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1. Tehran, Iran
Middle Eastern Urbanism

François de ROMEISER.

نقشهٔ جدید طهران [A New Map of Tehran] / Plan de la Ville Téhéran.

Tehran: **Sa’adat and Akhavan Ketabchi**, **1309 [1930].**

Bi-chrome off-set print on 4 joined sheets (Very Good, clean and bright, just some wear along old folds with tiny holes at some fold vertices and some discreet repairs with archival tape applied from verso to minor partial separations along old folds), full sheet: 116 x 84 cm (45.5 x 33 inches), neatline: 98.5 x 78.5 cm (39 x 31 inches).

Exceedingly rare - a large format, separately issued work that is one of the most important and interesting of all historical maps of Tehran, being the last major map to show ‘Old Tehran’, before it was utterly transformed by the strongman Reza Shah’s revolutionary urban planning programme, while being the first to show the initial stages of the revolutionary new design; with text in both Farsi and French, the map was drafted by the French engineer François de Romeiser who was commissioned by the city to advise on the mega-project, including a wealth of information available nowhere else, published in Tehran by a local boutique firm.

Reza Shah Pahlavi, a military strongman who became the ruler of Persia in 1925, was determined to radically modernize and industrialize his culturally rich and proud, but economically and technologically undeveloped country. Key to this was his grand vision of utterly transforming Tehran, from what he saw as a chaotic, crowded oriental city with limited services, into a modern metropolis on a rational plan, inspired by the great European capitals.



PLAN DE LA VILLE

TÉHÉRAN

ÉCHELLE
1:6500

نقشهٔ جدید
طهران
مقیاس

LÉGENDE

Up until the early 1930s, Tehran largely insisted of dense warrens or narrow, irregular streets, full of bazaars, and punctuated by a few magnificent gardens and places. It was completely encircled by a wall that was not of a traditional form but was rather built in the 1870s due to the former Qajar regime's bizarre fascination with copying the 'Thiers Walls' that barricaded Paris during the Franco-Prussian War (1870-1). Tehran was also surprisingly small for the capital of such a large and storied nation; in 1930 it had a population of only 250,000.

In some ways, the Shah's hand was forced, as big changes were necessary for the city it was totally unfit for the expected proliferation of automobiles and trams, as well as modern industry and electricity and sewage systems.

Reza Shah, inspired especially by Paris, but also by Ankara, the reconstructed new capital of Turkey, was determined to radically transform Tehran in something totally unrecognizable. The overall plan to was to dramatically widen the few existing streets that were relatively strait, and then to carve new wide strait avenues through the existing old city, aiming to form a roughly even grid over the entire area. The old open sewers and ditches would be covered by sidewalks and lined with trees, while large new squares would be opened, graced with grand public buildings and monuments. The city walls would be demolished, opening Tehran to its suburbs, forcing energy outwards, to alleviate pressure on the centre. Modernist zoning codes would be introduced to make the city pleasant and efficient. As he did to many ancient things in Persia, Reza Shah ordered that virtually anything in the way of his new boulevards was to bull-dozed, whether it be a grim tenement or a Qajar Palace.

Reza Shah hired dozens of the best engineers, architects and construction firms to advise and enact his vision. He also reformed the fiscal laws to allow Tehran to access significant additional state finds to support the urban revolution.

The Present Map in Focus

The present bilingual (Farsi-French) map was issued in November 1930, and was drafted by the French engineer François de Romeiser, who was an advisor to the Tehran City Council on urban planning. It was published in Tehran in a charming form of bi-chrome off-set printing by the boutique house of Sa'adat and Akhavan Ketabchi. Predicated upon the best official information, the map is highly important in that it is both the last grand map of Tehran to showcase the old city, while being the first to depict the initial stages of Tehran's transformation.

The city is shown to still be encircled by its 1870s walls, with the vast majority of 'Old Tehran' remaining undisturbed, with its dense warren of streets. The Qajar palace complex occupies the dead centre, while the city's 9 'Arrondissements' (numbered wards) are labelled. This stands in stark contrast to the first stirrings of the Shah's urban revolution, executed in 1927-9, where one can clearly see that the relatively strait major thoroughfares in the northern and southern ends of the city have been widened, while a few new squares, roundabouts and the beginnings of new wide aveneues are evident (mainly in the southern and northern parts of the city).

The 'Légende' below the map reveals a great wealth of fascinating information. Importantly, it identifies the 'rues projectées et elargissements' (projected streets and widening of existing streets), showing dashed lines projecting thorough the city to reveal the Shah's planned new avenues. The lines seem to transcend the old city without any regard for what was in their way, and this is largely how things would unfold in the coming years.

Also explained, are the symbols employed to mark police district boundaries, police stations and railways. Amazingly, the list at the bottom locates and specifically names an amazing 124 sites by both number and grid-key reference, including the Golestan Palace (no. 5, a fabulous complex, today a UNESCO site); arsenal; post offices; government ministries and bureaus; Parliament (no. 26); clubs; many diplomatic missions; hotels; banks; mosques; churches; Synagogue (no. 74); schools; railway station; hospitals; the Grand Bazaar (no. 107); as well as the names of the gates in the city walls.

During the 1930s, the Shah's plan was realized as the grand boulevards were carved through the city pretty much as predicted by the present map. The walls and its gates were entirely demolished, parts of the Golestan Palace complex were taken down, and the Grand Bazaar was divided in half. Impressive new public buildings, made in modern style but inspired by classical Persian motifs, graced squares and roundabouts.

Tehran experienced hyper-economic growth, attracting migration from across the country, such that by 1941, the year the Reza Shah was deposed (by the WWII Allies for backing Hitler) the city's population in 1930 had more than doubled, to 540,000. As the Shah had wanted, the inner city had become much more open, livable and packed with all the same amenities found any Western European city. New suburban neighbourhoods sprang up and many of Tehran's residents entered the middle class. An observer who visited the city in 1921, and who returned in 1941, commented that Tehran was completely unrecognizable!

For a time, it seemed that the new Tehran was much better than the old. However, the city began to grow so rapidly that by the 1970s, the expansion started to outrun the urban plan, leading to terrible congestion and pollution. Yet without the 1920s-30s urban revolution the situation would certainly have been much worse. Today Tehran has a population of 9 million in the city proper (and 16 million metro), such that it faces many of the same problems as other great global megacities.

A Note on Rarity

The present work is one of seminal historical maps of Tehran. Like all large format separately issued plans of the city issued before the Sahab firm popularized map printing in Iran in the 1950s, it is exceedingly rare.

We cannot trace any other examples of the map in institutions outside of Iran, not can we find any sales records. There are certainly seems to be a few examples in Iranian institutions, although we have not been able to ascertain exactly where.

References: No other examples traced outside of Iran. Citations in Literature:

Francesco CHIODELLI, Beatrice DE CARLI, Maddalena FALLETTI, *Cities to be Tamed? Spatial Investigations across the Urban South* (Cambridge, 2014), Chapter '2. Tehran, A Paradigmatic Urban Form', esp. pp. 248-50, map pictured on *Fig. 2*. Cf. Vincent F. COSTELLO, 'The Morphology of Tehran: A Preliminary Study', *Built Environment: Eastern Urban Form and Culture*, vol. 24, no. 4 (1998), pp. 201-16; Eckart EHLERS and Willem FLOOR, 'Urban Change in Iran, 1920-1941', *Iranian Studies*, vol. 26, no. 3/4 (Summer - Autumn, 1993), pp. 251-75; Asma MEHAN, '"Tabula Rasa" Planning: Creative Destruction and Building a New Urban Identity in Tehran', *Journal of Architecture and Urbanism*, vol. 41, no. 3 (2017), pp. 210–20.

SOLD

2. India
Transportation-Railway History
Promotional Cartographic Broadside (Poster)

GREAT INDIAN PENINSULA RAILWAY.

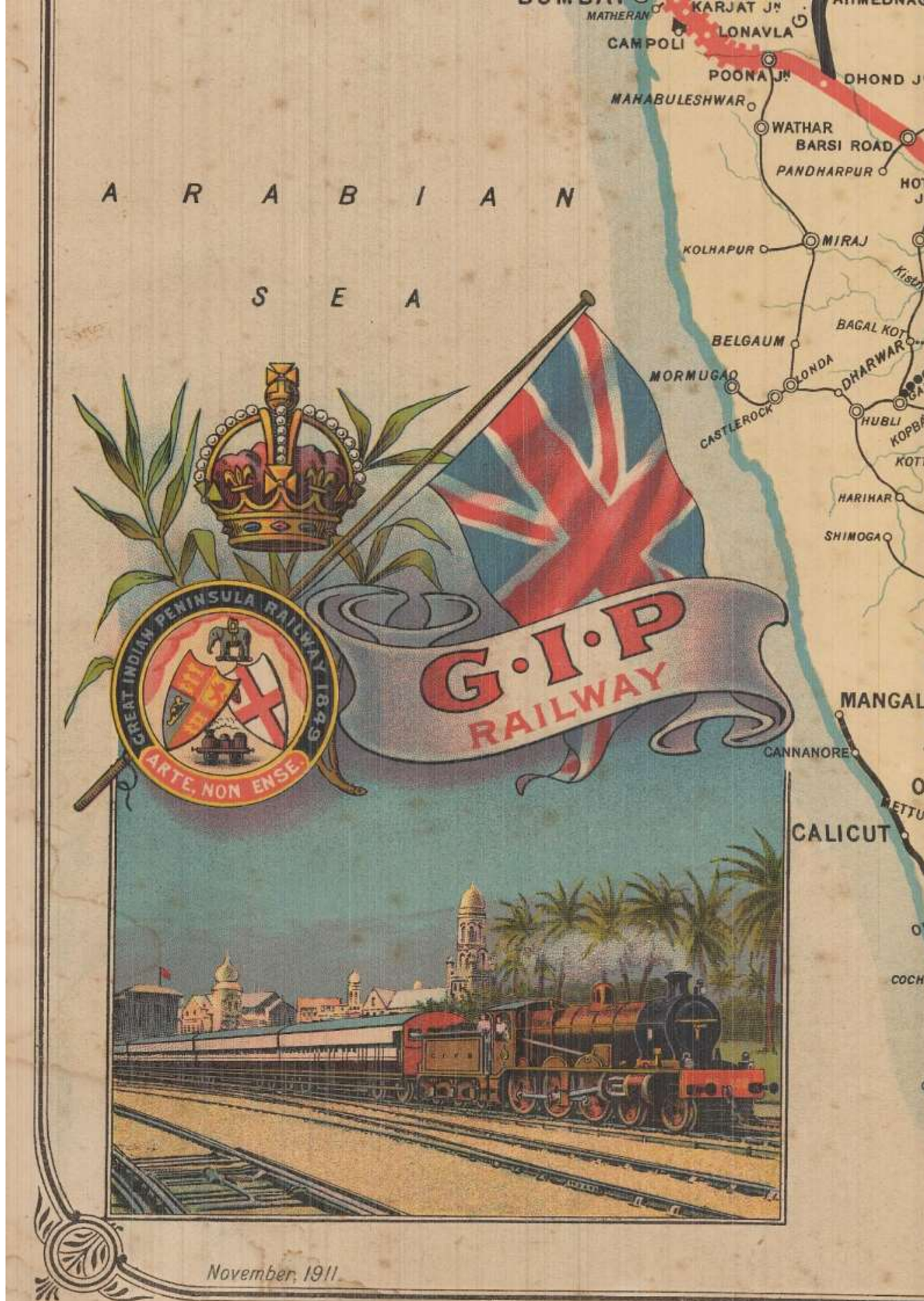
Map shewing the G.I.P. Railway. Chief Connections and Through Routes Calcutta (via Jubbulpore or via Nagpur), Lucknow, Delhi, Agra, Kalka (for Simla), Lahore, Rawalpindi, Peshawar, Quetta & Kurrachee (via Itarsi), Hyderabad, Madras, Bangalore, Mettupalaiyam (for Ootacamund), Calicut.

London: Waterlow & Sons Limited, November 1911.

Braodside, colour lithograph (Good, even foxing and some light stains, a few minor tears along edges, lovely colours), 50 x 41 cm (19.5 x 16 inches).

An exceedingly rare survivor – a cartographic broadside (poster) promoting the Great Indian Peninsula Railway (GIPR), Asia's first and most important railroad, providing the pioneering rapid links across the Indian Subcontinent, it was a major nexus of global transportation and a key inspiration for Jules Verne's 'Around the World in Eighty Days' – a lovely ephemeral work of colour lithography – seemingly unrecorded.

This beautiful colour lithographed cartographic broadside (poster) is a stellar artefact of the golden age of rail transport in India. It was made in 1911 to promote the Great Indian Peninsula Railway (GIPR), Asia's first railroad, which came to provide the first rapid links across the India, utterly transforming the Subcontinent, economically, politically and socially. The GIPR was also one of the transformative innovations (along with the



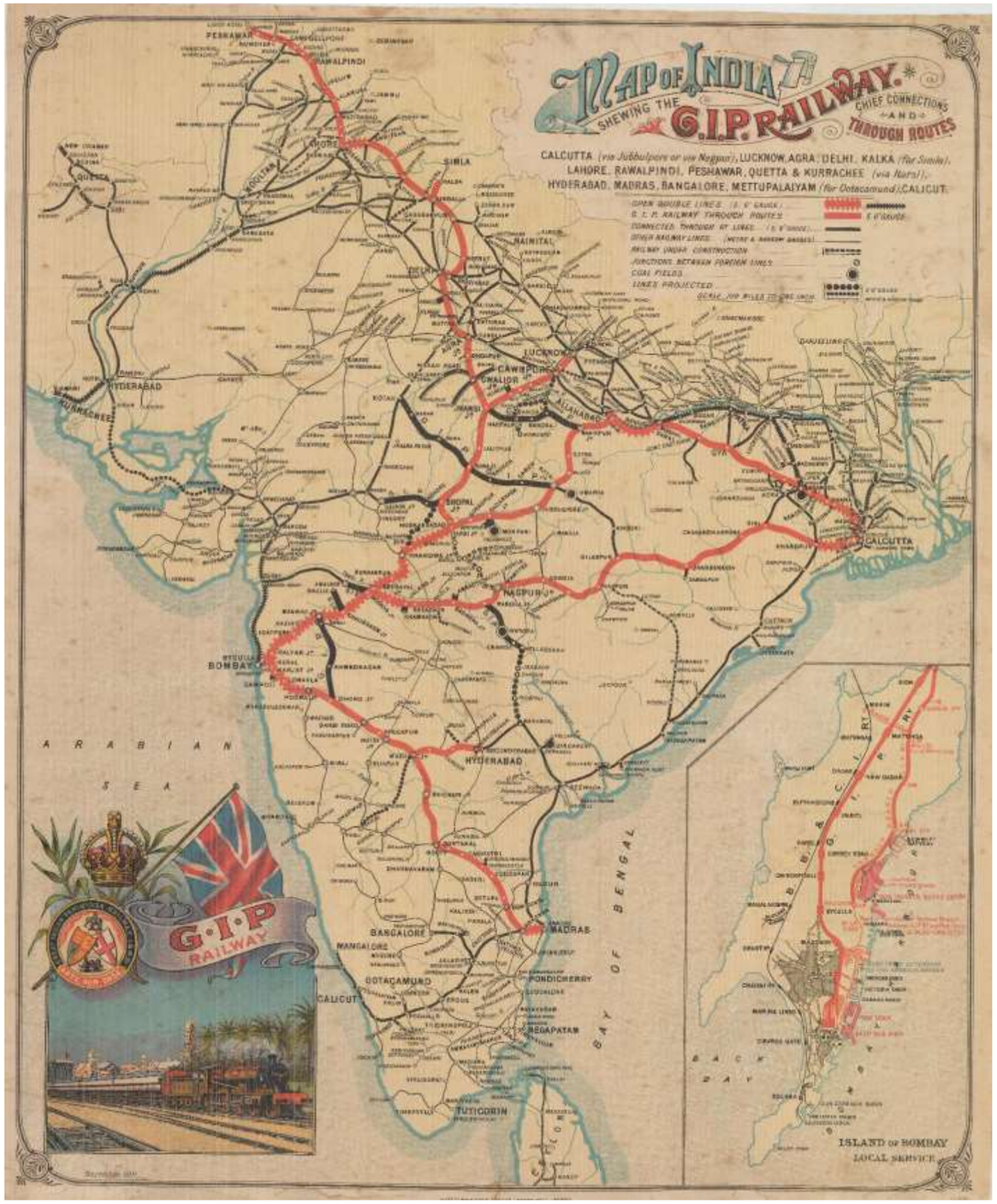
Suez Canal and the U.S.'s Central Pacific Railroad) that around 1870 revolutionized global travel, being one of Jules Verne's primary inspirations for *Around the World in Eighty Days* (1872).

The work is dominated by a map showcasing all of India, with the legend below the title explaining the symbols used throughout to identify: the GIPR's main, or trunk lines, expressed as red lines, including 'Open Double Lines' (bold red tracked lines) and 'Through Routes' (bold red lines); 'Connected Through Ry. Lines' (bold black lines); 'Other Railway Lines' (thin black lines); 'Railways under Construction' (intermittent black lines); 'Lines Projected' (dotted lines); 'Junctions between Foreign Lines' (double hollow dots); and 'Coal Fields' (bold double dots).

Of particular note, the trunk line running from Bombay to Calcutta via Allahabad (completed in 1870) was the first trans-Indian rail link, transforming a traditionally arduous journey into a relatively quick and smooth ride. This line, plus the trunk line from Bombay to Madras (opened in 1871) and the major branch from Jubbulpore to Calcutta (via Nagpur) unlocked the latent natural and human resources wealth of India's interior, sparking the Industrial Revolution in many areas, while and bringing cash crops to the global market.

Since the 1870s, the GIPR had grown in leaps and bounds to become by far and away Asia's most important and busiest railway system. By the time that the present poster was made, the GIPR's branches and affiliated lines reached all corners of the Subcontinent, forming the backbone of the Indian economy, while during World War I it would play a major role in the Entente military effort.

The inset map, in the lower right corner, 'Island of Bombay Local Service', details the GIPR's vast and elaborate world-class system of facilities at its main hub. The nucleus is the Victoria Terminus (today called the Chhatrapati Shivaji Maharaj Terminus), a colossal Gothic Revival edifice, while the map details the numerous stations, sidings and wharfs that provided the interface between terrestrial (domestic) and maritime (international) transportation routes.
The composition is fittingly completed by the lovely pictorial vignette in the lower left corner, depicting a GIPR locomotive roaring into station, surmounted by the railway's corporate arms and the Union Jack.



A Note on Rarity

Perhaps not surprisingly, the present broadside seems to be unrecorded – we cannot find even a glancing mention, let alone the location of another example. Indeed, as an ephemeral work meant to be displayed at trains stations, travel offices and on billboards, it would have had an incredibly low survival rate, while nearly all examples displayed in India would have perished due to conditions and climate.

The GIPR: Asia's Most Important Railway and an Inspiration for Jules Verne's *Around the World in Eighty Days*

In the mid-19th Century, the economic development of India and the effectiveness of British colonial control of the Subcontinent was hindered by the extreme difficulty of traversing the country. It took many days, even weeks, to travel from one of the presidential capitals (Calcutta, Bombay, Madras) to places in the hinterland. Moreover, due to highly adverse currents and winds, sailing around India was challenging, such that a trip from Bombay to Calcutta, either by sea or land, was often an ordeal to be dreaded. Yet, India's interior regions, notably the Deccan Plateau, were home to vast agrarian (cotton, silk, spices, sugar, opium etc.) and mineral (coal, precious gems, etc.) wealth, yet these riches could often not be profitably exploited, for the infrastructure was poor and the distances too great. Many promising regions languished in poverty, as their potential remained latent. Moreover, when famines occurred, it was often impossible for the authorities to move in aid, while colonial troops and civil

servants frequently could not fulfil their duties or respond to crises. The disconnect between Bombay and the Arabian Sea coasts verses the interior was especially acute, as the mountains of the Western Ghats acted as an effective wall to transportation; some places even less than 100 km from India's west coast could be reached only after arduous journeys of many days.

Fortunately, a group of visionaries in London recognized that India could take a great leap forward if it developed a railway system. From 1845, a syndicate led by Robert Stephenson, the pioneer of the locomotive, envisaged building a railway from Bombay into the interior, and perhaps one day providing trans-subcontinental links, connecting Bombay with both Calcutta and Madras. The syndicate found a staunch ally in Lord Dalhousie, the Governor-General of India from 1848 to 1856, who ensured that they were able to formally incorporate the Great Indian Peninsula Railway (GIPR) in 1849.

The GIPR was the first, and eventually, the most important railroad in Asia. The initial completed segment of the line was the modest route from Bombay to Thane, opened in 1853. From there, under the direction of the immensely talented engineer, James John Berkeley, the GIPR was extended into the interior from Bombay, initially along two planned routes, the 'North East Division', which was to run up to Jubbulpore (Jabalpur, Madhya Pradesh), connecting with the East India Railway, so providing a connection to Calcutta, while the 'South East Division' was to run down to Raichore (Raichur, Karnataka), connecting with the Madras Railway, so forming a connection with Madras.

Importantly, the U.S. Civil War (1861-5) caused the collapse of the cotton supply to Manchester's all-important textile mills. The GIPR engineers successfully raced to complete the lines into the Deccan, so as to open up vast new cotton supplies, so saving the Lancashire mills from economic collapse. Meanwhile, the GIPR opened a new line, branching off the main Bombay-Calcutta trunk, at Jalgaon (Maharashtra), which set a course to the east, known as the 'Midland Division'.

The completion of the GIPR's North East Division line, from Bombay to Calcutta (via Allahabad) on March 7, 1870, represented transformative event in the history of India. For the first time, one could traverse the Subcontinent in a short period of time, while unlocking the riches of its interior. Not to be overshadowed, in 1871, the GIPR completed the South East Division line, providing a connection from Bombay to Madras.

The completion of the GIPR's main lines had an utterly transformative impact upon India. Traditionally impoverished, isolated areas suddenly found themselves closely connected to international markets, fueling hyper-economic development and reducing poverty, while peoples who had almost no contact with outsiders, were now connected and cross-influenced, for better or worse.

Within a short time, the GIPR led many parts of India to enter the Industrial Revolution, as the country's natural and human resources were applied to manufacturing. Most famously, in 1874, the railway allowed Jamsetji Tata to found and make a stellar success of the Empress Cotton Mill in Nagpur (along the Midland Division line), the forerunner of the Tata Group, today one of the world's greatest industrial conglomerates.

On a global scale, the GIPR's trans-subcontinental reach was one of the three seminal developments in global travel that occurred within roughly the same year. The completion of the Suez Canal and the Central Pacific Railroad (the first railway crossing North America, from New York to San Francisco), which both occurred in 1869, combined with the completion of the GIPR's Bombay-Calcutta line, shaved many months off any global tour. The GIPR was specifically cited by Jules Verne as one of his main inspirations for writing *Around the World in Eighty Days* (1872), and some of Phileas Fogg's most colourful adventures occurred along the railway.

From the 1870s onwards, the GIPR went from strength to strength, absorbing subsidiary lines, while concluding 'working agreements' with other railways, giving the them full or partial control over major routes, including the key trunk line running through the north and northwestern parts of India as far as Peshawar. The GIPR also expanded its facilities in Bombay, completing the Victoria Terminus, the grandest train station in Asia, as well as elaborate sidings and wharfs, making the Bombay one of the world's busiest commercial ports. The GIPR expanded so rapidly, that eventually only the direct involvement of the crown could adequately support its growth, such that the railway was taken over by the Indian Government in 1900.

The present broadside map was made in 1911, when the GIPR was undergoing a great process of expansion, for the lines under its control grew from covering 1,562 miles (2,514 km) in 1905 to 2,553 miles (4,109 km) in 1918. As the map shows, the GIPR's coverage extended to virtually every corner of the subcontinent, making it the backbone of Indian transportation and economic development. During World War I, the GIPR was one of the Entente Powers' most important conduits of war material, supplies and troops, without which the conflict may had turned out differently.

Ironically, the GIPR, which was intended to enable the British Raj to more effectively control India, turned out to be one of the causes of its undoing. Before the railroads, the culturally and linguistically diverse peoples of the Subcontinent had limited contact with each other, or, as in many cases were divided by ancient rivalries that exceeded any resentments they may have held towards the British; there was no sense of shared identity. However, the railway system, and the GIPR in particular, allowed peoples from all across the country to interact, leading to the rise of a form of national consciousness (or rather dual national identities, resulting in India and Pakistan). Moreover, Indian Independence activists could now traverse the Subcontinent, bringing their message to faraway provinces. In this context, the railways undermined the 'divide and conquer' strategy that had hitherto allowed the Raj to rule a land that was dramatically larger than Britain.

In 1951, in the wake of Indian Independence, the GIPR was merged into the Indian Railway, the governmental railroad monopoly, although it maintained a distinct identity as the 'Central Railway'. Today the GIPR lines are still in use as the most important part of the world's second busiest Railway system (Indian Railways handles over 1.2 billion passenger-kilometers of traffic per year, behind only the Chinese system).

References: N / A – Seemingly Unrecorded.

1.400 EUR

3. Montenegro

Important Ottoman Cartography

OTTOMAN MILITARY SURVEY OFFICE.

Montenegro

Istanbul: Erkan-ı Harbiye Dairesi, Coğrafya Cemiyeti Askeriyesi [Imperial Military State College, Military Survey Office], 1291 Rumi Calendar [1875].

Lithograph originally coloured in outline and dissected into 24 sections and mounted upon original white linen, accompanied by a contemporary black linen slipcase with gilt lettering (Very Good, just some very light toning, slipcase partly split), 105 x 105 cm (41.5 x 41.5 inches).

Extremely rare – the finest printed Ottoman map of Montenegro and the surrounding region ever created, the culmination of forty years of advanced military and boundary surveys, produced by the Ottoman Military Survey Office in Istanbul in 1875, on the eve of the Montenegrin–Ottoman War 1876 to 1878, which marked the Turks' last stand in the land they called Karadağ and the complete independence of the Montenegrin nation.

This stellar map is the finest printed Ottoman map of Montenegro and the surrounding regions ever created and is predicated upon the finest military and civilian sources. One of the great masterpieces of the cartography of the Balkans, it was compiled by the Ottoman Military Survey Office in Istanbul and published in 1875, on the eve of the Montenegrin–Ottoman War of 1876 to 1878, during which Montenegro defeated the Ottoman armies to secure its full intercedence after almost 400 years of Turkish rule. The map was made exclusively for the use of senior Ottoman military officers and administrators who would had the misfortune of overseeing the conflict on behalf of the Sublime Porte.

The map is centred upon what was then the Principality of Montenegro, a small autonomous state that was still a de jure part the Ottoman Empire. The mountainous, landlocked country was then dramatically smaller than the modern republic of Montenegro; Ottoman Montenegro had a land area of only 4,405 km², versus the 13,812 km² of today's state. Importantly, key areas of today's country, such as the Adriatic coast, including the ports of Cattaro (Kotor) and Bar, as well Podgorica (the national capital) were then not part of the country. Ottoman Montenegro then consisted merely of the highlands surrounding the small capital city of Cetinje. The contemporary boundaries of Montenegro are very carefully demarcated upon the map, by pricked lines, following very precise scientific surveys executed by international teams of professional engineers.

The scope of the map extends to the northwest as far as Dubrovnik (today in Croatia) and down south as far as Shkodër (Albania) and up north and east to take in parts of Hercegovina, Serbia and Kosovo.

The map is dramatically more detailed and accurate than any existing maps of the region, especially with respect to its depiction of Montenegro. Every town and small village is carefully labelled, while all roads are delineated. The aspects of elevation in this heavily mountainous region are expressed through delicate hachures. The map is an extremely sophisticated, even an ideal, tool to aid military movement or civil administration.

The cartographic inset in the upper left features the vicinity of the Battle of the Ostrog Monastery in 1862, whereupon the Ottoman army crushed the Montenegrin forces, before occupying Cetinje. This was perhaps included, in part, to harken back to better days for the Ottomans, urging them to repeat this achievement in the expected showdown to come (which was not to be!).

Historical Context: Montenegro's Struggle for Full Independence

Montenegro is a Slavic Orthodox Christian country that from the late 15th Century to the 1878 was a de jure part of the Ottoman Empire. Although its enjoyed extensive autonomy over its internal affairs, by the mid-19th Century Montenegro continually pressed for its full independence from the Sublime Porte, sometimes resorting to armed conflict.

The modern cartography of Montenegro commenced in 1836, when Colonel Fedor von Karacsay, a Hungarian military engineer, who was then the Austrian garrison commander of the nearby port of Cattaro (Kotor), was permitted to map the country by its ruler Petar II Petrović-Njegoš, with whom had formed a personal friendship. This resulted in the publication of Karacsay's *Carte du Pays de Montenegro dressée d'après les opérations géodétiques sur les lieux et recherches les plus soigneuses* (Vienna, *circa* 1838), the first broadly accurate map of Montenegro. While not a precisely accurate rendering, because Karacsay did not have time to conduct a full range of systematic trigonometrical surveys, it is nevertheless a highly impressive work whereupon the geographical identity of Montenegro came into view for the first time.

Over the next thirty or so years several wars and insurrections occurred in Montenegro, as well in neighbouring regions such as Albania and Hercegovina. The Ottoman armies that travelled northwards to confront these challenges were accompanied by skilled military engineers who made stellar manuscript maps that were taken back to Istanbul, where they were stored at the Ottoman Military Survey Office. Likewise, the Montenegrin court commissioned maps for both cadastral and military purposes. Evidence suggests that especially fine maps were made under the auspices of Henri Delarue, a French mathematician and geodesist, who once worked at the Paris Observatory, and who served as the secretary to the Montenegrin court during the late 1850s. Moreover, the Austrian military, which ruled neighbouring Dalmatia made many excellent surveys that touched upon the Montenegrin borderlands.

As the issue of Montenegro's boundaries with its neighbours was a severe ongoing source of diplomatic and military tension, in 1858 the great European powers set up a Boundary Commission to map the country's frontiers to the highest scientific standards. International teams of professional engineers, employing the most advanced equipment, were deployed along the borderlands. While the work was often interrupted by warfare, as well as violent attacks from civilians who resented the 'intrusion' upon their lands, by the late 1860s, the commission surveyors had succeeded in mapping much of Montenegro's peripheries to stellar geodetic standards.

In the summer of 1875, the Serbian community in Hercegovina (which was closely allied to Montenegro) broke out in what became known as the Herzegovina Uprising (1875-8). This caused a dramatic escalation in tensions between the Sublime Porte and Cetinje. Correctly anticipating that the situation in the region was soon to explode into a broader conflict, the Ottoman military commissioned the present map.

The highly skilled draftsmen at the Ottoman Military Survey Office combed through all the Ottoman military manuscript maps made over the last few decades, selecting only the best and most accurate representations of each area. They had access to all the copies of the Montenegro Boundary Commission surveys, which were of peerless quality. They also consulted the Austrian surveys of the adjacent coastal areas, and likely also Montenegrin manuscript maps captured when the Ottoman army occupied Cetinje in 1862.

By carefully combining these stellar sources, they created the era's finest map of the Montenegro and the surrounding lands, marking the apogee of the Ottoman cartography of the region. It ranks as one of the greatest maps of any part of the Balkans ever made, and it would not be superseded for some years.

As the unparalleled accuracy of the present map made it militarily sensitive, only a small, number of examples would have been issued, exclusively for the use of senior Ottoman military commanders and civil administrators. When Montenegro rebelled against the Sublime Porte for the last time, in what became known as the Montenegrin–Ottoman War (1876-8), Ottoman commanders would surely have carried examples of the present map into the field where it would have been vitally useful. Nonetheless, overwhelmed by the greater conflict that became the Russo-Ottoman War of 1877-8, the Ottomans were decisively defeated in Montenegro. At the Treaty of Berlin (1878) they were compelled to recognize Montenegro's complete independence. Thus, the present map is a glorious artefact from the Turks' last stand in the land they called *Karadağ.*

A Note on Rarity

The present map is exceedingly rare; we have not been able to trace references to any other examples. The map would have been issued by the War Ministry Press in only a very small print run exclusively for high-level official use. While examples of the map would have been much valued during their time, the survival rate of such large works is incredibly low.

Historical Context: The Sublime Porte and the Rise of an Independent Montenegro

Montenegro is a Slavic, Orthodox Christian country centred in what is the interior of today's republic. It was conquered by the Ottoman Empire in the late 15th Century. The Sublime Porte eventually



organized the territory into the Vilayet (Province) of Montenegro, although the local populous continually resisted Constantinople's authority.

From 1696, Montenegro was ruled by the Prince-Bishops (Metropolitans / Vladika) of Cetinje, of the Petrović-Njegoš dynasty, who exercised considerable autonomy under the aegis of the Ottomans. From 1711, the prince-bishops' authority over the region was augmented, and the country became internally self-governing, although it had to submit to Ottoman authority in external and military affairs.

Landlocked Montenegro was hemmed in by neighbours, the people of which often had 'complicated' relations with the Montenegrins – it was tough neighbourhood! The great Adriatic port of Cattaro (Kotor) was controlled by the Republic of Venice, the Ottomans' old nemesis. To the south was Ottoman Albania; while the Montenegrins had sometimes formed alliances with certain tribes in the Shkodër area, they were often at odds with the Albanians. On the other hand, the ethnic Serbians in Hercegovina to the north, and Serbia to the northeast, were the cultural brothers of the Montenegrins, and it was in these directions that Cetinje both looked for and gave support.

Metropolitan Petar I Petrović-Njegoš (reigned 1784 – 1830) was a strong leader who boldly challenged Ottoman authority while modernizing the country. While not going so far as to technically declare Montenegro's independence from Constantinople, he won several military confrontations against Ottoman forces, expanding his principality's boundaries. Importantly, he was the first modern Montenegrin leader to successfully leverage his country's ties, in a political and military sense, to Serbia and its rising independence movement, while seeking Russian backing as a counterweight to the Sublime Porte.

In the years following the Congress of Vienna (1814-5), which reordered European politics in the wake of the defeat of Napoleon Bonaparte, Montenegro transitioned from being a backwater into a key piece on the grand continental chessboard. The Ottomans regarded Montenegro as a renegade province that while, in and of itself, was far more trouble than it was worth, it nevertheless straddled their valued possessions of Albania and Bosnia & Hercegovina. Accordingly, the outright succession of Montenegro could not be permitted. Moreover, during the prevailing Ottoman Tanzimat Era (1839-76), the Sublime Porte strived to tighten its authority over its European possessions, a programme which naturally clashed with the prevailing direction of Montenegro. Under these circumstances, tension, if not outright military conflict, between Montenegro and the Ottomans was inevitable.

Beyond its ethnic affinity for Montenegro, Russia saw the principality as one of the Sublime Porte's greatest geopolitical vulnerabilities and was determined to support Cetinje's ambitions as much as possible to any point just short of becoming directly involved any war in the Western Balkans.

Habsburg Austria, which had assumed control of Dalmatia, including the port of Cattaro (Kotor), which the Montenegrins quietly coveted, was usually eager to avoid conflict, as that would imperil its difficult-to-defend coastal possessions. However, during the 1850s, supposed incursions by Montenegrins and Herzegovinian rebels into Austrian territory, as well as Cetinje's alleged links to anti-Habsburg Slavic activists in Dalmatia, caused tensions to rise almost to the boiling point.

In early 1858, the Austrians attempted, with limited success, to incite the ethnic Croatians living around Cattaro and Ragusa to create a buffer zone protecting these ports from the escalating conflict in Hercegovina and Montenegro. Moreover, tensions between France and Austria played out in the region as both nations came to oppose each other in the short, but sharp, Second Italian War of Independence (1859).

Meanwhile, Britain, from its bases in Malta and Corfu was the dominant naval power in the Adriatic and Eastern Mediterranean. While not particularly interested in Montenegro, in and of itself, in the era of 'The Great Game' Whitehall was utterly paranoid about any possibility that Russia could gain control of a port on the Mediterranean. As a bellwether ally of Constantinople, it worked to frustrate Montenegro's independence movement, lest the country be used as a forward Russian base; however, it was careful to do this softly so as not to alienate Slavic entities in the Balkans.

Since 1851, Montenegro was ruled by Metropolitan Danilo Petrović-Njegoš (1826-60), a dashing and courageous leader who was determined to modernize his country and finally gain its complete and formal independence from the Ottoman Empire. In 1852, emboldened after a successful diplomatic mission to St. Petersburg, he declared himself the Knjaz (Prince) Danilo I, secularizing his role in a more progressive fashion. He quickly galvanized his authority upon beating back a Turkish invasion of his county during the Ottoman-Montenegrin War of 1852-3. In 1855 established 'Danilo's Code', the country's secular constitution, and began to build the bureaucratic systems necessary for the country's (hopefully imminent) independence.

Importantly, Danilo was determined to not only gain Montenegro's independence, but to expand its territory to include parts of neighbouring jurisdictions that had a Slavic Orthodox majority. The desire to realize 'Greater Montenegro' was not only done out of an emotional sense of irredentism, but also out of a realization that the principality's current boundaries were insufficient to support its future defence and economic development. Notably, Montenegro wanted to assume control over parts of southern and eastern Hercegovina, as well as gaining a window to the sea at the port of Bar. Many Montenegrins also dreamed of one day annexing Kotor and parts of Northern Albania including Shkodër, although it was dangerous to openly express such sentiments.

However, Danilo had a major problem. Russia's calamitous involvement in the Crimean War (1853-6), whereby St. Petersburg was throttled by an alliance of Britain, France and the Ottoman Empire, ensured that she was in no position to provide effective support to Montenegro. The prince knew that his ambitions for his tiny state would be snuffed out without the sponsorship of a major global power.

France was then ruled by Emperor Napoleon III (reigned, 1852-70), who, inspired by the example of his uncle and namesake, executed an ambitious and aggressive foreign policy. France mounted military interventions in a variety of locations across the globe, while working to augment its 'soft power' (i.e. economic and diplomatic) in other places, such as the Balkans.

France had a vital interest in the affairs of the Western Balkans. She saw herself as natural ally of various of the region's stakeholders (for example, Roman Catholics) and in an era when shipping was still key, these lands occupied a strategically vital position, guarding the entrance to the Adriatic Sea. While France was the Sublime Porte's oldest Western ally, ever since François I and Suleiman the Magnificent forged an accord in 1536, it was not against manipulating the relationship for its own gains, sometimes to the great detriment of Constantinople. The vacuum created by Russia's travails represented an unprecedented opportunity to move into the Balkans in a big way, displacing St. Petersburg as the main external influence upon the region. France was able to use its role as a 'cultural superpower' to its advantage; many key Balkan figures were Francophiles, and some had even lived and studied in France. In some cases, the affinity for the French language and culture cut across what would be natural political allegiances. Despite their ethnic brotherhood with Russia, several important Serbian and Montenegrin figures had a great affection for France.

Anticipating new opportunities, in 1853, the Quay d'Orsay re-opened a vice-consulate in Scutari (Shkodër), a major trading centre in Northern Albania (this post would be upgraded to a full consulate in 1855). The consulate was to be the base for France's designs to gain influence in the region, having auspices over all diplomatic operations in Northern Albania, Montenegro and Hercegovina.

As a sign of the importance of the new post at Scutari, the French foreign ministry appointed strong figures to serve as consul general. These individuals included Hyacinthe Hecquard (served 1854 to 1861), an explorer, ethnographer and former army officer who had gained great praise for his work in Western Africa; and Gabriel Aubaret (served 1868-70), a naval officer, linguist, explorer and the future President of the Ottoman Public Debt Administration. While new to the Balkans and the diplomatic corps, the seculturally sensitive and level-headed diplomats quickly formed close bonds with key stakeholders.

Hecquard was given a very difficult assignment that was constantly subject to extreme variables beyond his control. He was to try to make Montenegro a client state of France, so marginalizing Russia, without raising the ire of the Sublime Porte. As the present archive will demonstrate, while the objective was aided by the fact that Danilo was receptive to Paris's overtures, and Russia was on the back-foot, it was imperilled by Montenegro's insatiable desire for self-determination and territorial expansion, which was opposed by the Ottoman's Tanzimat programme. As was often the case in the Balkans, even the best laid plans could take a dramatically unexpected course.

Danilo, while maintaining close bonds of ethic kinship with Russia, realized that St. Petersburg was then unable to provide him with the material support he required. He was favourably disposed towards France and tried to forge new bonds with Paris but without unsettling Russia or the local hard-line Slavic nationalist movement that was naturally suspicious of France.

The Treaty of Paris (March 30, 1856), which concluded the Crimean War and regulated the new system, which was to govern the Balkans, made no concession towards Montenegro's independence. In fact, the conference issued on official communiqué that asserted that Montenegro was an inalienable part of the Ottoman Empire. Despite France's sympathy for Montenegro, it was then simply not advantageous for Paris to risk insulting the Sublime Porte by requesting the inclusion of any formal measure in Cetinje's favour.

The Ottoman eyalet of Hercegovina, which bordered Montenegro to the north, had a mixed Muslim and Orthodox Christian population. It was long a troubled land, as both communities had at times fought against each other, as well as rebelled against Ottoman rule. During this period, the country was rocked by the Hercegovina Uprising, an Orthodox rebellion led by Luka Vukalović (1823-73), that first broke out in 1852. The Ottoman Army had so far been unable to suppress the revolt, while Serbia and Montenegro provided support to Vukalović. Montenegro not only shared an ethnic kinship with the Orthodox Herzegovinians, but also hoped to eventually annex parts of the eyalet.

Danilo made a fateful decision to directly join Vukalović's uprising. From December 1857 onwards, he sent Montenegrin forces to fight alongside the rebels, guaranteeing a dramatic deterioration in relations between Cetinje and Constantinople. Moreover, Austria came to take a hostile attitude towards Montenegro, as it believed that the instability in Hercegovina threatened the security of its geographically vulnerable ports of Cattaro and Ragusa. Danilo upped the ante in the early months of 1858, when he sent a sizable army under Duke Ivo Radonjić that significantly strengthened Vukalović's movement.

Hecquard had a real problem on his hands. He personally sympathized with the Montenegrin cause, but feared that Danilo might overextend himself, provoking an extreme military response from Constantinople. Recently, the Ottomans had been somewhat restrained in their approach, hoping to merely to contain the situation in Hercegovina and Montenegro, as opposed to sending in a massive army to utterly crush the resistance. Moreover, he feared that Austria might also feel compelled to mount a military response if it felt that its hegemony was at risk; Cattaro had a large Montenegrin population that might rebel under the right circumstances. The temperature needed to be brought down, lest things spiral out of control.

In the late 1850s, France played a major role in arranging for the creation of an official Commission of the Great European Powers (in this case, France, Britain, Russia, Prussia, Austria and the Ottoman Empire). The goal of the body was to come up with a compromise that would tone down Montenegro's' demands for outright independence and to end Vukalović's uprising. While it would not officially recognize Montenegro's independence, it would tacitly approve its complete *de facto* sovereignty. Moreover, it would agree to extend Montenegro's borders to include some of the disputed borderlands of Hercegovina and Albania, while formally surveying said boundaries such that Cetinje's gains would be clearly guaranteed.

The Commission was first convened in April 1858, and for a moment, it seemed as if all the stars were aligned to create a peaceful, diplomat solution. However, as was usually the case in the Balkans, things did not turn out that way.

There is still considerable debate amongst historians as to how events unfolded in Montenegro in the spring and summer of 1858. While it is agreed that Danilo was intent upon aggressively pressing his principality's bid for independence, with increased national boundaries, it is not clear if he intended for his forces to become embroiled in a direct large-scale conflict with the Ottoman Army. It is quite likely t the prince merely intended to keep the pressure high in order to achieve concessions for the Ottomans, but that 'maverick' actions by his subordinates and allies had unintended consequences.

It must be noted that in addition to the tensions along the Herzegovinian border, Montenegro and the Ottomans were also skirmishing along their ill-defined Albanian boundary; a state of affairs that also threatened to break out into full-on war. Moreover, Cetinje had to deal with inter-tribal conflicts within the Montenegro itself.

On May 4, 1858, General Hussein Pasha, leading an Ottoman army of 7,000 (later reinforced to number over 13,000) crossed the border form Hercegovina into Montenegro, making camp upon the plateau of Grahovac. Hussein Pasha was responding to the bold provocations of the Montenegrins who made repeated forays into Ottoman territory to support of Vukalović's rebels. The Ottomans likely crossed the line merely to intimidate the Montenegrins into backing down from their intervention in Hercegovina; they likely had no intention of mounting a full invasion Montenegro.

In response, Grand Duke Mirko Petrović-Njegoš (1820-67), Danilo's older brother, backed by Herzegovinian rebel forces. In what became known as the Battle of Grahovac (May 11-13, 1858), the Montenegrin-Herzegovinian force scored a shocking defeat upon a much larger and better equipped Ottoman army. A limited engagement on May 11 succeeded in forcing the Ottomans off the heights that rose from the plateau. At that point, it seems that neither side wanted to continue the battle, as both felt impaired. The Ottomans had lost the advantage of the terrain, yet their force was still dramatically larger

and better armed, so could still crush the Montenegrins under most circumstances. On May 12, a ceasefire was agreed, as Danilo's representative, attempted to negotiate the Ottomans' orderly withdrawal from the area, under the supervision of the International Boundary Commissioners, who were coincidentally camped nearby.

The Ottomans believed that they had secured an agreement for the safe retreat of their army. However, as the Ottomans departed, vulnerable as they made their way through rough terrain, Mirko's force suddenly attacked, utterly routing the Ottomans.

The events at Grahovac sent shockwaves throughout the Balkans. While the battle did not result in the end of Montenegrin-Ottoman conflict, and nor did is imminently lead to Montenegro's full sovereignty, the event has gone down in history as the moment that solidified Montenegro's national consciousness and preordained its independence.

Grahovac was followed by a period of low-grade conflict that lasted until the Montenegrins inflicted another defeat upon the Ottomans, at the Battle of Kolašin (July 28, 1858), whereupon the fighting died down such that the Commission could continue its work. On November 8, 1858, the Commissioners met in Constantinople to ratify a preliminary agreement that demarcated Montenegro's borders, not only with Hercegovina, but also with Albania. However, while this accord was initially greeted with favour by all parties, the international community subsequently became distracted and the boundaries were never properly surveyed, leaving the situation in a worrying state of ambiguity.

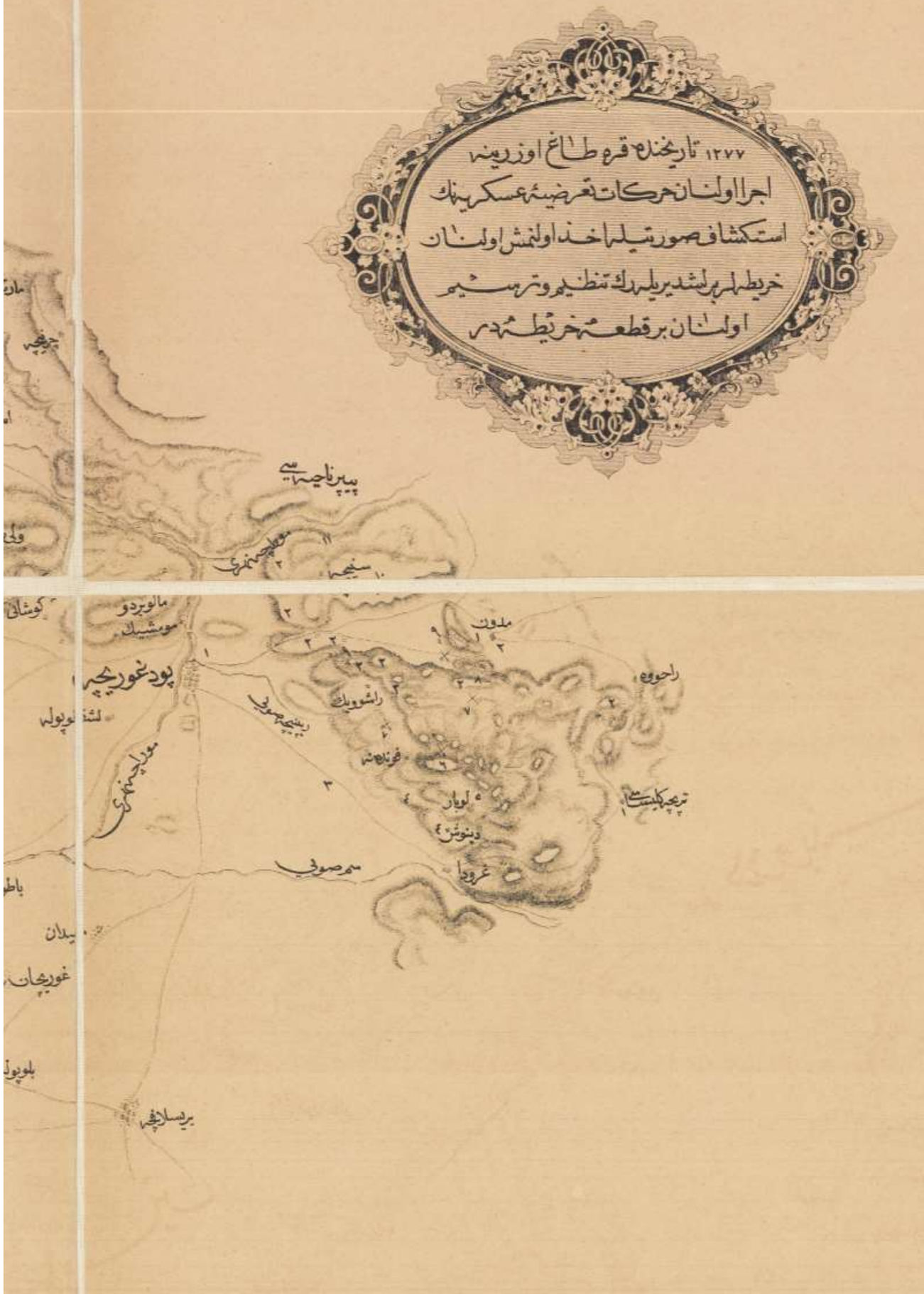
France and the rest of the European diplomatic community were becoming caught up in the tension that would lead to the Second Italian War of Independence (April-July 1859), whereby France would support Italian forces in their victory against Austria. Not wanting to concern itself with a conflict in the Balkans, the powers placed tremendous pressure upon both Danilo and the Sublime Porte to cease hostilities and to accept the provisional findings of the Commission. While Vukalović continued his rebellion, in a low-grade fashion, in Hercegovina, for the next couple years peace held out between Montenegro and the Ottomans.

The distraction of the affairs in Italy ensured that Danilo came to feel that France would not be the long-term sponsor he had hoped for. While he was still favourably inclined towards Paris, he was disappointed that France did not insist that the events of 1858 result in the international recognition of Montenegrin independence. While Grahovac made Danilo a pan-Slavic hero and dramatically raised the profile of his country, Montenegro was still a landlocked statelet under constant threat of Ottoman invasion, leaving it scarcely better off than it was before. In this context, Danilo reembraced Russia, which had recovered some of its potency in the period since the Crimean War.

Danilo was assassinated while visiting Cattaro, on August 13, 1860. While the exact motives of his Montenegrin killer, Todor Kadić, are not clear, it is thought likely that they had more to do with matters of inter-tribal rivalry as opposed to being part of grand political design.

Danilo was succeeded on the throne by his nephew, Nikola I Petrović-Njegoš (1841 - 1921), who would rule Montenegro for the next 58 years. While a Paris-educated francophile, Nikola was also a close friend of Russia, which encouraged him towards pursuing an extreme course.

Nikola's support of Vukalović's rebellion become incautious, which greatly angered the new Sultan Abdülaziz I. In 1861, instead of sending 'B Team' forces to deal with the Montenegrins, the Sublime Porte dispatched Field Marshal Omar Pasha Latos (1806-71), who was not only the best soldier in the Ottoman Empire but one of the world's most impressive field commanders. Omar Pasha, an ethnic Serb who had converted to Islam, possessed extensive familiarity with the region, having supressed a Muslim rebellion in Hercegovina with phenomenal ruthlessness in 1851. Unlike many contemporary Ottoman commanders, who had habit of acting impetuously, Omar Pasha was methodical and patient. The albeit spirited and clever Montenegrin army stood little chance, as



Omar Pasha would likely not make any mistakes that they could capitalize upon in order to compensate for their inferior manpower and artillery.

In what was known as the Montenegrin–Ottoman War (1861–62), Omar Pasha's forces, after encountering surprisingly effective initial resistance, simply overwhelmed the Montenegrins like a juggernaut. In the decisive engagement, the Ottoman defeated Grand Duke Mirko's forces at the Battle of the Ostrog Monastery, before going on the take Cetinje. Nikola was faced with total defeat and for a moment it looked as if Montenegro might be a country no more. However, Omar Pasha was under orders to treat the Montenegrins with magnanimity. The Sublime Porte wanted merely to 'prove a point', hoping that would secure an enduring peace with the Montenegrins; they saw the conflict as a tiresome distraction from more important matters.

The terms of the Treaty of Scutari (August 31, 1862), which ended the war were amazingly generous to Montenegro. The country was permitted to keep its pre-war boundaries and would be allowed to retain its internal autonomy; however, it had to recognize Ottoman suzerainty. At the same time, Omar Pasha ensured that the Vukalović's rebellion in Hercegovina was utterly crushed, eliminating a natural source of friction between Cetinje and Constantinople.

A chastened Nikola learned a valuable lesson. He realized that he had acted with youthful over exuberance and for the next fourteen years endeavoured to be more cautious. Relations between Montenegro and the Ottomans generally remained peaceful, allowing Nikola to strengthen his nation and its army.

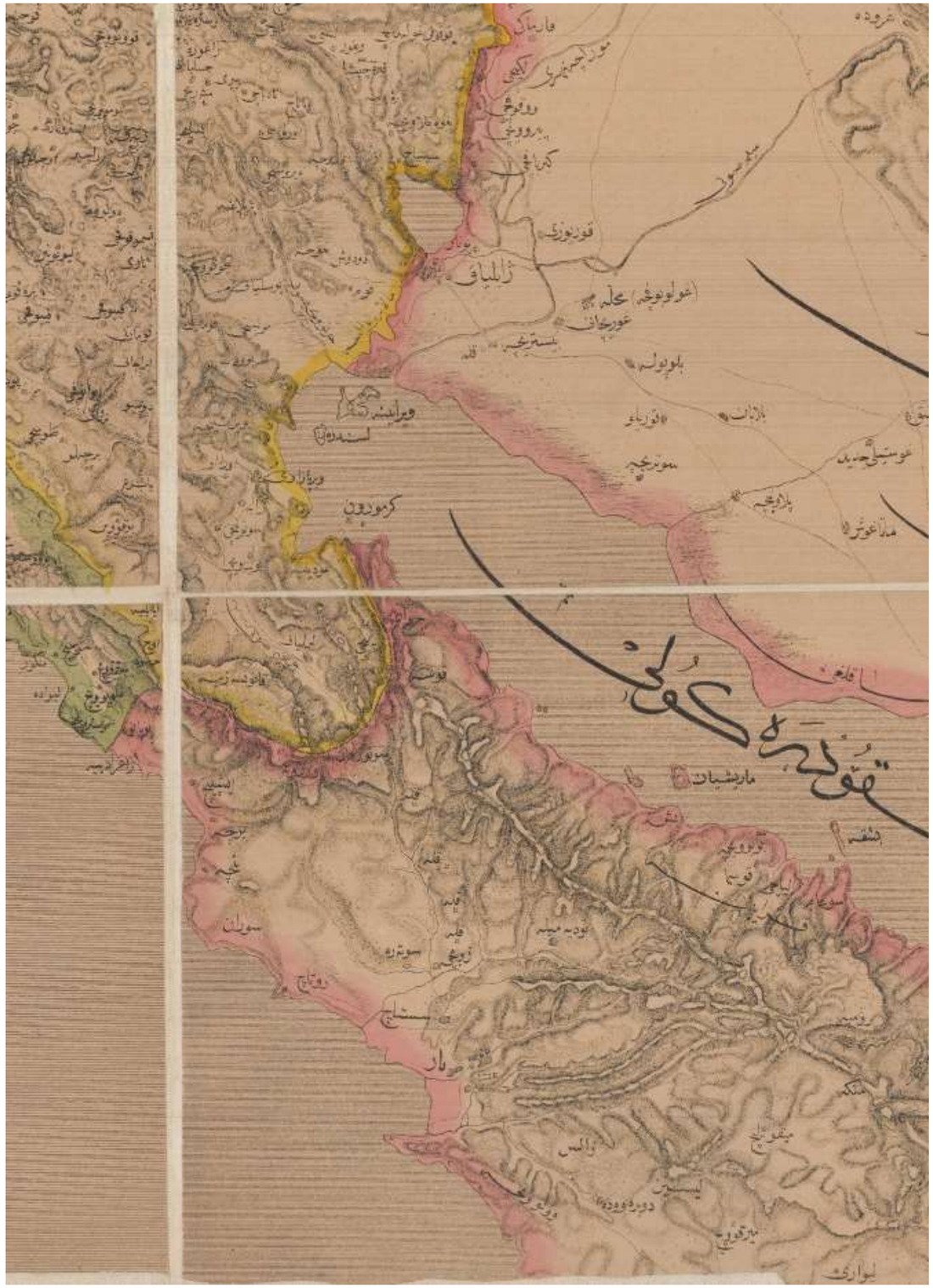
Montenegro finally received the big break it had long desired when the Ottoman Empire was thrown into chaos upon its bankruptcy in October 1875. In what was known as the Montenegrin–Ottoman War (1876-8), Nikola teamed up with a new generation of Herzegovinian rebels to give the Ottoman forces in the region a run for their money. The conflict, which dovetailed into the Russo-Ottoman War of 1877-8, saw the Ottomans collapse on all fronts. The Montenegrins won the key Battle of Vučji Do (July 18, 1877) and proceeded to run the table, winning victory after victory, even conquering Bar, giving the country access to the sea.

The Treaty of San Stefano (March 3, 1878) and reiterated the Treaty of Berlin (July 13, 1878) confirmed Montenegro's official and complete independence from the Ottoman Empire, as well as doubling its territory from 4,405 km² to 9,475 km². After all the dramatic turns of the preceding decades, Montenegro had commenced new chapter where it could chart its own destiny.

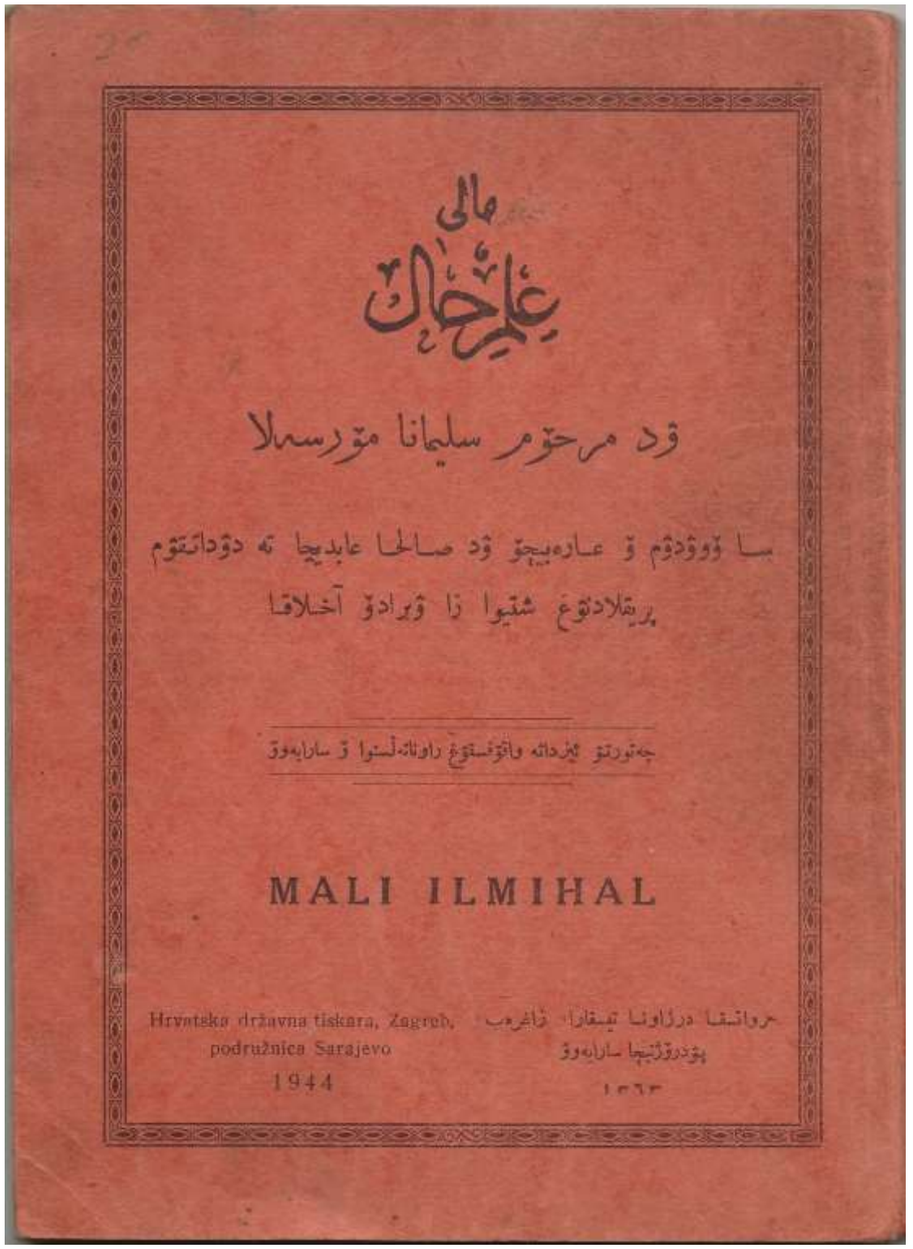
We could only find one institutional example (David Rumsey Map Collection).

References: David Rumsey Map Collection, PUB 10417.000: Cf. [Background:] Henri DELARUE, *Le Monténégro, histoire, description, moeurs, usages, législation, constitution politique* (Paris: B. Duprat, 1862); Bejtullah D. DESTANI, *Montenegro: Political and Ethnic Boundaries 1840-1920*, 2 vols. (Cambridge: Archive Editions, 2001); Hyacinthe HECQUARD, *Histoire et description de la Haute-Albanie ou Guégarie* (Paris: A. Bertrand, [1859]); Hyacinthe HECQUARD, 'Mémoire sur le Monténégro', Bulletin de la Société de géographie, 5ième série, tome IX (April 1865), pp. 305-47; Josip MANDALINIČ, 'Černá Hora v 50. letech 19. Století období přechodu od teokracie k světské formě vlády, závěrečná fáze procesu konstituování Černé Hory' (Ph.D. Dissertation, Charles University, Prague, 2012; Maurus REINKOWSKI, 'Double Struggle, No Income: Ottoman Borderlands in Northern Albania', in *International Journal of Turkish Studies*, no. 3, nos. 1–2 (Summer 2003), pp. 239-54; Jean Baptiste Evariste Charles Pricot de SAINTE-MARIE, *L'Herzégovine: étude géographique, historique et statistique* (Paris: J. Baer, 1875).

4.500 EUR



4. Arebica
Bosnian Language in Perso-Arabic Script



Sulejman MURSEL - Salih ABDIĆ

مالی علم حال. Mali Ilmihal

سا ڤووڈوم ڤ عاره بیجڤ ڤذ صالحا عابدیجا ته دڤداتقوم پریقلادنوغ شتیوا زا ڤبرادڤ آخلاقا

[Sa uvodom u arebicu od Saliha Abdića te dodatkom prikladnog štiva za obradu Ahlaka / with an Introduction to Arebica by Salih Abdić and an Appendix of Appropriate Text for Interpreting Akhlaq]

Zagreb – Sarajevo: Hrvatska državna tiskara [Croatian State Press] 1944

8°, 107 pp. with black and white illustrations, [3 pp.] blank, (tiny loss of white corners, missing last blank page, wrappers slightly stained, otherwise in a good condition).

A rare book in Arebica (Arabica), Bosnian language, written in harfovica – an adapted version of Perso-Arabic letters, was published during WWII in the time of Bosnian-Muslim revival of their pre-Yugoslav culture was made under the Independent *State of* Croatia, a puppet state of Nazi Germany.

An Ilmihal, or short introduction to Islam in Bosnian language, with a valuable introduction to Arebica and a text for a better comprehension of Akhlaq were published during WWII. The uncommon script used was Arebica (also Arabica), which is the Bosnian language in Perso-Arabic letters.

This is a fourth, enlarged and corrected edition. The first edition was published in 1931, followed by publications in 1938 and 1941. Sulejman Mursel also authored the *Small* and *Large Ilmigal* in Latin and Cyrillic, to adjust the Islamic school literature to the more commonly used Yugoslav scripts (Ifet MUSTAFIĆ, Novi Muallim. Islamska pedagoska misao Hamdije Mulića (2), 2002, 10, pp- 92-96).

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat. One example is listed in the The Gazi-Husrev-beg Library in Sarajevo.

The History of Arebica and Its Revival

Arebica, also called *Arabica*, *matufovica* or *mektebica*, is a type of a script, used to write Bosnian language with Perso-Arabic characters, which developed in the Ottoman Empire as a logical merge of the locally used lettering and the Slavic language, spoken in the north-most Balkan border of the Empire.

The use of the Perso-Arabic letters among the South-Slavic nations is generally speaking unique to the Muslims from the area of today's Bosnia and Herzegovina. On the other hand, other South Slavs on the territory of the Ottoman Empire preferred other scripts, connecting them with their identity and religion as the Orthodox Serbs and Bulgarians were mostly printing in Cyrillic script.

Although uncommon, Arebica in the Ottoman Empire would be comprehensible to the most South Slavs, capable of reading the official Ottoman script. Arebica adopted the letters from the Ottoman alphabet and eventually added additional characters, to clarify letters and vowels and make the script easier to read. The new characters, typical for this script are چ ہای ل ن و ژ for ž, u or o, nj, lj, i and c. Additionally, some of the letters started marking specific sounds only, which are common in Bosnian language, but were more vague in the Ottoman. Such letters were آ or ا for a, ه for e and و for v.

The beginnings of Arebica go to the 15th century. Used in what are today all rare manuscripts, the first book was printed in Istanbul only in 1868. The title was *Ovo je od virovanja na bosanski jezik kitab* (This is a Book on the Believe in Bosnian Language) by Mehmed Agić from Bosanski Brod.

Possibly less than 10 books were printed in Istanbul in Arebica until the first printing press with this types was founded in Sarajevo in 1907. The press published around 50 books, as well as magazines *Muallim*, *Tarik* and *Misbah* and two yearbooks named *Mekteb*.

The major reformer of Arebica was a Bosnian scholar and imam Mehmed Džemaluddin ef. Čaušević (1870-1938), whose script was used in the most of the 20th century books. The version is called *matufovica* or *mektebica* (مهقتەبابجا) or the reformed Arebica (*reformirana arabica)* (رهفورمابرانا اراباجا).

The Bosnian Muslims were especially influential during the war under the government of the Independent State of Croatia, a puppet state of Nazi Germany with extreme antisemitic and anti-communist tendencies. The fascist ultra-national governor of this state, which at the time among others embraced the territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Ante Pavelić was born in Herzegovina and supported the Bosnian Muslims. After the war, the Bosnian Muslim press in Arebica was not supported by the Tito's government.

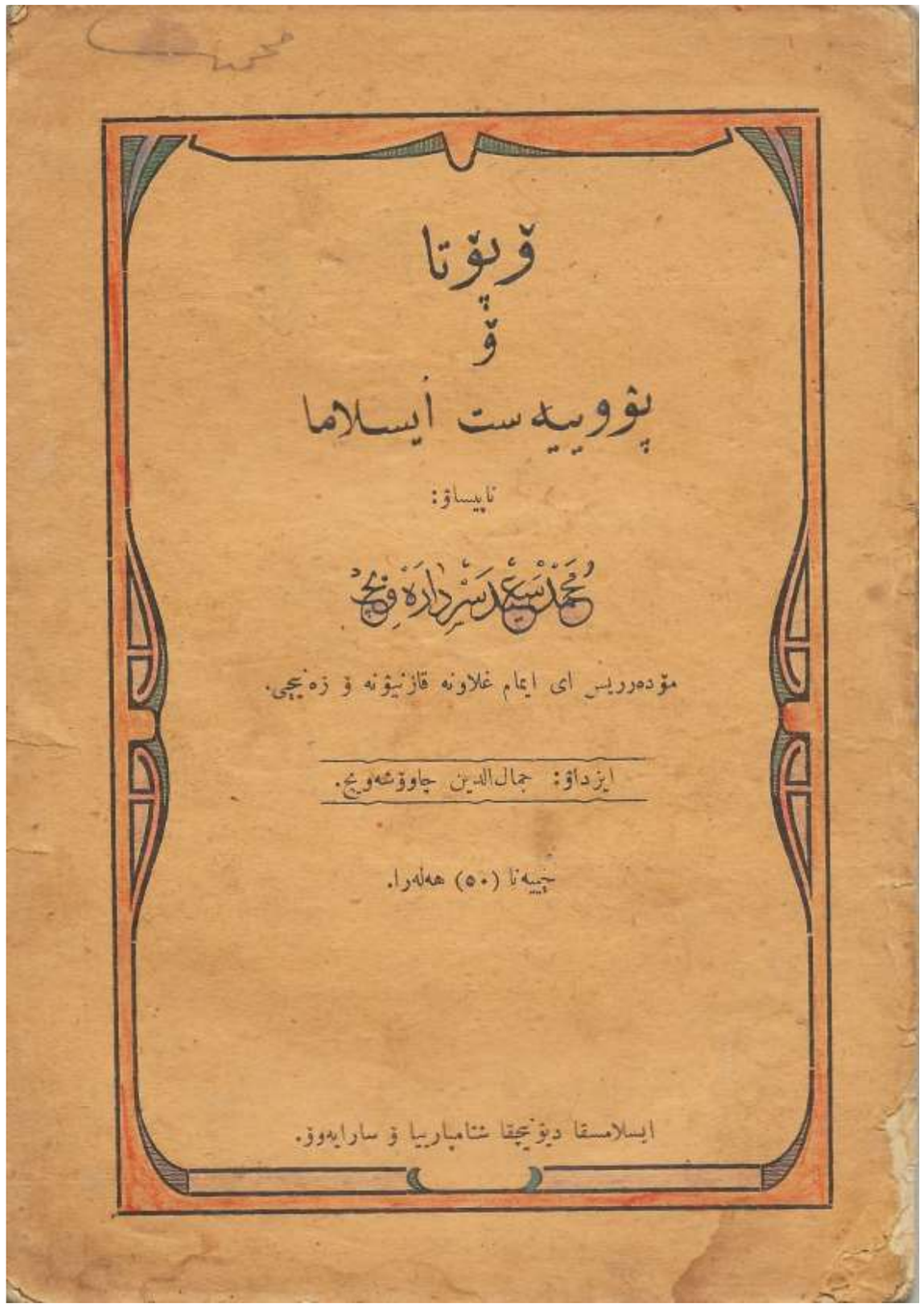
The first original work in Arebica after WWII was a comic *Hadži Šefko i hadži Mefko*, published in 2005.



References: Fatima Omerdić, Bibliografija Štampanih Djela Arapskim Pismom Bosanskohercegovačkih Autora u Gazi Husrev-Begovoj Biblioteci, no. 50.

650 EUR

5. Arebica
Bosnian Language in Perso-Arabic Script



Muhammed Seid SERDAREVIĆ (1882-1918)

ۏپۏتا ۏ پۏوییه ست ایسلاما

[Uputa u povijest islama / Introduction to the History of Islam]

Sarajevo: Džemaluddin Čaušević (publisher) - Islamska dionička štamparija [Islamic Press], [s. d. circa 1914].

8°, 91 pp., original wrappers with lettering (one page with a tear without loss of paper, slightly age-toned and stained, last pages and rear wrapper with light water-staining, decoration on the cover coloured with old colour pencils, small tears in margins, tiny loss of corners of the front wrappers).

A work in Bosnian language, written in Arebica, was published for the lesions in the religious schools. The author Muhammed Seid Serdarević (1882-1918) was from 1913 Imam and a religious teacher in Zenica in Bosnia).

The History of Arebica and Its Revival

Please see the description with the previous item.

We could only find one example on Worldcat (Bavarian State Library). One example is also listed in the Gazi-Husrev-beg Library in Sarajevo.

References: OCLC 1029861423. Fatima Omerdić, Bibliografija Štampanih Djela Arapskim Pismom Bosanskohercegovačkih Autora u Gazi Husrev-Begovoj Biblioteci, no. 79.

580 EUR

6. Turkey / Armenia / Georgia / Iran Ottoman-Armenian Conflict / Important Ottoman Military Cartography Maps By Famous Artists

HOCA ALI RIZA Bey (1858 - 1930).

اناطولی شاهانه سرحد دار الحرکتی خریطة سی

[Operational Map of the Anatolian Imperial Frontiers…].

Istanbul: [Erkan-ı Harbiye-i Umumiye Matbaası] 1321 [1905].

Colour lithograph with boundary lines in original hand colour, dissected into 8 sections and mounted upon original linen (Very Good, lovely colours and overall clean, light even toning, some slight wear along some section edges, subtle old tack marks to corners), 70.5 x 103.5 cm (28 x 41 inches).

An exceedingly rare and uncommonly beautiful map of Eastern Anatolia and Armenia made by the famous landscape artist Hoca Ali Rıza as an operational map to aid the Ottoman Army in patrolling a region that was rife with arms and commodities smuggling, spies and agents provocateurs, and violent Armenian insurrections; published in Istanbul by the press of the General Staff of the Ottoman Army in 1905, during a time of heightened tension.

This ‘Operational Map’, embracing most of Eastern Anatolia and the adjacent parts of the Russian and Persian empires, and was made to assist the Ottoman Army to control a region roiled by rebellion and arms and commodities smuggling, and that was full of foreign spies and agents provocateurs. For a



انا طولی شمالیه حدود اراضی حرکاتی خریطه سیدر

مقیاسی ۱/۸۴۰۰۰۰۰

۱۳۲۱ سنه

بحر سیاه

آنا طولی شمالیه

practical utilitarian map, its uncommonly beautiful appearance, with its bright palette, graceful calligraphy and decorative border, is surprising, until one learns that the map was drafted by and lithographed under the supervision of Hoca Ali Rıza Bey, a career army officer who was one of the Late Ottoman Empire's preeminent impressionist painters and topographical artists. While he only dabbled in cartography, his military training and artistic talent allowed him to create a work that is highly attractive, without compromising the precision and clarity required of a map that was to be used for strategic planning. The map was published at the Erkan-ı Harbiye-i Umumiye Matbaası, the press of the General Staff of the Ottoman Army, in Istanbul, which around this time was superintended by none other than Ali Rıza.

The map embraces an area extending from Samsun, in the northwest, to Lake Urmia, Persia, in the southeast, and from Malatya, in the southwest, up to Tbilisi, Russian Empire (today Georgia), in the northwest. In between are strategically key places such as Erzurum, Kars, Trabzon, Diyarbakir, Lake Van and Yerevan, with the map expressing the region's extremely mountainous terrain through delicate hachures, with all rivers and coastlines delineated, and all roads of any quality precisely traced. Notably, the map focuses upon the Armenian Highlands, the traditional home of the Armenian people, of which most of the region had been ruled by the Ottoman Empire for hundreds of years. Additionally, Eastern Anatolia was home to large populations of ethnic Turks, Kurds, as well as many smaller communities. Bordering this region are the ethnic Armenian and Georgian parts of the Russian Empire, the Sublime Porte's arch nemesis. To the southwest is Persia, an ancient enemy of the Ottomans.

To make a long story short, there was a lot of bad blood between many of the region's ethnic communities and countries. Primarily, the Armenians, inspired by the movement of 'National Awakening' were pressing hard for their self-determination, if not their outright independence, from the Sublime Porte. Since the late 1880s, this resulted in a cycle of violent Armenian insurrections and brutal Ottoman crackdowns. While still the dominant power, the stretched Ottoman Amy struggled to maintain any sense or control in many areas, while it also had to patrol the incredibly long and porous Russian and Persian frontiers that were a nexus for arms running that threatened the state's security and commodities smuggling that undermined the national economy. All the while the Russians, and to a lesser extent the Persians, were delighted to 'stir the pot', giving refuge and support to Armenian insurgents and turning a blind eye (and sometimes even orchestrating) the smuggling. Moreover, less than a decade hence, the region would explode as a major theatre of World War I and the locus of inter-ethnic massacres, most notably the Armenian Genocide.

The present map would thus have been incredibly valuable to those Ottoman officials and officers who had the unenviable task of maintaining control over Eastern Anatolia, especially as the map appeared in 1905, a time of heightened tension, in the immediate wake of the Sasun Uprising, a particularly serious Armenian insurrection in Bitlis Vilayet, while that year Armenian radicals tried to assassinate Sultan Abdul Hamid II, narrowly missing their mark.

Due to its mid-scale, the present map would have been most appropriate for strategic planning, namely for deciding where to deploy resources within the context of the larger picture, as opposed to operational use, which would require larger scale cartography. Such an elaborate, expensive and large format map would have been reserved for the use of only very senior Ottoman government officials and military officers, and as such should be considered as a 'Headquarters Map', likely hung up on the wall, or laid upon a grand table at an imperial ministry office or a regional army HQ (the present example has contemporary tack marks to the corners).

The present map is exceedingly rare. We have not been able to trace a refence to the work, let alone the location of any other examples. This is not surprising, as the map would have been issued in only a very small print run for the use of a very select audience, while large Ottoman military maps tend to have an extremely low survival rate.

Hoca Ali Rıza Bey: Leading Late Ottoman Painter and Draftsman

Hoca Ali Rıza Bey (1858 – 1930) was one of the Late Ottoman empire's most admired impressionist landscape and architectural painters, as well an important draftsman of military plans and views. Perhaps as importantly, he trained dozens of Turkey's leading artists and draftsmen and his influence long outlived him.

Ali Rıza was born in Üsküdar (on the Asian side of Istanbul), the son of a cavalry major and amateur calligrapher. He showed strong artistic talent from an early age and while he was destined for a military career, his father supported his passion. He attended the Kululi Military High School, where with the sponsorship of Ehdem Pasha, a cabinet minter and the empire's most famous contemporary artist, he was able to receive high quality training in painting and draftsmanship. He subsequently attended the Ottoman Military Academy in Istanbul, while he apprenticed under the esteemed painters Osman Nuri Pasha and Süleyman Seyyid. In 1881, he received an award from Sultan Abdul Hamid II, a great connoisseur of art. He hoped to study in Naples but was prevented from doing so due to a cholera epidemic.

Ali Rıza joined the army officer corps, but was given broad latitude to pursue his artistic activities. While the Ottoman Army had long employed skilled draftsmen and cartographers to create maps and fortification plans, they only recently came to fully appreciate the importance of documenting battles for academic and propagandist purposes. Towards this objective, Ali Rıza taught classes in painting and draftsmanship to troops, while he pursued his own painting career.

He also designed patterns for the Imperial Porcelain Factory and was key advisor to the government on classical antiquities, for which he had become something of an authority. He worked closely with the Italian painter resident in Istanbul, Fausto Zonaro, and made extra money on the side teaching wealthy private pupils.

It was in the 1890s that Ali Rıza's impressionist landscape paintings gained much popular and academic acclaim, as did his field sketches portraying of the Greco-Turkish War of 1897. In 1902, he published a series of guides for painting geared towards high school age students, which became extremely influential, while his numerous pupils went on to great artistic achievements in their own right.

Ali Rıza was also very active in military publishing, and while mapping was a sideshow for him, he was a naturally gifted cartographer. He was appointed as the director of the Erkan-ı Harbiye-i Umumiye Matbaası, the press of the General Staff of the Ottoman Army, which issued the present map, and was also chosen to be the president of the Ottoman painters association.

In 1911, Ali Rıza retired from the army with the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel. In 1914, just before the beginning of World War I, he became professor at the School of Fine Arts in Istanbul (today the Mimar Sinan Fine Arts University). The Ottoman loss of the war plunged the country into economic downturn and chaos, and cutbacks forced Ali Rıza out of his job, while all traditional sources of artistic patronage dried up. He eventually found work teaching in secondary schools and received some minor government

contracts, but it was a difficult time for such a grand figure. Fortunately, however, his paintings remained popular and were exhibited in many locations, including at the final show during his lifetime, in Paris, in 1928.

Ali Rıza died in 1930. However, he left a great body of paintings and drawings preserved in major museums, which are much admired today, while his students preserved his influence for many decades to come.

Fin de Siècle Eastern Anatolia: Eurasia's Powder Keg

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, raised 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.

Over the succeeding centuries much of the Armenian ancestral homeland was ruled by the Ottoman Empire. The Armenians lived under a diverse range of circumstances. Many communities in large cities, such as Istanbul and Izmir, were wealthy and well-integrated into Ottoman society, in some cases holding positions of real influence. However, most Armenians were relegated to living in relative poverty in Eastern Anatolia, often under significant degrees of oppression. For the longest time, the might of the sultan's armies ensured that any notions of Armenian self-determination were a dead letter.

During the Tanzimat ('Reorganization') Era (1839-75), the Ottoman Empire embarked upon a series of broad-sweeping and radical legal and social reforms. Armenians were given full civil rights equal to Turkish Muslims (even if these rights were often not realized on the ground). In many urban centres there was a great flowering of Armenian cultural expression (publications, art, theatre, etc.), while the communities gained unprecedented financial strength, as well as holding senior roles in the Ottoman civil service.

Importantly, in 1863 the Ottomans authorized the Armenians to form the Armenian National Council to represent their interests, and granting it the power to manage the religious, social and educational affairs of their people. While this concession satisfied some Armenians, it led others to believe that it opened the door to further developments that would one day lead to full Armenian self-determination.

The Russo-Ottoman War of 1877-8 was a watershed moment in the history of the greater region. Russia, in league with its Slavic allies (Serbia, Montenegro and Bulgaria) utterly throttled the Ottomans, nearly capturing Istanbul. This defeat was symptomatic of the fact that overall the Ottoman Empire had been losing strength for years, even as it sought to radically reform itself to stave off its demise. At the Treaty of Berlin (1878) that resolved the war, Serbia, Montenegro and Bulgaria gained their total de facto independence from the Sublime Porte, while the Ottoman Empire was forced to cede the vilayets of Batumi and Kars (which had large Armenian populations) to Russia. It was also there the European powers seriously considered the 'Armenian Question' for the first time. This matter concerned the notion of forcing the Ottomans to give its Armenian communities some significant form of self-government, particularly in the so-called 'Six Armenian Vilayets' (Van, Erzurum, Mamuret-ul-Aziz, Bitlis, Diyarbakir and Sivas), provinces in Eastern Anatolia, where ethnic Armenians made up large percentage of the population. The treaty terms included lines that provided for this, although no clear plan of action was proscribed.

The war showed the Sublime Porte to be deeply vulnerable, and the fact that the Slavic Balkan nations had gained their complete independence from Istanbul encouraged Armenian diehards that they could realistically accomplish the same. This led to the flowering of what became known as the 'Armenian National Awakening', a movement of collective self-consciousness that manifested itself in many different ways, from civil cultural expression to actions of a truly radical nature.

Importantly, Russia filled Istanbul and all the major towns in the Six Vilayets with spies and agents provocateurs, sending aid and smuggling arms to the Armenians communities. Russia had two main motivations. First, they felt a sincere kinship with the Armenians, who were fellow Christians. Second, the Armenian cause could only weaken the Ottomans, who were Russia's longstanding natural enemies.

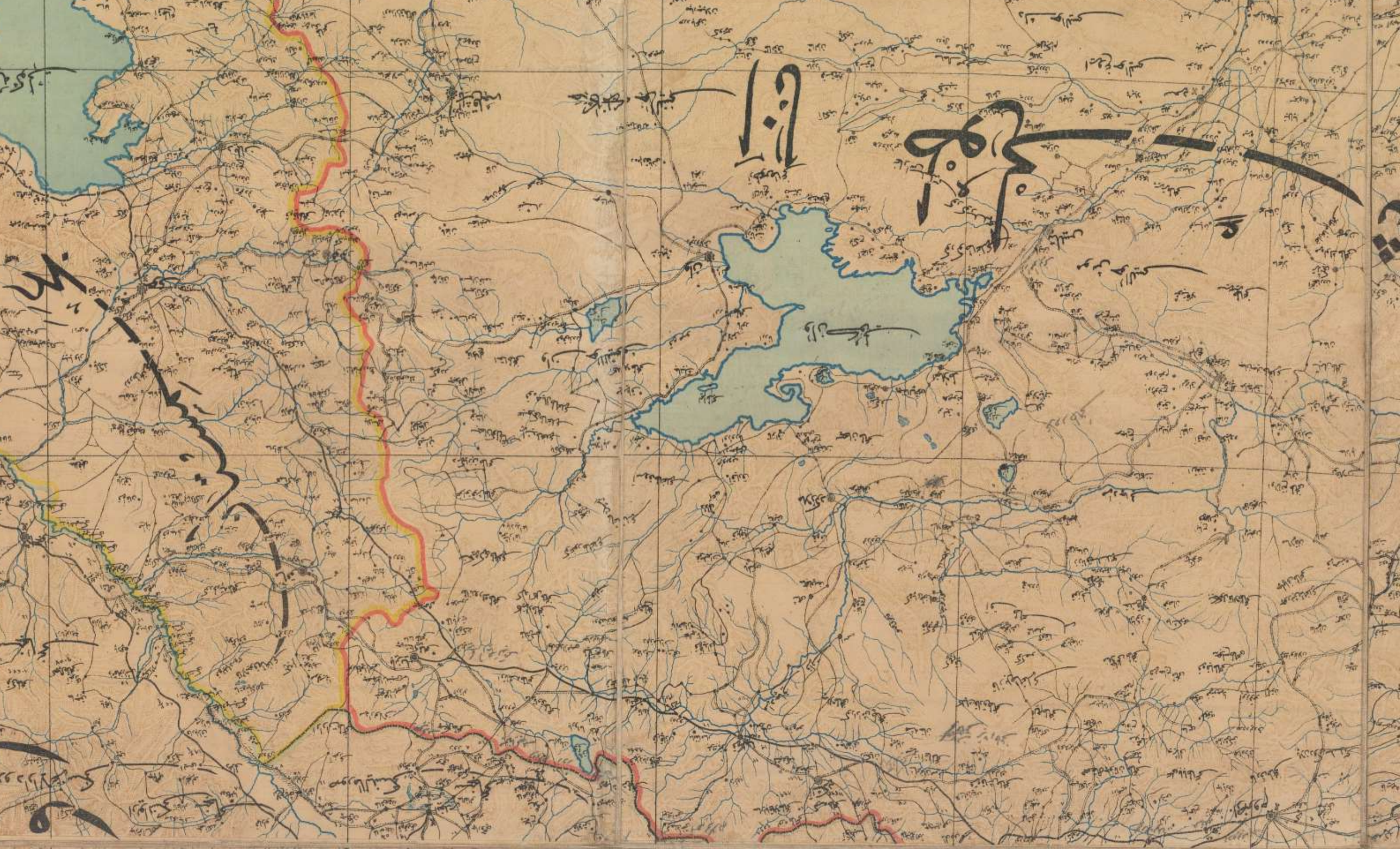
The shock of losing the war and the rising tide of Armenian nationalism (along with the many Russo-Armenian conspiracy theories, some of which were true, others false) caused Sultan Abdul Hamid II (reigned 1876 - 1909) to take a reactionary course. He attempted to tighten his grip over Eastern Anatolia, causing Armenian resentment to rise even higher.

At this stage it is important to note that like everything in the Ottoman Empire, the Ottoman-Armenian relationship was complex and was no means entirely adversarial. While the Armenians who lived in the Eastern Anatolia tended to live in relative poverty and had limited self-determination, as well as experiencing difficult relations with their Turkish and Kurdish neighbours, many Armenians in the big cites of the west, notably Istanbul and Izmir, had an entirely different experience with the Sultan's regime.

The metropolitan Armenian communities tended to be affluent, with some families being fabulously rich and influential. Sultan Abdul Hamid II had many Armenians in his close circle who exercised great political power. Indeed, during his reign, 29 Armenians held the esteemed title of Pasha, while 22 Armenians held cabinet posts, including the key portfolios of finance, foreign affairs, trade and public works. These Armenians were part of the elite of Ottoman society, and while some of them held secret pro-Armenian nationalist sympathies, it was simply not in their personal interest to rock the boat, so they continued to loyally and competently serve the sultan. These Armenians were termed *Chezoks*, and they would be increasingly placed in a difficult position in the coming years.

Fueled by the cycle of the rising Armenian nationalism and the Ottoman reaction to it, tensions exploded into an era of continuous violence. It led to the formation of organized, armed Armenian resistance movements, such as he Social Democrat Hunchakian Party (SDHP), in 1887, popularly known as the Hunchaks, and the Armenian Revolutionary Federation, in 1890, known as the Dashnaks (which was formed in Russian-controlled Tbilisi, further confirmation that the Czar was 'fanning the flames').

During the 'Bloody Years' (1894-6), the Armenians mounted a series of local armed insurrections, while Abdul Hamid II stoked up anti-Armenian sentient amongst the Turkish and Kurdish populations, instigating what became known as the 'Hamidian Massacres', resulting in the deaths of between 80,000 and 300,00 Armenians in Eastern Anatolia, most being civilians (the great uncertainty in numbers is due



the fact that the region was in a state of utter chaos). Civil rule eroded in many places, as arms were smuggled across the porous borders, fueling the conflict (often with the connivance of the Russian and Persian governments). Moreover, goods were smuggled across the frontiers, with the black market eroding the legitimate imperial economy.

Towards the end of the Bloody Years, a community of Ottomans in modern Süleymanlı mounted the Zeitun Rebellion (1895-6), in an effort to prevent a rumoured planned massacre of their civilians. The rebellion was put down brutally. The conflict then entered the heart of Istanbul, when a party of Dashnaks took over the headquarters of the Imperial Ottoman Bank (August 26, 1896); while they were taken out by the authorities, this sent a chill through every corner of the Sublime Porte.

The severity of the Ottoman crackdown in 1896 temporarily dampened the Armenian nationalist movement; however, the year before the present map was made, the conflict roared back. A major Armenian insurrection occurred, the Sasun Uprising (1904), in Bitlis Vilayet, which was duly crushed by the Ottoman Army. Yet chaos and tension prevailed, as in many areas of Eastern Anatolia, Ottoman authority hung only by a thread.

In 1905, the conflict was literally brought to Abdul Hamid II's doorstep when a party of Dashnaks attempted to assassinate the sultan, detonating bombs just feet from his carriage. While the sultan narrowly escaped, 26 people around him were killed.

In 1908, a group of Ottoman army officers, the Young Turks, mounted a rebellion that limited the powers of Sultan Abdul Hamid II, and then in 1909, overthrow him altogether. The Young Turks started out by promoting democracy and pan-ethnic brotherhood. Armenian nationalists were invited to join their Ottoman 'countrymen' in a liberal experiment. For a brief period, it seemed possible that Armenian nationalist aspirations could be reconciled with remaining in the Ottoman Empire.

However, a series of political and military setbacks caused the Young Turks to turn hard towards authoritarianism and radical Turkish nationalism. Armenians were gradually removed from positions of power, as the Young Turks' rhetoric became increasingly intolerant and incendiary.

During World War I, some Armenian communities in Eastern Anatolia sided with Russia, and took up arms against their Turkish and Kurdish neighbours. As the Ottoman Empire heaved under the weight of the conflict, the Young Turk leadership targeted the Armenian people *en masse* as a scapegoat for their own frustrations. Notably, they not only targeted the rebellious Armenian communities, but also lashed out at even the most loyal *Chezoks*. By the 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.

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. Armenian leaders in exile 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.

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'.

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.

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: N / A – No other Examples traced. Cf. 'Ali Rizâ Bey', *İslâm Ansiklopedisi* online: https://islamansiklopedisi.org.tr/ali-riza-bey

SOLD

7. Tbilisi, Georgia – Grand City Plan & Gazetteer
Eurasian Urbanism

NIKOLAI FEDOROVICH KLEMENTIEV (*d.* 1901).

***Планъ города Тифлиса* съ окрестностями съ приложеніемъ справочнаго указателя. Составленъ но новыйнимъ свыденіямъ и иэданъ по норученіо тифлисской городской думы Н.Ф. Клементьевымъ. [Plan of the City of Tiflis and its Environs with the Attached References. Compiled from New Reports and Information furnished by the Tiflis City Council by N.F. Klementiev].**

Tiflis (Tbilisi): C. Thomson Lithographic Printers, March 1884.

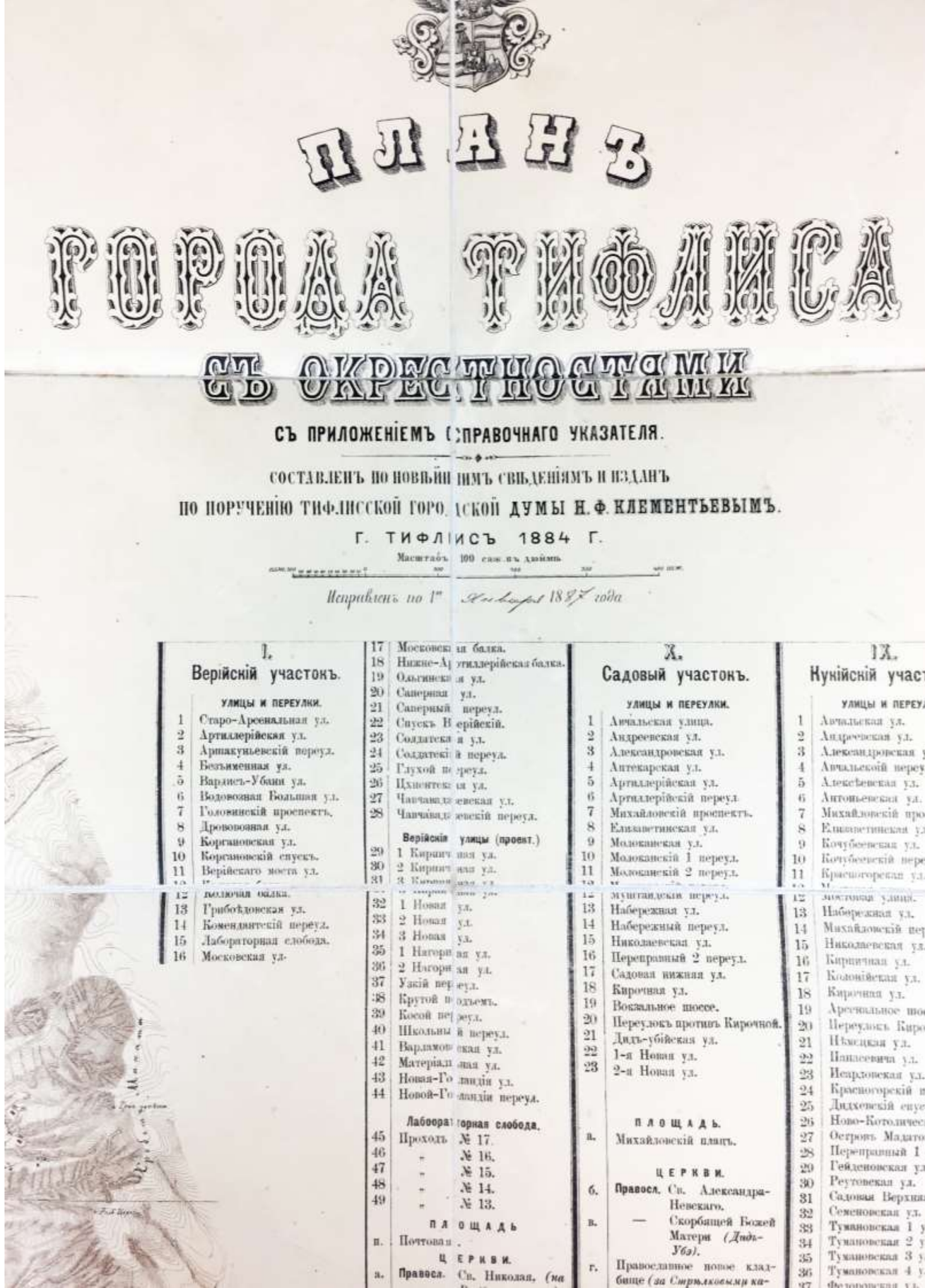
[accompanied by:]

NIKOLAI FEDOROVICH KLEMENTIEV (*d.* 1901).

Подробная справочная книжка г. Тифлиса. [Detailed Reference Book of Tiflis].

Tiflis (Tbilisi): I. Martirosyan, March 1884.

A stellar example of the original edition of the finest and most influential late 19th century map of Tiflis (today Tbilisi, Georgia), then the most important city in the Russian Caucuses, a large format and beautifully colour lithographed work, it depicts the city in great detail, published in Tiflis by the British printer Thomson, accompanied by a gazetteer issued in Tiflis by the Armenian printer Martirosyan, a seminal work on urbanism in Eurasia and a great monument of cartographic publishing in Georgia.




Листъ I.
ПЛАНЪ
ГОРОДА ТИФЛИСА
СЪ ОКРЕСТНОСТЯМИ
СЪ ПРИЛОЖЕНІЕМЪ СПРАВОЧНАГО УКАЗАТЕЛЯ
ПО ПОРУЧЕНІЮ ТИФЛИССКОЙ ГОРОДСКОЙ ДУМЫ Н. Ф. КАШЕНТЬЕВЫМЪ
Г. ТИФЛИСЪ 1884 Г.
ОБЪЯСНЕНІЕ ЗНАКОВЪ
Горы и скалы
Постройки
Сады
Церкви и Мечети
Кладбища (христ. и магомет.)
Реки и ручьи
Желѣзная дорога
Конно-Желѣзныя дороги
Шоссейныя дороги
Каменныя проѣзжія дороги
Обычныя полевыя дороги
Телеграфныя линіи
Границы полицейскихъ участковъ
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II. Сѣ. Давидовскій участокъ
III. Александровскій участокъ
IV. Авлабарскій участокъ
V. Садовый участокъ
VI. Механовскій участокъ
VII. Базарный участокъ
VIII. Четвертой участокъ
IX. Куйбышевскій участокъ
X. Ортачальскій участокъ
XI. Вронцовскій участокъ
XII. Кукійскій участокъ
XIII. Сѣверо-Западный участокъ
XIV. Сѣверо-Восточный участокъ
XV. Вокзальный участокъ
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Сады Ново-Базарные
Сады Ново-Четвертой
Сады Ново-Садовые

Colour lithographed map, dissected into 36 sections and mounted upon original linen with blue silk edging, measuring 107 x 104 cm (42 x 41 inches), accompanied by an 8° (18 x 14 cm) gazetteer, 79 pp. with exquisite gilt wrappers, both bound together in contemporary green cloth; map with former owner's handstamp of 'Ertuğrul Zekai Ökte', plus a much earlier manuscript inscription in Ottoman Turkish to verso (Very Good, map overall clean and bright with lovely colours, just a few minor stains, a few neat contemporary manuscript additions in Ottoman Turkish; accompanying pamphlet clean and crisp; old tack marks to corners of map cleanly permeating top blank margin of pamphlet, tiny cracks in the gutter of the front endpapers; cloth cover lightly worn and spotted).

This large format, brightly coloured map, dissected on original linen and edged in blue silk, is the seminal late 19th century map of Tiflis (since 1936, Tbilisi, today the capital of the Republic of Georgia), then the main political, military and cultural centre of the Russian Caucuses. It was drafted in the Russian language from the best surveys supplied by the city council by Nikolai Fedorovich Klementiev (*d*. 1901), a writer who specialized in local guides. The map was published in Tiflis by the firm of C. Thomson, one of the city's leading specialist printers of graphics, who was curiously of British origin. The map is accompanied by a charming gazetteer, locally printed by the Armenian publisher Martirosyan

Tiflis is an ancient city, located in a narrow valley on the Kura River, along a major branch of the Silk Road. In 1801, Russia conquered the Georgian Kingdom of Kartli-Kakheti, a client state of Persia, of which Tiflis was the capital. Over the succeeding decades the city grew in size and importance as capital of the Tbilisi Governate and the headquarters of the powerful Viceroy of the Caucuses. Tiflis soon grew out of its old city, which consisted of a dense warren of irregular streets, into new neighbourhoods with broad thoroughfares and parks, highlighted by the grand Golovin (today Rustaveli) Avenue completed in the 1840s, while magisterial public buildings were constructed, such as the Opera House (1851). A major boon to Tiflis was the opening of the Transcaucasus Railway, which connected Tiflis to the Black Sea port of Poti in 1872, and to Baku in 1883 (the year before the present map was issued), which brought Caspian oil money into the city. The 1883 census records Tiflis as having a population of 104,024.

Tiflis was known for its cultural diversity and the relative harmony (at least by Caucuses standards) under which its various ethnic groups got along. During the time that the present map was made, the city's population was almost 75% ethnic Armenian, while also having large communities of Georgians, Russians, Ossetians, Jews, Abkhazians, Greeks and Germans, amongst others. Indicative of Tiflis's cultural mosaic, the present map was drafted by a Russian, lithographed by a Briton, while the gazetteer was printed by an Armenian.

Focusing in on the map, it embraces the entire city of Tiflis and its environs, showing its place on the Kura River, with the hills rising steeply on both sides, with the elevation expressed by contour lines. Every street is marked and labelled, with the urban blocks coloured in pink, and parklands in green. The old city is conspicuous in the lower left centre, with its tight, irregular form, and it appears in sharp contrast to the new neighbourhoods beyond, with their more spacious, rational plan and grand edifices. The Transcaucasus Railway can be seen running to the east of the city, with the train station in the north, while Tiflis's street trams system is also detained.

The city is show divided into several numbered wards, while an extensive series of reference charts in the margins employs numbers to locate and specifically name hundreds of sites all across the city,

including public buildings (government offices, post offices, schools, hotels, etc.), entertainment venues, hotels, and businesses.

Klementiev's work was by far and away the most influential map of Tiflis of its era. In 1887, it was copied and republished at a reduced size in St. Petersburg by the Russian Empire's leading commercial map house, A. *Ilyin's Cartographic Establishment.*

The map is one of the largest and most impressive graphic works to have been printed in Tiflis during the 19th century, which was the most important publishing centre in the southern part of the Russian Empire. The map was beautifully colour lithographed by the firm of C. Thomson, a British immigrant whose biography remains mysterious. However, from the 1860s to the 1880s, Thomson published several books in Russian, while he also printed many illustrations inserted within works issued by other local printers. He 1882, he notably published a large map of the oil fields of the Absheron Peninsula, near Baku. While it might seem incredibly surprising that a British printer would set up shop in Tiflis, in actuality, more than a few British professionals and entrepreneurs enjoyed success in the Russian Empire during this era as they possessed skills that were locally scarce (the great industrial centre Donetsk, Ukraine was founded by a Welshman named John Hughes in 1869!).

The map is bound together with a lovely gem of a gazetteer, likewise authored by Klementiev, but printed by the local Armenian publisher Martirosyan. The 79-page work provides more information on all the sites marked on the map, as well as on Tiflis in general. The pamphlet is itself bound in gorgeous contemporary gilt wrappers.

Provenance

The present example of the map bears the former's owner's handstamp (to the verso of the map) of Ertuğrul Zekai Ökte (1929 - 2015), a prominent Turkish politician, lawyer and intellectual who amassed an exquisite private library.

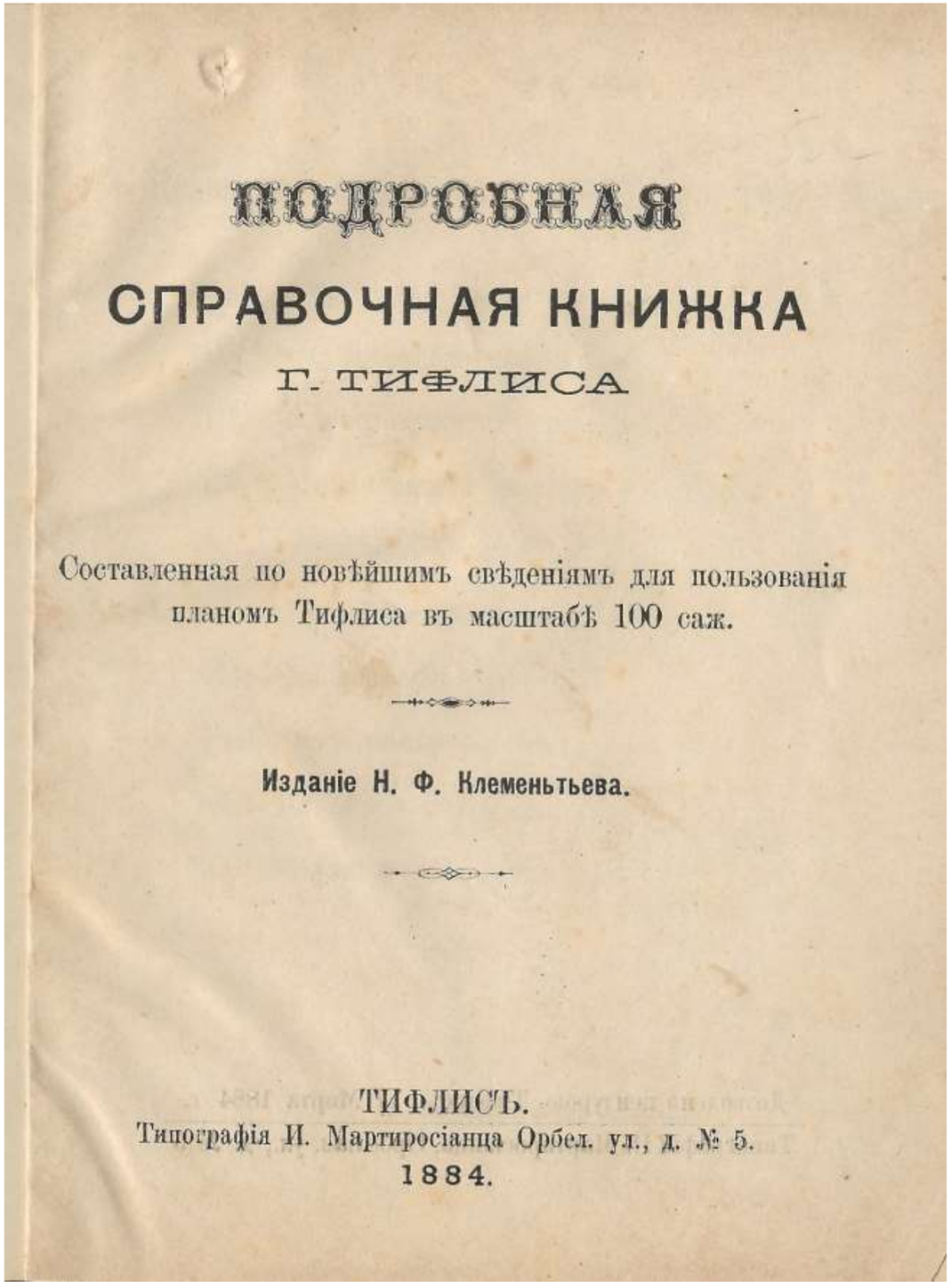
A Note on Rarity

The present map is exceedingly rare, we can trace only a single institutional example in the West, held by the Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin. We cannot trace any sales records in the West but are aware of another example appearing at a Russian auction.

The rarity of the map is no surprise, as it was a very expensive work that would have been issued in only a small print run. Moreover, its large size would have contributed towards its low survival rate. The present example is marquis, as it is in stellar condition, accompanied by its gazetteer.

References: Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin: Kart. X 49917/10 / OCLC: 1187159872.

SOLD


ПОДРОБНАЯ

СПРАВОЧНАЯ КНИЖКА

Г. ТИФЛИСА

Составленная по новѣйшимъ свѣденіямъ для пользованія планомъ Тифлиса въ масштабѣ 100 саж.

Изданіе Н. Ф. Клеменьтьева.

ТИФЛИСЪ.
Типографія И. Мартиросіанца Орбел. ул., д. № 5.
1884.

8. Czech Cartography
Czech National Revival

Josef ERBEN (1830-1910)

Title on the Map:

Politická a místopisná mapa Království českého

[Political and Geographical Map of the Czech Kingdom]

Title on the cover:

Politická a mistopisná mapa Čech

[Political and Geographical Map of Czechia]

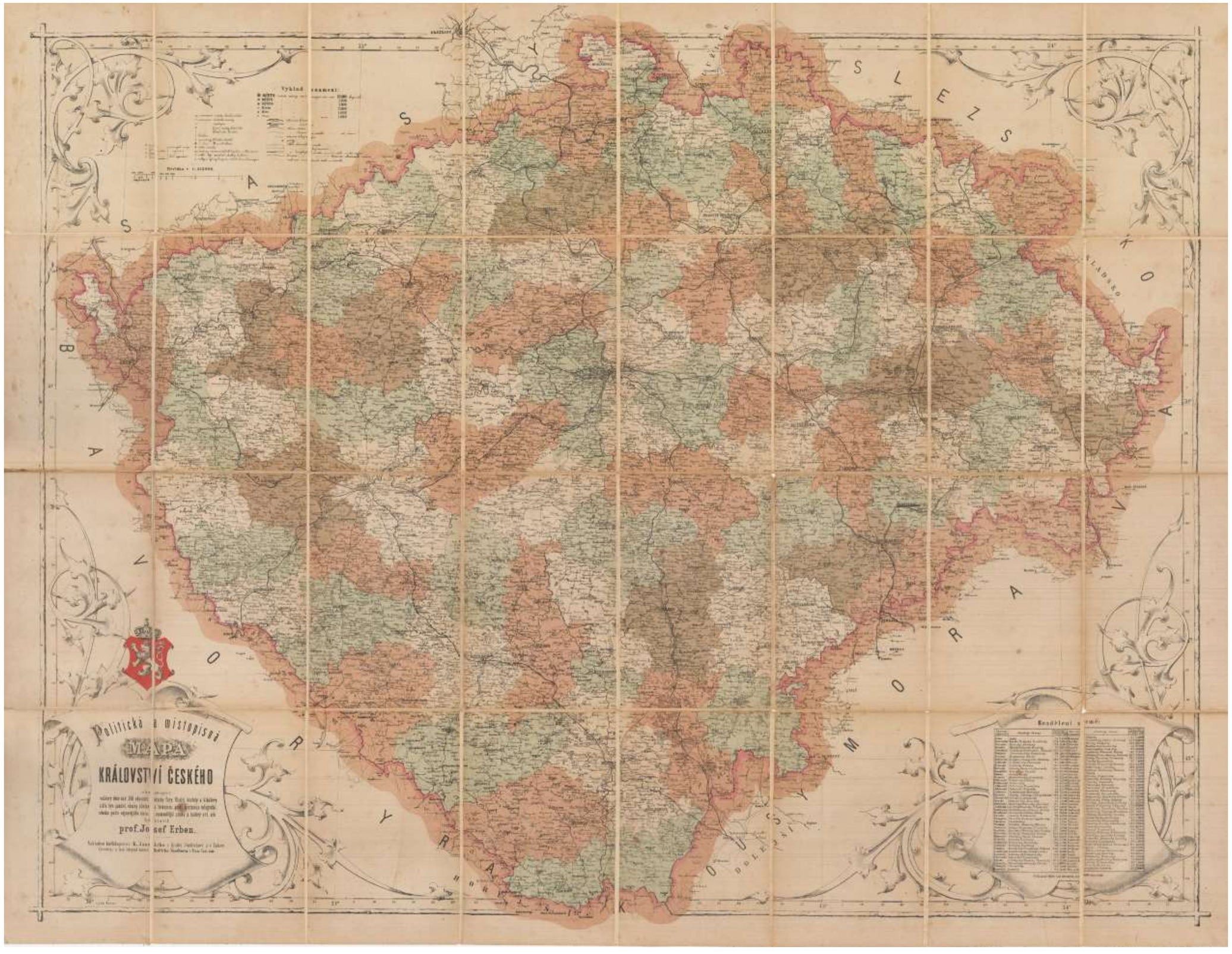
Jindrichuv Hradec – Tábor: K. Jansky - Prague: Bedrich Sandtner 1872

Colour lithograph, originally dissected in 32 segments and mounted on linen, in original linen binding with debossed and gilt title, 58 x 70 cm (22.8 x 27.6 inches) (minor staining, binding slightly rubbed, linen with tiny holes on crossings, minor sporadic annotations in pencil, overall in a good condition).

A detailed map of the Kingdom of Bohemia by the pioneer of the modern Czech cartography Josef Erben, who influenced the geographical terminology in other Slavic countries, was made in the time of the Czech national revival.

This large highly decorative map of the kingdom of Bohemia was made entirely in Czech language in the 1870s in the time of the Czech national revival. The map was first printed in 1869, in the time after the Austro-Hungarian Compromise of 1867, when the Czech crown did not became equal to the other two counties, and amid the Czech national revival, with a goal to strengthen the national identity and preserve the local language and history in printed forms.




Politická a místopisná
MAPA
KRÁLOVSTVÍ ČESKÉHO
prof. Josef Erbem.

This is an enlarged version, with an in-set map of Prague, and updated information. Correction and new symbols have been added to the legend. A thick red line inside the borders of the Bohemian kingdom on our map, not printed in the previous version, marks the division between the German and Czech inhabited areas.

Josef Erben – The Pioneer of the Czech Cartographic Terminology

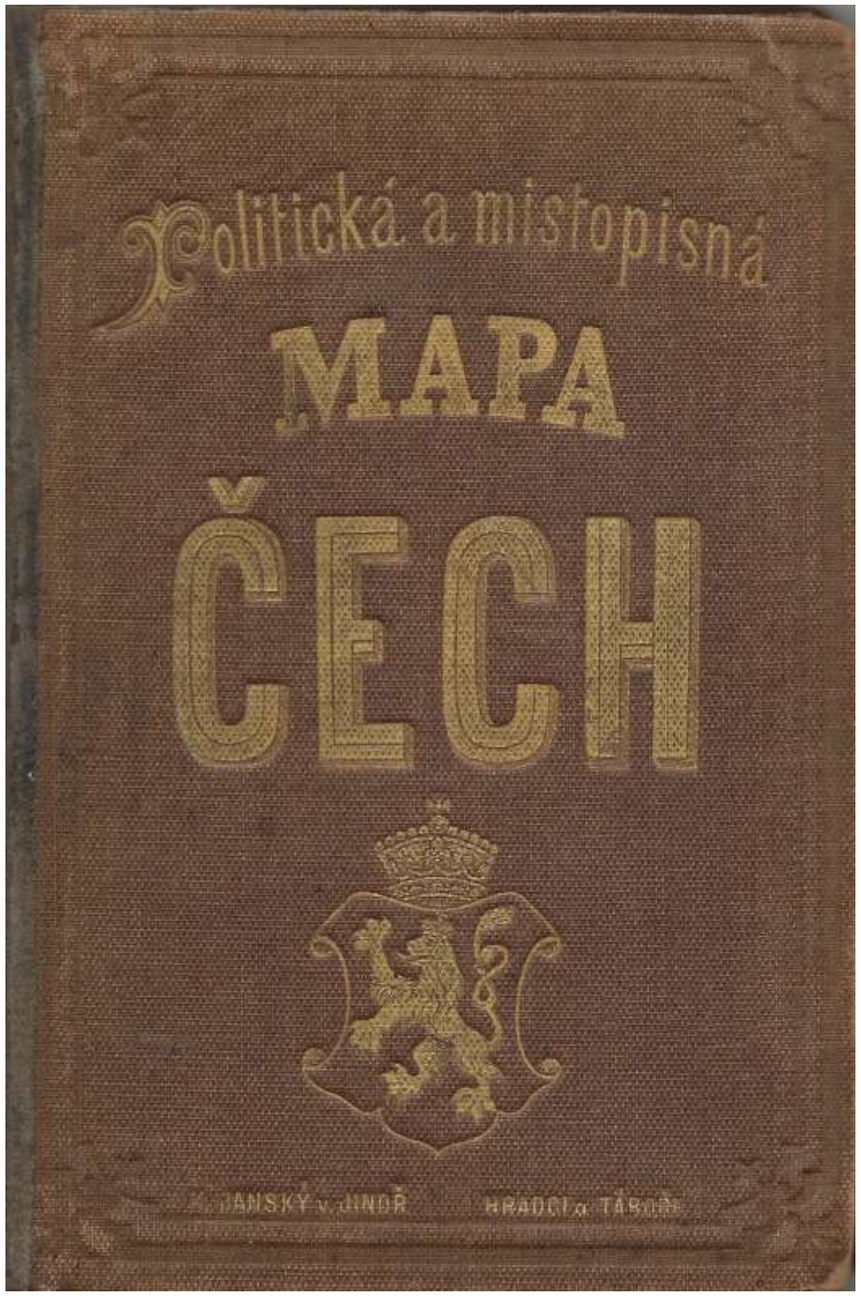
The author Josef Erben (1830-1908) started his career as a gymnasium professor, worked between 1862-1875 as a docent for statistics at the polytechnical institute and from 1865 as the curator of the map department of maps in the National Museum. In 1870, Erben was promoted to the director of the statistic office of the city of Prague, where he remained until his death. He was well connected with large contemporary cartographic and geographic centers, such as Paris and London. J

osef Erben’s most remarkable woks are detailed maps in Czech language, based on the latest surveys and statistic data. For that Erben had to invent contemporary terminology in his native language, as the maps of Bohemia until then were printed in German language.

Erben’s terminology was highly influential on other Slavic countries, such as Slovenia, which were at the time amid their national revival. They used his newly invented Slavic terms as the basis for their own terminology.

References: OCLC 494797869, 1177058444, 921704981. David Rumsey Map Collection (11758.000).

850 EUR



9. WWII Eastern Front
Battle of Stalingrad



GENERALSTAB DES HEERES, ABTEILUNG FÜR KREIGSKARTEN UND VERMESSUNGSWESEN.

Stadtplan von Stalingrad.

Berlin: Generalstab des Heeres, August 1942.

Colour print, printed on both sides (bi-chrome recto, polychrome verso), with some details outlined in contemporary manuscript in pencil, crayon and pen, rolled (Very Good, clean and bright, some light marginal creasing, small old paint stain to margin of verso), 90 x 70 cm (35.5 x 27.5 inches).

Extremely rare and historically important – the definitive classified map used by Wehrmacht commanders at the Battle of Stalingrad (August 23, 1942 – February 2, 1943), the turning point of World War II; a large format, extremely detailed map of Stalingrad city noting all major buildings and strategic targets predicated upon recent aerial reconnaissance, the verso featuring a regional map with extensive intelligence notes; an early edition issued on the eve of the epic showdown which destroyed the city, resulting in 2 million casualties and hailing the beginning of the end of the Nazis' ambitions in the East.

Mil-Geo-Karte, Ausgabe Nr. 2, Stand 1. VIII. 42
Osteuropa 1:300000

Sonderausgabe

D 49 Stalingrad

STALINGRAD

Leninsk

Tschernyschew

V – VII

V – VII

Zeichenerklärung:

BAKU

Pskow

Selenk

Planzeiger

Deutsche Siedlungen (vor 1939:
(Ob dort jetzt noch Deutsche vorhanden sind, ist nicht bekannt)

Lage:

zerstreut: ▲ bis 100 Einwohner

dicht: ■ über 100 Einwohner

Grundlagen der Mil-Geo-Bearbeitung:

Siehe Sonderkarte auf der Rückseite

Mil.-Geo.-Bearbeitung durch Gen.St.d.H., Abt.f.Kr.K. u. Vorm.Wes.(IV. Mil.-Geo.)

Mi D 49 Stalingrad
Objektverzeichnis

1 Bezirks-Regierungssitz, Weltausstellung B 1

2 Einwohner-Ackerbau, 1926 Einw. (1932), Tuchmanufaktur, Handelsschule und Metallverarbeitung B 4

3 Leninsk, Tuchmanufaktur, Metallverarbeitung, Konservenfabrik C 4

4 Bez. Tschernyschew, Tuchmanufaktur, Abbau von Mineralien (Steinsalz) C 7

5 Wladimirowka, 7292 Einw. (1932), Weltausstellung und Schwerpunktgebiet, Schuhfabriken, 200 Industriebetriebe, Tuchmanufaktur D 6

6 Bez. Ackerbau, Handwerksbau und Metallverarbeitung D 9

7 Fernsprechwerk, Tuchmanufaktur, El.-W. (100 kv-Netz PW), Metallverarbeitung und Metallverarbeitung D 9

8 Tschernyj Jar, 5118 Einw. (1932), Weltausstellung E 11

9 Konservenfabrik, Mol. E 3

10 Bezirk Tschernyschew, Wasserwerke E 7

Nazi Germany invaded the Soviet Union in June 1941 in what was known as *Operation Barbarossa*, a 'Blitzkreig' (Lightening Warfare) campaign that sought to conquer all of the country west of the 'A-A Line' (the imagined meridian running from Archangel down the Astrakhan). The Germans were highly confident as the same techniques of rapid, mechanized warfare had practically mowed down France the year before. However, the Wehrmacht severely underestimated the extraordinary bravery and self-sacrifice of the Red Army troops and the severity of the Russian climate. By the end of the 1941 campaign season, while Germany had conquered much of Ukraine and a good part of European Russia, it fell well short of its goal, failing to take Moscow or reach the Caucuses. Both sides were incredibly exhausted, having lost astounding amounts of men and equipment.

During the 1942 campaign season, the Nazis pursued *Case Blue*, a high-risk/high-reward strategy that aimed to seize the Baku Oil Fields, the realization of which would abundantly fuel the German war machine, while dealing a knockout blow to Soviets. However, the amount of blood and treasure required promised to strain Germany to its extreme limits, risking not only its ambitions in the East, but also its dominant position in Western Europe.

In the summer 1942, Case Blue saw good early progress, with the Germans crossing the Don River and gradually taking over the northwestern Caucuses. However, to the back of these gains was a major obstacle that had to be overcome.

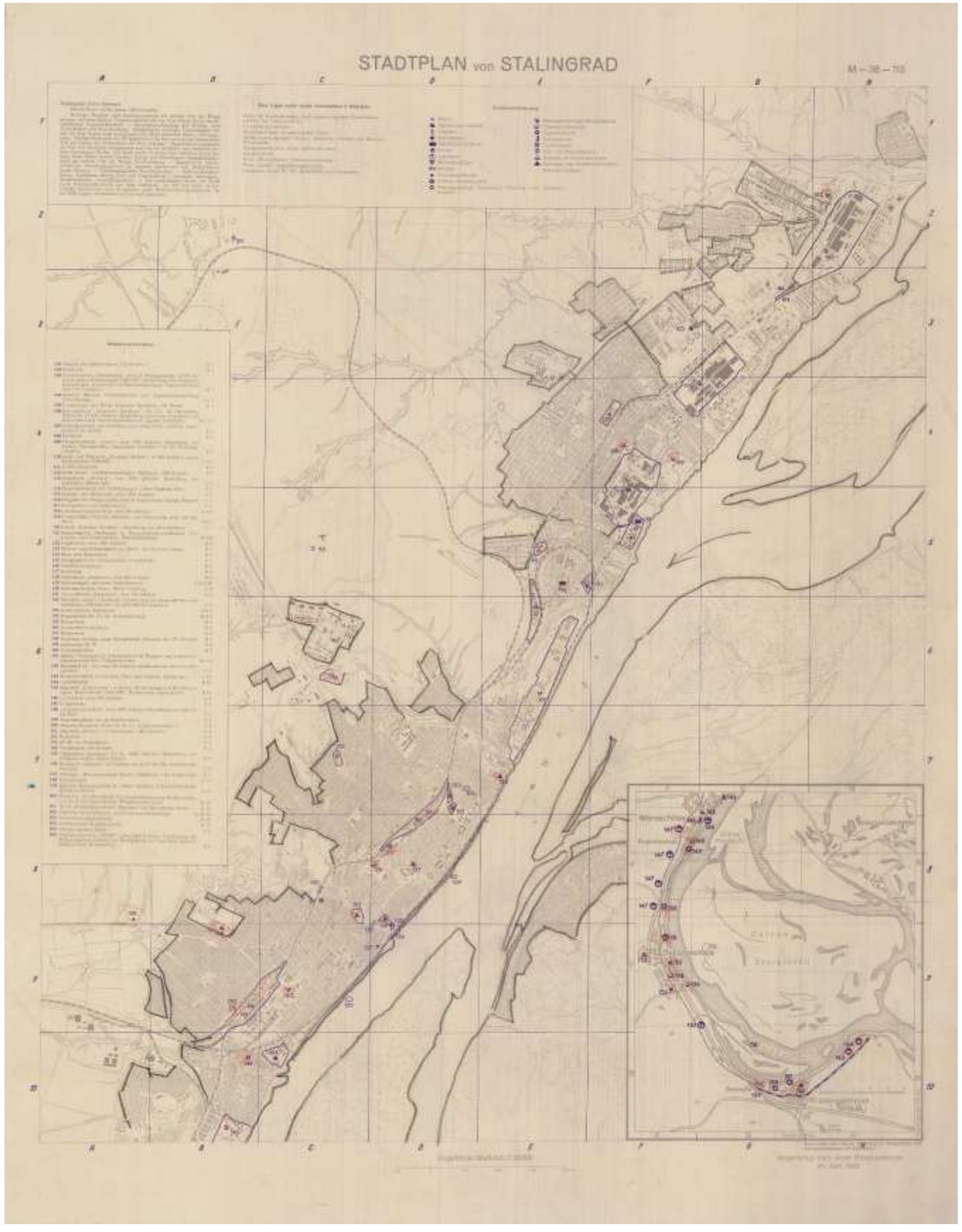
Stalingrad (today Volgograd) was a colossally important industrial centre of almost half a million residents along the southwestern bend of the mighty Volga River. The seizure of the city was considered absolutely necessary for the Nazis to progress towards Astrakhan and Baku.

In anticipation of a German attack upon the city, Joseph Stalin ordered its vast stores of food and provisions to be transported east, while cruelly forcing 400,000 of its civilian residents to remain in Stalingrad as fodder to aid the defense, while 187,000 Red Army troops were left to hold the city.

The Wehrmacht, spearheaded by the 6th Army and the 4th Panzer Army (and supported by corps of their Romanian, Hungarian and Croatian allies), attacked Stalingrad on August 23, 1942 with a force of 270,000 troops backed by massive air support. During ferocious combat and intense bombing which destroyed most of the city, the Germans managed to push the Soviets into a narrow corridor along the western bank of the Volga yet failed to evict them from the city. Recognizing the importance of the showdown, each side moved in forces that eventually numbered over 1 million each. The ensuing street by street fighting was inarguably one of the most horrendous military experiences of all time, while the suffering of the civilian population was indescribable, so many were killed, while others were enslaved by the Germans.

A brutal stalemate continued until the Soviets launched *Operation Uranus*, a massive push to expel or destroy the German forces in Stalingrad. The offensive was launched on November 12, 1942 and concentrated upon hitting the Axis flanks, which were largely manned by poorly equipped Romanian troops. This succeeded brilliantly, as the Soviets surged forward to encircle 265,000 Axis troops in the city centre.

Winter set in, bringing bone-chilling temperatures, with the entrapped Germans running out of food, fuel, ammunition and warm clothing. Hitler refused to allow the encircled troops to attempt a breakout, as he insisted that the city must be held at all costs. Efforts by the German army and Luftwaffe to open a relief corridor failed. After enduring unimaginably horrendous conditions, what remained of the entrapped German forces surrendered to the Soviets on February 2, 1943. In the end, the Axis side had lost over 850,000 men, while the Soviets suffered 1.15 million casualties.



The Battle of Stalingrad proved to be the turning point of World War II. The defeat shattered the illusion that Germany was destined to win the war, and it depleted their forces so dramatically that the Wehrmacht never recovered. From that point onwards, the Germans were always on the defensive, with the Red Army constantly pushing them westwards. The Allied invasion of Italy, commencing in August 1943, saw the Third Reich fighting on two fronts, and its fate was sealed upon the Allied landings in France in June 1944. The last year of the war was merely the Third Reich's attempt to delay the inevitable, for history's most evil empire fell in May 1945.

The Map in Focus

The present work was by far and away the best and most important map of Stalingrad available to the German high command. It was separately issued in Berlin by the Department of War Mapping and Surveying of the General Staff of the German Army in early August 1942, only days before the Wehrmacht attacked Stalingrad (the verso of the map notes that it was updated to August 1, 1942). The present example is an early, and perhaps the first, edition of the map (such WWII German maps, despite their obvious importance, are not well researched), with revised editions being issued during the following months. The map would have been considered highly classified due to the vast amount of militarily sensitive information it contains, and its circulation would have been strictly limited to senior Axis field commanders and military planners.

The work is printed double-sided, with a large-scale bi-chrome map of the city of Stalingrad proper on the recto, while the verso features a regional map. Both maps are jam-packed with vast amounts of valuable recent intelligence, backed up the be extensive marginal text.

The map on the front side, the *Stadtplan von Stalingrad*, depicts the entire city in amazing detail, to scale of 1:20,000. A note in the lower right reads: 'Angefertigt nach einer Bildplanskizze im Juni 1942', revealing that the map was based on a 'bildskizze' (picture sketch) composed of aerial photographs taken by the Luftwaffe in June 1942 (the German air force made frequent risky reconnaissance flights deep into Soviet-held territory in advance of anticipated German land operations).

The main map shows that the city of Stalingrad occupied a long, narrow strip along the west bank of the mighty Volga. Every street and block are outlined, with all buildings and facilities of any import are depicted, notably including the immense number of large factories, warehouses and related infrastructure, which are coloured in purple to distinguish them from the otherwise grisaille urban plan. The inset in the lower right corner extends the map's coverage to embrace the southern extremity of the city that hooked around the bend of the Volga.

The 'Zeichenerklärung' (Explanation of Symbols), in the upper left, identifies bridges, military buildings, hospitals, public buildings, schools, warehouses, fuel storage depots, trains stations, utility company facilities, heavy metal factories, important machine parts and transport factories, minor metalworks, chemical plants, tire factories, leather factories, textile firms, wood and paper plants, stone and gravel works and food processing plants.

The 'Objectverziechnis' (Object Directory), on the left side, labels 65 key industrial sites (numbered 101 to 165), often by name and providing the number of workers employed by each. These facilities would be the main targets for the German Army and Luftwaffe during the upcoming battle, as destroying the factories would severely harm the Soviet Union's military-industrial output, while salvaging any useful equipment or products could aid the German war effort.

In the upper centre the 'Lage nach nicht feststellbare Objekte', features a list of places for which their exact locations could not be determined.

The descriptive paragraph in the upper right corner notes that Stalingrad had population of 445,470 (1939), of which 1,580 were ethnic Germans (being 'Volga Germans', descendants of those who moved to the area in the 18th century), whom the Nazis hoped to use as local allies and intelligence assets, while going on to give descriptions of some of the city's key attributes.

On the map, the riverbanks have been contemporarily outlined in dark grey crayon and pen, while many of the key industrial targets are highlighted in orange crayon, supposedly added by German officers to lend contrast to the map in the field.

The verso of the work features the *Mil-Geo-Karte* of *Stalingrad*, a regional map taken from Sheet D49 of the German General Staff's map, *Osteuropa 1:300,000*; the present view is described as being updated to August 1, 1942. The map embraces the area of the great bend of the Volga, with the city of Stalingrad on the left side, and the river flowing in the direction of Astrakhan and the Caspian Sea. All roads and the railway along the eastern bank of the Volga (which is noted as still being under construction), running from Stalingrad towards Astrakhan, are delineated. The 'Zeichenerklärung' on the right margin, identifies numerous features, while the 'Objectverziechnis' (Object Directory) give the coordinates for ten important industrial sites located in the countryside beyond Stalingrad. Symbols note the locations of the 'Deutsche Siedlungen' (Volga German Settlements), while the extensive text along the left side grants detailed descriptions of the region's topography, geology, climate (midwinter temperatures averaged -9.9°C!), water systems (the level of the Volga), transport routes and the economy.

A Note on Editions and Rarity

The map, in any of its editions, is exceedingly rare. Examples would have been issued in very small print runs for the classified use of only senior Axis commanders. Moreover, the map would have had a very low survival rare, especially considering its use in the brutal conditions of the Stalingrad battle theatre.

We cannot trace any other examples of the present early (August 1942) edition of the map, either in institutional collections or sales records. However, we have been able to find internet references to a couple of later, modified editions, held in unspecified Russian libraries. While there are probably a handful of other examples of various editions in German institutions, we have not been able to locate any references (many German World War II archives are not well catalogued).

Also, of note, the Library of Congress holds a map likewise entitled *Stadtplan von Stalingrad*, described as a blueprint, that seems to be related to the present work.

References: Cf. (re: related blueprint map:) Library of Congress: OCLC: 53254354.

SOLD

10. Ottoman Geological Map

Damat KENAN & Ahmet Malik SAYAR (1892 - 1965).

سی خریطه ارض علم اناطولی [Geological Map of Anatolia].

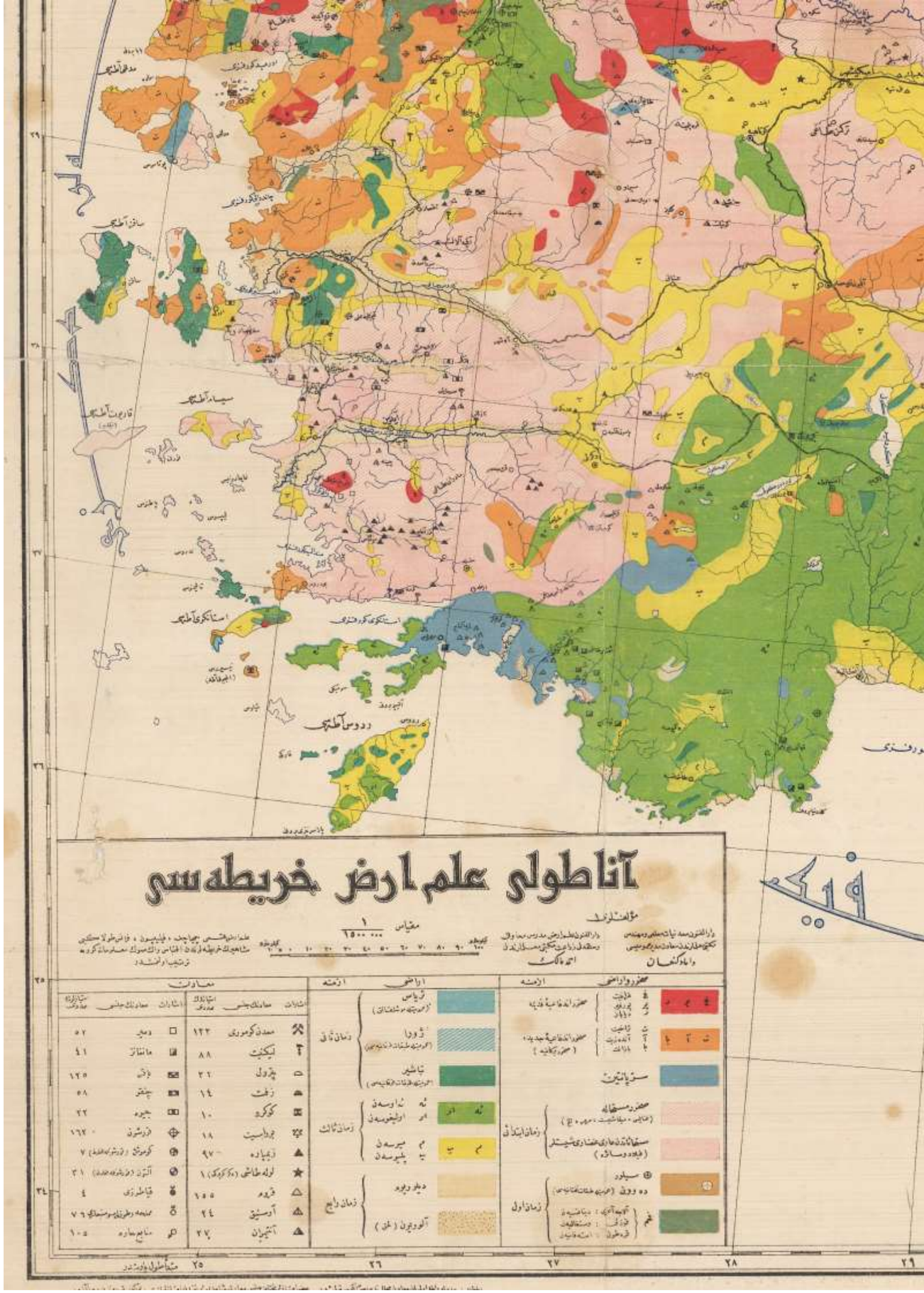
Constantinople: Matbaa-ı Amire, 1336 (Rumi Calendar) [1920].

Colour lithograph (lovely rich original colours, light staining, light wear along the vertical folds), 69 x 91.5 cm (27 x 36 inches).

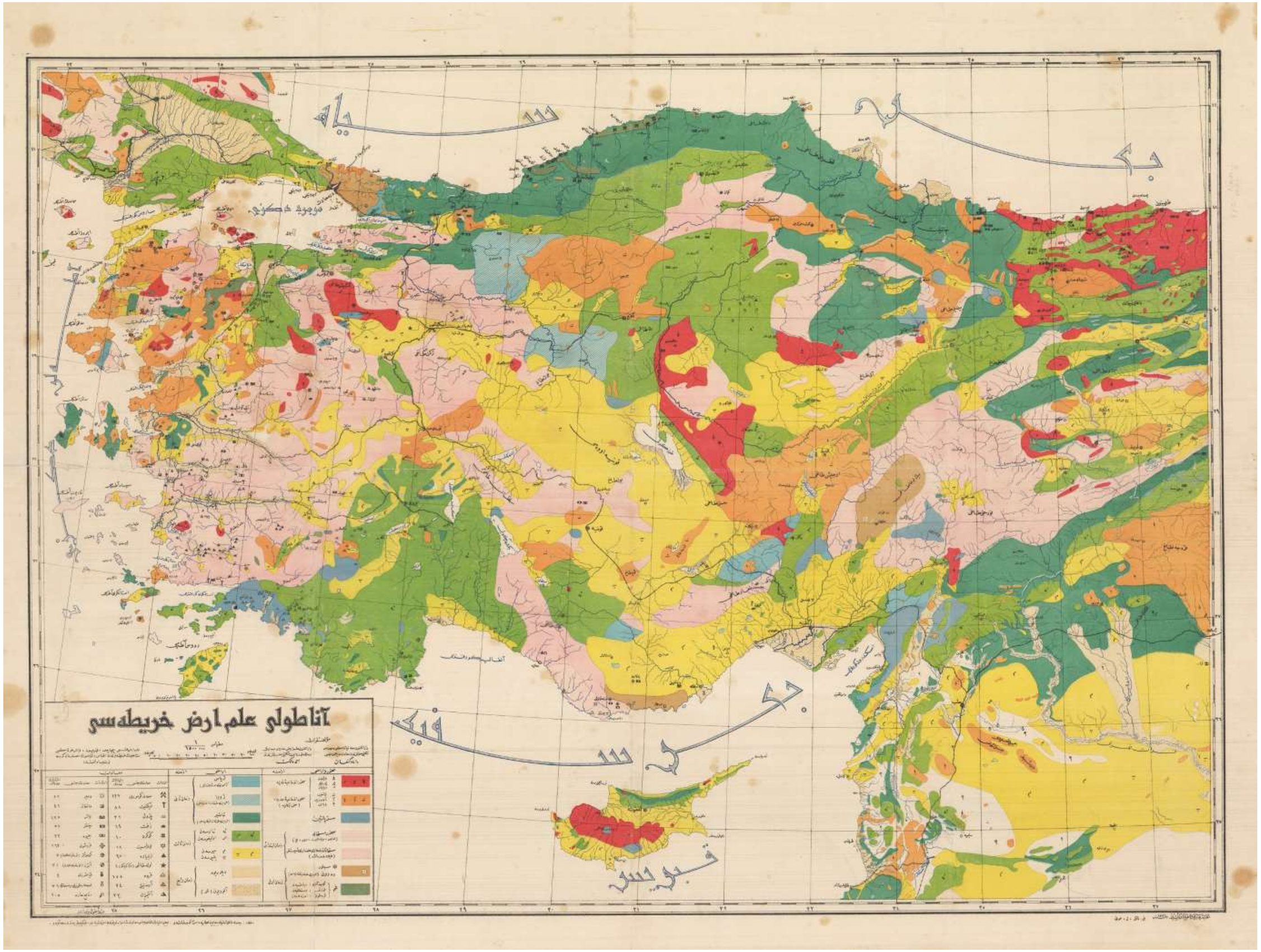
Rare and Important – the first proper geological map of Turkey; a large, separately published work created by the professors Damat Kenan and Ahmet Malik Sayar, issued by the imperial printer in 1920 during the twilight of the Ottoman Empire, forming the foundation for scientific and commercial discovery during the upcoming Turkish Republican Era; printed in Ottoman Turkish text with resplendent original colours.

This rare, large-format separately published work is the first comprehensive geological map of Turkey. Based upon the most recent and accurate field reconnaissance, it was compiled by the prominent academics Damat Kenan and Ahmet Malik Sayer, and was published by the Matbaa-ı Amire, the imperial state printer, in 1920, on the eve of the collapse of the Ottoman Empire.

With text entirely in Ottoman Turkish script, and employing especially rich lithographed colours, the map embraces the western three-quarters of Anatolia (to a point just to the east of Trabzon); all of Cyprus; parts of Northern Syria and Lebanon, to a point south down just past Homs and Tripoli; as well as Eastern Thrace. The map brilliantly showcases the unusually complex geology of the region which lies along the Alpine-Himalayan tectonic belt, identifying 14 distinct geological zones, each coloured in their own resplendent hue. Additionally, symbols identify innumerable locations of mineral deposits,



آناطولی علم ارض خریطه سی



mines and quarries concerning 22 different minerals. Importantly, it notes the locations of major harbours, as well as delineating the region's railroads (including the largely complete Baghdad Railway, which was to connect Constantinople with Baghdad), which were vital to bringing minerals to market.

While geological maps of certain Turkish locales, as well as rough geological sketch maps of the greater region already existed, the present work provides the first comprehensive and accurate overview of the geology and mining industry in Anatolia and adjacent regions. It formed the foundation for the study of geology, as well as a key for resource development in Turkey over the coming years.

Notably, the present map vitally assisted the production of the first statistical-mining atlas of Turkey, اطلاسي احصائياتي معدن [Maden Ihsaiyati Atlasi / Mining Atlas of Turkey] (Ankara, 1924).

Historical Context: The Rise of Turkey out of the Ottoman Ashes

While World War I (1914-8) prefigured the demise of the Ottoman Empire, it is a common Western misconception that Turkey simply 'collapsed' and resigned itself to defeat. On the contrary, while most Turks accepted that the Ottoman Empire, with its vast Arab-majority provinces, was not to survive, they were reenergised by the dream of creating a new nation focused upon Constantinople and Anatolia. While the victorious Entente Powers (mainly Britain, France and Italy, along with Greece) vowed to dismember Anatolia into zones of foreign occupation, many Turks had other ideas.

Mustafa Kemal Pasha (1881 - 1938), later known as 'Atatürk', a former Ottoman army officer and hero of the Gallipoli Campaign, rallied Turkish nationalist forces during the Turkish War of Independence (1919-22). By 1922, he succeeded in both removing the foreign occupation of Anatolia, Constantinople and Eastern Thrace, while abolishing the Ottoman Empire. In 1923, he proclaimed the Republic of Turkey, serving as its folding president for the next 15 years, whereby he did much to modernize and strengthen the new nation. He is rightly remembered as one of the most visionary and successful World leaders of the 20th Century.

The present map, while still made under the outgoing Ottoman regime, was created with the new 'Kemalist' can-do spirit in mind. Turkish intellectuals, such as Kenan and Sayar, knew that the new Turkish state that would arise out of the ashes of the Ottoman Empire, would need to exploit its significant natural resource wealth to build a modern industrial economy, to both keep the people employed and to support the military. The present map would have been vitally useful for strategic planning, to identify the locations of mines and quarries, as well as the means of transporting minerals to refineries and markets.

Curiously, the present map omits the easternmost quarter of Anatolia. This is since the political fate of the region was then disputed, while it was difficult for geologists to survey the area. In 1920, the France and Britain still claimed zones of influence over the area, while promising to give much of it to an independent Armenian state. Moreover, the location of the Soviet boundary in the region was still in doubt. As it would turn out, Atatürk would settle the location of the Soviet-Turkish boundary with Lenin in 1921, while placing almost all Eastern Anatolia under Turkish rule, a reality internationally recognized by 1923.

The authors of the map were the most respected authorities on mining and geology of their era. Damat Kenan, was a professor of mining at the Darülfünun (later known as the University of Istanbul). He co-authored the map with his younger colleague, Ahmet Malik Sayar (1892 - 1965), then a lecturer at the Darülfünun, as well as an instructor at the Halkalı School of Agriculture. The French-educated Sayar, who went on the publish numerous seminal academic studies, was subsequently recognized at the greatest Turkish geologist of the 20th Century.

A Note on Rarity

The present map is very rare; we can only trace one institutional example outside of Turkey (David Rumsey Map Collection).

References: SALT Research Centre (Istanbul): APLAMK001; Şahap Nazmi Coşkunlar, *Yeni yayınlar: Aylik bibliyografya dergisi*, vols. 10-11 (1965), p. 385. Cf. On Professor Sayar: https://www.jmo.org.tr/resimler/ekler/827d1ec626c891d_ek.pdf

1.400 EUR

11. World War II- Battle Of Kiev (1941)
Operation Barbarossa
Extraordinary Aerial Photographic Map Made
In The Battle Theatre



VERMESSUNGS- UND KARTEN-ABTEILUNG (MOT.) 608. [GERMAN ARMY - MOTORIZED SURVEYING & MAP DETACHMENT 608].

Bildplanskizze der Stadt Kiew 1:20 000.

[Ukraine, near Kiev:] Vermessungs- Und Karten-Abteilung (Mot.) 608, August 1941.

Photographic print on glossy photographic paper, on 4 sheets joined horizontally in pairs, thus forming 2 unjoined sections (Fair, work is substantially complete but has numerous short marginal tears and chips with small loss and surface abrasions in upper and lower righthand corners, also a 4 x 5 cm hole of loss in the middle of lower left quadrant and some other short tears without loss), north section: 48.5 x 108 cm (19 x 42.5 inches), south section: 44 x 108 cm (17.5 x 42.5 inches); would if joined measure: 81 x 108 cm (32 x 42.5 inches).

Seemingly unrecorded – a spectacular large format photographic map of Kiev, made on the eve of the WWII Battle of Kiev (August-September 1941), whereby the Nazis captured the city after an epic month-long contest against the Red Army; created from aerial photographs taken by reconnaissance officers aboard Luftwaffe planes, which were then edited and photographically printed at the local Wehrmacht headquarters, near Kiev, by a German Army 'Motorized Surveying & Map Detachment', bearing signs of field use - an amazing artefact from one the seminal events along the Eastern Front.

Bildplanskizze der Stadt KIEW

Maßst. 1:20000



Nazi Germany invaded the Soviet Union in June 1941 in what was known as *Operation Barbarossa*, a 'Blitzkrieg' (Lightening Warfare) campaign that sought to conquer all of the country west of the 'A-A Line' (the imagined meridian running from Archangel down to Astrakhan). The Germans were highly confident as the same techniques of rapid, mechanized warfare had practically mowed down France the year before. However, the Wehrmacht severely underestimated the extraordinary bravery and self-sacrifice of the Red Army troops and the severity of the Russian climate. The campaign resulted in several titanic battles involving hundreds of thousands of troops on each side, and while the Germans usually prevailed, they did so always at great cost, with each showdown delaying their progress eastwards and depleting their strength. Meanwhile, the Soviets seemed to be able to transcend unimaginable loss and suffering without losing their resolve; the Nazis eventually learned the hard way that they could not do the same.

The Battle of Kiev (August 23 - September 26, 1941), often called the First Battle of Kiev, so as not to confuse it with another showdown in 1943, was one the great events of *Operation Barbarossa*. During the vicious month-long contest, the Wehrmacht encircled the Soviet Union's third most important city, capturing or destroying the entire Soviet Southwestern Front Army. The battle has the distinction of being the largest encirclement (in terms of number of troops involved) in military history.

To give an idea of the scope of the battle, the Germans dedicated 544,00 troops, consisting of 9 armoured divisions (with a heavy emphasis on tanks) and 25 infantry divisions, to the contest, while the city was defended by an elaborate series of fortifications and a Red Army force that initially numbered of 627,000 men. The Luftwaffe and the Germans' heavy artillery systematically pounded the strategic infrastructure and military locations within the city in an effort to soften up resistance, but this did not bear fruit, as the Soviets bravely resisted, rushing in more troops to replenish their strength. However, the Wehrmacht pressed hard and managed to completely encircle Kiev while raising the tempo of their bombardment. The Soviets' situation was hopeless, and at the end of the battle the Germans captured 452,700 Red Army troops, and 2,642 Soviet artillery pieces, along with 64 tanks. Beyond that, horrifically, the Red Army suffered around 700,000 casualties!

The Battle of Kiev was a shocking defeat for the Soviets, and while certainly a great technical victory for the Germans, its place in the greater war remains debatable. While the Germans suffered 61,000 casualties and did not lose too much equipment, the month-long battle slowed the Wehrmacht's progress towards the Volga River. In fact, when the battle concluded, at the end of September, winter on the Steppes was nigh. It would be argued that the Soviet's tremendous sacrifice at Kiev did much to ensure that by the end of the 1941 campaign season, while Germany had conquered much of Ukraine and a good part of European Russia, it fell well short of its goals, failing to take Moscow or reach the Caucuses.

During the 1942 campaign season, the Nazis pursued *Case Blue*, a high-risk/high-reward strategy that aimed to seize the Baku Oil Fields, but as we all know today, this would end in their disastrous defeat at the Battle of Stalingrad (August 23 – February 2, 1942), which hailed the beginning of the end of the Third Reich.

The Present Map in Focus

The present work is a large format image made in August 1941, immediately before the Wehrmacht attacked Kiev. As will be explored in more detail below, the map was made from photos taken by German military reconnaissance officers aboard high-altitude Luftwaffe flights over Kiev. The raw photos were then edited and prepared onto the present work by a German Army 'Motorized Surveying & Map Detachment' working at the local army headquarters outside of Kiev, where the present map was photographically printed. The map is the most accurate and up to date cartographic view of Kiev would have been directly consulted by the German High Command when preparing their attack, while also serving as a critical source for improving conventional military maps.

The photographic map showcases the entire city of Kiev (the city proper had a population of 930,000 in 1940) and its environs. As shown, the city lies on the western bank of the mighty Dnieper River, surrounded on all sides by farmland. The street pattern of the old city, with its dense, irregular blocks and bastions, is clearly visible, and it sharply contrasts with that of the more modern midtown, which follows a rational grid-pattern of wider thoroughfares; while the low-density suburbs fan out into the countryside.

All major topographical features and works of infrastructure are clearly visible, and the utility of the map is aided by the overlay of the white grid for rendering coordinates. On the map, the names of various key features and military targets have been drawn in in white lettering, including the 'Dnjeper' (Dnieper River, with an arrow showing its course); 'Umgehungsbahn' (bypass road); 'Eisenbahnbrücke' (railway bridge); 'Hafen' (harbour on the Dnieper); 'Zitadelle' (Citadelle / old fort complex); 'Hauptbahnhof' (railway station); 'Güterbahnhof' (rail freight depot); 'Flughafen' (airport); as well as marking the roads or railways leading out of the city towards various locations, including Odessa, Zhitomir, Vasylkiv and Borvary. Also, many other potential targets are clearly identified, including fortifications, factories, warehouses, military marshalling yards, as well as places such as sports stadiums.

Of great importance, unlike all the other maps that the Germans had access to, the *Bildskizze* shows the scene in real time, noting many recent changes the Soviets may have made to the landscape or military or civilian infrastructure. For examples, the map reveals all sorts of recent and intense activity around the airport, as well as signs of heavy construction (defensive works) across the Dnieper from the city. A trained eye would surely be able to tease out dozens of more interesting details.

To the point, the present map provided a wealth of information to the Wehrmacht High Command, as they planned their next moves, that would not have been available on any other map.

Made in the Battle Theatre: The Fascinating Story of How and Where the 'Bildplanskizze' was Made

Upon the outset of *Operation Barbarossa*, the Wehrmacht went to great lengths to acquire the most recent Soviet maps of potential battle zones, in many cases reprinting them at the German Army General Staff's ultra-modern press in Berlin. While the Soviet maps tended to be of very high quality, they intentionally omitted much military information, such as the locations of most defensive works, while the Red Army had made so many changes to the landscape and military infrastructure all across the country that even the best printed maps in the possession of the Germans left much to be desired. The Wehrmacht needed much more detailed and up-to-date information for operational planning. In some instances, they gained this intelligence from human assets, but in other cases they had to go out and acquire it for themselves.

Throughout World War II, the Wehrmacht operated numerous *Vermessungs- und Karten-Abteilung (Motorisiert)*, which roughly translates to 'Motorized Surveying and Map Detachments'. These highly sophisticated units were manned by skilled surveyors, draftsmen and printing technicians, and often (but

Hafen

Hauptbahnhof

Güterbahnhof

Zitadelle

Eisenbahnbrücke

not always) travelled in specially-fitted train cars that contained drafting/photography studios and advanced printing presses, while in other cases the equipment was transported to fixed locations in Nazi-controlled territories where a temporary publishing house was established. The places where the Detachments operated printing presses were called 'Armee-Kartenstelle' (Army Map Sites).

The Motorized Map Detachments were usually assigned to and followed the progress of specific army corps and their workshops could be instantly set up close to battle fronts, where new maps could be made, or existing maps updated, predicated upon fresh aerial reconnaissance and field intelligence. In many cases, new maps could be generated within hours of fresh information arriving at the Armee-Kartenstelle.

Of particular relevance to the present work, the *Vermessungs- und Karten-Abteilung (Motorisiert)* often sent skill mapping photographers up on high-altitude Luftwaffe reconnaissance flights to take photographs that could be edited into 'bildskizze' at the Armee-Kartenstelle, photographically printed, and then given immediately to field commanders. The bildskizze would otherwise be used by draftsmen to improve conventional printed maps.

The exact circumstances of the production of the present work is described by the text written in the box on the lower right corner reads:

'Angerfertigt nach Luftbildern der von Koluft 6 aufgenommenen Filme Nr. 10R, 54, 55, 57, 292, 299, 346 und 402 durch die K. Batterie (Bildzug) der Verm. u. Ka. Abteilung (mot.) 608 im August 1941.

Das schwarze Gitternetz entspricht dem Gauss-Krüger-Netz der Karte 1:50000. Das wieße Gitternetz diente lediglich zur Erzielung einer einheitlichen Entzerrungsgrundlage. Beim Abgreifen von Punktkoordinaten kann mit einer mittleren Genauigkeit von 50m gerechner werden.'

Translation:

'Made from aerial photos of the films Nos. 10R, 54, 55, 57, 292, 299, 346 and 402 taken by Koluft 6 by the K. Battery (photo train) of Motorized Surveying and Mapping Detachment 608 in August 1941.

The black grid corresponds to the Gauss-Krüger grid of the map 1: 50000. The white grid network only served to achieve a uniform basis for equalization. When picking up point coordinates, calculations can be carried out with an average accuracy of 50 metres'.

This explanation reveals that in August 1941 the Koluft 6 (reconnaissance unit no. 6), working as part of the Motorized Surveying and Mapping Detachment 608, took photographs of the Kiev, certainly aboard high-altitude Luftwaffe flights.

These raw photos would then have been developed at a special studio at the 'Armee-Kartenstelle', located near the Kiev at the Headquarters of the local German High Command. They would then have been adjusted for clarity, contract and sizing to create the template of the present image. Printed paper labels (containing the title and the caption) would then had been laid down, along with the aforementioned grid, while certain names on the map would have been added in manuscript in white. The resulting proof would then have been reproduced by photographic methods in only a very small number of examples.

The first few examples of the image would have been rushed out to the high command to be used in battle planning sessions. A few other examples would remain for the map drafting corps, as the valuable up-to-date information could be integrated into new conventional printed maps, while a couple other examples would be sent to Berlin for the same purpose.

It seems that the present example of the image was used for military planning in the field. A manuscript inscription the verso reads: "am 12/9/41 am FR278 Abgebeben" ("Turned in to FR278 (supposedly some army unit code?) on September 9, 1941"), a date which fell near the middle of the Battle of Kiev. Moreover, its rough condition suggests extensive field use.

A Note on Rarity

The present work seems to be unrecorded. We cannot trace a reference, let alone the location of another example. However, it is possible that another example or two survives in a German archive or library, with the understanding that many of Germany's World War II collections are not yet well catalogued.

This is not really surprising, as only a handful of the *Image* would have been made in the first place, and while they would have been highly valued by commanders during the Battle of Kiev, these large fragile works would tend to have perished during the action, or discarded shortly afterwards.

It is worth noting that we were able to find a reference to a *Bildplanskizze der Stadt Kiew 1:15000*, likewise made in August 1941 by the Koluft 6, Vermessungs- und Karten-Abteilung (Mot.) 608. It is cited as one of the 'Grundlagen' (Sources) of a printed map, *Stadtplan Kiew / Sonderausgabe A / 1:25.000* (1943), made around the time of the Second Battle of Kiev (1943), during which the Soviets liberated the city from the Nazis. While this image is clearly related the present work, it is noted as being of a different scale and we simply do not know what it looked like, as we cannot locate any surviving examples of that work. Further research may shed some light on the matter.

Also, the press of the German General Staff in Berlin printed copies of the some of the image of various Soviet locations. They were often issued within rare portfolios of maps of the Eastern Front intended for the use of officers. However, these works were published in an entirely different technique than the original image made in the field, and are very different things, begin mere copies, not artefacts from the battle front. We are not aware of the current whereabouts of a Berlin copy of a Kiev image of any kind.

References: N / A – No references traced.

SOLD

12. Malaysia Wall Map
Chinese Malaysians
Hong Kong Imprint



LI MENPHY (or MINPEI LI). / 黎敏裴

***Newest Wall Map of Federation of Malaya*. / 馬來亞聯合邦掛圖**

Hong Kong: Hai Kwang Press, 1958.

Colour off-set print, housed in original printed card covers (Very Good, lovely colours, remarkably fine condition for such a large fragile map, just some light toning along original folds and slight splits near some fold vertices, tiny point of old repair to left blank margin; covers a little toned with minor edgewear), 77.5 x 106.5 cm (30.5 x 42 inches).

A very rare wall map of the Federation of Malaya (today's peninsular Malaysia) made only the year after its independence from Britain, an entirely bilingual work (Chinese-English) executed by a Chinese draftsman, Li Menphy, and published in Hong Kong for the benefit of Malaya's large Chinese population and the many Hong Kongers who had strong connections to that country by way of the 'Bamboo Network'.

This large and highly attractive bilingual (Chinese-English) map depicts the Federation of Malaya, a country which gained its independence from Britain in 1957, only the year before the present map was made. The Federation was formed by the merger of the nine Malay states and Penang and Malacca (two of the constituents of the former Straits Settlements); its territory being the same as today's peninsular Malaysia. In 1963, Malaysia would be formed upon the Federation's union with Sarawak and Sabah (both on Borneo) and Singapore (which would split from the country in 1965). The map was made to

serve Malaya's large ethnic Chinese population, as well as the many Chinese communities throughout the greater region that had connections to Malaya as part of the 'Bamboo Network'.

The brightly colured and well-designed map depicts the entire country to a large scale of 14 miles to 1 inch. In the bottom centre, the chart of 'Conventional Signs' (in three languages – Chinese, Malay and English) explains the symbols used to identify boundaries (international, state); capitals (national, state); cities; towns; ports; major railways; light railways; main highways; secondary roads; other motor roads; lighthouses; sea lanes; mountains (with five levels, from 500 feet to over 5,000 feet); rivers; and lakes.

The composition features five cartographic insets, including, in the lower left corner, a map of the popular resort island of Langkawi, and large map showing the air connections between Malaya and other parts of Southeast Asia. In the upper right are thematic maps, on the top is an elevation map of the country; below is a mining map (noting deposits of tin – Malaya was one of the world's leading tin producers, gold, bauxite, wolfram, iron, manganese and coal); and below that is an agricultural map (noting areas for growing rice, cocoanuts, rubber – Malaya was one of the world's great rubber producers, jungles – featuring valuable hardwood timber, was well as swamps).

The map had two main intended audiences. First, it was made to serve Malaya's large and well established ethnic Chinese population. In 1957, 40% of Malaya's population was Chinese, accounting for 2.4 million people. While there had always been a strong Chinese presence on the Malay Peninsula, great waves of Southern Chinese immigration arrived there during the British colonial regime, in the 19th and first half of the 20th centuries. The Chinese community came to assume a dominant role in the country's commercial affairs and contributed greatly to Malaya's cultural richness. While the Chinese communities in today's Malaysia are is still important and influential, they account for only 23% of the country's population. Chinese emigration and the fact that ethnic Malays had a higher birthrate have accounted for this demographic shift.

Second, the map was also intended to serve ethnic Chinese readers throughout the 'Bamboo Network'. This term describes the deep and continuous connections between Hong Kong, Taiwan, and the various Chinese communities across Southeast Asia. This informal system, which remains a major force today, had for generations been one of the lifelines of commerce and culture in the greater region. It was no surprise that such a map was published in Hong Kong, which was the epicentre of the Bamboo Network.

The author of the present map, Li Menphy (or Minpei Li), was a prolific Hong Kong cartographer active in the '50s and '60s who specialized in large format, bright and decorative bilingual (Chinese-English) works. These include a *New Map of Hong Kong* (1951); atlases, *Southeast Asia in Maps* (1956) and *The Maps of Malaya* (1959); *The New Wall Map of Southeast Asia* (1960); *New Map of United States of America* (1961); and *North Borneo* (1962).

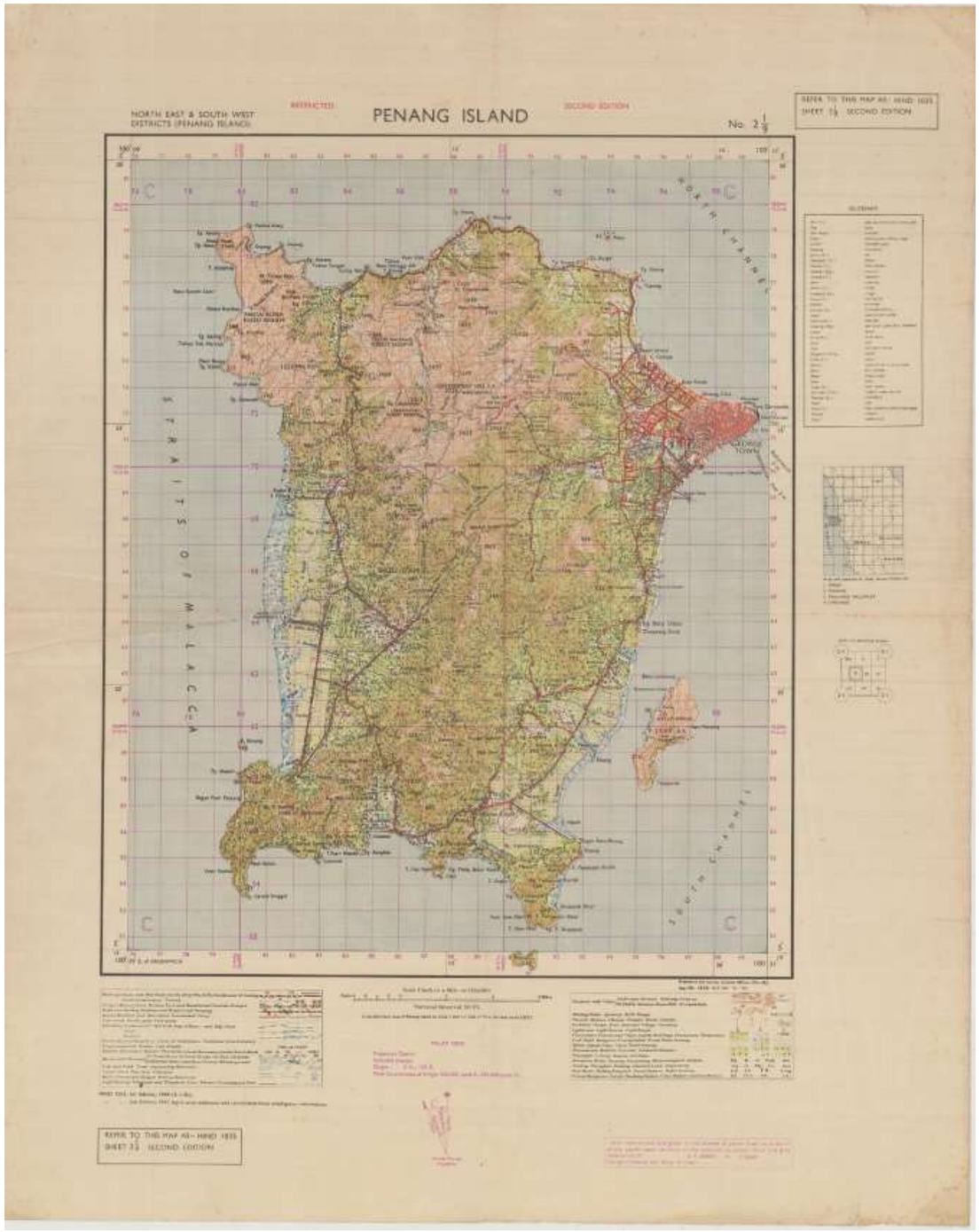
The present map is very rare. We can trace only a single institutional example, held by the National Library of Singapore. Moreover, we cannot trace any sales records.

References: National Library of Singapore: 12882168, OCLC: 298446074

1.500 EUR



13. Malaysia – Penang (George Town)
WWII Southeast Asia – ‘Operation Jurist’



SURVEY OF INDIA / BRITISH MILITARY INTELLIGENCE.

Penang Island.

Calcutta: Survey of India, April 1945.

Photo-zincograph in colour (Good, overall clean and bright, but some noticeable creasing, especially near old folds and some spots of wear with very minor loss along horizonal centrefold, some areas of light toning, some old repairs from verso to marginal tears), 67 x 53 cm (26.5 x 21 inches).

An exceedingly rare and historically important map of Penang Island (Malaysia), issued in by the Survey of India in Calcutta April 1945, late in World War II, while Malaya was still under Japanese Occupation; updated “with additions and corrections from intelligence information”, the map was one of the seminal aids used by senior British commanders in the run up to and during ‘Operation Jurist’, the successful mission to take back Penang, being the first step in the British reconquest of Malaya.

This exceedingly rare artefact of World War II in Southeast Asia is a highly advanced and detailed topographical map of Penang Island (Malaysia), printed by the Survey of India in Calcutta in April 1945, when Malaya was still under Japanese occupation. Critically, Penang was the most important Axis submarine base in the Indian Ocean, the vessels of which terrorized Allied military and civilian shipping. Predicated upon the best pre-war surveys augmented “with additions and corrections from intelligence information”, the map was issued to act as key strategic aid for senior British military commanders in the

run up to and during ‘Operation Jurist’, the successful endeavour to secure Penang, which became the first part of Malaya to be liberated from Japan’s brutal nearly four-year long reign of terror.

The map embraces all of Penang Island, featuring all the details that could possibly aid British military operations. Notably, the island’s capital, George Town, a vibrant trading port, is located on the peninsula at its northeastern corner. Beyond, the depiction of the mountainous, heavily forested island, employs contour lines, with heights rising up to 2,722 feet, at Government Peak. As described on the legend, located in boxes in the lower margin, the symbols used to describe all manner of natural and manmade details are explained, including, roads, railways, electricity and telephone lines, bridges, mosques, churches and temples, forts, lighthouses, mountains and rivers, as well as many other details consistent with a top-grade scientific topographical survey. Numerous specific sites are named, notably, in Georgetown, including ‘Fort Cornwallis’, the old bastion where the British founded their first colonial outpost in Malaya in 1786; and the ‘Swettenham Pier’, a great commercial nexus.

A box in the upper right margin features a ‘Glossary’ translating Malay geographical terms into English.

The first edition of the map was issued by the Survey of India in October 1944, on the eve for the first British aerial missions to Penang, which both bombed Japanese targets in around George Town and dropped sea mines in an effort to cripple the Axis submarine base.

The present second edition of the map appeared in April 1945 “with additions and corrections from intelligence information”, meaning new information gained from recent British aerial reconnaissance (that map features the Survey of India order code: ‘‘HIND 1035, Sheet 2 1/9 Second Edition’). The present edition of the map would have been critically useful as the British successfully forced the Japanese/Germans to close the submarine base at Penang, as well as to plan their moves upon the island during ‘Operation Jurist’, which compelled the Japanese to surrender Penang on September 2, 1945.

A Note on Rarity

Both editions of the present map are extremely rare. Marked on the map as ‘Restricted’ they would have been issued in only very small print runs for the exclusive use of senior British military officers and strategists, while most examples would have perished due to field wear. We can trace only a single institutional example of either of the editions, being an example of the second edition included as part of collection of World War II maps of Malaya held by the National Library of Australia. Moreover, we cannot trace any sales records.

The WWII Japanese Occupation of Penang at its Liberation by ‘Operation Jurist’

Up to World War II, Penang was an affluent trading centre, with a dynamic multicultural population. It benefitted from its uniquely strategic location, guarding the northern approaches to the Strait of Malacca. Upon the outset of the conflict, the British command in Malaya was highly over-confident, believing that Japanese would likely refrain from going to war against the Allies, and even if it did so, could be easily overcome as presumably no ‘Asian’ power would be a fit match for their forces.

However, on the morning of December 8, 1941 (local time), at the same moment as they raided Pearl Harbor, the Japanese attacked British possessions in East and Southeast Asia, in a stealth move, as Tokyo had not declared war upon London. Japanese forces immediately landed in Malaya, rolling over the peninsula in a manner that could be likened to *Blitzkrieg*; their conquest of the entire region being completed upon the British surrender of Singapore on February 16, 1942.

The Japanese started to bomb Penang Island on December 11, 1941. In a move that would forever bring dishonour to the British colonial regime, they stealthily abandoned Penang on December 16, evacuating only the European population, while leaving the local people to their own grim fates. The Japanese moved in to occupy the island three days later.

The Japanese occupation of Penang, as was the case in many other regions, could be best be described as barbaric and sadistic, typified by war crimes and gratuitous cruelty. Special horrors were reserved for Penang’s large Chinese community, whose civilians were routinely massacred, enslaved and starved. The Japanese renamed the Penang, Tojo Island, after their prime minister, Hideki Tojo.

Importantly, during the occupation, Penang became the most important Axis submarine base in the Indian Ocean, home to both the Imperial Japanese Navy’s 6th fleet Submarine Squadron 8 and the *Monsun Gruppe* (Monsoon Group), the German Kriegsmarine’ special Asian U-boat division. These submariner forces terrorized Allied shipping, and for a time practically drove the Royal Navy out of the Bay of Bengal.

Late in the war, as the Allies gradually gained the upper hand, Penang became one of their prime targets. Beginning in October 1944, British planes, based at Khargpur, Bengal, started bombing Penang and dropping sea mines along the waters around the island, which had the desired effect of forcing the closure the Japanese-German submarine base.

By the mid-summer of 1945 the Japanese were a spent force and it was only a matter of time before their brutal empire collapsed. The British launched ‘Operation Zipper’, a design to retake Malaya, of which the first phase would be the seizure of Penang, by way of ‘Operation Jurist’. No doubt aided by examples of the present map a detachment of warships commanded by Vice Admiral Harold Walker cruised to just off of Penang Island. Seeing the writing on the wall, the Japanese surrendered on September 2, 1945, making Penang the first place in Malaya to be liberated. A larger British force assumed control of Singapore on September 13, will all of Malaya being liberated shortly thereafter.

Malaysia would become independent in 1957, and Penang has since prospered as one of the Southeast Asia’s most dynamic cities.

References: National Library of Australia: MAP G8030 s63 1941-51 (referring to a collection of maps which includes an example of the present map).

650 EUR

14. Papua New Guinea
German Colonization

Bruno HASSENSTEIN (1839 - 1902).

Die deutschen Besitzungen in West-Polynesien. Entworfen von Bruno Hassenstein.

Gotha, Germany: Justus Perthes, 1885.

Colour lithograph (Very Good, just some light toning), 46.5 x 56 cm (18.5 x 22 inches).

A very rare broadside that is one of the earliest maps to show the new German colonial 'Besitzungen' (possessions) in New Guinea, created by the eminent cartographer Bruno Hassenstein from the best sources newly arrived from the field, and published by Justus Perthes, Germany's leading map house.

New Guinea was first encountered by Spanish mariners in the 16th Century, but its reef-guarded coastlines, impenetrable jungle and the hostility of some its indigenous peoples (including Head Hunters!) ensured that it was one of the last non-polar places on Earth to be colonized by Europeans. While Europeans occasionally reconnoitred and traded along its coasts over the succeeding centuries, they avoided setting down roots.

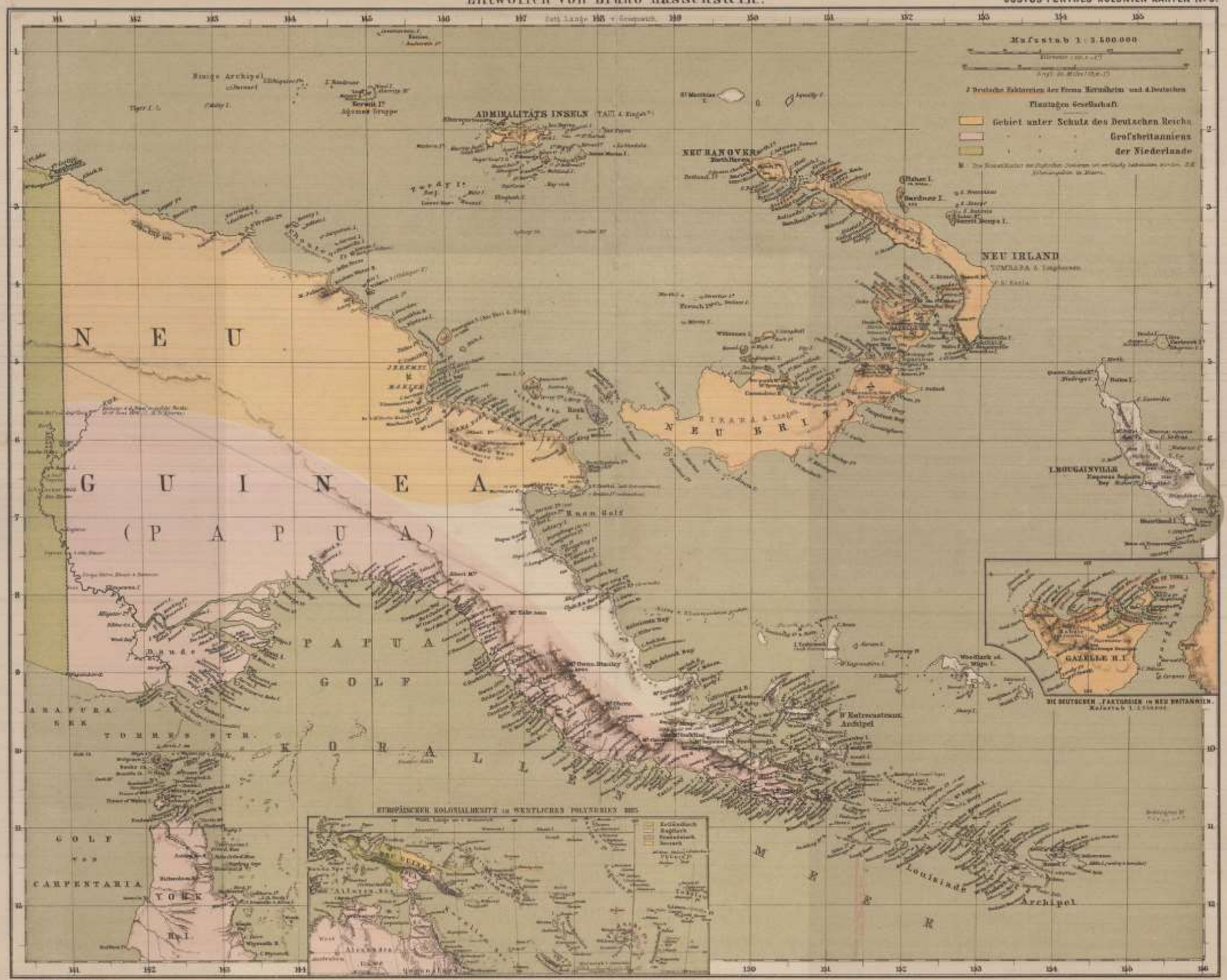
This all changed in the 1880s, during perhaps the most comprehensive period of colonialism, when various European powers were obsessed with claiming every square inch of the globe. In 1883, the British colony of Queensland, Australia, declared Papua (the southeastern quarter of the island) to be a part of the British Empire, and proceeded to set up outposts that would form the basis of British New Guinea. This move was reluctantly and belatedly embraced by Westminster, which dreaded the cost of carrying the colony. The Dutch claim to the western half of New Guinea (later Irian Jaya) was considered secure, even if little was done to advance it on the ground.



DIE DEUTSCHEN BESITZUNGEN IN WEST-POLYNESIEN.

Entworfen von Bruno Hassenstein.

JUSTUS PERTHES' KOLONIEN-KARTEN Nº 3.



GOTHA: JUSTUS PERTHES
1885.

Meanwhile, Germany, which had only been unified in 1871, began to project its power all around the world, with private trading companies gaining a fixed presence in Africa and the Asia-Pacific region. It was not long before these players turned their gaze towards the islands of New Britain and New Ireland, adjacent to the coasts of northeast New Guinea. Notably, from 1876 to 1883, the Hamburg firm of Hernsheim & Co. founded several trading posts on the northern part of New Britain's Gazelle Peninsula. Further bases were established near the northern tip of New Ireland. The trade in tropical commodities (notably palm products), which were very much valued by Germany's highly industrialized economy, was brisk and lucrative.

The German Chancellor Otto von Bismarck was initially opposed to Germany gaining overseas possessions, believing them to be costly distractions to the nation's ambitions in Europe. However, as many of the main investors in Africa and New Guinea were also his leading political supporters, he reluctantly agreed to authorize Germany to make certain lands 'schuztgebeit' (protectorates), colonies in all but name. He insisted, however, that private concerns should bear the responsibility for administering and paying for the colonies.

On November 3, 1884, The Germans moved by stealth to formally declare northeastern New Guinea and the adjacent islands of New Britain and New lreland, etc., to be a schutzgebeit called *Deutsche Neuguinea*. The colony was to be governed by a private chartered company, the *Deutsche Neuguinea-Compagnie* (German New Guinea Company).

This move angered the Australians, who resented the German presence in their neighbourhood, although Whitehall was ambivalent, so allowing Berlin's designs to proceed. This is where the present map enters the scene.

The map is one of the first to depict the new German 'Besitzungen' (possessions), published in early 1885, not long after news of Germany's formal claim to the area was made public. It was created by the eminent cartographer Bruno Hassenstein from the best sources newly arrived from the field, and published by Justus Perthes, Germany's leading map house. Perthes maintained privileged ties to the German government and overseas commercial concerns, so often had the beat on breaking carto-geographic news.

The well composed map shows that many of the coastal areas of New Guinea to be well mapped, although its interior remained an almost complete enigma (and it would remain so for many years to come!), while the coasts of New Britain and New Ireland beyond the areas close to the German settlements were still ill defined. However, the topographic details that are known, such as rivers, headlands and mountains, are executed with great care.

Areas claimed by Germany are coloured in orange, by Britain shaded in pink and by the Netherlands, coloured green. The map shows that no German posts had yet been established on New Guinea proper, while the numerous outposts in northern New Britain northern New Ireland are named and underlined in orange. The inset, 'Die deutschen Faktoreien in Neu-Britannien', on the right side, details the German settlements on the Gazelle Peninsula, while the inset along the 'Europäischer Kolonialbesitz im westlichen Polynesien 1885' depicts the area within its greater context.

The present map was separately issued as part of series of cartographic broadsides of German colonies, called the 'Justus Perthes' Kolonial Karten'; it is No. 3 of the series. The broadside was composed by Bruno Hassenstein (1839 - 1902), a highly esteemed specialist on colonial cartography and a protégé of the legendary mapmaker August Petermann; long associated with the Perthes firm. Capping a career in which he revealed many of the most important African explorers' discoveries, in 1891, Hassenstein was awarded the Karl Ritter Medal, Germany's highest geography prize.

A Note on Rarity

The present broadside is very rare. We can trace only around half a dozen or so institutional examples, while we are not aware of any sales records.

Epilogue

Shortly after the present map was issued, the Germans renamed their quarter of New Guinea proper as *Kaiser-Wilhelmsland*, after Wilhelm II, and rechristened the islands to the north as the Bismarck Archipelago, with New Britain being renamed *Neupommern* (New Pommerania) and New Ireland as *Neumecklenburg* (New Mecklenburg).

Over the succeeding years, many of the German commercial firms invested in New Guinea made good profits from tropical commodities; however, in realizing Bismarck's fears, the German government soon found itself on the hook for much of the colony's defense and administrative costs. Deutsche Neuguinea suffered from chronic labour shortages which prevented the colony from being a great success, while the Germans' relations with the native tribes deteriorated as time wore on.

In 1914, at the beginning of World War I, Australian forces quickly seized control of German New Guinea, placing the zone under their military governance. The Treaty of Versailles (1919), which ended the war, placed North East New Guinea under Australian guardianship, via a League of Nations mandate. The Australian regime progressively extended their control over parts of the island, although much of the interior remained under the practical auspices of indigenous powers.

During World War II, New Guinea and its associated islands saw much fighting between Australian and Japanese forces, with the former being victorious and reasserting its control. Under Australian administration the two zones of eastern New Guinea were united to form 'Papua New Guinea' in 1949. Papua New Guinea gained its independence from Australia in 1975.

References: Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin: Kart. R 23850; University of Chicago Library: G8160 1885.H3; OCLC: 933255727, 243694321, 246594616. Cf. Robert Linke, 'The influence of German surveying on the development of New Guinea' (Session Paper), XXIII FIG Congress (Munich, Germany), October 8-13, 2006.

350 EUR

15. World War II Asia-Pacific Wehrmacht Field Cartography Printed In Russia

VERMESSUNGS- UND KARTEN-ABTEILUNG (MOT.) 620. [GERMAN ARMY - MOTORIZED MAP DETACHMENT 620].

Lagekarte Ostasiatischer Kriegsschauplatz Stand 20.6.1942. AOK Ic/AO / Karte des Großasiatischen Raumes Maßstab 1:20 000 000.

[Russia:] Vermessungs- und Karten-Abteilung (Mot.) 620, June 1942.

Colour off-set print (Good, some staining especially in lower centre and upper left, various minor stains, some wear and toning along old folds and couple minor closed marginal tears), 69.5 x 89.5 cm (27.5 x 35 inches).

A seemingly unrecorded, large format map depicting the Japanese conquests and major offensives in the Asia-Pacific theatre as of June 1942, during the height of World War II, amazingly printed in Nazi-occupied Russia by a 'Motorized Map Detachment' of the German Army to both inform and to lend encouragement to Axis forces fighting along the Eastern Front.

By the beginning of the summer of 1942, when the present map was issued, the Japan had, in only six-months, accomplished one of the greatest military feats of all time. While Japan's taste for aggression and conquest was already well-known, for it had conquered large parts of China in stages since 1931, nothing could prepare the world for what would commence on December 7/8, 1941. That day, Japan executed a stealth strike upon the American base at Pearl Harbour, Hawaii, and at the same time attacked British and American positions in East and Southeast Asia – all without having declared war. The Japanese took Hong Kong on Christmas Day 1941, and proceeded to roll over British Malaya, completing the operation with the fall of Singapore on February 16, 1942. Japan invaded and secured control of the Dutch East Indies (Indonesia) by March 1942, while they conquered the Philippines from




S T I L L E R
O Z E A N
I N D I S C H E R
O Z E A N
Lage auf dem ostasiatischen Kriegsschauplatz
Stand: 20.6.42
Karte des Großostasiatischen Raumes
Maßstab 1:20000000

American-Filipino forces by May 1942. That same month the Japanese took Burma, bringing their forces to the edge of India, the jewel of the British Empire.

Japan also projected its power well beyond their conquered realms. They conducted daring air raids of British naval bases in Ceylon April 1942, which succeeded in giving them air and sea superiority over much of the Bay of Bengal. From May 31-June 8, Japanese submarines attacked the harbours of Sydney and Newcastle, Australia, and while the assaults did not do too much damaged, they severely undermined Australia's sense of security. On June 6-7, 1942, Japan conquered the islands of Attu and Kiska in the Alaska's Aleutians, being the only sovereign U.S. territory to be occupied by a foreign power since 1814. While the Japanese attack upon the American base at the Battle of Midway, near Hawaii (June 4-7, 1942) was unsuccessful, the Japanese managed to keep it secret from the Axis media, and it had little effect upon their domination of East and Southeast Asia.

The European-American forces in East and Southeast Asia had been supremely overconfident until the very moment that were mowed down by the Japanese. In many cases, they simply could not believe that they could be overcome by an 'Asian' nation, let alone vanquished so completely. Indeed, Japan had so far proven nearly invincible. It would take at least two years for the Allies to regain their footing in the Asia-Pacific sphere.

At the same time, the Japanese success was a great source of cheer for the Nazis, whose invasion of the Soviet Union had proven to be much more challenging than anticipated (the Germans would later suffer a momentous defeat the Battle of Stalingrad, at the turn of 1942/3, which would turn the entire war against them). It was in this context that the present map was issued to both inform and to lend encouragement to the Wehrmacht fighting along the Eastern Front.

The present map uses a popular commercial map of the theatre in question as an underlying template, the *Gea-Karte des Grossostasiatischen Raumes* (Berlin: Gea Verlag K.G., 1941), but strips it down and adds different details, please see link:

https://nla.gov.au/nla.obj-233088794/view

The present map covers an immense area, from Karachi, in the west, all the way over halfway across the Pacific, to include Hawaii, while embracing all of East and Southeast Asia. Upon the intentionally subdued template, the Japanese conquests and offensives are overlayed in red offset printing. The limits of Japanese controlled territories in China and Southeast Asia are bordered by red lines, while all of the major captured places feature Japanese flags, while the flag of Siam (an ally of Japan) appears above its territory. Additionally, the map employs the symbols of an airplane and arrows to depict the Japanese strikes upon Ceylon; submarines show the Japanese operations in Australian and Hawaii, while the Aleutian Islands feature Japanese flags accompanied by question marks (the extent of the Japanese conquests there was not yet well known). The map thus created a powerful visual impression that the entire Asia-Pacific realm was destined to be overwhelmed by the Empire of Rising Sun.

The German Army's 'Motorized Map Detachments' and the Creation of the Present Map

Throughout World War II, the Wehrmacht operated numerous *Vermessungs- und Karten-Abteilung (Motorisiert)*, which roughly translates to 'Motorized Map Detachments'. These highly sophisticated units were manned by skilled surveyors, draftsmen and printing technicians, and often (but not always) travelled in specially-fitted train cars that contained drafting/photography studios and advanced printing presses, while in other case the equipment was transported by train to fixed locations in Nazi-controlled territories where a temporary publishing house was established. The places where the Detachments operated printing presses were called an 'Armee-Kartenstelle' (Army Map Sites). The Motorized Map Detachments were usually assigned to and followed the progress of specific Army corps and their workshops could be instantly set up close to battle fronts, where new maps could be made, or existing maps updated, often predicated upon fresh aerial reconnaissance and field intelligence. In other instances, such as with the present map, the detachments issued maps for educational or propagandist purposes. As the maps were exposed to heavy field use and mishap, they had an exceedingly low survival rate, and many issues do not survive today in even a single known example, while others remain in only a sole or handful of examples.

The key to revealing the details behind the production of the present map can be found in the corners of the lower margin. The top line in the lower right corner reads: 'Bearb.[eitet] Verm.[essungs-] u.[nd] Kart.[en-] Abt.[eilung] (mot.[orisiert]) 620', meaning 'Compiled by the Motorized Map Detachment 620'. The Vermessungs- und Karten-Abteilung (mot.) 620 was a highly competent unit of German Army engineers, surveyors and technicians, who from December 1941 onwards were assigned to various locations across Russia. Led by Major Otto Schanz, the detachment played an important role in quickly generating maps in the field along the Eastern Front for both operational and for educational or propagandist purposes. The acronym location with the title, 'AOK, Ic/AO', means that the map was made under the auspices of a Third Counterintelligence Officer serving in enemy territory as part of the High Command of a major German Army.

While the map was definitely printed in Russia by the Vermessungs- und Karten-Abteilung (Mot.) 620, we have not been able to determine exactly where in Russia it was issued, or which army the detachment was associated with at the time, as the corps moved around frequently during the period in question. Further research would likely reveal the exact circumstances of its publication.

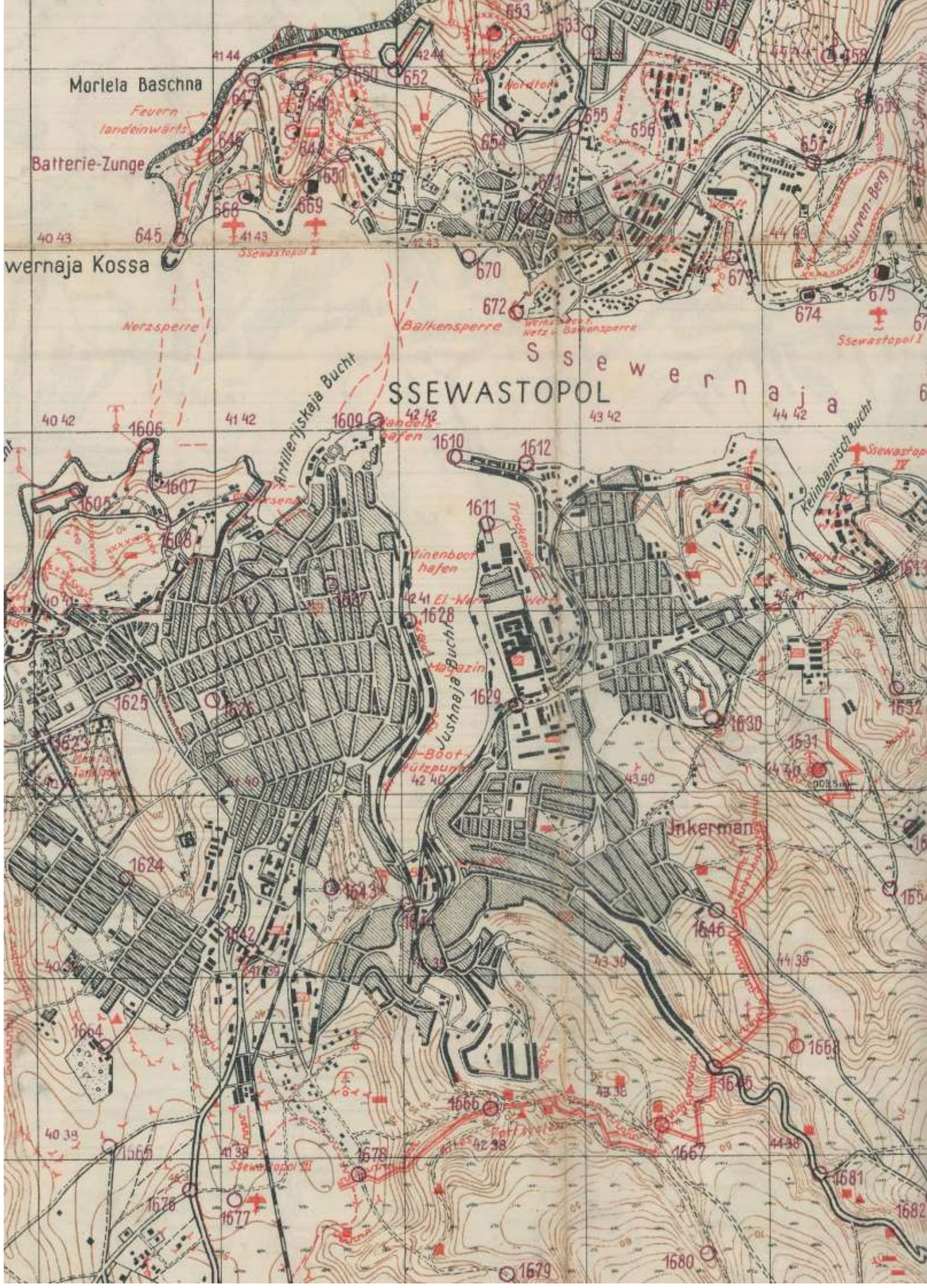
A Note on Rarity

The present map seems to be unrecorded, which is not surprising. The mobile detachment would have issued only a very small print run for the interest of officers and troops in its immediate vicinity. As a fragile, large format map created in an active warzone, it would have had an incredibly low survival rate.

References: N / A – Map seemingly unrecorded.

1.400 EUR

16. WWII Eastern Front- Siege Of Sebastopol
Operation Störfang
Important Wehrmacht Field Cartography
Printed In Crimea



VERMESSUNGS- UND KARTEN-ABTEILUNG (MOT.) 617. [GERMAN ARMY - MOTORIZED MAP DETACHMENT 617, CRIMEA].

Ssewastopol / Stellungskarte / Stand vom 17.5.42.

[Crimea, near Sebastopol:] Vermessungs- und Karten-Abteilung (Mot.) 617, May 1942.

Colour print, printed on the verso of a portion of another map in wartime field style (Very Good, some wear and toning along old folds, some light staining, but overall in stellar condition for such an ephemeral military field map), 69.5 x 89 cm (27.5 x 35 inches).

An exceedingly rare secret Nazi map of the theatre of the Siege of Sebastopol (October 30, 1941 – July 4, 1942), one of the great events along World War II's Eastern Front, during which the Wehrmacht mercilessly bombarded the Soviets' main base in Black Sea region; the map was drafted and published in Crimea, in the battle zone, by a 'Motorized Map Detachment' of the German Army and was created for the exclusive use of the local high command; based upon the latest aerial and ground reconnaissance, the map is by far and away the most detailed and accurate map of the siege theatre, precisely depicting hundreds of Soviet defensive works; the map served as the German generals' blueprint to plan 'Operation Störfang', the Wehrmacht's massive final push that forced Sebastopol's surrender after 8 months of intense combat; the siege proved highly consequential, as it

Stellungskarte

Stand vom 17. 5. 42

Ssewastopol

Sonderausgabe!

S C H W A R Z E S

M E E R

SSEWASTOPOL

Ssewernaja Kossa

Bartenjewka

Inkermann

Sapun-Berg

Maximowskij Berg

Balbek

Sachärnaja Golowa

Blattübersicht

Aus Luftbildern neu bearbeitet. Entzerrung auf Grund einer Radialtriangulation.
Übersicht zur Karte L - 36 - 135 u. L - 36 - 136 1:100 000.
Die Höhenangaben sind der Blattkarte 1:50 000 entnommen.
Grossenen hergestellt!

Höhenangabe in allen russischen Maß (Deutsch). Umrechnungstabelle rechts.

1:25 000 in der Karte 1 km in Natur

Hergestellt im Auftrage AOK 11 / Ia Nr. 0 nach Neuaufnahme- und Karten-Abteilung Stab 11

Druckdatum V. 1942

was a Pyrrhic victory for Germans, weakening their forces along the Eastern Front heading into the Battle of Stalingrad, which proved to be the beginning of the end of the Third Reich.

The World War II Siege of Sevastopol, known in Russia as the 'Defense of Sebastopol' (October 30, 1941 – July 4, 1942) was one of the momentous events along the Eastern Front. It would be much more famous today if it was not overshadowed by the Battle of Stalingrad, the turning point of the entire conflict, which closely followed it. Sevastopol is an excellent a natural harbour on the southwestern coast of Crimea, which for generations had been the headquarters of the Russian, and subsequently Soviet, Black Sea Fleet. The city was a household name worldwide ever since it was captured by an Anglo-French-Ottoman coalition during the Crimean War (1853-6) after brutal nine month-long siege.

Nazi Germany invaded the Soviet Union in June 1941 in what was known as *Operation Barbarossa*, a 'Blitzkreig' (Lightening Warfare) campaign that sought to conquer all of the country west of the 'A-A Line' (the imagined meridian running from Archangel down the Astrakhan). The Germans were highly confident as the same techniques of rapid, mechanized warfare had practically mowed down France the year before. However, the Wehrmacht several underestimated the Soviets' resolve, the immense logistical challenges posed by the size of the Soviet Union, as well as the country's ferocious climate. While the Germans conquered much of Ukraine and a good part of European Russia by the mid-autumn of 1941, they did not advance nearly as far east as planned, failing to take Moscow, while leaving Leningrad and Sebastopol behind their lines as pockets of determined Soviet resistance.

As the present map shows, Sebastopol was very heavily defended. Its narrow harbour mouth was protected by formidable batteries and barriers, making a maritime assault almost unthinkable, while the incredibly rugged interior was full of rugged mountains, deep ravines and thick forests. The Soviets had constructed an unbelievably vast and complex defensive cordon around the city, with hundreds of forts, minefields, walls, bastions and artillery positions of many different kinds. A direct landward assault upon Sebastopol, no matter how strong or well executed, was certain to be mowed down. The city was also defended by 118,000 troops of the Soviet Navy and its Separate Coastal Army.

Yet Hitler was determined to capture Sebastopol at all costs. Taking Stalin's main base in the Black Sea was too much of a PR prize to forego, while it was practically reasoned that leaving such a powerful enemy enclave behind Nazi lines would later prove to be a dangerous liability (although many would come regard the Nazis' fixation upon Sebastopol to be a tremendous strategic mistake). The Wehrmacht dedicated a force that eventually numbered 210,000 men, headed by the 11th Army. This was backed up by Luftwaffe squadrons that would involve over 800 aircraft, while the Germans moved in 2,000 heavy artillery pieces, placing them around the Soviet's defensive codon.

On October 30, 1941, the Wehrmacht commenced a merciless bombardment of city, that quickly neutralized the Soviet Black Sea Fleet, destroying almost all of its port facilities. Yet, for months the Soviet garrison held out, showing no sign of surrender, while German attempts to soften Sebastopol's fortified perimeter proved fruitless.

Seven months into the siege, on June 2, 1942, barely two weeks after he present map was issued, the Nazis initiated *Operation Störfang* (Sturgeon Catch), whereupon they launched an unprecedented air and artillery assault upon Sebastopol. By the end of the siege, the Luftwaffe would had flown 23,751 sorties, dropping 20,528 tons of bombs, while the army had fired 46,750 tons of munitions upon the city. This barrage was greater than that which the Nazis had subjected Warsaw, Rotterdam and London to in 1940. At the end of the day, only 11 buildings in Sebastopol were left undamaged!

Finally, on July 4, 1942, the Soviet garrison surrendered, having lost many men and running out of food and ammunition. Yet they had put up a heroic resistance, for the Germans lost 35,866 men and had expended an immense amount of ammunition and equipment. Indeed, the Nazi victory at Sebastopol would prove Pyrrhic. The original German plan assumed that Sebastopol would fall much sooner, and that the 11th Army would be free to join the 6th Army to take out Stalingrad. Following the siege, the 11th Army was too worn down to join the initial attack upon Stalingrad, while the overall Wehrmacht effort along the Eastern Front was weakened by the Siege of Sebastopol. As such, the Germans attacked Stalingrad in late August 1942 while understrength, and so failed to take the city outright. This led to the ferocious Battle of Stalingrad (August 26, 1942 – February 2, 1943), where upon the Germans suffered a stunning defeat, loosing almost a million men and all of their momentum. Indeed, many historians believe that that the fall of the Third Reich, history's most evil empire, was ordained at Stalingrad, such that the Siege of Sebastopol played a key role in the outcome of the entire conflict.

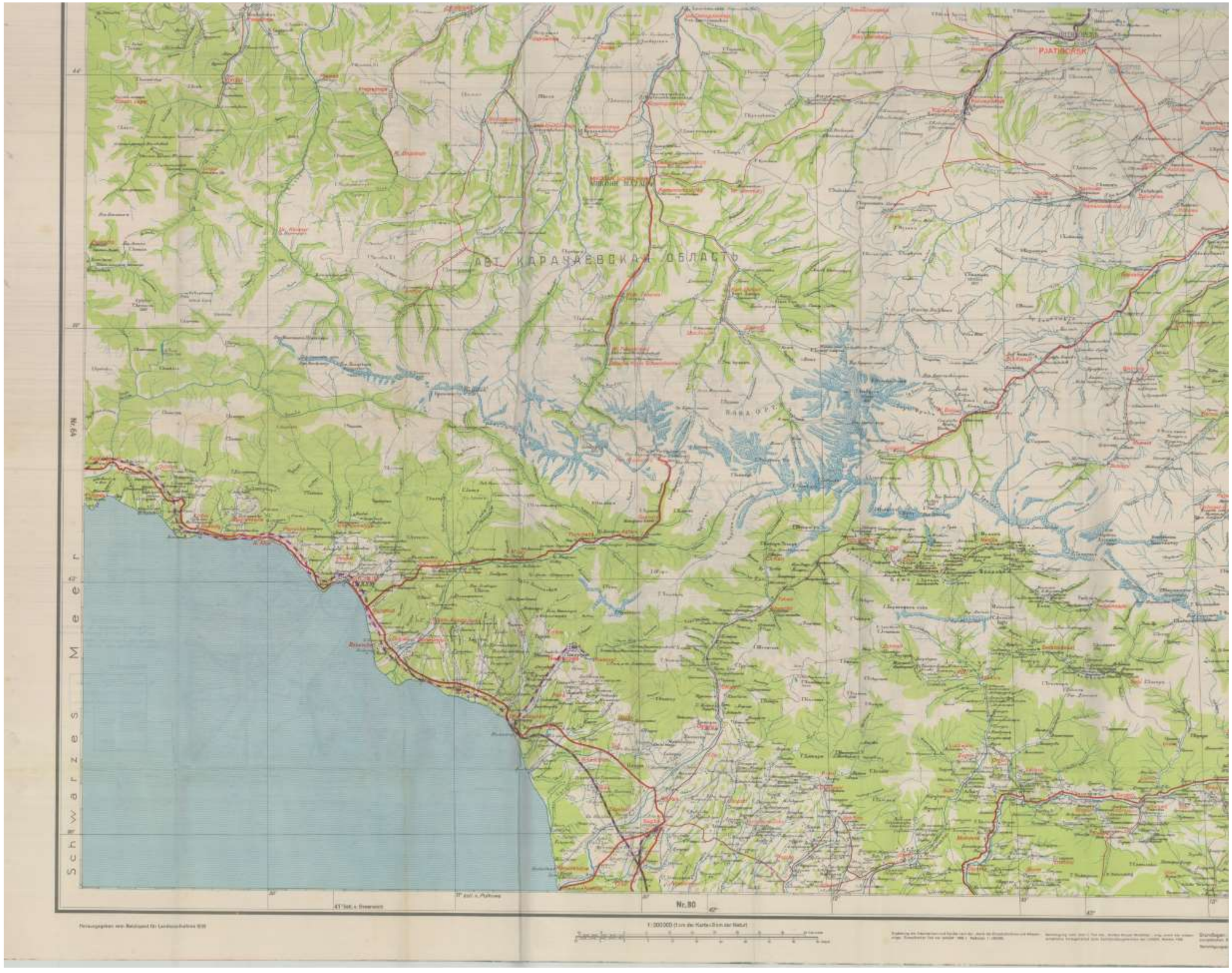
The Present Map in Focus

The present map was compiled and published in the battle theatre, just outside of Sebastopol, at the camp of the High Command of the German 11th Army, by a mobile surveying and printing unit attached to the force. Based upon the latest aerial and ground reconnaissance, the map is importantly by far and away the most detailed and accurate rendering of Sebastopol and its defenses published during the siege; we are not aware of any map of the event made by either side that is in any way comparable. The map was a secret issue intended to be used by only the most senior army and Luftwaffe commanders as they planned their awesome barrage of Sebastopol in the immediate advance of and during *Operation Störfang*, which commenced barely two weeks after the present map was made.

Executed to a large acle of 1:25,000, or 4 cm to 1 km, the map's underlying template is an accurate topographical rendering, showcaing the city of Sebastopol, lower centre, where each major block is outlined, and key military facilities labelled. The immensely rugged terrain surrounding the harbour is captured by contour lines which define numerous steep hills and deep ravines, while some of the valleys provide passage for roads and railway lines. All of the long-established manmade features on the map, including major fortifications, are colored in black.

The map's most important features are the innumerable defensive works recently built by the Soviets during the current war, which are all coloured in red. The landscape is so dotted with these features that we have never seen a map that depicts such a comprehensive military infrastructure system, and in such exacting detail. The 'Zeichenerklärung' (Explanation of Symbols), identifies the different types of defensive works, including forts, heavy artillery batteries, redoubts, tank barriers, minefields, flank towers, snipers' nets, wire fences, flare towers, bunkers, sea plane and balloon landing sites, etc.

As the Luftwaffe had almost complete mastery of the skies, it was able to take innumerable photographs of the Soviet positions, on many occasions. The on-site German army cartographers clearly did a masterly job adapting this intelligence to the map, creating the authoritative blueprint which guided *Operation Störfang* through the daunting Soviet gauntlet.


Schwarzes Meer
АВТ. КАРАЧАЕВСКАЯ ОБЛАСТЬ
PJATIGORSK
Nr. 80

The German Army's 'Motorized Map Detachments' and the Creation of the Present Map

Throughout World War II, the Wehrmacht operated numerous *Vermessungs- und Karten-Abteilung (Motorisiert)*, which roughly translates to 'Motorized Map Detachments'. These highly sophisticated units were manned by skilled surveyors, draftsmen and printing technicians, and often (but not always) travelled in specially-fitted train cars that contained drafting/photography studios and advanced printing presses, while in other case the equipment was transported by train to fixed locations in Nazi-controlled territories where a temporary publishing house was established. The places where the Detachments operated printing presses were called an 'Armee-Kartenstelle' (Army Map Sites). The Motorized Map Detachments were usually assigned to and followed the progress of specific amy corps and their workshops could be instantly set up close to battle fronts, where new maps could be made, or existing maps updated, predicated upon fresh aerial reconnaissance and field intelligence; in many cases new maps could be generated within hours of fresh information arriving at the Armee-Kartenstelle. The work of the Detachments was not only helpful but absolutely necessary, as enemy forces would often frequently and radically alter the areas being mapped (by building new forts, batteries and trenches, while major changes would also occur due to battle damage), rendering the existing Nazi maps, printed some time before in Berlin, nearly useless. This was especially the case for locations caught up in pitched battles or under siege, such as Sebastopol, where the landscape was altered almost daily, and where maps needed to be significantly updated on a frequent basis in order to be considered reliable.

The *Vermessungs- und Karten-Abteilung (Motorisiert)* could print maps of surprisingly high technical quality given the circumstances (although not quite of the same graphic quality as the giant map printing operations in Berlin), and the army engineers and technicians did an amazingly good job of editing and adding new information to maps, often from aerial photography supplied by the Luftwaffe. However, the Armee-Kartenstelle's presses could only generate a small number of examples for the immediate field use by senior Axis commanders. Indeed, these maps were often classified as 'Geheim!' (Secret!), as they feature highly sensitive military intelligence that they did not want to fall into enemy hands. As the maps were exposed to heavy field use and mishap, they had an exceedingly low survival rate, and many issues do not survive today in even a single known example, while others remain in only a sole or handful of examples. As they were made in active battle theatres from raw, firsthand intelligence, they tend to be more detailed and accurate than any other maps of the same battle theatres, and having been used in the thick of conflict as the key guides for senior commanders, they are especially valuable and authentic artefacts of great events of World War II.

The key to revealing the details behind the production of the present map can be found in the corners of the lower margin. The top line in the lower right corner reads: 'Hergestellt in Auftrage AOK [Armeeoberkommando] 11 / 1a Meß[trupp] durch Vermessungs- und Karten-Abteilung (mot[orisiert]) 617', meaning 'Made on behalf of Army High Command 11, 1a Measuring Corps by the Motorized Map Detachment 617'. The Vermessungs- und Karten-Abteilung (mot.) 617 was a highly competent unit of military engineers, surveyors, draftsmen and technicians who were assigned to the 11th German Army. They set up a printing operation at the Army's headquarters in Crimea, just beyond the Soviet cordon around Sebastopol, which was where the present map was drafted and published.

The map's underlying template is predicated upon the best available Soviet and German mapping, while many details, including critical military information, is added to map as it was 'Aus luftbildern neu bearbeitet' (Re-edited from aerial photos), taken by the Luftwaffe, which were checked against 'Taktische Auswertunge' (Tactical Evaluations) conducted by the German Army's 'Nahaufklärungsgruppe 8, Stabsbildabteilung' (Field Reconnaissance Group 8, Staff Image Department).

While the production quality of the map is quite high, evidence that it was made under emergency battlefront conditions is revealed in that it was printed on the back of another map, due to wartime shortage of large sheets of paper. On the verso is part of a map of the western Caucuses made in 1940 by the Reichtsamt fur Landesaufnahme (Berlin), after a Soviet antecedent, featuring Abkhazia, including Sukhumi, as well as adjacent parts of Georgia proper and Russia, including Pyatigorsk and Mount Elbrus.

A Note on Editions and Rarity

The present example of the map is marked, in the upper left corner, as 'Sonderausgabe! / Ausgabe Nr. 3' (Special Edition / Issue No. 3), bearing the date of May 17, 1942. While we are not sure when the first edition was issued, we are aware of the existence of an earlier edition dated February 26, 1942, from which the present edition was clearly updated.

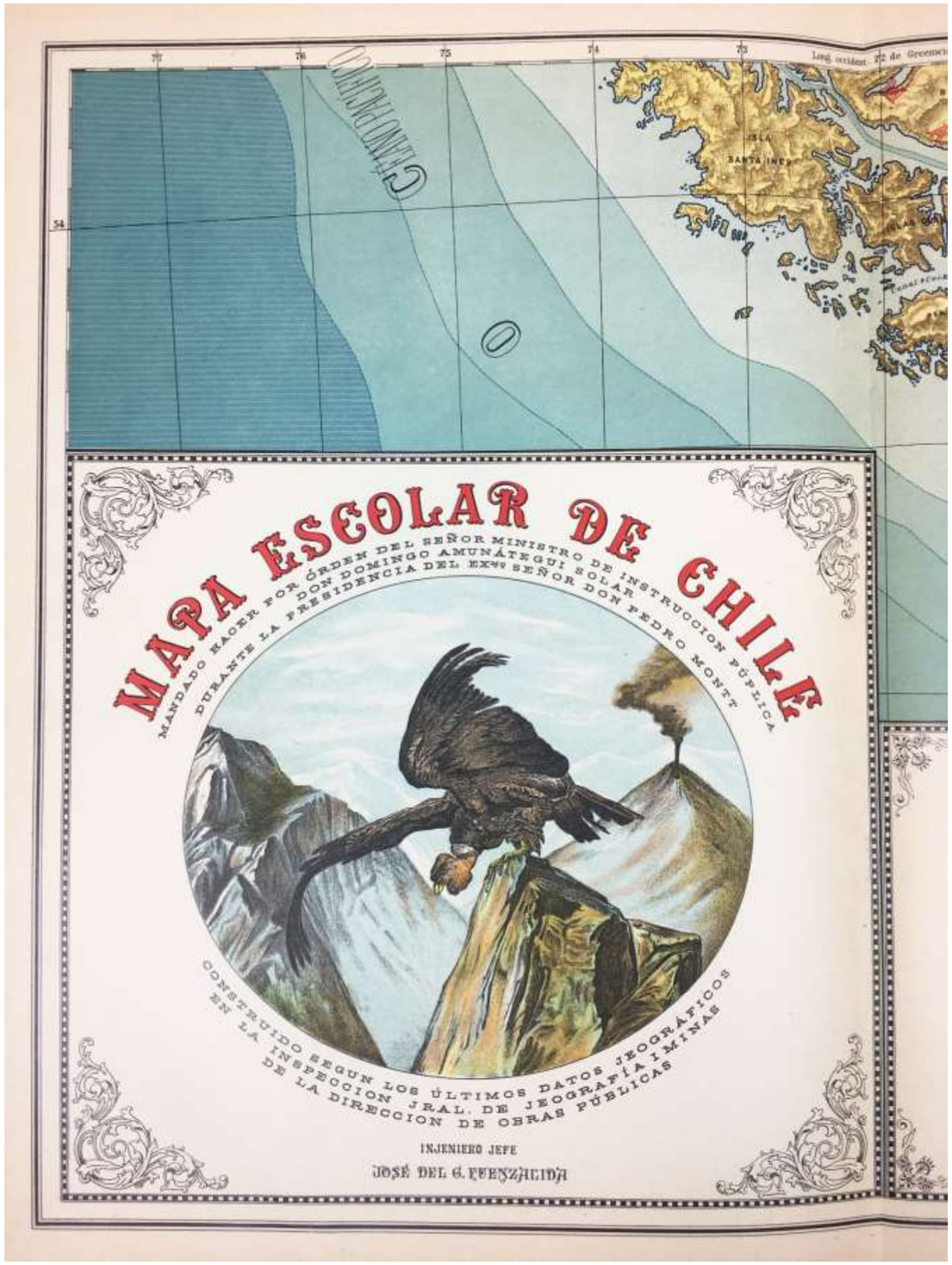
We cannot trace any other examples of the present edition, and beyond that can find only a single example of the February 26, 1942 edition, bearing a different spelling of the title, '*Sewastopol*', held by the Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin.

The great rarity of the map is due to the fact that the Vermessungs- und Karten-Abteilung (mot.) 617 would have printed only a very small print run for the immediate field use of senior Wehrmacht commanders, with very few examples surviving the war.

References: Cf. [re: an earlier edtion:] Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin: 2 K 10849-2 / OCLC: 838002664.

2.500 EUR

17. Chile
Educational Cartography
Large Wall Map



INSPECCIÓN DE MINAS Y GEOGRAFÍA - DIRECCIÓN GENERAL DE OBRAS PÚBLICAS (CHILE). / José del C. FUENZALIDA Grandón.

Mapa escolar de Chile mandado hacer por órden señor ministro de instruccíon pública Don Domingo Amunàtagui Solar durante La Presidencia del Exmo. Señor Don Pedro Montt. Construido segun los últimos datos jeográficos en la inspeccion Jral. de jeográfia i minas de la direccion de obras públicas. Injeniero Jefe José del C. Fuenzalida. / Atlas de la República de Chile.

Gotha, Germany: Justus Perthes, 1911.

Small Folio (39 x 27 cm): 9 numbered double page colour lithographed plates of maps bound in plano, with plates 2, 5 and 8 printed on verso with topographical profiles, map plates designed for the possibility of being disbound and joined to form an amazingly tall map measuring approximately 312 x 53 cm (21 x 123 inches), bound in original tan boards with black cloth spine, title and Chilean coat of arms printed on front cover (Very Good, internally clean, bright and crisp, just a minor old repair from verso to small tear on final plate, covers with minor marginal toning and edge-wear).

A grand, resplendently colour lithographed cartographic work showcasing Chile, that can alternatively remain in its original form as an atlas, or can be transformed into a large wall map, prepared from the best sources by one of the country's leading official surveyors, José Fuenzalida Grandón, for use in schools and government offices, published in Germany by the venerable firm of Justus Perthes which had deep Latin American ties – very rare on the market – a lovely example.

MAPA ESCOLAR DE CHILE

MANDADO HACER POR ÓRDEN DEL SEÑOR MINISTRO DE INSTRUCCION PÚBLICA
DURANTE LA PRESIDENCIA DEL EXMO SEÑOR DON PEDRO MONTT
DON DOMINGO AMUNÁTEGUI SOLAR



CONSTRUIDO SEGUN LOS ÚLTIMOS DATOS JEOGRÁFICOS
EN LA INSPECCION JRAL. DE JEOGRAFÍA I MINAS
DE LA DIRECCION DE OBRAS PUBLICAS

INJENIERO JEFE
JOSÉ DEL C. FRENZHLIDA

OCEANO PACIFICO

OCEANO ATLÁNTICO

TIERRA DEL FUEGO

REFERENCIAS

Escala 1 : 1.500.000

- Terrenos desde 0 á 200 M. de altura
- " " 200 á 500 " "
- " " 500 á 1000 " "
- " " 1000 á 2000 " "
- " " 2000 á 3000 " "
- " " mas de 3000 " "
- Hondonas del mar 0 á 100 M.
- " " 100 á 1000 "
- " " 1000 á 2000 "
- " " 2000 á 3000 "
- " " mas de 3000 "

- Capitales de Provincias
- " Departamentos
- Villas ó Pueblos
- Ferrocarriles en esplotacion
- " " " construcción
- Límite internacional
- " provincial
- " departamental
- Lagunas
- Salares
- Salitreras

Ventisqueros

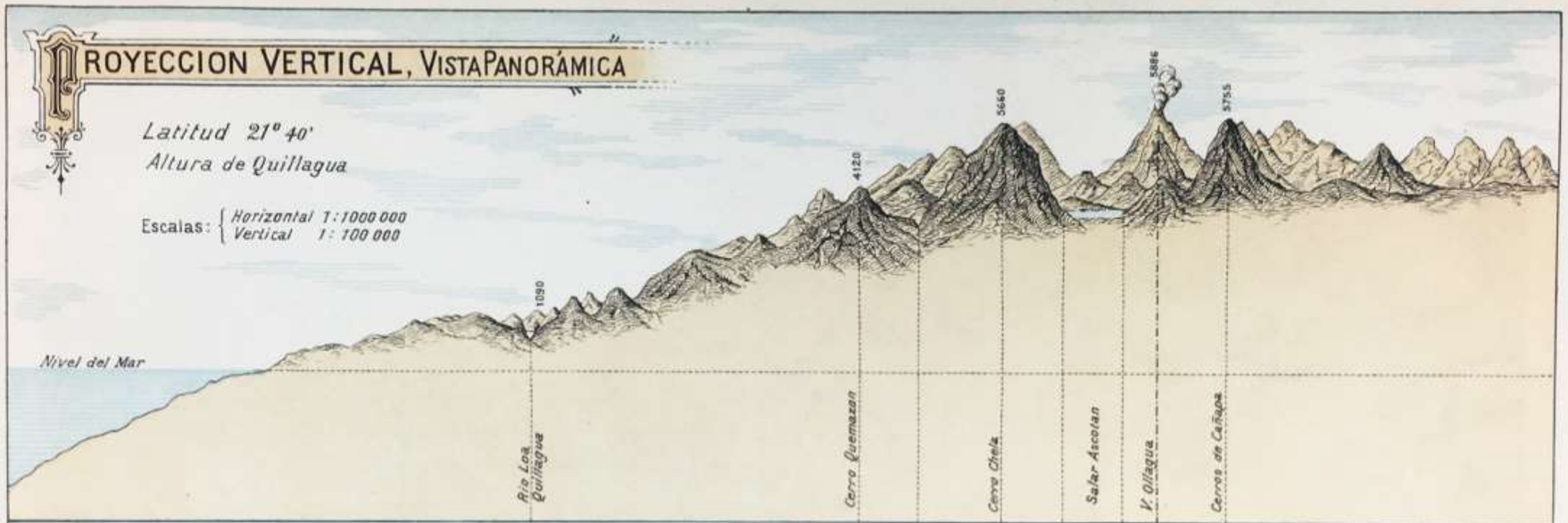
1911

Litografía e imprenta de Justus Perthes, Gotha.

PROYECCION VERTICAL, VISTA PANORÁMICA

Latitud 21° 40'
Altura de Quillagua

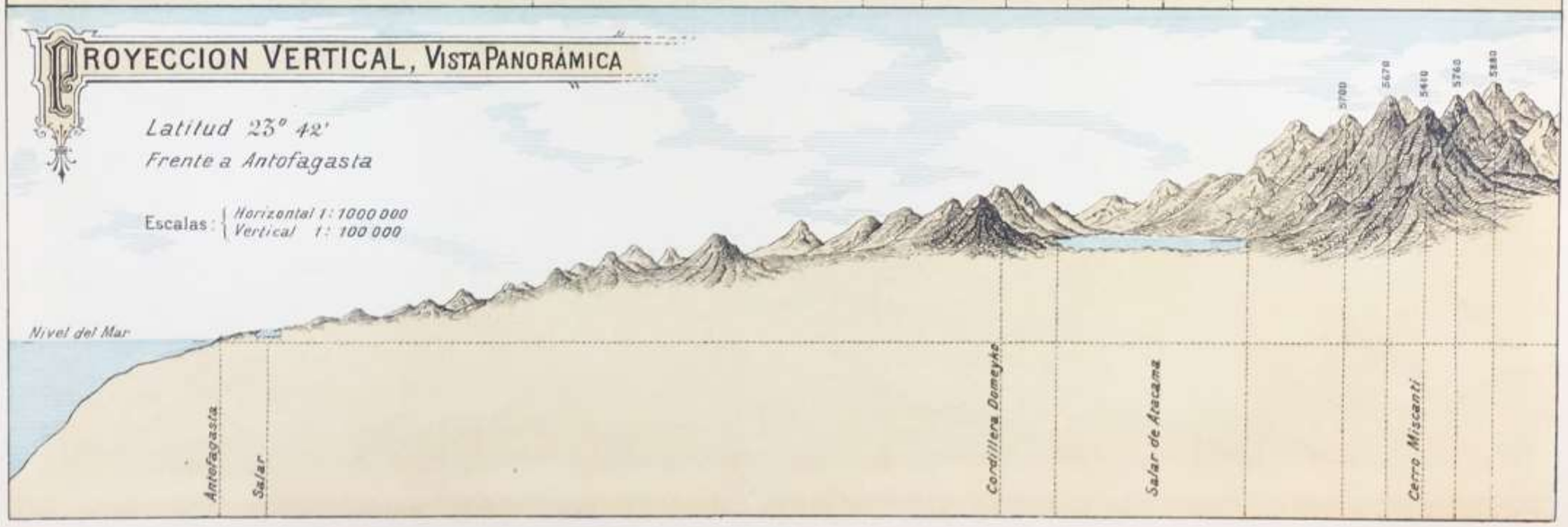
Escalas: { *Horizontal 1:1000 000* / *Vertical 1: 100 000*



PROYECCION VERTICAL, VISTA PANORÁMICA

Latitud 23° 42'
Frente a Antofagasta

Escalas: { *Horizontal 1: 1000 000* / *Vertical 1: 100 000*



This is one of the most attractive and innovative cartographic representations of Chile. It was made to be used in two alternative formats; first, as an atlas, as originally issued (as present here), featuring nine resplendent colour lithographed plates; or, second (if the atlas were to be disbound), as a large wall map that can be constructed in two ways, either by joining all the plates one on top of the other to form a map over 3 metres (10 feet) tall, or by placing the plates 3 x 3 x 3. Accordingly, the work goes by two alternative titles, *Mapa escolar de Chile* and *Atlas de la República de Chile*. The dual formats cleverly attended to the fact that Chile, due to its extraordinarily elongated shape, was perhaps the most difficult nation in the world to adequately map in a single view. Chile extends along the Pacific Coast of South America north to south for 4,270 km (2,653 miles), yet averages only 177 km (110 miles) in width from east to west.

The map was made under the direction José Fuenzalida Grandón, the Inspector General of Geography and Mines of the Chilean Department of Public Works and one of the country's most prolific cartographers. It was predicated upon the most recent official sources, commissioned by the Chilean Education Ministry. With its bright colours and clean design, the map was intended for use in schools and government offices. It was printed employing world leading techniques of colour lithography by Justus Perthes in Gotha, Germany; the venerable cartographic firm had for decades published many important maps of Latin America, often accompanied by important articles of geographic discoveries. It had been recently been commissioned by the Chilean government to print various technically demanding maps.

The final plate (9), features the fine title cartouche (of the possible wall map) with a large pictorial vignette of the Chilean national symbol of the Andean Condor. As explained in the 'Referencias', all of the nine double page plates feature gradients of colour, with six shades showing elevations above sea level up to over 5,000 metres, while the ocean features five gradations of blue down to depths below below 3,000 metres. Indeed, Chile is home to some of the world's most extreme topography, with the Andes often rising steeply from the coast, with the country's highest peak being the Nevado Ojos del Salado, which at 6,893 metres (22,615 feet), is the world's tallest active volcano.

Additionally, the 'Referencias' identifies all manner of settlements, from major cities (noting the national capital, Santiago, and provincial and departmental capitals), as well as pueblos (villages); railroads (both in use and under construction); jurisdictional boundaries; lagunes; salt lakes; 'salitreras' (potassium nitrate beds, being a critical ingredient for manufacturing fertilizer and explosives - a major Chilean export); and 'ventisqueros' (glaciers).

Additionally, three of the nine plates (being nos. 2, 5 and 8) feature two pairs each of 'Proyeccion Vertical. Vista Panorámica…', being topographical profiles of the country taken at different latitudes along Chile's length (making for a total of 12 profiles). The profiles vividly showcase Chile's dramatic landscape, with its numerous great volcanic peaks.

While the *Mapa escolar* / *Atlas de la República de Chile* is found in at least dozen libraries, it only very seldom appears on the market, and the present example is in particularly fine condition.

The present work was made when Chile was one of the wealthiest countries in the world, buoyed by a decades-long commodities boom. Rich in copper, potassium nitrate and other minerals, as well a cash crops, Chile fueled the Industrial Revolution in Europe and America. Chile's conquest of its northern provinces, from Bolivia and Peru, during the War of the Pacific (1879-84) granted it vast new resources and saw its national treasury revenues grow by 900%! While the country suffered bouts of political instability, its economic growth saw Chile form a large middle class, while funding improvements to social services and infrastructure. Indeed, the present map is an especially fine artefact of Chile's great investment in public education during its golden era. Sadly, Chile's economy suffered more that perhaps that of any other country during the Great Depression, when commodity prices collapsed. The country never fully recovered, and for decades was buffeted by political and economic instability. It was only in 2006, that Chile regained its place as Latin America's most affluent nation.

The cartographer José Fuenzalida Grandón was the Inspector General of the Geography and Mining Division of the Chilean Public Works Department. He was responsible for many of the early 20th century's most important topographical and natural resource maps of Chile, including, for example, the *Carta jeográfica y minera de… la Provincia de Coquimbo* (Gotha: Justus Perthes, 1912) and the *Carta minera de la zona de atracción del ferrocarril longitudinal entre Calera y Pintados con la ubicación* (Santiago, 1913).

References: *Mateo MARTINIĆ Beroš, Cartografía magallánica 1523-1945* (1999), p. 232; Phillips, *A List of Geographical Atlases in the Library of Congress*, no. 5146; Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin: Chil di 3 [2]°; Biblioteca Nacional de Chile: MC: MC0073689; OCLC: 21171167, 253828092, 22531663, 556893003 and 855558132.

SOLD

18. Australia- Global Travel & Communications Melbourne Imprint

Thomas WAGHORN (1800 - 1850). / Thomas HAM (1821 - 1870), Cartographer.

Chart shewing the Route of Steam Communication between England & Australia proposed by Lieutt. Waghorne. / Supplement to the Pt. Phillip Herald, Tuesday Augst. 18th 1846.

[Melbourne:] Thomas Ham for the Port Phillip Herald, 1846.

Lithograph (Very Good, just some light foxing), 22 x 28 cm (8.5 x 11 inches).

An extremely rare broadside map depicting the proposed new 'fast' steamship route from Singapore to Sydney that promised to cut the travel time from England to Australia by half, as devised by Thomas Waghorn, the era's great and controversial visionary of global transportation, the work drafted by Thomas Ham, the father of map printing in Victoria, published in Melbourne as a loose supplement to the 'Port Phillip Herald'.

Thomas Waghorn was a famous and controversial figure who during the 1830s and '40s was perhaps the world's most prominent promoter of new proposals to make transportation between Europe, India and Australia faster and more reliable. From 1837 to 1844, he operated a business that transported mail and passengers across the Suez Peninsula, so dramatically reducing the travel time between England and India. While that enterprise eventually failed commercially, from 1845 Waghorn set his sights upon creating a fast link to Australia, to the benefit of trade, communications and immigration.

Waghorn noticed that while by the mid 1840s the fast travel route from England to India was well-established (in part due to his own efforts), developing expeditious links onwards to Australia was a neglected opportunity. Up to this point, the usual route between England and Australia was the horrifically long passage around the Cape of Good Hope that took least 120 days. This placed a severe damper upon Australia's potential, as while New South Wales imported on average £1.5 million of goods per annum from Britain, this amount would surely grow in a major way if transport links were

improved. Moreover, immigration to Australia could be increased dramatically, to the benefit of that underdeveloped land, if the passage was not so forbiddingly long and unpleasant.

In a May 1846 address to Colonial Secretary William Gladstone, Waghorn wrote:

"It is not for me to call your attention to the political and commercial importance of Australia, New Zealand, & c. You are far better aware of it than I can possible pretend to be. You well know the magnitude of that fifth part of the earth – equal in extent to the whole of Continental Europe. You know the impediments that prevent its development, by reason of its extreme remoteness from the parent state. You know its resources. You have, perhaps,casually,made a guess in your own mind of the degree to which those resources might be called forth, were that distance diminished materially - were Port Jackson and London brought two or three months nearer than at present…" (Waghorn, *Letter to the Rt. Hon. Wm. Ewart Gladstone*,pp. 3-4).

Waghorn believed that a far faster and more pleasant route from England to Australia could be found be developing a 4,450-mile-long steamship route from Singapore to Sydney (the full London to Sydney trip, via the Suez and India, totaled 11,700 miles). This would allow one to travel from London to Sydney in 60-65 days, roughly having the established travel time.

Waghorn aggressively promoted the Singapore-Sydney steamship line concept in England, the East Indies and Australia, seeking to gain seed money from the crown and private investors. The premise that Australia could be brought much closer to the home country naturally sparked great excitement, especially in Sydney and Melbourne. This is where the present map enters the scene.

Responding to the intense public interest that Waghorn's proposal generated in Australia, the present map was drawn and lithographed by Thomas Ham, who had recently established himself as the father of map publishing in Melbourne. It was made to be a loose-leaf insert, or supplement, to the August 16, 1846 issue of the *Port Phillip Herald*, the city's leading newspaper.

The present map, lithographed in a charmingly crude colonial style, embraces Europe, Africa, Asia, Australia and New Zealand. The legend, at the bottom identifies the various transport routes depicted, being the *Present Route* (dashed line); *Proposed Route* (dotted line); and the *Probable Route Overland* (dashed and crossed line). The *Present Route* delineates the well-established 'fast' route from England to Calcutta (mixed steamship and overland) and from there on to Singapore and Canton, China. The *Proposed Route* shows Waghorn's envisaged new steamship route from Singapore to Sydney, via intended coaling stations at Surabaya, Bali or Lombok, and Port Essington (northern Australia). While less developed, Waghorn's *Probable Route Overland* refers to the possible terrestrial routes from Port Essington to Sydney, and then on to Melbourne and Adelaide, that would avoid adverse sea currents, and could perhaps one day be served by railways.

Waghorn wrote several formal proposals and published pamphlets in London to promote both his Singapore-Sydney steamship conceptions, as well as to encourage Australian immigration. Despite his intense and high-profile lobbying campaign, the Crown eventually declined to support his project, due to the considerable costs involved. However, as was the case with his previous work in developing a transport route across the Suez Isthmus, Waghorn paved the way for others to successfully follow through on such ventures in the succeeding years. In short, Waghorn proved that such a route was both possible and advantageous, it was just some years ahead of its time. It was not until the Australian Gold Rush (1851 – *c*.1869) that the considerable capital became available to ensure that a fast route from England to Sydney and Melbourne (via Egypt, India and Singapore) would become a commercially viable reality.

A Note on Editions and Rarity

We are aware of two states of the map. The first appears to be a proof, missing Ham's imprint, a few small details on the map, and the line regarding the *Port Phillip Herald*. It is known in only a single example, held by the National Library of Australia, please see link:

https://nla.gov.au/nla.obj-231472771/view

We can only trace a single institutional example of the present state of the map, held by the

State Library of Victoria. Moreover, we are not aware of any sales records for other examples.

The great rarity of the map is not surprising, as the survival rate of such ephemeral pre-Gold Rush era Victorian imprints is extremely low.

Thomas Waghorn: Controversial Visionary of Global Transportation

Thomas Fletcher Waghorn (1800 - 1850) was during his day a very famous and controversial figure. To some, he was a charismatic visionary, years ahead of his time. To others, he was a self-aggrandizing confidence man – the truth perhaps is that he was both these things!

A native of Snodland, Kent, Waghorn joined the Royal Navy at the age of 12 and sailed the world, with particular experience in the East Indies. He became obsessed with shortening the monstrously long and unpleasant route from England to India that went via the Cape of Good Hope. As early as 1829-30, he claimed to have investigated a route from England to India the traversed Egypt's Suez Isthmus, so reducing the travel distance by 5,000 miles, and the time from four months to 35-45 days. In 1832, Waghorn resigned from the navy, with the rank of Lieutenant, and dedicated himself to opening an England-Egypt-India route for commercial purposes.

Waghorn made several trips from England to India via Egypt, and even lived with the Arab tribes around Suez for two years in order to gain knowledge and local 'street cred'. He also struck up a good relationship with Ibrahim Pasha, the ruler of Egypt, who supported of his plans.

In 1837, Waghorn founded a firm that transported mail and a limited number of passengers across the Suez, connecting them to steamship lines on both sides, so creating a fast connection between England and India. He also benefitted from being appointed Britain's Deputy Consul in Egypt (albeit a post he held only for a short time, as he quarreled with his superiors).

For a time Waghorn's enterprise appeared to be quite successful, as his route was considered the 'gold standard' for the fast transport of the post and important government communications between India and the home country. However, his business suffered when from 1840 the shipping behemoth P&O set up a rival service over the Suez, and it was taken out entirely in 1844 when 300 of his horses died of a plague. Waghorn then promptly sold what remained of his Egyptian assets and privileges to Ibrahim Pasha.

However, the failure of Waghorn's Egyptian enterprise did little to dampen his enthusiasm for global transport and communications. He noticed that while the England-Suez-India connection was being well served, the onward trip to Australia was not well developed. Hitherto, most voyages from England to Australia travelled via the Cape of Good Hope and across the southern Indian Ocean, a brutal trip that usually lasted four months. Waghorn had a vision to halve the travel time, and made many proposals to

the Crown to convince them to subsidize a steamship line from Singapore to Sydney. While these proposals gained a tremendous amount of attention in both London and in Australia, Waghorn failed to secure the notoriously parsimonious government's support.

As a consolation prize, the Crown agreed to pay for Waghorn to investigate an improved overland route across Europe (from Calais to Trieste), connecting to the Suez, so knocking time off the England-India run. Waghorn duly invested in several trans-European trials. Sadly, though, the government apparently did not follow through on the promised funds, leaving Waghorn £5,000 in debt – a large sum for the time.

Stressed by his constant travels and financial issues, Thomas Waghorn died suddenly in London at the age of 49.

However, Waghorn had a legacy that far outlived him. Dueling historians have debated whether Waghorn was a serious entrepreneur with credible, if not visionary, business plans for revolutionizing global travel, or, conversely, that he was huckster who knowingly exaggerated the viability of his schemes to bilk both the Crown and private investors. In any event, Waghorn was incredibly influential, for he drove the conversation that ultimately led to dramatic material improvements in travel between England, India and Down Under in the years after his death. Ferdinand de Lesseps, the man who completed the Suez Canal 1869, revered Waghorn, even erecting a statue to him in Egypt bearing the line "he opened the route, and we followed him".

Thomas Ham: The Father of Map Publishing in Victoria Australia

Thomas Ham (1821 -1870) was the father of map publishing in Victoria, printing maps in Melbourne well in advance of the Gold Rush. Ham was a native of Devon, England, and immigrated to Melbourne in 1842, arriving with his parents and two brothers. His father soon became an important figure in town as the minister of the Collins Street Baptist Church.

Thomas had apprenticed as an engraver and lithographer in England and showed great natural aptitude for his profession. He benefited greatly from the fact that, during the early 1840s, he was one of the only people in Melbourne with any experience in printing, and so in 1843 he was contracted to engrave the corporation seal for the Town of Melbourne. He soon incorporated a business on Collins Street and became the official government printer in Melbourne, as well as fulfilling commissions from various banks, businesses and periodicals, such as the *Port Phillip Herald*. Additionally, philatelists value Ham's work, for he engraved the first Victoria stamps.

Thomas and his brothers showed a great and skilled interest in land speculation and as early as 1845 they held titles to properties in the countryside beyond Melbourne. His contacts in government and in the settler community gave him unrivalled access to the latest geographic intelligence in the region. He realized the urgent need for an accurate and fully up-to-date map of the 'Port Phillip District' (later Victoria) and issued a *Map of Australia Felix* (1847), which was importantly the first locally produced map of the region.

Not unlike the situation in San Francisco, the discovery of gold in Victoria in 1851 led to a a mass influx of people, wealth and talent that fostered a thriving local print industry, as well as a unique and rich visual culture. From 1856, several other mapmakers were established on the Melbourne scene in effort to satiate the cartographic needs of prospectors and land speculators.

Ham's Squatter's Map of Victoria, the successor to his *Australia Felix*, became the seminal map of Victoria of the Gold Rush era. Published in eleven regularly updated editions up to 1864, it was the map of record used by all government officials, settlers, miners and land speculators, who frequently sent suggestions for additions and updates to Ham's office, which were duly incorporated into subsequent issues.

Ham also issued other maps more focused on Melbourne and its environs, including *Melbourne and Geelong Districts* (1849), *Map of the Suburban Lands of the City of Melbourne* (1852) and *Plan of the City of Melbourne* (1854).

From 1850 to 1852, Thomas, with his brothers, Theophilus and Jabez, also published the *Illustrated Australian Magazine*, the first illustrated Australian periodical. Thomas also issued important views of the Gold Rush, including *Ham's Five Views of the Gold Fields of Mount Alexander and Ballarat*, drawn by D. Tulloch (1852) and the plates within *The Diggers Portfolio* and *The Gold Diggers Portfolio* (1854).

In 1853, Ham and his brothers opened a successful real estate firm that became known as C., J. & T. Ham. In 1857, seeking to capitalize on the specific needs of the mining industry, he joined Victorian Geological Survey Office, where he made pioneering geological maps of the region.

In 1860, Ham moved the Brisbane where he became the lithographer and later the Chief Engraver of the Queensland Survey Office. The highlight of his tenure there was his *Atlas of the Colony of Queensland* (1868). Ham and some business partners also developed sugar plantations on the Albert River. Thomas Ham died at Brisbane on March 8, 1870, highly regarded for his work as a mapmaker and printer and wealthy from his land dealings.

References: State Library of Victoria: MAPS SB 100 GMFS 1846 HAM., OCLC: 854851520; Cf. (Re: proof state:) National Library of Australia: MAP RM 1397, OCLC: 225162300; (Re: Waghorn's contemporary promotional pamphlets:) Thomas Waghorn, *Letter to the Rt. Hon. Wm. Ewart Gladstone, M.P.: Secretary of State for the colonies, on the extension of steam navigation from Singapore to Port Jackson, Australia* (London: Smith, Elder, and Co., Cornhill, 1846); Thomas Waghorn, *Mr. Waghorn's second pamphlet on steam communication with Australia, via Singapore: letter to the Rt. Hon. the Earl Grey, on the extension of steam navigation from Singapore to Port Jackson, Australia* (London: Smith, Elder, and Co., Cornhill, 1847); Thomas Waghorn, *Waghorn on Emigration to Australia on the broadest possible principles, for the future amelioration and prosperity of Great Britain. Dedicated to Earl Grey, etc.* (George Mann; James Ridgway: London, [1848]).

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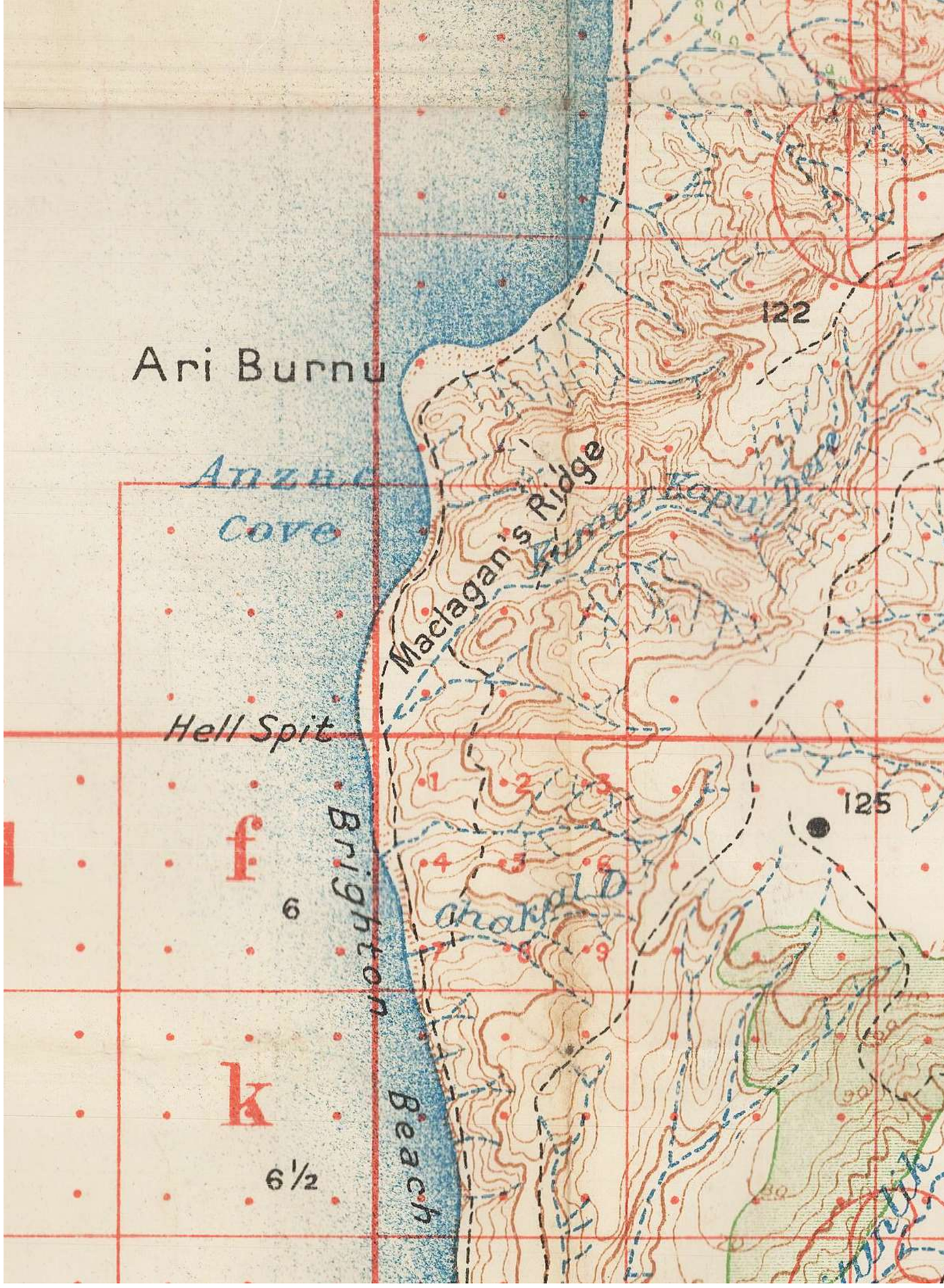
SUPPLEMENT to the "Pt PHILLIP HERALD"



TUESDAY AUG ST 18 TH 1846

Tho$ Ham Sc

19. WWI Gallipoli Campaign
Anzac Cove
Lawrence Of Arabia
Cairo Imprint



INTELLIGENCE OFFICE [ARAB BUREAU], CAIRO.

Kurija Dere (Koja Dere).

Cairo: Survey Department, Egypt, 1915.

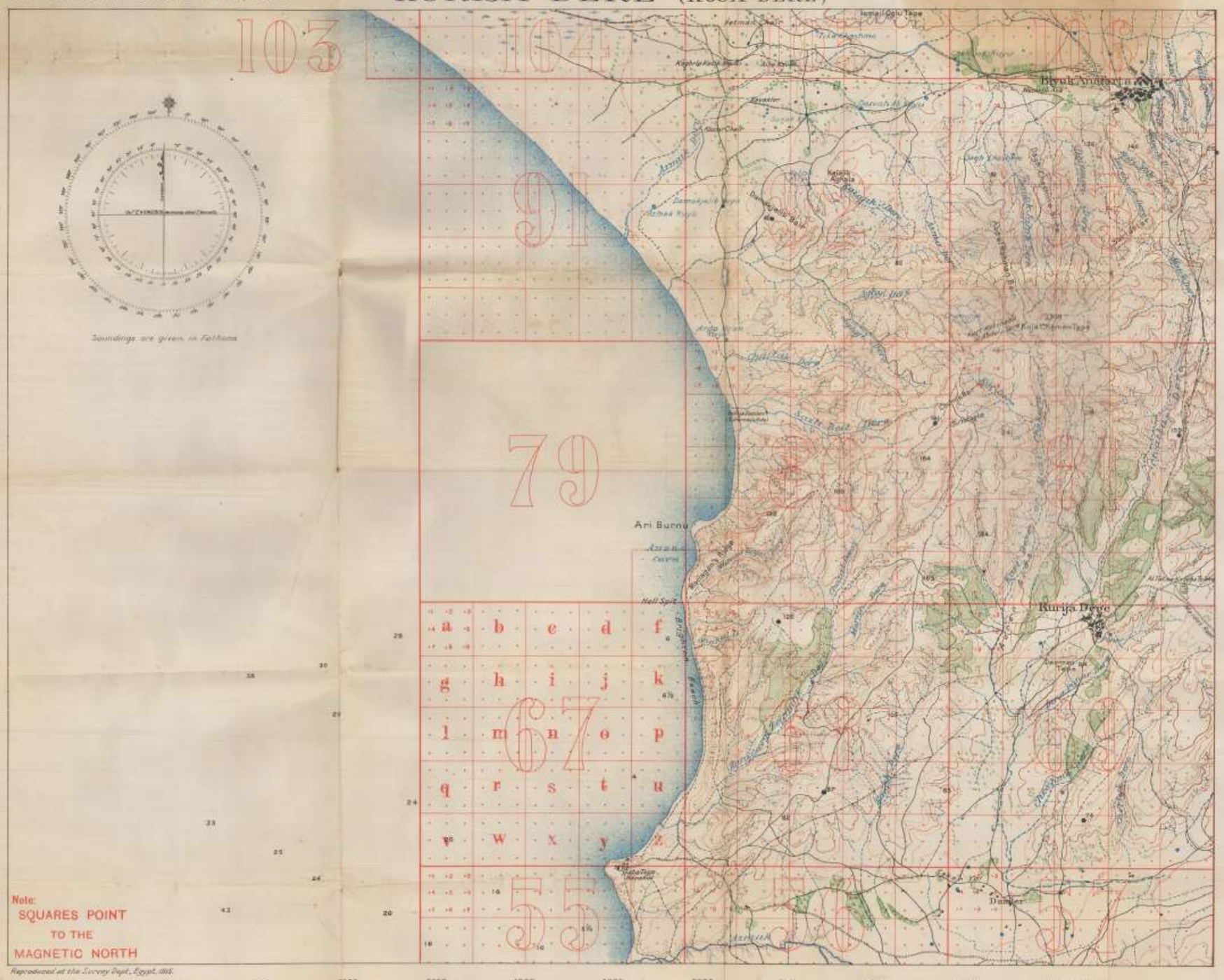
Colour Lithograph mounted upon original linen (Good, save for a conspicuous old stain in the upper right quadrant, light wear along original folds), 60 x 79 cm (23.5 x 31 inches).

Extremely important - the definitive map of the critical Ari Burnu battle sector, labelling Anzac Cove, used by Allied-Anzac forces during WWI's Gallipoli Campaign, a foundational event in the history of Australia, New Zealand and the Republic of Turkey; drafted in Cairo under the direction of T.E. Lawrence at the Arab Bureau's Intelligence Office, predicated upon a recently captured Ottoman map; the present example with subsequent manuscript additions in Turkish recording the Battle of Chunuk Bair (August 7-19, 1915), one of the bloodiest and tragically heroic events of the entire campaign.

In the early days of World War I, the Entente (or Allied) powers sought to knock the Ottoman Empire out of the conflict by taking Constantinople, by way of the Dardanelles. They mounted the Gallipoli Campaign (February 17, 1915 – January 9, 1916), during which a force of 490,000 British, Indian, Australian, New Zealander and French troops made various landings upon the Gallipoli Peninsula which

GALLIPOLI - Scale 1:20,000

KURIJA DERE (KOJA DERE)



Instructions for the use of squares.

I. The letters for the smaller squares are only inserted in one or two of the large squares and the numbers of the 9 dots are only inserted in the top left hand small square in each large square. These questions squares are to act as a key to all the other squares; e.g. position b, 2 falls in the same relative position in each large square. A side of each of the small squares measures 500 yards.

II. To communicate the position of any point the signal should consist of:—

1. The distinguishing area removed.
2. " " square letter.
3. " " dot removed of the dot nearest the point to be indicated.

III. When observation parties of greater accuracy, instead of the dot removed, the distance in tens of yards from the South and West sides of the squares should be signalled. Care must be taken that the distance from the South side is given before the distance from the West side.

IV. THESE SQUARES BEAR NO RELATION TO THOSE ON THE 1:40,000 GALLIPOLI MAPS, OR TO THOSE ON THE 1:40,000 MAP OF SOUTHERN GALLIPOLI.

NOTES:—

1. The orientation of the sheet and of the squares is along the magnetic north.
2. Heights are given in metres. Contours are at 10 metre intervals.

Instructions sur l'emploi des carrés.

I. Les lettres indiquant les petits carrés sont marquées sur un ou deux des grands carrés, et les numéros des 9 points sont seulement marqués sur le petit carré en haut à gauche de ces deux grands carrés. Ces carrés spéciaux servent comme guide pour tous les autres grands carrés.

Exemple: la position b, 2 tombe dans la même position relative dans chaque grand carré. Une côté de ces petits carrés mesure 549 mètres.

II. Pour communiquer la position d'un point, le signal doit consister de:

1° Indiquer le numéro du grand carré.
2° " la lettre relative au petit carré.
3° " le numéro du point du petit carré le plus rapproché au point que l'on veut indiquer.

III. Quand l'observation permet une plus grande exactitude, au lieu du numéro du point, on devra signaler les distances en dizaines de mètres des côtés Sud et Ouest du petit carré.

On doit avoir soin de donner la distance du côté Sud en premier lieu et ensuite la distance du côté Ouest.

IV. CES CARRÉS N'ONT AUCUN RAPPORT AVEC CEUX DES CARTES DE GALLIPOLI À L'ÉCHELLE DE 1:40,000, OU CEUX DES CARTES DE GALLIPOLI SUD À L'ÉCHELLE DE 1:20,000.

NOTES:—

1° L'orientation de la carte et celle des carrés suivent avec le Nord Magnétique.
2° Les hauteurs sont données en mètres. Ces contours sont à 10 mètres d'intervalle.

Conversion table from metres to feet.

10 metres	=	32.8 feet
20 "	=	65.6 "
30 "	=	98.4 "
40 "	=	131.2 "
50 "	=	164.0 "
60 "	=	196.9 "
70 "	=	229.7 "
80 "	=	262.5 "
90 "	=	295.3 "
100 "	=	328.1 "
200 "	=	656.0 "
300 "	=	984.0 "

REFERENCE.

Ada	=	Island
Agha	=	Mound
Ak	=	White
Ak-dere (Koja)	=	Stream
Ari	=	Promontory
Bagh	=	Garden
Baghche	=	Gardens
Beit	=	Monastery
Bir	=	Spring
Bostan	=	Kitchen Garden
Burnu, Burun	=	Cape
Chai	=	Stream
Chair	=	Meadow
Chukur	=	Valley
Dere (KOJA DERE)	=	Ravine
Deve	=	Mountain
Hafir	=	Drinking well
Hajji	=	Mosque
Hissar	=	Fort
Hurma	=	Date palm
Kaleh	=	Castle or fort with citadel
Kara	=	Black
Kavak	=	Poplar tree
Kiosk	=	Summer house
Kuru	=	Dry
Kurija (Koja)	=	Village
Limni	=	Lake
Liman	=	Harbour
Mahalla	=	Village
Mal	=	Property
Mezar	=	Grave
Minare	=	Minaret
Ova	=	Plain
Palanka	=	Stockade
Pinar	=	Spring
Rhemal	=	Sand
Sahra	=	Desert
Su	=	River
Tabia	=	Fort
Tarla	=	Field
Tekke	=	Mosque shrine
Tepe	=	Hill
Yali	=	Seaport roadstead
Yol	=	Road

strategically guarded the mouth of the Dardanelles. The 325,000 Ottoman defenders, backed by German forces, successfully repelled these raids, in what was one of the most hard-fought and bloody military contests in World history.

During the first months of the campaign the Allied forces were hampered by a lack of accurate maps of the Gallipoli Peninsula's dangerously rugged terrain. They eventually managed to capture a complete six-part series of excellent, newly published Ottoman surveys showing each sector of the battle theatre. These maps were rushed to the map department of the Intelligence Office (later the famed 'Arab Bureau') in Cairo, where they were translated, enlarged and improved by a team headed by Lieutenant T.E. Lawrence, later known 'Lawrence of Arabia'. These maps were printed by the Survey Department, Egypt, in a series of six interconnecting maps, although each map could act as a complete stand-alone work in-and-of-itself (a geographic key to all six maps is present on the verso of the present map).

The first sets of the Cairo maps were given to Allied commanders in the field mere moments before their ill-fated 'August Offensive' (August 6-21, 1915), whereby they mounted a series of large-scale advances against the Ottoman lines, only to be repelled with severe casualties. Nevertheless, the new maps were considered vitally useful and largely solved the operational problems suffered by the Entente troops early in the campaign; they ensured that a bad situation was perhaps not much worse. A second edition of the maps was promptly issued in Cairo and dispatched to Gallipoli as the campaign dragged on into another months-long stalemate.

It should be noted that early on during the August Offensive, the Ottomans captured a set of the maps printed in Cairo and marvelled at how their own supposedly 'secret' geographical intelligence was adopted and disseminated by the other side. From that point onwards, the maps were greatly admired as the highest quality and certainly the most interesting printed maps used in the field during the entire campaign. For decades thereafter, Gallipoli veterans and historians have held the maps in particular esteem.

The present map, entitled 'Kurija Dere' is the most important single map in the Cairo series, as it showcases the critical Ari Burnu combat sector, not only labelling 'Anzac Cove', the scene of the epic Australian and new Zealand landing on April 25, 1915, but also the entire theatre of the battles of Lone Pine and Chunuk Bair, key events of the August Offensive. The Ari Burnu sector was not only the scene of the ANZACs most daring and brave stands but was also where Ottoman Colonel Mustafa Kemal (later the legendary Turkish leader 'Atatürk') first won global fame.

Importantly, the present map, while one of a six-part series of interconnecting Gallipoli maps, is a complete work in-and-of itself. In fact, for security reasons, officers in the field were often requested to only possess the map(s) of the specific sectors in which they were operating; as it followed that if they were captured, it was best that additional maps not fall unnecessarily into enemy hands (for example an officer fighting in Ari Burnu had no need to carry a map of the distant Cape Helles sector). For this reason, the six maps in the Gallipoli series printed in Cairo are only rarely found together. Moreover, the present example of the map is of the second edition, in that it was issued during late summer or early autumn of 1915, while the Gallipoli Campaign was still ongoing. It is distinguished from the first edition of July 1915 by the inclusion of another translation of the title in brackets following the original title: 'Kurija Dere (Koja Dere)'.

The present map is an advanced topographical rendering of the Ari Burnu sector (named after the sea point located in the centre of the map), in the north-western part of the Gallipoli Peninsula. The map is named 'Kurija Dere', transliterated from the Ottoman name of the map, after the village on the right side of the work (today spelled 'Kocadere'). In most aspects, the Cairo-printed map closely follows its Ottoman antecedent map that was published earlier the same year. All headlands and many key ridges are labelled, as are all roads, trails, creeks and rivers, while forested arears are filled in green, while the coasts of the Aegean Sea form a powdery blue arc, as some bathymetric soundings are included offshore. Notably, the map accurately renders the radically varied elevation of the landscape through contour lines (at ten-metre intervals), while spot heights of summits are given in metres. The map gives one a clear understanding of the extreme difficulty that both the ANZAC's and the Ottoman defenders faced while operating in such incredibly rugged territory; soldiers often had to climb slopes of over 45° in gradient while enduring heavy enemy fire.

The printed map features important additions from its Ottoman antecedent in that it adds some names given by the Allies to locations where their forces made their first landed in the area in April 1915 (the first edition of the present map did not appear until July of the same year), most notably 'Anzac Cove', 'Hell Spit', 'Brighton Beach' and 'Maclagan's Ridge'. Importantly, the map also features the addition of a series of red numbered grids, all orientated to the magnetic north, to aid the use of the map in the field (Allied troops previously encountered severe orientation problems using the old maps of Gallipoli). The text panel to the right of the map explains, in both English and French (French soldiers fought alongside the British and the ANZACS), how to use the grid reference as well as providing chart for converting feet to metres, plus a helpful 'Reference' translating Turkish topographical terms into English.

The Critical Role of Cartography in the Gallipoli Campaign

Geographic knowledge of the battle theatre is always a key factor in the success of an army; however, this was perhaps nowhere truer than during the Gallipoli Campaign, where the terrestrial operations were fought upon an extreme topography of a rocky, largely barren peninsula of steep ridges and deep, irregular ravines. A lack of complete and precise knowledge of this challenging landscape was a critical factor in the outcome of many operations during the campaign and was responsible for thousands of casualties.

In planning the Gallipoli Campaign, the British high command severely underestimated the skill and resolve of the Ottoman defenders; they expected to quickly bulldoze what was they anticipated to be mediocre opposition. Accordingly, they were amazingly ignorant of the both the topography of the Gallipoli Peninsula as well as the hydrography of the surrounding seas.

The fascinating role of cartography during the Gallipoli Campaign, which prominently features the present map, is brilliant explained in the chapter entitled 'Lawrence at Gallipoli', in Haluk Oral's *Gallipoli through Turkish Eyes* (Istanbul, 2012), an absolute 'must-read' book for anyone interested in the WWI in the Near and Middle East.

At the begging of the Gallipoli Campaign, the best hydrographic work that the Allies possessed of the region was a 1908 chart of the waters around the Gallipoli Peninsula and the Dardanelles, that while based on recent Admiralty surveys, soon proved to have horrific flaws that unnecessarily endangered ships and troops landings. As for territorial mapping, the Entente powers relied upon a reprint of French map dating from the Crimean War (1853-6)! This chart was both astoundingly inaccurate and done to a relatively small scale of 1:50,000, ensuring that its use was probably more dangerous than not using any map at all!

The Allies originally hoped to secure control of the Gallipoli Peninsula through a naval operation, launching a barrage of Ottoman positions from numerous vessels beginning on March 18, 1915. This design was an absolute failure, in part due to the faulty charts and maps which often ensured that the Allies vessels had little clue as to where they manoeuvred or took aim.

As the frightful quality of the existing maps became apparent to the British high command, they sent airplanes to make a photographic reconnaissance of Gallipoli, resulting in a new 3-sheet map of the peninsula and the Dardanelles region, done to scale of 1:40,000. While an improvement over the 60-year old French map, it still proved inadequate, especially as aerial reconnaissance was a new, imperfect science, while the scale of the map was still too small for operational sue.

With the failure of the naval operations, the Allied powers decided to undertake a land invasion of the Gallipoli Peninsula. Despite the problems to date and the questionable nature of the available cartography, the field commanders promised Whitehall that they would be marching into Constantinople within a fortnight!

On the night of April 25, 1915, the Allied command planned two main landings upon Gallipoli, one near Cape Helles, at the southern end of the peninsula, and other in the Ari Burnu sector along the north-western coast of the peninsula. Both landings were severely hampered by the inaccuracy or vagueness of the available maps.

Of direct relevance to the present map, the Entente force that landed at Ari Burnu was commanded by General Sir Ian Hamilton and consisted of 78,000 men, mainly ANZACs, backed by a small number of British and French troops. An advance force of 16,000 landed at what would become Anzac Cove, just to the south of the point of Ari Burnu, although this spot was 1.6 km north of the planned landing. While the ANZAC-Entente force fought with incredible bravery and skill, they had to scale expectedly steep terrain, all the while battling tooth-and-nail against Colonel Mustafa Kemal's 12,000-man force. Problematically, the exiting maps showed the landscape to feature a series of interconnecting ridges, upon which the invaders could conceivably move from peak to peak, although, in reality, these highlands were interrupted by deep, brush-filled ravines, that were vitally impassable. Against tremendous odds, the Anzac-Entente force managed to gain and hold a beachhead, however, this foothold was much smaller than anticipated. In fact, the local Allied command even considered retreating, until that notion was overruled as it was thought too dangerous to attempt. The other major Allied landing at Cape Helles was similarly unsuccessful.

For the next four months, the Anzac-Entente forces and the Ottomans fought a series of bloody, yet indecisive, maneuverers along the summits and ravines of the Ari Burnu area that resulted in a frightful stalemate.

Back to cartography, the Ottomans, who had in the last generation attained stellar military mapping capabilities, had prepared an excellent new set of maps of the Gallipoli Peninsula. Anticipating an Entente attack upon the Dardanelles, Ottoman engineers had mapped the area to an amazingly high degree of accuracy and to a large scale fit for operational utility. The General Staff of the Ottoman Army printed in Constantinople a set of six interconnecting maps, to a uniform scale of 1:25,000

While the new set of Ottoman maps had not been printed in time for the April 25, 1915 Entente landings, we know that they were made available to local Ottoman commanders shortly thereafter. A letter dated May 14, 1915, from Lieutenant Colonel Mustafa Kemal, a senior Ottoman commander in the Ari Burnu sector, addressed to his officers, notes that he had just received ten sets of the maps from Constantinople. The maps were to be given only to senior officers, while special measures were to be taken to ensure that they were not captured by the enemy. Should that happen, the hitherto geographically confused Allies would be handed a tremendous gift.

However, the unexpectedly viscous and protracted nature of the fighting upon the heights of Ari Burnu ensured that supposedly 'impregnable' positions were overrun. On May 19, 1915 – only four days after Colonel Kemal received the maps from the General Staff – a detachment of Australians captured a partial set of maps from a wounded Turkish officer, while another partial set was likewise captured by another Allied force near Cape Helles.

The British high command immediately realized the extreme quality and practical value of the captured Ottoman maps, and after making some improvised copies for their own immediate operational use, had the maps sent by express to Cairo, the nearest British base with the facilities to translate, edit and reproduce enough copies to serve senior Entente commanders at Gallipoli.

Fortunately, in December 1914, Lieutenant T.E. Lawrence (1888 - 1935), an eccentric and insubordinate, yet extraordinary brilliant, junior officer was placed in charge of the map department at the newly formed Intelligence Office in Cairo (later known as the famed 'Arab Bureau). Lawrence had previously gained valuable experience mapping the Sinai Peninsula, and was a stellar cartographer with a gift for languages.

Beginning in June 1915, under Lawrence's oversight, the captured set of Ottoman maps of Gallipoli was enlarged (to scale of 1:20,000) and translated with new toponyms such as 'Anzac Cove'. Moreover, as troops in the field had a terrible time finding their way with the old maps, sets of red quadrants were added to the maps orientated towards the magnetic north, while detailed text panels, in both English and French, were added, explaining how to use the navigational quadrants, as well as providing translations of Turkish topographical terms. As shown on the key on the verso of the present map, the Intelligence Branch produced a complete set of six maps in line with the Ottoman antecedents, they are as follows: 'Anafarta Sagir'; 'Kurija Dere'; 'Damler'; 'Krithia'; 'Chanak'; and 'Boghali'.

The Allied command planned another large-scale land offensive somewhere upon the Gallipoli Peninsula, at some point soon. In line with Lawrence's insubordinate streak, the first shipment of maps from Cairo to Gallipoli include only the maps for Cape Helles and Çanakkale, reflecting the young lieutenant's strong opinion that the Entente forces should make a landing in the latter location (he supposedly did not include the other sheets in order to dissuade a landing in these areas, including Ari Burnu). However, the generals had other ideas and placed pressure on the Intelligence Office to immediately forward sets including all six sector maps. Amazingly the complete sets were not received in Gallipoli until the very eve of the planned landings.

In what became known as the 'August Offensive' (August 6-21, 1915), the Allied forces planned a main landing at Suvla Bay, on the far north-western part of the Gallipoli Peninsula, while smaller, diversionary, operations would occur simultaneously in the Ari Burnu sector, to the south.

The main operation at Suvla Bay on August 6 was a complete fiasco, as the force under Lieutenant General Frederick Stopford, barely made it 800 metres inland before being stonewalled by fierce Ottoman resistance.

The principally ANZAC forces fighting in the Ari Burnu sector were more successful, although they endured horrific casualties. At the Battle of Lone Pine (August 6-10, 1915), the ANZACs succeeded in gaining ground from their small beachhead, taking several of the key highlands located on the present

map. However, this came at the terrible price of almost 2,300 Entente casualties versus the Ottomans' 6-7,000.

The action at Lone Pine dovetailed into the Battle of Chunuk Bair (August 7-19, 1915), which is the focus of the manuscript additions showcased on the present map. In this operation, a force of 12-13,000 largely ANZAC troops surged up the heights of Chunuk Bair where they successful dislodged the advance of Colonel Kemal's 18,000-man force. Taking the summit on August 8, the present map shows how the Entente force consolidated its gains the following day. However, in an audacious move, Colonel Kemal mounted a counterattack on August 10, dislodging the ANZACs from the summit, driving them a way back towards their original positions. The losses for both sides were astounding, the Entente force suffered 6,000 casualties, while the Ottomans endured 9,200 casualties! Beyond that, the loss at Chunuk Bair was a major blow to the morale of the Allied side, even though the ANZACs were rightly commended for their skill and bravery in what was likely an impossible assignment. The victory at Chunuk Bair, galvanized Mustafa Kemal's reputation a war hero and military genius. More than any other single event, it sent him on his way to become one of the legendary figures of the 20th Century.

Returning to the maps sent to the Entente commanders from Cairo, they received high praise, in that the 'captured' Ottoman cartographic knowledge proved very helpful in allowing the Allies to correctly navigate the terrain, making whatever advances, however fleeting, they were able to gain.

While the Entente commanders had given their officers orders to guard against the capture of the maps, like those given by Kemal to his troops, perhaps predictably, it was not long into the August Offensive that the Ottomans gained a complete set of the maps printed in Cairo. The Ottomans were amazed that not only had their maps been captured, but that such great efforts had been made to translate, edit and improve their work for the use of Entente officers. The Turkish fascination with the maps produced in 'Lawrence of Arabia's workshop' ensured that they became, and remain to this day, legendary artefacts from a watershed moment in world history.

After the failure of the August Offensive, the state of play on the Gallipoli Peninsula returned to a stalemate, in the form of brutal trench warfare, pointless attacks and counterattacks, and the oncoming of chilly, rainy autumn weather.

While the Allied high command had initially predicted that the August Offensive would quickly end the fighting in Gallipoli (with the Entente forces advancing upon Constantinople!), as this did not pan out, the Allies soon ran out of copies of the sector maps. The map room of the Intelligence Office in Cairo was therefore asked to create another (still small) printing of the maps which were the same as the former, save for some minor adjustments. For instance, the present work is of the second edition of the 'Kurija Dere' map and is the same as the former issue save for the addition of another transliteration of the of the title, given in brackets beside the established title, '(Koja Dere)'. These second editions of the map arrived in Gallipoli sometime in the late summer or early autumn of 1915.

The astounding human and financial cost of the Gallipoli Campaign, which had produced scarcely any accomplishments for the Entente side, caused the British high command to consider pulling the plug in October 1915. However, this move was delayed for some time, as a full-scale retreat would be a massive loss of face, as well as a blow to Allied morale, coming at bad time when another horrid stalemate had developed in the fields of northern France and Flanders. Yet reality eventually set in. In December 1915, the Entente troops were evacuated in stages from all their positions on the Gallipoli Peninsula, with the last contingent leaving on December 20. The Allied Powers would never again mount a direct attack upon Turkey proper. All Allied ships left the area by January 1916.

The Gallipoli Campaign was one of the greatest fiascos in British military history. Against all expectations, the Ottomans successfully repelled all the Entente attacks, but at the most astounding costs to both sides. The Allies suffered over 300,000 casualties, while the Ottomans endured 250,000 casualties

The Gallipoli Campaign had an enduring legacy. While it was an epic embarrassment for the British Empire, the extreme bravery and commitment shown by the ANZACs served as a defining moment of national consciousness for both Australia and New Zealand which resonates to the present day.

On the other side, the Gallipoli Campaign is still rightly hailed as one of the great modern achievements of the Turkish people. It made one of the heroes of the campaign, Mustafa Kemal Pasha, into a legend, allowing him to spearhead the creation of the Republic of Turkey out of the ashes of the Ottoman Empire. Kemal, hence known as 'Atatürk' served as the nation's revolutionary founding president for 15 years.

References: National Library of Australia: MAP G7431.S65 s20.; Mc Master University Library (Hamilton, Canada): 231WW1MAP; OCLC: 429730511; Haluk ORAL, *Gallipoli through Turkish Eyes* (Istanbul: Bahçeşehir University Press, 2012), chapter: 'Lawrence at Gallipoli', pp. 219-37.

1.800 EUR

20. Gallipoli Campaign

Ömer Seyfettin (1884 – 1920)

سدالبحرده صاغ جناحده برنجی فرقه نك شهيدلر صرتی دستانی

[Seddülbahir'de Sağ Cenahta Birinci Fırkanın Şehitler Sırtı Destanı / Epic of Martyrs' Ridge of the First Squad at the Right Side in Seddülbahir]

Matbaa-i Askeriye 1332 [1916]

12°. 20 pp., original green wrappers with lettering (minor age-toning and staining, wrappers with tiny teats on the spine, otherwise a good example of this fragile small pamphlet).

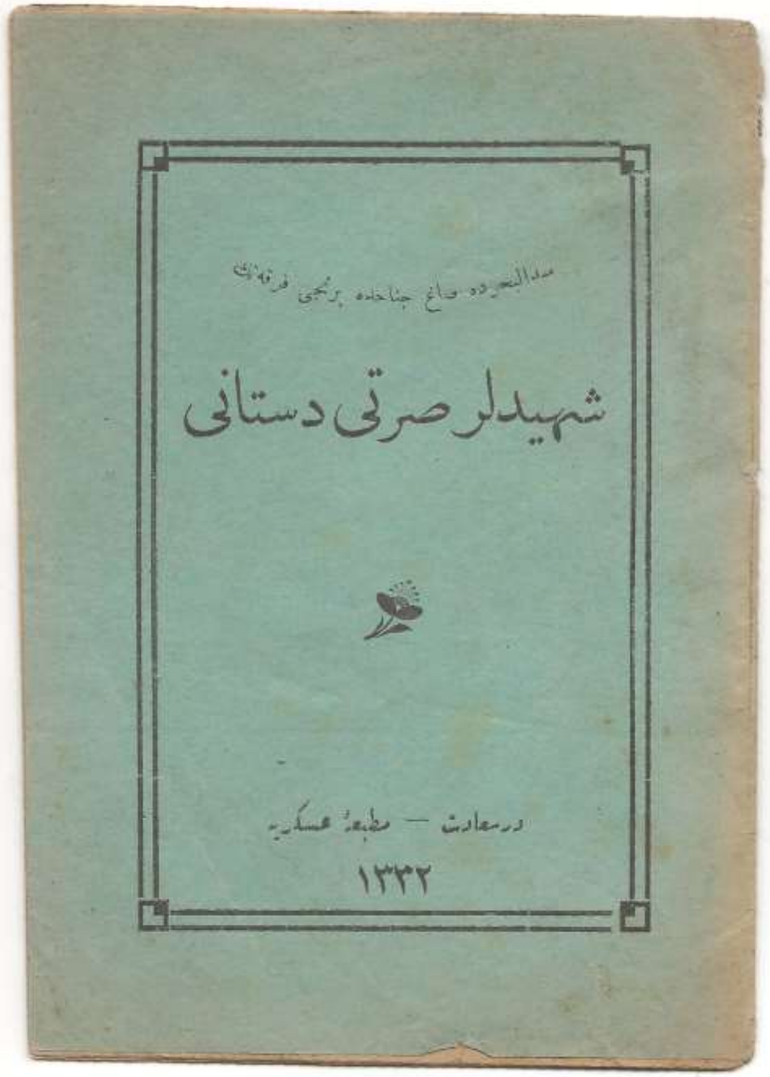
A powerful epic poem on the battle of Gallipoli by a famous Ottoman author Ömer Seyfettin (1884 – 1920) who visited the battle field personally as a member of the military.

The important epic poem in Ottoman language, published in 1916, describes landing at Cape Helles, as a part of the Gallipoli Campaign on 25 April 1915.

It was written by Ömer Seyfettin (1884 – 1920) one of the most famous authors of the late Ottoman Empire. He as a member of the Ottoman army and in 1915 he was sent to observe the development of the Gallipoli campaign. In this poem he expressed his emotions at participating at this groundbreaking battle of the WWI.

We could not find any institutional copies on Worldcat.

550 EUR



21. Early Ottoman Lithographed Map of the World

مجموعهء معارف

[Mecmua-i maarif]

Istanbul: Erzincanlı Artin Minasyan 1283 [1866]

8°, 40 pp. with lithographed black and white plates, coloured folding lithographed map, 25 x 39 cm, original green wrappers with lettering on the inner sides (repaired tear in the folding map, wrappers slightly stained with tiny tears in margins, later spine, small folds in margins).

A first issue of an exceedingly rare ephemeral Ottoman magazine, with possibly largest lithographed map of the world before the appearance of the late Ottoman chromolithographed atlases.

This first issue of an unusual, entirely lithographed ephemeral Ottoman magazine includes information on the universe, accompanied with black and white images, and a larger attractively crudely lithographed and hand-coloured folding map of the world.

The map, based on the older European examples was ambitiously made, yet the information on it was outdated. This is especially visible around the north coasts. Australia is still named New Holland (فلمنك جديد).

This relatively large, difficult to make lithograph was published less than three years before the first official modern lithographed Ottoman atlas, Yeni Atlas, made by **Ali Şeref Paşa (also Hafız Ali Eşref) in 1869 (1285) was published in Paris after the author was sent there by the government for schooling.**

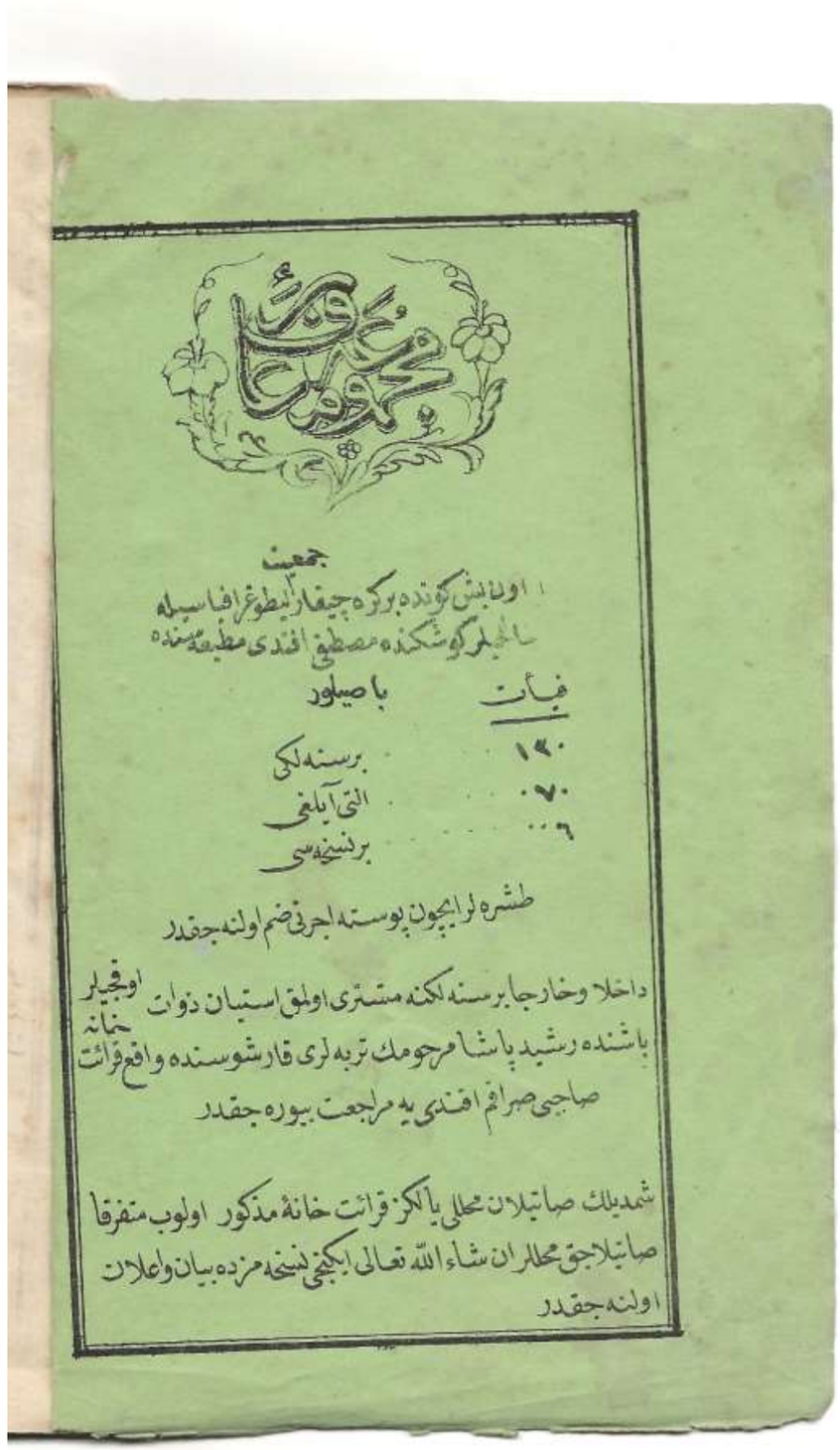
Our map is a brave attempt to produce a larger lithographic imprint with the available means of printing in a small print shop before the introduction of the modern West European technology to Istanbul some years later.

The success of the magazine was very short lived. All together 6 (or 7) issues were published, all related to geography, and are unobtainable as a set today. Possibly the selling rate were small and the last issues were only published in very small numbers. We could not trace any other editions, except of the first one, on the market.

A set of six or seven magazines is recorded in the İBB Atatürk Library. Worldcat does not mention any institutional examples.

References: BL 0.428, Mil 1956 SB429.

550 EUR




بحر منجمد شمالی
قبائل اسکیمو
اوپرواتو
غروانلاند
جدید
اسیا
اوروپا
اسلاند
بحر اطلسی
ممالک متحده
مکسیقو
قوتمیمالا
ممالک اماروز
پرو
برزیلیا
بولیویا
جوپو
اسومپسیون
لاپلاتا
ریوژانیرو
بحر جنوبی
بحر محیط هندی
فلمنک جدید
مدار قطب شمالی
مدار
سرطان
استانبول
روسیه
سیبریا
چین
مغولستان
هندستان
عربستان
افریقا
مصر
حبش
مالک
صحرای کبیر
بحر
سانديوق
اورقادوطی
شتلاند
قوق
زلاند جدید
تاهیتی
نوقاحیوا
دوغرون
واشیفتون
غاردنر
لایزان
هاوایه
قریستیما
ترتیو
(ارض جدید)
شمالی
جنوبی

22. Guyana Colonial Imprint

Charles Kennedy JARDINE (1848 - 1902), Publisher.

The British Guiana Directory and Almanack for 1892. Leap Year.

Georgetown, Demerara: C. K. Jardine, Proprietor Daily Chronicle, 1892.

8° (16.5 x 10.5 cm): xvi, 505, [6], xlviii, with printed endpapers, bound in original red cloth with blind-stamped designs and title gilt-debossed to cover and spine, discreet contemporary handstamps of the 'Georgetown Club' to margins of several pages (Very Good, internally quite clean, just a few quires coming a little loose, but still holding, some light contemporary scribbling in pen to 'Avertisements', p. xlvi and contemporary manuscript name of "C.B. Stevenson" to final endpaper; binding with some edge-wear, notably to head and foot of spine and some light stains).

An extremely rare early issue of Charles Kennedy Jardine's directory and almanac for British Guiana, an unusually comprehensive work of its kind, featuring a vast wealth of information available nowhere else, a critical resource for the study of the colony during this critical period, compiled and published in Georgetown by the 'Daily Chronicle' newspaper.

This is an extremely rare issue of *The British Guiana Directory and Almanack* published in 1892 in Georgetown by the colony's leading newspaper, the *Daily Chronicle*, under the direction of its proprietor, Charles Kennedy Jardine. The work is exceptionally comprehensive, providing more information, and in greater detail, than is commonly the case with this type of publication.



The directory-almanac commences with an ‘Introduction’ to the company, detailing its history, geography, geology, economy, demographics and politics. Next is an almanac, followed by a lengthy directory, or list of the colony’s leading subjects, with their occupations and places of residence. This is followed by an accounting of the colony’s civil and military establishment, along with its social services (hospitals, schools, etc.), followed by coverage of the religious establishment. The works then lists the colony’s various clubs and societies, followed by list of professionals, proprietors of commercial establishments, as well as the owners of plantations. After that, is a detailed account of British Guiana’s economy and demographics (including immigration) with lengthy tables showcasing virtually every possible variable going back many years, as well as descriptions of the colony’s laws regulations. The work is concluded by 48 pages of advertisements, which make for an interesting read, covering everything from piano sellers to insurance companies.

The present directory-almanac appeared at an interesting time when the colony of 280,000 residents was undergoing a period of transition. Traditionally, British Guiana’s economy had relied upon agriculture (sugar, etc.), as well as lumber and minerals. In the wake of the abolition of slavery in 1838, the colonial authorities, seeking to make up for the labour shortage, decided to import indentured workers from India, and to lesser extent China. Between 1838 and 1886 over 150,000 immigrant workers arrived from India, while 15,000 were brought in from China. These labourers for some time worked under horrendous conditions, that could be likened to slavery by another name. However, by the 1880s, many of these former menial workers, or their descendants, had become successful professionals or entrepreneurs. Moreover, a Black middle class had developed during the two generations since the end of slavery. Additionally, British Guiana had a small but vibrant Jewish community, which was long established in various industries. While the colony was still anchored by commodities, a burgeoning trading and service sector developed, in good part maintained by the colony’s various ethnic communities. Their success led them to call for political reforms, giving them a voice in the colonial government, resulting in series of gradual democratic measures that were instituted in 1891, the year before the present almanac was published.

Early Directory-Almanacs in British Guiana

The early history of directory-almanacs in the colonies of Demerara, Essequibo and Berbice (which were united to become British Guiana in 1831) is not a well-researched topic. However, the first such works were issued by *The Colonist* newspaper in as the *The Demerara Vade-mecum: Or, British Guiana Almanack and Register*, which we gather appeared in two issues, in 1821 and 1825.

It seems that it was not until 1857, when the new proprietor of *The Colonist* began to publish annual issues of directories-almanacs, in a unform format, from that year onwards. In 1884, the production of these directory-almanacs was taken over by the *Chronicle* newspaper, owned by Charles Kennedy Jardine, upon his acquisition of *The Colonist*.

A Note on Rarity

All issues of directory-almanacs printed in British Guiana during the 19th century are extremely rare. They would have been published in only small print runs, while their survival rate, due to their use in a damp, tropical climate, would have been very low.

We can trace only a single example of the present 1892 edition, held by the Cambridge University Library. Collections of issues for other years are held by the British Library, the Bodleian Library (Oxford University) and the SOAS Library (University of London).

Charles Kennedy Jardine: Modernizer of the Press in British Guiana

The publisher of the present work, Charles Kennedy Jardine (1848 - 1902), was a native of Ayrshire, Scotland, and apprenticed as stationer in Glasgow. Seeing limited opportunities in his homeland, he immigrated to British Guiana in 1870, working in the drapery profession for the Georgetown firm of Pasley, Templeton & Co. Finding the experience disagreeable, he gained new employment as a stationer with the firm of W.B. Jamieson in 1872.

In 1875, Jardine joined the printing industry, hired by Lawrence McDermott, the proprietor of *The Colonist*, Guiana’s only daily newspaper (costing 8 cents per issue). While *The Colonist* occupied a key role in the life of the colony, McDermott was a poor businessman, and the enterprise was run inefficiently. Jardine, having quickly made his way up to becoming the managing director, moved with amazing skill and focus to dramatically improve the paper’s circulation and advertising revenue, while augmenting the quality of its content. In 1880, McDermott apparently agreed to sell *The Colonist* to Jardine; however, he later backed out of the deal.

In 1881, Jardine set off to publish his own paper, the *Chronicle* (later the *Daily Chornicle*). His business plan was daring, he pledged to provide a paper of at least the same high quality as he had established at *The Colonist*, while charging only 4 cents per issue (undercutting his competition by 50%!). Many in Georgetown initially believed that Jardine’s designs were foolhardy; however, his drive and skill proved them wrong and within a short time the *Chronicle* captured a majority market share.

Jardine’s slick and modern operation was something that had never been seen in the colony, and he was soon appointed as the ‘Printer to the Government of British Guiana’, with his advertisement boasting of his establishment: “The Plant of Type and Machinery in this office is, without exception, the largest in the West Indies. Every description of Printing, Bookbinding, and Manufacturing Stationary Work, is undertaken and executed as moderate prices” (See in the present work, ‘Advertisements’, p. viii).

In 1884, a chastened McDermott sold *The Colonist* to Jardine, who merged its operations with his own paper, henceforth dominating the popular media in British Guiana. Sadly, Jardine died suddenly while on visit to Scotland in 1902, however his legacy lived on, as his paper continued to be published until 1966.

References: Cambridge University Library: RCS.YD.79.1.

550 EUR

23. Iran

لاهوتی کرمانشاهانی (Lahouti KERMANSHAHANI)

ایران نامه

[Iran Name]

Istanbul: چاپخانه شمس [Shams Printing House] 1288-1289 [1872-73]

8°, 79 pp. with black and white illustrations and cover printed in red, later black cloth binding with gilt lettering (tiny old repaired holes in the lower part of the cover, old hand-written price on the inner side of the rear cover, binding with light staining, overall in a good condition).

A rare, seemingly unrecorded early illustrated pamphlet on the history of Iran in Ottoman language

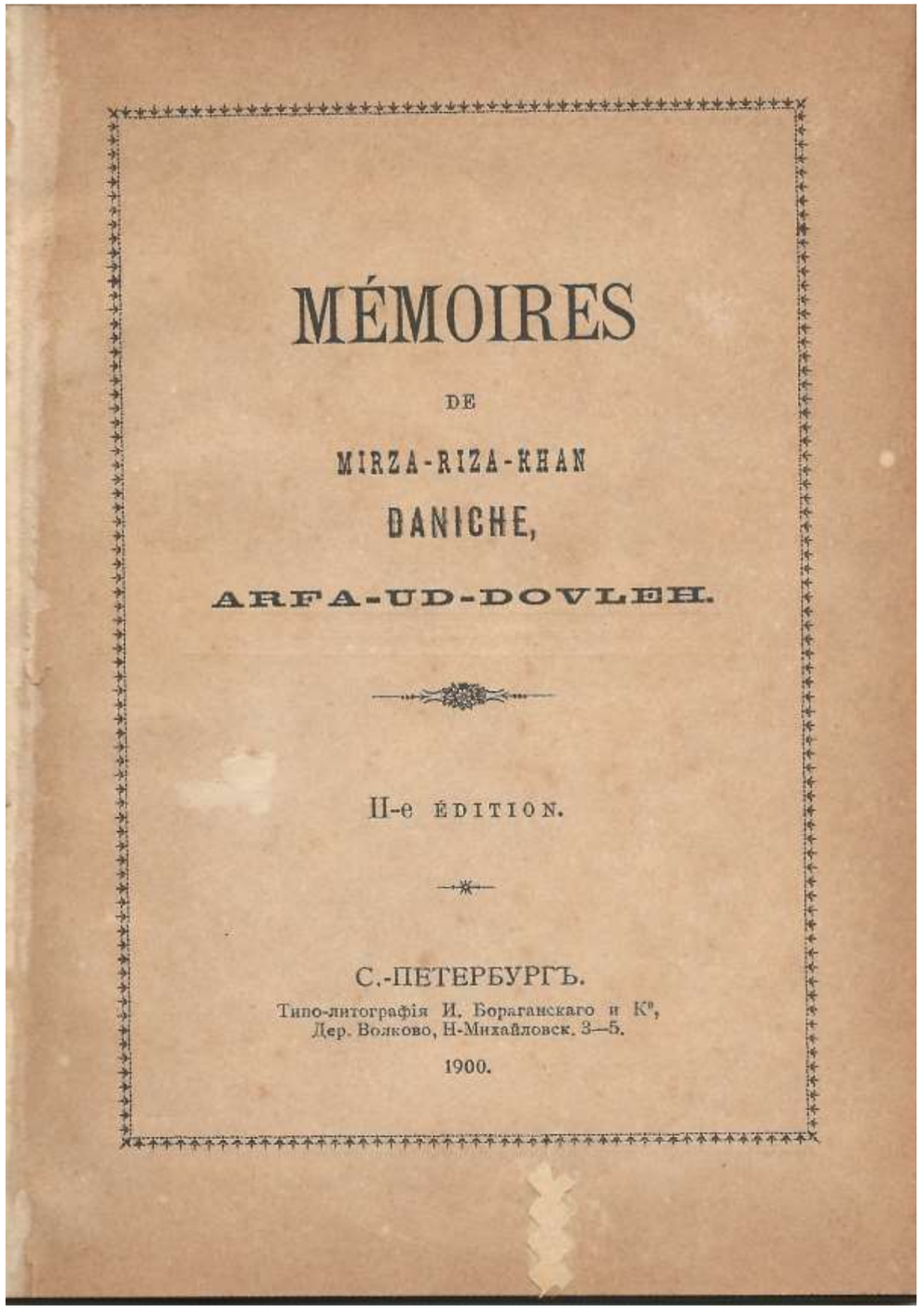
A rare richly illustrated book on the history of Iran was published in Istanbul in 1872 or 1873, in the time of the Tanzimat, the period of the modernization of the Ottoman Empire. The images represent the Iranian antiquities, rulers and script.

We could not find any institutional examples nor any references to the title in bibliography.

650 EUR



24. Persian History & Diplomacy



MIRZA REZA KHAN ARFA' AL-DAWLAH (nom de plume, Danesh, 1846 - 1937)

Mémoires de Mirza-Riza-Khan Daniche, Arfa-ud-Dovleh

Saint-Petersburg: Boraganskij 1900-1901.

8°, 61 pp., [4 pp.] after the title page, printed in copper and black in Persian and French, later blue cloth binding with gilt lettering on the cover and spine (binding with light age-toning and staining, title page slightly age-toned with a small repaired tear in the lower part, otherwise in a good condition).

A rare autobiography of a Persian diplomat, author and bonvivant Mirza Reza Khan Arfa' Al-Dawlah, published in Saint-Petersburg

A rare autobiography of a Persian diplomat and writer Mirza Reza Khan Arfa' Al-Dawlah (1846 - 1937) was published in 1900-01 in a French language in Saint-Petersburg.

Reza begun his diplomatic career in Tiflis in 1873 as an interpreter to Russian to the Persian Shah Naser al-Din Shah Qajar. In 1889, he was appointed Persian consul-general in the same city. In 1895, Reza was named Persian minister to the Russian court at St. Petersburg, where he published this book. Five years later, he was transferred to Istanbul as an ambassador to the Ottoman court.

His wife Elsa Cecilia Maria Lindberg-Dovlette (1874-1944) was a known Swedish writer, who published three reports on the Ottoman harems as an insider: *Kvinnor från minareternas stad* (1908, Women from the City of Minarets), *Främling* (1924 and 1929, *Stranger*) and *Bakom stängda haremsdörrar* (1931, Behind the Closed Doors of the Harem).

This is the second edition, dated on the second page with 1901. The first edition appears to be unobtainable, as we could not find any examples of it in institutions nor on the market.

We could find four institutional examples (Universiteitsbibliotheek Leiden, Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin - Preußischer Kulturbesitz, Orient-Institut Beirut, LIBRIS – Stockholm).

References: OCLC 938479521, 1111562270, 68059471. DĀNEŠ, Encyclopaedia Iranica (DĀNEŠ (1) – Encyclopaedia Iranica (iranicaonline.org).

580 EUR

25. Bible in Persian Language

كتاب مقدس : يعني كتب عهد عتيق و عهد جديد كه از زبانهای اصلئ عبرانی وكلدانی ويونانی ترجمه شده است

[Kitāb-i Muqaddas, ya‘nī kutub-i ‘Ahd-i ‘Atīq va ‘Ahd-i Jadīd kih ’az zabānhā-yi ’aṣlī-i ‘Ibrānī va Kaldānī va Yūnānī tarjumah shudah ’ast]

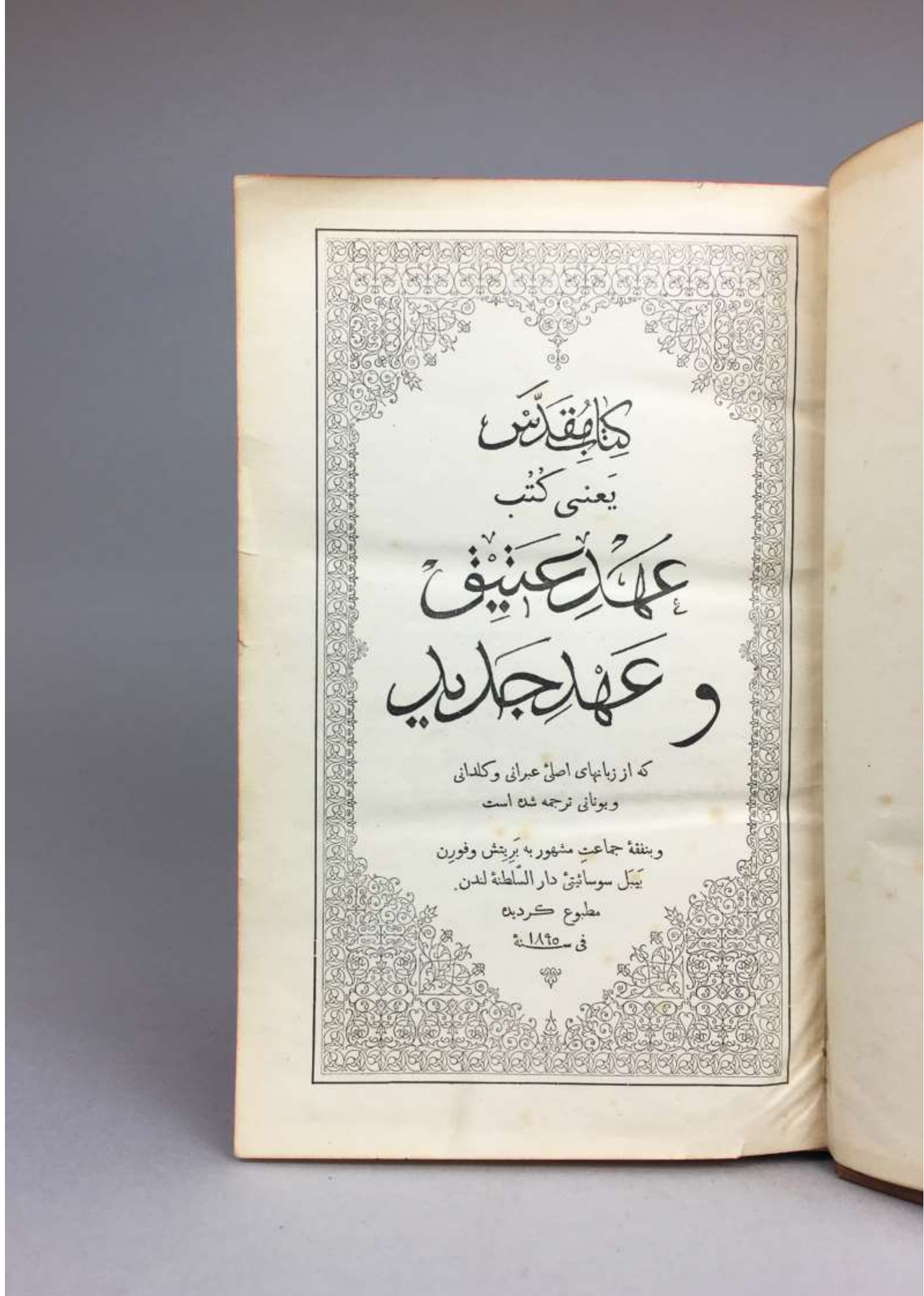
[Bible: The books of the Old and New Testaments, translated from the original Hebrew and Greek languages]

London: بريتش وفورن بيبل سوسائيتی [British and Foreign Bible Society]. Printed in Leipzig, 1895

8°, [4 pp.] title and introduction, 1388 pp., [4 pp.] title and introduction,421 pp., [6 pp.] index and blank, original calf with debossed lines on the covers and spine, gilt title on the spine (binding slightly rubbed on the spine and edges, tiny, hardly visible tears in the margins of the front endpaper and title page, edges slightly scratched, otherwise in a good, clean condition).

A fine example of a rare first edition of the first translation of the Bible to modern Persian, printed in London in 1895.

A fine example of a rare translation of the Bible into modern Persian language was published by the British and Foreign Bible Society. The text is based on the translation of the Bible to Persian from Hebrew by William Glen and Mirza Mohammad Jafar Shiraz, published in 1846.



In 1895, after two decades of hard work, Robert Bruce's revised and corrected text in order to approach it to modern Persian. The Old Testament was almost entirely a new translation and the New Testament was heavily revised.

The Bible was sold by already translated chapters before its publication in 1895 and the contemporary advertisement describes the news publication with the following words:

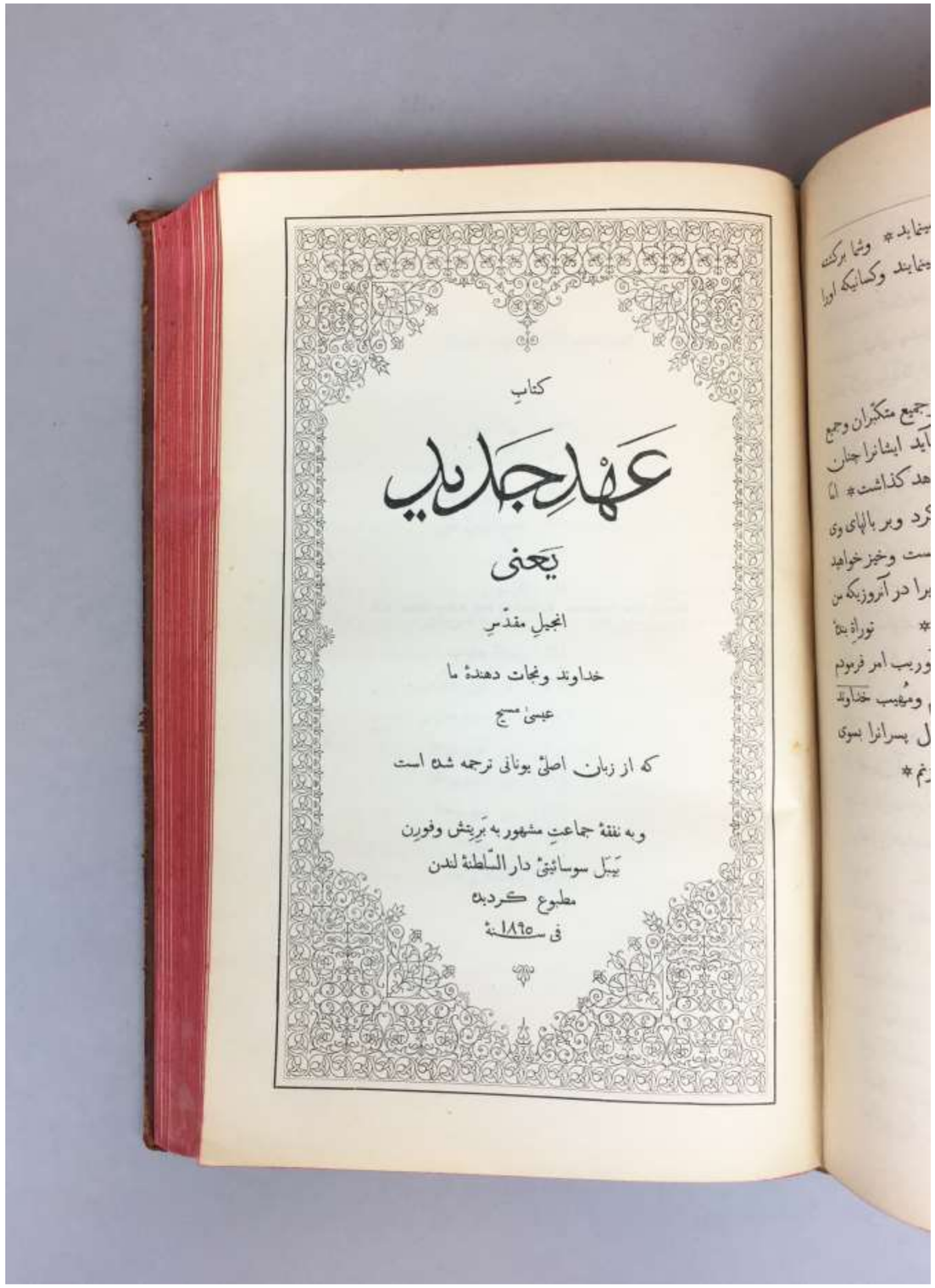
The version of the Bible for which Dr. Robert Bruce got his commission from the late Rev. H. Venn in 1871, and on which he worked almost incessantly for over twenty years, is now published, and in the hands of the people; and it is interesting to note, that this great achievement has been recognized at Oxford, from which Sr. Bruce has received the degree of Doctor of Divinity.

(A year of Bible Work. The Ninety-First Report of the British and Foreign Bible Society, 1895, p. 422)

We could find approximately six institutional example on Worldcat. Other examples appear to be electronic copies or later reprints.

References: OCLC 73491361; Roberto Gulbenkian, *Nouvelle Revue de science missionnaire*. The Translation of the Four Gospels Into Persian, 1981, p. 77.

1.800 EUR


كتابِ
عهدِ جديد
يعنى
انجيلِ مقدّسِ
خداوند ونجات دهندهٔ ما
عيسىٰ مسيح
كه از زبان اصلىٔ يونانى ترجمه شده است
وبه نفقهٔ جماعتِ مشهور به بَرِيتش وفورِن
بَيبل سوسائيتىٔ دار السّلطنة لندن
مطبوع كرديده
فى سنهٔ ١٨٩٥

26. Turco-Armenian Bible
American Bible Society
Istanbul Imprint

ԱՀՑ Ը ՃԼՏՒՏ ԵԱՆԻ ԻՆՃԻԼ Ի ՇԼՐԻՓ

[Ahd-ı cedid yani İncil-i Şerif / New Testament of the Holy Bible]

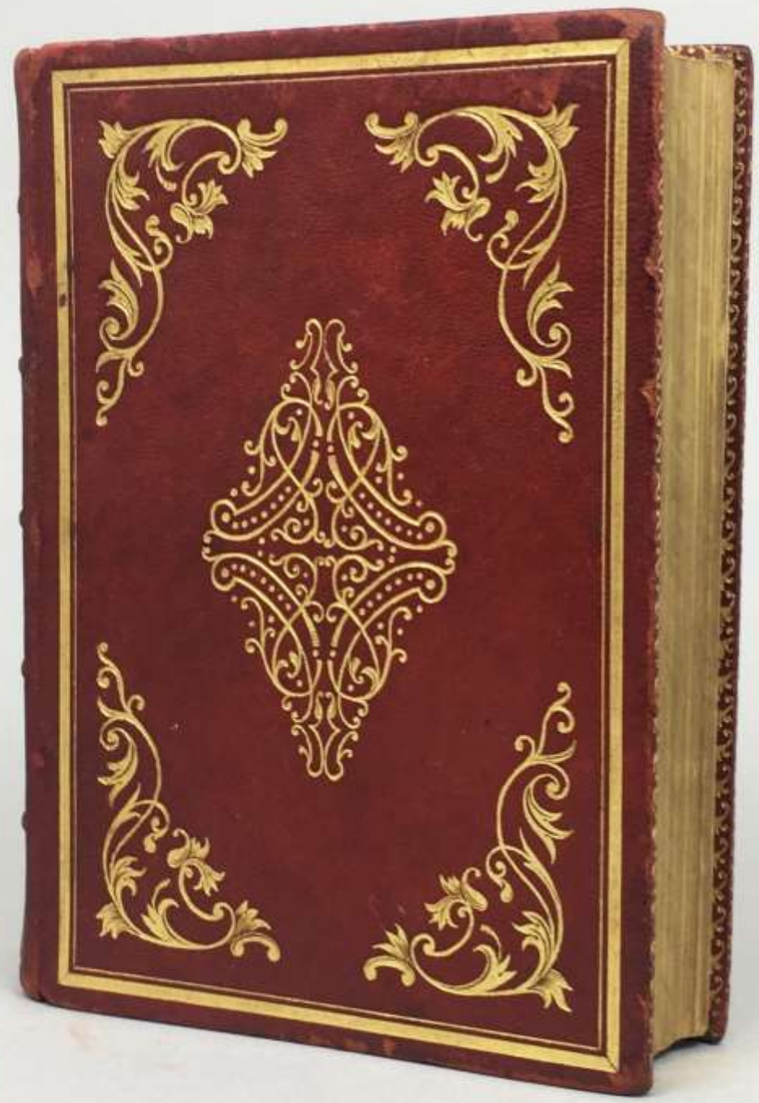
Istanbul: A. Y. Boyacıyan 1975

8°, [8 pp.], 870 pp., b, contemporary red morocco with debossed gilt decoration, gilt edges (minor scratches to the edges and binding, very light foxing, overall in a good condition**).**

A beautiful example of a New Testament in Turco-Armenian script, published in Istanbul by the American Bible Society

Armeno-Turkish script

Armeno-Turkish, that is writing Turkish using Armenian characters, is not popularly well known today. However, especially during the second half of the 19th Century, Armeno-Turkish publishing possessed an important role in the cultural life of Constantinople and the Ottoman Empire in general. While exceedingly beautiful, Arabic script is phonetically ill-suited to the Turkish language and was exceedingly complicated to read and write. Even many people who had a perfect oral command of Turkish found the use of Arabic charters challenging. Some members of certain ethnic minority communities in the Ottoman Empire who regularly spoke Turkish, such as Greeks and Armenians, came to write Turkish using characters from their own language. Armenian characters were a good phonetic fit for Turkish and beginning in the 17th Century, many Armenians, particularly in Constantinople, wrote manuscripts in Turkish employing Armenian letters, creating a genre known as -Armeno-Turkish



The first printed work in Armeno-Turkish was an Armenian grammar book published in Venice in 1727. The first such work published in Constantinople was a Christian religious work issued in 1730. Over the next century of a small number of Armeno-Turkish books were published in places such as Constantinople, Venice and Trieste. However, it was only during the Tanzimat Era (1839-75) in the Ottoman Empire that Armeno-Turkish publishing flourished in Constantinople. During the second half of the 19th Century dozens of different presses in Constantinople alone produced hundreds of Armeno-Turkish publications, including books, pamphlet posters an playbills.

Hasmik A. Stepanyan's fine biography of Armeno-Turkish publications worldwide issued between 1727 and 1968 records almost 1,700 entries; however, hundreds more were certainly produced when counting ephemeral works.

A scholarly debate exists as to the nature of the readership of ArmenoTurkish publications. Trinationally, it was believed that these works were intended only for the use of ethnic Armenians who results spoke Turkish who either could not, or preferred not, to write using Arabic characters. However, more recent scholarship indicates that ArmenoTurkish works were regularly enjoyed by many non-ethnic Armenians in Constantinople, notably Turkish intellectuals. Indeed, in the late 1800s, some liberal Turkish figures even recommended that Armenian be adopted as the official script for Turkish, replacing Arabic characters.

Sadly, the near destruction of Turkey's Armenian population during World War I, signalled the end of the popular use of Armeno-Turkish, although some works were produced in a 'niche' capacity in places ranging from Vienna to Boston up into the 1960s.

Virtually all Armeno-Turkish publications are today rare, many exceedingly so (indeed many recorded works are not even known to survive in even a single example).

Worldcat lists examples of this title, but with various pagination (Boğaziçi University Library, OCLC 949511175; Universitäts- und Landesbibliothek Sachsen-Anhalt / Zentrale, OCLC 551856211).

SOLD



27. Gospels in Uzbek

انجيل شريف. متّى مرقس لوقا يوحنّا

Uzbek-Turki Four Gospels – Translation of Ostroumoff & others

[İncil-i Şerîf. Matta, Markus, Luka, Yuhanna / Sherif Bible. Matthew, Mark, Luke, John]

[London: British and Foreign Bible Society, publisher]. Leipzig: Drugulin, printer 1913.

8°, title page, 359 pp., later green cloth binding with gilt title on the spine and the name of the collection in the lower margin of the cover, original “Printed in Leipzig” rubber stamp on the title page verso, minor staining on the first two sheets and on the last page, old hand-written price on the inner side of the rear cover, binding slightly rubbed, otherwise in a good, clean condition).

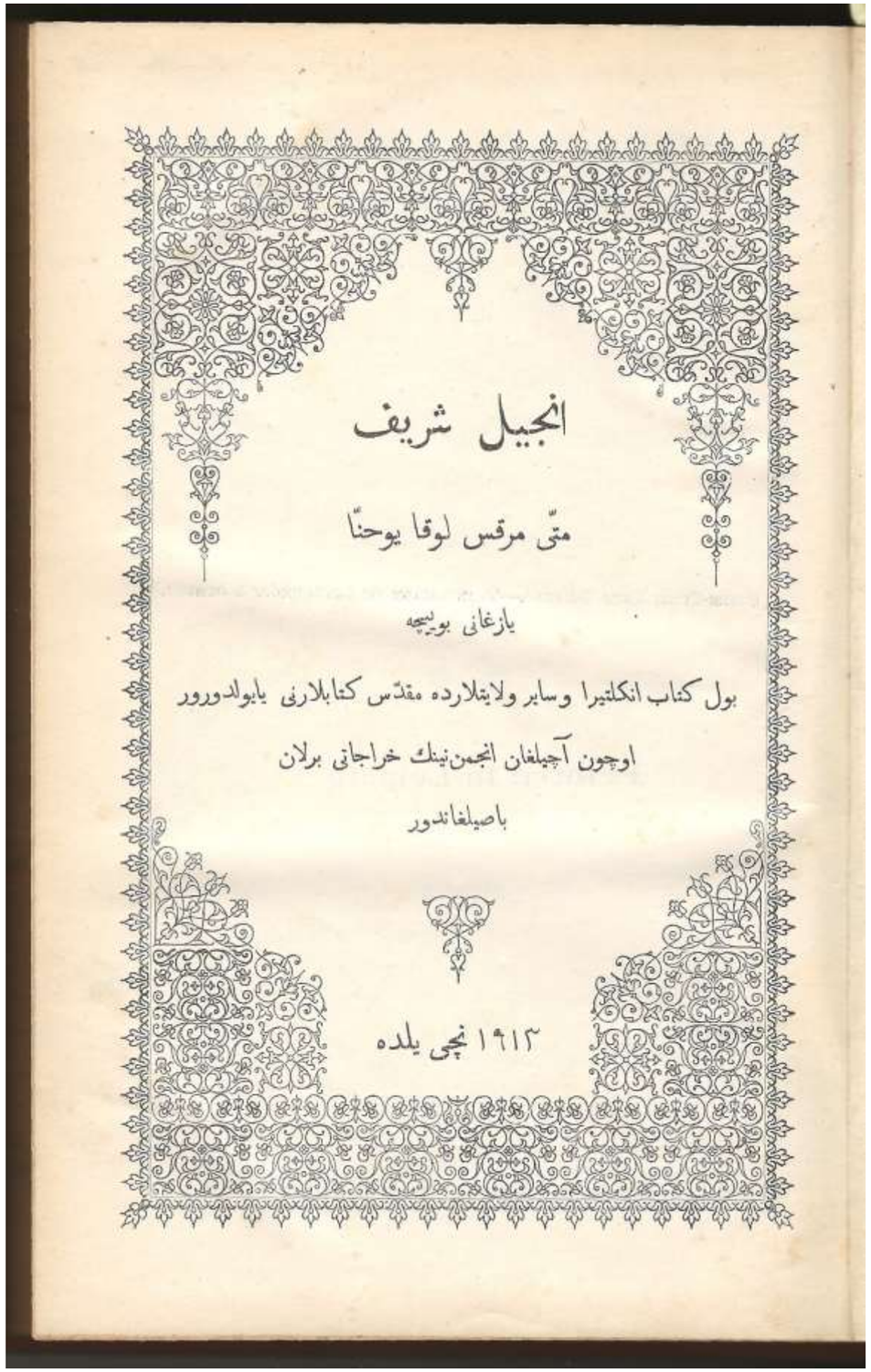
A rare translation of the Gospels in Uzbek from 1913

This is a rare Uzbek translation of the four Gospels, published by the British and Foreign Bible Society in 1913 on the eve of WWI. According to the imprint, the text was based on various other translations, but most notably on the Uzbek translation of the gospels by M. Ostrumoff, Russian Inspector of Schools, from 1891.

The book is exceedingly rare. With exception of Özege, we could not find any references to it in the literature available to us. We could find one institutional example on Worldcat (Boğaziçi University Library).

References: OCLC 949495246. ÖZEGE 9129. Not in: Bruce G. Privratsky, A History of Turkish Bible Translations Annotated chronology with historical notes and suggestions for further research, Version S, 2004.

1.200 EUR



28. Bulaq Imprint



Ahmed VASIF Efendi (ca. 1730 – 1806) - Sadullah ENVERÎ (?-1794).

محاسن الآثار وحقائق الأخبار

[The Merits of the Antiquities and the Truth of the News]

Bulaq: Bulak matbaası 1246 [1830].

2 volumes, bound in one, 4°. 14 pp. (index), 210 pp., [1] blank, 7 pp. (index), 190 pp., printed on thick paper, contemporary Ottoman binding with red debossed boards and brown calf spine, old taxation stamp on the last page (spine battered and with small wormholes, spine damaged and partly repaired, first page with tiny wormholes in white margins, slightly age-toned and stained, but inside overall in a good, clean condition).

An important Ottoman first-hand account on the political events of the second half of the 18th century and the relations with the Central Europe by a Baghdad-born author, was printed by the Bulaq press in Egypt.

This work in two volumes, written by a Baghdad-born diplomat Ahmed Vasif Effendi is one of the most important works on the Ottoman history and a valuable first-hand political account by a Muslim author.

Also called *Tarih-i Vâsıf* or *Vâsıf tarihi* (Vasif's History) the book in two volumes embraces the period between 1754 and 1774, when Ahmed Vasif actively participated in the world of diplomacy in the Ottoman Empire, on the Balkans, Russia and in Vienna.

As the text was left unfinished by Vasif after a dispute in the Istanbul-based press of Râşid Efendi, which Vasif himself helped establishing, it was completed by Sadullah Enverî (?-1794), an author, who also participated in the late 18th century Ottoman war events. Ahmed Vasif Efendi was known for his quick temperament and was later described by a German orientalist Franz Babinger as “vain, stingy, jealous and evil to the extent” (eitel, geizig, neidisch und böshaft bis zum Übermaß (Babinger 1927, p. 336)).

The work, which was in the early 19th century one of the rare available printed first-hand historical political accounts on the contemporary Ottoman / Middle Eastern relations towards the West in the time of the Enlightenment, was at the time extremely popular in the central Europe, as it is today housed is many European libraries. The contemporary German press, such as *Allgemeine Literatur-Zeitung***,** embraced the first edition of the text and dedicated longer passages to the interpretations and analysis.

This is the third and last edition, and the second printed in Bulaq, by the first official and governmental printing press in Egypt.

Ahmed Vasif Efendi

The author Ahmed Vasif Efendi was born in Baghdad, where in his youth, he specialized in books, especially in copying manuscripts. After traveling through Van and Aleppo, he met Kel (or Gül**)** Ahmedpaşazâde Ali Paşa, an important minister and a former grand admiral, who appointed Ahmed as his librarian. Ahmed Vasif accompanied Ali Paşa on his military travels all the way to Bender.

Ahmed Vasif witnessed the Russo-Turkish War of 1768–1774 and was taken prisoner by the Russians at the siege of Jenikale (Crimea) in 1771. The nine months of captivity in Russia helped Vasif to broaden his horizons and to enter the international diplomacy. He was chosen by Catharine

the Great to carry the armistice letter to the Ottoman headquarters and after his release Vasif entered the world of the diplomacy on the Ottoman side.

In the next years Vasif was sent as a peace negotiator to Budapest and Yasi, to discuss the peace treaties and the problem of Crimea, and later several other armistices on the Balkans. In 1782, Ahmed Vasif Efendi negotiated the friendship contract between Spain and the Ottomans. He remained in Spain as the official diplomat for the next several years.

Ahmed Vasif’s love for books and publishing continued throughout his life. In Istanbul, where there was a large gap in printing activity since the closing of the Müteferrika’s press, Vasif established a new official printing shop together with Beylikçi Râşid Efendi.

The first book, *Tarih-i Sami ve Şakir ve Subhi*, by Râşid Efendi Matbaası was published in 1781 (1198).

Ahmed Vasif Efendi was author himself and his most famous and influential book is this work محاسن الآثار وحقائق الأخبار (Meḥāsin ül-āṯār ve ḥaḳā’iḳ ül-aḫbār). The text was first published in 1219 (1803) in Istanbul and then twice in two different versions in Bulaq with another imprint on the last page, in 1243 and 1246 (1827 and 1830).

Although contemporary English literature mentions a German translation from 1809 (John Gorton, *A General Biographical Dictionary*, 1830, p. 4), we could not trace such a publication. It is also not mentioned in contemporary German literature, such as in the list of the editions of *Tarih-i Vâsıf* by (Babinger 1927, p. 337).

Bulaq Press

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

Already in 1815, the first delegation was sent from Egypt to Milan to learn the printing techniques.

After the building for the press was finished in the autumn of 1820, it took another two years to transport the machines and train the employees. The first book, an Arabic-Italian dictionary, was published in 1822.

Viceroy Muhamamd Ali started several reform programs with a goal to create a modern Egyptian society after the European model, the press being a part of the modernisation program. Muhamamd

Ali is noted to establish the modern Egypt as an independent country.

Provenience: This example was sold the 19th century in the bookstore by Benjamin Duprat in Paris.

Duprat, whose label can be found in the inner side of the front cover, was specialized in the oriental books. It was later owned by the Iraqi architect Mohamed Makiya (1914-2015 محمد مكية).

References: OCLC 949617481, 777193206, 320228577, 780208235, 165361809, 26779362 and 600848792 (some examples on microfilm). Islam Ansiklopedisi: VÂSIF AHMED EFENDİ (https://islamansiklopedisi.org.tr/vasif-ahmed-efendi); Ethan L. Menchinger, The First of the

Modern Ottomans: The Intellectual History of Ahmed Vasif, 2017; Franz Babinger, *Die Geschichtsschreiber der Osmanen und ihre Werke*, 1927, pp. 335-337.

1.800 EUR

29. Cairo Imprint

Ibn Nubata (ابن نباتة 1287 –1366)

هذا ديوان خطب العالم النحرير والجهبذى الكبير الشهير بابن نباته رحمه الله تعالى آمسين

[ديوان الخطب]

[Diwan al-khutab or Divanü'l Huteb / Collection of the Sermons]

Cairo; مطبعة المتوكل [Maṭba'at al-Mutawakkil] 1282 [1866]

8°. 80 pp. , contemporary binding with hand-printed papers on boards, brown calf spine (slightly age-toned and stained, sporadic old annotations, binding slightly stained with folds and small loss of material).

A Diwan al-khutab in Arabic Language in highly decorative original binding with hand printed paper on the boards

A collection of sermons by a 14th century poet and author Ibn Nubata (ابن نباتة 1287 –1366) was published in Cairo in 1866. The unique, contemporary hand printed paper on boards, gives the book an attractive pristine appearance.

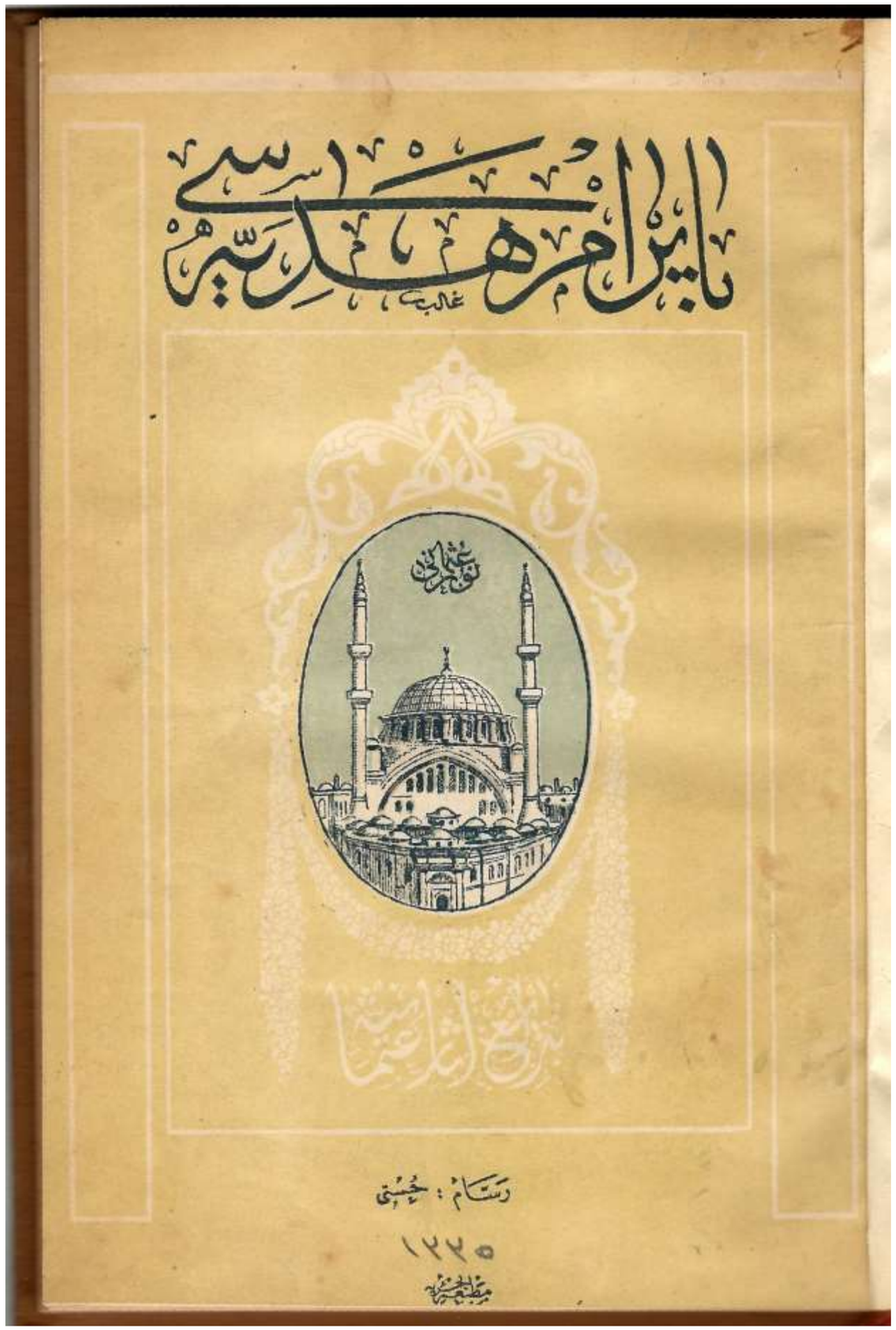
Ibn Nubata was was born in Cairo and was active in Damascus and Jerusalem. He is especially known for his poetry.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

650 EUR



30. Mosques of the Ottoman Empire



Hüseyin Hüsnü Tengüz

بايرام هديهسى. بدايع اثار عثمانيه

[Bayram Hediyesi. Bedayi-i Âsâr-ı Osmaniye. / Holiday Gift. Beautiful Ottoman Antiquities]

Istanbul: [Matbaa-i Bahriye] 1335 [1919]

8°. Original colour lithographed illustrated front wrappers, 110 pp. with mispagination skipping pp. 97-98, letterpress and lithographed images, one image hand-coloured, [4 pp.], interleaved five colour lithographed plates, later light brown cloth binding with gilt lettering on the spine (minor staining on the title page, otherwise in a good, clean condition).

A stellar example of a richly illustrated art-historical guide of the most famous mosques of the Ottoman Empire from Istanbul to Mecca with superb illustrations by a famous late-Ottoman painter Hüsnü Tengüz.

This highly decorative book represents the most famous mosques of the Ottoman empire rom Istanbul and Anatolia to Mecca on the Arabic Peninsula. The descriptions are accompanied with various views of the mosques, monuments connected with them and portraits of their commissioners.

The late Ottoman Empire, under the influence of the West Europe, especially Germany, brought new interests in the history of art. Many of the monuments also became easier and quicker accessible through the construction of new railroads through Anatolia and the Arabian Peninsula.

The book was published in 1919, a year after WWI, when many connections with the mosques on the Arabian Peninsula would be lost due to the damages on the railroad.



جامع کبیر

(بروسه ده)

سلطان یلدیرم بایزید خان

یلدیرم بایزید خان طرفندن ۷۹۷ تاریخنده بنا اولنمشدر. یکرمی قبه سی واردر. مرکز قبه محلی تل قفسله اورتولو اولدیغندن هوای دائما تجدد ایدر. بو تل قبه‌نك آلتنه و جامع شریفك اورته‌سنه تصادف ایدن محلده بر حوض واردر. تا قبه‌لره قدر فوران ایدن صولر اطرافه صاچیلمه‌دن غایت حزین زمزمه‌لرله تکرار شادروان داخلنه دوکولور. «کلدسته عرفان» اسمنده‌کی بروسه تاریخی شادروانی شویله توصیف ایدیور:

«اول شادروان صاف ثمون که: میان ساحهٔ جامع مذکورده بسط سجاده ایتمش کویا منبع جودو عطا بر مرد ذو فنوندر: .»

مولویدر صان او شادروان سر کردان کم

هم دونر هم اشکفی ایلر صفاسندن روان

بتون اقسامی غایت رقیق اویمه‌لرله مزین اولان سیاه آبانوزدن معمول منبرینك قیمتی یك یوکسکدر. اوستنده «السلطان المعظم مراد خان مما عمل بتاریخ سنة اربعین



سلطان عثمان غازینك نام علیده یاپلمش وقفاولان، قره‌جه حصار قصبه‌سی

سلطان عثمان خان غازی

«جای نظر اولان تصادفلردندرکه: ملتمزك عنوان افتخاری نام جلیله نسبت سایه‌سنده حاصل اولان و ۹۰۰ تاریخندن صوکره‌کی خلفای اسلامیه‌نك جد عالیشانی بولنان سلطان عثمان بغداددهکی خلافت عباسیه‌نك تاریخ انقراضی اولان ٦٥٦ سنه‌سنده تولد ایلشدر.» — نامق کمال بکك عثمانلی تاریخی —

سلطان عثمان غازی بر مدت بکلك صورتیله اجرای حکومت ایلدکدن صوکره اطراف تکفورلردن بعض برلر آلمش و او زمانده پك زیاده اهمیتی اولان قره‌جه حصاری ضبط ایتمش اوزرینه سلطان ایکنجی علاءالدین سلجوقی طرفندن (عثمان شاه) خطابیله ترکی‌العباره بر منشور امارت ایله طوغ و داوول و علم ارسال اولنه‌رق استقلالی تصدیق و ایلك خطبه بو بلده‌ده قرائت ایدلمشدر.

عثمان غازینك مصالح عبادی حل‌وتسویه ایچون قره‌جه حصاره قاضی نصب ایتمش، و دائرهٔ عدل وحقانیتده ایش کورمسی ظلم و یولسز اداره یوزندن بیزلر قالمش اولان اسلام و خریستیان بتون خلق کندیسنه جلب ایدرك آز زمانده احراز شوکت و تأسیس حکومت ایلسنه یاردم ایتمشدر.[*]

[*] «اصلی عرب اولانلرین اوزمانه قدر تشکل ایدن دول اسلامیه‌نك هیچ برنده قاضی موجود دکلدی. حقوق عادیه وارنجیه قدر امرانك ادارهٔ کیفیه‌سنه تابع ایدی. احکام شرعیه یالکز منا کحاتده جاری اولوردی. سلطان عثمانك قاضی تعیین ایلسی حکومت نو ظهورینی عدالت اوزره تأسیس ابتدی.» — عثمانلی تاریخی: نامق کمال —

The illustrations were made by a brilliant Ottoman painter Hüsnü Tengüz (also Ressam Hüsnü or Hüseyin Hüsnü Tengüz). Hüsnü developed love for painting in his early years. He pursued a career of an artist, studying at the Academy of Fine Arts, parallelly with a military profession at the Naval Academy in Istanbul.

In the following years Hüsnü became one of the most prolific representatives of the so called Military Painters of the late Ottoman Empire. He was known for his paintings of the costumes, military parades, naval scenes and drawings.

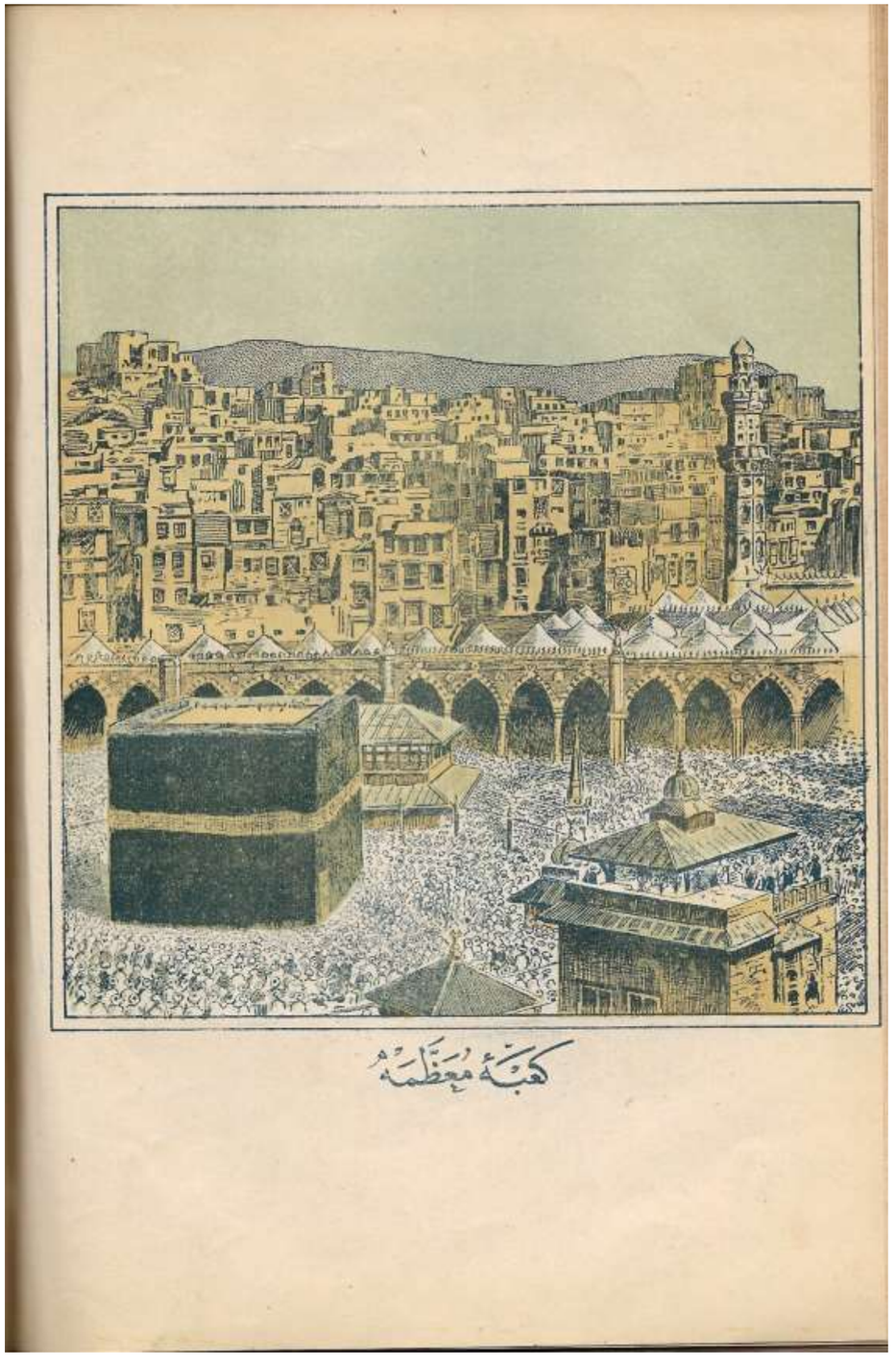
Hüsnü Tengüz also authored a larger colourful map of the mosques of Istanbul, which was sold separately. This book did not contain the map and only includes a smaller black and white version of the main image in the text.

Ressam Hüsnü gathered his memoires in a book titled Sanat Hayatım (My Art Life), which was republished in 2005.

We could only find one institutional example on Worldcat (Univ of Toronto at Downsview)

References: OCLC 222400141. BDK - ÖZEGE; 1747; TBTK; 14431.

650 EUR



31. Mecca Imprint
The Hajj

مجموعة إلهى. يطلب من مكتبة النهضة الحديثة لصاحبها. عبد الحفيظ فدا واخوانه. بمكتب باب السّلام

[Mecmua-i İlahi. Ordered by the Maktabah al-Nahdah al-Hadithah by its Propietor. Abd al-Hafid and His Brothers, at the Baab-As-Salaam Press]

[S. l., Mecca - Baab-As-Salaam]: من مكتبة النهضة الحديثة [Maktabah al-Nahdah al-Hadithah / Uprising Modern Publishing House], publisher – عبد الحفيظ فدا واخوانه [Abd al-Hafid and His Brothers], lithographer, [s. d., circa 1910].

Long 8°, 22 pp. lithographed text with illustrations, [1 pp.] (slightly age-toned and stained, small holes and tiny loss of paper in the inner margin due to old binding, small folds in the corners and light creasing although the sheets, but overall in a good used condition).

A rare ephemeral spiritual guide to the architecture of the Great Mosque of Mecca in Ottoman language, printed in the Baab-As-Salaam, one of the gates of the Mosque, circa 1910

A rare ephemeral illustrated pamphlet in Ottoman language was lithographed and sold in one of the gates of the Great Mosque, Baab-As-Salaam, to the visitors on the Hajj pilgrimage. The chapters describe the architectural elements of the Mosque and their spiritual meanings through the prayers. The illustrations represent the Great Mosque with its architecture from the time of the late Ottoman Empire.

The brochure was printed by Abd al-Hafid and His Brothers and distributed by Maktabah al-Nahdah al-Hadithah bookstore on the premises of the entrance to the Mosque. Such pamphlets became especially desirable, when more people could easily reach Mecca through newly built parts of the Hejaz Railroad in 1908. This vivid connection between this religious center and other parts of the Ottoman Empire was abruptly interrupted by the World War I.

Due to their ephemeral nature such pamphlets are very rare on the market. We could not find any institutional examples.

1.200 EUR



32. Mecca Imprint
Hejaz Vilayet Press


بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

اجله صحابه كرامدن كعب بن زهير رضى الله عنه حضرتلرينك حضور نبويده استيمان
ايله انشاد بيورمش اولدقلرى (بانت سعاد) نام قصيدهٔ بلاغت نضيده لرى ايسانك
معانى مفرداتنى ايضاح وطلبهٔ علومه ده آيريجه برفائده اولق اوزره جهت اعرابه لزينى
بيان وبالمناسبه تنشيط قلوبه مدار اولور بعض حكايات دخى درج واتيان ايدرك كتاب
هيئتنه قويديغم اشبو شرح عاجزانه يه باشلردم ٠

﴿ لؤلؤه ﴾

نه ابراز همزه كيسه دن اميد ديكردم ❁ بنم مقصودم انجق نشر اوصاف نبيدر
بنم دركاردم مدح شه كونينده عجزم ❁ توسل كونه دركاهنه بويرشرح يكتردم

﴿ مدح نبوى يه دائر ﴾

شعرا وادبانك ايراديده جكارى معانى دقيقه واوصاف جليله كمالات محمديه يه نسبتله دوندر
برذات كه وصفى حقنده قرآن كريم نازل اولوب وصافى رب جليل اولهانك ميدان مدحنده
امب فكرى جولان ايندرمك طور عقلدن بيرو ندر ٠

ماذا عسى الشعراء اليوم قدحه ❁ من بعد ما مدحت حم تنزيل

عقل وفكر ايله اوميدانك نهايته وارلق محال اولديغى تسليم كردهٔ ارباب كمال در نهايت نرده
بدايتنده يله مرغ بالا پرواز لسان بلغا شكسته بال عجز وكلال در ٠

وهل تفنن واصفيه بوصفه ❁ بفنى ازمان وفيه مالم يوصف

ابن فارض حضرتلرينه جناب رسالتپناهى صراحة مدح ايتمكلرى اسلوب اشعارى ظاهر المحبوب

(مجازى)

Ka‘b ibn Zuhayr (كعب بن زهير); author. Necib; translator.

اسعاد بانت سعاد شرحى

[Esad, Banet Suad şerhi]

Mecca: حجاز ولايتى مطبعه سى [Hicaz Vilâyet Matbaası] 1314 [1897]

4°, two volumes bound together (complete). 1 pp. index, 2 pp., 222 pp. with as always missing front wrappers numbered 1 and 2, original black cloth boards with debossed gilt decoration, later cloth spine covering parts of boards.

(Slightly age-toned with small tears and loss of paper in margins, first two sheets with loss of upper corners and with red staining (due to the colour of the original pink wrappers – common for the books from this area of the time and not to be mixed with pink mold), sporadic sheets loose, binding battered, small scratches and pieces of corners missing, last two pages glued together tight in the inner margin

A rare book in the Ottoman language is the one and only edition of the commentaries on the Arabic poem *Banet Suad* and was printed in Mecca by the Press of the Hejaz Vilayet.

The author of the poem was Ka‘b ibn Zuhayr, a contemporary of the Islamic prophet Muḥammad. The author recited the text for the prophet himself after embracing Islam and was wrapped in Muhammad’s mantle.

Banet Suad is known as the first na'at, poetry in praise of the prophet Muhammad, in Arabic

Worldcat does not list any institutional examples. I. B. B: Atatürk only houses the first volume (OE_TK_00040/01).

References: ÖZEGE 5061.

3.200 EUR

33. Crete Imprint
Botany – Agriculture
Citrus Growing

DUBOISSY (?), author; Bedrizâde İbrahim MUKBIL - Nikola PAPAZAKI, translators

حديقه

[Ḥadiḳa / The Garden]

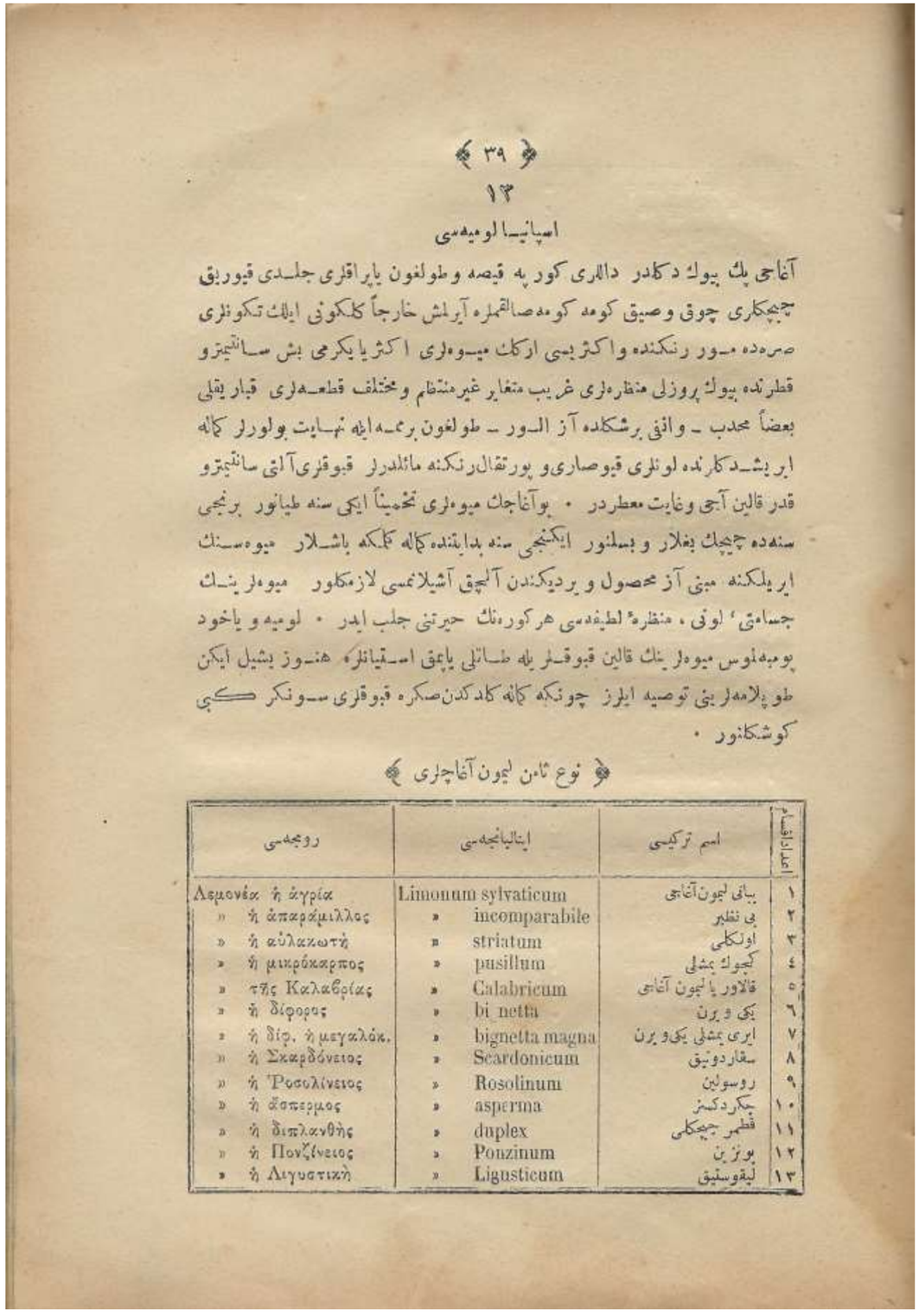
Chania, Crete: كريد ولايتى مطبعه سى [Girit Vilâyet Matbaası] 1312 [1895]

4°. 4 pp. [index], 172 pp. with charts and sporadic illustrations, bound with original brown wrappers, original marbled boards, new black calf spine (light staining and foxing, inner white margins with light water-staining and small holes from the previous binding, small tears in margins, original wrappers with small holes, minor loss to the white margins

A rare and until now underappreciated work on modern citrus growing, printed in Ottoman language, as a part of the program to modernize the agriculture of Crete

This is a rare agricultural work on citrus growing, printed in Ottoman language on Crete. According to the introduction it was based on a Greek report by an author Duboissy or De Bassi, made for an agricultural inspector in Athens. The book gives an introduction on modern citrus growing and lists modern sorts of lemons and oranges.

The original report was made in the time of the attempts to modernize the agriculture of Greece and introduce various new citrus, in order to boost the country’s economy and compete with the other



﴿ ٣٩ ﴾

١٣

اسپانيـا لوميه‌سى

آغاجى پك پيوك دكلدر دالارى كوريه قيصه وطولغون ياپراقلرى جلـدى قيوريق چيچكلرى چوق وصيق كومه كومه‌صالقمره آيرلمش خارجاً كلكونى ايلك تكونلرى صره‌ده مـور رنكنده واكثريسى ازكك ميـوه‌لرى اكثريا يكرمى بش سـانتيمترو قطرنده پيوك پروزلى منظره‌لرى غريب متغاير غيرمنتظم ومختلف قطعـه‌لرى قبار يقلى بعضاً محدب ـ وانفى برشكلده آز الـور ـ طولغون برمـه‌ايله نهـايت بولورلر كاله ايريشـدكارنده لونلرى قيوصارى‌و پورتقال رنكنه مائلدرلر قبوقلرى آلتى سانتيمترو قدر قالين آجى وغايت معطردر • بوآغاجك ميوه‌لرى تخمينـاً ايكى سنه طيانور برنجى سنه‌ده چيچك بغلار و بسلنور ايكنجى سنه بدايتنده كاله كلكه باشـلار ميوه‌سـنك ايريلكنه مبنى آز محصول و يرديكندن آلچق آشيلانمسى لازمكلور ميوه‌لرينـك جسامتى، لونى ، منظرهٔ لطيفه‌سى هركورنك حيرتنى جلب ايدر • لوميه و ياخود بومبه‌نوس ميوه‌لرينك قالين قبوقلرى يله طـاتلى ياپمق اسـتيانلره هنـوز يشيل ايكن طوپلامه‌لرينى توصيه ايلرز چونكه كاله كادكدن صكره قبوقلرى سـونكر كچى كوشكلنور •

﴿ نوع ثامن ليمون آغاچلرى ﴾

اعداد اقسام	اسم تركيسى	ايتاليانجه‌سى	روجه‌سى
١	بيابانى ليمون آغاجى	Limonum sylvaticum	Λεμονέα ἡ ἀγρία
٢	بى نظير	» incomparabile	» ἡ ἀπαράμιλλος
٣	اولكلى	» striatum	» ἡ αὐλακωτή
٤	كچوك يشلى	» pusillum	» ἡ μικρόκαρπος
٥	قالاور يا ليمون آغاجى	» Calabricum	» τῆς Καλαβρίας
٦	يكى ويرن	» bi netta	» ἡ δίφορος
٧	ايرى يشلى يكى ويرن	» bignetta magna	» ἡ δίφ. ἡ μεγαλόκ.
٨	سقاردونيق	» Scardonicum	» ἡ Σκαρδόνειος
٩	روسولين	» Rosolinum	» ἡ Ῥοσολίνειος
١٠	چكردكسز	» asperma	» ἡ ἄσπερμος
١١	قطير چيچكلى	» duplex	» ἡ διπλανθὴς
١٢	پونزين	» Ponzinum	» ἡ Πονζίνειος
١٣	ليقوسنيق	» Ligusticum	» ἡ Λιγυστικὴ

Mediterranean countries in the export of the citrus. Unlike wine and olives, which die not transport well, Greece was hoping on their export of oranges and lemons. The first step was to make large reforms to their old fashioned rural agriculture under the influence of the West.

The major influences from the West came to Greece through France and Bavaria and the Bavarian prince Otto of Greece (1815-1867), who reigned as king of Greece between 1832 and 1862. His wife Amalia was a keen grower of citrus and formed a tight friendship with Theodoros Orfanidis (1817– 1886), a poet and professor of botany at the University of Athens. Orfanidis, schooled in France, was responsible for major improvements on the field of citrus growing in Greece.

Our book, printed in Ottoman language on the island of Crete, was probably printed with the same goal as the original Greek report, that is to improve and modernize the local agriculture and increase the export of citrus.

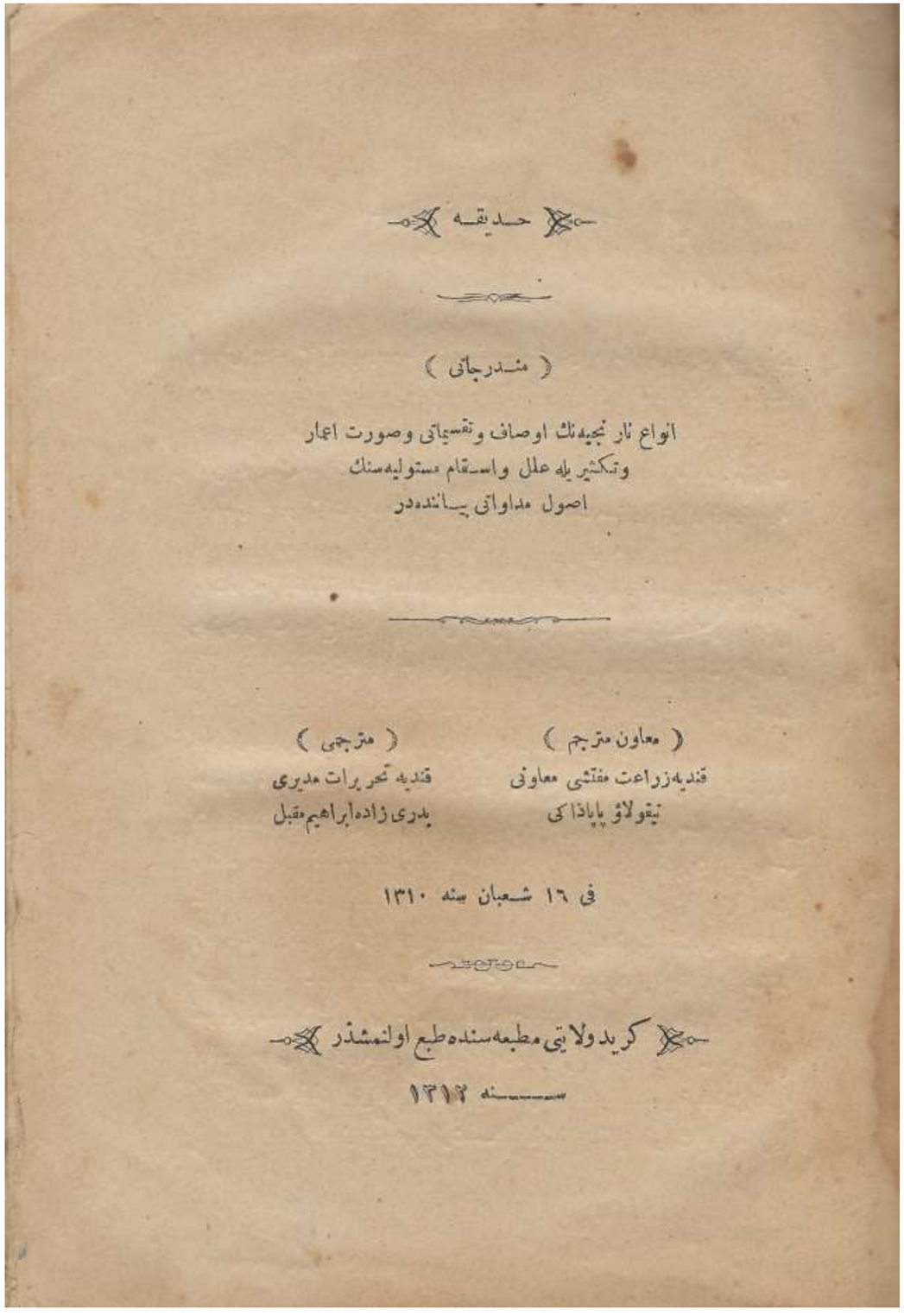
The book was printed in the official press of the Crete Vilayet of the Ottoman Empire. The press on the island was first founded late in the year 1830 or early in the following year by Ibrahim Pasha, a son of Muhammad Ali Pasha, the governor of Egypt. The press produced a newspaper *Vekayi-i Giridiye* in Ottoman and Greek language (see: Orhan Kologlu, "La presse turque en Crete", in: Nathalie Clayer/Alexandre Popovic u.a. (Hg.), Presse Turque et Presse de Turkie…, Istanbul – Paris 1992, pp. 259-264). After this publication there appears to be a gap in the printing activity on the island until 1868, when another official newspaper in again both languages was issued. The title was *Girid* (Crete) and it was published until 1897, with the last years mostly in the Ottoman language.

In the last two decades of the 19th century there appeared to be a vivid printing activity on Crete. All the publications are rare today, as they were mostly printed for the inhabitants of the island.

Worldcat only lists one institutional example (Universiteitsbibliotheek Leiden).

References: OCLC 777585068, BDK - MİL - ÖZEGE; 6559 - TBTK; 8987.

1.200 EUR


حديقه

(مندرجاتی)

انواع نار نجيه‌نك اوصاف وتقسيماتی وصورت اعمار
وتكثير يله عمل واستقام مستوليه‌سنك
اصول مداواتی بيانندەدر

(معاون مترجم)
قنديه‌زراعت مفتشی معاونی
نيقولاؤ پاپاذاكی

(مترجمی)
قنديه تحريرات مديری
بدری زاده ابراهيم مقبل

فی ١٦ شعبان سنه ١٣١٠

كريد ولايتی مطبعه‌سنده طبع اولنمشدر
سنه ١٣١٢

34. Female Authors

Halide Edib [Adıvar] (1884-1964) (خالده اديب)

زينونك اوغلى

[Zeyno’nun Oğlu / Zeyno’s Son]

Istanbul: خلق كتابخانه سى صاحبى عبدالعزيز - الهامى فوزى مطبعه سى [Halk Kütübhanesi Sahibi Abdül'aziz - İlhami - Fevzi Matbaası] 1928

8°. 411 pp., 13-16 pp., original grey wrappers with lettering, contemporary black linen binding with debossed and gilt lettering and decoration, old taxation stamp on the title page (binding slightly bumped, small cracks on the spine, small tears in the front endpapers, inside a good, clean example)

A first edition of a novel Zeyno’s Son by a famous Ottoman / Turkish female author Halide Edib Adıvar

This is a first edition of a novel about an illegitimate son of Zeyno, a Kurdish beauty and a wife of a medical doctor, and her lover. The novel is set in Diyarbakır in the first years of the Republic and is an insight on the lives of the state officials from Istanbul, who moved to Anatolia on the eve of the Kurdish rebellion.

Halide Edib Adıvar, an esteemed intellectual, author, a political activist, feminist and a member of a resistance, was born as a daughter of a secretary of the Ottoman Sultan Abdülhamid II and was educated at home since early age and later at the American College for Girls. After finishing her education, Halide married a mathematician, physicist and astronomer Salih Zeki Bey, whom she divorced in 1910. Seven years later she married Dr. Adnan, a lecturer in literature at Istanbul University's Faculty of Letters.

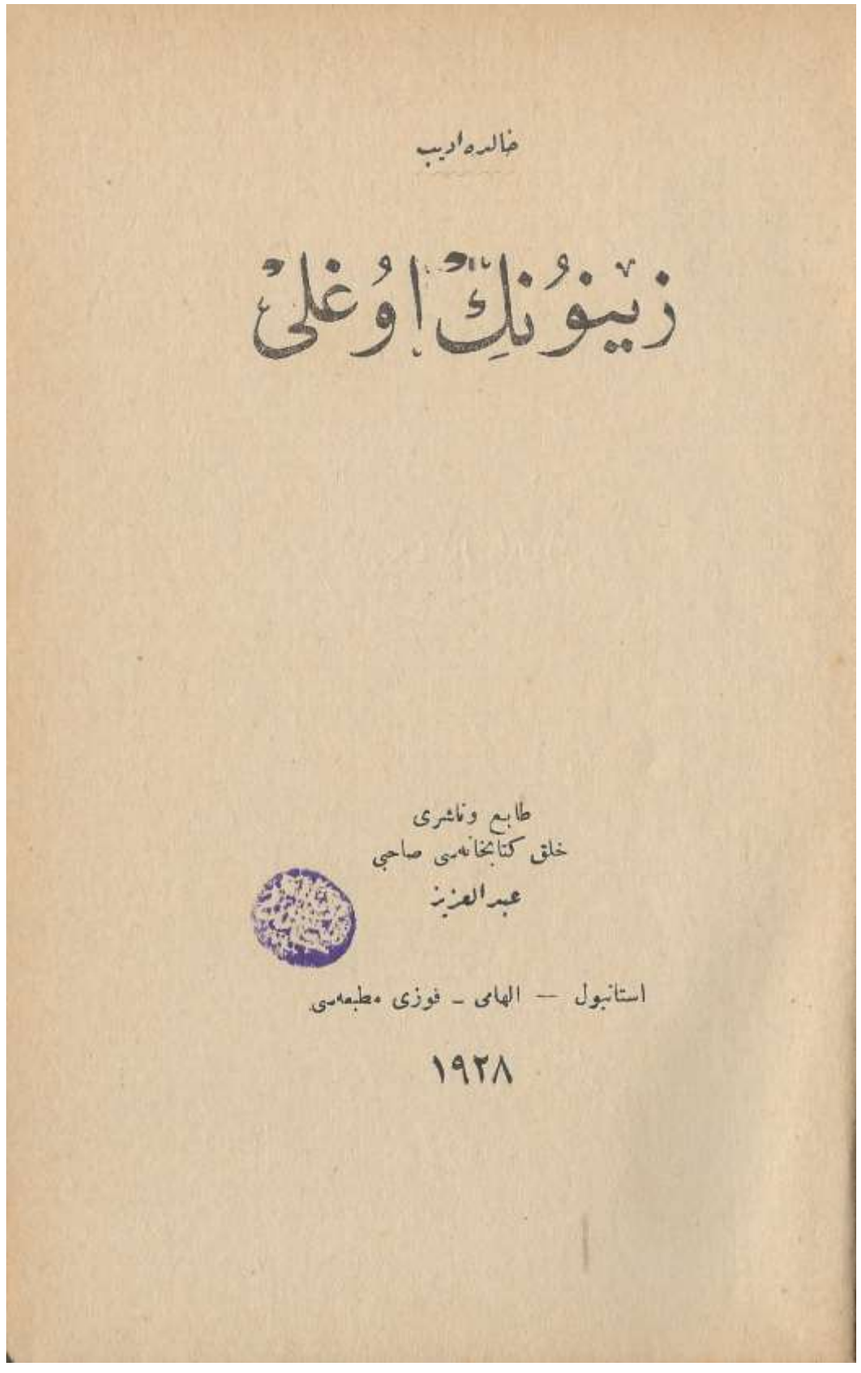
During WWI, Halide became active in the national movement and worked as a school inspector in Damascus, Beirut and the Collège Saint Joseph in Mount Lebanon. After the war, the British tried to exile her to Malta as “firebrand and a dangerous agitator“. Halide and her husband escaped to Anatolia to join the Turkish National Resistance, where she worked as a reporter and a fighter, gaining the ranks of first corporal and then sergeant in the nationalist army.

From 1926 until 1939, Halide lived in exile in France and the United Kingdom. After her return she worked as a professor in English literature at the Faculty of Letters in Istanbul, and was a member of the parliament between 1950-1954.

Halide Edib Adıvar is one of the most influential Turkish writers of the 20th century. Throughout her novels she criticized the low status of women in Ottoman and Turkish society and their lack of initiative to change the situation.

References: OCLC 972733137; BDK - ÖZEGE; 23736 - TBTK; 9516.

250 EUR



35. Science
Chemistry



Édouard Grimaux (1835-1900), author; عزيز محمود بن عبداه (Aziz Mahmud – Abdi), translator.

كيمياى غير عضوى

[Kimya-yı Gayr-ı Uzvî (Kimya-i Gayr-i Uzvî) / Inorganic Chemistry]

Istanbul: قره بت مطبعه سى [Karabet Matbaası] 1310 [1893]

2 parts (complete) bound in one volume. Small 8°. Imprint, [5 pp.], 384 pp. with black and white illustrations. 304 pp., contemporary brown cloth boards with debossed and gold decoration, brown calf spine with raised bands and gilt decoration and lettering, original marbled endpapers, old taxation stamp on the title page.

(pp. 15-16 of the first volume falsely bound after the title page, small ink-stain on the fore edge, sporadic annotations in pencil, minor scratches to the binding, overall in a good condition).

An early ottoman book on chemistry is a translation of a French work by Édouard Grimaux (1835-1900), originally published in 1872 under the title *Chimie inorganique élémentaire*.

References: BDK - ÖZEGE; 10868 - TBTK; 11714.

150 EUR

کیمیای غیر عضوی

مکتب فنون حربیهٔ شاهانه ومکاتب اعدادیهٔ ملکیه‌ده تدریس اولنور

غریمونك اثریدر

مترجملری

مکتب حربیهٔ شاهانه کیمیا معاونی وصنوف بیطریه کتابت معلمی پیاده یوزباشی

عزیز محمود بن عبداه

مکتب حربیهٔ شاهانه واعدادیهٔ ملکیه کیمیا معلمی طبیب بیکباشی

عبدی بن رائف

جلد اول

شبه معادن

صاحبی : کتابجی قره‌بت

مجلس معارف عسکریه‌نك قراریله ومعارف نظارت جلیله‌سنك رخصتیله طبع اولنمشدر

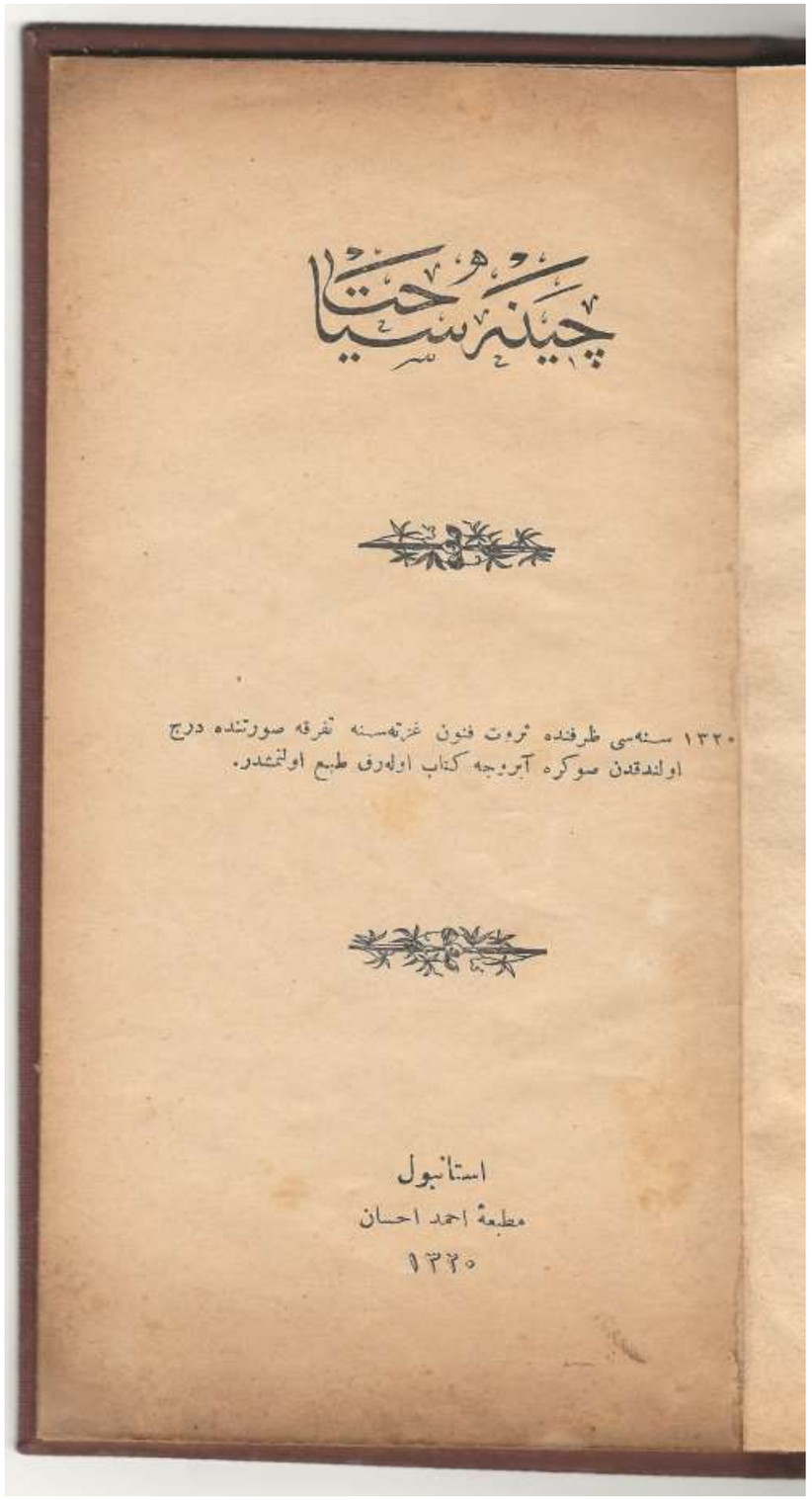
استانبول

(قره‌بت) مطبعه‌سی — باب عالی جاده‌سنده

۱۳۱۰



36. China
International Relations



William Woodville ROCKHILL (1854 –1914), author.

چینه سیاحت

[Çin'e Seyahat / Travel to China]

Istanbul: مطبعه احمد احسان [Matbaa-i Ahmed İhsan] 1320 [1903]

Long 8°, 38 pp., later brown cloth boards with gilt lettering (pp. 28 and 29. bound tightly with tiny glue marks in the text, last pages with trimmed white margins, old hand-written price in the inner side of the rear board, otherwise in a good condition).

A book in Ottoman language is a translation of the text on China by an American diplomat William Woodville Rockhill (1854 –1914).

The translation was originally published in a literary and intellectual magazine Servet-i Fünun or Wealth of Knowledge. 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.

The İhsan’s translation of the stories and reports on foreign countries contributed immensely to the perception of the contemporary outside world in the late Ottoman Empire.

We could find two institutional examples on Worldcat (Boğaziçi University Library, University of Chicago Library).

References: Özege BDK - ÖZEGE; 3366. OCLC 879557856, 949548459.

220 EUR

37. Hebrew Printing in Izmir

الفبای عبرانی .אלף-בית עברית

[Elifba-yı İbrani / Hebrew Primer]

Izbir: آغوب شکریان ء عثمانیه مطبعه سی 5673 – 1329 [1913]

8°, 32 pp., original wrappers with lettering (wrappers stained and ink-stained, wide margins with small tears and loss of white paper, slightly age-toned, sheets inside in a good clean condition).

A rare Hebrew – Ottoman Primer, printed in Izmir, Turkey, in 1913 on the eve of WWI.

A very rare primer in Hebrew and Ottoman was printed in Izmir, Turkey, in 1913.

The port of Izmir was in the 18th and 19th century a flourishing center and with 40,000 Jews in 1868 the third largest Jewish community in the Ottoman Empire. The tensions between other inhabitants of the city and the Jews increased towards the end of the 19th century, forcing many Jewish families to seek their home in other towns or countries. By the first years of the 20th century, almost half of the Jewish population left Izmir.

The pamphlet is unrecorded in the literature available to us and we could not find any institutional examples.

680 EUR


برنجی کتاب
אלף-בית עברית
الفبای عبرانی
لسان عبرانی‌یی معلمز اولەرق تحصیل ایتك آرزوسنده بولنان
نورسیکان و هوسکارانك تسهیل تحصیللری ایچون
مخصوصاً قله آلنوب ایلك دفعه اولەرق
طبع و نشر ایدلمشدر
محرری و مؤلفی : رودفور فارو
هر حق محفوظدر
5673 ١٣٢٩
طابعی : آغوب شکریانه — عثمانیه مطبعه سی
چقور خان — ازمیر

קין פֿוּמי חיל פֿריעיר גוּחיטעיכּמו דיל ווכדו
قاین دنیانیك ایلك باغچه‌وانی اولوشدور

הבל פֿוּמי חיל פֿריעיר פּחכּטור דיל ווכדו
هابل دینانیك ایلك چوبانی اولوشدور

משה חים חיל ויזם כוועדרמדן די כּום גרחכדים פֿרופֿיטלם
حضرت موسی بیوك پیغمبرلرك ثمك نامداریدیر

כּם תורה חים חיל פֿריעיר די כּום כּיבֿרום פּחכּטום
تورات شریف کتب مقدسه‌نیك بیرنجیسیدیر

משה קיעו כּום גּוֹדייום דיל חיפֿיטעו
حضرت موسی موسویلەری مصردەن چیقارمیشدیر

קון קו ב'ארה פּחרעייו כּם ווּזר
عصاسیله دەنیزی یارمیشدیر

כּום גּילייום מיסעוֹביירון קוחריכּעים חכייום חן חיל דיזיירטו
موسویلەر قیرق سنه چولده قالمیشلاردیر

דיקפֿוחים חימעחרון חם כּם עיירם פֿרוּמיטיל‌ם
بعده ارض موعوده داخل اولموشلاردیر

כּם עיירם פֿרוּמיטיל‌ם חים ארץ כנען
ارض موعود ارض کنعان دیر

אהרון חירם חירוּזמו די ווכּה
حضرت هارون حضرت موسی‌نیك بویوك قارداشی ایدی

יעקב מיטיחם דוֹגי חיזום חי חוכם חיזה
حضرت یعقوبوك اون ایکی ثمركك اولادی ایله بیر قبزی واردی

— حروفوك رقمجه قیمتلەری —

א	ב	ג	ד	ה	ו	ז	ח	ט	י
١	٢	٣	٤	٥	٦	٧	٨	٩	١٠

כ	ל	מ	נ	ס	ע	פ	צ	ק
٢٠	٣٠	٤٠	٥٠	٦٠	٧٠	٨٠	٩٠	١٠٠

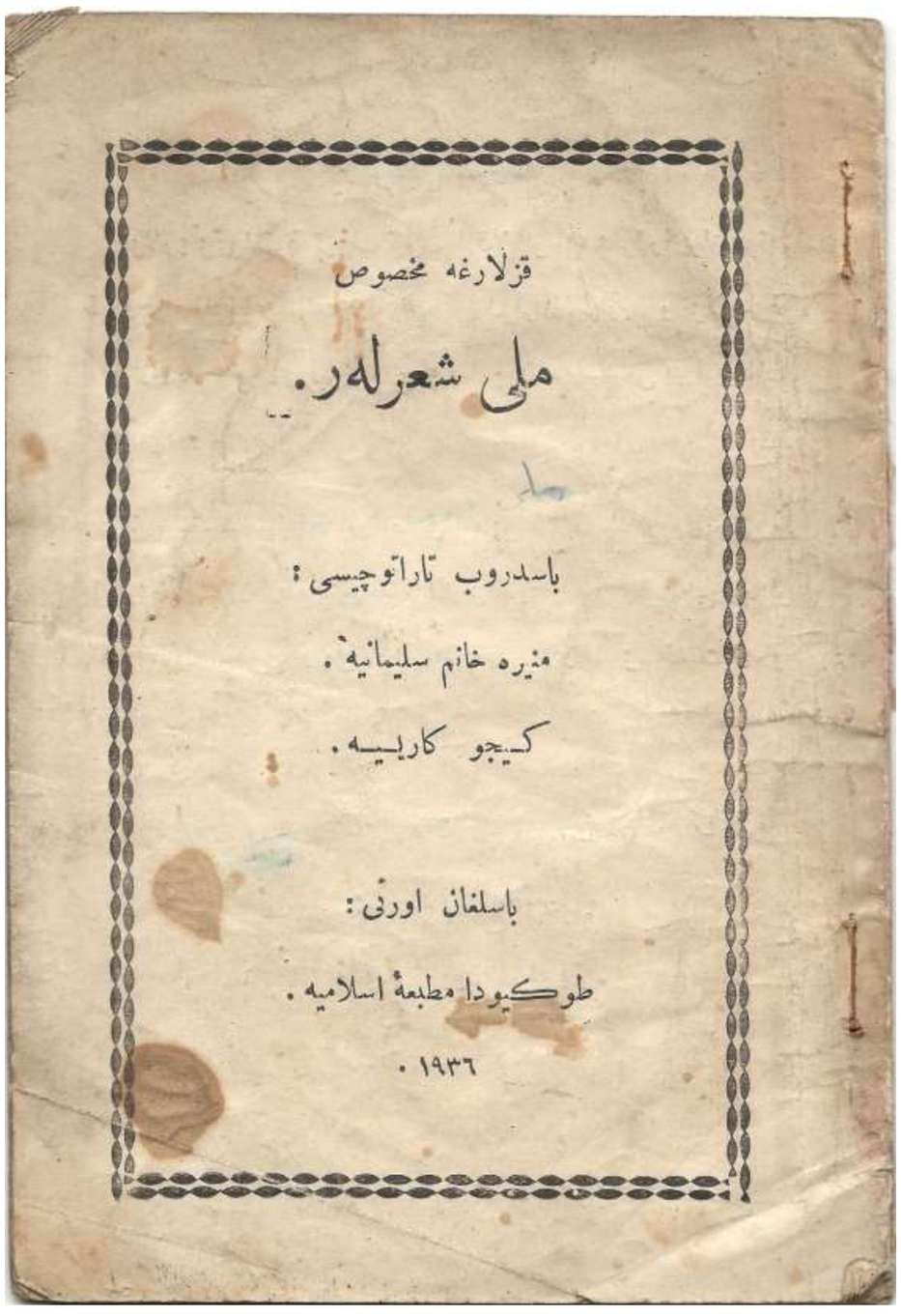
ר	ש	ת	ך	ם	ן	ף	ץ
٢٠٠	٣٠٠	٤٠٠	٥٠٠	٦٠٠	٧٠٠	٨٠٠	٩٠٠

— تورات شریفدەن بعض سوراتیك ترجمەلری —

חין פֿריסיפֿיו קריחו חיל דיו חם כּום קיילום חי חם כּם עיירם
ابتدادا الله گوکلەری و یەری یاراتدی

חי דיסו חיל דיו קיחם כּוז חי פֿוחי כּז
و الله آیدینلیق اولسون دەدی و آیدیناق اولدو

38. Tatar Printing in Japan
Female Authors



منیره حانم سلیمانیه [Münire Hanım Süleymaniye]

قزلارغه مخصوص ملی شعرلەر

[Milli Şiirler / Special National Poems for Girls]

Tokyo: Islamic Press 1936

8°. [2 pp.] title, 24 pp., later marbled paper wrappers (missing original wrappers, stained, first and last pages slightly dusty, sporadic old annotations in blue and red colour pencil, corners with tiny folds and loss of paper).

A rare, seemingly unrecorded pamphlet with national songs in Tatar language, printed in Tokyo, adopted for young girls by a female author

A rare, seemingly unrecorded pamphlet with national songs for girls in Tatar language, printed in Tokyo in Perso-Arabic Script, was edited by a female author Münire Hanım Süleymaniye.

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 Muhammed Gabdulkhay 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.

We could not find any references to the work in the literature.

450 EUR

39. Science Fiction
Tatar Printing in Finland

Hasan HAMIDULLA (1895-1988)

يولدوزلارغه سياحت

[loldoaLarþa sägãþat. / Yulduzlarga seyehat / A Journey to Stars]

Kemi (Finland]: 1947

8°, 77 pp., later blue cloth boards with gilt lettering (binding slightly age-toned, old hand-written price in the inner side of the rear board, otherwise in a good condition).

An unusual spaceflight fantasy (Halén 1979), was written in Finland in Tatar language by Hasan Hamidulla (1895-1988), a Finland-based Tatar publisher, writer and entrepreneur.

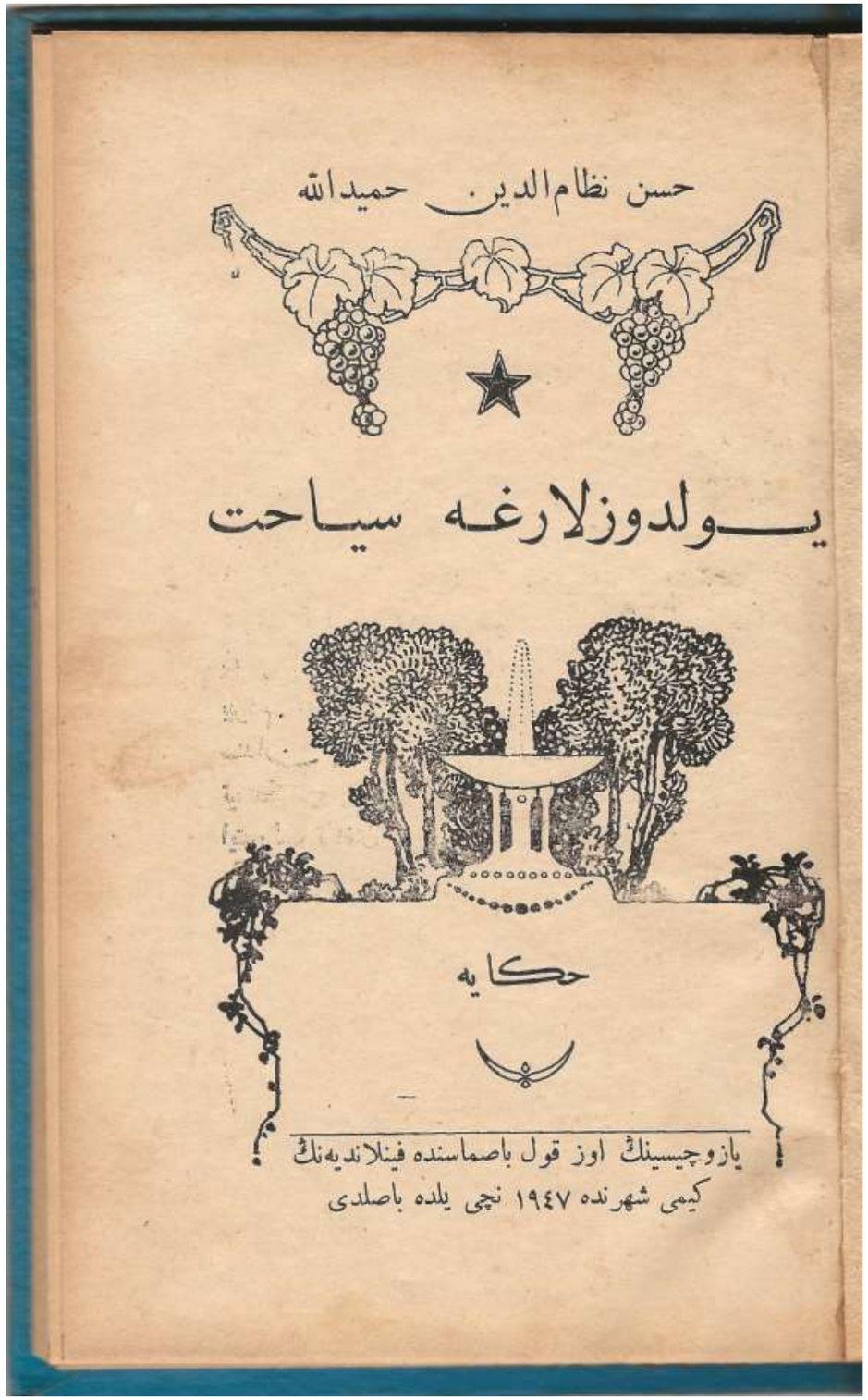
Hamidulla was born in Nizhny Novgorod and moved with this father to Finland in 1915. In 1926 and 1927 Hasan served a military service in Turkey, after which he returned to Finland, where he was running a business with batteries and radios. In 1950 he moved to Helsinki.

From the mid 1920s on, Hasan was publishing books and magazines in Tatar language and was distributing them for free to the Muslim immigrants. He was closely involved with the Islamic religious centers in Finland and outside its borders.

All the publications were printed or mimeographed by the author in his private press in limited editions and today rarely appear on the market and no or only sporadic examples survive in the institutions.

References: Harry HALÉN, A Bibliographical Survey of the Publishing Activities of the Turkic Minority in Finland, 1979, no. 13.

350 EUR



40. Tatar Printing in Munich, Germany

Organ des National-Komitees der Tataren-Baschkiren. Review of the Tatar-Bashkir National Committee

نازات واتان Azat Vatan. Nr. 11-12, 14-15, 13

Munich: 1953

Small 4°, 3 issues in one volume, black mimeographed text. No. 11-12: 50 pp. mimeographed text in Perso-Arabic script, original front wrappers with lettering. No. 14-15: 42 pp. mimeographed text in Perso-Arabic script, original front wrappers with lettering. No. 13: 33 pp. mimeographed text in modified Latin script, original front wrappers with lettering. Later green cloth binding with gilt lettering on the cover and spine (slightly age-toned and stained, old handwritten price on the inner side of the boards, otherwise in a good condition).

A rare mimeographed set of three issues of a magazine, printed by Tatar-Bashkir immigrants in Munich, Germany**.** Issues 11-12 and 14-15 are written in Tater with Perso-Arabic letters and issue number 13 is written in a modified Latin script.

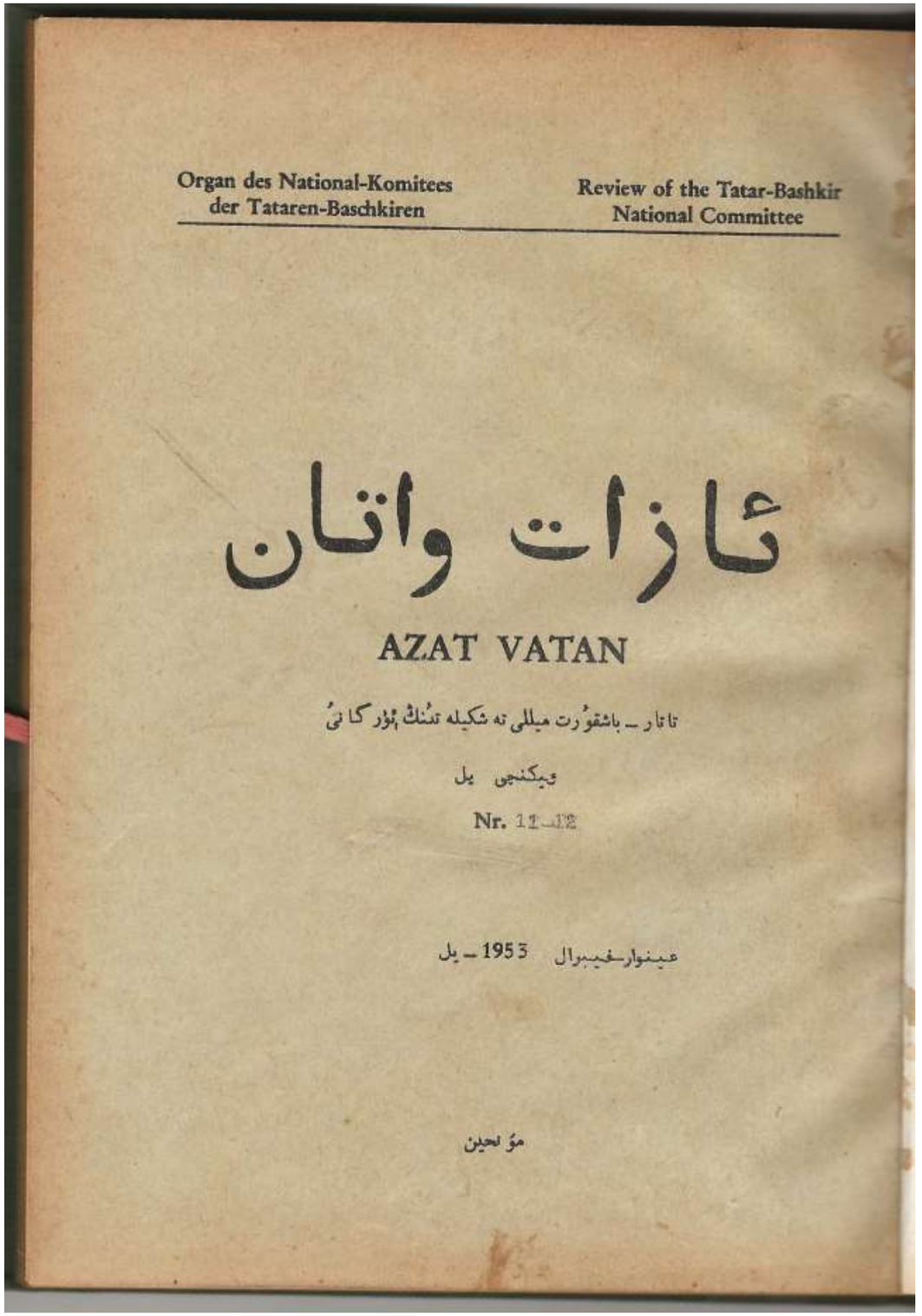
The articles, which titles are written at the beginning also in English language, mostly refer to the relation of the Soviet Union and Stalin towards the Turkic nations. They also include reports on the Tatars in Japan, Tatars in Munich, Kazan, relations with the United States, poetry, biographies etc.

After the Soviets annexed the lands of Tatars after the Revolution, many Muslim Turkic speaking inhabitants from the area fled to Germany, where they continued publishing their newspapers in the next decades, mostly in Perso-Arabic script, although that script was replaced in the Soviet Union already in the late 1920s.

Separate issues of the magazines are held in circa 6 libraries (Bibliothèque nationale de France, Deutsche Nationalbibliothek, Leipzig, Universitätsbibliothek der Eberhard Karls Universität, Bayerische Staatsbibliothek, Stanford University, SOAS).

References: OCLC 417049696, 224978671, 472080002.

420 EUR



مەجموعەنك ئچدەلگى

1. امطیایشلار ..... ع. حسن
2. "بالطه ئه کبه تی" ..... م. کریمی
3. ستالین هم ترك تاتار حالقی ..... دەولتشین
4. ساویت أسیرلیگیندەن قایتقان آلمان سویلی ..... میسباح
5. ساویت ایلیین اداره ایتوچیلەر ..... م. کریمی
6. قوبی محللەسی .....
7. رامضان بیرامی ..... ئەرەلی
8. کیملدە حاکیملك ایچون کورەش دولم ایته ..... آرچه مالایی
9. چویك بالنویتم ..... ع. حاکم
10. کونچیلیعیش آلمانیدە 17 نجی ایپون .....
11. یحتسز قزان شهری ..... میسباح
12. حاتلار

In this issue:

1. Tendencies among emigrants from the USSR ..... Hassan
2. " The Ax ". a fairy tale..... M. Kerimi
3. Stalin and the Turko- Tatar nation..... Prof.Davletshin
4. A German prisoner of war returning from the USSR reports..... Mibbah
5. the different mentalities of soviet communists.... M.Kerimi
6. The Tatar community in Japan..... M.Ereli
7. The festival of Ramazan in Munich..... M.Ereli
8. The fight for power in the Kremlin..... Archa Malay
9. The 17th.of June in the Soviet Zone..... The Redaction
10. The Rotten Bolshevism,,,

41. Tatar Newspaper
Kazan on the Eve of the October Revolution

Various Authors. Editor: Солдатъ А. Монасыпов (Soldier A. Monasypov)

بزمڭ طاوش

Бзненъ Таушъ. Нашъ Голосъ

[Our Voice, no 8, 9, 10.]

Kazan: Изданіе Временнаго Всероссійскаго Мусульманскаго Военаго Совѣта [Provisional All-Russian Muslim Military Council] September, 14, 17 and 18.

3 issues. Each Folio, 4 pp., taxation stamps (slightly age-toned and stained, soft folds, small tears , no. 10. with a mounted hand-written label, tears and small losses of text).

An extremely rare set of 3 issues of the Tatar newspaper by the All-Russian Muslim Military Council, printed in Kazan in the turbulent year of the Russian Revolution of 1917

These rare set of three newspapers (of ?) was issued in Kazan in September of 1917, on the eve of the October Revolution, which turned this city of one of the revolutionary centers. The publisher was the Provisional All-Russian Muslim Military Council, an organization of Muslim Tatars in Russia, who hoped for a larger independency in the near future.

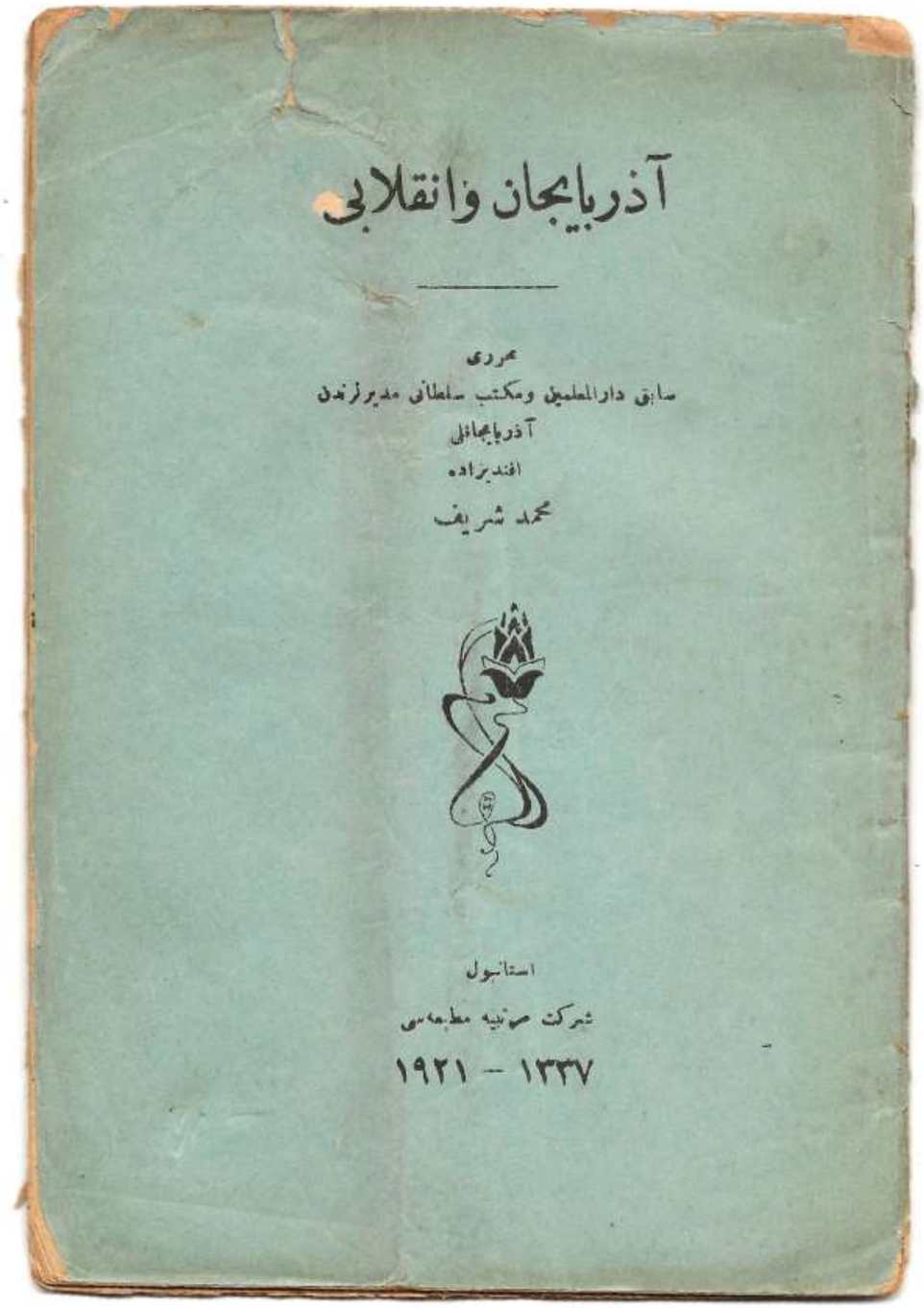
In 1918, the Congress of Muslims from central Russia and Siberia founded the Idel-Ural State in Kazan, also known as a Volga-Ural State, a short-lived independent state of Turkic peoples and Volga Germans. The Bolsheviks suppressed the state and annexed Kazan to the Soviet Union. In the same year, the city was briefly sieged by the Czechoslovakian Legion.

We could not find any institutional examples, nor any bibliographic references.

850 EUR



42. Azerbaijan
Russian Revolution



Efendizade Mehmet Şerif (also Şerif Bilgehan, Şerifefendizâde Mehmed)

آذربایجان و انقلابی

[Azerbaycan ve inkılabı / Azerbaijan and Its Revolution]

Istanbul: [Şirket-i Mürettibiye Matbaası] 1337 - 1921.

8°, 46 pp., [2 pp.] blank, original blue wrappers with lettering (wrappers with tiny tears, holes and soft folds, otherwise in a good condition).

A pamphlet with the description of the impact of the Russian Revolution on Azerbaijan was a harsh attack on Ankara, which according to the author, an Azeri educator Efendizade Mehmet Şerif, failed to intervene to protect Azerbaijan against the Bolsheviks.

The author Efendizade Mehmet Şerif, also known in Turkey as Şerif Bilgehan, was a Turkist and pedagogue, born to a prominent Azeri family. An open anti-Bolshevik, he escaped to Istanbul after the Red Army invaded the short lived independent Azerbaijan in 1920.

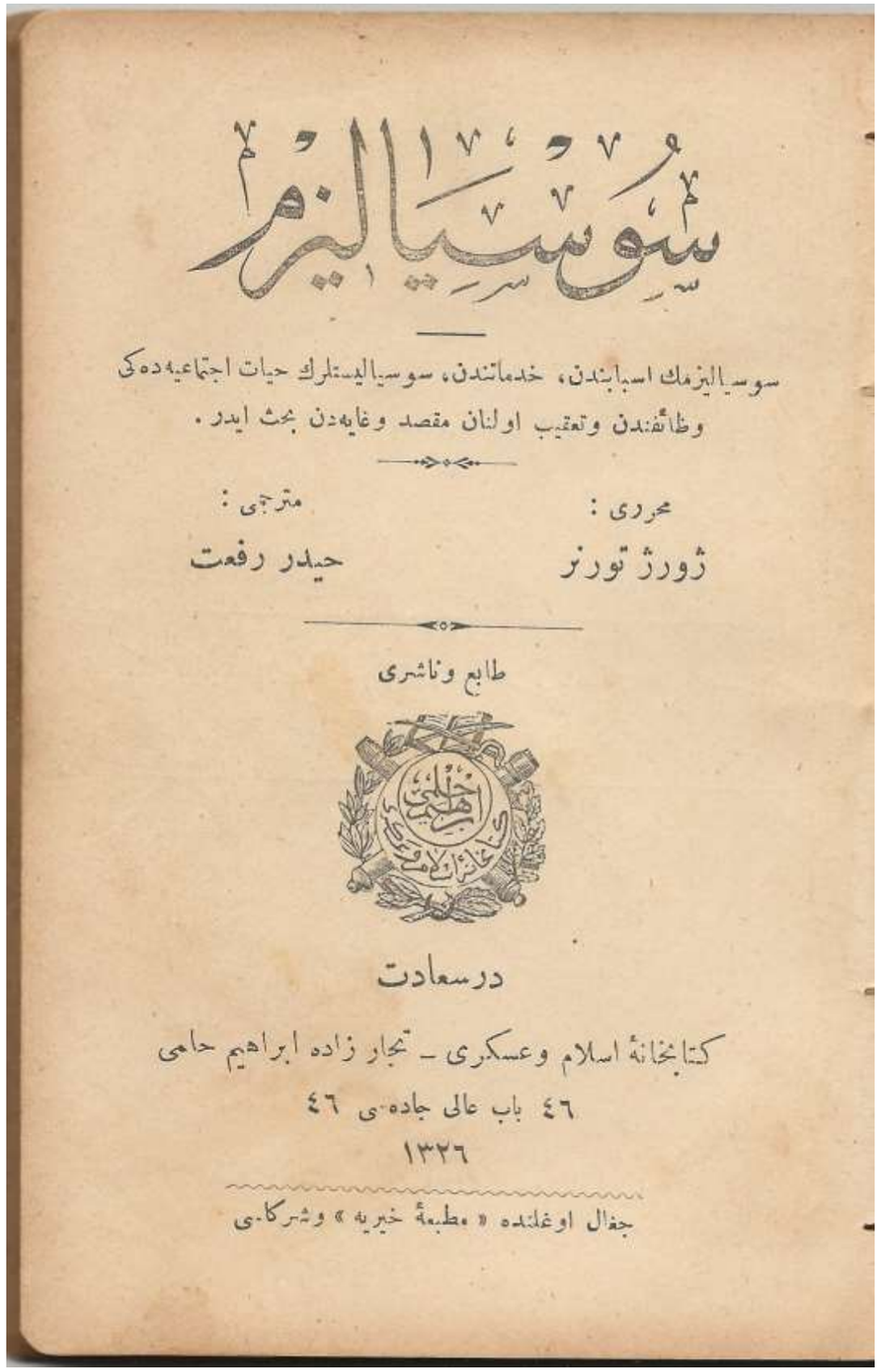
The author's critic against Ankara brought him years of unrecognition by the new Turkish government.

Worldcat lists circa 3 institutional examples, the others appear to be electronic copies.

References: OCLC 83710330. ÖZEGE; 1439**.** Mehmet Akif ERDOĞRU, Ankara Üniversitesi Türk İnkılâp Tarihi Enstitüsü Atatürk Yolu Dergisi. Azerbaycanli türkçü ve eğitimci Efendizade Mehmet Şerif'in not defteri ve Azerbaycan hükümetini kuranlar ile ilgili görüşleri, pp. 143-193.

320 EUR

43. Socialism in the Ottoman Empire


سوسیالیزم

سوسیالیزمك اسبابندن، خدماتندن، سوسیالیستلرك حیات اجتماعیه‌ده‌کی وظائفندن وتعقیب اولنان مقصد وغایه‌دن بحث ایدر.

محرری : ژورژ تورنر

مترجمی : حیدر رفعت

طابع وناشری

درسعادت

کتابخانهٔ اسلام وعسکری ـ تجار زاده ابراهیم حامی

٤٦ باب عالی جاده‌سی ٤٦

١٣٢٦

جغال اوغلنده « مطبعهٔ خیریه » وشرکاسی

Georges TOURNAIRE, author; حیدر رفعت (Ḥaydar RIFAT, 1877 - 1942), translator.

سوسیالیزم

[Sosyalizm / Le socialisme, notions élémentaires]

Istanbul: کتابخانهٔ اسلام وعسکری [Kitaphane-i İslam ve Askeri] 1326 [1910]

8°, 124 pp., [4 pp.] index and blank, later marbled wrappers (missing front original wrapper, very light staining, otherwise in a good condition).

The first book on socialism, published in the Ottoman Empire, in the year of the foundation of the Ottoman Socialist Party.

This is the first edition of the first book on the socialism, published in the Ottoman Empire. It is a translation of a little known French book *Le socialisme, notions élémentaires* by Georges Tournaire, published only a year before, in 1909. It introduces the basics of the socialism, its faults, the participation of working women and its relation to the religion.

Ḥaydar Rifat was one of the major translators and authors of outstanding political works. In the next decades he published books on the Bolshevism, Soviet Union and Democracy and on Mussolini. In 1933, Haydar would become the first translator of *Das Kapital* into modern Turkish.

The introduction was written by the publisher Tüccarzade İbrahim Hilmi Bey himself. Hilmi Bey, a mayor publisher in Istanbul, was born as İbrahim Hilmi Çığıraçan (1876 - 1963) in today's Romania. He opened his publishing house in 1896 in Istanbul, under the name *Kitaphane-i Islami* (Islamic Library), which changed to *Kitaphane-i İslam ve Askeri* (Islamic and Military Library) under the Young Turks regime.

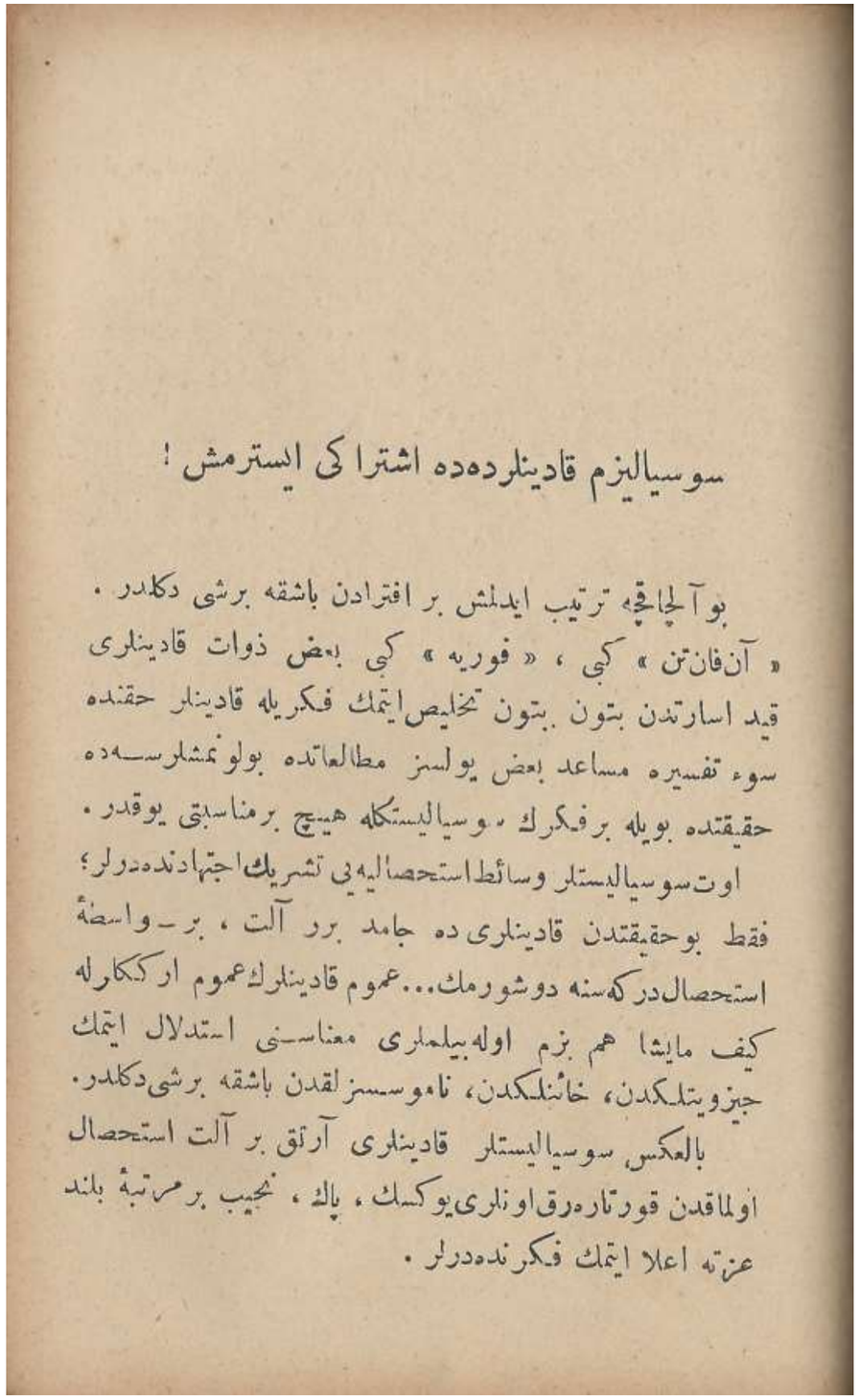
1910 was a groundbreaking year for the socialist movement in Istanbul. In that year the Ottoman Socialist Party was founded and started publishing their newspaper *İnsaniyet*, which portrayed Karl Marx on the cover of the first issue. This was the first visual appearance of Marx in the Ottoman press.

As the Ottoman Socialist Party was not an official political association, 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.

We could only find two institutional examples (Leiden University Library and Boğaziçi University Library). Also the original work in French language is very rare and only two examples are recorded on Worldcat (both in French libraries).

References: OCLC 65804261. 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; Latest article: Özgün Uçar, Bir ‚hayalet' (Darwin) ve bir ‚kabus' (Marx) Türkçeye ilk, 2021, with older literature there.

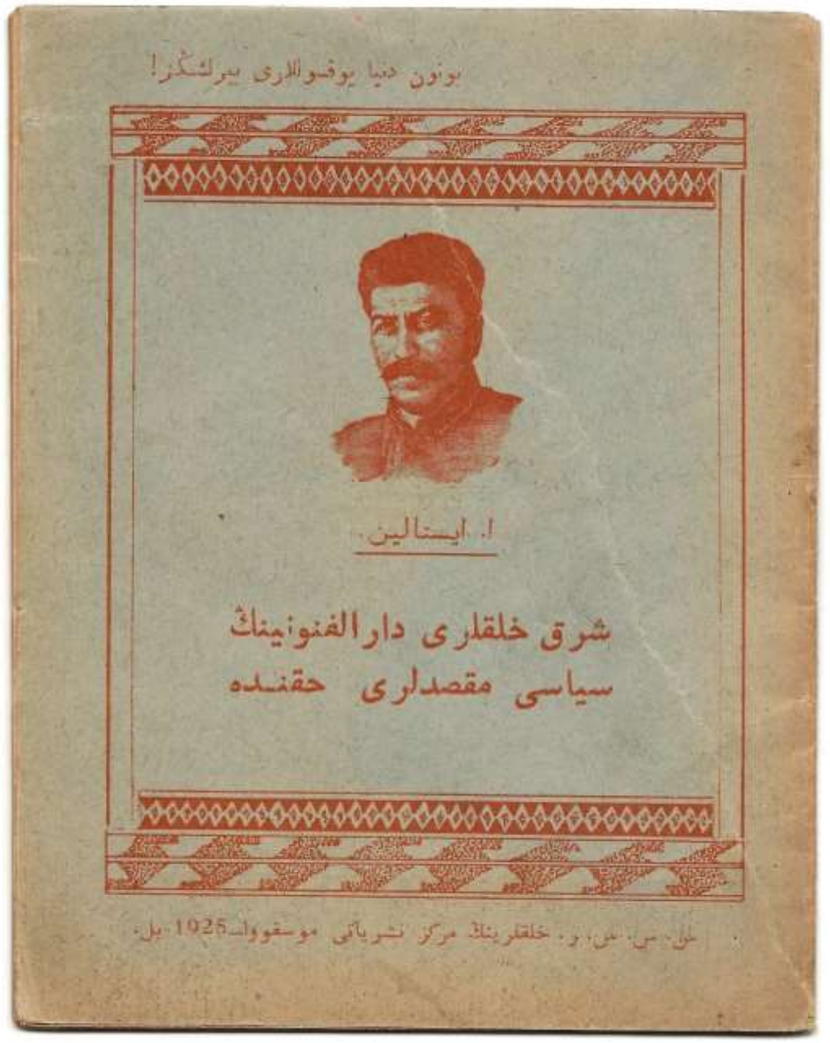
820 EUR



سوسیالیزم قادینلرده‌ده اشتراکی ایسترمش !

بو آلچاقچه ترتیب ایدلمش بر افترادن باشقه برشی دکلدر .
« آن‌فان‌تن » کبی ، « فوریه » کبی بعض ذوات قادینلری
قید اسارتدن بتون بتون تخلیص ایتمك فکریله قادینلر حقنده
سوء تفسیره مساعد بعض یولسز مطالعاتده بولونمشلرسه‌ده
حقیقتده بویله بر فکرك ، سوسیالیستکله هیچ برمناسبتی یوقدر .
اوت سوسیالیستلر وسائط استحصالیه‌یی تشریك اجتهادنده‌درلر؛
فقط بوحقیقتدن قادینلری ده جامد برر آلت ، بر ـ واسطهٔ
استحصال درکه‌سنه دوشورمك... عموم قادینلرك عموم ارککارله
کیف مایشا هم بزم اوله‌بیلملری معناسنی استدلال ایتمك
جیزویتلکدن، خائنلکدن، ناموسسزلقدن باشقه برشی دکلدر.
بالعکس، سوسیالیستلر قادینلری آرتق بر آلت استحصال
اولماقدن قورتاره‌رق اونلری یوکسك ، پاك ، نجیب بر مرتبهٔ بلند
عزته اعلا ایتمك فکرنده‌درلر .

44. Tatar Printing in Moscow Communist Far East University Stalin's Politics Regarding the Near East and Asian Regions



Joseph STALIN (1878 –1953)

شرق خلقلرى دارالفنونيناڭ سياىى مقصدلرى حقنده

[О политических задачах университета народов Востока /The Political Tasks of the University of the Peoples of the East]

Moscow: خلقلرينڭ مركز نشرياتى. Центральное издательство народов С. С. С. Р. [The Central Publishing House Of The Peoples Of The USSR] 1925.

12°, 30 pp. with illustrated initial , [2 pp.] blank, original illustrated wrappers, stapled (old hand-written number on the title page, spine with light foxing and slightly age-toned, a clean tear across the front cover, otherwise in a good clean condition).

A rare pamphlet with Stalin's important speech, held in the same year at the Far East University, was printed in Tatar language with Perso-Arabic letters, in Moscow in 1925, a year after he succeeded Lenin. The Soviets supported the traditional Tatar script for only a few years, when in 1928 it was replaced by Latin and Cyrillic.

This is a rare, possibly first separately published edition of Stalin's important speech held at the Soviet Far East University and addressed to the future communist leaders and influential people from the Near and Missile East, India and Asia. The pamphlet was printed in 3000 examples for a Tatar speaking population of the Soviet Union in Moscow.

The speech was held only a year after Lenin's death, when Stalin succeeded the deceased Communist leader. It was a prelude into Stalin politics regarding the Tatar countries, annexed to the Soviet Union.

Stalin's speech was held on March 18th, 1925, at the Communist University of the Toilers of the East, also known as the Far East University, which was a Soviet institution for training school for important Communist political functionaries. Founded in 1921, it housed Tatar students from Near East countries, annexed to the Soviet Union, as well as students from Turkey, China, Japan, Africa, India and Middle East. Several most important communist leaders, politicians, artists and writers attended this university until in was closed in the late 1930s.

In his speech Stalin addressed two groups of people in the audience: a – the students, who come from the parts of the Soviet Union and are already building the system in their regions on the Soviet rules, and b – the students, who come from non-Soviet countries "are living and developing under the oppression of imperialism". He encouraged the latter ones to start a revolution in their countries.

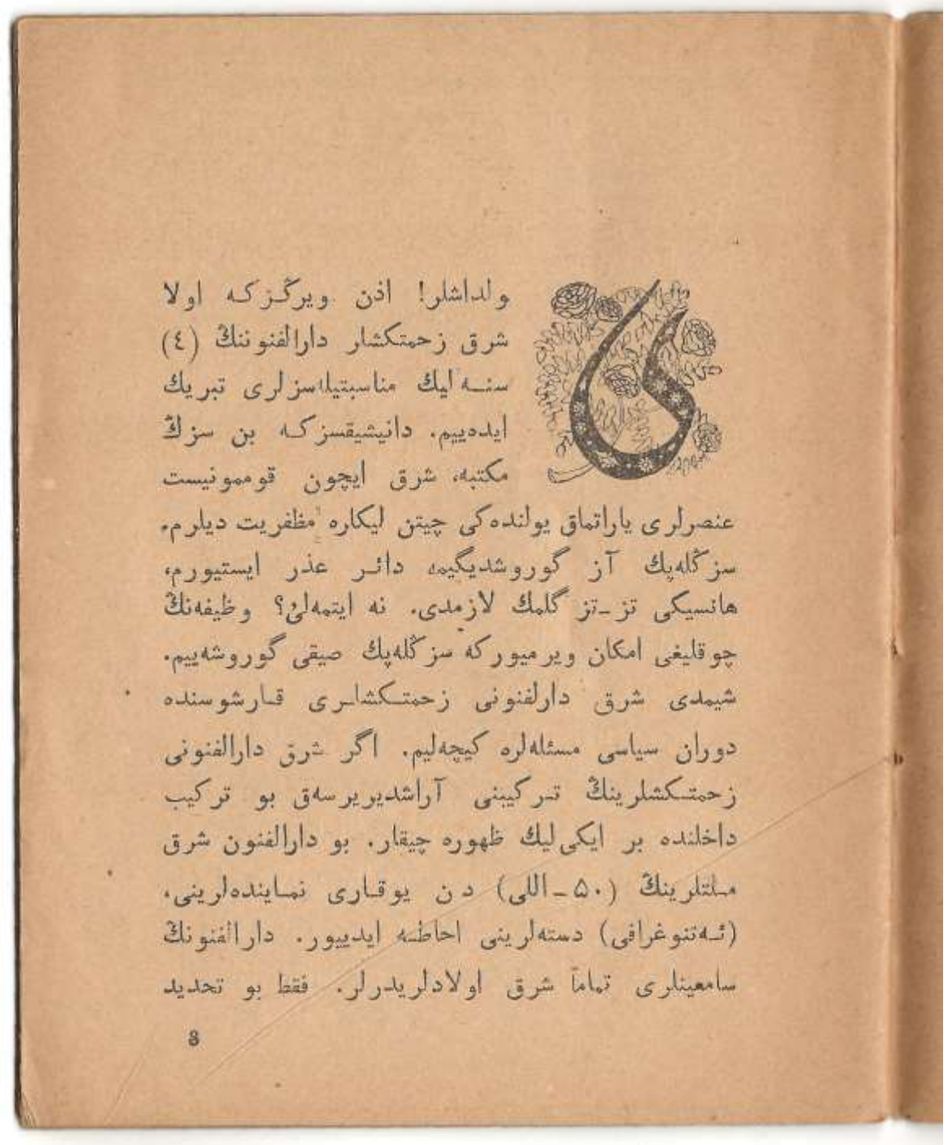
The article was originally published in the newspaper Pravda on May 22, and shortly after published in a this Tatar translation as a pamphlet.

The pamphlet was printed in Perso-Arabic lettering, or more precisely Yaña imlâ Arabic, a Tatar variation with adjusted letters and vocal sounds in use only for a brief Period under the Soviet Union, between 1920 and 1927. Yaña imlâ approached the older Ottoman way of writing to the local Tatar sounds and made it easier to read. Around 1928, the script was replaced by the Latin and Cyrillic alphabet.

The pamphlet was published by The Central Publishing House Of The Peoples Of The USSR, active between 1924 and 1931. The goal of this publishing house was to issue publications in various languages of the Soviet Union.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

720 EUR


ولداشلر! اذن ویرگزکه اولا
شرق زحمتکشار دارالفنوننك (٤)
سنه ایك مناسبتیله سزلری تبریك
ایده‌ییم. دانیشیقسزکه بن سزك
مکتبه، شرق ایچون قوممونیست
عنصرلری یاراتماق یولنده‌کی چیتن لیکاره مظفریت دیلرم.
سزکله‌یك آز گوروشدیگیمه دائر عذر ایستیورم،
هانسیکی تز-تز گلمك لازمدی. نه ایتمه‌لی؟ وظیفه‌نك
چوقلیغی امکان ویرمیورکه سزکله‌یك صیقی گوروشه‌ییم.
شیمدی شرق دارلفنونی زحمتکشلری قارشوسنده
دوران سیاسی مسئله‌لره کیچه‌لیم. اگر شرق دارالفنونی
زحمتکشلرینك ترکیبنی آراشدیریرسه‌ق بو ترکیب
داخلنده بر ایکی‌لیك ظهوره چیقار. بو دارالفنون شرق
ملتلرینك (٥٠-اللی) دن یوقاری نماینده‌لرینی،
(ئه‌تنوغرافی) دسته‌لرینی احاطه ایدییور. دارالفنونك
سامعینلری تماماً شرق اولادلریدرلر. فقط بو تحدید
3

45. Communism in Uzbekistan
Tashkent Imprint

Joseph STALIN (1878 –1953)

لینینزم مه سنه له له ری

[Leninizim masjalalari / Foundations of Leninism]

Tashkent - Samarkand: 1929

Large 8°, 373 pp., original illustrated card boards (endpapers cracked in the gutters, old signature and date on the title page, a stamp from a de-accessed library on the inner side of the front cover, binding lightly bumped on corners and dusty, tiny wormholes around the gutter of the first pages, inside in a good, clean condition).

The first Uzbek translation of Stalin's Foundations of Leninism with an attractive crude cover design, printed in Tashkent in Perso-Arabic letters

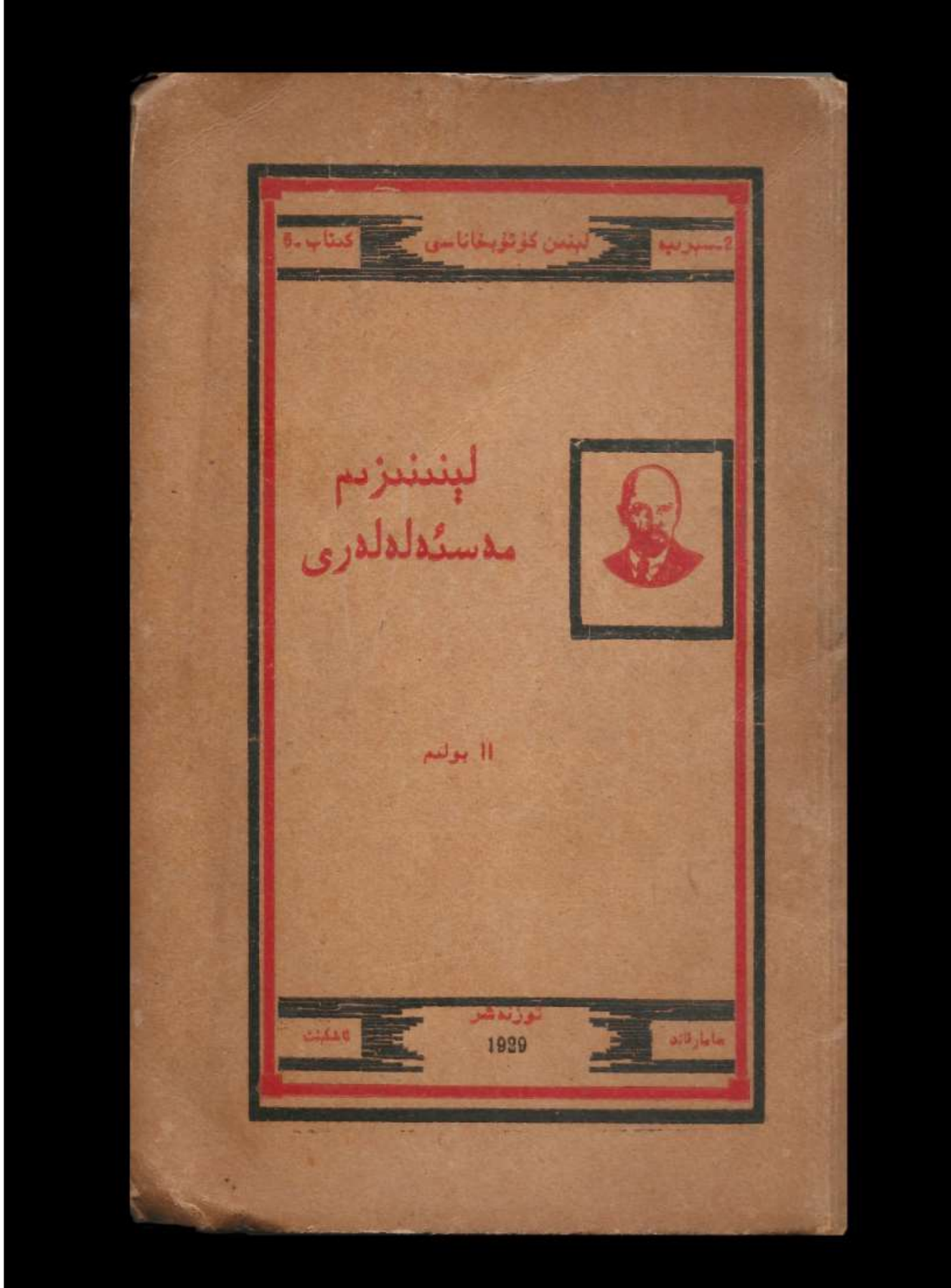
This is the first Uzbek translation of Stalin's nine speeches on Lenin, known under the title Foundations of Leninism, held at Sverdlov Communist University in 1924 and published first in Russian language as a newspaper article in Pravda newspaper.

The book was printed in Perso-Arabic lettering, or more precisely Yaña imlâ Arabic, a Tatar variation with adjusted letters and vocal sounds in use only for a brief Period under the Soviet Union, between 1920 and circa 1927. Yaña imlâ approached the older Ottoman way of writting to the local Tatar sounds and made it easier to read. In 1928, the script was replaced by the Latin and Cyrillic alphabet. This book still uses the old alphabet in the following year.

The book was issued as a 5th book in a series, as the second book on Lenin.

We could not find any institutional examples.

350 EUR



46. Murder of Empress Elisabeth – Sissi
Sisak Imprint



Spomen-spis užasnog umorstva Njezinog Veličanstva Kraljice Jelisavete dne 10. rujna 1898. godine.

[A Memoir of a Terrible Murder of Her Royal Highness Queen Elisabeth on September 10th, 1898]

Sisak: Čupak i Dujak 1898.

12°, 32 pp., original illustrated wrappers, stapled (minor foxing, cover slightly stained with a ink stain, otherwise in a good condition).

An exceedingly rare ephemeral pamphlet in Croatian language was issued after the murder of the Empress Elisabeth of Austria, nicknamed Sissi, on September 10th, 1898, in Sisak, Croatia, at the time a part of Austro-Hungary. Sissi, a beloved empress, known for her beauty, was stabbed to death by the Italian anarchist Luigi Lucheni in Geneva. The wrappers of the pamphlet are decorated with portraits of the queen and her assassin.

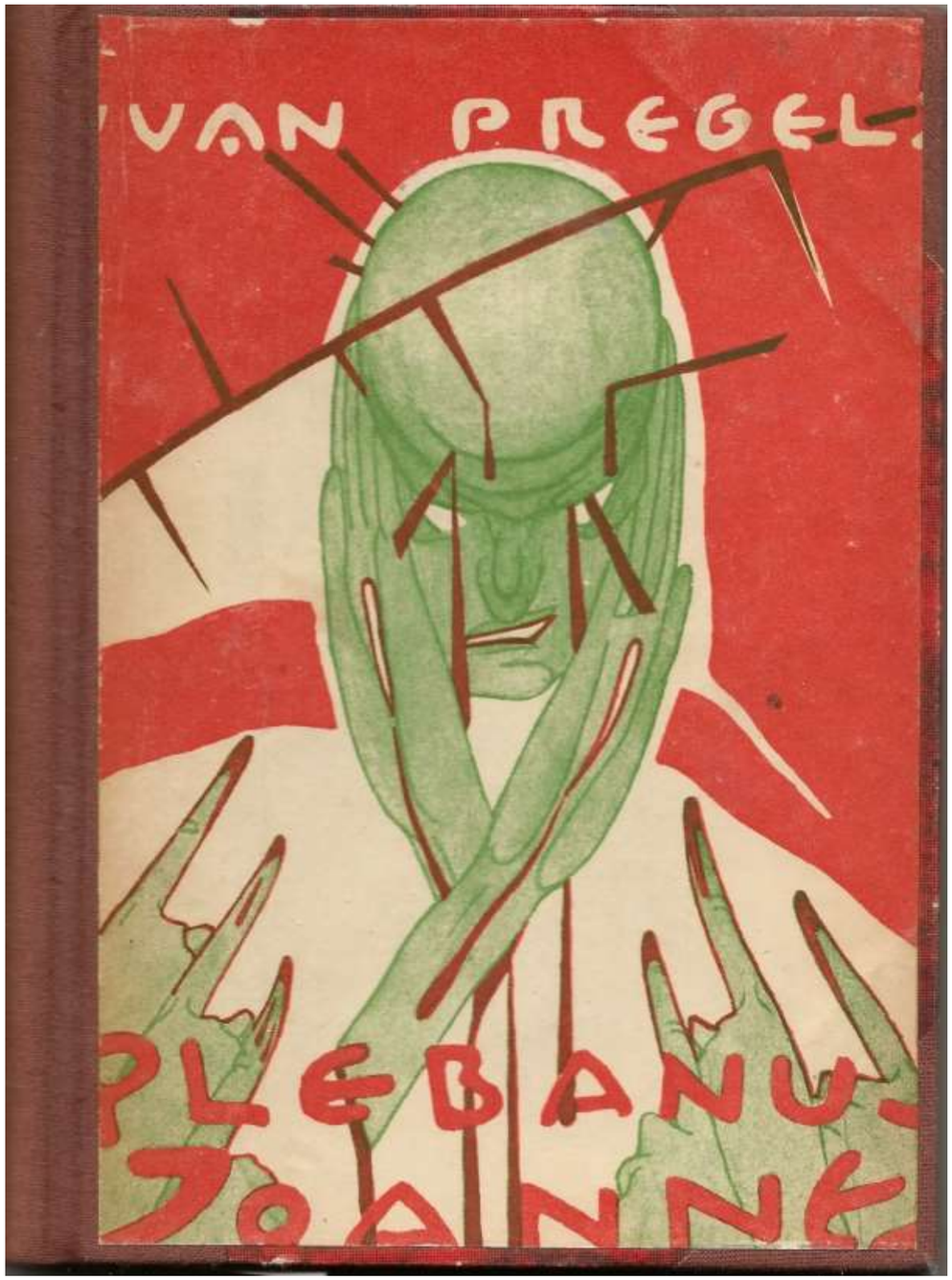
The text describes the funeral and includes various anecdotal stories from the life of the empress, such as Sissi's affection towards a coloured servant boy Rustimo, whom she received as a present from an Egyptian Viceroy.

The pamphlet was printed in Sisak, by Čupak i Dujak, a publishing house owed by Janko Dujak (1869 - 1925) and Josip Čupak. The firm was founded in 1895, and only existed for four years, when Čupak sold his part and entered the politics. Janko Dujak continued a successful publishing career and in the next decades issued a series of important books and newspapers.

We could not find any institutional examples.

440 EUR

47. Slovenian Printing in Italy
Book Design



Ivan PREGELJ (1883-1960), author; Tone KRALJ (1900-1975), illustrator.

Plebanus Joannes

Trieste: Naša založba [Our Prublishing House], printed in Vienna by Miroslav Jasper, 1921

8°, 198 pp., later three-quarter dark red linen binding with marbled boards and original cover pasted on the front board (minor staining, old signature covered with white paint in the upper corner of the title page, last four pages with tiny repairs in the upper corner, cover trimmed with small loss of lettering, otherwise in a good condition).

A Slovenian novel with a stunning expressionistic design by an academic painter Tone Kralj was published by a Slovenian press in Trieste, which would in the next years became one of the centers of the Italian Fascism.

Ivan Pregelj (1883-1960), a Slovenian writer, partly active on the territory of the Fascist Italy, was known for his expressionistic novels, often involving Catholic motifs. His protagonists are often set in the dilemma between the torn inner self and their everyday lives in the society. This novel is known for its oldfashioned baroque style.

The cover design was made by a Slovenian painter and sculptor Tone Kralj (1900-1975), known for his mural paintings and sculptures, as well as for his book illustrations. Schooled at the academy in Prague as a sculptor between 1920-23, he continued his studies in Vienna, Paris and Venice.

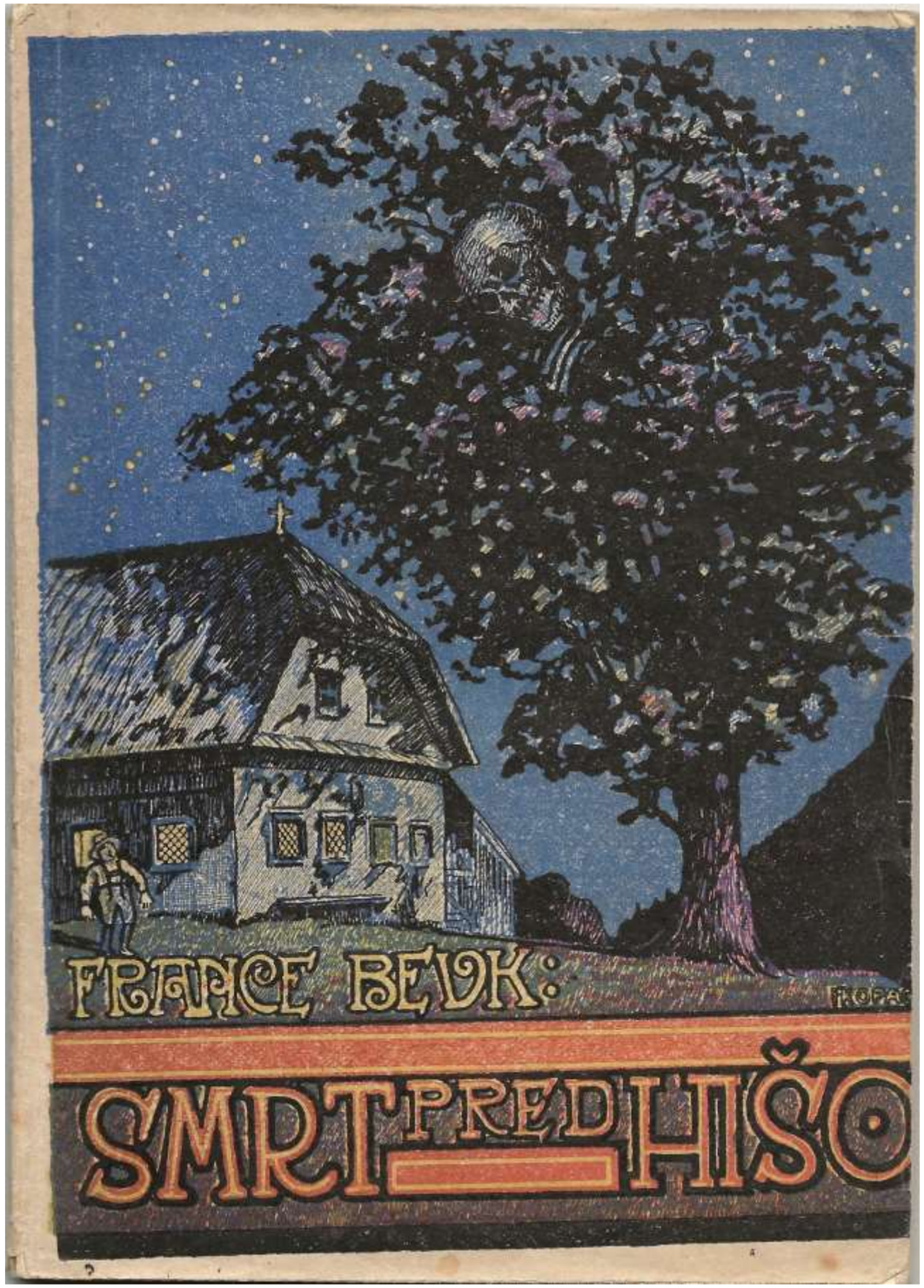
Before and during WWII, Kralj lived in the area, annexed to the Fascist Italy (Gorizia and Trieste area), where he was painting large murals in Slovenian churches with a strong anti-Fascist iconography, which was never discovered or destroyed by the Italians. The characteristics of Kralj's art are monumental figures with heavy shadows, made in the art deco style.

This is the first separately published edition.

References: OCLC 7351731.

180 EUR

48. Slovenian Printing in Fascist Italy
Book Design



France BEVK (1890-1970), author; France (Franjo) KOPAČ (1885-1941), illustrator.

Smrt pred hišo

[Death Infront of the House]

Gorica: Goriška matica 1925.

8°, 134 pp., with black and white vignettes, [2 pp.], original illustrated wrappers (old owner's signature in black ink on the title page, tiny tears in margins, overall in a good condition)

A uniquely well preserved example of a short novel with fragile wrappers, published by Slovenians under the censorship of the Fascist Italy

The novel was written by one of the most prolific Slovenian authors of the 20th century, France Bevk. He born in the western part of today's Slovenia, which was at the time under Austria-Hungary.

Bevk received his education in Koper (Capodistria) and Gorizia, where he remained working as an author and editor. After the area was annexed to the Fascist Italy in 1918, Bevk continued publishing in his native Slovenian language. In 1920 and 1930, after the language became systematically supressed by the Fascists, France Bevk took the leadership in publishing Slavic prints in the area. Among others he was a director of a publishing house Goriška matica, where, under a severe Fascist censorship, he published most of his pre WWII works, including this novel Veliki Tomaž, where he again touches a subject of a common country person being suppressed by uncontrolled political situation. The subject was, obviously, much disfavoured by the contemporary Fascist government.

When Italy entered the war, in 1940, Bevk was sent to a prison camp as a political prisoner. He remained there until the capitulation of Italy in 1943, after which he joined the Partisans. After the war France Bevk remained an active writer and is today known as an author of numberless popular works, especially stories for children.

Goriška matica – The Last Slavic Press in Fascist Italy

Please see the next item for the description.

References: OCLC 7315915.

240 EUR

49. Slovenian Printing in Fascist Italy

Stanislav VDOVIC (nom de plume Janez Rožencvet, 1885 – 1947), author ; Milko Bambič (1905 –1991), illustrator.

Leteče copate

[The Flying Sneakers]

Gorizia: Gor. Mohorjeva družba 1933

12°, 79 pp. with black and white illustrations, original pink wrappers with illustrated cover (light foxing and staining, collector's stamp on the verso of the title page, otherwise in a good condition).

A rare short novel for children was published in Slovenian language in Gorizia, which was at the time a part of the Fascist Italy. The author was Stanislav Vdovič, here signed with a nom de plume Janez Rožencvet (1885 – 1947)

The illustrations were made by an artist Milko Bambič (1905 –1991), known for his political drawings, book illustrations and industrial logos. Especially legendary are his logos for the mineral water Radenska and the shoe company Peko.

Goriška matica – The Last Slavic Press in Fascist Italy

Goriška matica was a publishing house, founded in Gorizia (today Italy) on territory annexed to Italy after WWI. It was specialized in publishing Slavic, mostly Slovenian books. Until WWI, the territory with a major Slavic population, belonged to Austro-Hungary. After the war the territory was annexed to Italy, exposing the Slavic inhabitants to growing Fascist power, which during the 1920s started suppressing the Slovenian and Croatian language.

Matica in Goricia, run by the Slovenian intellectuals from the region and with a printing press Edinost (Unity) in Trieste, was one of the last Slavic publishing companies, fighting to keep the native language. By the late 1920s all the publications of the press had to undergo a Fascist censorship and hundreds of thousands of books were destroyed. In 1933 the publishing house had to Italianize its name to Unione editoriale Goriziana, and was eventually closed in 1940.

The publications of Goriška matica in the 1920s and 1930s were known for good quality texts of the contemporary Slavic authors from the region of Gorizia, Trieste and Karst, and well-designed modern covers, made by academic artists and modern designers.

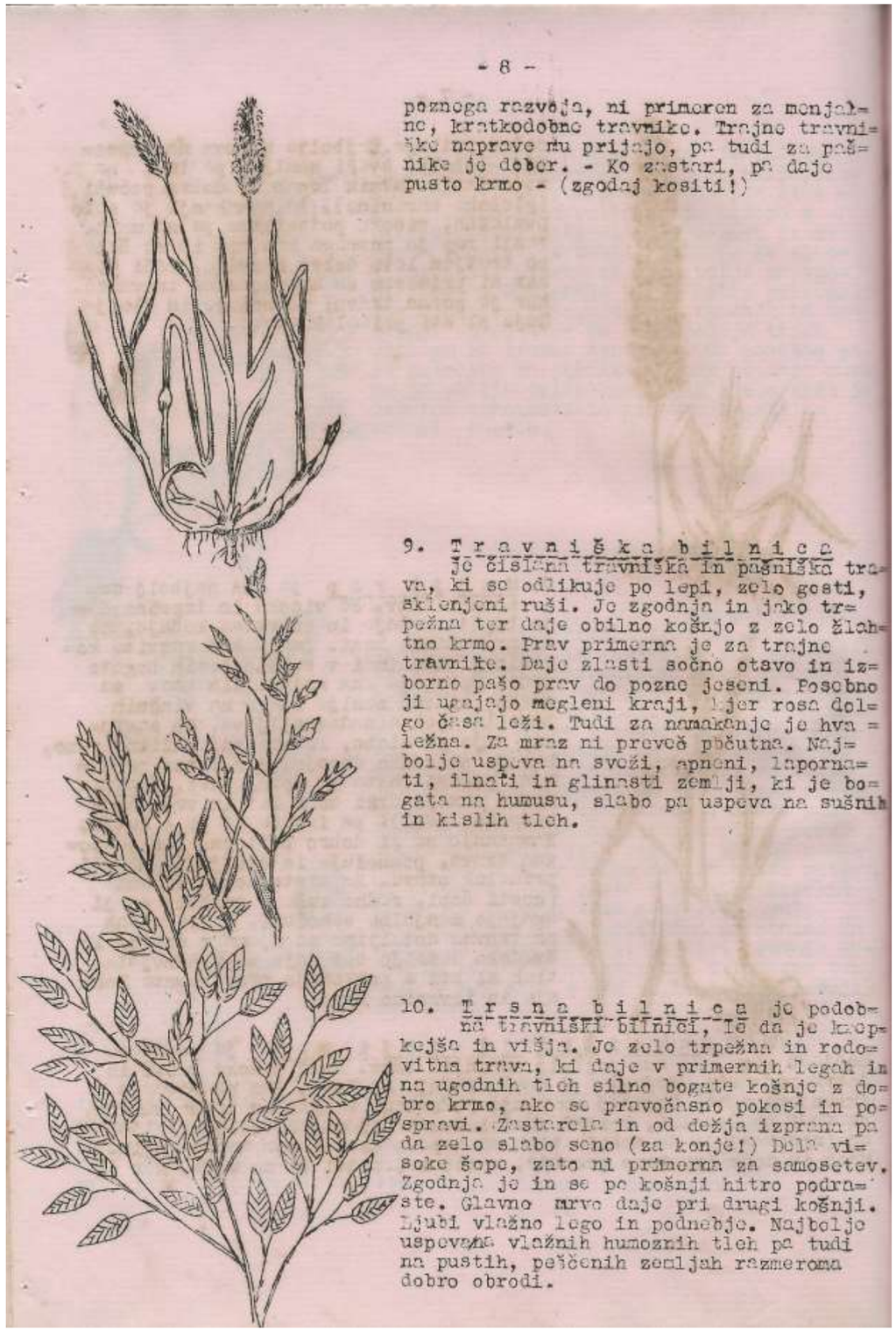
We could not find any institutional examples outside Slovenian libraries.

References: OCLC 450339577. Koblar, France: Vdovič, Stanislav (1885–1947). *Slovenska biografija.* Slovenska akademija znanosti in umetnosti, Znanstvenoraziskovalni center SAZU, 2013. http://www.slovenska-biografija.si/oseba/sbi765863/#slovenski-biografski-leksikon (18. januar 2021). Izvirna objava v: *Slovenski biografski leksikon: 13. zv. Trubar - Vodaine.* Alfonz Gspan, Jože Munda in Fran Petrè Ljubljana, Slovenska akademija znanosti in umetnosti, 1982.

95 EUR



50. Agriculture Books, Printed in a Post-WWII DP Camp



- 8 -

poznega razvoja, ni primeren za menjalne, kratkodobne travnike. Trajne travniške naprave mu prijajo, pa tudi za pašnike je dober. - Ko zastari, pa daje pusto krmo - (zgodaj kositi!)

9. T r a v n i š k a b i l n i c a je čisplana travniška in pašniška trava, ki se odlikuje po lepi, zelo gosti, sklenjeni ruši. Je zgodnja in jako trpežna ter daje obilno košnjo z zelo žlahtno krmo. Prav primerna je za trajne travnike. Daje zlasti sočno otavo in izborno pašo prav do pozne jeseni. Posebno ji ugajajo megleni kraji, kjer rosa dolgo časa leži. Tudi za namakanje je hvaležna. Za mraz ni preveč občutna. Najbolje uspeva na svoži, apneni, laporasti, ilnati in glinasti zemlji, ki je bogata na humusu, slabo pa uspeva na sušnih in kislih tleh.

10. T r s n a b i l n i c a je podobna travniški bilnici, le da je kakopkejša in višja. Je zelo trpežna in rodovitna trava, ki daje v primernih legah in na ugodnih tleh silno bogate košnje z dobro krmo, ako se pravočasno pokosi in pospravi. Zastarela in od dežja izprana pa da zelo slabo seno (za konje!) Dela visoke šope, zato ni primerna za samosetev. Zgodnja je in se po košnji hitro podraste. Glavno mrvo daje pri drugi košnji. Ljubi vlažno lego in podnebje. Najbolje uspeva na vlažnih humoznih tleh pa tudi na pustih, peščenih zemljah razmeroma dobro obrodi.

Maks OSOJNIK

Poljedelstvo. Travništvo

[Fieldwork. Grasses]

[S.l., S.n., Spittal: Refugee Press / Agricultural School of the DP Camp] 1947.

Two titles bound in one volume, 4°, mimeographed on pink paper with illustrations. 42 pp., [3 pp.,]. 42 pp., [2 pp.,]. Original black boards and cloth spine (boards slightly rubbed, otherwise in a good condition).

A rare pair of mimeographed books on agriculture printed on pink paper in Slovenian language in a DP camp in Austria after WWII

This is a pair of rare illustrated mimeographed books on agriculture, written for the Agricultural School, active on the premises of the DP camp Spittal, with Maks Osojnik being one of the tutors. The school was active from 1945 until 1949, when most of the students migrated abroad. The two year agricultural program in the DP camp was obligatory for all the youths, who did not attend the gymnasium with a goal to make skillful farmers from them.

The DP camp near the town Spittal, in Carinthia, Austria, was founded by the British in the summer of 1945. The barracks, built by the German POWs, were meant to house the refugees and exiles from Yugoslavia, mostly from Slovenia. Most of the adult people in the camp were escaping the newly founded Yugoslavia as political or religious refugees or as WWII collaborators avoiding the prison or death penalty in their homeland. In the next years they were moved overseas, mainly to Argentina, and also to Canada, United States and other countries.

There were about 5000 persons living in the camp, among them approximately 800 school children.

Literature on the Slovenian refugee press in Austrian DP camps (Arnež 1999, p. 283; Švent p. 186) only mentions this pair of titles with a Spittal 1948 imprint and a running numeration 98 pp., which is possibly a second edition.

Only one example of both titles from 1947 is recorded in libraries (National and University Library of Ljubljana). Worldcat does not list any examples of the 1948 editions mentioned in the literature.

References: OCLC 449346989. Cf. Janez A. Arnež, Slovenski tisk v begunskih taboriščih v Avstriji 1945-1949, Ljubljana-Washington 1999; Rozina Švent, Slovenski begunci v Avstriji (1945–1950), 2007.

480 EUR



- 40 -

divji koren, regrat, navadni lapuh, navadni repuh, travnišče pe= nuše itd. Od vseh imenovanih je kislica najbolj nadležna. Če ji pognojimo z apnom, jo ročno zatiramo. Če ni travniškega plevela plevel, ga porujemo z roko ali s pripravnim orodjem še predno je dozorel. Za ruvanje plevela nam služi suličasta lopatica, za

plitvo ukoreninjeni plevel pa uporabimo dvo ali petzerobo krev= ljico. Osat je silno nadležen plevel zlasti na zamočvirjenih travnikih. Z osušitvijo travnikov se ga ročno zatira. Popolnoma pa ga je mogoče zatreti samo z izruvanjem.

Velika trobelika je strupena. Zato naj bi se populila takoj, čim bi se pojavila na travnikih.

K O Š N J A I N S P R A V L J A N J E K R M E

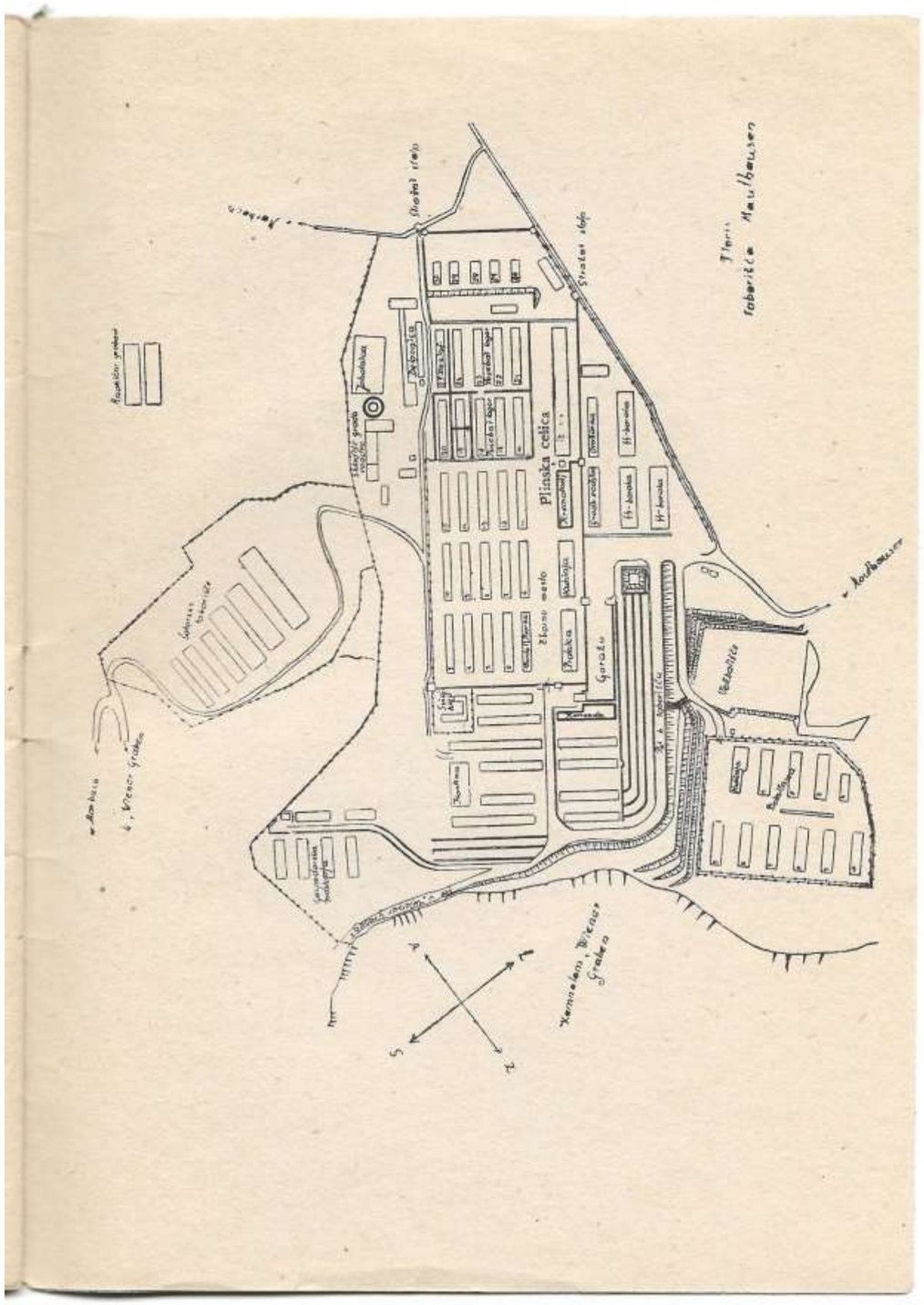
1. Č a s i n n a č i n k o š n j e

Količina in dobrota pridelane krme sta v veliki meri od= visni od časa, v katerem se košnja izvrši. Zato se mora izbrati čas košnje tako, da se pridela največ in najboljše krme.

Izjemno more delati košnje za zeleno krmljenje. V ta na= men naj se kosi čim večkrat t.j. ko je trava še mlada. Zastare= lo travo živina zaneta.

Pri pridelovanju suhe krme je gledati, da pridelamo mnogo zdrave, okusne in tečne krme. Najboljši čas košnje je, ko so de= teljje in trave v cvetju. V tem času so trave najbolj bogate na beljakovinah.

51. Concentration Camps First-Hand Account



Radoslav TOMAŽIČ.

Morišče Mauthausen

[Murderfield Mauthausen]

Ljubljana, Slovenia: Slovenski knjizni zavod OF [Slovenian Book Office of the Liberation Army] 1945.

8°, 30 pp., [1] printed map, original green wrappers with illustrated cover (Very Good, spine with a small hand-written number, spine slighty age-toning with a tiny tear).

A first-hand account with a map of the camp., by a concentration camp survivor, published shortly after the liberation

The book on the Mauthausen concentration camp describes the details from the life in the concentration camp, especially in the last months, when the number of the prisoners was raising drastically and the conditions worsened to the extreme. Different chapters give information on cruelties from the experimental hospital, cannibalism among prisoners etc. The author briefly worked as a translator between Allies and captured Nazi guards after the liberation. The last chapter describes one of the interviews.

The detailed small map on the last page gives detailed documentary information on the Mauthausen concentration camp.

350 EUR

52. Armenian Calligraphy and Typography

Խաչիկ ԹԱՀՏԱՃՅԱՆ (Khatchig TAHTADJIAN, 1847-1916)

Գեղագրութիւն: Հայերէն-Գալլերէն. Calligraphie arménienne-française par K. S. T. Tahdadjian á l'usage des Ecoles et des Familles.

Istanbul: 1892.

Long narrow small folio, 31 unnumbered sheets (of?) printed recto in black and blue on paper of various size, 1 sheet with lines, printed from both sides, bound together with a later white string, original binding with printed boards, original cloth spine (possibly missing some sheets, binding slightly stained and battered, small tears in margins, last sheet loose, sporadic margins repaired with later tape).

This is an exceedingly rare collection of patterns for letters and names in Armenian script and French language in Latins script, with samples for daily use in writing as well as for embroideries and calligraphy. Pages were printed in black and blue. The last page is a printed grid for copying the letters. We could not find any records, how many plates and grided prints were originally issued in the book.

Khatchig Tahtadjian (1847-1916) was a Constantinople professor, artist and calligrapher, who published books on Armenian lettering and calligraphy. All of his works were published in small quantities and are rare today.

We could find one institutional example (New York Public Library System, records 37 pages.). Armenian libraries do not hold any examples of this title.

References: OCLC 40510030

720 EUR



ՀԱՅԱՍՏԱՆԻ

ԱԶԳԱՅԻՆ ԱՐՎԵՍՏԻ

ՊԵՏԱԿԱՆ ԹԱՏԵՐԱԿԱՆ

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Հանճար


Հանճարեղ


Ազնիվ


Տղայական


Հանճար


Խնդասիրտ


Աշխատասեր


Խելոք


Ուշիմ

53. Yugoslav Book Design
Jules Verne

Jules VERNE (1828-1905), author; Janez GRADIŠNIK (1917-2009), translator; Rudolf GORJUP (1915-1979), designer of the cover.

Skrivnostni otok

[The Mysterious Island / L'île mysterieuse]

Ljubljana: Mladinska knjiga 1948

8°, 585 pp. with black and white illustrations, [4 pp.], original illustrated wrappers (minor wear to the wrappers, otherwise in a good, clean, seemingly unread condition).

A fine example of the first Slovenian translation of Verne's Mysterious Island with a highly decorative cover design by an academic painter Rudi Gorjup

This is the first edition of the Slovenian translation of Mystyrious Island by Jules Verne, published shortly after WWII. The attractive cover design was made by a Slovenian academic painter Rudolf (Rudi) Gorjup (1915-1979).

This example is preserved in a very good condition with only minor damage to the original illustrated card wrappers.

References: OCLC 441774033.

120 EUR



54. Ottoman Macabre Novels – Izmir Imprint
Ephemera
Silent Movies

Maurice LEVEL (1875 – 1926), author; Mehmed SIRRI, translator.

باراباس

[Barabas]

Izmir: سودی کتبخانسی [Sada-yı Hak Matbaası] [s. d., early 1920s].

10 volumes, each 8°, 158 pp. continuous pagination, each volume with an illustrated cover, illustrated pink wrappers attached to the first volume, new staples (lightly age-toned, stained and water-stained, white margins with small tears and loss of paper, old postal stamps and pale rubber stamps, mostly on the covers, small pieces cut out in blank white margins, margins sporadically cut into the upper margins with a loss of numeration, but without a loss of text)

An exceedingly rare complete ephemeral series of the Ottoman version of Maurice Level's macabre story Barabas, based on the silent movie from 1919 was issued in Izmir.

This unusual, charming and crudely printed ephemeral set of 10 pamphlets is an Ottoman adoption of the French macabre text Barrabas. The pamphlets were printed in Izmir in the first years of the 1920s.

The text is based on the silent movie Barrabas (also Barabbas or Barabas), made in 1919 with a premiere in Spain on September 15th, 1920. Maurice Level, a French author of mostly macabre novels, made an accompanying cinéroman, which was issued between December 1919 and February 1920 in the newspaper Le Journal. In the same year a series of 12 pamphlets in French language with the text by the same author, illustrated with photomontages, was published. The silent movie, which was buried for many decades, was restored in 1998.

Level's stories have been especially popular in the United States and Japan, as he was almost forgotten in his native country.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

References: MİL - ÖZEGE; 1673.

650 EUR



55. Polish Book Design
Erotica

KIRIBIRI (i. e. Tullio Alpinolo Bracci, 1891-1951), author; Janina Gramicia, translator; Mieczysław Berman (1903-1975), designer of the cover.

Oto czem jest miłość

[This Is, What Love Is]

Warsaw: Alfa [circa 1933].

8°, 224 pp., [4 pp.], original illustrated card wrappers (minor age-toning and staining, small cracks and loss of paper on the spine, corners slightly scuffed, small folds on the wrappers, otherwise in a good condition).

A Polish translation of an Italian erotic novel by a futuristic artist Tullio Alpinolo Bracci, here signed as Kiribiri, with a superb cover design by a Polish graphic artist Mieczysław Berman, later known for his Communist propaganda posters and photomontages.

The author, who signed himself with *nom de plume* Kiribiri, was an Italian author and artist Tullio Alpinolo Bracci (1891-1951). Based in Turin, he became a founder of a so called “Second Futurism” in 1923 and was mostly known for his art work. Under his pen name Kiribiri, Bracci published a series of erotic ana pornographic novels in Italian language.

The cover was made by Mieczysław Berman (1903-1975), a polish graphic designer, who would some years later, in the mid and late 1930s became known for his photomontages, posters and other design, influenced by the Soviet Union and other communist countries. Berman received several international awards for his design.

We could only find one institutional example on Worldcat, yet with different pagination (National Library of Poland, OCLC 836966992),

References: Cf. Gaetana Marrone, Encyclopedia of Italian Literary Studies: A-J, 2007, p. 1922.

360 EUR



56. Female Sexual Liberation vs. Traditional Values



Joseph Carl SCHLEGEL

Smije li žena lagati?

[Is It Allowed for a Woman Lie? / Darf die Frau lügen?]

Zagreb: Interesantna nova biblioteka 1924.

8°, 27 pp., [4 pp.], original illustrated wrappers, stapled (minor staining, small tears in margins, soft folds, overall in a good condition).

A study, if it is morraly correct for a woman to lie to her new husband about the previous love affairs. – A Croatian 1924 translation of a text by an Austrian author J. C Schlegel, specialized in the literature on progressive sexuality

The text in Croatian language analyses the reaction of women from various social circles, when answering the man's question "Am I the first one?". The title of the book refers to a problem, if it is morally correct for a woman to lie and pretend, that she is still a virgin. The conclusion is, that in such cases hiding the truth about former lovers is acceptable, as every man likes hearing, that he is the first special one.

This is a Croatian translation of a work *Darf die Frau lügen? Eine sexual-psycholog. Studie* (Is It Allowed for a Woman Lie? A Sexual-Psychological Study), originally published in German language in Leipzig and Vienna in 1922.

J. C. Schlegel was an Austrian author of various books on progressive sexuality and editor of a Vienna-based adult newspaper "Du und Ich" (You and I).

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat. Also the German version is exceedingly rare and is only recorded in one institution (Deutsche Nationalbibliothek, Leipzig).

280 EUR

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