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1. Armenian Nationalism
Cicilia
Turkey
Cartographic Propaganda

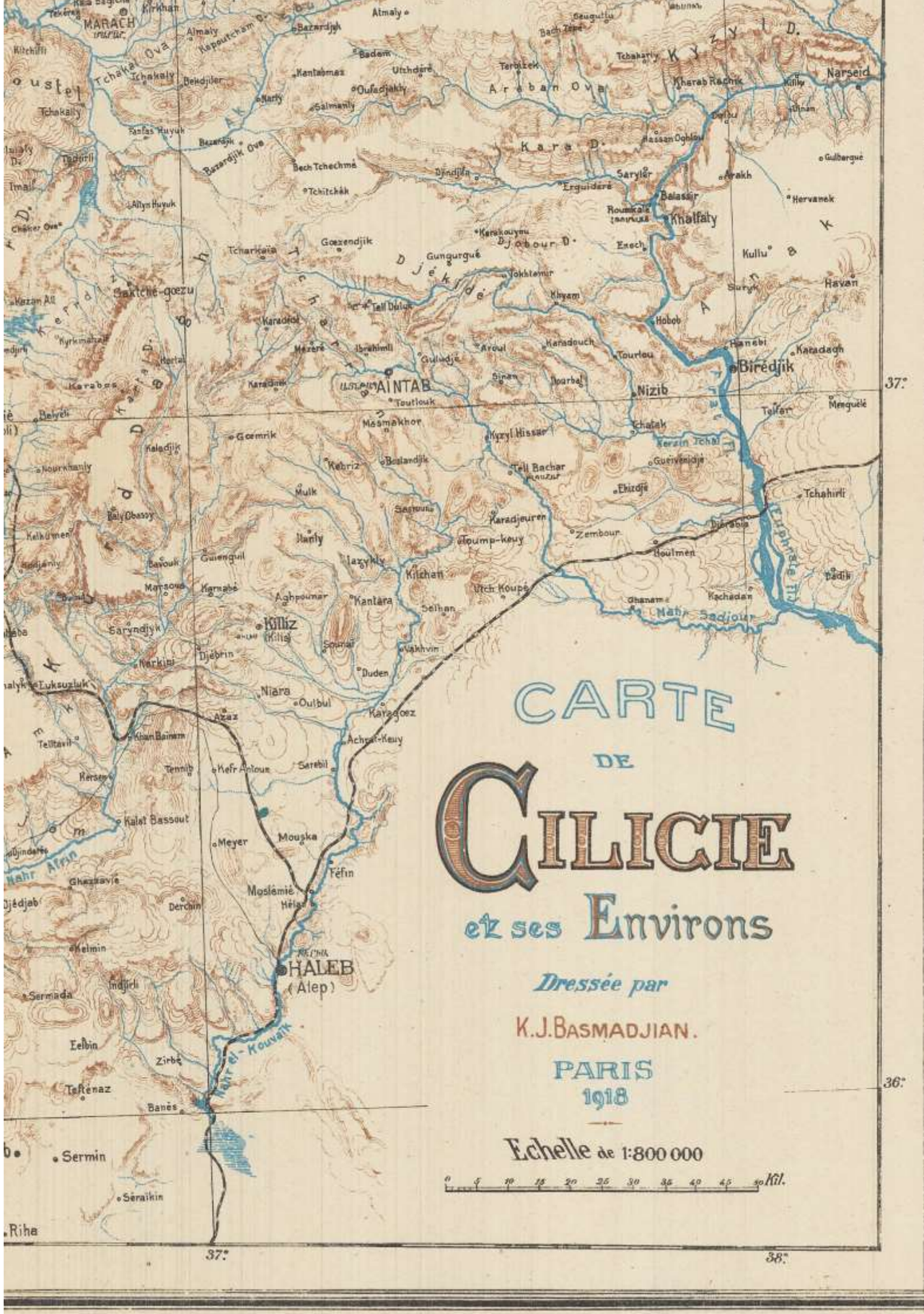
Karapet J. BASMADJIAN (1864 - 1942).

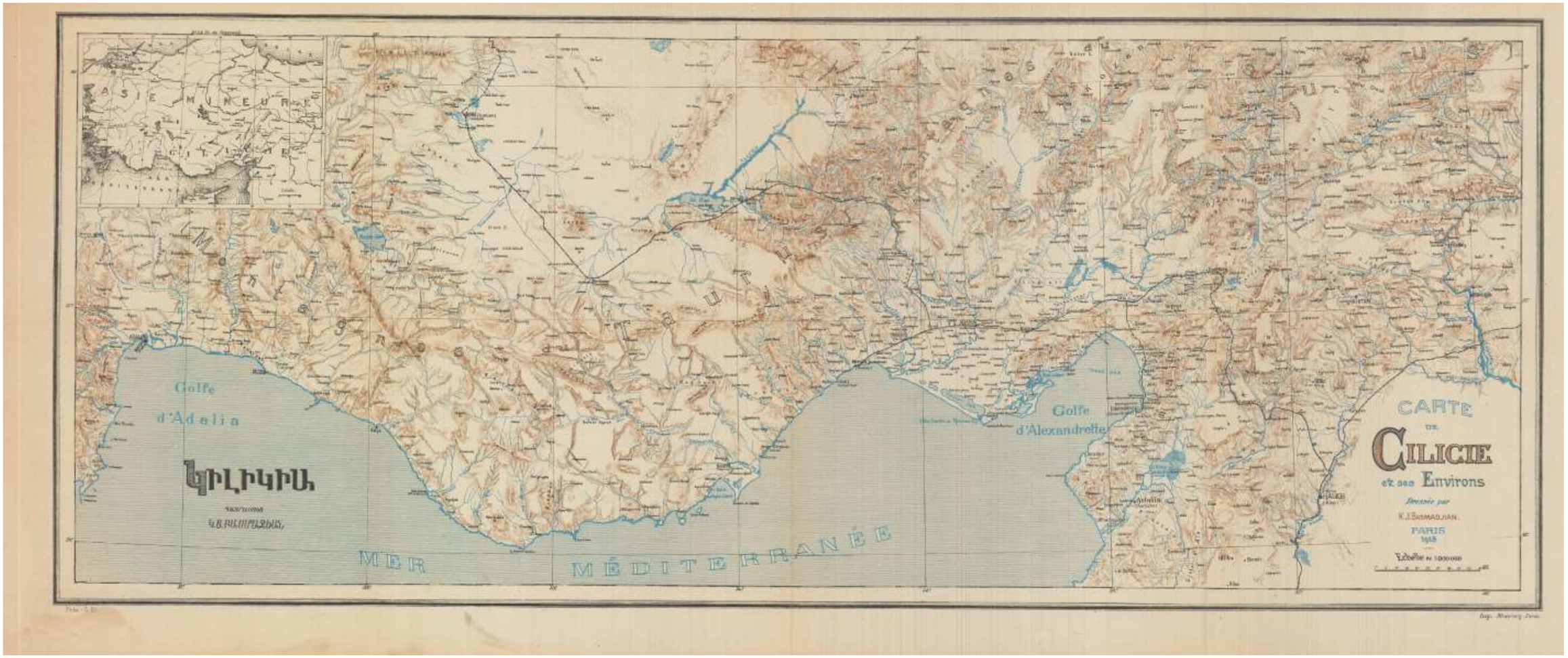
***Carte de Cilicie et ses Environs. Dressée par K. J. Basmadjian. Paris 1918.* / ԿԻԼԻԿԻԱ ՊԱՏՐԱՍՏԵՑ Կ. Յ. ԲԱՍՄԱՃՅԱՆ.**
Paris: Imprimerie Monrocq, 1918.

Colour lithograph (Very Good, overall clean and bright, just some very light staining in lower-left blank margins, some light wear along old folds, a couple of minor repairs from verso along a couple of folds), 40 x 100.5 cm (15.5.x 39.5 inches).

An extremely rare, large format, separately issued map of Cilicia (today the Adana region of southern Turkey), made by the Armenian nationalist intellectual Karapet J. Basmadjian just after the end of World War I, when its political fate was undetermined; the region was historically significant to the Armenian people having been in medieval times the home the last independent Armenian state; Basmadjian created the bilingual (French-Armenian) map to promote the then plausible notion that Cilicia would become an revived Armenian nation under French protection.

This extremely rare, large format, separately issued map depicts the historical region of Cilicia, which in late Ottoman times approximated the territory of the Adana Vilayet, and today roughly comprises




ASIE MINEURE
CILICIE
MONTS TAURUS
Golfe d'Adalia
Golfe d'Alexandrette
MER MÉDITERRANÉE
CARTE DE CILICIE et ses Environs
Dressée par K. J. Basmadjian
PARIS 1915

Turkish provinces of Adana, Mersin, Osamniye and Hatay. The map appeared in late 1918, in the immediate wake of World War I, when the political fate of Cilicia was an open question. Cilicia had special significance to the Armenian people, as during the medieval times, it was home to the last independent Armenian state. The map was made by the leading Armenian nationalist intellectual Karapet J. Basmadjian to advance the then credible possibility that Cilicia could become an Armenian state under French protection.

Predicated upon the most recent scientific surveys, the map accurately expresses the incredibly rugged topography of a great swathe of south-central Anatolia, extending from 'Konia' (Konya) and 'Adalia' (Anatalya), in the west, over to 'Haleb' (Aleppo, Syria) and Euphrates Valley in the east, with the map centred upon Cilicia's main city, Adana. While the map features toponymy mostly in French, the title is translated into Armenian, while the most important cities, often home to large Armenian populations, are likewise translated. The Taurus Mountains rise steeply to the north, while the Amanus chain separates Anatolia from Syria. Of note, the Baghdad Railway, the ambitious Ottoman-German project to connect Istanbul to the heart of Iraq, is shown to run across the Taurus and along the coastal plain past Adana, before rising up over the Amanus to Aleppo and beyond. By late 1918, the railway was nearly completed in the region, save for two small, but stubborn, gaps in the mountains. While the partially completed line dramatically improved the Ottoman-German logistical abilities in the Middle East, the fact the it was not finished in time hindered their martial ambitions.

The map is a clever piece of cartographic propaganda, in that it shows Cilicia to be a distinct entity with a very clear Armenian identity. It was a key part of Basmadjian's grander strategy to convince the Entente Powers in the wake of World War I to advance Armenians national claims, both in Eastern Anatolia (the traditional Armenian heartland) and Cilicia.

In good part due to the lobbing of Basmadjian and his associates, the Treaty of Sèvres (1920) formally designated Cilicia as a French mandate, separating it from the Turkish territories. Yet the future of Cilicia, which was occupied by an alliance of French military and Armenian militia forces, remained in flux. While France was naturally inclined to support the national claims of their fellow Christians, who had suffered so horrendously during the Armenian Genocide, cleaving Cilicia from the Turkish realm would prove more difficult than originally anticipated. As events turned out, Turkish nationalist forces under Mustafa Kemal (later 'Atatürk') would invade Cilicia, conquering the region in 1921. This caused France to abandon its support for the Armenian cause in Cilicia, and the region was integrated into the new Republic of Turkey, while most of what remained of its ancient Armenian communities were forced into exile.

The present map is the finest and important cartographic artefact of the brief, but very intense flowering of Armenian nationalism in Cilicia. As such, it is one of the more elaborate of the many invitations to the 'paths not taken' in the wake of the Great War.

A Note on Rarity

The present map is extremely rare. This is not surprising at it is essentially an unusually large broadside printed on fragile paper, that was sold for '5 Francs' (see lower left corner of the map) to raise funds in France for the Armenian national cause. It was an ephemeral piece intended for the moment, with a very low survival rate. Considering this, the present example is preserved in remarkably fine condition.

We can trace only 4 institutional examples, held by Bibliothèque nationale de France (2 examples); the Bibliothek der Freien Universität Berlin; and the University of California – Berkeley. Moreover, we are not aware of any other examples as having appeared on the market.

Karapet Basmadjian: Intellectual Advocate for an Independent Armenia

The author of the present map, Karapet J. Basmadjian (1864 – 1942), was a leading Armenian exile, intellectual and activist for the cause of his people. It should be noted that his biography is sometimes difficult to research in Western European languages, as his name had been transliterated from Armenian into Latin script in a bewildering variety of ways, such that he is often alternatively known as 'Garabed Basmadjian', 'K.Y. Basmadjian', 'K.Y. Bamachian', and even 'Bamachean'.

Basmadjian was long an outspoken advocate of Armenian independence and as a result found himself no longer welcome in either Ottoman or Russian controlled lands; he was based in Paris for most of his life.

He was a historian, archeologist and numismatist of estimable reputation, with most of his works focusing on research that revived and confirmed the significance of the historical Armenian kingdoms and their origins. These include *Inscriptions cunéiformes vanniques de Manazgert* (Venice, 1897); *Lewon V. verjin T'agawor Hayots'* (Paris, 1908), a work on King Leo V, the last ruler of the Cilician Kingdom; *Les Inscriptions arméniennes d'Ani, de Bagnaïr et de Marmachên* (Paris, 1931); and *Manuel de numismatique orientale de l'antiquité et du moyen age* (Paris, 1932-6), amongst others.

Even more prominent than his scholarly works, however, were his patriotic tracts and maps that justified the reestablishment of an independent Armenian state with ample territory, predicated upon its historical grandeur. His defining text in this regard was *Le Droit arménien depuis l'origine jusqu'à nos jours, mémoire présenté au congrès international d'histoire comparée* (Paris, 1900).

During World War I, as the notion of an independent Armenia emerged as a realistic possibility, Basmadjian was one of the protagonists of the Paris-based group of Armenian intellectuals lobbying the Western powers to back their cause. In addition to the present map, he produced two other cartographic works that supported historical Armenian claims, *Carte de l'Arménie ancienne* (Paris, 1916) and *Arménie, revendications arméniennes dressée par K. J. Basmadjian* **(**Paris, 1919), a map depicting the maximal territorial claims of the short-lived First Republic of Armenia (1918-20**).** Even long after the collapse of the First Republic, Basmadjian worked tirelessly to reassert Armenian self-determination.

The Armenian Revival in Cilicia and the Bigger Picture

The Armenian Civilization is one of the great cultures of the Near East, and it occupied a variety of different territories during its long history. At its height, the ancient Kingdom of Armenia Major, which existed from 321 to 428 AD, controlled a vast swath of territory from the Levant to the Caspian Sea. Following that time, the Armenian territory was invaded and dissected into different parts. The independent Bagratid Kingdom of Armenia existed from 884 to 1045 in what is now modern day Armenia and Eastern Anatolia.

From 1080 to 1375, the Armenian Principality (from 1198, raided to a 'Kingdom') of Cilicia, sometimes referred to as 'New Armenia', flourished in what is now the southeastern coastal region of Anatolia. The

country became immensely wealthy, as the nexus of the Silk Road and Mediterranean trade. However, the kingdom fell in 1375, causing most its leadership to go into the diaspora, while the remaining Armenians continued to live under varying degrees of repression.

From 1375 to 1918, the Armenian civilization was entirely occupied by foreign powers. In the generations up to World War I, the majority of the traditional Armenian territories were under Turkish domination, as 'Ottoman Armenia', while the northeastern areas were under the rule of Russia, so-called 'Russian Armenia'.

In the late 19th Century the Ottoman repression of the Armenians become more orchestrated, and in Cilicia Turkish-Armenian tensions erupted into the Adana Massacre (April 1909), whereby 20-30,000 Armenians were killed, and their quarter of the city torched. During this same period, Paris became the most important intellectual centre of the Armenian diaspora, home to key figures such as Karapet Basmadjian.

During World War I, Cilicia was considered to be of prime strategic importance as it hosted a key stretch of the partially completed Baghdad Railway, the Ottoman-German transport lifeline from Istanbul to the Middle East. Importantly, by October 1918, the Baghdad Railway was completed through all of Anatolia, save for two gaps; the German engineers could not complete the passages across the Taurus Mountains and the Amanus (Nur) Mountains, the latter being in Hatay. Moreover, the Adana area represented the only place where the Baghdad Railway ran near the coast, making it vulnerable to attack by Britain's Royal Navy (the line was only 13 miles for the sea at the nearest point!).

The British mounted espionage missions in the Adana area; British-controlled Cyprus proved an ideal base for monitoring the Ottoman coasts, and throughout the war the Royal Navy sent reconnaissance craft (and allegedly small landing parties of spies) to Cilicia. The British were especially interested in the progress and security of the Baghdad Railway, which despite the fact that it remained unfinished, allowed the Ottoman-German side to rush troops from Istanbul to the Mesopotamian Front in only 21 days (instead of an odyssey that formerly took three months!). The Royal Navy considered landing a large invasion force near Adana to sever the railway, or to mount sabotage missions against the engineering works building the line across the Taurus. While some 'low grade' interference may have occurred, the British, who feared spreading themselves too thin, never mounted such an operation in the end.

Meanwhile, the Sykes–Picot Agreement (January 3, 1916), a secret Anglo-French accord to divide up the Ottoman Empire in the event that Entente side won the war, called for Cilicia to be given to France as a zone of military occupation and political influence.

Returning to the fate of the Armenians, World War I and its immediate aftermath marked a period of unparalleled tragedy. As the ailing Ottoman Empire began to collapse under the weight of the conflict, the Turkish leadership targeted the Armenian people as a scapegoat for their own frustrations. Beginning in 1915, and lasting until 1923, the Turkish imperial and post-imperial regimes murdered over 1.5 Armenians in what has become known as the Armenian Genocide.

However, out of the tragedy and chaos, there appeared, albeit fleetingly, rays of hope that Armenia could regain its independence after almost 550 years. By late 1917, the Ottoman Empire was in a state of collapse, unable to control even its core territories in Anatolia. Meanwhile, the October Revolution in Russia caused the fall of the Czarist Regime, and as the Bolsheviks were preoccupied with gaining control over Russia, a power vacuum developed in the Armenian Highlands.

The Armenian independence movement on the ground was led by the Armenian Revolutionary Front (ARF or Dashnaktsutyun), which managed to gain control over most of the former Russian Armenia by the early months of 1918. The ARF's civilian political command, the Armenian Council, declared the creation of the (First) Republic of Armenia in Yerevan on May 28, 1918. For the very first time since 1375, Armenians governed their own sovereign state. While the new nation only controlled 70,000 square kilometres of territory, a small fraction of the historical Armenian lands, it was hoped that this would be the basis for further territorial gains in the period following World War I.

Turning to events in the south, in what became known as the Franco-Turkish War, or the Cilicia Campaign (December 1918 – October 1921), France formed an army of survivors of the Armenian Genocide into the French Armenian Legion, with the objective of conquering Cilicia and presumably making it into an Armenian client state of France. The Franco-Armenian force, with the backing of the Royal Navy, landed 15,000 men at Mersin on November 7, 1918, and quickly took Adana, but encountered stiff Turkish resistance in the mountains beyond. With great difficulty they managed to expand their zone of control as far as Urfa, deep into the interior to the east.

It was believed that the fate of Armenia's territorial claims would be decided by the Western powers at a treaty conference, likely to be convened at some point in 1920. The Armenian exile leaders, including Karapet Basmadjian, prepared numerous well-researched newspaper articles, essays and pamphlets, along with a handful of maps, that advanced the Armenian position, all geared towards convincing the Western powers to grant the most favourable possible terms to Armenia, with the present map focusing upon the their ambitions in Cilicia.

The Armenian public relations campaign proved to be a resounding success. At the long-awaited conference, which manifested itself as the Treaty of Sèvres (August 10, 1920), Armenia was awarded 174,000 square kilometres of territory, expanding it holdings westward to include Lake Van, Erzerum and a lengthy coastline along the Black Sea, including the key port of Trabzon. While falling far short of Armenia's maximal claims, it was more than enough territory to form the basis of viable nation. The support of U.S. President Woodrow Wilson caused the proposed treaty state to be referred to as 'Wilsonian Armenia'.

Meanwhile, France's control of Cilicia maintained the hope that the Armenian realm could one day extend down to the Mediterranean, creating a grand territory of vast resources and an ideal strategic location, so reviving Armenia's ancient glory.

Unfortunately for the Armenians, the dream was not to be, as the terms of the Treaty of Sèvres were never realized. The First Armenian Republic was plagued by internal problems and external enemies, the consequences of living in a 'rough neighborhood'. The Turks, led by Mustafa Kemal (later 'Atatürk'), managed to regroup from their earlier implosion, regaining control of eastern Anatolia, including the Armenian-designated lands extending from Lake Van up to Trabzon. Meanwhile, the Soviet Red Army successfully invaded the territory of the Republic. Thus, the first independent Armenian nation since 1375 lasted barely 2 years. The Soviets formally incorporated the northeastern Armenian lands into the Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic in 1922.

Returning to the fate of Cilicia, Atatürk's prime concern was driving Greece out of Western Anatolia, while France hoped to force him to divide his stretched armies between the west and the south. However, in 1919, the Greek side faltered, leaving the French-Armenian forces in Cilicia to face strong Turkish opposition.

At the brutal 22-day long Battle of Marash (January 21 – February 13, 1920), the Franco-Armenian side was throttled, forcing it into a gradual retreat towards the Adana region. In the fall of 1921, France resolved to abandon its Armenian allies and any hope of controlling Cilicia. It decided to make peace with Ataturk, seeing him as a bulwark against the Soviet Union, which was viewed as the ultimate threat to French (and all Western) interests in the Middle East, signing the Armistice of Mudanya (October 14, 1921) to this effect. The Adana region, and all of Cilicia was incorporated into the new Republic of Turkey in 1923.

The Armenian people would have to wait another 69 years, until 1991, to regain their own independent state (on roughly the same territory as held by the First Republic).

References: Bibliothèque nationale de France (2 examples), GE C-4679 and GED-7548; Bibliothek der Freien Universität Berlin: EW 290 / Rairissima 26; University of California – Berkeley: G7430 1918 .B3; OCLC: 918071875, 494839985; Adrien Jean Quentin BEUCHOT, Bibliographie de la France (Paris, 1920), p. 136; *Journal asiatique*, Band 194 (Paris, 1919), p. 535; Bedros A. TEKEYAN, *Bibliography of Armenia* (2006), p. 36; Bedros A. TEKEYAN, Bibliographie de la Cilicie Armenienne (2001), p. 114.

1.500 EUR



2. World War II – Wales

Manuscript ‘Masterplan’ For Food Management And Rationing

S. Owen REES.

“Ministry of Food – South Wales Division – Divisional Food Officer – Edmund Hill-Snook”.

Manuscript, (Wales:) August 31, 1943.

Manuscript map, pen and ink and coloured marker and paint on waxed cloth, with some contemporary pencil annotations (Very Good, some creasing and wear along old folds, some very light spots and toning, but overall clean with attractive colours, contemporary tack marks to edges and corners), 108 by 165 cm (42.5 x 65 inches).

An amazing survivor and an important artefact form Britain’s battle against hunger during the height of World II, being a colossal original manuscript ‘masterplan’ map of South Wales used by senior officials of Britain’s Ministry of Food to plan for the storage, protection and distribution of precious food supplies across the region.

Upon the outbreak of World War II, Great Britain faced a crisis almost as serious as being bombed or invaded by Nazi Germany. The country was nowhere near self-sufficient in terms of its food requirements; in the period immediately before the conflict the country imported 20 million long tons of food per annum, including 70% of its cheese, sugar, cereals and fats, and about 80% of its fruit.

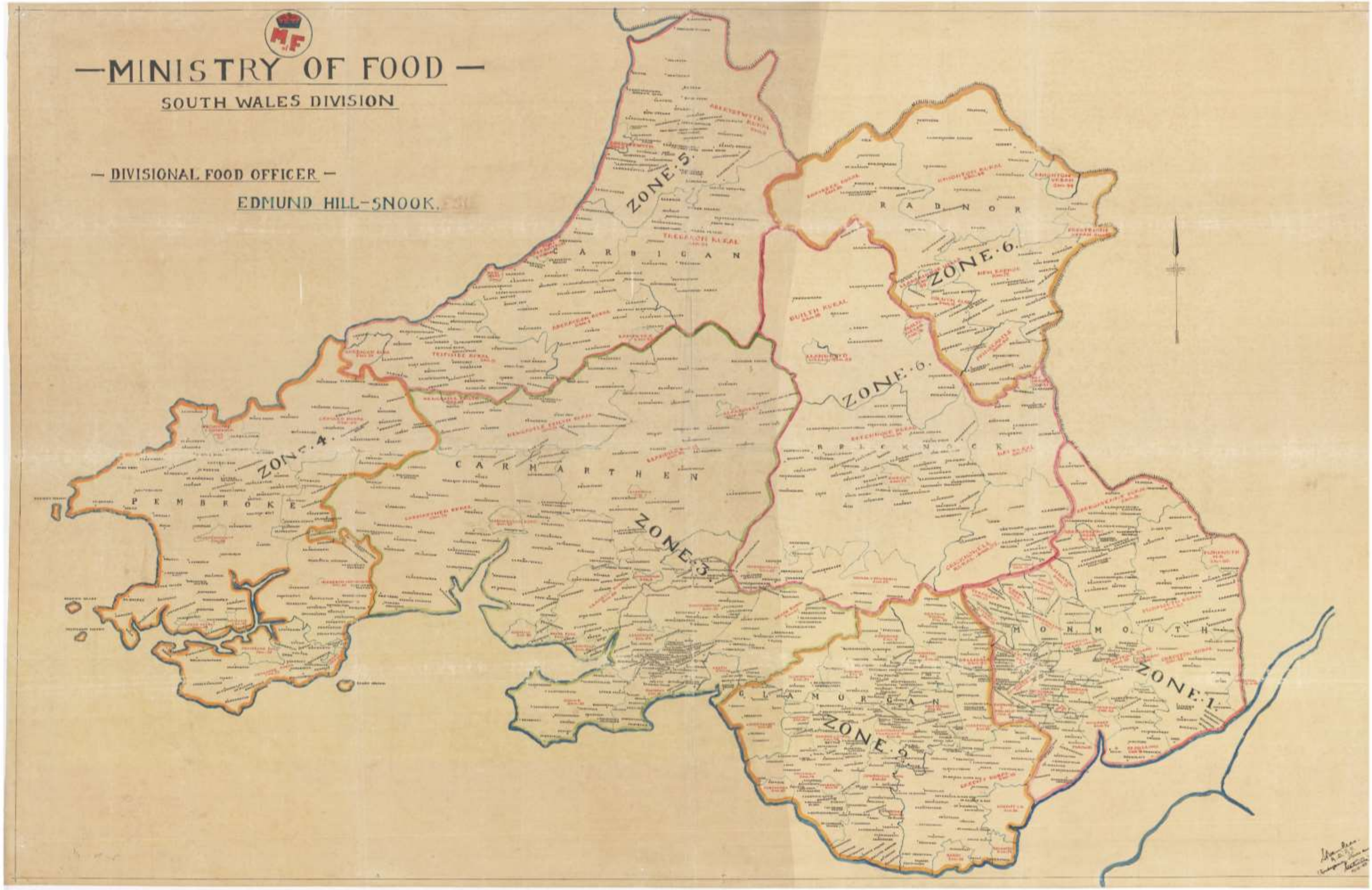


—MINISTRY OF FOOD—

SOUTH WALES DIVISION

— DIVISIONAL FOOD OFFICER —

EDMUND HILL-SNOOK.



Germany was determined to blockade Britain by way of 'Unrestricted Submarine Warfare', whereby its formidable U-boat fleet would attack all Allied military and civilian shipping, seeking to sever Britain from its overseas food supplies and starve the country into submission. As the U-boats sank ship after ship bound for Britain from places such as Canada, Whitehall grew gravely concerned that the country would soon not even have enough food to feed its soldiers, first responders, and munitions factory workers, let alone the 50 million strong civilian population. For a long time, the situation was acutely serious, and the prognosis was not good, to say the least.

Fortunately, the British government revived the Great War period's Ministry of Food Control (1916-21), rechristening it simply as the Ministry of Food. In April 1940, Frederick James Marquis, 1st Earl of Woolton (1883 – 1964), a businessman and non-politician, was appointed as minister. This proved to be a splendid choice, as Lord Woolton worked tirelessly with tremendous creativity to stretch Britain's meager food supplies. The Ministry was given an almost complete monopoly over over food production and distribution (including of the shipments that did manage to arrive from overseas). Overseeing a bureaucracy of over 50,000, the Ministry set up over 1,000 food distribution centres, and ensured that supplies were protected from enemy action (i.e. bombing) and spoilage, while seeing that the food was well distributed and always available in all parts of the country.

To control food supply, every Briton was issued with a monthly ration card, with points that that could be used towards the food of their choice (subject to availability). This way, the Ministry could ensure that the people had enough nutritious food to sustain themselves, while preventing inefficiency and hording. Particularly needy people were also provided with free meals; for instance, 3.5 million children were served meals everyday courtesy of the crown. While a vibrant black market naturally developed, this did not manage to significantly interfere with the legitimate food supply.

In 1942, the entry of the United States into war on the Allied side, as well as improved British anti-U-boat techniques, turned the sea war against Germany, permitting a much greater flow of food convoys to reach Britain. From June 1942, the Anglo-American Combined Food Board ensured that much greater quantities of food arrived in Britain from North America. That being said; however, supply in Britain remained tight (even if the situation was no longer acute) and the Ministry of Food still needed to tightly manage distribution and rationing.

The present map is gargantuan manuscript masterplan made for Edmund Hill-Snook (1888 - 1976), the Ministry of Food's Divisional Food Officer for South Wales. Depicting the entire southern half of the country, it was clearly designed to be hung up on the wall at the Divisional headquarters (note the task marks on the sides and corners) for Hill-Snook and his colleagues to consult during strategy sessions. The lower right corner is the map is signed and dated, "S. Owen Rees, A.D.F.O. (Emergency Stores and Statistics) 31-8-43.", revealing that the map was drafted by the Assistant Divisional Food Officer in the summer of 1943, when the food supply situation in Wales had improved somewhat, but was still very much a cause for concern.

The map shows South Wales divided into its seven traditional counties, each outlined in bright attractive colours (Wales's county configuration has since been changed), with the Ministry's Food Distribution Zones corresponding to the counties, being Monmouthshire (Zone 1); Glamorgan (Zone 2, including Cardiff); Carmarthenshire (Zone 3); Pembrokeshire (Zone 4); Cadiganshire (Zone 5); Radnorshire and Brecknockshire (Zone 6, embracing the tow counties).

Importantly, each of the zones is divided into numbered 'urban' and 'rural' areas coded with 'S.WA' (meaning South Wales), for example 'Cardiff Urban S.WA 22', or 'Neath Rural S.WA 67'. This is important distinction, as the rural areas were often net producers of food, home to farms and relatively small, low density populations, whereas, the urban areas always had massive food deficits, with relatively large, dense populations and despite perhaps being home to food processing facilities, they did not produce raw food stuffs. Indeed, cities such as Cardiff, Pembroke and Swansea, would have required continuous, large scale coordination on the part of Hill-Snook and his associates to ensure that the population was sustained, let alone satisfied. The numerous towns and villages that dot the countryside are actually marked to denote the locations of food storage and distribution centres.

The present map would likely have been consulted on multiple occasions on a daily basis for planning how to store (including protecting stock from German bombing raids) and distributing food supplies, as they arrived from farms, from other parts of Britain, or from overseas. Such a large, sharply designed map, expressly made for this sole purpose, would have been invaluable in making decisions that involved many tons of food and thousands of people, under stressful, high-stakes circumstances.

The present manuscript masterplan map is an exceedingly rare survivor and a seminal artefact from what was a major front for Britain during World War II.

References: N / A – Unrecorded original manuscript.

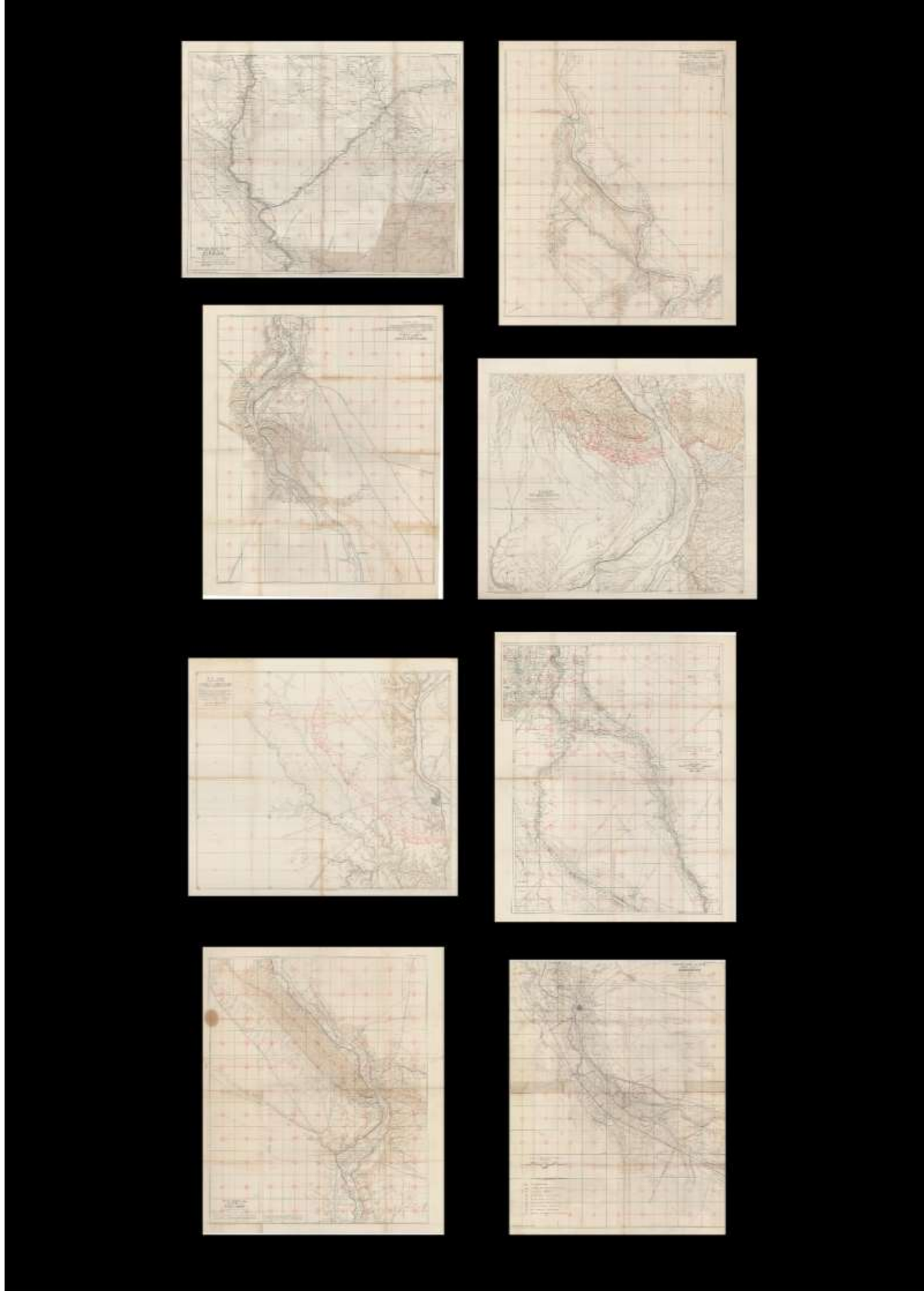
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3. Iraq- World War I Map Archive

Military Field Cartography

Printing In Baghdad

Oil Exploration / Archaeology



MAP COMPILATION SECTION G.H.Q., MESOPOTAMIAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCE (BRITISH-INDIAN ARMY - BAGHDAD).

Collection of 8 WWI Maps of Northern Iraq.

Baghdad: Map Compilation Section, G.H.Q., September 1917 – October 1918.

Collection of 8 maps heliozincographed in colour, mounted upon original linen **(*Please see a complete listing of the present archive's 8 maps at towards the end of this catalogue description*).**

An amazing archive of 8 maps of important locations in Northern Iraq made during the final year of World War I, published in Baghdad by the Map Compilation Section G.H.Q., the cartography division of the Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force (the British-Indian Army in Iraq), predicated upon the best sources including recent aerial and terrestrial reconnaissance, serving as vital aides for the British-Indian forces during their successful invasion of Northern Iraq, and subsequently for oil exploration and archaeological discovery – all of the maps are today exceedingly rare.

Iraq has forever been the geostrategic keystone of the Middle East, and for this reason conquering the country from the Ottoman Empire was one of Britain's top priorities during World War I. In what became known as the Mesopotamian Campaign, British forces mostly deployed from India (styled as the Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force, MEF), invaded Iraq. They had a relatively easy time seizing the southern parts of the country, but later ran into severe trouble in central Iraq, as the British high command was incredibly overconfident, and severely underestimated the abilities and zeal of the Ottoman forces. However, after the campaign see-sawed between the two sides, the British gained a momentous victory when they marched into Baghdad on March 11, 1917.

It was at this point that the present archive comes into play. While the MEF had conquered the majority of Iraq, the northern part of the country, approximating the territory of the Ottoman Vilayet of Mosul, remained firmly in the Sultan's hands. The British high command knew that they had to take Northern Iraq for two reasons. First, the British hold over Baghdad was not secure as long as the enemy controlled the higher lands up the Tigris River. Second, Northern Iraq was of key strategic and economic importance, as it was the nexus between the Levant, Anatolia, Mesopotamia and Persia, as well as being rich in petroleum resources; securing physical possession of the region would likely ensure that it would remain under British control following any postwar settlement.

However, prying Northern Iraq from the Ottomans would be a difficult task. The region was incredibly rugged, full of easily defensive positions, and featured many long stretches without adequate water supplies. The region was not mapped to a reliable and consistent degree, as while some specific areas had been scientifically charted to a high level in recent years, variously by British, German or Ottoman civilian and military surveyors, many places, especially afield from the major rivers, remained almost complete enigmas. Without a precise knowledge of the landscape, British forces could easily be trapped and ambushed; gaining a proper geographic intelligence was not merely a point of convenience, but rather a matter of life and death.

In the spring of 1917, at their General Headquarters in Baghdad, the British formed the 'Map Compilation Section G.H.Q.', staffed by military cartographers and draftsmen, many with prior experience in the Middle East. The Section was given access to an impressive archive of maps that included the best published German and Ottoman military maps, British maps of the Middle East published in both London and Calcutta (the Survey of India handled much of the British mapping in Iraq), as well as surveys made by the Turkish Petroleum Company, the Baghdad Railway and the canal/irrigation surveys made by Sir William Wilcox executed shortly before the war. In preparing maps of Northern Iraq, the Section had an awesome undertaking, as it was challenging to piece together an accurate general picture of a region from so many (sometimes conflicting) sources. In some cases, the Section benefitted from fresh surveys from aerial or territorial reconnaissance by British (which were very dangerous assignments for those in the field).

The Map Compilation Section succeed in creating a series of impressive maps useful to guide military movement through all of the seminal areas of Northern Iraq (as exemplified by the maps in the present archive). Although these maps were often prepared in some haste, responding to short orders from the front, and were not complete or correct in every sense, they are remarkable accomplishments considering the circumstances under which they were made. They label all major topographic features, transport corridors (noting their appropriateness for motored vehicles, such as LAMBs, or *L*ight *A*rmoured *M*otor *B*atteries), towns and villages, archaeological sites (including breaking discoveries), water holes, information on the locals, as well as the location of oil wells (thus areas of future economic value to the British Empire). The maps, heliozincographed from manuscripts at the Section's Baghdad workshop, were printed in black, often with elevation contours in beige and overlayed with a red grid reference and details (such as trenches). The maps, which followed a sequential numbering (with some maps seamlessly connecting to others to form the larger picture), are all marked with their precise day of issue, as templates were often updated as new intelligence arrived fast and furious into Baghdad.

The Section's maps of Northern Iraq were by far and away the most comprehensive and accurate maps of the region made to date and were recorded as having been vitally useful to British commanders during the war. They also served as the basis for the mapping of the region during postwar period, as the British Iraqi mandate regime employed them for oil exploration, infrastructure development and for suppressing civil unrest, while academics found them most useful for archaeological investigations (all of them maps are jam-packed with the locations of ruins of ancient cites and the remains of former canals).

All maps produced by the Map Compilation Section G.H.Q. are today extremely rare, as they were only issued in very small print runs for field use, and naturally have a very low survival rate. Indeed, many of the supposed numbers for the Section's series are not known to survive today, while only the British Library and the Bodleian Library (Oxford) hold any significant collections of the maps. For instance, of the present assemblage of 8 maps, 3 are known in only a single institutional example each, while we cannot trace even a single example for 5 of the maps.

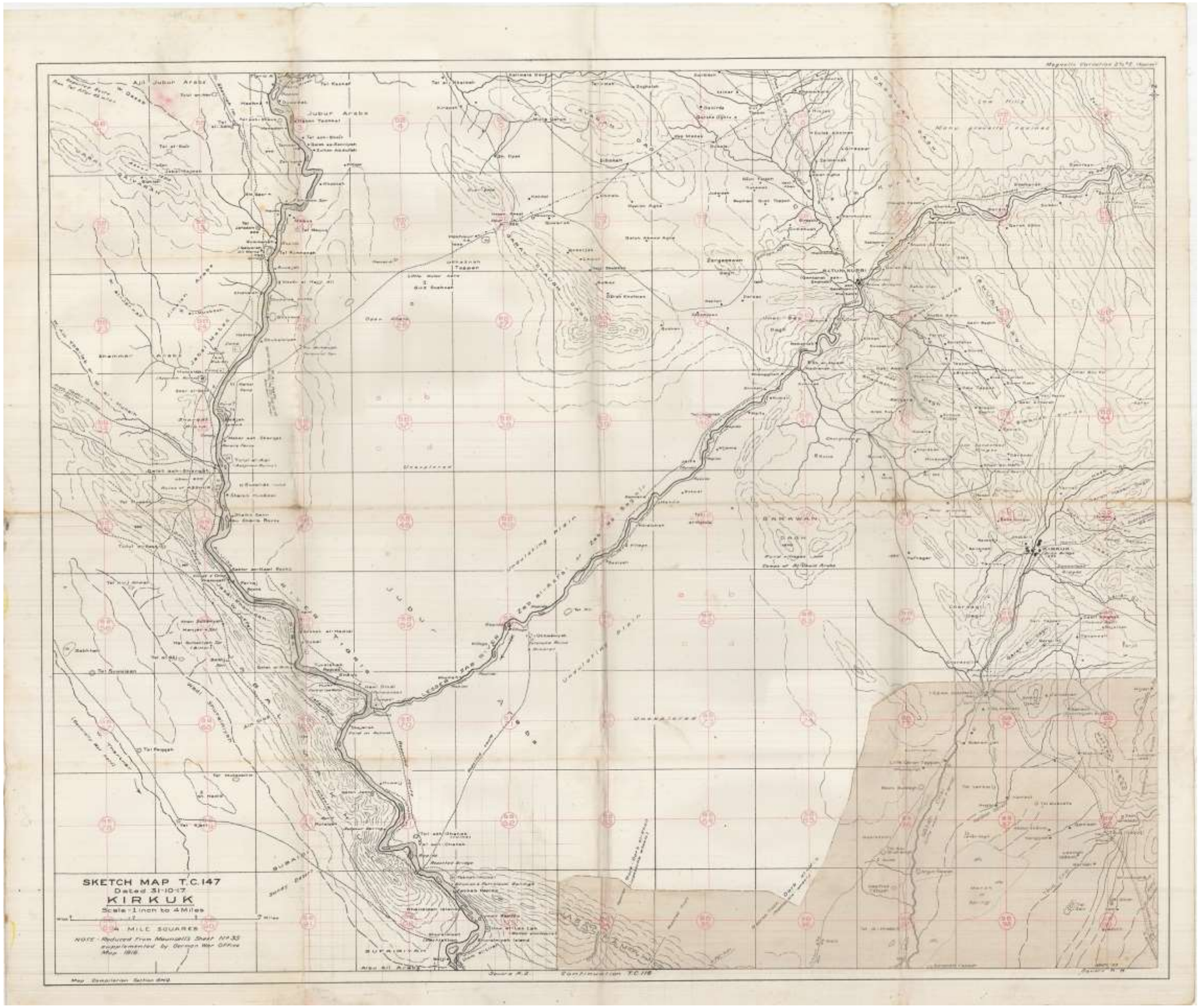
The Present Collection in Focus

***N.B.* A complete listing of the present archive's 8 maps can be found towards the end of this catalogue description.**

Present here is a collection, or archive, of 8 maps from the Map Compilation Section's series for Northern Iraq. All of the maps show signs of field use, with some featuring contemporary manuscript annotations and handstamps of the 'Army Signals' Corps. The maps concern various key events of the British conquest of Northern Iraq, from March 1917 to November 1918, which marked the final chapter of Mesopotamian Campaign.

The first two maps set the general scene, with Map #1, *Tikrit-Baqubah* and Map #2, *Kirkuk*, connecting to form an uninterrupted overview of the main battle theatre in Northern Iraq. With both maps done to a scale of 4 miles to an inch, they collectively cover the upper Tigris valley, from Baqubah, about 65 km north-northeast of Baghdad, all the north up to Al-Shirqat, about 110 km south of Mosul, in between which hosted much of the British-Ottoman conflict during the final year-and-a-half of the war, including the key military targets of Samarra, Tikrit, Kirkuk, Al-Fatah and Al-Shirqat.

The MEF's operations in Northern Iraq can be divided into three main phases. The first occurred in the spring of 1917, in the immediate wake of the British capture of Baghdad. In March-April 1917, the British deployed forces to capture Samarra, the main piece of the Samarrah Offensive (March 13 – April 23, 1917) (Refer to Map #3, *Samarrah*). Samarra, located about 130 km north-northwest of Baghdad, was critically the terminus of the partially completed Iraqi section of the Baghdad Railway (a depicted upon the map), the planned grand line that was to run from Istanbul to Baghdad. Elsewhere, the British


SKETCH MAP T.C.147
Dated 31-10-17
KIRKUK
Scale - 1 inch to 4 Miles
4 MILE SQUARES
NOTE - Reduced From Mesopotamia Sheet No 35 supplemented by German War Office May 1918.
Jubur Arabs
Ajil Jubur Arabs
Shammar Arabs
Zebaris
Bedouins
Dibdibah
Hamrin
Tuz
Kirkuk
Altun Kupri
Bai Hassan
Tepe
Tel Gomel
Tel Abtan
Tel Abiad
Tel Ajil
Tel Yagan
Tel Fegga
Tel Kaseer
Tel Kimaran
Tel Sarmisan
Tel Ajil
Tel Gomel
Tel Abtan
Tel Abiad

seized the important city of Kirkuk on May 7, located up the Lower Zab River, a tributary of the Tigris (Kirkuk was Iraq's most promising place for oil exploration, refer back to Map #2).

The second stage concerned securing the Tigris above Samarra, notable the MEF's operation to take the major Ottoman army base and army depots at Tikrit, historically the hometown of Salah al-Din, and later Saddam Hussein. The town fell only after the bloody Battle of Tikrit, on November 5, 1917 (Refer to Map #4, *Tikrit Position*).

For some months thereafter the British held defensive positions, for a variety of complicated factors. However, by the beginning of October 1918, it became clear that the British would soon gain ultimate victory over the Ottomans in World War I. While it was believed that the Mesopotamian heartlands up to just above Baghdad would safely remain under British control following the postwar settlement, the fate of Northern Iraq, with all its potential petroleum resources, remained very much up in the air. If the British did not act with alacrity, the region might fall under some kind of postwar Turkish rule or be placed under French control.

In the third stage, the British resolved to drive up the Tigris Valley all the way up to take Mosul, the possession of which would likely guarantee British control over all of Northern Iraq in years following the war. The British had to race against the clock, as any land that they did not hold by the time that the expected armistice was called might not be counted in their postwar gains.

MEF forces under General Alexander Cobbe moved to seize the critical Ottoman base at 'Fat-Hah' (Al-Fatah), which guarded a gorge along the Tigris. After three days of fighting, at the Battle of Fathah (October 23-26, 1918), the British took the village (Refer to Maps #5,6 and 7 - *Fat-Hah*…, of which Map #7, *Fat-Hah Position*, features an excellent record of the Ottoman trenches gained from aerial reconnaissance).

The British then move further up the Tigris to Al-Shirqat, which was located at the site of the ruins of the famous Assyrian city of Assur. The British managed to take the village at the Battle of Sharqat (October 23–30, 1918) (Refer to Map #8, *Qalāt-ash-Sharqāt*), which was accomplished on the last day of the war in the Middle East, when the British and Ottomans signed the Armistice of Mudros (October 30, 1918).

Al-Shirqat was the gateway to Mosul, and despite it being against what was agreed at Mudros, the MEF pushed on, securing Mosul on November 10, 1918. The British conquest of Northern Iraq was consequential, as in the postwar settlement the region was placed within the British sphere of control, as part of the puppet state of the Kingdom of Iraq. While the British regime would have considerable difficulty maintaining control of the country, in 1927 a colossal oil gusher was discovered at 'Baba Gurgur' near Kirkuk (labeled on Map #2), thus establishing Iraq as a major petroleum power, so redefining the political and economic destiny of the Middle East for generations.

The Maps Listed:

Map #1.

Tikrit-Baqubah / T.C. 116 / Dated 29-9-17 / Scale - 1 inch to 4 Miles.

[Baghdad:] Map Compilation Section G.H.Q., September 29, 1917.

Heliozincograph in colours, mounted upon original linen, with contemporary manuscript annotations in pencil, with 'Army Signals' handstamp to verso (Very Good, wear along old folds and some mild toning), 60.5 x 50.5 cm (24 x 20 inches).

Map #2.

Kirkuk / Sketch T.C. 147 / Dated 31-10-17 / Scale - 1 inch to 4 Miles.

[Baghdad:] Map Compilation Section G.H.Q., October 31, 1917.

Heliozincograph in colours, mounted upon original linen, contemporary pastedown correction patch to lower right corner (Very Good, some light staining and wear along old folds), 50.5 x 59.5 cm (20 x 23.5 inches).

Map #3.

Samarrah / Sketch Map T.C. 97(B) / Dated 14-10-17 / Scale 1 Inch to 1 Mile.

[Baghdad:] Map Compilation Section G.H.Q., October 14, 1917.

Heliozincograph in colours, mounted upon original linen, a few contemporary manuscript markings in pencil and indigo pen, with 'Army Signals' handstamp to verso (Good, some light staining and wear along old folds, contemporarily trimmed on top and both side margins but with no real loss to mapped area), 57 x 45.5 cm (22.5 x 18 inches).

Map #4.

Tikrit Position / T.C. 199 / Dated 23-3-18 / Scale 3 ins to 1 Mile.

[Baghdad:] Map Compilation Section G.H.Q., March 23, 1918.

Heliozincograph in colours, mounted upon original linen (Very Good, some light wear along old folds, some areas of mild toning), 51 x 57 cm (20 x 22.5 inches).

Map #5.

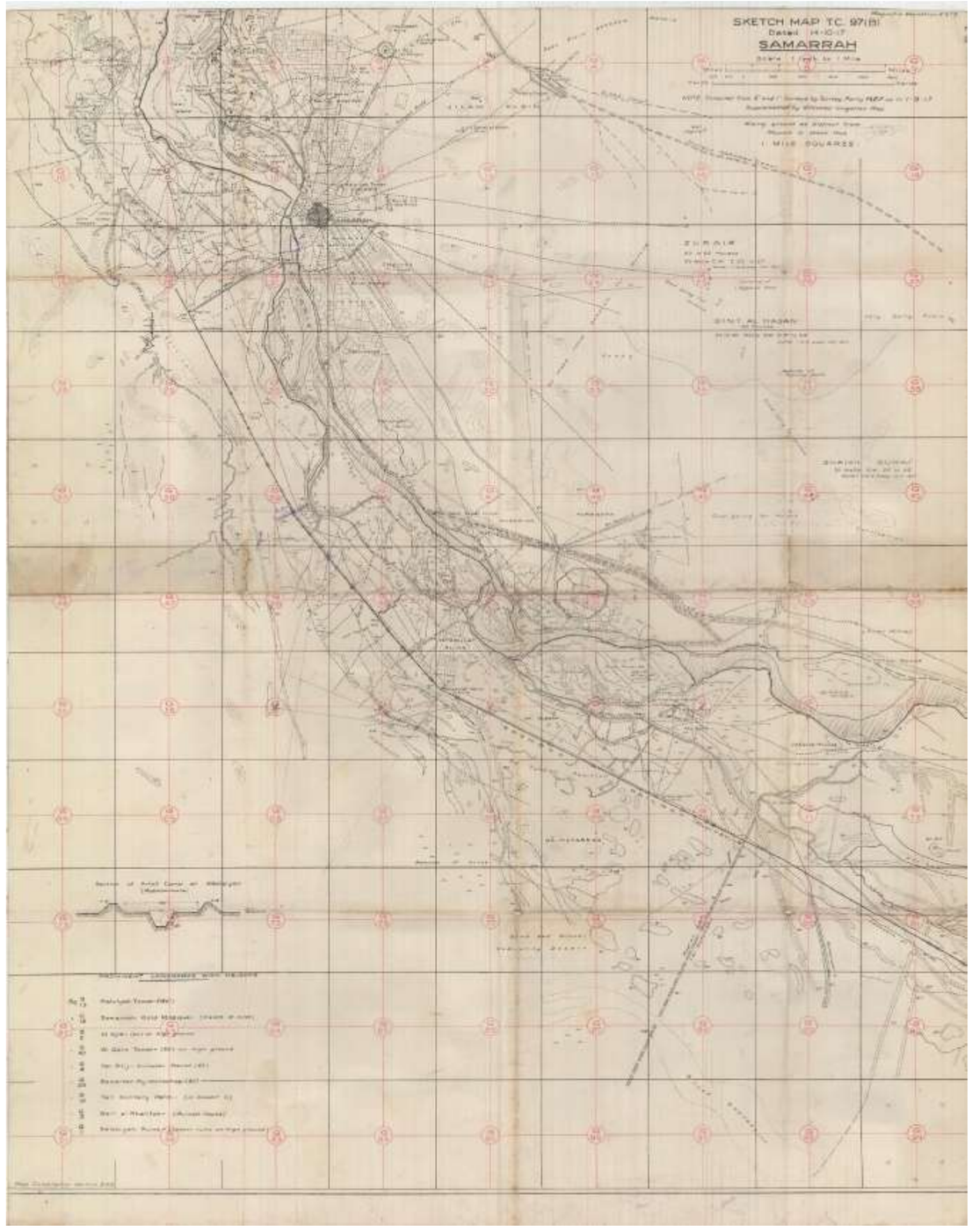
[Al Fatah] ***Fat-Hah / T.C. 227 / Dated 11-5-18 / Scale - 1 inch to 1 mile.***

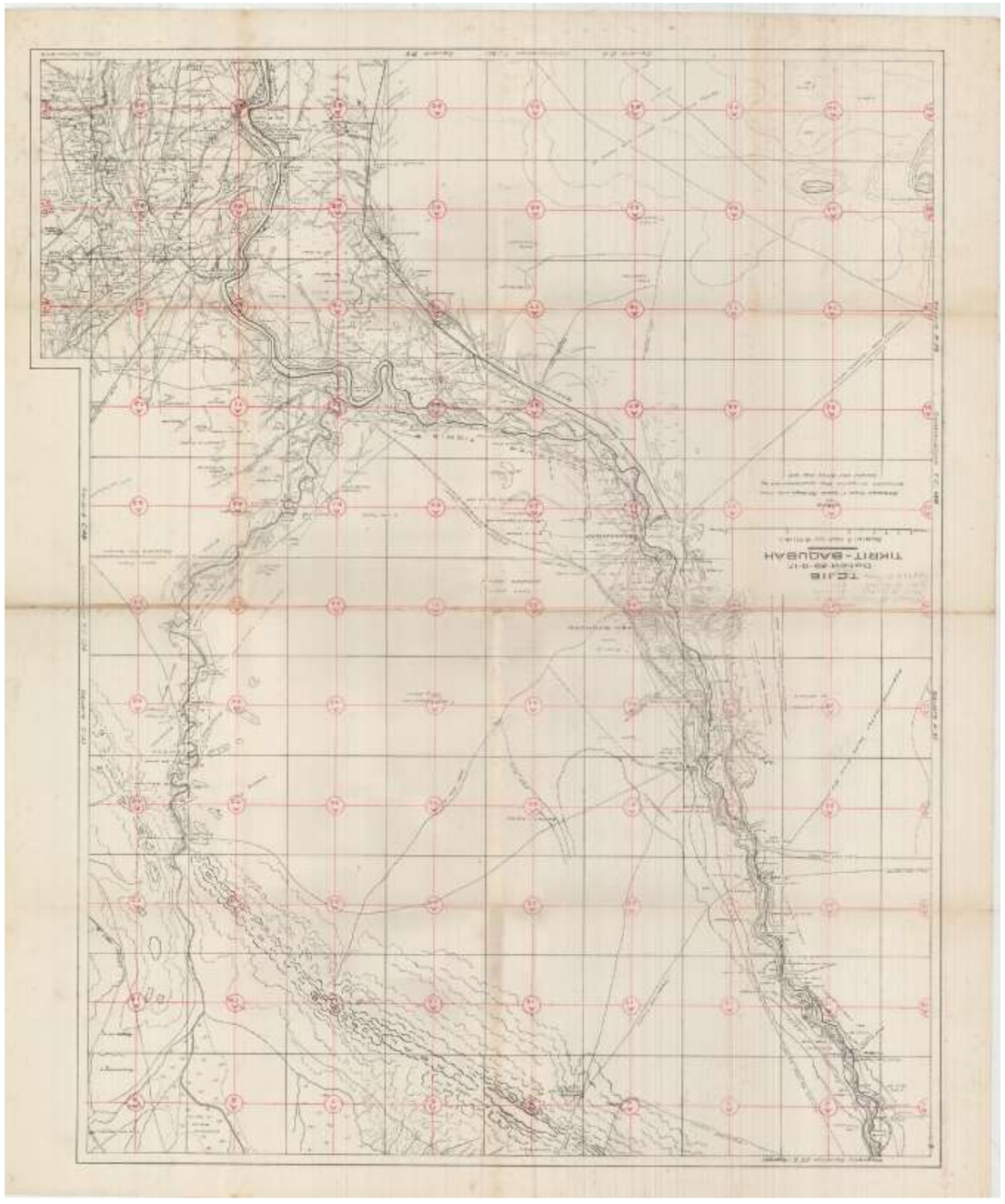
[Baghdad:] Map Compilation Section G.H.Q., May 11, 1918.

Heliozincograph in colours, mounted upon original linen (Very Good, some light staining and wear along old folds), 61.5 x 50.5 cm (24 x 20 inches).

Map #6.

Fatah occupied May 21, 1918.

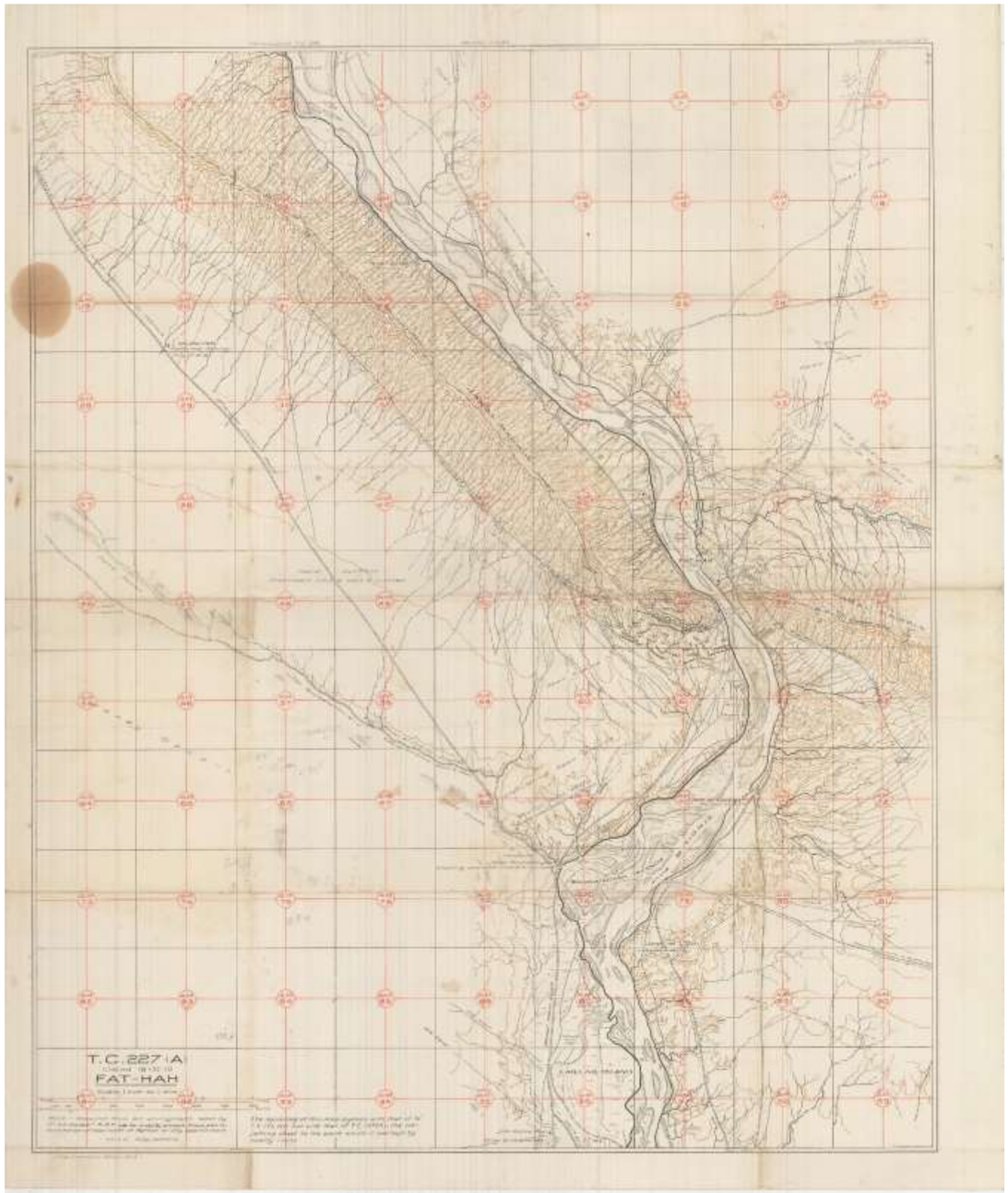

SKETCH MAP TC 97(8)
SAMARRAH


TC.116
TIKRIT-BAQUBAH

[Al Fatah] ***Fat-Hah / T.C. 227(A) / Dated 15-10-18 / Scale. 1 inch to 1 mile.***

[Baghdad:] Map Compilation Section G.H.Q., October 15, 1918.

Heliozincograph in colours, some contemporary manuscript annotations in pencil, mounted upon original linen (Good, some light wear along old folds, a notable stain upper left, some mild stains otherwise), 60 x 50.5 cm (23.5 x 20 inches).



Map #7.

[Al Fatah] ***Fat-Hah Position / T.C. 228(A) / Dated 13-10-18 / Scale 3 ins to 1 Mile.***

[Baghdad:] Map Compilation Section G.H.Q., October 13, 1918.

Heliozincograph in colours, mounted upon original linen (Very Good, some light wear along old folds), 51 x 59 cm (20 x 23 inches).

Map #8.

[Al-Shirqat] ***Qalāt-ash-Sharqāt / Sketch Map T.C. 248 / Dated 11-10-18 / Scale - 1 inch to 1 mile.***

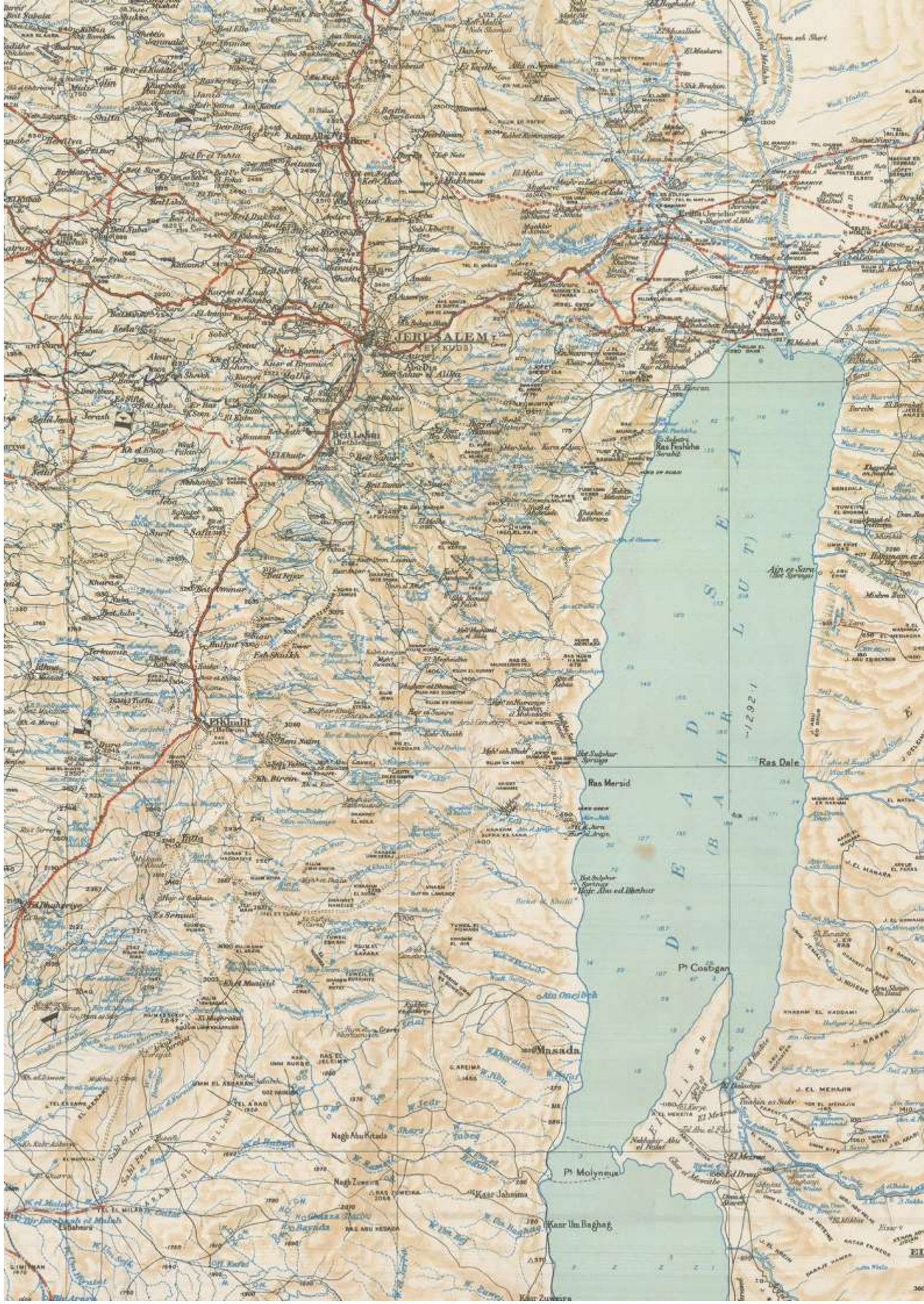
[Baghdad:] Map Compilation Section G.H.Q., October 11, 1918.

Heliozincograph in colours, mounted upon original linen (Very Good, some light staining and wear along old folds), 60.5 cx 50.5 cm (24 x 20 inches).

References: Map #2 - *Kirkuk* (only institutional example) - British Library: Maps X.16894; Map #3 – *Samarrah* (only institutional example): Bodleian Library (Oxford University): D19:12 (3); Map #7 - *Fat-Hah Position* (only institutional example): D19:12 (5); No institutional examples traced for Maps #1, 4, 5, 6 and 8.

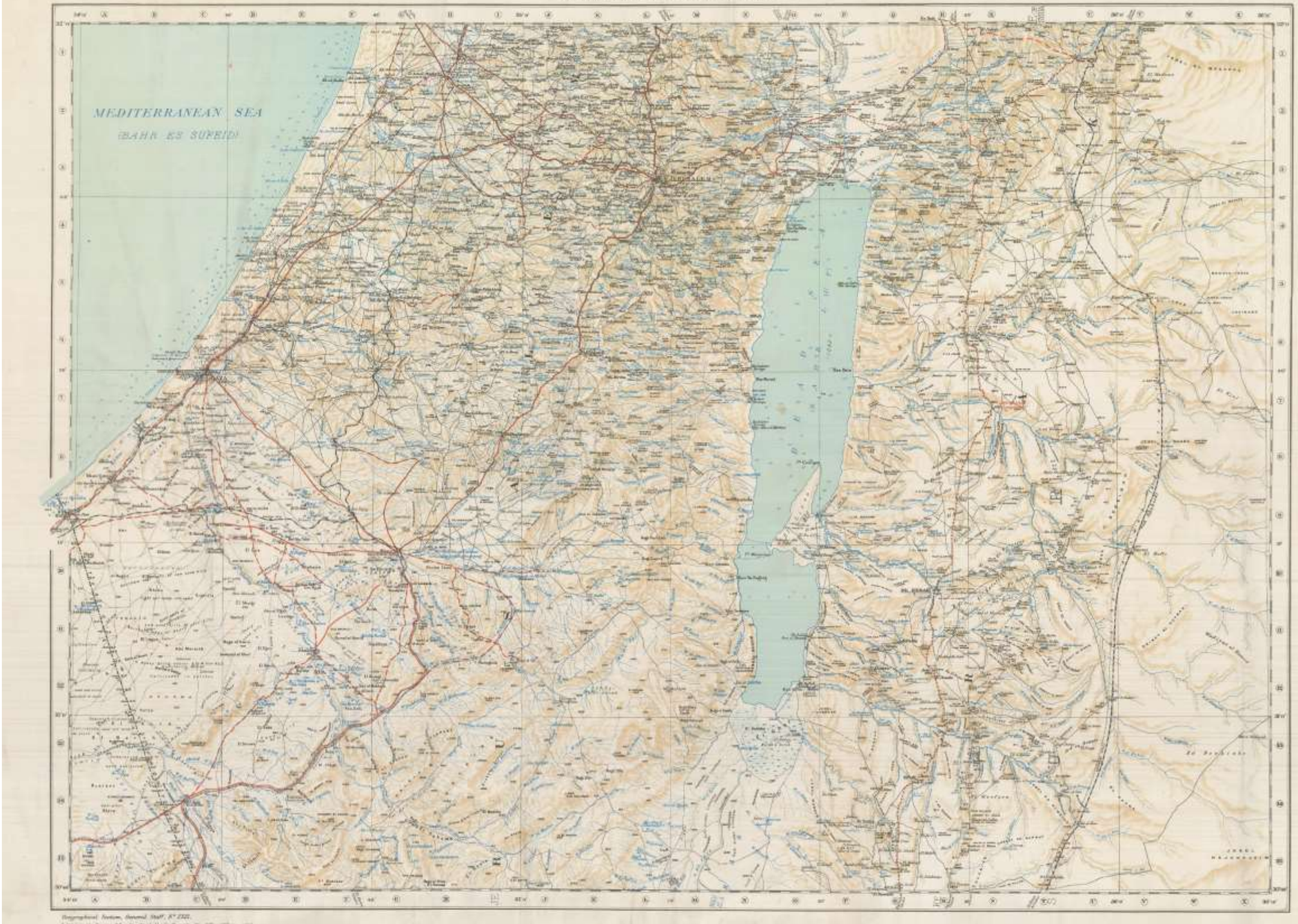
2.800 EUR

4. WWI Palestine
Israel
Battle Of Jerusalem


JERUSALEM
(EL KUDS)
Bethlehem
Beit Jala
Beit Sahour
Beit Jemal
Ramleh
Lydda
Ludd
Jaffa
Yazur
Ras Dale
Ras Mersid
Pt Costigan
Masada
Pt Molyneux
Kasr Jahuma
Kasr Ibn Baghag
Nebi Samwil
Tell el Fûl
Nebi Musa
Jericho
Ain es Sultan
Ain es Sarar
Hot Sulphur Springs
Dead Sea
Jordan R.
Wadi Kelt
Wadi Auja
Wadi Fara
Wadi Nimrin
Wadi Kefrein
Wadi Hesi
Wadi Ghuzze
Wadi Sukereir
Wadi Jerafeh
Wadi Surar
Wadi Sarar
Wadi Hanein
Wadi Imleih
Wadi Ajjur
Wadi Sheria
Wadi Hanafish
Wadi Ghazzeh
Wadi Ghuzzeh
Wadi Ghamr
Wadi Ghuzzeh
Wadi Ghuzzeh
Wadi Ghuzzeh

SYRIA

JERUSALEM (KUDS-ESH-SHERIF)



Topographical Section, General Staff, No 2320.
Printed by the Survey of Egypt, under Authority from the War Office, 22nd Jan. 1917.

REFERENCE

Scale 1/250000 or 1 Inch = 3.9 Miles

When demanding quote "Syria, Jerusalem, Sheet"

NOTE.—
The area north of Baalbek and west of the Beirut line is a portion of the Italy sheet G.S.G.S. 2787, which has been lithod on the occasion about without any attempt to alter the style of those into sheets to make them agree.
The Railway northwards from Lydd has been taken from an aeroplane reconnaissance survey and amended from the German administrative 1/800,000 Beirut sheet.

With Jerusalem in the upper centre, the map covers a critical section of Palestine and what is today Jordan, with Beersheba and the Negev Desert in the south; up to Ramla, the Judean Hills and Amman, in the north, with the Dead Sea occupying the centre of the map. In Jordan, the map labels a good stretch of the Hejaz Railway, the line completed from Damascus to Mecca in 1908 to aide Hajj Pilgrims and to solidify the Ottoman Sultan's control over the two holiest cities of Islam. The map also delineates a part of the 'Derb El Hajj', referring to the Syrian Hajj Road, the great overland route from Damascus to Mecca that runs almost parallel to the railway. The present example of the map features updates to the road system as of '20th Dec. 1917'.

The map, done to an operational scale of 1:250,000, features all manner of information useful for military movement. The region's dramatic topography is carefully expressed, with areas of elevation captured by delicate shading, while the numerous rivers, wadis and swamps are carefully defined.

The 'Reference' in the lower left margin, notes symbols used to identify metalled roads – bold red lines; roads passable for all transports in dry weather – dashed red lines; roads fit for guns and limbers (light forces) – dotted red lines; railways – bold black lines; telegraph lines – pointed black lines; 'S' – springs; while heights are in feet. Also noted, are details such as archaeological sites; watering places (cisterns, wells, etc.); bridges; and the quality of the land (noting areas of cultivation, etc.).

The EEF forces included corps of engineers who by this time had gained extensive experience in mapping the Middle East, adept at quickly composing amazingly accurate maps under the most difficult conditions. The present map is predicated upon manuscripts which were, in turn, based on intelligence collected in the field from a combination of mounted reconnaissance scouting; aerial reconnaissance; intelligence from informants; as well as trusted information from existing maps.

While the EEF engineers printed some maps in the field, these capabilities were limited. As was the case with the present map, the antecedent EEF manuscripts would have been rushed by air to Cairo, where expert teams of cartographers and draughtsmen at the Arab Bureau, working around-the-clock, would have quickly, yet carefully, edited and refined the maps, before they were printed by the Survey of Egypt. The turnover was amazingly fast for the era; examples of the present edition of the map would have been retuned to the Palestine front within only a matter days after December 20, 1917, such that they would have been available to commanders during the 'mop up' in the wake of the Battle of Jerusalem, and preparations for the 'long slog' in the Judean Hills.

A Note on Editions and Rarity

The Survey of Egypt apparently prepared a base map in 1915 that was later developed into the present map. The first edition of the map with fresh details from the battlefront was issued in Cairo on January 22, 1917, and the present edition appeared towards the very end of the same year, with updates to December 20, 1917. The map was also copied and published in by the War Office, Geographical Section in London, as well as the Ordnance Office in Southampton.

All editions of the map are rare, as they were issued in only very small print runs for classified dissemination to senior British military officers. Moreover, the survival rate of such maps, which were heavily used in the field, is extremely low.

We can trace only 3 institutional examples of the present edition of the map, held by the National Library of Israel, University of Glasgow and Durham University. Beyond that, we have handled another example, while we are aware of further appearing at an Israeli auction a few years ago.

The Palestine Campaign: The Contest for Control the 'Keystone' of the Middle East

While today it does not have the prominence in memory as the Western Front, Palestine played an exceedingly important role in World War I. Geo-strategically, it was a keystone, occupying a vital location between the Sinai and the Suez Canal (the lifeline of global trade and of the authority of the British Empire), on one side, and the heart of the Middle East, on the other. Home to the holy city of Jerusalem, the region also possessed tremendous symbolic importance.

From the outset of World War I in the Middle East, the British side was headquartered in Cairo, while the Ottoman-German command was based in Damascus – with Palestine in between. Early in 1915, the Central Powers side, led by Enver Pasha, the Ottoman War Minister, assisted by some of Germany's best generals, took the offensive, making credible, but ultimately unsuccessful, attempts at seizing the Suez Canal – utterly terrifying British officials from India to London. As shown on the present map, in 1915, the Ottoman-Germans completed a railway running north-south down the heart of Palestine, from Tulkarm (located off scene) to Beersheba. To aid their venture in the Sinai they also built rail lines in southern Palestine down to and crossing the Egyptian boundary, along with a vast network of camps, forts and defensive works.

In the summer of 1916, the EEF regrouped and took the offensive, driving the Ottoman-Germans out of the Sinai. The British entered Palestine at the beginning of 1917, winning the Battle of Rafah (January 9, 1917), located near the lower-left corner of the map. However, they soon became trapped along the Ottoman-German defensive lines that ran from Gaza to Beersheba. The EEF lost the First and Second Battle of Gaza in March 1917, resulting in a stalemate that lasted over six months.

Finally, in October 1917, the British took Beersheba, and at the Third Battle of Gaza (November 1-2, 1917), managed to break the Ottoman-German lines, surging towards Jerusalem. The Battle of Jerusalem (November 17 – December 30, 1917) was long and bloody, but the EEF gained the upper hand. On December 11, before the entire environs of the the city were secure, the British commander, General Edmund Allenby, famously entered Jerusalem through the Jaffa Gate on foot (as a sign of respect for the holy city).

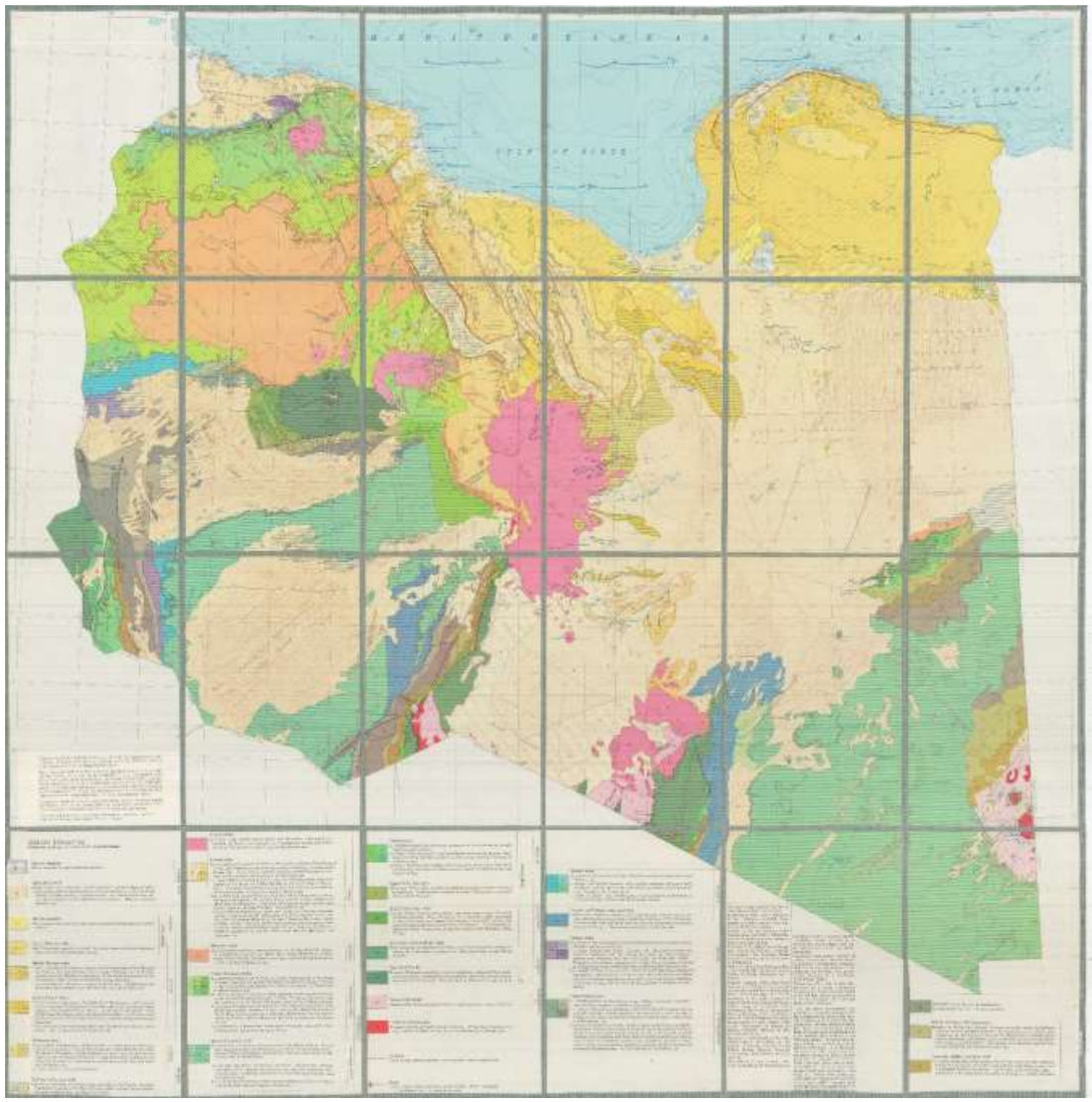
The EEF then lost its momentum, as it was compelled to send thousands of its troops to the Western Front in Europe to counter a great German offensive. They became bogged down in fighting in the Judean Hills and in Jordan, and failed to take Amman in March 1918, while several attempts to break into northern Palestine were blocked. However, the Ottoman-German lines were worn down by the attacks and began to suffer from supply shortages.

At the Battle of Megiddo, the "Breakthrough at Nablus" (September 19-25, 1918), the British subjected a crushing defeat upon the Ottoman-German side, causing their retreat from Palestine into Lebanon and Syria. Damascus fell on October 1, 1918, but it was not until the Ottoman-German side was chased up to Haritan, north of Aleppo, the war in the Middle East ended upon the declaration of the Armistice of Mudros (October 30, 1918).

References: National Library of Israel and the University of Glasgow examples, OCLC: 787018148; Durham University: 912844639.

1.200 EUR

5. Libya Geological Map
Oil-Petroleum Industry



Louis Cowles CONANT (1902 - 1999) and Gus Hossein GOUDARZI (1918 - 1996).

Geologic Map of the Kingdom of Libya Compiled by Louis C. Conant and Gus H. Goudarzi under the joint sponsorship of the Kingdom of Libya and the Agency for International Development, U. S. Department of State. / خريطة جيولوجية للمملكة الليبية

[Washington, D.C.: Interior- Geological Survey, 1964].

Colour print, dissected into 24 sections and contemporarily trimmed and mounted upon bluish-grey linen, rendering it a ‘field piece for professional use’, with some text sections moved and repasted with title pasted to verso, some text including imprints, some Arabic text and headings trimmed away, original printed envelope not present (Very Good, clean and crisp while noting the extensive contemporary amendments to the map), 89 x 88 cm (35 x 34.5 inches).

The first edition of the first comprehensive, scientifically accurate geological map of Libya, a grand, bilingual (English - Arabic) separately issued production primarily made to aid the country’s burgeoning oil industry; the result of a collaboration between Louis Conant and Gus Goudarzi, two of America’s most esteemed geologists, fulfilling a joint project of the U.S. State Department and the pro-Western Libyan regime of King Idris; the present example trimmed and mounted upon linen for professional field use.

This very large format, separately issued work is the first edition of the first comprehensive and scientifically accurate geological map of Libya, the result of the collaboration of Louis Conant and Gus Goudarzi, two of America’s most respected geologists. The map was jointly sponsored by the U. S. State Department’s Agency for

International Development and the Kingdom of Libya's Ministries of National Economy, Petroleum Affairs and Industry. At the time, Libya was ruled by the ardently pro-Western King Idris, who in the 1950s had invited American oil companies to take leading role in exploring Libya for petroleum, leading to the discovery of the first commercially exploitable deposits in 1956. The U.S. Government heavily supported Idris's regime and aided the American oil companies in exploiting the country's oil. The present map proved to be a vital tool for the ongoing exploration for new petroleum deposits, as well as caches of other minerals, with its influence lasting for many years after it was first published.

Printed completely in parallel English and Arabic text, the map embraces all of Libya, and impressively maps its hitherto mysterious deep interior with the same thoroughness by which it charts its populated coastal regions. The map showcases an amazing 27 colour-coded geological zones (plus sub-categories), considering physical features, rocks formations, and geologic epochs, plus delineating contact and fault lines, as explained in the 'Geologic Explanation' to the left-hand side of the map. The geological information overlays a detailed topographic rendering of the country, printed in grisaille, while the country is divided into the petroleum exploration zones as mandated by Libya's 1955 Petroleum Law.

Indicative of the great scientific rigour under which the map was created, Conant and Gourdazi reveal their exhaustive list of research materials, listed in the lower right quadrant.

Notably, the present example of the map is a 'professional field copy'. It has been contemporarily trimmed and mounted upon linen for practical use on worksites. This necessitated the moving and repasting of some text blocks, with the title pasted to the verso, while the imprints, some Arabic text and headings have been discarded, along with the printed envelope in which the map was originally issued. Such 'professionalisation' of geological maps was not uncommon, as oil and mining companies often commissioned for large collections of maps to be similarly modified.

The present example of the map is of the first issue. A second edition was published in 1969, not long before the Western oil companies were evicted from Libya by the Gaddafi regime.

While several libraries hold examples of the present map, it only very rarely appears on the market.

The Rise of the Oil Industry and Scientific Geology in Libya

In the wake of World War II, Libya, having been liberated from three decades of Italian colonial occupation, went through a period of reorganization and unification before coming under the rule of King Idris (reigned 1951-69), a Senussi religious leader. Libya was one of the poorest nations in the world, and the king courted friendly relations with Western powers in order to attract investment. Idris was especially well disposed towards the United States, as it was viewed as not having a desire to colonize Libya, while being generous with its economic largesse.

Libya was long known to possess geological deposits that could potentially yield hydrocarbons in significant quantities. In passing the 1955 Petroleum Law, Idris invited foreign petroleum companies, especially American firms, to explore the country for oil fields. These endeavours soon bore fruit, as in 1956 the first commercially viable oil formations were discovered, resulting in wildcat wells. This caused Esso, Mobil and Texas Gulf to dedicate major resources to Libya, leading to the discovery of massive, easily exploitable oil deposits in the Sirte Basin, the region in central Libya that still accounts for 90% of the country's oil production.

The United States Geological Survey played a leading role in conducting surveys of Middle Eastern and African oil producing countries, especially as such highly specialized work could not then be accomplished by local authorities. Immediately after the first major discoveries of oil were made in 1959, Libya's Ministries of National Economy, Petroleum Affairs, and Industry invited the U.S. Geological Survey to map the country, with special emphasis upon locating oil deposits, as well as marking wells, pipelines and transportation infrastructure that served the petroleum industry.

The U.S. Geological Survey charged Gus Hossien Goudarzi (1918 - 1996) with creating the first proper general oil map of Libya. Goudarzi was a highly esteemed Iranian-born American mining engineer, who had served as a military cartographer with the U.S. Navy, before conducting oil surveys in Saudi Arabia. He oversaw new surveys in Libya, while also collecting and editing the very best existing maps, sorting the 'wheat from the chaff'. After almost three years of work, he completed the *Topographic Map of United Kingdom of Libya* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Geological Survey, 1962), jointly sponsored by the Survey and the Libyan Petroleum Ministry.

Please see a link to this map, courtesy of the David Rumsey Map Collection:

https://www.davidrumsey.com/luna/servlet/detail/RUMSEY~8~1~321991~90091119:Topographic-map-of-United-Kingdom-o?qvq=w4s:/where%2FLibya%2F;lc:RUMSEY~8~1&mi=0&trs=64

While the *Topographic Map* was a masterly work, highly useful to the petroleum industry, it was decided that a more ambitious undertaking was to be ventured, being the creation of the first comprehensive and scientific overview of the geology of all of Libya. This would aid in the discovery of new oil fields, as well as other exploitable mineral deposits. Indeed, many areas of the Libya's vast Saharan interior were scarcely known to geologists.

For this grand endeavour, Gus Goudarzi teamed up with his more senior colleague, Louis Cowles Conant (1902 - 1999). Conant, a native of New Hampshire, studied at Dartmouth, before receiving his Ph.D. in 1934 at Cornell with a thesis, *Geology of the New Hampshire Garnet Deposits*. He subsequently joined the U.S. Geological Survey, and from 1947 to 1954 was in charge of the important Chattanooga Field Shale Investigation. He subsequently made major contributions to the geology of Mississippi, Alabama, Maryland and Rhode Island. In the early 1960s, Conant became fascinated with the oil geology of North Africa, leading him to the Libya project.

The collaboration between Conant and Goudarzi was ideal, as it combined the latter's unparalleled specialist knowledge of Libya with the former's experienced eye, honed by over three decades of field work.

The present map, and its antecedent, the *Topographic Map*, were considered vitally useful to oil companies and civil authorities during the great boom in petroleum production in the 1960s that made Libya into the 13th largest oil producer in the world. The country saw massive investment from American and European oil companies that utterly transformed Libya's state revenues. However, while Idris's coffers and those of the country's elite were flush, and while the Libya's infrastructure saw notable improvement, only a tiny amount of the oil revenue trickled down to the common people, and more worryingly for Idris, to the average soldiers of his military.

Popular discontent, in good part due to the grossly unequal distribution of the oil wealth, allowed Colonel Muammar Gaddafi to mount a bloodless coup on September 1, 1969, toppling Idris's regime. Gaddafi launched an eccentric Socialist dictatorship that he later called the *Jamahiriya* ("State of the

GULF OF SIRTE

SARĪR CALANSCIO

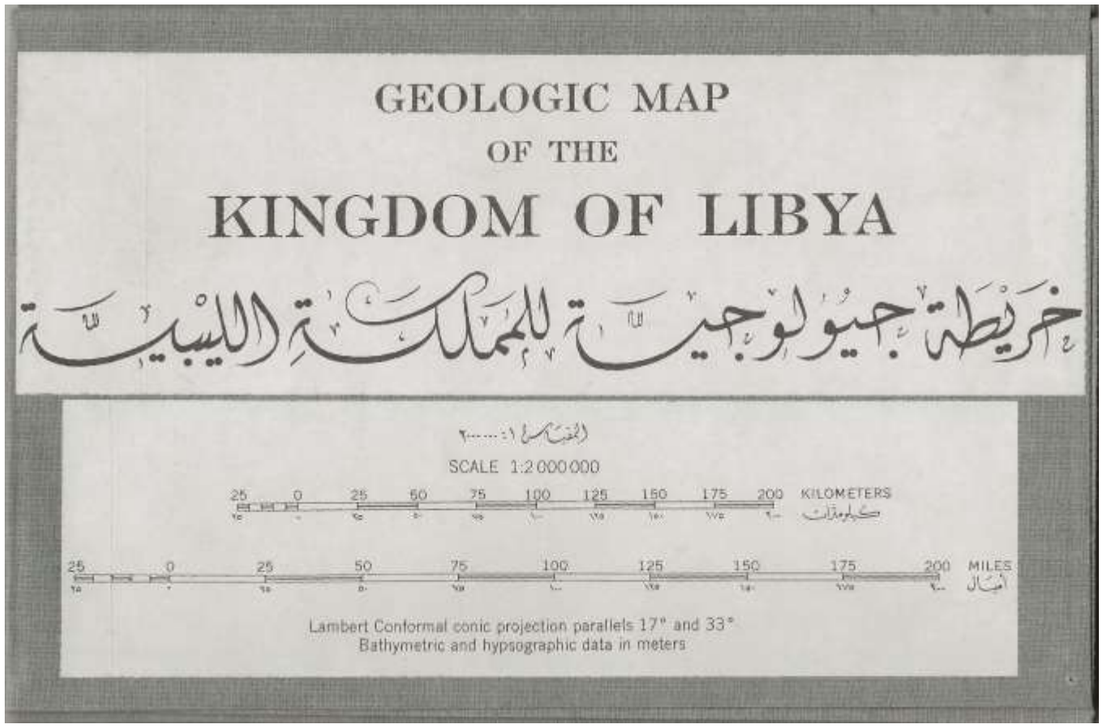
ZONE 1
ZONE 4

Masses"), which was to be fuelled by the country's oil revenues. Gaddafi created the National Oil Corporation (NOC) in November 1970, and over the coming years, he progressively nationalized the Libyan oil industry, evicting virtually all foreign interests. The NOC became a virtual monopoly, playing a major role in the global petroleum economy, even as Libya came under Western sanctions in 1986, following the Lockerbie Tragedy.

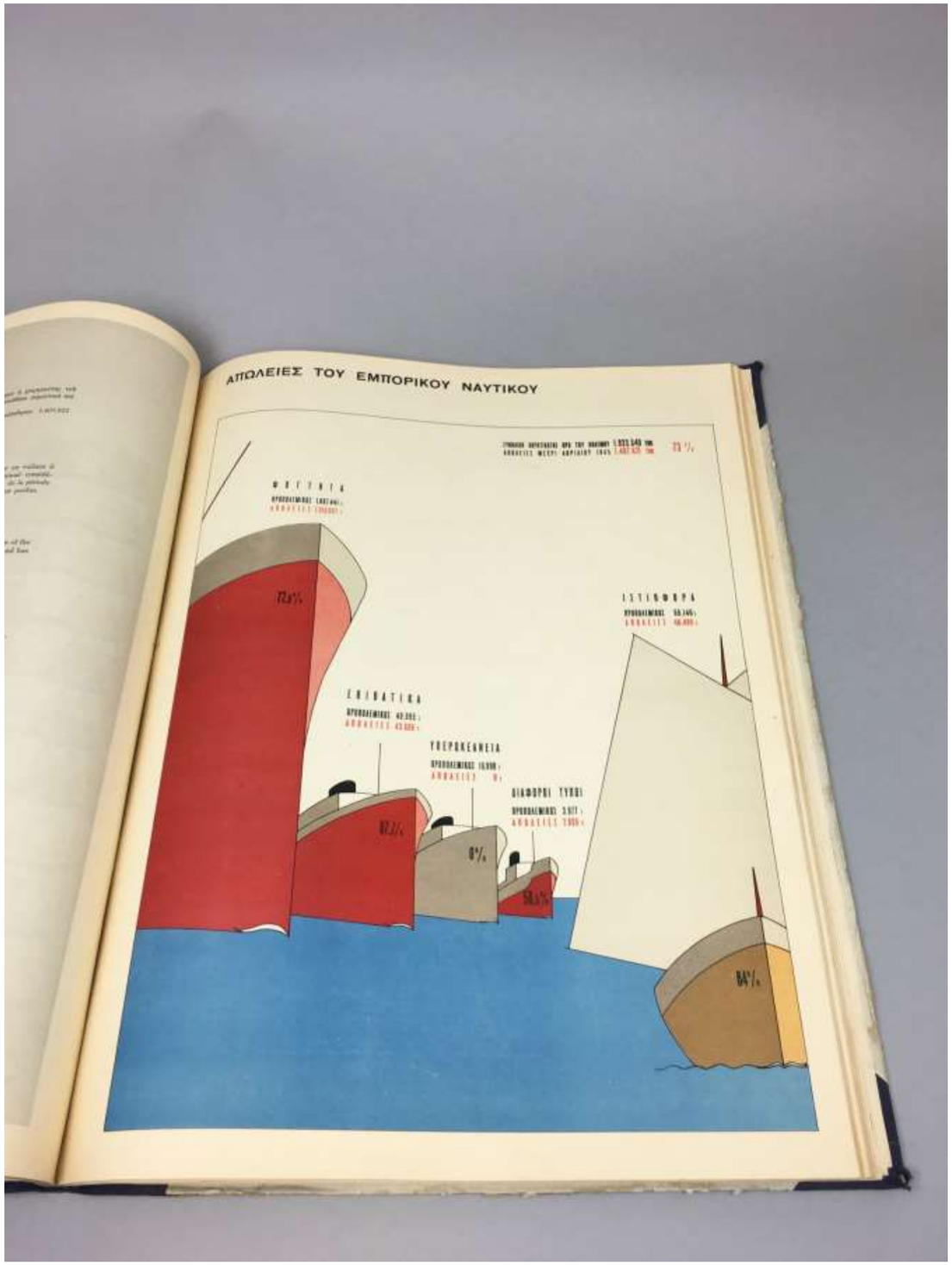
In the early 2000s, Gaddafi attempted to come in from the cold, re-engaging Western powers and inviting them to invest in the Libyan oil industry, overturning the NOC's near monopoly. However, Gaddafi's overthrow during the Arab Spring in 2011 plunged Libya into turmoil, and while the country still produces some oil, the enduring civil unrest destroyed much of the industrial infrastructure, severely limiting production. As of today, it unclear when, or if, Libya will ever return to being a major petroleum producer.

References: Library of Congress: G8261.C5 1964 .G4; British Library: Science, Technology & Business (KB) NX 079 (L); OCLC: 874747288; Edwin McKEE (ed.), *A Study of Global Sand Seas*, Geological Survey Professional Paper no. 1052 (Washington. D.C., 1979), p. 411; *The Libyan Journal of Science*, vol. 12 (1983), p. 27; *The Quarterly Journal of the Library of Congress*, vol. 22 (Washington. D.C., 1965), p. 222.

750 EUR



6. Greece In WWII
Thematic Cartography / Mid-Century Design
Cartographic Propaganda / Data Visualization



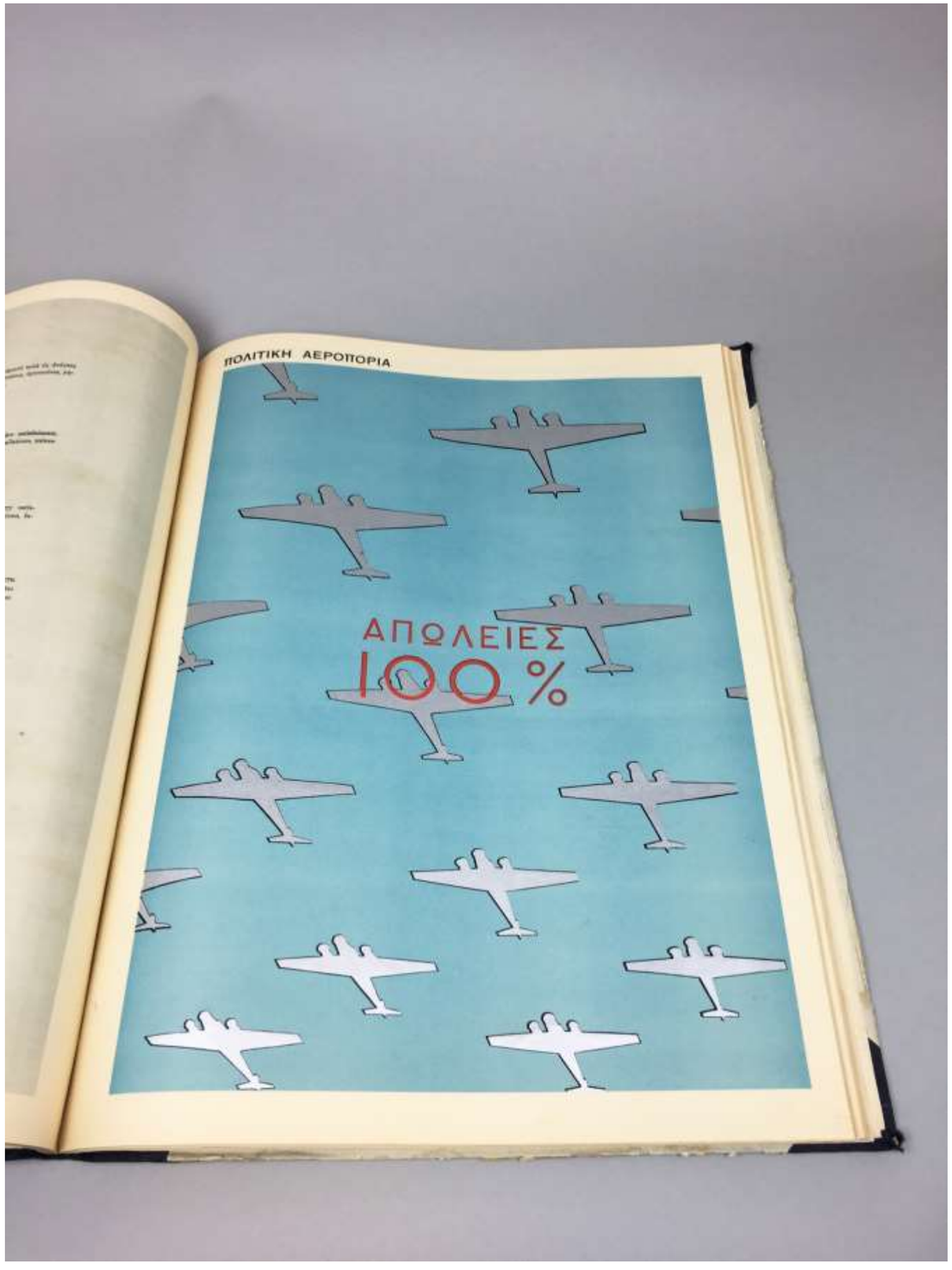
KONSTANTINOS A. DOXIADIS.

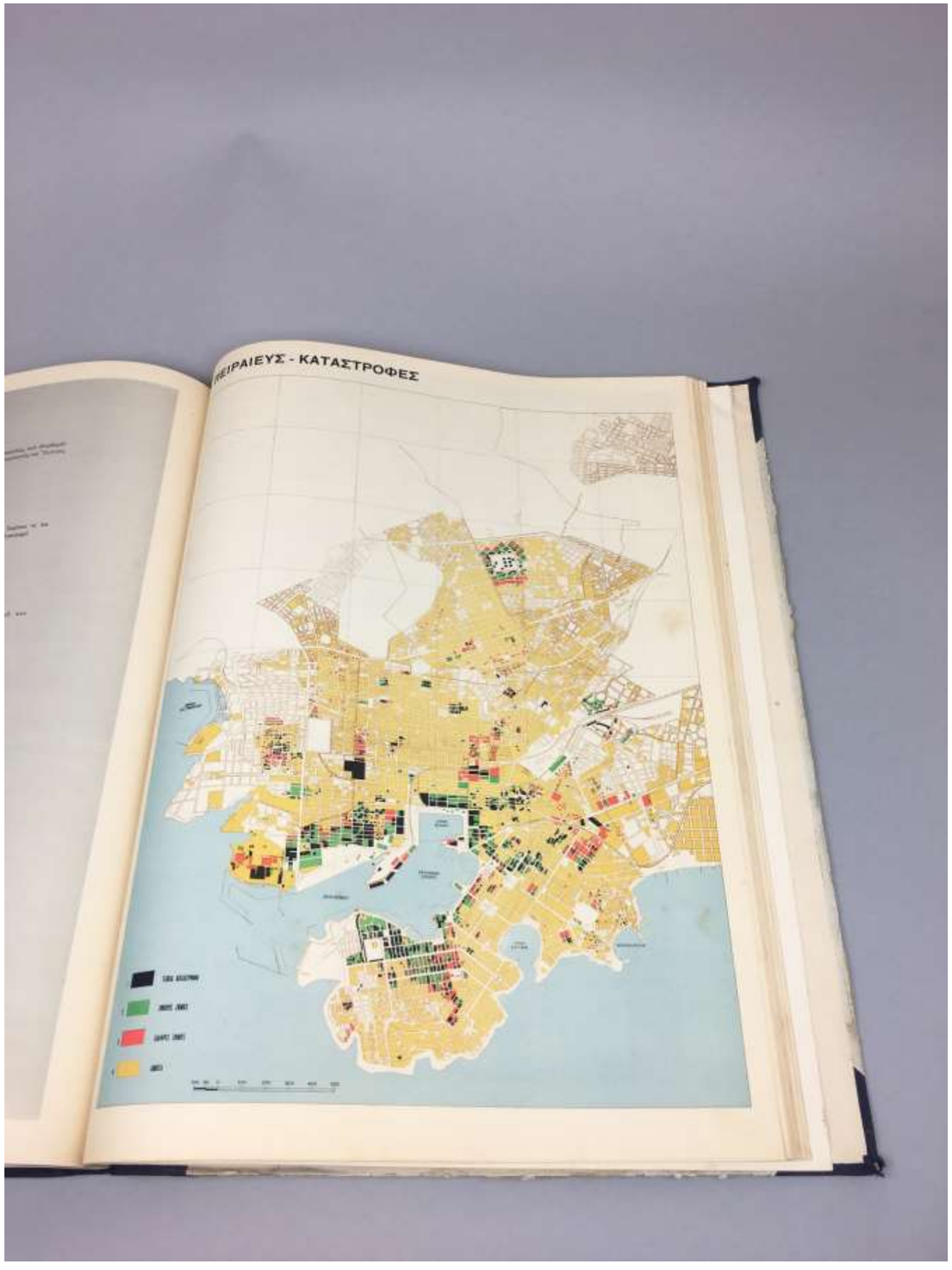
Αι Θυσίαι της Ελλάδος στον Δεύτερο Παγκόσμιο Πόλεμο / *Les Sacrifices de la Grece à la Seconde Guerre Mondiale / The Sacrifices of Greece in the Second World War…*

Athens: Aspioti-Elka, 1946.

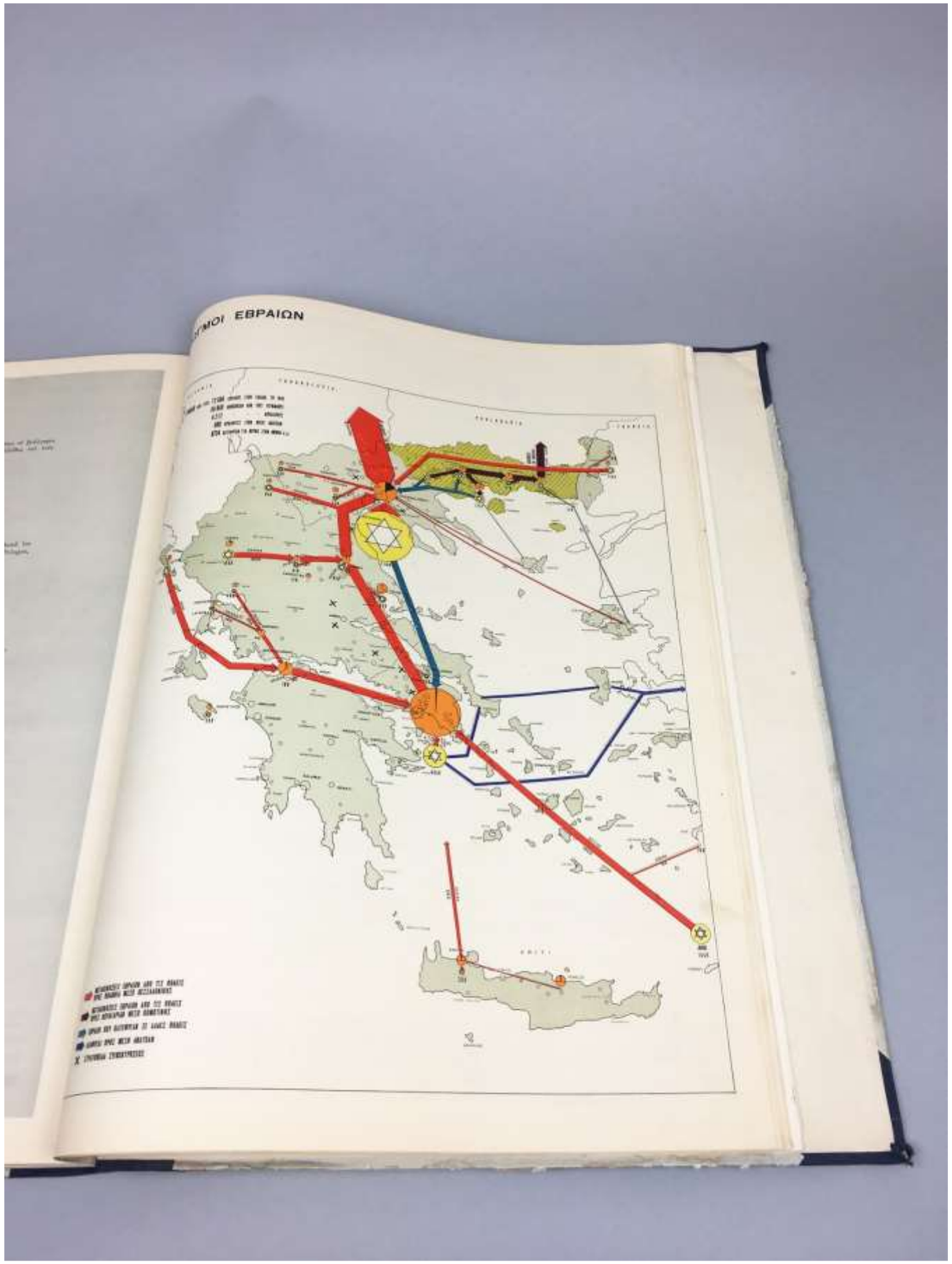
Folio (47 x 36 cm): 214 pp. (unpaginated), including 90 full page illustrated plates (most full colour) of maps, graphs and photographs; bound in half black cloth with illustrated covers (Good, internally quite clean with just a few minor stains, covers noticeably stained with marginal wear).

A spectacular folio work featuring 90 full page plates, including original thematic maps and charts of a brilliant mid-century design, created by a team of professional Greek architects, led by Konstantinos Doxiadis, to dramatically illustrate the suffering that Greece endured during World War II, issued in four languages as an evocative appeal to the international community for support and redress, published in Athens to a very high quality of colour printing by the leading firm of Aspioti-Elka, by far and away the finest and most sophisticated Greek work of thematic cartography and data visualization of the postwar era.


ΠΟΛΙΤΙΚΗ ΑΕΡΟΠΟΡΙΑ
ΑΠΩΛΕΙΕΣ
100%


ΠΕΙΡΑΙΕΥΣ - ΚΑΤΑΣΤΡΟΦΕΣ


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ΕΒΡΑΙΩΝ

Greece suffered greatly during World War II. After fending off a bungled Italian invasion in October 1940, Greece was overrun by the Wehrmacht in April 1941, beginning a brutal occupation. The country was divided into German, Albanian and Bulgarian zones of control, although the Nazis ran the show. The occupation regime was sadistically repressive, starving the people, resulting in a horrendous famine that killed over 300,000 Greeks, while the Nazis systematically murdered almost all the country's ancient Jewish community.

Fortunately, the Greek Resistance, an unlikely coalition of Royalists and Communists, had fought the occupation throughout, and managed to hasten the Nazis' withdraw from much of Greece in November 1944, although the entire country would not be liberated until the end the war, the following spring.

The war left Greece as something akin to a burnt-out shell, and while 400,00o Greek deaths can be directly attributed to the occupation, as many of 1.1 million people died due to indirect causes.

However, Greece's troubles were not over. The country's two main factions, the Communists and Royalists, came to blows, resulting in the Greek Civil War (1946-9). It was in this context that the intelligentsia in Royalist-controlled Athens appealed for financial and military assistance from the West, to fend off the Red Menace and to rebuild their ravaged nation. Greece also appealed to the international community for compensation in the form of territories ceded by Albania, Bulgaria and Italy.

The Present Work in Focus

Seeking to create a monumental work that would express the suffering and grievances of Greece in powerful, yet academic terms, a team of professional architects led by Konstantinos A. Doxiadis, working for various Greek governmental agencies, including the Office of Spatial and Urban Studies and Research of the Ministry of Public Works and the Ministry of Reconstruction, produced the text in four languages (Greek , French, English and Russian) and drafted or designed 90 full page plates, most being resplendently coloured and of a fabulous mid-century artistic style. The plates include thematic maps (on the economy, demographics, military operations, human rights violations, and urban plans), charts and photographic images. The quality of the work, in terms of its artistic virtue and academic merit, is absolutely world class, and is by far and away the finest work of thematic cartography and data visualization created in Greece in the postwar era.

The work is divided into six sections: *I*. Greece before the War; *II*. Greece at War; *III*. Economic War; *IV*. The Destruction of Public Works; *V*. Destruction to Towns and Villages; and *VI*. Suffering of the Inhabitants. The table of Contents at the end provides the official source of the data used for each chart, supporting its academic rigour.

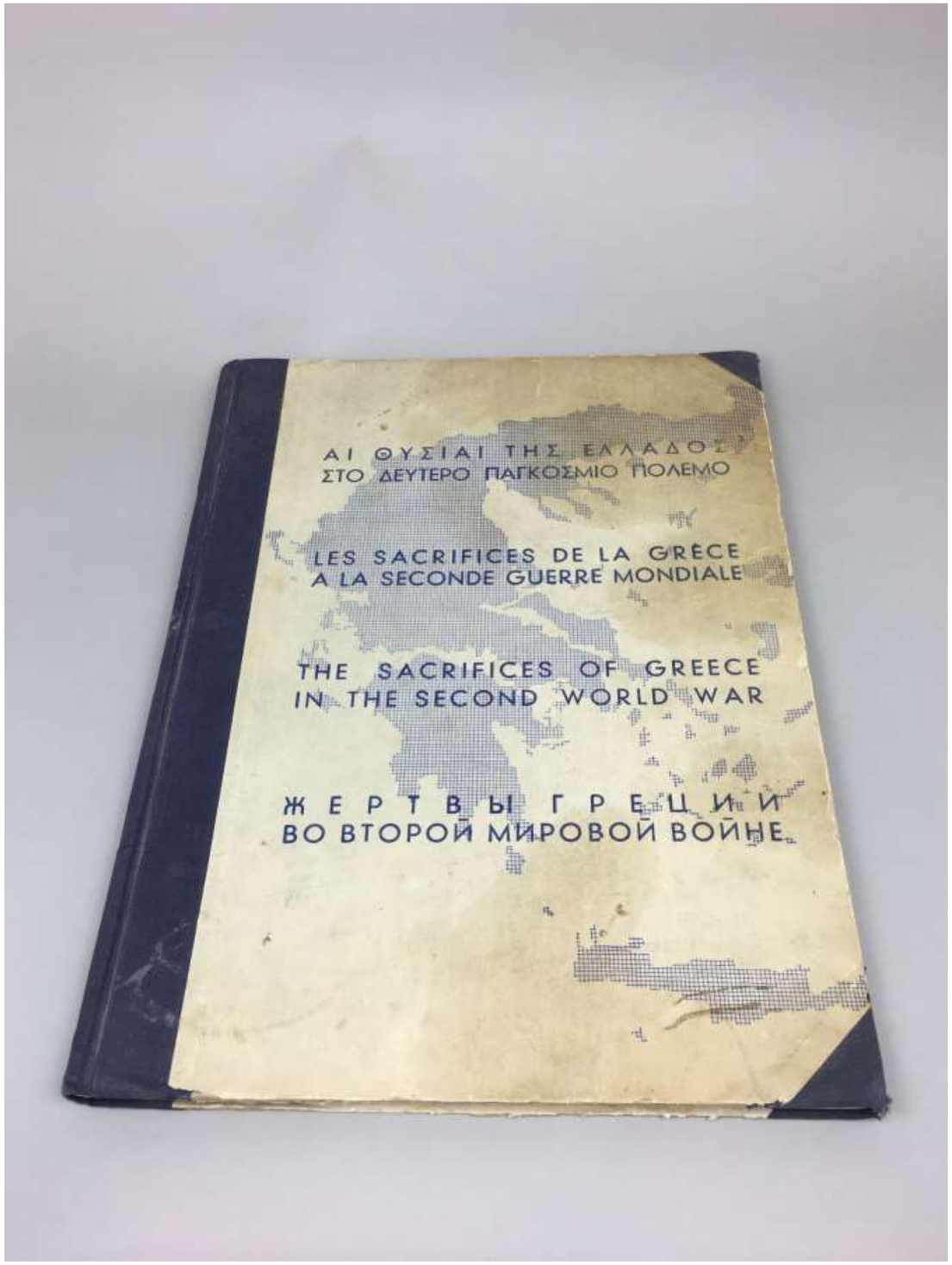
Mock-ups of the present work were exhibited at the San Francisco Conference (April 25 – June 26, 1945) that resulted in the creation of the United Nations. The book was properly published in Athens in June 1946 by the venerable printing firm of Aspioti-Elka (which itself suffered during the war, as its former headquarters in Corfu was bombed by the Germans) to a very high standard of colour printing, doing justice the fabulous design of the images.

Epilogue

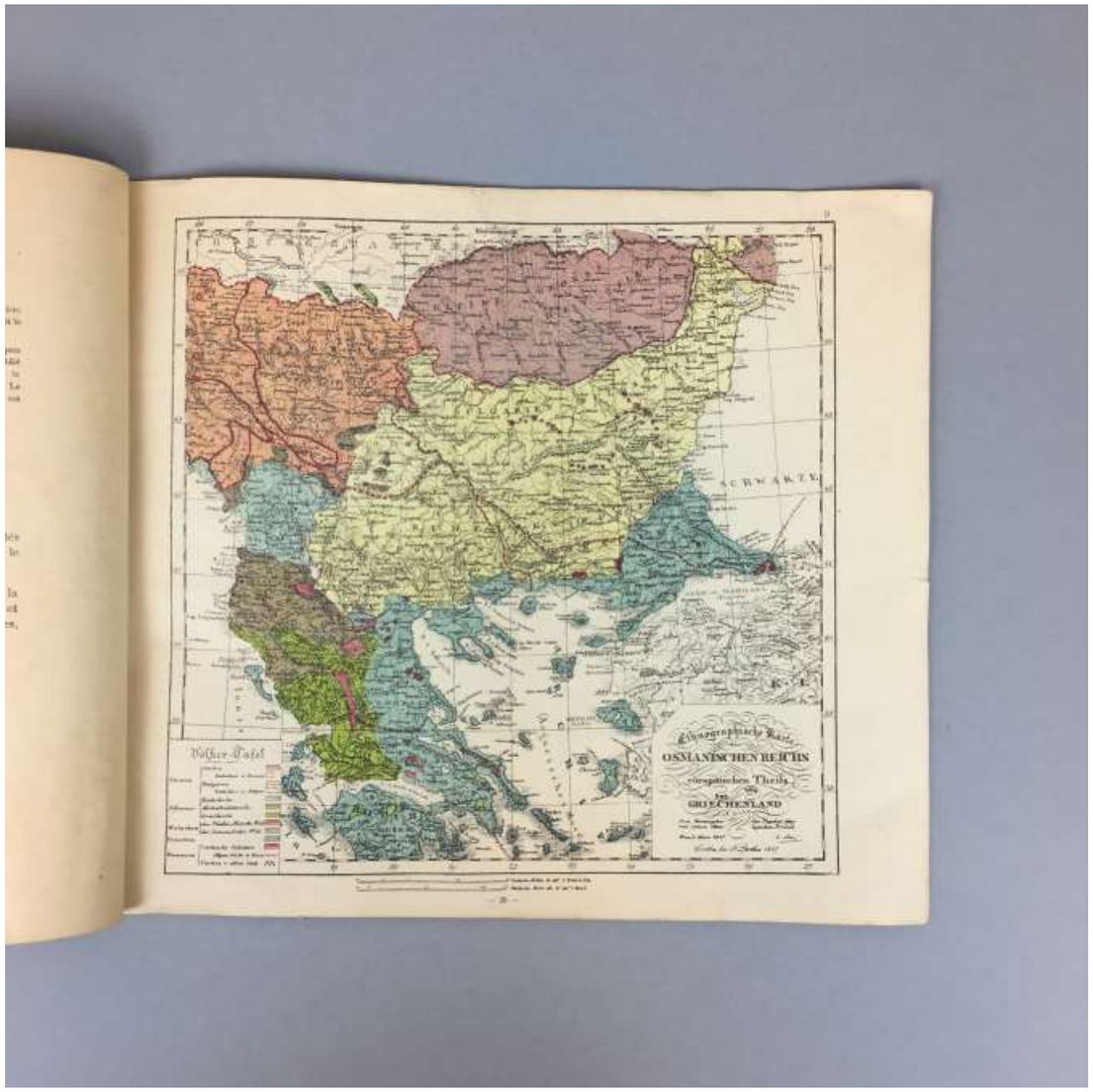
The Royalist side in Greece succeed in winning Western support for its cause, resulting in their victory in the Civil War. While Greece only gained the Dodacanese Islands (from Italy) as the their only territorial compensation for the country's war experience, the West provided financial assistance that helped Greece to rebuild.

References: Oxford University Libraries: DF849 THY 2014.

1.400 EUR



7. Greece / Bulgaria / Turkey – Thrace
World War I / Historical Atlas
Cartographic Propaganda



J. Saxon MILLS and Matthew George CHRUSSACHI.

La Question de Thrace. Grecs, Bulgares et Turcs.

London: Edward Stanford, 1919.

Oblong 4° (24.5 x 28 cm): [48 pp.], including 19 full-page colour plates containing 25 maps, original printed light blue paper wrappers, stapled; former owner's handstamp of 'ΠΥΛΑΡΙΝΟΣ' (Pilarinos) to bottom margin of title (Good, internally clean and bright, just a soft old vertical fold and minor tears to blank margins of leaves; wrappers worn and stained with more pronounced staining to back cover with small chip of loss, spine quite worn).

Very rare – the most sophisticated cartographic analysis of the 'Thrace Question', concerning the geographic partitioning of the region which was one of the great bones of contention between Greece, Bulgaria and Turkey in the wake of World War I; an atlas of 19 full page colour plates of historical and ethnographic maps collected from the most authoritative sources, with insightful original commentary by the Oxbridge historians J. Saxon Mills and Matthew George Chrussachi, produced at the end of 1919, during the height of the controversy, by the firm of Edward Stanford, the world's leading cartographic publisher.

Thrace is an historical and geographic region in the extreme southeastern corner of Europe; today the region is divided, as Northern Thrace makes up southeastern Bulgaria (including Philippopolis, today Plovdiv), Eastern Thrace comprises all of the European part of the Republic of Turkey beyond Istanbul

(including Edirne, formerly Adrianople) and Western Thrace makes up the extreme northwestern part of Greece (including Alexandroupoli).

Thrace gained its name around 1000 BC from the Indo-European Thracian tribe, and eventually came under the control of the Ancient Greeks. During parts of the Medieval period, large parts of the region were controlled by the various Bulgarian empires. From 1361, Thrace was conquered by the Ottomans, who made Adrianople (*Turkish*: Edirne) their imperial capital for the next 84 years, until they conquered Constantinople.

Ottoman rule over Thrace endured for around 500 years, and the Sublime Porte presided over a land of incredible ethnic and religious diversity. While the region's population was overall a majority Greek, many towns and areas had ethnic Turkish or Bulgarian majorities, while sizeable communities of other groups (Jews, Roma, Romanians, etc.) existed all across the region. Until the 19th Century, Ottoman rule was quite secure, as the Sublime Porte permitted the various communities a high degree of autonomy, while the empire's great military power discouraged any rebellious tendencies.

However, in the wake of the Napoleonic Wars, Ottoman power declined, while the Balkans were increasingly gripped by the rise of national-ethnic consciousness. Long dormant, or suppressed, Greek, Bulgarian, Albanian, Romanian and Serbian movements for self-determination came to fore just as the Sublime Porte, mired in internal economic and political problems, was least able to effectively counteract them. Local insurgencies arose all over the peninsula, including in Thrace, with some movements becoming full-scale rebellions.

During the Greek War of Independence (1821-32), Greece securing its first independent state in centuries, although its territory was confined to the Peloponnesus (the Greek insurgency in Thrace was suppressed). Around the same time, Serbia (albeit controlling only the territory in the central part of the modern country) rebelled and gained its *de facto* independence.

Over the coming decades the Ottomans experienced increasing difficulty in maintaining order in the Balkans, although Thrace, located near Istanbul, was easier to control than the more far-flung regions.

A major turning point occurred during the Russo-Turkish War 1877-78, when a coalition of Russia and its Slavic Allies (including Bulgaria) throttled the Sublime Porte, nearly taking Istanbul. At the preliminary Treaty of San Stefano (March 3, 1878), hastily convened at the end of hostilities, the Ottomans were slated to lose all of Northern and Western Thrace to a newly independent Bulgaria. However, at the Congress of Berlin (June 13 - July 13, 1878), which superseded the San Stefano protocols, Britain and Francs intervened, and wishing to contain Russia (and her client state, Bulgaria), altered the terms in the Ottoman's favour. While most of Bulgaria was to be given its *de facto* independence, Northern Thrace became 'Eastern Rumelia', an autonomous province under Ottoman suzerainty, while Western and Eastern Thrace would remain under Ottoman sovereignty.

In 1885, Bulgaria seized control of Eastern Rumelia, and made no secret of its desire to gain access the Aegean Sea upon one day taking over Western Thrace, while making a play for Eastern Thrace was not out of the question.

While the Ottomans won a war against Greece in 1897, overall, the Sublime Porte's power in the Balkans continued to erode. Istanbul was gripped by internal dissent and economic instability, while Slavic, Greek and Albanian insurgencies broke out in various places. While the Ottoman control over Eastern Thrace was relatively secure, its authority in Western Thrace, and the bordering region of Macedonia, was becoming tenuous. In 1908, Bulgaria declared its total independence from the Sublime Porte, formally severing Northern Thrace from the Ottoman sphere of the first time in over 500 years.

During the Italo-Turkish War (1911-2), Italy fought the Ottomans for control over Libya, which succeeded in distracting the Sublime Porte from minding Balkan affairs.

It was in this context that the so-called 'Balkan Alliance' of Greece, Serbia, Montenegro and Bulgaria suddenly mounted a full-scale attack upon all Ottoman positions in Europe, in what would be known as the First Balkan War (October 8, 1912 – May 30, 1913). Supported by Russia and Italy, the alliance made short work of the Sultan's men, surging over their lines and conquering tens of thousands of square kilometres of territory.

By mid-November, 1912, the Bulgarian army had taken virtually all of Eastern Thrace, and had rushed towards the 'Çatalca Line', a series of forts and trenches that crossed the isthmus just to the west of Istanbul, acting as the capital's last line of defence. There, the Ottomans mounted a spirited resistance, narrowly saving Istanbul.

Meanwhile, the only remaining major Ottoman stronghold in Europe beyond Çatalca was Edirne (Adrianople), a city that had special significance to the Turkish people, as the former Ottoman Empire (from 1369 to 1453). During the Siege of Edirne (November 3, 1912 – March 26, 1913), which is notable for being one of the first battles to use airplanes for bombing, the Ottomans bravely resisted Bulgarian attempts to storm the city, but were finally compelled to surrender.

At the Treaty of London (May 30, 1913), the Ottomans had to agree to a humiliating peace, as they had been totally throttled by the Balkan Alliance. The Ottomans were to loose 83% of their European domains, with 69% of its European population. The new Ottoman boundary in Europe was to be the Enos-Midia Line, which ran from the mouth of the Maritsa River, on the Aegean, over to a point along the Black Sea. This settlement barely allowed the Ottomans to preserve the complete shorelines of the Sea of Marmara, while maintaining only a very narrow defensive perimeter to the west of Istanbul; the Ottomans thus lost all of Western Thrace and much of Eastern Trace (including Edirne). This resolution gave the Balkan Alliance almost all of what it wanted, while leaving the Sublime Porte in an untenable position.

Fortunately for the Ottomans, the Balkan Alliance soon crumbled. While the London Treaty set the Enos-Midia Line as the outer boundary of Ottoman Europe, it did not specify how the newly conquered lands beyond were to be divided between the Balkan powers. As Greece and Serbia moved in to take the lion's share of the spoils, Bulgaria felt cheated.

During the Second Balkan War (June 29, 1913 – August 10, 1913), Bulgaria allowed itself to come into conflict with all of its neighbours at once, including the Ottomans, Serbia, Greece and Romania (which opportunistically joined the conflict to gain territory from Bulgaria in the north). Bulgaria was, not surprisingly, defeated. The Ottomans regained Edirne and Eastern Thrace; Serbia conquered frontier regions of Macedonia; while Romania conquered the South Dobruja region. However, Bulgaria was permitted to retain most of Western Thrace, giving it a 110 km-long Aegean seacoast, including the major port of Alexandroupoli. These new boundaries were ratified at the Treaty of Bucharest (August 19, 1913).

In November 1914 the Ottoman Empire entered World War I on the German side, joining an alliance that included its recent nemesis Bulgaria, while Serbia joined the Entente side. Greece was caught in a difficult predicament. The country's pro-German King Constantine I wanted Greece to remain neutral

(while quietly hoping for a Central Powers victory), while its prime minister, Eleftherios Venizelos, wanted to openly side with the Entente, as Britain and France promised to give Greece control of much additional territory, including all of Western Thrace.

In 1915, Britain and France, with Venizelos's blessing, landed an expeditionary force at Thessaloniki, opening up the 'Macedonian' or 'Salonica' Front. In 1916, Greece fractured into pro-Constantine and Venizelist forces, with the latter taking control of most of Northern Greece. This state of affairs remained until Venizelos and the Entente Powers compelled Constantine I to abdicate in 1917, whereupon Greece was reunited, and formally allied to Britain and France. Later in the war, the Macedonian Front proved pivotal, as the Entente forces caused the collapse of the Bulgarian army, leaving Istanbul dangerously exposed. However, the war ended before a strike upon the Ottoman capital was endeavored.

As a spin-off of the Versailles Conference that aimed to resolve the postwar settlement, at the Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine (November 27, 1919), Western Thrace was ceded by Bulgaria to the Entente Powers, who in turn decided to hand it over to Greece at the San Remo Conference (April 25, 1920). However, the decision on Western Thrace was never accepted by Bulgaria and its allies and would remain a flashpoint for the next generation.

Meanwhile Eastern Thrace remained under Entente occupation, with its future status up in the air. The Entente Powers seemed to prefer that most of its territory should be given to Greece, with the international community retaining some kind of permanent oversight upon Istanbul and the Turkish Straits.



The Present Atlas in Focus

The fate of Western and Eastern Thrace far transcended regional considerations in the postwar era, assuming prime international importance. First, the area guarded the Turkish Straits, one of the globe's most important shipping lanes. Second, it secured Istanbul, one of the most important cities in the world. Third, continued instability in Thrace would have ripple effects throughout the Balkans, inviting the intervention of major powers and potentially instigating a new large war - something that the Entente Powers wanted to avoid at all costs.

Thus, it is no surprise that the present work, by far the most sophisticated attempt to analyze the Thrace Question, would emanate from Britain, the country that was the primary guarantor of the postwar peace.

Enter Mills and Chrussachi. J. Saxon Mills, was a barrister and historian, long associated with Cambridge University. Specializing in contemporary history, he was author such works as *The Panama Canal: A History and Description of the Enterprise* (1910); *The Gathering of the Clans: How the British Dominions and Dependencies have Helped in the War* (1916); The Genoa Conference (1922); *David Lloyd George, War Minister* (1924); and *The Press and Communications of the Empire* (1924).

Matthew George Chrussachi, was then a student at Oxford and an assistant to Mills. Of Greek extraction, he was active in promoting the Greek cause, having delivered a well-publicized speech, published as *'The Greater Greece': A Lecture delivered at a Meeting of the Fellows of the Royal Colonial Institute (1919)*. He subsequently worked as a barrister in London.

Mills and Chrussachi published the present work in December 1919, in the heady days after the Neuilly Treaty, when Western Thrace was slated to be controversially awarded to Greece, and while the fate of Eastern Thrace remained undetermined.

Like most British historians, politicians and commentators, Mills and Chrussachi possessed a clear pro-Greek bias. However, neither were propagandists, but were rather rigorous empiricists who aimed to use the best geographic evidence and statistics supplied from all parties as authoritative evidence to back up their arguments, which is very much the ethic of the present work.

While Mills and Chrussachi accepted that all of Northern Thrace should remain part of Bulgaria (it had an overwhelming majority ethnic Bulgarian population), they believed that all of Western Thrace, and at least a good part of Eastern Thrace should be permanently awarded to Greece.

In the 'Avant-propos' (Forward) of the present work, the authors justify their partiality to the Greek claims in Thrace:

"Even today, however, there is a tendency in certain quarters to regard the Greek claim in Thrace as "Ersatz", something that could be thrown overboard without much ado in return for concessions elsewhere. Such a view is wholly erroneous. In any consideration of the Thracian question we must not lose sight of the fact that Greece has already sacrificed her historic rights to her ancient capital, along with half a million of her nationals, to the necessity of internationalizing Constantinople and the Straits. Even if the formulated Greek claims are all satisfied, including the claim to Thrace, only 65% of the Greek race will be thus included within the frontiers of the Greek State. Such a moderation has not been shown by any other State which had an "Irredenta" before the War. It should surely strengthen rather than weaken the claim advanced by Greece to Thrace, especially if that claim can stand on its own merits".

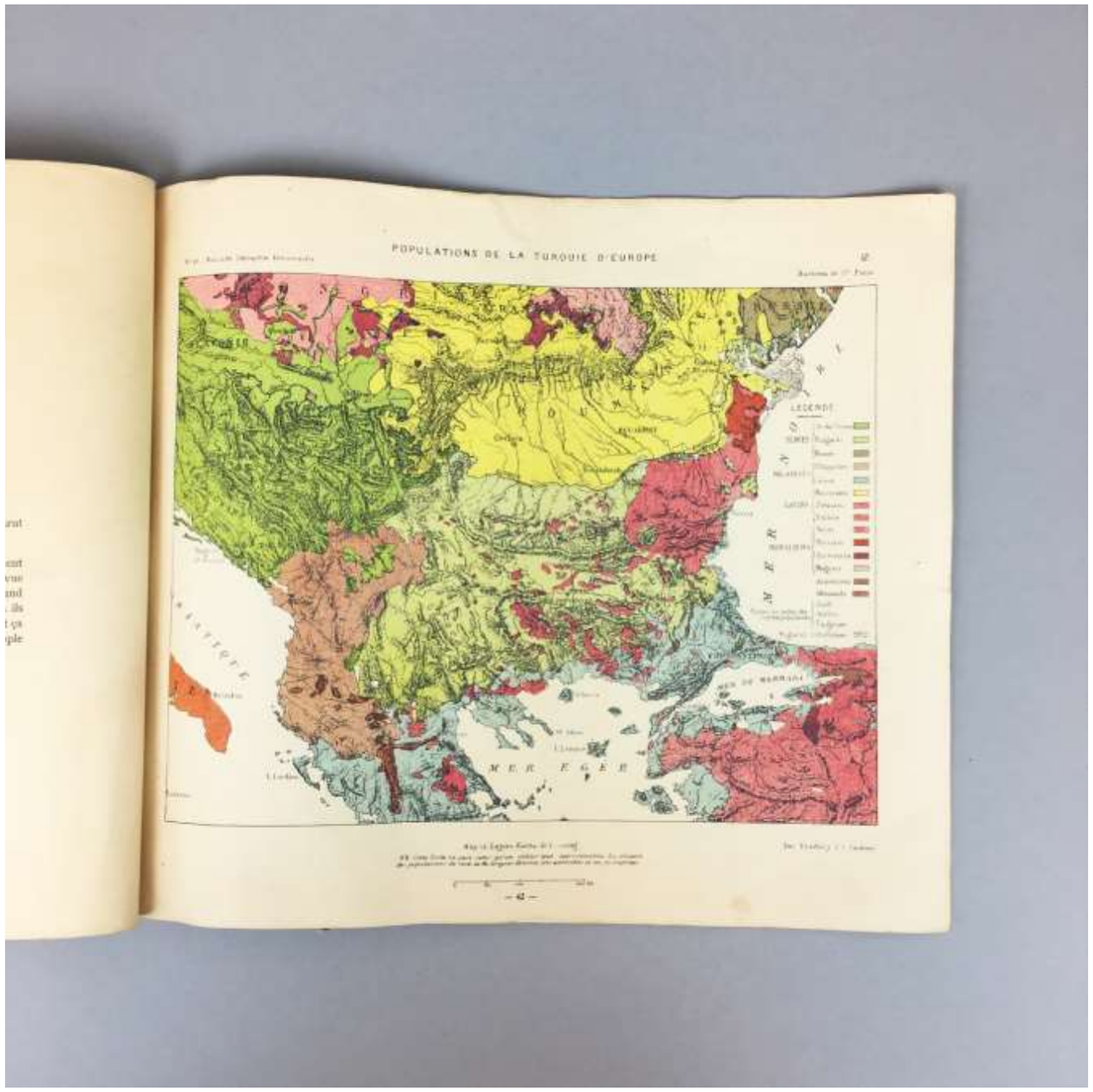
Yet, Mills and Chrussachi are clear that any decisions should be predicated upon hard evidence, not emotional-nationalistic sentiment, noting that "the facts that ought to be decisive" and confidently asserting that they "are easier to establish here than in the case of any other Balkan problem."

The authors divide the work into two parts. The first part, 'Historique' (Historical) maps, features Thrace as it appeared with its political divisions at various points in Medieval times, the purpose of which is to show who occupied what areas prior to the Ottoman conquest.

The second part, 'Ethnologique' (Ethnological) maps, features various cartographic interpretations of the distribution of ethnic-national groups across Thrace in modern times (over the previous three generations). The purpose is to show who occupies the land today, giving claim to 'right by possession' for the different parts of Thrace.

Presumably, people who both occupied areas in the Medieval times and were still the majority ethnic group on the land in the modern era possessed an ironclad claim to the land in 1919-20, following the prevailing 'Wilsonian' principles.

In the first part, on Historical Maps, the authors provide facsimiles of the most authoritative maps of Medieval Thrace, showing the expansion and contraction of the various Bulgarian empires which existed the region in the seven or so centuries prior to the Ottoman takeover. Plate 1 contains four maps after Professor E.A. Freeman (1903) that depict the evolving boundaries of the Bulgarian states from the 10th



the 13th centuries. Plates 2 to 8A inclusive are copied from the 1917-8 work of Wassil Zlatarski, or 'Slatarski', the Bulgarian nationalist academic, and they chart the boundaries of the Bulgarian imperial lands from the 6th to 14th centuries.

Interestingly, while Zlatarski's maps were intended by their author to support Bulgaria's modern claims in Thrace, here Mills and Chrussachi flip the maps to support contemporary Greek claims. In the 'Quelques Conclusions' (Some Conclusions) they explain that while Zlatarski's maps support Bulgaria's overwhelming claim to Northern Thrace (already controlled by Bulgaria), it shows that historically the Bulgarians had only a light footprint in Western and Eastern Thrace. As Zlatarski shows, the Medieval Bulgarians only controlled Western Thrace for only 17 years, during the reign of Czar John Assen II, in the 13th century (the territory was otherwise controlled by Greek entities), while the only major part of Eastern Thrace the Bulgarians ever controlled was Adrianople, which was held only during the same brief period. While Zlatarksi argued that the Bulgarians brief rule over these areas supported their modern claims, Mills and Chrussachi argue, more convincingly, that the transient nature the Bulgarian presence is far less potent than the longtime Greek presence.

The second part of the work, Ethnological Maps, benefits from the fact that since the 1840s, the demography of the Balkans, including Thrace, was a great preoccupation of many of Europe's leading geographers and cartographers. Here Mills and Chrussachi reproduce all of the seminal ethnographic maps of Thrace (Plates 9 to 16), including those by Ami Boué *(1847)*, Lejean (1861), Mackenzie & Irby (1867), Elisé Reclus (1876), Kiepert (1876), Synvet (1877) and Cvijic (1913), and a map composed by a team of Bulgarian Professors (1912).

Generally, speaking, the maps show ethnic Bulgarians to be overwhelmingly dominant in the no longer disputed Northern Thrace, while ethnic Greeks represented the majority in Eastern Thrace and were the dominant in many strategically important areas of Western Thrace near the Aegean Sea (although ethnic Turks were the largest single ethnic group in the region overall), with there were many significant Bulgarian pockets. Additionally, Plate 17 features four maps charting modern Bulgaria's evolving boundaries from 1876 to 1913. Plate 18 shows Greece's claims to the bulk of Western and Eastern Thrace, as proposed at the recent Neuilly Conference, with alternative Greek-Bulgarian boundary lines.

In Mills and Chrussachi's detailed 'Résumé Ethnologique' (Ethnological Summary), they argue that both the medieval and modern day evidence supports the awarding of the bulk of Western and Eastern Thrace to Greece, as the Bulgarian presence is more limited, while the Turks presence, while strong, is assumed the be negated by the expected dissolution of the Ottoman Empire due to its loss during the Great War (this latter assumption would prove presumptuous!).

The cartographic evidence is further supported on the final page., 'Annexe. Tableaux Statistiques' (Annex, Statistical Tables), which features population statistics for Western and Eastern Thrace, provided from both the 1894 and 1912 censuses. The 1894 Census shows that both Western and Eastern Thrace combined were home to 304,537 Greeks; 265,359 Muslims (mainly ethnic Turks); and 72,758 Bulgarians. Concerning Western Thrace alone, the census counted roughly 42,000 Greeks; 61,000 Muslims; and 20,000 Bulgarians. The 1912 Census shows that Western and Eastern Thrace combined were home to 393,515 Greeks; 344,01212 Muslims; and 67,843 Bulgarians; while Western Thrace alone had around 37,000 Greeks; 96,000 Muslims; and 26,000 Bulgarians.

A Note on Editions and Rarity

The present work was produced in 2 editions, the first was in Mills and Chrussachi's original English language text under the title *The Thrace Question, Greeks, Bulgars and Turks*. The present example is of the second edition, in the French language noted as having been 'trad. de l'anglais', which appeared immediately on the heels of the first edition. As French was still the main diplomatic language of Europe, this issue was necessary to reach an audience outside of Britain.

Both editions of the atlas were issued in only small print runs, intended only for a rarified audience of senior politicians, diplomats and academics; the work probably never had much of a commercial footprint. Moreover, the atlas is of a fragile nature and its survival rate would have been quite low.

We can trace about a dozen examples of the present edition in institutional collections, with the English language edition being likewise rare.

Importantly, the atlas is very rare on the market; we cannot trace any sales records for either of the editions.

Epilogue

At the Treaty of Sèvres (August 10, 1920), the Allies completed their intended plan for Thrace, awarding the great majority of Eastern Trace to Greece, including all the territory just inland from the Sea of Marmara and to the west of the Çatalca Line, just beyond Istanbul (the remaining parts of Eastern Thrace were to be placed under the control of the League of Nations administered 'Zone of the Straits'). Beyond that, the Treaty of Sèvres awarded Ionia in Anatolia (the region around Smyrna/Izmir) to Greece, while making much of the rest of Turkey into various Entente Zones of influence, in addition to lands designated for an envisaged Armenian state.

However, events in Thrace and Anatolia did not turn out as the Entente Powers and Greece had hoped or expected. As the Neuilly resolutions were being contemplated, the Turkish leader Mustafa Kemal '*Atatürk*' was building a movement which during the Turkish War of Independence (1919-23) drove the Entente Powers and Greece out of Anatolia and forced them to withdraw from Eastern Thrace. The definitive Treaty of Lausanne (July 24, 1923), gave the new Republic of Turkey possession of all of Eastern Thrace, while Greece retained Western Thrace.

Yet, many in Bulgaria resented the Lausanne protocols and longed for the 'return' of their country's Aegean coastline. During World War II, Bulgaria sided with Germany, which invaded Greece in 1941. The Nazis gave Western Trace to Bulgaria, which occupied the territory for the next three years, until the Greece's liberation. In the postwar period, Greece retained Western Thrace, and this remains the state of play up to the present day. Today, the international boundaries which divide Thrace are accepted by all key parties, although low-grade tensions surrounding minority rights persist in some quarters.

References: Library of Congress: D651.T5 M64; OCLC: 714957693, 858595284 and 57445736.

750 EUR

8. Cameroon and Togo



Max MOISEL (1869 - 1920). / Paul SPRIGADE (1863 - 1928).

Kamerun mit Togo 1:2 000 000. Bearbeitet von Max Moisel.

Berlin: Dietrich Reimer (Ernst Vohsen), 1913.

Colour print, dissected into 20 sections and mounted upon original linen, original pastedown printed title and advertisement panels to verso (Very Good, clean and bright, just some repairs to some clean splits of linen backing along folds), 87.5 x 66 cm (34.5 x 26 inches).

The first printing of the first integrated map of Cameroon predicated upon systematic scientific surveys, showcasing 'Grand Kamerun', the massive German colonial entity that existed only between 1911 and 1916 and which embraced not only all of modern Cameroon but also parts of what are today Nigeria, Gabon, the Central African Republic, Chad and the Republic of Congo; created by Max Moisel, Germany's chief colonial cartographer, and published in Berlin shortly before World War I's 'Kamerun Campaign', whereupon Entente forces gradually conquered the colony; plus, important cartographic insets, including Paul Sprigade's map of Togo – very rare on the market.

This highly important work is the first printing of the first integrated map of Cameroon (German: *Kamerun*) to be predicated upon advanced systematic trigonometric surveys. It was drafted by Max Moisel, the chief official cartographer for Germany's colonies; Cameroon had the distinction of being the only colony that Moisel personally visited to oversee the surveying operations. Interestingly, the map shows Cameroon in its most expansive historical form, when it was known as 'Grand Kamerun'. The colony maintained its super-size only between 1911 and 1916 (when Cameron constituted not just

all of modern Cameroon, but parts of today's Nigeria, Chad, Central African Republic, and Gabon). The map, issued in Berlin in 1913, appeared on the eve of World War I, such that it served as the basis for the cartography used by both sides during the conflict's 'Kamerun Campaign' (1914-16), when Britain, France and Belgium struggled to conquer the colony from the German *Schutztruppe.*

The map embraces all of Grand Kamerun in its immensity, including the newly acquired territories in the east and south, called 'Neukamerun', whereupon the colony is shown to extend to the Ubangi and Congo Rivers, and down to reach around the Spanish colony of Río Muni (today mainland Equatorial Guinea).

Topographical relief is shown by shading, with heights rising up to above 4000 metres (Mount Cameroon, the country's highest peak is 4,070 metres high), while every river, lake and swamp is clearly detailed. The names of the country's indigenous tribes are labelled upon their respective territories, while the country is divided into 28 administrative districts, which are identified by numbers in the legend in the lower margin.

The 'Erklärungen' (Explanations), below the title in the upper right, identifies the symbols used to interpret the vast wealth of information showcased upon the map, including: the colour coding employed to describe the colonial territories of the different European powers; railways (both completed and under construction); main roads and trails; in the seas, the shipping lines run by different named companies, as well as submarine cables; the limits of navigation on rivers (shown with an anchor); telegraph lines; post offices; telegraph offices; wireless stations; customs posts; international and district boundaries; administrative headquarters (underlined); and military outposts (underlined with intermittent lines).

Special attention should be given to Duala (Douala), the country's largest city and main port, and Jaunde (Yaoundé), which became the colonial capital in 1909. Also remarkable are the two main railways, which played a leading role in Cameroon's economy, being the Northern Railway (*Nordbahn*), which ran from near Douala up to the agriculturally-rich highlands in the northwest; and the Central Railway (*Mittelbahn*), which ran from Douala into the interior, towards the heart of the country.

Also, of note are the land concessions of the South Cameroon Company, the 'Konzessionsgebiet Gesellschaft Süd-Kamerun', a major chartered land-plantation enterprize, which appears as two large parcels of territory outlined in yellow in the colony's southeast.

Importantly, the present map is the first printing of the first integrated map of Cameroon predicated upon systematic scientific surveys; by 'integrated' we mean a map as single piece, or on a single view. The present map was distilled from Moisel's *Karte von Kamerun* (Berlin: Dietrich Remer, 1910-11), composed of 31 separately issued sheets done to a very large scale of 1:300,000. This amazing, yet unwieldly, map is seldom ever found complete, and cannot realistically provide a perspective over the entire colony in a single view. Thus, the present work is the first practically consultable map of all of Cameroon.

The present map includes a number on insets, the most important of which is the map of *Togo*, in the upper left corner, a fine, detailed map of Germany's other West African colony, drafted by Moisel's longtime colleague Paul Sprigade. To the left of the Togo map is an inset detailing eastern Nigeria and Cameroon borderlands, while below that is an *Übersichtkarte* (overview map) of Cameroon within its greater regional geographic context. In the bottom centre is an inset featuring the marine/river transport routes up the Congo River to reach Grand Kamerun's southeastern panhandle.

While the map's coverage of the traditional core of Kamerum is predicated upon systematic trigonometric surveys, of which Moisel, in part, personally supervised, the charting of Neu Kamerun, the territories in the east ceded to Germany in 1911, are taken from the best French scientific surveys.

Moisel's mapping remained the 'gold standard' for the cartography of Cameroon for many years. During World War I, it was used by all sides, with the British, French and Belgian militaries publishing their own versions of Moisel's map. In the postwar period, Moisel's mapping formed the basis for the official cartography of both the British and French Cameroon mandates.

Max Moisel and the Cartography of Germany's Colonies

Germany, a country that became unified only in 1871, did not possess any overseas colonies prior to the 1880s. However, Germany possessed about the most technically sophisticated land surveying and map publishing capabilities in the world. Moreover, many Germans, either on their own commercial initiative, or working for foreign governments, had made many of the most important maps of overseas lands of the 18th and 19th Centuries. Indeed, many of the seminal scientific maps of the Middle East, South Africa, Indonesia, Latin America and the United States were made by German cartographers.

In the 1880s, Germany acquired a number of colonies, including German East Africa, German Southwest Africa, Togoland, Cameroon, Eastern New Guinea, and the Caroline Islands; many of these lands were hitherto not well mapped. New surveys needed to be commissioned and the resulting maps edited and published. In the early years of their colonial era, the German State Colonial Office, the *Reichs-Kolonialamt*, had to decide whether to set up its own mapmaking agency (expensive and technically difficult) or to find a more innovative and easier approach.

The firm of Dietrich Reimer (founded in 1845) in Berlin, was one of the world's most esteemed cartographic publishing houses, long associated with Heinrich Kiepert, the foremost modern cartographer of Turkey and the Middle East. Since 1891, the firm was led by Ernst Vohsen, an old Africa hand who was a director of the Deutsch-Ostafrikanische Gesellschaft. Under Vohsen's influence the Reichs-Kolonialamt increasingly turned to the Reimer firm to fulfil its map drafting and publishing commissions.

Enter Max Moisel (1869 - 1920), a cartographer who had joined the Reimer firm in 1888. Moisel was so exceedingly gifted at analysing and editing sources as they arrived from the field, sorting the 'wheat form the chaff', and drafting finished maps, that he brought the firm's colonial mapping up to an entirely new level of excellence. Working closely with his long-time colleague Paul Sprigade (1863 - 1928), he was increasingly given ever more important colonial commissions and in 1895 was made the editor of the *Kleinen Deutschen Kolonialatlas*, a continually updated project to issue pocket atlases of the German colonies. He was also instrumental in the production of the *Karte von Deutche-Ostafriaka*, a monumental survey of the colony, published in a series of 29 sheets (Berlin: Reimer, 1895-7).

In 1899, in good part due to Vohsen's lobbying and Moisel and Sprigade's talent, the Reichs-Kolonialamt decided upon a permanent solution towards the matter of their cartographic needs. They agreed to create the *Kolonial-kartographischen Institut*, that would operate as part of the Reimer firm, working out of their premises and manned by their employees, but would be funded entirely be the Reichs-Kolonialamt. The Institut would be given a monopoly on official cartographic work relating the

German colonies. Moisel was appointed as the as the first director of the Institut, and with this new support and funding achieved great things.

Notably, Moisel and Sprigade published the *Grosser deutscher Kolonialatlas* (1901) and Moisel drafted a number of fine large format maps of individual colonies.

In 1908, Moisel travelled to Cameroon, where he learned first-hand about the countryside and the nature of surveying in African frontier environments. This led to the publication of his grand *Karte von Kamerun*, a massive work on 31 sheets (Berlin: Reimer, 1910-11).

On the eve of the World War I, the Kolonial-kartographischen Institut employed over 60 mapmakers and support staff and played a major role in informing the German military effort in Africa, which in the case of southern Africa theatre was (unlike the general conflict) quite successful. Nevertheless, Germany lost the war and with it all her colonies, so compelling the Institut to close in 1920. Sadly, Moisel died few months later.

Interestingly, Moisel and the Institut's cartography had an enduring legacy, although perhaps not the one that the mapmakers would have intended. While the German maps served as the basis for the cartography adopted by the former German colonies' new masters (often the British), it was the revival of the maps at the beginning of the World War II that was most striking. In 1940, Hitler seriously considered regaining the former German colonies, either through diplomatic means or by force, and he charged the Reichsamts für Landesaufnahme (the German Surveying Office) with issuing revised editions of Moisel and Sprigade's maps (including the present map of Kamerun with Togo), with the implication that these lands were still rightly German territory, illegally occupied by the foreign powers. However, the Third Reich soon became caught up in events in Europe and abandoned the notion.

The Rise of German *Kamerun*

Cameroon (German: *Kamerun*) was a vast and magnificent land populated by people of sophisticated cultures and blessed with abundant natural resources; it is sometimes referred to as "Africa in miniature" for its remarkable ethnic and geographic diversity.

While Europeans had long maintained a transient presence along its coasts, trading in slaves and commodities, it was not until the 1860s that they seriously attempted to colonize the country. Indeed, the damp, equatorial climate of the littoral was hard on the European constitution, while the often mountainous, jungle-covered interior was hard to penetrate. That being said, the country's economic potential was inestimable, for central and southern Cameroon was amazingly fertile, capable of producing all matters of tropical cash crops, while trade links produced ample access to ivory, precious metals and gems.

During the 'Scramble for Africa', many key figures within the emerging unified German state (the German Empire would be formed in 1871), believed that Germany would only become a 'Great Power' if it gained an overseas empire, like Britain and France, while the country's heavily industrialized economy needed access to natural resources.

Cameroon became Germany's first proto-colonial beachhead, when in 1868, the Hamburg firm of C. Woermann established a trading post at the Wori River Delta, near present day Douala (an advertisement for Woermann appears on the pastedown verso panel of the present map!). This venture proved

commercially successful, and in 1874, the Woermann agents Johannes Thormählen and Wilhelm Jantzen formed their own firm, Jantzen & Thormählen. Over the succeeding years, Jantzen & Thormählen and Woermann dramatically expanded their operations, purchasing vast tracts of land from local chiefs and developing massive plantations for bananas, rubber, palm oil, and cocoa, as well as opening shipping routes between Duala and Germany. The conditions were perfect and the endeavours were wildly successful.

However, both Britain and France, which were well established in neighbouring lands, harboured interests in Cameroon, and the German preeminence in the country was far from secure.

A barrier to shoring up German control of Cameroon (an indeed all of its proto-colonial ventures) was Chancellor Otto von Bismarck. He was initially against Germany forming overseas domains, as he feared that would entangle the nation in what he saw as unnecessary and expensive conflicts with both local forces and other European powers, so risking Germany's security. However, in early 1884, the head of the Woermann firm, Adolph Woermann, managed to convince the chancellor of the immense economic potential of Cameroon, causing him to (albeit reluctantly) alter his stance.

That year Bismarck dispatched Gustav Nachtigal (1834 - 1885), a brilliant diplomat and ethnographer, who was the foremost exponent of German colonialism, to Cameroon to secure it a German "Protectorate". Nachtigal, aboard the gunship *SMS Möwe*, first travelled to Togo, to bring it under the German umbrella, before arriving at Douala on July 14, 1884, whereupon he compelled the local chiefs into agreeing to place Cameroon under German 'protection'. Nachtigal then continued on to what it today Namibia, securing it for Germany.

Due to Nachtingal's actions, at the Berlin Conference (1884-5), whereupon most of Africa was divided between the various European powers, Cameroon was awarded to Germany.

However, two great factors hindered Cameroon development. First, while the areas near the coast were well known to Europeans and were relatively well mapped, the country's vast interior was largely an enigma, while Cameroon's borders with the neighbouring French and British colonies were largely undefined. Penetrating and mapping the interior would be a long difficult process.

Second, while Bismarck reluctantly agreed to allow Cameroon (and other lands) to become German protectorates, he was staunchly opposed to making them into full-blown crown colonies, which would have entailed costly, vast bureaucracies and permanent military establishments, as was the case in most of the British and French overseas domains. Thus, Cameroon was to be run by private trading firms and chartered land companies, whose responsibility it was to pay for the country's governance and infrastructure, as well as the costs for relatively small corps of 'Schutztruppe' (Protection Forces), who were to defend the realm and preserve internal order. In Bismarck's opinion, Germans in Africa to be "first the merchant, then the soldier", meaning that their primary role would be to trade, with force used only if commerce was threatened.

While the German protectorate regimes in Deutsch-Ostafrika (Tanzania) and *Deutsch-Südwestafrika* (Namibia) were to have severe problems in managing their relations with the local peoples, resulting in long and costly wars (as well as horrific human rights abuses), it helped mightily that the German regimes in Cameroon and Togoland had dealings with the local peoples that, while exploitative and not exactly warm, rarely broke out into open acrimony.

The economy of Cameroon continued to be dominated by the established trading companies, whose operations tended to be based within a certain proximity of the coast. Yet, towards the end of the century, the colonial governor Jesko von Puttkamer, authorized the formation of charted companies to specifically develop the interior, which had immense latent potential. In 1898, the *Gesellschaft Süd-Kamerun* (*South Cameroon Company*) was formed to exploit rubber and ivory in the Lomie and Jukaduma districts. In 1899, *Gesellschaft Nordwest-Kamerun* (Northwest Cameroon Company) was established to develop the highland areas in the Bamum and Bamikele regions.

By the turn of the century, it became clear that vast investment in Cameroon's infrastructure would be necessarily if the colony was to ever reach its economic potential, a mandate that could only be carried out with the assistance of the German crown. This led to a much greater direct involvement by Berlin in Cameroon's affairs than the late Bismarck had envisaged, such that Cameroon started to be become a colony in the conventional sense, as opposed to a corporate protectorate. The German state dispatched dozens of military engineers to the country to construct vast networks of telegraph lines, and to build and improve roads and ports; while government subsidized shipping lines connected the Cameroon the mother country.

The construction of railways promised to dramatically increase Cameroon's exports. The first line was completed in 1902 by a small private concern between Soppo, near Buea, at the foot of Mount Cameroon, to the port of Limbe (formerly Victoria), with a total length of 43 km.

The *Kamerun-Eisenbahn-Gesellschaft* (Cameroon Railway Corporation), a private concern that was partially subsidized by the crown, was formed in 1906 to build major lines across the country. Its first major achievement was to build the *Nordbahn* (Northern Railway) from Bonabéri (opposite Douala on the Wouri estuary) to Nkongsamba in the northwestern Cameroon highlands, constructed from 1906 to 1911, it totaled 160 km in length.

The *Mittellandbahn* (Central Railway) was built from Douala eastwards, reaching Eséka, southeast of Jaunde (Yaoundé), by the outbreak of World War I in 1914.

The development of plantations, railways, roads and telegraph networks were a major catalyst for cartography in Cameroon and may of the key corridors of transport and settlement were soon well mapped. However, the quality and coverage of the mapping of the country overall was uneven, and even as late as 1905, much of the interior was entirely uncharted. The *Kolonial-kartographischen Institut*, the special cartographic bureau of the German Colonial Office, authorized an advanced systematic trigonometric survey of all of Cameroon, a massive project that involved dozens of skilled engineers and hundreds of local assistants. The endeavour was so important that Max Moisel, the head of the Institut, traveled to Cameroon in 1908 to personally oversee the mapping. The surveys were completed in 1910 and the result was published as the colossal 31-sheet *Karte von Kamerun* (Berlin, 1911), a key source for the present work.

Kamerun + Neu Kamerun = Grand Kamerun

Cameroon eventually became a focus of geopolitics. In 1904, France and Britain buried centuries of rivalry, signing the Entente Cordiale. They were primary motivated by the threat of Germany, which had been rapidly expanding its military and was increasingly engaged in provocative behaviour towards London and Paris.

France was in the process of transforming most of Morocco into a protectorate and, beginning 1905, Germany started to interfere in Moroccan affairs in an attempt to gain leverage over France so as to gain concessions elsewhere. Matters came to a head during the Agadir Crisis (April-November 1911), when

Germany threatened to take military action in Morocco, supporting the country's sultan, in his bid to ward off French colonial domination. Under German pressure, France blinked. France agreed to cede vast territories in Central Africa to Germany in return for Berlin allowing France to essentially take over most of Morocco (an arrangement ratified aby the Treaty of Fes, March 30, 1912).

Cameroon's governor, Otto Geim, believed that the colony's development was severely hindered by the lack of access to the interior, a problem that the building of railroads could only partially remedy. He reasoned that the colony needed access to the great partly navigable interior rivers, the Congo and Ubangi, that ran though French and Belgian territory to the east and south of Cameroon. Gleim managed to convince the German foreign minister, Alfred von Kiderlen-Waechter, to compel France to cede massive territories to Cameroon's east and south, as Germany' price for permitting the Treaty of Fes.

Under the Franco-German agreement, made in late 1911, France ceded 295,000 km² of land from its colony of French Equatorial Africa (French: *Afrique-Équatoriale française*, or the AEF), being parts of today's Chad, Central African Republic, the Republic of Congo and Gabon) to Germany, which was added to Cameroon to form 'Grand Kamerun', which ahd total areas of 760,000 km² (as opposed to old Kamerun's 465,000 km²). The new territories were called 'Neukamerun', and it gave Cameroon a port on the Ubangi River at Singa and another on the Congo River at Bonga, while the colony now wrapped around the Spanish domain of Río Muni to have additional seacoast at Ukoko. Some of the more ambitious German Africa hands even hoped that the acquisition of Neukamerrun would be a prelude to annexing the Belgian Congo (which had a direct border with Grand Kamerun), reasoning that as such a large colony (the Belgian Congo) was too big for such small country (Belgium), so creating a huge trans-African German realm that would extend from Douala to Dar-es-Salaam (in Deutsch-Ostafrika).

On the other hand, as part of the 1911 deal, Germany ceded to France only a relatively small triangle of land, in the far northeast of Cameroon, in order to give the key French outpost of Fort Lamy (N'Djamena) increased hinterland.

The Grand Kamerun arrangement proved to be unpopular with everyone (except perhaps Governor Geim and some colonial diehards). In France, people were outraged by their government's weakness under Teutonic pressure, surrendering so much territory (and severing the territorial integrity of the AEF). In Germany, the 'hawks', believing that Berlin had Paris 'over a barrel' in Morocco were angered that Kiderlen-Waechter 'squandered' so much diplomatic capital on a what they considered to be a worthless expanse of malarial swamp and jungle; to them the notion of using it as a bridge to take over the Belgian Congo only meant gaining even more malarial swamp and jungle! In the lead up to World War I, the Grand Kamerun settlement only encouraged France to avenge its honour lost at Agadir, while German war mongers only smelled Entente weakness, causing them to dream of even bigger concessions.

WWI's 'Kamerun Campaign' and the Fall of Grand Kamerun

Upon the commencement of World War I, Britain and France were eager to invade and conquer Germany's African colonies. On the other hand, the governments of the German African protectorates in (including Kamerun), knowing that they were severely outgunned, attempted to have their colonies remain neutral, while the powers duked it out in Europe. However, Britain and France would hear none of it.

In what became known as the Kamerun Campaign (August 6, 1914 to March 10, 1916), Britain invaded Kamerun from Nigeria, France moved in from Gabon and Chad, while the Belgians provided support from the Congo. At the beginning of hostilities, France had forces in the region numbering over 20,000 troops; the British could muster 7,000 men; while the Germans could barely gather even 1,800 Schutztruppe to defend their massive colony. On paper, the campaign should have been short work for the Entente, yet the Germans put up a much tougher than expected resistance.

Carl Heinrich Zimmermann, the commander of the Schutztruppe, decided upon a defensive strategy, whereby he would allow the Entente forces to take most of the country, while his men held on to certain key fortresses. He hoped that this would deplete the enemy and wear down their morale, so negating their inherent advantages, and eventually forcing them to withdraw. The Germans were soon able to raise their numbers to 6,000 troops, upon the recruitment of indigenous fighters. On the other side, the British command tended to be over-confident, seriously underestimating the German resistance, while the French and Belgians were mainly tasked with securing large expanses of undefended territory.

A British force, under Brigadier General Frederick Hugh Cunliffe, attempted to take the German fortress of Mora, in the far north of Cameroon, but failed to breach its defenses, resulting in the lengthy Siege of Mora (August 26, 1914 to February 18, 1916). This distracted and taxed British operations for the remainder of the campaign.

Sensing British weakness, the Germans went on the offensive, attacking the British at the Battle of Nsanakong (September 6, 1914); the British force was decimated, with the remaining troops limping back to Nigeria.

Next, the Germans mauled the British at the First Battle of Garua (August 29-31, 1914), to the south of Mora.

While the British invasion of the northern interior of Cameroon was a disaster, the situation along the coast was quite different. While the Germans had mined Doula's harbour, the British and French navy bombarded the city, such that the German garrison surrendered on September 27, 1914. Meanwhile, French troops took the south coast, following the Battle of Ukoko (September 21, 1914).

In the new year, the Germans held firm in their northern fortresses and the colonial capital of Jaunde (Yaoundé). Emboldened, a German force even mounted a daring, albeit unsuccessful, raid into Nigeria, at the Battle of Gurin (April 29, 1915). However, towards mid-year, the British stated to gain traction, winning the Second Battle of Garua (May 31 to June 10, 1915) while a combined Entente force was victorious at the Battle of Ngaundere (June 29, 1915), in central Cameroon. However, General Cunliffe's planned attack upon Jaunde had to be called off due to heavy rains. Yet, the British managed to take a key German fort at the Battle of Banjo (November 4-6, 1915).

By the end of 1915, French and Belgian forces had taken practically all of Neukamerun, while the British were preparing an assault upon Jaunde. The Entente powers smelled victory and in February 1916 they agreed upon the Picot Provisional Partition Line, whereby Cameroon would be partitioned by Britain and France. Zimmerman realized that the 'gig was up', Mora surrendered on February 18, and all the remaining German troops and civilians fled Cameroon to the neutral Spanish colony of Río Muni, where they were well treated, and allowed to return to Germany as free men, via the neutral Netherlands.

The Versailles Conference (1919), which ordained the post-World War I settlement, confiscated Kamerun from Germany, and largely followed the conditions of the Picot Provisional Partition Line. Neukamerun was returned to French sovereignty, once again becoming part of French Equatorial Africa. A sliver of west-northwestern Cameroon, hugging the Nigerian border, running from Buea and Mount Cameroon and then diagonally into the interior, was placed under British rule as a League of Nations mandate, called 'British Cameroons' (which was subdivided into the Southern Cameroons and Northern

Cameroons sections). The remaining bulk of the country became ‘Cameroun’, a French-ruled League of Nations mandate.

Interestingly, in 1940, early in World War II, Hitler seriously considered regaining Germany’s former colonies (including Kamerun), either through diplomatic means or by force. However, Germany’s failure during the Battle of Britain, as well as other pressing matters, caused the notion to be dropped.

Cameroun became an independent nation in 1960, with the South Cameroons part of British Cameroon joining the country in 1961 (Northern Cameroons became part of an independent Nigeria, hitherto called the Sardauna Province).

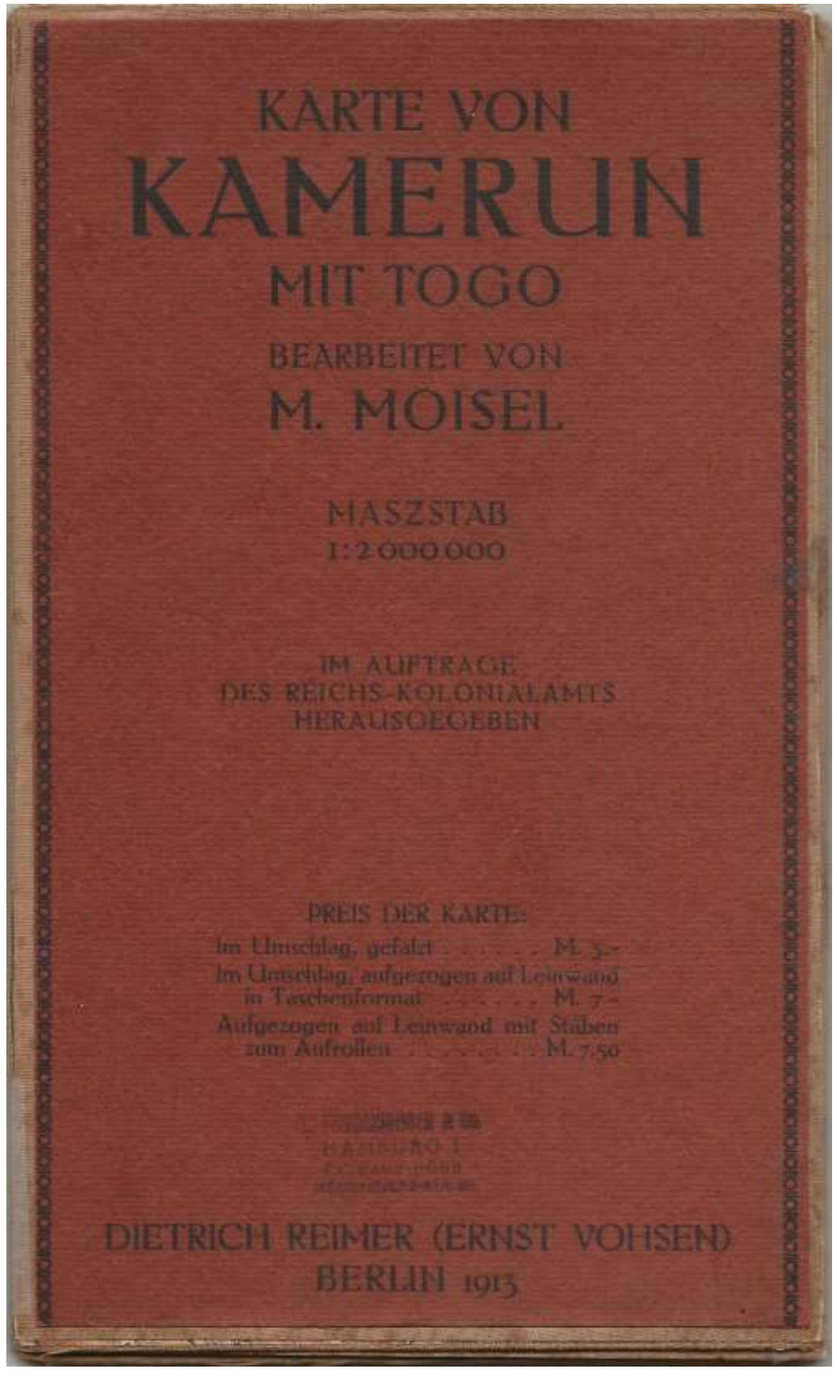
A Note on Rarity

While there seem to be about two dozen or so examples of the present edition of Moisel’s *Kamerun mit Togo* in institutional examples, most of the holding libraries seem to have acquired their examples shortly after the map was issued, perhaps as general subscriber to Dietrich Reimer’s publications.

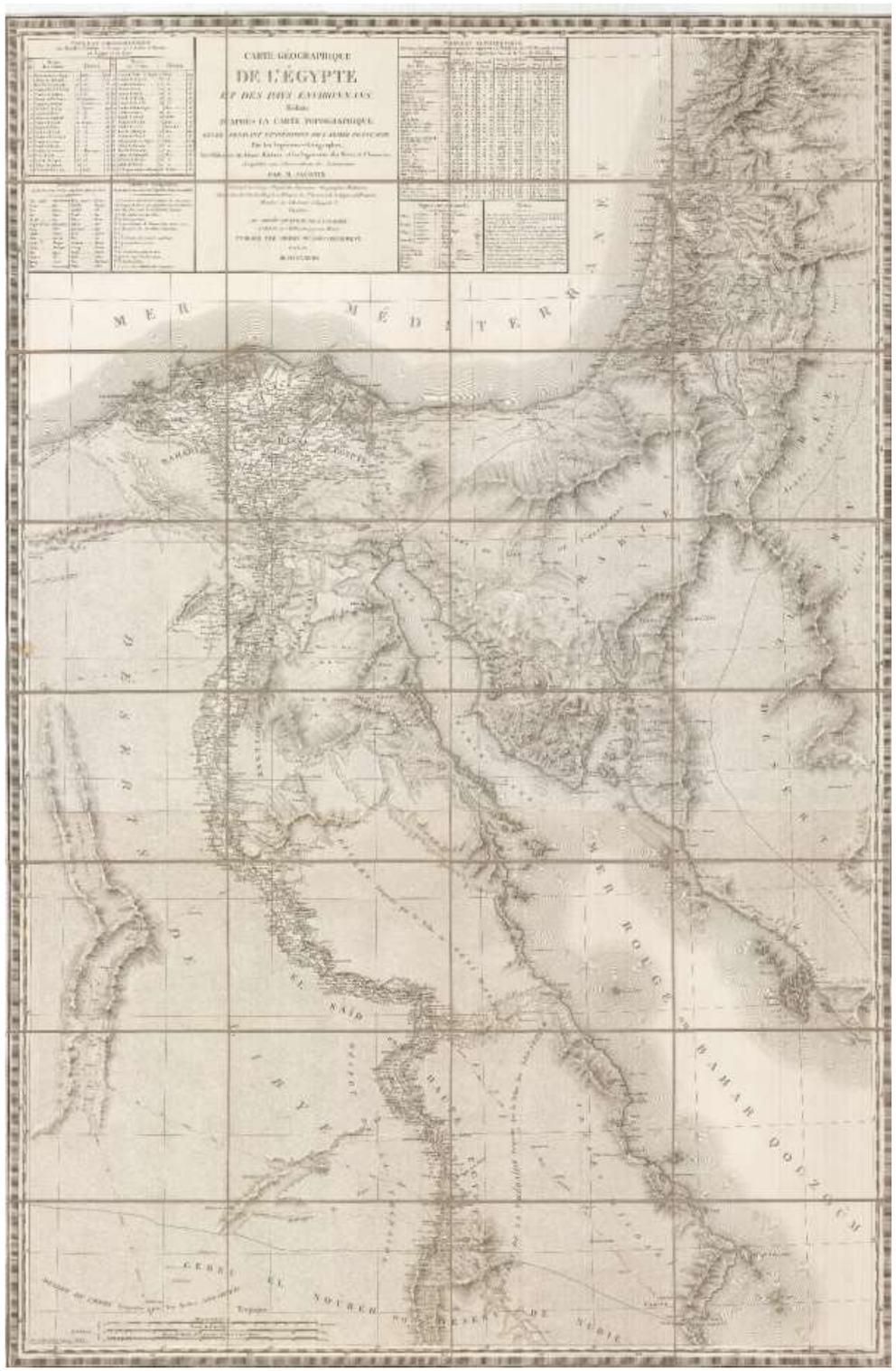
The map is, however, very rare on the market; the only sales record we can trace is from a 2004 German auction.

References: Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin: Kart. C 13403/15/1; Bayerische Staatsbibliothek: Mapp. XX,76 du; British Library: Cartographic Items Maps.2017.d.497.; Bibliothèque nationale de France, département Cartes et plans, GE C-4369; OCLC: 164570686, 248561394.

1.500 EUR



9. Egypt / Israel / Palestine
Jordan / Lebanon / Syria
Archaeology



Pierre JACOTIN (1765 - 1827) .

Carte topographique de l'Egypte et de plusieurs parties des pays limitrophes, levée pendant l'expédition de l'armée française, par les ingénieurs-géographes, les officiers du génie militaire, et les ingénieurs des ponts et chaussées, assujettie aux observations des astronomes, construite par M. Jacotin, colonel, au corps royal des ingénieurs-géographes militaires, gravée au dépôt général de la guerre, à l'échelle de 1 millimètre pour 100 mètres.

Paris: Dépôt Général de la Guerre, 1818.

Copper engraving, dissected into 32 sections and mounted upon original linen, with contemporary map seller's blindstamp of 'Ch. Picquet à Paris' in upper left quadrant and contemporary seller's pastedown label of 'Artaria' of Vienna to verso; housed in contemporary marbled card slipcase with bright red card spine with gilt title and tooling (Very Good, clean and crisp, just a very small stain on far left side, slipcase with minor shelf-wear), 126.5 x 83.5 cm (50 x 33 inches).

An absolutely stellar example of the first broadly accurate map of Egypt and Palestine, predicated upon advanced trigonometric surveys undertaken by the cartographer Pierre Jacotin on the orders of Napoleon Bonaparte during the French occupation of Egypt, considered to be one of the great achievements of Enlightenment science.

This is an unusually fine example of the first broadly accurate map of Egypt and Palestine, being the result of a grand Enlightenment project to scientifically map the region overseen by the cartographer Colonel Pierre Jacotin, on the orders of Napoleon Bonaparte, during the French occupation of Egypt. Jacotin's mapping proved to be one of the most influential cartographic works of the modern era, guiding and inspiring travellers, soldiers, archaeologists and adventurers for generations.

The beautifully engraved map embraces the Nile Valley from just above Aswan all the way down to the Delta on the Mediterranean, and the runs up to beyond Beirut and Damascus in the Levant, and then east to the outer reaches of the Arabian Desert. The mapping of the Nile Valley and Delta, and the Mediterranean coast is extremely dense and accurate, labelling all cities and towns of note, as well as innumerable archaeological sites, while delineating the major roads. By contrast, the charting of the desert regions beyond the coast and the major river valleys and caravan routes, is relatively sparing, as Jacotin was only able to survey the populated, or frequented areas.

The map is an extremely valuable record, as it reveals the true locations of many of the most famous wonders of the ancient world for the first time. The 'Signes conventionels' table, located below the title, explains the numerous symbols used to identify, all manner of manmade features, including pyramids, ruins, forts, windmills, bridges, as well as all kinds of topographic aspects. Also, located at the top of the composition, is chart providing the geodetic coordinates for numerous locations taken by astronomical observations, as well as a chart translating key Arabic geographical terms into French, along with a guide to pronunciation.

While the present map is not particularly rare, as many examples were issued due to high demand, the present offering is a maquis example, dissected and mounted upon fine dark linen, bearing the pastedown seller's label of the respected house of 'Artaria' of Vienna, and housed within a fine decorative slipcase.



Egyptianisme and Colonel Jacotin's *Grand Projet*

While the French Egyptian Campaign (1798-1801) was ultimately a military disaster and tragedy for many of the region's people, the invasion resulted in some truly momentous scientific and social achievements. Fascinated by the wonders of Ancient Egypt, Napoleon Bonaparte deployed some of France's brightest scientists, artists and archaeologists to the country to conduct an extremely well-financed survey of Egypt's culture, history, geography, and natural attributes, seeking to gain a panoptic view of a land that had always captured the European imagination, but nevertheless largely remained an enigma.

Of particular note, Dominque Vivant Denon, the future head of the Louvre, surveyed many of the country's great archaeological sites, while 2,400 scholars, artists and printers worked for years on the *Description de l'Égypte*, a colossal encyclopaedia of the country that featured 894 elephant folio plates, published in parts between 1809 and 1829. In the first decades of the 19th century, *Egyptianisme* became all the rage, with motifs of the ancient Nile influencing fashion, architecture and furniture design all over Europe.

Going hand in hand with the *Description*, Napoleon commissioned the military cartographer Pierre Jacotin (1765–1827) to map all of Egypt and ultimately much of Palestine (which the French briefly invaded) in a systematic manner, employing advanced trigonometric surveys, in a project called the 'Carte de l'Égypte'. This was an awesome undertaking, especially as Egypt had never before been

mapped with any degree of accuracy. Moreover, the territory was immense, the climate was often harsh, many of the locals were less that welcoming, and diseases stalked the country. The work was so grueling and ambitious that it was nearly a miracle that in only two years (1799 – 1800) Jacotin's teams managed to survey the entire Nile from just above Aswan down to the Mediterranean, along with much of the coastal areas up through Palestine.

It was originally intended that Jacotin's 'Carte de l'Égypte' would be published in short order; however, in 1808, before any aspects of the survey could be engraved, Napoleon ordered that the maps be classified 'top secret' and barred from publication. The French emperor was then seeking to form an alliance with the Ottoman Empire, which nominally ruled Egypt, and it was thought that the dissemination of the surveys might offend the Sublime Porte.

It was only after the Napoleonic Wars (1802-15) that the new French Royalist regime permitted the publication of Jacotin's work. The resulting *Carte topographique de l'Egypte* was issued in two forms. In an ultra large form, Jacotin's survey was to be printed to a grand scale of 1:100,000, on 47 folio sheets, bound as an atlas. The same survey was also the be reduced to a scale of 1:1,000,000, to show all of Egypt and Palestine in a single view, being the present map. To be clear the present, reduced version of the survey was published both separately (as here), as well as being included in the atlas, as an overview map.

For a fascinating experience, view the atlas version of the *Carte topographique de l'Egypte*, courtesy of the David Rumsey Map Collection:

https://www.davidrumsey.com/luna/servlet/view/search?search=SUBMIT&cat=0&q=carte+egypte+jacotin&dateRangeStart=&dateRangeEnd=&sort=Pub_List_No_InitialSort%2CPub_Date%2CPub_List_No%2CSeries_No&QuickSearchA=QuickSearchA

Jacotin's work had an enduring legacy, in that his maps served as the 'gold standard' for the cartography of Egypt and western Palestine for generations, acting as vital guides for businessmen, tourists, military expeditions and archaeological discovery.

Consequentially, Jacotin's marking of the 'Vestiges du Canal' refering to the ancient canals that crossed the Suez Isthmus and connected the Nile to the Gulf of Suez, in part inspired Ferdinand de Lesseps to build the modern Suez Canal in 1858-1869. Indeed, the *Carte topographique de l'Egypte* would not be fully superseded until the Anglo-Egyptian regime re-surveyed the entire country from the 1880s.

References: Bibliothèque nationale de France, département Cartes et plans, GE C-11298;

David Rumsey Map Collection: 3964.005. Cf. Hisham KHATIB, *Palestine* and *Egypt Under* the *Ottomans*: *Paintings, Books, Photographs, Maps* and *Manuscripts* (New York: I.B. Tauris, 2003).

1.800 EUR



10. Java, Indonesia
Colossal Map
Jakarta Imprint

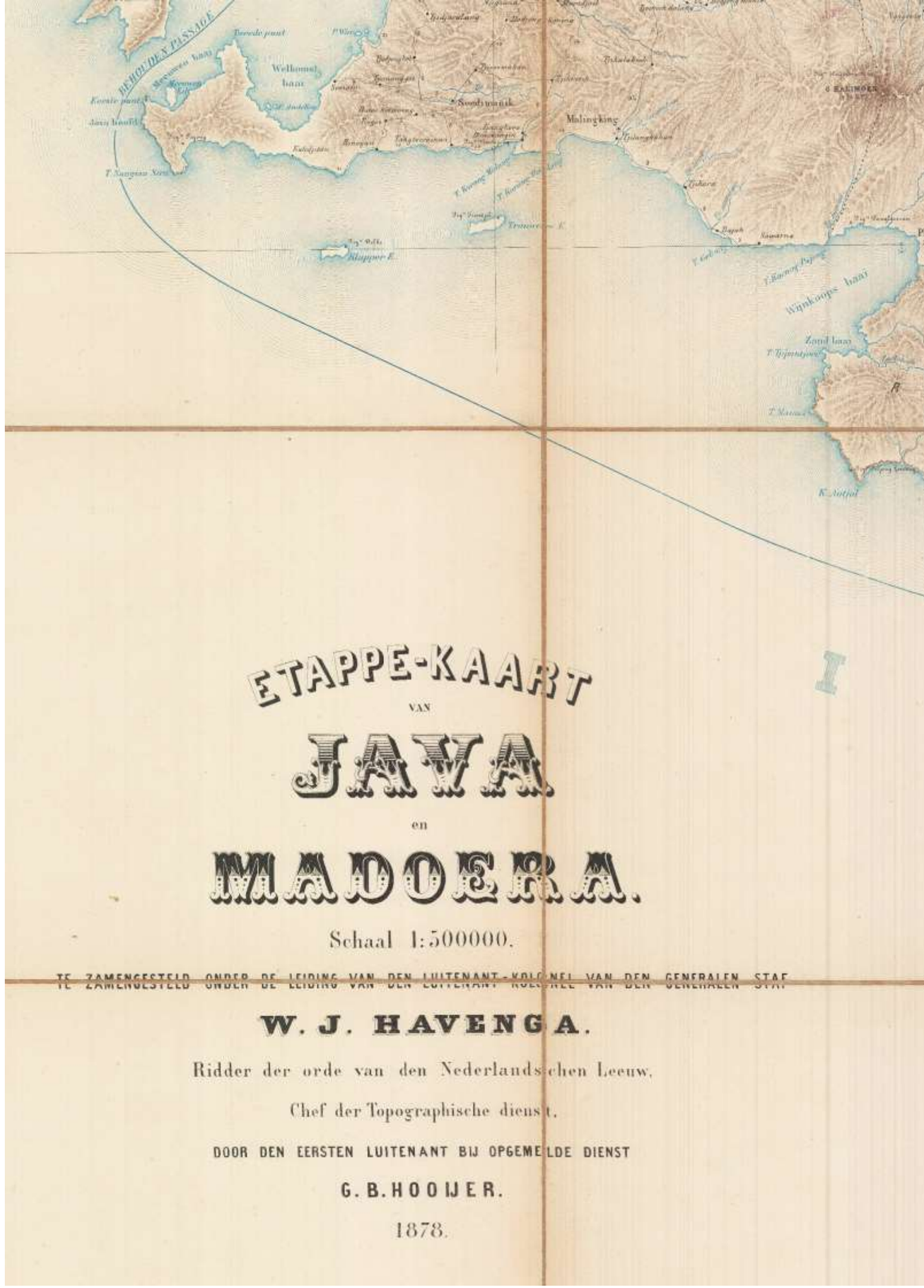
Gijsbert Brandt HOOIJER (1848 - 1834).

Etappe-Kaart van Java en Madoera. Schaal 1:500000. Te zamengesteld onder de leiding van den Luitenant-Kolonel van den Generalen Staf W.J. Havenga. Ridder der orde van den Nederlandschen Leeuw. Chef der Topograpische Dienst, door den Eersten Luitenant bij opgemelde dienst G. B. Hooijer.

[Batavia (Jakarta): Topographische Dienst], 1878.

Lithograph in colours, in 4 adjoining sheets each dissected into 8 sections and mounted upon original linen, with neat contemporary manuscript annotations in red pen and itineraries traced in pencil, housed in modern crimson cloth and card slipcase (Very Good, a couple barely noticeable red ink stains, light toning to panels along folds but overall clean and bright, some foxing to linen backing not affecting the map), each section: 83 x 61 cm (32.5 x 24 inches), if joined would measure approximately 83 x 230 cm (32.5 x 90 inches).

A colossal transportation and military map of Java and Madura predicated upon the most recent scientific surveys, certainly the era's largest and finest work of its kind, drafted by the prominent soldier and author Gijsbert Brandt Hooijer, beautifully colour lithographed by the colonial topographical service in Batavia (Jakarta) – a stellar example with contemporary manuscript additions tracing a lengthy itinerary - Rare.





This is a gargantuan and beautifully designed transportation map of Java and Madura, drafted by then Lieutenant Gijsbert Brandt Hooijer, a Dutch army officer who subsequently became a well-known author on the affairs of the Dutch East Indies. The map was published in very high-quality colour lithography by the Topographische Dienst (Topographical Service) in Batavia (Jakarta), which by this time possessed one of the most technologically advanced presses in Asia.

Titled as an 'Etappe-Kaart', which roughly translates into 'itinerary map', the map showcases the transportation system in Java and Madura in immense detail, predicated upon the most recent official information. The 'Verklarung' (Explanation), in the lower-left centre, identifies the numerous symbols used throughout the map. Java's extreme landscape, with its numerous volcanic peaks, is captured in grand scale by fine hachures, while the coasts, rivers and swamplands an are all precisely charted in bright blue. Across the island, which is divided into 'Residentie' (roughly meaning 'districts' or 'counties'), run post roads (marking the locations of post offices), secondary routes and trails; impressively the map provides the kilometric distances between every single village and junction along every route. Additionally, Dutch colonial administrative centres of varying levels are noted, as are military outposts and rest stops where travelling soldiers could spend the night. The map also charts the locations of harbours and anchorages, as well as the routes of the steamship lines connecting the main ports. The Verklarung also translates the acronyms used to express Bahasa geographical terms, translating them into Dutch.

The map is also one of first great overviews of Java's incipient railway system that was being built in stages by the *Nederlandsch-Indische Spoorweg Maatschappij* ('NIS', Dutch East Indies Railway Company). The Dutch East Indies became only the second country in Asia (after India) to have a railway, when a short line between Semarang and Kemijen was opened in 1864. Of special note, the map shows the important line between Batavia and Buitenzorg (today Bogor), in the mountains to the south, that opened in 1873, so connecting the official colonial capital to the governor's country residence and alternate administrative centre. Meanwhile, as the map shows, the NIS was in the process of extending the lines in central Java, between Semarang, Surakarta and Yogyakarta. The map predates the great Javanese railway boom of the 1880s and '90s.

Interestingly, in the upper centre of the composition, is an inset map showcasing Java's telegraph system, noting stations of various levels of importance, as well as international and local lines. In the upper right corner, is a table marking the distances between 22 locations across the island.

The present work is by far and away the era's finest and most detailed travel map of Java and and one of the most impressive maps to had been published in what is today Indonesia during the 19th century. The map was primarily made for the use of Dutch army officers and civil servants who had cause to frequently travel the island. Moreover, the map would also have been employed by businessmen and commodity traders. While Java was hauntingly beautiful and culturally rich, it was also notoriously difficult to traverse in many places, due to the considerable distances, rugged topography and frequent rainstorms. A masterfully accurate and clear travel aid was thus not merely a luxury, but a necessity.

While the map, segmented on linen and folded, could be carried and consulted *en route*, examples would also had served as wall-hangings in army, government and corporate offices, used for logistical and strategic planning.

Interestingly, the present example of the map features contemporary manuscript additions, including itineraries traced neatly in pencil and red pen traversing the length of the island. The details show an arrival in Batavia, and visits to many key cities and towns, as well as excursions, such a climbing a volcano, along with a few manuscript annotations in red ink.

This grand, expensive map was made during a lengthy period of economic prosperity for Java that extended from the 1840s until World War I. The Dutch government had largely subdued local unrest since the Javanese War (1825-30), and improved governance and a seemingly endless commodities boom had virtually eliminated the famines which historically plagued the island. As valuable plantations sprang up all across Java, and as villages grew into cities, the colonial authorities and their chosen private stakeholders invested heavily in in the road, and eventually rail, systems, such that by the time that the present map appeared most of the island's more populated centres could be reached with relative ease.

At first glance, it seems that such a large, precisely colour lithographed map could only have been published in Europe. However, in the late 1850s, the Dutch colonial authorities in Batavia starting importing the most advanced and expensive presses from Europe, manned by experienced printers, which allowed them to create grand maps of top-notch technical quality; only the Survey of India Office in Calcutta could rival their operations in Asia in terms of European-style printing. While it was still more cost effective to print some ambitious publications at the Topographische Inrichting office in The Hague, it was most helpful that the colonial authorities in Batavia could charge the Topographische Dienst with printing vital manuscripts and texts for local use, such as the present map.

Gijsbert Brandt Hooijer: Cartographer, Writer and Soldier in the Dutch East Indies

Gijsbert Brandt Hooijer (1848 - 1834) was a prominent military figure and author on affairs in the Dutch East Indies. He graduated from the Dutch Royal Military Academy, as second infantry lieutenant, in 1869, and applied to serve in the what is today Indonesia.

In December 1870, Hooijer arrived in Buitenzorg (today Bogor), Java, the important administrative and military base in the mountains south of Batavia. A skilled draftsman, for the next several years, he was mainly tasked with drafting maps and topographical views based upon the latest survey and sketches arriving from the field. The present work is by far and away his most impressive cartographic work, the result of many months of labour.

As the present map was being brought to press in Batavia, Hooijer was transferred to serve in the Aceh War (1873 - 1904), the brutal, long-running Dutch attempt to conquer the northern tip of Sumatra. In Aceh, Hooijer distinguished himself as a skilled diplomat and strategist, for which he was knighted in 1880.

Through the 1880s, Hooijer received continuous promotions and was posted in various locations in Java and Lombok, often running military reconnaissance expeditions. He soon established himself as leading academic authority on variety of topics relating the Dutch East Indies and the role of the Dutch military in the region. He gave many lectures and published numerous books, including works on Aceh, (with W. Cool) *Een schoone bladzijde uit Atjeh's geschiedenis* (1889) and *De verlaten posten op Groot-Atjeh* (1897); on Lombok, (with W. Cool) *De Lombok Expeditie* (1896); the *Guide to the Dutch East Indies* (1897); and well as a guide to the Dutch East Indies section at the 1900 Paris Exposition Universelle Internationale.

After many years of service in the East Indies, and attaining the rank of Lieutenant Colonel, Hoojier first retired to The Hague, and then to Merano, Italy.

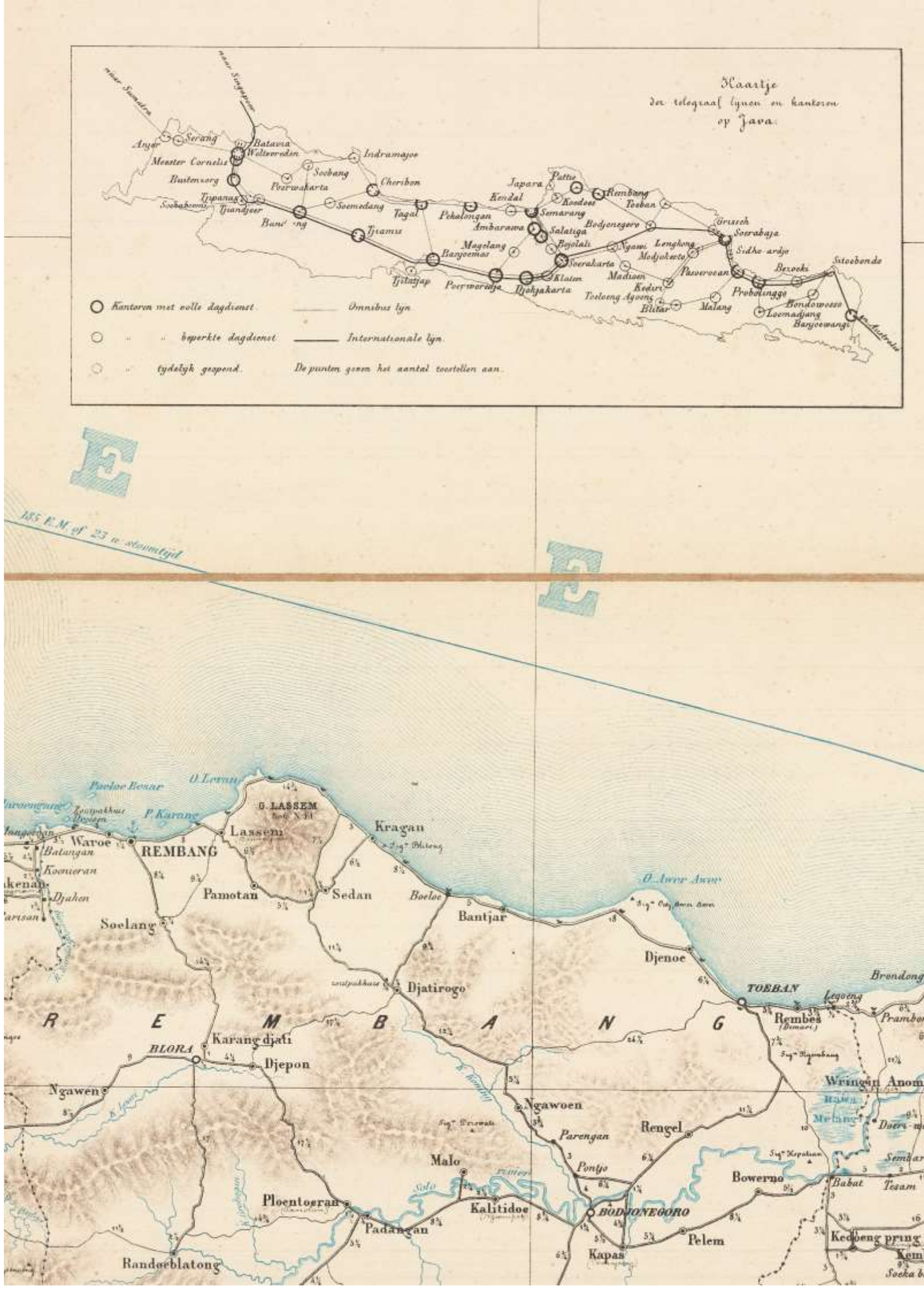
A Note on Rarity

We can trace 7 institutional examples of the map, held by the Bibliothèque nationale de France, British Library; *Bibliotheek Universiteit* van *Amsterdam; Universiteitbibliotheek Leiden;* Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin*; Sorbonne* Université; and the Österreichische

Nationalbibliothek (Vienna).

References: Bibliothèque nationale de France: GE C-768; *Bibliotheek Universiteit* van *Amsterdam:* OTM: HB-KZL X C 7; *Universiteitbibliotheek Leiden:* KK 041-02-02/05; OCLC: 557817511, 71457761; *Mittheilungen aus Justus Perthes' Geographischer Anstalt*, Band 24 (1878), p. 450; Registrande der Geographisch-Statistischen Abtheilung des Großen Generalstabes, Band 9 (Berlin, 1879), p. 289.

1.800 EUR



11. South America

كتابخانه سودى [KITABHANE-YI SUDI], BAB-I ALI CADDESI (ISTANBUL).

يكى جنوبى امريقا

[New South America]

Istanbul: Aladdin Matba-sı, 1927.

Colour off-set print (Good, some light staining, wear and some very minor loss along old folds, with some loss to upper blank margins) 63 x 94 cm (25 x 37 inches).



A very rare, large format, separately issued map of South America, that is perhaps the last great map of the continent to be printed in Ottoman Turkish script, with attractive colours and adorned with the flags of major African states and colonies, published in Istanbul for the Kitabhane-yi Sudi bookshop.

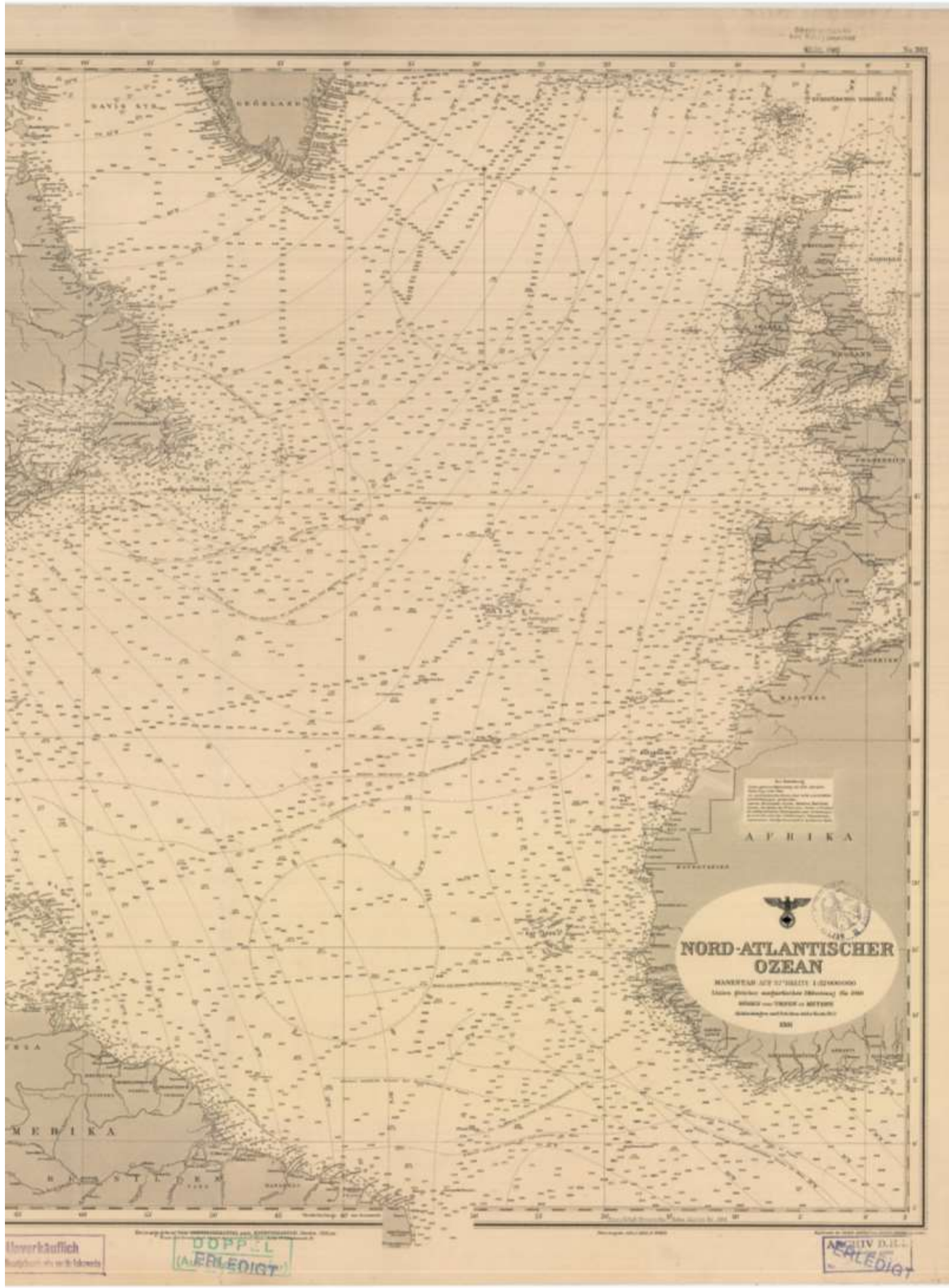
This very rare and highly attractive large format map of South America was printed as one of series of separately issued maps of the continents made for the Kitabhane-yi Sudi, a bookshop located at the Bab-ı Ali Caddesi in Istanbul. Published in 1927, it is perhaps the last great map of Africa to have been printed in Ottoman script (which would be abolished by President *Atatürk in early 1929, henceforth mandating that Latin letters be used for the Turkish language).*

The map is beautifully adorned on both sides with flags, including (on the left, top to bottom:) Paraguay, Peru, Chile, Colombia, Venezuela; (on the right, top to bottom:) Argentina, Ecuador, Uruguay, Brazil, Bolivia.

All of the maps from the Kitabhane-yi Sudi series of the continents are today very rare, as due to their large size and separate issue they have a low survival rate.

550 EUR

12. WWII ‘Battle of the Atlantic’
U-Boats
Third Reich Cartography



OBERKOMMANDO DER MARINE (NAZI GERMAN NAVY HIGH COMMAND).

Nord-Atlantischer Ozean maszstab auf 32° Breite 1: 12 000 000 Linien gliecher magnetischer Maßweisung für 1940 höhen und tiefen in metern Abkürzungen und Zeichen siehe Karte Nr. 1 1911.

Gotha: Justus Perthes for Dietrich Reimer (Andrews & Steiner), July 1940.

Monochrome print, with several handstamps, as is common with Nazi sea charts, rolled (Very Good, overall clean and crisp, a small tear in lower left margin with old repair from verso and a small old repair from verso to bottom of centrefold), 76.5 x 88.5 cm (30 x 35 inches). ***N.B.*** **The image of the chart provided here censors out the Nazi symbol of the Swastika from the title cartouche; this has been done pursuant to German laws on the representation of Third Reich symbols; however, this detail is clearly present and uncensored on the actual chart itself.**

An exceedingly rare sea chart of the North Atlantic Ocean printed for the ‘Oberkommando der Marine’ (Nazi German Navy High Command) early in World War II, depicting the entire theatre of the ‘Battle of the Atlantic’, the terrifying 5-year long contest between the German U-boats and the navies of Britain, Canada and the Unites States, described as the “longest, largest, and most complex” naval battle in history; the present example being a ‘headquarters copy’ used by Oberkommando officers for strategic planning.


BAFFIN LAND
DAVIS STR.
GRÖNLAND
BEAUFORT SEE
NORD AMERIKA
CANADA
VEREINIGTE STAATEN
GOLF VON MEXIKO
MEXIKO
KARIBISCHES MEER
VENEZUELA
KOLUMBIA
ECUADOR
SÜD AMERIKA
AFRIKA
NORDSEE
ENGLAND
FRANKREICH
NORD-ATLANTISCHER OZEAN
MASSSTAB AM 51° BREITE 1:12000000
Unter gleicher nautischer Meilenzahl für 240
Unverkäuflich
DOPPEL
ERLEDIGT
ARCHIV D.H.I.
ERLEDIGT

The Battle of the Atlantic was an epic contest between the combined navies of Britain, Canada and the United States versus the Kriegsmarine's (Nazi German Navy) U-boat squadrons. Described as the as the "longest, largest, and most complex" naval battle in history, it technically lasted the entire duration of World War II, although its most intense period spanned from the spring of 1940 until mid-1943. The chart was issued for the 'Oberkommando der Marine' (Nazi German Navy High Command), near the beginning of this period, when the Germans held the upper hand and threatened to cut Britain off from its North American lifeline, so potentially ending the war. The present example of the chart was issued, with important recent updates, in July 1940, and is significantly a 'headquarters copy' from the map library of the Oberkommando, such that it would have been used by senior officers during strategic planning sessions.

The map shows the entire North Atlantic Ocean, extending from 70°N to 5°S, and embracing all of the Atlantic coastlines in the Americans between these parameters, and extending in Europe to the North Sea, just beyond Britain. The coastlines are precisely delineated, all major ports are marked, while the seas feature innumerable bathymetric soundings and the marking of major hazards, as well as isolines. Notably, the lines of furthest extend of the 'Eisenfelder' (Icefields) off the Newfoundland's Grand Banks between March and July are marked, as are the lines of the maximum extent of icebergs off the North American coasts, in both the spring and summer. Indeed, the *Titanic*'s fate showed, sea ice was the greatest natural hazard to trans-Atlantic shipping in the modern era. The inset chart in the lower-left details magnetic declination.

For the first three years of World War II, Germany maintained a deadly advantage over Britain and her allies on the high seas. The German Navy's (Kriegsmarine) submarine programme, with its famous U-boats (from the German *U-Boot*, short for *Unterseebooten*, literally 'Undersea Boat'), was lightyears ahead of that of the opposition. Britain was utterly dependent upon supplies and troops shipped in from overseas, and required, on average, the receipt 1 million tonnes of food and war material per day in order to sustain itself. During the early part of the war, the U-boats were able to stealthily approach and torpedo Allied shipping with impunity.

The 'Battle of the Atlantic' technically lasted from the beginning until the end of World War II, but its height spanned from the spring of 1940 until mid-1943. During this period, U-boats seemed to be able to appear almost anywhere and at any time, from the Falklands, to the English Channel, to Sierra Leone, and the St. Lawrence River, to the seas just of New York City's Coney Island, suddenly sinking unsuspecting vessels, before disappearing into the deep. Moreover, the U-boats were able to drop spies and equipment upon Allied shores without being detected.

Germany upped the stakes when they started pursuing 'Unrestricted Submarine Warfare', whereby they targeted all Allied shipping (both military and civilian) without following the legally agreed protocols (it was not permitted to sink civilian vessels without warning or caring for their crews and passengers). The U-boats also communicated through the Enigma code system, that remained safe from decryption for some time. The losses and security risks due to the German submarine onslaught were so great that Sir Winston Churchill recalled "The only thing that really frightened me during the war was the U-boat peril".

However, the British eventually developed new technologies that turned the tables on the U-boats. They developed Sonar (called ASDIC in Britain), that could detect submerged U-Boats in many circumstances (while also allowing the U-boats to detect the British vessels that were monitoring them). The British also developed radar that allowed them to trace U-boats that were sailing on the surface; in turn, the Germans could use radar detectors to trace their opposition, resulting in many dramatic cat-and-mouse showdowns. The German Navy partially negated the British technological advances by deploying their U-boats in groups, or "wolfpacks". While the British could often detect the wolfpacks approaching, they were generally helpless the defend themselves from simultaneous attacks form multiple submarines. For a time, crossing the Atlantic by ship, even as part of large, heavy armed convoy, was considered exceedingly dangerous; the U-Boats proved to be a massive drag upon the Allied war effort and their attacks were serious blows to Anglo-Canadian morale.

The year 1942 marked the turning point in the submarine war and the Battle of the Atlantic. The entry of the United States into the war on the British side resulted in a dramatic increase in Allied shipping and military support. The submarines found that no matter how many ships they sank, they could barely contain the massive flow of troops and supplies sent to Europe to fuel the Allied effort. In addition, the sharp increase in the number of Allied ships and aircraft chasing the submarines took a massive toll.

In 1943, the Allies began using a centimetric radar that could detect submarines while secretly avoiding detection in response to German technology. This left the submarines as "sitting ducks", giving the Allies an overwhelming advantage. As the war dragged on and Germany lost ground, it was increasingly unable to use submarines to their advantage. The age of 'Unrestricted Submarine Warfare' ended long before the fall of the Third Reich.

At the conclusion of the Battle of the Atlantic, at the end of World War II, the Allies had lost almost 75,000 military personnel and merchant seamen, 3,500 merchant vessels, 175 warships and 741 aircraft. The Germans had lost over 30,000 seamen (mostly U-boat crews), 783 submarines and 47 ships.

The legacy of the Battle of the Atlantic was the birth of truly modern naval warfare, where advances in cutting edge technology were often more important than quantitative factories. On a human level, the stories of daring and survival on the high seas, under the most extreme circumstances, are some of the most gripping wartime accounts from any time in history.

The Present Chart's Issue and an Intriguing Provenance

The template for the present map was first issued by the Imperial German Navy in 1911, but was heavily revised and reissued by the new Nazi regime in 1938, while the note in lower left margin reads that the chart was updated with 'Kleine Berichtigung' (small corrections) on various given dates, with the most recent incorporated on the present chart added on '1939.10.VI.' (June 10, 1939).

However, the present example of the chart was actually issued in July 1940, right at the beginning of the intense period of the Battle of the Atlantic. In the lower left margin is a handstamp from the publisher Dietrich Reimer, reading 'Berichtigt bis N.f.S. / Ausgabe 29 vom 4. Jul. 1940', meaning that the chart was updated to that time.

The present example of the map possesses a very interesting and important provenance. In the upper left margin appears the stamp 'Oberkommando der Marine / Juli 1940', meaning that it was entered into the official libraries of the German Navy's High Command shortly after it was printed. Thus, this chart was 'headquarters copy' that would have been consulted by senior naval officers while planning U-boats deployments.

It is worth noting that most Nazi charts featured (often numerous) handstamps, a result of the Third Reich's obsession with classification and order.

In 1945, following the end of World War II, the contents of the official libraries of the Kreigsmarine were moved and merged into the archive of the newly formed Deutsches Hydrographisches Institut (German Hydrographical Institute), in Hamburg. The Institut was the successor of the Norddeutsche Seewarte (North German Naval Observatory), and henceforth became the main library of the West German Navy. The present chart features the handstamp of the Institut, near the title, as well as, in the bottom margin, an 'Archiv D.H.I.' handstamp over-stamped with the word 'Erledigt' (meaning 'Deaccessioned'), and well as another handstamp reading 'Unverkäuflich / Nur zum Dientsgebrauch oder nur für Lehrzwecke' ('Not for Sale / Only for Service Use or Only for Teaching Purposes'), although this stamp seems to have be countermanded by the previous 'Erledigt' stamp.

The DHI likely deaccessioned the present chart form its collections when, in the wake of German reunification, in 1990, the BHI was reorganized as the Bundesamt für Seeschifffahrt und Hydrographie (BSH, Federal Maritime and Hydrographic Agency of Germany), which had premises in both Hamburg and Rostock. The BHI/BSH decided to officially release many (usually duplicate) items from its archives.

A Note on Rarity

All issues of sea charts published by the Nazi German Navy are very rare, being much more uncommon than comparable British or American charts. This had a great deal to do with the fact that the Nazis were far more secretive with their charts; they were considered 'highly classified' and were produced in only very small print runs for restricted use by senior naval officers. For instance, access to all of the Kriegsmarine libraries were tightly controlled. Moreover, most of the examples of the charts which did circulate would have been exposed to wear during headquarters strategy sessions or onboard vessels, leading to a very low survival rate.

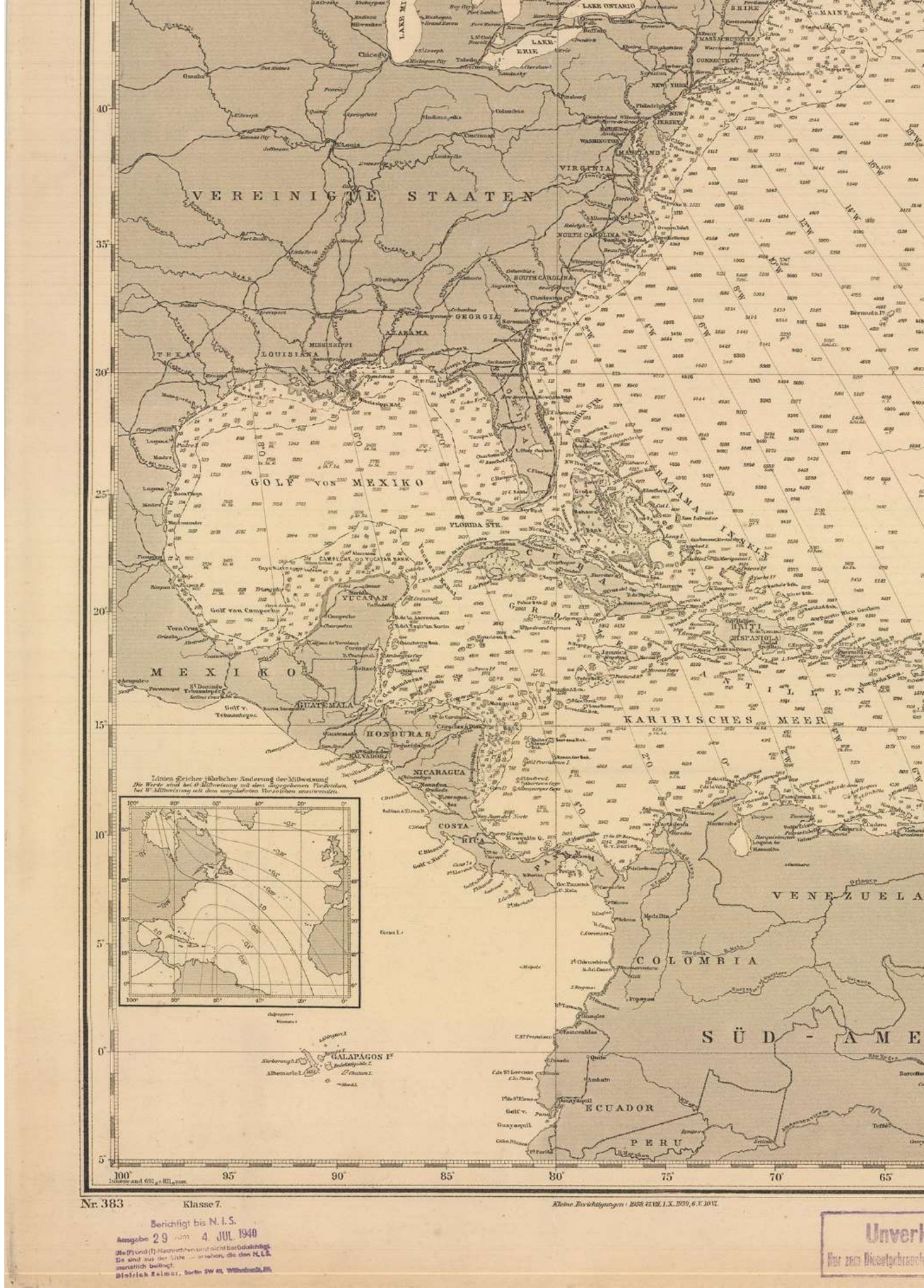
We can trace only a single example of a WWII edition of the chart, being a nearly identical issue (date-stamped 'October 1939'), held by the American Geographical Society Collection at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee. There is also presumably an example held by the library of the Bundesamt für Seeschifffahrt und Hydrographie, at their Hamburg or Rostock premises, although we have not been able to trace the appropriate catalogue entry.

All editions of the chart seem to be extremely rare; beyond those mentioned, the only other exampls of any of the issues is a 1928 edition, likewise held by the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee.

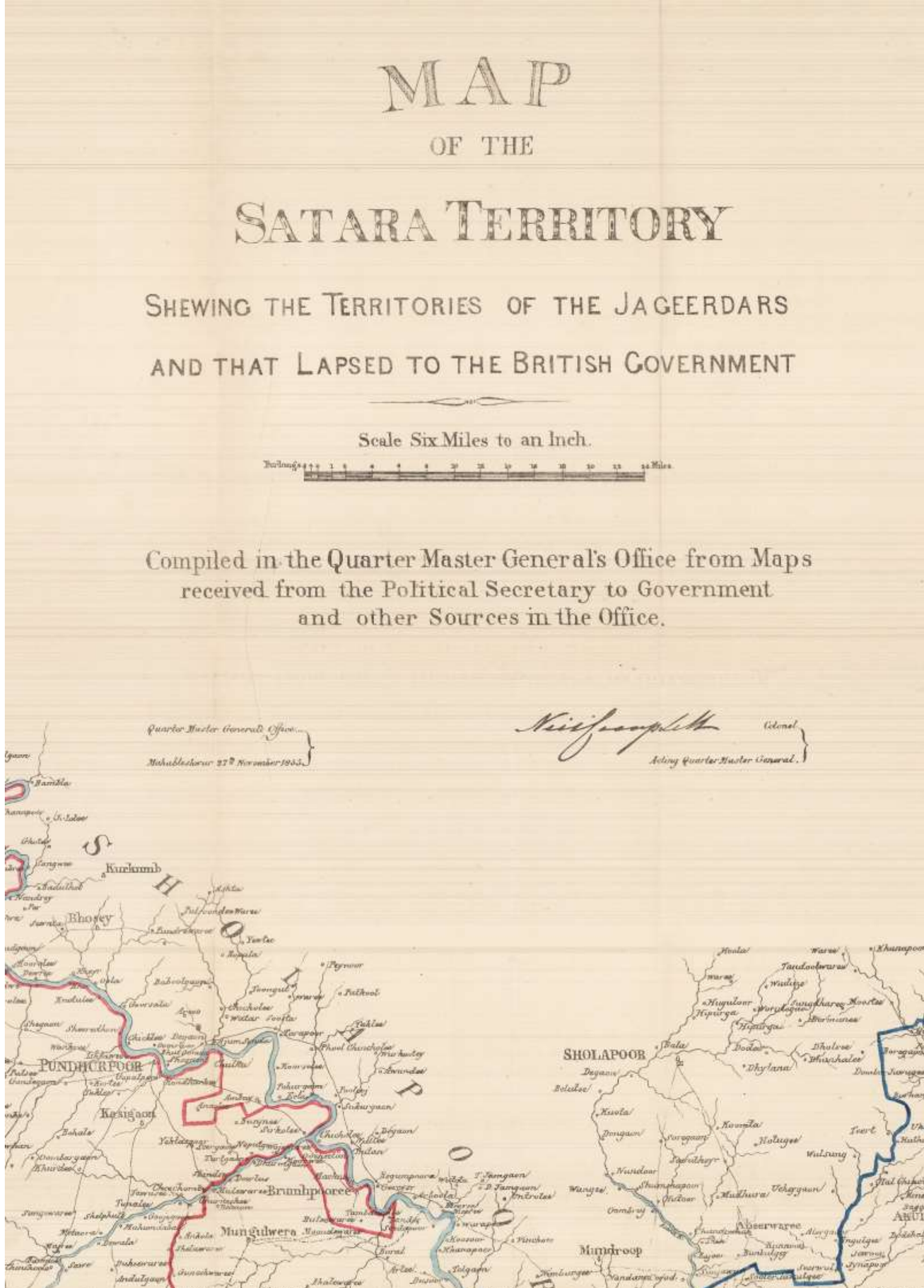
Moreover, we cannot trace any sales records for any editions of the chart.

References: University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee (American Geographical Society Collection): German Chart 383 1939.

850 EUR



13. India – Satara District Maharashtra



J.W. WINDSOR. / QUARTER MASTER GENERAL'S DEPARTMENT (BOMBAY ARMY).

Map of the Satara Territory, Shewing the Territories of the Jageerdars and that Lapsed to the British Government. Scale Six Miles to an Inch. Compiled in the Quarter Master General's Office from Maps received from the Political Secretary to Government and other Sources in the Office.

Mahableshwur [*Mahabaleshwar, Maharashtra*]: Quarter Master General's Department (Bombay Army), 1855.

Zincograph, with original outline hand colour (Very Good, overall clean and bright, some minor old repairs from verso to a few areas along old folds), 81.5 x 102.5 cm (81.5 x 40.5 inches).

A sophisticated topographical map, of charmingly crude 'provincial' printing style, of the strategically key district of Satara, in today's southwestern Maharashtra, expressly made for the British colonial regime to depict the recent developments in local administration, but to also satisfy important military and infrastructure mandates; created by J.W. Windsor of the Quarter Master General's Department (Bombay Army), and printed by the small government press in Mahabaleshwar, a hill station that was the 'Summer Capital of Bombay Presidency' - extremely rare.

MAP

OF THE

SATARA TERRITORY

SHEWING THE TERRITORIES OF THE JAGEERDARS

AND THAT LAPSED TO THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT

Scale Six Miles to an Inch.

Compiled in the Quarter Master General's Office from Maps received from the Political Secretary to Government and other Sources in the Office.

REFERENCES

POONA

POONA COLLECTORATE

SHOLAPOOR COLLECTORATE

AHMEDNUGGUR COLLECTORATE

BELGAUM COLLECTORATE

SATARA

Satara is a district in what is today southwestern Maharashtra, named after its eponymous capital city. In early modern times, it was part of the heartland of the Maratha Confederacy (or 'Empire'), a Hindu-led state that during much of the 18th Century was the premier power in India, controlling large parts of the subcontinent. The British East India Company (EIC) vanquished the Marathas, during the Third Anglo-Maratha War (1817-8), whereupon the British took control over their lands, amounting to approximately 150,000 square miles of territory (including the Satara District).

Mountstuart Elphinstone, who served as the Governor the Bombay Presidency from 1819 to 1827, devised a system for maintaining British suzerainty over much of the former Maratha lands (including Satara). He advocated a policy of minimal interference, whereby local rulers would be left in charge of day-to-day governance as much as possible. As long as the local rulers submitted the agreed tax revenues to the British regime and kept the country peaceful, much of the traditional Maratha system would remain in place in most areas.

Focusing on Satara, in 1818, the British made Pratap Singh Bhosale, the last Chhatrapati (Emperor) of the Maratha Empire, the Raja of the district, making it into a 'princely state', or client state of the British colonial regime. This was a good way of preserving peace, while giving elements of the former Maratha leadership some measure of honor befitting their history. Below the Raja, were the *jaghirdars*, feudal leaders who oversaw local affairs in *jaghirs*, local divisions. In Satara the offices of Raja and the jaghirdars were hereditary; however, the British inserted a hitch, enacting the 'Doctrine of Lapse'. This policy allowed the noble clans to control their offices as long as they maintained an uninterrupted succession of legitimate male heirs. In the event that this chain was broken, their office was to be abolished and their lands placed under complete British sovereignty.

Satara's leadership soon came subject the Doctrine of Lapse, when Pratap Singh's successor, Raja Shahaji, died in 1839 without a male heir. The British duly annexed Satara, ensuring that it was to come directly under the auspices of the EIC Presidency of Bombay.

Yet, many of the jaghirdar dynasties in Satara continued in their offices, while others fell afoul of the Doctrine, such that their lands were transferred to direct British control. While the present map could serve many uses, it was expressly intended to depict which Satara jaghirs were to remain under local rule, and which ones were to be surrendered to the EIC. Satara was of special interest to the British, due to its strategic location, and its potential for high-yield agriculture.

The present map embraces all of the Satara District, which is shown to extend from the heights of the Western Ghats, in the west, and then over the plateau deep into the interior of the Indian Peninsula, in the east. Satara, the capital, is located in the left centre of the map, while the major British political and military base of Poona (today Pune), is located in the upper left, outside of the district. A sophisticated topographical map, areas of elevation are represented by hachures, while all forts, cities, towns, and villages are labelled, while the main roads are traced.

The map was compiled from the best available sources by J.W. Windsor, a draftsman at the Quarter Master General's Department of the Bombay Army. Windsor was already well known for creating an important transportation map of the greater region, *Route Map of the Bombay Presidency* (Bombay, 1852). With the assistance of the local draftsman, Gowind Powar, the map was printed, in a charmingly crude 'provincial' manner, at the government press at 'Mahableshwur' (today *Mahabaleshwar*), a hill station and Hindu pilgrimage site in the Western Ghats, in the Satara District, that was the 'Summer Capital of the Bombay Presidency' (*Mahabaleshwar can* be found in the upper left of the map).

As noted in the 'References', in the upper left, the map employs colour coding to identify seven different classifications of jaghirs. The areas outlined in 'Crimson' are jaghirs that were to be annexed by the British, while the six other jaghirs, outlined in their own colours, were to remain under the control of their named jaghirdars.

The present map is the best cartographic work of Satara of its era and in addition to showcasing the current state of local governance, it could also be used for military and infrastructure planning, this explaining why it was made by the Quarter Master General's Department.

A Note on Rarity

The present map is extremely rare. It seems that it might had been extracted from some obscure, hitherto unidentified book, or pamphlet, but in any event, it is certainly uncommon. The press at Mahabaleshwar was only capable of supporting only very modest print runs, with issues reserved for high level official use.

We can trace only a single institutional example of the map, held by the *Newberry Library (Chicago), while we cannot trace any sales records or any bibliographical references.*

References: Newberry Library: 152429 / G 1069 .437; OCLC: 61405025.

650 EUR

14. Sanskrit Language
Calcutta Imprint

KAPILA MAHARSHI; **VIJNANABHIKSHU, author of the commentaries; PANDIT JIBANANDA VIDYASAGARA BHATTACHARYA, editor**

Sankhyadarshana or Aphorisms of a Theistic Philosophy by Maharshi Kapila with Commentary of Vijnanavikshu

Calcutta: New Sanskrit Press 1872.

8°. 246 pp., original wrappers with lettering (slightly age-toned and stained, tiny chips and tears in margins, but overall inside in a good clean condition, later stripe on the spine).

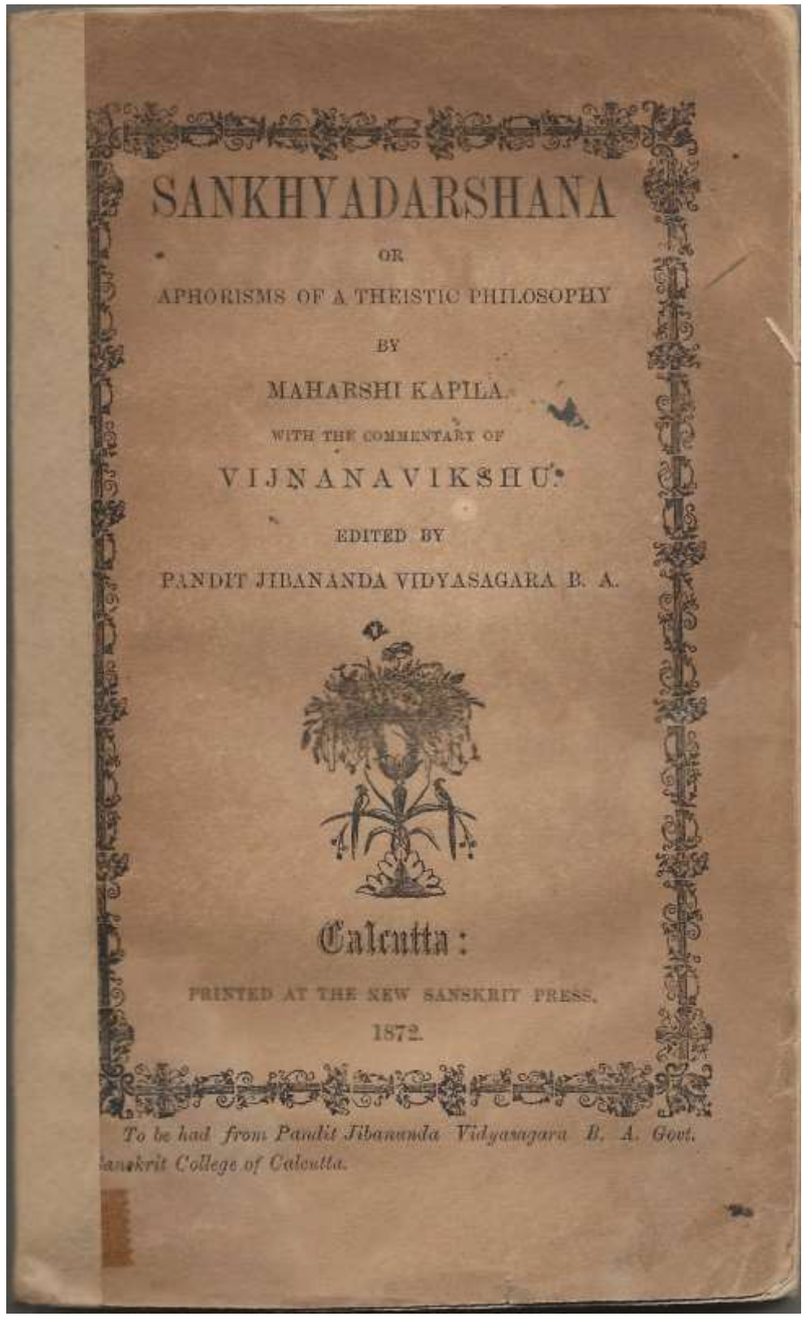
A rare edition of Samkhya Darsana, a text related to the Yoga school of Hinduism, was published by the Sanskrit College of Calcutta.

The editor of the book was Pandit Jibananda Vidyasagara Bhattacharya, an educator at the Government Sanskrit College in Colcutta, who wrote or edited circa 200 works in an on Sanskrit language.

Worldcat only lists circa one example of the book (Harvard Library). The other examples appear to be electronic copy.

References: OCLC 80701994.

1.200 EUR


SANKHYADARSHANA

OR

APHORISMS OF A THEISTIC PHILOSOPHY

BY

MAHARSHI KAPILA.

WITH THE COMMENTARY OF

VIJNANAVIKSHU.

EDITED BY

PANDIT JIBANANDA VIDYASAGARA B. A.

Calcutta:

PRINTED AT THE NEW SANSKRIT PRESS.

1872.

To be had from Pandit Jibananda Vidyasagara B. A. Govt. Sanskrit College of Calcutta.

15. India – Maharashtra / Karnataka
Law and Politics / Third Anglo-Maratha War



Mountstuart ELPHINSTONE (1779 - 1859).

Report on the Territories, conquered from the Paishwa. Submitted to the Supreme Government of British India by The Hon'ble Mountstuart Elphinstone, Commissioner.

Calcutta: Printed at the Government Gazette Press, by A.G. Balfour, 1821.

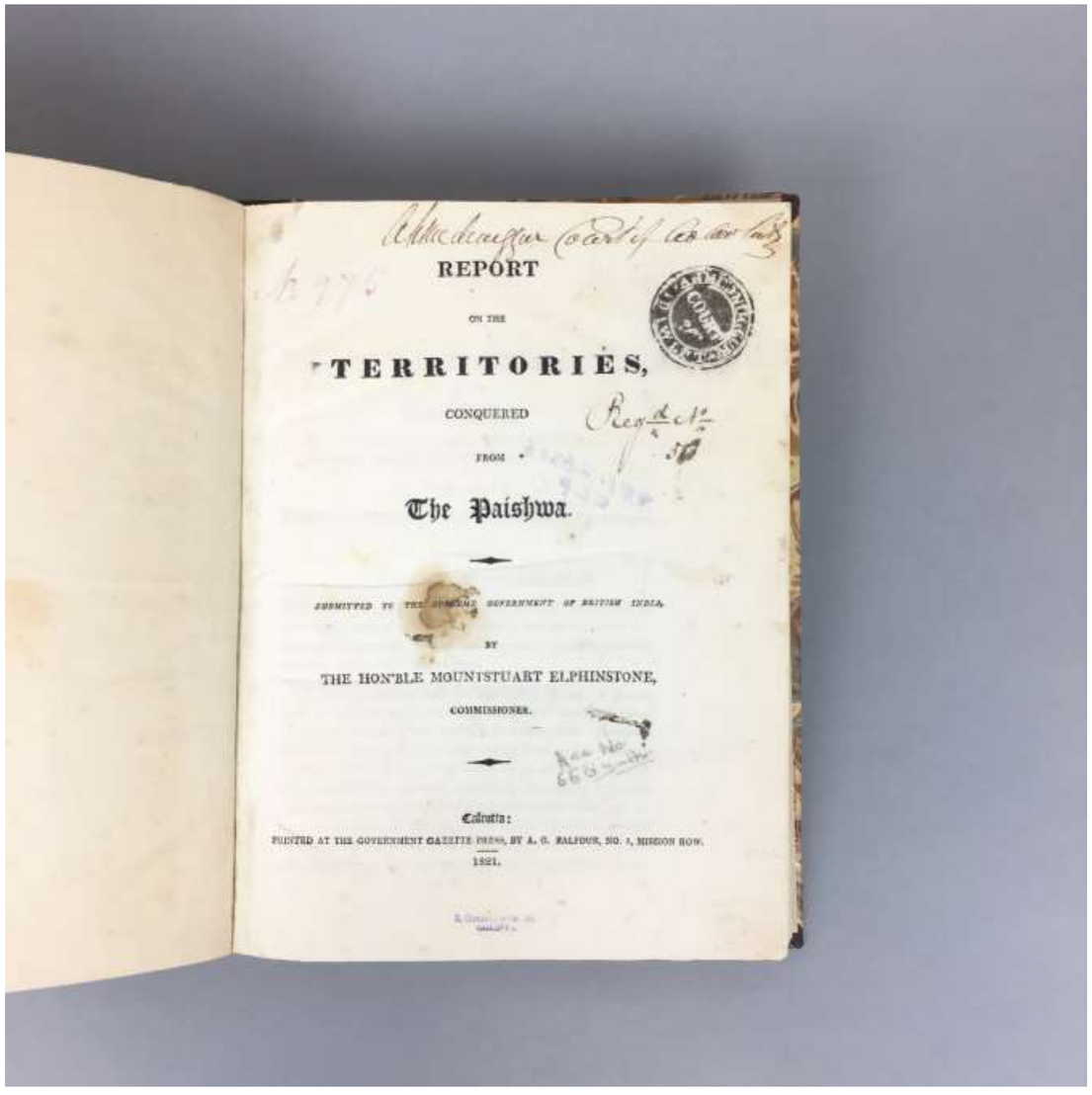
4° (25.8 x 19.2 cm): [1], 112 pp., lxx, bound in modern chestnut quarter morocco and marbled boards with gilt title to spine, with contemporary handstamp of 'Ahmednuggur Court of Adawlat' and related manuscript ink inscriptions to title, old bookseller's handstamp of 'R. *Cambray & Co. Ltd. Calcutta' to lower margin of title,* plus old manuscript accession numbers to margins of pp. 101, 112 and lxx (Good, save for a pronounced stain to middle of title and following 4 leaves, otherwise some variable spotting and toning).

A highly important work with an enduring influence – Bombay Governor and celebrated historian Mountstuart Elphinstone's detailed proposals for administering the enormous territories in today's Maharashtra and Karnataka newly conquered by Britain upon the fall of Maratha Confederacy, a watershed moment in Indian history; in this sophisticated and exceedingly well-informed treatise Elphinstone proposes to largely preserve the traditional Maratha systems of revenue collection, justice and village-level governance, yet with some measured safeguards; critically these proposals formed the basis for the administration of the region for the next 130 years; the extremely rare first edition of the work, printed in Calcutta in 1821.

The present work appeared in the wake of one of the watershed events of Indian history. The British East India Company (EIC), ever since it took control of Bengal in 1757, embarked upon an aggressive policy of expansion with the view to controlling and governing large expanses of territory, as opposed to merely running a chain of commercial outposts. Britain went on to vanquish many of India's great powers (albeit with difficulty), including Oudh, the Nawabs of the Carnatic, and Mysore, while containing Hyderabad and the ailing Mughal Empire.

However, the Maratha Confederacy (or 'Empire'), proved to be the EIC's most intractable foe, and the last major obstacle to the complete British domination of Peninsular India. The Hindu-led state was founded in 1674 in today's western Maharashtra, and during the 18th century it expanded to rule much of western and central India, at its height extending its power to the north beyond Delhi, and as far east as Orissa. Ruled by the holders of the hereditary office of the *Peshwa*, for most of the Confederacy's history they provided bold and clever leadership that made the Marathas the most powerful entity in India.

Naturally, it was only a matter of time before British and Maratha interests collided. A key problem for Britain was that its great and vibrant port of Bombay had no hinterland, it was an enclave with all the territory beyond controlled by the Marathas. While Calcutta and Madras benefitted from controlling vast territories extending far inland, the development of the EIC's Bombay Presidency was severely limited by geopolitical reality.


REPORT

ON THE

TERRITORIES,

CONQUERED

FROM

The Paishwa.

SUBMITTED TO THE HONBLE GOVERNMENT OF BRITISH INDIA,

BY

THE HON'BLE MOUNTSTUART ELPHINSTONE,

COMMISSIONER.

Calcutta:

PRINTED AT THE GOVERNMENT GAZETTE PRESS, BY A. G. BALFOUR, NO. 1, MISSION ROW.

1821.

The EIC and the Marathas initially came to blows during the Frist Anglo-Maratha War (1775-82), during which the Peshwa's forces bettered the British. While the conflict was settled on the *status quo ante bellum*, the defeat came as a shock to Britain, which realized that the Marathas were an exceptionally strong and intelligent adversary.

During the rematch, the Second Anglo-Mysore War (1802-3), the British allied with some of the Peshwa's local rivals and bettered the Marathas. Yet, while the Marathas lost some territory, the British failed to strike a knockout blow and the Peshwa's forces remained an ever-present danger to Bombay.

In the wake of the Napoleonic Wars, the British Empire faced no major opposition anywhere in the world - other than the Marathas. Free to direct its best energies against the Peshwa's forces, during the Third Anglo-Maratha War (1817-8), the British utterly vanquished the Maratha Confederacy, toppling the Peshwa and annexing all of its lands.

The British acquisition of the Maratha lands represented a spectacular windfall and opportunity for the EIC, yet also saddled it with enormous responsibilities and risks. To better manage the situation, the British divided the Maratha territories into different administrative zones. The present work concerns the most important of these zones, being the territory that comprises most of today's western Maharashtra and far northern Karnataka, comprising over 50,000 square miles of land, home to an estimated 4 million residents. This included the entire Konkan Coast (beyond Bombay and the other British coastal enclaves, of course); as well as the districts of Khandesh; Ahmednagar; Satara; and Poona, the former Maratha capital; as well as Kittur. Critically, these territories would provide Bombay with its much longed-for hinterland and promised the British regime vast revenues from taxes and trade.

However, the acquisition of this zone ensured that the EIC would hitherto be responsible for overseeing the revenue, security, education, agriculture and infrastructure systems for a vast realm that was

considered to be potentially volatile, as its people might not readily accept British rule after almost 150 year of proud Maratha hegemony.

Enter Mountstuart Elphinstone

The British appointed Mountstuart Elphinstone (1759 - 1859) to be the 'Commissioner' to investigate and devise a system for the governance of the critical zone of the former Martha lands in what is today western Maharashtra and northern Karnataka. Elphinstone was one of the giant, transformative figures in the history of British India, famous as an administrator, diplomat, the father of public education in India (famously the founder of Bombay's Elphinstone College), and a famous author.

Elphinstone had served in the EIC bureaucracy since 1796 and was perhaps the foremost British expert on the Marathas. He served as the British Resident to the Peshwa's Court on the eve of the Second Anglo-Maratha War, and during the conflict itself he acted as General Sir Arthur Wellesley's aide-de-camp. The future 'Iron Duke' benefitted from his masterly understanding of the enemy, and commended his innate skill as military strategist, even as Elphinstone had no martial training. In the wake of the war, Elphinstone gained further relevant experience as the British Resident at Nagpur and Gwailor, before leading an important diplomatic mission to the Afghan court in Kabul.

During the Third Anglo-Maratha War (1817-8), Elphinstone played a key role, even serving as a successful field commander, proving that Wellesley's assessment to have been correct. Upon his appointment as the Commissioner for the newly conquered lands, it could easily be said that nobody was more qualified that Elphinstone for such a mandate.

Elphinstone's challenge was to devise a system for governing the newly annexed lands that placated the people, while still ensuring that the colonial regime could maintain basic order and extract the desired revenues from taxation.

The Present Work in Focus

The present work is highly important as it the first printing of Elphinstone's official report outlining the governance system he proposed for the annexed territories. In essence, although Elphinstone was paternalistic and patronizing towards the Indian people (as was common amongst EIC officials), he nevertheless showed remarkable knowledge, and in many ways respect, for Maratha customs and systems, as well as possessing a great deference to the Hindu faith that was practiced by the overwhelming majority of the region's people. Realizing that revolutionary changes would alienate the people from the new regime, Elphinstone decided upon a conservative course, electing to essentially preserve the traditional Maratha ways, while implementing only modest changes so as to limit what he considered the excesses of the indigenous systems. He summed up his approach as, "The principle I adopted for the Civil Administration, being to preserve the practice which I found established…" (p. 20).

In the present work, Elphinstone analyses and opines on a number of critical issues in great detail, including the raising of revenues; agriculture and the economy; structures of local governance; and the justice system (both criminal and civil); as well as creating a state education system which Elphinstone recognized was essential to maintaining civil order.

The present work commences with a 'Description of the Country' (pp. 1-10), describing the attributes of the different districts of the annexed lands, along with, at times colourful, portrayals of their inhabitants. This makes for a fascinating read, as while Elphinstone can be a touch too judgmental at times, he possessed a magnificent knowledge of the subjects covered. This is followed by an informative 'Sketch of Marratta History' (pp. 11- 20), written by man who would come to be considered one of the foremost contemporary chroniclers of India.

Governing the annexed territories was expected to be enormously expensive, and the colonial regime hoped to be able to extract sufficient revenues from land taxes and customs duties in order to make the venture economically viable. This seemed quite achievable, as the districts in question were traditionally quite affluent, even if they had experienced recessionary pressures in recent years.

In Elphinstone's section on 'Revenue' (pp. 20 – 46), he notes that in the Maratha tradition, matters of revenue collection and justice were usually administered by the same officials, with major decisions generally made at the local level. In this respect, the *patails*, or village community leaders, "are the most important functionaries in the villages and perhaps the most important class in the country" (p. 21), while above them were the *mamlutars*, district officers, who only involved themselves in the more important cases. Elphinstone proposes to leave the practical matters of revenue collection in the hands of the patails, and that most taxes and other levees should continue to follow the established system. The only major change he proses is to taxation on farmland, which was tradtionally fixed at high rates regardless of crop yields; conversely, Elphinstone proposes to "to levy the Revenue according to the actual cultivation" (p. 42).

In the section on 'Police & Criminal Justice' (pp. 47-76), Elphinstone remarks that the Maratha system is similar to the practice throughout the Deccan, and that judgment is administered by the patails, as opposed to a formal court system. Traditionally, this arrangement generally produced just outcomes; however, the recent downturn in the regional economy during the twilight days of Martha rule resulted in abuses due to corruption and a lack of adequate official compensation for the patails and their associates. Elphinstone proposed maintaining the established system, while ensuring that abuses were curbed due to reliable provision of "good pay, personal attention, and occasional commendations and awards" (p. 61). While most cases could be handed at the village level, matters that required appeal or were too grand to be handled locally would be submitted to a newly formed British-style court system. However, the British judges would be formally advised by local officials who would guide them to be sensitive to local conventions.

Importantly, Elphinstone addresses the matter of education, a sphere that was dear to his heart (pp. 74-5). He believed that education cold instill morality, which, in turn, could assure civil order. He was well versed on Hinduism and its epic literature, and he recommended that the British regime should pay for the publication and free dissemination of traditional Hindu religious texts to "cultivate sound morals". He was clear that the local people should continue to be guided by their own customs and that no foreign religious elements be introduced, as that would be both unnecessary and offensive. Elphinstone also recommended that the government establish two colleges in the region.

On matters of 'Civil Justice' (pp. 76-112), Elphinstone discusses how cases were traditionally decided by the *punchayet*, or village tribunal (p. 78), and that he was hesitant to alter that system. While he opined that the Maratha government "did little to obtain justice for the people, it left them the means to obtain it for themselves" by allowing the punchayet tribunals to operate with little interference (p. 91). Elphinstone proposed to preserve the tribunals, while respecting traditional Hindu law, and that the British should act only to prevent any local abuses or eccentricities. This course had the "advantage, that it leaves unimpaired the institutions, the opinions, and the feelings, that have hitherto kept the

community together; and, that as its fault is meddling too little, it may be gradually remedied by interfering when urgently required." (p. 109).

The work concludes with a lengthy 'Appendix' (placed following p. 112, paginated pp. i – 1xx) that includes valuable primary sources, including translations of Maratha legal documents and records (used for understanding the Maratha legal tradition), as well as the texts of recent letters written by British political and revenue agents working in the newly conquered lands, addressed to Elphinstone (used to understand what is going on the ground in almost real time). The section features a chart of revenues figures from 1819 (p. xxxiv).



Epilogue

Elphinstone's *Report* was very well received by both the EIC hierarchy in Calcutta and by Westminster, and his recommendations became the basis for collecting revenue, regulating agriculture, administering justice and providing public education in what was one of the most important parts of India. As the Governor of Bombay, Elphinstone had the chance to implement his own programme, and by the end of his eight years in office, the British had successfully adopted the former Maratha system in what is today Western Maharashtra. Elphinstone's efforts were largely responsible for the fact that the region became quite prosperous and, against the expectation of some, relatively peaceful, contributing mightily to Bombay's rise as one of the world's great commercial centres.

The *Report* was reprinted in 1838 in Bombay by the Government Press and was frequently referenced in official and academic documents for generations thereafter. Today it is one of the seminal texts of the political and economic history of Western India.

A Note on Rarity

The present first edition is very rare. We can trace examples held by 6 libraries, all in the United Kingdom, including the British Library (holding 4 examples), National Library of Scotland, University of Edinburgh, University of Cambridge, University of St. Andrews and the University of Newcastle.

Moreover, we cannot trace any other examples as appearing on the market during the last 25 years.

References: British Library: General Reference Collection I.S.1/6.; OCLC: 1018382259; HOUSE of COMMONS (GREAT BRITAIN), *Report from the Select Committee of the House of Lords, Appointed to Inquire into the Operation of the Act 3 & 4 Will. 4, C. 85, for the Better Government of Her Majesty's Indian Territories* (London, 1852), p. 317; James JAFFE, *Ironies of Colonial Governance: Law, Custom and Justice in Colonial India* (Cambridge University Press, 2015), *passim*; Lynn ZASTOUPIL, *John Stuart Mill and India* (Stanford, 1994), p. 234.

1.500 EUR

16. Science
Bulaq Imprint
Marifetname



İbrahim HAKKI Erzurumi (1703 - 1780)

معرفتنامه

[Marifetname]

Cairo – Bulaq: 1251 [1835-36].

Large 4°. 23 pp., 563 pp. letterpress with lithographed illustrations, contemporary calf binding with a flap and debossed decoration, patterned pastedowns on the inner side of the boards and flap. (Paper with light age-toning and staining, worm-holes mostly in margins and stronger in the gutter with small cracks, but also small sporadic holes in the text, one white corner cut off, sporadic defects of paper in white margins, binding with light scratches, small worm holes and slightly scuffed on the corners,

This is the first edition of Marifetname or Book of Gnosis, a majestic encyclopedic work in Ottoman language, printed by the Bulaq press in Cairo.

This majestic illustrated work was written in the 18th century by a Sufi saint, Islamic scholar, physicist, astronomer and İbrahim Hakkı (1703 - 1780).

The book includes a map of the World in two hemispheres and from the north and south perspective, astronomical charts and various other charts. The print is a charming combination of a letterpress and





lithographed illustrations. The text consists of three books and is combining the religion with the science. It starts with the God, followed by the analysis of the minerals, basic beings, plants and finally a man. It is followed by richly illustrated chapters on the geography and the universe.

Hakkı then analyses the human body from the aesthetic point of view and connects the bodily features with the persona. The text ends discussing the relations and respect between the people, especially between the man and his wife, their relatives, servants and neighbours and the responsibility towards children.

Hakkı finished writing Marifetname in 1757. In the next decades this richly illustrated work was copied in manuscript until it was first printed in 1835 (1251) by the Bulaq press.



Bulaq Press

The Bulaq or Al-Amiriya Press (Amiri Press, Amiria Press), the first Muslim official and governmental printing press established in Egypt, was founded in 1820 by the viceroy of Egypt Muhammad Ali (1769-1849) and is still active today.

Already in 1815, the first delegation was sent from Cairo to Milan to learn the printing techniques. After the construction of the press was finished in the autumn of 1820, it took another two years to transport the machines and school the employees. The first book, an Arabic-Italian dictionary, was published in 1822. In the next decades the Bulaq Press became the leading publishing house for the Arab world.

Marifetname was commissioned privately for commercial reasons. Between 1351 (1835-36) until 1299 (1882) 17 editions of Merifetname were printed by the Cairo / Bulyq press, all of which are rare today. This is the first edition.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

References: Özege No.12259. Bekir Topaloğlu, MÂRİFETNÂME, TDV İslâm Ansiklopedisi (https://islamansiklopedisi.org.tr/marifetname). Hsu Cheng Hsiang, The First Years of Arabic Printing in Egypt 1238-1269. 1822-1851. The Checklist; no. 252 – Edn1.

4.800 EUR

17. Logarithmic Tables
Science in the Ottoman Empire
Navy Mathematics

لغرتما جداولي

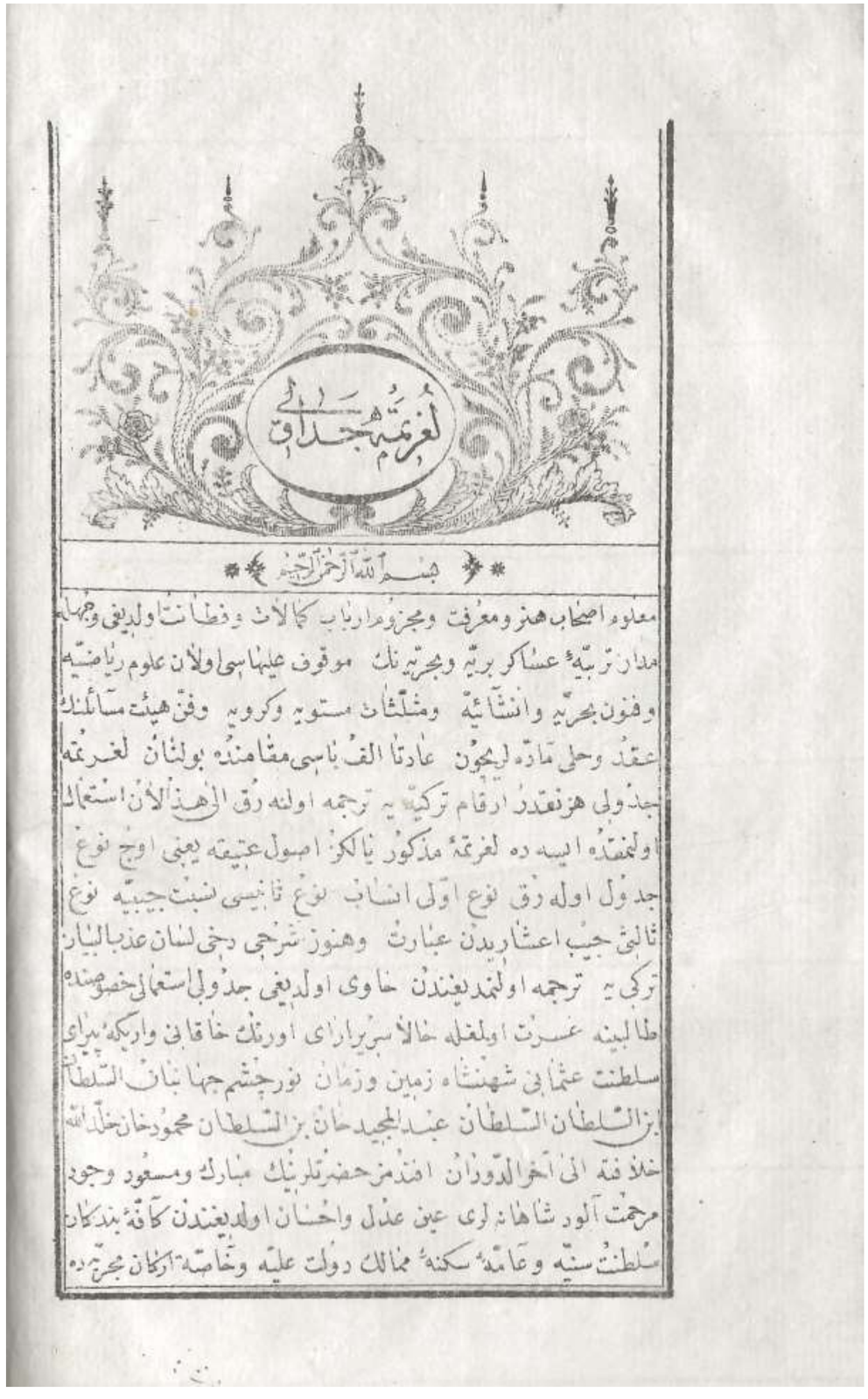
[Logaritma Cedâvili / Logarithmic Tables]

Istanbul: مكتب بحريهء شاهانه [Mekteb-i bahriye-i Şâhâne Matbaası / Imperial Naval Press] 1269 (1852 or 1853)

8°. [30 pp.] lithographed text, [2 pp.] blank, 26 numbered book sections, with 8 pp. each (i. e.208 pp.) + 1 p. with tables, 45 pairs of tables (i. e. 90 pp.), 45 pairs of tables (i. e. 90 pp.), 38 numbered book sections, with 8 pp. each (i. e.304 pp.) + 5 pp. with tables, full-page imprint, contemporary marbled boards with brown calf spine, debossed silver ornaments and red label with lettering on the spine, original light blue endpapers (some sections printed on darker paper with irregular margins, sporadic pages uncut, sporadic old annotations in margins, old burn mark with a tiny loss of numbers in the inner side on one of the pages, binding slightly rubbed and bumped, with tiny loss of material around the spine and edges, inside in a good, clean condition).

This is an early Ottoman publication with the logarithmic tables, published by the Imperial Naval Press in Istanbul in the time of the Tanzimat.

The logarithms were introduced in Istanbul by Şekerzade Feyzullah (died 1787), who was the first author to compose a Turkish text on logarithms in 1165 (1751-1752). In the next decades other texts appeared, always in manuscript versions and without the tables.
Logaritma Cedâvili were the first printed logarithmic tables with Arabic numbers, first issued by the Imperial Press of Engineering in Istanbul in 1789 as a booklet with tables only. With decades the charts got enlarged and an introduction was added. (Feza Günergun - Gaye Danışan - Atilla Polat *Scientific*



ابراد	انبات	ابراد	انبات	ابراد	انبات
١٧٦٦٦	٤٢٤٧٠٧	١٧٦٨١	٤٢٤٧٥٠٧	١٧٧١٦	٤٢٤٨٣٦٦
١٧٦٦٧	٤٢٤٧١٤٦	١٧٦٨٢	٤٢٤٧٥٣١	١٧٧١٧	٤٢٤٨٣٨٠
١٧٦٦٨	٤٢٤٧١٨٥	١٧٦٨٣	٤٢٤٧٥٥٦	١٧٧١٨	٤٢٤٨٣٩٥
١٧٦٦٩	٤٢٤٧٢٢٤	١٧٦٨٤	٤٢٤٧٥٨٠	١٧٧١٩	٤٢٤٨٤١٠
١٧٦٦٩	٤٢٤٧٢٦٣	١٧٦٨٥	٤٢٤٧٦٠٣	١٧٧٢٠	٤٢٤٨٤٢٥
١٧٦٧٠	٤٢٤٧٣٠٢	١٧٦٨٦	٤٢٤٧٦٣٦	١٧٧٢١	٤٢٤٨٤٤٠
١٧٦٧١	٤٢٤٧٣٤١	١٧٦٨٧	٤٢٤٧٦٦٩	١٧٧٢٢	٤٢٤٨٤٥٥
١٧٦٧٢	٤٢٤٧٣٨٠	١٧٦٨٨	٤٢٤٧٧٠٢	١٧٧٢٣	٤٢٤٨٤٧٠
١٧٦٧٣	٤٢٤٧٤٠٠	١٧٦٨٩	٤٢٤٧٧٣٥	١٧٧٢٤	٤٢٤٨٤٨٥
١٧٦٧٤	٤٢٤٧٤٣٩	١٧٦٩٠	٤٢٤٧٧٧٨	١٧٧٢٥	٤٢٤٨٥٠٠
١٧٦٧٥	٤٢٤٧٤٧٨	١٧٦٩١	٤٢٤٧٨٠٤	١٧٧٢٦	٤٢٤٨٥١٥
١٧٦٧٦	٤٢٤٧٥١٨	١٧٦٩٢	٤٢٤٧٨٣٢	١٧٧٢٧	٤٢٤٨٥٣٠
١٧٦٧٧	٤٢٤٧٥٥٨	١٧٦٩٣	٤٢٤٧٨٦٠	١٧٧٢٨	٤٢٤٨٥٤٥
١٧٦٧٨	٤٢٤٧٥٩٨	١٧٦٩٤	٤٢٤٧٨٨٨	١٧٧٢٩	٤٢٤٨٥٦٠
١٧٦٧٩	٤٢٤٧٦٣٨	١٧٦٩٥	٤٢٤٧٩١٦	١٧٧٣٠	٤٢٤٨٥٧٥
١٧٦٨٠	٤٢٤٧٦٨٠	١٧٦٩٦	٤٢٤٧٩٤٤	١٧٧٣١	٤٢٤٨٥٩٠
١٧٦٨١	٤٢٤٧٦٩٣	١٧٦٩٧	٤٢٤٧٩٧٢	١٧٧٣٢	٤٢٤٨٦٠٥
١٧٦٨٢	٤٢٤٧٧٠٦	١٧٦٩٨	٤٢٤٨٠٠٠	١٧٧٣٣	٤٢٤٨٦٢٠
١٧٦٨٣	٤٢٤٧٧٤٠	١٧٦٩٩	٤٢٤٨٠٣٨	١٧٧٣٤	٤٢٤٨٦٣٥
١٧٦٨٤	٤٢٤٧٧٧٤	١٧٧٠٠	٤٢٤٨٠٧٦	١٧٧٣٥	٤٢٤٨٦٥٠
١٧٦٨٥	٤٢٤٧٨١٠	١٧٧٠١	٤٢٤٨١٠٤	١٧٧٣٦	٤٢٤٨٦٦٥
١٧٦٨٦	٤٢٤٧٨٤٦	١٧٧٠٢	٤٢٤٨١٣٢	١٧٧٣٧	٤٢٤٨٦٨٠
١٧٦٨٧	٤٢٤٧٨٨٢	١٧٧٠٣	٤٢٤٨١٦٠	١٧٧٣٨	٤٢٤٨٦٩٥
١٧٦٨٨	٤٢٤٧٩٢٠	١٧٧٠٤	٤٢٤٨١٨٨	١٧٧٣٩	٤٢٤٨٧١٠
١٧٦٨٩	٤٢٤٧٩٥٨	١٧٧٠٥	٤٢٤٨٢١٦	١٧٧٤٠	٤٢٤٨٧٢٥
١٧٦٩٠	٤٢٤٧٩٩٦	١٧٧٠٦	٤٢٤٨٢٤٤	١٧٧٤١	٤٢٤٨٧٤٠
١٧٦٩١	٤٢٤٨٠٣٤	١٧٧٠٧	٤٢٤٨٢٧٢	١٧٧٤٢	٤٢٤٨٧٥٥
١٧٦٩٢	٤٢٤٨٠٧٢	١٧٧٠٨	٤٢٤٨٣٠٠	١٧٧٤٣	٤٢٤٨٧٧٠
١٧٦٩٣	٤٢٤٨١٠٠	١٧٧٠٩	٤٢٤٨٣٣٠	١٧٧٤٤	٤٢٤٨٧٨٥
١٧٦٩٤	٤٢٤٨١٣٠	١٧٧١٠	٤٢٤٨٣٥٨	١٧٧٤٥	٤٢٤٨٨٠٠
١٧٦٩٥	٤٢٤٨١٥٨	١٧٧١١	٤٢٤٨٣٨٤	١٧٧٤٦	٤٢٤٨٨١٥
١٧٦٩٦	٤٢٤٨١٨٦	١٧٧١٢	٤٢٤٨٤٠٨	١٧٧٤٧	٤٢٤٨٨٣٠
١٧٦٩٧	٤٢٤٨٢٠٤	١٧٧١٣	٤٢٤٨٤٣٢	١٧٧٤٨	٤٢٤٨٨٤٥
١٧٦٩٨	٤٢٤٨٢٣٢	١٧٧١٤	٤٢٤٨٤٥٦	١٧٧٤٩	٤٢٤٨٨٦٠
١٧٦٩٩	٤٢٤٨٢٦٠	١٧٧١٥	٤٢٤٨٤٨٠	١٧٧٥٠	٤٢٤٨٨٧٥
١٧٧٠٠	٤٢٤٨٢٨٨	١٧٧١٦	٤٢٤٨٥٠٤	١٧٧٥١	٤٢٤٨٨٩٠
١٧٧٠١	٤٢٤٨٣٠٦	١٧٧١٧	٤٢٤٨٥٣٢	١٧٧٥٢	٤٢٤٨٩٠٥
١٧٧٠٢	٤٢٤٨٣٣٤	١٧٧١٨	٤٢٤٨٥٥٦	١٧٧٥٣	٤٢٤٨٩٢٠
١٧٧٠٣	٤٢٤٨٣٥٢	١٧٧١٩	٤٢٤٨٥٨٠	١٧٧٥٤	٤٢٤٨٩٣٥
١٧٧٠٤	٤٢٤٨٣٨٠	١٧٧٢٠	٤٢٤٨٦٠٤	١٧٧٥٥	٤٢٤٨٩٥٠
١٧٧٠٥	٤٢٤٨٤٠٨	١٧٧٢١	٤٢٤٨٦٣٢	١٧٧٥٦	٤٢٤٨٩٦٥
١٧٧٠٦	٤٢٤٨٤٣٦	١٧٧٢٢	٤٢٤٨٦٦٠	١٧٧٥٧	٤٢٤٨٩٨٠
١٧٧٠٧	٤٢٤٨٤٦٤	١٧٧٢٣	٤٢٤٨٦٨٨	١٧٧٥٨	٤٢٤٨٩٩٥
١٧٧٠٨	٤٢٤٨٤٩٢	١٧٧٢٤	٤٢٤٨٧١٦	١٧٧٥٩	٤٢٤٩٠٠٠
١٧٧٠٩	٤٢٤٨٥٠٠	١٧٧٢٥	٤٢٤٨٧٤٤	١٧٧٦٠	٤٢٤٩٠٢٥
١٧٧١٠	٤٢٤٨٥٣٠	١٧٧٢٦	٤٢٤٨٧٧٢	١٧٧٦١	٤٢٤٩٠٥٠
١٧٧١١	٤٢٤٨٥٥٨	١٧٧٢٧	٤٢٤٨٨٠٠	١٧٧٦٢	٤٢٤٩٠٧٥
١٧٧١٢	٤٢٤٨٥٨٦	١٧٧٢٨	٤٢٤٨٨٣٠	١٧٧٦٣	٤٢٤٩١٠٠
١٧٧١٣	٤٢٤٨٦٠٤	١٧٧٢٩	٤٢٤٨٨٥٨	١٧٧٦٤	٤٢٤٩١٢٥
١٧٧١٤	٤٢٤٨٦٣٢	١٧٧٣٠	٤٢٤٨٨٨٦	١٧٧٦٥	٤٢٤٩١٥٠
١٧٧١٥	٤٢٤٨٦٦٠	١٧٧٣١	٤٢٤٨٩٠٤	١٧٧٦٦	٤٢٤٩١٧٥
١٧٧١٦	٤٢٤٨٦٨٨	١٧٧٣٢	٤٢٤٨٩٣٢	١٧٧٦٧	٤٢٤٩٢٠٠
١٧٧١٧	٤٢٤٨٧١٦	١٧٧٣٣	٤٢٤٨٩٦٠	١٧٧٦٨	٤٢٤٩٢٢٥
١٧٧١٨	٤٢٤٨٧٤٤	١٧٧٣٤	٤٢٤٨٩٨٨	١٧٧٦٩	٤٢٤٩٢٥٠
١٧٧١٩	٤٢٤٨٧٧٢	١٧٧٣٥	٤٢٤٩٠١٦	١٧٧٧٠	٤٢٤٩٢٧٥
١٧٧٢٠	٤٢٤٨٨٠٠	١٧٧٣٦	٤٢٤٩٠٤٤	١٧٧٧١	٤٢٤٩٣٠٠
١٧٧٢١	٤٢٤٨٨٣٠	١٧٧٣٧	٤٢٤٩٠٧٢	١٧٧٧٢	٤٢٤٩٣٢٥
١٧٧٢٢	٤٢٤٨٨٥٨	١٧٧٣٨	٤٢٤٩١٠٠	١٧٧٧٣	٤٢٤٩٣٥٠
١٧٧٢٣	٤٢٤٨٨٨٦	١٧٧٣٩	٤٢٤٩١٣٠	١٧٧٧٤	٤٢٤٩٣٧٥
١٧٧٢٤	٤٢٤٨٩٠٤	١٧٧٤٠	٤٢٤٩١٥٨	١٧٧٧٥	٤٢٤٩٤٠٠
١٧٧٢٥	٤٢٤٨٩٣٢	١٧٧٤١	٤٢٤٩١٨٦	١٧٧٧٦	٤٢٤٩٤٢٥
١٧٧٢٦	٤٢٤٨٩٦٠	١٧٧٤٢	٤٢٤٩٢٠٤	١٧٧٧٧	٤٢٤٩٤٥٠
١٧٧٢٧	٤٢٤٨٩٨٨	١٧٧٤٣	٤٢٤٩٢٣٢	١٧٧٧٨	٤٢٤٩٤٧٥
١٧٧٢٨	٤٢٤٩٠١٦	١٧٧٤٤	٤٢٤٩٢٦٠	١٧٧٧٩	٤٢٤٩٥٠٠
١٧٧٢٩	٤٢٤٩٠٤٤	١٧٧٤٥	٤٢٤٩٢٨٨	١٧٧٨٠	٤٢٤٩٥٢٥
١٧٧٣٠	٤٢٤٩٠٧٢	١٧٧٤٦	٤٢٤٩٣١٦	١٧٧٨١	٤٢٤٩٥٥٠
١٧٧٣١	٤٢٤٩١٠٠	١٧٧٤٧	٤٢٤٩٣٤٤	١٧٧٨٢	٤٢٤٩٥٧٥
١٧٧٣٢	٤٢٤٩١٣٠	١٧٧٤٨	٤٢٤٩٣٧٢	١٧٧٨٣	٤٢٤٩٦٠٠
١٧٧٣٣	٤٢٤٩١٥٨	١٧٧٤٩	٤٢٤٩٤٠٠	١٧٧٨٤	٤٢٤٩٦٢٥
١٧٧٣٤	٤٢٤٩١٨٦	١٧٧٥٠	٤٢٤٩٤٣٠	١٧٧٨٥	٤٢٤٩٦٥٠
١٧٧٣٥	٤٢٤٩٢٠٤	١٧٧٥١	٤٢٤٩٤٥٨	١٧٧٨٦	٤٢٤٩٦٧٥
١٧٧٣٦	٤٢٤٩٢٣٢	١٧٧٥٢	٤٢٤٩٤٨٦	١٧٧٨٧	٤٢٤٩٧٠٠
١٧٧٣٧	٤٢٤٩٢٦٠	١٧٧٥٣	٤٢٤٩٥٠٤	١٧٧٨٨	٤٢٤٩٧٢٥
١٧٧٣٨	٤٢٤٩٢٨٨	١٧٧٥٤	٤٢٤٩٥٣٢	١٧٧٨٩	٤٢٤٩٧٥٠
١٧٧٣٩	٤٢٤٩٣١٦	١٧٧٥٥	٤٢٤٩٥٦٠	١٧٧٩٠	٤٢٤٩٧٧٥
١٧٧٤٠	٤٢٤٩٣٤٤	١٧٧٥٦	٤٢٤٩٥٨٨	١٧٧٩١	٤٢٤٩٨٠٠
١٧٧٤١	٤٢٤٩٣٧٢	١٧٧٥٧	٤٢٤٩٦١٦	١٧٧٩٢	٤٢٤٩٨٢٥
١٧٧٤٢	٤٢٤٩٤٠٠	١٧٧٥٨	٤٢٤٩٦٤٤	١٧٧٩٣	٤٢٤٩٨٥٠
١٧٧٤٣	٤٢٤٩٤٣٠	١٧٧٥٩	٤٢٤٩٦٧٢	١٧٧٩٤	٤٢٤٩٨٧٥
١٧٧٤٤	٤٢٤٩٤٥٨	١٧٧٦٠	٤٢٤٩٧٠٠	١٧٧٩٥	٤٢٤٩٩٠٠
١٧٧٤٥	٤٢٤٩٤٨٦	١٧٧٦١	٤٢٤٩٧٣٠	١٧٧٩٦	٤٢٤٩٩٢٥
١٧٧٤٦	٤٢٤٩٥٠٤	١٧٧٦٢	٤٢٤٩٧٥٨	١٧٧٩٧	٤٢٤٩٩٥٠
١٧٧٤٧	٤٢٤٩٥٣٢	١٧٧٦٣	٤٢٤٩٧٨٦	١٧٧٩٨	٤٢٤٩٩٧٥
١٧٧٤٨	٤٢٤٩٥٦٠	١٧٧٦٤	٤٢٤٩٨٠٤	١٧٧٩٩	٤٢٤٩٩٩٠
١٧٧٤٩	٤٢٤٩٥٨٨	١٧٧٦٥	٤٢٤٩٨٣٢	١٧٨٠٠	٤٢٥٠٠٢٥
١٧٧٥٠	٤٢٤٩٦١٦	١٧٧٦٦	٤٢٤٩٨٦٠	١٧٨٠١	٤٢٥٠٠٥٠
١٧٧٥١	٤٢٤٩٦٤٤	١٧٧٦٧	٤٢٤٩٨٨٨	١٧٨٠٢	٤٢٥٠٠٧٥
١٧٧٥٢	٤٢٤٩٦٧٢	١٧٧٦٨	٤٢٤٩٩١٦	١٧٨٠٣	٤٢٥٠١٠٠
١٧٧٥٣	٤٢٤٩٧٠٠	١٧٧٦٩	٤٢٤٩٩٤٤	١٧٨٠٤	٤٢٥٠١٢٥
١٧٧٥٤	٤٢٤٩٧٣٠	١٧٧٧٠	٤٢٤٩٩٧٢	١٧٨٠٥	٤٢٥٠١٥٠
١٧٧٥٥	٤٢٤٩٧٥٨	١٧٧٧١	٤٢٥٠٠٠٠	١٧٨٠٦	٤٢٥٠١٧٥
١٧٧٥٦	٤٢٤٩٧٨٦	١٧٧٧٢	٤٢٥٠٠٣٠	١٧٨٠٧	٤٢٥٠٢٠٠
١٧٧٥٧	٤٢٤٩٨٠٤	١٧٧٧٣	٤٢٥٠٠٥٨	١٧٨٠٨	٤٢٥٠٢٢٥
١٧٧٥٨	٤٢٤٩٨٣٢	١٧٧٧٤	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٠٩	٤٢٥٠٢٥٠
١٧٧٥٩	٤٢٤٩٨٦٠	١٧٧٧٥	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨١٠	٤٢٥٠٢٧٥
١٧٧٦٠	٤٢٤٩٨٨٨	١٧٧٧٦	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨١١	٤٢٥٠٣٠٠
١٧٧٦١	٤٢٤٩٩١٦	١٧٧٧٧	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨١٢	٤٢٥٠٣٢٥
١٧٧٦٢	٤٢٤٩٩٤٤	١٧٧٧٨	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨١٣	٤٢٥٠٣٥٠
١٧٧٦٣	٤٢٤٩٩٧٢	١٧٧٧٩	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨١٤	٤٢٥٠٣٧٥
١٧٧٦٤	٤٢٥٠٠٠٠	١٧٧٨٠	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨١٥	٤٢٥٠٤٠٠
١٧٧٦٥	٤٢٥٠٠٢٥	١٧٧٨١	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨١٦	٤٢٥٠٤٢٥
١٧٧٦٦	٤٢٥٠٠٥٠	١٧٧٨٢	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨١٧	٤٢٥٠٤٥٠
١٧٧٦٧	٤٢٥٠٠٧٥	١٧٧٨٣	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨١٨	٤٢٥٠٤٧٥
١٧٧٦٨	٤٢٥٠١٠٠	١٧٧٨٤	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨١٩	٤٢٥٠٥٠٠
١٧٧٦٩	٤٢٥٠١٢٥	١٧٧٨٥	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٢٠	٤٢٥٠٥٢٥
١٧٧٧٠	٤٢٥٠١٥٠	١٧٧٨٦	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٢١	٤٢٥٠٥٥٠
١٧٧٧١	٤٢٥٠١٧٥	١٧٧٨٧	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٢٢	٤٢٥٠٥٧٥
١٧٧٧٢	٤٢٥٠٢٠٠	١٧٧٨٨	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٢٣	٤٢٥٠٦٠٠
١٧٧٧٣	٤٢٥٠٢٢٥	١٧٧٨٩	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٢٤	٤٢٥٠٦٢٥
١٧٧٧٤	٤٢٥٠٢٥٠	١٧٧٩٠	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٢٥	٤٢٥٠٦٥٠
١٧٧٧٥	٤٢٥٠٢٧٥	١٧٧٩١	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٢٦	٤٢٥٠٦٧٥
١٧٧٧٦	٤٢٥٠٣٠٠	١٧٧٩٢	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٢٧	٤٢٥٠٧٠٠
١٧٧٧٧	٤٢٥٠٣٢٥	١٧٧٩٣	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٢٨	٤٢٥٠٧٢٥
١٧٧٧٨	٤٢٥٠٣٥٠	١٧٧٩٤	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٢٩	٤٢٥٠٧٥٠
١٧٧٧٩	٤٢٥٠٣٧٥	١٧٧٩٥	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٣٠	٤٢٥٠٧٧٥
١٧٧٨٠	٤٢٥٠٤٠٠	١٧٧٩٦	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٣١	٤٢٥٠٨٠٠
١٧٧٨١	٤٢٥٠٤٢٥	١٧٧٩٧	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٣٢	٤٢٥٠٨٢٥
١٧٧٨٢	٤٢٥٠٤٥٠	١٧٧٩٨	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٣٣	٤٢٥٠٨٥٠
١٧٧٨٣	٤٢٥٠٤٧٥	١٧٧٩٩	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٣٤	٤٢٥٠٨٧٥
١٧٧٨٤	٤٢٥٠٥٠٠	١٧٨٠٠	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٣٥	٤٢٥٠٩٠٠
١٧٧٨٥	٤٢٥٠٥٢٥	١٧٨٠١	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٣٦	٤٢٥٠٩٢٥
١٧٧٨٦	٤٢٥٠٥٥٠	١٧٨٠٢	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٣٧	٤٢٥٠٩٥٠
١٧٧٨٧	٤٢٥٠٥٧٥	١٧٨٠٣	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٣٨	٤٢٥٠٩٧٥
١٧٧٨٨	٤٢٥٠٦٠٠	١٧٨٠٤	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٣٩	٤٢٥٠٩٩٠
١٧٧٨٩	٤٢٥٠٦٢٥	١٧٨٠٥	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٤٠	٤٢٥١٠٢٥
١٧٧٩٠	٤٢٥٠٦٥٠	١٧٨٠٦	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٤١	٤٢٥١٠٥٠
١٧٧٩١	٤٢٥٠٦٧٥	١٧٨٠٧	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٤٢	٤٢٥١٠٧٥
١٧٧٩٢	٤٢٥٠٧٠٠	١٧٨٠٨	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٤٣	٤٢٥١١٠٠
١٧٧٩٣	٤٢٥٠٧٢٥	١٧٨٠٩	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٤٤	٤٢٥١١٢٥
١٧٧٩٤	٤٢٥٠٧٥٠	١٧٨١٠	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٤٥	٤٢٥١١٥٠
١٧٧٩٥	٤٢٥٠٧٧٥	١٧٨١١	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٤٦	٤٢٥١١٧٥
١٧٧٩٦	٤٢٥٠٨٠٠	١٧٨١٢	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٤٧	٤٢٥١٢٠٠
١٧٧٩٧	٤٢٥٠٨٢٥	١٧٨١٣	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٤٨	٤٢٥١٢٢٥
١٧٧٩٨	٤٢٥٠٨٥٠	١٧٨١٤	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٤٩	٤٢٥١٢٥٠
١٧٧٩٩	٤٢٥٠٨٧٥	١٧٨١٥	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٥٠	٤٢٥١٢٧٥
١٧٨٠٠	٤٢٥٠٩٠٠	١٧٨١٦	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٥١	٤٢٥١٣٠٠
١٧٨٠١	٤٢٥٠٩٢٥	١٧٨١٧	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٥٢	٤٢٥١٣٢٥
١٧٨٠٢	٤٢٥٠٩٥٠	١٧٨١٨	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٥٣	٤٢٥١٣٥٠
١٧٨٠٣	٤٢٥٠٩٧٥	١٧٨١٩	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٥٤	٤٢٥١٣٧٥
١٧٨٠٤	٤٢٥٠٩٩٠	١٧٨٢٠	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٥٥	٤٢٥١٤٠٠
١٧٨٠٥	٤٢٥١٠٢٥	١٧٨٢١	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٥٦	٤٢٥١٤٢٥
١٧٨٠٦	٤٢٥١٠٥٠	١٧٨٢٢	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٥٧	٤٢٥١٤٥٠
١٧٨٠٧	٤٢٥١٠٧٥	١٧٨٢٣	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٥٨	٤٢٥١٤٧٥
١٧٨٠٨	٤٢٥١١٠٠	١٧٨٢٤	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٥٩	٤٢٥١٥٠٠
١٧٨٠٩	٤٢٥١١٢٥	١٧٨٢٥	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٦٠	٤٢٥١٥٢٥
١٧٨١٠	٤٢٥١١٥٠	١٧٨٢٦	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٦١	٤٢٥١٥٥٠
١٧٨١١	٤٢٥١١٧٥	١٧٨٢٧	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٦٢	٤٢٥١٥٧٥
١٧٨١٢	٤٢٥١٢٠٠	١٧٨٢٨	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٦٣	٤٢٥١٦٠٠
١٧٨١٣	٤٢٥١٢٢٥	١٧٨٢٩	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٦٤	٤٢٥١٦٢٥
١٧٨١٤	٤٢٥١٢٥٠	١٧٨٣٠	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٦٥	٤٢٥١٦٥٠
١٧٨١٥	٤٢٥١٢٧٥	١٧٨٣١	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٦٦	٤٢٥١٦٧٥
١٧٨١٦	٤٢٥١٣٠٠	١٧٨٣٢	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٦٧	٤٢٥١٧٠٠
١٧٨١٧	٤٢٥١٣٢٥	١٧٨٣٣	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٦٨	٤٢٥١٧٢٥
١٧٨١٨	٤٢٥١٣٥٠	١٧٨٣٤	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٦٩	٤٢٥١٧٥٠
١٧٨١٩	٤٢٥١٣٧٥	١٧٨٣٥	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٧٠	٤٢٥١٧٧٥
١٧٨٢٠	٤٢٥١٤٠٠	١٧٨٣٦	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٧١	٤٢٥١٨٠٠
١٧٨٢١	٤٢٥١٤٢٥	١٧٨٣٧	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٧٢	٤٢٥١٨٢٥
١٧٨٢٢	٤٢٥١٤٥٠	١٧٨٣٨	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٧٣	٤٢٥١٨٥٠
١٧٨٢٣	٤٢٥١٤٧٥	١٧٨٣٩	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٧٤	٤٢٥١٨٧٥
١٧٨٢٤	٤٢٥١٥٠٠	١٧٨٤٠	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٧٥	٤٢٥١٩٠٠
١٧٨٢٥	٤٢٥١٥٢٥	١٧٨٤١	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٧٦	٤٢٥١٩٢٥
١٧٨٢٦	٤٢٥١٥٥٠	١٧٨٤٢	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٧٧	٤٢٥١٩٥٠
١٧٨٢٧	٤٢٥١٥٧٥	١٧٨٤٣	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٧٨	٤٢٥١٩٧٥
١٧٨٢٨	٤٢٥١٦٠٠	١٧٨٤٤	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٧٩	٤٢٥٢٠٠٠
١٧٨٢٩	٤٢٥١٦٢٥	١٧٨٤٥	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٨٠	٤٢٥٢٠٢٥
١٧٨٣٠	٤٢٥١٦٥٠	١٧٨٤٦	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٨١	٤٢٥٢٠٥٠
١٧٨٣١	٤٢٥١٦٧٥	١٧٨٤٧	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٨٢	٤٢٥٢٠٧٥
١٧٨٣٢	٤٢٥١٧٠٠	١٧٨٤٨	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٨٣	٤٢٥٢١٠٠
١٧٨٣٣	٤٢٥١٧٢٥	١٧٨٤٩	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٨٤	٤٢٥٢١٢٥
١٧٨٣٤	٤٢٥١٧٥٠	١٧٨٥٠	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٨٥	٤٢٥٢١٥٠
١٧٨٣٥	٤٢٥١٧٧٥	١٧٨٥١	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٨٦	٤٢٥٢١٧٥
١٧٨٣٦	٤٢٥١٨٠٠	١٧٨٥٢	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٨٧	٤٢٥٢٢٠٠
١٧٨٣٧	٤٢٥١٨٢٥	١٧٨٥٣	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٨٨	٤٢٥٢٢٢٥
١٧٨٣٨	٤٢٥١٨٥٠	١٧٨٥٤	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٨٩	٤٢٥٢٢٥٠
١٧٨٣٩	٤٢٥١٨٧٥	١٧٨٥٥	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٩٠	٤٢٥٢٢٧٥
١٧٨٤٠	٤٢٥١٩٠٠	١٧٨٥٦	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٩١	٤٢٥٢٣٠٠
١٧٨٤١	٤٢٥١٩٢٥	١٧٨٥٧	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٩٢	٤٢٥٢٣٢٥
١٧٨٤٢	٤٢٥١٩٥٠	١٧٨٥٨	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٩٣	٤٢٥٢٣٥٠
١٧٨٤٣	٤٢٥١٩٧٥	١٧٨٥٩	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٩٤	٤٢٥٢٣٧٥
١٧٨٤٤	٤٢٥٢٠٠٠	١٧٨٦٠	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٩٥	٤٢٥٢٤٠٠
١٧٨٤٥	٤٢٥٢٠٢٥	١٧٨٦١	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٩٦	٤٢٥٢٤٢٥
١٧٨٤٦	٤٢٥٢٠٥٠	١٧٨٦٢	٤٢٥٠٠٨٦	١٧٨٩٧	٤٢٥٢٤٥٠
١٧٨٤

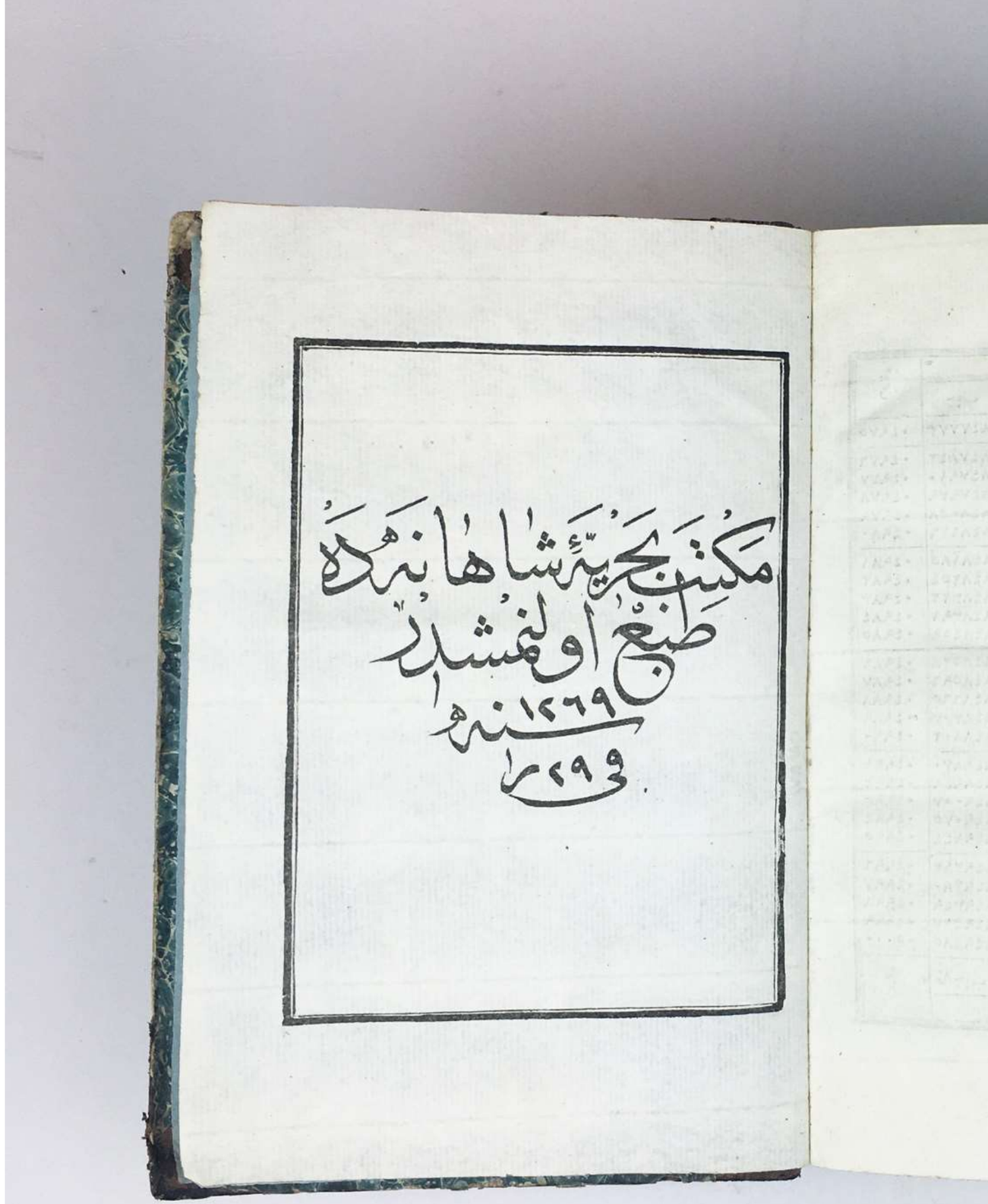
instruments between East and West. Measuring Altitudes with an Alla Franca Instrument. The Ottoman Engineer Feyzi's Treatise on the Portable Sextant, 2019, p. 73)

Our version with over 600 pages is a modernized and updated version with a lithographed introduction on the logarithms, issued by the Imperial Naval Press.

We could find two institutional examples on Worldcat, both housed in Turkish libraries (Boğaziçi University Library, KOÇ University Library).

References: OCLC 949508621.

520 EUR



18. Law in Arabic Countries And The Ottoman Empire

حقوق الحقوق

[Hukuk / Al-Hukuk]

Istanbul: 1890-1891

8°. 12 parallel issues in Ottoman (203 pp.) and Arabic languages (199 pp.) (all together 24 units with 402 pp.), bound together. Original cloth boards, brown calf spine with gilt decoration and lettering, original marbled endpapers, old taxation stamps (minor staining and foxing, binding slightly scuffed on the corners, spine with light scratches and a tiny worm hole, small cracks in the gutters of the endpapers, overall in a good clean condition).

No 1: *Ott.* 24 pp. / *Arab.* 20 pp. **No 2:** *Ott.* 26-40 pp. / *Arab.* 22-36 pp. **No 3:** *Ott.* 42-56 pp. / *Arab.* 38-52 pp. **No 4:** *Ott.* 58-72 pp. / *Arab.* 54-68 pp. **No 5:** *Ott.* 74-88 pp. / *Arab.* 70-84 pp. **No 6:** *Ott.* 90-104 pp. / *Arab.* 86-100 pp. **No 7:** *Ott.* 106-120 pp. / *Arab.* 102-116 pp. **No 8:** *Ott.* 122-136 pp. / *Arab.* 118-132 pp. **No 9:** *Ott.* 138-152 pp. / *Arab.* 134-148 pp. **No 10:** *Ott.* 154-168 pp. / *Arab.* 150-164 pp. **No 11:** *Ott.* 170-184 pp. / *Arab.* 166-180 pp. **No 12:** *Ott.* 186-203 pp. / *Arab.* 182-199 pp.

The complete first year of one of the first newspapers on law, written under the Western influences and parallelly issued in Ottoman and Arabic languages.

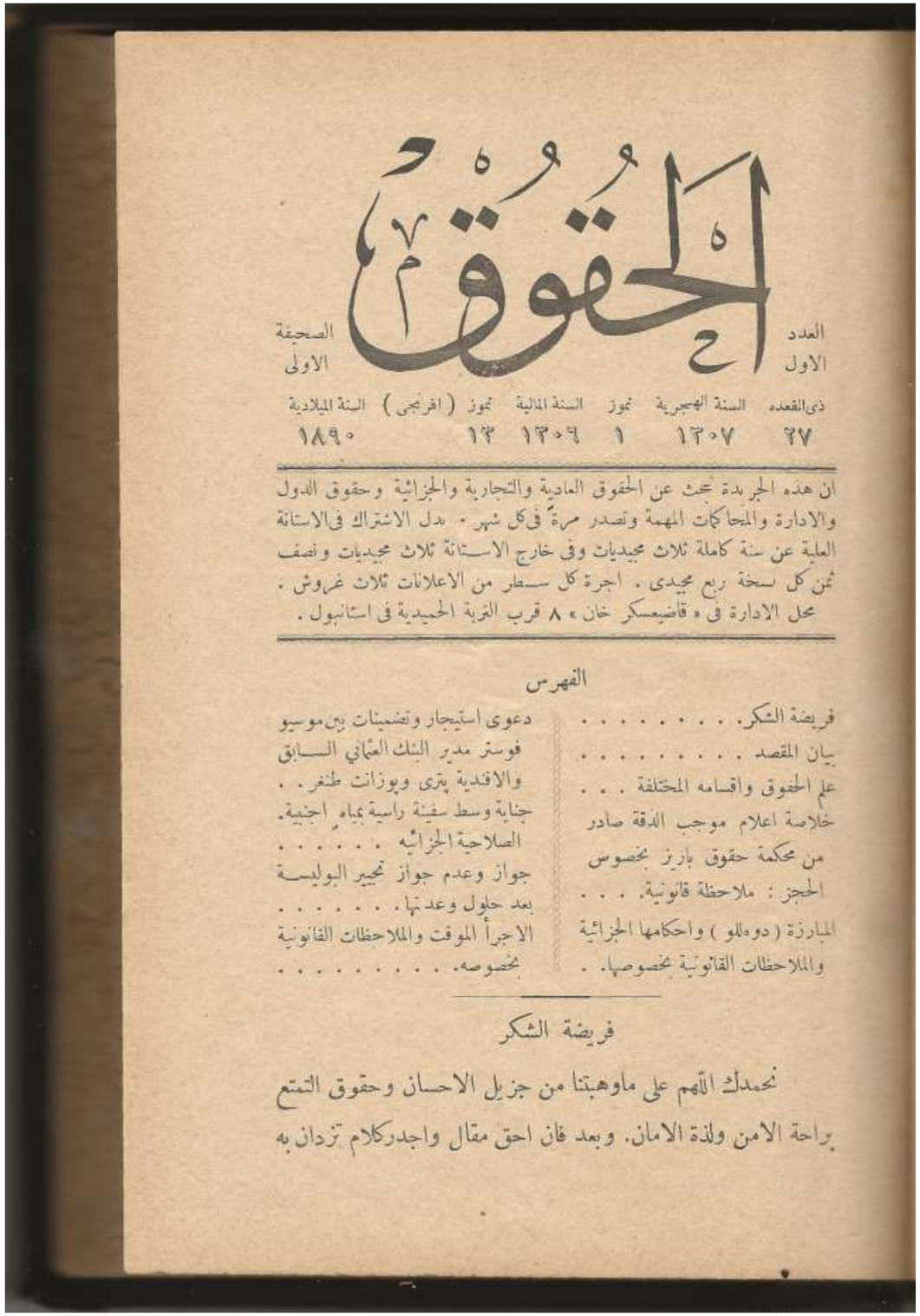
The newspaper was published once per month and according to the text under the title published articles on “collective, commercial and penal rights, the rights of states, administration, and important trials”. It was issued in 50 numbers until 1896.

This is the complete series of the first year in both languages.

We could find three institutional copies of the series (Princeton University Library, McGill University Library, Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin - Preußischer Kulturbesitz).

References: OCLC 427979759, 175311757, 1158576941.

1.800 EUR


الحقوق

العدد الاول — الصحيفة الاولى

السنة الميلادية	(افرنجي) تموز	السنة المالية	تموز	السنة الهجرية	ذي القعده
١٨٩٠	١٣	١٣٠٦	١	١٣٠٧	٢٧

ان هذه الجريدة تبحث عن الحقوق العادية والتجارية والجزائية وحقوق الدول والادارة والمحاكمات المهمة وتصدر مرة في كل شهر . بدل الاشتراك في الاستانة العلية عن سنة كاملة ثلاث مجيديات وفي خارج الاستانة ثلاث مجيديات ونصف ثمن كل نسخة ربع مجيدي . اجرة كل سطر من الاعلانات ثلاث غروش . محل الادارة في « قاضيعسكر خان » ٨ قرب التربة الحميدية في استانبول .

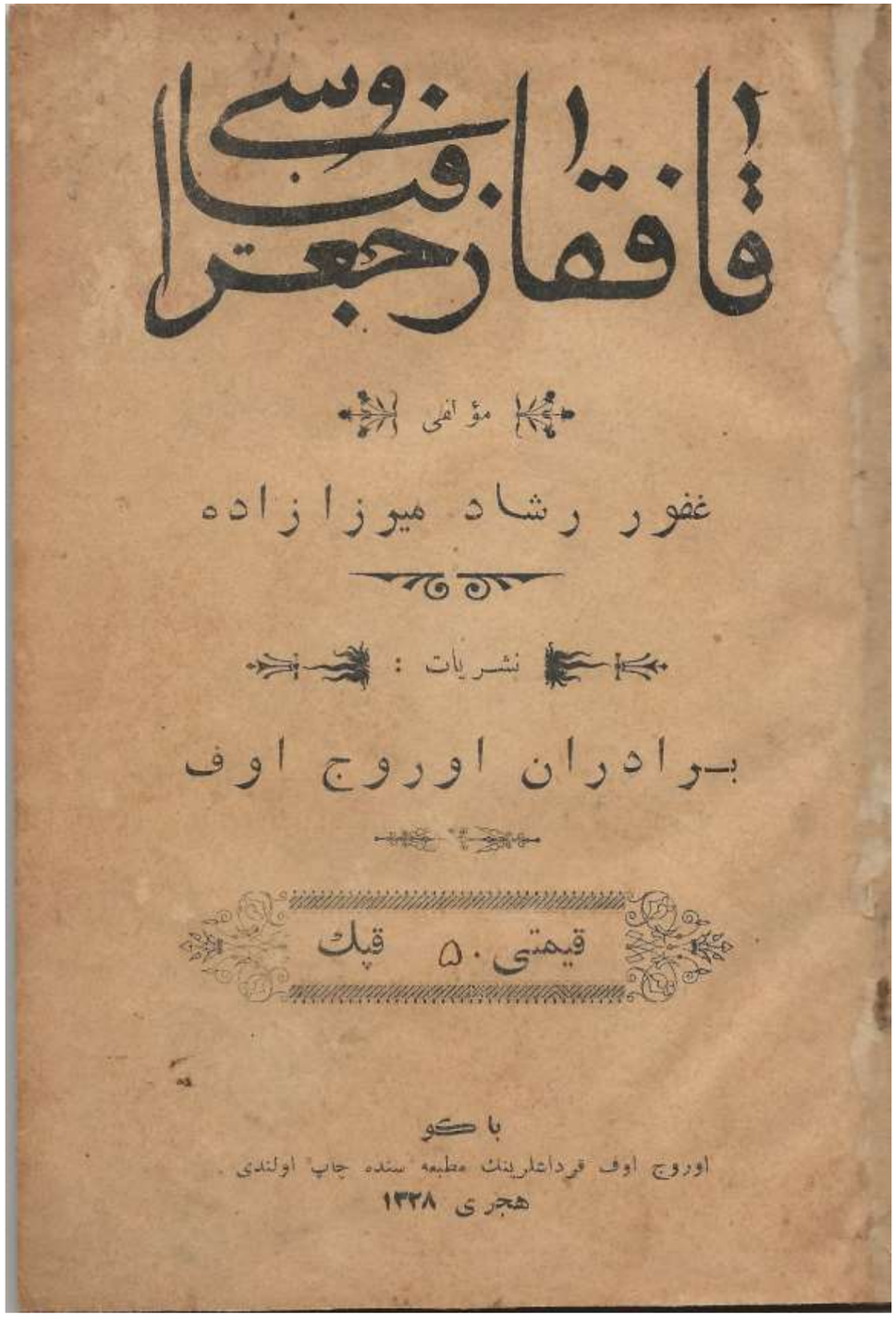
الفهرس

فريضة الشكر . . . . . دعوى استيجار وتضمينات بين موسيو
بيان المقصد . . . . . فوستر مدير البنك العثماني السابق
علم الحقوق واقسامه المختلفة . . . والاقدية بترى وبوزانت طنغر . .
خلاصة اعلام موجب الذقة صادر جناية وسط سفينة راسية بمياه اجنبية.
من محكمة حقوق بارز بخصوص الصلاحية الجزائيه . . . . . .
الحجز : ملاحظة قانونية. . . جواز وعدم جواز تحرير البوليسة
المبارزة (دوللو) واحكامها الجزائية بعد حلول وعدتها. . . . . .
والملاحظات القانونية بخصوصها. . الاجرأ الموقت والملاحظات القانونية
بخصوصه. . . . . .

فريضة الشكر

نحمدك اللهم على ماوهبتنا من جزيل الاحسان وحقوق التمتع براحة الامن ولذة الامان. وبعد فان احق مقال واجدر كلام تزدان به

19. Azeri Early Modern Geography



غفور رشاد میرزا زاده Qafur Rəşad Ələkbər oğlu Mirzə-zadə (Gafur Rashad Alakbar / Mirzazade, 1884-1943)

قافقاز جعرفیاوسی

[Kafkaz Coğrafyası / Geography of the Caucasus]

Baku: Oruçof Kardeşler 1328 [1910]

8°. 117 pp. with black and white illustrations, [1 pp.], later marbled paper wrappers (slightly age-toned, light staining, sporadic old repaired tears in margins, lacking original wrappers, otherwise in a good, clean condition).

The first modern book on geography in Azeri, written by a pioneer of Azeri modern education, Gafur Rashad Alakbar

This is the first modern book in geography in Azeri language, written by a pioneer of the 20th century Azeri education Gafur Rashad Alakbar (Mirzazade).

Gafur Rashad Alakbar (1884-1943) was born in a poor family and received high school education through a sponsor. Due to lack of funding he was forced to quit his education and work as a teacher. Curious and self-educated from many contemporary books and magazines, Alakbar upgraded his knowledge and authored a series of Azeri pioneering educational books, mostly on geography, many of which were used for the following decades. He was also a founder of widely popular children's magazine *Məktəb* (School).

Gafur Rashad Alakbar's work represent the foundation for the modern Azeri school system.

Alakbar's modern pedagogical approach, mostly in teaching geography, replaced the old, 18th century system, where students had to learn names and dates in established order, without any connotation. He

was also an early supporter of the changes of written Azeri, which would approach it more to the spoken language of the area.

Gafur Rashad Alakbar’s words on the goals of his teaching methods, applying a critical approach, were:

Today's geography, unlike the geography of the past, does not consist of memorizing inanimate names and long numbers in students. The geography of today is the geography of judgments, observations, judgments, judgments that imitate the spirit of the students and attract them.

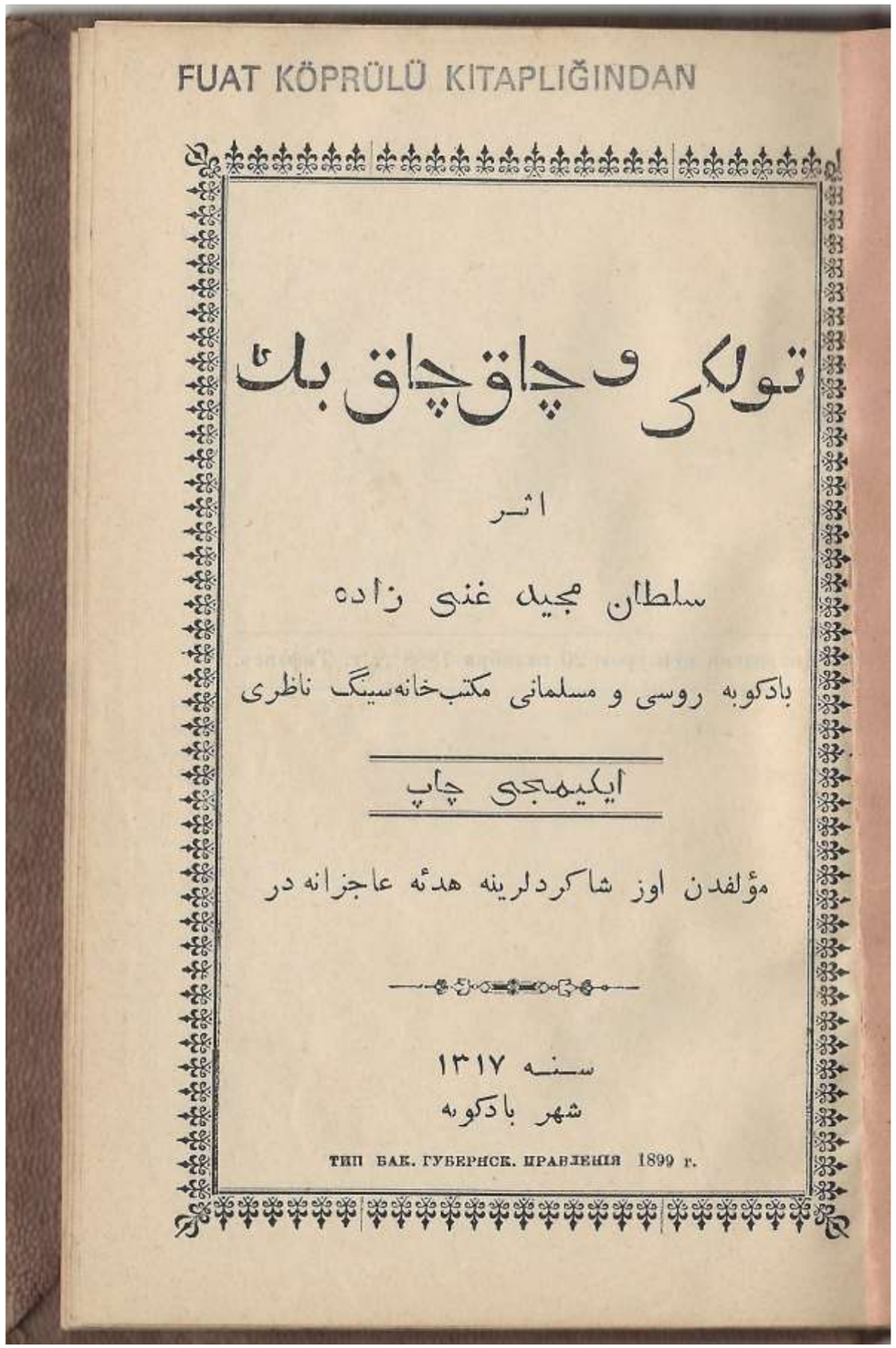
It appears, that two versions of this book were published in the same year, differing slightly in the design of the title page. The other version dates the book in 1328 and 1910.

We could not find any institutional examples.

620 EUR



20. Azeri Children’s Literature



Sultan Mecid Ganizade also Sultan Məcid Qənizadə (1866-1937 or 1938 or 1942)

تولکی و چاق چاق بك

[Tülkü [Tilki] ve Çakçak Bey],

Baku: Tip. Bak. Gubernsk. Pravlenija 1317 - 1899

12°. Title page, 41 pp., [4 pp.] blank, original pink wrappers with lettering and illustrations, contemporary brown cloth binding with debossed titles in Russian and Azeri on the covers, interleaved 5 illustrations in dark green (old collector’s stamp on the title page, binding with light age-toning and staining, inside in a good, clean condition).

An attractive book for children in Azeri language, written with Arabic letters, with a humorous story in verses, was published in Baku in 1899. The translation of the title and imprint in Russian Cyrillic is printed on the back cover.

The author Sultan Mecid Ganizade was a director of the Muslim and Russian school in Baku. He is a well known Azerbaijani educator, writer, translator and author of a number of articles, books and dictionaries. Trained as a teacher Sultan Mecid Ganizade’s first jobs were in the province. In 1887, he founded a primary school in Baku, called “Russian-Azerbaijani School”, which used modern teaching methods.

Sultan Mecid Ganizade translated numberless works from Russian to Azeri and , was corresponding with Leo Tolstoy and was publishing in the popular sarcastic magazine Molla Nasreddin.

In 1917, Sultan became the director of the public schools and two years later in 1919, he was elected the vice president of the parliament. He was active in the Union Party, which advocated Muslims.

Sultan Mecid Ganizade was arrested by the Soviets in 1937. The stories about his death differ. As some information quote, that he was shot after his arrest and short trial, the other quote the year of his death as 1942.

Provenience

Our example comes from a collection of Mehmet Fuat Köprülü (1890 – 1966) a famous turkologist, sociologist, scholar and Minister of Foreign Affairs and Deputy Prime Minister of the Republic of Turkey.

The work is very rare. We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

References: Özege 21377. Yavuz Akpinar, Yaşar Karayev: Tdv İslâm Ansiklopedisi, Sultan Mecid Ganîzâde (Sultan Mecid Ganîzâde - TDV İslâm Ansiklopedisi (islamansiklopedisi.org.tr)).

380 EUR



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چخدی چاقچاق پاه پاه ایله
طمطراق ایله دستگاه ایله

دوشدی تولکی اودم یولنگ آغینه
واز آتردی یولنگ صول و صاغینه

قویروقین شکیوب دوتوب شیم شیش
کلدی جولانه ایلدی کردش

باخدی گوردی اوزاقده بر جوبان
چاغرور وای بالام چابر بالابان

اوتلیور بر سوری قویون له قوزی
هاموسی قاره کل قارالی گوزی

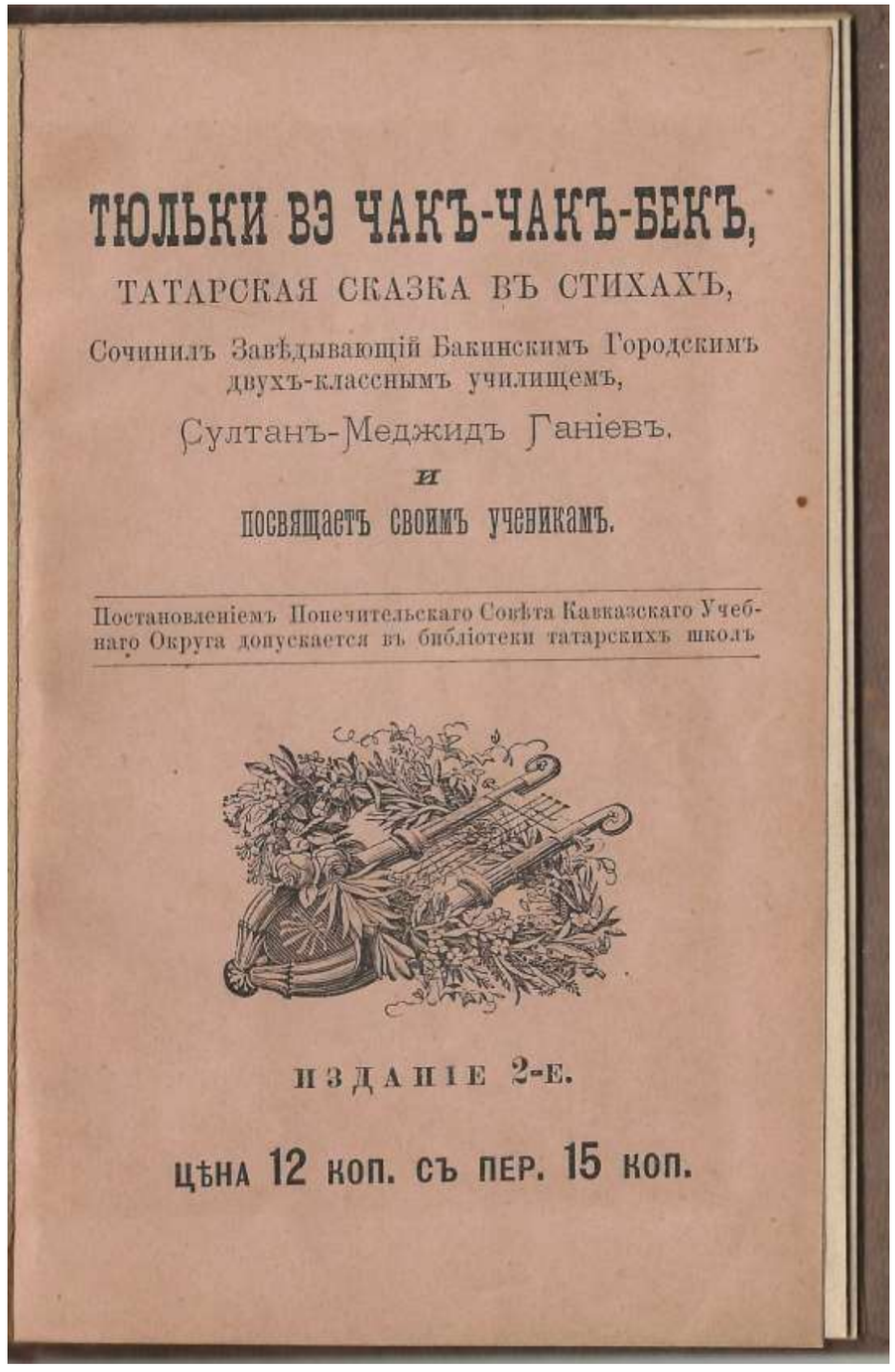
زورنا قوچلار یونی ایک کبی آغ
بویتوزی بورمه قویروقی ساللاغ

اویناشیرلر چیشار بیچی‌لر
آکری بوبوز اوزون سقال کیچی‌لر

بو بری یانه تولکی آندی نظر
گوردی آت مال بی حساب گزر

اوتلیور ایلخی ایلخی آت... نیجه آت؟..
هر بری یوز تومان عیارلی مات

چخدی چاقچاق پاه پاه ایله طمطراق ایله دستگاه ایله



ТЮЛЬКИ ВЭ ЧАКЪ-ЧАКЪ-БЕКЪ,

ТАТАРСКАЯ СКАЗКА ВЪ СТИХАХЪ,

Сочинилъ Завѣдывающій Бакинскимъ Городскимъ двухъ-класснымъ училищемъ,

Султанъ-Меджидъ Ганіевъ.

и

посвящаетъ своимъ ученикамъ.

Постановленіемъ Попечительскаго Совѣта Кавказскаго Учебнаго Округа допускается въ библіотеки татарскихъ школъ

ИЗДАНІЕ 2-Е.

ЦѢНА 12 КОП. СЪ ПЕР. 15 КОП.

21. Kazan Imprint
Tatar History

Edward Tracy TURNERELLI (1813-1896), author; Nadžib HALFIN, translator.

بلغار خرابه لری هم برونغی بلغارلر

[Bulgar Harabeleri hem Burunegi Bulgarları / The Ruins of Bolghar and the Ancient Bulgars]

Kazan: Tipo-litografya Imperatorskago universiteta [Typo-lithography of the Imperial University] 1908

8°. 44 pp. with black and white illustrations, later wrappers (slightly age-toned and stained, otherwise in a good condition).

A rare Tatar publication with an illustrated text on the ruins of the ancient city Bolghar, the capital of Volga Bulgaria from the 8th until 15th century, was printed in Kazan in 1908.

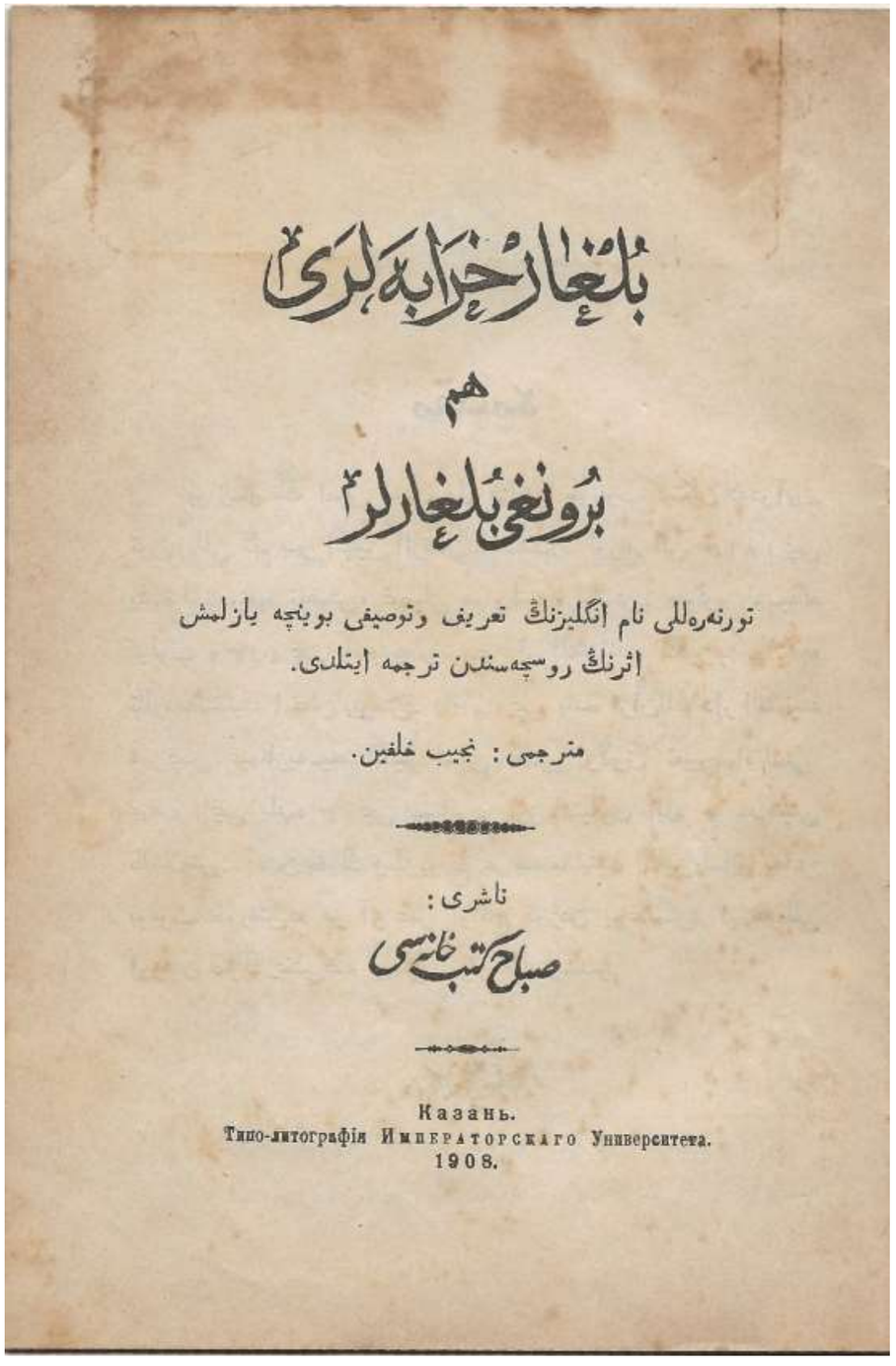
Bolghar is situated south of Kazan. Once a rich city with impressive buildings was ransacked in 1431. During the Soviet times it was known as a pilgrimage place for the Muslims from the Soviet Union, as they can not make the Hajj to Mecca. Today the buildings are protected by UNESCO.

The text was originally published in English, as a part of an important book *Kazan, the Ancient Capital of the Tartar Khans* (1854) by Edward Tracy Turnerelli (1813-1896), who travelled to Saint Petersburg as a teacher and worked as an English lecturer in Kazan.
The chapter on Bolghar was translated to Russian and issued under a title Развалините на Болгар и древните българи. This Russian version served Nadžib Halfin, an author and politician from Kazan, to publish his Tatar version of the book with a possible goal to strengthen the identity of the locals and awareness of the presence of Tatars in the region through historical evidence.

In 1918, Halfin was on the committee to proclaim the independence Idel-Ural State also known as a Volga-Ural State, a short-lived independent state of Turkic peoples and Volga Germans. The Bolsheviks suppressed the state and annexed Kazan to the Soviet Union.

The work is very rare. We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

280 EUR


بلغار خرابه لری

هم

برونغی بلغارلر

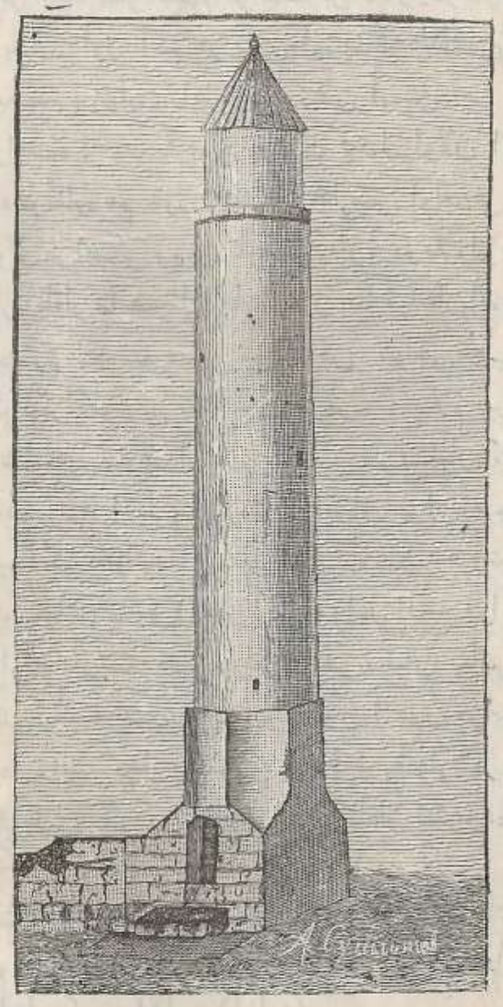
تورنه‌رللی نام انگلیزنك تعریف وتوصیفی بوینچه یازلمش
اثرنك روسچه‌سندن ترجمه ایتلدی.

مترجمی: نجیب خلفین.

ناشری:
صباح کتب خانه‌سی

Казань.
Типо-литографія Императорскаго Университета.
1908.

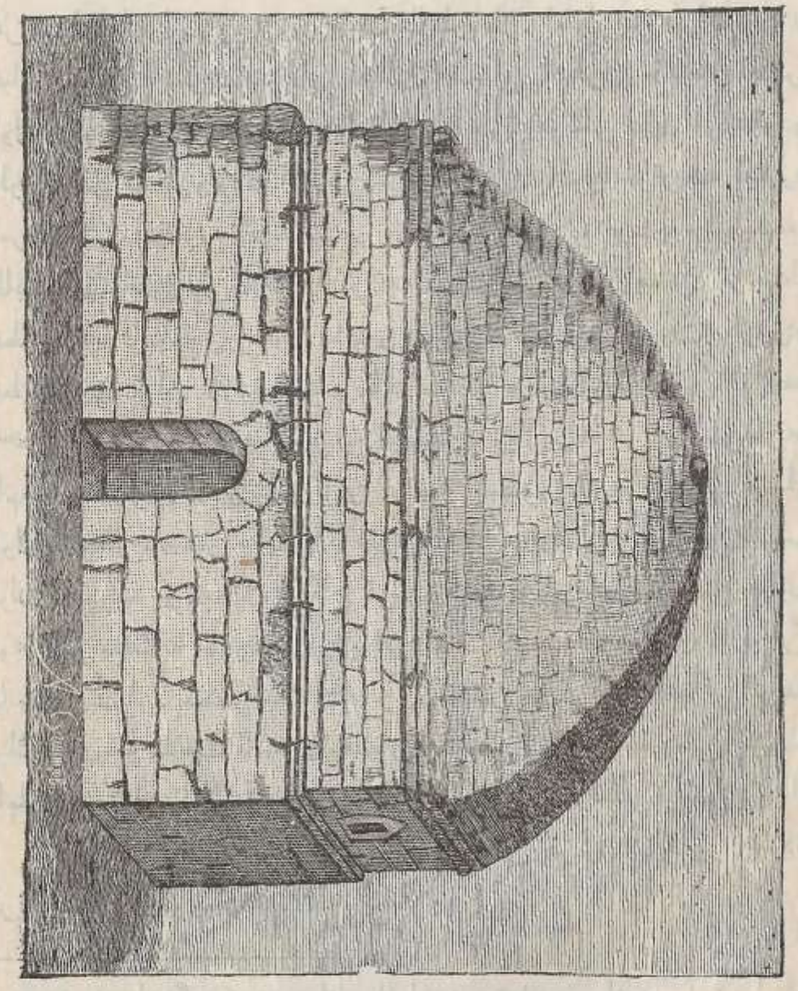
بلغار خرابه‌لری



الوغ مناره یاکه بیوك مناره

(پاللاس رسمی بوینچه)

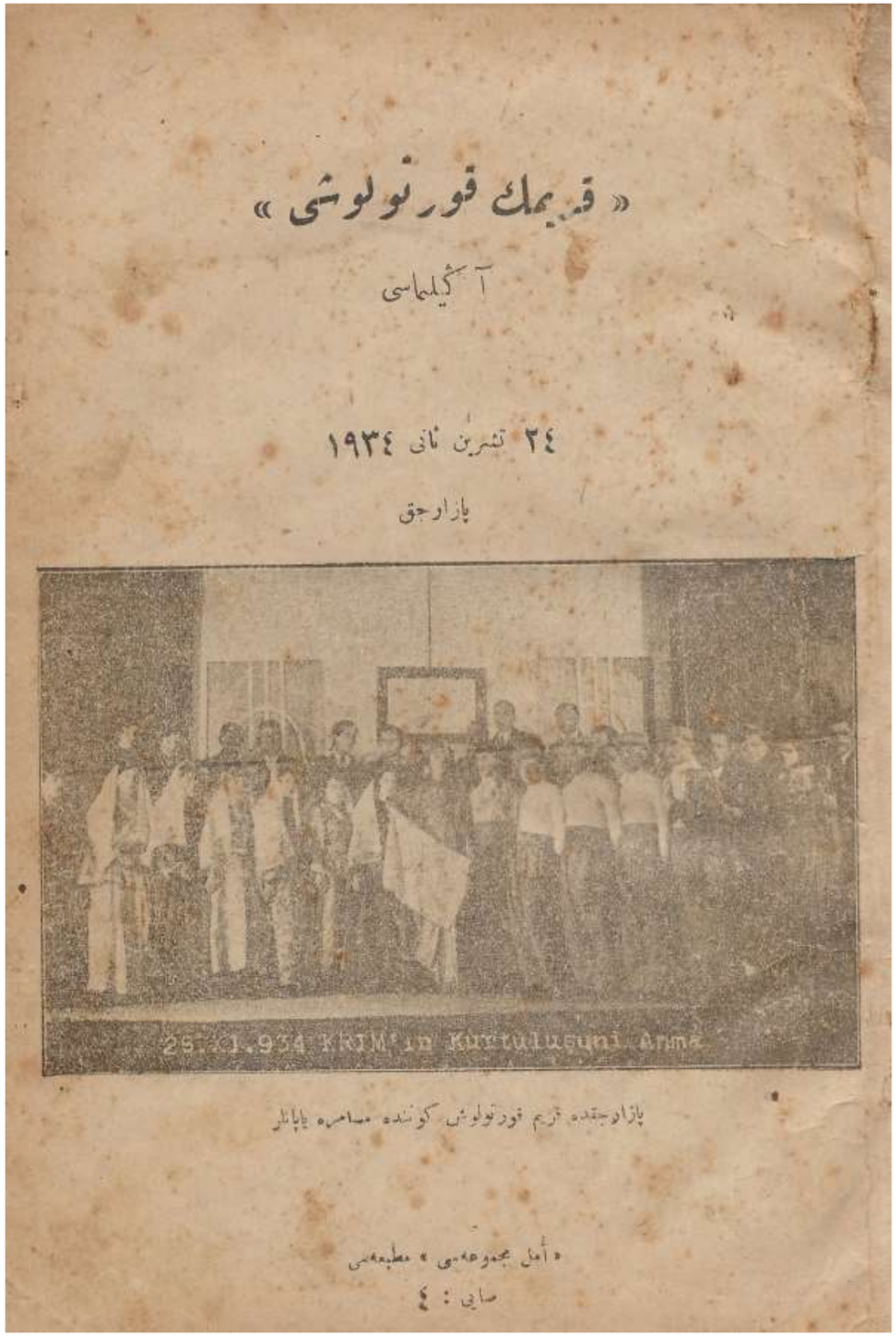
بلغار خرابه‌لری



حاضرگی کلیسه یانده بر بنا

(پاللاس رسمی بوینچه)

22. Tatars in Bulgaria



Fazıl Bey (Müstecib Ülküsal or Müstecib Hacı Fazıl, 1899 – 1996) – نجمیه رضا خانم Najmiyya Reza Hanım - سلیم ولی (Selim Vali)

قریمك قورتولوشی آكیلماسی

[Kırımın Kurtuluşu Anılması / Commemoration of the Liberation of Crimea]

Dobrič, Bulgaria (*Turk*. Pazarçık): 24 November 1934

8°. 34 pp., with two illustrations, [2 pp.] index, modern wrappers (slightly age-toned and stained, sporadic old repairs in white margins, small holes, cause from an old binding in the inner white margins, otherwise in a good condition).

A rare newspaper by the Crimean Tatars, printed in Dobrich in Bulgaria, with a contribution from the Tatars from Warsaw

This is the fourth issue of a rare publication by the Crimean Tatars, living in Bulgaria. It was published in 1934 at the occasion of an event, held for the commemoration of the Liberation of Crimea.

The text mostly discusses the events of WWI.

The event was led by Müstecib Ülküsal (also Müstecib Hacı Fazıl or Fazıl Bey) and Najmiyya Reza, a female narrator, who are depicted on the photograph, together with other participants.

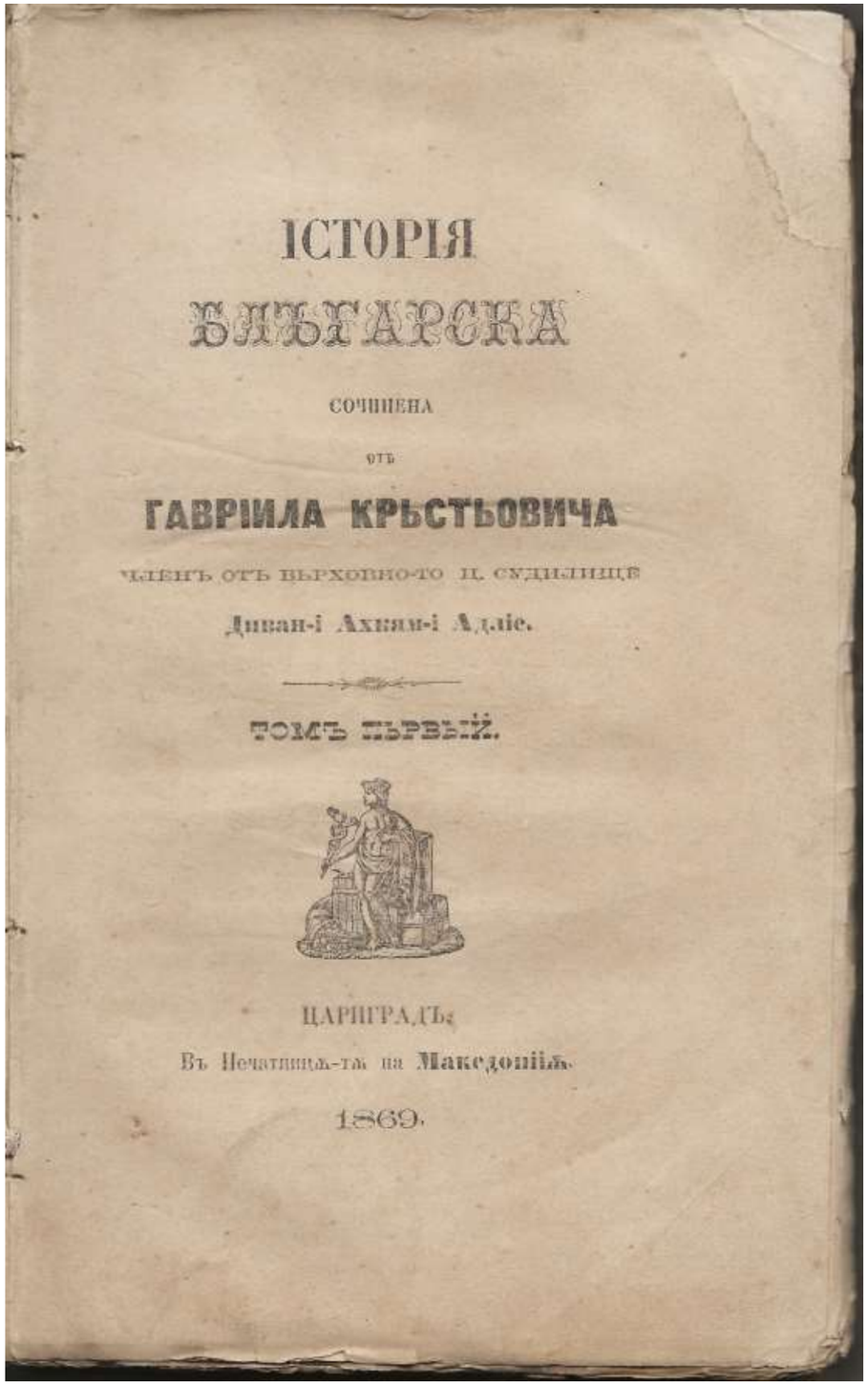
Müstecib H. Fazıl (later known as Müstecib Ülküsal, 1899-1996) was an author and lawyer of Crimean Tatar origins living in Romania. Fazıl was known for his active work on the history of the Turkish minority living in Romania and connecting the contemporary émigrés. His most famous work is Dobruca ve Türkler (Dobrič and Turks) on the Turkish population in the Romanian region Dobrič on the Black Sea, published in 1940. He was also an author of books on Crimean Turkish Tatars and proverbs of the Turkish Tatars in Dobrič. In 1941, he moved to Turkey, where he received a Turkish citizenship.

The last text was written by Selim Vali (Wali) from a community of Tatars in Warsaw.

We could not find any institutional copies on Worldcat.

220 EUR

23. Bulgarian Publication in Istanbul



Gawril Baew Krastewitsch (Гаврил Баев Кръстевич, 1817-1898)

История блъгарска

[Bulgaian History]

Istanbul: Pečatnina na Makedoniia [Macedonian Press] 1869.

8°, [2] title page, XXI, 616 pp., [4 pp.] errata, newer marbled wrappers (uncut example, partly unbound title page with missing upper white corner, some pages lightly stained, old dried moist stains between pages 180-200, otherwise in a good condition). The first and the only published volume.

A rare, important history book in Bulgarian language, written by a prominent Bulgarian diplomat, was printed in Istanbul by a Macedonian Press

A rare book on the Bulgarian history was published in Istanbul by the Macedonian Press in Bulgarian language and script. The introduction on the back side of the title page is written in the Ottoman script.

The author Gawril Krastewitsch (Гаврил Кръстевич, 1817-1898) was a lawyer, Bulgarian diplomat in the Ottoman Empire, the last Governor General of Eastern Rumelia in 1884-1885 and a fighter for the independence of the Bulgarian Church in the Ottoman Empire. Krastewitsch was also known as an active publisher, editor, translator, historian and author of Bulgarian books in Istanbul.

A reprint of this important work was published in Sofia from 2016 on (OCLC 962401905).

References: OCLC 1012624021, 651991441.

850 EUR

24. Tokyo Tatar Islamic Press

هفتيك شريف

[Haftyak Sharif]

Tokyo: Islamic Press 1931

12°, [2 pp.] title page, 173 pp. photolithographed text, [2 pp.] imprint in Tatar and Japanese, original black cloth binding with gilt lettering, golden edges (cracks in gutters with sporadic loose sheets, binding lightly scuffed on the corners and rubbed in the lower part and on the spine, endpapers slightly age-toned, otherwise in a good condition).

Haftyak Sharif is a collection of most important passages from the Quran, which is used in the first years of the Islamic schools, or madrasas, for the children to learn by heart. Although written in Arabic, a language unknown to most of the pupils, the goal was to learn a correct pronunciation of the Quran, the basis of all Islamic studies. All the words are hence clearly vocalized.

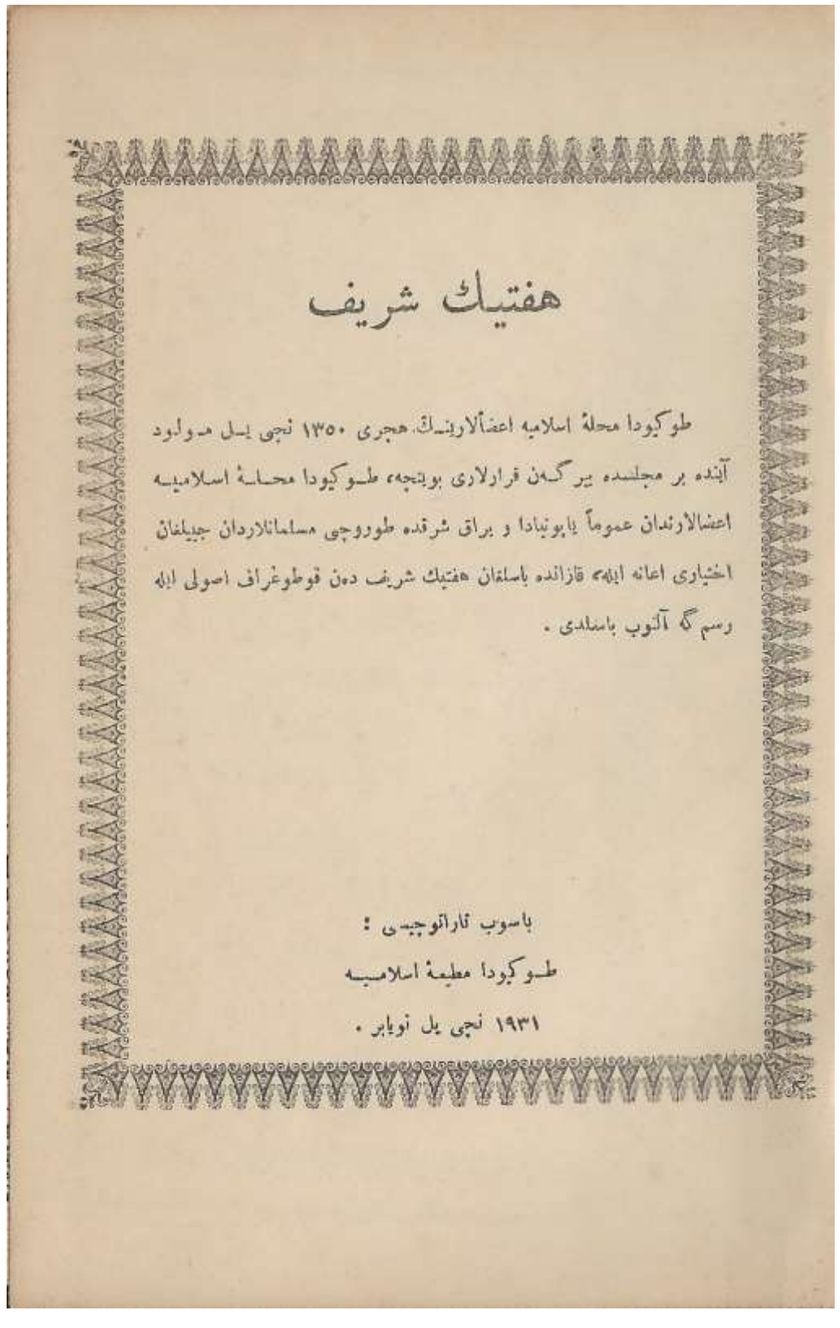
This text was based on the publication, issued in 1894 in Kazan.

The Tatar community in Japan was founded after the Russian Revolution by the immigrants, fleeing the Bolsheviks through Siberia and Vladivostok, under the leadership of imam MuhammedGabdulkhay Kurbangaliev (1889-1972). In 1936, they founded the first school in Kobe, which was followed by a school in Tokyo two years later. In the same year, n 1938, the Tatars founded the first mosque in Tokyo. The Tokyo Mohammedan Press was founded in 1929. It was publishing books and a journal in Tatar language.

Japanese welcomed Tatars in their country, especially on the eve and during the war, when the Tatars sided with the Axis Powers in hope to defeat the Bolsheviks and return to their homeland.

The book was printed in two versions. Ours is the more expensive one with gilt edges.

550 EUR


هفتيك شريف

طوكيودا محلهٔ اسلاميه اعضالارينك هجرى ١٣٥٠ نجى يل دولود
آينده بر مجلسده يركه‌ن قرارلارى بويينچه، طوكيودا محلهٔ اسلاميه
اعضالارندان عموماً يابونيادا و براق شرقده طوروچى مسلمانلاردان جيلغان
اختيارى اعانه ايله قازانده باسلغان هفتيك شريف دن قوطوغراف اصولى ايله
رسم گه آلتوب باسلدى .

باسوب تارانوچيلى :
طوكيودا مطبعهٔ اسلاميه
١٩٣١ نجى يل نوياپر .

25. Ottoman New Literature
Edebiyat-ı Cedide

Halit Ziya Uşaklıgil (1866-1945)

كابوس

[Kabus / Nightmare]

Istanbul: احمد احسان و شركاسى. مطبع چلق عثمانى شركتى [Ahmed İhsan ve Şürekâsı Matbaacılık Osmanlı Şirketi] 1334 [1918]

8°. 222 pp., original wrappers with lettering, modern black cloth binding with gilt lettering (minor staining, original wrappers with light age-toning and staining, a tiny piece of paper missing in the rear wrappers).

The first edition of Halit Ziya's drama Kabus (Nightmare) was published in Ottoman language in 1918.

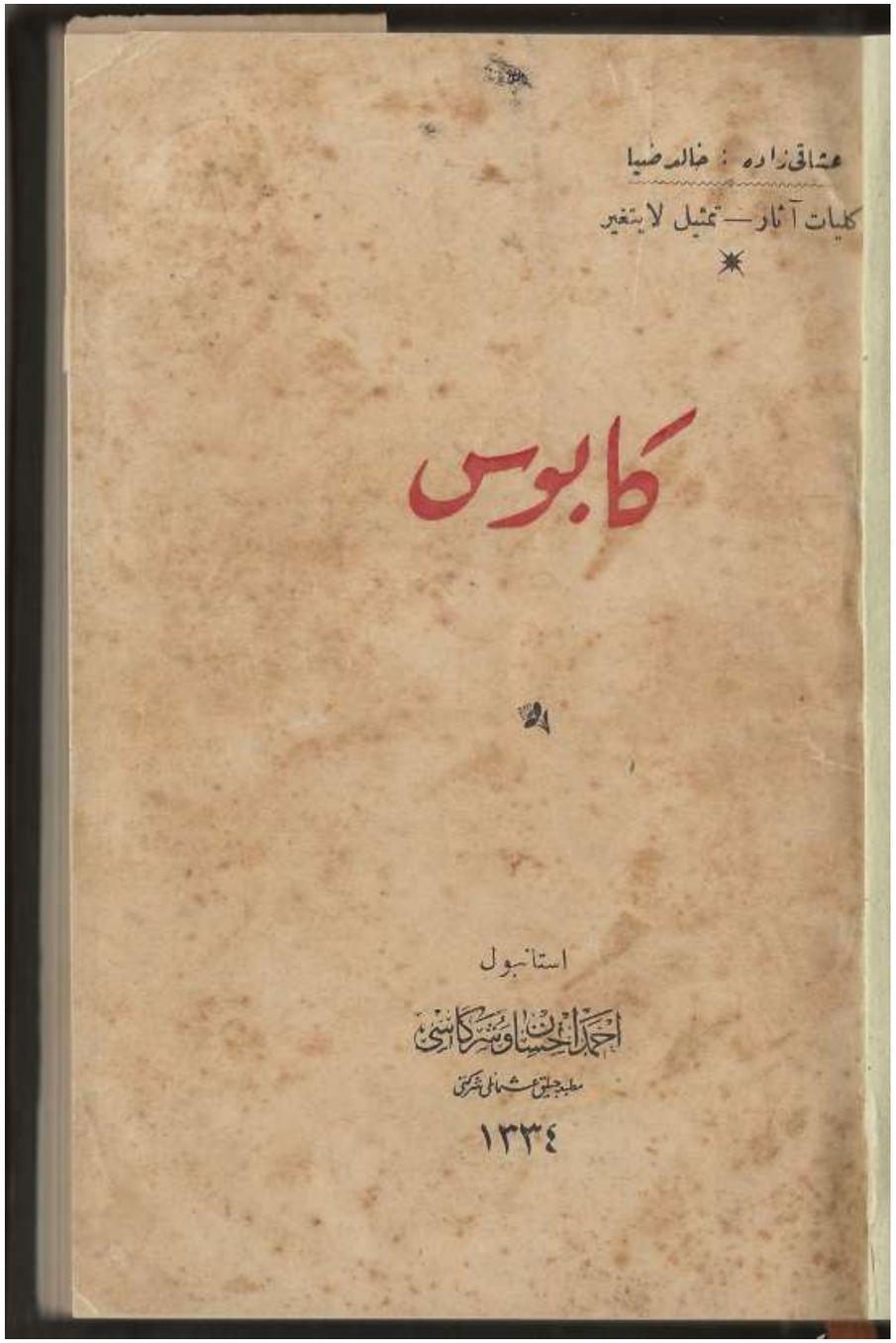
The author Halit Ziya Uşaklıgil (1866-1945) was educated in a French school in Izmir, where he started admiring the contemporary French novelists. Halit Ziya was the first Ottoman writer, who authored novels in its contemporary European form.

Halit Ziya Uşaklıgil belongs to the Ottoman authors of the so called New Litarature, who gathered around the magazine Servet-i Fünun.

Servet-i Fünun (ثروت فنون) or Wealth of Knowledge was a famous Ottoman magazine, published between 1891 and 1944. Starting as an illustrated with scientific articles and reports, accompanied with humour and literature, it soon turned into a leading literary magazine, publishing modern Ottoman poetry and literature. The group of authors, which gathered around the magazine between 1896 and 1901, passed into the history of literature under titles "New Literature" or the "Servet-i Fünun Lietrarure".

References: OCLC 949522762, 780183235.

180 EUR



26. Printing in Istanbul
Catalogue

AHMED IHSAN & CO.

Ahmed Ihsan & Co. Maison Fondée en 1890. Etablissement Typographique, Lithographique et de Reliure. Atelier de Zincographie. Atelier de Stéréotypie.

[Ahmed Ihsan & Co. Established in 1890. Establishment for Typography, Lithography and Printing. Atelier for Zincography. Atelier for Stereotypy].

Istanbul: Ahmed Ihsan 1912.

Oblong small 4°, 20 pp. with black and white photographs, original red card wrappers with lettering in Ottoman and French, stapled (staples rusty and loose, spine partly repaired with a tape, tiny tears in margins, light foxing, wrappers with minor chips, but overall in a good condition).

An illustrated ephemeral catalogue presents the Ottoman printing and lithographic shop, based in Istanbul, which was founded and run by one of the leading names of the late Ottoman empire Ahmet İhsan. The photographs showcase the building, the rooms of the company and the employees. The catalogue is written in the Ottoman Language with a French title on the rear cover.

The publisher, author, editor and translator Ahmet İhsan Tokgöz (1868 – 1942) was probably one of the most influential figures of the literature of the late Ottoman Empire, connecting the influences from the West with Ottoman tradition. He was leading the magazine from its foundation in 1888 until his death.

Growing up in Shkodra, Albania, and Damascus, Syria, Ahmet İhsan finished a law degree. A keen translator and a big fan of the Jules Verne novels, he made first translations of Verne's text to Ottoman, starting a new genre of the adventure novels in the Ottoman world.

The catalogue is a valuable insight in the late Ottoman world of the book and magazine production.

280 EUR


احمد احسان وشركاسى مطبعه‌سنده ليطوغرافيا ماكنه‌لرى دائره‌سى
Les machines lithographiques de l'Etablissement Ahmed Ihsan & Cie

27. Communism
Marxism in the Ottoman Empire

1.

İsmail FAİK, editor.

انسانیت

[İnsaniyet / Humanity]

Istanbul: Organ edu Parti Socialiste Ottoman 1326 [1910].

Folio, 4 pp. with an illustration (soft folds, tiny tears in margins, otherwise in a good condition).

[Accompanied with:]

2.

اشتراك. Jaurnal [sic] socialiste. İchtirak

[Participation, No: 254.]

Istanbul: 1328 [1912].

4°: 16 pp. with two black and portraits, original pink cover with a portrait and lettering (lacking the last wrapper, unbound, otherwise in a good clean condition).

The first visual appearence of Karl Marx in the Ottoman press on the first edition of a pioneering socialist publication in Istanbul.

Accompanied with a magazine İchtirak with the second portrait of the author, issued on the eve of the first translation of passages from Das Kapital.



انسانیت

ORGANE DU PARTI SOCIALISTE OTTOMAN

L'HUMANITÉ

This is the first edition of a newspaper *İnsaniyet* (also *İnsaniyat* with a French undertitle *L'Humanité*), issued by the Ottoman Socialist Party and featuring Karl Marx on the cover, which is the first representation of this author in the Ottoman press.

The Ottoman Socialist Party only existed for three years, between 1910 and 1913, and started publishing their newspaper *İnsaniyet* in their first year. As the association was not an official political party, it can be today seen more like a gathering of various intellectuals, based on the older movements of mostly non-Muslim (Bulgarian, Greek, Jewish, Armenian) socialist groups of the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman Socialist Party was suppressed by the Young Turks in 1913 and only returned in the form of the Turkish Socialist Party, which also only existed for three years between 1919 and 1922.

1910 was a groundbreaking year for the socialist movement in Istanbul. In the same year two important publications were issued: the first portrait of Karl Marx on the cover of the party's first newspaper and the first Ottoman separately issued socialist book *Sosyalizm*, which was a translation of George Tournaire's *Le Socialisme* by Haydar Rifat (Yorulmaz, 1877-1942), who would 23 years later became known as the first Turkish translator of the complete text of *Das Kapital*.

Karl Marx in the Ottoman Press

The first time the Ottoman press mentioned Karl Marx, appears to be in the February 9th, 1871, edition of *Hakaiku'l-Vekayi* magazine.

Until the early 20th century there were many calls to translate Marx's work in the newspapers and magazines. In 1888, now a lost Armenian translation of *Das Kapital* was allegedly made in Istanbul, which Marx described with the following words:

An Armenian translation, which was to be published in Constantinople some months ago, did not see the light, I am told, because the publisher was afraid of bringing out a book with the name of Marx on it, while the translator declined to call it his own production.

(See: Sungur Savran & E. Ahmet Tonak, *Marx's Capital in Turkey*, 2018, with quoted older literature).

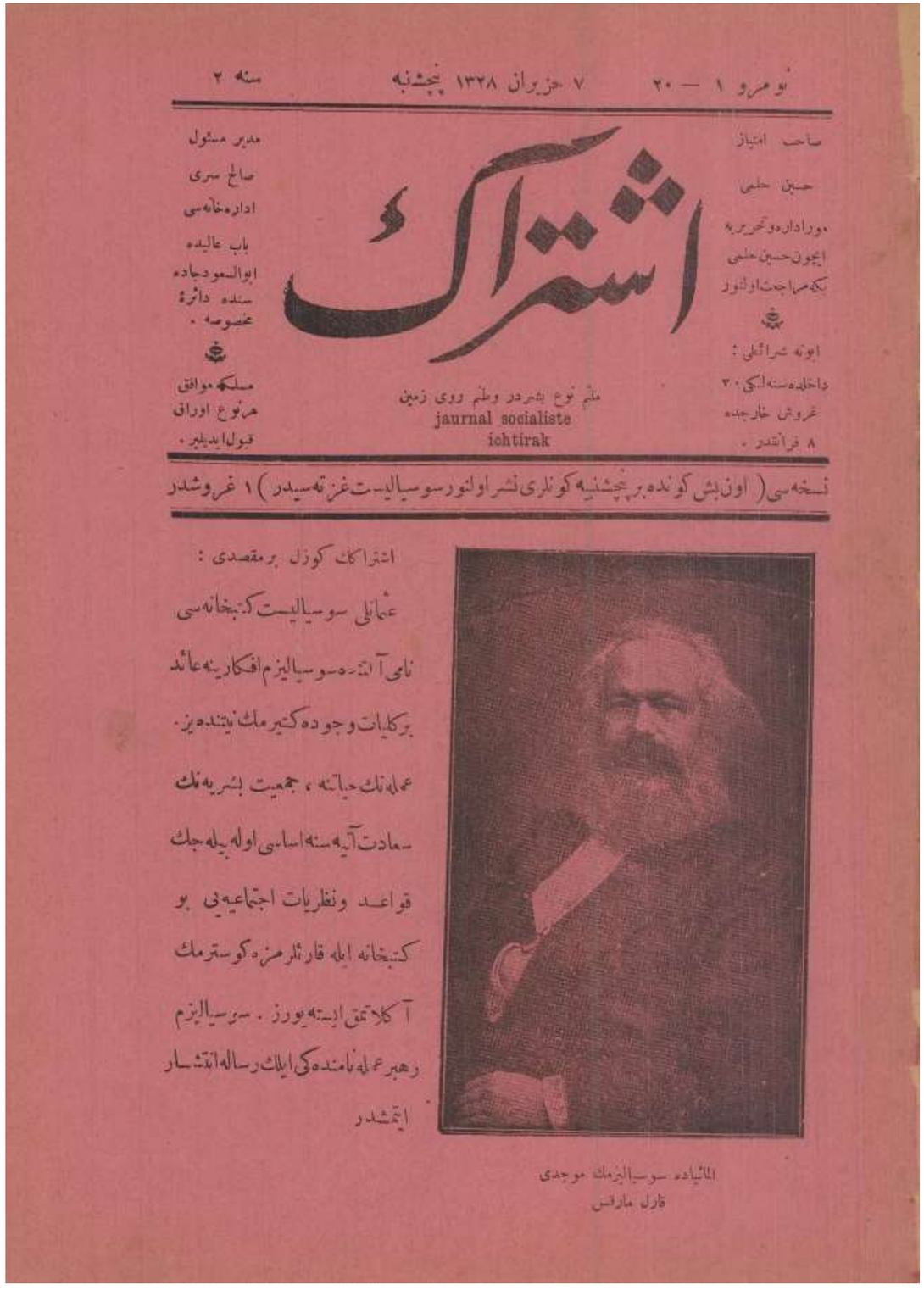
The second magazine in our lot (with a pink cover) was issued on June 7th, 1328 (i. e. 1912), less than three months before the first translation of separate sections of *Das Kapital* to Ottoman.

The translation was made by Bohor Israel, a Jewish author from Istanbul, who published the passages under the tile '*Iktisad-i Içtimaiye*' [Social Economics] in the first and only issue of the magazine *Ceride-i Felsefiye* [Philosphical Newspaper] on August 22, 1328 (1912). Enthusiastically, Israel authored all the articles in the publication.

The complete translation of *Das Kapital* was never made in the Ottoman language and only appeared as a separate publication in Turkish in 1933.

References: Cf.: Sungur Savran & E. Ahmet Tonak, *Marx's Capital in Turkey*, 2018; Bilal YURTOĞLU, Bahûr İsrâîl'in Cerîde-i Felsefiye'si ve Osmanlı'da İlk Das Kapital Tefrikası, 2016.

750 EUR


نومرو ۱ — ۲۰ ۷ حزیران ۱۳۲۸ پنجشنبه سنه ۲

اشتراک

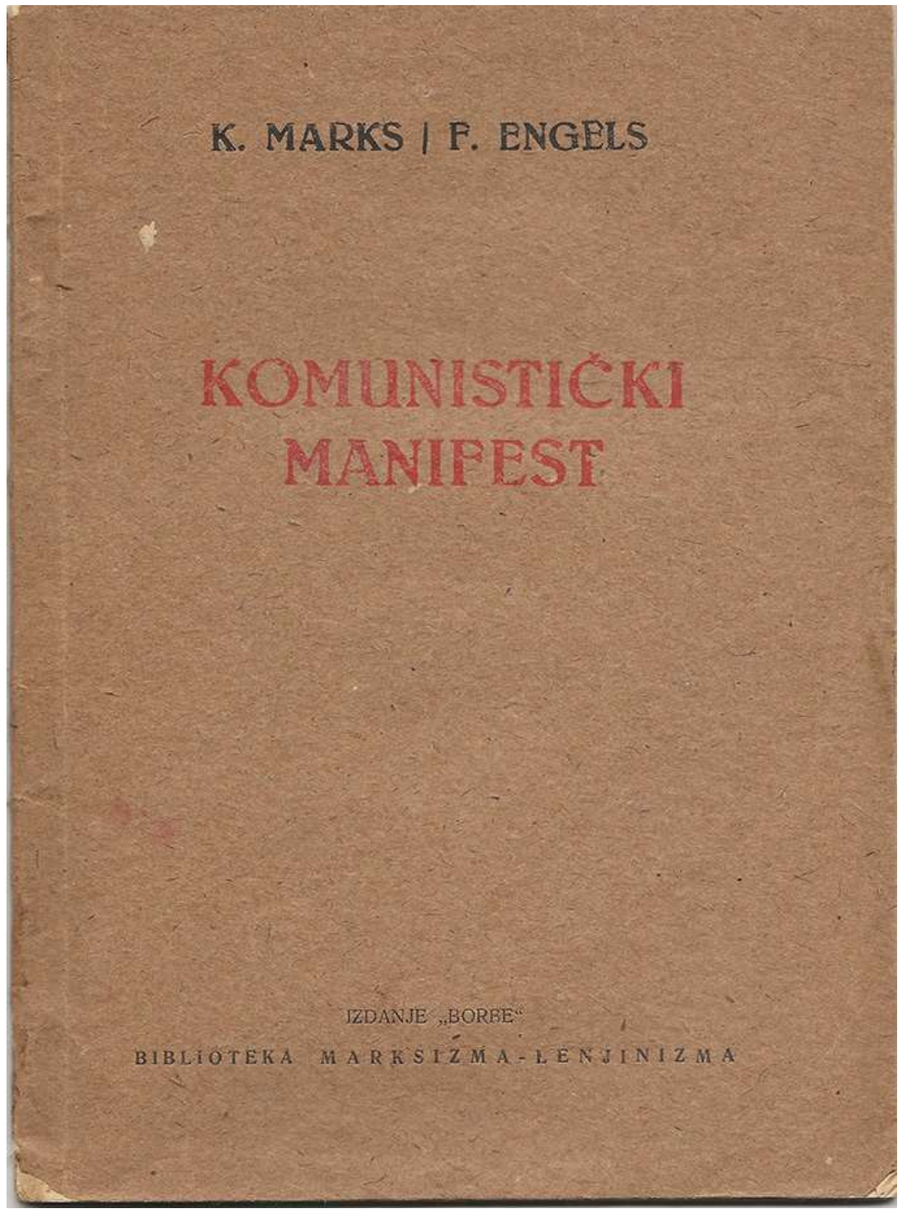
ملثم نوع بشردر وطنم روی زمین
jaurnal socialiste
ichtirak

نسخه‌سی (اون بش کونده بر پنجشنبه کونلری نشر اولنور سوسیالیست غزته‌سیدر) ۱ غروشدر

اشتراک کوزل برمقصدی :
عثمانلی سوسیالیست کتبخانه‌سی
نامی آلتنده سوسیالیزم افکارینه عائد
برکلیات وجوده کتیرمك نیتنده‌یز .
عمله‌نك حیاتنه ، جمعیت بشریه‌نك
سعادت آیه‌سنه اساسی اوله‌بیله‌جك
قواعد ونظریات اجتماعیه‌یی بو
کتبخانه ایله قارئلرمزه کوسترمك
آکلاتمق ایسته‌یوروز . سوسیالیزم
رهبر عمله نامنده کی ایلك رساله انتشار
ایتمشدر

المانیاده سوسیالیزمك موجدی
قارل مارکس

28. Communist Manifesto
First Croatian Translation



Karl MARX (1818 - 1883) - Friedrich ENGELS (1820-1895), authors; Moša PIJADE (1890-1957), translator.

Komunistički manifest

[Manifest des Kommunistischen Partei / Communist Manifesto]

[Belgrade]: Borba. Biblioteka Marksizma-Lenjinizma 1945.

8°: 64 pp., [4 pp.] blank, original tan wrappers with lettering (minor traces of use, tiny chips to the wrappers, but overall in a good condition).

This is the first Croatian translation of the Communist Manifesto by Moša Pijade (1890 – 1957), a Yugoslav communist, politician and Tito's close friends. Pijade also translated the introductions to previous translations to other languages, to help the reader to understand the importance of the work.

For this version Pijade was using as a source the complete works of Marx and Engels in German, published in 1932, and the Manifesto, issued in German language in Moscow, in 1941.

This Croatian version, published as a pamphlet on cheap paper, was issued immediately after the end of WWII, in 1945. At the same time a Serbian translation in Cyrillic script was published.

Pijade, an artist, art critic and author, was born in Belgrade and was of Sephardic Jewish parentage. He joined the Communist party in the 1920s, in which he was active as a writer for the newspapers and magazines. After translating Das Kapital in 1924, Pijade was arrested and sentenced to 20 years in prison because of his 'revolutionary activities', a sentence, which he served for 14 years.

In the prison Moša Pijade befriended Josip Bros-Tito, who was also imprisoned for his illegal communist activities, and the two men became good friends.

During WWII, Pijade became one of the leaders of Tito's partisans and after the war the President of the Yugoslavian Parliament between 1954 and 1955. In 1948, Pijade convinced Tito to allow the Yugoslav Jews to immigrate to Israel.

References: OCLC 779860956, 441094214 (possibly some of the examples are the Serbian version in Cyrillic script).

420 EUR

29. Anti-Semitism
Croatia
Political Propaganda



Stjepan RADIĆ (1871 − 1928)

O židovima

[About the Jews]

Kamnik: Slatnar 1938

8°: 16 pp., original green wrappers with lettering, unbound, as originally published (an uncut example, tiny tears on the spine and margins, title page and first page with a loss of white margins in the lower corner, otherwise in a good condition).

A rare, unusual separately issued propaganda publication in Croatian language with an extreme anti-Semitic content, was printed in 1939, on the eve of WWII. It is a reprint of a 1906 article by an influential Croatian politician Stjepan Radić (died 1928), who later became a liberal politician and regrated his early writings.

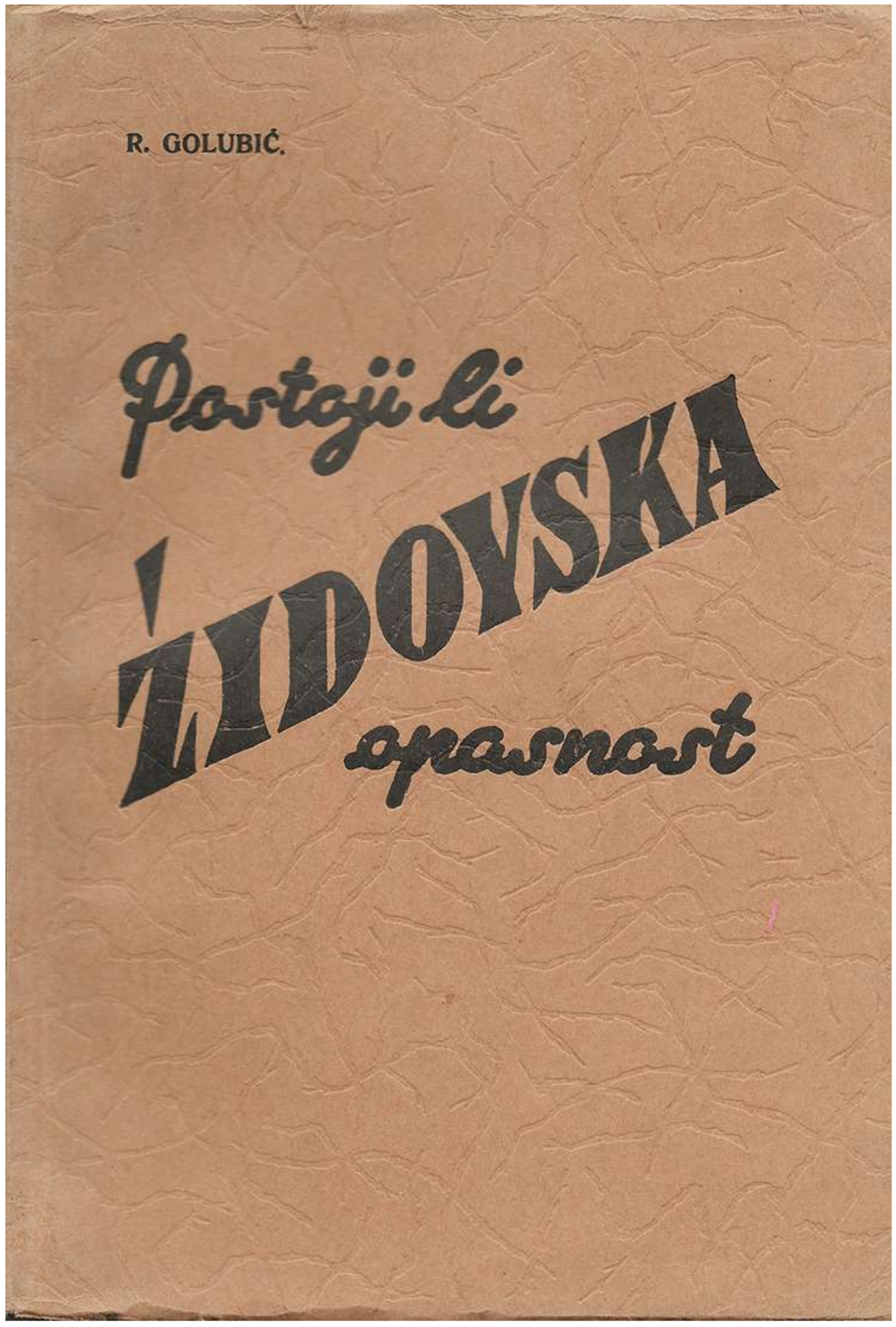
Stjepan Radić (1871 − 1928) was a Croatian politician and an early socialist, who was publishing political illegal and pro-Slavic articles in Prague already in the 19th century. In 1904, Radić founded the Croatian People's Peasant Party. He was assassinated in the parliament in 1928, by a Serbian politician Puniša Račić, what caused further alienation of the Croats and the Serbs. Račić was sentenced to house arrest in a comfortable villa and was was killed by the Yugoslav Partisans on 16 October 1944

This pamphlet, printed over a decade after the author‘s death, was printed in Kamnik, Slovenia, for the Croatian market as the anti-Semitic movement was reaching its peak. In 1941, when the Axis Powers attacked Yugoslavia, Croatia proclaimed the Independent State of Croatia, a Nazi puppet state. A large percentage of the Jewish population was sent to prison and concentrations camps with only small chances to survive until the end of the war. Others escaped abroad or joined the Partisan movement.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

250 EUR

30. Anti-Semitism
Croatia



Radovan GOLUBIĆ

Postoji li židovska opasnost. Moj proces sa Židovima

[Is there a Jewish Danger? My Process with Jews]

Slavonski brod: Josip Pečvarac 1941.

8°. X, 221 pp., original wrappers with lettering (old owner's stamp on the first page, tiny tears in the wrappers, otherwise a good, uncut example)

A rare anti-Semitic work, published in January 1941, on the eve of WWII in Yugoslavia, was written by a lawyer, author, publisher and a mayor of Slavonski Brod Radovan Golubić, who was notorious for his hate towards the Jews.

The book discusses the possibility of the “Jewish danger” in Croatia and the author’s own experiences with the Jewish organizations. In the past Golubić was sued by a Jewish community in Croatia for hate speech. The book includes the correspondence between the parties.

Only a few months later, upon the proclamation of the Independent State of Croatia during WWII, a large percentage of the Jewish population was sent to prison and concentrations camps with only small chances to survive until the end of the war.

Worldcat lists one example (Bavarian State Library).

References: OCLC 1126558263.

220 EUR

31. Auschwitz – Survivors' Accounts
Partisan Underground WWII Printing



Ladislav KIAUTA (1914 - 1990).

Obtožujemo! Grozodejstva nemškega internacijskega taborišča.

[We Accuse! Horror of a German Concentration Camp].

[Metlika, Slovenia]: Propagandni oddelek Glavnega štaba NOV in POS Slovenije [Propaganda Department of the Headquarters of the Slovenian National Liberation Army and Partisan Divisions of Slovenia], July 1944.

8°: 22 pp. mimeograph with red linocut headings, original wrappers with red and black linocut cover (Very Good, slightly stained, staples rusty, small folds in margins, edges of the cover slightly scuffed).

N.B. **The image of the cover provided here censors out the Nazi symbol of the Swastika; this has been done pursuant to German laws on the representation of Third Reich symbols; however, such detail is clearly present and uncensored on the actual cover.**

This rare pamphlet features chilling accounts of the Auschwitz Concentration Camp recounted by two female survivors, as related by the prominent Slovenian writer Ladislav Kiauta, published by an underground Partisan press while the camp was still in operation.

This rare work features two chilling accounts of the Auschwitz concentration camp as related by two anonymous female survivors to the professional writer Ladislav Kiauta. Described in horrific detail are beatings and murders, as well as many specifics, such as the names of prison guards. While the accounts

are anonymous the level of detail is such they could only have been related by those who were direct eyewitnesses to the atrocities described.

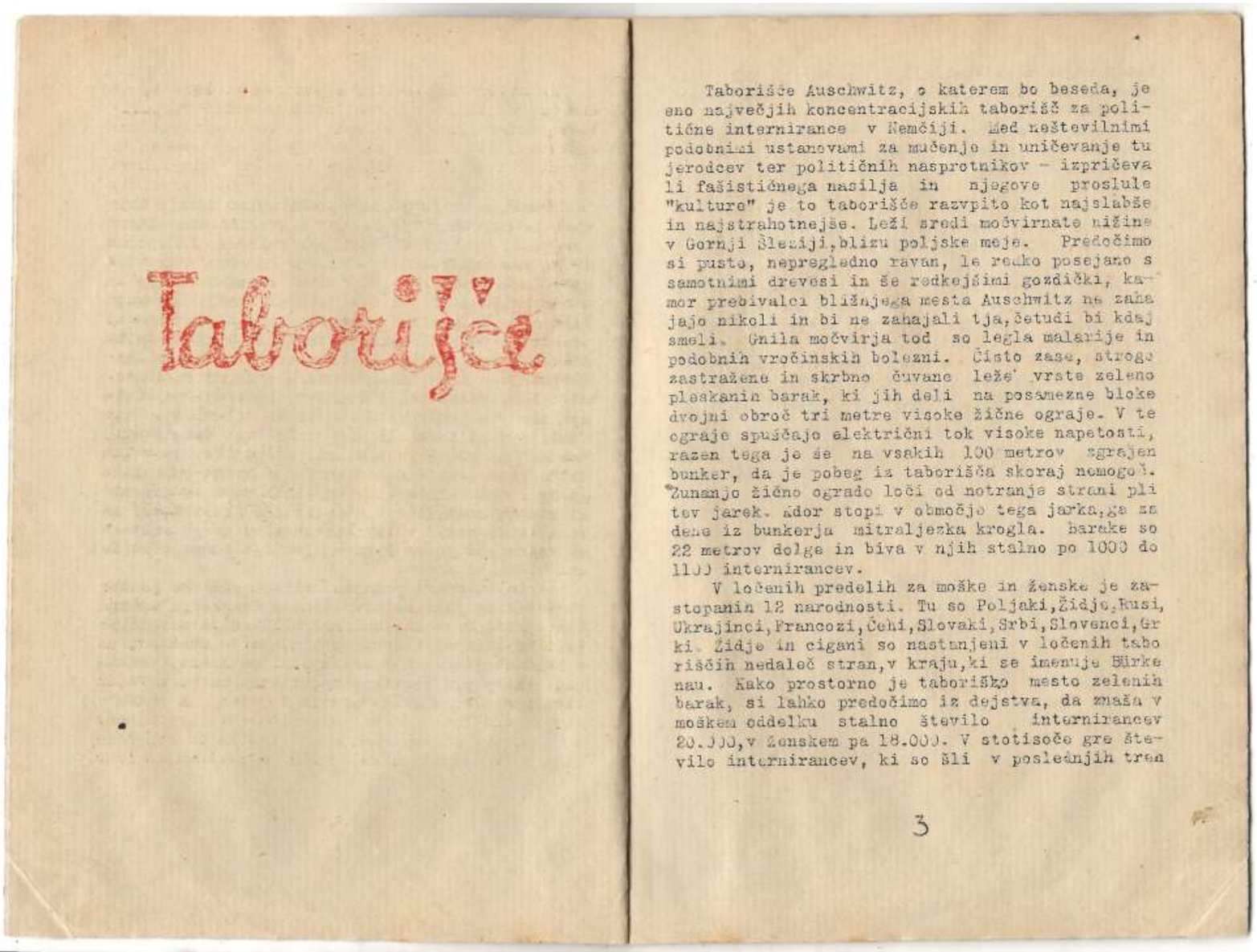
The present work was issued by an underground Partisan press in Slovenia to inform people of the true evil of the Third Reich. It was published in 1944 while Auschwitz was still in operation, although it must be noted that survivor's accounts of the camp were published as early as the winter of 1940-1.

The work was written by Ladislav Kiauta (1914-90), a professional Communist writer and publisher who first opened his own press in 1932. During the war he joined the Partisans where he put his skills to good use. Following the war, he fell afoul of Marshal Tito whereupon he did a spell in the notorious prison of 'Naked Island'.

The present work is very rare. We could find one institutional example on Worldcat (The British Library).

References: OCLC 1144805397. *Bibliografija,* no. 5553.

520 EUR

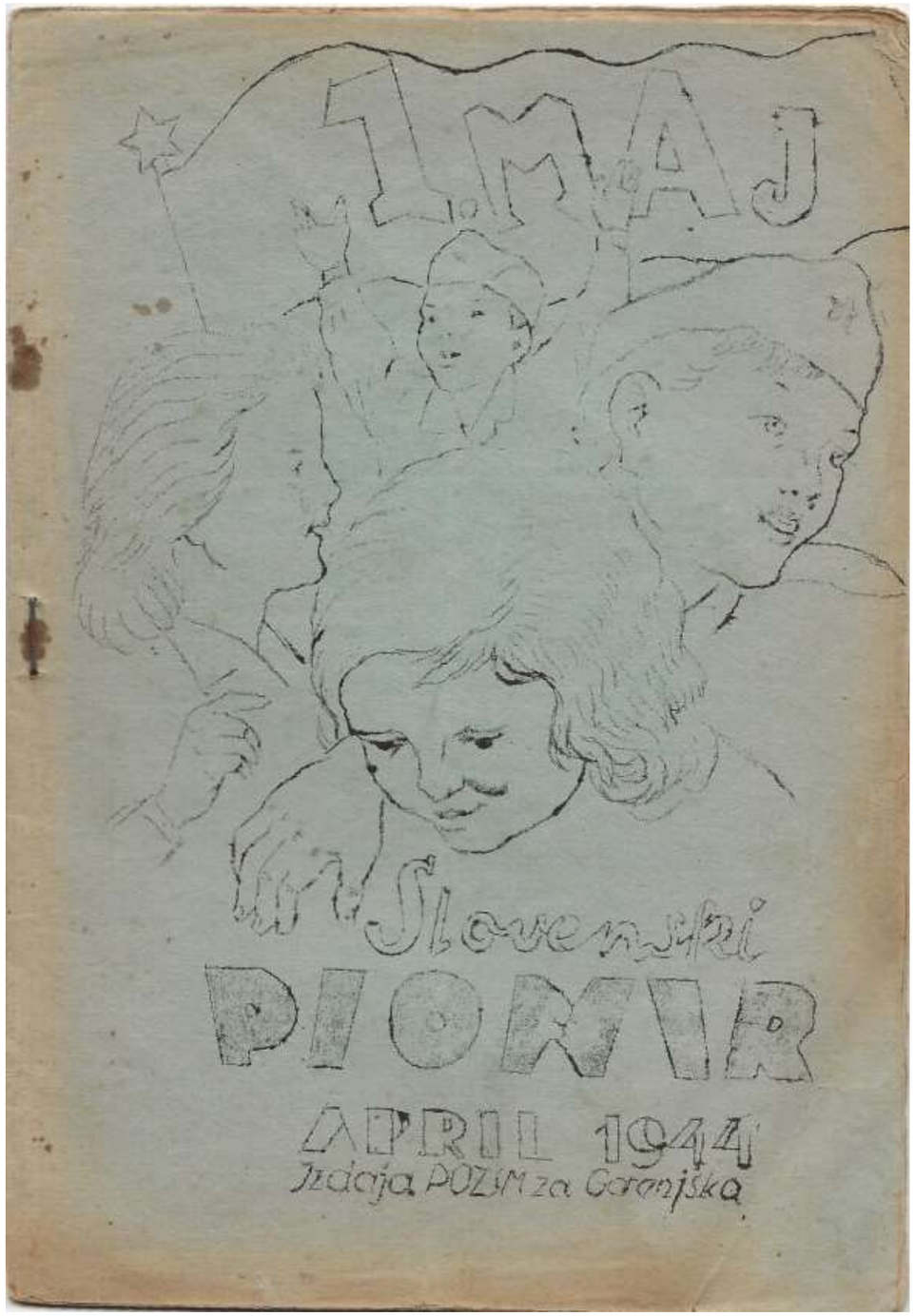


Taborišče

Taborišče Auschwitz, o katerem bo beseda, je eno največjih koncentracijskih taborišč za politične internirance v Nemčiji. Med neštevilnimi podobnimi ustanovami za mučenje in uničevanje tujerodcev ter političnih nasprotnikov – izpričeva li fašističnega nasilja in njegove proslule "kulture" je to taborišče razvpito kot najslabše in najstrahotnejše. Leži sredi močvirnate nižine v Gornji Šleziji, blizu poljske meje. Predočimo si puste, nepregledno ravan, le redko posejano s samotnimi drevesi in še redkejšimi gozdički, kamor prebivalci bližnjega mesta Auschwitz ne zahajajo nikoli in bi ne zahajali tja, četudi bi kdaj smeli. Gnila močvirja tod so legla malarije in podobnih vročinskih bolezni. Čisto zase, strogo zastražene in skrbno čuvane leže vrste zelenopleskanih barak, ki jih deli na posamezne bloke dvojni obroč tri metre visoke žične ograje. V te ograje spuščajo električni tok visoke napetosti, razen tega je še na vsakih 100 metrov zgrajen bunker, da je pobeg iz taborišča skoraj nemogoč. Zunanjo žično ograjo loči od notranje strani pli tev jarek. Kdor stopi v območje tega jarka, ga za dene iz bunkerja mitraljezka krogla. Barake so 22 metrov dolge in biva v njih stalno po 1000 do 1100 internirancev.

V ločenih predelih za moške in ženske je zastopanih 12 narodnosti. Tu so Poljaki, Židje, Rusi, Ukrajinci, Francozi, Čehi, Slovaki, Srbi, Slovenci, Grki. Židje in cigani so nastanjeni v ločenih taborišči h nedaleč stran, v kraju, ki se imenuje Birkenau. Kako prostorno je taboriško mesto zelenih barak, si lahko predočimo iz dejstva, da znaša v moškem oddelku stalno število internirancev 20.000, v ženskem pa 18.000. V stotisoče gre število internirancev, ki so šli v poslednjih treh

32. Children’s Literature
Partisan Underground WWII Printing



Various Authors

Slovenski Pionir

[Slovenian Pioneer]

[S.l., Gorenjska Region, Slovenia:] POZSM zu Goranjsko [Regional Committee of the Slovenian Youth Association for Gorenjska] April 1944.

8°. 16 pp. mimeographed text with the illustrations, original illustrated blue wrappers, stapled (soft vertical fold, wrappers with light staining and a small loss of a corner on the rear cover, the crosswords on the last page filled out, but overall in a good condition).

This exceedingly rare ephemeral mimeographed magazine for small children was printed by an underground Slovenian partisan press during WWII. The illustrated articles with anti-Nazi, pro-partisan propaganda include reports, allegedly written by brave children, who were imprisoned and threatened by the Germans, were bravely writing anti-collaborator paroles on the walls and morbidly poisoned a dog in the service of the Nazi guards.

The magazine was published at the occasion of the International Workers’ Day, May 1st, and after the firs local gathering of the Partisan youth in April.

The last article announced the approaching of the Red Army from the East, which gave the partisans great hope for the liberation in the following months.

The magazine was issued monthly from August 1943 until February 1945 under titles Slovenski Pionir, Pionir and Gorenjski Pionir. It was printed by various regional clandestine presses and on movable mimeograph machines.

The magazine is exceedingly rare. We could find separate issues in four Slovenian institutions with possibly only the National and University Library in Ljubljana holding the complete series and this April issue (the series is listed under the title Gorenjski Pionir; OCLC 444625235).

References: Bibliografija 1964, No. 8950.

360 EUR

Miting

"Partizani, partizani!" je vpil Jurček skozi vežo v kuhinjo in že izginil za hišnim vogalom proti vasi. Pred cerkvijo je stal bataljon. Zastava je vihrala, puške in mitraljezi so se svetili v soncu.

To je bilo nekaj za naše pionirje. Miting bo popoldan, tudi mi pionirji bomo nastopili. „Mama popravi mi pas pri sablji, zvezda ima tudi rogelj postrani!" je prosil opoldan Jurček pri kosilu.

Popoldan se je zbralo na županovem travniku vsa vas. Bilo je zelo lepo. Govoril je polit-komisar bataljona, partizani so peli in deklamerali pesmi. Tudi kratko igrico so vprizorili. Seveda, najlepše je bilo za Jurčka, ko je prikorakal on s četo pionirjev na travnik. Nič manj po vojaško kot preje komandant, je poveljeval. Vsi ljudje so ploskali, ko so peli pionirji "Pionirji smo, najmlajša četa".

Potem jih je pohvalil polit-komisar in jih vzpodbujal k nadaljnemu delu. Vsak pionir je dobil tudi sliko maršala TITA.

Nato so se pionirji pomešali med partizane.

U, težko je, je vzdihoval mali Peter, ko je dajal puško "Na desno ramo".

"In brzostrelka" jo je božal Tinček in nimogel odvrniti oči od nje. "Na štirideset strelov, kajne tovariš komandir" je vpraševal partizane, ki so prijazno in smeje odgovarjali...



Marko bi mitraljez najraje odnesel kar domov, čeprav mu je beseda sama že delala preglavice, ker še ni mogel izgovoriti črke "r".

"Da takle miting, to je nekaj vredno" je dejal Jurček zvečer doma. "To je še več kot Velika noč".

ŽIVALI POMAGAJO.

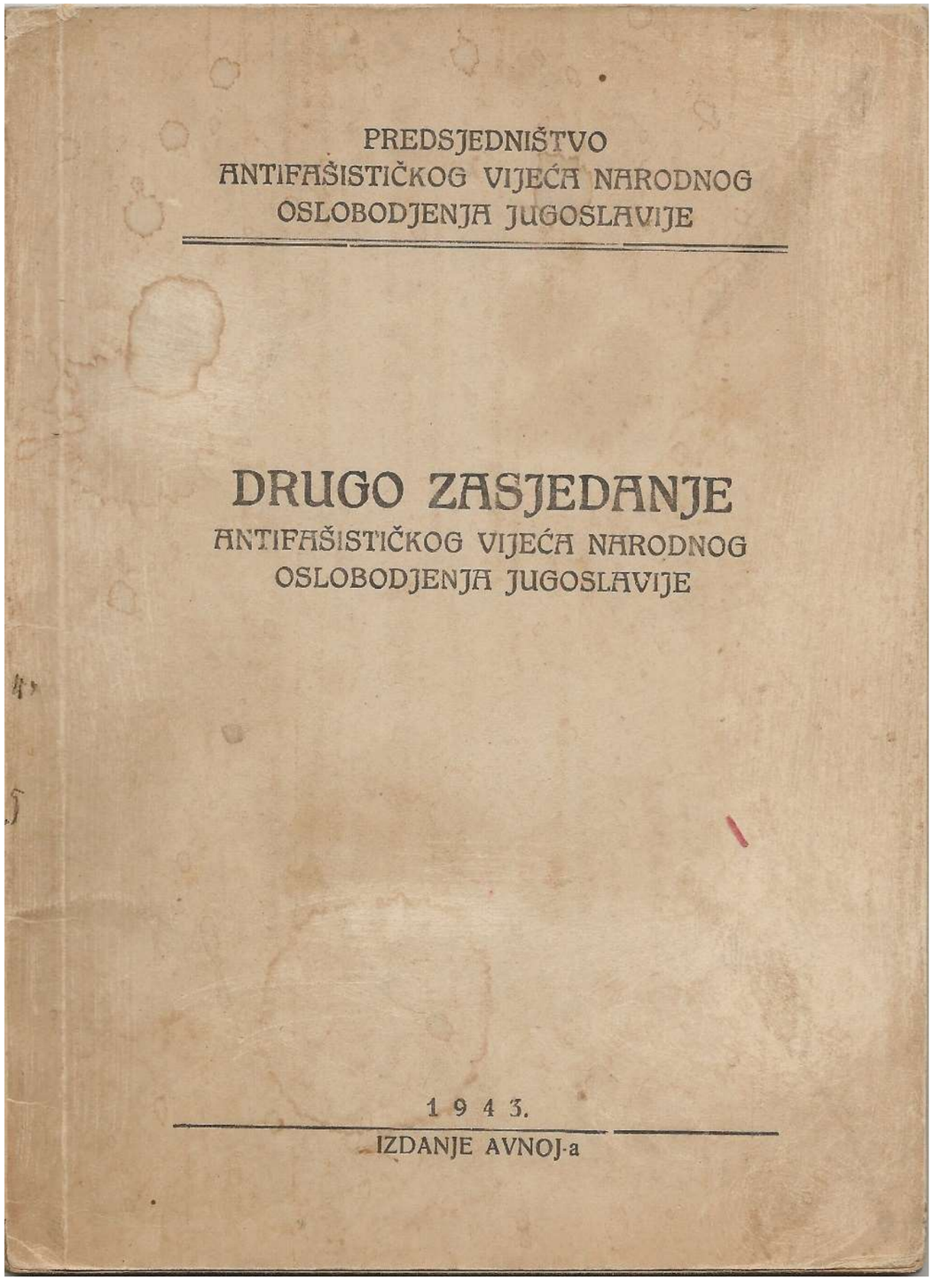


Ono noč ob polni luni
so živali vzdne zborovale
enodušno so sklenile
„partizanom bomo pomagale!"



Hitri zajček, dolgoušec
partizanski je kurir,
z ušesi miga in posluša,
kam ga pošlje komandir.

33. Croatian Partisan Underground Printing WWII



Drugo zasjedanja Antifašističkog Vijeća Narodnog Oslobođenja Jugoslavije

[2nd Congress of the Antifascist Council of the Yugoslav Liberation]

S.l. [Croatia]: AVNOJ 1943

8°, 72 pp., original wrapper with lettering (wrappers slightly stained, otherwise in a good condition).

A rare Croatian WWII underground partisan pamphlet describes the 2nd Congress of the Antifascist Council of the Yugoslav Liberation (AVNOJ), the most important Partisan event during the war, where Tito was proclaimed Marshall. The date was later celebrated as the Day of the Republic.

The pamphlet was an official publication by the Antifascist Council of the Yugoslav Liberation.

References: Bibliografija 1964, no. 4839.

300 EUR

34.Croatian Partisan Underground Printing WWII

Vladimir NAZOR (1876-1949)

Pjesme Partizanke

[Partisan Songs]

[The Woods of Javornica:] Zemaljski odbor U.S. A. O. J. (Ujedinjeni savez antifašističke omladine Jugoslavije / United Association of Anti-Fascist Youth of Yugoslavia)

12°, 49 pp., [2], original wrappers with lettering, inserted errata (slightly age-toned, wrappers with light foxing, otherwise in a good condition).

The first edition of a rare and important booklet with poems by a famous Croatian poet Vladimir Nazor was published by an underground partisan press and dedicated to the youth, fighting for the resistance. The book was printed in the woods of Javornica in Croatia

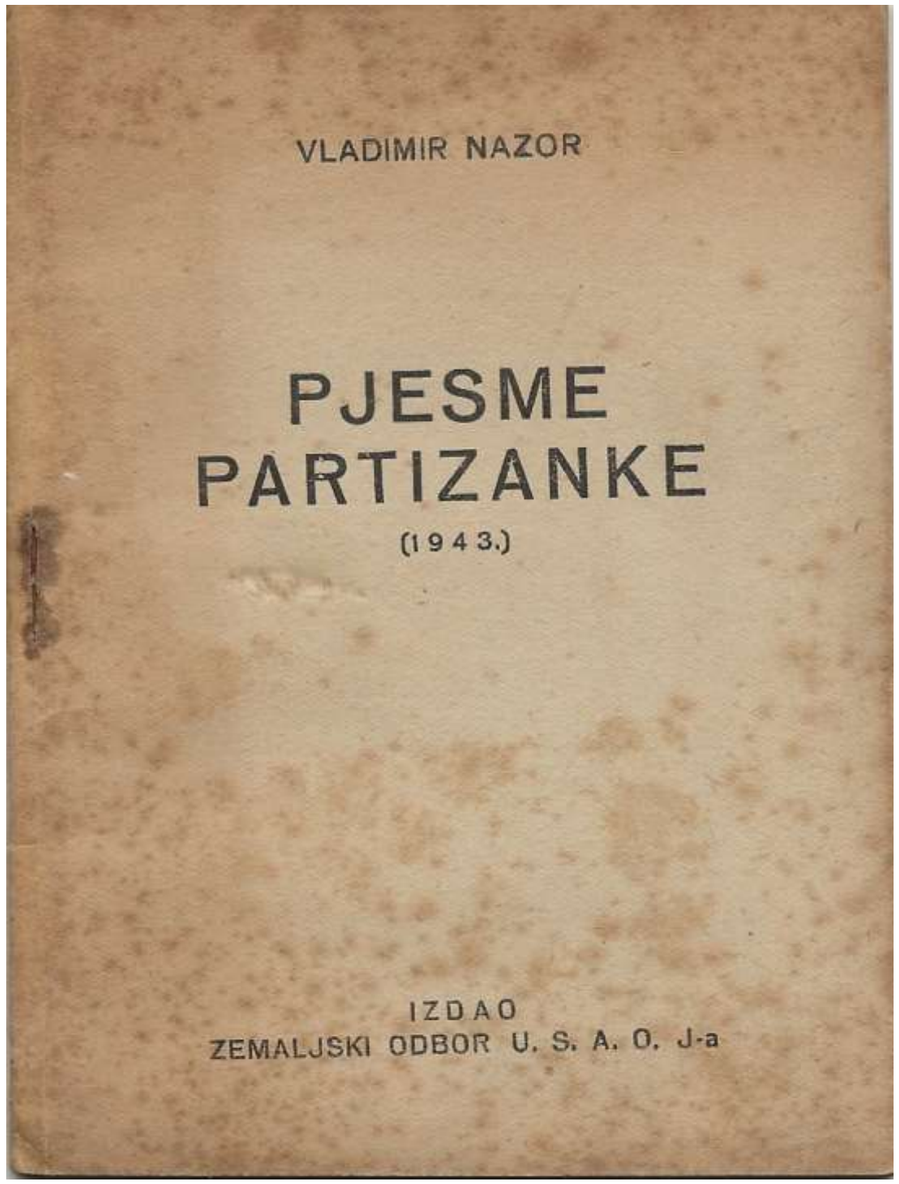
Vladimir Nazor (1876-1949) is one of the most known and productive Croatian writers, poets and translators of the 20th century. His first work was published in 1900.
Nazor was not involved in the politics until WWII, when he joined the partisans. He served as the first Croatian head of state after the war.

This is an exceedingly rare first edition, published during the war by the Association of Anti-Fascist Youth. The more common following editions were issued in London during the war by the Croatian immigrants.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

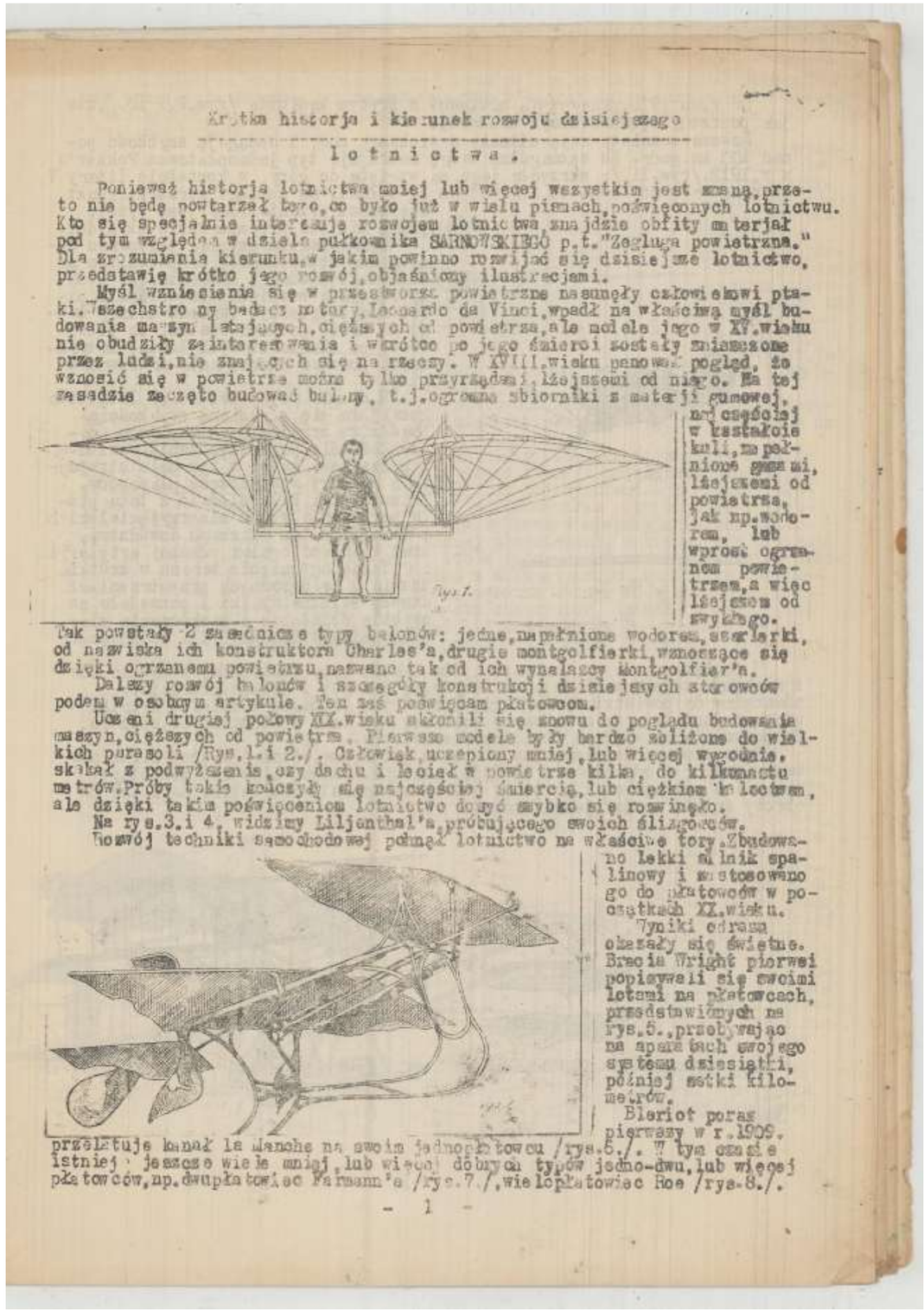
References: Bibliografija 1964, 6224.

380 EUR



35. Aviation

Polish Mimeographed Magazine by Cadets



Krótka historja i kierunek rozwoju dzisiejszego

lotnictwa.

Ponieważ historja lotnictwa mniej lub więcej wszystkim jest znaną, przeto nie będę powtarzał tego, co było już w wielu pismach, poświęconych lotnictwu. Kto się specjalnie interesuje rozwojem lotnictwa znajdzie obfity materjał pod tym względem w dziele pułkownika SARNOWSKIEGO p.t."Żegluga powietrzna." Dla zrozumienia kierunku, w jakim powinno rozwijać się dzisiejsze lotnictwo, przedstawię krótko jego rozwój, objaśniony ilustracjami.

Myśl wzniesienia się w przestworze powietrzne nasunęły człowiekowi ptaki. Wszechstronny badacz natury, Leonardo da Vinci, wpadł na właściwą myśl budowania maszyn latających, cięższych od powietrza, ale nadeszła jego w XV.wieku nie obudziły zainteresowania i wkrótce po jego śmierci zostały zniszczone przez ludzi, nie znających się na rzeczy. W XVIII.wieku panował pogląd, że wznosić się w powietrze można tylko przyrządami, lżejszemi od niego. Na tej zasadzie zaczęto budować balony, t.j.ogromne zbiorniki z materji gumowej, napełniane w rzadkości kuli, napełnione gazami, lżejszemi od powietrza, jak np.wodorem, lub wprost ogrzanem powietrzem, a więc lżejszem od zwykłego.

Tak powstały 2 zasadnicze typy balonów: jedne, napełnione wodorem, szybowce, od nazwiska ich konstruktorów Charles'a, drugie montgolfierki, wznoszące się dzięki ogrzanemu powietrzu, nazwane tak od ich wynalazcy Montgolfier'a.

Dalszy rozwój balonów i szczegóły konstrukcji dzisiejszych sterowców podam w osobnym artykule. Ten zaś poświęcam płatowcom.

Uczeni drugiej połowy XIX.wieku zwrócili się znowu do poglądu budowania maszyn, cięższych od powietrza. Pierwsze modele były bardzo podobne do wielkich parasoli /Rys.1.i 2./. Człowiek, uczepiony mniej, lub więcej wygodnie, skakał z podwyższenia, czy dachu i leciał w powietrze kilka, do kilkunastu metrów. Próby takie kończyły się najczęściej śmiercią, lub ciężkiem kalectwem, ale dzięki takim poświęceniom lotnictwo dosyć szybko się rozwinęło.

Na rys.3.i 4. widzimy Liljenthal'a, próbującego swoich ślizgowców.

Rozwój techniki samochodowej pchnął lotnictwo na właściwe tory. Zbudowano lekki silnik spalinowy i zastosowano go do płatowców w początkach XX.wieku.

Wyniki odrazu obrazały się świetnie. Bracia Wright pierwsi popisywali się swoimi lotami na płatowcach, przedstawionych na rys.5., przebywając na aparatach swojego systemu dziesiątki, później setki kilometrów.

Bleriot poraz pierwszy w r.1909. przelatuje kanał la Manche na swoim jednopłatowcu /rys.6./. W tym czasie istniej, jeszcze wiele mniej, lub więcej dobrych typów jedno-dwu, lub więcej płatowców, np. dwupłatowiec Farmann'a /rys.7./, wielopłatowiec Roe /rys.8./.

- 1 -

Kadet No. 2. Czasopismo Kadetów Korpusu No. 2 u Modlinie

[Cadet No. 2. Newspaper of the Cadets of 2nd Corps in Modlin]

Modlin: 20th March 1925.

Small folio. [20 pp.] mimeographed text with illustrations, original illustrated wrappers, inserted thicker sheet with mimeographed text on both sides, unbound, as originally published (sporadic staining and tiny tears in margins, overall in a good condition).

A charming large mimeographed magazine on aviation, published by the Polish cadets in the Modlin Fortress in 1925

A second issue of a rare Polish magazine with mimeographed text and illustrations was published by the 2nd corps of the cadets in the Modlin Fortress, situated north of Warsaw, in 1925. The fortress, originally built in the 19th century, is represented on the title page, printed in purple.

The articles include an illustrated text on the history of aviation, mathematical equations, short stories, poems and humorous pages. An inserted text, printed on both sides of thicker paper is dedicated to a 16 old cadet, who died of tuberculosis before the publication was published.

We could not find any institutional examples.

350 EUR

Od roku 1910. przeważają płatowce o krytym kadłubie /rys.9.i 10./, nie

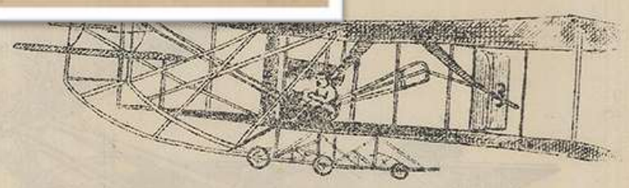


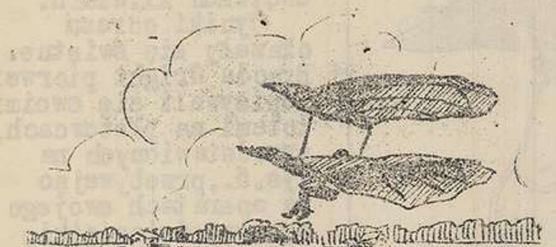
ą szybkość po-
atowca Fokker'a
ztałcie litery V,
strzałki. Punkt
jest wyżej,
wania skrzydeł.
ał płatowiec sa-
co pozwoliło na
ecników i da-
stwa. Nadto pi-
acać takiej uwa-
atru, bo płato-
hyleniu, na tych-
nie do równowa-

atowej lotnictwo
ą szybkością.
iały jego do-
dzenia wywiadów
ym celu utrzymy-
że płatowców.
ić z lotu pta-
eprzyjacielskich
nu dowództwu,
łasnej artylerji.
renu w krótkim
przestrzeniach
i pozwalało na
skoczenie nie-
dla atakujących

z lekkim, ale
rzednioty,
czej silniki
u do ciężaru.

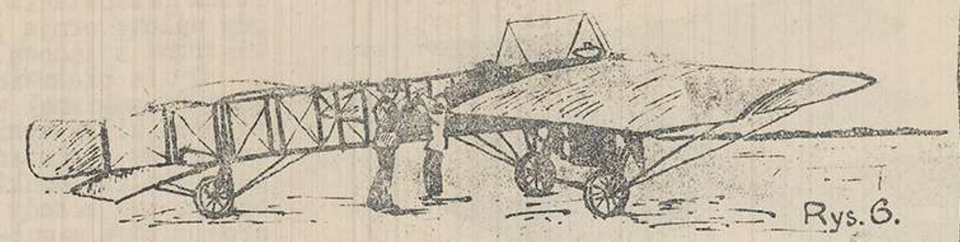
ęcej karabinów
a karabiny
e na 2 lub 3





Rys 4

Za pociśnięciem dźwigni, umieszczonej obok pilota, karabin strzelał automatycznie przez pole śmigła, t.j. tę płaszczyznę, w której śmiga wiruje. Pilot celuje w ten sposób, że zwraca cały aparat głową w kierunku celu na ziemi, czy nieprzyjacielskiego płatowca.



Rys.6.

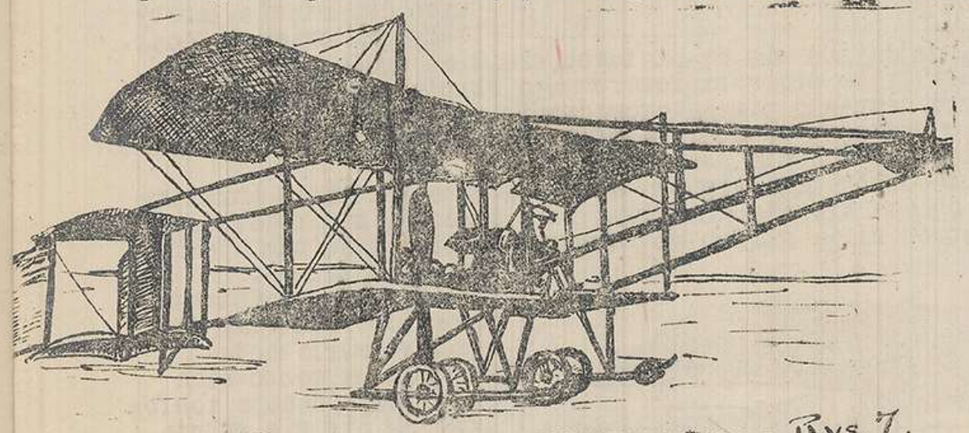
Tak powstało lotnictwo bojowe, które dzieliło się na kilka zasadniczych rodzajów płatowców. Cięższe z nich, uzbrojone, prócz karabinów maszynowych, armatkami, jak na rys.12., stanowią właściwą bitwę. Inne płatowce pościgowe, lżejsze i szybsze, ścigają nieprzyjaciela po zwycięstwie.

Trzeci wreszcie typ, najcięższych płatowców, służy do bombardowania terenu nieprzyjacielskiego. Jedne z tych ciężkich płatowców są przystosowane do lotów dziennych, inne do nocnych.

Interesujący jest rozwój taktyki lotniczej. Taktyka dzisiejsza zasadza się na tem, że walka powietrzna składa się z szeregu pojedynków między poszczególnemi płatowcami, między grupami, lub pojedyńczemi - i grupami płatowców. Zwycięstwo zależy od zwinności płatowca oraz przytomności i szybkiej orjentacji pilota. Pilot stara się zaskoczyć nieprzyjacielski płatowiec od strony pola martwego, t.j. takiej przestrzeni, w której nie działają strzały przeciwnika, a więc z góry, lub z tyłu, a skierowawszy samolot przodem na nieprzyjacielski, otwiera ogień z automatycznych karabinów maszynowych. Walce z kilku płatowcami naraz ogromne usługi oddaje ruchomy karabin maszynowy, którego ogniem kieruje sam obserwator, dowódca aparatu, lub strzelec, o ile płatowiec jest więcej, niż dwuosobowy. Po zł manin szyków nieprzyjacielskich cięższe płatowce pozostają w tyle, a lżejsze, pościgowe, lecą w pogoń.

Jeżeli przypatrzymy się rozwojowi tyktyki wojsk lądowych i mianowicie jazdy pancernej, która także dzieliła się na ciężką i lżejszą, to zobaczymy pewną analogję z rozwojem taktyki lotniczej.

W średnich wiekach, na zachodzie, jazda zbliżała się do siebie długą, rozwiniętą linją, na odległość kilkudziesięciu, nawet kilkunastu kroków, dawała do siebie salwy z pistoletów i dopiero potem linje uderzały na siebie. Bitwa zamieniała się w szereg pojedynków, walkę niewielkich grup, lub pojedyńczych rycerzy przeciw grupom, w każdym razie były to pojedynki, nawet do pewnego stopnia dowolne, rycerze, godni jeden drugiego, mogli tu się spotykać, popisując się swoją znajomością sztuki rycerskiej. Po zwycięstwie, pościgu dopełniała lekka jazda.



Rys.7.

Znacznie później dopiero zastosowano masowe użycie jazdy; takiemi są atak husarji, która siłą nabytego pędu i ciężarem łamała szyki nieprzyjaciół. Zwolna ataki przechodzą w szarże, która to taktyka przetrwała do wojny światowej.

36. Silent Movies
Ottoman Script



A charming complete series of 12 pamphlets in Ottoman Language with biographies of contemporary American celebrities combined with a presentation of one Russian and two Turkish silent movie stars offers a valuable insight in the modern society of the new Republic of Turkey and its perception of the popular culture of the West.

A complete series of 12 pamphlets:

1. **شارلو [Şarlo, i. e. Charlie Chaplin]** (BDK - ÖZEGE; 18643)[1]
2. **رودولف والانتینو [Rudolf Valentino]** (ÖZEGE; 17069; OCLC 1030875098)
3. **پولا ناغری [Pola Negri]** (ÖZEGE; 16356)
4. **لیندبرغ [[Charles]Lindbergh]** (BDK - ÖZEGE; 11688)
5. **چه کی قوغان [Çeki Kogan , i. e. Jackie Coogan]** (BDK - ÖZEGE; 3277 - TBTK; 7821)
6. **شادی بیجان افندی [Şadi (Bican Efendi) i. e. Hüseyin Şadi Karagözoğlu]** (ÖZEGE; 18535)
7. **ایوان موزوکین [Ivan Mozzhukhin (Ivan Mosjoukine)]** (BDK - ÖZEGE; 9630)
8. **قومیق شهیر ناشد بك [Komik-i Şehir Naşid Bey i. e. Naşit Bey or later Naşit Özcan]** (MİL - ÖZEGE; 11108; OCLC 1030919324)
9. **هارولد لوند [Harold Lloyd]** (ÖZEGE; 6965 - TBTK; 12598; OCLC 1030874917)
10. **دوغلاس فایربانقس [Douglas Fairbanks]** (BDK - ÖZEGE; 4414 - TBTK; 8883; OCLC 1030928961)
11. **اوته اویونلری [Orta Oyunları]** (BDK - ÖZEGE; 15837; OCLC 949487652)
12. **نصل سیناما ییلدیزی اولابیلیرسکز [Nasıl Sinema Yıldızı Olabilirsiniz / How You Can Become a Movie Star]** (BDK - ÖZEGE; 15173)

[1] Literature for each pamphlet.

Istanbul: جمهوریت مطبعه سی [Cumhuriyet Matbaası] 1927

12 issues (complete). 12°. All 32 pp., except of no. 12 with 24 pp., with black and white illustrations, original wrappers with lettering, stapled.

Slightly age-toned and stained, small tears in margins, mostly in wrappers, a small hole from old binding in the inner white margin of all the pamphlets. No. 12 missing back wrapper, one pamphlet with a missing corner of the last wrapper, sporadic wrappers loose. Overall good examples with clean text sheets.

This attractive hard to find complete series of 12 ephemeral illustrated pamphlets represents the American stars of the silent movies Charlie Chaplin, Rudolf Valentino (who passed away a year before), Pola Negri, Jackie Coogan, Harold Lloyd, Douglas Fairbanks and the aviation star of the time, Charles Lindbergh, who in 1927, in the year of the publication, made his famous solo transatlantic flight.

The series also includes a pamphlet on one of the first major stars of the Turkish silent comedy Şadi (or Hüseyin Şadi Karagözoğlu, 1890-1941), who was active as a comedian and movie director, a pamphlet on the actor Naşit Özcan (1886 – 1943), and a biography of the Russian silent movie star Ivan Mosjoukine (1889—1939).

The eleventh issue is dedicated to *Orta Oyunu*, an Ottoman/ Turkish version of *commedia dell'arte*, which developed in the early 19th century and became popular in the last decades of the Ottoman Empire. The last number *How You Can become a Movie Star* is a guidebook for the readers on the path to their fame in the world of celluloid tapes.

The pamphlets offer a valuable insight on the new, modern Turkey’s perception of the Western world and are a portrait of a quickly opening society.

The pamphlets were made in 1927, in only a year before Turkey changed its original script to Latin, and were sold in an ephemeral series *Beş Kuruşa Bir Kitab* (5 Cents A Book).

Worldcat lists five books from the series at the Orient-Institut Istanbul (please see the references next to the titles).

1.600 EUR



37. Silent Movies
Ottoman Language
Ben Hur



خارق العاده پر و غرام. ... بن هور

Istanbul: ثبات مطبعه [s. d., circa 1925]

Large 4°. 6 pp., [2 pp.] with black and white illustrations, printed on thin paper, unbound, as originally published (leftovers of old mounted and rubber taxation stamp on the cover, tiny holes in the paper, soft folds and tears in margins, headers crossed over with a coloured pen).

An exceedingly rare illustrated program for the 1925 silent movie Ben Hur with Ramon Novarro was issued for the movie theatre in Konya, Turkey. The movie is a splendid example of the ethic of rapid liberalization and internationalization, that occurred in Republic of Turkey only two years after its foundation.

Such ephemeral pamphlets, especially of this size, are exceedingly rare today. We could not find any other examples of the pamphlet.

550 EUR

38. Silent Movies
Armenian Printing in Alexandria

Paul D'IVOI (1956-1915).

ՃԱԼՄԱ ԼԱ ՏՈՒՊԼԸ (ՉՈՅԳ ՃԱԼՄԱՆԵՐԸ) ՉՈՅԳ ՃԱԼՄԱՆԵՐԸ. ԽՈՐՀՐԴԱՎՈՐ ՊԱՏՄՎԱԾՔՆԵՐ. [Chalma la tuplĕ, kam, Zoyg Chalmanere / Jalma la Double. Mysterious Stories]

Alexandria: Ա. Ստեփանեան [Step'anean] 1929.

8°. 365 pp. with 16 interleaved colour photographs, [1], newer three-quarter calf with brown boards and gilt decoration on the spine, old Armenian stamps on first and last pages (slightly age toned and stained, lacking illustrated wrappers).

A rare book in Armenian language, printed in Alexandria, Egypt, is a translation of a French orientalist novel and is accompanied with monochrome photographs from a contemporary popular French silent movie Jalma la Double.

A rare and unusual book, printed in Armenian language in Alexandria, Egypt, is a translation of the French adventurous orientalist fiction *Jalma la Double* by Paul d'Ivoi (1856-1915) and was issued one year after a promotion of a popular French movie with the same title.

The book includes 16 images from the movie, which was set in Istanbul in the time of Sultan Murad V, who only reigned from 30 May to 31 August 1876. This today very rare movie was made by a French director Roger Goupillières in 1928. A copy is preserved in the movie archive in Toulouse.

The Armenian version of the book was published in the same year as the French Paris-printed popular edition, accompanied with photographs from the movie, under a title *Jalma la double, Roman abondamment illustré par les photographies du film de la Société des ciné-romans*.

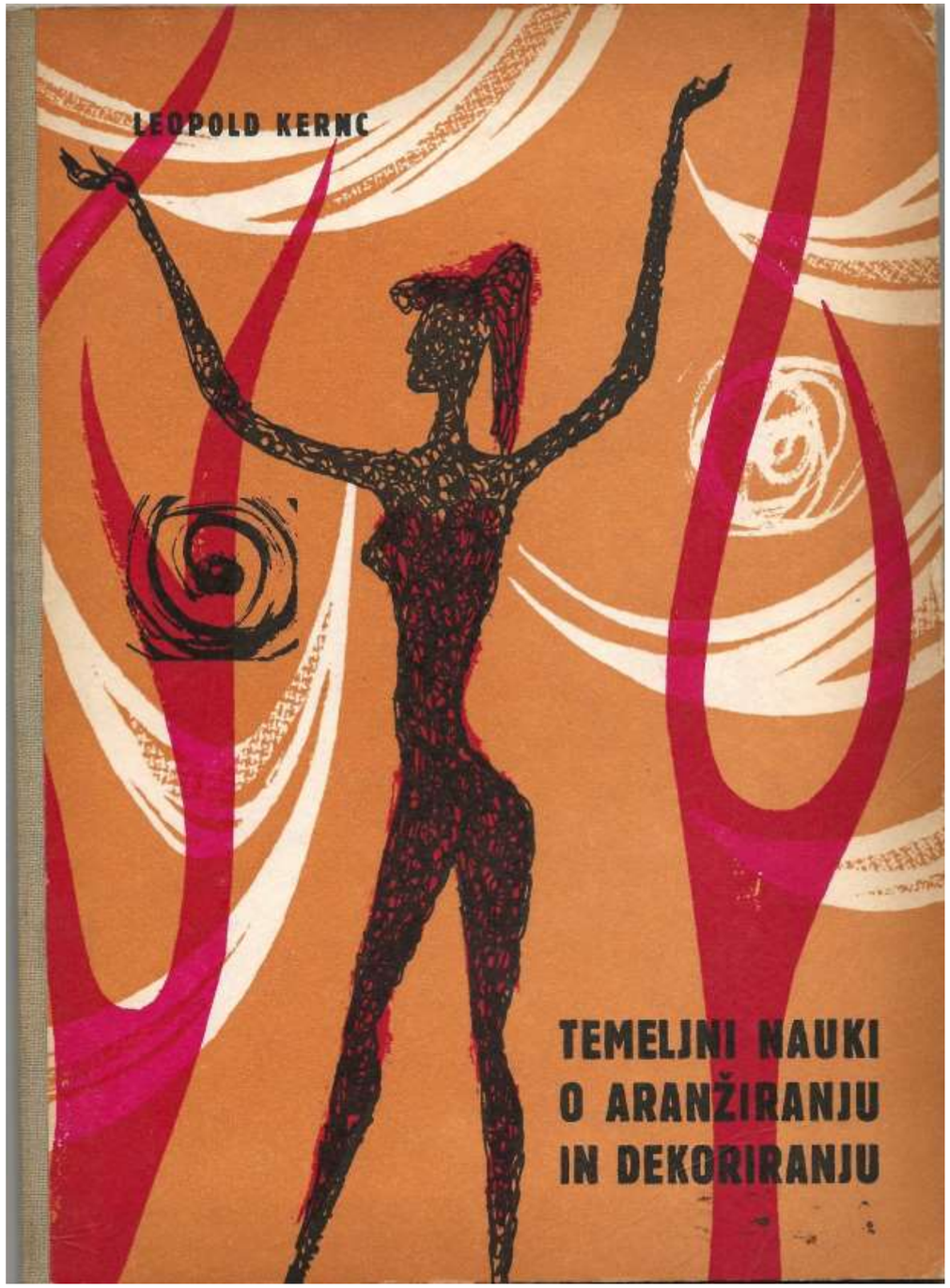
The book is registered in the database of the Armenian libraries (http://haygirk.nla.am) and Worldcat lists only one or two examples (two examples listed by the University of California, Los Angeles).

References: OCLC 52858010.

450 EUR



39. Yugoslav Book Design
Mid-Century Window Dressing



Leopold KERNC (1892-1981), author and illustrator.

Temeljni nauki o aranžiranju in dekoriranju

[The Basics of Window Dressing]

Ljubljana: DZS 1964.

8°. 116 pp. with black and white illustrations and interleaved colour plate, printed from both sides, [4 pp.], original illustrated boards, linen spine (slightly bumped on the corners, otherwise in a good condition).

An attractive, mid-century Slovenian (Yugoslav) book on drafting of commercial shop windows includes a series of illustrations and photographs of contemporary designs for mostly fashion industry.

The author of the text, as well of the illustrations and attractive cover design was Leopold Kernc (1892-1981), a Slovenian (at the time Yugoslavian) educator, musician, designer and painter.

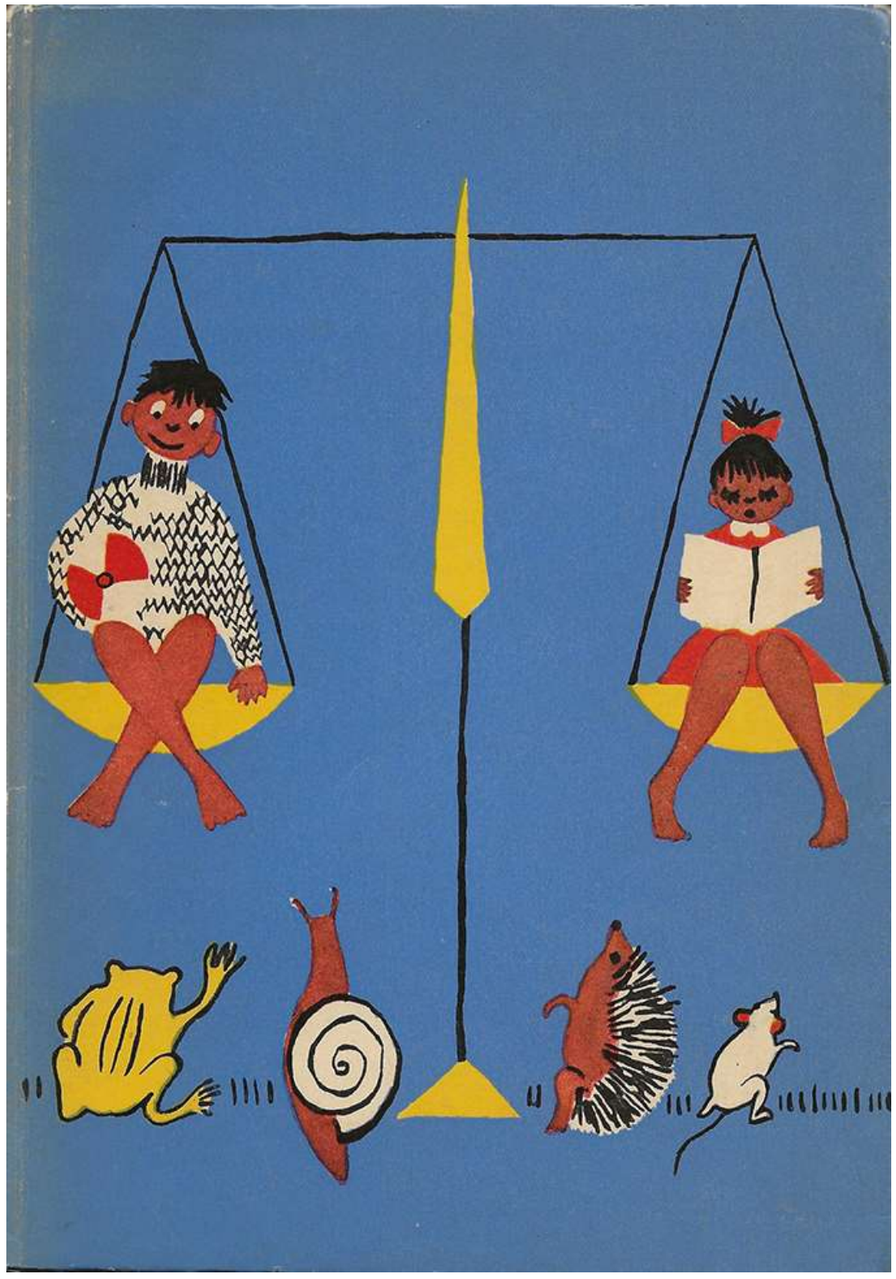
The book was written for the professional education of window dressers and is a pioneering work in post-WWII Yugoslavia on the subject. It was translated to Croatian in 1973.

We could not find any institutional copies.

References: OCLC 442597914. Leopold Kernc. Spletni biografski leksikon osrednje Slovenije (Spletni biografski leksikon osrednje Slovenije > Oseba (obrazisrcaslovenije.si).

75 EUR

40. Children’s Books
Yugoslav Book Design
Book Illustration



Jože ŠMIT (1922 –2004), author - Ana Nuša JONTEZ MIHEVC, illustrator.

Pol za šalo pol za res

[Half Jokingly, Half Seriously]

Koper: Lipa [1956].

8°. 81 pp., with black and white colour illustrations, [2 pp.], original illustrated colour wrappers with flaps (wrappers with minor foxing on the inner side, very light age-toning and minor wear to the corners on the outer side, otherwise in a good condition).

A charming book with poetry for children was designed and illustrated by a Slovenian architect Ana Nuša Jontez, the wife of one of the most prolific Yugoslav architects of the 20th century, Edo Mihevc.

A charming booklet, written by a Slovenian author **Jože Šmit** (1922 –2004) issued in Koper, includes riddles and calendar in poems for children.

The simple, high-quality illustrations, were made by a Slovenian female architect Ana Nuša Jontez Mihevc, who was active as an illustrator after the war. Jontez was also known as a wife of one of the most famous Slovenian / Yugoslav architects of the 20th century Edo Mihevc (1911– 1985).

Worldcat only lists one example outside Slovenian libraries (Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin).

References: OLCL 439482897, 837073679.

75 EUR

41. Yugoslav Book Design
Typography

Drogerija Gregorič. Peter KOCJANČIČ (1985-1986), designer

Foto-Cenik. Drogerija Gregorič. Ljubljana. Prešernova 5. Dodatni cenik. Štev. 4

[Photo-Price Book. Gregorič Drugstore. Prešeren Street. Additional Price Book. No. 4]

Ljubljana: Drogerija Gregorič (publisher)

Kamnik: A. Slatnar (printer) [s.d., circa 1930]

Narrow 8°. 72 with black and white images, original colour illustrated wrappers, stapled (light traces of use, minor foxing and staining, tiny folds in corners, otherwise in a good condition).

A catalogue for a photograph equipment with a balanced Art Deco cover design by a Slovenian award winning designer of posters, photographer and a pioneer of the use of photography in advertising design Peter Kocjančič

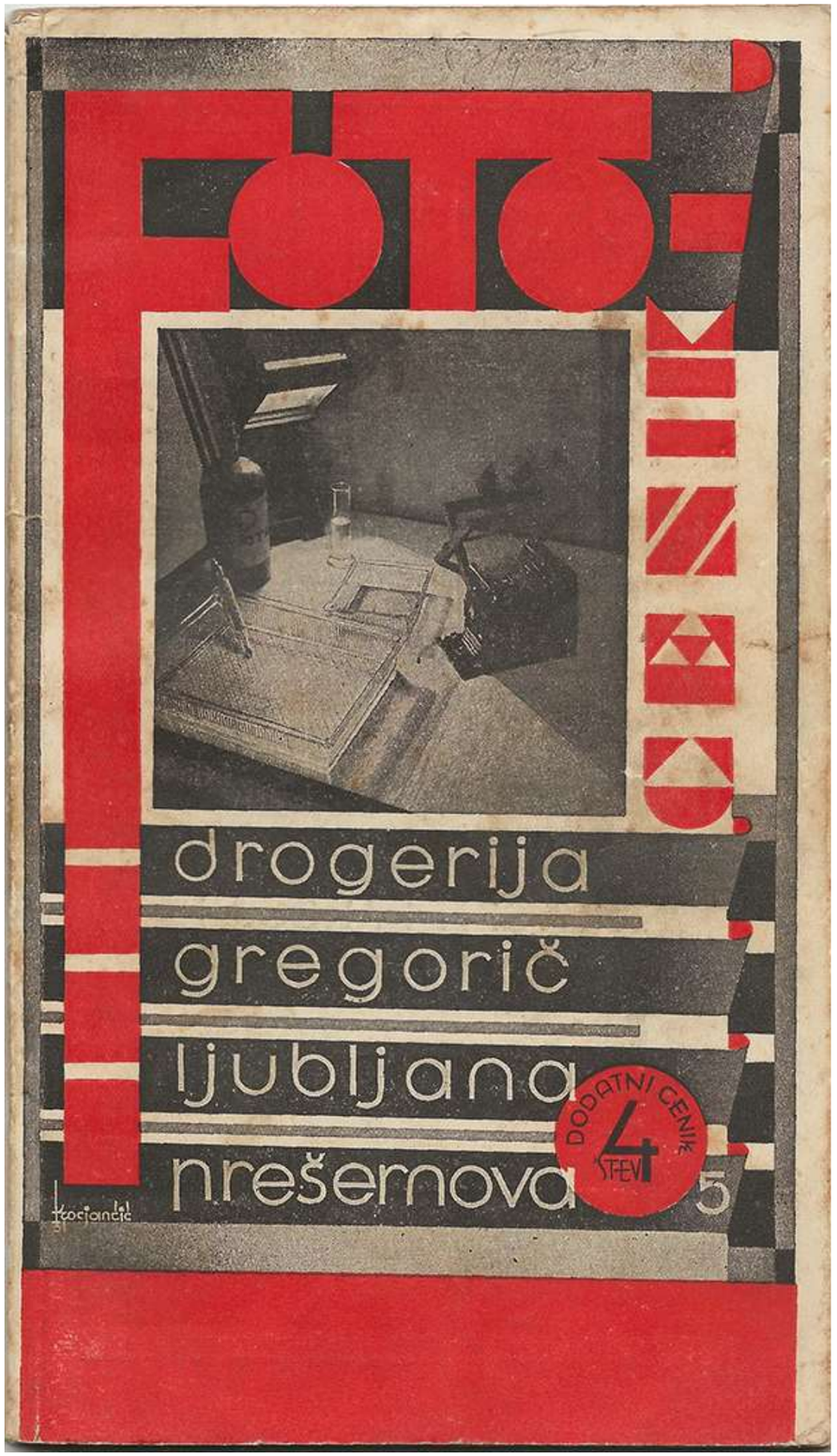
A beautifully designed richly illustrated catalogue of the photographing equipment was made by a Ljubljana-based firm around 1930. It includes images of the products as well as art-deco clip-art.

The design was made by Peter Kocjančič, Slovenian artist, who was schooled at the art academy in Venice. Starting successfully as a designer of posters, most notably for the Slovenian poster for a movie milestone Metropolis, he eventually moved to book design and photography. He is remembered in the history of the Yugoslav design as the first person, experimenting with photography in his drafts.

During his lifetime Kocjančič received 82 awards and 40 diplomas for his photography and design. He received the highest title of the “Master of Photography” by the Yugoslav Photo-Association and in 1967, the title Honorary Excellence FIAP.

We could not find any institutional examples.

120 EUR




FILM
drogerija gregorič
prešernova ul. 5.
DROGERIJA GREGORIC
LJUBLJANA
Kocjančič


foto
Cednik
drogerija gregorič
samožalozba
foto-
ABECEDNIK

42. Yugoslav Book Design
Typography



Drogerija Gregorič. Peter KOCJANČIČ (1985-1986), designer

Foto A Be Cednik

[Photo ABC Book]

Ljubljana: Drogerija Gregorič (publisher)

Kamnik: A. Slatnar (printer) [s.d., circa 1930]

8°. 72 with black and white images, 4 [pp.], original colour illustrated wrappers, stapled (light traces of use, minor foxing and staining, tiny folds in corners, old signature on the first page, otherwise in a good condition).

An ABC guide to the photographical equipment, drafted by a Slovenian designer of posters, photographer and a pioneer of the use of photography in advertising design Peter Kocjančič

A beautifully designed richly illustrated guide book to buying the photographic material was published in Ljubljana around 1930 (one drawing dates 1929).

The design was made by Peter Kocjančič, Slovenian artist, who was schooled at the art academy in Venice. Starting successfully as a designer of posters, most notably for the Slovenian poster for a movie milestone Metropolis, he eventually moved to book design and photography. He is remembered in the history of the Yugoslav design as the first person, experimenting with photography in his drafts.

During his lifetime Kocjančič received 82 awards and 40 diplomas for his photography and design. He received the highest title of the “Master of Photography” by the Yugoslav Photo-Association and in 1967, the title Honorary Excellence FIAP.

We could not find any institutional examples.

120 EUR

43. Polish Book Design
Skiing



Konstanty PIETKIEWICZ, author; Aleksander BOBKOWSKI, author of the introduction; IDCZAK, illustrator of the cover.

Nauka jazdy na nartach

(Ze szczególnem uwzględnieniem narciarstwa w szkole). Podręcznik metodyczny dla nauczycieli, uczniów i samouków

[Skiing Manual. (With Particular Emphasis on Skiing at School). Methodological Manual for Teachers, Students and Self-Taught Skiers]

Warsaw: Nasza Księgarnia [1935].

8°. XVI, 239 pp. with black and white illustrations, [2 pp.], errata on blue paper, inserted original advertisement on blue paper, original illustrated wrappers (wrappers with tiny tears and holes in margins, minor staining, overall in a good condition).

An attractively designed, illustrated skiing manual in Polish language was published in Warsaw. The cover was lithographed in Vilnius.

We could not find any examples outside Polish libraries.

References: OCLC 982577069.

120 EUR

44. Polish Book Design
Polish Avantgarde

Stanisław Ryszard DOBROWOLSKI (1907-1985)

Autoportret

Vilnius – Warsaw: Kwadryga – published by the author, 1932.

8°. 46 pp., [2 pp.] index, original wrappers with illustrated cover, dedication of the author on the first page (wrappers slightly age-toned, otherwise in a good, clean condition).

A collection of avantgarde poems with a decorative cover design was written by Stanisław Ryszard Dobrowolski (1907-1985), a Polish left-wing author, translator, poet and a member of an avantgarde group Kwadryga. During the war he was a member of the resistance and an author of several underground publications.

We could only find one example of the title outside of the Polish institutions (Indiana University).

References: OCLC 876947322.

420 EUR



45. Feminism

Alexander von BRANDT (1844-1932)

Feminismus. Seine Begründung und Folgen

[Feminism. Its Rationale and Consequences].

Dorpat (Tartu), Estonia: Krüger – Leipzig: Brockhaus 1929.

8°. VII, 202 pp. with black and white images, [2pp.], 4 black and white plates, original orange wrappers with lettering (sporadic pages cut in the upper part, otherwise an uncut example, wrappers with light water staining in margins and minor scuffing old round paper label with hand-written numbers on the spine, a 1930s stamp from a former department at a Yugoslav University).

An unusual work in German language by a retired professor of zoology Alexander von Brandt, searching for the explanation for the female liberation, especially sexual liberation, and feminism through the history, evolution, botanical and zoological examples.

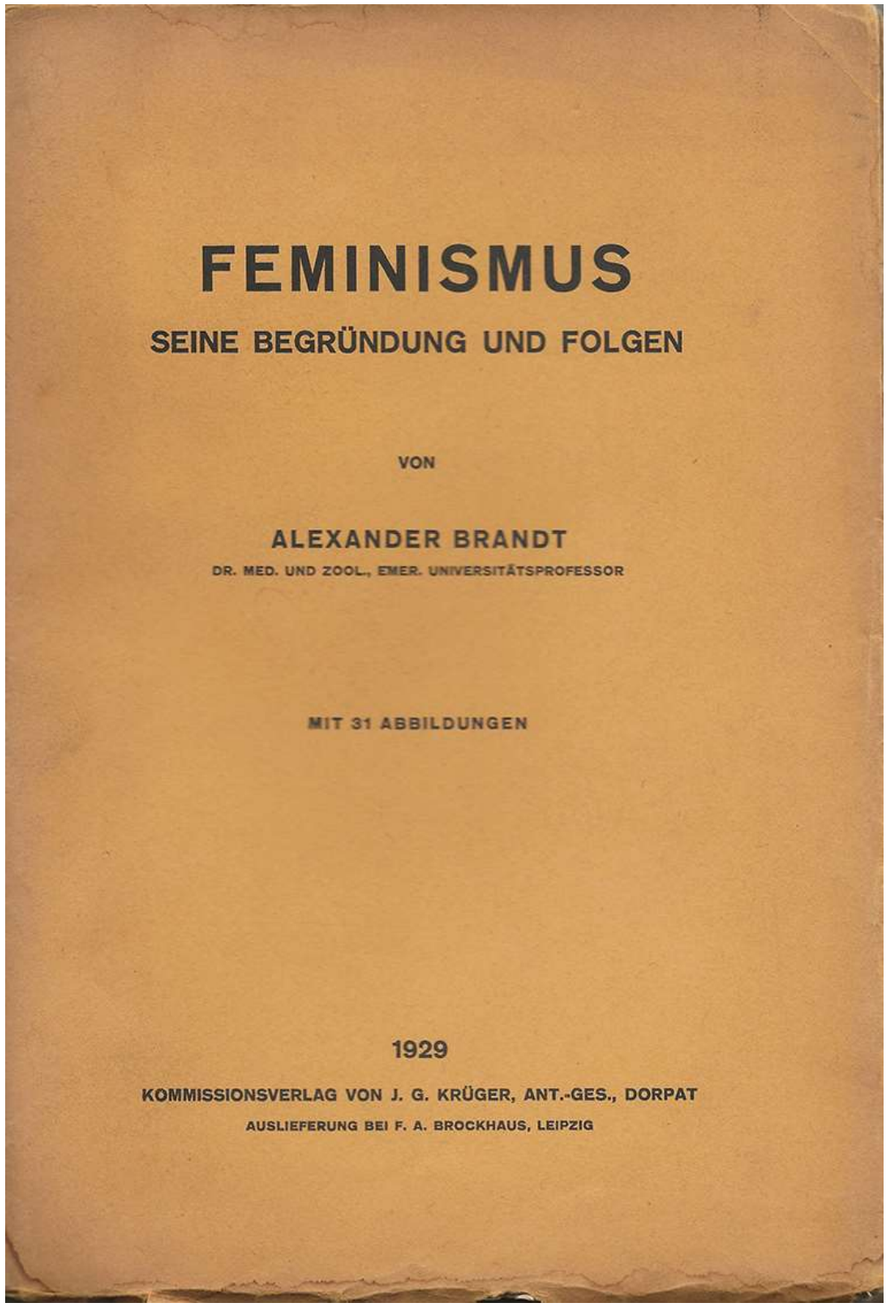
This unusual work in German language, written in Dorpat (today Tartu, Estonia) by a scientist Alexander Brandt analyses the modern feminism with a help of botany, zoology, history and elderly texts, sayings and poems. The author appears to be especially troubled with a question of the female sexual liberation.

Alexander (von) Brandt, from the well-known German family of zoologists and scientists, active mostly in Russia, was a born in Saint Petersburg and later became a professor of zoology at the Faculty for Mathematics and Science in Tartu. This book was published three years before his death, when he was 85 years old.

The work is rare on the market and only appears in 4 German libraries and in 4 abroad (Universität Zürich, National Library of Israel, UNH Durham - Dimond Library, New York Public Library).

References: OCLC 729136407, 56014034.

380 EUR



46. Anti-Fascism
Female Emancipation
Yugoslav Book Design



Angela VODE (1992-1985), author; Mitja ŠVIGELJ, design.

Žena v sedanji družbi

[A Woman in Today's Society]

[S.l., s.d.] 1934

8°. 96 pp. with black and white title page, original illustrated wrappers (light foxing, mostly to the wrappers and first and last pages, tiny folds in corners, tiny chips on the spine).

An unusual early feminist anti-Hitler publication from 1934 was written by a famous Slovenian / Yugoslavian female writer, who later became a partisan fighter, prisoner of the Ravensbrück concentration camp and after the war a victim of the new Yugoslav regime.

This unusual publication with a cover, representing a modern woman as a prisoner, divided between roles of the intellectual, wife and mother, a factory and a farm worker, includes a highly intellectual analysis of the role of women in the modern word. It discusses the traditional role versus the modern one.

The last part is dedicated to the rising of Fascism and Nazism.

The author Angela Vode blames the Fascist for directing the young girls towards the traditional role of homemakers, leaving them uneducated and without a choice.

Angela Vode, one of the first Slovenian / Yugoslavian feminists

The author Angela Vode was a teacher and a known fighter for equal rights of women in the marriage, education and job opportunities. Because of her firm believes, she was often publicly insulted by her male colleagues in the press, forcing her to file a lawsuit for defamation.

With the rise of Nazism in the early 1930s, Vode became a fierce opponent of Hitler and Mussolini, blaming them, among others, for suppression of the emancipation of women, forcing the girls into the traditional stand of mothers and housewives.

Her most famous works of the time are *Žena v današnji družbi* (*A Woman in Today's Society*, 1934), *Žena i fašizam* (*A Woman and the Fascism*, 1935, in Croatian language) and *Spol in usoda* (*The Gender and the Destiny*, 1938).

In 1939, Angela Vode exited the Communist party, disagreeing with its extremes, yet upon the Nazi's occupation of Yugoslavia, in April 1941, she became one of the founders of the National Liberation movement (i. e. the Partisans, or *O.F.*).During WWII, Angela Vode, a member of the underground partisan movement, got into disputes with her Communist fellow fighters for opposing their suppression by the Fascists and later by the Nazis in Ravensbrück.

After the war, Vode was tried again by the Yugoslav Communists for her early sympathising with the Soviet Union, treason and spying. She was released in 1953, serving 6 years out of 20.

Upon her release she was denounced her citizen rights and working permit. She was supported by her relatives until her death. The new Yugoslav regime made sure, that Angela Vode was forgotten by the public.

Six years after Angela Vode's death in 1985, the country annulled the judgement from 1947 and her autobiography *The Secret Memoires* was published in 2004.

The book was designed by an engineer and architect Mitja Švigelj. Švigelj, active as a designer and photographer, was running his own studio *Mico* (also *Miko*), where his

photomontages were developed. In 1940 his works were exhibited in the Jakopic pavilion, most important modern art institution in Ljubljana. During WWII he's also recorded as an

author of theatrical scenes. After WWII he escaped to Buenos Aires.

Although a great talent, progressive modern designer and book illustrator, Mitja Švigelj was forgotten after WWII in Yugoslavia under the new regime, for his political believes.

The book is in a very good, nearly mint condition.

We could find 12 institutional copies in Slovenian libraries and none abroad.

References: OCLC 441880992.

280 EUR



47. Yugoslav 1980s Art



Various Authors

Neue Slowenische Kunst. Problemi-6

Ljubljana: 1985.

4°. 64 pp. printed and xeroxed text with illustrations in black, purple and green, [24 pp.] text in purple and black and white with illustrations, [32 pp.] interleaved colour plates on thicker paper with illustrations on both sides, original silver wrappers with black lettering and illustrations (small dents, folds and scratches on the wrappers, one colour plate loose, light traces f use, otherwise in a good condition).

An early publication on the art collective Neue Slowenische Kunst

A magazine from the series of controversial, punk-oriented series *Problemi* (Problems), issued in the last decade of the Yugoslavia, is one of the earliest monographs by the group *Neue Slowenische Kunst.* It includes art, illustrations, poetry, texts and an interview with the legendary music group *Laibach.*

Neue Slowenische Kunst or NSK (a German name meaning *New Slovenian Art*) was a controversial political art collective that formed in Slovenia in 1984, at the time a part of Yugoslavia. NSK is a large collective consisting of different groups, such as the music group Laibach (German name for Ljubljana), IRWIN (visual art), Cosmokinetic Theatre Noordung (Scipion Nasice Sisters Theatre and Red Pilot), New Collective Studio (New Collectivism), Retrovision (film and video), and the Department of Pure and Applied Philosophy (theory), sometimes represented by same members.

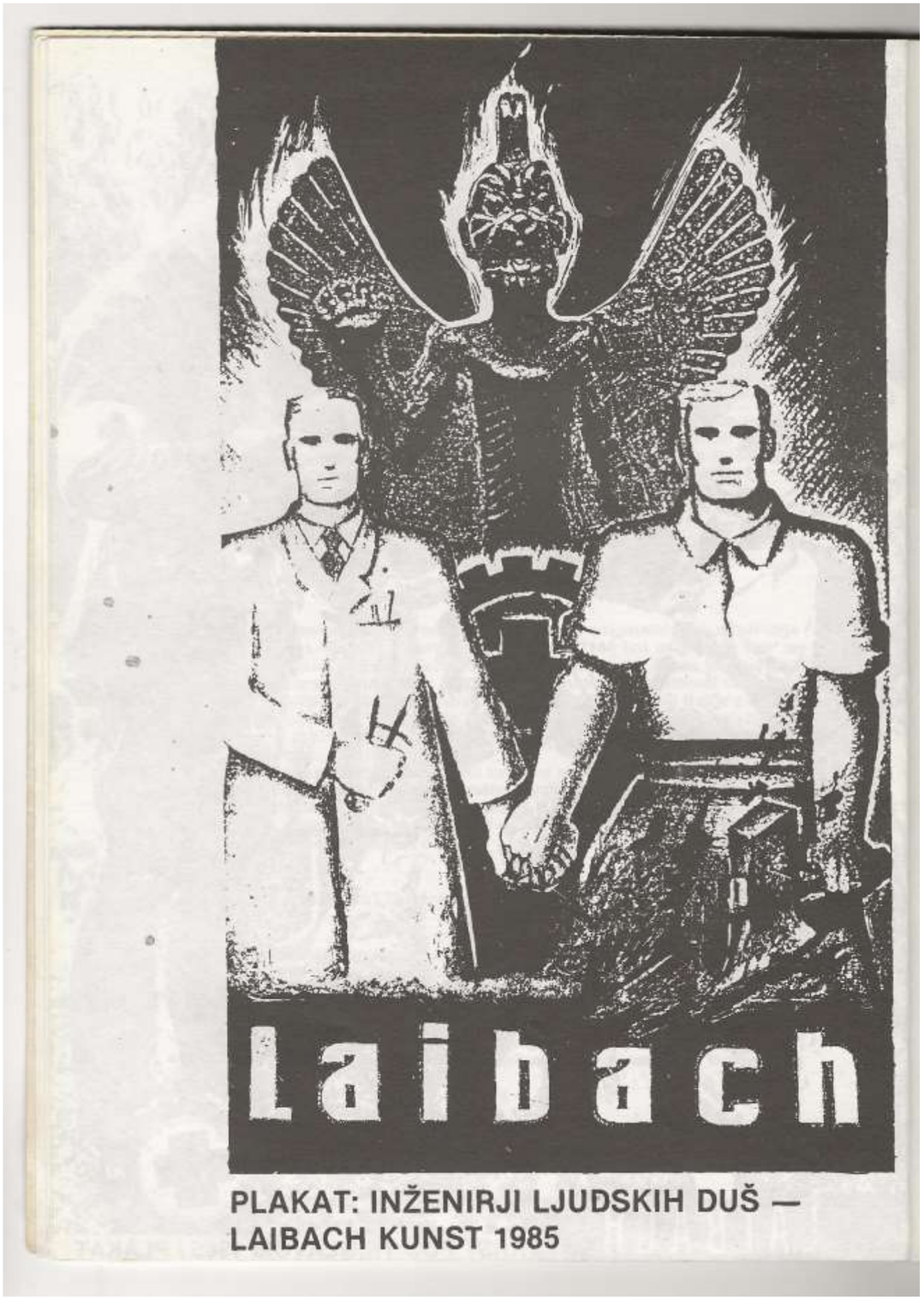
In 1991 the movement, run by the group Irwin, transformed into its own state with its passports and stamps.

NSK is using symbols drawn from totalitarian or extreme nationalist movements, often reappropriating totalitarian kitsch, in order to show the repetition of those symbols through the history and in the popular culture. (The strategy of Laibach)… "frustrates" the system (the ruling ideology) precisely insofar as it is not its ironiimitation, but over-identification with it – by bringing to light the obscene superego underside of the system, over-identification suspends its efficiency.

(Slavoj Žižek, in: Why are Laibach and NSK not fascists? (M'ars, Year 5, nr. 3/4 (1993), p. 3-4)).

References: OCLC 451728316.

220 EUR



PLAKAT: INŽENIRJI LJUDSKIH DUŠ —
LAIBACH KUNST 1985

48. Bibliograhpy – Partisan Underground Printing

Vladimir DEDIJER (1914 - 1990).

Партизанске штампарије
[Partizanske štamparije / Partisan Press].

Belgrade: Kultura, March 12, 1945.

Large 8°: 158 pp. (1 image within text), 1 plate, 1 folding plate, [1] (index), original tan wrappers with printed brown and red cover, stapled, on the first blank page a stamp of the Croatian Partisan Organisation (cover with soft folds and small tears, old paper stamp on the front and rear cover, sporadic old annotations in pencil in margins, small hand-written numbers on the last page, soft folds to some leaves, otherwise in a good condition).

An important and scarce work on Partisan publications by Vladimir Dedijer, subsequently one of the most internationally esteemed Yugoslav academics, issued in Belgrade shortly after its liberation.

This is an important work is one of the earliest books to describe the operations of the Underground Partisan printing presses. The author, Vladimir Dedijer, was a professional journalist who possessed extensive direct knowledge of the printing network. The work was published in Belgrade, not long after the city had been liberated, but while the war was still in progress. The book is packed with fascinating details and anecdotes concerning the day-to-day operations of the secret Partisan presses, and how they received and disseminated information. It is illustrated with one of the earliest published images of a Partisan printing operation.

Vladimir Dedijer (1914 - 1990) was a Partisan fighter and subsequently one of the most internationally prominent Yugoslavian historians and civil rights activists. He initially worked as a journalist, and this led him to travel to Spain where he supported the Republicans during that country's Civil War. In 1941, he joined the Partisans where he attained the rank of lieutenant-colonel, becoming a close advisor to Marshal Tito. After the war he taught at the University of Belgrade and was appointed to the Central Committee of the Yugoslav Communist Party, but, in 1954, following a contretemps with Tito, was banished from all power circles. He left Yugoslavia in 1959, where he spent the rest of his life teaching and writing, associated with some of the world's leading universities, such as Princeton, Stanford, Harvard and the Sorbonne. He became an internationally prominent human rights activist and an important historian of World War II and its aftermath.

References: OCLC 23575503, 441103700, 559855705.

350 EUR



49. Bibliograhpy – Partisan Underground Printing

Bibliografija izdanja u narodooslobodilačkom ratu. 1941-45.

[Bibliography of Publications in the National Liberation War. 1941-45]

Belgrade: Vojnoistorijski Institut [Military History Institute] 1964.

4°: [18 pp.] with a full-page portrait of Tito, 815 pp. with illustrations, interleaved black and white illustrations, [8 pp.], colour folding map, original linen boards with illustrated cover, brown calf spine with gilt lettering (binding slightly rubbed and scuffed on the corners, otherwise in a good condition).

The groundbreaking bibliography, listing over 9000 titles of underground publications, issued by the Yugoslav Partisans during WWII, including in North Africa, Italy and in the concentrations camps.

This monumental bibliography was made as a result of the cooperation between major Yugoslav libraries and museums. It lists 9103 books, brochures, magazines, newspapers and other publications, made by the Yugoslav partisans during WWII. Named are not only the titles, made on the soil of Yugoslavia, but also those made in the allied camps in North Africa and Italy and publications, printed in prison and concentration camps all over Europe.

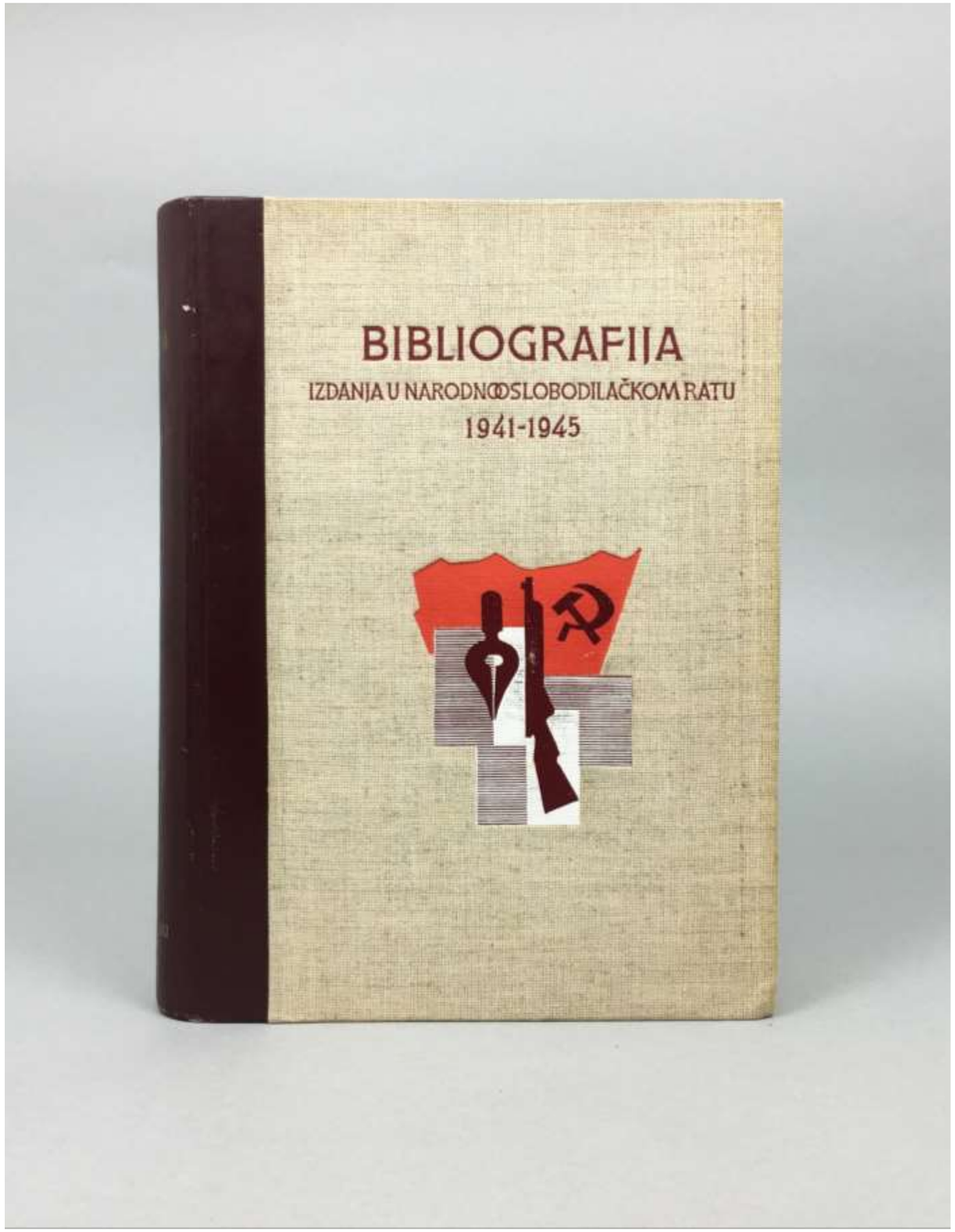
The introduction was written in English, French and Russian. The various indexes and appendices on the back are helpful with additional information and a large folding map shows the locations of the underground presses. The illustrations represent book and magazine covers, as well as the production of the books, the interiors of the underground presses and printers at work.

In 1964, the Yugoslav libraries housed an almost complete collection of such partisan publications as a result of systematic collecting of such material in special press centers during the war. After the collapse of Yugoslavia, many of the publications, listed in the book, have been disposed of from the libraries by the new governments or destroyed in the Yugoslav wars.

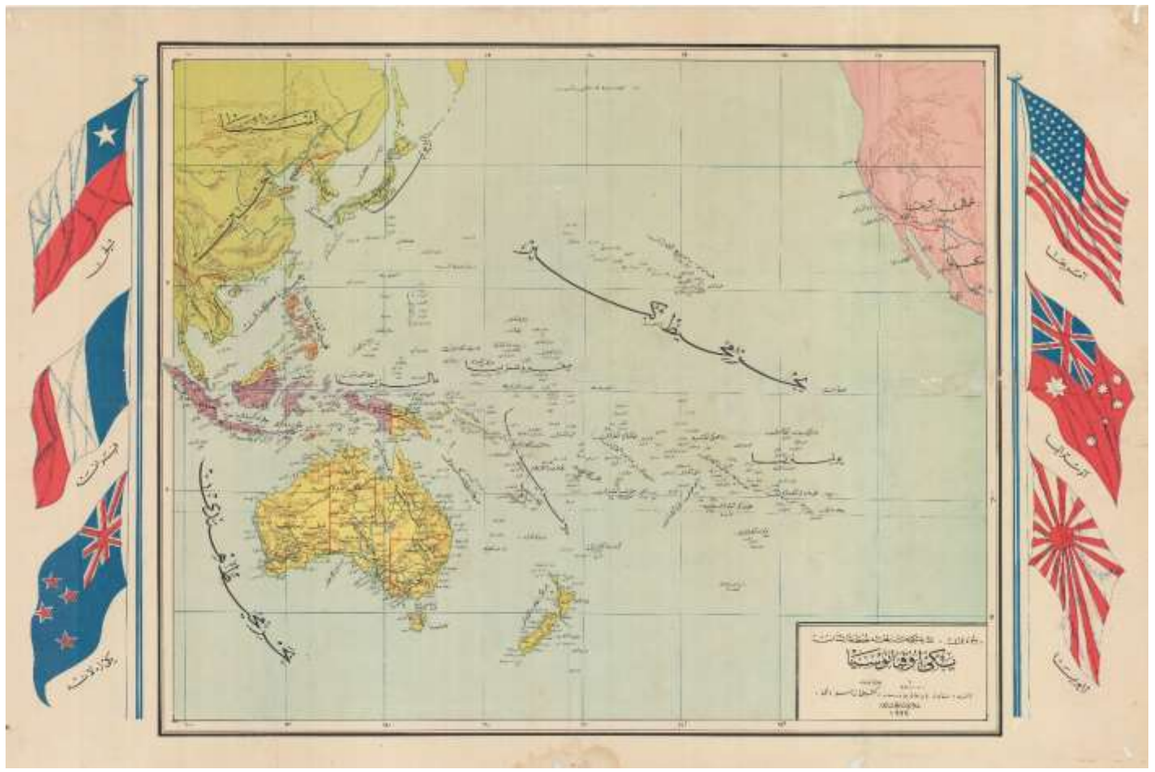
The bibliography is until today the most valuable source for an insight in the fascinating world of the partisan WWII press.

References: OCLC 16839971, 459538514, 174373646.

320 EUR



50. Australia and Oceania



كتابخانه سودى [KITABHANE-YI SUDI], BAB-I ALI CADDESI (ISTANBUL).

يكى اوقيانوسيا

[New Oceania]

Istanbul: Aladdin Matba-sı, 1927.

Colour off-set print (Good, some light staining, wear and some very minor loss along old folds, with some loss to upper blank margins) 63 x 94 cm (25 x 37 inches).

A very rare, large format, separately issued map of Australia and Oceania that is perhaps the last great map of the continent to be printed in Ottoman Turkish script, with attractive colours and adorned with the flags of major African states and colonies, published in Istanbul for the Kitabhane-yi Sudi bookshop.

This very rare and highly attractive large format map of Australia with Oceania was printed as one of series of separately issued maps of the continents made for the Kitabhane-yi Sudi, a bookshop located at the Bab-ı Ali Caddesi in Istanbul. Published in 1927, it is perhaps the last great map of Africa to have been printed in Ottoman script (which would be abolished by President *Atatürk in early 1929, henceforth mandating that Latin letters be used for the Turkish language).*

The map is beautifully adorned on both sides with flags, including (on the left, top to bottom:) Chile, France, New Zealand; (on the right, top to bottom:) Australia, United States, Japan.

All of the maps from the Kitabhane-yi Sudi series of the continents are today very rare, as due to their large size and separate issue they have a low survival rate.

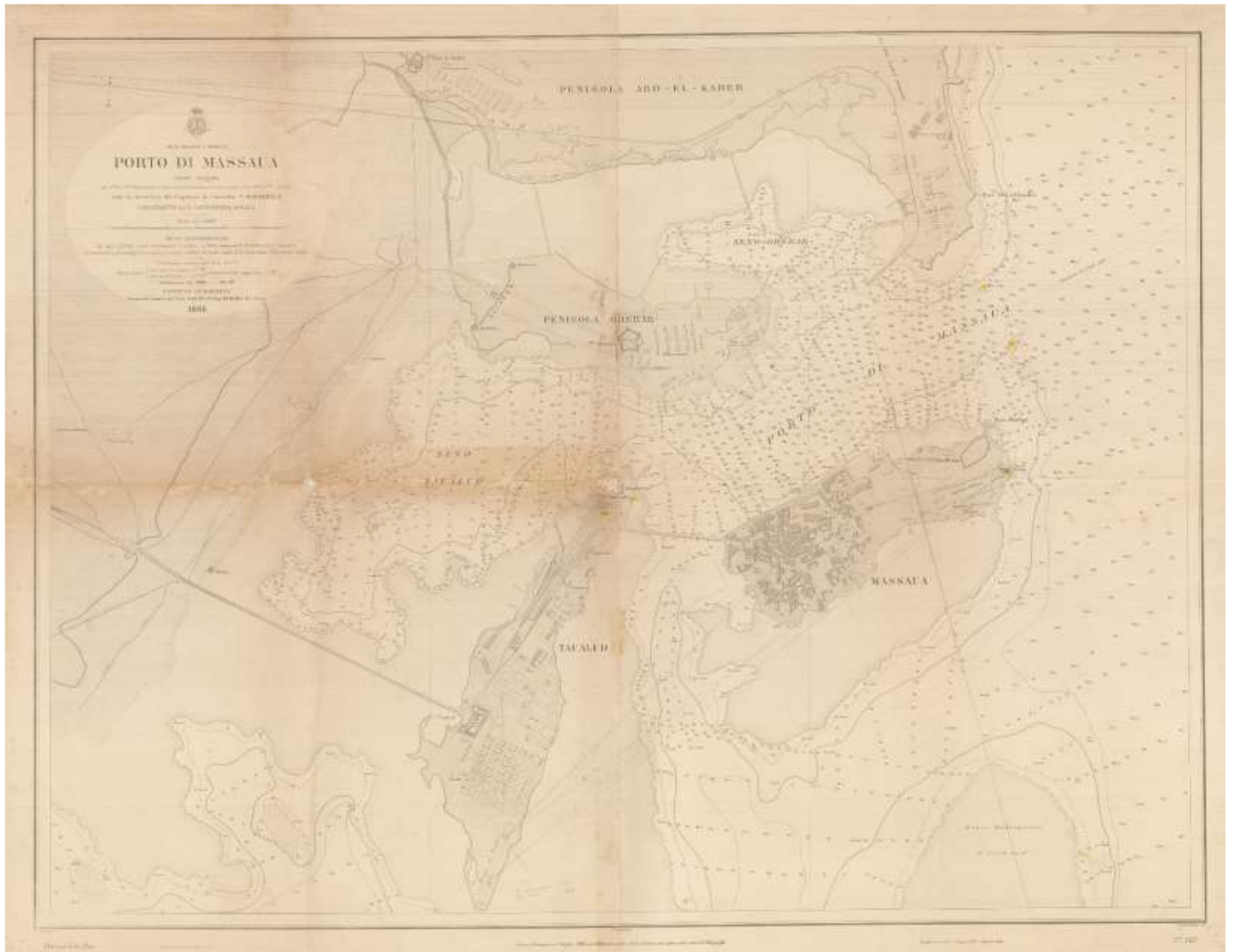
850 EUR

51. Massawa, Eritrea

UFFICIO IDROGRAFICO DELLA REGIA MARINA [HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE OF THE ITALIAN NAVY].

***(Mar Rosso - Africa) Porto di Massaua rilievi eseguiti dai T.ti di V.llo G. Boccardi, C. Marcacci, E. Presbitero, G. Roncagli e sotto T.te S. Bellini sotto la direzione del capitano di Corvetta C. Mirabello, Comandante la R. Connoniera Scilla…*1886.**

[Genoa]: Real Istituto Idrografico, December 1911.



Zincograph, with some navigation markers heightened in yellow, some contemporary manuscript navigational additions in pencil (Good, but with noticeable wear along old folds with some small surface loss especially to the centre), 85.5 x 67 cm (33.5 x 26.5 inches).

This is the first sea chart of the harbour of Massawa predicated upon proper scientific surveys, as well as one of the only detailed early maps of the city of Massawa as remodeled by the new Italian colonial regime. Massawa was conquered by the Italians in 1885, becoming their first major base in Africa, and the anchor of Eritrea, its '*Colonia Primogenita*'. The Italians quickly developed Massawa into a modern industrial port and naval base, adding new quarters and much infrastructure.

The present chart is based upon surveys conducted by various commanders (named in the title) of the Italian Navy in 1886 and was first published in Genoa by the Real Istituto Idrografico the following year. The present example of the chart is significantly updated, having been issued in December 1911.

The chart shows the old, or native, city on 'Massua' island, in the centre, with its dense warren of streets in traditional style, focused around on the renamed 'Plaza Garibaldi', while the eastern part of the island it taken up the 'Ospidale Militare' (military hospital) and the 'Missione Francese' (French Catholic mission).

The new, or Italian, city is located on the southwest side of 'Taluad' Island, laid out with urban blocks in a neat grid patters, labeling the major public buildings, such as the 'Serraglio' (Governor's Palace), 'Commando' (military headquarters) and 'Poste' (post office). The islands are shown to be connected to the mainland by causeways, with Taluad Island linked to the Massawa-Asmara railroad, which was completed in 1911, the very year that the present edition of the map was issued.

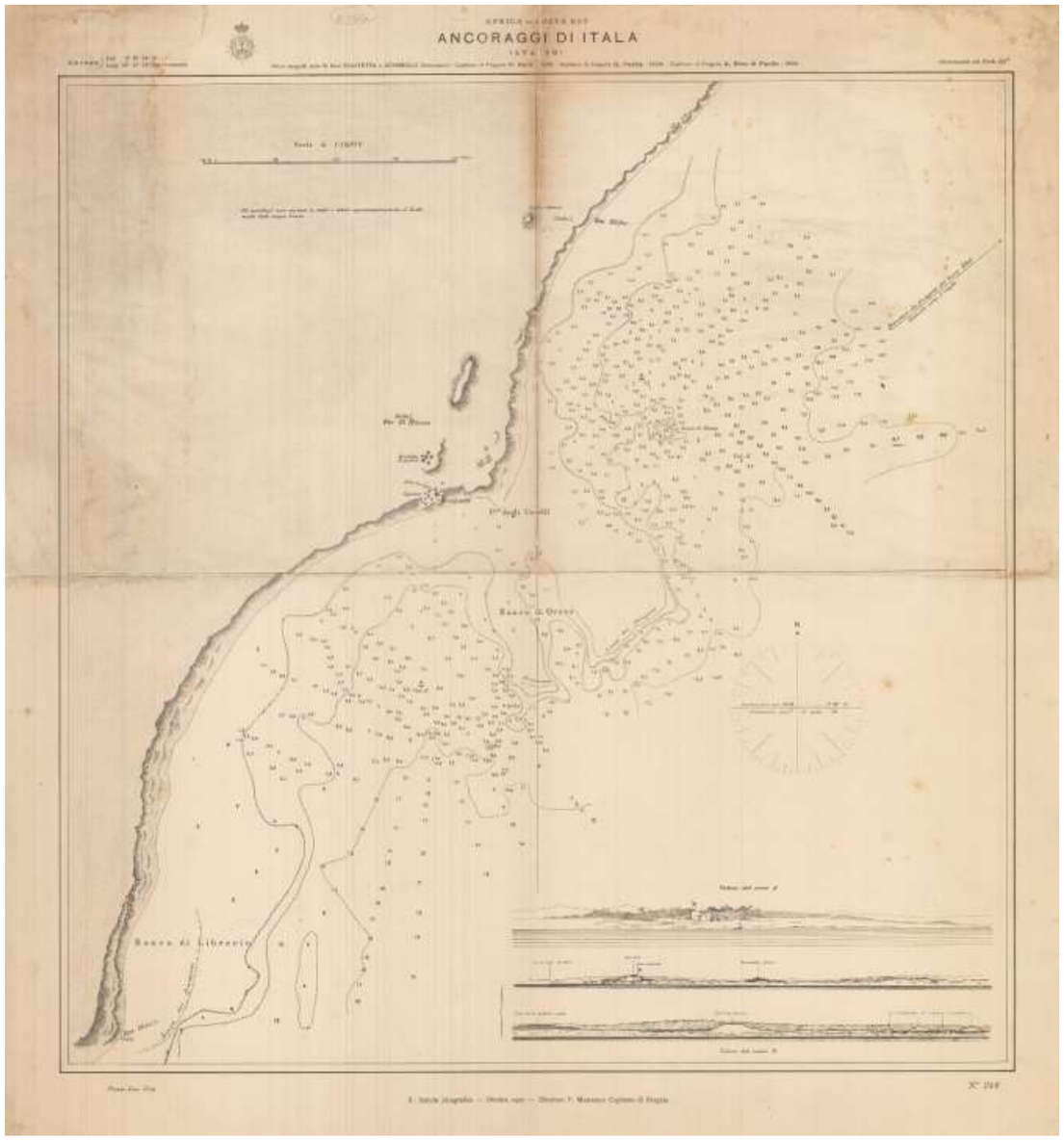
To the north of the harbour is the 'Abd-el-Kader' Peninsula, an industrial zone connected to the railway, which is home to the naval 'Arsenale'. The 'Gherar' Peninsula, on the western side of the harbour, is a military zone featuring Fort Gherar and large barracks, and is protected from the mainland by a fortified line. Aqueducts and telegraph lines are shows to run into the interior.

The present chart is very rare; we can trace only 2 examples of any of the editions, held by the Biblioteca nazionale centrale (Firenze) and the Biblioteca Nazionale di Bari.

References: Biblioteca nazionale centrale (Firenze): IT\ICCU\CFI\0584401; Biblioteca Nazionale di Bari: (Inv. Carte Geogr. B 223); Lucio CARBONARA, Francesca CALACE et al., *'Restituiamo la Storia' dagli archivi ai territori: Architetture e modelli urbani nel Mediterraneo orientale* (Roma, 2006), illustrated on p. 20, referred to on p. 21; *Rivista di artiglieria e genio*, vol. 1 (Rome, 1889), p. 444.

450 EUR

52. El Ataleh, Somalia



UFFICIO IDROGRAFICO DELLA REGIA MARINA [HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE OF THE ITALIAN NAVY].

Africa – Costa Est. Ancoraggi di Itala (Ata Eh). Rilievi eseguiti dalle R. Navi Staffetta e Governolo Comandanti: Capitano di Fregata P. Botti – 1898, Capitano di Fregata G. Patris – 1904, Capitano di Fregata A. Riva di Fenile – 1906.

[Genoa]: Real Istituto Idrografico, October 1907.

Zincograph (Good, but with noticeable wear along old folds with some toning in upper area), 63 x 59 cm (25 x 23 inches).

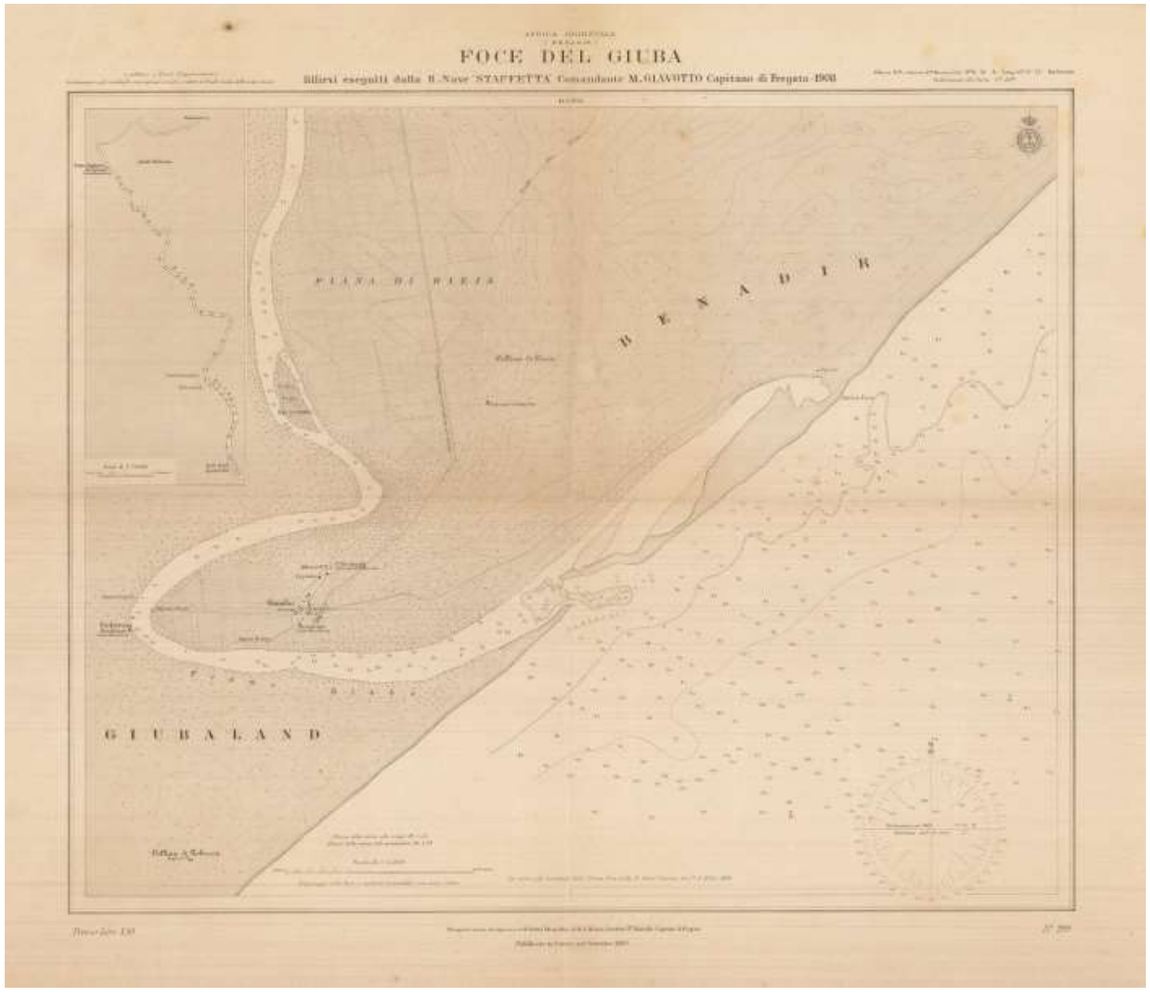
This is the extremely rare first edition of the Italian Navy's sea chart of stretch of the Somali coast around El Ataleh, some ways up from Mogadishu. The chart maps the area's treacherous waters in great detail and shows the small fishing to of El Ataleh, location in a region that had has long been known (even up to the present day!) as a great haunt for pirates who preyed upon Indian Ocean shipping. Three attractive coastal profile views grace the lower-right corner.

The chart is extremely rare, we can only trace a single example of a later edition of 1910.

References: Cf. (1910 ed.) OCLC: 987377759; *Archivio storico della Società africana d'Italia: Raccolte fotografiche e cartografiche* (1992), pp. 218, 252.

150 EUR

53. Jubba River, Somalia



UFFICIO IDROGRAFICO DELLA REGIA MARINA [HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE OF THE ITALIAN NAVY].

Africa Orientale (Benadir) Foce del Giuba. Rilievi eseguiti dalle R. Navi "Staffetta" Comandante Giavotto, Capitano di Vascello – 1908.

[**Genoa]: Real Istituto Idrografico, September 1909.**

Zincograph (Very Good, some light toning and light wear along old folds), 53 x 61 cm (21 x 24 inches).

This chart maps the mouth of the Jubba River in southern Somalia, long a vital lifeline for agriculture and trade. The chart was made from surveys conducted by Commander Giovatto of the Italian Navy in 1908. At that time, the Jubba marked the boundary between Italian Somaliland and the 'Jubaland' region of British East Africa.

The map shows the small Italian-controlled town of 'Giumba' near the river's mouth, with the 'Residenza' (government headquarters) and its Marconi communications station, with the Italian and British customs houses facing each other across the river. Verdant fields are show by the riverbanks, in sharp contrast to the general desert climate of Somalia.

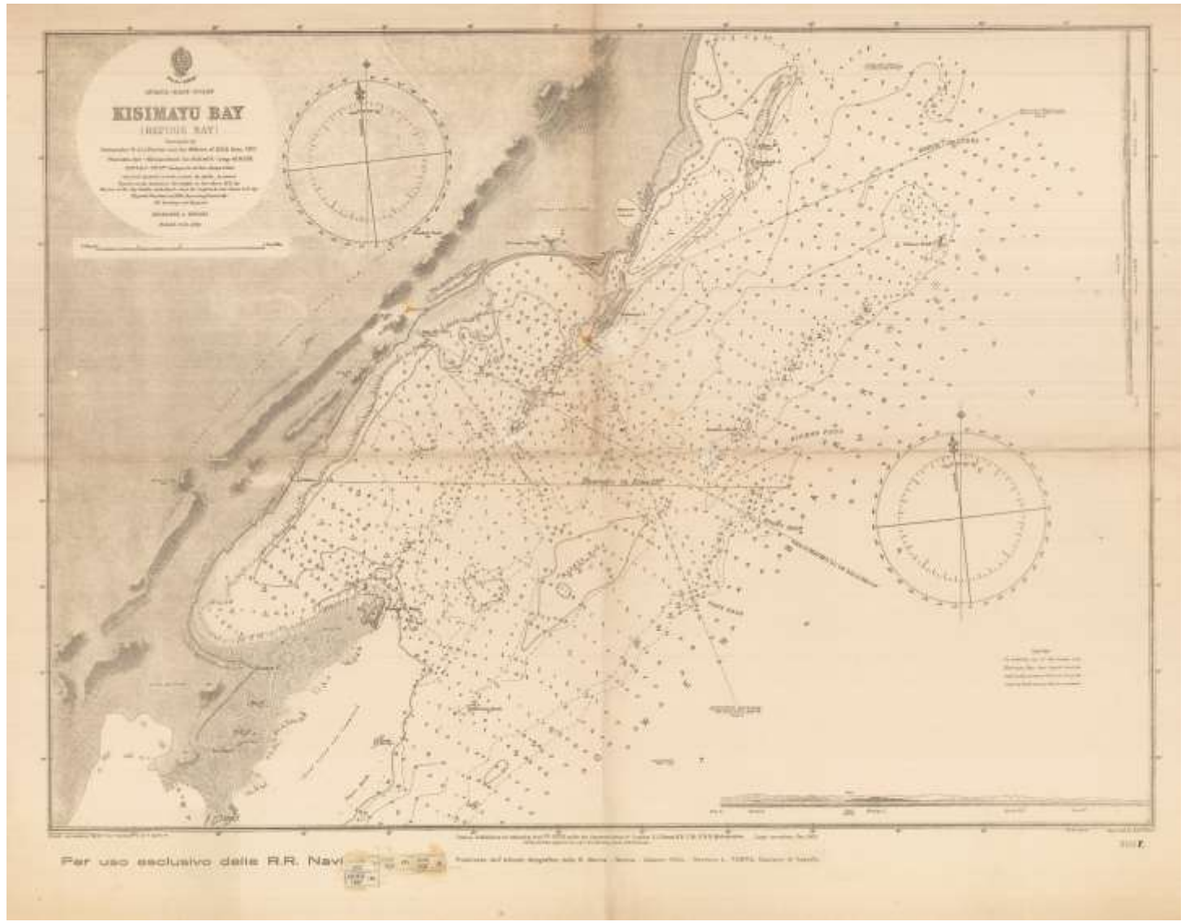
Jubaland would be ceded to Italy by Britain in 1925 as a reward for Italy's participation in World War II on the Entente side, giving Italy control of the entire Jubba Valley.

The present chart is extremely rare, we cannot trace any records of the finished printed chart, although a draft seemingly used to make the final product exists at the Archivio di Stato di Genova.

References: N / A – No records traced. Cf. (draft of present chart:) Archivio di Stato di Genova: 279/H.

150 EUR

54. Kismaayo, Somalia



UFFICIO IDROGRAFICO DELLA REGIA MARINA [HYDROGRAPHIC OFFICE OF THE ITALIAN NAVY].

Africa – East Coast. Kisimayu Bay (Refuge Bay). Surveyed by Captain W.J.L. Wharton and the Officers of H.M.S. Fawn, 1877.

[**Genoa: Real Istituto Idrografico, October 1925].**

Photozincograph, with navigational markers heightened in yellow and some details added in manuscript in red pen, with pastedown date stamp in lower left corner (Very Good, some wear along old folds), 55.5 x 70.5 cm (22 x 27.5 inches).

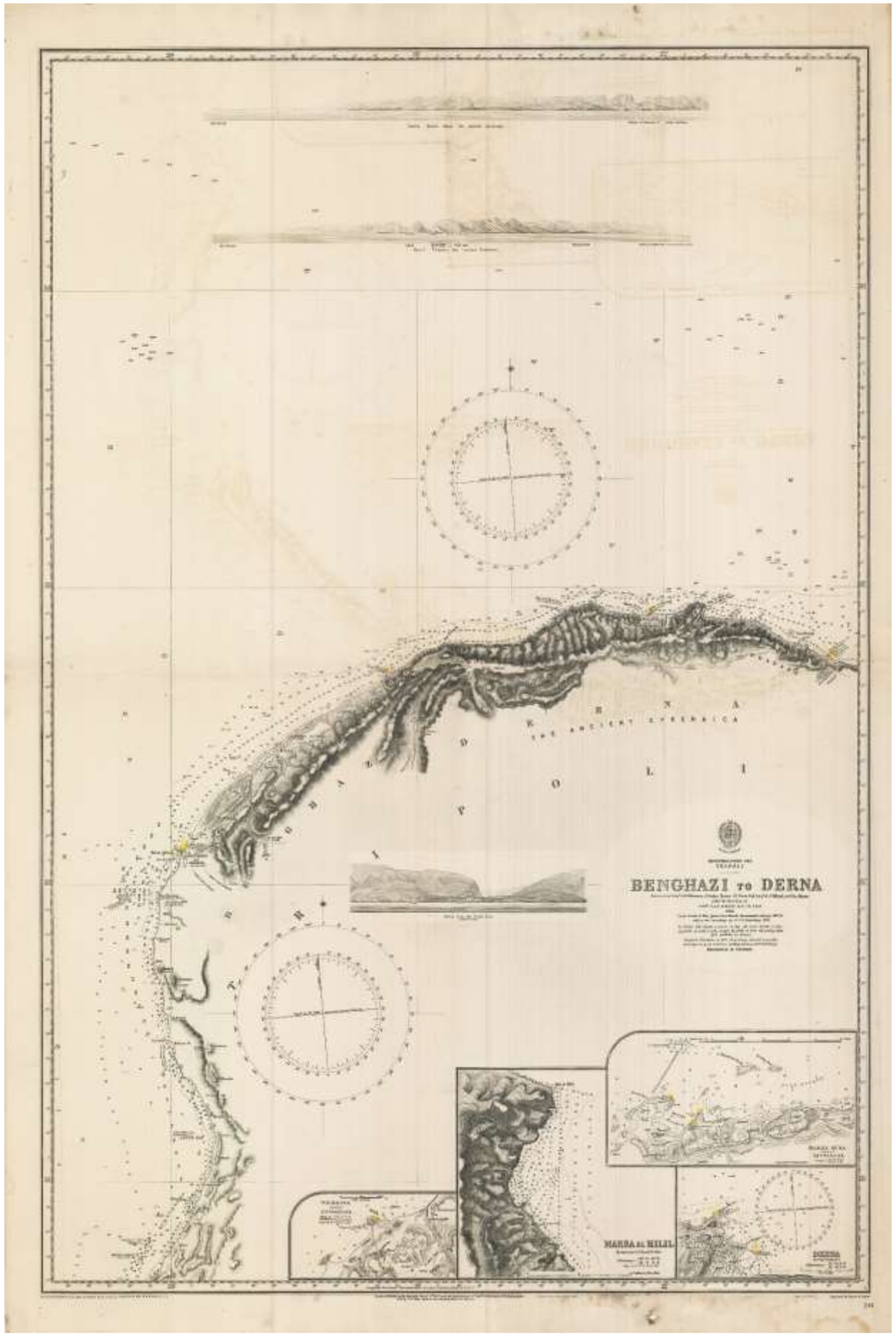
This chart is especially interesting. It depicts the fine natural harbour of Kismaayo, in the far south of Somalia. As one will notice, it is from a survey made by Captain Wharton of the Britain's Royal Navy in 1877, which was first published in London by the British Admiralty the following year. The mapping here has been updated to 1924.

However, the present chart has been faithfully duplicated by the Italian Navy for its own use and features the note 'Per uso esclusivo delle R.R. Navi' (For the exclusive use of R.R. Ships). As Italy anticipated gaining control of Jubaland (including Kismaayo) from Britain in 1925, Wharton's chart, which remained the best maritime map of the area, was hastily copied in Genoa by the Real Istituto Idrografico in October 1924 to aid Italian officials in asserting control of the region.
This 'pirated' Italian edition of the chart is extremely rare, we can trace only a single example, held by the British Library.

References: British Library: Cartographic Items Maps X.17127.

180 EUR

55. Benghazi, Libya



BRITISH ADMIRALTY.

Mediterranean Sea. Tripioli. Benghazi to Derna. Surveyed… under the direction of Capt.n T.A.B. Spratt, R.N.; C.B.; F.R.S. 1861.

London: Admiralty Hydrographic Office, 1914.

Photozincograph with some navigational details heightened in yellow (Good, noticeable staining in upper and lower margins, some print transference), 102.5 x 68.5 cm (40.5 x 27 inches).

This rare work is an updated 1914 edition of fine sea chart made by the British Admiralty of the northwestern coast of Libya, known as the Jebel Akhdar, the historical region of Cyrenaica. Its coverage extends from Benghazi to Derna and provides a very detailed depiction of the coastal areas, while insets, in the lower right corner, detail major ports, while three fine profile views grace the composition.

The map is based upon an 1861 survey conducted by Britain's Royal Navy which was issued in updated editions as late as 1928. The present edition was published in the spring of 1914, on the eve of World War II, and just a short time after Italy conquered Libya from the Ottomans in 1911. Italy would join the upcoming conflict on the British side, and the Royal Navy would have used the chart help suppress local rebels who were backed by the Ottoman-German side.

All editions of the chart are very rare; we can trace a similar edition issued in 1916, held by the British Library.

References: Cf. (1916 ed.) British Library: Cartographic Items Maps B.A.C.6.(241.) / OCLC: 556571998.

250 EUR

56. Alexandria, Egypt

BRITISH ADMIRALTY.

Mediterranean Sea - Egypt. Approaches to Alexandria and Abu Qir Bay surveyed by Commanders F.A. Reyne & S.A.G. Hill…1920-22. / Abu Qir Bay (Western Part) surveyed by Commanders F.A. Reyne & S.A.G. Hill…1920-22.

London: Admiralty Hydrographic Office, 1949.

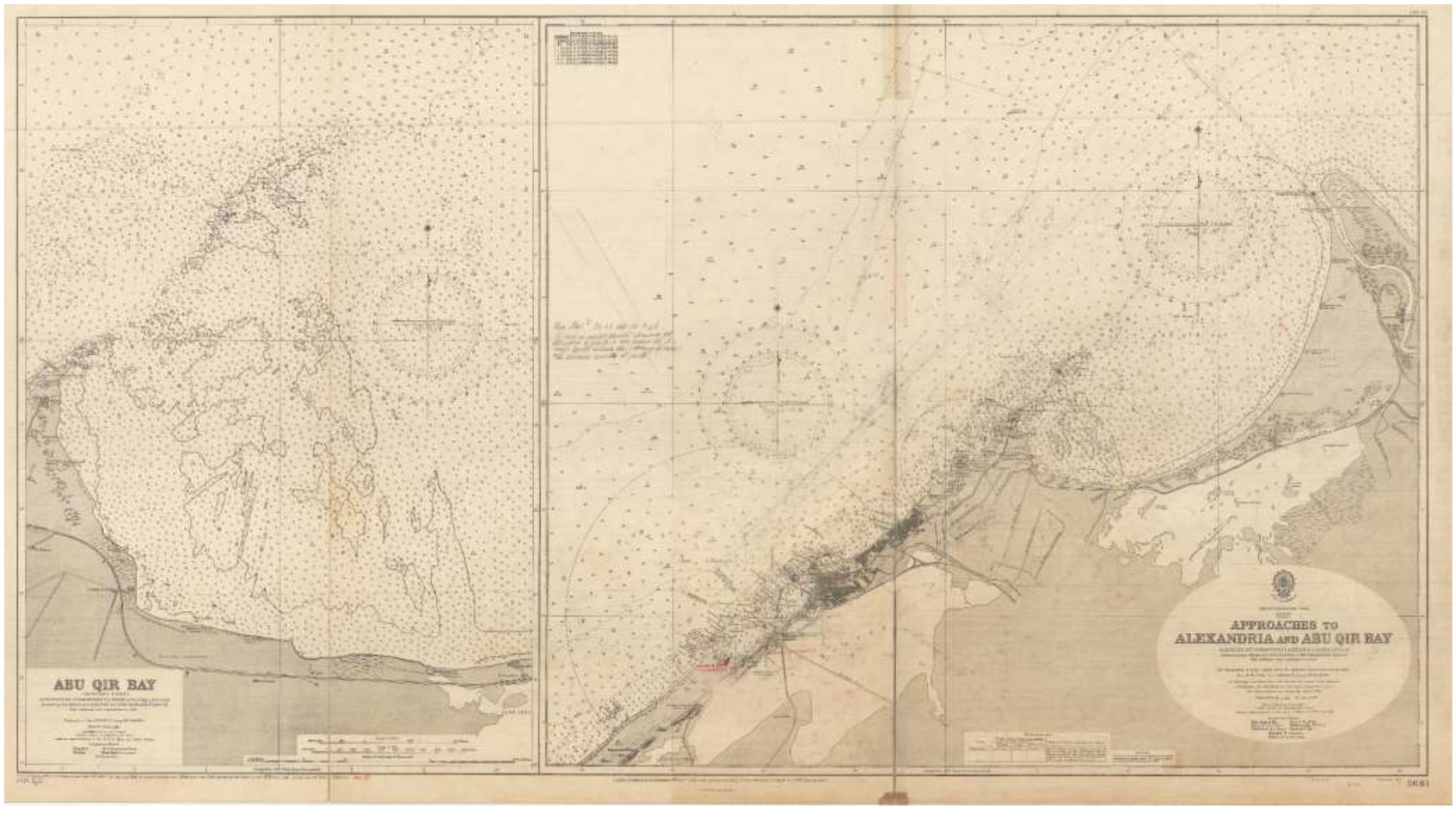
Photozincograph with some navigational details heightened in purple, pastedown printed correction slip added over Alexandria's Inner Harbour, manuscript notes regarding a 1958 voyage and contemporary manuscript additions added in red pen (Good, old repairs to right-hand vertical fold, some toning and minor surface abrasions), 102.5 x 68.5 cm (40.5 x 27 inches).

This is a large and exceedingly detailed sheet of sea charts of the Alexandria area, Egypt, made during the twilight of Britain's domination of the country. The chart on the righthand side details the city and port of Alexandria and extends eastwards past Abu Qir Bay to the mouth of the Rosetta Nile. Alexandria and its famous port are shown in great detail, and features contemporary notes relating to an1958 visit by an Italian vessel. The chart on the lefthand side details Abu Qir Bay, famously the location of Admiral Nelson's stunning victory over Napoleon's fleet in 1798.

The chart was originally issued in 1938, predicated upon the most exacting surveys conducted by the Royal Navy. It was the best chart of the area throughout World War II, whereupon Alexandria was a major base for the Allies during their campaign to defeat Erwin Rommel's Afrikakorps. The present edition of the chart is updated to 1949, not long before the Egyptian Revolution of 1952 that hailed the end of British and Western domination over the country.

References: OCLC: 642593045.

150 EUR



57. Ottoman Miniature Maps

Mehmet EŞREF

Istanbul: Şirket-i Mürettibiye ve **Karacoğlu Matbaası 1325 [1909]**

A series of maps from Umûm Vilayât-ı Şâhâneyi Hâvi Küçük Atlas - Umûmî Küçük Atlas (General Small Atlas)

Each map: Chromolithograph. 9 x 13,5 cm (3.5 x 5.3 inches).

This rare atlas included a 32-page brochure in Ottoman script and 128 maps (some composed of two parts), printed on thick paper and loosely inserted after the text. Many of the maps of certain areas worldwide are the first and possible only Ottoman maps of those regions.

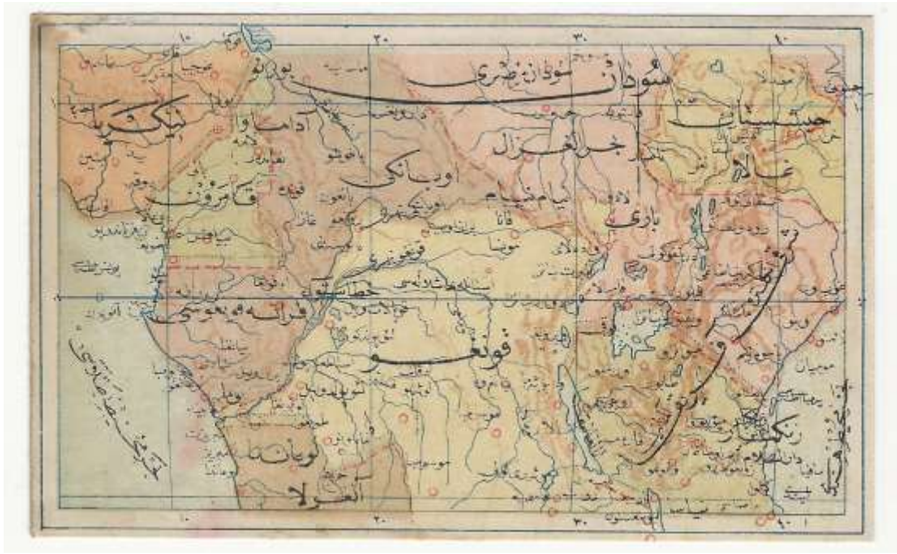
The atlas appears to be very rare and Worldcat only lists one example (Boğaziçi University Library, Istanbul).

Our maps come from an incomplete example and are offered separately.

References: OCLC 949501827 ; ÖZEGE; 25533.4

A. CENTRAL AFRICA: [Congo, Cameroon, Angola, Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda]

120 EUR



B. ALBANIA, CORFU, GREECE: يانينه ولايتى [Janina Vilayet-i]

A decorative miniature map of the Janina Vilayet, today embracing the south part of Albania, North West coast of Greece and Corfu.

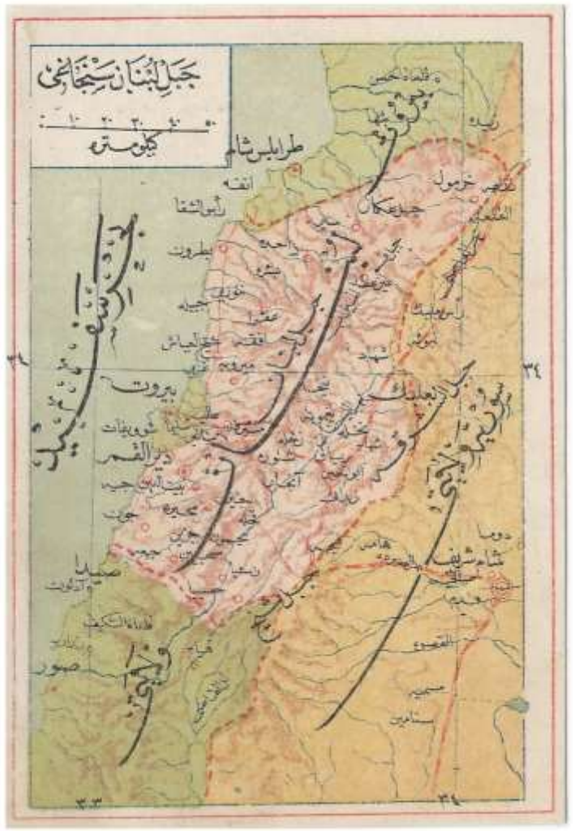
120 EUR



C. LEBANON: جبل لبنان سنجاغی [Mount Lebanon Sanjak]

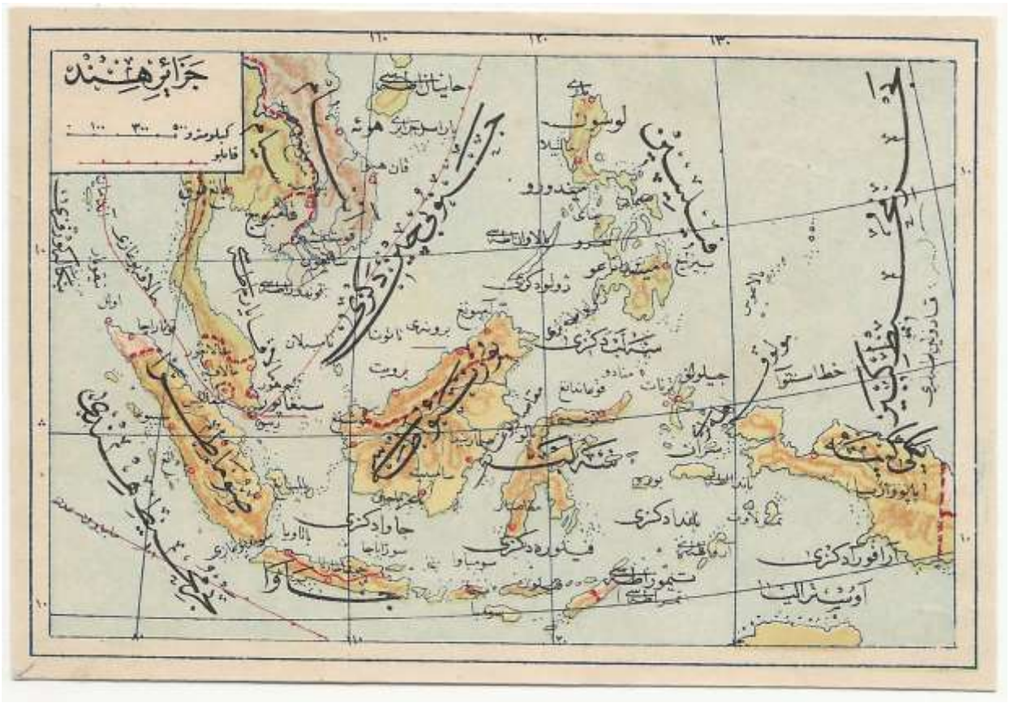
A miniature map showcases the Sanjak Mount Lebanon with Beirut on the West.

120 EUR



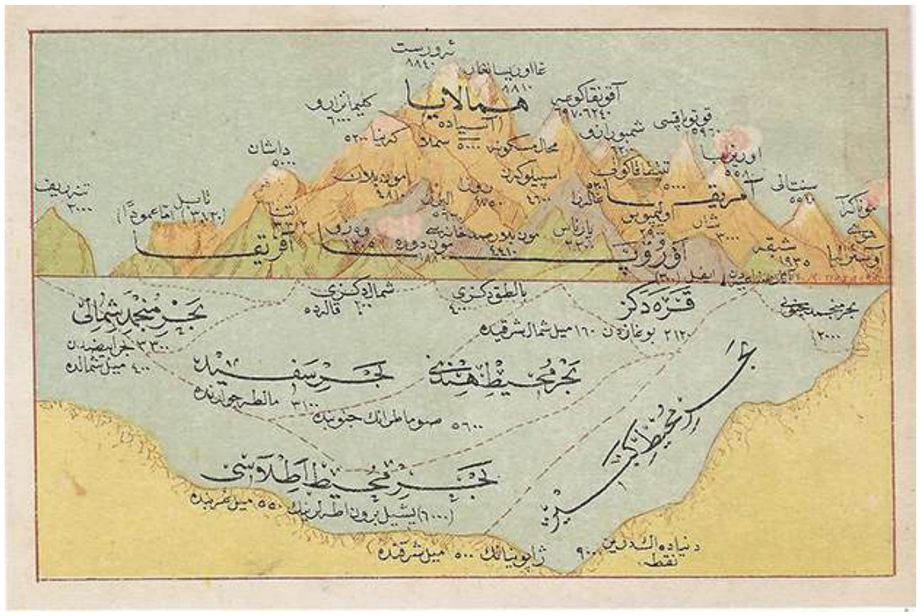
D. SOUTHEAST ASIA: جزأير هند [Indian Islands]

200 EUR



E. OROGRAPHIC PROFILE OF MOUNTAINS AND OCEANS

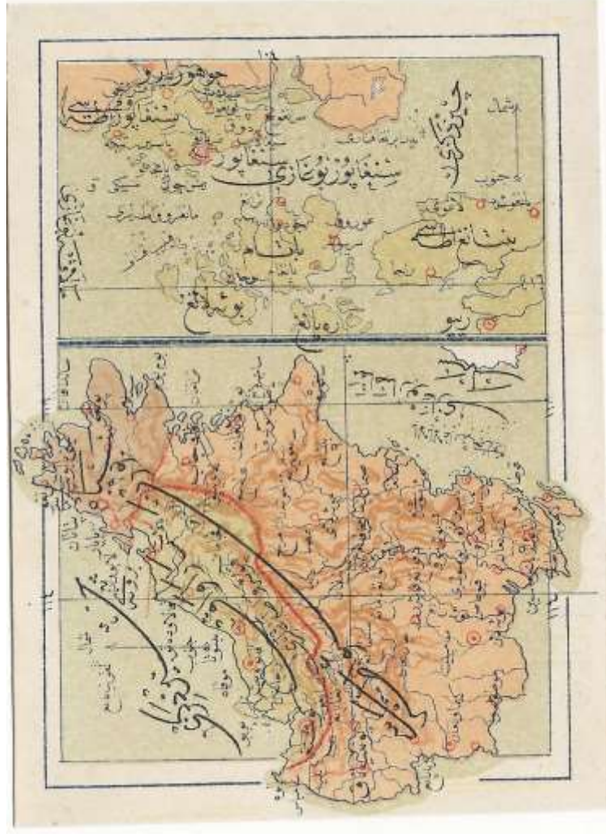
50 EUR



F. SINGAPORE & BORNEO

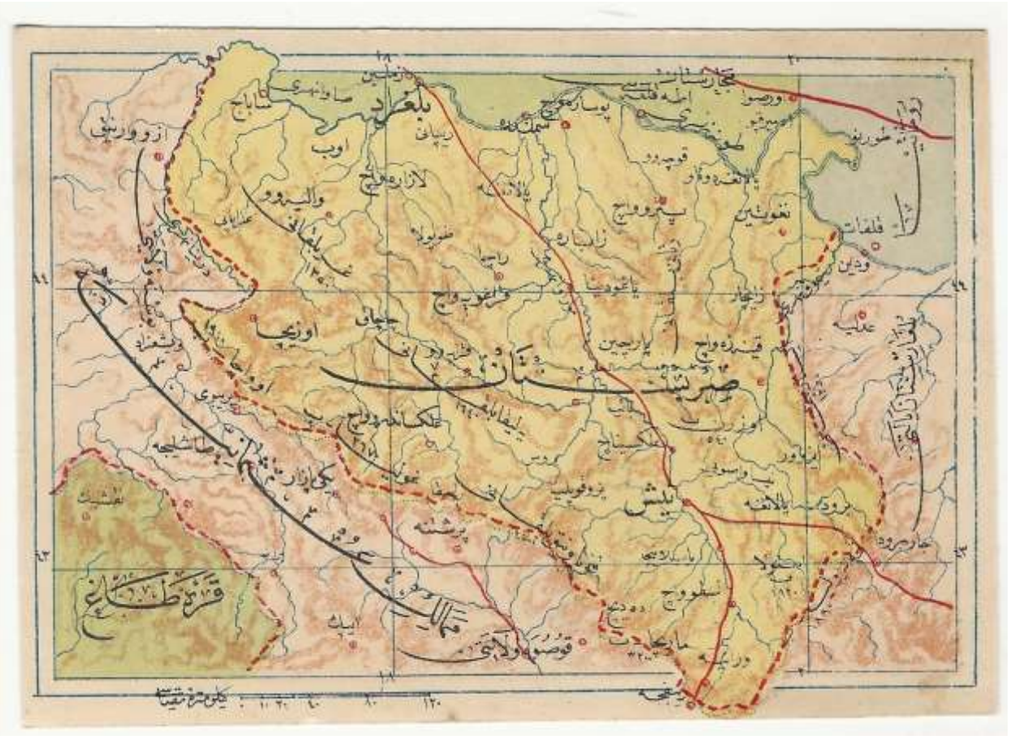
Perhaps the first and only Ottoman individual map of the area.

320 EUR



G. SERBIA

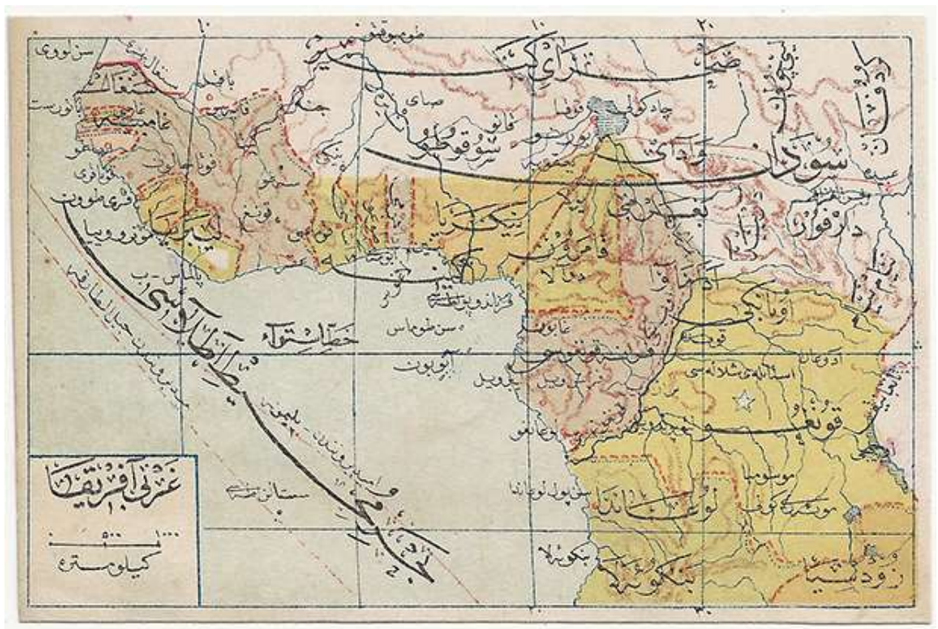
120 EUR



H. WEST AFRICA: غربی آفریقا [West Africa]

The map embraces the countries of East Africa with Angola on the South.

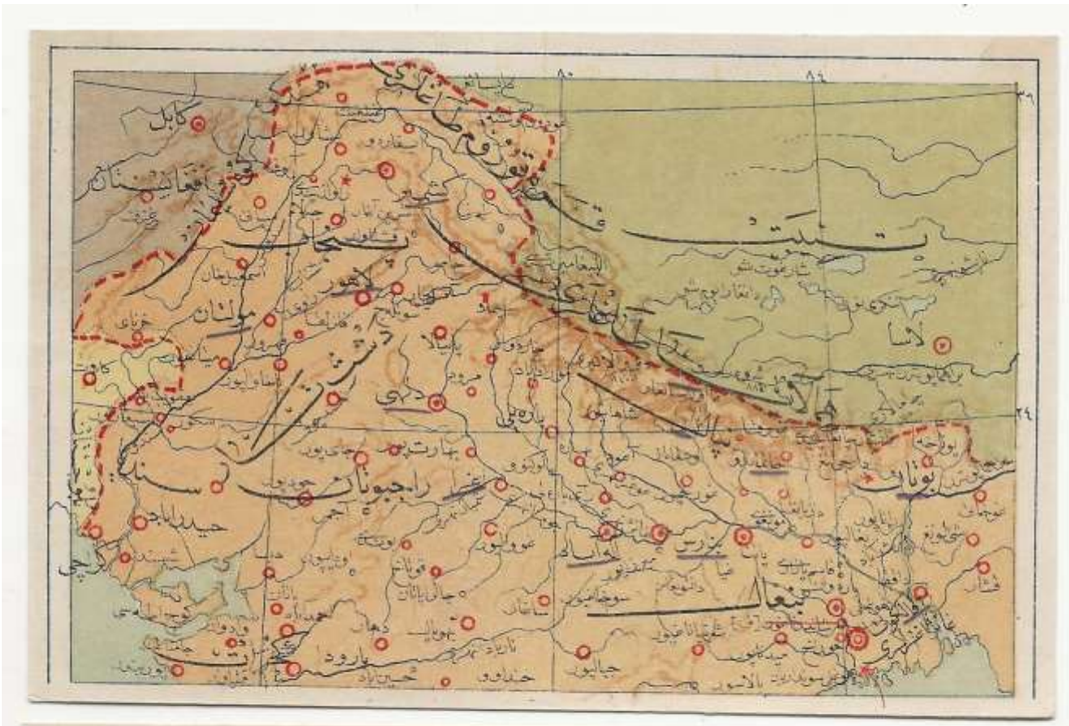
120 EUR

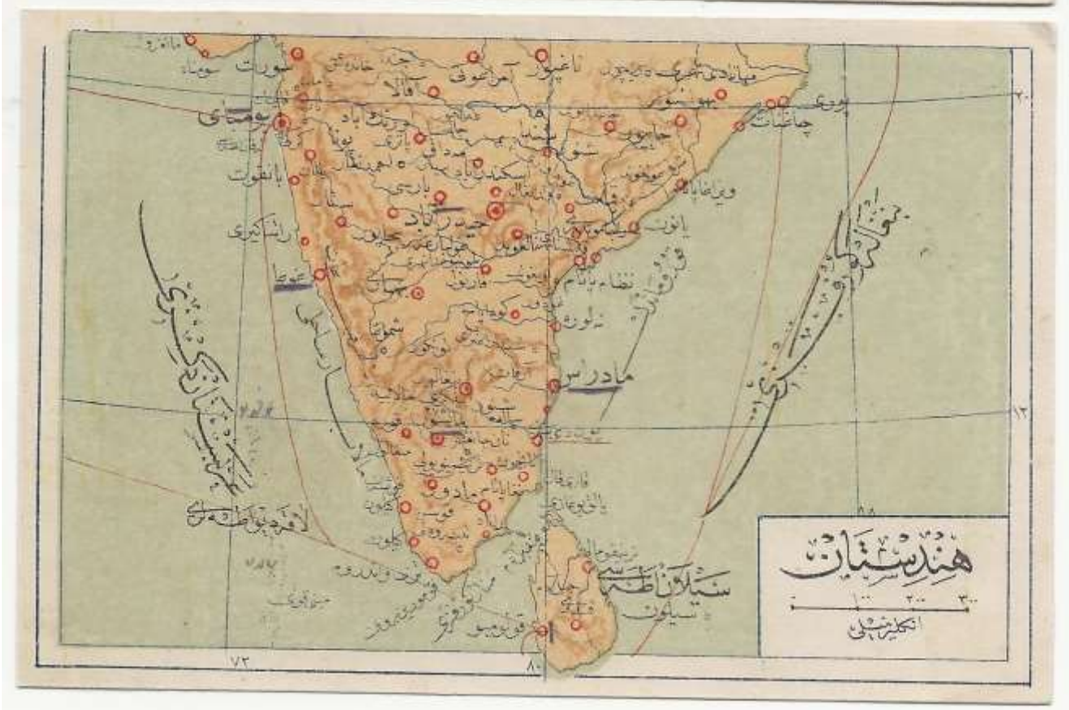


I. INDIA AND SRI LANKA: هندستان [India]

Miniature map in two parts, not joined. Each . 9 x 13,5 cm (3.5 x 5.3 inches).

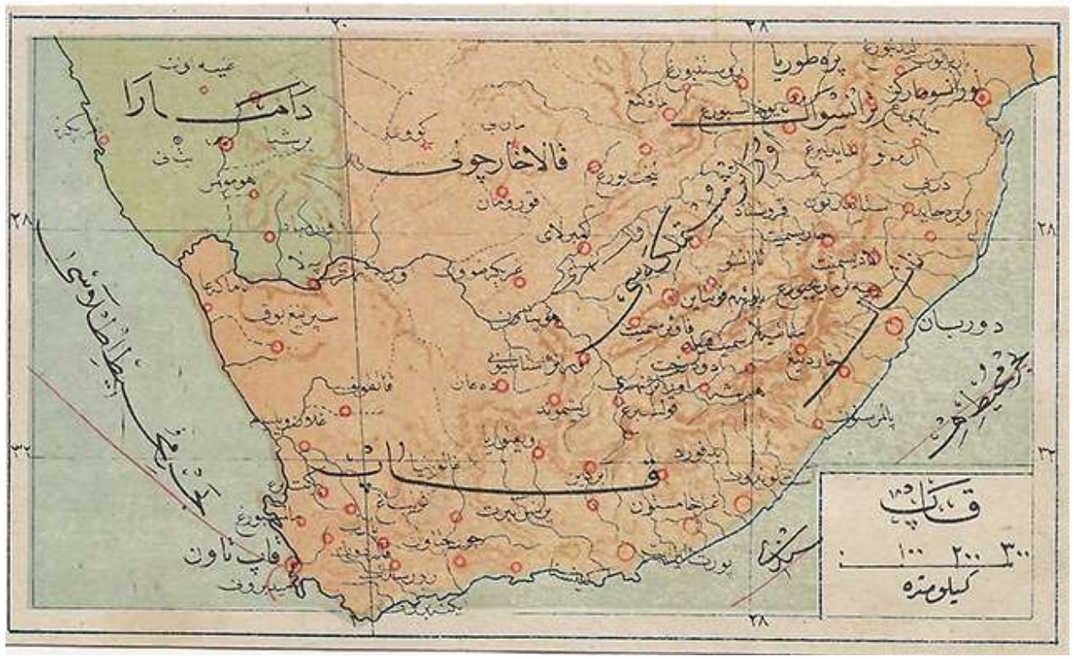
220 EUR





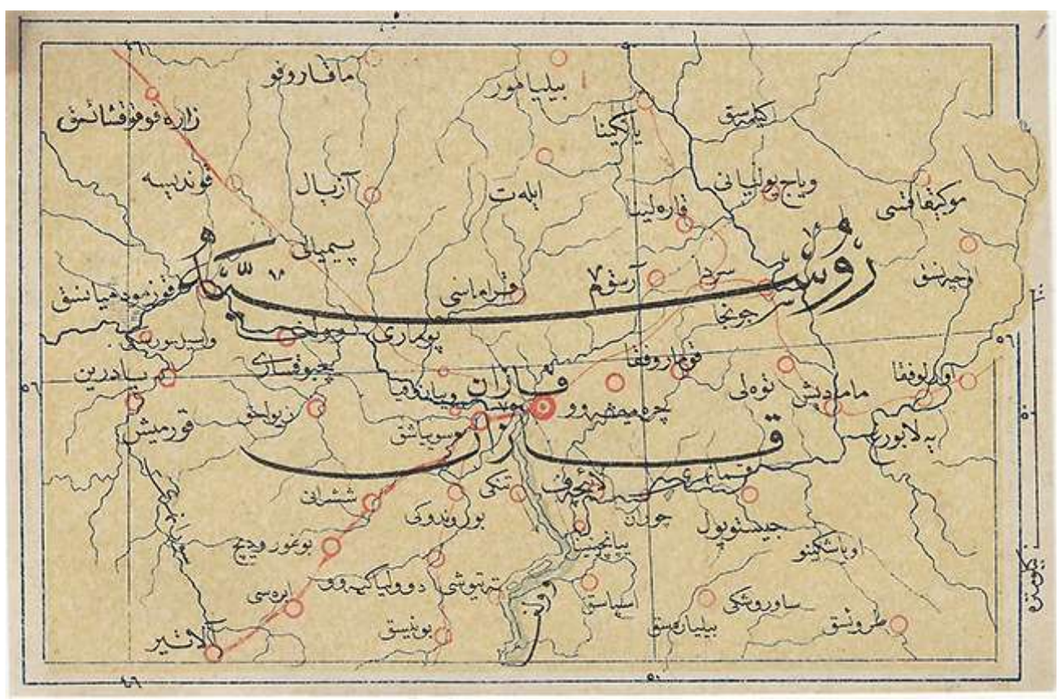
J. **SOUTH AFRICA : قاپ [Cape]**

120 EUR



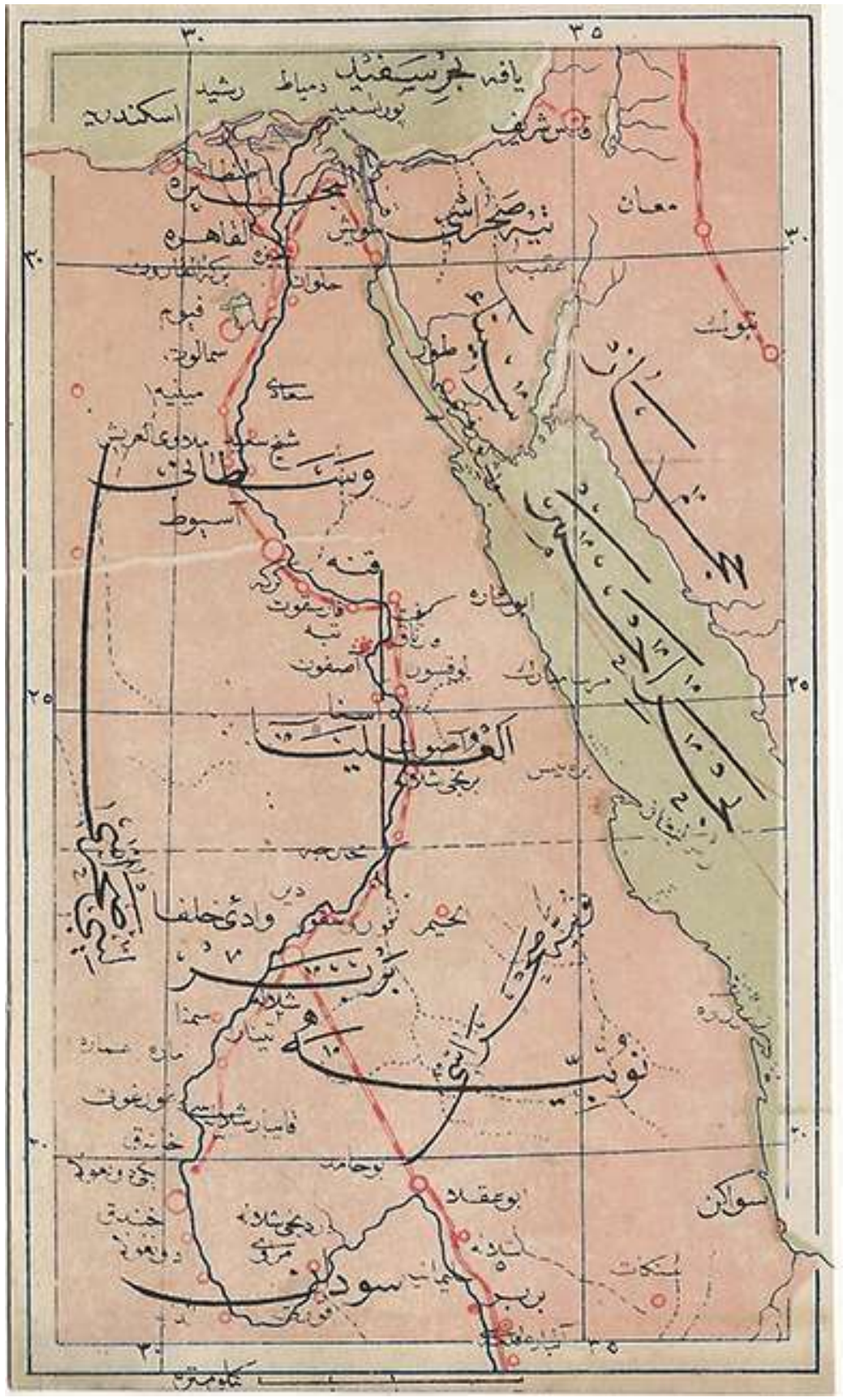
K. KAZAN: روسیا، قازان [Russia, Kazan]

120 EUR



L. EGYPT, HEJAZ. The map showcases Egypt and parts of Hejaz with the modern railroad connections.

120 EUR



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