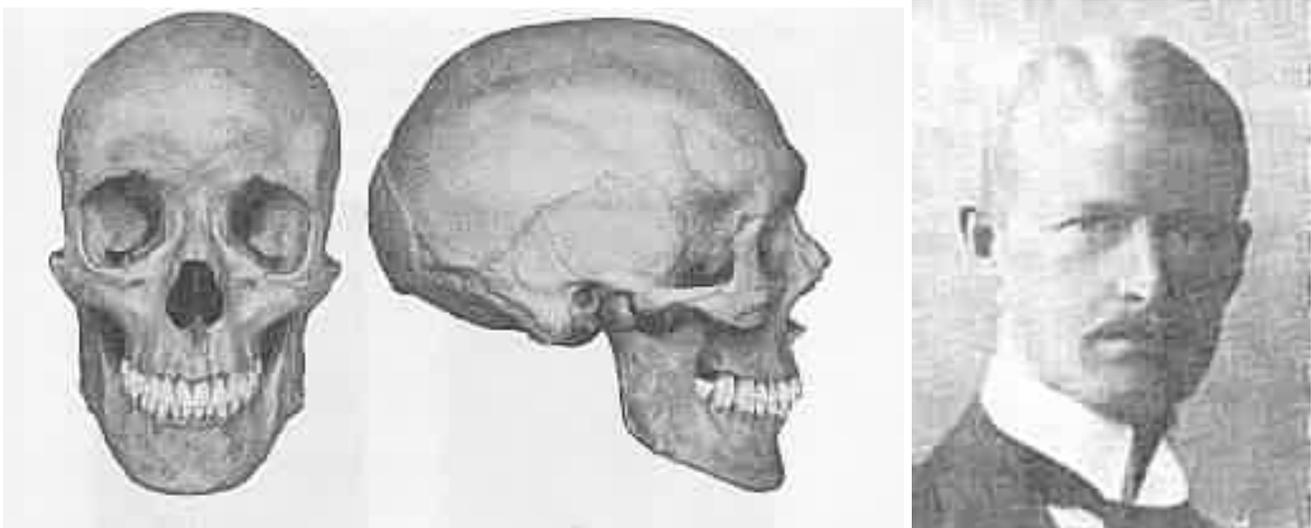
To illustrate the concept of these three main sub groupings: although there is a broadly termed "Black

race" in existence, there are major sub-groupings amongst that racial grouping: the Congo basin Pygmy and the ultra tall Masai tribesmen of Kenya are two good examples of sub groupings within the Black racial group.

A sub grouping is therefore a branch of a particular race which exhibits slightly different physical characteristics but still shares enough of a common genetic inheritance with other sub-groupings to be included in a broad racial category.

NORDIC

The Nordic sub racial grouping, which is still largely in existence to day, is characterized by light colored hair and eyes, a tall slim body build and a distinctive "long" (that is, thin and extended) skull shape.



The skull of a member of the Nordic White subrace, viewed from the front and the side. The long nature of the facial structure is clearly visible. Right: A classic Nordic male from Sweden.

ALPINE

The Alpine sub racial grouping, which also still exists in a large measure today, is characterized by brown hair and eyes, a short, more "solid" body build and a distinctive "round" (that is, almost, but not quite, circular) skull shape.



The skull of a member of the Alpine White subrace, viewed from the front and the side. The rectangular shape of the facial structure is clearly visible. Right: a classic Alpine male from southern Germany.

MEDITERRANEAN

The Mediterranean sub racial grouping virtually no longer exists today - the first of the three White racial sub-groupings to disappear from the earth, submerged into the gene pools of surrounding races. The Mediterranean sub grouping was predominantly (but not totally) characterized by dark hair and eye color, slim (Nordic) or solid (Alpine) body build and either long or round skull shapes.



The skull of a member of the Mediterranean White subrace, viewed from the front and the side. Right: as close an example of a true Mediterranean as is to be found in modern times: a First World War soldier from Wales in Britain.

MEDITERRANEANS VIRTUALLY EXTINCT

It is worth stating again, as it is of great significance in more ways than one, that there are very few of these original Mediterranean racial types left in the world today. They were known as the "Old Europeans" and inhabited large parts of Europe, Egypt, the Middle and Near East and Egypt at the dawn of history.

These Mediterranean types bear almost no resemblance to the present day inhabitants of the Mediterranean basin: the original Old Europeans have been absorbed almost completely into either the Nordic/Alpine stock in Europe itself, or the African/Semitic/Asian stock of North Africa, the Near and Middle East.

The only place in Europe where occasional glimpses of this original Mediterranean sub racial grouping can still be seen, is in the Celtic fringes of Britain, most notably in Wales and Devonshire, and in the Basque territory of Spain. In these regions there exists a short dark strain - remnants of the original inhabitants of Europe.

Pure examples of this Mediterranean type are however still fairly rare, as even they have for the largest degree had some Nordic or Alpine admixture over the years.

OTHER SUB-GROUPINGS

Two other White racial sub groupings exist (called Dinarics and East Baltics) - these groupings are to the largest degree the result of mixtures of the three main sub groupings. The Dinarics and East Baltics are found in large numbers in present day Eastern Europe, and exhibit Nordic, Alpine and Mediterranean physical characteristics.

A very small percentage of these two sub-groupings also display the physical characteristics resulting from physical mixing with the waves of Asiatic invaders who penetrated Europe from the east during the course of history: this issue is discussed in full later in this book.

GENETIC UNITY

For the purposes of this book, an ethnic or cultural group is defined as part of the White race as long as it shares for the greatest part enough of a common genetic inheritance with the broad racial group. When such an ethnic group loses this genetic commonality (as has happened to the Mediterraneans) it is then formally excluded from the broad White racial category.

MEANS OF TRACKING RACE IN CIVILIZATION

How is race tracked in civilization? How is it determined whether the populations of certain societies or civilization belonged to specific races? The answer to this is simple: race in history is tracked in three ways: palaeoserology, art forms and language.

PALAEOSEROLOGY

Palaeoserology is the study of skeletal remains - physical remains of people who died during the time periods under study. As different racial groups have different physical characteristics, it is a relatively

simple matter to determine the racial make-up of the inhabitants of a particular region by studying the contents of grave sites.

This skill is today often used by modern police pathologists in identifying the race of unidentified corpses, and this science has proven equally useful in historical diggings.

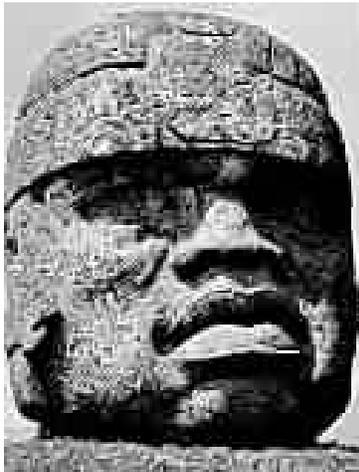
The process of examining burial sites and corpses has proven invaluable in creating an understanding of the racial make-up of the peoples who lived in different areas at different times when there are no other indicators as to their racial origins.

ART FORMS

Art forms (artistic illustrations, be they conventional pictures or illustrations on pottery; or even statues) also provide significant indicators of the racial make-up of contemporary inhabitants.

The ancient civilizations in particular - of all racial groupings - reflected themselves in their art forms (often because their own racial types were the only human models from which they had to work).

In this way for example, early Chinese art depicted principally Chinese people, Inca and Aztec art depicted only Inca or Aztec people, and so on. In virtually all societies, original art forms portraying people closely followed contemporary physical appearances. This principle is well illustrated in the four art forms portrayed above.





Tracking race in history: race depicted in art forms. Early civilizations very often depicted images of their own racial types in their works of art, based on the reality that their own types were the most common (or only) human models they had to work with. A comparison of (from left to right) Olmec art, 400 BC; African art, circa 1400 AD; Japanese art, 1,000 AD; and Greek art, 340 BC; reflects this principle well. The study of art forms is a reliable indicator of the racial type of the communities in which the art works were created.

LANGUAGE

The study of language is another important clue in the dispersion of peoples: commonalities in language forms leave clearly identifiable "fingerprints" in cultures.

Similar words, phrases or language forms are a clear indication of a single origin for civilizations, due to the fact that the people in those civilizations would at some stage have had a common origin.

In this way the route of a culture (and hence a people) can be traced by following a language.

English	German	Latin	Greek	Old Persian	Sanskrit
brother	bruder	frater	bhrater	brater	bhrater
mother	mutter	mater	meter	matar	matar
father	vater	pater	pater	pitar	pitar

CLIMATE AND GENES

The argument of climatic influence as a cause of physical racial differences is as flawed as the belief in a common racial ancestor.

Often the argument is heard that the White race has its color because it originated in the cold north, and that the Black race has its color because it originated in the hot south. Apart from the obvious geographical impossibility of this conjecture (because of the fact that many of the White race's greatest achievements were made in a hot climate - the Near East and Egypt) this argument does not explain why for example members of the Mongolian races (Chinese, Japanese and others) have their distinctive racial characteristics.

How did the climate of Asia for example create the distinctive eye shape and skull structure by which Mongolian races are known?

The reality is that physical characteristics are genetically determined at the moment of conception, and there is absolutely no evidence to indicate that living in a cold or a hot climate changes the genetic make up of a group of people. If a large group of Chinese people had to move to Norway, live there for any length of time, all the while remaining (marriage and children wise) within their racial group, will anyone seriously suggest that they will "evolve" into blue eyed blond people over any period of time?

The same argument can be used in reverse: who will seriously contend that Whites moving to China, (as remaining within their own genetic community, not interbreeding with the local population) will become Mongolian in physical appearance after any length of time?

People may grow a little taller, or live a little longer with better nutrition or medical services, but this is merely an extension of the genetic potential of those people, rather than a change in the genes themselves. Climate then can never change the gene pool of a people.

The only way a gene pool can be changed is if enough members of that gene pool physically mix - physically integrate and have offspring with - a gene pool outside of that original group. This is the only way in which genes can "change" - and history is full of examples of where this has happened, where original racial groups have integrated with other previously separate racial groups to produce new groupings having overall different physical and even cognitive characteristics from both the original parent groupings.

ENVIRONMENT AND ACHIEVEMENT

Another popular modern myth is that some racial groups developed faster than others because of the accident of their geographic location. This is known collectively as the environmental theory of development: that because some races were "lucky" enough to live around, for example, fertile river basins, or had access to certain types of domesticable animals or edible plants, that they developed faster than other racial groupings elsewhere in the world.

This world view attempts essentially to explain the huge technological gap which existed between the White Europeans and the Black Africans, Native Americans (Amerinds), Asians and Australian Aborigines, at the time of the period of White exploration and colonization of the world.

While it is not the purpose of this book to delve into what are after all, subjective notions of superiority and inferiority (what is regarded as superior by some can be regarded as inferior to another) nonetheless the issue of the technological gap between the races needs addressing, if only because it played such a huge role in the history of the White race's interaction with the other races of the world.

The "environmental" theory as expounded by modern sociologists is destroyed by two main examples: Egypt - and a comparison between the indigenous cultures of Equatorial Africa and Central America.

In Egypt, as will be shown, the Black and White races shared what was virtually an identical geographic location along the banks of the Nile River - yet despite this the ancient White Egyptians produced a civilization which is still a marvel of world history; while the achievements of the Black (Nubian) inhabitants of the same region are distinctly unremarkable in comparison to the wonders of the pyramids.

If the "lucky environmental accident" were true, then the vast difference between the original White Egyptians and Black Nubians should never have come about, as they shared an identical environment.

Often the argument is made that Whites had an advantage because they had pack animals and horses while the native peoples did not - this argument ignores the fact that the White Egyptians did not have horses until long after the creation of many of their finest apexes of technological marvels. In fact horses were introduced to Egypt by the Semitic Hyksos invasion which occurred hundreds of years after the first flowering of Egyptian civilization.

COMPARISONS

It is of value to compare the achievements of the Nonwhite Inca and Aztec Amerind peoples in Central and South America, lying just north and south of the equator, with that of the original heartland of the Black race, also just north and south of the equator in Africa. Due to the proximity to the equator, virtually identical environmental conditions prevailed (and still prevail) in Central America and Central Africa. Neither region had horses, and both had the challenges of the equatorial rain forest with which to deal.

Despite the similarity in environment, the Amerinds in Central America were able to build sophisticated buildings, establish written forms of communication, establish gold and precious metal working and a host of other advances: while in Africa little or no progress beyond the Stone Age was made.

The disparity between the Nonwhite Amerinds and the Nonwhite Africans cannot be explained by the "accident of geography".

Lastly, and most devastatingly, the "environment" argument falls flat when measured against the rise and fall of civilizations. Why is it that Ancient Egypt at one stage led the world in culture and civilization, yet today is a majority backward Third World country?

If environment alone gave certain peoples a "permanent advantage" then it would surely follow that Egypt would today be one of the most advanced countries in the world.

In reality it is, as any visitor to that land will testify, filled with misery, poverty and backwardness - despite the "environment" being exactly the same as it was during the great age of the civilization which built the pyramids.

The "environmental" theory does therefore not explain why Egypt, with exactly the same

environmental conditions, could have lost its preeminence over the rest of the world.

TECHNOLOGICAL GAP - REASONS

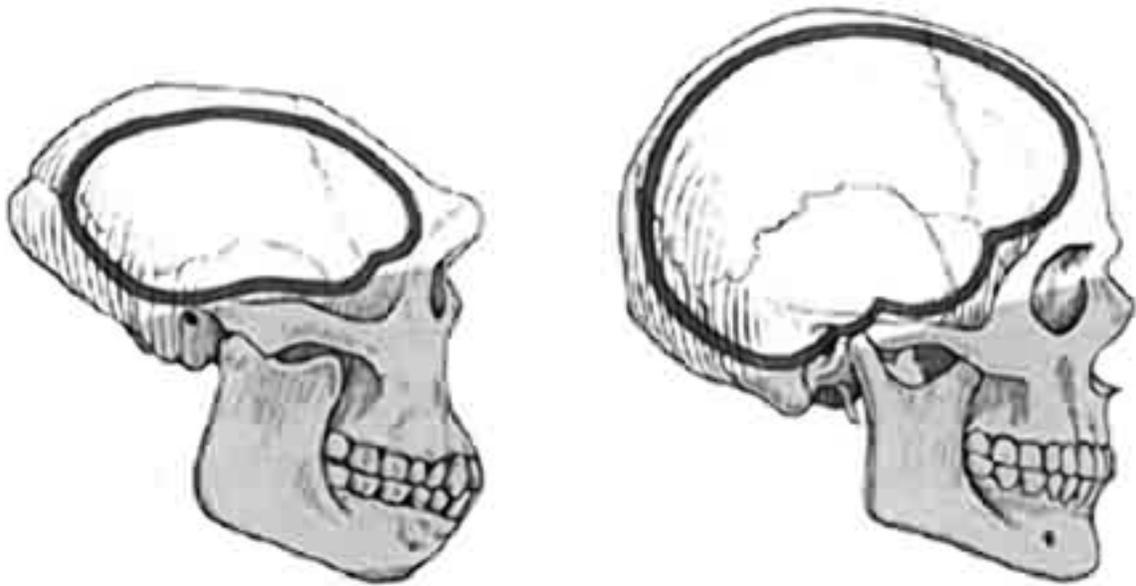
Just what caused the technological gap then? If environment did not cause it, the only other logical explanation must be that certain types of culture, or civilization, are the products of certain types of people - representative of the innate potential of any given group of people. While this is presently deemed a politically incorrect point of view, the facts of historical development support no other conclusion.

One further example - the progress of North America can be compared with that of South America. North America was for the greatest part colonized by White Europeans, and subsequently became the leading power in the modern world. South America, on the other hand, having far richer natural resources than North America, was never majority colonized by White Europeans and today has a majority mixed race population.

This continent is classed as Third, or at best Second World. Clearly, if environment were the only factor determining levels of achievement, South America should in theory be more advanced than North America, having far more "environmental advantages" than North America.

HOMO ERECTUS

Archaeology and its allied science, palaeoserology, have revealed that life forms in the general shape of humans (that is, two arms, two legs, a torso, a head and walking upright on the two legs) appeared in different places across the earth approximately two million years ago. These were the "Homo Erectus" (or "upright man") racial types so favored by evolutionists as the "ancestors of man". These creatures have been found scattered throughout Europe, Africa, China and Australia. It remains however speculative to say with any certainty that modern man is descended from any of these Homo Erectus racial types.



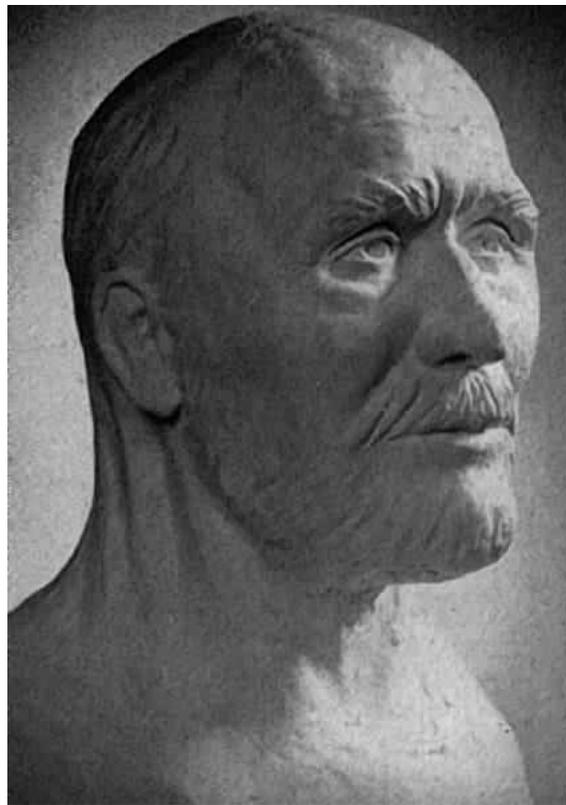
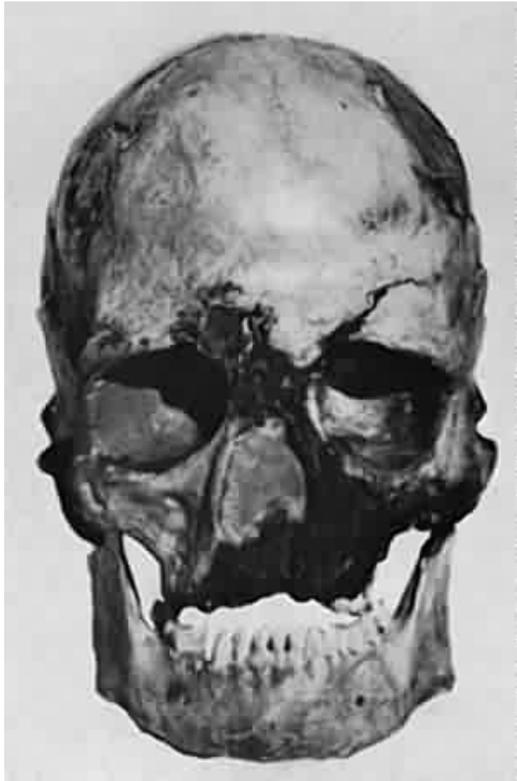
A comparison between the skull of a Homo Erectus type (left) and that of a Homo Sapiens (right) shows the difference in cranial size and facial angle which serves as an outstanding marker of the huge distance between the two racial types. Such vast differences call into question the theory that modern White racial types are descended from any previous racial groups, in particular the "Out of Africa" myth.

NEANDERTHAL

The time of the Homo Erectus types is known as the Paleolithic age. This age is deemed to have come to an end coinciding with the appearance of Neanderthal man, a new racial type, typified in modern imagery as the "ape man". Although Neanderthal man was slow witted, he was an advance on Homo Erectus. Once again, however, there is no clearly established link to modern White racial types.

Neanderthal man's physical characteristics were epitomized by the heavy browed skull and generally his arms were longer in relation to his body size. He was prognathic - which means that the forehead slopes back and the teeth stick out significantly - usually further than the furthest point of the nose or the chin.

CRO-MAGNON - THE FIRST MODERN WHITE RACIAL TYPE



Above left and center: Cheddar Man. The well preserved skull of a complete example of Cro-Magnon man, discovered in the Cheddar Gorge in England. The skeleton is between 40,000 and 30,000 years old. Right: A flesh reconstruction bust of Cro-Magnon man, made by the famous anthropologist, Maurice Putnam Coon. It is from the emergence of Cro-Magnon man that recorded White history begins.

The first modern White racial type only emerged between approximately 40,000 BC and 15,000 BC in differing parts of Europe and the Near East. This time period is known as the Late Paleolithic period,

also known generically as the Stone Age. This first racial type is known as Cro-Magnon man - after a site in the Dordogne region of France where the first skeletal remains were found.

Cro-Magnon man is the first biped life form with whom modern Whites can clearly claim a direct genetic affinity. White racial history therefore begins around the year 35,000 BC - and so it is with the Late Paleolithic period that the story in this book really begins.

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CHAPTER 2 : THE LATE PALEOLITHIC AGE

The first racial types identifiable as similar to modern Whites first appeared in parts of Europe, southern Russia and the Near East during the time period 30,000 BC to 15,000 BC, following the end of the last great Ice Age around the year 40,000 BC.

The new arrivals are known as Homo Sapiens (or "wise man") in order to differentiate them from the other life forms known as Homo Erectus and Neanderthal man.

These first racial types occurred in two main physical forms: the original Mediterraneans ("Old Europeans") who had dark or brown hair and dark eyes; and then what is called the Proto Nordic or Cro-Magnon racial type - tall, light hair and light eyes. In certain isolated areas in Europe - centered in Scandinavia - it is possible even today to find perfect living examples of this Proto Nordic racial type, differing only slightly in height from modern day Nordics.

This Proto-Nordic race's physical remains are however plentiful as they wandered far and wide. They lived in a broad band spanning from Spain right across Europe all the way to Asia, where skeletal remains have been found.



One of the most remarkable finds from the Upper Paleolithic era is this clothed adult White male, discovered in Sungir, Russia, buried some 25,000 years ago. This was the type of person who created the first known inklings of White civilization of the present interglacial period starting approximately 40,000 BC. The intricacy of the beadwork and material with which the corpse was buried is evidence that White Upper Paleolithic man was at this stage already fairly advanced - compared to Africa where woven material was introduced as recently as only 500 years ago.

NORDIC TYPES COMPROMISE RULING ELITE

The Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic types also quite often inhabited the same geographic areas - particularly so in the Middle and Near East, but also extending to western Europe and the Balkans.

A certain amount of mixing took place, but as the Mediterranean types were in the overwhelming majority, the incidence of Nordic characteristics amongst these first Whites was relatively low, with most Nordic types comprising the ruling elite of these peoples.

NEANDERTHALS EXTINGUISHED

This time period, circa 25,000 BC, is known as the Late Paleolithic era and was marked by two main characteristics - the hunter-gatherer stage of early White existence; and the extinction of Neanderthal

man (through conflict with the new arrivals).

HUNTER GATHERERS

The Proto-Nordics of the Late Paleolithic age wandered from area to area, never settling for long and often being driven on by the elements and sometimes following new lands opened up by the then retreating last ice sheets.

As a result of the transient nature of these people, they generally traveled in family groups, usually varying between five and twenty individuals. Small numbers of livestock and hunting provided their main means of sustenance.

While no great buildings or fixed structures remain from this period, smaller day-to-day artifacts are relatively plentiful. Excavations across Europe and Russia have shown that these early Whites had fire, paint, stone blades and the ability to fashion animal bones into weapons and tools. Sewing needles were also developed during this period.

27,000 BC - MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS AND CERAMICS

Musical instruments also made their appearance- at sites in southern France, flutes dating back 27,000 years have been found. Coal was also first used as a fuel at about this time. The southern parts of Europe would have been the primary point of contact between the Northern Proto-Nordics and the Mediterranean types.

These early Whites also developed fired ceramics, with statuettes and other fired objects dating from approximately 26,000 BC having been found in the present day Czech Republic.

Two significant weapons were also developed at this time which marked a great improvement on the till then basic spear: the spear thrower (which was an instrument made of bone which gave the thrower greater leverage and thus greater speed and distance) which made its appearance around 12,000 BC; and the bow and arrow which first made its appearance around 9000 BC.



Spear thrower carved with a leaping horse, Montastruc, France, circa 12,000 BC Late Paleolithic period.



Cave paintings at Lascaux, France, circa 20,000 BC. Late Paleolithic period.

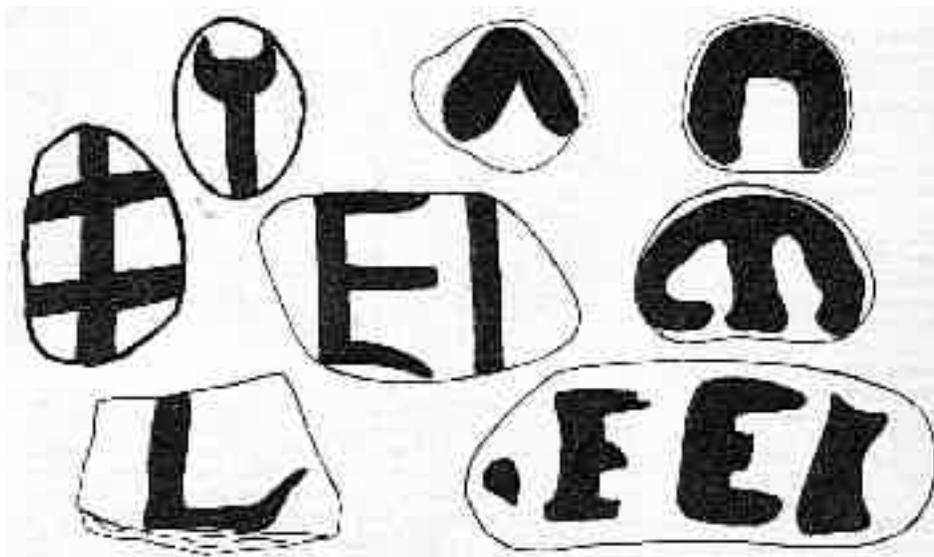
It was this period which produced, across Europe, a number of voluptuous female figure forms which have become known as "primitive venuses". It is speculated that these figurines are fertility symbols.



The earliest art: the Woman from Willendorf, present day Austria, dating from 30,000 BC. Late Paleolithic period.

AZILIAN ART - FIRST WRITING?

Perhaps the greatest difficulty of studying people of the Late Paleolithic age was that they left no written records of their achievements - only paintings on rock walls. One of the best preserved examples is also the most intriguing - the rock paintings found in caves of Mes d'Azil in southern France. Here stones were found with what appears to be writing on them - although they have never been deciphered, if they are indeed writing, then they might be the first and oldest form of written communication in the world.

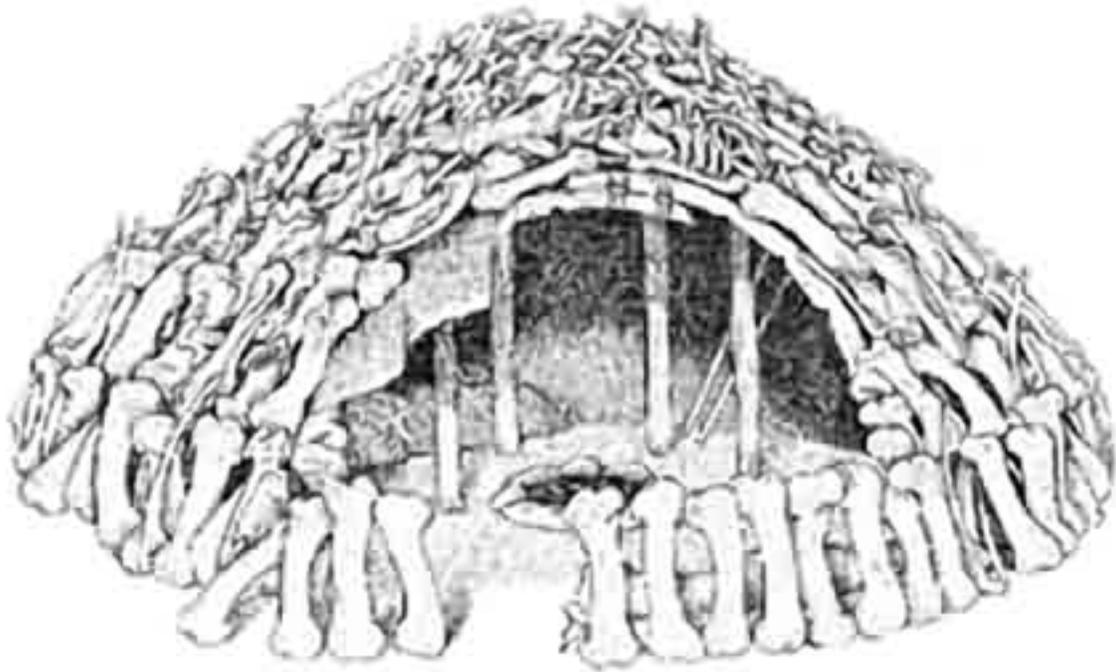


The Azilian "alphabet" stones, some 9000 years old. Discovered in the south of France, archaeologists are still debating if they are in fact writing or not. They do bear an uncanny resemblance to scripts which were developed several thousands of years later. If it is writing, then it is the oldest on earth.

EARLIEST HOUSES

The earliest remains of buildings date from the time of the hunters of the Late Paleolithic period who inhabited the areas now known as the Czech and Slovak republics and southern Russia. To withstand the cold weather, Late Paleolithic hunter groups made clothes from sewn skins - traces of which have survived in sites in the Czech and Slovak republics.

Mammoths - elephantine creatures now extinct - were hunted during this time period and houses were constructed out of mammoth ribs (which were used as roof supports). There are also traces of Late Paleolithic people having used the limestone caves of Western Europe as shelters.



The first houses were constructed out of Mammoth bones and hide: this reconstruction is based on evidence found in southern Russia, dated between 30,000 and 20,000 BC.

All in all, Late Paleolithic life must have been bare, hard and cruel, with all the energies of the members of society being put almost solely into survival.

The transient nature of society at this time was the primary cause of the lack of any great fixed settlements - this would be a development that would come with the establishment of agriculture, a feature of the time period after 10,000 BC.

ALPINES EMERGE

Around this time, the Alpine sub grouping appeared: possibly as a result of mixing between the Proto-Nordic and Mediterranean types (this is however speculation).

These three groupings - Proto-Nordics, original Mediterraneans and Alpines - settled large parts of Europe and the Near and Middle East, a situation which remained stable until the entire continent

was subjected to invasions by White Nordic tribes - called the Indo-European peoples, which started around 5000 BC.

The Nordic Indo-European peoples and the Alpines today form the basis of the White race which inhabits Europe.



A small ivory head of a female figure with delicately carved features and stylized long hair, found at Brassempouy in France - circa 22,000 BC. This piece is exceptionally valuable as racial characteristics are clearly identifiable in the face.

The three White sub groupings - Nordic, Alpine and original Old European Mediterranean, were eventually together to dominate a band of territory stretching from Britain to the Ural Mountains; from Scandinavia to North Africa and the Near East; stretching through Egypt, Palestine, modern day Jordan, Syria, Iraq and Iran.

With the advent of time, the Middle and Near East was to become a maelstrom of races, with waves of settling Whites, Arabics, Semites and even Mongols all at one time or another dominating the region and establishing their own cultures and civilizations.

The present day inhabitants of the Near and Middle East are the product of many thousands of years of mixing between all these groupings, and traces of each of the original groupings can sometimes be

seen - blond haired Palestinians or blue eyed Iraqis are not unknown - the genetic evidence of the presence of White tribes which occupied that region in ancient times.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 3 : THE NEOLITHIC AGE

As the climate improved with the recession of the last great ice age, Late Paleolithic man gradually became more settled and started staying in favorable spots for longer than previously.

These first fixed settlements led to a shift from a food gathering society to a food cultivating society, and the appearance of crops and the domestication of animals become features of their way of life. This change in culture is called the Neolithic Age.

A regular and continuous food supply created by the establishment of farming meant that bigger populations could live in settled, more secure, areas, and this marked the first time that the luxury of non-food producing professions within society became possible.

This shift from hunter gatherer to settled agriculturalism occurred in fits and starts all over White occupied Europe and the Near East.



A Neolithic era axe

The earliest farming sites in northern Europe are to be found in Ireland, occurring at approximately the same time as the cultivation of crops in the Mesopotamian River valley in the Near East. As a general rule, the first Neolithic settlements can be said to have been established around 10,000 BC, and the cultivation of edible plants and the domestication of animals was commonplace all over Europe, the Near and Middle East by 5000 BC.

EUROPE AND THE MIDDLE EAST - EQUALLY ADVANCED

The existence of an original civilization on the continent of Europe which predates the civilizations in the Middle East, has to a large degree been ignored by traditional history writers, particularly those who wrote during the dominant Christian era in Europe.

This was largely because of a biblical Judeo-Christian bias which held that all civilization started in the Near East (the biblical Old Testament deals exclusively with events in the Middle East, and conventional wisdom during the Age of the Church held that the Garden of Eden was in the Middle East).

This is not an accurate reflection of the facts, as in many parts of Europe relatively advanced societies were in existence either before or simultaneously with the Mesopotamian or Egyptian civilizations.

While it is most certainly true that the great cities and states in the near and Middle East were towering achievements, it is incorrect to regard them as the only flowering of civilization in the world at that time.

There are many huge buildings - called megaliths - and early Neolithic settlements, artifacts and burial sites and even the creation of a form of writing, which show that the inhabitants of Europe were advanced in the evolution of their societies and culture.

This Old European civilization lasted for approximately 3000 years, and then fell before waves of new invaders, the Indo-European or Nordic tribes sweeping in from the area we now know as Russia.

SAME RACE AS IN ORIGINAL MIDDLE EAST

This is not to say that the original Old European inhabitants - mainly Mediterranean racial types with a minority of Proto-Nordics - were of a different race to those inhabitants of the Middle and Near East at that time.

Indeed, the first civilizations in the Mesopotamian River Valley (in present day Iraq) were also created by White Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic racial types, as can be seen by the large number of surviving artifacts and images dating from this period in early White history.

EUROPEAN CONTINENT

Cereal grain farms were established in central Europe by 8000 BC (almost simultaneous with the Mesopotamian "fertile crescent" river valley crop cultivation) with some of the best preserved farming settlements in France and Britain have been positively dated as being in existence prior to 4000 BC.

Significantly, copper working had been established in the Balkans by the year 5000 BC - some 2000 years before the first civilization in the Mesopotamian river valley.

In Neolithic Europe, where wood was abundant, rectangular timber houses were constructed. Some had two rooms and even gabled roofs. Remains found in Switzerland dating from around 5000 BC show that even on soft, swampy ground, the builders were able to erect houses by first laying down wooden foundations or on piles going deep into the ground.

By the year 5000 BC, White Neolithic settlements had taken on the form of established villages, towns and in a few cases, even cities, scattered throughout Europe, western and southern Russia.

These early Neolithic farmers cultivated cereals, and kept domesticated animals such as pigs, cattle and dogs. Farms were established across the European continent, with some of the best preserved sites being found in Ireland.

Their tools and hunting weapons were mostly made of flint, and their houses of timber. Clothes were made of leather, and there is also evidence of weaving. Other small implements were made of antler and bone, and they have left many examples of fairly sophisticated pottery.

BURIAL MOUNDS

The leaders of this early White society were buried according to religious rituals which are now unfortunately lost - but the physical graves are a good source of knowledge about their society as a whole. Important leaders were buried in specially constructed narrow mounds called barrows. The existence of these grave sites - and a number of chance discoveries of less important graves - have served as valuable indicators of the racial make-up of these early Europeans.

The general rule is that the further north, the more dominant Nordic or Proto-Nordic, while in places like Britain and central Europe, there were a significant number of Alpine and Mediterranean racial types.

WRITING - 4000 BC

These original continental European inhabitants had also developed a form of writing - called Old European linear script - around the year 4000 BC. The exact origins of this language are lost (there is evidence that some or all of it may have come from Indo-European or Nordic invaders who penetrated Europe from their bases in Southern Russia around this time).

This language most likely laid the basis for sharp angular writing known as runes.



Undeciphered writing on the Tartaria tablet, found in Tartaria, Rumania, and dated at 4500 BC - this competes with the Azilian script for the claim to the oldest writing on earth.

FIRE POTTERY AND GOLD WORKING

Hand fired pottery was produced in the Balkans around 6500 BC. Cities of more than 1000 inhabitants - huge by the standards of the time - had been established approximately by the year 5000 BC.

There are copper mine shafts - some 20 meters deep - still existing in the Balkans which date from before the year 4000 BC.

Gold worked jewelry discovered in the Balkans predates the gold working skills of the Egyptians by at least 1600 years. By the year 2500 BC, copper working had spread all over continental Europe, with archaeological evidence being found of extensive trade between settlements in England, France, Holland and into central Europe .

IRON WORKING

The introduction of iron working into Western and Northern Europe - around the year 1000 BC - from central Europe and the Near East - ushered in a new era, and it is from approximately this time that the early West Europeans started building hill top forts, which later evolved into castles. These hill top forts are scattered all over Europe, and some remained in use as forts right until the time of early Christianity, some 1600 years later.

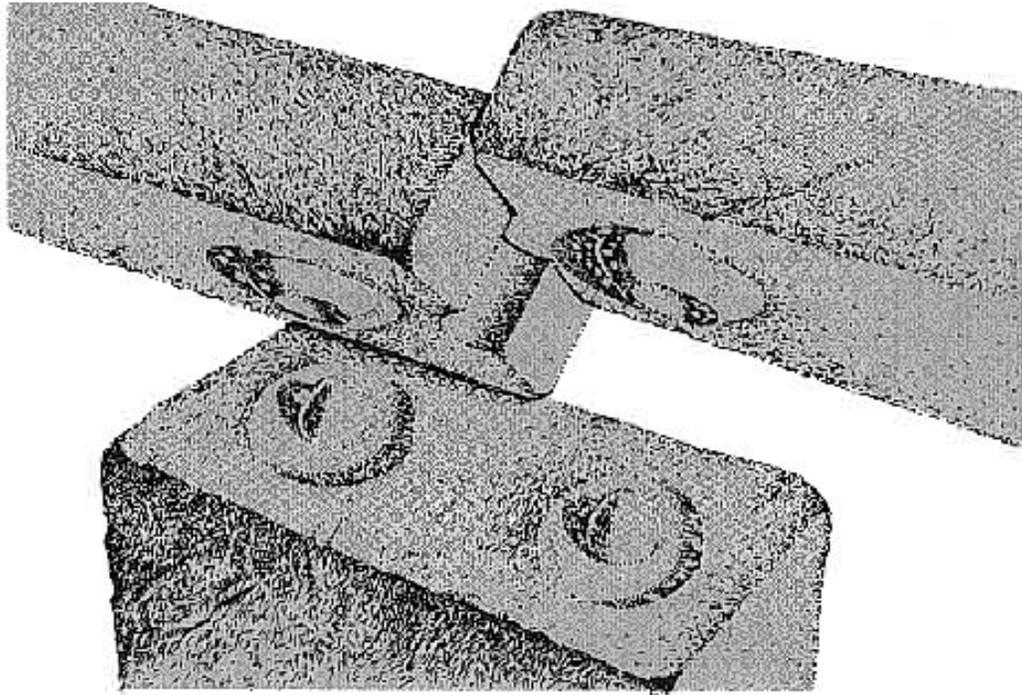
MEGALITHS

In many parts of Europe, the longest lasting remnants of this era are the megaliths ("large stones") which may have had some religious or recreational purpose. Massive blocks of stone, and sometimes wood, were moved great distances and erected in chosen areas throughout Europe, from Britain right across the continent, some even as far as the Black Sea - in Southern Russia - a stupendous achievement.

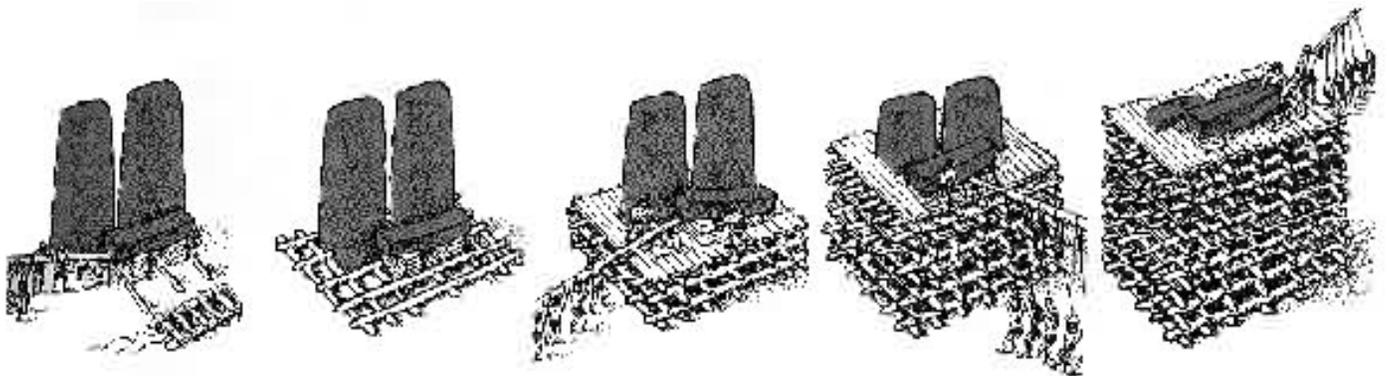
The most famous of these megalith sites is Stonehenge in Wiltshire, England, which was built in stages, the first part being erected between 3500 BC and 3000 BC.

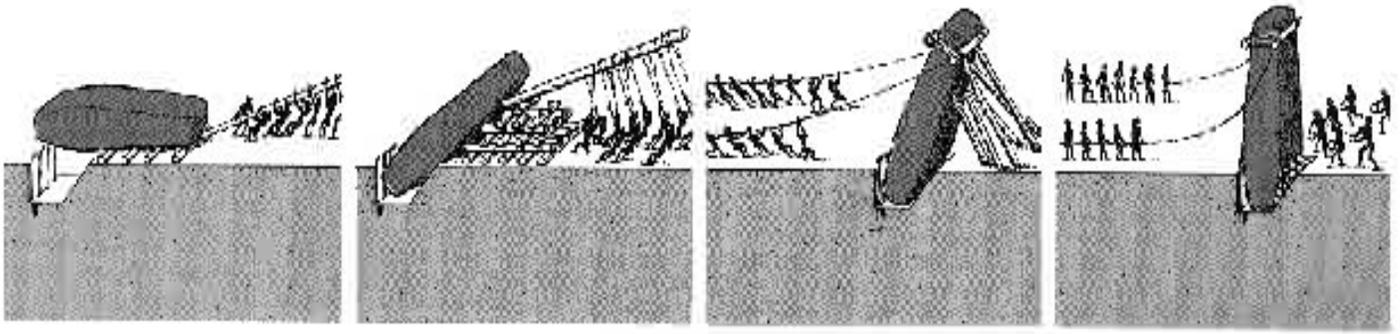


Stonehenge, England, circa 3500 - 1500 BC. Neolithic Period.



The stones used at Stonehenge were cut on site and used an ingenious ball and joint system to lock into place, as illustrated above. The ball can still be clearly seen on the top of the upright stone below. The White people who built Megalith monuments such as these were no intellectual or technical barbarians, proving wrong the often malicious propaganda portraying the inhabitants of early Europe as savage barbarians who lived in caves.





Above: Building Megaliths was no easy task. The effort required to pull one of the massive stones erect was in itself a marathon effort, and then raising the equally huge lintels onto the top of other stones required a great deal of planning and foresight. Exactly how the early Whites did it is still a puzzle to archeology. These illustrations of how the stones were raised and of how a lintel was placed are the most commonly accepted theories of how these superhuman feats were achieved thousands of years ago.

To put this in perspective: the first stage of Stonehenge was built about 1000 years before the great Egyptian pyramids were built. (The last part of Stonehenge was built around the year 1000 BC - hundreds of years before even the Greek and Roman civilizations.) Neolithic farmers in Europe created a number of other impressive structures predating even Stonehenge.

One of the earliest is situated quite close to Stonehenge, called (confusingly) Robin Hood's Ball, which consists of what appear to be circular foundations for either a large hall or number of buildings and a grave site (judging by the human remains found in surrounding ditches). This structure dates from the very early Neolithic time, around 4000 BC, and indicates the establishment of set social structures at this early stage of European history.

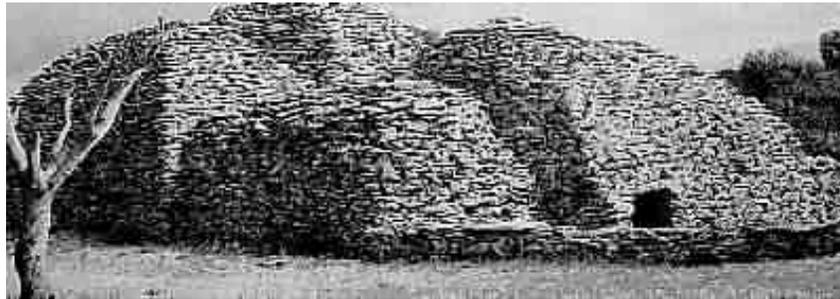
Often overlooked as historical evidence for the technological ability of the Neolithic settlements are the burial chambers and tombs which are scattered over large parts of Europe: some of the oldest megalithic chamber tombs had been radio carbon dated at 6000 BC - some 2,300 years older than the famous Egyptian pyramids.



Megalith temple, Malta, circa 3000 BC. Neolithic period.



Megalith tomb walls, intricately carved, dating from before 3000 BC, Brittany, France.



Neolithic Hall, Bories, near Gordes in France.

There are four types of megaliths: the menhir, or monolith, a single standing stone often of great size; a set of menhirs set in a circle, as at Stonehenge in England; a row of menhirs such as those to be found at Carnac in France; and the burial chamber, or chamber tomb, sometimes called a dolmen.

The chamber tombs are the most common type of megalith : more than 50,000 examples have been found on the European continent. Some of these tombs' interiors were decorated with intricate stone carvings and geometrical patterns, making stunning viewing even thousands of years after they were created.

The "Lux et Orient" or "All light comes from the East" dogma which Christianity introduced, held that all progress and civilization came from the Middle East. With accurate dating methods and intensified archeological research, it has now been shown that advanced civilizations flourished in Europe, sometimes thousands of years before similar technological advances were made in the Middle East.



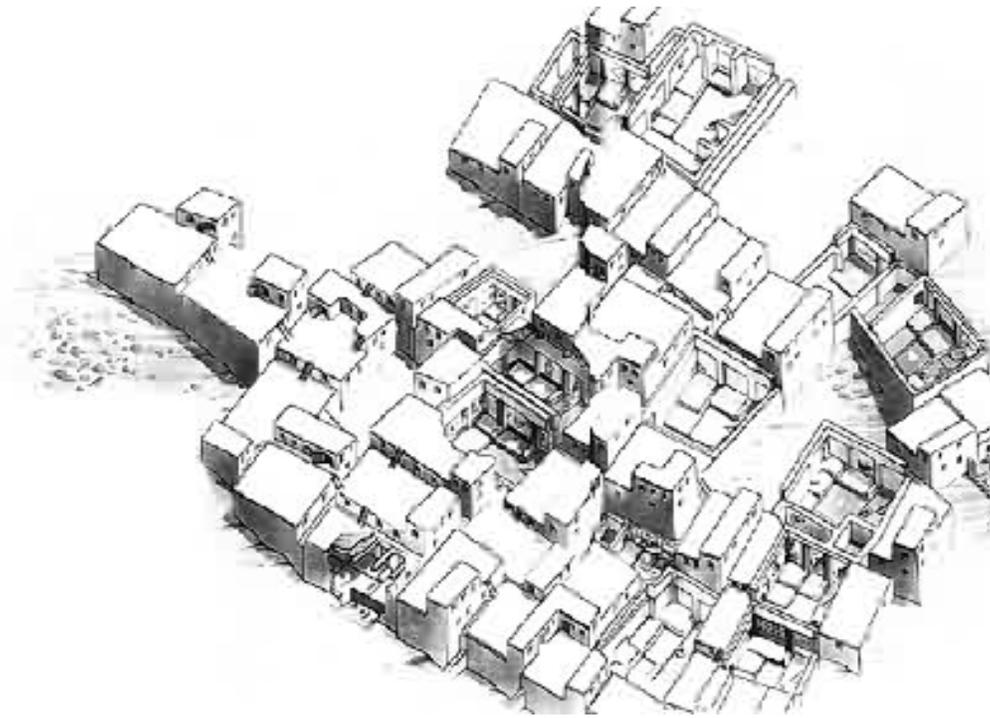
One of the oldest pyramids in the world is to be found near the present day town of Marlborough, in Wiltshire, Britain. Called Silbury Hill, it is the largest prehistoric mound anywhere in Europe, standing nearly 40 meters high. It dates from around 2660 BC, preceding the great pyramids of Egypt. Although today covered with soil, excavations have revealed a carefully constructed step pyramid under the silt (as shown in the illustration below). The exact purpose of the pyramid is unknown, but it forms part of the great Avebury stone ring complex, which includes a stone circle larger than Stonehenge and a series of barrow tombs. The enormity of the building stands as a monument to the intellectual abilities of the Whites of early Britain. These were no uncivilized barbarians who erected these technically sophisticated structures.



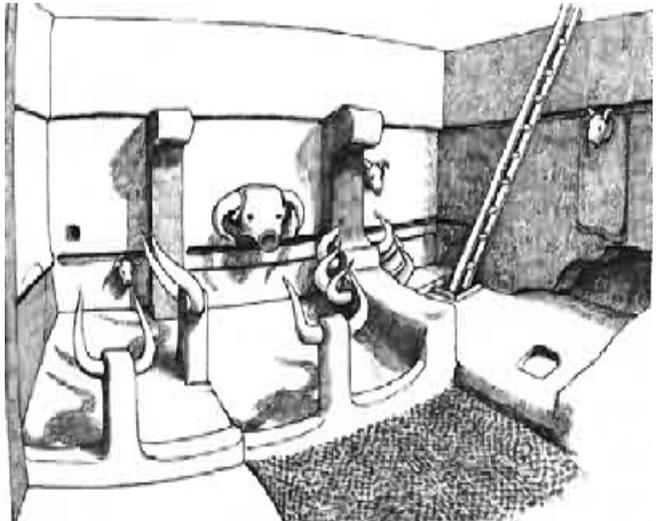
WORLD'S OLDEST CITIES - 7000 BC

The growth of Neolithic settlements in Europe were matched by the growth of similar settlements in the Middle and Near East, with once again the majority of the population being Mediterranean racial types with a not insignificant number of Proto-Nordics accompanying them, very often as tribal leaders (a tradition which was most pronounced in Egypt).

By 7000 BC a town of mud brick houses and town walls had been built by Mediterraneans at the site now known as Jericho in Palestine. In Anatolia, Turkey, remains of another major city, Catal Huyuk, have been excavated, dating from approximately 6200 BC. This city also possessed brick making facilities, as well as the already established cereal crop cultivations.



Above: A reconstruction of the first city in the world, Catal Huyuk, Anatolia, present day Turkey. This city flourished from about 6250 BC to 5400 BC, and was excavated in part in 1961. The photo below left, shows the rectangular shape of the buildings: as there is no readily available stone to build defensive walls, the buildings were made to face inwards, with no windows on the outside. The only entrance to the city was through ladders leading onto the roofs of the outside buildings. The streetless city offered a high degree of protection from outside attackers in this way - if under attack, the outside ladders were withdrawn, and any would be attacker was faced with a solid wall and no gate or other weak point. This city marked a revolution in Neolithic settlements. The people of Catal Huyuk were most likely farmers and cattle herders who needed to live closely to the broad plain stretching to the north of the city. Hence the shrine discovered in the city, below left, which appears to be linked to some sort of Bull cult.



All over the near East around the year 5000 BC farming villages were established upon which the non food producing professions could be built. At this time pottery made its appearance in large quantities throughout the areas of Neolithic settlement. In the Middle and Near East, these racial types were eventually displaced and intermingled with massive waves of Semitic, Arabic, along with imported Negroid slaves and eventually even Mongoloid invaders. It is from this mixture that the modern Egyptian and many other North Africans are descended.

OLD EUROPEAN

With the creation of fixed settlements and continuous, albeit slow, technological advances, it became inevitable that these communities would take their next great step: the establishment of a system of literacy and a formal social contract between the individuals making up communities - the creation of laws and formal ways of interaction.

The creation of fixed settlements in Europe and the Near East as a result of the farming revolution known as the Neolithic age laid the basis for the next great leap in White civilization: the establishment of Old European civilizations in central Europe and in the Near East.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 4 : THE OLD EUROPEAN CIVILIZATIONS

As the Neolithic revolution became more widespread and larger fixed settlements began to spring up, it became inevitable that these Old Europeans and Proto-Nordic types would start establishing formal societies. The so called "Old European" civilizations then came into being, laying much of the groundwork for the later development of Classical Greece and Rome. Although these Old European civilizations were in fact quite distinct from classical Greece and Rome, they are often mistakenly thought of as one and the same thing.

The original, or Old European settlements, dominated huge areas of Europe and Russia, stretching from Italy right through to the Black sea, including all of modern Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria and part of the Ukraine.

The crucial difference is however that the Old European civilizations were created by the original continental Europeans (Proto-Nordic, Alpine and Mediterranean, with the latter two being in the majority) while the classical civilizations of Greece and Rome received their impetus from Indo-European or Nordic invasions which had started around 5000 BC.

The continental Old European civilizations in the Aegean were the Cretan civilization, centered at Knossos on the island of Crete; the city state of Troy situated slightly south of the Bosphorus straits in Asia Minor; certain smaller city states on the Greek mainland; and the Etruscans in Italy.

These city states were the first to fall before the great Indo-European invasions, people who had mastered the art of copper working. Absorbed into the Indo-European peoples, the Old Europeans largely disappeared and this mix of White peoples laid the basis for the Mycenaean culture which replaced the Cretan civilization as the dominant force in the Aegean.

CRETE - WORLD'S FIRST FLUSHING TOILETS

The island of Crete, situated to the south of Greece, was the home to the Cretan civilization, also known as the Minoan civilization (named after Minos, in legend the most powerful of the Cretan kings).

The original Mediterranean racial composition of this first Cretan civilization has been confirmed by the anatomists Bowdler Dawkins, W.L.H. Duckworth and Felix von Lauschan, all of whom excavated and examined skeletal remains on Crete: their unanimous conclusion was that the Cretans were all members of the (now virtually extinct) Mediterranean subrace. (Race, John R. Baker, Oxford University Press, 1974, page 516).

This skeletal evidence is backed up by the art forms left by the Cretans themselves, particularly in the depictions of social events which are still existent on the walls of the now ruined great Cretan palace at Knossos.



A statue of a goddess from the Old European civilization of Crete. A large number of artifacts such as these have survived in remarkably good condition, affording an excellent opportunity to observe the racial types of the Old Europeans.



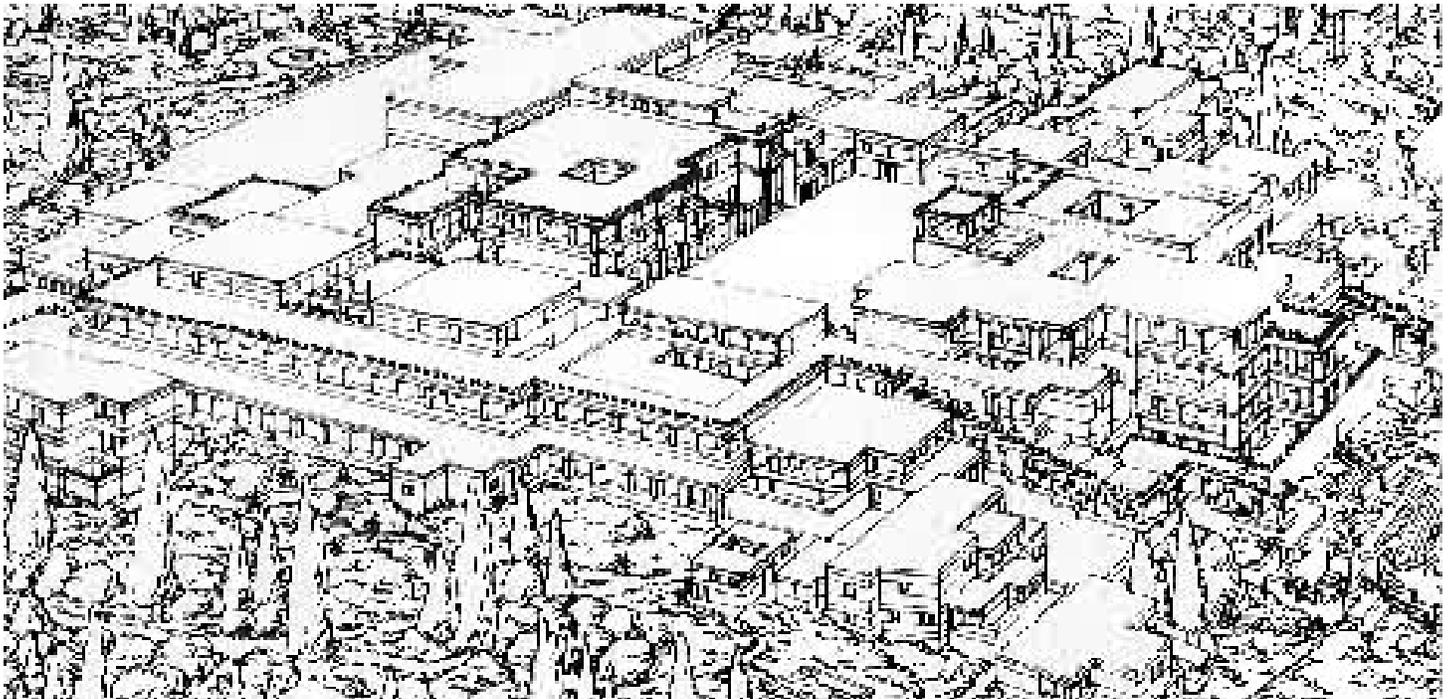
An excellent image of three Old European, or Mediterranean, racial types, taken from a surviving fresco on the walls of the ruins of the palace at Knossos. The links between this ancient civilization and ancient Egypt are confirmed through surviving records and the fact that the artists at Knossos followed the Egyptian convention of painting males with red skins and females with white skins.

By the year 3000 BC, Crete had contact with the budding Egyptian civilization, and many Cretan religious customs and social habits were taken directly from Egypt. Being an island state, it would be fairly logical

that the Cretans would possess well developed seafaring skills.

The Cretans were governed by a priest king who had his residence at Knossos. This palace rose several stories high and was the ultimate in luxury at the time.

The city of Knossos itself appears to have been destroyed by an earthquake in 1400 BC - the result of the titanic volcanic eruption which destroyed the neighbouring island civilization of Santorini. However, enough artifacts have survived to enable a clear picture of the racial types who inhabited the island to be formed. Most of the walls were of painted plaster, decorated with elaborate frescoes, with the most famous being of a Cretan national sport, "bull jumping" - where brave athletes would grab a charging bull by the horns and somersault backwards over the length of the bull's body.



A reconstruction of the palace of Knossos on the island of Crete - a magnificent example of Old European civilization at its height. The palace remains suffered earthquake damage and possible war damage after the Old European civilizations were toppled by Nordic Indo-European invaders. The reconstruction is based on archeological evidence and images discovered on site.



A general view of the site of Knossos as it may be seen today. Knossos was also the site of the legendary Minotaur, or half bull, half man creature in Greek mythology, and of the labyrinth or maze in which the Minotaur lived.



The oldest existing throne in the world - the Throne of Minos, still in its original place in the remains of Knossos, cut out of stone and built into the wall, circa 2000 BC.

Minoan art provides fascinating insights into the nature of the society at the time - men and women dressed for the warm climate, with women bare breasted, and men beardless. Ancient Cretans followed the Egyptian artistic convention of painting males with red skins and females with white skins. Flowers, plants, sea creatures and dolphins feature prominently in their art forms, indicating that their society was advanced and wealthy enough to concern itself beyond just basic survival activities.

One interesting first produced by the Cretan palace of Knossos was the first running water sanitation system - the first "flushing" toilet in the world.

The exact date of the collapse of the Cretan civilization is unfortunately not recorded, but it stopped functioning as a cultural unit when the island was invaded by an Indo-European Nordic tribe, the Myceneans, around the year 1500 BC.

The Cretans were thereafter physically absorbed into the Myceneans, and later became an integral part of the civilization of classical Greece.

In 1900, a British archaeologist, Sir Arthur Evans, rediscovered Knossos and found baked clay tablets with two types of writing, dating from around 2000 BC.

These are called Linear A and Linear B scripts, possibly the oldest identifiable forms of European continental writing (if the "writing stone" found at the Caves of Mes d' Azil in France and the Tatria Tablet from Romania are discounted).



A clay tablet with Linear Script B, circa 1800 BC. Indo-European Mycenean writing found on Crete.

Later research showed that the Linear B script was a form of Mycenean writing, (and which has been deciphered) while the Linear A script was original Cretan (and which has not been deciphered).

TROY - FIRST BUILT 3000 BC

Around the year 750 BC, two great epics, the Iliad and the Odyssey, were set down and attributed to the blind poet Homer. The Iliad describes the war between the Greek city states and the city of Troy, while the Odyssey tells of the adventures of an Ionian king Odysseus, during his return journey home after the war with Troy ended.

For many years the city of Troy was thought to exist only in Homer's poems and was associated with the famous story of the Wooden Horse. The city of Troy was however, actually discovered in 1870 by an amateur archaeologist, Heinrich Schliemann. Instead of discovering just one city, Schliemann unearthed a total of nine cities, all built on top of one another, indicating a whole period of history about which very little is known.

The earliest city on the site dates from about 3000 BC and the various cities (called Troy I - IX) were alternatively destroyed by earthquakes, fire or war, as recounted in Homer's poems. It is difficult to state for certainty how much of the wooden horse story is true (where Greek soldiers are supposed to have infiltrated the city of Troy hidden in a trick wooden horse after unsuccessfully having besieged Troy for nearly ten years) but it is likely to have some basis in fact as Troy and many Greek City States were at war with one another around the year 1,200 BC.

The last Trojan city, number IX, appears to have been a Greek and later a Roman city known as Ilium.

As with Crete, the date of the exact end of Troy has also been lost with the passage of time.



Once thought only to exist in the imagination of the poet Homer, the city of Troy did in fact exist and was discovered by the German archeologist, Heinrich Schliemann. Nine different cities were built on the site, one on top of each other, and very little is known about some of the earliest. The photograph above, shows the main north eastern tower of the sixth city; the steps to the right and the walls next to the steps and at the base of the tower date from the eighth city. The wall at the very left of the picture dates from the city built by the Romans on the spot. Troy was originally founded by the Old European civilizations and was occupied by numerous powers during its history: hence the nine different layers which were found.

Below: A Trojan bowman, carved from marble. A figure on the east facade of the temple of Aphaia, in Aegina, Greece.



By the time Troy had fallen, the great Indo-European invasions of the Greek mainland had already started, and it is possible that the city itself may at one stage have been destroyed during one of these invasions.

THE ETRUSCANS

The Etruscans became one of the original Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic peoples living in the Italian peninsula before the Indo-European invaders reached that part of the world. Originally called the Villanovans (after a place where they lived), the Etruscans appear to have penetrated Italy from somewhere north of the Alps and seem to have had close contact with some of the Old European civilizations in the Aegean sea, as they adopted Greek characters for writing their language.

Villanovan grave sites have revealed a rich yield of impressive worked metal armor and personal artifacts, some dating from 1000 BC, the time when iron working first became widespread in Italy.

With the advantage provided by iron weapons, the Etruscans quickly subdued other original Mediterranean peoples in Italy, and established a state running from the North in the Po River valley to about a third of the way from the end of the Italian peninsula.

Their most notable achievement was however the settlement of some towns and concentrated urban areas, one of which was later to become the city state of Rome.



An exquisite sculpture, from a sixth century BC Etruscan sarcophagus, is a marvelous representation of the racial characteristics of the Etruscan peoples, who occupied the Italian peninsula before the arrival of the Indo-European Latini tribe. The Latini, who gave their name to the language they spoke, Latin, mixed with the Etruscans and from this combined group came the original Romans.



Etruscan females, illustrations from Etruscan graves at Corneto, Italy. On the left, an original Proto-Nordic Etruscan, on the right, an original Mediterranean type Etruscan.

With the arrival of new invading Indo-European tribes - in this case the most important being the Latini - the Etruscans were absorbed into the new Roman state, with the last official Etruscan king being expelled from Rome in 509 BC. After a few hundred years, the assimilation process between the Etruscans and the Indo-European Latini tribe - the Romans - had reached the point where the Romans offered the Etruscans full Roman citizenship by 100 BC.

By this time the Etruscan heritage had been completely taken up into the new power which was to dominate the known world in a way not seen before: the Roman Empire.

MIDDLE AND NEAR EAST

In addition to the Old European civilizations on the European continent, the Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic sub-racial groupings had by 4000 BC also occupied much of what is today known as the Middle East - from Egypt through to the "fertile crescent", the region between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers, now lying in modern day Iraq.

These original Mediterraneans were responsible for many of the civilizations in that region. They were subject to almost constant invasion: either by waves of Nordic Indo-Europeans from the north, or by waves of invading Semites, from the south. Sometimes these Old Europeans managed to defeat the invaders, but more often than not they were unable to resist. In this way they were gradually absorbed into the gene pools of their conquerors - these events are reviewed in another chapter.

ANCIENT WHITE CIVILIZATION IN INDIA - THE INDUS RIVER VALLEY

One of the most far-flung of the Old European settlements is to be found centered in modern day northern India. Known as the Harappan culture (after an excavated city, Harappa in modern Pakistan) or the Indus Valley Civilization, it was unknown until 1927 when the first major excavations took place. The remains of settlements belonging to this culture have been found throughout the Indus River valley in Pakistan, westward along the coast to the Iranian border, in India's northwestern states as far east as New Delhi and on the Oxus River in northern Afghanistan.

OLD EUROPEAN SKULLS FOUND IN INDUS RIVER VALLEY

The Old European - White Mediterranean - racial makeup of the people who created the Indus River Valley civilization has been proven by an examination of skulls and skeletal remains, undertaken by Col. R.B.S. Selwell and Dr. B.S. Guha of the Zoological Society of India, who both conclusively found that virtually all were of the Mediterranean subrace. (Chapter 11, in Marshall, J, Mohenjo-Daro and the Indus Civilization, 1931, London.)



Above: A bust recovered from Mohenjo-Daro showing the racial type of the original inhabitants of this civilization, which extended as far north as the borders of modern day Afghanistan. These White Mediterraneans were absorbed into two sets of outsiders: the non-White dark skinned locals and eventually Nordic Indo-Aryan invaders around 1500 BC. A detailed study of the racial composition of the inhabitants of this region - taken from grave sites - confirms the great mix of racial types and then ultimately the vanishing of the original Old Europeans into this new mixed population.

FIRST WHITE SETTLEMENT CIRCA 2500 BC

The first Old European settlement of the region was made around 2500 BC, when the White Mediterraneans probably arrived after trekking from the Tigris and Euphrates river valley. In the region, they found darker natives, whom they easily subjected. The Old European civilization lasted until the region was invaded by Indo-European Nordics around 1500 BC. The two major cities of the Indus Valley civilization were Mohenjo Daro, in the lower Sind, and Harappa in the Punjab. As a result, the civilization has also become known as the Harappan civilization.

In many respects the cities of the Old European Indus Valley civilization are almost identical to that of other old European civilizations, particularly that at Knossos on Crete. Even the layout of the cities, with their huge square buildings, is identical.

MOHENJO-DARO - THE LARGEST CITY

The major site in this region is the city of Mohenjo-Daro. The remains of this citadel - excavated between 1927 and 1930 - bears huge physical resemblances with the Old European settlements in early Mesopotamia and Crete. At its peak, Mohenjo-Daro must have had over 40,000 inhabitants, a substantial

amount for the time. The city was based on an advanced grid plan layout, with streets running in very clearly arranged city blocks.



The Old European Indus River Valley civilization. In 1921 the first excavations were undertaken of this White Mediterranean civilization situated in the present day Sind and Punjab regions of India. Settled by Old Europeans around 2500 BC, possibly migrants from the Tigris/Euphrates River area, the greatest city of this civilization was Mohenjo-Daro, whose ruins (above) and water borne sewerage system (below) are architectural wonders.



ADVANCED WATER RETICULATED SEWERAGE SYSTEM

The most astonishing aspect of the city however remains the sewerage system - the people of Mohenjo-Daro developed both public and private hygiene to a degree unmatched in many parts of the modern world. Each house, large or small, was provided with earthenware pipe fitted crossways into the walls and opening into a small individual gutter. This in turn, joined central covered sewers. At intervals there were decantation ditches where the main sewers joined. These were designed to collect the heaviest waste so that it would not obstruct the mains.

The houses also all had baths - another innovation for the time - and the water for this purpose was supplied from the many wells throughout the city, some accessible from the streets, and others incorporated into the houses themselves. All the Indus River Valley civilization towns show great building works and an orderly administration built upon an agricultural economy.

Many of the houses were built on mud-brick platforms that protected the buildings from seasonal floods,

and multiple storey dwellings were common. Other structures include large buildings that may have been used for storing grain and for government. The Old European inhabitants of The Indus River Valley had also developed pictographic writing. A large number of clay seals bearing this language have been recovered, but sadly has never been deciphered.

1500 BC: OLD EUROPEANS ABSORBED INTO DARK NATIVES AND NORDIC INDO-EUROPEAN INVADERS

It is often suggested that the drying up of a major river in North India - the Hakra River - was the cause of the collapse of the Indus River Valley Civilization. This however is not the likely cause of the collapse of the entire culture, spread out, as it was, far further than just around one river.

The real reason for the disappearance of the people of the Indus River Valley is in fact much simpler - like all of the Old European civilizations, the Indus Valley Harappans were to be overwhelmed and integrated into other peoples, be they the dark natives or the new White invaders, the Indo-European Aryans (as detailed in chapter 5).

In this way all the original White Mediterranean civilizations - from western Europe right through to northern India - were all but wiped out through racial assimilation.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

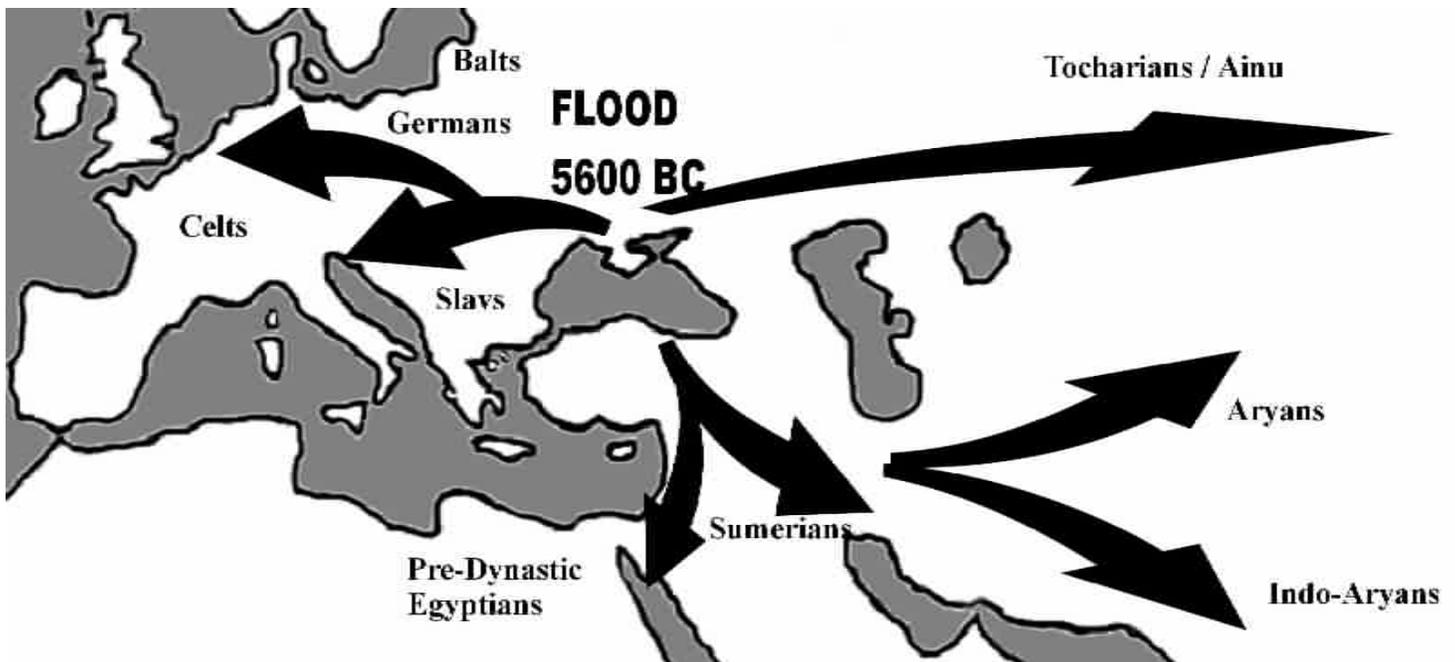
CHAPTER 5 : THE INDO-EUROPEAN INVASIONS

Most modern day Whites are to the greatest part, either direct or part descendants of a great wave of White peoples who swept into Europe from about 5000 BC till around 500 BC - these peoples, Nordic in terms of the White racial sub-groupings, had their original heartland in the region known today as central and southern Russia (hence Whites are often today called Caucasians - after the Caucasus mountains which are situated in the southern reaches of that country).

It is still unknown precisely what caused these Indo-European peoples to start migrating. Recent research indicates that the flooding of the Black Sea basin from the Mediterranean - established as a factual occurrence around 5600 BC - was the probable cause of the first great movements, and the time scale would certainly fit.

Meltwaters from the retreating icesheets at the end of the Pleistocene caused the world's oceans to rise by almost 100 meters. In 5600 BC, the rising waters of the Mediterranean Sea burst through the narrow neck of the Bosphorus, inundating and destroying the civilizations ringing the fertile Black Sea basin. It is this catastrophe which triggered the great Indo-European migrations and spawned the Biblical legend of the flood, familiar to adherents of the Christian faith.

With the aid of the horse, the first Indo-Europeans moved in all directions, disrupting the slow but steady pace of development everywhere they went. Large numbers settled in northern Europe, staying there till they later began again to move south; others moved off to the Middle and Near East, while others ventured west, crossing into Britain and Spain.



Leaving the Black Sea Basin, the Nordic Indo-European peoples invaded Europe and Asia. Europe was settled by four main groups: the Celts, the Germans, the Balts and the Slavs. In the south they settled pre-dynastic Egypt and the Middle East, penetrating India (the Indo-Aryans); Afghanistan (the Aryans); China (the Tocharians) and Japan (the Ainu) - See chapter six.

The difference between the western and eastern migrations of the Indo-Europeans was that in the west they mixed with genetically similar populations - while in the east they mixed with, and were eventually submerged by, genetically dissimilar peoples.

BATTLE AXE PEOPLE - THEIR IRON-MAKING ADVANTAGE

These Nordics slowly crept westward, invading and re-invading western Europe for a period of nearly 6000 years, finally resulting in the establishment of a new Nordic heartland in northern Europe.

Their great advantage over the already existing White Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic populations was that they brought with them the secret of iron working: this is why some became known as the "battle axe people".

From this heartland in northern Europe - the womb of nations (vagina gentium, as the Romans called the region) successive waves of Indo-European Nordic invaders swept down over a period of centuries into all parts of Europe and into the Near East, conquering or displacing the peoples they found.

These original Nordic tribes had stone buildings and worked bronze and copper. How much of this metal working skill was passed south to the middle eastern civilizations remains a matter of debate.

However, what is certain is that successive waves of Nordic tribes started invading central and southern Europe in earnest about 2000 BC, and caused the Old European civilizations to topple. Nordic tribes occupied large regions of Turkey, Crete, Greece and southern Europe and Italy.

The invading Nordics soon integrated with the largely Mediterranean populations of these areas and in many cases provided the leadership elite of these territories.

Some Nordic tribes migrated into the Far East - as far as China, where some Nordic remains have been found in burial chambers. The Indo-European Nordic tribes were responsible for many of the world's principal civilizations: the Aryans in India, the Kassites, the Hittites, Persian, Mycenaean, Greek, Roman, Celtic, Teutonic, Slavic and latter day Western European cultures.

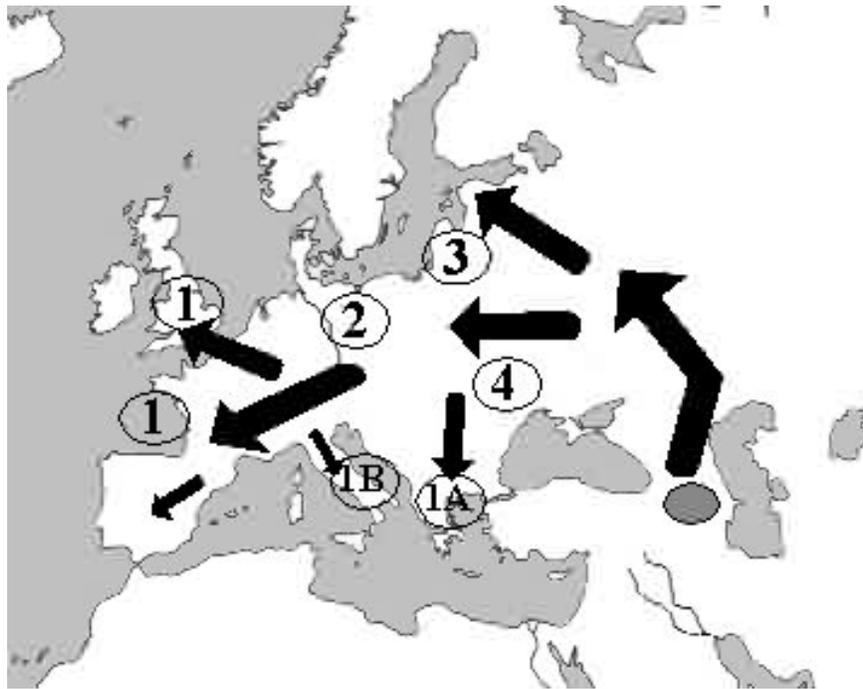
THE INDO-EUROPEAN INVASIONS - PART ONE

EUROPE

The largest Indo-European invasion of Europe was carried out by four main groups:

- The Celts;
- The Germans;
- The Balts; and
- The Slavs.

All of these four major groupings arrived in the European continent in waves from around 4000 BC up to as late as 500 BC.



The great Nordic Indo-European invasions of Europe took place in four main waves, and then in a number of sub waves. Each sub wave was a smaller tribe from one of the four major migrations. Leaving their ancestral homeland in the Caucasus, the Celts (1); the Germans (2), the Balts (3) and the Slavs (4) settled different regions of Europe, often giving their names to those regions. Sub waves of note included the Mycenae (1A) into Greece and the Latini (1B) into Italy - both of these sparked off the great Classical civilizations for which those lands became famous. In all of these regions, the invaders found the already present population of Old Europeans to be largely racially assimilable. Hence the Latini mixed with the Etruscans in Italy, producing a Nordic/Mediterranean mix which typified the original Roman type. The same process occurred in Ireland, which is the cause of the "Irish look" varying between Nordic (blue eyed and blonde) and dark hair and dark eyes, or dark hair and light eyes.

The word Celt itself derived from the word Keltói, the name given to the invaders by the Greek writer Herodotus. To the Romans, the Celts were known as Galli, or Gauls; and in British Isles as Britanni.

Celtic tribes invaded Greece and Italy. In 390 BC Celts sacked Rome itself, and followed this up with a raid on the holy Greek site of Delphi in 279 BC.

Although these Indo-European tribes used different names, they were all of common Nordic sub-racial stock. Their languages all stemmed from a single proto-Indo-European language, which formed at a time when all of their ancestors lived together in their original Indo-European heartland in modern day Russia.

The influx of a relatively large amount of new Nordic sub-groupings into Europe affected the racial make-up of the various regions in different ways, depending upon the nature of the already existing original European population living there.

In areas where there was a sparse population, or where there was a greater degree of Proto-Nordics living, the Indo-Europeans maintained to a greater degree their Nordic characteristics.

Where there was an already existing Proto-Nordic/Alpine/Mediterranean mix, the nordicism of the new arrivals was soon diluted. The least populated areas and the least Alpine/Mediterranean peoples were in northern and western Europe, and these areas became a new Nordic heartland, a situation which has remained unaltered until very recently.

BRITAIN NAMED AFTER BRITANNI CELTS

By 600 BC, the Britanni Celts had occupied much of what is today known as western Europe - France, parts of the Low countries (Belgium, Holland), Britain and Spain. The very names Brittany (in France) and Britain itself are derived from this group.

These Celts migrating westward found the regions relatively sparsely populated with an already quite mixed Proto-Nordic/Alpine/Mediterranean peoples. In most parts the Celts mixed easily with these groupings, producing a wide range of sub grouping racial types. This has led to the Celtic "look" varying between the typical short, brown eyed and haired "Celtic" Welshman; and the red haired blue eyed Scotsman also being called a "Celt."

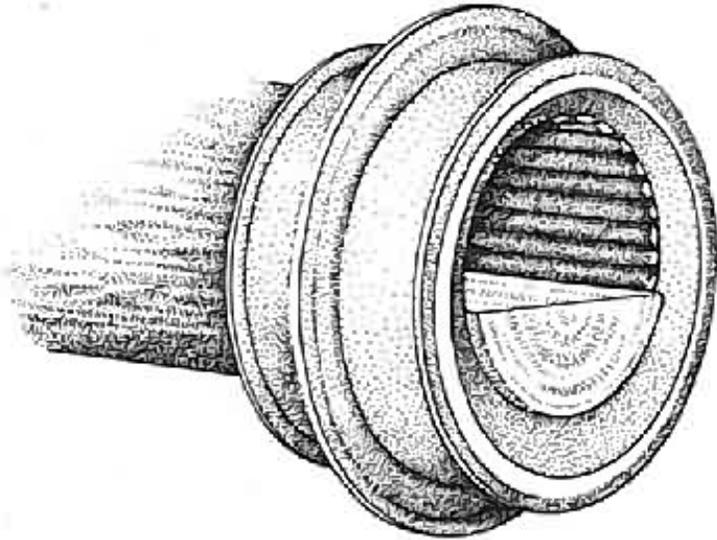
These western European Celts were later to be overrun by the descendants of other Indo-European tribes who had invaded Italy and had become the Romans.

THE GERMANS AND BALTS IN CENTRAL AND NORTHERN EUROPE

The Germani Indo-European tribes initially settled in what is today Denmark and southern Scandinavia around the year 4000 BC, but soon thereafter starting moving south, closer to central Europe, later giving their name to Germany.

The Balts occupied the northern coast of the continent (giving their name to the Baltic sea) and the Scandinavian countries (dominating them, with the notable exception of Finland, which has to this day retained a large part of its original Alpine/Mediterranean population make-up).





A wagon which summarizes the technical sophistication of pre-Roman Germans: The Dejbjerg wagon from Denmark, circa 500 BC, includes an astonishingly sophisticated roller bearing system of wooden pins in a bronze brace, to facilitate the turning of the wheel on its axle. Such sophisticated technology shows that the Pre-Roman Empire Celts, Germans, Balts and Slavs were actually not "barbarians" at all but highly developed people capable of stunning technological feats.

From 1800 to 400 BC, Celts in southern Germany and Austria developed two advanced metalworking cultures, named by archaeologists after the places where the most plentiful artifacts were found: Urnfield and Hallstatt in Upper Austria. The skills developed in each of these two spread throughout Europe - they introduced the use of iron for tools and weapons.

In Central Europe the Germans also established themselves in a wide belt running from eastern France through to Poland and south into the Balkans. It is presumed that advance parties of Germans could also have been responsible for the wave of Indo-European peoples called the Latini, who penetrated Italy around this time.

THE CELTS IN SOUTHERN EUROPE

A tribe of Indo-Europeans called the Latini penetrated as far south as Italy, taking control of that peninsula and mixing with the existing original European populations in Italy, and creating what was later to become the world's greatest empire - Rome. The Latini gave their name to the language they carried with them, Latin. In an act of irony, Roman military power was to later overwhelm their distant Indo-European cousins, the Celts in France and Britain, but was in turn to be overrun by the descendants of the Indo-European Germans.

The Latini were not the only Celts to move down the Italian peninsula. Around 400 BC yet another tribe of Celts invaded Northern Italy, drove out an Etruscan settlement and founded the city of Milan. In 390 BC, a Celtic army even succeeded in invading the city of Rome itself, and only left once the Romans had paid them a ransom in gold.

In southern France and Spain the Celts met and mixed with a well established Mediterranean population, losing much of their original Nordic physiology because of the far greater number of Mediterraneans present in that region. Many of these Celtic/Mediterranean peoples in Spain were later to be occupied by Arabic Islamic armies during the first thousand years AD. Intermingling with the Arabic conquerors produced many people in Spain who are actually Celtic/Mediterranean/Arabic mixes, displaying none of the physical characteristics of their original Indo-European ancestors.

There are however still many examples of original Celtic and Mediterranean peoples in Spain to this day, even if they are declining in number.



Wall painting of a blonde Nordic fisherman on Crete, circa 1,550 BC.



The Lion Gate at Mycenae, circa 1,500 BC.

MYCENAE - THE FIRST INDO-EUROPEAN INVADERS

The Greek mainland, which was occupied by original Old European Mediterranean types, fell before an invasion of Indo-Europeans called the Mycenae - this tribe were the first to establish the basis upon which the classical Grecian age was to be built, albeit only after yet another wave of Nordic invaders.

The Mycenae arose on a part of the Greek mainland known as the Peloponnesus, around 1900 BC with the sudden appearance of migratory Nordic tribes who quickly absorbed the local population. There is evidence that the Mycenae had contact with yet another invading Indo-European tribe, the Hittites, as evidence of trading activity exists between these two peoples.

On the Greek mainland, many towns started emerging at this time, and Mycenaean colonies were established on the coast of Turkey and even as far as Syria. Mycenaean are regarded as the forerunners of the classic Greek civilization and they left a magnificent city at Mycenea, whose most famous inhabitant was the king Agamemnon.

Mycenae was sacked and destroyed in 1100 BC by an invasion of yet another Nordic tribe, the Dorics. The descendants of the Dorics were known as the Spartans and the Corinthians, two peoples later to feature dramatically in Greek history.

The destruction of Mycenae caused many Mycenaean to flee the Peloponnesus, and a sizable number went to the east coast of today's Turkey.

This coastal settlement became known as Ionia, and the Ionian civilization retained the rich legacy of Mycenae and also added elements of Lydian culture. The civilization that was later to rise to great heights in Athens, was born in Ionia.

THE DORICS

Starting about 1100 BC, a new wave of Indo-European Nordics invaded Greece from the north: the Dorics. The period from the time of the Dorian invasion (1100 BC) to about 750 BC, is marked for the introduction of iron working to the Grecian peninsula. The time of the Dorian Age is known to historians as the Homeric Age, because little is known about it except from the writings of the poet Homer, in his epic poems the Iliad and the Odyssey.

In the Iliad, Homer described the Indo-European Achaeans (the generic term for the Myceneans and Dorians) as "bright eyed", "fair headed", "fair" and "tall" as in these passages:

"And now I see all the rest of the bright eyed Achaeans, whom I could well recognize and name.

"No, I bid you, pause and not make war, neither do battle rashly against the fair headed Menelaus, lest you quickly be worsted by his spear.

"Do you not see how fair I am myself, and tall? I come of a brave father, and a goddess mother bore me."

(The Iliad goes on to describe the goddess Athena as "bright eyed and blond").

SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF THE DORICS

Homeric age man was apparently warlike, brave and desirous of hardship. By all accounts it seems that Homeric man got all of these three attributes in abundance.

The economies of the time were essentially subsistence agricultural systems with a government made up of tribal kings and advisors drawn from important noble families.

It was at about this time that the city state, or polis, was started. Each city had an elevated fortified site, known as its acropolis - where the city's important inhabitants could take refuge or gather to worship their gods.

In time the place directly below the acropolis developed a residential and trading area known as the asty. The asty and the acropolis combined under one central jurisdictional rule, and this unit became known as the polis. The very word politics is derived from this Greek word, polis.

THE SLAVS IN EASTERN EUROPE

Of all the Indo-European peoples who settled in Europe around 2000 BC - during the great Nordic invasions, a group which became known as the Slavs settled the closest to the ancestral homelands in southern Russia.

The land they settled - today known as the Ukraine and Byelorussia ("White" Russia) - was ideal for cereal farming and this encouraged the settlers to turn to agriculture rather than war or conquest.

By 1000 BC, these Indo-European forerunners of the Slavs had started to move westward, occupying territory around the Vistula River, in present day Poland.



This somewhat idealized painting is of a Slav funeral pyre for one of their chieftains around the year 900AD. In common with many Indo-Europeans, the Slavs traditionally cremated their important dead along with all their possessions. Where burial was chosen over cremation, it was also common to bury all the chief's artifacts with the corpse. This painting was made based on a description provided by a visitor to southern Russia at the time, and it is significant that the account had a Viking style boat in the picture - a sure indication that the original Slavs were of virtually identical racial and cultural stock to the Indo-Europeans who settled in Scandinavia and who became Vikings.

Around 700 BC, the whole region was conquered by yet another Indo-European tribe, the Scythians, who appeared from the south (where another branch of that tribe had penetrated into Asia Minor and the Near East).

By 100 BC, the Scythians had mastered much of the area, easily outfighting the agricultural Slavic farmers. However by 200 BC another - one of the last - Indo-European invaders, a tribe called the Sarmatians, had replaced the Scythians as masters of the Slavic lands, and the last of the Scythian peoples were absorbed into the new Indo-European conquerors, the two groups being racially virtually identical.

In 600 BC, another tribe of Indo-Europeans, the Goths swept down from Northern Europe and conquered the Sarmatians, taking possession of the lands in eastern Europe.

This repeated conquering and reconquering by peoples who all essentially were of the same stock - Indo-European - created the mix known as the Slavs.

Originally then, the Slavs were a virtually pure Indo-European peoples, and only later were certain elements of the Slavic population to the very east mixed to a small degree with remnants of Mongolian conquerors, creating a number of mixed race Slavic/Mongolian peoples, who quite incorrectly have become to be regarded as "typically Slavic".

Probably because of their proximity to the ancient homeland in southern Russia, the tribes who eventually formed the Slavs retained the cultural traits of their ancestors the longest.

The Indo-European sun worship religion persisted right into the 12th Century amongst the Slavs, and principle amongst their gods was a hammer wielding deity who rode in a chariot - obviously sharing a common mythological ancestry with the Scandinavian god, Thor.

As the Roman Empire began to unravel at the seams, the Slavs started moving westwards, first penetrating into the Balkan peninsula and then into central Europe.

By 650 AD the Slavs had seized the coastline along the Adriatic Sea opposite Italy (today's Albania). They also later penetrated as far south as Turkey, where these elements were swallowed up into the larger mixed race mass occupying that country by that stage in history.

The Slavs in eastern Europe not only bore the brunt of the Mongolian Hunnish invasion of Europe, but also were occupied for well on 1000 years by the Muslim Turks.

The limited mixing that took place with parts of both these conquerors created the dark "Slavic" look associated with many in the region today. Many of these racial types are the result of these mixtures, although there are still of course still large numbers of Slavs who show the physical characteristics of their Indo-European ancestors.

CELTIC INNOVATIONS - CHAIN MAIL AND SOAP

These Indo-European tribes may have had a common root, but this did not stop them fighting with each other as much as with anybody else, with each tribe being headed by a king and further divided by class into Druids (priests), warrior nobles, and commoners.

The Roman conquest of south eastern Europe, France and Britain effectively destroyed the Celtic heritage. The Celts were not as literate as the Romans and thus had less of the organizational skills or abilities of their conquerors.

However, the Celts were the inventors of chainlink armor, iron horse shoes and were the first to make seamless iron tires for their chariots. Another important Celtic innovation was soap.

In their art forms, the intricacy of which has become legendary, the links the Celts had with other Indo-European tribes is revealed. The Celtic style is marked by a preference for stylized plant motifs, usually of Greek origin, and fantastic animals, derived from the Scythians and other Russian steppe Indo-Europeans. Other favorite designs are elliptical curves and opposing curves, spirals, and chevrons, also derived from Russian steppe art.

Almost all of the original Indo-Europeans worshipped the sun, and the sun wheel image - a circle with a cross through it, dominated many designs. The modern Celtic Cross, regarded today as a Christian symbol, has been directly copied from this original Indo-European root and is originally a very pagan symbol.

Today, Celtic as a language, has survived at only the extreme ends of the area occupied by the Celts - Wales, Scotland and a few areas in Ireland.

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CHAPTER 6 : TO THE ENDS OF THE EARTH -

LOST WHITE MIGRATIONS

China, Japan, Canary Islands

In addition to the great White Indo-European migrations, several other waves of White migration occurred, vary-ing in number, influence and spread - the most spectacular being a White settlement in North America dating from approximately 7000 BC.

Knowledge of these migrations has been lost for centuries - in some cases thousands of years - but due to relatively recent archeological finds, have now been rediscovered. In this way Nordic and White Mediterranean remains - sometimes preserved naturally, sometimes preserved through artificial means - have been discovered in China, the Canary Islands and in North America - most of them many thousands of years old.

The discovery of these mummies shows without question that early White migrations across seas and continents took place - it is just the exact numbers of individuals who undertook these migrations which is still a matter of debate.

The Tocharians - The Great Lost White Civilization in China

One of the furthestmost eastern migrations of Celtic peoples - Indo-European Nordics - reached the Takla Makan desert (situated between Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Tibet) in China around 1500 BC.

This great migration was unknown until the 1977 AD discovery of 3500-year-old graves of these people. As a result of the natural dryness of the environment, many of the corpses are almost perfectly preserved, with their reddish-blond hair, long noses, round eyes and finely woven tartan clothing (usually associated with the Celts in Scotland), showing undeniably White racial traits.

These people have become known by the language which they spoke: Tocharian. The civilization which they built consisted of great cities, temples, centers of learning and art - they were also the builders and maintainers of the original Silk Road - the path for trade between the West and China itself.

It was originally thought that the Chinese built the great cities along the Silk Road, but the discovery of the remains of the original people of this region now shows that the impressive ruins which still lie, undisturbed, along that road, are the remains of a great lost White civilization.

The first White mummy in the region was discovered by accident in 1977 after shifting sands uncovered a female corpse whose body had been mutilated, presumably in some act of war.

Excavation around her corpse uncovered a further 16 mummies, so perfectly preserved by the desert that traces of tears were found on the face of a mummified infant. Fully dressed bodies have been found

wearing finely woven woolen textiles with Celtic patterns, leather shoes and jewelry. The desert conditions proved so exceptional that even pieces of bread used as offerings were preserved intact alongside what is the world's oldest saddle.

In one grave, excavators discovered a saddle cover and a pair of trousers with drawings of humans on one leg - one face had blue eyes.

The Tocharians: the great lost White migration to China. The Chinese civilization always contained stories of blue eyed and blonde haired leaders who were the originators of Buddhism and who were the first leaders and organizers of Chinese society. These stories were always regarded as pure legend until the 1977 discovery of the graveyards of the Tocharians in the Takla Makan desert in China. The Tocharian mummies - naturally preserved in the dry desert sands are unequivocally clear Nordic racial types. The graveyards lie near the ruins of the great Tocharian cities, built along the famous Silk Route. It is beyond doubt that Whites settled in China, and the Chinese legends of White influence on that civilization may yet have some basis in fact.



The first Tocharian Nordic mummy to be found: a White female with long blond hair.



A Tocharian man with red-blond hair.



A close up of another Tocharian female mummy. Her tall stature, high nose, and red hair are all clear Nordic traits.

By the early 1990s, over a thousand Nordic corpses had been uncovered from the grave yards in the region (called Wapu); but by 1998, the Chinese government had halted further archeological expeditions to the area, quite likely for fear of exposing yet more ancient European faces to the world.

The current inhabitants of the surrounding lands, who are already obviously not pure Chinese and who even speak a form of Turkish, rather than Chinese, have been agitating for independence for some time.

The discovery of the White mummies has served to highlight their racial and ethnic differences from the Chinese and the issue has become a political hot potato for that country's government.

However, some of the mummies which have already been uncovered are still on display in a local museum, while others lie in storerooms slowly deteriorating.

The new finds are forcing a re-examination of old Chinese books that describe historical or legendary figures of great height, with deep-set blue or green eyes, long noses, full beards, and red or blond hair. Scholars have traditionally scoffed at these accounts, but it now transpires that these accounts were correct.

While it is unknown as to what the exact influence these Whites had upon the Chinese civilization, it has been the subject of speculation - based upon old Bhuddist manuscripts - that the tenets of the Bhuddist religion may have been brought to the Far East by these Tocharian Celts.

The existence of the Tocharians may also explain another great mystery of China: the existence of step pyramids near the city of Xian in Qui Chan province. These pyramids are without precedent in China but which were common to White civilizations.



One of a number of European style step pyramids (similar to Silbury Hill, England - see chapter 3) which can be found in near the city of Xian, Qui Chauan province, China. Can these mysterious - and very un-Chinese - structures be linked to the Tocharians? Another tantalizing clue of Indo-Europeans in China is the fact that the swastika - the ancient Sanskrit symbol for well being - is also common in China as a good luck charm.

THE DISAPPEARANCE OF THE TOCHARIANS

With the advent of time, these White peoples mixed with Mongolian tribes surrounding them, and so in this way vanished - but the physical features of the people living in this part of China show very clearly part White and part Mongol traits - and differ substantially from other inhabitants of China, with blond hair not being unknown amongst them.

Once again, these present day physical features are the living proof of yet another great lost White migration. Thus it was that the White civilization of China vanished through racial mixing. Only the crumbling ruins of their cities and their corpses remain as silent witnesses of their era.

The Ainu in Japan

The Ainu are most commonly called an aboriginal people of Japan, occupying parts of the Japanese island of Hokkaido and the Russian islands of the Kurils and Sakhalin (which used to be Japanese territory).

The most striking thing about the Ainu is that they differ still to this day physically and linguistically from the rest of the Japanese population.

Although full blooded Ainu are scarce due to a large amount of intermarriage, the Ainu display in fact distinct traces of White ancestry - typical Ainu have a long skull, a light complexion, a heavy beard (facial hair is virtually unknown amongst the pure Mongolian races) and thick, wavy hair. The Ainu are famous amongst the Japanese for having body hair as well - so that they are derogatively called the "hairy Ainu". Only one other race on earth possesses body hair to this extent - the White Race.

The Ainu - or White - racial influence is very evident in the Japanese upper classes: Below is a comparison of Ainu descended Japanese nobles with a "pure" Japanese Yayoi racial type which makes the distinction obvious.



Ainu ancestry..... Ainu Ancestry..... Ainu Ancestry..... Yayoi (Mongol) Ancestry

From left to right: Count Katsuka, Prime Minister of Japan from 1901-1905; Count Hayahsi, Japanese Minister of State for Foreign Affairs, 1908; Prince Arisugawa, one of the Imperial Princes of Japan, 1908; and lastly Count Komuka, Japanese ambassador to Britain in 1908.

The first three have obvious Ainu/White ancestry, while the last is predominantly Yayoi, or of more pure Mongoloid stock. This racial distinction in Japanese society is visible to this day - lasting evidence of yet another lost White migration to lands usually thought of as having no prior contact with Whites.

The Ainu language is unique, and not related to Japanese or any other Asian language. The origins of the Ainu are obscure. They appear to have entered Japan through the Hokkaido Island in the Yayoi Period (300 BC to 250 AD) of Japanese history, and migrated also into the northern and eastern parts of Japan's main island Honshu.

As the rulers of Yamato Japan started to expand their territory eastwards around 500 AD, the Ainu were constantly displaced to the north or mixed with the Japanese. In the Meiji Period (1868-1912) they received the status of former Aborigines but were strongly discriminated against. The Ainu were first mentioned in a Japanese account in 642 AD, and they were first reported in Europe in 1586.

The American anthropologist C. Loring Brace, University of Michigan, (Science Frontiers #65, Sep-Oct 1989) reported that "pure-blooded Ainu are easy to spot: they have lighter skin, more body hair, and higher-bridged noses than most Japanese." Brace studied the skeletons of about 1100 Japanese, Ainu, and other Asian ethnic groups and has concluded that the revered samurai of Japan are actually descendants of the Ainu, not of the Yayoi (original Mongolian) from whom most modern Japanese are descended. Brace said

further that "...this explains why the facial features of the Japanese ruling class are so often unlike those of typical modern Japanese. The Ainu-related samurai achieved such power and prestige in medieval Japan that they intermarried with royalty and nobility, passing on Ainu blood in the upper classes, while other Japanese were primarily descended from the Yayoi."

The Guanches of the Canary Islands

Off the coast of West Africa lie the Canary Islands - this region became home to a mysterious group of Nordics in antiquity who became known as the Guanches.

While it is unknown for sure how they arrived on the islands, what is known is that they shared a number of cultural characteristics with the ancient Egyptians and that their building style appears to have been replicated in South and Central America.

Like the Celtic Tocharians, the finest evidence of what these original Gaunche Nordics looked like, is in the fortuitous existence of original Guanche mummies, which are on public display in that island group's national museum. The corpses on display are estimated to be between 600 and 1000 years old.



Two Guanche mummies, with red hair and other Nordic features - the original inhabitants of the Canary islands. It is unknown at what date they settled the islands, but show cultural similarities with the Ancient Egyptians.

An examination of one of the mummies' bodies showed incisions that virtually matched those found in Egyptian mummies, although the string used by the Guanche embalmers to close the wounds was much coarser than would have been used by the Egyptian experts.

The Guanches also possessed the art of writing, although this has not yet been the subject of any major study.

THE GAUNCHE PYRAMIDS

However, the most stunning link between the Guanches and the Egyptians comes in the form of pyramids - the Guanches built several small step pyramids on the islands, using exactly the same model as those found in ancient Egypt and in Mesopotamia. The pyramids have an east-west alignment which also indicates that they probably had a religious purpose, associated with the rise and setting of the sun.

Carefully built stairways on the west side of each pyramid lead up to the summit, which in each case has a

flat platform covered with gravel, possibly used for religious or ceremonial purposes.



Left: One of the Pyramids of Guimar, Canary Islands. Right: A Mayan pyramid in Central America (Chichen Itza). The resemblance is unmistakable. There is strong evidence to suggest that Whites used the Canary Island current to cross the Atlantic Ocean and influence the Central and Southern American civilizations in pre-Columbian times.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE GAUNCHE PYRAMIDS

The famous explorer, Thor Heyerdahl, who "rediscovered" the pyramids on the Canary Islands and who set up an academic body to study the phenomena, argued that the pyramids may be remains from explorers who sailed the Atlantic in ancient times, and who may have possibly forged a link with the pre-Columbian civilizations of the Americas.

As the original inhabitants of the Canary Islands were fair-haired and bearded, it was possible, Heyerdahl suggested, that long before the 15th Century, people of the same stock as those who settled the Canary Islands, also sailed the same route along the Canary Current that took Christopher Columbus to the Americas.

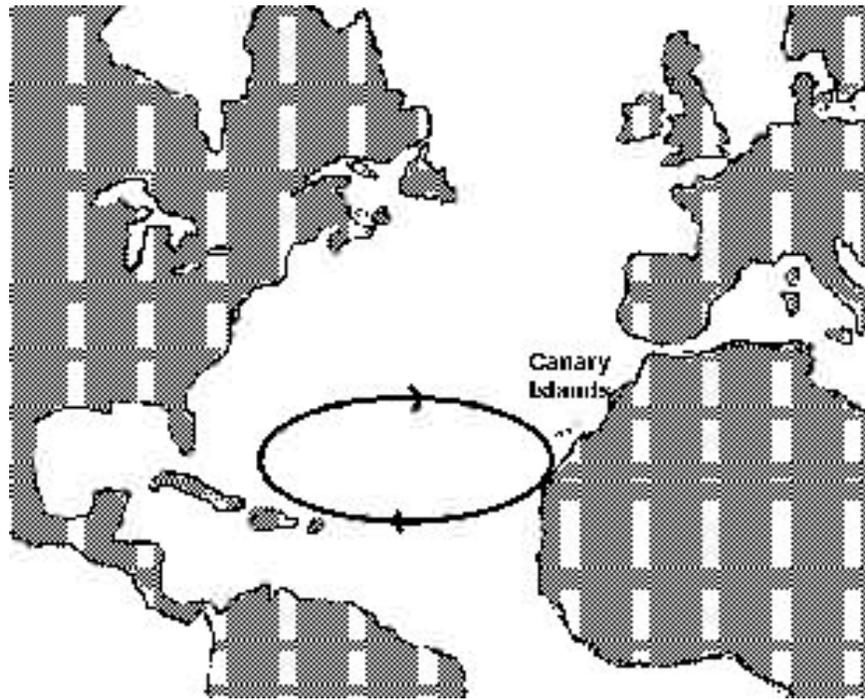
This theory formed the basis of Heyerdahl's famous "RA" expeditions in which he showed that it was possible to cross the Atlantic in an Egyptian reed boat.

In fact Columbus' starting off point was the Canary Islands, where he obtained supplies and water on Gomera, the island next to Tenerife. The Guanches on Tenerife in 1492 did not permit Columbus to land on their island - they were not impressed by the physical appearance of the bearded Europeans, who looked like the Guanches themselves.

When Columbus and the Europeans who followed in his wake landed in the Americas, they were welcomed and initially worshipped as gods, since the beardless Indians they encountered believed that the Spanish belonged to the same people as the legendary founders of their civilization, bearded men from across the Atlantic Ocean.

According to the Aztec and Olmec (Central American Amerind) legends, their god, Quetzalcoatl, had Nordic features (eyes and hair color) and a beard. This god came from over the sea and taught the Amerinds how to raise corn and build structures.

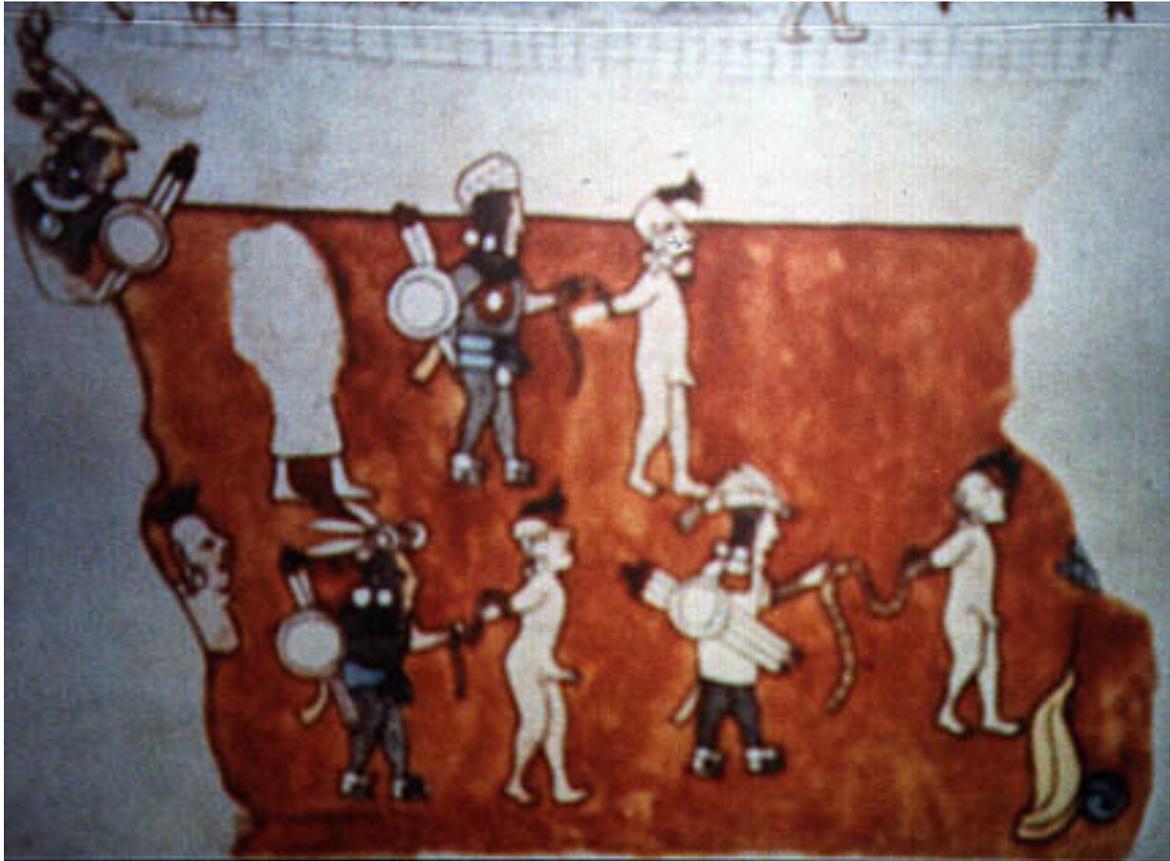
There is indeed a marked similarity between the step pyramids to be found on the Canary Islands and those to be found in Central and South America, strongly suggesting yet another great lost White migration, this time to Central and South America, perhaps a thousand years or more before Columbus.



The position of the Canary Islands and the route of the Canaries Current to and from the Americas. The existence of the red haired Gaunches on the Canary Islands, combined with the red haired pre-Columbus mummies found in South America and the marked similarity in pyramid building styles, indicate that Whites probably used the Canaries Current to cross the Atlantic, most likely between 2000 and 500 BC. Columbus himself used the Canaries Current, setting out from the Canary Islands on his first crossing of the Atlantic in 1492 AD.

There is also clear evidence from the Mexican side of the Atlantic Ocean that Whites - blond haired Whites - reached that part of the world long before the Spanish explorations of the late 1490s.

Below is a pre-Columbian wall painting which can be found in the Temple of the Warriors, Chichen Itza, on the east coast of Mexico. The first depicts White prisoners after their capture by the dark skinned natives, and the second, shows a White man with long blond hair being sacrificed by the Nonwhites. It is worthwhile to remember that these paintings date from BEFORE Christopher Columbus sailed the Atlantic in 1492.



The wall painting above, has been reconstructed as an actual scene (photo below) and is on display at the Parque Etnografico, the museum set up on the Canary Islands around the site of the pyramids which is open to the public.



THE DISAPPEARANCE OF THE GUANCHES

Guanche artifacts, such as cave murals, tombs, stone and mortar walls, broken pottery and other everyday items are abundant on the island. Similar artifacts have been found on the African continent itself - notably in Morocco, indicating that at some stage the Guanches crossed the sea to Africa.

There they started mixing with Arabic and other Nonwhite racial types on the African continent itself. This process is very likely to be the cause of some flashes of blond hair and light colored eyes still to be found amongst the Berber population of north west Africa to this day.

The pyramids and other structures on the islands seem to have been constructed by an advanced people - certainly by the time of the Spanish invasion, the Guanches had lost much of their civilized apparel, and Spanish accounts have it that they were attacked by naked tribesmen, who sometimes inflicted serious military defeats upon the invading Spaniards. It was only in 1496 that the Spaniards finally defeated the last of the Guanches.

The arrival of the White Spanish in the mid 14th Century saw the remaining Nordic Guanches absorbed into the new settler population. The blond, blue-eyed, tall stock has been preserved in part, and can still be seen today in many individuals on the island. Culturally speaking, the Guanche civilization was completely absorbed by the imported continental European culture, so that the Canary Islands remains Spanish territory to this day.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 7 : THE NEAR EAST - WHITES OVERWHELMED

The racial make-up of the original inhabitants of the Near East - that is from Turkey to modern day Iran, including the areas known today as Iraq, Syria, Lebanon and Palestine and Egypt, was by the year 4000 BC, predominantly original White Mediterranean, with scattered groups of Alpine and Proto-Nordic sub groupings amongst them.

These original White inhabitants were strengthened by the arrival of large numbers of Nordic Indo-Europeans who started spreading south from their ancestral homeland in southern Russia from around 3000 BC onwards.

In addition to these White peoples, another grouping was to play a significant role in the history of the Near East - the Semitic speaking peoples (this encompasses a wide range of peoples, including groups known to history as the ancient Jews and Arabic peoples). These Semitic speaking peoples eventually came to predominate the entire Middle East, entering the original White territories as laborers, traders, immigrants and military conquerors.



A map of the region under discussion in this chapter: Virtually every country shown here was subjected to invasions by Indo-European Nordics, who then set up White civilizations - only to be later submerged into a mass of Semitic, Mongoloid and Hammatic (mixed peoples) who came to work in the nations as slaves or as conventional laborers.

From a racial point of view it is worth noting that neither the original Old European Mediterranean White peoples nor the original Semitic peoples exist in their original form any more. While retaining certain physical characteristics, both these groups have been mixed substantially with each other and other racial groups as a result of the ebb and flow of historical events in the Middle East.

It is also important to realise that although there existed a Semitic racial type, very often confusion exists when the term "Semitic" is used.

Very often when mention is made of the word "Semite" it is presumed that it is to Jews whom reference are being made - this is a false assumption. The Jews of ancient times were most certainly as pure a Semitic speaking people as could be found, but in modern times are a mix of a great many races, from Black right through to all of the White subraces, so it would be factually incorrect to refer to the Jews of today as pure Semites. Semitic speaking tribes also encompassed a number of other tribes in the Middle East, as is the case still today.

In the same way most of the other inhabitants of the modern Middle East are racial mixtures (although they tend not to have as large an admixture of European sub-groupings as the European Jews have) with the result that there are very few pure "Semites" left even

in the Middle East.

Nonetheless, the history of the ancient Middle East is dominated by centuries of physical struggle between these White and Semitic peoples, with each group establishing civilizations which in turn were overrun by one or more of their two rivals, or, just as often, by a racially similar tribe.

Control of the Mesopotamian river valley swung between these groups for thousands of years, with each successive invasion bringing with it an impetus of new blood and culture. For a long period, however, the White tribes were able to hang on to the higher lands to the north East of the Tigris/Euphrates river basin, while various Semitic tribes occupied parts of previously Indo-European held territory within the Near East.

As a result of this continual crossover of civilizations and shared geographical area, the racial distinctions of the peoples became more and more blurred, and towards the close of this epoch it becomes more and more difficult to identify clear racial groups as opposed to named cultures. Ultimately, the disappearance of the distinct racial groupings in the region led to the torch of civilization being passed to what were then more homogenous societies - first in Egypt and then to the classical Greek and Roman civilizations.



A religious ceremonial figure of a Sumerian deity from circa 3000 BC, at Tell Asmos, a provincial Sumerian town. The figure is remarkable for it has blue eyes - set with the stone lapis lazuli. This blue stone was greatly prized by the Sumerians, who imported it from its only source, 3200 kilometers away in north Afghanistan. Blue eyes are an exclusively White racial trait.

SUMERIA : FIRST WHITE SETTLEMENT

The region between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers is commonly called the fertile crescent - because of the closeness of fresh water supplies. However, the term fertile crescent is a misnomer. Rainfall in the region has always been sparse, and large parts of this region are in fact arid desert.

The region was, contrary to popular myth, never ideal farming territory, and the dryness was only alleviated in part due to the

proximity of the river water.

In spite of this, by the year 5000 BC, original Mediterranean Whites and some early Nordic tribes (together known as Ubaidians) established settlements in the Tigris and Euphrates river basin.

These settlements gradually developed into the chief cities of the region. This territory lies in the modern day country of Iraq.

SECOND WHITE INVASION 3250 BC - ORIGINS OF SUMER

These original Whites were conquered by a new White tribe, the Sumerians, in 3250 BC. These people gave their name to the region: Sumer.

In the centuries that followed the immigration of the Sumerians, the country grew rich and powerful. Art and architecture, crafts, and religious and ethical thought flourished.

The Sumerian language became the prevailing speech of the land and their system of writing, the Sumerian script, where pictures were used to represent objects, set the standard for all written languages of the time.



A Sumerian clay tablet, from about 2800 BC. It is one of the earliest decipherable documents in the world. Early writing was done on clay tablets with impressions being made by wooden wedged instruments.

Although initially being very basic - a stick drawing of a fish would represent a fish and so on - this written language laid the basis for all pictographical languages, including the later Egyptian and Sanskrit forms. Writing was done on clay tablets with impressions being made by wedge shaped instruments. This pictographical writing eventually developed symbols for abstract concepts such as "love", "go" and so on. The Sumerian script dominated all writing forms for at least 4000 years until the Greek script became pre-eminent.

From the very beginning of the settlement of the Sumer delta possessed metal working facilities (they were particularly good at copper working) and possessed wheeled vehicles, a significant breakthrough at the time. It is presumed that the wheel originally developed from the potter's wheel, which the Sumerians naturally also possessed.

To the south east of Sumer lay the Saudi Arabian peninsula - the original heartland of the Semitic speaking peoples. The original Whites were soon surrounded by Semitic tribes, and within a few hundred years Semitic immigrants began to take up residence in the region, both as peaceful immigrants and as raiders.

FIRST SEMITIC INVASION: THE AKKADS

The first large scale Semitic invasion took place in 2335 BC, when the White Sumerians were overrun by the Akkadian people. The Semitic Akkad occupation of Sumer led to the establishment of a new kingdom, called (unsurprisingly) "The Kingdom of Sumer and Akkad". It was shortly after the Akkadian invasion that the first Jews are recorded as entering Sumeria in large numbers.

Eventually - after a few generations - the Semitic tribes started intermarrying with the original White tribes, and although this process was not absolute, the distinctions between the two groupings became blurred. This mixing of the races in the region led to an increasingly hybrid population - a trend which continues to this day.

Art forms left by the early Babylonians reveal their racial make-up - they were primarily a Mediterranean people - with the passage of time it is possible to see a distinct Semitic influence becoming apparent.

The British anthropologists Dudley Buxton and Talbot Rice found skulls among human remains excavated at the Sumerian palace at Kish in Mesopotamia. Similar skulls were found by the French anthropologist H.V. Vallois amongst remains collected at Sialk, halfway between Teheran and Isfahan, north east of Kish; and in the Indus river valley R.B.S. Sewell and B.S. Guha of the Zoological Survey of India also found similar skulls: all have been positively identified as belonging to the (now virtually extinct) Mediterranean White subrace. (Race, John R Baker, Oxford University Press, 1974, page 511).

CIVILIZATION OF SUMER PEAKS - AFTER THE GUTIAN INVASION

The Kingdom of Sumer and Akkad then fell before the first, and by all accounts ferocious, Indo-European invasion - that of the Celts. Known as Gutians in the Middle East, they fell upon the kingdom of Sumer and Akkad less than 100 years after it was established, around the year 2200 BC.

The Gutians sacked and destroyed the mixed Semitic/Mediterranean Sumer and Akkadian civilization and established their own rule and civilization in the region. Soon they had provinces extending right to the Mediterranean Sea itself.

The Gutian invasion sparked a surge in the Sumerian civilization - it was after the Indo-European invasion that Sumerian civilization was to reach some of its greatest heights. These included:

- the very first written law code in the world, which is still existent and dates from 2095 BC;
- the construction of the great Sumerian pyramids, called Ziggurats (the most famous of which is the Ziggurat at the Sumerian city of Ur, built in 2100 BC) which served as temples and community centers, many of which are still standing today; and
- a complex system of canals, weirs and water routes by which the agricultural settlements alongside the rivers were kept irrigated.



The main ziggurat at Ur, Mesopotamia, built circa 2,100 BC, shortly after the first major Indo-European invasion. The building was created in the shape of a step pyramid.

After a few generations the Gutians themselves became submerged into the wider population of Sumer, whose great cities and wealth had acted as a magnet for all the surrounding Semitic tribes. Slowly but surely increasing numbers of Semites, as traders, laborers or slaves, were drawn to Sumer, creating over time a mixture of Old European, Semitic and Indo-European peoples. This shows up very clearly in their grave sites and art forms in the wide range of racial features on display.

THE SECOND INDO-EUROPEAN INVASION: THE AMORITES

Then the region was once again invaded by yet another originally Indo-European peoples, the Amorites, around the year 2000 BC, bringing with them a renewed wave of Nordic blood into the peoples of the region.

The Amorites had originally entered the Middle East from the Balkans and had occupied Palestine, mixing with a certain number of the Jewish tribes they subjugated there. It is a matter of conjecture as to exactly how much Semitic (therefore darker) physical

characteristics they had taken on by the year 2000 BC - very likely not much, as the Egyptians still described them as fair haired and blue eyed some 700 years after they had invaded Sumeria.



White female head from Uruk, Sumeria, circa 3,500 BC, presently in the Iraq museum, Baghdad.

SUMERIAN CULTURE

Sumerian religion had four leading deities, the creating gods called: An, the god of heaven; Ki, the goddess of earth; Enlil, the god of air; and Enki, the god of water. There were three sky deities, Nanna, the god of the moon; Utu, the sun god; and Inanna, the queen of heaven. Inanna was also the goddess of love, procreation, and war.

The Sumerians also had a reasonably advanced mathematical system with tables for multiplication, division and even square and cube roots. They also possessed a knowledge of geometry.

The most famous surviving piece of literature from this period is the "Epic of Gilgamesh", a fictional story of an old king of the city state of Erech who sets off in search of immortality. It also includes a chapter dealing with a flood of the earth, and is clearly the origin of the Christian and Jewish Old Testament story of Noah and the Biblical flood.

BABYLON AND HAMMURABI

The chaos caused by the Amorite invasion lasted until 1763 BC, when a strong and capable king arose and united the inhabitants once again. From this time the city of Babylon was built, and the region became known as Babylonia.

The first king of Babylon - the one who managed to end the chaos and unite all the tribes into a nation - was named Hammurabi.



Left: The Law Code of Hammurabi, 1750 BC. The code has been preserved intact on this stela, now in the Louvre Museum in Paris. At the top of the stela is picture of the king before Shamash, the (typically Indo-European) sun-god, who was also the god of justice. The introduction to the code is directly below the pictures, in which Hammurabi asserts that he has come to rule over the "dark haired people". The 282 laws cover such things and offenses against other people and property; disputes concerning land, trade, fees, professional services and family. Some of the punishments would be considered harsh by modern standards, but on the whole the laws present a picture of a well ordered society which lived by recognized standards and offered protection to all its citizens. Alongside is a detail from the stela showing the great Nordic King Hammurabi in profile. His racial features are clear in this depiction made during his lifetime.

King Hammurabi has become most famous for his Code of Laws, dating from 1750 BC, which is widely but incorrectly held to be the first written legal code in the world (it was the second, the first being the code drawn up by the earlier White Sumerians). Hammurabi's code of law was engraved in stone and set up in the great cities of the region - to this day the Code is regarded as the father of the all legal codes of the world.

While some of the laws themselves seem harsh to the modern mind (death for being unable to repay debt, for example) nonetheless the wording of the prologue to Hammurabi's Law Code provides a fascinating glimpse into the conflict between the Semitic and Indo-European populations in the region.

In the prologue, Hammurabi announces that he has come to "rule the black haired people"; he is also referred to as "the White King" and the "White Potent", obviously in reference to his coloring.

The original introduction on the Hammurabi Code, which was engraved in stone and is still existent, reads as follows :

"Hammurabi, the exalted prince, who feared God, to bring about the rule of righteousness in the land, to destroy the wicked and the evil-doers; so that the strong should not harm the weak; so that I should rule over the black-headed people like Shamash, and enlighten the land, to further the well-being of mankind..."

"Hammurabi, the prince, called of Bel am I, making riches and increase,...who enriched Ur;...the white king,...the mighty, who again laid the foundations of Sippara...the lord who granted new life to Uruk, who brought plenteous water to its inhabitants...the White, Potent, who penetrated the secret cave of the bandits ..."

(Translated by L. W. King, The Eleventh Edition of the Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1910. Further translations of Hammurabi's code can

be found in The Code of Hammurabi, R.F. Harper, University of Chicago Press, 1904).

Although Hammurabi himself was then clearly a descendent of one of the Nordic tribes and not one of the "black haired" peoples, as the Law Code reveals, by this time large numbers of the population had become distinctly Semitic, as waves of immigrants swarmed in from the Arabic heartland on the Saudi Arabian peninsula, drawn by the allure of the great Sumerian cities.

Building upon the technological and cultural precedents set by the Sumerians, the Babylonians maintained the complex systems of canals, dykes, weirs and reservoirs constructed by the original White inhabitants.

As an indicator of the symbolism Babylon has come to acquire, to this day the Black Rastafarian movement talks about all White civilizations as being "Babylon".

THE THIRD INDO-EUROPEAN INVASION: THE KASSITES AND HITTITES -

THE FIRST USE OF THE CHARIOT

Babylon was then invaded by new waves of Indo-Europeans and Indo Aryans, some on their way to India: the Kassites and Hittites conquered large areas of the region by 1595 BC.

Under Kassite rule, which lasted another 450 years, Babylonia once again became a power of considerable importance. The Kassites were the first people to use the chariot as a weapon of war, a skill later taken on by virtually every other nation in the Near East and Europe. Horse riding itself originated with the Indo-Aryan tribes who populated modern day Iran.

SEMITIC POPULATION INCREASE - JEWS INTO CAPTIVITY

By this time the numbers of Arabic Semites in the region were reaching numerically overwhelming proportions. This balance was tipped even further by a renewed Semitic invasion which started in the 9th century when the Chaldeans managed to occupy the region.

Although Semitic himself, the Chaldean king Nebuchadnezzar (who became king in 604 BC) achieved fame for carrying off several thousand Jews into captivity in Babylon.

The Chaldeans in turn were attacked by the originally Indo-European Assyrians in the north: the city of Babylon was eventually sacked by the Assyrians around the year 700 BC.



Assyrian troops pursuing Semites: from the palace at Ashurbanipul at Nineveh, Assyria, circa 645 BC. Note how the Semites are portrayed as riding camels, while the Assyrians are portrayed as riding horses. British Museum, London.

SYRIA AND THE HITTITES

An Indo-Aryan tribe called the Hittites established an empire in present day Turkey around the year 2000 BC, after sweeping south and west from the original Nordic homeland in Southern Russia.

In 1700 BC, Hittite armies began pushing south, conquering Syria and the Euphrates and Tigris River valley, helping to destroy the Babylonian empire in 1600 BC. At its height, the Hittite Empire covered an area stretching from the Black Sea to Syria.

By conquering Syria, the Hittites had taken away an Egyptian colony, and the Egyptian Pharaoh, Rameses II, attacked the Hittites from bases in Palestine in 1269 BC.

The Hittites however defeated Rameses, and a peace treaty followed, in terms of which the Hittites kept possession of Syria.

The Hittites are credited with being the first people to work iron in the region, and are also famous for borrowing much of their legal system from the law codes they found when they conquered the Babylonians. This was indeed the major importance of the Hittites in history - they took much of Mesopotamian culture and spread it around Asia Minor (Turkey) and even to the early Greeks. In this way much of the accumulated Mesopotamian culture was transmitted to countries lying to the west.

By 1500 BC, the Hittites had, like many of the Indo-European tribes (and indeed the Semites as well) started to mingle with the other peoples in the region, eventually producing the population of today in the Near East - an indefinable mix of White, Semite, Black and even Mongolian strains.

So weakened, the Hittite empire came to an end, being overrun by new waves of Indo-Aryan invaders, the Assyrians, from the north.

With the collapse of the Hittite Empire in 1200 BC, no one power was strong enough to dominate the Middle East, and a number of independent states flourished for about 500 years.

PHILISTINES: JEWISH HATRED OF

One of the Indo-Aryan invasions which led the fall of the Hittites was led by a tribe known as the Philistines. This tribe conquered large parts of the Middle East, including today's Palestine (from where the name of that country originates) and eventually Babylon as well.

The Philistines established what was by all accounts a harsh rule over the Semites under their control, leading to a fanatical hatred of the Philistines being developed by the subjugated Jewish tribes. This hatred was transferred into the Semitic religion in Palestine, Judaism.

This hatred of the Philistines was developed to the point where today anyone who has been raised a Christian knows that to call someone a Philistine is to insult that person, even though the person using that insult may not even know who the Philistines were.

As a result, the use of the phrase "Philistine" as an insult provides a fascinating insight into the Jewish origins of Christianity.



The Jewish king, Jehu, (kneeling) pays homage to the Assyrian ruler, Shalmaneser III in 841 BC.

PHOENICIANS - FOREMOST TRADERS OF THEIR TIME

A number of other smaller White civilizations sprang up at this time in this region, each of them contributing in their own way to the advancement of civilization. Amongst them were the Phoenicians, who through trade established themselves as a powerful nation in the Mediterranean. Their home base was in present day Lebanon, an area which they had occupied by the year 2700 BC.

Although originally a Mediterranean people, there is evidence to suggest that during their long stay in Lebanon and Palestine, the Phoenicians absorbed a fair amount of Semitic blood, being ruled by the Hebrews for a significant period of time.

However, the Phoenicians were also ruled by the Egyptians and Hittites in turn, and by this time had started to exhibit the physical characteristics associated with Nordic, Mediterranean and Semites. The Phoenicians were then a mix of Old European, Indo-European and Semitic speaking peoples.

The Phoenicians are credited with the creation of the modern alphabet - this is a slight exaggeration. The Phoenicians took the semi-alphabet script developed by the Egyptians, adopted it and used it as a means for their trade. This basic alphabet was picked up by later Greeks and developed into Greek script.

From this Greek script the modern alphabet was developed over a much longer period of time. At best then, the Phoenicians can claim to having been one link in the process of the development of the modern alphabet.

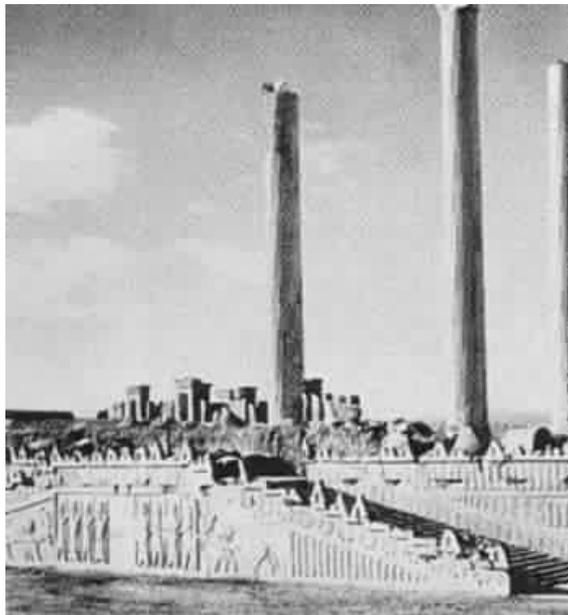
The Phoenicians became famous as traders, establishing settlements all over the Mediterranean basin, including on the Italian peninsula and in Spain. In 800 BC, the Phoenicians founded the city of Carthage, in present day Tunis, just opposite the bottom of the Italian peninsula. Carthage came to be peopled by a large number of different peoples, but retained its essentially Mediterranean/Nordic mix right until the time of its wars with Rome.

The most famous Carthaginian military leader, Hannibal, who was the scourge of Rome for many years, was a very clear Nordic sub racial type, coming from a noble family in Carthage. Although Carthage was eventually destroyed by the Romans, it lasted longer than then Phoenician cities in Lebanon which were razed in 750 BC by new Indo-European led invaders, the Assyrians.

THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE - WORLD'S FIRST POSTAL SYSTEM

The next large empire in the Middle East was established by the originally Indo-Aryan Assyrians (the word Assyrian is a corruption of the word Aryan) who, from their base in modern day Syria, captured Babylon in 910 BC. In 722 BC, the Assyrians captured Palestine and by 671 BC their empire extended as far as the Nile delta.

The Assyrians, like the Hittites, had mastered the art of iron working and iron weapons (a skill which had come down from the Indo-Aryan north and had spread with the Indo-Aryan invasions). As such they had a massive advantage over their opponents.



The palace at Persepolis, Persia. A double staircase, decorated with reliefs, led to the magnificent audience hall where the Persian emperors received foreign envoys and visiting dignitaries. Persepolis was built during the reigns of Darius and his successor Xerxes (circa 400 BC). Today it is a ruin, the original Persians gone.

The Assyrian king of this time, Ashurbanipul, was a cultured man and reputedly had a library - probably mostly looted from the Sumerians and Babylonians - of some 22,000 clay tablets at their capital city of Khorsabad.

The Assyrian empire was the first to build a system of national roads and also the first to develop a postal system. The Assyrians also without doubt had the first coherent administrative system and served as a role model for many later civilizations.

By the middle of the 7th century BC the Assyrian empire was on the decline, weakened by a steady dissolution of their original racial homogeneity through increasing mixing with the ever growing numbers of Semites in the region.

Eventually a combination of neighboring Indo-European tribes (Persians, Medeans and Scythians) overthrew the by then mostly mixed race Assyrians and in 612 BC, the Syrian capital, Nineveh, was destroyed.

The downfall of the Syrians left four small powers in the Middle East. These were the Medeans, the Persians, the Lydians and the Chaldeans.

All but the last of these groups were all at this stage still majority White in racial make-up, although large - and soon to be overwhelming - numbers of Semites, Arabics and even Mongols had been integrated into their societies.

These cultures can therefore be categorized as the last but one of the majority White civilizations in the region - not too long after their time the racial mix of the region became overwhelmingly Nonwhite through a shift in the population balance and most vestiges of the old civilizations disappeared along with the Whites - a process which occurred throughout the Near East.

THE MEDEANS

The people known as the Medes had already established an informal empire just to the east of the Assyrians, south of the Caspian sea, in modern day Iran. The Medeans were also noteworthy for their help in the destruction of the Assyrian empire and were in turn overrun by their former colony, Persia, in 550 BC.

However, like so many Indo-European cultures of the region at that time, not only did they have to contend with the local White/Semitic mix population, who continually agitated against them, but also with other Indo-European invaders continually penetrating the region from the north.

The most noted of these new invaders were the Nordic Scythians, who were the first to use mounted cavalry in battle. The Scythians overran what is today Palestine in the 7th century BC, and some of their fair haired and fair eyed descendants can still be seen today amongst the Druses of Lebanon. Eventually however the Medeans and the Scythians joined forces and together they overran the Assyrians, sacking the capital Nineveh in 612 BC.

To add to all this confusion, beginning about 1400 BC, a new wave of migrations changed the face of practically all western Asia. From the Balkan Peninsula came a wave of different Indo-European tribes, who became known as the Sea Peoples, overran the Hittite Empire in Turkey and launched attacks on Syria, Palestine and Egypt itself.

An Indo-European people called Mushki, who settled in eastern Anatolia, became a constant threat to Assyria in the northwest.

THE PERSIANS

The Iranian plateau was settled about 1500 BC by Indo-European tribes, the most important of which were the Medes, who occupied the northwestern portion, and the Persians.

The Persians were dominated by the Medes until the accession to the Persian throne in 550 BC of the Persian Cyrus the Great. He overthrew the Median rulers, conquered two neighboring kingdoms (including Babylonia in 539 BC) and established the Persian Empire as the preeminent power of the Middle East.

Cyrus tried to be a benevolent ruler. In Sumeria he allowed the dominant religion of the time to approve his assumption of the Babylonian kingship, while in Jerusalem he launched the rebuilding of the Jewish temple. The result of his endeavors was an empire of diverse peoples which was ultimately to lead to Persia's undoing.

Cyrus son, Cambyses II, extended the Persian realm even further by conquering the (by then thoroughly mixed race) Egyptians in 525 BC. Darius I, who ascended the throne in 521 BC, pushed the Persian borders as far eastward as the Indus River, had a canal constructed from the Nile to the Red Sea, and reorganized the entire empire, earning the title Darius the Great.

From 499 to 493 BC Darius the Great engaged in crushing a revolt of the Ionian Greeks living under Persian rule in Asia, and then launched a punitive campaign against the Greeks for supporting the rebels. His forces were disastrously defeated by the Greeks at the historic Battle of Marathon in 490 BC.

His successor, Xerxes I, also tried to defeat the Greeks, but was in turn defeated in the great sea engagement the Battle of Salami in 480 BC and in two successive land battles in the following year.

The forays of the Persian King Xerxes I were the last notable attempt at expansion of the Persian Empire - by this stage the Aryan tribes had absorbed the Semitic and Asiatic immigrants into the region, and had started to unravel as a homogenous nation.



Left: The Alexander Sarcophagus, circa 310 BC. Archaeological Museum, Istanbul. Also known as the Sarcophagus of Sidon, the city in which it was first found. Right: Details from the Alexandrian Sarcophagus: two Persian heads from the time of Alexander the Great. Both are Nordic sub-racial types, and the originals are color painted with fair hair and blue eyes.

INDIAN DEPICTIONS OF PERSIANS AS NORDICS AND MIXED RACIAL TYPES

At the time when the Greek writer Xenophon praised what he called "tall beautiful Persian women" (during the 6th century BC), the Persian envoys to India were depicted in still existent paintings in the Ajanta caves outside Bombay as light skinned, blue eyed and blond, or dark skinned and blue eyed with a fair beard. (Ujflvy, L'Anthropologie, vol. ii., 1900). This is the first tangible sign that the Indo-European Persians had started mixing with the darker natives of their land.

By the fourth century, this process had spread dramatically to where only a very few of the ruling class could still claim pure Indo-European ancestry. Finally the already largely mixed race Persians were to be overrun by the new White force in the region: the Indo-European Macedonians under Alexander the Great in a series of battles between 334 and 331 BC.

ZARATHUSTRA AND HIS INFLUENCE ON CHRISTIANITY

The Persians built vast and very good roads for the efficient administration of their huge empire, but are probably best remembered for their religion called Zoroastrianism. Founded by a prophet named Zarathustra, the basic religious concept of a never ending battle between good and evil supernatural powers, was later plagiarized by the early Christians and worked into the biblical New Testament (the concepts of heaven and hell are not mentioned at all in the Christian Old Testament).

WHITES IN THE MIDDLE EAST SUBMERGED CIRCA 250 BC

The fall of the Persian Empire marks the end of the great majority White civilizations in the Near East. By this time virtually all of the settlements in the greater region had lost whatever racial homogeneity they once had, and were to larger or smaller degrees societies comprised of a plethora of mixed races, producing the wide and varied physiognomy visible to this day in the region - a mix of Semitic and original White stock.

From the time of the fall of the Persian Empire however, the near East ceased to be an area which was majority occupied by peoples who could claim to be White in the original racial sense of the word. Nonetheless, to this day there remain significant Indo-European genetic throwbacks amongst the Persians, today called the Iranians, as is the case throughout the entire Near and Middle East, from India, Afghanistan, Iraq, Iran, Syria, Lebanon, and even amongst the Palestinians. Even the modern day word for Persia - Iran - is derived from their ancient racial roots, the Aryans (as is the case with Iraq and even the very word India).

Persia was overrun by the Arabic Muslims in 651 AD, and through the integration which followed the last major traces of the pure Indo-European peoples in the Middle East was diluted.

Indeed, much of what later became known as Muslim culture, architecture, writing and other skills, were taken from the Persians into the rest of the Semitic speaking world.

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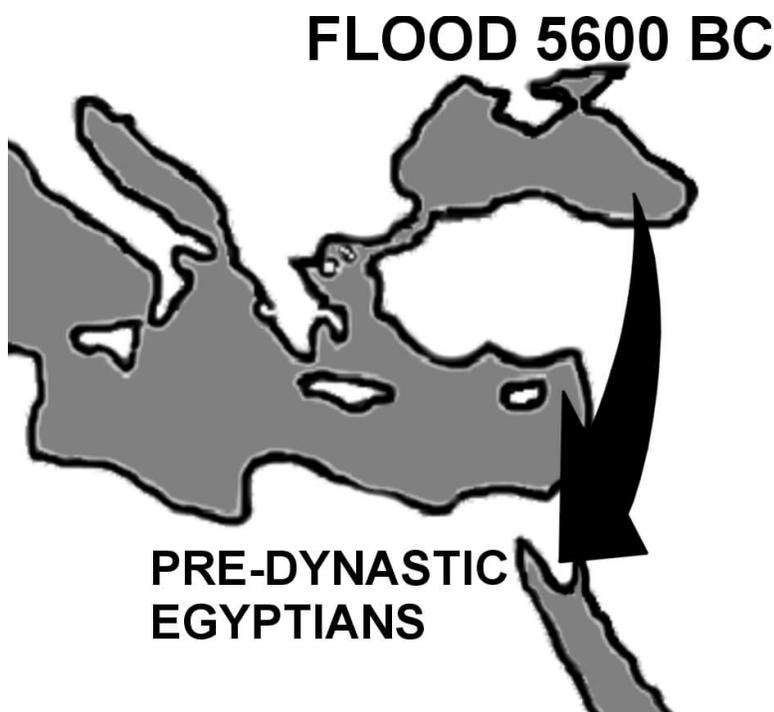
MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 8 : EGYPT - GREAT PHARAOHS AND LOWLY SLAVES

The Neolithic (farming) revolution had reached Egypt by the year 5000 BC and, typically for the time, the Neolithic settlements in Egypt were independent of one another. Archaeological finds on these sites of items such as copper ore, lead and silver, show that they had established definite contact with the civilization in Mesopotamia. This period in Egypt of loose settlement is called the pre-dynastic period and is formally considered to have come an end in 3100 BC.

"GINGER" AND OTHER INHABITANTS OF EARLY EGYPT

Racially speaking, the inhabitants of Egypt at this period in time were divided into three groups. Skeletal evidence from grave sites show that the original White Mediterraneans and Proto-Nordics were in a majority in the area - a well preserved body found in a sand grave in Egypt dating from approximately 3000 BC, on display in the British Museum in London, has even been nicknamed "Ginger" because of his red hair - a racial trait only found in persons of Nordic ancestry.



Above: Entering Egypt at the time of the great Indo-European migrations from the Black Sea Basin circa 5600 BC, Nordic peoples such as "Ginger" (below) settled the Nile River Valley and laid the basis for what was, by 3000 BC, to become the first Egyptian Dynasty.



A well preserved body from the pre-dynastic period in Egypt, circa 3,300 BC. Buried in a sand grave, the natural dryness of the surroundings kept the body preserved. His red hair (and thus Nordic features) have been so well preserved that he has been given the nickname "Ginger" at the British Museum where he is kept on public display. Right: "Ginger's" head.

However, diggings also reveal a significant minority of Semitic (Arabic) peoples were living in the Nile Delta valley alongside the Whites, and in the very far south (in what later became southern Egypt and the Sudan) lived a large number of Blacks. These were the Nubians who were to feature in Egypt's history - and against whom the Egyptians waged war and enslaved for nearly 2,000 years.

The existence of these two Nonwhite groupings within Egypt was later to have a major impact on the history of that civilization, and also do much to destroy the "environmental" theory of the origin of civilizations, as all three groups shared the same environment, yet produced very different levels of achievement.

THE OLD KINGDOM 3100 - 2270 BC

In terms of contemporary time frames, however, the Egyptian state first started formally emerging shortly after the establishment of the civilization between the Tigris and Euphrates river valley.

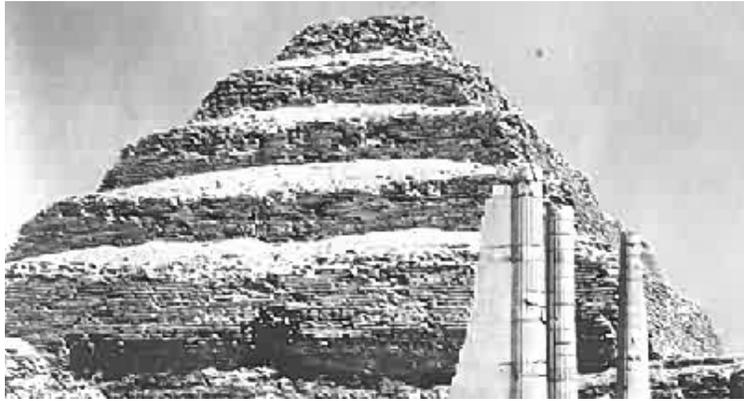
By the year 3100 BC, a measure of unity had started to take hold in Egypt, coalescing into northern and southern kingdoms. Around that year a dynamic leader named Menes united these northern and southern kingdoms and established a capital city at Memphis on the Nile River. The year 3100 BC therefore marks the start of the Dynastic Period, called the Old Kingdom by historians.

Menes developed the idea of using channels to divert the waters of the Nile to irrigate land - and this irrigation system exists along the Nile River to this day. Menes was such a gifted and charismatic leader that he was later deified by later Egyptians, and a cult developed which pictured him as a direct descendant of the Gods, a tradition which then spread to other pharaohs. It is very likely that the very word "man" originated with Menes.

During the reign of Menes, construction was first started on the greatest city of ancient Egypt, Memphis, which became the capital of this first kingdom. Also about this time, Egyptian pictograph writing appeared, probably inspired by the Sumerian script. The Old Kingdom traded extensively with surrounding lands, obtaining wood from Lebanon and copper from mines in the Sinai peninsula.

It was also during this Old Kingdom period that the great pyramids and Sphinx at Giza were built, starting around the year 2,500 BC. The project was launched by Pharaoh Cheops (also known as Khufu), who, because of the pyramids, remains one of the most famous pharaohs of this First Kingdom.

The Cheops pyramids are however not the oldest Egyptian pyramids - the step pyramid at Memphis predates the Cheops pyramids by at least a century, and was designed by a court architect who was later to be defied by the Egyptians, Imhotep. This great structure, nearly 66 meters high, must have seemed overwhelming to ordinary Egyptians at the time, who at best lived in two storey mud brick houses, and it is no surprise that the builder was eventually defied.



Left: The first great pyramid of Egypt: the step pyramid of Saqara, circa 2600 BC. The architect, Imhotep, was later made into a deity out of respect for this technological achievement. Right: The Sphinx and pyramids of Ghiza, circa 2500 BC.

The Cheops pyramids are impressive today - by the standards of the time of their construction they must also have appeared to be superhuman. Twenty years in the building, these pyramids used between five and six millions tons of stone, some blocks being moved over 500 miles, with virtually perfect masonry work on site so that the alignment variance of the stones even today is less than one percent. The greatest pyramid reaches 146 meters - higher than St. Peter's cathedral in Rome (which remains the biggest Christian cathedral in the world.)

RELIGION

Charms and magical prayers were collected into a book and paid for by the living to put into their tombs - a sort of insurance policy for a successful resurrection in the hereafter. This book made up what is known as the "Egyptian Book of the Dead."

Egyptian religion of the time was primarily concerned with the achievement of life after death. The practice of mummification was started on the basis of a myth that the God of the Nile River, Osiris, had been murdered by his evil brother, Seth. According to the myth, Seth cut Osiris' body into pieces. These pieces were however gathered together by Osiris' grieving widow, Isis, and re-assembled, thus resurrecting Osiris.

The Nile God then became the first mummy, and every mummified Egyptian became a second Osiris. This resurrection theme was to become dominant in other religions, and adopted by Christianity.

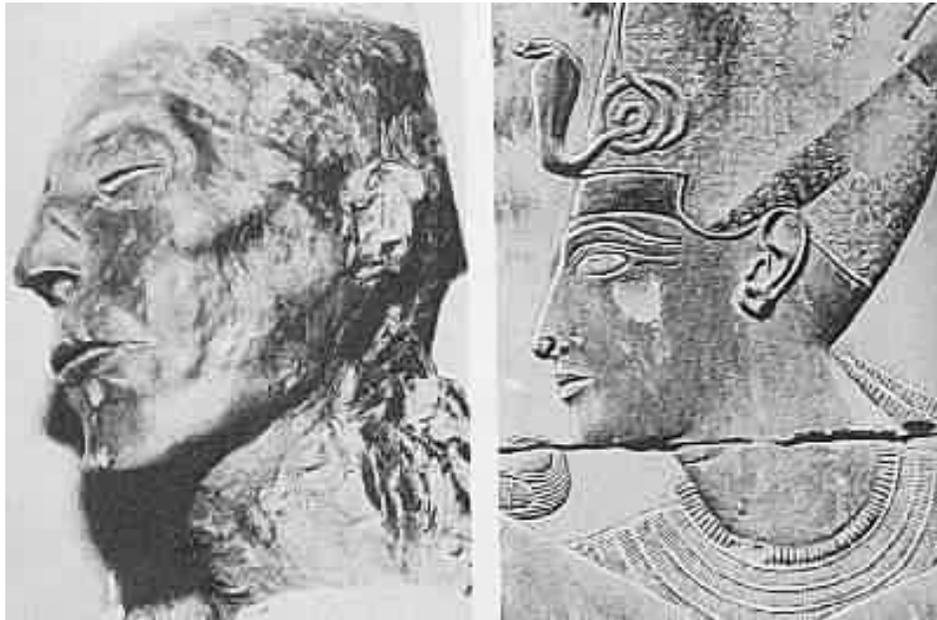
Thus the tradition of mummification started: a jump start to everlasting life in the hereafter. The process of mummification has also provided modern day historians with a spectacular and virtually unique chance to see the physical characteristics of Egyptians exactly as they were. The evidence is overwhelming that these first Egyptian societies were White - a Proto-Nordic/Alpine/Mediterranean cross. The leadership elite - in particular the pharaohs themselves - were mostly Nordic.

The mummified remains of numerous pharaohs and common folk from this first great Egyptian civilization have unmistakable White features, while the first written reference to blond hair is made on an Egyptian wall painting of the daughter of the famous pharaoh Cheops, Queen Hetep-Heres II, who is identified specifically by her blond hair.

The well preserved body of Pharaoh Ramses II has red hair, and there are large numbers of mummies whose blond hair has been extraordinarily well preserved through the centuries. This tradition of Nordic pharaohs was to last almost till the second part of the Third Kingdom, circa 1050 BC, by when racial demographic shifts had taken place in Egyptian society in favor of Nonwhite groups.



Nordic nobility in Ancient Egypt: Left: Yuya, Egyptian nobleman from 1400 BC, father of Tiy, the wife of Pharaoh Amenhotep III. Yuya's blond hair and Nordic facial structure have been well preserved by the embalming process; Right, a Nordic Egyptian Female Pharaoh: Queen Hatshepsut, wife of Pharaoh Thutmosis II. She ruled Egypt after Thutmosis' death in 1520 BC. Her long blonde hair and Nordic facial structure has been well preserved by the embalming process of the time.



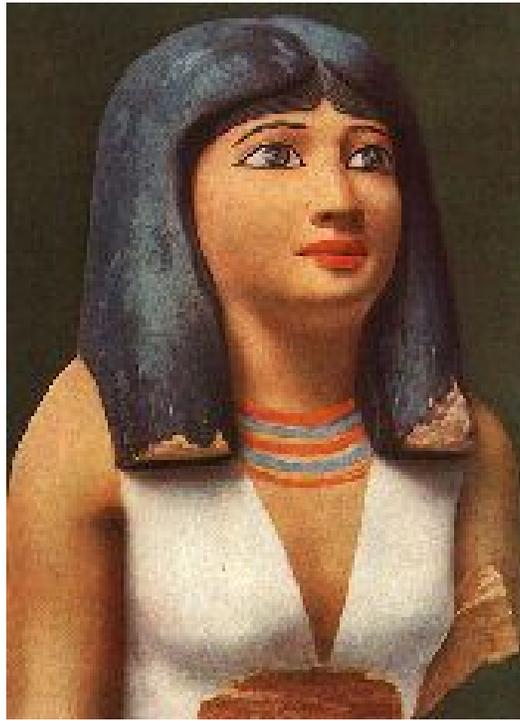
Nordic Egyptian King: the mummy of Pharaoh Seti I is the most lifelike of the great pharaohs of Egypt, and a tribute to the embalmer's art. His Nordic features remain crystal clear and because of the excellent preservation process, Seti's mummy can easily be compared with a relief of his face made in his lifetime at the Temple at Abydos. Seti was the son of the great Rameses I, and became pharaoh in 1320 BC. He reoccupied lands in Syria lost to earlier Syrian invasions, conquered Palestine and conducted campaigns against the Semitic Libyans and the Indo-European Hittites.

RACIAL IMAGES IN EGYPTIAN ART

Egyptian art is also filled with racial images: slaves and enemies of Egypt are almost always depicted as Semites or Blacks (with one or two Nordic slaves thrown in - they are easily identified by not only their facial features but also by their depiction with blond hair). These slaves were probably captives from wondering Indo-European invaders who had the misfortune to fall into bondage in Egypt.



An original wooden statue of the Egyptian King Hor (circa 1783 - 1633 BC) is inlaid with striking blue eyes. (On display at the Cairo Museum, Cairo, Egypt). Left: a general view of the statue; and right: a close-up of the face showing the Nordic eye coloring.



A blue eyed statue from the earliest Egyptian dynasties: A bust of an Egyptian noble lady from the fourth dynasty - around 2800 BC. A strikingly lifelike figure, inlaid with lapis lazuli blue eyes, it was placed inside the lady's tomb.

All this is not to say that no other races lived in the area. There lived a significant number of Semitic Arabic racial types, who had settled there from their homeland in the Arabian peninsula.

These Nonwhite peoples were however for many years - centuries even - excluded from mainstream Egyptian society because of their race, being most often used as laborers, along with Blacks captured by the Egyptians in warring expeditions even further south into modern day Sudan.



Semites, clearly identified as racially foreign with distinctive "Jewish" noses, present tributes to the Egyptian pharaoh, a painted scene from the tomb of Sobkhotep at Thebes.



Egyptian scribe from Saqqara, circa 2,600 BC. An excellent Mediterranean sub-racial type depicted in an original Egyptian sculpture.

EGYPTIAN ACHIEVEMENTS

Aside from the stupendous achievement of building the pyramids, the White civilization of Egypt is credited with many achievements, some of which benefit to this day. The Egyptians were the first to divide the solar year into 365 and one quarter days and twelve months, each of three weeks of ten days long, with five extra days at the end of the year.

The Egyptians also became famous for their medical skills, although the difference between magic and science does not appear to have been fully made. Evidence exists of advanced surgery having been carried out as far back as the First Kingdom, and many techniques and herbal remedies were taken over in toto by the Classical Greeks and survived right into medieval European times.

In contrast to Mesopotamian writing, Egyptian writing (hieroglyphics, meaning "sacred signs") remained pictorial in content throughout the span of this civilization. Egyptian writing was only deciphered in 1822 after the discovery of the Rosetta Stone.

THE MIDDLE KINGDOM (THE SECOND KINGDOM) 2060-1785 BC

The period 2270 - 2060 BC was marked by great instability in Egypt, where the political unity of the country fell to pieces for the lack of a strong leader. Only in the year 2060 BC was Egypt again politically united and once again rose to its old Kingdom splendor, although never again managing to build anything of the size of the Great Pyramids of Giza.

This period of political unity did not however last longer than 70 years, and around the year 1785 BC, a divided Egypt was conquered by a Semitic tribe known as the Hyksos, who had little trouble subjecting the Egyptians, aided through the use of iron weapons and a new fearsome weapon - the horse and chariot, neither of which the Egyptians had seen before. The Hyksos themselves had been attacked with this weapon by the Indo-European Nordic tribes who had developed this weapon on their route south from their respective homelands in the north.

It took some 200 years for the Egyptians to rebuild their strength and the Hyksos were only eventually expelled in 1580 BC - after the Egyptians had managed to master the new weapon of horse and chariot and turn it against the Hyksos.

The Egyptian records show that the Minoans from Crete had helped to fight the Semitic Hyksos invaders - further evidence of the close links between the Egyptians and the old European civilization.

However, the result of 200 years of Hyksos rule left its mark upon the Egyptian population, and a small but from then on growing number of the original White populace began to show physical characteristics which mark the start of the dissolution of the White gene pool into the White/Semitic mix which came to characterize virtually the entire Middle and Near East.

However, the majority of the Egyptian population was still overwhelmingly original White at this stage - it was only with the Third kingdom and its expansion into areas heavily populated by Nubians (Blacks from Sudan) and Ethiopia (occupied by masses of Arab/Semitic peoples) that large numbers of these Nonwhite peoples came to be prominent in Egyptian society, either as slaves or freemen.

THE NEW KINGDOM (THE THIRD KINGDOM) 1580-1085 BC

The third (and last) great surge in Egyptian power came with the expulsions of the Semitic Hyksos. Adopting the horse and chariot, energetic and expansionist pharaohs set about consolidating Egypt and establishing an empire. Syria, Phoenicia, Palestine, Nubia and northern Sudan (the latter with large Black populations) were all conquered and incorporated into the Egyptian empire.

The greatest expansionist king was Thutmose III (1501 - 1447 BC) and a series of tall pointed stone columns (called obelisks) were built to commemorate his various campaigns. Only four of the obelisks survived the ages and strife of Egypt's history, and today they stand in Istanbul, Rome, London and New York, silent reminders of the greatness of a bygone age.

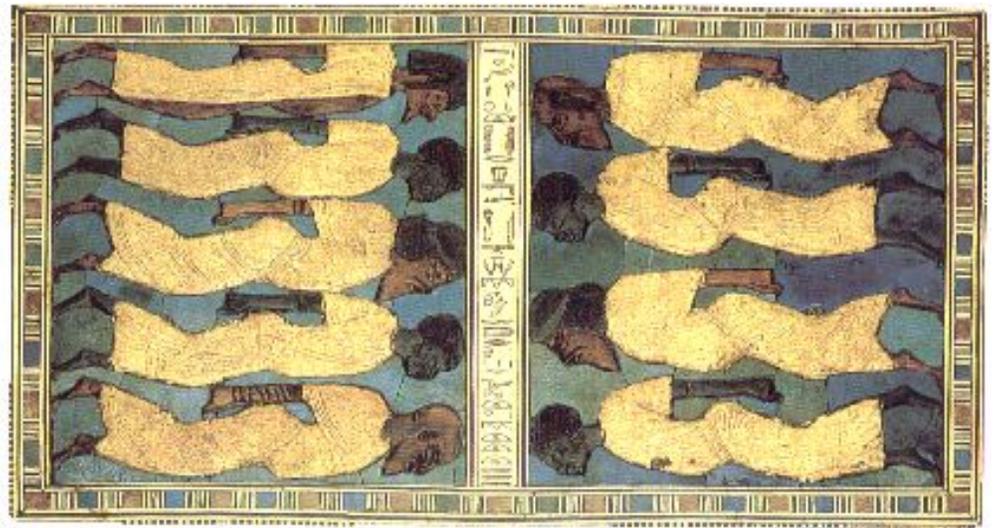
The greatest pharaoh of this time was Amenhotep III (1411 - 1375 BC) who built Thebes up into the world's most magnificent city of the time. Amenhotep built many other huge structures, including the temple of Luxor at the city of Thebes

TUTANKHAMEN

Tutankhamen, the boy king (who died when he was 18) reigned around 1350 BC. Although he died too young to become a pharaoh of any great significance in his own time, he gained fame when his tomb was discovered virtually intact in 1924 (one of the few tombs to be found in such a good state - most had been the subject of grave robbers centuries before). It is the gold burial mask of Tutankhamen which has come to symbolize ancient Egypt.

However, the real significance of the finds in Tutankhamen's tombs have been largely ignored: amongst Tutankhamen's possessions are some of the most graphically racial images in Egyptology.

One of Tutankhamen's thrones, the ecclesiastical chair, has on its' footstool the "Nine Bows" - the Egyptian name for the traditional enemies of Egypt. The finely crafted figures on the footstool are of nine Blacks and Semites tied together in chains. Their positioning on the footstool was so that when the pharaoh sat on his throne, his enemies would be under his feet.



Racial imagery from Tutankhamen's tomb: the ecclesiastical throne, shown assembled, and a full view of the footrest. Bound Semitic and Black prisoners appear on the footstool: the Egyptian king would rest his feet on his foes.

Another graphically racial image found in Tutankhamen's tomb is to be found on one of his walking sticks. The handle is made up of a bound Semite and a bound Black: so that when the Egyptian king went for a walk with his royal walking stick, he held the enemies of Egypt in his hand.



Racial imagery from Tutankhamen's tomb: bound Semitic and Black prisoners decorating the curved end of Tutankhamen's walking stick: when the Egyptian king went for a walk, he would hold the enemies of Egypt in his palm.

Yet another candid racial image from Tutankhamen's tomb is to be found in a pair of his sandals. Inlaid with a picture of a Semite and a Black, the pharaoh would trample his enemies underfoot when he walked.



Racial imagery from Tutankhamen's tomb: the Egyptian king's sandals have bound Black and Semitic prisoners inlaid into the soles: when the king walked in these shoes, he would crush the enemies of Egypt underfoot.

Tutankhamen's famous wooden chest, which was found in the ante-chamber of his tomb, contains yet another striking scene. On its sides, it shows the Egyptian King riding a chariot and trampling the "Nine Bows" or enemies of Egypt: Blacks and Semites.



A general view of the wooden chest (above) and below, a detail from the side, showing Tutankhamen trampling Blacks and scattered Semites under the wheels of his chariot and under his horses' hooves. Note also the three Black slaves fanning Tutankhamen at the rear of his chariot - the use of Nonwhite labor being the primary reason why that civilization was eventually overrun by the Nonwhites.



By Tutankhamen's time then, the Egyptians were clearly aware of the growing numbers of their racial enemies creeping up on them.

These graphic and stunning references to clearly identifiable racial enemies of Egypt are all the more remarkable when it is born in mind that the population make-up of Egypt had, by the reign of Tutankhamen, already started to swing heavily against the original White Egyptians, with Black and Semitic slaves being commonplace within that civilization.

In addition to this, a significant number of Egyptians themselves were now of mixed race, the Hyksos occupation

having left behind a number of Egyptian/Semitic mixes. Significantly, Tutankhamen's widow attempted to strike an alliance with the Indo-European Hittites who had in the interim become the leading power in the Near East, by arranging her marriage to a Hittite prince. (The marriage never took place, as the husband to be was killed just prior to the ceremony).

SEA PEOPLES

From the time of Tutankhamen onwards, the final decline of Egypt was irreversible. Later kings tried to reverse the trend - sometimes they succeeded, temporarily, in rolling back the waves of conquest and counter conquest in Palestine and Syria, and at one time a pharaoh did manage to take a Hittite princess as a bride.

But there were new enemies: Egypt was now attacked by new Indo-European invaders emerging from the Aegean, the so called Sea peoples. As their name implied, they arrived by boat and raided Egyptian settlements, leaving again by the means which they arrived.

These Sea Peoples were mainly comprised of Philistines from Asia Minor and Aecheans from mainland Greece.

Egyptian illustrations of the time show prisoners being taken with light hair and light eyes - Sea People raiders unfortunate enough to fall into captivity in Egypt, where they could expect no mercy.

THE DISAPPEARANCE OF THE WHITE EGYPTIANS

Ever since the time of the Hyksos invasion and the fall of the Second Kingdom, the demographic shift amongst the Egyptian population had been against the original Whites. Slowly at first, but then speeding up, Nonwhites or mixed racial types began to make up more and more of that country's population - drawn in as slaves, laborers, immigrants or invaders.

These other racial types were of two sorts: Semites (whom the Egyptians called "Sand Dwellers") and Blacks, from region of Nubia in the far south (present day Sudan).

A review of Egypt's relations with Nubia is therefore crucial to understanding what happened to the White Egyptians, and why they vanished.

RACE WAR WITH NUBIA

Clashes between the Egyptians and the Black Nubians had long been a feature of Egyptian history, with the first campaigns against the Nubians being launched by Old Kingdom pharaohs around 2900 BC. In 2570 BC, Pharaoh Sneferu launched a concerted attack upon Nubia. Egyptian records show that 70,000 prisoners were taken, a figure which must have been a staggering amount at the time. In 1296 BC Egypt conquered Nubia and built a series of massive forts to protect Egypt's southern borders against the Nubians, with the most famous of these being the fort at Buhen, which had walls which were 111 meters high and 4.5 meters thick.

Along the banks of the southern Nile huge stones were erected upon which, in hieroglyphics still visible today, the passage of Blacks past those points was forbidden - the first public "Whites Only" signs in history.

At the time of the Hyksos invasion of Egypt, many local Nubian kings allied themselves with the Hyksos and inflicted defeats upon the weakened Egyptians, including the destruction of the southern forts.

When the Hyksos were finally driven out, the White Egyptians exacted a terrible revenge upon the Blacks, launching many campaigns of conquest and suppression against them, all the while bringing back thousands into Egypt as slaves - a racial time bomb which was eventually to destroy Egyptian civilization.

EGYPTIAN WRITINGS ABOUT BLACKS

The White Egyptians left many written references to the Black population in Nubia and in their own midst. In fact, at one point, their writings record a law that forbade Blacks from entering their country at all.

An overview of these written inscriptions is highly worthwhile and devastates claims by pro-Black historians, who, in an attempt to distort the historical record, claim that the ancient Egyptian civilization was Black in racial origin.

The most complete record and translation of these scripts was undertaken by professor James Henry Breasted, Professor of Egyptology and Oriental History in the University of Chicago in his work "History of Egypt, from the Earliest Times to the Persian Conquest", Second Edition, 1909 - for anyone interested in a detailed overview, based on original Egyptian sources, this book is well worth reading.

All the writings quoted below have been extracted from Breasted's work and are based on original Egyptian records.

EGYPTIAN RACIAL WRITINGS : THE SITH DYNASTY

The Inscription of Uni, Count and Governor of the South reads as follows: (Uni was an official of the Old Kingdom.)

"His majesty made war on the Asiatic Sand-Dwellers and his majesty made an army of many ten thousands: in the entire South . . . among the Irthet Blacks, the Mazoi Blacks, the Yam Blacks, among the Wawat Blacks, among the Kau Blacks, and in the land of Temeh."

This is an example of an Old Kingdom (2980-2475 BC) Pharaoh using thousands of Blacks as mercenaries: the army was sent into southern Palestine and "returned in safety after it had hacked up the land of the Sand-Dwellers."

"His majesty sent me to dig five canals in the South, and to make three cargo-boats and four row boats of Acacia wood of Wawat. Then the Black chiefs of Irthet, Waway, Yam and Mazoi drew timber therefore, and I did the whole in only one year. The Pharaoh came to inspect this work and at the coming of the king himself, standing behind the hill country, while the chiefs of Mazoi, Irthet and Wawat, did obeisance and gave great praise."

This writing shows very clearly the use of Blacks as labor - and illustrates how Blacks were slowly but surely drawn into Egyptians society.

EGYPTIAN WRITINGS: THE TWELFTH DYNASTY

A sandstone stela found in the sanctuary of Wadi Halfa contains an account of the Nubian expedition of Pharaoh Sesostri I, which carried this king's wars to their southernmost limits. At the top of this stela there is a relief showing Sesostri I standing facing the Lord of Thebes, who says:

"I have brought for thee all countries which are in Nubia, beneath thy feet."

The god then gives to the king a line of bound captives, symbolizing Nubian towns.

The inscription of Prince Amenim, which is carved into the stone in the doorway of his cliff-tomb in Benihasin, describes the Black lands as "vile." It reads as follows ("Kush" was one of the Black lands) :

"I passed Kush sailing southward, ... then his majesty returned in safety having overthrown his enemies in Kush the vile."

The inscription on the stela of Sihathor, an "Assistant Treasurer" is now to be found in the British Museum., reads as follows:

"I reached Nubia of the Blacks, ... I forced the Nubian chiefs to wash gold."

"TO PREVENT THAT ANY BLACK SHOULD CROSS..."

The final conquest of Nubia was attained by Sesostris III in 1840 BC. This king conducted four campaigns against the Blacks and erected several forts at strategic points, making Nubia a permanent colony of Egypt.

The first Semneh stela inscription recounting the subjugation of Nubia by Sesostris III reads as follows:

"Southern boundary, made in the year 8, under the majesty of the king of Upper and Lower Egypt, Sesostris III, ... in order to prevent that any Black should cross it, by water or by land, with a ship, or any herds of the Blacks; except a Black who shall come to do trading in Iken, or with a commission. Every good thing shall be done with them but without allowing a ship of the Blacks to pass by Heh, going down stream, forever."

EGYPTIAN RACIAL WRITINGS: THE EIGHTEENTH DYNASTY (1580-1350 BC)

The inscription of Ahmose reads:

"Now after his majesty had slain the Asiatics, he ascended the river...to destroy the Nubian Troglodytes; his majesty made a great slaughter among them."

The Tombos Stela of Thutmose I reads:

"He hath overthrown the chief of the Nubians; the Black is helpless, defenseless, in his grasp. He hath united the boundaries of his two sides, there is not a remnant among the curly-haired, who came to attack; there is not a single survivor among them...They fall by the sword...the fragments cut from them are too much for the birds."

In the annals of the great warrior king, Thutmose III, at the sixth Karnak pylon, there is a list which contains no less than 115 of the names of the towns and districts of the conquered Nubian regions.

Another pylon at Karnak contains possibly four hundred towns, districts, and countries conquered in Nubia. Inscribed on a black granite tablet Karnak is the famous "Hymn of Victory" which reads as follows:

"I have bound together the Nubian Troglodytes by the tens of thousands. The northerners by hundreds of thousands as prisoners."

Another remarkable inscription is to be found on the Semneh Stela of Amenhotep III, now to be found in the British Museum in London. It reads as follows:

"List of the captivity which his majesty took in the land of Ibbet the wretched."

List of Prisoners and Killed

Living Blacks 150 heads

Archers 110 heads

Female Blacks 250 heads

Servants of the Blacks 55 heads

Their children 175 heads

Total 740 heads

Hands thereof 312

United with the living heads 1,052 "

THE RED HAired RAMSES II - LAST SIGNIFICANT WHITE PHARAOH

Egypt's last display of national vigor came with the red haired Pharaoh Ramses II (1292 - 1225 BC). Ramses II managed to re-establish the already decaying Egyptian Empire by recapturing much land in Nubia.

He also fought a series of battles against invading Indo-Europeans, the Hittites. This was culminated with the battle of Kadesh in northern Syria. Ramses signed a treaty with the Hittites in 1258 BC, which ended the war. In terms of the treaty, Ramses took as his wife an Indo-European Hittite princess. His other achievements included the building of the rock-hewn temple of Abu Simbel, the great hall in the Temple of Amon at Karnak, and the mortuary temple at Thebes.

After this king, Egypt entered into a steady period of decay, caused directly by the elimination of the original Egyptians, and their replacement with a mixed population made up of Black, Semitic and the remnant White population. This racially widely divergent nation was never again to reach the heights achieved by the First, Second or the first part of the Third Kingdoms. In these later years there were competing claimants to the pharaohs throne, many of whom, racially speaking, bore no resemblance to the original pharaohs at all.



The mummy of the red haired Egyptian King, Ramses II, is on public display at the Egyptian Museum, Cairo.

MIXED RACE PHARAOH IS THE LAST PHARAOH

The true Egyptians had all vanished at the very latest by 800 BC, and the divided and weakened Egypt was easy prey to numerous invaders, some Semitic, some Nubian and some Indo-European, none of whom established any sort of permanent rule.

The most prominent Nubian invaders set up a new kingdom, claiming to be the inheritors of the previous kingdoms, called today the 25th dynasty. This 100 year dynasty saw a number of mixed race rulers from 730 BC to 633 BC, all claiming to be pharaohs and attempting to revive some of the older practices, such as mummification.

The Nonwhite "Egyptians" were however an illusion - the true White Egyptians had vanished, along with their society, and the Nubian dynasty sputtered out of its own accord. The last pharaoh of this Nubian dynasty, Taharka, whose mixed race ancestry is clear from sculptures, was driven from his throne by invading Assyrians, and it is from this fall of Taharka that historians formally date the fall of Egypt, although in reality the last true Egyptian had disappeared nearly two hundred years previously.

THE END OF ANCIENT EGYPT: OVERRUN BY THE BLACK NUBIANS



Left: the White Egyptian Pharaoh Tuthmosis III circa 1450 BC,

and right, the Black Nubian Pharaoh Shabako, circa 710 BC.

Above: The last White Egyptians had vanished prior to 800 BC, physically integrated into the mass of Nubian and Semitic peoples who had come to dominate that land.

The resultant mixed race population was unable to withstand new invaders, some Semitic and some Black.

The most prominent of the Black Nubian invaders then set themselves up as new Egyptian kings, later called the 25th Dynasty, dated from 746 - 655 BC.

As can be seen from the racial features of the statue of Shabako, above right, the 25th dynasty was clearly Nonwhite. Compare Shabako's features to the unmistakably White visage of pharaoh Tuthmosis III (1490-1436 BC) left.

Unable to maintain the originally White civilization they had inherited, the 25th Dynasty

sputtered out of its own accord and was finally destroyed by an Assyrian invasion.

Although the fall of Egypt is officially dated as from the end of the 25th Dynasty, in reality the true ancient Egyptians had vanished more than 200 years earlier.

SKULLS - DETAILED STUDY REVEALS PAST

The course of racial developments in Egyptian history has been backed up by anthropological research. The British anthropologist G.M. Morant produced a comprehensive study of Egyptian skulls from commoner and royal graves from all parts of the Egyptian lands and times. His conclusions were that the majority of the population of Lower Egypt - that is in the Northern part of the country - were members of the (now virtually extinct) Mediterranean White subrace. In the south (or Upper Egypt) this population pattern was repeated but this time showing a certain percentage of Black admixture (reflecting the proximity of the Nubian settlement). Significantly, Morant found that with the passage of time, the differentiation in skull types between Upper and Lower Egypt became less and less distinct, until ultimately they became indistinguishable - the surest sign of the absorption of the White subrace into the growing Nonwhite mass. (Race, John R. Baker, Oxford University Press, 1974, page 519).

After passing under Ethiopian, Assyrian and Persian rule, Egypt was finally occupied in 325 BC by the Greek Macedonian Alexander the Great (whose tribe was one of the original Indo-European invaders of the Greek peninsula).

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["WHITE EGYPT: REFUTING THE LIES BY BLACK SUPREMACISTS ABOUT THE WHITE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT EGYPT"](#)

(It has a link back to this page and back to the White History main page)

CHAPTER 9 : ALPHA AND OMEGA - **THE RISE AND FALL OF CIVILIZATIONS**

What is meant by a "civilization"? There are probably as many definitions as sources one would care to consult - many of them are subjective in nature, classifying nations by technological advances or other narrow factors.

For the purposes of this book, civilization will be taken to mean the entire ambit of social/cultural manifestations which are characteristic to any particular nation or racial group. In this way the accusation of subjectivity can be avoided. Civilization, in the broadest sense of the word, includes all social manifestations, from social interactions to language, art forms, science, technology, customs and culture.

It is therefore possible to talk of a Japanese civilization, an American Indian (Amerind) civilization, a Polynesian civilization, an Australian Aboriginal civilization, a Black civilization and a White civilization, without being subjective about any of them.

THE QUESTION POSED BY RISE AND FALLS

When reviewing the historical development of all nations, quite often mention is made of a "rise and fall" of particular civilizations. This poses a major question: Why is that Japan, Sweden, England and Germany (as examples), all nations with limited natural resources, can have progressive active cultures after more than 2,000 years - and then why did such mighty nations as Rome, Greece, Persia, India, Portugal and even Spain produce active vibrant civilizations for a few centuries, and then fall, never to rise again?

Politically correct historians blame the rise and fall of the great nations of the past on politics, economics, morals, lawlessness, debt, environment and a host of other superficial reasons.

However, Japan, England, Sweden and Germany have gone through these crises of these nature scores of times, without those countries falling into decay. It is obvious that there must be some other factor at work - something much more fundamental than just a dip in politics, morals, lawlessness or any of the other hundreds of reasons that historians have attempted to dream up.

EACH SOCIETY UNIQUE TO EACH PEOPLE

Herein lies the key to understanding the rise and fall of all civilizations, no matter where they are or who they are. In any given territory, the people making up the society in that territory create a culture which is unique to themselves. A society or civilization is only a reflection of the population of that particular territory. For example: The Chinese civilization is a product of the Chinese people, and is a reflection of the makeup of the population living in China. The Chinese civilization is unique to the

Chinese people, they made it and it reflects their values and norms.

As the Chinese people made the Chinese civilization, it logically follows that the Chinese culture would disappear if the Chinese people were to disappear.

Presently the overwhelming majority of Chinese people live in China, creating the Chinese civilization in that land. If however Australian Aborigines had to immigrate to China in their millions, and the Chinese population had to dramatically reduce in numbers, then in a few years the character of Chinese civilization would change - to that reflecting the new inhabitants of that territory.

In other words, the society or civilization of that territory would then reflect the fact that the majority of inhabitants were now Aborigines rather than Chinese people. If China had to fill up with Aborigines, this would mean the end of Chinese civilization. Aborigines would create a new civilization which would reflect themselves, and not that of the Chinese people.

That this should happen is actually perfectly logical. It has nothing to do with which culture is more advanced, or any notions of superiority or inferiority - merely a reflection of the fact that a civilization is a product of the nature of the people making up the population in the territory.

A THEORETICAL EXAMPLE

To go back to the Chinese example: If all Chinese people on earth had to disappear tomorrow, then fairly obviously, Chinese civilization and culture would disappear with them. It is exactly this startlingly obvious principle which determines the creation and dissolution of civilizations - once the people who create a certain society or civilization disappear, then that society or civilization will disappear with them.

If the vanished population is replaced by different peoples, then a new society or culture is created, which reflects the culture and civilization of the new inhabitants of that region.

A PRACTICAL EXAMPLE

There are numerous examples of this process at work. One which will be familiar to all is the shift which occurred in North America. On that continent, the Amerind (American Indian) people lived for thousands of years, creating a civilization which dominated that continent. In other words, the civilization and culture which dominated North America reflected the fact that the Amerind people lived and formed the majority population there.

After 1500 AD, however, that continent filled up with White immigrants from Europe. These White immigrants displaced the Amerinds by squeezing them out of possession of North America.

The great shift in North American civilization then occurred. Whereas the Amerind culture had dominated for thousands of years, in a few hundred years the dominant civilization on that continent had become White European. This shift reflected the fact that the majority of inhabitants of North America had become White Europeans - and the Amerind civilization, for all practical purposes, disappeared. The Amerind civilization in North America "fell" because the population of North

America changed.

RACIAL SHIFT PARAMOUNT

This effect - the displacement of peoples and the subsequent disappearance of their civilization - has direct implications in racial terms. So the rise and fall of any particular civilization can therefore be traced, not by the economics, politics, morals etc. of a particular civilization, but rather by the actual racial presence of the people themselves. If the society which has produced a particular civilization stays intact as a racially homogenous unit, then that civilization remains active.

If however the society within any particular given area changes its racial makeup - through invasion, immigration or any decline in numbers - then the civilization which that society has produced will disappear with them, to be replaced by a new civilization reflecting the new inhabitants of that territory.

DISAPPEARANCE OF WHITES LED TO THE DISAPPEARANCE OF THEIR CIVILIZATIONS

Originally created by Proto-Nordics, Alpines and Mediterraneans, and then influenced by waves of Indo-European invaders, the White civilizations in the ancient world, the Near and Middle East all flourished, producing the wonders of the ancient world.

These regions were either invaded or otherwise occupied (through the use of laborers or by immigration, or in rare cases, by conquest) by Nonwhite peoples - Semitic speaking peoples, and in many cases Black peoples.

What happened was that the original White peoples who made up those civilizations vanished, were killed or were absorbed into other races, and with their disappearance, so their civilizations "fell" in exactly the same way that the Amerind civilization in North America "fell."

500 BC - FIRST TURNING POINT IN WHITE HISTORY

It is around the year 500 BC, that the first great turning point in White history was reached. This was the decline of the first great White civilizations in the Middle and Near East and their replacement by nations and peoples of a substantially different racial makeup.

Up until this time the development of White race's territorial expansion was such that they were a majority in Europe and western Russia and formed a significant component of the population of the Middle East, extending their rule into the Indus river valley in Northern India.

INDIA - ORIGIN OF THE CASTE SYSTEM

In India, for example, the Indo-Aryan population was diminished by four factors:

- A large Nonwhite (Indian) immigration northward into the region to do work offered by the society and civilization set up by the conquering Indo-Aryans;
- A high natural reproduction level amongst the Nonwhite immigrants;

- The level of racial mixing amongst Aryans and the Indians, which, by creating a new mixed ethnic identity, also changed the racial makeup of the inhabitants of the region; and
- A decline in the birth rate amongst the Aryans.

In India, the invading Indo-Aryans established a strict segregation system to keep themselves separate from the local dark skinned native population. This system was so strict that it has lasted to this day and has become known as the caste system.

However, even the strictest segregation (and Aryan laws prescribing punishments such as death for miscegenation) did not prevent the majority population from eventually swallowing up the ruling Aryans till the situation has been reached today when only a few very high caste Brahmin Indians could still pass as Europeans.

Exactly the same thing happened in central Asia, Egypt, Sumeria, and to a less marked degree, in modern Turkey. Slowly but surely, as these civilizations relied more and more on others to do their work for them, or were physically conquered by other races, their population makeup became darker and darker.

EGYPT - DECLINE A RESULT OF MISCEGENATION WITH SLAVES

The original White Egyptians, for their part, had from the time of the Old Kingdom, been using Nubian - or Black - and Semitic (or Arabic) labor to help with the work on many of their building projects or as general slaves.

At various stages the Pharaohs also employed Nubian mercenaries, and ultimately Nubia and Sudan were physically occupied and incorporated into the Egyptian empire. Although the buildings of ancient Egypt are very impressive - many having survived through to present times, technologically speaking, their construction was dependant on the Egyptian ability to organize an unprecedented mass of human labor.

Under the direction of a scribe and architect, thousands of slaves and regiments of soldiers labored for decades to create the great buildings, using only levers, sleds and massive ramps of earth. It is impossible to think that such massive use of slave and foreign labor would not have left some mark on the population of the land. Interbreeding took place, and this combined with the natural growth and reproduction patterns of the slaves and laborers meant that in a relatively short time they compromised a significant section of the population.

Despite several attempts to prevent large numbers of Nubians from settling in Egypt - one of the first recorded racial separation laws is inscribed on a stone on the banks of the southern Nile, forbidding Nubians from proceeding north of that point - the use of Nubians for labor of all sorts gradually led to the establishment of a resident Nonwhite population. This population gradually grew in numbers, through natural reproduction and continued immigration.

The region also was occupied for 200 years by the Semitic Hyksos, who also intermarried with the local population, and this was followed up with other Semitic/Arabic immigration, fueled by the long existing Black settlement on the southern most reaches of the Nile river itself.

Once again the factors which led to the extinction of the Aryans in India came to work in Egypt - a resident Nonwhite population to do the labor - a natural increase in Nonwhite numbers - physical integration - and a decline in the original White birth rate - all these compounded to produce an eventual Egyptian population makeup of today that is very different to the men and women who had founded Egypt and who had built the pyramids.

As the population make up shifted, so the cultural manifestations, or civilization of that region, changed - to the point where the present day population of the Middle East is not by any stretch of the imagination classifiable as White.

This explains why the present inhabitants of Egypt are not the same people who built the pyramids. The Egyptians of today are a completely different people, racially and culturally, living amongst the ruins of another race's civilization.



Evidence of the use of Black slaves in Egyptian society. This Egyptian kohl (eye paint) pot is carried by a young Black Nubian slave girl - no doubt the pot's owner would have been served by just such a female slave. The pot

dates from the 18th Dynasty (1567 - 1320 BC).



1350 BC.....100 AD1970 AD

Egypt: same country, different people.

On the left, the White Female Pharaoh, Queen Nefertiti, circa 1,350 BC; in the center, the effects of racial mixing are clearly to be seen on the face of this coffin portrait of a Roman lady in Hawara, Egypt, 100 AD; and on the right, the mixed race Egyptian, Anwar Sadat, president of Egypt in the 20th century. Nefertiti ruled over an

advanced civilization; Sadat ruled over a Third World country. The reason for the difference in cultures between Nefertiti's Egypt and Sadat's Egypt was that the Egyptian people themselves had changed.

MIDDLE EAST

The decline and eventual extinction of the White populations in the Middle East mark the end of the original civilizations in these regions. In all the Middle Eastern countries the Semitic, Arabic, and Black populations also began to grow as they were increasingly used as labor by the ruling Whites - or in the case of Sumer, where the White rulers were physically displaced by military conquest at the hands of Semitic invaders.

This process continued until virtually all remains of the original Indo-Europeans in the greater region were assimilated into the darker populations, with only the occasional appearance of light colored hair or eyes amongst today's Iraqis, Iranians, Syrians, and Palestinians, left to serve as reminders of the original rulers of these territories.

LESSON - ROLE OF RACIALLY FOREIGN LABOR IN THE DECLINE OF A CIVILIZATION

The lesson is clear: As long as a race - any race, be it White, Black, or Mongolian - maintains its territorial integrity and does not start to rely on others not of its own or similar race to provide its labor, that civilization will stand intact. Once it starts to allow large numbers of other races into its midst (to do the labor and then to integrate with the newcomers) then that civilization will change - or in many cases, vanish completely. This fact applies equally to all civilizations, no matter who their original creators are, anywhere in the world.

A civilization - any civilization, be it White, Black, Asian or Aboriginal - stands or falls by the homogeneity of its population, and nothing else. As soon as a society loses its homogeneity, the nature of that society changes.

In reality, this is a perfectly logical principle and is not even an opinion, but a simple statement of fact and of the obvious.

GREECE AND ROME

The early White civilizations in Greece and Rome also fell to this process. The last great Grecian leader, Pericles, actually enacted a law in the year 451 BC limiting citizenship of the state by racial descent.

However, some 400 years later this law was changed as the population shifts had become more and more evident. Today there are significant genetic differences between many inhabitants of Greece and the original inhabitants of that country, although this change is not as complete as in a place such as Egypt.

Certain Roman leaders also tried to turn back the racial clock, but ultimately these efforts were also to be in vain - the sheer vastness of the Roman Empire meant that all sorts of races were included in its borders, and this heady brew ultimately led to the dissolution of the original Roman population, as

described in detail in a later chapter of this book.

Those who occupy a territory, determine the nature of the society in that territory. This is an immutable law of nature which cannot be escaped. This is very principle upon which history is founded: ***History is a function of race.***

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 10 : THE HELLENES - **CLASSICAL GREECE**

The Greek peninsula, and its northern borders, the Balkans, had previously been settled by the original European peoples during the Neolithic Age. These peoples had created the Old European civilizations, which were some of the most advanced in Europe at the time.

From approximately 5000 BC onwards, the Indo-European peoples had started flooding westwards, at first conquering but then integrating with these original Old European peoples.

This massive influx of peoples brought about the fall of these Old European civilizations - and in their place arose the two great civilizations which have come to epitomize the classical world: Greece and Rome.

MYCENAE AND DORIANS - FOUNDERS OF ATHENS AND SPARTA

The first of these new great peoples was the Mycenaean civilizations, started around the year 1900 BC. The Myceneans were however dispersed by yet another Indo-European invasion, that of the Dorians. The Myceneans settled in large numbers on islands off the present day Turkish coast, establishing what became known as Ionia and the Ionian civilization. The Dorians established their capital city at Sparta, a city which, along with Athens, was to become synonymous with the history of Classical Greece.



The citadel of Mycenae, reconstructed to what it looked like at its height. The genesis of Classical Greek culture was born and nurtured here, one of the earliest Indo-European invasions of the Grecian lands.

By approximately 1000 BC, the waves of invading Indo-Europeans had started to come to an end, and a semblance of stability returned to central and western Europe. Together with the original European peoples, the new Nordic settlers built upon the Old European civilizations, with the first great "city states" being built on the Greek peninsula.

HELLENIC AGE 800 BC - 400 BC

The four hundred years stretching from 800 BC to 400 BC are known as the Hellenic Age, and mark the height of classical Greek civilization. Around this time the Greeks also founded the city of Byzantium, later to become famous as Constantinople and today called Istanbul.

It was only the later Romans who called the inhabitants of this region Greeks - they referred to themselves as Hellenes, hence the Hellenic Age.



Nordic racial types in original Classical Greek sculpture: on the right, the head of a victor in the Olympic Games; center, the Greek leader Menelaus; and right, the goddess Aphrodite.

IDEOLOGICAL DIVISION - OLIGARCHY VERSUS DEMOCRACY

A knowledge of the nature of the city state is crucial to an understanding of the history of Classical Greece. Far from being an united people, the Greeks established themselves in walled, fortified and quite often self sustaining cities, each being fiercely independent and seemingly wont to go to war with each other at the proverbial drop of a hat.

By 750 BC, two distinct ideologies had formed amongst the Greek city states. The first was an oligarchy: - ruled by an educated elite. The second was a limited form of democracy - rule by the masses.

The city of Sparta was the leading exponent of the oligarchical system, with the city of Athens being the leading exponent of the democratic system. Four city states in particular achieved prominence: Sparta, Corinth, Athens and Thebes. The last three of these cities were plagued by political uncertainty for long periods, with government forms alternating between democracies, monarchies and oligarchies.

Sparta was the only exception to this variance in political form: throughout it steadfastly remained a relatively stable oligarchy, and actively despised the democracies.

SPARTA AND RACE - WORLD'S FIRST EUGENICS

The Spartans themselves kept their society strictly divided into three classes: by blood. At the top were the

Spartans themselves, nearly all Nordic, ruled by their king.

The middle class comprised mainly of the original Greeks and some later descendants of other Indo-European invaders (such as the Dorians). This middle class tended to be less Nordic in appearance than the Spartans themselves.

The lowest class of Spartan society were the darkest in the society, called helots, who were mainly original Mediterranean racial types who had mixed with North African (Arabic, Nubian and Semitic) slaves imported into the region at an earlier date.

The Spartans devoted themselves full time to military and physical training. Every Spartan man was a lifelong soldier, never taking part in any other function of society. The middle classes undertook all the commercial activity in Spartan society, while the lowest classes did the manual labor. The existence of this full time and fully trained professional army class was unique in history, and the city of Sparta was the only Grecian city which did not have city walls - so feared were the Spartan soldiers, that none deemed it wise to attack the city.

The Spartans also practiced a crude form of racial eugenics (improvement of the racial line) - allowing only the best and perfect specimens amongst them to survive to adulthood. All new babies were examined by a council of elders and any mentally retarded or severely deformed children were deliberately left to die.

The Spartans also regularly engaged in what was known as the *crypteria* - the wholesale slaughter of hundreds of helots at a time, officially recorded as a necessary measure to preserve their society. In addition, Spartan laws dictated heavy penalties for celibacy and late marriage, and exempted those from taxes who had more than four children.

The end effect of all these measures was a gradual Nordicism of Spartan society. This process was however to run out of steam as the warlike nature of the Spartans finally whittled away their warrior class, many being killed in battle before having time to procreate in sufficient numbers to keep up a steady population growth.

So weakened, the Spartans were to be finally overrun by an Indo-European people from north Greece, the Macedonians. Thus the Spartans are virtually unique in that they did not disappear through racial integration, but rather through self extermination in endless wars.

Although not as formally defined, more or less the same racial class mix prevailed in virtually all of the southern Greek city states, with the lowest (and darkest) classes always being the numerically superior group - and also being continually supplemented by the importation of slaves and laborers from other territories which from time to time fell under the sway of the various city states.

ATHENS - EVOLUTION OF GOVERNMENT

Athens passed first through a period of oligarchy, then into autocracy and finally into a limited democracy. There was however no standing army although the Athenians could, once mobilized, put a very powerful military force into the field.

The two ideological systems which prevailed in the different city states - oligarchy and democracy - came into direct conflict with one another - and this conflict played a major role in destroying the power of classical Greece, although the final blow which caused the disappearance of Classical Grecian power was once again, the infusion of foreign blood.

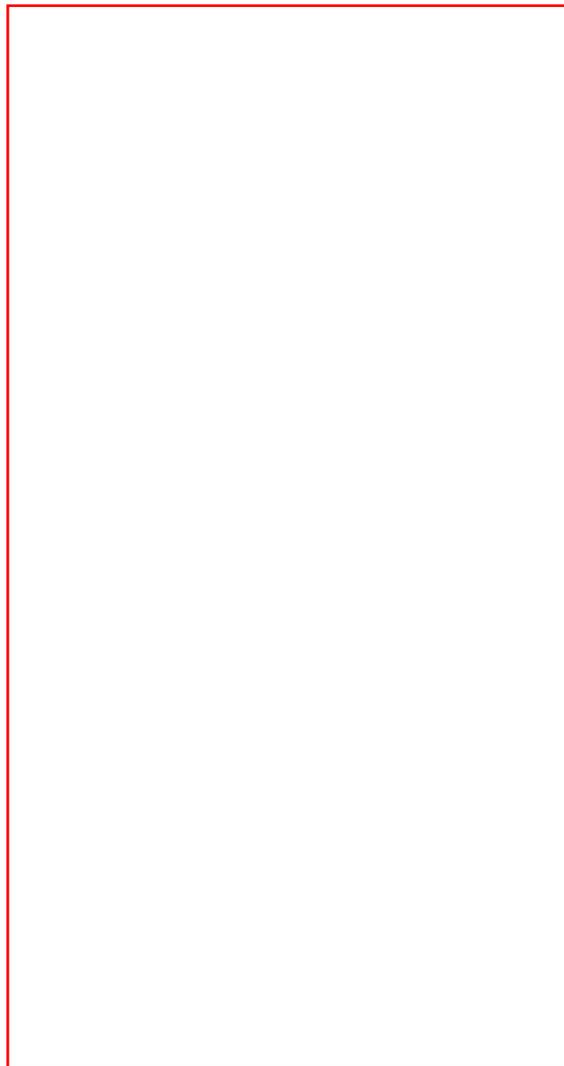
The influx of Nonwhite foreigners into Classical Greece came about through the large scale colonization of neighboring territories. Although some territories upon which Greek colonies were established, had racially compatible natives (such as the then population of southern Italy - different from that residing there today - and the Mediterranean coast of France and eastern Spain) - many were however not compatible at all.

The importation of slaves into mainland Greece from areas such as Asia Minor, North Africa and other parts of the Middle East started and continued unabated between the years 700 BC and 500 BC - all of which ultimately left their mark upon a significant section of the Greek population of the time.

Originally the Classical Greeks prided themselves upon possessing the "fairest eyes . . . of all the nations" or so wrote the Jewish physician and sophist Adamantios during the 4th Century AD (*Physiognomimica*, iii. 32).

As the darker elements in Grecians society grew in number, so did the desire to mimic the original Nordic blonde haired type. The Greek writer Euripides for example wrote a tract on how hair could be dyed blonde.

This is not however to say that the Classical Greeks did not do enough damage to themselves by constant fighting with other Whites and themselves, with the first of these great and lingering conflicts being with the Persians.



A splendid original statue of an Athenian soldier in full battle dress. Soldiers such as this fought both the Greek/Persian and the Inter-Greek Wars from 490 to 404 BC.

THE ATHENIAN WARS WITH PERSIA 490 - 480 BC

The originally Indo-European Persians had started expanding their empire around 550 BC - and this expansion westward included occupying the Ionian city states, founded by the remnants of the Mycenaean peoples.

After the Persian King, Darius I, ascended to the throne, the Ionians rebelled and re-established their independence and for five years, from 499 BC to 494 BC, the Ionians held out against the Persians.

The Persians did however reconquer Ionia and as punishment, destroyed the largest city in that region, Miletus.

During the Ionian rebellion the city state of Athens had sent material aid to Ionia, and this act led to the Persians deciding to punish the Athenians. Thereafter followed two Persian invasions of the Greek mainland, in 490 BC and 480 BC respectively. The first Persian invasion force was however defeated at the battle of Marathon and the invaders were forced to retreat and wait another ten years before re-launching their forces.

THERMOPYLAE - LEONIDAS' HEROIC STAND

The second invasion began when the Persian king Xerxes I in 481 BC, brought together one of the largest armies in ancient history, crossing the Bosphorus strait over a bridge made of boats.

The Greeks met the Persian army in 480 BC at Thermopylae, where the Spartan leader Leonidas I and several thousand soldiers heroically defended a narrow pass.

A treacherous Greek showed the Persians another path that enabled the invaders to enter the pass from the rear. Leonidas permitted most of his men to withdraw, but he and a force of 1,400 Greeks fought until they were all killed by the overwhelmingly numerically superior Persian force.

The Persians then proceeded to Athens, capturing and burning the abandoned city. The Persian fleet then set sail after the Greek fleet, meeting them in battle off the island of Salamis near Athens. This battle, which saw over 700 ships from both sides engage one another for virtually an entire day, ended in defeat for the Persians. The Persian King, who had watched the battle from a golden throne on a hill overlooking the scene, fled back to Persia.

In the following year, 479 BC, the remainder of the Persian ground forces in Greece were beaten at the battle of Plataea.

In 478 BC a large number of Greek states formed a voluntary alliance, the Delian League, to drive the Persians from the Greek cities and coastal islands of present day Turkey. Athens, its status amongst the Greek city states enhanced by the victory at Salamis and Plataea, led the alliance. The victories of the League resulted by the year 466 BC in the liberation of the Ionian islands from Persian rule.

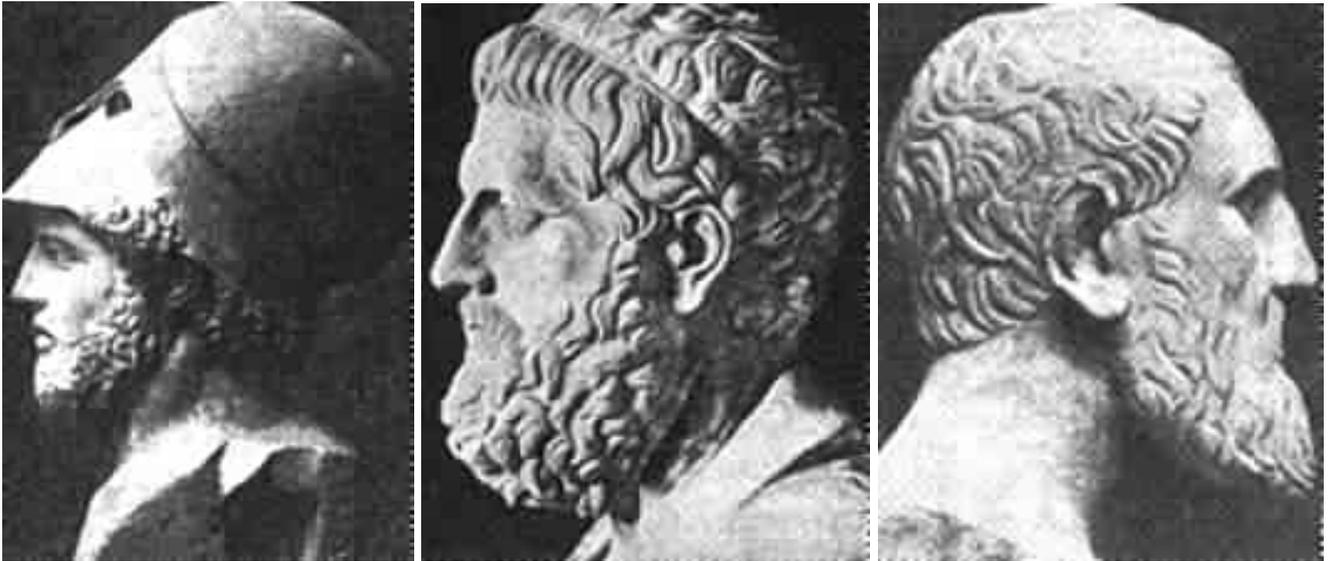
PERICLEAN GOLDEN AGE - VOTE BASED ON BLOOD

From the years 460 BC to 429 BC, Athens and many Grecian cities went through what is now known as its

Golden Age.

Athens was under the leadership of an immensely popular leader named Pericles, who, although a democrat (in the limited Athenian sense of the word - only adult males of a certain class were allowed to vote), was most certainly under no illusion of the potential threat to his society posed by the influx of Nonwhite peoples.

In 451 BC, Pericles enacted a law limiting Athenian citizenship by biological descent - only those born of an Athenian mother and an Athenian father could be citizens - in other words voting rights were granted on the basis of blood only.



Left to right: Pericles of Athens, original Greek sculpture; Sophocles of Athens, original Greek sculpture; Zenon of Cyprus, founder of the Stoic philosophy, original Greek sculpture.

During the time of Pericles, Classical Greece reached the heights for which it is remembered today: it was at this time that the Olympic Games were established and held every four years at Olympus in honor of the god Zeus, lasting in that form until the year 394 AD.

During these celebrations, virtually all the Grecian city states sent athletes to Olympus, and any wars that might have been proceeding at the time were temporarily halted for the games.

Another of Pericles' achievements was the construction of the Parthenon on the acropolis in Athens, built from 447 BC to 432 BC and dedicated to that city's patron goddess, Athena Parthenos. This monument still stands today as a world famous beacon of Classical Greece.



The Parthenon, Athens, 447-438 BC, as it is today, and below, The Acropolis as it appeared during Athen's golden age. Pericles, Athen's greatest ruler, and Phidias, her greatest architect, raised the city to such heights that her sheer aesthetic beauty has been unsurpassed to this very day. When the Romans finally occupied Greece - long after the latter's collapse - they were in awe of the sheer splendour and beauty of Athens, and took much of their architecture and artistic style direct from Classical Greece.



THE INTER-GREEK WARS 431 BC - 404 BC

The wars between the Greek city states, known as the Peloponnesian Wars, (named after the peninsula) were the immediate cause of the collapse of the military might of Classical Greece.

After the end of the Persian wars, Greece had divided into two alliances - the Spartan League (mostly monarchies or oligarchies led by the city Sparta) and the Athenian empire (mostly democracies led by the city Athens).

Internal politicking, jealousy, general mistrust and the conflict between democracy and oligarchy led to the outbreak of war between the two alliances.

The first phase of the war was inconclusive, as although the Spartans had a strong land force, the Athenians were most powerful at sea. The city state of Athens was furthermore protected by massive and well built

fortifications, which included the "Long Walls" - an incredible set of approximately seven mile long walls lining a single road linking Athens with its major port, Piraeus, through which the Athenian navy could keep the city supplied in times of siege.

In 430 BC, a plague broke out in Athens and a quarter of the population, including Pericles, died. The Spartan League also suffered as the plague spread, and by 421 BC both sides were exhausted. A peace treaty was signed, but the peace was short-lived and a renewed conflict broke out in 415 BC, when the Athenians attempted an invasion of Sicily, where Spartan aligned colonies had been established.

The Persians, still smarting from their defeat at the hands of the Athenians in 480 BC, then intervened, offering the Spartans money and skills to build a fleet to match that of the Athenians, on condition that the Spartan League guaranteed the Persians a free hand in Ionia.

The Spartan League accepted and by 405 BC, the new Spartan fleet scored a decisive naval victory at a harbor called Aegospotami in Thrace. The Spartans captured 170 Athenian ships and took about 4,000 prisoners, a blow from which Athens could not recover. The Spartans then renewed their siege of Athens.

This time, without a fleet to supply the city, the will to resist collapsed and along with the spread of famine in 404 BC, caused Athens to finally surrender.



Two Greek soldiers in battle. The Inter Greek Wars, known as the Peloponnesian Wars (431 -404 BC) were fought between alliances led by Athens and Sparta respectively. The wars ended in defeat for Athens, and with Spartan rule extending all over Greece. The wars however had an important racial side effect - they dramatically reduced the number of Indo-European inhabitants of the land. This, combined with the importation of large numbers of mixed race slaves from the near East and Africa, contributed significantly to the collapse of Classical Greece.

The Peloponnesian wars were at an end, but they had exacted such a toll from all the Greek city states that the numbers of Whites had been significantly reduced. This, combined with physical integration with the imported mixed race slaves from the Middle East and Africa, was the primary cause of the collapse of Classical Greece.

By 400 BC, none of the formerly great city states could withstand the new power in the north, that of Macedonia. From this land was to emerge Alexander the Great, who conquered all the warring Grecian city states in 338 BC.

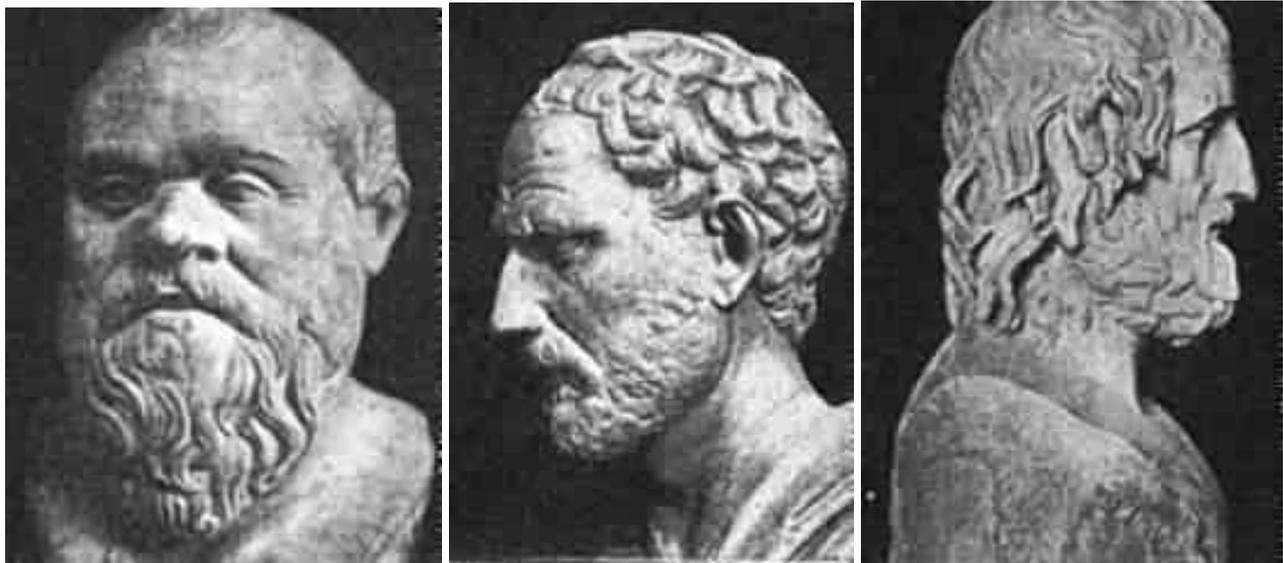
GREEK ACADEMIA

Great buildings are not the only legacy of Classical Greece. Between the years 700 BC to 400 BC, there were great philosophical, cultural and scientific achievements as well. Any review of Classical Greece is incomplete without an overview of these great works.

- Greek philosophy is today still held in high esteem. The father of philosophy was one Thales (636 BC - 546 BC) who lived in the Ionian city of Miletus. Thales was the first philosopher to offer an explanation of life in terms of natural causes, and not in terms of the whims of gods.

- The geometrician Pythagoras (582 BC-500 BC) came from Samos in Ionia, and is most famous for his geometric theory to do with the right angled triangles.

- Another group of philosophers came to be known as Sophists, teachers of debate known as rhetoric. The Sophists insisted that truth in itself was a relative concept and denied the existence of any universal standards. The most famous Sophist was Protaras (490 BC - 421 BC) from whose name the word "protagonist" originates.



From Left to right: Socrates: an Alpine Greek racial type, original Greek sculpture; Demosthenes of Athens, original Greek sculpture; Euripides of Athens, original Greek sculpture.

- In the fourth century a philosopher named Diogenes founded a school of philosophers known as the Cynics. They had no respect for rules and regulations of society and lived very simply. Diogenes lived this philosophy to the extreme, at one stage using a large storage jar as his home.

- The Stoic philosophers were named after the stoa (porch) where their founder, Xenon, taught. They believed that if people acted naturally they would behave well, because their nature was controlled by the gods.

- The most outstanding opponent of the sophists was the Athenian born Socrates (470 BC - 399 BC) who believed in and quested after an eternal truth. Unfortunately for him his quest eventually led to his enforced suicide after his fellow Athenians accused him of disobeying religious laws and of corrupting the youth.

- The greatest of Socrates' disciples was Plato (427 BC - 347 BC) who achieved immortality by writing the first systematic treatise in political science, The Republic. Plato saw society as being divided into three classes -

bronze (the workers); silver (the middle class); and gold (the ruling class). Significantly, Plato was the first renowned philosopher to recognize race as a factor in the rise and fall of civilizations. In *The Republic* he stated that the first requirement of continued statehood was the necessity of retaining racial homogeneity.

- Plato's greatest pupil was in turn Aristotle (384 BC to 322 BC) who wrote well on a large number of topics including art, biology, mathematics, politics, logic and rhetoric. Aristotle also was the tutor of Alexander of Macedonia, who was later to become ruler of most of the known world in his short life.

- Hippocrates (circa 420 BC) was a brilliant physician who revised much of what was till then known about medicine. His Hippocratic oath is still used by doctors today as a code of professional ethics.

- Great Greek playwrights include Aeschylus (525 BC - 456 BC); Sophocles (496 BC - 406 BC) best known for his play *Oedipus Rex*, about a man who mistakenly marries his mother; Euripides (480 BC- 406 BC); and the comedian Aristophanes (445 BC- 385 BC).

- One freed slave became famous as a story teller: Aesop, who lived in the fourth century BC, is best remembered for his collection of short stories, each with its own moral lesson.



Greek theater, Epidaurus, circa 350 BC.

THE GREEK GODS

Greek Mythology consists in essence of a number of stories about a variety of gods. The Greek beliefs had several characteristics in common with many other Indo-European pre-Christian religions: gods often resembled humans in form and showed human feelings and did not involve specific spiritual teachings. As the mythology had no holy book or defining manual, the interpretations and practice thereof also differed widely. In this mythology the gods lived on a holy mountain, Mount Olympus, and there lived in what was a fairly ordinary society with a strict hierarchical structure.

The main gods and their respective areas of responsibility reflect the very earthly nature of the religion as a whole:

- Zeus was the head of the gods, and the spiritual father of all the other gods and people.
- Hera was Zeus's wife, and also the queen of heaven and the guardian of marriage.
- Hephaestus was god of fire and metalworkers.

- Athena was the goddess of wisdom and war and official patron of the city named after her.
- Apollo was the god of light, poetry, and music.
- Artemis was the goddess of wildlife and the moon.
- Ares was the god of war.
- Aphrodite was the goddess of love.
- Hesti was the goddess of the earth.
- Hermes was the messenger of the gods and ruler of science and invention.
- Poseidon was the ruler of the sea who, with his wife Amphitrite, led a group of less important sea gods, such as the Nereids and Tritons.
- Demeter, the goddess of agriculture, was associated with the earth.
- Hades, an important god but not generally considered an Olympian, ruled the underworld, where he lived with his wife, Persephone. The underworld was a dark and mournful place located at the center of the earth, populated by the souls of the dead.
- Dionysus was the god of wine and pleasure, and as a result was one of the most popular gods. Not surprisingly there were many festivals devoted to him. Dionysus was accompanied by a host of creatures called satyrs (creatures with the legs of a goat and the upper body of a monkey or human), centaurs (the head and torso of a man and the body of a horse), and nymphs (beautiful young fairy like women).
- The very name Europe is derived from that of the Greek goddess Europa, the daughter of the Phoenix, which was able to resurrect itself from the ashes after being killed in fire.

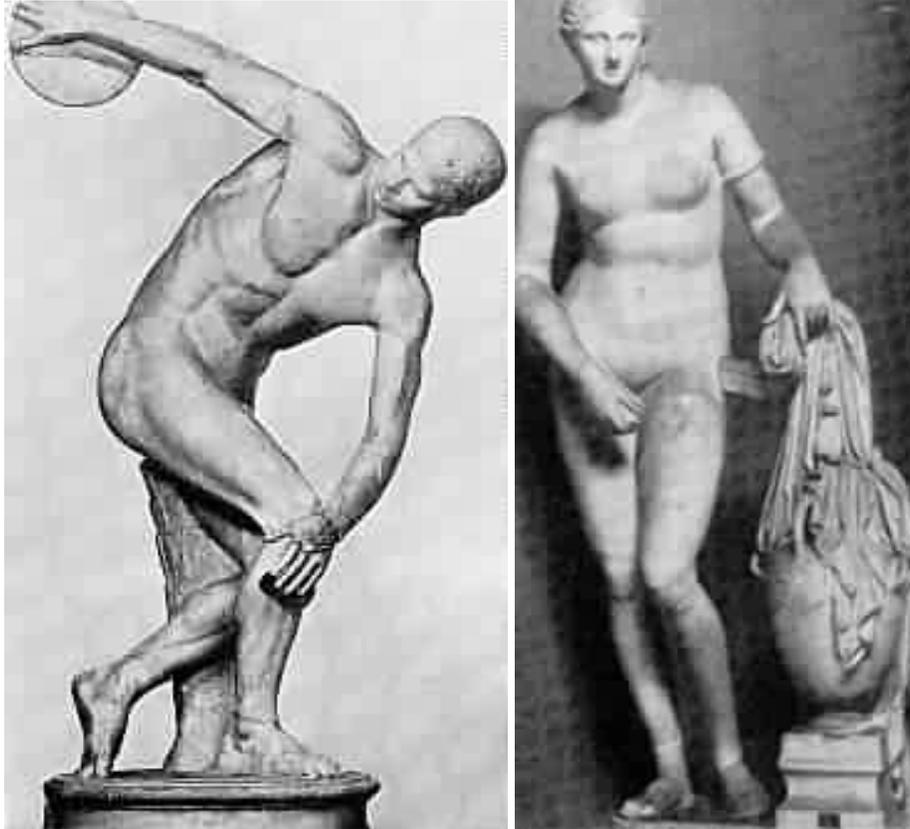
The Greeks believed that the gods controlled all aspects of their lives, and that they as mortal beings were totally dependent upon the good will of the gods. Each city devoted itself to a particular god or group of gods, for whom temples were built. In this way Athena was protector of the city of Athens, and once a gold statue of her stood inside the Parthenon still visible on the Acropolis hill in that city.

There were other holy places - Delphi was a holy site dedicated to Apollo. A temple built at Delphi contained an oracle, or prophet, who claimed to be able to see into the future; a similar temple was built at Didyma in modern day Turkey.



Classical Greek religion was inherently Indo-European in origin, and many of their Gods had obvious parallels with other European religions. Here are the remains of the Temple at Delphi in Greece. Here was an oracle who - allegedly - could see into the future.

The most intriguing part of the Greek pantheon was that the gods, despite their superhuman powers, showed human foibles and errors of judgment - a strange mix of the supernatural and the very physical, showing clear similarities to the gods of the northern European Indo-European religions.



The Classical Greek emphasis on sport and physique is reflected in these famous statues: left, Discobolus: a Roman copy of a Greek original (Museo Nazionale Romanon, Rome); and right, Aphrodite of Cnidus, a Roman copy of a Greek original (Vatican Museum, Rome).



The downfall of Classical Greece - the importation of Black slaves. In this 300 BC Grecian statue, a Black African slave is shown polishing a boot. It was the importation of large numbers of racially foreign slaves which was to lead to the dissolution of the Classical Grecian civilization.

Below: Two pots, dating from the 5th Century BC, showing the racial type of slaves used in Ancient Greece: One is clearly Semitic and the other Black. These pots are on public display at the National Museum, Athens.



THE DARKENING OF GREECE - CITIZENSHIP TO FOREIGNERS

In 411 BC, forty years after Pericles had enacted his law limiting citizenship to those of biological Athenian descent only, the law was turned on its head and citizenship of Athens was given to tens of thousands of foreigners who had entered Athens, particularly from the Middle East, with the argument being used that the city state had to make up the huge population losses suffered as a result of the Persian and inter-Grecian

wars.

By this stage the racial mix of Athens and many other Grecian city states was beginning to show the effects of the importation of peoples from elsewhere in the Middle and Near East, and significant sections of the population had become darker than even during Pericles' time.

This darkening of the population (caused partly by the Nordic and original European elements of Grecian society warring themselves to death - and partly by the importation of masses of already mixed Middle Eastern peoples) runs directly in tandem with the decline and fall of Classical Greece.

The gradual darkening of the Grecian peoples was noted by many famous Greek writers of the time. By drawing comparisons with the Greek peoples, the surrounding Nordic tribes were of fair complexion. Hippocrates makes reference in his works to the "long heads" (that is, Nordic skulls) of the Macedonians - while Aristotle made copious references to the fairness of the Scythians and the Macedonians.

The Greek soldier and historian Xenophon (430-354 BC) also made a point of referring to the blond haired and fair eyed Macedonians and Scythians in his book Anabasis, which described a Greek expedition against the Persians.

By the time of the Roman Emperor Octavian Augustus (who reigned directly after Julius Caesar), the Roman historian Manilius counted the Greeks as amongst the dark nations of the world, referring to the Greeks as part of the "colorate gentes" (Astrnomica, iv, 719.)

This process, which happened over a period of centuries, was to be aggravated by the Turkish invasion of Greece and the Balkans nearly 1,200 years later.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 11 : ALEXANDER THE GREAT

The appearance of Alexander the Great on the stage of history is a remarkable example of how one person's strength of will in a leadership position can change the course of world events. From out of nowhere Alexander burst upon the ancient world and turned it on its head, and then, just as quickly, he vanished.

To the north of Greece lay the territory of Macedonia, a nation whose origins lay in an invasion of the area by a Nordic tribe some time during the great Nordic migrations which occurred from around 5000 BC onwards.

Archaeological investigations have revealed how Nordic the Macedonians were - particularly in contrast to the peoples who, by the time of the first Macedonian expeditions, made up the majority of the inhabitants of southern Greece.

ALEXANDER SARCOPHAGUS

The famous Alexander Sarcophagus (also known as the Sarcophagus of Sidon, dating from 310 BC and presently in the Archaeological Museum in Istanbul) depicts Macedonians as having White skin, fair hair and blue eyes while Alexander himself was a stereotype Nordic. (For a photograph of the Alexander Sarcophagus, see Chapter seven).



Alexander the Great, conqueror of the then known world with his mighty Indo-European army, which swept down from north of Greece and went as far as india.

PHILIP II - FATHER OF ALEXANDER

The Macedonians were a relatively quiet people until their potential was unleashed by an energetic king, Philip II, in 359 BC. After firmly establishing Macedonian unity, Philip set about invading the Greek peninsula, occupying Athens in 338 BC. He then turned his attention to the Persian empire to the East.

Before he could actually invade Persia, Philip was assassinated in 336 BC, soon after he discarded his queen, Olympias, (who was Alexander's mother) and had taken a new wife, Cleopatra (not the one famed as an Egyptian queen).

It is cause for speculation that this domestic upheaval led to Philip's assassination, possibly arranged even by his son, Alexander. Whatever the case, Philip was given a royal burial, his tomb being discovered intact and in pristine condition in 1977 AD.

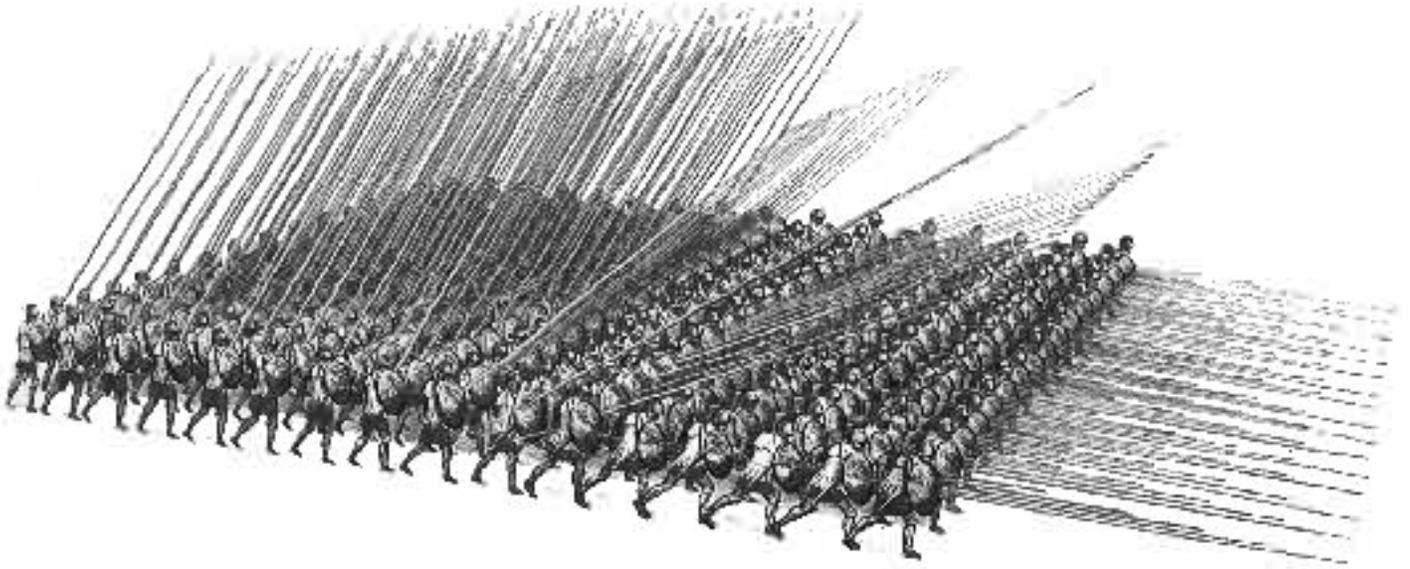
Philip's crown passed to his 20 year old son, Alexander, who in the year 334 BC set out to crush the Persians for once and for all. In doing this he managed to unite most of the Greeks and became undisputed master of the Greek peninsula.

WARS AGAINST PERSIA - 334 BC

Alexander began his war against Persia in the spring of 334 BC by crossing the Dardanelles with an army of 35,000 Macedonian and Greek troops - his chief officers, all Macedonians, were Antigonus, Ptolemy, and Seleucus, were all to later play significant roles in history themselves.

At the river Granicus, near the ancient city of Troy, Alexander launched a surprise attack on a 40,000 strong Persian force. The Macedonians defeated the Persians, losing, according to Alexandrian exaggeration, only 110 men. Whatever the truth, the victory was overwhelming, and as news of the decisive victory spread throughout Turkey, all of the sub continent submitted to Alexander without putting up a fight.

Alexander then took on the main Persian army, commanded personally by King Darius III, at Issus, in modern north eastern Syria. Still only having around 35,000 soldiers, Alexander attacked the Persian army estimated by Macedonian records to be 500,000 strong - probably another exaggeration - but nonetheless indicative of the odds that Alexander faced. Incredibly enough, and probably due to his genius as a military leader, Alexander won the day at the Battle of Issus, in 333 BC - which saw the utter rout of the Persian forces.



The basic unit, or speira, in Alexander's army. The 256 men are ranked in close order, 16 deep. In a charge, the spears of the first five ranks projected forward to break the enemy ranks - the rest of the men held their spears skywards to deflect arrows or other projectiles. Tactics such as these helped Alexander's Nordic army overcome overwhelming odds time and time again during their breathtaking march from Greece right through the Near East, to India itself. Drawing based on surviving Macedonian texts and illustrations.

LEBANON AND EGYPT

Pushing southwards, Alexander then stormed the fortified city port of Tyre in modern Lebanon, seizing the city after a siege of seven months. Alexander then captured Gaza and in quick succession occupied Egypt, the disorganized and enfeebled Nonwhite chieftains there offering little real resistance.

In 332 BC Alexander founded a new city in Egypt - which he modestly called Alexandria.

This city would later become the literary, scientific, and commercial center of the Greek world. Cyrene, the capital of the ancient North African kingdom of Cyrenaica, submitted to Alexander soon afterwards, extending his dominion to the lands of the city of Carthage, where his Indo-European Nordic troops set up a ruling aristocracy (and from whom ultimately the great General Hannibal would emerge to test the Roman Empire some 200 years later).

THE FALL OF BABYLON

Turning northward again, Alexander drew up reinforcements and with an army of 40,000 infantrymen and 7,000 cavalry, marched on Babylon. Crossing the Euphrates and the Tigris rivers, he met the Persian King Darius once again, who, according to Macedonian records, had drawn up a new army one million strong - certainly once again an exaggeration, but still without any doubt badly outnumbering Alexander's forces.

At the Battle of Gaugamela, on 1 October, 331 BC, Alexander once again beat Darius, who fled and was killed by two of his own generals. The city of Babylon then surrendered and Alexander occupied the Persian capital city of Persepolis. Within three years, Alexander had occupied a huge stretch of

land, and all resistance crumbled before his ruthless Nordic army. His empire extended along and beyond the southern shores of the Caspian Sea, including modern Afghanistan and northward into central Asia.



Alexander and his great foe, Darius III of Persia, meet at last. After his defeat, Darius fled to Medea, in 331 BC where he was murdered just before Alexander caught up with him. Here the final meeting is reconstructed according to original accounts: Alexander still paid respect to his dead foe who had long been the scourge of Greece and Macedonia.

IN THE FOOTSTEPS OF THE ARYANS - ALEXANDER INVADES INDIA

In order to complete his conquest of the remnants of the Persian Empire, which had once included part of western India, Alexander crossed the Indus River in 326 BC, and invaded the Punjab region, following the footsteps of the Indo-Aryans of some 1,200 years previously.

At this point Alexander's army rebelled and refused to go any further, seeing no point in marching endlessly on, getting further and further away from their homes without any respite in sight. Sensing that he had to get his men home quickly, Alexander then pulled off another incredible feat. He constructed a fleet of ships then and there and sailed down the Indus river, reaching its mouth in September 325 BC. He then sailed with his army to the Persian Gulf and returned overland across the desert, arriving in Babylon in 323 BC.

It was while on this return journey that Alexander contracted fever and died in Babylon.

ALEXANDER'S AMAZING LEGACY

All in all, Alexander founded 25 cities - an amazing achievement all by itself. Many of them bore his name, or local translations of his name, but one became most famous of all: Alexandria in Egypt. Founded in 332 BC, this city became the new capital of Egypt and in 300 BC a library and a place of learning was started, later to become world famous as the Alexandrian library. The library was said to have contained the greatest single concentration of contemporary knowledge in the world at that time.

Alexandria also became noted for its famous lighthouse - 70 meters tall with a fire being reflected by mirrors and visible 50 kilometers away, this soon became one of the seven wonders of the world. Although only active for a very short period of 13 years (336 BC - 323 BC) and dying at the age of 33, Alexander etched his name into history by single handedly creating what was until that time, the greatest land empire ever seen. He was buried in Alexandria in Egypt.

ALEXANDER'S RACIAL UNITY - DOOMED TO FAILURE

Despite having easily overcome all the mixed race peoples of the Middle and Near East, Alexander himself publicly declared himself to be in favor of further racial integration.

To this end he was an ardent exponent of ensuring the compliance of invaded nations by issuing orders that his Macedonian occupiers be integrated with the subject peoples. He ordered for example that all his generals to take wives from the conquered peoples, most of whom were racial mixtures of Semites, Arabics, Negroids and original Whites.

Alexander himself took a Nonwhite wife, a Persian princess who was of mixed race. He also started dressing like the peoples he had conquered, and in 324 BC at a city called Susa he personally officiated at an arranged mass wedding of 9,000 of his senior army officers to Middle Eastern wives - the famous "marriage of East and West" meant to symbolize the new racial unity he was hoping to create.

Upon Alexander's' early death, virtually all of his senior officers who had been forced into these multi-racial marriages renounced their imposed wives and set up pure White Macedonian ruling classes in the areas which had been placed under their control.

ALEXANDER'S EMPIRE DIVIDED

At the time of his death there was no obvious successor to Alexander (as his one son was very young and the other was retarded - both were murdered in 305 BC and that ended the debate on succession), and within two decades his empire split into four units, three of them ruled by his former generals. Asia was ruled by Seleucus and his family - who founded the Seleucid empire - Greece and Macedonia by Antigonus - and Egypt by the most famous of these generals, Ptolemy. The fourth unit, Asia Minor (Turkey) became independent.

ANTIGNOID GREECE

Antigonus and his successors ruled most of the Greek mainland from 281 BC until 168 BC, when they were finally defeated by the Romans. The conflict with Rome had escalated slowly, and had finally come to a head when the Antigonid kings, notably Philip V, had provided help to the famous general Hannibal of Carthage in his campaigns against Rome. This led to three wars with Rome, leading to the eventual defeat of the Macedonians in 168 BC. The Romans removed the Antigonids from power, but a pro-Macedonian revolt in 147 BC led directly to the Roman occupation of mainland Greece.

PTOLEMAIC EGYPT - WORLD'S FIRST MUSEUMS

Alexander's General Ptolemy, established the Ptolemaic reign in Egypt, which lasted from 323 to 30 BC. By far the best known Ptolemaic Egyptian queen was Cleopatra VII, a White woman who won fame due to her relationships with the Romans Julius Caesar and Mark Anthony.

Although the Ptolemies in particular ensured that their line was always pure Macedonian, they did take on many of the dress and cultural aspects of the by then long past ancient Egypt, calling themselves Pharaohs, producing monuments and buildings in the style of the ancient White Egyptians. Embalming and mummification became common once again.

Ptolemy I established a center of learning and research known as the musea, or as we know the type of institution today, a museum - the first in the world.

The Ptolemaic reign provided a new short lease of life to Egypt, but the largely Arabic/mixed race local population soon overwhelmed the heavily outnumbered White Macedonians, who had also had to contend with the vigorous new White civilization of Rome.

Ptolemaic Egypt included modern day Israel, parts of Syria and even a small part of southern Turkey. Most of these lands were however lost to military attacks by the Seleucidians - descendants of yet another of Alexander's generals - around the year 220 BC.

The loss of Palestine marked the waning of the Ptolemaic power in Egypt, with tensions between the overwhelmingly Nonwhite Egyptians and the White Greek immigrant rulers erupting into violence.

Upper Egypt broke away and between 205 BC and 185 BC and was for that time ruled by its own Nonwhite population. In spite of these pressures, the ruling White Macedonian elite Ptolemies preserved their Greek culture, and only the very last Ptolemaic ruler, Cleopatra VII, (the most famous one) ever bothered to learn the Egyptian language.

It was this Cleopatra who, after first becoming the lover of the great Roman, Julius Caesar, married his friend Mark Anthony after the former's murder. A Roman army subsequently defeated Cleopatra and Mark Anthony's combined forces (the battle of Actium) and after this Cleopatra and Mark Anthony committed suicide.

This event marked the end of the very last Hellenistic kingdom, that of Ptolemaic Egypt.



Left: Ptolemy I Soter; and right: Queen Cleopatra VII - the first and the last of the Nordic Macedonian rulers of Egypt. Ptolemy was Alexander the Great's general who, upon the latter's death, took the land of Egypt as his kingdom in 323 BC. He set up a White ruling class over the large mass of mixed race inhabitants, then living amongst the ruins of the previous White civilization in Egypt. The Ptolemies kept themselves separate from the mass of Nonwhite Egyptians, never even bothering to learn their language, but taking on the ways and customs of ancient Egypt. The Ptolemy family were to rule Egypt for another 300 years until the last, and most famous member of their line, Cleopatra VII, committed suicide and Egypt was added to the Roman Empire.

After the battle of Actium, Ptolemaic Egypt was handed over to Rome as yet another province. As the racial balance in the other parts of the area occupied by Alexander shifted increasingly against the Macedonians, so the remains of Alexander's empire slowly crumbled away to oblivion.

By the time of the defeat of Cleopatra VII, Alexander's empire had long since ceased to exist. As there far too few pure Macedonians to colonize the entire empire, the Macedonian outposts were little more than islands in a sea of people who had long since lost any semblance of racial homogeneity.

It was therefore only a matter of time before these islands were submerged.

THE SELEUCIDIAN EMPIRE

Alexander's general Seleucus seized an enormous part of Alexander's empire, stretching from southern Turkey to the Sinai Desert (areas seized from Ptolemaic Egypt) and eastward to include Mesopotamia and parts of modern day Iraq and Iran. Despite repeated attempts to encourage Macedonian settlers into the region, the Seleucids never had enough manpower to control the vast area properly, and fairly soon their empire also began to crumble under the pressure of trying to contain large numbers of widely diverse racial and ethnic groupings within the borders of one state.

In the northern parts of the Seleucidian empire, for example, descendants of Macedonian soldiers teamed up with scattered Indo-European tribes and local mixed race peoples to break away from the Seleucids to form the relatively short lived states of Bactria and Parthia. Some of these Indo-Europeans were in fact marauding Celts, who had also occupied a part of Northern Macedonia itself.



Seleucus I Nicator, one of Alexander the Great's Nordic generals who founded the Kingdom of Syria; from an original Macedonian sculpture.

The eastern reaches of the Seleucid empire at one stage reached to the borders of India, but this region also steadily drifted out of control. In 168 BC, king Perseus of Macedonia, was defeated by the Romans at the battle of Pydna and the Macedonian monarchy was abolished.

In 146 BC, Macedonia and Greece became direct Roman provinces after a short-lived rebellion by the Macedonians, and in 64 BC, the Seleucid empire was conquered by the Roman general Pompey and became a Roman province.

The Romans did not realize it then, of course, but in occupying these regions they themselves took on the problem which had led to dissolution of Alexander's empire - the huge numbers of Nonwhites who would soon overwhelm them in these regions and eventually penetrate right to Rome itself.

THE CULTURAL ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE ALEXANDRIAN AGE

The period from 320 BC - 30 BC is known as the Alexandrian age, and contributed a number of philosophic, cultural and scientific advances to Western civilization. It was during this time that three well known philosophies were formulated: Epicureanism, Stoicism and Scepticism.

- Epicureanism was started by the philosopher Epicurus (342 BC - 270 BC) of Samos on the Ionian coast in Turkey. Epicurus did not believe in an afterlife and taught that the highest good was to obtain material benefits during one's lifetime. This philosophy was later misinterpreted to mean merely sensual pleasure.
- In opposition to Epicurus was Zeno of Cyprus, who argued that there should be only one aim in life - freedom from the desires of life, where the ideal state was to be tranquil and indifferent to both pain and pleasure. This philosophy was called stoicism.
- Scepticism said that all opinions about pain or pleasure were subjective so there could not be one sensible truth or dogma - the skeptics questioned the very basis of all facts.

CIRCUMFERENCE OF EARTH MEASURED

As a result of Alexander's conquests, Greek science merged with what he had found in Babylon and Egypt and produced a number of advances. The expansion of geographic knowledge allowed scientists to make maps and plot the size of the earth, which was already identified as a globe through the observation of its shadow during a lunar eclipse.

- The keeper of the library at Alexandria, Eratosthenes (276 BC - 195 BC) calculated the circumference of the earth to within some 200 miles by measuring the difference in angles of shadows cast at midday by two identical poles set in the earth in the north and south of Egypt.
- In the third century BC Aristarchus of Samos first propagated the theory that the earth rotates on its own axis and revolves around a stationary sun. Not until the 1500s AD were scientists to realize that Aristarchus was right.
- Another great man from Alexandria was Euclid the mathematician (circa 300 BC) who developed the forms and theorems of geometry as still used today.
- Archimedes (207 BC - 212 BC) of Syracuse is most famous for his discovery of the laws of hydraulics, that a solid object displaces liquid to the same volume as the object itself (which he, probably allegorically, is said to have discovered while in the bath and then run outside naked in the street shouting "Eureka"). Archimedes also calculated the exact ratio between the circumference of a circle and its diameter, known as Pi - and developed the famous Archimedes screw, a means of pumping water uphill through the use of a large screw in a tube.

The greatest contribution of the Alexandrian age was however the transference of a large amount of classical knowledge to the new power in Europe - Rome.

When Roman legions finally physically occupied Athens and mainland Greece, they marveled at what they found, and substantial amounts of sculpture, designs and other objects were physically looted and taken back to Rome, in many cases laying the basis for much of what is, quite wrongly, regarded as Roman Classical culture.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 12 : THE AGE OF THE CAESARS - PRE-CHRISTIAN ROME

The Italian peninsula had originally been settled by a Proto-Nordic/Alpine Mediterranean White racial mix during the Neolithic age, with the Alpine and Mediterranean elements being in the majority.

From around 2000 BC, Indo-European migrants from central Europe (and originally from southern Russia) settled in northern Italy, crossing the Alps from present day Austria and Hungary. Amongst these people were Celtic tribesmen known as the Latini. Racially speaking, these tribesmen were predominantly Nordic in nature. Another group of Whites, known as the Etruscans, also settled in Italy by the year 800 BC.

THE ETRUSCANS

The Etruscans were a mixture of the original Old European White sub-groupings, but were culturally and militarily superior to the original inhabitants of Italy. As a result, they soon grew to dominate the major part of northern Italy.

The Etruscans established an advanced society, building cities and settlements which were certainly far more advanced than anything else seen in the country till that time. However, the Etruscans were not the only ones interested in Italy: also by 800 BC, a number of the Greek city states had also established settlements in southern Italy and Sicily. These were not merely imperialist colonies: the outposts also served as a buffer from the increasing number of forays from the aggressive and powerful city of Carthage, situated on the North African coast in the country known today as Tunisia.



A Roman cavalry officer, from a sarcophagus found in Asia Minor (Turkey) circa 50 AD.

ROMULUS AND REMUS

According to Roman legend, the city of Rome was founded around the year 753 BC by the orphaned twin brothers Romulus and Remus, who were saved from death in their infancy by a she-wolf who had sheltered and suckled them.

Whatever the origins of the city, it is so that by the year 700 BC, the city had been firmly established on the seven hills around the Tiber River valley, and by the 6th Century BC, the city and surrounding areas were ruled by the Etruscans.

The city of Rome was at this stage ruled by kings elected by the people. The symbol of the elected king of Rome became known world wide an enduring symbol of power: an axe head bound together in a bundle of reeds, called a fasces.

The rationale behind the symbol was that each tribe was represented by one reed - by themselves they could be easily broken, but bound together they could be a powerful force.



Roman lictors carrying fasces - reeds bundled together with an ax head fastened in-between. The symbol of authority in ancient Rome, it derived its meaning from the fact that singly, reeds can be broken and bent, but bound together, they are strong. The fasces symbol was taken world wide as a symbol of authority, and can be found in much western architecture the world over. Benito Mussolini and the Italian Fascist Party took not only the emblem as their own, but also their name from the fasces.

The fasces symbol, which was used by the 20th Century Italian leader Benito Mussolini, can still be seen today reposing under the hands of the Abraham Lincoln Memorial in the capital of the United States of America, Washington D.C., and inside the American Congress house itself.

Advising the first Roman kings were the heads of all the leading families gathered together in a group called the senate.

This body remained in place, with varying powers, until the fall of the Roman Empire some 1,500 years later.

The senators and their families became the upper class of Rome, called the patricians, while the common people were known as the plebeians.

THE EARLY REPUBLIC (509 BC - 133 BC)

In the year 509 BC, a group of patricians led a rebellion against a particularly unpopular Etruscan king, threw him out and set up a Republic in Rome. This rebellion's most famous incident was a battle outside the gates of Rome when the legendary Roman soldier Horatio personally faced off the Etruscan king's army while the bridge to the city was destroyed, preventing the Etruscans from regaining control of the capital.

The power held by the former king was now passed on to two annually elected rulers, called consuls. Other cities within central and northern Italy formed an alliance and challenged the power of the new republic of Rome, leading to a Roman defeat at the Battle of Lake Regillus in 496 BC.

Three years later, in 493 BC, the Republic of Rome joined the alliance, and it became known as the Latin League and set about dislodging the last of the Etruscan strongholds.

Although originally not as advanced as the Etruscans, by 400 BC the Latini had adopted much of Etruscan culture and had in all respects surpassed their former masters, both militarily and culturally. The secret of their success - as indeed with the whole Roman Empire - was their astonishing ability to organize on a scale not seen since the days of the first Egyptians.

By 400 BC, the Latin League had successfully overthrown all the last vestiges of Etruscan rule, and from then on the Etruscan peoples were completely absorbed into the Latini, creating a Nordic/Alpine/Mediterranean mix which became characteristic of the early and middle Roman Empire, with Nordic elements tending to form the ruling class.

Rome was acknowledged by all the tribes making up the Latin alliance as the leading city, even though, as it later turned out, they were unhappy with the situation.

It was during this period of nation forming that the Romans wrote their first major legal code: in 450 BC, the Law of the Twelve Tables was laid down, which served as the basis for not only the entire Roman legal system, but also the basis of virtually all modern legal systems in the world today.

(In a mirror of the older Greek Spartan tradition, the Twelve Tables specifically called for the euthanasia death of any infant showing conspicuous deformities or retardation - an example of basic eugenics at work amongst these early Romans.)

CELTIC ATTACK - THE SACKING OF ROME IN 387 BC

However, the Romans faced another serious crisis. In 387 BC, Gauls, the descendants of Celtic tribesmen who had settled in France, launched an attack on Rome, and eventually sacked the city. They were only finally persuaded to leave by the Romans bribing them with gold.

The Gaulish invasion however showed a serious weakness in the ranks of the Latin League - the other components of the alliance had refused to help Rome against the Gauls.

This was not forgotten by the Romans, who, by 380 BC had not only rebuilt their city and had erected

huge defensive walls around it, but had also started preparing a new and more powerful army than before.

In 338 BC, after entering into an alliance with certain smaller tribes around Rome, the Romans turned on their former allies in the Latin League and decisively defeated them, becoming by 280 BC, the dominant force in Italy.

GREEK WARS

As Roman power and influence grew, so it became ever more inevitable that a clash with the Greek settlements in southern Italy would follow. War did indeed break out as the Romans started occupying the southernmost points of Italy.

A Grecian king named Pyrrhus, from the city of Epirus in Northern Greece, was hired by one of the Grecian cities in southern Italy, Tarentum, to help ward off the Romans. Pyrrhus managed to inflict a defeat upon the Romans which temporarily stayed the latter's excursions.



An original bust of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, who came to Italy and Sicily with his army and elephants to help the Greek cities in those territories. Although gaining an initial victory, it was at such a cost to his forces that he was ultimately defeated. Ever since then, any hollow victory which ultimately leads to a defeat is known as a pyrrhic victory.

However, the cost of the victory - in terms of men and materials - was so great, that it exhausted the

Greek expeditionary force, and by 270 BC, all of Italy had fallen to Rome, with the Greeks being unable to maintain the war against Rome. Ever since then, any empty victory - which ultimately leads to a long term defeat - has been called a Pyrrhic victory.

CARTHAGE - A THREAT TO ROME

With the elimination of Greek bases in Italy itself, only the city of Carthage on the North African coast served as a power which could seriously threaten further Roman expansion. Carthage had been founded around the year 800 BC by the mixed Mediterranean/Semitic Phoenicians, and had become an independent and powerful force in its own right.

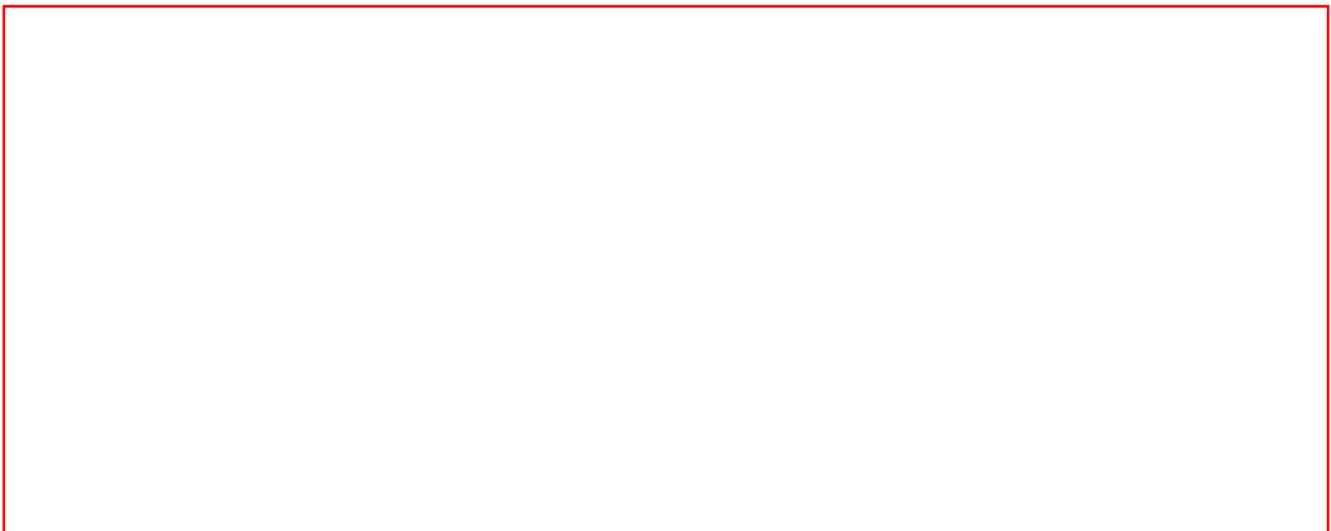
Carthage had grown over the centuries, with a large Nordic infusion having taking place after the region's occupation by Alexander the Great, and by the time of the wars with Rome, Carthage was at its peak.

The Latin word for Phoenician was Punicus - from which the word Punic was to derive, hence the Roman wars against Carthage are called the Punic wars.

THE FIRST PUNIC WAR (264 - 241 BC)

In 264 BC, war broke out between Rome and Carthage over possession of the island of Sicily. After suffering initial reverses, the Romans defeated the Carthaginians, who were forced to sue for peace in 241 BC. In terms of the peace treaty, Rome administered Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica, adding to the growing territorial possessions of the city republic.

The city of Carthage, situated on the present day Tunisian coast, was for many years Rome's greatest enemy. Originally established by the Phoenicians, the city's population received a massive infusion of Nordic blood when it fell under the control of the Macedonian Alexandrian empire. Its ruling classes became virtually exclusively Nordic, and the city was built up on a scale that rivaled even Rome itself. Below: The remains of the harbor of Carthage, as it was captured in a photograph in the early 1920s, and below that, a reconstruction of what the harbor looked like in its prime, based on archeological diggings and Carthaginian and Roman descriptions of the great city. When Rome finally overwhelmed Carthage, its soldiers razed the city to the ground and built a Roman city next to the ruins.





THE SECOND PUNIC WAR (218 BC - 201 BC)

The Second Punic War is also known as Hannibal's war, named after the great Carthaginian general who, after a long epic campaign, very nearly routed the power of Rome. After having lost control of Sicily and other Mediterranean islands, Carthage sent an army to invade and occupy Spain between 237 BC and 219 BC. The original Whites and Celtic settlers in the region were no match for the battle experienced Carthaginians, and were overrun relatively quickly.

Then, starting in 218 BC, Hannibal led an army of about 50,000 men and a troop of 37 African elephants across southern France, through the Alps in northern Italy (all but one of his elephants survived the incredible journey) and attacked the Romans virtually continually for the next fifteen years up and down the length and breadth of Italy.

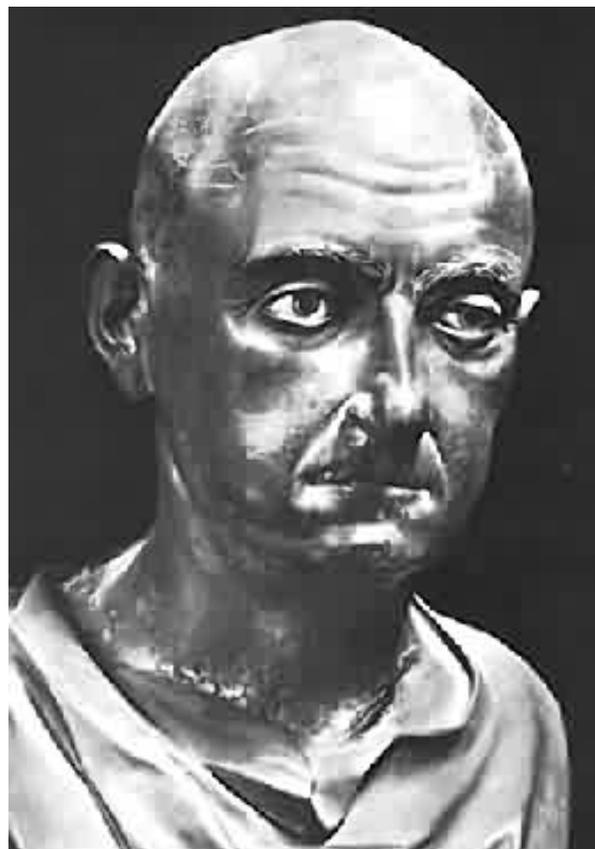
Hannibal had many victories, with the greatest being the battle of Cannae where he defeated a numerically superior Roman force. For a while it appeared as if the Romans had finally met their match - but a Roman general, Scipio, hit upon the idea of repaying Carthage in kind. He invaded North Africa, using the logic that if Hannibal could invade Italy and threaten Rome, the Romans could invade North Africa and threaten Carthage. The tactic worked, and Hannibal was forced to return to defend Carthage, leaving behind much of his army on the European mainland.

Rome was then able to invade Spain and drive out the Carthaginian armies. Hannibal was finally defeated by the Romans at the Battle of Zama in 202 BC, and another peace treaty followed. According to the terms of this treaty, Carthage agreed to disarm, pay an indemnity to Rome and hand over their Spanish colonies to Roman rule.

Hannibal himself was never forgiven by the Romans, who pursued him right into Asia Minor (Turkey) where he committed suicide in 182 BC.



A silver coin struck at Carthage around the year 220 BC, showing the Nordic face of Hannibal, that city's greatest warrior. Founded by the Phoenicians, the city of Carthage had received a major Nordic sub-racial input when it was occupied and colonized by Nordic Macedonians under Alexander the Great. It was from a long line of Nordic Carthaginian nobles that Hannibal was born.



A bronze bust of the Roman general, Publius Scipio, who finally defeated Hannibal at the battle of Zama in 202 BC. The Romans called their new colony "Africa" - and in this way the White Romans gave Africa (and Africans) the name by which that continent and its people are known today.



Hannibal's troops crossing the Rhone River on their way to attack northern Italy. Only one elephant actually survived the crossing of the Alps.

GREECE OCCUPIED - 146 BC

The defeat of Carthage left the Romans free to assert their authority in the east. The Macedonians, who had helped Hannibal, were first to be punished for this deed by the Romans.

The Legions of Rome invaded Macedonia in 200 BC, defeating the Macedonian army in 197 BC. The Greek mainland then came under Roman protection, although many city states were allowed self rule.

However, continuous turmoil and infighting between many of these cities eventually compelled Rome to directly occupy the whole region, an operation which was completed by 146 BC (in that year Roman legions destroyed the Greek city of Corinth.)

For 60 years after 146 BC, Greece was almost completely administered by Rome, although some cities, such as Athens and Sparta, retained their free status.

In 88 BC, Mithridates, the king of Pontus, invaded Roman held territories from the east - many cities of Greece supported the Asian monarch with the belief that they would regain their independence.

A Roman army forced Mithridates out of Greece and crushed the rebellion, sacking Athens in 86 BC, and Thebes a year later. Roman punishment of all the rebellious cities was heavy, and the campaigns fought on Greek soil left central Greece in ruins. In 22 BC, the Greek city-states were separated from Macedonia and the Romans made these city states into one province called Achaea.

During the reign of the Roman Emperor Hadrian (117 - 138AD), many of Athens' famous buildings were restored out of the ruins. The continuing Roman restoration work was however interrupted by an invasion of Goths, who in 267 AD and 268 AD, overran Greece, captured Athens, and laid waste the cities of Argos, Corinth, and Sparta.

From the 6th to the 8th centuries, Slavonic tribes from the north migrated into the peninsula, occupying Illyria and Thrace.

After the Goths left, the Grecian peninsula, thoroughly ravaged by centuries of warfare and racial mixing, settled down to obscurity as a province under the Eastern Roman Empire of Byzantium.

EGYPT

Rome had by this time succeeded in establishing itself as the dominant new power in the Mediterranean, and in 168 BC, Egypt (then still under Macedonian Ptolemaic rule) formerly allied itself to Rome. This meant that by 168 BC, most of the Mediterranean - from Spain right around the Mediterranean coast through Greece, parts of Turkey, Egypt and the north African coast up to Tunisia, was either under direct Roman rule or allied to Rome.

THE THIRD PUNIC WAR (146 BC)

The enmity between Carthage and Rome was so deep that it could not however be buried with a mere treaty, and in 146 BC, war between the two powers broke out once again. By this time, however, Roman power was vast - Carthage itself was besieged and destroyed.

Angered at being constantly threatened by the same enemy repeatedly, this time Rome wrote no treaty with Carthage. To ensure that the Carthaginians never threatened them again, the Romans killed or enslaved the population of Carthage, physically destroyed the city and ploughed over the ruins, putting salt into the earth so that nothing would grow there again.

At the end of the Third Punic War, the Romans physically occupied what is today known as Tunisia and refounded a new city of Carthage - a Roman one. They called it the province of "Africa" - a name which later was used to refer to the entire continent. In this same manner, Roman conquests in the east led to the creation of the Roman province of "Asia" - once again a Roman name became the name of an entire continent.

THE LATE REPUBLIC (133 - 30 BC)

In 133 BC, the ruler of an independent state in central Asia Minor (Turkey), one Pergamum, died. When his will was read, he had left his country to Rome. This somewhat bizarre wish - which was duly carried out - served as a springboard for the later Roman occupation of the rest of Asia Minor and the Near East. The period from 133 BC to 30 BC is known as the late Republic, during which Rome itself was to experience civil strife not seen since the days of the Latini insurrection against the Etruscans. In addition to this, Rome also engaged in a number of foreign wars.

SLAVES - THE SEEDS OF ROME'S DECLINE

From the very earliest times the Romans had also been importing slaves into their homeland - a policy which was to grow into a major commercial activity in Rome itself - but also ultimately to lead to Rome being filled with all manner of people who bore no resemblance to the Romans themselves. Slaves from the Far East, Africa and the Semitic speaking world filled the slave houses of Rome in their hundreds of thousands.

Eventually such large numbers created the possibility of open rebellion, with the most famous being the slave rising led by Spartacus in 73 BC, which had to be suppressed by force of arms with a full Roman army.

CIVIL WAR - STRIFE BETWEEN PATRICIANS AND PLEBIANS

Internally, Rome had become increasingly divided between the patricians and the plebeians, especially with regard to land distribution. Some patricians realized the need for reform, the most famous being Tiberius Gracchus, who was elected to the post of tribune (a modern equivalent would be a prime minister) in 133 BC. The reforms Gracchus implemented earned him the hatred of the wealthy classes, and in 134 BC, he was assassinated.

His work was however taken up by his brother, Gaius Gracchus, who was elected tribune in 123 BC. Again initiating far reaching social reforms, Gaius succeeded only in establishing a form of social welfare system which did not work properly and virtually bankrupted the state, serving only to stir up the hatred of the upper classes in a manner not seen even against Tiberius Gracchus.

In 121 BC, after a particularly severe outbreak of civil violence in which several thousand of his supporters were killed, Gaius Gracchus committed suicide. The deaths of the Gracchus brothers was to herald all out civil war in Rome.

By the year 100 BC, a number of able Roman generals had risen to prominence, emerging from the virtually constant need to subdue and to hold on to the numerous Roman colonies scattered around the Mediterranean coast. Each of these generals was in command of their own army, and although they theoretically were supposed to serve the Roman state, in reality they operated as virtual private armies working in the interests of their generals.

SULLA - DE FACTO RULER OF ROME

After physically clashing with some of the other armies, General Cornelius Sulla emerged as the strongest leader and became the de facto ruler of Rome. Remarkably enough, after introducing a number of reforms (including extending the powers of the senate) Sulla resigned voluntarily from the affairs of state.

POMPEY AND CAESAR CLASH

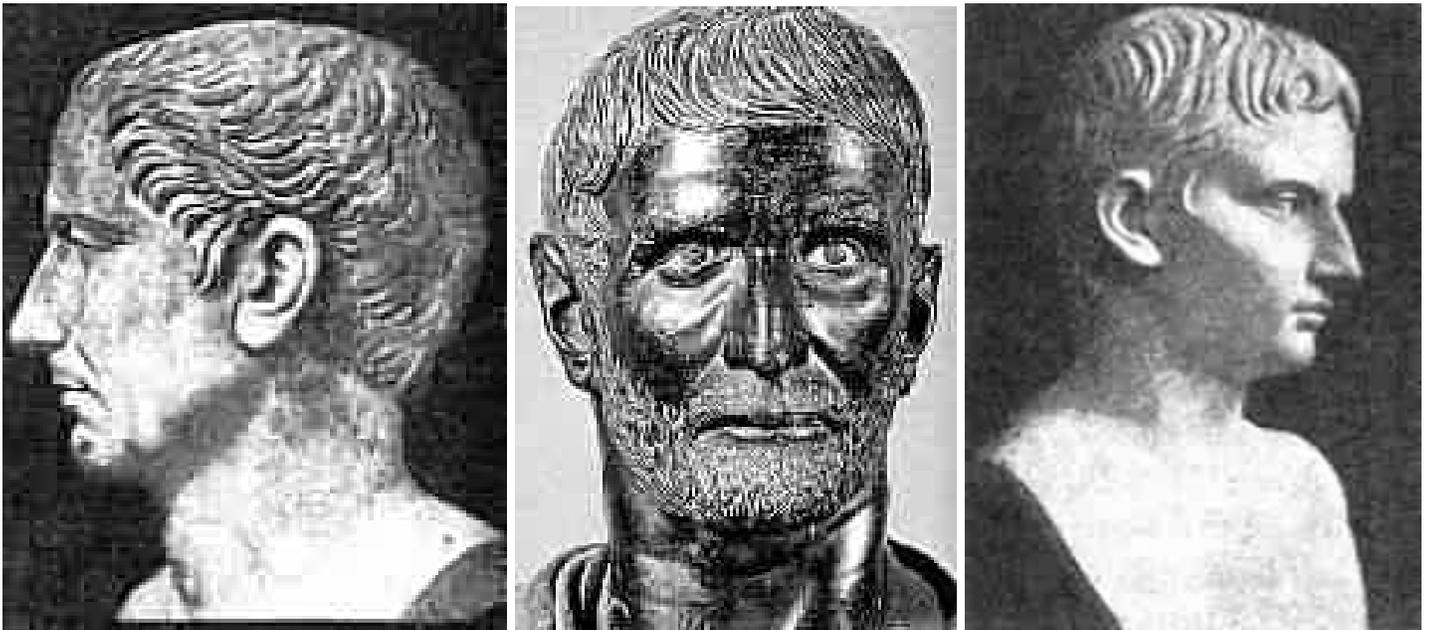
By this time however, two other generals had also emerged, each with their own armies: Pompey and Julius Caesar.

Pompey had led Roman legions far and wide, in Italy, Africa, Spain, Asia Minor and even as far as the Euphrates River valley. He had also been instrumental in helping to suppress the famous slave uprising led by Spartacus in 73 BC.

Julius Caesar had conquered Gaul (France) and some of the Germanic tribes (descendants of the original Celts and far off cousins of the original Latini) as far as the Rhine River. He had even landed an invasion force in Britain between the years 58 - 51 BC.

As Caesar's name, fame and influence spread, Pompey and others in Rome realized the threat and ordered him to disband his powerful army and return to Rome. Caesar refused to do so, and instead marched on Rome itself from his base in France.

Caesar crossed the Rubicon river in 49 BC, irrevocably committing himself to war with Pompey (the Rubicon marked the official boundary of Rome, and hence once crossed, the declaration of war was taken for granted). Within a short while, Caesar crushed all opposition and formally established himself as ruler.



Left to right: Julius Caesar, most famous of Romans; center: Brutus, one of Caesar's assassins; and left: Augustus, Caesar's successor. All original Roman sculptures.

CAESAR'S EXPLOITS

Although the most famous of the Romans, Caesar in fact only ruled for five years, from 49 BC to 44 BC. He was an outstanding writer and orator, and instituted far reaching reforms, from altering the make-up of the senate to the institution of a public works program. He also introduced the Solar calendar (based on Egyptian knowledge - which in Rome became known as the Julian calendar) which, with minor alterations, is the same one the Western world uses to this day.

Caesar took as his mistress the Macedonian Ptolemaic queen Cleopatra VII of Egypt, in what was

most likely a strategic alliance on both their parts.

In 44 BC, Caesar was however assassinated on the steps of the senate in Rome by a group opposed to his almost royal control of the affairs of state. Caesar did indeed consider his powers to be hereditary, and left a will in which he named his 18 year old nephew, Octavian, as his heir.

OCTAVIAN AUGUSTUS - CAESAR'S HEIR

After suppressing and exterminating much of the opposition (including the renowned orator and senator, Cicero) Octavian and one of Caesar's colleagues, Mark Anthony, ruled with complete autocratic powers for a decade.

Mark Anthony however married Cleopatra, Caesar's former mistress, giving her Roman territories as wedding gifts. Octavian took this act as an opportunity to incite Rome against Mark Anthony and the long standing partnership between Mark Anthony and Octavian degenerated into civil war. Both Octavian and Mark Anthony had large fleets at their disposal, and they finally met in battle in 31 BC, at Actium in Greece. Mark Anthony was defeated and committed suicide, as did his wife the following year when the city of Alexandria was captured by Roman forces.

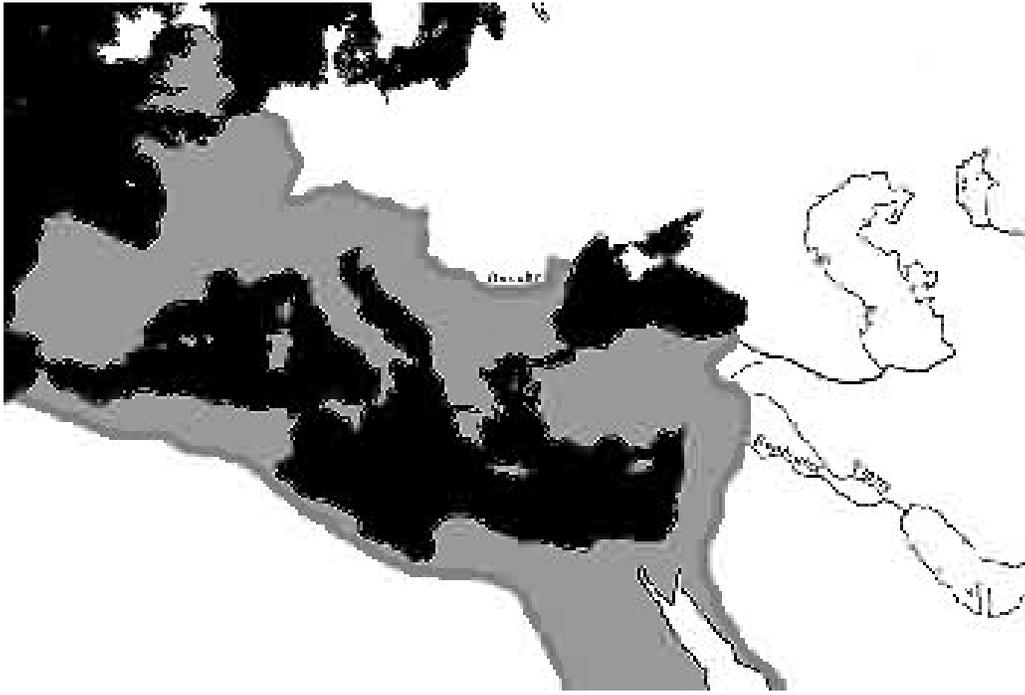
PAX ROMANA 30 BC - 235 AD

At the end of the century of civil strife (133 BC - 30 BC), Rome was finally united under one ruler. Thereafter ensued what became known as the Pax Romana, the Peace of Rome, which lasted for well on 200 years, from 30 BC to 235 AD.

This time was also to mark the racial undoing of the Empire, caused by the long term effects of the inclusion of foreign lands and peoples under the aegis of the Roman Empire, and significantly by the bypassing of a law set down by the first Romans prohibiting mixed marriages outside of the Roman circle of citizenship.

Upon Octavian's' victorious return to Rome in 29 BC, the senate conferred upon him the title of honorable (Augustus) or August, a name by which he became known thereafter. Octavian Augustus held no official government position in Rome after 23 BC, but still was almost absolute ruler of Rome until his death in 14 AD, through the Roman army, of which he remained supreme leader, or imperator (from which the word emperor came).

The Pax Romana is also known as the principate - as political power was divided between the senate and the "principes", the leading person of society (the "first amongst equals", as Octavian described his own position.)



The Pax Romana - the extent of the Roman Empire at the time of Octavian Augustus, 14 AD.

During his long reign (41 years in all), Octavian Augustus established a stable and efficient public service, an equitable taxation policy and consolidated the Roman Empire's borders.

Under his command the borders of the Empire moved up the Danube River and into Germany as far as the Rhine - but he suffered a dramatic reverse when the Germans inflicted a massive defeat upon the Roman armies in 9 AD at the Battle of Detmold.

In the Near East, Sulla's army had campaigned against the (by now racially mixed) Parthian empire as early as 92 BC, but it was only the emperor Trajan who managed to finally subdue the Parthians - although he quickly handed their lands back to them in what was claimed to be an act of conciliation.

THE JULIO-CLAUDIAN DYNASTY

Upon Octavian Augustus' death, he was followed by four descendants of his family, called the Julio-Claudian family.

The first two, Tiberius and Claudius, were just and efficient, and it was during Claudius' reign that the occupation of Britain, began by Julius Caesar some 100 years earlier, was completed (in 43 AD). The third Julio-Claudian emperor was the famous Caligula, who is reputed to have gone insane, once allegedly making a favorite horse into an ambassador.

The fourth Julio-Claudian emperor was the equally famous Nero, best known for his persecution of the Christians by throwing them to the lions. The Christians were at that stage still a tiny cult, one amongst many flourishing under the Pax Romana. The Julio-Claudian line came to an end in 68 AD with Nero's suicide, with Rome itself suffering severe damage in a big fire in 64 AD.

THE FLAVIAN DYNASTY

A brief power struggle erupted on Nero's death, and Flavius Vespasianus (also known as Vespian) assumed power in 69 AD. He restarted orderly government and founded the Flavian dynasty, which lasted until 96 AD. The still standing Colosseum in Rome was built by the order of Vespian.

Titus was Vespian's son, who ruled from 79 AD to 81 AD. Titus is best remembered for his military exploit of capturing Jerusalem in AD 70, nine years before he became emperor. By the time of the last Flavian emperor, most Romans had accepted that the Imperator, or Emperor, was the real ruler of Rome.

NERVA AND NONWHITES IN THE SENATE

Following the Flavian line came the Antonines - or the "five good emperors", who ruled from 96 AD to 180 AD. The first of these was the emperor Nerva, who ruled from 96 AD to 98 AD. Nerva is of importance because he established the rules of secession - before he died he adopted a promising individual (who would thereafter be called a Caesar). This individual was trained to take over the position of Emperor when the time came. This system set the standard for many years to come.

Nerva was also the first emperor to allow members of the Roman senate to be chosen from all over the Empire - which at that stage was still vast, extending into territories which many centuries earlier had last seen a White majority population.

Nerva's rule marks the first appearance of non-Romans - Nonwhites - in the senate, and hence the government, of Imperial Rome.

From then on increasing numbers of non Romans began to feature in the senate, until by the end of the Second Century AD, senators of pure Roman descent were in the minority in the senate.

DISSOLUTION OF THE ROMAN PEOPLE

The next emperor was Trajan, who ruled from 98 AD to 117 AD. Under Trajan, the empire reached its peak in terms of territorial expansion, but by this time huge numbers of racially foreign peoples had begun to fill not only virtually all of the non continental European Roman colonies, but had started to appear in significant numbers in Rome itself.

The next emperor, Hadrian (117 - 138AD), built the famous Hadrian's wall of stone across the North of England to keep the remnants of the Scottish Celts out of Roman England.

This was part of an attempt by Hadrian to reduce the size of the empire - possibly he saw the process of disintegration at work, and he ordered many territories in the eastern parts of the empire to be given up. Under his rule, large slices of the eastern territories, except for Dracia (modern Rumania) were effectively abandoned by the Roman Empire. If this was an attempt to stem the flood of foreigners pouring into the southern parts of the empire, it was a futile one.

ATTEMPTS TO INCREASE THE WHITE ROMAN POPULATION FAILED

An overt attempt to preserve the Roman bloodline had in fact been made by Octavian Augustus. He issued several decrees prescribing heavy penalties for celibacy or for marriage with slaves or the descendants of slaves. Another Octavian law was that all Romans between the ages of 25 and 60 must be married - and hopefully produce children.

Finally in the year 9 AD, Octavian announced tax concessions for Roman families with three or more children. Unmarried persons were barred from public games and could not receive inheritances, while childless married people could only receive half any inheritance due to them. All these measures failed during Octavian's own lifetime.

As early as 131 BC, the Roman Censor, Melletus, had called for a law compelling Roman citizens to marry - Caesar, Augustus, Nero and Trajan all offered prizes for Roman citizens having more than four children.

ROMAN IMPERIAL POLICY ENCOURAGED THE GROWTH OF NON-ROMAN PEOPLES

In continental Europe, the Pax Romana saw the benefits of Roman society bear fruit. The population increased and the Roman penchant for organization was swiftly taken up by the European peasantry in their regions. This process was enhanced by the Roman system of government, which relied on a few Roman administrators arriving in a region, and then getting locals to help with the administration and running of the territory, in return for offices of state.

In this way the Romans "Romanised" many of the subject territories: while this did not affect the racial balance in Gaul and other parts of western and eastern Europe (central Europe or Germany remained forever out of Rome's reach), it had dramatic effects in the regions to the east and south which were majority occupied by Nonwhite peoples. This policy was also applied in the other reaches of the Roman Empire - with disastrous consequences for Rome in the Mediterranean territories of North Africa, Egypt and the Near and Middle East.

In these latter territories huge numbers of the by then racially mixed populations (consisting of White, Semitic, Arabic and Mongol mixtures) drew the benefits of Roman civilization for as long as the Romans themselves existed. This meant a dramatic increase in the population due to increased living standards, and so the Romans helped to engineer the Nonwhite racial flood that would eventually overwhelm them from the south.

It is interesting to note that the original Indo-European descended Romans viewed anyone who was dark with suspicion. The Roman proverb "hic niger es, hunc tu, Romane, caveto" (He is black, beware of him, Roman) is recorded by Horace as being a common saying amongst Romans of the time. (Sat., i. 4, 85).

This is not to say that the Romans of the Late Republic or of the Pax Romana resisted the physical integration process. On the contrary, they seemed to have welcomed it as an essential part of Empire building and as a means to keep subdued populations under control.

It is unlikely though that they could have foreseen the long term consequences it would create - when the last of the true Romans were bred out in the vast reaches of the Empire, so did the original spark

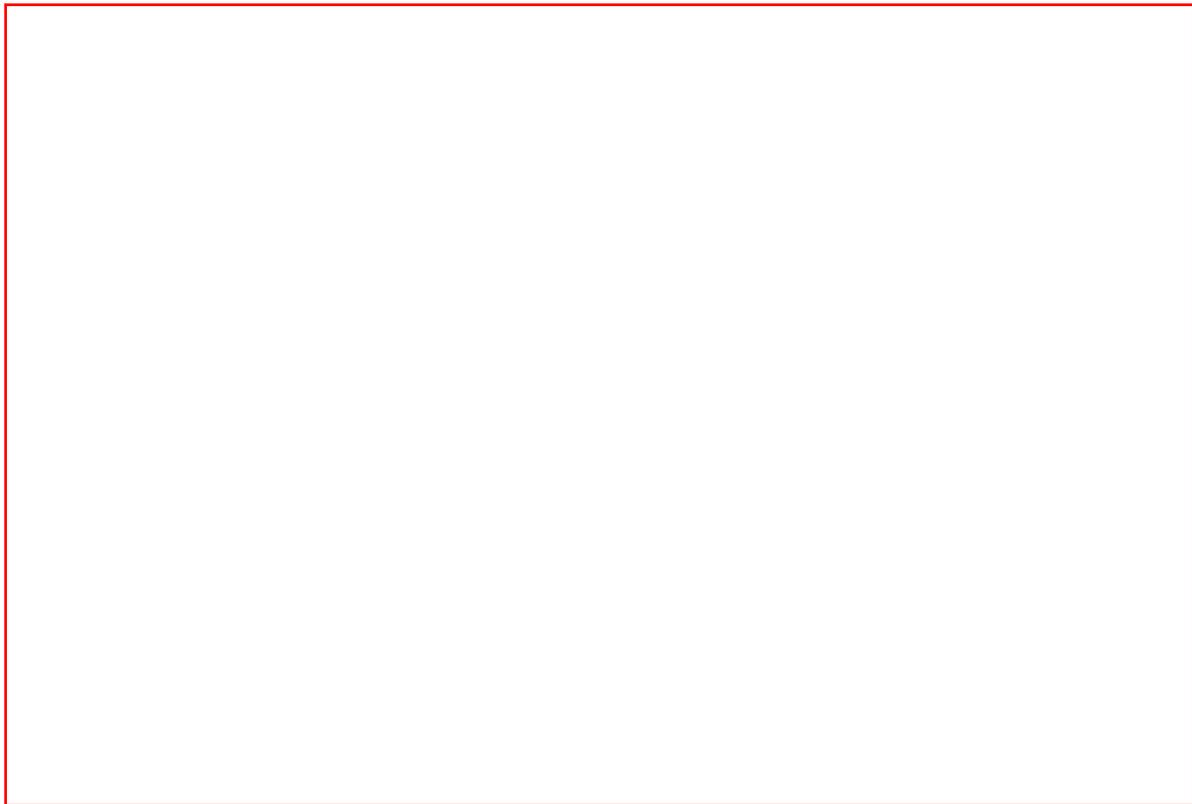
which had created the Empire in the first place.

Hence there are today only Roman ruins in Africa, the Near and Middle East, and indeed even in Rome today - silent monuments to a people long gone.

GERMAN RESISTANCE

That the Romans never managed to penetrate into central Europe past the Rhine river (they were halted by Germanic tribes by the year 9 AD) created a physical division in the White peoples of North Western Europe. At the time, one section (Gaul and Britain) fell completely under the sway of Rome - and the other (the German tribes) remained Rome's implacable enemies, fighting the Empire off at every opportunity which arose.

Ironically, these Germanic tribes (or barbarians as the Romans liked to call them) were originally far off Celtic cousins of the Latini - and it was these barbarians who were to finally overrun Rome itself when that city had managed to breed its true Romans down to an insignificant minority, causing the great Imperial flame to flicker and die at last.



An exquisitely executed relief on the Antonie Column in Rome, of legionnaires on the march. The Romans were able to overwhelm most of the known world through their staggering organizational abilities.

EXTENT OF EMPIRE PROVES ITS UNDOING

At its height the Roman Empire stretched from England to the Rhine, from Spain to Asia Minor, and from North Africa to the Tigris/Euphrates rivers. The vast numbers of peoples and races drawn into

the Empire's influence does not need to be exaggerated. Roman coins found in India and Scandinavia indicate the extent to which Romans traveled, as traders or soldiers.

The Romans may have believed that the integration of foreigners into the Roman system of government and into Rome itself was the way to create an Empire. The reality is however that non-homogenous societies are the least cohesive, while homogenous societies are the most cohesive.

So it was that the ever increasing number of foreigners within the empire made it all the more difficult to hold together. Internal dissension, political problems and social ills were often compounded by brutal or incompetent emperors.

Finally, by 192 AD, the throne was actually auctioned by the Emperor's own private guard (the Praetorian Guard, founded by Octavian Augustus) after a particularly ineffectual emperor had been murdered after just three months in the office.

The lucky winner of the auction did not last very long himself - he was in turn deposed by an emperor effectively chosen by the largest part of the army: one Septimus Servus.

ROME'S FATE SEALED - CARACALLA AND THE EDICT OF 212 AD

Servus himself was unremarkable, but his son, Caracalla, who ruled from 211 AD to 217 AD, was the Roman emperor who finally opened the racial floodgates on the Roman Empire and sealed its fate.

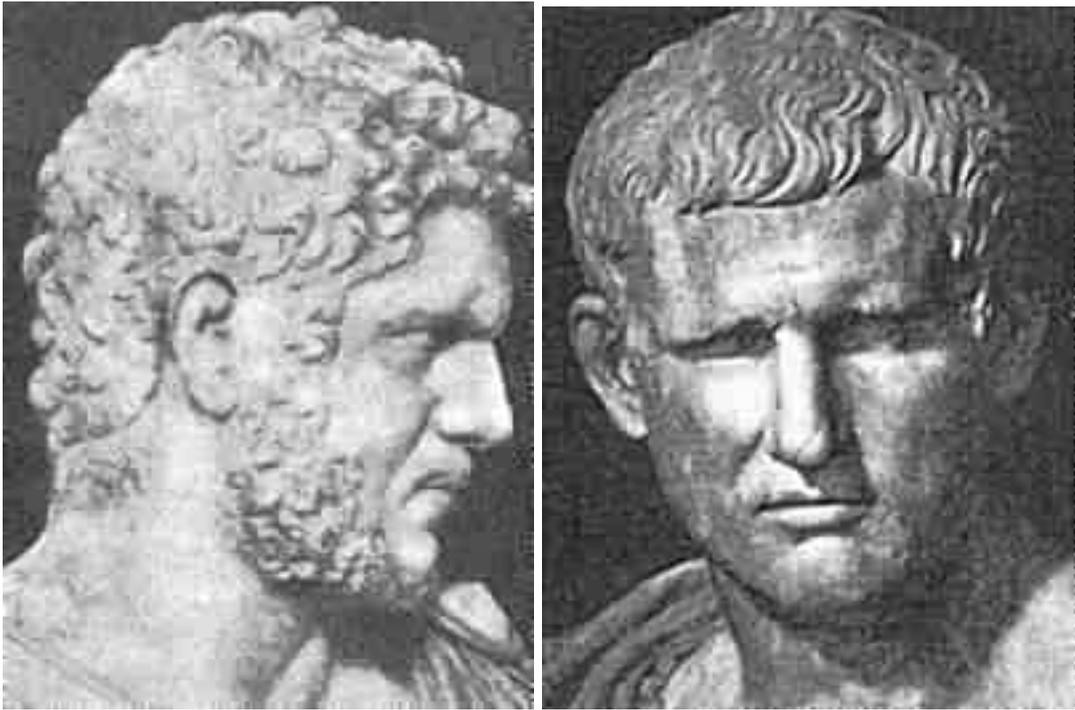
In 212 AD, in an apparent attempt to broaden the Roman tax base, Caracalla passed an edict giving all free males within the Empire citizenship of Rome.

This proclamation, which effectively turned centuries of Roman Law on its head (previously Roman law had always sought to prevent Roman citizenship passing to those outside of Rome), had effects far greater than just broadening the taxation base.

Early Roman law had made provisions for the maintenance of racial homogeneity amongst its citizens, by stipulating that persons could only be citizens of Rome if both their parents were Roman citizens themselves.

Roman citizens who married non-Roman citizens could not claim Roman citizenship for their children. This was of course a very direct way of biologically excluding all foreign nationals from Roman citizenship.

As however the Roman Empire expanded, so the definition of citizenship became broader and broader, till finally with Caracalla's edict, all free men, no matter what their racial or national origin, qualified for Roman citizenship. The last hold preventing the dilution of Roman blood had been abandoned.



Left: The Emperor Caracalla (ruled 188 - 217 AD) who extended Roman citizenship to all free peoples within the boundaries of the Roman Empire, and thereby gave legal sanction to the final dissolution of the Roman people. Born in Gaul of a Roman father and a Syrian mother, his own potentially dubious ancestry, must have also played a role in his decision to extend Roman citizenship. His features contrast, for example, with those of M Vipsanius Agrippa, a Roman general under Augustus (right), who lived some 200 years prior to Caracalla.

UNIVERSALITY LINKED TO THE RISE OF CHRISTIANITY

While the early Romans therefore placed great emphasis on maintaining their racial homogeneity, by the first century AD, the idea of universality had become an undercurrent: it was to become the main train of thought by the second century AD, and is directly linked to the rise of Christianity, which has the world-view of the universality of man as its underlying creed.

By the time of Caracalla's edict, the sheer size of the empire and the fact that it had already included so many racially alien elements within its borders, had made a large amount of racial mixing inevitable - Caracalla's edict gave legal support to this process.

Interracial marriages and mixed race children became more and more common after this, and slowly but surely, Rome and the Roman Empire in the Mediterranean lost its majority White leadership core.

Thus the fate which had befallen all the other great civilizations, namely the disappearance of the people who created those civilizations through physical integration, crept up on Rome itself.

Although this change in racial demographics was not as marked in Rome itself as in the easternmost outreaches of the Empire, it was however dramatic enough to change the very nature of the civilization.

Foreigners from all over the already mixed race Middle East poured into Rome, attracted by its wealth

and status. Being granted citizenship, these foreigners were steadily absorbed into the Roman population, to the point where today only a very few Italians can still today claim pure Roman descent.

Huge swathes of the southern part of Italy and Sicily are today clearly Nonwhite, being mainly a mixture of Arabic and White, while in scattered places there are flashes of the original population, light skins, light eyes or light hair - as there are right across the Mediterranean and as far afield as Iran or India.

ROMAN FALL MIRRORS THAT OF SUMERIA, EGYPT

The path followed by Rome mirrored that followed by Sumeria, the Near East, Egypt and Greece. All these civilizations remained intact as long as the society which created them remained homogenous.

As soon as these societies lost their homogeneity and became multi-racial, the very nature of the societies changed and the original civilizations disappeared. Rome would prove to be no exception to this rule.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 13 : THE GLORY OF ROME

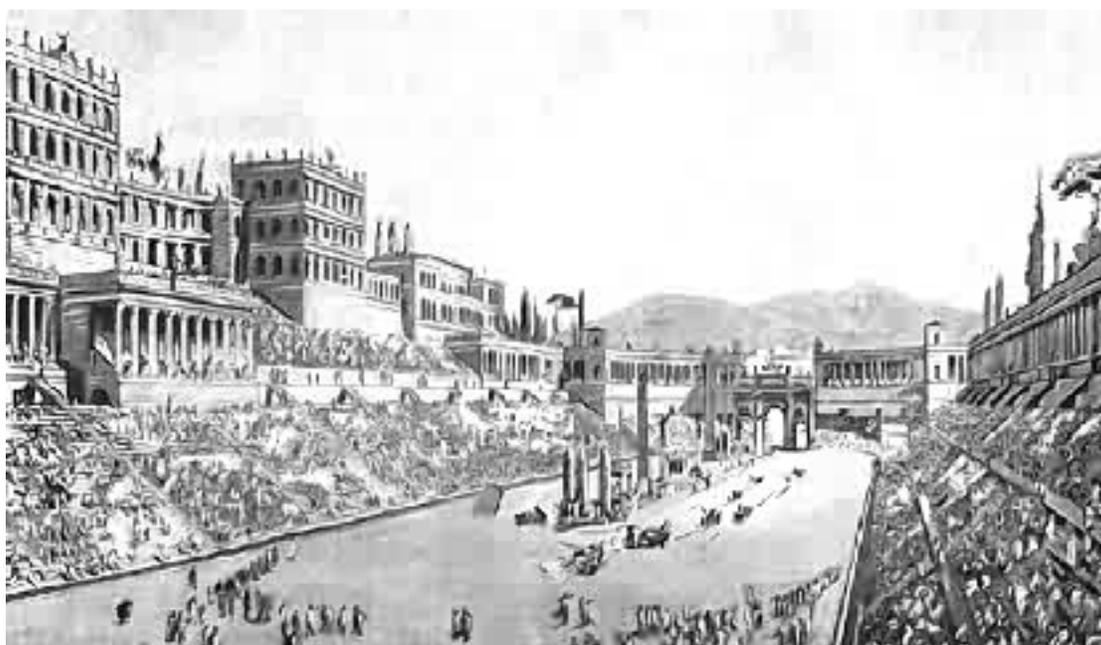
The fact that the Roman Empire dissolved into a multi-racial polyglot does not distract from the very many fine cultural and engineering achievements of the original Romans. It is however very noticeable that the greatest Roman achievements date from before the time of the racial dissolution of the empire - once again mirroring earlier civilizations.

ROMAN SOCIAL LIFE

Roman social life concentrated on great athletic and sporting events. The tradition of blood sports - of gladiators killing each other for the amusement of spectators, was not a sport associated with the original Romans.

It only became common once Rome had started to fill up with foreigners, although there was certainly no active resistance amongst the original Romans to the rise of the bloody spectacles. Indeed, the attraction to blood sports was also used as a political tool - very often prisoners who had been guilty of some particularly heinous crime would be fed to the lions, as often happened with the early Christians under the emperor Nero.

Wrestling and chariot racing were all major amusements. The largest sports stadium in Rome was the Circus Maximus, which could seat approximately 300,000 people and could be filled with water to re-enact sea battles between regular sized ships. The Circus Maximus stood for centuries, but its stone was eventually broken up for use in Christian buildings in the Middle Ages. Virtually every major Roman town, from North Africa right through to the Near East, boasted a theater or amphitheater - some in use to this day.



The huge Circus Maximus in Rome. This was the greatest Roman entertainment complex of all time, being able to seat 300,000 spectators. The first parts of the Circus Maximus were built around 600 BC, being substantially enlarged by Julius Caesar, who also added canals which could flood the theater floor upon which ships could be sailed to re-enact sea battles. The Roman general Pompey the Great is said on one occasion (55 BC) to have sponsored five days of circus games during which 500 lions and 20 elephants were killed. The Circus Maximus, which was far larger than the famous Colosseum, did not survive. It was broken up and its stone was used to build Christian churches after that religion came to dominate Europe.

ROMAN RELIGION

The one outstanding feature of Roman religion before the advent of Christianity was that there was no single faith or belief. The religious world of Rome reflected in many ways the actual empire itself: a mix of different cults and beliefs, with influences from Greece and the Middle East, all thrown in for good measure.

Many of the oldest Roman gods reflected also the nature of the first Romans - these gods represented the practical needs of daily life and military prowess. Janus and Vesta guarded the door and hearth; Lares protected the field and house; Pales the pasture; Saturn the sowing; Ceres the growth of the grain; Pomona the fruit; and Consus and Ops the harvest.

Many of these gods' names are remembered in modern day names for certain types of fruit and cultivated crops.



A Roman statue of Pomona, the goddess of fruit and Autumn. The goddess of the orchards, she was typically depicted with plentiful fruit. Her name is typical for early Roman religion: an extraction from the Latin word for apple, pomum.

Jupiter, the ruler of the gods, was not only credited with bringing rain, but was also known for his weapon, lightning (as was the Greek chief God, Zeus) and was the protector of the Romans in their military activities beyond the borders of their own community.

Mars was a god of young men and war and along with Jupiter, Quirinus, Janus and Vesta, formed the first Roman pantheon of gods.

As part of their policy of absorption, neighboring native gods from conquered surrounding lands were usually granted the same honor with which the Roman gods were held. In many cases formal invitations were made to the religions' leaders and their precious objects to take up residence in Rome. This growth in the number of foreign religions had another serious consequence - foreigners were attracted to the city in ever increasing numbers. Gods from neighboring tribes in Italy which became Roman gods included famous non Roman deities such as Diana, Minerva, Hercules and Venus. The Roman religious calendar also reflected Rome's willingness to absorb foreign cults.

The oldest Roman festivals lasted till the very end of the pagan Roman era, and marked the original Indo-European festivals of Spring and Winter.

One of the most important festivals was the Saturnalia which was celebrated for seven days, from December 17 to 23, during the original winter solstice time. All business was suspended, slaves were given temporary freedom and gifts were exchanged.

Another important festival was the Lupercalia, which celebrated Lupercus, a pastoral god. The festival was celebrated on February 15 at the cave of the Lupercal on the Palatine Hill, where the legendary founders of Rome, Romulus and Remus, were supposed to have been nursed by a she wolf.

The Equiria, a festival in honor of Mars, was celebrated on February 27 and March 14, traditionally the time of year when new military campaigns were prepared.

The growth in the number of temples in Rome also indicated how willing the Romans were to allow all manner of cults to flourish under their rule. Roman society adopted the fairly liberal approach that each person could conduct their own particular religion as they wished as long as it did not disturb the public order.

This, combined with the huge areas which fell under Roman domination, saw any number of cults and beliefs stream into Rome from all parts of the known world: Mithraism from Iran, Judaism from Palestine, and even the worship of the Isis cult from Egypt proved to be popular after Cleopatra VII visited Rome for a year as the guest of Caesar. Influences from far and wide all competed for converts in Rome.

Eventually the Romans started to deify their own great leaders after their deaths: in this way a cult around Julius Caesar and Octavian Augustus quickly grew, and temples for these groups were also

built. (This is where the Catholic Church inherited the habit of deifying their most famous members, calling them saints).

All the non-Christian religions were prohibited in AD 392 by an edict of Emperor Theodosius after Christianity had become dominant.

ROMAN LITERATURE

Culturally, the early Romans left a massive heritage, contributing to Western Civilization some of the most famous writers and thinkers outside of Classical Greece.

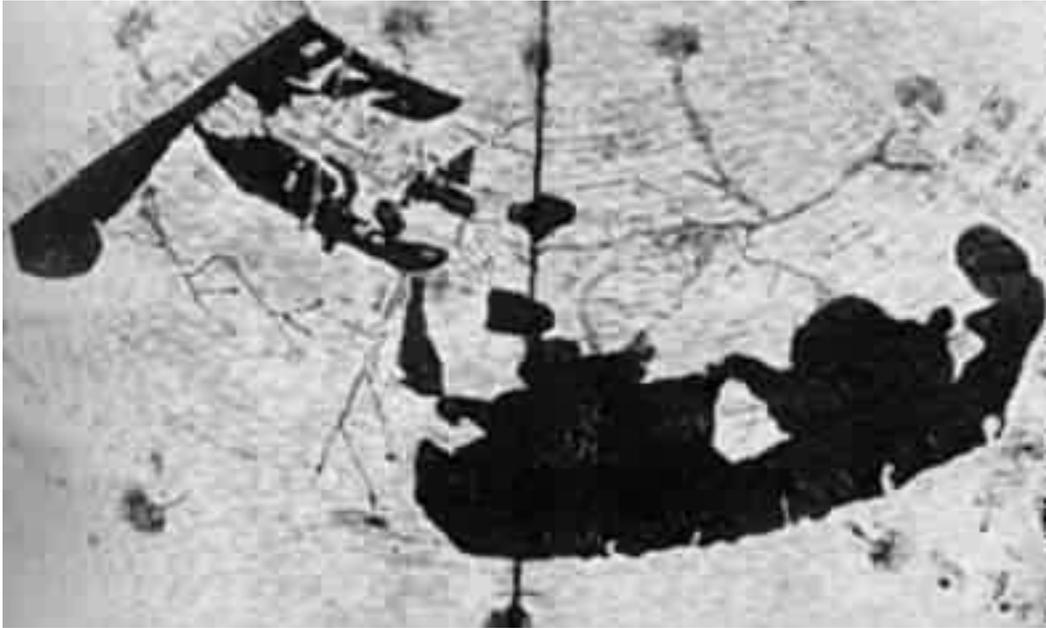
- Marcus Tullus Cicero (106 BC - 43 BC) was one of the most famous Latin writers, producing texts on a wide number of topics, including analyses and discussions of Greek thought, especially that of Plato and the Stoics.
- Virgil (70 BC - 19 BC) is known as the greatest of all Roman poets, mainly because of his epic poem the Aeneid, which told the story of Aeneas, who moved from Troy to Italy and helped establish the Latini people.
- Ovid (43 BC - 17 AD) is most famous for his poem Metamorphoses, which contains stories from classical mythology. He also won renown as a poet of pleasure and love, and after one particularly bad sexual scandal involving a member of an imperial family, he was exiled to an outpost on the Black Sea.
- Livy (59 BC - 17 BC) wrote an immense history of Rome, the first comprehensive history of that type undertaken.
- Tacitus (55 AD - 117 AD) wrote several pieces including Germania and the Annals, which were critical of Roman society and the Emperor system of rule.
- Plutarch (46 AD - 120 AD) is most famous for his biographical work of 46 famous Romans and Greeks, called the Parallel Lives. This work was used some 1,600 years later by the English playwright William Shakespeare to obtain details for two of his tragic dramas, Anthony and Cleopatra, and Julius Caesar.
- The historian Pliny the Elder (23 AD - 79 AD) assembled what can be called the first Encyclopedia, the "Natural History."



***Left: Virgil (70 BC - 19 BC) is known as the greatest of all Roman poets, mainly because of his epic poem the Aeneid, which told the story of Aeneas, who moved from Troy to Italy and helped establish the Latini people.
Right: The great Roman historian Tacitus (55 - 117AD), who, along with Pliny, was one of Rome's greatest historians and social commentators.***

Under Roman rule, the remnant Macedonians in Egypt kept up their scientific research work started under the Ptolemies. Under the Romans, Alexandria was once again built up into a huge city, spawning the famous geographer Ptolemy (circa 200 AD) who was the first to draw a map of the world onto a curved surface.

He worked off plans drawn up by the original White Greek Macedonian, Erasthones. Galen (139 AD - 200 AD) was another Romanised Greek, who established the principles of medicine used in Europe until the early Renaissance period.



The first map to represent the earth on a curved surface (and hence part of a globe) - devised by the Roman-Greek scientist Ptolemy, working in Roman Egypt during the 2nd century AD.

ART - SET WORLD STANDARDS

As with many things architectural, early Roman art copied Grecian forms. This was readily apparent in the sculpture style, and indeed many statues of Greeks which have survived to the present day are Roman copies of Greek originals.

Roman art has unquestionably set the standard against which all other art is measured - even to the point where an object or style is known as "classical" or not - an indication that even 2,000 years later, no-one has been able to improve upon the design of the Romans.

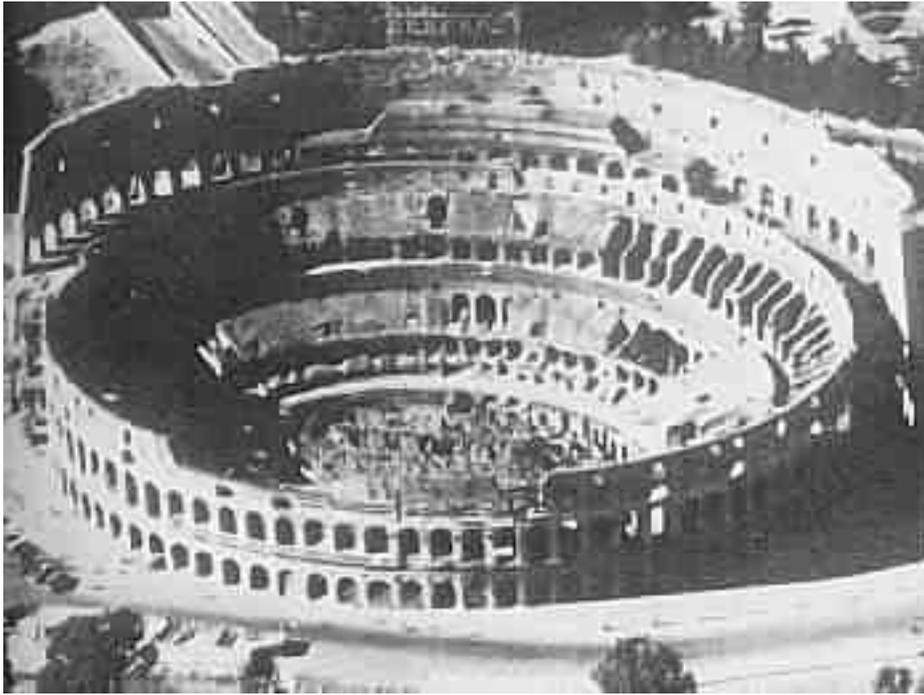


Venus de Milo, circa 150 BC.

ARCHITECTURE

The Romans unashamedly took many building designs from the Greeks (the various column types and the now famous Greco-Roman building style of a triangular roof set atop rows of columns) and perfected and added to them, creating structures which to this very day are awe inspiring and unequalled in sheer aesthetics. The Greek influence went beyond architecture. All educated Romans were bilingual, speaking Latin and Greek.

Many of the buildings in Rome itself date from the height of the Empire, and while most have been abandoned, some Roman structures, such as the famous water aqueduct in Segovia, Spain, are still working today, nineteen centuries after they were built. Roman roads were the autobahns of their day, and the road system set up by the Romans was not equaled until the twentieth century.



The Colosseum, Rome. Completed in 81 AD, it is called the Colosseum after a colossal statue of Nero that once stood nearby - its real name is the Flavian Amphitheater. It was used for staged battles, sometimes between lions and Christians and other heretics, among other spectacles, and is one of the most famous pieces of architecture in the world.



The Roman built aqueduct at Segovia in Spain, still supplies that town's water, nearly 1,800 years after it was built.

The workmanship which went into many of the constructions of the time would be hard to match even in the modern era - and this in spite of the advantage of modern tools. The Romans certainly started town planning as a skill: laying out new cities on a grid pattern for ease of commuting, and their inventions of concrete and the vaulted dome made possible the huge buildings later to become known as cathedrals.

However, this frenzied building activity, like its Egyptian predecessor, had its price. Masses of slaves provided the cheap labor to build these edifices, and the influx of slaves combined with natural immigration to the Roman center was ultimately to provide the demographic shift which brought about the Empire's downfall.

SLAVES

Slavery was an institutionalized part of Roman society. The sheer size of the Empire meant however

that many slaves were foreign - Greek slaves were held to be the best type of slave to have (they were of course the Whitest slave, after Gauls or Germans, who were less common as slaves). Arabs, Blacks and others of mixed race from the Middle and Near East also made up a huge number of the slave population.

The importation of these racially alien slaves impacted upon the demographics of Rome over a period of time. The numbers of slaves must have been tremendous: there were enough of them to form their own 70,000 strong army, as happened in 73 BC, when the slave leader Spartacus led the famous slave uprising. It took an entire Roman army to suppress that uprising - but still the practice of slavery continued, and was to ultimately cost the Romans their very existence itself.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 14 : ROME AND THE CELTS

Europe had been settled by a number of waves of Nordic Indo-Europeans, sweeping out of their homeland between the Black and Caspian seas, from about 4000 BC onwards. There were any number of tribes: some long since forgotten or amalgamated with the bigger tribes - others significant enough to have created regions or states later to be named after them: these included the Britanni, Slavs, Balts, Germans and others.

Despite their differing tribal names, they all shared a common Nordic sub-racial root. Depending on the nature of the original European populations they encountered in the various parts of Europe, they either retained their Nordic characteristics or they were diluted amongst the Alpine or Mediterranean populations.

In this way the population of northern and large parts of Western Europe became more Nordic, while parts of France, Spain, Italy and central Europe became less so.

THE BALTS - RETAINED TRADITIONS LONGEST

The Balts were the northernmost wave of the Indo-European tribes, settling in north eastern Europe around the Baltic sea, to which they gave their name. The Balts were unique in the sense that they were the only original Indo-European tribe not to have had direct military contact with the Romans.

This was due to the fact that once settled in the north eastern reaches of Europe, the Balts never tried to expand further: the only Indo-European peoples not to engage in any further land grabbing exercises.

probably because of this isolationist policy, they kept to the ancient Indo-European traditions the longest, with even their languages to this day retaining similarities with the Indo-European mother tongue.

The Balts also kept closely to their old Indo-European religions, with worship of the old deities still being carried out as late as 1900 AD.

THE CELTS IN FRANCE AND THE ROMANS

By 600 BC, the Celts had firmly established themselves in France, although those in the southern parts of France were darker (because of the greater Mediterranean population originally living there) than those in the northern parts.

These Celtic tribes lived in relative stability in small villages and towns, with a strongly developed sense of social status - the aristocracy were almost always warriors, while the middle and lower classes were the tradesmen and laborers.

As the Celts were not literate, virtually all the descriptions of their lifestyles come from Roman writers, including that of Julius Caesar himself, who was head of the Roman army that occupied Gaul in 54 BC. Caesar wrote an account of his campaign in Gaul, and noted the differences between the Gauls in the north and the south.



Dying Gaul, Roman sculpture, circa 230 BC. An excellent portrayal of the racial characteristics of the Gauls with whom Rome was to do battle.

GAULS FOUND MILAN AND ATTACK ROMANS

The enmity between Rome and the Celts (or Gauls, to give them the name that they had by the time of the Roman occupation of France) went back to 400 BC, when Celtic armies invaded northern Italy and founded the city of Milan.

In 387 BC, they even occupied the city of Rome, leaving only after the Romans paid them a ransom of gold.

Other Celtic tribes struck further south, with one group, the Galatae, reaching Turkey, becoming the Galatians mentioned in the Christian Bible. Yet another group settled in what became Yugoslavia, founding the city of Belgrade.



A Roman sculpture of a (French) Gaul chieftain. An excellent depiction of a Gaulish nobleman from the time of the Roman invasion of modern day France.

ROMAN REVENGE

The Romans bided their time and built up their strength. After a series of minor clashes, Roman armies under general Caesar rolled into Gaul in 54 BC and smashed the Celts, enslaving virtually the entire population, over three million by Roman counts.

The cruelty with which the Romans suppressed the Gauls was to trigger one last great uprising. Began by a tribe in central France, the rebellion spread out and carried on for two years, eventually being led by the king of the Arverni tribe, one Vercingetorix.

Spurred on by fresh Roman outrages - when Caesar occupied the Gaulish town of Avaricum, for example, he ordered all 40,000 inhabitants put to death - Vercingetorix and his Gaulish allies very nearly defeated the Roman armies.

For a while the Roman expedition nearly foundered, but eventually superior Roman organization won the day. Vercingetorix and 80,000 of his men were finally cornered in the fortified town of Alesia on the Seine river. Caesar's army settled down to a siege, preparing their defenses well enough to ward off attacks by Vercingetorix's allies outside.

Finally, in an attempt to save his people from extermination, Vercingetorix personally surrendered to Caesar in 52 BC.

Caesar had the Celtic King sent to Rome in chains, where he was kept prisoner for six years, before being publicly strangled and beheaded.



The Gaulish rebellion at an end: Vercingetorix surrenders to Caesar. After conquering modern day France and moving on to Britain, Caesar had to rush back to Gaul to face a full scale rebellion led by the great chief Vercingetorix in 52 BC. After cornering and besieging the Gauls at Alesia on the Seine River, the Gaulish chief personally surrendered to Caesar in an attempt to save his own people. Caesar had the Gaul sent to Rome in chains where he was kept prisoner for six years before being executed.

THE CELTS IN BRITAIN AND THE ROMANS

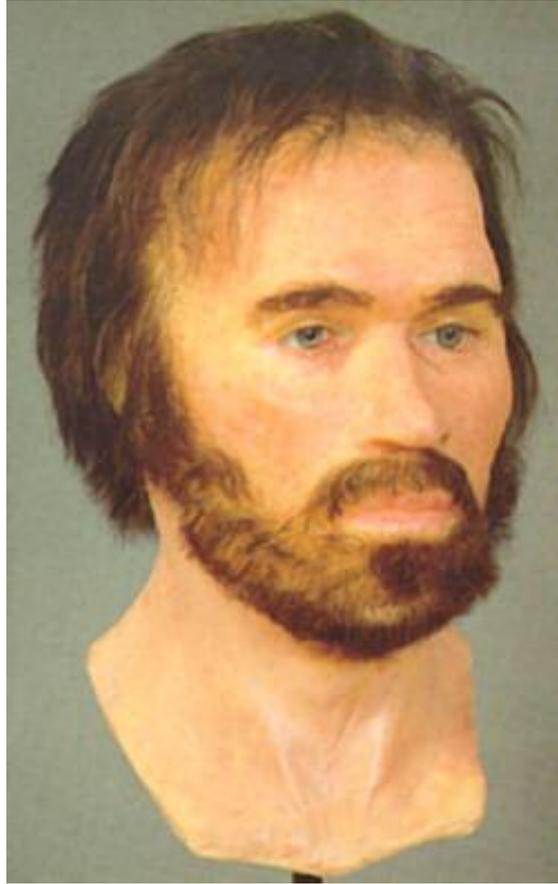
The island of Britain had in the interim also been settled by waves of Celts, producing the same sub-grouping mix as had happened elsewhere in Europe. Generally though, the Celtic Britons were not as Nordic as their Celtic cousins across the channel in France, this being due to the fewer number of Nordic Celts actually crossing the channel to mix with the Alpine/Mediterranean Neolithic population in Britain.

The Celtic Britons further built up and advanced on many Neolithic structures already existing in Britain.

Many of the ancient hill forts in southern and western England were for example rebuilt and further strengthened, for, like Celts everywhere, they were just as apt to fight with each other as with anyone else.

Yet more Celts moved across to Ireland, taking the ancient Indo-European language with them: the very name Eire is, like Iran and Iraq, derived from the word Aryan. Eire was never settled by the Romans (although they did have one fort outside Dublin, but this appears to have been an emissary party only) and thus remained known as Celtic strongholds.

Pre-Roman Celtic Britain is best described as iron age, although the country was essentially Neolithic with agriculture as its main activity. Contact with the outside more developed world existed, with evidence of trade even with Rome, being fairly abundant.



Reconstruction of the head of Lindow man, the Iron Age body found in a Cheshire, England, peatbog in 1984. Dating from around 100 AD, this would have been the typical type of Celt that the Romans would have encountered, fought against, and finally mixed with, in Britain. On display in the British Museum, London.

FIRST ROMAN INVASION - 55 BC

In 55 BC, Caesar, fresh from subduing the Gauls in France, undertook the first Roman crossing of the channel to Britain. He managed to land a sizable army, but his emissary to the Celtic tribes of south eastern Britain, a Romanised Gaul named Commius, was captured by one of the Celtic tribes.

The Romans were also surprised to find that the Britons had war chariots - another skill imported from their Indo-European homeland - and the Roman cavalry, which was the only weapon which Caesar might have been able to deploy against the chariots, had not managed to cross the channel due to bad weather.

For a while it seemed as if Caesar's two legions would be driven out of Britain - but his Gallic emissary (who had been released as part of a diplomatic cat and mouse game) managed to gather together some local horses to whittle down the advantage of the British chariots.

A stalemate was achieved after a particularly inconclusive battle - but it was the respite that Caesar

needed, and shortly thereafter the bulk of the Roman legions withdrew to Gaul, with Caesar himself being fêted in Rome for the expedition, although it was minor in comparison to the far more significant conquest of Gaul.

SECOND ROMAN INVASION - 54 BC

The following year, 54 BC, Caesar however launched yet another invasion of Britain. This time he landed a force several times larger than his first expedition, including some 2,000 cavalry. He hoped to land his forces and march quickly into the heart of the Celtic territory and inflict a defeat upon the scattered tribes before they could unite into one army.

However, he chose his landing beaches poorly. To compound his problems, a storm forced him to spend ten days dragging all his ships onto the dry land to prevent them from being sunk, giving the Britons enough time to sound the alarm and to draw up their army under a leading tribal chief named Cassivellaunus.

Nonetheless, the overwhelming force which Caesar had drawn into Britain, defeated even the united Celts. The defeat caused the Celtic alliance to wither, and some significant tribes even went over to the Roman side, the most important being the Trinovantes of Essex, who had reason to disapprove of Cassivellaunus because he had, in an earlier skirmish, slain their chief.

Cassivellaunus went on the offensive, attacking a major Roman camp in Kent, but was defeated. Caesar's victories were not however complete. The early loss of time meant that winter was now approaching and he had still not achieved his outright conquest. Even worse, rebellion was brewing in Gaul across the Channel. He and Cassivellaunus then agreed to a peace whereby the Celts would pay an annual tribute to Rome and would safeguard Roman interests in Britain. Thus concluded, Caesar hurriedly left Britain to return to Rome and then back to Gaul, where he had to face Vercingetorix's uprising.



Romans landing on the British shore. In 55 BC, Julius Caesar and a Roman army landed in Britain, and was surprised to find stiff resistance from the Celts resident on that island. Great was his surprise when he also found that the Celts had chariots, and it was only after an inconclusive battle that a stalemate was reached which allowed Caesar to leave without conceding defeat. Caesar launched another invasion of Britain in the following year, and this time managed to subdue a larger number of Celts. Most of the country remained independent however for nearly another 90 years until 43AD when a renewed Roman offensive subdued virtually all of present day England.

Any thoughts Caesar may have had of a third invasion of Britain were shelved by the subsequent events which occupied his life - the suppression of the Gallic rebellion - the march on Rome in 50 BC - his assumption of power and his assassination a few short years later.

CAESAR'S CONQUEST OF SPAIN

Caesar did however manage to conquer Spain in a short six week campaign in 49 BC - bringing virtually all the Celts in that country under Roman rule (previously only a southern part of Spain had been in Roman hands, seized from the Carthaginians during the Punic Wars). The process of Romanisation of Spain also began in earnest after this date.

THIRD ROMAN INVASION OF BRITAIN - 43 AD

Caesar's successor, Octavian Augustus, planned a number of invasions of Britain, but all were postponed due to pressures elsewhere in the Empire requiring more immediate action. Thus Britain lived for another 100 years in a state between full Roman occupation and full independence.

It was only in 43 AD, that the emperor, Claudius, finally ordered a full conquest of Britain. Claudius assembled an army of 40,000 men under the command of Aulus Plautius and invaded the island in

that year. The overwhelmingly powerful Roman armies quickly swept inland, defeating determined Celtic resistance around present day London. Claudius himself decided to be present at the final victory, and landed in Britain with additional forces and elephants - which must have seemed like dragons to the British Celts - and occupied the main Celtic city of Colchester.

There the Celtic tribes formally surrendered, and Claudius was able to leave after a stay of only 16 days, finally having added the province of Britain to the empire.

The Roman forces spread out from Colchester, employing powerful weapons such as bolt catapults against tribesmen armed with only bows, arrow and slings. Nonetheless, the Celts defended to the death places such as the ancient hill fort of Maiden Castle in Dorset.

CELTIC REBELLION UNDER BOADICEA

In 47 AD, there was an increase in Celtic resistance which simmered on until 61 AD, when it finally erupted into open revolt under queen Boadicea of the Iceni tribe in Norfolk. The death of the Iceni king brought a Roman unit into their territory, which, after engaging in a bout of looting, then publicly whipped the king's widow, Boadicea, and raped her daughters.

This public shaming proved too much. The Iceni and many other Celtic tribes broke out into open revolt, and took several Roman strongholds, including Colchester and London, both of which were sacked and burnt down with 70,000 Roman and Romanised Celtic fatalities. Shaken, the Romans drew together their forces and met Boadicea's army in the middle of Britain, where, through superior organizational ability and better training, the Romans were able to inflict a massive defeat upon their numerically superior enemy, slaughtering, the Roman version says, some 80,000 Britons on the field for the loss of only 400 Roman soldiers.

The Boadicean revolt was the last major native rebellion the Romans experienced in Britain for the next two hundred years.



Queen Boadicea of the Iceni in her chariot leading the Celtic rebellion against Roman rule in 61 AD. At first she won some great victories, overrunning the Roman towns of Colchester and London. Noted as having long blond hair by the Romans, the Celtic queen was finally defeated by superior Roman organization at the battle of Loughton. Retreating to the great forest today known as Epping to the north east of London, she took poison in order to avoid capture.

From then on the military conquests of other parts of the island, reaching north into lower Scotland continued without major interruption until by 80 AD they had pushed the most rebellious Celts up into the Scottish Highlands. (The Scots themselves were originally an Irish Celtic tribe who crossed the Irish sea at a later date).

One of these rebellious tribes, the Caledonians, nearly defeated the Roman legions pushing north at the battle of Mons Grapius in 83 AD, but once again the Romans prevailed, and the Caledonians vanished into the Highlands. However, the ferocity of the far northern Celtic defense meant that the Romans never pushed home the advance (although they did sail a fleet round the top of Scotland) and slowly withdrew southwards.

By 122 AD, the Roman emperor, Hadrian, had not only visited the province of Britain but had also ordered the building of a fortified wall across the north of England to keep the tribes to the north out. Many parts of this wall, named after Hadrian, can still be seen to this day.



Hadrian's Wall, northern England. Built by the Romans to ward off the incessant attacks by the Celts (called Picts) whom they had been unable to subdue in the far north of that country.

By 212 AD, the Romans were firmly entrenched in England (as opposed to Britain) and the process of Romanisation was well under way. This was speeded up by the edict of Caracalla in 212 AD granting Roman citizenship to all free inhabitants of the Empire, and the resultant legalization of the already de facto situation of soldiers taking wives from the local population.

This policy, implemented throughout the Empire, did not have the same effects on the Romans in Britain or France as what it had on the Romans in the Middle or Near East - the mixing of Roman, Celtic and original European sub groupings did not disturb the racial homogeneity of either the conquerors or the conquered peoples - they remained overwhelmingly White, while in other territories the local Nonwhite populations soon swallowed up the White element.

In 287 AD, a revolt once again broke out in Britain, even though by this stage many Romans had become Britons and vice versa. In fact the rebellion was led by Romanised Britons and Romans who disliked the emperor of the time, Maximian (appointed as co-emperor by Diocletian). A specially dispatched Roman army had to subdue the Britons and the Roman rebels by force in 296 AD.

According to the Roman records, the rebels employed a large number of German mercenaries - ironically, many of the newly arrived Roman legionnaires were also German mercenaries. This rebellion was the last major armed action undertaken by the Romans in Britain.

ROMAN CONTROL LOST DE FACTO CIRCA 400 AD

While not mirroring the racial situation in Rome (which had by the 2nd Century AD become quite mixed with a substantial Nonwhite influx into the Roman bloodline), Britain did however experience political instability caused by the infighting and squabbling amongst the slowly darkening Romans in Rome itself. Control over the far flung empire became more remote, till finally around 400 AD Rome had de facto lost control over their northernmost province. By this time Britain was experiencing a new wave of Nordic invaders - the Saxons and other Teutonic peoples sweeping in from Northern and

Central Europe.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 15 : ROME AND THE GERMANS

The Germans had settled almost all the land which later became Germany by approximately 2000 BC. They lived a lifestyle very similar to that of the Celts - working iron, textiles, semi-precious stones, ceramics, pottery and gold, and living in villages rather than great towns. Also, like all their Indo-European cousins bar the Balts, the Germans continually made land grabs whenever the opportunity arose.

By 300 BC, they had advanced westwards as far as the Rhine river, and shortly thereafter advance tribes crossed the Rhine and settled what is today Belgium (the Romans called these tribes the Belgae, hence that country's name).

These advances invariably brought the Germans into conflict with the Celts in France, and after the Romans occupied Gaul, with the Romans themselves.

GERMAN ATTACKS ON ROME

Although a German invasion had passed through northern Italy some years before - in 113 BC (and had been eventually been overwhelmingly defeated by the Romans) they still dared from time to time to launch raiding parties into Roman occupied Gaul. In 57 BC, a German tribe, the Saubians, defeated a Celtic tribe in present day Alsace-Lorraine in France, and occupied their territory.

Julius Caesar was forced to intervene to prevent further German incursions. He defeated the German invaders, with the few survivors just managing to escape back across the Rhine River, which was becoming the firm border between Roman Gaul and Germany.

FIRST ROMAN INVASION

In 55 BC, Caesar built a wooden bridge across the Rhine, near to the present day city of Cologne, and over this first ever bridge over that river, he took the war to the Germans in their own territory. Having been beaten several times in a row by the Romans, the Germans withdrew eastward into the forests, leaving the Roman force a virtual free hand to destroy the settlements on the eastern bank of the Rhine river. After just over two weeks of plundering, the Roman army withdrew back over the bridge, declaring all of the western bank of the Rhine to be officially Roman territory.



The Germans proved to be the only people who were subject to a Roman invasion who actually managed to fight off and defeat the Caesars. Both these reliefs are from the Antonine Column, and show first a Roman unit engaging a German army, and then captured German chiefs being beheaded by Roman soldiers.

SECOND ROMAN INVASION AND THE USE OF GERMAN MERCENARIES

Some two years later, in 53 BC, Caesar again crossed the Rhine and broke the threat of German tribes in Westphalia, eventually even recruiting some German mercenaries to fight with his army which he used to subdue Vercingetorix the Gaul in France.

When Caesar finally subdued the Celts, he then marched on Rome in response to Pompey's call for him to disband his army. Some 6,000 German mercenaries marched with Caesar's army to Rome - the forerunners of many thousands more who would serve in the Roman armies.

This development - the use of German and Celtic mercenaries - would play a hugely significant role in both keeping the Romans out of Germany; and in keeping the Roman Empire alive long after the

majority of the original Roman stock had vanished.

After taking power in Rome, Caesar started to try and subdue the still rebellious Celts who lived in the Alps to the north of Italy. It took some 30 years for the Roman legions to finally quell these hardy mountain dwelling people, and afterwards their lands were formerly annexed to Rome.

THIRD ROMAN INVASION

By 15 BC, the formal Roman border extended as far north as the Danube River and as far east as the Rhine - but over that river, still hostile Germans lurked. In 12 BC, the Romans launched a new attempt to invade the German heartland under general Drusus. Although the Germans put up stiff resistance and managed to inflict some major defeats upon the Roman forces, Drusus defeated the major German tribes and in three years managed to reach the Elbe River in central Germany.

Drusus however fell off his horse and died: he was replaced by general Tiberius (who was later to become emperor) and by 7 BC, the new commander of the Roman forces had conquered most of the territory between the Rhine and Weser rivers, and part of the lands beyond the Weser river, inhabited by a tribe known as the Cherusci. The Roman military machine rolled on, unstoppable.

On all fronts, the Germans were either forced to fall back towards the east, over the Elbe River, or faced subjugation by the Romans. It seemed that only a matter of time would pass and the Germans too would suffer the fate of the Gauls in France. Indeed, many of the tactics employed by Caesar in France began to be used against defeated German tribes under Roman control.

HERMANN CHERUSCI - TRAINED BY THE ROMANS

However, the by now established Roman policy of drawing subjugated peoples into the administration of their own territories, thereby not only Romanising the population but also going a long way to subduing the new colonies, was also implemented in Germany. In this way two young Cherusci princes, the sons of the king of the Cherusci, were selected to be Romanised. Both young princes were sent to Rome in 1 AD.

One of the brothers became completely Romanised and took on the name Flavius, while the other kept his German name, Hermann, although the Romans gave him a new name as well: Arminius. Hermann served five years in a Roman legion, becoming a Roman citizen and employed on active service in two expeditions against other rebellious colonies. But all the while, he always retained his German roots, unlike his brother.

When Hermann was returned to his native area in 8 AD, he was employed by the Roman administration as one of their most senior soldiers and administrators in the region under the Roman general Varus: never once did the Romans suspect Hermann's true intentions, which were to throw the Romans out of his homeland.



Left: The famous "Praying German" - a Roman statue of a German tribesman, now in the Bibliotheque Nationale, Paris. It shows very clearly the Nordic sub-racial characteristics of the Germans who fought the Romans. Right: a Roman bust of Hermann Cherusker: the German prince who defeated Rome.

BATTLE OF TEUTOBURGERWALD - DECISIVE DEFEAT FOR ROME

As soon as he was in a position to act, Hermann immediately set about organizing a rebellion amongst the Germans against Roman rule. Using his position as a German prince to influence a large number of German tribes, Hermann secretly began preparing his own great German army - no doubt using much of what he had learned during his training in the Roman army.

In 9 AD, Varus' Roman army was encamped west of the Weser river in the modern day German state of North Rhine Westphalia. Hermann arranged to have a diversionary battle erupt to the east, and Varus immediately set off in that direction.

Hermann put his plan into action. Gathering up the German troops in the Roman army upon whom he could rely, and combining it with German tribal warriors, he set out in pursuit of Varus, catching up with the unsuspecting Roman in the thick of the Teutoburger forest, near the present day town of Detmold.

In the forest, Hermann's forces ambushed the Romans. For three days the battle raged, with Hermann employing unusual guerrilla tactics, attacking and then suddenly withdrawing into the forest before the Romans could create their set battle formations, and then attacking again a while later from a completely different direction.

Hermann knew from his training in the Roman Army that the Romans did not have an adequate defense against this tactic, and after three days the Romans were exhausted. No sleep, constant attacks by German raiders and unfamiliar territory took their toll and the Roman lines broke.

Only a handful of Romans escaped from the forest to tell the tale. Most were killed in combat and those who were captured suffered the fate of many Germans and Celts who had earlier fallen into Roman hands - they were killed on the spot. News of the victory spread throughout occupied Germany, sparking off a rebellion which saw the Romans having to retreat all the way back to the western side of the Rhine river once again.



A skirmish during the Battle of Teutoburgerwald, where the Germans under Hermann Cherusci defeated a mighty Roman army. This 9 AD battle marked the turning point of the Roman Empire in the West. Hermann was a Romanized German who, once appointed to a senior post in the Roman army, used his position as a German prince to organize a rebellion against Roman rule in Germany. After creating a diversion and tricking the main occupying Roman army into penetrating a forest near the present day city of Detmold, Hermann's forces ambushed the Romans in the dense woods. The Romans were crushed, and retreated west over the Rhine river. That river then became the German/Roman border. 15,000 Roman troops were killed in the battle and their remains were only buried long after by a new Roman army sent on a punitive mission - their accounts tell of piles of bleached bones and skulls nailed to trees as macabre warnings to other Romans.

Although the wars with the Germans dragged on for eight more years, by 17 AD, the Romans formerly accepted the Rhine as the border between Germany and Rome. Germany was never invaded again.

Hermann had also succeeded in at last uniting the German tribes against Rome. This unity was however short lived and once the Romans had been driven from their land, the German tribes lost little time in launching into one another again. Hermann himself was assassinated in 21 AD - by a German.

Thus Germany once again became a land of fierce and warlike tribes, all battling with each other for territory as they had done before the advent of the Roman incursions.

"A PURE AND UNMIXED RACE" - THE GERMANS

The Roman historian Tacitus, writing during the First Century AD, included the following insightful remarks on the racial nature of the Germans:

"I concur in opinion with those who deem the Germans never to have intermarried with other nations but to be a pure and unmixed race, stamped with a distinct character.

"Hence, a family likeness pervades the whole, though their numbers are great. Their eyes are stern and blue, their hair ruddy, and their bodies large..."



Original Roman statues of Germans, displaying Nordic and part Nordic/part Alpine characteristics.

In what became a major twist of irony, Rome itself from the first century onwards began to rely more and more on German and Celtic mercenaries to fill the ranks of its armies.

The cause of this reliance on mercenaries is directly related to the demographic changes at work within Italy itself. Rome, with its status as capital of the Empire, had acted as a magnet for not only slaves but also immigrants from all over the world, and particularly from the Middle and Near East.

ROME INCREASINGLY MIXED

Although the Roman nobility still to a large extent maintained its original racial heritage (mixed Nordic/Alpine/Mediterranean), their numbers began to decline significantly. This was due in part to their use of lead water pipes and sapa (lead acetate) as a skin lightener - a valuable racial indicator in itself. The high lead intake had the side effect of sterility, an issue which is noted as having plagued the Roman upper classes.

The lower classes of Roman society - Rome was very class conscious - had by the end of the 2nd Century AD, reached a point where a significant number had been replaced by what were in effect mixed or Nonwhite racial types gathered from the four corners of the empire.

In his book, the Gallic Wars, Caesar, who was himself a Nordic type, compared the Romans of that time with the Gauls, remarking how blond the Gauls were and, in comparison with the Romans, how tall they were. (Caesar went on to describe Celts in Britain as being blond, but not as much so as their Celtic brethren in Gaul). This is not to say that Rome of this time was a completely Nonwhite city - there remained of course a large number of Whites in the city, but the demographic trend was most certainly against them.

By the end of the first century and the beginning of the 2nd Century AD, the Roman army found the number of recruits from these "new" Roman residents drying up. A huge number of residents of Rome were after all foreign, even though they had taken on the ways of Rome, and either refused to serve in the army; or were simply not up to the exacting physical demands - or, more likely, preferred mercantile pursuits rather than the rigor of a military life.

GERMAN AND CELTIC MERCENARIES FILL THE RANKS OF THE ROMAN ARMY

The Germans and Celts ended up therefore being the primary source of recruits for the Roman armies - not surprisingly so, as in racial terms they were much closer to the original Romans than the majority of inhabitants of Rome itself, particularly from the 2nd Century AD onwards.

By the time of the end of Caesar's conquests of the Celts, the Roman records show that the average height of the Roman soldier had been lowered to 1.48 meters.

As the numbers of German and Celtic mercenaries increased in the Roman army, the average height began to rise - by 300 AD it had risen to 1.65 meters - an indication that the racial types of the average soldier had changed fairly substantially.

So it was that the Roman armies began to fill up with non Roman soldiers, with Romanised Germans and Celts forming a significant - if not the majority - of not only the foot soldiers but also of the commanding officers. These Romanised Germans and Celts were to play a significant role in the remaining years of the Western Roman empire: and it was they, predictably, who formed the backbone of the resistance to the last German invasions which saw the final physical fall of Rome.

A Romanised German soldier was in fact the last (self declared) Emperor in Rome. By that date (476 AD) the last true original Romans had to all practical purposes disappeared, having been swallowed up in a mass of immigrants from the Nonwhite regions of the empire.



German mercenaries in the Roman army, as depicted on the Colonna Antonia in Rome. Within a relatively short space of time the Roman army began to rely heavily on German mercenaries to fill its ranks as White Roman numbers declined.

NEW GERMANIC INVASIONS - FRANKS, SAXONS

In the second century AD, German tribes went on the offensive against Rome and crossed the Danube. They were however bloodily defeated by a Roman army which had a significant number of these German and Celtic mercenaries in it, led by Marcus Aurelius. During the third and fourth centuries, German tribes called the Franks and the Saxons raided Roman settlements in France and Britain respectively. These smaller incursions continued until the final chapter in the saga of the German - Roman wars was to be written by the last of the Indo-European tribes to enter Europe - the Goths.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 16 : RACIAL CAULDRON - ROME AND THE NEAR/MIDDLE EAST

The story of Roman expansion to the east is no less dramatic than that of its extension to the west - the major difference was that in racial terms, the effect of occupying areas to the east was far greater than the areas in the west.

In fact, it was the extension of the Empire to the east which ultimately led to its downfall, for through the inclusion of eastern territories, vast numbers of people were drawn into Rome who genetically shared nothing with the original founders of that civilization - unlike the situation in the West.

Once again, as had been the case with every great civilization before it, Rome fell because the original people who created the Empire disappeared: submerged into a mass of foreigners - replaced by immigrants and the descendants of slaves brought in from all over North Africa, the wider Mediterranean and the Middle and Near East.



The full extent of the Roman Empire in the east is shown here: From the Tigris-Euphrates Rivers to the southern reaches of the Nile - in this way masses of mixed race peoples from this region were given access to Rome itself.

RACIAL DEVELOPMENTS IN THE EAST PRIOR TO THE ROMAN EXPANSION

Prior to the Roman expansion into the Middle and Near East, the process of racial integration in that region had proceeded apace. Original Nordic Indo-European and Old European Mediterranean types

had all but vanished by the year 100 BC. In the space of a few hundred years, large numbers of Indo-Europeans had been completely submerged into the far faster breeding Semitic, Arabic and Asian elements filling up the Middle and Near East.

PERSIANS

For example, the Indo-European Persians reached Azerbaijan around the year 900 BC, closely followed by their racial kinsmen, the Medes. The Persians, being far more numerous, overpowered the Medes, and between them these two tribes ruled a large swathe of territory covering modern day Iran, a large part of Iraq and other land extending as far as modern southern Turkey.

In 600 BC, Persian envoys visited India, and their visit was recorded in a series of paintings made by Indian artists in Bombay (and which are on view to this day in the famous Ajanta caves outside that city). The racial make-up of the envoys tells a story all of its own: of the three Persians depicted, one has blond hair and blue eyes, a second has dark hair and blue eyes, while the third has dark hair, dark eyes and is obviously more Semitic in appearance. This is a good indicator of the racial demographics at work in Persia at this time.

This was the case across the Near East - the Nordic Indo-European tribes and the Old European Mediterranean peoples, who had together provided the impetus for the great ancient civilizations, had to all practical purposes disappeared by the time that the Romans started pushing east. Today, scattered light colored eyes and light hair amongst the overwhelmingly Arabic population of the Near East are the only reminders of the ancient rulers of this territory.

ASIA MINOR (TURKEY)

The result of the centuries of mixing in the Middle East was that when the Romans extended their borders, they occupied large areas populated either by Semites, Arabics, Asians, or in the majority of cases, already very mixed race populations.

The strange act of the king of Pergamum willing his state to the Romans in 133 BC, started the Romans off on their occupation of the east. A part of western Turkey (called Western Ciciia at the time) was next to be annexed by Rome as part of an anti-piracy campaign in 102 BC. Shortly thereafter Ptolemaic Egypt and the states of central Anatolia (eastern Turkey) became formal vassals of Rome, officially falling under the latter's protection.

A belligerent and typically mixed race Middle Eastern people, the Pontus, invaded from the east in 110 BC, and swept through much of northern Turkey and territory around the Black sea, including Crimea, and eventually penetrated part of Roman ruled Greece. Spurred into action, the Romans under the emperor Sulla attacked - the defeat of the Pontus caused northern Turkey and large parts of the Black sea basin to become Roman provinces.

Although a peace treaty was signed, by 66 BC, hostilities between Rome and the Pontus had once again broken out. This time the Roman general Pompey made short work of his enemies, defeating and formally annexing those parts of the Pontus kingdom, extending Rome's reach into the southern part of Crimea and putting a bridgehead into the Caucasus region between the Black and Caspian seas.

SYRIA, NORTH AFRICA AND SPAIN

To the south, Syria was made a Roman province, along with Palestine and even a slice of the Arabian peninsula extending nearly half way down the Red Sea, including for the first time vast numbers of Arabic Semites in their original homeland in the Arabian peninsula.

In 50 BC, Caesar swept to power in Rome. General Pompey gathered together an army in Greece to try and destroy the usurper, but with the help of his 6,000 German mercenaries, Caesar's forces comfortably defeated Pompey in the battle of Pharsus in 48 BC.

From Greece, Caesar went on to march right through the east (47 BC), North Africa (46 BC) and Spain, whose Celts had gone into revolt after being occupied by Caesar's armies for the first time in 49 BC.

With the exception of Spain and parts of Greece, all of the areas collected into Caesar's grasp by his astounding series of military campaigns, had Nonwhite majorities.

Caesar's successors tampered with other parts of the Near and Middle East. Octavian Augustus reinforced Roman rule in Turkey and extended the Empire's borders deep into the Caucasus, with Roman vassal states extending as far as a few hundred kilometers from the Caspian Sea.



The Roman city of Timgad, in modern day Algeria, stands today as a massive ruin - but when the Romans occupied the region it was one of their major centers on the North African coast outside of Carthage. The Romans gave the name of Africa to their province in the region - and that was how the entire continent got its name. However, the province of Africa was the first step in the undoing of the Roman Empire: as it spread its borders ever more eastward, it started incorporating more and more non-Roman - and Nonwhite peoples into its borders. This infusion of non-Roman peoples was to eventually cause the empire itself to lose its racial homogeneity and fall.

ROMANISING PROCESS IMPLEMENTED

The vast numbers of Arabic Semites and mixed races included in the new regions in the Middle East and North Africa were all put through the customary Romanising process. Within the space of a few decades they were allowed to elect senators to the Roman senate in Rome - their sheer weight of numbers soon meant that true Romans quickly made up a minority of senators in the capital of the Empire.

It takes no imagination to understand how the relatively small group of original Romans soon lost control of the racial make-up of Rome under these conditions.

It was, simply put, demographically impossible for the Romans alone to supply the manpower to run such a vast area. They were forced to Romanise the local population and recruit soldiers and tradesmen from the local populations.

Very often only the most senior civil servants in the Roman provinces were actually originally from Rome - and in a very many cases, even they too were supplanted in the course of time by locals.

Eventually the logical step was taken by the emperor Caracalla in 212 AD, when he gave all free men in the Empire Roman citizenship, the racial implications of which were huge and which have already been discussed. (Caracalla was himself born of a Roman family in Africa and a Syrian mother - his own dubious citizenship status may have played a role in his decision to extend citizenship to all).

The Romans in Egypt.



Very often confusion exists in the public mind over what exactly was ancient Egyptian and what was not. This is understandable if this scene above is studied. Appearing to be a relief from Egyptian antiquity, it is in fact a representation of Cleopatra and Julius Caesar, with their son, Caesarion, in small between them. The relief was made during Caesar's lifetime - circa 45 BC. Cleopatra was the last of the Macedonian (Greek) leaders of Egypt, the last of the Ptolomies, a dynasty set up by one of Alexander the Great's generals. The Ptolomies took on the ways and customs of the ancient Egyptians, even down to art and dress. This then is the reason why this apparently ancient Egyptian image of Julius Caesar exists to this day at the Temple of Hathor in Dendra, Egypt.

DARK FACES IN ROMAN EGYPT

Roman controlled Egypt became one of the prime examples of how Nonwhites filled up the borders of the Roman Empire after that nation annexed the Middle East. Below is a coffin - and a detail from the occupant' portrait - dating from 200AD in Roman Egypt. The face of the occupant shows the very clear effects of racial mixing - slowly but surely the Nonwhite element of the lands in the Middle Eastern part of the Roman Empire grew and seeped towards Rome itself. In this way the White Romans were soon overwhelmed in all their eastern held territories by largely mixed race populations.



PALESTINE - JEWS PETITION FOR INCLUSION

The Jewish tribes in Palestine (who were originally a Semitic tribe, but had, like almost all the peoples in that region, been fairly heavily mixed with other racial groups over the course of time) had been independent since shaking off the declining Seleucid kingdom in 129 BC.

This Jewish kingdom was divided into three after the death of their king Herod in 4 BC, with the largest portion, Judea, becoming a Roman province in 4 AD - after a period of anarchy which saw the Jews petition Rome for inclusion as a province into the Empire.

REVOLT IN SYRIA

In 66 BC, the by now mixed race Parthians (in modern day Syria, Iran and Iraq) went into open revolt against Roman Rule. They were quickly followed by the Jews who soon grew tired of their Roman protectors. A Roman general in charge of one of the armies in Palestine, Vespian, suppressed the Jewish revolt, and fought his way back to Rome to replace the anarchy and civil strife which followed the suicide of Nero.

Taking advantage of the political and military chaos in Rome, the Parthian revolt succeeded. A large slice of modern day Iraq and all of Iran became independent of Roman rule. The only consolation for the empire was that Roman vassal kingdoms now extended as far as the Caspian Sea itself, although this occurred at the cost of territory to the north.

The Roman emperor Trajan (98 - 117 AD) managed to turn the tables on the Parthians, invading their territory with revitalized Roman legions employing a large number of German and Gaul mercenaries. Trajan reached as far east as the Tigris and Euphrates river basin, in what is today Kuwait.

The very next emperor, Hadrian, realized that the Roman legions were over extending themselves, and embarked upon a deliberate program of withdrawal and consolidation - the Roman armies, which had now followed Alexander the Great's footsteps, were withdrawn to the easternmost point of the Euphrates river, near the present day Turkish border.

ROMAN CONTROL STARTS DISINTEGRATING

After 200 AD, the pressures on Rome began to increase: on the northern borders with Germany, the last of the great Indo-European invasions was creating a new and powerful force - the Goths. Arriving in ever increasing numbers, they raided Roman outposts in Gaul and crossed the Danube in several places. Some of their racial cousins created a Gothic power in southern Russia, which also beat upon the doors of the Roman Empire in the Black sea basin. Relying on their mixed race vassals and seriously outnumbered legions, the Romans barely clung to their strong points under the new wave of invaders.

In the east, a new unity was developing. The Parthians were overthrown, not by Romans, but by the by now mixed race Persians, who began to make excursions into Roman territory. Around 258 AD, the Persians broke the power of many important Roman vassal states. The Kingdom of Armenia was overrun, then Syria and Antioch itself was sacked in 260 AD.

In 268 AD, the Syrians seceded from the Empire and Roman forces in Egypt lost control over the southernmost parts of that land. The Eastern Empire seemed on the point of collapse under the pressure of native rebellions combined with the inability of the locally recruited mixed race Roman armies to fight off the continual rebellions.



Just how far the Roman Empire extended eastwards is shown by this Roman bridge over the Tigris River at the village of Zaku in present day Iraq. The Roman Empire used a large number of German mercenaries in the Tigris/Euphrates river valley as part of their occupying army. Pure Roman types were too few to majority occupy

the region, with the result that it was not that long before the Romans became submerged into the local largely mixed race population.

GERMANS IN MESOPOTAMIA

Raising new mercenary armies in Gaul and from Germans, the Roman general Caesar Galerius pursued a successful war against Persia in 297 AD, occupying half of Mesopotamia. This remained the eastern frontier of the Empire until 626 AD, when the Persians once again forced a contraction of the Eastern Empire's borders.

By 626 AD the Roman Empire had been divided into two, an Eastern and a Western half. Like the Western Romans, the Romans in the Eastern Empire barely resembled the original Romans, and relied greatly on German and even Viking mercenaries (the Eastern Roman Emperor's private guard was composed exclusively of Viking mercenaries) to hold their borders against the continual battering by their by then equally mixed race Persian enemies.

The Eastern Empire and the Persians were kept so busy in a long drawn out war that neither of them took any notice - till it was too late - of the rise of the power of Islam in the south, a power which would not only sweep them away but provide the single greatest threat to Europe itself for hundreds of years to come.

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CHAPTER 17 : CHRISTIANITY - **BY STEALTH AND STEEL**

Although originating within the Semitic world, the religion of Christianity has played such a major role in the post Roman European world that its origins must be clearly dealt with for the sake of understanding its later influence. Religion in pre-Christian times had never been any coherent or single theme or involved in the worship of any particular God or set of gods - the only strand of coherence in it came after the time of Octavian Augustus, when the notion of an emperor came into being.

PONTIFEX MAXIMUS - AN IMPORTANT POSITION

After Octavian, all the Roman emperors were known by the title of Pontifex Maximus - "chief priest" - of whatever particular cult happened to be the most popular at that time, or indeed of any number of cults which were in existence at any given time. This status of the emperor as chief priest of what was deemed to be the unofficial state religion or religions of the time, was to have major consequences: very often a cult either gained or lost popularity solely because of the emperor's interest in it.

The earliest example there is of this phenomena occurred when Caesar was still in office. At one stage his mistress, the Macedonian queen of Egypt, Cleopatra, visited Rome, and the sheer presence of somebody thought to be from Egypt (she was of course not of Egyptian stock but actually Macedonian) sparked off a revival in the ancient Egyptian cult of Isis.

PALESTINE

Following the conquests of Alexander the Great, Palestine had been ruled intermittently by either the Greek Ptolomies or by the Greek Seleucids, both led by descendants of Alexander's generals. The Semitic speaking peoples living in Palestine were known as Jews, a tribe which had been in existence for many centuries prior to this.

What set the Jews apart from their neighbors was their religion - the concept of monotheism, of one God, Jahweh or Jehovah, was central to the Jewish religion. This stood in marked contrast to other religions of the time, which almost all propagated a pantheon of gods, sometimes dozens of gods, each looking after a particular aspect of life on earth and in the beyond. It was while under the rule of the Seleucids that the great temple in Jerusalem was built as a center for the Jewish religion, a surviving wall of which is today known as the Wailing Wall.

SELEUCID RULE IN PALESTINE

While being ruled by the Seleucids, many Jews began to take on the ways and even language of their rulers: Greek. This led them into conflict with the more nationalistic Jews, and a minor skirmish broke

out between the two groups of Jews in 168 BC. This provoked the Seleucids into responding. They ordered the Jewish temple in Jerusalem to be stripped of its Judaic artifacts and dedicated to the worship of the Greek God Zeus.

The Jews rebelled at this order, and after a military conflict, were able to exact a recognition of Jewish independence from the Seleucidian representative in Syria in 142 BC, although proper independence is said to have started in 129 BC. The leader of the Jewish rebels was one Judas Maccabeus, and he became the first Jewish king in Palestine, creating the Maccabean dynasty which lasted until 64 BC.

ROMANS INVITED INTO PALESTINE

Like so many other states in the region, the Jewish state was continually racked by internal dissent and rebellion, and in the midst of a self imposed civil war, certain Jews appealed for help from the Roman general Pompey (who was completing the Roman conquest of Turkey and Syria at the time). Pompey agreed to help - although in reality this help meant occupying Palestine as a Roman protectorate in 64 BC.

True to long established practice, the Romans immediately began trying to Romanise the Jews and recruiting locals to run the province - in this way the Roman senate appointed the Jew Herod as king of Judea in 37 BC. He ruled until his death in 4 BC. Even during the reign of king Herod, the Jewish state was still racked by internal dissension and it fell apart after his death, being then ruled in part by Roman governors.

JEWS MOVE TO ROME - THE FIRST EXPULSION

During this time some Jews immigrated to Rome itself, making use of the traditional lack of control over entry into the city.

However, their presence in Rome aroused even amongst the fairly easy going Romans a marked anti-Semitism, and in the year AD 19, the Jews were to experience for the first time a situation with which they would later become familiar - in that year the Roman emperor Tiberius formally barred all Jews from Rome and deported those he could find in the city.

This ban on Jews only lasted a few years, and it was not long before they, along with ever increasing numbers of other foreigners from all parts of the empire, once again took up residence in Rome. By this time Jews had started settling in other parts of the Middle East, Asia Minor, North Africa and Egypt, in each of these places attracting the enmity of the local populations.

JEWISH REVOLT IN PALESTINE

In Palestine itself, dissension was however always brewing, and in 66 AD, the Jews rebelled against Roman rule. In that year the Roman garrison in Jerusalem was slaughtered and a revolt spread all parts of the province.

The Jewish hatred for the original Roman Empire was well documented, to the point where the famous English historian Edward Gibbons, in his classic work, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman*

Empire (Lippincourt, Philadelphia, 1878, vol. 2, page 4) had the following to say:

"From the reign of Nero to that of Antinous Pious, the Jews discovered a fierce impatience with the dominance of Rome, which repeatedly broke out in the most furious massacres and insurrections. Humanity is shocked at the recital of horrid cruelties which they committed in the cities of Egypt, of Cyria, and of Cyrene, where they dwelt in treacherous friendship with the unsuspecting natives; and we are tempted to applaud the severe retaliation which was exercised by the arms of the Legions against a race of fanatics whose dire and credulous superstition seemed to render them the implacable enemies not only of the Roman government, but of all human kind."

It was therefore not surprising that the Romans sent an army to quell a new uprising in 68 AD, finally driving the last of the Jewish rebels into the mountain top fort of Masada, which finally fell after a two year siege in 73 AD.

After the fall of Masada, Palestine then remained under nominal Roman control, first as part of the Western Empire, and then as part of the Eastern Roman Empire, until the rise of Islam some 800 years later.



The hilltop fort of Masada, Israel. During the course of the Jewish rebellion (which started in 68 AD), Roman legions occupied Jerusalem in 70 AD. They drove out or killed the Jews in the city, and about 1,000 remaining Jewish rebels fled to the remote mountain fort. Undeterred, the Romans followed them and laid siege to the rebel stronghold. After a three year siege, during which the Romans built a massive earth ramp all the way up the one side of the mountain, all but seven of the Jews committed suicide rather than be taken alive, fully aware of the

fate that awaited them should they be captured by the avenging Romans.



The Emperor Titus - conqueror of the Jews and destroyer of Jerusalem in 70 AD. In 68 AD, the Jews rebelled against Roman rule, despite having originally asked the Romans to occupy that land to bring order and peace to it. Roman revenge for the Jewish vacillation was severe - the Jews were forbidden to enter Jerusalem upon pain of death and dispersed from Palestine in a movement known as the Diaspora.



The crushing of the Jewish revolt in 66 AD by a Roman army was commemorated as a great feat of arms. On the Arch of Titus, erected in Rome and still standing to this day, Roman soldiers are shown bringing Jewish trophies (note the menorah, the seven candles, taken from the Jewish temple in Jerusalem) back to Rome.

THE JEWISH DIASPORA 70 AD

As a result of the AD 70 rebellion, the Jews were scattered throughout the then known world in a movement known as the Diaspora. A large number went north into southern Russia, mixing with local tribes along the way (the most important of which were a Asiatic/Mediterranean mixed tribe known as the Khazars) and eventually penetrating eastern and central Europe.

A number of Jews went out along Turkey and settled in Rome itself, while a small number settled in Gaul.

The Jews who went north and eventually west into Europe intermixed with many local White tribes along the way, to the point where today the Jews as a racial group are very diverse, with some being very White and others still showing distinct "dark" Semitic racial traits. However, not all Jews went north - a significant portion of Jews went west along the North African coast, setting up Jewish communities all the way to Tunisia, and finally crossing into southern Spain.

ASHKENAZIM AND SEPHARDIM

The Jews who went to Europe via the east absorbed a substantial amount of European blood - they became the Ashkenazim, or European Jews. Those who settled in North Africa became known as the Sephardim.

This division in Jewry exists to this day, and is most marked in Israel where the two communities, the Ashkenazim or "light" Jews and the Sephardim or "dark" Jews (dark because they did not mix with the number of Europeans that the Ashkenazim did) even tend to vote for different Israeli political parties. Only their unique religion has kept them bound together after a fashion, although even this is divided into sub sects.

JUDAISM - UNIQUELY RACIAL

From this Semitic tribe, the religion of Christianity was to spring, although its adherents were at first, fiercely persecuted by the Jewish religious leaders. The Jewish religion had one particularly unique trait - it was the first specifically racial religion.

Judaism has kept this trait to this day and which has played a major role in preserving Jewish identity through centuries of dispersion and persecution.

The uniqueness of the Jewish God was that he was a God only for the Jews - while all other gods could be worshipped by anybody, the Jewish God was an ethnocentric being - specifically designed only for Jews. Biological laws of descent were built into Judaism as divinely inspired laws of who could be a Jew - to this day the rule is that only someone born of a Jewish mother can be a Jew.

While some less strict Jewish communities have relaxed this rule to allow conversions from other faiths, the orthodox Jewish community follows this law to the letter - laid down in the Talmud, the Jewish Holy Book. This is followed to the point where citizenship of Israel in present times is based on

descent and not national origin.

ESSENES - ORIGINS OF CHRISTIANITY

While this racial religion unquestionably helped to preserve the Jewish identity, it irked some Jews, who objected to the blatant chauvinism of the Jewish God, Jahweh. This group of Jews, around the year 100 BC, founded a new sect, loosely based on parts of the Talmud and introducing some of their own thoughts on religion: they established a God who could be for all people, not just Jews.

This group of Jews became known as the Essenes. Using parts of the Talmud (the most noted being the book of Isaiah, which later became part of the Christian Old Testament as well), the Essenes developed a whole series of books relating to morals and lifestyles (including a monastic tradition). They were pacifist and even claimed to have had a leader who had been killed and then rose from the dead.

However, the universality of their version of Jahweh - that he was a God for all people, not just for the Jews - remained their biggest point of difference with mainstream Judaism.

This ideological conflict with mainstream Judaism eventually brought the Essenes into open conflict with their fellow Jews, and the traditional rabbinical leaders urged the Jews to stamp out the new cult. Although it is not recorded what happened to the Essenes, the Jewish leaders were only successful in suppressing them in Judea (they were forced to hide their holy books in caves around the Dead Sea. It was these books which were discovered by chance in 1947 and which have become known as the Dead Sea Scrolls).



The Book of Isaiah, as laid out in the Dead Sea Scrolls, discovered in Palestine in 1947. They are the holy books of a sub sect of Jews called the Essenes, who lived in the first century BC. The Essenes were persecuted by other Jews, who disagreed violently with the Essene belief that the Jewish God, Yahweh, was actually a God for all people, and not just the Jews. Many of the concepts which were later to become fundamental to Christianity were contained in the Essene religion - the Essenes even had an allegorical story about a wise prophet who was killed and then rose from the dead, known to them as the "Teacher of Righteousness". This story was clearly the

role model for the future figure of Jesus Christ.

The Essene tradition however lived on amongst a small group of Jews, most of whom eventually left Palestine for more receptive ears elsewhere in the Roman Empire. It is clear that the religion which became known as Christianity originated in the ideas the Essenes first developed. Mixed with the original Indo-Aryan Zoroastrian based concept of heaven and hell (which does not feature in the Old Testament at all) and the story of a leader who was killed and rose from the dead, the Essene religion was reworked and reformulated until it finally became Christianity.

JESUS CHRIST

The first source of information about the person who became known as Jesus Christ are the Gospels which make up the first four books of the Christian New Testament. As these works only appeared some 80 to 120 years after Christ's supposed death, there is thus no contemporary evidence showing the existence of Jesus Christ, an important but little known fact.

The person who was deified by Christianity to become the Son of God, is most probably a composite character based on the stories and myths surrounding several of the leaders of the Essenes, particularly the one whom the Essenes claimed had been killed and had risen from the dead, and whom they called the "Teacher of Righteousness."

The first time that the name Jesus Christ appears in any Roman records (and they were generally meticulous in record keeping) is the book *The Jewish Wars*, by Josephus, a Romanised Jew, who was commissioned to write a history of the Jewish rebellion (this excellent work is still available today).

Josephus' work was first published in 90 AD. In the book, Josephus makes mention of a small sect of Jews who claim to follow a messiah figure called Jesus, but the mention is brief and in passing.

In any event, by the time of Christ's alleged death (supposedly 33 AD) Christianity had very few followers, especially amongst the Jews themselves, who regarded the Christian philosophy as nothing but a reworking of the Essene cult, and did their best to silence it. It is therefore clear that Christianity, as a religion, originated from Jewish mythology.

SAUL ALIAS PAUL

One of the most zealous of these persecutors of the Essene ideology was a Jew by the name of Saul. At some stage, according to the Christian Bible, Saul experienced a vision and was himself converted to the cult that he had been persecuting. Saul then immediately changed his name to Paul and set off on long evangelistic tours of Asia Minor, Cyprus and Greece, attracting small bands of followers and writing proselytizing pieces along the way.

Returning to preach in Jerusalem, he was violently attacked by fellow Jews and was imprisoned for two years. Following an appeal to the Roman emperor he was transferred to Rome in 60 AD. Placed under house arrest, he was eventually beheaded by the emperor Nero, who developed a particular hatred for the new cult.

Saul (Paul) however did much to create the groundwork for Christianity. Many of his writings were later taken to have been inspired by the Christian God and were taken up into the New Testament.

PERSECUTION OF THE CHRISTIANS

The official Roman attitude to religions was one of tolerance, except where they were openly subversive to Roman rule. Followers of early Christianity refused to take part in any state ceremonies (viewing them as pagan) and would not serve in the army or hold public office - all echoing the Essene beliefs of a century earlier.

Faced with this attitude (which was compounded by a serious general problem in finding enough recruits for the army), the Roman leadership began a program of persecution against the Christians, hoping to stamp them out.

The first major campaign was launched by the emperor Decius in 250 AD, and the last by Diocletian in 302 AD. This was the time when many Christians were made to face lions in the arenas of Rome, along with criminals and other captives.



The Roman Emperor Nero, who reigned from 37 AD to 68 AD. Nero was a great persecutor of Christianity, overseeing the throwing of Christians to the lions in the Colosseum amongst other things. As a result, all Judeo-Christian historical accounts of him are very biased, accusing him of all manner of deeds such as the murder of his mother and wife.

In July 64 AD, two-thirds of Rome burned while Nero was at Antium. Christian biased version of history have usually held that he either set the fire - something that was impossible, as he was not present - or having played the fiddle while Rome burned. In fact the fiddle was not invented until 1500 years after his death. Nero claimed to have proof that Christians had set the fire, and persecuted them even more vigorously after the event.

In contrast to his (Christian generated) image of an uncaring madman, he ordered that all the people made homeless as a result of the fire be housed and provided with grain, all at state expense. He then had the city rebuilt with fire precautions.

Nero was also an accomplished artist and man of letters, and personally acted in several important plays of the time. He was also Emperor when the Jewish revolt in Palestine broke out, another reason for the Judeo-Christian tradition of hatred for him. As a result of internal politics, in 68 AD, the Gallic and Spanish legions, along with the Praetorian Guards, rose against him, and he fled Rome. Declared a public enemy by the Senate, he committed suicide on 9 June 68 AD.

Persecution had however the opposite effect on a religion which thrived on martyrdom - after all, its leader had allegedly been martyred by the pagan Romans as well. Nonetheless, the new cult's missionaries - who started calling themselves Christians as the story about Jesus was built up over several years - did in fact not have things all their own way. The Christian religion did battle with a number of other religions in the Middle East and in the Roman Empire - only growing to be a large enough factor after 300 AD, when the emperor Galerius issued an Edict of Toleration in 311, making Christianity legal in the Eastern part of the Empire.

CONSTANTINE'S CONVERSION

The Roman emperor Constantine (288 - 337 AD), while engaged in a battle with a rival claimant to the throne in 312 AD, claimed to have had a vision of a cross in the sky, above which were written the words "In Hoc Signo Vinces" - In this sign you will win. He allegedly took this as a sign from the Christian God that he would win if he converted to Christianity.

Constantine did win, and did officially convert to Christianity. How true this story is and how much of it is fabrication is hard to tell. Possibly the only thing we can say is that it seems highly unlikely that any supernatural sky writing took place, and more possibly a bit of imagination took over in the heat of battle.

Constantine then went on to issue the Edict of Milan in 313 AD, which legalized Christianity throughout the Empire and placed it on a par with all other religions - and he himself, as emperor, became Pontifex Maximus of Christianity in particular. With the conversion of the Emperor of the Rome to Christianity, the by now established pattern of following the emperor's lead in religious matters came to play, and almost overnight Christianity became one of the most popular religions within the Roman Empire.

"DONATION OF CONSTANTINE" - ONE OF THE GREATEST FABRICATIONS OF ALL TIME

Constantine's conversion to Christianity is still shrouded in mystery and led to the most famous forgery in European history, that which became known as the Donation of Constantine. This document purports to be a signed document by Constantine and its principal feature is to grant the bishop of Rome - the Pope - temporal authority over the city of Rome and the entire Roman Empire.

Although there are many glaring factual errors in the text of the document, which by themselves show the document to be a forgery, the Donation of Constantine was accepted as genuine until the 15th Century, and used by the Catholic Church to claim political power in not only the Roman Empire but also ultimately in all nominally Christian lands.

Eventually the Donation of Constantine was rejected as false - but by then the Church had established itself in almost all of Europe, power founded on a forgery.

JULIAN APOSTATE TRIES TO STEM CHRISTIANITY

This trend was dramatically reversed by one of Constantine's successors, the emperor Julian (called Julian the Apostate for his rejection of Christianity). Julian was no Christian, and simply overturned Constantine's adoption of Christianity as the state religion.

In doing this, Julian officially declared the pagan religions to once again be the official Roman state religion, relegating Christianity to cult status once again. The European religions suddenly once more gained the upper hand and Christianity started declining as quickly as it had risen.

The way in which Julian reversed the Christianizing process serves as an excellent instruction in the arbitrary way in which the personal wishes of the emperor could influence the whole empire. Overnight, Julian changed the Roman Empire back into a pagan value system.



The Emperor Julian, nephew of the Christianizer Constantine, was raised as a Christian, but always secretly abhorred that religion and favored the old true Roman gods. When he became Emperor in 361 he overturned his uncle's decision to favor Christianity, and very nearly halted the progress of that religion. Here Julian is pictured,

on the right, with his advisors - all hand picked so as to be non-Christians. His successors were however Christians and they undid his reforms.

After Julian's death, however, the next emperor was again a Christian, and converted the empire back into a formal Christian state. The result was that from the year 395 AD Christianity became the legal sole and official religion of the Roman Empire - about 500 years after many of its principles were crystallized by the Essenes and nearly 400 years after the leader whose name it took was alleged to have lived.

CHRISTIANITY THE YOUNGEST RELIGION

It is a sobering thought for many Christians today who presume their religion has been in existence since the start of the world, to realize that Christianity only in fact became widely known in southern Europe some 1,700 years ago, and was only accepted in northern Europe many hundreds of years after that, with the last northern European country to formally adopt Christianity being Iceland, around the year 1,100 AD.

Put another way - compared to the time frame of the existence of records of the White race - a little over 35,000 years - Christianity represents less than the last six percent this time.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE POPE

Each major town throughout the Roman world was assigned a Christian leader, called a bishop. Gradually the Bishop at Rome came to be recognized as the most important and assumed the title of "pope" (from the Greek word meaning father).

By the seventh century AD, the Bishop of Rome, the Pope, had become the spiritual leader of all Christendom and was in possession of great political power - aided by the forged Donation of Constantine. The Pope even adopted the Roman Emperors' color - purple - which to this day remains the most used color in the Catholic church.

DISPUTES ALMOST IMMEDIATE

Although there was initially only one Christian church - the Catholic church - disputes over the interpretations attached to the new cult broke out almost immediately amongst its supporters. As Christianity spread after its legalization in 313 AD, it became more and more disorganized, with serious disputes erupting amongst the various missionaries as to the true version of the creation and purpose of the new God.

One of the biggest clashes was over the concept of what was called "Arianism," (named after Arius, a Christian leader in Alexandria) or the relative position of the three components of the Christian Trinity: God, Christ and the Holy Ghost. The belief that all three of these beings were one and the same thing was challenged by Arius who argued that the Christ figure could not be God as well.

So serious was this dispute taken that the Emperor Constantine called a special meeting of all the major leaders of the religion in 325 AD, to the now famous Council of Nicaea, to discuss the problem.

At the council of Nicaea it was decided that the Arian doctrine was ungodly, and declared a heresy, with its proponents being persecuted in the name of the new God - the first of many such repressive tactics to be used by the Christian church.

THE BIBLE CREATED

However, several other disputes over doctrine made the religious leaders at Nicaea realize that if some weighty final word on the outline of their belief was not forthcoming, the religion could splinter into factions. The problem was that there was no such manual or holy book in existence - the leaders then took it upon themselves to create such a book. For this purpose they turned to whatever texts they could find.

The books now contained in the Old Testament were largely oral before 300 BC, although some had been written down by Jewish rabbis. Through contact with Jews in Ptolemaic Egypt, King Ptolemy II Philadelphus (285-246 BC) is credited with ordering the translation of the Jewish religious books into Greek.

The Christian version of the Old Testament was only established as a comprehensive work by the scribe Origen around 250 AD, and up until that time only loose translations of the Ptolemaic Greek work formed the basis of Christian teachings.

The origins of the New Testament are very vague. By the end of the first century AD, the writings of Saul/Paul (called the Pauline Epistles) consisting of letters to the various Christian communities in Asia Minor and Rome had been established as a collection of inspired works. The gospels which make up the first part of the New Testament only emerged after the writings of Saul/Paul had become well known, and long after his death.

This is evidenced by the fact that in Paul's writings there is no mention of any other new testament book or gospel, as well as the account of what Jesus did on the night he was "delivered up" into heaven (1: Cor. 11:23) which differs substantially from the Gospel version as recounted in the Matthew, Mark, Luke and John versions.

It is clear that if the four gospels were in existence at the time when Saul/Paul wrote his epistles (around the year 55 AD), he would have at least mentioned them, or very likely have even quoted from them. The earliest existent gospel consists of fragments of the Gospel of John, dating from about 100 AD, and which is in Greek.

By 200 AD, the Church had developed the New Testament in its present form, although still written in various languages, including Greek and Hebrew, apart from the book of Revelations. Where this last chapter came from no-one knows for sure, but by the 4th Century it had been included in the New Testament anyway.

The compilation of the New Testament omitted several early Christian manuscripts which did not fit in with the other books. The most famous of these "left out" books is the gospel of St. Thomas, probably because the events described therein are at quite some variance with the events described in the four more well known gospels.

The Council of Nicaea went a long way to formalizing the Bible as Christians know it today - all in an attempt to prevent the church from splitting again as it nearly did over the Arian controversy. In this attempt they were to fail, and some of the most grievous conflicts to come in Europe would be precisely over different interpretations of the Bible.

THE SPREAD OF CHRISTIANITY

When the Roman Empire in the West collapsed (see chapter 18) Christianity had been spread throughout its former dominions, with the exception of the Germans, the Balts, and a significant section of the Slavs.

The Germanic tribes who participated in the sacking of Rome at the formal end of that Empire, did not destroy the Roman Catholic Church alongside with the Roman state, partly as a result of them viewing the religion of Rome as being part of the great original cultural tradition of that Empire - which it was not.

The leader of the church in Rome, the Pope, therefore survived the Germanic invasions, and went on to become an important political role player in his own right.

The church itself lost no time in sending Christian missionaries to the pagan tribes, the most famous of them being Ufilas (311 - 383 AD) who worked amongst the Visigoths.

Another famous missionary was Patrick, who although born in Britain, went to Ireland and became the Christianiser of that island, later being made a saint by the church for his efforts.

BRITAIN REVERTS TO PAGANISM

Although the last of the Romans had introduced Christianity to the British Isles, that land was invaded by pagan Germans - Angles and Saxons - after the Roman collapse - and as a result the British mainland became pagan once again. Christianity only survived in the Celtic fringes of Ireland and Wales.

The Catholic Church sent a missionary, St. Augustine, to Britain from Rome in 597 AD and managed to convert the first Anglo Saxon ruler to Christianity, causing Roman Catholicism to spread throughout Britain. Britain in turn gave rise to the missionary, St. Boniface, who spent 35 years amongst the German tribes on the mainland of Europe before the pagans managed to kill him in 755 AD.

Catholic missionaries were also active amongst the Germanic tribes living in Scandinavia, but met with much less success than in Britain or Central Europe.



The coming of Christianity to Britain. A Christian missionary, St. Augustine, arrived on British shores in 597 AD, sent by the Pope to try and Christianize the British population. He was fortunate in receiving the aid of the King Ethelbert and his queen, Bertha, and managed to establish a significant Christian following in that land. Here Augustine is pictured preaching to a Saxon king and his entourage - at that stage all were still Odin worshippers.

THE FRANKS

The Franks were a Germanic tribe who had emerged from northern Europe to occupy much of what is today Germany and France. With the fall of the Roman Empire, the Frankish tribes had set up small kingdoms scattered up and down the length and breadth of these two territories.

One of the most important conversions to Christianity on the mainland of Europe was the first king of the Franks, Clovis I, in 496 AD. Using his new found religious zeal, Clovis invaded the Visigoth Empire in 507 AD, causing them to abandon that part of France they had occupied after the fall of Rome and retreat to Spain.

The Frankish king, Pepin the Short, reigned from 741 to 768 AD and was notable for being the first ruler of France to receive from the Bishop of Rome sanction to king - the first of many times that the Pope would see fit to approve leaders of states in the name of God. Pepin was crowned by the English missionary, St. Boniface, acting on behalf of the pope, in 752 AD.

In 768, Pepin's son, Charlemagne (Charles the Great), inherited the Frankish kingdom. It was this king who was directly responsible for the introduction of Christianity to the Germans.

GENOCIDAL EVANGELISM - CHARLEMAGNE

To destroy German paganism, Charlemagne proclaimed harsh laws applicable to those Germans under his control who refused to be baptized into Christianity. Eating meat during Lent, cremating the dead and pretending to be baptized were all made punishable by death.



The sword and the cross: Charlemagne, a bloodthirsty Christian evangelist. The Frankish king was directly responsible for the forced and violent introduction of Christianity to much of western Europe. This he achieved by literally killing all the pagans who did not want to convert to Christianity.

In 722, Charlemagne started a 32 year long campaign of what can only be described as genocidal evangelism against the Saxons under his control in western Germany.

The campaign started with the cutting down of the Saxon's most sacred tree, their version of the World Tree or Yggdrasil, (the symbol of the start of the earth and the source of all life in the ancient Indo-European religions) located in a sacred Saxon forest near present day Marburg.

Charlemagne quickly turned to violence as a means of spreading the Christian word. In 772, at Quierzy, he issued a proclamation that he would kill every Saxon who refused to accept Jesus Christ, and from that time on he kept a special detachment of Christian priests who doubled as executioners, and in every Saxon village in which they stopped, these priests would execute anybody who refused to be baptized.

Then in 782, at Verden, Charlemagne carried out the act for which he is most notoriously associated - he ordered the beheading of 4,500 Saxons in one day who had made the error of being caught practicing paganism after they had agreed to be Christians.

Charlemagne's constant companion and biographer, the monk Einhard, vividly captured the event in

his biography of the Frankish king. In it is written that the King rounded up 4,500 Saxons who "like dogs that return to their vomit" had returned to the pagan religions they had been forced to give up upon pain of death.

After having all 4,500 Saxons beheaded "the king went into winter camp, and there celebrated mass as usual."

Twelve years later, in 794, Charlemagne introduced a law under which every third Saxon living in any pagan area was kidnapped and forced to resettle and be raised amongst Christian Franks.



Destroying White paganism by force. The Christian missionary, St. Boniface, felling the sacred great oak tree of Geismar, Hesse, in 724 AD. The oak tree was sacred to the god Thor, and was one of many pagan sites which the Christians destroyed in their ultimately successful attempts to destroy all other religions except Christianity. Despite this, many pagan customs remained, such as the celebration of Spring. The Christians took the pagan goddess of fertility, Ostara, and turned her into the Christian rite of Easter ("Ostara" = "Easter") and the Winter Solstice, which marked the longest night of Winter, and turned it into Christmas.

COERCIVE CHRISTIANITY TAKES ROOT

With the use of violent and bloody coercion, Saxon and German paganism was quite literally killed off, and most of the survivors became Christians more out of fear than out of genuine conviction. Christianity finally spread to the Goths themselves, through a Christian slave named Wulfila, who translated the Bible into Gothic.

Before the end of the fourth century, Christianity had spread to the Vandals, the Burgundians, the Lombards and other German tribes within the direct sphere of influence of the Western Roman Empire.

By the year 550 AD, the only non Christian tribes were to be found in Bavaria and those parts of Germany north from there - including virtually all of the Danes, Scandinavians, Balts and Slavs to the east.

WHITE PAGAN ORIGINS OF CHRISTMAS AND EASTER

Through sheer terror rather than logical persuasion, Christianity then became the dominant religion of the previously pagan Europe - yet because they never quite succeeded in rooting out some pagan customs, they quietly adopted them.

Easter, for example, comes from the old pagan god of fertility, Eoster (or Ostara), who used as her symbols the egg and the rabbit - potent signs of fertility. Most Christians today have no idea where their Easter rabbit comes from, or why they have Easter Eggs.

The ancient North European feast of Eoster marked the start of Spring in Europe - and as this celebration was too deeply ingrained in these Gothic tribes to remove, the Christianizing church elders simply took this feast and in arbitrary fashion made it into the date of Jesus Christ's crucifixion.

The same happened with the Winter solstice - originally a pagan celebration to mark the turning point of winter - the longest night of winter - with a fire and a pine tree. Solstice was then combined with the date of Jesus Christ's birth, again in an arbitrary fashion.

However, the church was for a long time uneasy with the pagan undertones of the celebration - pine trees, which are native to Scandinavia, and the exchange of gifts, are nowhere to be found in the Bible - and this led to the church officially banning the celebration of Christmas no less than three times - all of course unsuccessfully.



Notre Dame Cathedral (1163 AD), Paris, France. The psychological effect of these cathedrals upon the surrounding peasants, who would never before have seen a building higher than two or three stories, must have been considerable. Many peasants certainly believed it when they were told that God himself lived in these

stunningly beautiful cathedrals, scattered across Europe.

TEUTONIC KNIGHTS EXTERMINATE THE LAST WHITE PAGANS

The only significant grouping of Whites left in Europe who were not - nominally at least - Christians by the year 1000 AD were to be found in the Baltic and Eastern European regions. To destroy this last bastion of paganism the Church employed the services of some of the most fanatic Christians of all - the Teutonic Knights.

THE TEUTONIC KNIGHTS OF SAINT MARY'S HOSPITAL AT JERUSALEM

The Teutonic Knights were originally a religious military founded during the Crusades, being first established in Palestine in 1190. During an Islamic siege of the city of Acre in that year, a group of German knights were given charge of a hospital for wounded Crusaders.

By 1198, however, these knights had changed from being purely passive and took an active part in the war against the Nonwhite Muslims, becoming known as the Teutonic Knights. Membership in the order was strictly limited to Christian German noblemen. The Teutonic Knights received official recognition from Pope Innocent III in 1199, and adopted the official uniform of a white tunic with a black cross.

INVITED TO EASTERN EUROPE

Soon their deeds on behalf of Christendom became famous. In 1210 they were invited to Hungary by the king of that country to participate in a war against the non-Christian pagan tribes in Eastern Europe.

The Teutonic Knights jumped at the chance, and by using violence and mass murder, soon became known as effective Christianisers amongst the pagan Whites of Eastern Europe. This genocidal evangelism soon became the sole obsession of the Teutonic Knights - by 1226 the order had set up permanent settlements in north eastern Europe.

TEUTONIC KNIGHTS GRANTED PRUSSIA TO CHRISTIANIZE

In 1226, the Holy Roman Emperor granted the Teutonic Knights control over what was then Prussia (today northern Poland) to rule as a fiefdom on condition that they convert all the locals to Christianity.

In 1234, Pope Gregory IX granted the Knights control over any other territory that they might conquer from the pagans. The Teutonic Knights soon built a series of imposing castles to defend their new territory, some of which still stand today.

From the safety of these castles they waged their own brand of evangelicalism, which was limited to the Frankish king Charlemagne's recipe - once a number of pagans had been captured, they were offered the choice of either being baptized and accepting Christianity, or being killed on the spot.

Unsurprisingly, almost all chose conversion. The price for being caught practicing paganism after

being baptized, was instant death.

As was the case with the genocidal evangelicalism of Charlemagne, the first one or two generations of converts were in all likelihood not genuine - usually they paid lip service to Christianity in order not to be killed.

By about the third generation however, the children knew no other religion, and in this way Christianity replaced the original Indo-European religions.

GERMAN SETTLEMENT

The Teutonic Knights also encouraged already Christianized Germans to settle in Prussia. This served a double purpose - not only could the new arrivals police the new converts, but also the Teutonic Knights realized very clearly that the easiest way to change the nature of a society was to change its inhabitants.

By 1300, the Teutonic Knights were one of the most powerful organizations in Germany, controlling territory which stretched from the Baltic sea into central Germany, a private empire which saw them engaging in, on average, eight major wars every year.

BATTLE OF TANNENBURG - KNIGHTS DEFEATED

However, the Teutonic Knights slowly ran out of pagans to convert. By 1386 the last of the major non-Christian tribes in the north, the Lithuanians, had all more or less been converted, and the order started to lose the reason for its existence.

In addition to this, the methods employed by the order had not endeared it to the local population, even though they were all now Christians. This enmity this flared up into a new war when in 1409, the King of Poland invited all enemies of the Teutonic Knights to participate in a campaign against the order.

This led to the defeat of the order at the Battle of Tannenberg in 1410. In 1525, the order's grand master Albrecht of Hohenzollern became a Protestant and dissolved the order in Prussia. Scattered elements of the order lived on but the last were finally expelled in 1591 from the Baltic.

LATER CHRISTIANITY

So it was that Christianity came to be the dominant religion of Europe - the first religion to kill its adversaries.

The original White religion had never tried to convert followers upon pain of death, and had never waged a war in its name - and as such it was psychologically unprepared to do battle with a Middle Eastern religion which engendered a genocidal fanaticism amongst its followers.

Once the Christians had run out of Pagans to kill, they turned upon themselves in a violent and bloody fratricidal conflict which saw the Church split and the various protagonists kill each other in a crazed

bloodlust.

Fully one third of the entire White Race was killed in a series of major Christian Wars in Europe - these events are dealt with in a later chapter, along with the effect of Christianity upon the development of science, history, art and social life.

Christianity - Composite Origins

Christianity is a composite religion, consisting of mixtures poached and drawn from a number of different cults, sub-cults and philosophical ideas which in most cases had been around for far longer than the Bible itself. Some of the true origins of these major strands which are often thought of as being purely Christian are:

- ***The Biblical story of Noah and the flood is a copy of the fictional story of a flood in the Sumerian novel, the Epic of Gilgamesh, which dates from 2000 BC.***
- ***Many of the Old Testament Laws, in particular the "eye for an eye" law were taken from the Sumerian Code of Hammurabi (1750BC). The "eye for an eye" law was lifted word for word from Hammurabi's Code.***
- ***The concept of monotheism - one God as opposed to many Gods - was originally created by the Egyptian Pharaoh Akhenaton (1350 - 1334 BC) who was the first to declare that there was only one god, the Sun God. It is beyond dispute that this concept formed the basis of the Jews' monotheism, and from thence absorbed by Christianity.***
- ***The concept of an afterlife and resurrection were derived from the Egyptian cult of Osiris, which was the first resurrection based religion in the world. The belief in an afterlife and resurrection formed the basis of the Egyptian practice of mummification.***
- ***The concepts of heaven and hell and of a galactic battle between the forces of good and evil were originally conceived by the Indo-European religion created by the prophet Zarathustra. It is of significance to note that Heaven and Hell do not feature in the Christian Old Testament, being purely New Testament concepts. The very word Hell was taken from the Indo-European goddess of the underworld, Hel.***
- ***Christmas and Easter were originally White pagan festivities marking, respectively, the start of Spring in the northern hemisphere and the longest night of winter. Hence the symbolism of Easter (named after the goddess of fertility, Eoster) has to this day remained the egg and the rabbit (symbolizing fertility and Spring). The symbolism associated with Christmas - the pine tree and the log fire - are also clearly of Northern Hemisphere origin.***

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 18 : THE FIRST GREAT RACE WAR - ATILLA THE HUN

To the eastern borders of the Roman Empire lay assorted Indo-European tribes, many still migrating from the north or even the ancient Nordic homeland between the Black and Caspian Seas.

Amongst all these Indo-European tribes one major group became known as the Goths, who, in the form of their various tribes, the Ostrogoths, the Visigoths and others - were to play a significant role in the final overrunning of the Western Roman Empire.

Initially however, Roman force of arms held them at bay beyond the eastern European continental borders of the Empire. The Goths and their racial cousins kept up a continuous localized war with the Romans for many years, and would have doubtless continued to do for even longer had a new powerful racial foe not emerged which threatened to destroy the Goths, Germans, Romans and indeed all of Europe.

Into the midst of the struggles between the Germans, the Goths and Rome was to come the very first open race war in Europe - the invasion by Asiatics called the Huns.



The Nonwhite terror: Asiatics, known as Huns, attacked the easternmost White tribes, the Alans, in 372 AD. Quickly annihilating the Alans, they marched east forcing the squabbling Whites - Romans, Germans and Goths - in Europe to unite and face the communal racial threat. An overt race war, fought across Europe, then followed,

with the Huns being defeated at Troyes in central France and at Nedao in Central Europe. White Europe was nearly extinguished by this threat - here is a depiction of a scene which befell hundreds of thousands of Whites - a raiding Nonwhite party attack a Roman villa, killing the males and carrying off the White women for sexual slavery.

ALANS - THE FIRST VICTIMS

Physically described by Romans as being "short, brown skinned and slant eyed" the Huns emerged from central Asia and burst upon the easternmost Whites, a tribe called the Alans, in 372 BC.

The Alans, a Nordic tribe still living in the ancestral homeland between the Black and Caspian seas, were crushed by the Huns who had developed cavalry fighting to a fine skill. Remnants of the Alans fled south and west - to this day there are traces of this last Nordic tribe to be found amongst the present day inhabitants of the region.

The Alans who fled westwards sought refuge with the Ostrogoths, bringing with them the first news of the new Asiatic terror.

OSTROGOTHS FALL BEFORE HUN INVASION

If the Ostrogoths wondered what had befallen the Alans, they did not have long to find out. Very soon the Huns swept even further west and invaded the Ostrogothic lands (in modern day western Russia) and defeated them as well.

The Ostrogothic king, Hermanric, committed suicide when the scale of the invasion became apparent, and his successor, Vitimer, was killed while trying to hold back the Huns.

The Ostrogothic kingdom in western Russia disintegrated, and its survivors streamed further westwards, into the lands of the Visigoths and Slavs.

VISIGOTHS BARGAIN WITH THE ROMANS

Athanairc, king of the Visigoths, engaged the Huns at the Dniester River in modern day Bulgaria, but the Huns defeated the Visigothic army as well. After this defeat, the Visigoths were forced to fall back and beg the Romans for permission to settle inside Roman territory.

This appeal was made all the more remarkable when it is borne in mind that the Romans and Visigoths had been at virtual constant war for near enough to two centuries. So when the Romans finally gave permission to the Visigoths to move into Roman territory, it was at a terrible price - the Visigoths had to surrender all their weapons and hand over large numbers of their women and children as hostages.

Crossing the Danube in 376 BC and settling in modern day Bulgaria, the Visigoths managed to gain a temporary reprieve from the ravages of the Huns. The conditions under which the Romans forced them to stay were such that it was not long before Visigothic resentment boiled over into open rebellion.

VISIGOTH REBELLION - BATTLE OF HADRIANOPOLE

The Visigoths secretly re-armed themselves and launched a campaign against the Roman strongholds of Thrace and Macedonia in northern Greece. Finally, in the battle of Hadrianople (378 AD) in modern day Greece, a Visigothic army defeated a Roman army under the personal command of the Emperor Valen - who had been the one to impose the harsh conditions of refuge upon the Visigoths. Valen himself was killed in this battle.

The defeat was all the more ironic as a large number of the Roman army's soldiers were in fact Gothic mercenaries. The Eastern Roman Empire then accepted the presence of the Visigoths in central Europe, and lifted many of the restrictions placed upon them by Valen.

While the Goths and the Romans were grappling with one another, the former Visigothic lands were being seized by the Huns.

By the time of the Battle of Adrianople, the Huns had occupied most of Dacia, the land originally seized by the Visigoths from Romans (and which corresponds to the present day country of Rumania).

EUROPE ALMOST ENTIRELY INVADED

At this stage the racial balance of Europe could have swung decisively in favor of the Asiatic Mongolians - all the original White ancestral homelands had been either destroyed or occupied by the Huns.

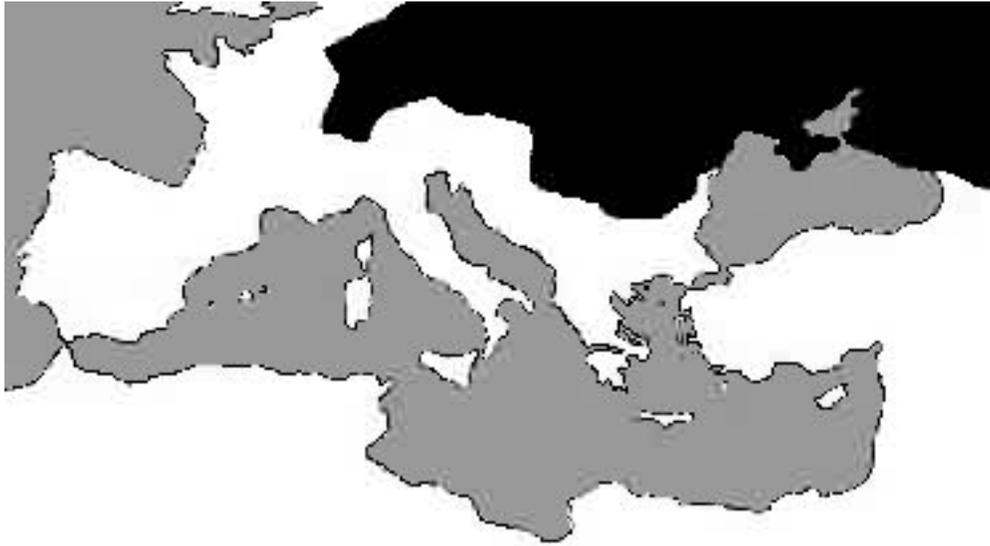
In addition to this, the Huns also physically occupied large parts of western Russia and portions of central and eastern Europe, including entire portions of modern central Germany, Hungary and Rumania, turning them overnight into mini Asiatic states.

Not content with these conquests, the Asiatic Huns began pushing further westwards, causing entire nations to be moved and destroying virtually everything in their path.

In this way the remnants of the Alans, and many other minor Nordic tribes were forced westwards, in turn displacing other already settled tribes. It was this displacement which led to further migrations of assorted Germanic tribes into Spain and even as far as North Africa.

By 432 AD, during the reign of Roman Emperor Theodosius I, the Huns had increased their power base and stranglehold on eastern and parts of central Europe to the point where they actually collected a large annual tribute from Rome.

(By this time Rome was totally dependent on "barbarian" or German and Gaulish mercenaries for its defense - the mostly mixed race population of Rome had long since lost any social cohesiveness and ability to provide recruits for the army).



Europe under the Nonwhite Huns: The dark area shows the extent of the Asiatic invasion. In addition to this, the Huns also launched attacks into France, Italy and into northern Greece.

ATILLA THE HUN - BRUTAL LEADER

In 433 AD, the Huns gained a new king, whose name would become a byword for the Asiatic terror - Atilla.

The new Asiatic king established his headquarters at the village of Buda on the Danube River in 445 AD (Buda was later to combine with another village on the other side of the river, Pest, to become Budapest, the modern capital of Hungary).



Atilla the Hun. Leader of an Asiatic terror which swept across White Europe with such fury and cruelty that his name has remained to this day a byword for tyranny. After a Roman depiction.

By this time the Hunnish empire stretched from the Caspian sea in the east right up to the North Sea. In all of the area the Huns carried out a vicious racial war of extermination against the Whites who militarily were too weak to resist. Countless White settlements were wiped out, with the women routinely being carried off into captivity.

In 452 AD, Atilla began moving west again, with the intention of seizing France and finishing off all of Europe.

HUNNISH BLOOD ENTERS EASTERN EUROPE

By this stage the Huns had started on a limited scale to physically integrate with sections of the peoples they had conquered. Traces of the Mongolian influence can still be seen amongst some peoples in eastern Europe (the so called "Slavic look" which in fact is not Slavic at all, but mixed Mongolian/Slavic.)

Possibly as a result of this limited integration process, the Huns managed to recruit some locals into their army, and units of various eastern European tribes found themselves in the Hunnish army which finally invaded France. They were dealt with extremely harshly by their distant racial cousins if captured. The vast majority of the Hunnish army were however Mongolian and under the ultimate leadership of the unquestionably militarily astute Atilla.

The Huns stood poised to push through to the Atlantic Ocean - Europe stood on the very brink of extermination.

THE BATTLE OF TROYES - WHITES UNITE TO DEFEAT THE ASIATICS

The threat of the Hunnish army finally forced the ever squabbling Romans and Visigoths into a united front. A Roman army, under the last of the Western Empire's properly Roman generals, Aetius, joined up with a Visigoth army under their king, Theodoric I, and together they met the Hunnish army in central France near the present day city of Troyes in 451 AD.

In a day long battle, both sides inflicted heavy casualties on the other, with the Visigoth king, Theodoric, being killed in the fighting. By nightfall the combined White army had gained the upper hand over the Asians.

Atilla was forced to retreat all the way across Europe as far as Hungary, exacting a terrible revenge in slaughter and looting from those White settlements unfortunate enough to be in his path of retreat.

ATILLA SLAUGHTERS WHITES IN NORTHERN ITALY - ORIGINS OF VENICE

Defeated in the west, Atilla made one last attempt to destroy the Whites. In 452 the Asians invaded northern Italy and razed the city of Aqueila to the ground massacring as many of the inhabitants as he could find (the survivors fled into the nearby marshes, there to later establish the city of Venice).

Suddenly in 453 AD, the 60 year old Atilla died - allegedly of a burst blood vessel incurred during his wedding night exertions following his marriage to a local German princess (how much of that story is true is open to question: what is fact is that he took a blond German girl, named Hildico, as his wife, following an example set by many of his Mongolian warriors, whose genetic footprint can be seen on some faces in eastern Europe and Russia to this day.)

THE BATTLE OF NEDAO - GERMANICS SAVE THE WHITE RACE FROM EXTINCTION

Atilla's death was the signal for a revolt of the people subjugated by the Huns. In 454 AD, the Goths, Slavs and others in Europe who had managed to survive the nearly 70 years of cruel Asiatic rule, rose up and at the battle of Nedao in that year, defeated the Huns in a straight fight between a Mongolian and a Germanic army. The victory was total and the Huns were finally destroyed.

The battle of Nedao became one of the most significant battles in White history, for without it Europe would most likely have been completely overrun by Asiatics before 500 AD.

The Germans, as victors over the Huns, became famous amongst their Indo-European racial cousins, with the Icelandic word for German to this day translating literally as "peoples' defender".

THE HUNS FLEE

Suffering total defeat at the hands of the Germans, the vast majority of the surviving Asiatic Huns then fled back into the Far East, to the sea of Azov in Russia - fearing the retribution by the Whites that would follow (a fear which was fully justified, as the enraged and victorious Whites mercilessly put to death any bands of Hun stragglers they found).

THE HUNNISH LEGACY

However, the Huns left two significant things behind them - firstly they gave their name to the area which had functioned as their headquarters during their racial war, Hungary.

Secondly, some admixture of Mongolian genes occurred amongst the Slavic tribes which had been under the Asiatic Hunnish occupation for nearly 80 years. This was however by no means complete and only ultimately affected a small, but significant, number of the Indo-European Slavs.

The Slavs then expanded eastward into the regions of Russia which had been overrun by the Huns on their way west. There they also mixed with scattered remnants of the partly Hunnish, partly Slavic peoples the Huns had left behind.

All these mixes contributed towards creating the distinctive Russian "Slavic look" visible to this day in a small percentage of the eastern European population in Russia and elsewhere.

The greatest effect of the Hunnish invasion of Europe was however the extinction of the source of the Indo-European tribes from their ancestral homeland between the Black and Caspian Seas. Never again would this territory produce another Indo-European Nordic tribe - the fountain of new Nordic blood was forever extinguished, one of the most significant acts of racial genocide ever seen.

For the next thousand years, the territory between the Black and Caspian seas, which had been the first and original breeding ground for the Indo-European Nordic tribes, became an invasion route for waves of Nonwhite hordes from Asia: first the Huns - then the Avars (who were destroyed by a Germanic tribe called the Franks) - the Turks (who were only finally driven from Europe mainland after the First World War in 1918) - Magyars (who occupied Hungary) and other Asiatics, some descendants of whom eventually became the Gypsies still found in Eastern Europe.

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CHAPTER 19 : THE FALL OF ROME -

THE TRIUMPH OF THE SLAVES

From the time of the assumption of power of Septimus Servus in 193 AD, Roman history is known as the time of the Dominate. From this time on the Roman emperors made no attempt to disguise the fact that they were absolute rulers, with the senate serving an advisory role only.

The stress and strains of trying to run a polyglot Empire began to take its toll. For the fifty year period between 235 AD and 285 AD, there were twenty six different emperors, with only one of them dying a natural death. During this period of anarchy Rome was racked by civil war and intrigue, and foreign invasion.

THE EMPIRE DIVIDED BY DIOCLETIAN

Emperor Diocletian took the throne in 285 AD, and reigned until 305 AD. His reign was marked by a period of relative stability and his reorganization of the Empire's administration.

In 286 AD he divided the Roman Empire into two, realizing that it was impossible for one man to rule the vast territory and all its peoples. He cut the Empire into East and West - the Western Empire having as its capital Rome, and the Eastern Empire having as its capital the city of Nicomedia in Asia Minor (Turkey).



The Emperor Diocletian - a military genius who became one of Rome's greatest latter rulers. The spreading empire and the inclusion of all sorts of nationalities into its ranks was reflected in this man: actually born of obscure origins in the Balkans, he became Emperor in 285 AD. The fact that people born outside of Rome could settle in Rome and even become Emperor meant that the original Romans themselves soon became outnumbered - by either non-Roman Whites like Diocletian, or by non-Roman Nonwhites from the Middle East.

Diocletian created a post of co-emperor to rule the West (Diocletian himself chose to rule the East). Each Emperor was called an "Augustus" and each had an assistant, called a "Caesar." The Caesar was supposed to succeed the Augustus, thus solving the problem of secession.

CONSTANTINOPLE - CAPITAL OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE

The Emperor Constantine's conversion to Christianity gave the Christians the upper hand in their battle against other religions. Constantine decided that he needed a new Christian capital, and selected the ancient site of the city of Byzantine, situated on the Bosphorus straight connecting the Mediterranean with the Black seas.

Constantine called the city New Rome, but it soon became known as Constantinople, and is today known as Istanbul. The new capital soon became more important than Rome itself, and only 50 years after Constantine's death in 337 AD, the split between the Eastern and Western Empires became total.

From the year 395 AD, the Roman Empire was never again governed as a single unit. This had an important spin off, in that it played a role in slowing down the masses of immigrants from the mixed race Middle Eastern territories - although the number already in Rome and southern Italy had by this stage reached the point where the fate of Rome was sealed. However, there can be no doubt that the

creation of Constantinople served as a destination for many who otherwise would have emigrated to Rome.

THE GOTHS ATTACK

The Western Empire remained threatened by the new invaders from the north. Even during the height of her power, Rome had never been able to penetrate north, and now new invaders, called Goths, seemed even more ferocious than their German cousins.

The Goths were one of the later waves of Indo-European invaders to enter continental Europe and had originally settled in relative isolation in Sweden and other southern parts of Scandinavia.

By about 300 BC, the Goths had started moving southwards, displacing some Baltic tribes eastward, and 500 years later had penetrated right through to southern Russia, from where their Indo-European forefathers had originated thousands of years before.



The fury of the Goths. A Roman army unit is ambushed along the Danube River by a ferocious Gothic assault in this painting which accurately captures the dress, weapons and racial types of the two armies. Many of the Roman soldiers were in fact German mercenaries.

OSTROGOTHS AND VISIGOTHS

The huge geographical distance between the various Gothic tribes led in time to a division into two main sections: the Visigoths, or West Goths, who settled the territory from the Danube River to the Dniester River - and the Ostrogoths, or East Goths, who settled in the region eastward from the Dniester River to the Volga River in present day Russia.

The Visigoths then started pressing westwards. The Romans first recorded encountering them around 250 AD, when they invaded the Roman province of Dacia in southern central Europe, near the Danube River. Roman reports mention the Goths to be the tallest of the German tribes, with their hair ranging from red to almost white.

The Romans and Visigoths soon set to a fight. After several initially inconclusive skirmishes, the Visigoths inflicted a massive defeat upon the Romans in 251 AD, wiping out an entire Roman army and killing the then emperor, Decius, in the process. Soon thereafter the Romans abandoned Dacia, a province which they had conquered and held for 150 years. From then on the Danube River once again formed the border between Germania and Rome.

The Visigoths also captured and plundered Athens in 267 AD and for almost 100 years, loose bands waged incessant and uncoordinated warfare in the Balkans with the Romans.

VISIGOTHIC MERCENARIES

For approximately 150 years after the defeat of the Roman army in Dacia, an uneasy co-existence was established between the Romans and Goths, with the latter occasionally raiding Roman cities along the Black sea coast at will. However, as in western Europe, the Romans were forced to start recruiting Goths as mercenaries for their armies - the Romans themselves being unable to recruit soldiers from the increasingly mixed population in Rome itself.

In this way the Roman records show that during the reign of Constantine alone, 40,000 Goths were recruited into the Eastern Empire's army. Indeed, they formed the bulwark of the Eastern Roman Empire against the huge masses of mixed race invaders pushing against the eastern reaches of the empire.

THE HUNS PUSH THE VISIGOTHS INTO ROMAN TERRITORY

From early in the first century AD, the frontier division between Germania and Rome had been increasingly maintained by Gallic mercenaries along the Rhine-Danube River. The static nature of the border was helped by the relative geographic stability of the Germanic tribes. This was however to change dramatically in 374 AD. In that year a tribe of powerful Mongolians started attacking Europe out of the east - the forerunners of the great Mongolian invasion under Atilla the Hun.

The Huns quickly decimated the easternmost Indo-Europeans, the Ostrogoths, situated to the west of the Vistula River, and proceeded to attack the next Gothic tribe in the line, the Visigoths. The Visigoth leaders, fearing that they too were going to be destroyed, petitioned Rome itself for help and permission to enter Roman territory to seek safety inside the official borders of the Empire. This permission was granted in 376 AD and the Visigoths formally crossed the Danube River south into Roman territory.

The arrangement did however not last long - the long standing enmity between the Romans and their Germanic foes soon broke out into a localized war, despite the closeness of their common threat, the Huns. Finally a Roman army was specially sent to subdue the Visigoths - and was defeated at the battle of Adrianople in 378 AD. The defeat shattered the belief in Western Roman invincibility and ushered in a century and a half of chaos. Soon other Gothic tribes also began to invade the Empire's

frontiers at will - all the while with Atilla and his Mongolian Huns pursuing them from the east.

GOTHS SACK ROME FOR THE FIRST TIME

For a few years the Emperor Theodosius held off the Goths. After his death however, the Visigoths regathered their strength under a capable leader named Alaric and invaded Italy itself, sacking the city of Rome in 410 AD. A peace treaty was struck between city leaders and Alaric, in terms of which the Visigoths were given a large piece of land in southern France in order to placate their territorial demands.



How the Goths conquered the city of Rome in 410 AD. The immense aqueducts which carried water to Rome from distant hill sources were the weakness of the Imperial city. Attacking Goths cut off the water supply by destroying several arches of the aqueducts. The ruins of the aqueducts still stand to this day.

ROMAN BORDERS COLLAPSE

By 408 AD, the recruitment of soldiers from Rome itself into the Roman armies had virtually completely dried up - a good indication of the change in the racial balance in Rome, and although Gothic and Gaulish mercenaries now made up the vast majority of the soldiers in the Roman armies, the huge numbers of Germans and Goths pushing against the Roman defenses along the Rhine River were overwhelming. By 410 AD, waves of Germanic tribes were streaming into France.

THE VANDALS SACK ROME - 455 AD

One of these tribes, called the Vandals, marched right through Gaul into Spain, in 409 AD. They were followed by Visigoths about ten years later, sparking off further disputes over territory. The Vandals then sailed across the Straits of Gilbratar and conquered the Western Roman Empire's provinces in North Africa. Under their able leader, Gaiseric, the Vandals soon established themselves as a major power. In June 455 AD, a naval borne Vandal army invaded Italy and sacked Rome itself.

The ease with which this was accomplished serves as an excellent indicator of how the power of Rome had declined along with its original population. The city, populated by large numbers of mixed

race and Middle Eastern types thrown in amongst the remnants of the original Roman people, were either unwilling or simply unable to put up a defense in the tradition of the past glories of Rome. The city of Caesar became a stamping ground for anyone who wanted to try their luck at a bit of looting.

Gaiseric managed to repulse a few attempts by the Eastern Roman Empire to exact revenge for this raid, and achieved a notable end by becoming one of the very few kings of his time to die of old age in 477 AD. The Vandal kingdom lasted until 534 AD, when a surprise attack by a Gothic manned Roman Eastern Empire army defeated them. This was the last time that the Vandals appeared as a power in the Mediterranean - after their defeat at the hands of the Eastern Roman Empire, they collapsed into obscurity in North Africa.

Having settled in modern day Algeria, the Vandals were quick to mirror Rome's decline - far more quickly. It was a matter of two hundred years and the Vandals were absorbed into the already mixed race inhabitants of North Africa, once again contributing to the maelstrom of genes which today makes up the North African Mediterranean basin.

THE BURGUNDIANS AND FRANKS

Yet another Germanic tribe to move across the Rhine River into France were the Burgundians, who settled in the Rhone river valley - but by far the most important Germanic tribe to move into Gaul were the Franks, who quickly fanned out across Northern Gaul, quickly assimilating the already predominantly Nordic Gauls in the region.

ROMAN ARMIES LEAVE BRITAIN - 407 AD

With the decline of the Western Empire becoming all the more obvious, Rome withdrew the last detachments of its army from Britain in 407 AD (leaving behind those who had already assimilated into the local population), advising the Britons that they now had to protect themselves.

GERMANICS INVADE BRITAIN - ANGLES AND SAXONS

Within fifty years Germanic tribes did indeed invade the island - the Angles and Saxons, from whom the modern term Anglo-Saxon originated. These original Angles and Saxons were predominantly Nordic tribesmen who came from the Germanic reservoir in northern Germany, Denmark and Southern Scandinavia which had been established at the time of the first Indo-European invasions into Europe.

The Angles and the Saxons quickly dominated the Britons by force - although some British tribes, notably the Bretons, fled across the channel to France, where their name still exists as a geographical term (Brittany) and people from this region are still called Bretons.

In this fashion the Western Roman Empire was steadily broken up piecemeal by the Germanic/Gothic/Indo-European tribes.

ROMAN UPPER CLASSES BUY BLONDE WIGS

By 400 AD, within a short space of less than 500 years from the time of Julius Caesar, the inhabitants of Rome were barely a pale shadow of the race who originally created the Empire. Immigrants from all over the Middle East and North Africa had turned it into a multi-racial melting pot made up of a mixture of Middle Easterners (Semites, Africans, mixed race Egyptians, Syrians and Africans) and original remnant Romans, with no national sense of national identity or common purpose.

This integration process had reached such levels that the Roman writer Juvenal recorded the increasing habit of many wealthy Romans of buying blonde wigs to cover their dark hair - the blonde hair being purchased from Germans and transported south to Rome. Ovid also mentions the custom of blonde wigs and Pliny went as far as to give details of the different methods of dying hair blond.

In their mania to conceal their increasing "Nonwhiteness", the inhabitants of Rome used sapa, or lead acetate, as a skin cream to pale their complexions - and paid a heavy price by unwittingly poisoning themselves at the same time.

The Emperor Caracalla - who, as son of a Roman official stationed in Africa and having a Persian mother, could certainly have been at least partly racially mixed, was famous for wearing a blonde wig.

This mixed polyglot itself was divided into two economic classes, a very wealthy minority and a desperately poor mass. The wealthy minority - many of whom had made their money out of the flourishing slave trade - lived in relative luxury, while the vast masses lived in frightful urban squalor.

From this population the Roman army was unable to raise the enthusiasm or quality of man needed to man the frontiers: and so the wealthy ruling classes of Rome paid huge amounts in bribes and mercenary fees to keep their enemies at bay.

Rome precariously survived on money rather than physical strength. Germanics threatened Rome's borders, and Germanics made up the armies defending the same borders. This tactic was employed by both Western and Eastern Roman Empires, with the Western Empire using Germans, and the Eastern Empire using Goths. In what was ironic but nonetheless predictable, the last battles in Italy fought under Roman banners were between armies of German Romans, Gothic Romans and Frankish Romans.

ABROGAST - FRANKISH EMPEROR DEFEATED

A Frankish Roman army general, Abrogast, was the chief adviser - and effective master - of the Western Roman Emperor Eugenius in 394 AD, having assassinated a previous emperor. Abrogast retained control through his Frankish army group which he brought with him into Italy.

The Eastern Emperor, Theodosius, unhappy with the blatant manipulation of the Western Emperor by Abrogast, sent an army comprised of Germanic Goths and Vandals, under the leadership of the Gothic prince, Alaric, and the Vandal, Stilicho, respectively.

The two sides: a Frankish Roman army against a combined Gothic and Vandal Roman army - both of Germanic origin but being paid by different Roman remnants - met in battle near the modern day city of Venice. Abrogast's army (the Franks) were defeated.

After the battle, in accordance with Theodosius' instructions, Stilicho became effective master of the Western Empire. Alaric was in the interim chosen king of the Visigoths by his tribe (it was common amongst the Germanic tribes to vote for their kings).



Stilicho, last general of the Western Empire, was actually a German. In this way The "Roman" army was, by the year 400 AD, composed of anything but Romans.

MASSACRE OF THE GERMAN WOMEN AND CHILDREN - THE REVENGE OF 408 AD

The partly mixed inhabitants of Rome, rich and poor alike, resented both Visigoths and Vandals alike, and in 408 AD, Stilicho was assassinated. This was immediately followed by a massacre of thousands of the wives and children of the German soldiers in Italy.

It was easy to pick out the Germans - their light coloring and light hair stood out in marked contrast to the vast majority of the inhabitants of most of Italy of the day.

THE GERMAN COUNTER REVENGE UNDER ALARIC

This foolish act drove the Germanic tribes into taking reprisals. For two years Alaric led an embittered combined army of his men, Stilicho's soldiers and even remnants of the defeated Frankish army, up and down the Italian peninsula, exacting a terrible revenge for the massacre of the Germanic women and children.

During this time the marauding Germans took a heavy toll of the local population - countless numbers were killed, considerably thinning out the largely mixed race population. Alaric demanded a huge ransom from the inhabitants of Rome and forced their slave traders to release some 40,000 German slaves from captivity.

ROME SACKED AGAIN

Then Alaric's Goths sacked Rome itself on 24 August 410 AD. This date is marked as the official end of the Roman Empire in the west, although of course the vast masses of true Romans had long since vanished.

Even after the sacking of Rome in 410 AD, and the Vandal invasion of 455 AD, a semblance of an imperial line of emperors was maintained in Rome, although the emperor was by then little more than a puppet.

Roman armies were no longer Roman at all and consisted for the overwhelming part of Germanic troops. The result of this Germanization of the Roman army was that a large number of generals were also Germans. This ultimately had to have a political impact, as the armies had long decided the fate of many the Roman emperor.

THE FIRST GERMAN ROMAN EMPEROR - 475 AD

Finally in 475 AD, one such German born general, Orestes, forced the Roman senate to elect his son as emperor. In the following year, another German general Odovacar killed Orestes and, seeing no reason to continue the appearance of an imperial secession, simply declared himself head of state.

This first Germanic emperor not elected by the senate is regarded by some historians as the proper end of the Roman Empire in the West, although in reality the Western Empire had ceased to exist many years before, being held together only in name by the recruitment of mercenaries into the imperial armies.

THE LOMBARDS - IMPETUS FOR RENAISSANCE

Following the death of the Western Roman Emperor Theodosius in 526 AD, civil war and anarchy broke out in Italy, lasting until the Eastern Emperor Justinian's invasion of 554 AD.

In 568 AD, the third most significant population shift in Italian history occurred (the first was the invasion of the Indo-European Latini - the second was the filling up of Rome with Nonwhite races) - another Germanic tribe, the Lombards, poured into Italy over the Alps, establishing a new kingdom, replenishing the Nordic racial stock in northern and central Italy. It was the Lombards who provided the impetus for the later north Italian based Renaissance movement.

THE VISIGOTHS HEAD FOR SPAIN AND SOUTHERN FRANCE

After sacking Rome in 410 AD, a large number of Visigoths moved across the Pyrenees mountain range into Spain. From 415 AD to 418 AD, the Visigoths created a new state encompassing part of Spain and the territory in southern France given to them as a tribute by the inhabitants of Rome. Toulouse was established as the Visigothic capital. Eventually the majority of the Visigothic part of Gaul (France) was conquered by another Germanic tribe, the Franks.

The Last Visigothic King Roderick, was defeated and killed during the Nonwhite Muslim invasion of Spain at the Battle of Rio Barbate in 711 AD.

Thus, in less that 100 years after the Germanic tribes had first crossed the Roman Empire's borders in 406 AD, the mixed race remnants of the Western Roman Empire in Northern Italy had to the greatest part been driven into southern Italy by a wave of new Germanic blood, which in many other

areas also swept away other traces of the 1,000 years of Roman integration.

THE REAL REASON FOR THE FALL OF ROME - FEWER THAN 5 PERCENT OF THE POPULATION WERE ROMANS CIRCA 50 AD

For centuries historians have endlessly debated the reasons why the power of Rome waned. Most explanations have centered on arguments that the civilization's morals collapsed - that the Empire "exhausted itself" due to over exertion - or that it declined economically.

The truth behind the disappearance of the Roman Empire is in fact much simpler and stunningly obvious - the facts are that the people who created the Empire, the original Romans, mainly Indo-European tribes, vanished, absorbed into the masses of non Indo-European peoples they conquered.

In the West, the Romans were absorbed by the racially similar White and numerically superior Celts, Gauls and Germans.

In the East the Romans were absorbed by the racially dissimilar Nonwhite mixed race Middle Easterners and North Africans, who also immigrated in massive numbers to Rome itself, filling the city and the southern parts of Italy with their numbers.



The effects of racial mixing are evident on the face of this baker (left) in Pompeii, Italy. The fashion at the time was to have one's portrait painted on the walls of one's house. The eruption of the volcano Vesuvius preserved a

great number of the houses in Pompeii, including these portraits from circa 50 AD. Compare the features of this baker to one of his neighbors, a still Nordic woman (right) whose house portrait was similarly saved. Eventually the "baker" types were to dominate Roman society. This change in racial make up of Roman society was the reason why the Roman Empire vanished.

The noted British historian, Edward Gibbon, in his monumental work *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, estimated the numbers of people within the borders of the empire during the time of the Emperor Claudius (43 AD) as some 120 million people - and of this amount only some 6,945,000 were proper Roman citizens.

The twin effects of the opening citizenship to all in the empire and the toleration of unrestricted immigration into the city of Rome, does therefore not have to be speculated upon - the 7 million original Romans were overrun within a relatively short space of time by the 113 million foreigners.

In a nutshell, the truth is that the Roman Empire disappeared because the Romans themselves disappeared. It is as simple as that.



From defeated foe to citizen. The pictures above show how the racial makeup of Rome changed in less than 400 years. On the left, Roman soldiers carry Jewish treasures seized during the Roman-Jewish War of AD 68 - 73. The scene is from the Arch of Titus, erected by the emperor of the same name to commemorate his victory over the Jews. Right : A sarcophagus from 300 AD in the city of Rome showing the very same symbol - the Jewish menorah - combined with classical Roman scenes. This illustrates well the extent of how assimilated the various peoples of the world became in that city. Within 350 years the Jews had moved from a defeated and hated enemy

of Rome, into being wealthy citizens of Rome itself.



Black slaves in Rome picking grapes, a mosaic in the Church of Santa Costanza, Rome, 4th Century AD. Hundreds of thousands, if not several million, Nonwhites were imported into Italy as slaves. Eventually they mixed with large numbers of the Romans themselves, producing the mixed race types as in the "baker" of Pompeii. (See above).

The change in the make-up of the Roman population from the original Nordic/Alpine/Mediterranean into a mixed White/Nonwhite racial group was the real reason why Rome "fell". This is also the reason why today some Italians, particularly in the south of that country, have a distinctive "olive" appearance.

Italy was later invaded by a new wave of Germanics, the Lombards, who brought a fresh infusion of Nordic blood into the Italian peninsula - and today the vast majority of White Italians are descendants of the Lombards, not of the Romans.

The Fall of Rome - Before and After:

How a Change in the Racial Composition of a Nation changes that civilization's outer physical manifestations



How the racial makeup of a civilization changes the outer manifestations of that civilization is superbly illustrated in these two pictures. The first, above, is a reconstruction of the Palatine Hill - one of the centers of ancient Rome - as it looked like in the heyday of the Roman Empire; and then alongside is the exact same view, only this time how the modern visitor may view the Palatine Hill: a few crumbling ruins, with only the Arch of Titus still remaining more or less intact.

As with the case of the rise and fall of all civilizations, the physical manifestations of any given civilization change along with the people. Once the original Romans had vanished, so did their civilization, even down to their buildings.

This process can be seen once again in the two pictures below: the Roman Forum, then and now. In the photograph, even the column visible in the center of the picture dates from a later time.



The crumbling ruins of what was once the greatest power on earth carry a message to modern society, which is often regarded as irreversible and permanent. Civilizations can and do fall, and the mightiest of buildings can and do crumble in a few short centuries. This happens when the people who originally made that civilization, become a minority or are totally wiped out by either invaders, immigrants or are assimilated into new racial elements.

This then is the great lesson of history - the disappearance of a people, or race, leads to the disappearance of all aspects of their civilization, even the physical manifestations.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 20 : BYZANTINE - **THE EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE**

Constantinople, situated on the Bosphorus Straits at the mouth of the Black Sea, became a capital of the Roman Empire in 330 AD after Constantine the Great, the first Christian emperor, refounded the city of Byzantium. Although the city was called Constantinople until its fall, the Eastern Roman Empire became known by the classical name of Byzantine, and often the city was called by its old name as well.

The city's status as residence of the Eastern Roman Emperor made it into the premier city in all of the Eastern Roman colonies in the Balkans, Syria, Jordan, Israel, Lebanon, Cyprus, Egypt, and part of present day Libya. A good indication of the degree to which the Eastern Empire was not made up for the greatest part of original Romans, can be seen in the official languages of the Byzantines: Greek, Coptic, Syriac and Armenian, with only a very few mainly Christian priests actually speaking Latin.



Left: Constantine, the bringer of Christianity to the Roman Empire, and therefore also ultimately to Europe. The city he was to found, Constantinople, would last until 1453, when it was overrun by the Nonwhite Muslims. Right: A view of the Hagia Sofia - the Christian church built in Constantinople by the Eastern Roman Emperor Justinian in 537 AD. When Constantinople was overrun by the Nonwhite Muslims, four Muslim towers, called minarets, were added to the corners of the building. In this photograph, the minarets have been removed from this photograph to present the building as it was when it was built.

THE EFFECT OF THE FALL OF ROME

The sacking of Rome by the Visigoths and Vandals, and then the de facto collapse of Roman power in the west, was felt through the Eastern Roman Empire like a thunderclap. The impossible had happened - the power which had held sway in the known world had vanished.

Due to the immense symbolism of Rome, Eastern Roman emperors made two attempts to recapture the west, once ironically using Romanised Germans. This use of Germans, Goths and eventually even Vikings (in the Varaganian Guard in Constantinople) was the major reason why the Eastern Empire lasted as long as it did.

Surrounded by huge walls, defenses erected by the Romans at the height of their power, and defended by armies of Germanic mercenaries, Constantinople ended up surviving as a city virtually besieged for the greater part of its life, its territories eventually restricted to the direct area of the city.

THEODORIC THE OSTROGOTH SEIZES THE WESTERN EMPIRE

The first attempt to re-establish the Western Empire by the Eastern Empire came with the invasion of Italy by the Romanised king of another Gothic tribe, Theodoric of the Ostrogoths, soon after the sacking of Rome. Having been educated in Constantinople, Theodoric saw it as his mission to restore the Western Empire.

After much heavy fighting between the Ostrogoths and their racial cousins who had moved into Rome with Odovacar, the two sides reached a stalemate and negotiations were started. However, Odovacar was assassinated and Theodoric seized his chance - taking advantage of the confusion in Odovacar's followers, he established the Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy - significantly not choosing Rome as his capital, instead making the northern Italian city of Ravenna the capital of his revived Western Empire.

Theodoric did his best to restore the outer trappings of classical Rome, even adopting Latin as the language of his court. However, when he died in 526 AD, the temporary order imposed upon Rome and southern Italy once again collapsed, descending into anarchy until the second attempt to restore the Western Empire, made by the famous Eastern Roman emperor, Justinian, in 554 AD.

JUSTINIAN - LAST EMPEROR TO UNITE THE EMPIRE

Justinian, who reigned from 527 to 565 AD, had been able to seize a large slice of North Africa from the remnants of the Vandals in 533, and thus had a good base for an invasion of Italy.

After many years Justinian was able to capture not only Italy, but also Spain and the Aegean coast, for a while almost re-establishing the Roman Empire's borders before it had moved north of the Alps. It is of significance that the army which Justinian sent to conquer these lands, was under the leadership of a general Belisarius - who was a Romanized Slav (and thus an original Indo-European).



Left: Belisarius, the Romanized Slav who served the Eastern Roman Empire. Sent by the Emperor Justinian to reconquer the lands of the western empire from the Germanics, the Nordic Slavic general did in fact manage to capture almost all of the former Western Empire territories - including much of Italy, Spain and the North African coast. Belisarius' most astounding feats were the 40 successive victories he obtained against the (by then mixed race) Persians and the (Germanic) Vandals over a thirty year period. In all but a few of these battles Belisarius' army was hopelessly outnumbered, and he won the day by ingenuity rather than weight of numbers. His greatest triumph was in 559 AD, when he drove off thousands of attacking Bulgars from Constantinople itself, using a mere 300 well trained cavalry, supported only by a few hundred untrained citizen conscripts. A good portrayal of the type of soldiers Belisarius used in his wars for the Eastern Empire is portrayed alongside on the right.

Justinian is also known for his codification of Roman Law, and the erection of the Christian Church of the Haga Sofia in Constantinople.

In 528 Justinian appointed a commission of scholars to gather, classify and summarize the huge

mass of laws created by centuries of Roman government. The result was a massive large work known as the Justinian Code and formally titled the Corpus Juris Civis.



The Emperor Justinian, center, surrounded by attendants. The greatest of the early Byzantine rulers, Justinian succeeded in not only recapturing much of the old Western Empire, but is also famous for the codification of laws in the empire, which today serves as the basis for many of the world's legal systems. This mosaic is a detail from the Church of San Vitale, which Justinian had built at Ravenna in Italy after his armies had reconquered Italy itself.

The Church of the Hagia Sofia was completed in 537 AD, and became the spiritual capital of orthodox Christendom (until the city was attacked and conquered by the Nonwhite Muslims in 1453 AD, when it was converted into a mosque, a purpose it still serves today).

With Justinian's death in 565 AD, his successors were confronted with a renewed military threat from the ever adventurous Persians (who by this stage showed only very slight traces of their original Indo-European ancestry). The Persians were only defeated in 628 AD.

THE LOMBARDS INVADE ITALY, DRIVE THE BYZANTINES SOUTH

In the west, Germanic tribes were once again on the offensive, and soon after Justinian's death, had recaptured most of the territory which had been retaken under the Eastern Roman emperor.

What must have seemed like an endless wave of warlike Germans swept down from the north, sweeping masses of mixed race Roman remnants into the south of the country, helping to create the distinctive "olive" south of Italy visible to this day.

In 568 AD, the most significant event in post Roman Italian history occurred: a new Germanic tribe, the Lombards, invaded the peninsula in such numbers that only Sicily and parts of southern Italy were left under Eastern Roman rule.

This large infusion of Nordic blood into the Italian population in Rome and northern Italy, combined

with the original European remnants in northern Italy and with admixture from the mixed race remnants in Rome (many of whom had died in a great pestilence which swept through the city during the years of anarchy following the final collapse) together created the present day racial makeup of Italy - the further north in that country, the lighter the population, while the further south, the darker.

ISLAM THREATENS CONSTANTINOPLE

Around this time the first waves of Nonwhite Islamic armies came sweeping up out of the Saudi-Arabian peninsula, fired up by a new powerful religion which urged its supporters to convert the "kafirs"- or non Muslim infidels - by force if necessary, through the "Jihad" or Holy War.

The Eastern Empire soon began losing its eastern most territories before the Islamic armies, most being impossible to defend with the limited resources available to Constantinople. This Nonwhite racial invasion would be the spark for the Second Great Race War - the Crusades.

EASTERN EMPIRE COMPRESSED BY INDO-EUROPEAN SLAVIC INVASIONS

Originally Indo-European Slavic tribes also invaded the Balkans at this time, stripping away these western territories from the Eastern Roman Empire, even threatening Constantinople itself. Byzantine barely survived the main Slavic invasions, when a new Asiatic invasion by a tribe called the Avars took place during the 6th Century AD. (The Avar invasion is considered in greater depth in a following chapter). This invasion was also beaten off, with uncoordinated help being given by the Slavic tribes.

However, it quickly became impossible to hold on to all of the former Roman provinces - apart from the loss of northern Italy to the Lombards, the Byzantines were also forced to concede much of the Balkans to the Nonwhite armies of Islam. The by now thoroughly mixed race Persians then launched an attack of the easternmost reaches of the Byzantine Empire - only with a superhuman effort were the Persians beaten in 628 AD, leading to the recapture of Syria, Palestine, and Egypt.

Despite this victory, the writing was on the wall for the Eastern Empire - a rapidly growing mixed race population, a small White minority, threatened from the west by the Slavs, and from the east by the Turks and Persians - there seemed to be no way out. Between 634 AD and 642 AD, the Islamic armies invaded Palestine, Syria, Mesopotamia, and Egypt, finally besieging the city of Constantinople itself three times, in 670 AD, 717 and in 718. After this year, the Islamic armies launched new invasions virtually every year.

NEW WHITE ARMIES - PAID WITH LAND

In a desperate attempt to shore up its collapsing frontiers, the Byzantines launched a massive recruiting drive amongst the Germanic tribes, offering not pay this time, but lands in areas marked for reconquest from the Muslims, at the same time reorganizing the structure of their army dramatically. A wave of new European soldiers then took up the offer, and although heavily outnumbered, these new armies launched a major campaign against the Muslims during 9th Century, which stabilized the Muslim threat until the beginning of the 12th Century.

Bulgaria was reconquered in a campaign lasting much of the decade following 970 AD, a victory

which was followed up by the re-seizure of parts of northern Mesopotamia and northern Syria. However, by the end of the 11th Century, the continual wars had once again sapped the strength of the Byzantine armies, increasingly fewer volunteers came forth from the Germanics, as the chances of actually being rewarded with land became less and less.

A new Muslim power, the Seljuk Turks, launched a series of murderous raids into Byzantine territory in the early part of the new millennium, and then defeated a Byzantine army at the Battle of Manzikert in 1071 AD, occupying most of Turkey (Asia Minor) as a result. At the same time as the Battle of Manzikert, the Byzantines lost their last foothold in Italy and further split from the Christian West by a division in Christianity in 1054 AD - a split which led to the creation of the Eastern Orthodox Church.

THE EASTERN EMPIRE APPEALS FOR HELP AGAINST MUSLIMS

On all fronts the Byzantines were once again in retreat - as the Muslim armies prepared for a final assault on the city of Constantinople, the Eastern Emperor, Alexius I, appealed to the Pope in Rome for aid against the Turks. This appeal was acceded to: the result was the start of one of the longest running race wars in history, between the Whites in Western Europe on the one hand and the mixed race Arabic/Black armies of Islam on the other hand. The battlefield raged around Constantinople - that city's Christian status in the face of Islam led to generations of White Christians in Europe to physically prop up the city, artificially prolonging its life-span by centuries.

This race war was fought under the guise of a religious battle to be known as the Crusades, and would last 275 years, from 1095 to 1270 AD. (The full story and impact of the Crusades is reviewed in a following chapter).

CRUSADER RACE WAR ULTIMATELY FAILS

Although Byzantium initially benefited from the Crusades, recovering some land in Asia Minor, the Crusader race war ended ultimately in defeat for the Whites, and by 1354 AD, the Turks had occupied much of the Balkans, cutting off Constantinople from the West. The city finally fell to the Muslim armies in 1453 AD - the date which formally marks the end of the Eastern Roman Empire. Once again, like the Western Roman Empire, the Eastern Roman Empire was, by the time of its fall, Roman in name only. The original Romans who had established the city had also long since disappeared, and it was only through repeated White armies rushing to the city's aid because of its Christian status, that it was not overrun centuries before its final collapse.

THE BYZANTINE LEGACY - CYRILLIC ALPHABET

The early Byzantines did however leave a rich legacy, many outer manifestations of which have remained as part of the greater White civilization to this day.

The Byzantines developed the Cyrillic script, still used by many Eastern European countries, and also played a crucial role in preserving many ancient Greek works which later were used in the west to aid the return to Classical values known as the Renaissance. In addition to this, the tradition of Eastern Orthodox Christianity came to dominate much of Eastern Europe, leading to the establishment of the two largest such church groupings: the Greek Orthodox Church and the Russian Orthodox Church.

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CHAPTER 21 : THE SECOND GREAT RACE WAR - THE CRUSADES

The rise of Islam from a tiny cult in Saudi-Arabia to the status of a major world power is a factor which has dominated much of White history from around 800 AD right through to the present day - indeed, many of the growing conflicts in the contemporary world can be ascribed to this militant and fierce religion.

Although Islam, like Christianity, originated in the Semitic world, and is thus formally outside the scope of this book, it is however, like Christianity, vital to understand this religion as it has played, and continues to play, an important role in affecting European history.

Started by an Arab, Mohammed, (570 AD - 632 AD) in the Arabian peninsula (today's Saudi Arabia) around the year 590 AD, Islam is essentially a reworking of Judaism and Christianity (the Muslim God, Allah, is identified in the Muslim holy book, the Koran, as the same one in Judaism and Christianity) and all three religions share many of the same Old Testament characters such as Jacob etc..

The Koran even features Jesus Christ, only differing with Christianity by saying that Christ was not the son of God but just another prophet like the others mentioned in the Old Testament. It is presumed, but unproven, that Mohammed gained his knowledge of Judaism and Christianity from his Jewish wife.

Mohammed was by all accounts a dynamic person. Claiming to be God's final and true prophet, he persuaded large masses of people that he was right. Pulling together the scattered strands of Judaism and Christianity and then mixing it with some original Arabic customs, he created a powerful religious message which encouraged its supporters to convert others on pain of death.



Although fought under the guise of Christianity, the Crusades were in fact an overt race war. White armies set off from all over Europe to drive the Nonwhites out of the Middle East. Here St. Bernard preaches the Second Crusade - there were varying degrees of response, but possibly one of the most interesting by-products of the Crusades was a flare up in anti-Jewish sentiment in Europe, as Jews were associated with the Muslims in Palestine. Indeed, when Jerusalem was finally conquered by the White Crusaders, they proceeded to massacre all Muslims and Jews alike.

ISLAM EXPANDS BY FORCE

Swiftly the followers of his religion subdued first the Arabian peninsula. They then turned their attention to the neighboring territories (then still formally part of the Eastern Roman Empire) and in quick succession occupied Syria, Iraq, Persia and a large slice of Turkey.

In 640 AD, Egypt, then still part of the Eastern Roman Empire, was overrun by the Islamic armies. Expanding westwards along the North African coast, by 711 AD, the Muslims crossed the straits of Gibraltar and entered Spain, penetrating into Southern France, where they were eventually turned back in 732 AD at the Battle of Tours.

ASSAULT ON BYZANTINE - CONSTANTINOPLE HOLDS OUT

The Eastern Roman Empire viewed the rise of Islam with alarm. Forgetting that the God of the Christian Bible was the same being as the Allah in the Koran and instead dealing with the reality that a blatant racial war was brewing between the Nonwhite Muslims and White Europe, the Eastern Romans immediately tried to prevent the spread of the new religion.

They were however fighting a hopeless rearguard action at best. Facing fanatical Muslim warriors engaging in a Jihad, or Holy War, the Eastern Roman army, not even a shadow of the former armies

of Imperial Rome, could not hold back the tide.

By 1071, the Byzantine armies were defeated at the Battle of Manzikert, and all of Turkey fell to Islam and the Seljuk Turks, leaving only Constantinople at the very western part of that country as a small Christian citadel defying the Islamic giant in the east.

Simultaneously the Bulgars, Asiatic invaders from the East, had been pressing Constantinople from the Balkans. Although they were also temporarily turned back by the emperor Basil II (known as the "Bulgar-Slayer" - he once blinded 1500 captured Bulgars and sent them marching back to the enemy camp with only a few one-eyed guides) they kept up a continual pressure from the Balkans.

By the end of the year 1001 AD, the Eastern Roman Empire, Byzantine, consisted of little more than the immediate territory surrounding the city of Constantinople itself.

EASTERN EMPIRE FALLS TO TURKS - 1453 AD

By 1250 AD, a new wave of Islamic soldiers, the Ottoman Turks, had emerged from Asia Minor. They crashed through the Christian defenses and finally in 1453, Constantinople itself fell to Islam.

The Eastern Roman Empire formally came to an end, but of course, like Rome, the last true Romans had vanished many hundreds of years earlier, and the Islamic armies were only held off for as long as they were by the use of large numbers of White European mercenaries and volunteers - the city itself was largely inhabited by people who were, like the Turks, largely racially mixed.



The tomb of a Crusader Knight in Dorchester Abbey, England. The Knight has been captured at the moment of death, his face in a grimace as he tries to pull his sword from its scabbard. The name of the knight is unknown, but that he was a Crusader is unquestioned - all Crusader tombs of this nature had the convention of crossed legs as their identifying marker.

THE CRUSADES - 200 YEARS OF RACE WAR

In the period leading up to the fall of Constantinople, the second major overtly racial war between the White race and the Middle Eastern mixed races broke out, taking the form of a series of armies attacking the nations of Islam in a period running for nearly 200 years: from 1095 to the middle of the thirteenth century.

Originally the term Crusade was applied only to the White Christian efforts to capture the city of Jerusalem in Palestine from the Muslims, but very soon it came to refer to any military effort by the Whites against the darker races of the Middle East.

Some in Europe seized the opportunity to attack Jews in mainland Europe itself at the same time, associating them with the Muslims in Palestine and then in Islamic Moorish occupied Spain and elsewhere.

The Crusaders also created a series of relatively short lived feudal states in the Near East, the first European colonies outside the European mainland.

THE POPE

It was the growth in the power of the church which created the political unity which made it possible for White Europe to go on the offensive against the Nonwhite invasion.

In particular it was the reverence for the Pope as head of the Christian church which played a crucial role in getting the increasing number of Christian heads of state in Western Europe to take up arms.

While religious motivation was most certainly the prime driver of the initial crusades, there was also a very clear racial undercurrent which ran through the three centuries of warfare.

It is important to appreciate that the hostilities between the White Christians and the mixed race Arabic/Semitic Muslims was initiated by the Nonwhites.

Just before the reign of the Frankish king Charlemagne, who died in 814 AD, Europe had suddenly been subjected to unprovoked, violent attack by the Nonwhite Muslim world.

MUSLIM ATTACKS

By 700 AD, Islamic armies had occupied North Africa and had destroyed what remained of the Gothic Vandal state.

The eastern shores of the Mediterranean, and most of Spain had been overrun by Islamic Nonwhite armies from the Saudi Arabian peninsula. Islamic armies established bases in Italy, and were closing in on Constantinople. On all fronts, the Muslims seemed unstoppable.

APPEAL FROM POPE URBAN II

The idea of the crusades started officially with a speech by Pope Urban II at Clermont in France in November 1095. The Pope spoke about the advance of Islam, and called for a great Christian expedition to free Jerusalem from the newest Muslim nation to occupy the Middle East and Asia Minor, the Seljuk Turks (who were also threatening Constantinople - the then Byzantine emperor, Alexius I, had called on Western Christendom for help). These Muslims had also started attacking Christian pilgrims traveling to Palestine to visit sites holy to their religion.

Pope Urban's message spread like a holy quest, and almost immediately the White nations started preparing for what was to become a three century long race war.

THE FIRST CRUSADE (1095 - 1099 AD)

The First Crusade had as its explicit aim the capture of the city of Jerusalem in Palestine from the Muslims. In this aim it was successful - and the White Christians managed to hang on to an outpost in Palestine for very nearly two hundred years before finally being driven out by the Muslims.

The First Crusade did not attract any kings and very few nobles - most were middle class French speakers - which was why Whites in Palestine were referred to as Franks.

The First Crusade suffered however from internal organizational problems - it had no leader, no formal arrangement with Constantinople and also little idea of what else to do apart from occupying Jerusalem. The different groups used different routes to get to Constantinople, the kick off place for the crusade - some went by sea, some by land. As they marched East, they attracted further supporters along the way.

By the time they got to Constantinople however, the wonder on the European faces must have been apparent - they appeared to have as little in common with the Byzantine Empire than with the Muslims, not only racially, but even in language. The Byzantine Christians did not recognize the Pope, spoke Greek instead of Latin and had distinctly Middle Eastern art and architectural forms.

Those Crusaders who marched overland from France also took the opportunity to wage an anti-Semitic pogrom at groups of Jews who had settled along the Rhine River, associating the Semites in France and Germania with the Semites they were marching against in Jerusalem.

Finally the various groups made their entrance to Constantinople - and then proceeded to march by foot across Turkey to Jerusalem. An army estimated to be between 25,000 and 30,000 strong went to war in what is today Syria, Lebanon and Israel.

THE SIEGE OF ANTIOCH - THE FIRST GREAT WHITE VICTORY

The city of Antioch, (now known as Antakya in Turkey) had been founded in 300 BC by Seleucus I, Alexander the Great's famous general who had established the Seleucid Kingdom of Syria. Under the Roman Empire, Antioch became the third most important city in the world, after Rome and Constantinople itself. The city however fell to the Nonwhite Islamics in 1085 AD.

Antioch lay on the path to Palestine - the Crusaders could not hope to take possession of the latter land without first taking the fortress of Antioch - and as such it became one of the earliest major targets for the White army.

As the Crusaders approached Antioch, the Muslim defenders under Turcoman Yagji-Shah started killing all the remaining Whites in the city, along with any Nonwhite Christians who had the misfortune to be present. This set the scene for the Battle of Antioch, and the White Crusaders repaid the Nonwhite Muslims in kind when they had the opportunity.

Antioch was a purpose built city fortress. The defenses had been built by the Roman Emperor Justinian and maintained by the Byzantines. The walls were immense, with four hundred towers so

spaced that every part of the wall was within bow shot. The final fortification was the citadel which rose 1000 feet above the city, a masterpiece of late Roman engineering.

Suffering deprivations of food and the inhospitable terrain, the White army settled down to a 15 month siege of the city. Fighting off two Muslim relief attempts, the Crusaders then managed to obtain supplies to build two forts, which they used to completely cut off all supply routes to the city.

Even so they could not break the city walls. Entrance was gained thanks to the treachery of an Armenian converted to Islam who was in charge of one of the towers. The Armenian let an advance party of Crusaders into the city who then opened the main gates for the rest of the White army.

By nightfall of 3 June 1099, the city was in White hands - and every Nonwhite who had foolishly remained behind in the city was dead. The first great victory of the Crusade had been won and the Crusaders then drew up their forces for their assault on their real target - Jerusalem itself.

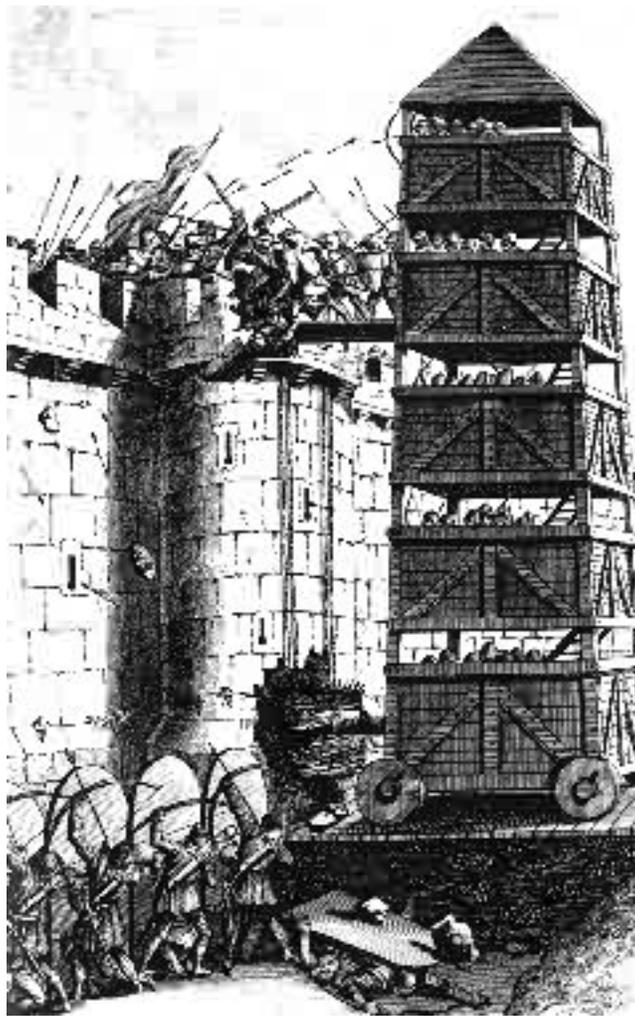
THE CAPTURE OF JERUSALEM

The city walls of Jerusalem had originally been built by the Roman Emperor Hadrian, and, like Antioch, had been improved upon and repaired by both the Byzantines and the newer Muslim occupiers of the city. The city's water supply was from the original Roman drainage system which was still working in the 20th Century.

The governor of Jerusalem, Iftikhar ad-Duala, was confident he could hold off the Crusaders until a relief army arrived from Islamic held Egypt. He had Arab and Sudanese troops defending the immense walls, and he had taken the precaution of poisoning all but one of the water wells outside the city walls before the White army arrived. That one well was in an exposed position in clear shot of the city walls. Many Whites were killed trying to draw water, as the Muslims had planned.

In addition to that, he had ejected all the Christian - White or Nonwhite - residents of the city, only allowing the Jews of Jerusalem to stay - a move which would have dire consequences for them.

The Crusaders started their siege of Jerusalem on 7 June 1099. Suffering terrible deprivations of food and water, they nonetheless kept up their assaults on the city, gradually wearing down the defenders despite the latter's stronger position. After several attempts to breach the walls with brute force and ladders, the Crusaders were supplied with building material and wood which they managed to scavenge for the surrounding sparsely vegetated countryside.



White knights laying siege to the city of Jerusalem during the First Crusade. After scavenging wood from the surrounding countryside, they built three siege towers, out of sight of the city's defenders, and used them in a night attack on the huge walls. The Muslims were astounded to see the siege towers, built as they were out of the very basic materials available on the spot.

Finally three siege towers were built - out of sight of the besieged city's Nonwhite garrison - and wheeled into place on the night of 13 July, to the recorded great astonishment of the city's defenders. Some 13,000 White soldiers then stormed the walls, suffering heavy losses. At last on midday of the 14th July, after over 16 hours of non stop fighting, a part of the wall was taken. With a breach secured, ordinary ladders were then used to pour men over the wall, and into the city itself.

Seeing the defenses collapse, the defenders retreated into the citadel, but the small surviving Muslim garrison negotiated the terms of their surrender - which included safe passage out of the city. They were the only Muslims to survive the fall of Jerusalem - the Crusaders, overjoyed and enraged at the same time for having at last won the city after so much suffering, proceeded to slaughter every Muslim they could find, men, women and children alike. According to the account of one Crusader, Raymond of Aguilers, the next morning when he went to visit the Temple area he had to work his way through corpses and blood that reached his knees.

The Jews had in the interim fled to their main synagogue. Accusing them of aiding the Nonwhite Muslims - an accusation that had fact to it - the Crusaders showed the Jews no mercy. The synagogue was burnt down with every single Jew in Jerusalem dying in the inferno.

GODFREY OF BOUILLON - THE NORDIC KING OF JERUSALEM

The Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem was then established under two Frankish nobles, Godfrey of Bouillon, and his brother Baldwin. In addition, three other states were founded: the County of Tripoli, in modern Lebanon; the Principality of Antioch, in modern Syria; and the County of Edessa, in modern northern Syria and southern Turkey.

However, the Crusader states did not try to change the population make-up of the region by enforced migration or expulsion - nor did they even try to convert the natives. So it was that the first European colonies were created: ironically in the areas where once their now very distant racial cousins had once walked.

THE SECOND CRUSADE (1147 - 1148 AD) - MILITARY FAILURE

The First Crusade's success stunned the Muslims, built as it was on a combination of zeal and luck. Maintaining the Crusader states was more difficult - the foremost problem facing the White colonists was that they were completely dependent on White European recruits to man the forts and emplacements, surrounded as they were in a sea of dark Muslim faces.

Finally in 1144, Islamic armies stormed a major city, Edessa, on the Euphrates River. The Muslim world had announced its counter attack, and the Second Crusade was called by Pope Eugenius III. This time a large number of Christian sovereigns themselves joined the crusade - the German Holy Roman Emperor Conrad III and France's King Louis VII.

Conrad made the mistake of choosing the land route from Constantinople to Palestine, and a Muslim attack in Turkey destroyed his army. Louis' army was also the victim of numerous Muslim attacks, and although depleted, was the only major force to actually reach Jerusalem in 1148. An attempt to attack the city of Damascus was made - it failed and the French army gave up and returned home.

Following the failure of the Second Crusade, the Muslim armies launched a renewed assault on Jerusalem, capturing the city in 1187. So ended the Second Crusade - with heavy White casualties and military failure in the Middle East itself.

However, in what was later to become a pattern, the White English army, which had originally meant to take part in the crusade, stopped in what is now Portugal and instead attacked the Muslim occupied city of Lisbon, helping to drive out the Moors from northern Portugal. This was significant as it showed that the Crusades were now a war against Nonwhite Islamics anywhere they could be found - not specifically against Muslims in Jerusalem.

Various holy orders of knights who took part in the Crusades were formed. The most famous being the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, called Hospitalers, and the Poor Knights of Christ and of the Temple of Solomon, called Templars.

THE THIRD CRUSADE (1189 - 1192 AD)

The failure of the Second Crusade caused a new crusade to be planned. Three White Christian kings announced their personal intentions of joining the fray: Richard I, the Lion-Hearted of England; Philip II of France; and Frederick I, called Frederick Barbarossa, the Holy Roman Emperor. Frederick Barbarossa, old and famous, died in 1189 on the way to Palestine and most of his army returned to Germany following his death. Philip II and his army returned in 1191, not having achieved any significant military successes - only Richard remained to do battle with the Nonwhites.

The Third Crusade failed however to take Jerusalem, instead seizing a number of cities along the Mediterranean coast. When Richard left the Middle East in 1192, a large part of Palestine - with the exception of Jerusalem - was back in Christian hands.



An illustration from a medieval manuscript showing Saladin wresting the cross from King Richard during the Third Crusade.

THE FOURTH CRUSADE (1201 - 1204)

Despite the exploits of Richard and the Third Crusade becoming legendary, the city of Jerusalem was never to be retaken by force of arms - only by diplomacy. This was despite Pope Innocent III calling for another crusade in 1199 to recapture Jerusalem.

This Fourth Crusade fell apart however before it began. The ruler of Venice agreed to transport French and Flemish Crusaders to Palestine - for a fee. Unable to pay this fee, the Crusaders struck a deal with the Venetians - they would help the Venetians to attack one of the city state's rivals, Zara, a Hungarian trading port on the Adriatic Sea, in return for passage to Palestine.

When Innocent III learned of the deal, he excommunicated the Crusaders - but the combined Venetian/French/Flemish force captured Zara in 1202. Unleashed of obligation to serve Rome, the Fourth Crusade turned into a free-for-all, with the participants finally attacking Constantinople, with which they had as little in common as with Jerusalem.

The city fell on 13 April 1204, and for three days the Crusaders sacked the city. The Latin Empire of Constantinople was established, which lasted until the recapture of Constantinople by the Byzantine emperor in 1261. This Fourth Crusade - which was completely diverted away from its original purpose - also saw the creation of several new Crusader states in Greece and along the Black Sea.

THE CHILDREN'S CRUSADE (1212) - RESULTS IN SLAVERY FOR CHILDREN

Although not formally listed by historians as one of the seven crusades, the Children's Crusade was nevertheless a pathetic attempt by approximately 30,000 White children to conquer the so called "holy land" of Palestine after the failure of the Fourth Crusade.

Believing that the Christian God would not abandon them, the youths Stephen of Vendrone (France) and Nicholas of Cologne (Germany) organized a crusade of children to save the "holy land" - this crusade never reached further than the southern Mediterranean coast when most of the children - all under the age of 18 - were captured and sold into slavery by Arabic pirates.

The Children's Crusade stands as one of the worst blots on the book of Christianity, along with the civil wars of the reformation era.

THE FIFTH CRUSADE (1228 - 1229)

The German Holy Roman Emperor, Frederick II, undertook to start a new Crusade in 1215, but domestic political reasons caused him to delay the start. Finally he sailed from Italy in 1227, but sickness caused him to return to port after a few days.

The Pope promptly excommunicated him for the continual delays. Despite this snub, Frederick sailed for Palestine in 1228 once again. Instead of fighting, Frederick landed his impressive army and through a combination of negotiations and blackmail with his army standing ready, actually managed to negotiate a peace treaty with the Muslims. In terms of this treaty, Jerusalem was returned to the Christians and a ten year cessation of hostilities was agreed.

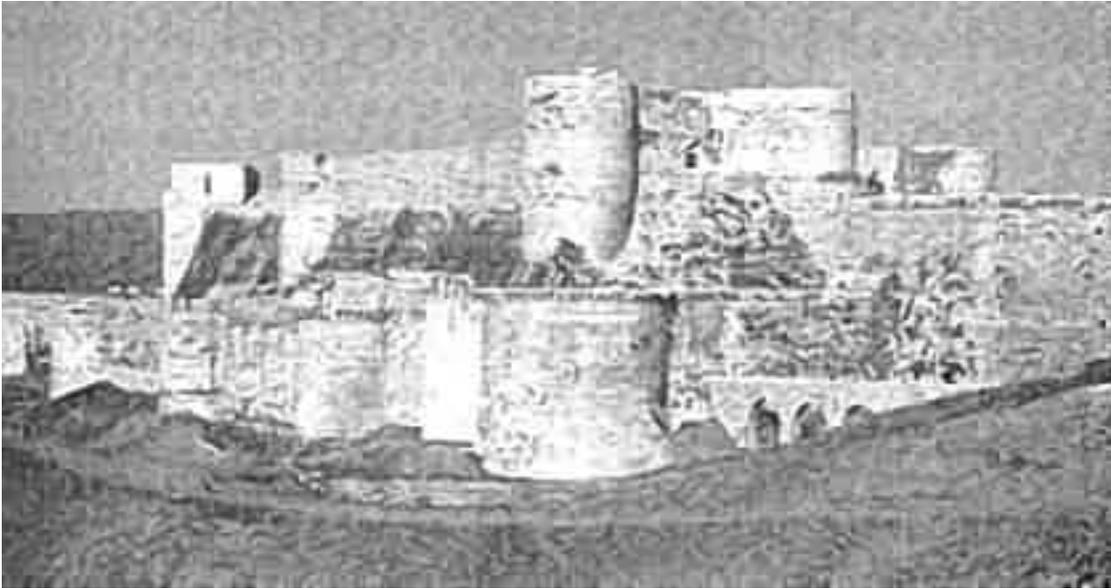
THE SIXTH CRUSADE (1248 - 1254) - LOST BY FLOOD

In 1248 King Louis IX of France undertook a personal six year long crusade. The center of Muslim power had by now shifted to Egypt and Louis went straight there: any Muslim settlement anywhere was now fair game. Louis landed in Egypt in 1249 and quickly captured a significant beachhead in that country.

In 1250, he launched an attack on Cairo itself - and was badly defeated - not by force of arms, but by the Nile River irrigation system first invented by the very first great White Egyptian King, Menes, thousands of years previously. Waiting until the French army was in a vulnerable position, the Muslims opened the sluice gates, creating an artificial flood which trapped Louis, forcing him to surrender.

After paying a huge ransom and surrendering his beachhead on the Egyptian coast, the Muslims let Louis go free. He then went to Palestine and for the next four years spent his time building

fortifications before returning to France in 1254.



A Crusader built castle - Krak des Chevalier in Syria, mid 12th century. The Crusaders' failure to majority populate the areas they conquered with their own racial kind led to their disappearance in a very short while - so that now only their vast empty buildings stand as monuments to the spirit and heroism of the times.

THE SEVENTH CRUSADE (1270)

Louis was however clearly unhappy with his disastrous expedition to Egypt, and in 1270 he organized the last crusade. Raising a smaller army than before, Louis proceeded to launch an attack on the Muslim stronghold in Tunisia on the north African coast, at the site of the ancient city of Carthage. The Crusade was proceeding as planned when all of a sudden Louis died of natural causes in Tunisia - his army then lost the will to fight and returned to France.

The Crusader states established in the Muslim world did not last long. Hopelessly outnumbered in a sea of Nonwhite foes, they were quickly reduced in size to a few major fortifications, and then finally the last major fort city, Acre, was overrun by Islamic armies in 1291.

THE AFTER EFFECTS OF THE CRUSADES

On a strict military level the Crusades were a failure and did not dislodge the Muslims from anywhere except in northern Portugal. However, this is an unfair dismissal of the efforts of the White nations who took part in the wars. The obstacles they had to overcome were formidable - vast distances, their total reliance on soldiers recruited voluntarily from mainland Europe, combined with the extremely poor communications and supply routes of the time; makes the fact that they were able to launch expeditions of this nature so far from home, a remarkable achievement all by itself.

The Crusades also had the effect of adding to the fervor to expel the Muslim Nonwhite occupiers of Spain from the European continent - something which was finally achieved in just under 150 years after the last Crusade.

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CHAPTER 22 : LESSONS IN DECLINE -

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL - Part I

Spain and Portugal are two countries in western Europe which have both been marked by phases of great wealth and power and then decline - the classic characteristics of the rise and fall of civilizations.

Bearing in mind the lessons already plain from the ancient civilizations, it is therefore easy to look for the population shifts which as always, closely track the rise and fall of all civilizations which have declined.

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As to be expected, with both Spain and Portugal, the population changes are also evident - and are also directly linked to the leading and then reduced roles these nations have played in not only White history, but also of world history.

SPAIN

FIRST INHABITANTS

The first inhabitants of the Iberian peninsula were the Old European peoples, who established a Neolithic, or farming culture in the region.

The next people to enter the Iberian peninsula after it had been settled by the Neolithic Old Europeans were the Semitic/Indo-European /Old European mix known as the Phoenicians, who had established trading posts on the southern coast of Spain prior to 1000 BC, working from their base in the city they founded in North Africa, Carthage. The Spanish towns of Cadiz, Malaga and Cordoba all date from this time.

Then the first pure Indo-Europeans arrived around 600 BC, when the Classical Greeks established colonies in the north eastern part of Spain. They later expanded southwards down into the modern day town of Valencia.

CELTS ARRIVE - CIRCA 500 BC

Around 500 BC, Indo-European invaders from central Europe, the Celts, first crossed the Pyrenees mountains and settled in the western and northern parts of Spain. Later other groups of Celts overran even larger areas of Spain. All of this time the new arrivals had been slowly intermarrying with the original populations they had found.

Subsequently a number of these people - mixtures of Celts, Greeks, Old Europeans and Phoenicians, moved north into southern France, forming today what is known as Gascony.



Evidence of the Gothic Nordics in Spain: Two fine examples of extreme Nordic racial types which made up the population of the Iberian peninsula after the second great Indo-European invasion of that territory. Left: The famous 'Lady of the Elche' circa 400 BC, Madrid; and right, Count Colonna, a Spanish general. (Engraving by Van Dyck).

One of the original Old European peoples to have remained largely unaffected by the racial comings and goings were the Basques in the north. Surrounded by mountains, the Basques avoided the integration process and their language represents one of the few surviving examples of the original Old European tongue. The Basques also retain to a certain degree the "dark" racial look of the Old European population.

CARTHAGE OCCUPIES CADIZ AND FOUNDS BARCELONA

In 480 BC, an army from the originally Phoenician founded city of Carthage in North Africa (Tunisia) was sent to help put down a local uprising in the town of Cadiz, a city which had retained close links with Carthage from the earliest times. The Carthaginian army never left Cadiz, and went on to

establish Carthaginian control over large parts of Spain.

After the first Punic War between Rome and Carthage in 237 BC, the Carthaginians strengthened their bases in Spain, founding the cities of Cartagena and Barcelona. The Nordic Carthaginian general Hannibal used Spain as a jumping off place for his great invasion of Italy. The ultimate defeat of Carthage at the end of the Punic Wars saw all the Carthaginian colonies in Spain surrendered to Roman rule. It took 75 years for the Romans to finally establish strict control over all the Iberians, but after that they were to remain masters of Spain for the next five centuries. During this time the Romans were to create many of their long lasting architectural structures - the magnificent aqueduct at Segovia, which after 1,800 years still carries that town's water supplies, is a prime example.

SEPHARDIC JEWS

Spain, like many other areas in the Mediterranean Roman Empire, lay open to immigration from other parts of the Middle East, and after the Diaspora of the Jews in AD 70, many Jews fleeing along the North African coast crossed the Straits of Gibraltar into Spain, becoming an established minority in that country. These were the Sephardim, or Sephardic Jews. As with Jewish communities everywhere, anti-Semitism followed them, with Spain being no exception.

NEW INDO-EUROPEAN INVASIONS - ALANS AND VANDALS

Roman rule in Spain was only ended in 409 AD when bands of Germanics: the Alans, the Vandals, the Suebians and others, crossed the Pyrenees and overthrew the Romanised Spaniards, setting up their own kingdoms.

These Indo-European invaders were followed in quick order by an invasion of Visigoths under their leader Adolf (brother in law of Alaric, the Goth who had sacked Rome in 410 AD). The Visigoths quickly routed everyone in Spain, and established an empire in that country which included a portion of southern France as well. The first Visigoth capital was established in the modern French town of Toulouse.

Although the Visigoths had subdued the Vandals and Suebians, relations between the latter two groups preceded to worsen over a number of domestic issues, and the two tribes went to war with each other around 420 AD.

The Vandals then started moving south, giving their name to the region known as Andalusia (from Vandalusia) and finally, in 429 AD, an 80,000 strong contingent of Vandals crossed the straits of Gibraltar and seized the old Roman province of Africa (Tunisia and parts of Algeria - the old Carthaginian state).

VISIGOTH KINGDOM

The Visigoths, who were later to be strengthened by the arrival of the remnants of the Ostrogoths (who had been decimated by the advancing Huns) then reasserted their dominance in Spain, and set up a formal Gothic Christian kingdom in Spain which lasted from around 460 AD to 711 AD. The first Spanish Gothic king was Euric - son of Theodoric, one of Atilla the Hun's great adversaries.

MIXED MARRIAGES PROHIBITED - GOTHIC LAW

One of the first laws which the Gothic kingdom in Spain established was a ban on all mixed marriages. Goths were only allowed to marry Goths, and punishment for violating this ban was burning at the stake.

This overtly racial law kept the intermixing of Goths with all others to an absolute minimum - and particularly with the growing Jewish population.

Gothic Spain settled down into a period of relative peace and resultant prosperity, with the only discordant note being sounded by the large Jewish population.

Partly because of a fanatic Christianizing zeal (which was common to all early Christians), partly because of Jewish domination of the Spanish financial world, and partly because of the exclusivity and separation which the Jewish religion gave to the Jews, ill feeling between the Christian Goths and Jews in Spain reached a height which had not been seen since the time of the Roman Jewish war of 550 years previously.

CONVERSOS - JEWS FORCED TO BAPTISM

In 620 AD, the Spanish Gothic king, Sisbert, ordered 80,000 Jews to be baptized as Christians in an attempt to break Judaism in Spain. This was the start of the Conversos - Spanish Jews who publicly espoused Christianity but in secret kept up Jewish traditions. They were also known by the less complimentary name of Marranos - "pigs".

Although the 80,000 Jews baptized by Sisbert remained in Spain, about an equal number left Spain for other parts of Europe to escape the growing anti-Semitic feeling in Iberia. Their departure was not a moment too soon - 53 years later, in 673 AD, another Spanish Gothic king, Wamba, formally expelled all Jews from Spain who would not convert to Christianity.

Wamba's immediate predecessor, king Recesuinto, had taken a step which was to have far reaching consequences - he abolished the long standing ban on mixed marriages, replacing it with a law stating that anyone of Christian beliefs was allowed to marry anyone else of similar beliefs. Henceforth the only ban on intermarriage would be on religious grounds, not racial.

This step allowed any person of any racial origin, as long as they professed Christianity, to intermarry and mix with the Goths. In this way the first steps were taken that would lead towards the dissolution of the Gothic tribe in Spain.

NONWHITE MUSLIMS INVADE SPAIN - 711 AD

In 711 AD, the Nonwhite Muslim invasion finally reached Spain, having swept up out of the Saudi-Arabian peninsula, conquered Egypt, Libya, Tunisia and North Africa to the Gibraltar Strait.

Launching a ferocious assault across the narrow strait, the Muslims defeated the Gothic kingdom in

stages and managed to establish what became known as Moorish rule over the greatest part of Spain and Portugal, with only the very northern parts remaining in Gothic hands.

RECONQUEST - 700 YEARS LATER

The period of reconquest of Spain by the White Goths made up yet another great race war in Europe, a duel fought to the death which finally ended in 1492 AD when the last Moorish citadel, Granada in the south, surrendered to the White armies. (The full story and implications of the Moor/White race war in Spain is told in a following chapter). The reconquest of Spain from the Moors was ended with a general expulsion of all Jews who had not converted to Catholicism.

The prominent position held by many Jews in the Moorish administration of occupied Spain and their record of collaboration with the Moors was a significant factor in inciting anti-Jewish feeling of the time.



Muslim cavalry come face to face with White knights in this illustration from a manuscript dating from 1337. Lightly armed Muslims such as these were no match for the heavily armored White soldiers, although clashes were by no means as uneven as this picture suggests. Ultimately the Whites in Spain gained the upper hand over the Muslim invaders, although it took 700 years to drive the last Islamic invader off the European continent.

EXPULSION OF 250,000 MIXED RACE PEOPLES BY PHILIP II

The Moors had occupied Spain for over 700 years, so it was inevitable that they would have mixed with the local population over whom they ruled.

In this way a not insignificant amount of Moorish - in reality mixed race Arabic/Black - blood entered a few Spanish families in the southernmost parts of Spain and Portugal.

The Gothic Spaniards did however recognize this as an issue, and in 1609, the Spanish king, Philip

III, ordered the physical expulsion of some 250,000 "Moriscos" or Christianized Moors from the country, purely on the basis of their race and not their religion - a marked difference to the earlier expulsion of the Jews, who, if genuinely converted to Catholicism, were allowed to stay.

The vast majority of these Christianized Moors were in reality of mixed race - part Moorish, part White Spanish (hence their adherence to Christianity).

This remarkable example of the expulsion on racial grounds was a major reason why the infusion of Moorish blood into Spain was not as significant as it could have been, and thus played only a minor contributing role in the creation of the dark looks for which some Spaniards are still known today.

SPANISH INQUISITION AND FINAL EXPULSION OF THE JEWS

In 1478 AD, the Spanish king and queen, Ferdinand and Isabella, launched what became famous throughout the world as the Spanish Inquisition - in theory an attempt to enforce religious uniformity, but in reality a political tool through which the Spanish tried to drive out the last of the Conversos, making it into a primarily anti-Jewish campaign.

However, all sorts of "heretics" - people who disputed the Catholic version of Christianity, were also persecuted, with approximately 2,000 people being burned at the stake during the time of the Inquisition.

Finally in 1492 AD, the Spanish expelled all the Jews from Spain who had still not converted to Christianity.

SPAIN'S GOLDEN AGE - RULED BY "BLUE BLOOD"

Although a certain amount of mixing with the Moors in Southern Spain had taken place, by the time of the expulsion of the last Moors from Spain, the majority of Whites had not mixed with the Muslim invaders, and remained true to their Gothic lineage, absorbing only a number of Sephardic Jews who had truly converted to Catholicism.

The very expression "blue blood" comes from Spain of this time - the ruling Visigoth nobles had such white skins that the blue arteries were visible on their faces, creating the expression of blue blood and its link to nobility which has lasted to this day.

A series of calculated steps were then taken by the re-established and vigorous Gothic kingdom which led directly to the Golden Age of Spain. The Spanish word for gentleman, hildago, in fact means literally the "son of the Goth" and the great Spanish rulers Ferdinand and Isabella, who led the liberation from Moorish rule, were both red headed Goths.

THE AMERICAS

In 1492, the Lombard Germanic Christopher Columbus succeeded in persuading the Spanish royalty that the earth was indeed round (as had been predicted by the ancient Indo-European Greeks and reconfirmed by the Roman-Greek astronomers at Alexandria around the year 200 BC) and that he

could sail to the then newly discovered continent of India by sailing west instead of east, as the other European nations were doing.

Financed by the Spanish court, Columbus sailed west, discovering not a new path to India but instead finding Central America. So convinced was he that he had in fact found India, that the native peoples discovered in the Americas were even called Indians, a name which has stuck to this day.

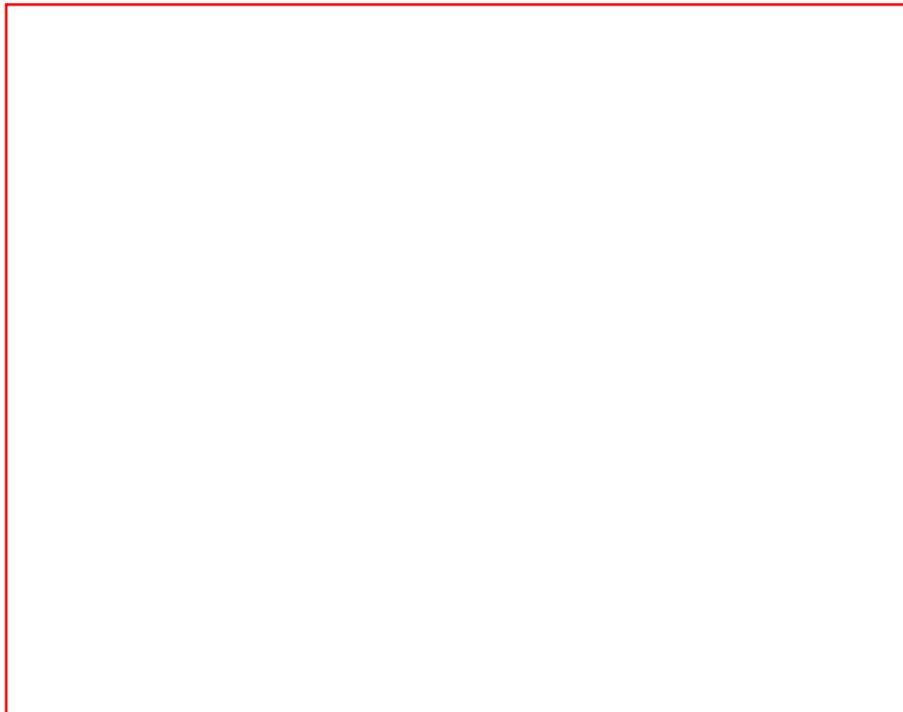
Columbus' voyages were followed by Spain's expansion into the Americas and by the 1550s Spain controlled most of South America, Central America, Florida, Cuba, and, in Asia, the Philippine Islands. This empire brought enormous wealth to Spain, and it became a major power in Europe.

THE SPANISH EMPIRE GROWS

By 1516, through a series of royal family connections and outright conquest, Spain controlled southern Italy, the Netherlands and Burgundy in France, with the Spanish king being elected "Holy Roman emperor" by the Pope, an attempt by the Catholic Church to cast itself as the successor to the Classical Roman Empire.

In 1580, the King of Portugal died and the Spanish and Portuguese thrones were united due to a family connection. Portuguese resentment was placated by a number of self rule concessions. The addition of Portugal to Spain meant not only the acquisition of the Portuguese colonial possessions, but also of the vast numbers of Black slaves that Portugal was dealing in, both at home and abroad.

The addition of the Portuguese colonial possession to Spain's already substantial colonies created that was the largest empire in the world at the time.



Action stations aboard a Spanish warship during the eventful battle off the English coast in 1588 which saw a large invasion fleet defeated by the English navy after an epic three day engagement. Note the close quarters of

EUROPEAN WARS

The spread of the Protestant rebellion amongst Christians in Spain led the still heavily pro-Catholic state to start persecuting these new "heretics" as well. This, combined with the attempts to hold onto the Protestant Netherlands led directly to war with newly Protestant England, which ultimately led in turn to the famous Thirty Years War, which was followed by war with France in 1635.

The Spanish armada, a great fleet sent to conquer the English, was dramatically defeated by superior British organization. It was a defeat, which, combined with the effects of the colonial policy and the demographic shift in Spain itself, from which the once mighty Goths were not to recover.

COLONIAL POLICY AND THE IMPORTATION OF BLACK SLAVES - IN EXCESS OF 1 MILLION

Spanish colonial policy was different from colonial policies being pursued by other White nations in Europe (with the exception of Portugal, which followed the Spanish example).

Instead of colonizing their acquisitions with millions of their own people, the Spanish used their colonial possessions purely as economic resources. Spanish men who went to South America, the Caribbean or even North America, did not take families or Spanish women with them.

The result was a massive degree of mixing with the local populations in the Spanish colonies, producing an overwhelmingly mixed race population still prevalent in Central and Southern America.

In addition to this, the Spaniards, like most other European nations, became users of Black slaves in its colonies - millions of Blacks were imported to South and Central America, adding a further dimension to the racial mix in those territories.

However, also in common with Portugal and again differing with the other European nations, a huge number of Black slaves were imported into Spain itself.

Although it has never been established what were the exact numbers of Black slaves imported into Spain, the figure was certainly in excess of one million. Almost all of these Blacks from deepest Africa were then absorbed into Spain, significantly altering vast numbers of the Spanish population.

The infusion of this huge number of Black slaves into the Spanish population finally created the very dark element in Spanish society to this day, quite incorrectly referred to as part of the "Mediterranean" population of that country.

It would however be incorrect to class every single Spaniard with this same brush - many Spaniards did not mix with either the Moors or the Black slaves. These people remained strongest in the north of Spain.



Spain: the racial divisions emerge. This famous painting by El Greco, (1548 -1614), "Saint Martin and the Beggar", is a vivid depiction of the emerging division of Spain into those who had mixed with the Nonwhite Muslims and those who had not. Saint Martin is portrayed as completely White: the beggar is clearly of mixed race. Insets compare the faces of the two characters in this painting.

SPAIN'S DECLINE AS A GREAT POWER FOLLOWS MISCEGENATION

The change in the racial face of Spain, combined with its disastrous European wars, brought about

that country's decline as a great power, perfectly in line with the law that societies create cultures in the image of their populations, and change those societal norms as their populations change.

Spain is a significant example of this principle, because, like Italy after the Lombard German invasion, that country essentially became a bi-racial nation: White in the North, with a gradually darkening population to the south.

By 1648, Spain had been so weakened that it conceded Dutch independence in that year. French provinces were handed back to France in 1659, and Portugal was once again granted independence in 1668.

FURTHER SPANISH WARS

In 1701, the Austrian and French royal families, the Habsburgs and Bourbons both claimed the Spanish throne, leading to the War of the Spanish Succession, which involved much of Europe until 1713. The enfeebled Spanish empire was divided up amongst the other European nations - its European possessions went to Austria, and the Spanish throne and the majority of the overseas empire was given to France.

The French Revolution of 1789 and inter-European upheavals led to Spain's conquest by Napoleon Bonaparte. Installing his brother as Spanish king, Napoleon turned Spain into little more than a French province.

With its own population effectively divided into White and Nonwhite and ruled by the French, Spain was not able to hold what remained of its former glory together. The South American colonies began to win their independence - only Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Philippines and Guam remaining under nominal Spanish rule by the late 1800s.

THE FIRST REPUBLIC - 1868 AD

With the defeat of Napoleon in 1814, the Spanish royal family reclaimed the throne, but the country continued to be in disarray. A civil war erupted, ending in 1868 when the first republic of Spain was declared and the Spanish royal family deposed. Anarchy followed, and a counter revolution by a group of generals restored the monarchy in 1874.

Spain then lost its last overseas possessions after a revolt in Cuba, which was supported by the United States of America, resulted in the American-Spanish war of 1898. Spain was easily routed in this conflict, and was forced to cede Puerto Rico, Guam and the Philippines to America.

WORLD WAR ONE AND THE SECOND REPUBLIC

Spain remained neutral during the First World War fought from 1914 to 1918, but still suffered severe social, political and economic chaos, with its mixed race population continually reproducing faster than the White elements, thereby exponentially increasing their proportion of the population.

Political unrest then led to the voluntary exile of the Spanish king in 1931 and the declaration of the

second republic of Spain in that year.



General Francisco Franco, victor in the Spanish civil war, albeit with significant German and Italian help. Although widely dismissed as a Fascist or a Nazi, he was in fact neither, merely an old style autocrat. Part Jewish, he refused to join Hitler during the Second World War, and was not averse to using Nonwhite troops if it suited him. His invasion of Spain, which started the Spanish Civil War, was launched from North Africa using Arab troops under his command. It was merely the anti-Communism of his political position and the possibility of a military exercise which persuaded Hitler and Mussolini to lend his forces assistance.



Above: A photograph of Nonwhite Moors (center) serving in Franco's army, here pictured at the battle of Navercaerno during the Civil War, 1936. Franco in fact launched his invasion of Republican Spain from a Spanish colony in North Africa, initially using virtually only Moorish troops such as these. Below: Communist Republican soldiers surrender to Franco's Nationalist soldiers during the Spanish civil war, 1936.



FRANCO USES MOORISH TROOPS

The second republic was however short lived. A military revolt in 1936 developed into a full scale civil war between supporters of the Republic - mostly Communists - and Spanish nationalists.

The Communists received material aid from the Communist International and material aid from the Soviet Union. In turn the nationalists received material aid from the leading anti-Communist powers of

the time, Fascist Italy under Benito Mussolini and Nazi Germany under Adolf Hitler.

Finally as a direct result of German military intervention in the Spanish civil war, the Nationalists under general Francisco Franco overwhelmed the Communists. Due to the assistance given to Franco by Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy, Franco has long been classed as a fascist.

In fact he was neither a fascist or a Nazi. Part Jewish, Franco had initiated his attack on the Communist republic from across the Straits of Gibraltar with an army composed initially of Black Spanish soldiers, an indication of not only the racially integrated nature of Spanish society, but also of Franco's antipathy towards any racial politics.

For these reasons Franco refused to enter the Second World War on Hitler's side, as was widely expected, thereby keeping the Straits of Gibraltar open for the Allies, a move that was to prove crucial in the conduct of the war.

After the Second World War many countries associated Spain with the Nazis, and the Franco government went into a period of isolation. However, the growth of the conflict between the Soviet Union and the Capitalist west under the leadership of the United States (called the Cold War because it never broke out into a direct or "hot" war), Spain became to be regarded as an ally against Communism, and by 1955 the country's isolation had been broken and Spain was finally admitted to the United Nations.

Spain's history since then has been unremarkable: in 1975, Franco died and the country became a constitutional democratic monarchy in 1977. This did not satisfy the still independence minded Basques in the north of the country, some of whom continue to wage a violent guerrilla war, mostly without any political success.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 23 : THE THIRD GREAT RACE WAR - THE MOORS INVADE EUROPE

The invasion of Western Europe by a Nonwhite Muslim army after 711 AD, very nearly extinguished modern White Europe - certainly the threat was no less serious than the Hunnish invasion which had earlier created so much chaos. While the Huns were Asiatics, the Moors were a mixed race invasion - part Arabic, part Black and part mixed race, always easily distinguishable from the Visigothic Whites of Spain.

Although the Muslim armies were collectively known as the Moors or Saracens, they were in fact divided up into their own factions. Nonetheless, together they very nearly conquered all of Spain, and were only turned back from occupying all of Western Europe by a desperate White counter attack in France. The story of this seven hundred year long race war is without doubt one of the most arduous ever fought by the Whites in defense of their continent.

By 709 AD, the Muslim armies had conquered all of northern Africa and stood on the southern side of the Straits of Gibraltar, with only the Visigothic fortress of Ceuta, situated on the African side of the straits of Gibraltar, still remaining in White hands.



The Muslims driven out of Spain: the black portions indicate the extent of Nonwhite Moorish rule.

WHITE SPAIN INVADED

In 711 AD, Ceuta fell to the Moors and immediately a Moorish fleet sailed across the strait and seized a beachhead on Andalusia in Spain, their first territory on the European mainland.

The Spanish Gothic king of the time, Roderic, rushed an army south and engaged the Moors in a three day battle at Xeres. The Moors won, and the Gothic Spaniards were forced to retreat, giving the Moors time to land a seemingly inexhaustible supply of soldiers from the population wells of North Africa.

Soon the Moors had assembled a massive army and within a few months had conquered most of Gothic Spain.

THE TRIBUTE OF 100 WHITE VIRGINS PER YEAR

Only isolated pockets of Gothic resistance held out. In the north an enclave only secured its existence by being forced to enter a treaty with the Moors in terms of which the Goths had to hand over 100 White Gothic virgins a

year to the Moorish leaders for use in their harems - a painful tribute which continued until 791 AD, when the Goths once enough became strong enough to break the terms of the treaty.



A dramatic painting - based on actual events - showing Moors celebrating the fall of a White Spanish town, with White females captured alive. For several years the Moors demanded - and received - a yearly tribute of young White girls for use in their harems after the great Moorish victory of 711. This yearly tribute continued until 791 AD when the Whites had recovered their strength enough to break the terms of a treaty with the Nonwhites.

THE MOORS ATTACK FRANCE

The Moors did however not rest with the conquest of Spain. Their Holy War, or Jihad, forced them ever on, and in 722, they crossed the Pyrenees and invaded Gothic Gaul, seizing several towns in the south of that country.

Ten years later, in 732, they launched what was to be their final bid to overcome all of Western Europe when a massive army under the command of the Moorish governor of Spain, Abd arRahman, began laying waste to large parts of Frankish and Gothic France.

The Goths in Aquitaine, under their leader Eudes, were defeated at Garonne, and they were forced back into central France, carrying with them news of the frightful and merciless Moorish invasion.

CHARLES MARTEL SAVES EUROPE - 732 AD

France had, since the fall of the Roman Empire, been consolidated under a leading Celtic/Indo-European tribe called the Franks, who were based in the region surrounding present day Paris. The Frankish king at the time of the Moorish invasion, Charles Martel, (Charles the Hammer) immediately mobilized a White counter attack.

The armies of Charles Martel and Abd arRahman met in battle between the towns of Tours and Potiers in central France in October 732. The battle was one of the most momentous in the history of the White race. Defeat would have meant that all of Western Europe might have fallen under the sway of Islam, and the mixed races from the east would have poured into continental Europe.



The Nonwhite Moorish advance into Europe seemed unstoppable when in 732 AD they launched a massive invasion of present day France. The king of the leading White tribe in that country, Charles Martel of the Franks (who had their headquarters in present day Paris) mobilized a counter attack. A great race battle took place between the towns of Tours and Poitiers in central France in October 732 AD. The battle was one of the most momentous in the history of the White race. Defeat would have meant that all of Western Europe might have fallen under the sway of Islam, and the mixed races from the east would have poured into continental Europe. Accounts have it that 375,000 Moors were killed - the White army was utterly victorious over the Nonwhite army and the Moorish invasion of Europe was halted in its tracks. Charles Martel earned his name -Martel means 'hammer' - at this battle - he personally bludgeoned to death a large number of Nonwhites with his favorite weapon, a mighty hammer.

An epic seven day battle for Europe followed. One medieval account states that 375,000 Moors were killed. Although this is probably an exaggeration, it does indicate the way the battle went - the Nonwhite army was utterly defeated by the White army.

In the first six days of the battle, the archers and cavalry of the Moors seemed to have the advantage, but on the seventh day the main body of fighting closed to hand to hand combat. Here the greater physical stature of the Germanics counted more - with the Frankish King Charles earning the name "hammer" at this battle in recognition of the mighty and fatal strokes with which he personally killed dozens, if not hundreds, of Moors.

Having failed to break the Germanic lines in the hand to hand combat, the Moorish alliance retreated, and their multi-racial and ethnic origin showed up its weakest point - the units, comprising men made up from Arabia, Africa, and parts of Asia, were stunned by their first major defeat and broke up in disarray, each blaming the other, giving victory to the Germanics who never actually pierced the Moorish lines.

The Moors fled south of the Pyrenees back into Spain, and awaited the Frankish drive south which would drive them back into Africa.

This did not come - Charles Martel had exhausted the wealth of the Frankish empire in drawing together an army big enough to defeat the Moors. He was forced to seize a portion of the Church's wealth, an act for which the Christians condemned him strongly, even though if he had failed, Christianity would have been replaced by

Islam.

Charles Martel's greatest achievement was the defeat of the Muslim invasion of France. This single act prevented the mixed race Arabs and North Africans from penetrating right into Western Europe and turning it into another Middle East - Charles Martel can truly be credited with saving the Whites of Western Europe from destruction at that point in history.

FURTHER FRANKISH CAMPAIGNS AGAINST THE MOORS

In 755, a local invasion by Franks conquered the town of Narbonne from the Moors, and after a further six years the last Moors were driven out of all of modern France.

In 778, Charles the Great (also known as Charlemagne, Charles Martel's grandson), undertook a campaign in northern Spain which recaptured much of the territory north of the Ebo river.

It was during the withdrawal of the Frankish army at the successful conclusion of this campaign that a rearguard unit of Franks under the command of Charlemagne's nephew, Roland, was ambushed and slaughtered by the Basques (who opposed the Arabs, Goths and Franks with equal vigor).

The desperate fight to the death became part of French folklore, today reflected in the famous Chanson de Roland - the song of Roland.

THE WHITE RECONQUEST

During the period of Muslim dominance in Spain, a few regions managed to hold out against the Arabs even at their height. In this way Barcelona was never occupied by the Arabs, as were some northern regions.

These regions banded together in a broad anti-Muslim alliance, and began pushing south, slowly but surely driving the Muslims back.

This was a painfully slow process and lasted many hundreds of years - more than enough time for a certain amount of mixing between parts of the White population and the Arab rulers to have taken place, helping to create the "dark" Spanish look which can be seen amongst many inhabitants of Spain today.

This mixing process in Spain was, as in Greece and Rome, not as complete as in the regions of North Africa or the Middle East, and large numbers of Whites remained intact on the European side of the Mediterranean.

However, enough Arabic blood was mixed with the locals in the southernmost parts of Europe that the distinctive dark look, which is today mistakenly called the "Mediterranean" look, is the lasting evidence of the Muslim invasion.

ISABELLA AND FERDINAND - VANQUISHED THE MOORS

The White reconquest of Spain had however only been carried on in fits and starts. In a great battle fought on the plains of Toledo in July 1212, the Nonwhites were defeated by a great White army, and the Moors were then restricted to the southern parts of Spain. The north was given time to recuperate and rebuild its strength.

It was only with the rise of two great leaders - the red haired Isabella I (1451-1504), queen of Castile, and Ferdinand V, King of Aragon, that the Moors were finally driven from Europe. Castile was one of the territories never occupied by the Moors, and Aragon had been liberated in one of the localized wars between the Visigoths

and the Moors.

Isabella, who won renown for not only liberating Spain from the last of the Moors, but for being one of the main sponsors of the voyages of discoveries of Christopher Columbus, was the product of a marriage between Spanish and Portuguese nobility who had, along with a substantial amount of Spaniards, avoided the mixing caused by centuries of Moorish rule. In 1469, Isabella married Ferdinand - due to intertwining royal family connections and personal conquest, he was not only King of Aragon, but also was king of Sicily (1468-1516); and king of Naples (1504-1516).



The red haired Goths, Ferdinand and Isabella, drove the Nonwhite Muslims out of Spain and started the exploration of America by financing Christopher Columbus.

When Isabella's brother died, she and her husband jointly succeeded (1474) to the throne of Castile. This union of the two main Spanish kingdoms laid the foundation of Spain's future greatness. Isabella became Queen of Castile when she was 23 years old. No sooner had she become queen when her kingdom was invaded by Alfonso V, King of Portugal, who was hoping to capitalize upon the weakness of the Spaniards in the confusion following the Moorish invasion. Castile was very nearly overrun, and it was only with a near superhuman effort that Isabella and Ferdinand were able to raise a strong enough army to defeat Alfonso in 1475. With the Portuguese threat settled, Isabella and Ferdinand then turned their attention to their real enemy - the Moors.

THE MOORS RENEW THEIR ATTACK UPON EUROPE

In the interim, the Muslims were renewing their assault on Europe. In 1479, Mohammed II, the grand Turk, attacked the island of Rhodes off Greece, only being repulsed by a White invasion under the Knights of St. John in 1480.

THE HILL OF MARTYRS - ITALY INVADED

Undeterred, Mohammed II then invaded Italy itself, seizing the city of Otranto in the Kingdom of Naples. Of the 22,000 inhabitants the Muslims captured, 12,000 were bound with ropes and tortured to death outside the city walls. The Muslims also killed all the Christian priests they could find. On a hill outside the city, known to this day as Martyr's Hill, they killed many captives who refused to convert to Islam.



Saracens, invaders of Spain: an Arabian painting from 1237 AD.

THE TEN YEARS WAR - ISABELLA SELLS HER JEWELRY

It was not long before the Muslims renewed their assault on Spain. On 25 December 1482, the Muslims from Granada seized the town of Zahara, only 15 miles from Seville. The Ten Year War had started.

Isabella and Ferdinand then used a substantial amount of the money and riches they had confiscated from Spain's Jewish population (many of whom had become falsely converted to Christianity in order to avoid rising anti-Jewish feeling resulting from the Moorish occupation) and bought large quantities of new cannons and weapons from France, Germany and northern Italy.

Even this was not enough, and finally Isabella actually sold all her own royal and personal gold, silver, pearls and jewels, to raise money for the liberation of her country from the Nonwhites.

With these technological reinforcements from northern Europe, Isabella and Ferdinand waged a demanding and extremely costly - in terms of lives and material - war to drive the Moors out of Europe for once and for all.

THE WHITE RECONQUEST STARTS

The reconquest of Spain from the Moors started with the seizure of Alhama in 1482, here described by an eyewitness, the Castilian Diego of Valera:

"While Count Rodrigo Ponce of Leon, Marquis of Cadiz, was in Marchena, several leaders came to him and they said that , if the Marquis wanted, they could tell him of a way in which the city of Alhama could be taken without any risk. . . .this was because the Moors took their safety for granted, as their city was so strong and situated so deep within their kingdom, on top of a high summit, completely surrounded by a river and accessible only by a single route up a very rough and steep hill.

"Before dawn, on Tuesday 10 February 1482, the Marquis' troops arrived outside the city of Alhama, Those who carried the scaling equipment quietly set it up.

"They were not seen until they were well inside the city. As daylight was breaking, a commotion arose and the Christians who lived in the city, as well as the other inhabitants, came running.

"When the Moors heard this . . .they gathered in the square and divided up among the men all the places from which they could best defend their walls. The Marquis of Cadiz and the other knights entered the city through the back gate on order to force the Moors to come out to fight.

"As the street was very narrow it did not allow for more than two men abreast to go through the gate, while the square where the Moors stood was very wide. So when the Marquis' men entered the square the Moors killed them as they came in two by two, and began to shoot so many cannon and arrows and stones that no one else dared to enter through the narrow street.

"Although the Christians received many blows in the narrow alleyways, they finally, by the grace of our Lord, drove the Moors fleeing from the square down towards the gates to Granada: there stood a mosque, very secure, where the Moors were surrounded: many were left dead or wounded.

"Then the Marquis of Cadiz ordered that the city gates be opened; his men entered killing and taking prisoner any enemies they found. They took many Moors . . . one soldier took thirty heads . . .

"The Moors stayed in the Mosque all day on Wednesday, defending it bravely. They were still there on Thursday, so the Marquis ordered his men to set fire to it. So many Moors were hurt that finally out of fear they told the Marquis that they would do as he wished; the Marquis then divided them up amongst his knights (as prisoners).

"On the morning of the following day, 13 February 1482, the Muslim king of Grenada, Abul Hassan, arrived near Alhama with a powerful army, seven thousand on horseback and one hundred thousand on foot and surrounded the city. The siege lasted several days, and since it took place during Lent, the Christians ate nothing but boiled wheat, chick-peas and beans. When the Moors saw that the Christians were not weakening, they worked to redirect the water supply away from the city; a few times the Marquis waded into the water up to his knees to cut down and burn the barricades the Moors had set up. When the Moors saw the great effort of the Christians to defend the city, they decided to break camp (giving the marquis the city)."

Between 1483 and 1486, the Spanish drove the Moors out of the western half of the kingdom of Granada. With the capture of the city of Malaga in 1487, followed in quick succession by the fall of the towns of Baza, Almeria and Gaudix in campaigns during 1488 to 1489, the White noose tightened round the last Nonwhite stronghold - the citadel of Grenada.

THE FALL OF GRENADA

The White armies gathered their strength for one last mighty push against the Moors. Isabella hired, at her own expense, 40,000 mules to carry the provisions needed by the army which she and Ferdinand had gathered together.

At last, by July 1491, the great White army stood outside the gates of the city of Granada itself. The Moors took refuge in the fort known as the Alhambra. Outside Ferdinand and Isabella personally took command of the siege army.

July, August, September, October, November and December passed. The besieged Moors became desperate, their food supplies ran low and disease started to spread within the closed walls.

Finally on 30 December 1491, the Moorish king, Abu Abd-Allah, opened negotiations for surrender. The final surrender was recorded by an eyewitness, the priest Bernaldez, who was the chaplain of the archbishop of Seville:

"On Monday 2 January (1492) they (Isabella and Ferdinand) left the camp with their army duly drawn up. As they came near to the Alhambra, Abu Abd-Allah rode out, accompanied by many of his knights, with the keys of the city in his hand. He tried to dismount in order to kiss the king's hand, but the king would not allow it.

"The Moor kissed Ferdinand on the arm and gave him the keys, saying 'Take the keys of your city, for I, and the men who are within, are your vassals.' King Ferdinand took the keys and gave them to the queen . . ."

The surrender of Granada in 1492 was the first time in 770 years the White Goths once again ruled all of Spain.



Monday 2 January 1492: The last Nonwhite stronghold in Spain, the citadel of Grenada, surrenders to the victorious White army, led personally by King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella. It was the first time in 770 years that all of Spain was once again under White control.

FURTHER CAMPAIGNS

Ferdinand became involved in an internal dispute in Italy, and was part of a force which conquered the republic of Venice in 1508. This force went on in 1509 to conquer Oran and Tripoli on the North African coast from the Moors. Finally Ferdinand annexed the kingdom of Navarre in 1512, extending the borders of Spain to the Straits of Gibraltar, a border it has kept to this day.

This was however not the end of Spanish wars against Islam. In 1535, the Spanish King Charles V mounted expeditions against Muslim held Tunis and Algiers in 1541, preventing another incipient Muslim invasion of Europe from North Africa, and in 1571, Spain played a leading role in putting together a powerful White navy which defeated the Nonwhite Ottoman navy at the Battle of Lepanto, permanently weakening Turkish maritime power.

EXPULSION OF 250,000 MIXED RACE MOORS

Finally in 1609, the Spanish king Philip III ordered the physical expulsion of some 250,000 "Moriscos" or Christianized Moors from the country. The Moriscos were in fact of mixed White/Moorish ancestry and in this way a large number of mixed race inhabitants of southern Spain were forcibly expelled from that country.

THE EXPULSION OF THE JEWS

The Spanish Jews were amongst the first to feel the full effects of the fall of the Moors from power in Spain. In 1492 Isabella and Ferdinand formally expelled all Jews from that country, punishing the Spanish Jews for having actively collaborated with the Moors during their 780 year long occupation. The victorious Moors (who, because of their common Semitic ancestry with the Spanish Jews and the already poor relations between the Jews and the Goths) employed several Spanish Jews in their administration of Spain in some of the highest posts, even though there were occasional outbursts of anti-Jewish feeling amongst the Arabs themselves.

In the city of Grenada, the last to fall to the White armies, the Spanish were enraged to learn that the Moorish king's prime minister and most of his leading advisors were Jews. A massacre of Jews in the city followed that discovery. This alliance between a number of Spanish Jews and the Moors inflamed the anti-Semitic feeling amongst the subdued Goths even further; a sentiment which would later flare up in the form of the Spanish Inquisition and the expulsion of the Jews from Spain.

THE INQUISITION

When Spain was finally liberated from the Nonwhite Moors, the long suppressed anti-Jewish sentiment broke out in full fury. In that year all unbaptized Jews were expelled en masse from Spain, and the infamous Spanish inquisition, set up to enforce Christendom, was used to persecute Jews, who, because of their collaboration with the Moors, were regarded as the implacable enemies of White Spain.

Earlier Isabella had obtained from the Pope in Rome a dispensation to establish the Inquisition in Spain, which soon turned into a fully fledged anti-Jewish campaign under the name of Christianity. The first hearings against the Conversos were held in February 1481 in Castile - it combined with the outbreak of the "Black Plague" - bubonic plague. Many Christian fanatics linked the outbreak of the plague to the start of proceedings against the Conversos, and the Jews were blamed for the plague as well as their other real or imagined crimes, which included accusations that they had betrayed the city of Toledo to the invading Moors by opening the city gates at a crucial junction in the siege of that city.

The leading Conversos held a secret meeting to resist the Inquisition with force. Isabella's spies however found out about the planned rebellion and arrested the ringleaders, most prominent amongst them a rabbi named Diego de Susan. He, along with six other Jews, was tried for subversion, found guilty and executed by burning at the stake in late 1481.

The Conversos then broke rank in panic, and starting fleeing Spain in large numbers, some going to Italy, but many going to Muslim held Turkey, where they once again enjoyed special status. Much property belonging to the Converso Jews - who by some estimates made up as much as 20 per cent of Spain's pre-Inquisition population - was seized by Isabella and added to the state treasury.



Captured White prisoners about to be decapitated by Saracens: note how the Spaniards are depicted with blonde hair.

SPAIN'S GOLDEN AGE

After the expulsion of the Moors and the Jews, Spain entered its Golden Age. It created a huge empire, and along with Portugal, became one of the most powerful nations in Europe. Unfortunately for Spain and Portugal, both countries declined soon afterwards due to a change in their population make-up, as detailed in the previous chapter.

Nonetheless, the liberation of Spain from Moorish rule saved Western Europe from complete Arabic domination, and as a result the Visigothic warriors who undertook this 700 year war, will always be remembered for their great feat of arms.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 24 : THE NORDIC RESERVOIR - SCANDINAVIA

Scandinavia became the very first settling areas for the Indo-European tribes in Europe - in fact they were settled so long in this region that the scientific name for their racial type, Nordic, came to be associated with the region itself, hence the oft used term "Nordic countries."

The history of the Scandinavian countries; Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Finland; are intertwined. For long periods these countries ruled each other, while in Finland's case, war with Russia dominated its history for a millennium.

The ability of all these countries to survive the trepidations to which they were subjected once again lays to rest the "environmental" theory of the creation and longevity of civilizations, with plagues, warfare and economic turmoil, all failing to destroy the Nordic countries.

There have been three major contributions of the Scandinavian region to White history: the first Germans swept south into Germany out of the reservoir of Indo-European peoples in the north; then the Vikings swept through Europe and colonized England and parts of the continent itself; and then lastly waves of Scandinavians settled large stretches of modern America.

For these reasons alone, an overview of the Scandinavian countries is crucial to an understanding of European history; although the Vikings as a phenomena deserve special mention by themselves, and are dealt with in the next chapter.

DENMARK

Denmark has some of the finest megalith and other stone age structures in Northern Europe outside of Stonehenge itself, indicators of an advanced early Neolithic civilization in the region thousands of years old.

This society continued uninterrupted until the arrival of the Indo-European invaders of around 2000 BC - the invaders ushered in the iron age and by 400 AD advanced fixed settlements had been in existence for several hundred years.

Settled by other Scandinavians who crossed the Baltic Sea, these early inhabitants of Denmark built a number of impressive structures, the remains of which are still to be seen today.

These include a canal, a long bridge and huge ramparts across the neck of Jutland now called the Danevirke. Some of these structures date from at least two hundred years before the age of the Vikings, which is officially deemed to have started around the year 750 AD.



A silver cauldron recovered from Gundestrup, North Jutland, Denmark, from the year 100 BC. The panels round the cauldron are molded with relief half length figures of Celtic gods and goddesses, some holding human figures and others holding beasts. This is an exquisite example of early Scandinavian artwork, quite apart from being a marvelous presentation of early racial types in the region.

INVASION OF ENGLAND

Within 100 years of the first Danish Viking raids having taken place, enough Danes had settled in England to ensure that an entire section of that island fell under their rule (the region was known as the Danelaw), sparking off a long running conflict with the Britons who had been without Roman protection for over 350 years. The Danish king Sweyn I finally conquered all of England in 1013 and 1014, and his son, Canute II, who ruled England from 1016 to 1035, was the character who according to legend, tried to hold back the sea on the English coast.

CHRISTIANITY SPREADS TO DENMARK

Under King Harold Bluetooth in the 10th Century, the Christianization of the Danes was begun, to be completed by Canute II before the end of his reign in 1035. As was the case with many of the first Christians, the new religion was spread more by fear than by actual genuine conversion: after a generation or two of forced conversion however, the culture became established enough to be genuine only because other alternatives were ruthlessly suppressed.

FURTHER EXPANSION

During the late 1100s and early 1200s, the Danes also expanded to the east, conquering their racial cousins, the Balts, and settling the greater part of the southern coastal areas of the Baltic Sea, establishing an empire twice the size of Denmark itself.

CONSTITUTIONAL REFORMS

The Scandinavian countries generally were the first northern European countries to start constitutional reforms in the direction of a more representative form of government and have long been regarded as amongst the most enlightened governments in the world.

In 1282, the Danish King, Eric V, signed a charter making the Danish crown subordinate to law with an assembly of lords, called the Danehof, forming an important part of the administration of the country. Although by modern standards this hardly meant democracy, for 13th Century Europe it was virtually revolutionary.

UNION WITH SWEDEN AND NORWAY

In 1380, Denmark and Norway were joined under one king, Olaf II, and after his early death in 1387, his mother, Margaret I, ruled, helping to create the Union of Kalmar, consisting of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. The addition of Norway to the union meant that Iceland and the Faroe islands - discovered and settled by Viking adventurers - fell under effective Danish control.

From the first union with Denmark, a number of Swedish aristocrats worked ceaselessly for greater independence for Sweden, something which was finally achieved with the breaking of the union 1523.

That year proved particularly traumatic for Denmark: not only was the Danish King, Christian II, driven from the throne, but the country was subject to a large amount of interference from some north German towns, led by Lubeck.

With help from the newly independent Swedes, the Danes drove the Germans out and re-established their own king, the new Christian III. During his reign (1534-1559) Denmark quite peaceably became a Protestant nation.

The Christian Wars which destroyed Germany did not affect Denmark anywhere nearly as badly, despite Christian III's active participation in the Thirty Years War on the side of the Protestants against the Catholics.

SCANDINAVIAN CIVIL WAR

The Scandinavians did however manage to trim their own numbers during the Seven Years' War (1563-1570) and the War of Kalmar (1611-1613), both fought between Denmark and Sweden, mainly over commercial and related political rivalry in the region. Neither of these two wars exacted massive tolls from the belligerents, and ended with Denmark abdicating control of all its Baltic sea possessions except for Norway.

AUTOCRATIC RULE

The Danish defeat after the War of Kalmar caused the country to lose some major markets to Sweden: the nobility, who in terms of the early constitution, formed the administrative corps in Denmark, were blamed. In 1660, the Danish king, Frederick III, with the support of the merchant and middle classes, led a coup against the aristocratic Council of the Realm, resulting in the establishment of a hereditary and absolute monarchy in 1661. More importantly, commoners replaced

nobles in the administrative structure.

COLONIAL EXPANSION

In the 18th Century, Denmark colonized Greenland, finding scattered Eskimo peoples living there, but generally leaving them alone to get on with their own business. Greenland remains to this day a Danish possession.

Danish trade in East Asia expanded; and trading companies were established in the West Indies, where Denmark acquired several islands including the Virgin Islands.

Large numbers of Danes - hundreds of thousands - also eventually emigrated to the new lands in America: whole swathes of the then opening Mid West of America were settled by hardy Danes and other Scandinavians and Germans, groups who would form the core of the American Mid West farming communities.

NAPOLEONIC WARS

During the Napoleonic Wars, Denmark became involved in the conflict after attempts to blockade the port of Copenhagen (to prevent trading with France) led to the British twice bombarding Copenhagen itself, in 1801 and 1807.

The English navy also successfully destroyed the Danish navy in a few short encounters - all these events caused Denmark to side with Napoleon - a bad choice as it turned out: when the wars ended in 1814 with Napoleon's defeat, Denmark was forced to cede Helgoland to the British and Norway to Sweden.

CONSTITUTIONAL MONARCHY

When the liberal revolutions of 1840 spread across Europe, the Danish king acceded to many of the demands before serious revolution could brew in his country: in 1849, a new constitution was introduced in terms of which Denmark became a constitutional monarchy with a two chamber parliament.

In 1864, Denmark lost the last of its European continental possessions: the German states of Schleswig-Holstein which were hereditary titles held by the King of Denmark, were taken by Prussia after a war between Prussia, Austria and Denmark.

Denmark settled down to a period of prosperity and peace, with a new constitution being introduced in 1901 which carried all the hallmarks of a modern democracy.

Wisely remaining neutral during the First World War (1914- 1918) Denmark avoided any great loss of life or population which dealt serious blows to other continental European countries such as France, Russia and Germany.

In 1917, the Danish West Indian possession of the Virgin Islands was sold to the United States of

America, and the independence of Iceland - which had been substantially settled by Scandinavians - was recognized, although full independence would only come to that island in 1944 after a referendum there produced a majority in favor of independence.

In 1920, North Schleswig was incorporated into Denmark as a result of a plebiscite carried out in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Versailles; the southern part of Schleswig had voted to remain in Germany.

WORLD WAR II (1939-1945)

Denmark also tried to stay out of World War Two, but was overrun in April 1940 by the Germans who passed through the country in their haste to invade Norway. Germany did not treat Denmark as a belligerent country, and allowed the vast majority of the country's legal and domestic administration to carry on as before the German invasion.

Britain occupied the Faroe Islands, and in 1941 the United States established a temporary protectorate over Greenland, which was returned to Danish rule after the end of the war. Greenland was granted home rule by the Danes in 1979. The German occupiers of Denmark were never militarily challenged: they were ordered to surrender at the time of the conclusion of the war in Europe.

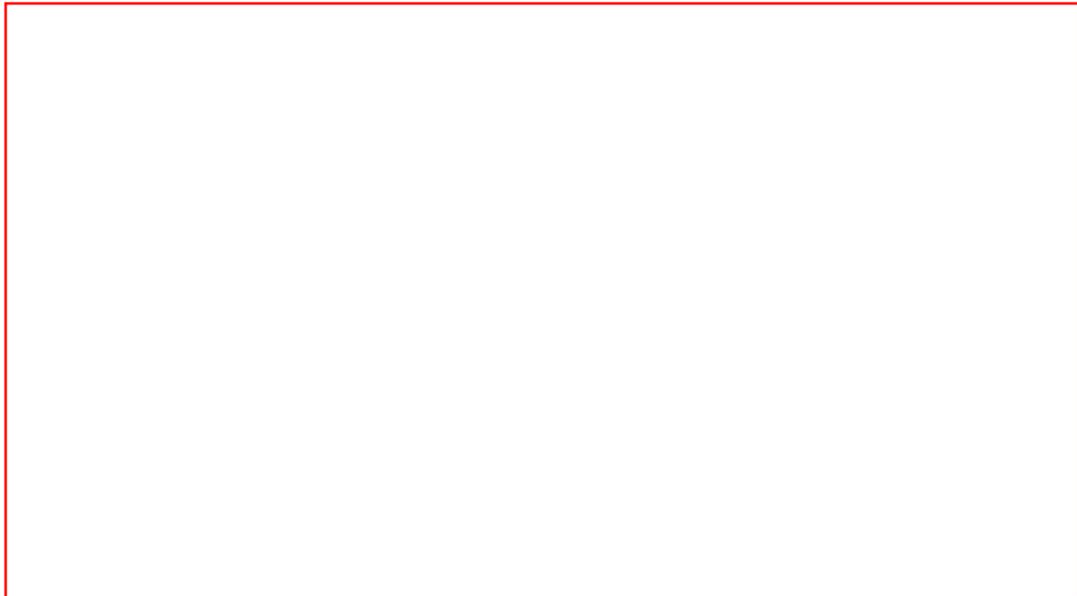
IMMIGRATION

Along with her Scandinavian neighbors, Denmark became the focus for substantial amounts of Nonwhite immigration in the last quarter of the 20th Century. This development and its implications are discussed in a separate chapter.

SWEDEN

Sweden had, like the rest of Scandinavia, become an Indo-European Nordic heartland soon after those tribes had entered Europe during their great migrations. In northern Europe, and in Scandinavia particularly, the Indo-Europeans found mostly the Proto-Nordic sub racial types, and soon absorbed these peoples, leaving only scattered traces of this original sub-race to be found today in isolated regions.

The most famous of these Indo-European tribes to settle in what was to become southern Sweden were a sub branch of the Goths, who determined much of the character of that country. The names of many settlements in Sweden reveal the Gothic influence, with the aptly named town of Gothenburg being one of the most prominent examples.



On the Swedish island of Oland are the remains of sixteen ancient Scandinavian stone built forts. These forts had place for living quarters, storage facilities and livestock - evidently they must have been prepared for the occasional siege. Such wars were a feature of early Scandinavian life, caused partially by the geographic isolation of the communities and the individualistic nature of the people themselves.

VIKING EXPANSION

The Swedes were to produce their own set of feared Vikings, who from around 800 AD onwards, established major colonies in what became Russia (the Scandinavian tribe called the Rus gave their name to that country) and other regions in eastern Europe, playing a not insignificant role in populating vast regions of the eastern European continent with Nordic racial sub-types.

CHRISTIANITY

By 850 AD, the first Christian Frankish missionaries had arrived in Sweden to convert the pagan Swedes to the new Jewish originated religion, Christianity. They achieved some success with the conversion of the Swedish King Olaf, and slowly the religion filtered down, displacing the long established Odinism which was the original religion of all the Scandinavians.

During the reign of Eric IX, from 1150 to 1160, the newly Christianized Swedes invaded Finland and forced Christianity by force onto the stubbornly pagan Indo-European tribes in that country. The Swedes were to rule Finland for two centuries as a result.

Eric himself was to die in a Christian setting: he was assassinated by a Danish claimant to his throne while he was attending mass. He was later deified by the church and made patron saint of Sweden.

THE UNION OF KALMAR

By 1389, Swedish nobles had forced the then reigning king to renounce his throne and unify the country with Denmark. Sweden then joined the Union of Kalmar, ruled over by Margaret of Denmark, which incorporated Denmark, Norway and Sweden.

The Danes and the Swedes however never co-existed well: continual skirmishes, mostly of a minor nature, plagued the life of the Union of Kalmar, and in 1520, when it became clear that a rebellion was brewing in Sweden, King Christian II invaded that country and had many of his opponents executed. The large number of executions provoked an uprising: in 1521, a rebellion led by one Gustav Vasa, succeeded and the Union of Kalmar was broken, although Denmark retained the southern part of Sweden. Vasa became King of the Swedes in 1523 as Gustav I and the country officially converted to Protestantism during the 1520s.

EXPANSION

A series of wars and minor conquests saw Sweden steadily expand its territorial size: the Reval district of Estonia voluntarily put itself under Swedish protection in 1561; and in 1582, all of Estonia was added to the Swedish crown after a local Baltic war with Poland.

Sweden's expansion reached a height under Gustav II Adolph, who is still considered by many Swedes to be their greatest king. A war with Russia which ended in 1617, saw Gustav II obtain for Sweden the lands of eastern Karelia and Ingria; a war with Poland from 1621 to 1629, saw Sweden annex all of Livonia and in 1630, Gustav entered the Christian Thirty Year's War on the side of the Protestants in Germany.

At the end of the Thirty Years' War in 1648, Sweden acquired further territories in the Baltic, making it the foremost power in that region.

SWEDEN UNITED

The Swedish king, Charles X Gustav, launched a series of wars with Poland (1655 to 1660) which saw that country completely overrun by the Swedes, forcing the Poles to accept as final the annexation of the territory of Livonia. Charles X also invaded Denmark twice in 1658, resulting in the expulsion of the Danes from southern Sweden. The next Swedish king, Charles XI, made that country an ally of France in the wars of the late 1600s on the continent: as a result the Swedes were beaten by a German army from the state of Brandenburg in 1675.

THE GREAT NORTHERN WAR

The very next Swedish king, Charles XII, at the age of 15, led his country to war against a coalition consisting of Russia, Poland, and Denmark in 1700, in the first phase of what became known as the Great Northern War which lasted for another 21 years.

The Swedes, under Charles XII, successfully invaded north western Russia and decisively defeated the Poles in 1706. The small Sweden could not however hope to resist the relative giant of Russia, and by 1709 the Swedes were routed by the Russians under Peter the Great. This defeat marked the replacement of Sweden by Russia - ironically a state which had for the greatest part been founded by Scandinavians - as the dominant power in the Baltic.

By the treaties of Stockholm and Nystadt in 1721, Sweden lost much of its German territory and

ceded Livonia, Estonia, Ingria, part of Karelia, and several important Baltic islands to Russia.



The capture of the town of Malmö by Count Magnus Stenbock. The distinguished Swedish general, Count Magnus Stenbock, took part in the earlier campaigns of the Swedish King Charles XII, and was instrumental in many of the victories, such as this one in 1709 where the Swedes captured the city of Malmö. The Swedes had however, overreached themselves - they could not hope to ward off the relative giant of Russia, and a coalition consisting of Russians, Danes and Saxons, beat the Swedes that same year. Stenbock himself died as a prisoner of war in a Danish prison.

NAPOLEONIC WARS

Sweden joined the Third Coalition (1805) against Napoleon, an alliance which fell apart after Russia deserted it and invaded Finland, forcing Sweden to cede most of that country. The Swedish king of the time, Charles XIII, was childless, and the Swedish parliament, the Riksdag, chose Marshal Jean Baptiste Jules Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's generals, as the crown prince in an attempt to placate Napoleon. The marshal duly became king and established the Bernadotte dynasty, a royal house which Sweden has kept to this day.

Bernadotte however withdrew his allegiance from Napoleon and Sweden fought against France in 1813 and 1814. In terms of the settlement following the end of the Napoleonic Wars, Denmark was forced to cede Norway to Sweden. Norway was to be ruled by Sweden until 1905, when it declared itself independent with Sweden's assent.

EMIGRATION

Despite a benevolent rule under the Bernadottes which saw many constitutional reforms, between 1867 and 1886, nearly half a million Swedes emigrated to America in search of greater liberty and the promise of farming land in the American Mid West.

NEUTRALITY

Sweden retained a strict policy of neutrality right through the major conflicts of the twentieth century, refusing to be drawn into the First or Second World Wars and the Cold War between the Soviet Union and the United States of America.

This image of neutrality was tarnished somewhat by a leftward lurch in Swedish politics in the 1960s; Swedish opposition to the Vietnam War saw that country offering political asylum to many young Americans opposed to that war.

IMMIGRATION

In common with all its Nordic neighbors, Sweden started allowing significant numbers of Nonwhites into its borders during the last quarter of the 20th Century. These changes and their implications are discussed under a separate chapter.

NORWAY

Norway contains some of the oldest White settlement sites in Scandinavia: traces of late Paleolithic settlements dating from 14,000 BC, have been discovered in this region.

The Indo-European invasions of centuries later saw the country being dominated by Nordic sub-racial types, which along with the Proto-Nordics already present in the region, created the "typical Norwegian" blue eyed and blonde look.

By the year 700 AD, some 29 separate tribal kingdoms existed in Norway, with the physical geography of mountains, fjords and rivers encouraging territorial division amongst the tribes.

VIKINGS

The proximity of the sea also encouraged sailing: around 750 AD, Viking raiders were to emerge from Norway and spread out all over Northern Europe, raiding and settling Ireland, Britain, Iceland and the Orkney, Faroe, and Shetland islands. Further expeditions were undertaken which led to the discovery of Greenland and North America.

Equally importantly, bands of Vikings sailed up the major rivers in what was to become Russia, playing a major role in creating that country. Still others settled in France, where they became known as Normans, from "Norse-man."

UNITED NORWAY

Eventually one of the local Norwegian tribal chieftains, King Harold I, called Fairhair, of Vestfold in south east Norway, united the other kingdoms of Norway through diplomacy and conquest. Upon his death in 940 AD, his sons once again divided up the country with (the ghastly named) Eric Bloodaxe as overall king.

The heirs to Harold Fairhair soon set to squabbling amongst themselves and the unity was broken: the Danes and Swedes took advantage of the disunity to make land grabs in Norway itself.

CHRISTIANITY INTRODUCED

Into the dissension of Norway a new ingredient was added: Christianity. In 995, Olaf I, a great-grandson of Harold Fairhair I, became king. Before his accession, Olaf had lived in England, where he had been converted to Christianity. He took the throne with the firm purpose of forcing Christianity on Norway and was partially successful, with his divine mission being interrupted when he was killed in battle with the Danes under King Sweyn I.

Norway was then ruled by Olaf II from 1015, who continued the evangelism of his predecessor, only this time taking the sword to all the pagans who refused to convert to Christianity.

By about 1025, Olaf was more powerful than any previous Norwegian king had been, thereby arousing the hatred of many petty princes who conspired with the Danish/English King, Canute the Great, who, in 1028, managed to drive Olaf into exile into Russia. Two years later Olaf returned and was killed in battle: he was subsequently deified and made into the patron saint of Norway, his blood thirsty activities on behalf of Christianity in that country being ignored.

ICELAND

Upon Canute's death in 1035, his successors united Denmark and Norway through occupation, leading to three centuries of relatively stable home rule for Norway. Iceland was officially added to Norway's territory in 1262, and Norway enjoyed a period of growth and prosperity unequalled in its previous eras, interrupted only by the appearance of the bubonic plague, or Black Death, in the mid 13th Century, a result of which as much as 20 per cent of the population was killed.

The Union of Kalmar was created in 1397 when Norway, Sweden and Denmark were made into a single administrative unit. Norway remained under Danish and Swedish domination for centuries thereafter, although it was granted wide autonomy, particularly after a rebellion brewed in 1815.

INDEPENDENCE

In 1821, the still existing Danish peerage was abolished in Norway and in 1839, the country was granted the right to have its own flag. By 1905, the Norwegians had advanced constitutionally to the point where they declared themselves an independent nation with Sweden's consent.

NEUTRALITY AND OCCUPATION

During the First World War, Norway followed a strict policy of neutrality, a policy which was enforced at the start of the Second World War as well.

However, in April 1940, Britain and France announced that they had mined Norwegian territorial

waters to prevent their use by German supply ships. British and German forces then simultaneously invaded the country in an attempt to outflank each other.



An election poster for Vikdun Quisling, leader of the pro-Nazi National Union party in Norway. Quisling served in the Norwegian embassy in Moscow. Upon his return to Norway he entered politics and became known as a strong anti-Communist, based on what he had seen in the Soviet Union. He was appointed to the Norwegian cabinet in 1931 as Minister of Defense, and in 1933 formed the National Union, with principles based on those of the National Socialists in Germany. When Norway was occupied by Germany in 1940, the National Union was declared the only legal party, and Quisling was appointed prime minister - a position he held until the defeat of Germany in 1945. He was executed by the pro-Allied government in October 1945.

There was considerable support for the German occupation amongst the Norwegians, and several Norwegian army units actively helped the Germans occupy the major ports. The leader of the pro-German forces, Vikdun Quisling, was appointed governor of Norway after the German occupation. Norway remained under German rule until 1945, the armed units there never seeing battle again, being ordered to surrender once the conflict on the continent had been ended. Quisling, who (along with 25 other Norwegians) was executed for his part in the occupational government and a further 50,000 Norwegians were tried for collaboration with the Germans.

MODERN NORWAY

The country recovered well from the trepidations of the war and once again became one of the most economically progressive countries in Europe.

In common with her neighbors, Norway allowed a number of Nonwhites to settle in that country during

the last quarter of the 20th Century. The significance of this shift in policy is discussed under a later chapter.

FINLAND

The earliest traces of settlements in Finland date from approximately 8000 BC, the Neolithic Age. These Old Europeans and Proto-Nordics did not make any significant advances until the arrival of the first wave of Indo-European Nordic invaders around 2000 BC, who ushered in the iron age and the first large agricultural settlements.

Due to the relatively large numbers of Old Europeans resident in the region - large compared to the rest of Scandinavia, at least - the resulting mix between Indo-European Nordics and Old European Mediterraneans created a sub racial type which is not as uniformly Nordic in appearance as was the case in Norway or Sweden: to this day there are a far larger proportion of dark haired Finns than what there are dark haired Swedes or Norwegians.

At the same time as the Indo-European invaders, a small tribe of originally Asiatic Finno-Ugric peoples made their way into the country, possibly driven on by the invading Indo-Europeans. These Finno-Urgics formed the Lapp people, nomads of the Arctic circle. Through the addition of large quantities of Indo-European ancestry, many Lapps now display Nordic racial features.

THE SWEDISH CONQUEST

The inhabitants of Finland did not produce any Viking raiders and did not try and form any sort of unified state: it was only with the Christianizing efforts of the Swedes from around 1050 AD that any form of central organization came into being.

The Swedish king, Eric, invaded what was still the unorganized territory of Finland in 1155 with the express aim of converting the Finns to Christianity. Easily defeating the scattered Finnish tribes, Eric then made his evangelical mission - carried out with the by now usual combination of preaching and execution of those unwilling to be converted - into a permanent colony, adding Finland to the Swedish state.

A Christian missionary from England, Henry, who had been preaching at Uppsala in Sweden, also took part in this evangelical mission to Finland: the pagans however killed him in 1156. Henry was later deified by the church and became the patron saint of Finland.

WARS WITH RUSSIA

The rise of the state of Russia on the Finns' eastern border dominated Finnish history for more than one thousand years: the first Russian invasions were carried out by local Russian princes in the late 1200s. When the ruler of Novgorod in Russia invaded Finland for the second time in 1292, the Swedes sent a force into Karelia as far as the Neva River. A treaty of 1323 divided Karelia between Sweden and Novgorod.

When the Union of Kalmar was established in 1397, Finland, as a vassal of Sweden, was

automatically drawn into the three way administrative unit. For the next two hundred years Finland remained under effective Swedish control, and many thousands of Swedes settled in that country.

Apart from a running series of wars with Russia, a series of crop failures from in 1695 to 1697 reduced the Finnish population by one fourth. This was followed by the Great Northern War (1700-1721), during which the Russians occupied Finland; at the Peace of Nystadt (1721) it lost large areas in the east, with Russia gobbling up yet more Finnish land after another war in 1741 to 1743.

RUSSIAN RULE, 1809 TO 1917

In 1807, the Russian Tsar, Alexander I, launched an all out assault on Finland, overrunning that country completely by 1809, the year in which it was formally proclaimed as a grand duchy of the Russian Empire. The country was ruled by a Russian governor-general in a newly created capital, Helsinki. During the period of Russian rule, much material and cultural progress was made.

Finland was not directly involved in the First World War, even though Russia was. The Finns, their incipient nationalism awakened during the cultural progress under Russian rule, seized the opportunity afforded by the collapse of Russia after the Communist revolution of 1917 in that country to declare themselves independent in December of that year. Soviet Russia was too weak to resist and Finland became properly independent for the first time.

THE COMMUNIST REVOLUTION CRUSHED

The Finns were however sharply divided along political lines: communists and conservatives faced each other down and formed their own armies, the Red Guards and the White Guards, in imitation of the groupings which were then waging a civil war in Soviet Russia itself. The formation of politically motivated armed units spilled over into violence: the Red Guards reacted violently to a government order to expel all Russian troops, and attempted to launch a Communist revolution in Finland in January 1919, during which Helsinki was seized and a red reign of terror against anti-Communists was launched, during the course of which many civilians were killed.

Backed by German troops, the anti-Communist White Guards, under the leadership of General Carl Mannerheim, recaptured Helsinki and exacted a bitter revenge against the Communists, shooting many out of hand. The Finnish Communist Party was then banned. A republican constitution was implemented and the government was dominated by conservatives.

FRIENDSHIP WITH NAZI GERMANY AGAINST COMMUNISTS

The rise of the Nazi government in Germany and its strong anti-Communist stance was looked on favorably by the Finns. This was reflected by the fact that the Swedish airforce had kept one of its emblems a blue colored swastika.

Although this emblem had been given to the Swedish airforce by a Swedish nobleman who had donated the first Swedish airforce aircraft (with the traditional Indo-European good luck emblem painted on it), the decision to keep the swastika after it had become so strongly associated with the political ideology of Adolf Hitler spoke volumes. Its significance was not lost on the Swedes either - in

1945 they hastily did away with the emblem after Germany's defeat.



Marshal Carl Mannerheim, one of Finland's modern heroes. Born in 1867 in Russian occupied Finland, he joined the Russian army and reached the rank of Lieutenant-General before taking command of the Finnish forces in that country's war of independence against Soviet Russia in 1918. He was instrumental in suppressing the Communist revolution in Finland in 1919, and was regent of that country for seven months in that year. Mannerheim was forced out of retirement to command his country's army in its amazingly successful defense against the Communist Soviet invasion of 1940. He was made President of Finland in 1944, and died in 1951.



A British built Gloster Gladiator, serving in the Finnish Airforce in 1940, with a Finnish emblem of the time: a swastika. Colored blue, the emblem was given to the Swedish airforce in 1919, before the Nazi Party's ascendancy. The decision to keep the emblem after it had become so strongly associated with National Socialism and Adolf Hitler was however an indication of the political leanings of the Finns at the time - indeed they were at that stage involved in a life and death struggle with the Communist Soviet Union, as the Germans would be a short while later.

WORLD WAR II

Although Finland declared its neutrality at the start of the Second World War, the Soviet Union lost no time in invading Finland in November 1939, partly to seize territory, and partly as punishment for the suppression of the Finnish communist revolution of 1919.

A bitter winter war followed, with the Finns exacting a disproportionately heavy toll against the Soviet invaders. The Finns, led by General Mannerheim in a new anti-Communist battle, held on grimly in the face of overwhelming odds, but were forced to sue for peace and ceded strips of territory on the border with the Soviet Union.

When the great Soviet-German conflict broke out in 1941, the Soviets bombed Finnish cities due to the presence of a small number of German troops in that country. Finland then declared war against the Soviet Union, seizing the advantages gained by the massive German advances into Russia, although it was careful to emphasize that it was not a formal ally of Germany.

In December 1941, Britain then declared war on Finland and the United States broke off diplomatic relations that same month. This move displayed a shocking lack of consistency: Britain and America did not declare war on the Soviet Union when it, without cause, invaded Finland in 1939. After almost three years of exhausting war which saw only minor territorial gains, the Finns dropped out of the war in 1944, ceding further territories to the Soviets in exchange for peace.

MODERN FINLAND

Mainly due to the duplicitous treatment at the hands of the west during the Second World War, Finland maintained a strict policy of neutrality, refusing to be drawn into any post war ideological conflict, only agreeing to participate in, but not join, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in

1992, after Communism had crumbled of its own accord.

In common with the other Scandinavian countries, Finland opened its borders to a significant number of Nonwhites during the last quarter of the 20th Century. The importance and implications of this development is discussed in another chapter.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 25 : THE VIKINGS

The origins of the Vikings lie, like all original Indo-European peoples, in the ancient Nordic homeland between the Black and Caspian Seas in southern Russia. Part of the earliest wave of Indo-European settlers, the Vikings were originally one of the Germanic tribes who settled in southern Scandinavia and Denmark, and who gave rise to the Goths and the Anglo-Saxons in later times.

What made the Vikings unique was that they, of all the original Indo-European tribes, retained their original nature in all aspects longer than any other such tribe - culturally, linguistically and militarily. The Vikings clung to the original Indo-European religions longer than anyone else - they clung to their language longer than anyone else, and kept their warlike countenance longer than any others.

These traits were evidenced well into the 12th Century, and their direct descendants, still unaltered genetically, reside in large parts of Scandinavia and Iceland. In the latter country the language of the Vikings is still the official language.

RACIAL MAKE-UP

As with all Indo-European settlers in Europe, the ancestors of the Vikings mixed with a certain amount of Old European elements they either found in the areas they settled, or who they encountered on their way to these settled areas. In this way there were Vikings who did not fit the tall blond Nordic type so often associated with Vikings - a significant minority were clearly round headed Alpine types, although it is true that the vast majority of Vikings and Scandinavians to this day are Nordic.



One of the earliest representations of raiding Vikings is to be found in Lindisfarne, on the British coast. Lindisfarne was an early Christian settlement which suffered a particularly severe Viking raid in 793AD. An

engraving made by victims of the raid to mark the event on the depicts the invaders. It was as raiders that the Vikings first landed in Britain - later they made their settlements permanent.

CULTURE - INDIVIDUALIZATION A CHARACTERISTIC TRAIT

The Vikings lived in Scandinavia by agriculture, cattle breeding and trade and metal working - some artifacts found in Viking sites are evidence that they were skilled craftsmen. They also developed a tradition for piracy which went back to the time they first settled in Scandinavia - indeed the very word Viking comes from the Old Norse word meaning piracy.

This tradition created a strong sense of loyalty amongst their own particular family or group of families; but there was certainly no sense of national identity, as was the case with many other Indo-European tribes (such as the Goths or Franks, who could usually be counted on to come to fellow tribesmen's aid). The individualism of the Viking was an important feature of their way of living.



Intricate Viking carving: an animal head from the Oseberg ship burial, circa 825 AD. Universitetets Oldsaksamling, Oslo.

POLYGAMY AS A TOOL FOR POPULATION INCREASE

Another trait which set the Vikings aside from their racial cousins was the practice of polygamy - it was not uncommon for these Norsemen to have three wives, and their chieftains very often had far more than this. This practice led to a population growth rate in excess of other Indo-European tribes, and may have been a major factor in the sudden expansion of the Vikings from the 8th Century onwards.

Although the Viking men were known as womanizers - the image of the Viking raider carrying away women as part of his booty had an unfortunately all too accurate origin about it - Viking women were however amongst the most liberated in the world at the time, their status being elevated by the fact

that they were forced to take charge of society while their men were away for extended periods at a time.

FIERCENESS - ORIGIN OF "BESERK"

What caused the Vikings to start their extensive raiding parties when they did, remains a matter of conjecture: speculation has ranged from a reaction against the Christianizing efforts of missionaries, or the perfection of sailing techniques combined with a growth in population.

Although the Vikings had a fierce reputation - deservedly - even the word "beserk" derives from the name of a clan of particularly frenzied warriors - within a few hundred years of their first raids the large majority had been converted to Christianity and had settled in the lands they had formerly raided.

THE EDDA- FIRST COLLECTION OF VIKING SAGAS

Very few written records exist of the Vikings before they first came into contact with their literate victims exist. The Christian Church in this era kept covetously to itself the skills of literacy, so what is known about the Vikings in their pre-raiding days is based on the accounts set down by the Church. As a result, much of this detail therefore cannot be taken as objective.

The Vikings did establish a large body of at first spoken, but then very soon written, series of stories and sagas which made up the basis of their world view. The most accurate version of these was taken down by the poet Snorri Sturluson, credited with established the Edda, or first comprehensive collection of Viking sagas.

The Vikings are also credited with the oldest parliament in the world - the open air Althing of Iceland, where free men came to resolve feuds and establish laws for the community.

RELIGION - VALHALLA FOR HEROES

Viking religion followed a similar pattern to that of other pre-Christian Germanics. They worshipped Odin, the leader of the gods and god of war; his son Thor, the god of thunder who possessed the mighty war hammer, and Baldur, the god of light. These gods were opposed by a race of evil giants led by Loki. Vikings also believed that if they died heroically in battle they would be called by Odin to stay in Valhalla, the former's home. The Vikings also believed in the Ragnarok, the end of the world in a mighty battle between the gods and Loki's giants, and the destruction of men and Valhalla in this battle but that a new better world would be created after this.

RAIDS - ACROSS EUROPE AND INTO RUSSIA

Their plundering raids, up and down the length and breadth of Europe right into the Mediterranean and western Russia, filled the Christians with dreading and fear, leading to the development of the famous prayer of protection (which did not seem to help) muttered by Christians when they saw the signs of the approaching Vikings: "Lord protect us from the fury of the men of the north."

Between 800 and 850 AD, Ireland was particularly badly mauled by Viking invaders, who found the Celtic descendants on the island easy prey because of their weakness created by their constant infighting with one another. On the European continent itself, the now famous Viking boats sailed up all the navigable rivers of Europe, raiding and looting at will, only very infrequently being turned back or defeated.

SETTLEMENTS

The Viking raids started off as hit and run attacks, but gradually became more organized with raiders erecting temporary camps for raids lasting several weeks at a time. Soon the raiders began to be away for months at a time, depending on the location of the quarry, or depending upon discoveries which they might make upon their journeys.

DIGGINGS IN VIKING BURIAL SITES BELIE THE IMAGE OF WILD SAVAGE BARBARIANS

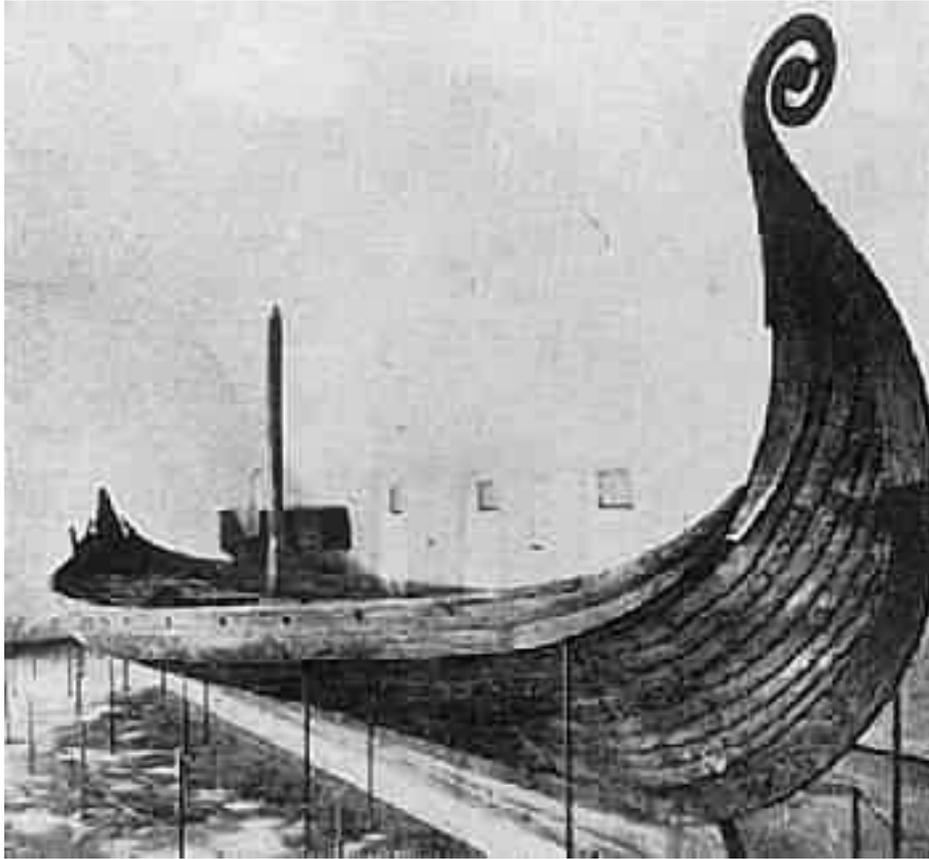
The Vikings were amongst the most skilled people in Europe in the manufacture of arms and jewelry. The Viking habit of burying their chiefs in large burial chambers along with all their swords, axes, carts and even in some cases with their boats, has provided a large number of such artifacts.

Skilled carvings of animals which held special attraction to the Vikings: horses, snakes, swans and dragons, are plentiful. Gold and silver work was also commonplace.

THE DRAGON BOAT

The other Viking development which was crucial to their fame was the development of the Dragon Boat. Despite its apparent simplicity, the Viking boat was a fine work of engineering - in its time far and away the most advanced seafaring craft available. Ideally suited for transporting anywhere between 20 and 100 fully armed warriors (and often their horses), the Viking boat could sail equally at ease in the open sea and in shallow rivers.

The engineering of Viking ships was adopted by many others, including the English under Alfred the Great, whose kingdom endured the power of these vessels first hand.



A Viking longboat, circa 800 AD. In these superb ships the White men of Scandinavia sailed rivers and seas, even crossing the Atlantic ocean to North America. The design was so perfect that it was adopted by King Alfred of England and used as a basic design for the very first English navy.



An original Viking longboat toolbox, containing over 150 items including rasps, nail making tools, planes, chisels, hammers and shears for clipping metal. Recovered from Mastermyr, Sweden.

RUSSIA - SAILED THE VOLGA - COMPOSED VARANGIAN GUARD

Vikings, or Norsemen, as they were also known, emerged from their northern homeland in two directions: east down into Russia, where they founded the modern state of Russia and in the west as raiders and looters from the Mediterranean to Britain.

The Vikings who turned east traveled through Russia on their boats, cruising the Volga and Dnieper rivers to Constantinople (the Varangian Guard, the personal bodyguards of the Eastern Roman Emperor in Constantinople, was composed entirely of tall blond Vikings, a rare sight in the darkening world of the Byzantine empire) and Baghdad. Along with the Slav peoples, the Swedish Vikings laid the basis of the modern state of Russia.

ENGLAND - VIKING KINGDOM AROUND YORK

According to Anglo-Saxon records, the Vikings first raided England in 787 AD and continued intermittent raids until around 830 AD, when finally they started settling in northern England instead of just raiding and departing. The Vikings also settled in Ireland, founding the towns of Dublin and Limerick amongst others. In England, the Vikings soon established themselves in an area big enough to proclaim a kingdom - a large part of England south of Scotland and north of present day Birmingham became a Viking Kingdom centered in York. (As a result thereof, one of the largest Viking museums in the world is to be found in Leeds in northern England).

The Saxon king of England, Alfred the Great, who ruled from 871 to 899 AD, managed to militarily halt the Viking advance and entered into an agreement with the Vikings to halt the fighting which had marked the latter's presence in the island from the time of their first settlement. In effect Alfred accepted the permanence of the Viking kingdom in the North of England. This Viking English kingdom was to later be the source of a Scandinavian claim to the English throne.

RAIDING CHURCHES FOR THEIR WEALTH

On the continent, the Vikings established for themselves a reputation as fierce pirates - their favorite targets were Christian churches and monasteries. It is unlikely that they targeted these places for any anti-Christian ideological reason, but rather for the fact that any wealth in any Christian territory was more than likely to have been drawn into the local church as a tax. The Vikings knew that the wealthiest place in any town would be the church, and always made straight for this building during any raid.



Tricking the Christians - Viking raiders always knew that the riches of society would be found hoarded in the church of any town. One of the most interesting stories from this time is that of the Viking raider Hasting, who plundered France for several years and then went to Italy with the intention of sacking Rome itself. Driven ashore by a storm near the town of Sarzana on the Magra River, the Viking mistook the town for Rome. Pretending to be on a peaceful mission, he was admitted into the town and baptized a Christian at the hands of the local bishop. During the following night, loud wailing was heard from the Viking ship, and it was announced that Hasting had died. He was taken ashore for a burial service - in the rich Christian church. It was an elaborate trick. As the Bishop was about to conduct the service for what he thought was his latest convert, Hasting sprang from the coffin, and, with the assistance of his armed followers, first dispatched the Bishop and the governor, and then attacked the town, capturing it after a bloody battle.

FRANCE - PARIS RAIDED 840 AD

It was not too long before the Vikings began looking to settle in other parts of Europe as well - the emerging French capital of Paris was raided in 840 AD by a particularly adventurous Viking band. In the early 900s, a Viking settlement was established with force of arms in north western France. In 911, the Frankish king, a great grandson of Charlemagne, granted formal recognition to this Viking settlement and in somewhat of a post factum manner made the settlement a vassal of the Frankish state.

The leader of this particular band of Vikings, called Gang-Hrolf by his own people (Ralph the Walker - as he was allegedly too large for any horse to carry him comfortably) was known to the Franks as

Rollo, reciprocated to the Frankish recognition by being baptized as a Christian and becoming the first Duke of Normandy - the name Normandy deriving from the word Norse-man. Rollo and his Normans did indeed become loyal vassals, pledging to protect their piece of coastline against other Viking invaders.

Before 1100, the Norman (and thus Viking) soldier Robert Guiscard sailed for Sicily, then partly under the occupation of the Muslim invasion which had accompanied the invasion of Spain. Guiscard fought his way into the Muslim controlled area, and proceeded to establish a Norman principality on Sicily, known as the Norman kingdom of Sicily. Normans from Sicily also took part in another great racial war, that of the Crusades against the Muslims in the Middle East.

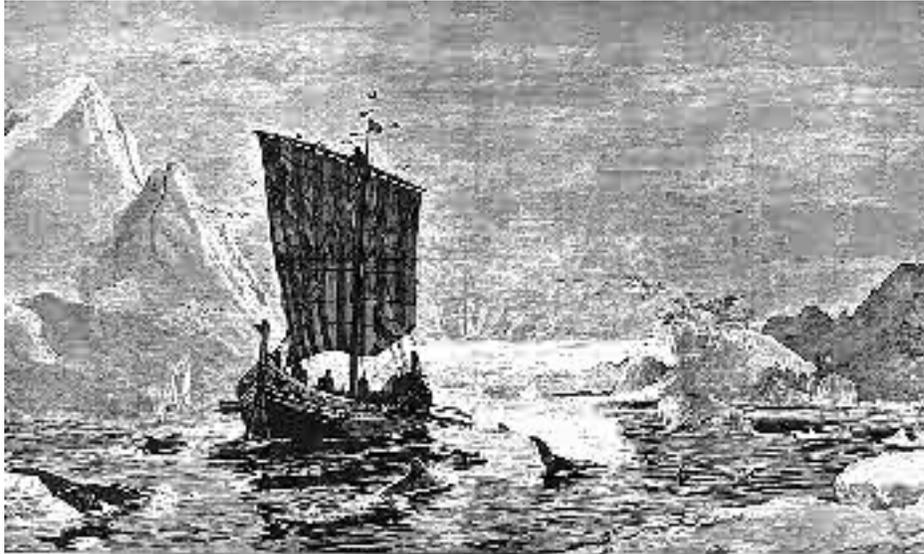


The extent of the Viking power was visibly demonstrated in 840 AD, when they besieged and raided the fortified city of Paris, then already the most powerful center in all of France. Here Viking boats approach the walls of the city on the Seine River.

NORTH AMERICA - VIKINGS LAND 500 YEARS BEFORE COLUMBUS

Other settlements established by Viking bands included outposts on the Hebrides, Orkney, Shetland and Faeroe islands. In 861 AD, a Viking discovered Iceland and soon the island was settled by other bands of Vikings. Around 950 AD, one of these Icelandic settlers, Eric the Red, sailed to Greenland, where another short lived Viking outpost was established.

In the year 986 AD, another Viking, Bjarni Herjulfsson, sailing from Norway to Greenland, missed his destination and by accident sighted the North American coast. He did not land, instead returning on his path, he told others in Greenland of his discovery. The son of Eric the Red, Leif, then took an expedition to the new land, landing on present day Newfoundland and living there just under one year before returning to Greenland.



A fine representation of Erik the Red's expedition discovering Greenland - a similar scene must have replayed itself when the Vikings reached the coast of Newfoundland in North America, and then as they penetrated ever further into the North American continent.

VINLAND

A few years later, another Greenland Viking, Thorfinn Karlsefni, launched a major expedition to the new land. Using three ships and 160 men and women, he set out to establish a Viking colony in North America. They built a settlement in Newfoundland (the remains of which were excavated in 1962) and in 1004, Thorfinn's wife Gudrid bore him a son named Snorri. Leif called the North American land Vinland, or Wineland, because of the grapes he found there.

However, the American natives, later called the Red Indians, constantly subjected Thorfinn's settlement to attacks, and overwhelmed by numbers, the Vikings were forced to abandon their settlement after three years.



Archeological evidence of a Viking settlement (the Way Station) at L'Anse aux Meadows, Newfoundland. This copper alloy ring headed pin of Norse design was found at the L'Anse Meadows site. Pins such as these were used to close the outer garments of both men and women.



A wooden ship repair piece found at the L'Anse Meadow site. Identical pieces have been found in excavations of Viking founded Dublin in Ireland.

THE HEAVENER RUNESTONES - VIKINGS IN OKLAHOMA CIRCA 900 AD

Precisely how far the Vikings penetrated into the mainland of North America is revealed by the existence of four runestones inscribed with symbols from the Viking language which can be found in the present day state of Oklahoma, USA.

The largest of the runestones is known as the Heavener Runestone. It is a sandstone slab, 12 feet high, ten feet wide, and 16 inches thick. It was first noticed in the modern era by bear hunters before 1874. This stone is carved with 8 letters from the oldest Viking language, the 24 rune Futhark, used from 300 until 800 AD, in Scandinavia.



Evidence of just how far the Vikings progressed into North America. A close-up of the runes on the Heavener Runestone, present day Oklahoma, USA. The runes are circa 900 AD.

In the immediate area, three other runestones have also been found: and at a small hill at of Cavanal Mountain, 14 miles away, another smaller inscription of eight runes is to be found.

In 1986, the runes on the largest stone were deciphered as meaning G-L-O-M-E-D-A-L, meaning Glome's Valley, a land claim. The other runestones also refer to Glome, saying "Magic or protection to Gloie (his nickname)". One of the smaller runestones appears to have been a gravestone. The other two runestones do not have enough runes for a translation, but the four stones were placed in a

straight line, miles apart.

In order to enter Oklahoma, Vikings would probably have rounded the tip of Florida into the Gulf of Mexico, found the Mississippi River, and sailed into its tributaries, the Arkansas and Poteau Rivers, around 750 AD. This date is indicated by the grammar used on the Runestones.

MINNESOTA VIKINGS - ILL FATED EXPEDITION IN 1362

In November 1898, a further runestone was discovered near Kensington in the present day state of Minnesota. When deciphered, these runes revealed the story of an ill fated Viking expedition to the area which occurred in 1362.

A translation of the runestone makes fascinating reading: [on the front of the stone]

"8 Goths and 22 Norwegians on discovery voyage from Vinland over (the) west we had camp by 2 skerries one days journey north from this stone we were and fishe(ed) one day after we came home found 10 men red with blood and dead A(ve) V(irgo) M(aria) preserve from evil"

[on the side of the stone]

"have 10 men by the seas to see after our ship(s) 14 day-journeys from this island year 1362."



The Kensington Runestone, recounting the saga of an ill fated Viking expedition to present day Minnesota in 1362.

The stone has been the source of a fair amount of controversy. During the late 1940s, it was overwhelmingly considered authentic and was displayed in the halls of the Smithsonian Institution. The fate of the intrepid Vikings remains unknown.

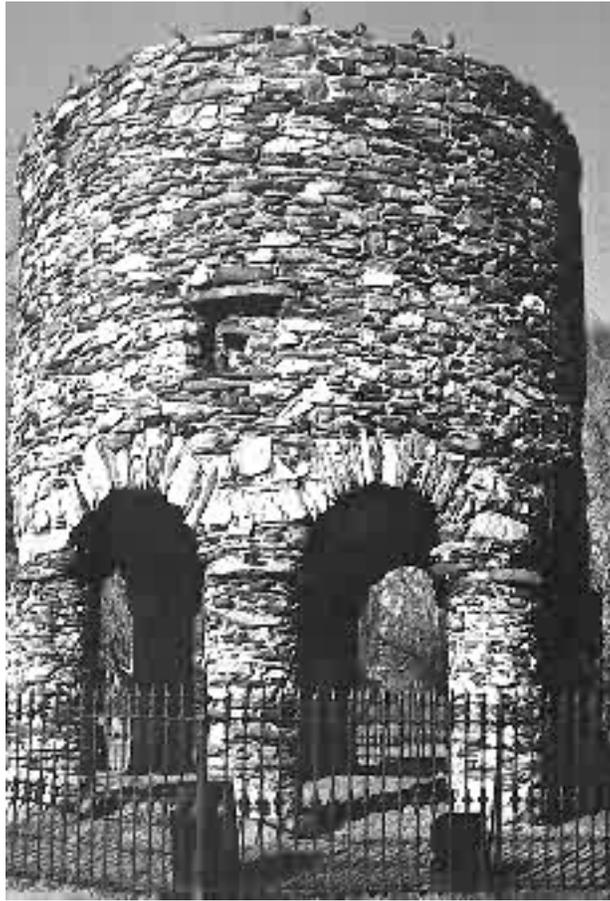
THE NEWPORT TOWER

In Touro Park, Newport, Rhode Island, a stone tower, called the Newport Tower, may be the oldest fully existing Norse building in North America, probably built in the 12th Century.

It has been claimed that the tower - most often referred to as Governor Arnold's Mill - was built by Governor Arnold around the year it is mentioned in his will - 1677. However, the shape of the structure is most unsuited to that of a mill. The top of the building is obviously meant to be used as a lookout tower over the bay; and the inside as an early church, complete with a place for an altar and a fireplace (all of which are incompatible with the inside of a mill). The structure's design closely resembles other early Norse style churches which can be found in Europe.

The first mention of the existence of the tower comes in the account of the Italian explorer Giovanni de Verrazano, who, while in the service of the French, was the first 16th Century European to enter New York Bay in 1524. Verrazano noted the tower on his map of the area, calling it a "Norman villa" because of its obvious Norse design and construction.

The most compelling evidence of the Norse construction of Newport Tower is however the existence of a Runic inscription on one of the walls, which has been translated to read HINKIRS or Henrikus - a Norse name.



The Newport Tower, Rhode Island, USA. Often thought to have been built as a mill around 1670, compelling evidence - including a runic inscription inside the tower and the style and design (most unsuited to that of a mill) indicates that it is the oldest intact Viking structure on the North American continent.

The explorer Verrazano also noted that the natives with whom he came into contact around the Newport area were "polite, cultured and of fair complexion". Bernardo Carli, one of Verrazano's men, wrote "This is the most beautiful and the most civilized people that we have found in our navigation. They excel us in size, are of a bronze color, some inclined to whiteness." These physical characteristics are all clear evidence of Norse ancestry.

Numerous American Indian words are also of clear Norse origin. Mallery compiled a huge list of Iroquis words with Norse origins in his book mentioned above. Others which are of interest are:

- In New England, the Indian name of the port of Halifax was "Chebuct" - in Norse a 'Sjobukt" is a sea bay.

- In Martha's Vineyard a pond called "Mennemsha" lies between Gay's Head and Chilmark. In Norse the word "Mellemsjo" means in-between pond, or body of water.

- Near Pemaquid, Maine, a tribal branch of the Abnaki was called "Norridgewok": "Norrewg's Folk", or the people of Norway.

- A hill in New Jersey was called "Espating" by the Indians; "Asp", the Norse name for the Asp tree, has come into English unchanged; while the Norse word for a meeting place, a "ting" is the clear origin of the rest of the word Espating.

VIKING SETTLEMENT ENDS IN GREENLAND

The encroaching ice of Greenland eventually proved too much even for the hardy Vikings, and the last survivors died in 1740 AD during the interglacial freeze of the 18th Century. Today the inhabitants of Iceland, because of the geographic isolation, are the most pure descendants of the Vikings in the world, speaking a virtually identical language and having the distinction of being the last European nation to recognize Christianity as a legitimate religion, well into the 1100s.

POLITICAL UNITY - FAILED

In Scandinavia itself, several Viking leaders tried to establish some form of unity, most notably Harald Fairhair who beat the Viking chieftains of western Norway in 872; and Harald Bluetooth who in 965, after being baptized as a Christian, tried to convert the Danes to Christianity. Both these attempts at unity failed, and Harald Bluetooth, despite being a legitimate descendent of a leading Viking chief, was exiled.

THE SAGA OF HARALD HARDRAADA - HOW A VIKING RULED ENGLAND

It was from this struggle for unity amongst the Vikings that one of the most colorful characters in Viking history was to emerge: Harald Hardraada.

Harald's tale begins with the attempts by a great grandson of Harald Fairhair, one Olaf Tryggvason, being baptized as a Christian as part of a settlement arranged with the English, whom Olaf's Vikings had been subjecting to a particularly pulverizing series of raids. Olaf however not only was acknowledged as leader of the Vikings in northern England, but he also managed to quell enough dissent in Norway to become that country's first king around 995 AD.

As a result of this, the throne of King of Norway was then linked to the leadership of at least half of England: when Harald Hardraada (the "hard ruler") finally ascended to the throne, this sparked off one of the final battles between the Vikings and the English.

Harald was the half brother of King Olaf the Stout, a king of Norway who was chased out of his country while trying to violently convert his countrymen to Christianity. Olaf fled to the Viking settlements in Russia, which had become Christianized, and raised an army to stage a comeback in Norway. Olaf returned to Norway in 1030, with his 15 year old half brother, Harald, at his side. Together they fought their pagan countrymen but were defeated. Olaf was killed (he was later made a saint by the Christian Church and is to this day patron saint of Norway) and Harald severely wounded.

The young Harald fled back to Russia, stopping in Kiev to enlist in the army of King Yaroslav, winning great prestige as a soldier. From there he went to Constantinople where he enlisted in the emperor's Varangian guard, an elite army unit made up exclusively of Vikings and Rus recruited from the Norse settlements in Christian Russia. For a decade Harald fought for the Eastern Roman Empire, winning not only great fame but also great wealth.

In 1044, he went back to Kiev and married the daughter of King Yaroslav. By 1047, he had worked his way back to Norway where he claimed the Norwegian throne, his royal family tie combined with his by now legendary exploits being enough to silence opposition to his becoming king.

During the next nineteen years, Harald continued trying to Christianize his countrymen, earning for himself the name of "hard ruler".

Harald's last great exploit came in 1066. Upon the death of the Anglo-Saxon king, Edward the Confessor, Harald claimed the English crown for himself on the basis of the shared sovereignty of Norway and Northern England. However, another claimant to the English throne also put in his bid - William, Duke of Normandy, ironically the descendant of Vikings just like Harald himself.

Harald first formed an alliance with Earl Tostig, the disaffected brother of the English king who had succeeded Edward the Confessor, Harold Godwinson. Then Harald sailed for England and seized the town of York as a base for his operations against Harold Godwinson. The Viking and English armies clashed at the battle of Stamford Bridge, where Harald was killed.



Norman cavalymen from the Bayeux Tapestry, celebrating the Norman invasion of England, 1066. The Norsemen all still wore the traditional Viking dress, and Harold Hardraada would have been similarly clad in his adventures across the known world.

The damage he inflicted upon Harold Godwinson's army was however such that it was unable to ward off the invasion by William of Normandy at Hastings a few days later. Harold Godwinson was killed and William became William the Conqueror - a Norman Viking descendant became king of England.

The death of Harald Hardraada at Stamford Bridge marked the final appearance of the true adventurer Scandinavian spirit: after him there would be no more Vikings and their raids.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 26 : SUN KINGS AND REVOLUTION - FRANCE

The history of France is bathed in blood. Millions of White Frenchmen have been slaughtered in what seems like an endless array of wars, military adventures and natural disasters.

The story of this powerful European nation reads like a roller coaster ride and shows how a civilization can survive even the most dramatic vicissitudes of destiny, if it keeps its population homogenous. The ability of France to survive centuries of dramatic events is proof that the "environmental" theory of the rise and fall of civilizations is false. If a nation can survive what the French have endured, then no social "environmental" change can destroy them.

THE FRANKS - CLOVIS I INTRODUCES CHRISTIANITY

Following the fall of the Roman Empire in the West, the region now known as France was occupied by a Germanic tribe called the Franks. Originally a pagan tribe, the fate of Western civilization was changed when the Frankish king, Clovis I, converted to Christianity in 496 AD. Clovis invaded the Visigoth Empire in 507 AD, causing them to abandon that part of France they had occupied after the fall of Rome and retreat to Spain.

Clovis I died in 511, and his successor expanded the Frankish kingdom to include the Burgundinians (who held the only piece of modern day France not then held by the Franks), Belgium and crossed the Rhine into Germany itself.



The founder of the Frankish Empire, Clovis 1, rose to prominence in 481 AD. His most significant deed was his conversion to Christianity in 496 AD - without this conversion it is doubtful that Christianity would ever have taken hold on the European mainland. He initiated the practice of converting White pagans by the sword when he invaded the Visigoth Empire in 507 AD, causing them to flee south into Spain.

The principal deficiency in Clovis' political legacy was the practice of dividing the Frankish kingdom up amongst all the sons of the kings: soon infighting over inheritance and territory size became the order of the day and the Frankish empire was weakened as a result. The division amongst the Franks was finally put to an end by the Lord of Paris, one Charles Martel, ("Charles the Hammer") who by force of arms and will power became sole leader of the Franks - just in time to ward off a new threat which surged up from the south - the Muslim invasion which expanded across from North Africa into Spain and northern France.

Charles Martel was succeeded by his son, Pepin the Short, who reigned from 741 to 768 AD. Pepin received from the Bishop of Rome sanction to be the sole ruler of France - the first of many times that the Pope would see fit to approve leaders of states in the name of the Christian God. Pepin was crowned by the English missionary, St. Boniface, acting on behalf of the Pope, in 752 AD.

The real reason for the Pope's friendliness to Pepin was that the Christian Bishop felt in need of some allies, as the Germanic Lombards were by this stage pouring into Italy, threatening Rome itself. In 756 AD, the Pope's maneuvering paid off. A Frankish army attacked the Lombards (who had firmly established themselves in northern Italy and had settlements in central and southern Italy) and forced them to cede Rome and parts of central Italy directly to the Pope.

In 768, Pepin's son, Charlemagne (Charles the Great), inherited the Frankish kingdom. Taking advantage of feuding amongst the Moors in Spain, Charlemagne's first act was to create a buffer state between the Moors and France - an objective which was achieved in 778 AD.

CHARLEMAGNE AND THE CHRISTIANIZATION OF THE SAXONS

After fighting off the Nonwhite Muslim invaders to the south, Charlemagne then proceeded to launch a bloody war of extermination against the Saxon and other pagan German tribes under his control. The full story of this process - which saw the last paganism on the western part of the continent of Europe exterminated - has already been recounted in chapter 17 of this book which deals with Christianity. Suffice to say here that after killing thousands of pagans, Charlemagne managed to create a virtually uniform Christian kingdom - even if many of his subjects only paid lip service to the new religion.



Palatine Chapel of Charlemagne, Aachen, 792 AD. The city of Aachen - known in France as Aix-La-Chapelle - would be the center of centuries of conflict between the Germans and French, lying as it does in the long disputed region of Alsace Lorraine.

In this way Charlemagne built up an empire which consisted of much of today's modern France and Germany, establishing as his court the centrally located city Aix-La-Chapelle, or Aachen, as it was known in Germany.

CHARLEMAGNE INVADES LOMBARDY - CROWNED "HOLY ROMAN EMPEROR" IN 800 AD

After expanding Christianity amongst the western Germans in a violent manner, Charlemagne turned his attention to the troublesome Germans in Italy - the Lombards. Charlemagne invaded the Lombard kingdom in northern Italy in 774, and proceeded to swiftly defeat their army. He then proclaimed himself king of the Lombards for good measure.

Charlemagne's exploits in re-uniting what had been almost all of the lands of the old Western Roman Empire (with the exception of Britain and Muslim occupied Spain), was celebrated by the Frankish king being crowned emperor of the "Holy Roman Empire" on 25 December 800, in Rome by the Pope himself. The use of the title of "Holy Roman Emperor" was an attempt by Christianity to ally itself with the past glory of Rome.

In reality what had happened was that the White Germanic tribes had managed to restore order out of the chaos left behind by the collapse of the multi-racial Roman state.

The occupation of Austria, much of Germany and northern Italy by the Franks did not introduce any major changes to the racial composition of these territories - they were all of the same Germanic stock, but the wholesale slaughter of those Whites who were not Christians, or refused to become Christians, unquestionably had an impact upon White numbers and quality in these regions.

This was particularly the case with the leadership element of these Germanic tribes. Usually the biggest, bravest and strongest members of these tribes (the original Germanics actually voted for their chiefs), were the first to be targeted for execution by the Christian "missionaries". As such the Germanics lost entire generations of their best sorts to the Christian sword.

CHARLEMAGNE'S EMPIRE DIVIDED - ORIGIN OF MODERN GERMANY AND FRANCE

In 814, Charlemagne died at his capital, Aix-La-Chapelle. His son, Louis the Pious, was crowned emperor but he lacked the iron will of his father to keep the Holy Roman Empire united. There was no central infrastructure and Louis soon found that he as one person could not control all the territories, and divided the empire up amongst his three sons, Charles, Lothaine and Louis.

This division of land amongst the three children was the cause of the centuries long struggle between their heirs. Charles' territory became France, Louis' territory became western Germany and Lothaine's territory became the disputed land of Alsace Lorraine, over which the Germans and French fought many wars - the last of which occurred 1,000 years after Charlemagne's death, in 1940.

The political divisions between the emerging French and Germans were sealed at the Treaty of Verdun in 843, which ended infighting amongst the three brothers and mapped each one's territory. This treaty gave political recognition to the cultural and linguistic division taking place with the Rhine River as the border - to the west, French was developing, while to the east, German was developing.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN FRANCE - ELECTION OF FIRST NON-ITALIAN POPE

The reign of Charlemagne's successor, King Louis I (crowned in 813 AD) was marked by the first Viking raids into France and the final separation of France from Germany. By 990 AD, the Franks had elected a new king- Hugh Capet, who established the Capetian dynasty, under whose direction the French state began taking shape.

In 1214, France added Normandy and Anjou to its territory by defeating the combined armies of England and the Holy Roman Empire at the Battle of Bouvines.

This was followed shortly thereafter by occupation of the provinces of Provence and Languedoc. King Philip III, who reigned from 1270 to 1285, once more launched an attack on the Moors in Spain: the adventure ended in disaster when he was killed in battle. In the late 13th Century, Philip IV, last of the great Capetian kings, annexed Franche-Comte, Lyon, and parts of Lorraine.

In 1305, Philip managed to arrange for a French Pope, Clement V, to be elected - the first non-Italian Pope since the Church had been founded. Clement V immediately moved the papal court from Rome to Avignon in France, provoking a major split and crisis in the Church.



A scene from the Hundred Years War - a knight cuts his opponent clean in half with one mighty blow. The illustration is accurate - excavation of graves from this era show that such a blow could easily split a man from shoulder to thigh.

THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR - BATTLES OF CRECY AND AGINCOURT

In 1337, England and France went to war after English king Edward III issued a claim on the French throne. The war, which became known as the Hundred Years' War, lasted from 1337 to 1453. The Hundred Years War started with the English defeating a French fleet off the coast of the Netherlands, at the Battle of Sluis, and then landing in France itself. The first major land battle took place at Crecy-en-Ponthieu in 1346 - and was again won by the English, who then launched a two year long siege of Calais, which finally fell in 1348.

In 1415, the English king, Henry V, launched a new invasion of France and defeated the French at the famous Battle of Agincourt in that year, won by a new secret weapon: the longbow, which gave the English archers a vastly superior range for their weapons. With the longbow, the English were able to rain down a torrent of arrows upon the French before the latter could reply in kind.



A battle of The Hundred Years War: note the early cannons in the foreground.

THE BLACK DEATH KILLS A THIRD OF THE FRENCH POPULATION

In the midst of the defeats suffered at the hands of the English, France was also particularly badly affected by the outbreak of the Black Death - the bubonic plague - in 1348, which killed an estimated one-third of France's population. The plague returned in 1361, 1362, 1369, 1372, 1382, 1388, and 1398. Children born after an outbreak were especially vulnerable in a new outbreak, which further affected the already great decline in population.

JOAN OF ARC AND VICTORY OVER THE ENGLISH - ONLY CALAIS REMAINS IN ENGLISH HANDS

France's revival under Charles VII (1422-1461) was begun by a peasant, Joan of Arc, whose leadership inspired the French. After presenting herself to the king as a volunteer for France, Joan personally played major part in the lifting of the siege of Orleans. Captured by the English, Joan was burned at the stake upon the insistence of French vassals of the English. The war continued for another 20 years after Joan's death, but the French never lost the initiative and in 1453, they entered Bordeaux. The English were forced to surrender, having lost the Hundred Years' War. They surrendered all their territory in France with the exception of Calais.



Joan of Arc marches through the streets of Rheims, her task complete - the English driven out. The farm girl, a mere 18 years old when she led a French army against the English in 1430, wanted to go home after the capture of Rheims, but the French monarchy refused to grant her permission to leave. All accounts of Joan have it that she was not only an inspiring leader, but also - rare amongst military leaders of her time - compassionate with captives. Two recorded incidents are that she helped a seriously wounded English soldier in the middle of one battle, and that she broke down and wept when several English soldiers were drowned in a moat while attempting to escape the French. Joan was eventually captured and, at the insistence of French vassals of the English, put on trial and burned at the stake on 30 May 1431. She was canonized as a saint in 1920, and is to this day the national heroine of France.

THE RENAISSANCE AND COLONIAL EXPANSION - AMERICA, ASIA, AFRICA

The peace which followed the end of the Hundred Years War was marked by a time of increasing prosperity and growth. Under king Francis I (1515-1547), the French Renaissance took hold, producing some of the finest works of that period.

At the same time France also started a period of colonial expansion, occupying large parts of Northern America, Asia and north west Africa. Like Portugal and Spain, these colonies were for the greatest part exploited economically, and no conscious effort was made to populate them with any large White French numbers, with the only exception being the colony of Algeria and one region in North America, which later became the Canadian province of Quebec.

THE REFORMATION - ENLIGHTENED HENRY VI

The advent of the Protestant rebellion against Catholicism spread to France as well, provoking a series of Christian Wars fought between Roman Catholics and French Protestants, known as Huguenots.

Hundreds of thousands of Frenchmen, like their Christian compatriots in almost every country of

Europe, started attacking each other with intemperate cruelty and bloodlust, slaying one another over mere interpretations of the Bible.

The most infamous of these Christian outrages came in 1572, when 20,000 Protestants were killed in what became known as the St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre.

The wars ended in 1598, when the French King of the time, Henry IV, issued the Edict of Nantes, which granted freedom of religion in France. The reign of Henry IV after 1598 was for France a period of recovery from the devastation and disruption of the Wars of Religion and the beginning of renewed economic growth.

Greatly aiding the ordinary White peasantry, Henry canceled arrears in land taxes, forbade seizure of livestock or tools by creditors, made public lands available for purchase below market price, and restricted nobles' hunting rights over cultivated fields. By the close of the 17th Century's first decade, the economy was thriving and royal authority was again firmly established.

THE THIRTY YEARS WAR - EXHAUSTED FRANCE FINANCIALLY

The next French King, Louis XIII, became famous only for appointing a more famous prime minister, Armand du Plessis, also known as Cardinal de Richelieu, who became the de facto ruler of France for 18 years. Richelieu was an adept statesman, firmly entrenching the power of the king's office through the breaking down of the feudal system and the power of the regional nobility.

However, Richelieu's efforts were largely undone by the outbreak of the Thirty Years War which started in 1618 and only ended in 1648 with the Treaty of Westphalia. The Thirty Years War started out as a peasant revolt in Bohemia related to the Catholic/Protestant divide and spread to involve almost all European countries, fighting either on the Catholic or Protestant sides. The French took the opportunity to simultaneously try and eliminate their growing rivals, the royal house of Habsburg in Germany, an aim in which they failed.

The war also financially exhausted France, and the country was teetering on economic collapse when the five year old Louis XIV inherited the throne upon his father's death in 1643.

THE SUN KING - LOUIS XIV - COMPETENT RULER

Louis XIV grew into a competent ruler who ran a tight ship of state. He engaged in many great building works, including the famous Palace of Versailles outside Paris, which can still be viewed in its original setting to this day.

However, Louis XIV once again engaged France in four different wars against the by now traditional foes, the Germans, and also in 1685, revoked the Edict of Nantes, declaring France to be a Catholic state once again. Quite apart from the thousands of Frenchmen killed in the wars, over 200,000 of some of the most educated and skilled White Frenchmen - who tended to form the majority of the Protestants - fled the country, settling in North America, South Africa and other European countries.

THE WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION - FRANCE INHERITS SPAIN

France became entangled in a war with a number of European states called the War of the Spanish Succession from 1701 to 1714. This war started when the childless king of Spain, Charles II, willed his kingdom and its empire to France on his deathbed. England, Holland, Austria and the other smaller states making up the Holy Roman Empire reacted with shock - the addition of Spain to France's already significant strength would make her the most powerful country in Europe, and together these nations formed the Grand Alliance and made war on France to prevent the union of Spain and that country.

Though the decisive battles were fought in Europe, the war extended to the colonies, where the British and French settlements in North America became involved in a war which involved the Native American population, known as the French and Indian Wars.

The English Duke of Marlborough and the (originally French, but fighting for the Austrians) Prince Eugene of Savoy, beat French armies in Europe at the battles of Blenheim (1704), Ramillies (1706) and Malplaquet, but no knock out blow could be delivered by any of the White nations against each other, and the war dragged on inconclusively. Finally the Spanish solved the problem by electing themselves a new king, and the war ended in 1714 with the Peace of Utrecht.

SLIDE INTO REVOLUTION - LOSES COLONIES

France continued to be a powerful nation, and although engaging in the slave trade along with the other European nations, did not follow the path of Spain and especially Portugal in importing Nonwhite slaves into France itself. Only a very small number of Black slaves were ever taken back into France, but they were so rare that they were of curiosity value only.

However, the French nobility and kings after Louis XIV became ever more despotic and mismanaged the economy, leading to a large degree of impoverishment.

The French kings also became increasingly anti-Jewish, in line with other fanatical Catholic nations, and restrictions on Jews and their activities became ever tighter. In particular the accusation was made that the Jews engaged in exploitative financial practices (their pre-eminence in the banking world fueled these allegations).

France also continued to engage in yet more European wars:

- the War of the Austrian Succession, fought from 1740 to 1748, over the right of Empress Maria Theresa of Austria to rule over Austrian lands inherited from her father; and
- the Seven Years' War, fought from 1756 to 1763, a conflict between Austria and Prussia which involved all the major European powers who took the opportunity to settle scores of their own with each other - in France's case they formed part of the colonial wars with the English in North America. At the end of the War of the Austrian Succession and the Seven Years' War by 1763, France had lost virtually all of its colonial empire in America and in India.

All of these wars further strained the French economy and when Louis XVI ascended to the throne in 1774, the country was in urgent need of economic and social reform. Louis XVI refused to attend to the problems, giving the anarchists in French society the chance to capitalize upon the growing

dissent with royal rule.

Finally the involvement of a significant number of Frenchmen in the American War of Independence (the Revolutionary War as it became known in America) inspired a number of Frenchmen with the principles of the American declaration of independence - republicanism and democracy.

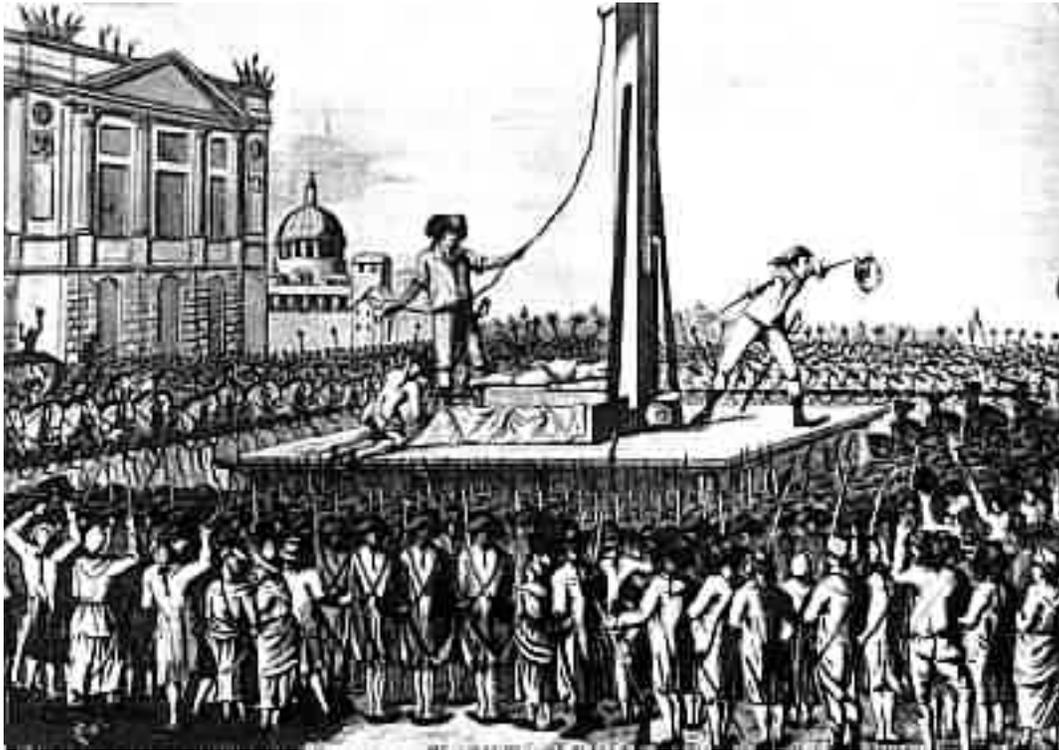
THE FRENCH REVOLUTION - LOUIS XVI BEHEADED

A meeting of a long dormant meeting of the people of France (the Estates General) in 1798 resulted in the "third estate" - the representatives of the large masses of French people at the Estates General, setting off a popular uprising, which included the seizure of a virtually empty prison in Paris, the Bastille.

The popular uprising resulted in the creation of a constitutional monarchy with a parliament elected indirectly by taxpaying citizens. This state lasted just over a year, but started to collapse when the King and his family were captured trying to flee France.

In the interim, the other nations of Europe, concerned that the anti-monarchical ideals would spread, declared war on France. The Prussians invaded, very nearly capturing Paris itself, while the English besieged Toulon. The Austrian Emperor responding to a personal appeal for help from his blood relation, Queen Marie Antoinette, wife of Louis XVI, also invaded. In the East, Spain also invaded. Predictably, the military situation became critical for France.

A number of military defeats, climaxing in April 1792, caused the launching of another popular insurrection in August 1792. The Royal family was seized at the palace of Versailles (the damaged door which was broken down by an incensed mob can still be seen at that palace) and, charged with treason, Louis XVI was publicly beheaded in January 1793. His Austrian wife, Marie Antoinette, suffered the same fate in October of that year.



1793 - the King of France is beheaded in Paris on the square now known as the Place del la Concorde. His head was displayed to waiting mob after his execution. Often it was enough for a person just to have had blonde hair to be accused of being a nobleman - even though this was of course not always true, the French Revolution severely reduced the number of blond haired Whites in France.

THE REIGN OF TERROR- NORDICS TARGETED

The French Revolution soon took a sub-racial undertone - often it was enough to have blond hair to be declared a noble and be beheaded. This was taken to an extreme under a bloodthirsty period known as the "reign of terror" and led to civil and foreign wars for ten years.

During this period, revolutionary tribunals and commissions beheaded close on 17,000 people - when the numbers of Frenchmen who died in prison or shot out of hand is added in, the victims of the Reign of Terror totaled approximately 40,000.

Of those executed, approximately 8 percent were nobles, 6 percent were members of the clergy, 14 percent belonged to the middle class, and 70 percent were workers or peasants charged with draft dodging, desertion, hoarding, rebellion, and various other "anti-revolutionary" crimes.

One step taken by the new French Republic was the official emancipation of the French Jews, and for the first time they were allowed to participate fully in public office in France. For this reason French and European Jewry became outspoken supporters of the revolution.

ANTI-CHRISTIAN OUTBURST - CHURCHES ACCUSED OF HOARDING AND CORRUPTION

Striving to establish a "Republic of Virtue," the leaders of the revolution stressed devotion to the republic and instituted measures against corruption and hoarding - two trademarks of the Church.

This led directly to the November 1793 closing of all churches in the Commune of Paris, a measure soon copied by authorities elsewhere in France. A non-Christian cult was established, known as the Cult of Reason, with its main center being the then desanctified Notre Dame Cathedral in Paris.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE - CRUSHES ROYALIST UPRISING

With a superhuman effort, France turned the military front around - at the end of 1794 French forces overran the Austrian Netherlands, occupied the United Netherlands (which they reorganized as the Batavia Republic - later to become the Netherlands), and routed the allied Prussian - Austrian armies on the Rhine River border.

These defeats caused the collapse of the anti-French coalition and in April 1795, the Treaty of Basal saw Prussia and a number of smaller German states end hostilities. In July, Spain also withdrew from the war against the French Republic, leaving Britain, and Austria as the only large powers still formally at war with France - the Austrians still being incensed at the execution of Marie Antoinette. However, a stalemate was reached, and relative peace resulted for more than a year.

In Paris, a new constitution creating a republic had been drafted, containing strong clauses preventing the return of any monarchy. Parisian Royalists objected to these clauses and on October 1795, launched their own uprising in Paris.

The royalist uprising was crushed by troops under the command of a then little known French general, Napoleon Bonaparte.

Insurrection and chaos continued. The new constitution was battered by a succession of mostly unsuccessful coups and intrigues - finally in 1799, Bonaparte and a group of supporters seized control of the French government and re-established autocratic rule, known as the Consulate.



French infantry in action in Saxony in 1813, from a contemporary print. The soldier on the left is biting off the end of a cartridge before loading his musket.

THE NAPOLEONIC WARS - DRASTIC CONSEQUENCES

The wars unleashed as a result of the French Revolution became known as the Napoleonic Wars: they were to engulf Europe for nearly 16 years and had a number of significant consequences, the most important of which was a severe depopulation of France itself, with over a million Frenchmen being killed during the period of these wars.

The history of the wars and Napoleon's career is a staggering story of exertion and suffering - the events are reviewed in full in the next chapter.

Apart from his military campaigns, Napoleon also became famous for his codification of French Law, which to this day remains the basis for that country's legal system. Despite the Law Code guaranteeing freedom of association and political expression, it was apparent that Napoleon himself did not take the wording seriously, and in 1809, he established a French Empire, declaring himself Emperor by literally crowning himself.

Napoleon then went to war with most of the rest of Europe, and through a stunning feat of arms, managed to defeat almost everybody. His invasion of Germany and Russia in 1813, was to lead to his downfall - he was defeated at the battle of Leipzig in 1813, and France was invaded. Napoleon then abdicated and was exiled to the island of Elba. The French royalty was then restored, with the younger brother of the executed Louis XVI being made king.

The power of Napoleon's personality was revealed when he dramatically escaped from Elba, landed in France and in a triumphant march on Paris, once again raised a French army. In 1815, he re-established his empire, but a coalition of European powers defeated him at the Battle of Waterloo that same year, and he was exiled to the island of St. Helena, where he died (possibly poisoned) in 1821.

The allied victors occupied nearly two thirds of France after the Battle of Waterloo and held it for five years, imposing heavy fines upon the hapless French for having once again supported Napoleon.

RACIAL EFFECTS OF THE REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEONIC WARS

Although the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars did not result in the importation of any large numbers of Nonwhites into France, huge numbers of White Frenchmen, both nobles and commoners, lost their lives in the period from 1789 to 1815, with the Napoleonic Wars alone resulting in the deaths of over a million White Frenchmen - a huge slice of the population at that time, possibly as much as 35 per cent of all able bodied Frenchmen of all ages. The French Revolution itself had dealt a serious blow to the Nordic element of French society, as Nordic features were associated with nobility and made immediate targets for the revolutionary mobs. This led to a denordicisation of the French population which is still evident today in the relatively small number of blondes amongst the modern French population.

THE MONARCH RESTORED - FRANCHISE LIMITED TO 100,000

With the expulsion of Napoleon, the French monarchy was once again restored in the person of Louis XVIII, in terms of a new constitution which created a new parliamentary democracy - with the right to vote being limited to less than 100,000 property owners.

In 1830, Charles V, the then ruling French king, after conflicting with the elected parliament on a number of domestic issues, dissolved the parliament, reduced the number of voters and issued restrictions on the freedom of the press.

Another popular uprising took place, and after three days of heavy street fighting in Paris, the royal forces were driven from the capital, and Charles abdicated.

The parliament reconvened and called to the throne Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, head of the younger branch of the Bourbon family. Under the new rule, a period of peace and progress ensued. A School Law in 1833 required every region to set up and run a primary school for boys, free to those who could not afford to pay tuition and in 1842, a Railway Law set in motion the creation of the French national railway network. After 1849, the industrial revolution took root in France, transforming it within a few decades into one of the leading industrial states of Europe.

THE 1848 REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEON III

In 1848, a number of mini-French revolutions spread across Europe as the populations became increasingly desirous of greater reforms from their monarchical rulers.

Louis Philippe consistently refused requests to extend the franchise, and a clash between troops and pro-republic demonstrators in Paris in February 1848, led to a full scale revolution which saw the king abdicate (obviously not wanting to wait until he was beheaded like the last French king caught up in a revolution) and a republic declared - the Second French Republic.



Louis Napoleon, or Napoleon III of France. Trading upon the name of his famous uncle, Louis Napoleon became an elected monarch of France after seizing power unconstitutionally. He was a fairly effective leader and relatively popular - until his army was defeated by the Prussians during the Franco-Prussian war of 1871. Captured by the Prussians, Louis Napoleon was to hear from the Germans that the French had deposed him in his absence and had declared the Third French Republic.

THE SECOND REPUBLIC AND SECOND EMPIRE - NEPHEW OF BONAPARTE RULES

The Second Republic's constitution created a presidential republic with a parliament elected by universal male suffrage. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, a nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, won the presidency by an overwhelming vote.

Although the elections had produced a two thirds majority of conservatives, it appeared that the radical republicans would win the 1852 election. Louis Napoleon, posing as the savior of society from radical revolution, seized power in a coup in December 1851, restoring the empire and giving himself the title of Napoleon III (Napoleon I's son, Napoleon II, never reigned).

Initially, Napoleon III governed France as autocracy. As the economy improved, he introduced a program of reforms and by 1870, he had created a parliamentary monarchy system of government.

THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR AND THE THIRD REPUBLIC

In 1870, a crisis over the succession to the Spanish throne led to a war between France and the growing power of Prussia, which was then engaged in a program of unification of the German states.

The French troops were decimated by the far better equipped and trained Prussians, and in September 1870, Napoleon III and his largest army surrendered at Sedan.

When this news reached Paris, republicans declared the Third Republic and vowed to carry on the war. The Germans then advanced to Paris and besieged the city for four months - by January 1871, starved of food and supplies, the French capitulated.

In terms of the treaty which ended the war, France ceded to Germany the Alsace Lorraine region and undertook to pay indemnity to the Germans for damage caused during the war. The Germans also took the opportunity to crown the Prussian king, Wilhelm I, as King of Germany, in the Palace of Versailles.

CONTINUED UPHEAVAL - FIRST COMMUNIST UPRISING IN WORLD

The new French government had no sooner ended the war with Germany than it was faced with civil war. In March 1871, radical Republicans - calling themselves Communists - in Paris went into open revolt and set up an independent city government, the Commune of Paris. They held the capital for two months before being crushed in a week of bloody street fighting that left more than 20,000 dead - the first Communist revolution in the world.

The last three decades of the nineteenth century were marked by a period of economic growth once again, with France rebuilding an extensive colonial empire in Africa and Asia.

In Europe however, war was once again looming, with France, Britain, and Russia united in the Triple Entente, facing the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy.



The world's first Communist Revolution. France's troubles did not end with the defeat of her army by the Prussians in 1871 - following the downfall of the Emperor Louis Napoleon, communists declared a 'Communistic

Republic' in Paris on 28 March 1871. The French army moved to suppress the revolution and attacked Paris, but for two months the Parisians, armed with the weapons they had been issued with during the Franco-Prussian War and which they had been allowed to keep, resisted. After a series of street fights in some of the city's most well known thoroughfares, the Communists were defeated. A few stragglers however took their revenge by burning down some of the city's most famous landmarks - and they made such a good job of the Tuileries Palace (the city residence of the former Kings of France, which was razed to the ground.) Here the Tuileries burns, along with other buildings in Paris, during the last hours of the world's first Communist state.

THE FIRST WORLD WAR - ONE QUARTER OF ALL YOUNG FRENCHMEN KILLED

The outbreak of the First World War saw parts of Eastern France occupied by the Germans for most of the duration of the war: at the closing stages of the conflict, the Germans penetrated to within 60 miles of Paris itself, with the city coming under barrage from the massive German artillery pieces.

However, Germany and Austria were defeated, and France regained her occupied lands and occupied pieces of Germany as part of a reparations program.

Although France emerged as a victor at the end of the war, the cost in racial terms was devastating: 1,3 million men, a quarter of all White Frenchmen between the ages of 18 and 30, had been killed.



A French national hero - Marshall Henri Petain (left) poses with his fellow Generals just before the Battle of Verdun in 1916. Petain managed to rally the French forces in 1917 and stave off what seemed like certain defeat by the Germans.

THE FIRST POPULATION SHIFT

By 1919, the French population had been battered by more than two centuries of major wars, and had

started to go into a serious decline. The French government then started allowing French speaking Black Africans and Nonwhite Algerians into France, mainly for use as labor, but also as army troops, in order to make up population shortfalls.

In this way the German territory of the Rhineland was occupied by Black French troops, creating much anger amongst the Germans and becoming a political issue in the latter country.

According to official French statistics, some three million North African Arabic mixed race and African Blacks, all from the French colonies, immigrated into France itself during the period 1919 to 1927. (This figure is probably an underestimation, as it does not take into account illegal immigration, which probably accounted for a least half a million more).

Although the majority of Frenchmen did not integrate with this Nonwhite influx, a significant minority did, creating the inappropriately named "Mediterranean" look associated with the French in certain areas. This integration process did not however reach anywhere near the level of the Spanish, and was certainly nowhere near the Portuguese example.

Nonetheless, it is possible to see the traces of the large Black influx in a minority of modern Frenchmen to this day.

THE SECOND WORLD WAR

The rise of Nazi Germany during the 1930s saw a surge in support for French right wing parties espousing similar politics. In reaction to this, the Radical-Socialist, Socialist, and Communist parties formed an alliance in 1934, called the "Popular Front to Defend the Republic." By combining their votes the Popular Front managed to win a majority in the French parliament, and under the French Jewish prime minister, Leon Blum, instituted many anti-democratic policies - he outlawed and dissolved the right wing parties - ironically mirroring Adolf Hitler's dissolution of opposition parties in Germany.

The outbreak of the Second World War in 1939 saw France beaten by the revitalized German army in only six weeks in 1940. Although a small number of Free French fought on under their dynamic leader Charles de Gaulle, French armies played only a minor role in the subsequent defeat of Germany.



One of the 92,000 dead the French suffered during the invasion of that country by the Germans in May 1940. Together with the dead of the First World War, France suffered a total loss of some 1.6 million people in both wars.

For a period, nearly half of France remained unoccupied by Germany and ruled itself. This area, known as Vichy France, actively co-operated with the Germans and enacted its own anti-Jewish laws and generally establishing pro-German policies. Vichy France was led by one of the most decorated French generals of the First World War, Philippe Petain (who had rallied France when it was on the point of collapse in 1917.)

Vichy France was occupied by the Germans in 1942, and the whole country remained under German occupation until 1944, when the Germans were driven out by an Allied invasion.

THE FOURTH REPUBLIC AND THE COLONIAL WARS

In 1945, the Free French leader, Charles de Gaulle, established a provisional government in France, stepping down in 1946, when a democratic constitution was established and the Fourth Republic was established.

The Fourth Republic engaged in a series of social and economic reforms, but its colonial policy ultimately led to its downfall: as the de-colonization fervor swept through the Third World after the end of the Second World War, the French government found itself fighting a number of bitter regional conflicts.

A nine-year war against native guerrillas in French Indo-China (Vietnam) which cost France 92,000 dead, was ended in 1955, when the French withdrew. Algerian nationalists began a guerrilla war in 1954. In May 1958, militant army officers and White settlers, concerned that the French government was going to hand over control of the colony to the Nonwhites, seized control of Algiers. The army command supported them, and the spread of the military coup to France itself seemed imminent.

THE FIFTH REPUBLIC

As chaos threatened to engulf France as well, General de Gaulle, who had been living in political retirement, was called by the French parliament to restore order, voting him full powers to govern the country for six months and to prepare a new constitution.

De Gaulle redrafted the constitution to grant the president greater powers - this constitution was approved in 1959 and the Fifth Republic was declared.

In 1960, the constitution was once again amended to allow the French colonies to be declared independent. From that time on, France began dispossessing itself of its colonies, granting independence to a number of states in Africa. De Gaulle pressed ahead with negotiations to hand Algeria over to Arab rule, a process which sparked off White riots in Algiers. Nonetheless, Algeria became independent in 1961.

CONCERN OVER NONWHITE IMMIGRATION

In 1969, de Gaulle resigned amidst countrywide strikes and a student riot in Paris the previous year. Since then France has been ruled alternatively by Socialist or Conservative governments. Since the 1980s, an ever increasing number of Nonwhite immigrants into France has led to the establishment of a party dedicated to clamping down on immigration, the Front National, which in the mid 1990s was polling nearly 17 per cent (or around 4.5 million votes) of the total vote cast.



Concern in France about the high level of Nonwhite immigration during the last quarter of the Century saw the growth in anti-immigration movements such as the Front National, here seen demonstrating along with its leader Jean-Marie Le Pen. Alongside a Front National poster reading 'Immigration: Open your eyes.'

FRANCE'S LESSON

So it was that France survived the most extreme natural (the plague) and man-made (war) disasters, on a scale almost without comparison, and yet still managed to recuperate each time without sinking into oblivion.

The question arises: why could France withstand all these tribulations and still survive, while the Sumerians, Persians, Egyptians, Greeks, Romans all collapsed? None of these great civilizations were put under any greater environmentally caused pressure than that to which France has been subjected.

The crucial reason for the survival of France (and the crumbling into ruins of the old civilizations) was that the White French people themselves did not disappear nor become a minority in their own country, and were thus able to keep their society functioning - unlike the populations of each of the aforementioned ancient civilizations.

Only at the start of the 20th Century, and with the trend speeding up dramatically in the last quarter, has the French racial mix started to shift significantly. This process, and that of other similar cases, is discussed in a later chapter.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 27 : NAPOLEON BONAPARTE - FRENCH DISSOLUTION

White history has very often been shaped by the intelligence, character, strength of will of a single individual. Examples include the first Egyptian king, Menes - Alexander the Great - Julius Caesar - Adolf Hitler and Napoleon Bonaparte.

Napoleon Bonaparte ranks with the giants of White history. His appearance on the European landscape changed not only the course of modern Western Europe but also impacted heavily upon France itself.



Napoleon Bonaparte, a Nordic racial type, born on the island of Sardinia in the Mediterranean.

Born in 1769 in Corsica of French noble ancestry, the young Napoleon went to French military schools and started off as a lieutenant in the French army. Recognized by his commanding officers as a soldier of exceptional ability, he was, by the time of the French revolution, a general who had worked his way up through the ranks by merit.

The wars which have become known as the Napoleonic Wars were essentially a continuation of the wars resulting from the Revolution, through which the Habsburgs of Austria and other royal houses in Europe combined in an effort to overthrow the revolutionary government of France and restore the French monarchy.



In the path of Hannibal - Napoleon crossing the Alps to do battle in northern Italy, against the First Coalition, 1799.

FIRST COALITION

In the War of the First Coalition, fought from 1793 to 1797, France fought against an alliance consisting of Austria, Prussia, Great Britain, Spain, the Netherlands, and the Kingdom of Sardinia.

In 1796, Napoleon was appointed in charge of conducting the war against Austrian forces in northern Italy. In less than a year, Napoleon had led his troops to victory over the larger Austrian army.

In 1798, Napoleon was entrusted with an expedition sent to conquer Egypt for use as a base to attack the British possession of India. The invasion was unsuccessful, and Napoleon returned to France. (It was at this time that the French troops discovered the Rosetta Stone, which led to the Egyptian writing of hieroglyphics being deciphered).

Although the Austrian and Egyptian campaigns took place before Napoleon took power in France, they are regarded as the first of the Napoleonic Wars.

SECOND COALITION - RUSSIA PULLS OUT AFTER REVERSES

A Second Coalition, consisting of Russia, Great Britain, Austria, the kingdom of Naples, Portugal and the Ottoman Empire was formed to fight France in December 1798.

The principal fighting of the War of the Second Coalition took place in Northern Italy and Switzerland during 1799. The Austrians and Russians defeated French forces in northern Italy (Napoleon was in

Egypt at this time) and captured Milan (putting an end to a French inspired republic established there in 1797) and Turin.

The French fared better in Switzerland. After an initial Austrian victory in Zurich, French forces defeated a Russian army and destroyed a new Russian army sent as reinforcements. The new Russian army was forced to take refuge in the mountains of Grisons, where it was devastated by cold and starvation. This was enough for the Russians, who, complaining of a lack of Austrian co-operation, withdrew from the Second Coalition in October 1799.

THE AUSTRIAN CAMPAIGN

Upon his return to France Napoleon drew up a new army of 40,000 men and in 1800 crossed the Alps and attacked the Austrians, defeating them at the Battle of Marengo in June 1800. Simultaneously another French army crossed the Rhine and captured the city of Munich, pushing on to capture Linz in Austria.

Faced with these catastrophic defeats, the Austrians surrendered. In terms of the January 1801 Treaty of Luneville, Austria and its German allies ceded the left bank of the Rhine River to France, recognized the Batavian (Netherlands); Helvetian (Switzerland) , Cisalpine, and Ligurian (Italian) republics.

THE THIRD COALITION - BATTLE OF AUSTERLITZ

The defeat of the Austrians meant that only Britain remained at war with France. After an unsuccessful expedition into the recently declared Dutch republic of Batavia in 1799, they too made peace with France with the Treaty of Amiens in 1802.

This peace was however only a truce. A dispute over the sovereignty of the island of Malta flared up into a new war in 1803. In 1805, Britain was joined in its new war by Austria, Russia and Sweden, into what became known as the Third Coalition.

This time however France attracted a number of allies - Spain and the German states of Bavaria, Wurttemberg, and Baden all formally declared themselves on France's side.

Napoleon moved against Austria first, defeating them at Ulm, marching along the Danube River and capturing Vienna itself. Russian armies reinforced the Austrians, but Napoleon crushed the combined Austro-Russian forces in the Battle of Austerlitz in December 1805. Austria again capitulated, signing the Treaty of Pressburg in that same month, ceding to France territory in northern Italy and to Bavaria of territory in Austria itself. In addition, Austria recognized the duchies of Wurttemberg and Baden as independent kingdoms.



The 'Battle of the Three Emperors' - Austerlitz, 2 December 1805. This contemporary engraving of the famous battle gives an excellent idea of the scale of the battle which saw the French under Napoleon rout a combined Austro-Russian army in a day long battle.

KEEPING IT IN THE FAMILY

In Italy, Napoleon made his elder brother, Joseph Bonaparte, king of Naples in 1806. He made his third brother, Louis Bonaparte, king of Holland (the former Batavian Republic); and on July 12, he established the Confederation of the Rhine, which eventually consisted of all the states of Germany except Austria, Prussia, Brunswick, and Hessen. The formation of the Confederation put an end to the Holy Roman Empire and brought most of Germany under Napoleon's control.



Napoleon crowning his wife, Josephine, at their joint coronation as Emperor and Empress of France.

BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR - NAPOLEON LOSES HIS NAVY

Although utterly victorious on land, Napoleon's navy was crushed by the superior English navy at the October 1805 battle off Cape Trafalgar, where the English Admiral Horatio Nelson defeated a combined French and Spanish fleet, although Nelson himself was killed at the height of the battle.

ECONOMIC BLOCKADE

Deprived of the ability to launch a seaborne invasion, Napoleon then in 1806 started what became known as the Continental System, forbidding British trade with all European nations. Great Britain retaliated with the Orders of Council, which in effect prohibited neutrals from trading between the ports of any nations obeying Napoleon's decrees. British mastery of the sea made it difficult for Napoleon to enforce the Continental System and resulted eventually in the failure of his economic policy for Europe.

FOURTH COALITION

In 1806, Prussia, aroused by Napoleon's growing strength in Germany, joined in a Fourth Coalition with Great Britain, Russia, and Sweden. Napoleon crushed a Prussian army at the October 1806 Battle of Jena and followed this up by capturing Berlin itself.

Turning on the Russians, Napoleon then defeated the a Russian army in the Battle of Friedland, forcing them to make peace by the Treaty of Tilsit. In terms of this treaty Russia gave up its Polish possessions and became an ally of France. Prussia was deprived of half its territory and crippled by heavy indemnity payments and severe restrictions on the size of its standing army.

THE SPANISH ULCER

By 1808, Napoleon was master of all Europe except Russia and Great Britain. However, the rise of European nationalism - which he himself had helped to generate by the creation of the states which he established through his wars - were to ultimately prove his downfall.

The first outbreak of this nationalism occurred in Spain. In 1808, after dethroning King Charles IV of Spain, Napoleon made his brother Joseph Bonaparte king of the country. The Spanish however, rose up and drove Joseph out of Madrid. A war between the French and the Spanish then took place, known as the Peninsular War (fought from 1808 to 1814) which saw English troops land on the Iberian mainland.

The French were eventually defeated, suffering huge losses which severely dented the size of Napoleon's army in other theaters.

THE FIFTH COALITION

The British, safe from Napoleon's armies because of their mastery of the sea, organized yet another alliance against France, known as the Fifth Coalition. The first result of this coalition was a war with

Austria. In July 1809 Napoleon was forced to put down an Austrian army at the battle of Wagram and settled the war with the Treaty of Vienna, in terms of which Austria lost Salzburg, part of Galicia, and a large part of its southern European territory.

Napoleon also divorced his first wife, Josephine, and married the daughter of Francis II of Austria in the vain hope of keeping Austria out of further coalitions against him.

DISASTER: THE CAMPAIGN IN RUSSIA

In 1812, war again broke out between France and Russia because of the Russian refusal to enforce the Continental System. With one large army already tied down by the "Spanish ulcer," Napoleon invaded Russia with an army of 422,000 men.

The Russians were defeated at Borodino and the French army marched into Moscow on 14 September 1812, suffering frightful losses along the way - of the original army of 422,000, only 100,000 men were left to occupy Moscow.

The Russians had however burned the city, making it impossible for Napoleon's troops to establish winter quarters there. Forced to retreat in temperatures dropping to -30 degrees below zero, the French army was destroyed, with a shattered 10,000 men reaching their jumping off point at the end of the campaign.

Losing 412,000 men during the campaign for no gain whatsoever had severe consequences for not only Napoleon, but France as well. By the end of the Napoleonic Wars, France had lost approximately one million men, severely diminishing the population as a whole.



Napoleon's defeat in Russia: only 10,000 out of 422,000 French soldiers survived the campaign. Here Napoleon and his troops retreat under freezing conditions.

DEFEAT - BATTLE OF LEIPZIG

Sensing that Napoleon had badly overplayed his hand, the Fifth Coalition drew up its forces - Russia, Prussia and Sweden then joined the Fifth Coalition.

In 1813, Prussia renewed hostilities against Napoleon, who, despite his army being weakened, managed to pull off the last military victory of his career, defeating the Prussians at the Battle of Dresden in August 1813. Here, Napoleon's last great army, scraped together from France's last reserves and consisting of some 100,000 men (a quarter of the size of his army at the beginning of the Russian campaign) defeated a combined Austrian, Prussian, and Russian force of about 150,000. The overwhelming numbers of the enemy combined with Napoleon's shrinking capacity however could not hold off the inevitable - in October 1814, he was defeated at the Battle of Leipzig and forced to leave all of Germany.

In 1814, France itself was invaded, and in March of that year a combined Russian, Austrian and Prussian force took Paris. Napoleon abdicated and was exiled to the island of Elba in the Mediterranean Sea.

WATERLOO - WELLINGTON'S HIRED ARMY DEFEATS NAPOLEON

While the victors of the Fifth Coalition assembled at the Congress of Vienna to restore the monarchies Napoleon had overthrown, Napoleon escaped from Elba and landed in France, where, despite the defeats he had suffered and the staggering population losses his wars had caused, he was welcomed back.

Through the sheer power of his personality he raised yet another French army and marched into Belgium to do battle with the stunned British, Prussians, Russians and Austrians.

Initially, Napoleon defeated the combined allied armies at the Battle of Ligny, but was then defeated twice in succession at Quatre-Bras and then in June 1815 at the famous Battle of Waterloo. Captured, Napoleon was exiled to the island of St. Helena in the South Atlantic where he died in 1821, most likely as a result of poisoning.



The Battle of Waterloo, 1815. Anglo-centric histories portray the final defeat of Napoleon as an English victory. In fact approximately 20,000 of General Arthur Wellington's army of 44,000 men were German mercenaries, excluding the 70,000 strong Prussian army under Marshall Blucher, who also fought at the momentous battle.

VENERATED REBURIAL IN 1840

Napoleon's remains were however exhumed and returned to France in 1840. He was reburied in the Les Invalides in Paris, a setting which must be one of the most lavish tombs in all Europe.

Napoleon's tomb continues to be a major focus of adulation and is, along with other Parisian landmarks, one of the biggest tourist attractions in Paris.

HIS LEGACY

The legacy left by Napoleon for Europe was considerable. The direct result of his wars that the nation of the Netherlands came into existence, as well as a number of German and Italian states, as well as Switzerland.

Napoleon was not only a military genius, but also a statesman of considerable ability. In France the state administration was reorganized, the court system was simplified, and all schools were put under centralized control. French law was standardized in the Code Napoleon and six other codes, guaranteeing equality before the law and freedom of religion.

Napoleon's own personal goal for Europe was to found a single European state like the United States of America, what he called at he called a "federation of free peoples."

In all the lands occupied by Napoleon, the Code Napoleon was established as law. Feudalism and serfdom were abolished. Each state had a constitution with universal male suffrage and a parliament and containing a bill of rights. French-style administrative and judicial systems were required.

Schools were put under centralized administration, and free public schools were envisioned. Higher education was opened to all who qualified, regardless of class or religion. Every state had an academy or institute for the promotion of the arts and sciences. Incomes were provided for eminent scholars, especially scientists.

However, his greatest legacy to France was a severe depopulation and reduction in the numbers of Whites in that country due to the losses inflicted during the wars. Because of the exponential nature of 19th Century European population demographics, the loss of a million Frenchmen in their prime seriously retarded France in the world population stakes.

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CHAPTER 28 : THE SCEPTERED ISLE - ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, WALES AND THE UNITED KINGDOM

Part I : Ancient Britain

Even its most vehement detractors will admit that the nation of Great Britain has been one of the foremost countries of modern Western Civilization. Its achievements are legion - at one stage its empire existed on all the continents of the world except Antarctica. Its language became the second most widely spoken language on earth (after Chinese) - its writers, poets and playwrights were the greatest the world has ever seen since the days of the Greek classics - and its history and culture has become ingrained in the traditions of many people on earth.

Britain was also directly responsible for the initial mass settlement of the North American continent that, together with immigrants from the rest of Europe, created the giant that became America. The industrial revolution, which it spearheaded, shaped the infrastructure of the current world.

Yet it is a small island, barely over half the size of France. The history of this island of kings and queens is remarkable one and worthy of an overview. Unfortunately much of English history is also filled with incessant petty squabbling and infighting.

Although this was no more so than in any other European nation in the forming, these squabbles were just as often as not, to have international repercussions because of Britain's pre-eminent position in the world. To tell the story of Britain without becoming involved in the minutiae of (at best irrelevant, and at worst downright boring) historical detail, is an delicate art.

ANCIENT BRITAIN

Ancient Britain was originally populated with the Old European peoples - Mediterraneans and Proto-Nordic types. By 3000 BC, the Old Europeans had established farms in southern England and by 2500 BC, another early White tribe, known as the Beaker folk (because of an abundance of beakers and other vessels found in their grave sites) had made their appearance in that land.



Middle Bronze Age Europeans. Every detail on this reconstruction of the dress and equipment of a man and a woman of 2,000 BC is based upon contemporary material remains.

Then had come the Nordic Indo-European invaders, the Celts, who arrived before 2,000 BC. When the Celts overran Britain they brought iron working, iron ploughs and metal swords, horses, wheels and chariots - all these things gave them an instant superiority over the native tribes. The latter were soon overwhelmed and absorbed into the Celtic population, only retaining their original sub-racial characteristics in somewhat diluted form in the far west of the island.

Next came the Romans, who at their height stationed about 100,000 men in army units at York, Chester, Colchester and Carlisle.

Many of these Roman soldiers intermarried amongst the local Celts, but no substantial racial make-up change was achieved by this intermarriage - unlike in other parts of the Empire, where the White Romans intermarried with all manner of locals, in many cases Nonwhites, precipitating the downfall of the Empire itself.

Many of the Romans then settled in Britain once their period of army service was over (usually twenty years) and formed the core of the Romanised Briton population. Along with the rest of the Empire, these Roman settlers also brought Christianity to Britain once that religion had been adopted as an official philosophy by the Emperors.

UNTAMED CELTS

However, the Celts in the far north of the country - particularly a tribe of Celts called the Picts - continued to be troublesome for the Roman Britons. The Emperor Hadrian finally built a wall in 123 AD across northern Britain to try and keep the Picts out. This border was once moved slightly northwards, but was soon moved south again. Scotland never fell under Roman rule, and the Picts continued to be a thorn in the side of the Romans until the very end of Roman rule in Britain.

GERMAN INVASIONS

Throughout the fourth century, Roman Britain was subjected to ever increasing raids from Saxons and other pagan Germanics. In 367 AD, a possibly co-ordinated offensive by Saxons from the mainland of Europe, Scots from Scotland and Irish Celts, very nearly displaced the Romans: another Roman army had to be rushed to the island from Roman Europe. It took three years before the invasion was beaten off.

As time went on however, the Saxon and pagan Germanic raiders from northern Europe began to become an even more serious problem. After Rome was forced to withdraw the last of its formal army from Britain in 406 AD, the island lay open to further incursions.

The Roman legacy to Britain was huge. Apart from an infrastructure of roads and the basis of several great cities including York, Colchester and London, the Romans substantially improved the standards of education and learning. Most importantly, they left behind in the children born of unions between Roman soldiers and local Britons, original Roman genes which were taken up in large numbers into the population.

DANISH CONQUEST - ENGLAND NAMED AFTER GERMAN ANGLES

In 425, a Roman British aristocrat, Vortigen, became leader of the British, and took a decision which was to change the future of Britain - he formally invited into Britain a group of Germanics from Denmark, known as the Jutes, under their chief Hengist. Vortigen hoped to gain the Jutes as allies in his wars against the by then constant attacks by the Pictish Celts from across the northern border.

In return for their military aid, Vortigen told the Jutes, he would give them land in what is now Kent in south eastern England. The offer was accepted - but the Jutes brought with them a horde of their racial cousins, including the dreaded Saxons and a number of other Germanic tribes - the Angles from Denmark, some Franks, Frisians and other Germans from the lower Rhine area. In an act of extreme irony, large numbers of Saxons were allowed to settle unmolested in Britain - Vortigen got a lot more Germans than he had bargained on.



The Danish conquest of England. Danish Viking style ships sailing up the Humber River. For a period of nearly 500 years from 400 AD, waves of Germanics and northern Europeans swept into England, pushing the Romanized Britons into the westernmost reaches of that country.

The long standing enmity between the Romanised Britons and the Germans, who were now in far larger numbers than Vortigen had wanted, soon flared up into open war. In 442 the first clashes took place, and ten years later Vortigen was defeated by Hengist. The Germanics then started to occupy and subjugate large areas in Britain, eventually displacing virtually all the Romanised Britons.

The Angles and Saxons gave their name to the country they had won (Angle-land, or England) and to this day the White people there are known as Anglo-Saxons, although they are of course a mixture of all the White peoples who had settled the island during the course of history before the arrival of the Angles and the Saxons.

GERMANICS FLOOD ENGLAND

For the next 500 years, sporadic waves of new Germanic settlers moved into Britain, while the original Britons were either pushed into the western reaches of the country, Cornwall and Wales (welsch being the name the invading Germans applied to the Romanised Britons.) Some Britons fled across the English channel to France, settling in what became known as Brittany for that reason.

ARTHUR AND THE KNIGHTS OF THE ROUND TABLE

Towards the end of the fifth century, Briton resistance against the Germans flared up, and it is from this time that the legends surrounding a Celtic king, later called Arthur, date. Recent historical research points to Arthur as having been a Welshman Owain DDantgwyn, but much of the exploits of his Round Table appear to have been built up as a result of story telling, rather than any basis in

historical events.

Whatever resistance occurred, was however suppressed and by 600 AD, most of the former Roman Britain (that is, modern England) had been colonized by the Angles and Saxons and their Germanic cousins. The Romano-Celtic culture - which included Christianity - was driven into the far corners of the land, and eight major kingdoms had been established, along with a host of smaller principalities. It became customary for one of these major kingdoms to be designated a supreme king, or bretwalda (or Britain Wielder) and to have primacy as leader of Britain.

DRUIDS CHALLENGED BY CHRISTIANITY

Before the Romans brought Christianity to Britain, the dominant religion had been a variant of the Celtic religions - nature worship and the existence of holy men, or druids, were the dominant characteristics. The druids had, by some accounts, less than savory practices, although the full nature of their activities have been lost in the passage of time.

With the invasion of the British Isles by the Germanic tribes, Christianity, which was the trademark of the Roman-ised Britons of the era, was pushed out of mainland England and corralled in the outer reaches of the land, to where the defeated Romano-Celtic peoples had been pushed - Wales, Cornwall, southern Scotland and Ireland. The Germanics brought with them their own nature worshipping religions, distant religious cousins of the original Celts.

It was only some 150 years after the last Germanic invasions, that the Christian Church dared to send any large numbers of missionaries back into Germanic occupied England. This occurred after one of the bretwaldas, King Ethelbert of the kingdom of Kent, married a Frankish Christian princess from France, and she persuaded him to allow missionaries from Rome back into Britain.

Ethelbert himself, no doubt under pressure from his wife, converted to Christianity in 597 AD and by 664 AD, the last Germanic kingdom, in Northumbria under King Oswy became Christian. By the 7th Century, the Germanic kingdoms included Northumbria, Bernicia, Deira, Lindsay, Mercia, East Anglia, Essex, Wessex, Sussex, and Kent.

At this stage then the lands which were later to become Britain were still formalized into three distinct units - England, Wales and Scotland, each developing their own traditions and distinctive characteristics.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 29 : IRELAND - 500 YEARS OF CIVIL WAR

It has been said that Ireland's greatest export has been people - this is most certainly true. In Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Canada, North and South America - and in Europe itself - the Irish presence has been felt, influencing the racial make-up of three major continents.

Ireland is also of importance for it remained the site of one of the longest running White civil wars in history, with the White Irish fighting with the White English on and off for over 500 years. This, combined with its massive emigration history, makes Ireland more than worthy of study.

ANCIENT IRELAND - NAME DERIVED FROM "ARYAN"

The island of Ireland was, like Britain, initially inhabited by tribes of Old Europeans and Proto-Nordics. These people were however either overwhelmed or assimilated by the first Indo-European invaders to reach the island in the first millennium BC. The Celts settled the island in large enough numbers to feature in the writings of the Classical Greeks (the first reference to Ireland is made under the name the "Irene" in a Greek poem dating to 450 BC and by the names of Hibernia and Juverna by various classical writers).

Great underground megalith tombs and above ground megalith structures can still be found in abundance in Ireland, evidence of a flourishing Neolithic society, comparable with anything in the rest of Europe at the time.



Newgrange barrow mound in Country Meath, Ireland. Constructed in approximately 2500 BC, it is one of the finest passage graves in western Europe, almost 100 meters in diameter and 10 meters in height. It was so constructed that at noon, the sun shines through a specially made slot just above the entrance, directing rays into the furthest recesses of the tomb. The splendid construction is a tribute to the early White builders of Neolithic Ireland.

According to Irish folklore, the Celts established four major kingdoms, known in the Gaelic language as Nemedians, Fomorians, Firbolgs, and Tuatha DU Danann.

The Indo-European origin of Ireland is however most clearly represented in the traditional name for the whole island which finally became its official name: Eire, derived from the same root word as Aryan.

One powerful Celtic tribe, the Scots, left Ireland for reasons unknown. They settled in the far north of Britain and eventually gave their name to Scotland.

ST. PATRICK

Other Irish Celts continued to raid and harass Roman occupied Britain, with advance parties even reaching the coast of France to search for booty. During the reign of the Celtic king MacNeill (428 to 463) a Romanised English missionary, Patrick, entered Ireland in an attempt to convert the pagan Celtic natives away from their traditional Indo-European religions.

Patrick was not, as is commonly believed, completely successful. Nonetheless he did enough to ensure that Christianity - or Catholicism - became entrenched enough to become the dominant and virtually the only religion a century after his death in 461. In the 6th Century, extensive monasteries were founded in Ireland and it was from these centers that missionaries were sent to all over the known world, including back into England when that land fell under pagan Germanic rule.

VIKING RAIDS AND SETTLEMENTS

During the 8th Century, Ireland was, along with almost all of France and Britain, thrown into confusion and panic by the Viking invasions. The Vikings were particularly fond of raiding Ireland, finding the Celtic tribes generally too busy fighting with each other to offer organized resistance. The Vikings liked Ireland so much that they soon established permanent settlements on its east coast, raiding ever deeper into the interior of the island. Finally the Viking raids were brought to an end when the Irish King, Brian Boru, decisively defeated a large Viking force at the Battle of Clontarf, near Dublin, in 1014.

Nonetheless the establishment of the Viking settlements created the first major population shift in Ireland since the Celtic invasions: a fresh wave of Indo-European Nordic blood was settled in Ireland, further adding to the already overwhelming Nordic/Old European sub-racial characteristics of the Irish.

THE ANGLO-NORMAN OCCUPATION - HENRY II INVADES

The first English invasion of Ireland took place under King Henry II, who claimed to have received official authorization for the conquest of the island from the Pope.

The authenticity of this order has long been called into question, but the upshot was that by 1169, an English army had entered Ireland in support of a deposed local Irish king, Dermot MacMurrough of the Irish kingdom of Leinster, who had asked the English for help in subduing his rebellious subjects.

In 1172, Henry gave permission to Norman lords (at this stage Normandy and England were united kingdoms) to settle portions of Ireland. In this way yet more Viking descendants (the Normans had themselves originally been Viking settlers in France) settled in Ireland.

Quickly they struck up a rapport with their distant sub-racial cousins already in Ireland, and soon alliances between the Normans and the Irish were formed to the detriment of the English.

English power was further challenged by the 1314 invasion of Ireland by Edward Bruce, the younger brother of Robert the Bruce, King of Scotland, who attempted to throw the English out of the ancient home of the Scots. The enterprise failed, but the English population in Ireland was decimated.



The English King Henry II, who first started the English intervention in Ireland with an invasion of that country in 1169. Claiming to have received sanction from the Pope for the invasion - a highly dubious claim - Henry then allowed Norman lords to settle in the land, creating a festering political sore which has plagued the English for just under 1,000 years.

NORMANS FORBIDDEN FROM ALLIANCES WITH THE IRISH

The increasing integration of the Normans into the native Irish was recognized by the English as meaning eventual trouble. The Anglo-Irish Parliament passed in 1366 the Statute of Kilkenny, which punished all those who "followed the custom of, or allied themselves with" the native Irish. Such action was punishable by excommunication and heavy fines.

This law was useless: the process had advanced so far that even though a new English army invaded Ireland in the late 14th Century, the Irish were fast becoming coalesced as a nation in their own right.

This was emphasized during the English War of the Roses, when English settlements in Ireland decreased to a small coastal strip around Dublin. This strip became known as the English Pale - and from there the English saying that if something is "beyond the pale" it is unacceptable - a good indication of how the English settlers viewed the native Irish.

ENGLISH ASCENDANCY

In 1494, the English soldier and diplomat, Sir Edward Poyning, was appointed by the English monarch to look after and extend English interests in Ireland.

Acting on royal authority, Poyning revived the Anglo-Irish Parliament and the Statute of Kilkenny, which compelled the English and Irish to live apart and prohibited Irish law and customs in regions inhabited for the largest part by English settlers.

All state offices were filled with appointments made by the English king and English law was declared to be valid for large parts of the island.

Finally, Poyning introduced the act known as the Poyning Law, which made any law passed by the Irish

parliament invalid until the English king had given his assent.

THE REFORMATION

The English King Henry VIII had overthrown the Catholic Church in England - now he attempted to extend this to Ireland.

The monasteries were disbanded and a great many destroyed - much of the riches they had hoarded was distributed amongst Irish nobles, and their support for the English king was thereby quite literally bought.

Henry also wisely extended the right of home rule to the Irish. The result was a period of relative peace, and in 1541, the Irish parliament declared him King of Ireland in recognition of this achievement.

INCREASED ENGLISH SETTLEMENT

Although the English Queen Mary was Catholic (and she tried hard to contain the Anglicans in England) she was the first monarch to begin the large scale colonization of Ireland by English settlers. At first conciliatory towards the Irish, a rebellion in Ulster led by the Irish chieftain of that region, Shane O'Neill, drew "Bloody Mary" to more drastic measures: an act was passed dividing all Ireland into counties. The rulers of these counties were invested with military powers, which they used with cruelty against the native Irish.

SEEDS OF HATRED SOWN

The reconversion of England back to Anglicanism under Queen Elizabeth I caused a number of Irish Catholic rebellions - after one unsuccessful uprising, an English army was defeated at the Battle of Blackwater in 1602.

During these wars, the English aroused great hatred towards themselves amongst the Irish. Villages, crops and cattle were destroyed to try and root out native resistance - thousands of Irish were executed out of hand. When English soldiers fell into Irish hands, they could therefore expect no mercy and many were tortured in turn. The greater part of Munster and Ulster was destroyed, and more Irish died from the resulting famine than in the war itself.

The extension of the Anglican Church into Ireland was also associated with English political control, and by default the vast majority of Irish were reconfirmed in their support for the Catholic Church - religion became a way of demonstrating political opinion.

ENGLISH LAW AND THE SIX COUNTIES

During the reign of the King James I, English law was declared the sole law of the entire Ireland - some 100 Irish chieftains were forced to flee Ireland and went to Rome where they sought the protection of the Pope in 1607.

The lands of these chieftains - six counties in the north - was confiscated: they were to become famous as the six counties of Northern Ireland. Increasing numbers of English - and Scottish - settlers were encouraged to settle in these confiscated counties.

IRISH REBELLION - 30,000 ENGLISH SLAUGHTERED

A local Irish chieftain, Rory O'More, then hatched a rebellion in 1641 to seize Dublin - the castle in that town

being the main center of English rule in Ireland - and drive the English out. The rebellion succeeded: the Irish took a terrible revenge upon the English settlers in Dublin, killing, by some estimates, up to 30,000, with only Scots being spared. The rebels were soon joined by the Catholic Irish nobles in the pale - together they elected a new Irish parliament to rule the island. The co-operation between the rebels and the nobles of the pale came to an end in 1647 when the English promised the pale inhabitants that the Catholic Church would be allowed to dominate in Ireland if they assisted in the English reconquest of Ireland.

CROMWELL INVADES

In 1649, the English Puritan (extremist Protestant) leader Oliver Cromwell invaded Dublin. With a 10,000 strong army, he retook Dublin castle, executing all 2,000 rebels who surrendered. After defeating one more rebel army, a great part of the best land of Munster, Leinster, and Ulster was confiscated and divided among the extremist Protestant soldiers of the English army.

Catholics were actively forbidden from holding any important offices of state and made completely subject to the English invaders. This policy was however reversed by the English King James II, who had already alarmed the Protestant parliament in London with his slow attempts to resuscitate the Catholic Church in that land. Under James II, Catholics were once again promoted to high offices in Ireland.

The result was that when, in 1688, James fled England after the arrival of William of Orange, he found the Catholic population of Ireland ready to stand by him.

Protestant settlers in Ireland were once again driven from their homes and took refuge in the heavily defended Protestant towns of Enniskillen and Londonderry, which James attempted to capture with his new Irish Catholic army. James' army did not however have any artillery and could not break the city walls: Londonderry was relieved by sea.

James then called together the Irish parliament and restored all the lands confiscated since 1641. In 1689, the new English King, William of Orange, followed James into Ireland, and at the Battle of the Boyne in 1690, the Irish army was defeated and James fled.

William failed however to capture the city of Limerick and when his artillery was destroyed outside the city, he was forced to retreat. The next year an English army however defeated an Irish army at the town of Aughrom and Limerick was forced to surrender.

THE PENAL LAWS - DESTRUCTION OF IRISH ECONOMY

The English Parliament then exacted severe punishment on the Irish - the Penal Laws restricted the rights of the Catholic Church in Ireland. Laws passed in 1665 and 1680, effectively killed Irish commerce and industries by banning the export of Irish cattle, milk, butter, and cheese.

In 1699 the export of Irish woolen goods was forbidden. These measures effectively caused Ireland to be placed under an economic blockade, resulting in steady economic decline and serious poverty.

The most important effect of these laws were however to create the first wave of Ireland's largest export: people. Impoverished under the English blockade, hundreds of thousands of Irish started leaving the island, some going to France, but most going to North America in search of freedom from direct English rule.

The emigration of the Irish to almost all parts of the world would in time become the dominating foreign affair of Ireland, with possibly as many as a million all told, leaving the land because of the dire conditions created

by the Penal Laws and their aftermath.

CONTINUED DISSENT - CATHOLICS DENIED THE VOTE

The American Revolution not only created admiration in Ireland, but also awakened the English to the possibility of another rebellion in Ireland.

Subsequently in 1778, the Irish parliament, which only had Protestants in it (Catholics were not allowed to vote) passed the Relief Act, removing some of the most oppressive anti-Catholic measures. The English parliament then followed suit and repealed the Poyning's Law and much of the other anti-Catholic legislation.

The outbreak of the French revolution sparked off a rebellion in Ireland - in 1798 the Society of United Irishmen led a rebellion which nearly captured Dublin. They were however too lightly armed to defeat the regular Protestant army, and the landing of a French force of 1,000 men in Ireland came too late to save the rebels.

By this time however, the stage had been set for a long lasting and bloody duel between the Irish and the English - a conflict which would last to the 21st Century.

UNION BETWEEN IRELAND AND GREAT BRITAIN

The British Prime Minister William Pitt, the Younger, then enacted the union of Great Britain and Ireland in an attempt to strike a balance between the continual Roman Catholic Irish rebellions and the anti-Catholic Protestant minority in Ireland.

The official union of Great Britain and Ireland was officially proclaimed on 1 January 1801. In exactly 121 years it would be dissolved. The union was two years old when the first rebellion broke out: in 1803, Robert Emmert led a brief and unsuccessful uprising which was easily suppressed.

In 1823, the Catholic Association was founded, which demanded, and finally obtained, complete Roman Catholic emancipation in Ireland. In 1828, Roman Catholics were permitted to hold local office, and in 1829, they were allowed to sit in Parliament for the first time.

These reforms came despite a new war over the practice of the compulsory payment of tithes by all inhabitants of Ireland- irrespective of whether they were Catholic or Protestant - which were paid to maintain the Anglican Church.

Both Catholics and Protestants fought each other with great cruelty during the Tithe Wars, as they were called, which ended with the conversion of the payment of the tithe tax into rent charges - further discontent led to the almost constant brewing of plots and rebellious societies.



Sowing the seeds of hatred - English police evict Irish peasants during the 1880s from their homes for not being able to pay their rent. Every English law was seen, sometimes justifiably, as an affront to Irish nationalism. Such moves always drew a counter reaction from the Irish nationalists, and this, combined with the clear Catholic/Protestant division which had crept in between the English settlers in the north of that island, and the native Irish, served to make a lethal brew which was still not fully resolved at the end of the 20th Century.

POTATO FAMINE - POPULATION DECLINES BY 2 MILLION

During the five years from 1845 to 1850, the potato crop in Ireland failed - it led to a disastrous famine which caused a second massive wave of Irish immigrants, again mainly to America. Through emigration and death from famine, the Irish population declined by as much as 2 millions during this five year period.

REBELLION BREWS

The Irish nationalists did not however accept the Union. In 1867, another revolt broke out in Dublin and Kerry which had to be suppressed by British force of arms.

Soon it became as usual for British soldiers to serve in Ireland as in any part of the Empire - the sheer necessity for occupying troops meant that the land was a colony and nothing more.

In 1902, the Irish political leader and journalist Arthur Griffiths founded a group that later became the nucleus of Sinn Fein, which became in that time the most important Irish nationalist force and which ultimately led to Irish Independence.

THE EASTER REBELLION

Sinn Fein organized a military wing, as did many main Protestant groups, and by 1914 civil war seemed inevitable. The outbreak of the First World War however overshadowed events, most importantly leading the British parliament to set aside a bill allowing for Irish home rule.

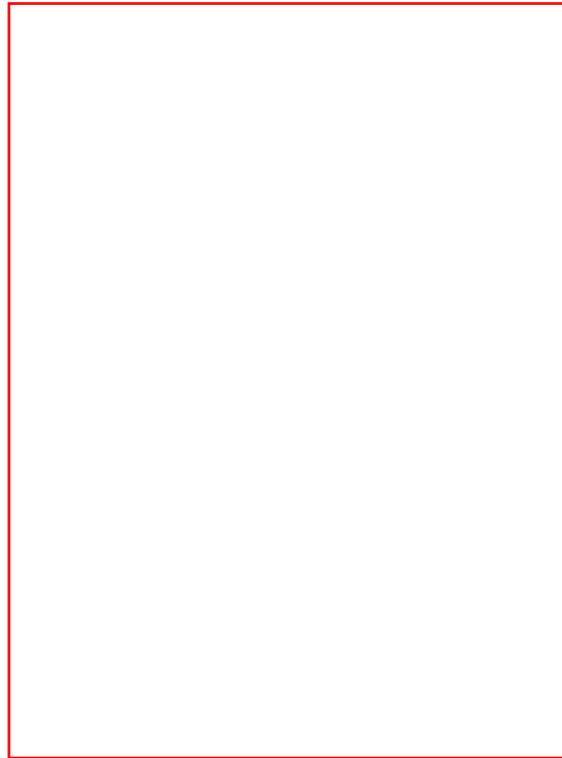
The suspending of the home rule bill saw three small nationalist groups, the Citizen Army, an illegal force of Dublin citizens, the Irish Volunteers, a national defense body, and the Sinn Fein, draw together with their military wings and organize what became known as the Easter Uprising.

At midday on 24 April 1916, about 2000 Irish nationalists seized control of the Dublin Post Office and other strategic points in the city. The leaders of the rebellion then proclaimed Irish independence, and by 25 April, they controlled most of Dublin city.

The British launched a counter offensive on 26 April, and martial law was proclaimed throughout Ireland.

Bitter street fighting took place in Dublin, and the better armed British forces slowly dislodged the Irish nationalists from their positions one by one.

By the morning of 29 April, the post office building, site of the rebel headquarters, was under attack by such overwhelming numbers that the last rebels surrendered that afternoon. About 440 British troops were killed in the uprising, and at least a similar number of Irishmen were killed. Fifteen of the rebels were executed. The American born Irishman, Eamon de Valera, leader of Sinn Fein, was also sentenced to death. His sentence was however commuted to life imprisonment, and then he was granted amnesty the next year.



The remains of the Dublin Post Office building, headquarters of the Easter Rebellion, 1916, after the battle. Nearly 1000 Irishmen and British troops were killed in the uprising, with many of the weapons used by the Irish republicans being smuggled into Ireland from Germany.

Although unsuccessful, the rebellion had been supported by a large number of the Irish people, and public revulsion at the execution of 15 of the rebels caused an upsurge in electoral support for Sinn Fein. In the 1918 election, Sinn Fein candidates won 73 of the 106 seats allotted to Ireland in the British Parliament.

INDEPENDENCE - DE VALERA BECOMES PRESIDENT IN 1919

With such overwhelming support, the Sinn Fein members of Parliament met in Dublin in January 1919 and declared Ireland's independence, appointing Eamon de Valera as president.



Eamon De Valera, American born of a Spanish father and an Irish mother, De Valera returned to Ireland and became actively involved in Irish nationalist politics. He was arrested and condemned to death for his part in the Easter Uprising, but his American citizenship saved his neck. Released, he carried on with his struggle, becoming prime minister of an independent Ireland no less than three times.

The armed wing of Sinn Fein, called the Irish Republican Army (IRA) then launched a bitter guerrilla war against the British troops still in Ireland, particularly against an auxiliary police force known as the Black and Tans. This guerrilla war was waged with great ferocity on both sides, finally forcing the British parliament to agree to Irish independence with the Government of Ireland bill in 1920.

This bill provided for the division of Ireland into two - the majority of the land in the south (26 counties) as an independent state with status similar to that of Canada - and the six counties of the north retaining their status within Britain and becoming the province of Northern Ireland.

Sinn Fein split over the division of Ireland. De Valera was opposed to the partition of Ireland and led 57 Irish MPs against the bill against the 64 who were in favor. De Valera resigned as president and was replaced by the founder of Sinn Fein, Griffiths.

Michael Collins, the Irish patriot who had virtually single handed created the IRA, came out in favor of the settlement and became chairman of the provisional government.

THE IRISH FREE STATE - 1922

A civil war broke out in Ireland between those supporting the partition and those opposed to it. Hundreds were killed in the war, including Collins himself.

The civil war did not halt the establishment of the Irish Free State, and in December 1922, a new constitution became effective through which the state formally came into being.

The next year, the civil war was ended when De Valera agreed to accept the partition of Ireland as a compromise. He was elected to parliament, and by 1932 he had once again been voted in power as president of Ireland. De Valera then instituted a series of measures designed to further reduce the last vestiges of British influence. Finally in 1937, a new constitution was adopted which further loosened British control and formally created the republic of "Eire". De Valera was elected prime minister.

THE SECOND WORLD WAR - IRELAND CONDOLES HITLER'S DEATH

Officially, Ireland remained neutral during the Second World War, but in reality the island split - many Irish worked in British factories, replacing British men called up for active service, while others either openly sympathized with Germany or actively tried to aid the German war effort. In this way Eire became the only country in Europe to send an official telegram of condolence to Germany after the death of Hitler in April 1945. It seems likely however that the Irish actions were motivated more out a dislike of the British rather than support for the Germans.

On Easter Monday, 18 April 1949, the anniversary of the Easter Rebellion, Eire became the Republic of Ireland, formally free of allegiance to the British crown and no longer a member of the Commonwealth of Nations.

IRA REFOUNDED

Although it had never been formally disbanded, the IRA was revived during the post war period as violence between Catholics and Protestants in the six counties of Northern Ireland increased during the 1960s.

The IRA then launched a new war to drive the British out of Northern Ireland. The issue was not however as clear cut as it had been in the southern part of the island, due to the very large number of loyal British Protestant subjects in the six counties.

In sheer terms of numbers, the Protestants were in fact in the majority, and viewed Catholicism as being synonymous with Irish nationalist rule - hence the loyalist/republican divide was created in Northern Ireland.

Attacks on loyalist Protestant civilians led to the loyalists forming their own paramilitary organizations, and soon several towns in Northern Ireland were divided into Catholic or Protestant areas. It became dangerous for Catholics to go into Protestant areas, and vice versa - loyalists versus Irish nationalists, a heady brew caused by a split in Christianity (sparked off by Henry VIII's desire to get divorced) and a conflict of Irish and British nationalism.



British troops face a stone throwing mob in Ulster in the 1970s - the legacy of centuries of English/Irish conflict. The 1980s were marked by a large number of spectacular IRA attacks on the British mainland. Attacks on blatantly civilian targets such as bars and shopping centers in particular, provoked wide scale outrage in Britain.

During the 1970s, the IRA moved on to start bombing strategic and civilian targets on the British mainland, causing outrage when bars and public places were bombed without warning. During the late 1990s, the warring factions were brought to a table and the beginnings of a settlement were thrashed out.

RACIAL HOMOGENEITY

Despite a small influx of Nonwhites, Ireland has to a fairly large degree kept its racial homogeneity in the late 20th Century. Nonetheless, the issues of Third World Nonwhite immigration also confront Ireland, and are dealt with in the last chapter of this book.

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CHAPTER 30 : THE LOW COUNTRIES: THE NETHERLANDS, BELGIUM AND LUXEMBOURG

The Low Countries - the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg have, despite their small size, played a significant role in European and world history, the latter mainly through their colonial possessions and its after effect - the immigration of the former colonies' inhabitants into Europe.

In 1989, the World Bank report on Africa drew an astonishing comparison: it said that the entire Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of all of sub-Saharan Black Africa (which excluded the oil rich Arab states in the north and the then White ruled country of South Africa) was, at 1989 currency levels, some \$116 million, or ca 111 million - a figure, the bank report went on to point out, was equivalent to the GDP of Belgium alone. (Sunday Times, 26 November 1989).

The story of these remarkable Low Countries is therefore of interest in comparative values, and, like many European countries, does much to destroy the "environmental" theory of the advancement of nations.

ANCIENT PERIOD

The area now known as the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg was, like much of ancient Europe, first occupied by Old Europeans and Proto Nordics who left basic Neolithic settlements. The region appears to have been fairly thinly populated, probably due to the low lying coastal nature of the land, which did not make it the easiest land upon which to settle.

The north eastern part of Europe was however also occupied by the great wave of Indo-European invaders of the second millennium BC, and with these Celtic peoples, the basis was laid for the racial make-up of the peoples of that region, with only minor variations.

ROMAN OCCUPATION - CAESAR SUBJUGATES BELGAE

Roman armies, led by Julius Caesar personally, overran the Celts of North Western Europe during the 1st Century BC, subjugating all the tribes in the area, including one referred to in Roman records as the Belgae (from where the word Belgium would originate).

The Roman invasion did not substantially alter the racial make-up of the population. Most of the occupying Romans were of the same basic sub-racial stock as the Celts, although on average they were a bit shorter and a bit darker as a result of the larger number of Old Europeans who had been absorbed into the original Latini Indo-European tribe in Italy.

Under Roman rule, relative peace and prosperity prevailed for more than 250 years, and the land was

slowly built up, mainly with farming.

GERMANIC INVASION - 300 AD

The north western parts of Europe then fell prey to the new wave of Germanic invaders around 300 AD, an invasion which occurred in many Western European countries and which ultimately would see Germanics sacking Rome.

One of these tribes which maintained its identity was the Frisians, who later gave their name to a northern province of the Netherlands. Saxons invaded from the East, while the Franks invaded from the West and South.

The influx of these Germanic tribes further strengthened the Nordic racial sub-element within the population make-up.

THE NETHERLANDS

The rise of the Frankish Empire after the collapse of the Roman Empire saw Christianity being introduced - often by the sword - to the Germanic and Celtic tribes of north eastern Europe, and in this way the area fell under the sway of the rule established by Charlemagne, King of the Franks.

After Charlemagne died his empire was divided up amongst his sons - the Netherlands became part of the middle kingdom, Lotharingia (Lorraine) and still later, in 925, part of the Holy Roman Empire.

THE VIKINGS

Frankish rule was however severely disrupted by yet another wave of invading Nordic tribes - the Viking invasions of the 8th Century saw the settlements in the Netherlands (and all along the Western European coastline) invaded and sacked by bands of Viking raiders in their longboats.

The Viking invaders left two major legacies in the Netherlands. For the first time walled and fortified cities were built, and secondly, the fairly wanton rape and pillaging by groups of Vikings added not inconsiderably to the Nordic gene pool in the area.

Finally, some less violent bands of Vikings also settled in the area, with the biggest and most formal group settling in a nearby region of France to become the Normans.

CENTER OF TRADE

The Netherlands then settled down to three centuries of relative peace, during which time the region became an important trading center, situated as it is at the crossroads of Europe.

This status as a trade nation has persisted to the present day, with the port of Rotterdam still being the single largest port in the world, handling more cargo than any other single harbor.

HABSBURG RULE

The rise of the German House of Habsburg in the 16th Century, saw virtually all the lands of the Netherlands fall under the control of the Germans, who by this stage held the crown of Spain. The Habsburg Emperor, Charles V, granted control of Spain and the Netherlands to his son, Philip II, in 1555.

FIRST DUTCH WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

Despotic rule by the Spanish King Philip II led to the first Dutch War of Independence. The conflict raged on in fits and starts for eighty years, combining with the Protestant Reformation which started at the same time - soon the war with Spain became entangled with the general Catholic/Protestant conflagration which consumed Europe.

The implementation of the Inquisition (which in the Netherlands became an attempt to suppress Protestantism) provoked further public resistance and in 1566, anti-Catholic riots broke out in many Dutch cities which saw Catholic Churches being trashed.

Philip sent Spanish troops to avenge this outrage against the Church. The harsh rule imposed by these Spanish troops resulted in further rebellion and by 1568, a state of open war existed between the Dutch and the Spanish.



Detail from Rembrandt, The Company of Captain Frans Banning Cocq, better known as the Night Watch, 1642. It shows a good spread of Dutch racial types. Rijksmuseum, Amsterdam.

PRINCE WILLIAM OF ORANGE

A leading Dutch noble, Prince William of the House of Orange, (also known as the Prince of Orange) led the revolt and soon won control of most of the Northern part of the Netherlands. In 1579, the

Union of Utrecht, an alliance of all northern and some southern territories, was formed with William being installed as King William I. The provinces that joined the union would become the Netherlands - those that did not would become Belgium.

In 1581, the Union of Utrecht proclaimed independence from Spain, provoking yet another furious invasion from the latter country. The war went poorly at first for the Dutch, who suffered many reverses including the murder of William in 1584. By 1585, the Spanish had reconquered practically all the south, including Antwerp.

The intervention of England however turned the tide against the Spanish. The destruction of the Spanish Armada in 1588, after it had failed to pick up a large Spanish land based army (due to Dutch rebels closing the ports under their control) dramatically weakened Spain's ability to wage war abroad. By 1600, the last Spanish troops were driven out of the Netherlands.

In 1648, the Dutch and Spanish signed the Treaty of Munster, in terms of which the Netherlands became independent for the first time since the original Roman occupation.

EXPLORATION AND A WORLD EMPIRE - NEW YORK FOUNDED

Lying so close to the sea, the Dutch were masters of the waves, and their navy, both civilian and military, soon rivaled that of any other major European power. Closely following the explorations undertaken by the original Portuguese, the Dutch sent exploration and trading missions to the new world. By 1600, the first successful trading mission had been established in Indonesia in South East Asia, and the beginning was made to the creation of a massive Dutch trading and colonial empire.

Many hundreds of thousands of Dutch people left the country at the height of its colonial era: a significant amount went to America (where they founded the city of New Amsterdam. After it was lost to the English, the city was renamed New York) and a significantly large number went to South Africa, where they formed the basis for what later became known as the Boers.

The full extent of the Dutch voyages can be seen in the names given to geographic points all over the world: Spitsbergen to Cape Horn, Staten Island in Tasmania and many others.

In addition to this, the Dutch founded two companies, the Dutch East India Company and the Dutch West India Company, both of whom were empowered by the Dutch government to establish bases in Africa, America and Asia. Both companies were also given the right to wage war.

WARS WITH ENGLAND - DUTCH SAIL UP THE THAMES

The sudden expansion of Dutch power following independence from Spain almost immediately caused conflict with the other European power then expanding its commercial and colonial interests in the new world - England.



The Dutch war with the English: the Dutch fleet in the Thames River. The Dutch navy - a fleet born of a sea going nation - seriously challenged the might of the English fleet twice. In 1666, a massive engagement took place near the mouth of the Thames River, which saw 6,000 Englishmen killed and 23 vessels lost, for 800 Dutch dead. The next year the Dutch, under their great Admiral De Ruyter, actually sailed up the Thames as far as the town of Gravesend, destroying and burning English shipping as he went.

Two Anglo-Dutch Wars were waged during the 1650s and 1660s - during which a cheeky Dutch fleet actually sailed up the Thames River to raid England. Other wars, costly in lives and money, followed against England and France. The end result of these wars was that the Dutch lost several valuable overseas possessions to the English and were defeated on land by the French.

INDEPENDENCE LOST - NAPOLEON'S BROTHER RULES

In the late 18th Century, the unity of the Netherlands was disputed by a conflict between those wanting greater democratic reforms (inspired by events in North America and France) and those wanting to keep the old order - the groups becoming known as the Patriot Party and the House of Orange respectively.

The Orangists were supported by a Prussian invasion in 1787, but by 1795, a combination of French revolutionary troops and a council of Dutch republicans had invaded and had established a new government, known as the Batavian republic.

The Batavian Republic existed until 1806, whereafter Napoleon occupied the country and put one of his brothers onto the vacant Dutch throne, first transforming the country into the kingdom of Holland and then in 1810 incorporating the country into the greater French Empire. While the Dutch were under French rule, the British seized Dutch colonial possessions, including the important Cape of Good Hope in South Africa.

INDEPENDENCE RESTORED

When Napoleon was finally beaten, Dutch independence was restored by the Congress of Vienna in

1815, with the territory making up the new Dutch kingdom then included that known as Belgium.

The Belgians were however a divided nation: half spoke French and half spoke a Dutch dialect, Flemish. By 1830, the Belgians had rebelled and had claimed their independence. A Dutch invasion was successful but international pressure forced both sides to accept Belgian independence in 1839.

LIBERALISM AND REFUGE - DUTCH TOLERANCE

The Netherlands had long been known for its tolerant attitude towards dissenters in Europe. Many great thinkers of the reformation and renaissance, when pursued by angry Catholics or Protestants, found refuge in the Netherlands - and many Spanish Jews, fleeing the Spanish Inquisition, were also given refuge in the small country.

This tradition continued through the 19th Century - social reform and democratization in the Netherlands set the pace for much of Europe, another Dutch tradition which has persisted to the present day.



Dutch soldiers and two mortar squads photographed in position in one of the Dutch forts on the Far East island of Bali, early 1900s. The Dutch colonial empire was far flung - on Bali wars with the Nonwhite natives lasted more than thirty years. The Netherlands has however paid a price for the its colonial empire - at the end of the 20th Century, the majority of Nonwhite immigrants into that country have been from former colonial possessions.

WORLD WAR ONE

Remaining neutral during the First World War was a difficult task for the Netherlands. Although the land itself was not invaded, economically it suffered hardship as a result of an English blockade of Europe aimed at the Germans.

THE AFSLUITDYK

Despite the deprivations caused by the First World War, the Dutch recovered well, and continued to expand directly afterwards. By the second decade of the 20th Century the Dutch had become masters at containing the sea. Huge areas of land had even been reclaimed from the sea, leading to almost a third of the country actually being below sea level, cut off behind massive dikes for which the

country has, like windmills, become famous.

Much of the land that lies below sea level is still kept dry by continuous mechanical pumping. The largest of these projects was the stunning Afsluitdyk - or "Closing Off Dike" which was finished in 1932. Cutting off a huge stretch of the North Sea, the Afsluitdyk created an inland fresh water sea known as the IJsselmeer, large parts of which were then reclaimed, an ongoing process which has lasted more than 60 years.



Nowhere better is the White Dutch technological genius better illustrated than with the technological wonder of the Afsluitdijk - or 'closing off dike'. The incredible 32,5 kilometer long dike built straight across the North Sea in just five years from 1927 to 1932, closed off an entire section of that sea and allowed massive land reclamation. Alongside, a map of the Netherlands showing the position of the Afsluitdijk (thick line).

In many ways the Afsluitdyk represents one of the greatest technological achievements of the tiny Dutch nation. It is a stunning engineering feat which has not been duplicated anywhere in the world, even by much larger powers.

WORLD WAR TWO

Although officially neutral once again during the Second World War, the Netherlands was invaded by Germany as part of that country's campaign against France, and fell under German control from 1940 to 1945.

The greatest single blow to the Netherlands occurred when the German airforce bombed the city of Rotterdam in a show of might - after that the Dutch had little choice but to surrender or face more of the same. Along with the rest of Europe, the Netherlands suffered great hardship during the war, and took several years to recover.

Also in common with many European colonial powers, the period directly after the Second World War saw colonial rebellions and independence.

The Netherlands lost a war against nationalists in Indonesia, which gained its independence in 1949. Netherlands New Guinea gained its independence in 1962 and Surinam in 1975. The Netherlands however retained an interest in the Caribbean islands of Antilles and Aruba.

After the Second World War at least 500,000 Dutch emigrated, mainly to North America, with a small but significant number going to Australia.

IMMIGRATION

Partly as a result of its colonial policies, which allowed large numbers of Indonesians, Surinamers and other South East Asians back into the Netherlands, and partly because of the generally tolerant attitude of the Dutch, the country became a focus for Third World immigration during the last part of the 20th Century. This development and its implications are overviewed in a later chapter.

THE DUTCH CONTRIBUTION

For such a small nation, the Dutch have produced a disproportionately large number of some of the leading minds of Western Europe. Notably it includes:

- The renaissance Humanist thinker Desiderius Erasmus had wide influence in the 16th Century;



Erasmus of Rotterdam, a painting by Hans Holbein the Younger. 1523 AD.

- The lawyer Hugo Grotius wrote tracts on law which are still standard texts in the study of local and international law to the present day;
- The scientist Christiaan Huygens first discovered the surface markings of the planet Mars and Saturn's rings. He also established the Huygens principle governing waves and the wave nature of light;
- Well-known Dutch artists included Rembrandt, Jan Vermeer, Frans Hals, and Jan Steen.

BELGIUM

ROMAN BELGIUM

The region known as Belgium was originally occupied by a Celtic tribe known as the Belgae, as named by the Romans when they occupied the area. The Roman region of Gallia Belgica (Belgian Gaul) included what is now Belgium, northern France, the Netherlands, and part of Switzerland.

FRANKISH RULE

Belgium's territory was then overrun by the Germanic Franks following the collapse of Rome: by the 8th Century, it formed an integral part of Charlemagne's empire, as was the case with the entire Low Country region. The fortunes of Belgium then mirrored that of the Netherlands - the two regions were physically united - until 1839, when the Belgians managed to declare themselves independent of Dutch rule.

EXPANSION AND COLONIZATION

The newly independent Belgians lost no time in catching up with the other European countries. Under the Kings Leopold I and Leopold II, the country rapidly industrialized. King Leopold II personally took possession of a stretch of Africa known as the Congo. This private property of the king was later bequeathed to the Belgian state and became known as the Belgian Congo until the 1960s, when Black nationalists seized control of the country, committing some of the most bloody anti-White atrocities in Africa.

THE FIRST AND SECOND WORLD WARS

Belgium continued to expand and grow economically until the advent of the First World War. Invaded and held by the Germans for the largest part of that conflict, many great battles of the war were fought in Flanders. The country was devastated as a result, and the situation was only slightly improved when it was given a small piece of Germany by the Treaty of Versailles in 1919 as compensation.

No sooner had the country started to recover from the First World War but it was invaded by Germany again in 1940. The new occupation lasted until 1944, when Allied troops drove out the German forces.

FLEMINGS AND WALLOONS - REGIONAL GOVERNMENTS CREATED

Belgium once again recovered after the devastation of the war, recreating the pre-war growth levels within a decade. However, rivalry between the French speaking Walloons and the Dutch dialect speaking Flemish erupted into riots during the 1960s, and as a result separate Flemish and Walloon regional governments were set up in 1974, with further regional development being implemented in 1993.

IMMIGRATION

Immigration by Third World peoples has also occurred to a significant level in Belgium: these and other related developments are reviewed in a later chapter.

LUXEMBOURG

The history of the tiny country of Luxembourg mirrored that of the Netherlands and Belgium precisely until 1867, when, a Franco-Prussian crisis as provoked by a French attempt to buy the region of Luxembourg, resulted in an international treaty guaranteeing the country's independence. Luxembourg was occupied twice by Germany in both World Wars, suffering damage as a result, but the country has been stable and one of the most prosperous small nations of the world ever since, and enjoys one of the highest standards of living in Europe.



When one White man owned an entire country in Black Africa. Leopold II, King of Belgium, founded the African country now known as the Congo. This he did with the assistance of the great White British explorer, Sir Henry Stanley. Leopold's Congo state - virtually his private property - was formally recognized by the other White powers in 1885, and would remain a colony until the 1960s.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 31 : THE FOURTH GREAT RACE WAR - BULGARS, AVARS, MAGYARS AND KHAZARS

The lands making up western and southern Russia, Asia Minor (Turkey) and the South Eastern Balkans were to be the scene of some of the most dramatic racial conflicts between various tribes of Europeans on the one hand, and various Asiatic, Mongol, and mixed race Muslim armies on the other.

These wars started around 550 AD, a century after the crushing of the Mongolian Hunnish invasion of Europe. They only finally stopped with the defeat of new Asian invaders some 400 years later, with the defeat of an Asiatic alliance known as the Magyars, in Bavaria in 954 AD.

This massive struggle against Asian and Mongolian hordes can rightly be grouped into one heading, even though different players acted in the drama.

If these combined Asian invaders had not been turned back, then it would most certainly have given the Nonwhite Moorish invasion in Spain, which took place in the same time span, a far better chance of success. The White race might have been exterminated between the Asians and the Moors - but it was not.



Magyars raiding a White settlement. The Magyars were an Asiatic race who burst over the Danube river at the close of the 10th Century, ravaging wide areas of central Europe. Although they were to be ultimately driven out, a small number of their genes remained behind in the areas they subjugated - the origin of the small number of

slightly Asiatic looking southern Slavs. This process was by no means complete, and of course huge numbers of Slavs retain the characteristics of their Indo-European forebears. Nonetheless, the impact of the Magyars was so great that in the Hungarian language to this day, the name for Hungary and Hungarian is still Magyar - although the original Asiatic Magyars have long since vanished.

RUSSIA - BULGARS FROM THE SEA OF AZOV

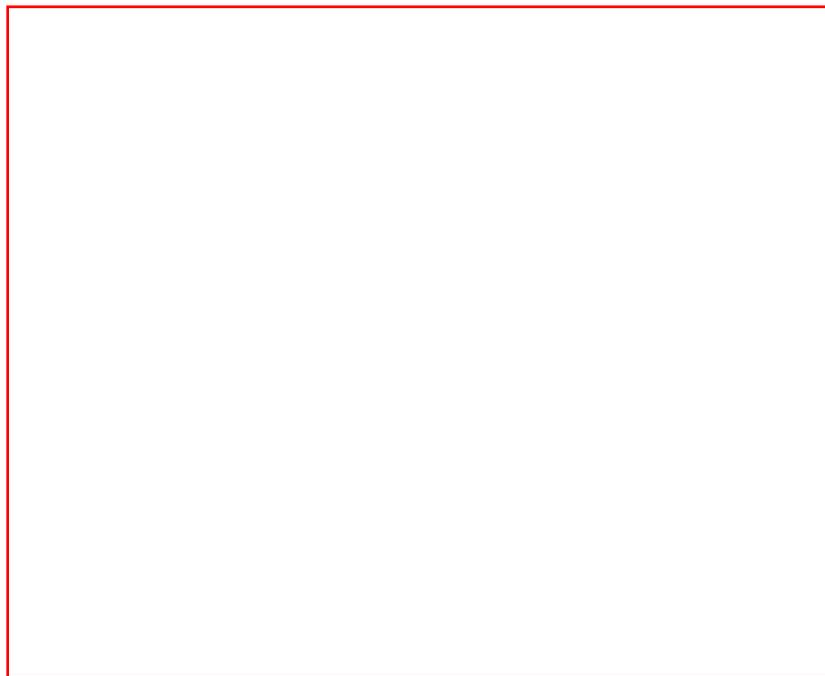
In the year 372 AD, the easternmost White peoples in what is today Russia were the Sarmatians, or Alans. This group was closely related to the ancient Medes, Persians and Aryans, all of whom had penetrated southwards and had slowly become mixed with the darker inhabitants of the regions they had conquered.

The Alans were also the last Indo-European tribe to emerge from the ancestral Nordic homeland between the Caspian and Black seas. The Alans had for a time ruled a larger part of modern day Russia, but had been forced to reduce the area under their control by the eastward invasions of the Ostrogoths, who had left Northern Europe in a second migratory wave which had also pushed the Slavs eastward.

For more than a century, the Ostrogoths mixed with the Alans and the Slavs, and as they were all originally of the same Nordic stock, retained their racial characteristics to the greatest degree.

The Alans and Ostrogoths were then decimated before the Asiatic Hunnish invasion, with the White survivors fleeing both south and west.

After the Germans had warded off the Hunnish invasion in 454 AD, the Huns retreated to the area around the Sea of Azov, where in the course of time they acquired a new name - the Bulgars.



Magyar raiders set fire to a German homestead. The Magyars were however eventually defeated, but small traces of their gene pool remain in a minority of the Slavic population today. This is particularly evident in modern south eastern Russia.

THE AVARS - ASIATIC INVASION IN MID 16TH CENTURY

In the middle of the sixth century, a new wave of Asiatics, the Avars - possibly descendants of the Bulgars - swept into Europe from the East.

They reconquered the Slavs as they proceeded west, and were the cause of the movement of many Indo-European tribes westwards, including the Lombards who moved into Italy.

The Avars were only finally halted by the Franks in one of the increasing number of openly racial wars which had followed the collapse of the Western Roman Empire.

Remnants of the Avars however wreaked havoc on central Europe, on German and Slav alike. They had occupied large areas of present day eastern Europe - Hungary, Russia to the Volga river and a strip of territory reaching right up to the Baltic sea. However, the further west the Avars progressed, the more thinly they became spread.

Vastly outnumbered by the subjugated Slavs, it was only a matter of time before they lost control of their empire.

By the year 626 AD, an Avar assault on Constantinople had been repulsed and most of the Slavic nations had risen up in rebellion and overthrown the Asiatic Avars.

EXTERMINATION BY THE SWORD AND ABSORPTION

The Avars were overthrown either through their physical expulsion, or in some cases, their biological absorption - again contributing to the "Slavic" look which can still be found amongst certain groups of Slavs.

This is not to say that all present day Slavs are of mixed ancestry - huge numbers are not - but what is regarded as the typically "Slavic" look has its roots in the absorption of the various Asiatic invaders.

As any traveler to Eastern Europe or Russia can vouch, the "Slavic" look is not nearly as common as is often believed, and confined mainly to the south eastern reaches of Russia itself.

KHAZARS - FORCE BULGARS INTO BULGARIA

In 576 AD, a new force invaded from the east - a mixed race grouping calling themselves Khazars, occupied territory on the north western shore of the Caspian Sea in southern Russia.

Originally from Asia Minor (Turkey), the Khazars were the product of the integration process which had taken place in the Middle and Near East over a process of centuries. Made up of Old European, Semitic and Mongolian elements, the Khazars physically closely resembled many other peoples in that region.

The Khazars began to expand their territory westwards, occupying the land east of the Dniester River by 650 AD. In this process they drove the Bulgar Huns from the territory around the Sea of Azov, forcing them on into modern Bulgaria which they ruled for about 150 years and which bears their name to this day.

At this stage then there were three major groupings of Mongols and mixed race Asiatics in eastern Europe - the Bulgar Huns; the Avars; and the Khazars. To this group was added remnants of a Mongoloid people who had originally settled in Finland (and whose descendants to this day form part of the Lapp people in that country) but who were in part driven south by the Indo-European invaders over the centuries.



A bust of a Khazar warrior circa 800 - 1000 AD. This is a remarkably accurate statue, with the Asiatic influence being particularly marked with the eye shape and the protruding lower lip.

MAGYARS

Three of these groupings - the Khazars, the Avars, and the Finno-Ugric - then formed what was at first an informal alliance, which was later formalized as these groups began to physically mix with each other. Calling themselves Magyars, this confederation of Mongoloid/Asiatic tribes began moving westwards in the 8th Century, setting the stage for yet another racial struggle between White Europeans and Asiatic and mixed race invaders from the east.

KHAZARS AND JUDAISM

The Khazars themselves had also undergone a transformation during this period. After wandering aimlessly for centuries, waves of Jewish Semites who had fled north from Palestine following the

Roman-Jewish Wars and Diaspora of 70 AD, finally reached southern Russia around the beginning of the 7th Century. At the precise time of their arrival, the Khazar king was looking for a religion to adopt as the formal Khazar belief: Judaism was decided upon.

This did not however represent a radical racial sea change for the Semitic Jews - they, like virtually all the peoples who inhabited the Middle East over the previous centuries, were themselves mixes of original Old European, Semitic, Arabic and Asian peoples. The Khazars themselves were not that different, perhaps a little lighter than the original Semites, but that was all. In this way the core of what was to become the European Jews was formed - the basis of the Ashkenazim.

KHAZAR SLAVE TRADERS - ORIGIN OF THE WORD SLAVE

Even before their conversion to Judaism, the Khazars, like the Huns and other Asiatics, were active slave traders. The Slavs however bore the brunt of the Khazar slave catching expeditions - so much so that the word slave was to derive from the word Slav - and with the Khazar conversion to Judaism, an association of Judaism with slave trade in the east became firmly established. This was the origin of the association of Jews with slave trading - an allegation which had some basis in fact at this stage in history.

THE NORSEMEN DEFEAT THE MAGYARS

In the midst of the rise of Magyars, a new Nordic power entered the fray - the Norsemen. As early as the 6th Century, these tall blond Germanic tribesmen, emerging from Denmark and southern Scandinavia, had started to establish settlements along the Baltic Sea and had sent expeditions into central Russia up the western Dvina River.

By the end of the 8th Century the Norsemen had built fortified settlements at Novgorod and Kiev and had set up smaller trading posts further down south, into Khazar territory. In short order they were at war with the emerging Magyars. The Asiatics were defeated by the Nordic Norsemen, and the entire area around the lower Don River became known as Great Sweden as a result of the dominance and immigration into the area by Norsemen and their families.

The Norsemen, who called themselves Varangers, mixed with the Indo-European remnants in western Russia, the Alans and parts of the original Slavs. The Alans had originally called themselves the As, and a leading clan amongst them was known as the Rukhs-As (the "shining" or "leading" Alans). From this developed a tribal name, the Rus. After a while the Norsemen also began taking on the customs of these original Indo-Europeans, eventually calling themselves the Rus. It is from this time that the very word Russia originated.

VIKINGS AND THE BIRTH OF RUSSIA - 856 AD

The Khazars then attacked the Rus without warning. Initially taken aback by the ferocity of the Khazar attack, the Rus called for re-enforcements from Scandinavia. The call was answered by Rurik, ruler of Southern Jutland and Friesland in Denmark, who set off for the steppes of Russia with an army, arriving in 856 AD. It is from this date that the Russians formally count the history of their country as having started.

Rurik had already established a reputation as an adventurer, warrior and pirate - in the West he would have been called a Viking (as indeed many of his compatriots who went west on their forays, were called).

MAGYAR SETBACK

In the interim, the Magyar alliance had suffered a grievous setback: in Central Europe the Frankish King Charlemagne, had utterly destroyed the Avars, rooting them out of their stronghold in Eastern Austria and Hungary, managing in the process to kill off most of them. Charlemagne established a buffer state in central Europe to ward off further incursions (the Ostmark, or Eastern March - Austria) and extended Frankish protection over the areas now known as Bohemia, Moravia, Austria and Croatia.

This defeat, combined with arrival of yet more Norsemen under Rurik, caused the Magyars to desist from further attacks on the Indo-Europeans for the time being. Instead, spurred on by the arrival of yet another Nonwhite tribe from Turkey, the Magyars turned on the Bulgar Huns and in 893 seized their territories in modern day Bulgaria and Hungary.

RUS EXPANSION UNDER RURIK AND OLEG

Rurik had in the interim become king of the city Novrogod, and led the emerging Rus successfully until his death in 879. His successor, the Norwegian born Oleg, united the principalities of Novrogod and Kiev and then started expanding the territory under the control of the Rus.

DESTRUCTION OF THE KHAZARS - 965 AD

In 964 AD, Oleg's grandson, Svyatoslav, became ruler of the Rus. A fierce warrior who adhered strictly to his Scandinavian upbringing - even refusing to become a Christian after his mother had converted - Svyatoslav set as his first task the destruction of the Jewish Khazar empire in the south.

In 965, the Rus army under Svyatoslav, crashed through the Khazar borders and utterly defeated the Jewish slave trading empire for ever. The Khazars who survived this great assault were scattered throughout the region, with many moving west into what became western Russia and Poland. There they re-established Jewish communities and absorbed some Nordic elements (mainly through marrying Jewish women to non Jewish men; Jewish law dictating that only persons born of a Jewish mother can be classified as a Jew), creating the basic stock of today's modern European Jews, known as the Ashkenazim.

BULGARS CRUSHED - SVYATOSLAV KILLED

Not content with smashing the Khazars, Svyatoslav then turned his attention to the remaining Bulgar Huns along the Danube River, and in 967, he decisively defeated them, occupying large areas of Bulgaria in the process. He would have finished off the Bulgar Huns, but was forced to return to Kiev when that city was attacked by an invasion of Turks called the Patzinaks (a mixed race tribe forming part of a Islamic Turkish invasion all along the South Eastern borders of Europe, concentrated on Constantinople). Svyatoslav saved Kiev, but in a follow up operation against the Patzinak Turks in

972, he was killed in battle.

In 1068, new waves of Muslim invaders, the Cumans, occupied the Crimean peninsula while pushing the Patzinaks westwards into the Balkans. In the south, the Eastern Roman Empire was on its last legs, having lost the decisive battle of Manzikert to another group of invading Muslims, the Seljuks, in 1071. This allowed the Seljuks to occupy large parts of western Turkey and prepare the way for the final assault on Constantinople.

MAGYAR ASSAULT ON WESTERN EUROPE

In central Europe, the Magyars started moving out from their base in Hungary, which they had earlier seized from the Bulgar Huns. They launched raiding parties as far afield as Bremen in Germany, Orleans in France and Constantinople, raping, pillaging, looting and destroying where they went. In 954, a Magyar raiding party consisting of an estimated 100,000 soldiers crossed Bavaria and the Rhine River, penetrating France as far as Rheims and Burgundy, then crossing the Alps to pillage Lombardy in Italy.

MAGYARS CRUSHED: THE BATTLE OF LECHFELD

The following year, another Magyar army invaded Bavaria and besieged the town of Augsburg, north west of modern day Munich. This time however the Bavarians were prepared. The Saxon king, Otto I, counter attacked with a specially prepared army and annihilated the Magyars in the Battle of Lechfeld. Contemporary accounts have it that the Saxons slew retreating Magyars for three days after the battle. Whether this is true or not, the fact remains that after the Battle of Lechfeld, the Magyars were never again to threaten Europe.



The White victor over the Magyars, Otto I. Called Otto the Great, he was crowned 'Holy Roman Emperor' in 936 AD. His name will always be remembered as the leader of the great White victory at the Battle of Lechfeld, where the Asiatic Magyars were crushed. The victory was so complete that the Magyars were never again to threaten Europe. From a statue in Magdeburg.

The defeat and dissolution of the Magyars marks the end of the second great Asian invasion - the next would occur in 1221, when an even more cruel Mongol leader would establish a reign of terror in eastern and central Europe so terrible his name is still a byword for tyranny today - Genghis Khan.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 32 : THE FIFTH GREAT RACE WAR - GENGHIS KHAN

Although the name Genghis Khan has become synonymous with tyranny (and for good reason) and often reference is made to his invasion of Europe, in reality Genghis himself played only a relatively minor role in the invasion of White lands - it was however he who united the Asiatic tribes and consolidated their power, which later led to their large invasions of Europe. The act of unifying the Mongols was therefore as important as the actual invasion itself, and hence Genghis Khan is remembered as the greatest Mongol leader.

GENGHIS KHAN (TEMUJIN) UNIFIED MONGOLS CIRCA 1206 AD

In 1206, a Mongol chieftain by the name of Temujin succeeded in unifying a number of tribes in the inner reaches of Mongolia - shortly thereafter Temujin adopted the name Genghis Khan ("Lord of the Earth") and, through the power of his personality, caused his Asiatic tribesmen to start sweeping westwards towards Europe.



Genghis Khan, as portrayed in portrait in the possession of his descendants in Asia.

RUSSIANS FIRST VICTIMS - CIRCA 1220 AD

Genghis Khan's first raid was into Russia in 1221, when his army smashed their way through several Southern Russian principalities who were taken completely unawares by the yellow skinned Mongolians.

Soon a huge part of Southern Russia was under the sway of Genghis Khan - and not even the efforts of the Russian tribes to the north could dislodge him.



The full extent of the Mongol Empire, with their homeland in black.

GENGHIS KHAN DIES - 1227 AD

The invasion of southern Russia was in fact the only invasion of White held lands in which Genghis himself took part.

He died suddenly in 1227, and the Mongolian armies paused for several years in southern Russia while a successor to Genghis was chosen from amongst the leading Mongolian chieftains.

In the interim the Mongols instituted a grim reign of terror over the White tribes they had subjugated. Whole settlements were slaughtered en masse, with lucky survivors barely escaping to the north and west, bringing tales of terror from the new Asiatic invaders.

One tactic for which the Mongols became famous was to sack a town, leave and then a few days later send a rearguard party back to the sacked town to see if any survivors had made their way back - any such unfortunates were put to death on the spot. In this way entire regions were quite literally stripped of all living souls.

SECOND MONGOL INVASION - LED BY BATU, GRANDSON OF GENGHIS

Finally in 1236, the Mongol armies moved again, striking westwards in such numbers and ferocity that they reached deep into the Balkans, Hungary, northern Russia, Poland and central Germany.

Under the leadership of one Batu, a grandson of Genghis Khan, the Asiatics resumed their westward invasions in 1237, sacking the Russian city of Kiev in 1240, continuing westward into Poland,

Bohemia, Hungary, and the Danube River valley.

WHITES DEFEATED AT BATTLE OF LEIGNITZ

An alliance of Germans, Poles and Teutons under the command of Duke Henry II of Silesia formed a united White army and desperately tried to stem the Asiatic advance. They met the Mongols in battle at Leignitz in what was then Poland in April 1241, but were badly defeated. Henry was beheaded by the Mongolians and for several days afterwards his impaled head was carried around on a spear at the head of the Mongol army until it rotted away.

The southern Indo-European tribes, the Slavs, then put together a new White army and launched an attack on the main body of the Mongol army in southern Europe. The battle, fought just north of Budapest, at the Sajo River in April 1241, saw the White armies defeated once again. The combined defeats inflicted upon the Russians, Germans and Slavs meant that all of Europe lay open to the Mongols.



Mongols at the gates of Leignitz in 1241, after defeating the White army of Duke Henry.

They are carrying Henry's head on a lance.

In 1242, the Mongol hordes penetrated into the suburbs of Vienna itself - at that critical moment the Nonwhite invasion ceased of its own accord.

THE MONGOLS WITHDRAW

It was therefore a quirk of destiny which saved Europe and its peoples from complete extermination at the hands of the Mongols. In December 1241, the Asiatic army had just started on their final drive westwards, marching across the frozen Danube River, when a messenger arrived from their homeland

in Mongolia - the successor to Genghis Khan had died. Then and there, the Mongol army turned around and withdrew back to the East. Leaderless, they were never to penetrate into central Europe again.

SOUTHERN RUSSIA REMAINS OCCUPIED

Even though the Mongols withdrew from Central Europe, all of eastern and southern Russia remained under Mongol occupation, where Batu created what became known as the Khanate of the Golden Horde - the name originating from an annual tribute of riches extracted from the northern Russians, who only escaped occupation by formally acknowledging themselves as vassals by paying a yearly tribute to the Mongol rulers in the south.

The only Eastern European state which was not humiliated in this way was Baltic Lithuania. As Mongol strength slowly declined, the Lithuanians expanded, eventually occupying an area stretching from the Baltic right to the Black Sea in the South. Lithuania in fact became the most powerful state in Eastern Europe.

RUSSIA LIBERATED BY GRAND DUKE DIMITRY

By the early 1300s, the Mongol Empire in the south had been racked by internal divisions, with rival claimants to the Mongol throne launching a series of fratricidal wars amongst themselves. Seizing advantage of the confusion in the Asiatic ranks, the Grand Duke Dimitri of Moscow led an army against a huge Mongol force at Kukikovo, on the banks of the Don River, in 1380. Although great casualties were suffered by both sides, the White Russians won: the first major reverse suffered by the Mongols since their occupation of southern Russia.

IVAN THE GREAT - REFUSES TO PAY TRIBUTE TO MONGOLS

The Mongols were then further weakened by renewed internal dissension, with a new Mongol warlord, Tamerlane, conquering much of the original Mongol empire in Russia in 1395. After Tamerlane's death, his empire was broken into four independent khanates: Astrakhan', Kazan', Crimea, and Sibir.

So divided, the Mongols were at last weakened to the point where the Muscovite principality, under the leadership of Ivan III, took the opportunity in 1480, to refuse to pay the annual tribute to the Horde.

Ivan, called The Great, who ruled from 1440 to 1505, then followed up the refusal to pay the tribute with a series of localized wars which expanded the borders of his kingdom - some were against other White principalities while some were against local Mongol chieftains. In this way a succession of slow moves south, combined with a process of assimilation, saw the last of the Mongol states vanish another century later, although the names they gave to these regions still persist.



The path of destruction waged by the Mongols in their rampage through Europe. Untold thousands of Whites perished in this time.

WHITE RECONQUEST

The first major White reconquest of the southern parts of Russia only began in the mid 1500s, when bands of Russian peasants, known as Cossacks, fleeing the autocratic fiefdoms of northern Russia, started settling along the banks of the Don River basin.

The Cossacks engaged in a large clearing operation lasting many decades against the Mongols. By the mid 1600s the majority of Mongols had been cleared from central southern Russia - the remaining minority were for the greatest part absorbed into the new population.

THE MONGOL LEGACY

In central Europe, the Mongols were not physically present long enough to have a lasting genetic impact upon the local population, although unquestionably a small amount of Mongolian genes did enter the bloodstream of a tiny part of the population. This took place mainly through the wholesale rape of White women for which the Mongols were also famous. The major impact of the Mongol invasion upon southern and central Europe was that they physically killed huge numbers of Whites in their path, numbers which were lost forever.

In southern Russia however, the after effects of three hundred years of Mongol rule left a clear genetic imprint upon many of the peoples in that region. Many of the peoples of regions such as Kazakstan are of clear mixed racial origin. It is these people who are today often mistakenly called Slavs. Even though they were originally the Easternmost Indo-European peoples and as such part of the Slavic tribes, their racial identity was completely submerged by the Mongol invasion and it would be genetically incorrect to classify them as Slavic.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 33 : CONTINUAL CONQUEST - THE BALTIC STATES

Part i - The Teutonic Knights and Poland

The history of the White Baltic states - Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Prussia - was made bizarre by the dramatic and unexpected appearance of a Christian religious order known as the Teutonic Knights, which had been founded in Palestine during the Crusades against Islam.

The spread of the Teutonic Knights into north eastern Europe from Palestine alone make this region worthy of study as a fascinating insight into the spread of Christianity. Even if this were not the case, the Baltic states have also produced peoples and disputes which shaped European history right into the 20th Century - and, given the high degree of racial homogeneity still existing in that region, might yet play an even more significant role in future.

THE TEUTONIC KNIGHTS OF SAINT MARY'S HOSPITAL AT JERUSALEM

The Teutonic Knights were a German religious military order founded during the Crusades in 1190. Their deeds on behalf of Christendom had become legendary, and they were put to work by order of the church against White pagans in eastern and north eastern Europe. Their murderous activities on behalf of Christianity - where they killed many thousands of White pagans who refused to convert to Christianity - has already been reviewed in the chapter dealing with Christianity itself.

In 1210 the Knights were invited to Hungary to help convert the pagan Slavic tribes to Christianity. In 1226, the Holy Roman Emperor granted the Teutonic Knights control over what was then Prussia (today northern Poland) to rule as a fiefdom on condition that they convert all the locals to Christianity.

The Teutonic Knights ensured that Christianized Germans settled in the Prussia: this served a double purpose - not only could the new arrivals police the new converts, but also the Teutonic Knights realized very clearly that the easiest way to change the nature of a society was to change its inhabitants. While the importation of large numbers of Christian Germans did not change the racial composition of Prussia, it changed the cultural make-up considerably.



A Polish warrior of the 13th Century, reproduced from a Medieval manuscript. Soldiers such as this fought wars against the White Christian Teutonic Knights, and erratic Mongol invasions during this time period.

WAR AGAINST THE KNIGHTS - DESTRUCTION AT THE BATTLE OF TANNENBERG - 1410 AD

As a result of their tactics, the Knights were never popular in the region - even once the locals had all been converted to Christianity. In 1409, the King of Poland invited all enemies of the Teutonic Knights to participate in a campaign against the order - a call which led the major defeat for the Knights at the Battle of Tannenberg in 1410. By 1591 the last Knights had been expelled from the Baltic States.

REVIVAL IN SOUTHERN GERMANY

Despite their collapse in the north, the order was re-established in southern Germany and Austria, where it took part in the Battle of Vienna against the invading Nonwhite Islamic Turks in 1683. This was to be the Teutonic Knight's last war - by 1697, recruits had dried up and the last remnants were abolished by Napoleon Bonaparte in 1809.

ANCIENT POLAND - LAND OF THE POLANIE

The region now known as Poland was one of the areas settled by the easternmost branch of the original Indo-European invaders of Europe, the Slavs, the last of whom entered the territory more or less simultaneously with the fall of the Roman Empire in the west - that is, during the 3rd and 4th centuries AD.

The very name Poland is derived from the largest of these Slavic tribes, the Polanie. These Slavic tribes, like their neighbors in Eastern Europe, clung longest to the original Indo-European religions and beliefs, being amongst the last to fall prey to the murderous evangelism of the early Christians.

Southern Poland also fell prey to the ravages of Atilla the Hun, although no lasting racial imprint upon the population was left by the Asiatic warlord's passing.

THE FIRST KINGDOM UNDER BOLESŁAW

Around 840 AD, the first large grouping of Slavic tribes emerged in Poland under the almost legendary king Piast. The Polish tribes were still at this stage all pagans, and it was only with the conversion of the Polish duke Mieszko, who reigned from 962 to 992, that Christianity was introduced to the Poles.

Mieszko's son, Boleslaw, who reigned from 992 to 1025, was the first Polish king to start establishing definite borders to the Polish state in formation: he engaged in a successful campaign against some neighboring Germanic tribes to the west, and slightly expanded the Polish borders as a result. Shortly afterwards Poland was however to be divided up amongst the children of the royal house, and the greater Polish state collapsed once again.

MONGOL INVASION

In 1240, the Mongol terror from the East invaded Poland, having first decimated many other Slavic tribes to the east. Fortunately for Poland, the Mongols left the next year, but large parts of the country were laid waste as a result.

Simultaneously, two new population shifts occurred. Large numbers of Prussians began to settle in Poland, moving away from internal troubles in the German states, and the first large settlement of Jews occurred in Poland, the latter moving away from growing anti-Semitism in Western Europe.

THE SECOND KINGDOM - WLADSLAW BEATS OFF GERMANS

In 1320, a new Polish king was crowned, Wladyslaw I, who achieved fame for fighting off waves of invading Germans, during the course of which Wladyslaw managed to reunite Poland.

His son, Kazimierz III, also called The Great, reigned from 1333 to 1370 and won renown for his reformation of Polish society and the founding of the Jagiellonian University in 1364. He also won the gratitude of Europe's Jewish population by actively aiding Jewish refugees from Western Europe, allowing them to settle in large numbers in Poland.



Kazimierz the Great, King of Poland from 1333 to 1370, who won renown for not only establishing a semi-peace with the Teutonic Knights, but also for his by the standards of the time, liberal policy towards Europe's Jewish population, allowing them to settle in large numbers in that country to escape increasing anti-Jewish sentiment in western Europe.

UNITY OF LITHUANIA AND POLAND - 1386 AD

Kazimierz III died heirless, and was succeeded by his niece, Jadwiga, who married the Grand Duke Jagiello of the territory of Lithuania in 1386. From this time a single sovereign ruled both countries until 1569, and Christianity was introduced to the latter state, it having remained pagan right until the mid 14th Century.

THE TEUTONIC KNIGHTS

Poland and Lithuania, were however, the subject of continued invasions by the Teutonic Knights - these attacks did not stop until 1410, when a combined Polish and Lithuanian army won a great victory over the order at the Battle of Tannenberg.

This victory marked the emergence of Poland as a major power in Eastern Europe, although the Teutonic Knights were only finally defeated in 1466.

PRUSSIA ANNEXED BY POLAND

The defeat of the Teutonic Knights saw Poland acquiring the territory of Prussia, sparking off a dispute over territory which would later feature prominently in Polish history.

A long period of cultural and technological advances followed, with Polish history only being marked by a number of minor conflicts over succession to the Polish throne and the stamping out of the Protestant reformation by 1600.

After 1600, however, Poland's fortunes waned. Apart from disastrous wars with Sweden, Russia and Ukrainian Cossacks - far off distant racial cousins - Poland became embroiled in the great Nonwhite invasion of Eastern Europe when the Ottomans penetrated deep into Europe.



Vladislav III, the boy king of Hungary and Poland, Barely fifteen when he ascended to the throne in 1440. He lived a further four mere years - leading a White army against the invading Nonwhite Turks, Vladislav fell at the Battle of Varna in 1444.

POLISH ARMY SAVES VIENNA FROM THE NONWHITE INVASION

The massive contribution of the Polish army, which combined with a German army, but under the overall command of the Polish general Jan III Sobieski, to the defeat of the invading Nonwhite Turkish hordes outside the gates of Vienna in 1683, cannot be overstated - it was crucial and very possibly without the Polish intervention, Vienna would have fallen to the Turks, which would have then opened the way for the final Turkish conquest and Islam-ification of all of Europe.



The Polish general Jan III Sobieski, who led the Polish army at the Battle of Vienna in the year 1683 against the invading Nonwhite Turks.

RUSSIAN INVASION - 1764 AD

In the early 18th Century, Russia, seeking to advance its borders eastward, began a campaign against Poland; this finally culminated in an European wide conflict known as the War of the Polish Succession, fought from 1733 to 1735, over the right to succeed to the Polish crown.

Dissatisfied with the result, Russia invaded Poland directly in 1764, and placed a favorite of Tsarina Catherine the Great, one Stanislaw II Augustus, on the Polish throne. This blatant expansion by Russia was viewed with justifiable alarm by the other powers in Europe: Prussia and Austria, fearful of a general European conflict proposed a plan for Poland to be divided up rather than become an object of conflict.

THE PARTITION OF POLAND

Shaken by a war with the Ottoman Turks, which had broken out immediately after the invasion of Poland, the Russian government agreed to the partition plan, and in 1772, a formal agreement was signed, with many Polish nobles being persuaded to accept the division of their country into units administered by Russia, Prussia and Austria, by large payments of riches and money.

Other sections of the Polish population were however not so easily bought off: growing discontent led to the Polish parliament, or Sjem, (which had not been disbanded at the time of the partition) drafted a new constitution in 1788, and then reproclaiming Poland as a hereditary monarchy.

This led to a new Russian invasion in 1792, assisted by Polish nobles excluded from the new constitutional structures. Russian armies occupied all of eastern Poland, and early the following year, the Prussians occupied the western part of Poland. These land grabs were formalized in a second

partition conference held in 1793.



Racial types from Russia and Poland - leaders in the Polish/Russian wars. From left to right, Skrzynecki, Paskevitch and Constantine. General Jan Skrzynecki was in command of the main Polish army at Ostrolenka, where the Poles were defeated. Count Ivan Paskevitch commanded the Russian troops which crushed the Poles and took Warsaw with 70,000 Russian troops ranged against 40,000 Poles. Grand Duke Constantine, brother of the Tsar of Russia and governor of Warsaw, led the first evacuation of Warsaw by the Russians in 1830 - by 1831 Poland had regained its independence.

POLISH WAR OF INDEPENDENCE FAILS AND POLAND IS CARVED UP

The return of a number of Polish military men from America, where they had fought with success in the War of Independence of that country against the British, saw a renewed Polish uprising. Filled with revolutionary zeal, an army was raised and in 1794 the Poles launched their own War of Independence. Despite fighting against overwhelming odds, the Poles drove the Russians out of almost all of eastern Poland within a few months, pulling off a stunning victory at the Battle of Warsaw in 1794.

The war was however a battle of the uneven: it was only a matter of time before the Russian numerical superiority took its toll; aided by Prussian and Austrian troops, the Russians won a decisive victory at Maciejowice in late 1794. In November 1794 a Russian army entered Praga, a suburb of Warsaw, and massacred a large number of residents, sparking great resentment. The Polish War of Independence then ended within a few weeks with the surrender of the Polish army. The victorious powers once again divided Poland up between them in terms of two treaties, the last of which was signed in 1797. Poland then disappeared as a state from the map of Europe.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE - POLES JOIN HIS ARMY

The Poles remained under foreign rule for 125 years. When Napoleon Bonaparte reached the borders of the old Polish state on his conquests against the Germans and Prussians, he declared his desire to see Poland restored to full independence - this resulted in thousands of Poles joining Napoleon's army, where they served with distinction and bravery.

In 1807, by the provisions of the Treaty of Tilsit which ended the first set of Napoleonic Wars on continental Europe, the French leader created the Duchy of Warsaw, consisting originally of the territory taken by Prussia in 1793 and 1795.

Two years later Napoleon forced Austria to cede Western Galicia to the duchy. In return the Poles gave Napoleon their whole hearted support and took an active role in his disastrous invasion of Russia in 1812.

Despite their support for Napoleon, the Poles got off lightly when the French were finally defeated. The Congress of Vienna in 1815, which oversaw the division of territory at the end of the Napoleonic wars, created the Kingdom of Poland consisting of almost the identical territory of the Napoleonic created Duchy of Warsaw, with the only significant change being the installation of the Russian Tsar as King of the Duchy. The remainder of Poland was once again distributed between Russia, Austria, and Prussia.

THE SECOND POLISH WAR OF INDEPENDENCE FAILS

In 1830, the Poles once again turned to armed revolution: by January 1831, the Russians had been driven out and Polish independence proclaimed. The Russians re-invaded and by May of that year had crushed the Polish revolt.

A policy of Russi-fication was instituted, with the eastern territories becoming almost completely absorbed, ethnically speaking, into the Russian state.

Poland remained under foreign rule until the outbreak of the First World War in 1914.

WORLD WAR I

Living under German rule in the West, and Russian in the East, the Poles found themselves conscripted into the opposing armies of these two powers, and the ironic situation arose where Poles in German uniforms fought Poles in Russian uniforms to the death on the Eastern Front during the First World War.

The war ended however with the downfall of first the Russians and then the Germans. By November 1918, Poland was proclaimed an independent republic with Josef Pilsudski becoming head of state.

THE NEW TERRITORIES GAINED FROM GERMANY

The Treaty of Versailles, which ended the First World War, not only confirmed Polish independence, but took territory away from Germany, most notably the German city of Danzig on the Baltic coast and a stretch of land reaching up to the Baltic sea, giving Poland access to the coast and to Danzig, whilst simultaneously cutting Prussia (which became known as East Prussia) off from the rest of Germany.

Taking advantage of the confusion following the communist revolution in Russia, and the civil war in that country which dragged on until 1924, Poland invaded the Soviet Union in 1920, seizing historically Polish territory from Belarus and Ukraine before concluding a peace treaty with that emerging super power. Poland then attempted to walk a tight rope between Germany and the Soviet Union, signing non aggression pacts with both in the 1930s.

REDUCED RIGHTS FOR MINORITIES UNDER PILSUDSKI

The Polish state did not however follow a democratic internal policy. Pilsudski became an absolute dictator and allowed the rights of a number of minority groups in Poland, including Germans, Ukrainians, Belorussians and Jews to be severely infringed. The Polish government enacted specific anti-Jewish legislation, prohibiting Jews from holding certain levels of public office and other areas of influence in society.

POLAND GAINS A PART OF CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Contrary to popular myth, Poland did not fanatically resist Nazi Germany's expansionist policies - at least not as long as Poland itself was not on the agenda. In this way Poland took an active and enthusiastic part in the German created dismemberment of the Czechoslovakian state in 1938 - as part of the settlement Poland received about 1036 square kilometers (about 400 square miles) of Czech territory.



Contrary to modern propaganda, Poland did not fanatically resist Nazi expansion - as long as Poland was not on the agenda. Here are Polish soldiers, on the border with Czechoslovakia, about to launch the 1939 Polish takeover of Teschen, that part of Czechoslovakia which historically belonged to Poland. Poland was, along with Germany and Hungary, the beneficiary of the dismemberment of the Czech state as a result of the Munich conference of 1938. As long as Adolf Hitler did not dispute the Danzig corridor with Poland, the latter country was quite happy to co-operate with the German leader on most other issues.

THE DANZIG CORRIDOR

Germany then turned its demands to the German city of Danzig and the corridor separating East Prussia and Germany. The German leader, Adolf Hitler, requested that the city be returned to Germany and that the Germans be allowed to build an autobahn and railway line across the corridor to link East Prussia with Germany. Poland rejected these demands and Germany then invaded, causing the British and the French to declare war on Germany.

WORLD WAR II

The Polish Army although larger but consisting mainly of infantry and cavalry, was unprepared for modern warfare and as a result was no match for the armored German divisions. Poland was overrun in matter of weeks.

The Soviet Union simultaneously invaded Poland from the East, duplicating the German invasion from the west - this act did not bring any reaction from the French or British, in marked contrast to their declaration of war against Germany - one of the most hypocritical and meaningfully deliberate betrayals of the entire war.

POLAND OCCUPIED

The Polish population suffered greatly in the war. Hundreds of thousands were killed, directly or indirectly, with huge numbers of Polish Jews being rounded up and deported to concentration camps. The Polish also suffered under Soviet rule. Nearly 15,000 Polish soldiers who had been captured by the Soviets during their invasion of Poland were executed en masse in the Katyn forest outside the Russian town of Smolensk, where their remains were discovered by occupying Germans in 1943.





Les mrtvych v **Katyne**

In 1943, the German army discovered a mass grave of nearly 15,000 Polish army officers in Katyn, (present day western Russia). The Polish soldiers had been taken prisoners of war by the Soviets in 1939 and then executed, with their hands bound behind their backs, with individual pistol shots in the back of the head. Above, an aerial view of the massacre scene, and alongside, a Polish poster depicting the actual executions. For many years the Soviets claimed that the Germans had been responsible for the massacre, and some low level Nazis were even charged with the crime after the war. It was only after the fall of the Soviet Union that it was definitely confirmed that Soviet Communists had been responsible.

Germany formally annexed the former German territories of the pre-World War One borders, leaving a large piece in central Poland as a Polish semi-autonomous area known as the Government General, which was under overall German administration.

The Soviet occupied part of Poland consisted of the Russian territories won by Poland in terms of the Treaty of Versailles and the 1920 war. These territories were to be later overrun by the Germans when they invaded the Soviet Union in 1941.

POST WAR POLAND

The end of the Second World War saw the utter defeat of Germany. Poland gained massive slices of German territory and set about expelling millions of ethnic Germans from these lands. More than seven million Germans were rounded up and driven across the German border, clearing vast areas of land for Polish occupation.

Of this number, approximately 2 -3 million died en route. East Prussia totally disappeared. The city of Danzig was cleared of Germans and became the Polish city of Gdansk. In the east, the Soviet Union reoccupied its lost territories once again, forcing about four million Poles to move westward, many of them taking up residence in the lands seized from the Germans.

THE COMMUNIST STATE

Although the facade of democratic government was installed in Poland after the war, the country soon became a Soviet satellite, and along with East Germany, one of the most important member states of the Warsaw Alliance, a military group created out of the Communist Eastern European nations.

ANTI-JEWISH CAMPAIGNS 1956 - 1969

In June 1956, an anti-Communist uprising took place in Poznan - it was suppressed with the loss of 53 lives. This uprising was accompanied by a violent anti-Semitic outbreak in various parts of the country, triggered by the fact that large numbers of Polish Jews participated in the Communist government apparatus.

Popular discontent erupted once again in Poland in the spring of 1968, with rioting breaking out in Warsaw, Poznan, Lublin, and Krakow, each time the uprising being not only anti-Communist, but specifically anti-Jewish, with the rioters identifying Jews with the Communist Party and government. Seeking to quell public opinion, the Polish Communist Party then turned on the Jews in its own ranks. Starting in 1968, hundreds of prominent Jews were dismissed from government, Communist Party leadership positions, university departments and from newspaper editorship posts. Many thousands of Jews left Poland after 1968, settling in America or Israel.



A Polish army tank stands in a Poznan street during the unsuccessful anti-Communist uprising of June 1956.

SOLIDARITY PARTY DEFEATS COMMUNISTS

The power of the Communist Party was eventually broken by a combination of internal revolt and the collapse of the Soviet Empire starting around 1989. Internally, worker uprisings against economic mismanagement were led by the Solidarity trade union, whose leader, Lech Walesa, would be elected president of Poland after the fall of Communism. By 1991, Poland would have its first democratic constitution and the Communist party would be voted out of power. The transfer from communism to free enterprise was however, as in all former Eastern European communist states,

extremely difficult and caused economic chaos for many years.

IMMIGRATION

Unlike many countries in Western Europe, Poland did not encourage immigration from anywhere, and as such retains an extremely high degree of racial homogeneity. The only slight admixture which occurred amongst a very small number of Slavics in Poland was a comparatively tiny amount of Asiatic invaders who briefly occupied the country in the 1200s.

This influence was however extremely limited, and the overwhelming racial type found in Poland is still Nordic, or what is known as Dinaric, a combination of Nordic and Alpine sub-racial types.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 34 : THE TEST OF ETHNICITY - SWITZERLAND, CZECHSLOVAKIA AND YUGOSLAVIA

Part i - Switzerland and Czechslovakia

In the first chapter of this book, the difference between race and ethnicity was discussed. "Race" is a collection of individuals sharing a common genetic base; while "ethnicity" refers to the actual cultural manifestations of a particular group of people. Ethnicity is easily transferable amongst members of the same race - only when there are significant racial differences amongst the transferring societies, does the process falter.

This truth of this is perfectly illustrated in the comparative histories of three nations where ethnic conflict has played a major role: Switzerland, the Czech and Slovak Republics, and the former state of Yugoslavia. Switzerland, which retained the highest degree of racial homogeneity, overcame its ethnically based differences with relative ease.

The other two nations - Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia, were however less racially homogenous than Switzerland, and each therefore only dissolved after conflicts, the intensity and length of which were directly proportional to their homogeneity. The rule is that the higher the racial homogeneity, the more likely there is to be peace amongst racially similar ethnic groupings - the lower the racial homogeneity, the higher the discordance.

In this way the Czechs and the Slovaks entered a period of peace after the German minority were forcibly expelled after 1945, and finally they divided their country peacefully in the 1990s. However the far less racially homogenous Yugoslavia collapsed into frightful civil war before physical division produced any measure of peace.

SWITZERLAND

ANCIENT SWITZERLAND - ORIGINAL PEOPLE CALLED RHAETIANS

The earliest recorded inhabitants of the country now known as Switzerland were Old Europeans called the Rhaetians, who were related to the Etruscans in Italy. The Rhaetians were, like the Etruscans, overrun by the great wave of Indo-European invaders who swept east and south - the Indo-European tribe who settled in the valleys between the mountains became known as the Helvetii, and this name has stuck to the country ever since.

ROMAN OCCUPATION

Lying directly to the north of Italy, the small land of the Helvetii was overrun by the Roman general Julius Caesar during the 1st Century BC -and the entire region became completely Romanised. It survived as a peaceful Roman province for the next three hundred years.

GERMANIC INVASIONS

Once again thanks to its proximity to northern Italy, the province of Helvetia was overrun by the Germanic invasions which swept over the decaying Roman Empire in the 4th Century AD. Two tribes in particular occupied the region - the Bourguignons and the Alamanni.

None of these invasions affected the basic racial make-up of Switzerland: apart from the original Old Europeans, who had a number of Mediterranean sub-racial types amongst their numbers, all the invaders were Nordic sub-racial elements.

CHRISTIANITY

In common with all the Germanic tribes, the new invaders were pagans, even though the Romanised Helvetii had been introduced to Christianity in the closing years of the Roman Empire.

It was up to the Christianizing Franks under King Charlemagne to introduce Christianity to the Alamanni and the other Germanics in Helvetia - an event which occurred after the Franks invaded the region in the 5th Century AD.

GERMAN RULE

When the Frankish empire dissolved upon Charlemagne's death, most of what became modern Switzerland became incorporated into the duchy of Alemannia, or Swabia, one of the feudal states making up the German Kingdom.

The only part which was not incorporated into the German Empire was acquired in 1033, becoming part of the German Holy Roman Empire.

By 1276, the Austrian House of Habsburg had taken over the crown of the Holy Roman Empire. In 1276, its emperor, Rudolf I, introduced a number of feudal laws and oppressive measures in Switzerland, sparking off ongoing war with the independence minded Swiss which lasted nearly two hundred years.



The Swiss struggle for independence against the Austrians - knights in battle, Switzerland, 1474. The Swiss displayed such martial skill during this war that from then on, Swiss mercenaries became the most sought after in Europe - to this day the Pope in Rome recruits Swiss guards as the official soldiers of the Vatican.

INDEPENDENCE - HARD WON BY 1499

By 1474, the Swiss had fought the Austrians to a standstill. In that year, the Swiss regions, by then already known as cantons, were made into a confederation under the loose control of the Habsburgs.

In 1499, the Holy Roman Emperor, Maximilian I, launched an attempt to crush even this hard won autonomy.

A new war broke out between the Swiss and Austrians, resulting in victory for the Swiss. By the Treaty of Basel in 1499, Swiss independence was as good as sealed.

Shortly afterwards some of the last regions in Switzerland then affiliated to the new state in formation.

The Swiss skill in defeating the mighty Austrians led them to become highly regarded soldiers all over Europe - they were recruited as mercenaries by all those who could afford them, including the Pope in Rome, whose Swiss Guards remain to the present day.

ITALIAN ADDITION

While fighting as mercenaries with the French army during the wars of the early 16th Century, Swiss troops annexed some additional parts of northern Italy which became the southernmost canton of Switzerland. The Swiss then tried to take on the French and were unexpectedly badly defeated in 1515.

This defeat caused Switzerland to first adopt a policy of neutrality in all conflicts, one which it has more or less followed ever since, only breaking it to acquire more small territories.

REFORMATION - PROTESTANTS DESTROY CATHOLIC PROPERTY

The Protestant Reformation in Switzerland started in 1518, when a pastor named Huldreich Zwingli denounced the sale of indulgences - forgiveness by God - for money by the Catholic Church. Inflamed by Zwingli's oratory, the people of Zurich rose up and attacked Catholic churches, smashing relics and officially releasing the priests from their vows of celibacy.

Other Swiss towns, such as Basel and Bern, adopted similar religious platforms and in 1536, Geneva, where the French Protestant leader John Calvin had settled, rose up against the duchy of Savoy and refused to acknowledge the authority of its Roman Catholic bishop.

Swiss diplomatic skill prevented the country from becoming involved in the great Christian Wars which resulted from the reformation.

By the end of the Protestant/Catholic Thirty Years' War of 1618 to 1648, Switzerland was once again recognized as a fully independent state by the Treaty of Westphalia which ended that conflict.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE AND UNIFICATION

The ideals of the French Revolution spread to Switzerland after 1789. Swiss revolutionaries also rose up against the almost feudal system of Lords and Princes who ran the confederation of Swiss cantons. The Swiss revolutionaries were however suppressed by the Swiss nobles, which led to the French revolutionaries sending a French army into Switzerland to help the Swiss revolutionaries.

With French intervention, the Swiss revolutionaries managed to stage a comeback, and a Swiss republic based on the model of the French revolutionary state was established by 1798.

Napoleon Bonaparte then unified the country under the name of the Helvetic Republic, instituting a form of government which proved to be unpopular with the Swiss. In 1803 Napoleon ordered the French occupation troops to leave - although by then a part of Switzerland had been settled by some Frenchmen, creating the French speaking part of Switzerland.

The Congress of Vienna in 1815, which ended the Napoleonic Wars, saw this unpopular constitution rejected and replaced by the former confederal canton system. The Congress of Vienna also made particular note of Swiss neutrality - from that time on the Swiss were never again involved in any foreign war.

INTERNAL CONFLICT SOLVED CONSTITUTIONALLY

The existence of three main language groupings - French, German and a small Italian segment - combined with a split between Protestants and Catholics- made up the classic scenario for an ethnically based conflict. By 1847, the Catholic cantons - mainly German speaking - had formed a united league, the Sonderbund.

The Swiss government declared the Sonderbund illegal in terms of the constitution and ordered them to disband. They refused, and a localized civil war followed, ending in the defeat of the Sonderbund the next year.

The war however caused the Swiss to rethink their constitutional arrangements. In 1874, a new constitution was introduced, which although in some respects tightened up the central government's powers, turned the country into a federal state, giving extraordinary powers to the various cantons to ensure the maximum devolution of power on issues which were likely to cause conflict.

This constitution worked very effectively and is still, with only minor modifications, in use in Switzerland to the present day.

SWISS NEUTRALITY

Apart from their remarkable ability to solve the issue of ethnic conflict, the Swiss are also famous for their steadfast neutrality. Refusing to join the United Nations has ironically made that country ideal "neutral territory" upon which many delicate UN conferences have been held.

IMMIGRATION

Switzerland tightly controls citizenship by biological descent and does not encourage immigration of any sort. However, the country has, like much of Western Europe, been the target of a considerable influx of illegal Third World immigrations. The significance of this Nonwhite immigration into Switzerland is discussed in a later chapter.

THE CZECH AND SLOVAK REPUBLICS

SOME OF THE EARLIEST KNOWN SETTLEMENTS

The region known today as the Czech and Slovak Republics was first occupied by a combination of Proto-Nordic and Old European sub-racial types. These lands, allied with the Bulgarian and other Balkan regions, produced some of the earliest civilizations in the world. Some of the first houses in the world were built in the area, dating from the Upper Paleolithic period - approximately 10,000 BC - some 7000 years before the Mesopotamian civilization.

The settlement of the region by Proto-Nordics and Old Europeans continued peacefully until the arrival of the Indo-European peoples starting around the year 3000 BC, with the region becoming the westernmost point of the area of settlement by the Slav Indo-Europeans.

ROMAN RULE

The Romans incorporated much of the area into their province of Pannonia. The lands were also one of the first to buckle under the Indo-European Gothic invasions, which were followed in quick succession by the Asiatics: Atilla the Hun, the Avar, Bulgar and Magyar invasions; each time being effectively liberated by either Germans, Austrians or combinations of European peoples.

OCCUPATION LEADS TO RACIAL MIXING

The continual occupation of the various regions led to the establishment of defined ethnic groupings - the majority being in sub-racial terms, White, but with a significant minority being of mixed Asiatic-White descent, along with a not inconsiderable overtly Nonwhite "Gypsy" population - the latter being descendants of Indians who entered Southern Europe at the time of the great Asiatic invasions and who remained biologically isolated from mainstream society.

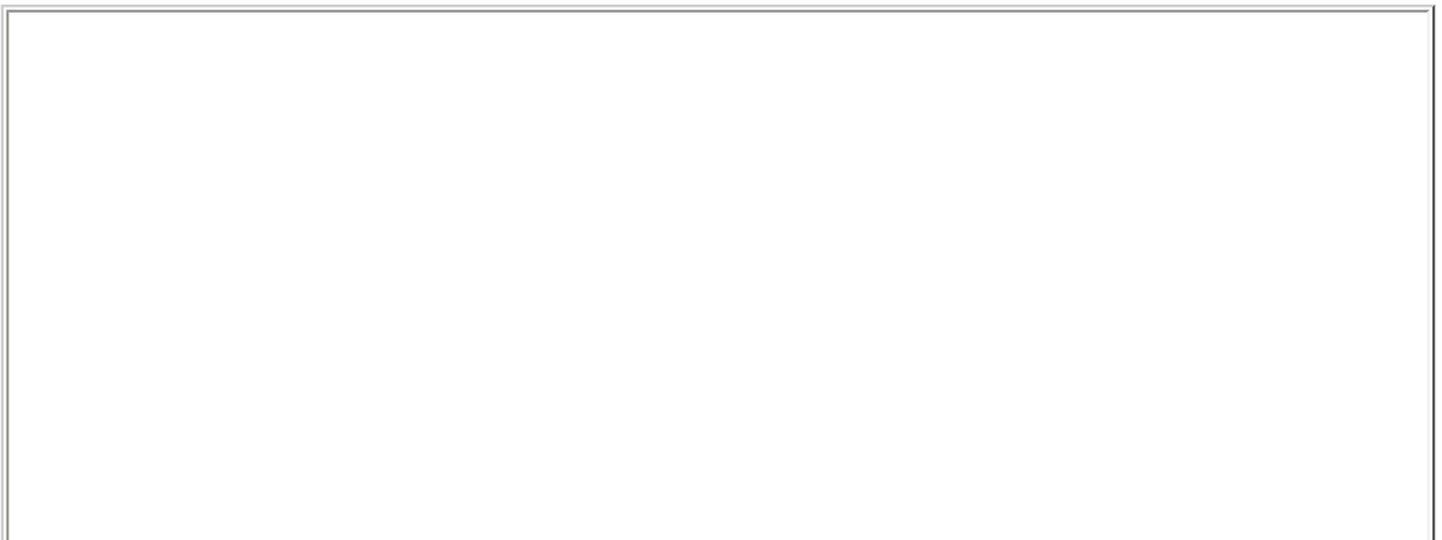
Each of these White cultural groupings became associated with the various major players in the region: Germans, Austrians, Slavs, with a mix of Slavic and German producing a new ethnic grouping, the Czechs. These territories - Bohemia, Moravia, part of Silesia, Slovakia, and sub-Carpathian Ruthenia, all eventually fell under the control of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

FIRST CZECHOSLOVAK REPUBLIC (1918 - 1938)

The break up of the Austro-Hungarian Empire at the end of the First World War presented an opportunity for a combined leadership core of Czechs and Slovaks to declare independence. The first Republic of Czechoslovakia therefore came into existence in 1918, under the elected presidency of Tomas Masaryk.

The Treaty of Versailles, which ended the First World War, formalized the existence of the Czechoslovakian state. However, the new state became in effect a mini Austro-Hungarian Empire. In the west, millions of Germans in the Sudetenland were included in the new state. In the north a part of historical Poland was added and in the south and east parts of what had been traditionally Hungary were included. All told, the new state contained five ethnic groupings, almost as many as the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

The Czechs made up 51 per cent of the population: Slovaks 16 per cent; Germans 22 per cent; Ruthenes (Ukrainians) six percent; and Hungarians five percent. In addition to these territories, the Czechoslovakian state also inherited the impressive Austrian industrial regions, transforming it overnight into one of the most industrialized nations in Eastern Europe. Austria on the other hand, stripped of its major industrial region, went into serious economic decline.





Tomas Masaryk, 1850 - 1937. The first president of the First Republic of Czechoslovakia was the son of a coachman to the Austro-Hungarian Emperor Franz Joseph. Well educated, he entered the Austro-Hungarian parliament in 1891 and proceeded to fight for the rights of the Slavic minorities within that Empire. When Austria-Hungary went to war in 1914, he fled and eventually found his way to the United States of America, where he enlisted the support of immigrant Czechs and Slovaks and of the US president, Woodrow Wilson, for an independent Czechoslovakia. His efforts paid off when in terms of the peace conference which ended the First World War, Czechoslovakia became an independent nation. The country was however created of many disparate groups - the Czechs made up 51 per cent of the population: Slovaks 16 per cent; Germans 22 per cent; Ruthenes (Ukrainians) six percent; and Hungarians five percent. Masaryk was unable to bind all these nations into one, and upon his retirement in 1935, the different groups had started agitating for independence in earnest. Masaryk died in 1937, and one year later, the first Czechoslovak Republic was dismembered. Slovakia became an independent country, the Germans took German ethnic Sudetenland while Poland and Hungary each took a slice of land. The Czech region became a German protectorate, but was never annexed to Germany.

ETHNIC PRESSURES

With the rise of nationalist Germany under Adolf Hitler, the three million Sudeten Germans started agitating for inclusion into Germany. At the same time other neighboring countries such as Poland, Bulgaria and Rumania started pressing claims on Czechoslovak territory.

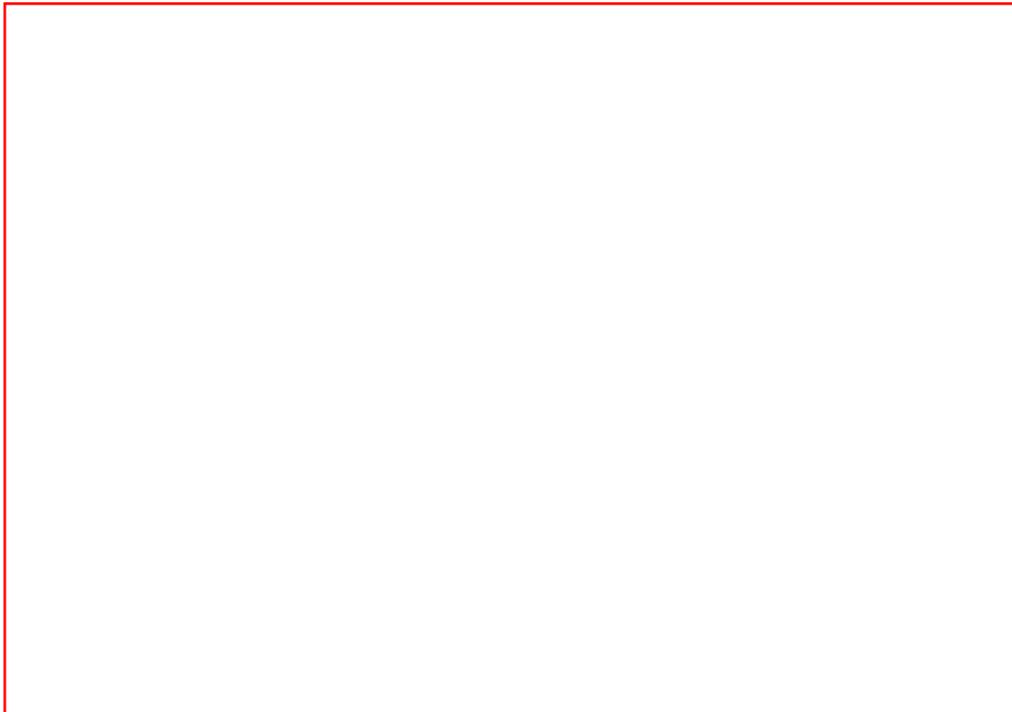
Increasing ethnic tensions, aggravated by the maltreatment of all ethnic minorities by the Czechoslovakian government, gave breeding ground to further nationalist demands. Finally tensions with Germany reached the point where Hitler demanded that the Sudeten Germans be allowed to vote on the issue of re-incorporation with Germany.

MUNICH CONFERENCE 1938

The famous 1938 Munich conference between the major European powers followed: the French and British governments, realizing the increasing seriousness of the situation, prevailed upon the Czechoslovakian government to hand over to the various claiming countries all territories in which the population was in excess of 50 per cent of the respective ethnic grouping: this meant the Sudetenland going to Germany and other smaller parts going to Poland and Hungary.

THE SECOND CZECHOSLOVAKIAN REPUBLIC (1938-1939)

The second, much smaller, Czechoslovakian republic then came into existence. Internally weak, stripped of the (originally Austrian) industrial area, the new state floundered before it started. Taking advantage of the resultant chaos, Germany occupied the regions of Bohemia and Moravia six months after the Munich conference, claiming, with a measure of truth, that the region had originally been German anyway (the first German university had in fact been established in Prague in 1348 by the German Holy Roman Emperor Charles IV). The region was however never formally annexed or added to Germany, merely becoming a protectorate.





Two views of the occupation of Prague by Adolf Hitler in 1939. First, ecstatic German and pro-German Czech and Slovak crowds greet Hitler as he rides into the city which was one of the oldest original German cities; and alongside, not all the Czech minority welcomed the German occupation, as evidenced by these faces in the crowd as German troops drive in. Czech dislike of German rule was however dissipated, and by 1942 had warmed to the idea of German rule. This was the cause of the decision to assassinate the German ruler of the Czech region, Rheinard Heydrich. The Slovaks on the other hand, were overtly pro-German - Slovakia became an independent state nominally under German protection. Slovakia was to lose its independence with the Soviet invasion of 1944, and was only to regain its independence after the fall of Communism.

THE FIRST SLOVAK REPUBLIC (1939 - 1945)

The Slovaks then seized their chance to become independent, and in 1939 the first Slovak Republic came into existence. Pro-German, the region took an active part in the war effort led by the Germans against the Soviet Union. The last territorial division then took place after the Slovaks had declared independence - the region of Ruthenia was returned to Hungary.

Contrary to popular myth then, the dissolution of Czechoslovakia was not a land grab by Germany alone. No less than three countries obtained land from the Czechoslovakian state, and half of Czechoslovakia - Slovakia - became a completely independent state.

It is therefore one of the many distortions about the Second World War to state, as many sources do, that Germany alone demanded the dissolution of Czechoslovakia and occupied the entire country.

GERMAN OCCUPATION - POPULARITY GREW

Welcomed enthusiastically by the Sudeten Germans as liberators, the German army was however met with resentment and in many cases outright hostility by the occupied Czechs.

The German protectorate grew however in popularity over time, particularly after an SS General,

Rheinard Heydrich, was appointed governor.

Heydrich's benevolent rule actually caused a dramatic rise in pro-German sympathy amongst the Czechs - so much so that the British government ordered his assassination in Prague in 1942.

The involvement of a few Czechs in Heydrich's assassination led to German reprisals against Czechs, with a number of civilians in the village of Lidice, which was being used as a weapons store by the small Czech resistance movement, being killed in an infamous incident.

The after effect of the reprisals was that the goodwill which Heydrich had built up was dissipated - the British were successful in preventing the Germanization of the Czechs. In August 1944, a small number of anti-German Slovaks tried to overthrow the government of the independent republic of Slovakia - they were however too few and were easily suppressed.

SOVIET OCCUPATION AND THE THIRD CZECHOSLOVAK REPUBLIC (1948-1989)

The defeat of Nazi Germany saw all of Slovakia and the former Czech territories falling under Soviet occupation in 1945. A democratic state was installed, and although the Communist Party won only one third of the votes, the Soviet military occupiers ensured that the Communist Party formed the government.

Ruthenia was ceded to the Soviet Union, and all three million Sudeten Germans were physically driven out of the Sudetenland into Austria and Germany, brutally solving the issue of the German minority literally overnight.

Despite Soviet promises of democracy, Czechoslovakia was quickly turned into yet another Communist one party dictatorship, part of the Warsaw Alliance of Communist nations under the leadership of the Soviet Union.

The Sovietization of Czechoslovakia and the suppression of free enterprise brought about an inevitable economic decline, and by 1968, a part of the Communist Party had realized that reforms were necessary to prevent a total collapse of the state.

THE PRAGUE SPRING - DE-COMMUNIZATION BEGUN

Starting in 1968, the government set about de-sovietizing many aspects of Czechoslovakia. A policy program consisting of major reforms such as the toleration of limited free enterprise; federal independence for the Slovaks - and a more democratically elected government. Central to all these proposed reforms was a loosening of ties with the Soviet Union itself. This period of proposed reform became known as the "Prague Spring".



The Prague Spring ends. An attempt by the Czechoslovakian government to introduce minor reforms was crushed by a massive Communist invasion in August 1968. With armor and half a million troops, the Communists managed to prevent the Czechoslovak state from spinning out of the Communist bloc. Here Czechs confront a Russian armored car crew in the city center of Prague, to no avail.

THE SOVIET INVASION - 1968

Fearing that the reform would spread, the Soviet Union invaded Czechoslovakia in August 1968. Over half a million troops - comprising Russians, Poles, Hungarians and Bulgarians - stormed the borders. Their overwhelming numbers completely suppressed the Prague Spring and the country was quickly put back under a strict Communist government, which abolished all of the intended reform program.

FOURTH CZECHOSLOVAKIAN REPUBLIC (1990-1993)

The fall of Communism in 1989 saw the Communist government in Czechoslovakia collapse. Democratic elections in June 1990 saw a non-Communist government elected. The Slovaks however reasserted their independence and in January 1993, two separate countries - the Czech Republic and Slovakia, were created by mutual consent - a division of territory which was not only peaceful but dramatically different to the conflict which accompanied the dissolution of the Yugoslav state.

IMMIGRATION

Neither the Czech nor Slovaks have ever encouraged immigration from anywhere, and as such, still retain an high degree of racial homogeneity, if the part of the population which shows slight Asiatic ancestry is excluded. The dominant sub-racial types remain therefore Slavic, a combination of Nordic and Alpine sub-racial types.

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CHAPTER 35 : THE SIXTH GREAT RACE WAR -

THE OTTOMAN HOLOCAUST

The Ottoman Empire was the longest lasting Nonwhite invasion of European soil ever. Lasting from the beginning of the 13th Century right to the start of the 20th, this group of mixed race Middle Eastern Turks, driven by a fanaticism molded in their Muslim religion, occupied vast stretches of central and southern Europe, twice being turned back at the very gates of Vienna in their attempts to seize all of Europe.

The impact and legacy of the Ottomans upon central and southern Europe was therefore vast, and crucial to any understanding of the racial and cultural mix which has made south eastern Europe the volatile place that it is.

THE RISE OF THE OTTOMANS

After passing through many hands during the course of history, by the end of the first Christian millennium, Asia Minor (modern day Turkey) was in the hands of the Eastern Roman Empire, later the Byzantine Empire.

The rise of Islam however created the first wave of Muslim nationalism, under the mixed race Seljuks tribe, who first emerged in a territory to the East of modern day Turkey.

The Seljuks soon set about seizing much of Asia Minor from the Byzantines, their new religion spreading far faster than Christianity amongst the by then very mixed races of the Middle East. By the beginning of the 13th Century, the Seljuks began to lose momentum.

Slowly fading from the scene, they were replaced by a new powerful Islamic force led by one Osman. His grouping began a policy of violent aggression towards the Christian outposts in Asia Minor - the followers of Osman became known as Osmanlilar (Turkish for "those associated with Osman"), or as they became known in the West, the Ottomans.



In 717 AD the Muslims under Caliph Velid, launched a furious attack upon Constantinople in an attempt to break the Whites. The Byzantines had however a secret weapon - so called Greek Fire, which appeared to have been some sort of early flame thrower. The exact secret of the Greek Fire was held so sacred that its composition was never betrayed to the outsiders and its secret preparation died with Constantinople. With the aid of Greek Fire, the Nonwhite army was defeated at the very gates of Constantinople. Here the Nonwhite fleet is destroyed in the Bosphorus Straits by the Byzantine armies and their liquid fire.

THE GATES OF CONSTANTINOPLE REACHED - 1330 AD

After recapturing Constantinople in 1261 from the Fourth Crusaders, the Eastern Roman Empire, or Byzantines, tried to restore their power over the surrounding areas. In this they were badly hampered by the quickly spreading power of the Ottomans, whose forward units increasingly pushed home attacks on the outer fringes of the Eastern Roman Empire.

By 1330, the Ottoman Empire had piecemeal taken town after town, and had reached the Aegean Sea: Muslim forces stood in that year at the Bosphorus straits, directly opposite Constantinople itself.

THE FIRST LANDINGS ON EUROPEAN SOIL - 1354 AD

Ironically, it was a Byzantine emperor who gave the Ottomans their first taste of power over European soil. An Ottoman detachment of soldiers was hired by a Byzantine emperor as a mercenary army to fight a rival claimant to the Byzantine throne. The Ottoman force simply stayed on once their paid for services were completed.

Launching a semi-independent war of their own, the Muslims seized and plundered the city of Gallipoli in 1354 - their first prize on the European side of the Dardanelles Strait. This was the first Turkish foothold in Europe, one they have kept to this day.

THE OTTOMAN INVASION OF BULGARIA - THE BATTLE OF KOSOVO

The Ottomans then seized the opportunity and poured troops in the beachhead. Marching straight into the Balkans, they defeated a Bulgarian army and then marched into Serbia, defeating that

country's army at the battle of Kosovo in 1389.

The battle of Kosovo also became famous for one other event: during the battle, a normal act of war, a Serbian soldier killed the Ottoman emperor of the time, one Murad. After the battle was over, the Ottomans cruelly executed the captured Serbian prince, Lazar, as a reprisal.



White prisoners being executed by the Ottomans after the Battle of Nicopolis in 1396. The White knights, drawn from all over Europe, could expect no mercy if captured by the invading Nonwhites, and thousands met their end in this way.

WHITE RESISTANCE FAILS - BATTLES OF NICOPOLIS AND VARNA

In 1396, a large expedition against the Ottomans in the Balkans, summoned by Sigismund of Hungary, drew White Christian armies from all over Europe.

They were however badly defeated at the Battle of Nicopolis (Nikopol) on the Danube River in that year. The Battle of Nicopolis was celebrated by the Ottomans with the massacre of all White prisoners taken - several thousand White soldiers were executed out of hand by the Nonwhite invaders in a bloodthirsty orgy lasting several hours.

Murad's successors kept on pressing further and further into Europe, meeting feeble White resistance along the way.

In 1439, Serbia was formally annexed to the Ottoman Empire and in 1440, the city of Belgrade was besieged, although it was not seized by the Ottomans at that time. In 1444, a renewed White Christian assault on the Ottomans was again defeated at the battle of Varna in Bulgaria.

This battle was vividly described in a letter from Aenas Sylvius Piccolomini, later Pope Pius II, to Filippo Maria Visconti, Duke of Milan, written immediately after the battle. :

"Our men did not shrink from joining battle, which began on the feast of St. Martin itself, 11 November 1444. So fierce and savage was the fighting that rarely could such a battle had never been fought between mortal men! For a long time its outcome was uncertain; it was contested with equal force by both sides. As long as our men fought for Christ and our opponents for Mohammed, enthusiasm for battle was such that fifteen thousand were wounded on each side.

"So long as the battle was equal, neither side wished to stop. The more blood that was spilled, the keener the hand-to-hand fighting.

"In the end both sides were drained of strength: limbs were so enfeebled that they had the strength neither to wield swords nor to bend bows. Both sides were thus forced to be still for the best part of an hour until their strength was resumed and their spirits returned. Then the battle was restarted. In the end the Turks won because they were more courageous, or because they were destined to win, or because they were greater in number.

"Those who escaped from the field say that no battle as bloody has been fought anywhere in Europe within the memory of our fathers. They also say that no fewer Turks than Hungarians fell, and, if the rumor is correct, eighty thousand men died in this battle."

The Nonwhite armies seemed invincible, and it seemed as if there was no stopping them advancing right into the heart of Europe.

THE JANISSARIES: THE "STOLEN WHITE CHILDREN" WHO BECAME THE OTTOMAN ELITE

One of the more remarkable ways in which the Ottomans kept their fighting strength up was through a unit of soldiers known as the Janissaries. The Janissaries were the Ottoman's elite forces - and they were also White.

One of the Ottoman leaders, Emir Orkhan (1326 - 1359), who was the first to occupy European continental soil, issued an edict to the conquered Europeans in the Balkans that they must hand over to the Ottomans 1,000 White male babies "with faces white and shining" each and every year. The youths were brought before the Ottoman sultan, and the best of them - in terms of physique, intelligence, and other qualities - were selected for education in the palace school. There they converted to Islam, became versed in the Islamic religion and its culture, learned Ottoman Turkish, Persian, and Arabic, and were compelled to serve the Ottomans, with their origins being concealed from them. They became the best and most trusted armed unit within the Ottoman Empire- a supreme act of irony.

This yearly tribute - reminiscent of the demand by the Moors for White virgins from the unfortunate Goths in Spain - was continued for an astonishing 300 years until 1648, during which time not only were 300,000 Whites absorbed into the Ottoman hierarchy (and for the greatest part also into the Turkish elite's bloodstream) but the Janissaries became to be known as one of the most efficient soldiers in the world.

It is no exaggeration to say that they sustained the Ottoman Empire in Europe for much of its existence, playing a not inconsiderable role in many of the great victories of that Empire.



A fine woodcut of a Janissary - one of the stolen White children the Nonwhite Turks forcibly took from the subjugated Whites in the Balkans. Every year, one thousand White male babies were taken by the Nonwhites for indoctrination into Islam. In Asia Minor - Turkey - the Whites were raised to serve the Nonwhite empire, as soldiers or administrators. In this way hundreds of thousands of Whites entered the modern Turkish gene pool - and the Turks were already a largely mixed race themselves. The Janissaries were only finally disbanded in 1826 after a large rebellion against their Nonwhite masters saw many thousands of their number killed.

In 1574, the Janissaries had 20,000 men in their ranks - by 1826 the unit numbered some 135,000. The overtly racial make-up of the Janissaries always created problems of its own. Every now and then, the White soldiers would rebel against their Turkish masters - numerous rebellions are recorded, each being suppressed, until a famous rebellion in 1826 saw the unit finally disbanded, with a large number being killed and the rest dispersed into the broader Turkish population.

JEW'S PRIVILEGED UNDER TURKISH RULE

Another factor that the Ottoman Empire had in common with the Moorish occupation of Spain was the privileged position granted to Jews under Turkish rule.

Once again, the closeness of the Muslim and Jewish religions somehow leveled the field between the two peoples, and in Jewish history the Moorish and Turkish occupations of Europe are regarded as the first time of real peace for Jews since the Diaspora in 70 AD.

Many thousands of Jews who had fled Spain during the time of Spanish Inquisition in fact settled in the Ottoman Empire where they once again rose to hold important positions - the Jewish holy book, or Talmud, is filled with praise for the Ottoman Turks.

An insight into the closeness of the Ottoman Empire to its Semitic origins is illustrated by its "ghulam" system. A ghulam was a slave (by definition, a non-Muslim) educated and trained for state service. The similarity of this word to the Hebrew word for non-Jews, - "Goyim" - is a clear indication as any of the overtly Semitic origins of the Ottomans.

This favored position of the Jews under the Turkish and Moorish occupiers had however an important spin off - it heightened anti-Semitism amongst the rest of Europe's inhabitants who obviously associated Jews with the racially foreign and cruel invaders from the East.

THE FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE - 7000 WHITE KNIGHTS FINALLY OVERCOME

The city of Constantinople had managed to hold grimly on through all these Ottoman advances: far behind the Muslim front line, the city grew weaker and weaker.

It had never been the same since the White armies of the Fourth Crusade had sacked it: its citizens were now racially speaking, becoming indistinguishable from the Ottoman soldiers surrounding it. Only the continued infiltration of White Christian knights from Western Europe kept resupplying the White stock of the city, a supply which gradually grew less and less as time went on.

Finally, in 1453, the Ottoman army launched a mighty effort to break the city. After bombarding the city walls with cannon fire for months, a determined overnight attack, saw the city fall at last - the official end of the Eastern Roman Empire, defended only by 7,000 White knights from all over Europe against a Turkish army numbering in the hundreds of thousands.

The most prominent of the White European defenders of Constantinople was the chief admiral of the northern Italian republic of Genoa, Giustinianni, who was placed in charge of the final defenses of the great walled city itself. The Greek historian Kritovoulos, who wrote a contemporary history of the deeds of Mehmed II, the Ottoman emperor who led the assault on Constantinople, described in graphic detail the fearful last hours of the Eastern Roman Empire.

When read with the diary of the Venetian ship's doctor, Niccolo Barbaro, who was at the siege and who recorded the terrible revenge exacted upon the remaining Whites, an image of this epic period of White history emerges: grim, brutal and merciless. Kritovoulos described the fall of Constantinople thus:

"On 28 May 1453, Mehmed began an inspection, on horseback, of his companies. . . it was late afternoon, with the hour of sunset already approaching, so that the sun was upon the besiegers' backs and in the face of the enemy defenders, as the Sultan had planned. At this point he gave the orders . . . for the trumpets to sound the attack . . .

"To begin with, each side attacked the other with powerful volleys: arrows from the archers, stones from the slingers, iron and lead shot from the cannons and guns; as they got nearer,

they also pelted each other, and were pelted, mercilessly and furiously, with axes and javelins.

"The battle in this way continued through most of the night, both sides putting up a strong, brave fight. Giustinianni, the famous Genoese soldier who was entrusted with the city's defense, and the Byzantines maintained a noticeable advantage, safeguarding the stockade and repelling the assault bravely . . .

"The other (Turkish) generals . . . meanwhile . . . also made an assault on the wall by land and with their ships, by sea. They mounted a strong attack.. (with) ladders, bridges, wooden towers and all kinds of engines, which they put up against the wall.

"But the Greeks strongly repelled them and pushed them off vigorously. It was a brave defense: they prevailed in the fight and showed true virtue: for nothing that happened - not the hunger that oppressed them, not their lack of sleep, nor the continuous unstinting battle or the wounds, murders and deaths suffered by their dear ones before their very eyes - succeeded in turning them even slightly from their initial vigor and resolve.

"When Sultan Mehmed saw that the companies he had sent were getting the worst of the battle and making no significant progress, he was furious.

"He decided that the situation was to be endured no longer, and immediately sent in all the companies he had reserved for later, his best-armed, hardest and bravest men, who are also greatly superior to the others in experience and strength. They were the thoroughbreds of his army: heavy infantry, archers, spear throwers and the company that formed his personal entourage consisting of the so-called Janissaries and others. He cried out, exhorting them that now was the moment to show their virtue and himself led the way to the wall as far as the fosse."

Barbaro described in detail the great Turkish gun which finally breached the walls of the city:

"And they (the Turks) brought up the huge cannon, which could throw a stone weighing five hundred and forty five kilos, and sufficient arrows to fire against the whole length of the walls . . . an hour before daybreak the Turkish Lord fired his great cannon, and the missile fell on the defenses we had made and razed them to the ground, and because of the great smoke made by the cannon it was impossible to see anything.

"But the Turks began to come in behind the smoke, and the Greeks and Venetians valiantly drove them out, and many of them, indeed almost all of them, were killed before they could enter the fortifications.

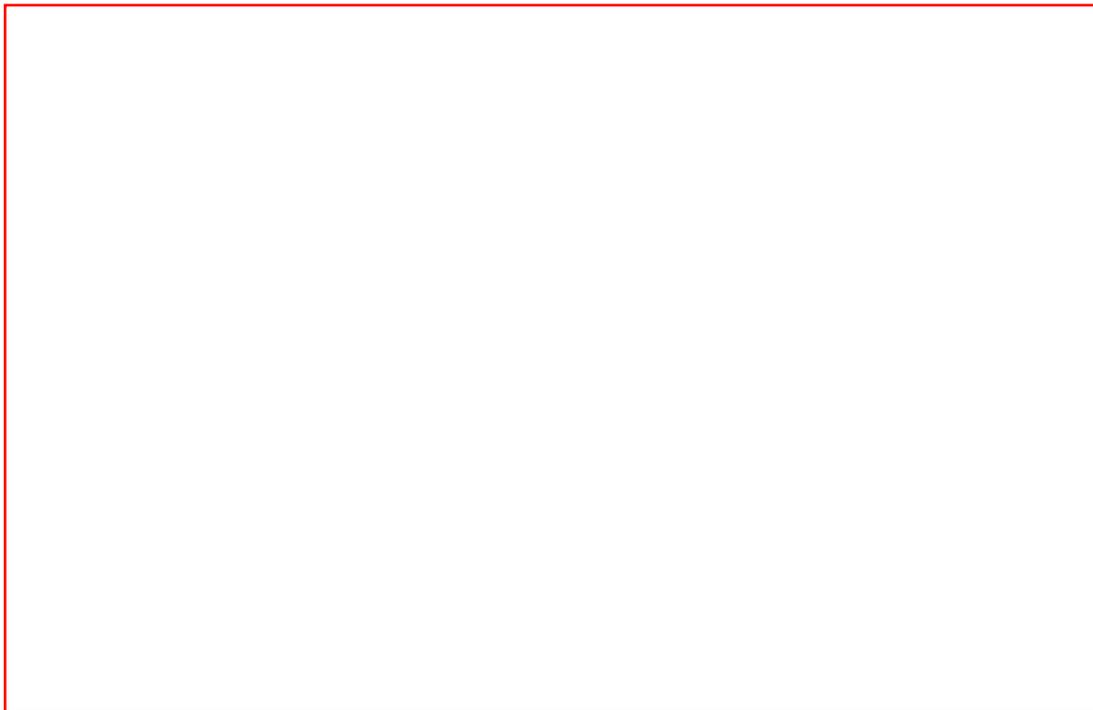
"At this time, because the Greeks had the best of this engagement and in truth believed themselves victorious over the pagans, we Christians were all greatly consoled. Having been driven back from the fortifications, the Turks fired their great canon once more. . . "

Kritovoulos takes up the story again:

"At this point he (Mehmed) ordered the archers, slingers and gunmen to stand some way off and shoot at the front line of men on the stockade and the broken wall. The other heavy infantry and shield-bearers he ordered to cross the fosse and mount a violent assault on the stockade. They went at it with a great terrifying cry of rage and fury, like madmen, and, as they were youthful and strong, and full of courage, they never let up but assaulted the stockade bravely . . .

"Giustinianni and entourage, and the Byzantines, who were in that part outside the walls, inside the stockade, were putting up a manful fight, holding back the Turkish surge . . . Giustinianni was fatally injured by a shot from a firearm, which pierced right through his armor to his chest. He fell on the spot and was carried to his tent, in a bad state. All the men around him broke up in dismay at the event, and abandoned the stockade where they had been fighting.

"Sultan Mehmed, who happened to be fighting nearby, noticed that the stockade and place where the wall was broken were now unmanned and that some men were secretly making off, while those who remained were very few. From this he realized there had been a desertion and that the wall had been abandoned, and he immediately cried out 'The city is ours . . .The men are running from us: they cannot keep at their posts...' So saying he himself led the attack. The Turks poured into the city: the rest of the army followed with a violent surge then dispersed throughout the city. But the Sultan stood before the great wall, surveying events, for day was already beginning to dawn."



The fall of the Eastern Roman Empire: on 28 May 1453, the Nonwhite Turks began their final assault on the city of Constantinople. With an army in the hundreds of thousands, the city was defended by only some 7,000 White knights drawn from all over Europe, under the command of a Nordic Genoan from northern Italy, Giustinianni. After a furious all night battle, the walls of the city were finally breached at dawn the next day. All the Whites in the city were either massacred or sold into slavery, with a mere handful escaping to tell the dreadful tale. Constantinople was made into a major Muslim center and renamed Istanbul.

Barbaro recorded the last minutes of the last Roman Emperor, Constantine XI, as follows:

"Although he (Constantine XI) clearly saw with his own eyes the danger that threatened the city, and had the opportunity to save himself - as well as many people encouraging him to do so - he refused, preferring to die with his country and his subjects.

"Indeed, he chose to die first, so that he might avoid the sight of the city being taken and of its inhabitants being either savagely slaughtered or shamefully led away into slavery. When he saw that the enemy were forcing him back, and surging through the broken down wall into the city, it is said that he uttered in a great voice, these last words 'The city is taken; and should I still live?' With that he thrust himself into the midst of the enemy and was cut down."



The last Roman Emperor ever - Constantine XI, was killed by Nonwhite Turks when they took the citadel of Constantinople in 1453. With his death formally ended the last vestiges of the mighty Roman Empire, established over 2000 years previously. In reality the original Roman Empire had long since vanished, submerged into the races of a myriad of nationalities.

Barbaro then went on to relate the horror of the Nonwhite sack of the city, scenes which were repeated all over central and southern Europe:

"On 29 May 1453, the Turks entered Constantinople at daybreak. Before they entered the city, the confusion of those Turks and of the Christians was so great that they met face to face, and so many died that the dead bodies would have filled twenty carts.

"The Turks put the city to sword as they came, and everyone they found in their way they slashed with their scimitars, women and men, old and young, of every condition, and this slaughter continued from dawn until midday. Those Italian merchants who escaped hid in caves under the ground, but they were found by the Turks, and were all taken captive and sold as slaves. When those of the Turkish fleet saw with their own eyes that the Christians had lost

Constantinople, that the flag of Sultan Mehmed had been hoisted over the highest tower in the city, and that the emperor's flags had been cut down and lowered, then all those in the seventy galleys went ashore . . .

"They sought out the convents and all the nuns were taken to the ships and abused and dishonored by the Turks, and they were all sold at auction as slaves to be taken to Turkey, and similarly the young women were all dishonored and sold at auction; some preferred to throw themselves into wells and drown.

"These Turks loaded their ships with people and a great treasure. They had this custom: when they entered a house, they would at once raise a flag with their own device, and when other Turks saw such a flag raised, no other Turk would for the world enter that house but would go looking for a house that had no flag; it was the same with all the convents and churches. As I understand it, it seems there were some two hundred thousand of these flags on the houses of Constantinople . . these flags flew above the houses for the whole of that day, and for all of that day the Turks made a great slaughter of Christians in the city. Blood flowed on the ground as though it were raining."

CONSTANTINOPLE RENAMED ISTANBUL

Constantinople was made the new Ottoman Muslim capital and renamed Istanbul, a name by which it is still known. Spurred on by this great victory, the Ottomans proceeded in short order to seize all of Greece, Albania and Bosnia. A plan to invade Italy was only aborted after the Ottoman emperor of the time died half way through the planning.



If ruins could talk, what tales they would tell. Many parts of the walls of Constantinople, which withstood countless Nonwhite attacks for nearly 1000 years and which were finally broken in 1453, are still visible today.

WAR AT SEA - PORTUGUESE CONFRONT TURKS

By 1500, White European explorers had discovered a sea route to the East, and after this year Portuguese fleets began to attack Arab ships in the Indian ocean, seriously affecting the Ottoman's trading routes to the east.

An Ottoman sea fleet was built especially to destroy the Portuguese fleets - several engagements followed, some successful for the Portuguese, others successful for the Turks.

It was only in 1571, that an alliance of White nations, inspired by Pope Pius V with the aid of the Spanish and the Venetians, destroyed Turkish sea power in the Mediterranean at the Battle of Lepanto in that same year.

The Battle of Lepanto saw the two fleets - together comprising at least 500 ships and about 100,000 men - engage each other for a whole day, ending with a great White victory - about 80 Turkish ships were sunk and a further 130 captured. The Turks were routed at sea - a significant event as it marked the first time that the Ottomans had been defeated by a White force.

The psychological effect of this victory upon White Europe was marked - the Spanish writer Cervantes noted in his novel, Don Quixote, that the battle "revealed to all the nations of the world the error under which they had been laboring in believing that the Turks were invincible at sea."

WAR ON LAND - BELGRADE CAPTURED 1521 AD

On land however, the struggle between the various White nations and the Turks continued unabated. In many regions the Turks exacted as cruel a punishment on the locals as they had on the inhabitants of Constantinople.

The Ottomans attempted to lay siege to Belgrade in 1456, but were defeated by a Hungarian national hero, whose name is still celebrated today, Janos Hunyadi. The Ottomans finally seized Belgrade in 1521, and in 1526, the Turks inflicted a crushing defeat on the hastily gathered together Hungarian army at the battle of Mohacs, where the Hungarian King and more than 20,000 White soldiers were killed.

The Turks went on to capture the city of Buda (later to join with a neighboring city, Pest, to become the city of Budapest) in 1526 - but then withdrew from western Hungary, leaving that part to its own devices.

By 1483, the Turks had conquered most of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The two territories remained provinces of the Ottoman Empire for the next 400 years, although unsuccessful uprisings against the Turks occurred frequently during the 19th Century.

Macedonia, bordering on Greece and Turkey, was one of the first territories to fall to the Ottoman invasion - it remained under Turkish rule until the Balkan War of 1912 which saw the Ottomans driven out.

The Turkish Ottoman invasion of 1389, saw the Serbian army defeated at the battle of Kosovo, but sporadic fighting between the White Serbs and the Nonwhite Turks continued till 1459, when the Ottomans captured Smederevo, south of Belgrade. Serbia then came under direct Ottoman rule.

THE FIRST SIEGE OF VIENNA - TURKS SEIZE UKRAINE

In 1521, the Ottomans finally managed to capture Belgrade and the island of Rhodes in 1522. By 1529, the Nonwhite armies had reached Vienna in modern day Austria. By sheer tenacity, the city withstood the siege, and the Ottomans were forced to retreat.

In 1571, the Ottomans seized the island of Cyprus and even began raiding the emerging Russian state to the North East of their extensive empire on the European mainland. In 1661, the Ottomans captured much of present day Ukraine from Poland, and in 1669, conquered the island of Crete. With one great last effort, the Ottomans then re-launched their attack on Vienna in 1683.

THE SECOND SIEGE OF VIENNA - OTTOMANS ROUTED AND WHITE VICTORY CELEBRATED WITH THE CROISSANT

By 1683, the White armies of Europe had prepared their defenses around Vienna well. Their armies routed the Ottomans; with the death blow to the Nonwhite assault being dealt by the arrival of a Polish army (from whom the Ottomans had captured part of the Ukraine).

The great victory feast held by the White armies after this victory led to the origin of the bread now known as a croissant. The victors ordered bread to be made in the shape of the quarter moon shape of the Turkish flag, so that they could physically eat the emblem of the enemy at the feast. From then on the croissant, a curved sickle moon shape bread, became popular in all Europe.

THE WHITES ADVANCE UNDER PRINCE EUGENE OF SAVOY

The Ottomans fell back in confusion - at last the Whites had seized the initiative, and they pressed home their advantage. In 1697, a new Austrian commander, Prince Eugene of Savoy, defeated a huge Ottoman army at Senta in northern Serbia, inflicting massive casualties upon them.

The Ottomans were forced to sue for peace. In terms of the treaty of Karlowitz, the Ottomans were forced to give up substantial parts of Eastern Europe, including Belgrade, to the victorious White army. This was to mark the beginning of the Ottoman retreat from the Balkan Peninsula.

WAR WITH RUSSIA - PETER THE GREAT DEFEATED

The next White nation to wage war on the Ottomans was Russia. The first great Russian-Turkish conflict ended however in defeat for the White forces: the Russian czar Peter the Great's forces were beaten back by a mighty Turkish army at the Battle of Prut River in 1711.

The Ottomans then attacked again up the Balkans, retaking Belgrade in 1739. By threatening Vienna once again, they were able to negotiate a peace treaty from the White powers which allowed them to keep much of their new lands in the Balkans - which by this time had been crisscrossed by Whites and Nonwhites so many times that elements of the population had become mixed themselves.

The Russians waited another three years before relaunching their assault on the Turks: in 1774, a surprise attack saw the Ottomans in Rumania defeated.

THE FRENCH CONNECTION - OTTOMANS HIRE FRENCH MERCENARIES

Then in 1798, the French general Napoleon Bonaparte invaded Egypt with a substantial White French army, easily crushing the branch of the Ottoman Empire ruling that land, which had for centuries been the very center of Islamic power.

Although the French had been motivated not by an anti-Islamic zeal, but rather by an attempt to cut into British supply lines to the East, the effect of a White invasion of Egypt was nonetheless dramatic within the Ottoman Empire - all of a sudden White armies were approaching from all points of the compass.

Realizing that they were facing imminent defeat and that the White powers were now not only technologically ahead, but also in terms of military tactics, the Ottomans hired large numbers of French mercenaries who had served in the French armies and used them to establish military training schools in Turkey.

RENEWED WHITE ASSAULTS SPELL DEATH KNELL FOR OTTOMANS

The improvement in the Ottoman Empire's armies could not however halt the growing power of White resistance in south eastern Europe. After 345 years of subjugation, the Serbs launched a nine year long revolt in 1804, but were suppressed by the Turks in a brutal campaign in 1813. Undeterred, the Serbs launched yet another attempt to eject the Turks in 1815, and this time were successful - within a few months most of Serbia was cleared of Turks.

The Ottomans then accepted the de facto situation and granted Serbia self government. Following the Russian Turkish Wars of 1828 and 1829, Serbia gained even greater autonomy. Finally, the Ottomans withdrew all claims to Serbia in 1867.

Greece became independent in 1829 after launching military campaigns against the Ottomans, backed with material support from both Britain and Russia.

The final blow to the Ottoman military machine was a huge revolt by the White Janissaries in 1826 which ended in the Ottomans having to execute thousands of the White soldiers. In this year the Ottomans finally disbanded the Janissaries.

Fifty years later, a rebellion in Bulgaria saw tens of thousands of Muslims being slaughtered by avenging White mobs: this led to reprisals by Muslims in which tens of thousands of Whites were

slain in what became known as the Bulgarian Atrocities.

RUSSO-TURKISH WAR OF 1877

Russia then declared war on the Ottoman Empire in 1877. In a swift campaign, the Russians drove the Ottomans back to Constantinople and forced them to sign the Treaty of San Stefano of 1878, which stripped them of most of their European territories, including Bulgaria, Macedonia and Thrace. Britain gained possession of Cyprus in return for a pledge to the sultan to aid the Ottomans if they needed military assistance in the future, a guarantee that would never be acted upon.

The Ottoman Empire was now in terminal phase. On all fronts the White powers seized territories - Tunisia was taken by the French in 1881, and Egypt (which had briefly been reoccupied by the Ottomans after Napoleon had left) was taken by the British in 1882.

DECLINE AND ALLIANCE WITH GERMANY

In a state of permanent decline, to the point where the Ottoman Empire was referred to as the "sick man of Europe", the Ottoman Turks fished around in the growing turbulence of European politics for aid, finally seizing an offer extended by Germany and the Austro-Hungarian Empire to form an alliance. The latter entered into the alliance to take advantage of the Ottoman's territorial holdings in the Middle East to divert British and French attention - while the Turks used the alliance as a means of obtaining desperately needed supplies of modern munitions and weapons.

Then the Ottomans suffered further territorial setbacks. The Italians invaded the north African port of Tripoli in 1911, and in the Balkans, two separate secessionist wars broke out. These wars not only cost the Ottomans most of their remaining territory in the Balkans, but also saw the killing of virtually every last Turk in the Grecian region of Thrace in 1913.

WORLD WAR 1

When the First World War broke out, the Ottomans were quick to suffer several reverses at the hands of the Allied powers - Russia invaded Anatolia; the British swept up through ancient Sumeria, occupying Palestine and finally Constantinople itself.

The Battle of Gallipoli, where an Allied invasion of the Ottoman Empire was repulsed with serious losses, saw one of the very few Ottoman military victories of the entire war. Only the collapse of the Russian military machine with the Russian Revolution of 1917, saved the Ottoman state from complete dismemberment.

KEMAL ATATURK - A WHITE MAN CREATES MODERN TURKEY

Prominent in the Turkish defense of Gallipoli was a young army officer named Kemal Ataturk - who was very possibly a descendant of one of the Janissaries, having blue eyes and blond hair. Ataturk then went on to seize power in what remained of the Empire, abolishing the Ottoman dynasty in 1919 and declaring the Republic of Turkey in 1923.

Ataturk then launched a program of modernization in his country, using large numbers of Europeans in this process. It was a supreme act of irony that a White man eventually led the Nonwhite Turks into the modern world - a mixed race who had been responsible for the longest and most effective race war against Europe till that time.



Kemal Ataturk - the White creator of modern Turkey. to this day there are strong pockets of Whites left in Turkey, mostly descendants of the Jannissaries.

THE OTTOMAN LEGACY

The Ottoman Turks were the last of the Asian invaders of Europe to use violence as their passport of entry, but they were also significant for another reason: the sheer length of the time of their occupation of the Balkans left a large number of the inhabitants of the Balkan peoples with Turkish blood in their veins, as can be seen to this day, as many inhabitants of the region are not only Muslim in faith, but are also distinctly darker than other Balkan residents.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 36 : THE MELTING POT - ROMANIA, BULGRIA, ALBANIA AND GREECE

Part i - Romania

The history of the Balkans once again follows the pattern of the rise and fall of civilizations according to the composition of the people living in these countries. In the case of Albania, this process is particularly marked, with the effects being less prominent in Romania, Bulgaria and Greece only by the measure of the population change in these regions. All these nations have suffered greatly - and bear the scars - of the Ottomans.

ROMANIA

Romania was, along with its present day neighbors, the site of some of the earliest established Upper Paleolithic and Neolithic cultures in the world, dating from 10,000 BC. The region also bore the brunt of invasions from the east, with the first major wave of invaders being the Indo-European tribes who swept over the land starting about 3000 BC.

DACIA - INCORPORATION INTO THE ROMAN EMPIRE 106 AD

The first Indo-European inhabitants of the region settled in Thrace in Greece, only later moving north. Greek writers refer to the inhabitants of Romania as Getae.

Living in relative peace and obscurity, the Getae were incorporated into the Eastern Roman province of Dacia in 106 AD by the Roman Emperor Trajan.

Roman colonists were sent to Dacia, and they developed the region considerably, building roads, bridges, and a great wall that stretched from what is today the Black Sea port of Constanta to the Danube River - the wall being designed to keep out further incursions by other Indo-European tribes.

This fear of further incursions was well justified. By 250 AD, the Indo-European Goths invaded Dacia and drove the Romans out of large pieces of it. By 270 AD, the Romans had withdrawn the last of their legions from the region, leaving behind however a large number of original Romans who had settled in the area.

The Roman influence - and hence original Roman genes - were so marked that the people of Dacia continued to speak Latin for many years after the official withdrawal of the last Roman legions.

ASIATIC INVASIONS LEAVE THEIR GENETIC IMPRINT

The overwhelmingly Indo-European racial make-up of Romania was however to be disrupted by very nearly 1000 years of Asiatic and Ottoman invasions.

Nonwhite tribes not only physically decimated the White Romanians but who also left a small but significant segment of clearly Nonwhite or mixed race inhabitants, including a large number of Gypsies.

These groupings were however for the greatest part excluded from mainstream Romanian society, although it was inevitable that a small number were taken up into parts of the Romanian population.

The Asiatic invasions and their consequences are detailed in other chapters - suffice to say here that they included the armies of Atilla the Hun, the Avars, Bulgars and Magyars.

SLAV INVASION

The White population of Romania received a boost however when the region was occupied by bands of wandering Indo-European Slavs, who, by the 4th Century had been Christianized and had established that religion in Romania.

Through mixing with the remaining Dacians, the Slavs created a new ethnic grouping known as the Vlachs, a name designating Latin-speakers of the Balkan Peninsula. Romania was then to be occupied by her Slavic neighbors as well - all these movements served to strengthen the White population base once more after the Asian invasions.

FOREIGN OCCUPATION BY HUNGARY CIRCA 1000 AD

In 1003, King Stephen I of Hungary, annexed a large part of what is today Romania. By the 13th Century the Hungarians had invited Germanic tribes, including Saxons and the Teutonic Knights (who were later to rise to prominence in their Christianization of the Baltic region) into Hungary, ostensibly to bolster Christianity, but having the important side effect of once again boosting the White element of Romania's population. The Vlachs were increasingly pushed into the mountainous regions and there established the principalities of Walachia and Moldavia.



Vlad Dracula (circa 1420-1476), the Walachian (in Romania) terror of the Turks. Known as Vlad the Impaler, he used brutal terror tactics against the Turks, impaling tens of thousands of them upon stakes, thereby earning his nickname. His name has also been used in western literature as a vampire - although this is completely unrelated to his real activities. Vlad was eventually killed by the Turks, and his head delivered to the Sultan of Turkey on a platter, as proof that their great White enemy was actually dead.

VLAD DRACULA - TERROR OF THE OTTOMANS

Walachia first had a fight on its hands against the Hungarians - however the rise of the Ottoman Empire during the 15th Century saw the region overrun by the Nonwhite Turks. It was from this time that the famous Vlad Dracula, a prince of Walachia in 1456, emerged to become the scourge of the Turks. For a short while he succeeded in liberating Walachia from the Turks.

Although his name has been appropriated for another completely unconnected use in western literature (as a vampire), Vlad was in fact the terror of the Nonwhite Ottoman Empire for many years, and through his sheer terrorism he inflicted some of the greatest defeats upon the Ottomans during their long reign in the Balkans. Vlad Dracula is also known as Vlad the Impaler - he earned this nickname for his habit of impaling the Turks on stakes. His father had fought the Turks along with the famous Hungarian hero, Janos Hunyadi, and in this way Dracula always kept close contact with the Hungarian court at Budapest.

When Vlad became prince of Walachia, the might of the Turks forced to sign a treaty with the Nonwhites, in terms of which he had to pay 10,000 gold ducats per year and provide a constant stream of White male babies for use in the Janissaries. When Vlad became lax in providing the required White youngsters, armed Turkish units began carrying out raids in Walachian territory. This precipitated a breakdown in the treaty between Vlad and the Turks.

FIRST GREAT IMPALING OF THE TURKS

In 1461, Walachian soldiers took a Turkish fort called Giurgiu near the Turkish center of Nicopolis and slaughtered all the Nonwhites they could find, impaling them on stakes, with the tallest stake being

reserved for the Turkish governor of Nicopolis, Hamza Pasha.



A 15th Century woodcut shows the - probably allegorical - scene of Vlad Dracula having a meal amongst the victims of his impaling activities. In one instance he impaled 20,000 Turks - the sight of the massacre so shook an invading Turkish army that they turned back rather than face the man who could do such a thing - even though, ironically, Vlad had learned the impaling trick from the Turks themselves.

Dracula continued along the Danube to the Black Sea, sending a message back to the Hungarian court that "we have killed 23,884 Turks". Accompanying this message, Dracula sent two bags full of Turkish heads, ears and noses to underline his point.

By 1462, the Ottomans had drawn up an overwhelming army of 60,000 men to wipe out the upstart Walachian Prince. The Turks advanced in two parts - half sailed along the Danube River while the other half marched overland through Bulgaria. Dracula's men kept the Turks shadowed along the Danube - when the Turks started disembarking, the Walachians burst upon them from the forest on horseback and drove them back into their boats with the ferocity of the attack. However, Dracula knew that he could not face the Turks in open battle, as he did not have the numbers to defeat the Nonwhites in this manner.

GUERRILLA WAR AND THE IMPALING OF 20,000 TURKS AT TIRGOVISTE

Dracula decided to wage a guerrilla war against the Turks, combining it with a scorched earth policy. Constant raids and food shortages then took their toll on the invading Turkish army. The Turkish Sultan himself barely escaped capture when a Walachian party raided his camp in the Carpathian

mountains overlooking Tirgoviste.

Thousands of Turks were captured and killed in this engagement - and when the Sultan advanced upon Tirgoviste itself, he found a mile long gorge filled with 20,000 impaled Turks.

The brutal display was too much even for the notoriously cruel Turks. They withdrew without joining battle for Tirgoviste, with the Sultan complaining that he could not "win this land from a man who does such things".

Sadly for Dracula, he was then deposed as Prince of Walachia by his brother who was kindly disposed towards the Turks.

After being attacked by his brother's forces, Dracula fled to the Hungarian capital, where he was given refuge. In 1476, he once again became prince of Walachia after invading with a new army.

His reign did not however last long - ambushed outside Bucharest, his headless corpse was found in a swamp. His head was delivered on a platter to the Turkish Sultan at Constantinople - the Nonwhites' final revenge on the White prince who had inflicted so many defeats upon them. Walachia then fell once again under Ottoman rule.

MICHAEL THE BRAVE

Turkish rule continued uninterrupted until the end of the 16th Century, when another Walachian prince, Michael the Brave, led a revolt against the Ottomans and succeeded in liberating Walachia, Moldavia, and Transylvania, uniting these regions for a brief period until 1601. Michael is to this day the national hero of Romania for his part in this uprising and for being the first to combine the three territories that were to form Romania.



Michael the Brave: Romania's White national hero. The Nonwhite Turkish invasion reached during the 15th century. Turkish rule continued uninterrupted until the end of the 16th century, when a Walachian Prince, Michael the Brave, led a revolt against the Ottomans and succeeded in liberating Walachia, Moldavia, and Transylvania, uniting these regions for a brief period until 1601. Michael is to this day the national hero of Romania for his part in this uprising and for being the first to combine the three territories that were to form Romania.

OTTOMANS RECAPTURE MOLDAVIA AND WALACHIA

Michael was however defeated by the Ottomans in 1601. The Nonwhite Turks then established a harsh government over Moldavia and Walachia (with Transylvania going to the Hungarians) with virtual enforced slavery causing hundreds of thousands of Romanian deaths and forcing many hundreds of thousands of others to flee the country for good.

MOLDAVIA OCCUPIED BY HUNGARIANS, POLES AND TURKS

The Moldavians were first occupied by the Hungarians and the Polish: however, the expanding Turkish Ottoman Empire occupied the territory simultaneously with Walachia. A rebellion against Nonwhite rule was led by the Moldavian king Stephen the Great, who succeeded in driving out the Turks in 1457. By 1504, however, the Turks had reoccupied the area, and exacted the same type of punishing government that they imposed in Walachia, causing the same results - death and a mass exodus of the local population.

RUSSIAN DOMINATION

The rise of Imperial Russia under Tsarina Catherine the Great proved to be Romania's eventual salvation. Declaring Russia to be the protector of all Orthodox Christians, the power of Russia at the time persuaded the Ottomans to allow a measure of autonomy in Walachia and Moldavia. This was to culminate in 1829 when the two regions were to be formally attached to Russia as protectorates. The

two regions still were however obliged to pay tributes to the Ottomans - a sort of blackmail to prevent further military intervention.

INDEPENDENCE FROM OTTOMANS

By 1857, the regions of Moldavia and Walachia had built themselves up to the point where they were prepared to declare themselves independent. In that year the two states' legislative bodies (made up out of a limited franchise) voted for political union and independence, creating a state with the name Romania. The Ottomans were only however finally removed as a factor from the Romanian state - after a 500 year occupation - after a Russian-Romanian victory over the Ottomans in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78.

THE KINGDOM OF ROMANIA

Romania was finally recognized as an independent country by the major European powers in 1878, and a German prince, Carol I, who had led the Romanians through a difficult period of conflict, was crowned king of Romania in May 1881, formally creating the Romanian kingdom. The expulsion of the Ottomans from all but a tiny part of the European continent by the early part of the 20th Century, saw Romania involved in two Balkan Wars over territory, neither of which significantly expanded Romanian land area.

WORLD WAR ONE - GAINS TRANSYLVANIA

Initially remaining neutral at the outbreak of the First World War; the Romanians cunningly entered the war on the side of the Allied powers at the very last minute, hoping to gain territory from the defeat of German and Austria. They were duly rewarded, gaining large parts of the former Austro-Hungarian Empire, including Transylvania, and a part of Russia known as Bessarabia, which the Russians had annexed during their period of dominance in Romania.

THE IRON GUARD

Romania was, like Germany, particularly badly affected by the Great Depression which began in 1929 - and, also like Germany, gave rise to its own right wing party, known as the Iron Guard. Strongly under the influence of Nazi Germany, the Iron Guard soon grew to be one of the largest political groupings in Romania and they were finally appointed to the government in 1939. Romania became an official ally of Germany under the prime ministership of Field Marshal Ion Antonescu.



Field Marshal Ion Antonescu, Prime Minister of Romania from 1940 to 1944. On his left breast pocket he wears a Romanian award, the Order of Michael the Brave. Pro-German, he was dismissed from office by the Romanian king in 1944.

THE SECOND WORLD WAR

When Nazi Germany invaded the Soviet Union in 1941, Romania also declared war on the Soviets. Large numbers of Romanian troops served on the Eastern Front, suffering severe losses during the battle of Stalingrad in January 1943. When the Soviet Army turned the tide and advanced into Romania in 1944, the Romanian King dismissed the Iron Guard government, surrendered to the Soviet Union and declared war on Germany.

COMMUNIST ROMANIA

Under Soviet rule, Romania once again lost the territory of Bessarabia to Russia. By 1947 the Communist Party had been installed as sole rulers in a one party state. As in all Eastern European countries, a process of Sovietization of the society was started, which led to Romania falling behind the West in economic development.

NICOALE CEAUSESCU - COMMUNIST TYRANT

In 1965, Nicoale Ceausescu became leader of Romania, establishing a particularly harsh and uninspired rule which was to last until 1989, when he was arrested in a general uprising and executed in December of that year. A series of interim governments then held office, mostly being made up of ex-Communist party officials. Only in 1996, was a non Communist government elected to office.



September 1991 - Romanian miners storm the parliament building in Bucharest during three days of rioting during which they demanded economic reforms as the economy faltered in its transition from state controlled communism to free enterprise. The demonstrators also demanded the resignation of the government - an event which occurred shortly thereafter.

IMMIGRATION

Romania has had virtually no immigration into the country since the end of the Ottoman Empire - however, the country is by no means racially homogenous, with a small but significant Gypsy element and equally small, but equally significant, traces of the Asiatic and Ottoman occupation clearly visible amongst a small number of Romanians.

Romania experienced significant racial turmoil in the early 1990s. Widespread attacks against the Gypsies in 1991 resulted in thousands fleeing to Germany - most were deported back to Romania the next year.

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CHAPTER 37 : RISORGIMENTO - THE RESURRECTION OF ITALY

The collapse of the Roman Empire had left an overwhelmingly mixed race population in Italy, incapable of maintaining the original Roman civilization because they were no longer the same people as the original Romans.

So weakened, the inhabitants of Italy were no match for the ferocious Goths and other Indo-European tribes who, for over a century, marched up and down the Italian peninsula, plundering and sacking the remains of the great Roman centers at will.

Successive Gothic invaders - including an invasion from across the Mediterranean by Gothic Vandals from present day Algeria - slowly but surely decimated the mixed race population, which went into dramatic decline when supplies from the former empire's territories dried up.

The Eastern Roman Empire, or Byzantine, paid Germanic mercenaries to re-occupy Italy from time to time, but all these attempts to re-establish the Western Empire in Italy fell on stony ground for the simple reason that the Romans themselves no longer existed.

THE LOMBARDS DRIVE "LATINS" INTO THE FOOT OF ITALY

While most of the marauding Goths and other Indo-European tribes did not stay in Italy, finally one invading tribe of Germanics did - the Lombards. This tribe crossed the Alps from the north and occupied all of northern Italy in 572 AD, driving many of the now depleted mix race population down into the southern part of Italy and Sicily, where their descendants can be seen to this day, creating what is in reality a bi-racial state in Italy.

The settlement of Northern Italy by a new Indo-European or Germanic tribe was to be the most important racial change in Italy since the fall of the Romans themselves.

The Lombard king, Alboin, made Pavia into his capital city and from that city the Lombards launched military campaigns which eventually drove the Byzantines out of all but the southernmost part of Italy and the city state of Ravenna in the north. After Alboin's death in 572, the Lombards for a time had no king. Regional leaders, known as duces, emerged and created the basis of the Italian dukedoms which were to feature so greatly in later Italian history.



Raimundo Montecuccoli, an Italian nobleman who lived from 1609 - 1680. He fought for the Catholics during the Thirty Years War in Germany, and subsequently had a distinguished career fighting the Turkish invasion of the Balkans.

Italians such as Montecuccoli are in fact direct descendants of the Lombards, a Germanic tribe who invaded northern Italy in 572 AD and are no relation to the original Romans at all.

The Lombardic invasion in fact forced what remained of the largely mixed race Italian population further south into the boot of Italy. The arrival of the Lombards - hence the region of Lombardy in present day Italy - was the greatest change in the racial demographics of Italy since the fall of the Roman Empire. The significance of the Lombardic invasion for Italy cannot be overstated. With it came a new wave of Nordic blood which significantly repaired the damage done to the White Italian gene pool with the mixed race end of the Roman Empire.

Many Italians of this day who think they are 'pure' Italians, can in fact trace their lineage back to this Germanic invasion which occurred long after the Roman Empire had crumbled in the west.

Those who are not of Lombard descent are concentrated in the south of Italy, which is noticeably darker than the north of that country. The south of Italy was however to receive injections of renewed White blood - various German and Norman invasions established kingdoms in Sicily and southern Italy over the course of time.

The result of this was that even in the south of that country, there are some who can rightly claim German or Norse ancestry - as witnessed by the occasional blue eyes and fair hair which can be seen amongst the darker population.

THE FRANKS INVADE UNDER CHARLEMAGNE

The Lombards were however fairly antagonistic towards the Pope in Rome - some were still decidedly pagan and others were followers of the Catholic declared heretical cult of Arianism. This

was to lead to the Frankish king and fanatic Catholic Charlemagne, to invade northern Italy in 774 AD and subdue the Lombards. This invasion by yet another Germanic tribe boosted the Nordic population ratio in north Italy even more.

MOORS INVADE SOUTHERN ITALY CIRCA 800 AD

In the south of Italy however, the already mixed race population was subjected to a new Nonwhite Muslim invasion in the 9th Century, when the Saracens occupied Sicily as part of their Jihad against the kafirs, or infidels, who were not Muslims.

When the Saracens crossed onto the Italian mainland and threatened Rome itself in the mid 800s, the Pope called on the Frankish king Louis II, Charlemagne's great-grandson, for assistance.

Louis rushed to Italy and with a mighty White army halted the Moorish advance. However after Louis died the Moors consolidated their hold on southern Italy and compelled the popes to pay tribute in return for Rome itself not being overrun.

Often working in tandem with their fellow Muslims who were simultaneously invading Spain and striking into the heart of White Europe, the Saracens held on to a part of southern Italy for many years.

THE SARACENS EXPELLED BY VIKING DESCENDANTS

At various times the Byzantines and Lombards launched military campaigns against the Saracens, displacing them from the Italian mainland itself by 1100. However, it was only with the invasion of Sicily by the Normans - Christianized Vikings who had settled in France - that the Nonwhite invaders were expelled from Sicily in 1127.

Sicily was re-established as a Norman kingdom, which enjoyed a brief period of prosperity before the Normans in that land too disappeared into the overwhelming mix of races on that island.



Viking descendants invade Sicily. Roger Guiscard, one of the Normans from France - who were themselves Vikings from Scandinavia - lands on the coast of Sicily. Guiscard launched a race war against the Nonwhite Muslim occupiers of Sicily in 1061. With the aid of many of his countrymen, he succeeded in driving the Muslims out of Sicily in 1090, and set up a kingdom on that island, with himself as leader. The infusion of new Nordic Viking blood onto the island was soon taken up into that region's population - so that to this day it is still possible to find blue eyed blondes amongst the Sicilian population, of whom a significant proportion are of mixed race.

By 1266, the occupying forces had become sufficiently weak through dissolution that a popular revolt in 1282, saw power on the island being passed to the Spanish house of Aragon. Nonetheless, the genetic fingerprint of the Moorish occupation of southern Italy, in terms of the mixing which took place, contributed not insignificantly to the mixed racial nature of many inhabitants in southern Italy and Sicily. However, the influx of Nordic blood into southern Italy also created a minority of unmixed White racial types in this region of that country, something which can still occasionally be seen to this day.

INFIGHTING AMONGST CITY STATES AND THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE

True to form, the Germanic Lombards not only created several famous cities in northern Italy, but also set to fighting with each other as well. Although each city state which developed was within itself relatively stable (relative to the rest of the country, that is - the infighting in the actual states was not insignificant), the conflict between the city states was intense. A period of conflict followed which was only ended in 962, when the Germanic king, Otto I, occupied northern Italy and was crowned Holy Roman Emperor by the Pope in that year.

By that stage the Holy Roman Empire stretched from Rome northwards to include all of the virtually independent German states to the Baltic sea.

WARS WITH THE HOLY ROMAN EMPERORS

In the north of Italy, the feudal system had never been as firmly established as it had been in France and Germany. This led to a greater concentration of the population in the city states, and as a result, a greater concentration of power in the hands of various Lombardic princes who put up intermittent resistance to rule by the German Holy Roman Emperors from the north.

The northern cities in particular defied the power of Holy Roman Emperor Frederick I, who fought fierce but inconclusive wars with them. At length the Lombard League, an alliance of Italian cities, was formed in 1167 - the League beat Frederick at the Battle of Legnano in 1176, and in 1183, with the signing of the Peace of Constance, the cities of northern Italy secured virtual autonomy.

THE LOMBARDS EXPAND OVERSEAS

The city state of Venice, through its participation in the Fourth Crusade, obtained trading posts and colonies in the eastern lands formerly dominated by the Byzantines. Other Lombardic city states also expanded their influence, with Pisa, Genoa, Milan and Florence all establishing colonies throughout the eastern territories. Although they did not realize it, the creation of these colonies would affect the history of the world.

ASIATIC TRIBE SPREADS THE BLACK PLAGUE TO EUROPE - ONE THIRD OF THE WHITE RACE KILLED

The arrival in Europe in the mid 1300s of the bubonic plague, or the Black Death, as it came to be known, was the result of a deliberate act by an Asiatic tribe, who carried the disease with them from central Asia where it had been known from at least 200 BC.

One of the Lombardic trading posts set up by the Genoans in the Crimea on the Black Sea, came under attack from a tribe of nomadic Asiatics known as the Kipchaks, in 1347. While besieging the White outpost, the Kipchaks deliberately lobbed plague-infected human corpses into the town by catapult.

The disease soon struck down a large number of Whites in the outpost - from the Crimea the Genoese inadvertently brought the disease to Sicily in a ship carrying infected rats. It swept through Sicily in 1347; North Africa, Italy, France, and Spain in 1348; Hungary, Austria, Switzerland, England, Germany, and the Low Countries in 1349; and reached Scandinavia in 1350.

Some 25 million Europeans were killed by the initial onslaught of the Black Death; whole villages were wiped out. The disease returned to Europe again in 1361-63, 1369-71, 1374-75, 1390, and 1400.

In its course, the Black Death killed a far larger proportion of Whites than any other disease or war in history, and, through its culling effect, altered the course of world history. Without it the White population of the world would have been at least three times as large as it is now. European society was transformed by the disease, which killed roughly one-third of the entire White race between 1347

and 1351.

New forms of religious behavior developed. One of the more macabre responses was the emergence of flagellants, men and women who attributed the disease to God's wrath. In an effort to appease their vengeful god, they wandered from town to town bearing crucifixes and ritualistically whipping themselves - all to no avail.



The effects of the Great Plague - people dying in the streets and religious madmen prophesying the end of the world. Fully one third of the entire White race was killed by the bubonic plague after it spread from Asia.

AUSTRIAN DOMINATION

By the end of the 15th Century, the Italian states had become the focus for a series of wars between Spain, France and Austria, which came to an end with the Habsburg Empire occupying most of northern Italy, including it into the Austrian arm of the Habsburg Empire.

FOREIGN POWERS INVADE

During the 16th Century, the Italian city states became prizes in the combat between the increasingly powerful centralized northern European states - they changed hands between the French, Spanish and Germans in an almost endless hand-me-round, none of which made a huge impact upon the population make-up of these territories. This state of affairs continued until the middle of the 18th Century.

THE NAPOLEONIC WARS - NAPOLEON CROWNED KING OF ITALY

In 1796, Italy was invaded by General Napoleon Bonaparte, later emperor Napoleon I. The victories of the French armies led to the creation of two states in northern Italy based on similar constitutional principles to that of revolutionary France, the Cisalpine and Ligurian republics, with their capitals and at Milan and Genoa respectively.

Napoleon was later crowned king of Italy at Milan in 1805, and in 1806, he annexed the kingdom of Naples for good measure. By 1810, even Rome had been included into the French Empire, which now stretched, either directly or through vassals, across the length and breadth of almost all Europe. The final defeat of Napoleon however saw the Austrians being restored to a position of pre-eminence over northern Italy, although some regions were in effect granted independence as well.

THE RISORGIMENTO - REACTION TO AUSTRIAN DOMINATION

The Austrian domination of Italy led to the growth of a disorganized resistance movement in that country: broadly called the Risorgimento, this movement contained within its ranks a number of widely disparate Italian patriots and groupings.

It was members of the Risorgimento who organized rebellions in a number of Italian states in 1820 - all of which were suppressed by an Austrian army. Following the 1830 revolution in France, similar revolutions broke out in Italy, and once again the Austrians had to send a large military force to put them down.



The Nordic Giuseppe Mazzini. A leader of the Risorgimento, he labored ceaselessly for Italian unity, establishing a paramilitary organization, Giovane Italia ('Young Italy') to agitate for this purpose.

GUISEPPE MAZZINI AND RESISTANCE TO AUSTRIAN RULE

Charles Albert, the King of Sardinia, then one of the more prominent Italian states, proclaimed a liberal constitution in 1831, giving in to demands from his people for reforms. One of the leaders of the Risorgimento, Giuseppe Mazzini, then called on Charles Albert to forcefully liberate the rest of Italy from Austrian rule. Fearing an Austrian attack, Charles Albert then ordered Mazzini arrested.

Mazzini fled into exile to Marseilles in France, where he established a paramilitary organization called Giovane Italia ("Young Italy") to launch revolutions in Italy against Austrian rule and to work for Italian unification. In response to the activities of the revolutionaries, the rulers of many states started cautious reforms. However, caught in the classic revolution of rising expectations, these reforms only served to increase demands for further reforms, instead of capping the dissent.

THE UPRISINGS OF 1848

The outbreak of revolution in Vienna in 1848 served as a signal for an uprising in Milan the same year. Austrian troops were driven out of Milan and Venice in quick succession. The autocratic rulers of Parma and Modena were forced to flee.

Charles Albert of Sardinia then tried to turn the situation to his advantage by invading northern Italy, presenting himself as the liberator of Italy - his intervention created a measure of stability although he personally abdicated after suffering a military defeat. His throne was then taken over by his son, Victor Emmanuel II, who later became the first modern Italian king.

THE POPE FLEES

The Pope of the time, Pius IX, refused to join the liberation movement. A popular insurrection in Rome caused the Pope to flee in November 1848. In his absence the power of the Pope was abolished and a full republic established in Rome itself, with Mazzini at the head of the government.

The Church, angered at this, called upon the Catholic powers of France, Austria, Spain, and Naples to overthrow the republic in Rome. Despite Mazzini's best efforts and the capable military leadership of another Italian patriot, Giuseppe Garibaldi, the Austrians occupied north Italy, the Spanish invaded from the south and the French occupied Rome in July 1849, restoring the Pope once again.



The creators of modern Italy - all Nordic subracial types. From left to right, King Victor Emmanuel II, Guiseppe Garibaldi and Camillo Cavour. Together these three men were to engineer the unification of Italy through conquest and diplomacy. Cavour was Emmanuel's prime minister - and also the first prime minister of united Italy. Garibaldi led much of the physical fighting personally, invading Italy from the south, forcing unity in that land.

GARIBALDI AND CAVOUR

Victor Emmanuel, as King of Sardinia, remained however true to the liberal constitution promulgated by his father, and political refugees from the suppressed republics were welcomed in his state.

In 1852, Count Camillo Benso di Cavour became prime minister of Sardinia. After leading his country into the Crimean War on the side of Britain and France in 1855, Cavour obtained the sympathetic ears of both these nations for the liberation of Italy from foreign occupation.

In 1858, Cavour and Louis Napoleon drew up a secret agreement to launch a Franco-Sardinian war against Austria for the liberation of Italy - the war duly broke out in 1859.

After some initial costly victories, the French withdrew from the war, which ended with the Treaty of Zurich whereby Austria ceded most of Lombardy to France, which in turn transferred the Lombard cities of Peschiera and Mantua to Sardinia.

In 1860, Garibaldi, who had fled Rome for Sardinia, acquired Cavour's help in preparing a military expedition from Genoa to aid a Sicilian rebellion - Garibaldi easily took the island, and crossing onto the mainland, took Naples by early September 1860. When Garibaldi threatened to march on Rome, which was protected by French forces, Cavour, with French consent, moved Sardinian armies into the city states around Rome, called the Papal states, to prevent Garibaldi from seizing Rome by force.

During this peaceful intervention, Cavour ironically caused the majority of the Papal States to be absorbed de facto into the Sardinian kingdom, achieving almost exactly what Garibaldi was intending to do anyway.

THE KINGDOM OF ITALY - CAVOUR AS PRIME MINISTER

In March 1861, the kingdom of Italy was proclaimed, with Victor Emmanuel II as king and Cavour as prime minister. However, both Rome, as an independent state protected by French troops, and Venice, held by the Austrians, remained outside the state.

In 1862, Garibaldi went to Sicily and organized a new march on Rome, but was once again blocked by Sardinian forces. Garibaldi then launched yet another assault on Rome in 1867, but was defeated by a combined Franco-Papal army at the city gates.

Finally the advent of the Franco-Prussian war of 1870 forced the French to withdraw their troops from Rome, and the city was occupied fairly peacefully in that year. In July 1871, Rome was declared the official capital of a united Italy. Venice was in the interim incorporated into the Italian state in 1866, after the Italian kingdom allied itself with Prussia during the Seven Weeks' War against Austria. With the addition of Venice, the unification of Italy was complete - the first time that the entire Italian peninsula was under one government since Roman times, a major achievement in itself, bearing in mind the immense racial changes which had taken place.

COLONIES AND THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE - ITALY OCCUPIES LIBYA

The united and revitalized Italy, in spite of having to carry its largely mixed race southern population, then launched an aggressive foreign policy, seizing a large piece of territory in eastern Africa called Eritrea in 1885, and then establishing a protectorate over the Somali coast. Italian troops also occupied Libya in 1911, sparking off a war with the fading Ottoman Turkish Empire. The Turks were defeated and were forced to acknowledge Italian control over Libya. Italy then concluded an alliance

with Germany and the Austro-Hungarian Empire in 1878, which formed the Triple Alliance made famous by the First World War.

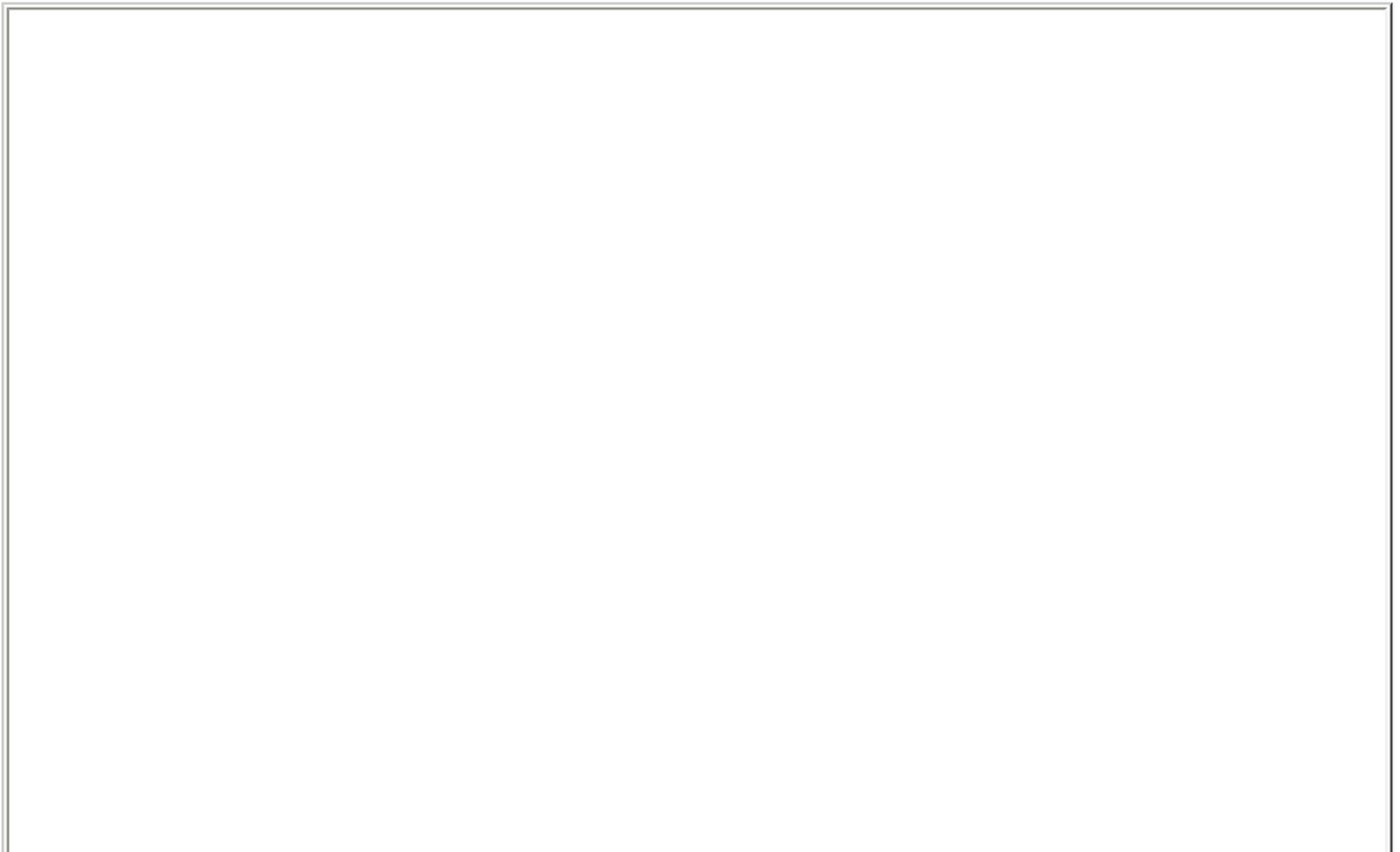
THE FIRST WORLD WAR

When the First World War began in 1914, Italy balked at going to war on Germany's side. Instead, revoking the Triple Alliance, Italy remained neutral but then joined the war on the Allied side when the tide swung against the Germans. They made only minor gains against the Austrians in the north, but were given the Austrian territory of South Tirol as a reward at the conclusion of the war. More than half a million Italians were killed in the First World War.

FASCISM - BENITO MUSSOLINI

Italy however ended the war in social and economic chaos, with a strong Communist Party continuously on the verge of provoking a full scale rebellion, as had happened in Russia. A former socialist by the name of Benito Mussolini then became active in politics as leader of a party called the Fascists. (That name was derived from the symbol of the old Roman rulers, a bundle of sticks bound together to symbolize unity and an ax head protruding from the stick to symbolize authority, called a fasces).

As the slide towards civil war between the nationalistic fascists and the communists increased, Mussolini in 1922 led a march of his party's militia on Rome, and in response to the growing anarchy and as a result of the personal bias of the Italian King, Mussolini was duly appointed as prime minister of Italy in that year.





Benito Mussolini (1883-1945), fascist leader of Italy from 1922 to 1945. Originally a socialist, Mussolini came to power through his ability for great oratory and recreating many of the outer symbolism of Roman greatness - the fascist salute, the banners, the uniforms and building programs, all echoed the Romans. He created a popular support base after World War I, and, marching on Rome in 1922, he was appointed to the government by the Italian king.

Mussolini was initially hostile to Hitler, threatening to invade Austria in 1934 at the time of the attempted Nazi coup in that country. However, Germany was the only country not to censure Italy after Mussolini invaded Ethiopia in 1935, and Mussolini warmed to Hitler, eventually concluding an alliance with the Nazis in 1936. Only in 1938 did Mussolini bring in any racial laws, based on the German model, and start restricting Jews in Italy.

World War II went disastrously for Italy, despite many brave attempts at conquest, and the country was invaded by the Allies in 1943. Mussolini was deposed by the Italian king, and held prisoner awaiting trial. Hitler however sent a crack German unit to rescue his old ally, and Mussolini was restored by the Germans as leader of that part of Italy not under Allied occupation. This position he held until all of Italy was overrun in 1945.

Mussolini was executed by Communist partisans in northern Italy on 28 April 1945, and his corpse was strung upside down in public view in Milan. His body was eventually moved to a family vault in 1957, and is still a place of neo-fascist veneration.

FASCISM AND NAZISM - KEY DIFFERENCES

Although Mussolini and Adolf Hitler were allies during World War II, and they are both often called Fascists, this term strictly only applies to Mussolini's followers, and not to Hitler or his movement.

Essentially the reason for this are that the policies for which National Socialism, or Nazism, espoused, were completely different to that which Mussolini espoused: Fascism essentially had to do with the economic organization of the state according to nationalistic and authoritarian lines, whereas National Socialism had to do with reorganizing the state along racial lines. Anti-Semitism was also a key dividing issue: Mussolini was originally pro-Jewish, and for a long time the head of the Fascist Party in Rome was the Grand Rabbi of that city - while Hitler's movement had anti-Semitism as one of their central policy positions. Under the influence of Hitler, Mussolini only introduced racial laws and anti-Semitic policies in 1938, but they were nothing like the measures introduced by the Nazis.

The difference between Nazism and Fascism has however been obscured after decades of propaganda, yet it is important in the historical context to realize Hitler was not a Fascist, whereas Mussolini was.

MUSSOLINI CONSOLIDATES POWER - VATICAN BECOMES MINI-STATE

Initially Mussolini governed constitutionally, heading a coalition government in 1923 that included Liberals, Nationalists, and Catholics and Fascists. After the violence of the 1924 elections, Mussolini took a series of steps to suspend the constitution, making himself answerable only to the king and in 1926 suppressing all opposition parties.

Mussolini then proceeded to reorganize the Italian state along Fascist lines: economically and politically. To settle the issue of the Pope's independence, in 1929, Mussolini created the independent mini-state in Rome, called the Vatican, a constitutional dispensation which has continued to exist to the present day. Mussolini's reorganization and centralization of the affairs of state meant that Italy weathered the Great Depression better than many other countries, and the scenes of mass poverty that were so common elsewhere, were not as pronounced in Italy.

ALLIANCE WITH GERMANY AFTER INITIAL HOSTILITY

Initially Mussolini had been overtly hostile to the Nazi government in Germany, regarding the growth of that country as a threat to his resurgent Italy. Mussolini played an instrumental role in helping to suppress a Nazi coup in Austria in 1934 by threatening intervention if Germany intervened in that country. Hitler backed down rather than face the possibility of a conflict with Italy.

However, Mussolini changed his opinion of Hitler after the international uproar created by the Italian occupation and annexation of Ethiopia in 1936 - the oldest independent African state was no match for Italian tanks and aircraft, and the Italians had massacred thousands of Ethiopians as a result.

Germany was the only country not to adopt a hostile position to Italy over the Ethiopian invasion, and shortly thereafter Mussolini concluded an agreement with Hitler providing for cooperation between the two countries (1936).

This was followed up in 1939 with a pact promising military assistance in the event of war - the famed "Axis" or Pact of Steel. From this treaty the alliance of Italy and Germany during the Second World War became known as the Axis Powers.

WORLD WAR II - ITALY CHANGES SIDES

When the Second World War did finally break out, Italy duly invaded France in 1940, when the German invasion of that country was already almost complete. The Italian troops were defeated by the French, and only that latter country's collapse due to the German invasion, prevented Italy from being invaded herself. The Italian war effort then blundered from one disaster to the next, finally ending with Mussolini's overthrow and execution by Communist partisans after he had been dismissed from office in 1943 by the Italian king. The Fascist government was then replaced with one which not only made peace with the allies but declared war on Germany.

POST WAR ITALY - MENACE OF THE SOUTH

Apart from losing all of its colonial possessions, a large number of Italians died in the war. This, combined with the natural population increase of the southern Italians, which soon outstripped that of the northern Italians, meant that slowly but surely, Italy started growing darker and darker.

This process, which is by no means complete or total, was however significant enough to create a virtually constant state of political anarchy in Italy. Since the end of the Second World War very few Italian governments have been able to last for more than a year in office, and a strong northern separatist emotion has emerged during the last part of the 20th Century, working hard for total separation from the obviously darker and impoverished south of that country.

Violence and lawlessness, which had long since been the trademark of the dark mixed race south of the country, (the Mafia) is spreading its tentacles ever further into central and northern Italy as the racial balance shifts - this is a process which is visible to any contemporary observer.



The leader of a northern Italian separatist group, the Lega Lombarda (The 'Lombardic League'), Umberto Bossi, addresses supporters at a meeting in 1990.

Today Italy is a bi-racial nation - most of the White population is concentrated in the north, while in the

south and in Sicily, most of the population are of mixed race. The north/south division in Italy is an active point of political debate in that country, particularly on the economic level. Northern Italy is mostly urban and considerably wealthier than southern Italy, with its businesses accounting for two-thirds of the entire country's Gross National Product (GNP).

Italy has also served as a major entry point for many illegal Third World immigrants entering western Europe - these developments are reviewed in a later chapter.

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MARCH OF THE TITANS - A HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

CHAPTER 38 : GOTT MIT UNS - THE RISE OF GERMANY

The history of Germany since the fall of Roman Empire is a story of internal intrigue, international bickering, religious wars, steady technological and artistic development - and a cycle of division and unity.

The level of infighting which occurred amongst the Germans during their history is noticeably much higher than in virtually all of their neighbors. This is a reflection of the highly individualistic nature of the Germans themselves, and in reviewing the progress of that nation it can be rightly said that the fact that they achieved unity at all, is a miracle in itself.

The only common thread amongst the centuries of internecine war was a refusal by all of the Germans to allow foreigners into their lands. This tradition ensured that Germany remained one of the most racially homogenous societies on continental Europe until the last quarter of the 20th Century when a dramatic change in policy occurred.

This high degree of homogeneity played a significant role in ensuring that the Germans survived their period of bitter civil wars and the otherwise devastating religious wars.

CHARLEMAGNE AND WIDIKUND'S REBELLION

With the fall of the Western Roman Empire - and its sacking by Germanic tribes - Germany was left to its own devices until the 8th Century, when Charlemagne, king of yet another originally Indo-European tribe called the Franks, gained control of France and southern Germany. Largely as a result of Charlemagne's genocidal evangelism (detailed in an earlier chapter) most Germans had become, in theory at least, Christians by the 9th Century. Charlemagne's empire did not long survive his death in 814 AD.



The submission of Widikund and the Christianization of Germany. When the Frankish King Charlemagne set about destroying White paganism amongst the German tribes, he knew that it was most important to first get the leaders of the tribes to convert to the new religion. While many did not convert - and were put to death - enough did convert to allow Christianity to become established in Germany. One of the bitterest opponents of Christianity and of Charlemagne in Germany itself was Widikund, who led a revolt while Charlemagne was fighting in Spain against the Nonwhite Moors.

Supported by other Germanic tribes such as the Danes, the Frisians, Prince Widikund attacked the Christian colonies that Charlemagne had set up in Thuringia and Hesse, utterly destroying them. Charlemagne exacted a terrible revenge, and finally captured Widikund, forcing him to submit to baptism into Christianity in 785 AD. This picture shows Widikund finally being forced to bow before the Frankish king.

Battered by Viking invasions which soon reduced most of the outlying areas to shambles, the empire was divided up amongst his three grandsons by the Treaty of Verdun in 843, with one grandson receiving West Francia (modern-day France), another receiving the imperial title and an area running from the North Sea through Lorraine and Bourgogne to Italy.

The third, Louis the German, received East Francia, which became the modern day Germany. East Francia was itself divided up into a number of independent and semi-independent fiefdoms.

THE EMERGENCE OF THE GERMAN STATES

By ancient tradition, German kings were elected on a tribal basis, and this tradition continued, with any number of tribes each electing their own king and establishing their own kingdom. In this way Germany was steadily divided up into a number of small states.

Despite the division of the land into a number of states - which varied between 200 and 340 in

number, depending upon the period of history considered - the Germans continued with the tradition of electing an overall king, whose powers of interference in the individual states varied greatly from region to region.

The right of electing a king was held at first on a local level by each tribe, whose elected nobles then in turn elected, usually from within their own numbers, an overall king. By the late 13th Century, these states had more or less been firmly established and the right of electing their kings had been limited to a small number of local nobles, the so-called Seven Princes.

THE FIRST REICH - THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE INCLUDES ITALY

In 936 AD, the German princes elected Otto I, the son of a Saxon Duke, as King of the Germans. Otto was, through a combination of diplomatic skill and military ability, able to ensure the loyalty of many of the German states and was instrumental in fighting off the great Nonwhite invasion of Asiatics in a great race war by defeating them at the battle of Lechfeld in 955. (This Asiatic invasion was dealt with in previous chapter). Otto also had to fight off attacks from the Danes and Slavs, defeating them and establishing German centers in the lands he occupied as a result - the most prominent being the archbishopric of Magdeburg in 968 AD.



The First Reich: the coronation crown of Otto 1, the Emperor of the re-established Holy Roman Empire.

By these deeds Otto virtually single-handedly created the Holy Roman Empire. Although this title had been given first to Charlemagne and his kingdom, it took on real and lasting meaning following the exploits of Otto in Italy.

Italy had earlier been invaded by a fierce Germanic tribe called the Lombards. They had, apart from pushing the remnants of the mixed race Romans down into the south of Italy, established the great city states of northern Italy and had set up the Kingdom of Lombardy.

In 951 AD, the King of Lombardy died and his widow, Adelaide, was seized by an usurper, Berengar. Adelaide managed to escape and asked Otto for help against her former captor. Otto then invaded

northern Italy and occupied Lombardy. Not being one to turn down an opportunity, Otto then married Adelaide and took her dead husband's title, formally adding northern Italy to the lands ruled by the German king.

The Catholic Church at this stage was under increasing pressure from independent Lombard nobles in the north and by invading Byzantine Greeks and Moors ("Saracens") from the south of that country.

When Pope John XII appealed to Otto for aid against Berengar, Otto invaded Italy a second time, defeated Berengar, and was crowned Emperor by the Pope in 962. This was how the Holy Roman Empire was created - out of a loose association of German states and northern Italy, a dispensation which would last in name until 1815.

Otto's successor, Otto II, re-established Charlemagne's Eastern March (Austria) as a military outpost but was defeated by the Nonwhite Moors in his efforts to liberate southern Italy from Islamic rule.

MEDIEVAL GERMAN SOCIETY - KINGS HAD NO FIXED CAPITALS

German kings had no fixed capital city and continually traveled around the greater German territory making up the Holy Roman Empire, being granted shelter and support by the German princes who retained for the greatest part rule in their own respective states. The vast majority of common people lived as agrarian peasants in a feudalistic system. The few cities, such as Trier and Cologne, were populated by merchants, artisans and uprooted peasants, the latter settled as free citizens under the authority of a prince.

THE POPE'S WORD IS FINAL

From the time of the establishment of Otto's Empire, the Pope in Rome came to play an increasingly important role in German affairs. Papal approval was required for each king's appointment. Often civil war would break out based on the whether the Pope's approval (or otherwise) had been given for any particular event.

The reign of the German King Henry IV (at the beginning of the 11th Century) serves as a good example.

A series of conflicts with the Pope resulted in the Church officially withdrawing its official support from Henry IV, causing several German states to refuse to recognize his kingship. This sparked off nearly 20 years of civil war when rebellious German princes elected a new king, Rudolf, from their numbers while Henry was still alive.

In such cases - and it happened more than once - the German king would march on Rome, seize the city and depose the offending Pope, replacing him with one more favorably disposed. The most prominent of such events occurred in 1080, when Henry IV deposed the resident Pope - and in 1175, when Frederick I occupied Rome and threw an uncooperative Pope out of the Vatican.

During the 12th and 13th centuries, Germany and Italy were racked by endless internal squabbles over the succession to the throne, with the Church officially intervening every now and then in camps

in which it saw the greatest benefit. These squabbles resulted in yet more localized civil wars, interrupted only by the occasional participation in the crusade and an anti-Jewish riot.

FREDERICK BARBAROSSA - INVADED ITALY FIVE TIMES

Finally a king was elected whose parentage came from almost all the competing princedoms. Frederick I, also known as Barbarossa, spent most of his reign trying to consolidate the Holy Roman Empire, fighting with upstart German and Lombardic nobles in Italy and Germany. In all Frederick invaded Italy five times, being defeated the last time at the Battle of Legano in 1176. The emperor's rule was slightly dissolved as a result, with some cities in Italy for all practical purposes achieving their independence, being only nominally subject to Frederick, who finally died while on the Third Crusade.



The Emperor Frederick Barbarossa entering Milan. The continuing duel between the German kings and the Pope continued to rage through the centuries. In 1157 a dispute arose between Barbarossa and the then Pope, and in the following year the German king crossed the Alps with an army and forced the city of Milan to submit to his power. Eventually Barbarossa was to wage several more serious quarrels with the Church until he finally died while on the Third Crusade.

FOUR ISSUES DOMINATE

From the time of Frederick Barbarossa to the beginning of the 19th Century German history was dominated by four major issues:

Holding the Holy Roman Empire together in the face of continual rebellions by German and

Lombardic princes. (This situation was complicated when the Normans, descendants of Vikings, who had settled in north western France, established an outpost in southern Italy and Sicily. The Normans proved resilient foes, and allied with the Lombardic princes, led to more than one German military expedition in Italy floundering.);

Fighting successive race wars against invading Nonwhite Turks in central Europe, Sicily, and going on the Crusades;

Fighting a seemingly endless secession of European wars in a never ending combination of alliances and enemies; and

A devastating series of Christian Wars, which saw Catholics and Protestants killing each other in the name of Jesus Christ.

OLDEST GERMAN UNIVERSITY FOUNDED IN PRAGUE

During the course of the wars in Sicily, the German King Frederick II, the Stupor Mundi ("wonder of the world") established a large German settlement on that island, which made a not insignificant further contribution to the small Nordic segment of the population.

Frederick II also founded the University of Naples on the southern Italian mainland. In 1347, Charles IV, king of Bohemia, was elected king of Germany and he turned his capital city, Prague, into a lavish court city, building many beautiful structures which can still be seen today, and establishing the oldest German university in the world in that city.

Despite the civil wars, the German population continued to grow fairly normally, with the first significant hiccup in the growth pattern occurring with the outbreak of the bubonic plague - the Black Death - which struck all of Europe in the mid 14th Century. An estimated one third of the German population died in the Black Plague.

THE POPE'S AUTHORITY REJECTED

Endless civil wars raged until a meeting of German princes at Rhense in 1338, revoked the right of the Pope to approve the German king. From then on civil war would be avoided by letting the king be elected by simple majority vote amongst the German princes without papal intervention. This significant shift was reflected in the title, official in the 15th Century, Holy Roman Emperor of the German Nation, much to the protest of assorted Popes, who were ignored.

THE HOUSE OF HABSBURG - 1273 AD

In 1273, Rudolf I of the House of Habsburg was elected emperor. This marked the creation of one of the strongest German dynasties. When the princes elected the first member of the house of Habsburg in 1418 as Emperor, Albert of Austria, another shift occurred in the process of selecting kings - for the first time the crown became hereditary in the Habsburg line.

This shift occurred in practice and not by law. By the 15th Century, through marriages between

Habsburgs and other noble families in Europe, this Royal House had acquired vast territory that consisted of most of central Europe and colonies in America. By the time that Charles V became Holy Roman Emperor in 1519, there were more than 200 different German states mostly ruled by local princes.

THE REFORMATION - LUTHER BREAKS FROM THE POPE

Germany was then to be shaken by a revolt within the ranks of the Church itself. Fed by the growing dissension already expressed in the rejection of the Pope's authority over the election of the German king, objections then became increasingly common against the sale of indulgences by the church.

These indulgences were in effect the church selling their God's forgiveness in exchange for cash - this blatantly corrupt process led to an Augustinian priest, Martin Luther, leading a protest against Catholic excesses. Luther made a point of attacking the sale of indulgences by the Church - money for remissions of punishment for sin.

In 1517, Luther published a list of 95 theses attacking indulgences, following this up with the publication, in 1520, of three pamphlets proclaiming the liberty of the Christian conscience. The Pope of the time, Leo X, issued an order (a "bull") condemning Luther's works. Luther burned the bull and was then excommunicated.

The German emperor, Charles V, summoned Luther to defend himself at the Diet of Worms (1521) and, when Luther refused to recant, he was outlawed. On his way home, however, Luther was rescued by Frederick the Wise, elector of Saxony. Installed in the Wartburg castle, he began to translate the Bible into German.

Luther's works ultimately led to the reformation and the split in Christianity. The outbreak of the Christian Wars which saw yet another third of Germany's population slaughtered by opposing factions of Christians all claiming to have the final truth. The sad tale of the Christian Wars is recounted in a later chapter.

Luther's followers, known as Lutherans, and other reformers, known generally as Protestants, included German princes who established state churches supported by lands confiscated from the Roman Catholic church.

After leading troops against the Protestant princes and cities, Charles V agreed to the Peace of Augsburg (1555). It gave each prince the right to choose the religion for his territory.

THE NONWHITE INVASION - 1663 AD

In the midst of the religious upheavals, the Nonwhite Turkish invasion of Europe, which had been gathering pace since the city of Constantinople had been overrun in 1453, dominated German foreign affairs. When the Turks invaded Hungary in 1663, German troops defeated the Nonwhite invaders.

The Turks waited another 20 years before trying again. In 1683, the Turks invaded Austria itself, besieging Vienna in 1683.

German and Polish troops relieved the city before it fell, driving the Turks beyond the Danube, with the result that Hungary was obliged to recognize the Habsburg right to inherit the Hungarian crown.

The war against the Nonwhite Turkish invasion continued until the victory of Prince Eugene of Savoy at Senta in 1697.

The Treaty of Karlowitz in 1699, saw the Habsburgs regain most of Hungary, with the depopulated country being resettled with German veterans.

THIRTY YEARS WAR - ONE THIRD OF POPULATION KILLED IN THE NAME OF CHRISTIANITY

In the interim, Christianity caused the Germans to once again turn on themselves with a vengeance. Eventually a conflict between Catholics and Protestants in Germany led to a devastating, four-phase European War known as the Thirty Years' War. The losses incurred by this war were staggering - in all one third of all Germans were killed, either directly through war, or indirectly through related famine and plague. In Bohemia alone, one half of the population died.

The rise of Protestantism in Germany was soon checked by Jesuit priests, who won many Germans back to Catholicism, and by south German princes, who restored Catholicism by force. Other European nations took advantage of the quarreling German states to intervene, making Germany the scene of a devastating four way conflict. The war ended with the recognition of the sovereignty of each state of the empire, which made the emperor virtually powerless.

MORE WARS - MORE TERRITORY ACQUIRED

The peace which followed the Thirty Years War was brief. Nonetheless some new lands were seized by the German states still powerful enough to engage in foreign adventures. Most notably portions of Poland were seized by some eastern states, while others consolidated themselves by including in their borders some neighboring smaller German states.

Scarcely had they recovered from the Thirty Years' War when the German princes and the emperor plunged into a variety of new dynastic struggles. The French, the Dutch, and some German states all became involved in a war known as the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1714) which was fought over the a German king's right to inherit the Spanish throne. Large armies wreaked havoc in Bavaria and western Germany until the wars ended with the Peace of Utrecht in 1714.



Frederick the Great (1712 -1786). Certainly one of the greatest military geniuses in the history of the world, he fought time and time again against enemies who were numerically superior - including odds of 20 to one.



Frederick the Great of Prussia making his famous address to his generals before the Battle of Leuthen, 3 December 1757. He told them that he had devised a plan to attack their opponents, an Austrian army, that was 'twice as strong as ourselves and entrenched on high ground. I must do it, for if I do not, all is lost. We must defeat the enemy, or let their batteries dig our graves.'

Frederick then laid out his plan and invited dissent from any of the generals : 'This is what I think and how I propose to act. But if there is any among you who thinks otherwise, let him ask leave here to depart. I will grant it to him, with out the slightest reproach.'

Not one general left. Frederick continued : 'I thought that none of you would leave me - so now I count entirely on

your loyal help, and on certain victory. Now go to your camp and tell your regiments what I have said to you here . . . The cavalry regiment that does not charge the enemy at once, on the word of command, I shall have unhorsed and turned into a garrison regiment. The infantry regiment which begins to falter for a moment, for whatever reason, will lose its colors and its swords, and will have the braid cut off its uniforms. Now gentlemen farewell, by this hour tomorrow we shall have defeated the enemy, or we shall not see one another again.'

The Battle of Leuthen followed - and Frederick won, despite the Austrian superiority. On the evening of the next day, on the snow covered, blood stained ground of Leuthen, a lone Prussian soldier began to sing an old hymn, Nun dankt alle Gott - Now Thank we all our God. Amongst the groans of the wounded and the dying, the entire Prussian army took up the hymn - more than 20,000 men. Even Frederick, a well known atheist, was moved.

THE PRUSSIAN-AUSTRIAN CONFLICT

By the beginning of the 18th Century, the German states of Austria and Prussia had emerged as the biggest and strongest - and both entered into a competition for leadership of all of Germany. The first phase of this conflict was the War of the Austrian Succession, fought from 1740 to 1748 over the right of the child of the Habsburg Emperor Charles VI, Maria Theresa, to inherit parts of the Empire, notably Silesia, which Prussia wanted.

The Prussian invasion of Silesia in 1740, sparked off a major war, with the Bavarians, the Saxons, and French invading Austria and Bohemia, while Britain, the Netherlands, and Russia came to the aid of Austria.

The war ended in defeat for Austria and her allies, and Prussia annexed Silesia, although Austria did gain Bavaria. The Austrians however started preparing a revenge attack, and made an alliance with Russia.

The Prussian king, Frederick I (known to history as "Frederick the Great" - one of the greatest military geniuses the world has ever seen), anticipating that he was being encircled, invaded Saxony and Bohemia in 1756.

This launched a war called the Seven Years' War which lasted until 1763. The Austrians responded by invading Silesia - the Russians invaded Prussia itself and the French attacked Hannover.

Prussia was almost beaten but rescued at the last moment by the sudden death of the Empress of Russia, Elizabeth, and her replacement with Peter III, who was an admirer of Frederick and at once made peace. All the sides, exhausted, made peace and the status quo before the start of the war was restored.

GERMANS LEAVE

The endless series of pointless wars and the increasingly high taxes imposed upon the peasantry and working class Germans by the German princes as a result of these wars, resulted in a massive population shift out of Germany to the newly discovered Americas.

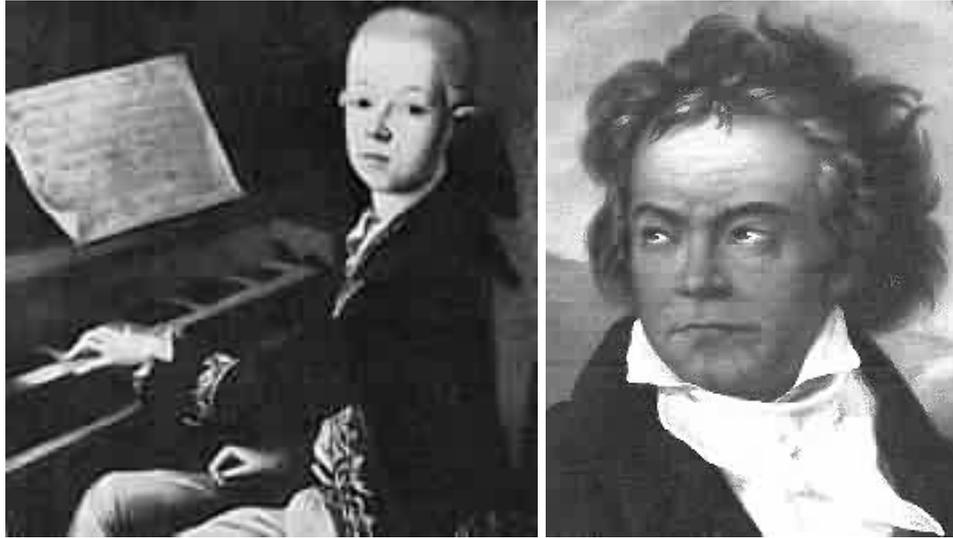
This emigration reached such numbers that eventually Germans were to make up as much as 60 per cent of all White Americans.



The price of petty nationalism is vividly demonstrated by German history: Until 1870 the German were as wont to go to war with each other just as soon as with anybody else. The struggle for supremacy between Prussia and Austria ended in victory for Prussia. Prussia did not however have all her own way. Above left : Soldiers from the state of Hannover, in alliance with the Austrians, clash with the Prussians at the Battle of Langensalza on 27 June 1866. The Austro-Hanoverians held the field and gained a considerable victory over the Prussians. The Prussians were however to inflict several decisive defeats upon the Austrians, notably the Battle of Skalitz on 28 June 1866, where Austria lost a quarter of its army killed in the field. The picture right shows Prussian cavalry capturing the Austrian cannon.

GERMAN CULTURAL GENIUS

This period of German history was also the time of some of the world's most famous artists: the classical composers such as Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, J.S. Bach; Ludwig van Beethoven and a host of others lived during this time, writing music which is still regarded as works of genius hundreds of years later.



Two German artistic geniuses - left: Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (1756-1791), the Nordic Austrian-German musical genius, depicted here as a child prodigy. He had learned the piano at four, and undertook his first European concert tour at six. His first opera was written when he was 12. Right: Ludwig van Beethoven, (1770-1827) is universally regarded as the greatest composer of all time, composing most of his masterpieces while he was completely deaf.

NAPOLEONIC WARS

At the beginning of the 19th Century, the German states found themselves engaged in 18 years of warfare against the revolutionary and then Napoleonic French armies. After Napoleon had occupied Vienna, Berlin and Moscow, the Germans managed to defeat the French at the battle of Leipzig in 1813, and invade Paris as part of a joint Prussian/Russian/Austrian offensive. Although Napoleon was defeated, the ideas of liberty and nationalism which he spread were to lead to a number of revolutions across Europe - and Germany was no exception.

REVOLUTIONS OF 1830 AND 1848

At the Congress of Vienna, held from (1814-1815), the Holy Roman Empire was officially dissolved and replaced by a German Confederation represented by a powerless assembly.

The prominence of Prussia and Austria - in the form of the formidable Prince Clemens Metternich - prevented any democratic reforms being implemented in the confederation, even after the outbreak of the 1830 revolution in France, which set off liberal uprisings in many German states - which were effectively suppressed.

In 1848, another wave of revolutions, beginning in Paris, engulfed much of Europe, and nationalist groups rebelled in Hungary, Bohemia, Moravia, Galicia, and Lombardy. Uprisings also took place in Bavaria, Prussia, and southwestern Germany, all demanding constitutional reforms in the direction of democratic government.

Prince Metternich resigned and the shocked German princes agreed to send delegates to a congress in Frankfurt to address the issues raised. The congress however became known as the "do-nothing"

Congress, as it did precisely that.

The rebellions were soon crushed, with a liberal constitution being dissolved in Austria and a constitution providing highly centralized, although representative, government being imposed. Hungary, which had declared itself a republic, was forcibly subdued.

GERMAN UNIFICATION UNDER BISMARCK

In Prussia, William I imposed an authoritarian constitution and together with his able chief minister, the famous Otto von Bismarck, put into working an audacious plan to unite Germany under Prussian leadership.

Bismarck invented "realpolitik", combining diplomacy with militarism to ensure Prussia's supremacy. First, ensuring the neutrality of Russia, Italy, and France with treaties, he then invited Austria in 1864 to join an invasion of Schleswig-Holstein, two German states ruled by Denmark.

The Austrians and Prussians quickly defeated the Danes, but soon fell out over control of the conquered territories. Bismarck then launched the Seven Weeks' War against Austria in 1866, with the famous General Helmuth von Moltke defeating the Austrians.

In terms of the peace treaty which followed, Bismarck let Austria off very lightly - Austria gave up Venetia to Italian nationalists while Prussia annexed Schleswig-Holstein, Hannover, and other states and organized the North German Confederation, which formally came into being in 1867.



Kaiser Wilhelm 1 of the first united Germany in history. King of Prussia when that state came to be the premier

German state, he was declared Kaiser ('Caesar') of united Germany on 18 January 1871.

THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR - FRANCE CRUSHED

In 1870, Bismarck maneuvered France into declaring war on Prussia and the North German Confederation over the issue of secession to the Spanish throne.

Propelled by a growing national loyalty, the still independent southern German states backed Prussia. The well trained, well armed and now experienced Prussian army made short work of the French at the famous Battle of Sedan and then made straight for Paris, which was besieged and occupied in 1871. The war ended in total victory for the Prussians.

THE SECOND REICH - A UNITED GERMANY

The ease with which Prussia had beaten the French did not go unnoticed by the southern German states - they fell in line and became part of a unified Germany, whose new emperor, or Kaiser (Caesar), Wilhelm I, was crowned in the Palace of Versailles in 1871. The Second Reich had been created.

The united Germany was Bismarck's creation, and it was universally acknowledged as such. Under his chancellorship, the industrial revolution in Germany took hold, making Germany one of the world's foremost industrialized countries.

The population rose by one third, recovering substantially from the draining wars of the 17th and 18th centuries. Virtually no foreign laborers from anywhere entered the country, helping to maintain the highest degree of racial homogeneity of any major continental power at the time of the beginning of the 20th Century.



BISMARCK SEES CATHOLIC CHURCH AS THREAT TO GERMAN STATE

Bismarck was also keenly aware of the divisive influence the Catholic church had exercised in German history. Bismarck believed, quite correctly, that the Catholic church, which had declared the infallibility of the Pope in 1870, threatened the supremacy of the German state. He therefore started what became called the Kulturkampf ("culture struggle") during which many religious orders were dismissed, their members imprisoned, or exiled. Bismarck also tried to abolish the growing socialist party in Germany, but before he could do so he was dismissed by the new German Kaiser, Wilhelm II.

The age of the unification of Germany saw the great musical traditions of Germany taken to new heights. Franz Peter Schubert, Johannes Brahms, and Richard Wagner were all composers of note during this period.

FIRST WORLD WAR - GREAT LOSS OF LIFE AND KAISER DEPOSED

As a result of colonial competition, inter-European rivalry and growing nationalism, Europe became increasingly divided. By 1907, the continent was split into two camps: the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy, and the Triple Entente of Russia, France, and Britain. The creation of these alliances contributed to the outbreak of World War I (1914-1918).

The course of that catastrophic war, which saw millions of Germans killed, is related in a later chapter. Suffice to say here that it ended in defeat for Germany and Austria with the signing of the Treaty Of Versailles in 1919 and the abdication of the last German king, Kaiser Wilhelm II.



Kaiser Wilhelm II, the third and last Kaiser of united Imperial Germany. He came to the throne after the second Kaiser, Frederic, died after only three months in office. Wilhelm II was to reign from 1888 to 1918 - when the First World War ended the era of Imperial Germany. Wilhelm II fled into exile in the Netherlands, dying there in 1941.

In a climate reeking of revenge, Germany lost Alsace-Lorraine to France and West Prussia to Poland, creating a Polish Corridor between Germany and East Prussia. It also lost its colonies and had to give up most of its coal, trains, and merchant ships, as well as its navy. Germany had to limit its army and submit to Allied occupation of the Rhineland for 15 years.

Germany was also obliged to accept full responsibility for causing the war and, consequently, pay its total cost. This was an outrage, and the Treaty of Versailles came to be known in Germany as the Shame of Versailles. The Germans were no more guilty than anyone else for the war and could not possibly pay all that was demanded.

THE WEIMAR REPUBLIC - CATASTROPHIC INFLATION

The end of the war was marked by massive social unrest and Communist revolutions - most notably in the Communist Spartacus uprising in Berlin in 1919 led by the German Jewish Communists, Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg.

Finally, a new constitution was written for Germany which included a democratically elected

government. Called the Weimar Republic because the first parliament sat in that town, the new German state was racked by problems.

Although the state had been created by Socialists, it was opposed by hard line militant Communists as not being totally Communist, while on the right, groups of disaffected military groupings, arguing that they had been "stabbed in the back" by Communists at home while they were fighting on the front, launched their own coup, the Kapp Putsch of 1920.

In addition to dealing with armed insurrection, the Weimar republic faced severe financial crises. As Germany could not meet reparations requirements, France invaded the Ruhr in 1923 to take over the coal mines, using Black occupation troops. The German government encouraged the Germans to resist passively, printing vast amounts of money to pay them.



Devaluation: German children play with bundles of worthless banknotes, 1924. Below, a 500 million Mark inflation banknote from 1923. An example of the worthlessness of German currency during the hyper inflationary period of the Weimar Republic. Although nominally of huge value - 500 000 000 marks, it would barely buy a loaf of bread, and its currency expired on 1st September 1923.



The resulting inflation, combined with the effects of the Great Depression which started in 1929, wiped out savings, pensions, insurance, and other forms of fixed income, creating a social revolution that destroyed the most stable elements in Germany.

ADOLF HITLER - SAVES GERMANY FROM COMPLETE COLLAPSE

Millions of Germans then turned to either the Communist Party or the National Socialist German Workers' Party of Adolf Hitler - eventually Hitler was legally elected to office by a democratic vote and became supreme ruler of Germany.

The heavy preponderance of German Jews in both the offices of the hated Weimar government and in the German Communist Party, fed the anti-Communist and anti-Jewish sentiment in Germany, something upon which the National Socialist (in German the National Socialist - or Nazi) party was able to capitalize. The significance and effect of Hitler's Germany has been massive, and is detailed in a later chapter.

THE SECOND WORLD WAR - HUGE POPULATION LOSS

The Second World War was possibly the single largest conflict of all time. The losses suffered by Germany were staggering - some seven million Germans were killed, either as combatants or civilians who died in the resultant carpet bombing of Germany.

As a result of the brutal expulsion of Germans from the eastern territories at the end of the war, some two million civilians perished. Additionally the Western Allies managed to starve to death nearly 800,000 German POW's. In total, seven million Germans died unnaturally in the period from 1945 to 1950.

GERMANY OCCUPIED

At the end of the Second World War, Germany's territory was drastically reduced in size and divided up into four occupation zones which eventually crystallized into the democratic Federal Republic of West Germany and the Communist dictatorship of the German Democratic Republic, better known as

East Germany.

The division between East and West Germany became the focal point of the Cold War between the Soviet Union and the United States. The Communist controlled East Germans built a wall around the divided city of Berlin in an attempt to prevent the growing flood of East German refugees from fleeing into western territory. The Berlin Wall became a symbol of the Cold War, with some 3000 Germans being killed trying to cross the wall.

GERMAN REUNIFICATION

The fall of the Soviet Union and the collapse of the Communist power bloc saw the wall being torn down by a deliriously happy German mob in 1989. In October 1990 East and West Germany were formally re-united, boosting the German population to approximately 80 million - including at least 7 million non-German guest workers, or "gastarbeiters".



Germans dance on the Berlin Wall on 9 November 1989. A week previously and they would have been shot by East German border guards. The fall of the Berlin Wall in 1990 symbolized not only the unification of Germany, but of the fall of Communism. Unification brought with it however a host of new problems, including an economic burden for the former West Germany as it struggled to bring the virtually wrecked former Communist East Germany economy on board. The new Germany has also had to deal with huge numbers of legal and illegal immigrants, many of them taking advantage of that country's very liberal asylum laws, which were eventually changed as the flood of asylum seekers from Nonwhite countries became ever greater.

In October 1993, Germany became the 12th and final nation to ratify the Treaty on European Union, also known as the Maastricht Treaty. In 1994, the last Russian and Allied troops left Berlin, the first time in 49 years that there had been no foreign troops occupying the city.

POPULATION SHIFTS

It was only in the last quarter of the 20th Century that Germany, like its European neighbors, began to allow Nonwhite foreigners into its borders in any significant numbers, mainly from Turkey but also of late from Africa and Asia. At the end of the 20th Century, fully 10 percent of the German population was Nonwhite. These developments and their significance are discussed under a separate chapter.

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CHAPTER 39 : THE DOOMED EMPIRE - AUSTRIA AND HUNGARY

The histories of Austria and Hungary have been intertwined for nearly 1900 years: first as part of the Roman Empire, then both invaded by successive waves of Asiatic Nonwhite invaders; then united as the Austro-Hungarian Empire; and then as German satellites during the Second World War. Both nations have dramatically influenced the course of events in Europe, and some of the most important racial battles which kept the Huns, Avars and Ottomans from destroying Europe, were fought on Austrian and Hungarian soil. No overview of White history can then afford not to review the progress of these nations.

PRE-EMPIRE AUSTRIA

ANCIENT AUSTRIA - SITE OF HALSTATT AND URNFELD CULTURES

Austria was the site of not only an Old European culture which left scattered megalithic monuments in the country, but also some of the most famous early iron age sites in Europe: excavations at Hallstatt near Salzburg have produced some of the best preserved early Indo-European artifacts - an intricate wagon being the most famous, although pottery and other items have also been recovered, all dating from before 1000 BC.

As a result of the place in which they were found, these artifacts are known generally as the Hallstatt Culture. Similarly, other early Indo-European finds in the region have become known as the Urnfeld Culture - the existence of many grave sites containing urns and intricate pottery giving rise to this name.

ROMAN OCCUPATION

The Celtic tribes occupying the area now known as Austria were quickly overrun in 15 BC by the expanding Romans. Recognizing the region as holding the natural defenses to northern Italy, the Romans built a number of important forts and towns in Austria, some of which have survived to become modern day Austrian towns.

GERMANIC INVASIONS AFTER ROMAN DECLINE

The Romans never managed to conquer the Germanic tribes lying to the north of Austria, and by the time of the decline of the Romans, these Germanic tribes had started invading Austria as well, starting around the year 166 AD.

The last Roman frontier outposts collapsed by the 4th Century AD, and the entire region was taken over by Germanics from the north.

Thereafter followed a period of traditional Germanic tribalism, with each region having its own king, often at war with one another.

CHARLEMAGNE AND THE EASTERN MARK

During the 8th Century, the Frankish King Charlemagne conquered the region, Christianized it at sword point and created military bases in the eastern regions to serve as a buttress against the invading Asiatics whom he had defeated in their attempt to overrun White Europe.

OTTO I FOUNDS AUSTRIA 955 AD

When the Asiatic Magyars were defeated by the German king, Otto I, at the Battle of the Lechfeld in 955 AD, the German monarch created a new formal government in Charlemagne's Ostmark. In this way the country of Austria began to take form. In addition to this, Otto I was also named by the Pope as Emperor of the refounded Holy Roman Empire in the same year.



Otto I (912-973 AD), the founder of Austria: He defeated the Nonwhite Asiatic Magyar invasion at the Battle of Lechfeld in 955 AD, and thereafter created a formal government in the region now known as Austria. Otto's other exploits were legion - in 951 AD he marched to Italy to assist Adelaide, the widowed Queen of Lombardy, against a usurper, one Berengar II. Otto defeated Berengar and married Adelaide, thereby becoming ruler of northern Italy. When he returned to Germany, he crushed a rebellion of nobles led by his son Liudolf, and halted a Hungarian invasion in 955 AD. In 962 AD he was crowned Holy Roman emperor - but the next year he deposed Pope John XII and had Leo VIII elected in his stead. His other son - a faithful one - married the Theophano, daughter of the Byzantine emperor Romanus II.

THE HOUSES OF BABENBURG AND HABSBURG

Under the rule of two German noble houses, the Babenbergs and the Habsburgs, the Austrian Empire gradually increased in size and improved its infrastructure: although a period of unrest followed the death of the last Babenberg, this was halted by the first Habsburg king, Rudolf I, who, after defeating Bohemian forces attempting to annex the country, established the Habsburg dynasty which was to dominate Austrian history until its collapse in 1919.

By the mid 1550s, the Habsburg Empire had in fact grown so large in territorial terms, that it included Spain. It was then divided into two administrative parts - a Spanish and Austrian branch under separate Habsburg rulers.

THE THIRTY YEARS WAR - HOUSE OF HABSBURG DEFEATED

The spread of the Protestant rebellion against Catholicism spread to the Austrian Empire. In 1618 a Protestant rebellion became a European wide conflict known as the Thirty Years' War.

This conflict was fought mainly on German soil, after a Catholic king of Austria had been deposed by Protestant rebels. A third of all of Germany's population was killed in this battle between Catholic and Protestant. Ultimately the House of Habsburg were defeated at the end of the Thirty Years' War, and by the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648, their centralized control of the Empire was reduced to a loose union of independent states.



A Great White Hero: Prince Eugene of Savoy (1663-1736). Although always thought of as an Austrian general, he was in fact born in Paris of French parents. His mother was however was exiled by the French King Louis XIV,

and Eugene renounced his French citizenship and joined the Austrian army. He took part in many intercontinental European wars, notably against the armies of Louis XIV, but it was his continual victories against the Nonwhite Turks that brought him his greatest fame. In 1697, as commander of the Austrian army in Hungary, he utterly defeated the Nonwhites at the Battle of Senta. In 1716 he again led an army - this time consisting of Hungarians - against the Turks and defeated them at the battles of Peterwardein, Timisoara and Belgrade. In 1781 he led a decisive rout of the Nonwhite armies which forced the Turks back even further south down the Balkans.

THE OTTOMAN INVASION

No sooner was the Thirty Years War ended, then the Nonwhite Turkish Ottomans invaded from the south east, pushing up from their bridgehead in the Balkans. Vienna itself was besieged by the Turks in 1683 - a combined White army of Austrians, Germans and Poles united and smashed the Nonwhite army, forcing it to retreat south back into the Balkans. Pursuing the Ottomans led to the Austrians occupying the territory later to become known as Hungary.

WARS AND NAPOLEON

Thereafter followed a series of internal wars and conflicts with neighbors which culminated in the Seven Years War fought from 1756 to 1763, as a result of which Austria lost important provinces (Silesia and Bohemia) to the German state of Prussia.

From 1792 to 1815, Austria was dragged into the general European conflict which started with the French Revolution and then the Napoleonic Wars.

Invaded by Napoleon's armies, Austria lost its sovereignty and in 1806, Napoleon formally abolished the Holy Roman Empire. Rising in rebellion, Austria was however to form part of the combined anti-Napoleonic forces which finally defeated the French imperialist adventure, and the country gained considerable prestige as a result.

Following Napoleon's defeat and exile in 1814, the Congress of Vienna in 1815 re-established the House of Habsburg and its territories.

METTERNICH BOLSTERS THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE

After the Napoleonic Wars, Austria was dominated by its king appointed chancellor, Prince Clemens von Metternich, who, by a combination of conflict and diplomacy, made the Austrian Habsburg Empire the leading power on the continent. A stern autocrat, Metternich was taken by surprise by the 1848 rebellions in Europe, which forced many Royal houses to allow limited constitutional and social reforms. Metternich resigned in the face of a peasant's revolt in Vienna, and the king introduced a parliamentary government. This was however abolished shortly afterwards by the king, who opposed any form of elected government.



Prince Clemens von Metternich (1773-1859), a fine Nordic Austrian. A skilled diplomat, he played a major role in creating the coalition which led to the final downfall of Napoleon, and was a major player at the Congress of Vienna. Metternich dominated European politics as the avowed champion of conservatism, bitterly opposed the pro-democratic reforms that were gaining ground on that continent in Napoleon's wake. Taken unaware by the revolutions of 1848, he was forced to resign.

UNION WITH HUNGARY - 1866

However, after 1848, Austria suffered several territorial losses. The Hungarians, who had been under Austrian rule since the end of the Ottoman invasion declared themselves independent. Defeated in the Seven Weeks' War (1866) with Prussia, Austria was weakened and forced to compromise with the Hungarians. In terms of this compromise, the two countries agreed to share a common monarch, but retained separate constitutions, governments and languages - creating the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

ANCIENT HUNGARY

The territory known today as Hungary was first occupied by Old European peoples. They were however some of the first to be displaced by the Indo-European invaders of the 4th millennium BC, and the region eventually became settled by the Slavic Indo-European tribes.

The latter tribes formed the basis of the population in that country, although they have been subjected to a number of other racial and sub-racial influences over the centuries.

Under the Indo-European Slavic rule, the territory was settled agriculturally, as it had been by the Old European peoples before.

This primarily agricultural way of life did not lead to the creation of any massive urban centers on the scale of Western Europe, and did also not create a professional warrior class, something that the Slavs were soon to regret.

ROMAN OCCUPATION - EASTERN LIMITS OF EMPIRE

Disorganized, the Slavic peoples in Hungary were easily overrun by the Romans, who incorporated them into the eastern European province of Pannonia. Sited as it was at the furthestmost point east of the continental Roman Empire, the province of Pannonia was always the first to bear the brunt of all invasions: it was the first to fall to the Germanic tribes - the first to fall to the Asiatic invasion of Atilla the Hun, the first to be reoccupied by Germanics after the Huns left Europe, and the first to be invaded by the Asian Avars.

ROMAN COLLAPSE - PERIOD OF INSTABILITY

The collapse of the Roman Empire left the peoples of Hungary more or less to its own devices. By this time it was a mish mash of contesting Slavic tribes with small pockets of Asiatics, leftovers from the Hunnish and Avar invasions, scattered throughout the land.

After the death of Atilla the Hun, the Germans reoccupied the area, only to be expelled again, in the 5th Century, by the Asiatic Avars, whose power was eventually smashed by the Frankish King Charlemagne. The remainder of the Avars were virtually exterminated by the Slavic Moravians who proceeded to seize the north eastern parts of Hungary.

The rest of the territory was occupied by Charlemagne who further extended his series of buffer states against the Asiatic invaders, a process which was completed by 797.

MAGYAR INVASION - 896 AD

In 896 AD, the Magyars - a mixed race of mainly Asiatic sub-racial types - invaded Europe. In quick succession they conquered Moravia, raided Italy and made incursions into Germany. The Magyars ranged over central Europe for more than half a century. In 955, they devastated Bourgogne and were only finally defeated by the German king, Otto I, in 955, at the Battle of Lechfeld.

After this battle, the shattered remnants of the Magyars withdrew to the east, leaving behind only scattered traces of their people and racial mix, which soon became largely absorbed into the still overwhelmingly Slavic stock of the region.

CHRISTIANITY AND THE FIRST HUNGARIAN STATE

The first major convert to Christianity in Hungary was a leading noble, Duke Guza, in 975. His son Stephen I, was raised a Christian, and it was he who became the first King of Hungary - and the first to arrange the country into a formal state structure. Granted formal recognition by the Pope in 1001,

Stephen made Christianity the official religion of the state, suppressing all paganism with typical Christian zeal.



Stephen I, the first King of Hungary. Recognized by the Pope as the formal ruler of that land in the year 1001, Stephen set about trying to enforce Christianity upon the largely pagan German and Slav population - who then spent most of their time till then fighting off the Asiatic Magyar invaders. When Stephen died in 1038, the country collapsed into anarchy which culminated in serious anti-Christian outbursts. This created the pretext the Christian Byzantine empire needed to step in and annex the country. This contemporary illustration of Stephen is however interesting in its own right. It shows very clearly that the Asiatic Magyar invasion had been all but wiped out, despite their name sticking to that land. Very few Hungarians are actually Magyars, as only a small percentage of that Asiatic race were absorbed into the White population.

MOST HUNGARIANS NOT DESCENDANTS OF MAGYARS

Although the original Magyars had been mixed race Asiatics and had been largely killed or dispersed by the German armies, small numbers remained in Hungary and other countries in Eastern Europe. Partly as a result of the absorption of these already mixed race Asiatics into a portion of the Slavic population in Eastern Europe, the Hungarians began to call themselves Magyars - although for the majority of Hungarians, this is not an accurate reflection of their racial roots. The original Magyars were Asiatic in origin, and the modern Hungarians are for the greatest part descendants of original Indo-European Slavic sub-racial types.

The term "Magyar" has therefore taken on a misleading meaning in many historical works - when reference is made to Hungary as being "Magyar" this is in fact a cultural term rather than a racial association with the original Nonwhite Magyar tribes.

Nonetheless, as a result of these continuous invasions and counter invasions lasting nearly 1,000 years, certain parts of the modern Hungarian population show slight signs of Asiatic ancestry - they are a minority and easily identifiable upon sight.

Hungary also has a significant amount of Gypsies - in fact the Hungarian gypsies are Indians who entered Eastern Europe in small numbers in wanderings around the time of the first Asiatic invasions. (A 1993 law allows the Gypsies - who at that stage were Hungary's largest minority - to set up their own self governing councils.)

ANTI-CHRISTIAN UPRISINGS

When King Stephen died in 1038 without an heir, the country went into a virtual state of anarchy. Anti-Christian pagan uprisings broke out and this, combined with typical Christian infighting over secession to the throne, created the opportunity for a new foreign invasion - that of the Byzantine Empire.

BYZANTINE INVASION

Although the Byzantines seized control of the Hungarian throne, they were themselves too weak to hold on to it for any sustained period, and Byzantine influence declined with the 1180 death of the Emperor Manuel I Comnenus, who had initiated the Byzantine invasion in the first place. Hungary was then invaded in 1241 by Nonwhite Mongols - they only stayed a year and left after looting whatever they could.

FRENCH KINGS

With the death of the Hungarian king, Andrew III, in 1301, the last of the family claimants from Stephen I's line became extinct. In 1308 the French Charles Robert of Anjou secured election as the new Hungarian king Charles I, creating the first western royal family house in Eastern Europe. Charles I made a number of territorial acquisitions, including Bosnia and part of Serbia during his reign, and through his marriage to Elizabeth, the sister of Kazimierz III, King of Poland, he ensured the succession of his son Louis to the Polish crown.

FIRST OTTOMAN INVASION

It was during Charles I's reign that the Nonwhite Ottoman Turks first penetrated the southern parts of Hungary. Advancing slowly up the Balkans, the Turks were met in battle by a new Hungarian king, Sigismund, in 1396, and although the Hungarian army was defeated, the Ottoman advance was checked for nearly 50 years.

JANOS HUNYADI DEFEATS MUSLIMS AT BELGRADE 1456

The Turks regathered their strength and launched a new assault: Hungary was saved from complete annihilation by the military leader, Janos Hunyadi, who won renown for breaking the Muslim siege of Belgrade (one of Hungary's major southern towns at the time) in 1456.



Janos Hunyadi, a great White hero of Hungary, breaking the Nonwhite siege of the city of Belgrade in 1456. For this act and other deeds against the Turks, he is still remembered to this day as a national figure in Hungary.

SECOND OTTOMAN INVASION - 1521 AD

In August 1521, an Ottoman army under Sultan Suleiman I, captured Belgrade, the major Hungarian stronghold in the south. In 1526, Suleiman crushed the Hungarian army at Mohacs, where King Louis II and more than 20,000 White soldiers were killed.

After his army captured the city of Buda in September 1526, Suleiman withdrew from most of central Hungary. The Austrians then seized parts of western Hungary while other parts of the former Hungarian kingdom were either ruled by the Ottomans or local princes.

AUSTRIAN INVASION

For the next 150 years, Hungary was the scene of almost continuous strife, chiefly among three groups: the Catholic Habsburg (Austrian) Holy Roman emperors, who seized control over the western portion; the Muslim Ottomans, who controlled the central area; and groups of the Protestant native nobility, especially from Transylvania.

After expelling the Ottomans, the Habsburgs quenched rebel resistance in 1711, made religious and political concessions, and established a generally tranquil empire for nearly a century.



For nearly 150 years the city of Buda (today united with a neighboring town called Pest, hence Budapest) had been held by the Nonwhite Turks, and was an important center of Ottoman power in the West. Once the Turkish armies had however been defeated at their second attempt to take Vienna, the Austrian King Leopold 1, sent his armies into Hungary in conjunction with other White allies, and on 2 September 1686, crushed the Nonwhites in Buda itself. Here the leading White Austrian soldiers enter the city, literally riding over the dead Turks.

THE THIRD INDEPENDENT HUNGARIAN STATE AND UNION WITH AUSTRIA

By 1849, the ideals of social and constitutional reform, the mainspring of the 1848 revolutions in Europe, had reached Hungary, and in 1849, the Hungarian parliament proclaimed the country's independence from Austria. However, the Austrian Emperor, Francis Joseph I, in alliance with Russia's Tsar Nicholas I, invaded and suppressed the Hungarian revolutionary government. In the midst of the suppression of another Hungarian uprising, Austria became embroiled in a short conflict with Prussia.

So weakened, Austria was forced to agree to a compromise with Hungary: the country could have its own legislature, language and constitution, but in exchange the two countries would share a common emperor.

This compromise created the Austro-Hungarian Empire which lasted until 1919.

THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN EMPIRE

With Austria and Hungary united, but still retaining their own individual constitutional structures, it was inevitable that the subjugated peoples within the borders of the Empire, particularly in Eastern Europe, would start agitating for similar independence, imitating the arrangement between Austria and Hungary. The result was that after a fairly short time, serious unrest brewed in the Balkan regions of the Empire - eventually this would lead to the First World War.

EXPANSION

The territory of the Austro-Hungarian Empire expanded still further when the White Russians defeated the Nonwhite Muslim Ottoman Turks in 1878. An international congress (the Congress of Berlin) was held to divide up the last Ottoman possessions. Austria-Hungary was given permission to administer the territories of Bosnia and Herzegovina, with other territories being divided up equally amongst the other powers and some becoming independent, with the most prominent of these independent states being Serbia.

Eventually the Austro-Hungarian Empire was to include the territories known today as Austria, Hungary, Slovakia, and the Czech Republic, as well as parts of present-day Poland, Rumania, Italy, Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.





The majestic Hungarian Parliament buildings, the largest in the world, on the banks of the Danube river which flows through the center of Budapest. The building dates from the time of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. This picture was taken during the 1980s - the then Communist government added a large red star to the central steeple of the building, visible in the inset. The star was removed when Communism collapsed.

TRIPLE ALLIANCE

The rise of a united Germany had created a German power to match that of the Austro-Hungarian empire. Defeated in a short conflict over control of some German states, the Austro-Hungarian Empire aligned itself with the united states of Germany. In 1879, Germany and Austria-Hungary signed a formal alliance, joined by Italy in 1882. The pact was called the Triple Alliance.

SERBIA AND THE ORIGINS OF THE FIRST WORLD WAR

By 1903, the Serbian state felt strong enough to start trying to create a united Slavic state in southern Europe. Its first natural areas of expansion were the territories of Bosnia and Herzegovina, still administered by the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The latter, viewing with alarm the growing power of the Serbian state, formally annexed the two territories in 1908, to the great protest of Serbia and its ally, Russia. The subsequent assassination of the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne in 1914 by a Serbian nationalist, led to Austria declaring war on Serbia which led to the outbreak of the First World War.

AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN EMPIRE BREAKS UP INTO REPUBLICS

Defeat for the Austro-Hungarian armies on the battlefields of the First World War and mutinies and rebellions at home caused the Austro-Hungarian Empire to suddenly and dramatically break up. In October 1918, the Czechs proclaimed themselves independent in Prague; the Hungarian government announced its complete separation from Austria in November, and in the same month both Austria and Hungary signed armistices with the Allied armies. By mid November 1918, the last Habsburg Emperor had abdicated and within days, Austria and Hungary had declared themselves republics.

THE NEW AUSTRIAN REPUBLIC DEPRIVED OF BOHEMIA AND MOROVIA

When the Austrian Republic came into existence, it was dramatically smaller than the Empire from which it had emerged - a small region consisting of some 7 million people, devastated by the war and economically crippled.

The break-up of the Empire had deprived Austria of its major industrial regions, Bohemia and Morovia - the only realistic option remaining for the German speaking population was union with Germany, but this was specifically forbidden by the Treaty of Versailles which ended the First World War. A democratic state was then instituted in Austria in 1920. Political instability continued, culminating in a Communist riot in Vienna in 1927, when the main court building, the Palace of Justice, was burned down, leading to police firing on the demonstrators, during which at least 100 people were killed.

DEMOCRACY SUSPENDED UNDER ENGELBERT DOLLFUSS

Growing instability led the Austrian chancellor, Engelbert Dollfuss, to abolish the democratic constitution and to institute rule by absolute decree in 1933. In February 1934, the Communists were outlawed, and later in that same year all other parties - including the fledgling Austrian Nazi party - were banned. Austria officially became a one party state under Dollfuss. The repression of all political activities led to an attempted Nazi coup in July 1934 - which was unsuccessful, but which saw Dollfuss killed.

His replacement, Kurt von Schuschnigg, did not deviate from Dollfuss' policies, leading him into direct conflict with the now mighty Germany under Adolf Hitler.

UNION WITH GERMANY 1938 OVERWHELMINGLY SUPPORTED

The continual instability within Austria provided the opportunity for which the originally Austrian born Hitler had been searching: in 1938, German troops entered Austria and the country was annexed to Germany under a regional government set up by the Austrian Nazi Party, with the region becoming known under its original name, the Ostmark. A plebiscite, adjudged by the League of Nations to be free and fair, was then held. A massive 98 per cent of all Austrians voted in favor of the union, or Anschluss, with Germany.



A poster from the referendum held in Austria urging Austrians to vote yes to the union with Germany in 1938. It reads 'People to people and blood to blood'. In the referendum, which was adjudged by the League of Nations to be free and fair, 98% of Austrians voted yes.

WORLD WAR II - SOVIET OCCUPATION AT WAR END

As part of the rising German Reich, Austria shared in the economic prosperity of that country, but also in its defeat during the Second World War.

The country was first occupied by Soviet troops, although it was later placed under Western Allied control, and a limited democratic government (limited because it ironically used Nazi laws to ban the Nazi party and to prevent publicly identified former Nazis from voting or standing for office) was instituted in 1946.

INDEPENDENCE IN 1955 UNDER RESTRICTIONS

The four Allies and Austria signed a State Treaty in May 1955, in terms of which the Austrian Republic was formally re-established.

The treaty prohibited union between Austria and Germany, denied Austria the right to own or manufacture nuclear weapons or guided missiles, and obligated Austria to give the Soviet Union part of its crude oil output for years to come.

In 1957, the issue of the territory of South Tirol resurfaced. This German speaking region had been incorporated into Italy at the end of the First World War, and nationalists once again became active against Italian rule in the mid 1950's, which included a limited guerilla sabotage campaign against Italian infrastructure.

Finally in 1970, a settlement was reached between Italy and Austria whereby a 1946 agreement was implemented guaranteeing the linguistic and cultural rights of the German-speaking Austrian population in South Tirol.

ECONOMIC GROWTH AND PROSPERITY

Recovering well from the trepidations of the war, Austria reorganized its economy around state owned banks and infrastructure and soon became one of the most prosperous countries of western Europe, settling down to a period of peace and stability which it had never seen during its previous 1500 years of formal existence. Austria also maintained a very high degree of racial homogeneity through all these events - the major factor contributing to her ability to survive.

IMMIGRATION

Situated as it is at the "door" to Western Europe, and attractive in its own right as a destination for Third World immigrants, the issue of immigration into Austria has also come to dominate political and social life in Austria in the last quarter of the 20th Century, causing the rise of anti-immigrant parties such as the Freedom Party under Jorg Haider. The implications of these immigration trends are discussed in a later chapter.

AUSTRIANS IN HISTORY

The influence on world history by the Austrians has been marked. Many thought of as Germans were in fact Austrians, although the dividing lines between Austrians and Germans has always been sufficiently blurred to allow for them to be called Germans: racially speaking they are in any event of virtually identical stock. The classical composers Wolfgang Mozart, Franz Hayden, Franz Schubert and Wilhelm Bruckner, were all Austrians.

The most famous Austrian of all time however, still remains Adolf Hitler.

HUNGARY - THE FOURTH INDEPENDENT HUNGARIAN STATE

No sooner had Hungary declared itself independent from the Austro-Hungarian Empire, than a Communist Revolution, led by the Jewish Communist Bela Kun (whose real name was Cohen) broke out. Committing terrible atrocities, the Communists faced a popular anti-Communist rebellion which forced Kun and his communists to flee.

In 1920, the country was proclaimed a constitutional monarchy. This new government accepted a peace treaty officially ending Hungary's participation in the First World War, called the Treaty of Trianon, which greatly reduced Hungarian territory. The treaty stripped away about two-thirds of Hungary's territory, including Transylvania, Croatia, and Slovakia.

RISE OF HUNGARIAN NATIONALISM

Partly as a result of admiration for Adolf Hitler's Germany, and partly out of a desire to see the humiliating terms of the Treaty of Trianon overturned, Hungary was dominated by the rise of a nationalistic fervor during the years leading up to the Second World War, culminating in Hungary sharing in the territorial division of the state of Czechoslovakia in 1938.

A formal alliance with Germany followed in January 1939, when Hungary signed the international anti-Communist alliance - the Anti-Comintern Alliance - whose members included Germany, Italy, Japan, Rumania, Bulgaria, Spain, Denmark and Finland.

SECOND WORLD WAR

The invasion of the Soviet Union by Germany in June 1941, saw Hungarian troops supporting the German army in full combat roles, fighting on the Eastern Front with great distinction. During the war years, a fully fledged pro-Nazi government was installed in Hungary.

German defeat led to Soviet occupation of the country in late 1944, despite Hungarian SS units putting up a desperate and heroic defense of Budapest to the very last man. Many hundreds of thousands of ethnic Germans and pro-German Hungarians fled Hungary at this time.

SOVIET ERA

Despite assurances to the contrary, the Soviet Union set up a pro-Communist government in Hungary, which although claiming to be democratic, was little more than a Soviet satellite state. Economic decline followed the Sovietisation of Hungarian society, which saw the country being forced to pay reparations to the Soviet Union for its pro-German stance during the war adding to the country's struggling economic woes.

THE 1956 UPRISING

Popular discontent mounted in 1956, when public demonstrations against Soviet rule were encouraged by a similar outbreak of rebellion in Poland. Political revolutionaries proclaimed Hungary a neutral state, and the Hungarian uprising of that year began. Marked by a vehement anti-Jewish streak, the anti-Semitic feelings were heightened when it emerged that many leading Communist Party officials were Hungarian Jews.

The Soviet Union then intervened militarily, sending tanks into Budapest and crushing the lightly armed rebels. Hundreds of Hungarians were executed, thousands more imprisoned, and nearly 200,000 fled the country. A new Communist dictatorship was installed, and the punishment of rebels continued for years, instituting a reign of terror so penetrating that there was never again any uprising in Hungary.



Uprising! Hungarians turn to armed resistance in an attempt to drive out the Communists in 1956. Here groups of Hungarian patriots wave the Hungarian flag atop a captured Soviet tank in Budapest. The world stood by while a Soviet army unit attacked the city and after fierce street battles ensued for days, but in the end the superior Soviet military machine crushed the rebellion.

POST COMMUNIST HUNGARY

After the collapse of the Soviet Union and Communism in 1989, Hungary's constitution was changed to allow for multiparty democracy and the country's name changed to the Republic of Hungary. The transformation from Communism to free enterprise was difficult, and the Hungarian economy struggled to get back on its feet.

IMMIGRATION

Largely because of its geographical position, Hungary has served as a point of entry, along with other Balkan states, for waves of illegal Third World immigrants entering Western Europe. This development is discussed in a later chapter.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Forty

The Russian Empire: 862 AD to 1917 AD

The land which ultimately compromised the Russian Empire (which lasted for 1055 years before transforming itself into the Soviet Union) was hugely significant for three major reasons:

- it included the Caucasus area, the original source of the Indo-European peoples;
- it was the White peoples of this area who bore the brunt of the great Asiatic invasions of Europe; and
- it was this region which was the first important power to be seized by the Communists, which had ramifications far beyond Russia itself.

For these reasons alone, an understanding of the origins and tribulations of this great nation are vital to any understanding of world history.

Ancient Russia

The south of Russia, in the region between the Black and Caspian sea, has the distinction of being the original source of the Nordic Indo-European peoples who came to dominate Europe and much of the world. Unfortunately, the great Asiatic invasions which swept up out of the east overran this region, starting during the time of the Western Roman Empire, and most traces of this original White homeland were destroyed by the Mongolian invaders.

Nonetheless, the name often used to describe Whites: Caucasians; is derived from the Caucasus mountains in this region and serves as a constant reminder of this first and original Nordic homeland.

Indo-European Tribes

Amongst the Indo-European tribes who made up the early inhabitants of the vast stretches of Russia were the Cimmerians, Scythians, and Sarmatians, as well as the easternmost branch of the great Celtic peoples, the Slavs. All of these groupings were overwhelmingly Nordic in sub-racial make-up, although in scattered regions mixing did take place with some Old European types who had established small Neolithic settlements, mainly in the south.

Indo-European Colonies

Some of the Indo-European tribes who settled in Greece and who established the Classical Grecian culture, themselves created isolated colonies back up into the Black Sea region and on the Crimean peninsula. One of the last great Indo-European tribes to emerge from southern Russia were the Goths, who established their first state, on the Black Sea Coast.



Detail of pectoral from Ordzhonikidze, Russia, circa 350 BC. Historical Museum, Kiev.

Asiatic Invasions

The 4th century AD invasion by the Nonwhite Asiatic Huns destroyed the Black Sea Gothic state, pushing the survivors westwards where they were eventually to sack Rome and settle Spain. The Huns pushed as far west as Vienna before turning back, but continued to occupy a large part of southern and central Russia for several hundred years.

After the Huns, came further Asiatic invasions, including the Avars, Magyars, and the Khazars - the last of whom converted to Judaism and provided many of the Jews of Eastern Europe and Russia and then, after a further period of assimilation with the Europeans, many European Jews.

By the time of the Asiatic invasions, most of Russia's White population in the south had been either killed or absorbed into the waves of Asians: in the north the Slavs and other Indo-European tribes existed as vassals, paying annual tributes to the Huns in the south.

It is unknown how many Whites perished - either through being killed or being absorbed into the Asiatic gene pool through this invasion: but it was certainly hundreds of thousands, if not millions; bearing in mind that the original source of the Indo-European peoples in the south, which had produced almost all the people of Europe, was extinguished in the course of the Mongol invasion.

It was perhaps the single most important racial genocide in history.

Vikings

An attack by the Khazars upon the Slavic tribes led the latter to call upon their Nordic Scandinavian

cousins for help. In 856 AD, Rurik, ruler of Southern Jutland and Friesland in Denmark, answered the call and came to his racial cousins' aid, warding off the Khazar attack.

By 862, Rurik had become ruler of the city of Novgorod; and with two other Vikings, Dir and Askold, gained the kingship of the city of Kiev and successfully organized the defense of the territories belonging to these two city states.

The name Russia came from a tribe incorporated into the tenuous unity of these city states, called the Rukhs-As. This tribe was the very last Indo-European tribe (also called the Alans) who emerged from the Caucasus region just before it was overrun and destroyed by the Mongols.



Seated goat herd, Russia, 527 AD Now in the St. Petersburg Museum.

Oleg and Igor

Rurik was succeeded in by one Oleg (who ruled as regent for Rurik's underage son, Igor). Oleg led the city of Novgorod into an expansionist phase, with the first major acquisition being the ancient Indo-European city of Kiev, which was incorporated into a new united state in 882.

Oleg also subdued and incorporated many neighboring tribes, launching raids into the Mongol held territory in the south and penetrated as far as Constantinople in 911, where a trading treaty was signed with the rulers of the city in that year. Igor took the throne in 912, but died in 945, and was succeeded by his widow Olga. She became the first Christian ruler in Russia in 955. In 964, Olga abdicated in favor of her son, Svyatoslav, the first prince of the house of Rurik to have a Slavic name.

Svyatoslav Attacks the Khazars, Pechenegs and Bulgars

Svyatoslav devoted much of his time to recapturing the south of Russia from the Mongols and Asiatics, who still held large stretches of the land: he attacked and decimated the Jewish Khazars, scattering their survivors all over central and western Russia.

Svyatoslav then turned his attention to the remaining Asiatics who had occupied land along the Danube River. In 967, he overran the last of these Asiatic tribes, incorporating large areas of Bulgaria into Russia in the process.

Svyatoslav then hurried back to Kiev where the city was under attack from a new Nonwhite attack led by Patzinak Turks: eventually he would be killed in an engagement with the Turks in 972.

Vladimir the Great

Upon Svyatoslav's death, his empire passed to his youngest son, Vladimir, who converted to Christianity in 988, and declared that religion the official state religion of the growing Russian Empire. After divorcing his several pagan wives, Vladimir cemented the links between Byzantine and Russia by marrying the sister of one of Byzantine Emperors, Basil II.

Yaroslav the Wise

Vladimir's death caused a period of bloody internecine conflict in his family over succession to the throne: his eldest son, Svyatopolk The Accursed, took the throne after murdering his brothers Boris and Gleb, but was deposed by his younger brother Yaroslav.

In 1017, Yaroslav launched a race war against a renewed attack by the Nonwhite Pechenegs, who had once again invaded Russian territory from the south. Yaroslav decisively defeated the Nonwhites in that same year, and to celebrate this great victory, the St. Sophia's church in central Kiev was built, a magnificent edifice which still stands to this day. Yaroslav became a Russian hero for this deed, and was given the name Yaroslav the Wise as a result of adulation accorded to him.

The Dispersion of the Russian Empire

The unity Yaroslav had worked so hard to achieve was broken up upon his death, when the empire was divided up amongst his sons, none of whom wanted to submit their territory to the rule of another. The state was then broken up into a number of principalities and duchies, all of whom competed with each other on a commercial and some times military level, for importance. Eventually one duchy came to dominate: the Duchy of Moscow.

Genghis Khan

In 1223, the Nonwhite Mongol armies of Genghis Khan invaded the southeast of Russia. With the last of the Hunnish outposts only having been crushed a short while prior to the Khan's attack, a number of Russian principalities banded together in a military alliance to try and ward off the new Asiatic invasion.

In 1223, the united White Russian army met the Nonwhite Mongols at the Battle of the Kalka River

(now Kal'mius River) - and the Whites were utterly defeated. Routed, the Russians fell back and awaited the worst - which then seemed not to come.

The Mongol armies came to a standstill while a new leader was elected after the early death of Genghis: only in 1237, under the leadership of Genghis' grandson, Batu, did they advance into Russia again.

Kiev Sacked

Marching northwards, Batu attempted to break through into northern Russia and destroy the stock of Indo-European peoples residing there: a combination of unfavorable terrain and determined resistance halted his progress.

Turning westwards, Batu then sacked the ancient city of Kiev in 1240, despite a desperate defense of the city by the White Russians. Batu pushed on into Poland and Hungary before returning to southern Russia, where he established his capital on the lower Volga River, near the present day city of Volgograd (also called Stalingrad in the 20th century). There, Batu founded an Asiatic empire known as the Khanate of the Golden Horde, which was virtually independent of the Mongol Empire.

Racial Effect of the Khanate

The destructive effect of this powerful Nonwhite invasion upon the development of Russia cannot be overemphasized: the seizure by Mongols of large areas of Russia destroyed the elements of self-government by representative assembly that had developed in some Russian cities, arrested the progress of industry and culture, and kept Russia more than two centuries behind the countries of western Europe in terms of technological and philosophical development.

The Mongols devastatingly proved the principle that the people who occupy a region determine the society or civilization in that region.

In southern Russia the nature of the society was changed from that of a budding White civilization to that of a full blown Asiatic society through the replacement of the White population by an Asiatic population.

Massive slices of Russia were depopulated: the region around Kiev, one of the oldest Indo-European cities in Russia, was emptied due to the large scale massacres of Whites carried out by the Asiatics and the resultant mass fleeing of the survivors. Groups of survivors moved further westwards: one such large group, culturally influenced by the Poles and Lithuanians, eventually became known as Belorussians, or White Russians. A second group, formed of the Slavic population from the region of Kiev and adjacent regions, became known as Little Russians, or Malorussians.

The region of Kiev, influenced by foreign languages and customs that were superimposed on the traditions of the old Rus, came to be called Ukraine. In northern Russia, the inhabitants became the principal group of Russian Slavs known as the Great Russians.

Invasion from the West

As if the occupation of southern Russia by the Asiatics was not enough, the Swedes and the bloodthirsty Christian missionaries, the Teutonic Knights from the Baltic, then started penetrating the northernmost parts of Russia.

In 1240, a Swedish army landed on the banks of the Neva River with the intention of seizing the only city of any size not destroyed by the Mongols, Novgorod. The Prince of Novgorod, Alexander Yaroslavevich formed a Russian army against the Swedes: he so utterly defeated the Swedes that he was given the name Alexander Nevsky, meaning "of the Neva."

Two years later the Teutonic Knights, a religious military order established to crush pagans in the Baltic (they physically exterminated thousands of non-Christian Whites who refused to convert to Christianity), also saw fit to push eastward: Alexander led his troops to meet the Germans, crossing the frozen Lake Peipus, and routed them.



On 5 April 1242, the Russian Alexander Nevsky and his troops defeated the German Christian Teutonic Knights at the Battle of Lake Peipus. In this photo, a still taken from a Soviet anti-German documentary film of 1938, Nevski is depicted in personal combat with a Teutonic Knight.

Submission to the Khanate

The northern parts of Russia were in an invidious position: on the one hand, the southernmost parts of their land had been overrun by murderous Asiatics who for the moment were not directly threatening northern Russia: while in the west, bands of crazed White Christians were seizing every opportunity to invade and extend their power.

Picking the best of two evils, Alexander engaged in a skillful diplomatic play: he lowered the risk of attack from the south even further by agreeing to pay an annual tribute to the Asiatic Khanate, an example which was soon followed by the other major principalities in northern Russia.

In this way a measure of stability was restored to northern Russia and the states became powerful

enough to prevent further incursions from the West.

The Growth of Moscow

In 1263, Alexander Nevsky gave the duchy of Moscow to his younger son, Daniel, whose descendants closely adhered to the policy of keeping peace with the Mongols whilst at the same time extending their own territories in the north and center of Russia.

By 1328, one of these descendants, Ivan I, had persuaded the Russian Orthodox Church to take up residence in Moscow. The new status given to Moscow accordingly filtered through to all the remaining Russian principalities: beginning with Ivan, the dukes of Moscow styled themselves princes "of all Russia."



St. Basil's cathedral in Moscow: the center of the Russian Orthodox Church.

War Against the Mongols

By the mid 1300s, the Mongol Khanate had come under pressure from internal dissension: new invasions from other Mongolian tribes weakened the Golden Horde and parts of the Asiatic Empire began to fall away. Seizing the opportunity, Dimitry Donskoy, the then Duke of Moscow, launched the first successful revolt against the Mongols in 1380, by defeating a Mongol army at Kukikovo, on the banks of the Don River.

The Czars

After Constantinople fell to the Ottoman Turks in 1453, the Russian Orthodox church openly declared itself to the successor to Byzantine Christianity: to emphasize this, the double headed eagle, symbol of the Byzantine Emperors, was incorporated into the Muscovite arms. Increasingly the Dukes of Moscow began to present themselves as Czars, or "Caesars".

Ivan III Vasilyevich

The case of Ivan III Vasilyevich became a case in point: he married the niece of the last Byzantine Emperor, Constantine XI, who had been killed during the seizure of Constantinople by the Nonwhite Ottoman Turks. Ivan III extended the power of Moscow significantly: he incorporated the long independent states of Novgorod (1478) and Tver' (1485).

However, Ivan III's greatest achievement came in 1480, when he became the first Russian ruler since Alexander Nevesky to refuse to pay the annual tribute to the Mongols in the south. The Mongols were too disorganized to enforce payment, and this act is formally taken to date the time when Mongol domination ended.

In reality the Mongols remained present: their descendants went on to mix with certain Slavic elements to make up the distinctly mixed race populations of many of the southernmost states such as Kazakhstan, Azijerbajain and others.

Westward Expansion

No longer fearing any resistance from the south, Ivan III turned his attention to the White Christian Teutonic Knight trouble makers in the west: Lithuania was invaded in 1492 and 1500; at the end of hostilities in 1503, Moscow controlled much new territory. Ivan III's successors kept up the aggressive westward expansion, with the regions of Pskov being seized in 1510, followed by Smolensk in 1514.

Ivan the Terrible

Ivan IV Vasilyevich, called The Terrible, inherited the throne in 1533 at the age of three and assumed the throne when he was 17, in 1547. His ascension ceremony marked the first time that a Duke of Moscow was formally called Czar of Russia. In the same year he married Anastasia Romanovna, a member of the noble Romanov family.

The White Cossacks and the Recolonization of the South

Starting in 1552, the southernmost parts of Russia were recolonized by Whites: in that year White Muscovite armies conquered and annexed the Mongol kingdom of Kazan'; in 1556, another Mongol region, Astrakhan, was also annexed.

The colonization and clearing of central and southern Russia was undertaken by rough and ready White adventurers from the north of Russia, who became known as Cossacks: more often than not they were peasants who had fled the feudal serfdom of the principalities in the north to seek their freedom and wealth elsewhere.

The Cossacks came to be concentrated around the Don River basin and the lower Volga, where they played a major role in either killing off the remaining Mongols in the region or dispersing them further eastward and southward. Cossacks also inadvertently caused the annexation of Siberia to the growing Russian state when in 1581, an independent Cossack group settled the region across the Ural mountains (which had always marked the easternmost point of White Russia.) In that year, the partly Mongol tribes of Siberia were subdued by the Cossacks and Ivan then formally annexed the region.

Although Ivan gained his name 'the Terrible' because of the autocratic and harsh nature of his rule, he helped Russia make up a substantial amount of lost ground caused by the Mongol invasion: he paid for the importation of many West European technical experts to modernize Russia, a policy which was followed by almost all of his successors.

Smutnoye Vremya - the Time of Troubles

Ivan III's death was followed by a period of serious civil unrest in Russia, caused by conflict between the peasantry and the nobility and numerous succession crises. After a long period of confusion a Polish army entered Moscow, setting itself up as the power in Russia: the entire country then descended into a state of anarchy.

The Poles were only expelled in 1612 by an alliance of northern Russian principalities. In 1613, Michael Romanov, great-nephew of Anastasia Romanovna, was finally selected as czar, starting the rule of the house of Romanov which would last until 1917.

The Peasant Uprisings

In 1543, a law had been passed legalizing serfdom and ensuring that the peasant class were trapped into this exploitative system: this had been one of the major causes of the runaway peasant movement which had later transformed itself into the Cossacks.

This legal situation was confirmed in 1649, with a new law, which then led to an even greater number of runaway peasants joining the freer Cossack settlements in the south of the country. By 1670, the first great peasant revolt had taken place along the lower Volga, Dnieper and Don Rivers against the cruel feudal system which had been imposed by the Russian nobility.

The uprising was suppressed by government troops: but no reforms were introduced, and a long running social conflict between landowners and peasants was created which would eventually be capitalized upon by the Communists.

Territorial Expansion

The Russian state continued however to expand: in 1654, the Cossacks who had settled in the Ukraine overthrew the Poles who were still occupying the area and were incorporated into the Russian state. This led to a Russian-Polish War which ran from 1654 to 1657, which was won by Russia, resulting in the regaining of the old Russian cities of Smolensk and Kiev, both of which had been lost during the Polish invasion of 1611.

The period from 1682 to 1762, was marked by the continued expansion of Russia, starting with the modernization of the state under Peter the Great.

Peter the Great

The accession of Peter I to the czardom in 1682, marked the beginning of a period during which Russia became a major European power. He changed the face of Russia through a series of decrees to adopt Western European culture and science: to a large degree he was successful, and much of Russia was transformed in this way.

Peter also launched a successful war against the Swedes in what became known as the Great Northern War which ran from 1700 to 1721, at the end of which large parts of the Baltic were seized from the Swedes.

In 1703, Peter began construction of a new capital city on territory seized from the Swedes: the city was eventually to be known as Saint Petersburg (or in the 20th century, Leningrad). In 1714, the seat of government was formally moved to St. Petersburg, away from Moscow.

Peter III

After Peter the Great's death, the Russian throne passed through the hands of a number of incompetents, often placed on the throne as a result of intrigues and conspiracies. Finally Elizabeth Petrovna, the youngest daughter of Peter the Great, ascended to the throne: under her rule from 1741 to 1762, another war with Sweden (1741-1743) saw a part of Finland being added to the Russian territory.

Russia also joined with Austria and France in the Seven Years' War (1756-1763) against Prussia. It was Elizabeth's successor and nephew, Peter III, who saved the Prussian king Frederick the Great's bacon by withdrawing from the conflict at a crucial point when Prussia was about to be crushed. Peter III was an admirer of Frederick and concluded a pact with the Prussians virtually immediately upon his coronation.

However, the intrigues within the Russian state had not subsided: Peter was murdered in the same year he came to the throne (1762) and was succeeded by his German born wife, Catherine, who became known as Catherine the Great.



Catherine, the German born empress of Russia.

Catherine the Great

The ascension of the German born Catherine to the Russian throne marked a new period of great expansion for Russia, starting with a racial war against the Nonwhite Ottoman Empire in the south.

The first Russo-Turkish War broke out in 1768; by the time it ended in 1774, Catherine had seized the Crimea in the Black Sea from Turkish rule, giving Russia its first all year round ice free harbor which allowed for the creation of a standing Russian navy.

The next Russo-Turkish War started in 1787, and by its end in 1792, Catherine had seized all the territory west to the Dniester River. In the west, Catherine also expanded Russian territory: as a result of the partitioning of Poland Russia gained substantial portions of that country by 1795.

Catherine also recognized the potential long term problems caused by the abuses of serfdom in Russia: in 1767, she issued an outline of proposed legal and administrative reforms, particularly in regard to serfs, but they were not carried out because of the opposition of the nobility - a move which would dramatically affect Russian and then world history in time to come.

A Cossack rebellion in 1774, persuaded Catherine herself that liberal reforms would only encourage rebellion: after the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1798, she abandoned all attempts to reform the feudal system in Russia.

The Napoleonic Wars

The internal affairs of Russia then were forced to take a back seat by the outbreak of the Napoleonic

Wars in Europe. In 1805, Russia joined Britain, Austria, and Sweden in the Third Coalition against Napoleon I, but after French armies beat the Prussians at the Battle of Jena in October 1806 and defeated Russia at Friedland in June 1807, Russia did a somersault and allied itself to Napoleon with the 1807 Treaty of Tilsit.

In terms of this agreement, Russia bought the neutrality of France in Russian dealings with Sweden and Turkey: a new Russo-Turkish war had started in 1806, and when Russia was assured that it would no longer be in conflict with France, it turned all its forces south to deal with the Nonwhite Ottomans: the war ended in 1812, with the annexation of Bessarabia from Turkey.

War with Sweden also broke out in 1808: this too ended triumphantly for Russia with the occupation of all of Finland.

In 1813, as a result of war with Iran following the Russian annexation of Georgia in 1801, Russia also acquired Dagestan and other areas.

The French Invasion

Relations with the French gradually deteriorated, and in 1812, Napoleon invaded Russia. The campaign was a disaster for the French emperor. His troops entered Moscow in September that year after losing three quarters of their starting strength of 422,000 men.

The city had however been razed by the Russians before the French got there: starved out, the French were forced to fall back in a retreat which became a rout. Exposed to hunger, cold, and constant guerrilla attacks, only some 10,000 French soldiers made it back to their jump off points.

Russia's prestige in the west grew after this victory - the first major land defeat suffered by Napoleon - and the Russian Czar, Alexander, played an important role in the 1815 Congress of Vienna which settled the territorial issues raised at the end of the Napoleonic Wars. In terms of this congress, the duchy of Warsaw was added to the throne of the Czar, although in practice this did not seriously impinge on that duchy's independence.

Nicholas I

After Alexander's death in 1825, the throne passed to his youngest brother, Nicholas I. His first act was to violently suppress a revolt amongst Russian army officers - known as the Decembrists - who conspired to create a constitutional monarchy.

Nicholas then instituted a number of repressive decrees designed to crush all further potential opposition, including the creation of a secret police and the imposition of complete censorship of all publications.

However, the centuries long repression of the peasant class was now beginning to create its predictable backlash: large masses of people became understandably receptive to radical political propaganda and activists promising them freedom from the thralls of serfdom.

Amongst the Russians who suffered under Nicholas' repressive measures: (which increased in severity after the 1848 revolutions which shook Europe); was the novelist Fyodor Dostoyevsky, who was exiled and sentenced to hard labor.

Territorial Acquisitions

At the same time Nicholas acquired more territory for Russia: a new war with Iran in 1826 ended two years later with the Russian acquisition of part of Armenia; and a Russian fleet joined the British and French vessels that destroyed the Turkish fleet in the Battle of Navarino on 20 October 1827.

In the resulting Russo-Turkish War of 1828, Turkey was routed by the now far more technologically advanced Russians: the 1829 Treaty of Adrianople which ended that war saw Russia acquire the Caucasus region (the first time since the age of Atilla the Hun that the original Indo-European homeland was once again in White hands) and the establishment of a Russian protectorate over the south eastern European territories of Moldavia and Walachia.

In 1830, a major Polish revolt against the Russians began: this was crushed by Russian troops in the following year.

The Crimean War

The seemingly endless list of Russian military victories and acquisitions caused great concern amongst the other European powers: this fear of a growing Russian threat was as good as confirmed by the posting of Russian troops in the Dardanelles at the mouth of the Black Sea after Russia signed an agreement with the Ottomans in 1833.

While visiting England in 1844, Czar Nicholas referred to Turkey as a "dying man" and proposed that England join with Russia in finally destroying the Ottoman Empire. The British refused, suspecting that Nicholas' real aim was the expansion of Russian influence down into the Mediterranean - a perception which was based in reality.

Britain, France and Prussia then formed an alliance which openly declared itself opposed to further Russian expansion into the south eastern parts of Europe or Asia Minor (Turkey). When Russia duly invaded the Turkish provinces along the Danube River in 1853, the alliance declared war on Russia: to Nicholas' astonishment, a combined force of French, British and Turkish troops landed in the Crimea in 1854, starting what became known as the Crimean War.

The Crimean War was marked by a number of events that became legendary:

- it was this war which gave fame to the British nurse Florence Nightingale who tended wounded soldiers day and night, carrying her famous lamp to light the way;
- also during the Crimean War the famous "Charge of the Light Brigade" took place, when a small lightly armed British detachment charged a very heavily defended Russian position, being virtually wiped out in the process; and

- it was after the Crimean War that the British first started handing out the Victoria Cross medals to British servicemen for bravery in action - named after the British queen of the time, the first Victoria Crosses were made out of smelted down Russian cannons seized in Crimea.

By September 1855, after a siege lasting several months, the Russian fortress city of Sevastopol fell to the invading forces: the scale of the defeat forced Russia to surrender. The Treaty of Paris, signed in 1856, which formally ended the war, declared the Black Sea as a neutral area and forbade the Russians from building forts or naval bases in the region.

Expansion in the East

Nicholas died in 1855, but his son and successor, Alexander II, undeterred by the set back in the West, continued his father's policy of expansion, this time switching to the Far East at the expense of the Japanese.

In 1855, the northern half of the island of Sakhalin was occupied; in 1858, the coast south to the city of Vladivostok (which was founded in 1860) was annexed. In central Asia the Russian state was extended almost to the border of India, with the annexations of Toshkent (1865), Bokhara (1866), Samarqand (1868), Khiva (1873), and Kokand (1876).

Another Russo-Turkish War

When the Franco-Prussian war saw Napoleon III beaten and deposed by the Germans, the Russians surmised that the Western European powers' will to resist further Russian aggression against the Turks would dissipate: they were correct in this assumption, as Napoleon III had been the prime mover behind the earlier clash over the ongoing Russo-Turkish wars.

When Serbia and Montenegro revolted against Turkey in 1876, Russia intervened on their behalf, sparking off the Russo-Turkish War of 1877 and 1878. Although Russian territorial gains were made, they were largely negated by the dictates of the Treaty of Berlin which ended that war, in which the European powers once again imposed restrictions on Russian power in the Dardanelles.

Internal Russian Dissent

By the mid 1800s, Russia internally was a hotbed of discontent and radicalism. Centuries of despotic rule, originated by the political developmental setback suffered by the very first Asiatic invasion of Russia, combined with an intransigent nobility, combined to give Russia some of the most appalling working class living standards in the European world.

The large scale industrialization of Russia during the 19th century aggravated matters further, with the workers of the big cities of Moscow and St. Petersburg living under conditions which made even the Victorian slums of industrial England look luxurious.

Under these conditions it was little wonder that pressure for major reform started building up, and the most extreme social revolutionaries of the time, the Communists, started to attract significant support. The Russian czars responded to the growing dissent by ever increasing repression: this led to the

1881 assassination of czar Alexander II by a bomb throwing revolutionary.

Russian Jews

Since the time of the slave trading Jewish Khazar Empire, Jews in Russia had always been the subject of intense anti-Semitic sentiment and as such became one of the most alienated elements of Russian society.

Accused of all manner of crimes, mostly concentrated on financial malpractices and usurious money lending, the Jews were expelled from Russia three times, in 1727, 1738 and 1742. In 1762, Catherine the Great forbade Jews from living in Russia: still unable to get rid of them she then in 1791, limited Jews to living in a an area of land to the west of the country known as the Pale of Settlement.

Tsar Alexander I expelled 20,000 Jews from the province of Vitebsk and Mohilev in 1824, and in 1891, popular anti-Jewish riots took place in Moscow which led to the expulsion of Jews from that city.

By the beginning of the 20th century, Russia was then one of the most thoroughly anti-Jewish countries in the world: it was therefore unsurprising that an overwhelming number of Jews were active in the revolutionary anti-Czar movements: a preponderance which ironically fed the anti-Semitism of the Russian state as it found itself struggling with Communist revolutionaries who more often than not were Jews.

From this time the association of Jews with Communism was to take hold and spread over much of Europe, fed by the fact that the originator of the ideology, Karl Marx, was himself a German Jew.

The Communist revolutionaries were aided immensely by the refusal of the Russian nobility and Czar to bring about reforms to alleviate the conditions of the Russian peasants: the mass of receptive ears combined with skillful revolutionary activists propelled Russia ever further down the road to outright revolution.

Nicholas II and Rasputin

Nicholas II, eldest son of Alexander III, took the throne in 1894, destined to become the last ever Czar of Russia. His reign, with regards to his personal and public life together, was a disaster. On a personal level, Alexander III's only son, Alexis, was a hemophiliac (common amongst the royal houses of Europe, due to centuries of too close familial marriages).

In his vain attempts to cure Alexis, Nicholas and his wife Alexandra employed all manner of quacks and religious fanatics, the most important being the Siberian monk, Grigory Yefimovich Rasputin. Eventually Rasputin was to achieve such a dominant role in Nicholas' affairs that he ended up almost running the Russian state, issuing orders in the absence of Nicholas: this outrageous situation was ended when Rasputin was murdered in 1916 by Russian nobles objecting to the extent of his control over Nicholas.

Russo-Japanese War

In foreign affairs, Nicholas tried to continue the expansion of Russian territory in the Far East: a venture into Manchuria led to a clash with the newly industrialized Japan in February 1904. This war went disastrously for the Russians, with the Japanese seizing the strategically vital harbor of Port Arthur on the Chinese coast from the Russians in 1904. Russia was humiliated and forced to sue for peace the next year. For Japan this was a significant victory, its first over a major White power.



January 1905: the Bloody Sunday massacre in St. Petersburg.

The Revolution of 1905

The military crisis assumed even more serious domestic proportions when a feeble attempt at social reform at a government sponsored congress in 1905 in St. Petersburg, ended with Russian police shooting down a crowd of demonstrators.

This incident, known as Bloody Sunday, resulted in hundreds of deaths and served as a signal for revolution across the well organized underground revolutionary structure in Russia's major cities. Only by 1906, had the government managed to restore some semblance of control, but by then the die had been cast, and it was only a matter of time before a revolution even more far reaching than the French Revolution, would engulf Russia.

World War I

The outbreak of World War I in 1914, put a temporary halt to the revolutionary movement: Russia, as an ally of Serbia, declared war on Germany and the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The Russian army, crippled from the beginning by revolutionaries, poor supply lines and incompetent leadership, fared disastrously against the Germans. By the time that an armistice was declared with Germans in 1917, massive stretches of Russia, which included most of the Ukraine, had been ceded to the Germans.

Abdication

Domestically the situation reached a crisis point. Finally in March 1917, Nicholas abdicated and the country fell into a period of anarchy culminated by the Communist Revolution of October that year. The abdication of Nicholas marks the formal end of the Russian Empire: the Communist revolution and its consequences for world history are the subject of a following chapter.

Racial Overview

When the Russian Empire was at its greatest height, just prior to the First World War, it encompassed 22 million square kilometers (8.5 million square miles) of territory, fully one-sixth of the land area of the earth.

This was divided into four regions: Russia proper, comprising the easternmost part of Europe and including the Grand Duchy of Finland and most of Poland; the Caucasus; all of northern Asia, or Siberia; and Russian central Asia, divided into the regions of the Steppes, in the southwest; and western Turkistan in the southeast.

Only the first two of these regions contained majority White populations: the rest was (and still is) inhabited by Mongol racial types, all of whom settled the region after the great Hunnish invasion of Europe. The subsequent absorption of the Mongols produced the mixed race population in the vast regions of southern and eastern Russia which to the present day characterize that part of the world.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Forty One

The Dark Ages

The Dark Ages was a period in European history which has been arbitrarily set at between approximately 800 AD and lasting until the Renaissance: although this is by no means a fixed definition, the common thread throughout this period of history was the total dominance of Christianity and the repression of all art, science and progress that was not Christian in nature.

In this way the great scientific, philosophical and cultural works of the thousands of years of pre-Christian civilization were suppressed, all being ascribed to the work of pagans and therefore of virtual devil authorship: in many places even the possession of classical works was taken to be proof of the possessor being a witch or a necromancer. More often than not such unfortunates would end up being burnt at the stake by zealous Christians.

The Dark Ages then were marked by the dominance of Christianity. The era became known as the Dark Ages because the introduction of theocracy as the only guideline in all fields of endeavor.

This created a halt to all progress and centuries of cultural stagnation, which marked the time between the glory of classical antiquity and the rebirth of that glory in the renaissance and the beginnings of the modern world.

Suppression of Scientific Thought

At the center of the Dark Ages stood the Christian bible. All scientific thought which contradicted the bible was suppressed, with the most famous example being the ancient knowledge that the earth revolved around the sun.

The Christian bible states very clearly that the sun revolves around the earth. The result was that for centuries the important astronomical discovery that the sun was the center of the universe was deliberately suppressed by the church, with proponents of the non-Christian theory being persecuted for their endeavors.

Another famous suppression of scientific advance created by the church was the belief that the earth was round: the Bible talks very clearly of the four corners of the earth, therefore, the church argued, it must be square. This dogmatic belief was quietly dropped only when the voyages of discovery finally proved beyond debate that the earth was round: despite this fact having been known by the non-Christian Classical Greeks since the time of Alexander.

The Effect on the Study of History

In the field of the study of history, the dominance of the Church had a massive effect: the Lux Ex Orient (the Light Comes from the East) doctrine was established which said that all civilization

originated in the Middle East, as this was where the events of the bible had supposedly been played out.

This belief that all civilization started in the Middle East held sway right until the middle of the 20th century, when scientific advances such as radiocarbon dating and other methods finally established that the oldest great buildings and structures had in fact been built in Europe, with the Megalith structures predating the Middle Eastern civilizations by sometimes thousands of years.

The Lux Ex Orient doctrine is still to this day the "popular" interpretation of history, with most people having been taught that "civilization originated in the fertile river valleys".

The Christianization of Art

During this period, all art forms became Christianized: in any review of European art, the shift in subject matter from the Classical Age to the Dark Ages, is noticeable and obvious to even the passing onlooker.

The only art works of note of the Dark Ages are all scenes from the Bible, or those depicting great Christian events of the time: non Christian events were ignored unless they had direct relevance to the Church. In this way even the figure of Jesus Christ became European.

As discussed earlier, although there is no proof of the existence of the biblical person known as Jesus Christ, even if he had existed, the bible makes it very clear that he was descended from Semitic Hebrews (the first chapter of each of the New Testament Gospels all spend their first chapters detailing Christ's Jewish ancestry): nonetheless the Christian dominated artists of the Dark Ages portrayed Christ as a Nordic racial type, with blonde hair and blue eyes, an image which has lasted to the present day in the minds of many Christians the world over. Even if Christ had existed, given his ancestry as detailed in the bible, the chances of him looking like a Nordic would be very remote indeed.



The miracle of the loaves and the fishes, mosaic, Ravenna, Italy. Christian themed art was a trademark of the Dark Ages. Typically for the Christians, Christ is portrayed as a Nordic - even if he had existed, his ancestry as claimed in the bible would most certainly have made him a

dark Semitic type.

Genocidal Evangelism

The early Christians propagated their new religion amongst the White tribes of Europe with a fanaticism unseen in those lands until then: the murderous activities of Charlemagne in Germany and the Teutonic Knights in the Baltic states stand out as good examples and have already been discussed in detail in earlier chapters.

This practice was however widespread throughout Europe and it is no exaggeration to say that without this initial spurt of violence and savagery - which was justified by quoting selected Old Testament scripts which in turn quoted the Christian God exhorting the Hebrews to kill his enemies - it is unlikely that Christianity would ever have displaced the original White Indo-European religions.

Certainly none of these original White religions ever contemplated converting nonbelievers upon pain of death, and were culturally and physically unprepared for the fanaticism engendered by a Middle Eastern religion such as Christianity.

It is always worth bearing in mind that the original White religions - be they Odinism, or any of the Sumerian, Egyptian, Greek or Roman Gods - ever had a war fought in their names, or ever tried to convert adherents upon threat of death.

The Power of the Pope

The Age of Theocracy saw the head of the Catholic Church, the Pope, becoming the single most important political figure in Europe: elected by a small band of bishops who in their turn were appointed by the Pope - a neat trick of self perpetuation - the Pope's permission was required for the appointment of kings, territorial annexations and a host of other political matters.

Very often, as was the case with the Teutonic Knights and the Baltic states, whole nations and peoples, who had probably never even heard of the Pope, had their futures decided by the latter (in the Baltic, the Pope "gave" the lands of these pagans to the Teutonic Knights to Christianize).

It was therefore little surprise that the political power of the pope was one of the first great Dark Age institutions to crumble: eventually this would develop into a fully fledged political revolt which would combine with a division within the church itself, and lead to the establishment of the Protestant states who rejected the power of the Pope in Rome.

Feudalism

The institution of feudalism - where society was organized on a strictly class basis and where office was inherited, also took on its most virulent form during the Dark Ages. Nobles were allocated tracts of land and held accountable to only the king of their territory and the Pope himself.

All inhabitants of these lands so allocated became vassals of that particular noble, supposedly giving their labor in return for the provision of shelter from attack if the lands were ever invaded by outsiders.

In reality this led to a system of serfdom and virtual slavery, and many of the cruelest class systems emerged from this time which were to scar Europe right into the 20th century and beyond, resulting in the creation of a massive peasant underclass who were always ripe for exploitation by revolutionaries of all ilks.

Although much of the feudal system has been romanticized with tales of knights in armor, princesses and courtly love; the harsh reality, for the vast majority of the population of medieval Europe, was a miserable existence consisting of virtual slave labor with almost no opportunity of escape.

The existence of this oppressive system and its successors in later centuries would prove to be one of the greatest drivers of White settlers fleeing Europe to settle in the new lands of America and elsewhere.

The Inquisition

The last great innovation of the Age of Theocracy was the Inquisition, which started out as a measure designed to suppress all non-Christian thought, but which developed two specific arms: that outside of Spain and that in Spain. Outside of Spain, mainly non-Jews were targeted; in Spain it became primarily an anti-Jewish campaign, and the latter then became the most famous part of the Inquisition, although in real terms it was far less vicious than the Inquisition imposed on non-Jews (Gentiles) in the rest of Europe.

The Inquisition was an institution formally established by the Christian Church, in the person of Pope Gregory IX, in 1321, and was charged with seeking out, trying and sentencing persons guilty of the broadly defined crime of "heresy". The inquisition quite openly used torture to obtain evidence for a wide range of alleged charges, including heresy, witchcraft, bigamy, and, a special one just for the Jews, usury.

Counter Reformation

The Inquisition was then harnessed by Pope Pius V, who reigned from 1566 to 1572, against all sorts of dissenters at the time of the Protestant revolt in the Catholic Church. Pius V in this way temporarily bolstered the Roman Catholic church at the time of the Counter Reformation. As pope, he aided French Roman Catholics in their persecution of the Huguenots; and expelled many Jews from the Papal States, using the Inquisition to persecute non Christians of all ilks. His use of the inquisition was the primary reason why the reformation never took proper hold in Italy.

Torture

The individual inquisitors, most of whom were personally appointed by the pope, enjoyed a large amount of power, with the ability to arrest even members of royal families. Establishing courts at various places, the inquisitors themselves brought charges against persons suspected of heresy - which could include falsely professing Christianity, atheism, belonging to some other religion except Christianity, or disputing the Church's interpretation of the Christian bible.

Lesser penalties were imposed on those who came forward and confessed their heresy than on those

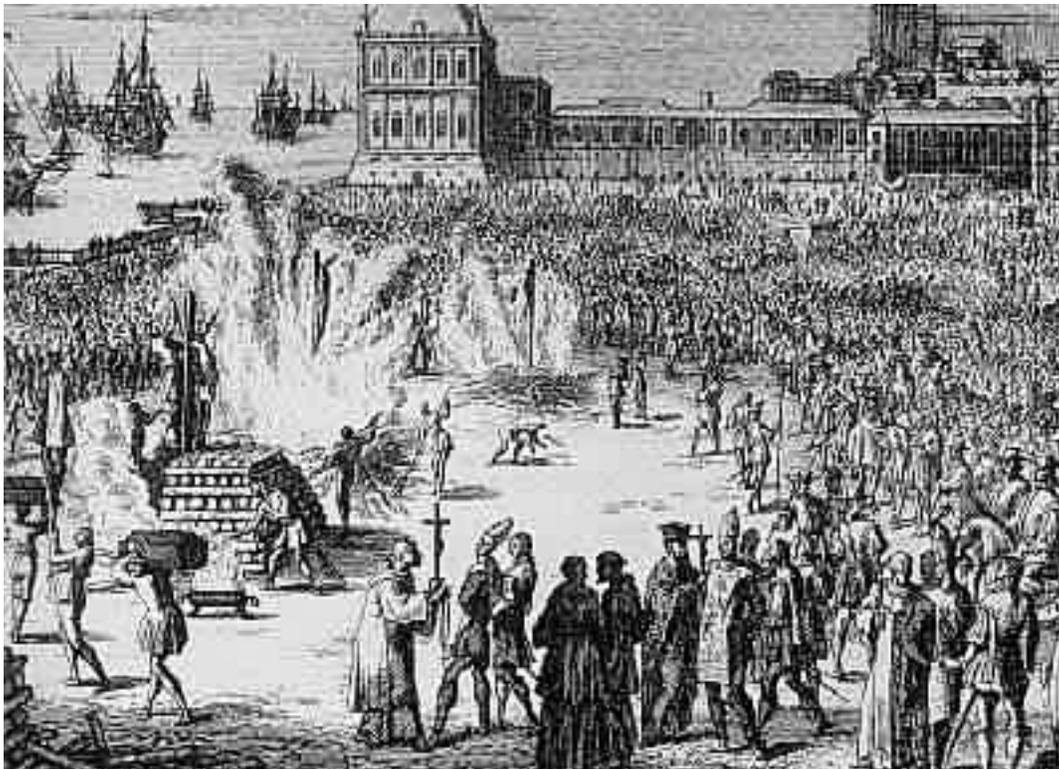
who had to be tried and convicted. A period of grace of a month was allowed for these self confessions.

If a person was tried for heresy, the testimony of two witnesses was generally considered proof of guilt. The inquisitors also had the right to imprison people who they thought might be lying.

This outrage was however to be quickly followed by something worse: in 1252, Pope Innocent IV, officially sanctioned the use of torture on suspects. Not surprisingly, the flow of confessions of witchcraft, paganism, satan worship and any other heresy the Inquisitors managed to dream up, began to flow like rivers from the unfortunate victims of the rack, thumb screws, burning irons and literally dozens of other fiendish torture items used in the process.

In a perverted twist to the injunction not to kill, the inquisitors did not have the right to execute anybody, only imprison and torture them. The church neatly sidestepped this restriction by handing a convicted person over to the local authorities for suitable punishment - when this did happen, it was tantamount to a demand from the church to execute that person.

This was usually carried out either by public burning at the stake or by public strangulation. The inquisition went on for over 300 years, in varying forms and with differing degrees of cruelty. By the time of the Protestant split away from the Catholic Church, the inquisition had in most places dropped the instruments of torture, but still persecuted the new Protestants with a passion, virtually stamping them out in Italy. In Spain, where the inquisition was developed into a fine form of state suppression, the Protestant revolution was hardly felt.



The Inquisition at work: a large crowd gathers in front of the waterfront palace in Lisbon to watch three "heretics" be burned to death after being found guilty by the Inquisitors.

The Spanish Inquisition

In 1476, Ferdinand, husband of Isabella, and joint ruler of Castile and ultimately all of Spain, organized the Santa Hermandad, or Holy Brotherhood, a kind of national military police as a measure to crack down on internal dissent.

The Holy Brotherhood also had as one of their primary aims the creation of complete religious subservience - to the Catholic Church. In 1478, a decree issued by Pope Sixtus IV empowered the Ferdinand and Isabella to appoint three inquisitors to deal with heretics and other offenders against the church; this marked the beginning of the Spanish Inquisition.

In 1487, a leading Spanish catholic theologian, one Torquemada, was made grand inquisitor for all Spain by Pope Innocent VIII.

Although initially founded to further religious ends, the Inquisition in Spain quickly became a way of exacting revenge upon Spain's Jews, who were held responsible for not only all manner of unsavory financial practices, but also stood accused of actively aiding in the Muslim occupation of Spain.

A thirteenth century Spaniard, Lucas de Tuy, claimed to have found proof that Jewish spies had delivered the city of Toledo to the Muslim armies. Although never conclusively proven (although it possibly had a slight basis in truth, given the close co-operation between the Spanish Jews and the Moors), this allegation was an example of the accusation leveled against the Spanish Jews, and they became natural targets for the Christians.

Torquemada used the Inquisition for eleven years to investigate and punish Marranos (secret Jews professing Christianity), Moors, atheists and others on an unprecedented scale. About 2000 people were burned at the stake during Torquemada's term of office. He was also instrumental in propagating the expulsion of the Jews from Spain in 1492.

The Spanish anti-Jewish wave reached a crescendo in 1492, when the very last Moorish stronghold in Spain, Grenada, was conquered. This discovery of several Jews amongst the very highest members of the Moorish government, including Viziers (or top advisors) to the Muslim Caliph, sent the Spaniards into a frenzy: then and there some 150,000 Jews were forcibly deported from Spain.

After 1520, the Spanish inquisition also turned its hand to Protestants in Spain: they were quickly stamped out and Spain remained ever after a catholic country. Later the Spanish inquisition spread to the colonies in the new world which Spain had seized: although there it was involved more in the suppression of the native heathen practices, a job it virtually successfully completed.

Due to Ferdinand of Castile's kingship of Sicily, the Spanish inquisition was also implemented on the unfortunate inhabitants of that island as well. The Inquisition was finally abolished in Spain in 1834.

The Italian Inquisition

In 1542, Pope Paul III established the Roman Inquisition in Italy to counter Protestantism in that country. At first the Roman Inquisition restricted itself to persecuting intellectuals who questioned

either interpretations of the Bible or parts of the Bible itself, and in 1559, it produced an Index of Forbidden Books - a list of mainly pagan works which contradicted the Christian world view (many of these were scientific treaties, but the index went on to include the work of scientists such as Galileo in 1633, who dared to publish a work saying that the earth was not the center of the universe and was only a planet rotating round the sun.)



The Nordic Galileo Galilei: his astronomical discoveries were suppressed by the Christians as heretical because they contradicted the bible.

Galileo's work contradicted the Biblical Old Testament story of a battle which lasted so long that the Israelites had asked God to make the day longer so they could kill all their foes, and, according to the scriptures, God has duly "stopped the sun" to prolong the daylight hours - proof, the church held, that the sun revolved around the earth and not vice versa.

Joshua 10, (v12, 13) states "***.. Sun stand thou still upon Gibeon And the sun stood still in the midst of heaven . .***"

The Index of Forbidden Books - called the Index Librorum Prohibitorum - was continuously published by the Catholics until 1966, when it was quietly dropped.

The Netherlands

The Holy Roman Emperor, Charles V, ordered the introduction of the Inquisition into the area which later became known as the Netherlands in 1522 to try and counteract the spread of Protestantism in that country. The Dutch Inquisition was a notable failure in this regard and in a short while most of that country was firmly Protestant.

Switzerland

The Inquisition in Switzerland at Geneva in Switzerland was every bit as severe as the Spanish

version, and continuously threatened the reformer John Calvin. It too however ultimately failed in its objective of squashing all dissent.

Racial Effects of the Age of Theocracy

The spread of Christianity and its more extreme variants unquestionably affected the growth of the European peoples: particularly in the policy, still held in the Catholic Church to this day, of celibacy for leading church officials.

Although this policy of enforced celibacy amongst the priesthood, monks and nuns only ever applied to a relatively small number of Whites, it was nonetheless almost always the most intelligent members of society who became monks or nuns. This was so because during the Dark Ages, only the cleverest candidates were allowed to enter the priesthood: as the keepers of the arts and writing, the only way to gain any sort of education was to join the priesthood.

Although there can be little doubt that, given human nature, the celibacy rule was broken, it must also be so that the policy of deliberate celibacy saw many thousands of Europe's cleverest people dying childless, their genes lost forever.

The imposition of the Inquisition was also severe: many of the "dissenters" targeted by the Church were in fact some of the brightest scientists of the time, whose only crime was to look for scientific explanations for natural phenomena not explained in the bible.

Many scientists were forced to either abandon their work or if they dared to continue, had to do so in great secrecy. This was one of the primary reasons why the great Leonardo Da Vinci produced so many of his manuscripts in mirror writing, to prevent others from reading the results of his research and thus avoiding persecution, even though he worked at the time when the Inquisition was tapering off in its power.

The persecution of these great minds with the accusation of paganism also unquestionably stripped Europe of many of its cleverest people: the cumulative effect of the Dark Ages was to set Europe back centuries in development.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Forty Two

The Renaissance : A Return to Classical White Measures

The word renaissance literally means "rebirth" - and the period of White history to which this refers, beginning in 14th century Italy and spreading to the rest of Europe by the 16th and 17th centuries - was just that.

It is no coincidence that this "rebirth" accompanied the end of the Church imposed Dark Ages: that the reformation in religious life not only accompanied the rebirth, but in many cases was its active cause. The rebirth that is referred to is not the Christian concept of rebirth: it in fact refers to the rebirth of study in and appreciation of the pre-Christian culture of the great classical world - that of pagan White Rome and pagan White Greece. Although some classical works such as those by Virgil, Ovid, Cicero, and Seneca had been preserved by cloistered monks during the Dark Ages, the thoughts, designs and concepts were not allowed to spread out into the hands of the masses.

The Christians had a well justified fear of an anti-Christian undercurrent emerging if the knowledge of great works of art and academia predating the advent of the Bible were allowed into circulation.

Italy

The Renaissance began in the cities of northern Italy - significantly in those regions which had been occupied by the Indo-European Lombards, who moved into the area well after the original Romans had been extinguished through integration with the hundreds of Nonwhite nationalities who had filled Rome prior to the fall of that empire.

It was the presence of these Indo-European Lombards which gave northern Italy its pre-eminent position in the renaissance, and not the left over mixed race populations from southern Italy. The Lombards produced all of the famous Italian renaissance figures: Leonardo Da Vinci, Dante and Michelangelo, to name but a few.

Possibly the most famous and influential Lombard was however Christopher Columbus, who sailed under the flag of Spain, and who in 1492, was to precipitate the colonization of North America by the White race.

The role of the wealthy families of these north Italian cities in patronizing scholars and artists who pursued this rebirth of classical civilization must be acknowledged: without the financial backing of the Medicis of Florence, the Estes of Ferrara, the Sforzas of Milan, the Gonzagas of Mantua, and the dukes of Urbino, the doges of Venice, the Renaissance might not have been as widespread as it ultimately turned out to be.



Left to right: A Nordic nobleman from Verona, a sponsor of the Renaissance artists; Leonardo Da Vinci, a Nordic racial type, from a self portrait; and right, Nicholas Copernicus, another great scientist whose ideas were suppressed by the Christians.

Literature

One of the most significant changes brought about by the lifting of the iron death grip of the Christian church, was a realization that there had been life before Christianity. This was reflected nowhere better than in the sudden outpouring of historical literature, which for the first time since the supremacy of Christianity, did not take on the form of a branch of the discipline of theology.

A secular, or non-religious, world view, inspired the most famous history books of the time: The Twelve Books of Florentine Histories by Leonardo Bruin (1420); the Florentine History by Niccola Machiavelli (1525) and the Introduction to the Study of History by Jean Bodin (1566) exemplified this shift. These Renaissance historians rejected the Christian interpretation that history had started with the creation, followed by the incarnation of Jesus Christ and the anticipated last judgment. Renaissance historians started with antiquity, followed by the Middle Ages and then the golden age of rebirth in the time that they wrote.

This only became possible with the collapse of the power of life and death which the Church wielded: before the time of the reformation any historian committing this point of view to paper could quite easily have ended up being burned at the stake along with his or her writings.

Classical works were studied as great pieces of literature in their own right, and not just to justify Christian civilization. The interest in classical works caused a determined and ultimately successful search for classical manuscripts: the dialogues of Plato, the histories of Herodotus and Thucydides, and the works of the Greek dramatists, poets were rediscovered and reached wide audiences once again.

Greek was even introduced as a subject at schools in northern Italy. In addition, the study of political

science was started by Niccolò Machiavelli (1469-1527), another a northern Italian historian, statesman, and political philosopher, whose most famous work, *The Prince* (written in 1513 but published in 1532) established him as the father of political science.

Great Artists of the Renaissance

The renaissance spread to all parts of Europe as the Dark Ages lifted. While it is impossible to do justice to all the great thinkers of that time, a partial listing of some the most prominent artists is well worthwhile:

- Giotto (1267-1337) was the most important Italian painter of the 14th century, whose conception of the human figure in broad, rounded terms, rather than in the flat, two-dimensional terms, was a milestone in the development of Western art.
- Michelangelo (1475-1564), was possibly one of the most inspired creators in the history of art. His most famous works included the frescoes of the Sistine Chapel ceiling, which he painted whilst lying on his back (a task which took him four years between 1508 and 1512 to complete). He was also the chief architect of the Saint Peter's Basilica in Rome, where he altered an original design by Donato Bramante to redo the exterior and the final form of its dome. His large free standing nude, *David* (1504), is another icon of renaissance art, the largest marble statue sculptured since Roman times.
- Donatello, whose real name was Donato di Niccolò di Betto Bardi (1386-1466), was a painter and sculptor who set the standards for all of his contemporaries, is considered one of the greatest sculptors of all time and the founder of modern sculpture. Donatello created the first free standing nude statue since Roman times, *David*, in 1435 in Florence. This statue was later to serve as the inspiration for Michelangelo's *David*. The other image for which Donatello is most remembered is the painting of the Singing Gallery (1448) in the Florence Cathedral - the images of the naked cherubim have become synonymous with cupids since then.
- Sandro Botticelli, whose real name was Alessandro di Mariano Filipepi (1445-1510), was one of the leading painters of the Florentine Renaissance. Botticelli, who was sponsored by the Medici family in Florence, was responsible for one of the most widely recognizable paintings of the renaissance: the *Birth of Venus* (1482). The heavily pagan undertones of this great painting speaks volumes about the non-Christian spirit of the Renaissance.
- Filippo Brunelleschi (1377-1476), was an architect who broke with medieval tradition in Florence around 1420 with the invention of linear style by which enabled three dimensional images to be projected on a flat surface. Brunelleschi was an also won fame as the first Renaissance builder, designing the enormous dome of Florence Cathedral, which was built in 1436 - without any doubt the most impressive engineering feat since Roman times.



Left: David, by Michelangelo, 1504, Florence, Italy. Right: Donatello, Equestrian Monument to Gattamelata, Padua, 1450.

Great Scientists of the Renaissance

In medicine and anatomy, the ancient works of Hippocrates and Galen were finally translated in 15th and 16th centuries. These works were seized upon by the budding Renaissance era intellectuals, and advances based on these basic works allowed scientists such as Nicolaus Copernicus, Tycho Brahe, and Johannes Kepler to make real advances in their fields - the first in hundreds of years.

The study of geography was transformed when the maps of the Romanised Greek cartographer, Ptolemy, were unearthed - this led directly to the first great wave of White explorers who eventually went to the four corners of the earth.

The invention of printing in the 15th century revolutionized the accessibility of knowledge to those wishing to acquire it: the appearance of printed books not only served to broaden the circle of knowledge, but also changed the solitude of academic life in the previous era into joint effort which very often spanned countries.

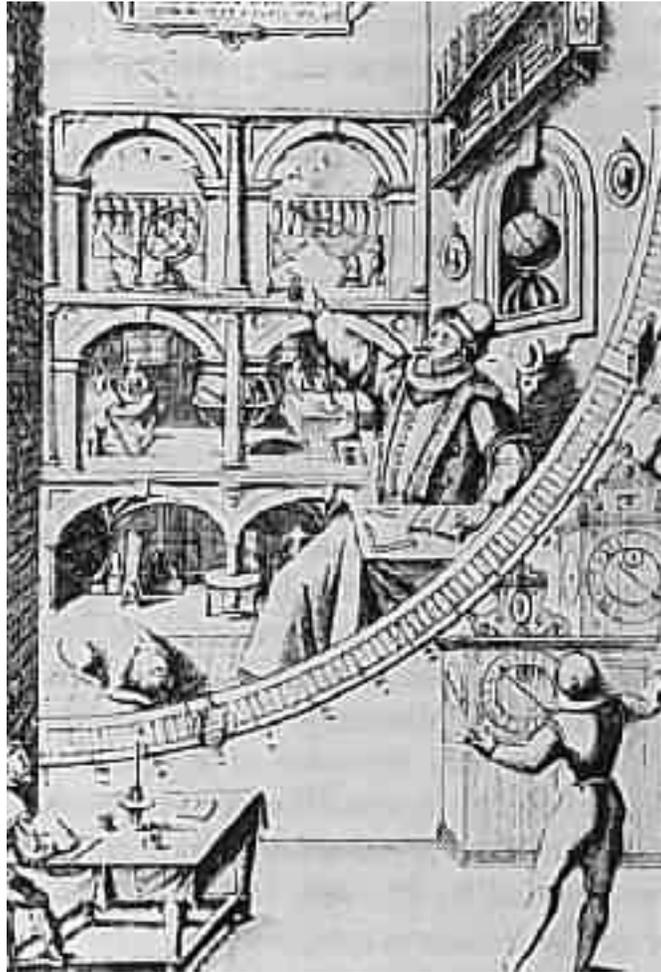
The invention of gunpowder transformed warfare after 1450. For the first time city walls could be

smashed down with cannons instead of besieging armies having to rely on catapults and boulders to do the job. The army of horses, knights, swords and bows and arrows was quickly outdated by soldiers with firearms: one of the most striking campaigns where this inequality became apparent was during a military campaign against the Ottoman Empire. The Nonwhite Ottomans had failed to keep up with the technological developments of the White nations, and with an old style army had attempted to ward off a newly armed White army - with predictable results.

The Ottomans also did not pick up on the advantages of the printing press: they only acquired one in the 1800's, three centuries after the technology had been developed in Germany.

Famous Renaissance scientists included:

- Leonardo da Vinci (1452-1519), was a Florentine artist who achieved fame as a painter, sculptor, architect, engineer, and scientist. His scientific studies in the fields of anatomy, optics, and hydraulics, anticipated many of the developments of modern science. His theories were often recorded in reverse mirror script out of fear of Christian persecution. In anatomy he studied the circulation of the blood and the action of the eye. He made discoveries in meteorology and geology, learned the effect of the moon on the tides, foreshadowed modern conceptions of continent formation, and surmised the nature of fossil shells. He was among the originators of the science of hydraulics and devised the hydrometer. He invented a large number of machines, including an underwater diving suit, the military tank (finally built during the First World War in 1917), the glider, the ball bearing and many others.
- Nicolaus Copernicus (1473-1543), was a Polish astronomer, best known for his astronomical theory that the sun is at rest near the center of the universe, and that the earth, spinning on its axis once daily, revolves annually around the sun. This is called the heliocentric, or sun-centered, system. His theory was suppressed by the church at the trial of Galileo in 1633.
- Tycho Brahe (1546-1601), was a Danish astronomer, who made precise, comprehensive astronomical measurements of the solar system and more than 700 stars.



The astronomer Tycho Brahe pictured plotting the positions of the planets.

- Johannes Kepler (1571-1630), was a German astronomer and natural philosopher, noted for formulating and verifying the three laws of planetary motion. These laws are now known as Kepler's laws.
- Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1727), was an English mathematician and physicist, considered one of the greatest scientists in history, whose discoveries and theories laid the foundation for much of the progress in science since his time. Newton was one of the inventors of the branch of mathematics called calculus (the other was German mathematician Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz). He also solved the mysteries of light and optics, formulated the three laws of motion, and derived from them the law of universal gravitation.

Galileo Galilei and Christian Anti-Science

Galileo Galilei (1564-1642), was an Italian physicist and astronomer, who, with the German astronomer Johannes Kepler, initiated the scientific revolution that followed the work of the English physicist Sir Isaac Newton.

Galileo developed the telescope, an early model of which he presented to the rulers of Venice: its value for naval and maritime operations resulted in the doubling of his salary and his assurance of lifelong tenure as a professor. In 1609, he built a powerful telescope with which he became the first person to see mountains and craters on the moon; the stars of the Milky Way and the four largest

satellites of Jupiter. He published these findings in March 1610, in a book called "The Starry Messenger".

By 1614, his work had been denounced as heretical by the church. In response, he wrote an open letter on the irrelevance of biblical passages in scientific arguments, stating that the Bible should be adapted to increasing knowledge and that no scientific position should ever be made an article of Christian faith.

This resulted in his books being seized by the church in 1661 and burnt. Undeterred, in 1632, he published his most famous work, The Dialogues, dealing with the fact that the earth revolves around the sun: the church put him on trial and under threat of torture compelled him to retract his views. In addition, the Christians sentenced him to lifelong imprisonment, later changed to permanent house arrest.

All copies of The Dialogues were burned, and the sentence against him was read publicly at every Christian university.

Religion

The Catholic Church at first tried to suppress the outpouring of interest in the pagan civilizations, with one of the Popes appointing a special Inquisition to try and crush the revival in pagan works. However, the irresistible tide turned even the majority of the most fanatical Catholics, and society at large became more secular.

With this, the repression of classical thought died away, and the Church instead tried to adjust to the new interests by positioning itself as the original champion of classical thought, pointing to the origins of Rome rather than the Christian religion. The writings of the Church fathers were then produced and added to the line up of works to be studied along with the pagan works: from this time the humanist approach to society had its origins, one that was to lay the basis for modern Christianity.

Turning Point

The Renaissance, along with the reformation, marked a turning point in the direction of European culture. It was the driving force behind the quest for new and better knowledge: a quest which led directly to the period of exploration, of sea voyages to far off lands and new lands, which in turn saw the Whites colonize North and South America, Australia, New Zealand, huge parts of Asia and parts of Africa.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Forty Three

The Christian Wars

In the New Testament, Jesus Christ is quoted as saying that he had come to bring the sword, to "set father against son and mother against daughter" (Luke 13:53) and called on his followers to "But those mine enemies, which would not that I should reign over them, bring hither, and slay them before me" (Luke 19:27).

These words have, in the history of Christianity, been enacted in bloody reality many times - starting when an important political rebellion against the Roman Catholic Church took on a religious slant - leading to the split in European Christendom between Catholic and Protestant. This split sparked off a series of religious wars which were ultimately to be responsible for the death of nearly a third of the entire White race.

The Reformation is the name given to this 16th century religious uprising. Its major outpouring happened in the middle of the Renaissance, there can be little doubt that the two events were linked: added to this was a political problem which the countries in northern Europe had with the all powerful role the pope had assumed from Rome.

Emerging European nationalism objected to the fact that the pope - usually an Italian - had to approve the appointment of any head of state everywhere else in Europe. The pope's ability to even charge tax from foreign countries to support the Church headquarters in Rome also irked those living thousands of miles from Rome. It has been estimated that the Church ended up owning as much as one third of all the land in Europe in this manner: what the various national states must have secretly thought of this does not need to be imagined.

The Anti-Pope

The Catholic Church, while pretending to serve the Christian god only, itself betrayed its political agenda when a dispute over succession to the Papal throne erupted between the Italians and the French. In an event known as the Great Schism of 1378, the French set up their pope, Clement VII, in Avignon; while the Italians installed Urban VI in Rome.

Both popes then proceeded to excommunicate each other from the church. Finally the dispute was resolved in 1415, when both popes were thrown out of their jobs and one new pope set up in Rome. The authority of the Church was severely reduced by the farcical proceedings, and many Europeans saw for the first time that the popes were only all too human and lusted after power more than service to their god.

Dissolution of the Pope's Authority

The first steps towards the breakdown of the power of the Roman Catholic Church were in fact taken in England: a series of laws issued in that country from 1279 to 1352, effectively prevented the church

from unilaterally taking land and allocating it to the Church, over riding the local authorities. The right of the Church clergy to act as judges in criminal and civil matters was also removed by these laws.

John Wycliffe

In the 14th century, an English clergyman, John Wycliffe, openly attacked the sale of indulgences by the Catholic Church (whereby sinners could buy forgiveness from the Church - a nice way of earning even more money for the Church's coffers), arguing forgiveness could not be bought for a few coins. Wycliffe also translated the Bible into English and delivered his sermons in English, rather than the Latin used by the Catholics.

John Huss

Wycliffe's ideas attracted a great following in central Europe. In Bohemia, a local clergyman by the name of John Huss espoused a particularly fiery anti-Catholicism. Huss was duly executed as a heretic, and his followers then became involved in a religious war with a Catholic army: ultimately resulting in the massacre of several thousand of Huss' followers during the time known as the Hussite rebellion of 1415 - a foretaste of what was to come.

France and the Continent

A treaty signed between the French king and the pope in 1516, placed the Catholic Church in France in a subservient role to the monarchy, while similar treaties with the rulers of other countries in Europe also slowly ate at the power of the pope, creating the political conditions under which theologians could start differing with the Catholic dogma without fear of being seized by the church police.

Thus although the Reformation is formally classed as having begun with the rebellion led by the German clergyman Martin Luther in 1517, the socio-political conditions which caused the rebellion had been in existence for at least 150 years before Luther.

attacks on the Catholic Church, but this caused him to become even more outspoken. The pope then sent him a written threat of expulsion from the Church (called a bull) - which Luther publicly burnt in 1520.

This sent the Catholics into a fury: the Holy Roman Emperor, Charles V and numerous other Catholic clergymen held a meeting in the town of Worms (called the Diet of Worms) and ordered Luther to recant. He refused and went underground, hiding in Wartburg castle, which belonged to a sympathetic noble. There he wrote pamphlets further espousing his views and started translating the Bible into German.

Lutheranism was supported by the north German princes, many lower order clergy and large numbers of ordinary Germans, who saw it as an opportunity to gain independence from Rome.

The First Christian War 1524 -1525

However, the Catholics did not take the rebellion lying down: the first Christian war, called the Peasants War, broke out between Catholic and Lutheran followers in 1524. This uprising was used as an excuse by many feudal peasants to rise up against their conditions of servitude, bound as they were to many nobles and the Church for taxes.

The peasants were defeated in 1525, but this did not end the Lutheran rebellion. A truce was reached between the followers of Lutheranism and Catholicism as a meeting in the city of Speyer (known as the Diet of Speyer) in 1526, when it was agreed in principle that those who wanted to worship in the way that Luther espoused, were free to do so.

However, in 1529, the Catholics unilaterally rejected the agreement. The Lutherans protested the turnaround: and from then on the anti-Catholic movement became known as protest-ants, or Protestants.

The Second Christian War 1546 - 1555

The Holy Roman Emperor, Charles V, was then diverted from the domestic political scene by the march into Central Europe by the Nonwhite Ottomans: he hurried off to fight in south eastern Europe, only returning in 1546. Upon his return, he decided to deal militarily directly with the Protestants: in alliance with a papal army, he made formal war against the Protestant nobles and their supporters.

After a bloody civil war lasting nine years, the two sides finally made peace in 1555, with the treaty of Augsburg. In terms of the peace, the rulers of the approximately 300 German states were free to choose if they wanted to be Catholic or Protestant. Lutheranism was followed by about half of the population, and finally gained official recognition.

The Reformation in Scandinavia

In contrast to Germany, the Reformation in Scandinavia was peaceful. The kings of Denmark and Sweden were, probably for reasons of political independence more than anything else, early converts and openly supported the Protestants.

In 1536, a national assembly held in Copenhagen abolished the authority of the Catholic bishops throughout Denmark, Norway and Iceland. Sweden officially adopted Protestantism in 1529.

The Reformation in Switzerland and the Third Christian War 1529 -1531

The Reformation in Switzerland was led by the Swiss pastor Huldreich Zwingli (1484 - 1531) in Zurich. After launching his campaign against Catholicism in 1518, Zwingli managed to persuade the town of Zurich to adopt his views and by 1525, many of the strictures of Roman Catholicism had been rejected - all with the legal sanction of the town council.

Other Swiss towns, such as Basel and Bern, adopted similar reforms, but the conservative peasantry of the forest cantons adhered to Roman Catholicism. Two short Christian Wars erupted in 1529 and 1531, with Zwingli himself being killed during the latter. In terms of a peace treaty, each Swiss canton was allowed to choose between Catholicism and Protestantism.

In 1536, a French Protestant, John Calvin, settled in Geneva after having been forced to flee his own Catholic country. Through his teachings and work Calvin managed to take Protestantism to new extremes: over compensating for the worldly excesses of Catholicism, Calvin and his followers (Calvinists) forbid all forms of entertainment and regulated even the dress of ordinary people. In a fit of ecclesiastical zeal (which has only been equaled by later equally fanatic Muslim nations), dancing, card playing, gambling and other recreations were forbidden in Geneva; those caught breaking these rules were routinely put to death.

Calvin organized the diverse thought streams of Protestantism into a coherent whole: his influence helped create the churches later known as the Reformed religions, in Scotland, France and in the Americas.

The Reformation in France and the Fourth Christian War 1562 - 1598

As Luther's teachings spread into France, the Catholic inclined monarchy, although nominally independent from Rome already, cracked down on the Protestant movement - more out of a fear of political subversion.

Many leading Protestants fled to Switzerland - only to stage a return around 1567, to launch a full scale evangelical campaign. This campaign culminated two years later in the formal organization of the Protestant church - modeled on the Calvinist line - in Paris in 1569. The followers of this church became known as Huguenots.

Inevitably, it was not long before the Christian wars spread to France: a series of violent clashes erupted which lasted 46 years, from 1562 to 1598. One of the most infamous incidents of this Christian war was the St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre, in which thousands of unsuspecting Huguenots were massacred in 1572.



St. Bartholomew's day Massacre in Paris, 1572. Protestants are killed by Catholics.

Then the French king Henry IV, himself sympathetic to the Protestants, issued the Edict of Nantes in 1598, officially tolerating Protestantism in France. This Edict was however revoked in 1685, and Protestants were either killed or driven out of the country completely.

The Reformation in the Netherlands

The spread of Protestantism in the Netherlands was countered by the public burning of Luther's books and the imposition in 1522, of the Inquisition by the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V. These suppressive measures were however unsuccessful, and by 1550, the north of the Netherlands were solidly Protestant: the southern provinces (later to become Belgium) remained overwhelmingly Catholic.

The adoption of Calvinism by the Dutch had an important side effect: they rebelled against the Catholic Spanish who had occupied the Netherlands since the early 16th century. A Spanish Catholic/Dutch Protestant war broke out which was not only fought on religious grounds, but also with nationalistic fervor as part of a conflict which came to be known as the Thirty Years War.

This war started in earnest in 1568 and continued until 1648, when Spain was forced to abandon the Netherlands in terms of the Treaty of Westphalia.

The Reformation in Scotland and the Fifth Christian War 1560-1567

In Scotland, the ideology of Protestantism fell upon receptive ears, and repression from the Catholic English monarchy only served to spur on Scottish nationalism and reinforce the belief that the Catholic Church was not acting in the interests of the Scots.

The final break with Catholicism came with the appearance of the Calvinist follower John Knox, who

in 1560, persuaded the Scottish parliament to formally adopt Protestantism. The Parliament then started the Scottish Presbyterian church. The Roman Catholic Mary, queen of Scots, declared herself opposed to the new church, and launched a seven year long war in an attempt to suppress it. She lost, and was forced to flee to England.

The Reformation in England

Although counted as a Protestant church, the origin of the Anglican Church in fact lays in the very non religious marital affairs of the English King Henry VIII. Henry wished to divorce his, Catherine of Aragon (daughter of king Ferdinand of Spain) because the marriage had not produced a male heir.

His marriage to Catherine would have been illegal under normal circumstances: she was the widow of his brother, and special papal permission was required before Henry was allowed to marry her.

After breaking the rules to marry Henry and Catherine, the pope then refused to divorce them: Henry went ahead anyway and got the archbishop of Canterbury to pronounce his divorce from Catherine. The pope then expelled Henry from the church.

Henry responded by getting the English parliament to declare the English sovereign and his successors as the head of the English church. In this way the Anglican church was established, in a spectacularly unreligious way.

The Catholic monasteries were then suppressed and their property turned over to the Royal purse. These acts did not mean that Henry welcomed Protestantism himself: on the contrary, he further enacted the Act of Six Articles in 1539, which specifically declared it a heresy to deny the main tenets of Catholicism.

As a result many Lutherans were burned at the stake as heretics, while at the same time those Catholics who refused to accept that the English king was now the head of the church in England, were also executed.

It was only in 1547, that the Act of Six Articles was repealed by Henry's successor, Edward VI, who also invited Protestant missionaries into England.

Queen Mary I attempted, however, to restore Roman Catholicism as the state religion, and during her reign many Protestants were burned at the stake. Then Queen Elizabeth I restored Protestantism in 1563, and the Catholics were in turn persecuted.

A number of Britons were not happy with the still close similarities between Catholicism and Anglicanism, and formed a number of breakaway sects, called Puritans, Quakers and host of others. Many of these sects were despised equally by both Catholics and Protestants, and a small number of Protestant Extremists eventually left England to become the founding fathers of White America.

The Sixth Christian War - the Thirty Years War 1618 -1648

The greatest Christian War of all was however the Thirty Years' War which ran from 1618 until 1648.

Starting in Bohemia with a localized conflict between Catholics and Protestants, it provided an opportunity for a number of major European countries to attack each other, based mainly on religious affiliation, using Germany as a convenient battleground.

Armed Divisions

Despite official religious toleration being established by the Peace of Augsburg in 1555, the Catholics and Protestants in Germany still tried every now and then to destroy each other. Tensions were aggravated during the reign of the Holy Roman Emperor Rudolf II (1576-1612).

Protestant churches in many parts of Germany were destroyed and restrictions were placed on the rights of Protestants to worship freely. In response, the Protestant princes and states banded together in a formal military alliance known as the Evangelical Union in 1608.

The Catholics responded by forming the Catholic League in 1609, and a renewed conflict between the two sides became inevitable.

Out the Window

The Protestants in Bohemia struck first: in May 1618, the Protestants of Prague invaded the royal palace, seized two of the Catholic German king's ministers, and threw them out of an upstairs window.

This act, known as the Defenestration of Prague, was the beginning of a national Protestant uprising. The Protestant forces achieved numerous initial successes, and the rebellion swiftly spread to other parts of the Habsburg dominions. For a brief period early in 1619, even Vienna, the Habsburg capital, was threatened by Evangelical Union armies.

However, the Protestants themselves were divided: an attempt to install the Bohemian prince, a Calvinist, as a new king of Germany, alienated the Lutheran Germans, who then withdrew from the Evangelical Union, objecting to a Calvinist king as much as a Catholic king.

Taking advantage of the Protestant dissension, the Catholics assumed the offensive and defeated the Bohemian Protestants in November 1620 at the Battle of Weisserberg near Prague. Thousands of Protestants, combatants or not, were then killed out of hand, with Protestantism being formally outlawed in Bohemia.

Despite a determined Protestant resurgence, which saw a Catholic army being defeated at the April 1622 Battle of Wiesloch, the Catholics had, by 1624, managed to kill most of the Protestants of weapon bearing age, and Bohemia was returned to the Catholic held territories.

The Danes Get Involved

The next phase of the Thirty Years' War saw the first foreign intervention: in 1625, King Christian IV of Denmark, invaded Saxony in support of the Protestant German states, encountering little resistance until a combined German Catholic army engaged the Danes at the Battle of Dessau in 1626. The

Danes were defeated: the Catholics followed up their victory with another Danish defeat in August of that year at Lutter am Barenberge, Germany.

The Danes fled back north, and the Catholic armies set about pillaging, looting and destroying every Protestant north German town they seized. Catholic victory seemed complete: in March 1629, the Catholic king issued the Edict of Restitution which effectively nullified all Protestant titles to all Roman Catholic property expropriated since the Peace of Augsburg in 1555.

The German Protestant city of Magdeburg then rose in revolt: it was besieged by a German Catholic army and crushed in May 1631, with every single Protestant inhabitant - tens of thousands of people - being massacred by the victorious Catholics. The city was also virtually burned to the ground in the looting that followed.

The Swedes Invade

The defeat of the Danes then provided for the next round of foreign Protestant intervention: the Swedes. Zealous Lutherans, they came to the aid of the suppressed north German Lutheran states, with an invasion of the German coast in 1630.

The Swedes won a number of battles against the Catholics in quick succession: the last of these, the Battle of Breitenfeld (now Leipzig), fought in September 1630, saw a large part of the Catholic army, over 6000 men, killed. The Swedes then advanced into southern Germany, moving the theater of conflict onto Catholic lands for the first time.

By 1632, the Swedes had defeated another Catholic army on the banks of the Lech River and had captured Munich itself, capital of staunchly Catholic Bavaria. The Catholics responded by launching an invasion of Protestant Saxony in 1632: the Catholic and Protestant armies then spent a considerable amount of time and effort chasing each other round different parts of Germany, all the time laying waste to any towns in their way which happened to belong to the wrong branch of whichever Christian army passed through it.

Finally the Swedes caught up with the Catholics in November 1632, and the two sides engaged each other at the Battle of Lutzen. During this battle the Swedish king, Gustav, was killed, but the Protestants still won the day, and the Catholics were forced to retreat. All of Bavaria was then overrun by the Protestant armies, harried only by Catholic attacks in Silesia.

Then the Catholic forces staged a dramatic comeback at the battle of Nordlingen in September 1634: the Swedes were routed and Protestant resistance collapsed as quickly as it had arisen. A peace treaty was concluded in 1635, which saw the Swedes withdraw the remnants of their army and which contained minor concessions to the Saxon Lutherans.



The Thirty Years War: the Swedish Protestant king, Gustav Adolphus, receives the keys of Munich after taking the town. A third of all Germany was destroyed in this Christian originated war.

The French Invade

The final phase of the Thirty Years' War was the only part of the conflict which was not primarily driven by religious conflict but by political divisions between France and Germany. The dramatic turnaround in the course of the war saw the German Catholic House of Habsburg relaunched into a position of prominence in Central Europe. France, under the House of Bourbon, was also Catholic, but simultaneously extremely alarmed at the increasing power of the House of Habsburg, particularly after the victories over the Protestant German states.

By this time, through intermarriage, the House of Habsburg surrounded France on three sides: Spain, the Netherlands and Germany itself. The French took the initiative to try and destroy this encirclement by the Habsburgs, and in May 1635 declared war against Spain.

In the resultant confusion, the Protestant powers once again intervened, and Germany itself reverted to a battlefield where Swedes, German Catholics, German Protestants, Dutch Protestants, Austrians and French all fought each other.

The most significant battle of this period was fought at Wittstock in October 1636, when a Swedish Protestant force defeated an Austrian force, badly depleting Habsburg power in the country as a whole. In the same year, the French gained the upper hand against the Spanish, while by 1638 the Catholic Germans were defeated at Rheinfelden in March 1638. Between 1642 and 1645, the Swedes overran Denmark, which had in the interim become allied with the Catholics, and ravaged large sections of western Germany and Austria.

Bavaria Surrenders

Major battles continued between the various armies through to 1647, when the French army managed to invade and hold Bavaria: the Bavarian king, Maximilian I, then dropped out of the war, concluding a separate peace with Sweden and France, known as the Truce of Ulm, in March of that year.

Despite this, the overall Catholic German king, Ferdinand II, refused to surrender. Fighting continued in fits and starts in Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Spain and Italy until 1648. In that year the war took a decisive turn; the Bavarians re-entered the war on the Catholic side - but a French army inflicted a crushing defeat upon a combined Austro-Bavarian force in May 1648.

The Swedes then lay siege to the German king's home city of Prague; Munich was then besieged once again by a French and Swedish force; and Vienna itself came under threat. The overwhelming run of defeats finally brought the war to a conclusion: all sides signed the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648, bringing to an end that Christian War.

Peace of Westphalia

The peace of Westphalia, signed in 1648, fundamentally influenced the history of Europe. Switzerland and the Netherlands were established as independent states; the Holy Roman Empire of the German kings was dramatically loosened, preventing German unification for another two hundred years, and France was left as the major continental power in Western Europe.

Racial Consequences of the Thirty Years' War

The racial consequences of the Christian Wars, and in particular the Thirty Years' War, were vast. The German population was reduced by at least one third, and probably more: when combined with the effects of the Great Plague of the 1300s, the German population actually shrunk by over 50 per cent in the course of 300 years: a massive decline which, if avoided, would certainly have changed the course of world history.

When the history of the Christian Wars is read in conjunction with the 20th century conflict in Ireland; the torture and lunacy of parts of the Inquisition; the suppression of learning and science caused by the Christian Dark Ages; and the division the White populations into opposing Christian camps in even supposedly secular counties such as North America; then no other conclusion is possible except to say that the introduction of Christianity has to count as the single greatest ideological catastrophe to ever strike Europe.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Forty Four

White Expansion: Voyages of Discovery and Settlement

When the White explorations of Africa, North America, Australia, New Zealand, Central and South America, India, China and Japan, are reviewed by most historians, very often the most important factor which gave rise to this era is deliberately ignored: the staggering disparity in technology between the White explorers and the native peoples is the only reason why it was the Whites who explored and colonized the rest of the world, and not the other way round.

That this is so will come as no surprise to readers of this book: already the examples of the Hunnish, Mongol, and Turkish invasions of Europe have been reviewed: the only reason why these Nonwhite races managed to overwhelm the Whites in those examples was because they were simply stronger than the Whites they encountered.

This principle of "might being right", has in fact governed all great historical events, and applies equally to the period of White exploration and settlement of the rest of the world, with the only addition to this rule being that the numbers of Whites needed to accomplish this task was not quite so large, due to the massive technological superiority which Europe had built up.

Technology: Superiority and Inferiority

The issue of technological superiority, or on its flip side, inferiority, is therefore crucial to understanding not only the events of the era of White exploration, but also to understanding the attitudes of those undertaking the exploration and conquests: without such an understanding (deliberately ignored in most historical works) the whole era of exploration seems pointless and disjointed, both of which it was not.

Africa

In Africa, despite the earlier contact the Blacks had had with the original White Egyptians, and then later the mixed race Arabic/Semitic nations (who had sent slave hunting expeditions far south into Africa), the vast majority of Black tribes were massively technologically inferior to the Whites at the time of the exploration of that continent.

Although some Black tribes in Africa had formal settlements with huts made of mud and sticks, the basic invention upon which virtually all significant development had been made, the wheel, was unknown amongst the Blacks when the first Whites stepped ashore in central Africa in the late 1400s.

The absence of the wheel serves as a potent symbol of just how technologically backwards Africa was: the wheel had been in existence since the very earliest Stone Age era in Europe and the Middle East: yet it was unknown in Africa before 1500 AD, only some 500 years ago.

This disparity is made more dramatic (and meaningful) if it is borne in mind that the Black Nubians had been exposed to the wheel through their contact with the White Egyptians starting around the year 3000 BC: however, even this basic technology was not transmitted through the rest of the African continent in any form whatsoever.

In fact, whatever technological advances there were in Africa all came from the outside: most in existence at the time of the White exploration, had come to Africa through the even earlier explorations carried out by Arabic nations.

Black Africa was also totally illiterate - again despite being exposed to White Egyptian and later Arabic literacy; even the written Black languages of today were only first captured on paper by White explorers, who attempted to put White rules of grammar and pronunciation into these languages. This was a difficult enough task by itself, but then the Whites had to invent African sounding words for concepts foreign to Africans: for example there was no word for "wheel" in any of the African languages.

The clothes which today are often incorrectly regarded as "ethnic" African wear - loose fitting, colorful dresses, shirts and headgear - are of course not African at all, as the original Africans possessed no such material creation skills. These clothes come exclusively from Arabic and European sources. The only original "ethnic" African wear consisted of basic loincloths made from untreated animal skins.

So it was that when the Whites arrived in Africa, they were confronted with peoples who seemed (and indeed were, in real terms) massively technologically inferior. It is little wonder then that attitudes of the time were shaped by a sense of White superiority - and without understanding this mindset, the whole pattern of colonial history becomes incomprehensible and meaningless.

Australia

In Australia, much the same conditions as in Africa applied: in fact, the Aborigines were the only people on earth never to have made the connection between the sexual act and childbirth. As for the Nonwhite tribes living in the islands to the north of Australia, it is enough said that even today there are primitive head hunting and cannibalistic tribes still living in virtually exactly the same conditions as they had before the arrival of the Whites.

India

In India, the situation was somewhat different: the existence of a native Indian culture and the previous establishment of the Aryan civilization had left a legacy of a fairly advanced continent - certainly far more advanced than Africa or Australia - and as a result the feelings of White superiority amongst White explorers on this continent were not as marked as they were in Africa or Australia.

South and Central America

In South and Central America, the Whites encountered the Inca and Aztec peoples who had, despite being under virtually identical environmental conditions as those pertaining in Africa, produced an advanced civilization utterly superior to anything produced in Africa; this disparity being one of the

most powerful counter arguments to the "environmental" theory of the development of civilizations.

The Amerinds of South and Central America produced great buildings, images, statues and artifacts which are still wonders to this day and which thoroughly impressed the White explorers who first set eyes on this culture.

Yet, underlying this culture were aspects which the White explorers could not explain and some of which they found highly disturbing: the existence of cannibalism as an accepted part of the religious rituals in these societies filled the White explorers with shock, while the absence of the wheel from these civilizations has never been satisfactorily explained (how they built cities without wheeled vehicles is a wonder all to itself).

They had however advanced societal structures, including a basic literacy, but in terms of other forms of technology they were at a huge disadvantage when dealing with the White newcomers. Other south and central American tribes were however as primitive as anything else found in Africa or Australia.

North America

In North America, the Amerind natives were less developed than their racial cousins in South and Central America, and also suffered from distinct technological backwardness, including the absence of the wheel. In addition to this, the practice of scalping, or taking the skin off the top of their enemies' heads, often while still alive, was a practice which the White settlers in North America found particularly shocking, and helped to create a definite opinion amongst these early settlers that the North American Amerinds were culturally inferior as well.

The Far East

The Chinese and Japanese were another two Nonwhite nations encountered by the White explorers who possessed an advanced civilization, and who in terms of literacy and culture, were in some cases the equivalent of White culture. However, the technological advantage held by the Whites still placed them in a position of superiority over the Chinese and Japanese - at least for as long as it took for these people to copy and duplicate these technologies.

For these reasons, the sense of superiority which Whites had developed after their contacts with other races in different parts of the globe, was almost reversed in China and Japan. From the very first White contact with the Chinese, that of the northern Italian Marco Polo, the Chinese were always held in high esteem, and it is therefore no co-incidence that the only lands which the Whites never tried to fully colonize were China and Japan: two superb examples of the might is right principle at work once again.

Charles Savage

In other parts of the world, the superior White technological advantage is nowhere better illustrated than in the case of the lone White Englishman, Charles Savage, who quite literally single handedly destroyed the native population's power structure on the island of Fiji.

In 1808, Charles Savage sailed up a river in Fiji in a canoe to the village of Kasavu, halting less than a pistol shot's distance from the village fence. Firing away at the villagers, Savage's victims became so numerous that surviving villagers piled up the bodies to take shelter behind them, and the stream beside the village was red with blood. The hundreds of villagers were helpless against one White man and his gun: the after effects on the power balance on the island were astonishing. (Guns, Germs and Steel, Jared Diamond, Jonathan Cape, 1997).

Such exploits are legion: those undertaking them could not have thought anything else than that they were superior to the peoples they were conquering; and indeed, in straight technological terms, they were.

The Cause of the Disparity

It is an indisputable fact that at the time of the voyages of exploration, the White race held a massive advantage in the technological field over all other races on earth. It is more of a sociopolitical minefield to establish the reason why the Whites had this advantage and the other races did not.

Many reasons have been advanced in an attempt to explain the technological gap: all of them have relied on the "environmental" argument, to wit, that the Whites developed their technological advantages because of any number of factors in their "environment", be they the temperature, the presence of domestic animals or proximity to the sea or rivers.

The environmental argument however collapses when inspected closely: quite apart from the fact that advanced White civilizations flourished independently in every conceivable environmental circumstance (which includes the entire range from the frozen lands of the far north right through to the deserts of Egypt); when all factors are equated (the absence or presence of domestic animals, proximity of rivers or the sea and so on) the harsh reality is that the Whites inhabited no better "environments" than many of the other races of the world.

Indeed, if a suitable environment were the only determining factor, then some of the richest land in the world, in terms of arable land, rainfall and mineral wealth, lies in south central Africa, in the Congo River basin. Yet no significant civilization emerged there until the arrival of White, and specifically Belgian, colonists - and then collapsed once the White colonists left in the mid 20th century.

The reason for these disparities is also crucial to an understanding of racial dynamics: each civilization is a reflection of the people who make up that society, and this rule remains as true for Whites as it does for any other race.

The White technological advantage was a reflection of the nature of White society; and the lack of technology in other societies is a reflection of the nature of those original societies. There simply is no other explanation, as unpopular as this conclusion may be.

It is against these backgrounds of staggering disparities in terms of technology and level of civilization - almost incomprehensible to the modern mind - therefore, that the White voyages of discovery must be considered.

The First White Explorer

The first great White explorer of foreign lands was the (German Lombard) Venetian Marco Polo, who accompanied his father and uncle, two merchants, on their trading missions to Peking in China, arriving there in 1275 for the first time. Although Polo senior obviously knew where he was going, his son was the one to gain the fame as it was he who wrote down accounts of what he had seen and who popularized the images of a faraway rich land.

The Polos obviously impressed the Chinese Emperor of the time, one Kublai Khan, and were almost immediately given posts in the Chinese government, remaining eventually 17 years in China before returning home to Venice. Marco Polo's accounts of China were received incredulously in Europe: his description of coal being used for heating in China was soon adopted, as was the use of wheat to create pasta, a dish which became so popular in Italy that it is long forgotten that the dish originated in China.

Polo helped to create the image of the Far East as a land of riches, and for centuries thereafter some of the greatest minds of Europe were put to work trying to reach shorter ways to China than the overland trek, which could last years in a round trip.

Prince Henry the Navigator

A Portuguese prince, Henry the Navigator, was the first member of the European nobility to realise the potential of exploration. Although he personally did not undertake any major explorations, he made it financially possible for others to do so by in 1418, setting up a naval center at Sagres. During the next 80 years, Portuguese seamen discovered the Azores, Cape Verde, and the Madeira Islands, and pushed South along the African shore. In 1444, they reached Cape Verde.

Bartholomew Diaz

In 1488, an explorer name Bartholomew Diaz sailed even further down the African coast than ever before: great was his and his crew's shock when they were caught in a storm and blown south for 13 days. When the storm cleared Daiz turned east again, hoping to quickly find the coast: after a few days he had found none. Suspecting that he had now sailed south past Africa, he turned due north, and within a short while sighted land: the first time that European eyes set sight on the coast of South Africa. Going ashore he erected a cross, the first White structure in Africa south of the equator.

Diaz was tempted to push on further east: his crew however threatened him with mutiny, and the mission returned to Portugal, where news of their discovery of the end of Africa served to confirm the belief that it was possible to sail to the East. Because of the promise this discovery held, the tip of Africa was named by the King of Portugal as the "Cape of Good Hope."

Christopher Columbus

The most famous explorer of all was Christopher Columbus, a Genoan by birth but by race another direct descendant of the Germanic Lombards: his son described his father so:

" . . . a well built man of more than medium stature. . . . he had an aquiline nose and his eyes were light in color; his complexion was too light, but kindling to a vivid red. In his youth his hair was blond, but when he came to his thirtieth year it all turned white." (Admiral of the Ocean Sea: A Life of Christopher Columbus, S.E. Morrison, Little, Brown & Co, Boston, 1942, p. 62).

At first Columbus tried to get the Portuguese to back an expedition to the west, arguing that because the world was round, it would be possible to reach the east by sailing west without having to go round Africa, as the Portuguese were trying to do. The Portuguese were however unconvinced, and with Diaz's success still ringing in their ears, they showed Columbus the door.

The Spanish, having just finished throwing the Moors and Jews out of their country, then turned their attention to exploration. Columbus presented his proposal to Queen Isabella and King Ferdinand in 1492. Isabella in particular was taken with the idea: she agreed to fund the expedition.

In August 1492, Columbus sailed with three small ships, landing on 12 October 1492, on Watling Island in the Bahamas. After then discovering Cuba and Hispaniola, he returned to Spain in 1493, where he was made admiral and governor of the lands he had discovered.

In October 1493, he left on a second expedition with 17 ships, planning to set up trading posts and colonies and carrying hundreds of colonists. This expedition discovered Puerto Rico, Jamaica, the Virgin islands and some of the Lesser Antilles.

On his third voyage in 1498, Columbus finally sighted the South American mainland and also discovered Trinidad. His fourth and last voyage, in 1502, came upon the central American coast at the Honduras, he followed it to present day Panama before returning.

Discontent with the conditions he imposed upon the colonists led to a near revolt and he was relieved of his governorship: he died in 1506, in poverty and virtually forgotten in his time. Thus although Columbus is widely credited with having discovered "America", he in fact never came near what later became North America. He himself also refused to believe that he had not discovered anything but the Far East for which he had originally been looking.



Columbus lands on Watling island. Note the Amerinds fleeing in terror in the top right.

Pedro Cabral

The Portuguese explorer, Pedro Cabral, sailed to South America in 1500, where he claimed the coast of Brazil for his country, establishing the basis for what was to become, geographically speaking, the largest country in South America.

Vasco Da Gama

With the realization that Columbus had not found the Far East after all, but unsure whether the Spanish would find a way via the Americas, the Portuguese renewed their expeditions south. In 1497, the Portuguese explorer, Vasco da Gama, set sail, swinging far out into the South Atlantic before cutting back towards Africa, rounding that continent and finally landing in Calicut, India in 1498.

In India he was received incredulously: trading for spices and precious stones, he returned home, the profits from that single journey helping to establish Portugal as a major power of the age of exploration. Within the next two decades, Portuguese expeditions reached the Moluccas and the Canton River in China.



Vasco da Gama, the first White man to sail around Africa to India.

John Cabot

The Italian explorer, Giovanni Caboto, using his Anglicized name of John Cabot, was entrusted by the English King, Henry VII, to explore the Americas on behalf of the English crown. Sailing due west instead of following the major trans Atlantic current, Caboto was the first White to set foot on the North American continent since the Vikings, landing in the lands now known as Nova Scotia and New England in 1497. When he landed, he set up both the English and Venetian flags.

Amerigo Vespucci

Amerigo Vespucci was yet another northern Italian who found ready employment in the Spanish court. Suspecting that Columbus' discovery was in fact not Asia, but a new world by itself, he explored the coast of South America in two voyages, from 1499 to 1500, and from 1501 to 1502, announcing his findings at the time. In his honor, a 1507 European map maker named the new lands "America." Few people have had nations named after them, and only Amerigo Vespucci gave his name to a continent.

Vasco de Balbao

Another Spanish expedition in 1513, led by Vasco de Balbao, saw a group of 190 men land in modern day Panama, and after a short march, climbed a hill on 25 September 1513 to see the Pacific Ocean: the first time confirmation was sent back to Europe that there was yet another sea to be explored.

Ferdinand Magellan

The Portuguese explorer Ferdinand Magellan was then employed by the Spanish to further explore the Americas. In 1519, Magellan sailed up the mouth of the Rio de la Plata; by November of the following year he had rounded the southernmost part of South America passing through the straits

that still carry his name.

In 1521, Magellan reached the Philippines, where the first major nasty clash occurred: as they were landing, the Whites were attacked by natives: Magellan was killed. In 1522 the only remaining ship of Magellan's original fleet of five sailed back to Spain, the first ship in the world to circumnavigate the globe.

Francis Drake

The English Admiral Francis Drake then copied Magellan's circumnavigation of the globe in a three year long expedition from 1577 to 1580, stopping off on the way to attack and capture a fortune in booty from Spanish settlements along the South American Pacific coasts.

Henry Hudson

In 1609, the English explorer, in the employ of the Dutch, explored the Hudson River and sailed into the Hudson Bay in Canada in a further expedition in 1610, this time financed by the British. This second expedition ended in personal disaster: after a bitter winter he was set adrift in 1661 by a mutinous crew and left to die.

Jacques Cartier

In 1534, the French explorer Jacques Cartier discovered the St. Lawrence River and in 1535, he explored that river as far as Mont Royal, which he named. His reports sent back to France were that the North Americas were inhospitable: many potential settlers were discouraged by his pessimistic interpretations. Cartier's discoveries were followed up by further explorations by fellow Frenchmen, Samuel de Champlain, who founded Quebec and explored the Great Lakes region; and Rene Le Salle, who explored the Mississippi river right down to the Gulf of Mexico by 1681.

Willem Jansz

The Dutch were quick to follow up on the Portuguese discovery of the sea route to India round the Cape, and by 1600, several Dutch trading posts had been set up in Asia, mainly in Indonesia. Working from these trading centers, the Dutch were the first Whites to discover Australia. In 1606 the Hollander Willem Jansz sailed into Torres Strait, between the Australian mainland and New Guinea. (The strait was later named for a Spanish explorer, Luis Vaez de Torres, who sailed into the same area in the same year and determined that New Guinea was an island.)

Dirk Hartog

In 1616, the Dutch sailor Dirk Hartog followed a new southern route across the Indian Ocean to Batavia (now Jakarta, Indonesia). Winds blew his ship, the Eendracht, too far to the east and Hartog landed on an offshore island of western Australia, becoming the first known White to set foot on Australian soil. Before sailing north to Batavia, he left a pewter plate on the island inscribed with a record of his visit.

Abel Tasman

Encouraged by Jansz's voyages, Dutch governors-general at Batavia commissioned expeditions into the southern oceans. The most successful was that of Abel Tasman, who in 1642, moved into the waters of southern Australia, discovering the island now known as Tasmania. Tasman then sailed farther east and north to explore New Zealand in 1642.

James Cook

In 1768, the Englishman Captain James Cook set off on a three year voyage to the Pacific that also took him to Australia. Cook landed at Botany Bay on the eastern coast, explored and mapped the region and named it New South Wales. Two additional voyages in the 1770s, added information on the Australian landmass and in 1769, Cook visited New Zealand and claimed possession of them for Britain.

Before he could return to Europe, Cook was killed in a surprise attack by Nonwhite tribesmen on a beach in the Hawaii islands.

Matthew Flinders

The English explorer, Matthew Flinders, was the first to circumnavigate the Australian continent, a task which was only achieved in 1803. As a result Flinders was the first to produce a map showing Australia's complete coastline: by this time the first British settlements were up and running on the continent, and the landmass was firmly in the British sphere of influence.

Overland in Africa

During the late 18th century, more and more territories in the African interior were explored by Whites:

- the British explorer James Bruce reached the source of the Blue Nile in 1770;
- the Scottish explorer Mungo Park explored (1795 and 1805) the course of the Niger River;
- the German explorer Heinrich Barth traveled widely in the Muslim western Sudan;
- the Scottish missionary David Livingstone explored the Zambezi River and in 1855, named the Victoria Falls in present day Zimbabwe;
- the British explorers John Hanning Speke and James Augustus Grant, traveling downstream, and Sir Samuel White Baker, working upstream, solved the mystery of the source of the Nile in 1863.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Forty Five

The New World: Initial Colonies, Japan and China

Almost as quickly as it had started, the White exploration of the earth came to a halt - because there were no more new lands to discover. It is not difficult to imagine the sense of victory or the feeling of supremacy which must have pervaded White Europe at this time: not only had they smashed the isolation of the continents, something that had eluded even the great Romans, but they had sailed right round it in ships made of wood: once an expedition left the safety of its European port, it was on its own. It had to use its own on-board skills to repair, maintain, supply and fend for itself, in lands and seas completely unknown: in many ways a more dangerous venture than even space travel in the 20th century.

More importantly, the White explorers had established beyond any question that they were technologically vastly superior to any other race on earth. The obvious next step was to start settling the new lands: almost immediately White settlements and colonies sprang up like toadstools in the furthest corners of the globe.

North America

Spain was the first White country to establish a colony in modern day America: a town called Saint Augustine (today in the state of Florida) was built by the Spanish in 1565. At this time, Spain and England were engaged in one of the seemingly endless European Wars, which would, in 1588, culminate in the defeat of the Spanish Armada. This destruction of the Spanish fleet left Spain unable to compete effectively with the British in the colonization of North America.

The English Arrive But Are Wiped Out

In 1585, the first English settlement in North America was established on an island off the coast of the present day state of North Carolina. This expedition failed due to a lack of agricultural expertise, and a second attempt was launched in 1587. This second expedition, led by one John White, was more successful and landed in a territory they called Virginia, honoring the English Queen Elizabeth 1 (who was alleged to have been a virgin).

John White sailed back to England for further supplies: the war with Spain prevented him from returning until 1590. Upon his return the entire settlement had vanished, never to be heard of or seen again. The only possible explanation for the vanished colony could have been an attack and massacre by American Indians (called Amerinds): if disease or some natural cause had killed them, some bodies would have been found.

The First Successful Colony: Virginia

Undaunted, the English launched a third attempt: in 1607, the colony of Jamestown in Virginia was established as a private project run by a British company, the Virginia Company of London.

This company recruited not only settlers to go out to the colony of Virginia to establish farms, but also engaged in the forceful abduction of Whites to be used as laborers in the new colony: not only criminals but also vagrants and very often children were grabbed off the streets of London and sent off as forced laborers to the new colony.

The Virginia Company was however not a success: disease and starvation saw thousands of the first immigrants die, and in 1622, a furious war, the first race war in North America, broke out between the Whites and the Amerinds.

This war ended indecisively with the Indians retreating deeper inland, but the events caused the British government to revoke the Virginia Company's license to trade in the colony and took over the running of Virginia itself: the first formal British colony had been created.

The first change the British government implemented was the lifting of controls on the production of tobacco, an addictive herb which the Amerinds had introduced to the White settlers. The economy in Virginia took off, based on tobacco production which was exported in large quantities back to England, and the White population grew by leaps and bounds.

A large section of this population was forced White labor: when the supply of White slaves proved too costly to maintain, the unscrupulous tobacco plantation owners turned to importing Black African slaves.

Quebec

While the British had been settling Jamestown, the French and Dutch had also sent expeditions to North America. In 1608, the French established a major colony at Quebec and French explorers across the continent brought huge tracts of land, including the Mississippi River valley, which remained under French rule in the 75 years following the founding of Quebec.

The French did not however import huge numbers of their own population or African slaves, instead leaving the Amerinds in their regions and only establishing trading stations. This laid the basis for an Amerind/French friendship which was to cost the British dearly.

The Dutch West India Company

In 1621 the Dutch government granted a charter to the a privately established company, the Dutch West India Company, which quickly established colonies in the West Indies, Brazil, and North America.

New Amsterdam

The Dutch settled the area which Henry Hudson had discovered and mapped for them on the North American coast. Calling the land New Netherlands, the first trading posts were established on what became Manhattan Island by 1614.

The first proper Dutch settlement in North America was established in 1624, when Hollanders founded the city of New Amsterdam, now called New York. The Amerind population vehemently resisted the Dutch settlements from the first: a lingering race war between the White Dutch and Indians became an unrelenting feature of life in New Netherlands.

Pilgrim Fathers

In the meanwhile, a new group of English settlers had arrived in North America: religious refugees, they went on to be called the pilgrim fathers, or founding fathers of America. It is from the time of the arrival of that group of settlers in 1620, that White American history is formally taken to have started.

South America

The first White settlements in Central and South America were Spanish, being created during the lifetime of Christopher Columbus. These centers included what is now the Dominican Republic and Cuba. From the latter island, the Spanish launched several forays into Central and South America, the most famous being that of Hernando Cortes into Central America and Francisco Pizarro into South America (both these amazing stories are recounted in detail in a later chapter).

German Colony

In 1529, a German colony was established in modern day Venezuela. This colony did not last long and was disbanded shortly afterwards, although not all of the colonists returned to Europe, soon becoming submerged into the local population.

Africa

The Kongo and the Portuguese Slave Trade

When the Portuguese arrived on the Congo-Angola coast in the 1480s, they found suitable allies in the Kongo tribe - who were amongst the first Blacks to convert to Christianity. This did not however prevent them from co-operating with the Portuguese in capturing neighboring tribesmen and selling them as slaves to the Portuguese, and it was from the Congo/Angolan interior that the majority of all Black slaves to be exported to America and Portugal itself originated. In 1515, the Portuguese founded the port of Luanda to facilitate this slave trade.

Ethiopia

In Ethiopia, the Portuguese allied themselves with local tribesmen and fought off a slave trading conquest by Arabs in 1542 - but in 1632, the Portuguese themselves were expelled from Ethiopia by locals as well. The Ethiopians, under Emperor Menelik II, defeated an Italian force in 1896 and became the first independent African state in that year - only to virtually collapse precisely 100 years later when a combination of over population and backward farming methods (which caused massive soil erosion) caused the worst man made famine ever yet seen on earth. In that year - 1986 - Whites in Europe and America felt compelled to come to Ethiopia's aid, most notably through the creation of "Live Aid" fund raising pop concerts in Europe.

French Possessions

The French began the conquest of Algeria and Senegal in the 1830s. They put down a revolt by the mixed race Arabic population of Algeria in 1870, and from 1881 to 1897, quelled all resistance to White rule by force of arms in the Western Sudan. Dahomey was occupied by French forces in 1892, and the Wadai region was the last area to fall to the French, in 1900.

Belgium Claims the Congo

In 1876, King Leopold II of the Belgians established the International Association of the Congo, a private company, for the exploration and colonization of the region. His principal agent for this task was the Englishman, Henry Stanley.

German Colonies

Although a late starter in the race for colonies, the Germans still managed to seize some important areas: German South West Africa, now called Namibia, in 1884; and the country now known as Tanzania fell under German control in 1891. The Germans faced (1904-1908) the Herero insurrection in South-West Africa and Maji Maji revolt (1905-1907) in Tanganyika, both of which were put down with several bloody massacres of the local population: in Namibia it is estimated that as much as 30 per cent of the Herero population was killed in conflict with the Germans.

The Dutch Land in South Africa

By 1602, the Dutch government granted permission to a private company called the Dutch East India Company, to exploit the growing colonies and trading posts in the Far East. Deciding they needed a halfway way point as a supply station, they sent one of their junior officials, Jan van Riebeeck, to the Cape of Good Hope at the southernmost point of Africa in that year, with instructions to build a fort and supply station. In both of these aims, Van Riebeeck succeeded, laying the basis for what was to become the most long lasting White settlement in all of Africa.

The Dutch in the Far East

Although the Portuguese had been the first to land in the Far East by sea, their own internal problems prevented them from exploiting the route they had opened up: within a few decades they had been displaced by other European powers who had not imported tens of thousands of Black slaves to their countries. By 1602, the Dutch East India Company, had established itself first in the Moluccas, or Spice Islands, and later on West Java, where Batavia (modern Jakarta) became the center of the company's enterprises.

These enterprises were devoted mostly to trade and to the establishment of trading posts, and they did not initially concern themselves with trying to govern the region. However, the necessity of maintaining peace among the native tribes, who fought each other furiously and severely disrupted the trade, forced the Dutch to begin governing the land (now called Indonesia). In the same way, the Dutch ended up controlling Java and Ceylon (now Sri Lanka) by 1800.

China

Portuguese explorers were the first Whites to arrive by sea in China, landing in 1514. By 1557, they had acquired a trading station at Macau and by 1570, trade began between China and Spanish settlements in the Philippines. In 1619, the Dutch settled in Taiwan and took possession of the nearby P'enghu Islands (Pescadores). Soon Jesuit missionaries arrived in China from Europe but failed utterly in their attempts to convert the Chinese who rejected the Christian religion with scorn.

British Trade

China profited admirably from the trading stations, with the British being their biggest customers for the tea trade, paying handsomely in silver. The British then added a new twist to the trade: they started importing opium from India into China as part payment. The use of opium took off like a rocket in China: soon it became a serious issue for the Chinese government, which then instituted measures to try and stop it.

In 1839, Chinese officials confiscated and destroyed huge amounts of opium from British ships in the harbor at Guangzhou and applied severe pressures to the British trading community in that city. The British refused to restrict further importation of opium, and the Opium Wars between Britain and China broke out in that same year.

The First Opium War

The Chinese were however no match for British military superiority and were badly defeated: the war ended in 1842, after Britain had seized Hong Kong in 1841, Chinkiang in 1842, and threatened Peking itself. In terms of the Treaty of Nanking which ended the war, Hong Kong was ceded to Britain and the right to trade was granted to the British in a number of Chinese towns. During the next two years, both France and the United States extracted similar treaties from China.

The Second Opium War

Non performance by China of several important clauses of these treaties led to the outbreak of the Second Opium War which ran from 1856 to 1860. During the course of this war, several dozen Whites were captured by the Chinese, and cruelly tortured and put to death. Filled with avenging rage, a joint British-French expeditionary force advanced to the Chinese capital, Peking, and burned down the famous Summer Palace in direct retaliation for the torturing to death of the White prisoners.

Prostrate under superior White firepower, the Chinese were forced to agree to implement the earlier treaties which, by their provisions, opened Chinese ports to foreign trade and residents and ceded Hong Kong and Kowloon to Britain.

White Powers Seize Parts of China

Following from the Second Opium War, Russia seized the Chinese provinces of northern Manchuria and the areas north of the Amur River in 1860; and in 1884, a war between the French and the Chinese saw Vietnam brought into the French colonial empire.

By 1898, powerless to resist foreign demands, China had been carved into spheres of economic influence. Russia was granted the right to construct a Trans-Siberian railroad, the Chinese Eastern Railway, across Manchuria to Vladivostok and the South Manchurian Railway south to the tip of the Liaodong Peninsula, as well as additional exclusive economic rights throughout Manchuria. Other exclusive rights to railway and mineral development were granted to Germany in Shandong Province, to France in the southern border provinces, to Great Britain in the Yangtze provinces, and to Japan in the southeastern coastal provinces.

The Boxer Uprising: Race War in China

The Boxer Uprising was a Chinese nationalist uprising against all Whites in China which took place in 1900. In 1899 a secret society of Chinese called the Yihequan ("Righteous and Harmonious Fists", also called the Boxers), began a campaign of terror against White Christian missionaries in the northeastern provinces.

Although the Boxers were officially denounced, they were secretly supported by many of the Chinese royal court, including the Dowager Empress Cixi. The terrorist activities of the Boxer society gradually increased during 1899, with Boxer bands attacking all Whites on sight.

When these bands entered the Chinese capital, Peking, the White powers sent a small armed column to the Chinese capital to protect the few Whites in the city. On 16 June 1900, the Empress Cixi ordered Chinese troops to attack the White army which was still outside Peking.

Empress of China Urges All Whites Killed

Then on 18 June 1900, the Empress Cixi publicly called on the Chinese to kill all the Whites they could find. Many Whites were then ruthlessly murdered: large numbers fled into the fortified foreign embassies in the city, including the Japanese embassy which was also targeted. There they were besieged by Chinese mobs.

Finally, a combined army consisting of British, French, Russian, German, American and Japanese troops entered Peking on 14 August 1900, relieving the besieged foreign embassies. Peking was then occupied by the White powers for a year until September 1901, when the Chinese signed a peace treaty in terms of which they had pay a large indemnity and grant the White powers the right to station troops in Peking to safeguard the embassies.

This situation remained unaltered right up until the early part of the 20th century, when China was released from some of the more harsh restrictions and the country dissolved into civil war and invasion by Japan.

Japan

The first Europeans to visit Japan were Portuguese traders who had landed on an island near Kyushu about 1543. After this Portuguese, Spanish, and Dutch traders visited Japan more and more frequently. The first significant result was the arrival of a Jesuit missionary, Saint Francis Xavier, in

1549, who started preaching Christianity to the locals. He achieved a small measure of success, and by 1549, there were an estimated 150,000 Japanese Christians.

Although still a tiny amount in terms of the total Japanese population, the Japanese authorities correctly saw the process as a form of European cultural colonialism, and in 1612, Christian Japanese became the subject of official persecution, and huge numbers were killed, in a reverse parody of the first Christianizing kings in Europe nearly 1000 years earlier.

Japanese Isolation Begins

In retaliation, the Japanese government refused permission to the Spanish to land in Japan after 1624. A further series of Japanese edicts in the next decade forbade any Japanese from traveling abroad, and also the building of any large ships. The study of any White literature of any sort was also forbidden.

The only Whites permitted to remain in Japan were a small group of Dutch traders restricted to the artificial island of Dejima in the harbor of Nagasaki. Even they were continually subjected to indignities and limitations on their activities. These restrictions were partially lifted in 1720, when the Tokugawa shogun Yoshimune repealed the ban on European books and study.

Commander Matthew Perry

By the first half of the 19th century, a new problem arose: a number of White American seamen, crew on a number of whalers that had been wrecked on the Japanese coast, were being held prisoner in Japan, which still officially banned any contact with the outside.

In 1853, the American government sent a formal mission to the emperor of Japan headed by Commodore Matthew Calbraith Perry, who arrived with a squadron of ships. Following extended negotiations, Perry and representatives of the emperor signed a treaty in March 1854, establishing trade relations between the United States and Japan.

In 1860, a Japanese embassy was sent to the United States, and two years later Japanese trade missions visited European capitals to negotiate formal agreements.

White Firepower

The opening of Japan was achieved more through the show of superior force by Western nations than by an actual desire for foreign relations on the part of Japanese leaders. Perry had demonstrated this power by actually firing a cannon from one of his ships into the Japanese coastline, not aimed at any target but just to demonstrate the power of White technological superiority to the Japanese.

The Japanese warlords, armed with swords and spears, were overawed at this overwhelming display of White military equipment and dared not, at first, resist. Nevertheless, a militant anti-White faction immediately developed, and attacks on White traders became common in the 1860s, culminating in a series of attacks on White ships in Japanese harbors.

An aggressive display of force by a White naval detachment in 1864, once again overawed the Japanese, and thereafter the number of anti-White attacks declined rapidly.

Japanese Imitation Launched

The Japanese then started a pattern for which they were later to become famous: under far sighted leadership they realized that stood no chance unless they were to be the technological equals of the White powers. French army officers were paid to enter Japan to remodel the Japanese army; British naval officers were paid to reorganize the Japanese navy; and Dutch engineers supervised the construction of the first major western style public works and infrastructure on the Japanese island.

Japanese officials were sent abroad to study the infrastructure and workings of White governments and to select their best features for duplication in Japan. A new penal code was modeled on that of France, and a ministry of education was established in 1871 to develop a system of universal education based on that of the United States.

This imitation of the White powers extended to every level: in 1884, the Japanese emperor created a peerage, preparing the way for an upper house of parliament; a lower house, elected on a qualified franchise, was also created.

A cabinet modeled on that of Germany was organized in 1885, with a prime minister and a cabinet being created in 1888. The new constitution, drafted after constitutional research in Europe and the United States, was promulgated in 1889.

Rapid industrialization, under government direction, accompanied this political growth. Finally, in 1890, Japan completely revised its criminal, civil, and commercial law codes on White European and American models.

"White-ised" Japanese Expansion

Suitably "White-ised" or Westernized, Japan once again turned its attention outwards: declaring war on China over possession of Korea, the Japanese army, armed with the latest White weapons, completely massacred the Chinese army and easily occupied Korea.

Russia had seized Manchuria from the Chinese following the Boxer Rebellion of 1900, and from there started to invade North Korea step by step. In 1904, Japan broke off diplomatic relations with Russia over the matter and, once again using their French, German and British designed weapons, attacked the Russian held Port Arthur in southern Manchuria, quickly forcing the already outdated Russian military to collapse.

Australia

Although Australia had been sighted by first the Dutch and then the British in the 1600s, it was only in 1788 that the first large British settlement took place in that continent, when a penal colony was established to replace the lost penal colonies in North America, where the British had previously sent

their hardened felons. New Zealand was also only settled by the British in significant numbers for the first time in 1839.

The British Colonies

The British system of colonies eventually grew into one of the largest far flung world empires the world has ever seen: it was so great that it requires separate study, which follows in the next chapter.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Forty Six

The British Empire

When the British Empire was at its height in the early 1900s, it included over 20 percent of the world's land area and more than 400 million people - the single largest empire in the history of the world since time began. This remarkable achievement by a country half the size of France, was a tribute to the superb organizational skills of the White empire builders of that nation: the saying that the "sun never set on the British Empire" was very close to the truth: because of its geographic spread, some territory, somewhere, was always in the daylight hours.

This astonishing empire was never undone in the way that the Roman Empire was: instead it dissolved peacefully, by mutual consent, and the British, apart from creating the world's largest empire, also had the privilege of being the only Empire builders not to be destroyed in their far flung empire itself.

Origins

The first moves by the British to establish an empire came during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I (1558-1603). Elizabeth was a far sighted sovereign who financially supported the voyages of exploration, mainly through her favorite, Sir Francis Drake, who in 1580, became the first Englishman to sail around the world, following a Spanish expedition a few years previously.

The English East India Company

The British were, like the Dutch and Spanish, quick to realise the potential of trade with the newly discovered lands. In 1600, the English East India Company was established to facilitate the trade, but because of the then continuing war with Spain, the British overseas interests were limited to mainly raiding Spanish fleets.

Sir Walter Raleigh

The very first attempt at creating a British colony in the Americas was launched by the English adventurer, Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1585. This settlement did not survive, and the English did not attempt further exploration and colonization in the Americas until 1604, after peace had been made with Spain. Raleigh himself gained fame in the war with Spain, but fell out of favor with the English monarch and was later imprisoned in the Tower of London, finally being executed in 1618.

North America

During the 17th century, Britain established its first permanent colonies in North America, first in Virginia, and then in the Caribbean, with tobacco plantations in the West Indies and religious colonies along the Atlantic coast of North America.

White Slaves

The first British foothold in the West Indies was Saint Christopher (later Saint Kitts), acquired in 1623. A little known fact about the first English plantations established in the West Indies was that the laborers who were first used to work these were initially white indentured slaves from England.

Jamaica

In 1655, the English conquered the Spanish colony of Jamaica, the first ever British colony to be seized by force of arms. The English invasion was only formally acknowledged by Spain in 1670.

Black Slaves

The continuing acquisition of Caribbean Islands by the British saw the establishment of sugar cane plantations, which were very manual intensive industries. The British then set up the Royal Africa Company in 1672, to import Black slaves to the Caribbean. Before this time there were no Blacks in the Caribbean at all - but by 1680, the annual rate of Black importation had reached over 70,000 each year - this policy resulted in the majority of the population, in Jamaica especially, being Black, something that would later determine the future of these islands.

The Mayflower

The great English religious settlements in North America started in 1620 with the arrival of the Pilgrims, who sailed from the English city of Plymouth in the ship, the Mayflower, landing in Massachusetts Bay in 1620.

These White Protestant extremists - Puritans who held that the Anglican Church of England was still too close to the Catholic Church - set up a Puritan community, forming the Massachusetts Bay Company in 1628. Other religious colonies were established in Rhode Island (1636), where the colony was based on the principle of religious toleration; Connecticut (1639), based on Congregationalist religious beliefs; and Maryland (1634), a haven for Roman Catholics.

New York

Slowly the English penetrated further down the eastern coastline. In 1664, New Amsterdam was seized from the Netherlands and renamed New York. The Dutch inhabitants were the first large established White settlement to be subdued by force into the then growing British Empire. By 1681, an English adventurer, William Penn, had, under Royal permission, established a new colony which was called Pennsylvania.

Further North American Expansion

After Pennsylvania had been established, British colonies in North America were strengthened by two developments:

- the Hudson's Bay Company was established near Hudson Bay to participate in the fur trade by 1688; and
- in 1714, as a result of an European war which the French lost, the British captured the French colonies of Acadia and Newfoundland.

Penal Settlements

The British then hit upon a novel use for its North American colonies; they presented ideal dumping grounds for convicted felons from England, and in 1718, the Transportation Act became law which subsidized the moving of convicted criminals from Britain to North America. Georgia, originally a refuge for debtors, became the 13th American colony in 1732, and the colony of New England then began to fill out and extend further into the interior.

French Lands Seized

As a result of the Seven Years' War in Europe (1756-1763), Britain was able to seize further French colonies in North America: in 1758, the French fortress of Louisburg fell, giving the British access to the Saint Lawrence Valley. In 1759, the city of Quebec was captured, marking the end of the French colonial presence in Canada.

The American Revolution

Just as the British colonies in North America seemed to be reaching a peak, the colonists themselves broke out in revolt against British rule, resulting in the American Revolution and War of Independence which occurred from 1776 to 1779. This momentous event, detailed in another chapter, saw the British lose all their North American possessions except for Canada, which subsequently became known as British North America and remained a loyal colony and later a member of the British Commonwealth.

The history of Canada is also remarkable in itself, and is therefore the subject of a further separate study, suffice to say here that over 30,000 loyalist colonists emigrated from the United States of America to Canada at the time of the American War of Independence.

The East

Stung by the loss of what clearly was turning into the most important colony of all, Britain then turned its attention to the east, following up on the initial trading settlements established by the English East India Company.

India: the British Establish the City of Calcutta

Although the story of the British involvement in India is dramatic and is studied in detail in the next chapter, it is still necessary to here review the major developments. By 1700, the English East India Company had set up three major trading posts in India, being careful at the time to engage in trade only and making no attempt to colonize or rule the locals.

In fact, through co-operation with a local prince, the British succeeded in building a factory on a site on the Hooghly river, a development which eventually became the city of Calcutta. A conflict with a French mission in Bengal, which culminated in a British force defeating a combined French and Indian army at the Battle of Plessey in 1757, saw the British establish their first major area of jurisdiction on the Indian subcontinent in Bengal. Other large parts of India were only to come under British rule after 1858.

Race war with Burma

Although the British did not initially have any intention of expanding further in south east Asia, aggression from the Burmese Konbaung dynasty resulted in several cross border attacks against India and the scattered British outposts: this led to the First Anglo-Burmese War of 1824 to 1826, which saw the Burmese suffer the fate of most Second World powers attempting to take on the First World with its technological advantage: the Burmese were destroyed and forced to cede several large coastal areas to the Whites.

Further conflicts resulted in the Second and Third Anglo-Burmese Wars (1852 and 1885) which eventually saw Britain occupying all of Burma, with the country being officially made a province of India in 1886.

Afghanistan

By the middle of the 19th century, the British, who had established themselves in India, started eyeing Afghanistan as a potential area for further expansion - mainly motivated by a desire to stop the Russians encroaching from the north of that country. The Afghans however rebelled: thereafter the British, using White troops and Indian recruits, fought three major race wars against the Afghans: the First Anglo-Afghan War (1838-1842); the Second Anglo-Afghan War (1878-1880); and the Third Anglo-Afghan War (1919).

The third war was the last: after it a peace treaty recognized the independence of the by then thoroughly mixed race country.

The First Anglo-Afghan war resulted in the famous battle of Khyber Pass (1842), where nearly 16000 White British troops and their Nonwhite Indian recruits were trapped and killed by the Afghans.

During the second Anglo-Afghan war, three divisions of the British army invaded Afghanistan from India. Kabul, the capital, was taken in 1879, and in 1880, the Afghans were defeated at the battle of Kandahar, which saw an end to that war.

Australia

Although the Australian sub-continent had been explored in the 1600s, it was only after the loss of the North American penal colonies, that the British started sending the first significant numbers of White settlers to that country. The history of Australia, which became an important part of the British Empire, is recounted in a separate chapter.

Gibraltar

As a result of the end of the Spanish War of Succession in 1714, Britain obtained the Spanish islands of Gibraltar and Minorca, giving the British their first physical presence in the Mediterranean Sea.

The Napoleonic Wars

The outbreak of the Napoleonic Wars in Europe saw Britain's land empire expand once again through a series of conquests of French or French allied territories. This expansion was linked to the great British naval victory over the French fleet at the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805: the destruction of the French fleet led to the British navy establishing its mastery of the seas, a situation which would remain unchanged until the early 20th century. A British naval fleet, operating out of the new British bases in the Mediterranean, were instrumental in chasing the French out of Egypt after Napoleon invaded that country in 1798.

Territorial Acquisitions as a Result of the Napoleonic Wars

In 1794, Britain captured the French sugar-producing islands around Guadeloupe in the Caribbean. This resulted in a glut of sugar on the British market and contributed indirectly to British legislation in 1807 abolishing the slave trade, by virtue of the fact that production was so high that few new slaves were needed. (The islands were later returned to France.)

During the war, the Netherlands became aligned with France, and Britain seized several Dutch possessions, including the Cape Colony in South Africa; Ceylon (later Sri Lanka) off the Indian coast; and parts of Guiana in South America.

South Africa

Thousands of British colonists settled in South Africa after 1820, and English became the official language in that colony in 1822. South Africa developed into one of the most interesting racial case studies. Due to the large Non-British element of the White population, its relations with Britain were always stormy: they are reviewed in full in a later chapter.

Rhodesia

By 1893, British rule had extended north to Matabeleland in present day Zimbabwe, leading to the creation of what became known as the Colony of Southern Rhodesia, later Zimbabwe. The Black Matabele revolted against British rule almost immediately in 1896, but were put down with a massive show of arms by the White colonists, sparking off a conflict of that nature which would only finally end in 1980.

The Gold Coast

The establishment of British outposts on the west coast of Africa - initially as trading posts, then for emancipated slave settlements and then for military base purposes, led to an ever increasing area of

jurisdiction being established. These territories included Sierra Leone and the Gold Coast.

The Ashanti Wars

This creeping influence of the British over the Black tribes led to a number of race wars in West Africa: the longest running being with the Ashanti tribesmen. These race wars started in 1823 and ran intermittently from that year until around 1900. In the Niger delta of Nigeria, (from the Latin "niger", for "black") the British decided to take control of the increasing trade in palm oil, and in 1852, by sheer military threat, they forced the Blacks in Lagos to accept British protection. In 1861, Lagos was annexed as a crown colony.

Egypt

The construction of the Suez Canal in 1869 (designed by an Austrian, Alois Negrilli, and built by a Frenchman, Ferdinand de Lesseps), saw Britain being given a protectorate over the canal region to safeguard it. As the rest of Egypt had dropped into Third World chaos, the new arrangement effectively meant a British administration for all of Egypt.

During the First World War, Britain declared Egypt a protectorate as a defensive measure against the Turks who had entered that war on the side of Germany. Effective British control of Egypt continued through a series of puppet Egyptian rulers until 1952.

The New Colonies

The creation of British rule over Egypt sparked off a new wave of African colonization for Britain, this time racing against other European powers for territory. By 1885, Britain had effectively seized or annexed through war or treaty, huge slices of Africa: the Sudan (1881); Bechuanaland (now Botswana) in 1885; Uganda in 1894; and the first British settlers in Kenya started arriving towards the end of the 19th century.

Gordon of Khartoum

In 1877, the British appointed one of their most able generals, Charles Gordon, as governor of Sudan. Establishing a strict colonial rule based in the capital city, Khartoum, Gordon established a police force and a court system and attempted to suppress the slave trade in the region. Muslim militancy was by then again a growing force: a Muslim uprising against White British rule in both Egypt and the Sudan started in 1883, and was particularly successful in the Sudan: by 1885 Gordon and a tiny White British contingent had been surrounded in Khartoum by a Muslim army drawn up mostly from locals.

Gordon held out against the siege in Khartoum for ten months under the most appalling conditions, but was killed by the Nonwhite besiegers on 26 January 1886, only two days before a British relief column under general Kitchner was able to reach Khartoum and suppress the Muslim army.

World War One

The outcome of the First World War in 1919, saw the British Empire at its height: the Treaty of Versailles gave Britain most of the German Empire in Africa, while the collapse of the Ottoman Empire in the Middle East led to the British acquisition of Palestine and Iraq in 1918.

Dissolution of the Empire

The British Empire only finally started dissolving after the First World War, with the process being speeded up dramatically in the aftermath of the Second World War. The primary reason for the dissolution of the Empire was economic and political rather than racial: after the Second World War, Britain was simply too impoverished to continue holding on to an Empire created in a previous century, and it was easier to grant independence to the far flung colonies, especially when some of these turned violent.

The process of decolonization is reviewed later: suffice to say here that the dissolution of the British Empire eventually led to waves of Third World immigrants settling in Britain itself, the consequences thereof being dealt in the penultimate and ultimate chapters of this book.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Forty Seven

The Well of Bibighar: Whites in India

The very first Whites to enter India were the ancient Indo-Aryans who penetrated the Punjab valley around the year 1500 BC. Their demise has already been recounted, absorbed into the mass of native Indians, their only legacy the caste system in India; a few very high caste White looking Indians; and their corrupted religion, Hinduism.

The next Whites to enter India arrived after the voyages of exploration: a momentous series of events was then set in motion, the racial after effects being felt to the end of the 20th century and beyond as millions of Indians spread out from their homeland to settle in all corners of the earth: none of this would have happened had the Whites not penetrated India in the 17th century, interrupting the isolation of this part Second and part Third World continent.

The Portuguese and Dutch

The Portuguese explorer, Vasco da Gama, was the first White to reach India by sea, throwing anchor off the harbor of Calicut in May 1498. De Gama established friendly relations with the local Indian ruler, and secured a monopoly of Indian trade for Portugal which lasted for a century.

However, Portugal lost its position of pre-eminence in Europe after it absorbed hundreds of thousands of Black slaves, and by the early 17th century, the Dutch had replaced Portugal as the main trading nation with India, through the Dutch East India Company.

The English Establish Missions

The English then also entered the Indian trade, operating, like the Dutch, through a private firm known as the English East India Company. The English had initially no intention of establishing colonies in India, and after successful negotiations with local Indian rulers, established a tiny trading post at Surat in 1612. The Portuguese launched one final attempt to drive the English out: in November 1619, a Portuguese fleet attacked a number of English ships off the Indian coast: they were defeated by the British.

In a number of later engagements, the Portuguese were continually defeated, and thereafter the Portuguese finally vanished as a factor in the Indian trade market. The Dutch, already entrenched in Indonesia, then also launched a military attempt to drive the English out of the East: this too failed and by 1700, the British had established themselves as the pre-eminent trading nation in the Far East.

Indian Cities Established by the British

The British East India Company continued to expand its interests in India, continuously ensuring that it had the co-operation of local Indian rulers, who also benefited greatly from the introduction of superior White technologies and infrastructure.

The British established a base in Orissa in 1633, founded the city of Madras (now known as Chennai) in 1639, obtained trading privileges in Bengal in 1651, acquired Bombay (now known as Mumbai) from Portugal in 1661, and established Calcutta in 1690.

French seize Madras

During the first half of the 18th century, the French, who had been sending isolated ships to India since 1675, started establishing bases in the East, threatening British dominance on the sub-continent. The ongoing wars in Europe between Britain and France, and in particular the War of the Austrian Succession, fought from 1740 to 1748, saw French forces attack and seize the British founded Indian town of Madras in 1746. The town was returned to the British at the end of the war in Europe, but the conflict set the stage for a major British push into India.

The Seven Years' War 1756-1763

The outbreak of the Seven Years' War in Europe in 1756, saw the French in India squaring up once again to the British East India Company: this time however, the French had taken care to ensure that they had secured alliances with some local Indian princes against the British.

The Black Hole Of Calcutta

One these Indian rulers, Newab of Bengal, armed with French weapons, captured the town of Calcutta from the British on 30 June 1756. The tiny British garrison of 146 men surrendered: promised safe passage, Newab forced all of them into a tiny underground dungeon, where all but 23 of them died overnight of suffocation. This act gave rise to the expression the "Black Hole of Calcutta".

Robert Clive

An employee of the English East India Company, Robert Clive, then took control of the British forces in India, and in 1757, a tiny White British army smashed a vastly numerically superior Nonwhite army at the decisive Battle of Plassey (1757). Clive's victory laid the foundation of nearly two hundred years of British rule in India, as thereafter British rule was extended, either directly or through the acquiescence of native princes, throughout the entire subcontinent.

By 1818, it was master of the most of the country: some provinces were under direct British rule, while others remained under Indian rule, albeit with British supervision.

British Government

The British parliament, rightly concerned that a private company was now effectively running a country of millions, enacted laws in 1773 and 1784, which gave the British government the right to appoint governors and determine policies followed by the British East India Company: and so the rule of India passed more directly into the hands of the British Foreign Office.

This system of dual control lasted until 1858, when the events of that year caused the British

government take complete control of the country, only relinquishing it in 1948, when India was granted independence.

The Building of India's Infrastructure

Thousands of White British men and women went to India, not to establish permanent settlements but to run the "Raj" or Empire in India, and to drag India into the modern technological age. The result was that the country was in a few years transformed: the White British built railway lines, telegraph wires, bridges, roads, irrigation systems and postal services and masses of other essential infrastructures on the sub-continent.

Not only did British rule introduce White technology, but a number of important social reforms were also put in place: the British forbade the practice of suttee (in which widows burned themselves alive on the funeral pyres of their deceased husbands); and the practices of killing female children and slavery.

The British also created the first Indian police force, with one of their most famous successes being the breaking up of a vicious criminal Mafia type gang known as the Thuggee (hence the English word thug); and the British also built the first schools in India.

The Sepoys

During the course of this empire building, the British, like the Romans before them, started using locals as soldiers. All volunteers serving freely of their own will, these local Indians became known as Sepoys, and were divided up into three major army groups: the Bengal Army stationed in Delhi, the Bombay Army and the Madras Army, the last two being stationed in the towns bearing their names.

By 1857, these Indian Sepoys in the Bengal Army alone numbered some 150,000. At that stage there were some 23,000 White British troops in India - scattered all over the subcontinent, and therefore not present in any one area in numbers above 2000.

Sikh Resistance

From time to time certain Indian tribes resisted the slow British advance: in 1845, the Sikhs of Punjab, attacked isolated British outposts, inflicting heavy casualties but ultimately being defeated. Two years later they again attacked the British at Chillianwala, where they killed a large number of Sepoys and White officers. The Sikhs were however decisively beaten in 1849.

The Grease of Ammunition Packs

In January 1857, the rumor spread through the Sepoys in the Bengal army that the new ammunition issued to them had been packed in a grease which had been derived from cattle and pigs (there was apparently truth to this rumor). To open these packets under combat situations, the soldiers had to tear them open with their teeth - and this would contravene the religious dictates of the Hindus Muslims alike, to whom cattle and pigs were respectively sacred or not to be eaten.

The Devil's Wind

In May 1857, some 85 Sepoys were placed under arrest by their White officers for refusing to open their ammunition packs - this act of defiance soon spread to almost all the Sepoy Bengal army. Soon the White British officers had a fully fledged racial rebellion on their hands, made more serious by the fact that for once the Nonwhites were now armed with the latest White weaponry which included cannons they had seized from their barracks.

The Massacre of the Whites in Delhi

Quickly turning against their White officers, thousands of Sepoys launched an attack on the British army outposts in Delhi. Hundreds of White soldiers, their wives and children were killed in Delhi alone, often with the active assistance of formally loyal Indian servants. Within a day, all of Delhi was in the hands of the Sepoys, armed with their British issued guns.

The White British soldiers found themselves unable to rely on any of the Indian soldiers whom they had previously used as proxies to control India, and were besieged along with their families in a number of fortified emplacements around Delhi.

One British detachment took control of the ammunition dump inside the city, and only when they were about to be overwhelmed, did they blow it up - the explosion was felt 100 miles away and hundreds of Sepoys were killed in the blast. Through a careful withdrawal, the White British soldiers only lost three men in the blast, and the survivors managed to escape in the resultant confusion, to a British fort to the north of the city.

The Massacre of the Whites in Jhansi

The anti-White massacres and riots then spread throughout north central India over the following weeks, with the isolated White detachments being slaughtered in an uncompromising anti-White racial war. One of the most noted of such massacres was staged in the tiny kingdom of Jhansi in June 1857.

The territory of Jhansi had been annexed by the British four years earlier when the local king had died, and now his widow took her revenge: all the Whites in the kingdom were lined up in three rows and stabbed and clubbed to death, the women last of all so that they could watch their men and children being killed, with all the intricate details being dutifully recorded by the Jhansi themselves for posterity.

Cawnpore

Besides Delhi, the other two most important areas of rebellion were Cawnpore and Lucknow, both in the state of Oudh. In Cawnpore, some 1000 White British soldiers, their wives and children took refuge from the Nonwhite mobs in a fortified magazine in the city near the Ganges River, hoping to hold out for a relief column they had been promised from other British outposts.

The Nonwhites laid siege to the Cawnpore magazine for 20 days. Without any water, the defenders

could not hold on, and on 25 June 1857, they surrendered. The survivors, now only numbering around 400, were promised safe conduct out of the city, and they were taken to the Ganges, where a number of boats had been drawn up to carry them away.

It was, however, a ruse: as soon as they reached the river the Sepoys opened fire on the remaining Whites: all but three of the men were killed and the survivors, which then included 73 White women and 124 White children, were taken prisoner by the Nonwhites and held in part of the buildings of the emplacement, known as the Bibighar.

All of a sudden, when the chance came to kill Whites, the Hindu and Muslim troops no longer had any objections to opening the grease smeared cartridges with their teeth.



Whites are murdered by Sepoy Indians, Cawnpore, 1857.

The Massacre of the White Women and Children at the Cawnpore Bibighar

On 15 July 1857, the three surviving White men were then dragged out and shot before a large crowd of Indians who had clambered onto the walls of the compound where the Whites were being held prisoner, to watch the spectacle. The Nonwhites then returned for the women: but even though many were desperately sick with disease, they struggled hard: the narration is taken up by Indian witnesses who were later captured by another British force :(*Our Bones Are Scattered: The Cawnpore Massacres and the Indian Mutiny of 1857*, Andrew Ward, John Murray, London, 1996).

"The double doors at the end of the courtyard were flung open again and the ladies ordered out. But they refused to move and tightened their grips on the verandah pillars and on each others arms and waists, trying to keep from crushing their weeping children underfoot . . . the Sepoys declared it impossible to separate them or drag them out of the building and backed out of the yard . . .

"Someone suggested that they secure the doors from the inside, and several women ran over

and tearing strips of cloth from their gowns, frantically bound the door handles together. A few ladies raised their quaking voices in a hymn . . .

"Now the jemadar (senior Indian officer) ordered his men to stand outside the doors and windows on one side . . . at a signal from the jemadar, his men thrust the barrels of their muskets through the window shutters along the one wall . . .

"With a great cry the women and children tried to move across the courtyard to the far verandah and seek cover behind the pillars and the tree, but here was hardly any room. The courtyard was only sixteen feet wide, the verandah five feet and the long room ten feet, so most managed only to compress themselves up towards the opposite verandah, while the remainder, including some of the sick and orphaned children, crouched helplessly on the courtyard ground.

"Twenty Sepoys aimed their muskets into this wave of bodies and opened fire at point blank range. The first volley pared some of the foremost layer of women and children away, and may have wounded a few beyond. The Sepoys backed away from the smoking windows and a second squad moved in to take their places.

"By now many of the survivors of the two volleys had probably found cover in the sleeping rooms beyond the pillars . . .

"A little before sunset Sarvur Khan (one of the rebels) appeared . . . trailing four companions, each with a tulwar (scimitar) in his hand. Two of his recruits were aproned Moslem butchers; both tall, one dark, pockmarked and stout. The other two appeared to be of low caste . . .

"As they approached, the onlookers resumed their places along the compound wall. Inside, some of the women dragged the dead to one side and tried to tend to the wounded. A few soldiers' wives and daughters were determined to fight . . .

"Now they could hear the bolt sliding back . . . someone heaved against the doors and the cloth strips between the handles began to strain and break. The doors burst open and slapped against the walls.

"Stepping out from under the dark shadow of the mulsuri tree, the burra memsahib (the leading White woman) opened her mouth to speak. Sarvur Khan felled her with one stroke.

"Fearful shrieks rose from the courtyard . . . Closing the doors behind them, the five men fanned out and worked their way forward, slashing at the straggling wounded crawling along the floor.

"From behind a pillar Mrs. Jacobi suddenly lunged forward and knocked one of them down with one blow . . . his comrades came to his rescue. First they hung her daughter Lucy on a hook by her chin and then silenced her mother by cutting her throat.

"They knew that stabbing was inefficient, that hacking at their victim's necks would be the

quickest way of accomplishing their mission. If the ladies protected their necks with their arms, then their arms would simply be severed as well; the effect was the same, they would bleed to death. Slashing right and left at all who were standing, chopping downward at the fallen with their heavy blades, the five proceeded methodically, spreading a pool of blood . . .

"Others tried to dodge the men's swords by ducking into the doorways and around the pillars, and so often did Sarvur Khan strike the walls that he broke two swords and twice emerged to fetch new weapons from his fellows . . .

"Though the shutters of the doors and window remained open, none of the women or children tried to escape out of the building, surrounded as it was by Sepoys and Indian onlookers.

"The few defiant boys were cut down quickly, as was every child who tried to make a run for it through the phalanx of swordsmen. Mothers kept pulling their children close to them and pushing them back into the corners of the building, and in the sweltering heat and the crush of bodies, children suffocated to death under their dying mothers' skirts.

"It took something less than an hour for the chorus of wailing to die away to a few individual voices, and even these were stilled. Mrs. Probett may have died in a counterattack . . . for her body . . . like Mrs. Jacobi's . . . was left that evening tied to a pillar. . ."

The Well of Bibighar

By the morning of 16 July 1857, news of the previous day's massacre had spread through the entire city of Indians: thousands assembled to view the carnage. The eyewitness account continues:

"Around eight in the morning the crowd parted to make way for a burial party of scavengers . . . by now they were masters of this sort of thing . . . (they) had already amassed a small fortune from the plunder and disposal of English bodies at Sati Chowra and Savada House (where the White men of Cawnpore had been executed) . . .

"But . . . the mission today was unusual: the bodies were not to be dumped into the Ganges this time but down an irrigation well some forty feet south of the Bibighar. The cavity of the well was nine feet wide and fifty feet deep, three steps led up to the rim . . .

"The veteran scavengers set to work, dragging the uppermost bodies out . . . but suddenly, stepping into one of the sleeping chambers, (they) made an alarming discovery: three or four of the ladies and perhaps as many children sitting huddled in the shadows, still alive after a night of lying on the floor saturated with the blood of their late friends and companions and surrounded by their mangled bodies.

"The burial squad backed away . . . and hurried off to the Old Cawnpore hotel (headquarters of the rebels) for further instructions . . .

"(When they) returned, two of the women rushed passed, stumbling over the low sill of a side window and running into the yard . . . they lunged straight to the lip of the well and jumped in,

one after the other, falling some fifty feet to the bottom.

"The children, all aged between five and six years, followed the women out into the courtyard but only ran around the well . . . where else could they go? . . . At first they were chased but the shrieking children eluded them . . . they decided to let the children run themselves out while they went about their business. . .

". . . (T)hey brought out the bodies of the dead and near dead, grabbing many of them by the hair and dragging them through the grass. Those whose clothes were worth taking were stripped before they were rolled over the rim (of the well) . . .

"Several severely wounded women were still breathing when they were dragged out. Three could even speak . . .

"As the burial party continued to drag corpse after corpse through the bloody grass and dump them into the depths of the well, it became obvious that at this rate not all the dead were going to fit in. So they went to work, severing with their swords the stiffening limbs of the dead and tucking them into the interstices of the half choked well. . .

"At last came the time to dispose of the children . . . the children kept running round until they at last were caught and flung alive into the well . . ." (Our Bones Are Scattered: The Cawnpore Massacres and the Indian Mutiny of 1857, Andrew Ward, John Murray, London, 1996).

Lucknow

At Lucknow, the White British troops were similarly besieged, but had taken great care in the drawing up their provisions, and were able to hold out for four months until they were relieved by a British force from the south.

White Revenge

The British had in the interim recovered from the shock of the speed of events, and although they did not yet know of the events at Cawnpore, they drew together a small but powerful column and raced north to relieve what they still thought were the various British encampments holding out: they relieved Lucknow, but what they found at Cawnpore caused their hardest soldiers to break down and weep, particularly when messages scrawled in blood were found on the walls of the Bibighar, scribbled by the dying victims as last messages to their loved ones.

By June 1858, the last of the Sepoy rebels had been captured, and a terrible revenge exacted upon hundreds of them: although none were put to death as cruelly as they had killed the White women and children, in many cases a public display of their execution was made. While the majority were shot by firing squad, a fair number were strapped to the barrel ends of cannons and blown to pieces in the open.



The British execute captured Sepoys by tying them to the ends of cannons and blowing them to pieces.

The British covered up the well at Bibighar and erected a mausoleum on the spot, which still stands to this day.



The memorial over the well at Bibighar, built by the British.

The major result of the Sepoy Mutiny was that the British Parliament in 1858, enacted legislation, termed the Act for the Better Government of India, which transferred the administration of India from the East India Company to the British government. In 1876, Queen Victoria was proclaimed empress of India.

Political Ferment

Despite the improvements in the infrastructure, the vast masses of Indians remained destitute, as they had been since the time that the Indo-Aryans had first encountered them 3000 years previously. This poverty combined with a lingering hatred of the Whites and White colonial rule, led to the growth of an Indian nationalist movement which, by the end of the 19th century, had started using terrorist attacks on Whites in India as a means of exerting political pressure on the British to leave.

The British reacted with a series of repressive laws which only served to alienate even more Indians, and then finally tried to introduce some measure of local government with the 1909 Indian Councils Act. This did however not alleviate any of the growing political problems which were increased by the emergence of a militant Muslim faction prior to the First World War.

The Amritsar Massacre

A wave of riots spread through India, causing the British to suspend all civil rights in a series of laws known as the Rowlatt Acts which provided for martial law in areas disturbed by the riots. A large protest by Indians turned violent in Amritsar, Punjab in April 1919, causing local military unit, under the command of British officers, to open fire: over 400 casualties were inflicted and the Amritsar massacre became a rallying point for the Indian nationalist movement.

Independence

India was finally to achieve complete independence in 1949, splitting into a Hindu and a Muslim state - both of which barely qualify as Second World countries, even though in small areas, the ancient Indo-Aryan, and later European, influence still lingers.

Large numbers of nationals from both these states emigrated to Britain and North America, the consequences of which are discussed in the ultimate chapter of this book.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Forty Eight

Conquistadors : The White conquest of South and Central America

The White conquest of South and Central America is a tale of extreme high drama, with a very few White adventurers completely overwhelming millions of Amerinds through a combination of crushing technological superiority and brute force.

The White conquest of South and Central America also saw two significant population make-up changes: firstly, large numbers of White settlers (mainly from Spain and Portugal) intermarried with Amerinds, creating a new mixed race group which now dominates the entire region. This is the primary cause of the large social, economic and political gap between North and South America.

Secondly the racial mixing which did take place, absorbed the original ruling Amerind tribes in Central America (the Aztecs) and in South America (the Incas).

The disappearance of these two leading tribes meant the disappearance of their civilizations as well: perfect examples of how racial mixing can wipe out all traces of an original people - and consequently, all manifestations of their civilization. In this case it was a Nonwhite civilization -and an advanced one at that - which was destroyed by the integration process. The laws of nature in this regard are made of iron, and apply to all races equally.

The Aztecs and the Legend of the White Skinned Gods

At the time of the White Spanish conquest of Central America, the Amerind Aztecs had created an empire which stretched from the Pacific Ocean to the Gulf of Mexico, and to the south to the present day country of Guatemala. The Aztecs were by all accounts cruel masters over other Amerind tribes, with the result that some of the subjected Amerinds actually welcomed the arrival of the Spanish. A few of these tribes would physically help the Spanish invaders against the Aztecs.





Left: the Codex Fejervary-Meyer, an original Amerind book drawn on treated deerskin. Right: a detail from the Codex, illustrating the cannibalism which shocked the White explorers. According to the Aztecs, the flesh of the palm of humans was the choicest delicacy: it was a treat reserved only for the nobles. The rest of Aztec society had to quite literally make do with the bones.

The Aztec religion was one of the reasons why there was so much resentment amongst the Amerind tribes: it demanded daily human sacrifice and most of the victims for this sacrifice were seized from surrounding Amerind tribes by the Aztecs.

The Aztec religion also played a major role in destabilizing Aztec resistance to the White invaders: one of their gods was a plumed serpent named Quetzalcoatl, the god of wind and learning. According to Aztec legend, Quetzalcoatl had been tricked and disgraced by another god, Tezcatlipoca, and then traveled to the east. He vowed to return and destroy those who worshipped his enemies, accompanied by all powerful white skinned gods.

By the time of the Spanish assault in 1519, word of the arrival of the Whites with their plumed helmets in the Caribbean Sea had traveled to the Aztecs, triggering the widely held superstition that an angry Quetzalcoatl and his white skinned gods had indeed returned to exact revenge.

This fear created confusion in the Aztec camp: should they attack the newcomers, who might be the avenging god, or should they try and appease them? This hesitancy to act was exploited to the hilt by the Spanish invaders.

The First White Expeditions into Central America

Early White settlements in Central America had been established by the Spanish: first in the Caribbean, including the city of Santo Domingo (now the capital of the Dominican Republic) and outposts on Cuba.

From Cuba, the Whites were to launch three crucial expeditions: in 1517, the first expedition ended in disaster when the explorers went ashore on the present day Mexican coast to seek water: they were

ambushed by Amerinds.

A full scale battle then followed at Champeton, in which fully half of the Whites were killed. The survivors limped back to their base in Cuba. In 1518, the White Spaniards returned in greater force and a second battle of Champeton followed, this time ending with the Amerinds being defeated and fleeing into the forests after three days of fierce running racial clashes.

The expedition then continued exploring the Gulf Coast, encountering further Amerind tribes who had suffered at the hands of the Aztecs: they were the first to tell the Spaniards about the all powerful Aztec Empire, centered around what is today Mexico City.

Montezuma II

The ruler of the Aztec Empire at this time, Montezuma II, had received reports of the White explorers and, fearing the return of the angry god, ordered his subjects along the coast to greet the foreigners, offer them a large feast and gifts of gold and jewelry, and then ask them to leave.

The result was that the second White expedition into Central America returned to Cuba laden with riches and tales of a rich and powerful Amerind empire in the interior. A third, and massively historical significant expedition was formed, under the already well known explorer Hernando Cortes (who was to become the archetype conquest leader, a "conquistador").

Hernando Cortes

In 1519, Cortes and his men, numbering about 600 in all, set sail with a few cannon and horses as accompaniment. A last minute dispute with the Spanish governor saw Cortes' expedition being officially canceled, but Cortes pushed ahead anyway, later bringing back gold and other riches to the Spanish crown as justification for his expedition.

Pausing only to rescue a half Black Spanish slave who had been captured by an Amerind tribe following an earlier shipwreck, the White army sailed west along the Gulf Coast, engaging in a major battle against a local Amerind tribe at the mouth of the Grijalva River.

It was at this first battle that Cortes realized the technological advantage the Whites possessed: steel armor, guns, cannons and even horses were completely unknown to the Amerinds of central America, and many tribesmen fled at the very sight of a powerful charge horse. These advantages were pressed home remorselessly, and all the Amerind tribes up and down Central and South America were to pay dearly for being technologically so far behind the Whites.

Veracruz

Cortes sailed further north, establishing a small town, La Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz, now known as the city of Veracruz. There Cortes set up an independent authority - the first White government in Central America - and renounced the authority of the governor on Cuba, pledging loyalty only to the Spanish crown. Then the Whites destroyed their ships by burning them, cutting out the option of a quick return and making it a do or die expedition. With about 500 men, Cortes then marched into the

interior in search of the Aztecs.

Tlaxcalans

The first Amerinds they encountered were the Tlaxcalan tribe, one of those who had suffered under the Aztecs. Nonetheless the Amerinds immediately attacked the Whites, resulting in a two week running battle in which the natives suffered very heavy losses. Admitting defeat, the Tlaxcalans surrendered and became allies of the Spaniards against the Aztecs.

In October 1519, the Whites and a few thousand of their new Tlaxcalan allies marched into Cholula, an ancient city devoted to the god Quetzalcoatl. Cholulan priests and leaders welcomed the Whites, but demanded that the Tlaxcalans camp outside the city - an arrangement which was duly made.

Battle of Cholula

After three days in the city, the Whites were informed of a plot by the local Amerinds to ambush and kill them when they were off guard. Cortes responded by summoning all the nobles of Cholula and locking them in a room, leaving the Cholulans leaderless. Then the Whites, along with their Tlaxcalans allies, set about attacking the still forming Cholulan armed forces.

The presence of the guns and horses won the day, and it is estimated that some 3,000 of the city's residents were killed. As the Whites seemed to defeat the Cholulans with relatively little effort, the Aztec emperor Montezuma decided not to oppose the invaders, having good reason to fear that they had the power of gods. Even with their Tlaxcalans allies, the Conquistador force was tiny - less than 450 Whites - but nonetheless was mightier than the tens of thousands of Aztec warriors, who were armed with spears and clubs.

Tenochtitlan

The Conquistador force marched on the Aztec capital city, Tenochtitlan, arriving there on 8 November 1519. Montezuma met Cortes outside the city walls and invited him and his tiny White army into the city. The Spanish soldiers were accommodated in a large specially prepared building and were given free rein to roam the city, finding much of the promised gold readily available.

The Aztecs let them pass unhindered, fearful of the revenge of the White skinned gods. Despite the friendly reception, Cortes knew that sooner or later the Aztecs would rebel: in an attempt to shore up his position (his force had dwindled to a few hundred Whites, and ever decreasing numbers of Amerind allies, camped outside the city) he took Montezuma as a hostage and forced him to swear allegiance to the king of Spain and to provide a huge ransom in gold and jewels. In the interim the Spanish governor of Cuba had sent an armed force to arrest Cortes for insubordination in sailing in the first place.

In April 1520, Cortes received word in Tenochtitlan that a Spanish force had arrived to arrest him on the coast. Leaving all but 200 Whites at Tenochtitlan, Cortes marched with the remainder of his men to the coast, entering the Spanish camp at night. He arrested the expedition leader and by the sheer force of his personality (along with promises of gold and riches) induced the rest of the punitive

expedition to join him in his conquest of the Aztecs.

Whites Besieged

Meanwhile in Tenochtitlan itself, things had taken a turn for the worse: a skirmish had broken out between a small number of Whites and some Aztec priests: the scuffle escalated into a full scale battle, with several hundred Aztecs being killed by the superior White weapons of war.

The killing of these Aztecs broke the spell under which the Aztecs had been living: a mob of thousands besieged the building in which the Whites were housed, and in which Montezuma was still being held hostage. Cortes returned to the city in the midst of the siege.

Montezuma Stoned to Death

Cortes and his men were allowed to enter the building, but as soon as they were inside, the Aztecs launched a furious assault on the building itself. After many more dozens of Aztecs were killed, Cortes got Montezuma to address the crowds in an attempt to disperse them: the enraged crowd promptly stoned their emperor, and he died of his wounds three days later.

White Breakout

The situation then became critical: with no supplies, the Whites could not hold out for more than a few days in the besieged building. On 30 June 1520, they attempted a breakout, at first managing to fight their way out of the city center, but then being attacked on a causeway outside the city by tens of thousands of Aztecs, many in canoes.

More than half the White soldiers were killed, all of their cannons were lost, and most of the treasure they attempted to carry out was abandoned or lost in the lake and canals. Although pursued, the survivors managed to find refuge in territory controlled by their Tlaxcalan allies. The first venture into the Aztec capital ended in disaster for the White invaders.

New Invasion

Basing himself in Tlaxcala, Cortes began preparing a new invasion, obtaining supplies and reinforcements from Veracruz, which had in the interim been boosted by the arrival of new immigrants from Spain and Cuba. Within a few months, Cortes was once again on the offensive, this time making sure that he had subdued as many of the surrounding Aztecs as he could before approaching the capital city.

Finally in May 1521, the city of Tenochtitlan - which was situated on an island - was cut off from the outside. Spanish artillery mounted on ships specially constructed for the shallow waters of the surrounding rivers and lake, bombarded the city. Every day the White soldiers launched fresh assaults on the city defenses, whose supplies of food and fresh water had been cut. Famine, dysentery, and smallpox ravaged the Aztec defenders. On August 13, 1521, after a desperate siege of three months, the new Aztec emperor was captured and Tenochtitlan fell.

According to Spanish accounts, when they finally entered the city, more than 40,000 decomposed bodies - most of whom had died of disease - littered the city streets and canals. The legend of the revenge of the White skinned gods had indeed come true after all.

Mexico City

The Spaniards then proceeded to raze the city to the ground and build a new city in its place to serve as capital of the newly declared Spanish possession of central America, called New Spain. The city itself eventually came to be called Mexico City. Spanish colonists soon poured in, and the new city quickly became the largest White city in Central America.

Race and Social Class

After the White conquest, the Aztec and Amerind population, although militarily defeated, had not vanished. Even the large number of disease related deaths did not wipe them out utterly (although it most certainly dented their population figures by as much as half) - it was instead the virtual immediate practice of interracial marriages which caused both White Spaniards and Amerinds to disappear into a hybrid population, which, mixed with the Black slaves imported by the Spanish into Central America, formed the basis for the Hispanic population.

It is this mixed race grouping which in modern times has been the source of the greatest number of legal and illegal immigrants into the White created prosperity of North America. Those persons of part Spanish and part Amerind race were called Mestizos, and by 1800, they were far and away the single largest group in what was by then officially called Mexico.

Zambos

Black slaves were imported into Mexico during Cortes' time - in total some 200,000 were brought into the territory, all of whom were eventually absorbed into the mixed race population, with those of mixed Amerind and Black parentage being known as Zambos, to differentiate them from the Mestizos. By 1800, however, the majority of Zambos had in their turn been absorbed into the Mestizos, or Hispanic, group.

Caste System

As in ancient India after the arrival of the Aryans, a class structure based on Whiteness emerged almost immediately, with the whitest people forming the highest class, and the darkest forming the lowest class. During the Spanish colonial period, those Spaniards from Spain who came over to Central America as rulers were called peninsulares, most of whom returned to Spain when their tour of duty was over. They formed a distinct class by themselves, being the Whitest of the entire population. They never made up more than a few thousand of the total population.

Underneath the peninsulares were the criollos, or Creoles, people of sometimes whole, sometimes part, White extraction who had been born in the Americas. As time went on this group also became increasingly darker, until today the elite in Mexico represent the last of this group. Below the criollos were the mestizos, followed by the Blacks.

As in India, there was also a constant striving to be reclassified: many mixed race persons claimed full White status, and the Spanish king in the eighteenth century enacted a legal procedure to pronounce upon a person's Whiteness upon payment of a fee. Such a pronouncement had huge ramifications in the Spanish colonial hierarchy, and could open up positions barred to persons of mixed descent.

Because of the sheer number of Black slaves and the ever increasing Mestizo population, colonial Mexico had numerous slave riots, with many centers in isolated regions being established by escaped slaves.

French Invasion

Eventually economic and social divisions between New Spain and Spain reached a height with the invasion of the latter country by the French under Napoleon Bonaparte in 1808. With the mother country in disarray and under occupation, control over the mixed race colony broke down: a civil war between numerous factions broke out in New Spain with a small force of Whites from Spain triumphing against a militia of tens of thousands of Mestizos. Eventually however in 1821, Spain officially recognized Mexican independence and cut the last ties to Europe.

The Race Wars with the United States of America

At this stage the territory of Mexico extended far further north than what it does today: it included the sparsely populated territory of Texas and claims to large parts of present day California. After 1820, Texas began filling up with White settlers from the emerging United States of America, eventually leading to a number of race wars between the United States and Mexico.

In 1835, the White Texans formally rebelled against Mexican rule, and the Mexican president, Santa Anna, personally led an army into the territory to quell the White rebellion. Santa Anna managed to crush a small number of White rebels at the Battle of the Alamo in 1836, and proceeded to execute more than 280 Whites after the battle.

The full story of the Mexican - American race war is told in a different chapter, suffice to say here that the war eventually ended in the utter defeat of the Nonwhite Mexicans by a White American army, with Mexico City itself being besieged and captured by the White forces, in an eerie replay of the first White capture of that city from the Aztecs in 1521.

The Last White Invasion of 1861

Thereafter Mexico was plunged into the usual bouts of political, social and economic chaos which have plagued the entire Third World. Finally in 1861, a refusal by the Mexican government to pay off its foreign debts led to a new White occupation: France, Great Britain, and Spain decided to intervene jointly to protect their investments in Mexico.

A joint White military expedition from these three countries was launched in 1861, which soon captured the city founded by Cortes, Veracruz. However, when the French ambitions to actually take over the government of the country became apparent (the French ruler at the time was Napoleon III),

the British and Spanish withdrew the following year.

The isolated White French army was then attacked by a numerically superior Mexican force at Puebla in May 1862. Napoleon III sent a huge White army of 30,000 men who took Puebla and occupied Mexico City in June 1863 - the third time that city had been invaded by a White army. The French installed a new government and declared a Mexican empire, with Napoleon offering the crown to the Austrian archduke Maximilian, who accepted and became Emperor of Mexico.

The French never managed to quell the entire country, and the Americans were unable to intervene because of their own civil war at the time. Events in Europe forced Napoleon III to withdraw his troops in 1867. The short reigning emperor Maximilian was arrested and executed by a Mexican firing squad in 1867. So ended the last White adventure in Mexico.

In modern times Mexico is important for two reasons :

- Firstly it is the source of the largest number of legal and illegal Third World immigrants into the United States; its huge shantytown slum outside Mexico City is one of the largest unplanned and informal cities in the world, suffering from appalling social deprivation; and
- Secondly it is one of the many Central and South American countries that is either used as a point of origin or as a jumping off point for the drug trade into North America, which, ironically (as discussed in a later chapter) wreaks the most havoc amongst Blacks in America.

South America and Spanish and Portuguese Voyages of discovery

After the Spaniard Christopher Columbus landed in the West Indies in 1492, Spain and Portugal started disputing areas of influence on the Southern American continent. The dispute was eventually settled by the pope, who in 1493, drew up defined areas of influence for the two nations - ostensibly with the idea of spreading Christianity to the natives in those territories.

In time the Portuguese territory became known as Brazil, hence the lingua franca of that country to this day is Portuguese, while most of the rest of the continent speaks Spanish.

On 1 August 1498, during his third voyage, Columbus finally sighted the South American mainland for the first time. The next White explorer to reach the continent was the Portuguese navigator Pedro Cabral, who threw anchor off the coast of present day Brazil in April 1500 - a territory which he then claimed for Portugal. However, the claim was ignored for more than three decades by Portugal itself, whose sailors had in the interim sailed round Africa to India.

During this time of Portuguese indifference, the Spanish seized the initiative in Central America and the West Indies. In 1519, the Portuguese explorer Ferdinand Magellan, then employed ironically by the Spaniards, first sailed up the river mouth of the Rio de la Plata. He then proceeded South and in November 1520, first sailed round the southernmost part of South America and sighted the Pacific ocean.

The Incas

The Incas were, like the Aztecs in Central America, the most advanced Amerind tribe in South America. The Incas possessed a fairly advanced culture, radically different thought it was from White culture.

As with the Aztecs, certain aspects of the Southern Amerind culture were regarded with revulsion by the Whites: the human sacrifices to the Amerind gods was a habit which was made particular note of in accounts of Amerind life sent back to Europe. Despite possessing fairly advanced building skills, the southern Amerinds never possessed the wheel: a strange twist which has never been fully explained, as other racial groups, such as Whites, Chinese, Japanese all had developed the wheel as a concept long before being able to build structures on the scale of which the Incas and Aztecs did. The marked difference in technological levels between southern Amerinds (who had sophisticated cities) and northern American Amerinds (who were still literally living in animal skin tents and loincloths at the same time) has also never been fully explained.

This difference, combined with the Aztec legends about White gods, has led to speculation that at some stage early White settlers had been present in South America.

Germans the First Colonists

Up until 1529, White settlements in South America had been passing in nature: and despite the Spanish and Portuguese doing most of the exploring, it was a German, Bartholomous Welser, who led the first attempt at a White colony on the continent. In 1529, Welser was granted territory in South America by the then Holy Roman Emperor Charles V (also king of Spain); and the Germans established a settlement in modern Venezuela. However, racial clashes took place almost immediately, and after several massacres committed by both sides (as reprisals and counter reprisals) Welser's grant was revoked by the Church in an attempt to defuse the growing racial tensions.

Conquistadors and White Expansion

The contact with the Amerind tribes in the coastal areas of Southern America had been enough to make the Spanish realize that the Inca civilization was advanced and possibly wealthy - the Aztec example in Central America served as an indication that greater riches lay deeper in the interior, just waiting to be discovered. The Spanish were then the first to push deep into the interior of South America, in search of the wealth of which they believed they had only seen glimpses on the coast amongst the Amerinds they encountered there.

180 White Men Invade South America

The staggering feat of the first White invasion of South America by a tiny force of 180 men is one of the most remarkable episodes in South American history - and also one of the least widely known. In 1531, a conquistador named Francisco Pizarro invaded South America with 180 White men and 27 horses, taking on the hundreds of thousands and possibly millions of Incas living in the gold rich Inca empire which covered the areas today comprising the countries of Peru, Chile and Bolivia.

Advancing quickly, Pizarro reached the Inca heartland: despite the tiny White force being numerically

dwarfed by the warlike Incas, the latter, like the Aztecs, had no answer against the overwhelming White technological superiority.

Atahualpa

Pizarro captured the Inca emperor, one Atahualpa, who attempted to buy his freedom by offering a staggering amount of gold and silver. Despite this offer, the conquistadors decided to burn the emperor at the stake to break Inca resistance.

In the end, because Atahualpa converted to Christianity while awaiting execution, it was decided to spare him the flames and to publicly strangle him to death instead, a method of executing non Christians already common back in Spain as a result of the Inquisition which had already claimed hundreds of victims in Europe.

As Pizarro had predicted, the death of the Inca emperor left his tribe leaderless and incapable of mounting effective co-ordinated opposition. The conquistadors then set about destroying all the Inca power structures, subduing the huge territory with the same brutality that they had used in dealing with the Inca emperor.

Eyewitness Account of the Defeat of the Incas

The Spanish account of the first defeat of the Incas and the capture of Atahualpa at the Battle of Cajamarca makes incredible reading: no better image of the events can be created that by quoting the eyewitness accounts by Pizarro's companions, including his brothers Hernando and Pedro, as sent back to Spain for the edification of the Spanish king : (Combined from: Reports on the Discovery of Peru, Hakluyt Society, 1st series, vol. 47, New York, 1872; Relations of the Discovery and Conquest of the Kingdoms of Peru, New York, Cortes Society, 1921; The Conquest of Peru, as Recorded by a Member of the Pizarro Expedition, J. Sinclair, New York, 1929; all as quoted in Guns, Germs and Steel, Jared Diamond, Jonathan Cape Ltd. 1997).

"Our Spaniards, being few in number, never having more than 200 or 300 men together, and sometimes only 100 or fewer, have in our times, conquered more territory than has ever been known before . . .

"On reaching the entrance to Cajamarca, we saw the camp of the Atahualpa (the Inca emperor) at a distance of a league, in the skirts of the mountain. The Indians' camp looked like a very beautiful city. Until this we had never seen anything like this in the Indies. It filled all our Spaniards with fear and confusion. But we could not show any fear or turn back, for if the Indians had sensed any weakness in us, even the Indians we were bringing with us as guides would have killed us. So we made a good show of spirits, and after carefully observing the town and tents, we descended into the valley and entered Cajamarca.

"We talked a lot among ourselves about what to do. All of us were full of fear, because we were so few in number and we had penetrated so far into a land where we could not hope to receive reinforcements. Few of us slept that night, and we kept watch in the square of Cajamarca, looking at the campfires of the Indian army. It was a frightening sight. The governor's brother estimated the number of Indian soldiers there at 40,000, but he was telling

a lie just to encourage us, for there were actually more than 80,000 Indians.

"The Governor concealed his troops around the square at Cajamarca, dividing the cavalry into two portions . . . In like manner he divided the infantry . . . at the same time he ordered . . . three infantrymen with trumpets to a small fort in the plaza and to station themselves there with a small piece of artillery. When all the Indians and Atahualpa with them, had entered the plaza, the governor would give a signal to . . . fire the gun and the trumpets should sound, and at the sound of the trumpets the cavalry should dash out of the large court where they were waiting hidden in readiness.

"At noon Atahualpa began to draw up his men and to approach. Soon we saw the entire plain full with Indians, halting periodically to wait for more Indians who kept filing out of the camp behind them.

"Atahualpa (came) . . . in a very fine litter with the ends of its timbers covered in silver. Eighty lords carried him on their shoulders . . . The litter was lined with parrot feathers of many colors and decorated with plates of gold and silver.

"These Indian squadrons began to enter the plaza to the accompaniment of great songs, and thus entering they occupied every part of the plaza. In the meantime all of us Spaniards were waiting ready in a courtyard, full of fear. Many of us urinated without noticing it, out of sheer terror . . .

"Governor Pizarro now sent Friar Vicente de Valverde to go to speak to Atahualpa, and to require Atahualpa in the name of God and of the king of Spain that Atahualpa subject himself to the law of our lord Jesus Christ and to the service of His Majesty the King of Spain.

"Advancing with a cross in one hand and the Bible in another, and going amongst the Indian troops up to the place where Atahualpa was, the friar addressed him . . .

"Atahualpa asked for the book, that he might look at it, and the friar gave it to him closed. Atahualpa did not know how to open the book, and the friar, extended his arm to do so, when Atahualpa, in great anger, gave him a blow on the arm . . . Then he opened it himself, and with astonishment at the letters and paper he threw it away from him five or six paces, his face a deep crimson.

"The friar then returned to Pizarro, shouting , 'Come out, Christians! Come at these enemy dogs who reject the things of God. That tyrant has thrown my book of holy law to the ground! Did you not see what happened? Why remain polite and servile towards this over proud dog when the plains are full of Indians? March out against him, for I absolve you!

"The governor then gave the signal . . . (the gun was fired) and at the same time the trumpets were sounded, and the armored Spanish troops, both cavalry and infantry, sallied forth out of their hiding places straight into the mass of Indians . . . We had placed rattles on the horses to terrify the Indians . . . The booming of the guns, the blowing of the trumpets and the rattles on the horses threw the Indians into panicked confusion. The Spaniards fell upon them and cut them to pieces. The Indians were so filled with fear that they climbed on top of one another,

formed mounds, and suffocated each other. . . . The cavalry rode them down . . . The infantry made so good an assault on those that remained, that in a short time most (Indians) were put to sword.

"The Governor himself took his sword and dagger, entered the thick of the Indians with the Spaniards who were with him, and with great bravery reached Atahualpa's litter. He fearlessly grabbed Atahualpa's left arm . . . but he could not pull Atahualpa out of his litter because it was held up so high. Although we killed the Indians who held the litter, others at once took their places and held it aloft, and in this manner we spent a long time overcoming and killing the Indians. Finally seven or eight Spaniards on horseback spurred on their horses, rushed upon the litter from one side, and with great effort they heaved it over on its side. In that way Atahualpa was captured. . . . the Indians carrying the litter, and those escorting Atahualpa, never abandoned him, all died around him.

"The panic stricken Indians remaining in the square, terrified at the firing of the guns and at the horses - something they had never seen - tried to flee from the square by knocking down a stretch of wall and running out onto the plain outside. Our cavalry jumped the broken wall and charged out into the plain, shouting : 'Catch those with the fancy clothes! Don't let any escape! Spear them!'

"All the other Indian soldiers whom Atahualpa had brought were a mile from Cajamarca ready for a battle, but not one made a move, and during this not one Indian raised a weapon against a Spaniard. When the squadrons of Indians who had remained in the plain outside the town saw the other Indians fleeing, most of them too panicked and fled. It was an astonishing sight, for the whole valley for 15 or 20 miles was completely filled with Indians. Night had already fallen, and our cavalry were continuing to spear Indians in the fields, when we heard a trumpet calling for us to reassemble at camp.

"If night had not come on, few out of the more than 40,000 Indian troops would have been left alive. Six or seven thousand Indians lay dead, and many more had their arms cut off and other wounds. Atahualpa himself admitted that we had killed 7,000 of his men in that battle."

Overwhelming Odds

The historical records show that Pizarro had exactly 62 soldiers mounted on horses along with 106 foot soldiers, while Atahualpa commanded an army of about 80,000. More than 7,000 Incas were killed: not one White died.

The staggering military victory was based solely on White technological superiority: the Amerinds had only stone, bronze and wooden clubs, maces and hand axes, slingshots and quilted material body armor against the White steel swords, spears and chain armor. Even the guns the Spaniards had were not decisive: they were slow loading and difficult to fire: Pizarro had only a dozen of them. The Incas were simply unable to mortally wound any of the Spaniards with their weapons.

The odds which prevailed at the Battle of Cajamarca were to be repeated even more dramatically a further four times:

- at the Battle of Jauja, 80 Spaniards defeated an Inca army of tens of thousands;
- at the Battle of Vilcachuaman, 30 Spaniards defeated tens of thousands of Inca opponents;
- at the Battle of Vilaconoga, 10 Spaniards defeated an army of tens of thousands of Incas; and
- at the battle of Cuzco, 40 Spaniards defeated the last great Inca army, also consisting of tens of thousands of Inca warriors.

Further Conquests

In 1535, conquistador Pedro de Mendoza, occupied and subdued the area around the Rio de la Plata river, and he founded Buenos Aires in 1536, establishing in that same year Spanish rule over present day Columbia. In 1540, the conquistador Pedro de Valdivia, launched a war of racial conquest against the Araucanian Amerinds in present day Chile: like the other wars of conquest, it was a short one sided affair, and in 1541, Valdivia was able to found the city of Santiago.

Civil War and Miscegenation

The adventurers who made up these White settlers were however as apt to fight amongst themselves as they were to do battle with the Amerinds: within a decade of Pizarro's conquest of the Incas, a civil war broke out between the different factions of conquistadors over mineral rights and other disputes, and Pizarro himself was murdered.

This anarchy was aggravated by the fact that almost immediately the conquistadors started taking Amerind wives, and very soon huge numbers of mixed race inhabitants with no particular loyalty to Spain or other Spanish colonists emerged. This development was dramatically illustrated in 1780, when an armed group of about 60,000 Amerinds and mixed race Creoles rebelled against Spanish rule. Although initially successful, the uprising was crushed in 1781, with its leaders being tortured and executed. A similar rebellion was put down in 1814.

Portuguese Settlement

In 1530, the Portuguese finally woke up to the fact that the Spaniards were effectively settling the entire continent, and from that year on started establishing their own settlements in what is today Brazil. The climate there lent itself well to the cultivation of sugar, and vast sugar plantation were quickly established.

Then the age old problem of providing labor arose: the answer of the day was to import Black slaves into South America, as the Portuguese had done into their own country as well. So it was that Blacks as a racial group were brought into play into the South American equation: millions were imported, and of both sexes to ensure a steady population growth.

Beginning of the African Slave Trade

By 1518, the demand for slaves in the Spanish New World was so great that King Charles I of Spain sanctioned the direct transport of slaves from Africa to the American colonies. The slave trade was controlled by the Crown, which sold the right to import slaves (called the "asiento") to entrepreneurs.

By the 1530s, the Portuguese were also using African slaves in Brazil. From then until the abolition of the slave trade in 1870, at least 10 million Africans were forcibly brought to the Americas: about 47 percent of them to the Caribbean islands and the Guianas; 38 percent to Brazil; and six percent to mainland Spanish America.

About 4.5 percent went to North America, roughly the same proportion that went to Europe.

Between 1519 and 1650, Mexico imported about 120,000 African slaves, or slightly fewer than 1000 per year. From 1650 to 1810, Mexico received an additional 80,000 Africans, a rate of 500 slaves per year. Indeed, Mexican slave owners bought no more than 50,000 slaves during the entire 18th century, when the transatlantic slave trade was at its highest.

Chile imported about 6000, about one-third of whom arrived before 1615. By 1838, the slave population in the British colony of Jamaica numbered 300,000. The French colony of Saint-Domingue (present day Haiti) had 480,000 slaves in 1790, on the eve of the Haitian Slave Revolt. By 1880, there were about two million Blacks in the Caribbean islands alone, including at least 250,000 in Cuba.

The Continent Divided Up

In 1693, gold was discovered in what is now western Brazil, which attracted a large number of new Portuguese immigrants and boosting the growth of a new port, Rio de Janeiro. In Peru, tin mines were established, and the mineral wealth combined with the abundant natural resources were quickly harnessed by the new White masters and turned into one of the most profitable colonial undertakings of its kind.

Thus by 1700, all of South America was under either Spanish or Portuguese rule, except for the territories of Guiana, which had been belatedly grabbed by Britain, France and the Netherlands, more as outposts on the continent than anything else. These outposts were to prove of vital importance in the European wars which followed and Spanish shipping suffered serious losses from British and Dutch raiders at various stages of a number of conflicts.

Colonial Dissension

Eventually the Spanish colonies, which had once provided much of the wealth upon which the greatness of Imperial Spain had been built, became liabilities: and were increasingly heavily taxed not just to pay for themselves but for Spain's increasingly disastrous European wars as well. The heavy taxation and economic interference in the South American colonies by the Spanish state created waves of unrest, amongst both White settlers and Nonwhites and a number of serious rebellions flared up: in Paraguay from 1721 to 1735, in Peru from 1780 to 1782, and in other Spanish held territories in 1781.

The Spanish from Spain also began to look down upon the Spanish colonists - especially those who had been born in South America - as wild frontiersmen, and this opinion was further aggravated when increasingly large numbers of White colonists started taking Amerind women as wives, the genesis of the Creole, or mixed race population. The Creoles however held a higher social status in the colonies than the Amerinds of Black slaves: but all resented the rule by Spaniards from Spain who only stayed

just long enough in the colonies to amass some wealth and then return to Europe.

Wars of Independence

The successful war of independence against Britain in North America in 1776, and the French revolution in 1789, finally provided the spark for a series of wars of independence in South America: in a series of clashes dating from 1810 to 1825, the South American continent was piecemeal broken up into independent units, ending finally in 1825, when Spain formally surrendered control of the last part of its territory on the continent.

The fathers of the South American wars of independence were the Venezuelans, Simon Bolivar and Francisco de Miranda and the Argentinean, Jose de San Martin. On 25 May 1810, a coalition of Spanish colonists born in South America and Creoles of Buenos Aires, deposed the Spanish viceroy and established a provisional governing body for the provinces of La Plata. In August 1811, the Paraguayans proclaimed their independence.

In 1818, San Martin led an army of locals in deposing Spanish rule in Chile, where he was aided by the Chilean revolutionary leader Bernardo O'Higgins - actually an Irishman, his presence being a good indication of the extent of the scope of the White immigration which had taken place. O'Higgins went on to declare Chile independent in 1818, after a Spanish force had been defeated.

Simon Bolivar recruited an army of White mercenaries from England to come and fight against the Spanish in South America: this force provided the power through which Bolivar was able to inflict what was to prove a final defeat upon Spanish Imperial forces in 1819.

Bolivar then established the states of Panama, Venezuela and Quito (later called Ecuador). In 1820, San Martin drove the Spanish out of the city of Lima, in modern day Peru, but faced a serious threat from Spanish Imperial forces in the rest of that country. Bolivar came to his aid and by December of that year, the Spanish forces had been decisively defeated, and the last Spanish forces were finally driven off the continent in 1826. Upper Peru was named Bolivia in honor of its liberator. Brazil had in the interim become independent from Portugal in 1822.

Argentina

Although Argentina has a large Nonwhite population, it is still home to one of the largest concentrations of Whites in South America, although expressed as a percentage of the total population, White numbers are dropping dramatically year by year.

Although there were relatively few Amerinds in the region when it was first settled, there were however enough nomadic tribesmen to give the first White settlement at what later became Buenos Aires enough problems for the town to be abandoned five years after it had been established in 1536. However, repeated settlement efforts recreated the town, and by 1750, it had 20,000 White Spanish inhabitants.

In the 20th century, the volatile make-up of the Argentinean population has been reflected in the periods of relative peace and violent disruption - with the economy virtually continuously struggling

and inflation often running at more 900 percent. Despite this, Argentina is still one of the most developed countries in South America - a reflection on the other countries on the continent.

Bolivia

The tiny White Spanish occupation force in Peru and Bolivia was quickly absorbed through a process of physical integration, and when the tin mines in Upper Peru became exhausted many White settlers drifted away, leaving the country in the effective control of the largely mixed race population still resident there today.

From the time of its independence, Bolivia has consequently suffered from political instability and the country's main source of wealth continues to be its massive cocaine exports, a situation which led to direct American army intervention in 1986.

Brazil

Four major groups make up the Brazilian population: Amerinds; Portuguese; Blacks; and other smaller White and Asian groups who have trickled into the country at various stages of history. In 1998, the truly White element of the population of Brazil was estimated to be around 30 percent, with the rest of the population either being mulattos, or mixed race or pure original Amerinds (estimated at only 0.2 percent of the population).

In 1555, the French founded a colony on the shores of Guanabara Bay, but the Portuguese destroyed it in 1560, establishing on its site a new city, Rio de Janeiro, in 1567. The Dutch then made a grab for Brazil: a Dutch fleet seized a sizable piece of land in Brazil in 1624, but the city was recaptured by a combined force of Spaniards, Portuguese, and Amerinds the following year. The Dutch attacked again in 1630, and were only finally driven off in 1654.

The return of Portuguese rule saw the abolition of slavery for Amerinds only, and an increase in Portuguese immigration which was encouraged by the discovery of gold and other minerals in the territory.

The invasion of Portugal by Napoleon in 1807, saw the Portuguese royal court flee to Brazil, only to return in 1816, after the final defeat of the French. By the time that the Portuguese royal family had moved back to Portugal, they had, through corruption and general open disdain for the locals, sufficiently alienated the colonists in Brazil to the point where in 1822, the country proclaimed its independence. All royalist Portuguese troops in Brazil were forced to surrender by the end of 1823.

The importation of Black slaves was outlawed in 1853, and all slaves were formally emancipated in 1888.

Brazil's history since independence mirrors that of its neighbors: general political instability matched by economic and social deprivation, with the establishment of very clearly defined classes of people based upon their racial appearance. The general rule which is followed (as it is in India with the caste system) is that the lighter the skin, the higher class and more affluent, while the darker inhabitants make up the less affluent and lower classes.

Further political unrest led to the establishment of a republic in June 1890, adopted with a constitution taken virtually word for word from the American constitution. However, the adoption of a democratic form of government did not last long: within two years the president had declared himself effective dictator, but was in turn overthrown by the military. The country was then plunged into the seemingly endless Third World political, social and economic chaos.

Chile

A Spanish expedition into southern Chile in 1540, met strong resistance from the local Amerind tribe, the Araucanians. Despite founding several towns, including Santiago in 1541, the tiny Spanish expedition was soon overwhelmed by the numerically superior Amerinds.

In 1553, a large scale Araucanian rebellion saw the majority of the scattered White settlements destroyed and their inhabitants slaughtered. This rebellion was the initial phase of a race war that was to last nearly 100 years. The Araucanians were the only Amerind tribe in South America who did not quickly collapse under the Spanish.

A significant number of White settlements were also for the greatest part absorbed into a racial mix in Chile, although repeated fresh immigration from Europe has meant that there remained a substantial White population in that country.

Uruguay

Between 1680 and 1683, contesting Spanish ownership of the region, Portuguese colonists in Brazil established several settlements along the Rio de la Plata opposite Buenos Aires. The Spanish drove the Portuguese out in 1726, establishing the city of Montevideo in that same year. Uruguay's independence in 1830, was almost immediately followed by civil war and a succession of effective military dictatorships under the guise of semi-democracy.

Venezuela

Independent Venezuela was characterized from the start by revolutions and counter revolutions, accompanied by general economic and social anarchy. In 1902, Great Britain, France, Germany, and several other powers blockaded Venezuelan ports because of the government's failure to meet its debts and on two occasions, European warships bombarded that country's ports.

Costa Rica

Costa Rica has one of the highest White populations of all the central American countries. It is also one of the most stable countries in that region.

Instability

The vast majority of the inhabitants of the continent of South America had always been Nonwhite: the first inhabitants were exclusively Amerind; then White Spaniards and Portuguese arrived, bringing

with them Black slaves, and then finally a mixed race group had emerged from the mixing of large numbers of these four groupings.

South American racial history becomes murky from then on: while the majority of the population are of mixed racial origin, there are still a significant number of Whites remaining - and it is generally in those areas where they predominate, that the regions in question are the more advanced on the continent.

So it is that First and Third World conditions exist cheek by jowl in South America, the direct result of the intermingling process which has taken place. The one overriding theme of South American history since the war of liberation from the Spanish has been instability: political, social and economic. Politically, the states have swayed between totalitarian dictatorships and part democracies; socially the continent has become the source of some of the greatest disparities in the world: with a small, usually White, elite, holding the majority of the continent's wealth, with the vast majority of the now mostly mixed race population surviving on a subsistence economy at best.

South America has also, along with South East Asia and certain parts of the Near East, become the heartland of the world drug production and running empire, echoing the Mafia of southern Italy in their criminality and murderous zeal which extends as far as politics in many South American countries.

The parallels in the racial make-up of the largely mixed race populations of Sicily and large parts of South America, and the appearance of violent international criminal gangs, is too obvious to ignore.

Politically, in spite of Bolivar's dream, unity was not to be achieved between the various states in South America, as had happened in North America. The reason for this was that, unlike North America, the population of South America was not as racially homogenous as North America, and so racial divisions, quite apart from the already aggravated economic and social disparities, came into play. The jealousies and rivalries in South America to this day sometimes take on deadly serious but comical proportions, with two South American states being famous for going to war with one another in the 1960s over the outcome of a football match.

The End Result

White Spaniards are more common in Argentina and Uruguay, while in Brazil the numbers of White Portuguese is very small indeed, with the majority of that country being of mixed race. The desperate economic straits and impoverishment of that country also in many ways mirrors many other predominantly Third World countries.

Groups of White Italians and small numbers of Germans and Poles also settled in Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay during the late nineteenth century and the early part of the twentieth century. They were followed by significant numbers of European Jews, seeking a haven from rising European anti-Semitism around the end of the 19th century and during the early 20th century.

German colonists settled in south central Chile, establishing some of that country's richest White enclaves. However, immigrants from Europe were not the only source of immigration into the continent: diverse groups such as Syrians, Indians, Indonesians, Chinese and Japanese, who have settled in large numbers in Brazil, Paraguay and Bolivia.

The end result of this tremendous mix of races in South America has been a continent of extremes: relatively well off White enclaves surrounded by masses of desperately poor and (ever growing in numbers) Nonwhites.

An interesting aspect of the racial mix in South America which is worthy of note is the one sidedness of the process: most common are the mestizos, those of part Spanish/Portuguese and Amerind ancestry. The second smallest group are those who the product of mixing between Spanish/Portuguese and Blacks, while those of Amerind and Black ancestry are far and away the smallest.

Racial Mixing: the Destruction of the Inca and Aztec Civilizations

The disappearance of the Aztec and Inca civilizations is an extremely valuable lesson for it illustrates with a Nonwhite group the end results of prolonged mixing: in exactly the same way that the ancient White civilizations of old vanished when the people who created those civilizations were submerged amongst newcomers, so did the Aztec and Inca civilizations vanish when they lost their racial homogeneity.

It is a commonly held, but false, belief that the Incas and Aztecs vanished because they all died out due to the introduction of European borne diseases. While it most certainly true that a large percentage did succumb to new diseases, there is no evidence to indicate that the entire race was wiped out in this way.

- Firstly, there are no figures to indicate how many Aztecs and Incas there were in the first place, so it is factually impossible to say with any accuracy what percentage were wiped out by disease; and
- secondly, the only time in history that any records were kept of a disease afflicting an entire race was the Black Plague of Europe in the Middle Ages: this killed one third of Europe's population, and it would not be unreasonable to presume that new diseases would have killed off "only" a similar number of Incas and Aztecs.

The straight military defeats suffered by the Incas and Aztecs did also not destroy these racial groups: but there is overwhelming evidence - the present day mixed race population of large parts of South America, which must have come from somewhere - that the Southern American Amerinds disappeared through racial mixing with the newcomers and with Black slaves.

The Aztec and Inca decline prove that all civilizations which are the product of specific groups, no matter which group they are, will disappear once that people disappear. This is the reason why in South America today the Aztec and Inca temples lie in ruins: the mixing of that race with others caused the very make-up of those people to change, a far more fatal blow to the advanced Inca and Aztec civilization than any military defeat or disease.

Races can recover from military defeats: but when a racial group disappears through mixing, it can never recapture its original nature: it is gone forever. The ruins of the once great Aztec and Inca civilizations stand, like the Ziggurats in Sumeria and the Pyramids in Egypt, as silent testimony of vanished peoples, submerged amongst people of a different race.

For the White race, South America has been a close repeat of the White Aryan invasion of India (although the obliteration of the White descendants in South America has not been as total as it was in India). However, the population growth amongst the mixed race inhabitants is such that even the remaining pockets of Whites in South America are due to be bred down into an insignificant number within the next 100 years - and then the entire continent is set to become similar at last: dominated by Nonwhite Third World chaos and deprivation.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Forty Nine

The Birth of the United States of America

Although the United States did not emerge as a separate country until the end of the 17th century, it assumed a massive, perhaps even dominating, role in world history from that time onwards. North America became as important as Europe in many senses: not least because it became, through occupation and natural reproduction, a new White heartland, mirroring the occupation of Europe by the Indo-Europeans some 7,000 years earlier.

First Settlements

Recent archeological finds in North America indicate a White presence on that continent many thousands of years old - this was dealt with in chapter six of this book. The next wave of Whites to set foot upon the North American continent during the 11th century were the Vikings, and then later in the 15th century by the voyages of Christopher Columbus and John Cabot. Based on Columbus's voyages, Spain went on to claim large areas of north, central and southern America for itself. On the basis of Cabot's voyages, England later claimed the entire north America, coming into conflict with French explorers who had also staked out pieces of land for themselves.

The French had established small colonies in Quebec and some northern territories such as later day Newfoundland, and had claimed a huge area of middle America following the Mississippi River south right down to Louisiana. The French however did not settle the area in large numbers, choosing instead to set up trading stations and not displacing the native Americans.

Effect on Amerinds

However, the very first racial consequence of the arrival of large numbers of White settlers in North America was an unintended decimation of the local population: the American Indian (Amerinds). This was done by the introduction of new diseases to North American, borne by the White settlers: influenza, typhus, measles, and smallpox were not necessarily fatal to Whites, but were deadly to the Amerinds who had no prior experience of them and thus had no innate resistance. The Amerinds died in large numbers: some estimates say as high as 40 percent. The exact figure will however never be known, as the original number of Amerinds is unknown.

Then the White settlers introduced livestock and horses to America: these domesticated animals took land away from the indigenous game animals, such as the bison: this combined with a later deliberate policy of reducing the numbers of bison, deprived the Indian hunters of a major source of their food.

Scalping

By 1630, the Spanish, French, Dutch and English had all established colonies in North America: all except the French had found themselves waging racial wars against the Amerinds, who resisted the White settlers with methods which were by any standards cruel. This was the first time the Whites

came into contact with the particularly nasty habit of scalping - the taking of the scalp of a defeated enemy as a trophy; a habit deeply ingrained in the Amerind culture of war.

Pilgrim Fathers

Although North America had therefore been settled by loose groups of Whites, the formal founding of that country was counted as starting with the arrival of a group of English religious refugees, the Separatists (also later known as the Pilgrims) on board the ship the Mayflower, off Massachusetts Bay in 1620.

The Separatists were one of the English Christian dissident groups who argued that the Anglican Church had not split far enough from the Catholic Church - and found themselves hated by both Catholics and Protestants alike. Finally they obtained permission to settle in the British colony of Virginia (the British government was no doubt glad to see the back of them, and Virginia had become a gathering point for all elements of unwanted British society).

However, either through deliberate design or navigational accident, the good ship Mayflower missed Jamestown, Virginia, and threw anchor off the coast of Massachusetts in what is now the harbor of Provincetown in November 1620. Despite the fact that they were in land outside of any colonial power, the pilgrim fathers landed their small group and founded a settlement near present day Cape Cod, called the Plymouth Colony (after the port in England from where the Mayflower had sailed).

The Plymouth colony became a lightning conductor for all manner of Christian dissidents seeking religious freedom. Between 1629 and 1640 - only eleven years - over 25,000 English dissidents alone immigrated to the new lands.

The Salem Witch Trials

Exactly how fanatical were many of the early Christian settlers, and as an illustration of just how badly they were infected with the worst excesses of that religion, was illustrated by the Salem witch hunt, which took place in colonial Massachusetts in 1692. Through this lunacy, the town of Salem became the holder of the dubious honor of being the site of one of the last ever witch hunts which took place in the Western world.

A perfectly innocent game of witches being played by some young girls set off the Christian fanatics in the town to the point where mass hysteria broke out: no less than twenty unfortunates were arrested and charged with being "witches" - a charge against which it was impossible to defend oneself properly. All were burned at the stake after being found guilty of the most ridiculous charges imaginable. The absurdity of the situation must have been realized by many in the wider settlements: after Salem there would never be another Christian witch hunt on that scale in America again.

Massachusetts Bay

In 1630, the Massachusetts Bay Colony was established by an English company in terms of a specially granted charter. The authority contained in this charter gave the colony virtual self government, and very soon this authority was used to expel some Christian dissidents from this

already dissenting Christian colony: the now twice expelled Christians formed the basis of the settlement from which Rhode Island grew.

In 1636, the demand for more cattle grazing land pushed a large number of settlers westwards, displacing Amerinds and founding Connecticut. Further streams of White settlers continued to arrive in North America: Catholics settled in the territory called Maryland by them in honor of the biblical mother of Jesus.

Dutch Possessions Seized

In 1663, another English company was granted the charter of what is now North Carolina and South Carolina. The Dutch colony of New Netherlands was occupied by English troops in 1664 and renamed New York. New Jersey was also taken from the Dutch in the same year.



Captain John Smith, one of the early settlers in Virginia, shown seizing an Amerind chieftain. Legends grew up around Smith to the effect that he fell in love with an Amerind girl, Pocohontas. These stories are extremely exaggerated: in fact Smith was an old man who used a young Amerind female for sexual purposes and no more.

Metacom's War

The Amerinds living in these areas for the greatest part resisted the White settlements with violence. The last resistance to the Whites in New England came in 1675, when three Amerinds were executed by the White colonists for murder. An Amerind chief named Metacom, but who was also known as King Philip, led an alliance of Amerind tribes in fierce guerrilla raids on the colonists after this: the Whites replied in kind and a bloody tit-for-tat exchange followed until Metacom's secret hideout was discovered and he was killed. The Whites then drove the majority of remaining Amerinds from New England.

New Hampshire

New Hampshire was created in 1679 out of the fringes of the colony of Massachusetts, while in 1681, the Englishman William Penn received a charter for the region that he immodestly named Pennsylvania. Although all of these territories were still nominally British, internal conflict in Britain itself kept the British monarch from exerting any effective control until 1676.

Until then the founding charters of each territory allowed the settlers to form more or less their own system of government: this combined with the refugee mentality of many of the original founders, created a sense of individualism and self enterprise which would later not only lead to the American War of Independence, but also the characteristics by which America came to be known throughout the world.

Mass White Immigration

As news of the colonies in the Americas, or the New World, as it became known, spread throughout Europe, there occurred one of the most incredible mass population movements since the Indo-European immigrations: hundreds of thousands of Whites from virtually every country in Europe packed up their bags and moved to the new territories.

Some were attracted by the opportunity of owning their own land - something impossible for common folk since the time of feudalism in Europe - while others wanted to escape the class systems and religious conflict into which Europe had descended. Waves of Germans, Irish, Danes, Dutch, Swedes and others all started pouring into the colonies, even though they were still under the nominal control of England.

English Laws Resented

Internal political developments in Britain started to effect onto the colonies in America after the English civil war of 1642. The first English law concerning the colonies was the Navigation Act of 1651, which required that colonial imports and exports be shipped in English-flag vessels. Ultimately the British monarchy started trying to exert greater influence on the colonies - primarily to try and prevent the loss of taxation revenue to the crown.

In 1684, the charter to Massachusetts was revoked as punishment to that state's inhabitants violating the trade provisions of the Navigation Act. In 1686, the British king, James II, ordered that the states of New York, New Jersey, and New England be unified into a single province, the Dominion of New England. Slowly dissatisfaction with the British king's interfering began to grow:

Connecticut and Rhode Island refused to give up their charters to a governor appointed by the king, and in Massachusetts an armed rebellion broke out in 1689. Further rebellions occurred in Boston and New York City.

French and Indian War

A succession of European conflicts were then to further affect the state of the colonies: an inter-European war which was settled in 1713 by the Treaty of Utrecht, obliged the French to relinquish considerable territory, including Acadia, Newfoundland, and the region surrounding Hudson Bay to the British colonies.

Then yet another European conflict affected the colonies in America: increased tensions between the French, the Prussians and the English led to the outbreak of the Seven Year's War in 1756. The outbreak of this war led to the outbreak of the war known as the French and Indian War: in actual fact, several sets of wars between the French and British in North America which saw both sides ally themselves at various stages with tribes of Amerinds: the French being more successful than the British at this tactic.

The French had some distinct advantages over the British in North America: they had an experienced and well equipped army already stationed there, and their earlier policy of leaving the Amerinds alone paid off: they were able to form military alliances with the greater number of Red Indian tribes.

However, not all of the colonists under British rule had any great love for Britain. By 1775, the total White population of the British colonies was just under 2 million: but of these, approximately 1,2 million - or over 50 per cent - had come from other parts of Europe - mainly Germany and southern Ireland. Even those colonists who had come from England had more often than not left because of some gripe with that country, be it religious or social. The ties of allegiance to Britain were therefore from the outset very weak indeed.

British Reverses

The first three years of the Seven Year's War saw several British reverses in Europe: in North America too they were years of indecisive conflict, caused by the presence of a large group of Amerinds who lived in an area separating the territory held by France - which at that stage was still virtually all of what is today know as Middle America reaching down to Louisiana.

The Amerinds then became involved in the war, groups of them being allied to either the French or the British, with the confusing result that Amerind attacks on both French and English took place. Both White sides then started encroaching on the Amerind's neutral territory in an attempt to outmaneuver each other.

Tide Turns

After 1757, Britain and its allies in Europe and elsewhere managed to inflict decisive defeats upon the French forces: in North America, a British army, aided by colonial auxiliaries, seized Quebec in 1759, and in 1760, conquered Montreal: French power was at an end in North America.

The British-French War was concluded with the capitulation of France and the treaty of Paris: in terms of this treaty France was forced to cede all her North American territories to Britain, apart from a region lying to the west of the Mississippi River, which was given to Spain.

The Stamp Act

The financial strain of beating France caused the British government to look for more funds from the colonies: laws were stepped up to crack down on tax avoiders. In 1765, the British government introduced the Stamp Act, which required American colonists to validate virtually all essential legal documents (including documents ratifying sales and purchases) by buying and attaching revenue stamps to these documents.

As this was an obviously gratuitous tax, it aroused great indignation amongst the American colonists, who felt hard done by after their contribution to defeating France during the war just finished. Protests broke out in virtually every city and town: civil servants who had been appointed to enforce the Stamp Act were forced to resign and thousands of the stamps themselves were burnt.

Sons Of Liberty

Secret societies of independence minded colonists calling themselves the Sons of Liberty were formed with the aim of stirring up dissent with the colonial government. In October 1765, colonists from all over the thirteen colony states met and declared their opposition to the Stamp Act: in 1766, the British Government repealed the law, but by then it was too late: the seeds for rebellion had been sown. Even so the British might have been able to keep the colonies under control, but then an inexplicable turnaround occurred; a new series of taxes were imposed upon the colonies: the Townshend Acts were passed in 1767.

British Goods Boycotted

These taxes demanded customs duties on tea, paper, lead, paint, and glass. In the American colonies, the flames of rebellion were fanned: British goods were boycotted, and in Massachusetts, the people of the town of Boston openly refused to adhere to the custom duty laws.

Boston Massacre

In response to this move, the British sent two regiments to Boston in 1768 - and tensions rose even further. On 5 March 1770, British troops fired on a crowd of protesters, resulting in what became known as the Boston Massacre: five colonists were killed and six were injured. The extent of the ill feeling caused the British to backtrack once again: in 1770, all the customs duties except that on tea were repealed - and the only reason why the tea tax was maintained was to keep the principle valid that the Crown had the right to levy taxes on the colonies.

The colonists then stopped the boycott of British goods - except for tea, which was maintained to keep up the right of the colonies to object to being taxed without being given representation in the British government. It should be borne in mind that by this stage the various colonies had, by virtue of their loose nature of their founding charters, begun to establish the first seeds of democracy, although

this was by no means total. It was nevertheless an important mindset shift which laid the basis for the rebellion to come.

The Tea Act and The Boston Tea Party

Then in 1773, the British parliament passed a law granting the English East India Company the monopoly on tea sold to America. Known as the Tea Act, this law precipitated a new crisis in America : the colonists quite correctly regarded it as a way by the British government to force them to pay tax. In response, they intensified their boycott of British tea, and when three British East India Company ships loaded with tea entered Boston harbor in December 1773, a group of colonists, disguised as Amerinds, boarded the ships and proceeded to dump virtually the entire cargo into the harbor. This event became known as the Boston Tea Party.

The British reacted by declaring the port of Boston closed and prohibiting public meetings in Massachusetts. Discontent at the suppression of their right to protest, representatives of all the colonies gathered together in September 1774, for what was to be called the First Continental Congress. The Congress drew up a petition which was sent to the British king, George III, asking for a change in policy towards the colonies. At the same time the congress called for an intensification of a trade boycott with Britain, and resolved to meet again the next year if Britain refused to accede to their petition.

A Bad Move

George III then made the worst decision in the history of the British Empire: he rejected the petition out of hand and called upon his loyal subjects to suppress the rebellion. Within four months of his reaction being returned to the colonies, the rebellion to which George had referred did indeed break out: on 19 April 1775, some 700 British troops, marching to Concord in Massachusetts to destroy a store of weapons being hoarded by the increasingly militant colonist militia, were confronted by a group of 70 militiamen near Lexington.

One Shot and the American Revolution

The British ordered the militiamen to disperse: all but one obeyed: he fired a shot at the British troops, and with that one shot the American War of Independence was triggered (the war is also called the American Revolution). The British troops returned the single shot with a volley of fire which killed eight of the already dispersing colonists and wounded ten. From that day on, there could be no turning back for either side.

The British troops marched on to Concord the same day. News of the shootings at Lexington had however reached the militiamen at Concord, and the British troops were attacked as they started burning the supply store they had initially set out to destroy. In the second armed conflict with the militia, the British troops were routed and fled, suffering 273 casualties to the militia's 95.

Resistance Formalized

The Second Continental Congress duly convened in Philadelphia in May 1775, and declared

"American" determination to resist British aggression with armed force. It also drew up measures to create an army, appointed George Washington as commander in chief; authorized the issuing of paper money and took on the role of a formal government.

The conflict was in numerical terms, uneven: England, Wales, and Scotland had a combined population of about 9 million, compared with 2.5 million in the 13 rebel colonies, nearly 20 percent of whom were Black slaves. In addition the British government counted on mobilizing thousands of loyalists in America and Native Americans who were hostile to White expansion.

Washington's main army, called the Continental Army, never had more than 24,000 active-duty troops, and was poorly supplied and always short of weapons and food. These included only about 20,000 regulars and a smaller number of militiamen (who, because of their preparedness to take up arms at a minute's notice, were given the name Minutemen).

In a bizarre turn, a number of German mercenaries from the state of Hesse-Kassel were recruited by the British and fought against the rebels. These Germans were called Hessians - despite fighting with distinction, they are best remembered for the defeat they suffered at the battle of Trenton in December 1776. Many of the Hessians settled in America and Canada after the war.

Bunker Hill

Meanwhile the British suffered two more military humiliations at the hands of the militia: buoyed by the success of Concord, the militia went onto the offensive: as part of a wider move to surround Boston, a section of the fledgling American army occupied an outpost called Breed's Hill (although they were supposed to occupy the nearby Bunker's Hill) at Charlestown, in June 1775.

British troops tried twice to dislodge the militia by storming the hill, each time being beaten back with significant losses. Finally the militiamen ran out of ammunition, and retreated: but the Battle of Bunker's Hill (as it became known) severely dented the image of the British army, and provided a great morale boost to the rebels. The British suffered more than 1000 casualties, compared to the total American losses of 140 dead and 270 wounded.

Civil War in the South

Fighting then broke out between revolutionaries and loyalists in Virginia: in June 1775, the governor of Virginia, Lord John Dunmore, took refuge on a British warship in Chesapeake Bay and from there organized two military forces: one of Whites, the Queen's Own Loyal Virginians, and one of Blacks, the Ethiopian Regiment.

In November, Dunmore issued a controversial proclamation offering freedom to slaves and indentured servants who joined the loyalist cause. In North Carolina, Governor Josiah Martin, tried to maintain his authority by raising a force of about 1500 Loyalist migrants. However, in February 1776, the Patriot militia defeated Martin's army in the Battle of Moore's Creek Bridge, capturing 800 loyalists. In Charleston, South Carolina, in June 1776, revolutionary forces comprised of ordinary citizens repelled an assault by about 3000 loyalists and British troops.

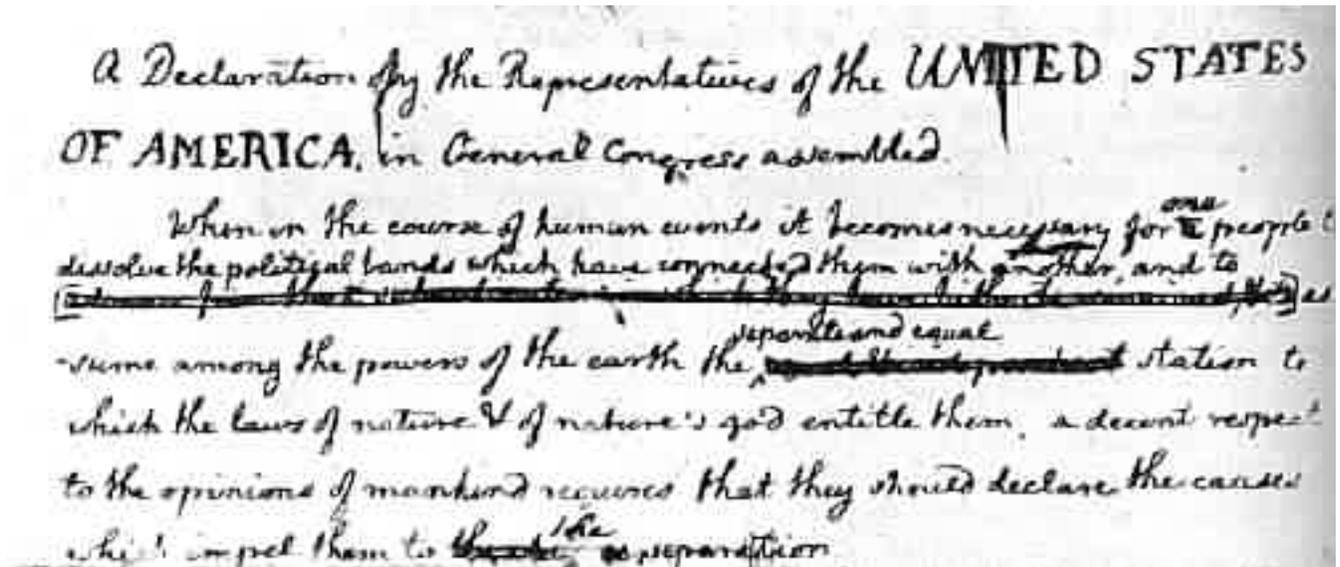
The Green Mountain Boys and the American Invasion of Canada

A fort in North Eastern New York state, Fort Ticonderoga (which had been captured by the British from the French in 1759) fell in May 1775 to a rough and ready militia group from Vermont called the Green Mountain Boys - a group of dubious moral origin who had originally been set up to harass and rob British New York state officials and settlers. The capture of this fort - along with its valuable cannon - was a real military breakthrough, and the leader of the Green Mountain Boys, Ethan Allen, went on to become an American revolutionary hero.

The Americans pushed northwards: the British garrison at Crown Point on Lake Champlain surrendered and in September, an American army captured Saint Johns and then went on to Montreal, which was captured without any serious resistance. By November 1775, another American force - consisting of only just over 600 men - had advanced as far as Quebec, where it joined up with two other American armies and launched an attack on the well fortified British held city. They failed to capture the city, instead putting it under siege until April 1776, when a British relief convoy raised the siege and recaptured Montreal from the disease-ridden and poorly supplied American force.

Declaration of Independence

This setback did not discourage the rebels: on 2 July 1776, the Second Continental Congress declared independence, and on 4 July adopted a formal declaration of Independence from Britain.



A Declaration by the Representatives of the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, in General Congress assembled.

When in the course of human events it becomes necessary for ^{one} people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to ~~take the same step for that which they have taken with us~~ assume among the powers of the earth the ^{separate and equal} station to which the laws of nature & of nature's god entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to ~~the~~ ^{the} separation.

The first draft: Thomas Jefferson's first write of the Declaration of Independence, in his own handwriting.

New York City Invaded

In July 1776, a British army of more than 30,000 men landed on Staten Island near New York City and by the end of August launched an attack on the 10,000 American troops entrenched on Brooklyn Heights. The Americans, faced for the first time by a professional and experienced army of this size, were beaten: the fleeing revolutionaries were given hidings on their way out in pitched battles at

Harlem Heights and at White Plains in October 1776.

George Washington, who was personally leading the Continental Army, was outnumbered, outgunned and inexperienced: his failure to evacuate the emplacement known as Fort Mifflin on the northern end of Manhattan Island, saw 3000 of his men being captured by the British. This persuaded Washington to leave the British to the area and retreat south.

The rebels then won battles at Princeton and Trenton in December 1776, where, to forestall a British attack on Philadelphia, Washington crossed the Delaware River with a sizable force at night and surprised the British supporting German mercenary force of 1,500 Hessians. The surprise was so absolute that the battle was over in 45 minutes, rallying Washington's army and the rebel cause after the defeat of the Canadian invasion and the occupation of New York by the British. The British however continued to use their military superiority to push onwards: in December they captured the important port of Newport, Rhode Island.

The British Capture Philadelphia

The British then advanced on Philadelphia with about 20,000 men. Although the American Congress fled the city, Washington himself had no choice but to meet the British in battle again with his badly outnumbered army. The result was predictable: winning two outflanking battles, at the Battle of the Clouds in September, and at the Battle of Germantown in October 1776, the British easily seized the city, forcing Washington to retreat once again.

The British Strike South

In July 1777, a British army of 9000 men advanced south from Montreal and retook Fort Mifflin, and began to move south toward Albany. Simultaneously, a mixed force of about 2000 British regulars and Amerinds marched south along the Saint Lawrence to Lake Ontario with the aim of linking up with the British army which had just retaken Fort Mifflin.

They were however defeated in their attempts to break an American garrison in their path at Fort Mifflin: a large number of Amerinds then deserted and the remainder of the British force had to retreat to Montreal, their objective unachieved. Then a small American militia from New England achieved a stunning victory which was to mark the first of a number of successes for the revolutionaries: a British relief and supply column, on its way to Fort Mifflin was smashed in August 1777, at the Battle of Red Bank.

Saratoga

By mid September, the British army in the north had pushed to outside Saratoga but were prevented from proceeding south by American troops at Bemis Heights. The British army, now reduced to around 5000 men, withdrew to Saratoga, where it was besieged by an ever increasing American force of 17,000 men. In October, the British army surrendered at Saratoga: the first major military defeat for the British.

French Intervention

The most important effect of the victory at Saratoga was the intervention of France: still seeking revenge for their defeat in North America at the hands of the British in 1763, France formally allied itself to the rebels although it had been secretly aiding them since the war began.

In 1776, a fictitious company was set up in Paris under the direction of the author Pierre Augustin Caron de Beaumarchais, to funnel military supplies to the American colonists, with the purchase of these supplies being paid for by a secret loan from the French and Spanish governments.

The victory at Saratoga however now prompted bolder action, and in February 1778, the Continental Congress entered into a formal alliance with France. The French agreed to give up their claim to Canada and regions East of the Mississippi River and promised to fight until American independence had been achieved. In return, the United States opened up their trade to French merchants and agreed to support French territorial gains in the West Indies. Because of this treaty, war soon broke out between France and Britain.

Valley Forge

Despite this turn of events, Washington was barely able to hold his exhausted army together through the severe winter at the encampment of Valley Forge. There, the army of 11,000 men holed up from December 1777 to June 1778, being devastated by a harsh winter and lack of supplies.

Here 2500 soldiers died from exposure or disease in the winter encampment, while desertions cut his army down to its all time low of about 6000: Washington feared a full scale mutiny and desertion which would mean the end of the rebellion. However, a Prussian volunteer, Baron von Steuben, took command of the camp and restored discipline, remolding the American army through efficient drilling and organizational techniques.

The British Attack the South

After the defeat at Saratoga, the British then decided to secure their forces in two seaports in the north: New York City and Newport, Rhode Island. The army in Philadelphia was duly evacuated overland to New York, on the way fighting an inconclusive battle with Washington's forces at Monmouth in New Jersey in June 1778.

With their forces in the north secure, the British then concentrated on attacking the south. In December 1778, a British army of 3500 captured Savannah, Georgia, and took Augusta in the same state in January 1779. By the end of that year, most of Georgia had been captured by the British forces: in May 1780, British forces, aided by local loyalists, took Charlestown, the major port city of the next state, South Carolina. With a further victory at Camden in August 1780, the British then controlled most of South Carolina as well.

England Raided

The military victories aside, the British however suffered from an outrageously long supply line - across the Atlantic ocean - and this logistical nightmare was complicated by attacks from the small American navy which took on two forms: attacks by gunships and attacks by private ships. On two

occasions a small American naval force captured the port of Nassau in the Bahamas.

The most famous American naval officer of the war was the Scottish born John Paul Jones, who started off serving in the British Navy, but deserted to the Americans after killing one of his crew in 1773. In America, he joined the fledgling American navy, taking command of a number of raider ships with which he twice carried the war into British waters: in 1778, he actually raided England itself, attacking the port of Whitehaven; he also won renown for capturing a British sloop, the Drake, off the British coast.

The Privateers

The Americans did not possess a navy the size of Britain's: the American government then gave commissions to about 450 private American ships, with instructions to attack any English ship they came across: these privateers, as they became known, eventually captured or destroyed nearly 2000 British merchant ships.

Guerrilla War

American resistance in the south slowly picked up: bands of guerrillas attacked the British supply lines continuously - eventually the safety of the transport convoys became so tenuous that the British retreated into the large port towns of Savannah and Charlestown rather than sit as isolated targets in the interior.

A series of important American victories then followed; at Kings Mountain in October 1780; at Cowpens in South Carolina in January 1781; and at Guilford Courthouse in North Carolina in March 1781. The British started moving the main body of their army north to Virginia. The remaining British troops in South Carolina fought several successful rearguard actions against the Americans, but could not deliver a single decisive defeat as the American guerrillas melted away into the countryside each time a serious defeat seemed imminent.

British Defeat at Yorktown

In July 1780, a French army of 5000 men invaded Newport and ejected the British: the presence of this French army gave Washington enough military strength to attack the British army which had been moving north through Virginia, and which was now holed up in Yorktown. A French fleet then blockaded the port, preventing the British from either being evacuated or supplied: on land Washington drew up his forces and laid siege to the British force.

So it was that by September 1781, the 7000 strong British force in Yorktown was faced down by a combined land force of French and American troops of over 16,000. With no hope of resupply, the end was inevitable: the British surrendered on 19 October 1781.

Britain had been dragged into a war of her own making which she could ultimately not win: faced with an enemy spread out over a vast territory, there was no center which the British could take which would destroy the rebellion. It was therefore never possible to deliver any single knockout blow. Stripped of allies, simultaneously fighting in the West Indies, America, the North Atlantic, Africa and

India, against a range of some times co-ordinated enemies who included France and its allies - Spain and the Netherlands - Britain was over stretched and was forced to concede defeat after the reverse at Yorktown.

Treaty of Paris

All sides signed the Treaty of Paris in 1783, which granted official independence to the thirteen colonies on the east coast of America: the United States of America had been born after a seven year long war.

Constitution

Having won independence from Britain, the next problem facing the Americans was to devise a constitution which would bind the thirteen ex colonies into a cohesive political whole. This would prove to be no easy task, as the very nature of the colonies as they had developed since their founding had been based on individualism and their own forms of government.

During the War of Independence, the states had been governed by an unelected congress, which had taken certain powers to itself, such as raising an army, borrowing money from foreign governments and entering into alliances against Britain. These powers codified shortly after independence, in an agreement known as the Articles of Confederation, which were in turn ratified by each state in turn.

The states generally opposed the idea of a central government, and wanted to withhold from any union the right of a central government to interfere with certain state's rights, as they became known. Initially this was agreed, but when some states started adjusting their currency levels and taxation levels to the detriment of other states and to some of their own citizens (which led to a short lived second rebellion being led by an American army veteran, Captain Daniel Shays in Massachusetts - this was put down in short order).

The Shays rebellion however convinced many that there could be no national security or stability without a central government. So it was that a meeting of specially appointed delegates from the colonies met in Philadelphia from May to September 1787, and drew up the constitution of the United States of America.

The Constitution became the law of the land in 1788, and on 30 April of that year, George Washington, who had been unanimously elected the first president of the United States, was inaugurated in New York City, the then capital. The United States of America had been born.



George Washington, first president of the United States of America.

War of 1812

The American Revolution was however not to be the last conflict with Britain: a new war broke out within 25 years. By 1812, tensions with Britain had still not died down: a series of boycotts of British goods followed the Royal Navy harassing American merchant ships on the pretext of searching for naval deserters - but were obviously designed to prevent America joining the European war on the Frenchman Napoleon's side.

What however finally provoked the US Congress into acting was proof that the British, who still held on to Canada and claimed then still largely unexplored territories on the Western seaboard, had given active aid to an Amerind tribe, the Shawnee, in an effort to resist American territorial expansion to the west. In June 1812, the US congress declared war on Britain and American forces invaded British North America - Canada - at points between Detroit and Montreal, but the plan went awry almost immediately.

Detroit Captured

The British, acting in partnership with their Amerind tribe allies, the Shawnee, launched a counter attack and captured Detroit, while on the Niagara peninsula two American armies were defeated, all in the opening months of the conflict. In 1813, American forces managed to retake Detroit after the British fleet on Lake Erie had been seized.

Finally the Americans were able to exact some victories: York (now called Toronto) was captured and a combined British and Shawnee army was defeated at the battle of the Thames in October 1813.

Creek Amerinds Attack

In 1813, the war spread to the southwest when the Creek Amerind tribe seized the opportunity to

attack the White states: an American army under Andrew Jackson however inflicted a crushing defeat on the Creeks at the battle of Horseshoe Bend in March 1814, effectively taking them out of the war.

Washington DC Burned

In July 1814, American forces fought British armies to a standstill at Chippewa and Lundy's Lane, near Niagara. Napoleon's defeat in Europe, however, freed Britain to send more troops to North America and soon the Americans faced renewed British land and sea invasions at Lake Champlain and in Chesapeake Bay. British troops then pushed south and occupied Washington DC, burning it to the ground in August 1814, just failing to do the same to the city of Baltimore in Maryland.

It was during the British bombardment of Baltimore that the American poet, Francis Scott Key, wrote "The Star-Spangled Banner" which later became the American national anthem. A renewed American offensive relieved Maryland and retook the ruins of Washington, and then both sides opened negotiations to end the war.

Sneak Attack

A treaty ending the war and restoring the border of America and British North America to what they were before the war started, was signed at Ghent, in Belgium on 24 December 1814. This treaty was signed by Britain on 28 December 1814: but then a British army launched a sneak invasion at the mouth of the Mississippi River on 8 January 1815.

The American general, Andrew Jackson, rushed south with an army and defeated the British near New Orleans. A period of diplomatic embarrassment then followed for Britain: finally the American government ratified the peace treaty on 16 February 1815, and the war came to an official end.

Racial Consequences of the American Wars with Britain

For the White population, the war of independence was psychologically testing: of the approximately 400,000 adult white men who lived in the colonies in 1775, about 175,000 fought in the war, either a rebels or loyalists. Thus, husbands or sons from nearly half of all white families were part of the "shooting" war.

The American revolution also carried with it clear racial undertones, not only in terms of the Amerinds. The open call by the British to Black slaves to rebel against the White Americans, and the raising and arming of all-Black armies for this purpose, served to alienate Blacks from the new republic: many thousands crossed into British North America with loyalist supporters to escape the slave owning Americans whose republic they feared and distrusted.

Black Slaves

The population growth in the American colonies was staggering: in 1700, there were around 250,000 people in the 13 colonies: by 1775 there were 2,5 million, a ten fold increase - of whom 567,000 - or 20 per cent - were Black slaves.

About 250,000 Blacks had been brought into North America before 1775, but the total Black population numbered 567,000 on the eve of independence. Whatever else slavery may have done to the Blacks, it certainly did not kill them, as this population growth was virtually exclusively the result of natural reproduction.

The contrast with the situation in Portugal immediately springs to mind: in that European country only about ten percent of the population was Black, yet in America at its very founding, the figure was already 20 percent: why did Portugal vanish as a world power and America then go on to become a great world power?

The answer lies in the level of integration: in Portugal there was absolutely no segregation and mixed race unions were positively encouraged: in America, not only did the huge degree of racial alienation, as outlined above, exist, but as a result integration was actively discouraged and in many states, made punishable with prison sentences (many of these anti -miscegenation laws were only repealed in the 1960s).

Thus although America always had a larger Black population, it never absorbed this population into its mainstream society, as the Portuguese did: and the difference is marked, once again proving the reality that the nature of a society is determined by the nature, or make-up, of the people dominating that society.

Amerinds

The most important consequence of the 1812 war was the breaking of the Shawnee and Creek Amerinds: from then on they were unable to resist the further White American advances across the American continent. This would have major repercussions in the next phase of American history which would see that country more than triple its geographic size and extend all the way to the Pacific coastline, swallowing up what were previously the exclusive ranges of the nomadic Amerind people.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Fifty

The Seventh Great Race War: The Amerinds

The settlement of North America by the White race in a wave of immigration was achieved only the expense of the Nonwhite people already living on the continent: the Amerinds, or "Red Indians." The settlement of North America by the Whites is an outstanding example of the principle which has underlain every single rise and fall of every civilization: before the Whites arrived, North American culture was Amerind: after the Whites arrived and replaced the Amerinds as the majority population, White culture replaced the original civilization, virtually overnight.

The eternal truth of this simple and obvious principle was dramatically proven in the seventh great race war in which the Whites found themselves embroiled: a struggle which ultimately saw the United States of America extend its borders to the Pacific Ocean.

Amerinds of Mongoloid Stock

The invasion of North America by the Whites, in a manner so markedly similar to those of the Indo-European invasions of Europe and other parts of the world thousands of years before, caused natural dissent from those indigenous inhabitants in the new territories.

Unlike the ancient Indo-Europeans, however, the indigenous peoples of America were not of distantly related genetic stock, as were the Old Europeans: they were of Mongoloid racial stock, only called "Indians" because the first White explorers were looking for India; and only called "red" because of their habit of wearing red clay as face paint.

First Contact With the Amerinds

The first meetings of Whites in North America and Amerinds was mixed: generally the Amerinds were in awe of the technological wonders the Whites brought with them - starting with the ships themselves, which, with their billowing sails appeared like great spirits on the horizon: more than one instance is recorded of Amerinds fleeing in panic at the very sight of a White explorer ship. If they were in awe of the ships themselves, it needs no imagination to perceive what they must have thought of the other wonders from the world: clothes, steel, guns, mirrors, jewelry, copper, brass kettles and thousands of other things completely unknown to the native peoples of North America.

Later the Whites were to introduce yet another wonder to North America which was seized upon and used to great effect by the Amerinds: horses. The first horses were introduced to the continent by the Spanish: somehow a number escaped and by natural breeding formed large packs of wild horses which roamed the plains of America for nearly two centuries.

Finally, the new arrivals were not only light complexioned, but many of them also had beards and they all grew facial hair: this in itself was a subject of wonder by the Amerinds, who in their pure racial form did not grow facial hair at all, like their Mongolian cousins across the Bering straits in Asia.

New World Products

In turn, the Amerinds presented the White world with tobacco, cocoa and venereal disease - the rapid transmission of the latter disease back to Europe from South America serves as a graphic illustration of the levels of physical integration which took place on that continent, starting shortly after the Spanish and Portuguese first landed there.

However, the two traits for which the Amerinds became known - and for which they also became particularly disliked - were:

- the practice common amongst all the tribes of North America of cutting off the scalps of their vanquished foes to take as trophies for display in the tribal village. The appearance of White scalps - with blond, red, brown, or dark brown hair - were particularly prized, being outstanding compared to the pitch black haired scalps the Amerinds were more normally used to taking from each other; and
- in common with their racial cousins in Central and South America, ritualistic cannibalism was common. The full extent of these practices was noted by many early writers, with the most complete and detailed account of Amerind cannibalism and the habit of torturing White prisoners of both sexes appearing in the print in 1892 in *The Works of Francis Parkman*, published by Little Brown, Boston (Vol. III.)

The term cannibalism is derived from *Canibales*, the Spanish name for the man-eating Caribbean Amerinds who lived in the West Indies when Christopher Columbus arrived. The habit had clearly come across the Bering Straits when the Mongolian ancestors of the Amerinds had crossed into the Americas: in medieval times the Italian traveler Marco Polo reported that tribes from Tibet to Sumatra practiced cannibalism.

For the sake of political correctness, these disturbing traits are for the greatest part suppressed in modern histories of the Amerinds: but at the time they were well known and feared by the White settlers; going a long way to explaining the extended period of conflict between the Whites and the Amerinds, and the particularly ruthless methods of dealing with each other if captured.

Eventually the more extreme White frontiersmen started retaliating against the practice of scalping by exacting the same punishment on the Amerinds - but there are no recorded incidents of Whites ever quite getting around to duplicating the cannibalistic habit of eating dead Amerinds, even though there are many recorded incidents of the reverse occurring.

Attacks

The initial friendly contact soon however gave way when the Amerinds realized that the Whites were thereafter arriving as settlers: from the time of the very first White settlements, even going back to the Viking landings in Newfoundland, the White pioneers were subjected to attacks by resentful Amerind tribes; realizing that the Whites represented a serious threat to their way of life, society and civilization, they tried their best to drive the settlers back into the sea. Against the superior White technology, however, the Amerinds really stood little chance.

The Lost Colony

In fact the very first English settlement in North America, a 117 strong group of White pioneers, situated on an island off the coast of North Carolina, was probably wiped out by an Amerind attack. Called the "lost colony", they were destroyed at some time between 1587 and 1590. Their remains were never found, which would have been the case had they starved to death or met some other natural end.

Virginia

In Virginia, the first successful large scale English colony, which was established in 1607, was subjected to repeated attacks by the Powhatan tribe which culminated in 1622, when 350 Whites were killed by the Amerinds in a single attack: as there were only just over 1000 Whites in the colony at the time, this reduced the entire White population by one third.

In April 1644, another attack by the Powhatan killed 500 more Whites: this very nearly destroyed the colony utterly. Incensed, the surviving Whites set out to exact retribution: a short vicious campaign followed which saw the Amerind tribes wilt and retreat inland.

Bacon's Rebellion

Bacon's rebellion was an uprising in Virginia led by a White farmer, Nathaniel Bacon, against the governor of Virginia, Sir William Berkeley, in 1676. Bacon and a number of fellow White farmers came under renewed Amerind attack: when Berkeley refused to station troops in the outlying areas to protect the Whites, Bacon organized a militia and led this substantial private army against the Amerinds, inflicting some severe defeats upon them.

Berkeley proclaimed Bacon a traitor because of the private army he had illegally raised. Bacon then marched on the capital, Jamestown, with his militia in tow and seized control of the colonial government. Berkeley gathered together a force of loyal colonists and started a mini-civil war in the colony: it ended the same year it started, 1676, with Bacon's death.

New England

The creation of the colony of New England was also met with violent resistance: in 1675 the Amerind leader Metacom led a guerrilla war against the Whites until he was betrayed by one of his own people and executed: in the interim he had exacted a heavy toll in White settlers' lives.

New Netherlands

The first Dutch settlement in North America, in the area now known as New York and Manhattan Island, was, according to the popular story, purchased from Amerinds for \$24 worth of goods in 1626. Despite whatever transaction may have taken place - and the lack of understanding of the concept of private ownership of land by the Amerinds probably made whatever agreement which was made, meaningless to the natives - Amerind attacks on the Whites in the area fast became the norm and never fully subsided until the continuing build up of White settlers saw the surviving Amerinds drift into

the interior.

The Thirteen Colonies

As the numbers of Whites increased exponentially on the eastern seaboard of America, so the Amerinds settled in ever greater numbers in the middle of the continent: sometimes moving there as part of a natural migration, other times fleeing bands of avenging White militia. A particularly nasty White/Amerind conflict (sparked off by the Ottawa tribe, whose chief's name was Pontiac - later he would have the dubious distinction of having an automobile named after him) caused the British authorities in the colonies to issue a Proclamation of 1763, which restricted White settlement to the area East of the Appalachian Mountains. This was done in an attempt to prevent new race wars from breaking out.

By the time the 13 colonies - which made up less than one third of the territory that the United States of America was eventually to encompass - had declared independence from Britain, the vast majority of Amerinds were on the western side of the Appalachian mountains, away from the White settlers and their colonies.

The Creation of the United States and the Amerinds

When the American War of Independence broke out in 1776, the vast majority of the Iroquois Amerinds actively sided with the British, while in the south the Cherokee, Choctaw, and Creek Amerinds also seized the opportunity to launch a series of attacks on the White colonists, becoming formally allied to the British shortly thereafter.

The American revolutionaries then had to put down all these Amerind uprisings and fight the British at the same time, something which for a while seriously divided the American's fighting forces, although they were ultimately successful in this aim.

When independence was finally won from the British, the participation of the Amerinds in the anti-revolutionary campaign served to confirm the opinion of the new White nation that the Amerinds were irreparably hostile.

Thus it was that the American constitution, accepted by the 13 former colonies shortly after independence had been won, included the regulation of relations with the Amerinds under the clause of that constitution which dealt with the regulation of relations with foreign states: Article I, Section 8 of the constitution read:

"The Congress shall have Power . . . To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes."

George Washington and the other original founding fathers of the United States therefore had not the slightest intention of ever including the Amerinds into their republic, classing them as outside aliens along with other "foreign nations".

The Battle of Fallen Timbers

After the end of the American revolution, White numbers in America continued to grow: soon the desire for new farming saw White settlers start to fan out westward, moving into the Ohio Valley, Kentucky, and Tennessee.

In all of these regions lived large numbers of Amerind tribes, many of whom had been there before the Whites had first started settling in North America. Once again the scenario which had played itself out along the East Coast occurred: small White settlements being attacked by the Amerinds; then as the number of Whites increased, the ability to ward off and finally beat the Amerinds grew.

This time however - and this would set the pattern right until the last great Amerind-White race war in the late 19th century - the Amerinds had absorbed some of the White innovations: in particular the gun and the horse, both of which the Amerinds had obtained either from traders or from raids on White settlers.

Armed and mobile, the Amerinds of Ohio, Kentucky and Tennessee proved harder to beat: a White army dispatched to deal with the situation was badly defeated by the Amerinds near what is now Fort Wayne in Indiana.

Finally, at the Battle of Fallen Timbers in 1794 in northwestern Ohio, a White American punitive force, sent to avenge a particularly nasty series of Amerind attacks, decisively defeated the natives. A treaty between the races, the Treaty of Greenville, established a definite boundary between what was designated "Indian Territory" and White settlement.

The Trade and Intercourse Acts

Despite the prevailing view amongst all White Americans of the Amerinds as being a particularly savage peoples, there was a desire to ensure that their lack of sophistication was not exploited by unscrupulous White traders or frontiersmen, of whom there were a small minority. So it was that the Trade and intercourse Acts, a series of laws passed by the US Congress at the end of the 18th century, attempted to regulate trading practices with the Amerinds. Amongst the measures were provisions allowing for the punishment of traders found to be defrauding the Amerinds.

Manifest Destiny

The White frontiersmen in the Ohio River valley relived the terror and anxiety of the first White settlers on the eastern seaboard: subjected to intermittent and unexpected attacks, they were forced to be constantly on their guard and soon became used to the rugged demands of life spent part at war and part at creating, from scratch, entire towns and farms.

This state of affairs helped to create what later became known as the "manifest destiny" syndrome: the frontiersmen began to regard it as almost their sacred duty to wrest new land away from the Amerinds and open it to White settlement: they saw the Amerinds as a savage race under whom the rich continent had lain idle for thousands of years. It was up to the frontiersmen to settle it and to break the soil.

This belief in ordained destiny to bring civilization to the interior of the continent was fed by the cruelty

of the ongoing conflicts with the Amerinds: daily the frontiersmen had to deal with unspeakable Nonwhite brutalities which re-enforced their belief in their own cultural superiority.

This attitude was however opposed by a small but growing group of Whites on the now established and relatively easy living eastern seaboard who were not exposed to the dangers, violence and rigors of life at the frontier: this was the start of a split in the White population in America which would ultimately become associated with the issue of slavery and racial conflict, ending only in the American Civil war of 1864.

The War of 1812

During the American-British War of 1812, the Shawnee Amerinds sided with Britain, partly as a result of having suffered a defeat at the hands of an American force at the 1811 Battle of Tippecanoe in Indiana. The Shawnee had long been receiving British aid from British North America, or Canada, and this alliance was one of the causes of the outbreak of the war between America and Britain. The Shawnee chief, Tecumseh was however killed when the American revolutionaries defeated a combined British and Shawnee force at the Battle of the Thames in October 1813.

Whites Eaten by Amerinds at Fort Mims

In Alabama, the Creek Amerinds seized Fort Mims in 1812, cruelly massacring all the White inhabitants - men, women and children - and then engaging in a cannibalistic orgy on the remains of all the Whites they could find in the settlement.

Shocked, an avenging White army under Andrew Jackson was sent South: after two years of conflict the Creek were finally decisively defeated at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend in March 1814. Andrew Jackson then went on to be elected president of the United States in 1828: his first hand experiences with the Amerinds made him turn a deaf ear to the liberals of the Eastern Seaboard and it was largely as a result of his maneuverings that the next great event in White-Amerind history was to take place in 1830.

The Removal Act

By 1830, the numbers of Whites in the region between the Mississippi River and the Appalachian mountains - essentially the present day Mid-Eastern states of America - had reached the point where it was no longer possible to efficiently regulate the very often violent interaction between the Whites and the Amerinds. In May of that year, the US Congress passed the Indian Removal Act, which empowered the president of the United States to move Amerinds west of the Mississippi, to the officially declared "Indian Territory" - the Mid-West of America, and in particular the state now known as Oklahoma.

To the White liberals on the Eastern Seaboard, the Removal Act was an outrage perpetuated by the same people who owned Black slaves, and they opposed it as best they could. The Removal Act would become another factor in the political divide amongst the Whites in America.

Resistance Flares Up

The original intention as stated in the Removal Act was that the removals were to be voluntary: while the vast majority were indeed peaceful (the Amerinds were as keen to get away from the Whites as the Whites were to get rid of the Amerinds), a small number were not: these forced removals later became an icon of oppression for the Amerinds.

The Sauk and Fox tribes rebelled in 1832, sparking off the Black Hawk War in Illinois and Wisconsin. This conflict ended in August of that year when the last major group of Sauk warriors were killed by White troopers while they were trying to cross the Mississippi River into Iowa. The circumstances of this battle - in which the Amerinds were caught halfway through the river - resulted in so many fatalities on the Amerind side that it became known as the Bad Axe Massacre.

The Seminole tribe in Florida also resisted violently: the Seminole War followed from 1835 to 1842 which eventually saw this native tribe defeated and rounded up into a reservation against their will. By the mid 1850s, virtually all of the eastern half of America had been cleared of Amerinds, either through voluntary departure or forced removal, a striking example of the "might is right" principle at work.

Reservations

By the middle of the 19th century, the rate of White expansion and settlement into the Mid-West and even beyond to the Pacific coast had made the concept of "Indian territory" unsustainable. In an effort to reach a compromise between the demands of the White settlers and the objections of the Amerinds, the concept of "Indian territories" was then changed into "Indian Reservations".

These reservations were smaller in territorial size than the "Indian territories" but as an exchange for accepting the smaller lands, the American government gave the iron clad guarantee that the reservations were exactly that: no Whites would ever be able to settle or own land in them and they would be the inalienable property of the various tribes, whose numbers by this stage had dropped from an estimated 850,000 in 1550, to just under 400,000 by the mid 19th century.

As there were only 400,000 Amerinds in the entire North American continent around 1850, the belief that reservations would protect the Amerinds, was not far fetched at all, and in real terms the land so set aside for the Amerinds was significant, given the numbers that were under consideration.

Gold Rush

The discovery of gold in the Western territories in 1849, created a wave of new White settlers in that region: this in turn sparked off attacks by the Amerind tribes who had by now seen what had happened in the east. In Idaho and Oregon, conflicts between White settlers and the Bannock and Shoshone broke out; the same happened in Nevada and Utah, where the Ute fought the White settlers, while in the southwest, the Apache and Navajo put up the most organized resistance.

In northern California, the White settlers were set upon by a particularly vicious Amerind tribe, the Modocs. After a series of attacks, the Modocs finally overstepped the mark with a particularly bad massacre of Whites in 1872: enraged, the White settlers formed a militia and the Modoc Wars of 1872-1873 followed, which saw the Amerinds in California utterly defeated.

The Plains Wars

The creation of reservations was part accepted and part rejected by the Amerind tribes. Some immediately accepted the offer of guaranteed protection against further White excursions and either settled in the reservations, or found their already existing lands included into the reservations. However some of the larger tribes objected and the White-Amerind race war, which had continued in fits and starts ever since the first Whites arrived in North America - then entered its conclusive phase in a series of conflicts known as the Plains Wars.

The Arapaho, Cheyenne and Sioux all fought the White settlers as hard as they could: there were countless small localized engagements which saw hundreds, if not eventually thousands, of Amerinds killed, with ferocious fighting taking place over a massive area right through the 1860s and 1870s. The most famous of these engagements - and also the penultimate great clash, was the Battle of Little Bighorn.

Battle of Little Bighorn

The Battle of Little Bighorn was fought between a regiment of the US 7th Cavalry led by Lieutenant Colonel George Armstrong Custer and a force of Sioux and Cheyenne Amerinds on 25 June 1876, in what is now the state of Montana. Gold had been discovered in the nearby Black Hills in 1874: this had led to the inevitable massive and overnight influx of White prospectors into what was Amerind land: immediately the Sioux and Cheyenne chiefs, Sitting Bull, Crazy Horse, and Gall, organized raiding parties on the White intruders.

By 1876, the US 7th Cavalry had been posted to protect the White prospectors: in June of that year, a single regiment - 655 men - of the 7th cavalry advanced on party of in excess of 4000 Sioux at the junction of two rivers, the Bighorn and the Little Bighorn rivers.

The White soldiers were, it transpired later, unaware of the actual size of the heavily armed Sioux force. Custer realized his error too late: in a desperate attempt to break the Sioux force, he personally led a frontal charge of 260 of his men into the waiting Amerinds: the charge failed and Custer and his tiny force were surrounded. Fighting standing literally back to back with each other, Custer and his White soldiers were slowly cut down one by one and all were killed.

Although this battle was a White defeat, it would be the last. Within a year, follow up operations by the White armies had crushed the last of the Sioux and Cheyenne resistance, most of the Amerind survivors were then moved to a reservation in Oklahoma. Isolated clashes then took place in the late 1870s, but by 1880 the conflict had all but petered out, only flaring up again briefly in 1890.

The Battle of Wounded Knee

The Plains Wars came to a final bloody end at the Battle of Wounded Knee in December 1890. Situated inside one of the reservations, the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation, the area was populated by the Sioux Amerinds. In 1889, a Sioux Medicine Man, Wovoka, began prophesying amongst his fellow tribesmen that if they performed a tribal dance - the Ritual Ghost Dance - long enough, this would result in the return of all of their former lands, the resurrection from the dead of all their

ancestors and the death of all the Whites.

The prophecies spread like wildfire amongst the Sioux, who then not only started performing the ritual dance in large numbers, but also began stockpiling guns and ammunition ready for a rebellion when called upon to rise up by the dead ancestors.

The White government soon became aware of the goings on, and in December 1890, a detachment of the US 7th Cavalry arrived in the Pine Ridge Reservation and arrested the Sioux Chief, Sitting Bull (the same one who had been instrumental in the clashes which led to the Battle of Little Bighorn), in a move designed to break the rebellion before it started. As he was being led away, a lone Amerind fired a shot at the White troopers: a full scale gunfight then erupted and 13 people were killed, including Chief Sitting Bull.

The Sioux then fled to the camp of a neighboring chief, Big Foot, who was settled near Wounded Knee Creek, with the 7th cavalry hot in pursuit. On 29 December 1890, the White troops entered the Sioux camp at Wounded Knee. A scuffle broke out and then a new gunfight erupted: it has never been established who fired the first shot, with both Sioux and the Whites claiming it was the other.

The end result was however that when the shooting stopped, around 200 Sioux and 31 Whites had been killed. About half of the Sioux dead were women and children caught in the crossfire as the gunfight had taken place in the middle of a settlement.

This engagement which was half a military operation and half a massacre, was the last of the major White-Amerind conflicts in North America, although Wounded Knee would feature once again in 1973 in another smaller standoff between the American government and the Sioux.

Racial Consequences of the Amerind Wars

Apart from the seizure of their land, which was brought about not primarily through military defeat but the simple swamping of that territory by Whites (yet another example of how a change in population causes a change in culture), the Amerind-White wars produced two significant results:

- Firstly, the Amerinds were virtually eliminated as a political, racial and socio-demographic factor; this situation allowed for the final flooding of North America by Whites, with all its resultant consequences for world history with the creation of the United States of America;
- Secondly, the subjugation of the Amerinds by masses of Whites led to a certain amount of racial mixing between the two groups taking place: but, it being America with its officially endorsed disapproval of racial mixing (which lasted in legal form right into the middle of the 20th century, with anti-miscegenation laws still being on the statute books as late as 1967 in many states) those mixed race persons born of White-Amerind unions - or indeed of Black-Amerind unions, were re-absorbed back into the Amerind population. This is the reason why many Amerinds may look fairer or darker than Mongolian peoples or may have markedly non-Mongolian facial features: true blood Amerinds are fairly rare, and most Amerinds have either some direct or indirect White or Black ancestry.

The Allotment Act

By the end of the 19th century, the successive wars, rampant alcoholism and natural shrinkage had seen the Amerind population of America drop to an all time low of 237,000, virtually to the point of complete extinction. As this number was split up into well over 100 tribes all speaking different languages, the realization dawned that if something was not done, they would disappear completely.

In 1871 then, the US Congress decided to abandon the system of treaties with the Amerind tribes and start making laws directly for their preservation - the notion of the Amerinds as being foreign nations was substituted for a policy of wardship, although they were still not granted citizenship of the United States of America.

A new law, the General Allotment Act of 1887, saw a determined effort by the American government to bring the Amerinds into the mainstream of White society: the concept of communally owned tribal lands was abolished, being replaced with individual plots and individual land ownership as was the norm in the rest of the country.

This policy, well intentioned as it was - with the belief that private ownership of land would help lift the Amerinds' standard of living as this process had with the Whites - was a total failure. Vast numbers of Amerinds simply sold their land as soon as they were given it: sometimes at pathetically low prices, often to unscrupulous White land speculators. The result of the General Allotment Act was that the Amerinds succeeded only in losing much of their tribal land without showing any benefit in return.

Citizenship

A series of chaotic and contradictory policies towards the Amerinds was then pursued by successive American governments, all of them ultimately failing in their aim of forcing the Amerinds into mainstream society. During the course of these policies, the Amerinds were finally granted American citizenship in 1924 - some 145 years after the United States of America had been created.

The Indian Reorganization Act

Finally it was acknowledged that the Allotment policy was a disaster, and the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934 saw the policy abandoned along with the forced integration policy. Amerind tribal lands lost during the allotment era were repurchased by the American government and the tribes were encouraged to set up their own governments in the restored semi independent regions. A credit program on very generous terms was set up, backed by the government, to lend money to Amerinds to re-establish their societies.

The Termination Period

This policy continued until after the end of the Second World War, when another change in policy occurred: arguments were raised against the preferential treatment in terms of jobs and federal government credit, saying that Amerinds should be treated like any other people in America. Thus by 1953, the Federal government undertook to slowly dismantle all its bodies and institutions devoted to dealing with the Amerinds as a separate racial group.

Despite this, the American government has to the present day maintained an army of civil servants -

in excess of 16,000 - in the Bureau of Indian Affairs, mostly Amerinds who are still hired on a preferential treatment basis.

Modern Amerinds

The Amerind population has, through a process of natural increase and absorption of a significant number of Whites, gradually increased: by the end of the 20th century, it stood as over two million, the highest number ever in that group's entire existence. In spite of the gradual increase in the standard of living and education amongst the Amerinds, they still remain at the very bottom of the social scale in modern America.

This causes isolated outbreaks of violence, including a famous incident at the site of the 1890 Battle of Wounded Knee which took place in 1973. However for the greatest part the Amerinds, who once were the most significant threat to the settlement of North America by the Whites, are destined never to be a major factor in American society again.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Fifty One

The Eighth Great Race War - Mexico

The Amerinds were however not the only overtly racial threat which early White America had to face: to the south lay a large mixed race population made up of Spanish/Amerind/Black descent who had in the interim formalized into the country of Mexico. This large Nonwhite population was openly antagonistic to the White settlers to the north, referring to them derogatively as "gringos".

Both early White America and the mixed race Mexicans were at that stage expanding their territorial claims over the central and western parts of north America: it was inevitable that this would lead to a clash between the two groups: and the eighth great race war in history - the war between White America and Mexico, was joined by the mid 1800s, with disastrous consequences for Mexico.

White Numbers Swell

Between 1776 and 1865, the American confederation virtually tripled in size, growing from 13 to 36 states as continued White immigration continued unabated from Europe: Scandinavians settling in what became middle America, Germans settling in middle and north western America, Italians and Irish congregating on the eastern seaboard; French tending to gather in the north, near the former French outposts of Quebec; Russians, Poles and eastern Europeans also arrived: America became a melting pot of virtually every significant White nation.

Even though these groups represented a cultural and ethnic diversity, they all shared an essentially common gene pool: and thus were able to mix with one another without the overall racial make-up of the White population changing.

Mexican Territory

The territory now making up Texas and parts of California were originally incorporated into Mexico in terms of that country's 1824 constitution, having been formally placed under that country's supervision in exchange for letting the state of Florida fall under American supervision in terms of an agreement dating back to 1819.

However, the Mexican state, constantly racked by civil strife and anarchy so typical of the Hispanic world to this day, was never able to exert completely effective control over its northernmost regions, and by 1825, the vast majority of inhabitants (about 30,000 strong) of the region were White immigrants who had poured in from other parts of the United States. Simultaneously with this White push south, a small but significant number of Nonwhite Mexicans pushed north, establishing their own settlements in the area.

The Republic of Fredonia

In 1825, a group of small group of Whites obtained formal permission from the Mexican government to settle a small area in the northernmost part of that land, known as Nacogdoches (now in eastern Texas). The arrival of the Whites was however vehemently opposed by the Nonwhite Mexicans in the area: after receiving protests from the Mexicans, the Nonwhite government withdrew the permission it had given to the Whites to settle there.

Antagonized, a group of 16 Whites then proclaimed themselves independent in December 1826, establishing what they called the independent Republic of Fredonia. In January 1827 a small force of 60 Mexicans was sent to squash the ridiculously small White rebellion: the 16 Whites however soundly defeated the 60 Mexicans in the only gunfight of the Republic of Fredonia's existence, and the Nonwhites fled south with several dead.

The Mexicans then sent a force several hundred strong to beat the 16 Whites into submission: they never got a chance, as the Whites had packed their bags and left by the time the Mexicans arrived in Nacogdoches. So ended the first White attempt to seize territory in Texas.

The Great Western Trails

The Mexican held territory of California was also the subject of White colonization: in 1841 John Bidwell and John Bartleson led the first group of settlers overland, starting a series of treks which became known as the great western wagon trails: the Santa Fe Trail, the Oregon Trail, and the California Trail.

Over the next five years, thousands of White pioneers, filled with the zeal of manifest destiny, endured deserts, snow, plains, mountain passes and attacks by hostile Amerinds on the trek west, with many being killed or dying of disease on the way.

The Mexicans regarded the Whites with suspicion: suspecting (rightly as, as it turned out) that the White immigration would encourage the United states to annex the territory. The Mexican government was however simply too weak to do anything about the White settlers.

Mexicans Enact Anti-White Laws

Although the Fredonian rebellion was unsuccessful, the reality remained that the majority of inhabitants of Texas (at that time) were Whites. Realizing the potential of further White rebellions, the Nonwhite Mexican government announced a total ban on all further White immigration into the area - an overtly and specifically anti-White racial law.

The Mexican authorities also rejected requests to establish a provincial government in the region. Racial tensions then built up, and in 1836, an overtly White racial rebellion against the local Mexican government representatives took place, with the Whites refusing pay taxes or otherwise acknowledge the Mexican authority. This was tantamount to a declaration of independence: and the Mexicans saw the need to nip it in the bud as quickly as possible.

The Alamo

The Mexican president, Santa Ana marched on the rebel territory with an army 6,000 strong, first engaging the gringos at a fortified mission station known as the Alamo in San Antonio on 23 February 1836.

Inside the fortified mission station were about 150 White volunteers, including the folk hero Davey Crockett, an Indian fighter, frontiersman, former Tennessee legislator and US Congressman, at 50 already a living legend. These 150 men were later joined by a further 33 volunteers, but then the Alamo had already been under siege for three days by Santa Ana's vastly numerically superior army.

After twelve days of siege, the 183 Whites had not suffered a single casualty, while hundreds of the 6000 strong Mexican army had been killed.

Drawing the Line

At the end of the 12th day, the commander of the force, 28 year old William Travis, told his men that their situation was hopeless and that they faced certain death. He said that he was prepared to fight to the death, but that he did not expect any others to do so. He then drew a line in the earth with his sword, saying that anyone who wanted to fight with him could cross the line he had drawn, and any that did not, could try and escape before the fort was overrun by the Mexicans, without losing any honor. It was from this incident that the saying "crossing the line" originated.

All but one of the soldiers crossed the line to join Travis: only a French Jewish adventurer named Moses Rose did not. He subsequently escaped from the Alamo under the cover of darkness and became the only source of information up till the end of the twelfth day.

The Alamo Stormed

Finally on the 13th day, the huge Mexican army finally plucked up enough courage to storm the walls of the Alamo. The battle was short: those Whites not killed in action were bayoneted to death after surrendering.

But the victory was dearly bought: for the 182 White men who died at the Alamo, almost 1,600 Mexicans died during the thirteen day siege. The heroic defense of the Alamo is still celebrated in American folk lore, although the racial implications are deliberately underplayed.

The Massacre of the Whites at Goliad

The fall of the Alamo and the subsequent murder of the survivors shocked the rest of White Texas. Santa Ana then marched on the small White town of Goliad, forcing the town's garrison of 400 men to surrender in March 1836, after a two day battle. Part of the terms of surrender were that the Whites would be released: after keeping them for eight days the Mexicans marched their White prisoners out of the town, telling them they were to be freed and sent to New Orleans.

Suddenly near the San Antonio River the Mexicans turned on the prisoners and starting shooting them. Only 60 of the original 400 managed to escape the massacre.

The news of Santa Ana's war of extermination against all the Whites he could get his hands on, caused shock waves throughout Texas, and large numbers of Whites left the more isolated parts of the state and started congregating in urban centers for protection.

San Jacinto

The White Texans then gathered together their broken army, and with a force of not more than 600 men, attacked Santa Ana's army at San Jacinto in April 1836. With the rallying cry of "Remember the Alamo" (another phrase which passed into American folk lore) the small White army tore into the Mexican force, utterly defeating them in a battle lasting only 20 minutes. Santa Ana himself was taken prisoner in this battle.

The Republic of Texas

The victorious Texans then struck a deal with Santa Ana: he and the remains of his army would be free to return to Mexico if he repudiated the Mexican claim to Texas. Santa Ana agreed and his captured army was set free, returning promptly to Mexico.

The White independent Republic of Texas was created in the same year, 1836. The Lone Star Republic, as it was known, remained independent from 1836 to 1845, when it applied to the US Congress for inclusion into the United States.

A period of debate followed: already the issue of slavery was becoming prominent in the union, and the Republic of Texas was a region which tolerated Black slavery. Their application to join the union was therefore opposed by those northern states where slavery had been abolished, and was supported by those southern states which allowed slavery.

Finally after much internal debate and the twinning of the inclusion another non slave owning state, that of the north western territory of Oregon (claimed by both Britain and the United States), Texas was added to the United States union in 1845, with Oregon being added in terms of an agreement with Britain in 1846.

Standoff at the Rio Grande

The annexation of Texas provoked the second phase of the White American war with Mexico: Santa Ana's successors repudiated the concession he had made regarding Texas, and refused to discuss the inclusion of the state into the United States.

Tensions rose and by March 1846, a Mexican army faced off a White army across the Rio Grande border. The White army, led by General Zachary Taylor (who would later become president of America), crossed into Mexican territory, and encountering no resistance, marched up to the very entrance to the Mexican city of Matamoros.

There the campaign seemed to be on hold: disease and desertions started seriously affecting the size of Taylor's army of 5,400 men: meanwhile the Mexicans were drawing up an army with which to counter the gringo invasion. Finally the Mexicans attacked a small advance party of Whites, killing

several in the process. The spilling of White blood caused the American congress to officially acknowledge the state of war with Mexico on 11 May 1846.

White American Invasion

The White army then went onto the offensive: although by this stage numbering only some 3,000 men, it managed to defeat the numerically superior Mexican army in two important engagements, at Palo Alto and Resaca de Plama, and occupied the city of Matamoros itself. News of the victories spread throughout the United States, and volunteers rushed to join up: finally a powerful army of 14,400 men was raised.

The Bear Flag Republic

In the region now known as California, a similar situation to that of Texas had been developing: the outbreak of the hostilities between Mexico and the American government sparked off a White rebellion against Mexican rule there as well: by the middle of 1846, White rebels under the leadership of Colonel John Fremont had captured a Mexican fort at Sonoma, north of San Francisco, and had proclaimed an independent state called the Bear Flag Republic.

The Bear Flag Republic lasted only one month: on 7 July 1846, a US naval unit landed to the south of San Francisco at the settlement of Monterey, and claimed the entire region of California for the United States. A few days later American forces occupied the settlement of San Francisco, meeting virtually no opposition from the Mexicans and being welcomed by the Whites as liberators.

Battles of Los Angeles

By December 1846, American forces had occupied Los Angeles: although by this time the Mexicans had recovered from the initial shock and had been able to draw up their forces. The Mexicans counter attacked, and in the battle of Los Angeles in December 1846, drove the gringos out of the town once again, virtually annihilating an entire White regiment in the process.

In January 1847, the Whites relaunched an attack on Los Angeles: the third in as many months - and defeated the Mexican force, capturing several hundred Mexican soldiers and ending Mexican control in California. What was to become the largest state in America was wrested away from Nonwhite control by blatant force of arms: Mexico was never able to re-occupy California - at least not by using force.

The Battle of Monterey

The White army in Mexico itself had in the meanwhile continued to push south. Taking 6,000 men, General Taylor now advanced on Monterey, a fortress city defended by 15,000 Mexican soldiers. After three days of heavy fighting which saw great casualties inflicted on both sides, the White army was victorious and the American flag flew over the city.

The losses sustained in capturing Monterey had dampened the Americans' enthusiasm for the war, and they seized upon an offer made by the original Mexican aggressor, Santa Ana, who had been in

exile in Cuba after having been deposed by the Mexicans themselves. Santa Ana sent a note to the American president, James Polk, saying that if he was allowed to return to Mexico (the American navy was blockading the Mexican coast) he would be able to seize power and end the war. Polk assented to this plan, and Santa Ana was allowed to slip through the American blockade.

Santa Ana's Treachery

However, once back in Mexico City, Santa Ana managed to seize power, but immediately announced his intention to drive the White invaders out of Mexico and reoccupy Texas. Raising an army of 25,000 Mexicans, Santa Ana marched north, but only some 15,000 completed the march; the rest deserted along the way.

Even so, the Mexican army had a three to one superiority over the White army of 4,500 men: the two sides engaged at the Battle of Buena Vista on 23 February 1847. After heavy fighting the whole day, during which the White army came close to being utterly defeated, the Mexicans retreated and headed south.

Vera Cruz

Sensing victory, the White army then called in reinforcements. Boosting its strength to 11,000, they set off in pursuit of the retreating Mexicans. A daring landing of the entire White army on 9 March 1846, from the sea a few miles south of the Spanish founded city of Vera Cruz, saw the Mexicans outflanked.

After a six day siege and bombardment - with the Mexicans replying in kind - Vera Cruz fell on 28 March 1846, with the Mexicans suffering at least 2000 fatalities, including a large number of civilians. Only 67 Whites were killed in the encounter: an indication of the unevenness of the match.

Mexico City

The Americans decided to strike for Mexico City itself: Santa Ana launched a desperate counter attack, ambushing the White army at the small town of Cerro Gordo on 18 April 1846. After losing 1200 men killed to the American's 431, the Mexican leader withdrew his forces to defend Mexico City.

American Domestic Dissension

The protracted war was now causing dissension in the rest of America, with the issue being linked to slavery because of the involvement of Texas, and a strong anti-war movement started which severely hindered efforts to get the army properly resupplied. Nonetheless, many Whites volunteered in a new recruiting drive and by August 1847, the American army consisted of some 13,000 men, with about half of the original volunteers having either been killed, injured or having gone home upon the expiry of their one year contract period.

Mexico City Captured

The assault on the road to Mexico City was started on 20 August 1847, and the Mexican defenders,

some 30,000 strong, were defeated in a series of initial battles outside Mexico City. Santa Ana retreated into the city itself, sending a message to the Americans asking for a truce of one year to discuss what he called the "preliminaries of peace".

Amazingly enough, the Americans believed him once again, and agreed to the armistice, although reducing the one year period substantially. Santa Ana had no intention of discussing anything with the gringos; instead he used the break in hostilities to build up his reserves and install new cannons and fortifications around Mexico City.

The Americans soon became aware of the building plans, and, realizing that time was against them (the numbers in the American army were now down to 8,000 fit men, against a Mexican force of 18,000 and growing by the day), decided they had been tricked once too often.

After two weeks of "truce" the White army attacked Mexico City itself. By 8 September, they had smashed their way into the heart of the city and the American flag flew over the capital of Mexico. The Mexicans surrendered and Santa Ana fled once again.

Some 130 Whites were killed in the taking of Mexico City - the third time in that city's history it had been invaded by a White army. The Mexicans were too disorganized to keep a record of their losses, but contemporary White estimates put the number of Mexican fatalities at 3000.

The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo

The peace treaty which formally ended the war, was signed in February 1848, called the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. In terms of the settlement, the United States paid Mexico \$15 million and agreed to pay out the claims for damages instituted by American citizens against Mexico (amounting to some \$3.2 million), in return for the secession of half of Mexico's claimed territory: this land would form the future US states of Arizona, California, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, and Utah, as well as portions of the states of Colorado, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Wyoming. The defeated Mexicans had little choice but to agree.

From East to West

In 1849, gold was discovered in California: this sparked off a new wave of White immigration to the territory, more than doubling the population in less than three years - from 90,000 in 1840 to 220,000 by 1852. By 1850, the state of California had officially been admitted as the 31st state of the United States of America.

When added to the state of Oregon, the United States had once again doubled in size in less than two years, and now reached from the eastern coast of north America right across to the west coast. Apart from one further purchase of territory from Mexico in 1854 (a part of southern Arizona) this expansion marked the end of the creation of the modern state of the United States of America: one that had been created exclusively from beginning to end through racial wars of conquest, first with the Amerinds and then with the Nonwhite Mexicans.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Fifty Two

Three Fifths of a Person - The History of Slaves

Slavery - or forced labor - has throughout history, been one of the key drivers behind the importation of foreign races into other lands - this included not only Whites bringing Nonwhite slaves into their lands, but by all races at different times.

The Middle Eastern slave traders of Classical and Christian Rome; the Moors, the Mongols, the Khazars, the Ottomans and many others actively traded in White slaves; the Khazars engaging in this business to the point where their primary victims - the Indo-European Slavs - became so associated with slaves that they gave their name to the word itself.

White slaves who were captured by Nonwhite nations and who later joined their masters' gene pool through physical integration, did not significantly impact upon those societies: the laws of genetic inheritance are such that the darker genes are always dominant and the lighter recessive: the descendants are virtually always dark in coloring.

White Slaves

The White nations also engaged in a large amount of White slave traffic amongst themselves: from Egyptian times right through to Rome and even early America, White slaves were an accepted part of society.

It is a little known fact that a large trade in White slaves existed in England in the 16th and 17th centuries : gangs of slave catchers operated against the lowest social classes in that country with the approval of the upper classes; very often seizing White children on the street (called "kid nabbing" - the origin of the word "kidnapping") for indenture to farmers in the new British colony in Virginia, America.

It is however because of the dominance of "darker" genes, that the importation of Nonwhite slaves into White countries and settlements impacted so heavily upon the racial make-up of those settlements.

It is this use of "cheap" foreign labor - either as slaves or as freemen - which has always provided the primary source of Nonwhite populations in White countries, populations which have always grown to the point where they have played a significant role in altering the face of that society's culture and nature.

Ancient Society

The ancient Mesopotamians, Egyptians, Greeks, Romans and Germanics all used slaves, either domestically or for large-scale construction or agriculture. Roman slave masters had the power of life

and death over their slaves. Slavery was crucial to the economy and social system of Rome. Imperial conquests and expansion soon stretched the original Roman population to the point where there was a critical need for large numbers of foreign slaves.

The primary way of acquiring slaves was through war; tens of thousands of captured prisoners of war were brought to Rome as slaves. Ultimately, this dependence on slaves was to lead to the growth of a non Roman underclass in Rome itself, and the submersion of the original Romans into a mass of darker Middle Eastern elements.

Christianity

The advent of Christianity did not do away with the practice of slavery. In Europe a system of semi-voluntarily, semi-forced (by social conditions) slavery was created, known as serfdom. Most of these serfs were however White, so their enthrallment did not alter the racial make-up of Christian Europe.

The New World Slave Trade

The expansion of Whites into Africa, Asia and America created the background for the great slave traffic from Africa and Asia to Europe and America. From 1530 to the time of the abolition of the slave trade - as opposed to slavery - in 1870, at least 10 million Blacks were forcibly brought to the Americas: about 47 percent of them to the Caribbean islands and the Guianas; 38 percent to Brazil; and 6 percent to mainland Spanish America.

About 4.5 percent went to North America, roughly the same proportion that went to Europe, most of these going to Portugal, which was the first White country to start importing Black slaves.

It must be said that the vast majority of the Black slaves purchased by White slave traders were in sold in slavery by fellow Blacks: very few White slave traders had to actually go and find their own victims, there being more than enough local Black chiefs up and down the length of Africa willing to sell off their own and neighboring tribesmen.

Portugal

The Portuguese first started importing large numbers of Blacks from their colonies in Africa in 1444 - primarily to work on agricultural plantations in rural Portugal. By 1460, the records show that they were importing over 1000 Black slaves every year to Portugal from trading posts and forts established on the African coast.

This process continued for many years - it is estimated that eventually just under 12 percent of Portugal's population by the end of the 19th century was Black. While a large number of Black slaves died childless, a significant number had children with White Portuguese people (males and females): this, together with the influx of Moorish blood, has created the typical mixed race appearance of a large number of Portuguese today.

By the time of the 20th century, the intermingling of Black genes into the Portuguese gene pool was virtually complete: since that time Portugal has become famous as one of the most underdeveloped

states on the European continent.

Spain

Spain soon followed Portugal's example, but imported a far fewer number of Black slaves. Nonetheless, Spanish colonies in Africa provided a continuous source of manpower for Spain: right up to the 20th century, when the Spanish dictator Franco was only able to launch his invasion of republican Spain with a Nonwhite Spanish colonial army division from a base in North Africa. Elements of the modern Spanish population also exhibit the obvious signs of having absorbed significant amounts of Nonwhite genes, the result of not only African slaves in Spain but also of the centuries long Moorish occupation of that country. The admixture of Black African genes is however, not as high as amongst the Portuguese.

Britain

England's slave traders, having first practiced its slaving skills on its own lower White social classes, then entered the Nonwhite slaving trade as well, fighting off stiff competition from slave traders from Portugal, France, Holland, Denmark, and the American colonies.

In 1713, a British slave trading company, the British South Sea Company, actually won, on tender, (!) a contract to supply the Spanish colonies in South and Latin America with African slaves: the importation of Blacks into the new lands was turning into big business.

Of course the long term effects of this commercially driven practice was to create the nucleus of a Nonwhite population in these territories which would one day grow to dominate the direction of those societies; in exactly the same way that slavery had changed the face of Egypt, Rome, Greece and Portugal.

French Slavery in Africa

The French had occupied large parts of northern and western Africa as their colonial slice, and had set about not only raising an elite of locals as Frenchmen, but has also enslaved all the forced labor that they needed. Black slaves were also imported into France where a small degree of intermingling with the White French population took place. This was nowhere near the scale of Spain, and certainly minute when compared to Portugal.

The practice of slavery was only abolished by France in 1848 - more than fifty years after the French revolution which had proclaimed the brotherhood of man and liberty for all.

The Dutch waited until 1863 before they abolished slavery in all their colonies. By this time a small number of Malays had been imported in the Netherlands to work as domestic slaves. A tiny number of these were absorbed by the White Dutch population.

South America

In Southern America, the Spanish colonists at first turned their slave working skills to use in putting

the native Indian tribes to work in mines and agricultural projects. The South American Indians were however physically weak and could not survive the harsh life of slavery: as a result large numbers died out through a combination of ill treatment, execution, disease and exhaustion.

To meet their labor needs in the new colonies, Spain turned to the traditional source of slaves: Africa. This was the origin of the now large Black populations of Southern and Latin America. Although always (and still today) at the bottom of the social ladder, these Black slaves and their descendants physically mixed with the remains of the South American Indians and some Spanish colonists, creating the mixed race population which is still evident throughout South and Latin America to this day.

This mixing with Black slaves and Spanish colonists not only affected the White settlers in South America: it was also the direct cause of the collapse of the ancient Inca and Aztec civilizations in Southern and Latin America. These latter two groups, already weakened by the force of the White Spanish invasion of their lands, disappeared through a process of integration till today there are only very few scattered tribes of original Indians remaining in South America.

This is an interesting example of where racial mixing caused the downfall of another civilization, this time that of a Nonwhite (Inca and Aztec) culture which disappeared when the original Aztecs and Inca peoples vanished.

Independence

Once they had obtained independence, the majority of the new republics of South America and Latin America for the largest part abolished slavery during the 19th century. Only in Brazil was slavery not formally abolished until 1888. Between 1519 and 1650, Mexico imported about 120,000 Black slaves, or slightly fewer than 1000 per year. From 1650 to 1810, Mexico received an additional 80,000 Blacks, a rate of 500 slaves per year. Chile imported about 6000, about one-third of whom arrived before 1615. Argentina and Bolivia together imported about 100,000 Blacks over the same time period.

North America

In North America, the first Black slaves were landed at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1619. At first their numbers were relatively small, and legal recognition was only given to the existence of slaves in the colony of Massachusetts in 1641, in Connecticut in 1650, and in Virginia in 1661; these laws dealt with punishments for escaped slaves, both Black and White.

As more and more agricultural land was opened up in the southern states of America, so did the requirement for ever greater numbers of slaves. By the late 1700s, the number of imported Black slaves into America had increased dramatically. An important addition to the Black slave trade to America was the inclusion of female Black slaves. This step, seemingly insignificant at the time, was to cause an explosion in Black numbers beyond what the slave owners could have foreseen: retaining their high fertility rates, but with the benefit of White medicine, the infant mortality rates amongst Blacks in America, while still higher than the White level, were considerably lower than in Africa.

Very soon the first American born Blacks had made their appearance. To illustrate this effect, the

Some Blacks took the opportunity to trade wartime loyalty to the American rebels for eventual freedom: between 1782 and 1790, American Virginia plantation owners freed almost 10,000 slaves as a result of such deals.

The American Constitution

Most of the originators of the American constitution were slave owners, and none believed in racial equality for a minute, despite all the subsequent propaganda to the contrary. As with the Amerinds - who were regarded as a completely separate alien nation all to themselves, the writers of the American constitution - George Washington and others - wrote specific provisions into the original American constitution to deal with the Black population.

Three Fifths of a Person

None of the writers of the American constitution even contemplated Blacks being accorded citizenship or voting rights in the new republic. When the constitution was drafted at the Constitutional Convention held from 25 May to 17 September 1787, the delegates agreed that the US Congress should be elected on the basis of the size of the population in the various states making up the union - that those states with the larger populations should have more seats than those with smaller populations.

However a dispute arose: as the majority of Blacks were in the Southern states, and were specifically excluded from having the vote, the White leaders from the Northern states argued that the Black population should not be counted for purposes of representation, saying that the number of seats held by Southern states in the lower house of the national legislature should be based solely on their White population.

The White leaders from the Southern states however argued that this method of apportioning seats did not recognize the wealth and importance of their states; they wanted slaves to be counted equally with the Whites - then known by the phrase "free people."

Finally a compromise was reached and written into the constitution: each Black would be counted as three fifths of a person for purposes of counting the population of a state. Thus it was written into Article 1, Section two of the American Constitution that:

"The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States . . .

"Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons."

The founders of what was to become the most powerful and influential nation in modern history therefore not only refused to grant Black slaves citizenship of their new state, but then went on to only count them as part people.

Ten Dollars a Head

The American Constitution also permitted the importation of slaves until 1808 but then gave Congress the power to ban the trade (which it then did in that year). In the interim the constitution imposed ten dollar tax per head on all Blacks imported into the United States until that date. Article 1, section 9 of the constitution reads as follows:

"The Migration or Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a Tax or duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person."

Thomas Jefferson

Thomas Jefferson, the author of the American Declaration of Independence, declared that "Blacks . . . are inferior to Whites in the endowments of both body and mind" (The Life and Selected Writings of Thomas Jefferson, Modern Library, New York, 1944, page 262).

To his great credit Jefferson was opposed to slavery as a concept: but he was adamant that "(W)hen freed, the Black is to be removed beyond the reach of mixture" (ibid).

Jefferson's true views on the racial future of America have been deliberately hidden from modern view: on the famous Jefferson memorial in Washington DC, which has served as a rallying point for American Black rights activists for years, an inscription quotes Jefferson as saying "Nothing is more certainly written in the book of fate than that these people are to be free."

However, this is not Jefferson's complete words: the sentence from which these words are taken does not end with a full stop, it carries on after a semi colon and says ";nor is it less certain that the two races, equally free, cannot live under the same government." (Ibid).

The editing of Jefferson's words are evidence of a deliberate political agenda at work. Proof of the pudding came in the fact that Jefferson himself kept a huge number of slaves on his property - at one time the total reaching 212 in all. When George Washington died, he put a clause in his will which freed his slaves: Jefferson made no such allowance.



Thomas Jefferson, slave owning president of America.

Abraham Lincoln

Abraham Lincoln, the American president who was eventually to issue the proclamation which formally abolished slavery throughout the United States in 1863 - and who is subsequently known as the "Great Emancipator" for this - was another who never believed in racial equality, again despite much propaganda to the contrary. Lincoln was, like Jefferson before him, firmly committed to racial separation, and came out in public support of a law in the state of Illinois which made marriage between Blacks and Whites a crime (Lincoln and the Negro, Benjamin Quarles, Oxford University Press, New York, 1962, pages 36-37).

Although Lincoln is best known for his abolition of slavery, his true political policy was one of emancipation and repatriation of all Blacks out of America to Africa. He made his views public knowledge: during a face to face meeting with during an 1862 meeting with a Black group calling itself the "Deputation of Free Negroes" who had come to plead for full emancipation, Lincoln told the delegation that their best bet was to return to Africa and start a free Black colony there. He told them:

"You and I are different races. We have between us a broader difference than exists between almost any other races. Whether it be right or wrong, I need not discuss; but this physical difference is a great disadvantage to us both, as I think. Your race suffer very greatly, many of them by living amongst us, while ours suffer from your presence. In a word, we suffer on each side. If this is admitted, it affords a reason at least why we should be separated.

"Your race are suffering, in my judgment, the greatest wrong inflicted on any people. But even when you cease to be slaves, you are yet far removed from being placed on equality with the White race. On this broad continent, not a single man of your race is made the equal of a single man of ours. Go where you are treated the best, and the ban is still upon you. I cannot alter it if I would.

"I need not recount to you the effects upon White men, growing out of the institution of slavery. See our present condition - the country engaged in war! - our White men cutting one another's throats, none knowing how far it will extend; and then consider what we know to be the truth. But for your race among us there would be no war, although many men engaged on either side do not care for you one way or the other. It is better for us both, therefore, to be separated." (The Collected Works of Abraham Lincoln, edited by Roy P. Baler, Rutgers University Press, 1953, Vol. V, pages 371-375.)

Emancipation Proclamation

As if this was not enough, when Lincoln finally signed the Emancipation Proclamation, he again called for the Black "colonization" (the creation of separate Black states) during his speech after the signing ceremony:

"I have urged the colonization of the Negroes, and shall continue. My emancipation Proclamation was linked with this plan. There is no room for two distinct races of White men in America, much less for two distinct races of Whites and Blacks.

"I can conceive of no greater calamity that the assimilation of the Negro into our social and political life as our equal. Within twenty years we can peacefully colonize the Negro and give him our language, literature, religion, and system of government under conditions in which he can rise to the full measure of manhood. This he can never do here. We can never attain the ideal union our fathers dreamed, with millions of an alien, inferior race among us, whose assimilation is neither possible nor desirable." (Ibid.)

So much for the image of the "Great Emancipator" then. The major difference between Lincoln and the Southerners then was that Lincoln wanted the slaves to be freed and sent away; the Southerners wanted the Black enslavement to continue and for the Blacks' continued presence in America.

Citizenship in 1869

This political position was given legal status as late as 1857, when the U.S. Supreme Court, hearing an application by a runaway slave against his extradition across state boundaries, ruled in what became known as the famous "Dred Scott" case that the Black slave could not avail himself of the protection of the constitution because Blacks were not recognized as citizens of the United States of America.

The assassination of Abraham Lincoln in 1865 was the turning point in the "colonization" policy: deprived of its major proponent, it was put on the back burner and other political issues came to dominate domestic politics in America.

Finally in 1869, in a move which would certainly have been opposed by Abraham Lincoln himself, Blacks were finally granted citizenship of the United States of America, by the 14th Amendment to the constitution, ratified on 9 July of that year.

Although "what if" speculation is pointless, the reader of history cannot help but at this point speculate

on "what if" Lincoln had not been assassinated: it is most certainly possible that he would have implemented his policy of repatriation. The history of America may well have been irreparably changed by his assassination in a theater booth in Washington DC in 1865.

The Free Blacks

However, Blacks did not only enter the Americas as slaves. Many came during the 19th century in a British abolitionist effort to provide an alternative for slave labor. All told, some 50,000 "free Blacks" settled in the British and French West Indies, their numbers being swelled by an ever increasing amount of freed slaves.

By the beginning of the 19th century, the free Black population was a feature of every slave society in the Americas. In the New Granada provinces of what today are the independent states of Panama, Colombia, Venezuela, and Ecuador, the free Black population in 1789 was 420,000, whereas Black slaves numbered only 20,000. Free Blacks also outnumbered Black slaves in Peru, Argentina, and Brazil. In Puerto Rico they numbered nearly half the total population in 1812.

In Cuba free Blacks made up 15 percent of the Black population in 1827; in Saint-Domingue they made up five per cent of the Black population - and in Jamaica three per cent of all Blacks were formally free men.

Black Slave Owners

Contrary to the popular image portrayed of the American South as a place of medieval slavery, it was in the South that the free Blacks prospered most: they had greater opportunities than Northern Blacks to work as artisans and even to acquire property. In New Orleans, Louisiana, for example, 753 Blacks owned slaves, according to the 1830 census.

The existence of growing numbers of free Blacks was however met with hostility in most states on the continent of North America. For the greatest number illiterate, they were unable to settle as farmers or tradesmen, and very often turned to crime as the only way to make a living. The high rate of free Black criminality resulted in several anti-Black riots across the United States: the most serious occurred in Cincinnati in 1829.

The growing problem led the majority of American states to restrict or prohibit the entry of free Blacks into their areas; an Ohio law required entering Blacks to post \$500 bonds - a fortune by standards of the time.

Haiti - The Massacre of the Whites

Just how deadly slave keeping could be was dramatically illustrated by the slave uprising on the Caribbean island of Haiti in 1791. By 1804, the combined effect of 13 years of uprisings, murder and terrorism had destroyed the dominant white population, all agricultural production on the island and the economy of the prosperous colony of the western hemisphere.

Hispaniola

Originally called Hispaniola, the island now known as Haiti had become a center of Spanish activity during the time of the conquistador Hernando Cortes. Shortly thereafter the Spanish had moved on to the South American mainland, and the island was only populated by small numbers of Spaniards; the local Amerinds, the Canibales, being reduced to insignificance in numbers by a combination of Spanish force of arms, slavery and European diseases to which they had no immunity.

French Settlement

The western part of the island was settled by French traders in 1697 and renamed Saint-Domingue: the eastern portion remained under Spanish control, known as Santo Domingo, now the Dominican Republic. On this island was to play out one of the most ferocious Black on White race wars yet seen in the Western hemisphere - ferocious because it resulted in the total extermination of the island's entire White population.

The Jewel in the Crown

In 1789, the island of San Domingo was widely known as the jewel in the French colonial crown - extremely wealthy - in fact producing more sugar, coffee and cotton than all of the then existing colonies in North America put together. San Domingo's output in these three areas in fact supplied not only all of France's requirements, but half of the entire European continent's needs as well.

This was so because the island has to this day, wonderful soil and a good rainfall which makes it ideal agricultural land. In 1789, the island had a population of some 40,000 Whites, mostly French, although there was a smattering of Dutch, Germans and Spanish amongst the Whites.

By this time there was also a mixed race population on the island of some 27,000, many of whom were freemen and property owners themselves. It was however the astonishing number of Black slaves on the island - some 450,000 - who not only provided the labor for the vast agricultural output, but also the demographic time bomb which was to engulf not only the Whites but the mixed race population as well.

French Revolution

The French revolution of 1789 was to serve as the spark to San Domingo's population pressures. A decree by the new French national assembly in Paris of 15 May 1791, gave the right to vote for a government in San Domingo to the White and mixed race population on the island.

The White settlers on the island immediately protested, with the governor general of the island, the aptly named Blanchelande, sending a message to Paris warning that the implementation of such a form of government would result in "a frightful civil war" and the loss of the colony for France.

The French National Assembly then rescinded the earlier decree, issuing a new one saying that the colonists themselves could decide on what form of government was best for their own particular circumstances. When this news was made known in San Domingo, it heightened tensions: the mixed race population reacted very badly to being told they had the vote one week and then being denied it a few weeks later. Racial tension began to build up.

Amis des Noirs

One of the results of the French revolution was however the creation of a political lobby in the national assembly known as the Friends of the Blacks ("Amis des Noirs"). The Amis des Noirs reacted with outrage to the second decree on San Domingo, and applied sufficient pressure in the French National Assembly to not only have the second earlier decree withdrawn, but to have a new one put in its place which gave the vote to not only the mixed race population of San Domingo but also to all Blacks who were not under any form of indentured labor - that is, to the free Blacks as well.

Uprising

When this news was received in San Domingo, the Black population, which had somehow managed to seize a shipment of weapons, went over to a fully fledged race war, attacking Whites, burning plantations and plunging the island into chaos. The mixed race population first sided with the Whites, then with the Blacks, only to ultimately find that neither side accepted them.

French Troops

This chaos continued until 1802, when a detachment of 20,000 White French troops sent by Napoleon Bonaparte to restore order to the island, landed and crushed the long boiling race war. Black insurgents were hunted down and the leaders of the Black rebellion surrendered, pledging allegiance to the new French government.

Then in 1802, Yellow Fever broke out amongst the French troops, at one stage killing as many as 160 per day. By 6 August 1802, four fifths of the French troops who had arrived earlier in the year, were dead from the disease. Napoleon sent 10,000 fresh troops to bolster the beleaguered French garrison. The Blacks, seeing the ravages of the disease amongst the White troops (the Blacks were largely immune to it) relaunched their racial rebellion, and the security situation on the island had once again descended into near anarchy, with Whites and mixed race persons being targeted at random by Black rebels.

Vicious Race War

The conflict then took a nasty turn: the French troops decided that the only way to bring the now 12 year old race war to an end, was to kill all Black inhabitants over the age of 12 years - since they reasoned that any adult Black who for the previous twelve years of the conflict had been a rebel waging racial war against the Whites, would never again meekly go back to working in the fields and would be forever a potential rebel and insurgent. The same applied to Black women, the French decided, as the female Blacks had proved themselves to be even more vicious and cruel to captured Whites than what the men had been.

With ruthless energy, the new French troops pursued this task, and many Blacks were indeed killed in this arbitrary fashion. It was however not a one way affair: both sides reacted to each others' atrocities by committing even greater ones: the murderous situation escalated exponentially.

French Withdrawal

Then the Napoleonic Wars intervened: with France being at war with Britain, the French colonial possession came under attack from the British navy. The English fleet blockaded the island, not only cutting off supplies to the French garrison from France, but also aiding the Black rebels on the island with supplies of guns and ammunition.

The new Black rebel leader, one Dessalines, led a number of vicious attacks on isolated French garrisons on some coastal towns, during which all the White inhabitants were put to death. By 10 November 1803, the French could no longer hold out, and surrendered to the English Fleet off the coast. Of the 50,000 French troops sent to island, only a few thousand ever made it back to France - and this loss was to sorely count against Napoleon at later battles in Europe itself.

Haiti and the Massacre of the last Whites

With the surrender of the French, the Black rebel leader Dessalines immediately set about slaughtering those Whites unfortunate enough not to have left the island. San Domingo was renamed Haiti in December 1803 and declared a republic - the second in the western hemisphere after the United States of America and the first independent Black ruled nation in the Caribbean.

Having disposed of the Whites on the island, the Blacks and mixed race population then turned on another in yet another race war, ending with the virtual annihilation of the mixed race peoples. In October 1804, Dessalines declared his people to be the winners and to mark the occasion, declared himself emperor for life of Haiti.

The same year, Dessalines issued an invitation to the Whites who had left the island, to return and help rebuild the economy, which had been utterly destroyed as a result of the thirteen years of race war. A surprisingly large number of Whites took up his offer, but soon discovered to their cost the nature of their error.

1805 Anti-White Uprising

Scarcely had the new year, 1805, begun when the Black population once again rose up against the Whites, although this time there was no reason to do so apart from sheer racial hatred. The handful of Whites appealed to the emperor, but he was powerless to control the mobs: Whites were slaughtered if they were found.

Finally on 18 March 1805, the very last White man, woman and child on Haiti was killed. The Black rebels had for the second time succeeded in killing or driving out every single White on the island.

The history of Haiti after 1805 is not the subject of this book : suffice to say that Haiti, which as San Domingo under the French, was the richest land in all the Caribbean; is today still a shambles of poverty, anarchy and chaos, despite being only 35 years younger than the United States of America: a devastating counter argument to the "environmental" theory of development.

Blacks Repatriated From England

Slavery was formally abolished in 1772 in England: by this time approximately 15,000 Black slaves had been imported into that country.

In 1787, a society for the abolition of the slave trade was formed with Member of Parliament William Wilberforce as its parliamentary spokesman - almost immediately a policy of repatriation was started, the second one in Britain's history (the first total expulsion of Blacks having taken place under Queen Elizabeth I).

The abolitionists - as the opponents of slavery were known - lost no time in implementing their repatriation program: in 1787, a large transfer took place to West Africa where the town of Saint George's Bay (in present day Sierra Leone) was created, in the abolitionist society's words, as refuge for the "London Black poor."

The emancipated slaves were however unable to sustain the town, and by 1790, it had collapsed.

Undeterred, the British then launched a new repatriation settlement, founding the aptly named town of Freetown in 1792, in Sierra Leone. This time a number of Whites moved to the town with a large number of former Black slaves, and the town has survived to the present day.

The large repatriations of the already small Black population in England by the end of the 1700s meant that Britain would in the 19th and second half of the 20th centuries remain an overwhelmingly White country.

Blacks Repatriated from America

Although many of the states making up the United States of America also abolished slavery in 1808, a large number did not, an issue which would later lead to a White civil war in that country. The success of the Freetown settlement served as a beacon to many Blacks and Whites in North America.

An alliance of White anti-slavery activists (called abolitionists) and Blacks became known as the American Colonization Society which actively promoted the repatriation of Blacks to Africa.

In 1815, a small group of free North American Blacks was transported to Sierra Leone where they supplemented the British Sierra Leone settlement, with further repatriation ventures were undertaken in the 1850's.

Liberia

By 1822, the American Colonization Society had established a significantly large former North American Black slave settlement in Africa, called to this day Liberia (Latin for Liberty), using an almost word for word copy of the American constitution as the founding charter of that state.

The capital city, Monrovia, was named in honor of the then US president, James Monroe, who was an enthusiastic sponsor of the project. Liberia is the oldest independent Black state in Africa, but is nonetheless still prone to the usual Third World chaos which is so typical of Africa - yet another

devastating argument against the "environmental" and "opportunity" based theories of development.

Liberia had all the "opportunities" and physical assets of the United States of America - even down to a word for word constitution - yet still has dropped out of the First World with remarkable speed.

Liberia is in fact an excellent example of the truth that the nature of a people in a society, determine the nature of that society, never mind what "environmental" factors there may be present.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Fifty Three

"Our White men cutting one another's throats" - The American Civil War

When Abraham Lincoln uttered the words "our White men are cutting one another's throats" to a deputation of Blacks at the seat of government in Washington D.C. in 1862, even he could not have foreseen the slaughter that would take place over the next three years in his country: more Americans were to die in that Civil War than what were ever to be killed in any war before or ever since.

Once the Union had been established, it faced two critical issues: whether the United States of America should be a federation or a confederation; and whether the institution of indentured labour - in effect a lighter form of slavery - should be allowed to continue or not.

Together these two issues led to the American Civil War, which can be counted as one of the great turning points in American history: it set the new nation against itself, the South, supporting confederalism and indentured labour; against the North, who favoured federalism and the abolition of slavery. Great White armies fought each other and finally decimated the south, all in an argument over the future of the Black race.

Growth in Territory

The United States of America soon started expanding after the War of Independence with Britain. Territories to the west of the original 13 colonies, which all lay on the eastern seaboard of continent, had in the interim been steadily filling up with Whites.

In 1791, Vermont, a frontier region settled chiefly by New Englanders, became a state; this was followed by Kentucky in 1792, Tennessee in 1796, and Ohio in 1803. Under the president Thomas Jefferson, the Louisiana territory, a vast tract of land encompassing the lands between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains, from the Gulf of Mexico to Canada, was acquired for the United States. Originally ceded by France to Spain in 1762, after the French and Indian War, the territory been given back to France in 1800. The new French leader, Napoleon Bonaparte, who was obviously short of cash for his government, offered to sell the territory to the new American government for \$15 million - a bargain that Jefferson snapped up, in an instant doubling the size of the United States.

Fourteen states were wholly or partly created out of the Louisiana territory alone. In 1810, the United States forcibly annexed (from Spain), the territory called West Mexico: a strip of land along the Gulf of Mexico extending westward from East Florida to the mouth of the Mississippi River. Weakened at home and in her colonies, Spain then ceded to the United States the remaining part of her North American possessions, called East Mexico, and now called Florida, in 1819.

Westward Migration

A second wave of White westward migration took place in the aftermath of the economic hardship on the eastern seaboard which followed the war with Britain in 1812: Whites poured into Louisiana and a

state was officially declared there in 1812. Indiana followed in 1816, Mississippi in 1817, Illinois in 1818 and Alabama in 1819.

Life in these frontier territories was dangerous and difficult. The settlers were faced not only with the problems of clearing land and building stable communities, but were also continually subjected to attacks by Amerinds. In the face of all the problems the frontiersmen became hardy and daring: a belief in what was called manifest destiny and idealism took hold, propelling the settlers on where others might have given up.

Cotton Industry

In the southern states the economy became more and more centred on the growing of cotton, using a labour intensive Black slave population. The South grew wealthy on this cotton based economy: great towns and cities were built which rivalled those built on the original eastern seaboard. Many southerners lived lives of near aristocratic level.

But underneath the façade a time bomb was ticking: the interlinked issues of Black slavery and the right of the central government to interfere in the right of states to regulate this practice (and other laws) had not gone away: indeed with the passage of time they came to dominate the political debate. In contrast to the agriculturally based south, the north east was marked by rapid industrialisation: caused partly by the emigration of farmers to more fertile lands in the south and west; but also driven on by economic necessity as a result of the economic hardship which followed the British - American war of 1812.

The north also had a larger population than the south: a factor which ultimately caused the American congress to weigh heavily in favour of bringing in protective tariffs for northern industry. The introduction of tariffs protecting northern industry were opposed by the south for two reasons: firstly it illustrated the problems with federalism: because the northern states had a larger population, they had a majority in congress; and secondly, with virtually no major industrial capacity of its own, the south objected to being forced to gratuitously pay higher prices for northern industrial goods.

Slavery

As the American constitution recognised slavery and most of the signatories to the constitution themselves owned slaves, nothing was done to either end the practice of slave owning or encourage it. This ambiguous state of affairs resulted in some states allowing slavery and others forbidding the practice.

By the end of the 18th century, all the states north of Maryland, except New Jersey, had provided for the abolition of slavery. Caught in a web of indecision, the US Congress sometimes acted for, and sometimes against slavery: an Ordinance in 1787, prohibited slavery in the northwest territory; but in 1793, it passed the Fugitive Slave Law, which permitted a slave owner to reclaim escaped slaves from anywhere in the United States - upon production of "proof of ownership."

At differing times from 1791 onwards, the union admitted states which had legalised slavery and those who did not. Slave owning states accepted into union included Kentucky, Tennessee, and Louisiana; non slave owning states included Vermont, Ohio and Maine. In 1808, sensing that the

Black population was already growing, the US congress passed a law forbidding the further importation of Blacks into the country: it did not however abolish slavery itself.

The Missouri Compromise

It was only when the state of Missouri applied for membership of the Union in 1818, that the issue became hotly debated: representatives from those states in Congress who had abolished slavery, expressed concern that the admission of a slave owning state into the union from beyond the west of the Mississippi River would create a precedent for the future admission of slave owning states from the western territories into the union.

A law called the Missouri Compromise resulted, in terms of which Missouri itself was admitted to the union, but slavery was prohibited in all other states to be created out of territory purchased from France (called the Louisiana Purchase).

After the passing of the Missouri Compromises, the anti-slavery activists in the north began to organise politically against the practice. In reaction, the south, arguing that the very basis of their labour intensive cotton industry was threatened, passed stringent laws to keep its slaves under control. In 1840, southern pressure on congress caused the passing of the so-called gag resolution, which prevented Congress from considering any further petition presented to it on the subject of slavery.

The debate over slavery then intensified, with the US Congress very often being split down the middle over the issue. Just as it seemed the issue was coming to a head, the attention of the nation was diverted by the outbreak of a new race war in the south: that with Mexico which erupted over the territory of Texas.

The successful conclusion of the war with Mexico saw even more territories added to the union: Texas, Arizona, California, New Mexico and Oregon. The addition of these territories once again brought the debate on slavery to the fore.

As before, the Congress vacillated and always tried to put the unity of the country first by trying out any number of compromises. In this way California was admitted to the union as a non slave owning state: while the territories to the east of California (Arizona and New Mexico) were to be left to decide on their own on the issue.

The Underground Railroad

Then congress passed a new fugitive slave law in 1850, which made much more effective the measures that could be taken by a slave owner to reclaim an escaped slave. Together with the laws allowing the "right to decide" on slavery for the new western territories, these contradictory laws became known as the Compromise Measures.

However, many anti-slavery activists in the north refused to obey the rules laid down in the fugitive slave laws and actively helped escaped slaves travel to Canada through secret routes known as the Underground Railroad.

In 1854, the issue of the dual attitude towards slavery flared up once again with the passage of a law repealing parts of the Missouri Compromise. As part of a new law dividing the northern part of the Louisiana Purchase into two further states, Nebraska and Kansas, it was decided that the territories' inhabitants could decide for themselves whether they wanted slavery or not.

Anti slavery activists saw in this law the institution of slavery being extended north from the original boundary established by the Missouri Compromise and increased their agitation against slavery and the fugitive slave laws.

The act also brought about violent conflict in Kansas between abolitionist settlers who had emigrated from New England for the purpose of making Kansas a free state, and proslavery forces who invaded Kansas from the neighbouring slave state of Missouri to vote in favour of slavery.

The pro-slavery forces sacked and burned the anti-slavery town of Lawrence in May 1856, and in retaliation, John Brown, a fanatical abolitionist, led a group which killed five pro-slavery adherents at Pottawatomie Creek.

In 1857, the US Supreme Court gave a judgement in the famous Dred Scott effectively sanctioning slavery when it declared that Black slaves were "property and not citizens" and that Congress had no right to prohibit slavery.

Against this backdrop - with the US Congress being torn between pro and anti-slavery factions, and with the very principle of the union being torn apart by divisions over the right of the central government to interfere in individual state's laws or not - the scene was set for the devastating civil war in America.

Secession and War

The election victory of a northern Republican Party presidential candidate, Abraham Lincoln, in 1859, proved to many Southerners that the commanding position in national affairs now belonged to the North, and that it seemed that all major decisions regarding social and economic matters would henceforth be taken by the North and imposed on the South.

Interestingly enough Lincoln himself initially advocated state control of slavery, not outright abolition.

Then a southern state took the momentous decision to withdraw from the union. On 20 December 1860, South Carolina seceded from the Union and a few days later its state troopers laid siege to the federal garrison at Fort Sumter in Charleston. Within a month the states of Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, and Georgia had officially withdrawn from the union, to be followed a short while later by Louisiana, Texas, Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee.

The Confederate States of America

On 4 February 1861, delegates from six of the seceding states met at Montgomery, Alabama, and formed a provisional government called the Confederate States of America - an indication of the government form they preferred (a confederation having a much looser central government than a

federation).

On 8 February, they adopted a confederal constitution and the next day elected a provisional president and vice president; Jefferson Davis and Alexander H. Stephens respectively. They were elected unopposed in a formal election held in 1862.

Seeing his country fall apart, president Lincoln tried hard to prevent a conflict: in his inaugural address as president on 4 March 1861, he made his position clear: He did not intend to interfere with slavery in the states where it existed; at the same time, he declared that no state had the right to leave the Union as and when it pleased.

The First Shots

Then events moved with surprising speed: on 12 April, the South Carolina troopers who had been peacefully besieging the garrison of Fort Sumter in Charleston all the while, began a cannon bombardment of the building. The Union troops surrendered two days later. Faced with armed rebellion, Lincoln's hand was forced: on 15 April, he called upon the loyal states for 75,000 volunteers to defend the Union, but the southern states which had not yet thrown in their lot with the rebels in the deep south refused to send troops: they too joined the confederacy.

Black Troops

Before the Civil War, Blacks were not allowed to join state militias or the U.S. Army or Navy, and the federal government refused to give passports to free Blacks. This status had been confirmed by the US Supreme Court in the Dred Scott case of 1857, when it had ruled that Blacks could never be citizens of the United States.

When the Civil War started, the northern government initially refused to allow Blacks to be enlisted into the army. By 1862, however the rules had been changed slightly: Blacks were allowed to enlist in segregated units, led by White officers. By the end of the war, more than 200,000 Blacks had served in the Northern Army and Navy.

Differing Aims

The North and the South had differing aims in the war, which were to determine their strategies: the South only wanted to maintain its independence; while the North wanted to suppress the secession. This meant that the North would have to invade the South: this led to the North being the offensive power in the war, with the South being the defensive power.

First Battle of Bull Run

The first major engagement of the war occurred in 16 July 1861, when a Northern (or Union) army advanced south against a Southern (or Confederate) army which had taken up position about 40 kilometres (25 miles) south west of the capital, Washington, DC. Finally engaging battle on 21 July, the struggle appeared initially to go well for the Union army.

The Confederates were surrounded and only held together by the personal heroism of their commanding officer, general Thomas Jackson, who won the name "stonewall" for his refusal to give way or surrender (a phrase which has entered the English language with that meaning).

Then Confederate reinforcements arrived and the Union armies suffered a major defeat, fleeing in chaos towards Washington. The defeat stunned the North: it had been presumed that the conflict would be a short and sharp affair, as the North was in theory the overwhelming power, having not only all the major industrial power but a population of over 22 million against the South's total of less than nine million.

Mini Civil War in Missouri

In May 1861, a mini civil war of its own broke out in the state of Missouri, with pro-confederates and pro-unionists taking up arms against each other in a bloody fratricidal strife which was never fully resolved. In August, a large pro-Union army invaded the state, and although they defeated a Confederate force at the Battle of Wilson's Creek in southwestern Missouri, the state continued to be torn apart by armed militia supporting the opposing sides.

Kentucky

The state of Kentucky had remained neutral: but by the time that the war had been raging for several months, this neutrality was ignored. In September 1861 the Confederates occupied the city of Columbus and that state's legislature formally asked the Union government for help. A Union force under the famous Brigadier General Ulysses S. Grant, moved into Kentucky and engaged the Confederates at the Battle of Belmont, which ended indecisively.

Sea Invasion

The North then achieved an important breakthrough: a seaborne invasion of the South Carolina coast saw a number of important forts along the southern coastline falling into Union hands, establishing a base for further operations inland. In November 1861, the Union general, Thomas Sherman, landed with a force of 12,000 men on the coast, almost without opposition.

Near War with Britain

The Confederacy then sent two "commissioners" - ambassadors by any other name - to France and Britain to try and drum up support. The two men ran a Northern naval blockade to get to Havana in Cuba. Then, on 7 November 1861, they left Cuba on the British ship Trent. The next day, Captain Charles Wilkes of the U.S. vessel San Jacinto, stopped the Trent, searched it, and took the two Confederate representatives on board his own ship and later to Fort Warren in Boston Harbour.

By arresting the Confederates on board a neutral ship, the Union had however clearly violated a well established principle of international law of the inviolability of neutral powers. Indeed, the US Congress had gone to war with Britain only some 50 years previously, in the 1812 war, over this very issue when British ships had seized American ships sailing to France.

For a while it seemed as if Britain would enter the war against the Union: only an apology by the Union government and the release of the Confederate Commissioners to continue their journey served to avoid the direct involvement of Britain in the war, which would have been a serious blow to the Union.

As it was, the precedent had been set: from then on Britain would openly favour the Confederates, even allowing Confederate warships to be built on the British shipyards. Finally the links between Britain and the Confederacy were cemented by the personal friendship of the British Jewish prime minister of the time, Benjamin Disraeli, and the Confederate Jewish Secretary of State, Benjamin Judah. Disraeli's views on race (discussed in an earlier chapter) made him personally sympathetic to the Confederate cause. When Judah was forced to flee the South at the end of the war, he stayed as Disraeli's personal guest at the latter's private house in England.

The Union Strikes South

In January 1862, the Union finally launched its first major invasion south: an army under Ulysses Grant advanced on two forts held by Confederates, Fort Henry and Fort Doneslon. Both were taken after a short engagement and siege, the first major Union victory of the war. These victories were followed up by a further victory over a Confederate force at the Battle of Pea Ridge, also known as the Battle of Elkhorn Tavern, in Arkansas, in early March 1862.

Battle of Shiloh

On 6 April 1862, a Confederate army, which had managed to creep up on Grant's army undetected, launched a surprise attack on the Union camp at Pittsburg Landing on the Tennessee River. The battle, which became known as the Battle of Shiloh, saw two days of savage fighting, ending in the defeat of the Confederate attackers.

Losses were however staggering: 13,000 out of more than 62,000 Unionists and 10,700 out of 40,000 Confederates. The scale of the losses - with four times as many Americans dying in the one battle as had died in the entire American war of Independence, shocked all sides.

First Ironclad Engagement

Both the Union and Confederates possessed some of the latest technology available: including the innovative ironclads, or iron ships, which were to revolutionise naval warfare. Early in March 1862 the Confederate ironclad, the CSS Virginia (also known as the Merrimack), entered the mouth of the James River in Virginia, attacking a number of wooden Union ships enforcing a blockade of the state's major seaport. The Virginia was impervious to the fire of the wooden ships, and sank one and ran another three aground in quick succession.

The Union forces were soundly beaten, but the next day a Union ironclad, the USS Monitor, arrived in the area and engaged the Virginia - the first ironclad naval clash in the world. They fired shells at each other for hours, often hitting but never doing any damage. Finally, their crews exhausted, they called it a draw.

The Shenandoah Campaign

The Union then set as its objective the capture of the capital city of the Confederacy, Richmond in Virginia. However, the Confederate general "Stonewall" Jackson was operating with a relatively small army of 16,000 men in the Shenandoah Valley, just to the south of Washington D.C..

When the Union attack on Richmond started, Stonewall received orders to prevent the Union from sending reinforcements to the Union army in the south. Jackson then opened a remarkable campaign, deceiving the Unionists into believing he had a huge army. By mobility and inventiveness, Jackson won victories in the valley at McDowell, Front Royal, Winchester, Cross Keys, and Port Republic before withdrawing to help in the defense of Richmond. Jackson's tactics succeeded; to oppose him and the 16,000 men who fought with him for most of the campaign, the North deployed an army of 55,000 men, sorely needed elsewhere.

Richmond Attacked

The Union drive on Richmond then took place, starting with the landing of a 100,000 strong Union army in April 1862, which then took Yorktown after a month long siege. Advancing on Richmond, the Union forces were met in battle by a Confederate force at Fair Oaks, only 10 kilometres from Richmond. The Confederates were defeated, but the advance on Richmond ground to a halt as well.

After this battle, the Confederate general Robert E. Lee, was appointed commander of the Confederate army of Northern Virginia. Lee soon became an idolised figure in the south, with his outstanding ability as a military commander and strategist combined with his personality often being the only thing which kept the entire South from crumbling.

Seven Day's Battle

From 25 June to 1 July 1862, a series of running battles took place between the Union and Confederate forces, known as the Seven Day's Battle. On the second day, the Unionists drove back a Confederate attack north of Richmond, but failed to follow up on the victory by advancing to Richmond, only eight kilometres away.

A Union force falling back to a place called Gaines' Mill was subsequently attacked by a Confederate army and was defeated: the Confederates managed to seize the initiative and the Union drive on Richmond was turned back. The attempt to capture Richmond exacted a heavy toll: 16,000 Union casualties, and 20,000 Confederate casualties, one fifth of Lee's army.

Capture of New Orleans

In the deep south however, the Unionists made good their defeat in the north: in April 1862, a combined Union naval and infantry force of 18,000 men advanced up the Mississippi River. The Confederates launched desperate efforts to stop the naval advance, laying chain cables across the river and then setting fire rafts adrift into the midst of the Unionist fleet.

The Union force managed to evade all these hindrances and reached New Orleans, the capital of

Louisiana on 25 April 1862. The massively outnumbered Confederate defenders in the city - some 3,000 men - then fled, leaving the city open to be occupied by the Unionists. For the rest of the war, New Orleans, the biggest Confederate city and the key to the Mississippi, remained in Union hands. Its loss was a disaster for the Confederacy.

Confederate Victory in the North

Even though New Orleans had fallen, in the north, the Confederate army was to achieve one of its major victories: on 9 August, Robert E. Lee attacked one of two Union armies attempting to link up, at the Battle of Cedar Mountain, near Culpeper, Virginia, and crushed them.

Following up on this victory, Lee swooped on a Unionist army base at Manassas Junction, capturing a significant quantity of much needed supplies. Lee then drew up a defensive line in anticipation of a renewed Union assault. Lee did not have to wait for long: on 29 August, a Union army of 62,000 men attacked the Confederate force of around 23,000.

"Stonewall" had however not earned his nickname for nothing, and by a clever defensive strategy managed to withstand the overwhelming assault, creating such confusion in Union ranks that the Union commander thought the battle had been won, and sent a telegram to Washington D.C. announcing that the Confederates had been beaten.

It was a premature telegram: within hours a Confederate artillery unit had reinforced Lee and the resultant bombardment decimated the Union force. The Northerners fled in utter defeat, pursued by the victorious Confederate troops. Nonetheless the Confederate victory had been dearly bought: although the Unionists lost 14,500 men to the Confederate's 9,200, the South could not afford endless losses on this scale, as the North had larger reserves upon which to draw.

The South Overreaches Itself: The Battle of Antietam

Flushed with the impressive victory, the South decided to go onto the offensive and move the theatre of the war out of Virginia into Union territory. The Confederates then invaded Maryland itself. This turned out to be a major miscalculation: although the Confederates were successful in their initial objective of capturing Harpers' Ferry in Maryland, the Confederate force of 35,000 was finally faced by a Union army of 75,000 men.

The Battle of Antietam followed in September 1862: outnumbered, the Confederates barely managed to hold off a Union attack, and were forced to retreat step by step back into Virginia. Not only was the invasion of Maryland a military defeat for the Confederates, but the Battle of Antietam became the bloodiest one day battle of the Civil War and indeed of all American history: the Union casualties were about 12,500 and Confederate casualties about 10,500.

The Battle of Perryville

By August 1862, the neutral state of Kentucky had been invaded by both Confederate and Unionist armies; the population itself had broken up into pro-Union and pro-Confederate camps. The Northern and Southern forces fought a large but indecisive battle in October 1862, the Battle of Perryville: it

was only a union victory in as much that the Confederate forces withdrew south after the battle itself, but this retreat was not followed by a Union advance.

Union Defeat at Fredericksburg

Determined to try and advance somewhere, the Unionists then launched a full scale assault on the Confederate army in Northern Virginia, who had dug themselves into a well planned string of defensive positions around the hills near Fredericksburg in Virginia. On 13 December a huge Union army stormed the Confederate positions at Fredericksburg: the Confederate defences were far too good, and the result was a slaughter. Union losses in killed, wounded, and missing amounted to 12,600, as opposed to Confederate losses of 5,300.

Murfreesboro

In Tennessee, the anarchy continued, punctuated only by a bloody battle between the opposing armies at Murfreesboro on the last day of the year 1862, southeast of Nashville. After three days of fighting, in which the two armies lost nearly 25,000 of the 76,000 men engaged, the Confederates withdrew, leaving the Union army equally shattered and unable to pursue the Southerners.

The Union Attempt to Split the Confederacy

The Union armies then developed a strategy which entailed advancing down the Mississippi River from the North and thereby splitting the confederacy in two. For this purpose two large army groups were assembled, with the first aim of capturing the important Confederate town fortress of Vicksburg. The Union advance was cut to ribbons in December 1862, at the Battle of Chickasaw Bluffs. The first Union attempt to cut the South in two failed dismally.

The Grierson Commando

In April 1863, one of the most audacious engagements of the entire war was successfully completed by a Union cavalry detachment under the command of Benjamin H. Grierson. Leading a force of 1700 men, Grierson's force left La Grange, Tennessee, in April 1863. Sixteen days later, after covering 966 kilometres (or 600 miles), he reached Baton Rouge, Louisiana. On the way he destroyed miles of railroad, took 500 prisoners, and eluded thousands of Confederate troops sent against him, losing only 24 men along the way.

The Second Drive on Richmond

The Unionists then relaunched a drive on Richmond: an army totalling 134,000 well-equipped men set out for what the North hoped would be a knock out blow of the Confederate forces in Virginia. "Stonewall" Jackson met the main thrust of the Union assault in May 1863, taking two days to defeat the numerically superior Northerners once again, with the assault on Richmond collapsing for the second time.

During this battle, known as the Battle of Chancellorsville, "Stonewall" Jackson was accidentally killed by fire from his own Confederate troops: the loss of this ablest of all American generals was a

grievous blow for the Southern war machine.

The Union defeat had however once again exacted a disproportionately heavy toll from the Southerners: 17,300 Union casualties as against 12,750 Confederate casualties. Percentage wise, this was a far greater blow to the Southern armies; slowly but surely the tide of the war started to turn.

Fall of Vicksburg

In April, the Unionists relaunched their attempts to take the Mississippi River valley. Despite suffering heavy losses, the Union Commander Ulysses Grant managed to push south to Jackson, the capital of Mississippi, with an army of 44,000 men, where they quickly overwhelmed the 6,000 Confederate defenders in a short battle on 12 May 1863.

Grant then advanced on Vicksburg once again, defeating two advance assaults by the Confederate army defending the city. Finally, after two failed and extremely costly assaults on the city itself, Grant decided to lay siege to the city rather than wear his forces out trying to capture the fortress.

The siege lasted six weeks, with the Confederates finally surrendering the city on 4 July 1863. The Confederacy was cut into two and the South was dealt a near fatal blow: after the fall of Vicksburg, an outright military victory by the South no longer became a realistic option.

Gettysburg

In the light of the rapidly deteriorating military situation, the South tried to play an all or nothing campaign: Lee pushed north to Pennsylvania, hoping to inflict a decisive victory on Union soil. On 1 July 1863, the Confederate and Union forces met in battle at the little town of Gettysburg, Pennsylvania.

Initially the Union troops managed to ward off a determined Confederate assault; the Confederate attacks continued over the next two days, with huge losses being inflicted on all sides. Finally, outnumbered, undersupplied and having taken massive casualties, the Confederates were forced to retreat.

The battle was a decisive Union victory, even though a quarter of all the men who took part in the battle fell: the Northerners suffered about 23,000 casualties to the Southerners 25,000. The Union force was too devastated to pursue the Confederates.

In November 1863, Lincoln dedicated a national cemetery to those who had died in the Battle of Gettysburg. His speech, known as the Gettysburg Address, became famous as an expression of the principles for which the North claimed to be fighting, and reaffirmed his determination to see the country reunited.

Lincoln Suspends Democracy

Although the North had won two of the most important engagements of the war to date, at Vicksburg and Gettysburg, anti-war sentiment had grown in the North to the point where open rebellion broke

out. A great number of Whites in the North, as Lincoln had correctly predicted, did not care one way or the other on the issue of slavery, and many became weary of war which seemed to be dragging on indefinitely.

Also, the decision by Lincoln to rule autocratically as a result of the rigours of the war, greatly upset many in the North, who questioned his behaviour in the light of the very democratic principles for which he claimed to be fighting. Lincoln indeed had suspended many of the tenements of democracy: critics of the war were arrested and detained without trial for long periods.

The most famous example was an anti-war congressman from Ohio, Clement L. Vallandigham, who was arrested in May 1863 after making an anti-war speech. A military court sentenced him to prison, but Lincoln changed the penalty to banishment to the Confederacy.

Then on 1 June 1863, Lincoln suspended the principle of freedom of speech - a right guaranteed by the first amendment to the constitution - by banning publication of the Chicago Times, which had become increasingly anti-Lincoln. An uproar followed, and Lincoln was forced to back down on the issue.

Anti-Black Riot in New York City

Then in 1863, the Union government launched a forced conscription campaign - the first in the North - in New York City. A mob, made up mostly of foreign-born labourers, chiefly Irish-Americans, attacked and burned the draft headquarters and other government offices. For four days, the mob fought off police, firemen, and the local militia. Blacks were targeted by the White mob as the primary cause of the conflict in the first place, and attacks took place at random on any passing Nonwhites.

The Union government was forced to divert a part of the army facing the Confederates in Virginia back to New York City to restore order. Similar disturbances took place in other parts of the Union, although not on the same scale as in New York City.

Chickamauga

By this stage of the war, countless localised clashes were taking place on a daily basis up and down the entire length of the front, which now extended over several states running from the eastern seaboard to the Gulf of Mexico. In September, a Union force launched a major drive against the important Confederate rail centre of Chattanooga in Tennessee.

The Confederates withdrew from the city, preferring to make a stand outside, at Chickamauga. After very nearly being defeated by a clever Confederate defence, the Unionists won the Battle at Chickamauga, which was notable for the Union Commander giving up halfway through and personally fleeing to Chattanooga. The military situation for the Northerners was only saved by one of his officers fighting off the final Confederate assault.

The battle then ended in a stalemate, and the Union troops then followed their commander back into Chattanooga. The Confederates managed to lay siege to the Union forces in that town, but were ultimately driven off in two famous battles, at Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, both outside

the city. In battles lasting three days, the Unionists achieved the incredible feat of dislodging the Confederates from their well fortified positions; the region fell under complete Union control by the end of the year.

The Wilderness

In May 1864, the Southern and Northern armies once again engaged each other in the thick woods of the Wilderness, Virginia, close to the old battlefields of Chancellorsville and Fredericksburg. In fierce fighting which was marked by great confusion, neither side managed to inflict a decisive defeat upon the other, but losses were heavy: about 18,000 on the Union side and about 11,000 for the Confederates.

The South was slowly bleeding dry, by the time of the great assault on the South of that year, the Union army taking part in that campaign numbered some 235,000 men. Against this the Confederates could only put 135,000 undersupplied and underfed men into the field.

Spotsylvania and Cold Harbour

In the interim, Ulysses Grant had been appointed commander in chief of the Northern forces. Disregarding the losses in the Wilderness, Grant ordered the union army to press home an attack, the first time the Northern army had done so after such a major battle.

The Union army pushed south and in May, a ten day battle erupted in the small town of Spotsylvania Courthouse, Virginia. Once again the losses on the Union side were enormous: another 17,000 casualties. Ordering his army on, Grant then pushed on to try and seize Richmond once again. The Confederate army, under the command of Robert E, Lee, drew together its reserves and met the Union charge head on at Cold Harbour, Virginia, within sight of Richmond.

The Battle of Cold Harbour followed: it was a major defeat for the Union side, who lost more than 7,000 men against the Confederate losses of less than 1,500.

Petersburg

Having failed to take Richmond once again, the Unionists then tried to attack the Confederate capital from the south, and launched an encircling movement, striking south before turning north and attacking Richmond before the Confederates could swing their army round.

The plan nearly worked, with the Confederates only becoming aware of the troop movements at the very last moment. The Union advance was halted at the town of Petersburg, south of Richmond, by a desperate rearguard Confederate action: the town was placed under siege, which lasted for more than a year.

Sinking of the Alabama

The failure to take Richmond for the third time caused great depression in the Union, only tempered by the news of the naval victory off the coast of Europe. The Confederate ironclad, the CSS Alabama,

one of the ships the British had built especially for the South, had played havoc on the Union's trade and supply routes to Europe, sinking dozens of Union ships and capturing many prisoners. In June 1864, the Alabama landed at Cherbourg in France for repairs and to off load its prisoners. Outside the harbour, waiting for the Alabama to come out, was the USS Kearsarge, and the two ships engaged on 19 June 1864.

The battle was short and sharp: the CSS Alabama was sunk in less than two hours. The CSS Florida, second among the great Confederate raiders, was captured in violation of international law in the harbour at Bahia (now Salvador), Brazil, in October 1864.

The CSS Shenandoah, which had been taking prize vessels, chiefly whalers, in the Pacific, did not learn that the war was over until 2 August 1865. It succeeded in making its way to Liverpool, England, in November 1865, and there its captain turned it over to the English authorities.

The North Advances Into Georgia

In June 1864, the Union forces launched a major invasion of the state of Georgia, advancing 129 kilometres (80 miles) in a month, each time forcing the Confederate defenders to fall back without a major engagement taking place.

The First Assault on Atlanta

Finally in July 1864, the Union forces stormed a strong confederate defensive line on Kennesaw Mountain. Once again the defensive tactics of the Southerners won the day: the Union forces were defeated, losing 2000 killed and wounded, to the Confederate's 500. Nonetheless, the Unionists kept pushing south: by July they had reached the outskirts of Atlanta, the capital of Georgia.

The Confederates put up a desperate resistance with their massively outnumbered army: by the end of July the Unionists had lost 9,000 men in the outskirts of Atlanta, while the Confederates had lost 10,000 wounded, killed or captured. At that rate of attrition, the Confederate collapse was only a matter of time.

The Confederate's last Throw: the Attempt on Washington, D.C.

While Atlanta and Petersburg were under siege, the Confederates launched a desperate move to force a change in the direction of the war. A Confederate force under the command of General Jubal A. Early, launched a daring raid deep into Union territory, coming to within sight of the capital, Washington D.C., sparking off widespread panic in that city on 11 July 1864. The Unionists had however managed to draw up a considerable defensive army around their capital. Realising that an attack on the city would be futile, Early withdrew.

Fall of Mobile

By this stage, the Confederate situation was increasingly hopeless: in August, the settlement of Mobile Bay, Alabama, was taken by a seaborne Union invasion by the end of that month, mounting pressure on the siege of Atlanta in Georgia.

Fall of Atlanta

By this time, vast stretches of Atlanta had virtually been levelled to the ground in the heavy fighting for the city. Finally the Confederates retreated and the Unionists entered the city on 1 September 1864, flags flying and bands playing. The impact on Southern morale was shattering, quite apart from the strategic loss of what was then the biggest city still in Confederate hands.

Shenandoah Valley

Sensing victory, the North pressed home its military victories: a considerable army pursued the daring Confederate general Early into the Shenandoah Valley, defeating the Southerners in three important battles, at Winchester and Fishers Hill in September, and at Cedar Creek in October. The last Confederate troops were driven from Union territory the next month. The string of military victories ensured that Lincoln was, despite earlier dissension, able to win the presidential election of that year, held only in the Northern states.

The March to the Sea

In the closing months of 1864, the Union force under the command of general Sherman, marched east out of Atlanta, striking out along a 97 kilometre (60 mile) front. Chaos and destruction followed in the wake of this march: even though the Union forces were under orders not to destroy private property, massive destruction was caused to plantations across Georgia.

Worse was yet to come: in the wake of the Union advance, freed Black slaves seized the opportunity for revenge upon the White Southerners: rape, pillage and looting became the order of the day, with thousands of such incidents being recorded, and possibly many more going unrecorded in the resultant chaos.

Sherman's forces applied a deliberate scorched earth policy where they went: hoping that the trail of destruction would serve to demoralise the Southerners, as well as cutting off their supplies from the previously wealthy farms.

By 10 December, Sherman had reached Savannah in Georgia: three days later the principle Confederate position around the city, Fort McAllister, fell, and within a week Savannah was in Union hands.

Nashville

From the north, Confederate forces came under attack by the union army advancing south through Tennessee. The Battle of Franklin took place at the end of November 1864, which resulted in yet another Union victory. In mid-December, the Unionists launched a final assault on the last Confederate forces in Tennessee, soundly defeating the Southerners to the point where large numbers deserted and drifted back to their devastated farms in Georgia and elsewhere, the war over as far as they were concerned.

In many Confederate areas, food shortages then began to take on serious proportions, and enthusiasm for the pursuit of the war waned. Large scale desertions became increasingly common and the Confederacy government became more and more an authority in name only.

Fort Fisher

The situation for the Confederates was worsened by the mid January 1865 loss of Fort Fisher on the North Carolina coast, which deprived the South of its last Atlantic port and tightened the Union blockade of the South.

Bentonville

Having effectively routed the Confederate armies in the south, the Unionists then marched north to try and defeat the last major confederate army, still clinging to Virginia and the capital, Richmond. In January, the Unionists marched north with 60,000 men, seizing supplies from the unfortunate Southerners in their path along the way once again.

Reaching the states of South and North Carolina, the Unionists were challenged by a minuscule Confederate force at the Battle of Bentonville in March 1865. The Confederates were easily defeated and the Unionists marched on to Goldsboro, North Carolina.

Burning of Columbia

The march north - led again by general Sherman - again left a deliberate wake of destruction in its path. Once supplies had been seized, it was the norm for houses and farms to be destroyed, and then the White population to be left to the mercies of the freed Black slaves.

As a result of this scorched earth policy, Sherman's name came to be hated in the South, and with good reason. Fifteen towns were burned in whole or in part, but no act of destruction compared with or caused more controversy than the burning of Columbia, the state capital of South Carolina, which saw the city utterly destroyed for no military purpose at all.

Fall of Richmond

Around the Confederate capital, Richmond, Robert E. Lee had been bravely holding out against ever increasing numbers of Unionist troops and equipment. Cut off from new supplies, the situation became increasingly hopeless for Lee. The defeat of a Confederate army at the Battle of Five Forks early in April, signalled the beginning of the end in Virginia and for the Confederation. Fearing encirclement, Lee evacuated Richmond and the city was finally occupied by Unionist forces on 3 April 1865.

The withdrawing Confederate forces engaged the triumphant Unionist forces in a series of battles in the week following the fall of Richmond, but by the end of the first week in April, Lee had been boxed in. With no hope of escape or victory, Lee surrendered to the Union forces under Ulysses Grant on 9 April 1865: the war in the north was over.

The War Ends

Lincoln had ordered Grant to be generous with the Confederates, intending to follow a policy of reconciliation in order to restore the union. However, on 14 April 1865, the president was assassinated by what was assumed to be a Confederate supporter, the actor John Wilkes Booth, in a theatre in Washington D.C., and his wishes for reconciliation were never taken up.

On 17 April, the last Confederate forces surrendered in Durham Station, North Carolina, with the last two sizeable Confederate armies, one in Louisiana and the other in Texas, both surrendering in May 1865, realising that the war was lost and that it was pointless to fight on. Finally the president of the Confederation, Jefferson Davis, was taken prisoner in Georgia on 10 May. The war was over.

Reconstruction

The Civil War settled the two great issues which had plagued the union since its establishment : the power of the federal government and the issue of slavery. Acts passed by the US Congress in 1862, formally abolished slavery in the territories and, arguing that it was a military necessity, Lincoln issued an Emancipation Proclamation on 1 January, 1863, declaring free all the slaves in the rebel states. On 6 December 1865, the 13th Amendment to the Constitution, which abolished slavery in all the states and territories of the United States, was ratified.

Islands Set Aside for Blacks

One of the ways in which Lincoln's avowed policy of not only emancipating the Blacks but of resettling them in geographical isolation from the Whites, came with a Special Field Order, number 15, issued by Union General William T. Sherman in January 1865. In terms of this measure, freed Black slaves were given exclusive rights to and use of a number of islands and parts of the coastal region of South Carolina and Georgia. This effectively created mini Black homelands within the borders of the United States.

The Freedmen's Bureau

In March 1865, the union government then created what became known as the Freedmen's Bureau, a federal agency designed to subsidise and aid former slaves to establish themselves in society after emancipation. This bureau lasted until 1867, when it collapsed in pile of intrigue and corruption.

The Reconstruction Acts

The US congress, now totally dominated by anti-slavery activists who wanted revenge on the South for not only the practice of slavery but also for seceding from the union, passed a series of laws designed to bring the South firmly under control.

In March 1867, the US Congress passed the Reconstruction Act - over the veto of the president who had replaced Lincoln, Andrew Johnson. In terms of this act military governments were set up in ten of the eleven rebel states, the only exception being Tennessee, which had already ratified the most important reform, that of the 14th amendment to the constitution which in essence gave voting rights

to all, but which allowed for the mass disenfranchisement of all Whites who had supported the rebel cause.

In each of the other ten states, a military commander was responsible for seeing that each state under his command wrote a new constitution that provided for voting rights for all adult males, regardless of race. Only when the state had ratified its new constitution and the 14th Amendment would the process of political reorganization be complete.

Under these laws, most of the South was divided into five military districts, each supervised by a Union major general in command of a detachment of troops - mainly comprised of freed Black slaves, many of whom were hungry for revenge.

Southern Whites Disenfranchised

Then the constitution of the union was amended (the third section of the 14th Amendment, ratified on 9 July 1868) through which massive numbers of Southern Whites were disenfranchised because they had rebelled against the union. At the same time full voting rights were extended to all the now emancipated slaves; the classification of Blacks as "three fifths of a person" clause in the constitution was revoked by this amendment (although the Amerinds were still specifically excluded from the franchise).

Collapse of Orderly Government

The resulting administrations in the south provoked great resentment, and stoked the fires of racial conflict. Large numbers of Whites were barred from voting, and the legislatures of the southern states were in many cases dominated by illiterate Black former slaves who suddenly found themselves propelled from picking cotton into running the affairs of state. They were of course incapable of running the government efficiently, and the organs of government began to deteriorate almost immediately, with orderly government breaking down in many areas.

Former Black slaves were also placed in many areas as soldiers and officers enforcing law and order over the defeated southern Whites. This provided plenty of opportunities for revenge and abuse. In addition to the appointment of hopelessly incompetent Blacks to fill the positions of government, unscrupulous northerners also took up positions in the southern government, often merely to embezzle funds and enrich themselves: they became known as carpetbaggers.

Northern civil war veterans were put on the official state payroll: southern veterans were consistently denied any form of pension.



An 1868 photograph of the South Carolina Reconstruction legislature: only 22 of the 94 Black members of the legislature could read or write. The Whites in the legislature were mostly Northerners, as Southern Whites had been disenfranchised and were unable to run for office.

Ku Klux Klan and White Resistance

The racial abuse and incompetence led to the creation of the Ku Klux Klan: an organisation founded by a (disenfranchised) former Confederate general, Nathan Bedford Forrest. Although today a small, splintered movement, the original Ku Klux Klan played a hugely important role in overturning the Reconstruction era governments of former Black slaves in many Southern states after the Civil War.

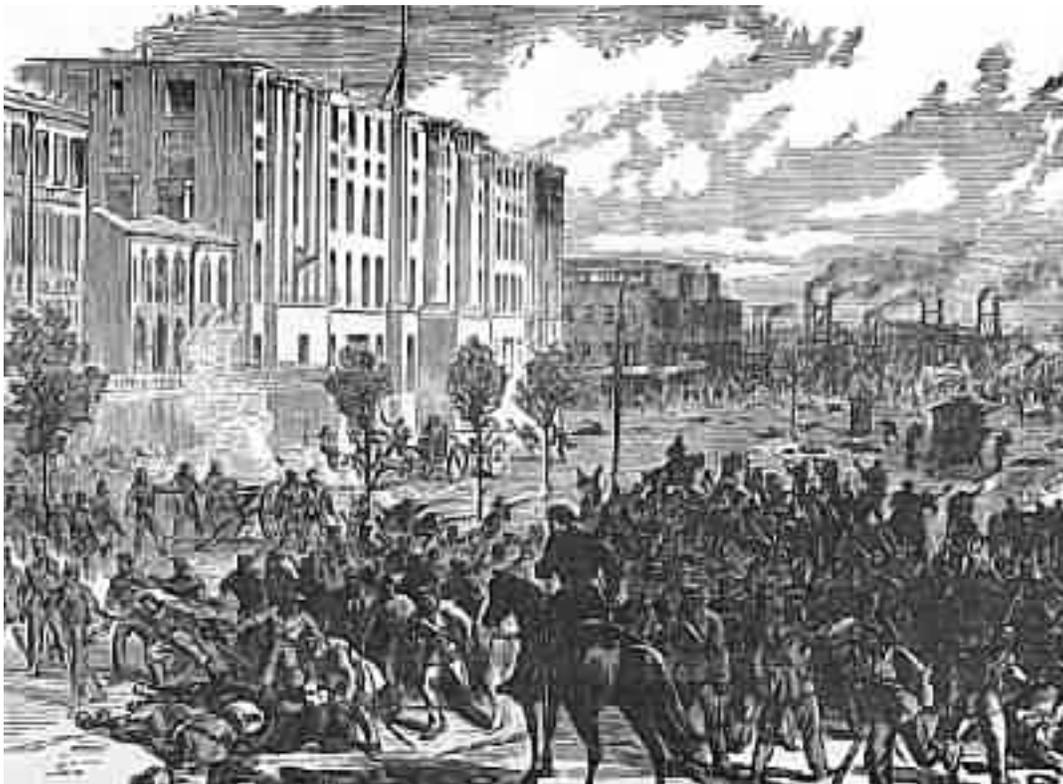
The original Klan, which is not to be confused with the groups calling themselves by that name today, was organized in Pulaski, Tennessee, during the winter of 1865 to 1866, by six former Confederate army officers who gave their society a name adapted from the Greek word kuklos ("circle"). Its activities were directed against the Reconstruction governments and their leaders, both black and white, which came into power in the southern states in 1867.

Dressed in robes with pointed hoods, for disguise and in an early attempt to frighten superstitious Blacks, the Klan launched a campaign of terrorism and violence against Whites and Blacks whom they considered traitors to their cause.

Battle of Liberty Palace

In Louisiana, which saw more than half of the White population disenfranchised, the Ku Klux Klan were particularly active. This White resistance to the overtly racial Black reconstruction government culminated in an open street battle between armed White vigilantes and the predominantly Black federal army of occupation at the Battle of Liberty Place in New Orleans in 1874, where 3500 league members took over the city hall, statehouse, and arsenal. When the Black federal occupying army arrived, the two sides engaged in a shootout which saw the use of cannon in the city centre. Much damage was done and the White vigilantes were forced to retreat.

The uprising was however so serious that a federal army of occupation was to remain in Louisiana for a number of years. Similar clashes took place in the other states: in Tennessee, a race riot erupted in Memphis in May 1866, prompted by a combination of some particularly outrageous reconstruction measures and a wave of Black criminality. Eventually the federal government was forced to impose martial law in the state to restore order.



Resistance to reconstruction turns to insurrection. At the Battle of Liberty Palace in September 1874, several hundred members of the White League did battle with the Black military and police in the city of New Orleans, Louisiana. Both sides used cannon against each other.

Reconstruction Abandoned

This campaign of violence was eventually to be one of the reasons why the Northern States abandoned the Reconstruction campaign, and how formerly disenfranchised Whites were once again granted the vote. Once they had succeeded in taking over the southern legislatures again, the Whites proceeded to dominate through sheer weight of numbers.

The original Klan was officially dissolved by its leader, Nathan B. Forrest, in 1869, but individual groups continued with their campaign of violence.

Finally in 1871, the American president of the time, Ulysses S. Grant, largely in reaction to Southern White complaints that they were disenfranchised while illiterate Blacks were granted the vote, assented to a further change to the U.S. Constitution guaranteeing the rights of all citizens.

This effectively abolished the White disenfranchisement laws, and the Klan, its primary task (that of restoring White voting rights) accomplished, then faded into insignificance. A re-founded Klan was started in 1915, and although reaching a membership of 3 million after World War 1 (its members allegedly including at least one who was later to be elected president of the United States, Warren G. Harding) the Klan was never again to exert the influence that it did in the period leading up to 1871.

Although the image of the Klan suffered because of the numerous incidents of brutal violence in which individual members were involved, there can be no doubt that the southern states were delivered of brutal and incompetent Black overlords by the campaign of resistance organised primarily by the Klan. This fact was publicly acknowledged by the later American president Woodrow Wilson, who, after attending a film showing of David Griffiths epic film *Birth of a Nation*, remarked that the original Klan had "saved civilization in the South."

Federal Army Withdrawn

There was however another important reason for the fall of the Black governments in the south: the presidential election of 1876 was won by the Republican Rutherford B. Hayes, who immediately withdrew the federal troops still supporting the Black and carpetbag governments in the South (particularly in Louisiana and South Carolina). As a result these administrations collapsed, to be replaced by White governments.

White Democrats Win the South

Through the disenfranchisement of huge numbers of Whites, Black voters soon came to dominate the legislatures of the south. Firmly committed to the party of Abraham Lincoln, the Republicans, Blacks provided the vast majority of votes for that party, and without exception every state in the south had a Republican government backed up by a federal army of occupation, many of which were drawn from recently freed Black slave populations.

Blacks also formed a large number of the Republican government's public representatives: in the US Congress there were two Black senators and 14 representatives, whilst dominating the state legislatures and state governments in the south itself.

Virtually all the Whites who were allowed to vote in the South were deeply hostile to this blatantly racial government: particularly when the state legislatures started issuing gratuitous payments to themselves and freed Black slaves under the guise of reconstruction. Taxes virtually tripled in the south as a result of reckless expenditure and pay outs to Black former slaves: this further impoverished the South, which was already struggling with the economic consequences of the war.

Whites Re-Enfranchised

As a result the Whites in the South started voting for the largest opposing party, the Democrats. By 1871, with Whites having been given back the vote, they once again formed the majority of voters in the South. The combination of White re-enfranchisement, violence against reconstruction activists and the withdrawal of the federal army of occupation saw White Democratic governments take over the state legislatures.

The victory of the Southern Democrats in taking power in the south saw the reconstruction policy rejected: taxes were slashed and state expenditure cut, leading to an immediate closing down of the institutions which had allowed the massive corruption by the incompetent Black legislators.

The Democrats also managed to engineer the workings of their own party so that only Whites could attend the primaries, or internal candidate selection procedures. In this way the party remained not only solidly White in terms of support, but also in its public representatives.

Literacy Tests

The White legislatures then sought ways to reduce the number of Black voters, already in a reality a minority. The idea was then hit upon to use literacy as a test: only those persons who could prove a sufficient level of reading and writing ability would be allowed to vote. While this ruling affected a number of Whites, the biggest impact it had was on the Black population, the majority of whom were still illiterate.

Segregation

The Southern Democratic legislatures then enacted a series of segregation laws designed to separate the races in all aspects, from schools through to public places. Many of these measures were in due course to spread to the north of the country as well. In 1875, the US Congress passed a Civil Rights Act of 1875, which barred discrimination by hotels, theatres, and railways. In 1883, this act was declared unconstitutional on the grounds that it interfered with the right of control of access to private property.

Racial Consequences of the War

The after effects of the war on America's White population was vast. At least 250,000 Confederate White soldiers were killed - five per cent of the South's White population. Vast areas of farmland were devastated, and many great cities, like Atlanta, were virtually leveled to the ground.

The South's four million Blacks took advantage of the chaos to seize as much property as was remaining, with their claims often being legitimised by the Black dominated reconstruction governments.

The Civil War severely dented the White population in America: a total of 610,000 Whites were killed - compared to the 4,435 who died during the War of Independence. These figures included 360,000 on the Northern side and 250,000 on the Southern side. Although the North lost more men, that region

had a greater White population of some 22 million.

The South however had a population of only some 8 million whites. In percentage terms then, the war was far more devastating to the South than to the North.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Fifty Four

Immigration and Eugenics: America till 1945

Having established itself as the second White heartland, a second Europe, North America immediately became the focus for massive development, advances - and a magnet for further immigration from all parts of the world. America's rise to greatness depended to a great degree upon its large racial homogeneity.

Following the banning of further Black immigration in 1808 (when the further importation of slaves was outlawed) American immigration policy was specifically geared to ensuring that as few Nonwhites as possible entered that country. As a result of this policy the White population did indeed increase: great industries sprang up and America soon almost equaled Europe in terms of population numbers.

Internal politics till 1945

In the period immediately following the end of the American Civil War, the Republican Party dominated American politics, partly through the disenfranchisement of the Whites in the South and their replacement with Republican supporting Black voters. The Republicans remained in control of both houses of Congress until 1875, and of the presidency from 1869 until 1885, in the latter year losing it to the Democrats.

Labor Movement

After 1885, the first strong socialist labor movements emerged in America. Demands were made for higher wages, better working conditions and shorter hours, as part of a general reform of society. The emergence of militant and socialist trade unions resulted in unprecedented conflict between capital and labor; in 1886 and 1887 an estimated 3000 strikes took place in the United States.

A strike at the McCormick reaper works in Chicago spilled over into a serious riot known as the Haymarket Square Riot, putting the issue firmly on the national agenda. The most important strike was however that in 1894, of the employees of the Pullman Company, who were led by the American Railway Union. The strike was called to protest unfair working conditions at the Chicago-based Pullman Company, a manufacturer of railroad sleeping cars. It resulted in violence, the deaths of workers, and the destruction of property. Federal troops had to be deployed in Chicago to restore order.

Infrastructure Expands

Starting as early as 1862, the US Congress had chartered the building of five major railway lines and services to the far West: these charters often included vast areas of land which were then developed by the railway companies into towns all by themselves. In 1862, the US Congress also passed the Homestead Act, intended to encourage Western migration. In terms of this law the government gave

65 hectares (160 acres) of land free to any head of a family who contracted to cultivate the tract for five years.

This process was interrupted by the Civil War, but resumed shortly thereafter. Apart from the strikes of the last decade of the 19th century, America continued to expand exponentially, with huge stretches of the country being subjected to mass industrialization on an unprecedented scale. The result was that America became the premier industrialized nation of the world, soon surpassing virtually all of Europe in terms of manufacturing output.

Territorial Expansion

The second half of the nineteenth century also saw the United States acquire in quick succession a whole host of new territories: while they themselves were physically small in size, they each contained a majority and significant in size Nonwhite population. Every territorial acquisition had the effect of increasing the total number of Nonwhites under the America flag: precisely the opposite of what the American government's immigration policies intended.

Alaska

Russia maintained friendly relations with the Federal American government during the civil war (unlike Britain, which allowed Confederate warships, such as the famous *Alabama*, to be built in British shipyards during the war). This friendship with the Russians led in 1867 to the U.S. purchasing the territory of Alaska from Russia (then known as Russian America). The United States paid \$7.2 million in gold for the territory and got along with the deal, several hundred thousand Inuit natives.

Pacific Islands

In 1899, the United States acquired the island of Tutuila (or American Samoa) and in 1893 a revolution in the Hawaiian Islands, led by American sugar planters resulted in the overthrow of the Hawaiian monarchy and the annexation of the islands by the United States in 1898. In addition to these lands, the United States also acquired several additional islands in the Pacific, including Wake Island and Midway.

Spanish-American War

A war between Spain and its colony in Cuba, which ran from 1868 to 1878, eventually involved the United States when a Spanish warship captured the U.S. steamer *Virginius*, which was bringing supplies to the Cuban insurgents. The Spanish executed some of the crew, including eight U.S. citizens. Called the *Virginius* Affair, this incident aroused considerable ill-feeling in the United States against Spain. Matters came to a climax when the American battleship *Maine*, lying in the harbor of Havana to protect U.S. citizens in Cuba, was blown up on 15 February 1898, killing 260 people.

Although it could not be determined at the time whether the *Maine* was blown up by Spanish or by Cuban action, popular opinion put the blame on the Spanish in the light of the *Virginius* affair. On 19 April 1898, the U.S. Congress adopted a resolution that recognized Cuba's independence, demanded that Spain withdraw from Cuba, and authorized the president to use force to carry out the resolution;

this was practically a declaration of war against Spain. In the brief war that ensued, the United States quickly won a decisive victory.

The resulting Treaty of Paris, signed in December 1898, ensured the independence of Cuba. Spain was forced to cede to the United States the territories of Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippine Islands (for the latter territory the American government paid \$20 million to the Spanish government). In addition, the U.S. held a protectorate over Cuba until 1902. The Jones Act of 1917, granted U.S. citizenship to Puerto Ricans, while at the same time preparing the way for gradual Philippine independence which became a reality in 1946.

Panama

During the American-Spanish War, the American Navy found itself hampered by having to sail round South America to get to the Caribbean from the Pacific: it was then decided to build a canal through the thinnest part of the North American continent, in Central America. American president Theodore Roosevelt, entered into a treaty with Colombia in 1903 agreeing to the long term lease of a ten mile wide (16 kilometers) zone in Panama, which was then a province of Columbia, for the building of such a canal. The Colombian senate rejected the treaty, whereupon a rebellion broke out in Panama.

With the active support of the United States, Panama became an independent republic, and then signed a new treaty with America. In return for permission to build the Panama canal, America paid the country an initial payment of \$10 million, followed by a further quarter million dollars every year thereafter. The Panama Canal was completed in 1914 and the US retained control over it until the year 2000.

Mexico

Internal dissension in Mexico caused American troops to briefly occupy the Mexican city of Vera Cruz in 1914, but an international conference organized by several Latin American states prevented a replay of the Mexican American war of 1846.

This was not for the lack of trying on the part of the Mexicans, who still harbored a grudge against the White gringos to the north. In 1916, a faction of militant Mexicans began a miniature race war against White America, invading the town of Columbus in New Mexico. The invaders killed 16 people and partly razed the town to ground. An American army unit was sent into Mexico as a reprisal, but the guilty parties were never captured, and the expedition ended by returning to America empty handed.

World War One

The outbreak of World War One in 1914, saw the United States attempt to maintain a policy of neutrality: it was however difficult as both England and France, in the course of maintaining a blockade against Germany, interfered with American shipments to neutral nations.

The Germans for their part waged a submarine war against all ships in the sea around Britain and Ireland. Germany requested neutral nations to avoid the possibility of losing ships or lives by not sending their ships to Britain or Ireland. The Germans also urged nationals of foreign nations not to

travel on British ships: a warning ignored by 128 American citizens who were traveling on the British passenger liner, the Lusitania, in May 1915, which was torpedoed after the Germans had established that it was carrying munitions for the British war effort.

The American public was however outraged by the sinking, which helped to whip up anti-German feeling - difficult in a nation where nearly 60 percent of the White population had German roots. Germany then announced that it would henceforth give warnings to all passenger ships before sinking them, giving the passengers time to save themselves. This mollified American public opinion. President Woodrow Wilson was given the credit for this pledge, and he went on to win the presidential election that year on the basis of him having kept America out of the war.

Hostilities Erupt

At the end of January 1917, Germany however revoked its pledge by declaring unrestricted submarine warfare in a zone even larger than the one it had proclaimed in 1915. The war in Europe was reaching a critical point, and all sides were putting the maximum pressure they could on each other. President Wilson replied to this news by breaking off diplomatic relations with Germany and getting the U.S. Congress to agree to arm American merchant vessels.

Then a telegram from the German war office to the Mexican government was intercepted: in it proposals were made for an alliance of Germany, Mexico and Japan to take on America if that country should enter the European war. This served to heighten war fever in the United States, particularly as it was now associated with the one of the traditional enemies to the south, Mexico.

Balfour Declaration

In the interim, the leader of the world Zionist movement (a movement of nationalist Jews set up in Switzerland in the latter part of the 19th century to promote the creation of a national homeland for the Jews in Palestine) one Chaim Weizmann, had persuaded the British government to issue the famous Balfour Declaration in December 1917. This declaration stated the intent to make Palestine into a Jewish homeland once the war was over - it was then under Turkish rule, an ally of Germany during the war. The quid quo pro for the declaration of support was Weizmann's assurance that the world Zionist movement would throw its full weight behind the Allied war effort.

As part of this effort, it was admitted in an official 1936 publication by the New Zionist Press in London, was that Zionism would use its influence in America to try and bring that country into the war on the Allied side, specifically against Turkey (with the intention of capturing Palestine) but also against Germany and Austria if needs be.

While the full extent of the behind the scenes political machinations were never disclosed, it is so that the American president Wilson used the fairly flimsy excuse that the German preparations for an alliance against America if she entered the war, constituted an act of aggression, and persuaded the U.S. Congress to declare war on Germany on 6 April 1917.

This was in direct contradiction of his election manifesto of the previous year, but a special Seditious Act passed by the U.S. Congress in May 1918, made it illegal to criticize the intervention in the war - an amazing law in America, blatantly ignoring the First Amendment which guarantees freedom of

speech.

American Intervention Decisive

In any event, the American contribution of fresh troops and material at a crucial juncture in that war ensured a Allied victory and a German/Austrian and Turkish defeat. Although Britain then backtracked on its undertakings to the world Zionist movement, the state of Israel was finally established in 1948 after the Second World War.

The machinations behind the Balfour Declaration and Zionism's siding with the British and its influence in bringing America into the war - despite the fact that many thousands of German Jews fought loyally on the German side - also had the effect of encouraging German anti-Semitism, something that was to assume awesome proportions in the years between the wars.

Fourteen Points

Following the defeat of Germany, President Wilson played an important part in the peace conference in 1919 at Paris. Wilson intended to bring about a peace based on his program known as the Fourteen Points, an idealistic plan for a lasting peace. However, he was frustrated by the other Allies, who were intent on inflicting penalties upon Germany.

The Treaty of Versailles declared Germany guilty of all the economic losses sustained by the peoples of the Allied nations and established a Reparations Commission that subsequently imposed impossible reparations upon Germany, directly in contrast to that which Wilson wanted. History was to prove Wilson correct.

The Flu and Prohibition

In the aftermath of the war, two issues dominated American internal affairs: the outbreak of the Great Flu Epidemic of 1918-1919, which killed millions of people worldwide and which started in an American army base in the Midwest; and the Prohibition. The latter was a ban on the manufacture and sale of liquor which was implemented by an amendment to the American constitution in 1919. This ban created a huge black market for alcohol and a criminal element became involved. Finally the ban on alcohol was lifted in December 1933, with a further amendment to the constitution.

The Crash of 1929

The stock market crash of August 1929, created the Great Depression which followed, which played havoc with the social balance in America and in the rest of the world. By 1932, hundreds of banks had failed, hundreds of mills and factories had closed, mortgages on farms and houses were being foreclosed in large numbers, and more than 10 million workers were unemployed.

The election of president Franklin D. Roosevelt, in 1932, on a platform of addressing the economic crisis with a "new deal" marked a turning point: using some soundly socialist principles mixed in with traditional American free enterprise, Roosevelt created a series aid agencies which helped the needy, and managed to restore the American economy with the financing of huge building programs.

Ironically, certain aspects of the policies that Roosevelt introduced were then copied by Adolf Hitler in Germany at the same time, and called National Socialism. In Germany too, these policies worked wonders and brought that economy back in line after the devastating effects of the Great Depression.

The New Deal

The Roosevelt administration set up several agencies to bring relief to the unemployed and needy. Relief funds for the unemployed were distributed through state and local agencies and through several federal agencies that created temporary jobs. The National Labor Relations Act, passed in 1935, governed labor-management relations and safeguarded the rights of employees. Through the Rural Electrification Administration, established in 1936, power lines were brought to many sparsely populated areas of the United States.

The Social Security Act, passed in 1935 and amended in 1939, provided for old-age benefits, unemployment compensation, and welfare services for mothers, children, elders, and people with disabilities.

The New Deal also aided large-scale business. The Roosevelt administration extended large credit to railway companies, building-loan companies, banks and agricultural-credit corporations, all with the intention of giving the economy a kick start once again. The down side of this was that the public debt increased dramatically.

Blacks Switch to the Democratic Party

In his re-election bid, Roosevelt won one of the greatest political victories in U.S. history, carrying every state except Maine and Vermont. In addition, Black voters, following their major switch to the Democratic Party in the 1934 elections, voted overwhelmingly for Roosevelt.

World War Two

The outbreak of the Second World War in 1939, saw a majority of Americans still favoring neutrality: Roosevelt himself publicly declared that his policy of opposition to totalitarian dictatorship should be implemented by all means "short of war."

Anti war agitation was also spearheaded by a number of groups, ranging from the pro-Nazi to the pacifist. Amongst the leading anti-intervention agitators were contemporary American folk heroes such as Charles Lindbergh (the first man to fly the Atlantic Ocean solo in 1927) and Henry Ford, the founder of the Ford motor company (who had personally been given a Nazi medal by the German Air Force minister, Herman Goering).

However, the American government's intentions and aid to the nations opposing Nazi Germany was blatant from the very beginning.

Support for Britain

Late in 1939, the U.S. Congress partly repealed the arms embargo imposed by a number of neutrality acts; France and Great Britain could thereafter buy war supplies in the United States. In September 1940, the U.S. government transferred 50 old destroyers to the British, receiving in return long leases for U.S. naval and air bases on British possessions in the western hemisphere. In September 1940, the U.S. Congress also passed the first U.S. peacetime conscription act.

In March 1941, the U.S. Congress then passed the Lend-Lease Act. This act empowered the president to transfer, sell, lend, or lease war supplies to any nation who it was deemed to be in the interests of American security. In July 1940, the export of war materials to Japan was forbidden by the U.S. State Department.

Pearl Harbor

On 7 December 1941, while a special Japanese envoy was in Washington, DC, ostensibly on a mission to negotiate an understanding over affairs in the Pacific, the Japanese government launched a surprise bombing attack by air on the U.S. naval base at Pearl Harbor in the Hawaiian Islands. On the following day, at the request of the president, Congress declared a state of war between the United States and Japan. On 11 December, Germany and Italy declared war on the United States.

It has long been acknowledged fact that the American intelligence services know of the attack before it was to happen, and it has been alleged that the attack was deliberately allowed to happen to push America into the war. While this may be a trifle far fetched, certainly the preparations the American government had made to enter the war bears out a belief that they were committed to entering it against Nazi Germany at the first available opportunity.

Segregated Army

Despite the proclaimed opposition to Nazi racial policies, the American army still segregated its Black soldiers from its White soldiers, and took every effort to keep them separate even when they were deployed in Europe.

On several occasions while stationed in England during the war, White and Black American troops were actually involved in gun fights with each other in villages in Oxfordshire and Wales, usually over the Black soldiers' attempts to date White English women. Finally an American army order was given that White and Black soldiers be given evening passes on different evenings to try and stop such racial incidents.

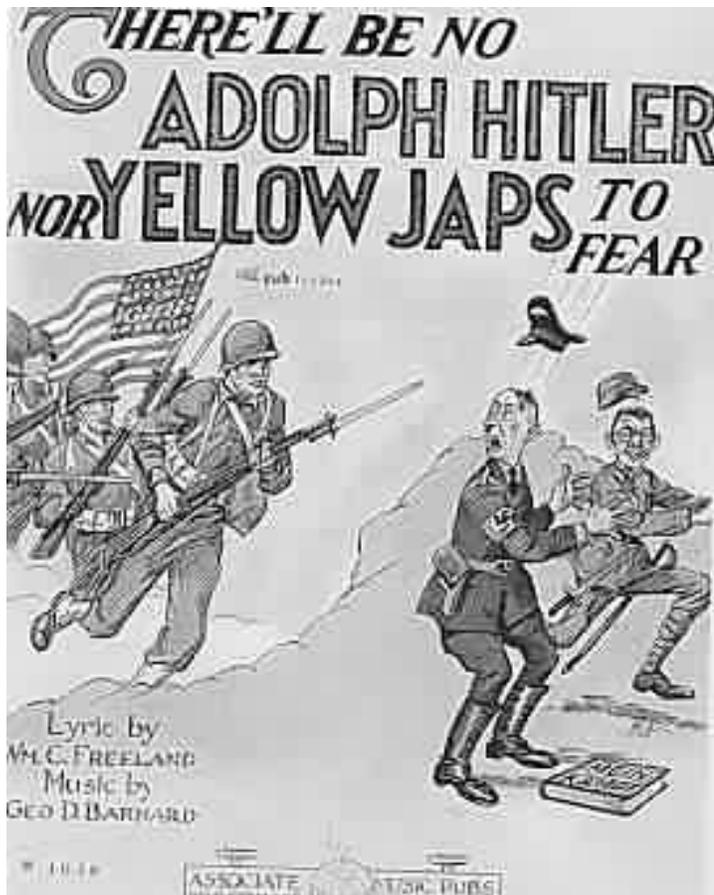
Japanese Internment

Another blatantly racially motivated act was the decision by the American government, signed by special order of Roosevelt himself, to arrest every single Japanese person in America (numbering some 112,000 individuals) and to place them into concentration camps in the American interior. At the time this was a perfectly justifiable action, given that Japanese had already proven their duplicity in attacking Pearl Harbor whilst simultaneously sending a delegation to Washington DC to discuss matters; and the American government was quite correct to detain the Japanese within its borders in order to prevent any possible outbreaks of sabotage on the American mainland itself. (This policy was also followed by all the major powers in the Second World War, with the British detaining every single

Italian person in Britain in 1940).

"Yellow Japs"

American war propaganda also played the racial card, with Japanese racial features being portrayed in exaggerated ways which would have made put any Nazi propagandist to shame. The savage maltreatment of White prisoners of war by the Japanese (which routinely included all manner of torture, beheading and forced labor and starvation) all served to justify the whipping up of racially derisive propaganda for consumption by the White masses in America and Britain.



Yellow Japs: despite officially condemning Nazi racism, the American government was quick to play the race card to motivate its people against Japan. On the left, a popular musical of the time; and on the left, a poster from Texaco showing a Japanese soldier with grossly exaggerated racial features.

The duplicity of modern politics was also dramatically revealed by the American government during the war: while deploring Nazi dictatorship, Roosevelt was quite happy to ally himself with the Communist dictator, Joseph Stalin. The mighty American industrial machine became called the "arsenal of democracy" - certainly it is doubtful if the Soviet army would have been able to recover from the initial German invasion of that country if American materials had not flooded in to bolster the Communist war effort (the most outstanding example of this was captured inadvertently in a posed photograph of the first Soviet army tank officer to enter Vienna early in 1945: the officer was photographed next to his vehicle: an American Sherman tank.)

Roosevelt's Fourth Election and Death

In the presidential campaign of 1944, Roosevelt ran for a record fourth term, once again easily winning despite concern that the principle of only two terms per president was being badly violated. After Roosevelt's fourth term was ended by his death from a brain hemorrhage in April 1945, the constitution was changed to legally limit the maximum terms of office of an American president to two. Another important legacy of Roosevelt was the preparatory work done by his administration for the founding of the United Nations Organization, which occurred after his death.

War Against Japan

While Germany surrendered in May 1945, in the Pacific, the American army had been fighting a difficult and protracted war against the Japanese, being forced to island hop at great cost in human lives. The Japanese generally fought to the death, and very few prisoners were taken until right at the end of the war.

The bravery of the American soldiers in the Pacific conflict became legendary: the most enduring image of that theater of conflict came with the photograph of American troops raising the American flag over the island of Iwo Jima, captured after weeks of desperate hand to hand fighting with the Japanese.

The Atom Bomb

By August 1945 American scientists had perfected a new and powerful weapon: the atom bomb. Faced with the choice of either committing thousands, or perhaps hundreds of thousands of American lives to a successful invasion of the Japanese homeland in order to bring about a conclusion to the war; or dropping several atom bombs on Japan with the resulting heavy civilian casualties, the American president Harold Truman, who had replaced Roosevelt, decided to drop the atom bomb, first on Hiroshima and then on Nagasaki. The Japanese surrendered five days after the second bomb was dropped.

American Industrial Power Decisive

American power had played the leading, and most likely conclusive, role in defeating the German/Italian/Japanese alliance in World War Two. After this, America would increasingly assume the role of world policeman, first as defender of the West during the cold war and then afterwards as the only single remaining strong power after the collapse of the Soviet Union.

Blacks in America 1870 - 1945

The history of America's Blacks from the time of the end of the Reconstruction period to the end of the Second World War is marked by three main phases: first a period of intense disenfranchisement; then a period of segregation; and then a wave of serious race riots which threatened at one stage to erupt into open race war in the largest American cities.

Disenfranchisement

The disenfranchisement process was started by the White Southern Democrat state governments when they introduced literacy tests in order to obtain qualified voters rolls. Although this process excluded a number of Whites, the hardest hit were the Blacks.

In this way, the number of Black voters in Mississippi before 1890, stood at about 190,000; by 1898, this had been reduced by a simple literacy test to just a few thousand. In virtually every state a similar process was followed: in 1896, there were 130,344 Blacks registered to vote in Louisiana; by 1900, the new Louisiana constitution had reduced that number to 5320.

Only 3000 Blacks in Alabama were registered to vote out of the more than 180,000 black men of voting age in 1900.

The flip side to this policy - an aspect which is never raised because it is politically incorrect to do so - is that these figures serve as a stark reminder of the level of education of the American Black population; this combined with the fact that illiterate Whites, also numbering in their thousands, were also discriminated against in exactly the same fashion, gave the state governments the ammunition to make the policy publicly justifiable at the time.

Separate but Equal

The Southern Democrat state governments also implemented a program of segregation. Finally a railway coach segregation issue was taken to the US Supreme Court in 1896. In a famous decision known as Plessy v. Ferguson, the court approved separate public facilities for Blacks, holding that "separate but equal" accommodations were constitutional. The Plessy doctrine provided constitutional protection for segregation for the next 50 years.

After 1900 the legislation enforcing segregation was carried to new heights:

- a 1914 Louisiana statute required separate entrances at circuses for Blacks and Whites;
- a 1915 Oklahoma law segregated telephone booths;
- a 1920 Mississippi law made it a crime to advocate or publish "arguments or suggestions in favor of social equality or of intermarriage between Whites and Negroes."
- Arkansas provided for segregation at race tracks;
- Texas prohibited integrated boxing matches;
- All states had segregated schools; and
- All states prohibited mixed race marriages.

Segregation was not, as is commonly believed, restricted to the south. In 1910, the northern city of

Baltimore in Maryland became the first city in America to officially delineate separate Black and White suburbs, and was followed by Dallas, Texas, Greensboro, North Carolina, Louisville, Kentucky, Norfolk, Virginia, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, Richmond, Virginia, Roanoke, Virginia, and St. Louis, Missouri.

The policy of segregation was carried out at the highest level: when Woodrow Wilson became president in 1913, the first action he took upon arriving in Washington DC, was to order the segregation of all federal facilities in the American capital.

Race Riots

American society was almost torn apart from the south to the north in a series of race riots which were the most serious racial disturbances since the Reconstruction period, and would only be surpassed by the race riots of the 1960s and 1980s in that country.

The primary cause of the race riots was usually the result of a particular incident, most often a criminal act by members of one or another of the races. However, the sheer fact that such incidents could spark off massive riots was by itself an indication of the underlying racial tensions which boiled underneath the society at the time.

- 1898: Several Blacks and Whites die in racial riots in Wilmington, North Carolina;
- 1906: In a repeat of the incident in Wilmington, dozens of Blacks and Whites are killed in several days racial rioting in Atlanta, Georgia;
- 1908: A race riot occurs in Springfield, Illinois, the home of Abraham Lincoln. Two vicious Black on White murders spark off a White riot during which a White crowd kills two Blacks and burns down a crime infested Black suburb known as the "Badlands."
- 1917: A race riot occurs in St. Louis, Illinois; some 40 people, mainly Blacks, are killed in the violence;
- 1917: A Black army battalion goes amok in Houston, using firearms against White civilians. Two Blacks and eleven Whites are killed in the fighting. Some 63 Black soldiers are court marshaled and thirteen are hanged as a result;
- 1918: A Black riot in Chester, Pennsylvania, spreads out to attack White passersby: two Whites are killed and three Blacks are shot by police;
- 1918: The riot in Chester spreads to Philadelphia in Pennsylvania. One White is killed and three Blacks are shot by police;
- 1919: The first of the infamous "Red Summer" race riots occur. Eventually 26 different riots take place between April and October. These included disturbances in the following areas:
 - May - Charleston, South Carolina;

- July - Gregg and Longview counties, Texas;
- July - Washington, D. C.;
- July - Chicago; this was the worst of the 1919 riots. Sparked off when some Whites threw a few stones at a Black swimming in Lake Michigan; the Black swimmer subsequently drowned. The police refused to arrest the stone throwers as there was no link between the stone throwing and the drowning. Dissatisfied, a Black mob then went on a rampage in Chicago for several days, resulting in 38 deaths;
- July - Knoxville, Tennessee;
- July - Omaha, Nebraska;
- October 1-3 - Elaine and Phillips counties, Alabama;
- 1921: In June, a serious race riot occurs in Tulsa, Oklahoma, involving Whites and Blacks: 21 Whites and 60 Blacks are killed;
- 1943: Conflicts over housing and jobs develop between Black and White workers, breaking out into open racial conflict in Detroit, resulting in the deaths of 25 Blacks and nine Whites before federal troops restore order.

The Chinese in America

During the last quarter of the 19th century, as the railways expanded down through California, increasing numbers of Chinese laborers were imported to the state from the Far East by the railway companies, knowing that they could be paid less than White laborers in California itself. This led to a considerable amount of discontent amongst White workers in California, especially when it became obvious that the Chinese laborers were seriously affecting the unemployment rate amongst Whites.

Under the fiery leadership of the Irish born laborer Denis Kearney, White workers formed the Workingmen's Party of California in 1877: shortly thereafter a number of anti-Chinese riots took place. The Workingmen's Party attracted sufficient electoral support to ensure that California passed laws limiting the number of Chinese allowed into the state. This was followed in 1880, by the US Congress passing a law regulating Chinese immigration - and in 1882, the US Congress banned all Chinese immigration for ten years.

The Japanese in America

Japanese laborers had also initially been drawn to the California labor market, as had the Chinese. Concern over the continued Asian immigration led the San Francisco Board of Education to announce in 1906, that as from that year, Japanese students would have to attend a Chinese school, along with Korean children.

The Japanese government protested - not at its citizens being segregated from Whites, but for being put together with the Chinese and Koreans - and the matter caused an international incident between the two countries. President Theodore Roosevelt managed to persuade the San Francisco board to reverse their policy decision; in exchange he entered into a "gentleman's agreement" on immigration between Japan and America which effectively stopped most Japanese immigration.

Webb Act of 1913

Concern at rising levels of Asian immigration caused the government of the state of California (to where many Japanese immigrants were aiming) to pass the Webb Act in 1913, by which Japanese as a race were denied the right to acquire land or long leaseholds in that state. Japan protested that this act violated rights given it by treaty with the national government, but the federal government disclaimed the power to interfere with state laws such as the act in question.

Finally in 1924, Asian immigration was stopped entirely. A California law, which was still in force in the 1940s, authorized the segregation in the public schools of children of Japanese, Chinese, Indian, and South or Southeast Asian ancestry.

All Japanese Interned

As World War II approached, anti-Japanese feelings increased further. When Japan attacked Pearl Harbor in Hawaii, on 7 December 1941, plans were made to prevent the activities of a suspected fifth column inside the 112,000 strong Japanese population in California - of whom only 70,000 were American citizens. On 19 February 1942, President Franklin Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066, which ordered the arrest and transportation of all 112,000 Japanese in America to concentration camps in the Midwest.

Eugenics

During the last part of the nineteenth century and the early part of the twentieth century, America became the world's center for racial science. By the time that Theodore Roosevelt became president of America in 1901, and lasting right until the beginning of the Second World War in 1939, explicitly racial policies were followed by virtually all American presidents.

When D.W. Griffith's classic 1915 film, *Birth of a Nation*, which told the story of the reconstruction period and the rise of the original Ku Klux Klan, was publicly praised by American president Woodrow Wilson, the film was an immediate hit, with audiences all over America flocking to see the epic.

Madison Grant

The chief racial theorist at the time in America was Madison Grant (1865-1937) who counted amongst his personal friends at least two American presidents. Grant wrote two of the most influential works of American racialism: *The Passing of the Great Race* (1916) and *The Conquest of a Continent* (1933). In both these books Grant expounded on racial anthropology and the need for eugenics - or racial improvement by selective breeding (in the same way that specific breeds of animals are reared).

In his book, *The Passing of the Great Race*, Grant called for a halt to Nonwhite immigration into the United States. The book was an international best seller, being favorably reviewed by *Science*, the journal of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and numerous other equally influential publications.

Sterilization Laws

Grant's work sparked off a wave of research into race in America: by 1921, at least eight other major works had been published - all overnight successes, and all proposing eugenics and a ban on Nonwhite immigration. By 1921, the effect of all these works had filtered down into society: twenty-four states passed laws encouraging sterilization of those who were retarded, insane, or had criminal records.

Lothrop Stoddard

American president Warren G. Harding, publicly praised eugenicist Lothrop Stoddard's book, *The Rising Tide of Color*, at a public speech on 26 October 1922; this was followed the same year by the appointment of one of Grant's compatriots, Harry Laughlin, as an expert witness on eugenics and racial differences in IQ (as had been measured in the U.S. military) by the U.S Congress subcommittee on Immigration.

1924 Immigration Law

A huge wave of immigrants to the United States occurred between the 1840s and the 1920s. During this era, approximately 37 million immigrants arrived in the United States. Census figures indicate that about 6 million Germans, 4.5 million Irish, 4.75 million Italians, 4.2 million people from England, Scotland and Wales, approximately the same number from the Austro-Hungarian Empire, 2.3 million Scandinavians, and 3.3 million people from Russia and the Baltic states entered the United States.

Between the 1840s and the 1870s, Germans and Irish groups predominated. Between 1854 and 1892, more Germans arrived in any given year than any other ethnic group, except for three years when the Irish predominated.

Starting in 1880 however, the waves of immigrants started to come increasingly from Eastern Europe: millions of Eastern European Jews and Southern Europeans, all considerably "darker" than the original White settlers in America who had all virtually exclusively come from the Nordic sub-racial dominated countries of Northern and Western Europe.

The influx of Southern Europeans in particular was opposed by the American eugenicists, and became the subject of much work and investigation. The end result of this work, combined with the earlier investigations and evidence by Harry Laughlin, produced the 1924 Immigration law. In 1924, the overwhelming majority of scientific opinion put before the Congress led to the Johnson Act of 1924, which cut down to little less than a tiny trickle the number of immigrants into America, limiting those who did enter to those of specific Northern and Western European ancestry only.

This law remained in force until 1965. Grant was acknowledged as the father of these immigration

laws; and he went on to found the American Eugenics Society with Laughlin, the U.S. Congress appointed eugenics advisor.

First World Eugenics Conference

The science of Eugenics became international: the First World Eugenics Congress was held in London in 1912. The later British prime minister, Winston Churchill, was one of the official sponsors, with the then British prime minister, Arthur Balfour, delivering the inaugural address.

Second World Eugenics Congress

The Second Eugenics Congress was hosted by the American Museum of Natural History in New York, with more than 300 delegates from all over the world - except Germany, as that country was still ostracized after the First World War. The guest list was impressive: including the future American President Herbert Hoover and the scientific genius Alexander Graham Bell, who was also the Congress's honorary president, amongst many others.

Third World Eugenics Congress

The third World Eugenics Congress - and the last - was held at the American Museum of Natural History in New York again in 1932, where prominent attendees included Dr. J. Harvey-Kellog (from Kellog's cereals) and Leonard Darwin, son of Charles Darwin, the developer of the theory of evolution.

The Suppression of American Eugenics

Grant's second major work then appeared in 1933: *The Conquest of a Continent*, detailing the racial make-up of the United States and warning that racial integration would cause modern America to disappear. The book, published by the well known Scribner and Sons publishing house, became the focus of a boycott organized mainly by the Jewish Anti-Defamation League.

This occurred despite Grant making no specific remarks about Jews in the book: but by this time the Nazi Party had come to power in Germany and the American racist movement was to a large extent held responsible for helping to prepare the scientific background to Nazi policy, and as such the propaganda mills were turned against Grant as much as they were turned against the Nazis.

Finally the Jewish anthropologist, Franz Boas, launched an all-out campaign against eugenics. Combined with the propaganda linking Grant's work to the openly anti-Jewish Nazi government in Germany, fewer and fewer public figures were prepared to associate themselves with eugenics, and by the end of the Second World War the science had been successfully suppressed in America.

After World War II, the US Congress passed laws allowing those who had been persecuted under the Nazi occupation of Europe free entry into America: A minimum of 500,000 and very likely far more Jews and others streamed in under the Displaced Persons Acts of 1948 and 1950, and the Refugee Relief Act of 1953. The Asiatic Barred Zone was only lifted in the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952, which also for the first time allowed immigration for every country in the world.

The American Dream

Nonetheless, by the end of the Second World War the United States of America remained as racially divided as ever. Racial politics continued to set the agenda for all major policy developments: the American Dream was still aspired to by all, but only remained a reality for a few.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Fifty Five

Canada

The history of Canada's occupation by Whites was not marked by the prolonged race wars which accompanied the settlement of America. Rather the indigenous peoples - also Amerinds - were pushed out by masses of White immigrants - an almost peaceful conquest which contains huge lessons in itself: not all population displacements are the result of violent conquest, but the end result is the same.

First White Settlements

The first Whites to set foot on what later became known as Canada were the Vikings who established a settlement under Leif Ericson in Newfoundland around the year 1,000 AD. The Vikings did not however stay: either through conflict with the Amerinds or other difficulties, White contact with North America was lost until the 15th century.

John Cabot

In search of a route to the East, the White explorer John Cabot, a Venetian in the service of England, sailed to Newfoundland in 1497. He was soon followed by Portuguese and other explorers who were seeking a water route to Asia through or around North America. In 1576, Martin Frobisher sailed to Baffin Island. In 1585, John Davis found and named Davis Strait. In 1610, Henry Hudson sailed into Hudson Bay. Hudson was marooned there by his mutinous crew, and Sir Thomas Button's unsuccessful search for him (1612-1613) confirmed that there was no western exit from the bay.

Jacques Cartier

In 1534, Francis I, King of France, dispatched Jacques Cartier to seek the Northwest Passage in the region Cabot had explored. Sailing beyond Newfoundland, Cartier found the Gulf of Saint Lawrence. He launched a further three voyages to the gulf (1534, 1535 and 1541) but still failed to find a way around the continent. In 1535, he explored the Saint Lawrence river as far as the modern day city of Montreal, and spent winter at the site of the present day city of Quebec.

English Settlement

During the seventeenth century, European fishermen sailed to the territory to hunt whales and cod which existed in large numbers off the Canadian coast. Most attempts to found settlements however failed, with only a handful surviving past a few winters. One of those that did survive was St. John's harbor in Newfoundland, and in 1583, that territory was officially annexed to England.

First Amerind Trade Contacts

In the 1600s, permanent English communities grew up around Newfoundland's Avalon peninsula, and French communities grew up on the island's south coast. The first commercial contact with Canadian Amerinds was also started: the primary trade being animal furs. Initially then, there was little conflict between the Whites and the Amerinds in Canada: the White population was simply too small and spread out.

As in virtually all of the new lands, the White arrival brought with it new diseases previously unknown to the locals. Although exact figures are unknown (as the Amerinds themselves kept no records) a large number of Canadian Amerinds died out as a result of diseases to which they had no resistance between the years 1500 and 1700.

French and British

From 1600 however, the French started seriously competing with the British for land in North America. A huge region, to become known as New France, was claimed by the French: this territory stretched from the St. Lawrence River basin, Acadia (now the Maritime provinces), the island of Newfoundland (shared unwillingly with the English), and later Louisiana (along the Mississippi River valley, right down to the Gulf of Mexico).

Although France formally claimed these territories, relatively few White Frenchmen actually settled there: the Amerinds continued undisturbed, mostly engaging in trade with the scattered French outposts and no more. In 1604, a French commercial colonizing operation, based on the fur trade, was set under one Pierre du Guast, in Acadia. It did not do well, with half of the settlers dying of malnutrition in the first year, and it was a long time before the settlement was anywhere near self sufficient.

In 1608, Samuel de Champlain, another White Frenchman, founded a settlement at Quebec on the Saint Lawrence River. Thereafter French settlers began to concentrate on that area at the expense of other regions: the origin of the Quebecois or French Canadian settlement.

The Company of One Hundred Associates

The French government, under the able hand of Cardinal Richelieu, the chief minister to King Louis XIII, established a huge commercial enterprise, the Company of One Hundred Associates in 1627. This company had the sole purpose of exploiting the trade potential of the entire New France region.

Under the company, the Canada colony continued to grow and more settlements were founded, notably at Montreal in 1642. As part of their internal arrangements for the fur trade, the French had entered into a formal alliance with a number of Amerind tribes, known as the Huron confederacy. The Hurons were however severely beaten and scattered by another Amerind tribe, the Iroquois, in 1649. New France's fur trade was devastated, and Montreal and Quebec were exposed to attack. The danger was so great that for a time the French considered abandoning New France.

However, other fur trading partners were found, and the colony survived, with much of the interior having been mapped and explored, if not settled by Whites, by the 1650's.

The influx of Whites remained however tiny: in 1663, New France had only 3,000 White settlers. In

that year the French government disbanded the Company of One Hundred Associates, and established New France as a province of France ruled directly by a governor general in Quebec.

French Fight First Race War in Canada

This constitutional development marked a sea change in the demographics: a military force some 1,200 strong, arrived in 1665 to put an end to the Iroquois threat, and the French engaged in their very first racial war on North American territory. After severely beating the Iroquois, who were forced to sue for peace, the French army established an increased military presence.

Of the original 1,200 strong army, some 400 soldiers stayed on to settle in the country. This was followed by the French government formally sponsoring White immigration, including that of some 700 unmarried White women: by 1681, there were 10,000 settlers reported on the census in the territory, an increase of 7,000 in 11 years.

In 1664, a new French company, the Company of the West Indies, was formed to organize the fur trade. The British soon established a rival company; in 1670, the Hudson's Bay Company was given a monopoly by the British government to trade in the Hudson Bay area. In 1682, French explorers, traders and missionaries had penetrated as far south as the Gulf of Mexico, and by 1700, the French had built a series of forts linking the Saint Lawrence settlement with the town of Louisiana at the mouth of the Mississippi River.

The Mutis

Increased French governmental control - particularly in the issuing of fur trading licenses - led a number of young Frenchmen to spend more and more time away from the main settlements in the forests: soon they started intermarrying with Amerinds. It is estimated that by 1680, as many as 10 percent of all Frenchmen in New France were living outside the settlements, and a large number of these had taken Amerind wives. Their mixed-race descendants stayed in the fur trade and became the Mutis (French for "mixed") group which is still officially classed as a native people by the modern Canadian government.

The British and Amerinds Make War on the French

Growing rivalry between France and Britain led to a series of wars in the 1680's known as the French and Indian Wars. At the time, Britain and France were involved in a general war in Europe, and the after effects played out in the colonies in North America.

The British had managed to ally themselves to the long time French foes, the Amerind Iroquois, and together forces from these two groups attacked the French settlements along the Saint Lawrence River between 1689 and 1697 (known as King William's war). After ten years of inconclusive battles which descended into virtual guerrilla warfare, the warring parties signed a peace treaty (the Peace of Ryswick) in 1697. This treaty confirmed each territory's borders as they were before the conflict had started.

In 1701, the Iroquois made a comprehensive peace with New France and remained neutral in future conflicts between Britain and France.

In 1702, a new war, Queen Anne's War, broke out between France and Britain, which ended disastrously for France: beaten, she was forced to cede major parts of her North American territories to the British, losing Newfoundland, Acadia and keeping the interior regions.

White Population Growth

In the peaceful decades that followed, New France's White population continued to grow and prosper, from 18,000 people in 1713, to 40,000 in 1737, and 55,000 in 1755. However, new France's population never reached the size of the thirteen British controlled colonies in the south: this was because the French fur traders for the greatest part let the Amerinds do the actual catching of the animals, with the French only buying the pelts and exporting them to Europe.

In this way employment was never created for masses of White settlers, unlike the situation in what became the United States of America.

The French and Indian War

With the outbreak of the conflict between France and Britain known as the French and Indian War, Britain moved decisively against French interests in North America. In 1755, the British took control of Nova Scotia, seizing the 100 year old French colony of Acadia. The 7,000 French inhabitants were scattered; some went back to France, others retreated into the interior while some went south to the town of Louisiana, where their descendants became known as Cajuns, some of whom mixed with local Amerinds.

In 1764, the British allowed some of the Acadians to return, and several thousand did take up the offer. However, the British did not have everything their own way: through clever alliances with Amerinds and skillful defense tactics, the French armed forces of a few thousand men forced Britain to deploy an army of over 20,000 men for several years before all the major French settlements were overrun.

Finally in 1759, Quebec was taken by the British, and Montreal fell the next year. By the year 1760 Britain had established her supremacy over the French in Canada - but the Amerind tribes, who had largely sided with the French, fought on.

Amerind Wars

In 1763, Amerind forces attacked the western outposts of the former territory of New France, where British troops had recently replaced the French. (Most of these posts were in the central parts of New France, which now form the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin.) The Amerinds in these areas resented the British occupation, as they saw that unlike the White French, the British were intent on seizing the land for White settlement.

The result was that Amerind tribes in these regions joined the war against the British, even though many had been neutral during the war with the French. In this way Britain found itself switching from fighting the White French into fighting a race war with the Amerinds of Midwest America.

The Amerind attacks were however too weak to break the British troops - after several failed attempts to break the British lines the Amerind attackers evaporated and the war fizzled out. The French and Indian War was settled by the Treaty of Paris in 1763, in terms of which all of New France, with the exception of Western Louisiana, was ceded to Britain.

This added 65,000 White Frenchmen to the White British colonies in North America, and virtually doubled the size of the original British colonies in one swoop.

In 1763, the British king George III tried to pacify the Amerinds with a Royal Proclamation which recognized Amerind sovereignty with certain qualifications, and by which Britain undertook to consult with Amerind tribes before allowing White settlers to occupy new lands. The land between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River, including Canada outside the lower Saint Lawrence valley, was set aside as a reserve.

The British could not however win: the arrangement was disputed by the White settlers in the American colonies who saw their chances of acquiring new land being destroyed.

New White Immigration

The British also established a governor at Quebec, and a new wave of White immigration started, with large Irish and English settlements being established in Newfoundland in particular. The territory of Nova Scotia had also steadily been gaining White settlers: its capital, Halifax, became the site of the first newspaper in Canada (1752) and of the first elected assembly (1758).

After 1770, migration from the highlands of Scotland produced a substantial Scottish community in the region. In Quebec the French community carried on as before, with very little changes being brought on day to day life by the new British rule.

The American Revolution

Fifteen years after the French had been driven out of Canada, the American colonies came out in revolt against British rule in the American War of Independence. It was only logical that the American revolutionaries would drive against the British in Canada: in 1775, American forces invaded Nova Scotia, Montreal and Quebec.

They found however little support amongst the local White population, who remained loyal to the British crown. The British forces were able to drive the Americans off Canadian territory in 1776.

For the rest of the war, the settlements in Canada were used by Britain as launching pads for its campaigns against the Americans. When the Americans finally won their independence in 1783, Canada remained under British control, and North America was effectively divided into two. The British territory was immediately filled up with some 40,000 loyalists who fled from the Americans. Of this number, fully a third (13,000) were Blacks, mostly escaped slaves who had joined the British cause.

Part of the Amerind Iroquois collection of tribes had also allied themselves with the British against the

Americans, and also joined the refugee streams which entered Canada over the next few years. The British rewarded the loyalist refugees with large grants of land in Canada: the tripling of the population of Nova Scotia caused two new colonies to be created out of the territory: New Brunswick and Cape Breton Island.

The influx of loyalists also upset the delicate balance which had been achieved between the French community in Quebec and the British government: soon that territory had to be divided into a French and English region, laying the foundation for a French speaking separatist movement which persisted for longer than two centuries.

Expansion

In the interim large areas of Canada had been opened up by White explorers: Sir Alexander Mackenzie followed the Mackenzie River to the Arctic Ocean in 1789, and in 1793 he reached the Pacific. Simon Fraser reached the mouth of the Fraser River, near modern Vancouver, British Columbia, in 1808, while David Thompson followed the Columbia River to its mouth in 1811.

Russian and Spanish traders then tried to establish settlements on the Pacific coast to capitalize on the fur trade, but the British drove them out after what is now British Columbia was explored and claimed for Britain by captains James Cook (1778) and George Vancouver (1792).

The War of 1812

In 1812, the United States declared war on Great Britain, which was again fighting a global war against France. Both Britain and France had confiscated U.S. ships that were attempting to trade with the other side. The War of Independence only having ended some 39 years previously, the Americans still felt they could take Britain on, and war was declared.

Once again American forces crossed the Canadian American border: but on the other side lay an alliance of British soldiers, state militia and Amerinds (the Shawnee tribe, whom the Americans had correctly accused the British of arming). The American forces were soundly defeated, and within a few months the British general Isaac Brock had not only thrown the Americans out, but had also captured the city of Detroit.

Launching a counter attack in 1813, the Americans failed in an attempt to capture Montreal after suffering defeats at the hands of the British forces at the battles of Crysler's Farm and Chateauguay. Then the American navy, greatly built up since the War of Independence, defeated a British fleet at Put-in-Bay on Lake Erie and American forces occupied and burnt York (now called Toronto).

Despite this, the British forces once again effectively counter attacked, driving the Americans out and finally sacking Washington DC itself by the end of the war in 1815.

Westward Settlement

After the war, westward expansion continued apace, spurred on by a one million strong wave of White settlers from England, Scotland and Ireland. The west was opened: in 1843, the town of Fort Victoria

(now the capital of British Columbia) was established. By the 1840s, Canada's White population was in excess of 1.5 million people: the waves of White immigrants made the Amerind tribes into outright minorities within a few decades.

Land cession treaties were however signed with many of the larger tribes guaranteeing them certain reserved areas. The Fraser River gold rush of 1858, brought new settlers and new interest to the Pacific coast. The colony of British Columbia was formed that year - and for the first time a number of Chinese were allowed in as settlers. At this stage though, the Amerind population on the Pacific coast still outnumbered all other groups.

The Rebellions of 1837

In an attempt to prevent a Canadian War of Independence, the British instituted even tighter controls over Canada than what had been the case with the Americans. Soon however the Canadian settlers began demanding greater freedoms like their neighbors to the south.

The French speaking inhabitants of Quebec, who had existed uneasily with the British from the beginning, demanded complete democratic reform, and when this was denied, an armed rebellion broke out in 1837. In November of that year Canadian republicans - mostly French speakers - defeated a British force at Saint-Denis, but two weeks later the British quelled the rebellion, defeating the main rebel force at the Battle of Saint-Eustache, in which several hundred were killed on both sides. Unrest continued, flaring up once again a year later, which was also suppressed by British force of arms.

In the English speaking parts of Canada there occurred a small rebellion as well: in December 1837 a tiny rebel force tried to seize Toronto. They were quickly defeated by loyal citizens and their leader, William Lyon Mackenzie, was forced to flee into exile in America with a number of supporters.

The Union Period, 1841-1867

Even though the rebellion was successfully suppressed, the British realized that reforms were urgently needed to prevent a recurrence. In 1841, the Act of Union (1840) formally created the province of Canada out of two of the territories formerly known as Upper and Lower Canada (English and French dominated respectively).

The purpose of the union was an attempt to assimilate the French and English speaking populations - an attempt at White unity which partly succeeded with the introduction of properly democratically elected legislatures forming majority party governments based on French and English speaking support bases. Britain retained authority for foreign affairs, defense, and other matters and still appointed the governors, but British North America had full local self-government with one of the broadest electoral franchises in the world at that time: all men could vote provided they held land worth a certain amount.

The Union period saw continued population growth, particularly in the Western territories. In the field of ship building, the abundant supplies of wood created a large ship building industry in Canada.

American Civil War

During the American Civil War (1861-1865), relations between Canada and the Federal government of the northern American states deteriorated because the British openly sympathized with the rebellious Confederates. In 1864, Confederate soldiers even used Canada as a base for a raid on Saint Albans in Vermont. They were arrested in Canada but were set free by a Montreal magistrate, engendering a further rash of bitter recriminations between Washington and Toronto.

Union

The increased threat of yet another conflict with America prompted the various territories making up British North America to seriously consider formal union. In 1864, a meeting of representatives from all the regions met at Charlottetown, deciding upon a confederation form of government, a move which was confirmed in October 1864, at a further meeting in Quebec.

At this Quebec Conference, delegates approved 72 points (known as the Seventy-two Resolutions) which became a draft constitution for a confederal system of government. Confederation did not confer full independence, as many Canadians still were fearful of further American invasions, and wished to keep British interests intact to ward off the threat.

As a result Britain once again retained control of foreign affairs and could theoretically veto any Canadian laws: the concept of a semi-autonomous dominion became the model on which virtually the entire British commonwealth was built. The act of confederation officially became law in July 1867, and the entire country came to be called the Dominion of Canada from that day on. Britain withdrew its last garrisons from Canada in 1871 and Canada achieved full independence in 1931.

Territorial Expansion

Westward expansion was the first major task undertaken by the first Canadian dominion government. In 1869, a fur company, the Hudson's Bay Company, sold to the government the lands now known as the Northwest Territories. This annexation was however violently resisted by the mixed race Mutis, who were correctly concerned that a new wave of White immigration would follow.

The Mutis organized what became known as the Red River rebellion and declared a provisional government for the Red River area. Negotiations resulted in Red River entering the Confederation as the province of Manitoba, with the Canadian government promising to reserve 1.4 million acres of land for the Mutis. Waves of White immigrants then did indeed follow and soon the Mutis became the minority they had foreseen. As a result, many of the Mutis migrated farther west to the Saskatchewan River valley.

The Northwest Rebellion (1885)

A second Mutis rising, the Northwest Rebellion, flared up in 1885, in the Saskatchewan valley as White settlement followed them into this region as well. Supported by a number of pure blood Amerinds (notably the Cree tribe), the Mutis attacked a White force at Fort Carleton, forcing them to retreat south.

The White government then poured troops westward on the new railroad, and the Mutis were defeated

at the battle of Batoche in May 1885, with the rebel Métis leader being captured and hanged for treason in November of that year.

Further Territorial Additions

The confederation soon expanded: British Columbia joined the confederation in 1871, with other territories being added piecemeal to the Canadian landscape for the next 80 years. The last additions were made in 1949, when the territories of Newfoundland and Labrador were finally added.

Canadian Amerinds Overrun by Immigration

In 1873, Canada created the Northwest Mounted Police, now the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, or Mounties, to administer the territories and keep order there. Part of their charter was to negotiate treaties with the Amerind tribes, with the intention of opening the Interior Plains to agriculture.

Eleven numbered treaties were signed with the Amerinds between 1850 and 1929, opening their lands to occupation. In general, the treaties provided some material compensation for transfer of lands to White settlers and provided for the establishment of reserves across the country.

By 1901, Canada's Amerind population was barely two percent of the population - some 100,000 individuals, a stark lesson of how quickly a race can be dispossessed of its land by the forces of immigration alone.

Chinese In Canada

In 1881, Chinese laborers were then imported to work on the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway, a private company supported by federal land grants and other assistance. The line was completed in 1885, and several thousand Chinese laborers stayed on in the country, despite the White government's strenuous efforts to keep them out. These efforts even included the introduction of a special Chinese head tax which for many years prevented many Chinese laborers from bringing their families to Canada.

After 1890, the Chinese were joined by Japanese immigrants who soon became prominent in the fishing industry. As in America, White workers objected to the Asian immigrants because they could be paid less and so doing undermined White standards of living. After a few anti-Asian riots, the provincial governments issued restrictions on Asian immigration on a local level. Shortly afterwards the central government enacted the Chinese Immigration Act of 1923 - within a year all Asian immigration was halted.

It was only in 1949 that Chinese and Japanese people in Canada were acknowledged as citizens and given voting rights.

The Klondike Gold Rush

In 1898, gold was discovered in the Klondike region of Yukon Territory, and thousands of people rushed there to search for gold. This created a new wave of prosperity, which combined with the

increasing industrialization of the country as a whole, served in turn as a further driver for yet more immigration. Within the first ten years of the 20th century, from 1900 to 1910, another one million immigrants flooded into Canada, the vast majority of them Whites from not only the traditional sources of the British Isles, but also from Eastern Europe, drawn by promises of free land.

A not insignificant number of the new émigrés were European Jews who settled into the trades in the large cities, and it was not long before pockets of anti-Semitic agitation started in the urban areas.

The majority of the new White immigrants however settled the open prairies and helped to establish in 1905 the largely farming based new territories of Alberta and Saskatchewan, which were created out of the Northwest Territories.

World War I

As Britain had control over Canada's foreign affairs, the British declaration of war on Germany in 1914 meant that Canada was automatically in the war without being consulted. Nonetheless, Canada eventually provided half a million men to fight in France - out of a population of just under 8 million - and Canadian troops had the unenviable honor of being the first Allied troops to suffer a poison gas attack at Ieper in Belgium - an engagement which saw 6,000 Canadian casualties.

Eventually some 60,000 Canadians died in the course of the war. As with the Australian and New Zealand territories, the First World War saw the final maturing of the Canadian identity.

In 1926, Britain formally acknowledged the equality of the dominions with Great Britain itself, and in 1931, the British Statute of Westminster confirmed that Canada was a sovereign state sharing a common monarch with Great Britain.

Great Depression

The Great Depression which followed affected Canada along with virtually all the Western nations: unemployment climbed to over a third of the population - and for the first time ever Canada officially stopped immigration and even deported non-Canadians who were claiming social welfare. The Canadian economy did not recover properly until the late 1930s, by which time the world was plunged into yet another war.

World War II

As with World War 1, the Canadians naturally sided with Britain when that country declared war on Germany for the second time in 25 years, in September 1939. The Canadian navy participated in the shipping wars of the North Atlantic against German submarines, and Canadian pilots flew in the Battle Of Britain and the later bombing raids over Germany. Canadian soldiers fought in Italy and participated in the D-Day landings in France in 1944. Eventually some 42,500 Canadians died in the course of the war.

As in America, once Japan entered the war in 1941, thousands of Japanese Canadians were arrested without trial, interned for the duration of the war and moved to concentration camps in the interior of

the country. The Canadian government seized the property of these Japanese families and sold it at public auction.

Post War Boom

The end of the Second World War saw the return of the boom years in Canada. Immigration was once again opened up and a combination of immigration from Europe (including many Germans fleeing their shattered homeland) combined with a dramatic increase in the number of births, saw Canada's population jump by 50 percent, from 12 million to 18 million between 1946 and 1961.

During this time, Canada contributed forces to the United Nations campaign to defend South Korea in the Korean War (1950-1953) and in 1950, the government began for the first time a program of foreign aid to selected Nonwhite countries, a policy which has continued to this day.

Quebec

After the war, the French separatist issue once again came to the fore, with a number of compromises being put forward all of which essentially entailed the province of Quebec staying in the union but acquiring special status. By 1970, the main Quebec separatist party, the Party Quebecois (PQ), had won nearly a quarter of the votes in its' home province.

In 1976, the PQ was elected as the provincial government of Quebec and after introducing some pro-French language measures, called a referendum on whether to proceed with further separatist actions. The vote was 60 percent against and the PQ was forced to place its separatist agenda on the back burner. In 1995, the PQ managed to hold a second referendum on the separatist issue: this time it was defeated by less than one percent of the vote (no votes : 50.4 percent; yes votes : 49.6 percent) indicating that ethnic divisions within Canada between White French and White English speakers were far from over.

The French Canadian separatists were accused of racism when one of their leaders made public note that the Nonwhite minorities in Quebec were, virtually to the last voter, opposed to French Canadian separatism.

Black Immigration

The first Blacks to enter Canada did so as slaves: the importation of Black slaves into French Canada from the West Indies was authorized by the French government in 1689. Slavery was abolished about one hundred years later, with Nova Scotia being the first colony to abolish the practice in 1787, followed by Ontario six years later.

When British troops burned Washington, the U.S. capital, in the War of 1812 (1812-1815), they brought back to Halifax many slaves who had sought refuge with them. Escape to Canada meant freedom, and thus it was a major destination of the so-called Underground Railroad, a network of secret routes by which U.S. abolitionists spirited slaves out of the American South.

Despite the apparent freedom offered to Blacks in British Canada, Nova Scotia and Ontario had

legally racially segregated public schools until the 1960s. In that decade, Canada opened immigration to new areas, and significant numbers of Blacks (mainly from the Caribbean) and Asians started entering the country.

In 1971 the government started funding Nonwhite ethnic organizations, festivals and second language instruction in schools within Canada itself.

The rise in Black immigration during the last twenty years of the 20th century from the Caribbean and Africa was not accompanied by any great rise in social status: Blacks remain the poorest and worst educated Canadians, being far outstripped by the much more recent Asian immigrants on all fields.

Amerind Territorial claims

Amerind territorial claims also resurfaced in the 1960's, spurred on by the climate created by the broader civil rights movements. In the 1960s, the state of Ottawa introduced a policy to end the special rights and status of Amerinds - but this policy was never implemented, being sabotaged by a Supreme Court decision following a case brought by an Amerind tribe, the Nisga'a of British Columbia.

This court decision held that Amerind rights to the land had been in place at the time of colonization, but the court was divided on whether those rights had been ended by White settlement.

Several treaties were subsequently concluded with Amerind tribes: in terms of one in 1984, the Inuit of the Mackenzie Delta, settled their title to 242,000 square kilometers; and another in 1992, settled the right of the Inuit of the eastern Arctic to 350,000 square kilometers of land and 36,000 square kilometers of subsurface mineral rights.

Further negotiations have sought separate agreements for virtually all the other major Amerind tribes, all of which confirmed their rights to large areas of land. However, not all disputes have been settled peacefully: in more than one case armed standoffs have ensued, with one of the most famous being the Mohawk blockade of Oka in Quebec in 1990.

Racial Consequences of the Settlement of Canada

The racial clashes which accompanied the settlement of Canada were not nearly as marked as those which accompanied the birth of the United States of America. This was because the numbers of Whites settling the area increased at a slower pace than in America, and the change in the demographic make-up was not as quick as it was to the south.

From this a valuable lesson can be learned: the history of Canada proves that armed conflict and violent dispossession is not always needed to engender the change in a territory's demographic make-up: it is possible also to achieve the same end by means of relatively peaceful immigration.

The last quarter of the 20th century has seen Canada become the focus for a large wave of Third World immigration: the extent and consequences of this are discussed in the last two chapters of this book.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Fifty Six

The White Man's Burden: White Settlements in Southern Africa

The establishment of White settlements in what later became South Africa and Rhodesia were different from those outposts established elsewhere in Africa during the colonial period, because it was only in Southern Africa that White numbers ever reached a large enough total for them to establish large scale settlements which seriously affected the balance of power.

The histories of South Africa and Rhodesia - the two largest White settlements, and the interrelated Portuguese colonies of Mozambique and Angola - all serve as valuable lessons in racial dynamics and as such are well worth looking at in some detail. In South Africa, a large White population had the chance to create their own state, but failed to do so due to their reliance on Black labor, which ultimately led to their submersion and downfall; while in Rhodesia, Mozambique and Angola, no serious efforts were ever made to establish majority White occupation in any particular area, with these states only surviving as long as they did through brute force and one of the most protracted and violent race wars since the invasion of Europe by Asians and Turks nearly 1000 years earlier.

South Africa

The first major permanent White settlement in Africa came in 1652, when a Dutch trading company, the Dutch East India Company sent one of its officials, Jan van Riebeeck, to what is now called Cape Town, to build a resupply station for company ships traveling to and from Asia. Around this station the first White settlement spread - and met the first Nonwhites, tribes of Hottentots and Bushmen who were happy to trade cattle with the new settlers.

First Farmers

By 1657, it became evident that the company's farming efforts were inadequate, so a small number of company employees were released from their contracts and given land to work as independent farmers supplying the company's needs. The first White farmers in Southern Africa - called Free Citizens - were created. Between 1680 and 1700, the Dutch encouraged White immigration in ever increasing numbers: Dutch, Germans and French Huguenots (Protestants escaping religious persecution by Catholics in France) all started arriving, quickly filling up the region surrounding Cape Town.

Bushmen Immigrate North

Relations with the native Hottentots and Bushmen were rocky from the start. First, their numbers were decimated by the introduction of European diseases to which they had no resistance, and then they were slowly squeezed out of the area surrounding Cape Town. As the Hottentots and Bushmen were nomads, there was no claimed land for the White settlers to seize, but as the number of White farms increased, so the roaming space of the natives grew smaller.

The White settlers soon began complaining about stock thefts and petty crimes committed by the Hottentots and Bushmen: short and one sided armed clashes then took place during which the Bushmen, who were never united, moved in large numbers north to what later became known as South West Africa, where their remnants have remained till modern times.

Slaves

During the second half of the 17th century, Malay slaves were imported from Dutch colonies in Asia to work in Cape Town, while during the same period a number of Black slaves were brought in from other parts of Africa (the nearest Black tribes at this stage were still some 1,000 kilometers from the Cape, slowly wandering southwards).

Mixed Marriages Prohibited

In 1682, the Dutch East India Company formally issued written instructions to the governor of the Cape colony at the time, one Simon van der Stel, to officially forbid all racial intermarriage following a number of marriages between early White settlers and freed slaves.

In 1685, the first law prohibiting inter racial marriages in the Cape was formally proclaimed, and a Whites only school had been established for the children of colonists. Eventually the remnants of the Hottentot population, the Malays and Black slaves and a number of Whites, mixed together to produce a mixed race group which later was to be called Cape Coloreds.

Boers

As the number of White settlers grew, so did the first inklings of a sense of national identity - exactly as had happened in all the other major White settlements in the new lands. Dutch was still the dominant language, and the Dutch word for farmer is boer. After many years the Whites who moved into the interior of the country who spoke a form of Old Dutch, began to be called Boers, and by this name they won world renown.

First Encounter with Blacks

The farming community began to push ever more eastward from Cape Town, crossing what is the Southern Cape and finally encountering the first major Black tribe, the Xhosa, in the present day Eastern Cape - some 1,000 kilometers from Cape Town - around 1770, some 120 years after the first White settlement was started.

The farmers who moved were called "Trek Boers" (trek meaning move) and they pushed further and further into the interior of the country, motivated partly by a desire to obtain new land but also by an increasing dissatisfaction with Dutch colonial rule at Cape Town.

After meeting the Xhosa in the Eastern Cape, both the eastward migration of the White Trek Boers and the southwards migrating Blacks came to a halt: on the Fish River border between the two racial groups, a series of nine racial wars took place over a space of nearly 70 years (starting in 1781 and only grinding to a halt in 1857), becoming known as the "Kaffir Wars". (Although the term "kaffir" has

of course come to be derogatory, the actual word itself is of Arabic origin, "khufi", meaning non Muslim, and thus equally applicable to Whites or any other racial group).

Race Wars and the Self Destruction of Xhosa Power

These race wars severely tested the resolve of the Trek Boers, and later the British settlers in the area, with many atrocities being committed by both sides, mostly in retaliation for earlier attacks, and often sparked off by cattle thefts.

Eventually the wars came to an end in 1857, after a Xhosa prophetess convinced virtually her entire tribe that a spirit had spoken to her and had instructed all the Xhosa to kill their cattle and destroy all their supplies.

On a certain day - 18 February 1857 - the sun would arise blood red in color and all the dead Xhosa warriors would rise from the dead and sweep all the Whites into the sea - a violently anti-White outpouring which was not unusual for the time.

In what turned out to be a major disaster for the Xhosa, they followed this prophetess' advice, destroyed their stores, killed virtually all their livestock and settled down to wait for their dead warriors to arise. Fortunately for the Whites, this was where the plan went wrong: on the appointed day nothing happened, and after several weeks, Xhosa power was broken by a combination of starvation and disillusionment.

The British in the Cape

The start of the conflict between Britain and France at the end of the 18th century saw Britain taking the strategically important step of militarily occupying the Cape: for fear that the Dutch would turn it over to the French and thereby cut the British sea route to the East.

The British occupied the Cape twice: once in 1795 (they withdrew a short while after) and the second time in 1806 (they stayed on that time). At the end of the Napoleonic Wars in Europe, Britain formally purchased the Cape from the Dutch for six million pounds and another colony was added to the growing British empire. In 1806, the Cape Colony had a White population of some 26,000 - and a slave population of some 30,000, with an estimated Cape Colored population of 20,000.

Mass British Settlement

The British takeover of the Cape saw several changes: the most important of which was the arrival in 1820 of over 3,000 British settlers in the Eastern Cape, recruited especially with British government financial aid to bolster the White population on the eastern border with the Xhosa, where the intermittent race wars were continually threatening to overwhelm the isolated White towns.

This influx of such a large number of English speakers - a near enough 12 percent increase in the total White population within a matter of weeks - soon caused a general Anglicization in the Cape which antagonized the still Dutch speaking Trek Boer population, although many who had stayed close to Cape Town did not object as vociferously as those out on the frontiers.

The Anglicization process also extended to the introduction of English laws: in 1822, English became the sole official language; in the same year, the Cape Colored population were included in the first labor laws and finally slavery itself was abolished in 1833. The British government offered compensation for the 35,000 slaves in the Cape Colony, as it was called then, to the Trek Boers - but this was only paid out in London, making it practically impossible for the majority of slave owners to collect their compensation.

The Great Trek

A combination of factors: the Anglicization policy, the introduction of English law and the then seemingly unending wars with the Xhosas created the dynamo which became known as the Great Trek.

From 1836 onwards, some 15,000 Trek Boer families packed up their goods into canvass covered wagons and set off for the interior, away from British rule. This Great Trek was the final catalyst for the formation of the people who became known as the Boers (the word Afrikaners was only developed late in the 19th century once the language spoken by the White non-English speakers had crystallized).

By the time the Great Trek was over, the Boers had been formed into a distinct national identity of their own, fiercely independent and strongly Calvinistic in religion.

The dangers and epic of the great Trek alone have filled many a book: the effort of having to cross the highest mountain range in Southern Africa, called the Drakensberg (the Dragon Mountains - a deserved name) in ox wagons; the necessity of having to create much of their raw material and many supplies along the way; and the trials and tribulations of doing all of this with entire families in tow, was a truly remarkable achievement, and the trek itself came to assume almost superhuman status and symbolism in the White Boer psyche.

A small group of Trekkers moved into the interior, into what became the Orange Free State and Transvaal, while a larger group crossed the Drakensberg mountains and decided to settle in what was to become Natal.

First Expeditions a Failure

Leaving their jumping off points in the central and eastern Cape, small groups of Whites set off for the interior, with only covered wagons, horses and their ingenuity to guide them as they trekked into the wild, untamed, unknown and dangerous interior.

The first small expedition, started in 1835, ended in complete failure. Jan van Rensburg's small party was ambushed and exterminated by Blacks on the Highveld. Yet another party, led by Louis Trichardt, barely survived attacks by Blacks and was then decimated by malaria, with a few desperately ill survivors finally struggling through to the Portuguese base at Lorenzo Marques (today Maputo).

The first two expeditions were therefore disastrous, producing a fatality rate of well over 80 per cent.

Nonetheless, the issues forcing the Boers on did not diminish, and slowly over the next two years support for a new migration grew.

Piet Retief

In 1837, the Port Elizabeth based Boer, Piet Retief, organized an expedition from Grahamstown, after issuing a manifesto outlining his reasons for undertaking the Trek into the interior. After joining with an expedition led by Andries Potgieter for the initial trek north, Retief and his party turned eastwards over the Drakensberg mountains (the Dragon Mountains) in a virtually superhuman effort of unparalleled endeavor and hardship. Little wonder then, that when they reached the apex of the Drakensberg, and the green lands of Natal stretched out before their eyes, they called the land Blydevooruitzicht, or Happy Prospects.

Dingaan

There was however one serious issue: the fierce and warlike Zulu tribe under the leadership of their ferocious chief, Dingaan already occupied the new land. While the bulk of Retief's party - which consisted mainly of women, children and aged men - encamped along the Blaukraans River, Retief led a party of 70 men and teenage boys on a peace mission to Dingaan at the latter's chief settlement, or kraal, called Umgungundlovu. The purpose of the mission was to try and peacefully negotiate land for the Trek party from the Zulus.

Dingaan however accused the Trekkers of stealing cattle from him; only after several weeks searching did Retief's party manage to locate the missing cattle (they had been stolen by a local chief called Siyonkella).

On 2 February 1837, the Boers returned to Umgungundlovu with the missing cattle: on 5 February, Dingaan and Retief signed a treaty (Dingaan signed it with a "X", as he was illiterate) giving the Boers land in Natal. After the signing of the agreement, the Zulus put on a dancing show and celebration.

In turn the White Boers gave a shooting and horse riding demonstration to the Blacks: confirming the reports Dingaan had already received about these White men who had sticks which could kill at a distance and who had magic beasts which could carry a rider at great speed.

The White Wizards

On the following day, 6 February, the 70 White men were up before daybreak. As they prepared to leave to return to their camp where their women and children were waiting, a Zulu messenger arrived. He carried with him a message from Dingaan asking that Retief and his men meet one more time inside the Zulu king's enclosure where the two parties would toast their successful negotiations and future friendship. The Whites agreed.

Retief and his men made their way to the Zulu king's inner enclosure. Before they entered the final ring of mud huts and reed walls, they were asked to leave their firearms stacked in a pile outside as a mark of respect to the king: foolishly they agreed, not suspecting that it was all an elaborate trap and that the Zulus had no intention of honoring their word. The treaty between Retief and Dingaan was still in the pouch the former was carrying.

As the White men entered the inner enclosure, the gate was closed behind them. Dingaan greeted the White men, and bid them sit before him. They then drank the crude sorghum beer offered to them, still unsuspecting and full of trust. In the inner enclosure were nearly two thousand Zulus in full combat gear: shields, spears and wooden clubs. Now they had the White men unarmed and outnumbered.

At Dingaan's command they began dancing, shouting and waving their Stone Age weapons in the air. The White men watched and listened. The Blacks then slowly started moving back and forth: each time advancing three steps and retreating two: gradually they crept closer and closer. At the point where they nearly touched the seated White men, Dingaan jumped up and shouted out "Kill the White Wizards!"

The Murder

Too late the Whites realized the treachery which had been played out upon them: a few jumped up and tried to defend themselves with their small hunting knives, but they were no match for the two thousand heavily armed Zulus. Some of them were strangled to death on the spot by crude ropes made of cut up animal skins: the rest were seized, and along with the bodies of their dead comrades, were dragged outside the royal camp to a hill next to Umgungundlovu, called Hlomo Amabuta, the Hill of Execution.

There the Blacks cruelly executed the remaining Whites, one by one, by clubbing and spearing them to death. Last to be killed was Retief himself, after having been forced to watch his own teenage son be clubbed to death.

Once dead, Retief's heart and liver were cut out of his body and ceremoniously presented to Dingaan as proof that the chief White wizard was dead.

The White Christian missionary, Francis Owen, whose mission station was situated on a hill overlooking Hlomo Amabuta, witnessed all these events. Despite the tragedy being played out before his eyes, the Christian Owen made no effort to warn Retief's party, encamped as they were only a few hours' ride away. Instead Owen fled to the British trading settlement at Port Natal (Durban) a few days later.

Whites Massacred

So it was that no news reached the Voortrekker camp of women, children and old men along the Blaukraans river for ten days: the last word they had received was that Retief had been successful in negotiating land from the Zulus and that everything was in order. An atmosphere of joviality prevailed in the camp: the Trek had paid off.

However, the reality was different: during the night of 16 February 1838, the Zulus struck. The Boers' camps were small, scattered and poorly defended. Filled with a false sense of security, they were easy targets for the 10,000 strong Zulu army sent to annihilate them. Attacking at 1:00 am in the morning, the Zulus fell upon the largely sleeping White camps.

The small camp of the Liebenberg family was quickly overrun and all of its inhabitants murdered as they slept. Next the Zulus made their way to the Bezuidenhout camp: Daniel Peter Bezuidenhout saw his wife, mother and sisters slaughtered by the Zulu spears and although badly wounded himself, he managed to escape and riding his horse, warn some of the neighboring settlements.

Still the Blacks pressed home the attack: entire families were killed, with one man grabbing his baby daughter and running for miles through the bush clutching his child to his chest, only to find that she was already dead, killed so efficiently by a spear that she had not even cried out. Finally some of the larger camps managed to draw their wagons into a defensive circle, or laager, and the Zulus were warded off.

But the cost had been frightful: nearly 300 Whites had been killed, including 41 men, 56 women and 185 children. Added to the 70 men killed with Retief, the Blacks had killed more than half of all the Whites in the entire Great Trek in Natal.



Zulus massacre White women, children and old men, Weenen, 1838.

Weenen

The scenes greeting the survivors as daylight broke on the 16 February were horrendous: where the Zulus had overwhelmed the White camps, entire wagons were drenched with gore. Johanna van der Merwe was found dead with 21 spear wounds; Catherina Prinsloo with 17. Elizabeth Smit lay dead, her breast hacked off, with her three-day-old baby beside her. Anna Elizabeth Steenkamp described in her diary a wagon filled with 50 corpses, most of them children, drowned in their own blood.

The site was thereafter called Weenen, or weeping, a name it has retained to this day.

For a while the entire Great Trek faltered: the Boers grimly held onto their camps, too weak to move on and too weak to stay.

The Zulus then turned their attention towards the British trading settlement of Port Natal, besieging the Whites there in what had become an obvious racial war of anti-White extermination. The British garrison, although heavily outnumbered, held onto what would later become Durban, with equally fierce determination, and the Zulus did not manage to break the defenses, despite great efforts in this regard.

The Boer Women

After this massacre, the whole Great Trek teetered on the brink of disaster: many wanted to give up and return to the comparative safety of the British ruled Cape, while others then turned their attentions further north even deeper into the interior, into what became the Transvaal and Orange Free State. There, the first piece of land occupied by Whites there was obtained by treaty from the Bataung tribe, and the town of Winburg was established in this region.

The remaining men in the Boer camps in Natal then came to the conclusion that the trek should be abandoned: the trepidations they had suffered in Natal had been far worse than anything they had endured during their stay in the Cape Province, the Kaffir Wars included. At this crucial junction, the brave Boer women stepped forward and insisted of the men that the Trek continue: too many sacrifices had been made for them to give up now. By cajoling, mocking and in many instances physically taking the lead, the women won the day: the men gave up their plans to return to the Cape and once again drew new strength to carry on.

Piet Uys

However, further setbacks waited: a new commando under Piet Uys tried to avenge the massacre of the White women and children: they were defeated by the Zulus at the Battle of Italeni, which cost the life of Uys and his teenage son. Once again the threat of total defeat loomed along with a loss of White life.

Andries Pretorius

News of the plight of the Trekkers had by now reached the Cape: a wave of support came flooding for the Whites, culminating in the arrival of hundreds of new Trek volunteers. Amongst them was a farmer from Graaff Reinett, Andries Pretorius, a dynamic natural leader who was elected Commandant General by the till then still leaderless Boers in November 1838.

Within a week, Pretorius had organized a Boer commando of 451 men, including three British people - Scotsmen actually, defenders of Port Natal who wanted to avenge the bloody Zulu attacks on the British settlements. So it was that a combined White Boer and White English speaking commando, armed with two cannons, set off in search of the Zulus.

After six days of running battles with Zulu patrols, Pretorius chose his camp: covered on the one side by the Ncome River and on the other by a deep ditch, or donga, the Boers arranged their 64 wagons in an almost triangular shape, with the longest part of the triangle running across the side of the laager which had no natural defense.

Ever the improvisers, the White party then cut down masses of thorn bushes and placed them in the donga and underneath and between the wagons themselves, a highly effective early barbed wire.

They also hung lanterns on the end of their long oxen whips, which then protruded out over the outside perimeter of the wagons, providing illumination to prevent a surprise nighttime attack by the Zulus. Later the Blacks would tell that they had been petrified of the magic of the White wizards, in particular the "ghosts" which hanged above the wagons during the night.

The Vow

Then the Boers prayed to their Christian god that if they were granted victory, they and their descendants would celebrate the day for ever more as a sacred day and celebrate it as if it "were a Sabbath". This vow gave rise the day being called in later times the "Day of the Vow", although in fact the actual battle, which was celebrated on 16 December, was not the same day upon which the Vow was taken.

The Battle of Blood River

At dawn on 16 December 1838, the Zulus finally attacked. Each Zulu regiment was led by its commander, the younger men in the vanguard, the older veterans making up the rear. As they moved forward, estimates of their numbers varied from between 10,000 and 30,000. They chanted and stamped their feet in unison; a frightening sight by any account.

The 451 Whites had little illusion of what their fate would be if the tens of thousands of Blacks overwhelmed their tiny position. Pretorius ordered his men not to fire until they were absolutely sure of making a kill: exercising iron self control, the Whites waited until the Zulu battle line had advanced to within ten paces of the wagons: then the White guns opened up on the Black masses, and the Zulu attackers were cut down by their hundreds.

The few primitive spears thrown by the Zulus hardly even reached the wagons. The Zulus fell back, struck down by the White Wizards' magic killing sticks to which they had no answer. On the river side of the laager, the Zulus at first tried to attack through the water: bringing one of the cannons to bear, the Whites blasted the Black ranks at virtual point blank range, each shot killing dozens of Zulus.

Finally the Whites had fired so many rounds they ran out of cannon shot: once again, they had considered this possibility, and had pre-selected and stored suitably shaped stones, which they now loaded into the cannons, continuing to rain a merciless fire upon the Blacks.

These cannon were unquestionably decisive: the Blacks had never seen such weapons ever before, and it must have seemed as if the White Wizards now had fire spitting dragons on their side as well. Again and again the Zulus tried to attack: each time they were driven off by the combined White artillery and musket fire.

At no stage did the Blacks even get close enough to stab any White: only two Whites (one was Pretorius himself) were nicked by spears thrown by the Zulus, but that was all. By now, several thousand Blacks had been killed by the White Wizardry.

The Attack

As the Black line wavered once more, Pretorius gave the order to attack. Leading a detachment of 150 mounted men, one wagon was pulled aside and the commando galloped out to ride straight into the foremost Zulu regiment of over 2,000. Dumb struck with terror at the guns, the cannon and now the White Wizards on their huge hoofed beasts, the Zulu line broke in fright and turned tail and fled.

The Blacks tried to outrun the horses: dozens could not and were trampled underfoot. Hundreds tried to dodge the horses and guns by jumping into the Ncome River, which took them above their heads. This was to no avail. The accurate musket fire and the cannons blasted them as they struggled in the river, and the water quite literally turned red with their blood: hence the river became known to this day as Blood River.

The Black attack was broken: the Whites pursued the fleeing Blacks until dark, exacting a violent and bloody revenge for the massacre of the White women and children at Blaukraans. Zulu dead at the battlefield itself totaled over 3,000 - but this does not include those killed off site or who died of wounds elsewhere.



The Battle of Blood River, 1838: White technological superiority defeats a massive Nonwhite army and the river turns red with the blood of the dead.

The highly Calvinistic Trekkers took their victory as a sign from the Christian god that they were meant to win (instead of acknowledging the superiority of their weapons, which had actually won the day) and the belief in a divine mission in Africa was born into Boer consciousness, with the battle later assuming virtual mythical proportions, being celebrated every year thereafter with church services of thanks.

First Boer Republic

The defeat of the Zulu army at Blood River spelt the end of the Zulu threat to the White settlement of Natal for the moment, and an independent Boer Republic of Natalia was formally established. However, the British interest in the area had increased with the defeat of the Zulus, and a pattern was set which was to dog White history in Southern Africa for the next 60 years: as soon as the Boers

achieved independence, the British moved in and annexed the new territory.

By 1843 increasing British encroachment from the Eastern Cape led to a localized war between Boer forces and the British, with a British outpost in southern Natal, Congella, being besieged by Boers. The British managed to lift the siege and disperse the Boers: by 1845 the British had formally annexed the Republic of Natalia.

The Boer Republics of the Orange Free State and the South African Republic

A few Boers remained in Natal: most left, engaging in a second Great Trek over the Drakensberg mountains into the fledgling settlements in the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. There two new independent Boer Republics were created, known officially as the Orange Free State and the South African Republic, the latter also being known colloquially as the Transvaal Republic.

Although the British governor of the Cape Colony tried briefly to annex the Orange Free State in 1848, this attempt was rejected by the British government at the time and the independence of the two Boer republics was recognized by Britain at two conventions in 1852 and 1854.

The White settlement of the Transvaal and Orange Free State had however not been without incident: although large parts of the territory had been cleared of their original Black inhabitants by an inter-Black war known as the difequeane, there were still a substantial number of Blacks living in the far north and the west: by penetrating up the central parts of the Transvaal the Boers effectively divided the Black tribes into three regions: the Zulus in the east, the Tswanas in the West and the Matabele in the north.

The Battle of Vegkop

It was the Matabele who moved first: attacking a trekker outpost without warning in 1836 at a place called Vegkop ("fighting hill"), they nearly overran the small laager, but superior White technology saved the day and guns overpowered spears. The Boers also had the advantage of horses, which they used to pursue the defeated Matabele (in one engagement, a local Black tribe tried to use cattle as steeds, but this ended disastrously when the cattle broke rank and panicked at the sound of the first Boer gunshots: more Blacks were killed in this engagement by being trampled to death by their "cavalry" then by Boer marksmanship).

The Matabele were then pursued across the Limpopo River, settling in the territory now known as Zimbabwe, where they are to the present day.



Boers fight off the Black Matabele, Vegkop, 1836.

After 1854, the Whites in the Orange Free State fought a number of racial wars with a Black tribe called the Basotho - fighting which eventually led to the British formally annexing the Basotho territory to protect the area from further incursions by the Boers. This land became the protectorate of Basutoland in 1868 and in the 20th century was given independence and became the state of Lesotho.

Racial Attitudes

Despite always having had Nonwhite servants - even taking them with on the Great Trek - the Boers never believed in racial equality, just like the Whites in America, Europe and everywhere else at the time - and adopted a paternalistic approach to almost all Nonwhites with whom they came into contact. This attitude was translated into official state policy in the Transvaal and Orange Free State Republics, where an advanced system of voting for leaders and an early parliament were the norm - but voting was restricted to Whites only.

Indians in South Africa

The British occupation of the Natal saw the creation of large sugar cane plantations in the ideally suited almost tropical regions. At first trying to employ local Black labor to harvest the crops, the British turned to importing thousands of Indian laborers directly from India to do the work. The huge influx of Indians into Natal created the Indian population of South Africa, which to this day is still centered in the former province of Natal.

The Republic of the Orange Free State viewed the influx of Indians into Natal with alarm and brought in a law forbidding any Indian settlement inside its borders. This law remained in force in the Orange Free State until the middle 1980's.

The First Anglo-Boer War 1881-1882

The Boer Republics were primarily agriculturally based, and also, compared to the Cape, comparatively poor. The discovery of diamonds in the interior - in a region claimed by both the British and Boers, called Griqualand West, caused a fresh wave of White immigration from Europe, mainly British but also small numbers from other European nations, including a group of European Jews who were soon to wield great influence in the affairs of the region.

The influx of British settlers caused the already strained relations between the Boer Republics and the British to deteriorate. The Boers were not only politically weak but also militarily divided, with the result that the British were able to annex the Transvaal Republic in 1877 with a tiny force which met absolutely no resistance at all.

Within a few days, the British flag was hoisted in the Transvaal capital, Pretoria, (named after the Boer leader at the battle of Blood River) and British rule was extended into the interior without a shot being fired.

It took three years and a Herculean effort on the part of three young Boer leaders to organize their people and to motivate them into fighting the British occupation of the Transvaal: eventually in 1881, a Boer rebellion finally broke out. The British were unexpectedly badly beaten by a Boer army at the battle of Majuba in February 1881, and the British then announced that they were prepared to restore self government to the Transvaal. One of the young Boer leaders of the rebellion, Paul Kruger, was elected president of the once again independent Boer republic in 1883.

The British Race War with the Zulus

The British had in the interim found themselves plunged into the race war which the Zulus had started against the White Boers. In 1872, the White population of Natal was put at 17,500 - while the Zulu population was estimated at some 300,000; with the Indian laborers, who had come to the country voluntarily and who were paid for their labor, numbering some 5,800.

In the eyes of the Zulus however, the White British were no better than the White Boers: both were invaders. The presence of the Indians was also resented by the Zulus, creating a tension between these racial groups which was to sputter on for over a century, with the last great Zulu on Indian massacre occurring in 1948.

In 1878, the Zulu king, Cetshwayo, assembled an army estimated at 60,000, with obvious intent of attacking the Whites in Natal. The British were aware of his intentions, and on 12 January 1879, White British troops formally invaded Zululand with the intention of forcing the Black army to disband.

On 22 January, around 20,000 Zulu warriors crept up on British soldiers camped at an isolated place called Isandhlwana. By the afternoon, after a fierce battle, the Whites had been all but wiped out - 1500 White soldiers had been killed, with only six surviving out of the entire regiment.

Later on the same day, a force of about 4,000 Zulus attacked the small British outpost of about 140 soldiers at Rorke's Drift, expecting a swift victory. Hours of bitter hand-to-hand fighting followed, and the Blacks were eventually defeated, being forced to retreat with heavy losses. It was not until 29

March at the Battle of Khambula, that the tide finally turned in favor of the British, and in July 1879 that the Zulus were beaten at the Battle of Ulundi, a defeat which finally broke their power.

The British found to their anger that the Zulus had acquired White firearms, despite official measures and laws making it illegal to provide Blacks with firearms - it later turned out that individual Boers had supplied the Zulus with weapons in the (correct) hope that they would use them against the British.

Second Boer Republic in Natal

In the far north of Natal, in land previously agreed as belonging to the Zulus, a small Boer population established themselves after providing military assistance to one of the Zulu factions which came to dominance in Zulu politics: this republic of Northern Natal was eventually to join up with the larger Boer Republic of the Transvaal, giving the latter access to the coast for the first time.

The Second Anglo-Boer War 1899-1902

The discovery of gold in the southern Transvaal in 1886, caused a new wave of British and European Jewish immigrants to come flooding into the Transvaal. The number of immigrants swelled: in certain areas like Johannesburg, the city founded at the center of the gold bearing reef, British and other non Boer elements greatly outnumbered the Boer population.

The Boer Republic refused to grant the new immigrants voting rights, correctly foreseeing the loss of political power, and this "Uitlander" ("Foreigner") question was to serve as the spark for the Second Anglo-Boer war of 1889 - 1902, the one that is most often remembered in the annals of history.

After protracted negotiations between the British government at the Cape, headed by one Cecil John Rhodes, and the Boer president, Paul Kruger broke down, a small Uitlander rebellion broke out in Johannesburg. Simultaneously a small private English militia under the leadership of one of Rhode's adjutants, actually invaded the Transvaal Republic. The invasion and rebellion were quickly suppressed by the Boer forces, but the die had been cast; war between the Boer Republics and the British was thereafter inevitable.

Boers Strike First

Sensing that war was near, the British began moving troops up to the borders of the Orange Free State and Transvaal Republics, and started preparations to ship out further troops from Britain. The Transvaal President, Kruger, sent an ultimatum to the British administration in the Cape to stop the troop build up or the Boers would regard it as an act of war (which it of course was).

The British ignored the ultimatum, and in October 1899, the Boers went over to the offensive, launching two pronged invasions in British ruled Natal and the Northern Cape. The White population figures of the Boer Republics at this stage of the proceedings make interesting reading: in total the White population of the Transvaal and Orange Free States State was just over 200,000, and together with 2,000 Boer sympathizers recruited from Natal and the Cape, the Boer armed forces in total were never more than 52,000 at any one stage in the three year war which followed.

The British in the other hand had 176,000 soldiers alone in the Cape by the end of 1899, and by the end of the war itself had deployed 478,725 soldiers in the field: nearly twice as many military personnel as the entire Boer population, men, women and children included.

British Defeats

At first the war went well for the Boers: several British defeats followed one another in quick succession, created by the skillful use of trenches by the Boers and unconventional mobile tactics. Another advantage exploited to the hilt by the Boers was their modern semi-automatic Mauser rifles - a gift from the German Kaiser - while the British still had manual loading Lee-Enfield rifles as their main infantry armament.

The Boers laid siege to three towns inside British held territory: Mafikeng and Kimberley in the Northern Cape and Ladysmith in Natal. It was however in besieging these three towns that the Boers lost their chance of winning the war. Initially the plan had been to strike down into Natal and seize the port of Durban, whilst simultaneously seizing the large ports in the Cape (Port Elizabeth and eventually Cape Town itself) thereby preventing the British from sending in more troops.

However, the main Boer force became bogged down besieging what were in reality relatively unimportant military targets, and the British were able to land many thousands of troops in the country unmolested.

British Victories

Eventually the sieges of all three towns was lifted and the British then pressed home their military superiority, occupying Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State, and Pretoria, the capital of the Transvaal, in quick succession.

The British then expected the Boers to surrender after the fall of their major cities: but instead the remaining Boer forces - now numbering only some 26,000 - started a hit and run guerrilla war which was to last from 1900 to 1902. Operating in the open veld, the Boer guerrillas could rely on provisions and support from the rural Boer community, and as a result the British occupation only extended as far as the range of their guns: as soon as they moved out an area it was quickly re-occupied by Boers, who then waged a highly effective campaign of sabotage and raids against British columns.

Scorched Earth and Concentration Camps

By mid 1900, the Second Anglo-Boer War had been raging for well over a year: the overwhelming British force had occupied all the major towns and centers of the Boer Republics of the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, and the Boers had been forced to resort to hit and run guerrilla tactics in the open veld.

The Boers continued to inflict defeats upon the British in this way: so much so that eventually the war was to cost the British government £191 000 000 (191 million Pounds - a fortune by 1901 standards, and many hundred times that amount today).

By mid 1900, however, the British had become exasperated with the military situation: the Boers seemed to be able operate with impunity in the veld: a new course of action was decided upon. In the last months of 1900, the British began to build what eventually became 45 separate concentration camps, established to systematically remove women and children from their farms to prevent them aiding and supplying the Boer soldiers ("burgers") in the field.

The British ironically justified rounding up thousands of women and children - something unprecedented before in any other war which the British Empire had fought - in a memorandum issued by the British commander, General Kitchener, on 21 December 1900. In the memorandum issued at his headquarters in Pretoria, Kitchener explained the rounding up of the women was to protect them from the Blacks (!), stating that **"seeing the unprotected state of women now living in the districts, this course is desirable to assure their not being insulted or molested by natives."** (Circular Memorandum No. 29, from the archives of the Military Governor, Pretoria; as quoted in "To the Bitter End: A Photographic History of the Boer War 1899 - 1902," Emanuel Lee, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England, 1985; page 163).

Kitchener was very clear that this was a war against the White Boers, and not the Blacks. The exact language he used in the 21 December 1900 memorandum may seem antiquated, but it reflects not only the style of the time but also the deliberate policy of causing as much damage as possible to the Whites and as little damage as possible to the Blacks: **"With regard to the natives, it is not intended to clear Kaffir locations but only such Kaffirs and their stock as are on Boer farms. Every endeavor should be made to cause as little loss as possible to the natives removed and to give them protection when brought in. They will be available for any works undertaken, for which they will receive pay at native rates."** (Circular Memorandum No. 29, from the archives of the Military Governor, Pretoria; as quoted in "To the Bitter End: A Photographic History of the Boer War 1899 - 1902," Emanuel Lee, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England, 1985; page 163).

So it was that the British started not only rounding up as many Boer women and children as they could, but also destroying the farms, their only source of survival. The evacuation of the farms was accompanied by the burning and dynamiting of all farm houses and buildings. Poultry, sheep and cattle were slaughtered, the houses looted and all fruit trees, grain or other crops burned down. This is not to say that all the British undertook this task with relish: many ordinary British soldiers were themselves appalled at what they were ordered to do. This revealing insight into how the farms were cleared comes from a soldier who took part in such an operation:

". . . (O)nly the women are left. Of these, there are often three or four generations: grandmother, mother and family of girls. The boys over thirteen or fourteen are usually fighting with their papas. The people are disconcertingly like the English, especially the girls and the children - fair and big and healthy looking. These folk we invite out into the veldt or into the little garden in the front, where they huddle together in their cotton frocks and big sunbonnets, while our men set fire to the house . . . Sometimes they entreat that it may be spared, and once or twice in an agony of rage they have invoked curses on our heads. But this is quite the exception, as a rule they make no sign, and simply look on and say nothing. One young woman at the farm yesterday . . . went into a fit of hysterics when she saw the flames breaking out, and finally fainted away.'

"I wish I had my camera. Unfortunately it got damaged and I have not been able to take any

photographs. These farms would make a good subject. They are dry and burn well. The fire bursts out of windows and doors with a loud roaring, and black volumes of smoke roll overhead. The women, in a little group, cling together, comforting each other or holding their faces in each others' laps. . . . while on the top of the nearest high ground, a party of men, rifles in hand, guard against a surprise from the enemy, a few of whom can generally be seen in the distance watching the destruction of their homes." (LW Phillips, "With Rimmington", Edward Arnold, London, 1902).

From the victims' point of view, the removals were bewildering and terrifying. This extract from the diary of Alie Badenhorst, translated by Emily Hobhouse, reveals the panic and fear which accompanied these removals:

"I packed, and took bedding and tried to pack that also, but I was so crushed I did not know what I was doing, and they (the British) kept saying 'quick, quick' so I gathered a few necessities together and thus was I driven forth from my home. It was the 15th April 1901 never to be forgotten. My children cried; the two youngest boys were pale as death and held me fast; the little one kept crying for his chickens. I had to give him courage; and so we were carried, all of us, away." (Alida Badenhorst, translated E. Hobhouse, "Tant Alie of Transvaal: Her Diary 1880-1902", George Allen and Unwin, London, 1923).

Filson Young of the Manchester Guardian wrote an account of the actions as follows:

"...(T)he burning of the houses that has gone on this afternoon has been a most unpleasant business . . . in the course of about ten miles we have burned no fewer than six farmhouses. . . . in one melancholy case the wife of an insurgent, who was lying sick in a friend's farm, watched from her sick husband's bedside during the burning of her home 100 yards away. I cannot think what punishment need take this wild form; it seems as though a kind of domestic murder were being committed while one watches the roof and furniture of a house blazing . . . I stood till late last night before the red blaze and saw the flames lick around each piece of furniture - the chairs and tables, the baby's cradle, the chest of drawers containing a world of treasure; and when I saw the poor housewife's face pressed against the window of the neighboring house, my own heart burned with a sense of outrage." (F Young, "The Relief of Mafeking", Methuen, London, 1900).

Transported in open wagons, and sometimes in open flatbed trains, the Boer women and children so evacuated were taken to the camps which were scattered all over the country, from Howick in Natal through to Kroonstad in the Orange Free State. The terrain upon which the camps had been built was poorly chosen: exposed to the elements and under supplied. Too many people were assembled in too short a time without adequate preparation. The administrative personnel and medical services were inadequate, the rations unsatisfactory; there were dishonest contractors and inefficient officials who were unable to cope with the epidemic of measles and pneumonia which broke out. The wave of evacuees soon overwhelmed the inadequate preparations the British had taken. In December 1900, Milner, the Governor general of the Cape Colony, wrote:

"We were suddenly confronted with a problem . . . which it was beyond our power to properly grapple, and no doubt its vastness was not realized soon enough. The first of the suffering resulted from inadequate accommodation, it was originally meant to house the refugees in wooden shelters, but there was not sufficient material for enough of them to be made." (SB

Spies, "Roberts and Kitchener and Civilians in the Boer Republics, January 1900 to May 1902", D.Phil. thesis, University of the Wtwatersrand, 1973, as quoted in "To The Bitter End: A Photographic History of Boer War 1899 - 1902", Emanoel Lee, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England, 1985; page 177).

Internee Alie Badenhorst described the conditions in the camps so:

"...(O)ne had to make little fireplaces in front of the tents - tents that must serve as sitting room, pantry, bedroom and dining room in one, and they were of a size that were but one small bed and a table therein, there was no room to turn; and then there were a number of children as well! Most of the poor women had not even brought a bedstead with them because they were seized in such haste."

"When we came, the women received eatables three times a week. Tuesday, meat; Wednesday, meal, sugar coffee, salt; and on Saturday, again meat. The food stores were not near the camp, quite ten minutes walk, and they had to carry it all. For each person there was 7lbs of meal a week, no green food and no variety; the sugar was that black stuff we would have given our horses on the farm to stop worms . . . the coffee was some mixture, no-one could rightly say what coffee it was, some said acorns, others dried peas - but it was all a very sore trial for us to bear, we, who were so used to good food, vegetables, milk and mealies."

(Alida Badenhorst, translated E. Hobhouse, "Tant Alie of Transvaal: Her Diary 1880-1902", George Allen and Unwin, London, 1923).

The winter of 1901 was particularly severe: even British troops in the field froze to death. In the camps, the damp and cold conditions played havoc amongst the tents: sickness began to spread amongst the children, and soon reached the adults. The death toll began to mount dramatically: the camp at Brandfort had the highest death rate during the worst months.

Alie Badenhorst wrote: ***"Worst of all, because of the poor food, and having only one kind of food without vegetables, there came a sort of scurvy amongst our people. They got a sore mouth, and a dreadful smell with it; in some cases the palate fell out and the teeth, and some of the children were full of holes or sores in the mouth. And then they died . . . the mothers could never get them anything . . . there were vegetables to be bought outside, but the head of the camp was strict and did not allow them to go out of the camp . . . For it was this day, the 1st December, that old Tant Hannie died . . . I never thought with my eyes to see such misery . . . tents emptied by death."***

"I went one day to the hospital and there lay a child of nine years to wrestle alone with death. I asked where could I find the child's mother. The answer was that the mother died a week before, and the father is in Ceylon (a prisoner of war) and that very morning her sister of 11 died. I pitied the poor little sufferer as I looked upon her . . . there was not even a tear in my own eyes, for weep I could no more. I stood beside her and watched until a stupefying grief overwhelmed my soul . . . O God, be merciful and wipe us not from the face of the earth." (Alida Badenhorst, translated E. Hobhouse, "Tant Alie of Transvaal: Her Diary 1880-1902", George Allen and Unwin, London, 1923).



The Boer Holocaust: Boer children, emaciated through disease, photographed in British concentration camps in South Africa, 1900-1902. Eventually 27,927 women and children were to die in this way.

Up to October 1901, the number of inmates in the 45 camps increased to 118 000 Whites and 43 000 Nonwhites. The death rate was 344 per thousand amongst the Whites; at one stage in the Kroonstad camp the death rate was 878 per thousand.

Eventually 27,927 Boers died in the camps, of whom 4177 were adult women and 22,074 were children under the age of 16. Since the entire Boer population in both republics was just over 200,000, the mortality rate meant that just under 15 percent of the entire Boer population was wiped out. Such a figure is of genocidal proportions.

These figures are even more revealing when the actual combat fatalities for the entire war are reviewed: some 7091 British soldiers died, while on the Boer side some 3990 burgers were killed, with a further 1081 dying of disease or accident in the veld. Twelve percent of Boer deaths were battle related; six percent died from other causes while on commando; 17 percent were adults in the camps and 65 percent were children under the age of 16 years.

It has been estimated that without this loss, the White population of South Africa would have been as much as a third larger than what it eventually became.

Boer Surrender

Although the guerrilla war itself was reasonably successful - with one Boer commando under the able guerrilla leader general, Jan Smuts, raiding so deep in the Cape that they came within sight of Table Mountain in Cape Town - the pressures brought to bear by the concentration camp issue forced them to eventually surrender or face total extermination. In 1902, the Treaty of Vereeniging brought the war to an end, and Britain formally annexed the Transvaal and Orange Free State.

Common Native Policy

Although the Boer Republics had denied citizenship or voting rights to the Blacks, they were not alone in this policy: the British strictly enforced similar policies in their parts of Southern Africa, with the only exception being granted to a small number of Cape Coloreds who could meet very stringent property requirement stipulations.

After occupying the Boer republics, the British actively proposed keeping the Blacks voteless. Segregation was accepted as a perfectly normal and desirable state of affairs, and it was not even considered necessary to make laws in this regard, so universally was the practice accepted. It was not a case of the Blacks being disenfranchised: they had never had the vote, so they were unenfranchised and remained so.

In this way the administration of the four colonies - the Cape, Natal, the Orange Free State and Transvaal - was carried out exclusively by Whites, with in many cases in the former Boer republics even by former Boer civil servants returning to their pre-war posts.

The Union of South Africa

This policy of keeping the Blacks unenfranchised was carried over into the next important political development in South Africa: the union of the four colonies in 1910. In 1909, talks were started between the administrations of the four colonies over the idea of union, and after protracted negotiations, the Union of South Africa formally came into being in 1910, a dominion under the British monarch.

A clause in the legislation which created the Union stated that the constitutional position of the Blacks - unenfranchisement - would remain and could be changed only by a two-thirds majority vote of parliament. Thus it became so that the only Nonwhites who had any vote were the handful of Coloreds in the Cape: but even they themselves were prohibited from standing for parliament, and could only vote for White candidates (another law introduced by the British when the Cape was still ruled as a separate colony). These limited voting rights were themselves abolished in the 1950s.

The British also actively kept the Indians out of the political pot by denying them voting rights as well. In addition to all of this, by the time of the Union it had also been de facto accepted that certain regions of the country were dominated by Black tribes and that as a general rule these areas were to be left alone, although in most cases these regions had a White governor over them.

Black Homelands

In this way the territories of Lesotho, Swaziland and Botswana came into being (all British owned territories and carved up on a racial basis: the Tswana Blacks in Botswana, the Sotho Blacks in Lesotho and the Swazi Blacks in Swaziland.)

The other territories earmarked for Black tribes were in exactly the same way tribally split according to where the majority of each tribe lived: the Xhosas in the Eastern Cape, the Zulus in Natal and so on. These other territories (the Eastern Cape, parts of Natal etc.) were later to be formalized as tribally owned Black homelands - and it remains one of South African history's supreme ironies that the Black tribal homelands created by the British (Lesotho, Swaziland and Botswana) were given perfectly legitimate international status, while the identically created Black tribal homelands given independence by the later White government of South Africa, were rejected as being racist - even by the British government.

1913 Land Act

The new parliament created as a result of the Union was dominated by a party led by former Boer war generals. In 1913, they turned their attention to the issue of the reserved Black areas, and, following the American example with the Amerinds, formally enshrined the right of Blacks in these tribal areas.

This was the Land Act of 1913, which also had one rider: they prohibited Blacks from owning any land outside of these now formalized homelands.

The ruling party also had as its theme reconciliation between Boer and Brit. This attempt to create unity on racial grounds, trying to bridge the cultural/ethnic differences, led to the creation of a new generic term for all Whites living in the Union of South Africa: South Africans. The terminology Boer and Brit was dispensed with. The Dutch language had in the interim started to develop a form of its own, and became known as Afrikaans: and those who spoke it were called Afrikaners, no matter if

they were originally Boers or Dutch speakers who lived in the British ruled Cape and Natal before the Anglo-Boer War.

National Party Founded

The attempt to create White unity was however rejected by a significant number of English and Afrikaans speakers. One Boer general, James Hertzog, founded a new party in 1914, the National Party (NP) which was to play a leading role in South African history for the next 80 years. Hertzog demanded that the Afrikaans language - which was still not recognized, with English being the official language of the country, be granted equal status with English, and that the country have its own flag, and not the British flag. These aims were only to be achieved in the middle 1920's.

World War One and the Boer Rebellion of 1914

The outbreak of the First World War split the Whites even further: fueled not so much by a pro-German sentiment, but rather by an anti-British sentiment, many Afrikaans speakers refused to support the South African government's decision to declare war on Germany.

A number of Boer leaders started a rebellion in the year that the war broke out, demanding the restoration of the Boer Republics, obviously hoping to capitalize upon the British being distracted by having to meet the demands of a war in Europe.

The South African government - still in the hands of the pro-reconciliation Afrikaans speakers - suppressed the rebellion, which saw the deaths of a number of its ringleaders. Despite the violence, the NP still polled well in the 1915 election, although not enough to dislodge the pro-reconciliation grouping which had drawn more English speaking support after entering the war on the side of Britain.

The first engagement of the war from the South African side was the occupation of German South West Africa, a territory which would be mandated to South Africa by the League of Nations after the First World War. This territory would later become known as South West Africa, and be the scene of a major race war between White South Africa and Black insurgents. (Still later the territory would become the country of Namibia). The South African army - which was recruited on a volunteer basis - then went on to participate in the occupation of the German East Africa - today Tanzania.

South African troops also fought in large numbers on the Western Front in France, fighting in the Battles of Delville Wood, Paschendale and many other famous and bloody clashes.

The Racist Communists and the White Revolt of 1921

The whole country was therefore split three ways: between English speakers, Afrikaans speakers and Blacks, with neither of the two White groupings wanting to integrate with the Black group. So it was that even the South African Communist Party, started largely by South African Jews based in Cape Town, initially directed itself openly only to White workers.

In 1921, leaders of the country's gold-mining industry decided to replace White labor with Black and Chinese laborers in an effort to cut costs. This move led to a major uprising in March 1921 called the

Rand Revolt, led initially by the Communist Party with the official slogan of "White Workers Unite for a White South Africa" - the sight of this slogan along with the hammer and sickle flag was for long afterwards a great source of embarrassment for the Communist Party, which soon thereafter devoted itself to attacking the White power structure and started enrolling Blacks as members. (A photograph exists of this famous slogan being prominently displayed on a banner during a main Communist march during the Rand revolt.)

The revolt was suppressed at a cost of 200 dead, with the fledgling South African airforce (the second oldest such force in the world, being started shortly after the British Royal Air Force) bombing rebel strongholds in Johannesburg.

National Party in Power

Although the revolt was crushed, three years later, during the 1924 election, the National Party came to power for the first time, mainly on election undertakings to protect White workers from Nonwhite laborers taking their jobs. Race had become an important electoral issue for the first time.

Shortly after taking power, the NP government duly introduced the first color bar legislation, which prevented Blacks from being employed in certain categories of jobs, these being reserved for Whites only.

The Great Depression and World War Two

The NP remained in power alone till 1933, when the effects of the Great Depression forced a coalition government with the pro-reconciliation faction under the former Boer War general Jan Smuts. This coalition ruled till the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939.

When the Second World War broke out, certain small factions of Afrikaners were decidedly pro-Hitler and had even formed tiny Nazi parties, none of whom received any significant electoral support. A bare majority of the South African parliament voted in favor of entering the war on Britain's side: as a result the coalition government broke down and the NP went into opposition, having voted against going to war for Britain.

Outside of parliament, militant Afrikaners organized themselves into a movement known as the "Flaming Ox Wagon Sentinel" and through this organization engaged in numerous acts of sabotage and violence in an attempt to keep the country's volunteer army deployed internally, rather than being used against the Germans and for the British.

South African troops fought against the Italians in Abyssinia, and in North Africa as part of the British Eighth Army, taking part in numerous famous battles such as El Alamein. They then went to take part in the invasion of Italy in 1943, fighting at Monte Casino, being part of the occupation troops in Rome and ending the war in northern Italy. The South African prime minister, Jan Smuts, was instrumental in founding the United Nations and held to draft its founding charter.

The Election of 1948

In 1948, an election alliance between the NP and a number of smaller factions succeeded in ousting the Smuts government, despite the former winning a minority of votes (the skewed first past the post Westminster electoral system allowed Smuts to gain the larger number of votes but the fewer seats).

It is from the election of 1948, that Apartheid, or the policy of racial segregation, is deemed to have become official policy in South Africa. The reality is however that segregation and the recognition and creation of Black tribal homelands had preceded 1948 by centuries. The very first segregation had in fact occurred soon after the first Dutch settlement at the Cape in 1652: in 1653, the Dutch had planted a particularly large hedge to mark the border between their territory and Hottentot/Busman territory (parts of this massive hedge can still be seen in Cape Town) and the formal recognition of the Black tribal homelands by the British authorities has already been discussed. In fact all the National Party did in 1948, was make statutory a de facto situation, and very little else.

At the time this was perfectly in line with developments elsewhere in the world, especially in America where legislation also governed the access of Blacks to certain public places, schools and the like. The first "Whites Only" signs only appeared in South Africa long after they had first appeared in America.

The NP set about further imitating many American states by outlawing racially mixed marriages, instituting a system of racial classification and finally, by legislation, defined residential and business areas for the different races.

Black Resistance

The Communist Party had in the interim renounced its racist past and worked full time against the White government, organizing trade unions and strikes. In 1950, the White government passed the Suppression of Communism Act, which outlawed the Communist Party - an act which was only repealed in 1990. The main Black resistance movement was started in 1912 - the African National Congress, which would later go on to become the government of South Africa at the end of the era of White rule. The ANC would form a firm alliance with the SA Communist Party right throughout its years of struggle against the White government, and for many years after its assumption of power as well.

The Real Issue Missed

The normalization of racial segregation by the NP did not however address the real issue which has faced every White country, culture or authority since the start of White history: namely, the contradiction of allowing huge numbers of Nonwhites into the territory in question to do the labor; whilst trying to prevent that civilization from being overwhelmed by foreign numbers. In fact, it cannot be done.

White South Africa was no different in this regard to any of the previous White societies: the Aryans in India in the year 1500 BC, also lived in a country where the majority of the population was Nonwhite: they too introduced all manner of laws trying to prevent racial mixing but all the while used the Nonwhite labor. Eventually the sheer numbers of Nonwhites grew to the point where it was no longer feasible to exercise control - simply put, the situation was reached where there were simply not enough Whites to control the entire territory, and the White civilization was overwhelmed by Nonwhite

numbers and sank.

In South Africa, almost every White household had one or more Black servants, with farmers very often having dozens to work the huge farmlands, more often than not living on the premises; in the mines, the economic heart of the country, the vast majority of common laborers, numbering many thousands, were Black; all over the country the overwhelming majority of laborers were Black.

Over this mass of economic integration, the Whites of South Africa attempted to enforce social segregation and still maintain a White government: it was doomed from the start, as it was in Aryan India, in ancient Persia, in ancient Sumeria, in ancient Egypt, Ancient Greece and ancient Rome.

All that happened in South Africa that was different was that the number imbalance occurred even faster than in the older civilizations, and White control was overwhelmed at a quicker pace.

Black Birth Rate

At the same time, Western medicine was made available on a massive scale: the largest hospital in the southern hemisphere was erected in the Black township of Soweto, outside Johannesburg, specifically for the Black population. Infant mortality rates for Blacks, while still far higher than for Whites, fell dramatically, and were way below that of the rest of Black ruled Africa. This rapid population growth, also typical of Nonwhite populations residing in White ruled countries throughout history and elsewhere in the modern world, put additional pressure on the demographic make-up of the country.

White Reaction

The White government was forced to think out ever more stringent and oppressive laws to protect the Whites as the Black population continued to leap frog in numbers year after year. Soon economics became a secondary issue in everyday politics when compared to the racial issue. Black resistance had also been growing along with the increase in that racial group's numbers.

At first peaceful, the Black resistance groups turned to violence after it became clear that the White government was unmovable on certain basic issues, and failed to see the inherent contradiction between social segregation and economic integration.

Finally, after a section of White policemen shot down 69 Blacks during a demonstration in Sharpeville to the south of Johannesburg in 1960, open violent political rebellion broke out amongst the Black population. The White government reacted by banning the main Black resistance organizations, the African National Congress (ANC) and the Pan Africanist Congress (the latter being an openly Black racist party which had separated from the ANC in 1959). These two organizations then launched a campaign of armed resistance to White government, which lasted some 30 years, with varying degrees of success. In reality however, despite large numbers of Blacks being co-opted into the state structures (in the form of police and army units) South Africa erupted into a long running low intensity race war, with Black and White physically fighting it out for political control. The Whites had the technological advantage: the Blacks always had the greater numbers.

As the Black resistance was closely allied to the South African Communist Party it soon received

large amounts of material aid from the Soviet Union (further fueling the allegations made by the White government that the Black resistance was a Communist inspired effort - an allegation was of course untrue and made for propaganda purposes, as the Black resistance groups took aid from anyone who gave it to them, which included many fanatically anti-Communist Arab countries). The dividing issue was race, not ideology.

South African Military

Despite the aid to the Black resistance movements, the South African military was developed into a virtually self reliant extremely powerful force, certainly the strongest conventional force in all of Africa. The battle was however, apart from on the border in South West Africa (see below), never to be waged conventionally.

The Black resistance movements adopted a guerrilla hit and run policy of attacks on strategic targets, in certain aspects ironically mimicking the Boer guerrilla war against the British of the period 1900-1902. To combat this unconventional war, the South African Police were given extended powers of detention and other draconian measures - all of which could only be short term fire fighting measures, as the main issue: that of preventing majority Black occupation of the country - was never addressed by any Apartheid laws.

The Republic of South Africa

In 1961, the South African government declared itself a republic and formally withdrew from the British commonwealth - the aspirations of Afrikaner independence had once again been fulfilled.

The White Republic of South Africa was noted for many things, not the least of them many world first in technological breakthroughs. In this way the very first heart transplant was carried out by an Afrikaner, Chris Barnard, in the segregated hospital of Groote Schuur in Cape Town, in 1962; the first truly properly successful industrial plant which converted coal into oil was set up at Sasolburg in the Orange Free State (the technology had first been developed by the Germans during the Second World War at the Buna rubber plant at Auschwitz); the country became self reliant in the manufacture of arms and sophisticated weaponry (leading to a thriving arms export business) and also developed its own nuclear weapons.

Black Homelands Revisited

At the same time the White government starting giving practical application to the policy of "Grand Apartheid". Imitating the British, independence was given to a number of traditional Black tribal homelands, the first in the mid 1970's.

In this way, the White government deluded itself into thinking that Black political aspirations could be satisfied in the exercise of voting for these tribal homelands, despite huge numbers of these tribe members living outside the borders of these states - in the urban areas.

This policy was naturally doomed: it never seriously addressed the issue of the use of Black labor in the White areas, and those Blacks who did agree to take up the reins of government in these Black homelands were (usually accurately) rejected as puppets of the Whites by the majority of Blacks.

The White government also refused to adjust the size of these traditional tribal areas to fit in with the changed demographics, stubbornly insisting that their land area - some 13 percent of the country's surface area - could accommodate what was rapidly becoming over 80 percent of the total population.

The White South African government - just like the Aryans in India - refused to accept the basic truth of racial dynamics: those who occupy a space determine the nature of the society in that space, irrelevant of to whom that space originally belonged. White South Africa's fate was sealed when the territorial division was not adjusted to fit in with the demographic realities; when all the effort was put into creating Black homelands and none put into creating a White "homeland" and the continued insistence upon the use of Black labor.

Demographic Changes Force Social Change

By 1990, there were approximately 5 million Whites in South Africa, and anywhere between 35 and 40 million Nonwhites - the latter having had a population rate increase as staggering as that of the Black population in America.

The Race War in Namibia

The territory of South West Africa, made a mandate of South Africa in 1920 by the League of Nations, had also developed its own Black resistance movement along the lines of its South African counterparts, called the South West African Peoples Organizations (SWAPO). This organization then proceeded to launch its own campaign of violent resistance to the White government in that territory.

As in South Africa itself, SWAPO received considerable Soviet support, and the South African army was deployed in large numbers in northern South West Africa for nearly twenty years, fighting a hot war against SWAPO insurgents, never being able to definitively beat SWAPO, as their guerrillas clearly operated with the overwhelming support of the locals (once again ironically mirroring the situation the British had faced with the Boer War. This was a problem which the British had solved by putting the Boer support base, the women and children, into concentration camps).

Collapse of Portuguese Colonies

In the interim, Portugal had set up two large colonies in Southern Africa: Angola on the West coast (from where a large number of Black slaves were sent to America) and Mozambique on the East coast. These colonies were ruled at first with an iron fist, but then gradually more leniently: finally the inhabitants of these colonies were all given Portuguese citizenship.

However, the Black nationalists within these countries set up their own anti-colonial military organizations. Backed by the Soviet Union and Red China, these Black nationalists saw the Portuguese being dragged into an extended guerrilla war in the African bush, one which they could in reality never win. The situation dragged on inconclusively until 1974, when a coup in Portugal itself overthrew the government: overnight the new government simply withdrew its troops from Angola and Mozambique and washed their hands of the colonies.

The collapse of the Portuguese colonial administration in Angola and Mozambique created additional military problems for the South Africans; suddenly their military intervention was required deep into the territories of both of these countries to prevent large scale incursions into South West and South Africa by Black resistance guerrillas. A number of conventional and non-conventional invasions followed in both of these countries, with South African troops very nearly occupying the capital of Angola, Luanda, in the late 1970's.

Cuban Intervention

However, a combination of international pressure and the arming of the new Black governments of Angola and Mozambique with modern sophisticated Soviet weapons and the arrival of thousands of Cuban troops in Angola, caused the South Africans to pull back, suffering their first large defeats: the South Africans were in many instances unable to match the advanced Soviet warplanes and lost the crucial total air superiority required for long range operations.

The South Africans also provided material aid to local Black resistance groups fighting the Black governments in Angola and Mozambique in a largely successful attempt to destabilize those countries. All these strategies were well thought out militarily, but no political or military theory addressed the real issue which ultimately decided everything in Southern Africa: that of the changing and ever darkening demographic profile.

Eventually, by the time that the protracted race war in South West Africa ended in 1990 (when the country was handed over to a SWAPO government) some 1,200 White soldiers had been killed, along with several hundred White civilians. Many thousands of SWAPO combatants, and a very large number of Black civilians died as well, the exact figures never having been finally established.

Black Uprising and White Suppression

Thus White South Africa found itself fighting a "hot" racial war on the border in South West Africa as well having to cope with an internal racial conflict, which grew each year as the demographics turned ever more quickly against the Whites.

In 1976, a Black student uprising, using the issue of Afrikaans language medium instruction as the spark, blew up into countrywide riots that year. Suppressed with the loss of over 500 Black lives, the Soweto riots, as they came to be known, marked a watershed in the racial divide in South Africa; from then on, international opinion was mobilized against White South Africa and the Black resistance movements were able to step up their campaign of internal violence.

In the face of the increased pressure, South African nuclear scientists developed a number of nuclear weapons which were supposed to have been used in the event of a conventional invasion either by the West or by a Soviet led Black invasion from the north. These weapons were never used, and demolished in the 1990's, their existence only being formally acknowledged in 1993.

"Unrest Situations"

As the levels of Black resistance increased after 1976, so did the White state become ever more draconian in its legislation and activities: states of emergencies became increasingly common, and

running race wars in urban and rural areas, known as "unrest situations" became routine news in the country.

Ultimately it was a combination of internal violence and international pressure (in the form of sanctions) that finally persuaded the White government to throw in the towel and hand over to a Black government, a process which was stated with a limited reform program in 1983.

The partial reforms of the mid 1980's - which included the repealing of the laws forbidding mixed racial marriages and mixed racial political parties, combined with limited constitutional reforms which gave Indians and Coloreds their own parliamentary chambers, did little to stop the increasing violence. In fact, racial violence increased dramatically: the reforms created an unfulfilled revolution of rising expectations, and it was precisely during this cycle of Black violence and White counter violence that the racial war taking place inside the country exacted its highest death tolls ever.

ANC Unbanned

In 1990, the White government finally faced the truth that it could no longer effectively control the ballooning Black population, and unbanned the ANC and released its leader, Nelson Mandela, from prison. Within four years an election based on universal suffrage was held: the 1994 election was won by the ANC with nearly two thirds of the votes cast.

The decision by the White government to surrender power was contested by White hard-liners, who formed a number of opposition groups, none of whom were ultimately able to defeat the NP in any of the elections or two referendums that were held during the reform years of the mid 1980s and early 1990s. One hard-line group, the Afrikaner Resistance Movement (AWB) became increasingly militant and was responsible for a campaign of violence leading up to the first multi-racial elections in 1994. Twelve people were killed and hundreds injured in this violence: the perpetrators were however arrested and violent White resistance came to an end.

A Beleaguered Minority

Although Black on White crime had always been a factor in South Africa, the problem increased dramatically after Apartheid was formally abolished. The growth of huge shantytown squatter camps in and around the large South African cities brought with them a host of social ills which became a breeding ground for the criminality for which post Apartheid South Africa became famous.

What is however never mentioned is the fact that the overwhelming majority of criminals are Black, and while their victims include Blacks just as commonly as Whites, the Whites suffer more from crime as a group in South Africa simply because they are demographically vulnerable and because they generally have more to steal. So even crime in South Africa has taken on a distinct racial tinge, as has been the case in Europe, Australia and North America as well.

The Black government then started a policy of extreme affirmative action, appointing Nonwhites into positions of authority merely because these posts were previously reserved for Whites, not because the newly appointed Black office holders were competent or qualified to hold these posts.

This duplicated virtually exactly the institution of the Black former slave governments in the American

Southern states after the end of the Civil War in that country - and led to a similar collapse in infrastructure and services.

The White population in South Africa reacted predictably: those who could, generally left, going to other majority White countries to escape the openly anti-White policies of the new Black government, while those who could not leave, barricaded themselves into razor wire and burglar barred "homes", all the while being taxed at one of the highest taxation rates in the world.

Microcosm of a Rise and Fall

Ultimately then, South Africa became a vitally important microcosm of White history: important because within the space of two hundred years (just over four generations) it traveled the full circle of the rise and fall of White civilizations as defined by the race of the country's inhabitants:

- starting out with deeds of immense bravery (the settlement of new territory; the Great Trek);
- then moving onto the establishment of independent states;
- then allowing huge numbers of Nonwhites into these territories as legal or illegal immigrants to do the labor;
- then trying to segregate themselves from the growing numbers of Nonwhites (at first by custom and then by law) while still using the Nonwhite labor; and
- then finally being overwhelmed by the changing demographics, by the change in the make-up of the population of those territories.

This process was compressed even further in the short history of the White country of Rhodesia. This little country, whose White inhabitants never numbered more than 500,000, became the subject of one of the most vicious bush wars ever to have been fought between Whites and Blacks in Africa, and attracted condemnation from around the world.

Rhodesia

The country known in history as Rhodesia (now called Zimbabwe) was created in 1888, when a Black tribal chief in the area, one Lobengula, granted a mining concession to the British Empire builder Cecil John Rhodes. Rhodes, who also served as the prime minister of the British Colony at the Cape, formed the British South Africa Company to settle the new region. He considered it not only valuable for its mineral wealth but also for its strategical position: with the creation of a British colony to the north of the then independent Boer Republics, Rhodes must have thought of encircling the Boers with this move.

Early Black Resistance

The number of White settlers in the new region was tiny, and unlike South Africa, there were no regions which were either uninhabited or sparsely inhabited. The Black tribes - the Matabele and the

Shona - were present in massive numbers, and soon started expressing their dissatisfaction with having been colonized by stealth through the innocuous granting of a mining license. A series of Black uprisings then took place: they were quickly suppressed by the tiny White minority through force of arms, with the last major uprising being put down in 1897.

Slow Growth in White Numbers

Very slowly the colony began to grow in terms of White numbers: mainly immigrants from Britain, but also a few Boers from South Africa, although they were always in the tiny minority amongst the Rhodesian White population. The region was named Rhodesia in 1894, in honor of Rhodes, and his British South Africa Company (BSAC) not only retained control but gradually extended its influence, so that by 1923, it held not only what was to become Rhodesia, but present day Zambia as well.

Self Governing Colony

By the end of the First World War, the number of White settlers in the southern part of the BSAC's territory had grown to the point where they started demanding self government. In 1923, this request was acceded to by the British government, and the region became known as the British Colony of Southern Rhodesia, with the northern part becoming the British Colony of Northern Rhodesia, ruled directly from London through a Commissioner.

Despite the relatively large numbers of White settlers, the Blacks constantly outnumbered the Whites by an ever increasing ratio. White rule was only maintained through a policy of harsh military subjugation and surprisingly large scale Black acquiescence - but the latter situation would not remain so for ever.

World War Two

As a loyal British colony, Southern Rhodesia sent a not insignificant number of White colonists to Europe to fight for Britain: one prominent Rhodesian born member of the British Royal Air Force was named Ian Smith: he would later become prime minister of Rhodesia.

The Winds of Change

The decolonization policy followed by the British Empire after the end of the Second World War saw Southern Rhodesia being first included in a federation of three other regions: Northern Rhodesia (later to be Zambia) and Nyasaland (later to be called Malawi). This federation lasted from 1953 to 1963, when it was dissolved in preparation for the independence of these states. However, the British government foresaw granting these states independence on the basis of universal suffrage and Black rule: by now, the White minority in Southern Rhodesia was far too ensconced to accept such a dispensation. In 1964, Northern Rhodesia gained its independence as Zambia, and Nyasaland as Malawi.

The Unilateral Declaration of Independence - UDI

Britain began to pressure the Southern Rhodesian legislature - elected only by Whites - to accept the

inevitability of change and agree to Black rule. This incensed the White settlers, who felt betrayed by the British government. Led by Ian Smith, the majority party in the Southern Rhodesian parliament, then issued the famous UDI - or Unilateral Declaration of Independence in 1965. In 1970, the country declared itself a republic, changing its name from Rhodesia to the Republic of Rhodesia. The White settlers decided to go it alone, but almost immediately ran into problems both domestically and internationally.

Black Guerrilla Warfare

Internally two major Black tribally based guerrilla - or as the Rhodesians called them, terrorist - organizations came into being, and gradually over a 13 year period stepped up their attacks on the small White towns and isolated White farms to the point where cars had to move between the major centers in convoys for protection and dirt roads literally became minefields.

A large number of appalling atrocities were carried out on Whites unfortunate enough to fall into Black guerrillas' hands; although the guerrillas were not averse to torturing and executing large numbers of their own people if they suspected any of them of collaboration with the White government.

A vicious bush war then erupted which in sheer combat terms always saw the Rhodesian army win conventional engagements: however, the bulk of the war was fought on an unconventional basis with the majority of the Black population supporting the guerrillas.

Nonetheless the Rhodesians pulled off many spectacular military operations: from raids on Zambia's main airport through to deep overland raids into guerrilla bases inside neighboring countries, the Rhodesians notched up a staggering kill rate which would have decimated any conventional army.

Simultaneously White medicine and other technological advances were shared with the Black population: their numbers shot up so that by the time of White Rhodesia's collapse in 1980, there were around 450,000 Whites and upwards of six million Blacks in the country.

International Pressure

Internationally, the Rhodesian state was placed under official United Nations sanctions. Apart from a few daredevil adventurers who broke the sanctions by aircraft missions across Africa, White ruled South Africa became the Rhodesians' only source of supplies, including the vital oil and petrol needed to keep the wheels of the army running. Pressure was then applied to the South African government to in turn exert pressure on Ian Smith.

Finally a combination of all these factors persuaded Smith to give up the fight, although the Rhodesian army itself had never been militarily beaten.

Zimbabwe

Smith then handed over power in 1978 to an interim power sharing government with internal Black leaders: they were replaced in 1980 by internationally supervised elections which saw the largest tribally based guerrilla organization come to power, and the country's name was changed once again

to Zimbabwe. Given the small population of Whites, it was a miracle in itself that Rhodesia had ever existed at all.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Fifty Seven

New Zealand : Australia and New Zealand

Australia and New Zealand were virtually unique amongst the European colonies in the sense that they were the only new lands to where large numbers of Black slaves were never imported. The result was a successful colony comprising overwhelmingly of Whites (with only a small fraction of original Nonwhite natives) which established a record for stability and progress virtually unmatched in history.

The racial history of Australia and New Zealand is therefore primarily concerned with the interaction between the White immigrants and the native populations: only in the last part of the 20th century have other racial groups - Asians and a lesser extent Blacks and Middle Easterners - become a factor to be considered.

Australia

Within the first ten years of the first White settlement at Sydney in 1788, several major clashes had taken place between the Whites and the Aborigines. They were extremely one sided: the Aborigines were an extremely primitive tribe, barely out of the stone age, while the White settlers had all the advantages of White technology: guns, cannons and the wheel.

The British government itself however followed a policy of trying to protect the Aborigines: indeed the very first state paid schools for Aborigines was set up by one of the early governors, one Lachlan Macquarie (who served as governor from 1809 to 1821). This was done long before the colonial governments set up schools for all the Whites.

The British government also issued specific instructions to protect Aborigines: generally they were adhered to; only in a few notable incidents did gratuitous acts of violence take place against the natives. The clashes that did take place were mostly reprisals taken by Whites for criminal acts committed by local Aborigines.

Surprisingly enough, there are no recorded incidents of Aborigines having resisted the take over of land: they were far too politically undeveloped to form any sort coherent united action, unlike the Amerinds in North America.

Overwhelmed by the technologically superior Whites, the Aborigines were forced to retreat into the vast interior. As the White frontier was opened up further, Aborigines were even employed on sheep stations, and others used for police patrols.

The Effect of White Settlement

During the first century of white settlement, the Aboriginal population declined dramatically in

numbers. Although there are of course no indications as to what the original Aboriginal population was in terms of numbers, it is so that large numbers died from exposure to diseases which the White settlers brought with them, and to which the natives had no built up resistance.

The spread of diseases was by far the greatest cause of the decline amongst the Aboriginals: but there were other causes as well. The White settlers soon found the presence of Aboriginals near their settlements to be of nuisance value: crime and petty theft along with a very quickly developed serious addiction problem to alcohol caused White settlers to exact severe punishments on the local population. These reprisals were sometimes unjustified and involved serious massacres.

This state of mutual reprisals led to generally strained relations between the White settlers and the locals. However, the rapid thinning out of the Aboriginal population by disease meant that by 1920, according to estimates, there were only about 60,000 left. As a racial factor they were, therefore, insignificant.

White Attitudes

The early White settlers however thought very little of even the few Aboriginals who survived: in fact, the Aborigines' social and political status was so low that they were omitted from the official national censuses until 1971, following the overwhelming passage of a 1967 referendum that granted the government power to legislate for the Aborigines and to include them in the census count.

Penal Settlements

Despite have been discovered by White explorers at the time of the great voyages of discovery, Australia was regarded for many years as an unattractive land for White settlement. Britain was the first country to become interested in setting up colonies in Australia: caused directly by the 1776 American War of Independence. As a result of that war, Britain lost its dumping ground for its penal colonies (the British attitude towards crime was that it would go away if enough criminals were deported to remote lands) and in 1786 announced its intention to establish a penal colony in Australia.

So it was that the very first wave of Whites to move to Australia - albeit against their will - set sail in an eleven strong fleet of Royal Navy ships from Portsmouth in May 1787. The eleven ships carried 759 convicts and 400 crew. In January 1788, the British fleet dropped anchor in what is today Port Jackson, and on 26 January founded the first permanent settlement, now known as Australia Day.

The settlement was named after the British Home Secretary, Lord Sydney, who had come up with the idea of establishing the colony.

Early Difficulties

The early settlement faced a serious problem in keeping itself supplied: the settlers had great difficulty finding arable land to plant crops, and for along time the only major natural food came in the form of fish and kangaroo. The nearest viable agricultural land was on Norfolk Island, some 1,600 kilometers way - and this island as duly occupied as the second settlement in February 1788. Later

the island was turned into a penal colony as well for hardened criminals.

New South Wales Corps

In 1792, a new specially recruited army regiment, called the New South Wales Corps, was sent to Australia to boost the settlement. Given large tracts of land far from the original settlement of Sydney, these men and their families soon established a decent agricultural community, although they struggled to establish a suitable livestock population.

The New South Wales Corps were however also obliged to perform other duties: in 1804 they were used to put down a rebellion by Irish convicts: the penal settlements were growing all the while. In 1821, the Corps were sent back to England, although some stayed on in their private capacities.

South African Sheep

In 1810, a major breakthrough was made in transforming the farming community: a type of sheep called the Merino, was imported from the then growing White settlement in South Africa. Bred especially for the harsh hot climate, it thrived in Australia and soon developed into the Australian farmers' major economic activity and export to Britain.

Reformed Convicts

Convicts who had been sent to Australia, when freed, also stayed: many reformed and became perfectly respectable members of society, one of the first and most notable being one Francis Greenway, who designed many of the public buildings still standing in Sydney to this day.

White Settlement Increases

The White population began to climb rapidly after the end of the Napoleonic Wars in Europe (1815), with the largest increase coming from voluntary settlers who were drawn with the promise of free land. Tension however arose amongst the ex convicts, who also wanted land, and the voluntary settlers, who regarded the ex convicts as only a step above the Aborigines.

A British Foreign Office report into the situation in the new colony in 1819, produced a number of constitutional reforms, which saw greater power being handed to the settlers themselves; and also included a recommendation for the establishment of a more remote penal settlement to try and defuse the growing tensions between the voluntary settlers and the ex convicts. (This report also first used the word "Australia" to refer to the territory - a name which stuck).

All the while other White settlements were being established as the population grew: eventually in 1825, the British government formally declared a new colony, that of Van Dieman's land (which changed its name to Tasmania in 1854), which had first been occupied as a penal settlement in 1803.

By 1850, Britain had sent 150,000 convicts to Australia. Twenty percent were women (a major factor in the resultant White population increase) and about one third were Irish. Most, like the prisoners and

White slaves sent to early America, had been drawn from the lowest social strata of the Industrial Revolution era slums in British towns.

1850 was the cut off point: after that Britain stopped the practice of deporting convicts: not out of any moral persuasion, merely that the threat of deportation did not seem to lower the crime rate at all.

Interior Settled

As the White settlements expanded westwards, so did the sheep farms and the numbers of sheep. After 1813, new South Wales began filling up with Whites; right up until the 1880's, new settlements were established up and down the country, some as farming centers, some as mining towns after the discovery of gold and other minerals in the interior.

The first White settlement in western Australia was established in 1829, after an initial pioneering expedition had visited the area two years before. The town of Perth was established by this expedition, but it was initially not a success, despite being sent 10,000 convicts to provide labor.

It was only with the discovery of gold in the 1890s that Western Australia became viable. The first exclusively free settler colony was established in 1837 in south Australia, with Adelaide as its capital. This colony grew into a grain producing area. In 1850, the colony of Victoria was established, with its capital at Melbourne (which itself had been founded in 1836). The growth in the numbers of Whites had in the interim been so dramatic that the colony of Queensland, with its capital of Brisbane, was created out of the colony of New South Wales in 1859.

Constitution

By the mid-1850s, an embryonic democratic form of government had been created - and sanctioned by Britain - in the colonies making up Australia, with each colony having a popularly elected parliament. Australia has retained this basic political structure to this day. By 1861, the number of Whites in Australia had reached 1,2 million: a massive increase over the 1850 population of 400,000. Whites from Britain, America and Canada all joined in, drawn by the discovery of gold.

White Australia Policy

The development of the mining industry also saw for the first time the importation of Nonwhite laborers: Chinese immigrants started arriving after the discovery of gold, and their appearance created alarm amongst the Whites. Eventually in 1856, the state of Victoria formally passed a law prohibiting Chinese persons from entering its territory.

The government of the colony of Queensland started importing Polynesians to work on sugar cane plantations in the early 1860s; a public outcry followed, and the Polynesians were quickly sent back and their jobs were taken by White workers.

The Victoria Chinese exclusion law was then taken up by every other colony in Australia, being extended to include all Nonwhites everywhere. This policy of excluding all immigrants except those belonging to the White race became known formally as the "White Australia Policy" and had the

overwhelming support of all the colonists.

It was precisely the common acceptance of the White Australia policy which finally drew the various colonies of Australia into political unity, as it underlined the need for common immigration laws. The establishment of trade unions and organized labor movements also created a need for common social policies in other areas as well, and by 1898, representatives from all the colonies had thrashed out a common political structure.

The Commonwealth of Australia was given official sanction by the British Parliament in 1900 and was implemented on 1 January 1901. The central government - created on a federal system based on the American model - had as one of its first priorities the maintenance of the White Australia policy, then turning its attention to the setting of a minimum wage and other social issues.

World War One

The outbreak of the First World War in 1914, first saw the Australian nation tested as a whole unit. Sending 330,000 troops to support the Allies against Germany and the Central Powers, the Australian divisions won renown for their participation in many of the worst battles of the Western Front, but will always be remembered for their part, along with a New Zealand unit, for the terrible Allied defeat at Gallipoli in 1915.

Following a plan devised by the British First Lord of the Admiralty, Winston Churchill (later to become prime minister of Britain), the Australians and New Zealanders were supposed to spearhead an attack on the Turkish forces in the Dardanelles. The plan was crucially flawed, and immediately upon landing, on 25 April 1915, the Australian and New Zealand force came under murderous and well prepared Turkish shell fire.

Never advancing much past their initial beach landing point, the Allied force was to withdraw some weeks later, having been thoroughly beaten by a combination of superb Turkish defense and bad planning.

The Battle of Gallipoli was more than just another battle: it marked a change in the psyche of the Australian nation, they were bound together by the horror of the incident and regarded it as their coming of age: Gallipoli Day is still celebrated as a somber remembrance day in Australia. The disaster at Gallipoli dented Australian enthusiasm for the war: in 1917, an attempt to introduce conscription in Australia was rejected.

Progress

All the while, Australia continued to progress as fast as any other modern European country, despite the country only being as young as it was. Almost overnight, White European culture and technology was implemented in Australia and it soon became the super power of the region, easily dwarfing its much longer inhabited neighboring islands.

Internally, Australia's racial population make-up hardly changed during the first part of the twentieth century - only Whites were allowed into the country, and this policy combined with a natural

reproduction rate created a steady increase of the numbers of Whites.

World War Two

With the outbreak of the Second World War, Australia once again came to the support of the Allies, sending troops to the European theater of war where they acquitted themselves well. The attack on the Pacific territories by Japan, however, heightened racial feeling in Australia: especially when Japanese aircraft bombed parts of northern Australia itself. Until America was able to retake the Philippines from the Japanese, the supreme commander of U.S. forces in the Pacific, General Douglas MacArthur and his staff, used Australia for their base of operations.

Although the number of fatalities suffered by Australia in the Second World War were far fewer than in the First, the effect on the psychology of the average Australian was far more affected by the threat of an Asiatic invasion: unquestionably it was the very worst scenario which the White Australia policy had sought to prevent.

Massive White Immigration

In reaction to the near threat of an Asiatic invasion, the Australian government embarked on a program of encouraging White immigration at end of the war. Thousands of Whites from Eastern Europe, fleeing the spread of the Soviet Union, settled in Australia, the Hungarian community becoming particularly prominent. Many thousands of Greeks also settled in Australia, establishing large communities in the western cities.

Then in the 1950s, came the "ten pound poms" - an estimated one million White British people left the struggling post war Britain to seek a new life in Australia: the British and Australian governments arranged their transportation by ship upon payment of a ten pound fare, hence the name. Rarely in modern times had there been such a massive voluntary White movement.

Boom

The sudden increase in the numbers of Whites brought on a new age of prosperity for Australia. Almost overnight the number of universities in each state increased threefold, the governments providing free university-level education to all those who were qualified.

White Australia Policy Abandoned

The White Australia policy was only finally officially struck from the statute books in 1966 by a Liberal party government under Robert Menzies: unofficially it remained in force well into the 1970s.

Aboriginals Sidelined

Aboriginals remained on the sidelines of Australian affairs until the late 1960s. After a referendum on the issue in 1967, it was decided to grant full citizenship to Aboriginals, something they had previously not been considered important enough for which to qualify. This year, 1967, marked the year that Aboriginals were first granted the vote in Australia.

Until the 1960s, the Aboriginal population was mainly rural. Over the next two decades Aborigines began moving in greater numbers to urban areas. In many country towns, Aboriginal families were viewed negatively as fringe dwellers. In the larger cities, small, but highly volatile and crime plagued ghettos were established: very soon it was established that the Aborigines had the highest imprisonment rate of any Nonwhite grouping in any White ruled country in the world, pro-rata to their population size; surpassing even the Black American imprisonment rate.

A 1975 Liberal coalition government under Malcolm Fraser then introduced measures to look at Aboriginal land claims in Australia: something which would soon have great repercussions. In 1992, the High Court of Australia ruled that the people of the Murray Islands, in the Torres Strait, held title to their land, thereby acknowledging that Australia was occupied at the time of European settlement. In 1993, the government passed an act allowing Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders to file land claims.

The implications of this decision were far reaching: if carried out to their logical conclusion, it would allow the Aborigines, who constituted an estimated 1.5 or 2 per cent of the population, to claim the vast majority of territory in Australia: with their extremely poor social record this would unquestionably lead to the destruction of the Australian farming community and have serious national repercussions.

In terms of unemployment, welfare dependence, infant mortality rates, and average life expectancy, the Aboriginal population is still, despite all the measures taken to improve their lot, way below the levels of all other racial groups in Australia, recent Asian immigrants included.

Racial Political Structures

In an overtly racial set up which is forbidden to Whites (in fact they would be called racists if they dared create similar structures), every region of Australia is represented by its own Aboriginal land council, and most regions run cultural centers and festivals.

Homogeneity Key to Stability

Australia's development is notable for its stability, in stark contrast to every other part of the new world settled by White colonists. The key difference between Australia and the Americas or Africa, has been the massive degree of homogeneity amongst the inhabitants of Australia. It has never caused the Australians to become involved in horrendous civil wars nor to face the social unrest and racial violence that has dogged all the other settlements.

The development of Australia into a modern First World country contrasts dramatically with the progress of colonies in South America: although the settlements in South America preceded those in Australia by hundreds of years, Australia is nonetheless far more developed than almost all of South America.

If time, geography or other environmental factors were the sole determinant of the development of a society, it would be fairly logical to assume that a colony dating from approximately 1500 (for example Cuba) would be more developed than a colony dating from approximately 1800 (Australia).

The fact that the levels of development in these two countries differ so vastly can only be ascribed to the populations of these regions, and to no other factor. This is particularly so if it is borne in mind that, by any measure, Australia is a far less hospitable place than most of South America.

This stability has allowed Australia to develop as fast as any nation on earth: and the country is classed as First World even though in reality it was only created during the early part of the 18th century - truly a remarkable example of the truth that a society is a reflection of the people living in it, rather than a product of the environment.

Precisely because it has developed into such a stable, advanced and relatively wealthy society, Australia has, in the last three decades of the 20th century, become an attractive focus point for increasing Third World population flows: this effect will be discussed in the last chapter of this book.

New Zealand

New Zealand's history nearly mirrors that of Australia, with only one small exception: the native population, called Maoris, did not suffer as much in reduction of numbers as the Australian Aborigines. Subsequently there was a higher number of Maoris for the White settlers to interact with: and therefore there was a higher degree of racial friction.

First Meeting with the Maoris

The Dutch navigator, Abel Tasman (after whom Tasmania was named), was the first White explorer to encounter the Maori, and the meeting was not a happy one. Four members of Tasman's crew were killed in a bloody encounter with Maori on the South Island in 1642. The next contact with the Maoris came in 1769, when the British explorer James Cook established friendly relations with some Maori. By 1800, visits by European ships were relatively frequent.

First White Settlement

Although the British explorer, James Cook, had claimed New Zealand for Britain in 1679, it was only in the 18th century that British missionaries and whalers established settlements in the territory, mainly on the Northern Island of the two island country.

Maori Resistance

The Maoris put up a mild resistance to these first outposts, with a number of clashes taking place. As in Australia, however, the Maoris were no match for the White technology, and could do virtually nothing against the guns of the White settlers.

The number of Whites in New Zealand was however minute: large scale White immigration into New Zealand only started in 1839 under the guidance of the New Zealand Company, based in London. With hundreds of years' experience in setting up colonies behind them, the British first tried to negotiate a settlement with the Maori population.

A treaty, known as the Treaty of Waitangi, was signed in 1840 between the British and 50 leading Maori chieftains. In terms of this treaty, Britain formally took sovereignty over the islands and agreed to respect the landownership rights of the Maori, who placed themselves under the protection of the British government. The British then proceeded to make the territory a dependency of the colony of New South Wales in Australia.

Separate Crown Colony

The administrative problems involving in running New Zealand from Australia soon became apparent, and in 1841, New Zealand was reconstituted as a separate crown colony, with Auckland as its capital. White settlement continued apace: becoming known as a more hospitable land than Australia, enough Whites settled in the country that within three decades two large cities had been built on the South Island: Otago (now Dunedin) in 1848, and Canterbury (now Christchurch) in 1850.

The Maoris, who unlike the Aborigines in Australia, had not been decimated by White borne diseases, started to realize that the White settlers were increasing at a fast rate: several violent Maori uprisings against the Whites occurred between 1845 and 1848, and between 1860 and 1872. These uprisings, known as the New Zealand Wars, were all however defeated by White force of arms.

Gold and Sheep

In 1860, gold was discovered in New Zealand and a fresh wave of immigrants poured in. Sheep were introduced around the same time, and soon sheep farming and mining were the main occupations. An embryonic democracy was created in 1856, modeled on the American constitution. Fully occupied with domestic internal economic politicking, New Zealand remained isolated from the great political events in Europe and elsewhere: only in 1893 did New Zealand attract attention by being the first country to grant the vote to women.

Development

New Zealand also developed as fast as any other European nation, again reflecting the overwhelmingly White nature of its population, rather than the age of the country itself or of its environment. Railways, modern infrastructure and western social systems were introduced overnight and, like Australia, New Zealand is officially classed as being First World even though it is hundreds, and perhaps thousands, of years younger than many Third World countries.

Again, the stark division between the continent of South America and New Zealand is vivid, and can only be ascribed to the population make-up.

First World War

During the First World War, New Zealand sent just over 100,000 men to serve in the European theater of war, taking part in the disastrous Gallipoli campaign with the Australians. In 1916, New Zealand units fought in France at the Battle of the Somme, and later another unit served in Palestine. As in Australia, the war generated a sense of nationalism in New Zealand.

Second World War

In the Second World War, New Zealand once again made a significant contribution (in terms of its population size) to the Allied war effort, its soldiers serving in Greece, Cyprus, North Africa, Italy and of course in the Pacific where the Japanese at one stage seriously threatened both Australia and New Zealand.

Modern Maoris

By the end of the 20th century, the Maoris numbered some 430,000, constituting approximately one-eighth of New Zealand's population. The Maori community continues to struggle with high rates of unemployment, imprisonment, alcoholism, drug dependency, and violence.

Immigration

As a stable and relatively advanced nation, New Zealand, has, like Australia, become an attractive landing point for increased Third World immigration in the last part of the 20th century. The extent and implications of this are discussed in a later chapter.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Fifty Eight

Shaping the World: The White Technological Revolution

The world today is dominated by technology as never before. It is impossible to travel anywhere without seeing some vestiges of or manifestations of technological wizardry which have shaped all life on the planet today, particularly those innovations developed at the time of the Industrial Revolution.

While this fact is commonly known and countless books and works have been written on the subject, all have ignored one crucial feature of this astonishing technological revolution: the plain facts are that the great technological innovations which have set the pace for the entire world are exclusively the product of a tiny minority of Whites.

This fact, like so many other unpalatable truths in history, is ignored because of the political implications it carries: it is possibly the most politically incorrect view which can be made, although the facts leave any objective observer with no other option but to arrive at this inescapable conclusion.

Origins

While it is often claimed that the modern technological age began with the era of the Industrial Revolution, the reality is that many of the technologies which have shaped the modern world pre-date the era of the Industrial Revolution by sometimes hundreds of years.

This is not to down play the importance of the Industrial Revolution, which in itself was a period of perhaps 200 years which saw science and technology leapfrog in terms of development, but merely to put things into perspective: that much of the knowledge sharing and ability which created that explosion of genius was only possible because of earlier developments.

Ancient Inventors

- Archimedes (287-212 BC) was a Classical Greek inventor who defined the principle of the lever and is credited with inventing the compound pulley. During his stay in Egypt, he invented the hydraulic screw for raising water from a lower to a higher level. He is best known for discovering the law of hydrostatics, often called Archimedes' principle, which states that a body immersed in fluid loses weight equal to the weight of the amount of fluid it displaces. He also invented the catapult and the first "laser beam" - a system of mirrors he developed for the kingdom of Syracuse which focused the sun's rays on invaders' boats and set them on fire - the basic principle behind a magnifying glass.
- Ctesibius (3rd century BC) was a Classical Greek inventor who won fame for his invention of a number of devices using the pressure created by air and water. He used water weights, or containers made heavy by filling them with water, and compressed air, to construct an air-powered catapult. His most famous invention was the great improvement he made to the ancient Egyptian clepsydra, or water clock, in which water dripping into a container at a steady rate raised a float that carried a pointer to mark the hours. He equipped the float with a rack that turned a toothed wheel and made the

clock work a number of adornments: whistling birds, moving puppets, ringing bells, and other gadgets. The accuracy of Ctesibius's water clock was only eventually surpassed in 1657 by the pendulum clock of Dutch inventor Christiaan Huygens, but the spirit of Ctesibius's clock still survives in the cuckoo clock.

- Leonardo da Vinci (1452-1519) was not only a great artist but also a stunningly advanced inventor whose surviving documents and manuscripts are filled with designs for many of the machines regarded as 19th or 20th century inventions, but were in fact modeled in his 16th century plans. These designs included: portable bridges; cannons; armored vehicles; a submarine; an underwater diving suit; and models for aircraft.

Computers

The history of the development of an item regarded as on the cutting edge of modern technology - the computer - serves as another excellent example of how the development of modern technology predates the era of the Industrial Revolution.

- The first computer - a machine which could do mathematical equations - was built as early as 1623 by the German scientist Wilhelm Schikard. He built a machine that used 11 complete and 6 incomplete sprocketed wheels that could add and, with the aid of logarithm tables, multiply and divide.

- In 1642, the Frenchman Blaise Pascal, invented a machine that added and subtracted, automatically carrying and borrowing digits from column to column. The 17th century German mathematician, Gottfried Leibniz, designed a special gearing system to enable Pascal's machine to do multiplication as well.

- The first programmable computer was developed in 1804 when the Frenchman, Joseph-Marie Jacquard, invented a spinning loom which used punched cards to program preselected patterns. Jacquard was rewarded by Napoleon Bonaparte for his work, but was forced to flee Lyon when he was attacked by weavers who saw themselves being replaced by his invention. His looms are however still used today, especially in the manufacture of fine furniture fabrics.

- The British mathematician and inventor, Charles Babbage, started building, but never completed, two astonishing computers called the Difference Engine and the Analytical Engine. The latter became the basis upon which all modern computers were developed. Babbage never managed to finish building his machines - although all the plans were completed - because of financial constraints. Many of the ideas surrounding Babbage's computers were recorded by his friend, Augusta Ada Byron, the daughter of the famous poet Lord Byron. Ada's conceptual programs for the Engine led to the naming of a programming language (Ada) in her honor. Although the Analytical Engine was never built, its key concepts, such as the capacity to store instructions, the use of punched cards as a primitive memory, and the ability to print, were taken by others and can be found in many modern computers.

- The German American, Herman Hollerith, developed a device which could electronically create and read the punched cards developed by Jacquard. Hollerith's tabulator was used for the 1890 US census, cutting the counting time to a quarter of the previous census time. Hollerith's Tabulating Machine Company eventually merged with other companies in 1924 to become the world famous IBM company.

- The precursor to the modern digital computer came in 1936, when the British mathematician Alan Turing developed the Turing Machine - a device looking like a typewriter that could process equations without human direction. From this machine the idea of buttons and keyboard for a computer was developed.
- In the 1930s, the American mathematician, Howard Aiken, developed the Mark I calculating machine, which was built by Hollerith's IBM. This electronic calculating machine used relays and electromagnetic components to replace mechanical components. Aiken also introduced computers to universities by establishing the first computer science program at Harvard University.
- During the Second World War, computer technology leapfrogged, with the British developing a massive analogue computer in secret to be able to read the encrypted German field signals.
- The first successful digital computer, the Electronic Numerical Integrator And Computer (ENIAC), was invented by the American, John Mauchly, at the University of Pennsylvania in 1945. Many of ENIAC's first tasks were for military purposes, such as calculating ballistic firing tables and designing atomic weapons. Mauchly and a partner formed their own company, and produced the Universal Automatic Computer (UNIVAC), which was used for a broader variety of commercial applications.
- In 1948, at Bell Telephone Laboratories, American physicists Walter Houser Brattain, John Bardeen, and William Bradford Shockley developed the transistor, a device that can act as an electric switch. The transistor had a tremendous impact on computer design, replacing costly, energy-inefficient, and unreliable vacuum tubes.
- From then on the science has leapfrogged: the development of integrated circuits in America in the late 1960s by a number of scientists enabled the miniaturization of the computer and led ultimately to the modern word processor and personal computer so common today.

The Industrial Revolution

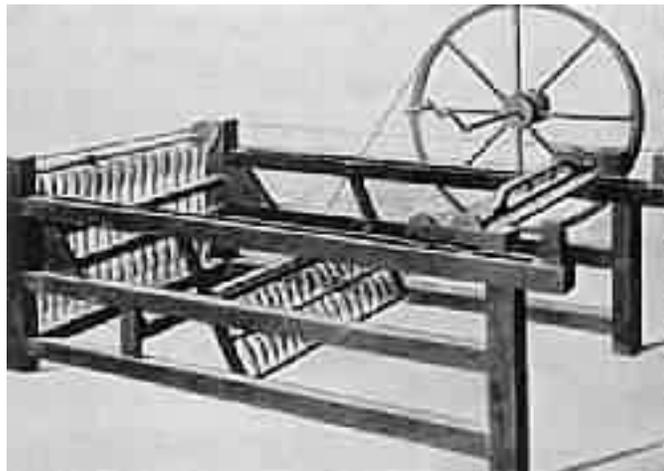
Britain has the distinction of being the mother of the first modern Industrial Revolution, which started at the end of the 18th century. Because British scientific and technical genius provided the impetus, that country became known as the workshop of the world, with its technological wonders being exported to all corners of the earth.

European Inventors and their Inventions

- John Napier (1550-1617) was a Scottish mathematician who invented the first system of logarithms, described in his book *Canonis Descriptio* (1614). He also invented mechanical systems for performing arithmetical computations, described in his book *Rabdologia* (1617).
- Sir Christopher Wren (1632-1723) was an English architect, scientist, and mathematician, who apart from many great buildings, designed and invented a weather clock, the forerunner of the barometer; and undertook pioneering work in the development of blood transfusion.
- Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1726) was an English scientist who worked out an all-encompassing

mechanical explanation of the universe resting upon the law of universal gravitation. His work was so far reaching that it was still used in the 20th century when space exploration was planned.

- Samuel Crompton (1753-1827) was an Englishman who invented the spinning mule, a machine that was able to spin cotton into thread finer and faster than was possible with hand spinning. Foolishly he sold the design for the machine for a mere 60 pounds. While it became the most important machine in the British textile industry, Crompton lived in dreadful poverty until the British Parliament voted him 5000 pounds in 1812, in recognition of his innovation.
- John Kay (1704 - 1764) was an Englishman who invented the Flying Shuttle in 1733. The flying shuttle greatly increased the speed of weaving and permitted picking to be performed by one person. He also invented an improved combing, or carding, device. Attacked by weavers who saw his invention as taking away their jobs, Kay fled to France where he died in poverty.
- Sir Richard Arkwright (1732-92) was a British inventor who designed a spinning frame in which cotton fiber was spun into thread in 1769.
- Edmund Cartwright (1743-1823) was an Englishman who invented the power loom in 1785 - an automated hand loom which provoked violent reaction from manual laborers. Cartwright also invented a wool-combing machine (1789) and a steam engine fueled by alcohol (1797). He was awarded 10,000 pounds by the British Parliament in recognition of his innovations - the power loom made the British Industrial Revolution possible.
- James Hargreaves (1720- 1778) was an Englishman who, in 1764, invented the Spinning Jenny (named after his daughter) which made possible the automatic production of cotton thread.



James Hargreaves' original Spinning Jenny.

- James Watt (1736-1819) was a Scottish inventor who won renown for his development of the first viable steam engine, a device which had originally been invented by the English engineers Thomas Savery and Thomas Newcomen. The first steam engines were thundering devices which were used to pump water from mines. Watt's first patent, in 1769, greatly improved the mechanical flaws of the first steam engines and provided for a host of innovations such as steam-jacketing, oil lubrication, and the insulation of the steam generating cylinder. Watt also invented the rotary engine for driving various

types of machinery; the double-action engine, in which steam is admitted alternately into both ends of the cylinder; the steam indicator, which records the steam pressure in the engine; the centrifugal or flyball governor which automatically regulated the speed of an engine; and an attachment that adapted telescopes for use as land surveying equipment - a device still in use today. The electrical unit, the watt, was named in his honor.

- Edward Jenner (1749-1823) was an English physicist who pioneered the use of vaccines, most notably against smallpox.

- Louis Jacques M. N. P. Daguerre (1789-1851) was a Frenchman who invented the daguerreotype method of photography which used metal plates, which was, until the development of roll film, the most common form of photography.

- Joseph Nicéphore Niépce (1765-1833) was a Frenchman who invented the first process for capturing permanent photographic images. In 1826, he successfully made the first surviving permanent photograph, of the courtyard of his house, using a bitumen-coated pewter plate.

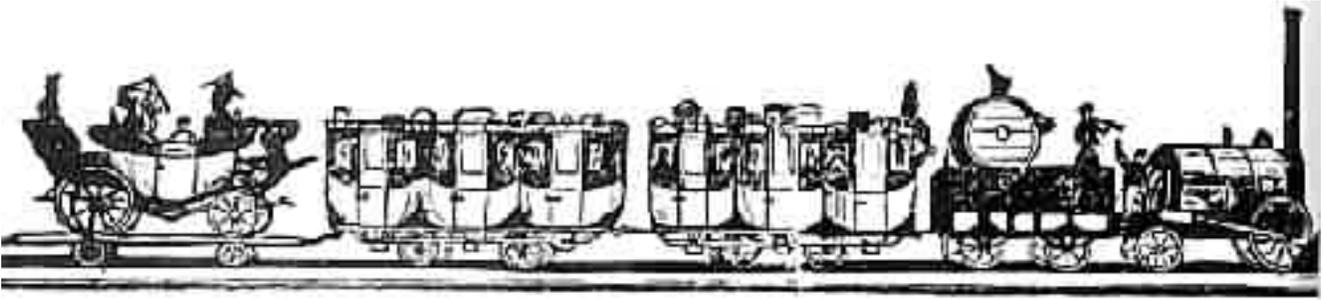
- Robert Wilhelm Bunsen (1811-99) was a German chemist who invented the spectroscope and discovered spectrum analysis which led to the discovery of the elements cesium and rubidium. Bunsen also discovered (1834) the antidote that is still used today for arsenic poisoning. Although his name was given to the Bunsen burner, he did not develop that device. He did however invent a number of other devices, including: the ice calorimeter; the filter pump; and the zinc-carbon electric cell.

- Ernst Werner von Siemens (1816-92) was one of a family of German engineers who founded the firm bearing his name. He invented a number of devices of his own accord, including the electric dynamo and the use of gutta-percha, an elastic, rubberlike substance, for insulating cables. He also built the world's first electric train and tram in Berlin in 1879.

- Michael Faraday (1791 - 1867) was a British physicist who developed the gas burner used in scientific laboratories which later became known as the Bunsen burner. His other great inventions include: benzene; electromagnetic induction; and the laws of electrolysis which bear his name.

- Sir Henry Bessemer (1813-1898) was the British inventor of a revolutionary process for the manufacture of steel, patented in 1856.

- Richard Trevithick (1771-1833) was a British mechanical engineer and inventor who is regarded as the father of railway travel. In 1796, he developed the first mobile steam engines, vastly improving James Watt's steam engines, and by 1801, had transported the first passengers on one of his steam engines. By 1804, his steam engines were running on tracks and the age of rail travel had arrived.



As shown in this illustration of the London and Greenwich railway line in 1833, the first railway carriages were shaped like horse carriages: the train also transported real carriages on flat bed cars.

- In 1829, a new locomotive designed to carry both passengers and cargo was designed by the British engineer George Stephenson. This engine, known as the Rocket, stimulated the building of other locomotives and the extension of railway lines even further. The same year the first locomotive engine was sent to North America from England.
- Alfred Nobel (1833-96) was a Swedish inventor who devised military weapons such as mines, torpedoes, and dynamite.
- Guglielmo Marchese Marconi (1874-1937) was an Italian electrical engineer who won fame as the inventor of the first practical radio-signaling system. In 1897, he formed Marconi's Wireless Telegraph Company, Ltd., in London and in 1899, established radio communication across the English Channel between England and France; in 1901, he first sent signals across the Atlantic Ocean between England and North America. During World War I, he was in charge of the Italian wireless service and developed short-wave transmission as a means of secret communication.
- Vlademar Poulsen was a Danish inventor who developed the first tape recorder in 1898, using a magnetized steel tape in what he called the telegraphone. The magnetic tape common today in tape recorders was developed in Germany during the Second World War.
- Louis Pasteur (1822 - 1895) was a French scientist who is best remembered for the development of the process of pasteurization, the sterilization of milk and other substances. He also founded the science of microbiology and developed vaccines for a wide number of diseases including anthrax and rabies.



Louis Pasteur, the French microbiologist who discovered vaccines for cholera, anthrax and rabies.

- Gregor Mendel (1822 -1884) was a German monk who discovered the laws of genetics through research with garden peas. Mendel described the patterns of inheritance in terms of seven pairs of contrasting traits that appeared in different pea-plant varieties. He observed that the traits were inherited as separate units, each of which was inherited independently of the others. He found that each parent has pairs of units but contributes only one unit from each pair to its offspring. The units that Mendel described were later given the name genes. He published his findings in 1866, and they became known as Mendel's Laws of Inheritance.
- Louis Lumiere (1864-1948) was a French pioneer of motion photography who, with his brother Auguste, invented an early motion picture system and made the first proper film in 1895, showing it to the public in that same year: the first cinema show in the world.

North American Inventors and their Inventions

- Benjamin Franklin (1706-1790). Apart from his contributions to the American War of Independence and the writing of the American constitution, Franklin also won fame for devising the first anti-pollution measures with devices to control smoking chimneys and in 1744, invented the Franklin stove, which furnished greater heat with a reduced consumption of fuel. His most famous discovery came in 1747, when he proved that lightning was an electrical phenomena. He also invented the lightning rod.
- John Fitch (1743-98) developed the first American steamboat in 1787. Fitch's craft, for which he patented in America and France in 1791, made up the first regularly scheduled steamboat line.
- Eli Whitney (1765-1825) is best known for his 1793 invention of the cotton gin, a machine that would separate the seeds from the fibers of the short-staple cotton plant - work previously done laboriously by hand.

- David Bushnell (1742-1824) built the first submarine in 1775. Called the Turtle, the one-passenger craft was a tarred, oaken sphere banded with iron and powered by hand-operated propellers and pumps. Designed for military use, its armament was an outside gunpowder bomb with a time fuse.
- George Henry Corliss (1817-1888) invented the Corliss valve in 1849, which regulates the flow of steam into an engine cylinder. The concept was then used in all valve operated engine systems.
- Gail Borden (1801-1874) invented the process for condensing milk and conserving foods.
- John Ericsson (1803-1889). Swedish born, Ericsson was the co-designer of the steam locomotive, the Novelty, which was the main competition to George Stephenson's Rocket. Although Ericsson's design failed mechanically during a race between the Rocket and the Novelty, it was the first locomotive to travel a mile in under a minute. Ericsson's other great inventions include the screw propeller for ships (until then all ships had used oars or paddlewheels), with the first screw driven ship, the Francis B. Ogden, being launched in 1837. In 1870 Ericsson patented the first solar powered engine which used sunlight to boil water and create steam which could drive machinery.
- Charles Goodyear (1800-1860) who in 1839, discovered (allegorically by accident) that when rubber and sulfur are heated together at a high temperature, a rubber with desirable properties results. This process, called vulcanization, is still the basis of the rubber-manufacturing industry.
- Elisha Gray (1835-1901), who became one of the more tragic inventors in American history when he literally handed in his patent for the telephone a few hours after Alexander Graham Bell handed in his: the credit for the telephone went to Bell, although Gray's device had been developed simultaneously. In 1888, Gray patented a facsimile telegraph system; and he founded the Western Electric Company.
- John Moses Browning (1855-1926) invented some of the most widely used weapons in the history of firearms and developed several important improvements for guns, including breech-loading, automatic-loading, and repeating rifles and shotguns.
- Edwin Howard Armstrong (1890-1954) developed several electronic circuits and systems that were crucial to the development of radio, including the regenerative circuit (1912) and the frequency modulation (FM) radio broadcasting system. The regenerative circuit amplified weak radio signals and revolutionized the range of radio broadcasting. The FM broadcasting system is in common use today.
- Lee De Forest (1873-1961) designed a number of the earliest wireless radio and telegraph transmitters. His most important invention, however, was a type of vacuum tube that De Forest called the audion, and which today is known as the triode. The triode was the key component of all radio, radar, television and computer systems until its replacement by the transistor in the early 1950s.
- John Deere (1804-86) designed the steel ploughshare in the 1830s, replacing the cast iron version. The company he formed in Illinois became famous for the manufacture of all farming implements.
- Charles Edgar Duryer (1861-1938), who with his brother, James Frank Duryer, built the first successful petrol powered automobile in America in 1894.

- George Eastman (1854-1932) who in 1884 patented the first film in roll form to prove practicable; in 1888 he perfected the Kodak camera; in 1889, Eastman invented flexible transparent film, which allowed the development of the motion picture industry.
- Thomas Alva Edison (1847-1931). His inventions include: the practical electric light bulb; an electric generating system; the phonograph, a sound recording device using a round cylinder - he would later adapt it to record on a flat disc - the record player; and the motion picture projector or Kinetoscope. By synchronizing his phonograph and Kinetoscope, he produced, in 1913, the first talking moving pictures. In 1882, he developed and installed the world's first large central electric-power station, located in New York City. He also developed a commercial version of the battery; the mimeograph, the microtasmeter (used for the detection of minute changes in temperature), and a wireless telegraphic method for communicating with moving trains. Altogether, Edison patented more than 1000 inventions.
- Sherman Mills Fairchild (1896-1971) invented several cameras and was the first to come up with the idea to have enclosed cockpits on aircraft. He also invented the radio compass and hydraulic brakes and hydraulic landing gears for aircraft. He founded the company, Fairchild Industries, in New York.
- Richard Jordan Gatling (1818-1903) won renown as the inventor of the Gatling gun, the first repeat firing machine gun which proved instrumental in American and later world history.
- Elias Howe (1819-67) who won fame when, in 1837, he designed, and, over the next nine years, built the sewing machine, for which he took out a patent in 1846. He then went to England, returning a few years later to find that a man by the name of Isaac Singer had stolen his patent and had started mass manufacture of the sewing machine under the Singer trade name. Howe pursued Singer in court, during the course of which unfounded charges of anti-Semitism were made against Howe by Singer, who was Jewish. After several years, Howe won: Singer was ordered to pay the inventor royalties on all Singer sewing machines ever produced, and Howe retired a wealthy man.
- Charles Franklin Kettering (1876-1958). Kettering invented some of the most recognizable items of modern life. They include: the electric automatic starter which he built specifically for automobiles, but later used for many other applications; the first electronic cash register, developed while he was working for the National Cash Register (NCR) company; the first engine powered electricity generator, today widely used where ever mains electricity is not available; quick drying automobile paint; high octane and leaded petrol; a nonpoisonous coolant for refrigerators; and the first practical engine for diesel locomotives.
- Herbert Edwin Land (1909-91), who won fame through his work in polarized light: he developed a new kind of polarizer, which he called Polaroid, by aligning and embedding crystals in a plastic sheet. Starting his own laboratory at the age of 19, he started the Polaroid Corporation in 1937, which developed infrared filters, dark adaptation goggles and target finders. In the late 1940s, the corporation produced the first self-developing Polaroid Land camera.
- Hiram Percy Maxim (1869-1936) was one of a family of inventors: his father invented the Maxim machine gun and cordite. Other Maxim inventions included an electric automobile in 1897; and silencer devices for rifles and air compressors.
- Cyrus Hall McCormick (1809-1884) invented the first successful reaping machine in 1831. The

technical innovations in this machine contributed greatly to the development of modern agriculture and have been included in every successful reaper manufactured since. The garden lawnmower is based on his original invention.

- Samuel Morse (1791-1872) won fame for his inventions of the electric telegraph and the Morse code. In 1843 the U.S. Congress appropriated \$30,000 for Morse to construct an experimental telegraph line between Washington, DC, and Baltimore, Maryland. The line was successfully installed, and on May 24, 1844, Morse sent the first message: "What hath God wrought!".
- Graves Otis (1811-1861) pioneered the construction and manufacture of steam-powered elevators. He founded the Otis Elevator Company.
- George Mortimer Pullman (1831-97) designed the first railway sleeping coach. His factory developed into its own town, Pullman in Illinois.
- Christopher Sholes (1819-1890) invented the first practical typewriter in 1867, perfecting a design which had first been attempted in 1714, by Henry Mill in England. The development of the machine was incredibly difficult: no less than 76 attempts had been made between the time of Mill and Sholes' successful design. In 1873, Sholes signed a contract with the Remington Arms Company, a gun manufacturer, to build and market the typewriter. Sholes developed the "QWERTY" keyboard still in use in modern English language computers to overcome the problem of typewriter keys sticking at the point of contact with the ribbon: the keys for the letters that most often appear in combination in the English language are located far apart.
- Elmer Ambrose Sperry (1860-1930), patented more than 400 inventions including: the electric-arc light; electric streetcars; improvements to electric motors; the gyrocompass; the gyropilot for steering ships; the automatic gyropilot for stabilizing aircraft; and electrically sustained gyros that control submarine and aerial torpedoes.
- Nikola Tesla (1856-1943) was a Croatian born American electrical engineer who in 1888, designed the first practical system of generating and transmitting alternating current for electric power. In 1895, Tesla's alternating-current motors were installed at the Niagara Falls power project.
- George Westinghouse (1846-1914) who won fame for inventing the railway frog, a device permitting trains to cross from one track to another. In 1868, he invented the device for which he became most famous, the airbrake.
- Chester F. Carlson (1906-1968) invented xerography, an electronic dry-copying process for the reproduction of images or documents, now called photocopying.
- Alexander Graham Bell (1847-1922) was a Scottish born American inventor who won fame for inventing the telephone; his other great invention which was just as important but for which he is not widely know, is the aileron, used in every aircraft. He founded the Bell Telephone Company and his descendants founded the National Geographic magazine.



The Scottish American Alexander Graham Bell demonstrates his most famous invention, the telephone.

Paper

Often the allegation is heard that paper was invented in China or Egypt. In neither of these two civilizations was paper used: in China a textile based parchment was used, and in Egypt bound reeds - papyrus - was made into parchment. The very earliest documents in Europe were also captured on material parchment - but there is no evidence that this development was transmitted from the East to Europe.

In Europe, the process to make a textile thin enough to be comfortably used, meant a laborious process of pulping thicker scraps of textiles by hand. This process was revolutionized in 1798 by the French scientist Nicholas Louis Robert, who invented the first mechanical paper pulping machine. The raw material was still crude textile. Robert's machine was improved by the British stationers and brothers Henry Fourdrinier and Sealy Fourdrinier, who in 1803, produced the first of the machines that bear their name.

Only in 1840, was the process of producing paper from groundwood developed in Europe, and the idea of adding chemicals only took place in 1850, creating the modern paper making process which has lasted to this day.

Printing

As with paper, the allegation is often heard that printing was invented in China. This is also untrue: in China a simple system of pattern inking had been developed in which a strip of material was lain against a water based painted picture. This only worked for very basic patterns and was consequently was not widespread. There is also no evidence that this technique was ever exported anywhere as it had virtually no applications.

In Europe, printing was developed entirely independently after long thought on how to speed up the process of book copying: Johann Gutenberg, of the German city of Mainz, invented the technical aspects of printing in 1450. Basing the design of his machine on a wine press, Gutenberg developed the use of raised and movable type and from the start used oil based paints.

The invention of the printing press revolutionized the spread of knowledge: a printing press was built in Venice in 1469, and the city had 417 printers by 1500. In 1476, a printing press was developed in England by William Caxton; in 1539, the Spaniard Juan Pablos set up an imported press in Mexico City, Mexico. Stephen Day built the first printing press in North America at Massachusetts Bay in 1628, and helped establish the Cambridge Press.

By the end of the 1400's, 1,000 new books were being published per year by Europe's book printers. By 1815, the number had climbed to 20,000 per year.

The Nonwhite world's wealthiest city, Constantinople, under the Ottoman Turks, did not acquire its first printing press until the year 1726, and by 1815, the grand total of all the books published in Constantinople in the preceding 89 years, was only 63 titles.

Gunpowder

The first written reference to gunpowder - and how to make it - appears in the writings of the 13th century English monk Roger Bacon, belying the oft held theory that it was developed in China and exported to Europe.

A 14th century German monk, Berthold Schwarz, was the first person to use gunpowder to fire a projectile, and can rightly be given the title of inventor of the firearm. Gunpowder factories had been established in England and Germany in 1334 and 1340 respectively.

The Automobile

The first self propelled vehicle, a three wheeled steam-powered engine designed to move artillery pieces, was developed in 1769, by the French Army officer Captain Nicolas Joseph Cugnot. The next steam engines were developed in England but soon were running on tracks, as with Richard Trevithick's successful engines.

Steam cars became popular in America during the very early 20th century, with the most famous vehicle being the Stanley Steamer, built by American twin brothers Freelan and Francis Stanley. A Stanley Steamer established a world land speed record in 1906 of 205.44 km/h (121.573 mph). Manufacturers produced about 125 models of steam-powered automobiles, including the Stanley, until 1932.

Internal Combustion Engines

The German engineer Nikolaus Otto (1832-1891) invented the first four stroke internal combustion engine in 1876, which rapidly replaced the steam engine as the primary source of power in virtually all applications, and paving the way for the development of the automobile. Jean Joseph Lenoir (1822-

1900) was a Belgian-born French inventor famous for producing the first one cylinder internal combustion engine powered by kerosene in 1859, and the first internal-combustion-powered car.

Gottlieb Daimler (1834-1900) was a German engineer and inventor who assisted in the development of the Otto gasoline engine. In 1887, he patented the Daimler engine, a high-speed internal-combustion engine that was an important step in the development of the automobile. Daimler and German inventor, Wilhelm Maybach, mounted a gasoline-powered engine onto a bicycle, creating a motorcycle, in 1885. In 1887, they manufactured their first car, which included a steering lever and a four-speed gearbox. Another German engineer, Karl Benz, produced his first gasoline car in 1886. In 1926, Daimler, Maybach and Benz were to join together to form the Mercedes Benz brand name.

Rudolf Diesel (1858-1913) was yet another German engineer who designed and invented the diesel engine in 1897, which is a heavy oil engine used most commonly in ships, although its applications later spread to all manner of vehicles.

Tarred Roads

Modern tarred roads were the result of the work of two British engineers, Thomas Telford and John Loudon McAdam. Telford designed the system of raising the foundation of the road in the center to act as a drain for water: eventually this design became the norm for all roads everywhere.

The highway, or freeway, was conceptualized by the leader of Nazi Germany, Adolf Hitler, and the first such Autobahns were built during the 1930s in Germany. The Autobahn system was copied everywhere in the world.

Oil Wells

The first commercial exploitation of natural oil, known originally as "rock oil", came in 1852, when the Canadian-German physician and geologist, Abraham Gessner, obtained a patent for producing kerosene from crude oil.

The first proper oil wells were dug in Germany in 1857, but the first successful oil well dig was carried out by Edwin Drake at Oil Creek, Pennsylvania, in North America in 1859. Drake's success marked the beginning of the rapid growth of the modern petroleum industry, with the scientist, George Kettering, finally distilling high octane fuel from the crude oil product.

Electricity

Electricity has been the harnessing power upon which almost every other advance has been based: there is now not a place on earth that this invention has not reached.

- The English scientist, William Gilbert, coined the word "electricity" in 1600, when he used the Greek word for "amber" to describe the phenomena in a book on the subject;
- The German scientist, Otto von Guericke, invented the first machine for producing an electric charge in 1672; while the contemporary French scientist Charles Du Fay was the first to distinguish between

positive and negative charges in electricity;

- The British scientist, Joseph Priestly, in 1766, proved the law that the force between electric charges varies inversely with the square of the distance between the charges;
- The Italian physicist, Alessandro Volta, developed the precursor to the modern electrical battery in 1800, a breakthrough for which the unit of electricity, the Volt, was named after him;
- The Danish scientist, Hans Christian Oersted, discovered in 1819 that a magnetic field exists around an electric current flow;
- The British scientist, Michael Faraday, proved in 1831 that a current flowing in a coil of wire can induce electromagnetically a current in a nearby coil;
- In 1840, the British scientist, James Prescott Joule, and the German scientist, Hermann von Helmholtz, demonstrated that electric circuits obey the law of the conservation of energy and that electricity is a form of energy. The unit of energy, the Joule, is named after the Englishman;
- The British inventor, James Clerk Maxwell, investigated the properties of electromagnetic waves and light and developed the theory that the two are identical. Maxwell's work also provided the basis for the Italian engineer, Guglielmo Marconi, who in 1896, harnessed these waves to produce the first practical radio;
- The Dutch physicist, Hendrik Lorentz, developed the electron theory, which is the basis of modern electrical theory, in 1892;
- The American scientist, Robert Millikan, was the first to measure the charge on an electron in 1909;
- The widespread use of electricity as a source of power is largely due to the work of such pioneering American engineers and inventors as Thomas Alva Edison and Nikola Tesla;
- The transistor was developed at Bell Telephone Laboratories by the American physicists Walter Houser Brattain, John Bardeen, and William Bradford Shockley. For this achievement, the three shared the 1956 Nobel Prize in physics. Shockley is noted as the initiator and director of the research program in semiconducting materials that led to the discovery of this group of devices; his associates, Brattain and Bardeen, are credited with the invention of an important type of transistor. (Shockley then devoted the rest of his life to a speaking tour which took him up and down America, in which he advocated the belief that Blacks and Whites have different Intelligence Quotas caused by their genes).

Television

- The concept of television was pioneered by the Scotsman, James Clerk Maxwell, who in 1873, predicted the existence of the electromagnetic waves that would enable pictures and sound to be sent by air instead of along wire as was then currently the case.
- In 1873, the English scientist, Willoughby Smith, and his assistant, Joseph May, discovered

photoconductivity after observing that the electrical conductivity of the element selenium changes when light falls on it. This characteristic was used in the vidicon television camera tube.

- Photoemission, the effect that certain substances emit electrons when exposed to light, was discovered in 1888, by the German physicist, Wilhelm Hallwachs. This effect was applied to the image-orthicon television camera tube.

- In 1906, the American, Lee De Forest, patented the triode vacuum tube. By 1920, the tube had been improved to the point where it could be used to amplify electric currents for television.

- The German engineer, Paul Nipkow, designed the first true television system in 1884, which consisted of a punched hole disk scanning in an image piece by piece into a camera with the image so scanned being transmitted to a receiver which used another spinning disk to project the image once again.

- Nipkow's mechanical scanner was used from 1923 to 1925 in experimental television systems developed in the United States by Charles F. Jenkins, and in England by the Scotsman and inventor, John Logie Baird, the latter developing the Nipkow disk system to the point where he is generally credited with the development of modern television.

- The first electronic method of scanning an image for use in conjunction with Baird's development was developed by an Englishman, A. A. Campbell-Swinton, in 1908.

- This was followed in the 1920s, by the American engineer, Philo Taylor Farnsworth, who devised the television camera, which converted the image captured, into an electrical signal, an image dissector.

- Cathode rays, or beams of electrons in vacuumised glass tubes, were first noted by the British chemist and physicist, Sir William Crookes, in 1878. By 1908, Campbell-Swinton and a Russian, Boris Rosing, had independently suggested that a cathode-ray tube (CRT) be used to reproduce the television picture on a phosphor-coated screen. The CRT was developed for use in television during the 1930s by the American electrical engineer, Allen B. DuMont. DuMont's method of picture reproduction is essentially the same as the one used today.

- The first public broadcasts of television were carried out in 1928 in New York, with the receivers being built by Alexander Graham Bell's company, General Electric, while the first public broadcasting of television programs took place in London in 1936.

- Color television was conceptualized and demonstrated by John Logie Baird in 1928, by using a Nipkow disk containing the three primary colors of light, red green and blue. The system of using the primary colors was perfected in 1953, and color television was introduced in that year.

Flight

The first lighter than air flights were undertaken in 1783, by two French brothers, Jacques and Joseph Montgolfier, using heated air in balloons. That same year the French physicist, Jean Francois de Rozier, made the first manned balloon flights near Paris. In 1785, the French aeronaut Jean Pierre

Blanchard, accompanied by John Jeffries, an American, made the first balloon crossing of the English Channel.

Sir George Cayley

Sir George Cayley (1773-1857) was an English inventor who developed the concept of the modern airplane, and is considered to be the founder of the science of aerodynamics. The essential form of the modern airplane, a rigid-wing structure driven by a then yet to be invented engine, was designed by Cayley in 1799.

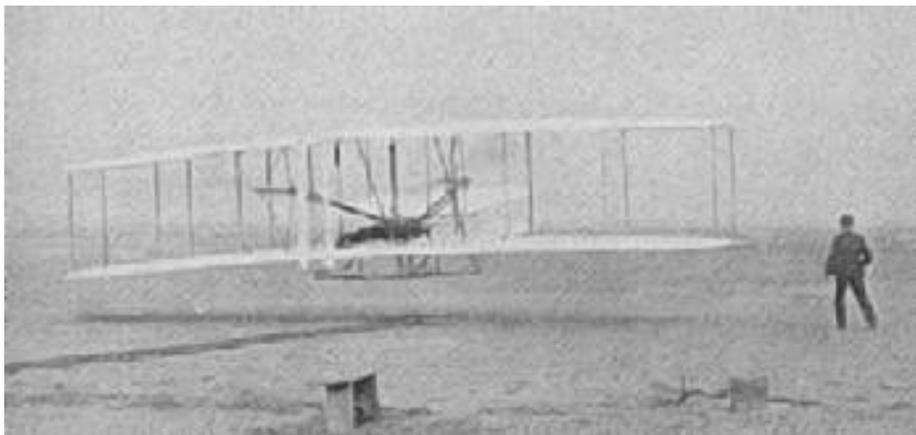
In 1808, Cayley had persuaded his coachman to man a glider he had built which was then launched: it carried the protesting employee some 275 meters (900 feet) before crashing: the first recorded flight by any person in an aircraft. Cayley then published his findings in a paper, *On Aerial Navigation* (1810) which earned him the title of the Father of Aviation. In this paper he laid out the basic ground rules for aviation which are still in use to this day: inclined rigid wings; rudder steering control and streamlining.

Samuel Langley

The first heavier than air self propelled aircraft was built in 1896, by the American inventor, Samuel Pierpont Langley. His aircraft, which he called the Aerodrome, was launched by catapult on the Potomac river in Virginia, was unmanned, but still won renown for being able to fly under its own power.

Wright Brothers

The first powered manned aircraft flight was undertaken by the two American brothers, Orville and Wilbur Wright. Starting with self built gliders, the Wright brothers built their first propeller in 1903 and on 17 December 1903, at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, USA, they made the first powered airplane flights in history. Orville Wright, who was manned the first powered flight, also invented the first wind tunnel in 1901 as part of the brothers' experimentation to find the correct wing shape. From then on, the design of aircraft improved by leaps and bounds, spurred on by two world wars, both of which saw the aircraft being turned to military applications with massive design improvements.



Lying flat in his aircraft, Orville Wright becomes the first man to fly at Kittyhawk, North

Carolina, 1903.

Long Distance Flight

In 1909, a French aviator, Louis Bleriot, crossed the English channel in an aircraft, laying the basis for the development of intercontinental flight. In 1910, the American pilot Eugene Ely took off from and landed on warships. In 1911 the US Army used a Wright brothers' biplane to make the first live bombing test from an airplane. In 1911, the American inventor and aviator Glenn Curtiss introduced the first practical seaplane.

1913 saw the first truly long distance flight from France to Egypt and the first non-stop flight across the Mediterranean Sea from France to Tunisia. Commercial aviation began in January of 1914, just 10 years after the Wrights' first flight, with the first regularly scheduled passenger line in the world operating between Saint Petersburg and Tampa, Florida.

The Jet Aircraft

The first jet engine was designed and built by the British engineer Sir Frank Whittle in 1937. His invention was not well received in Britain, and in less than two years the German aeronautical engineer, Willie Messerschmidt, head of the Messerschmidt aircraft company, had produced a German jet engine. In 1939 Messerschmidt produced the first aircraft to accompany the jet engine - with the first jet flight in the world taking place in Nazi Germany that year.

The Nazis thereafter maintained their lead in jet engine propulsion right through the Second World War, putting the Messerschmidt Me 262, the world's first jet fighter, into operational use in November 1944.

Messerschmidt's factory also produced the unstable Me 163 Komet, which was the world's first rocket powered interceptor aircraft, which launched vertically and would then swoop down on enemy bombers at a fantastic speed.

After the war, Messerschmidt's jet engine was studied with renewed interest, and turned to peaceful applications, with the first jet passenger aircraft entering service in the early 1950s. However it was only with the introduction of the Boeing 707 jet liner in 1958, that jet passenger aircraft finally assumed the direction by which it is known today. The 707 changed passenger flight overnight: the flying time from New York City to London, England, dropped to less than eight hours, halving the time taken by propeller driven aircraft.

The Helicopter

The first recorded design of a helicopter - which was never built - was by Leonardo da Vinci around the year 1500. Although Da Vinci never saw his idea take practical form, the basic idea he conceptualized formed the basis of the development of the helicopter. Many inventors tried their hand at perfecting the original Da Vinci design, but the first successful helicopter was a twin-rotor machine designed by the German engineer Heinrich Focke, which was flown in 1936 in Nazi Germany.

This was followed in 1939, by the Russian-American Igor Sikorsky's single rotor helicopter which made its first flight in Ohio. After the Second World War the helicopter was refined and became highly used in both military and civilian applications.

Atomic Power

The British chemist John Dalton (1766-1844) is regarded as the father of atomic theory. He believed that the particles or atoms of different elements were distinguished from one another by their weights, and in 1803, published the first table of comparative atomic weights, inaugurating the quantitative atomic theory.

The next great step in atomic research came in 1895, when the German scientist, Wilhelm Conrad Roentgen, invented the technology known as X rays, with its indispensable medical uses.

The French scientist, Pierre Curie, and his Polish wife, Marie, then made a number of breakthroughs in the study and research of nuclear energy, discovering the elements polonium and radium. Marie became the first scientist to isolate the pure metal radium.

The British physicist, Ernest Rutherford, discovered the alpha, beta and gamma rays of radiation given off by uranium, allowing scientists to further penetrate the secrets of the atom. Rutherford established that the mass of the atom is concentrated in its nucleus and that electrons circle the nucleus, each with different electrical charges.

Particle Accelerator

In 1930, the American physicist, Ernest Lawrence, developed the first particle accelerator, called a cyclotron. This machine generates electrical attractive and repulsive forces that accelerate atomic particles while they are spun round in a vacuum by the electromagnetic force of a very big magnet.

Nuclear Reactions

In 1932, two British scientists, Sir John D. Cockcroft and Ernest Thomas Sinton Walton, were the first to use artificially accelerated particles to successfully disintegrate the nucleus of an atom. They produced a beam of protons (positive particles) which were boosted to high speed by means of a high-voltage device called a voltage multiplier. These particles were then used to bombard a lithium target to produce the desired result.

Applications

It became inevitable that the advent of the Second World War would see nuclear research turned to military purposes: in both Germany and America, scientists worked feverishly to build an atom bomb. The Germans were the first to start with nuclear fission experiments - fission being the igniter for a nuclear reaction - but their efforts were seriously hampered by the large scale bombing of their country.

In America, the Italian-American scientist, Enrico Fermi, perfected nuclear fission and a team was set

up to develop the atom bomb in great secrecy under the code name the Manhattan Project. The practicalities of fitting Fermi's fission device into a bomb which could be delivered by air were completed by mid 1945, and the atom bomb was used against Japan, ending the Second World War in a mushroom cloud.

Electrical Power

After the war, nuclear research remained primarily devoted to military weapons, but also started to have civilian applications: by the late 1950s and early 1960s, nuclear power plants had started to appear in Western Europe, America and the Soviet Union, all manufacturing electrical power for consumer consumption but also producing dangerous used fuel effluent which will remain active and dangerous for thousands of years.

Space Exploration

Almost all theory of space flight was worked out by three brilliant men over a period of nearly three centuries - from 1600 to 1900.

- Johannes Kepler was a German mathematician who, in 1609, figured out the equations for orbiting planets and satellites. In particular, he determined that the planets move in ellipses (flattened circles) rather than true circles.
- Isaac Newton was the English scientist who, in 1687, wrote what is probably the single greatest intellectual achievement of all time. In a single book he established the basic laws of force, motion, and gravitation and invented a new branch of mathematics in the process (calculus). He did all this to show how the force of gravity is the reason that planet's orbits follow Kepler's equations.
- Konstantin Tsiolkovsky was a Russian school teacher who, without ever launching a single rocket himself, was the first to figure out all the basic equations for rocketry - in 1903. He anticipated and solved many of the problems that were going to obstruct rocket powered flight and drew up several rocket designs. He determined that liquid fuel rockets would be needed to get to space, and that the rockets would need to be built in stages (he called them "rocket trains"). He concluded that oxygen and hydrogen would be the most powerful fuels to use.

Robert Goddard

The American scientist, Dr. Robert H. Goddard, is considered to be the father of practical modern rocketry. His experiments with solid and liquid fueled rockets formed much of the basis of the development of ballistic missiles, earth-orbiting satellites, and interplanetary exploration. His first rocket launch was in 1926, in Massachusetts, and although it only flew for 2.5 seconds, it proved that rockets could work. In 1930, he launched a new rocket that reached 2,000 feet and a speed of 500 miles per hour: the first truly successful rocket.

Nazi Rockets Led the Space Race

The German rocket scientist, Hermann Oberth, is known as the Father of Space Travel for his ground breaking book in the 1920s called 'The Rocket into Planetary Space'. Oberth's ideas were well received by Adolf Hitler, and funding was made available to Oberth to assemble a rocket research and

development team. One of the scientists that Oberth recruited was Wernher von Braun (1912-1977), later to become famous in his own right.

The first product of the German research program was the V-1 rocket, or doodlebug, as it was known, a flying bomb powered by a jet engine. Then Von Braun, still working under Oberth, developed the first intercontinental ballistic missile in the world: the German V2 rocket which was used to bombard Britain in the closing months of the Second World War.

At the end of the Second World War, the Soviets and Americans each grabbed as many of the Nazi rocket scientists as they could find. Von Braun had however arranged for the removal of 500 of his top staff and their work - 100 remaining V2 rockets - to the west, to await capture by the Americans. His gamble paid off, and he and most of his colleagues were whisked off to America to work for that country's military and later space rocket programs.

The Soviets did however manage to capture some stragglers: they in turn were taken back to Russia and put to work for the Communists, producing the first long range Soviet missiles, known as Scuds, and the first Soviet space rockets (which even kept the distinctive V2 shape).

The first Soviet Satellite, Sputnik 1, was launched in 1957, followed in 1961 by the first manned spaceflight, that of Yuri Gagarin. In both cases it was a derivation of the V2 rocket which put the Soviets into space.

Von Braun in America

Meanwhile, in America, about two thirds of the original V2 team had been re-assembled at the White Sands Proving Grounds, New Mexico. Led by Von Braun and Oberth, the team continued their work and in 1950, Von Braun was transferred to Huntsville, Alabama, where for ten years he headed the Redstone missile program, becoming a naturalized US citizen in 1955.

In 1958, the first American satellite was launched, using a V2 derivative rocket as its launch vehicle. After Oberth retired, Von Braun was in 1960 appointed director of development operations at the George C. Marshall Space Flight Center (NASA) in Huntsville. There the original V2 rocket was redeveloped and finally became the main American space vehicle, the Gemini rocket, used to put Alan Shepard, the first American into space in 1962.

So it came to be that rockets originally developed under the Nazis were responsible for the first manned flight in space and the basis of both America and the Soviet Union's space programs.

Von Braun's last great contribution to space exploration was his design and building of the first and second stages of the mighty Saturn V rocket, which took the manned Apollo missions to the moon. The Saturn V rocket gained distinction in one more way; it became the only series of rockets ever developed to have worked perfectly on every launch, a record which has never been equaled before or since.

Moon Walk

During the next three decades, thousands of spacecraft of all varieties were launched, mostly in earth orbit. Soon space flight then became almost routine until the first manned mission to the moon took place in 1969.

Two Americans, Neil Armstrong and Edwin Aldrin were the first of earth's inhabitants to walk on another planet - they were followed by other missions, each one more remarkable than the last. All told, twelve men walked on the moon's surface and returned to earth.

The emphasis was then moved to building orbiting space stations, and in 1973, the famous space station, Skylab, was launched. The Soviet Union also put up the Soyuz space stations, some of which have been used to establish long distance endurance records in space.

Unmanned craft were sent out to the far corners of the universe, with some penetrating out into the open vastness of space carrying messages of greetings from earth.

The next technological breakthrough was the development of a reusable space craft, and the American Space Shuttle, was born: powered by two disposable fuel tanks, the shuttle entered earth's orbit to deploy or catch orbiting satellites, and then returned to earth using its aerodynamic design to glide onto a landing strip.

Political Correctness

It was during the era of the development of the Space Shuttle that it dawned upon the purveyors of political correctness that the entire space program - from scientists to astronauts - had been an exclusively White affair.

Objections were raised, first at the presence of some of Von Braun's original team who were still alive (one was stripped of his American citizenship and deported back to Germany, nearly 40 years after he had been invited to America by the US government), and then against the fact that there were no Nonwhite astronauts. Giving in to political pressure, NASA then hunted down suitable Nonwhite astronauts to fill a politically demanded affirmative action program.

Who?

In addition to the famous inventors, there are a host of others who are virtually unknown but whose contributions to modern society are no less important.

- James King was an American, who in 1851, patented the first washing machine to use a drum. The first electric-powered washing machines was introduced in 1908, by the Hurley Machine Company of Chicago, Illinois.

- Rowland Hill, a schoolmaster in England, invented the postage stamp in 1837, an act for which he was knighted. Through his efforts the first stamp in the world was issued in England in 1840.

- Jesse W. Reno was an American who patented the first inclined conveyor belt - or escalator - in 1891. This was followed in short order by the American inventor, Charles D. Seeberger, who added

steps to the conveyor belt, creating the modern escalator.

- Charles Hanson Greville, an English scientist, first identified the chemical properties in natural rubber (1860), opening the way for others to start working on the development of synthetic rubbers. Finally, after research by teams of scientists in Germany and the United States, the first viable synthetic rubbers were produced in America after the Second World War.

- Robert W. Thompson was a Scottish inventor who, in 1845, developed the first pneumatic tyre.

- John Wesley Hyatt was an American who developed modern plastics in 1870, after entering a competition held by a billiard ball manufacturer looking for an alternative to ivory. Hyatt developed a method of pressure-working pyroxylin, a cellulose nitrate of low nitration that had been plasticised with camphor and an alcohol solvent. The substance, patented under the trademark Celluloid, was the first plastic, using the same principles numerous other types of plastics were then created.

- Leo Hendrik Baekland, a Belgian American chemist, invented Bakelite in 1906, using Hyatt's basic principle of plastics manufacture. In 1920, a breakthrough in the understanding of the nature of the molecular nature of plastics by the German chemist, Hermann Staudinger, saw the development of all modern plastics in laboratories in Germany and America shortly thereafter.

- Johan Vaaler was a Norwegian who invented the paper clip in 1899.

- Percy Spencer was an American who invented the microwave oven in the late 1950s after experiments with a magnetron, a device designed to produce short radio waves for a radar system.

- Claude Chappe was a Frenchman who invented the mechanical semaphore system for ships in 1792.

- William Murdock was an Englishman who invented practical industrial scale gas lighting - later extended to streets in 1802.

- Jean Jacques Dony was a Belgian who was the first person to produce an extract of zinc in 1805.

- Friedrich Woehler was a German who in 1827 was the first to produce an extract of aluminum from clay.

- Nicolas Appert was a Frenchman who developed the technique for the sterilization of tinned food in 1809.

- Benjamin Delessert was a Frenchman to extract sugar from beet sugar in 1812.

- Arsitide Berges was a Frenchman who installed the first hydro-electric station in the world in France in 1870.

- Henri Sainte-Claire was a Frenchman who started the first industrial aluminum production in 1854.

- Ernest Solvay was a Belgian who started the first industrial soda production in 1861.
- Hilaire de Charbonnet was a Frenchman who invented artificial silk in 1884.
- Charles Tellier was a Frenchman who invented the modern fridge in 1867.
- Percy Gilchrist and Sidney Thomas were two Englishmen who jointly extracted the first phosphorus from iron in 1875.
- PLT Heroult in France and CM Hall in America, independently produced aluminum by electrolysis in 1866.
- Eugene Turpin was a Frenchman who invented Melinite in 1892.
- Herman Dresser was a German chemist who invented Aspirin in 1893.
- Frederick Hopkins was an Englishman who discovered the existence of vitamins in 1912.

Racial Implications

As the reader can see, it is no exaggeration to say that there is almost nothing in any modern society which has not been invented by a member of the White race at some stage in history. It is truly no exaggeration to say that White technological know how has physically shaped the very earth itself - this despite the Whites being an absolute minority of the globe's population.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Fifty Nine

The First World War

The First World War was the first of the two great conflicts in Europe fought during the 20th century: starting out as a local war between Austro-Hungary and Serbia, it mushroomed into a world wide conflict involving 32 nations.

The fundamental cause of the conflict lay in the centuries of conflict in Europe which preceded it: the endless rounds of nationalist wars which had characterized the region for two hundred years, reached a climax in 1914, when the old adversaries squared up once again.

The big difference in this conflict was however that it was the first to be fought with the aid of the massive developments in technology which had occurred towards the end of the 19th and the early 20th centuries. The result was a devastating war which had never been seen before; and indeed some aspects were not to be seen again.

Nationalism

If there was a particular starting point for the rash of nationalistic conflicts in Europe, it must be the French Revolution and resulting Napoleonic Wars, starting in 1789. As Napoleon's armies marched across Europe, the idea of ethnic groups being entitled to their own lands with representative governments, separate and distinct from other nations, was spread in all directions.

It is no co-incidence that many of the modern European nations only started taking on their approximate present day borders at the time of the Napoleonic Wars.

In this sense, the existence of the Austro-Hungarian Empire was an anachronism in a changing political landscape. Consisting of a multitude of different ethnic, and in some parts, even racial, nationalities thrown together under one royal household was a form of government which was certainly pre-French Revolution style: indeed it smacked of the empire of Charlemagne and of the Holy Roman Empire, and was completely out of pace with the spread of ethnically based nationalism.

Internationally, growing competition between the European nations and a series of conflicts dating back to the beginning of the 19th century resulted in the formation of two great alliances: the Central Powers and the Triple Entente. The Central Powers consisted of Germany, Austro-Hungary and Italy; and the Triple Entente, of Britain, France and Imperial Russia. Against the background of these emerging alliances, all the nations began to invest heavily in armaments, resulting in the creation of large standing armies poised for war.

Indeed, at least three times before the outbreak of the First World War, a conflict did break out: twice over German and French interests clashing in Morocco, and once over the Balkans Wars which saw the Ottoman Turks ejected from all but a small part of Europe. Against this turbulent background came the assassination of the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, Archduke Ferdinand, by a Serbian

nationalist, Princip, in July 1914.

Ultimatum

Unsurprisingly, the Austro-Hungarians linked the Serbian nationalist movement to the assassination - which it was - and on 23 July an ultimatum was submitted to Serbia submitting ten specific demands, most of which had to do with the suppression, with Austrian help, of anti-Austrian propaganda in Serbia.

Two days later, Serbia had accepted all but two of the demands. On 28 July, Austria-Hungary then declared war on Serbia, thinking it could use the opportunity to extinguish the budding pan-Slavism which was in any event tugging at the seams of that empire.

War Escalates

Much to everyone's surprise, Russia promptly announced a partial mobilization against Austria. This was surprising, as everyone knew that the Russians were the weakest of all the powers, and had in fact just been beaten by tiny Japan a few years before in the 1904 Russo-Japanese war. The Russian army was badly equipped and suited mainly to 19th century warfare.

Nonetheless, Germany issued a warning that any moves against Austro-Hungary would be met with pan-German resistance. An official German note was sent to Russia demanding demobilization: the Russians refused, and on 1 August, Germany declared war on Russia. At the time the Germans did not foresee any great trouble in overcoming the Russian army. The French then announced a general mobilization: the conflict was already out of control.

German Invasion

On 2 August, the Germans decided to strike first at the French: advancing through Belgium, they penetrated French territory on 3 August, declaring war on France the same day. Britain, objecting to the invasion of neutral Belgium, then declared war on Germany on 4 August.

Japan, which had made an alliance with Britain in 1902, then declared war on Germany on 23 August.

Within a matter of days, three huge war fronts had been opened: in the west on the French-German border; in the east on the German-Russian border, and in the south east between Austria-Hungary and Serbia.

German Advance in the West

At first, the German advance was rapid: sweeping through Belgium, they easily won the first engagement with the French at the Battle of Charleroi. The British sent an expeditionary force of 90,000 men across the channel to help the French, but they too were routed by the Germans at the Battle of Mons.

The Allied forces in the west were plunged into a headlong retreat. Making the campaign seem easy, the Germans pressed home their victories, crossing the Marne River. The French capital, Paris, seemed certain to fall, and the seat of the French government was formally moved to Bordeaux. Flushed with victory, the Germans then transferred six army corps from the Western Front to the Eastern Front, where the campaign against Russia was moving into full swing.

This single tactical error would prove catastrophic for the German advance.

French Counter Attack Halts the German Advance

As the first of the three major German armies converging on Paris crossed the Marne River, a French attack fell upon them: the first Battle of the Marne was joined on 5 September 1914. Weakened by the transfer of part of its reinforcements, the German advance wilted under the unexpected French counter attack.

Quickly the tables were turned, and the German army was forced into a general retreat. The Germans fell back to the Aisne River, where they were reinforced by two other German armies. There they dug themselves into defensive positions and awaited the French attack.

The First Trenches

The Germans prepared their defenses on the Aisne well: digging huge trenches and other positions in the earth, they unwittingly set the standard for virtually the rest of the war in the West. Trench warfare, a new and horrifying form of static war, was to emerge: moving completely away from the set battle pieces and mobile tactics of previous European wars.

The French launched three major attacks to try and dislodge the Germans from their dug in positions: the Battle of the Aisne; a battle on the Somme River; and the First Battle of Arras. All three attempts failed, and the French saw first hand how effective trenches could be as a defensive measure. They started digging their own large trenches virtually immediately.

Antwerp Falls

On the northern part of the front, the Germans still managed to keep up their momentum: on 10 October, the city of Antwerp fell. The Germans then began pursuing the British Expeditionary Force and the Belgians towards the English channel itself. The Belgians then flooded a large part of the front in the path of the Germans by opening the sluices on the Yser River.

The British had in the interim managed to draw together their forces, and in a series of battles now known as the Battle of Flanders, halted the German advance in the north, forcing a trench based stalemate as had happened in the south.

Front Halts

In December 1914, the French and British launched a new assault on the German line: this broke on the defensive positions and trenches set up by the Germans, and the entire front settled down to a

bloody and muddy stalemate By the end of 1914 both sides had established trench lines extending 800 kilometers (500 miles) from Switzerland to the North Sea.

Trench warfare had broken the mobility needed to bring conflicts to a sharp end and neither side was able to penetrate each other's defenses to any great measure. As a result the front line hardly moved for another three years from the positions established in October 1914.

Naval Clashes

During the course of 1914, the German and British fleets did not come to grips with one another off the European coast: the only engagements were a British raid on a German naval base at Helgoland Bight, an island off Germany in the North Sea, in which three German ships were sunk. German submarines then went onto the offensive, sinking several British naval units, including the warship Audacious, in October 1914.

During September and October 1914, a task force of five German naval raiders in the South Pacific attacked French installations on the island of Tahiti and the British on Fanning Island. The German raiders then engaged and defeated a British squadron off Chile in November 1914, but then suffered a major defeat, losing four of the five ships in the party, to the British at the Battle of the Falkland Islands in December 1914.

The Zeppelins

The German airforce launched its first air raid on Paris in August 1914, and the first German air raid on Dover, England, took place in December of that year. Then in 1916, the Germans perfected the airship (known as the Zeppelin, after its designer, Count Graf von Zeppelin) and during that year, England and London were raided 60 times by bomb dropping Zeppelins. The first German aircraft raid on London took place in November 1916.

The Germans continued to raid the city right up until the end of the war. No military advantage was gained by the raids, and they were intended solely as a moral breaking exercise on the British - an effort which failed.

The Red Baron

The progress of the war saw a number of technological breakthroughs in aircraft design: the German invention of a machine gun which could shoot through the rotating propeller without destroying the blades, made the German fighters for a while the most accurate gunships in the air. Amongst the German air aces to exploit this technological leap was the famous Red Baron, Manfred von Richthoven, who led his squadron, the Flying Circus, in his aircraft painted bright red (so as to attract enemy aircraft - other aircraft were camouflaged to avoid detection.)

After Richthoven was shot down and killed in 1918, leadership of the Flying Circus passed to his deputy and another German air ace of the war, Herman Goering.

By 1918, the arrival of hundreds of American aircraft had ensured that air supremacy had passed into

Allied hands.

Chlorine Gas

On the Western Front, the situation remained static until March 1915, when the British launched a massive attack at Neuve Chapelle. It achieved virtually no significant territorial advances, taking only the very outermost advanced German positions. The Germans then launched their only offensive of 1915 - they were busy with a major offensive in the East at the time - in April at Ieper.

This attack was marked by the German use of chlorine gas for the first time, setting a frightening precedent which would soon be followed by all sides, adding significantly to the horror of the front line. The German attack also achieved virtually nothing in terms of territorial advantage.

In May and June, the French and British launched a combined offensive against the German lines between Neuve Chapelle and Arras. Once again, despite huge losses, the gains were pathetic, with only some four kilometers (2.5 miles) of land, all still in the German trenchworks, falling into Allied hands. In September, the French launched an attack on the German lines between Reims and the Argonne Forest. Once again the attack ground to a halt after the French had taken only the first line of German trenches.

The Russians Invade

In the East, the Russians initially did well. Beating numerically inferior forces in several straight battles in August 1914, the Russians advanced deep into East Prussia and into the Austrian province of Galicia. The German situation became so desperate in East Prussia that emergency plans to evacuate the entire province were started, while the Russian armies in the south overran most of Galicia and by March 1915, were poised to invade Hungary itself.

The Battle of Tannenberg

Just when a German collapse in East Prussia seemed inevitable, a fresh German army arrived. Under General Paul von Hindenburg they rushed East and in a furious battle at Tannenberg, decisively defeated the invading Russians in East Prussia in August 1914. Tannenberg marked the first of three major defeats for the Russians: the cumulative effect of these reverses would see Russian forces retreat into Russian territory where the front would mostly remain for the duration of the war.

The Germans and Austro-Hungarians Drive East

The German forces followed up this victory with two further overwhelming victories: the First Battle of the Masurian Lakes, fought in September 1914, and the Second Battle of the Masurian Lakes fought in February 1915. In April 1915, a combined German and Austrian army launched a major offensive against the Russians, driving them out of the Carpathians.

In May, the Austro-German armies began a great offensive in central Poland, forcing the Russians to withdraw from Galicia. By September 1915, the Germans had driven the Russians out of Poland,

Lithuania, and Courland, and had also taken possession of the western border of Russia itself. When the German drive east finally ran out of steam, the front line lay well within Russia: behind the Dvina River between Riga and Dvinsk and south to the Dniester River. The Russians lost thousands of men and much equipment: it would be months before they were to play any significant role in the war again.

The South Eastern Front

On the third front, that between Austro-Hungary and Serbia, the initial Austrian attacks were all repulsed by the small but powerful Serbian army. The front then stalemated with both sides holding their own territory. In October 1915, British and French troops were landed in neutral Greece at Salonika, with the permission of the Greek government, with the aim of coming to the aid of Serbia.

Then the Bulgarians, still smarting from their defeat in the Second Balkan War of 1913, tried to retake the territorial claims they had lost in that previous war. In the same month that the French and British troops landed in Greece, Bulgaria declared war on Serbia and formally entered the war on the side of the Central Powers.

The Allied troops immediately advanced into Serbia, but were routed by a well planned Bulgarian offensive and were forced to retreat all the way back to Salonika. Simultaneously the Bulgarians also managed to inflict a severe defeat upon the Serbians.

Serbia Overrun

In October 1915, a fresh combined Austro-Hungarian and German army drive south was launched. This, coming on top of the Bulgarian victory, saw Serbia crushed. By the end of that year all of Serbia was occupied and the Serbian army eliminated from the conflict.

The Turkish Front

Ottoman Turkey, still smarting at its defeat and ejection from its southern European held territories during the First Balkan War of 1912, was easily persuaded to join in an attack on Russia, its fiercest rival in Eastern Europe. Turkish warships eagerly participated with German warships in a naval bombardment of Russian Black Sea ports and Russia then declared war on Turkey in November 1914. Britain and France then followed their Russian ally, and by the most bizarre set of circumstances the Nonwhite power that had for so long tried to exterminate the Germans in Austria suddenly found itself allied to that very same nation.

The Turks lost no time in attacking their Russian foes. In December 1914, they invaded the Caucasus, overrunning large areas. The Russians, under severe pressure from the Germans in the west and the Turks in the south, then asked for help in the form of a diversionary attack on Turkey by the Allied powers.

Gallipoli

In February 1915, the French and British navies then bombarded Turkish forts along the Dardanelles.

This was followed up with two sea borne invasion of Gallipoli in Turkey between April and August, one of British, Australian, and French troops in April, and one of several additional British divisions in August. The Turks prepared their defenses well: the invasion was a complete failure and the Allied forces were forced to withdraw with severe losses.

Mesopotamia

The land of Mesopotamia had been occupied by Muslims since soon after the founding of that religion, and had later been incorporated into the Ottoman Empire. Now it was attacked by a British force operating out of India. The Turks were defeated in a series of battles from 1914, and the British then launched a drive on Baghdad, another Ottoman stronghold.

However, a desperate Turkish rearguard action at the Battle of Ctesiphon in November 1915, saw the British defeated and forced to retreat back into Mesopotamia, where they were besieged by the Turks at the town of Al Kuut in December of that year.

The Italian Front

Although Italy had formally been a member of the Central Power alliance, it remained neutral until May 1915, when it broke ranks and declared war on Austro-Hungary, allying itself to the western powers. The Italians then launched an offensive to capture Trieste, but after four major battles with the Austrian army, at the Isonzo River from June to December, they failed in their attempts to break through the Austrian lines.

The Lusitania

By May 1915, the Germans had instituted a policy of trying to blockade Britain into submission: they reasoned that if that island country could be starved of all supplies and raw materials, it would have to sue for peace. A policy of unrestricted submarine warfare was then declared: all ships traveling to or from Britain were targets and would be sunk without warning.

On 7 May 1915, the British passenger liner, Lusitania, which was later shown to be carrying munitions and military supplies, was sunk by a German submarine. A number of American nationals were on board and died in the sinking. The American government protested and the Germans then announced a modification in their policy: in future all such ships would be warned before they were attacked and the Americans undertook to urge their nationals not to travel on such vessels in future.

In March 1916, a French liner, the Sussex, was sunk by a German submarine, again with the loss of American lives, leading to another controversy between the American and German governments. This time the Germans announced they were abandoning the unrestricted submarine warfare policy completely.

The Battle of Jutland

On the last day of May and the first day of June 1916, the only major naval battle between the Germans and the British took place off the north European coast of Jutland. Although the British

losses, both in ships and human lives, were greater than Germany's, the German fleet never again joined battle on such a scale for the rest of the war.

The Slaughterhouses of Verdun and the Somme

The German victories in the east enabled them to transfer a half million men to the Western Front in 1916. In February that year, they launched a new offensive designed to break the French lines around the city of Verdun. After bitter fighting, the Germans managed to seize some surrounding forts, but failed to take Verdun itself, mainly due to the heroic French defense of the region under the leadership of one of their ablest generals, Philippe Petain (who won the title of Hero of Verdun in France as a result).

By the end of November, the French had managed to retake the German gains and the front line had reverted to where it had started. German and French losses were massive: as a result, the French were only able to contribute 16 divisions out of the intended 40 with which they had started the year, to an Allied attack which began on the Somme in July 1916.

The Battle of the Somme, which continued until November 1916 saw the first significant Allied territorial gains of the war in the west: some 325 square kilometers of land was wrested from the Germans.

The main reason for this surprising territorial gain was the introduction of a British secret weapon: the tank, the first time ever such a weapon was deployed in any war. These armored vehicles, which had originally been conceptualized by Leonardo da Vinci, were built in secret, and were only called tanks as a code name: the word however stuck.



The tank, conceptualized by Leonardo da Vinci, first appeared during the First World War, developed by the British.

Russian Offensive

In the east, the Russians recovered from their first defeats and launched a new offensive against the Germans in February 1916, in the Lake Narocz region northeast of Vilna. The attack was a complete failure and saw the Russians lose more than 100,000 men.

In June 1916, the Russians carried out a new attack against the Austrians on a wide front running from Pinsk south to Czernowitz. This attack penetrated some 65 kilometers (40 miles) and took half a million prisoners until the arrival of German reinforcements in September turned back the Russian advance. The Russians lost a million men during the four month campaign.

The Russian advance had however persuaded Rumania that it could enter the war on the side of the Allies: it declared war on Germany and Austria in August 1916 and invaded the Austro-Hungarian province of Transylvania. In a combined offensive which saw Austrian, Bulgarian and Turkish troops invade Rumania, that country was completely overrun by January 1917 and eliminated from the war.

The Southern Front

On the Italian front, 1916 was marked by five more battles on the Isonzo River, all but one being launched by the Italians, and all ultimately failing in their objective to significantly move the front line.

Meanwhile, in Greece the Greek king was accused by the Allies of becoming pro-German. A renewed Allied landing at Thesalonika saw rebel Greeks set up an alternative government under Allied supervision in November 1916, splitting Greece politically and physically into two: one section neutral, the other declaring war on Germany and Austro-Hungary. The Allies then resorted to a naval blockade of the neutral part of Greece, giving formal recognition to the rebel government in Thesalonika.

Simultaneously, an Allied push into Austro-Hungarian territory took place: Macedonia was seized in November and by the end of the year the Allied armies had reached the border of Albania and Macedonia.

Turkish Territory Invaded

In the Middle East the Turks were steadily put under pressure: by February 1916, a large part of Mesopotamia had been cleared of Turkish troops by the British, while at the same time a number of Arabs seized the opportunity to revolt against Ottoman rule in Saudi Arabia. Then the British attacked from their long established bases in Egypt (which had been there since the building of the Suez Canal) and steadily drove the Turks out of the Sinai Peninsula and Palestine. By early 1917, most parts of these regions were under British rule.

Balfour Declaration

The World Zionist movement, a nationalist Jewish organization founded by European Jews to create a national homeland for Jews in Palestine, saw an opportunity open up with the British occupation of Palestine, and persuaded the British foreign minister, Lord Arthur Balfour, to issue a public promise in 1917 to the effect that Britain would support the creation of a Jewish homeland in Palestine. This public promise became known as the Balfour Declaration.

In return for this undertaking, the World Zionist Movement then promised Britain that it would marshal the world's Jews behind the Allied cause (although how they gave such an undertaking when there

were many thousands of German Jews fighting in the German army, remains a mystery) and, more importantly, endeavor to use their influence to bring the United States of America into the war. In this way, considerable pressure was brought to bear on the American government to enter the war against Germany, although by this stage they hardly needed much prompting.

The United States of America Enters the War

While the World Zionist Congress was actively working behind the scenes with the powerful Jewish lobby in the American government, the course of the war at sea presented the American president, Woodrow Wilson, with an opportunity to enter the war against Germany, despite his presidential election campaign having been specifically fought on a non-interventionist ticket.

In January 1917, Germany announced that it was resorting to unrestricted submarine warfare against all shipping to and from Britain - this in a renewed attempt to force the British to surrender by physically depriving them of necessary fuels and foodstuffs to keep going. The re-introduction of this policy brought about the excuse Wilson needed to bring America into the war.

In February 1917, the US broke off diplomatic relations with Germany and formally declared war in April. The timing of the US entry into the war - virtually simultaneously with the Balfour Declaration - is too good to be coincidental. By June 1917, more than 175,000 American troops were already in France; by the end of the war more than two million Americans had been deployed in France.

Submarine Blockade Fails

The Germans had hoped to starve Britain of raw materials and supplies by sinking as many ships going to that island as possible: in this aim they failed due to the development of depth charges and other submarine hunting devices; the deployment of convoys for shipping and the overwhelming industrial production lines of the United States which could turn out new ships far faster than what the Germans could hope to sink them.

In April 1918, the British, in an effort to end the submarine war, blocked the German submarine port at Zeebrugge in Belgium by deliberately sinking three aged British cruisers in the harbor entrance. Finally the war of attrition grew too high: the German submarine losses, in percentage terms, started to outstrip the Allied shipping losses, and the campaign was gradually abandoned.

Mata Hari

In 1917, a Dutch woman by name of Gertrud Margarete Zelle was arrested by the French police in Paris. At the time she was working as an erotic dancer using the stage name of Mata Hari. Apart from her professional life as a strip tease dancer, she was also a German spy. By entrapping a string of high ranking Allied officers (who she befriended at the club where she worked) into sexual relationships, she had been able to obtain many important military secrets for her masters. The name Mata Hari from then on became synonymous with a femme fatale: the original Mata Hari was executed in October 1917 by a French firing squad.

French Mutiny

In April and May 1917, the Allies launched their first major offensive of that year at Arras. The Germans saw the attack coming, and withdrew from the Aisne to a new position a short way back known as the Hindenburg line. The Allied attack then found itself forced to attack this heavily fortified and well prepared defensive position: although Canadian troops took a small series of hills known as Vimy Ridge and the main British forces advanced some six kilometers (four miles), this was the sum total of the Allied gains.

A French attack in Champagne failed so atrociously that the French troops in the region mutinied - serious disorder broke out which had to be suppressed by military police and the replacement of the troops in that sector with much needed reserves from another sector. In June, a second Allied offensive went in: with the British launching an attempt to break the German lines at Flanders.

After a preliminary battle at Messines, a three and a half month static battle took place at Ieper from July to November: despite both sides losing in excess of 250,000 men, neither line moved at all.



British troops "go over the top" - out of the trenches into the no-man's land. Both sides launched endless such suicidal attacks.

Mass Tank Attack

In other sectors, the Allies made slight gains: a new battle at Verdun saw the French take back a small area of land; and in the end November 1917, Battle of Cambrai, the British deployed 400 tanks in the first mass tank attack of the war. The sheer weight of the offensive punched through the German lines at last, but a lack of reserves saw the attack peter out before it could be properly exploited. A German counter attack saw the eight kilometer hole in their lines quickly filled and the original front line was restored once again.

The Russians Collapse

Suddenly on the Eastern Front things took a dramatic turn: after the Germans had let the Communist revolutionary Lenin and his cohorts enter Russia with the deliberate intention of letting him stir up trouble, a popular revolution in March 1917 saw the abdication of the Tsar and the establishment of a

new provisional government in Moscow.

However, much to Lenin's (and the Germans') anger, the new Russian government continued to participate in the war. In July, the Russians actually managed to make modest gains on the Galacian front, although an immediate German counter attack retook the lost areas and then pushed on to take the city of Riga and all of Latvia by October 1917.

Then in November 1917, the Communists seized power in a coup which finally saw Lenin come to power: on 20 November 1917, the Communists offered the Germans an armistice. In mid December, the treaty of Brest-Litovsk was signed and all fighting ceased on the Eastern Front - Germany had won. The Germans had made spectacular territorial gains: virtually all of the Ukraine, Byelorussia and a large part of western Russia fell under German control in terms of the treaty. The occupying Germans were only expelled after their collapse in the West, over a year later.

More Battles at the Isonzo

On the southern front, the endless Battles of the Isonzo River continued. The Italian drives of 1917, which resulted in the 10th and 11th battles of the Isonzo, achieved nothing, breaking against the rock solid German defense. Then in October, a renewed German-Austrian offensive at last succeeded in breaking the Italian line near the town of Caporetto and the first real gains of that campaign were made. The Italians suffered disastrously in this offensive: they lost 300,000 men as prisoners, and easily as many deserted. Concerned at the deteriorating situation, French and British troops were sent to bolster the Italian forces at their new position on the Piave River.

Greece Enters the War

Finally, the stalemate in Greece came to an end with a formal invasion of the neutral part of that country by Allied troops in June 1917. The Greek king abdicated and the provisional government, recognized by the Allies alone, was installed over all of Greece, bringing all of that country formally into the war against the Central Powers.

Lawrence of Arabia

After the initial British successes in the Middle East, 1917 saw them drive further north and attack the Turkish stronghold city of Gaza. The first two attacks on the city failed: but by November, other British gains in the region forced the Turks to evacuate the city. By December 1917, Jerusalem was taken by the British in an ironic re-enactment of the highpoint of the Crusades hundreds of years previously. 1917 also saw the Arab revolt against the Ottoman Turks on the Saudi-Arabian peninsula reach a climax, aided by the leadership of a British army officer named Colonel T. E. Lawrence, known as Lawrence of Arabia. The British also started rolling up other Turkish possessions in the Middle East: Baghdad fell, as did Ramadi on the Euphrates river and other important towns on the Tigris River. The net was closing on the Ottomans at last.

Rumania Pulls Out

Following the Russian collapse, Rumania threw in the towel: in May 1918, that country signed the

Treaty of Bucharest which finally ended all sporadic resistance in that country and ceded important territories to Austro-Hungary and gave Germany a long term lease on Rumanian oil wells.

Austro-Hungarian Collapse

In September 1918, a combined Allied army of 700,000 men began an offensive in the Balkans against the south eastern reaches of the Austro-Hungarian empire in Serbia. The offensive was dramatically successful: by October, the Bulgarians were exhausted and surrendered, dropping out of the war and their alliance with the Central Powers.

Then the Allied armies advanced into Rumania: a new provisional government in that country then tore up the treaty of Bucharest and re-entered the war on the side of the Allies. In a matter of months, the Austro-German successes in the south east turned sour. Belgrade was captured by the Allies army on 1 November, while a surprise Italian invasion captured Albania.

On the Southern Front, a last Austrian offensive against the combined Italian, French and British emplacements along the Piave River in June 1918 was turned back; a failed offensive which cost 100,000 Austrian lives. As a result the combined Allied armies seized the initiative in Italy and at the Battle of Vittorio Veneto, fought from October to November 1918, the main Austrian army was destroyed, losing hundreds of thousands of prisoners and causing a general collapse, with thousands of demoralized soldiers streaming in a shambles back into Austria itself.

On 3 November, the city of Trieste finally fell to Allies - the objective since 1915 - followed by Fiume two days later. The scale of the defeats served as the signal for the end of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Already the Czechs and the Slovaks had declared themselves independent; in October, the South Slavs declared themselves independent and in November the Hungarians set up their own government. The Austrians and Hungarians then signed an armistice with the Allies on 3 November 1918, and the last Habsburg Emperor ever, Charles I, abdicated. The Austrian Republic was proclaimed.

Turkish Collapse

In September 1918, the British finally routed the last Turkish forces in Palestine and quickly marched on into Lebanon and Syria, with Damascus falling in October. The French occupied Beirut and then the Turkish government surrendered: an armistice was concluded at the end of October which obliged Turkey to demobilize, break off relations with the Central Powers and allow Allied ships to pass through the Dardanelles.

German Attack

Within the space of a year, the Germans had gone from what seemed to be a complete victory to total isolation and the collapse of all of their allies. The German High Command then drew together its reserves for one last push on the Western Front, being able to bring in significant reserves from the now defunct Eastern Front. In March 1918, they launched what was to be one of their biggest attacks ever; it smashed the British lines at Arras and drove them back 65 kilometers (40 miles) before being halted early in April by a French counter attack.

The Germans then renewed their offensive later in April, once again punching a further hole in the struggling British lines. In June a third attack, which took the French by surprise on the Aisne river, saw the Germans push to within 60 kilometers of Paris. The huge German gun, Big Bertha, made by the Krupp weapons factory, was then used to shell Paris, causing considerable anxiety in the French capital.

However, the Germans had left their offensive too late: by the time of the drive towards Paris, the first American troops had been deployed, and at the Battle of the Marne, before Paris, a combined French and fresh American force halted the German advance.

By the middle of July, the German offensive had run out of steam. Its soldiers were exhausted; political unrest was brewing at home; they were low on rations and supplies; all these factors combined to make them easy prey to an Allied counter offensive. In July, the Allies drove the Germans back over the Marne, retaking the initiative which they were never to lose again for the rest of the war.

German Military Reverses

In August, a British attack at Amiens saw the German lines begin to crack; a renewed Allied offensive leading to the Second Battle of the Somme and the Fifth Battle of Arras, saw the Germans forced back to what was their very last defensive position, the Hindenburg line, once again.

In September, waves of fresh American troops captured 14,000 exhausted and virtually starving German troops at Saint-Mihiel, and then pushed on through the Argonne forest, breaking the German lines between Metz and Sedan.

With this major defeat, the German government asked for an armistice in October 1918 - this attempt to end the war failed when the American president Woodrow Wilson insisted on negotiating only with a democratic German government. The British then pushed home an attack in Belgium and Northern France and early in November American and French forces reached Sedan. By early November, the Hindenburg line had been broken and the Germans were in disarray.

Weimar Republic

In Germany, the combined effects of starvation due to the Allied blockade; the military defeats and war weariness created ideal ground for revolution. The Communists launched a massive agitation program, with the conditions of the time creating many receptive ears.

Several localized Communist revolutions broke out: the German fleet mutinied; and an uprising dethroned the king of Bavaria. Minor democratic reforms were introduced and a limited election was held: the Social Democratic Party won the majority of votes. Its leader, Freiderich Ebert, became chancellor; in November the Kaiser, Wilhelm II, abdicated and went into exile in the Netherlands.

The first elected German government sat in the town of Weimar: the republic which they proclaimed on 9 November 1918 became known by that name thereafter.

The German Surrender

The Weimar government then sent a delegation to the Allies to seek an immediate end to the war, and an armistice was signed on 11 November 1918. By this time, German military defeat loomed in all sectors. However, because the western front line never penetrated Germany proper right to the end of the war, many German soldiers were later to bitterly accuse the Weimar politicians of having "stabbed them in the back" before any final military defeat dictated the need for a surrender.

The Weimar government also took responsibility for the surrender in a war they had not been party to starting, and the harsh terms of the Treaty of Versailles which ended the war (which they Weimar politicians were forced to sign) made them even more unpopular and opened the way for a German nationalist revival which was later to be exploited by Adolf Hitler.

German Fleet Scuttled

In terms of the armistice, the remaining German fleet was surrendered to the Allies: all were interned at the British naval base of Scapa Flow in Scotland. The treaty of Versailles demanded that these ships all become the permanent property of the Allies. In protest, the German crews on the interned ships then scuttled their fleet in Scapa Flow.

The Forgotten Wars

The conflict in Europe and the Middle East is the best known part of the First World War: however, the "forgotten war" was fought out in the colonies, and included action in China, Africa and South East Asia. In August 1914, an Anglo-French force opened the war in the colonies by capturing Togoland from the Germans; the next month they captured the Cameroons.

In September 1914, the White South Africans, officially allied to Britain, invaded German South West Africa with relative ease, but attempts to crush the German forces in German East Africa (modern Tanzania) were much more difficult. The first attack on the German forces in East Africa (who were under the remarkable leadership of General Paul von Lettow-Vorbeck) by British and Indian troops was repulsed in November 1914.

It was only one year later, that a combined British, South African and Portuguese army, placed under the leadership of former Boer War general Jan Smuts, managed to finally capture the main German East African towns. Lettow-Vorbeck was not captured: he and his troops retreated south in the colony, where they in 1917 invaded Portuguese East Africa (Mozambique) and in November 1918, they began an invasion of Rhodesia.

The war in Africa was still raging when the armistice in Europe was signed: Lettow-Vorbeck himself only surrendered three days after the German surrender in Europe.

The Pacific

In August 1914, New Zealand occupied the German colony in Samoa; while Australian forces occupied German possessions in the Bismarck Archipelago and New Guinea. The Japanese took the

German held port of Shandong, China in November 1914, simultaneously taking the German-held Marshall Islands, the Mariana Islands, the Palau group of islands, and the Carolines.

Consequences of the War

The First World War was a bloody, unnecessary and violent struggle which took the lives of over 8.4 million Whites over the space of the four years it was fought: a staggering average of 2 million per year.

Deaths as a result of World War One, by Country

Russia	1,700,000
France	1,357,800
British Empire	908,371
Italy	650,000
United States	126,000
Rumania	335,706
Serbia	45,000
Belgium	13,716
Greece	5000
Portugal	7222
Montenegro	3000
Germany	1,773,700
Austria-Hungary	1,200,000
Ottoman Empire	325,000
Bulgaria	87,500
Total	8,538,015

France was particularly badly hit: much of the war was fought on its territory and the population went into severe decline: the French government then opened up its borders to North African and Black African immigration to fill up its numbers.

Britain, although weakened, came off the lightest of the Western European powers: her losses, both in material and human terms, were amongst the lowest in Europe, and the British Empire even expanded in size as a result of the annexation of German territories.

The United States of America played a key role in deciding the war: the arrival of fresh, well armed and massive amounts of troops and material played a major role in stopping the final German attack

and rolling up the German armies at the end of the war.

The war also saw the final death of the Ottoman Empire which had so long dominated the Middle East. A whole new can of worms was to be opened for the British who found themselves trying to appease both World Zionism and Arab demands for self rule in Palestine: eventually the British would end up fighting a vicious terrorist war against Jewish nationalists in the region.

Russia ended the war in the grip of a Communist revolution and a civil war which would only end in 1924. The country had been devastated by years of misrule prior to the war, and suffered huge human and material losses as a result. It would be years before any semblance of stability was restored. Germany was devastated, although the war had never actually reached its territory (apart from the initial Russian excursion into East Prussia).

Racked by rebellion and revolution, the Weimar Republic in Germany was doomed to failure: economic collapse followed and was aggravated by the huge reparations which the country was forced to pay to the victors of the war. Germany was held to blame for the war: this was unjust, as the Germans were no more to blame for the war than any of the other European powers: all were short sighted and bloody minded enough to allow all the continent to descend into a madness which provided the mainspring for yet another European wide conflict twenty years later.



World War One cemetery at Verdun.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Sixty

The October Revolution: Communism in Russia

The two uprisings in Imperial Russia, in March and October 1917, are together known as the Russian Revolution. After this revolution, the super power known as the Soviet Union was to be created: it would play a major role in world politics for just over 70 years before collapsing into itself, racked not only by Communism's inherent economic contradictions, but also destroyed by ethnic and racial conflict. The two revolutions are known as the February Revolution and October Revolution by name: both had tumultuous effects on 20th century history.

Mounting Crises

The 1917 revolutions were not however the first attempts to overthrow the tsar: the 1825 revolt against Tsar Nicholas 1 and the 1905 revolution, which ended in the Bloody Sunday Massacres in St. Petersburg, were evidence of a dissatisfaction with the Russian state going back decades.

Imperialist Russia was one of the original belligerents in the First World War: by 1917 however, the country had been defeated in more major battles than it had won. The country was ill equipped to fight a modern war: the underdeveloped and mismanaged economy, combined with centuries of autocratic Tsarist rule, created conditions ripe for revolution.

Despite some limited reforms being introduced, which saw a highly restricted Duma, or parliament, coming into being, the Tsar retained virtual absolute power. Warnings issued to him, even by the upper class dominated Duma, were ignored.

Food shortages were common: Russian troops were the worst supplied of the war; often going for long periods without food or basic clothing, yet expected to fight for a system from which they had long since been alienated. By 1917, serious famine threatened much of Russia and the pro-reform parties in the Duma had a majority. All the signs were there that trouble was ahead: all were ignored.

The February Revolution

The deprivations of the war finally proved too much. By February 1917, large crowds had started to form daily demonstrations in Petrograd (now called St. Petersburg) protesting against the food shortages, against the undemocratic Tsar and against the war.

The Duma, while not leading the protest, was overtly sympathetic to the demands of the workers, with the largest party in the Duma being the moderate pro-reformist Socialist Workers Party.

On 23 February, some 90,000 people gathered for one of the biggest demonstrations yet: the principle demand of that protest was bread - the simplicity of the demand an indication of how desperate things had become. Despite police and troops being called in to disperse the crowd, the

masses remained unmoved: most soldiers were in any event sympathetic with the crowd.

The next day, 24 February, tensions had risen visibly: half of all Petrograd turned out on strike: hundreds of thousands of people filled the streets, calling for an end to the Tsar's rule and for an end to the war which they saw as the Tsar's personal war - a not wholly inaccurate interpretation. By 25 February, the whole city had been engulfed in a strike: as the nation's capital, it brought the entire administration of the country and of the war to a halt.

Then the strike turned violent: several police stations were seized by bands of armed strikers and burned down; and universal suffrage elections to the first workers councils (called Soviets) were held in the factories in Petrograd. The pro-reform Socialist Workers Party easily won the majority votes in these Soviets - which quickly became the de facto local government bodies, appropriating many duties and responsibilities to themselves that were normally the preserve of the Tsarist government.

The Army Mutinies

By 26 February, the Tsar called out the Russian army in Petrograd to suppress the uprising: at first there were some violent clashes, but soon the troops mutinied and refused to fire on the workers: the first line of defense for the old order had collapsed under a wave of disloyalty caused by the Tsar's own short sightedness.

The Tsar then dissolved the pro-reform Duma: this body obeyed but informally reassembled and elected a provisional cabinet to run the state: by 27 February, there was virtually nothing left of the Tsar's administration and the informal Duma was the de facto government.

Then the army mutinied on a grand scale: in Petrograd, 150,000 soldiers joined the revolution in one go: together with the armed workers, the capital was completely seized and the remains of the Imperialist government driven out. The revolution had claimed some 1,500 lives till that stage.

The Petrograd Soviet

Despite the Petrograd Soviets being firmly pro-reform, they were not dominated by the Communists. Together they elected an overall Soviet for Petrograd, and together with the Duma formed what was in reality a fairly moderate socialist administration whose first priority was to organize food supplies and the release of the hundreds of political prisoners who had been jailed by the Tsarist government.

Both the Duma and the Soviet in Petrograd also believed in continuing the war against Germany: despite the end of the war being a demand specifically made by the crowds who had driven the Tsarist government out of the capital.

Vladimir Lenin

Vladimir Illyich Ulyanov, who later adopted the name of Lenin, was born in 1870 and had become a convinced revolutionary by the age of 17, when his brother had been executed for his part in a plot to assassinate the Tsar.

By then already a follower of Karl Marx, who in 1848 had published the Communist Manifesto in Germany and who had thereby formalized the ideology of Communism, Lenin was exiled to Siberia by the Tsarist police for three years from 1887 to 1890.

On his release, he fled to Western Europe and built up the radical wing of the Russian Communist Party, mainly through the publication of his famous newspaper "Iskra" (the Spark) from Switzerland. Lenin returned briefly to Russia in 1905 to take part in the abortive revolution of that year: When it failed and was suppressed, he fled once more into exile.

The February revolution of 1917 caught Lenin unprepared: he was still in Switzerland when it broke out. He immediately made an offer to the German government: if they would give him safe passage to Russia, he would endeavor to take Russia out of the war. The Germans agreed to this plan, and along with a tight group of selected revolutionaries, Lenin was put across the Russian border by the Germans in a secret operation which involved the Communists hiding in a railway truck. Lenin finally arrived in Petrograd in April 1917, with his small but tough and trained hard core group of revolutionaries.

Lenin and the Bolsheviks

Upon Lenin's return, the almost dormant Communist Party was reactivated and sprang into life: Lenin demanded of the Petrograd Soviet that they seize land, distribute it to the peasantry; and end the war. Lenin's Communists, who had been created out of a split at the 1903 Russian Socialist Workers' Party conference (at the time of the split, Lenin had carried the majority of party delegates with him - they became known as the "Bolshevists", or "majority", while the remainder were known as the "Mensheviks", or "minority". These names did not however reflect their support amongst the population: the Mensheviks, or moderate Socialists, had the most support, as the few elections that were held in 1917, proved beyond doubt.) Thus it was that Lenin's demands fell onto Menshevik ears in the Petrograd Soviet and were ignored.

The Tsar Abdicates

Before Lenin had arrived, the Soviet in Petrograd had already recognized the Duma as the legitimate government of Russia: dominated by Mensheviks, the Duma formally took over the administration of the country as a whole on 28 February. The Tsar, realizing that the game was up, formally abdicated on 2 March 1917.

The Revolution Spreads

Using the Petrograd revolution as a model, similar uprisings then occurred throughout Russia: in each case workers' committees, or Soviets, were created in tandem with civil authorities created by the Duma. In virtually all cases, the Soviets were dominated by Mensheviks and all held themselves subservient to the central Menshevik government.

The provisional government then disbanded the Tsarist police, repealed all limitations on freedom of opinion, press, and association, and repealed all laws which discriminated against Jews. Despite all these moves, the basic structure of the society remained unaltered: this was exemplified by the determination to continue the war at all costs.

Slowly the workers' Soviets began to become more radical, and it was not long before the subservience which had been the characteristic of the first Soviets began to change. After a few months it became clear that the Duma government only existed because the Soviets tolerated it: all the actual infrastructure of the state was controlled by the workers' committees, and the Duma government exercised power in name only.

Bolshevist Influence Spreads

Before Lenin's return from exile in April, Bolshevik policy had been formulated by its internal leaders, Lev Kamenev and Joseph Stalin, the latter of whom favored conditional support of the Duma, or Provisional Government, and were in the process of making a political bloc with the Mensheviks and Socialist Revolutionaries.

Lenin's return to Russia in April changed that: he was implacably opposed to co-operation with the Menshevik government and immediately redirected the Bolsheviks into breaking with the Menshevik government and towards establishing control of the Soviets. In this way, Lenin wanted to capture power in the country as a whole, and not to share it with the Mensheviks or others.

Leon Trotsky Returns

Then Lenin's greatest organizer, and the man who can quite rightly be called the brains behind the Bolshevik revolution, Leon Trotsky, arrived back in Russia from America where he had been in exile since escaping from a Tsarist prison following his arrest during the abortive 1905 revolution.

Trotsky was to lead the Bolshevik revolution, and unquestionably without him it would never have occurred. Trotsky's arrival in May 1917 in Russia, accompanied by a large number of international Communists, greatly strengthened Lenin in his struggle with the Mensheviks.

This was primarily because Trotsky was a brilliant organizer, but also because he brought with him a considerable amount of money from Jewish sympathizers in the United States, particularly from the banker Jacob Schiff of the firm Kuhn Loeb & Co. - the latent anti-Semitism of successive Tsarist governments had made the revolutionary movement a cause celebre amongst Western Jews.

The Soviets Flex their Muscle

In April, the first serious confrontation between the Duma government and the Petrograd Soviet occurred: in that month, the Duma government issued a pronouncement to the Western Allied powers stating that it would continue the war with Germany and that it fully intended to annex territories from the defeated Central Powers at the conclusion of the war.

This pronouncement flew directly in the face of the Petrograd Soviet's political position on the war: the month before, in March, it had issued a proclamation calling for the end of the war and the creation of peace without annexations and reparations.

The Duma government's announcement immediately led to demonstrations in the streets of

Petrograd: the unwillingness of the Russian masses to continue with the war which had already killed over a million and a half Russians had been completely underestimated. The Petrograd Soviet then assumed sole control in the capital city: the Duma government was summarily ejected and the entire army garrison in Petrograd obeyed the orders given to it by the Soviet. This marked a sea change: although the Bolsheviks were still a minority, their policy had in effect been endorsed by the leading Soviet in the country.

First Congress of Soviets

In June 1917, the Soviets from around the country gathered in Petrograd for the first all-Russian Congress of Soviets. It was still heavily dominated by Mensheviks and Duma government supporters: but cracks were beginning to appear.

The Duma government had failed to address the major issues facing the country: the lack of food, inflation and continued reverses on the war front created ever deepening crises for the government. The Duma government also had not yet held proper democratic elections, arguing that it was not possible to do so while so much of the country was still under German occupation.

Then the Congress of Soviets declared itself in favor of state monopolies of the bread industry and other essential items, the first socialist reform that had actually been proposed. The Duma government turned this request down, arguing that the first issue to be resolved was winning the war, and that all other things would be addressed afterwards. With policy pronouncements such as this, the Duma government was, without realizing it, continually alienating the Soviets, upon whom it depended to stay in power.

Russian Army Discipline Cracks

Then the Menshevik Minister of War in the Duma government, Alexander Kerensky, compounded the crisis by launching a major Russian offensive on 16 June 1917: it was an utter failure and discipline in the Russian army collapsed. Millions of soldiers deserted and flooded back into the Russian cities to escape the fighting at the front. Alienated, hungry and angry, they were ideal revolutionary material and the Bolsheviks were able to engage in mass recruiting led by the extremely able Trotsky.

The July Uprising

News of the defeat at the front arrived while the Congress of Soviets was still in session: under pressure from the Petrograd Soviet the congress then issued a demand calling for the abolition of the Duma and the holding of formal democratic elections on 30 September.

The Petrograd Soviet then organized a demonstration in support of its demands: the size of the turnout - estimated to be at least a half million - surprised even the Petrograd Soviet organizers: an even greater shock was the realization that the majority of the demonstrators were Bolshevik supporters. The demonstration grew by leaps and bounds: from 3 to 5 July, the crowd was joined by armed soldiers from the city garrison and sailors from the nearby naval fortress of Kronstadt.

The mass then descended on the Tauride Palace, where the Congress of Soviets was in session,

demanding that it take sole power in the country and eject the Duma government for once and for all.

Bolshevik Leadership

The Bolsheviks naturally assumed the leadership of this great demonstration: Lenin and Trotsky could be seen up and down the streets of Petrograd, speaking and whipping up the crowds with appeals for bread, peace and socialism.

Although the demonstration was largely non-violent, the executive committee of the Congress of Soviets denounced it as a counter revolutionary Bolshevik insurrection and summoned troops from the front to disperse the demonstrators. The troops arrived on 5 July - by which time the majority of the crowd had dispersed. The troops however made a symbolic gesture by placing themselves under the command of the Congress of Soviets - effectively ignoring the Duma government.

Kerensky Government

In what was in retrospect and act of supreme stupidity, the Duma then elected the unpopular Kerensky as prime minister on 10 July. His disastrous record as minister of war had been the primary cause of the mass uprising and the break down of the Russian army; now he was head of a government already struggling to keep control over the increasingly restless Soviets.

Kerensky then further destroyed what little support he may have had by postponing the long promised democratic elections until the end of November. He then finally moved against the Bolsheviks: Lenin's entry into the country, courtesy of the Germans was exposed and he was denounced as a German agent: Trotsky was arrested and kept in detention without trial.

The Kerensky government also refused to listen to the increasing clamor for economic reform, ignoring all from the most reasonable demands; to those demanding the seizure of all land and the outlawing of private property. In short, Kerensky did nothing, always a recipe for trouble.

The Kornilov Incident

Convinced that Kerensky could not cope with the situation, some conservative Russian army elements led by the newly appointed commander in chief of the army, general Kornilov, then made plans to occupy Petrograd and dissolve the Soviet in the city. For a while Kerensky supported the plan, but when he learned that Kornilov intended to depose the Duma government as well, he warned the Petrograd Soviet and appealed for their help in stopping Kornilov.

The Petrograd Soviet then organized the soldiers and workers in the city into armed formations to ward off the Kornilov invasion: the leadership fell almost immediately to the Bolsheviks. As Kornilov's army approached the city, they were met by large numbers of workers and soldiers under the Bolshevik banner, proclaiming friendship and peace. Kornilov's army dissolved in front of his eyes and he was arrested without a shot being fired.

The Kornilov fiasco saw the workers of Petrograd being formally armed: and the Bolsheviks for the first time won an outright majority on the workers' Soviet in the city. At last they were the most popular

party in the capital of the country. The popularity of the Bolsheviks then spread to other Soviets around the country: by October, they dominated the Congress of Soviets as well, in effect meaning that the majority of workers' organization in the country were under their influence.

Trotsky and the Military Revolutionary Council

Still however, the Duma government persisted in claiming to be the only legitimate government of the country. Kerensky tried to break up the armed militancy of the Petrograd soldiers' garrison by ordering part of them to the war front: they simply refused and the government was unable to coerce them into doing so.

On 16 October, the Petrograd Soviet created the "Military Revolutionary Committee for the defense of the capital against the counter revolution" - with the Bolsheviks achieving an outright majority in the election to head this council. The Mensheviks and others then refused to participate: full control of all military forces in the capital city of Russia then fell under the control of the now freed Trotsky.

The October Revolution

As soon as Trotsky had achieved this important breakthrough, he realized that the time was never better to act decisively. Under his orders, the Military Revolutionary Council seized all important government buildings and sites over the night of the 24 -25 October 1917: the October Revolution, which would create the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (the USSR), was launched.

Armed workers, soldiers, and sailors stormed the Winter Palace in Petrograd, the headquarters of the Duma government and physically ejected them from office. The seizure of power was virtually bloodless.

On 25 October, Trotsky officially announced the end of the Duma government: many of its ministers were arrested and Kerensky fled into exile in America. The second Congress of Soviets was held the next month: it overwhelmingly endorsed the new Bolshevik government. Trotsky's organizational abilities had achieved the transformation of Russia into a Bolshevik dominated state within six months of his arrival in the country.

The New Government

The Congress of Soviets then adopted a constitution in which supreme authority was vested in the congress itself. Execution of the decisions of the congress was entrusted to the Soviet of People's Commissars - a gathering of several hundred regional leaders (the "commissars") which was made subject to the authority of the Congress of Soviets and to its Central Executive Committee.

Each of the people's commissars was the chairman of a commissariat (commission) corresponding to the ministries of other governments. Lenin was elected head of the Council of People's Commissars.

The Congress of Soviets then called upon the new government to immediately end the war and to engage in the redistribution of land and economic wealth to the masses: this done; the Congress of Soviets then adjourned. The decisions of the Congress of Soviets on peace and land evoked

widespread support for the new government, and they were decisive in assuring victory to the Bolsheviks in other cities and in the provinces.

All banks were nationalized and all factories placed under the control of local Soviets: in short, the most extreme tenements of Marxism were implemented with great haste.

The new government then ended the war with Germany: in terms of the treaty of Brest Litovsk, signed in March 1918, the Ukraine and other parts of western Russia were ceded to Germany.



Lenin, in cap at the right, greets a number of fellow revolutionaries in Moscow on May Day 1919.

Trotsky's Troops Disperse Democratic Government

Seemingly safe in their hold on power, the new government then held the longed for democratic elections. The results were a rude shock: the Bolsheviks received one of the lowest numbers of votes. Trotsky refused to accept the outcome: the new parliament was physically attacked under his orders by troops from the Military Revolutionary Council and dispersed, never to be heard of again.

From that time on the ideal of a democratically elected government was simply dropped from the political program of the Russian Communist Party, and rule by the commissar system continued as if nothing had happened.

Civil War

Although the Tsarist government had been universally unpopular, the only democratic election showed that the Bolsheviks were most certainly not the firm favorites to replace them: opposition to

the Bolsheviks erupted into a civil war that started in 1918, after the anti-Bolshevik democratically elected parliament was smashed up by Trotsky.

The Bolsheviks became known as the Reds - after their flag - and the anti-Bolsheviks gathered together into an alliance that became known as the Whites. Red and White armies fought several major battles, the most ferocious in 1920, with isolated battles sputtering on until 1924.



The Black Hundreds: a pro-Tsarist militia, violently anti-Jewish, march through the city of Odessa. They were later to form part of the anti-Communist army which battled the Red Army for supremacy in the aftermath of the October revolution.

Initially the Whites had the potential to overthrow the Bolshevik dictatorship: however, they destroyed their chances of getting mass support from the anti-Bolshevik voters by associating themselves with the Tsar. Faced with a choice between the Bolsheviks or a return by the Tsar, most Russians stayed neutral, allowing the better armed Reds to finally wear the Whites down.

The Red Terror

Moving the capital to Moscow, the Bolsheviks then instituted what became known as the Red Terror - all opponents, suspected or real - and there were many of them - were arrested and most often executed in a wave of violence which made even the previous Tsarist system seem mild.

A secret police and internal security agency was set up, later to become known as the Cheka, through which opponents of the state were hunted down. Workers' strikes, peasant uprisings, and a

sailors' revolt known as the Kronstadt Rebellion were quickly crushed. Victims included the Tsar and his entire family, gunned down and buried anonymously by Cheka policemen after months in detention. On 30 December 1922, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) was formally established when the ethnic territories of the former Russian Empire were united with the Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic (RSFSR).



The devastation of the Russian civil war upon the Russian and Ukrainian people: a Ukrainian family, suffering from the emaciating disease typhus, sit by the wreckage of their house.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Sixty One

Jews and Communism in the Soviet Union

The creation of the Soviet Union was to impact upon history for the greater part of the 20th century - and an understanding of the sub-racial and ideological divisions it caused is crucial to understanding not only the events of that century, but also to understanding the flare up of anti-Jewish sentiment which culminated in the creation of the Third Reich in Germany.

For the Soviet Union's best kept secret was that the Bolshevik elite had one outstanding characteristic: it had an inordinately large number of Jews in its controlling body.

Virtually all of the important Bolshevik leaders, with the exception of Lenin, were Jews : they included the "father of the revolution," Leon Trotsky (whose real name was Lev Bronstein: in an attempt to hide his Jewishness, he adopted the name Trotsky); Lev Kamenev, the early Bolshevik leader who later went on to become a leading member of the Politburo, was born with the surname Rosenfeld; Grigori Zinoviev, head of the Petrograd Soviet, was born with the surname Apfelbaum; and many other famous Communists of the time, such as Karl Radek, Lazar Kaganovich; and Moses Urtisky, (the head of the Cheka) who all changed their names for reasons similar to that of Trotsky.

The Bolshevik's Party's Central Committee chairman, Yakov Sverdlov, was also Jewish - and it was he who gave the order to the Jewish Soviet secret policeman, Yurovsky, to murder the Tsar - Yurovsky personally carried out this order.

Winston Churchill Wrote About the Communist Jews

The preponderance of Jews in the inner sanctum of the Communist revolution in Russia was in fact well known at the time: the young Winston Churchill, later to become prime minister of Great Britain, was a journalist in 1920.

In that year he wrote a full page article for the Illustrated Sunday Herald on 8 February 1920 detailing the Jewish involvement in the revolution. Churchill went even further and blamed the Jews for "every subversive movement during the Nineteenth Century", writing :

"This movement amongst the Jews (the Russian Revolution) is not new. From the days of Spartacus Weishaupt to those of Karl Marx, and down to Trotsky (Russia), Bela Kuhn (Hungary), Rosa Luxembourg (Germany) and Emma Goldman (United States), this world wide conspiracy for the overthrow of civilization and the reconstruction of society on the basis of arrested development, of envious malevolence, and impossible equality, has been steadily growing. It played, as a modern writer, Mrs. Nesta Webster, has so ably shown, a definitely recognizable part in the tragedy of the French Revolution. It has been the mainspring of every subversive movement during the Nineteenth Century; and now at last this band of extraordinary personalities has gripped the Russian people by the hair of their heads and have become practically the undisputed masters of that enormous empire. "There is no need to exaggerate the part played in the creation of Bolshevism and in the actual bringing about of the Russian Revolution by these international and for the most part atheistic Jews. Moreover, the principal inspiration and driving power comes from Jewish leaders." (ibid)

Churchill also pointedly accused Leon Trotsky (Bronstein) of wanting to establish a "world wide Communistic state under Jewish domination" in this article.

Terrorist Jews.

There is no need to exaggerate the part played in the creation of Bolshevism and in the actual bringing about of the Russian Revolution by these international and for the most part atheistical Jews. It is certainly a very great one; it probably outweighs all others. With the notable exception of Lenin, the majority of the leading figures are Jews. Moreover, the principal inspiration and driving power comes from the Jewish leaders. Thus Tchitcherin, a pure Russian, is eclipsed by his nominal subordinate Litvinoff, and the influence of Russians T

*Churchill was not the only journalist to note the Jewish role in the Russian Revolution: Robert Wilton, the chief correspondent for the London Times, who was stationed in Russia at the time, wrote in his book *The Last Days of the Romanovs* (Hornton Butterworth, London, 1920, pages 147, 22-28, 81, 118, 199, 127, 139-148) that "90 per cent" of the new Soviet government was composed of Jews. The correspondent for the London Morning Post, Victor Marsden, went further and actually compiled a list of names of the top 545 Bolshevik officials: of these, Marsden said, 454 were Jews and only 23 Non-Jewish Russians. (All These Things, A.N. Field, Appendix B pages 274-276).*

American Senate Report Confirmed the Earlier Reports

An American Senate subcommittee investigation into the Russian Revolution heard evidence, put on congressional record, that "(I)n December 1919, under the presidency of a man named Apfelbaum (Zinovieff) . . . out of the 388 members of the Bolshevik central government, only 16 happened to be real Russians, and all the rest (with the exception of a Negro from the U.S.) were Jews" (U.S. Senate Document 62, 1919).

TELEGRAM RECEIVED.

1012 101

SPECIAL DEL.

FROM

Moscow

Dated May 12, 1918

Recd, 7, 516 a.m.

CORRECTED COPY.

Secretary of State
Washington.

FIX III
MAY 15 1918

ADJUNCT
MAY 23 1918
DEPARTMENT OF STATE

460, May 2, 3pm.

DEPT OF STATE

With reference to Department's number 1531 to Embassy.

Consulate General is maintaining observers along line of German

First two reports received relate to condition at and near Vitebsk, Vyazma, and Bryansk. At Vitebsk food shortage. Jews predominant in local Soviet Government, anti-Jewish feeling growing among population which tends to regard incoming Germans as deliverers.

FILED
MAY 27 1918

TELEGRAM RECEIVED.

1012 101

FROM

Vladivostok.

Dated.

Recd, July 5, 1918, 11:00 a.m.

RECEIVED
JULY 11

JUL - 5 1918

DEPT OF STATE

Secretary of State,
Washington.

Department of State
JUL 5 1918
DIV. OF NEAR EASTERN AFFAIRS
(1114334)

20. Following message recd from Harris Irkutsk, which was sent to the Department in original cipher, in accordance with Department's telegraphic instructions through Consul-General of the United States at

shipment to Germany while Russians starve. Fifty per cent of Soviet Government in each town consists of Jews of worst type, many of whom are anarchists. It would be grave mistake on our part to officially

shipment to Germany while Russians starve. Fifty per cent of Soviet Government in each town consists of Jews of worst type, many of whom are anarchists. It would be grave mistake on our part to officially recognize Bolshevism who scarcely represent (blank) per cent of Russian

Both these telegrams are from official US National Archives: the upper one, State Department document 861.00/1757 was sent on 2 May 1918, from Moscow by US Consul General Summers. The lower one, State Department document 861.00/2205, was sent from Vladivostok on 5 July 1918, by US Consul Caldwell. Both describe the domination of the Bolshevik Communists by Jews, using the words "Fifty per cent of Soviet Government in each town consists of Jews of the worst type..."

Copies of documents from the US National Archives are freely available to anyone from the Washington DC, USA, office.

US Army Intelligence Reports

However, none of these authorities quoted above dared to use quite the language of a US Military Intelligence officer, one captain Montgomery Schuyler, who sent two reports to Washington in March and June 1919, describing in graphic detail the Jewish role in the Russian Revolution. Both these reports were only declassified in September 1957 and the originals are still held in the US National Archives in Washington, open for public inspection.

The first report, sent from Omsk on 1 March 1919, contains the following paragraph:

"it is probably unwise to say this loudly in the United States but the Bolshevik movement is and has been since its beginning, guided and controlled by Russian Jews of the greasiest type..."

The second report, dated 9 June 1919, and sent from Vladivostok, said that of the

"384 commissars there were 2 Negroes, 13 Russians, 15 Chinamen, 22 Armenians and more than 300 Jews. Of the latter number 264 had come to Russia from the United States since the downfall of the Imperial Government."

In reply please refer to No. _____

383.9 Mil. Int. Report.

PERSONAL AND CONFIDENTIAL

Schuyler

DECLASSIFIED

DD Form 117, 6200.9 Sept. 27, 1958
RGR by _____ Date 9-17-63

WAR DEPARTMENT
AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCES, SIBERIA
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF OF STAFF
INTELLIGENCE SECTION

March 1, 1919.

My dear Colonel Barrows:

I have just received your letter of January 23rd, forwarded by FRANK ROYEN of General Romanovsky's staff, who has just arrived in Omsk. I was of course much interested in your news, as I had been

WAR DEPARTMENT
AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCES, SIBERIA
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF OF STAFF
INTELLIGENCE SECTION

-2-

Ever since then however, he has shown himself in so far as he could safely do so, more and more liberal, and I have no hesitation in saying that I firmly believe that his own opinions and frame of mind are far more liberal than the outside world gives him credit for. He is unfortunate in this that he has had to spend upon the walled city to maintain his position and to keep his government from being overthrown by the Bolshevik elements which are numerous in every city in Siberia.

It is probably unsafe to say this loudly in the United States but the Bolshevik movement is and has been since its beginning, guided and controlled by Russian Jews of the greatest type, who have been in the United States and there absorbed every one of the worst phases of our civilization without having the least understanding of what we really

HEADQUARTERS, AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCES, SIBERIA

Vladivostok, Siberia,
June 9th, 1919.

From: Captain Montgomery Schuyler.
To: The Chief of Staff
Subject: General Report - Omsk.

1. In compliance with orders of the Commanding General (Secret) October 25th, 1918, I left Vladivostok on November 20th, 1918 and proceeded to Omsk which I reached on Decem-

able the new regime would be replaced by a modern government into the country. These hopes were frustrated by the gradual gains in power of the more irresponsible and socialistic elements of the population guided by the Jews and other anti-Russian races. A table made in April 1918 by Robert Wilson, the correspondent of the London Times in Russia, shows that at that time there were 384 "commissars" including 2 negroes, 13 Russians, 15 Chinamen, 22 Armenians and more than 300 Jews. Of the latter number 264 had come to Russia from the United States since the downfall of the Imperial Government. It is only since the

April 1918 by Robert Wilson, the correspondent of the London Times in Russia, shows that at that time there were 384 "commissars" including 2 negroes, 13 Russians, 15 Chinamen, 22 Armenians and more than 300 Jews. Of the latter number 264 had come to Russia from the United States since the downfall of the Imperial Government. It is only since the

-2-

Both these American army military intelligence reports are freely available from the US National Archives in Washington DC. They were written by Captain Montgomery Schuyler, US Army. Schuyler made a point of the heavy Jewish involvement in the Communist revolution. Schuyler writes that "It is probably unwise to say this loudly in the United States but the Bolshevik movement is and has been since its beginning guided and controlled but Russians Jews of the greasiest type.." and goes on to point out that of the total 384 commissars running the Soviet Union, more than 300 were Jews."

The importance of this information does not need to be overemphasized in the light of the crucial governing role the commissars played in the running the early Soviet society.

It therefore came as no surprise when anti-Semitism was duly entered into the Soviet law books as a death penalty crime - although latent anti-Semitism simmered even in Communist Party circles, flaring up quite seriously when a Jewish woman, Fanny Kaplan, tried to assassinate Lenin by literally stabbing him in the back.

Karl Marx

As if the Russian Revolution was not enough, the originator of the Communist ideology itself, Karl Marx, was also a Jew, with his family name in reality being Levi.

The large Jewish role in the Russian revolution, combined with the fact that Marx had been born a Jew, was manna from heaven for the European anti-Semitic movement, and the link between Jews and Communism was exploited to the hilt, particularly by Adolf Hitler and the National Socialist (Nazi) movement in Germany during the 1920's.

It was not only in Germany that the association of Jews with Communism was made: all over the world Jews became associated with radical political movements, sometimes justifiably so, other times not. Nonetheless, the presence of so many Jews in the creation of the Soviet Union played a massive role in justifying anti-Jewish sentiment in Europe prior to, and with, the rise of Adolf Hitler.

Jews in the Later Soviet Union

Jews retained their leading roles in Soviet society until growing anti-Semitism within the Communist Party itself led to a change in policy. Trotsky was the first major Jewish casualty: he split with Stalin over the issue of international socialism and the need to spread the revolution: he was forced into exile in 1929. He was then assassinated in Mexico City in 1940, allegedly by a Stalinist agent.

By the middle 1930s, Stalin had started purging the Soviet Communist Party of other important Jews. The period immediately following the end of the Second World War and the creation of the state of Israel saw another rise in Soviet anti-Semitism: by 1953, Stalin had started purging all Jews in the Soviet hierarchy who were also Zionists.

The Communists, quite correctly, saw Zionism as Jewish nationalism and contrary to the interests of an international socialist brotherhood. Many leading Russian Jews were also fervent Zionists: and it was this group that was then targeted for persecution, and who became famous throughout the rest of the lifetime of the Soviet Union as the victims of Soviet anti-Semitism.

Zionism, as an expression of Jewish separatism was declared a crime against the Soviet state, and Zionist organizations were forced to close down their operations inside the Soviet Union.

East Germany, as an official Soviet satellite, was forbidden by Moscow to make any reparations payments to the Zionist created state of Israel for the treatment of Jews by the Nazi government.

Not all Russian Jews were Zionists: those who were not, were generally left alone and some did achieve prominent positions within the post Stalin Soviet Union.

Many thousands of Jews did however leave the Soviet Union - estimates putting the total number at over the one million mark, with most settling in Israel or the United States.

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[White History main page](#)

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Sixty Two

The Second World War

As staggering as had the cost been of the First World War, even that disaster paled into insignificance with the war which became the single greatest conflict of all time: the Second World War. This war saw all of Europe consumed into a conflict in which the total dead of the First World War would be surpassed by the dead of one country alone: it marked the first total and ideological war which Europe had ever seen.

The Treaty of Versailles

It is no exaggeration to say that the Second World War started with the treaty that ended the first one: the Treaty of Versailles, drawn up by the victors of the First World War treated Germany and her allies very badly, blaming them for a war which had been as much the Allies fault as anybody else.

Germany was stripped of huge pieces of territory in all directions.

- In the west, the province of Alsace Lorraine was ceded to France;
- three German districts were given to Belgium;
- half of the state of Schleswig was given to Denmark; and
- a large slice of Germany, extending 50 kilometers east of the Rhine, was placed under effective French control by the creation of a demilitarized "buffer" zone.
- In the east, the German city of Danzig was declared a "free city" under control of the new established League of Nations (the forerunner to the United Nations): in reality it was run by Poland.
- In addition to this, a huge swathe of German land, complete with German inhabitants, was ceded directly to Poland, cutting Germany into two parts, with East Prussia being isolated on the Baltic coast;
- a part of Silesia in central Germany was given to Poland as well; and
- a portion of the former Austro-Hungarian Empire which was traditionally German, was cut away to form the new state of Czechoslovakia.

All told, Germany lost some 25,000 square miles of territory inhabited by nearly seven million Germans: it was a recipe for a nationalist revival.

The union of Germany and Austria - the logical consequence of the destruction of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, was also strictly forbidden, crippling Austria economically.

Military Restrictions

The German army was placed under great restrictions: limited to 100,000 men, no important naval units; and no airforce at all. These measures were taken as personal insults by the Prussian militarists. Finally, foreign observers were stationed in Germany to keep an eye on factories which

might be used to make munitions.

Reparations

Germany was then presented with a bill for the war, again based on the totally false grounds that Germany had alone been responsible for the conflict. An immediate payment of the then amount of \$5,000,000,000 was demanded and paid - by the exchange rate of the end of the 20th century, this would probably amount to several hundred times that figure.

This was however was not all: when the Allies finally fixed the full amount of the reparations bill in 1921, it was put at a further \$32,000,000,000 - in value at the time. It was not physically possible for Germany to meet this demand, but nonetheless the Weimar government, established by the Social Democratic Party government in Germany, was forced to sign the treaties: thereby earning the enduring hatred of a large number of Germans.

German Economic Collapse

In August 1921, Germany made a payment of \$250,000,000 - only a fraction of the amount demanded, but in real terms a staggering amount. Immediately the German economy crashed with this massive pay-out impacting on its foreign reserves.

The German currency failed completely: in January 1923, one US dollar was worth 896 Marks: by November 1923, one dollar was worth 6,666,666,666,667 Marks.

Unable to make any more payments, Germany threatened defaulting on the next reparations bill. In retaliation, the French army then invaded the Saar demilitarized area, establishing martial law in the region. The French used Black African occupation troops in this move: something which caused great resentment in Germany.

Only in 1924, did the American government intervene with a massive loan in terms of a plan drawn up by the banker Charles Dawes: the bail out became known as part of the Dawes plan, which helped to stabilize the German economy, although it was never to recover fully until after Adolf Hitler came to power in 1933.

The League of Nations

In 1920, the international community created the League of Nations in an attempt to establish a lasting peace. Despite some small successes, the League never addressed itself to the real cause of conflict: the provisions of the treaty of Versailles. Although the European states tried to address some issues of potential conflict with treaties in the 1920s - most notably the Pact of Locarno and the Kellogg-Briand treaty, nothing was done to lift Germany out of the state in which it had been placed.

The advent of the Great Depression in 1929 made the economy even worse and paved the way for the coming to power of the German nationalist Adolf Hitler.

The state that Hitler created is the subject of another chapter: suffice to say here that it was by

exploiting German grievances with the Treaty of Versailles, both in terms of national pride and territorial losses; and by pulling the German economy back on track, that Hitler was able to come to power with the support of the majority of Germans.

Hitler Overthrows the Treaty of Versailles

An important part of Hitler's political program was the overthrow of the Treaty of Versailles: as a first stage he unilaterally re-armed Germany.

Then Hitler started retaking the areas lost by Germany in which Germans still lived: the Saar was occupied in 1935 (the French had left a while earlier, but the region still was officially a demilitarized zone); in 1938, Austria was annexed to Germany and in that same year Czechoslovakia was broken up, with the region in which a majority of Germans (3.5 million of them) lived, the Sudetenland, being formally annexed to Germany.

Further parts of Czechoslovakia that were ethnically Polish and Hungarian were given to those two countries; the eastern section of the country was made independent as the Slovak Republic. The remainder of Czechoslovakia was then made into a German protectorate.

The Polish Question and the Outbreak of Hostilities

Then Hitler turned his attention to the Polish corridor made up of former German territory and the city of Danzig. At first restricting himself to requesting road and rail links between Germany and East Prussia, Hitler decided on a military option after these overtures were rejected by the Poles. Alleging that Germans were being maltreated by the Poles - and in certain areas they were - Germany invaded Poland on 1 September 1939.

The Germans hoped that France and Britain would not go to war over the issue - Hitler drew the analogy that Germany would not go to war with France if that country claimed one of its cities back from foreign rule. This hope was misplaced: on 3 September, France and Britain both declared war on Germany for the act of invading Poland.

The Second World War had started, on the surface caused by Germany reclaiming territory inhabited by Germans which had been torn off that country by the Treaty of Versailles.

The Polish Campaign

Germany put 1.5 million men into battle: the Poles met them with a numerically superior force of 1.8 million. The Germans had however learned the lessons of the First World War well: they had invested heavily in the building of tanks and had developed the concept of mobile war in these armored vehicles: the "blitzkrieg" or lightning war, was unleashed on Poland.

The Polish army, expecting head on static conflicts as had happened in the First World War, were no match for the mobile Germans. By 17 September, the Germans had overrun huge areas of the country and had encircled Warsaw, routing the Poles in every major engagement of the campaign.

Soviet Union Invades

On 17 September, the Soviet Union invaded Poland from the East: an earlier treaty between Germany and the Soviet Union had provided for such an eventuality. The Soviets quickly rolled up the by now panicked Poles, and within three days Poland had been divided between German and Soviet troops. The last pockets of Polish resistance surrendered on 6 October 1939.

The Soviet Union's invasion was a mirror image of the German invasion: yet here came the best indication that there was something more to the war than just Britain and France resisting German aggression, as the conventional historical accounts would have everyone believe.

For if France and Britain had declared war on Germany for the aggressive act of invading Poland, then surely for the sake of consistency they should have declared war on the Soviet Union as well, when it too invaded Poland.

The reason for this clear and obvious double standard was the overtly racial ideological element which Hitlerian politics had introduced into the war: this is discussed in a later chapter.

The Sitzkrieg

Germany only annexed that part of Poland which had been German before the First World War: the rest of the country was made into a protectorate, while the eastern part was annexed by the Soviet Union.

France and Britain were astounded at the speed of the Polish campaign: the French only launched a half hearted attempt to attack from behind their heavily fortified Maginot line of concrete emplacements along the border with Germany. The Germans had built a similar fortified wall: the Siegfried Line, and the French attack petered out before it even reached the German line.

Hitler then made an offer of peace to Britain and France: he had never declared war on them (and never did during the entire course of the war) and did not seek a war with them. Making the offer of peace in a speech in Berlin, Hitler put no pre-conditions other than that the two European nations recognized the right of Germany to re-incorporate the German lands in Poland. The offer was rejected out of hand by both the British and French governments.

Still no military action took place: caught in between building up military reserves and trying to end the war by diplomatic means, Germany kept behind its Siegfried Wall. France, waiting for the British to arrive in significant numbers, kept behind their wall: both sides feared above all else a repeat of the static trench war of 1914-1918. The Sitting War, or Sitzkrieg, continued from September 1939 until May 1940.

The Soviet-Finnish War

At the end of November 1939, the Soviet Union then invaded Finland. Despite being outnumbered five to one, the Finns fought bravely and inflicted massive losses on the Red Army. Fighting on into the new year, without aid or support from Britain or France, Finland only lost small pieces of land

before fighting the invaders to a standstill. On 8 March 1940, the war came to an end, with Finland only ceding the small slice of territory which the Soviets had managed to grab.

Once again Britain and France refused to declare war on the Soviet Union for doing exactly what Germany had done to Poland: this blatant double standard once again proving that the declaration of war against Germany was motivated by an underlying ideological reason, rather than just a desire to protect small nations against aggression.

Denmark and Norway

Britain in the meanwhile decided to land troops in Norway to seize the Swedish iron ore mines which were continuing to supply Germany with raw iron. On 6 April, a large British and French expeditionary force sailed for Norway; then the British navy proceeded to lay mines outside the Norwegian harbor of Narvik, hoping to sink some German ships carrying ore back to Germany.

The mines were laid on 7 April: Hitler, sensing that something was afoot, hastily pulled together an invasion force which sailed the same day, landing in Norway on 9 April.

On the way, Germany occupied Denmark to use that country's ports and airfield. The small nation surrendered immediately and was relatively well treated by Germany for the rest of the war.

The German landings in Norway succeeded everywhere except in Narvik, where a small German force of 4600 men were faced by 24,600 British, French, and Norwegian troops. The minute German force held out, but by the first week of June had been pushed back against the Swedish border. They were on the point of surrendering when the French and British withdrew to go the aid of the then rapidly deteriorating military situation in France.

Norway then fell completely under German occupation, never to be disturbed again for the entire duration of the war, with the occupation army only withdrawing after the German surrender in 1945.

Case Yellow: The Invasion of France

On 10 May 1940, Germany broke the Sitzkrieg and attacked in the west, following a plan worked out by Hitler personally which he called Case Yellow: created over the objections of his generals. Employing the same tactics they had used in Poland, the tight German armored divisions raced past British and French troop concentrations, surrounding them into isolated pockets where their dispersed tanks and armor was of little use.

This tactic was especially advantageous in the light of the fact that the opposing armies were, in terms of numbers, evenly matched.

On the first day of the invasion, German airborne troops landed in Belgium and the Netherlands. In Belgium, German paratroopers succeeded in knocking out the Belgian concrete forts of Eben-Emael, swiftly defeating that small nation's only major line of defense. In the Netherlands, Dutch resistance crumbled after a small German bomber force attacked the inner city of Rotterdam, killing several hundred civilians.

The British and French forces in northern France then moved into Belgium to meet the oncoming Germans. Then Hitler launched what would be his master stroke in the West: the main German force attacked in the center of the border between France and Germany, the Ardennes forest.

With the tank, or panzer, army in the lead, the Germans raced past the Maginot line and then swung northward, covering 400 kilometers (250 miles) in 11 days: mobility unheard of in any war till that time. Racing for the coast, the panzers encircled the British and French forces busy moving into Belgium. The Allied army was cut into two by this move.

Dunkirk

By 26 May - 16 days into the campaign - the Allied army in the north was trapped along a coastal enclave next to the town of Dunkirk. For reasons which have never been explained (the most common belief is that Hitler wanted to let the British escape so as to facilitate a peace with them at a later stage) the German panzers were deliberately stopped outside the town.

The pause in the German attack allowed the entire British Expeditionary Force - some 330,000 men - be evacuated by an astonishing flotilla of British naval and civilian ships, back to England across the channel. Although all the men were evacuated, they left behind tons of sorely needed equipment on the beach.

The Defeat of France

With the main body of the British force gone, the Germans turned south and west once again: ignoring the French troops still sitting in their virtually impregnable Maginot Line, the German tanks drove deep into the French countryside. They met only scattered resistance: more often than not, when French soldiers surrendered, their weapons were taken from them and they were sent home by the Germans who did not want to burden themselves with prisoners.

Finally on 17 June, the French premier, Marshal Henri Petain, the First World War hero who had held the French together in their darkest hour of that war, realized that the situation was militarily hopeless. He asked for an armistice which was signed on 25 June. France had been beaten by Hitler's plan in 46 days.

The armistice gave Germany control over northern France extending into a strip down the Atlantic coast: the rest of France was left independent under Petain, with its capital at the city of Vichy, causing this territory to become known as the Vichy republic.

Operation Sea Lion

The invasion of France had been followed in Britain by the appointment of Winston Churchill as prime minister, who proved to be an able war leader whose carefully media cultivated image in many ways captured the dogged resistance put up by the British when that nation was the only major power on the European continent which had not been overrun by Germany.

The English channel had been the only physical reason why the German tanks had not rolled on to occupy Britain at the same time that France was overrun: certainly after the defeat at Dunkirk the British army barely had enough armor or heavy weapons left to ward off any significant German attack.

The Germans then drew up a plan to invade Britain: called Operation Sea Lion, it consisted of crossing the channel in invasion barges and landing on the southern coast of England. Before this could be achieved, Germany had to achieve air superiority to make up for their overwhelming inferiority at sea. The mighty British navy could knock out almost anything put to sea and could only be warded off by superior air power. The war for Britain then switched a battle in the air.

The Battle of Britain

When Germany had invaded Poland in September 1939 and the Netherlands in May 1940, pinpoint air strikes against civilian towns had been carried out in Warsaw and Rotterdam: both had served effectively to wear down the resistance of the invaded countries.

So it was that when Winston Churchill became prime minister of Britain on 10 May 1940, his first act the next day was to announce that German cities would be targeted for bombing attacks. The same month the first German cities were bombed by British aircraft.

The German airforce however avoided bombing British cities, concentrating on the strategically more important airfields and ports, launching the first of these major raids during August 1940.

The British came up with a surprise weapon: the Spitfire fighter, which at first outclassed almost all the fighters the Germans put into the battle, apart from the Messerschmidt Bf109, with which it was on virtually equal terms. However, the British Royal Air Force (RAF) took a heavy toll on the other German aircraft. The famous Stuka dive bomber, for example, was shot out of British skies in such numbers that after a few weeks they had been withdrawn from the battle.

German air losses mounted: the bravery of the British aircraft teams in defending their homeland has become legendary: certainly it was their efforts which caused the Germans to shelve Operation Sea Lion indefinitely by the end of 1940.

The Blitz

In the interim, British bombers had been raiding German cities for almost four months: finally, after a bombing raid on Berlin itself, Hitler authorized the Luftwaffe to start bombing British cities in return. Selected British cities were then targeted: London, Coventry, Birmingham and Sheffield came in for particularly heavy bombing, and the raids became known as the Blitz.

Despite large scale destruction, the death toll was surprisingly low: in Coventry, only 380 civilians died as a result of the bombing raids throughout the course of the entire war: and total British civilian losses during the war due to German bombing was around 60,000.

To put this into perspective, more than 500,000 German civilians died in the Allied bombing of

German cities during the war: in one raid, on Dresden in 1945, 135,000 German civilians were killed in a single raid.

Nonetheless, the Blitz caused great hardship and forced the British to evacuate virtually all children out of the major cities to rural destinations, splitting families and greatly adding to the misery of wartime Britain. However, most importantly, the Blitz did not break the spirit of the British people or their preparedness to pursue the war.



Left: The ruins of the German city of Dresden, where 135,000 German civilians died in one bombing raid a few days before the war ended: more than all the Japanese who died in both the atom bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki put together. Right: St. Paul's cathedral in London during the Blitz. 60,000 Britons were to die in all the German bombing raids on that country during the entire war.

Italian Misadventures

The Italian leader, Benito Mussolini, had allied himself to Germany before the war in a 1938 alliance known as the Pact of Steel or the Berlin - Rome Axis: as a result this alliance was known as the Axis. In the closing week of the German campaign against France, Mussolini entered the war on Germany's side.

The Italian declaration of war against Britain caught a large number of Italian ex-patriats in Britain by surprise: the British government detained thousands of Italians and kept them without trial for the duration of the war in prisoner camps.

Mussolini launched an attack on France from the Italian side of the French-Italian border immediately after declaring war on that country. The attack was a total failure and French troops even crossed the border into Italy after driving off the initial Italian assault. Only the collapse of the French armies in central France saved Mussolini from an embarrassing defeat.

Eclipsed by Hitler in Western Europe, Mussolini then turned his attention south: in September 1940, he launched an attack on British held Egypt from the Italian colony of Libya, which was easily driven off.

The British then in turn invaded Libya, and started to push the Italians back into that territory. Undaunted, Mussolini then launched an invasion of Greece from the Italian held territory of Albania, in October 1940. Soon the Greeks had defeated the Italian forces as well, and pushed deep into Albania in retaliation. British forces then landed in Crete and Greece to aid the Greeks.

On all fronts then, Mussolini's endeavors faced catastrophe: his inept invasion of Greece had even allowed the British back onto mainland Europe: Hitler was forced to act to bring the situation under control.

The Balkan Campaign

Germany quickly prepared an invasion force to drive the British out of Greece. To reach Greece, German forces had to cross a number of other Eastern European countries: Rumania, Bulgaria and Hungary had formally allied themselves to Germany and gave permission for German troops to move through their countries: only Yugoslavia refused and had to be subdued by force.

The German invasion of Yugoslavia and Greece began in early April 1941: by 13 April, Belgrade had fallen and the Yugoslav army surrendered the next day. The Germans split Yugoslavia up, giving the Albanian dominated region of Kosovo to Albania and letting Croatia become independent: however for the rest of the war, Yugoslav guerrillas fought a merciless war against German troops in the region, and were never completely subdued.

By 9 April, the Germans had smashed the relatively strong Greek army of some 430,000 men: the British expeditionary force in that country was forced to retreat south with its entire force of some 62,000 men. By the end of April, all of Greece had been overrun: the British had withdrawn to Crete, an operation which cost them 12,000 men.

Even there they were not safe: a German airborne invasion in May 1941, (the first in history, discounting the comparatively small landings in the Netherlands in May 1940) drove them off that island, although the German losses were so high that they were never to try an airborne assault on this scale again.

North Africa

Hitler also sent a small German panzer division to Libya to aid the Italians there: under the able leadership of General Erwin Rommel, this German unit, to be known as the Afrika Korps, soon won renown as daring and tactical fighters, quickly stabilizing the military situation and even pushing the

British back into Egypt.

The De Facto War

Although officially neutral, the United States made its partiality for Britain known from the beginning, even duplicating the British overlooking of the Soviet Union's invasion of Poland and Finland as a reason to censure that country. In March 1941, the US Congress passed the Lend-Lease Act and appropriated an initial \$7 billion to lend or lease weapons and other aid to any countries the president might designate as in America's interests: this of course meant Britain and immediately a flow of material and other supplies started to the beleaguered island.

In July 1941, the US stationed troops in Iceland and the American navy was escorting convoys supplying Britain in waters west of Iceland. In September 1941, President Franklin D. Roosevelt authorized American ships doing convoy duty to attack German warships or submarines. America was as good as at war with Germany already.

Barbarossa

Hitler had decided as early as December 1940 that an invasion of the Soviet Union would have to be made: apart from the fact that the Communists were his traditional political foe, all evidence showed that the Soviets were planning to attack Germany at some time during the course of 1941 or 1942. Given all the factors, Hitler decided to strike first.

An invasion plan was drawn up under the code name Barbarossa: after the ancient German king of the same name. This plan entailed a series of quick thrusts through western Russia, halting at the Ural mountains.

Hitler never foresaw going further than this, nor of concluding a treaty with the defeated Russians: rather he saw the territory east of the Urals as alien land which he neither wanted nor wished to subdue.

Originally, Hitler planned Barbarossa for early 1941 so that the campaign could be completed before the advent of the notorious Russian winter. This early invasion had to be postponed due to the disastrous invasion of Greece by Mussolini.

Forced to intervene in Greece and Yugoslavia, the Germans lost a critical month in organizing the invasion of the Soviet Union: the result was that the Russian winter did indeed set in before their primary objectives were reached, forcing them onto the defensive for the first time in the war.

This loss of initiative was the first important German reverse of the war: if ever there was a turning point in the war, it was the delay caused by Mussolini's clownish invasion of Greece. Ultimately Hitler was undone by his choice of allies, rather than by his choice of foes.

The Greatest Land War of All Time

Finally, Barbarossa was executed on 22 June 1941. More than 3 million German troops took part in

the assault, which was spread from the Baltic Sea in the north right through to the Black Sea in the south. It was the beginning of the greatest land war of all time, never equaled since.

The Soviet Army also had just over 3 million men in its western army (it had more reserves in the far east) and outnumbered the Germans by two to one in tanks and by two or three to one in aircraft. The Soviet tanks, in particular the T-34s, were far superior to anything the Germans had at the time: the first T-34s captured intact were dragged away by German engineers for inspection, and it was only much later in the war that the Germans were able to put anything as effective into the field.

Despite the odds, the three German army groups: North, Center, and South, made tremendous speed in rushing towards their three objectives: Leningrad, Moscow, and Kiev respectively.

The speed of the initial advances served to give credence to the German hope that the campaign could be finished before the end of the year: however the delay caused by the Italian debacle would yet catch up with the Germans.

The British offered the Soviet Union an immediate alliance, with Churchill personally issuing the offer: Roosevelt also offered lend-lease aid, which soon came flooding into the Soviet Union in such quantities as to significantly affect the course of the war.

Massive Soviet Losses

By the end of the first week in July, the German Army Group Center had taken 290,000 prisoners and had passed Minsk: in early August, the Germans crossed the Dnieper River, the last natural barrier west of Moscow, and destroyed a Soviet army at Smolensk, taking another 300,000 prisoners.

By early September, Leningrad, the former city of Petrograd (now known as Saint Petersburg) had been encircled by Army Group North. The Finns, who had participated in the invasion in the far north, also lay siege to Leningrad. Soon a great famine spread through the city, with its only supply route being across the frozen lakes, an extremely hazardous route.

In mid-September, Army Group South captured an incredible 650,000 prisoners in an encirclement to the East of Kiev. By late October, Army Group Center was once again pushing east towards Moscow. On the way, it captured yet more prisoners: this time some 663,000 Red Army soldiers fell into their hands.

In less than four months, the Soviets had lost more than 1.8 million men in prisoners alone: it became a serious logistical problem for the Germans in handling the prisoners: in effect they all of a sudden had to feed and provide shelter for a mass of men two thirds the size of the German army itself.

Such losses had not been sustained by an army before in history, yet the Soviet ability to fight on serves as a striking example of how vast this particular campaign was; and also of the massive reserves the Soviets could call upon.

The Winter Sets In

By late November, two German advance units penetrated right into the suburbs of Moscow: one advance unit came to within eyesight of the onion domes of the Kremlin itself. Then the Russian winter set in with a viciousness which the Germans were not expecting: many were also not equipped for the winter, and the month delay in launching the campaign finally tripped up the Blitzkrieg war.

With victory in Moscow in sight, the German tanks, vehicles and even guns froze: hundreds of soldiers froze to death in the cold snap which halted the advance in its tracks. On 5 December the advance unit commanders reported that they could go no further: they were not equipped to fight under the freezing conditions and they were unable to dig in because the ground itself was frozen.

It was impossible even to bury the dead: not that they needed burying, as they did not decay in the frozen ice. The German commanders reported finally that the conditions and lack of winter equipment for the German troops had caused morale to sink to a low as then unseen amongst the soldiers.

Soviet Counter Attack Succeeds

The Soviets, all well equipped for the harshness of the winter, had brought up reserves from the Far East and exploited the halt in the German advance to press home a counter attack. With their vehicles, equipment and weapons specifically designed to fight in sub-zero temperatures, the fresh Soviet troops devastated the advance German units and the invaders were driven out with great ease.

The retreating Germans left behind their frozen tanks, trucks and weapons, being forced to flee on foot. It was the first major defeat for the Germans of the war. Fighting a desperate rearguard action, the Germans managed to plug the holes in their front line by the end of December: but the immediate threat to Moscow was lifted and the plan to destroy the Soviet Union by the end of 1941 had been wrecked.

Japanese Power

In the Far East, the recently industrialized Japan had gained in confidence since its defeat of the Russians in the 1905 war at Port Arthur on the Chinese coast. Increasingly, Japan saw itself as the regional power - which it was - and in 1936, became embroiled in a war with China over land which saw the Japanese army invade Chinese territorial space. In retaliation, the United States and Britain imposed an oil embargo on Japan in 1936, hoping to starve the mineral poor island nation out of further expansionist moves.

Japan then signed the anti-Communist anti-Comintern pact, indirectly allying itself with Germany and Italy. Despite this, the Japanese remained neutral in the opening phases of the war; even signing a treaty with the Soviet Union guaranteeing that the latter country would never be subject to attack by Japan. This treaty enabled the Soviets to withdraw a large part of their eastern army to the west where they were instrumental in the Soviet victory at Moscow in December 1941.

By 1941, the oil embargo was starting to seriously hurt Japan: as Germany's victory appeared to loom large that year, the Japanese decided that to survive they would need to capture the oil and mineral reserves of South East Asia.

The Japanese realized however that the Americans, who had objected to the Japanese-Chinese War, would never peacefully let Japan seize even more territory. However the Japanese also believed that the Americans would not fight for long and soon leave Asia to itself: in this they made a major miscalculation.

Pearl Harbor

In terms of the Japanese plan, a swift campaign would see their troops take Burma, Malaya, the East Indies, and the Philippines in quick succession: the only thing that stood between them and these possessions was the presence of the US Pacific fleet based at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii.

It was decided to try and cripple the American fleet with a surprise air attack on the morning of 7 December 1941, in order to prevent the Americans from interfering with the Japanese invasions. The American military intelligence records reveal that the US Army intelligence was aware of the Japanese plans, including the attack on Pearl Harbor itself. A warning was in fact sent to the military base, but mysteriously delayed, only arriving after the attack had started.

The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor sank 21 ships, including eight battleships; 188 American aircraft were destroyed on the ground and 2,200 American soldiers and sailors were killed. The attack changed public opinion in America overnight: from a strongly anti-participation in the war sentiment, the American public swung solidly behind Roosevelt who led the US Congress into declaring war on Japan.



The results of the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, December 1941: American ships on fire. 2,200 men were killed in the attack.

Germany Declares War on America

America had, as outlined above, been all but committing active troops to the war against Germany

before Pearl Harbor: now, partly out of an acceptance of the de facto situation and partly out of what was clearly a misplaced loyalty to Japan, Germany then declared war on America on 11 December, an example followed by Italy on the same day.

This was the second great error on Hitler's part (the first being his alliance with Mussolini). By declaring war on America, he gave Roosevelt the excuse to commit troops and the full force of American industrial power to the war in Europe.

Germany Lost the War in 1941

The events of 1941 were catastrophic for Germany, even though in terms of outright military defeats, the retreat before Moscow had been relatively minor. However, America's entry into the war meant that an overwhelming industrial power, whose production and military hardware output Germany could not hope to match, was now formally ranged against the latter country.

In addition to this, the failure to knock the Soviet Union out in 1941 meant that a long war of attrition in the east would continue for years. The Soviet Union, having the greater population and therefore greater reserves, could not do anything but win a war of attrition.

Also, the German field code, previously thought unbreakable (developed by a German engineer using a device which randomly selected numbers off a spinning wheel - dubbed the enigma machine) was cracked by a superb British intelligence unit at Bletchley Park, England, with the aid of a huge analogue computer built specially for the purpose. For the greatest part of the war, all of Hitler's commands were known to the Allied intelligence service, very often even before the German commanders to whom they were sent, had received them.

Germany therefore never stood a realistic chance of winning the war after December 1941, and it was only with a superhuman effort that it continued fighting until 1945.

The War in the Pacific

After the attack on Pearl Harbor, the Japanese quickly advanced through their target territories: by the end of December 1941, they had occupied British Hong Kong, the Gilbert Islands and the islands of Guam Wake. In addition they had made significant advances into British Burma, Malaya, Borneo, and the Philippines.

By February 1942, British Singapore had fallen to the Japanese army, and the next month they occupied the Netherlands East Indies and landed on New Guinea. The main force of American and Philippine armies on the Philippines surrendered in Bataan in April 1942, and the surrender of Corregidor in early May, sealed the fate of that country.

The Japanese then launched a bid to seize Port Moresby on the south eastern part of New Guinea: the Americans, being able to read the Japanese signals, sent a naval unit to attack the invasion force. The resultant May 1942 Battle of the Coral Sea, fought exclusively by aircraft launched from aircraft carriers, saw the first Japanese defeat. The American force overwhelmed their Japanese foes and the invasion of Port Moresby was abandoned.

The Battle of Midway

One month after the Japanese defeat at the Battle of the Coral Sea, an American air and naval attack on a powerful Japanese fleet consisting of nine battleships and four aircraft carriers, saw all four carriers being sunk. Although the Japanese navy had more carriers, this engagement, known as the Battle of Midway, dealt the Japanese a severe blow.

Cut off from the White world's technology, Japan never managed to build a carrier during the war again, placing it at a permanent disadvantage. This isolation of Japan from the White technology centers of Europe and North America would dog Japan in other areas as well: in aircraft design, for example, by 1945, the Japanese airforce was still equipped with virtually the same aircraft with which it had started the war. The main fighter they possessed was the Mitsubishi Zero - while this airplane was approximately the equivalent of the average American fighter in mid 1941, by 1945 it had been hopelessly outclassed by the highly developed American P-51 Mustang fighters, not to mention comparison with the European aircraft: the fabulous Spitfires, Hurricanes and Mosquitoes of the British Royal Air Force, and the Me 262 jet aircraft of the Luftwaffe.

The stagnation of Japanese technology during the war period, when it was cut off from the White technological centers of America and Europe, tells a story all by itself.

Rommel Advances in North Africa

In North Africa, the German expeditionary force had managed to initially drive the British back and had laid siege to the important town of Tobruk. German reinforcements trickled in, and by early December 1941, the British had managed to relieve Tobruk and take the equally important town of Benghazi.

It was only in January 1942, that Rommel managed to draw up enough reserves to counter-attack: a successful drive pushed the British back towards the Egyptian border. In June, Tobruk finally fell to the Germans and Rommel pushed on into Egypt itself, only finally running out of steam before the town of El 'Alamein. Rommel had badly overstretched his supply lines with the extent of the advance: this was to cost him dearly.

New Campaign in the East

As the 1941/1942 Russian winter lifted, the Germans launched a new offensive in the east, hoping once again to knock the Soviets out with a series of dramatic victories. The year started well for the Germans: a battle near Kharkov to the south of Leningrad and an invasion of the Crimea - which saw the city of Sebastopol fall after a tremendous siege - saw another 500,000 Red Army soldiers being taken prisoner.

Then on 28 June - virtually to the day a year after the initial invasion, the second great German offensive in the east was launched. In four weeks, they seized vast areas of land, penetrating hundreds of kilometers past Moscow to the south.

The German force was then split into two: one unit raced south into the Caucasus to take the oil fields

at Grozny and Baku. By August, the invasion of the Caucasus had penetrated 300 kilometers into Soviet territory, and by early September the northernmost unit had reached the outskirts of the city of Stalingrad on the banks of the Volga River.

Once again the Germans seemed poised for total victory: but the sweep south and south east had not seen the massive Soviet surrenders so characteristic of the campaign till then. Soviet losses had been light: all the while German supply lines had been stretched to the point where the sheer distance covered meant that the effective fighting strength of the German Army Groups was nowhere near what they should have been.

By this stage, the Soviet Union had also been receiving vast amounts of American material aid: this, combined with the manpower reserves of the Soviet state - three times that of Germany - meant that the Soviets could launch a devastating counter attack: they chose Stalingrad as the most exposed and easterly part of the German lines to do so.

Guadacanal

In the Pacific, American troops invaded the island of Guadacanal in August 1942, starting a series of "island hops" which would characterize the rest of the American war against Japan. The Japanese fought tenaciously for all the territories they had occupied: it took a series of major naval battles and vicious hand to hand fighting before Guadacanal was cleared of the last Japanese soldiers in February 1943.

El Alamein

In North Africa, the German advance into Egypt was reversed by a brilliantly planned counter attack by the British Eighth Army - which now included South Africans - commanded by general Bernard Montgomery. By 5 November 1942, the Afrika Korps was in retreat out of Egypt.

On 8 November 1942, a combined British and American force then landed in Vichy French held Morocco and Algeria, behind the German supply lines which started in Tunisia. Startled, the Germans rushed reinforcements to Tunisia, simultaneously occupying Vichy France in the process. Fighting desperate rearguard actions on two fronts, Rommel managed to halt both the American and British advances in Algeria, most famously at the February 1943 Battle of Kasserine Pass: but the overwhelming numbers of the Allied forces eventually won the day.

Advancing through Libya from the East and from Algeria in the west, the Afrika Korps was rolled up and surrendered in May 1943: the Germans and Italians lost 275,000 prisoners as a result.

The Soviet Victory of Stalingrad

On the Eastern Front, the German advance to the Volga River and into the Caucasus added a staggering 1100 kilometers to the front line. The sheer length of this advance meant that there were not enough German troops to man the entire front, a serious miscalculation on Hitler's part.

The Germans then put the armies of their poorly trained and equipped allies into the holes in the front

line: these included Rumanian, Italian and Hungarian armies: none of whom had the battle experience or equipment of the German forces which were tied down at the very points of the advance.

On 19 November 1942, while the German forces had reached the banks of the Volga River and had occupied most of the city of Stalingrad itself, a huge Soviet attack smashed through the Rumanian forces positioned to the north and south of the main German army: within three days the Soviets had surrounded Stalingrad and the German invaders.

Efforts to relieve the surrounded army failed and Hitler forbade the army to withdraw, as it might have been able to do at the early stages. This order could have only one consequence: on the last day of January 1943, the German forces in Stalingrad were forced to surrender.

Some 200,000 men were lost as a result. The Italian, Hungarian and Rumanian armies collapsed and the Germans were forced to retreat from the Caucasus to patch up the holes in the front: virtually all the land gained during the 1942 offensive was lost.

Air Raids on German Cities

By 1943, the British and Americans had launched a strategy of trying to demoralize the German civilian population by launching 24 hour round the clock incendiary bombing raids: the British by night and the Americans by day. Civilian targets were therefore specially selected, with huge losses for ordinary Germans: in raids on Hamburg in July 1943, 50,000 civilians were killed in four days.

The Luftwaffe concentrated its forces over the skies of Germany: flying missions as strenuous as anything undertaken by the British during the Battle of Britain, they managed to halt the major daylight attacks by October 1943.

Such serious losses were inflicted on the American bombers that they were grounded until modifications were made to the P-51 Mustang fighter to enable it to escort the American bombing missions: when this happened at the end of 1943, the daylight bombing resumed, with the long range American fighters taking the pressure off the bombers by engaging the Luftwaffe in combat. From then on the Allied bombing campaign of civilian targets in Germany would not cease until the very last days of the war.

The Biggest Single Battle of All Time: Kursk

On the Eastern Front, the Germans launched one final attempt to grasp the initiative against the Soviets. This came with the Battle of Kursk, fought from 5 July to 12 July 1943. This was the largest single land battle ever fought in history: more than a million men and over 5000 tanks engaged one another in a seven day encounter.

The German offensive attempted to surround a Soviet force in Kursk: the Red Army prepared its defenses well, and on the seventh day the German advance had been halted. Hitler then called off the operation because the Americans and British had landed in Sicily, and he needed to transfer divisions to Italy to shore up that new front.

If any Germans had begun to doubt that they could not win the war after Stalingrad, the failure to win the Battle of Kursk must have confirmed it.

Mussolini Dismissed from Office

On 10 July 1943, at the height of the Battle of Kursk, Allied armies invaded Sicily from North Africa. In five weeks, they cleared the island of all Italian and German troops - although the former started to surrender in large numbers, many being unwilling to partake in which was increasingly looking like a German defeat.

The Italian king, Emanuel III, then used his constitutional powers and fired Mussolini from office (the fact that Mussolini could be removed from office in this way belies the often made allegation that he was responsible to no-one) and appointed a new government, which then negotiated a surrender to the Allies on 8 September. Mussolini was placed under arrest and held at a mountain top hotel which had hastily been converted into a prison, while the new Italian government waited for the Allies to tell them what to do with him.

The Invasion of Italy

The Allies had invaded the Italian mainland itself before that country's government surrendered, occupying a large slice of the tip of Italy north of Naples across that peninsula to the Adriatic Sea. The German forces rushed to Italy from the Eastern Front were battle hardened veterans; by the end of the year had halted the Allied advance 100 kilometers south of Rome, at the Liri River and Monte Casino. An Allied landing of 50,000 men behind the German line at Anzio failed to dislodge the Germans who had in the interim also freed Mussolini and had installed him as leader of a new Italian government.

Island Hopping in the Pacific

During May 1943, American troops retook the island of Attu in the Aleutians in a hard-fought, three week battle, while a combined American and New Zealand army took the Solomons islands, landing a major beachhead on Bougainville by November.

Australians and Americans then captured the East coast of New Guinea; and then several island groups were captured in succession. The Gilbert islands were captured in November 1943: however the Japanese resistance got all the more fanatical with the passing of time. Some 3,000 Americans were killed seizing the 291 acre island of Beito in the Gilbert islands. Cape Gloucester, New Britain, was taken in December 1943; the Admiralty Islands and the Marshall islands in February 1944; and by March 1944, Emirau Island had been retaken.

German Retreat

The Red Army followed up its successful defense of Kursk with an August 1943 offensive in the region against the weakened German forces: by the middle of the month, the Red Army attack had been expanded south and the Germans were firmly in retreat.

In mid-September, Hitler ordered the major German army in the south to retreat to the Dnieper River: he had learned from his error at Stalingrad and could not afford to lose another entire army. In the Crimea however, another German army group was surrounded by a renewed Red Army assault south: they were eventually to be devastated and their 150,000 exhausted survivors forced to surrender when that peninsula was completely retaken by the Soviets in May 1944.

Advancing steadily westwards, the Red Army then recaptured Kiev, continuously driving the defeated Germans before them. In January 1944, a Soviet offensive raised the siege of Leningrad and drove Army Group North back to the Narva River-Lake Peipus line, where fanatic resistance by a Waffen-SS (fighting SS) army checked the Soviet advance for over six months.

By April 1944, virtually all of Soviet territory except Byelorussia had been cleared of German troops: in June 1944, a massive Soviet assault took Byelorussia. Outnumbering the German defenders by ten to one, the victory was swift.

By the third week, the Soviets had advanced 300 kilometers, capturing over 57,000 German prisoners. The Red Army stood at the German jump off points of June 1941, ready to turn the tables in a final push into Eastern Europe.

Overlord

In the west, the Americans, had been massing a huge army in Britain, ready to launch an invasion of Western Europe and thereby open a third front to engage the already overstretched Germans. The invasion, code named Operation Overlord, took place on 6 June 1944, with dramatic dawn landings on the beaches of Normandy.

Taken by surprise (the German high command had been expecting the invasion to take place further north on the French coast) the Germans were pushed back: by this time the skies belonged to the Allies and their air superiority had already virtually won the land battles, as the Germans could not move any troops or armor around without attracting immediate attention from hostile aircraft.

The German commander in the west, Rommel, was himself severely wounded in an Allied aircraft attack upon his personal car: he never fully recovered from his wounds before he was forced to commit suicide after being implicated in a plot to kill Hitler in July 1944.

By the end of June, the Allies had managed to land over 850,000 men and 150,000 tanks and other vehicles in Normandy: this, combined with the overwhelming air superiority, made the outcome in the west only a matter of time.

The July Plot

A group of German officers and civilians concluded in July, that getting rid of Hitler offered the last remaining chance to end the war before it swept onto German soil from two directions. On July 20, they tried to kill him by placing a bomb in his headquarters in East Prussia. The bomb exploded, killing and wounding a number of his senior officers but inflicting only minor injuries on Hitler.

Afterwards, the German police hunted down everyone suspected of complicity in the plot and those who were not killed during the suppression of the conspiracy (such as Count Claus von Stauffenberg, the man who planted the bomb) were hanged after spectacular show trials. Millions of still faithful Germans were shocked at the attempt to kill Hitler; he emerged from the assassination attempt more secure in his power than ever before.

France Cleared of Germans

By 25 July, the Allied armies proceeded to break out of the Normandy beachheads they had established. Their overwhelming material superiority was only challenged in part by the limited number of new German super tanks, the Tiger and Panther models. These new weapons were too little, too late; by late August, the Germans had been driven across the Seine.

On 25 August, the Americans, in conjunction with General Charles de Gaulle's Free French and Resistance forces, occupied Paris after the retreating Germans had declared it an open city to prevent it being damaged (the same courtesy had been extended by the French in 1940 - the result was that Paris was virtually completely unharmed during the war).

Southern France Invaded

On 15 August, a combined American and Free French force landed on the southern coast of France east of Marseille. Meeting virtually no resistance, they pushed north along the valley of the Rhone River, making contact with the American troops in the north in mid-September. British troops seized Antwerp in early September and American troops entered German territory for the first time on 11 September 1944.

Germans Stand and Fight

The crossing into German territory served as a bolt to the German army: they turned and fought against the overwhelming odds, halting the Allied advance on the Meuse and lower Rhine rivers and on the German border with France. There the front would stalemate for several months.

In June 1944, the first of the German secret weapons, the V1 flying bomb, had started to fall on England; by September the first intercontinental ballistic missiles, the V2, had started falling on England as well. While there was some measure of defense against the V1 (it could be heard coming and it could be shot down or overturned by specially prepared and lightened British aircraft) there was no defense against the supersonic V2: its engine could only be heard after it had exploded on its target.

By November, the Germans had also deployed their first jet fighter squadrons: the ME 262 made mincemeat of all its opponents, from bombers through to fighters, and was absolutely invincible as nothing the Allies had was fast enough to shoot it down. It was however available in too few numbers to affect the outcome of the war.

The Warsaw Uprising

By July 1944, the Red Army had reached the Baltic coast near Riga and cut off the German Army Group North from the other German forces. Pushing westwards, the Red Army reached the Vistula River deep in Poland at the same time.

The closeness of the Red Army prompted the Polish resistance to launch an uprising in Warsaw against the Germans: this was suppressed after an uneven battle, although it is often claimed that the Red Army could have pushed on and invaded Warsaw if they wanted to. Why this was not done has never been satisfactorily answered. The Soviets argued that they were busy with offensives elsewhere: this was certainly true.

An offensive between the Carpathian Mountains and the Black Sea in August resulted in Rumania's surrender. Bulgaria followed suit in early September and Finland the same month. Soviet troops took the Yugoslavian capital Belgrade in mid-October. By November, the Soviet Army had reached Budapest in Hungary, where fanatical last ditch German and Hungarian resistance held them off for weeks.

Rome Falls

By May 1944, the Allies finally managed to break the German line at the famous Battle of Monte Casino (where a monastery had been reduced to rubble by Allied aircraft, ironically providing an ideal defensive position for the Germans who held off waves of successive attacks for months).

On 23 May, the besieged Allied troops at the Anzio beachhead finally managed to break out as the Germans withdrew: the Allies then entered Rome, an open city since June 4. After taking Ancona and Florence in August, the Allies were stopped by desperate German resistance for three months from overrunning all of Northern Italy.

The Battle of the Philippine Sea

In the Far East, the Allied island hopping continued: one after the other, Japanese strongholds fell, sometimes with horrendous costs to the Allies. Then the June 1944 Battle of the Philippine Sea saw the Japanese technological stagnation dramatically exposed.

On 19 June, in what was called the Marianas Turkey Shoot, advanced American aircraft shot down 219 of the now antiquated 326 Japanese aircraft sent against them. While the air battle was going on, American submarines sank all but one of Japan's remaining aircraft carriers: utterly defeated, the devastated Japanese navy limped back home with just 35 aircraft left. In the entire battle, the Americans lost 26 aircraft. Japanese technological stagnation as a result of being cut off from the White west, was the major cause for the scale of the defeat.

In October 1944, the Japanese were driven out of the Philippines: this saw the Japanese navy fighting its last major battle at the three day engagement known as the Battle for Leyte Gulf. The Japanese lost their last giant battleship in the Leyte Gulf and 25 other important ships: the Americans lost seven ships.

Bombers Over Japan

The American army captured the small but strategically vital islands of Saipan, Tinian and Guam by August 1944. From these islands, American B-29 bombers could reach Japan with ease: the regular bombing of Japan began in November 1944. It was from these island airfields that the decisive act of war against Japan would be launched, one that saved the American army from having to physically invade Japan itself: the atom bomb raids.

The Battle of the Bulge

In the west, the Germans launched one last offensive: taking advantage of bad weather which grounded the Allied airforce, a regrouped armored column attacked through the Ardennes forest on 16 December 1944. Taken by surprise, large numbers of Americans were captured: although a strong American pocket remained at the French town of Bastogne which refused to surrender.

Despite making an 80 kilometer dent in the Allied lines (hence the name of the battle) the German effort was doomed after 23 December, when the bad weather broke and the Allied aircraft took to the skies, decimating the German land forces. The area captured by the Germans in the Battle of the Bulge was only finally retaken by the Allies at the end of January 1945, causing the advance into Germany to be postponed until February of that year.

Crossing the Rhine

To cross into Germany required the seizure of the all important bridges over the Rhine and Ruhr: to this end the Allies developed a plan to seize two bridges in southern Holland: one at Nijmegen and the other at Arnhem. The first objective was reached, but the second was a disaster: the Allied paratroopers landed virtually on top of a Panzer division and were decimated, the survivors eventually escaping in dribs and drabs back to the Allied lines.

This, combined with the German offensive in the Ardennes, put off the final Allied invasion of German territory until 1945.

In February 1945, the first large American army crossed the Ruhr: in early March, American troops captured an intact bridge over the Rhine at Remagen. By the middle of March the Americans had occupied German territory east of the Rhine between Bonn and Koblenz and by the end of the month another American force had landed south of Mainz. The Ruhr industrial valley was encircled by American troops by the beginning of April; while British troops crossed the Weser River, halfway between the Rhine and the Elbe rivers, on 5 April. On 11 April, the Americans reached the Elbe near Magdeburg, only 120 kilometers from Berlin.

The Final Soviet Advance

By February 1945 the Red Army had driven the by now exhausted and shattered German forces to the Oder River, 60 kilometers from Berlin where Hitler had chosen to await the end, despite the existence of a much larger piece of German held territory in the south, centered around the Bavarian Alps.

Germany Crushed

In Italy, a renewed Allied offensive saw the Po River valley falling in April 1945; and on 16 April the Red Army began its drive on Berlin. On 20 April, the Americans captured Nuremberg, and by 24 April the Red Army had completely encircled Berlin, cutting it off from the rest of the shrinking Germany. On 25 April, the Soviet and American troops met up at Torgau on the Elbe River northeast of Leipzig, and Germany was split into two parts. By the end of April, virtually all German resistance in the west had collapsed: but in the east, the Germans fought even harder than before against the approaching Communists, exacting a toll of over 100,000 Soviet casualties in the Battle of Berlin.

Hitler Commits Suicide

When the German held part of Berlin was down to a few blocks in the center of the city, Hitler committed suicide by shooting himself on 30 April 1945. His body, and that of his long time girl friend and in the last day of their lives, his wife, Eva Braun (who had committed suicide by taking cyanide), was then burned to cinders in a shell hole in the garden of the chancellor's office. Fragments of Hitler's skull were found by Soviet troops and were taken back to Moscow, where they are still held to this day in the Russian state archives, along with other personal effects belonging to the Nazi leader.

German Surrender

As his last official act, Hitler nominated the head of the German navy, Admiral Karl Doenitz, as his successor. Faced with a hopeless military situation, Doenitz organized an immediate surrender, which was signed on 7 May 1945. By then, the German forces in Italy had already surrendered, as had those in Holland, north Germany, and Denmark.

The Divine Wind

Japan also faced certain defeat by the time of Germany's surrender. Nonetheless, they refused to even consider giving up. Instead, hundreds of volunteers came forward to pilot the aging and otherwise useless Zero fighters as manned flying bombs to smash them into the approaching American invasion forces. These suicide pilots, known as kamikazes ("Divine Wind") were to inflict serious losses on the American forces before Japan's final surrender: for example, during the fighting for Luzon in the Philippines in January 1945, kamikaze pilots sunk 17 American warships and damaged a further 15.

Burma

At the height of their land invasion of Burma, Japanese troops had penetrated right to the eastern border of India itself. British troops then launched a counter attack: fighting under the most appalling conditions, often struggling with the jungle animals and disease as much as with the Japanese, the British soldiers in Burma slowly but surely fought the Japanese into a retreat. By the time of the end of the war, this "forgotten army" had virtually expelled the Japanese from Burma.

Fighting was often hand to hand: the British soldier's greatest fear was to be taken prisoner by the Japanese, who had a host of cruel tortures and slave labor prisoner of war camps set up: one of the more famous of these built a bridge over the River Kwai, the subject of which later became a book and famous film.

Iwo Jima and Okinawa

The first piece of Japanese territory proper was invaded on 19 February: the tiny barren island of Iwo Jima took three and a half weeks and 6,000 dead Americans before it was captured: the Japanese garrison resisted fanatically.

On 1 April, the second piece of Japanese land, Okinawa, was invaded. The northern part of the island was occupied in two weeks, but the Japanese resisted furiously in the south and were only finally subdued on 21 June. The lessons learned from Iwo Jima and Okinawa were not lost on the American Command: tiny pieces of land were defended literally to the last man, woman and child.

On Iwo Jima, virtually no Japanese soldiers had been taken alive; on Okinawa hundreds of soldiers and civilians had jumped off cliffs rather than surrender. In addition, kamikaze planes had sunk 15 naval vessels and damaged 200 others off Okinawa alone. It had cost thousands of American lives to seize two minuscule pieces of territory: Japanese resistance would only get even more fanatical if the main Japanese islands were invaded.

Hiroshima and Nagasaki

To save American lives, it was decided to attack Japan with the newly developed atom bomb and force it to surrender without a physical invasion. The first bomb was exploded in a test at Alamogordo, New Mexico, on 16 July 1945, and two more bombs were built in quick order. The first was dropped over Hiroshima on 6 August, the other over Nagasaki on 9 August. The effect was devastating: in Hiroshima some 70,000 civilians died, and in Nagasaki, some 39,000 Japanese civilians died.

While these are staggering figures, perspective is put on the use of atomic bomb attacks on Japan by comparing them with the Allied fire bombing of the German city of Dresden. On one single night's bombing of the German city, a week before the war ended, 135,000 German civilians were killed: more than all the Japanese killed in both the atom bombings put together.

The Japanese Surrender

On 8 August, the stunned Japanese government found itself invaded in Manchuria by the Soviet Union: this was however a minor worry compared to the possibility of further atom bomb attacks. On 14 August, Japan announced its surrender. Unlike Germany, the terms of surrender were not unconditional: Japan was allowed to keep its emperor. Japan itself was placed under American occupation, with General Douglas MacArthur being appointed military governor.

The Nuremberg Trials

Once the war was over, the surviving leaders of Germany and Japan were put on trial by the Allies for what was called "War Crimes". While some of the charges were based on wartime atrocities committed by the accused - any atrocities committed by the victors were unsurprisingly ignored - the main defendants at Nuremberg faced the chief charge of "waging aggressive war."

Most of the defendants, who included Luftwaffe head Herman Goering, Foreign Minister Joachim von Ribbentrop, Minister of Production Albert Speer, former Hitler deputy Rudolf Hess (who had been in British captivity since 1941 after flying off to a friend in Britain to try and make peace) and many general staff members, were all found guilty and sentenced to death or long periods of imprisonment.

The trials themselves broke many legal principles, most notably the principle of retrospectiveness: which holds that a person cannot be convicted of a crime if the act in question was not a crime at the time that it was committed.

In other words, if an act is declared illegal from date 10, then any acts similar to that committed before date 10 cannot be classed as crimes because the law declaring it illegal was not in existence at the time.

This was the case with the main charge of "waging aggressive war" - in 1939, there was no legal international precedent or law forbidding the "waging of war": if there was, every nation in the world would have been had up by an international court on this charge, as they all had waged war at some time or another.

The most shocking failure of the Nuremberg trials was however the inclusion of representatives of the Soviet Union on the panel of judges, rather than in the accused box. The Soviet Union had also "waged aggressive war" against Poland, Finland, Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia before it was attacked by Germany. No mention was ever made of the Soviet attacks at the trials, and the inclusion of a Soviet judge on the bench made the entire process a mockery and clearly showed the trials up for what they were: an act of political revenge and nothing else.

Even in many of the atrocity charges there were glaring inconsistencies: the massacre of 11,000 Polish army officers at Katyn, carried out by members of the Soviet military, was pinned on the German door at the trials, with the Katyn massacre specifically included in the charge sheet against lower echelon German defendants.

The Nuremberg trials - and the Tokyo trials in which similar politically motivated charges were trumped up against the Japanese leaders - were a disgrace to the institution of international law.

Racial Implications of the War

The Second World War was yet another catastrophe for Europe with millions of people being killed directly or indirectly in the ultimately pointless conflict.

Direct Military Losses are estimated at the following:

USSR	13,000,000
USA	415,000
Germany	3,500,000
Poland	120,000

Yugoslavia	300,000
Rumania	200,000
France	250,000
British Empire and Commonwealth	452,000
Italy	330,000
Hungary	120,000
Czechoslovakia	10,000

In addition to these military losses, millions of civilians were killed, either in bombings, cross fire or starvation. Estimates of civilian losses by these means are put at:

USSR	5,000,000
Germany	3,740,000
Poland	200,000
Yugoslavia	300,000
Rumania	20,000
France	30,000
British Empire and Commonwealth	60,000
Italy	50,000
Hungary	40,000
Czechoslovakia	10,000

Finally Europe's Jewish population was badly dented by a deliberate Nazi policy of rounding them up and putting them into concentration camps.



German "black propaganda" - a fake 1944 stamp printed in Germany, almost the same as a British stamp then in circulation, only adjusted to replace the British king's head with that of

Joseph Stalin, Soviet leader. The Communist and Star of David emblems were inserted as was the slogan : "This is a Jewish War". The word "Jewsh" was deliberately misspelled to lay emphasis on the words "Jews". The stamps were then circulated into British society through sympathizers in an attempt to spread propaganda.



British "black propaganda" - a parody stamp produced by the British and circulated in Germany, depicting Hitler's head as a death head.

The effect of the Jewish factor was a primary reason for the outbreak of the war and lay behind much of the Allies' double standards when reacting to German and Soviet aggression at the beginning of the war. For this reason it is first necessary to look at the position of the European Jews in some detail before discussing the German state itself: this is done in the following chapter.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Sixty Three

The Shadow of the Ghetto: The Saga of the European Jews

The Second World War was marked by the greatest anti-Jewish outburst in history: so much has been made of the persecution of the Jews under Adolf Hitler, that it has often assumed even greater emphasis than the actual war itself.

Anti-Semitism - or, more accurately, anti-Jewishness - was however, not an invention of Hitler nor of his National Socialist German Workers' Party (two sets of letters of the German translation of this party name, National Sozialist - were combined to make the word Nazi.) Anti-Jewish sentiment has always stalked the Jews, where-ever they went: it seems as if their very presence always elicited a negative and hostile response from virtually all the nations in which they settled.

While conventional histories all maintain that it was the rise of Christianity which started anti-Jewish feeling (the Jews are accused in the Christian bible of being responsible for Jesus Christ's death), this interpretation is factually incorrect. In reality, anti-Jewish sentiment existed long before Christianity, and the introduction of that religion and its distortions merely provided another means of expression for the latent anti-Jewish feeling which always followed the Jews like a shadow.

Origins of Anti-Jewish Sentiment

The origins of this original anti-Jewish feeling lie within the nature of Jewish society itself: exclusively ethno-centric with a binding religion and inward looking culture, the Jews always managed to maintain themselves as an isolated community in all of the nations in which they settled. This tradition has maintained itself to this day.

The nature of the Jewish God, as revealed in the Christian bible (the God is the same one as in the Jewish Talmud, making a mockery of Christian anti-Jewishness) as a God who has chosen a specific people to the exclusion of all others, has already been discussed in the chapter dealing with Christianity: suffice to say here that this cultural phenomena (aptly summed up by the well known rhyme "How odd of God to choose the Jews; It's not so odd, the Jews chose God") served to cement this isolationist feeling.

For this reason, Jews tended to live together in tightly knit communities in cities: these Jewish blocks came to be called ghettos, and it is important to realize that the first ghettos were entirely voluntary Jewish neighborhoods.

This was then re-enforced by religious laws limiting membership of the Jewish community by race - only people born of Jewish women could be accepted as Jews. This is another practice which has survived to the present day - people of no direct Jewish ancestry can only become Jews with great difficulty, and even then a large section of the Jewish community, the orthodox Jews, will not recognize converts as true Jews.

Finally, the well known Jewish propensity for business and the ability to accumulate vast amounts of money - a phenomena well known to this day - was the source of much original anti-Jewish feeling.

Gentiles (or, "Goy" as the Jewish Talmud, or holy book, refers to non-Jews of all races, with the literal translation of cattle - which in itself is an important insight of how the writers of the Talmud viewed the outside world) often objected to these Jewish financial practices, accusing them of money lending with exorbitant interest rates (the crime of usury was specifically invented in Europe to control this practice) and other economic exploitation.

The true origins of anti-Jewish feeling therefore lies in a combination of three major factors:

- the self imposed isolation of the Jewish people;
- the open hostility to Non-Jews as espoused in their ethno-centric and tightly binding religion; and
- the propensity of their financial dealings.

Thus it was that the first anti-Jewish outbursts occurred long before the introduction of Christianity.

Christianity merely added to these emotions: as the wave of Christian fanaticism swept Europe, all sense of reason or rationality was lost, and, forgetting that Christianity itself had sprung from Judaism, the Christians gave vent to their long simmering dislike of the Jews by accusing them of being been the killers of Christ to boot.

Egypt

The first documented anti-Jewish riots broke out in the Egyptian city of Alexandria in 38 AD, recurring again in 66 AD. In 115 - 117 AD, Jews once again came under attack in that city and their synagogue was burned to the ground. In 414 AD, Jews were formally expelled from that city.

Mesopotamia and Persia

In 40 AD, an anti-Jewish riot broke out in the city of Seleucia on the Tigris River, in which a number of Jews were killed. The book of Esther in the Christian Old Testament (and in the Jewish Talmud) deals exclusively with a Persian anti-Jewish movement.

Rome

It was in Imperial Rome that the very first Jewish community in Europe was formally established in 139 BC. It was not long before Roman opinion was aroused against them: they were the subject of frequent attacks in the Roman senate in speeches by amongst others the famous orator Cicero around the year 50 BC.

Many other prominent and famous Romans, such as Seneca, Juvenal and Tacitus all went on record as complaining about the activities of Jews within the Roman Empire. Anti Jewish literature was widespread and one work by the Greek, Apion, was so well known that the Romanised Jewish historian Josephus (who wrote an excellent account of the Jewish uprising of A.D 70 called The

Jewish Wars) wrote a whole book trying to refute Apion's arguments.

The Roman emperor, Tiberius, formally expelled the Jews from Rome in 19 AD but they soon returned, only to be expelled once again in 49 AD.

In 116 AD, the emperor Trajan, ordered all Jews in Mesopotamia to be killed, saying that the Jews were the cause of continual uprisings in that region.

The Great Revolt

After the Romans had been invited to annex Palestine by Jewish leaders in an attempt to quell internal political dissension, Jewish nationalists then launched a long running war against the Roman rulers of Palestine. In 66 AD, a violent insurrection, led by the Zealots, a fanatic Jewish sect, was launched against Roman authority. Emperor Nero sent the Roman general Vespian, to put an end to the conflict. By 70 AD, the revolt was crushed and Jerusalem was razed.

The Roman emperor Hadrian ordered Jerusalem rebuilt as a pagan city, to be called Aelia Capitolina, in honor of Jupiter and himself (Publius Aelius Hadrianus); at the same time he issued an edict banning circumcision, a rabbinical law used to identify true Jews.

Jewish agitation against Roman rule continued: under the leader Simon Bar Kokhba, Jewish nationalists fought a doomed battle with the legions of Rome from 132 to 135 AD. As punishment, the victorious Romans then attempted to obliterate all Jewish presence in the province: the name of the land was changed to Syria Palaestina. Jerusalem was made a pagan city, and the death penalty was decreed for any Jew who entered its gates.

Justinian

One of the most famous emperors of the Eastern Roman Empire, Justinian, (527-565 AD) adopted a comprehensive anti-Jewish policy, barring Jews from the civil service, military posts and any other positions of influence in his government.

Christianity

The coming of Christianity was a double edged sword for the Jews: on the one hand it elevated them into a special place as the "Chosen People" or the "People of the Book" but on the other hand they were made directly responsible for the death of Christ, the crucifixion of God himself.

This Christ killing blame was seized upon by anti-Jewish Christians who tried to reconcile the obviously Jewish origins of their religion with their beliefs: in this way, in what are obvious Christian "additions" to the biblical texts, the Jews are made out to be blamed for Christ's death.

In Matthew 27:24-25, the Roman governor of Palestine, Pontius Pilate, when refusing to have anything to do with the crucifixion of Christ, allegedly says that he is innocent of the "blood of this just person" and the Jews respond to him that "his blood be on us, and our children." The Catholic Church only formally repudiated the charge that all Jews are responsible for the death of Christ and at the

Second Vatican Council held from 1962-1965, although how they reconciled this with the relevant Biblical passage was never explained.

Insertions

As there is no direct evidence to show that Jesus actually existed in the form portrayed in the bible, it became easy for Christian anti-Jewish activists to create ever more outrageous anti-Jewish insertions into the bible: Jesus allegedly says of the Jews that 'You are of your father the devil, the master of lies'; in John 1:47 Jesus allegedly says of a Jew, Nathaneal "behold an Israelite in indeed in whom there is no guile"; and in the book of Revelations, reference is made to the Jewish religion as the "synagogue of Satan".

Needless to say, the Christian churches of today cringe when these blatant anti-Jewish outbursts are pointed out to them.

The hostility was however, reciprocated: the Talmud, which is a collection of rabbinical writings added to the Old Testament, contains many violently anti-Gentile remarks, comparing Non Jews to cattle (the origin of the word "Goy" for gentile); comparing non Jewish women to whores and providing specific instruction on how it is permissible for Jews to cheat non-Jews in business.

Both Christians and Jews then, altered their religious teachings in attempts to whip up hostility to each other in a bizarre semi-religious and semi-racial clash.

Islamic Tolerance

The rise of Islam in the Middle East and its later violent spread along North Africa, Spain and south eastern Europe provided a major respite for the Jews, who entered into an informal partnership with the various Islamic powers.

This time in Jewish history is formally known as the period of Islamic tolerance. While initially beneficial for the Jews, it dramatically increased their unpopularity in Europe, where Jews and Muslims were soon regarded to be one and the same: hence the violent outbursts against Jews which accompanied the Crusades.

In 1215, the Fourth Lateran Council of the Roman Catholic church, called by Pope Innocent III, proclaimed an official policy of restrictions and ordered all Jews to wear distinctive badges.

The Muslim conquest of Spain brought peace to the Spanish Jews, who came to occupy prominent positions as statesmen, physicians, financiers, and scholars. The peaceful Spanish era ended in the middle of the 13th century, when the Muslims were driven out of Spain.

Spain and Portugal

After the decline of the Roman Empire, Jews started settling in larger numbers in Western Europe, with many Serphardic Jews crossing over from Africa into Spain. Hot on their heels came the Muslim Moors, who gave the Jews favored status in Moorish occupied Spain: Jews came to fill the highest

position in the Moorish republic of Granada in Spain and owned one-third of all the real estate in Barcelona.

When the Moorish occupation of Spain was finally ended, the Christian victors did not take kindly to what they correctly saw as Jewish collaboration with the Moors. This led to the Spanish version of the inquisition, which was primarily aimed at Jews who had falsely converted to Christianity in an attempt to escape the revenge attacks on Jews carried out by the victorious Christian armies.

Finally, the Jews were formally expelled from Spain in 1492, the same year that Christopher Columbus set foot in the Americas.

Taking its lead from Spain, Portugal expelled its Jews in 1497. Thousands of Spanish Jews migrated to south eastern Europe, which had by then been seized by the Muslims in the form of the Ottoman Turks: there once again they benefited from the Islamic policy of toleration of Jews.

The Turkish occupied city of Constantinople became the site of the largest Jewish community in Europe during the 16th century.

Bankers

In most European countries, Jews carried on their traditional stereotype activities: in England, Aaron of Lincoln, a Jewish banker, amassed enough money through his business dealings to finance the building of nine monasteries and the Abbey in Lincolnshire, an exceedingly philanthropic gesture towards his Christian neighbors.

The emergence of international Jewish banking houses such as the Frankfurt Jewish House of Rothschilds, became a feature of European economic life, and in a parody of the Spanish Conversos, many Rothschilds converted to Christianity, partly as an attempt to avoid the anti-Jewish charges leveled against them.

Many leading Jews adopted this tactic of converting to Christianity: the British Jew Benjamin Disraeli became British prime minister as a Christian in 1868; while Karl Marx, author of the Communist Manifesto, was the son of a German Jewish rabbi who had converted to Christianity to be able to practice law in Germany at a time when only Christians could take oath before a court.

Austria and Italy

In 1420, all Jews in Austria were compelled by law to convert to Christianity: those who did not became the subject of a pogrom which saw still practicing Jews either killed or driven out of that country.

In 1670, all Jews who had settled in Austria since 1420 were formally expelled once again; in 1498 the Jews were expelled from the city of Salzburg, while in 1475 the Jews in Trent, Rinn and Lienz had been the subject of popular riots.

In 1520, the Jews were expelled from the Tyrol region in the southern Alps.

Vienna's most famous mayor, Karl Lueger (1844 - 1910) dismissed Jews from the city's public service and segregated Jews from the public schools.

In Italy, Jews were expelled from Florence in 1495; from Naples in 1541 and Milan in 1597; and from Hungary in 1367.

England

Jews first entered England in large numbers with the Norman conquest of 1066.

Here the traditional "Blood libel" charge was made against the Jews (a bizarre and patently false allegation which held that Jews drained the blood of young Gentiles for satanic purposes).

As ridiculous as it was, the Blood Libel was however very common: the famous English writer Geoffrey Chaucer (1340-1400) wrote about the occurrence of Jewish ritual murder in his works, making specific mention of one famous case, that of a young Christian boy, Hugh of Lincoln, whose body had allegedly been found mutilated in a way indicative of some type of sacrifice in 1255.

At the time of the Third Crusade (1189-1190) there were serious anti-Jewish riots all over England, centered on, but not limited to, London. Jews in London were put on trial for Ritual Murder accusations in 1238, 1244 and 1276.

In 1290, England formally expelled every last one of its Jews from its borders; most crossing the channel to settle in the Netherlands, Spain or France.

Jews were only allowed back into England in 1655 by Oliver Cromwell, who issued a special dispensation granting them permission to settle.

France

Major anti-Jewish riots broke out across France in 1096 at the time of the First Crusade, as they did across Europe; in the town of Blois, Jews were charged with Ritual Murder and in 1171, and some 31 of their number were burned at the stake after having been found guilty of that crime.

The Fourth Crusade (1235 -1236) saw a particularly violent massacre of a large number of Jews in the province of Brittany; in the city of Carcassonne, Jews were expelled in 1253, in 1306 and 1394 - each time managing to come back.

Following an accusation of a ritual murder in the province of Dauphine, Jews were expelled from that region in 1253, returning in 1289. After 1305, a number of orders expelling Jews from the province of Gascony were made; and all Jews were formally expelled from Brittany in 1391. All Jews were formally expelled from Gascony again in 1394.

As avid supporters of the French Revolution, Jews were rewarded when the National Assembly

enfranchised Jews in 1791, simultaneously stripping all restrictions which had been placed on them.

Napoleon Bonaparte was given much support by Europe's Jews in his campaigns across Europe, for where ever he went he lifted whatever restrictions there had been upon the Jews. Once again, this was only good for Jews over the short term. The downside came when Napoleon was finally beaten: Jews were associated with the destruction that his military adventures had wrought; virtually all of the reforms he had instituted were reversed as a result.

However, by the 1860s, most of the Jewish communities in Western Europe had more or less been de-ghettoized, and Napoleon's reforms had for the greatest part been re-instituted.

Germany

The first major outbreak of anti-Jewish feeling in Germany occurred when Jews were expelled from the city of Mainz in 1012; by 1096, Jews had re-established themselves that city, only to be the subject of a massacre and riot in that year at the time of the First Crusade.

During the Black Death bubonic plague outbreak, Jews were blamed for the epidemic by crazed Christian communities: anti-Jewish riots broke out throughout the states of Germany, with a total of 350 different attacks being recorded.

- In 1221, anti-Jewish riots broke out in Erfurt; and in 1241, virtually the entire Jewish community in Frankfurt was either killed or driven out in a serious anti-Jewish riot.
- In Coblenz, there were anti-Jewish riots in 1265, 1281 and 1287; some 728 Jews were killed during a popular anti-Jewish riot in Nuremberg in 1298; and from 1336 to 1339, a series of attacks on Jews in Alsace, Swabia and Franconia became known as the Armleder attacks.
- Jews were expelled from the town of Breslau in 1349. Jews were expelled from Nuremberg in 1349; Jews were expelled from the city of Rothenburg in 1349; that same year the Jews had managed to re-establish themselves in Frankfurt: only to be attacked once again and driven out.



The Frankfurt Jewish ghetto is attacked in 1614.

- Jews were expelled from the province of Trier in 1418; from the town of Dusseldorf in 1428; from the city of Mainz again and again in 1438, 1462 and 1470; each time returning after a while.
- Jews were expelled from Dresden in 1448 after a large number were found to be behind a coin counterfeiting racket; Jews were expelled from the city of Halberstadt in 1493; By 1499 Jews had managed to re-establish themselves in Nuremberg: in that year they were expelled once again from that city.
- Jews were expelled from the city of Rothenburg for the second time in 1520.
- By 1594, Jews had managed to re-establish themselves in the town of Halberstadt, only to be expelled once again in that year.
- In 1614 Frankfurt once again became the site of serious anti-Jewish riots; in 1796, a major part of the Jewish neighborhood (ghetto) in Frankfurt was razed to the ground in a major anti-Jewish riot.

The creation of the unified German Empire in 1871, saw an end to the organized pogroms which had marked the various individual German states. By this stage however, the heavy Jewish involvement in Communism and international socialism - as personified by the German Jew, Karl Marx, became the focus for anti-Jewish sentiment.

Poland

In 1399, anti-Jewish riots rocked the city of Posen; in 1407, anti-Jewish riots took place in the city of Cracow; and in 1483, Jews were expelled from the city of Warsaw.

In 1491, Jews were expelled from the city of Cracow; a series of anti-Jewish riots took place in the town of Kalisch which lasted in sporadic outbursts for virtually the entire 14th century. In 1656, the entire Jewish community in Kalisch was destroyed by a Polish army under the leadership of one

Czarniecki; the riots became known by that name.

The city of Posen was rocked by further anti-Jewish riots in 1648, 1577 and 1687. Nonetheless, Poland became home to a large number of Jews, many of whom bore the brunt of the Nazi occupation of Poland during the Second World War.

Russia

In 1803, the Russian Archduke Yaroslav the Wise conquered the Khazar people, who had not only converted to Judaism but had absorbed large numbers of Jews who had fled north after the Roman-Jewish war of 70 AD. In 1563, anti-Jewish riots resulted in dozens of deaths at Polotsk and Vitelisk; In 1648, Bogdan Chmielnicki headed a rebellion of Cossack and Ukrainian masses against Jews and Polish landowners. Jewish estimates are that at least 744 Jewish communities were destroyed, and the attacks have come to be known as the Chmielnicki massacres.

In 1667, Jews were expelled from the Ukraine; Jews were expelled from Russia three times, in 1727, 1738 and 1742.

In 1762, Catherine the Great of Russia forbade Jews from living in Russia: still unable to get rid of them, she then in 1791, limited Jews to living in a an area of land to the west of the country known as the Pale of Settlement; up against the Polish border: this was to give rise to the large Polish Jewish population in later years.

Tsar Alexander I expelled 20,000 Jews from the province of Vitebsk and Mohilev in 1824; starting in 1881, a series of anti-Jewish riots spread across Russia and all of Eastern Europe, becoming known as the pogroms.

In 1891, popular anti-Jewish riots took place in Moscow which led to the expulsion of Jews from that city in that year; and in the aftermath of the unsuccessful 1905 revolution in Russia; which had seen heavy Jewish involvement, some 600 villages and cities in that country attacked their Jewish inhabitants: hundreds of thousands fled, either to Western Europe or to the United States of America.

In Russia around 1905, the first issue of a document called the Protocols of the Learned Elders of Zion first appeared, which was subsequently reproduced world wide. This document purports to be the minutes of meeting of Jewish elders planning the conquest of the world through the use of war, money and control of the media.

Despite the Protocols being a very obvious Orthodox Russian Christian fabrication, this document has continued to circulate, achieving huge sales in Japan in the 1980s.

The long standing and deep rooted anti-Jewish feeling amongst Russians, and the Russian ruling class in particular, was one of the major reasons for the heavy Jewish involvement in the Communist Revolution of 1917.

United States of America

In the United States, the first sign of any anti-Jewish feeling came with some off the cuff remarks by one of the founders of that country, Thomas Jefferson, who railed against allowing Jews into America during an early session of the Constitutional Congress. The exact details of what he said were not recorded.

At the time of the American Revolution, about 1780, the Jewish population of the colonies numbered an estimated 2000. By 1880, this had risen to an estimated 250,000. A few Jews became prominent at the time of the American Civil War: on the Confederate side the Secretary of State was Judah Benjamin, who fled to England after the fall of the South. The Rothschild banking house, present in both the North and South through subsidiaries, committed itself to neither, doing business with both sides as pressures of the time dictated.

America had however relatively few Jews until the end of the 19th century: then, large numbers of Jews from Eastern Europe started flooding into that country, fleeing persecution in their home countries.



This cartoon, which appeared in the prestigious American magazine Life of 5 October 1911, reflected a popular concern at the large numbers of Jewish emigrants from Europe into the United States. The "child", America, is being fed Jewish pills by Mother Europe, and complains that the "more I take, the worse I feel". That such a cartoon appeared in a well known mainstream American magazine indicated the level of the public debate on the issue of Jewish immigration into America.

Henry Ford

By the 1920s, the identification of Jews with Communism had been made in the United States. The founder of the Ford car company, Henry Ford, became the leading publisher of anti-Jewish material in the United States, issuing free copies of the Protocols of Zion and a copy of his own newspaper, the Dearborn Independent, to all buyers of his cars.

Ford was a Christian anti-Semite, and possibly the realization of the inherent contradiction this entailed, led him to order the retraction of all his former publications and that an apology be issued towards the Jews in his name in 1940.

Immigration laws

By 1920, some 2.5 million Jews from Eastern Europe had emigrated to America: this flood played no small role in the formulation of the 1921 and 1924 Immigration Acts, which effectively shut off most immigration from those countries with large Jewish populations. Jews then started settling in large numbers in other regions: Canada, South America (notably in Argentina), the Union of South Africa, and Palestine. The American policy of barring Jewish immigration was reversed after the Second World War and millions of European Jews then entered that country, leaving Europe for good.

Jews and Communism

The role of Jews in the Russian Communist revolutions has been discussed in an earlier chapter: the large Jewish involvement in that revolution, combined with the Jewishness of Karl Marx, made easy and believable anti-Jewish propaganda for the Nazis, even when mixed with the crude Protocols of the Learned Elders of Zion.

Directly after the First World War, there were another three specifically Jewish Communist revolutions in Europe itself:

- the German Jew, Kurt Eisner, led a short lived communist revolution in Munich, Bavaria from November 1918 to February 1919 (at the same time that Adolf Hitler was an unknown soldier in that city - the effect of being a first hand witness to a Jewish led Communist led revolution helped to cement Hitler's anti-Communist and anti-Jewish feelings);
- the short lived Spartacus uprising in Berlin (September 1918 to January 1919) led by the German Jews, Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg; and
- the short lived Communist tyranny in Hungary led by the Jew, Bela Kun (Cohen), from March to August 1919.

These incidents all helped to identify Jews with Communism in the public mind: in this light it becomes perfectly explicable why the Nazi Party was able to win support on an anti-Communist and open anti-Jewish platform.

The Nazi Policy of Anti-Jewishness

Conventional history books will always tell their readers that Hitler and the Nazi Party were anti-Jewish: but never try to explain the reason for this sentiment.

Nazi anti-Jewishness was based on three pillars:

- first, Jews were identified with political subversion and Communism in particular. As outlined earlier, this was by no means a Nazi invention, and had been written about in public by Winston Churchill and a host of others including Henry Ford in America;
- secondly the Nazis associated Jews with super capitalism and economic exploitation. This descended directly from the traditional and pre-Christian objections to Jews. Hitlerian anti-Jewishness also accentuated the links between Jewish super capitalists and Communism, personified by the financing of the 1917 Russian Revolution by the American Jewish banker Jacob Schiff; and
- thirdly, the Nazis associated Christianity with Jews, arguing that this religion was the product of Middle Eastern thought and not native Europe. The Nazis did not however dare to attack Christianity openly, rather leaving it alone to wither by itself, something that has to a large degree started to become reality by the end of the 20th century. Nonetheless, if the private comments of Hitler himself on Christianity are read (Hitler's Table Talk, notes by Martin Bormann, Introduction by Hugh Trevor Roper, Oxford University Press, 1960) it can be seen that Hitler clearly identified Christianity with Jews.

Only in this light can an understanding of the motivating factors behind the state that Hitler created be gained: a tradition of anti-Jewishness going back centuries; modern political thought associating Jews with Communism and subversion; the degradation of Germany under the Treaty of Versailles; economic collapse; and the outstanding oratorical ability of Hitler himself; all combined to propel the Nazi Party to power in 1933.

Anti-Zionism and Anti-Jewishness

Zionism - or a movement amongst Jews to create a homeland for Jews based on racial and ethnic grounds in Palestine, had been started in 1897 by Theodor Herschl in Switzerland. By 1948, the Zionists had succeeded in creating the state of Israel in the Middle East: but this caused a new wave of problems all by itself.

The end of the Second World War did not see an end to anti-Jewish agitation: in the Soviet Union, which had ironically been created by a clique of Communist Jews, anti-Jewish feeling rose with the creation of the state of Israel. Many Soviet Communists saw the existence of the state of Israel and Jewish loyalty towards it as a potential fifth column within the Soviet state.

This was so because in terms of a law in Israel called the Law of Return, all Jews qualified for citizenship of Israel as long as they could prove a direct biological - in other words racial - link to Judaism. This law is still in force to the present day.

This created a whole set of inhabitants of every country who automatically had split loyalty: combined

with the Communist ideology's rejection of racial nationalism (a principle upon which Israel was and is still based) saw the Soviet Union ally itself to the anti-Zionist movement in the Arab world, which objected fiercely to the expulsion of millions of Arab Palestinians from Palestine to make way for the state of Israel.

It is a question of propaganda if anti-Zionism is the same as anti-Jewishness: pro-Zionist Jews always dismiss anti-Zionists as being anti-Jewish. This is however another factual inaccuracy: some of the biggest anti-Zionists are religious Jews who object to the state of Israel on the grounds that it contravenes Talmudic instructions to wait for the Jewish messiah before a state can be established.

It is also semantic tomfoolery to call Arabs "anti-Semitic" - they and the Jews all speak Semitic languages and this epithet serves no use whatsoever.

Finally, many Communist Jews were in the forefront of anti-Zionist activism: these Jews held prominent positions in Soviet society until the fall of Communism itself. The anti-Jewish persecutions in the Soviet Union were in fact anti-Zionist actions: only a small number of genuine anti-Jewish activities took place, and none were ever officially sanctioned by the Soviet state.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Sixty Four

The Third Reich

Adolf Hitler is without question the one towering figure over the 20th century - and perhaps even of the 21st, even if measured only in the reaction against him. Because of this fame, or infamy, Hitler and the Third Reich remain one of the most controversial topics of contemporary history.

Yet despite all the intense scrutiny and historical evaluation, Hitler and the Third Reich remain one of the most difficult historical areas with which to come to grips.

The reason for this is that Hitler still has a massive influence on everyday politics and life at the end of the 20th century, and it is difficult to find any source which has an objective view of the state created by the Nazis from 1933 to 1945 in Germany.

In fact, a large amount of what has been written about Hitler and Nazi Germany has been particularly subject to the pressure of political correctness: a good example is the story of 1936 Olympics and the Black American athlete Jesse Owens.

The 1936 Olympics

The story most repeated about Hitler and the 1936 Olympic Games in Berlin, which were unquestionably put on as a political showcase for Nazi Germany, is that Hitler refused to shake the hand of the American Black athlete Jesse Owens after the latter had won a race. This myth is extremely widespread: the Encarta Encyclopedia, issued by Microsoft (1998 edition) states the following in its entry under Jesse Owens:

"Owens, Jesse (1913-80), one of the greatest track-and-field athletes of all time . . . A member of the U.S. track team in the 1936 Olympic Games, held in Berlin, Owens won four gold medals. He won the 100-m dash in 10.3 sec, equaling the Olympic record; set a new Olympic and world record of 20.7 sec in the 200-m dash; and won the running broad jump with a leap of 26 ft 51 in., setting a new Olympic record. He was also a member of the U.S. 400-m relay team that year, which set a new Olympic and world record of 39.8 sec. Despite Owens' outstanding athletic performance, German leader Adolf Hitler refused to acknowledge his Olympic victories because Owens was black. Owens went on to play an active role in youth athletic programs and later established his own public relations firm. His autobiography, The Jesse Owens Story, was published in 1970." "Owens, Jesse," Microsoft«Encarta«98 Encyclopedia. (r) 1993-1997 Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved."

In reality what happened was that Hitler personally attended the first day of the track and field competition on 2 August 1936, and did personally congratulate the German athlete Hans Woellke, who became the first German to win a gold medal in the Olympics since 1896.

Throughout the rest of the day, Hitler continued to receive Olympic champions, German and non German, in his VIP box.

The next day, 3 August, the chairman of the International Olympic Committee, Comte Baillet-Latour, approached Hitler early in the morning and told the German leader that he had violated Olympic protocol by having winners paraded to his box.

Hitler apologized and gave an undertaking that he would from then on refrain from publicly congratulating any winners, German or otherwise. During this day, Owens won his gold medals - and in line with the Olympic Committee's ruling, Hitler did not shake his hand, or anybody else's for that matter, at the games again.

It is therefore utterly false to claim that Hitler deliberately chose to ignore Owens. In fact, in the very autobiography that the Encarta Encyclopedia extract above refers to, The Jesse Owens Story, Owens himself recounted how Hitler had stood up and waved to him:

"When I passed the Chancellor he arose, waved his hand at me, and I waved back at him. I think the writers showed bad taste in criticizing the man of the hour in Germany."

Another common story about the 1936 Olympic games is that Owens' victory "disproved the Nazi master race theory" - in fact the Olympic games as a whole were won by the German team with 89 medals, compared to the 56 medals won by the second placed USA team.

In what was to become an act of extreme irony, the American president of the time, Franklin D. Roosevelt, then involved in an election and concerned about the reaction in the USA's southern states, refused to see Owens at the White House: Owens was later to remark that it was Roosevelt, not Hitler, who snubbed him.

This is a good example of one of the more outstanding distortions which have sprung up around Nazi Germany, all as a result of a political agenda linked to Nazi Anti-Jewishness. It is also true that it is the victors' prerogative to write the historical account of events: this too has served to cloud the issue of the Third Reich and to make it into the political hot potato that it remains over fifty years after it vanished.



The 1936 Berlin Olympics. Because they were the first political Olympic games, there are a huge number of distortions about the event. One of the hidden facts was the large degree of European support for Hitler: here the French Olympic team enter the stadium in Berlin, giving the Nazi salute while marching behind their country's flag.

Democracy Suppressed

A trademark characteristic of Hitler and the Nazi Party - they never made any secret of it - was their abhorrence of democracy. Firmly believing in the leadership principle, where one responsible leader took the responsibility for the major decisions, as soon as the Nazis came to power, they started with a program of entrenching themselves in power to the exclusion of other parties and opposition movements.

This anti-democratic movement extended past the political front: freedom of the press and eventually freedom of speech was also suspended. Although these were reversals of the democratic process, Germany was not alone in this: indeed, even at the end of the 20th century, still only one country on earth - the United States of America - guarantees its citizens total freedom of speech: every single other country on earth has one or another form of restriction on free speech, most notably in the area of race relations, where all European countries have made it a criminal offense to discuss racially related topics which are openly debated in America.

Hitler Elected to Office

It was thus ironic that Hitler came to power by being voted into office, and not through a coup (although he tried that early in his career in 1923; he failed and served nine months in prison as a result).

In the election of March 1933, the Nazi party received the single largest share of the vote, giving them 44 per cent of the seats in the German parliament. This in itself was not an outright majority, but when the smaller nationalist and right wing parties were added to the Nazi total, Hitler in effect had 52% of the popular vote behind him. These smaller parties were to later of their own free will merge with the Nazi Party.

Fifty two percent of the popular vote is a total that most modern politicians would regard as an overwhelming majority: most Western European governments come to power with far less, usually around 30 to 40 per cent of the vote.

Once in power, the Nazis then combined their mastery of propaganda with an extended program of political and social reform. Within three years, this had persuaded the vast majority of Germans to vote for Hitler. Upon taking office in 1933, Hitler made a

public speech asking the Germans for four years in office, after which he would hold a referendum to test the popularity of his government. This referendum was duly held with the simple question "Do you approve of the National Socialist Government or not" being printed on the ballot papers.

The result even surprised Hitler: a staggering 44,461,278 "yes" votes, or 98.8 per cent of the qualified voter total of 45,453,691 was recorded. "No" votes amounted to a paltry 540,211 total. (Baynes, *Hitler's Speeches, 1922-1939*, Vol. 2 Royal Institute of International Affairs, London).

Even taking into account that some people might have been too frightened to express opposition, this still indicates a level of support which would be unobtainable by any politician in any modern democracy.



Adolf Hitler, a Nordic racial type with slight Alpine ancestry.

The Waffen SS

Hitler was not only popular in Germany: many Europeans of other nationalities openly supported the Nazi ideology and volunteered, either as workers or as military servicemen and women, to actively assist the German war effort.

The most striking example of this popularity came with the emergence of the first pan-European army, the Waffen-SS. The SS, or Schutzstaffel (defense echelons), had started as a small bodyguard unit for Hitler's personal protection: it grew into the ideological army of the Nazi Party, eventually forming a state within the state, with its own officers and infrastructure.

The SS developed three distinct branches: the Gestapo, or political police; the Hitler bodyguard unit; and eventually their own army, called the Waffen-SS ("fighting SS").

The Waffen SS became, ironically enough, the best known SS division, even though it was the last to be created, and often the Waffen SS is confused with the Gestapo, who administered the concentration camps and were completely separate to the Waffen-SS.

The Waffen-SS was an entirely voluntary, ideological army. Because of its voluntary nature, it developed a unique spirit amongst its members. In the ordinary German army, the Wehrmacht, soldiers were under strict orders to keep their trunks containing their personal possessions locked at all times to prevent theft. In the Waffen-SS all personal trunks were open at all times by order: no Waffen-SS man was expected to steal from another Waffen-SS man. This rule was easily enforced after one famous incident: two Waffen-SS men were caught stealing from a fellow soldier's trunk: they were both shot, buried without gravestones and the entire regiment then marched over their graves. There was never again a single incident of theft in the whole Waffen-SS.

The Waffen-SS was also the foremost indicator of the popularity of Nazism beyond the borders of Germany: it is a little known fact that of the one million men who served in the Waffen-SS during the course of the war, 60 per cent - 600,000 men - were volunteers from countries outside of Germany. Ethnic Germans were in fact a minority of the Waffen-SS, a fact often forgotten.

Non-German volunteers came from the Netherlands, Belgium, Finland, France, Denmark, Norway, Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, the Ukraine, Byelorussia, Spain, Italy, Hungary, Yugoslavia and even a very small group of British volunteers, known as the Legion of St. George.

The foreign Waffen-SS units were all deployed on the Eastern Front for two reasons: firstly they had specifically volunteered to fight Communism; and secondly so that they would never be asked to fight fellow countrymen in their native countries. All but a few thousand of the 20,000 French Waffen-SS volunteers, organized into a division called Legion Charlemagne, were killed in the Battle of Berlin in 1945.



French Waffen-SS volunteers of the Legion Charlemagne in Smolensk, Soviet Union, on the Eastern Front. Note the French flag arm flash.

Finally, thousands of Russians volunteered for service with the German army: in 1944, they were organized into a separate unit under a former Soviet Army general, Vlassov, who had been taken prisoner by the Germans very early in the war. Vlassov and his Russian army fought bitterly until the end, and when all was lost he and thousands of his soldiers fled into the West to surrender to the Americans and British rather than face capture by the Soviets. His hope was misplaced: in an operation codenamed Keelhaul, Vlassov and around 20,000 of his soldiers were then handed over to the Soviets by the Western allies: unsurprisingly, they were never heard of again.

Internal Policies

Hitler's personal popularity remained very high for almost the entire duration of the war, and serves as the single most important reason why Germans fought to the bitter end without large scale mutiny, as had happened in the First World War. This was astonishing in itself: but even more amazing when it is considered that the Nazi state became ever more authoritarian in nature.

It was not long before the Communist Party had been outlawed: Germany quickly became a one party state and all other parties were eventually outlawed. Germans were given the right to vote every now and then in referendums on set issues only: in each and every case they returned over 98 per cent endorsements for whatever the government had done.

Literature and art deemed to be undesirable was placed on a banned index: this automatically included any works by Jews, but also many Non-Jews. The famous book burning incident occurred only once: after that, books deemed undesirable were simply not printed in Germany any more.

Economic Reforms

On all fronts, the German state was revolutionized: with one of the most significant being with the economy. When Hitler came to

power in 1933, 30 per cent of the working population was unemployed: by 1938, Germany had a labor shortage.

In this economic recovery, Hitler hit upon something which helped to arouse the everlasting hatred of the international banking community: instead of basing Germany's recovery on enormous loans from foreign and local banks, Hitler based the German economy onto a barter system, by which he could get much of what he needed by exchanging German surplus for the surplus of other countries - in common language, by swapping.

The next radical change Hitler brought about was to take the right to print money away from private banking institutions - which he viewed as Jewish - and restored the sole right to print money to the German state itself (it is interesting to compare the contemporary systems in both Britain and America, where consortiums of private bankers - the Federal Reserve in America and the Bank of England - print the money and then "sell" it to the governments, incurring the massive national debts of these countries).

Freed of the peculiar and complicated system of instant national debt through the issuance of their own money, the German economy took off like a rocket. Hitler also abandoned the Gold Standard as a means of weighting the Reichsmark: money in Hitler's Germany was not based on gold but on the capacity of the German people to produce goods.

Hitler said in 1937:

"We were not foolish enough to try to make a currency coverage of gold of which we had none, but for every mark that was issued we required the equivalent of a mark's worth of work done or goods produced. . . .we laugh at the time our national financiers held the view that the value of a currency is regulated by the gold and securities lying in the vaults of a state bank." (CC Veith, Citadels of Chaos, Meador, 1949.)

Workers' Rights

Labor Unions were dissolved and reformed under the authority of the state controlled Labor Front. The right of workers to strike and of management to lock workers out were both forbidden, and the state actively intervened in labor disputes. The unemployment problem was tackled by the creation of great building projects, most notably Hitler's pet project, the Autobahns.

The standard of living increased dramatically, with workers for the first time being able to travel abroad in state sponsored holidays through the "Strength through Joy" program.

Children were obligated to serve in the Hitler Youth or its female equivalent as a form of national service: the meetings of these youth organizations were timed to be on Sundays at exactly the times that the main churches held their services. Soon the pews began to empty of young people who preferred to go camping or playing sport rather than sitting in church.

Nazi Atomic Science

Another common myth about Nazi Germany is that the country was not able to build an atomic bomb of its own because it rejected the "Jewish science" of Albert Einstein and other Jewish scientists.

This has however been proven to be untrue with the 1999 release of previously top secret files on Nazi Germany's race to build an atomic bomb. Among the materials now available to the general public in the Munich state museum, are research notes by famous German physicists who took part in the program, such as Werner Heisenberg and Otto Hahn, as well as notebooks, photos and correspondence between scientists and Nazi authorities.

The documents show that German research into the atomic bomb was parallel with efforts in the United States, but that the Third Reich lacked materials to build one only because of the Allied bombing campaign.

A November 1945 report by two U.S. investigators, six months after the German defeat in World War II, says ``only the lack of plutonium" kept Adolf Hitler from building an atomic bomb. (Nazi Atom Bomb Files To Be Opened, Associated Press, January 1999).

If the Allied bombing campaign had been any less severe, there can be no doubt that Nazi Germany would have been able to build an atomic bomb as well - which may well have changed the course of the war.

Racial Laws

In addition to the political reforms which proved to be so popular, (even the undemocratic ones), the Nazi government also

implemented a number of far reaching racial laws. These laws covered a huge number of areas: from eugenics (the basis of which had been laid in America, not Germany, as outlined in an earlier chapter); prohibition of mixed marriages between Germans, Jews and Nonwhites; to anti-smoking laws.

Sterilization Law

On 14 July 1934, the German government passed the law for the Prevention of Genetically Diseased Offspring, also known as the Sterilization Law. In terms of this law an individual could be sterilized if, in the opinion of specially established courts, that person suffered from any genetic diseases, identified as feeble-mindedness, schizophrenia, insanity, genetic epilepsy, Huntington's chorea, genetic blindness or deafness, or severe alcoholism (interestingly enough, it was only in the early 1990's that American scientists "rediscovered" the genetic link to alcoholism).

This law, for which Nazi Germany became infamous, was however by no means the first such law: in 1928, the Swiss canton of Waadt had passed a law in terms of which the mentally ill could be sterilized; in 1929, Denmark had passed similar sterilization legislation; Norway passed sterilization laws in 1934; followed by Sweden in 1935; Finland (1935); Estonia (1936) and Iceland (1938). Other states that passed sterilization laws included Mexico, Cuba, Latvia, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Lithuania, Latvia, and Hungary.

In 1907, the American state of Indiana had passed a sterilization law; by 1930, a further 28 American states and one Canadian province had followed suit, resulting in the sterilization of some 15,000 persons before 1930. By 1939, more than 30,000 people in 29 American states had been sterilized. (Racial Hygiene, Medicine under the Nazis, Robert N. Proctor, Harvard University Press, 1988).



"We do not stand alone" - Nazi propaganda justifying the 1933 sterilization law, shows a German couple surrounded by the flags of nations which already had identical laws. Neues Volk, 1936.

Nazi Eugenics

The German eugenicist movement was directed primarily against Germans, not Jews. German medical research held that degenerate Whites posed a major threat to German society because of their propensity to greater reproductive levels: in this view, the Nazis were certainly not alone. In 1930, the women's supplement to the Social Democratic Party's newspaper, Vorwärts, criticized the 1929 Danish sterilization law for not allowing the compulsory sterilization of "inferiors."

In 1931, even the German Communist Party expressed itself in support of sterilization of psychiatric patients under certain conditions. (Racial Hygiene, Medicine under the Nazis, Robert N. Proctor, Harvard University Press, 1988).

As a result of the German Sterilization law, somewhere between 350,000 and 400,000 people had been sterilized in that country by the end of the war in 1945 - none of them Jews and with the only Nonwhites being 500 children born of sexual relationships between German women and Black French soldiers who had been used to occupy the Rhineland area after World War One.



Nazi eugenics was primarily concerned with German Whites, not other races. The word "Untermensch" (or sub-man) was actually used to refer to degenerate Whites, not other races. In this illustration from the 1937 publication *Volk in Gefahr* (A People in Danger), the problem of criminal Whites is addressed so:

"The Threat of the Underman. It looks like this: Male criminals had an average of 4.9 children, criminal marriage, 4.4 children, parents of slow learners, 3.5 children, a German family 2.2 children, and a marriage from the educated circles, 1.9 children."

Mother's Cross

Imitating ancient Greek and Roman attempts to encourage population growth, the German government rewarded those families with large numbers of children: a special Mother's Cross was struck, given in bronze to German women who had four children, silver for six children and gold for eight. Hundreds of thousands of these medals were given out before the war ended. Financial payments and tax concessions were also offered for large numbers of children.

A combination of these incentives, the abolition of abortions (except in cases of the mentally ill) and the expansion of the borders of Germany eventually caused an increase (over and above what would have been the case had Hitler not come to power) in the number of children born in Germany during the Third Reich era of just over three million.

The Nuremberg Laws

In September 1935, the German government passed the Reich Citizenship Law which effectively limited citizenship of Germany to only those of "German and related blood who through their behavior make it evident that they are willing and able faithfully to serve the German people and nation." Jews and other non Germans were reclassified as aliens and denied German citizenship.

The Blood Protection Law, proclaimed on the same day, forbade all sexual relations between Germans and non Germans, based on citizenship. This effectively forbade marriages between Germans, Jews and Nonwhites alike.

To address the issue of already existing marriages and children, the law defined a Jew as a person who had two (out of the four) Jewish grandparents - less than that and the person was classed as a German, and allowed to marry other Germans - a Nazi concession to the fact that many European Jews were to all practical purposes European in racial make-up.

In fact, the Blood Protection Law specifically forbade such "one quarter Jews" from marrying other "one quarter Jews" - this was done to promote the further dissolution of Jewish genes, conversely to prevent the strengthening of any Jewish gene pool in Germany which might result from such unions.

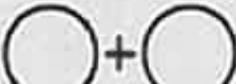
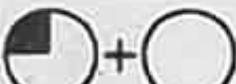
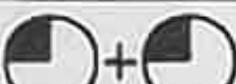
Contrary to propaganda surrounding the Third Reich, many of these one quarter Jews served the new German government faithfully, serving in all areas of the Reich's administration, including in the armed forces, without persecution of any sort.

Übersichtstafel, betreffend die Zulässigkeit der Eheschließungen zwischen Ariern und Nichtariern.

R.Bü.G. = Reichsbürgergesetz.

G.Sch.d.Bl. = Gesetz zum Schutze des deutschen Blutes und der deutschen Ehre.

AVO. = Ausführungsverordnung.

Lfd. Nr.	Beeachtigte Ehepartner	Zulässigkeit der Ehe	Lfd. Nr.	Beeachtigte Ehepartner	Zulässigkeit der Ehe
		 (bedeutet Staatsangehöriger deutschen oder artverwandten Blutes)			 von 2 jüdischen Großeltern abstammender jüdischer Mischling
		 von 1 jüdischen Großeltern abstammender jüdischer Mischling (§ 2 d. 1. VO. R. Bü. G.)			 von 3 oder 4 jüdischen Großeltern abstammender Jude (§ 3 d. 1. VO. R. Bü. G.)
Gruppe I:			Gruppe III:		
1		zulässig	9		wie bei Nr. 3
2		zulässig	10		wie bei Nr. 7
3		a) zulässig mit besonderer Genehmigung, § 3 AVO. G. Sch. d. Bl.	11		zulässig (in AVO. G. Sch. d. Bl. nicht erörtert).
		b) verboten in den Sonderfällen a bis d; § 5 (2) d. 1. VO. R. Bü. G.	12		zulässig, aber der jüdische Mischling wird Jude n. § 5 (2) b d. 1. VO. R. Bü. G.
4		verboten § 1 G. Sch. d. Bl.			
Gruppe II:			Gruppe IV:		
5		wie bei Nr. 2	13		wie bei Nr. 4
6		soll nicht geschlossen werden; § 4 AVO. G. Sch. d. Bl.	14		wie bei Nr. 8
7		a) zulässig mit besonderer Genehmigung, § 3 AVO. G. Sch. d. Bl.	15		wie bei Nr. 12

		§ 4 AVO. G. Sch. d. Bl.			wie bei Nr. 6
7		a) zulässig mit besonderer Genehmigung. § 3 AVO. G. Sch. d. Bl.	15		wie bei Nr. 12
		b) verboten in den Sonderfällen a bis d. § 5 (2) d. 1. VO. R. B. u. G.	16		zulässig
B		verboten § 2 AVO. G. Sch. d. Bl.			

The Nuremberg laws had strict genetic rules as to who was a Jew and who was not: a person was only classified as Jewish if they had more than two Jewish grandparents. This chart, issued by the Reich Health Office in 1936, is an overview or "admissibility of marriage between Aryans and non-Aryans." The white circles represent "pure Germans", the circles with black indicate the proportion of Jewish blood. Allowable (zulässig) was a marriage between full Aryan and a one-quarter Jew; not allowed (verboten) was a marriage between a one quarter Jew and a three quarters Jew - an interesting example of how the laws actually sought to dissipate the Jews into Germany.

The third and last racial law passed by the German government was the Law for the Protection of the Genetic Health of the German People, promulgated in October 1935. This law required couples wishing to marry to submit themselves to a medical examination before marrying to see if any genetically undesirable traits might be passed on to children born of such a union: the law forbade marriage between individuals suffering from venereal disease, feeble mindedness, epilepsy, or any of the diseases encompassed in the Sterilization Law. Those who were classed as bearing such genetically undesirable traits, were only allowed to marry if they agreed to be sterilized, so that no children would be born of the marriage.

Euthanasia

In 1938, a German father by the name of Knauer wrote to Hitler asking that his child, born blind, retarded and with one arm and one leg, be granted a mercy death, or euthanasia. The case so moved Hitler that he ordered his personal physician to establish if the claims were true, and if so, that the child be granted euthanasia. This Knauer case was to be the start of a legal euthanasia program, the first in Western civilization since the times of the Spartans and early Romans, who had also engaged in mercy killings of severely retarded and deformed children.

In all, some 5,000 retarded and deformed children were granted euthanasia by the German government before the end of the war - with each case being individually reviewed by a specially appointed committee. The policy of administering euthanasia to retarded and deformed children was then also extended to incurably insane adults. Thanks to the German habit of keeping meticulous records, the exact number of incurably insane adults granted euthanasia is known: 70,273.

Although the adult euthanasia project was conducted in secret, it was impossible to conceal such things from the German public, and by 1941, news of the mercy killings had been leaked. Growing public pressure on the Nazi government forced the abandonment of the program in that year.

Medical Advances

An overview of Nazi medical advances makes interesting reading for the modern health conscious person: Nazi scientists were amongst the first in the world to warn of the dangers of radiation; asbestos, lead, cadmium and mercury (all of which have only re-emerged in the health field many years after the end of the Second World War, when much German medical research was dismissed as Nazi hallucinations).

In addition to this, German medical journals of the 1930s and 1940s were the first in the world to warn against the ill effects of artificial food colorants and preservatives in food and drinks, and stressed the need for a return to "organic" or natural ingredients in pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, fertilizers and foods.

Vivisection Outlawed

The very first law passed by the Nazi controlled parliament of the territory of East Prussia in 1933, under the premiership of Herman Goering, was the abolition of vivisection, or experimentation on animals.

This law also included a ban on the Jewish ritual whereby meat is made kosher: the ritual includes the slitting of an animal's throat and letting it bleed to death while a rabbi prays over the dying animal: this was rejected by the Nazis as a barbaric way of slaughtering animals which inflicted unnecessary pain. Eventually the anti-vivisection law was extended throughout Germany.

Nazi Germany also forbid the use of the pesticide DDT on the grounds that it was a health hazard (it would be decades before this policy was adopted by other countries) and instead used a German produced version known as Cyclone-B.

Hitler Backed Anti-Smoking Drive

Nazi Germany was also the first country in the world to actively launch anti-smoking campaigns: in July 1939, the Bureau against the Dangers of Alcohol and Tobacco was founded, with the Reich Health Office sponsoring cash prizes for research into the effects of nicotine upon human chromosomes. In June 1942, the Institute For The Struggle Against Tobacco was founded at the University of Jena in Saxony, funded personally by Hitler who gave 100,000 Reichmarks of his own personal money to the project. By 1944, Germany had also become the first country in the world to ban smoking on public transport.

Alcohol

In 1937, the Nazis enacted laws prohibiting the sale of alcohol to minors and enacted stiff penalties for drunken-driving, introducing the first blood tests for automobile drivers suspected of being under the influence while behind the steering wheel.

As part of the state's efforts to control drinking, the SS undertook the promotion of mineral water. The SS's business interests in mineral water extended to the point where by 1945 it controlled 75 per cent of all Germany's mineral water production.

1933: Jewish Declaration of War on Germany

The very first declaration of war which led up the Second World War was in fact made on 23 March 1933, when a meeting of Jewish leaders from around the world formally and publicly declared war on the Hitler government, which at that stage was only two months old and had passed none of its racial laws.

The Jewish declaration of war was carried publicly by a large number of newspapers, including the Daily Express in London, which ran a bold full page headline "Judea Declares War on Germany" on its edition of 24 March 1933. Calling on all "Jews of the world to unite" the meeting of Jewish leaders resolved to launch a series of mass demonstrations and also to institute a worldwide boycott of German goods, presumably through their international business connections.



On 24 March 1933, newspapers across the world carried the news that the leaders of the world's Jews had declared war on Germany: the first declaration of war of the Second World War, and an event which goes a long way to explaining why Britain and France declared war on Germany in 1939 for invading Poland, but not on the Soviet Union for doing exactly the same thing. The Second World War broke against Germany, not the Soviet Union, primarily because of Jewish pressure to destroy the anti-Jewish Germany; rather than a genuine concern for the Poles.

Unwittingly, this public declaration of war on Germany only served to inflame anti-Jewish feeling in Germany: the German government barred Jews from holding public office or "positions of influence" which were defined as university lecturing posts, journalists or newspaper editors, amongst others.

This declaration of war also provided the legal basis upon which Germany would later justify its internment of large numbers of Jews inside Germany: America had after all, interned its Japanese, as had Canada, and Britain had interned all its Italians. If Jews had declared themselves at war with Germany, the Nazis argued, then it would not be unreasonable to treat them as a hostile group and intern them as well. Despite this, not all Jews were interned, even right through the war.

So it was that when the Soviet Army occupied Berlin in 1945, a fully functioning Jewish community a few thousand strong, complete with synagogue, was still in existence in the German capital.

The Concentration Camps

Nazi Germany is however most known for its concentration camps, and particularly those in which large numbers of emaciated and dead prisoners were discovered at the end of the war, and which have become synonymous with any image of that era. The first concentration camps were set up soon after the Nazis came to power, with the best known being Dachau, which is situated to the north of Munich.

These camps were in fact large prisons, and the prisoners were sentenced by civil courts to fixed terms of imprisonment which depended upon the crime committed. These crimes could be overtly political - membership or activism in the banned Communist Party was common - but was also extended to all other crimes, including conventional criminal activities such as theft or robbery. Eventually homosexuals were also interned: although this would only occur quite a while later.

It was in fact a former Communist, who had been sentenced to imprisonment in the Dachau concentration camp for several months, and then released, who planted a bomb at the Munich beer cellar in November 1939. The bomb very nearly killed Hitler (he left early: if he had kept to the program for the speech that night, he would most certainly have been killed). The fact that the perpetrator was a former camp inmate, released after the war had started, is however the point: it showed that sentencing to the concentration camps was not necessarily a permanent condition and that it was not Jews alone who were sent to the camps.

That imprisonment at the camps was not necessarily permanent, has been proven beyond question by the uncovering in the Moscow State archives by the British Historian David Irving of a release note for a prisoner from Auschwitz itself in 1944 - supposedly at the height of that camp's gas chamber operations!

Kommandantur
Arbeitsverbleibungs-lager Birkenau

Birkenau, den 8. 6. 1944

Entlassungsschein

Der KZ-Arbeiter Jan geb. am 30. Jahre 1917
in Polen war in der Zeit
vom 3.5.1944 bis 8.6.1944 in einem Arbeitsverbleibungs-lager
untergebracht.
Die Entlassung erfolgte am 8.6.1944

Auflage:
Sie haben sich sofort beim
Arbeitsverbleibungs-lager
beim Arbeitsverbleibungs-lager
zu melden. (15. Verfg. Stapo Saptowitz O/B
zwecks Neuvermittlung)

Der Lagerkommandant:
(S O B U S)
H-Unterturmführer



A copy of a prisoner's release note from the Auschwitz-Birkenau camp, dated 1944. The release note, discovered in the Moscow State Archives, gives the prisoner's name and date of release - 8 June 1944. The belief that imprisonment at Auschwitz meant gassing is belied by the release of prisoners from this camp and by the fact that many thousands of

inmates did in fact survive.

It was however so that a large number of Communists who were interned were Jews: however, by the time that the Second World War broke out in September 1939, the majority of Germany's Jews - some 319,900 out of a total population of 500,000 - had emigrated from Germany for good, leaving only some 180,000 Jews in Germany itself. (Racial Hygiene, Medicine Under the Nazis, Robert N. Proctor, Harvard University press, 1988). As the existence of the Jewish community in Berlin in 1945 showed, not even all of these had been interned during the war.



Conditions in the Nazi camps worsened during the war, particularly when the large scale bombing of Germany started destroying supply lines in late 1944 and early 1945. Nightmarish scenes such as these awaited Allied troops when they seized the camp of Bergen Belsen in northern Germany. These corpses were not killed by gas chambers: they all show the unmistakable signs of having died of typhus, with the characteristic thinness being caused by the dehydration which accompanies that sickness. Although it was initially claimed that there were gas chambers in all the camps, it is now claimed that the only gas chamber victims were in the camps in German occupied Poland.

Nazi-Zionist Alliance

The outbreak of the Second World War did not initially see an increase in the number of concentration camps, although their number had been steadily growing since 1933. However, the closing of the borders following the declaration of war meant that the steady flow of Jews out of German territory was cut off. Soon the German victories in Poland and in the West had added significantly to the total number of Jews under German territorial control.

Initially the Nazi plan with its Jews was open ended: vague projects had been started, all varying from proposing the resettlement of Jews in Rhodesia, Madagascar or Palestine. In this way one of the more remarkable alliances of the war was struck up between Reinhard Heydrich, the SS general who would later be assassinated in Prague, and German Jewish Zionists.

Heydrich, in co-operation with the Zionists, actually set up farms in Czechoslovakia for Jews wishing to emigrate to Palestine, to learn basic agricultural skills: several hundred of these Nazi trained Jewish farmers were then settled in Palestine during the war, entering that land through Turkey.

However, all these plans were impractical while the war continued to rage: eventually a conference of top Nazi leaders was called in January 1942 at a villa in the suburb of Wannsee outside Berlin. Here the leadership of the Reich would decide what to do with the Jews under German control.

The Wannsee Conference

Although much has been made of the Wannsee conference and its detailed minutes, the record of the proceedings does not make particularly gripping reading: nowhere is it said that Jews were to be put to death, and only talks about interning Jews and resettling them in the protectorate of Poland to be used as laborers until the war was over, when another plan could be worked out.

Contemporary historians have taken the word "resettlement" as used in the Wannsee minutes to be a codeword for extermination - there is however no evidence to support this interpretation.

The Einsatzgruppen

In the interim, Germany had invaded the Soviet Union and had conquered huge areas of that country. The SS, entrusted with the political mission of the Nazi Party, formed what were called Einsatzgruppen - "Special Action Groups" to go in behind the German front-line with the specific instructions to execute, by shooting, all Communist functionaries, partisans or other "politically unreliable" elements behind the front-line.

The Einsatzgruppen carried out their task with Germanic efficiency, sending back regular reports to Berlin (which survived the war) detailing in specific detail how many people they had killed in each time period between reports. Due to the fact that a large number of Communist functionaries were Jews, this group made up a large number, but not always a majority, of the people eliminated by the Einsatzgruppen, who were always careful to specify exactly how many of who they had killed in each particular operation.

The battle with Communist partisans was sometimes particularly fierce: more than one Einsatzgruppen commander was killed in combat. Eventually at least 200,000 people were killed by the Einsatzgruppen before their efforts were abandoned in the wake of the German retreat from the occupied areas.

The Concentration Camps in Poland

In the part of Poland set up as German protectorate, called the Government General, six new concentration camps were built, with the first starting to function in late 1942, and the last being closed by August 1944.

The six camps became known by the towns to which they were nearest situated: Chelmno (also known as Kulmhof), Belzec, Sobibor, Treblinka, Majdanek (also known as Lublin), and Auschwitz.

The Wannsee conference had specifically stated that the camps were to be used as forced labor units - and indeed Auschwitz was one of the biggest industrial sites in all of Poland. Situated next to the concentration camp was a number of huge industrial complexes, all relying on concentration camp forced labor: these included Agfa, Bayer Pharmaceuticals and Siemens factories, as well as the famous Buna rubber plant, which produced much of Germany's supplies of rubber, and also which innovated the oil from coal process.

The new camps in Poland also differed substantially from the old camps in Germany itself in another way: the vast majority of prisoners were Jews who had been interned and deported from Germany and occupied Europe with trial. In this way the Polish Jewish doctor, Ludwik Flek was deported to Auschwitz where the SS put him to work in a laboratory manufacturing vaccines: Flek survived the war despite his incarceration in Auschwitz (Racial Hygiene, Medicine Under the Nazis, Robert N. Proctor, Harvard University Press. p. 283).

The Six Million

Despite the presence of massive industrial operations and the short time that the camps were in existence (less than two years all told) it is traditionally claimed that some six million Jews were killed in gas chambers at these six camps in Poland. (The other concentration camps in Germany itself, such as Dachau or Bergen Belsen, did not, it is claimed, have gas chambers).

The figure of six million was arrived at on the basis of two sources: first on the evidence of a former SS officer, Wilhelm Hottl, who before the Nuremberg War Crimes Trials stated that Adolf Eichman, head of the Jewish Division of the Gestapo, had told him that 4 million Jews had died in concentration camps and 2 million had died "elsewhere". (Trial of the Major War Criminals before the International Military Tribunal, Nuremberg, Germany, Vol. XXI, Doc, 2738-PS, p. 85).

The other source for this is a statement taken from the former commandant of the Auschwitz camp, Rudolf Hoess, who in a written statement declared that four million Jews had been killed at Auschwitz alone. Hoess was hanged at Auschwitz by the Soviets immediately after making this statement.

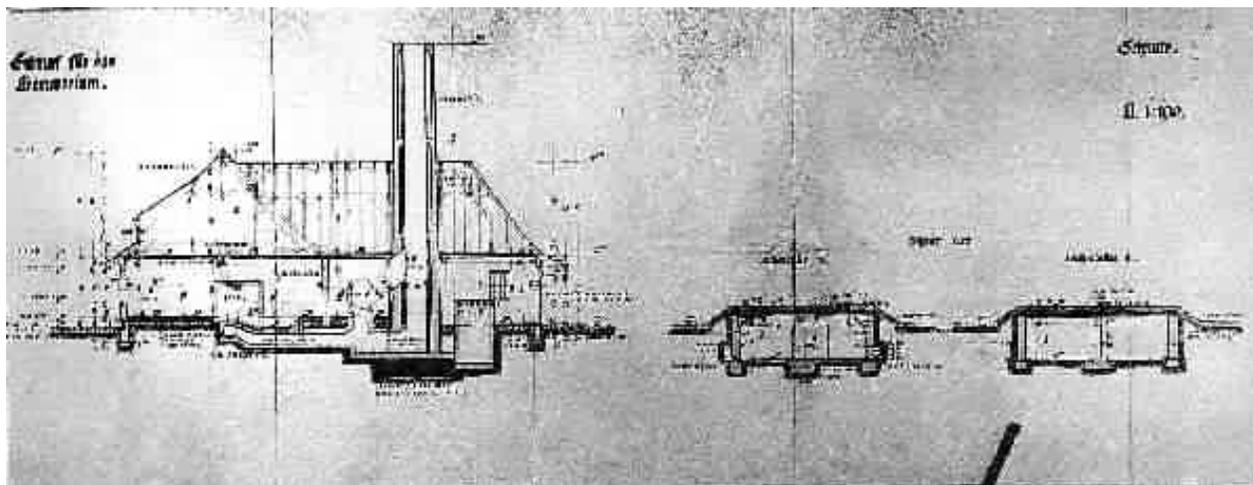
This figure is however universally acknowledged as being too high, especially as Hoess was relieved of his command of Auschwitz in 1943, long before the camp was closed down, and as such would not have been able to tell with any certainty how many Jews passed through its gates by August 1944.

There is therefore considerable confusion over the exact number of Jewish deaths in the six camps. The complete lack of German documentation on the issue has not helped: unlike the Einsatzgruppen, where meticulous record was kept of all killings carried out, the Germans kept no records of any mass murders in any of the camps.

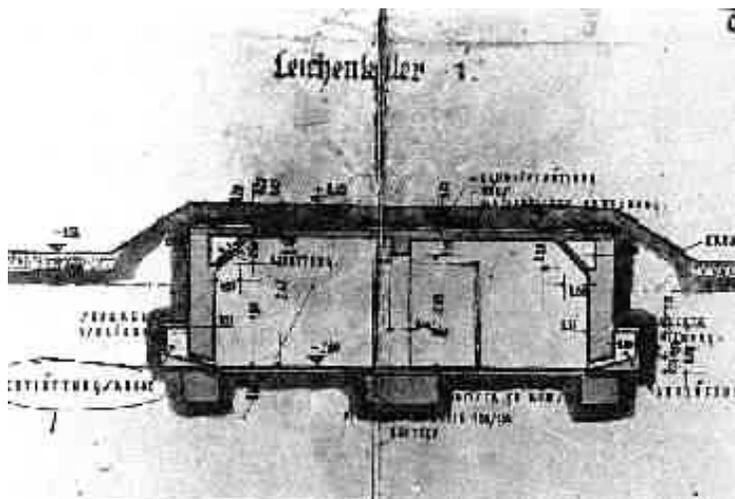
Although documentation for every other aspect of Auschwitz survived, including such petty details as how much dog food was purchased for the guard dog detachment, no documents have been found relating to gas chambers.

Even the original German architectural building plans for Auschwitz have survived, and are on display at the camp to this day. There are no gas chambers on these original plans - and given the specialist construction which would be required to build chambers capable of killing thousands of people at a time (as is claimed) it seems extremely unlikely that the plans in question would not have shown these structures.

It is claimed that the rooms marked as mortuaries (in German, "leichenkellers") on the building plans were used as gas chambers - a claim which is highly dubious, given the technical demands which an airtight chamber being used for mass gassings, would require.



The original German architectural building plans for a crematorium at Auschwitz, on public display at the camp today. According to this original plan, there is no gas chamber. It is claimed that the underground structures, marked very clearly as mortuaries ("leichenkellers") were used as gas chambers - something which would technically be almost impossible. A detail of the plan above appears below, showing the mortuary in question.



It is therefore worth noting that there is absolutely no technical physical evidence to support the claim that gas chambers, designed for the killing of people, existed at any German concentration camp. This is particularly so with regard to the oft claimed story of gas chambers disguised as showers.

What did exist were small delousing chambers - tiny air tight rooms - no larger than large cupboards - in which clothes were regularly deloused with the Zyklon-B chemical. These delousing chambers were used in all the Nazi camps - including those in Germany itself, with the result that Zyklon-B was distributed to all camps, in Poland and in Germany alike.

There is however no evidence to show that these tiny delousing chambers were used to kill anybody, never mind six million Jews. Surviving bills of lading for Zyklon-B, which are available for public inspection at the National Archives in the United States, show

very clearly that Zyklon-B was shipped to all camps, and not just to the alleged gas chamber camps. The bills of lading in the US National Archives run from 16 February to 31 May 1944 and reveal that the cases of cyanide crystals (Zyklon) are numbered in sequence (Nos. 50,053 to 50,210), each shipment consisted of thirteen cases, totaling 195 kg; and identical shipments -- six each -- went to Auschwitz and Oranienburg concentration camps. It has never been claimed that there was a homicidal gas chamber at Oranienburg camp, which is situated in Germany itself.

It is clear that Zyklon-B was being used as a delousing agent at Oranienburg, and no-one has ever claimed the contrary.

It should be borne in mind that although there is no direct physical evidence to support the charge that six million Jews were gassed in the camps, this does not mean that the camps themselves did not exist, nor that Jews were rounded up and deported, nor that many died through illness, starvation or conventional judicial executions.

Jewish Scholars Make Lower Estimates

At the end of the war it was claimed that the Dachau and Bergen-Belsen camps in Germany (from where the horrific pictures of scores of dead bodies emanated) had operating gas chambers; and that in camps in Poland, Jews had been killed in "steam chambers" or had been skinned to make lamp shades, gloves and their body fat made into soap.

All of these horror stories have in the subsequent years been refuted by all serious scholars, including the leading Jewish scholar on the issue, Raul Hilberg (who in 1998 was a Professor of Political Science at the University of Vermont, and author of the world famous book "The Destruction of the European Jews"). According to Hilberg, as quoted in an article written by himself in the 1998 Microsoft Encarta Encyclopedia under the heading Holocaust, the six camps, their means of killing and their total number of victims was as follows:

"Chelmno had gas vans, and its death toll was 150,000; Belzec had carbon monoxide gas chambers in which 600,000 Jews were killed; Sobibor's gas chambers accounted for 250,000 dead; Treblinka's for 700,000 to 800,000; At Majdanek, some 50,000 were gassed or shot; and in Auschwitz, the Jewish dead totaled more than 1 million." ("Holocaust," Microsoft "Encarta" 98 Encyclopedia. 1993-1997 Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved.)

This only accounts for 2.8 million dead: (as the other camps did not have gas chambers); if Hilberg's figures are correct, then the number of six million dead drops, by Jewish estimates, by half to just over 3 million, if the verified Einsatzgruppen victims are included.

Hilberg offers no explanation for the fact that the Nuremberg trials (both Hottl and Hoess) claimed figures twice as large (or in Auschwitz's case, four times as large); more disturbingly, no attempt is ever made to correct the still quoted figure of six million which is so popular with the media to this day, and which has been repeated so often that it is an article of faith for many.

Hilberg, who has spent 36 years studying the Holocaust and the subsequent Nuremberg trials, has himself often changed his estimates: in 1985, he told a Canadian court that that five million Jews were killed during the war - substantially up on his 1998 estimate of 2.8 million. (Scientific evidence of Holocaust missing, The Sault Star Sault Ste. Marie, Ontario, January 18, 1985).

Revisionist Historians and Forensic Investigation

It is this casual juggling with millions of numbers (the figures vary as widely as the sources consulted) and the total lack of any direct physical evidence to support the allegations of mass gassings, which has encouraged the rise of what is known as revisionist holocaust studies.

Increasingly large numbers of historians around the world are researching the whole issue of the Nazi concentration camps, some going to great lengths such as taking forensic samples from the remains of the Auschwitz camp and elsewhere - and which have shown that the remains of the mortuaries which are on show as the "gas chambers" at that camp in particular, do not show any traces of Zyklon-B, as would have been the case if they had been used for mass gassings (The Leuchter Report, by Fred Leuchter, Focal Point Publications, London, 1989. Fred Leuchter is an acknowledged American expert who designed and built many of the American judicial gas chambers and execution methods, and whose work is widely available on the Internet).

In February 1988, Leuchter traveled to Auschwitz, Poland, and assessed the likelihood that the building-remains there could have functioned as homicidal gas chambers. He took forty samples of the fabric of those structures, for forensic and chemical analysis by reputable American laboratories. These laboratories found no significant residues of hydrogen-cyanide compounds except in one structure, which was commonly agreed to have been the building in which the slave laborers' clothing was fumigated with Zyklon-B. Here there were massive quantities of the poison residue still impregnating the brickwork. (ibid).

Independent Forensic Research Confirms Leuchter Report

The British historian, David Irving, is the world's best selling writer and researcher on World War Two: in March 1991 he announced that he had "improperly obtained" a copy of a Polish forensic laboratory report commissioned secretly in February 1990 by Franciszek Piper, the new non-Communist director of the Auschwitz museum and archives.

This independent Polish government Polish investigation, which the Auschwitz museum authorities have yet to release, although it is dated 24 September 1990, shows that while there are substantial concentrations (between 9 and 147 micrograms per 100g) of cyanide residues in ten samples taken from the walls of the rooms and chambers where cyanide gas was used for disinfecting the slave-laborers' clothing, there are none whatever in ten samples taken from rooms identified in countless war crimes trials as the lethal gas chambers also using this Zyklon B (hydrogen cyanide) gas, apart from a "vanishingly small" trace in one column in Birkenau, compatible with routine disinfectant operations. Forensic tests on human hair samples were also negative. (David Irving, Focal Point Publications, <http://www.fpp.co.uk/docs/ReadersLetters/Times210391.html>)

Raul Hilberg has also testified in a Canadian court that "no scientific reports prove Jews were exterminated in Nazi gas chambers" (Scientific evidence of Holocaust missing, The Sault Star Sault Ste. Marie, Ontario, January 18, 1985). Testifying in the trial of a holocaust revisionist activist, Hilberg added that ". . . German war documents contain no mention of killing Jews . . ." and "there are no autopsy reports indicating a single person died from exposure to poisonous gas in chambers." (ibid).

Gas Chamber on Show at Auschwitz is a Reconstruction, say Modern Camp Administrators

The work of revisionist historians has also forced the present day administrators of the Auschwitz camp in Poland to confess that the gas chamber which is show to visitors is a "reconstruction" built after the war and is not the original building. This stunning confession is however not widely broadcast, and in 1998, visitors to the camp were still not being told of the deception.

The fact that the Auschwitz "gas chamber" on show today is a reconstruction has been confirmed by the mainstream French magazine, L'Express, when its writer Eric Conan visited Auschwitz in January 1995. According to L'Express, the gas chamber shown to tourists was built in 1948, three years after the end of the war, by the Polish communists. The Auschwitz staff now admits this. As Conan wrote in L'Express "Tout y est faux"--Everything in it is fake. " (Eric Conan: AUSCHWITZ: La mémoire du mal, L'Express, Paris, Paris, 19 janvier 1995)

Eye Witness Accounts Collapse Under Judicial Scrutiny

Due to the lack of physical scientific evidence, much of the stories about gas chambers have been built up on eye witness accounts. Under inspection, these eye witness accounts also proven to be unreliable.

One of the most famous such eye witnesses is one Rudolf Vrba, who in 1985 was an assistant professor at the Canadian University of British Columbia. Vrba's testimony has formed the basis of most, if not all, descriptions of the gas chambers of Auschwitz, as he was interned at that camp during the war.

However, in 1985, during a trial of a holocaust revisionist in Toronto, Vrba testified that his book, I Cannot Forgive, which contained all his eyewitness accounts was "an artistic picture" and that he himself had in fact never witnessed any gassings. (Book 'An Artistic Picture' : Survivor never saw actual gassing deaths, Toronto Star, January 24, 1985)

Pushed to the point, Vrba admitted that he never witnessed anybody being gassed to death and his book about Auschwitz-Birkenau is only "an artistic picture...not a document for a court." (ibid). Vrba told the trial that his written and pictorial descriptions of the Auschwitz crematoria and gas chambers are based on "what I heard it might look like." He said his 1944 drawings of the "Auschwitz camp layout were inexact." Vrba, who escaped the camp in Poland in 1944, insisted however he had made an accurate ("within 10%") estimates of 1,765,000 mass-murder victims up to that point.

While there is not here the space to analyze every single eye witness account, the point has been made. If the chief eye witness himself admits that his own eyewitness accounts are untrue, then, this, combined with the lack of physical evidence, makes a very strong case for completely revising the Nazi death camp story in its totality.

In many countries the revisionists and their work has been banned and the authors subjected to imprisonment or fines: in scenes reminiscent of the Nazi, Communist or early Christian suppression of free speech, it has become illegal to even investigate the issue in most Western European countries. This is an indication of the sensitivity of the matter even more than fifty years after the event.

Jewish Persecution

All the debate aside, no-one would question that the Jews, like everyone else in the Second World War, suffered great misfortune and were in particular subjected to unprecedented persecution and harassment on racial grounds.

International Jewry had however publicly and openly declared war on Nazi Germany, and the Nazis therefore regarded Jews as a hostile combatant group of special significance.

Jews were prohibited in many German towns completely and barred from many professions, including operating mail order businesses; from offering services at public markets; from taking orders from goods; or from holding "leadership" positions in German factories.

In 1938, they were forbidden from changing their names to "German sounding" ones: and later in that same year they were all compelled to add Sarah or Israel as a middle name to their original names (depending upon their sex) so as to distinguish them further. German Jews were prevented from attending public theaters and film shows in 1939: places were denied to them at universities and other places of learning; special taxes were imposed upon them and crude anti-Jewish propaganda was taught and encouraged at lower school level amongst school children. Finally, in November 1938, Jews were barred from attending German schools.

Then there was always the constant possibility of physical attack: the most serious widespread example of this came in 1938, after a Jew in Paris assassinated a German diplomat in that city: the following night Nazi stormtroopers attacked Jews, synagogues and Jewish owned shops all over Germany, killing dozens of Jews and leaving so much broken glass in the streets that the event became known as the Kristalnacht - the Night of Crystals.

The German government was however reactive to public opinion. This was vividly illustrated when in 1943 a public demonstration by around 1,000 German women in central Berlin when their Jewish husbands and teenage sons had been arrested and were about to be deported to labor camps. Bowing to the display of public pressure, the German government released all 1,200 interned Jews and half-Jews: they were never subjected to any form of harassment again (Reuters, 09/09/98, Berlin honors 1943 protest against Holocaust). In September 1998, a plaque was erected in Berlin on the square where the protest took place.

All things said, to have been a Jew in Nazi Germany could not have been a pleasant experience: but, as the over seven million individual claims against the post war German state from Jews who suffered as a result of this persecution, (by 1998 the German state had paid out over \$50 billion in reparations), certainly far fewer of them died than what is most often claimed. Increasingly however, all the evidence urges a complete revision of this aspect of the history of World War Two.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Sixty Five

The White Master Goes Home: The Collapse of Colonialism

At the end of the Second World War, the White countries in Europe were physically and psychologically weakened: the balance of power passed firmly to the United States on the one hand and the Soviet Union the other. These factors, combined with a resurgence in Nonwhite nationalisms in the colonies, led directly to the post war wave of decolonization.

British Decolonization

As the holder of the largest number of colonies, Britain had the hardest task of all the White nations to try and get rid of its possessions in the most dignified manner possible. This was not always possible, particularly in the light of the emergence of many violent Nonwhite liberation movements after the Second World War: more often than not, funded or supplied by the Soviet Union which saw the decolonization process as a way of striking at the capitalist West whilst at the same time creating firm allies in the Third World.

Nonetheless, the first step had to be taken: the Labour Party government in Britain which had replaced Winston Churchill's government at the first election after the war, formally acknowledged that the era of the Empire was over. It then started the post war decolonization drive by granting independence to India and Pakistan in 1947 and to Burma and Ceylon (Sri Lanka) in 1948.

Palestine

In 1948, after a protracted guerrilla war waged by Jewish nationalists in Palestine - which saw many British soldiers killed during several notable terrorist incidents, including the blowing up the King David Hotel in Jerusalem and several massacres of Arabs (the most famous being at Deir Yassin, carried out by the Stern Gang, a branch of the Jewish nationalist guerrillas known collectively as the Igrun, led by one Menachem Begin, later a prime minister of Israel) Britain finally made good its 1917 Balfour Declaration promise and granted independence to Palestine, letting the United Nations divided it up between Arabs and Jews.

This displacement of large numbers of Palestinian Arabs has been the single greatest cause of conflict in the Middle East since then, sparking of a number of full scale wars and a long running Arab-Palestinian conflict which regularly flares up into open warfare.

In 1956, growing nationalism in Egypt saw that country seize the Suez canal from the British: a combined French and British invasion of the Suez Canal region coincided with an Arab-Israeli war - although the mission ended in failure after the Soviet Union threatened intervention.

Mau Mau and the Congo

So it was that in the 1950's, extreme anti-White terrorist movements sprang up in numerous colonies in Africa, the most prominent being in Kenya (where the Mau-Mau terrorists created a reign of terror, attacking White settlements and their livestock) and in the Congo, where the atrocities committed against White settlements reached their most extreme. It was in the Congo that hundreds of Whites were killed by Black uprisings, many being mutilated in the most brutal fashion, with Christian missionaries most often being the targets of attack.

Egypt, Sudan and Cyprus

In 1952, the last of British puppet kings of Egypt was overthrown in a coup organized by Egyptian army officers, and in that year the country was declared a republic. This was followed two years later by the British granting the Sudan independence. In 1960, Britain gave formal independence to Cyprus: this state would last until 1974, when it would become a battleground between Turkey and Greece, and eventually be divided between those two nations.

Winds of Change in Africa

Anti-White riots took place in Accra, the Gold Coast, in February 1948: the British granted it independence under the name Ghana in 1957: Guinea followed in 1958 and in 1960 alone 17 African states were granted independence. By the end of the 1970s, almost all of Africa was independent. These countries included Nigeria (1960), Sierra Leone (1961), Tanganyika (1961, later Tanzania), Uganda (1962), Kenya (1963), Zambia (1964), Malawi (1964), The Gambia (1965), Botswana (1966), and Swaziland (1968).

Only in Southern Rhodesia, was a hiccup experienced when White settlers refused to accept Black rule and declared their independence, holding out as a pariah state for 17 years before finally conceding to Black majority rule.

West Indies

The islands of Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago became independent in 1962, with most of the other islands in the region following suit at intervals.

Portuguese Decolonization

Portugal held on to its African colonies the longest, ending up fighting a vicious war with the locals in both Angola and Mozambique. However, a change of government in Portugal itself in 1974 saw the Portuguese dump their colonies overnight: the very opposite of the dignified British departures, not that it made much difference to the state of the respective colonies. In addition to Angola and Mozambique, the other two remaining Portuguese possessions which became independent in 1974, were Cape Verde and Guinea-Bissau.

Spanish Decolonization

In 1976, Spain gave up the territory known as Spanish Sahara, which then was divided between Mauritania and Morocco.

Dutch Decolonization

The Dutch colony of Surinam, situated in South America, became a self governing part of the Netherlands in 1954, and was granted full independence in 1975. The first years of independence were marked by a mass exodus of 40,000 Surinamese legally leaving their country and settling in the Netherlands: they were followed by possibly an equal number of illegal immigrants, and the flow has not stopped as Surinam continued to decline into Third World anarchy.

French Decolonization

In 1956, France granted independence to Morocco and Tunisia, while in French sub-Saharan Africa, an effort had been made to stave off nationalist movements by granting the inhabitants of the black colonies full status as citizens and by allowing deputies and senators from each territory to sit in the French National Assembly.

These concessions - which all had racial implications for France as they led to a large influx of Black Africans - were however for the greatest part insufficient to satisfy the demands for full independence. France relinquished the Comoro Islands in 1975, and Djibouti was granted independence in 1977.

The French withdrawal from Algeria

Nearly a million White French people had settled in the colony of Algeria by the late 1950s: they had however been forced to fight a long running war against Algerian Nonwhite nationalists for control of the country. The French leader of the time, Charles de Gaulle, then set in motion a policy of granting independence to all French colonies, including Algeria with its large White population.

The resentment of the White colonists at being left to the mercies of the Algerians, who had committed many frightful atrocities against the White French settlers - boiled over into the resistance movement known as the Organisation d'Armee Secrete (OAS, or Secret Army Organization) which comprised mainly French soldiers who had fought the Algerians. The OAS launched a campaign of violence against the French government figures who were instrumental in the process of granting Algeria independence. The OAS also tried at least once to kill De Gaulle as well, but the organization fell apart after most of the leaders were captured or killed.

Protest Shootings

A protest by thousands of White French settlers in Algiers on 7 April 1962, ended when French Arab troops opened fire with live ammunition: some 50 White men, women and children were killed in the street. After this massacre, the handover process was quickly concluded: the Nonwhite Algerian nationalists managed to kill another 3,000 French White settlers before the vast majority - nearly a million - left for France, stripping the country virtually overnight of its First World population and plunging it instantly into Third World status.



The massacre of White French civilians on the streets of Algiers by Arab soldiers on 7 April 1962. Fifty Whites were gunned down during a protest rally.

Haunt

Algeria has however come back to haunt France: millions of North Africans have settled in France, bringing with them a mix of militant Islam and ethnic conflict which spills over from Algeria in ever increasing waves. The full implications of this and other developments are discussed in the last chapter of this book.

Vietnam

France's colonies in Asia were obliterated by the Japanese occupation of French Indo-China during the Second World War. When France bucked the decolonization trend and tried to re-establish its mastery over Vietnam, a war with the natives broke out. The French fought the Vietnamese in a major regionalised race war from 1946 to 1954, but were then dealt a severe defeat by the Vietnamese leader Ho Chi Min at the Battle of Dien Bien Phu. The French then withdrew, leaving the Americans to become entangled in a hot war with Communist backed guerrillas which would turn into the Vietnam War.

Consequences of Decolonization

For all the White countries which engaged in decolonization, the most immediate consequence has been the influx of a large number of former colonized peoples into the former colonizers' homelands: all across Europe there are millions of Africans and Asians who have been drawn to the continent purely because of the ex-colonial link. The full consequences of this are discussed in the last chapter of this book.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Sixty Six

Social Upheaval

The forty five years following the end of the Second World War were dominated by three issues: the decolonization process; the development of the concept of Civil Rights, which saw the last of the formal segregation measures between Black and White, mainly in America, come tumbling down; and the hostility between the "West" and the "East" - also known as the Cold War, or conflict between Communism and the West.

In all of these developments, race was to play a critical factor: the decolonization process has already been dealt with; in the Cold War conflict the Soviets and the West fought each other through Nonwhite surrogates in the Third World; and the Civil Rights movement in America produced some of the greatest racial clashes in America's history, essentially without solving the issues at hand.

The Emergence of Racial National Politics in America

Although it is often claimed that there are no racial patterns discernible in American politics, in fact there have been very clear racial divides since the presidency of Franklin Roosevelt : in the mid 1930s, the majority of Blacks voted for the Democratic Party for the first time, and have maintained that loyalty to the greater degree.

Right to the end of the 20th century, the majority of Blacks have tended to vote for the Democratic Party, which along with the growing Mexican (called Hispanic) vote, has become the chosen party of Nonwhite Americans, as opposed to the Republicans who have to increasingly rely more and more on shrinking numbers of White voters.

The first time that the black bloc vote played a significant role in helping to elect an American president occurred as early as 1948, when Harry Truman was elected to the office through a combination of the bloc Black vote and a minority of White votes. Truman had gained the support of Blacks by issuing an executive order that eventually desegregated the armed forces and by supporting a pro-civil rights policy for the Democratic Party over strong opposition from Southerners. The next president, Dwight G. Eisenhower, completed the desegregation of the government and armed forces, but refused to take it any further than that.

NAACP

Blacks, led by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP - despite its name, the NAACP was ironically led by Arthur Spingarn, a Jewish lawyer, who became the focus for much anti-Semitic propaganda from the American right wing) turned to the courts.

One of the earliest NAACP legal victories was the 1944 outlawing of the all White Democratic Party primary, an institution which had existed since the post reconstruction period in America. In May 1954, the NAACP won a ruling from the US Supreme Court, known as the case of Brown v. Board of

Education of Topeka, in terms of which racial segregation was outlawed in all American public schools.

This decision reversed the principle of "separate but equal" that had been the basis of black-white relations since the Plessy v. Ferguson decision of 1896. Subsequent decisions in 1955 and 1956, compelled local governments to publicly announce plans for desegregation and also ended racial segregation in intrastate transportation.

Integration at Gunpoint

Whites in the Southern states bitterly opposed the moves to desegregate schools. In September 1957, the governor of Arkansas, Orval E. Faubus, ordered the state's National Guard to prevent nine black students from attending Central High School in Little Rock.

On 23 September, following a number of racial clashes between Blacks and Whites in the town, Eisenhower dispatched federal troops to force White students to attend the school, frog-marching the protesting Whites at gunpoint with bayonets drawn, into the classrooms.



Racial integration at gun point: White pupils are forced at gun point with bayonets drawn to attend the racially integrated high school at Little Rock, Arkansas, USA, September 1957.

Public Transport

By December 1955, a series of public protests led by the Black Christian priest Martin Luther King, had succeeded in forcing the desegregation of public transport in the South, most notably in Montgomery, Alabama, where a sit-in in a bus terminal created such chaos that the state government was forced to back down on its segregationist policies.

The Northern States and Bussing

Although the northern states of America did not have as extensive a network of segregationist laws as the southern states, the reality was that the races lived in separate neighborhoods for the greatest part and thus also had segregated schools and facilities.

Where intentional segregation existed in the north, as in the city of Boston, the federal courts ordered redrawing of neighborhood school district lines, starting the practice of "bussing" - where children of different races were transported, sometimes 80 kilometers - 50 miles or more - across huge distances to force them to attend schools attended predominantly by other races. This bussing system caused a great many racial clashes and violence.

Very little point was achieved by sending 100 White children into a school of 2000 Black children, or vice versa, apart from increasing racial tensions fairly dramatically. The practice of bussing then spread all over America, soon becoming a major national political issue which was debated right up to presidential level.

Kennedy and Civil Rights

The 1960 election of John F. Kennedy as Democratic Party president of America - again with overwhelming Black voter support - saw a new surge in measures designed to strike down the last of the segregationist measures in America.

Miscegenation Laws Repealed

The long established American laws forbidding intermarriage between Whites and Blacks were also then challenged in courts and repealed: between 1942 and 1967, 14 states repealed their anti-miscegenation laws. In the case known as Loving v. Virginia (1967), the US Supreme Court struck down laws banning interracial marriage and by 1968, all forms of de jure segregation had been declared unconstitutional.

University Race Riots

A major racial incident occurred in 1962, when a Black student attempted to register at the University of Mississippi: a protest by White students was met with a counter demonstration by Blacks and soon a full scale race riot erupted, in which two people were killed and 375 wounded. The Mississippi National Guard had to be called in to patrol the university campus President Kennedy also sent federal troops onto the campus of the university of Alabama to enforce integration at gunpoint there as well.

Kennedy was on the point of preparing a comprehensive law to enforce Black rights when he was assassinated in Dallas, Texas in 1963. His successor, vice president Lyndon B. Johnson, immediately announced that he would proceed with all due haste to enact the legislation that Kennedy had started: the result was a July 1963 law, which prohibited discrimination in the use of federal funds and in public accommodations; at the same time an "Equal Employment Opportunity Commission" was set up to ensure that Whites employed equal numbers of Blacks in any businesses

they had - the start of the racial quota system which in effect meant anti-White discrimination, forcing businesses to employ Nonwhites even if better qualified White candidates were available.

Voting Rights Act of 1965

In addition to this, the US Constitution was amended in January 1964, to prevent any local authority from using poll tax registration as a means of preventing any person from registering as a voter. Finally in 1965, a comprehensive Civil Rights Act, more correctly called the Voting Rights Act, was signed into law by Johnson: this gave legislative enforcement to the constitutional amendment.

The law also suspended (and amendments later banned) the use of literacy tests for voters. The final abolition of the last literacy tests allowed high numbers of illiterate Black to gain access to the vote: in Mississippi, for example, the percentage of Blacks registered to vote increased from 7 percent in 1964 to 59 percent in 1968.

Black Riots

Despite the pace of change, many Blacks found no improvement in their immediate quality of life or standard of living, and dismissed as racist White explanations that it had taken decades, if not centuries, for the White American population to reach the standards it had. Although Black and White racial violence had long been a feature of the civil rights movement, specifically Black riots started in the 1960s.

The first serious disturbances broke out in Cambridge in 1963 and 1964, and the National Guard was called in to restore order. Then in 1965, a particularly severe Black riot erupted in Watts, a Black ghetto in Los Angeles. The Watts riots lasted six days, taking 34 lives and causing \$40 million in property damage.



An American army patrol in Watts, Los Angeles, USA, after Black riots virtually destroyed that suburb in the 1965 riot.

Black riots then spread across more than 30 major American cities, turning almost every major center into a battle zone of White policemen trying to control mobs of Blacks rioting and burning and looting anything they could. It was from these Black riots that the 1960s phrase "Burn, Baby Burn" was developed. From 1964 to 1968, Black riots had killed 215 people and caused \$250 million damage.

"Separate and Unequal"

Baffled by the Black riots - in theory there should have been less reason to riot than ever before, what with the desegregation laws and pro-Nonwhite discrimination racial quotas having both come into effect - president Johnson appointed a commission, headed by the former governor of Illinois, Otto Kerner, to investigate the causes of the Black unrest.

The report of the commission, issued in 1968, warned of the increasing racial polarization in the United States and said that the "nation is moving toward two societies, one white, one black - separate and unequal."

No sooner had this warning been made, but a fresh wave of riots broke out in April 1968 when Martin Luther King was assassinated by a White man in Tennessee. Once again federal troops had to be called out to suppress the anarchy.

The Bakke Case

The system of racial quotas for educational and private institutions was struck a serious blow by a 1978 US Supreme Court case. In that case, known as Regents of the University of California v. Bakke, the University of California was prohibited from creating racial quotas, but was permitted to consider race as one factor in admissions policies. The Court later ruled that racial preferences by a private corporation designed to remedy prior discrimination did not violate the Civil Rights Act, and it upheld a federal statute that requires a certain percentage of government contracts to be given to Nonwhite owned businesses.

White Flight

Increasing Black urbanization, coupled with its associated problems of an increased crime rate, increased racial tensions and resultant integrated schools - which in every measured case led to fall in educational standards - created in the 1970s the phenomena of "White flight". Entire neighborhoods of Whites started moving, lock stock and barrel, out of the major American cities into outlying suburbs. In this way many city centers became almost overnight Blacks-only areas: and this, combined with the dropping of any type of voter qualification, meant that by the mid-1970s, a number of these major cities had elected Black mayors and city councils for the first time.

Bussing in Boston

In June 1974, a federal court ruled that the Boston School Committee had deliberately maintained racial segregation in the city's public schools and ordered the implementation of bussing programs to bring children to schools outside their own neighborhoods. This led to serious racial clashes between Black and White pupils and their parents, and in 1975, a new integration program was ordered, which

saw a staggering 21,000 pupils of different races bussed all over the city in an attempt to achieve some type of racial balance in the state schools.

This caused a huge number of Whites to leave the inner city areas of Boston, adding to the White flight syndrome already taking form in most other American cities. All-White private schools also then started springing up like mushrooms.

Black Riots Erupt in Los Angeles

One of the worst Black riots in American history took place in Los Angeles in April 1992, after four White policemen were acquitted in the assault of a Black motorist (who had a long criminal record), Rodney King. The assault on King was captured on video - but the policemen were acquitted after the entire video was shown: a 13 second prelude to the assault - which was not widely shown to the public - showed King resisting arrest and assaulting the White police officers.

Blacks in Los Angeles and elsewhere, immediately forming a racial solidarity (which, if done by Whites, would be called "racist") with the victim of the assault, went on the rampage: fifty-eight people died in the rioting, and property damage exceeded \$750 million.

Proposition 187

By the 1990s, illegal Mexican immigration into California had reached floodgate proportions and was placing a massive strain on that state's resources. In November 1994, California voters approved a law, called Proposition 187, which revoked the rights of illegal immigrants to state education, welfare, and health services.

In November 1995, a U.S. District judge overturned major parts of the proposition, but many of its basic points remained in force. California has always been the focal point for immigration into America: during the 1970s, attempts by that state's educational authorities to enforce racial quotas (which saw Nonwhites being given places ahead of better qualified White students purely on the basis of race) on the University of California were overturned by the 1974 Bakke decision.

In July 1995, however, the University of California Board of Regents turned away from previous admissions policies entirely when it passed a resolution eliminating programs that called for pro-Nonwhite discrimination in admissions, hiring, and the granting of outside contracts.

Proposition 209

In November 1996, California voters then passed the California Civil Rights Initiative, also known as Proposition 209, which ended any pro-Nonwhite discrimination based on race or ethnicity for jobs, state contracts, or admission to state schools. However, its implementation was prevented by various court challenges

Civil Rights: A Failure

In real terms, the decades of civil rights programs have been a failure. Not only have average living

standards for all but an elite of Blacks declined, but they have also dropped on every other social indicator.

In 1997, over one million Black American men were in prison, and homicide was the leading cause of death among Black men aged 15 to 34. A far greater percentage of Blacks than Whites are officially classed as being below the poverty line; drug addiction and criminality amongst the American Black population is proportionately dramatically higher than it is for any other segment of the American population.

The cities run by Black Americans -Washington DC, Detroit and others - are marked by collapse, decay, exceedingly high levels of violent crime, drugs, gang wars and economic decline. The American Dream has for the most part remained beyond the reach of Black America, despite massive help and subsidies to help it along the way. The words of the 1968 Kerner Report have remained as valid as ever: America is a society of racially separate unequals.

The Soviet Union and the West: the Forty Five Year Cold War

It had become apparent to Britain and America before the end of the Second World War that the Soviet Union had no intention of sticking to earlier pledges to install democratic governments in the territories it had occupied in Eastern Europe as a result of the collapse of the Nazi state.

These suspicions were confirmed when one party systems were instituted in all the eastern European countries directly under Soviet control, and the basic principles of Marxism were implemented to the letter: private property was for the greatest part outlawed and all market institutions became state controlled.

The Berlin Blockade

The division of Germany between the Soviets and the Western democratic powers became the focal point of the conflict which was to erupt between these two ideological systems: the erection of the wall around the divided city of Berlin and the erection of fortifications along the borders of all Communist controlled countries facing onto the West, became symbols of the post war divide.

Eventually, rising tensions led to the Soviets attempting to drive the Allied powers out of Berlin by closing all road and rail access to the Western controlled part of the city, which was deep inside Communist controlled territory. The West responded by supplying the city by air in a round the clock operation which became known as the Berlin airlift. In many ways, Berlin symbolized what happened to the entire Eastern Europe after the end of the war: under a totalitarian dictatorship with full state control of all aspects of life, a long line of walls and fortifications were built to cut off these countries from all contact with the west.

The wall built in Berlin, sometimes cutting through buildings and dividing streets in half, symbolized the division. The erection of the physical divisions along the borders of East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and around West Berlin led the British wartime leader, Winston Churchill, to make his famous remark that during the war the Allies had "slaughtered the wrong pig".

The Cold War

While democratic governments were restored in almost all of Western Europe (except in Spain and Portugal). Eastern Europe was plunged into a protracted period of one party rule which involved the suppression of all dissidents. Even the Allied controlled part of Germany was eventually given self rule under a democratic government (with the only restriction on political activity in Germany being on parties which supported, or were deemed by the state to support, National Socialism - an exclusion which is still in force) and thus the basis was laid for a fifty year standoff which became known as the Cold War between the Communist Soviet Empire and the Capitalist democratic West under the leadership of the United States.

NATO and the Warsaw Pact

In April 1949, the United States, Canada, and ten Western European nations arranged a guarantee of mutual defense and assistance in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, known as NATO. In response to this, the Soviet Union banded its Eastern European satellites together into an organization which became known as the Warsaw Pact in 1955: this Pact would only last as long as the Soviet Union itself, and folded early in 1990s.

Rebellions in Eastern Europe

The Communists did not have a completely free ride in establishing their dictatorships in the Eastern European countries: there were violent uprisings against Soviet rule in East Germany in 1953; and in Poland and Hungary in 1956 (the latter two uprisings were marked by a strong anti-Jewish outburst, in reaction to the large number of Jews in the Communist administrations). Also in 1968, a largely peaceful rebellion took place in Czechoslovakia, known as the Prague Spring: these uprisings were put down with brute force, and did not re-occur while the Soviet Empire still held together.



Germans throw rocks at Soviet tanks in the streets of Berlin, 1953.

Conflict in the Third World

Despite much posturing and many threatening actions undertaken by both sides over the next fifty years, the much feared Third World War between the Soviets and the United States never came about. Although the Soviet Union and America themselves never actually came to trading blows, their proxies throughout the world did: in Korea (1953); in Vietnam (1967); in Latin America (over a large number of years) and in Africa (also over a large number of years).

The Korean War

In June 1950, when South Korea was invaded by the forces of Communist North Korea, the Americans announced that they would intervene to assist the South Koreans. In November 1950, the Chinese Communists officially entered the war, and a hot war between an American led United Nations task force and the Red Chinese then followed. The war ended in 1953, with North and South Korea's borders returning to their original jump off positions: by the end of the 20th century this Korean division had still not been solved.

Cuban Missile Crisis

In 1962, the much feared clash between the USA and the USSR did almost take place: when the

Soviets provided Cuban bases with offensive missiles, the American president John Kennedy demanded their withdrawal. After a highly tension packed standoff which saw both sides ready for armed conflict, the Soviets yielded and withdrew the missiles.

Vietnam

The origin of the Vietnam conflict lay in the division of that country between Communist Vietnamese in the north and Nationalist Vietnamese in the south of that country: once again the competing sides had the support of the Communists - this time the Chinese - and the United States respectively. In 1956, the South declared itself an independent republic: in retaliation, the north organized an army, the Vietcong, to start a guerrilla war against the South. By 1965, the South Vietnamese had appealed for, and received, direct military aid from America: by 1968, the United States had sent in a huge army 550,000 strong - with a significant number being Black troops.

Despite an overwhelming material advantage and massive saturation bombing of North Vietnam, the American troops were unable to make any major headway against the Vietcong. Military discipline began to decline, with sections of the American army - Black and White - becoming famous for their open drug abuse and other reprehensible behavior.

Ultimately, the presence of American troops and the use of napalm bombing and other weapons turned a majority of Vietnamese against the foreigners and the South: when the American troops withdrew in 1973. They had to all intents been beaten, the first war to be lost by America. The North Vietnamese captured all of the south in 1975.

Africa

In Africa the Communists once again had considerably more success than the Americans in creating allies. Openly and massively supporting with arms and troops all the anti-colonial Black liberation movements, the Soviets managed to outsmart the Americans time and time again with an aggressive foreign policy which saw great swathes of that continent fall under Soviet influence.

The Soviets also played a major racial card by supporting the Black liberation movements in South Africa and Rhodesia. This included the use of tens of thousands of Cuban troops in Angola to ward off South African incursions into that country during the 1970s and 1980s.

Although the Americans covertly helped some anti-Communist Black guerrillas in Angola, using the South Africans as a supply line, they refused to aid South Africa or Rhodesia itself, not wanting to associate itself with the two White governments.

Afghanistan

In 1979, the Soviets invaded Afghanistan and started a major racial clash in the region: the Soviets were forced to deploy only White Russian troops after it discovered that its Mongol and other troops from the Nonwhite regions of the Soviet Union started defecting to the Muslim Afghan resistance - which, unsurprisingly, was supplied by the United States through Pakistan and India.

The war in Afghanistan proved highly costly and unpopular in the Soviet Union itself and eventually the Soviets withdrew, leaving the country embroiled in its own civil war. It was this invasion which would precipitate the fall of the Soviet Union: the inability of the Soviet Army to rely on any but its White Russian troops in the conflict exposed the searing racial and ethnic divisions which would later give rise to the breakup of the Soviet Union.



The Soviet Empire: a May Day parade, Moscow, 1982.

The Fall of the Soviet Empire

When the Communist Party chose Mikhail Gorbachev as its new leader in 1985, it had little idea of what he would do: he immediately launched a campaign aimed at transforming Soviet society, called perestroika ("restructuring") and glasnost' ("openness"). This included political reforms: by 1989, other candidates apart from Communist Party endorsed ones, were allowed to participate in elections for the Supreme Soviet parliament.

Gorbachev withdrew Soviet troops from Afghanistan and signed agreements with American president George Bush to end production of chemical weapons and make substantial cuts in nuclear weapons. Finally in 1990, the Soviet Communist Party surrendered its hold on total power which Trotsky had taken in 1918, and allowed other political parties the freedom to operate.

Communist Eastern Europe Falls

The Soviet Union then also refused to intervene in a wave of reforms which swept through Eastern Europe: the Communist governments in Poland, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia were ousted; Communist East Germany dissolved and became part of the Federal Republic of Germany. Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia also became independent in this wave of liberation from direct Soviet control.

However, many of the former Communist governments managed to adapt, and by changing their parties' names and exploiting the real problems in converting from state socialism to free market

enterprise, in many cases managed to stay in power.

Communist Counter Coup

A desperate attempt by Communist hard-liners in 1991 to launch a coup against Gorbachev and his reforms failed, and pro reformers under the former Communist Boris Yeltsin emerged as the new government of the day.

On December 21, 1991, the USSR formally ceased to exist, splitting up into 11 distinct ethnic and racially separate units: - Armenia, Azerbaijan, Byelorussia (renamed Belarus), Kazakstan, Kirghiziya (renamed Kyrgyzstan), Moldavia (renamed Moldova), Russia, Tadjikistan (renamed Tajikistan), Turkmenia (renamed Turkmenistan), Ukraine, and Uzbekistan. They all agreed to form the loosely defined Commonwealth of Independent States.

Gorbachev resigned on 25 December 1991 and the Soviet parliament acknowledged the dissolution of the USSR on 26 December 1991.

This breakup did not all go peacefully: in December 1994, Russian troops invaded the republic of Chechnya in southern Russia, which had declared its independence from the Russian Federation in November 1991. After a devastating war which killed more than 30,000 people, the war ended in a Russian withdrawal in March 1996.

Economic Hardship

The history of Russia since the fall of the USSR has been one of extreme economic hardship, coupled with the creation of an elite of extremely rich capitalists who were able to exploit the sudden privatization of much of the state by buying up many enterprises at rock bottom prices.

A disproportionately large number of the new elite in Russia were Jewish: something which caused yet another resurgence in support for anti-Jewish parties in the country, most notably in the strangely named, but overtly anti-Jewish, Liberal Democratic Party, which won nearly 20 per cent of the popular vote in elections in the mid 1990s.

The economic hardship of Russia in the 1990s also created an increase in support for the once discredited Communist Party: it became once again one of the largest parties in the Russian parliament.

Russian Rebellion

In addition to these developments, Russia has also been rocked by political instability, with the most dramatic scenes occurring in 1993 when Yeltsin dismissed the parliament after it refused to give in to certain of his decrees: hard-liners holed themselves up inside the parliament building, only being forced to surrender when Russian tanks and soldiers opened fire on the building, provoking a furious gunfight.

Large White Population

Despite these problems, the population of the territories known as the USSR at the time of its dissolution was some 250 million - of this number, fully 190 million are racially classifiable as White, making Western Russia and the new states situated to the east of Poland and to the west of the Ural mountains, one of the largest concentration of Whites anywhere on the planet.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Sixty Seven

The Changing Face

The dominating theme of European history in the last quarter of the 20th century has been the large scale immigration of Nonwhite peoples and races into the modern era White heartlands of Northern Europe, Australia/New Zealand and North America.

This process has taken place via two avenues: legal immigration and illegal immigration: it is difficult to formulate estimates on which has been the greater. Whatever the channel used, the reality of masses of Nonwhites settling in these territories can quite rightly said to be changing the face of these continents.

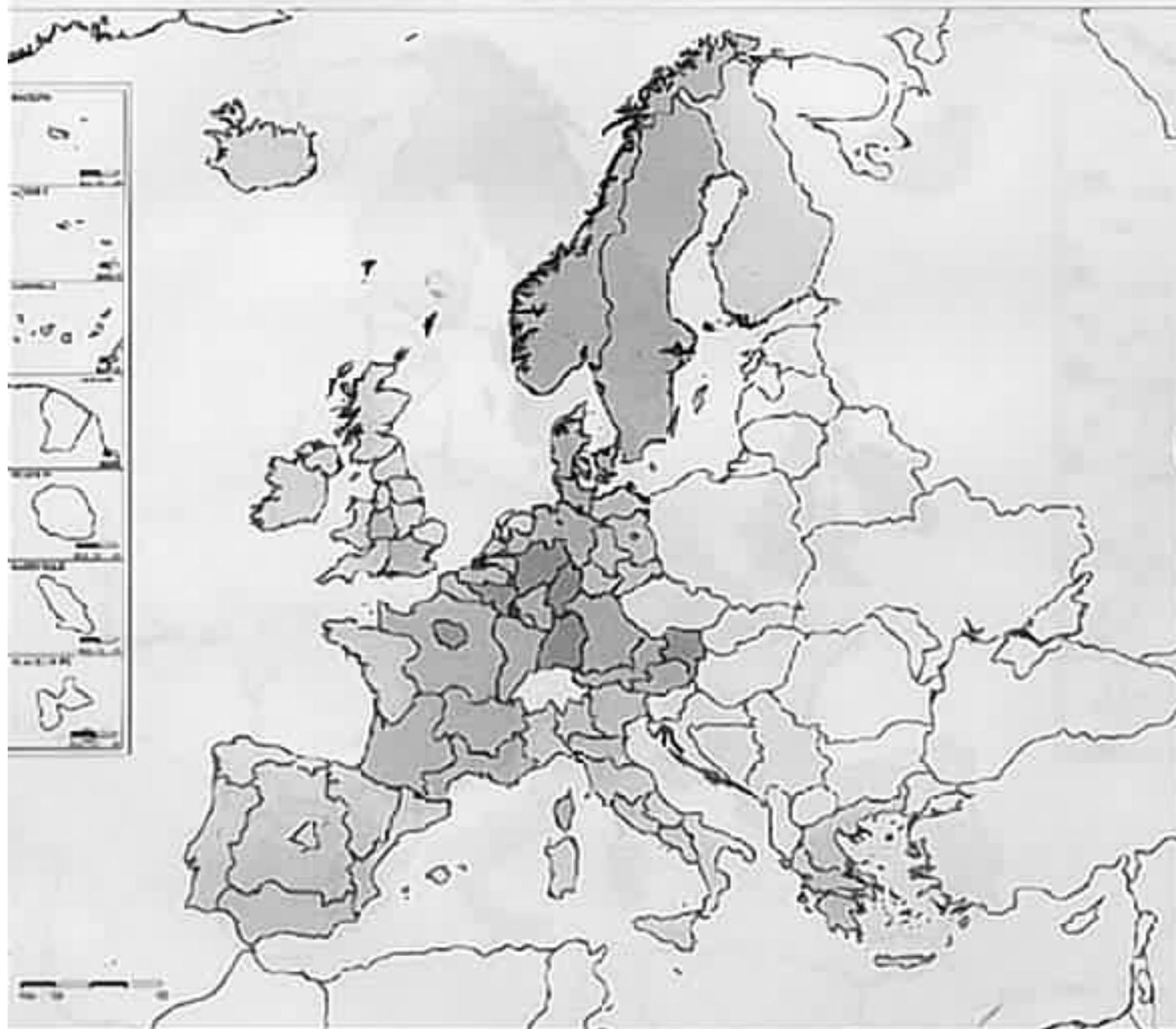
EUROPE

According to Eurostat (the Statistical Office of the European Communities, B-19049 Bruxelles, rue de la Loi 200, Luxembourg), in their publication, Migration Statistics, 1996, there is not one of the 15 countries in Western Europe (their area of measurement) which, at the beginning of 1994, did not have less than 3 -10 per cent of what they euphemistically call "non-nationals resident".

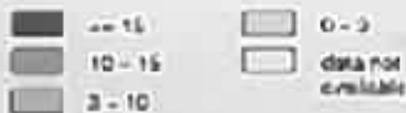
France, Germany, Austria, the Benelux countries, Denmark, Scandinavia and England are all listed as having "non-nationals resident" of more than 10 per cent, with Germany in two regions registered figures of "more than 15 per cent."

An average of between 10 and 15 per cent of "non nationals resident" in Western Europe as of the mid 1990's is therefore an accurate estimate, given that official figures are always behind actual statistics, as the number of illegal immigrants always closely shadows the number of legal immigrants.

B-5 Non-nationals resident in EEA countries - 1 January 1994



Percentage of the total population



F: 1993 Census results, Metropolitan France
 IR: UK Labour Force Survey, Spring 1994 data
 L: Eurostat estimate
 P: Data NUTS 0
 IS: Data refer to 1/12/1993

Boundaries EUR 15: NUTS 1 or NUTS 0

Statistical Centre
 European and geographic information management system



Percentage of the total population



F: 1990 Census results, metropolitan France
 IRL, UK: Labour Force Survey, Spring 1994 data
 L: Eurostat estimate
 P: Data NUTS 0
 IS: Data refer to 1.12.1993

Boundaries EUR 15: NUTS 1 or NUTS 0

By 1994, most European Union member states had an average 10 - 15 per cent Nonwhite population, with this figure effectively doubling every fifteen years. These statistics are from the EU's own official records, Eurostat, in Belgium.

"Non-Nationals Resident" and "Less Developed Countries" are Codewords

These "non-nationals resident" are, according to the Eurostat figures, in the majority derived from that the "less developed countries" which are officially listed as: "Turkey, Africa, Latin America (excluding America and Canada); Asia (excluding Japan); Oceania (excluding Australia and New Zealand." (Migration Statistics, 1996, Eurostat, page xvii). It is clear that the terms "Non-Nationals Resident" and "Less Developed Countries" are therefore codewords for Nonwhite.

Nonwhite Majority by 2090

If it is calculated that Nonwhite immigration into Europe first started in significant numbers during the late 1950's and speeded up considerably during from the 1970's, it can be seen that the exponential growth rate means that the Nonwhite population of Western Europe is successfully doubling approximately every fifteen years. This rate of growth, left unchecked, means that Europe will have an outright Nonwhite majority population by the second half of the 21st century - by the year 2090.

France

The largest source of Nonwhites into France has come from North Africa: it is estimated that 6.95 million legally present Nonwhite immigrants in France (of the total estimated 12 million Nonwhites population of that country) originate from just three countries: Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia.

Number of North African Immigrants in France:

1946	100,000
1954	250,000
1962	400,000
1968	800,000
1975	2.4 million
1982	1.5 million
1990	1.4 million

Total (in 1990)	6.95 million
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Source: BBC News website www.bbc.co.uk, 13 March 1998, "France Tops Europe Racist Poll"

These figures do not take into account illegal immigration. It is not surprising that immigration and race relations have become important issues in France in the 1990s. High unemployment and violence mark the Black and North African communities in France and have provoked serious emergencies in the Parisian capital.

Racial Mixing

As in other European countries, the numbers of Nonwhites are being increased not only by natural reproduction rates, but also by mixing with Whites. The 1990 census in France showed that where young Algerian women had live-in partners, in nearly a quarter of cases the partner was White; and the younger the Algerian women, the higher the proportion of White partners.

In 1975, the French census figures showed that for Algerian mothers, the proportion of births where the father was White rose from 6.2 per cent, to 27.5 per cent in 1990. This in effect means a dramatically increasing mixed race younger generation, who are not counted as "non-resident nationals" by the Eurostat calculations, but who are not White either.

Germany

The largest source of Nonwhite immigration into Germany has been from Turkey, although the liberal asylum laws that country had until the mid 1990s encouraged several million other Nonwhite immigration waves from Africa and Asia as well.

The German constitution adopted immediately after the Second World War compelled the country to accept virtually any refugee who was fleeing political or social violence in their home countries. As most of the Third World is continuously in strife, this was easy enough to prove, and at least a million, and possibly more, Nonwhites entered Germany in this way.

This constitutional provision was only changed after public pressure in Germany mounted to the point where it became a national crisis. The result is that there are an estimated 7 million "foreigners" (as the Germans like to codeword Nonwhites) in Germany at the end of the 20th century, the majority of whom are Turks. This has created its own set of social problems in Germany: an international conference in Hungary in June 1998, on illegal migration, was told by the German Interior Minister said that foreigners were behind two-thirds of the crimes committed by organized gangs in that country. This issue of foreigner crime has become one of the dominating political issues in Germany, with all mainstream political parties building it into their policy programs.

Racial Mixing

The number of racially mixed children in Germany which has resulted from the huge Nonwhite influx, has been substantially smaller than in other European countries: according to the German census of 1975, the number of Turkish mothers giving birth to children with a White father was 0,5 percent - by 1990 this figure stood at 1.2 percent.

Britain

Britain actively encouraged Nonwhite immigration from the Commonwealth, starting in the late 1950s. The flow of Nonwhite Commonwealth immigrants has hardly paused since, changing massively the make-up of several major British cities - where the immigrants have tended to concentrate.

The vast majority of immigrants have come from three sources: India/Pakistan, the West Indies and West Africa. A measure of the level of Nonwhite immigration into the UK can be gauged from the 1996 statistical survey by that country's Office of National Statistics, which showed that country wide, the 36th most popular name for new babies in the UK was "Mohammed" - an exclusively Muslim name.

Official estimates put the number of Nonwhites in Britain at the end of the 20th century at around 3.5 million - but this does not take into account illegal immigration, which is massive: the Metropolitan Police in London has estimated that there at least half a million illegal immigrants in greater London alone, never mind other Nonwhite concentrations in Birmingham and elsewhere.

A more accurate figure for the total number of Nonwhites in Britain as at the end of the 20th century is probably closer to 5 million, even more if the extremely high number of mixed race children are added in.

Racial Mixing

Racial mixing has been extremely prevalent in Britain. According to the 1991 census, taken by the Office for National Statistics in London (ONS), 40 per cent of young Black men in Britain are married to, or live with, a White partner. The trend is less common on the other side of the sexual divide, where one in five young Black women has a partner who is White. (Ethnicity in the 1991 Census, ONS, 1991).

In 1990 One Fifth of all Pre-School Children in Britain Were Nonwhite

The ONS census in 1990 also revealed that some 20 per cent (or one in five) of pre-school children in Britain was of mixed race, and the percentage is rising year by year (ibid).

Other facts revealed in the 1991 census showed that:

- Half of all men and women from "Black ethnic" groups are unmarried;
- Forty per cent of black children are in lone-parent families. This contrasts strikingly with 15 per cent of white children, and 10 per cent of Asian children;
- There is a high level of mixed Black West Indian and White live-in partners, accounting for up to a third of all "Black" households;
- All the ethnic minorities are concentrated in towns and cities and this concentration is increasing.

Britain has, as a result of this large Nonwhite influx, suffered a large number of Black riots, the most serious of which occurred in 1981, when countrywide riots saw large areas of many inner cities razed to the ground.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Third World Immigration Starts After 1960

Until the 1960s, most immigrants to the United States came from Europe. Mexicans had however long since been crossing the border to seek employment in the White created prosperity that was North America: an estimated 500,000 Mexicans entered America, legally and illegally, in the 1930s; one million in the 1940s; and 2.5 million in the 1950s.

Starting from 1975, the vast majority of immigrants into America have been from Nonwhite World countries from Asia and Latin America. More than 4 million newcomers entered the United States during the 1970s, rising to more than 6 million arrived in the 1980s; with at least 80 percent of these from Latin America or Asia.

During the 1990s another 10 million entered the country: the largest influx of immigrants in any decade in American history. In the 1980s, concern about the surge of illegal immigrants led Congress to pass legislation aimed at curtailing illegal immigration. The Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986, mandated penalties for employers who hire illegal aliens.

Mexican Immigration

A 1996 report on population trends in America, issued by that country's official census office, revealed the full extent of Mexican (called "Hispanic") immigration and natural reproduction rates into that country: by the year 2005, Hispanics will surpass Blacks as the largest minority.

By the year 2050, it says, they will have increased from 10.7 per cent to 25 per cent of the population to outnumber the combined total of Blacks, Asians and Amerinds. From 2020, the report says, more Mexicans will be added to the population each year than Blacks, Asians and Amerinds combined. From 2019, the relatively youthful Mexican population will have America's lowest death rate.

White American Decline

The long-term rise in the number of Hispanics, who have the highest birth and immigration rates in America, will coincide with a decline in the number of Whites, the report states, predicting that by 2028, the number of White Americans dying will exceed those being born.

The population as a whole is projected to increase by 50 per cent by 2050, to 394 million, from 263 million in 1995. Although the White population is set to increase steadily in real numbers, expressed as a percentage of the entire American population, their numbers are in radical decline: in 1996, Whites made up 73.1 per cent of the population. That is projected to fall to 52.8 per cent by 2050.

USA Population Projections millions (rounded off)

	1997	2000	2010	2020	2030	2040	2050
Total	267	275	298	323	347	370	394
White	195	197	202	207	210	210	208
White % of total	72.8	71.8	68	64.3	60.5	57	52.8

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P25-1130, "Population Projections of the United States by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1995 to 2050".

Germans Largest White Group

According to the 1990 census, the largest White group, about 58 million Americans, was partly or solely of German ancestry. Irish ancestry was reported by 38.7 million Americans, and English ancestry by another 32.7 million.

Children

Asians' share of the American population will more than double to 8.2 per cent in 2050, and Blacks will rise to 13.6 per cent. The Census Office also reported that in 1995, 21 per cent of White children, 33 per cent of Hispanic children and 56 per cent of Black children lived with one parent. Figures released by the US census Bureau in July 1998, showed that there were at that stage already more Mexican children than Black children in America.

According to the census bureau, in 1998 there were over ten million Mexican children under the age of eighteen. This has led to entire slices of many of the southern states of America: New Mexico, Texas and southern California, becoming virtual tiny replicas of Mexico, with the lingua franca becoming Mexican Spanish rather than English.

Asian Growth

According to the 1990 U.S. census, more than 7.2 million Asians and Pacific Islanders live in the United States. They made up 2.9 percent of the U.S. population, a 107.8 percent increase from 1980, when they constituted only 1.5 percent of the population. After the Vietnam War ended in 1975, many immigrants from Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, and other Southeast Asian countries settled in the United States. Not all Vietnamese Americans have become well-educated and prosperous.

School dropout rates and the growth of criminal gangs continue to trouble the Vietnamese American community. In 1990, more than one-fourth of all Vietnamese American families reported income below the poverty level, a rate twice the U.S. average.

Black Growth

While the total U.S. population increased by 9.8 percent between 1980 and 1990 and by an estimated 7.4 percent between 1990 and 1997, the Black population grew by 14.2 percent, from 26.7 million in 1980 to 30.5 million in 1990 and had reached an estimated 33.8 million by 1997.

Amerind Growth

The Amerind population has staged a remarkable comeback from its low at the end of the 19th century: in 1980, it stood at 1.4 million, rising to 2.1 million in 1990; the population grew 12.1 percent between 1990 and 1997, reaching 2.3 million.

Racial Mixing

According to an article in the newspaper, USA Today, of 17 June 1998, the number of mixed race marriages in the USA was 150,000 in 1960. By 1998 it had increased to "over 1.5 million" and it estimated that the number of mixed race children in America stood at "over 2 million."

CANADA

According to Canadian government figures, from 1981 to 1991, 74 per cent of all legal immigrants to Canada came from Nonwhite countries. During this time there were 1.3 million legal immigrants: 26 per cent came from Europe; 47 per cent came from Asia (Chinese is the fastest-growing mother tongue in Canada); 12 per

cent from South America or the Caribbean; 9 per cent from North and Central America, and 6 per cent from Africa.

Due to declining White birth rates - in 1997 the birth rate was 1.67 children born per woman, (less than the replacement rate of 2.1) the Canadian government formally decided in the 1980s to actively seek out further immigrants. The top ten source countries (in order) in 1995, were Hong Kong, India, the Philippines, China, Sri Lanka, Taiwan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, England, the United States, and Pakistan.

In 1997, Amerinds officially made up three per cent of the population (865 400), while officially Blacks made up two per cent (576 920). The established Asian population was swelled by 962 000 immigrants in the 1980s - pushing the total of Asians well over the 2,8 million mark.

These are all official figures of legal immigrants: illegal immigration always shadows legal immigration, and it is possible that the actual figures may be nearly double the legal ones.

Given that the total population of Canada in 1996 was 28,846,761, some three million or more legal Nonwhite immigrants have settled in that country prior to the year 2000. In terms of illegal immigrants, the number is of course far higher. All this translates to a Nonwhite population of just under 5 million - or 17 percent of the total population - in 1996. This figure is set to increase exponentially.

AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND

Prior to the 1970s, virtually all immigration to Australia was White: however, like the rest of Europe and North America, the last 25 years of the 20th century has seen a massive increase in Nonwhite immigration into Australia, mostly from Asian countries.

According to the 1991 census, Australia had a population of 16,849,496. The 1995 estimated population, including Christmas Island, Cocos Islands, and Norfolk Island, was 18,338,000.

Australia's total population grew at an annual rate of about 1.4 percent in the early 1990s. The principal reasons for this growth were the continued high level of immigration and the associated increase in the numbers of younger people in the childbearing and childrearing age groups.

Twenty Seven Percent

Some 70 per cent of Australian immigration in the 1990s came from Asian countries. At current levels, local research has shown that Australia will be 27 per cent Asian by 2025, with the Asians already concentrating in the cities, causing the well known White Flight phenomena into the suburbs and countryside.

An idea of the rapid Asian population growth can be determined if it is borne in mind that in 1980, Australia's non-Aboriginal Nonwhite population was 250,000. In the last 20 years of the 20th century, this figure has leapfrogged to nearly two million.

This is only based on legal Nonwhite immigration figures: Australian police estimated in 1998 that in that year, at least 500 illegal immigrants were entering that country every week, mostly on visitor's visas.

New Zealand

The population of New Zealand at the 1991 census was 3,434,950. The 1996 population estimate was

3,547,983. According to the 1991 census, approximately 73 percent of the population of New Zealand is White. About 12 percent (some 430,000) are Maori, with the rest being "other Asian" groups - again showing a growth which, when combined with the Maori population, will also start producing racial balances similar to those of Australia by the year 2030.

GLOBAL WHITE DECLINE

Given present immigration trends and natural Nonwhite population growth figures on all three continents - Western Europe, North America, and Australia - it therefore seems unlikely that any of them will retain their White majorities past the year 2100.

In addition to the ever increasing waves of Nonwhite immigration, another serious factor is the steady reduction in the White birthrate which is further accelerating the process of decline.

A report published in Britain in July 1998, by the Family Policy Studies Center, indicated that one in five women in the UK of childbearing age (that is, born after 1975) are not having any children, mainly due to financial constraints. The figure is double that for women born in 1945 - the numbers have been increasing since 1950.

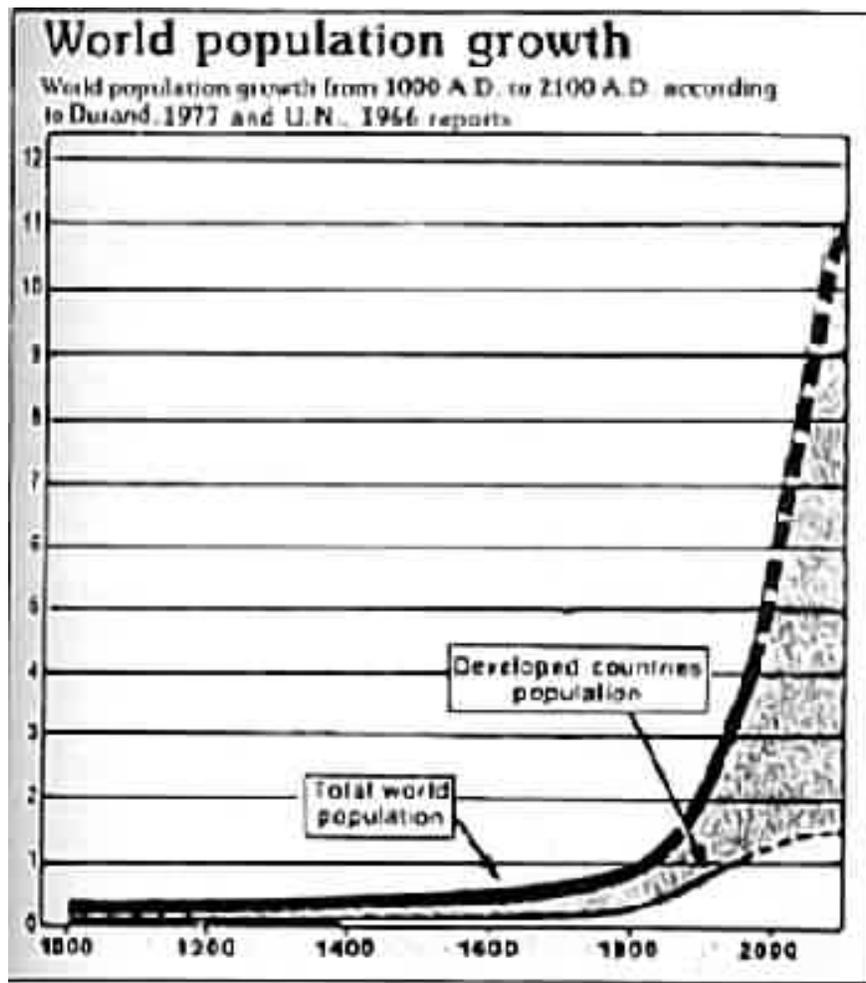
World Wide

The massive increases in the world's total Nonwhite population also makes serious food for thought: in 1900, the earth's population stood at 1,625 million, with some 485 million being White. This meant that some 30 per cent of the earth's population was White at the beginning of the 20th century.

In the year 2000, the earth's population will stand at around 6,095 million, with around 953 million being White. Although this is an increase, in terms of the total planet's population, it marks a drop of over 50 per cent - in 2000, Whites will make up only 15 per cent of the earth's population.

The exponential and explosive growth of the Nonwhite population of the earth - which effectively doubles itself every 34 years -(compared with White population which now only doubles itself every 200 years), means that by the year 2100, only three per cent of the earth's population will be White.

In a period of 110 years, the proportion of Whites on earth will have dropped from 30 per cent to three percent.



The massive overpopulation taking place in the Nonwhite world will cause increasing waves of Nonwhite immigration into the modern White heartlands of North America, Europe and Australia. This graph shows the disparity between White and Nonwhite population growths, based on United Nations figures. Note the codeword for the White nations ("developed countries"), compared to the Nonwhite world ("total world population").

The Pill

The 1960s will also go down in history as having introduced one of the most significant factors to affect White numbers in the entire history of the world: the development of the birth control pill, or oral contraceptive, which was first approved for use in the United States in 1965. Social demographic trends have shown that it is only in the Western, White, industrialized countries where contraception is used to any significant degree.

The reproduction rate in White countries (amongst their native populations) has, since the introduction of the pill, dropped to the point where in most White countries it is below the stable replacement rate of 2.4 children per female. In the Nonwhite Third World however, no such restraints exist, and the population grows exponentially as fast as the White population declines in Europe and North America: this demographic time bomb will in the not to distant future have serious consequences for the entire earth.

Nonwhite Overpopulation Pushes Immigration

The resultant massive overpopulation of the Nonwhite lands of the earth provides the major driver for Nonwhite immigration into the White heartlands of Europe, Australia and North America.

In India, for example, where the population doubles every 30 years, many see no future except emigration to Australia, America or Europe, as over population pressures at home stretch their already tenuous infrastructure to breaking point.

The Black African population doubles every 24 years. This is reflected in the ever increasing number of man made famines on that continent; and the ever increasing numbers of Black refugees entering Europe, America and Australia.

All of these population shifts are busy altering the population make-ups of the three modern White heartlands - in exactly the same way that has happened to every other White nation in history which has then become swamped and removed from the pages of history.

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Chapter Sixty Eight

The Coming Fall of the West

By now it should be clear to the reader that all the great events of history have a racial basis: the very ebb and flow of history is understood only when it is seen that all of history is the result of racial or sub-racial shifts in power; of tribes or nations conquering others, of lands being occupied by different races; and racial conflict.

Once this common thread is understood, then history stops being a meaningless jumble of seemingly unconnected events, but welds into an obviously connected and predictable flow.

With this knowledge, predicting the future on the basis of what is already known, is not that difficult.

This is particularly so in the light of the facts which have been overviewed in the previous chapter: the increasing numbers of Nonwhites flooding Europe, North America and Australia will without any doubt lead to a change in the nature of the societies on those continents, which in turn will bring about a change in the nature of the civilization on those continents.

That this will happen is without doubt: it is not even a question of debate, it is a simple fact.

What it means in practical terms is that Western European civilization - as it has been developing since the Late Paleolithic Age, some 27,000 years ago, will vanish and change into something else, a hybrid culture like that of present day India.

Attractive or Unattractive

This prospect of a hybrid society may appear attractive to some people, although it will not mean the end of the concept of race (instead of sharp racial divisions, there will be a racial "continuum" sliding from light to dark, as is the case in India).

However, there are others who do not think that this is a desirable end result of 30,000 years of history, and who do not relish themselves or their descendants living in countries which are at best Second World, and, as the demographic balance becomes ever more marked, which will slide into Third World status and then beyond.

Already the effects of the change in the make-up of society can be seen everywhere in Europe, North America or Australia, where one cares to look: an overview of these already clear signs of social discordance is the subject of this final chapter.

Belgium and Black Africa

Of particular concern must be the ever growing African numbers in North America and Europe. Black

Africa itself is without question the most backward continent on earth; in 1989, a World Bank report on sub-Saharan Africa (that is, excluding the oil rich Arab states and what was then White ruled South Africa) revealed that the Gross Domestic Product for the entire continent was the same as that of one tiny European country, Belgium (Sunday Times, 26 November 1989).

The possibility of this massive poverty and social chaos being transferred to Europe and North America is not a figment of a wild imagination: indeed, the transfer of that population is already underway, as demonstrated in the preceding chapter.

Social Discordance: The Signs of the Dissolution of the West

At the end of the 20th century, there are very clear signs of social discordance at work in the White West: signs which are unmistakably linked to the changing racial make-up of the societies in question.

Before these discordancies are overviewed, the reader should realize that of necessity "groups" are being used to define trends and patterns of behavior. This is so because of the nature of racial dynamics: to use a simple example to explain: One White in a meeting hall of 200 Blacks will hardly be noticed; as a lone individual he will not count. However, 150 Whites in a meeting hall with 50 Blacks will not only count, but they will set the agenda of the meeting as well.

In this way then, racial groups impact upon each other, and racial individuals do not.

This is a critical factor to bear in mind when group statistics or any nature are overviewed: the individual exception does not disprove the group rule; small numbers of individuals do not count, but large groups do.

Race and Crime

One of the most prominent of all social indicators is the crime rate: it serves as a window onto society, reflecting a large number of factors such as social status, poverty, alienation from society and a host of others.

A comparison of European and American criminal statistics reveals some important insights into how this impacts upon the racial make-up of society. The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) produces a regular "Uniform Crime Report", published by the US government in Washington, DC..

In 1992, the figures they produced were first given as a total for America, and then broken down into two racial categories of "Black" and "White". Under the FBI's classification, Mexicans are also classed as White, so separate statistics for this group do not exist.

While this is of course scientifically incorrect, these are nonetheless the only statistics which are publicly available on the matter, and for sake of factual correctness, these figures are used as is in the table below. In addition to this, the European crime statistics for similar crimes have been laid alongside the American statistics for comparison.

Comparison: Crimes per 100,000 Population

	Britain	France	Germany	Italy	USA	American Whites	American Blacks
Murder	7.4	4.6	4.2	6.0	9.3	5.1	43.4
Robbery	62.6	90.4	47.4	68.6	263.0	126	1,343

Sources: FBI Uniform Crime Reports for U.S. data, The Economist for European data. European data for 1990; American data for 1992

As the table shows, Americans as a whole are more violent than Europeans: twice as likely as Frenchmen to commit murder and more than five times as likely as Germans to commit robbery.

However, as is clear from the separate calculations for American Blacks and Whites, (done by the FBI themselves) it is very high rates of violent crimes by Blacks - eight times as high as Whites for murder and more than ten times for robbery - that yield this result.

These figures actually overstate the White crime rate, because of FBI's inclusion of Mexicans into the White category.

These figures have a bearing on the perennial American debate over gun control. White Americans, who have easy access to guns, are less likely to kill each other than are the British, who are almost completely disarmed.

This comparison with Europe proves that Whites in the United States have neither a unique "culture of violence" nor inadequate gun laws. America has a high rate of violent crime because it has a large number of violent Black criminals.

Brazil

Brazil is a nation of some 170 million, the vast majority of whom are mixed race slum dwellers: with a well deserved reputation for violence. In Sao Paulo, its largest city with 16 million people, more than 4,500 people are murdered each year. In March 1998 alone, 771 people were killed, more than all the homicides reported in New York City during 1997. (Reuters, 08/16/98, "Park Maniac" killer case rivets Brazil).

Washington DC - "Murder Capital" of the World

Reference has already been made to the phenomena of White Flight from American cities, a pattern that is gradually spreading to Europe and Australia as well. The biggest consequence of this White Flight is the creation of Black inner cities in America, and it is in these inner cities where a large proportion of Black violent crime takes place.

A case example is the capital of America, Washington DC, which in 1998 had a "live-in" White population of less than 23 per cent.

A British survey conducted by the UK Home Office of 20 European and nine North American cities put Washington way out in front a "city murder league table" with a murder rate of 69.3 per 100,000 population. (BBC website, www.bbc.co.uk, 19 August 1998, "The United States of Murder").

This means that Washington is about 170 times more dangerous than the Belgian capital, Brussels, which came bottom with 0.4 murders per 100,000. (ibid). Washington was a long way ahead of the second most murderous city, Philadelphia, which had a rate of 27.4. The nine American cities in the survey all came in the top 12 of the poll. San Diego had the lowest rate with 8 homicides per 100,000. (ibid).

"The Race War of Black Against White"

An insight into the nature of racially motivated crime in America was published in the Australian mainstream newspaper, the Sydney Morning Herald, on 20 May 1995. Written by that paper's correspondent in America, it contains so many important facts that it is worth quoting here in full:

"The Race War of Black Against White

By Paul Sheehan

Sydney Morning Herald, May 20, 1995

The longest war America has ever fought is the Dirty War, and it is not over. It has lasted 30 years so far and claimed more than 25 million victims. It has cost almost as many lives as the Vietnam War. It determined the result of last year's congressional election.

Yet the American news media do not want to talk about the Dirty War, which remains between the lines and unreported. In fact, to even suggest that the war exists is to be discredited. So let's start suggesting, immediately.

No matter how crime figures are massaged by those who want to acknowledge or dispute the existence of a Dirty War, there is nothing ambiguous about what the official statistics portray: for the past 30 years a large segment of black America has waged a war of violent retribution against white America. And the problem is getting worse, not better.

In the past 20 years, violent crime has increased more than four times faster than the population. Young blacks (under 18) are more violent than previous generations and are 12 times more likely to be arrested for murder than young whites.

Nearly all the following figures, which speak for themselves, have not been reported in America:

**** According to the latest US Department of Justice survey of crime victims, more than 6.6***

million violent crimes (murder, rape, assault and robbery) are committed in the US each year, of which about 20 per cent, or 1.3 million, are inter-racial crimes.

**** Most victims of race crime - about 90 per cent - are white, according to the survey "Highlights From 20 Years of Surveying Crime Victims," published in 1993.***

**** Almost 1 million white Americans were murdered, robbed, assaulted or raped by black Americans in 1992, compared with about 132,000 blacks who were murdered, robbed, assaulted or raped by whites, according to the same survey.***

**** Blacks thus committed 7.5 times more violent inter-racial crimes than whites even though the black population is only one-seventh the size of the white population. When these figures are adjusted on a per capita basis, they reveal an extraordinary disparity: blacks are committing more than 50 times the violent racial crimes of whites.***

**** According to the latest annual report on murder by the Federal Bureau of Investigation, most inter-racial murders involve black assailants and white victims, with blacks murdering whites at 18 times the rate that whites murder blacks.***

These breathtaking disparities began to emerge in the mid-1960s, when there was a sharp increase in black crime against whites, an upsurge which, not co-incidentally, corresponds exactly with the beginning of the modern civil rights movement.

Over time, the cumulative effect has been staggering. Justice Department and FBI statistics indicate that between 1964 and 1994 more than 25 million violent inter-racial crimes were committed, overwhelmingly involving black offenders and white victims, and more than 45,000 people were killed in inter-racial murders. By comparison, 58,000 Americans died in Vietnam, and 34,000 were killed in the Korean War.

When non-violent crimes (burglary, larceny, car theft and personal theft) are included, the cumulative totals become prodigious. The Bureau of Justice Statistics says 27 million non-violent crimes were committed in the US in 1992, and the survey found that 31 per cent of the robberies involved black offenders and white victims (while only 2 per cent in the reverse).

When all the crime figures are calculated, it appears that black Americans have committed at least 170 million crimes against white Americans in the past 30 years. It is the great defining disaster of American life and American ideals since World War II.

All these are facts, yet by simply writing this story, by assembling the facts in this way, I would be deemed a racist by the American news media. It prefers to maintain a paternalistic double standard in its coverage of black America, a lower standard." (ends quote).

Whites, Blacks and Murder

In 1995, the US Census Bureau published another insight into the race and crime issue in America, called Crime in the United States. This is a publicly available document published by an official US government agency. Combined with data taken from the US Census bureau, the figures make

fascinating reading:

Whites, Blacks and Murder: Data for 1995 Murder by race and age with additional details

Age group	Murders committed by Whites	Murders committed by Blacks	US pop. (000) Whites	US pop. (000) Blacks	Pop. Ratio White / Black	Per Capita Murder Rate Ratio Black/ White
9-12	12	17	12,074	2,349	5.140	7.3
13-16	492	723	11,677	2,301	5.075	7.5
17-19	1117	1675	8,697	1,647	5.281	7.9
20-24	1398	2067	14,528	2,669	5.443	8.0
25-34	1733	1711	34,027	5,475	6.215	6.1
35-44	1108	771	35,081	5,088	6.895	4.8
45-54	479	302	25,852	3,122	8.281	5.2
55-64	192	115	18,355	2,124	8.642	5.2
Total /average	6531	7381	160,291	24,775	6.470	7.3

Sources: *Crime in the United States (FBI), 1995, Table 2.6; and US population data from the US Census. FBI Figures available from the FBI website <http://www.fbi.gov/>*

Murder Victim - Offender Relationship by Race

	Race of offender: White	Race of offender: Black	Race of offender: Other	Race of offender: Unknown
White victims	4124	699	60	71
Black victims	281	4422	15	46
Other victims	50	44	153	6
Unknown race	21	10	-	30

Source: *Crime in the United States (FBI), 1995, Table 2.8.*

These figures mean that:

- Of 10032 total US murders in 1995, Blacks committed 5175 (51.6%) and Whites committed 4476 (44.6%).
- There were 1303 interracial murders (13% of total murders), of which 753 were committed by

Blacks (57.8% of interracial murders) and 352 were committed by Whites (27.0%).

- There were 699 murders in which Blacks killed Whites (53.6% of interracial murders) and 281 murders in which Whites killed Blacks (21.6%).
- The Black per capita murder rate was 7.6 times higher than the White per capita murder rate.
- The Black per capita interracial murder rate was 14.0 times higher than that for Whites.
- Blacks killed Whites at a per capita rate that was 16.2 times higher than the per capita rate at which Whites killed Blacks.

FBI Uniform Crime Report

The FBI Uniform Crime Report (also available at the FBI site listed above) makes a number of disturbing points: In 1995, Blacks accounted for 13% of the population; Amerinds for 2%, and Mexicans, Whites and all others (the FBI even includes Arabs as Whites) 85%. If the races were equal in their criminal behavior, then it could reasonably be expected that for any given category of crime, 85% of those arrested would be White and 13% of those arrested would be Black.

But that is not what is found in the FBI Uniform Crime Report.

Under the crime of burglary, 30.4% of arrestees are Black and 67.8% are White. The Black burglary rate 30.4 over 13, divided by the White burglary rate of 67.8 over 85, gives a figure of 2.93.

If these arrest records accurately record the commission of burglaries, that means that Blacks commit burglary at almost 3 times the rate of Whites.

Using the same methodology, the figures other crimes can also be broken down:

- Weapons violations are committed by Blacks at nearly 5 times the rate for Whites;
- Blacks are caught receiving or buying stolen property at nearly 5 times the rate for Whites;
- Blacks are involved in prostitution at almost 4 times the rate for Whites;
- Blacks are arrested for drug crimes at over 4 times the rate for Whites;
- Blacks are more than three times as likely as Whites to be caught at forgery, counterfeiting, and fraud, and almost three times as likely to be caught at embezzlement;
- Blacks are more than 3 times as likely to be thieves as Whites;
- Blacks are more than 4 times as likely to commit assault as Whites;
- Blacks are almost 4.5 times as likely to steal a motor vehicle;
- Blacks are more than 5 times as likely to commit forcible rape as Whites;
- Blacks are over 8 times as likely to commit murder as Whites;
- Blacks are more than 10 times as likely to commit robbery as Whites;
- Nearly 25% of all Black males between the ages of 20 and 29 are in jail or on probation - this does not include those wanted or awaiting trial;
- For all violent crimes considered together, Blacks are almost 5.5 times more likely to commit violent criminal acts than Whites; all this according to the FBI Uniform Crime Report.

Once again it is worth stressing that the FBI figures do not break down separate statistics for Central American immigrants, Mexicans, Arabs, or anybody else: if the FBI had included a separate category for these racial groups, the disparity between Black and White would be even larger.

Before the topic of race and crime in America is disposed of, it is worth emphasizing a few cardinal points from the FBI Uniform Crime Report:

- In 1988, there were ten cases of White men raping Black women, but Black men raped White women in 9,405 cases.
- White criminals attack Blacks only two per cent of the time.
- Of 629,000 interracial attacks recorded in 1985, fully 90 per cent were Black on White. That bears repeating. Ninety per cent of interracial attacks consisted of Blacks attacking Whites, not the other way around. This is worth repeating again, as the state of the media and the racial power balance has reached the point where much prominence is given to so-called "hate crimes" where Whites are seen to be attacking Blacks. In reality, the exact reverse is true: Blacks attack Whites in a ratio of 9 to 1 times; but because of the anti-White sentiment which has crept in as a result of the shifting demographics, this fact is not only ignored, but deliberately suppressed by the controlled media, even through it is freely available from the FBI for those who want to make the effort to go and get it.

Disenfranchisement

The exceedingly high criminality rate amongst American Blacks has ironically led to huge numbers of this racial group once again being disenfranchised. According to an Associated Press report of 23 October 1998, 1.4 million Black males were debarred from voting in American elections because of widespread laws in many states which prevent convicted felons from voting.

In total, thirteen percent of Black American men could not vote in the 1998 elections in that country because they were convicted felons, a report by Human Rights Watch and The Sentencing Project concluded. (Report: 1.4 million black men cannot vote because of felony, Associated Press, 23/10/98).

The survey showed that in the states of Florida and Alabama, the degree of disenfranchisement was at its highest: 33 per cent of all Black males in those states were formally and legally barred from voting.

Drugs and AIDS

Much play is also made of the American problem with drugs and AIDS, two social conditions that tend to go hand in hand, linked as they are to both sexual promiscuity and the sharing on intravenous drug needles amongst addicts. In this field as well, there is an unmistakable racial slant. According to the National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA) in America, as early as 1987, some 70 per cent of that country's intravenous (IV) drug addicts were Black or Hispanic (Time, 17 August 1987) - one of the factors, along with greater sexual promiscuity of these two Nonwhite racial groups - which accounts for the greater prevalence of the Acquired Immunization Deficiency Disease (AIDS) amongst these two groups.

The Changing Face of AIDS

TIME AUGUST 17, 1987

More and more victims are black or Hispanic

The face of AIDS in America is changing: it is getting younger, darker, more feminine. Stories like Doris White's are becoming common in inner-city ghettos: every day someone else who got high is getting sick. So are their lovers, and so are their children. Although nearly two-thirds of AIDS victims so far have been homosexual men, the rate of new infection among gays has declined. At the same time, the rate among blacks and Hispanics, particularly those who are intravenous drug users, is rising alarmingly. Medical experts warn that unless urgent actions are taken, AIDS may become a predominantly minority disease. That prospect is frightening not only to health officials but also to civil rights advocates, who fear a backlash of racism.

This past weekend the Centers for Disease Control in Atlanta held its first national conference on AIDS and minorities. According to CDC statistics, al-

though blacks and Hispanics constitute only 12% and 6% of the U.S. population, respectively, they currently account for a disproportionate 24% and 14% of the more than 39,200 reported AIDS cases in the U.S. For women with AIDS, the numbers are even more striking: some 52% of them are black and 20% Hispanic. Nearly 80% of all children with AIDS are either black or Hispanic.

While the largest percentage of minority AIDS victims have been homosexuals or bisexuals (40% for blacks, 49% for Hispanics), the growing infection rate among IV drug abusers threatens to alter those proportions. The National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA) estimates that 70% of the nation's 1.28 million IV addicts are black or Hispanic, and according to the CDC, about a third of AIDS cases among those minorities have been linked to drug abuse, in contrast to just 5% of cases among whites.

Aids is a disease of the promiscuous: this, combined with the massive needle based drug abuse amongst American Nonwhites, makes them one of the largest victim groups of the disease.

The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) in Atlanta, Georgia, reported in August 1998, that women aged 16 to 21 who entered the federally-funded Job Corps program between 1990 and 1996 were infected with HIV at younger ages and at higher rates than their male counterparts. (Reuters, 27 August 1998, U.S. says more HIV among young, disadvantaged women). Among the 350,000 young people who were tested, the rate of HIV-infection was 3 per 1,000 for women and 2 per 1,000 for men. The HIV-infection rate among Black women aged 16 to 21 was more than 5 per 1,000.

HIV prevalence was eight times higher among Black women than among Hispanic women and seven times higher among Black women than among young white women. (ibid).

Nonwhite Racial Mobilization

As soon as the numbers of a Nonwhite grouping in any White country reach a significant amount, they immediately form an openly racially exclusive interest group. These blatantly racially motivated groups are then fêted and welcomed by the politically correct establishment: but any attempt to form any sort of White lobby is met with instant condemnation and accusations of "racism" or "Nazism."

For example, in the American Congress, there is a formally established Black Congressional Caucus, open to Black members of congress only. Similarly there is a Hispanic Congressional Caucus, open to Hispanics only.

There is however no "White Congressional Caucus" - indeed, any White congressmen who might even think of suggesting such a thing would in all likelihood be run out of congress for being a "racist."

Yet the Black and Mexican congressmen can mobilize on racial grounds with impunity: on the contrary, not only are they not condemned, but the establishment actively seeks their support as a lobby group.

Other Examples

Other examples of open Nonwhite racial mobilization in America are legion, and cover everything from sport through to television. There is a nationally televised "Black Television" channel; a Black Miss America Contest, a Black Lawyers' Association, Black newspapers (the famous "Ebony") which are sold in all newsagents; and so on.

The contrast could not be more vivid: any White trying to set up a "White Television Channel", or a "White Miss America Contest" or a "White Lawyers' Association" would immediately stand accused of being a racist nut: yet once again the Nonwhite groupings can do such things with impunity.

There are "White" newspapers in America - a very few - but they stand no chance of being sold in any of the main newsagents along with the Black newspapers, and are thus extremely limited in circulation or impact.

Black History

An example of Nonwhite racial mobilization in the educational field has been the creation of "Black History" departments at all major American universities, once again funded and backed by the establishment. These are complete departments, including Professors of Black History, who specialize in nothing else but researching exclusively Black historical events.

While the study of racial history is by no means a bad thing (certainly it is, in the opinion of this author, the only worthwhile historical pursuit) the contrast is once again vivid: there is absolutely no chance that any university anywhere would set up a department of "White History"; much less appoint a "Professor of White History". Such a university would in all likelihood be closed down or have its

funding cut off immediately.

Anti-White Discrimination

The reason for this blatant anti-White (or pro-Black) discrimination is the very clear shift in racial power balance in America, caused directly by the shifting demographics of that country. This in itself should be as clear as an indicator to anybody that the nature of American society is changing away from an Euro-centric (White-centric) nature to that of a Black (or more likely, Hispanic)-centric society.

That this is happening comes as no surprise: it is in fact utterly predictable in the light of the changing racial make-up of America. Exactly the same thing happened to the original inhabitants of that continent, the Amerinds: now it is happening to the Whites who took over from the Amerinds.

"Whites are Cheats"

The level of impunity at which Nonwhites can operate in America was well illustrated by a speech given by the Black chairman of National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), Julian Bond, at that organization's annual conference in July 1998.

In his widely reported speech, Bond stated, to applause, that the Whites in America were "cheats" and were to blame for the lack of Black advancement in that country. Bond compared existing racial inequality to a football game in which the white team is ahead 145 to three and "owns the ball, the field, the goalposts, the uniforms and the referees. They have been cheating since the game began," he said. (Reuters, 07/12/98, Black leader says racism "alive and well" in U.S.)

The NAACP is a US government recognized organization which is one of the establishment's main players in the Civil Rights field in America. The then American Vice President, Al Gore, and Agriculture Secretary, Dan Glickman, were also speakers at the very same NAACP congress - an indication of its status within the American government.

Any White American politician who in public would accuse Blacks or Hispanics of being "cheats" would most certainly be instantly condemned and shunned by the Vice President of the United States of America. The fact that the chairman of the NAACP can say such things is yet another indication of how the racial power balance is changing in alignment with the shift in racial make-up in America.

Hispanics are also organized racially: they have the League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC). This overtly racial organization is fêed by all the main political groupings in America , who send their senior leaders to beg for votes at each annual meeting of LULAC.

White Flight

Detroit is one of the prime examples of the phenomena of White Flight in America. Since the 1960s, when Detroit first experienced large scale Black urbanization, that city has been subjected to major social upheaval in the form of deteriorating neighborhoods, misguided renewal projects, racial tensions and city bankruptcy.

In the summer of 1967, the city was the scene of severe Black riots. During this period, the population increased in the White suburbs, but declined drastically in the city itself. Detroit's population dropped from 1,203,399 in 1980 to 1,027,974 in 1990 and to an estimated 992,038 in 1994.

According to the 1990 census, Blacks constitute 75.7 percent of Detroit's population; whites, 21.6 percent; Asians and Pacific Islanders, 0.8 percent; and Amerinds, 0.4 percent. A large number of Hispanics class themselves as White on the census forms (it is a self classification system) and only 2.6 per cent of those living in Detroit claimed to be Hispanic. The true figure is probably higher.

White Flight has always accompanied an increase in the Nonwhite population: in 1968 only two major American cities, Washington DC and Charleston, had Black majorities. By 1990 more than 15 cities were predominantly Black, including Atlanta, Baltimore, Detroit, New Orleans, Newark, and Richmond. In all of these cases, Whites have fled the cities, leaving them to turn into Black ghettos.

Canada

The history of the racial balance in Canada serves as a perfect example of the power of normal, mostly peaceful, immigration to change the face of a land utterly within a few hundred years. Initially the Amerinds occupied the territory now known as Canada: they were however not beaten by force of arms, as were their cousins in the United States of America, but were simply pushed back by successive waves of White immigration.

Within two hundred years the face of Canada changed, along with its culture, heritage and all other manifestations of the previous Amerind settlement - changed irreparably by the shift in the racial make-up in the population.

It is therefore ironic that the process which destroyed Amerind culture in Canada is precisely the same process which, at the end of the 20th century, is busy displacing the White culture and civilization in Canada: successive waves of Black and Asian immigrants (combined with the racially mixed offspring produced by physical integration) are busy changing the face of Canada once again.

Minister of Multi-Culturalism

Canada even has a "minister of state for multiculturalism" formally added to the cabinet as early as 1972. In 1986, an affirmative action employment policy was adopted by the Canadian government through which preference is always given to any Nonwhite applicants above that of any similarly qualified White.

As is the case virtually everywhere in the modern White countries at the end of the 20th century, special allowances and privileges are made for Nonwhite races which are then specifically denied to Whites. In Canada, there are in excess of 600 "regional councils", which look after local Amerind affairs.

However, what makes these councils unique is that only Amerinds can be elected to them, and only Amerinds can vote for them: a super-racial discrimination which is officially endorsed by the Canadian government, who would never dream of organizing Whites only "regional councils" to "look after White interests."

Political Separation

The Canadian government has also given separate political rights to Amerinds: in March 1993, the Cree-Naskapi of Quebec and the Sechelt Band of British Columbia, became formally self-governing with municipal status and accountable to an "indigenous" only electorate.

Once again this sort of blatant racial mobilization would probably be the subject of a criminal prosecution if it was carried out by White Canadians. In 1999, a new treaty created another Amerind state, that of Nunavut in the eastern part of the Northwest Territories. This state, specifically created for Canadian Amerinds, is governed by its own legislative assembly, territorial court, and civil service.

Britain

In Britain, which by the end of the 20th century had a resident Nonwhite population of well over ten per cent of the entire population, the same issues which have confronted America have also reared their head: race and crime, White Flight and anti-White discrimination.

All of these social indicators are clear signs that in Britain the political power balance is shifting steadily away from the original White Westerners who have inhabited that land since the Late Paleolithic times: it is being surrendered to waves of new immigrants.

Race and Crime

In 1983, a commotion erupted in Britain when the London Metropolitan Police issued figures showing that twice as many street crimes were committed by Blacks as by Whites in that city. The statistics showed that of 19,528 London victims of robbery and other street crimes, 10,960 identified their assailants as Black. Of the rest, 5,262 of the offenses were blamed on Whites and 534 on mixed race criminals. (Sunday Times, 27 March 1983).

High crime rate for blacks in London

Argus Foreign Service
LONDON — Black people are more likely than whites to commit crime in London, particularly robbery, according to a Home Office report.

Crime wave row

Argus Foreign Service
LONDON — A new row is brewing here over the rise in violent crime committed by blacks in London.
A Conservative MP has urged Home Secre-

March 24 1983

The Argus, Monday November 7 1983

ple are more likely than whites to commit crime in London, particularly robbery, according to a Home Office report.

But it says only a small minority of any ethnic group is involved in serious offences such as robbery and acts of violence.

The phrase used in a study by the Home Office is that the number of blacks arrested, convicted or cautioned is "disproportionately high".

RATIO HIGHER

In recent years, between 14 and 17 percent of those arrested in the Metropolitan Police district for all kinds of crime were black. In 1981, about six percent of London's population was thought to be black.

The ratio of recorded offences to the size of the population aged between 10 and 20 was last year consistently much higher for the black population than for the white population in every district of the Metropolitan Police.

The Argus Thursday March

rise in violent crime committed by blacks in London.

A Conservative MP has forced Home Secretary Mr William Whitelaw to reveal the figures after they had been suppressed, as a matter of policy, by Metropolitan Police Commissioner Sir Kenneth Newman.

The last time statistics on violent robbery and theft by blacks were released was in 1981, when they caused an uproar.

The latest figures, released in response to a question by Conservative MP Mr Harvey Proctor, show that in Lambeth, which includes Brixton, eight out of 10 robberies and violent thefts were attributed to blacks.

Overall in London there was a three percent increase in robbery and violent theft. Within the total the proportion of black assailants rose from 55.4 to 57 percent.

Mr Proctor said the "softly, softly" approach recommended to police by Lord Scarman in his report on the 1981 riots in Brixton had "clearly not worked".

Black criminality in the United Kingdom.

Race Relations Act

In 1974, the British government introduced legislation called the Race Relations Act. Designed to prevent racial incitement, in practice it has led to the active suppression of freedom of speech in Britain: a person can be jailed for six months for daring to write, speak or suggest anything which may be construed as incitement in terms of that act.

The existence of the act is justified by its supporters by arguments to the effect that it is needed to prevent racial anarchy in the UK. This argument falls down on two points: firstly, there are no such restrictions in force in America and racial relations are no better or no worse there than in the UK, indicating that the law has had no effect in this regard; and secondly the only major incidents of racial conflict in the UK have been Black mobs who have rioted and burned down city centers in the UK.

As elsewhere, Blacks-only organizations abound in Britain, with the "Voice" newspaper, branding itself directly to the Black population, being widely distributed in all newsagents in the UK. If any White Briton had to try and get a "White Voice" newspaper distributed in Britain they would in all likelihood be prosecuted under the Race Relations Act, and would certainly not get a White newspaper distributed through the newsagents.



Black demonstration in Britain: the look on the face of the White policeman speaks volumes.

Majority of Racial Attacks in Britain are Black on White

One of the most commonly aired news items in Britain at the end of the 20th century was the supposed large number of racist attacks by Whites on Blacks, with one case, that of the Black murder victim, Stephen Lawrence, receiving world wide publicity in 1999.

However, according to the British Commission for Racial Equality, more Whites are the victims of race attacks than Asians and Blacks added together. (Daily Telegraph, London, 9 February 1999).

According to the CRE's own statistics, in the year 1997/1998, a total of 230,000 Whites were attacked by Nonwhites in racially motivated assaults in Britain, compared to 101,000 Asians and 42,000 Blacks

reporting racial attacks by Whites. The majority of racial attacks in Britain are therefore, in real and pro-rata terms, carried out by Nonwhites against Whites.

Majority of race victims are white

By Phillip Johnston
Home Affairs Editor

MORE white people claim to be victims of racially-motivated incidents than black or Asians, according to a new report by the Commission for Racial Equality.

The findings are based on official statistics drawn from the British Crime Survey and other sources suggesting that more than 230,000 white people said they had been the victims of a racial offence compared to 101,000 Asians and 42,000 black people.

The report highlighted the difficulty of defining a racially-motivated incident.

Many white people reported crimes such as robbery, in which the offenders were from an ethnic minority as "racial".

Sir Herman Ouseley, chairman of the CRE, said yesterday that the report was more about how people perceived motivation.

"We're saying that everyone has prejudice and everyone can be potentially involved in a crime or incident in which the victim may perceive it to be racially motivated."

Despite the large numbers who claimed to have been the victims of racially-motivated incidents, the police recorded only 13,016 such offences in the year to March 1997.

The CRE says that while the number of whites reporting racial motivation is greater, the proportion from the ethnic minority population is higher because they make up a smaller section of the population.

Police in Bradford last month reported that 52 per cent of the victims of racial incidents were white, 35 per cent Asian and nine per cent black.

TUESDAY FEBRUARY 9, 1999 9 THE DAILY TELEGRAPH

France

As the influx of North Africans into France has continued unabated, the issues of immigration and race relations have become important issues in France. High unemployment and several violent incidents in Nonwhite communities heightened hostility toward Nonwhite immigrants, resulted in the growth of an anti-immigrant party, the Front National.

Violence

The huge numbers of Muslims in France have created a serious security problem for that country, with Islamic extremists almost having a free run, being able to hide amongst the large Arab and North African population with relative ease. As a result France has been rocked by Islamic terrorism since 1995. In addition to this, huge swathes of Parisian suburbs have turned into Nonwhite gangland areas, marked by extreme social deprivation and crime.

Australia

In Australia, the rapid increase in Asian immigration during the last quarter of the 20th century has seen a marked increase in Asian gang criminality springing up in many of the major city centers, as the pattern of White Flight has also started to take effect on that continent.

When a group of Australians formed a political party which dared to oppose the growing displacement of the racial power balance, the One Nation party, they were immediately (and completely unjustifiably) branded as Nazis: even their private party membership list was stolen and published in the Australia-Israel Review, an Australian Jewish newspaper, with the sole purpose of intimidating those persons so named (Associated Press newswire, 9 July 1998, Australia Rightists List Published).

Anti-White Trends

Aboriginals are subject to all sorts of special treatment by the Australian government: they have a large number of organizations organized exclusively on Aboriginal racial lines, such as the Aboriginal Law Council and a host of others.

These blatantly racially exclusive organizations are fêted by the establishment - but when Whites in the One Nation Party dared to do exactly what the Aborigines had done - organize on a racial basis - that White party was attacked as being "racist" and a fierce propaganda campaign was launched against them.

Conversely, one can only imagine what the reaction would be if White Australian lawyers would set up a "White Law Council" in the same way that the establishment welcomed Aboriginal Law Society operates.

Land

In 1996, an Australian court ruling held that Aborigines have unlimited access to ancestral land even if it is occupied by non-Aborigines. At that stage the Aborigines numbered between 300,000 and 400,000, only two percent of the Australian population. The imposition of any such claims - and, at the end of the 20th century they were being considered quite seriously - would see as much as 80 per cent of Australia turned over to Aboriginal control, unless checked in some way.

While the Aborigines simply do not have the numbers to occupy such a huge territory, such a move would have disastrous economic and social consequences, particularly in the light of nature of

Aboriginal society.

Highest Crime Rate in the World

The Aborigines boast one of the highest crime rates of any racial group in the whole world, reflected in their imprisonment rate, which pro-rata is the highest anywhere. According to the Australian Institute of Criminology, the Aborigines, who make up only two percent of the country's population, account for 30 per cent of the inmates of the country's prison cells - a rate which is higher than American Blacks or New Zealand Maoris, two other groups identified by the Institute as having high imprisonment rates. (The Argus, 5 November 1982).

THE ARGUS, FRIDAY NOVEMBER 5 1982

Aborigines have highest jail rate in the world

Argus
Correspondent

CANBERRA. — Australia's Aborigines have the highest imprisonment rate of any racial group in the world, according to Australian researchers.

The Australian Institute of Criminology says Aborigines, who make up only two percent of Australia's population, occupy 30 percent of the country's prison cells.

The institute said this was a far higher rate of imprisonment than for black Americans or New Zealand's Maoris — groups which also had high imprisonment rates.

The director of the institute, Mr William Clifford, said the high im-

Australian Government to take new, urgent steps to improve the plight of the country's black minority.

The report follows the release last week of the recommendations of a parliamentary inquiry about improving the circumstances of Aborigines.

This report said \$200-million needed to be spent urgently to improve the living conditions of thousands of

Australia's overall imprisonment rate of 63.7 for every 100 000 compared favourably with most other countries, it said.

But when taken on a breakdown basis on Aboriginal and white inmates, Australia led the world in its imprisonment of its minority.

In Western Australia Aborigines were imprisoned at a rate of 1300 in 100 000, against 80 in

Zealand's Maoris — groups which also had high imprisonment rates.

The director of the institute, Mr William Clifford, said the high imprisonment rate for Australian blacks was because they lived in poor circumstances, had an unemployment level up to six times that of the whites and had a serious problem with alcohol addiction.

Urgency

The Institute's report, based on several years of research, is likely to increase demands on the

Aborigines

This report said \$200-million needed to be spent urgently to improve the living conditions of thousands of Aborigines in shanty towns on the edges of the major cities.

The institute's study said there did not appear to be any real relationship between the levels of crime in Australia and the rates of imprisonment for blacks.

Research suggested the imprisonment rates had a closer connection with the jail space available.

ment of its minority

In Western Australia Aborigines were imprisoned at a rate of 1300 in 100 000, against 80 in 100 000 for other races.

In New South Wales last year just under six percent of the state's prisoners were blacks.

Mr Clifford said: "I discovered in the United States, where blacks comprise an eighth of the total population, they account for 50 percent of the prison population."

Australian Aboriginal criminality gives them the highest jail rate in the world.

THE LESSON OF HISTORY

A civilization rises and falls along with its originating population: this is the great lesson of history which applies equally to any race in any country. Once the racial composition of a society changes, than that society itself changes.

The socio-demographic factors listed above are the most obvious indicators that the very nature of the White West is busy changing: it is becoming more violent; it is becoming poorer; and it is becoming more anti-White; it is becoming darker.

This is directly linked to the decline of the White people who originally made up that society, and their replacement by Nonwhite newcomers foreign to the culture and civilization.

There are four ways through which a nation's population can vanish:

1. through obliteration in war;
2. through their lands being swamped by labor driven immigration;
3. through physical mixing with newcomers; and
4. the second and third factors above combined with a decreasing birth rate amongst the original population.

Ancient Rome vanished because of the last three factors: now exactly the same scenario is being played out in Western Europe, North America and Australia. Unless checked, the demographic trends show conclusively that Whites will be a minority in all three of these continents by the year 2100. After

that, it is only then a question of time and Whites as a racial group will vanish completely.



A banner carried by a Black demonstration in Lusaka, Zambia, 1970.

The Vanishing Act

The notion of an entire race disappearing may seem incredible: but it is not. There are in fact at least four distinct racial groupings which have already vanished as a result of being absorbed into other racial groups which have occupied their territory during the course of history. One of these four groups was a White subrace.

1. The White sub race known as the Mediterraneans, were the race who originally occupied much of Europe and the Middle East. These were the people who built the very first European civilizations, and then afterwards helped build the civilizations in the Mesopotamian river valley and in Egypt. On the European continent the Mediterraneans were absorbed for the greatest part into the Alpine White subrace; the Proto-Nordics and then the invading Indo-European Nordic subraces.

This absorption occurred with relatively little disruption to the growth of the European continental civilizations, as all the mixing components were all part of the broader White race. In the Middle East and Egypt, however, the Mediterraneans were absorbed into the Arabic/Semitic peoples and the African Blacks: through this process they lost virtually all genetic contact with the rest of the White race. The Mediterranean subrace of the White race has then already vanished, along with the culture it created.

2. The Aztec peoples in Central America created an impressive, if somewhat cruel by Western standards, civilization in Central America. The arrival of the White Spaniards, who conquered the Aztecs through superior technology, did not destroy the Aztec people: they disappeared through racial mixing with the small number of Spanish conquerors, and the millions of Black slaves imported to the region by the Spanish. The Aztec Amerinds are the second distinct racial grouping to have vanished, along with the culture they created.

3. The Inca peoples of South America also created an impressive civilization in South America; they too were militarily beaten by a handful of White Spaniards using superior technology. The original Inca Amerinds have also to the largest part disappeared through integration with the small number of White Spanish conquerors and the millions of Black slaves imported into South America by the Spanish and Portuguese. The Inca Amerinds are the third distinct racial grouping to have vanished, along with the culture they created.

4. The Bushmen living at the southern most point of Africa, the Khoisan, who formed a distinct race by themselves quite separate from the Black tribes in Southern Africa, existed undisturbed at stone age hunter gatherer levels when the first White settlers arrived in the region. Conflict with the White settlers caused a few Bushmen to flee into the reaches of the Namib desert - where isolation has ensured that a tiny number remained intact - but the vast majority of Khoisan were absorbed into what became the mixed race Cape Colored population in South Africa, made up of Bushmen, a small number of Whites, Malay slaves, Indians and Blacks. The Khoisan of the Cape of Good Hope are the fourth distinct racial grouping to have vanished, along with the culture they created.

In each of these four cases, the civilization or cultures they had created, vanished with them. The lesson is clear: races do disappear, and once having done so, their civilization is extinguished with them.

Jews! Don't mix-in-match!

Intermarriage is suicide— national and personal. There is no surer way to destroy the Jewish people than by marrying out the faith. Unchecked, the present trend of young Jewish boys and girls to choose mates of other or no religious affiliation will slowly but surely wipe out the unique Jewish identity, the values and principles which contributed so much to contemporary culture and civilization and vanish from the face of the earth. The accumulated experiences of three thousand years, the rich heritage of a people, all of which are right in your mind, are being grossly ignored and cast aside. What a pity! What a waste! What a shame!

JEWISH IS BEAUTIFUL

Do you realize what you are throwing away? A way of life that has given to the world some of its highest ideals of faith and morality. A love for learning and education that has produced some of the world's greatest minds. A rock bound faith that has enabled an oppressed and persecuted people to endure and preserve its identity far longer than almost any other nation. Where else, in today's world, can you find such strength, such beauty, such nobility of spirit? What

can you hope to gain in exchange for the faith of your fathers? How can you so lightly discard that which your ancestors have so often sacrificed their lives for?

COME, LET US REASON TOGETHER

True, strange winds are blowing these days. Different values, different ideals. You may have troubling questions about Judaism and Jewishness. Perhaps you have not had sufficient opportunity to learn about your heritage, to understand and appreciate the riches it holds in store for you. So let us talk together. After all, this is not a matter for hasty decisions. We know. For over 30 years we have counseled many others with similar problems — and many have thanked us for the guidance we have been able to give them.

Obviously, we force no one to do anything against his will. We share no one. We merely talk — explaining, illustrating, illuminating — and the ultimate decision is yours.

ONE FINAL WORD

If this message affects you directly, please take it to heart. If it applies to a relative or friend, urge him to contact us, or contact us your-

self — we can probably help you determine how to deal with the problem. If it has no immediate application to you or yours, but you agree with our objectives, please help us in our efforts to bring this message to the broad American Jewish community. Advertising is expensive — but there is no better way to reach our feet or waverers in faith. Your contribution is tax deductible, and any amount will be welcome.

JEW! BE JEWISH!

Gentlemen: I applaud your efforts to strengthen the Jewish identity of our youth. Enclosed is my contribution in the amount of \$_____

Please send further literature on your activities

Name _____

Address _____

City _____

State _____ Zip _____

Make checks payable to Natl. Comm. for Furtherance of Jewish Education, 824 Eastern Parkway, Brooklyn, N.Y. 11213



Jews! Be Jewish!

a division of

National Committee for Furtherance of Jewish Education
824 Eastern Parkway, Brooklyn, N.Y. 11213 Phone (718) PE 8-4600

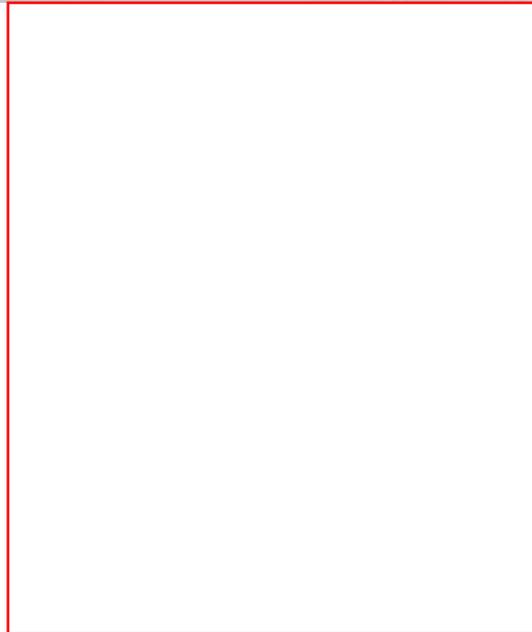
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The continued existence of all groups is under threat: here is an advertisement which was placed in the Jewish newspaper, The Jewish Press, of 26 January 1973, which quite correctly points out that the Jewish culture will disappear if Jews marry outside of the Jewish people. (exact below). The advertisement, placed by an organisation calling itself "Jews! Be Jewish" points out that mixing will lead to the disappearance of the Jews. The advertisement then draws the logical conclusion and urges Jews not to intermarry. This principle is absolutely sound if the Jews, or any other group for that matter, do not want to vanish.

Intermarriage is suicide – national and personal! There is no surer way to destroy the Jewish people than to marry out of the faith. Unchecked, the present trend of young Jewish boys and girls to choose mates of other or no religious affiliations will slowly but surely wipe out the unique Jewish identity. The values and principles which contributed so much to contemporary culture and civilization will vanish from the face of the earth. The accumulated experiences of three thousand years, the rich heritage of a people, all of which are rightfully yours, are being ignobly ignored and cast aside. What a pity! What a waste! What a shame!

The distortion in history has accompanied the shift in racial demographics: the poster (below left) was one of several widely distributed in American schools, claiming that the Punic general Hannibal was a Black African. A contemporary Roman bust of Hannibal (below right) shows however his true race. There are an ever increasing number of such distortions creeping into the teaching of history everywhere.



Ragnarok

The steady occupation of the modern White heartlands: Europe, Australia and North America by increasing waves of Third World Nonwhites are a direct replay of the events which led to the fall of the ancient nations.

In exactly the same way that the White nations of old vanished after their population make-up changed, so will Europe, North America and Australia disappear as their populations change from White into Nonwhite.

This is not a subjective opinion, or the wild ravings of an apocalyptic prophet of doom, it is just simply a fact.

The prospects for the future of Western civilization are therefore, bleak. Whites will be increasingly

squeezed out of their great cities, increasingly replaced by Third World Nonwhites and mixed race populations.

And so society will change its outer manifestations to reflect the new populations, and the last White created civilization will vanish along with the declining White population.

The ancient end of the world in Norse mythology was the Ragnarok, the fiery fall of the Gods in Valhalla: this fate seems destined to come true after all - unless there is a conscious and determined shift in the political, demographic and social trends prevalent in the West today.

[Sources](#)

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Europa: The History of the White Race

Acknowledgments and Sources

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Dedicated to all those brave men and women who have given their lives for their people.

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