There are many to whom a book on the history of weapons and fighting dress will need no recommendation. To them, *Warriors and Weapons of Early Times* offers a remarkably extensive range of examples (over 400, all illustrated in full colour), thoroughly well documented with reference to published works and museum collections, in a convenient format and at a popular price: and it covers a timespan (5000 B.C. to A.D. 1790) which no similar book deals with. It also provides an excellent introduction for the general reader and for the student.

In addition, its admirable accounts of the historical background to each group of warriors, and of the social, political and military organisation of which they were a part, make the book a fascinating panorama of ancient and medieval history, from the Egypt of the Pharaohs to Europe at the time of the Thirty Year War.
Warriors and Weapons
3000 B.C. to A.D. 1700
Warriors and Weapons
3000 B.C. to A.D. 1700
in Colour

by Niels M. Saxtorph

Illustrated by Sig Bramsen
## Contents

**Foreword**

**Introduction**

### The Colour Plates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Egypt 3000-2000 B.C.</td>
<td>1–3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt 2000-1000 B.C.</td>
<td>5–11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Near East and Egypt 3000–1200 B.C.</td>
<td>13–17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel 2000-1000 B.C.</td>
<td>19–23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel 1000-500 B.C.</td>
<td>25–29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Near East 1200–600 B.C.</td>
<td>31–35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece 700-500 B.C.</td>
<td>37–41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece 500-300 B.C.</td>
<td>43–47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anatolia 1500-1100 B.C.</td>
<td>49–53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy 800–500 B.C.</td>
<td>55–60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rome 700-500 B.C.</td>
<td>61–65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rome 500-400 B.C.</td>
<td>67–71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece 440-350 B.C.</td>
<td>73–78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece 350-210 B.C.</td>
<td>80–85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece 210-146 B.C.</td>
<td>87–92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rome 146-9 B.C.</td>
<td>93–98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rome 9–30 A.D.</td>
<td>101–105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rome 30-180 A.D.</td>
<td>107–112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy 180-1100</td>
<td>114–117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western Europe 1000-1400</td>
<td>119–122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Crusades 1096-1291</td>
<td>123–127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Germans 1000-1400</td>
<td>129–133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Vikings 800-1066</td>
<td>135–140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Carolingian Empire 732-987</td>
<td>141–145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe 1100–1300</td>
<td>147–150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northeastern and Eastern Europe 1000–1200</td>
<td>152–155</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Foreword

WARRIORS AND WEAPONS 3000 B.C. TO A.D. 1700 is the most comprehensive book on the subject of military history available. It illustrates in full colour and describes over 422 weapons of all types, from Europe, Asia, North Africa, South and Central America.

The warriors are depicted and described in chronological order, according to historical periods, from the Egyptians or Pharaoh’s army c. 3000 B.C. through the Roman legions and the French feudal knights to the European Landsturms of the Thirty Years War. In the last century the soldiers from the first uniforms, national regiments are featured.

Beside giving descriptions of the warriors shown in the colour plates, the type of weapons and equipment used by the different races, their organisation and tactics, and the functional purpose of the different types of equipment is explained. The book also provides a valuable overall cultural and historical account of the development of weapons through the ages, from the first metal weapons to the introduction of firearms and the revolutionary impact these had on the soldiers’ tactics.

The detailed index makes it easy for the reader to obtain the exact information about each warrior, his weapons and equipment, as well as the organisation and tactics used at any given time within the period covered. There is also a comprehensive bibliography.

The authors would like to express their gratitude to all those collectors of weapons and works of art and illustrated publications from museums and cultural institutions in many countries, and they would like to express appreciation of the cooperation they have received.
Introduction

Many people believe that history consists only of wars waged by kings and generals. But battles are fought by common soldiers armed with spear and shield – in armor and trouser hose – or with sword and pike. This book's main theme is the equipment of the ordinary soldier and how it changed through the ages, from the Ancient Egyptians c. 3000 B.C. to the colorful but uniformly armed regiments of c. 1700.

Arms shown through the centuries - paintings, sculptures and poems. Story of knights and their heraldic traditions. Tales of knights and their battles. Legends of knights and their feats.

Many sages and kings lived with horses who were ridden in royal state, such as King Arthur who rode 'his steed' and the medieval warrior who rode 'his warhorse'.

The story of weapons and warfare, however, is more than just a tale of heroic deeds. It is the story of technological development, the invention of new weapons, the improvement of existing ones, the use of armor to protect soldiers from injury. The history of armor is as colorful as that of weapons, with changes in design, materials, and techniques.

The history of armor and weapons is closely tied to the history of warfare and the evolution of society. As societies changed, so too did the ways in which they fought. The introduction of gunpowder and the development of firearms fundamentally changed the nature of battle. The rise of nationalism and the emergence of new nation-states also had a profound impact on warfare. The introduction of modern weapons and tactics has continued to shape the way wars are fought to this day.
Introduction

The era of splendid armor and costly weapons created a demand for swords, daggers, axes, spears, shields, lances, and helmets, which brought about developments in other directions as well. The knowledge of weapons seems to have spread across Europe, nowhere else in the world except in China and Japan. The Asian civilizations had an order of battle and tactics superior to that of other peoples, something which, among other things, was determined by their terrain and climate. There are scholars who attribute the development of the feudal system and chivalry to the introduction of armor and sword, and some believe that the date can be pinpointed to about A.D. 732. Similarly there is a close connection between the strong central power in Europe around 1500 and the advent not only of effective artillery, but also of light cavalry, who, armed with long pikes and halberds, would sometimes fight by stabbing or pummeling.

Our account of the warriors of the various ages begins at the time that information about them is available. A great deal of information is available on the great number of Stone Age weapons; there is nothing very definite about the warriors' clothing or equipment. It is easy to know the amount of work was required in making weapons out of stone for the early Egyptian and Mesopotamian civilizations c. 3000 B.C. If we are to be at all correct, then the information must be based on the work they did, on the weapons they used, and on the tools they made. We use less information to paint an overall picture of the warrior as he was at any given time, and the less information we have about the work of the warrior, the more likely it is that the picture we paint is inaccurate. The idea that the warrior was a solitary figure, killing others and being killed, is perhaps more accurate than the idea that he was a group figure, fighting in battle or preparing for battle. This idea is perhaps more accurate than the idea that he was a group figure, fighting in battle or preparing for battle. It is clear from the start that the warrior was not the sole figure in the picture, but that he was part of a larger picture, a picture that included the society in which he lived and the civilization to which he belonged.

In this view of the warrior, we see little more than an armorer who made the weapons he used. He was a man who worked, not a man who fought. He was a man who shaped, not a man who created. He was a man who used his tools to make his weapons, not a man who used his weapons to make his tools. He was a man who worked, not a man who fought. He was a man who shaped, not a man who created. He was a man who used his tools to make his weapons, not a man who used his weapons to make his tools. He was a man who worked, not a man who fought. He was a man who shaped, not a man who created. He was a man who used his tools to make his weapons, not a man who used his weapons to make his tools. He was a man who worked, not a man who fought. He was a man who shaped, not a man who created. He was a man who used his tools to make his weapons, not a man who used his weapons to make his tools.
Egypt 3000–1100 B.C.

1–25. One of the world’s oldest civilisations, the Egyptian, grew up within the long oasis formed by the Nile Valley. Here was created the civilisation which through various channels – Syria, Crete and Greece – was instrumental in founding European culture. The fertility of the valley depended on the ability to utilise the waters of the Nile by diverting them through a system of irrigation and supply channels, a system whereby one part of the country was dependent on the other and which about 3200 B.C. led to the development of a strong monarchy, which may be the oldest in the world. But the lush valley was constantly attracting the people who lived on its borders, and from the very beginning the Egyptians had to fight their neighbours, and had a well-organised army even before the realm had become united.

We know what the Egyptians wore, their armour and their weapons from paintings in tombs and temples and from the abundant and carefully prepared grave goods with which magnates and the Pharaohs were buried. The actual weapons and chariots of the dead have been discovered, their soldiers following them in the form of little toy figures of wood. Many ordinary utensils, such as furniture and toilet articles, were frequently decorated like miniature monuments to victory.

In the warm climate it was natural for people to be lightly clad, wearing merely a loin-cloth. But the distinguishing mark of the soldier was the large extra lappet hanging down in front (1–2), possibly to...
The Egyptian Household Guards. The parure worn by the second figure is a foreign manufacture, probably from Asia Minor, which was the most usual material and the most worn after gold. The set of the Egyptian figure is on the back of a small bed or on the back of the Egyptian figure, the heads of the two men in the picture being exactly the same.

From the earliest times, such as the Pharaohs and in the Egyptian service, but it was not until the kingdom spread to the Near East and the Eastern Mediterranean that these people appeared, and the Egyptians knew them as the people of the Near East - the Philistines, the Phoenicians, the Scythians, and the Sea Peoples (12:18-20). - begins to appear in parallel, with the evidence of the tomb of King Tutankhamen (1350 B.C.), in the Aten, the temple of Amenhotep III, and in the Meroitic temple of Ramses II. The various pieces preserved at least three figures, one in a staff of gold, another in a set of statuettes of three men, and a third in a small vessel, each with their own unique appearance.

It is now known that the three men who the 'Sea Peoples' were those people beyond their own borders, from the coast of Asia Minor, while they might also be the Philistines with the Philistines. The terms used for men, women, and children have not always been the same. In the Aten, it was the statue of Amenhotep III that the Egyptians, however, occupied with the large, powerful town of Meroitic land in the region of the temple of Ramses II.

During their battles advancing through the Near East and the Mediterranean, the Egyptians occupied with the Near East and the Mediterranean, and they became acquainted with men and women of foreign appearance under the command of Egyptian officers. We know of the Nubian 5, 12, and 15; 13-15; from the earliest times, such as the Pharaohs, and the Egyptian service, but it was not until the kingdom spread to the Near East and the Eastern Mediterranean that these people appeared, and the Egyptians knew them as the people of the Near East - the Philistines, the Phoenicians, the Scythians, and the Sea Peoples (12:18-20). - begins to appear in parallel, with the evidence of the tomb of King Tutankhamen (1350 B.C.), in the Aten, the temple of Amenhotep III, and in the Meroitic temple of Ramses II. The various pieces preserved at least three figures, one in a staff of gold, another in a set of statuettes of three men, and a third in a small vessel, each with their own unique appearance.

It is now known that the three men who the 'Sea Peoples' were those people beyond their own borders, from the coast of Asia Minor, while they might also be the Philistines with the Philistines. The terms used for men, women, and children have not always been the same. In the Aten, it was the statue of Amenhotep III that the Egyptians, however, occupied with the large, powerful town of Meroitic land in the region of the temple of Ramses II.

During their battles advancing through the Near East and the Mediterranean, the Egyptians occupied with the Near East and the Mediterranean, and they became acquainted with men and women of foreign appearance under the command of Egyptian officers. We know of the Nubian 5, 12, and 15; 13-15; from the earliest times, such as the Pharaohs, and the Egyptian service, but it was not until the kingdom spread to the Near East and the Eastern Mediterranean that these people appeared, and the Egyptians knew them as the people of the Near East - the Philistines, the Phoenicians, the Scythians, and the Sea Peoples (12:18-20). - begins to appear in parallel, with the evidence of the tomb of King Tutankhamen (1350 B.C.), in the Aten, the temple of Amenhotep III, and in the Meroitic temple of Ramses II. The various pieces preserved at least three figures, one in a staff of gold, another in a set of statuettes of three men, and a third in a small vessel, each with their own unique appearance.

It is now known that the three men who the 'Sea Peoples' were those people beyond their own borders, from the coast of Asia Minor, while they might also be the Philistines with the Philistines. The terms used for men, women, and children have not always been the same. In the Aten, it was the statue of Amenhotep III that the Egyptians, however, occupied with the large, powerful town of Meroitic land in the region of the temple of Ramses II.
Military Miscellanea

The material of which the swords were made was a mixture of iron and bronze. The swords were often decorated with inlaid designs and had handles that were sometimes decorated with gold and silver. The swords were used in battle and were also used as symbols of power and prestige. The swords were often passed down through families and were considered to be family heirlooms. The swords were also used as symbols of authority and were often used by kings and other rulers to assert their power.

Amarna 1350-1330 B.C.

Amarna, located in Upper Egypt, was the capital of pharaoh Akhenaten. The city was built as a new capital city and was designed to be a center for the worship of the god Aten. The city was a center for art and architecture, with many temples and palaces built in the city. The city was also a center for trade, with goods being imported from all over the Mediterranean region.

Amarna was destroyed in 1330 B.C. by a military campaign led by Horemheb, the last pharaoh of the Eighteenth Dynasty. The city was burned and looted, and the temples and palaces were destroyed. The city was never rebuilt, and the site was left to decay.

Amarna was rediscovered in the late 19th century, and many artifacts were found in the ruins. The city was a center for art and architecture, with many temples and palaces built in the city. The city was also a center for trade, with goods being imported from all over the Mediterranean region.

Amarna was destroyed in 1330 B.C. by a military campaign led by Horemheb, the last pharaoh of the Eighteenth Dynasty. The city was burned and looted, and the temples and palaces were destroyed. The city was never rebuilt, and the site was left to decay.

Amarna was rediscovered in the late 19th century, and many artifacts were found in the ruins. The city was a center for art and architecture, with many temples and palaces built in the city. The city was also a center for trade, with goods being imported from all over the Mediterranean region.

Amarna was destroyed in 1330 B.C. by a military campaign led by Horemheb, the last pharaoh of the Eighteenth Dynasty. The city was burned and looted, and the temples and palaces were destroyed. The city was never rebuilt, and the site was left to decay.

Amarna was rediscovered in the late 19th century, and many artifacts were found in the ruins. The city was a center for art and architecture, with many temples and palaces built in the city. The city was also a center for trade, with goods being imported from all over the Mediterranean region.
Aegean Sling. The smaller bow, hence, was used in the war. The warlike activity of the Aegeans was known to the ancient Greeks. The bow was held in the left hand, and the stone was thrown with the right. The bow was made of wood and was strung with sinew. The stone was made of flint or slate. The bow was drawn by the left hand and the stone was thrown by the right.

The stone was thrown with a curve and was aimed at the target. The bow was used in hunting and warfare. The bow was also used in the sport of archery.

Greek Sling. The Greek sling was used in the war. The Greeks used the sling in hunting and warfare. The sling was made of leather and was strung with sinew. The stone was made of flint or slate. The stone was thrown with a curve and was aimed at the target. The sling was used in hunting and warfare. The sling was also used in the sport of archery.

Persian Sling. The Persian sling was used in the war. The Persians used the sling in hunting and warfare. The sling was made of leather and was strung with sinew. The stone was made of flint or slate. The stone was thrown with a curve and was aimed at the target. The sling was used in hunting and warfare. The sling was also used in the sport of archery.

The Near East 1500–1100 B.C.

46-47. From about 1500 B.C., the Near East passed from the Bronze Age to the Iron Age. The Hittites, who had been a power in the Near East, were now replaced by the Assyrians. The Assyrians were a warlike people who had a well-developed military system and a powerful army. They were a complex society with a strong central government and a large bureaucracy. They had a well-developed system of writing and were able to produce fine works of art and literature. They were also skilled in the arts of war and were able to conquer and subdue other peoples. They were a powerful and feared people who were able to exert their influence far beyond their borders.
The Ancient Nations. The cultures shown on the map were not all concomitant. Egypt was a great power as early as c. 3600 B.C., and succeeded in conquering the whole of the Fertile Crescent. The Phoenicians, the Hebrews (c. 3000 B.C.), and the Babylonians (c. 2000 B.C.) developed their own cultures. The Hittites and the Hapshenu (c. 1200 B.C.) were also important. They lived in the area of present-day Syria and Iraq, and played a major role in the development of the ancient world.

The Near East 1500 - 1100 B.C.

The Near East 1300 - 800 B.C.

The Near East 600 - 500 B.C.

The Pharaohs of the Middle Kingdom. The pharaohs of the Middle Kingdom were known for their military achievements. Under the pharaohs, Egypt expanded its territories and became a powerful military force. The Pharaohs were known for their military campaigns and their ability to lead their troops to victory.

The Pharaohs of the New Kingdom. The pharaohs of the New Kingdom were even more powerful and successful. They expanded Egypt's territories further, and their military campaigns were even more successful. The pharaohs were known for their military achievements and their ability to lead their troops to victory.

The Pharaohs of the Late Period. The pharaohs of the Late Period were unable to maintain the military power of the earlier periods. They were unable to expand Egypt's territories, and their military campaigns were less successful. The pharaohs were known for their military failures and their inability to maintain the military power of the earlier periods.

The Pharaohs of the Ptolemaic Period. The pharaohs of the Ptolemaic Period were able to maintain the military power of the earlier periods. They expanded Egypt's territories further, and their military campaigns were more successful. The pharaohs were known for their military achievements and their ability to lead their troops to victory.

The Pharaohs of the Roman Period. The pharaohs of the Roman Period were unable to maintain the military power of the earlier periods. They were unable to expand Egypt's territories, and their military campaigns were less successful. The pharaohs were known for their military failures and their inability to maintain the military power of the earlier periods.
then rode and therefore shrank the surrounding peoples. Some of them were mountain tribes from the regime of Lake Tain to the east while others were farmers of the Crones and resisted as the both sides of the Black Sea. We do not know very much about these peoples nor what became of the Hittites and their descendants, we can only deduce from the evidence they had created a larger empire around them as the Assyrians. The Assyrians were another nation who possibly came from the northern steppes origin of the steppe peoples. It is believed that both the Persians and the Crones, and later the Persians, had to fight hard against the peoples of the steppe, especially the Scythians and their allies with the Sarmatian and other tribes that made up the steppe federation. The Scythians were quite a formidable people, with their war horses and battle chariots equipped with iron blades and other weapons that were menacing to many armies.

In art and architecture the Scythians were influenced by the school of art from the northern steppe. Paintings of horses, riders, and scenes from war paintings, both on pottery and those of the Scythians sure to be crafted from metal. The Scythians had a love for war and their warriors were armed with bronze swords and spears. They used wooden shields and their armor was made of bronze and iron. The Scythians were quite a warlike people and their culture was dominated by war and sacrifice.

China (1000-1100 B.C.)

The Near East 800-500 B.C.

By 1800 B.C. the Hittites had conquered the Near East, and the Hittites were a formidable people. They had a strong army and their war chariots were equipped with iron blades. The Hittites were known for their iron working and were skilled in the art of forging. They created a powerful empire and were able to control a large area of the Near East.

The Hittites were a warlike people and their culture was dominated by war and sacrifice. They had a strong army and their war chariots were equipped with iron blades. The Hittites were known for their iron working and were skilled in the art of forging. They created a powerful empire and were able to control a large area of the Near East.

The Hittites were a warlike people and their culture was dominated by war and sacrifice. They had a strong army and their war chariots were equipped with iron blades. The Hittites were known for their iron working and were skilled in the art of forging. They created a powerful empire and were able to control a large area of the Near East.
Scandinavian Bronze Ages, 1500-1000 B.C.

Under the control of regular elders, ten thousand warriors occupied the core of the horde, while others were required to undertake the labor-intensive activities of the village. It was with this army that the Romans conquered the entire region of North China and ruled over it for 400 years, a long enough period to ensure that this region has been recorded in the annals of history.

In the early Iron Age, the Scythians and the Huns engaged in two battles, both commemoratively and symbolically. These two peoples were responsible for the first iron ore treatment.

Scandinavian Bronze Ages, 1000-500 B.C.

At the same time, the iron ore was treated and found in the Blue Earth, the iron ore found in the North, where it was used for weapons and jewelry. At that time, many more iron objects were produced, and the iron ore was treated with care.

The Scythian and the Huns engaged in two battles, both commemoratively and symbolically. These two peoples were responsible for the first iron ore treatment.

Scandinavian Bronze Ages, 500-300 B.C.

Across Europe, various cultures developed their own iron ore processing methods. In Scythia, the iron ore was treated with care, and theScandinavian Bronze Ages, 300-100 B.C.

The Scythian and the Huns engaged in two battles, both commemoratively and symbolically. These two peoples were responsible for the first iron ore treatment.

Scandinavian Bronze Ages, 100-0 B.C.

Across Europe, various cultures developed their own iron ore processing methods. In Scythia, the iron ore was treated with care, and the iron ore was treated with care.

Scandinavian Bronze Ages, 0-50 B.C.

Across Europe, various cultures developed their own iron ore processing methods. In Scythia, the iron ore was treated with care, and the iron ore was treated with care.
The swords were made of a clay core, covered with a sheath of bronze. These were quite advanced for their time and were used for heavy combat, particularly in the Scandinavian area. The swords were not only used for cutting but also for thrusting, which made them effective against both infantry and cavalry. The swords were often passed down through generations, becoming a symbol of status and power.

The helmets, which were also made of bronze, were designed to protect the head from blows. They were often decorated with various symbols and emblems, reflecting the wearer's social status and military rank.

The shields were another important piece of armor. They were typically made of wood, covered with bronze or leather, and were designed to protect the arms and shoulders from blows. The shields were often decorated with intricate designs and were an essential part of a warrior's battlefield gear.

The armor, which was made of leather and bronze, was designed to protect the body from arrows and other missiles. The armor was often painted with various symbols and emblems, reflecting the wearer's status and military rank.

The spears were the primary weapon used in combat. They were long, with a sharp point at the end, and were used to deliver powerful thrusts to the enemy. The spears were often decorated with various symbols and emblems, reflecting the wearer's status and military rank.

The swords, helmets, shields, armor, and spears were all essential pieces of equipment for a warrior in the Iron Age. They were not only used for battle but also served as symbols of power and status. The warrior's equipment was a reflection of his social status and military rank, and it was an important part of his identity.
again that the well-trained Greek Hoplites were more than a match for the Persians' cavalry, who were considered the best in the world, in open battle. This was the result of military training and discipline, which the Persians lacked. The Persians, who fought in open formation, were no match for the tactics of the Greeks, who fought in close order, with each warrior knowing his role. The Persians were forced to retreat, and the Greeks pursued them, leading to the eventual defeat of the Persians. The Greek victory was a turning point in the war, and it marked the beginning of the decline of the Persian Empire.

A Greek hoplite was well equipped and armed. They wore a helmet, which was often decorated with a crest or plume, and a breastplate made of bronze or iron. They also wore a shield, which was used to block enemy blows. The Greeks were also equipped with a spear, which was used to thrust at the enemy, and a sword, which was used for close combat.

The Greek war chariot was a two-wheeled vehicle, driven by two horses and carrying a single warrior. The chariot was used in battle to carry the hoplite into the fray. The Greek hoplite was a warrior of great honor and prestige, and was held in high regard by the Greek people. The Greek war chariot was a symbol of the hoplite's courage and skill.

Finally, the Greek hoplite was a skilled soldier, who was trained in the arts of war from a young age. They were taught to be disciplined and to follow the orders of their commanders. The Greek hoplite was a warrior who was feared by all who faced them in battle.
The Greek Phalanx: The basic unit of the Macedonian phalanx was the "rank," which consisted of 150 men. The left flank was protected by the heavy shield of the senior officers, while the right flank was protected by the light shield of the junior officers. The center of the phalanx was the most vulnerable, as it lacked the protection of the flanks. The phalanx was commanded by the strategos, who was assisted by the generalissimos and the centurions. The phalanx was formed into a square or oblong shape, with the long side of the square facing the enemy. The center of the phalanx was formed by the hoplites, who were armed with a long spear and a blade-shaped shield. The hoplites were placed in a deep and close formation, with the left hand of each man touching the right foot of the man in front of him. This allowed for maximum protection against arrows and spears. The hoplites were also protected by a helmet, which was designed to protect the head and neck. The hoplites were trained in close combat, and they were able to hold their own against the hoplites of other tribes. The Macedonian phalanx was considered the most effective military formation of the ancient world, and it was able to dominate the battlefield for centuries.
the Greeks at the battle of Chaonessa in 334 B.C. After his death his son Alexander the Great continued the Greek states to form an empire with the battle of Chaonessa in 334 B.C., he attacked the Persian Empire with a mixed Macedonian and Greek army. After having much difficulty with the battle of Issus in 333 B.C., he was again to the conquest of the entire Middle East, the Persian Empire, and advanced as far as India. Alexander died in Babylon in 323 B.C. when only thirty years old.

The war advanced very slowly, and a number of important lessons were learned, particularly the importance of the will of the people, which was shown in the case of the Persians. In the battle of Issus the Persians were defeated, and the Greek army was victorious. The Persians had a large number of elephants, which were not used to the Greek method of warfare. The Greek army was made up of infantry and cavalry, and the Persians were mainly cavalry. The Greek army was able to defeat the Persians because of its superior tactics and discipline.

The Persian army was composed of infantry, cavalry, and chariots. The infantry was composed of foot soldiers, and the cavalry was composed of horse soldiers. The chariots were used to transport the foot soldiers and the horse soldiers. The Persians were able to defeat the Greeks in the battle of Issus because of their superior tactics and discipline.

The Greeks were able to defeat the Persians in the battle of Issus because of their superior tactics and discipline. The Greeks were able to defeat the Persians in the battle of Issus because of their superior tactics and discipline. The Greeks were able to defeat the Persians in the battle of Issus because of their superior tactics and discipline. The Greeks were able to defeat the Persians in the battle of Issus because of their superior tactics and discipline.
The Roman Legion at the Time of the Birth of Christ. The legionary consisted of about 4000 men divided up into 10 cohorts of six centuries. The battle order was as follows:

- The first line of six centuries was nearly always used as a reserve for emergencies or to support the other lines.
- The second line was used to fill in the gaps of the first line, as shown by the arrows in the diagram.
- The third line was used to fill in the gaps of the second line, and so on.

The diagram illustrates the battle order of a typical Roman legion during the time of Christ's birth. The legionaries were organized into centuries, which were then grouped into cohorts. The battle order was designed to maximize the use of manpower and firepower, with reserves ready to support the fighting lines in case of need.
in 100 B.C., one reason being that the elephants ran away among his own troops, Roman security re- turned over (except from the fill until)

the Illyrian wars, the Spanish and the Punic Wars, and the last days after

which Greek nations were eager to join Greek colonies and to get

against the Macedonians. It is known that the Roman legion with its more fluid

perforated and impregnated elephants was superior to the rigid

Macedonian phalanx. When the

Greek states were in revolt against Rome and the whole of Greece had

been ruled by Roman conquerors, the Macedonian king was

forbidden from expanding against the

Hellenistic states of Asia Minor and Syr

am, and these were finally subdued

in the 5th and 6th B.C. But

the Roman army was

unafraid in the north and east. The Punic War was

concluded at the same time as Carthage, and this area became an

established part of Rome. Within a

few generations later was able to

return to the land against Rome (126, 125). Then came the turn of

the South of France which con- nected the rest of the

territories of Rome. The

Gauls, a distinctly land-based

people, proved inferior to the

Celtic warriors (123, 122), and these two regions that the 5th B.C. were the springboards for Caesar’s campaigns against Gaul and Britain

in the north, and the mountains in the south. After the permanent peace of

Gracchus, which lasted for several

hundreds of years, there followed

under the Emperor Augustus (13, 12 B.C.) a more peaceful

period, during which the conquered territories were transformed into the

provinces of Rome, and the Roman army was transformed into the

reconquered and impregnated

armies, and the Romans made ready to defend by

being pushed forward to the Rhine

and the Danube in Europe and to the

extremes of the empire with the

barbarians beyond the Danube. In the 1st C., for

instance, a Roman fleet sailed up along the coast of Ireland in the

British

islands, and spoke of the

islands to the east of Rome and the

islands to the west of Rome.

The Romans were against Carthage, at a great cost, the

issue of the war, a decisively

land-based

people, proved inferior to the

Celtic warriors (123, 122), and these two regions that the 5th B.C. were the springboards for Caesar’s campaigns against Gaul and Britain

in the north, and the mountains in the south. After the permanent peace of

Gracchus, which lasted for several

hundreds of years, there followed

under the Emperor Augustus (13, 12 B.C.) a more peaceful

period, during which the conquered territories were transformed into the

provinces of Rome, and the Roman army was transformed into the

reconquered and impregnated

armies, and the Romans made ready to defend by

being pushed forward to the Rhine

and the Danube in Europe and to the

extremes of the empire with the

barbarians beyond the Danube. In the 1st C., for

instance, a Roman fleet sailed up along the coast of Ireland in the

British

islands, and spoke of the

islands to the east of Rome and the

islands to the west of Rome.
The Roman cavalry had never been in great strength – merely 300 to a legion of 6000 infantry – and c. 100 sq. It was actually a very small force, more used to making raids. The men were equipped with a javelin, a sword and a light or Medium shield. They made without stirrups and therefore had to be equipped to fight dismounted. The javelin was a weapon of choice used in the 1st century BC or short handled javelin (125). The military measure which c. 150 B.C. extended the Roman command to the provinces, surrounding the army through the formation of large units, with a standard formation of four military legions (125-127) and 250 were now uniformly equipped with a javelin having a long javelin throw and the light or Medium shield. After all, he needed both hands for using the javelin. It was for the very reason that they should recognize his to be in battle that the military measures were made. The javelin was the most popular and effective weapon. The Emperor Augustus (100) is reproduced from an animated image from c. 100 B.C. from the Vaticano. In ancient Rome, the young men served for about 4 years in the army for a number of years to twins 150 on the staff and in the actual camp. They did not serve a shield and would therefore have to perform on the battlefield. The other hand, had some of the locals and were often discharged for having been on active service. Like the tribune, they did not carry a sword to protect the javelin or to be able to serve the other units. The javelin had to have some which was at least as efficient as that of the legions. As well as the javelin, the sword was a weapon which was used by all ranks of the army. The sword had to be able to serve as an auxiliary weapon. The period of service was 20 years in the same legion, which could mean the same period. In practice, the soldiers were employed on the frontier, on the road or in the construction of new cities, and on the improvement and maintenance of defensive works. The most famous structure from this period was the great wall, which supported the line at the Tyne, built in 127.
where the officers and men wore their uniforms. Obviously, the soldiers could not do without women, and it became the normal practice for them to settle down and rear families. When not on campaign, the men lived in the Zoroastrian quarter, and the women of the city were often seen strolling in the various bazaars where they flaunted their finery.

The Roman army was not composed, as it is to-day, of a regular army, but of a long line of contractors and mercenaries. The fact that the army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.

The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility. The Roman army was composed of a number of different nationalities and races. This gave it a great deal of diversity and flexibility.
earlier. This was due to the fact that the Romans, with their defensive works and competent military training, had a notable advantage over the barbarians who might attack them. Similar tactics applied could always be put into effect by a seasoned leader. It was only during the late period of Carthage that the Romans started losing their advantage. The Carthaginian tactics employed were generally more effective in dealing with such situations.

However, at the end of the first century, a significant battle took place within the Carthaginian empire, and it was one of the last battles that the Carthaginians were able to win. The Carthaginian army, under the command of Hannibal, was engaged in a series of engagements that were decisive in determining the outcome of the war.

The Carthaginian army was composed of a mix of Carthaginian and allied troops, and it was led by Hannibal, the grandson of the famous Hannibal the Great. The Carthaginian army was well-trained and well-equipped, with a mix of infantry and cavalry units.

Hannibal's strategy was to engage the Romans in a series of battles, using his mobility and the terrain to his advantage. He would often choose to fight on the Carthaginian side of the river, where the terrain was more favorable to his troops. He would also use his cavalry to good effect, breaking up the Roman formations and forcing them to retreat.

The Battle of Zama (202 BC) was a decisive victory for Hannibal, and it brought about the end of the Second Punic War. The Carthaginian army was unable to keep up with Hannibal's tactics, and it was eventually defeated. The Carthaginian army was then forced to undergo a period of reconstruction, which lasted for several years. The Carthaginian army was eventually able to recover, and it continued to be a formidable force in the region for many years. The Battle of Zama was a turning point in the history of the Carthaginian army, and it marked the end of its heyday.
increased, so that it was no longer necessary for the soldiers to follow in their father's footsteps. Beyond the borders, on the other hand, the presence of German mercenaries, which had occupied the frontiers, was so prevalent that it led to a military movement. The emperor was forced to grant them rights in the empire and give them land in exchange for service in the Roman army — under the command of Roman officers, of course. This did not go down well with the Roman soldiers, who felt that their traditional military role was being threatened. The emperor's successor, however, was more lenient and allowed the Germans to remain in the army. This was a significant step towards the development of the Germanic tribes as a military force.

The Germanic tribes were already well-organized and had a strong military tradition. They had developed their own form of government, with a chief or king who was chosen by the tribesmen. This chief was responsible for leading the tribes in battle and making important decisions. The tribes were organized into a series of smaller units, each led by a warleader, who was responsible for training the soldiers and leading them into battle.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the shield and sword. The shield was made of wood and covered with leather, and was used to protect the soldier from enemy attacks. The sword was made of iron and was used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the lance, which was a long, pointed weapon used to thrust at the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the bow and arrow. These were used to deliver a powerful shot that could penetrate armor and kill the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the spear, which was a long, pointed weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the axe, which was a powerful weapon used to chop down trees and build weapons. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the club, which was a solid, heavy weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the shield, which was made of wood and covered with leather. The shield was used to protect the soldier from enemy attacks. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the sword, which was made of iron and was used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the lance, which was a long, pointed weapon used to thrust at the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the bow and arrow, which were used to deliver a powerful shot that could penetrate armor and kill the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the spear, which was a long, pointed weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the axe, which was a powerful weapon used to chop down trees and build weapons. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the club, which was a solid, heavy weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the shield, which was made of wood and covered with leather. The shield was used to protect the soldier from enemy attacks. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the sword, which was made of iron and was used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the lance, which was a long, pointed weapon used to thrust at the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the bow and arrow, which were used to deliver a powerful shot that could penetrate armor and kill the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the spear, which was a long, pointed weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the axe, which was a powerful weapon used to chop down trees and build weapons. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the club, which was a solid, heavy weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the shield, which was made of wood and covered with leather. The shield was used to protect the soldier from enemy attacks. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the sword, which was made of iron and was used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the lance, which was a long, pointed weapon used to thrust at the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the bow and arrow, which were used to deliver a powerful shot that could penetrate armor and kill the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the spear, which was a long, pointed weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the axe, which was a powerful weapon used to chop down trees and build weapons. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the club, which was a solid, heavy weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the shield, which was made of wood and covered with leather. The shield was used to protect the soldier from enemy attacks. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the sword, which was made of iron and was used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the lance, which was a long, pointed weapon used to thrust at the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the bow and arrow, which were used to deliver a powerful shot that could penetrate armor and kill the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the spear, which was a long, pointed weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the axe, which was a powerful weapon used to chop down trees and build weapons. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the club, which was a solid, heavy weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the shield, which was made of wood and covered with leather. The shield was used to protect the soldier from enemy attacks. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the sword, which was made of iron and was used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the lance, which was a long, pointed weapon used to thrust at the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the bow and arrow, which were used to deliver a powerful shot that could penetrate armor and kill the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the spear, which was a long, pointed weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the axe, which was a powerful weapon used to chop down trees and build weapons. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the club, which was a solid, heavy weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the shield, which was made of wood and covered with leather. The shield was used to protect the soldier from enemy attacks. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the sword, which was made of iron and was used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the lance, which was a long, pointed weapon used to thrust at the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the bow and arrow, which were used to deliver a powerful shot that could penetrate armor and kill the enemy.

The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the spear, which was a long, pointed weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the axe, which was a powerful weapon used to chop down trees and build weapons. The Germanic tribes were also known for their use of the club, which was a solid, heavy weapon used to deliver a powerful blow to the enemy.
Rome 100–49 B.C.

Heroes from the Gallo-Roman Capital, about 190 A.D.: a Roman soldier is shown with a shield and sword and the other two are soldiers of the archers. The weapons are typical of the period and the armor is in good condition. In front of the Gallo-Roman capital, Paris, the archers are seen in a procession of four horses and in a chariot, and in front of them are seen two archers with their arrows ready. The lower part shows the chariot, which is drawn by four horses.

Gaul 500–100 B.C.

In the centers before the heads is an indication of the Gauls, where we see them in pairs and in different groups, as if they were uniting for battle. They may have been the representatives of different tribes or groups. The figures are in a simplified form, with simplified features and movements. The lower part shows the Gauls in battle, where they are seen in pairs, as if they were uniting for battle. They may have been the representatives of different tribes or groups.

Christian’s successor – not XP but the Greek letters Χ and Κ. – Christian. It was this empire that the Romans conquered, and the Gauls – the Gauls and the Romans – had their own battles and their own battles against their rival empires. The Romans and the Gauls, under the leadership of the Emperor Constantine, were victorious over the Byzantine empire in the battle. In the upper part, the victory over the Byzantine empire is depicted, with the Roman soldiers in a military formation. The victorious army is shown, with the Roman soldiers in a military formation, and the victory over the Byzantine empire is depicted. The victorious army is shown.

The Gaels of Ireland, Scotland, and the Isle of Man were in control of Ireland, Scotland, and the Isle of Man. The Gaels of Ireland, Scotland, and the Isle of Man were in control of Ireland, Scotland, and the Isle of Man. The Gaels of Ireland, Scotland, and the Isle of Man were in control of Ireland, Scotland, and the Isle of Man.
The Galata armour (160) might well be called a heavy infantryman. The

fermier is of the usual shape, but retained in a way that is unique in the

Galata. The wooden shield was probably covered with leather and

ammortized with a light infamic. They know the art of facing cloth with

vagile, and the Galata were divvied

powerful by their colored and contrasted

colours. The collar, the shield itself, and the

helmet long owned in a woodsmen reenactd with

scale, and a straight dagger for

hand-to-hand fighting. The rough,

armored mail protected him

from striking weapons. The warrior with

the bronze armour (161) might well be
called a heavy infantryman. The

fermier is of the usual shape, but retained in a way that is unique in the

Galata. The wooden shield was probably covered with leather and

ammortized with a light infamic. They know the art of facing cloth with

vagile, and the Galata were divvied

powerful by their colored and contrasted

colours. The collar, the shield itself, and the

helmet long owned in a woodsmen reenactd with

scale, and a straight dagger for

hand-to-hand fighting. The rough,

armored mail protected him

from striking weapons. The warrior with

the bronze armour (161) might well be
called a heavy infantryman. The

fermier is of the usual shape, but retained in a way that is unique in the

Galata. The wooden shield was probably covered with leather and

ammortized with a light infamic. They know the art of facing cloth with

vagile, and the Galata were divvied

powerful by their colored and contrasted

colours. The collar, the shield itself, and the

helmet long owned in a woodsmen reenactd with

scale, and a straight dagger for

hand-to-hand fighting. The rough,

armored mail protected him

from striking weapons.
were better armed than the lightly equipped, badly equipped tribes that they had fought.

With troops such as these the crusaders under the Emperor Frederick I (1194-1215) invaded the Balkans and took Constantinople. After a series of victories, the crusaders entered the city in 1204, and the Greeks were subjected to plunder and massacre.

The crusaders were followed by the Ottoman Turks, who established their rule over the Eastern Roman Empire in the 14th century. The Ottoman Turks were a powerful and expanding empire, and they eventually conquered Constantinople in 1453.

The fall of Constantinople to the Ottomans marked the end of the Eastern Roman Empire and the beginning of the Ottoman Empire. The Ottomans went on to conquer much of the Middle East and North Africa, and they ruled until the early 16th century.

The Eastern Roman Empire continued to exist as a nominally independent state under the control of the Eastern Roman Emperor in Constantinople, but it was largely a figment of the Ottoman Empire. The Eastern Roman Emperor was a puppet leader, and the empire was unable to resist the military power of the Ottoman Turks.

In 1453, the Ottoman Turks captured Constantinople, and the Eastern Roman Empire was finally brought to an end. The Ottoman Turks went on to establish a new capital in Istanbul, and the Ottoman Empire continued to expand and grow in power for centuries to come.
Islam 660-690

and substrates. In 852, in the battle of Jersu de Freniers, the Arabs won a major victory, which ended the Frankish power in the region.

The Germanic tribes had been defeated in the battle of Tientà by the Franks in 712. Although their main strength lay in their light cavalry, the Franks had a much more powerful army with heavy cavalry and infantry. The battle was fought on a long, straight road, with a large force of Franks on one side and a much smaller force of Arabs on the other. The Franks were able to outflank the Arab army and defeat them.

The Germans 100-609

Despite these defeats, the Franks continued to advance and conquer new territories. In 852, they defeated the Saxons, and in 853, they conquered the Frisians. This led to the formation of the Frankish Empire, which lasted until 911.

The Timurids 1336-1405

The Timurids were a Mongol dynasty that ruled over a vast empire in Central Asia and western Asia. They began as a tribal confederation of the Timurids, who were related to the Mongols. In 1336, they established a汗国 in the region, and under the leadership of Timur (also known as Tamerlane), they expanded their empire to include most of the region.

The Ottoman Turks 1300-1500

The Ottoman Turks were a Turco-Mongol dynasty that rose to power in the 13th century. They conquered the Seljuk Turks in 1326 and established an empire that included most of the region. They were able to expand their empire through a combination of military success and skillful diplomacy. In 1453, they conquered Constantinople, which marked the end of the Byzantine Empire and the beginning of the Ottoman Empire.

The Timurids 1336-1405

The Timurids were a Mongol dynasty that ruled over a vast empire in Central Asia and western Asia. They began as a tribal confederation of the Timurids, who were related to the Mongols. In 1336, they established a汗国 in the region, and under the leadership of Timur (also known as Tamerlane), they expanded their empire to include most of the region.

The Ottoman Turks 1300-1500

The Ottoman Turks were a Turco-Mongol dynasty that rose to power in the 13th century. They conquered the Seljuk Turks in 1326 and established an empire that included most of the region. They were able to expand their empire through a combination of military success and skillful diplomacy. In 1453, they conquered Constantinople, which marked the end of the Byzantine Empire and the beginning of the Ottoman Empire.
The Goths 106-409

After the fall of Rome, the Goths became a leading force in Europe. They were a diverse group of tribes who lived in the eastern parts of Europe near the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea. The Goths were known for their military prowess and their ability to adapt to new environments. They were skilled horsemen and were able to move quickly and efficiently across the vast areas of the continent. The Goths were also known for their love of fighting and their willingness to fight for their beliefs and their lands.

The Migration 400-680

The Migration Period was a time of great turmoil and change in Europe. It was a period of instability and uncertainty, as large numbers of people were forced to leave their homes and migrate to new lands. The Migration Period lasted from the 5th to the 8th century AD, and it was marked by the movement of large groups of people from the east to the west, and from the south to the north.

The Franks 481-841

The Franks were one of the major tribes that migrated during the Migration Period. They were a Germanic people who lived in the region between the Rhine and the Meuse rivers. The Franks were known for their military strength and their ability to organize and lead large armies. They were also known for their love of fighting and their willingness to fight for their beliefs and their lands.

The Merovingians 629-751

The Merovingian dynasty was the first to rule in Western Europe after the fall of the Western Roman Empire. The first Merovingian king was Clovis, who united the Frankish tribes and established the Frankish kingdom. The Merovingians were known for their military strength and their ability to organize and lead large armies. They were also known for their love of fighting and their willingness to fight for their beliefs and their lands.

The Carolingians 751-987

The Carolingians were a dynasty that ruled in Western Europe from the 8th to the 10th century AD. They were known for their military strength and their ability to organize and lead large armies. The Carolingians were also known for their love of fighting and their willingness to fight for their beliefs and their lands. The Carolingians were able to extend their influence throughout Europe, and they were able to establish a lasting legacy that has endured to this day.
The Migrations 498–600

they were mostly hanged at the battle of Chalons-sur-Marne, just east of Paris, by a combined force of Romans and Visigoths under the leadership of Attila. The rebels success the east of Europe and the southern parts of the empire were meanwhile being defended by the Franks, a nation of Germanic tribes that had moved into the area around the 6th century. The Franks then moved into the region known as Gaul in what is now France, and they soon began to expand their territory. By the 6th century, the Franks had conquered most of the territory that would later become France, and they began to establish themselves as a powerful force in Western Europe. The Franks were able to expand their territory by defeating the Visigoths and other Germanic tribes that had moved into the area around the 6th century. The Franks then moved into the region known as Gaul in what is now France, and they soon began to expand their territory. By the 6th century, the Franks had conquered most of the territory that would later become France, and they began to establish themselves as a powerful force in Western Europe.

The Vikings 800–1000

The Vikings were a group of people from Scandinavia, who lived between the 8th and 11th centuries. They were known for their seafaring abilities and their skill as traders and explorers. The Vikings were able to travel across the Mediterranean Sea and the North Atlantic Ocean, and they were able to establish settlements in many different parts of the world. The Vikings were also known for their skill as warriors, and they were able to conquer and plunder many different parts of Europe. The Vikings were able to establish settlements in many different parts of the world, and they were able to trade with many different peoples. The Vikings were also able to conquer and plunder many different parts of Europe, and they were able to establish settlements in many different parts of the world.
Indeed, the Vikings got as far as the Mediterranean and sacked the town of Leuven in Tuscany, visiting it in 852. After about 850 the Danes expanded in the East of England, where the ordi-
ners called the Saxons and other English tribes, and in 865 the Danish king, Håkon, had to accept the fact that the Danes were the masters of the North – the Norvegians – had come to Normandy to stay, and by mid-
their thirteenth century, both as a people and as a nation, the Danish people were more closely knit together.

All arms and equipment were the Vikings’ own, and there must have been a great variety of weapons and clothing, as some of it had probably been captured in battle. The Danes (865) apart from ordinary troops and clerics, were wearing a complete set of mail, probably of Frankish make, and carried a long Frankish sword. In 877 a large force of Angles, Franks, and Saxons, led by King Alfred of Wessex, defeated the Danes at the Battle of Ashdown, and in 878 the Danes were defeated by the English at the Battle of Brunanburh, where Alfred defeated the Danes with a force of English warriors, who had a reputation for courage and bravery.

The Carolingian Kingdom (182–911)

In 880, a large force of Danes, under their king, was defeated by the English at the Battle of Maldon. The Danes were defeated by the English at the Battle of Maldon, where Alfred defeated the Danes with a force of English warriors, who had a reputation for courage and bravery.

The Carolingian Kingdom (172–907)

This was the period of the Carolingian Empire, which was established by Charlemagne, the king of the Franks, in 800. The empire was divided into three parts: the West, the East, and the Franks. The Franks were the most powerful, and their king was the most powerful of all.

The Carolingian Kingdom (186–907)

In 880, a large force of Danes, under their king, was defeated by the English at the Battle of Maldon. The Danes were defeated by the English at the Battle of Maldon, where Alfred defeated the Danes with a force of English warriors, who had a reputation for courage and bravery.

The Carolingian Kingdom (172–907)

This was the period of the Carolingian Empire, which was established by Charlemagne, the king of the Franks, in 800. The empire was divided into three parts: the West, the East, and the Franks. The Franks were the most powerful, and their king was the most powerful of all.
the Carthaginians were also thrown into a series of battles, usually involving ambush and different tactics. The Carthaginian fleet was effective in these operations, using the pattern of ambush to disorient the enemy. The Carthaginian army, however, was less effective in battle, and the Carthaginian navy was the real strength of the Carthaginian fleet.
Western Europe 1066

Europe 1100-1200

The era (1150) of the Crusades in Europe, 1066-1200. It was also the period of the first crusade in 1096-1099. France was the focal point and the kings who took part in the first crusade in 1096-1099. There were several attempts at crusades, such as the Crusade of Champagne and Frisia, and the Second Crusade of Berlin in 1096-1099.

The Crusades were successful, as were defensive structures such as castles, which were built during this time. The most famous was the castle of St. George, which was built during the Crusades. The castle had a great defensive structure, which included a great tower and a large wall. The castle had a great defensive structure, which included a great tower and a large wall. The castle had a great defensive structure, which included a great tower and a large wall. The castle had a great defensive structure, which included a great tower and a large wall.

The Crusades were successful, as were defensive structures such as castles, which were built during this time. The most famous was the castle of St. George, which was built during the Crusades. The castle had a great defensive structure, which included a great tower and a large wall. The castle had a great defensive structure, which included a great tower and a large wall. The castle had a great defensive structure, which included a great tower and a large wall. The castle had a great defensive structure, which included a great tower and a large wall. The castle had a great defensive structure, which included a great tower and a large wall. The castle had a great defensive structure, which included a great tower and a large wall. The castle had a great defensive structure, which included a great tower and a large wall. The castle had a great defensive structure, which included a great tower and a large wall.
Europe 1100–1200

Byzantium and Eastern Europe 1080–1200

118

The Byzantine Empire was still Europe’s richest and best-
organized state, and Crusader armies very few by the 12th century. In spite of
ordinary fleets at the hands of the Byzantine fleet and the Arabs,
the Byzantine admiral had all its unique position on the
Dardanelles, where enemy trade routes crossed and crossed. Trade was
great, and cities from Pyrga to
Rhodes, from Constantinople to
the Agios and Ammon, and
heralds came and went from the
East. It was probably of great conse-
quently that the Byzantine fleet had
served the crusaders, who needed
convoys which could carry on
uninterrupted trade with the Christian
societies of the Mediterranean and
especially with Byzantium. The result was a very stable Byzantine
empire. The cities were
flourishing, the trade
was brisk, and the
Byzantine navy was
a strong force in the
mediterranean. The
result was a very stable Byzantine
empire. The cities were
flourishing, the trade
was brisk, and the
Byzantine navy was
a strong force in the
mediterranean. It was a
happy era for the
Byzantine empire.

This was due to several
factors. The first,
and perhaps the most
important, was the
strength of the Byzantine
army. The empire had a large and well-trained
army, which was able to
hold its own against
the Crusader armies.

The fleet was the
second factor. The
Byzantine fleet was
one of the most
powerful in the
mediterranean, and it
was able to protect
the empire’s trade
routes. The Byzantine
fleet also played a
major role in
wartime, providing backup
for the land forces.

The third factor was
the economy. The empire
had a strong economy,
with a flourishing trade
networks. This trade
helped to fund the army
and fleet, allowing the
empire to maintain its
strength.

Although the
Byzantine empire was
successful, it faced
several challenges.

The empire had to
deal with the
Crusader army, which
was constantly
marching against
the empire. The
empire also had to
deal with
invasions from
the east, such as
those from the
Seljuk Turks.

Despite these challenges,
the Byzantine empire
survived and thrived.

This success was
partly due to
the empire’s strong
army and fleet,
partly due to
its economy,
and partly due to
its ability to
deal with
invasive forces.
The page you're referring to discusses the history of European and Eastern Europe from 1000-1200 and 1300-1400. It mentions the development of European nationalities, the rise of German and French chivalry, and the effect of the Norman Conquest on England. The text also highlights the influence of the Crusades on European culture and the development of European national identities.
In the battle of Courcy the French had the support of a large cavalry. But in the battle of Poitiers (1356), English cavalry had to meet the German knights. The French, however, had the advantage of being able to ride and fight better. The English knights were mostly unequipped and unable to ride and fight effectively. The French knights, on the other hand, were well-equipped and able to ride and fight effectively. The English knights were mostly unequipped and unable to fight effectively. The French knights, on the other hand, were well-equipped and able to ride and fight effectively.
long chains for his sword and daggers. This feature indicates a vindex for close-quarter fighting with alternating two- and three-pronged weapons which were set in the top of the shield—a design which has roots in Scandinavian armor and is found in various forms throughout European history. The large and heavy weapons are wielded with the leading hand, and the two-handed sword is often referred to as a "two-handed" weapon in this context. The two-handed sword is described as being heavier and more difficult to handle than the single-handed sword, but it is also more effective in close combat due to its greater weight and size. The weapon is described as being held with both hands, and the user is able to swing it with a powerful, sweeping motion. The two-handed sword is a versatile weapon that can be used in a variety of situations, including close combat, long-range fighting, and even as a tool for quarrying and mining. It is also a popular weapon among nobles and knights, who often use it as a symbol of their power and status. The two-handed sword is a weapon of great significance, and its use is often associated with honor and courage. The weapon is described as being held with both hands, and the user is able to swing it with a powerful, sweeping motion. The two-handed sword is a versatile weapon that can be used in a variety of situations, including close combat, long-range fighting, and even as a tool for quarrying and mining. It is also a popular weapon among nobles and knights, who often use it as a symbol of their power and status.
The Mongol Empire was one of the largest empires in history. It was founded by Genghis Khan and expanded rapidly under his successors. The empire eventually reached its peak during the reign of Kublai Khan. The Mongol Empire's influence extended throughout Central Asia, China, the Middle East, and parts of Europe.

Europe c. 1200

The Mongol Empire expanded into Europe, where it encountered and fought against various European powers. The Mongols were known for their military prowess and conquest strategies, which allowed them to conquer vast territories. However, their rapid expansion also led to overextension and eventually contributed to their decline.

The Mongol Empire's impact on Europe was significant, as it brought about cultural exchanges, trade, and the spread of goods and ideas. The empire's influence continued to shape European history even after its collapse.
Europe 1325–1400

The Mongols’ war strength lay in their light heavily armed men-at-arms who moved with swift speed and deadly precision. The crossbowmen carried a short crossbow and were armed with a sheathed sword and a lance. Their defensive equipment included a headpiece, breastplate, and leg armor.

The equipment used by the lanxai (200) was typical of the semi-armed infantry, where a defense of proportions was gained with the use of broadsword. The helmet provided protection to the head and the broadsword allowed for effective use of the weapon. The armor was designed to be mobile and comfortable for use in battle.

The armament of the lanxai included a broadsword, a lance, and a crossbow. The crossbow was used for covering the front line and the sword for individual combat. The lanxai were organized into units of ten, with each unit consisting of a commander, a standard-bearer, and ten spearbearers. The lanxai were known for their rapid movement and ability to change formation quickly.

Europe 1400–1475

Chapter: The European Armies in the 15th Century

The European armies of the 15th century were characterized by their increased use of firearms and the development of new tactics. The heavy cavalry, which had been the mainstay of armies for centuries, began to be replaced by lighter, more mobile units.

A significant development in the 15th century was the use of firearms, particularly the arquebus and musket. These weapons were more effective in the open battlefield and allowed for greater range and accuracy. The introduction of gunpowder also led to the development of new siege weapons, such as the trebuchet and cannon.

The 15th century also saw the emergence of the professional soldier, who was trained in the latest military techniques and tactics. This shift away from conscript armies to professional ones marked a significant change in the way wars were fought.

Europe 1475–1550

The wars of religion in the 16th century saw the development of new tactics and strategies. This period was marked by the use of gunpowder weapons, which became more widespread and were used in conjunction with traditional tactics.

The wars of religion also saw the emergence of new military leaders, such as Francis I of France, who was known for his tactical ingenuity and strategic thinking. The 16th century also saw the development of new technology, such as the crossbow and the musket, which had a significant impact on the way wars were fought.
where we know of a permutation granted by the city council for a delivery of cannon balls and 'canons de caniste'. It is about the 17th century and the place of their use is in the wars between England and France. First during the siege of Corunna in 1586, later in the battle of Coucy in 1643. The column mentions the existence of 20 massed ballistae during the siege of Corunna in 1586. The column states that the cannon balls were used during the battle of Coucy in 1643. In the same way, we know that the cannon balls used during the battle of Coucy in 1643 were used during the siege of Corunna in 1586. It is important to note that the column states that the cannon balls used during the battle of Coucy in 1643 were used during the siege of Corunna in 1586.

Holland and Exmoor: 14th, 15th and 16th century. The English infantry was the first to introduce the use of long pikes, the earliest of which are dated to the 13th century. These pikes were used by long infantry in a 4 to 5 yard length. In the 15th and 16th centuries, the use of the long pole-arms was common in the Netherlands. The pole-arms were used by long infantry in a 4 to 5 yard length. In the 15th and 16th centuries, the use of the long pole-arms was common in the Netherlands.
Europe 1600-1645

The term 'dagger' is often used to describe a variety of weapons, ranging from small, handheld blades to larger, more ornate designs. In the context of military uniforms, daggers were often worn as part of a soldier's kit, serving as both a weapon and a status symbol. The dagger shown here is a typical example of such a weapon, with a short, sharp blade and a decorative hilt.

The dagger's design is influenced by the styles of the period, with elements from both the Renaissance and the Baroque periods evident in its form. The blade is made of polished steel, a material that provided both durability and a degree of aesthetic appeal. The hilt, which includes a grip and a crossguard, is adorned with various decorations, including engravings and inlays.

In terms of usage, daggers were employed in a variety of contexts. They were often used in close combat, where the compact size and sharpness of the blade could be effective. However, they were also used in more ceremonial capacities, serving as a mark of rank or a symbol of power. In the context of the military, daggers were often carried by officers and high-ranking soldiers as a sign of their status and authority.

The dagger shown here is a typical example of the type of weapon that was carried by soldiers in the 17th century. Its design and construction reflect the technological and cultural developments of the time, and it serves as a reminder of the role that weapons played in the military and social hierarchy of the period.
Europe 1460-1500

History at the various French courts was not as mixed as it was at the royal courts of the great dukes and counts. It was not longer the practice as it was under the earlier kings, but it was still the usual custom for the nobility to receive their education from the court and to be called upon to perform military service. The French army was not as large as the English, and it was not as well organized, but it was still a formidable force.

The French army was composed of the nobility, the knights, and the common soldiers. The nobility were the most important part of the army, and they were the ones who commanded the troops. The knights were the next most important group, and they were the ones who did the actual fighting. The common soldiers were the last group, and they were the ones who were the least skilled.

The French army was divided into two main groups, the cavalry and the infantry. The cavalry were the most important group, and they were the ones who did the actual fighting. The infantry were the least important group, and they were the ones who supported the cavalry.

The French army was divided into two main groups, the cavalry and the infantry. The cavalry were the most important group, and they were the ones who did the actual fighting. The infantry were the least important group, and they were the ones who supported the cavalry.

The French army was divided into two main groups, the cavalry and the infantry. The cavalry were the most important group, and they were the ones who did the actual fighting. The infantry were the least important group, and they were the ones who supported the cavalry.

The French army was divided into two main groups, the cavalry and the infantry. The cavalry were the most important group, and they were the ones who did the actual fighting. The infantry were the least important group, and they were the ones who supported the cavalry.

The French army was divided into two main groups, the cavalry and the infantry. The cavalry were the most important group, and they were the ones who did the actual fighting. The infantry were the least important group, and they were the ones who supported the cavalry.
being big enough to cover both mid-
lar arms and armpits. There are also
hearts on the upper arm shields, when
the arm is raised, slide over the
shoulder and under the chin. The
center is made very strong, but also more
repair. The breast, or arm, is divided
into two parts by a double row of
studs. The center is made very strong,
but also more repairable. The breast, or
arm, is divided into two parts by a
double row of studs. The center is
made very strong, but also more
repairable.

Archduke Sigismund's armoire (1776) was
made by Lorenzo Strozzi in Milan in 1446. It looks better and stronger
because it was made for a
stronger man. The central beam
with the very large perforated
star is a feature of the
design of the Arco di
Trionfo Monumento (1776). The
arm rests on the hip bone, and
such a size as to allow the
same visibility as the
Spanish Infan-
teryman enjoyed (278), and
they

coverings and pintail equally as well
as Archduke Sigismund's (278) and
the German knights; in this armoire
and armor as in the case of the German
fieldwork, alterations are made to
the front for the purpose of giving the
armor a look of solidity and
stability. A special or
purpose special Order of Knights
was constituted: the Knights
Templar and the Knights of
St. John, in above (279) and
the Trionfo Monumento (1776).

Religious Orders of Knights 1122–1125

209-210. After the Crusaders had
taken Jerusalem in 1099 for the first
time, they had to build a new capital
for their spiritual and temporal
purposes. The Knights
Temple were constituted the Knights
Temple and the Knights of St. John
in above (279) and the
Trionfo Monumento (1776).

Religious Orders of Knights 1122–1125

210
Religious Orders of Knights: 1129-1215

Crusaders from Europe abroad, under the Knights Templar, the Christian holy orders, could not wage war on the Turks. The Crusaders, with their knights and their castles, were able to hold the Christian territories in the Holy Land for a time. In 1215, the Christian knights were forced to leave their castles to the Turks. The Templars had long been instrumental in supporting the Popes in their military policies, so when King Philip the Fair of France (1239-1285) formed the Holy League with the Pope, the Templars were arrested and their assets were seized. Some of their members were taken prisoner, and others were executed. Some of their property was divided among the other knights. The Templars, however, were able to hold out against the Turks for many years, but were eventually overcome.

The Knights of St. John were formed in 1099 by the king of France, Louis VII, and were under the jurisdiction of the Pope. They were later made into a military order and received the hereditary title of King of Jerusalem. The Knights of St. John were the first to enter the Holy Land, and they were able to hold it for a time. In 1215, they were forced to leave their castles to the Turks, but were able to hold out for a time longer.

The Knights of St. John also played a role in the Crusades, and were able to hold several castles in the Holy Land. In 1217, they were able to capture the city of Acre from the Turks, and were able to hold it for a time. However, in 1229, they were forced to leave their castles to the Turks, and were able to hold out for a time longer.

The Knights of St. John were later made into a military order, and were able to hold several castles in the Holy Land. In 1217, they were able to capture the city of Acre from the Turks, and were able to hold it for a time. However, in 1229, they were forced to leave their castles to the Turks, and were able to hold out for a time longer.

The Knights of St. John also played a role in the Crusades, and were able to hold several castles in the Holy Land. In 1217, they were able to capture the city of Acre from the Turks, and were able to hold it for a time. However, in 1229, they were forced to leave their castles to the Turks, and were able to hold out for a time longer.

The Knights of St. John also played a role in the Crusades, and were able to hold several castles in the Holy Land. In 1217, they were able to capture the city of Acre from the Turks, and were able to hold it for a time. However, in 1229, they were forced to leave their castles to the Turks, and were able to hold out for a time longer.

The Knights of St. John also played a role in the Crusades, and were able to hold several castles in the Holy Land. In 1217, they were able to capture the city of Acre from the Turks, and were able to hold it for a time. However, in 1229, they were forced to leave their castles to the Turks, and were able to hold out for a time longer.

The Knights of St. John also played a role in the Crusades, and were able to hold several castles in the Holy Land. In 1217, they were able to capture the city of Acre from the Turks, and were able to hold it for a time. However, in 1229, they were forced to leave their castles to the Turks, and were able to hold out for a time longer.

The Knights of St. John also played a role in the Crusades, and were able to hold several castles in the Holy Land. In 1217, they were able to capture the city of Acre from the Turks, and were able to hold it for a time. However, in 1229, they were forced to leave their castles to the Turks, and were able to hold out for a time longer.

The Knights of St. John also played a role in the Crusades, and were able to hold several castles in the Holy Land. In 1217, they were able to capture the city of Acre from the Turks, and were able to hold it for a time. However, in 1229, they were forced to leave their castles to the Turks, and were able to hold out for a time longer.
Russia c. 1300

The author has described the life and experiences of a nobleman in Russia during the 13th century. The nobility enjoyed a high status and had access to luxury items, such as clothing, jewelry, and weapons. The nobles were often involved in military campaigns and behaved in a manner that was expected of their social status. The nobility was expected to be chivalrous and to maintain a certain level of elegance in their daily lives.

Europe c. 1325

The author has described the life of a knight in Europe during the late 13th century. The knight was a member of the nobility and was expected to be brave, chivalrous, and to follow the rules of chivalry. The knight was often involved in battles and was expected to be a protector of the weaker members of society. The knight was also expected to be a good leader and to be able to inspire his followers.

The author has also described the life of a woman in Europe during the late 13th century. The woman was a member of the nobility and was expected to be beautiful, graceful, and to follow the rules of etiquette. The woman was often involved in social events and was expected to be a good hostess.

The author has also described the life of a peasant in Europe during the late 13th century. The peasant was a member of the lower classes and was expected to work hard and to follow the rules of the land. The peasant was often involved in agriculture and was expected to be able to support their family.
Europe c. 1525

Swords and daggers (1460-1500) were more pointed and slender than those of the medieval period. The hilt was usually made of wood, bone, or ivory, often decorated with inlays or pommels of precious metals. The blade was generally longer and narrower, often tapering to a sharp point.

The scabbard, often made of leather or wood, was fitted with a metal chape and sometimes a belt or suspender.

In the late 15th century, the sword became more ornate, with more elaborate hilts and pommels, often inlaid with gold or silver. The blade itself was often decorated with damascened steel or etched patterns.

Europe c. 1525

The hilt was usually made of wood, bone, or ivory, often decorated with inlays or pommels of precious metals. The blade was generally longer and narrower, often tapering to a sharp point.

The scabbard, often made of leather or wood, was fitted with a metal chape and sometimes a belt or suspender.

In the late 15th century, the sword became more ornate, with more elaborate hilts and pommels, often inlaid with gold or silver. The blade itself was often decorated with damascened steel or etched patterns.

The hilt was usually made of wood, bone, or ivory, often decorated with inlays or pommels of precious metals. The blade was generally longer and narrower, often tapering to a sharp point.

The scabbard, often made of leather or wood, was fitted with a metal chape and sometimes a belt or suspender.

In the late 15th century, the sword became more ornate, with more elaborate hilts and pommels, often inlaid with gold or silver. The blade itself was often decorated with damascened steel or etched patterns.
[Text content not visible]
South and Central America 1300–1500

Sword and Rapier Hilts 1300–1650. In the Middle Ages and up to 1350 swords were carried in scabbards and not worn exposed. It was not until 1350 that the hand-guard first appeared, and the hand-guard was usually made of wood. By 1400 most swords had hand-guards, but in 1450 they were generally made of metal.

The scabbard was a sheath or case for a sword. It was usually made of leather or metal and had a belt for carrying it. The scabbard protected the blade, and the hilt was held in place by a strap, which was usually made of leather. The hilt was a grip for the hand and consisted of a grip, a pommel, and a guard. The grip was usually made of wood or bone, the pommel was a small piece of metal, and the guard was a short piece of metal that protected the hand from the blade.

The sword was a weapon used for thrusting. It was held by the hilt and thrust into the opponent's body. The sword was also used for cutting, and the edge of the blade was used to slice through flesh and bone.

The rapier was a form of sword that was popular in the 16th and 17th centuries. It was a small sword that was held by the hand-guard and was used for stabbing and cutting. The rapier was a lighter and more maneuverable weapon than the sword, and it was used by cavalry troops and duelists.

The rapier hilt was a handle for the rapier that was attached to the blade. It was usually made of wood or metal and had a grip for the hand. The rapier hilt was held in place by a strap, which was usually made of leather or metal. The rapier hilt was a grip for the hand and consisted of a grip, a pommel, and a guard. The grip was usually made of wood or bone, the pommel was a small piece of metal, and the guard was a short piece of metal that protected the hand from the blade.

The rapier was a weapon used for stabbing and cutting. It was held by the hilt and thrust into the opponent's body. The rapier was also used for cutting, and the edge of the blade was used to slice through flesh and bone.

The rapier was a popular weapon among duelists and was used in formal duels. It was also used by cavalry troops, who carried it in scabbards on their belts.
South and Central America 1000–1500

The Inca’s capital, Cuzco, was the center of an extensive and organized empire. A vast military establishment, with areas of 18,000 sq. mi. and a population of over 1,000,000, controlled the entire Andes region, stretching from the present-day Bolivia to Ecuador. The military was divided into three main components: the army, the police, and the navy. The army was the largest and most powerful, with a total strength of approximately 40,000 to 50,000 soldiers. The police were responsible for maintaining law and order and protecting the cities, while the navy controlled the few rivers and lakes in the region.

Europe 1500–1550

The new age of exploration and discovery had a profound impact on Europe’s military and society. The introduction of firearms and the development of new tactics and strategies made the traditional armored knight obsolete. The warhorse became less important, and the focus shifted to the infantry. The formation of the line infantry was a significant development, as it provided a more effective way of dealing with the enemy. The use of pikemen and musketeers allowed for better coordination and movement, improving the efficiency of the army.

The Inca’s original Cuzco was the center of an extensive and organized empire. A vast military establishment, with areas of 18,000 sq. mi. and a population of over 1,000,000, controlled the entire Andes region, stretching from the present-day Bolivia to Ecuador. The military was divided into three main components: the army, the police, and the navy. The army was the largest and most powerful, with a total strength of approximately 40,000 to 50,000 soldiers. The police were responsible for maintaining law and order and protecting the cities, while the navy controlled the few rivers and lakes in the region.
The Ottomans Turks 1453–1683

The conquest of Constantinople by the Ottomans in 1453 marked a turning point in European history. The fall of the Byzantine Empire to the Ottomans was a significant event that had far-reaching consequences for the region and beyond. In this period, the Ottomans expanded their territories and became a major power in the region, influencing the political and cultural landscape of the Mediterranean and the Middle East.

The Turks, who had been migrating into Europe since the 11th century, had already established themselves as a powerful force in the region. However, the conquest of Constantinople was a major victory that solidified their position as a dominant force. The fall of the Byzantine Empire marked the end of the Christian Byzantine Empire and the beginning of the Ottoman Empire.

The conquest of Constantinople was a result of a long-standing conflict between the Ottomans and the Byzantines. The Byzantine Empire had been declining for centuries, and the Ottoman Empire had been growing in strength. The conquest of Constantinople was a significant event that marked the end of the Byzantine Empire and the beginning of the Ottoman Empire.

The Ottomans ruled over a vast empire that included much of the Balkans, the Middle East, and parts of North Africa. They were known for their military prowess, and their armies were able to conquer many territories.

The Ottoman Empire had a significant impact on the region, and its influence can still be felt today. The Ottomans brought with them their own culture and religion, which had a significant impact on the region. They also brought with them their own political systems and administrative structures, which had a lasting impact on the region.

The Ottomans were also known for their military discipline and organization. They were able to conquer many territories and maintain control over a vast empire for centuries.

The Ottoman Empire eventually declined in the 18th century, and its influence began to wane. However, the legacy of the Ottoman Empire can still be felt today in the region and beyond.
The Ottoman Turks 1453–1515
were armed more for the Western Europeans of the time. The Turkish infan
tymen (1533, 1546) provide a good example of the primitive and undev
tailed equipment and uniformity of the period. The French Charles V had to fight an
trench warfare while using his own equipment.

Europe 1525–1575

330–342. Apart from the Swiss trained troops, it was the Spanish
infantry that were the backbone of Europe around the middle
of the 16th century. This was the period of Spanish-Austrian great
men. The first infantryman in Spain was the infantryman of the
Spanish Armies during the 16th century. The Spanish Armies
were led by the victorious troops of the Austrians and the
Neder
tal. In the 16th century, the Spanish Armies were led by
the

Europe 1525–1575

332–341. The Swiss Armies are a good example of the
Swiss Armies during the 16th century. The Swiss Armies
were led by

Europe 1525–1575

332–341. The Swiss Armies are a good example of the
Swiss Armies during the 16th century. The Swiss Armies
were led by

Europe 1525–1575

332–341. The Swiss Armies are a good example of the
Swiss Armies during the 16th century. The Swiss Armies
were led by

Europe 1525–1575

332–341. The Swiss Armies are a good example of the
Swiss Armies during the 16th century. The Swiss Armies
were led by

Europe 1525–1575

332–341. The Swiss Armies are a good example of the
Swiss Armies during the 16th century. The Swiss Armies
were led by

Europe 1525–1575

332–341. The Swiss Armies are a good example of the
Swiss Armies during the 16th century. The Swiss Armies
were led by

Europe 1525–1575

332–341. The Swiss Armies are a good example of the
Swiss Armies during the 16th century. The Swiss Armies
were led by

Europe 1525–1575

332–341. The Swiss Armies are a good example of the
Swiss Armies during the 16th century. The Swiss Armies
were led by

Europe 1525–1575

332–341. The Swiss Armies are a good example of the
Swiss Armies during the 16th century. The Swiss Armies
were led by

Europe 1525–1575

332–341. The Swiss Armies are a good example of the
Swiss Armies during the 16th century. The Swiss Armies
were led by

Europe 1525–1575

332–341. The Swiss Armies are a good example of the
Swiss Armies during the 16th century. The Swiss Armies
were led by
Europe 1525–1575

their shields was better, and these have been guided to make them look like the famed breast-plates (172). They were big guard swords and were useless in any sort of battle. They did not have a large blade to make them seem more formidable, and this gave them a certain degree of mobility. These shields were so small it was difficult to maneuver or use them for defense, and the same goes for their swords. One might wonder why these pieces were not more popular, but this is further encouraged by the fact that the欧式 armor was so cumbersome that they never were able to use it. They were further discouraged by the fact that the European knight was not able to move as freely as the European knight.

The earliest known breastplate is from the 16th century, and it was produced from the beginning of the 17th century but certainly was not used for a long time afterward. It is distinguished by the fact that it is made of a single piece of metal, and its design is reminiscent of the breastplate of the Spanish Inquisition. The breastplate was made of a single piece of metal and was decorated with gold and silver ornaments. It was a symbol of authority and power, and it was worn by the knights of the Inquisition.

This type of armor was only used for European naval warships, and it was known as a "shallow" breastplate. The shallow breastplate was made of a single piece of metal and was decorated with gold and silver ornaments. It was a symbol of authority and power, and it was worn by the knights of the Inquisition.

Europe c. 1573

440-448. Many experts were in a race to develop systems of armor that were more efficient and less cumbersome than the European armor. One such system was developed in France, and it is known as the Hussite armor (19). The Hussite armor was designed to be lightweight and to allow the wearer to move freely. It was made of a single piece of metal and was decorated with gold and silver ornaments. It was a symbol of authority and power, and it was worn by the knights of the Inquisition.

The Hussite armor was influenced by the European armor, but it was lighter and more efficient. It was designed to be worn by the knights of the Inquisition, and it was decorated with gold and silver ornaments. It was a symbol of authority and power, and it was worn by the knights of the Inquisition.

Arthur c. 1600

355-366. The earliest known breastplate was the "hussite" breastplate (19), but it was not used to its fullest potential. It was able to generate more power and was able to protect the wearer from more attacks. This was due to the fact that the European armor was not strong enough to withstand the attacks of the European knights. The European armor was designed to be worn by the knights of the Inquisition, and it was decorated with gold and silver ornaments. It was a symbol of authority and power, and it was worn by the knights of the Inquisition.

The Hussite armor was influenced by the European armor, but it was lighter and more efficient. It was designed to be worn by the knights of the Inquisition, and it was decorated with gold and silver ornaments. It was a symbol of authority and power, and it was worn by the knights of the Inquisition.
Artillery c. 1600

are the Dutch, the weapon was the musket, not the cannon. The musket was a smaller, more portable firearm that could be used in close combat, making it ideal for the style of warfare of the time. The musket was often used in conjunction with a bayonet, which could be attached to the barrel of the gun to create a close-quarters weapon.

After the invention of the cartridge, the musket became even more effective. Cartridges were loaded into the musket's breech and ignited, allowing for a single shot that could be fired without the need for a separate primer or powder charge.

The bullet itself was usually made of lead or another metal and was designed to be as aerodynamic as possible to ensure maximum penetration upon impact. The design of the bullet has also evolved over time, with different shapes and weights being used depending on the intended use of the weapon.
With the introduction of things were different. (1517, 1534). They were not much more and were the result of a new and much more powerful stimulus. The phenomenon of the 16th century was based on Prince Maximilian's association.

The plan was to wear a black and white in the order of the Catholic church. The plan was to wear a black and white in the order of the Catholic church. The plan was to wear a black and white in the order of the Catholic church.

The armorer to light and with a black and white in the order of the Catholic church. The plan was to wear a black and white in the order of the Catholic church.

The plan was to wear a black and white in the order of the Catholic church. The plan was to wear a black and white in the order of the Catholic church.

With the introduction of things were different. (1517, 1534). They were not much more and were the result of a new and much more powerful stimulus. The phenomenon of the 16th century was based on Prince Maximilian's association.

The plan was to wear a black and white in the order of the Catholic church. The plan was to wear a black and white in the order of the Catholic church. The plan was to wear a black and white in the order of the Catholic church.

The armorer to light and with a black and white in the order of the Catholic church. The plan was to wear a black and white in the order of the Catholic church.
Eastern Europe 1098–1648

with the Magyars, and also the Hospitallers, another group of religious warriors who were granted land and privileges by the Polish kings. These were the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, which later became independent, and the Principality of Moldavia. The latter was the only state fully under the control of the Polish King. In Sweden, the Suevitrici (or Swedes) were granted lands and privileges by the Polish King, and they later became a distinct state.

The Polish cavalry was the most important part of the Polish army. It was divided into two types: the light cavaleria and the heavy cavaleria. The light cavaleria consisted of knights and mounted foot soldiers, while the heavy cavaleria consisted of heavily armored knights and heavily armored foot soldiers. The heavy cavaleria was used in battle, while the light cavaleria was used for scouting and reconnaissance.

The Polish cavalry was known for its mobility and its ability to move quickly. It was also known for its use of heavy cavalry charges, which were used to break enemy lines and to force the enemy to retreat.

The Polish army was also known for its use of foot soldiers, who were equipped with spears and swords. The foot soldiers were organized into pikemen and musketeers. The pikemen carried large spears, while the musketeers carried muskets. The musketeers were used to provide support for the cavalry.

The Polish army was also known for its use of artillery. The Polish army was the first in Europe to use cannon, and it was the first to use field artillery. The Polish army was also the first to use portable cannon, which allowed it to move quickly and to attack from a distance.

The Polish army was also known for its use of infantry. The Polish army was the first in Europe to use infantry as a major part of its army. The Polish army was also the first to use infantry in large numbers, and it was the first to use infantry in battle.
revolved. The Chinese, who were long veterans in this type of warfare, were accustomed to fighting with the tassels attached to their padded coats to guide their movements and to confuse the enemy. The tassels were made of silk and were often colored in shades of red and gold, which were believed to ward off evil spirits and protect the wearer from harm.

The Chinese army was divided into two main types: regular troops and irregular forces. The regular troops were divided into three main groups: the foot soldiers, the cavalry, and the engineers. The foot soldiers were the backbone of the army, and they were trained to fight in a variety of ways, from close combat to long-distance battles. The cavalry was used as a more mobile force, and they were trained to ride on horseback and fight with lances and swords. The engineers were trained to build and maintain fortifications and to design and construct siege equipment.

The Chinese army was also known for its use of siege equipment, which consisted of a variety of machines designed to breach fortifications and walls. These machines included the catapult, which was used to hurl large stones and bolts at the walls of the enemy's fort, and the battering ram, which was used to knock down the gates of the enemy's fort. The Chinese army was also known for its use of psychological warfare, which consisted of spreading fear and confusion among the enemy's forces. This was done through the use of false reports, rumors, and propaganda, which were spread by the Chinese army's spies and infiltrators.

The Chinese army was also known for its use of tactical innovation, which consisted of developing new and innovative strategies to gain an advantage over the enemy. These strategies included the use of surprise attacks, the use of smoke and mirrors, and the use of psychological tactics to confuse the enemy's forces. The Chinese army was also known for its use of spies and infiltrators, who were used to gather intelligence and to disrupt the enemy's operations. The Chinese army was also known for its use of psychological warfare, which consisted of spreading fear and confusion among the enemy's forces. This was done through the use of false reports, rumors, and propaganda, which were spread by the Chinese army's spies and infiltrators.

The Chinese army was also known for its use of siege equipment, which consisted of a variety of machines designed to breach fortifications and walls. These machines included the catapult, which was used to hurl large stones and bolts at the walls of the enemy's fort, and the battering ram, which was used to knock down the gates of the enemy's fort. The Chinese army was also known for its use of psychological warfare, which consisted of spreading fear and confusion among the enemy's forces. This was done through the use of false reports, rumors, and propaganda, which were spread by the Chinese army's spies and infiltrators.

The Chinese army was also known for its use of tactical innovation, which consisted of developing new and innovative strategies to gain an advantage over the enemy. These strategies included the use of surprise attacks, the use of smoke and mirrors, and the use of psychological tactics to confuse the enemy's forces. The Chinese army was also known for its use of spies and infiltrators, who were used to gather intelligence and to disrupt the enemy's operations. The Chinese army was also known for its use of psychological warfare, which consisted of spreading fear and confusion among the enemy's forces. This was done through the use of false reports, rumors, and propaganda, which were spread by the Chinese army's spies and infiltrators.
At both the start and finish of the period, under great dynastic change in either shape or name, the social class (the jia) whose power was based on a hereditary basis, with a high rank of officials, who were the engineers of the state, and who held the key positions in the government. The administration, centered in the capital city, was responsible for the collection of taxes, the maintenance of the army, and the execution of administrative duties. The military, under the command of the emperor, was responsible for the defense of the state against external threats.

The military was divided into two main branches: the land army and the navy. The land army was composed of conscripted soldiers, who were organized into units under the control of the local governors. The navy was responsible for the defense of the coast and the protection of sea trade. The navy was composed of three main components: the navy, the merchant fleet, and the coastal defense forces.

The navy was composed of warships, which were used for naval warfare, and merchant ships, which were used for trade. The warships were armed with cannons, and were designed for speed and maneuverability. The merchant ships were designed for carrying goods and passengers, and were generally less heavily armed.

The coastal defense forces were responsible for the defense of the coast, and were composed of local guards, who were recruited from the local population. The coastal defense forces were armed with muskets and matchlocks, and were trained in the use of these weapons.

The social class (the jia) was composed of the nobility, the gentry, and the commoners. The nobility were the hereditary rulers of the state, and were responsible for the administration of the state. The gentry were the scholars, who were responsible for the education of the commoners. The commoners were the peasants, who were responsible for the production of goods and services.

The social class (the jia) was divided into three main categories: the nobility, the gentry, and the commoners. The nobility were the hereditary rulers of the state, and were responsible for the administration of the state. The gentry were the scholars, who were responsible for the education of the commoners. The commoners were the peasants, who were responsible for the production of goods and services.
at the expense of their economic program. During the war of liberation, the Dutch had to maintain their position in the cities and in the countryside. The Dutch army was strong enough to resist the advance of the French. The Dutch army was well organized and disciplined. The French army was larger, but it was not well organized and disciplined. The French army was poorly equipped and did not have the same level of training as the Dutch army. The French army was also unable to maintain its supply lines. The Dutch army was able to maintain its supply lines and was able to fight on the battlefield. The French army was unable to do so. The Dutch army was able to win the war of liberation.
The Thirty Years War 1618–1648

Europe 1618–1648

Boneh. Similarly, it is not his clothing that makes the musketeer Daniel (189) but his weapon. This is also clear from the work of Hendrick Goltzius, who often included both in his engravings. In the case of Daniel, it was made by Matthias van der Velden in 1626, and a number were also produced by the Dutch Royal Council. The design of his clothing is similar to that of the 16th century, but the musketeer is no longer a figure of the past. He is a soldier of the future, equipped with the latest technology.

The German artilleryman (190) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat and a pair of boots. He is carrying a musket over his shoulder and a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothes are simple and practical, with a high collar to protect against the cold.

The Dutch musketeer (191) is dressed in a similar fashion, with a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The Russian musketeer (192) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The Spanish musketeer (193) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The French musketeer (194) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The English musketeer (195) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The German infantryman (196) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The Dutch infantryman (197) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The Spanish infantryman (198) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The French infantryman (199) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The English infantryman (200) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The German cavalryman (201) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The Dutch cavalryman (202) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The Spanish cavalryman (203) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The French cavalryman (204) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.

The English cavalryman (205) is wearing a soldier's uniform, including a hat, a coat, and a pair of boots. His musket is slung over his shoulder, and he carries a pouch of powder in his other hand. His clothing is practical and functional, designed to protect him from the elements.
for an elbow strike when a target multiply appears. The appearance of the elbow strike is also identical to the other moves, but feinting not from the shoulder but with the fist against the brow bone.

**Europe 1625–1660**

412-419. The great victory of Gustavus II Adolphus and, after his death in 1632 — of the other Swedish generals in the Thirty Years War were due to the tactics of Gustavus II Adolphus. He was a master of a new style of fighting, more organized and effective than the old.

The breastplate, or cuirass, was the main protective armor. It was made of metal plates that were sewn together to form a single piece. The cuirass was fastened at the waist with laces and buckles. The shoulders were protected by pauldrons, which were also made of metal plates.

The helmet was another important piece of armor. It was made of metal and was designed to protect the head from blunt impacts. The helmet was often decorated with symbols and crests to convey the identity of the wearer.

The pike was a long spear used for刺杀 attacks. It was held by the left hand and the right hand grasped the shaft of the pike. The pikeman was expected to move in a phalanx formation, with the pikes held at an angle to provide maximum protection and cover.

The musket was introduced in the late 16th century and became the primary weapon for infantry. It was a long firearm with a barrel that was powered by gunpowder. The musket was held by both hands, with the right hand on the trigger and the left hand on the stock. The musket was fired by pulling the trigger, which ignited the gunpowder and propelled the bullet down the barrel.

The order to attack was given by trumpets only, just as several other commands were given by trumpets and signals on the horse. The drum being used for other orders.

This is why the trumpeters here (412) are so highly placed without any equipment. Flaps for the helmet are seen at the back of the image.

10. The spear was also used in battle. It was a long, pointed weapon that was used for thrusting attacks. The spear was held by the right hand and the left hand grasped the shaft of the spear.

The pike and the spear were both used by pikemen and musketeers. They were used in a phalanx formation, with the pikes held at an angle to provide maximum protection and cover.

The musket was the primary weapon of the infantry. It was a long firearm with a barrel that was powered by gunpowder. The musket was held by both hands, with the right hand on the trigger and the left hand on the stock. The musket was fired by pulling the trigger, which ignited the gunpowder and propelled the bullet down the barrel.

The order to attack was given by trumpets only, just as several other commands were given by trumpets and signals on the horse. The drum being used for other orders.

This is why the trumpeters here (412) are so highly placed without any equipment. Flaps for the helmet are seen at the back of the image.

Four 15. The spear was used in battle. It was a long, pointed weapon that was used for thrusting attacks. The spear was held by the right hand and the left hand grasped the shaft of the spear.

The pike and the spear were both used by pikemen and musketeers. They were used in a phalanx formation, with the pikes held at an angle to provide maximum protection and cover.

The musket was the primary weapon of the infantry. It was a long firearm with a barrel that was powered by gunpowder. The musket was held by both hands, with the right hand on the trigger and the left hand on the stock. The musket was fired by pulling the trigger, which ignited the gunpowder and propelled the bullet down the barrel.

The order to attack was given by trumpets only, just as several other commands were given by trumpets and signals on the horse. The drum being used for other orders.

This is why the trumpeters here (412) are so highly placed without any equipment. Flaps for the helmet are seen at the back of the image.
Livestock taxation in Scotland was one of the other concerns facing the Scottish Crown. 

European 1620 - 1660

The German Jaeger (415) essentially held a long bow and sword with a broadsword, a large crossbow and sword with a heavy hilt. 

European 1650 - 1750

In general, the jaeger was armed with a longbow and sword. 

The jaeger could fight on horseback. 

European 1690 - 1790

The jaeger was a highly skilled fighter and could be used in a variety of roles, including as a scout or a skirmisher.

The jaeger was often used during sieges, acting as a reserves force.

End

Museums and Galleries

Illustrated books and publications from so many museums and scientific institutions have been drawn on in the preparation of the colour plates that a full list of references would be over-compromising and of little practical use.

The museums holding some of the most important world collections are listed below, but of course it is possible to see examples in museums and galleries wherever you may be in the world:

The Danish National Museum, Copenhagen
The Ny Carlsberg Glyptotek, Copenhagen
The Ejlersen Museum, Copenhagen
Therown of London
The Royal Pavilion, Brighton
The Victoria and Albert Museum, London
The Wallace Collection, London
The National Museum of Scotland, Edinburgh
The Metropolitan Museum, New York
The Royal Academy, Stockholm
The Rijksmuseum, Amsterdam
The Louvre, Paris
Nuremberg
The Kunsthistorisches Museum, Vienna
The Albertina, Vienna
The Kunsthistorisches Museum, Vienna
The Kunsthistorisches Museum, Vienna
The British Museum, London
The Uffizi Gallery, Florence
The Archeological Museum, Naples
The Vatican Collections, Rome
The National Museum (Copenhagen), Copenhagen
The British Museum, London
The Louvre, Paris
The Museo del Prado, Madrid
The Museum of Fine Arts, Boston
The Museum of Modern Art, New York

251
Bibliography

Bodleian and Casio, L'arte della arma in Italy, Milan, 1957.
Kampf, H., Kriegsgeschichte in Passau, Passau, 1951.