



IRELAND'S ERA OF STONE CROSSES: The Cross of the Scriptures at Clonmacnois, Ireland, shows scenes of the life of Christ. This side shows Christ as the "good shepherd," a popular depiction of Jesus. This cross is also known as King Flann's Cross, Flann Siana being a prominent king of Tara and high king of Ireland. It is made of a single stone and is 10 feet tall. The cross was erected by Abbot Colman for Flann, who died in A.D. 916. Arthur Kingsley Porter writes in *The Crosses and Culture of Ireland*: "The rise of the art of sculptured stone crosses in precisely [the] troubled age of the Viking invasions is [not] difficult to explain. . . . [T]he development of the new art of sculpture corresponds with the decline of illumination. I fancy that the constant pillaging of monasteries by the Danes may have forced the Kelts into a form of artistic expression not so easily destroyed by a raiding party. A stone cross is not conveniently either burned or stolen." Between A.D. 832 and A.D. 1163, Clonmacnois was plundered by the Vikings eight times and attacked by its Irish enemies 27 times. **ON THE COVER:** On our cover this issue is a collage of images from Irish history. The main figure is Gen. Michael Collins in military garb. He is flanked on the right by the face of St. Patrick from the statue at Tara. On the left are a collection of stone crosses from Clonmacnois.

Ireland

AND THE WORLD'S LONGEST WAR

IT HAS BEEN SAID THAT THE IRISH SAVED WESTERN CIVILIZATION, and it is true that they are largely responsible for keeping the flame of the Greeks and Romans going during the dark ages, and thus preserving our civilization. But Ireland's greatest export in recent times has been people. In New Zealand and South Africa, North and South America and throughout Europe the Irish presence has been felt, influencing the racial make-up of at least five continents. This article by Rhodesian Arthur Kemp, taken from his epic tome *March of the Titans: A History of the White Race*, deals with Ireland's long struggle with England for independence and self-determination. Some say it is history's longest war.

BY ARTHUR KEMP

Ireland is of importance for remaining the site of one of the longest running wars in history, with the white Irish fighting with the white Britishers on and off for over 500 years. This, combined with its massive emigration history, makes Ireland more than worthy of study.

The island of Ireland was, like Britain, initially inhabited by tribes of Old Europeans and proto-Nordics. These people were either overwhelmed or assimilated by the first Indo-European invaders to reach the island in the first millennium B.C. The Kelts 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 "Irene" in a Greek poem dating to 450 B.C. and by the names of Hibernia and Juverna by various classical writers).

Great megalithic underground tombs and aboveground 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.

According to Irish folklore, the pre-Kelts and the Kelts established four major kingdoms, known in the Gaelic language as Nemedians, Fomorian, Firbolgs and Tuatha Dé Danann. The ancient names of Ireland are numerous and include Banba, Fola and Eiré.

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 Gaelic Celtic tribe, the Scots, left Ireland for reasons unknown. They settled in the far north of Britain and eventually gave their name to Scotland.

Other Irish Kelts 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 (A.D. 428-63), Patrick, who may have been a Gaul or may have been a Romanized British missionary, entered Ireland in an attempt to convince the pagan Celtic natives to give up their traditional Indo-European religions.

Patrick and other missionaries of his time [Auxilius, Secundinus and Iseminus, e.g.] were not, as is commonly believed, completely successful.

Nonetheless Patrick was successful in ensuring that Christianity became entrenched and become the dominant—and virtually the only—religion a century after his death in 461. [In all probability, Patrick and his fellow missionaries were proto-Culdees, that is, forerunners of the Céili Dé, or Celtic Church. They were not under the pope.—Ed.] In the 6th century, extensive monasteries were founded in Ireland, and it was from these centers that missionaries were sent all over the known world, including back to Britain when that land fell under pagan [polytheistic] Germanic rule.

RAIDS AND SETTLEMENTS

During the 8th century, Ireland, along with almost all of France and Britain, was thrown into confusion and panic by Viking invasions. The Vikings were particularly fond of raiding Ireland, finding the Keltic tribes generally too busy fighting with one another to offer organized resistance. [Also, the monks were pacifistic and easy pickings.—Ed.] 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 high king, Brian Boru, decisively defeated a large Norse Viking force at the Battle of Clontarf, near Dublin, in 1014, on Good Friday.¹

The establishment of the Viking settlements created the first major population shift in Ireland since the Keltic invasions: a fresh wave of Indo-European Nordic blood was settled in Ireland, adding to the already overwhelming Nordic/Keltic/Old European racial characteristics of the Irish.

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 Pope Adrian IV.

The authenticity of this 1155 order has long been called into question, but the upshot was, that by 1171, an English army had entered Ireland in support of a deposed local Irish king, Diarmaid Mac Murchada, of the Irish kingdom of Leinster, who had been forced into exile by High King Ruaidri mac Tairrdelbach Ua Conchobair.

In 1172, Henry gave permission to Norman lords (at this stage Normandy and England were one united kingdom) to settle portions of Ireland. In this way yet more Viking descendants (the Normans had themselves originally been Viking settlers in France) took up residence in Ireland.

Quickly they struck up a rapport with their distant racial cousins already in Ireland, and 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.

NORMAN-IRISH ALLIANCES FORBIDDEN

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 coalescing into 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 comes 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.

In 1494, the English soldier and diplomat Sir Edward Poynings was appointed by the English monarch to look after and extend English interests in Ireland.

Acting on royal authority, Poynings 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, Poynings introduced the act known as the Poynings Law, which made any law passed by the Irish Parliament invalid until the English king had given his assent in writing.

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 REFORMATION

The English King Henry VIII had overthrown the Roman Catholic Church in England—now he attempted to extend this to Ireland [where Roman Catholics had long since displaced the Culdees—Ed.].

The Roman Catholic monasteries were disbanded and a great many destroyed—much of the riches they had hoarded was distributed among 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 stability. In 1541, the Irish Parliament declared him king of Ireland in recognition of this achievement.

Although the English Queen Mary was Catholic (and she tried hard to contain the Anglicans in England), she was also the first British monarch to begin the large-scale colonization of Ireland by English settlers. At first conciliatory toward the Irish, a rebellion in Ulster led by the Irish chieftain of that re-



gion, 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 re-conversion 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, great hatred against the English was aroused amongst the Irish. Villages, crops and cattle were destroyed to try to root out Irish resistance, and thousands of natives were executed out of hand. When English soldiers fell into Irish hands, they could therefore expect no mercy, and many were tortured in their 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.

During the reign of the King James I, English law was declared the sole law of the entirety of Ireland—some 100 Irish chieftains were forced to flee Ireland and went to Rome, where they sought the protection of the pope in 1607.

Shane O'Neill and Elizabeth I

It was not until the reign of Henry VIII that England began to reassert its dominance over Ireland, with the idea of bringing the monasteries and church under control of the king. Independence-minded Irish Chieftain Shane O'Neill, however, remained a long-standing problem for the English during the drawn out Tudor re-conquest of Ireland (about 1569-1583). The English sought to pacify Irish chieftains by assigning them English titles on the condition that they recognize English overlords and support English interests. This worked well for a single generation, but English titles were always passed to the eldest son of a chief, whereas in Ireland, chieftains were generally elected. Shane O'Neill was the younger son of a chieftain, but did not inherit his father's earldom. This instigated a series of clan wars. After one of his brothers died in battle, the rightful heir (said the English) was a young boy whom the English sought to protect. Meanwhile, Shane was alternately making alliances and war on surrounding clans. When Elizabeth I came to the throne, she attempted to mollify Shane. He traveled to England and negotiated with her (above) but, on his return to Ireland, the political situation deteriorated and England's relationship with Shane worsened. After an attempt to poison him failed, open war broke out. Shane won several important victories over Scottish clans in the region but, under Sir Henry Sidney, a lord of Ireland, a concerted effort was made to bring tribes hostile to Shane into the English fold. He was eventually defeated at the Battle of Fassetmore and slain by the MacDonnells of Antrim.

ORIGINAL SOURCES: HERITAGE-HISTORY.COM, LIBRARYIRELAND.COM, WIKIPEDIA

The lands of these chieftains—six counties in the north—were 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

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 British 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 cooperation 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.

In 1649, the English Puritan leader Oliver Cromwell invaded Dublin. With an army 10,000 strong, he retook Dublin Castle, executing all 2,000 patriots 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 cautious attempts to resuscitate the Catholic Church in that land. Under James, 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 Derry (which they called Londonderry), which James attempted to capture with his new Irish Catholic army. James's army did not however have any



KING JAMES II OF ENGLAND

Wanted Catholicism rejuvenated in Ireland.

artillery and could not break down the city walls, and Protestant 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 defeated an Irish army at the town of Aughrom and Limerick was forced to surrender.

THE DESTRUCTIVE PENAL LAWS

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 crippling poverty.

The most important effect of these laws was 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.

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 oppres-

sive, anti-Catholic legislation.

The outbreak of the French Revolution sparked off a rebellion in Ireland—in 1798 the Society of United Irishmen led a revolution that 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, the stage had been set for a long-lasting and bloody duel between the Irish and the English—a conflict that would last to the 21st century.

UNION BETWEEN IRELAND & GREAT BRITAIN

The British Prime Minister William Pitt the Younger enacted the union of Great Britain and Ireland in an attempt to strike a balance between the continual Roman Catholic Irish rebellions and the Protestant minority in Ireland.

The official union of Great Britain and Ireland was officially proclaimed on January 1, 1801. In exactly 121 years it would be dissolved. The union was two years old when the first rebellion broke out. In 1803, the bold young Robert Emmet, a poet and orator, led a brief uprising that was easily suppressed. He was, after giving a great speech, hanged and beheaded, although he avoided being drawn and quartered, a punishment the English reserved for those they deemed traitors. [See pages 15-19 for more on Emmet.—Ed.]

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.

THE SO-CALLED POTATO FAMINE

During the five years from 1845 to 1850, the potato crop in Ireland failed. This led to a disastrous forced 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 million during this five-year period. [TBR March/April 2003.—Ed.]

The Irish nationalists rejected the Anglo-Irish union. In 1867, another revolt broke out in Dublin and Kerry, which



Ireland & the Great Hunger

The Irish potato famine, also known as the “great famine” and the “great hunger,” was a famine in Ireland which started in 1845 and lasted—depending on the region—until as late as 1852. It led to the death of approximately 1 million people through starvation and disease. A further 1 million are thought to have emigrated as a result of the famine. Some scholars estimate that the population of Ireland was reduced by 20% to 25%. The famine was so bad it entered folk memory and became a rallying point for various nationalist movements. Modern historians regard it as a dividing line in the Irish historical narrative, referring to the preceding period of Irish history as “pre-famine.” The cause of the famine was a fungal disease commonly known as late blight but the British confiscation of food exacerbated the disaster. Although blight ravaged potato crops throughout Europe during the 1840s, the impact and human cost in Ireland—where a third of the population was entirely dependent on the potato for food—was made worse by a host of political, social and economic factors. Cecil Woodham-Smith, an authority on the Irish Famine, wrote in *The Great Hunger: Ireland—1845-1849* that “[N]o issue has provoked so much anger or so embittered relations between the two countries (England and Ireland) as the indisputable fact that huge quantities of food were exported from Ireland to England throughout the period when the people of Ireland were dying of starvation.” In fact, Ireland remained a net exporter of food during the five-year famine and tons of foodstuffs were shipped under English guard from the most famine-stricken parts of Ireland. Above is shown a portion of a multi-statue monument in Dublin, dedicated to the victims of the great hunger.

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 [meaning “ourselves alone”—Ed.], 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 Protestant groups, and by 1914 civil war seemed inevitable. The outbreak of World War I 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 (a force of Dublin citizens), the Irish Volunteers (a national defense body) and Sinn Fein, draw together, with their military wings, and organize what

became known as the Easter Uprising.

At midday on April 24, 1916, about 2,000 Irish nationalists seized control of the Dublin Post Office and other strategic points in the city. The leaders of the rebellion proclaimed Irish independence and, by April 25, controlled most of Dublin city.

The British launched a counteroffensive on April 26, 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 April 29, 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. 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.

Although unsuccessful, the rebellion had been supported



During the Easter Rising of 1916, Dublin’s general post office (GPO) served as the headquarters of the revolt leaders. The assault of the British forces extensively damaged the building and it was not repaired until the Irish Free State government took up the task some years later. The original columns outside are still pocked with bullet-marks. The building has remained a symbol of Irish na-

tionalism and Irish national history. Michael Collins and Irish nationalist Patrick Pearse fought side-by-side against the British in the GPO even though Collins had long warned that seizure of public buildings was a foolish strategy. He instead recommended—and later used—guerrilla tactics against the British occupiers. Above, a crowd gathers outside the scarred post office.

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.

DE VALERA BECOMES PRESIDENT

With such overwhelming support, the Sinn Fein members of Parliament met in Dublin in January 1919 and declared Ireland's independence, appointing de Valera as president.

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 ministers or parliamentarians against the bill and against the 64 who were in favor. De Valera resigned as president and was replaced by the founder of Sinn Fein, Arthur Griffiths.

Michael Collins, the Irish patriot who had virtually single-handedly 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 treaty 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 into 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 created the republic of "Eire." De Valera was elected prime minister.

Officially, Ireland remained neutral during World War II, but in reality the island split—many Irish worked in British factories, replacing British men called up for active service, while



The Death of Michael Collins

On the road to Bandon, at the village of Béal na mBláth, a column of soldiers headed by Gen. Michael Collins stopped to ask directions. The man they asked, Dinny Long, was a member of a group at odds politically with Collins. Long prepared an ambush. When the column of men commanded by Collins returned via the road to Béal na mBláth, five ambushers on the scene opened fire. Collins was killed in the subsequent gun battle. He was the only fatality in the action. Under the cover of an armored car, Collins' body was loaded into a touring car and driven back to Cork. Collins was 31 years old when he died. There is no agreement as to who fired the fatal shot. The most recent authoritative account suggests that the shot was fired by Denis ("Sonny") O'Neill, an IRA fighter for a rival faction and a former British army marksman. This is supported by eyewitness accounts of participants in the ambush. O'Neill was using dum-dum ammunition, which disintegrates on impact and which left a gaping wound in Collins' skull. Collins' men brought his body back to Cork where it was then shipped to Dublin because it was feared the body might be stolen in an ambush if it were transported by road. His body lay in state for three days in Dublin City Hall where tens of thousands of mourners filed past his casket to pay their respects.



IRA SWITCHES TACTICS

This photo taken in 1984 shows the damage at the Grand Hotel in Brighton, England, following a bomb blast orchestrated by the Provisional Irish Republican Army (PIRA). Five people were killed, but British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher survived. During the 1970s, the PIRA had begun attacking British targets in England, including “soft” or civilian targets, in an attempt to get the British to acquiesce to their demands for full Irish independence. Eventually this led to a backlash against the tactics, most Irish believing the shedding of civilian blood—even though British—was a line that should not be crossed. After the mysterious attacks on the Pentagon and the World Trade Center in September of 2001 killed some 3,000 people, the IRA announced it would no longer be in the terrorism business.

others 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 that the Irish actions were motivated more out of a dislike of the British rather than support for the Germans.

On Easter Monday, April 18, 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 British Commonwealth of Nations.

IRA REFOUNDED

Never formally disbanded, the IRA was revived during the postwar period as violence between Catholics and Protestants in the six counties of Northern Ireland increased during the tumultuous 1960s.

The IRA then launched a new war to drive the British out of Northern Ireland. The issue was not as clearcut 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.

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 became targets. During the late 1990s, the warring factions were brought to a table and the beginnings of a settlement were thrashed out.

Despite a small influx of non-Whites, Ireland has to a fairly large degree kept its racial homogeneity in the early 21st century. Nonetheless, the issue of Third World non-white immigration does confront Ireland. ♦

ENDNOTES:

1 The Battle of Clontarf was a hollow victory for the Irish king, Brian Boru, along with many of his sons including Murchad and Murrough, and his grandson Turlough, were all slain.—Ed.

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