

- 40b. “Ancient” Greece. *The Persian king Cambyses*. Cambyses, King of Persia, was the son and the heir of king Cyrus. His reign duration equals 8 years (the alleged years 530-522 B.C., qv in [72], page 193).

COMMENTARY. A shift of 1810 years forward places the reign of Cambyses right in the epoch of 1280-1288 A.D. We see that 1289, or the last reign year of Charles II of Naples, coincides with the end of Cambyses’ reign in 1288 A.D., which gives us a very good concurrence indeed, despite the difference in reign durations (4 and 8 years, respectively).

It would be apropos to dwell on the list of the mediaeval Achaean princes of 1205-1460 A.D. ([195], page 379). Two rulers from this list – namely, Charles of Anjou, the Neapolitan king, and Charles II of Naples, have already been identified as the two famous “ancient” Persian (P-Russian?) heroes – the kings Cyrus and Cambyses. It is possible that other mediaeval Achaean princes became reflected as phantoms in the “ancient past”. It is up to the reader to carry on with the study of this particular subject.

It is remarkable that the second and the third prince from the Achaean list, namely, Gottfried de Villehardouin (1210-1218 A.D.) and Gottfried II (1218-1245 A.D.) should bear the name Gottfried, which may be a combination of the words Goth and TRD (TRT) – possibly “Tartar”, which would make the name Gottfried translate as “Tartar Goth” – which makes perfect sense, since it was the Goths and the Tartars who fought in the war of the XIII century A.D. (see a more detailed description in CHRON5).

Let us also point the name “Tarent” in the name of Philipp II von Tarent (1307-1313 A.D.) - once again an obvious association with the “ancient” TRN (Trojans, Troy, Franks, Tarquins etc). We only encounter this name once in the entire Achaean list, and it isn’t in a random place, either, but rather just where we expect it to be – in the immediate temporal vicinity of the XIII century A.D. Let us now resume the biographical comparison of Charles II and Cambyses.

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- 41a. *The Archons of Athens in the XII-XIII century A.D.* We find out that the institution of the Athenian Archons did in fact exist and flourish in mediaeval Greece of the XII-XIII century A.D.

([195], pages 157 and 188(5)). In particular, the cities of Thebes and Athens would “keep taking care of the issues of their communities ruled by the Frankish Archons” ([195], page 157).

- 41b. “Ancient” Greece. *The Archons of Athens*.

Under Cambyses the Persian, in the alleged year 528 B.C., the institution of the “ancient” Athenian Archons comes to existence in “ancient” Greece, and it covers the period until the alleged year 293 B.C. ([72], pages 204-205, table VII). Thus, we get a mutual superimposition of two well-known institutions after an 1810-year shift – that of the “ancient” Athenian Archons and the mediaeval Frankish Archons of Athens.

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- 42a. *The “second king of Naples” in the XIII century A.D.* Charles II of Naples is also the ruler of the Latin kingdom ([195]).

- 42b. “Ancient” Greece. *Cambyses the Persian as the “second king”*. The “ancient” name of Cambyses can be regarded as the sum of the words “Cam” and “Bys”, the former being a possible version of the word Khan. As for the latter – “Bys” may be a variant of the Frankish “bis” (“repetition”, or “the second”), which is obviously the title of Charles II of Naples. Since Cambyses is an “ancient” Persian (PRS), or a mediaeval Frenchman, Frank or P-Russian, the French translation of “Bys” (“bis”) as “the second” as we suggest it is quite in order. The Latin meaning of “bis” is just the same, by the way.

9.

THE MEDIAEVAL FREDERICK OF SICILY AS THE “ANCIENT” KING DARIUS

Moving forwards along the “ancient” part of the time axis, we find the successor of Cambyses – the great Persian king Darius I Hystaspis (the alleged years 522-486 B.C. ([258], page 169)). As for mediaeval history – we see Frederick II of Sicily as the successor of Charles II of Naples.

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- 43a. *The Middle Ages in the XIV century A.D.* Frederick II of Sicily. His reign duration equals roughly 35 years (the alleged years 1302-1337 A.D., qv in

[195], page 188(37)). He died in 1337 ([195], page 243). In 1302 Frederick II signs a truce with his enemy Charles II of Naples, thus acting as his de facto successor, whereas Darius I, his phantom double, acts as the successor of Cambyses. Frederick II is in direct relation to Greece, since he was proclaimed the leader of the Athenian Duchy ([195], page 214).

One has to be aware that what we are studying now is one of the murkiest epochs in mediaeval Greek history. As a result of this, the data provided by F. Gregorovius in [195] differ rather drastically from the ones offered by J. Blair in [76] – not merely in what concerns the reign durations of Neapolitan and Sicilian kings, but also their very order of succession! We shall adhere to the fundamental work of F. Gregorovius, since it is specifically dedicated to the epoch that interests us and contains references to many mediaeval documents that aren't reflected in Blair's rather concise chronological manners at all.

■ 43b. *“Ancient” Greece. Darius I Hystaspis, King of Persia.* The famous king Darius I Hystaspis had ruled for 36 years between the alleged years 522 and 486 B.C. ([76] and [258]) – virtually as long as Frederick II, who had ruled for 35 years. We see a very good correlation in reign durations.

44a. *The name Friedrich (Frederick) transcribed as Fr-Daric or Fadrique in the XIV century A.D.* The name of Friedrich is transcribed as Frederic in mediaeval sources – Fr + Deric, or Fr + Daric (FR + DRC without vocalizations). Catalan documents called him Fadrique ([195], page 243).

■ 44b. *The “ancient” Greece. The name Darius and the word “daric”.* The “ancient” name Darius is very similar to the mediaeval name Fadrique. Furthermore, it is considered that “the official legal tender and token money of the ancient Persia... was the golden Daric” ([766], page 88). The name of King Darius may have become reflected in the name of the coin, in which case the mediaeval Fadrique and the “ancient” Daric become two

names of the same person. The mediaeval Catalans must have called their king Fadrique, where as the “Persians” (PRS = the Franks = the French = the P-Russians) would call him Darius, or Daric. We should also note that the name Darius may be the reverse reading of the word Horde.

10.

MEDIAEVAL MARGARET AS THE “ANCIENT” MARDONIUS

We have to reiterate that the identification we're referring to in the heading has to be interpreted as follows: some *real* mediaeval character became described by certain mediaeval scribes as a woman called Margaret, and by others as a man called Mardonius. These chronicles were subsequently misdated in the XVI-XVII century and travelled backwards in time as a result, giving us the phantom reflection of “Mardonius the Persian”.

45a. *The famous ruler called Margaret in the XIV century A.D.* The famous Lady Margaret, a hereditary ruler of Achaia, is the de facto co-ruler of Frederick II ([195]). Her name may well have figured as “Margareta Donna” (Lady Margaret), which could have transformed into “Mardonius” later on.

■ 45b. *“Ancient” Greece. Mardonius, the famous warlord.* The famous Mardonius becomes the actual co-ruler of Darius. He is described as the “leader of the Persian military party... Mardonius becomes the de facto ruler of Persia henceforth” ([766], page 92).

46a. *Middle Ages in the XIV century A.D.* The daughter of Margaret. Lady Margaret (Donna Margareta) marries her daughter off to Frederick ([766], page 92).

■ 46b. *The “ancient” Greece. The daughter of Darius.* Mardonius the Persian is married to the daughter of King Darius (King of the Horde?). We see a daughter present in both versions, the mediaeval and the “ancient”. The confusion between Margaret (female) and Mardonius (male) should hardly sur-

prise us, considering how we have already encountered several transformations of the kind when the mediaeval aqueduct became the “ancient” Trojan Horse, and the cavalry leader (“*hetera*”) Antonius transformed into Antonine the *hetera* (prostitute), qv in Chapter 2 of CHRON2. All of them are easy to explain. The absence of a unified educational system in the Middle Ages as well as the rather modest dispersion of printed books in that epoch led to the use of different aliases for referring to the same mediaeval character. By the way, there is another possible interpretation of the name Mardonius. Seeing as how the mediaeval Margaret resided in Morea (see [195], page 221), she may well have been called “Lady of Morea”, or “Mistress of Morea” - Morea + Donna, or MR + Donna, which could give the name Mardonius as a result.

47a. *The beginning of the mediaeval wars in 1314 A.D.* A series of violent wars begins in Greece in the year 1314 A.D. ([195], page 222).

■ 47b. *The “ancient” Greece. The wars between the Greeks and the Persians begin.* We see the famous Graeco-Persian wars break out in Greece around the same time (considering the 1810-year shift). In the alleged year 492 B.C. the Persians (P-Russians?) launch their first campaign against the “ancient” Greece ([766], page 92). A shift of 1810 years transforms this date into 1318 A.D., which is virtually identical to 1314. The correspondence between the “ancient” dates and their mediaeval originals is outstanding, and the 4-year discrepancy is minute as compared to the gigantic value of the actual shift – 1810 years.

48a. *Margaret as the instigator of the XIV century war.* Margaret = MR-Donna is the key instigator of XIV century war in mediaeval Greece. We learn of the following: “the news of this matrimony [the marriage of Frederick II to the daughter of Margaret – A. F.] confused and enraged the entire French [or “Persian, bearing the parallelism in mind – A. F.] Morea” ([195],

page 222). Once again we see the mediaeval French (or P-Russian) population identified as the “ancient Persians”.

■ 48b. *“Ancient” Greece. Mardonius as the initiator of wars between the Greeks and the Persians.* Mardonius the Persian masterminded the invasion into Greece: “Mardonius decided to use the convenient moment for drawing the attention away from the domestic affairs of the state and launch an overseas campaign against insular and mainland Greece” ([766], page 92).

49a. *The failure of Margaret in the XIV century A.D.* The first phase of the war proves unsuccessful for Lady Margaret: “the Greek campaign was marred by King Robert invading Sicily as well as the violent struggle between the dynasties of Anjou and Aragon that raged there” ([195], page 222).

■ 49b. *“Ancient” Greece. The failure of Mardonius.* The first Greek campaign of the Persians (P-Russians?) is a failure which is attributed to none other but Mardonius ([258], page 179; also [766], page 92).

50a. *The invasion into Morea in 1315 A.D.* The second stage of the mediaeval war with the Greeks begins; the Morean campaign starts in 1315 A.D. ([195], page 223).

■ 50b. *“Ancient” Greece. The second Greek campaign of the Persians.* The second Greek campaign is launched by the Persians (P-Russians?) in the alleged year 490 B.C. ([258], pages 179-180; also [766], pages 92-93). Once again we witness how the 1810-year shift makes the two dates coincide: the “ancient” dating of 490 B.C. becomes 1320 A.D., which concurs with 1315 A.D. perfectly well.

51a. *Ferdinand the military commander in the XIV century A.D.* The name of the commander-in-chief in Frederick’s army was Ferdinand, who acted as the king’s plenipotentiary representative leading the army that invaded Greece. Moreover, Ferdinand was Margaret’s (MR-Donna’s) son-in-law.

- 51b. “Ancient” Greece. *Artaphernes, the Persian commander*. Artaphernes commanded the army of Mardonius and Darius I (Horde?), leading the Persian troops together with Datis ([258], page 180). The name Artaphernes may simply be a corruption of “Ferdinand” – at least, once we leave out the vowels, we end up with RTPHRN and FRDNNND. Alternatively, “Artaphernes” may be a combination of “Horde” and “TRN” – the Horde and the Trojans, or the Horde and the Turks.

52a. *The battle in Greece dating to 1316 A.D.*
The large battle of 1316 A.D. plays a key role in this period of Morean history ([195], pages 223-224).

- 52b. “Ancient” Greece. *The famous battle of Marathon*. This battle between the Persians (P-Russians?) and the Greeks in the alleged year 490 B.C. is considered one of the most important “ancient” events ([766], page 93). A shift of 1810 years transforms the “ancient” dating of 490 B.C. into 1320 A.D., which corresponds perfectly with the year 1316 A.D. when the mediaeval battle took place.

53a. *The Venetian fleet in the XIV century A.D.*
The Venetian fleet played a major part in the war of 1316 A.D., where the Venetians (Venetes, or Venedes?) were the allies of the French (PRS, or P-Russians, qv in [195], page 223).

- 53b. *The Phoenician fleet in “ancient” Greece*. “Ancient” authors tell us a lot about the famous Phoenician fleet taking part in the war of the alleged year 490 B.C. The “ancient” Phoenicians fight alongside the Persians (P-Russians?) against Greece ([766], page 92). We have already discovered the superimposition of the “ancient” Phoenicia over the mediaeval Venice in many other parallelisms. Such independent confirmations affect the sequential verification of the research results in a positive way.

11. MEDIAEVAL MATILDA AS THE “ANCIENT” MILTHIADES

54a. *The famous female ruler by the name of Matilda in the XIV century A.D.* The troops of the Moreans in the war of 1316 A.D. are led by Matilda, a prominent figure of the epoch, aided by her husband, Louis of Burgundy ([195], pages 222-223). Mark the fact that Matilda was married to a Frenchman (PRS unvocalized).

- 54b. “Ancient” Greece. *The eminent commander Milthiades (male)*. During the second Persian (P-Russian?) invasion “the Greek troops were led by the talented commander Milthiades who had spent a sufficient amount of time in Persia” ([766], page 93). We instantly notice the similarity between the names of the mediaeval Matilda and the “ancient” Milthiades, and see the two characters superimposed over each other. We are already familiar with examples of similar confusion in mediaeval chronicles. We must also point out the fact that Matilda is the wife of a Frenchman (PRS, or P-Russian), and that Milthiades is supposed to have lived in Persia for a long time.

55a. *Matilda is the opponent of Ferdinand in the XIV century A.D.* Matilda becomes the opponent of Ferdinand, who plots against her and Louis ([195], page 223).

- 55b. *The “ancient” Greece. Milthiades fights against Artaphernes*. The enemies of Milthiades are the Persians – Artaphernes and Datis. Bear in mind that Artaphernes (Arta + TRN) is a phantom double of Ferdinand; therefore, the “ancient” balance of power duplicates its mediaeval original.

56a. *The landing and the defeat of Ferdinand in the XIV century A.D.*

1) Two landings of Ferdinand’s fleet take place in Greece: in 1315 A.D. and in 1316 A.D. ([195], pages 221-223).

2) The troops of Ferdinand are put to rout in the battle of 1316 A.D. ([195], page 223).

■ 56b. “Ancient” Greece. *The landing and the defeat of Artaphernes and Datis.*

1) The Persian (P-Russian?) fleet lands in Greece twice: in the alleged years 492 B.C. and 490 B.C. ([766], pages 92-93).

2) The defeat of the Persian army led by Artaphernes (Horde + TRN) and Datis ([766], page 93).

57a. *The fate of Matilda in the XIV century A.D.*

1) Matilda the Queen Regent is the victor in this war ([195], page 224).

2) The further fate of Matilda is tragic.

3) Matilda’s trial.

4) The trial took place in 1322 A.D. ([195], p. 224).

■ 57b. “Ancient” Greece. *The fate of Milthiades.*

1) Milthiades is the victor in the war against the Persians and the main hero of the epoch.

2) The further fate of Milthiades is tragic.

3) The trial of Milthiades.

4) The trial took place in the alleged year 489 B.C. ([258], page 184).

COMMENTARY. An 1810-year shift reveals ideal concurrence between these famous “ancient” and mediaeval datings in Greek history. The trial of the “ancient” Milthiades winds up in 1321 A.D. instead of 489 B.C., whereas the trial of Matilda takes place in 1322, which is virtually the same year. If we are to remember that Milthiades died in 489 B.C., shortly after the trial, we shall get a complete coincidence of the “ancient” and mediaeval datings after a shift of 1810 years.

The tragic fate of the “ancient” Milthiades, likewise that of the mediaeval Matilda, is specifically emphasized in the sources. These two characters are very prominent in the history of their respective epochs. For instance, when F. Gregorovius tells us about the fate of the mediaeval Matilda, he makes the following justified observation: “apart from Helen, wife of the noble king Manfred, there is hardly a female character in the entire history of the Frankish Greece – or indeed the entire epoch in question, whose tragic fate would equal hers in the sheer sympathy it invokes in people” ([195], page 224). It would therefore be expedient to learn more details of this mediaeval story.

58a. *The trial of Matilda in the XIV century A.D.* Matilda was stripped of all power, and had to face

the Papal trial in Avignon in 1322. She was even accused of plotting to murder Robert, among other things. Nevertheless, she wasn’t executed, but rather incarcerated in the stronghold of Castel dell’Ovo, where she died shortly afterwards (in 1331, qv in [195], pages 224-225).

■ 58b. “Ancient” Greece. *The trial of Milthiades.* Milthiades had also been stripped of his powers initially, and his opponents demanded his execution. However, he was let off – allegedly due to his immense services to Athens. The execution was replaced by a tremendous fine. Milthiades died shortly after the trial, in the alleged year 489 B.C. ([258], page 184).

COMMENTARY. Could the “ancient” Milthiades have resembled a woman in some way? Although we have finished with the tale of Milthiades, we shall linger on it for another moment to give an account of a peculiar episode related by Herodotus that pertains to the final part of Milthiades’ biography. We learn that a priestess in a temple of subterranean goddesses had “shown Milthiades some holy relics that no man was ever allowed to lay his eyes on” ([163], 6:135, page 310). The priestess was immediately accused of sacrilege; however, the Pythian oracle “forbade to punish her, declaring that Timo [the alleged culprit – A. F.] was innocent [?! – A. F.]” ([163], 6:135, page 310). How is one supposed to interpret the above?

Could this strange tale be a distant echo of the fact that the “ancient” Milthiades had really been the mediaeval Matilda – female, that is? She would naturally have every right to look at the holy relics of the “female” cult; therefore, Timo the priestess really deserved no punishment, which is why the Pythian oracle failed to see anything criminal in the whole story. Herodotus most probably wasn’t a contemporary of the XIV century events that he tells us about, and earnestly tried to comprehend this rather vague legend, coming up with “explanations” of some sort. Once again we witness the “Trojan Horse effect” in action, when a scribe from a later epoch would transform an aqueduct into a grandiose legend of a gigantic horse assembled of copper, glass and wax, and rather preposterously so. It is easy to understand Herodotus: his work must have post-dated the events in question by some 50-100 years, somewhere around

the XV-XVI century A.D. Many facts were forgotten and distorted by the chaotic quills of his predecessors that transformed aqueducts into horses, likewise women into men and vice versa.

COMMENTARY. The chivalresque phalanxes of the Greeks. Let us make another useful observation. V. S. Sergejev, the author of a textbook on the history of ancient Greece, inadvertently uses the term “chivalresque phalanxes of the Greeks” in reference to the “ancient” wars between the Greeks and the Persians ([766], page 93). However, the chivalresque array of the troops is a typically mediaeval invention. V. S. Sergejev himself would certainly counter saying that the world “chivalresque” was used for the sake of demonstrativeness – however, the issue is far from being that simple. Anyone interested in military history can soon discover the multiple similarities between the “ancient” Greeks and the mediaeval knights – in armaments as well as tactics ([1217] and [914]).

12. THE MEDIAEVAL DUKE WALTHER AS THE “ANCIENT” XERXES THE GREAT

And now to continue our movement forwards along the “ancient” part of the time axis. Our next step discovers a vivid parallelism in the biographies of the “ancient” Xerxes the Great, the successor of Darius Hystaspis, and the mediaeval Duke Walther II de Briennes, the successor of Frederick II of Sicily.

59a. *Duke Walther II in the XIV century A.D.* Duke Walther II became the de facto ruler in 1337 A.D., when Frederick II of Sicily had died, and reigned until the year of his own demise which was 1356 A.D. ([195]). His reign duration thus equals 19 years. Nominally, Walther became a duke as early as 1311 A.D. ([195], page 378). Another version of his ducal title is “*Herzog*”, which transcribes as HRZG unvocalized.

■ 59b. *The “ancient” Greece. Xerxes the Great.* The Persian king Xerxes the Great had reigned for 22 years between the alleged years 486 and 464 B.C. ([72]). This is close enough to the 19-year reign of the mediaeval Duke Walther. A 1810-year shift of dates upwards moves the “ancient” Xerxes the Great into the epoch of

1324-1346 A.D. - close enough to 1337-1356, the period of Walther’s reign. The unvocalized transcription of “Xerxes” yields XRX, which might be a distorted version of the word “Herzog” (duke), or, alternatively, a corruption of X-Rex, or Caz-Rex (possibly King of the Cossacks?) See more in re the name Caz in CHRON5. One sees an old miniature portraying Xerxes in fig. 3.4.

60a. *The third Frankish invasion in the XIV century A.D.* The Franks invaded Greece for the third time in 1331 A.D. Their expedition lasted about a year (see [195], pages 236-240).

■ 60b. *“Ancient” Greece. The third invasion of the Persians.* The third Greek expedition of the Persians took place in the alleged year 480 B.C., and its duration roughly equalled a year ([766], page 94; see also [258], page 184). Once again we see the Franks identified as the PRS. A shift of 1810 years demonstrates ideal concurrence, since 480 B.C. becomes 1330 A.D.



Fig. 3.4 An ancient picture of king Xerxes from Hartmann Schedel’s *Liber Chronicarum*, dating to the alleged year 1497. A propos, Xerxes is portrayed holding a chessboard. Taken from [90], page 27.

61a. *The French Duke Walther in the XIV century A.D.* Duke Walther II is French, and “was considered one of the most prominent public figures in France and Italy” ([195], page 236).

■ 61b. *The “ancient” Greece. Xerxes the Persian.* King Xerxes was Persian (P-Russian?) According to Herodotus, Xerxes (Herzog, or King Caz?) is a figure of great eminence and one of the most popular “ancient” heroes. Superimposition of the “ancient” Persians (P-Russians?) over the mediaeval Franks (the inhabitants of France = PRS) after an 1810-year shift has become so frequent that we can hardly consider it a random phenomenon.

COMMENTARY. It is remarkable that Duke Walther was raised under the guardianship of Constable Gautier de Porcienne ([195], page 236). Bear in mind that we are still located in the temporal vicinity of the XIII century war. One of its main heroes in Livy’s Tarquinian rendition is Larth Porsenna (L-Horde Porsenna), qv in [482]. The Tarquins were also known as the Goths; therefore, what we encounter here under the name of *Gautier* may well be a reference to the Horde.

We have now reached the moment in mediaeval Greek history when the “ancient” Persians will become identifiable as the Turks (Tartars?) or the Franks/P-Russians – TRK and TRT sans vocalizations, respectively. Let us point out that the names of the Franks and the Turks are all but identical to one another unvocalized – TRNK and TRK; the name is the same. The advent of the “Persians” to Asia Minor is possibly explained by the invasion of the P-Russians and the Tartars in the XIV-XV century (the invasion of the “Mongols”). Let us also reiterate that the word PARS interpreted as “area” or “part” nowadays could be a derivative from the name of the mediaeval P-Russian Empire.

62a. *One of the greatest invasions of the Franks and the Turks in the XIV century A.D.* The simultaneous invasion of the Franks = PRS/TRNK and the Turks = TRK into Greece is one of the key events in Greek history of the XIII-XIV century A.D. The expedition of Duke Walther was prepared meticulously, and in good time ([195], pages 236-237).

■ 62b. *“Ancient” Greece. The third Persian invasion is the most dangerous one.* It was also conceived and arranged with great care ([258], pages 184-185).

COMMENTARY. What one calls the “mediaeval Turkish menace of the XIV century A.D.” nowadays is described by historians in exactly the same terms as the Persian menace to the “ancient” Greece of the alleged V century B.C. Gregorovius, for instance, tells us that:

“The potential conquerors of Greece were beginning to look more and more menacing. The islands and the mainland coast were barren due to Turkish pirate raids. In 1329 they raided and looted Eubea and the coast of Attica. It appears that these fleets of brigands were employed by Anatolian princelings who have founded a multitude of small states amongst the ruins of the Seljuk kingdom... the impendence of the Turkish invasion was growing” ([195], page 236).

63a. *Duke Walther’s grandiose preparations for the XIV century campaign.* In 1329 A.D. Duke Walther begins to arrange matters for the Greek expedition.

“In 1330 John XXII [the pontiff – A. F.] complied with the request of the aspirant [Walther – A. F.] and addressed all good Christians, urging them to support the Duke of Athens in his attempt to regain his Greek heritage, financially as well as personally, offering plenary indulgence in return... Henceforth Walther begins to gather ships from everywhere. The missive of John XXII was sent to all the rulers of Western Europe [sic! – A. F.]” ([195], page 237).

The great scale of preparations for the expedition gives us reasons to call it a crusade. In 1330 Pope John XXII had “ordered the very same prelates, as well as the Archbishop of Corinth, to sermonize [sic! – A. F.] the crusade against the lot of schismatics [the Catalans in Greece, that is – A. F.]. Walther de Briennes was preparing for the conquest; all the vassals of King Robert were helping him at the order of the latter. The aspirant had sold most of his French [PRS – A. F.] estates to obtain the funds for the recruitment of mercenaries as well as naval equipment and freight carriers in Brindisi. The brilliant French [PRS – A. F.] and Apulian knights – indeed, even the Toscan guelfs,

were all congregating under his banners. This campaign was thought out well enough. Upon hearing of such arrangements, the Catalans [in Greece – A. F.] also began industrious preparations for warfare” ([195], page 237).

- 63b. “Ancient” Greece. *Large-scale preparations for the third Persian invasion.* “Ancient” authors also emphasize the detailed preparations for the campaign against the “ancient” Greece initiated by Xerxes, King of Persia. Herodotus gives several pages to the description of the Persian (P-Russian?) troop population, using the same terms as we encounter in the Gregorovian rendition of Walther’s expedition.

This is what a modern textbook tells us: “no other campaign of the Persian kings was arranged as systematically and with as much elaboration as the expedition of Xerxes. Extensive military and diplomatic preparations occupied three years (483/480)... Persian diplomacy succeeded in making Thessalia and Boeotia acknowledge the supreme power of the “King of kings”... the military preparations weren’t any less impressive... the powers collected by Xerxes against the Greeks were truly enormous” ([258], page 185).

The preparations for the campaign began while Darius (of the Horde?) had still been alive. This is what we learn from Herodotus: “the king became even more enraged with the Athenians, although he already harboured a great animosity against them for the assault at Sardes. He had ordered that the preparations for the expedition against Hellas be accelerated, sending envoys to every city bearing orders for the troops to be readied. This time each city had to provide an even greater army, with more battleships, horses, provision and freighters than before. When this order was heeded, the entire Asia set into action for three years; the most valiant men were rounded up and equipped for the march against Hellas” ([163], 7:1, page 313).

- 64a. *Margaret in the XIV century A.D.* The second most important character is Walther’s wife Margaret who remains by his side all the time – MR-Donna yet again, that is ([195], page 236). She is not to be confused with her predecessor and namesake.

- 64b. *The “ancient” Greece. Mardonius.* We see Mardonius as the second most important figure alongside Xerxes, King of Persia. He is supposed to be the “closest military advisor” of the latter ([258], page 185). Thus, we can identify another mediaeval woman as the “ancient” Mardonius. However, “ancient” history of the alleged V century B.C. tells us of one and the same Mardonius who takes part in both campaigns led by Darius (Horde?) and Xerxes (Duke/”Herzog”, or King Caz?), whereas in the mediaeval version these two Margarets (identifying as a single Mardonius) are different women, albeit close to each other chronologically.

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- 65a. *The fiasco of Duke Walther’s expedition in the XIV century A.D.* In 1331 A.D. Duke Walther marches forth with his troops, transporting them to Greece on his fleet. The campaign lasts for one year and turns out a disaster. Walther departs from Greece. The forces of invasion suffer defeat ([195], pages 239-240).

- 65b. *The “ancient” Greece. The troops of Xerxes are put to rout.* In the alleged year 480 B.C. Xerxes begins his campaign. His troops invade Greece by crossing the Hellespont. The expedition takes a year and ends with the defeat of the Persians. The Greeks crush the army of Xerxes completely ([163] and [258], pages 185-195).

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- 66a. *Walther’s initial success in the XIV century.* In the first phase of the war the Greeks and the Catalans defending their estates in Greece could not devise a good enough defensive, preferring to “remain in their fortresses, leaving the open country to the enemy” ([195], page 240). Mediaeval historians explain this with the cautiousness of the Greeks and the Catalans: “Giovanni Villani, the Florentine historian, claimed that Walther de Brienne, whose cavalry was better than the mounted troops of the Spaniards and the Greeks, could have easily defeated them in open battle; however, the latter were sufficiently cautious” ([195], pages 239-240).

■ 66b. “Ancient” Greece. *The Persians were winning during the first stage of the war.* It is supposed that the Greeks didn’t manage to assemble a combat-ready army at the beginning of the war. Xerxes conquers a part of Greece as a result. Greek infantry hardly opposes the Persians (P-Russians?) at all. “The entire Middle Greece was open to the enemy; Persian army moved through the land destroying and burning everything on its way” ([258], page 190). Presumably, if an open conflict took place, the Persian forces, which were a lot larger in numbers, would simply crush the Greeks. This scenario where the Greeks neither have confidence nor consolidation initially is virtually identical to the mediaeval description of Walther’s first campaign, *qv* above.

67a. *Middle Ages in the XIV century A.D.* Walther loses the war nonetheless. The death of his son. The war soon reaches a break point. The French, or the Franks, are defeated: “In 1332 Walther gives up his attempts and returns to Lecce with his banners lowered” ([195], page 240). The son of Walther, who had accompanied him, died during the war in Greece.

■ 67b. “Ancient” Greece. *And yet Xerxes suffers defeat. The death of his brothers.* After the initial period of bad luck, victory is on the side of the Greeks. The character of the war changes, and the Persian army is defeated. Xerxes (“Herzog”, or “King of the Cossacks?”) comes back to Persia (Prussia?) none the wiser; two of his brothers die in Greece during the war ([163], page 373).

COMMENTARY. As we have already pointed out, we are often better familiar with the “ancient” phantom events than their mediaeval originals. For instance, Greece of the early XIV century A.D. is hardly represented in the documents at all; the details of Duke Walther’s grandiose campaign remain thoroughly beyond our ken. Gregorovius says that “we don’t know anything about how deeply the duchy was penetrated by the French troops” ([195], page 240). However, we now have the voluminous *History* of the “ancient” Herodotus at our disposal, which gives us the unique

opportunity to summarize all of these descriptions. What we end up with as a result is a lot more circumstantial and plausible picture of the invasion into Greece led by Walther de Briennes, a. k. a. Xerxes.

13.

THE MEDIAEVAL 300 KNIGHTS OF DUKE JEAN DE LA ROCHE AS THE FAMOUS 300 SPARTANS OF KING LEONIDAS

One of the most famous and romantic episodes of the “ancient” wars between the Greeks and the Persians is the battle between 300 fearless Spartans and the Persian troops of Xerxes at Thermopylae in the alleged year 480 B.C. Could Thermopylae have really been approached by the White Russian army led by someone titled “Herzog”, or “King of the Cossacks”? The tragic death of the 300 Spartans and their king Leonidas became glorified by countless artists; one should expect the very same episode to surface in the mediaeval history of the XIII-XIV century A.D. in some shape. Indeed, we find such a passage as soon as we turn to the book of Gregorovius ([195]). Furthermore, this battle isn’t merely related by mediaeval scribes, but also pointed out as parallel to the “ancient” battle of Thermopylae, no less, *qv* below.

Let us use the method that already proved itself worthwhile and shift the datings by 1810 years. However, we are suddenly running into a void result, since we find no battle fought by 300 Spartans in 1330 A.D. (the date that the alleged year 480 B.C. transforms into). This is the first time the 1810-year chronological shift, whose vivid manifestations we were witnessing over a period of several centuries, fails us. What could possibly be the matter here? Let us recollect that according to the results related in Chapter 6 of *CHRON1*, the 1810-year shift sometimes manifests as a shift of 1800 or 1778 years. Let us just a little bit further backwards in time. We immediately come across the 300 Spartan heroes!

It turns out that another ducal figure was active somewhat earlier than Duke Walther, but still at the end of the XIII century A.D. – namely, in 1275. We are referring to Duke Jean de la Roche (John Rush or Ivan the Russian?) Once again we see the ducal title, which can be interpreted as “Herzog” (Xerxes?) His story is as follows. The Turks (TRK/PRS), aided by the Greeks

and the Cumans, have besieged the town of Neopatria. Sebastocrator fled Neopatria, made his way through Thermopylae and addressed Jean de la Roche (Ivan the Russian?) with a plea for help. The duke (Xerxes?) decided to support Sebastocrator and set forth to march through Thermopylae ([195], page 188 (17)). Thus, the famous Thermopylae are mentioned in both accounts – the one by Herodotus telling us about the “ancient” Xerxes, and the mediaeval version featuring Jean de la Roche (Ivan the Russian?)

68a. *The Byzantine and Turkish invasion into Greece in the XIV century A.D.* General Senadenos, the double of the “ancient” Xerxes, invades Thes-salia in this episode leading “an unusually large army”. He also gets naval support ([195], page 188 (17)). Greece is invaded by the Byzantine and the Turkish (PRS) troops.

■ 68b. “Ancient” Greece. *The invasion of the Persians.* A large host of the Persians (P-Russians?) led by Xerxes invades Greece, supported by an enormous fleet. In this local episode Xerxes most probably acts as the reflection of General Senadenos, whereas his opponent, King Leonidas of Sparta, doubles Jean de la Roche (Ivan the Russian?)

69a. *The three hundred knights of Jean de la Roche in the XIV century A.D.* Jean de la Roche, “accompanied by three hundred knights, all of them well-armed”, meets the onslaught of the tremendous army consisting of the Greeks, the Turks and the Cumans ([195], page 188 (18)). It is possible that the word “Cuman” was used for referring to the mounted troops (cf. the Russian word for cavalry, “konniki”). A violent battle rages, and the Duke defeats his enemy (Xerxes being the duke once again). A propos, amongst the numbers of the three hundred knights there were also “the noble Saint-Omers [Homers, or the Ottoman Omars? – A. F.]” ([195], page 188 (17)).

■ 69b. “Ancient” Greece. *King Leonidas and his three hundred Spartans.* Leonidas, King of Sparta, faces the gigantic army of the Persians (P-Russians?) at Thermopylae with his three

hundred Spartans ([258], page 190).

Both the “ancient” and the mediaeval version specify an equal number of warriors – three hundred! The battle is fierce, and the forces are uneven. The “ancient” Xerxes defeats the Spartans, but pays very dearly for this victory.

COMMENTARY. This mediaeval battle of three hundred knights against the superior forces of the enemy can be safely identified as the “ancient” stand made by the three hundred Spartans. There is the following episode to confirm it. It is reported that “at the sight of the numerous ranks of the enemy, he [the Duke – A. F.] had exclaimed the following, addressing one of his frightened allies: ‘great are their numbers, but few of them are true men’” ([195], page 188 (18)).

Now, any cognoscente of ancient history shall instantly recognize these words as the ones used by Herodotus in reference to Xerxes. To quote the exact words of Herodotus: “One can say that it became clear to everyone, the king [Xerxes – A. F.] himself in particular, that the Persians are great in their numbers, but true men [in their ranks] are far and few” ([163], 7:210, page 369). What we find here is the description of the battle between Xerxes and the Hellenes immediately before the battle of Thermopylae. Scaligerian history tries to persuade us that the XIV century duke was a man of such brilliant and outstanding education that, when he “accidentally” wound up in the vicinity of Thermopylae, and was taking part in a battle oddly resembling the “ancient” battle between Xerxes and the 300 Spartans, he couldn’t help delivering a perfectly fortuitous quote from the “ancient Herodotus”, who wrote about this very battle!

It is understandable that this vivid parallel (which should seem most peculiar to a modern historian) instantly drew the attention of F. Gregorovius, who gives the following commentary that pretty much suggests itself: “It appears to me that these words [of the mediaeval duke – A. F.] were borrowed from Herodotus, VII:210, the episode when Xerxes learns that ‘the ranks of the Persians are great, but there are few true men amongst them’. However, the Duke may have recollected this dictum while witnessing the [similar – A. F.] disposition” ([195], page 188(18), comment 3).

One might wonder what exactly can be perceived as strange about the entire matter. Weren't mediaeval knights well-read and highly educated people, after all, and could they possibly find anything better to do than to adopt a dignified stance and recite appropriate passages from the immortal *œuvres* of the "ancient" authors whenever they got in the vicinity of Thermopylae, in the middle of a violent battle, accompanied by clanging armour and neighing horses?

We are of the opinion that the explanation is altogether different. It is most likely that the mediaeval battle of 300 knights at Thermopylae in 1275 A.D. became reflected in several mediaeval chronicles, among others – the *History* of Herodotus, where it became the battle of 300 Spartans against Xerxes, King of Persia. Thus, Herodotus couldn't have written his book earlier than the end of the XIII century A.D. – most probably, in the XV-XVI century.

Let us return to the battle. "He [the Duke – A. F.] darted towards the enemy camp, scattered the army of Palaiologos and secured a brilliant victory. The town of Neopatria [Neo-Sparta? - A. F.] was freed and the fleeing enemy had to withdraw from Thessalia" ([195], page 188 (18)). The respective datings of 1275 A.D. and 480 B.C. are separated by a virtual period of 1755 years. This approximates the value of the chronological shift – 1778 years, or 1800-1810 years. We see that the shift value varies from source to source. However, these aberrations are rather minute as compared to the value of the actual shift, which equals *almost two millennia*.

We already pointed out that the historian Ferdinand Gregorovius – a connoisseur of the "antiquity" and a reputable specialist in mediaeval history, often points out peculiar "revivals of the antiquity" in the Middle Ages, or duplicate parallels, in other words. However, since he was raised on the Scaligerian chronology, he could not understand the nature of such occurrences and was thus limited to a mere constatation of facts, and a timid one at that, coming to no conclusions whatsoever.

For instance, we have already mentioned the fact that the "ancient" Persians aren't merely a reflection of the French (or the Franks), but also duplicate the Ottoman Turks and the Tartars. The first half of the XIV century in Greek history correlates with the his-

tory of "ancient" Greece well enough to make Gregorovius point out another parallel with the epoch of Darius (of the Horde?) and Xerxes ("Herzog", or the Cossack Czar?).

"One dark night in 1354... Suleiman [the Ottoman whose deeds were also partially reflected in the biography of Xerxes – A. F.], the valiant son of Orkhan had... crossed the Hellespont... this is where the Turks had made their first confident steps on the European soil. The Byzantines have compared this invading horde [mark the word "Horde" here – A. F.] to the Persians, often using that very name for referring to them [! - A. F.] However, the Ottomans were more terrifying than the nation of Darius and Xerxes, and their luck was greater" ([195], page 252). This parallel indicated by F. Gregorovius is perfectly apropos.

Let us draw the reader's attention to yet another interesting fact. As we can see, the mediaeval Byzantines had called the Turks Persians. It was the later commentators who began to replace the latter word for the former en masse in Byzantine texts; otherwise, the picture we get shows us the "ancient" Persians being exceptionally industrious in the Middle Ages, which the Scaligerian history just cannot possibly permit.

"The relentless expansion of the Turkish invaders continued as they swarmed across the Greek seas; all of this was beginning to look like a historical reflux of Asia to Europe" ([195], page 244). Gregorovius continues to draw parallels between the XIV-XV century invasion of the Ottoman Turks, and that of the "ancient" Persians (P-Russians?). "The Greeks and the Franks were still aquiver at the thought of the horrendous ruler of the Asians who could yet expand the borders of his domain so as to include the entire Europe" ([195], page 302).

Let us once again ask the question of whether "Darius" could be an alias for the Horde, and Xerxes either a ducal title ("Herzog"), or a corruption of "Czar of the Cossacks".

The "ancient" = mediaeval Graeco-Persian wars cease here. We carry on moving forwards along the "ancient" time axis, regarding it through the prism of an 1810-year temporal shift. The next famous "ancient" Greek event is the Peloponnesian War of the alleged years 431-404 A.D. as described in detail by the "ancient" Thucydides ([923]).

14. THE MEDIAEVAL WAR IN GREECE OF 1374-1387 A.D. AS THE "ANCIENT" PELOPONNESIAN WAR

14.1. The three eclipses described by Thucydides

"The Peloponnesian War began in 431 B.C.; it had raged for 27 years. The entire Hellenistic world was involved in warfare, with no part of Hellas unperurbed" ([766], page 154). The primary foes were the "ancient" Athens and Sparta. As we shall observe below, the original of this war must have been the famous mediaeval war in Greece of 1374-1387 A.D. that ended in the demise of the Catalan state on the territory of Greece. The duration of this mediaeval war equals 13 years.

A shift of 1810 years moves the "ancient" years 431-404 A.D. into the Middle Ages; the datings transform accordingly to 1379-1406 A.D. This interval is sufficiently close to the war of 1374-1387 A.D. The duration of the "ancient" war differs from that of its mediaeval counterpart – however, one should bear in mind that the coverage of the Peloponnesian war's various stages differs in volume to a great extent. The matter is that the work of Thucydides only covers the alleged years 431-411 B.C., or a mere twenty years of the entire Peloponnesian War ([923]). His volume is nevertheless considered to be the key historical tractate to relate this war; we "know substantially less" about its final stage – the alleged years 411-404 B.C. ([258], page 270). Therefore, we only know enough about the first 20 years of the Peloponnesian War, which makes its duration closer to that of the mediaeval war (20 and 13 years, respectively).

As we already pointed out in CHRON1, Chapter 1, Thucydides described a most remarkable triad of eclipses that took place during the war in the Mediterranean region. This triad can be dated astronomically. We learn that there are *only two precise astronomical solutions that correspond to this triad* on the entire historical interval between 900 B.C. and 1700 A.D. – no more. One of them was found by N. A. Morozov for the XII century A.D. ([544]); the other – for the XI century A.D. by the author of the present book in his study of the problem. The astronomical solutions in question are as follows:

- 1st solution:* 1039 A.D., 1046 A.D.
and 1057 A.D.
2nd solution: 1133 A.D., 1140 A.D.
and 1151 A.D.

There are no other precise solutions on the entire time interval that we have under study here, including the "Scaligerian B.C. antiquity". Actually, the introduction of such terms as "Scaligerian antiquity", or the erroneous transplantation of real mediaeval Greece onto a faraway B.C. fragment of the consensual chronological scale, is necessary to differentiate between this phantom epoch and the "real antiquity", or the mediaeval epoch of the XI-XV century A.D. This is where the real (albeit misdated) historical events can be found.

Let us return to Thucydides. If the mediaeval war of 1374-1387 A.D. indeed served as the original of the "ancient" Peloponnesian War, one should obviously expect one of the astronomical solutions for the Thucydidean triad to fall into this interval. However, we are in for a disappointment here, since both solutions lie well outside the epoch of the XIV century: one of them in the XI century, and the other in the XII. Why would this happen? According to our primary statistical results as related in CHRON1, Chapter 6, the "contemporary history textbook" is a collation of several layers kept apart by several chronological shifts. These shifts result from moving the original backwards on the chronological scale:

- by 333 or 360 years (the Roman-Byzantine shift),
- by 1000 or 1053 years (the Roman shift),
- and by 1778/1800/1810 years (the Graeco-Biblical shift).

This is to say, every event that we encounter in the Scaligerian textbook may really be a sum of several real events separated from each other by the above-mentioned time intervals. Apparently, the Thucydidean *History* contains at least two layers of real events, the first one containing the description of the XI/XII century eclipse triad, and the second relating the events of the XIV century war – thus, the mediaeval Thucydides could have included two chronicles into his *History*, providing us with layered renditions of the events contained therein.

Should this prove true, these two chronicles are to differ from each other by one of the values listed above. Let us verify this. The eclipse of 1039 A.D. is described by Thucydides as one that took place in the first year of the war ([923]). The first year of the real XIV century war falls on 1374 A.D. The difference between 1039 and 1374 equals 335 years, which is basically equivalent to the value of the Roman/Byzantine shift (333 or 360 years). Everything becomes clear: the work of Thucydides is of a layered nature, as well as the “contemporary history textbook”. Let us now continue with a sequential comparison of the “ancient” events with their mediaeval counterparts over a gap of 1810 years.

14.2. The congress in Greece. The beginning of the war

70a. *The Navarrans and the Athenians*. The convocation of the Congress in the XIV century A.D.

1) The Navarrans and the Athenians comprise the primary pair of foes in the war of the XIV century A.D. ([195], page 259 ff.)

2) The XIV century war in Greece was preceded by the convocation of a great congress that each and every province of the country sent its delegates to ([195], pages 258-259).

■ 70b. *“Ancient” Greece. Sparta and Athens*. The convocation of the Peloponnesian Council.

1) The parties whose interests collide and result in the outbreak of the Peloponnesian War are Sparta and Athens ([258], page 267).

2) The Peloponnesian War was preceded by arrangements of a diplomatic nature manifest as the convocation of delegates representing the so-called Peloponnesian Union. The congress took place in the alleged year 432 B.C. ([258], page 279). A shift of 1810 years transforms the “ancient” dating of 432 B.C. into 1378 A.D., which is close enough to 1373 – the year when the mediaeval Congress took place.

71a. *The war supervenes the Congress by about a year*. The civil discord in XIV century Greece broke out a year after the congress, more or less – in 1374 A.D. ([195], page 259).

■ 71b. *The “ancient” Greece. The war also takes a year to flare up*. The Peloponnesian War (which had also been civil by nature) broke out in the alleged year 431 A.D., following the Congress by one year ([258], pages 279-280).

72a. *Details concerning the Congress of 1373 A.D.*

Here are some rather interesting details that we learn of the mediaeval Congress dating to 1373 A.D.

“A new Crusade was being prepared in the West at that time... Gregory XI... hoped to unite all the rulers with an interest in Oriental affairs into a league. He had therefore called upon the Emperor of Constantinople as well as Philip II von Tarent, the nominal Latin ruler, the representatives of maritime republics such as Venice and Genoa, the Knights of Rhodes, the Vicar of the Athenian Duchy, kings of Cyprus, Venice and Sicily to a congress that was to take place in Thebes. He had also addressed Nerio Acciaiuoli, the hypothec owner and chatelaine of Corinth” ([195], page 258).

“Thebe never saw such a multitude of envoys within her walls, even in the days of Epaminondas, as now when this congregation was concerned with the defence against the horrible menace of the terrifying Turks who were now referred to as ‘the New Teucers’, or ‘Persians’” ([195], pages 258-259). Gregorovius proceeds to cite a long list of states and regions represented at the Congress.

“This congregation of Latin rulers of the Greek peninsula as well as the islands can be perceived as the last embers of the decaying Frankish rule... *the situation in Greece began to resemble the one we remember from the antiquity* [sic! - A. F.], when Hellas split up into many smaller states that were mutually hostile” ([195], page 259).

■ 72b. *“Ancient” Greece. Details concerning the Congress of the alleged year 432 B.C.* Below we cite references to several curious facts concerning the “ancient” congress of the alleged year 432 B.C.

“The decision upon the matter of war was de facto reached at the Spartan Congress in July-August 432, when the arbitrary rule of Athens was condemned by a number of allies; the Corinthian delegates have been

the most vehement in this respect. This made the Spartan Apella consider Athens guilty of breaking a covenant of thirty years. Shortly afterwards, the Lacedaemonians gathered an assembly of delegates from all across the Peloponnesian Union in order to reach an official decision. Since most states were voting in favour of war, it became inevitable. The assembly defined the contingent of individual allies" ([258], page 279).

73a. *The Corinthians inchoate the war of the XIV century A.D.* The casus belli for the mediaeval war was given by the Corinthians: "those who fled Corinth found sanctuary in the lands belonging to the Catalans" ([195], page 259).

■ 73b. "Ancient" Greece. *Corinth as the initiator of the Peloponnesian War.* As we can see from the work of Thucydides, the Corinthians played a special role in the instigation of the conflict: "the Corinthian delegates have been the most vehement" ([258], page 279).

74a. *In the XIV century A.D. Peloponnesus begins military action against Athens.* In 1374 Nerio, the ruler of Corinth, invades Megara upon the above pretext. A long and hard war begins ([195], page 259). Thus, it is Peloponnesus vs. Athens. The Corinthian Principality is the strongest Peloponnesian power of the epoch.

■ 74b. "Ancient" Greece. *Peloponnesus begins a war against Athens.* In the alleged year 431 B.C. the Spartans, who headed the Peloponnesian Union, attack Athens ([258], page 283). We shall be referring to the Peloponnesians below, in full accordance with what the Scaligerian history calls them. The famous war between Athens and Peloponnesus breaks out. We see the same scenario as in the Middle Ages – Peloponnesus acts as the instigator of war and invades Athens. A shift of 1810 years transform the "ancient" year 431 A.D. into 1379 A.D., which is very close to 1374 A.D.

75a. *The defeat of Athens in the XIV century A.D.* Athens are put to complete rout in the war of the XIV century A.D. ([195], page 280).

■ 75b. "Ancient" Greece. *Athens defeated.* The Athenians were all but wiped out as a result of the Peloponnesian War. "The Athenian slave-trading democracy was crushed, and Archaea destroyed completely" ([258], page 343).

76a. *In the XIV century the Navarrans invaded Attica first.*

1) At the beginning of the war, in 1377-1378 A.D., the troops of the Navarrans invade Attica and conquer it ([195], page 265). The primary initiator of the war, the Corinthian ruler Nerio, acts as an ally of the Navarrans who invade the Duchy of Athens, which is still under Catalan rule at this point.

2) Therefore, the alignment of forces is as follows: the Navarrans invade mediaeval Athens together with Nerio, acting as the "doubles" of the "ancient" Spartans.

■ 76b. "Ancient" Greece. *At the beginning of the war the Peloponnesians invade Attica.*

1) When the Peloponnesian War begins (in the alleged year 431 B.C.), it is the Peloponnesian troops that invade Attica ([258], page 283).

2) We thus observe a similar scenario of the Peloponnesians invading the "ancient" city of Athens.

77a. *Successful resistance of Athens at the beginning of the XIV century war.* The first stage of the war that took place in the XIV century A.D. Athens furnished adequate military resistance in the battle with Nerio and the Navarrans. Moreover, in 1380 A.D. the Navarrans were forced to leave Attica. "The Athenian stronghold proved stronger than either Thebes or Livadia" ([195], page 266). The siege of Athens attempted by the Navarrans proved a failure.

■ 77b. "Ancient" Greece. *Athens stood the initial onslaught out.* The first period of the Peloponnesian War sees Athenians defending themselves against the Peloponnesians quite successfully, therefore the initial stage of the war was void of success for the Peloponnesians. "Athens remained out of the foe's reach, as before" ([258], page 287).

14.3. The mediaeval Navarrans as the “ancient” Spartans. The mediaeval Catalan state in Athens as the “ancient” Athenian state

78a. *The military state of the Navarrans in the XIV century A.D.* The Navarrans are known in the history of mediaeval Greece as “a gang of war-like daredevils” ([195], page 265). Moreover, they founded a military state in Elis ([195], page 274). Mediaeval chroniclers often emphasize the outstanding military skills of the Navarrans. Apparently, certain “ancient sources” called them Spartans.

- 78b. “Ancient” Greece. *The famous Sparta as a military state.* Sparta was a member of the Peloponnesian Union – a military state with a very special militarized lifestyle. We know Spartans as a belligerent people; their military skills and professional army organization are also of great renown.

COMMENTARY. Thus, according to the “ancient” version, two main forces collided in the Peloponnesian War: the military state of Sparta and the more democratic Athens, whereas the mediaeval duplicate tells us of the Navarrans with their military state opposing the Athenian state of the Catalans.

79a. *The war was devastating; we learn the following about it:* “all the resources of the Duchy became completely depleted. Attica and Boeotia were devastated to such an extent that the king ordered the Greeks and the Albanians to settle there” ([195], page 274).

- 79b. “Ancient” Greece. *The brutality of the Peloponnesian War.* Thucydides often refers to the Peloponnesian War as a completely devastating one ([923; see also [258], page 280 ff.)

14.4. The mediaeval Nerio as the “ancient” Lysander. The end of the Peloponnesian War

80a. *Nerio Acciaiuoli in the XIV century A.D.* Nerio Acciaiuoli a key figure of the Navarran-Corinthian Union in the war of the XIV century A.D., especially its final phase. Nerio is a very felici-

tous commander, and also a skilled diplomat. We can confidently consider him the absolute protagonist of the war ([195], page 280). The war ends when Nerio leads the Navarran troops to Athens and captures the city ([195], p. 280).

- 80b. *Lysander in the “ancient” Greece.* Lysander, the Spartan navarch, gains prominence in the Peloponnesian Union by the end of the Peloponnesian War ([258], page 338). A fortunate and innovative military commander as well as an outstanding diplomat, he strives for absolute monarchy. He brings the war to an end when he destroys the Athenian state ([258], pages 342-343).

81a. *Nerio as the winner of the XIV century war.* The sequence of events was as follows: the Navarran troops have held Athens under siege for several months. After several months of being under siege, Athens capitulate; in 1387 A.D. Nerio enters the conquered city. The Catalan state in Athens ceases to exist ([195], page 280).

- 81b. “Ancient” Greece. *Lysander the victor.* Lysander wins the Peloponnesian War. The war ended as follows: the Peloponnesians, most of them Spartans, surrounded Athens, advancing from both the sea and dry land. The siege of Athens began. The city fell in a few months. Its fortifications were brought down, and the role of Athens diminished drastically ([258], pages 342-344). The Athenian state ceased to exist in its former condition. The Peloponnesian War marks a breakpoint in the history of the “ancient” Athens.

82a. *The coup d’état of the XIV century in the Athenian Duchy.* After the fall of the mediaeval city of Athens, the political life of Greece changes drastically. F. Gregorovius, for instance, refers to this period as to that of “Nerio’s coup d’état in the Duchy of Athens” ([195], page 281).

- 82b. “Ancient” Greece. *The period of reactionary rule.* The fall of Athens marks the beginning of a reactionary rule in Greece. This changes the country a great deal; for instance, we learn that “the entire country was swept over by a wave of exiles and mass murders” ([258], page 343).

COMMENTARY. Let us peruse a more detailed account of the XIV century events for better knowledge of the facts pertaining to the end of the mediaeval Peloponnesian War. Bear in mind that the mediaeval Athenian state of the Catalans serves as the “original” of the “ancient” Athens. The commentary of F. Gregorovius is as follows:

“The Catalan state was done with. The mechanisms of power were completely rebuilt by the Florentine conqueror [Nerio – A. F.] over an amazingly short period of time... the Spaniards [Catalans – A. F.] abandoned their fiefs and estates and returned to Sicily and Aragon. *We don’t find any information about their disappearance from Greece in any chronicle at all... even the most meticulous research cannot reveal a single trace of their existence*” ([195], page 280).

The single reason for this is the fact that the mediaeval documents describing the events in question were misdated and cast into distant past, creating a vague phantom image of the “ancient” Athenian state in the Scaligerian chronology. The respective period in the Middle Ages was stripped bare of events, which led to “dark ages” replacing it.

Historians tell us the following:

“It is amazing how a party of brave mercenaries could hold out for seventy years in the noble land of the Hellenes, their numerous foes notwithstanding, and immortalize themselves in the history of Athens. Of all the mercenary armies, renowned and feared in Europe, not one could equal the glory of the Catalans... the Catalans left no traces of their reign in either Athens or any other part of Greece; it is also possible that such relics did exist, but were destroyed [nevertheless, there are plenty of monuments ascribed to the “ancient” Athenians – A. F.]. Even the Acropolis, which they would doubtlessly modify, in particular by erecting additional fortifications, doesn’t yield a single trace of the latter. There are no coins of the Campaign [although there are “ancient” coins – A. F.] They weren’t minted by either the Catalans in general, or the Sicilian dukes of Athens in particular” ([195], page 280). Let us reiterate – all the mediaeval traces of the Catalan state exist until the present day under the arbitrary name of “ancient relics”.

83a. *Nerio’s tyranny in the XIV century A.D.* After the fall of Athens, Nerio the victor establishes a

new political regime – the tyranny. Nerio himself receives the title of “the tyrant of Athens” ([195], page 282).

- 83b. *“Ancient” Greece. Tyranny of the thirty.* After the defeat of Athens, Lysander the victor establishes the “tyranny of the thirty” in the city. This period in the history of Athens is called “the reign of the thirty tyrants” ([258], page 344). We still see a very obvious parallelism with the Middle Ages.

84a. *Belligerent Navarrans coming to power in the XIV century A.D.* After the invasion into Athens, the actual rule in the city and the state goes to the belligerent Navarrans, who became reflected as the “Spartans” in the “ancient sources”, as we understand now. As a result, the leading position in Greece under Nerio’s rule is occupied by Athens. In 1392 A.D. the Navarrans sign a truce with the Turks (who serve as the prototype for the “ancient” Persians, as we have already seen. It happened as follows: “The Navarrans summoned the Turks to Greece. Sultan Bajazet... signed a truce with him [Emperor Manuel – A. F.], and sent Eurenosbeg, his pasha, to Thessalia, accompanied by troops... Nerio, who was vainly calling upon the Venetians for help, only managed to save himself by proclaiming himself a vassal and the Sultan his liege” ([195], pages 290-291).

- 84b. *“Ancient” Greece. The leadership of Sparta.* After the fall of the Athenian oligarchy, Sparta assumes a leading position in Greece under the rule of Lysander. In the alleged year 401 B.C. Sparta becomes an ally of Persia, providing support to the Persian king Cyrus ([258], pages 402-403). Apparently, the Persians can be identified as the Ottoman Turks and the P-Russians, and a shift of 1810 years transforms the “ancient” dating of 401 B.C. into the mediaeval year 1409 A.D., which is very close to 1392 A.D. All of this serves as brilliant proof of our parallelism. A shift of 1800 years gives us the dating of 1399 A.D., which makes the concurrence even better. One has to bear in mind that our movement forward along the time axis brings us to the

XV century A.D., which demonstrates to us that the “ancient” Sparta and Athens are really located in the XIV-XV century A.D.

85a. *The death of Nerio*. Nerio dies in 1394 A.D. ([195], page 292).

- 85b. “Ancient” Greece. *The death of Lysander*. Lysander dies around 395 B.C. ([258], page 407). A shift of 1810 years shall transform the “ancient” dating of 395 B.C. into 1405 A.D., and a somewhat smaller shift of 1800 years leaves us with 1395 A.D. Both datings are sufficiently close to 1394 – the year of Nerio’s death.

86a. *Middle Ages in the XIV century A.D.* What we know about Nerio. Nerio is characterized as follows: “Nerio, the first Athenian duke from the House of Acciaiuoli, died in September of 1394. This talented Florentine was fortunate and insightful, and possessed a great political talent which raised him from a mere adventurer to a very high rank that was achieved under the least favourable circumstances imaginable. Had Machiavelli known his biography, *The Prince* would contain its rendition in one of the chapters” ([195], page 292). We see a familiar sight – mediaeval Greek history is known us to a very small extent, remaining shrouded in obscurity for the most part, unlike its “ancient” counterpart. Thus we learn, for instance, that the mediaeval “portraits of Nerio and his Athenian successors... are more than doubtful” ([195, page 292, comment 2).

- 86b. “Ancient” Greece. *What we know about Lysander*. Lysander, the most prominent figure of this epoch, is described in the following terms: “Such... were the intentions of Nearch Lysander, a valiant man and an expert diplomat... after the defeat of Athens, Lysander gained such power that none of his predecessors could dream of... he was the first to be deified by the Greeks, who built altars in his honour... there was even a special festivity introduced on the Isle of Samos to celebrate the genius of Lysander” ([766], page 206).

15.

THE DATE OF PARTHENON'S CONSTRUCTION, AND THE REASON IT WAS CALLED THE TEMPLE OF ST. MARY

We already referred to this subject in CHRON1, Chapter 7. Let us remind the reader of the issue at hand. F. Gregorovius informs us of the following: “Our Lady already began the victorious struggle for Athens with Athena Pallas... the Athenians built a majestic church [in the alleged X century A.D. – A. F.], and installed the altarpiece there [depicting St. Mary – A. F.], having called it Athenaya [or Athena – A. F.]” ([195], page 24).

In the XII century the Parthenon functions as the Latin temple of Our Lady of Athens “as if it were built only recently [sic! – A. F.]” ([1274], page 16). The statue of the Catholic Virgin Mary serves as double of the “ancient” statue of the Lady of Athens by Phidias in the Latin Parthenon. The statue was crafted in the XIII century ([544], Volume 4, page 806). Thus, the “ancient” goddess Athena becomes the mediaeval Christian Virgin Mary, the Mother of God!

We proceed to learn the following about the Parthenon: “the Christian religion managed to covert the ancient halidom of the city’s ancient goddess on the Acropolis without inflicting any harm upon the temple in any way... the entire history of converting pagan beliefs and sacraments for Christian use doesn’t know another example of such easy and complete substitution as this transformation of Athena Pallas into Virgin Mary... the people of Athens didn’t even have to use a different alias for their divine virginal protectrix, since they started calling Our Lady Parthenos” ([195], page 31). This leads us to the following natural hypothesis.

The “ancient” Athena (Parthenos) is the Christian Virgin Mary. The “ancient” Parthenon thus becomes a Christian temple that was built in the XIII century A.D. the latest.

Most probably, the reconstruction of the Parthenon under Nerio, qv below, was really the creation of the Parthenon that took place in his reign, which falls on the second half of the XIV century A.D.

87a. *The Parthenon emerges from oblivion under Nerio in the XIV century A.D.* The Parthenon is supposed to have been erected in the “ancient”

epoch. After that, Scaligerian history makes it disappear from the historical arena up until the Middle Ages when it re-emerges under Nerio, in the XIV century A.D. Mediaeval chroniclers tell us that Nerio had “adorned the Parthenon royally”, making the temple regain its former importance in his reign ([195], pages 293-294).

It turns out that the name of the Parthenon under Nerio had been “the Santa Maria Temple in Athens” – the temple of St. Mary, in other words! This is what we learn of the Parthenon in Nerio’s reign:

“He treated the Parthenon [the Santa Maria Temple in Athens], where he wanted to be buried, with the utmost reverence... he bequeathed his capitals... as well as his luxurious stables, to the Parthenon. Its gates were plated with silver, with maintenance and repairs to be funded by the council. Moreover, the very city was to be regarded as the temple’s legacy, with all of the temple’s rights protected by the Venetian Republic... it was a horrendous plot from the part of Nerio to make the entire city property of the Latin priests from the Parthenon... Virgin Mary thus became the owner of one of the greatest cities in history; the dying duke hardly remembered that Lady Parthenos from the same temple on the Acropolis had already been the protectrix of Athens [presumably in the “ancient” epoch – A. F.]. The city of Theseus came under the aegis of the Divine Virgin once again [sic! – A. F.]” ([195], page 294).

■ 87b. “Ancient” Greece. *When was the Parthenon built?* The alleged date of its construction is 447 B.C. However, a shift of 1810 years forwards transforms this dating into 1363 A.D., which coincides with the mediaeval epoch when Nerio gained prominence. Thus, the most likely date of the Parthenon’s construction falls onto the second half of the XIV century.

88a. *The city of Athens belongs to the Parthenon in the XIV century A.D.* The city of Athens is regarded as property of the Parthenos Temple in late XIV century, which is presumably “a revival of an ancient custom”, qv above.

■ 88b. “Ancient” Greece. *The city of Athens was the property of the Parthenos Temple in the alleged V century B.C.* A shift of 1810 years brings us right into the epoch of late XIV century A.D.

16.

THE MEDIAEVAL GEMISTO PLETON AS THE “ANCIENT” PLATO

89a. *Gemisto Pleton in the XV century A.D.* Gemisto Pleton (Plython, or Plyton) was a prominent philosopher, writer and public figure in mediaeval Greece and Italy ([195], page 309).

■ 89b. “Ancient” Greece. *Plato.* Plato is a famous philosopher, writer and public man in “ancient” Greece (the alleged years 428-347 B.C.). See [766], page 249. The names Plato and Pleton are virtually identical. In fig. 3.5 we can see an ancient engraving of the alleged year 1497 depicting Plato, who looks perfectly mediaeval here.

COMMENTARY. We failed to find out about the exact timeframe of Pleton’s life. It is known that he had played an important part in the social and po-



Fig. 3.5 An ancient picture of the philosopher Plato from Hartmann Schedel’s *Liber Chronicarum*. Augsburg, 1497. Taken from [90], page 25.

litical life of Greece and Italy around 1415 A.D. He had died “around 1450 A.D.” ([195], page 363). Thus, exact dates of his birth and death remain unknown. Other authors cite 1452 as the year of his death. At any rate, it turns out that the biography of the “ancient” Plato is known to us a great deal better. One often comes across the opinion that the “antiquity” deserves more attention than the dark and near-impenetrable Middle Ages. At any rate, what we know is that Gemisto Pleton died in Rimini and was buried in this city’s famous cathedral ([195], page 363).

A 1810-year shift of dates forward makes the years of Plato’s life cover the period between 1382 and 1463 A.D. – the very epoch that Pleton was active in, that is. And a shift of 1800 years shall date the death of the “ancient” Plato to 1453. The date all but coincides with 1450 or 1452, the year when the mediaeval Gemisto Pleton had died. Let us turn our attention to the peculiar name Gemisto of the mediaeval Pleton. The Latin word *geminus* translates as “double”, “twin”, “one item in a pair”, or “spitting image” ([237], page 452). Therefore, “Gemisto Pleton” can translate as “Plato’s double”, or “Plato the Second”. The personality of Gemisto Pleton deserves our unmitigated attention.

As we have pointed out in CHRON1, Chapter 1, the “ancient” Plato is considered the founding father of Platonism. Then his teaching dies to be revived several centuries later by the famous Neoplatonist Plotinus (the alleged years 205-270 A.D.), whose name is virtually coincident with that of Plato, his spiritual teacher, and perfectly accidentally so.

After that, Scaligerian history tells us of the death of Neoplatonism, which is to be revived another couple of centuries later, in the XV century A.D., by another famous Platonist – Gemisto Pleton, whose name is once again almost completely similar to that of his “ancient” mentor Plato. Nowadays it is supposed that Gemisto Pleton “revived Plato’s ancient Platonism” and became its zealous propagator. This is the very epoch when the “ancient Hellenistic ideas” begin to flourish, inspiring the mediaeval Greeks to unite against the Turkish invaders.

Mediaeval Greek history that was further declared “ancient” and moved into the distant past originated in the XIV century Florence: “The Strozzi and the Medici... have been Philhellenes, who used their for-

tunes for supporting the falling Byzantine throne as well as the study of Greek literature... Cosimo conceived the plan of reconstructing Plato’s Academy on the Arno [presided over by Gemisto Pleton – A. F.]” ([195], page 330). It is from Florence that the “ancient” Greek literature began to spread across Europe.

The manuscripts of the “ancient Plato” are said to have emerged from obscurity for the first time in the epoch of the XV century A.D., precisely when Gemisto Pleton was active ([247], pages 143-147). Gemisto Pleton founds Pleton’s Academy in Florence, which is an exact analogue of the “ancient” Plato’s Academy. A. A. Vassilyev points out that “his [Pleton’s – A. F.] sojourn in Florence marks one of the key moments in the history of exporting the ancient Greek sciences to Italy – in particular, the propagation of the Platonic philosophy in the West. His large utopia [it is significant that voluminous utopian oeuvres are written by both Plato and Pleton – A. F.] entitled *The Tractate on Law* failed to reach our age in its entirety [unlike the complete codex of the “ancient” Plato’s *Laws* – A. F.]; it stands for... an attempt of reviving paganism... with the aid of certain elements of Neoplatonic philosophy”. Quoting by [544], Volume 7, pages 638-639.

One can sum up by saying that Scaligerian history tries to make us believe that it suffices for the parents to call their son by any name resembling Plato’s (Plotinus, Pleton etc) for his entire destiny to be shaped in this manner, making his biography a carbon copy of “the ancient Plato’s”.

90a. *The revival of Greek science in the XV century*

A.D. We have reached the second part of the XV century A.D. “This is the time when the spirit of Greek science became to rise from its slumber of many centuries” ([195], page 308). This is the epoch of Gemisto Pleton. We learn that he revived the spirit of the “ancient civilization”. “The famous Byzantine Giorgio Gemisto Pleton had lived at the court of Theodore II. He was an ancient Hellene resurrected; a late Neoplatonist from the school of Proclus, and a fantastical admirer of the ancient gods; the Italian humanists that followed him were similar to some extent... Pleton’s idea to turn back the clock of world history a thousand years after Julian the Apostate, to revive the be-

lief in gods and demigods as a mystical allegorical cult of his invention, and to replace the Christian religion with a dreamlike mixture of Zoroaster's teachings, Brahmanism, Plato, Porphyrius and Proclus – why, this idea clearly verged on insanity" ([195], page 308).

- 90b. "Ancient" Greece. *The golden age of the "ancient" science.* What we encounter here is the "ancient" epoch considered to be the "golden age" of literature and science in the "ancient" Greece. Here we find Herodotus, Thucydides, Socrates, Plato etc.

91a. *The despotate of Mystras in the XV century A.D.* This is the epoch when the famous mediaeval despotate of Mystras (Mistra) had flourished ([195], pages 306-307).

- 91b. "Ancient" Greece. *The famous polis of Sparta.* The famous Sparta was a military state of the despotic type.

COMMENTARY. Gregorovius once again cannot fail to point out the self-implying parallelisms, noting that "Mystras, or Sparta [sic! – A. F.] becomes the political and spiritual stronghold of Hellenism... the remnants of the Spartan antiquity still resonated with the memory of the age of Licurgus and Leonidas, Pausanias and Agesilaus" ([195], pages 307-308).

92a. *The Platonic Academy in the XV century A.D.* The mediaeval Platonic academy is supposed to have been "revived" by Gemisto Pleton. He is responsible for the following: "it seems that Gemisto had founded an academy or a sect of some sort. Amongst his students (if not adepts of his mystical religious philosophy) were such prominent Platonists [sic! - A. F.] as Manuel Chrysoloras and Bessarion... in the time of the Florentine Union he was the first to proclaim the glory and the greatness of Plato, having... affected Cosimo de Medici to such an extent that the very idea of founding the Platonic Academy in Florence [sic! - A. F.] owes its naissance to the latter for the most part" ([195], pages 308-309).

- 92b. "Ancient" Greece. Plato's Academy. The "ancient Plato" founds the famous Academy.

93a. *Middle Ages in the XV century A.D.* The incinerated work of Pleton entitled *The Doctrine of Statehood* was his primary masterpiece ([195], page 309, comment 1). It is presumed that it did not survive until our day and age due to having been incinerated ([195], page 309).

- 93b. "Ancient" Greece. *Plato's Republic.* Unlike its mediaeval counterpart, Plato's "ancient" tractate entitled *The Republic* managed to reach our day through many centuries quite unperurbed, escaping death in the numerous fires of the "dark ages" of European history.

COMMENTARY. It is most likely that the "ancient" *Republic* is really the allegedly incinerated work of Gemisto Pleton. He is also supposed to have been the author of the tractate *On the Differences between the Philosophies of Plato and Aristotle* ([195], page 309). If this book is really his and not a work of his followers, Gemisto Pleton may have written about the differences between his own philosophy and that of Aristotle. Likewise "the ancient Plato", the mediaeval Gemisto Pleton tries to bring his abstract political ideas concerning the organization of an "ideal state" into practical realization ([195], page 309).

We can formulate the following consideration as a summary of the above: the "ancient Plato" of the alleged V century B.C., as well as the "ancient Plotinus" of the alleged III century A.D. are both phantom reflections of Gemisto Pleton from the XV century A.D. Those who wish to see the sepulchre of the famous "ancient Plato" can visit the Rimini Cathedral, where the tomb of Gemisto Pleton is located. However, it remains to be seen whether the "tomb of Gemisto Pleton" demonstrated to us today is genuine.

17.

THE MEDIAEVAL DESPOTATE OF MYSTRAS AS THE "ANCIENT" SPARTA

We have reached a breakpoint in "ancient" Greek history – the elevation of the belligerent Sparta after the Peloponnesian War. A shift of 1810 years forward shall bring us to a similar breakpoint in the history of the mediaeval Greece, namely, the epoch when the militarized state of the Navarrans as well as the despotate of Mystras gain prominence after the war

of the XIV century A.D., which, as we already understand, is most probably the prototype of the Peloponnesian War.

Both events demonstrate a perfect mutual superimposition on the time axis after a shift of 1800-1810 years. Indeed, the end of the “ancient” Peloponnesian War in the alleged year 404 B.C. moves into the vicinity of 1400 A.D. as a result of the shift, which is the time when the war and strife in mediaeval Greece finally come to an end (see more about the death of Nerio in 1394 and the end of the war above).

94a. *The elevation of the Navarrans and the despotate of Mystras in the XV century A.D.* The epoch of the elevation of the Navarran state and the Despotate of Mystras starting with the end of the war (roughly 1400 A.D.) and ending with the Ottoman Empire gathering strength in the middle of the XV century covers the period of about 50 years between 1400 and 1450 A.D.

■ 94b. *“Ancient” Greece. The elevation of Sparta.* The period of Sparta’s elevation begins at the end of the Peloponnesian War and ends with Macedonia gaining prominence in the middle of the IV century A.D. This period also covers about 50 years between the alleged years 400 and 350 B.C. Textbooks on “ancient” Greek history usually call it “the domination of Sparta” ([766], page 206), or “the Spartan Hegemony” ([258], page 400). Both periods (the “ancient” and the mediaeval) correspond to each other perfectly after a 1800-1810 year shift.

95a. *The pressure of the Ottomans in the XV century A.D.* The Ottomans, who later become known as the Turks, begin to menace Greece in particular and Europe in general after a brief period of peace. Manuel II, the Greek emperor of Byzantium, “was devoting his utmost diligence to the construction of the Hexamilion, the wall across Isthmia, which he began to build with the aid of the Venetians. The Greeks thought that such an obstacle would make Peloponnesus impenetrable for the foe, as it had been once, in the time of the Persian invasion [sic! – A. F.]” ([195], page 306).

Once again we see a superimposition of the “ancient Persians” (P-Russians?) over the Ottomans. The following is reported:

“While Northern Hellas was already occupied by the Turks, and the cloud of doom was spreading over the entire Byzantium, the last remnants of Greek statehood were collected in Peloponnesus and not Attica... the gravity centre of the Greek monarchy... returned to its terminus a quo – the land of Pelops... Mystras, or Sparta [sic! – A. F.] became the political and spiritual stronghold of Hellenism in this epoch” ([195], page 307).

■ 95b. *“Ancient” Greece. The Persian pressure. The Persian menace grows.* After the weakening of the Persian menace as a result of fortune favouring the Greeks in the Graeco-Persian wars of the alleged years 400-350 B.C., Persia (P-Russia?) becomes a danger for Greece once again. We see yet another superimposition of the Ottoman Turks over the Persians. “The struggle between Sparta and Persia for domination in the Eastern part of Hellas saved the Greek world from complete and long-term subjugation to the Spartan rule” ([258], page 401).

The period when the “ancient” Persia began to meddle in Greek affairs is dated to the alleged year 394 B.C. when the Persians destroyed the Peloponnesian fleet. “Thus, along with the enfeeblement of Sparta we witness a significant increase in Persian influence over Greece” ([258], page 408). The Corinthian Isthmus was fortified to a great extent in order to prevent the impending invasion [sic! – A. F.]” ([258], page 408). The “ancient” Sparta is characterized as a state “rigidly confined to the territory of Peloponnesus” ([258], page 409). It is significant that “the Isthmian [sic! – A. F.] line of allied defence” plays a special role here, as it did in the Middle Ages ([258], page 408).

COMMENTARY. The spectacular temporal collocation of the “ancient” and mediaeval reports of the key role played by the Isthmian line of defence deserves a more detailed coverage of how this grandiose mediaeval fortification was built in the XV century A.D.

“Thousands of workers were involved in the creation of this Cyclopean construction... a tremendous

wall grew between the two seas, complete with fosses, two fortresses and 153 fortified towers... the allies were amazed by this structure as though it compared to the famous bulwarks of Hadrian" ([258], page 307). Could the name Hadrian be related to the name Horde, or Hordean in some way?

18. THE TURKISH OTTOMAN EMPIRE AS THE "ANCIENT" MACEDON. SULTAN MOHAMMED I AS THE "ANCIENT" PHILIP II

We have finally reached the period that marks the end of independent political history of the "ancient" Greece.

96a. *The Mohammedans in the XV century A.D. as a new power.* The hegemony of Peloponnesus and the despotate of Mystras/Sparta comes to an end in the middle of the XV century A.D. A new formidable power emerges – the Ottomans who later become known as the Turks. They swarm over Byzantium as a result of expansion in mid-XV century, which ends the history of the mediaeval Greece and Byzantium as an independent state in the second half of the XV century. We thus observe the Ottomans (who are considered Mohammedans nowadays) become a new political and military power. They are also the masters of Turkey.

■ 96b. *"Ancient" Greece. The Macedonians as a new power.* The hegemony of Sparta ceases to exist in the middle of the alleged IV century B.C. It is replaced by a new authority – Macedon. The second half of the alleged IV century B.C. (around the alleged years 350-320 B.C.) is known in history textbooks as the period of "Macedonian elevation" ([766], page 270). The Macedonian age marks the end of the "ancient" Greece as an independent political formation. Thus, we see a new military and political power on the historical arena – the Macedonians. One cannot fail to notice the obvious similarity between the names: Macedonians and Mohammedans, Macedon (or Mahedonia) and Mohammedia – possibly de-

rived from the name Mahomet or Mohammed. Alternatively, Mace-Donia refers to "the Great Don", or "the Great River", qv in CHRON5. Macedonia is located in Thracia (TRK-land). It is perfectly obvious that Thracia and Turkey are two versions of the same name (bear in mind the flexion of T and Th).

97a. *The rise of the Ottoman influence in the XV century A.D.* Towards the end of the XV century both Greece and Byzantium lose influence very rapidly. Modern history textbooks describe the epoch in sepulchral tones: "A cloud of peril was looming over Byzantium" ([195], page 307). A consistent invasion of the Ottomans (Atamans?) into Byzantium and Greece begins in 1446 A.D. All attempts of resisting them prove futile. "This was the last great mobilization of Greek powers, and, just as it had been in the days of Xerxes [the Duke, or the King of the Cossacks? – A. F.], they were facing the barbaric Asia ready to dart towards the Peloponnesus" ([195], page 346).

■ 97b. *"Ancient" Greece. The elevation of Macedon.* "The international situation was favouring Macedon the most, and it was gradually expanding its rule onto the Thracian coast and towards the centre of Greece. By the middle of the IV century [B.C. – A. F.], a large part of the Hellenistic world was subject to the hegemony of the Macedonian kings. The Athenian maritime union split up in the War of the Allies (357-355). Even Sparta, let alone other poleis, could provide no substantial resistance to Macedon" ([766], pages 270-271).

COMMENTARY. A shift of 1810 years makes the mediaeval dating of 1446 A.D. correspond with the "ancient" year 364 B.C. There is thus good chronological concurrence between the elevation of the Ottomans and the Macedonians.

98a. *The Ottoman Sultan Mohammed II in the XV century A.D.* Sultan Mohammed II (Mehmet II according to [240]), the famous Ottoman ruler, was called "the Conqueror" (see figs. 3.6



Fig. 3.6 Large medal portraying Mohammed II, conqueror of Constantinople. Front side. Taken from [304], Volume 2, pages 516-517, inset.



Fig. 3.7 Medal portraying Mohammed II, reverse. Original kept in the Royal Münzkabinet, Berlin ([304], Volume 2, pages 516-517, inset.



Fig. 3.8. An ancient portrait of Sultan Mohammed (Mehmet) II (1432-1481). One should pay attention to the three royal crowns on the right and on the left. They might symbolize the Evangelical three Magi (see CHRON6 for more details). We see that Mohammed II is dressed in furs. Taken from [1206], p. 2.



Fig. 3.9 Mediaeval illustration entitled "The Turks Massacre the Christians and Seal up the Temples of Our Lord". Taken from "The Hagiography of St. Alexiy, the Muscovite Metropolitan, written by Pakhomiy Lagofet in the XVI century" ([578], Book 2, page 16). The mediaeval Ottomans look perfectly European here – wearing urban clothing from the Middle Ages, with broad-brimmed hats on their heads, and armed with straight-edged swords instead of scimitars.

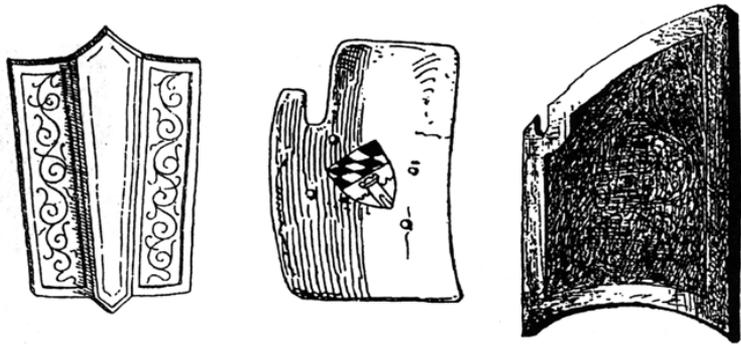


Fig. 3.10 Warrior shields that became popular in Europe due to Oriental influence, according to historians. We see a handheld tarch on the left and breast tarches on the right. Taken from [264], Book 2, page 10.

and 3.7). An ancient portrait of Mohammed II can be seen in fig. 3.8. “The Turkish sultan founded the vast Mohammedan empire among the ruins of Byzantium, on the graves of formerly prosperous civilized nations” ([195], page 359). As a result, mediaeval Greece had completely disappeared from the political arena as an independent power.

It has to be said that Scaligerian history never fails to emphasize the allegedly negative historical role of the Ottomans, their presumed barbarity, failure to comprehend European values etc. It is constantly reiterated that they’re to blame for the decline of the flourishing European civilization on conquered territories. In CHRON5 and CHRON6 we shall discuss the reasons for such an unfavourable portrait of the Ottomans that we find on the pages of Scaligerian history textbooks. History according to Scaliger and Miller even managed to distort the information about the physical appearance of the mediaeval Ottomans starting with the XVII century. In fig. 3.9 we see a mediaeval illustration to the “hagiography of St. Alexiy, the Muscovite Metropolitan, written by Pakhomiy Lagofet in the XVI century” ([578], Book 2, page 16). The title of the illustration is as follows: “The Turks Massacre the Christians and Seal up the Temples of Our Lord”. This mediaeval drawing of the Ottomans is drastically different from their image as presented to us by the Scaligerian history. The illustration shows us the Ottomans dressed as typical mediaeval Europeans, dressed in urban European clothes and wearing hats with broad brims. They are armed with straight-edged European swords and not curved scimitars.

Apparently, many European armaments were brought to Europe by the Tartars/Turks. The so-called tarch shields, for instance, were introduced in the XIV century – the handheld tarches (“*handtartsche*”), which were “usually employed in attack. Another armament that came into use was the breast tarch (“*brusttartsche*”), brought from the Orient to Hungary, which had introduced it to other Occidental states, which is why this shield is also called the Hungarian tarch” ([264], Book 2, page 10). The name “tarch” may be a corruption of the word “Turk”, or “Turkish”. Typical examples of handheld and breast tarches can be seen in fig. 3.10.

■ 98b. “Ancient” Greece. *Philip II, King of Macedon*. The famous Macedonian King Philip II was “the true originator of the Macedonian state... towards the middle of the IV century Macedon had undergone the transformation from a provincial semi-barbaric state of secondary importance into a first-class superpower claiming its right for world hegemony, which it had subsequently achieved” ([766], pages 271-272). As a result, Greece ceased to exist as an independent political formation.

99a. *The enthronement of Sultan Mohammed II in the XV century A.D.* Mohammed II becomes enthroned in 1451 A.D. ([195], page 347).

■ 99b. “Ancient” Greece. *The enthronement of Philip II*. Philip II comes to power in the alleged year 359 B.C. ([766], page 271). A shift of 1810 years transforms the “ancient” dating of 359 B.C. into the year 1451 A.D., which is the year of Mohammed’s enthronement. We see an ideal concurrence of ancient and mediaeval dates after the shift.

100a. *The Middle Ages in the XV century A.D. The reign duration of Mohammed II*. Mohammed II was enthroned at the age of 21 ([195], page 347). He had reigned for 30 years ([76]).

■ 100b. “Ancient” Greece. *The reign duration of Philip II*. Philip II was enthroned at the age of 23 ([258], page 476), which is very close to the age of Mohammed II. Philip II had reigned for 24 years between the alleged years 359 and 336 B.C. ([258], page 476). Their reign durations are also similar.

101a. *Mohammed II is an Ottoman. The Ottoman (Ataman?) Empire is supposed to have been founded in 1298 (or in 1299-1300) by Osman I = Ottoman I* ([76]; also [797], page 940). All the subsequent Sultan rulers including Mohammed II are called Ottomans. The unvocalized transcription of the name is TTMN, or TMN.

■ 101b. “Ancient” Greece. *Philip II, the son of Amyntas*. Philip II is the son of Amyntas ([258], page 462). Amyntas is a family name; there

were several kings called Amyntas among the predecessors of Philip II ([76]). The unvo-calized transcription of Amyntas is MNT; this is the name used for the entire dynasty of Macedonian kings in this epoch. We see that the only difference between the names MNT (Amyntas) and TMN (Ottoman) is the direction in which they are read. The Eu-ropeans read from left to right, whereas the contrary is true for the Arabs and the Jews. This may have resulted in the same name read as two different ones; we have witnessed this effect in action many a time already.

102a. *The duration of the Ottoman Empire's existence.* The history of the Ottoman (Ataman?) empire before Mohammed II spans the pe-riod between 1298 and 1451 A.D., the year of his enthronement. The Empire came to exist-ence in 1298 ([76]). Thus, it had existed for 153 years before Mohammed II.

- 102b. *“Ancient” Greece. The duration of the Macedonian statehood.* The history of Macedon before Philip II covers the period of 540-359 B.C. Philip II became enthroned in the alleged year 359 B.C. Therefore, the history of Macedonian statehood before Philip II covers the interval of roughly 180 years ([76]). The respective durations of 153 and 180 years are similar enough, which con-firms the parallelism. Apart from that, both periods demonstrate good mutual concu-rence after an 1810-year shift. In particular, the foundation of the mediaeval Ottoman (Ataman?) Empire in 1298 A.D. ends in the second half of the alleged VI century B.C. after the shift, which is when the “ancient” kingdom of Macedon was founded.

103a. *The mediaeval Ottoman I.* Ottoman I is the founder of the Ottoman (Ataman?) Empire ([76]).

- 103b. *“Ancient” Greece. Amyntas I.* Amyntas I is presumed to have been the founder of the Macedonian kingdom ([72], page 195). The names Ottoman (TMN) and Amyntas (MNT) only differ in reading direction.

104a. *Mohammed II instigates the creation of a gi-gantic empire in the XV century A.D.* A new era in the history of the Ottoman (Ataman?) empire begins with Mohammed II. This is when the powerful Eurasian state comes to existence ([195]).

- 104b. *“Ancient” Greece. Philip II initiates the cre-ation of the Macedonian Empire.* Philip II brings forth a new phase in the history of Macedon, initiating the creation of the great Macedonian Empire in Europe and Asia. The process is brought to completion by Alexander the Great ([258]).

105a. *The fall of Constantinople in 1453 A.D.* In 1453 A.D. one of the key events in world his-tory takes place – the Ottomans capture Con-stantinople, which marks the fall of Byzan-tium ([195]).

- 105b. *“Ancient” Greece. The secession of Byzan-tium in the alleged year 364 B.C.* An impor-tant event of Greek history takes place in the alleged year 364 B.C., namely, the “secession of Byzantium” ([766], page 353). A shift of 1810 years turns the “ancient” year 364 B.C. into 1446 A.D., which is in the immediate temporal vicinity of 1453, the year Byzantium fell. The concurrence of the “ancient” and mediaeval datings is excellent.

106a. *The Ottomans and the Mohammedans in the XV century A.D.*

1) Sultan Mohammed II is the leader of the Otto-man (Ataman?) Empire which was also called Turkey, or TRK unvo-calized.

2) A faction of the “ancient” Greeks who supported the Ottoman invasion emerged in mediaeval Athens. “There was a faction among the Athenians which hated the Franks enough to call the Ottomans liber-ators, rejoicing at the invasion” ([195], page 350).

- 106b. *“Ancient” Greece. The Thracians and the Macedonians.*

1) Philip II is closely linked to the Thracians (also TRK): “bribery allowed him to achieve a peace with the Thracians” ([258], page 463).

2) We see a pro-Macedonian (Mohammedan?) faction emerge in the “ancient” Athens as well. They opt for a union with Macedon and support the aspirations of Philip II ([766], pages 272-277). One finds it hard not to notice the similarities between the descriptions given by the “ancient” and mediaeval sources, which is perfectly understandable – they are most likely to refer to the same reality, albeit from different stances.

19. THE MEDIAEVAL SIEGE OF CONSTANTINOPE (BYZANTIUM) AS THE “ANCIENT” SIEGE OF BYZANTIUM

The fall of Byzantium in 1453, after the siege of Constantinople, which fell prey to the Ottomans, is one of the key events of the Middle Ages. We have already seen this event reflected in the “ancient” sources as “the secession of Byzantium”. It would be logical to assume that mediaeval documents subsequently declared “ancient” shall also reflect the siege of Constantinople. One has to bear in mind that Scaligerian history claims Byzantium to have been the initial name of Constantinople ([240]). Our prognosis is verified; some of the so-called “ancient” sources do indeed tell us about the siege of Byzantium by Philip II. Let us point out certain curious details.

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- 107a. *The siege of Constantinople by Mohammed II in the XV century A.D.* Mohammed II launches a large-scale military invasion in 1453 A.D. He aims to capture Constantinople, formerly known as the city of Byzantium ([240], page 37). The Ottomans (Atamans?) approach Constantinople as a large front and occupy the entire neighbouring region. The Byzantines get ready for a hard siege, realizing that Mohammed II prepared well for this invasion. The siege of the city begins in 1453 A.D.
- 107b. *“Ancient” Greece. The city of Byzantium besieged by Philip II.* Philip II begins military expansion, and besieges Perinth in the alleged year 340 B.C. The Perinthians have “called upon Byzantium and Athens for help. The Byzantines sent them siege ma-

chines” ([258], page 473). Mark the typically mediaeval terminology in the texts that were declared “ancient” afterwards: one sees constant references to Byzantium and the Byzantines. The “ancient” Philip II begins the siege of Byzantium in the alleged year 340 B.C., faithfully repeating all the actions of the mediaeval Mohammed II.

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- 108a. *Constantinople in the XV century A.D. as a powerful fortress and an imperial capital.* The city possessed formidable fortifications to protect it against attacks from the sea as well as dry land, and was known as a strong fortress which had survived many a siege. The siege of Constantinople by Mohammed II is one of the most complex military operations in the history of the Ottoman (Ataman?) Empire.
- 108b. *“Ancient” Greece. Byzantium as a large city.* The sources that became declared “ancient” in a later age emphasize the crucial role played by the city of Byzantium in the epoch of Philip II. We learn that Philip II “besieged a great city upon the straits – Byzantium” ([258], page 473). The “ancient” Byzantium had heavy fortifications, and its siege proved a very difficult endeavour.

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- 109a. *A fleet of allies comes to rescue Constantinople in the XV century A.D.* “The attack of the Ottomans was stopped at the news of an army of the Hungarians and the Italians that was coming to aid Constantinople” ([240], page 51). Genoans and their allies had gathered a large fleet, and it became known that “large Venetian and Genoan vessels were coming to rescue the city” ([240], page 45).
- 109b. *“Ancient” Greece. The fleet of the Greeks comes to rescue Byzantium.* It is amazing that the sources that were declared “ancient” in the XVI-XVII century give us an almost word-for-word rendition of what we learn from other mediaeval documents. “The siege of Byzantium created an outrage in Athens. The actions of Philip were condemned as breach of peace, and two squadrons were sent to

help the Byzantines... Several Greek poleis – Khios, Kos and Rhodes also sent warships. The fleet that gathered in Byzantium was a formidable force ([258], page 473).

110a. *The defeat of the Turkish fleet in the XV century A.D.* A violent sea battle takes place at the walls of Constantinople, or Byzantium; the fleet of Mohammed II is crushed completely as a result. The Byzantines and their allies managed to “burn a large part of the Turkish fleet with Greek fire” ([240], page 46). “Greek fire” is most probably a reference to the mediaeval artillery.

■ 110b. *“Ancient” Greece. The defeat of the Macedonian fleet.* The walls of the “ancient” Byzantium also see a large sea battle that ends with the defeat of Philip’s fleet. “The allies have destroyed the Macedonian fleet in a battle, having thus achieved maritime supremacy” ([258], page 473).

111a. *The protracted siege of Constantinople in the XV century.* The siege of Constantinople, or Byzantium, was becoming procrastinated. The attempts of Mohammed II to attack the city from dry land also prove futile. Constantinople was receiving assistance from the sea – in particular, the ships had delivered reinforcements of 5000 men” ([240], page 46).

■ 111b. *“Ancient” Greece. The protracted siege of Byzantium.* Philip’s siege of Byzantium was also marred by procrastination. “Philip’s siege of the city from dry land wasn’t very effective, since Byzantium received everything she needed from the sea” ([258], page 473).

COMMENTARY. It is amazing how the mediaeval version turns out to be the spitting image of the “ancient”. Why hasn’t this been noticed before? We consider the following to be the reason: firstly, individual parallels were pointed out by historians every now and then. We have already given rather vivid examples from F. Gregorovius. Also, the direct “parallels between Philip II as a menace to the ancient Greece and the modern Turkish menace” were marked by Cardinal Bessarion in the alleged XV century ([1374],

page 65). One should presume that the real XV century texts which weren’t yet “carefully edited” by the XVII-XVIII century historians were identifying the Macedonians as the Ottomans, without any “parallels” whatsoever. According to the historians of today, “it was popular practice to liken the Turks to the ancient Persians or the Macedonian ‘barbarians’ who were a menace to the free cities of Greece ([1374], page 65).

It would be hard to go beyond such individual observations of “parallels” remaining within the confines of the Scaligerian chronology. It would require the discovery of the chronological shifts in the “Scaliger-Petavius textbook” first, and also the understanding of their system (or, in other words, who should be compared to whom), which is crucial. A random comparison of biographies would most probably yield no results at all, since Scaligerian history contains too many characters and details. Parallels between characters and events can only be discovered when the “statistically similar epochs” are already selected from the vast number of events under comparison with the aid of statistical methods.

112a. *Constantinople as a formidable fortress in the XV century. The treason of the commander-in-chief.*

1) The famous triple belt of strong walls around Constantinople was considered a wonder of fortification technology in the Middle Ages ([240]).

2) Byzantine troops were led by a certain Justiniani – none other but Justinian! See [240]. When the going got rough for Constantinople, he suddenly decided to betray the Byzantines and flee the city on a galley. “Such recreance from the part of the Greek leader must have fallen heavy on the morale of the troops” ([240], page 53).

■ 112b. *“Ancient” Greece. The strong fortifications of the city of Byzantium. Commander-in-chief accused of treason.*

1) We learn that the “ancient” Byzantium was also heavily fortified. “Sturdy walls protected the besieged from the fierce attacks of the Macedonians” ([258], page 473).

2) Philip II tried to resort to the following ploy. He suddenly “slandered the Byzantine commander before his fellow citizens” ([258], page 473). Thus, we see the