

ENCYCLOPEDIA OF WAR

ANCIENT BATTLES



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HISTORICAL NOTES

1. **BATTLE NOTES**

This section gives brief notes on each of the battle scenarios provided with the program.

Five scenarios are provided. The Hydaspes and Cynocephalae are fairly small battles, Zama and Pharsalus are medium sized and Chalons is somewhat larger.

River Hydaspes 326BC

This battle was fought during Alexander the Great's Indian campaign. Alexander had demanded tribute from an Indian king named Porus. Porus refused, so Alexander marched to attack him. Porus took up a position on the river Hydaspes, which formed the boundary of his kingdom, in order to prevent Alexander crossing.

The Hydaspes was a wide, fast flowing river and Porus had large numbers of infantry and more than 200 elephants, which made an assault crossing impossible. Alexander, therefore, decided to cross at a point 18 miles upstream, where the river was divided by an island. To accustom the Indians to his army moving around, he sent out a succession of noisy cavalry forces to march up and down the river bank. At first Porus followed these with his army, but deciding that they were no real threat, contented himself with posting sentries along the river.

To make the crossing, Alexander split his forces into three parts. One part was left in the camp to keep the Indians occupied and was given orders to light extra fires so that it would not seem apparent that part of the army was missing. A second force was left at an intermediate point along the river, to cross when the far bank had been secured, while Alexander marched with his cavalry, light infantry, Hypaspists and part of the Phalanx, to the main crossing point. The crossing was made safely at dawn, but was spotted by Porus' sentries. The Indian king immediately dispatched a force of cavalry and chariots, but these arrived too late to stop the crossing and were destroyed by the Macedonians. Porus, therefore, left a small covering force on the river bank and led his army to confront Alexander.

He deployed with his infantry in the centre, with cavalry and chariots on each flank. The elephants were drawn up in a thin line along the front of the infantry. Alexander decided to concentrate his attack on the left flank. Half of his cavalry advanced to attack the Indian horse, while the rest moved to outflank it. Porus countered by bringing his cavalry across from the other flank, but the Indian horse was still defeated and driven back onto its infantry. Meanwhile the Macedonian centre was advancing against the elephants. These fought hard against the Macedonian phalanx, but tormented by the shooting of the light infantry, were turned back against their own foot. The Indian infantry, surrounded by the Macedonians and trampled by their own elephants and cavalry, dissolved into a mob, and offered little further resistance.

Porus was forced to surrender when his elephant collapsed from its wounds, but Alexander kept him on as a vassal and gave him extra territory.

Zama 202BC

The battle of Zama was the final battle of the second Punic war. The two great powers of the western Mediterranean, Rome and Carthage, had been fighting for 17 years with Rome gaining the upper hand. The Carthaginian general 'Hannibal' had crossed the Alps and invaded Italy, but despite a number of victories, had been unable to break Roman power and had been pushed back to the toe of Italy. Meanwhile, the Romans, under Scipio, had driven the Carthaginians out of Spain and invaded Africa. Here they had defeated two Carthaginian armies and forced him to agree peace terms. However, the Carthaginians recalled Hannibal from Italy and decided to renew the war in the hope of obtaining better terms.

The final, decisive, battle was fought at Zama, about 75 miles south west of Carthage. Scipio had two legions, plus a number of Italian volunteers and had recently been reinforced by the Numidian king Masinissa with 4000 cavalry and 6000 foot. Hannibal opposed him with a hastily raised force of mercenaries, Carthaginian levies, some of his veterans from Italy, and 80 elephants. He was superior to Scipio in numbers of infantry, but rather weak in cavalry.

Hannibal drew up his army in three lines, mercenaries in front, then the Carthaginians and the veterans at the back. He opened the battle with an elephant charge, but they were diverted through lanes left in the Roman line and killed by light infantry in the rear, whilst others retreated back to the Carthaginian lines. The Roman cavalry took advantage of the confusion that they caused and charged the Carthaginian cavalry, but Hannibal had given them orders to retreat before the Romans, hoping to keep them out of the battle. The main battle lines then advanced and after a stiff fight, Hannibal's mercenaries were defeated. Scipio then ordered forward his second line and this defeated the Carthaginian levies. Then followed an interval, whilst both sides reorganised their lines and cleared away the dead and wounded between the armies. Finally, Hannibal advanced to engage the tired Romans with his veterans. The two forces were evenly matched, but the battle was decided when the Roman cavalry returned and charged into the undefended rear of the Carthaginian army.

After this Carthage was again forced to make peace. The terms being that Carthage surrender all its ships, pay war reparations and not make war without Roman permission. Carthage was finally destroyed by the Romans in 146BC, after they intervened in a dispute between Carthage and Numidia.

Cynocephalae 197BC

During the second Punic war, Philip V of Macedon had been an ally of Carthage and had fought against Rome for a time. After the defeat of Carthage, the Romans, prompted by pleas of help from several Greek states, again went to war with Philip.

The Romans sent an army of two legions and 15 elephants to campaign against Madedon, these being supported by forces from their Greek allies, most notably the Aetolians from central Greece. Against this force, Philip mustered a phalanx of 16000 men, together with 2000 cavalry and various auxiliaries.

By the fourth year of the war, the Romans had ejected the Macedonian garrisons from southern Greece and were advancing into Thessaly, The two armies met in the region of Pherae, but the cultivated area round the town was unsuitable for a battle, so both armies marched away parallel to each other, but separated by a ridge of high ground. On the third day the Macedonians crested a range of hills known as Cynocephalae and caught sight of the Romans.

The battle began as a skirmish, with first one side and then the other, feeding in cavalry and auxiliary troops and pushing the other back. Finally, all the Macedonian auxiliaries had been committed, and the Romans were pushed back to their camp. Thereupon the Roman commander 'Flaminius' led out his legions, and threw back the Macedonians, forcing Philip to commit his phalanx which was only just arriving. He led out the right wing and charging downhill pushed back the Romans. However, his left wing was only just coming up and was still in column of march. Seeing this, Flaminius immediately attacked it, heading his assault with his elephants. The Macedonians immediately broke away under their impact, allowing an unknown Roman tribune, acting on his own initiative, to detach a force of 2,500 men and attack the right wing of the Macedonian phalanx in the rear. This movement was decisive and Macedonian resistance crumbled.

Macedonian casualties were 8,000 dead and 5,000 taken prisoner. Roman losses were only 700.

Pharsalus 48BC

In 49BC Julius Caesar was coming to the end of his period of office as Roman governor in Gaul. Rather than step down, he elected to attempt to make himself dictator of Rome by force of arms. The worried senate appointed veteran general 'Pompey' to oppose him. Caesar opened the campaign by crossing the Rubican river into Italy and quickly occupied the whole country. However, he was unable to prevent Pompey from evacuating his forces to Greece and could not follow as he had no fleet. While waiting for one to be built, he defeated the Pompeian forces in Spain and then crossed the Adriatic to confront Pompey the following year.

After a clash at Dyrrachium on the west coast of Greece, the two armies marched into Thessaly (north eastern Greece) and encamped a few miles apart near Pharsalus. Pompey had the larger force, but Caesar's were of much better quality being veterans of his conquest of Gaul, However, as Caesar had transported his army by sea, he had only been able to bring a limited cavalry with him, whereas Pompey had some 7,000. For several days Pompey offered battle, deploying his forces on the hills in front of his camp, but Caesar refused to fight under these conditions and was preparing to march away when Pompey came down and offered battle on level ground.

Pompey deployed with his right flank resting on a river and concentrated his cavalry for an attack on the left. Caesar, knowing that his own cavalry were hopelessly outnumbered, countered Pompey's cavalry by concealing a force of legionaries in his rear. As Pompey's horsemen swept round his exposed flank, they charged out and routed them. Meanwhile, the main battle lines had engaged, but Pompey's legions gave way when attacked in the flank by Caesar's victorious reserve infantry,

However, Pompey was able to draw off most of his forces and retreated to his camp, but Caesar followed up vigorously forcing his opponents to retreat from their camp and onto the hill above it, where Caesar attempted to surround them. Since the hill had no water supply, Pompey was forced to move off again, but Caesar again forced marched to get between the Pompeians and the only available water supply.

Seeing that the situation was hopeless, Pompey's army surrendered the next day. Pompey himself took a ship to Egypt, hoping to raise a new army there, but was assassinated as he stepped ashore.

Chalons 451 AD

This battle was fought during Attila the Hun's invasion of Gaul. Attila had assembled a coalition of almost all the barbarian nations outside of the Empire and was leading them against Rome. The Roman army at this time was in decline, as its best recruiting grounds had been lost to German invaders. The Roman commander 'Aetius' was therefore compelled to rely on the support of the barbarian nations inside the Empire.

The Hun army contained not only Huns, but many Germans, most notably the Gepids and Ostrogoths and smaller contingents from many other tribes. The Roman force contained Visigoths, Alans, Franks, Armorican Britons (from Brittany) and Laeti who were barbarians settled in Gaul, on condition that they serve in the Roman army.

The battle centred on a hill between the armies. This was seized by the Roman centre and the Huns tried to dislodge them, before being forced to withdraw by a Visigothic charge on the right. The Romans did not pursue.

The power of the Huns ended two years later when Attila died after overexerting himself with his new bride. The Germans then rose in revolt and decisively defeated the Huns.

2 WARFARE IN THE ANCIENT WORLD

Warfare in the ancient world was very different from today. States would often have only one field army, consisting of anything between a few hundred and a hundred thousand men. When on campaign the army would generally march as one body. The climax of a campaign was the pitched battle which would generally be decisive. These were generally fought by mutual consent, since it was difficult to force an army to fight if its general was unwilling. The armies would usually encamp a few miles apart with a wide expanse of clear ground between them. The armies would then be deployed into line of battle and advance to meet each other. The tactics employed in battle varied considerably with each nation having its own particular style. This would usually entail closing with the opposition and defeating them in hand to hand combat. However, this was often preceded by softening them up with shooting. Military organisation varied from being fairly rudimentary to some states having highly sophisticated standing armies that could supplement them with well-trained militia when needed. Such organisations dated from the earliest times in Egypt and Sumer.

Infantry

Since horses were expensive the majority of most armies would fight on foot, although most armies would include some cavalry and some Asiatic armies would consist entirely of horsemen. There were two basic types of infantry, heavy infantry who formed up in close formation and light infantry who were skirmishers. Heavy infantry were mainly intended to close with enemy and defeat them in hand to hand combat. However, many armies, particularly near eastern and Egyptian armies, had close formation archers who could produce a high volume of fire. Mixed units of spearmen and archers were also used.

For hand-to-hand fighting, troops would usually be drawn up in many ranks, eight ranks being a common formation. Although only the first rank or two could actually fight, those at the rear could replace fallen front line comrades, provide morale support and prevent those in front of them running away. Deep formations were also important to prevent infantry from being ridden down by cavalry. Although closely supported by his fellows, each man would be fighting an individual duel against the enemy opposite him in the line. It was important to keep the ranks closed up to prevent anyone from having to fight more than one enemy.

Barbarian tribes would usually be fairly relaxed about keeping formation, allowing them to move easily through difficult terrain, but also meaning that those at the front might not be as closely supported as they might like. Such troops were at their most formidable when carried away by the enthusiasm of their first charge, but would lose heart if this was not successful. Troops from more civilised nations would be drilled to keep formation, but most would still be fighting as individuals with sword or spear. An important exception to this style of fighting was the Greek formation known as the phalanx, which placed more emphasis on keeping a rigid formation and mutual support and was developed from about 700 BC by the Greek city states. Each soldier carried a 9' long spear and a large round shield known as a "hoplon" and was known as a "hoplite". They would stand very close together so that each man's right side was protected by the overhang of his neighbour's shield. The shields could be used to push back the enemy and extra impetus would be supplied by those in the rear ranks pushing on the backs of those in front. Thus phalanx battles were essentially shoving matches.

The word phalanx was also applied to a formation invented by the Macedonians. Soldiers in a Macedonian phalanx were called "phalangites" and were armed with a small shield and a long pike grasped in both hands. The first five ranks would hold their pikes level so that each enemy soldier would be faced by five spear points. Sixteen ranks deep was the standard formation for Macedonians and eight for Greeks, but Greek phalanxes up to 50 deep were used on occasions.

The Macedonian phalanx was felt to be irresistible in a straight fight, but was usually defeated by the Roman legionaries. The reason for this lay in the phalanx's dependence of keeping a rigid formation. If there was any break in the wall of spearpoints, Roman soldiers could penetrate the formation and the pikemen would be unable to defend themselves at close quarters. Uneven ground, being attacked in the flank or rear, or stepping over the bodies of the dead and wounded could cause the necessary disruption to the phalanx's order.

The Romans had the most developed military system in the ancient world and its core was the legionary. Although his equipment changed over the course of the empire, his method of fighting remained the same. The legionary was primarily a swordsman fighting in close formation equipped with a large shield and body armour. He also carried two heavy javelins known as "pila" which were flung at the enemy just before contact. The Romans fought in shallower formations than the Greeks and usually formed their troops into three lines allowing the front line to be relieved when it grew tired. They were thus able to make more effective use of their manpower than the Greeks, who had no such system and seldom bothered with reserves.

During the republic the legionaries were Roman farmers conscripted for a period of service, whilst during the empire they were professional soldiers. However, during both periods they were subjected to a high degree of military discipline. On the march each legionary carried a bundle of stakes which were used to build a palisade round the fortified camp that was constructed at the end of every day's march. The death penalty was prescribed for sentries found sleeping whilst on duty.

The Empire supplemented its legions with auxiliary infantry. These were also close fighting troops but fought in looser formation than the legionaries and were used for flushing barbarian tribesmen out of forests and marshes. They were also sometimes used a front line to absorb the first charge and could win the battle without the legions becoming involved. Since they were not Roman citizens, after one such victory the general was able to boast that he had won the battle without a single drop of Roman blood being spilled. Most other armies used barbarian mercenaries to fulfill a similar role.

In addition to the heavy infantry most armies also had light infantry. These were skirmishers who would form up in a loose cloud and avoid hand to hand combat with heavier troops. They were usually armed with javelins, bows, or slings and wore no armour. Other equipment could range from no more than a loin cloth, to the large shield, helmet and sword carried by Roman light infantry. They would be used for scouting, occupying difficult terrain, harassing the enemy's heavy troops and driving off enemy skirmishers.

Cavalry

The earliest armies consisted entirely of infantry, but during the second millenium BC the horse began to be used for warfare. At first they were not ridden but used to draw chariots.

The earliest chariots were pulled by two horses and had a crew of two including the driver. They were used for scouting and skirmishing since they were ineffective against well formed infantry. The chariot was the preserve of the aristocracy and, as a status symbol, continued to be used even when its scouting and skirmishing functions had been taken over by true cavalry. Being relieved of these roles allowed the chariot to become heavier and carry more crew, thus becoming a shock weapon. Heavy chariots commonly had four crew and some Indian chariots had as many as six. However, even these gradually fell out of use except in military backwaters such as Britain and India.

True cavalry began to appear about 1000BC. At first they operated in pairs, one rider holding the other's horse while the second rider shot his bow. The techniques of shooting on horseback were soon learned and ancient horse archers could shoot on the move and even over their shoulder at enemies pursuing them.

Like infantry, cavalry were usually divided into two types, the heavy cavalry shock troops and light cavalry skirmishers. Heavy cavalry formed up knee to knee, but with enough space between them to allow them to move at a gallop and several ranks deep. They were used for attacking enemy cavalry, riding down enemy light troops and attacking infantry. Cavalry could be quite devastating against infantry if they could break into their formation, since the cavalryman was well placed to strike at his opponents' heads and could use his horse to knock them down. However, cavalry could not usually ride down well formed close order infantry unless they could catch them in the rear or flank. The outcome of frontal cavalry charges against infantry depended very much on how well the footmens' nerves held. If they wavered, the cavalry would break into their formation and they would be cut down. Well trained troops, however, would hold firm and the horsemen would be forced to retreat. Troops with long spears and pikes were especially effective at repelling cavalry.

Most cavalry carried short spears and javelins which could be thrown at the infantry as an alternative to charging them. If this opened a gap in their ranks, it could be exploited with a charge. Heavy cavalry were usually recruited from the upper classes and so helmets and body armour were common and horse armour was also used. The most extreme form of heavy cavalryman was the cataphract and used by Persian armies. There were armoured from head to foot and rode fully armoured horses in close formation. They were, however, unmanoeuvrable and still could not defeat determined infantry.

Light infantry were also used extensively both for scouting and on the battlefield. The bow and javelin were the weapons of the light cavalryman and whereas, the professional Greek and Roman light horseman would be well equipped, the Asiatic horse archer would carry only a dagger in addition to his bow and relied on the speed of his horse to keep him out of trouble. The Scythian tribes of the Russian steppes had armies consisting almost entirely of such lightly armoured horse archers, and in their native country, were almost impossible to catch and would gradually wear down their opponents. They were replaced in the fourth century AD by the Huns who were even more dangerous as they carried spears and shields as well as their bows, and after exhausting an opponent with their shooting, would close and fight hand to hand.

Elephants

The use of elephants in warfare was learned by the Macedonians from the Indians and their use spread to the Carthaginians. Since they had no access to Indian elephants, they used the smaller African forest elephant. Elephants were usually used to make an all out assault on the enemy's infantry as this tactic alone would guarantee a victory. An alternative used for elephants was to place them on the wings to keep off enemy cavalry since horses are particularly afraid of elephants. However, elephants could be a two edged weapon in battle as they could be frightened by the din of battle and by

wounds inflicted by enemy shooting and would then run amok, trampling friend and foe alike. Elephants were often escorted by light infantry who prevented the enemy from getting behind the elephants and hamstringing them.

Deployment

Once battle was joined it was difficult for a general to exercise close control over his troops. Lines could often be two or three miles long, and the dust thrown up by the troops, would make it difficult to discern what was happening, even if he could find a vantage point from which he could see the whole battle. Nevertheless, generals in the more advanced armies usually would try to maintain some control, but often a general would make his initial dispositions and then go and join the battle himself. This allowed him to inspire his troops by fighting with them and allowed him to be present in person at the decisive point, but left him unable to react to enemy actions. More than one general returned to the battlefield after a victorious charge only to find that the rest of his army had been defeated.

Since only a limited influence could be exerted once battle had been joined, the initial dispositions of the army were very important. Armies depending on infantry would always deploy them in the centre, with cavalry on the wings. These might be split evenly between the two and expected merely to defend the flanks of the infantry, or they might be massed on one flank so that they could drive off the enemy's cavalry and attack his infantry in the rear. Armies that were strong in cavalry could attack on both flanks. Sometimes a reserve of cavalry was kept, but this was usually only a small force.

Usually armies were drawn up in one line with no reserves, but the Romans usually had several lines and the practice was occasionally adopted by other armies. Sometimes two lines were used to prevent the front line being attacked in the rear by enemy cavalry while engaged to its front. Large armies might be forced to deploy in more than one line due to the limited size of the battlefield.

3. ARMY NOTES

This section contains notes on each of the armies in the army lists. They give a brief biography of each nation, a quick overview of its army, and explain any options in the army list. They also show which file the army list is in, its date and which other armies it historically fought against. However, it is often interesting to match armies against non-historical opponents and it should be noted that civil war was widespread in this period, so armies can also be matched against themselves.

New Kingdom Egyptians

Early list

Date 1500-1000BC

Enemies Hittites, Assyrians

The Egyptian civilisation is one of the world's oldest, dating from about 3000BC. Early Egyptian armies were composed entirely of foot soldiers, but around 1650BC the northern part of the country was overrun by the Hyksos tribes from Syria who introduced the use of the chariot. The Hyksos were eventually driven out and what is known as the "New Kingdom" era began. Realising the importance of controlling Syria and Palestine, Egypt set about conquering this region. Northward expansion finally being halted by the Hittites at the battle of Kadesh.

The army is primarily an infantry army, fielding large numbers of fair quality spearmen, backed by close formation archers. There is no proper cavalry, but their role is fulfilled by large numbers of skirmishing light chariots. Various infantry auxiliaries can also be hired.

Hittites

Early list

Date 1600-1200BC

Enemies New Kingdom Egyptians, Assyrians

The Hittites originated in central Anatolia (modern Turkey) around 1640BC. They were surrounded on all sides by many smaller hostile nations, but overcame many of these and eventually added northern Syria to their empire. This conquest was safeguarded by defeating the Egyptian Pharaoh 'Rameses II' at the battle of Kadesh. The empire eventually crumbled under the assault of various tribes known collectively as the "Sea People", although successor states continued to exist for several hundred years.

The main power of the Hittite army lies in its striking force of three-man heavy chariots. These are supported by troops levied from all parts of the empire, consisting mainly of infantry of various types. Light chariots are provided by various Syrian states.

Assyrian

Early list

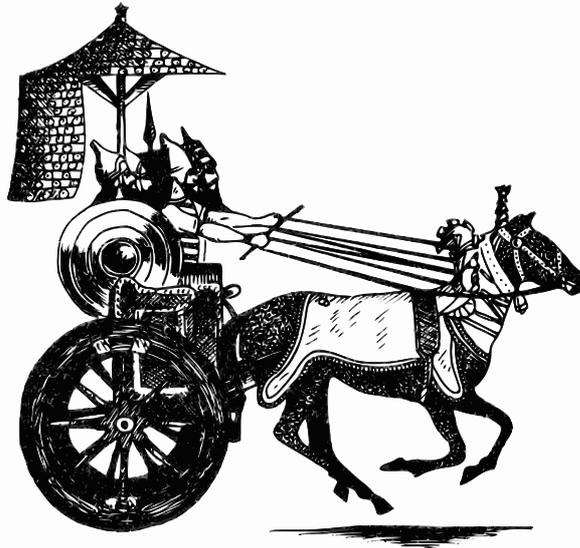
Date 1365-609BC

Enemies Hittites, Egyptians, Babylonians

Assyria is the northern part of modern Iraq and was an organised state from about 2000BC, flourishing for three centuries before becoming a vassal to the powerful state of Mitanni. What is known as the Middle Kingdom begins in 1365BC when Assyria broke away from the weakening Mitanni and went on to establish its ascendancy over most of Syria. However from the thirteenth century Assyria came under serious pressure from the nomadic Aramaeans who were infiltrating Syria and Mesopotamia and many of its conquests slipped away. It was not until the ninth century that the position was restored.

The kingdom was radically reorganised by king Tiglath-Pileser III (745-727BC), and these reforms ushered in the neo-Assyrian period during which an extensive empire was created. Starting from their base in Syria, a succession of warrior kings went on to conquer Babylon, Egypt and much of Iran. However, Egypt and Babylon proved to be troublesome conquests and frequently rebelled. Eventually Babylon asserted its independence, and in alliance with the Iranian Medes and the nomadic Scythians, who had moved south from Russia, overthrew the Assyrian empire, razing the capital Ninevah in 612BC.

The Assyrians were well organised militarily, using attacking forces of chariots and cavalry supported by close order infantry archery. During the Middle Kingdom troops were divided into "asharittu" who held land in return for military service and "hupshu" who were conscripts. During the period of empire there was a standing army and four grades of troops existed. "Qurubuti" were the king's household troops, "kisir sharruti" were the professional soldiers, "sab sharri" were reservists, and "dikut mati" were a general levy of the population only called out in emergencies.



Command Chariot of King Ashurbanipal of Assyria 668-627 BC.

Babylon

Early list

Date 1126-539BC

Enemies Assyrians, Early Persians

Babylon was the principal city of ancient Mesopotamia (modern Iraq) and ruled over the whole region. During the second millennium BC it had been under the control of the Iranian Kassites, but a native dynasty regained control in 1126BC. Their rule was not strong though, much of the countryside being overrun by Aramaean nomads and hostilities with Assyria were frequent. In 728BC Tiglath Pileser of Assyria made himself king of Babylon, but thereafter revolts were frequent. These were usually led by princes from the marshes of Chaldea at the head of the Persian Gulf and supported by the kings of Elam from further west. Eventually one Nabopolassar succeeded in making himself king and forming an alliance with the Medes from Iran and Scythians from Armenia, overthrew the Assyrians and annexed much of their empire. Attempts to conquer Egypt were defeated though. The Babylonian empire met its end in 539BC when it was conquered by the Persians after a period of internal unrest.

The army contained chariots, cavalry and infantry some of whom were modelled on Assyrian types. These were supported by Chaldean tribesmen who were predominantly infantry archers. Some of these were equipped with spears by the Babylonians to make them more effective at close fighting.



Persian Spearman.

Early Persian

Early list

Date 560-450BC

Enemies Spartans

Persia proper is the south western part of modern day Iran. In 560BC Cyrus the Great became king of Persia and founded the Persian empire. His first conquest was the Median empire which comprised northern Iran and Iraq and eastern Turkey. Following this he defeated the famous king Croesus of Lydia in a winter campaign and went on to conquer Babylon in 539BC. His son Cambyses added Egypt to the empire and was succeeded by Darius who added Thrace (Bulgaria).

The Persians are best known for their wars with the Greeks. First contact was made in 546BC when Cyrus took over the Greek cities on the eastern Aegean coast. These rebelled in 499BC and two mainland cities (Athens and Eretria) sent aid. After the revolt was put down Darius sent a small punitive expedition to Greece. This captured Eretria, but was defeated by the Athenians at the battle of Marathon. In 480BC his son Xerxes launched a full scale invasion of Greece, but this was defeated by a Greek coalition (headed by Athens and Sparta) at the naval battle of Salamis and the land battle of Plataea. This marked the end of Persian expansion.

The backbone of the Persian army are its Persian and Median spearmen. These units combine both spearmen and archers, allowing them to soften up an enemy with shooting and then defeat him in hand to hand combat. They can be spearheaded by the crack corps of Immortals, so called because their number was always kept at 10,000. Numbers can be made up with numerous levies from throughout the empire. The infantry are supported by Persian heavy cavalry and by Bactrian and Saka light cavalry.

The option to have Greek allies, reflects the battle of Plataea, where troops from the city of Thebes formed a major part of the Persian forces.



Hoplite.

Early Spartan

Early list

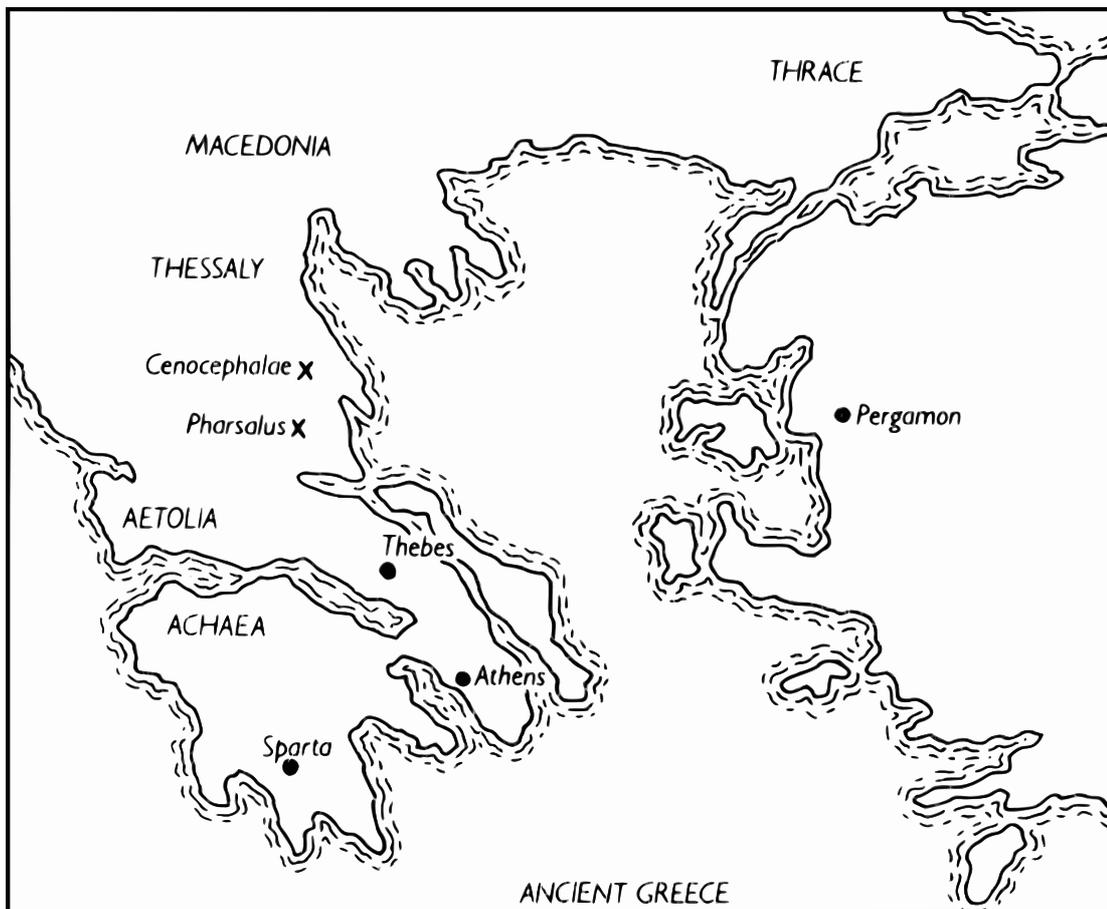
Date 500-450BC

Enemies Early Persian

Sparta was a city in the south of Greece famous for its social system and the resultant skill of its army. Society was divided into three groups, Spartan citizens (Spartiates) were reared from childhood as professional soldiers and as a result were the best soldiers in Greece. In time of war they were supported by the perioeci who lived in separate communities under Spartan control. Underneath these were a serf class, the helots. These outnumbered the Spartiates by seven to one, hence their obsessive militarism.

Spartan armies, like most Greek armies, were small but Sparta had a series of alliances with other Greek states enabling a fair sized force to be raised. Historically, this was only needed once, at the battle of Plataea in 479BC, where they were also joined by the Athenian army.

The Spartan army consists almost entirely of heavy infantry (hoplites) fighting in a close formation known as a phalanx.



Later Persians

Macedon list

Date 450-330 BC

Enemies Alexandrian Macedonians

After the expedition to Greece, the Persian army went into decline, since military activity was mainly confined to civil wars and putting down revolting Egyptians. Thus the empire was unable to defeat the attack of the Macedonians under Alexander the Great.

The spearmen and Immortals had disappeared (apart from one guard unit), and Greek mercenaries were hired when infantry were needed. An attempt was made to replace them by forming the corps of cardaces for the battle of Issus. These proved to be no match for the Macedonians though.

The Persians and other peoples of the empire still provided large numbers of cavalry, but these also proved inferior to the Macedonian and Greek horsemen and were unable to make any impression on the infantry. In an effort to break up the Greek phalanxes, the Persians sometimes used scythed

chariots. These were four horse chariots with blades attached to the wheel hubs and other blades and spears projecting from the chariot car. These were occasionally effective, but could be driven off by light troops, or allowed to pass through gaps in the infantry line.

The option for a royal army represents those occasions where the great king was present, and the rebel army represents the army of some rebelling satrap (viceroys) or member of the royal family. If neither option is chosen, the army is assumed to that of a border satrap.

Alexandrian Macedonians

Macedon list

Date 358-320 BC

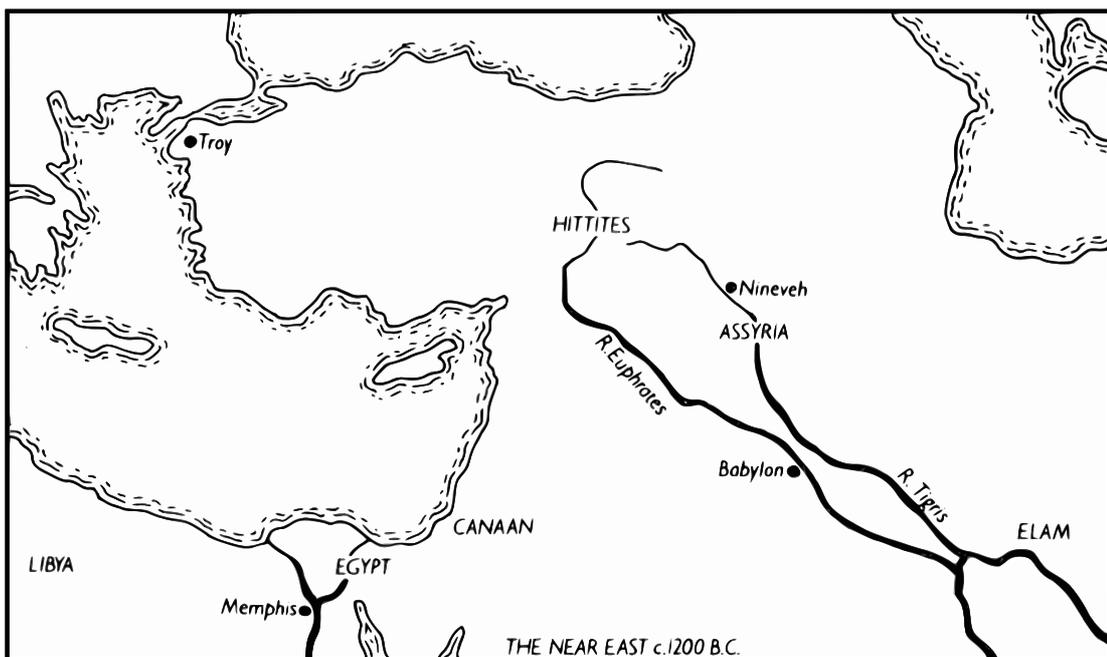
Enemies Later Persians, Indians

In 358BC Macedonia was a small semi-Greek kingdom in the north of Greece. Its king had just been killed in battle and half the country was overrun by Thracian and Illyrian barbarians. However, within thirty years Macedonia would be the major power in the Mediterranean world and control an empire even larger than that of the Persians. This remarkable rise began with the accession of Philip II. Philip reorganised the army, creating a well drilled force of heavy infantry and expanding the cavalry. With this new army he conquered the barbarian tribes south of the Danube. He also intervened in Greece and after defeating Athens and Thebes at the battle of Chaironeia, organised the Greek states in league against Persia. However, before the assault could begin Philip was assassinated.

He was succeeded by his more famous son Alexander, known as "the Great", then aged eighteen. Alexander spent the first two years of his reign consolidating his father's kingdom before launching his assault on Persia. In an astonishing series of campaigns lasting thirteen years, he completely conquered the Persian empire and a large part of India, before returning to Babylon to draw up plans for further conquests. However, in 323BC he caught a fever and died, aged just thirty three.

The Macedonian part of the army was split into three main parts. The heavy cavalry, known as companions, were Macedonian noblemen and were usually held back to make the decisive charge. The Hypaspists were an infantry guard unit, three thousand strong and fought on the right of the phalanx. Whether they were armed in the same way, or in a lighter fashion, is not clear. The third part was the phalanx. This was a force of foot soldiers armed with long pikes and fighting in a deep formation. These elements were supported by foreign auxiliaries, Thessalian cavalry from northern Greece, archers from Crete and Agrianian javelinmen from Thrace. Alexander was supported by troops from his Greek allies, but they served more as hostages and later on he used oriental troops.

The various options reflect different stages in the army's development. Under Philip, the phalanx appears to have fought in a shallower formation. Greek allies served in the Persian campaign and Iranian cavalry were available to the army in the East and in India. The "new model army", represents an idea of Alexander's which was left unimplemented due to his death. In this scheme, the rear ranks of the phalanx are filled with oriental archers and javelinmen. The use of the elephants that Alexander brought back from India is also allowed.



Indians

Macedon list

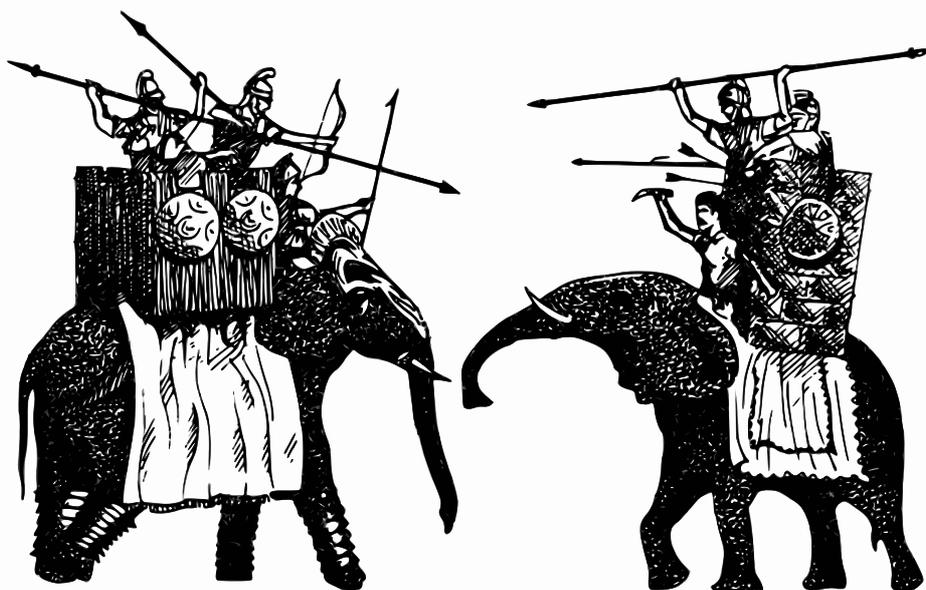
Date 400-100BC

Enemies Alexandrian Macedonian

At the time of Alexander, India was divided into a myriad of states, some kingdoms and some republics. However, after his death, the Mauryan empire was founded by Chandragupta and under his grandson Asoka, expanded to cover most of India.

Indian armies were divided into four arms, Highest in status were the elephants, which were possessed in large numbers by Indian princes. Secondly, came the chariots, which in this era had a crew of four to six men. Thirdly, were the cavalry, which although numerous, do not seem to have been particularly efficient. Finally, Indian armies included large numbers of infantry. These were all armed with a large two-handed sword and most carried powerful bows, with others having javelins and shields. Despite their large numbers, the infantry were mainly there as supports for the elephants and chariots, rather than as the mainstay of the army.

The option for a republican army, is to represent those states that could not afford to maintain an elephant corps.



Larger Indian Elephant in Seleucid service, and a Ptolemaic Elephant of the small North African species.

Antigonid Macedonians

Macedon list

Date 280-168BC

Enemies Republican Romans

After the death of Alexander the Great, his empire underwent a series of civil wars and eventually separated into three kingdoms under Alexander's former generals. Macedonia had a succession of rulers and in 280 was overrun by the Galatians (eastern Gauls). Antigonus Gonatus, head of one of the warring factions, took advantage of the confusion to make himself king. Although temporarily driven out a few years later, he returned and his dynasty remained kings of Macedonia until it was annexed by Rome.

The most notable of the succeeding kings was Philip V. He was an energetic monarch, campaigning widely in Greece and the Aegean. However, he made himself unpopular with his neighbours, including the emerging power of Rome. The Romans eventually defeated Philip at the battle of Cynoscephalae and relieved Macedonia of its foreign territories. Philip devoted the rest of his reign to building up resources for another confrontation with Rome. This came about in the reign of his son Perseus, who was defeated at the battle of Pydna, after which Macedonia became a Roman province.

In this period the Macedonian army relied mainly on its infantry phalanx formed by a levy of citizens. The elite units being the Hypaspists and Peltastoi who served full time. These were backed up by Macedonian cavalry and the usual mercenaries found in armies of this period.

After the conquests of Alexander, the ensuing civil wars and the ravages of the Galatians, Macedonian manpower was somewhat depleted, so Gonatus hired large numbers of Galatian mercenaries, since they were cheap, fierce and surprisingly reliable. Antigonus also had a few elephants left from Alexander's time.

The option to have Bastarnae allies, represents a scheme of king Perseus, to hire 20,000 of this Celtic people. However, negotiations fell through as he did not offer sufficient pay. The option to have Achaean allies, is to represent the battle of Sellasia, which was fought against the Spartans.

Seleucids

Macedon list

Date 300-100BC

Enemies Ptolemaics, Republican Romans, Parthians

The Seleucid empire was founded by Seleucus, one of Alexander the Great's generals. After Alexander's death, Seleucus became governor of Babylon. Driven out by Antigonos, he returned with a small force sent by Ptolemy of Egypt and went on to conquer the eastern part of Alexander's empire. He relinquished the Indian part of the empire to Chandragupta, in return got 500 elephants which he used to defeat Antigonos at the battle of Ipsus and so extended his rule over Syria and Anatolia.

Under his successors the eastern part of the empire detached itself, but was recovered by king Antiochus III the Great, who also seized Palestine from the Ptolemys of Egypt. However, he was defeated by the Romans at the battle of Magnesia. After this the empire went into decline, undergoing a series of civil wars and gradually losing its eastern territories to the Parthians.

The Seleucid army was composed mainly of Greek settlers, who were given land in return for military service and who served as both infantry and cavalry. There were also two guard cavalry units, the Companions and Agema, both 1,000 strong, together with a 10,000 strong guard infantry corps known as Argyraspids (silver shields). The Seleucids also used elephants and scythed chariots as well as a variety of mercenaries and oriental levies.

After his reconquest of the East, Antiochus reorganised his settler cavalry as cataphracts. They wore very heavy armour and rode armoured horses in close formation. After the battle of Magnesia some of the Argyraspids were rearmed in Roman fashion and use was also made of militia infantry and cavalry.

Ptolemaic Egyptians

Macedon list

Date 300-100BC

Enemies Seleucids

Ptolemy was another of Alexander's generals who received the province of Egypt after his death. Right from the start he treated his province as a separate kingdom, hijacking Alexander's body to bury it in Alexandria and so provoking an invasion by the regent Perdicas. Ptolemy beat this off and went on to add Cyprus, Palestine and many islands and coastal bases to his empire.

The kingdom continued to thrive under his successor, but in subsequent years went into decline, losing its overseas territories and suffering a series of civil wars and revolts. It finally came to an end when the last member of the dynasty, Queen Cleopatra, got too heavily involved with the losing faction in a Roman civil war.

Like the Seleucid army, the Ptolemaic army was composed mainly of Greek military colonists, supported by mercenaries. However less emphasis was placed on cavalry. The guard cavalry were called Companions and the infantry Agema. Towards the end of the third century BC, the Ptolemaic military machine was rather rusty, so, under threat from the Seleucid king Antiochus 111, native Egyptians were recruited into the army for the first time. This expedient was at first successful, but led to a series of native revolts.



Gallic Standard Bearer.

Gauls

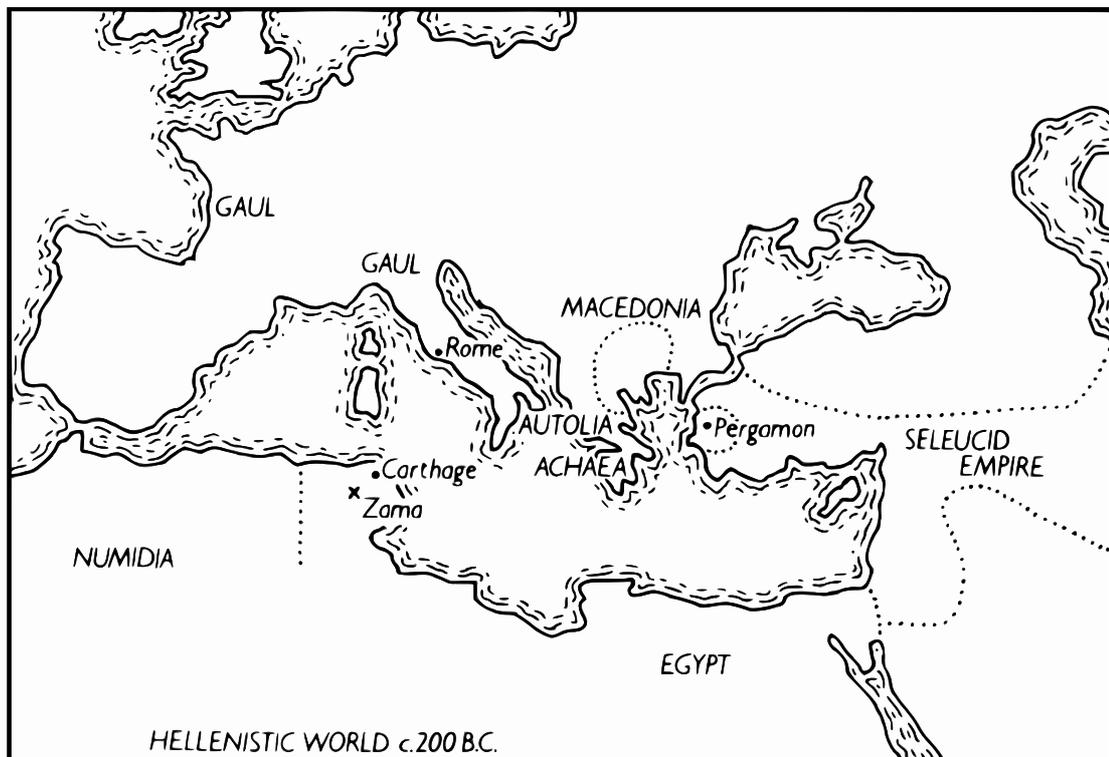
Republican list

Date 400BC-100AD

Enemies Republican Professional and Imperial Romans, Early Germans

At their peak the Gauls were a very widespread race. In the west they settled Britain and Ireland, parts of Spain, northern Italy as well as the territory known as Gaul, which is modern day France. They also spread across central Europe to the Hungarian plains. These eastern Gauls, known as Galatians, invaded Greece and three tribes crossed to Turkey and settled there. Early Gauls were very fierce and had a number of military successes, including the sacking of Rome. However, in later years they were displaced from central Europe by the Germans and their western territories were conquered by the Romans.

Gallic armies consisted mainly of infantry, but also had large numbers of horsemen. At first the chariot was widely used, but was later replaced by conventional cavalry. It continued however to be used in out of the way Britain, Early Gauls were very fierce and fought naked. This habit persisted amongst the Gaesatai, a mercenary tribe living in the Alps. Later on the Gauls acquired a reputation for lacking stamina and their swords were made of poor quality steel which tended to bend in the heat of battle and had to be straightened out by foot.



Carthaginians

Republican list

Date 814-146BC

Enemies Republican Romans

Carthage was a Phoenician city state situated on the north African coast about 15 miles from Tunis. Although primarily a trading city, it gradually extended its control over the neighbouring cities, until it controlled most of modern Tunisia as well as the islands of Corsica and Sardinia and the eastern part of Sicily. Attempts to complete its control over Sicily, led to two centuries of conflict with the Greeks in the west which continued until Carthage was finally expelled from the island by the Romans in the first Punic war.

After this setback Carthage expanded its empire in Spain and this led to the second Punic war. The Carthaginians took the initiative and Hannibal marched from Spain across the Alps to invade Italy. Despite three major victories, he was unable to prevent the Romans from conquering Spain and crossing to Africa, in 202BC he returned to Carthage for a final battle with the Romans in which he was defeated by Scipio at the battle of Zama. Carthage was finally destroyed by the Romans in 146BC when they intervened in a dispute between Carthage and the king of Numidia.

Carthaginian armies were composed mainly of mercenaries recruited from all over the western Mediterranean. The most numerous were the Libyan spearmen recruited from the Carthaginian's native subjects. Carthaginian citizens themselves did not often fight overseas, apart from the elite Sacred Band, but would turn out if attacked in Africa. Carthage fielded fairly small numbers of cavalry, but

usually enough to have superiority over other powers in the area. The Numidian light cavalry recruited from Algeria, were particularly highly regarded. During the third century Carthage acquired an elephant corps, employing small African forest elephants. These were used to destroy a Roman army in Africa during the first Punic war. The option for a later army reflects that after 275BC cavalry shields were introduced.

Republican Romans

Republic list

Date 280-1 ODBC

Enemies Gauls, Carthaginians, Antigonid Macedonians, Seleucids

By 280BC the Republic of Rome had extended its control over almost the whole of the boot of Italy and completed its conquest after a war with the Greek king Pyrrhus. Shortly afterwards Rome came into conflict with Carthage and in the three ensuing Punic wars, added most of the western Mediterranean lands to its empire. During the second Punic war Carthage had been briefly supported by king Philip V of Macedonia. After the Carthaginian defeat, Macedonia was also defeated. A clash over spheres of influence, with the Seleucid king Antiochus, followed and their victory at Magnesia in 190BC, left Rome the undisputed number one power in the Mediterranean world. However, at this stage, the area directly controlled by Rome was fairly small compared to what it would be later.

The Roman army was based on the legion, a formation of roughly 5,000 men. The legion was mainly composed of heavy infantry divided into three classes, but also included light infantry and cavalry. On campaign each legion was accompanied by one "ala" of Italian allies organised in the same way. The heavy infantry in the legion were divided in three classes, the "Hastati" who formed the first line, the "Principes" forming the second line and the "Triarii" who formed a final reserve. Roman armies usually consisted of two or four legions, with the Romans forming up in the centre and the allies on the wings. For some campaigns the strength of the legion was increased beyond the normal establishment and in overseas campaigns, Roman armies often fought with local allies.



Roman Legionary.

Professional Roman

Republic list

Date 100-30BC

Enemies Gauls, Germans, Parthians

In earlier times Roman armies had been formed from smallholders serving for a limited period. However, the influx of slaves from Rome's conquests was undermining the position of the small farmer in Italy and campaigns in distant parts meant that periods of service were often lengthy. This prompted the consul Marius to begin recruiting from the poorest classes of society, many of whom became professional soldiers. The drawback was that these new soldiers often owed more allegiance to their general than to the Roman state, which led to a series of civil wars and military dictatorships.

The only serious foreign challenge to Roman authority came from king Mithridates of Pontus who overran the Roman province of Asia, executed all the Italians that he found there and killed the governor by pouring molten gold down his throat. However, he was defeated in successive campaigns by three of Rome's best generals. Sulla, Lucullus and Pompey Another dangerous enemy in the east was Parthia. Although it was unable to make any inroads into Roman territory, two Roman armies sent to conquer it were defeated. In the west, the conquest of Spain was almost completed and Gaul was added to the empire by Julius Caesar.

The basic unit of the army was still the legion, but it had been somewhat reorganised and now contained only heavy infantry. These were organised into ten cohorts, each of 480 men. However, since they were permanently enrolled, actual strengths were generally somewhat lower, most legions being 3-4000 strong. Supporting troops were hired from other nations, particularly Gallic and Spanish cavalry.

Parthians

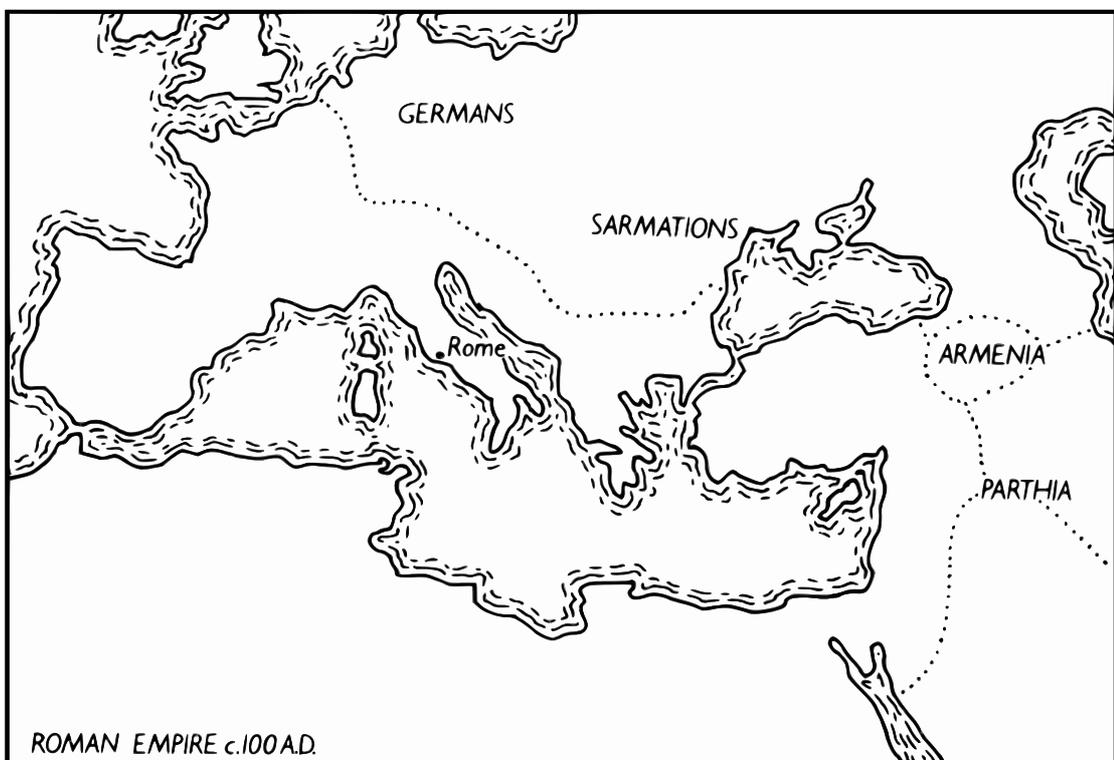
Republic list

Date 250BC-225AD

Enemies Professional and Imperial Romans, Seleucids, Sassanid Persians

The Parthians were a Scythian tribe coming from east of the Caspian Sea. With the decline of the Seleucid empire, they were able to expand to control all of Iran and Iraq. Eventually they came into conflict with Rome and in 53BC destroyed a Roman army at Carrhae. Later Roman armies fared rather better and the emperor Trajan sacked the Parthian capital of Ctesiphon. The Parthian empire came to an end when it was overthrown and replaced by the vassal king of Persia.

The Parthian army consisted almost entirely of two types of cavalry. The nobles provided the Cataphracts who were totally covered in armour and rode armoured horses. The rest of the Parthians were unarmoured and carried only a bow and dagger. Many Parthian armies contained just these two types, but infantry were sometimes provided by subject nations.



Early Germans

Republic list

Date 100BC-500AD

Enemies Professional, Imperial and Later Romans, Huns

The Germans first came to the notice of the Roman world in 105BC when two tribes, the "Teutones" and the "Cimbri" invaded Gaul and Italy, destroying a Roman army on the way. When the Roman frontier reached the Rhine the Germans became neighbours of the empire and conflict often occurred. The Romans proved quite capable of holding the frontier and could usually defeat the Germans in battle. Nevertheless, the Germans were regarded as the most dangerous of Rome's enemies and Roman attempts to conquer Germany met with little success.

Hemmed in by Rome in the west, many German tribes moved eastwards. The Goths created an empire in Russia and other tribes extended all along Rome's European frontier. The Germans were also forming into larger tribes and their attacks became more dangerous. Combined with the assault of Persia in the east, the empire was nearly brought down in the third century AD, but it proved to be another hundred years before Rome's frontiers were irrevocably breached. Thereafter various tribes fanned out and settled the whole of the western empire.

German armies consisted mainly of foot soldiers fighting in close formation, although they were also adept at forest warfare. Like other barbarian nations they were at their most dangerous during their

initial charge, but could also fight stubbornly when things were not going well. As well as the infantry, there were smaller numbers of highly regarded cavalry who were often supported by light infantry.

Imperial Romans

Empire list

Date 30BC-300AD

Enemies Gauls, Germans, Parthians, Palmyrans, Sassanid Persians

The friction of the later Roman republic lasted until 30BC when Octavian, Julius Caesar's nephew, proclaimed himself the emperor Augustus. With the idea of an emperor firmly established, the next two hundred years were relatively peaceful. Although punctuated by civil wars the imperial throne became vacant. Rome had no serious foreign enemies. The empire gradually absorbed the remaining lands behind its boundaries of the Rhine and Danube and its many small client states in the east, but few real additions were made to the empire. The most notable exceptions were the conquest of Britain under the emperor Claudius and of Dacia by Trajan.

In the third century AD things became more difficult. The Germans became more dangerous in the west and the east was attacked by Persia and then annexed by Palmyra. However, the borders were restored by a series of able emperors and the empire's defences were reorganised with special field armies to support the border legions.

Under Augustus and his successors, the legion remained much the same as under the republic, but was now augmented by professional forces of cavalry and auxiliary infantry. At first the legion continued to be the backbone of the army, but increasing reliance came to be placed on the supporting troops. The legion was also reorganised to include its own contingents of light infantry and cavalry and more cavalry regiments were raised, especially light cavalry. Sometimes barbarian troops were also hired, these being known as "symnachiarii".

Later Romans

Empire list

Date 300-475AD

Enemies Early Germans, Visigoths, Huns, Sassanid Persians

With the increased activity on the borders, the post of emperor became too much for one man, so Diocletian (284-305) split it into an east and a west half. Although this division eventually became established, it led to many civil wars during the fourth century. There was trouble too from outside the empire. Under pressure from the Huns, the Goths broke through the frontier and killed the emperor Valens at the battle of Adrianople. The eastern empire managed to defend itself, but the west crumbled and in 410 the Goths under Alaric, sacked Rome itself. Thereafter the western empire gradually shrunk as one province after another was occupied by invaders.

During the fourth century the Roman army was still highly efficient. The defences were organised in a two tier system, with forces stationed in forts all along the border, backed up by regional field armies. These contained the elite, "Palatina" units, but also backed up by legions taken from the border forces. The large scale employment of barbarian troops also became common during this period and their use led to a decline in the status of the regular army during the fifth century.



Late Roman Auxiliary Infantryman.

Sassanid Persians

Empire list

Date 225-637 AD

Enemies Imperial and Later Romans, Parthians, Palmyrans, Huns

The Sassanid dynasty of Persia started off as vassals of the Parthians, but under king Ardashir overthrew them and took over their empire. They claimed all the territories of the old Persian empire, making them very hostile to Rome. Many wars followed and in 256 the Persian king Shapur captured the emperor Valerian and used him as a mounting block. However, the Persians were not able to permanently conquer any Roman territory. It was not until the seventh century that they were to have any further success against the Romans, when they occupied Syria and Egypt for a time before being driven out by the emperor Heraclius. Weakened by this long war, they were not able to stand up to the Arabs who emerged from the desert at this time to begin spreading Islam.

The Persian army was mainly a cavalry force, the main types being the heavily armoured cataphracts and the more lightly armoured *clibanarii*, who also carried bows. These were often supported by lighter cavalry from the outskirts of the empire and sometimes by elephants. Use was also made of infantry which tended to be lightly armed skirmishers. However, large numbers of unenthusiastic levies could also be called up and although of dubious value in battle, were useful for siege work.



Dismounted Cataphract.

Palmyrans

Empire list

Date 260-272AD

Enemies Imperial Rome, Sassanid Persians

Palmyra was a trading city situated on the caravan routes in the Syrian Desert. It came to prominence after the capture of the Roman emperor Valerian, by the Persians, when Odenathus prince of Palmyra counter-attacked the Persians and drove them back to their capital. He was then appointed commander of Roman forces in the east. However, in 268 he was assassinated and his widow queen Zenobia became regent for their son. Taking advantage of Roman troubles, she extended her control over Egypt and declared herself independent of Rome. This prompted an attack by the emperor Aurelian, who defeated the Palmyrans in two battles, besieged Palmyra and captured Zenobia, thus bringing the period of Palmyran independence to an end.

The chief arm of the Palmyran army was their heavy cataphract cavalry. This was supported by some lighter cavalry and foot archers. The regular Palmyran forces were augmented by numerous irregulars both mounted and on foot. When fighting against the Persians, they also had the support of Roman legionaries.

Huns

Empire list

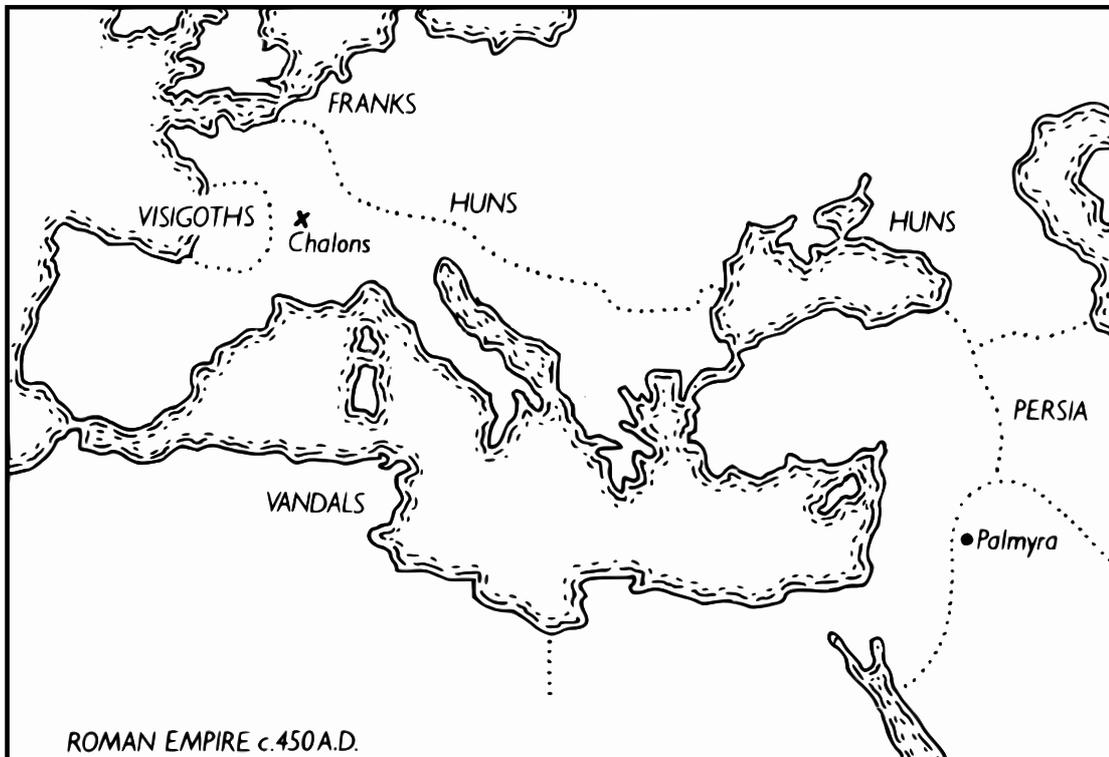
Date 300-500AD

Enemies Later Romans, Sassanid Persians, Germans, Visigoths

The Huns were a nomadic people from Asia who migrated west into Europe, overrunning the Gothic empire in Russia and driving them into the Roman empire. They reached their peak under Attila who subjugated all the peoples outside the empire and led them in an attack on Rome. Forced back from his invasion of Italy, the next year he invaded Gaul but was defeated at the battle of Chalons by a force under the Roman general Aetius. The end of the Hunnic empire came in 454 when their German

allies revolted and defeated them. The Huns then dispersed into several smaller groups. Another group known as white Huns were active further east at this time, attacking Persia and invading India.

The Huns almost all fought as horse archers, but unlike others of this type, they were very fierce and ready to fight at close quarters. Generally they would shoot at enemies to lure them into rash charges, whereupon they would be surrounded and destroyed. Hunnic armies could also include large numbers of German allies and subjects.



Visigoths

Empire list

Date 250-711 AD

Enemies Imperial and Later Romans, Huns

The Goths were a German people who migrated east and formed an empire in Russia. They were split into two groups the Ostrogoths (east Goths) and Visigoths (west Goths). To escape the Huns the Visigoths broke into the Roman empire during the fourth century and forced the Romans to find lands for them. At the beginning of the fifth century, they moved west, sacking Rome in 410 and eventually settling in southern Gaul. In 451 they joined with the Romans to defeat the Huns at Chalons. Subsequently they added Spain to their domain, but were driven out of Gaul by the Franks. They remained in Spain until their defeat by the Arabs in 711.

At first Visigothic armies were much like other German armies, mostly fighting on foot, with a few cavalry. However, when they settled in Gaul they started to become a warrior aristocracy and many more of them began to fight mounted. Their cavalry were divided into two types, heavy cavalry called bucellarii and light cavalry known as gardingi. Eventually all the Goths fought mounted and the infantry was composed entirely of slaves, each Goth having to contribute a certain number to the army. Roman units stationed in the conquered lands were also used in the army.