

B I B L I O G R A F I A

SIDNEY B. BRINCKERHOFF and A. CHAMBERLAIN: *Spanish Military Weapons in Colonial America 1700-1821*. Stackpole Books, Harrisburg, Pa., 1972, 159 pp., 275 plates, bibliography, technical glossary of 18th and 19th century, Spanish terms for military weapons and equipment. Foreword by Harold L. Peterson.

The director of the *Arizona Historical Society in Tucson* in collaboration with the curator of the same institution has published an interesting book about the weapons used by Spanish military forces and colonists in the former empire of Spain in North America. The period treated only comprises little more than one hundred years, from about 1700—the year in which the House of Bourbon of France ascended to the Spanish throne—to about 1821, when Spain lost East Florida and its important fortress San Marcos, though it still controlled vast areas of the American Continent from West Florida to California and Mexico. It was a complicated period in Europe as well as on the American Continent, the islands of the Caribbean Sea, Jamaica, Cuba, Puerto Rico etc.

The last part of the 17th century had been rather difficult to Spain. The Habsburg dynasty ended its days on the Peninsula with the sickly Carlos II. The relations with France and England were variable and many little wars with the «Rey Sol» weakened the Peninsula. The Absolute King of France almost forced Carlos II on his deathbed to appoint his grand-son, Philippe de Anjou, king of Spain. Under the name of Felipe V this prince ascended to the Spanish throne in 1701, followed by French and even Italian advisers. By this started the long and bloody War of the Spanish Succession, which terminated in 1713 with the peace in Utrecht. With this House of Bourbon a new era started for Spain, an era characterized by many difficulties—inland and abroad—wars in Europe, hard defense and struggles in the oversea world, in order to defend the coasts of the North American possessions against French expansion and English filibusters, later on helping the future United States in their Wars of Independence. From the very first moment of the new House on the Spanish throne a strong French influence asserted itself on the Peninsula, e.g. on military organization, establishment of a formal standing army, types of uniforms, weapons, cannon for field, siege and navy. The court was converted to a French court, the long Spanish «Toledana» was replaced by the French «courte-épée.» Spain entered a period in which it indeed had to fight for its «libertad», its particular

and individual civilization against the French influence from the court of the «Rey Sol».

This century marks the zenith of Spanish oversea empire. Spain really was the greatest colonial power of the time in regard to areas. No doubt it could have been the most wealthy of the European countries if its politicians had understood how to make this empire profitable. Maybe Madre España in that period suffered too much from its system of monopoly, negligence and corruption, as foreign literature frequently tells. The mother country with its many internal problems did not care sufficiently for prosperity in her colonies. The Spanish oversea population made out a minority, the native Indians and particularly the negroes augmented, the mixture of three races contributed to complicate matters to the criollos, the native white population of Spanish descent. This population often felt a little slighted from the mother country. The main reason, however, to a high degree was due to the political intrigues caused from abroad, particularly from the colonial and commercial competitions between England and France. Spain in this century mainly played the part as a man in the European political chess.

On the North American Continent Spain controlled or possessed vaste areas, from Florida to California and Mexico in the West, all the South Western parts, all Central America, Cuba, Jamaica and other islands of the Caribbean. Many of them were governed by viceroys as special «virreinatos». They were not colonies in modern sense. In total 11 states of modern U.S. beside Puerto Rico can boast of an important Spanish inheritance. To the development of the later U.S. and to the history of this country the Spanish period was of importance. It signifies an important chapter in the history of the Spanish military equipment, the weapons in use, the first introduction of regulation weapons with their designs and patterns, and the decline of the private specimens. We find the Spanish regular troops sent from the Peninsula, with heavy cavalry, dragoons, infantry, artillery as well as the colonial forces, the militias. It tells the history of several important fortresses, still existing with their equipment of cannon, presidias and little frontier posts. In most North American regions Spain was the first nation to arrive, before the Dutch, before the French and the English. From the end of 15th century and from 16th and 17th centuries we find a series of well-known Spanish names, from the very moment when the Catalan or Genovese adventurer Cristóbal Colón put his feet on the soil of this New World, starting his voyage from La Rábida in Huelva in 1492. Among the many names we find *Ponce de León*, who found Florida, *Hernando de Soto*, who crossed Florida and what is now called Georgia and Tennessee and found the river Mississippi. *Vázquez de Coronado*

found the Pueblo Indians of the later New Mexico, Hernán Cortés, who had worked with great activity in Mexico, and Núñez de Balboa, who was the first to arrive at the Pacific coasts in 1575. But there are many other persons who valiently crossed Louisiana, Arizona and California. Even when Spain about 1800 ceded parts of its territories in modern Tennessee, Alabama or part of Louisiana East of Mississippi, it was still the owner of about half part of modern U.S. Spanish troops participated in the American Revolution War in various settlements and contributed to the victory. Spanish equipment and weapons were used even at a later date here. Spanish civilization, customs, style, language etc. put its features on many places, not least in California and South West. It may look rather strange that the once so strong grip of Mother Spain in this Continent after some blooming centuries suddenly came to an end, lost in short time, handed over some territories to other European powers, other parts incorporated in the new nation U.S. Parts of the former Spanish empire still feel tied to Mother Spain.

The reasons why all this got lost are many: among the main reasons was the envy which other European countries felt, particularly those who endeavoured to acquire colonies, augment their commerce and make wealth at the expense of Spain. With the Peace of Utrecht in 1713 America was in a way «re-discovered», and already here started the difficulties for Spain in the New World. The internal complicated political situation on the Peninsula itself, provoked from abroad—particularly from England and France—was a good help to the enemies. England dreamt of making a strong thalassocracy. The Bourbon prince Carlos III had ascended to the throne of Spain in 1759. He represented the «Enlightened Despotism» and was filled with the best intentions to bring progress of material character both in the Peninsula and in the oversea possessions, where he wanted «equilibrio americano». He was, however, defeated in various manners, particularly in the colonies. He lost Habana in exchange for West Florida and Manila to the English, but recovered them in 1783 thanks to the excellent *Bernardo de Gálvez*. In his time Louisiana, California and Arizona were added to Spain. With the weak kings after 1788, the French Revolution and the Napoleonic period Spain however, lost its importance. In 1821 it had to leave or rather sell part of Florida to the New Nation, U.S. and the famous fortress San Marcos became renamed Fort Marion.

Many books and articles have been written about Spanish politics and civilization in the Americas, by Spanish and by foreign authors. Literary sources and bibliography can be found in the two excellent volumes by *Francisco Morales Padrón*: *Historia de América*, I-II (Espasa-Calpe, Madrid 1962). But the colonial history told by the military

forces and the weapons used in Nueva España has never before been written. It is a fact that weapons tell history of the nations. So do the weapons used by the Spanish soldiers, colonists and natives of North America. For the first time such a history of Spanish weapons used in North America has been published. The material existing has been carefully investigated and explored by persons who are both historians, connoisseurs and collectors. The authors have laid down much work and many years of investigation discovering material in shape of documents and weapons. The last part maybe has been the most difficult: to find the weapons. It is not a book for those who expect to find luxury weapons, but it is a book to those who are interested in finding true documentation in shape of the plain tools which made history. It gives the early history of some of the regulation weapons of Spain, from a period of experimentation and with more or less uniformity in regard to patterns and regulations. To collectors this book is most useful.

With much energy the authors have investigated the important archives existing to the history of the Americas, such as the highly important *Archivo General de las Indias* in Sevilla, the main archive in regard to the history of the Americas with its enormous material of documents, regulations, inventories, maps, plans, drawings of Spanish uniforms used in the colonies, drawings of cannon, plans of fortresses and the like. Further the *Archivo General de Simancas* was examined as well as *Archivo Nacional* and *Servicio Histórico-Militar* in Madrid. Much material has been digged out from the National Archive in Mexico City, the archives of Tucson in Arizona, Library of Congress in Washington, archives in Los Angeles and New York. With their staff of helpers the authors tried to find as much as possible of weapons, searching for it in American museums and not least among private collectors. Indeed, no easy task! Quite a lot of weapons have been found in Museo del Ejército in Madrid, not least among fire-arms, pole-arms and cannon. Spanish readers of this book will enjoy a visit to Museo del Ejército.

In spite of a great demand for weapons for defending Spanish territories against French expansion and English filibusters or against the more or less hostile Indian tribes, the material left is neither numerous, nor of exciting quality. Luxury weapons are few and very modest, and they mostly comprise some officer's small-swords with hilt of typical 18th and early 19th centuries shape and decoration. The main part of weapons left comprises fire-arms, swords, knives and pole-arms used by the regular troops sent from the continent, the militias of the criollos, or the more or less private persons from the presidias and frontier posts. Weapons for subalterns, rank and file and private persons dominate. Some are regulation weapons of fixed patterns, others are private models.

Some weapons have been so much repaired or modified through the time that the original features have gone lost. Some are old-fashioned, many of them not at all up-to-date of 18th century. Some are of Spanish workmanship, others from local American smiths or from the manufactures established e.g. in Mexico or other places in Nueva España. Regulation arms of Spanish patterns were sent from Mother Spain but not in sufficient number. Even in Spain herself regulation weapons were not uniform, owing to the fact that the workmanship was contracted to various makers, at least in the earlier periods. Though both the Royal Spanish army and the colonial militia were of great importance to an effective defense of the colonies, the number of regular troops sent from the Peninsula was not sufficient. Spain needed its soldiers and officers for wars in Europe, and it needed money for these wars. The Crown had after-hand to depend more and more on the criollos and the mestizos enlisted in the regular troops and divided according to racial lines except in various of the presidial garrisons at the Northern frontiers. Early in the 18th century a series of presidias were established along the frontiers, particularly in Texas, and soon after in various other provinces. For these frontier posts a lot of regulations were published with design for equipment. The mestizo troops were expected not only to fight as soldiers but even to settle in the frontier posts and create family in order to populate the scarcely populated regions and thus act as protection against French expansion and Indian raids. In spite of the issued regulations it was not easy to get hold of the weapons. There was not sufficient import of them from Europe and not sufficient economical support. Many of the colonists were unable to procure the necessary weapons, and cash was spare among them.

It is interesting to see the problems of the various regions of Nueva España, e.g. the difference in equipment between the main line colonial regiments and militia in Mexico, Louisiana or Florida and that of the local frontier presidial forces or local private colonists. The first part had regulation fusils: muskets, musketons, carabines, pistols, good sabres and rapiers, broad-swords and machetes. The other parts in the far West were badly furnished and rather old-fashioned. Newly regulated weapons arrived late to these far-away parts and old-fashioned weapons for which pieces for repair could not be procured belonged to their usual equipment. The «soldados de cuera» had nine foot long lances and leather shields of adarga type, made of oxhide. Their sleeveless jackets of leather were good protection against the arrows from the light mounted Indians. It too was difficult to these frontier people of the presidias to keep their weapons in good repair. The military armourers in these distant posts had no possibilities for procuring spare parts for repair.

Weapons shipped from Spain were stored in arsenals of the fortresses and frontier posts. Existing inventories tell about these weapons but they are frequently written in a rather laconic manner so that an identification is difficult. The authors have examined many of these inventories which tell quite a lot about the situation of armament. The various viceroys (*virreyes*) frequently ordered extra supply as seen in the documents but the shipments did not fill the need. Even ammunition was spare. In spite of all these difficulties the Spanish colonists kept on till 1821 when they lost half part of Florida with fort San Marcos. Great parts of the Spanish territories in Arizona, California, New Mexico and other places remained on Spanish hands until they—by treaty—were transferred to other countries.

Compared with e.g. French and English weapons Spanish pieces are few. Many of the Spanish weapons were used till they could serve no longer. They often were so much repaired that they completely changed. Much was given to Indians. Little by little it disappeared. Many weapons ended their days as domestic tools. This was the case with numerous good broad-sword blades, which were shortened and served as domestic machetes almost up to present time.

In Spain it was particularly such manufactures as that of Ripoll, which supplied e.g. Mexico and Cuba with fire-arms, or Eibar and Placencia in Guipúzcoa which shipped many fire-arms for the possessions. The swords came from various factories but after 1761 it was mainly the Toledo Arsenal, which made and exported side-arms. Cannon particularly were cast in the Royal Arsenals of Barcelona, Valencia and Sevilla, but gun-founders had been established in the Spanish possessions already long ago, and they were to be found in Mexico and various places at the Mexican Gulf, in Lima in Perú and in Manila on the Philippines.

The first chapter of the book gives an outline of the history of the oversea imperial zenith, with its armies, organization, uniforms and weapons and with some interesting notes in regard to literature. The following chapters treat the weapons in the shape of a detailed descriptive catalogue with measures, weight, inscriptions and marks as well as provenance. Chapter 2 deals with the fire-arms of various types. Some are Spanish, others are made in the colonies. Dominating are miguelet locks and Catalan stocks. There are regulation pieces for infantry and for mounted troops and private pieces for civilians such as the fine fowling-piece escopeta, ca. 1800, from Eibar, signed by Antonio Guisasola. The characteristic Spanish trabuco, a typical export carabine-blunderbuss from Ripoll with brass overlay decoration and Catalan stock was much in use on the American frontiers. Among the wall-guns are types used in the fortresses of Mexico, Louisiana and Florida. Beside the pieces

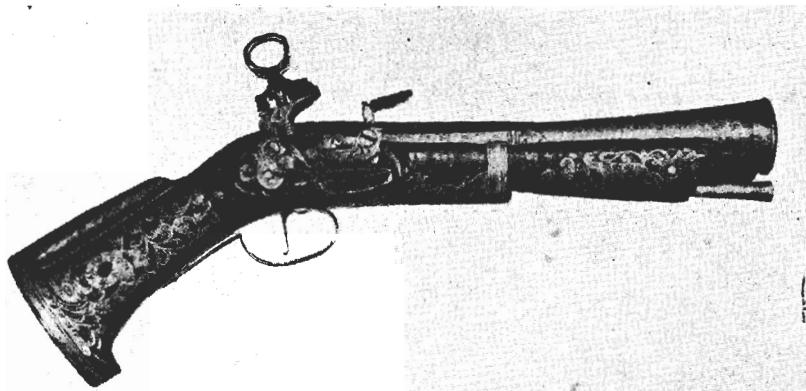


FIG. 1.—*Blunderbuss pistol from Ripoll, of simple export quality. Usually sold in pairs for use in Nueva España. About 1750. (Arizona State Museum, Tucson, U.S.A.).*

made in Spain one finds fire-arms from the various manufactures of Nueva España, e.g. from Oaxaca in Mexico, one of the main factories in the colonies. Among the regulation models is the standart model introduced 24th of may 1752 with bayonet. The infantry musket of 1752 had French lock instead of the miguelet lock, but in 1791 the miguelet was re-introduced because the French lock was considered too fragile for the

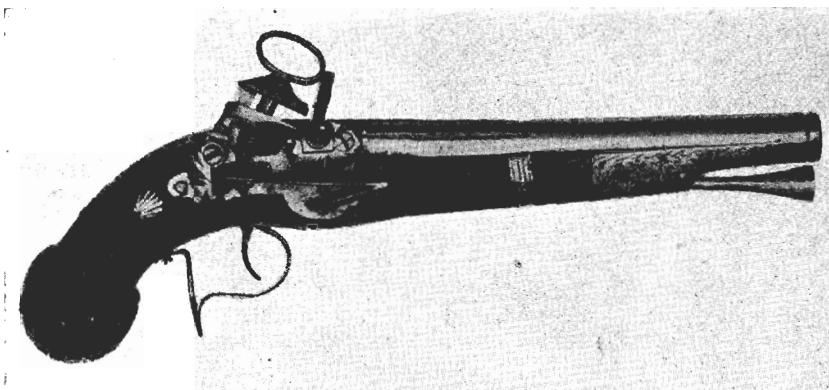


FIG. 2.—*Ripoll pistol with ball butt and decoration of iron. The frizzen stamped with the name: Suroca. About 1750. (William Scollard Collection, U.S.A.).*

colonists. This model was known under the name of m. 1752/91. Among the cavalry pistols are several with stamps and marks of Antonio Bustindui of Barcelona, and a fine Madrid specimen by Matías Baeza from 1713 with punzones in gold. The majority of Spanish pistols had the barrels blued. There are blunderbuss pistols from Ripoll and various signed pieces from Eibar. A short chapter deals with the accoutrements such as cartridge boxes, powder flasks and horns.

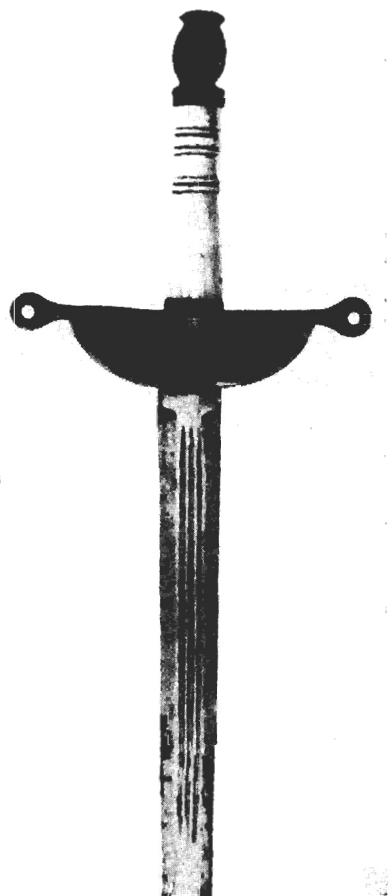


FIG. 3.—*Dish-hilt hanger, ca. 1700. Popular in Nueva España. Hilt of iron and grip of bone. Blade-type common in the Caribbean and Mexico. (Arizona State Museum, Tucson, U.S.A.).*

Many collectors will be interested in chapter 3 with the swords and rapiers of the colonial forces. The cup-hilted rapiers played an important part in Spanish America. From Southern Mexico they are known, already in 1700, and a large number has been found both in Mexico and in Cuba. To-day they are called Caribbean cup-hilt rapiers. Swords with rapier-blades were used by infantry, those with broad blades by cavalry. Dish-hilt hangers were highly popular in colonial Spain in 17th century and in good part of 18th century too. Cup-hilt broad-swords, «espadas anchas» were found in many places in Mexico and South West. Both mounted soldiers and private ranchers used them. «Espadas anchas» may be considered a special type to Spanish North America. Some of the machetes with knuckle-guard and downward turned single shell guard often have blades with engravings of sun, moon, stars and arm - with - sword. These blades were made partly in Spain, partly in Oaxaca. The inventories from such fortresses as San Agustín and

those of Habana show quite a lot of foot-soldier machetes from 1771.

The broad-swords of type from about 1650 are the earliest known pattern swords for Spanish cavalry, and they were in use unchanged for about 150 years. Many of them have inscriptions in their blades, and in many of the colonial specimens the names of various Bourbon kings of Spain occur. Felipe V introduced French patterns for cavalry in Spain in order to reorganize the Spanish mounted forces. These types were adopted in 1703 and regulated in 1728, more or less similar to the usual European cavalry swords of this period. The blades were standardized and made in Toledo, but the hilts often varied. An early hilt-type of pattern for dragoons was that of Wallon type, in use in other parts of Europe too, not least in France, from where the Crown took the pattern. The officer's small-swords were more or less private as to character and similar to those used in Europe, not least in France.

Among the pole-arms are such specimens for officers as the fine partisan of French type in Metrop. Mus., New York, with the etched crest of Felipe V and the damascened Royal arms of Spain, from ca. 1714-46, and with the orders of Santo Espírito and the Toisón. Several pole-arms from the colonies are now seen in

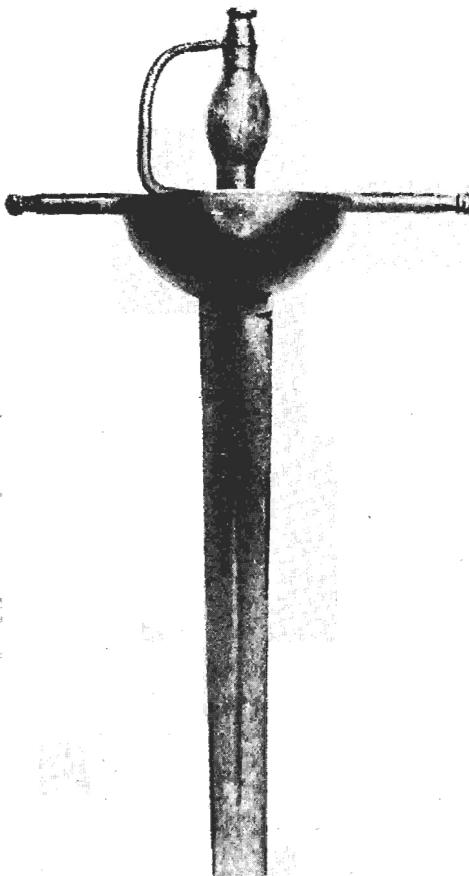


FIG. 4.—*Cup-hilt broadsword, ca. 1700. Hilt of iron, grip of horn, and the blade-type known from numerous «espadas anchas».* Common in Mexico and America southwest. (Harold L. Peterson Collection, U.S.A.).

Museo del Ejército in Madrid. The officers espontons from about 1750 were used both as weapons and as badges of rank, until they about 1768 were exchanged with fusils and swords. They were similar to French patterns. In 18th century the sergeants wore halberds. Several types of blades exist, with many variations of the crescent-shaped blade. Lances mostly were used by the presidial soldiers at the Northern frontiers. Even as late as in the Mexican War the lancers belonged to the most effective soldiers in the service of Mexico. Lance irons were the product of local smiths and there is an endless variety of shapes and sizes, even pieces with a tang driven into the shaft. Many were made in Spain and shipped to the colonies, but they did not by far follow the regulation patterns. The standart triangular musket bayonet was introduced early in 18th century and inscribed in the ordinance of July 12, 1728. The plug-bayonet or «cuchillo de monte,» in Spain itself used into the 19th century, is frequently found in the colonies. There exist a great variety of knives with many sizes and shapes. Cutlers from Oaxaca made many knives for the soldiers.

Of particular interest is chapter 6 dealing with cannon, its types, sizes, measures, weights, materials, accoutrements, carriages, limbers etc. As early as in 1720's tubes were made in Mexico City. Cannon founders existed in Lima and Manila. From these two places were shipped much cannon for the possessions in America, while much cannon from Mexico were shipped for the Peninsula, though the Royal Arsenals in Barcelona, Valencia and Sevilla were very active too. Before 1765 the old pattern cannon had been produced by independent founders, contracted with the State, but the new regulation tubes of 1756 and later came entirely from the Royal Arsenals with a special director general de Artillería e Ingeniería. Bronze and iron tubes for the colonies were bought from José Barnola in Barcelona and from Manuel de Anciola de Tagoyaga and Diego Panes in Mexico City in the years between 1760 and 1780, but though they belonged to the very best systems existing they were not remade as regulation patterns. Old types were melted in the colonies for new patterns and copper from Mexico was used for them. A Royal Artillery Corps was designated in 1722 but reorganized several times. Regular colonial artillerists served the cannon in Florida, Louisiana and Mexico but on the Northern frontiers cannon was handled by infantrymen and presidial cavalry. Spanish artillery followed France, but only to a lesser degree England. The reforms by the French engineer Vallière from 1732 were adopted in Spain in 1743. Changes in France influenced upon Spanish design. A change in Spanish pattern was ordered in 1756 by the Crown, but the old style was produced as late as in 1764. Up to 1765 Spain had a variety of pieces, heavy and highly ornamented.

The new measurement system adopted was the French foot, together with the French pound. At least about 1790 the systems and improvement by the French engineer Griebeauval came to influence upon Spanish cannon as to system, carriages, limbers, tactics etc. The inventories from the Spanish fortresses in America give much information about the mixture of patterns—old and new—and the great variety which existed in this part of the world. Iron cannon of English appearance were made in Mexico and have survived particularly in California. Carriages were made of wood from Central America such as mahogany, cedar, black cottonwood and zapadilla. Some carriages for field artillery were painted red. Blue—the colour of the Bourbons—was used sometimes for field artillery of Griebeauval system after 1790, but most artillery carriages and limbers only were oiled, now and then with coloured metal mountings. Designs and plans for cannon, carriages, limbers etc. are found in Archivo General de las Indias in Sevilla and give an excellent impression of the material. Cannon of various types, many of them richly decorated, are still seen in the fortresses of the former Spanish possessions of America.

The book terminates with drawings of carriages of the Griebeauval design, taken from Tomás de Morlas: *Tratado de Artillería*, 1803, a pre-Griebeauval mortar-bed of wood and a new Griebeauval type with bed-cheeks made of bronze. There is a good list of bibliography with documents from the various archives and libraries, books and articles from reviews, much of it from reviews issued in America, particularly in former Nueva España. The last pages are dedicated to a useful list, a short technical glossary with Spanish terms for military weapons and equipment. It is a useful book to all who are interested in the history of the old Spanish territories of North America and the early history of modern U.S. It is a reference book to American military history and to Spanish military history from a rather short but very complicated period and a chapter of the long history of arms of the Iberian peninsula. The many illustrations make it useful to collectors of military weapons, showing the transitional period from more or less private to regulated patterns and designs, in America as well as in Mother Spain.

A. BR. H.

PHILIPPE CONTAMINE: *Guerre, État et Société à la fin du Moyen Âge. Études sur les armées des rois de France 1337-1494*. Paris-La Haye, Monton, 1972, XXXVIII + 757 pp. (Civilisations et Sociétés, 24).

L'A. est, à l'heure actuelle, un des meilleurs connaisseurs de l'histoire militaire française des XIV^e et XV^e siècles. *Azincourt* (1964), *L'artillerie française à la veille des guerres d'Italie* (1964), *La Guerre de Cent Ans* (1968), etc., suffisent à prouver sa parfaite maîtrise de questions souvent fort ardues. De plus, assistant à l'Université de Paris Sorbonne, puis professeur à l'Université de Nancy, il ne s'est point isolé parmi les livres et les papiers, mais a gardé un contact permanent avec le monde extérieur.

D'abord, formulons-lui quelques griefs. Lorsqu'il cite des ouvrages, l'A. omet, d'une façon systématique, de mentionner les maisons d'édition (Picard, Champion, PUF, etc.) et parfois il catalogue certains livres d'une manière déconcertante. Ces deux entorses aux règles catalographiques adoptées actuellement pourraient lui être reprochées par un bibliographe vétillieux. Puis, une sorte de vernis «VI^e Section», étalé probablement pour faciliter l'approbation... et l'impression du livre, ne laisse point d'être gênant et dépare certaines pages. Voilà, croyons-nous, les seules réserves à faire.

Les aspects positifs de l'ouvrage sont innombrables. Dans son Avant-Propos, l'A. explique comment il a choisi son champ d'investigations parmi les différentes directions selon lesquelles l'enquête pouvait être conduite. Il a dû, faute de moyens pratiques, laisser de côté tout ce qui touche l'étude du matériel archéologique (sites, constructions, armes, etc.). Il a écarté aussi «les recherches sur l'art militaire proprement dit, tout en reconnaissant volontiers que, comme le montrent, entre autres, les récentes publications de deux historiens belges, MM. J.-F. Verbruggen et Cl. Gaier, non seulement des mises au point, mais encore des travaux originaux, demeurent possibles et souhaitables dans ce domaine plus classique. En particulier, l'étude de la poliorcétique médiévale demanderait à être reprise». Nous sommes entièrement d'accord avec lui, surtout avec sa dernière phrase. Nous vivons sur ce qu'on a dit au siècle dernier à ce sujet et il serait grand temps que l'on se résolve à préparer (et à publier) un «corpus» des récits de sièges médiévaux les plus marquant. Ce «corpus», réclamé à cor et à cri par M. Héliot depuis des années, ne ferait pas double emploi avec l'ouvrage anglais déjà existant et il pourrait aiguiller bien des investigations. Une sorte de Mortet-Deschamps de la poliorcétique médiévale, voilà de quoi tenter éditeurs et auteurs... L'A. dit enfin, s'être abstenu de traiter, pour le moment, de la guerre comme «phénomène social, politique, économique, mental, voire artisti-

que ou religieux». Quelques auteurs ont fait des travaux partiels sur certains aspects de la question; par exemple, plusieurs communications présentées en 1967 à la XV Settimana de Spolète et il y a lieu d'espérer que l'abstention de M. Contamine ne sera que temporaire.

Ces directions de recherches écartées, et encouragé par notre regretté maître Robert Fawtier, l'A. a voulu «d'une part, exposer les liens qui unissaient la monarchie des Valois aux hommes qu'elle employait pour faire la guerre—étude institutionnelle, et d'autre par examiner ces hommes eux-mêmes—étude sociale».

Les seize chapitres qui forment le livre apparaissent alors distribués en quatre parties: I) Les forces militaires de la monarchie française au milieu du XIV^e siècle (combattants, recrutement, effectifs et organisation, contrôle et entretien); II) L'armée de la reconquête, 1369-1380 (structures, hommes, service du roi et conception de la guerre); III) De la survie à l'effondrement, 1380-1445 (de l'apaisement à l'invasion, désordres et mutations au temps du Royaume de Bourges); IV) Les débuts de l'armée d'Ancien Régime, 1445-1494 (l'armée du roi de France, le ravitaillement, les francs-archers, le ban et l'arrièreban, les capitaines de l'ordonnance, étude sociale des gens de guerre de l'ordonnance, la condition militaire). Conclusion générale. Une série d'Annexes donne des listes de capitaines et connétables d'arbalétriers au service du roi de France, de capitaines de gens d'armes, de capitaines-généraux de francs-archers, des tarifs de gages des gens de guerre, des comptes des trésoriers des guerres, des données sur le niveau de vie, la fortune personnelle et l'alimentation des gens de guerre, l'armement (équipement et monture), l'artillerie à feu, les cris de guerre, les drapeaux et les uniformes, etc. Une bonne bibliographie, des tables d'illustrations et de cartes, ainsi que de copieux index, complètent le volume.

L'A. a réussi pleinement son propos. Le recours constant aux documents contemporains étaye solidement les faits allégués. La sévère sélection des témoignages, retenus parmi tous ceux qui nous sont parvenus, et une sélection analogue des opinions avancées par les érudits et par les historiens précédents, évitent d'accabler le lecteur sous le poids d'une érudition déplacée, défaut qui dépare bien des thèses de doctorat. L'enquête embrassant «une période relativement vaste, s'étendant sur plusieurs générations» permet d'arriver à des conclusions valables. La croissance, très juste, qu'une «armée, un système militaire, sont toujours organisés, conçus, dirigés, contre un ou plusieurs adversaires, au moins virtuels, qu'il s'agisse de les attaquer ou de s'en défendre» conduit à comparer les armées du roi de France avec celles de leurs principaux antagonistes: l'Angleterre durant la guerre de Cent Ans, l'état bourguignon durant la seconde moitié du XV^e siècle. La connaissance de l'hé-

raldique, de la sigillographie, de la vexillographie, etc.—disciplines généralement négligées par les historiens—, voilà quelques unes des qualités du livre de M. Contamine. Ces qualités le rangent parmi les plus intéressants qu'il nous a été donné de lire dans ces derniers temps. Il passionnera, nous en sommes persuadés, nombre de fidèles de *GLADIUS* et les sociologues, trop souvent portés à parler de ce qu'ils ne connaissent que d'une façon imparfaite, feront bien de le méditer.

J.-F. FINÓ

RAFAEL M. DEMARÍA: *Historia de las armas de fuego en la Argentina (1530-1852)*. Buenos Aires, Edic. Cabargón, 1972, 380 pp. e ilustr.

Il y a plus d'une vingtaine d'années, M. A. M. Salas (*Las armas de la conquista*, Buenos Aires, Emecé, 1950, 462 pp.) étudia d'une façon quasi exhaustive l'armement utilisé par les Espagnols lors de leur épopée en Amérique ainsi que celui opposé par les indiens. M. Salas avait fait un large usage de la documentation contemporaine (chroniques, inventaires, etc.) et son ouvrage ne serat point remplacé de sitôt. Mais il s'arrêtait, naturellement, à la fin de la Conquête et malgré diverses études partielles—souvent excellentes—it manquait une histoire d'ensemble des armes à feu en Argentine allant du XVI^e siècle jusqu'à nos jours. C'est donc un grand mérite de M. Demaría de s'être attaqué à un tel sujet.

Dans l'introduction, l'A. explique les buts qu'il a poursuivis, se plaint —très justement d'ailleurs—de l'inexistence de classements adéquats dans les archives argentines et rappelle ceux qui, précédemment, se sont occupés de la question d'une façon plus ou moins fragmentaire. L'étude se déroule alors en onze chapitres, distribués en deux parties: I) L'époque coloniale (les armes à feu des conquistadors, la deuxième moitié du XVI^e siècle et le XVII^e, les ressources du Río de la Plata, les campagnes militaires et les luttes de frontières, la législation sur les armes en Amérique espagnole et au Río de la Plata); II) De l'indépendance jusqu'à Caseros (armement en 1810, fabrication des armes à feu dans les Provinces Unies, achats d'armes à l'extérieur, types d'armes fabriquées à Buenos Aires ou achetées à l'extérieur, de 1820 à 1852, législation sur les armes entre 1810 et 1852). Un chapitre supplémentaire traite de quelques armes ayant appartenu à des personnages marquants de l'histoire argentine et, dans un appendice, l'A. transcript un certain nombre de textes d'époque. Par exemple: l'acte notarié de vente (1818) du terrain où s'installat la fabrique de fusils de Buenos Aires, la traduction d'un extrait de Gay de Vernon sur les dimensions et le poids des armes à feu, présen-

tée par Francisco Matheu en 1813 au Suprême Pouvoir Exécutif, etc.

Une cinquantaine d'illustrations accompagnent l'ouvrage qui, malheureusement, est dépourvu d'un index analytique ainsi que d'une bibliographie générale. Les références indiquées en bas de page sont, souvent, libellées d'étrange façon. Certaines expressions pourraient être reprochées à l'A. Il est dit, par exemple, qu'un document est reproduit *fac-similairlement* (pp. 183, 235, 264, 277) tandis que *textuellement* aurait été le mot à employer, tel qu'il apparaît aux pp. 134, 247, 273. Enfin, le papier utilisé pour l'impression du texte et pour les illustrations est assez mauvais, presque égal à celui de ces ouvrages français d'avant-guerre qui exasperaient Des Esseintes, mais ici ce n'est pas la faute de l'A. ni de l'éditeur, c'est une conséquence du «desarrollismo» dont souffre le pays.

Ces quelques bavures mises à part, l'ouvrage présente un intérêt très vif. D'abord, comme nous l'avons déjà dit, par l'ampleur du sujet traité. Ensuite par le caractère concret de l'exposé, caractère qui n'empêche point l'A. d'insérer de savoureuses réflexions personnelles (pp. 185, 203-204, 297, etc.). Enfin, par le souci de toujours prouver ses dires: l'A., grand collectionneur d'armes, a une connaissance directe de celles-ci et, magistrat depuis des années, est expert dans l'art de manier les dossiers pour en extraire tout ce qu'ils contiennent. Il attire l'attention sur bien des circonstances peu ou pas connues. Par exemple: la tentative, faite en 1810, d'armer les sergents avec des hallebardes comme jadis (p. 161); les résistances soulevées, au début, par l'implantation de la lance comme arme de cavalerie (pp. 175-177); les connaissances précises que Cervantés—ancien soldat—avait de la terminologie des armes à feu (pp. 57, 72-73); l'emploi, parfois déconcertant, de l'anglicisme *rifle* dans les textes d'époque (pp. 262-270); les armes dites «de herradura» dont le canon était fait avec de vieux fers-à-cheval longuement écrouis par la marche de l'animal sur les sols rocaillieux d'Espagne (pp. 257, 355). Rappelons à ce propos que G. Casella (*L'Alpinisme*, Paris, Lafitte, 1913, pp. 267-268) parle de piolets alpins faits avec de l'acier provenant d'anciennes limes ou d'autres outils ayant fait leurs preuves. L'A. signale aussi un fait curieux: en 1819, après les affres du début, les fusils de guerre étaient assez nombreux. Or, en 1972, on ne saurait plus en retrouver un seul qui puisse être identifié avec certitude comme de fabrication locale ou importé dans les premiers temps (pp. 253 et passim). Cela est dû, peut-être au fait que, comme le signale l'A., la fabrique de Buenos Aires n'avait pas de poinçon identificateur. Il est vrai aussi qu'un grand nombre de ces fusils ont dû rester sur les champs de bataille du Chili et du Pérou, ou se perdre dans les luttes civiles qui désolèrent le pays jusqu'au milieu du XIX^e siècle ainsi que dans les combats contre les indiens. Pourtant..., «Habent sua fata».

En conclusion, la lecture de l'ouvrage—novateur à bien des titres—serat largement profitable, même aux non-initiés. C'est donc avec impatience que l'on attend le second volume où l'A. étudiera la période s'étendant de la deuxième moitié du XIX^e siècle jusqu'aux débuts du XX^e.

J.-F. FINÓ

JÁNOS KALMÁR: *Régi magyar fegyverek*. Budapest 1971, 430 pages, 668 figs. List of contents and illustrations in German and English. (In Hungarian.)

This book by the wellknown Hungarian specialist in history of ancient arms and armour, Dr. János Kalmár, is an important manual to the students of arms history on account of the great material here exposed to the reader, particularly in regard to the special Hungarian weapons and horse equipment through the periods from the age of the Conquest to the 18th century. With its many illustrations it will be most useful not only to museums for arms and military history but even to collectors of weapons in many countries. Thanks to the German and English lists of contents and illustrations it can be used by most persons interested in ancient arms and armours. Great part of the illustrations let us see weapons from the Magyar National Museum of Budapest as well as from museums in various Hungarian towns and collections. Famous Hungarian specimens from the museums of Vienna as a matter of fact are illustrated too. Further there are famous specimens from Hist. Mus. Dresden, Coll. Wilczek auf Kreuzenstein, Top-Kapu Serai in Istambul etc. The author treats in special chapters each category of weapons through the ages following up their development and history. The book is composed of five parts, each of these divided in several chapters. The introduction gives an impression of the Magyar warrior from the days of the Conquest up to the husars of 18th century and shows in its illustrations the Magyar people as a typical cavalry people. The tomb furniture from the days of the Conquest comprises such interesting pieces as the top of a peaked helmet, characteristic stirrups, curb-bits, horse-trappings and buckles for equestrian equipment, and there exist many interesting warrior's tombs in Hungary with weapons from the early periods.

Part I deals with weapons for attack and starts with such weapons as the maces, not least the characteristic Hungarian types, through the centuries. The objects are accompanied by contemporary illustrations as a documentation of their use. Among the various interesting types there are historical and princely specimens. Various shapes and types

of war-axes and throwing hatchets are represented, and there are several characteristic Magyar war-hammers, e.g. for officers. Particularly interesting is chapter 3 of this first part, dealing with the side-arms, starting with the so-called sabre of Charlemagne, now in Vienna, and the related types and shapes from Hungarian necropolises. Among the early Norman swords there are several specimens with Ulfberth- and Ingelri-inscriptions or names similar to Ingelri. Beside the fine sword of Stephan I, the sainted king of Hungary (in Praha), there are fine series of Hungarian medieval swords from 11th-15th centuries. Several of the swords reproduced once belonged to Hungarian kings and nobles and there is the peculiar sword of bishop Kálmán in Vienna beside several swords of king Sigismund. The precious papal sword with its scabbard and sword-belt was a gift from the Holy Father to king Wladislaus II. The Hungarian coronation sword from about 1500-1550 has a fine relative in a sword in Real Armería in Madrid (of a type probably used by the knights of the Calatrava-order.) Interesting is the long row of Hungarian broad-swords with their characteristic hilts, the very long quillons and the typical langers. Not least the various types and shapes of Hungarian sabres with curved blades and cross-hilt are of interest. There are some characteristic specimens with fine grips such as the sabre of sultan Bajazid and its magyar relatives, e.g. the Hungarian sabres used by Ferdinand of Tirol for his husar-tournaments. There are many illustrations of Hungarian sabres with precious scabbards. Further there are many regulation sabres for husars. Not least interesting are the rapiers with the special types of grip from 16th and 17th centuries and the pallasches from 16th and 17th centuries. The precious decoration of gay-coloured enamel used, e.g. for hilts and mountings of parade, and ceremonial swords and sabres are a Magyar speciality of fine artistic character.

The chapters dealing with the side-arms are of importance to all who are interested in the encounter between Occident and Orient and mutual influence upon development in Europe.

In a special chapter are treated the inscriptions from sword blades from Ulfberth- and Ingelri types via Genoa, Fringia inscriptions till the current inscriptions to be found on many European blades of 16th-18th centuries not least from Solingen. Daggers, knives, hunting knives and hangers as well as hawking hoods and faulkner's bags have chapters of their own.

Part II deals with the missiles, starting with slings, bows (the Turkish bow), bowcases and quivers, crossbows, e.g. that attributed to king Matthias Corvinus, from 1489, quarrels and engraved bolt-heads and other accessories. Next follow chapters dealing with gun-powder and

fire-arms. Artillery with cannon and mortars, the names and devises in Latin and Hungarian, artillery equipment, cannon-balls and grape-shots, hand-grenades and petards are enclosed in these chapters. The chapters of fire-arms start with the harquebuses from 15th and 16th centuries. Several early specimens from Magyar Nat. Mus. in Budapest are reproduced. The whole development of hand-fire-arms is given with illustrations of the various stages and the types of locks and their characteristics. Among the fire-arms there are many interesting specimens of Hungarian making and with names of Hungarian makers. Illustrated, amongst others, is the rifle dated 1632 of Andreas Bathory and a wheel-lock rifle made by David Hacher, gunsmith in Pest from the end of 17th century. Gun-makers of Pest are represented even by several air-guns. The same chapters contain parts about the accessories such as powder horns, primers, cartridge holders, spanners and bullet moulds. A short chapter treats Magyar fortresses and their development.

Part III in its various chapters gives the development and history of the weapons for defense and starts with the contents of an archer's tomb from the period of the 13th cent. with fragments of coats of mail and of early helmets, followed by a series of coats of mail from 15th century and later. There are interesting specimens of coats and coifs of mail from Magyar Nat. Mus. as well as several bishop's mantles (in Germany), used for husars mostly from 15th and 16th centuries. Richly decorated is the coat of mail and helmet used by George II Rakoczi made of silver mail and some similar specimens from Transylvania from 17th century. The chapter treating Hungarian helmets show many interesting specimens, and the history can be followed from the peaked shapes from the period of the Conquest several with peaks preserved, most of them from early tombs. A series of characteristic Hungarian husar helmets of Turkish style, are reproduced such as e.g. the silver helmet for Ferdinand of Tyrol, now in Vienna or some other silver helmets for the same prince together with some helmets for husar tournament. Some of the illustrated husar tournament helmets to be seen belong to the middle of 16th century. The characteristic lobster-tail helmets are represented amongst others in the specimen which once belonged to Charles of Lothingen and there are some peculiar Hungarian felt-caps with coats of arms of Hungarian nobility. The pontifical hat with its steel braces and high cross on the apex is in Magyar Nat. Mus. It belongs to a late part of 16th century. Several fine armours from 16th century are represented, e.g. that of king Ludwig II as well as some jousting armours from 15th century. Among the lobstered Hungarian husar armours is the specimen which belonged to István Bathory. It is a half-lobster from 1565 (Vienna). Interest must be paid to the chapter dealing with the partic-

ular Hungarian husar shields, the tartsche with the high pointed left side. Their development can be followed in the specimens illustrated, and from contemporary wood-cuts. From «Weisskunig» the manner of suspension is documented. Particularly high and pointed are the specimens from 16th century. Among the paveses are several of the outstanding specimens now in Hist. Mus. der Stadt Wien, such as those with the coats of arms of Hungary and Austria, or with the arms of the Hunyadi family. Further there is the pavese with the portrait of king Matthias (now in Vienna) as well as his funeral shield (Paris).

It is quite natural for a cavalry people that the horse equipment makes out an important part of its arms' history. Part IV of the book is dedicated to equestrian equipment, to saddles from the high and elegant Gothic saddles of ivory from 15th century to the saddles of the emperor Maximilian from shortly before and about 1500 and to the various shapes and types of husar saddles during the centuries. The stirrups are represented from the period of the Conquest with many special constructions and shapes and can be followed through the nearest centuries. There are some characteristic Magyar stirrups from 15th century and the particular stirrup, which belonged to king Ludwig II of Hungary from the end of the 15th century. One can follow the development of the horse-bits with the many peculiar details through the periods and there are some characteristic Hungarian and Transylvanian gag-bits as well as some Oriental bits of special interest. Even the spurs are treated here, from 10th to 18th century.

The last part, the part V, deals with the flags and banners, starting with the early Hungarian banner from about 1300 now in Hist. Mus. Bern, and wellknown to those who have visited this museum. There are several interesting and fine banners, Coronation banner from 1655, burial banners etc. The chapter terminates with a husar banner from the second half of 18th century. The history of the various banners, their mottos and devises, invocations to Virgin Mary, names of kings and princes etc. are treated in the text. Each chapter is followed by a list of notes with references to the bibliography dealing with these topics.

It is a nice book, useful as a manual and thanks to the German and English lists open to investigators, a kind of an Hungarian «Boeheim». No doubt it will find its way to many libraries and book shelves. Maybe some readers and investigators, however, would have been grateful for a short summary after each chapter or a little longer German and English text in the captions.

A. Br. H.

Among recent Hungarian publications about arms and armour we are happy to be able to mention the following:

- FERENC CSILLAG: *Kardok történelműkben (Swords in our History)*. Budapest 1971, 142 pages, 409 ill. on 104 plates.
- FERENC TEMESVÁRY: *Művészeti Fegyverek (Prunkwaffen aus herrschaftlichen Schatzkammern)*. Sárvár 1971, 105 pages, 16 plates (German summary).
- EDIT B. THOMAS: *Helme, Schilde, Dolche. Studien über römisch-pannonische Waffenkunde*. Budapest 1971, 150 pages, 80 plates.
- LÁSZLÓ ZOLNAY: *Vadászatok a régi Magyarországon (Hunting in Hungary of bygone Days)*. Budapest 1971, 272 pages, numerous ill.

- A. N. KIRPIČNIKOV: *Snaraženie vsadnika i verschogo konja na Rusi IX-XIII vv. [Harnachement du cavalier et de la monture en Russie aux IX^e-XIII^e siècles]*. Leningrad 1973, 140 pp., 50 figs., 24 h. t. (Archeologija SSSR).

Préface: *Harnachement du cavalier et de la monture en matériaux archéologiques aux IX^e-XIII^e siècles*.—Plus de 2.000 objets appartenant au harnais du cavalier ont été trouvés par hasard, ainsi que dans les fouilles de sépultures et de villages. Sur 374 sépultures aux restes du cheval, prises en considération, 188 ne contenaient pas de harnais; donc, à moitié, les résultats des fouilles sont en rapport, à ce qu'il paraît, avec les temps de paix. Les données de l'archéologie permettent de suivre avec certitude une évolution technique du harnachement du cavalier, à partir, approximativement, de l'année 900. En ce qui concerne l'origine de la cavalerie et son extension initiale, les documents en occupent la place prépondérante, puisque les sépultures au cheval et à son harnais nous offrent, assez souvent, un faux tableau de l'état des choses réelles. Pour les études des matériaux concrets on a utilisé des méthodes, traitées dans les trois livraisons «Drevnérousskoé oroujié», publiées par l'édition «Nauka» en 1966-1967.

Chapitre 1: *Les mors* (Compte tenu de 566 ex.).—L'évolution des mors en Russie au début du Moyen Âge se divise en deux périodes. Au IX^e-X^e siècles les formes orientales s'utilisent surtout avec les gourmettes (psalions-gr.) droites et arquées (types I, I^a, I^b, II, III, VI). Au X^e siècle apparaissent déjà les mors, adoptés par les peuples européens, par tous les slaves (type IV), qui évincent, un siècle après, les formes initiales orientales. Variant la dimension de leurs anneaux, les harnacheurs ont conformé cette construction aux chevaux de l'élévage locale, différents de leur caractère.

Chapitre 2: *La protection de tête, la bride*.—Les protections de tête, décorées de plaques métalliques, trouvées sur le territoire de la Russie

de Kïev—18 fois—, reflètent ethniquement le personnel mêlé de l'armée. Il est possible de les rapporter aux Lithuaniens, aux Mourons, aux Scandinaves, aux Hongrois, aux Petchérègues. La Russie Méridionale, la région de steppe située sur la mer Noire et la Crimée, faisait partie d'une zone, qui était desservie aux X^e-XI^e siècles par les ateliers de harnacheur hautement qualifiés, profitant de la maestria des artisans urbains des peuples sédentaires. À leur travail ont pris part les bijoutiers russes, qui, vers l'année 1000, avaient commencé à créer, eux aussi, des brides composées. À mesure que la cavalerie devienne le genre répandu de l'armée, à mesure que la barde apparaisse, la bride aux galons métalliques a cédé la place à la construction sans plaquettes, plus simple et moins chère.

Chapitre 3: *Les selles*.—La découverte des restes de 30 selles des IX^e-XIII^e siècles en combinaison avec leurs images permettent de reconstruire cette partie du harnais. Au X^e siècle la cavalerie russe employait une selle basse, demi-rembourrée, d'origine orientale. Plus tard, elle a été remplacée par une selle dure, au pommeau haut et au siège à pente douce. Il est possible, qu'au XII^e siècle une répartition des types de selle avait eu lieu: une selle appartenant aux archers, l'autre—aux piquiers. Ceux-ci, à l'exemple des chevaliers de l'Europe Occidentale, pouvaient se servir d'une selle à chaise, à un siège bas et au troussequin haut.

Chapitre 4: *Les étriers* (Compte tenu de 429 pièces retrouvées).—À l'époque où la cavalerie de Kïev fut créée, le cavalier préférait les étriers légers et arrondis. Par la suite, les étriers reçoivent une charge de plus en plus lourde et leur grille afin d'être plus stable se redresse. En conformité avec cela, les articles du IX^e-début XI^e siècles (types I-IV, VI, partiellement V) se distinguent des spécimens des XII^e-XIII^e siècles (types VII-X; en partie, V). Les étriers d'une période initiale ont été empruntés par les russes aux voisins nomades et demi-nomades des steppes du Sud et du Sud-Est; à savoir: aux Hongrois (type II; en partie, I), aux Turques et aux Pétchénègues (type III; en partie, VII), et à un certain dégré, aux Khasars, aux Alans, aux Finnois (type VI). Entre 1000-1100 années on utilise les nouvelles constructions des étriers (types VII-IX), ce qui s'explique par la division de la cavalerie-grosse et légère, par la formation de la tactique du combat à la pique, par le chargement de la selle, par une plus forte attaque du cavalier pendant la bataille. En 1150-1250 années on produit en série les trois constructions principales: à la grille droite, ou bien un peu courbée et demi-circulaire (types VII, VII^a et IX). L'évolution des étriers russes suivait de plus en plus la mode européenne, mais, en même temps, les étriers gardaient leur nature originale, due à la position géographique du pays, en route de l'Asie en Europe.

Chapitre 5: *Les éperons* (588 ex. trouvés, y compris 282 intacts).— La typologie des éperons se base sur les trois parties constructives: crampon, pointe, agrafes. Lorsque on groupait les pièces, le point de départ était la courbure latérale de la branche (type général I-V) et sa combinaison avec la pointe (types A-K) et les agrafes (types 1-7). L'emploi régulier des éperons en Russie commence du milieu du XI^e siècle. En empruntant à l'Europe Occidentale les formes principales des éperons, les russes les ont spécialisé plus tard, en les accommodant à la cavalerie légère (type II) et grosse (type III). L'évolution des éperons atteint le point culminant vers 1150-1250 années, à l'époque où se font connaître les formes raides (type III), la production en série, et où au lieu de l'éperon à pointe, on peut voir un éperon à rouelle étoilée. Quant à la réceptivité et à la diversité des constructions à imiter, les cavaliers russes savaient devancer leur siècle. Nos découvertes, à en juger par leur arrangement et leur date, dans quelques cas rendent en 25-50 années plus ancien le schéma habituel de l'évolution des éperons en Europe (pour les types III, IV^a et V). Dans les villes russes on a trouvé 36 exemplaires de l'éperon à rouelle (type V)—les plus anciens en Europe—ils ont apparu vers 1220-1230 années.

Chapitre 6: *Les fouets* (47 pièces en métal et en os des manches et des pommeaux).—Les manches en métal des fouets, soi-disant «sonores», se correspondent aux IX^e-XI^e siècles (type I). Cette invention de l'Europe Septentrionale se fait voir en Russie à l'époque des vikings. Aux XII^e-XIII^e siècles, en dépit de l'usage des éperons, la popularité des fouets, caractéristiques pour l'équitation «à la manière orientale», ne se réduit pas, ce qui est confirmé par les découvertes permanentes des revers de leurs manches (types III et IV).

Chapitre 7: *Les boucles de sangle, les agrafes d'abot, de licol, les pinces à brise-glace, les fers à cheval, les étrilles.*—Ce chapitre examine l'origine, la destination, l'évolution et la date de tous les objets énumérés en tête du chapitre. On a surtout prêté attention aux pinces de saison à brise-glace, affectées à l'homme ainsi qu'au cheval, ce qui permet de dissiper les erreurs sur la destination des ces objets.

Conclusion.—Pas plus tard qu'au X^e siècle prit naissance en Russie une cavalerie apte au combat, équipée des produits, dont les types ont été empruntés par les slaves essentiellement aux peuples nomades et demi-nomades du Sud et du Sud-Est de la région européenne de l'URSS. Entre 1000 et 1100 années, un assortiment habituel des formes, d'origine orientales, est surmonté et des transformations différentes se sont enracinées. Au XII^e siècle dans le harnachement du cavalier prédominent les pièces d'une production en série standardisée, ainsi que les brides composées de deux sections, les tériers à la grille droite et arrondie, les épe-

rons aux branches demi-circulaires et d'une configuration raide. On peut mettre à part les objets destinés aux piquiers et aux archers. Vers 1150-1250 années apparaît la barde et, tout d'abord, la calotte. En tout, l'évolution du harnachement d'un cavalier aux IX^e-XIII^e siècles subit beaucoup de transformations, liées avec la naissance de la cavalerie, qui est devenue la partie principale de l'armée, avec l'essor, aux XII^e-XIII^e siècles, de la puissance équestre, proprement dite.

EDMON-RENÉ LABANDE et BERNADETTE LEPLANT: *Répertoire international des médiévistes*. Poitiers, Centre d'Études Supérieures de Civilisation Médiévale, 1971, 2 vols. (Publications du CESCM, 5).

Ce *Répertoire* est le troisième (ou plutôt le quatrième) de la série. En effet, en 1953, Marie-Thérèse d'Alverny avec le concours de Mgr. Glo-rieux, réalisait le fascicule intitulé *Répertoire des médiévistes d'Europe* dont le succès fut immédiat car, scientifiquement établi, il était d'une grande utilité pour les chercheurs, pour les bibliothécaires et pour les archivistes. En 1960, le CESCM faisait paraître le *Répertoire des médiévistes européens*, rédigé par E. R. Labande avec les conseils de Marie-Thérèse d'Alverny, volume qui reçut un accueil encore plus ample. Entre temps, M. S. Harrison Thompson, professeur à l'Université du Colorado (États-Unis), se voyant forcé de renoncer à l'entreprise qu'il menait parallèlement à celle du Centre, mais portant sur les médiévistes de l'Amérique du Nord et du Canada, le CESCM élargit le champ couvert par son recensement et 1965 vit paraître le *Répertoire international des médiévistes*, mis en oeuvre par P. Gallais, par Y. J. Riou et par Bernadette Plumail. L'édition 1971 marque de nouveaux progrès: 4.803 médiévistes contre 3.530 en 1965, font l'objet d'une notice. Chacune d'elles porte: le nom complet du savant ou de l'érudit, ses fonctions, son adresse personnelle et celle de son bureau, la branche de l'histoire médiévale sur laquelle portent ses efforts, la liste des travaux (livres, brochures, mémoires, articles de revue, etc.) parus depuis 1964 et celle de ceux qui sont actuellement sous presse ou en préparation.

On peut évidemment signaler quelques lacunes, mais elles sont le fait des intéressés eux-même, non de la rédaction du *Répertoire*. Ainsi, certains orientalistes ne se considèrent pas comme des médiévistes à proprement parler et n'ont point jugé utile de faire figurer leur nom. De même pour d'autres s'intéressant aux Indes, au Japon ou aux pays africains. Plusieurs médiévistes chevronnés ont négligé de répondre au questionnaire et cela a obligé les rédacteur du *Répertoire* à établir une notice

en utilisant les seuls renseignements dont ils disposaient. Enfin, «certains auteurs—une minorité heureusement—ont beaucoup compliqué la tâche par leur mépris pour la machine à écrire, leur incroyable indifférence quant à la précision (de tomaison ou d'année) concernant les périodiques, voire par une fantaisie déconcertante dans le libellé de leurs propres ouvrages, cités de mémoire, les titres nous apparaissant tout différents lorsque, par chance, nous en pouvions opérer le contrôle» (*Avant-Propos*, p. 2).

Mais ce ne sont là que des bavures, qu'il serait injuste d'attribuer à la rédaction du *Répertoire*, laquelle s'est vue attelée à une tâche aussi difficile qu'ingrate.

D'autre part, ce volume est le dernier qui paraîtra par les soins du CESCm. Les raisons qui ont forcé les autorités du Centre à prendre une telle décision sont hautement regrettables mais parfaitement justifiées. Si le Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique ou toute autre instance, nationale ou internationale, ne se décide pas à apporter une véritable aide financière, le *Répertoire* malgré son utilité et son audience dans le monde savant, malgré tout le travail déjà fait, malgré les dossiers accumulés, cessera sa apparition. Ce qui est dit à la p. 3 de l'*Avant-Propos* mérite que l'on y réfléchisse sérieusement.

Pour les lecteurs de GLADIUS, l'intérêt du *Répertoire* est incontestable. Grâce aux bons index dont l'ouvrage est pourvu, on peut connaître facilement le nom et l'adresse précis de ceux qui, en divers pays, s'intéressent à la civilisation militaire du Moyen Âge, aux armes, à la fortification, etc. Des contacts peuvent ainsi être aisement établis et ces contacts seront d'une grande valeur car, ainsi que l'affirmait récemment l'Unesco, rien, aucune machine électronique ou autre, ne saurait remplacer la personne. C'est ce que savaient de longue date les archivistes, les bibliothècaires et les chercheurs et ce qu'ils ne cessent de répéter.

J.-F. FINÓ

PAUL MARTIN: *Armes et armures, de Charlemagne à Louis XIV*. Paris, Bibliothèque des Arts, 1967, 296 p., illus. en noir et en couleurs.

Après une brève *Préface* et un chapitre sur *Le cuirassement chez les Anciens*, l'ouvrage se divise en deux parties. Dans la première, intitulée *L'Armure en Europe*, sont traités: les débuts de l'adoubement (VIII^e-X^e siècles); l'ère de la cotte de mailles et de la cotte d'armes (XI^e-XIII^e siècles); le haubert renforcé (XIV^e siècle); le harnois blanc plain (XV^e

siècle); la cotte armoirée (XII^e-XVI^e siècles); l'armure de la Renaissance (XVI^e-XVII^e siècles); le déclin de l'armure; l'habillement de tête; l'armure du cheval; les joutes et les tournois; l'armurier et l'artisanat. La deuxième, *Les Armes*, se divise en: l'épée, le ceinturon et la dague; le bouclier, l'écu et la rondache; la selle d'armes et les éperons; la lance, la bannière et le pennon; les armes d'hast; les armes de trait (arc et arbalète); la tactique et les armes au combat. Le volume se termine par une bonne bibliographie (plus d'une centaine de rubriques) et par un index analytique d'objets, d'activités et d'opérations où les pages d'illustrations sont précédées d'un astérisque, ce qui est fort utile.

Nous regrettons de ne pas avoir signalé auparavant aux lecteurs de GLADIUS cet intéressant ouvrage, peut-être la couverture en a été la cause: celle-ci ne paraissait revêtir qu'un simple livre d'enfants quant, en réalité, il en est tout autrement! En effet, le volume nous semble devoir se placer à mi-chemin, entre les ouvrages de Viollet-le-Duc (spécialement les vols. V et VI de son *Dictionnaire du mobilier*) qui ont souvent vieillis et ceux de V. Norman, parfois trop écourtés. L'A. nous donne une excellente synthèse, très à jour, des principaux résultats obtenus au cours de deux siècles de recherches sur les armes médiévales et, ce faisant, il formule bon nombre de remarques neuves et tire bien des conclusions personnelles, ce dont on doit l'en féliciter. En particulier, il fait de nombreux emprunts à des figurations existantes en Alsace, en Allemagne, en Suisse, etc., et il attire l'attention du lecteur français sur des circonstances qui risquaient de lui échapper. Signalons aussi l'emploi d'un intéressant artifice typographique: à la fin des légendes des illustrations, l'A. indique la page où il étudie cette image, ce qui facilite énormément les recherches. Bravo! Mais pourquoi n'avoir pas fait aussi l'inverse, c'est-à-dire, indiquer dans le texte l'illustration qui s'y rapporte? L'ouvrage est fort bien documenté, toutefois, l'A. omet les indications (livre, chapitre, etc.) qui auraient permis de retrouver le passage cité à travers des œuvres volumineuses (par exemple, les *Chroniques* de Froissart). De même, l'A. omet les cotes des objets déposés dans les musées et surtout celles des manuscrits conservés dans les bibliothèques. Il faut songer aux nombreux chercheurs ne pouvant se déplacer personnellement et qui, se trouvant dans la nécessité de commander une reproduction photographique peuvent, en indiquant la cote, préciser l'objet désiré tout en faisant de sérieuses économies de temps... et d'argent. Une dernière plainte: l'A. laisse de côté tout ce qui se rapporte à la guerre de sièges, pourtant primordiale au Moyen Âge. Béliers, trébuchets, balistes, etc., sont passés sous silence et force est de s'en tenir encore à ce qu'en avait dit Viollet-le-Duc dans son *Dictionnaire d'architecture* ou au bref résumé qu'en fit Enlart dans son *Manuel d'archéologie*.

Quelques rares bavures peuvent être relevées de ci de là. Par exemple, l'A. affirme (p. 52) le manque d'une législation prohibant le commerce et l'exportation des armes à l'étranger. Or, Charlemagne en 779, 803, 805 et 811, Charles le Chauve en 864, Henri II d'Angleterre en 1181 (*Assise des armes*, § 4 et 8), etc., ont interdit un tel trafic. Nous ne serions pas sûrs que, pour prouver qu'un type d'armure était utilisé à un moment donné, il suffise d'invoquer le témoignage d'une dalle funéraire ou le gisant d'un personnage décédé à cette époque et il convient de se souvenir des remarques faites à ce sujet par Jean Hubert dans *L'Histoire et ses méthodes* (pp. 1233-1234).

Mais ce sont là de petites chicanes, trop faciles à soulever et félicitons plutôt l'A. de nous avoir donné un volume aussi utile que bien fait.

J.-F. FINÓ

Relaciones histórico-culturales entre España y Malta, in: «Castillos de España», special number of 1970, Madrid 1971, 78 pages, 64 ill.

The special number of «Castillos de España», publication of the Asociación Española de Amigos de los Castillos, is the first publication of monographic character issued by the Asociación de Amigos de los Castillos. It originates in the general meeting celebrated by Europa Nostra in 1970, in La Valetta, the capital of Malta, in the ancient Seat of the *Caballeros de Castilla*, a marvellous Maltese baroque building from the 18th century. Together with the general meeting an exhibition was inaugurated treating the *Order of Malta*. As a result of the Spanish participation this beautiful publication was issued. It is dedicated to *Su Alteza Eminentísima Fray Angelo de Mojana di Cologna, Príncipe y Gran Maestro* of this exclusive and well-merited Orden, and to *His Excellency the Minister of Education, Culture and Turism of Malta Dr. Paolo Borg Olivier*, who has written a felicitation in the Maltese language, an Arabic dialect.

The main part of this book—in total 14 articles—has been written by the president of the Asociación de los Castillos, *D. Gabriel Alomar Esteve*, who opens his work with a short note about the famous *Halcón Maltés*, the feudal tribute paid to the Spanish emperor Carlos V for his concession of the island to the Knights of St. John. He terminates his series of short articles with the fate of this Halcón, converted in the time of Napoleon from a living bird to a dead but precious jewel of gold, a distinction of honour. The articles of the author treat the geography of Malta with the islands Gozo and Comino, the history from the partic-

ular and very monumental Maltese megalithic buildings and temples of prehistoric time, through the ages, the history of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, the first constructions of fortifications, the «*Gran Sitio*», with maps of the situations. (After the successful defense of Malta against the Turks in 1566 Felipe II presented the Grand Master La Valetta with a precious sword, the hilt of which is of pure gold, profusely adorned with translucent enamel and precious stones and with its accompanying dagger. «*Épée de la Religion*» was its name. This precious suit of weapons had its place in the treasury of the church of St. John until Napoleon Bonaparte on his way against Egypt removed it and took it to France. It is now in Musée du Louvre in Paris).

The fortifications of La Valetta are very monumental as architectural works, and of great military importance. Around the fortresses there are well constructed bastions from 17th and 18th centuries. Beside the fortresses and the harbour the Order of Malta had a navy, composed of various types of ships such as galleys, galleons and frigates. Further the island had an excellent arsenal. During the 17th century Malta was an important nest of corsairs, just as were Messina, Naples and other places of the Mediterranean. The navy of Malta had about 30 corsairs, some of them with up to 22 cannons. With the brothers Cotoner from Mallorca a splendid period arose in regard to practical matters such as improvement of agriculture, introduction of Mallorquin architects to construct wind-mills for the grain and the like. Not least art and architecture were promoted by the Cotoners. The fortifications were enlarged and new fortresses were constructed. With the second half of 18th century, however, the decadence came in. Probably the first stone to this decline was laid by the Portuguese Grand Master, Emmanuel Pinto de Fonseca, a lover of splendour. A more secular air blew into the glorious Order. With Napoleon on his way to Egypt the fate of Malta was written. The Halcón was caught by the French Eagle. But it is in this part of 18th century that the importance of Malta as a naval base in the Mediterranean became the politics of France, England and Russia. After the French followed the English. The Order left the island and took its seat in Trieste, and in 1834 it went to Rome.

In the Palace of the Grand Masters the Armoury of the Order is placed. Maybe foundations of these arms-collections to some extent were laid by king Henry VIII of England, who in 1531 fulfilled a promise given in 1526, in the shape of a gift of a ship loaded with cannon of bronze to the Order. The collections of the armoury consist to-day in more than 5.000 objects, great part of which are Spanish and Italian, others French and German and even Turkish. There are armours and parts of armours, helmets, shields, swords and rapiers, great part of

which is Spanish, left-hand daggers, hand-fire-arms, pistols, powder-flasks, crossbows, hafted weapons, drums and many other specimens. The illustrations in the articles by Alomar give a good impression of the numerous weapons and armours placed in the galleries of this palace. This armoury was rather neglected until late in the 19th century when it was published in a fine catalogue by the British specialist *Sir Guy Francis Laking*: «The Armoury of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, now in the Palace, Valetta, Malta», with many reproductions and an introduction about the history of the armoury. The galleries of this precious palace further are richly decorated with marvellous paintings and tapestries and bear evidence of the cultural quality of the members of this exclusive Order.

D. Armando de Fluvia y Escorsa treats the Spanish Grand Masters since the first residence of the Order on Cyprus in the 13th century passing over Rhodes until it took its seat on Malta. The castle of Consuegra in the province of Ciudad Real, now in ruins, once was the seat of the Grand Priory of Castilla. Los Albergues de los Caballeros de la Lengua de Aragón y la Lengua de Castilla en Birgu and in La Valetta are described by *D. Mario Buhagiar*, while the Maltese scholar and professor of archaeology and architecture *D. Michael Ellul* treats the brothers Cotoner and their importance to the art of Malta. There are fine illustrations to the precious architecture treated here. *D. Gabriel Alomar* continues with a short article about Malta in the history and art of the Balearian Island and the Order in the Americas. The last article gives a mention of the Order of St. John and its work to-day. It has been written by the *Marqués de Sales, D. Antonio del Rosal*.

It is a beautiful special number of «Castillos de España» with excellent reproductions of fortifications, palaces, paintings and armour galleries and the theme itself is interesting.

A. BR. H.

LEONARDO VILLENA: *Glosario de términos castellológicos medievales en lenguas románicas*, in: «Castillos de España», No. 71 (1971), pp. 77-92, 14 line drawings. Alphabetic index and bibliography.

This glossary, written by an excellent specialist in castellology and military architecture, Dr. Leonardo Villena, who has fame in the international world of castellologists, is a highly wanted work and a good help to investigators and other interested in ancient military architecture. In this erudite glossary the author gives a short but important introduction

to this theme, to the development of the terminology, technology and art of fortification in the Middle Ages, treating antique and medieval literary sources together with the origin and evolution in the Romanic languages of the terminology in regard to castellology, poliorcetics, engines for sieges etc. and referring to important medieval and early Renaissance works. Most of them are written in Latin, but even in early Spanish literature do we find terms and names of great importance for such a glossary. The literature from 16th century is of no mean importance to the development and give much material. Inside the evolution in the Romanic languages the Catalan is of a particular interest having preserved many of its original terms and at the same time it constitutes a kind of bridge between e.g. Castillian and Portuguese, influenced by Arabic, and Provençal and Italian. The author explains why the Catalan terms have been placed at the head of each column, followed by Castillian, Portuguese, Provençal, Italian, French and Rumanian. At last follow the ethymologies and terms in Low Latin. There are references to the earliest known appearances in literary documentation, consulting e.g. Du Cange, followed by antique texts, where it has been possible, and as a help to the definition. The intention is to treat the *ideas of fortifications*, the *lingvistic problems* in various languages, their ethymologies etc. It starts with the fortress, the *fortalesa* and follows up all the details of the fortresses. There is a long and excellent list of bibliography, of texts and books dealing with fortification and poliorcetics written in Romanic languages until about 1700. From this list of bibliography it is easily seen how much interest Spanish and Italian engineers, military architects and artillerists took in these matters. At last there is an alphabetic list and a bibliography of dictionaries. Much of this literature is now to be found in the library of Monasterio de El Escorial. It has been a great work to gather all these terms and follow their way in other languages as well as their whole development. The preparation of this glossary has been no easy task. To investigators of castellology, arms and armour, architects and historians it is a most useful work. It is to be hoped that the author will follow up this work, augment it and add lists, ideas and history of the terms in other languages too. It is important.

A. BR. H.

- F. WILKINSON: *Les armes à feu*. Paris, Libr. Larousse, 1972, 159 p.
— *Les armes françaises à travers les âges*. Paris, Sélection du Reader's Digest, 1972, 47 p.

Voici deux petites brochures qui feront les délices des néophytes et des connaisseurs. «Indocti discant...» est un proverbe qui ne cesse d'être actuel. De plus, elles prouvent qu'en France comme ailleurs on s'intéresse chaque jour davantage aux armes à feu anciennes.

Évidemment, il ne faut pas y chercher de la haute érudition et ne pas les comparer, par exemple, à l'ouvrage de J. F. Hayward, mais elles méritent d'être lues attentivement.

Le texte est correct et il n'y a pas de grosses fautes, à notre connaissance du moins. On y trouvera mentionné l'emploi des «balles carrées» (en réalité cubiques) pour charger les armes à feu destinées à combattre les Infidèles, les «balles rondes» restant réservées aux rencontres entre Chrétiens, ce que bien des spécialistes ignorent encore aujourd'hui. Le style de la brochure publiée par Sélection aurait eut tout à gagner s'il avait été moins cursif, mais c'est là un défaut commun à de nombreux ouvrages qui, sous prétexte d'atteindre un plus large public, emploient un langage parfois cocasse, parfois argotique et toujours déplaisant lorsqu'il est «écrit». Par contre, le style de la brochure de Wilkinson est bien meilleur et ne seraient-ce son point de vue fortement anglo-saxon (chose compréhensible d'autre part) il n'y aurait rien à redire. Pour les illustrations, c'est le contraire qui se produit. Dans la brochure de Sélection, elles sont d'une exécution parfaite et l'origine est toujours indiquée (Musée de l'Armée, Collection Wallace, etc.). On peut donc s'y référer avec confiance. Pour ce qui est de la publication de Wilkinson, la technique de reproduction n'est pas si bonne. De plus, les illustrations ayant été réalisées par le dessinateur M. Schoebridge, on ne sait jamais si elles sont de simples compositions, des reproductions d'images ou d'objets qu'il a eut sous les yeux ou bien des interprétations de documents d'époque. Les indications d'origine faissant défaut, ces illustrations demeurent fort sujettes à caution. Signalons dans la brochure de Sélection, un intéressant «Lexique en images» qui aidera à préciser les mots et les idées aussi bien pour l'armure du XVI^e siècle que pour les armes blanches et les armes à feu. Pas de bibliographie, sauf dans la brochure de Wilkinson où une courte liste (six numéros) de «Lectures utiles», clôt le texte.

Malgré ces réserves et d'autres que l'on pourrait faire, il s'agit là de deux petits livres que l'on aura plaisir et profit à parcourir et qui se complètent mutuellement. Comme leur prix est vraiment modique, nous leur désirons une audience aussi large que possible.

J.-F. FINÓ

'ABD AL-RAHMAN ZAKY: *The Citadel of Salah al-Din in Cairo and the Neighbouring Monuments*. Cairo 1971, 147 pages, 74 figs., 7 maps, bibliography and notes. (In Arabic).

A new book has been published by the Egyptian scholar Dr. Abd al-Rahman Zaky in Cairo, dealing with the architecture and history of the mighty medieval Citadel, which crowns the Capital of the Nile Valley. In five chapters and accompanied by many illustrations the skilled expert in Islamic military matters, weapons and history of war takes his readers through a most interesting wandering through a multitude of buildings such as fortresses, towers, mosques, shrines, palaces and even cemeteries with the domed mausolees of the various sultans, all of it either inside the walls of the Citadel or in the nearest neighbourhood and in historical and cultural connexion with the Citadel and the persons who once moved here and wrote history of Moslem Egypt. Parts of it are romantic ruins but most of it is well restored. Each of the many departments of this group of buildings tell history from the days just before the third Crusade, passing through the ages of famous sultans, the periods of the Mamluk rulers and down to almost modern time when the famous Muhamad Ali Pasha built his monumental Mosque in Turkish style with the high slender minarets. By the same time there is a description of the military museum, since 1949 installed in the so-called Harem's Palace, the Mint, Arsenal, Archives as well as other departments, such as the reference library for investigators of ancient Islamic weapons. Chapter 1 (pp. 15-28) treats in the first ramble, the Salah al-Din Square, with the College-Mosques and palaces grouped in this part of the enclosure. Chapter 2 (pp. 29-102) treats in second and third ramble the Citadel itself and its various departments, fountains, hospital, domes, pigeon's tower, the buildings of the Bahrite Mamluks, the groups from the days of the Circassian Mamluks, and descriptions of all this given by European travellers of the time. The history in this chapter is followed up during the Ottoman and Sulayman time, the days of the French Expedition, Muhamad Alis period and later time. In chapter 3 (pp. 103-116) the author treats various shrines, domes and minarets, the cemetery of the Mamluks, the Mausoleum of Mustafa Kamel, while chapter 4 (pp. 118 to 128) gives descriptions of the cemeteries in Southern Cairo with several of the famous historical tombs and the domes of the Abbassids. Chapter 5 (pp. 129-139) treats various mausoleum-buildings and shrines of special architectural interest or historical importance.

The mighty Citadel, which dominates Cairo, was founded by the great sultan *Salah al-Din* himself, the first ruler of the Ayyubid dynasty. To Egypt he came in the service of Nur al-Din together with his uncle

Shirkuh. After the death of the last Fatimid caliph in 1171 he made himself sultan and ascended the throne. Though he spent much of his life-time with fighting in Syria, Palestine and Mesopotamia, he got time for taking up other works of cultural character such as the founding of this group of buildings which composed an important part in his defensive plans in Egypt and Cairo. His arsenal with its contents of artillery and other kinds of weapons had fame. His fights against the Crusaders in Palestine led to the armistice in 1179. This, however, was broken by the Crusaders in 1186 and led to his conquest of Jerusalem in 1187 after the battle of Hittin near Lake Tiberias. This event caused the Occidental knights under leadership of Richard Lionheart of England and Philippe-Auguste of France to start the third Crusade. During this period the architects in Cairo worked on the Citadel. Salah al-Din, who died in 1193, did not get time for seeing his monumental work finished. It was his nephew who in 1207-1208 terminated these series of buildings. Without any doubt it is the most interesting group of historical buildings in Cairo telling the history of a long row of sultans during many centuries. In the days of Salah al-Din Cairo consisted in two separate parts, the old Cairo or el-Fustat and the Fatimide Cairo, Kahireh, now the central part of medieval Cairo. Fertile cultivations and gardens lay between the two parts, which Salah al-Din let enclose by one long wall. On the hills of Muqattam, the Citadel came to crown the extensive enclosures and overlooked both the city and the Nile. Inside the long wall there were two enclosures connected by a narrow «neck». The north-eastern enclosure comprised the military part and thus constituted the true fortress. The other enclosure comprised the palaces of the sultans and their families as well as various departments for government. Over the gate of the imposing Staircase a long inscription in Arabic was placed, telling about the work. Great square towers were built in the days of the successor of Salah al-Din, while the semicircular towers had been the works of the great sultan himself. Four main gates led into this group of buildings: that in the south with the Arabic inscription, another to the east, facing towards the Muqattam hills, a third gate to the south and a fourth gate leading into the sultan's palaces. During the centuries this group of buildings were enlarged, changed, rebuilt and utterly fortified. Several of the Mamluk sultans made changes keeping up their residence in the Citadel and constructing garrisons for soldiers inside. Various renovations were made in the days of the Baybars. A special palace was constructed for the sultan Al Malik al-Said. Ashraf Khalil ibn Qalawun let build the great terrace overlooking Gizeh and the Pyramids. About 1313 the construction of the still existing square tower near the Muhamad Ali Pasha Mosque was

made. The «striped» palace was begun in 1314 with alternating layers of yellow stones. Later on it was demolished in order to give place for a new Mosque and some other buildings, the ruins of which still exist. The sultan Al-Nasir Hasan Muhamad let build a palace profusely decorated with ornaments and with golden windows. The famous sultan Barquq restored the walls of the Citadel. Several octagonal columns with Arabic inscriptions on their sides originate from the constructions made by sultan Qaytbay. In the 16th century various alterations as well as new buildings were added. In the following centuries still more buildings were made or changed. Muhamad 'Ali Pasha to a high degree contributed to the revival of the Citadel and let construct the precious Mosque with his name, in Turkish style and furnished with great splendour in its interior. The high slender minarets look out over all Cairo and can be seen from all parts of the city. It is one of the most beautiful buildings of Cairo. This ruler let build more palaces and buildings inside the enclosures such as the Gohara Palace and the Harem's Palace, where now the military museum with its archives and reference library for investigators are installed. The medieval Mosque of al-Nasir nearby, built about 1317, is now restored. It is built in a special and characteristic style with precious portals. The minarets are covered with coloured fayance tiles and furnished with a characteristic cupola. In its neighbourhood one finds the famous Joseph's Well, a square shaft, about 290 feet deep. This enormous bore in the limestone ground has in a depth of about 150 feet a platform for the oxen which once drew up the water by means of a paternoster wheel. In earlier days the Citadel got all its water from this deep well.

The enclosures of the Citadel thus comprise the military buildings, the fortress with its towers for watch and defense, palaces for the rulers and their families, Mosques, Shrines and College-Mosques. Further cemeteries and monuments for rulers and high-rank persons belong to this group of historical monuments. To all who are interested in military architecture of the Moslem World as well as to Moslem history and civilization through the ages it is interesting to follow the author in his book. In this connexion the military museum must not be forgotten. It is of interest to all arms' students. It was inaugurated in 1949 in the Harem's Palace and shows in its many departments weapons and art of war through almost 5.000 years from the days of the Pharaohs passing over the Ptolemies, the Romans, Byzantine period and early and medieval Moslem period almost up to modern time. Swords and sabres, firearms, uniforms, flags, weapons from Sudan, history of fortification can be followed here.

With its many illustrations the book gives a vivid impression of the

huge Citadel with its many groups of towers and other details of fortifications, palaces, Mosques etc. showing the development of military and civilian architecture not least from the days of the Crusades and the Mamluks. Much work and solid information has been laid down in this book by Dr. Zaky. A translation to a European main language would be of interest.

A. Br. H.

A. N. KIRPIČNIKOV: *Drevnerusskoe oružie* [Les armes de la Russie médiévale], vol. 3. Leningrad 1971, 91 pp., figs., 28 h. t. (Archaeologia SSSR). Les deux premiers volumes sont publiés en 1966.

R É S U M É

I: L'ARMURE

CHAPITRE 1

LES COTTES DE MAILLES ET DES PANSIÈRES (112 exemplaires, pièces entières et fragments)

Les slaves orientaux ont emprunté cette manière de protéger le corps aux peuples d'Orient ainsi que, et cela surtout, aux Germains.

D'habitude, les anneaux des cottes de mailles sont alternativement soudés et rivés.

Aux XII^e-XIII^e siècles on voit apparaître les cottes de mailles uniquement en anneaux soudés et les bas faits de petits anneaux de fer. Alors les cottes de mailles deviennent longues à mi-jambe et leurs anneaux aplatis. Simultanément avec la cotte de mailles étaient en usage les broignes, fabriquées de plaques métalliques. Les plaques de cette sorte, approximativement des 26 armures des IX^e-XIII^e siècles étaient découvertes dans 18 points géographiques de la Russie.

Les plaques s'étaient liées par les courroies (lamellar armour). Une autre construction consistait de l'armure en écailles (scale armour). Au XIII^e siècle surviennent les brigandines, composées de grandes et longues bandes, les jambières et les brassards.

C H A P I T R E 2
L E S H E A U M E S
(37 exemplaires et leurs parties)

Les heaumes des slaves orientaux remontent aux anciens exemples asiatiques. C'est au X^e siècle que se forme un heaume modèles phéroconique et doré, qui demeure longtemps en usage des guerriers féodaux (type I).

Les heaumes du combat étaient aussi en vogue chez certains voisins occidentaux de la Russie. Il paraît, que l'État de Kiev était un des pays intermédiaire, qui fit connaître aux chevaliers de l'Europe occidentale le heaume conique d'Asie (type I). Aux XII^e-XIII^e siècles sont répandus les heaumes des formes communes pour les russes ainsi que pour les nomades. Ce que le poids des armes augmente fait naître les heaumes aux visières et aux loups. L'affinité des heaumes russes et de ceux de l'Orient était mise au monde par les particularités de la tactique du combat à cheval et par l'usage du sabre.

C H A P I T R E 3
L E S B O U C L I E R S

Les boucliers du X^e siècle (on avait trouvé les restes de 23 exemplaires) étaient de préférence ronds, pourvus du lisérés métalliques et d'umbons sphériques et sphéroconiques. Aux environs de l'an 1000, dans toute l'Europe, la Russie y comprise, on voit paraître le bouclier de cavalerie de forme d'amande. Vers la fin du XII^e siècle il se réduit de dimension, perd ses parties métalliques, et l'on peut en manipuler lors du combat d'une manière active. Dans le deuxième tiers du XIII^e siècle les boucliers en forme d'amande se transforment en ceux de forme triangulaire.

**II: L'ENSEMBLE DES ARMES ET DES ARMURES
ET LEUR UTILISATION**

C H A P I T R E 1
**L'ENSEMBLE D'ARMEMENT RUSSE MÉDIÉVALE
D'APRÈS LES MONUMENTS ARCHÉOLOGIQUES**

On y confronte l'armement, provenant de 1305 sépulcres et de 100 cités. Avec cela, on établit le lieu et la destination d'une espèce d'arme et les combinaisons simultanées et communes, dans lesquelles on trouve

les armes différentes. Une analyse des objets munis de pièces de guerre permit non seulement de se faire une idée de l'équipement technique des troupes, mais aussi de juger jusqu'à quel point la société fut-elle militarisée.

CHAPITRE 2

L'ARMEMENT ET LES TROUPES AU DÉBUT DU MOYEN ÂGE

Sont envisagés: le rôle et l'importance de l'infanterie et de la cavalerie pendant les diverses périodes de l'évolution de la Russie, le temps où la cavalerie est apparue en qualité des troupes de masse; l'infanterie et la cavalerie au Nord et au Sud du pays, la répartition des troupes selon le genre et l'espèce de l'armement et leur équipement. Ensuite, on caractérise l'utilisation des armes aux stades différents de la bataille, et l'on reconstruit la succession en usage des armes offensives et, surtout, la manière particulière de s'en servir. Les arcs et les flèches s'étaient employés quand les troupes étant en guerre s'approchaient; les lances —par excellence— au moment de la première ruée dans un ordre régulier, ainsi que pendant la poursuite; les glaives, les sabres, les haches de guerre, les massues, les fléaux d'armes furent mis en oeuvre au combat corps à corps.

Les étapes historiques et les voies de développement de l'ancienne technique militaire russe.

Aux IX^e-X^e siècles, simultanément avec la formation de l'État, une révolution technique eut lieu, dont la suite fut un réarmement complet des troupes.

C'est à cette époque que fut créé l'arsenal militaire de la Russie, qui subissait ensuite une modification graduelle.

Les armes du combat corps à corps, par excellence l'arme perforante et hachée, deviennent de plus en plus importantes pour l'issue de la bataille. A partir du XI^e siècle une valeur de plus en plus grande est attachée aux cavaliers armés de lance, qui étaient en base de la classe dirigeante et le noyau de la drougine.

La technique militaire russe atteignit une puissance extraordinaire à la deuxième moitié du XII^e-première moitié du XIII^e siècle. Chaque délai de 50 ans fournit un ensemble de nouveautés techniques (lourdes lances-épieu, crocs à l'arbalète, cottes de mailles en anneaux plats, heaumes à visière, calottes défensives des chevaux, éperons à ruelle).

Une union contraste des moyens du combat de cavalerie et d'infanterie caractérisait la Russie. Les traits de l'Orient et de l'Occident se trouvaient heureusement réunis en moyen du combat de l'État de Kiev, ce que formait quelque chose d'extraordinaire dans une ambiance eurasienne.

Aux IX^e-X^e siècles on pouvait trouver plusieurs traits communs dans les armements et dans les procédés militaires de la Russie et d'autres

États européens, à titre d'exemple: la prépondérance du combat d'infanterie. A partir du XI^e siècle, on voit apparaître les distinctions, qui, en ce qui concerne la Russie, consistaient en existence d'une infanterie active, en emploi en masse de la cavalerie légère et des moyens rapides du combat à cheval: des sabres, des arcs et des flèches, des massues et des fléaux d'armes. Cependant, encore aux XIII^e-XIII^e siècles, en Russie, ainsi qu'en Occident, les piques, les épérons, les armures en anneaux, les boucliers, les selles, les arbalètes, les ballistes, la division en détachements de tactique les procédés du combat aux piques furent les mêmes.

Pendant la période, où se formait l'État de Kiev, les armuriers et les guerriers russes se furent rendus de meilleurs échantillons des armes étrangères. Aux XI^e-XIII^e siècles le métier de guerre local devient de lui-même une source puissante d'influences techniques sur les voisins sédentaires et nomades. Les œuvres des armuriers du pays pénétrèrent dans les pays européens, y excitèrent des imitations (par exemple, heaumes, certaines haches de guerre, pointes des fourreaux de glaives). Elles furent surtout appréciées et acquises par les nomades.

L'étude de la technique de guerre russe du début du Moyen Âge est en quelque sorte, d'une importance européenne, mesurée (déterminée) par la contribution qu'avait apportée la Russie au développement de la culture d'armes.