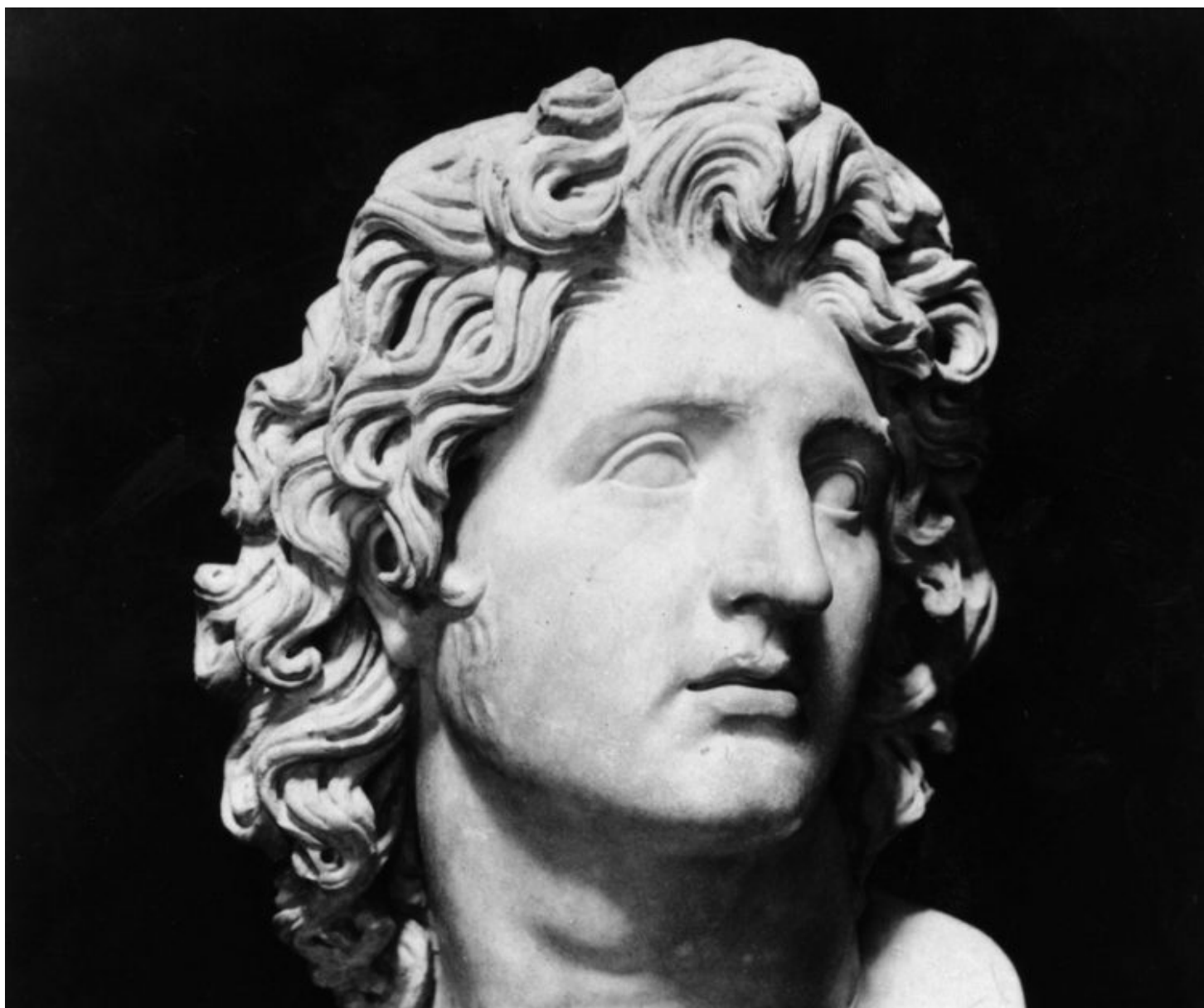


Who We Are #12 — Nordic Latins



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*Macedonian and Roman Empires Were Built by Nordics
Latin Founders of Rome Came from Central Europe*

THE LAST FIVE INSTALLMENTS in this series have dealt with the migrations of Nordic, Indo-European-speaking tribes from their homeland in southern Russia,

beginning more than 6,000 years ago and continuing into early historic times. In installment 11 we traced the fate of those Nordics who invaded Asia, conquering races which differed substantially from them and eventually being absorbed by those races, despite strong measures for self-preservation.

Only those Nordics who migrated westward, into Europe rather than into Asia, have left a significant genetic heritage. And only those who went northwestward predominated genetically in the long run. Along the shores of the Mediterranean the population density of non-Nordic natives was too high, and racial mixing eventually overwhelmed the invaders. We have already seen what happened to the Greeks.

Balkan Nordics

To the north and northeast of Greece, from the head of the Aegean Sea to the eastern shore of the Adriatic Sea, other Nordic peoples from beyond the Black Sea settled. Among these peoples were the Illyrians, the Dacians, the Thracians, and the Macedonians. Very roughly, the Illyrians occupied the territory comprising much of present-day Yugoslavia and Albania; the Dacians occupied the loop of the lower Danube, in what is now Romania; the Thracians occupied Bulgaria and European Turkey; and the Macedonians occupied the territory between Albania and Bulgaria, comprising the Macedonian provinces of Yugoslavia and Greece. This was a greatly varied territory, and consequently the Nordic inhabitants, though closely related in blood and culture, experienced varied fates.

As we noted in earlier installments, this territory was the site of the Mediterranean Neolithic culture known as Old Europe, which arose about 8,000 years ago and lasted until the first Nordic invasions, which came during the late fifth and early fourth millennia B.C. The early invasions were numerically thin, however, and resulted, in many parts of this Balkan area, in a situation with which we are already familiar: a Nordic warrior elite ruling masses of indigenous Mediterranean farmers and craftsmen.

Blending, Disunity

This situation led to a great deal of racial and cultural blending. The languages of the Nordics prevailed everywhere, but their blood and their religion became mixed with those of the Mediterraneans. For example, even as late as historic times, when further invasions had greatly reinforced the Nordic racial element in the area, the Thracian religion remained a strongly interwoven blend of Mediterranean Earth Mother elements and Nordic Sky Father elements. In the case of the Greeks the Nordic elements had prevailed, but in the case of the Thracians the Mediterranean elements, with their serpent-phallic symbolism and orgiastic rites, played a much larger role.

Both geography and the inhomogeneous racial pattern of the area worked against political unity, and the Balkan region, in ancient times just as in recent times,

remained balkanized. Only in Macedonia did a strong enough central authority arise and maintain itself long enough to have a major impact on the world beyond this corner of Europe.

Rise of Macedonia

Ancient Macedonia consisted principally of an inland, mountain-and-plateau region (Upper Macedonia); and a grassy plain at the head of the Thermaic Gulf (Gulf of Salonika), spanning the valleys of the lower Haliacmon (Vistritsa) and Axios (Vardar) Rivers. The Macedonian plain provided ideal conditions for the Nordic horsemen from the steppe of southern Russia.

In the middle of the 12th century B.C. the Dorian invasion swept through Macedonia on its southward course, and a large contingent of Dorians remained in the Macedonian plain, pushing much of the earlier population of Greeks, Thracians, and Illyrians into Upper Macedonia.

After a half-millennium of consolidation, the Macedonian kingdom was born. The first Macedonian king, Perdiccas I, unified the Dorians and the other tribes of the plain and brought them under his control around 640 B.C. Three centuries later King Philip II brought Upper Macedonia into the kingdom as well. The Macedonians in the fourth century B.C. still had the vigor which decadence had drained from the Greeks of the south, and Philip was able to establish Macedonian hegemony over the greater portion of the Balkan peninsula. In 338 B.C., in the battle of Chaeronea, he crushed the Greek armies, and Macedonia became a world power.

Alexander the Great

But it was Philip's son, Alexander, who used this power base to launch a new and vastly greater wave of Nordic conquest. In 336, at the age of 20, he succeeded his father as king of Macedonia. Within a decade he had conquered most of the ancient world.

Alexander's principal conquests lay in the Middle East, however, in the area treated in the previous installment: Egypt, Palestine, Syria, Asia Minor, Mesopotamia, Iran, Afghanistan, and the Aryan realm of northwest India. The greater portion of this territory had already been conquered by the Persians, under Cyrus the Great, two centuries earlier. By bringing it under common rule with Greece and Macedonia, Alexander created the greatest empire the world had yet seen.

Unfortunately, despite his military and organizational genius, Alexander did not understand the racial basis of civilization. He dreamed of a unified world-empire, with all its diverse races expressing a single culture and ordered by a single rule. At a great feast of reconciliation between Greeks and Persians at Opis, on the Tigris

River some 40 miles above Baghdad, in 324, when his conquests were complete, he stated his dream explicitly.

Forced Racemixing

And throughout his brief but uniquely dynamic career of empire-building, Alexander acted consistently with this dream. He adopted Asiatic customs and dress, blending them with the Macedonian lifestyle and requiring many of his officers to do the same. He left in power many of the native satraps of the conquered regions, after receiving their oaths of loyalty. And it was not Macedonian Pella, but Semitic Babylon which he chose as the capital of his empire.

Alexander preached racemixing, and he practiced it. During the conquest of Sogdiana (comprising the modern Uzbek and Tadzhik Republics of the U.S.S.R.) he took to wife the daughter, Roxane, of a local baron. Four years later, at Susa, in 324, he also married the daughter of the defeated Persian king, Darius II. On that occasion he bade his officers and men to imitate him; nearly a hundred of the former and 10,000 of the latter took native brides in a mass marriage.

Alexander's brides, and presumably those of his officers as well, were of noble Persian blood, which, even as late as the fourth century B.C., meant most of them were White — Nordic, in fact. But certainly most of the 10,000 brides of his soldiers were not; they were Asiatics: Semites and the bastard offspring of Semites and Aryans and a dozen other races.

Short-lived Empire

On June 13, 323 B.C., at Babylon, Alexander, not yet 33 years ears old, died of a fever — and with him died the unnatural dream of a mixed-race universal empire. Most of his Macedonian troops at once repudiated their Asiatic wives. His satraps began revolting. The various plans he had set in motion for homogenizing the culture and government of his vast realm became sidetracked.

Elements of Alexander's empire survived long after his death. In Egypt, for example, the Macedonian Ptolemaic dynasty lasted three centuries; Queen Cleopatra was not an Egyptian by blood, but a Macedonian. And in the east, after the breakup of the empire, local rulers claimed descent from Alexander, even as late as modern times.

But the far-flung empire itself had no natural unity, no unity of blood or spirit; and even if Alexander had lived long enough to impose an artificial unity of coinage and dress and language and custom, it would still have required the strength of his unique personality to hold it together. And it is well that the empire died with him; otherwise it might have sucked the best blood out of Europe for centuries, in a vain effort to maintain it.

Lost Opportunity

The attractions of the vast and rich Orient for one Nordic conqueror after another are obvious. What is unfortunate is that none made racial considerations the basis of his program of conquest — and it could have been done.

Alexander, for example, could have laid the foundations for a Nordic empire which could have stood against the rest of the world — including Rome — forever. The Macedonians and the Greeks shared common blood and had similar languages (ancient Macedonian was an altogether different language from modern Macedonian, which has its roots in the sixth century A.D. conquest of Macedonia by Slavic tribes). If, before invading Asia and defeating the Asian armies, Alexander had devoted his energies to forging just these two peoples into a unified population base, casting out all the alien elements which had accumulated in Greece by the latter part of the fourth century B.C.; and if, while conquering Asia, he had carried out a policy of total extermination — then he could have colonized Asia with Nordic settlements from the Indus to the Nile, and they could have multiplied freely and expanded into the empty lands without danger of racial mixing.

But Alexander did not cleanse Greece of its Semitic merchants and moneylenders and its accumulated rabble of half-breeds, and he chose to base his Asiatic empire on the indigenous populations instead of on colonists. And so the Greco-Macedonian world, despite its uninterrupted prosperity and its maintenance of the appearance of might after Alexander's death, continued its imperceptible downward slide toward oblivion.

Italian Prehistory

The focus of history shifted to the west, to the Italian peninsula. Before we can look at Italian history, however, we must temporarily return to prehistory.

In the seventh millennium B.C. the Neolithic Revolution arrived in the Italian peninsula, and a population base of Mediterranean race was established there. By the end of the second millennium, however, Mediterranean Italy had given way to a mixed Nordic- Mediterranean Italy. Over a period of at least 2,000 years groups of Nordic invaders had been coming over the Alps from central Europe and around the eastern end of the Alps from Illyria, on the opposite shore of the Adriatic Sea. Just as in prehistoric Greece, a gradual Nordicization took place, first cultural and then racial. The earliest Nordics imposed their Indo-European languages and elements of their solar religion and patriarchal social institutions on the Mediterraneans. As later waves of invaders swept down on the peninsula they reinforced the earlier Nordic cultural influences and added new infusions of Nordic blood.

Arrival of the Latins

In the ninth century B.C. the last prehistoric wave of Nordic invaders arrived. They were the Latini, or Latins. Their origin appears to have been that portion of Europe

around the middle Danube, Bohemia or Moravia though, of course, their ancestors had even earlier come from the ancient Nordic heartland in the east.

The Latins settled in the western coastal plain of central Italy, just south of the Tiber River, in the region which bears their name: Latium. They had a variety of neighbors. In the Apennine valleys to their northeast, east, and southeast lived the Sabines, Acquiains, and Volscians, respectively. Other tribes in nearby sections of the Apennines were the Umbrians, the Marsians, and the Sabellians. All these tribes were substantially Nordic and, together with the most recently arrived Latins constituted the Italic block of related tribes.

To the south of Latium, in the coastal region of Campania (the area around Naples), lived the Oscans, a Mediterranean tribe which had so far experienced relatively little interaction with any of the northern invaders.

Etruscans

And in the western coastal plain north of the Tiber River, extending as far northward as the Arno River, lived another Mediterranean people, the Etruscans. Scholars have had a great deal of difficulty in their attempts to translate Etruscan inscriptions. The language is non-Indo-European and appears to be, like Basque, one of the very rare instances of the survival of an indigenous Mediterranean language in Europe into historic times.

The Etruscans seem to have experienced some early Indo-European influences before their contact with the Latins, however; their religion, for example, exhibits a mixture of Nordic and Mediterranean elements, with their chief deity, Tinia, being an Indo-European-style storm god, much like the Latins' later chief deity, Jupiter.

The Etruscans were undoubtedly the first civilized people in Italy. Like other Mediterraneans they had a strong mercantile instinct, and their wealth gave them an advantage over their rude, warring neighbors. In the eighth century they began expanding, establishing a number of new colonies, both along the Tyrrhenian coast and on Corsica.

Also in the eighth century the Greeks established their first coastal colonies in southern Italy.

Founding of Rome

The Latins, meanwhile, seem to have been spending most of their energies fighting with their Nordic neighbors in and around Latium — although, according to tradition, they did take time out to found the city of Rome (on April 21, 753 B.C., at about eight o'clock in the morning: so says Plutarch).

Just as the Dorians had been able to conquer the Achaeans, so were the Latins soon able to gain the ascendancy over their earlier arrived (and, hence, more racially

mixed) neighbors. The Sabines (or, at least, the Sabine women) were one of the first Latin conquests.

But during the sixth century those Latins living in Rome came under the influence of their Etruscan neighbors and were ruled by a series of Etruscan kings.

The last of these Etruscan kings, Tarquinius Superbus, was deposed and expelled from Rome by the Latins in 509 B.C., the traditional date for the establishment of the Roman Republic.

Rome's Rise

For the next century the Latins of Rome carried on intermittent warfare with both the Etruscans to the north and their fellow Latins in the other cities of Latium. By the beginning of the fourth century the Romans had become the dominant power in central Italy, and the Etruscan danger had subsided, although it was 338 B.C. before the Romans had subdued the last of their warlike fellow Latins. (In 82 B.C. the Roman dictator Sulla achieved a final solution of the Etruscan problem by ordering a general massacre.)

At the beginning of the Roman Republic the Romans and other Latins were a racially and culturally mixed people. The invading Nordics had absorbed some Mediterranean blood, and their religion and customs had also been affected by Mediterranean influences. The Latin ruling class, however, and to a lesser extent the bulk of the Latin people, still retained strong Nordic characteristics, in both blood and culture.

In the next installment in this series we will look in detail at the subsequent history of Italy from a racial viewpoint.