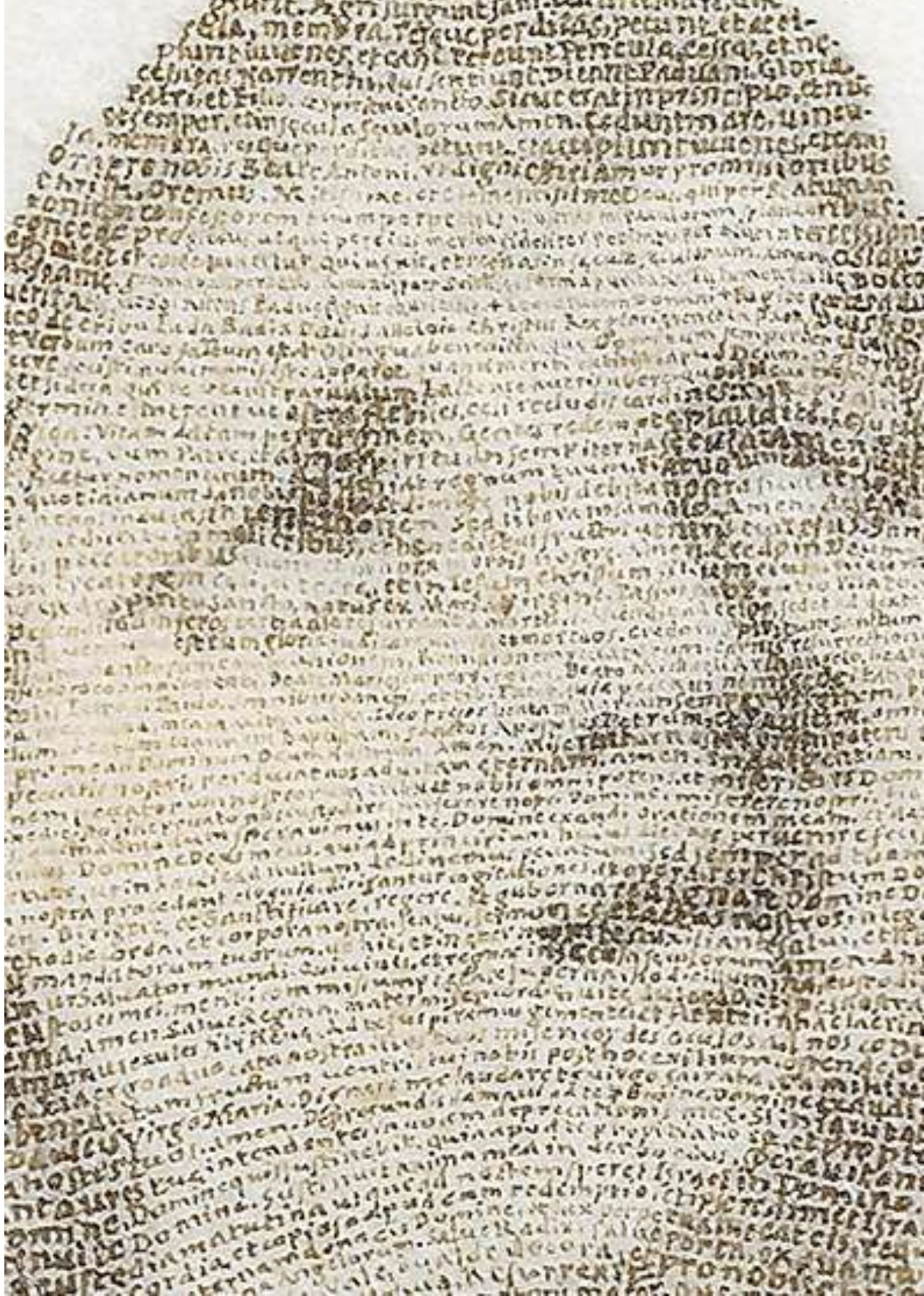
Catalogue
April 2021

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Antiquariat Daša Pahor GbR
Alexander Johnson, Ph.D. & Daša Pahor, Ph.D.

Jakob-Klar-Str. 12
Germany - 80796 München
+49 89 27 37 23 52
www.pahor.de
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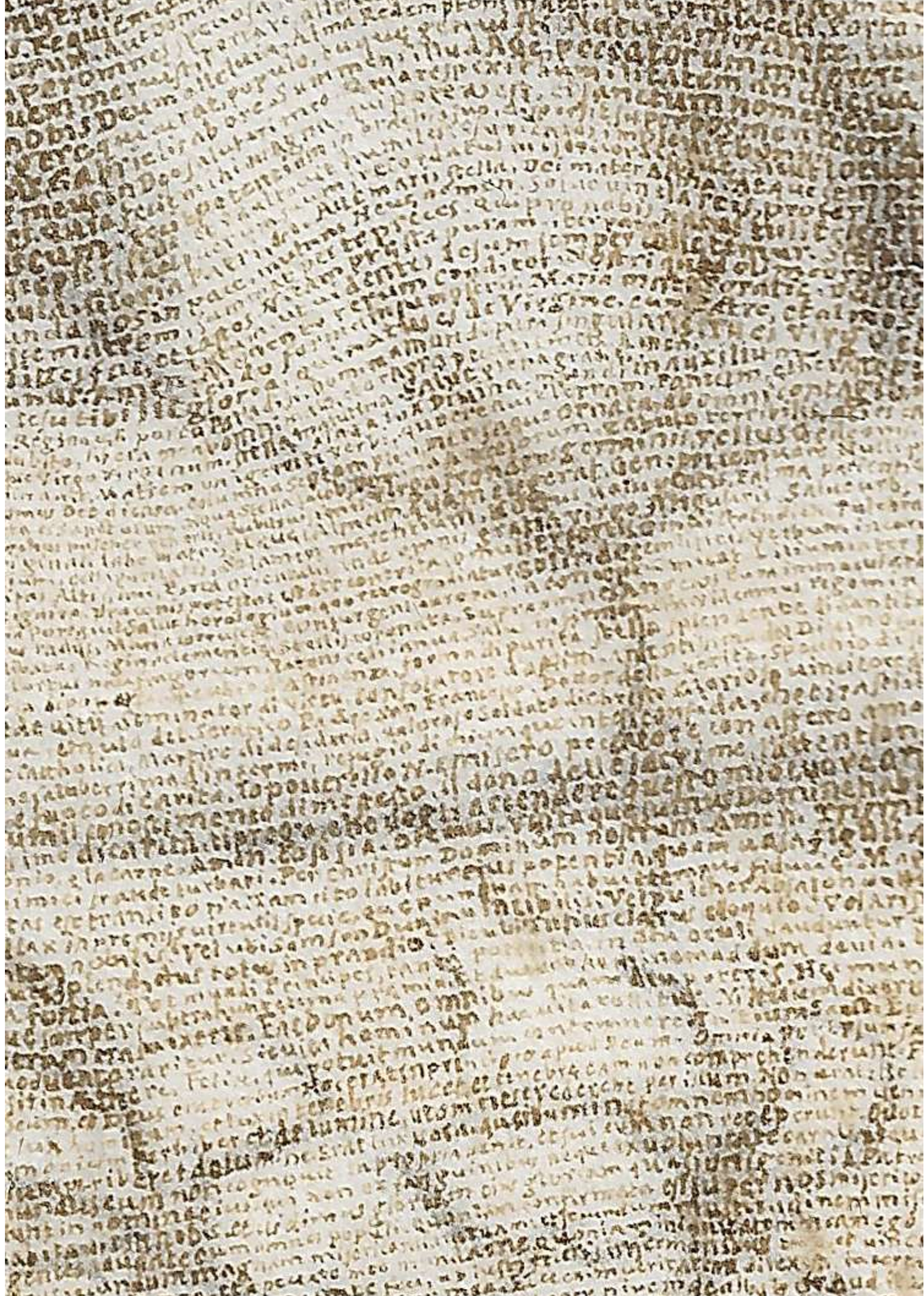
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1. Micrography



Possibly Ioannis GASPARINI (?)

Divus Antonius de Padua puris litteris figuratus quadraginta preces integras continens. Opus mirabile Ioannis Gasparini 1677

[S. l. Possibly South Germany or North Italy] 1677

Engraving and etching in sepia and gold on vellum, 9 x 7 cm (3.5 x 2.7 inches) (light staining in margins, otherwise in a good condition).

A stunning, late 17th century miniature portrait of St. Anthony, printed in sepia and gold on vellum, is composed of hundreds of microscopic words, adjoining into a hymn for the saint

An unusual print made of an etching and engraving and printed in sepia and gold on vellum represents Saint Anthony of Padova. The portrait is composed of the entire text of the liturgical song Si quaeris miracula..." (If Thou Seekest Miracles), composed for St. Anthony of Padova in 1233 by fra Giuliano da Spira.

The Problem of the Authorship

Although the artis of this “wonderful work” (opus mirabile) is signed as Ioannus (Johannes) Gasparini, yet we could not trace any artist from the period with that name nor Italian or German versions of it (Giovanni, Johannes, Casparini, Caspar).

Our portrait can be with great certainty attributed to the same hand, as a print on vellum, sold at a Munich auction in 2018 (Lot no. 235, Neumeister Auction house, Munich, December 5th 2018, Süddeutsch 17. Jh. (möglicherweise - Auktionen & Preisarchiv (lotsearch.de)). The micro-lettering is almost identical and so is the shadowing, similar is printing in color and the technique of gilt highlights.

We can interpret the name of Ioannus Gasparini in at least three manners:

1.

The print was made by until now a unrecorded, possibly Italian artist or an artist with an Italianized name Ioannes Gasparini (Johannes Casparini or Caspar if German or Giovanni Gasparini if Italian).

2.

The style and time could put the portrait in the circle of the South German-based workshop of the family of micrographers called Püchler, who were specialized in religious images and portraits, composed of texts, barely visible to the naked eye. Other characteristics, placing it in the Püchler circle are printing on vellum and placing the portrait in a oval, which also determinates the shape of the outer margins.

The founder of the family business was Johann Püchler (baptized 1612 in Linz, Austria), who moved to Regensburg and eventually to Schwäbisch Gmünd. The most famous artist of the family is Johann's grandson, Johann Michael Püchler the Younger (1679–1709), who is well researched in literature.

The middle generation of the Püchler family, active in the last quarter of the 17th century, when our portrait was made, remains blurry. The documents record various names, all of them active as artists and micrographers. As Friedrich Polleross pointed out in his article on the micrographer Johann Michael Püchler the Younger, is the biographical data as well as the proportions of the opus and differences between the oeuvres of various members of the family Püchler still very unclear (Polleross, 2009, p.262).

It is possible that our portrait was made by one of the members of the Püchler family of the time.

What opposes the attribution to the Püchler family is the style of the lettering and printing in colour / gold, which was not typical for this South German workshop. Our impression also appears lighter and rounder with its shading, comparing to the typical Püchler's somehow harsh lines.

3.

It is conceivable, that the name Gasparini is not connected with the artist, but with another person's work or event, for which the image was made, possibly with Eugen Johann Casparini[1] (Giovanni Eugenio Casparini, 1623-1706), who in 1660s renovated the organs in the church of San Antonio in Padova, where he lived for the next 28 years. The song *Officium rhythmicum s. Antonii*, which is depicted on our print, is traditionally sung every Tuesday in the very same church. In that case the sign *Opus mirabile Ioannis Gasparini* should not be considered as a signature of the author, but refers to the *Marvelous work of Johann Casparini* in the church and the portrait was printed for an event, connected with the organs. In that case the artist still remains anonymous.

The subject of micrography in the late 17th century in various countries still waits for a more detailed research.

A Brief History of Micrography

Micrography (from the Greek 'micrographia,' meaning small writing) is an art form first developed by Jewish scribes in Egypt and Israel around the 9th Century. Traditionally, Jewish artists were banned from drawing images of living creatures due to the rabbinical interpretation of the Second Commandment which states: "Thou shalt not make unto thee any graven image, or any likeness [of anything] that is in heaven above, or that is in the earth beneath, or that is in the water under the earth." As with traditional Islamic art, Jewish artists were thus relegated to drafting calligraphy and geometric forms. However, rabbinical rulings permitted forms that might optically appear to be of banned subjects to be constructed, as long as they were composed entirely of calligraphy.

Artists brilliantly constructed elaborate designs composed entirely of microscopic lines of text. During the Medieval period, the art form flourished in Iberia and Central Europe, regions with strong Jewish artistic patronage. It is important, however, to remember that due to the extreme sophistication and technical difficulty of the medium, micrography never became a popular art form, but was reserved for appreciation in rarefied circles.

Appropriately, an especially fine early surviving example of micrography is found inside the 'The Duke of Sussex's German Pentateuch: Book of Ecclesiastes,' made in Southern Germany around 1300 (British Library Add. MS 15282, f. 302), in which amazing anamorphic forms are composed of fine lines of Hebrew text. Another lovely example is the Rösel Bible (Jewish, Germany, 13th Century), in which a splendid pair of opposing lions is formed entirely by micrography (Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin).

During the early modern age in Central Europe, following the influence of Jewish artists, micrography was picked up by a small number of Christian artists. Manuscript and woodcut micrographic designs appeared in Germany and Switzerland in the 16th Century. However, the apogee of micrography, outside of the Jewish community, was represented by the stunning engraved portraits made by the German artist Johann Michael Püchler in the early 18th century.

We could not find any other examples of the portrait.

References: Cf: Friedrich Polleross, in: Hecht, Christian (Hrsg.): Beständig im Wandel : Innovationen - Verwandlungen - Konkretisierungen ; Festschrift für Karl Möseneder zum 60. Geburtstag, Berlin 2009, *Schrift -Bilder. Zum Werk des Mikrographen Johann Michael Püchler d. J. (1679–1709)*, pp. 261-281.

3.200 EUR

[1] Note that in Italian the names Casperini and Gasperini are pronounced almost identically and at the time both variations could be used in the script for the same name.

2. Lahore, British India (Pakistan)
Mughal and British Colonial History
Fine Art & Architecture

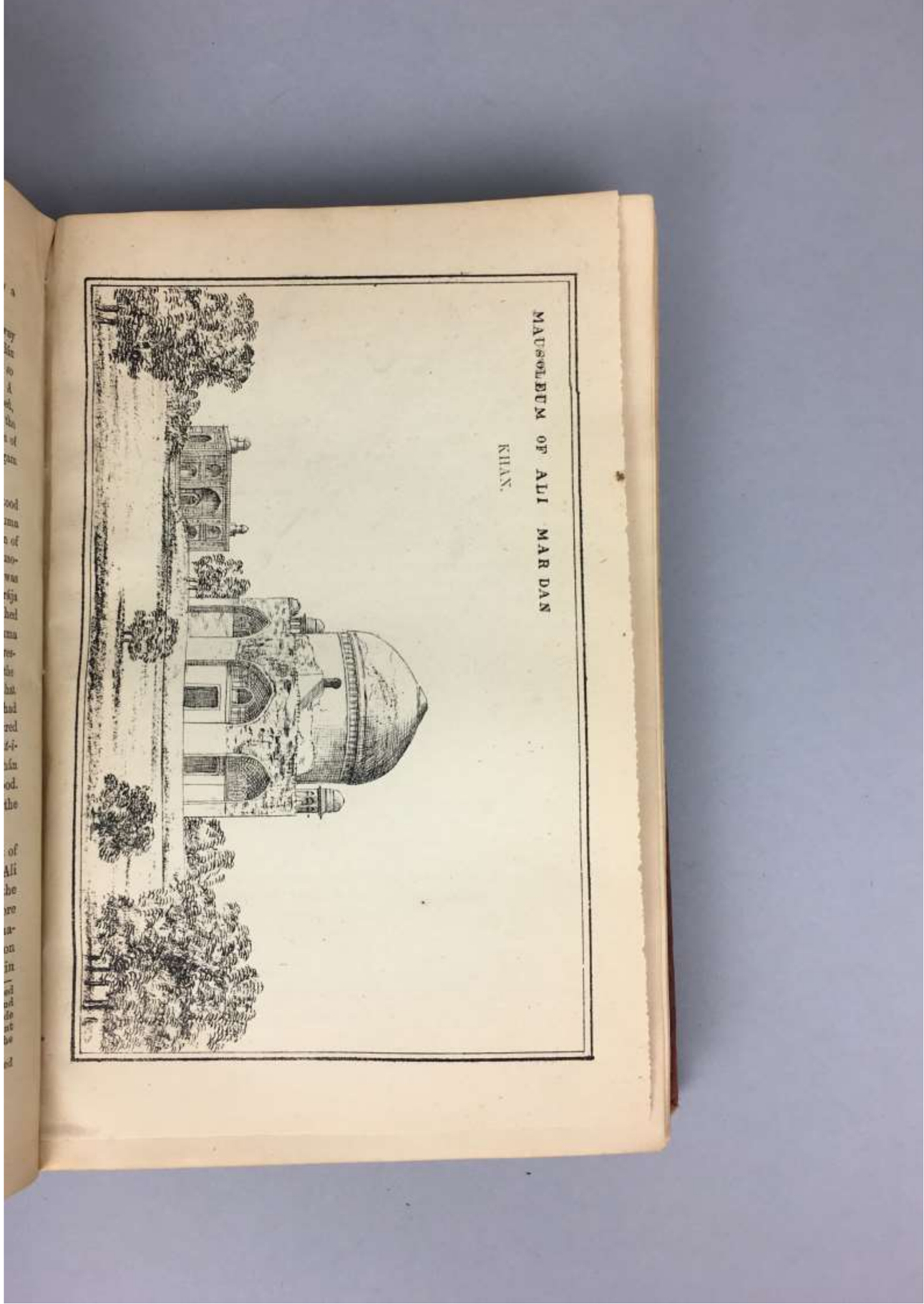
Syad Muhammed LATIF (*c.* 1845 - 1902).

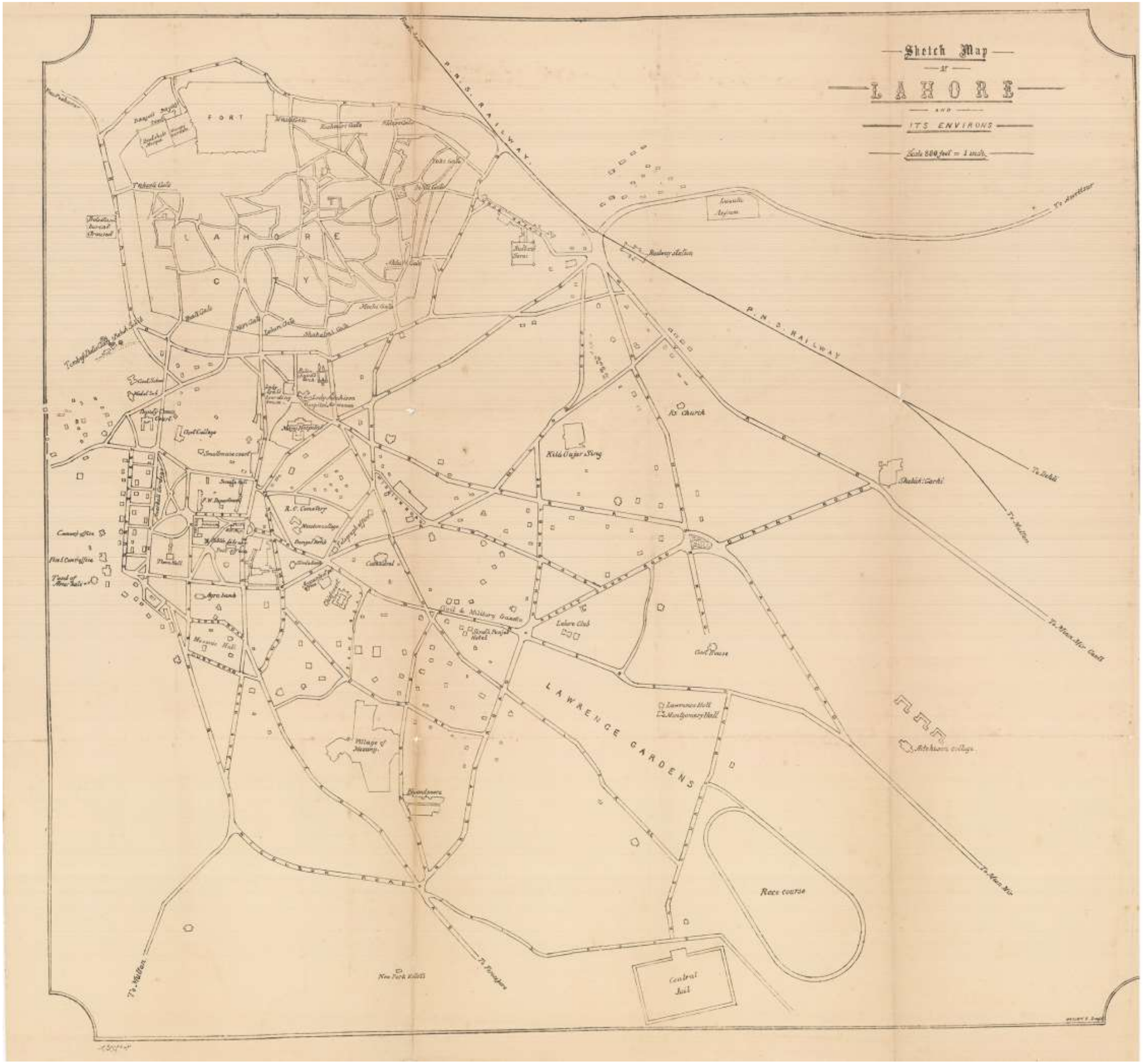
Lahore: Its History, Architectural Remains and Antiquities with an Account of its Modern Institutes, Inhabitants, their Trade, Customs, &c.

Lahore: The New Imperial Press, 1892.

Small 4° (24.5 x 16 cm): xiii, v, iii, 426 pp. xii, plus 105 monochrome plates, plus 1 large folding city map (56 x 59.5 cm), bound in original brick red cloth with gilt lettering to spine (Good, internally remarkably clean, just a few insignificant spots and very light toning to some leaves, map with large irregular tear entering image traversing upper right quadrant but skillfully closed by old paper patch repairs from verso with only a very tiny chip of loss at one fold vertex, a couple other very minor separations along folds with no loss, map and front fly leaf neatly disbound; binding holding firm but with edgewear and surface abrasions to outer parts of covers).

The first and only contemporary edition of the first comprehensive history and guidebook of Lahore, by the eminent Indian historian Syad Muhammed Latif, the engaging text is lavishly illustrated with 105 plates of illustrations of the city's great Mughal and British masterpieces, plus an excellent large format folding map of the city, published in Lahore - very rare on the market.




Sketch Map
of
LAHORE
AND
ITS ENVIRONS
Scale 880 feet = 1 inch.
FORT
LAHORE
CITY
P. N. S. RAILWAY
To Amritsar
Railway station
To Delhi
To Multan
To Mian Mir Cantt
To Mian Mir
To Ferozpore
Kila Gujar Singh
Ice Factory
Ice Factory
Ice Factory

This, the first comprehensive history and guidebook of Lahore, perhaps more than any other work summons what must have been the wonderous environment of late 19th century city, with its numerous masterpieces of Islamic architecture, lush gardens and some of the British Empire's finest colonial edifices. The work is a pageant of imagery, with an amazing 105 full page illustrations of Lahore's main buildings and sites, as well as its archaeological heritage. Authored by the esteemed Indian scholar and jurist Syad Muhammed Latif, the text provides a thorough, yet entertaining, description of the city, as it was and as it became in contemporary times. It stands out as one of the finest 19th century works on any Indian city, as well as one of the seminal pieces that epitomized the growing trend of Indian writers taking control of the narrative of their own country's history, which had hitherto been dominated by European voices.

Latif in his 'Preface' notes before the publication of the present work, there was no comprehensive history written of Lahore in any language, nor a guidebook, even though numerous such works had been issued regarding the other great Indian historic cities, such as Delhi, Agra and Lucknow. The colonial civil servant T.H. Thornton had published *A Brief Account of the History and Antiquities of Lahore* (1873), and while of work of high quality, it was true to its description, in that its scope was far too limited to provide an adequate overview of the city and its heritage. Latif, a brilliant and well-connected scholar, with peerless access to archives and historical sites, dedicated a great deal of energy to creating the present work. His love of Lahore is captured in this passage:

"*Although the capital of the Panjáb could never vie with the Imperial city of Delhi, the Rome of Asia, in the variety and profusion of ist ancient monumental remains, or with the city of Akbar (Akbarábad, or Agra) in the splendour of its architecture, it, nevertheless, possesses as many and as interesting historical sights and reminiscences as any other famous city in India; while no Indian city can boast of having been the seat of so many Imperial dynasties as Lahore. Its lofty houses, gilded minarets and bulb-like domes, visible from afar, give it an imposing appearance, while ist crowded streets, busy markets, and thriving industries, furnish internal evidence of great prosperity and successful progress."* (Preface, p. 1).

The ancient history of Lahore, verdant Punjab's greatest city, remains murky, although the city was supposedly founded by Hindus, and its early period involved interactions with Buddhists, as well as the armies of Alexander the Great. It was subsequently one of the main cities of various Islamic states, including serving as the capital of the Ghaznavid Empire. Destroyed by the Mongols in 1241, the city gradually recovered until it was conquered by the Mughals in 1524. The Mughals favoured Lahore, which served as their capital from 1584 to 1598, and otherwise was frequently the residence of the emperor. The famous Lahore Fort, the powerbase of the city, was commenced in 1566 and subsequently expanded on many occasions. Lahore became graced with numerous of the finest examples of Mughal mosques, palaces, and monuments, as well as some of Asia's most exquisite gardens. Its greatest days were probably under Shah Jahan, when the city grew enormously, fueled by unprecedented imperial patronage and economic growth. Lahore suffered a decline during the 18th century when after city was conquered by the Marathas. It enjoyed a new golden era, when from 1799 it served as the capital of Maharaja Ranjit Singh, the 'Lion of the Punjab's' Sikh Empire. The British conquered Lahore in 1849, and greatly valued the city, constructing numerous grand public buildings and institutions.

Latif's text explores the history of Lahore from its inception until the late 19th century, in fluid and easily-to-read prose, interspersed with Persian and Arabic quotations. The work is illustrated with 105 monochrome plates, based upon original sketches, that illustrate virtually all the important edifices and monuments of Lahore, including some of the world's finest examples of Islamic and British colonial architecture, as well as great masterpieces of ancient art from archeological finds in the region. Following the Preface, the text is divided into 5 chapters.

Chapter I, 'Historical' (pp. 1 – 83), captivatingly narrates Lahore's rich and exciting story.

Chapter II, 'Descriptive (The Ancient Period)' (pp. 84 – 250) describes the physical appearance of the city in ancient times, and vividly captures the setting during its Mughal heyday, and includes 51 illustrations. Chapter III, 'Descriptive (The Modern Period)' (pp. 251- 351) sets the scene during the British colonial period, with 33 images of its 'modern buildings and institutions'. Chapter IV, 'The Antiquities of Lahore' (pp. 352-394) describes the greater region's amazing archeological heritage and features 21 plates illustrating the magnificent 'Buddist Sculptures' found in the area.

Importantly, the work includes a large folding map (56 x 59.5 cm), 'Sketch Map of Lahore and its Environs', which, executed to scale of 880 feet to 1 inch, is one of the finest plans of the city made during the first half of the British colonial era. Printed after a manuscript drafted by a local cartographer, 'Hossein', the map shows the old walled city of Lahore, with its dense warren of streets, prominently featuring the fort, in the upper left, while the new city is built on the spacious plain to the north, south and east. Created amidst various Mughal monuments, the colonial city features broad thoroughfares, interspersed with gardens and parks, the map outlines the numerous massive complexes constructed during the Raj, including government buildings, cultural institutions, schools and hospitals, etc. One gains the impression that during the late 19th century Lahore must had been a wonderous place, before the explosive urbanization of the second half of the 20th century. That being said, the great majority of the edifices and sites portrayed in the present work survive to this today.

A Note on Rarity

Latif's *Lahore* is very rare on the market. Although we can trace around a dozen institutional examples, we can find only a single sales record from the last 30 years, whereupon an example appeared at auction in 2019.

The present 1892 issue is the first edition and the only contemporary issue. The work remains of considerable interest and has been reprinted several times since 1981.

Syed Muhammad Latif: Prominent Popular Indian Historian

Syed Muhammad Latif (*c.* 1845 - 1902) was one of the most prominent Indian historians of the second half of the 19th Century, as well as a respected linguist and jurist. Born into a scholarly family in Delhi, he received stellar tutoring in Arabic and Farsi from an early age, and later mastered Hindi, Sanskrit, English and French.

Latif married a close relative of Sir Syed Ahmad Khan (1817 - 1885), an eminent Islamic scholar, and the father of modern Muslim nationalism in India. Sir Syed became a mentor to Latif and assisted the progress of his career.

Having moved to Lahore, in the late 1860s, Latif became the editor and translator of the *Punjabi* newspaper. In 1868, he was appointed to the lucrative post of head translator of the Chief Court of the

Punjab (which paid 100 silver rupees per month!). He was subsequently promoted to become a district and sessions judge.

Despite his heavy professional workload, Latif found the time to write. He first book was a work of poetry, the *Dewan-e- Latif* (1870), although he soon turned his energies towards the study of history.

Latif was able to solidly anchor his works due to his fluency in many languages, his superb knowledge of religious and academic texts, his contacts with leading librarians, as well as his privileged access to historical sites. His writing style was lucid and engaging, enlivened with intriguing vignettes and curious facts, making his books a pleasure to explore even for today's readers.

In addition to the present title, Latif's most famous works were *History of the Panjab from the Remotest Antiquity to the Present Time* (1889) and *Agra Historical & Descriptive with an Account of Akbar and his Court and of the Modern City of Agra* (1896).

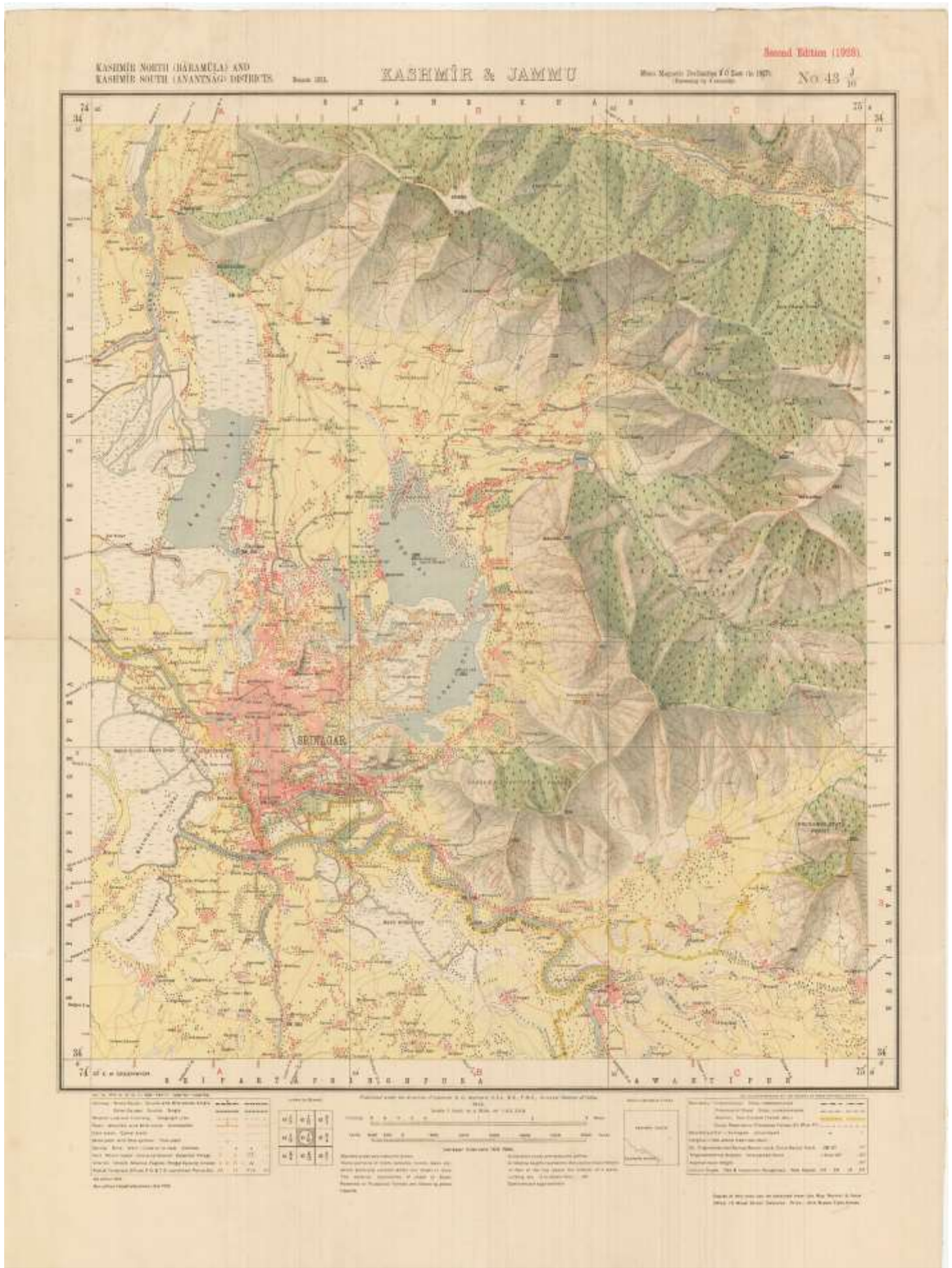
In 1902, Latif was appointed to become senior judge of the Chief Court of the Punjab but, sadly, he died suddenly before he could take up his post. However, he left an estimable legacy, as his works remain popular, and have been reprinted on many occasions. He also epitomized the trend by which Indian scholars gradually reasserted control over the historical narrative of their own country after a period when Indian history was generally written by Europeans.

References: British Library: General Reference Collection 010057.k.8.; Victoria & Albert Museum (National Art Library): 4.C.72.

2.800 EUR



3. Srinagar, Kashmir, India
Indian Urbanism
Calcutta Imprint



SURVEY OF INDIA.

[Srinagar] ***Kashmīr & Jammu. / 1:63.360. / Kashmir North (Bāramūla), Kashmir South (Anantnāg) / No. 43 J16.***

Calcutta: Survey of India, 1928.

Colour heliozincograph (Very Good, clean and bright with attractive colours, just some very minor toning), 60 x 44 cm (23.6 x 17.3 inches).

An extremely rare map of Srinagar and environs, the capital of Kashmir and famed as one of the most beautiful places in the world, the map full of intriguing cultural details, published in Calcutta by the Survey of India.

This fine map depicts Srinagar, the summer capital of Kashmir, and long famous as one of the most stunning resort locations in the world. Predicated upon exacting trigonometrical surveys, the map is executed to the relatively large scale of 1 mile to an inch (the same scale as the British Ordnance Survey) and was published in Calcutta by the Survey of India.

The map showcases the entire city which lies along the Jhelum River (locally known as the *Vyath*, or here the 'Veth'), as well as the famous nearby Dal and Anchar lakes. The Srinagar area occupies a verdant place within the Vale of Kashmir, which is surrounded on all sides by the Himalayas. The map depicts all key civilian and military infrastructure and its renown famous bridges, as well as its many mosques, temples and shrines, plus various other historical sites, including the named tombs of luminaries. Also showcases are the many great gardens (*Bāgh*), including the legendary 'floating gardens' on the shores of the Dal Lake. To the east, the piedmont of the Himalayas dramatically rises out of the vale.

The map captures Srinagar during its modern heyday, before it was marred by urban sprawl and mass tourism, and previous to Kashmir being shaken by sectarian violence. Indeed, in 1928, only a select few wealthy travellers could visit Srinagar and enjoy its famous houseboats on the lakes, while in recent times, before the current pandemic, it was on a travel circuit, visited by millions a year. The 1931 census records the city as having only 173,649 residents, as opposed to 1.2 million today!

Srinagar, the capital of Kashmir, and was favourite destination for the Mughal Emperors. In 1846, in return for his support in the First Anglo-Sikh War, Britain gave Kashmir to the ruler of Jammu, Maharaja Gulab Singh (1792–1857), of the Hundi Dogra Dynasty. Gulab Singh was a sagacious ruler and Kashmir & Jammu and remained one of Britain's key allies on the subcontinent. However, under the surface tensions brewed due the fact that Kashmir's population was approximately three-quarters Muslim but ruled by a Hindu upper class.

In the times of the Raj, Srinagar became a popular vacation spot for senior British officials, as well as Indian nobility and wealthy businessmen. Many of the world best-travelled people described it as a peerless earthly paradise. Sadly, the partition of India in 1947, inflamed longstanding Hindu-Muslim tensions, and Kashmir was divided between India and Pakistan (with Srinagar going to India). While there have been long periods of relative peace when one could safely visit Srinagar, the area had often been plagued by violence. Thus, the map harkens back to halcyon days.

The map is based upon advanced surveys undertaken in 1911, with the first edition of the map being issued by the Survey of India in Calcutta in 1912. The present example is of the second, or 'New Edition (slight alterations'), of 1928.

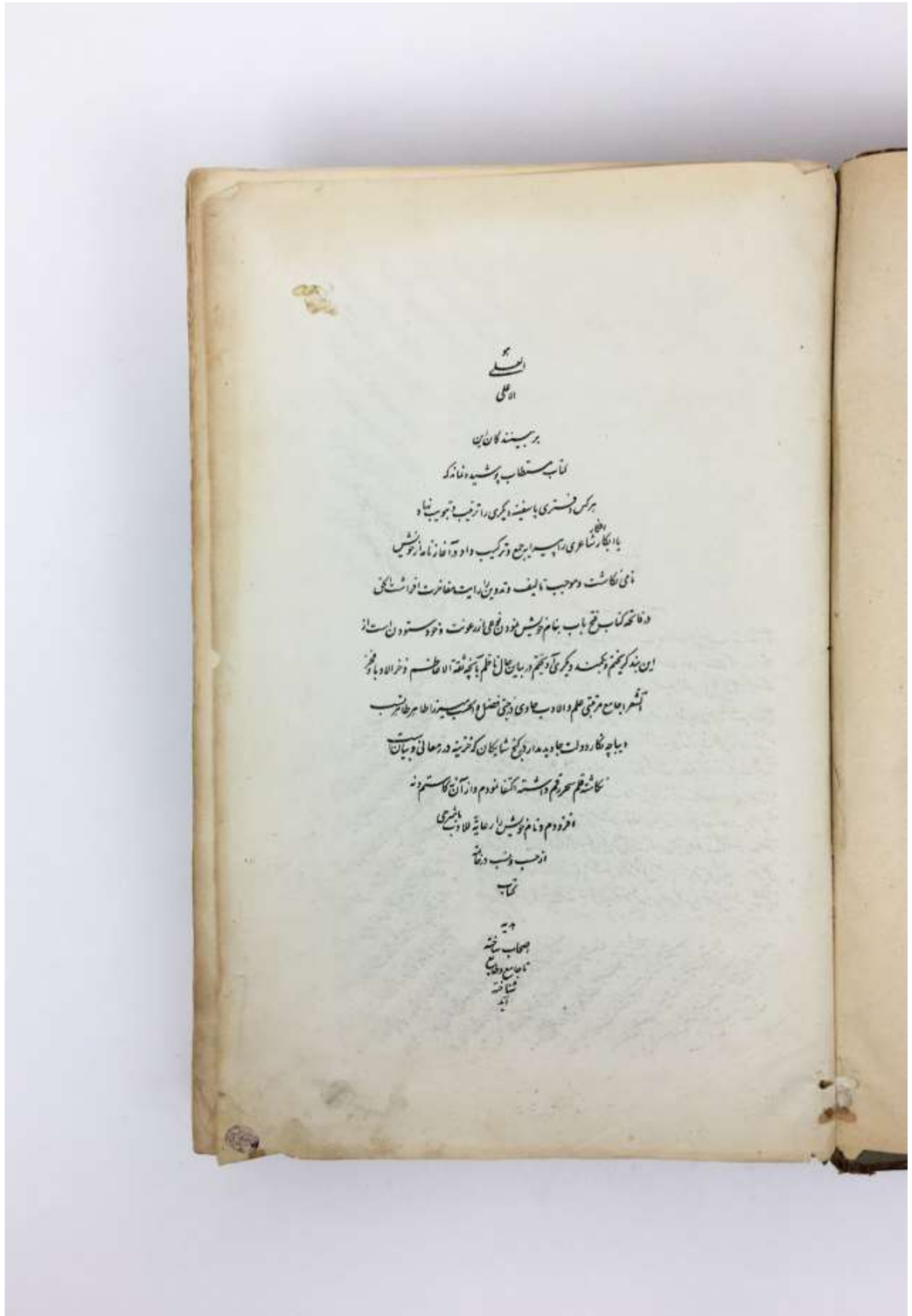
The map is part of sectional series of maps of Kashmir, although each map was separately issued. The maps were specialty items and were created in only small print runs, while the survival rate of such types of Indian maps is very low.

The present map is extremely rare. We cannot definitively trace any other examples, although there may be an example within a non-itemized collection of maps from the Kashmir series held by the University of Manchester Library.

References: Cf. University of Manchester Library: D1:7 (3).

550 EUR

4. Persian Poetry – First Edition Tehran Lithography



قاآني میرزا حبیب شیرازی (Qaani - Mirza Habib Shirazi, 1808-1854) -

فُروغی بَسطامی (Furughi Bastami, 1798 - 1857)

محمد اسمعل الکلپایکانی (Mohammad Esmail Al-Golpayegani), Author of annotations.

میرزا محمدرضا خمان کلهر (Mirza Mohammad Reza Kalhor, 1829 –1892), Calligrapher.

دوشم ندا رسید ز درگاه

[Divan-i Qa'ani. Divan-i Furughi]

Tehran: [Muhammad Quli va Karbala'i Muhammad Hasan] 1274 [1857]

Folio, [712 pp.] lithographed unnumbered text on thin paper, original brown full calf with debossed decoration (tiny tears in margins, sporadic soft folds in the corners, minor staining and folds, mostly to endpapers and first and last pages, binding with light scratches and scuffing on the corners and spine, spine with minor loss of material in the upper and lower part, recent printed label from a private collection mounted on the inner side of front cover, old taxation stamp).

This is a fine example of the first edition of a monumental collection of poems by Qaani, one of the most remarkable authors under the Qajar Dynasty, with appendix by Furughi Bastami. The calligrapher was Mirza Reza Kalhor, the master of Nastaliq, who improved this script for the new popular technique of lithography.

This monumental diwan, which starts with a *Praise of the Holy Prophet Mohammad Mustafa* (قصیدهٔ در مدح پیامبر اکرم محمد مصطفی) and continues with over seven hundred pages of other poems, including ones, dedicated to the Iranian statemen of the 19th century, is considered the best of the Qajar period.

The author Qaani (1808-1854), with a real name Mirza Habib Shirazi, was a representative of a so called Literary Return, a movement for a return to writing poetry in older styles. Well educated, fluent in many languages and well connected, he served to influential figures of Iran in the time of the Qajar dynasty, to many of which he dedicated his poems to. His work, all of which is gathered in this book, is often political and reflect the time of that period.

He is often criticized for writing poems about disputed patrons and political figures, as well as for his personal life, with accusations of writing most of his poems in a state of drunkenness, mistreating his two wives, which he, after the separations, stripped of all their possessions, fathering dozens of illegitimate children and spending all of his money on wine and opium. Qaani died at the age of 46 after falling severely ill as a result of his substance abuse.

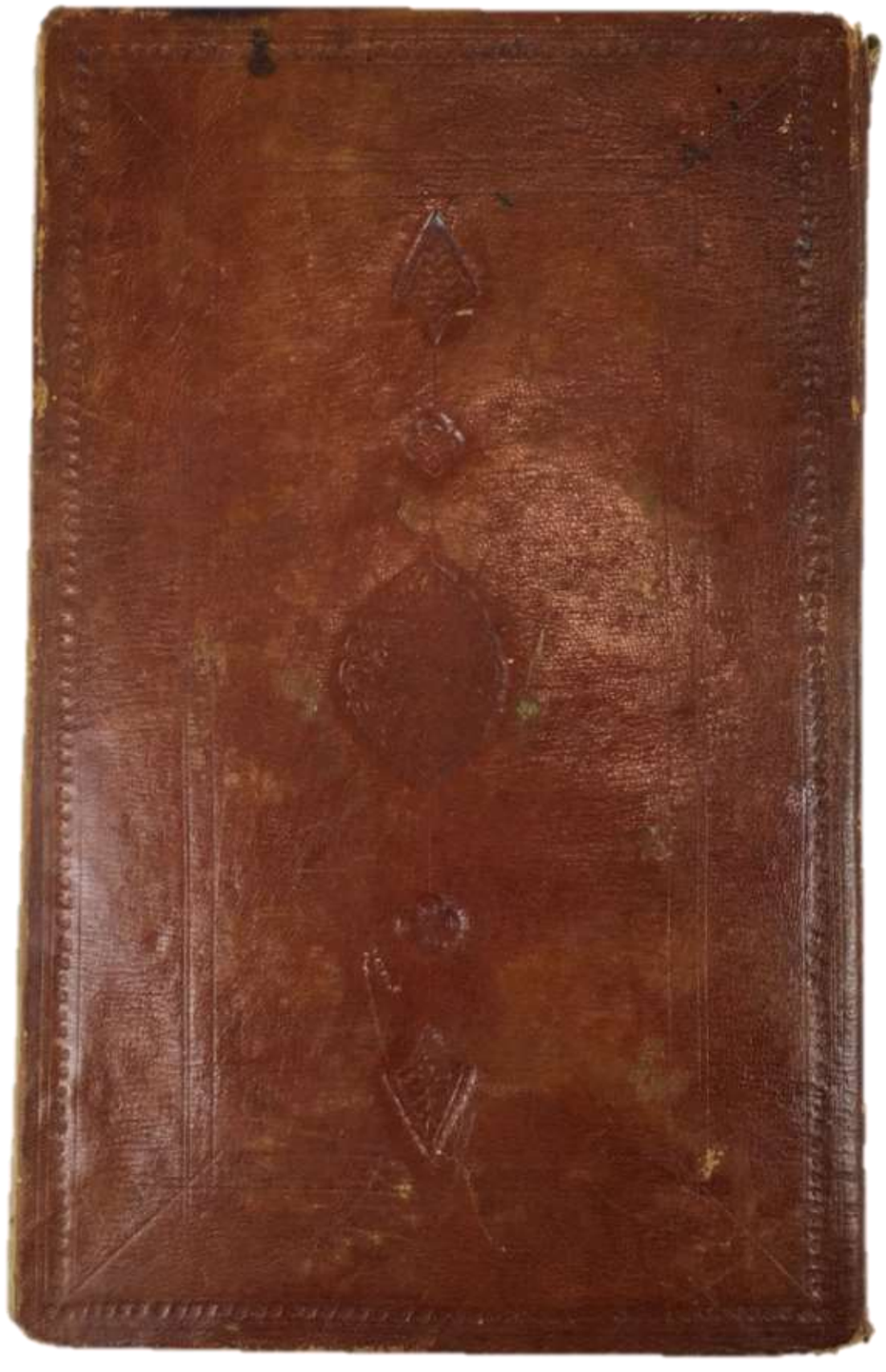
The annotations were made by Mohammad Esmail Al-Golpayegani (Golpayegani).

The elegant script was made by Mirza Reza Kalhor (1829 –1892), a famous calligrapher of the Nastaliq script of the Qajar period. He made several improvements to the script and adopted it for the new popular technique of lithography.

History of the Lithography in the Islamic World

Lithography was introduced to the Islamic World in the second and third decade of the 19th century. Although much more appropriate for reproducing a hand-written text and calligraphy of the Arabic script than movable type, lithography was often frowned upon as a cheap technique, and was only slowly replacing the letterpress.

Possibly the first press to introduce lithography to the Islamic world was the Bulaq press in Egypt, under the influence from France and Italy. The first mentioning of a lithographic workshop at the Bulaq press in Egypt is that by an American traveller G. B. English, who saw a lithographed newspaper in Italian and Arabic, made by the School of Engineering in 1822 (A Narrative of the Expedition to Dongola and Sennaar, London 1822, p. viii. In: Hsu Cheng Hsiang, The first Thirty Years of Arabic Printing in Egypt 1238-1267, 1822-1851, p. 57).



Books, made in the early years of the Bulaq press, would often use the technology of lithograph for illustrations in printed books on the subjects of the military science and mathematics. The first known lithographed book, issued other than the Bulaq press, was made in 1832 at the School of Medicine in Cairo (established in 1827).

The first lithographic press in Persia was brought from Tiflis in 1821, but the first recorded book, The Quran, was not published until 1832/1833.

The lithographic procedure, which was relying directly on a handwriting of a scribe, required some adjustments to the traditional script, which had to become clearer and with uniformed rules, as it was not intended anymore for individuals only, but for larger masses in a wide geographical area.

It was the scribe Mirza Reza Kalhor, who also drafted this book, who was responsible for major changes of the traditional Nastaliq script in order to adjust it for the lithographic reproductions.

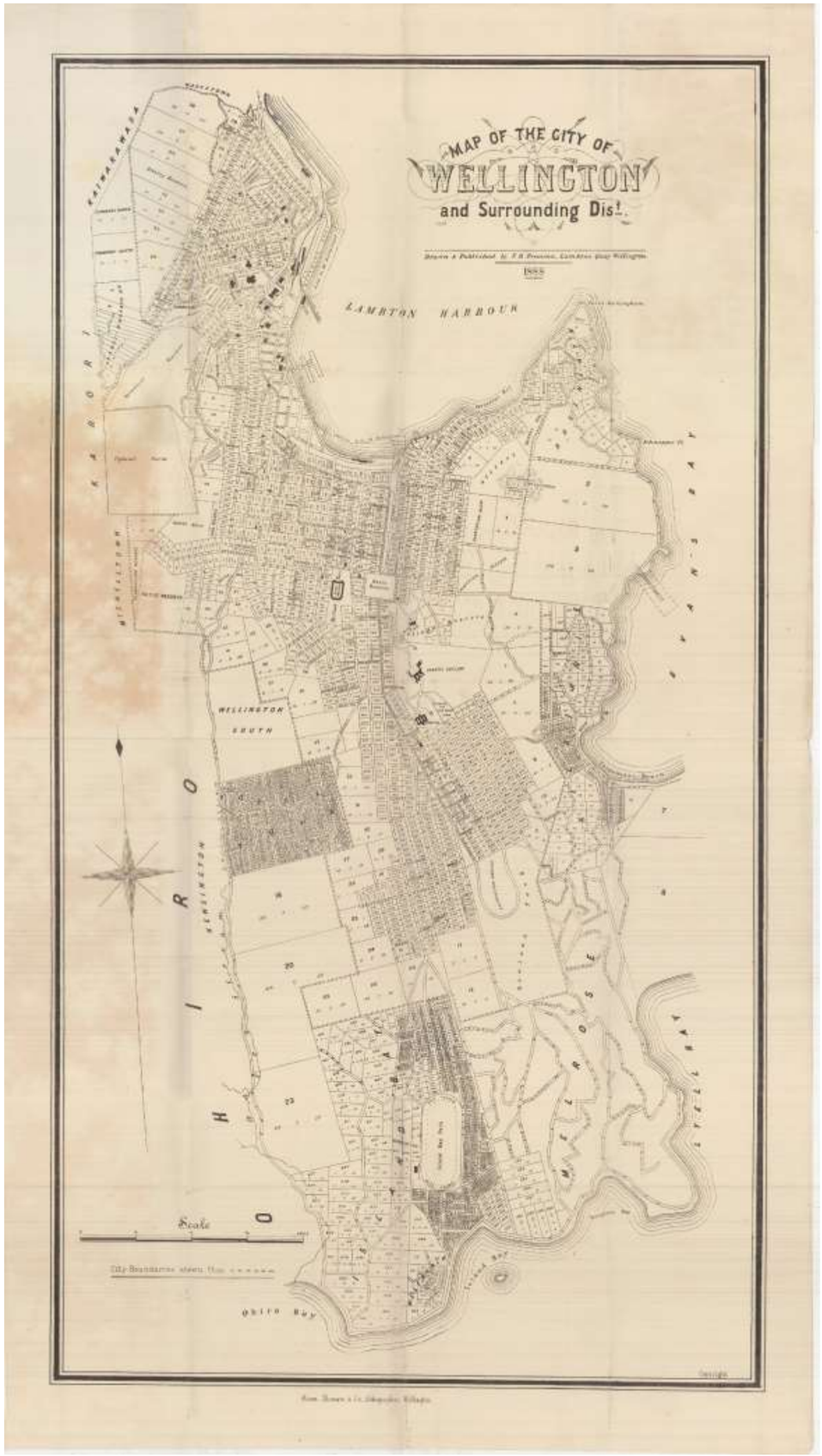
This is the first edition. The work was later reprinted many times in Tabriz, Tehran and in India.

We could find two institutional examples on Worldcat (University of Cambridge, Library of Congress).

References: OCLC 40593116.

2.800 EUR

5. Wellington, New Zealand
Wellington Imprint



F. Harold TRONSON (*fl.* 1878 - 1905).

Map of the City of Wellington and Surrounding Dist.

Wellington: Brown, Thomson & Co., Lithographers, 1888.

Lithograph, mounted upon original linen, folding into original patterned dark green cloth covers with title gilt-debossed to front cover (Good, some noticeable toning due to natural glue oxidization from covers especially to left-hand side, some light wear along folds, light shelf-wear to covers), 84 x 47 cm (33 x 18.5 inches).

An extremely rare, large format work that is the first edition one of the seminal maps of Wellington, depicting the New Zealand capital when it was one of the fastest growing cities in the British Empire, with a wealth of finely executed and intriguing details, granting a peerless record of the city as it was, as well as prefiguring its ambitious future development, drafted by the leading Wellington cartographer F. Harold Tronson, and published in the city.

This extremely rare work is the first edition of one of the seminal maps of Wellington from its first 50 years. It was drafted by F. Harold Tronson, a prominent local cartographer who specialized in fulfilling government contracts for town plans and cadastral surveys; the map was published in Wellington by the lithographers Brown, Thomson & Company. The map is quasi-official, as it predicated upon the latest information from the city records; it was then quite common for the authorities to have commercial mapmakers issue maps on their behalf, so sparing the government from the costs of printing and marketing the projects. In 1887, Tronson made a gargantuan ‘master plan’ map of the city, which he reduced and modified o create the present work.

The map captures one of the British Empire’s fastest growing cities, granting a peerless record of its state in 1888, as well as indicating it future path of development. Wellington was founded in 1840, just after the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi (February 6, 1840) that opened the country up to European

MAP OF THE CITY OF
WELLINGTON
and Surrounding Dist.

Drawn & Published by F. H. Tronson, Lambton Quay Wellington.

1888

LAMBTON HARBOUR

Point Jerningham

Oriental Bay

Area to be Reclaimed

Defined Line of Reclamation

WATERLOO QUAY

THORNDON QUAY

LAMBTON QUAY

HAWKESTONE ST

PIPITEA ST

MULGRAVE ST

THORNDON

PIPITEA PAH

PARLIAMENT BDGS

GOVERMT HOUSE

BOWEN ST

WHITMORE ST

STOUT ST

JOHNSTON ST

BRANDON ST

HUNTER ST

HARBOR ST

CUSTOM HOUSE

QUEENS WHARF

RAILWAY WHARF

RAILWAY STATION

WELLINGTON-MASTERTON RAILWAY

WELLINGTON-MANAWATU RAILWAY

PUBLIC CEMETERY

CHURCH OF ENGLAND CEMETERY

JEWS CEMETERY

WESLEYAN ENDOWMENT

HOSPITAL ENDOWMENT

COLLEGE ENDOWMENT

HOSPITAL RESVE

QUARRY RESVE

QUARRY RES: HARBOUR

THORNDON BATHS

GIRLS HIGH SCHOOL

MOTUROA

ORPHANAGE ENDOWMENT

settlement. Named after the 'Iron Duke' (and an avid supporter of New Zealand's settlement), Wellington was located on a peninsula along a stellar natural harbour on the southwestern tip of the North Island, strategically guarding the Cook Strait.

During its first generation, Wellington was totally overshadowed by Auckland, but in 1865, it was officially declared New Zealand's capital. The city then had only 4,900 residents, but soon became a boom town, due to mass immigration from Britain and migration from other parts of the country. The 1886 census records a population of 77,536, while the 1891 census counted 97,725 inhabitants. The period in which the present map appeared was one of hyper-growth and optimism, which is illustrated by the city's ambitious plans for expansion, as depicted upon the present map.

The map captures the entire city of Wellington, within its marked boundaries (crossed lines), and labels every single street and lane, names every neighbourhood, and numbers every block and land plot (for the purposes of cadastral divisions, and future development).

The downtown is located along the shores of Lambton Harbour, in the northern part of the city. Its epicentre was the newly developed district around 'Lambton Quay' which features important public buildings, such as the 'Parliament Bgs.', 'Govermt. House', the 'Govt. Buildgs.' (the world second largest historical wooden structure, completed in 1876), 'Museum', 'Customs House', 'Court House', 'Theatre', 'Printing Office', the main 'Railway Station', as well as major churches and schools, etc. The map also showcases planned future development projects, such as land reclamation in the harbour, noted by the appearance of 'Defined Line of Reclamation', as well as the extension of the railway to the southern shore of the harbour, labelling the 'Proposed Railway Stn.'.

Beyond, as the city extended southward across the peninsula, one can see a wide variety of urban planning models. The continuation of the city connected to the downtown, running due southward, features prominent institutions such as the 'Hospital', 'Prison', and an a surprisingly large 'Lunatic Asylum'.

On the middle left, is a distinct neighbourhood with densely packed lots called 'Vogel Town', an early suburban development founded by Sir Julius Vogel, who served as the premier of New Zealand (1873-5 and 1876). Vogeltown still survives, although most of the older houses date from the 1920s.

While Kilburn and Island Bay (in the south, with the 'Race Course') are well-developed suburbs, in most remaining places, the city still maintains a rural quality, dominated by its hilly topography, although that would soon change due to Wellington's super-rapid growth.

A Note on Editions and Rarity

The present map was issued in three editions, of which the present 1888 is the first. A modified edition with extensive over-printed details, entitled as the *Jubilee Map of the City of Wellington and Surrounding District* (1890), was issued to celebrate the city's 50th Anniversary. The third edition was issued in 1905 and was heavily modified to reflect Wellington's explosive growth over the previous decade and a half.

All editions of the map are today extremely rare. It seems that they were issued in only small print runs for local circulation, while the survival rate of such city plans is quite low.

We can trace only 3 institutional examples of the present first edition of the map, with 2 held by the Alexander Turnbull Library (National Library of New Zealand), and a single example held by the Family History Library (Salt Lake City, Utah). Moreover, we can trace only a single sales record, from a fairly recent New Zealand book dealer's catalogue.

Tronson: Leading Late Victorian Cartographer of the Wellington Region

Fairlie Harold Tronson (*fl.* 1878 - 1905) was one of the most important cartographers working in the Wellington area during a critical era of explosive growth. He specialized in fulfilling commissions from local governments and was evidently a skilled draftsman with a professional engineer's style. Many of his maps are today the authoritative historical records of the places depicted from the last quarter of the 19th century. His works were lithographed locally, in only small print runs, and are all today great rarities.

Of particular note, and relevant to the present work, Tronson's greatest achievement was his gargantuan 'master plan' of Wellington, made in cooperation with the city council, *Map of the City of Wellington and Suburbs compiled and drawn by F. Harold Tronson* (Wellington: Dutton, Brown & Thomson, 1887), which measures 160 x 85 cm, and is known in only a single surviving example, held by the Alexander Turnbull Library. The preset map, created the following year, was reduced and modified from this work.

In addition to Tronson's general maps of Wellington, some of his works include the *Township of Richardson: Wairoa District* (1878); *Map of the Electoral Districts of Thorndon, Te Aro, Wellington East, & Wellington South & Suburbs* (1887); *Map of the Manawatu-Rangitikei District: Comprising the Manawatu, Oroua and Part of the Horowhenua Counties, Provincial District of Wellington, New Zealand* (1887); *Roads in the Taranaki District* (1888); *Map of the County of Horowhenua* (1888); *New Zealand Post Office Directory Map of the City of Dunedin, N.Z.* (Dunedin: Wise, Caffin & Co., *c.* 1890), his only major work of a South Island subject; and a *Map of the Hutt County* (1894)

References: Alexander Turnbull Library (National Library of New Zealand) – 2 examples: MapColl 832.4799a 1888 21658 and MapColl 832.4799a 1888 35288; Family History Library (Salt Lake City, Utah): 993.14/W1 E7t; OCLC: 156712564, 949702750 and 865944792.

2.800 EUR

6. Buenos Aires, Argentina
Latin American Urbanism
Roaring ’20s

OFICINA CARTOGRÁFICA LUDWIG.

Plano de la Ciudad de Buenos Aires y Alrededores. Publicado por la Oficina Cartográfica “Ludwig”. Confeccionado por A. Cannizzaro.

Buenos Aires: Oficina Cartográfica Ludwig, 1929.

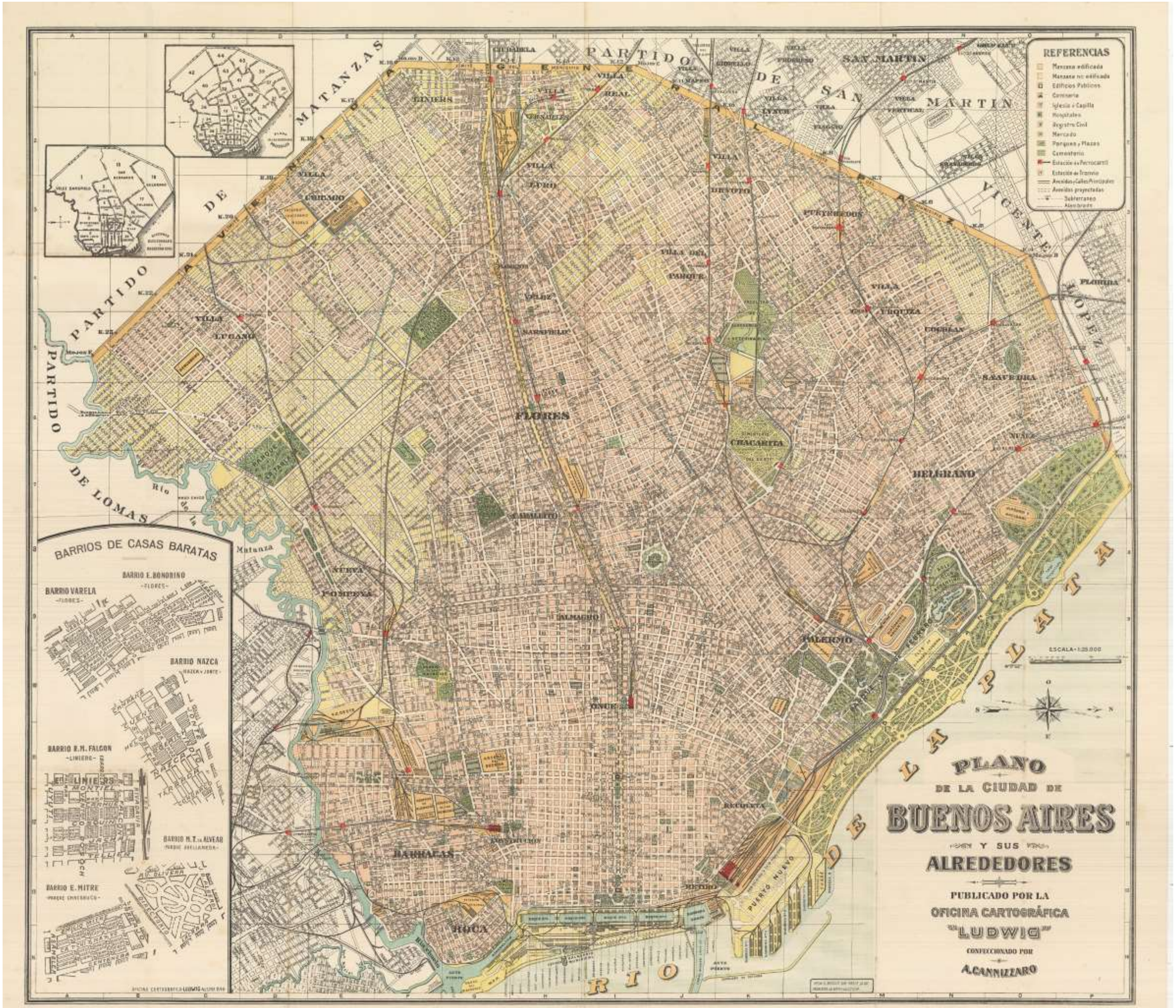
Colour print 85 x 75 cm (33.4 x 29.5 inches), folding into original red printed covers with lettering, attached booklet with street names [16 pp.] (wrappers with small folds and tiny tears and with a small loss of paper on the spine, map with light foxing, soft wear to the folds).

An attractive and vibrant large format map of Roaring ‘20s Buenos Aires, then one of the world’s most exciting, fast growing and cosmopolitan cities, published by the leading local map house, the Oficina Cartográfica “Ludwig”.

This bright and engaging map showcases Buenos Aires in its Roaring ‘20s glory, when it was one of the fastest growing and most culturally vibrant metropolises on earth. It is part of the authoritative regularly updated sequence of city maps made by the leading Argentine firm of the Oficina Cartográfica “Ludwig”.

Oriented with an eastward perspective, the scene captures the entire city proper, with its neat geometrically rational urban plan. The ‘Referencias’ identifies the symbols used for built-up areas (shaded pink), areas not built up (shaded yellow); public buildings; churches; hospitals; markets; parks and plazas; railway stations; tram stations; underground routes and stations (the *Subterráneo de Buenos*




REFERENCIAS
Manzana edificada
Manzana no edificada
Edificios Públicos
Cementerio
Iglesia ó Capilla
Hospitales
Registro Civil
Mercados
Parques y Plazas
Cementerio
Estación de Ferrocarril
Estación de Tranvia
Avenidas ó Calles Principales
Avenidas proyectadas
Subterraneo
Aéreo
PARTIDO DE MATANZAS
PARTIDO DE LOMAS
PARTIDO DE SAN MARTIN
PARTIDO DE VICENTE LOPEZ
LA PLATA
RIO
Riachuelo
Rio de la Matanza
PUERTO NUEVO
ESCALA 1:25.000
BARRIOS DE CASAS BARATAS
BARRIO E. BONORINO
-FLORES-
BARRIO VARELA
-FLORES-
BARRIO NAZCA
-NAZCA y JUNIN-
BARRIO E.M. FALCON
-LINIERS-
BARRIO M.T. de ALVEAR
-PARQUE AVELLANEDA-
BARRIO E. MITRE
-PARQUE CHACABUCO-
PLANO
DE LA CIUDAD DE
BUENOS AIRES
Y SUS
ALREDEDORES
PUBLICADO POR LA
OFICINA CARTOGRÁFICA
"LUDWIG"
CONFECCIONADO POR
A. CANNIZZARO
LINIERS
MATADEROS
VILLA LURO
VILLA LUGANO
VILLA SOLDATI
VILLA RIACHUELO
VILLA LUGANO
VILLA REAL
VILLA DEVOTO
VILLA URQUIZA
VILLA DEL PARQUE
VILLA CRESPO
VILLA PUEYRREDON
VILLA PUEYRREDON
VILLA FLORIDA
VILLA LYNCH
VILLA PROGRESO
VILLA GODOY CRUZ
VILLA GRAL. MITRE
VILLA PEDRIEL
VILLA FLACOS
VILLA VERTIZ
VILLA GRAL. PACHECO
VILLA CHACABUCO
VILLA GRAL. GUEMES
VILLA GRAL. IRIARTE
VILLA GRAL. PAZ
VILLA GRAL. PAZ
VILLA GRAL. PAZ

Aires, established in 1913, was the first metro in Latin America), etc. Addtionally, innumerable Specific sites of key interest are named, while all barrios are labelled.

The inset to the left, features certain real estate developments, while above are insets featuring the city's electoral and police districts.

For most of the 19th century, Buenos Aires was an important, but rather staid provincial city. However, that all suddenly changed beginning in the 1880s, when a protracted commodity boom led to explosive economic growth. This fuelled mass immigration to Argentina (mainly from Spain, Italy and Germany and Eastern Europe), while many rural Argentines flooded into their capital in search of good jobs. Buenos Aires soon became one of the wealthiest and most culturally vibrant places on earth, as its broad avenues, lined with grand edifices and cultural institutions, it being favourably compared to the most august European capitals.

The 1920s marked the twilight of the Buenos Aires' 50-year run of prosperity, but also its heyday. The population of the city proper had grown to just over 2 million (up from 1.5 million 15 years before), while the surrounding province counted 3 million inhabitants. As shown on the map, the city boasted one the world's most modern and comprehensive transportation systems, while the completion of the *Puerto Nuevo*, in 1925, was a bold symbol of Argentina's economic might. The eclectic-style masterpiece, the *Palacio Barolo* (1923), with 22 floors, was the tallest building in Latin America. In 1929, in many respects, Buenos Aires was the envy of the world.However, the lucky run would soon end – in the most spectacular fashion. The Great Depression decimated the Argentine economy, plunging Buenos Aries into a long, deep recession; prosperity would not return until the first presidency of Juan Domingo Perón (1946-55).

The present map was made by the Oficina Cartográfica "Ludwig", founded by Pablo Ludwig, which from the 1890s until the 1960s was Argentina's 'gold standard' commercial mapmaker. The map is part of a regularly updated sequence of maps of Buenos Aires that the Ludwig firm issued between 1921 and 1956; we have been able to identify at least 15 editions.

References: cf. (re: 1928 edition): Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin: 8" Kart. X 50630<1928>.

380 EUR

7. Poland

Józef Michał BAZEWICZ (1867 – 1929)

Polska w trzech zaborach w granicach przedrozbiorowych w 1770 r. Oraz w innych ważniejszych okresach historycznych.

[Poland in Three Partitions within the Pre-Partition Borders in 1770 and in Other More Important Historical Periods]

Warsaw, [circa 1922].

Chromolithograph (slightly stained, some wear along old folds, small holes in the folds), 73 x 104 cm (29 x 41 inches).

Józef Michał Bazewicz's iconic historical retrospective map of Poland – a monumental composition depicting the historical evolution of the Polish Kingdom from the 9th Century up to 1770, a masterpiece of Polish patriotic propaganda, cartographic design and chromolithography.

This sumptuous production is one of the iconic Polish maps of the 20th Century, being a grand retrospective of the former Polish Kingdom, depicting its evolution and transformation from the 9th Century until 1770 (on the eve of the First Partition of Poland). The map is well-known and highly coveted in Poland, even by those who are not normally connoisseurs of cartography. It was issued in Warsaw by Józef Michał Bazewicz, a respected bookseller and cartographer, in 1922, as both a

LA POLOGNE | POLAND

LA POLONIA | ПОЛЬША

LEHKIJA

POLSKA
W TRZECH ZABORACH
W GRANICACH PRZEDROZBIOROWYCH
W 1770 R.
oraz w innych ważniejszych okresach historycznych.

OPRACOWAŁ RYSOWAŁ J·M·BAZEWICZ WARSZAWA

POLEN | POLONIA

POLEN | LENGYEL

POLSKO

INFLANTY 1562-1660

MORZE BAŁTYCKIE

MORZE CZARNE

1663 1667 1490 1500 1687 1667 1500 1667 1667 1385-1672 1396 1387 1687 1617 1385-1672 1003-1004 1295-1102 1099-1027 1027

Objaśnienie znaków / MIASTA STOŁECZNE / VILLES CAPITALES

Granica nowa Polsko Niemiecka. Granice okręgów plebiscytowych i woln. miasta Gdańska. Granice województw na terenach Wielkopolski i Małopolski. Granice now. państ. Litewskiego. Granice historyczne Polski na najdawniejszym czasów.

celebration of Poland's historical glory and its reemergence as an independent state in the wake of World War I.

The map's coverage extends from the Gulf of Riga, in the north, down to the shores of the Black Sea in the south; and from Magdeburg, Germany, in the west, over to Tula, Russia, in the east. The historical information is built upon the foundation of a modern topographical map, which correctly delineates rivers and shorelines and labels the locations of modern day cities, towns, roads and railways, with mountains expressed though shading.

The central parts of the map label traditional Polish historical voivodships and, to provide points of reference to the contemporary observer, feature colour to show the areas that were dominated by various foreign powers up until the end of World War I: areas in yellow were controlled by Russia; areas in pink were under Prussian rule; while the areas in the south, coloured in green, were governed by Austria-Hungary. Beyond this, the historical information concerns the period between the 9th Century and 1770.

The map shows that, at various times, the former Kingdom of Poland controlled all or part of eleven modern nations: Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Germany, Romania, Moldova, Ukraine, Belarus, Russia, Latvia and Lithuania, and at one time extended from the shores of the Baltic to the Black Sea. The map employs dotted lines to section various historical territories and labels the dates under which they were under Polish administration. On all sides, the map is adorned with the coats of arms of the traditional Polish voivodships and military institutions, while four cartographic inserts give further details as to Poland's territorial evolution.

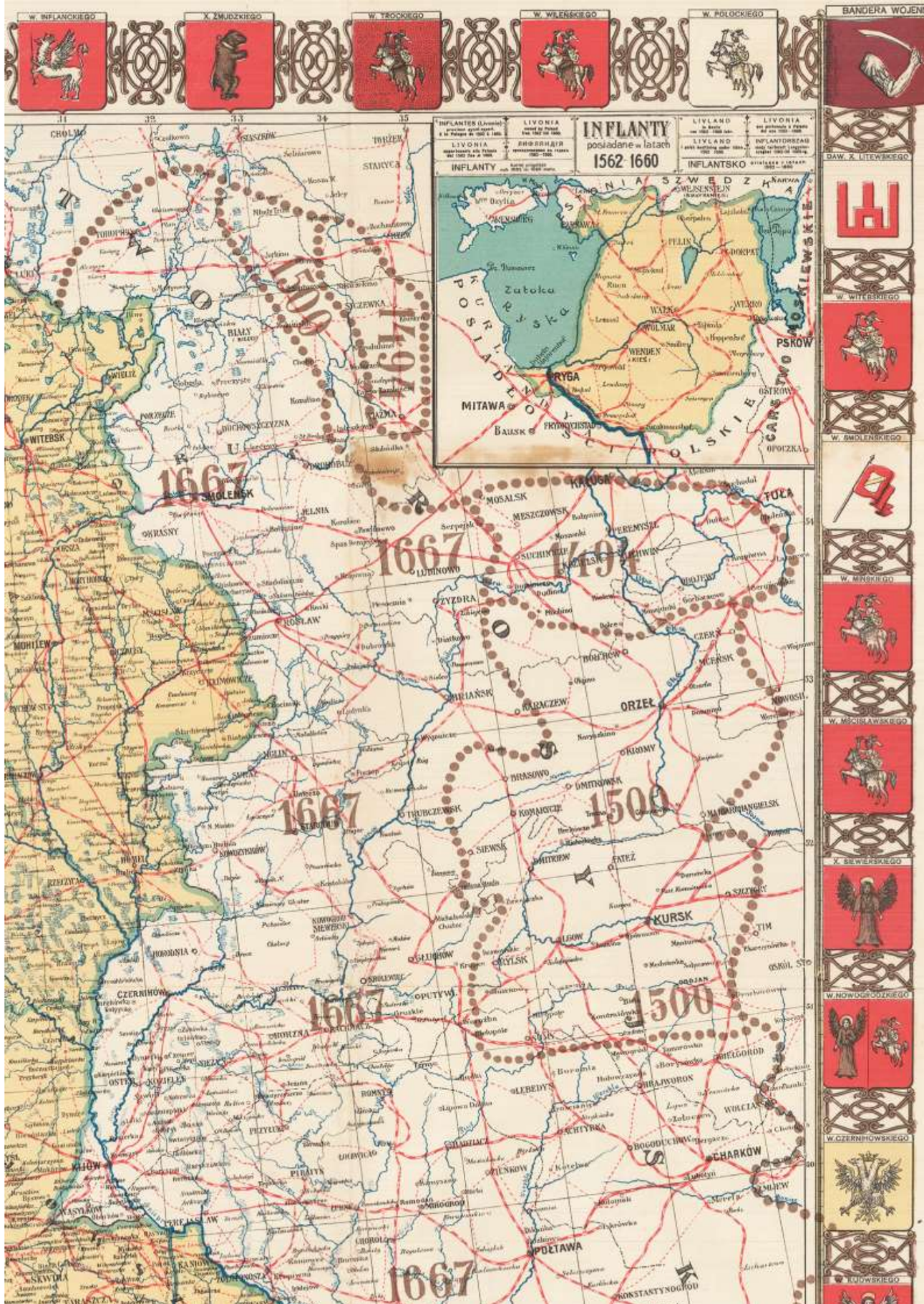
The map appeared around 1922, just as the new Polish Republic had, through a series of wars, ensured its independence, with ample national boundaries. This was an almost unbelievable source of pride for the Polish people, who had endured over a century of foreign occupation.

The present map has a much beloved, iconic place in Poland, as it reminded the Polish people that their nation was once great, and, upon its reemergence as an independent state, could be great again.

The mapmaker, Józef Michał Bazewicz (1867 – 1929) was a prominent Warsaw cartographer, writer and bookseller, and a leading figure on the cultural scene in the Polish capital during the first quarter of the 20th Century. While the present map is his most famous work, he issued many publications, including a historical atlas of Poland, Atlas historyczny Polski (Warsaw, 1916) and a popular patriotic tract, Prawdy historyczne, konieczności dziejowe i zadania Polski, z mapą Europy na przełomie wieków XIV i XV (Warsaw, 1921).

References: University of Wrocław Library, 10111-IV.C; OCLC: 867936346.

960 EUR



8. Ottoman Cartography Asia

کتابخانه سودی [KITABHANE-YI SUDI].

یکی اسیا

[Yeni Asya / New Asia]

Istanbul: Aladdin Matba-sı, 1927.

Colour lithograph, 61 x 92 cm (soft folds with tiny tears and holes, small tears and loss of paper in white margins, otherwise in a good condition).

A very rare, large format, separately issued map of Asia, that is perhaps the last great map of the continent to be printed in Ottoman Turkish script, with attractive colours and adorned with the flags of major Asia and Middle Eastern states.

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

The map is beautifully adorned on both sides with flags, including (on the left, top to bottom:) Siam, Iraq, Palestine, Cambodia, Korea, Laos, Lebanon, India, Yemen (on the right, top to bottom:) Turkey, Annam (French protectorate encompassing Central Vietnam), Iran, Afghanistan, China, Hijaz, Russia, Japan and Syria.

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

1.400 EUR



بحر منجمد شمالي

بحر محيط هندي

(سوديدن) اك يكي خريطه كلياتدن

يكي آسيا

مقياس رسمي ١/٢٠٠٠٠٠٠

كلومتر

انكليز مستعمكاتي

فرانسز مستعمكاتي

هولاندز مستعمكاتي

پورتكيز مستعمكاتي

ناشري: اسلامبول دار الطباعه سنده (كتابخانه سودي)

١٣٤٢

١٩٢٧

سيام

عراق

فلسطين

قاشلاخ

قوره

لاتوش

لبنان

هندستان

يمن

تركيه

آثار

ايران

افغانستان

چين

حجاز

روسيه

ژاپونيا

سوريه

آوسترالياي

9. Read Sea Navigation

a. **[EL TOR, EGYPT]**
Porto di Tur / Pianta originale rilevata dall'I.R. Connoniera "Narenta" Comandante Cap. Di. Corv. W. Kropp.

350 EUR

b. **[AL WADJ, SAUDI ARABIA].**
Porto di El Wish (Wedgee) / Pianta originale rilevata dall'I.R. Connoniera "Narenta" Comandante Cap. Di. Corv. W. Kropp.

350 EUR

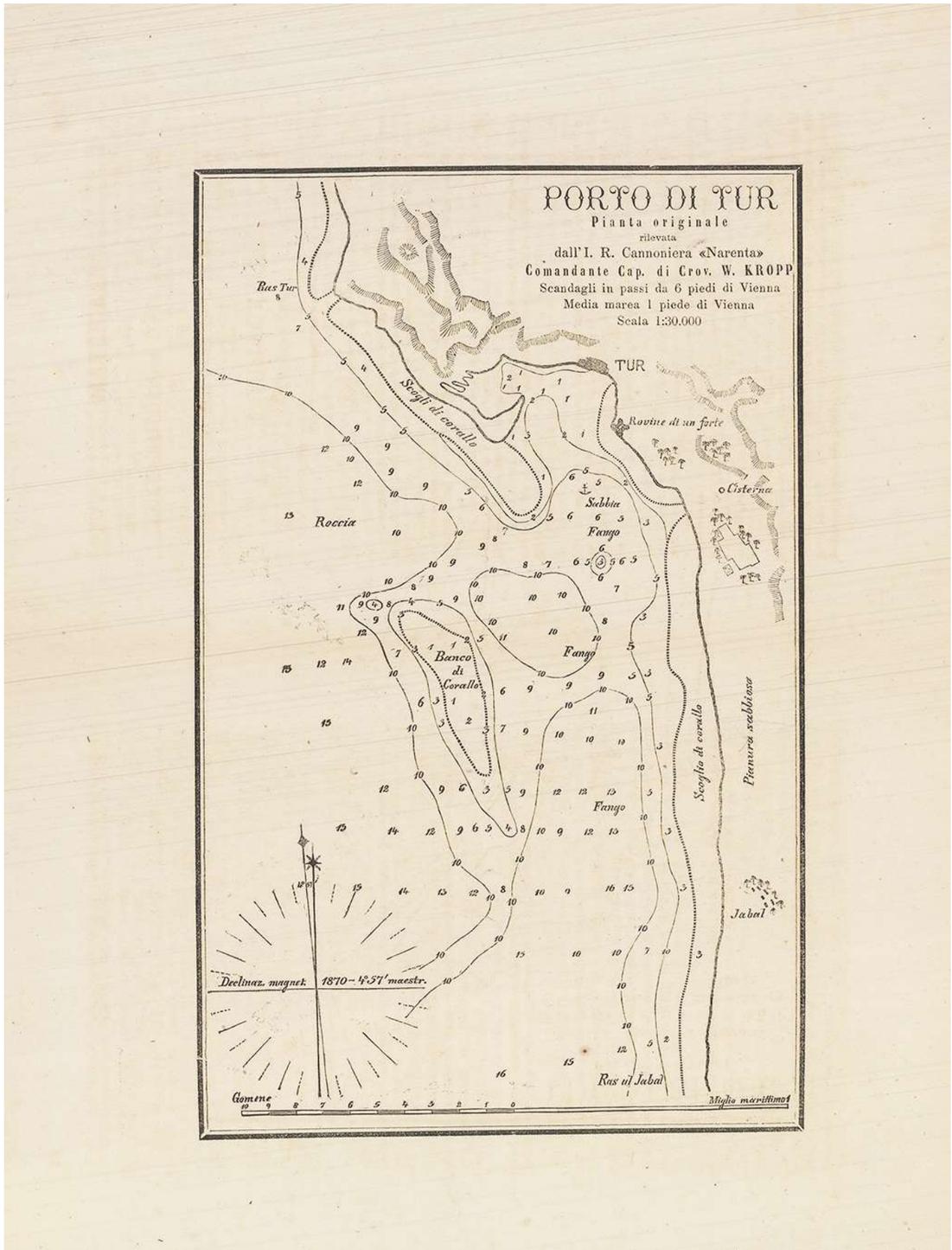
c. **[SUWAKIN, SUDAN]. Ingresso nel Porto di Suakin / / Secondo le carte Ingles del 1870.**
d.

350 EUR

Fiume [Rijeka, Croatia], Stabilimento Tipo-Litografico Fiumano di Emidio Mohovich for the Regio Governo marittimo in Fiume, 1872

3 lithographs on thin paper, each 31 x 23 cm (12.2 x 9 inches).

Three exceedingly rare maps of ports in the Red Sea, printed on thin paper in Italian language, were sold separately for navigational uses.



Historical Background of the Maps

Today many people forget that the Austrian Empire (from 1867, Austria-Hungary) was once a significant maritime power. For 800 years, it had window on the Mediterranean, possessing the port of Trieste, which occupied a uniquely advantageous position, being at the head of the Adriatic with close proximity the heart of Europe. Austria's maritime position improved in the wake of the Napoleonic Wars, when it gained control of the entire coast so Dalmatia, Istria and the Veneto.

In 1833, Austrian Llyod (Der Österreichische Lloyd) was founded in Trieste and quickly rose to become one of the world's best run and most successful shipping lines. Its advantage increased upon the completion of the Südbahn, which connected Trieste by rail to Europe's major industrial centres.

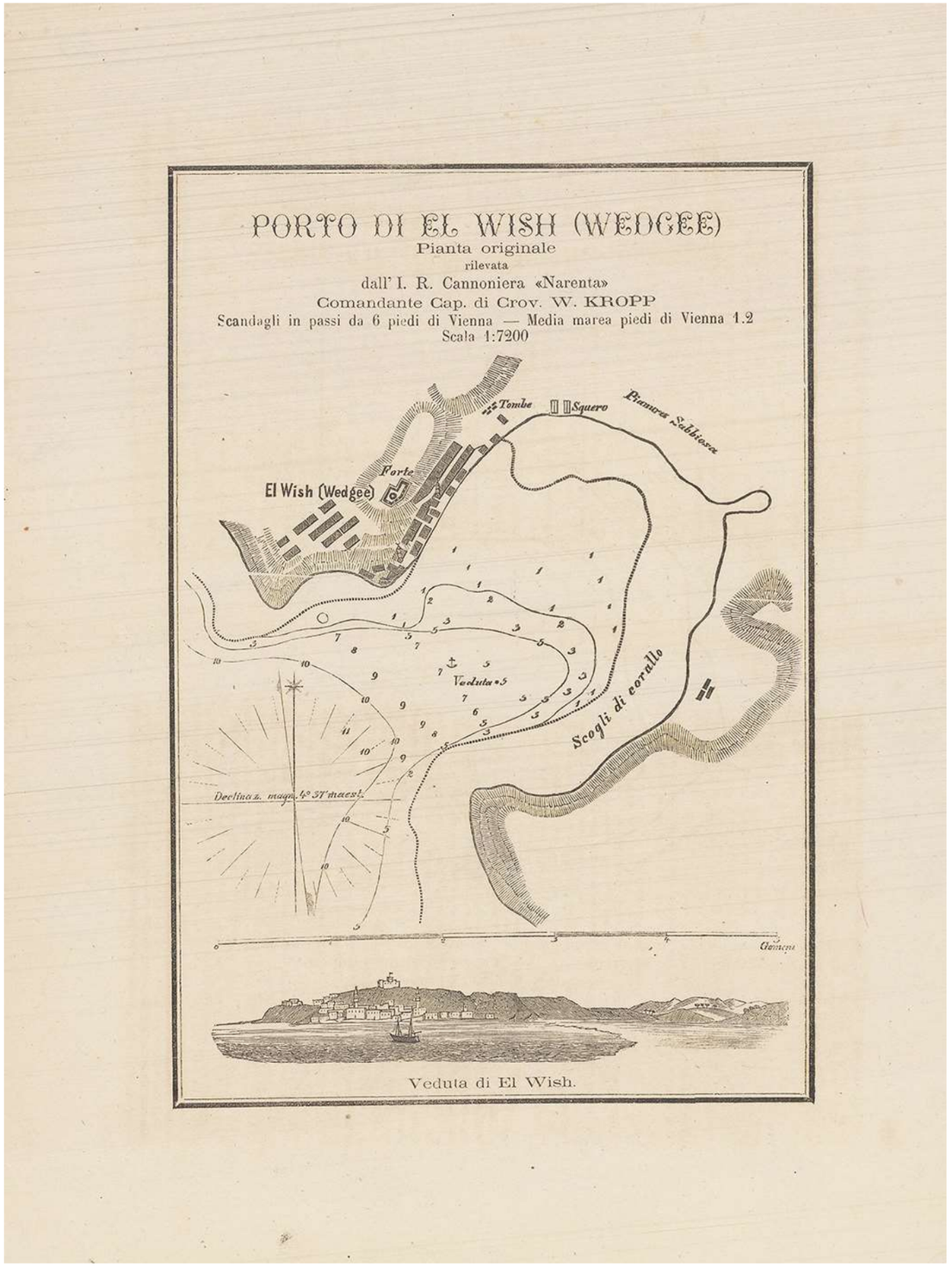
The Imperial Austrian Navy also gained great global prestige when Admiral Wilhelm von Tegetthoff scored a resounding victory over the Italian Navy at the Battle of Lissa (Vis) on July 20, 1866.

The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, a project which was significantly backed by the Trieste tycoon Pasquale Revoltella, represented a great leap forward for Austrian Lloyd. Trieste and Fiume (today Rijeka, Croatia) became the major European ports with the best interface for traffic running through the Suez to the industrial heartland of Europe. A sharp increase in Asiatic trade flowed through these ports and Austrian Lloyd's Trieste-Bombay route became one of the most important in the world.

With the realization of the Suez Canal, the Red Sea became one of the world's most important shipping lanes. Yet, its waters were famously treacherous, full of hidden reefs, lethal currents and winds and complicated harbour approaches. International mariners had generally relied upon sailing directions and charts made by the Royal Navy; however, these sources, while high quality, naturally had a bias towards British priorities and had a few blind spots. However, Corvette Captain Wilhelm Kropp of the Imperial Austrian Navy was determined to fill-in some of blanks.

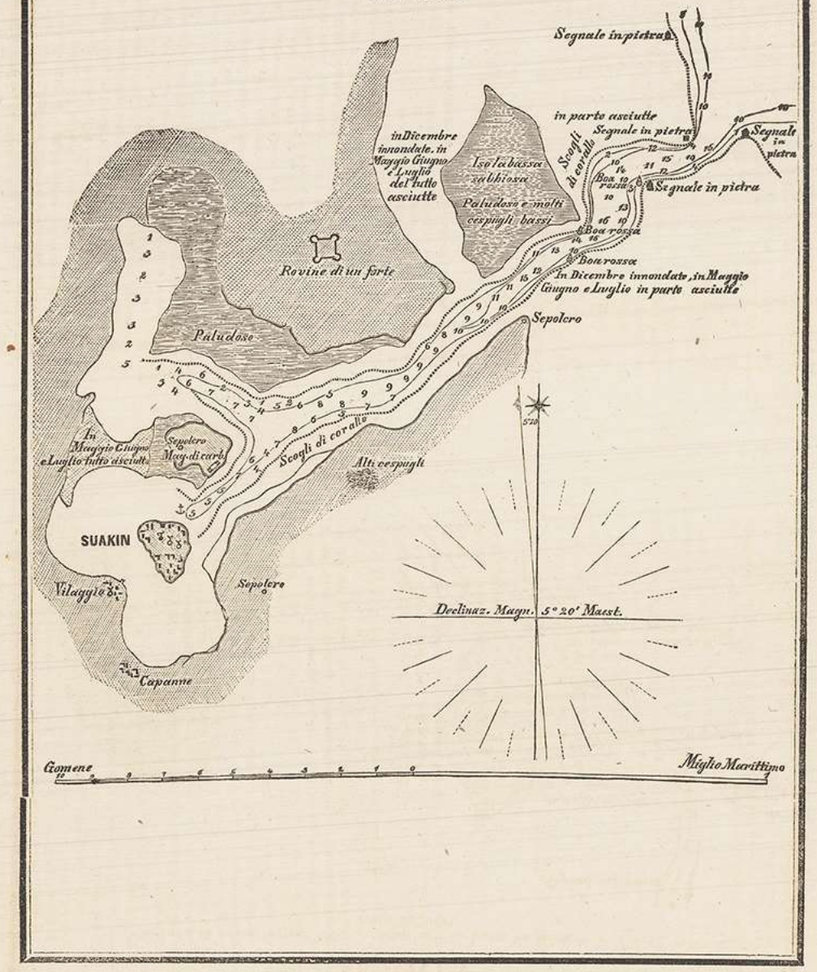
Captain Kropp had the opportunity to extensively explore the Red Sea as the commander of the Austrian navy cannon boast SMS Narenta, resulting in a article, published in 1872 in the German language as an article entitled 'Beschriffung des rotten Meers', within an The book was published in the Italian language for the benefit of the Dalmatian and Istrian sailors who made up the majority of Austro-Hungarian merchant mariner and naval personnel; it is labelled on the title as the 'Versione italiana dall'edizione originale tedesca'. It was published in Fiume for the local government maritime authority (then Hungary's premier port, today Rijeka, Croatia) by the local print shop of the Stabilimento Tipo-Litografico Fiumano di Emidio Mohovich (Mohović).

The following uncoloured maps are exceedingly similar to those published in the book, although not printed from the same plates. They were issued separately, possibly to be used on boats as functional maps, meant to be annotated or / and mounted in ships' logs.



INGRESSO NEL PORTO
di
SUAKIN

Secondo le carte Inglesi 1870 — Scandagli in passi da 6 piedi di Vienna.
Scala 1:27.000.



10. Japan – Cartographic Propaganda
World War I
Russo-Japanese War
Stellar Map Design



Anon. [Likely an Official Japanese Government Commission].

Title in Kanji **[Commemorative Map of the World War].**

[Tokyo], 1919.

Colour printed scroll map, on several joined sheets of newspaper-type paper, upon contemporarily mount with rollers (longer cracks and small loss of mount close to the upper roller partly repaired with acid free tape, otherwise in a good condition), size of map area: 155 x 77 cm (61 x 30.3 inches); mount: 182 x 86 cm (72 x 33.8 inches).

An extremely rare and very large format Japanese propaganda map, a grand pageant of imagery celebrating Japan's military triumphs during the Meiji and Taishō Eras that made her an Asian-Pacific superpower and gave her a great empire, showcasing elements of the just-concluded World War I, but also the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese Wars, a powerful composition of several brightly coloured maps and photographic portraits – a magnificent example with its contemporary mount and rollers.

By the end of World War I, Japan had completed the most rapid and radical transformation undertaken by any established society in world history. Up to the 1850s, Japan was a culturally sophisticated nation

but was by design almost totally cut off from the rest of the world. Its economy was based upon agriculture and traditional crafts and the Japanese people had only a very limited acquaintance with modern technology.

In the 1850s, the Western powers, led by the United States, forced Japan, literally by gunpoint, to open it economy and society to the outside world and international trade. Most foreigners expected that Japan would become some meek colonial vassal, ripe for exploitation; however, they were in for a surprise.

During the Meiji Era (1868 - 1912), the Japanese adapted and, in many cases, greatly improved, Western technology and systems with a speed and competency that astounded all observers. Within a couple of decades Japan had become an ultra-modern industrialized state, in the mold of Western Europe and the United States. Crucially, Japan's advancement was applied to military technology, whereupon it developed one of the most sophisticated and disciplined armies and navies in the world.

Japan's new strength imbued it with grander ambitions. A country that had recently been in self-isolation for generations now turned its energies to developing a foreign empire. Japan benefited by the fact that it was always underestimated. The Chinese viewed themselves as inherently superior to the Japanese, and being a much larger country, initially dismissed them as a mere nuisance. Meanwhile, Western powers simply could not believe that an Asian country (read non-White) could ever match them in a military contest.

Japan first shocked the world when it throttled China during the Sino-Japanese War (1894-5), taking Korea and Taiwan as its first major prizes for its new empire.

Meanwhile, Russia was expanding aggressively into the Asia Pacific realm, and it became clear that St. Petersburg and Tokyo's ambitions could not coexist.

Upon the outset of the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5), Russia confidently assumed that it would easily vanquish Japan. Its great base in China, Port Arthur (today the Lüshunkou District of Dalian), was one on the most heavily fortified places on earth, while the Russian Navy had recently been retooled with ultra-modern vessels, skippered by experienced commanders. However, the 'impregnable' city fell to Japan during the Siege of Port Arthur (August 1, 1904 – January 2, 1905), and the Russians utterly lost the land war in Manchuria at the Battle of Mukden (20 February–10 March 1905). If that was not enough, the Japanese navy decimated the main Russian fleet (which had sailed halfway around the world from St. Petersburg) at the Battle of Tsushima (May 27-28, 1905). At the Treaty of Portsmouth (September 5, 1905) that ended the War, Japan became the dominant power in East Asia, and was made the quasi-colonial overlord of Southern Manchuria, while Russia ceded Southern Sakhalin and the Kurile Islands to Japan.

During the early period of the Taishō Era (1912-26), Japan entered World War I on the side of the Entente Powers (Japan had especially close relations with Britain and the Royal Navy). While not a major combatant, Japan impressed it allies with its highly competent and disciplined conduct, that importantly allowed Britain, and later the United States, to have 'not worry' about the conflict in the Asia-Pacific theatre, as Japan 'had it covered'. Most notably, Japan conquered the major German treaty port of Tsing-tau (today Qingdao, China), during the Siege of Tsing-tao (August 27 - November 7, 1914), dealing a severe blow to the Kaiser's ego early in the war.

At the Treaty of Versailles (1919), which followed the war, Japan was sat at the victors' table and for the first time was internationally hailed as one of the global military superpowers and a fully advanced modern, industrial society, worthy of universal respect. Japan's self-image grew to reflect its new status, a state of affairs that was unimaginable only short time before. It is at this moment that the present map comes into play.

The Present Map in Focus

The present work is a grand and powerful celebration of the Japanese Empire's new status as a global superpower, employing a vivid pageant of cartography and portraiture to brilliant propagandist effect. While the map seems to be printed on ephemeral, newsprint-style paper, the quality of the design and is stellar, and the colour scheme vivid, while its large and sumptuous mount and rollers add a certain gravitas.

The map, the kanji title of which translates to a 'Commemorative Map of the World War' is occupies the top of the composition on either side of the Japanese imperial symbol of the sixteen-petalled chrysanthemum. The work consists of two main components. The top register, entitled 'Important Peoples in the Meiji and Taishō Eras' features a double-hemisphere world map, surrounded by several portraits of both leading Japanese and world figures of the broader period. The pride of place is given to the reigning Taishō Emperor, while other figures include the late Meiji Emperor, Woodrow Wilson, King George V, Kaiser Wilhelm II, Czar Nicholas II, and Emperor Franz Josef of Austria-Hungary, etc., plus various Japanese military commanders. In the lower right corner of the register is view of the Palace of Versailles, where the eponymous treaty was signed. In the lower left corner is a text block listing the 'Allied' and 'Enemy' powers in the World War I, noting the military strength of each.

The main part of the work, below, is dominated by a detailed map of the Japanese Empire that (including its insets) features all of Metropolitan Japan, as well as Korea, Southern Manchuria, Taiwan, Southern Sakhalin, the Kuril Islands and the southern Japanese chain leading down to Okinawa.

Very interesting details that might at first be overlooked are contained within the white circles on the map, which upon closer look reveal detailed 'mini-maps' of Japanese naval and army victories, such as the Battle of Tsushima (showing the courses of the opposing fleets!).

An inset in the middle of the main map depicts an overview of the Asia-Pacific region while above is a World Map, which sets the greater context.

In the upper left corner of the main register are four intriguing insets. The lower inset features a detailed plan of the Siege of Port Arthur, while above is an overview map of Europe show the 'New Country Lines', or international boundaries, as mandated by the Versailles Treaty, while higher still are insets detailing the new borders in both Western and Eastern Europe. All considered, the various maps endeavour to show that Japan is not only a major regional power, but a key mover on a global scale.

The publisher of the map is not clear, but it seems that the work was likely commissioned by an official Japanese government agency, as by this time the state had developed a well-funded and highly sophisticated propaganda machine.

Unfortunately, as we all know too well, during the early Shōwa Era (1926-89) Japan became a hyper-military dictatorship and greatly overextended itself, with horrific humanitarian results, during War World War II. This led to the downfall of the Japanese Empire, but also gave birth to a modern, peaceful Japan.

A Note on Editions and Rarity

The present map is extremely rare, which is not surprising, as its fragile nature and large size would have led to a very low survival rate.

We cannot trace another example of the present 1919 edition. However, we are aware of single example of a 1918 edition (which is very similar but features a slightly different configuration of elements) that recently appeared on the market, while a 1914 edition is apparently held by a Chinese institution.

The present example is remarkable for its stellar condition, and the presence of its lovely contemporary mount with rollers, which are often the first aspects of such map to perish.

References: N/A – no other examples traced.

3.200 EUR



11. Exploration of the Moon
Czech Lunar Cartography

Antonín Rükl (1932 –2016) was a Czech astronomer, cartographer and author. Among other titles, he was a head of the Prague Planetarium and the chairman of the Planetary Section of the Czechoslovak Astronomical Society. In 1991 he published his most famous work Atlas of the Moon (Atlas Měsíce).

Worldcat only lists one institutional example (National Library of the Czech Republic)

References: OCLC 42167280.

750 EUR

Antonín RÜKL (1932 –2016)

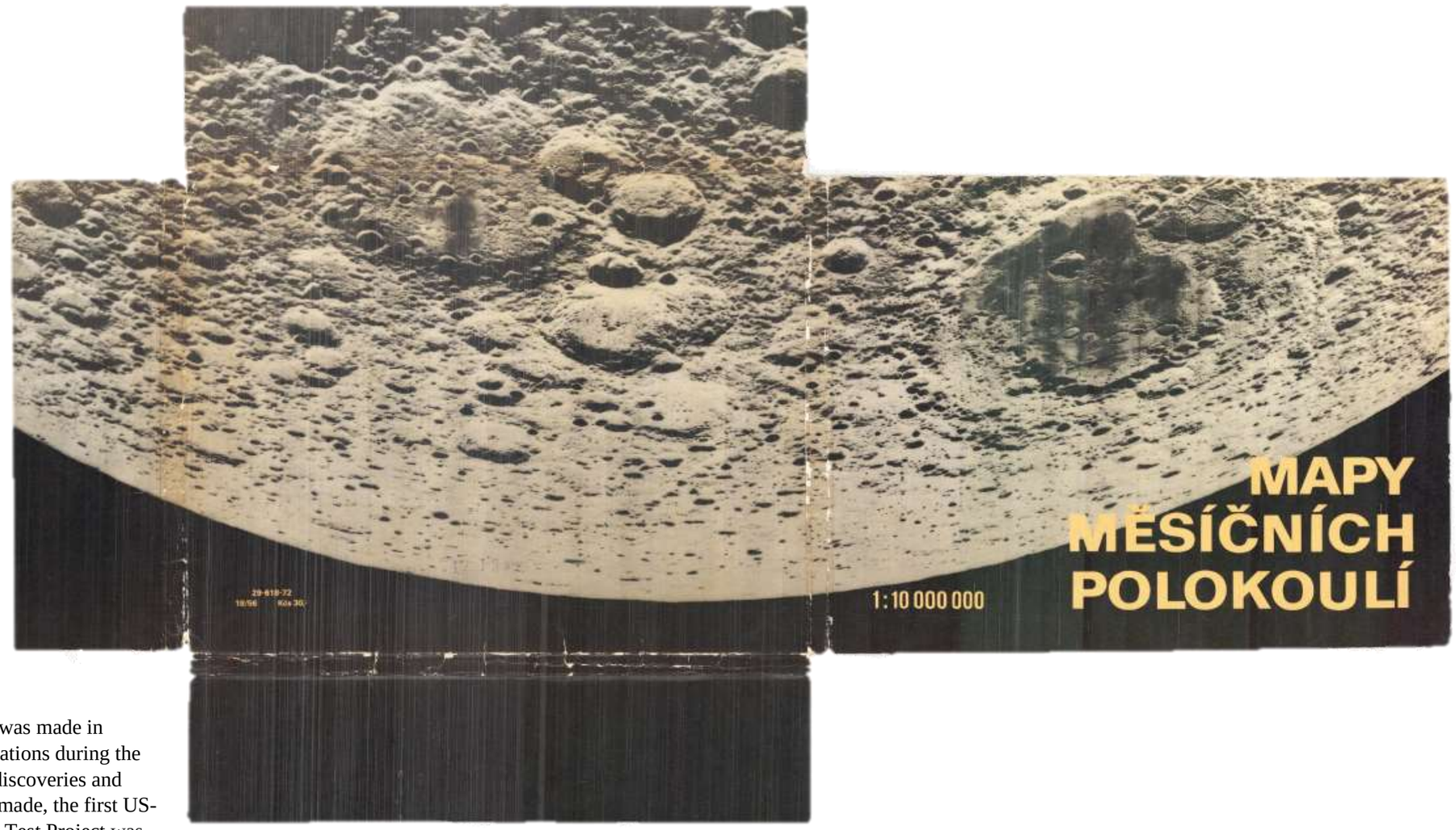
Mapy měsíčních polokoulí

[Maps of the Moon Hemispheres]

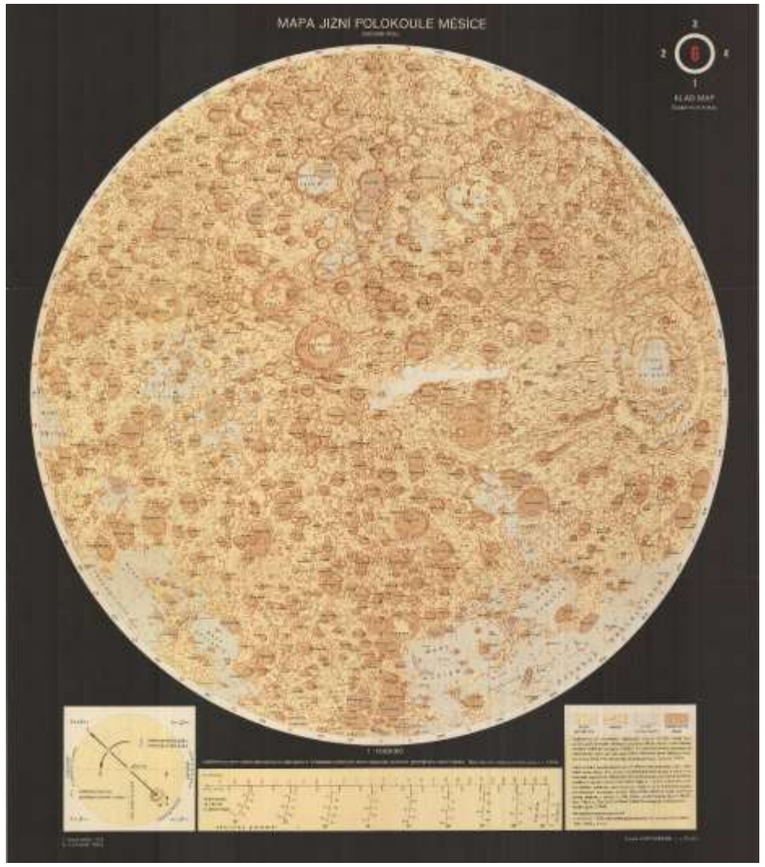
Prague: Kartografie 1972

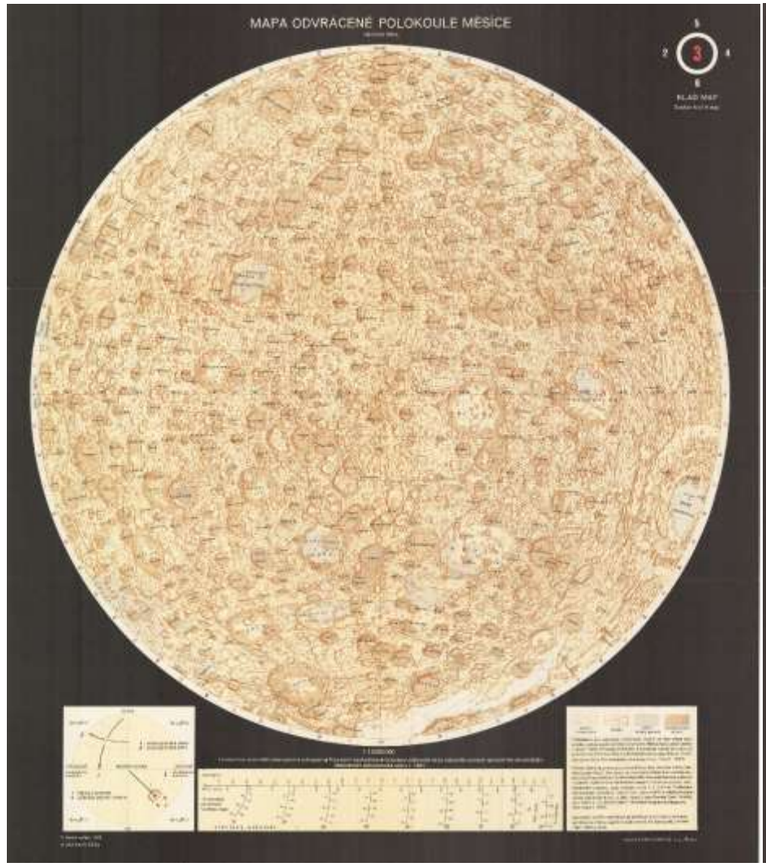
Book, oblong small 4°, 15 pp., stapled. 6 colour prints (each 62 x 54 cm / 24.4 x 21.3 inches), folded in an original illustrated wrappers,

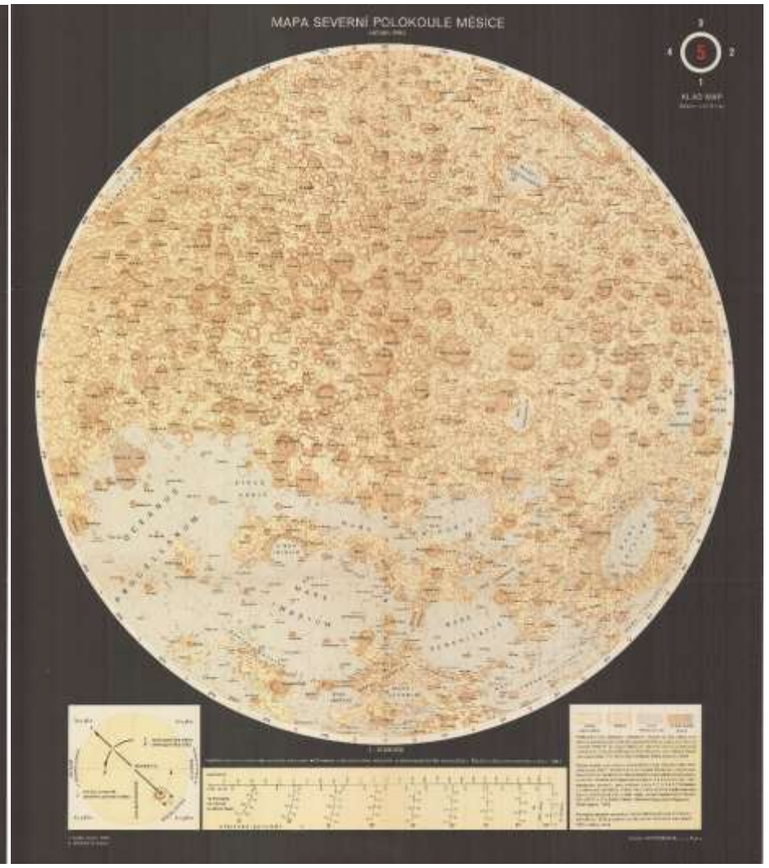
A scarce set of 6 maps of the Lunar surface, based on the latest American explorations and the Soviet Lunokhod programme was made by a Czech astronomer and cartographer Antonín Rükl

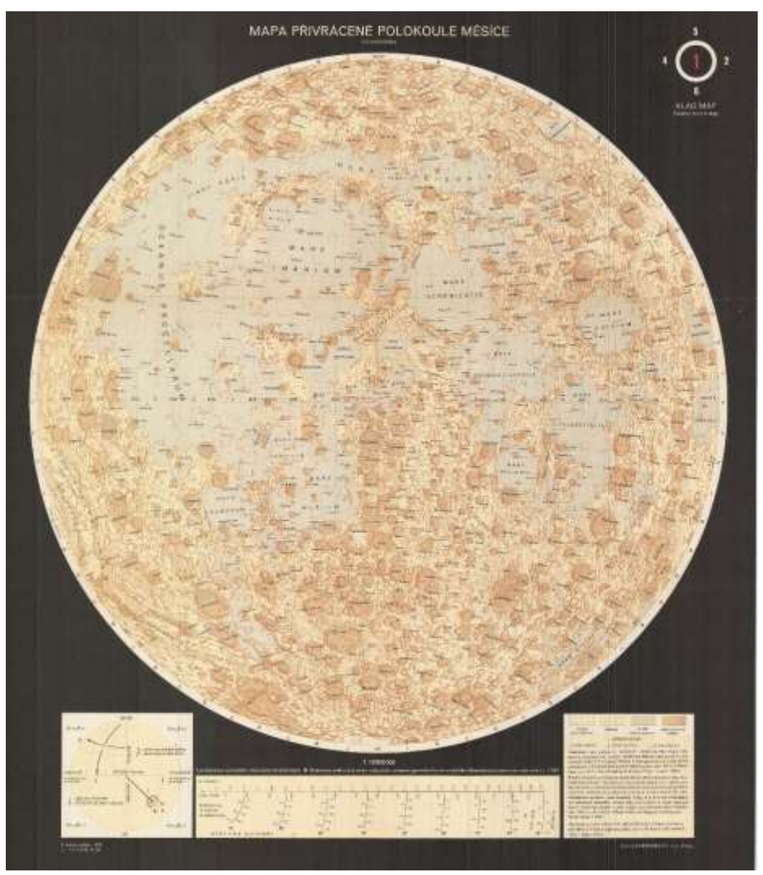


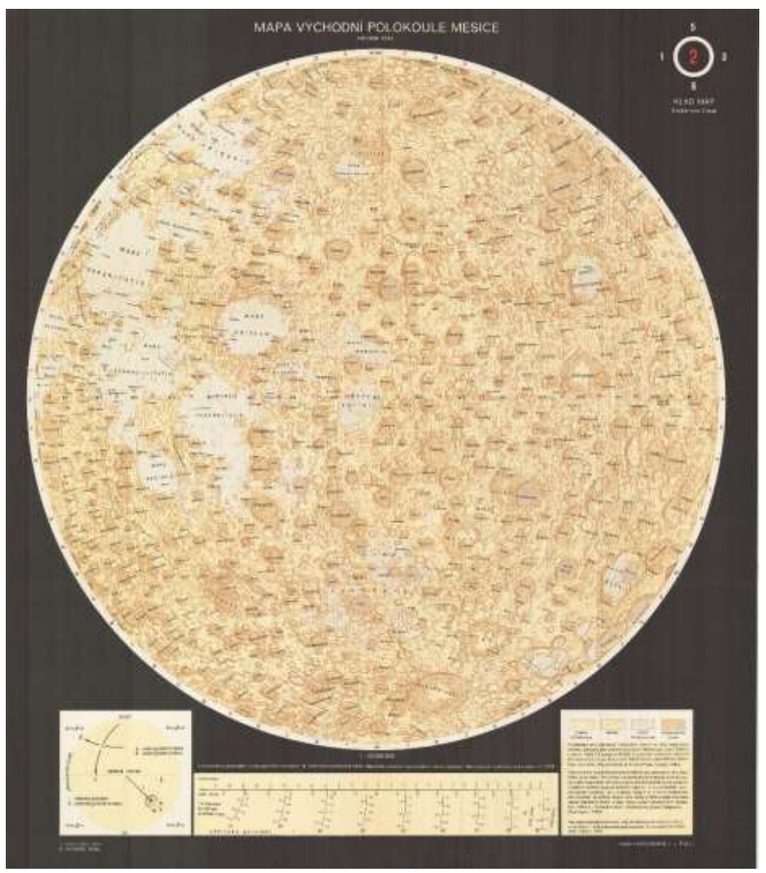
A complete set of 6 maps of the lunar surface was made in Prague in 1972, in the time of the lunar explorations during the co called Space Race. It showcases the latest discoveries and landing sites. In 1972, when these maps were made, the first US-Soviet joined project called the Apollo–Soyuz Test Project was launched.

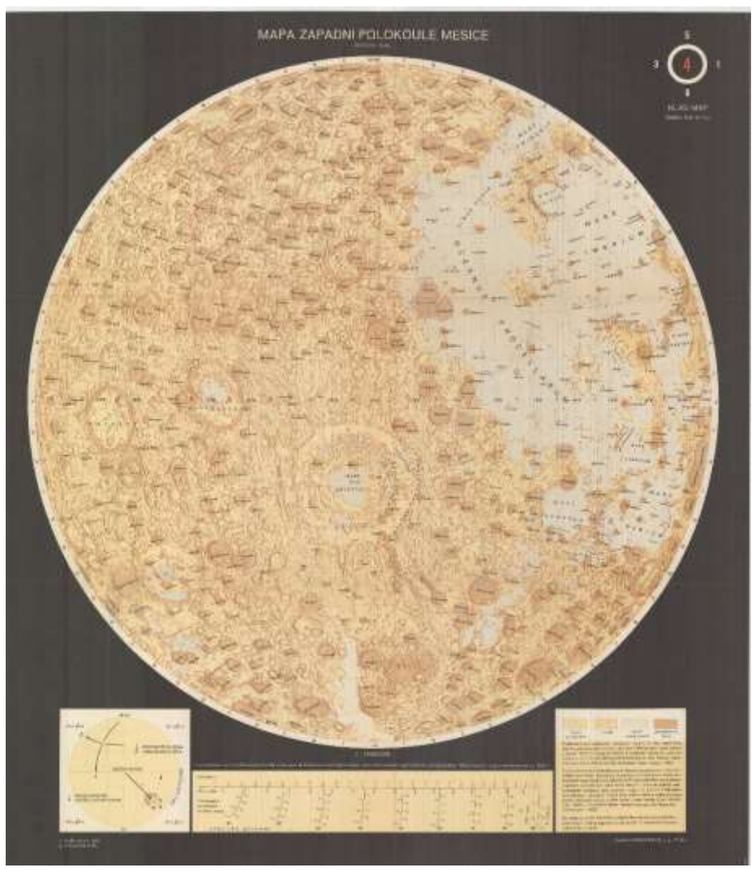

MAPA JIŽNÍ POLOKOULE MĚSÍCE
KLAD MAP


MAPA ODVRÁCENÉ POLOKOULE MĚSÍCE
KLAD MAP

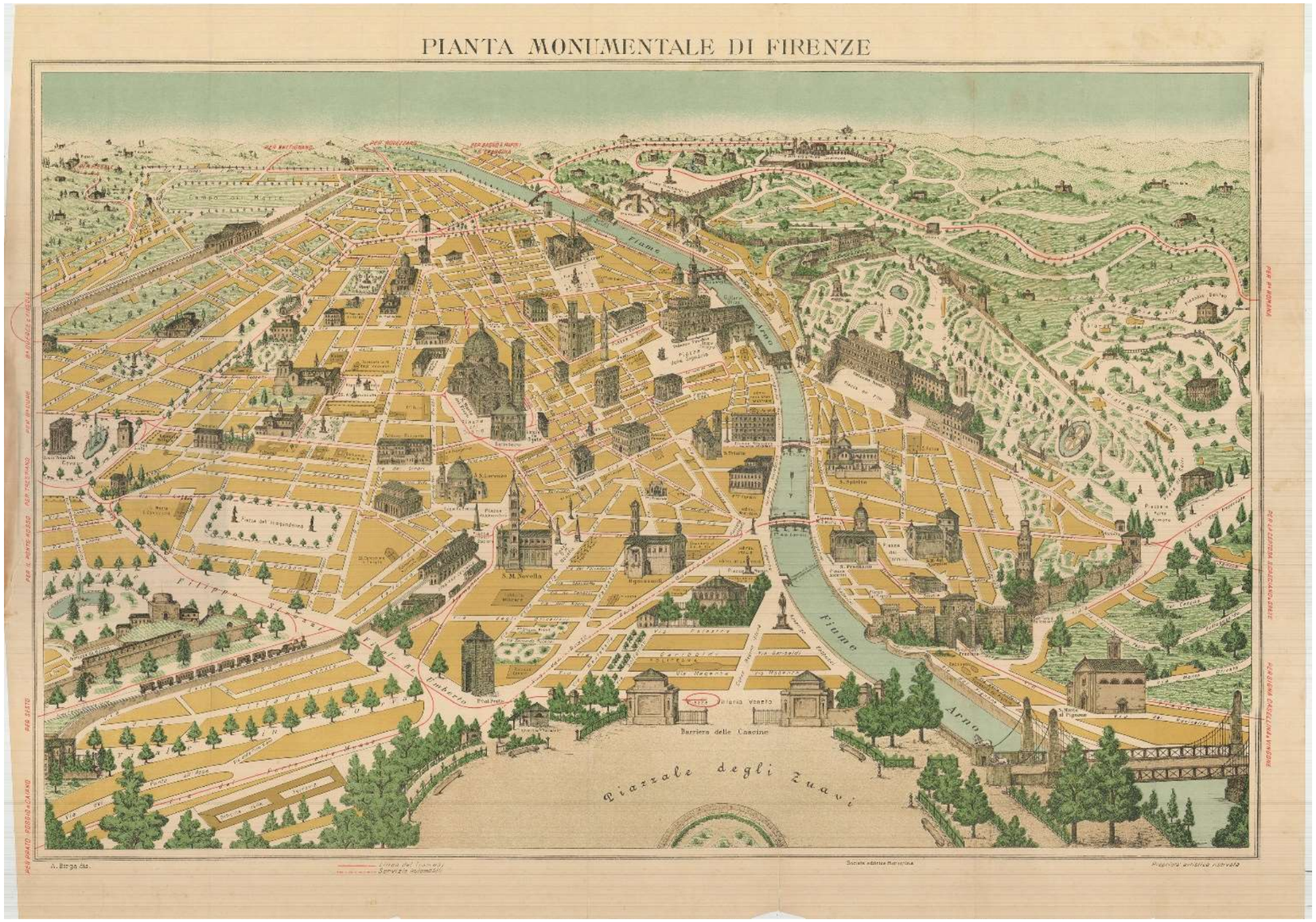

MAPA SEVERNÍ POLOKOULE MĚSÍCE
KLAD MAP


MAPA PŘIVRÁCENÉ POLOKOULE MĚSÍCE
KLAD MAP


MAPA VÝCHODNÍ POLOKOULE MĚSÍCE
KLAD MAP


MAPA ZÁPADNÍ POLOKOULE MĚSÍCE
KLAD MAP

12. Florence City Map



A. BIRGA

Pianta monumentale di Firenze

Florence: Società Editrice Fiorentina [s.d., possibly circa 1910].

Chromolithograph with original illustrated wrappers, 54 x 77 cm (21.3 x 30.3 inches) (soft folds with tiny holes on crossings, small repaired tear in the upper left part, wrappers fragile with chips and loss of paper, otherwise in a good condition).

A decorative bird’s eye view shows Florence with its most famous monuments. The red lines mark the omnibus and tram lines.

The map was probably made in the first years of the 20th century, after the tram lines were electrified in 1898.

350 EUR

13. East Frisia Pictorial Map

Dettmar COLDEWEY (1907 – 1973)

Bildkarte zur Geschichte Ostfrieslands

[Pictorial Map to the History of East Frisia]

Wilhelmshaven: Lohse-Eissing 1967

Colour lithograph (soft folds, two stamps of a previous owner verso), 90 x 100 cm (35.4 x 39.4 inches).

A pictorial map in German language showcases East Frisia and its history, with important historical events, naval history, locations, monuments and people.

The author was a specialist of East Frisian history Dettmar Coldewey (1907 – 1973).

References: OCLC 720405557, 71396205, 641900841, 179725357, 276307439.

180 EUR




Bildkarte zur Geschichte Ostfrieslands
A
B
C
D
E
F
G
H
1
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3
4
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8
Harlingerland
Brokmerland
Emsgau
Auricher Wiesmoor
Norderney
Juist
Baltrum
Langeoog
Spiekeroog
Wangerooge
Wangerland
Jade
Der Hohe Weg
Weser
Jadebusen
Friesische Wehde
Jeverland
Östringen
Rüstringen
Wilhelmshaven
Oldenburg
Ammerland
Moormerland
Uplengen
Overledingerland
Reiderland
Niederlande
Niederstift Münster
Dollart
Leybucht
Ems
Emder Tief
Ostfriesische Inseln

14. Macau, China
Portuguese Colonies
Macau Imprint

[MACAU TOURIST BOARD].

***Roteiro da Cidade de Macau. / Macau Guide.* / 澳門市遊覽指南圖說明.**

[Macao] : Imprensa nacional de Macau, [mid to late 1960s].

Bichrome print (Good, irregularly folded, some wear and toning along old folds, some foxing in lower left quadrant), 52 x 72 cm (20.5 x 28.3 inches).

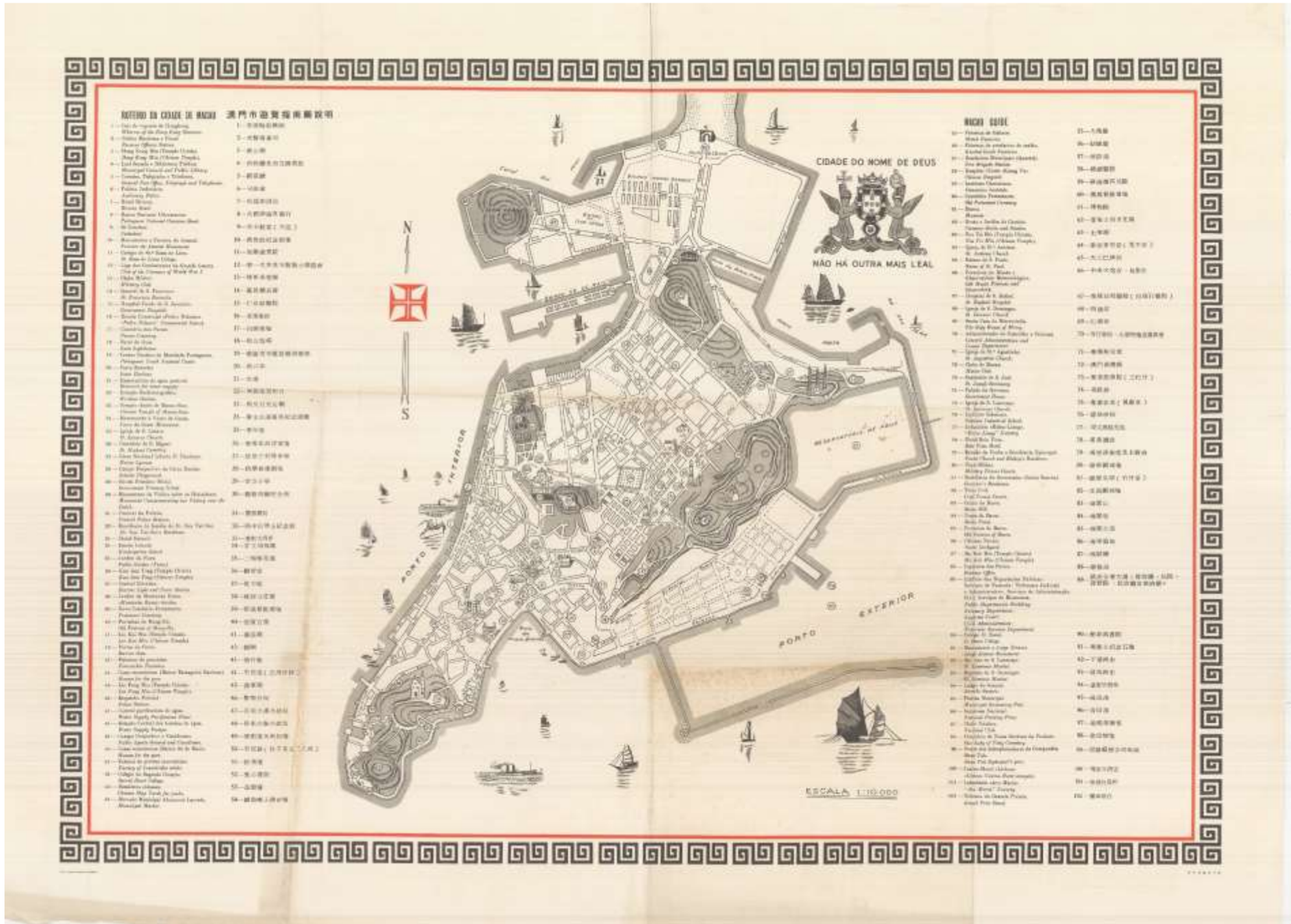
An attractive 1960s trilingual (Portuguese, English, Chinese) map of the Macau, labelling 102 important sites, including the newly founded Casino-Hotel Lisboa, the colony's first Western style casino; printed in Macau for the local authorities.

This detailed and attractive map depicts the main part of what was then the Portuguese colony of Macau, on the south coast of China, across the Pearl River estuary from Hong Kong. Macau was acquired by Portugal in 1557 and was transferred back to China in 1999.

The map was likely commissioned by the Macau Tourist Board, and labels 102 sites in three languages (Portuguese, English, Chinese), with many major places portrayed pictographically. The specifically named sites include government buildings, old Portuguese Churches, Chinese temples, educational institutions, hotels, major businesses, and recreation sites. The map features the Macau coat of arms and an attractive border of a Greek key pattern.

The map only shows the main, or peninsular, part of Macau (and omits the islands of Taipa and Coloane, located further to the south). As evident on the map, throughout the 20th century, Macau's area increased due to land reclamation; from 1912 to 1957, the area of the Macau peninsula grew from 3.5 to 5.5 km^2.

As best as we are aware, the map was issued in two editions, both undated. The first state was issued sometime in the 1950s, and labels 98 sites; the present example is of the second state and was published in the mid to late 1960s. The dating of the second edition is revealed by the addition of four sites on the key, two of which were created between 1961 and 1964. They are *99* – the 'Shun Tak Hydrofoils' pier' (the first Macau-Hong Kong hydrofoil service, established in 1964); and *100* - the Casino-Hotel Lisboa (the city's first major Western-style casino, founded in 1962).



For comparison's sake, an image of the first edition of the map can be seen courtesy of the National Library of Australia:

https://nla.gov.au/nla.obj-229821409/view

While there are several examples of the map, in both editions, in institutions worldwide, the map seldom appears on the market.

References: Library of Congress: G7823.M2E635 1966 .R6; OCLC: 940390168 and 894981576.

650 EUR

15. Macedonia (Greece, North Macedonia)
Fine Art Design
Fine Chromolithography

Ioannis PETROF [Ivan PETROV] (1849 – 1922).

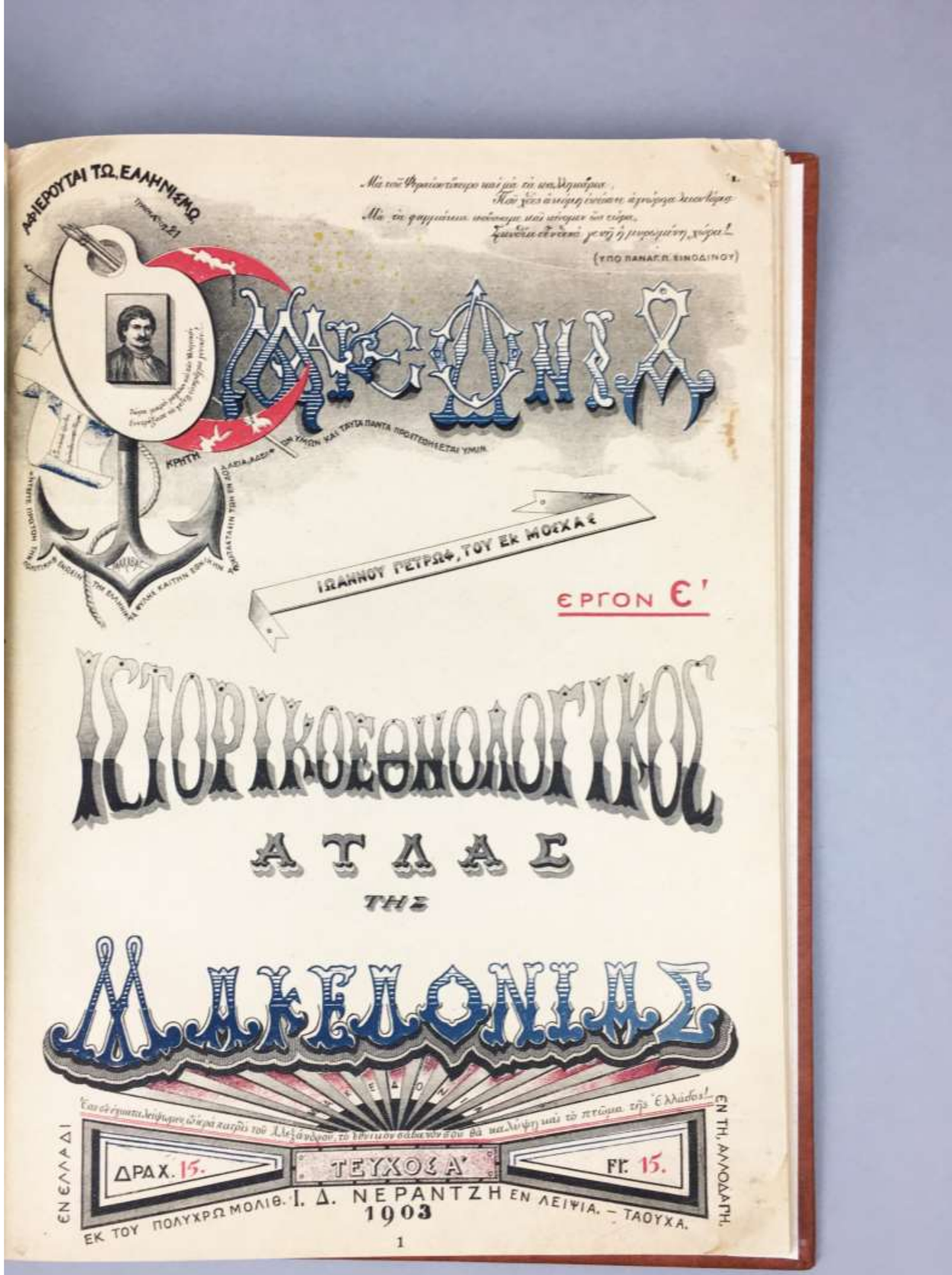
***Ιστορικοεθνολογικός Άτλας της Μακεδονίας / Αρχαία και Βυζαντινή εποχή. Εργον Ε΄. τόμος Α΄.* [Historical-Ethnological Atlas of Macedonia / Ancient and Byzantine Era. Project E. Part A.].**

Leipzig: Polychromatic Press of J.D. Nerantzis, 1903.

Small Folio (32.5 x 23 cm): 108 pp. (complete, but irregularly paginated, as some pages left blank, with extra interspersed blank pages) including numerous chromolithographed plates (some double page) and many images imbedded within text, original illustrated blue card wrappers, all bound within modern faux calf with gilt lettering to spine, contemporary booksellers pastedown label to verso of front wrapper (Good, overall clean and bright with resplendent colours, however, leaf of pp. 27/28 with noticeable tear with acid burn from former taped repair, a few minor marginal tears to leaves and some chipping to wrappers and top-right corner of first few leaves).

A wonderfully bizarre work celebrating the Ancient and Byzantine history of Macedonia, with numerous graphics, maps and calligraphy based upon the sketches of the brilliant yet eccentric Russo-Greek historian Ioannis Petrof, resplendently chromolithographed in Leipzig, done with a great flair for Greek nationalism and vast academic knowledge – one of the most artistically virtuous and unusual items we have encountered in some years.

This beautiful but highly unusual work is the product of the brilliant, yet eccentric, mind of the Russo-Greek historian Iaonnis Petrov (Ivan Petrov). While entitled as an 'Historical-Ethnological Atlas', and featuring several maps, some of which are amongst the work's most prominent features, it is not principally a geographical atlas in the conventional sense, but a grand artistic and calligraphic celebration of the historical golden age of Greek hegemony in Macedonia (in 1903 the region was still ruled by the Ottomans, as it had been for over 500 years), executed in resplendant signature Leipzig chromolithography.



ΜΑΚΕΔΟΝΙΚΟΝ ΚΡΑΤΟΣ

ΕΠΙ-ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΟΥ-ΤΟΥ-ΜΕΓΑΛΟΥ-ΚΑΙ-ΤΩΝ-ΔΙΑΔΟΧΩΝ-ΑΥΤΟΥ.





Μετὰ τὴν ὕβριν τοῦ ῥωμαίου στρατηγοῦ Μετέλλου καταπατήσαντος τὸ τέλειν ταῖον βασιλέως τῆς Μακεδονίας Ἀνδρίσκου ἢ σκοτειδήμων ζώντα μεταβληθὴ εἰς Ῥωμαίκην ἐπαρχίαν ἐν ἔτει 148 π.Χ.



Πρώτη ἐπιδρομὴ τῶν ἡμιβαρβάρων

Ὁ στρατηγὸς Δανιὴλ εἶδεν Ἀλέξανδρον τὸν Μέγαν ἐπὶ τῶν ὀμβρίων ὑμῶν παλαίοντες καὶ ἐπειτα ἀφάνειαν μὴ ἀπατᾶται τῆς γῆς καὶ πρὸς οὐδενὸς τὸν ἐπὶ αὐτοῦ κατάλογον ἐπὶ θαυμάσιον τῶν Περσῶν καὶ ἐπομένως εἰν ἐμφανεῖ τοῦ ἀπὸ τῶν Μακεδονικῶν ἡγέτους εἰς ἑκάστου μεγάλα βασίλεια-ἐμβλεῖ τῆς Λιμνάτων Μακεδονίας, Συρίας καὶ Θράκης. (Δανιὴλ κεφ. Η'5-8. Φιλωνίου Ἐκείνων τὰ εἰς ἑκάστου, τεῦχ. Α' βιβλ. Χ κεφ. Η'85, σελ. 9-10. Π. Ῥωμαίων Ἱερὰ Ἱστορία, μέρος 6 περιόδου γ' σελ. 280.

Ὁ Ἀλέξανδρος ἦν ἔτι μόνον στρατιώτης τέλειος ἦτο καὶ στρατηγὸς τελειότατος. Ὡς ἀναστήτωρ δὲ τῆς ἑλληνικῆς καὶ τῶν καλλιτεχνῶν καὶ τῆς ἐπιφορᾶς ἡμῶν ἐπιστήμης αὐτοῦ ἔσχον εἰς τὸν τέτοιον τὸν τὰ σκοτεινὰ τοῦ τῶν μεταγενεστέρων ἀλλοιώσεις εἶναι ἀπομνημόνευμα ἐν τῇ παλαιᾷ τῆς ἀνθρωπίνης ἱστορίας. (ΥΠΟ ΠΑΠΑΡΡΗΓΟΠΟΥΛΟΥ, ΙΣΤ. ΤΟΥ ΕΛΛΗΝ. ΕΘΝΟΥΣ., ΤΟΜ. Β' ΣΕΛ. 66 ΚΑΙ ΤΕΥΧ.

Ἀλέξανδρος ὁ ἐπὶ τὰ ἐδάφη τὰ πέλας ἀφῆκε ἔτεινε ἐμείνας, καὶ κατεστάθη εἰς τὸν Μέγαν Κ.Ὑμηνεῖς εἶδεν, τῆς ἀνημέρου καὶ ἀγριώδους ἐκράτησε ὑπείκης.

Πλουτ. ἐν Κ.

Ἀλέξανδρε λάτρις μεγαλυνόμενον ἢ κατ' ἄνδρωσιν γεγονέναι τῆς γῆς σατράπην.

Διονυσ. Περιηγ. Β. 1. Ἀνάβ. Β. 2. Ν. 312.

Schlosser Weltgesch. B. 2. S. 312.

Πρώτες τῶν Μακεδονικῶν ἡμέρας 700 – 148 π.Χ.

ΕΚΣΤΡΑΤΕΙΑΙ ΑΛΕΣΑΝΔΡΟΥ ΤΟΥ ΜΕΓΑΛΟΥ.

1 ΠΕΛΛΑ	16 ΜΑΡΩΝΕΙΑ	27 ΣΑΝΘΟΣ	ΙΕΡΟΣΟΛΥΜΑ	51 ΑΡΒΗΛΑ	63 ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑ (ΑΡΕΙΩΝ)	77 ΜΑΡΜΑΡΙΑ			
2 ΙΕΝΑΙ	17 ΔΩΡΙΩΝ	28 ΦΑΣΙΛΙΣ	40 ΓΑΖΑ	52 ΒΑΒΥΛΩΝ	66 ΠΡΟΦΘΑΣΙΑ	78 ΚΥΡΕΙΝΗ			
3 ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΟΠΟΛΙΣ	18 ΚΩΡΥΚΟΣ	29 ΤΕΡΜΗΣΣΟΣ	41 ΠΕΛΟΥΣΙΟΝ	53 ΣΟΥΣΑ	67 ΒΕΣΤΑ	79 ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑ			
4 ΣΤΟΒΟΙ	19 ΣΗΣΤΟΣ	30 ΚΕΛΑΙΝΑΙ	42 ΜΕΜΦΙΣ	54 ΠΕΡΣΕΠΟΛΙΣ	68 ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑ (ΑΡΑΧΩΤΩΝ)	Η ΚΙΛΙΚΙΑ			
5 ΠΛΑΤΑΙ	20 ΑΒΔΗΡΑ	31 ΓΟΡΔΙΕΙΟΝ	43 ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑ	55 ΠΑΣΑΡΓΑΔΑΙ	69 ΟΡΤΟΣΠΑΝΑ	80 ΑΝΔΑΒΑ			
6 ΛΥΚΝΙΔΟΥΣ	ΙΛΙΟΝ	32 ΤΑΡΣΟΣ	44 ΠΑΡΑΙΤΟΝΙΟΝ	56 ΑΠΑΔΑΝΑ	70 ΝΙΚΑΙΑ	81 ΔΥΡΤΑ			
7 ΛΥΓΚΟΣ	21 ΑΡΙΣΒΗ	ΤΑΡΣΟΣ ΟΡΟΣ	45 ΑΜΜΩΝΙΟΝ	57 ΕΠΙΦΑΝΕΙΑ (ΗΕΚΑΤΟΜΠΥΛΟΣ)	71 ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑ	82 ΜΑΣΚΑΒΑ			
8 ΧΑΙΡΩΝΕΙΑ	22 ΠΕΡΚΩΤΗ	ΜΑΛΛΟΣ	46 ΔΑΜΑΣΚΟΣ	58 ΡΑΓΑΙ	72 ΔΡΑΨΑΚΑ	ΒΑΣΙΡΑ			
9 ΘΗΒΑΙ	23 ΓΡΑΝΙΚΟΣ	34 ΙΣΣΟΣ	47 ΒΑΡΔΑΝΙΣ	59 ΧΑΡΑΞ (ΠΥΛΗΝΑΙ)	73 ΑΟΡΝΟΣ	83 ΠΟΡΙΣΜΑΤΑ			
10 ΚΟΡΙΝΘΟΣ	ΣΚΗΨΙΣ	35 ΜΥΡΙΑΝΔΡΟΣ	ΝΙΚΑΙ	60 ΘΑΡΑ	74 ΖΑΡΙΑΣΠΑ	ΠΕΣΣΑΡΑ ΕΜΒΟΛΙΜΑ			
11 ΔΙΟΝ	24 ΣΑΡΔΕΙΣ	36 ΜΑΡΑΘΟΣ	ΚΑΡΡΑΙ	61 ΕΚΑΤΟΜΠΥΛΟΣ	ΒΑΛΧ	84 ΑΟΡΝΟΣ			
12 ΑΜΦΙΠΟΛΙΣ	25 ΕΦΕΣΟΣ	37 ΒΥΒΛΟΣ	ΝΙΝΟΣ	62 ΑΔΡΑΚΑΡΤΑ	75 ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑ ΣΟΓΙΑΝΗ	85 ΤΑΞΙΛΑ			
13 ΑΒΔΗΡΑ	ΜΙΛΗΤΟΣ	38 ΣΙΔΩΝ	48 ΝΙΚΗΦΟΡΙΟΝ	63 ΥΡΚΑΝΙΑ	76 ΝΑΥΤΑΚΑ	86 ΒΟΥΣΕΜΑΙ			
14 ΑΒΔΗΡΑ	ΜΥΛΑΣΑ	39 ΤΥΡΟΣ	49 ΝΙΣΙΒΙΣ	64 ΣΟΥΣΙΑ		87 ΝΙΚΑΙΑ			
15 ΔΙΚΑΙΑ	26 ΑΛΙΚΑΡΝΑΣΣΟΣ		50 ΓΑΥΓΑΜΗΛΑ						

101 ΠΑΣΑΡΓΑΔΑΙ	115 ΑΝΤΙΟΧΕΙΑ	130 ΛΑΜΨΑΚΟΣ	145 ΔΙΑΔΟΧΟΠΟΛΙΣ	160 ΗΡΑΚΛΕΙΑ	171 ΣΥΒΡΥΜΙΝΑ				
102 ΑΠΟΣΤΑΝΑ	116 ΣΕΛΕΥΚΕΙΑ	131 ΑΡΑΔΟΣ	146 ΛΑΟΔΙΚΕΙΑ	161 ΣΥΡΟΣ	172 ΕΚΑΤΟΜΠΥΛΟΣ				
103 ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑ ΥΡΙΑΔΟΣ	117 ΧΕΡΣΟΝΗΣΟΣ	132 ΛΑΟΔΙΚΕΙΑ	147 ΑΝΤΙΟΧΕΙΑ	162 ΧΑΛΚΙΣ	173 ΑΑΡΑΣ				
104 ΠΕΡΓΑΜΟΝ	118 ΛΑΡΙΣΣΑ	133 ΣΕΛΕΥΚΕΙΑ	148 ΠΛΕΙΣΤΑΡΧΕΙΑ	163 ΝΙΚΟΠΟΛΙΣ	174 ΧΑΡΑΣ				
105 ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑ	119 ΔΟΥΡΑ	134 ΠΕΤΡΑ	149 ΣΤΡΑΤΟΝΙΚΕΙΑ	164 ΦΙΛΙΠΠΟΥΠΟΛΙΣ	175 ΨΑΛΙΔΟΝΙΑ				
106 ΣΕΛΕΥΚΕΙΑ	120 ΣΕΛΕΥΚΕΙΑ	135 ΤΥΠΟΣ	150 ΑΡΣΙΝΟΗ	165 ΣΑΜΟΘΡΑΚΗ	176 ΤΡΙΠΟΛΙΣ				
107 ΑΝΤΙΟΧΕΙΑ	121 ΝΙΚΟΠΟΛΙΣ	136 ΔΙΟΝ	151 ΣΙΝΕΥΚΛΙΑ	166 ΘΑΣΣΑΛ	177 ΛΑΟΔΙΚΕΙΑ				
108 ΛΑΟΔΙΚΕΙΑ	122 ΔΑΦΝΗ	137 ΣΚΥΘΟΠΟΛΙΣ	152 ΔΙΟΝ	167 ΕΔΕΣΣΑ	178 ΤΕΜΕΣΣΑ				
109 ΠΤΟΛΕΜΑΙΣ	123 ΑΝΤΙΟΧΕΙΑ	138 ΓΕΡΑΣΑ	153 ΜΕΓΑΛΟΠΟΛΙΣ	168 ΑΝΤΙΟΧΕΙΑ	179 ΣΠΙΝΑΙΟΝΕΙΑ				
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111 ΕΠΙΦΑΝΕΙΑ	125 ΗΡΑΚΛΕΙΑ ΠΟΝΤΙΚΗ	140 ΧΩΜΑΙ ΤΕΙΧΟΣ	155 ΙΑΓΡΑΣΣΟΣ	170 ΦΗΡΑ	181 ΑΛΟΥΣΙΑ				
112 ΝΙΚΟΜΗΔΕΙΑ	126 ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑ	141 ΑΝΤΙΟΧΕΙΑ ΠΑΛΑΙΑ	156 ΚΙΒΥΡΑ	171 ΦΗΡΑ	182 ΑΠΑΜΕΙΑ				
113 ΛΑΟΔΙΚΕΙΑ	127 ΑΡΣΙΝΟΗΣ	142 ΦΙΛΑΔΕΛΦΕΙΑ	157 ΣΑΜΟΘΡΑΚΗ	172 ΣΥΚΡΑΤΙΔΕΙΑ	183 ΑΠΑΜΕΙΑ				
114 ΑΠΑΜΕΙΑ	128 ΝΑΙΟΠΟΛΙΣ	143 ΣΕΒΑΣΤΕΙΑ	158 ΗΡΑΚΛΕΙΑ	173 ΔΙΜΗΤΡΙΑΣ	184 ΑΠΑΜΕΙΑ				
	129 ΕΛΕΥΚΟΒΟΥΛΟΙ	144 ΑΝΤΙΟΧΕΙΑ	159 ΗΡΑΚΛΕΙΑ	174 ΔΙΜΗΤΡΙΑΣ	185 ΑΧΑΙΑ				
					186 ΑΠΑΜΕΙΑ				
					187 ΑΝΤΙΟΧΕΙΑ				
					188 ΕΥΡΟΠΟΣ				
					189 ΣΥΡΙΑ				

Specifically, the work embraces Macedonian history from the Hellenistic Era, when Alexander the Great made it the centre of the world, up through the Byzantine period, until the region was conquered by Slavic powers in the 9th Century AD. While the pictorial and calligraphic attributes are too numerous to list, highlights include: the title with elaborate coloured calligraphy (p. 1); plates bearing portraits of modern Greek nationalist figures relevant to Macedonia (p. 7, and pp. 22-3); map of ancient Macedonia with bibliographic sources (p. 27); double page chart of Hellenistic rulers (pp. 32-3); double page map of Alexander the Great's Empire (pp. 40-1); portraits of Macedonian philosophers (p. 59); map of proto-Byzantine Macedonia (p. 61); stunning gilt and chromolithographed image of a Byzantine saint (p. 84); portraits of Byzantine rulers (p. 85); 4 plates of Macedonian coins (pp. 87-90); and an allegory of Greece rescuing Macedonia from Ottoman rule (p. 107).

The work was published in Leipzig by the Greek boutique publisher, J.D. Nerantzis, employing the signature resplendently colourful and technically advanced form of chromolithography that had developed in that city.

The present work is noted in the title as being 'Project E. Part A', referring to how Petrof catalogued his various historical projects; however, it is a complete, self-contained work in and of itself.

A Note on Rarity

The present work is extremely rare, we can trace only a single institutional example outside of Greece, held by the British Library. It seems that only a small print run was issued of what would have been quite an expensive publication.

Despite the scarcity of original examples, Petrof's *Historical-Ethnological Atlas of Macedonia* remains highly popular today in Greece; two different modern facsimiles were published in 1990s.

Context: Macedonia's Contested Historical Narratives

Importantly, the present work appeared in 1903, when Macedonia was still ruled by the Ottoman Empire, as it had been for over 500 years. The region was incredibly ethnically diverse, with its population made up of ethnic Greek Orthodox Christians, Turkish and Albanian Muslims and Slavic Macedonians and Bulgarians, not to mention many other smaller communities. In the late 19th Century, the Greek, Slavic and Albanian communities came to rebel against Ottoman rule, while fighting amongst each other and against the local Turkish communities. While the Ottomans retained their, albeit loose, de jure sovereignty over Macedonia, by the turn of the 20th century the region was one of the most volatile places on earth. As such, an international coalition sent in troops to keep the peace lest the violence spark a pan-European war.

Each major ethnic group created their own historical narratives that sought to prove that Macedonia rightly belonged to them, as opposed to the other ethnic communities. Greek peoples controlled the region from ancient times until the 9th century, whereupon it was generally dominated by Slavic powers until the Ottoman conquest in the 14th century. As such, there was a vast amount of diverse historical material with which competing narratives could be woven.

In the present work, Petrof endeavours to showcase the period when Macedonia was indisputably dominated by Greeks, highlighted by the incomparable martial achievements of Alexander the Great. He assumed that the overwhelming grandeur of the Ancient Greek and Byzantine eras would be enough to totally overshadow the subsequent history of the regions that was dominated by non-Greek peoples, so anchoring the contemporary Hellenic claim to Macedonia.
As it turned out, following the First Balkan War (October 1912 – May 1913), Macedonia was conquered from the Ottomans by a Greco-Slavic alliance, and the region was divided mainly between Greece and



Serbia, with parts going to Bulgaria and the newly independent Albania (importantly, Greece obtained the largest and most valuable share, the southern half with the great port city of Thessaloniki). Today the region remains divided amongst several nations: North Macedonia, Greece, Bulgaria, Albania, Kosovo and Serbia. While the situation is technically peaceful, strong tensions still remain.

Ioannis Petrof: Greek History through the Eyes of an Eccentric Genius

Ioannis Petrof (1849 – 1922), was born as 'Ivan Petrov' in Moscow to a Russian father and Greek mother. He studied at the Imperial Military Academy in St. Petersburg and gradated as an artillery officer, but soon found that army life was not for him. His true passion was Ancient Greek history, and having come into some family money, in 1875, he quit the military and dedicated himself fulltime to academic pursuits.

In 1882, Petrof moved to Athens where he completely immersed himself in Greek culture. He soon became an ardent Greek nationalist, employing historical research to support Greek irredentism and the notion that the glories of Ancient Greece could be used to inspire the rise of the modern Hellenic state. He acquired one the largest private libraries in Greece and founded the magazine *Anatoli* to promote Greek history and nationalism. He also travelled extensively on lecture tours to other his lands, not only all across Greece, but in other places with large Greek communities, such as Cyprus and Alexandria, Egypt.

An eccentric figure, Petrof always described himself as a "Philhellenist from Moscow", and worked tirelessly on what he called his "projects", obsessive pursuits to create the ultimate historical overview of Greece and its regions. Fluent in many languages, he searched all possible locations for every book, pamphlet, manuscript and newspaper clipping that could inform his research, creating enormous and elaborate manuscript files for each project, which he adorned with his own wonderful artwork and calligraphy. His unpublished original manuscript for his 'project' on Macedonia during the Turkish 'occupation' survives to this day in the collections of the Library of the Hellenic Parliament; it maintains many stylistic similarities to the present work.

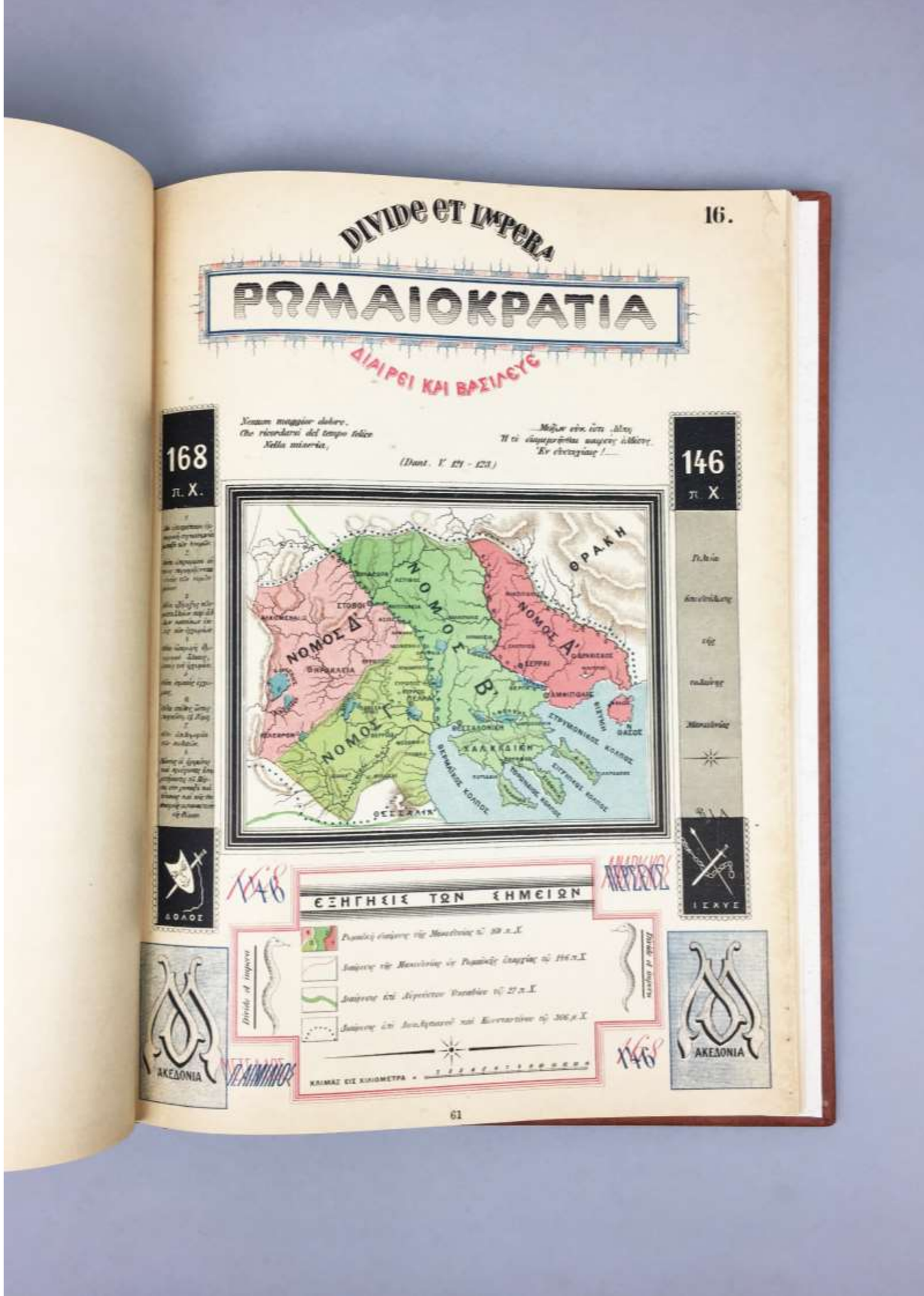
Apart from the present work, Petrof's most prominent published 'projects' was his highly decorative *Ατλας Τον Υπερ Ανεζαρτησιας Ιερο Των Ελληνων Αγωνος* [*Atlas of the Holy Struggle of the Greeks for Independence*] (Leipzig, 1886) and an historical atlas of Crete, *Ατλασ Τησ Μεγαλονησου Κρητησ* (Leipzig, 1887).

While Petrof's research methodology was stellar and thorough, and his artistic ability of considerable virtue, his work often departed from the 'professional' realm due to his eccentric, hyperactive and mercurial character, combined with his extreme nationalism. For instance, he would often completely omit any mention of the presence or accomplishments of non-Hellenic entities, in order to give the impression that the Greeks were only true players in the history of the greater Greek lands. In what might seem humorous to the modern viewer, in his 1886 Greek Independence atlas Petrof often 'omitted' the presence of certain Greek places from his maps, as he considered them to "traitor islands" for either backing the Ottomans or not supporting the Greece revolutionary cause with sufficient vigour.

Petrof was definitely a 'one off' and his richly illustrated works on Greek history are certainly the most original, and amongst the most attractive creations of their era.

References: British Library: General Reference Collection 1853.b. / OCLC: 503680671.

1.600 EUR



16. Greece
New York Greek Imprint
Greek American Immigrants
Balkan Wars



ATLANTIDOS (ATLANTIS) PUBLISHING HOUSE (NEW YORK).

Η ΜΕΓΑΛΗ ΕΛΛΑΣ. / ΧΑΡΤΗΣ ΤΗΣ ΜΕΓΑΛΗΣ ΕΛΛΑΔΟΣ. [Great Greece. / Map of Great Greece].

New York: Phoenix Engraving Co., 1913.

Colour print on thin bank-note paper, folding into original green cloth covers with gilt-debossed title (Very Good, overall clean and bright, just some light wear and tiny holes along some folds, a few very minor repairs from verso to partial fold splits near margins), 96 x 104 cm (38 x 41 inches).

A seemingly unrecorded, large format map that is a visual celebration of the dramatic expansion of Greece's territory in the wake of the Balkan Wars (1912-3), being the birth of the full modern Greek nation; printed in New York for the Atlantidos (Atlantis) Publishing House, which served the fast-growing Greek immigrant community in the United States.

On the eve of World War I, while most of the rest of Europe, and much of the World, was about to slide into the abyss, Greece and ethnic Greek people across the globe were in a celebratory mood. Following

the First Balkan War (October 1912- May 1913), and the resulting Treaty of London (May 30, 1913), Greece had virtually doubled its territory, having conquered most of Macedonia, Epirus, and various Western Aegean islands from the Ottoman Empire, while Crete (which had been a *de facto* part of Greece since 1908) was formally recognized as part of the country (these gains were re-confirmed by Greece's victory in the Second Balkan War, June-July 1913). The Kingdom of Greece was quickly transformed from a rump state into one embracing most of the core regions of Ancient Greece, so seeing the birth of the full modern Greek nation.

Greece's triumph was celebrated by some across the Atlantic with as much enthusiasm as it was at home. By this time, the United States had a large and rapidly growing Greek population. While small Greeks communities had existed in America since the 18th century, economic and political dislocation within Greece and the Ottoman Empire (where most Greeks still resided), created a massive, generation-long wave of Greek immigration to America. In 1890, there were only 15,000 Greeks in the United States, but between that year and 1917, 450,000 Greeks made the move. Most of this wave consisted of unaccompanied men seeking good employment in the United States, with most intending to return to their homeland after saving money for their families back home. Especially as they never intended to stay in America, they remained fixated upon affairs in Greece and were ardently patriotic (as it turned out most of these immigrants would remain in America permanently, and were joined by the families, as they found life more fruitful in America). Especially in the north-eastern U.S. cities, where most of the Greek immigrant communities were concentrated, there developed a srong market for Greek language maps and books, which led to a need to print such works locally, as importing material from Athens or Constantinople was prohibitively expensive.

One of the main entities fulfilling the growing thirst for Greek language works in America was the Atlantidos (*meaning* Atlantis) Publishing House, which operated in New York from around 1900 to the 1930s. Atlantidos issued numerous books and pamphlets on such subjects as contemporary Greek politics, Orthodox Christianity and Ancient Hellenic culture. Most of the works were ephemeral paperbacks, such that they could be affordable to working class people.

The present map is by far and away the most visually impressive work created by Atlantidos and seemingly the grandest Greek language map made in America during its era. A veritable pageant of Hellenic patriotic imagery, the main map shows Greece's newly expanded territory, shaded in golden yellow, embracing most of today's Greece (minus Western Trace, which Greece would acquire in 1920, but plus Northern Epirus, which became a part of Albania). All cities, towns and villages of note are marked, as are major roads and ferry routes (critical in a country with so many islands). Surmounting the map, below the title is the Royal Greek coat of arms, flanked by the portraits of King Constantine I (*reigned* 1913-17 and 1920-22), left, and his Queen Sophia, right, while to their sides are Crown Prince George (later King George II, *reigned* 1922-24 and 1935-47), far left, and his sister, Princess Eleni, far right. On the side panels, the map features designs of a red Greek meander pattern that weaves around 16 monochrome images of scenes from the recent Balkans Wars, plus two decorative blue roundels. On the bottom, the map features a view of Athens flanked by a pair of boxes of text describing 'Ancient Greece' (a powerful inspiration to the modern Hellenic people) and 'New Greece'.

In inset map in the lower left corner of the main map, with its title translating to 'The Extensions of the Kingdom of Greece', shows the modern historic territorial evolution of Greece. For over 500 years what is today Greece was ruled by the Ottoman Empire, which had taken over the realms of the collapsing Byzantine Empire. While the Sublime Porte was for centuries far too powerful to successfully oppose, during the Greek War of Independence (1821-9), Greek patriots, with foreign assistance, managed to gain a sovereign state (internationally recognized in 1830). However, the resulting Kingdom of Greece only included the Peloponnese and the Athens area (being the zone here coloured yellow). In 1864, Britain ceded the Ionian Islands to Greece (dotted purple), while in 1881 Greece acquired Thessaly from the Ottoman Empire (dotted orange); while its massive territorial gains confirmed in 1913, in Macedonia, Epirus Crete and Aegean islands are coloured in green. To the left is another insert which features the Dodecanese islands (Rhodes and neighbouring isles), that had been taken over by Italy from the Ottomans in in 1912, and while claimed by Athens, they would not become part of Greece until 1947. Likewise, the map shows Northern Epirus (the mainland area opposite Corfu) as being a confirmed part of Greece, even though it was held by Albania (which officially gained international title to the region in 1920). The inclusion here of Northern Epirus and the Dodecanese as Greek lands was perhaps a sign of exuberant irredentism.

Atlantidos subcontracted the printing of the present map to the popular New York firm of the Phoenix Engraving Company. Curiously, the map is printed on the same type on thin, bank note, or bond-type paper that was commonly used for New York pocket maps of the period. Unlike most of Atlantidos' productions, the present map was not a cheap piece for working class people, but rather a somewhat expensive item intended to be displayed on walls of Greek cultural centres, church committee rooms, offices, or collected by wealthier members of the community.

The map is seemingly unrecorded, we cannot trace even a reference to it, let alone the location of another example. Indeed, it would have been issued in only a small print run, while the fact that it was printed on such fragile paper would led to a very low survival rate.

Greece's moment of triumph did not last long, as the country got caught up in greater geopolitical events, whereupon its recent success allowed it to become dangerously overconfident. In November 1914, the Ottoman Empire entered World War I on the German side, joining an alliance that included its recent nemesis Bulgaria, while Serbia joined the Entente side. Greece was caught in a difficult predicament. The country's pro-German King Constantine I wanted Greece to remain neutral (while quietly hoping for a Central Powers victory), while its prime minister Eleftherios Venizelos wanted to openly side with the Entente (to hopefully gain further territories from the Ottomans and Bulgaria).

In 1915, the year that the present ap was issued, Britain and France, with Venizelos's blessing, landed an expeditionary force at Thessaloniki, opening up the 'Macedonian' or 'Salonica Front'. In 1916, Greece fractured in pro-Constantine and Venizelist forces, with the latter taking control of most of Northern Greece, including all of Greek Macedonia, and forming the 'Provisional Government of National Defence'. This state of affairs remained until Venizelos and the Entente compelled Constantine I to abdicate in 1917, whereupon Greece was reunited, and formally allied to Britain and France.

In the wake of World War I, the Ottoman Empire was dismembered, and the Entente side gave Greece Western Thrace (the area around Alexandroupoli), and a large chunk of Western Anatolia, including the great city of Smyrna (Izmir). However, during the Greco-Turkish War (1919-22), the veteran former Ottoman General, Mustafa Kemal (later 'Atatürk'), pulled off the impossible and managed to reassemble the battered Turkish remnants of the Ottoman Empire into a disciplined fighting force, driving the Greeks and the Entente forces out of Anatolia altogether, leading to the formation of the Republic of Turkey.

The defeat in the war was a destabilizing national tragedy for Greece, and the complete collapse of the state was only prevented by the intervention of foreign friends and a few clear-headed statesmen. In the

end, the event proved to be something of catharsis, as Greece came to largely accept its limitations and its place in the world, even if its path would not always be smooth.

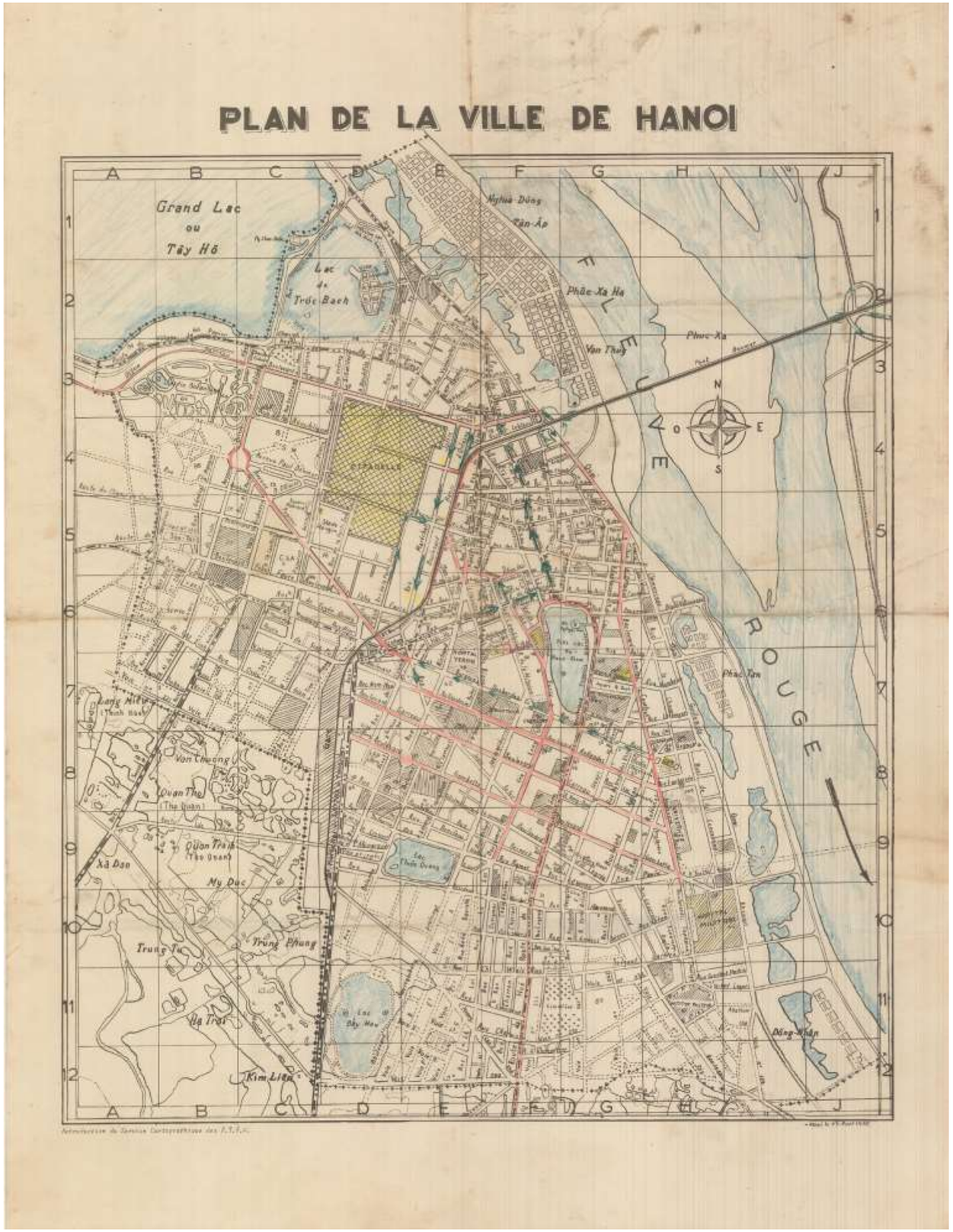
Turning back across the Atlantic, today as many as 3 million Americans claim Greek ancestry, although many have fully integrated into the general society, even if they maintain some traditions, as well as pride in their heritage; only about 350,000 speak Greek at home. Greek Americans are amongst the most economically successful and socially minded communities in the United States had have made enormous contributions to the country well in excess of their share of the population.

References: N/A – map seemingly unrecorded.

1.400 EUR



17. Hanoi, Vietnam
Indochina War (1946- 54)
Hanoi Imprint



SERVICE CARTOGRAPHIQUE DES FORCES TERRESTRES EN EXTRÊME-ORIENT (FTEO).

***Plan De La Ville De Hanoi*.**

Hanoi: Service Cartographique des F.T.E.O., August 13, 1952.

Monochrome photolithograph with contemporary added manuscript colour in crayon, including an itinerary route (slightly stained with soft folds, otherwise in a good condition), 65 x 50 cm (25.6 x 19.7 inches).

A seemingly unrecorded map of Hanoi made during the height of the Indochina War (1946-54), printed locally by the French Far East Expeditionary Corps, the special colonial army formed to maintain French control over Vietnam, the detailed map showcases the city when it had a population of only 150,000 (as opposed to over 8 million today!).

This seemingly unrecorded map was made during the final days of French rule in Vietnam, during the Indochina War (1946-54). It was drafted and published in Hanoi by the *Service Cartographique des Forces Terrestres en Extrême-Orient* (FTEO), the mapping department of the army division of the French Far East Expeditionary Corps, the special armed force created in 1945 to restore and preserve French colonial rule in Indochina.

The detailed map delineates and labels every street, as well as noting all green spaces (such as parks, lakes, etc.), as well as certain major buildings, particularly those of administrative and military

importance. The urban area is shown to extend only to the city limits, which are marked by dashed and crossed lines; amazingly Hanoi then had only around 150,000 inhabitants in the city proper (as opposed to over 8 million today, albeit within enlarged municipal boundaries; the metropolitan area tops 20 million)!

The relatively small, manageable city consisted of two distinct types of zones. The majority of Hanoi, in the south and west, with its grid of neat geometrical patterns of streets are the French Quarters, while the

area in the northeast, by the Red River, with its dense warren of irregular streets, is the old pre-colonial Vietnamese city. Almost all of the streets have French names, and the environment of the much of the French Quarters, with its grand Second Empire and Art Nouveau style buildings, was more reminiscent of Paris than anywhere in Asia.

Of special note is the 'Citadel', coloured in yellow, in the upper centre, which was the bastion of French power in Vietnam. Other key sites include the university, the military hospital, the Institut Pasteur, botanical gardens and the library. The routes of the city's system of electric tramways are marked by dashed lines and many of the main thoroughfares are heightened in manuscript in pink crayon. Interestingly, what appears to be a travel route, leading to the Citadel, is marked by dashed lines of green crayon; perhaps it was the itinerary of a visiting dignitary, as it follows a meandering route perhaps mitigated by security considerations.

We have not been able to trace even a reference to the map, let alone the location of another example. It is an ephemeral piece that seem to have been issued in only a small run for immediate military use; such works have a very low survival rate.

Historical Context: The Twilight of French Rule in Vietnam

France took over Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia in stages over the second half of the 19th century. Hanoi, a former royal seat of the Nguyen Dynasty, was made the capital of French Indochina in 1887. The city was much favoured by the new regime, who lavished vast sums of money, constructing grand edifices and infrastructure to make Hanoi one of the most modern and elegant cities in Asia.

French rule prevailed until Vietnam was invaded and occupied by Japan during World War II. During the conflict, the Viet Minh, a communist armed insurgency group, famously led by the charismatic and brilliant Ho Chi Minh, was formed with the aim of liberating Vietnam from the Japanese, and then the French (in the event that they retuned).

Towards the end of the war, France formed the *Corps Expéditionnaire Français en Extrême-Orient*, or *CEFEO* (French Far East Expeditionary Corps), a special force made up largely of volunteers from the French overseas empire, to restore Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia to Gallic rule. The force usually numbered around 150,000-200,000 troops at any one time, of which a third were Vietnamese, while most of the rest were either North and West Africans, all led by a French officer corps.

Upon the departure of the Japanese in the summer 1945, the French regained control over South Vietnam, while the Viet Minh dominated the north, including Hanoi.

In what became known as the Indochina War (1946-54), France fought the Viet Minh for control of North Vietnam. Initially, the French made headway, taking Hanoi, at the beginning of 1947. However, in what would become a familiar story, the Western power found itself bogged down in a guerilla war in the countryside. The Viet Minh forces launched continuous stealth attacks against the colonial forces, while they gained strength in conventional warfare due to Chinese and Soviet arms shipments.

In the summer of 1952, when the present map was made, Hanoi was an island of French control in a country that was increasingly hostile to their presence. Finally, the Viet Minh dealt the French a decisive defeat at the Battle of Dien Bien Phu (March 13 – May 7, 1954), which caused the complete departure of France from Vietnam.

In what became known as the Vietnam War (1955-75), The Viet Minh later turned their sights upon South Vietnam, then a Western puppet state. In the early 1960s, when the United States prepared to join the war on the side of South Vietnam, the French warned President Kennedy that fighting the Viet Minh was futile. No matter what a Western power did to them or their civilians, Ho Chi Minh's fighters would never give up and would keep fighting ceaselessly until they finally wore the enemy down. This was sage advice…but as we all know, it was not followed!

References: N/A – Map Seemingly Unrecorded.

750 EUR

18. Egypt / Libya
World War I Senussi Campaign
Desert Warfare

Claud Herbert WILLIAMS (1876 - 1970).

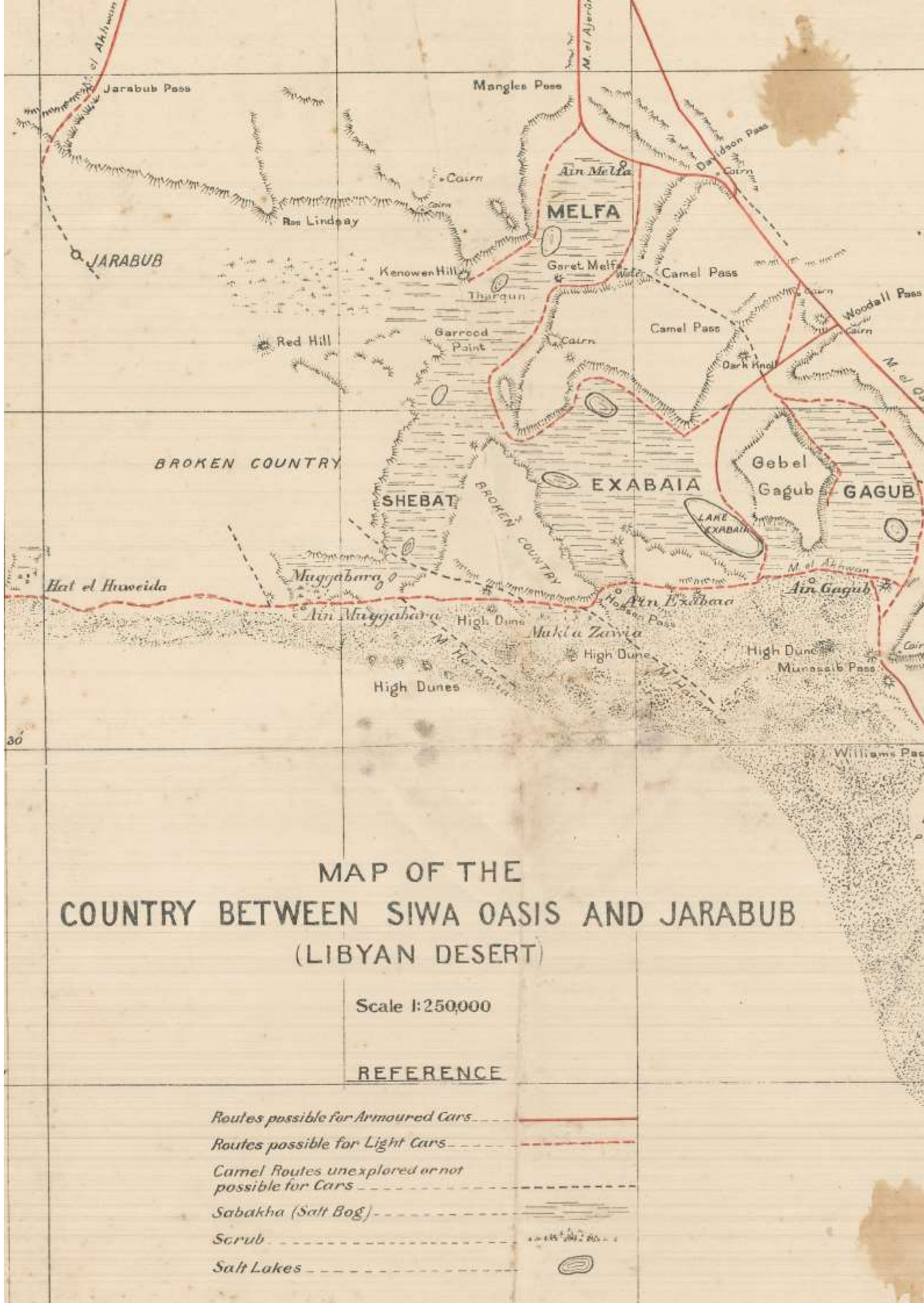
Map of the Country between Siwa Oasis and Jarabub (Libyan Desert).

Cairo: Survey of Egypt, March 1919.

Bi-chrome photolithograph (Good, soft folds, with foxing and staining), 44 x 58 cm (17.3 x 22.8 inches).

A fascinating 'secret' map made in the immediate wake of World War I's Senussi Campaign, when Britain and her Italian allies battled the clever and driven fighters of the Senussi Islamic order for control of the Libyan Desert; the first accurate map of the critical corridor between Jaghbub, the Senussi capital, and the great Siwa Oasis, head of the back route to Cairo, made by Lieutenant Claud Williams, a commander of a 'Light Car Patrol' that revolutionized desert fighting by using converted Ford Model T's (the predecessor to 'dune buggies'); due to the map's extreme military sensitivity, the Survey of Egypt did not issue the map until after the war, and it would not be de-classified until 1963!

The Senussi were a moderate Sufi Islamic order, or clan, founded in 1837 by the Algerian theologian Muhammad ibn Ali as-Senussi. Over the coming decades the Senussi developed a great powerbase in the oases of the Sahara Desert, extending from Algeria to Sudan; however, their core region was in eastern Libya and northwestern Egypt, with their capital at Jaghbub (in Libya just to west of the Egyptian border).



MAP OF THE COUNTRY BETWEEN SIWA OASIS AND JARABUB (LIBYAN DESERT)

Scale 1:250000

REFERENCE

- Routes possible for Armoured Cars
- Routes possible for Light Cars
- Camel Routes unexplored or not possible for Cars
- Sabakha (Salt Bog)
- Scrub
- Salt Lakes

from a plane-table survey made in May and June, 1917, by Capt. C.H. Williams, Int. Pembroke Yeomanry commanding No 5 Light Car Patrol. Based on positions astronomically determined by Dr. Ball, of the Survey of Egypt, in April and May, 1917. (Latitudes by Observation. Longitudes by wireless time-signals from Europe).

Reproduced by the Survey of Egypt March 1918 (16/1484 M.A)

Scale 1:250000

Miles 0 5 10 15 20 25 30 Miles

Kilometres 0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 Kilometres

The Senussi generally had a good relationship with the Ottomans, who ruled Libya, and the Egyptians (from 1882, the Anglo-Egyptian regime), as these powers generally left the order alone, respecting their autonomy. However, from 1902 to 1913, the Senussi battled France as it expanded its sphere into the Sahara and allied themselves with the Ottomans in an effort to keep Italians out of Libya during the Italo-Turkish War (1911-2). While the Senussi failed to prevent the Italian colonization of Libya, they fought bravely against long odds, and managed to retain control over many of their bases in the interior. Relations between the Senussi and the Italians remained acrimonious, as the latter did not respect the order's autonomy, mounting ruthless raids against them.

The outbreak of World War I placed the Senussi in a difficult position, as the Ottomans (who many of Senussi remembered fondly) allied with the Germans, squared off against Britain (with whom the Senussi maintained good relations) allied with Italy (who the Senussi ardently despised). The Ottoman-German side's masterplan was to 'squeeze' Egypt from two sides, as the country was both the British HQ in the Middle East and home to the Suez Canal, the lifeline of the British Empire. The Central Powers hoped to attack the Suez Canal from the east, while convincing the Senussi to mount an insurgency in the west; it was, moreover, hoped that these events would inspire a popular Egyptian rebellion against the British-backed regime in Cairo (which was known not be unpopular). Importantly, Berlin and Istanbul promised the Senussi that they would get rid of all foreign power over the lands, granting them their independence (the Senussi were especially eager to see the backs of the Italians).

Ahmed Sharif as-Senussi, the leader of the order, was easily convinced to join the Ottoman-German side, although his son, Idris (later King Idris of Libya, reigned 1951-69), was known to be personally opposed to fighting Britain, although he reluctantly agreed to abide by his father's decision. The Ottomans sent Nuri Pasha, the half-brother of the Ottoman triumvir Enver Pasha, with a large gift of gold for Ahmed Sharif, while the Germans supplied modern weaponry.

The Senussi were incredibly skilled desert fighters, who quickly adopted Western technology as they saw fit. They could live in the most barren parts of the desert for days on end, with few supplies, and then suddenly appear from nowhere, attacking the enemy, before disappearing like ghosts; tracking them was virtually impossible.

In what became known as the Senussi Campaign, the Senussi invaded Egypt from their desert bases in Libya. Meanwhile, the British, who were understrength (as they sent many troops to Gallipoli and Western Front), were also being attacked by the Ottoman-Germans in the Sinai. They were thus compelled to abandon virtually all of northwestern Egypt to the Senussi. The British High Command in Cairo was presented with a nightmare scenario, as the Ottoman-Germans threated the Suez Canal, while it was believed that the Senussi could sweep through the desert to raid the Nile Valley at any time. Moreover, the British knew that if they showed weakness, the Egyptian people would rebel against them.

However, the British gradually regrouped and received reinforcements from abroad. In the early days of 1916, an allied forced for 40,000 British troops and 70,000 Italians, squared off against only 10,000 Senussi fighters. After several difficult battles and the decisive Action at Agagia (February 26, 1919), the British forced the Senussi out of coastal northwestern Egypt, driving them back to their desert oases.

While this at first seemed like a great victory, in reality, it simply moved the war into the Senussi's home region, whereupon they gained massive strategic advantages. The interior of eastern Libya and Western Egypt was still largely unknown to Europeans. It consisted of a chain impossibly large and fertile oases, separated by tens or hundreds of kilometres of the most forbidding desert, with vast seas of sand and steep escapements with scarcely any supplies of water. The present map depicts the heartland the Senussi domains, the critical corridor between their capital, Jaghbub, and the Girba and Siwa Oases.

While it might at first seem best for the British to simply allow the Senussi to remain unmolested in their isolated desert hideaways, the strategic reality was that the chain of oases that existed from Jaghbub, in the west, all the way east across the desert to the gates of Cairo, represented the perfect steppingstones for a stealth attack upon the Nile Valley.

The British formed the Imperial Camel Corps to fight the Senussi, which largely consisted of Australians and New Zealanders. The problem was that the British camels could not move fast enough to catch the Senussi, while much of the theatre there was out of the range of aircraft. For a time, the British were completely unable to take the fight into the desert.

The solution to the Britons' problems was the invention of the 'light cars', which were specially modified Ford Model Ts. The Model Ts had a high clearance, reliable engines, and could be stripped down to lighten their weight without affecting their performance (they were the predecessor to modern 'dune buggies'). The Camel Corps formed special patrol units of light vehicles to conduct reconnaissance, act as crack forces and to pursue the Senussi deep into the desert. While the light car patrols' operations did not always go as planned, they were the 'game changers' that allowed the British to bring effective warfare to the interior for the first time.

The British objectives were to progressively drive the Senussi for their oases and to, hopefully, capture Ahmed Sharif as-Senussi, which would bring a swift end to the conflict. Meanwhile, the Senussi aimed to mount a guerilla war by drawing the British ever further into the desert, stretching their supply lines, and into cul-de-sacs and ambushes; while they could never hope to defeat them outright, they endeavored to wear them down such that the Senussi would eventually gain the upper hand in diplomatic negotiations.

In October 1916, the British light car patrols compelled the Senussi to abandon their forward base at the Dakhla Oasis, in central Egypt.

Relevant to the present map, in January 1917, the British high command was informed that Ahmed Sharif as-Senussi was encamped at Siwa, with 400 fighters, while another 850 men backing him up at the Girba Oasis, to the northwest, and that his plan was to withdraw to Jaghbub. They decided to strike fast in the hope of decapitating the Senussi leadership.

An Imperial Camel Corps force, led by light armoured vehicles and light armoured batteries (mobile artillery pieces), led Brigadier-General H.W. Hodgson departed Matruh, on the coast, bound for the oases. On February 3, 1917, one of Hodgson's parties, led by light armoured cars, descended upon Girba from the Segga Pass, but failed to catch the Senussi, who were tipped off. On February 4, a larger force of light cars engaged a Senussi force in fierce battle, killing as many as 200 Senussi fighters. However, Ahmed Sharif and the bulk of his force managed to escape to safety in Jaghbub.

At this stage, the British had succeeded in driving the Senussi from Egyptian territory, while at the same time that had turned the tables on the Ottoman-Germans in the east, driving them out of the Sinai and into Palestine. The Senussi had suffered terrible casualties, loosing as many as 20% of the fighters, while their civilian population had endured immense hardship, being forced to continually flee from enemy action.

It was at this juncture that Ahmed Sharif's 26-year-old some Idris took the initiative, mounting a 'soft coup' to assume de facto control of the Senussi order (his father would continue to be the technical

leader until his death in 1933). Idris, who never agreed with the decision to go to war on the Central Powers side, decided to sue for peace on favourable terms. On April 12, 1917, at Acroma, on the Mediterranean coast of Libya, he made peace with the British, and two days later with the Italians. Under the terms, both Britain and Italy agreed to recognize Idris as the Emir of Cyrenaica (Eastern Libya) with full autonomy over his people and his oasis strongholds. In return, he was to recognize Italy's de jure sovereignty over all of Libya, and the authority of the British-backed regime in Egypt.

It was during the beginning of this era of peace in the Libyan Desert that the present map was created.

The Present Map in Focus

Enter Lieutenant Claud Harold Williams (1876 – 1970), formerly a New Zealand farmer who during the Senussi Campaign found himself in charge of a British Light Car Patrol in the deserts of northwestern Egypt. Williams, despite his relative lack of formal training, proved to be a highly skilled desert warrior, a fine cartographer and a keen observer of his environment.

During the recent British attack upon the Girba and Siwa oases, Williams and his colleagues regretted that no maps of any detail or accuracy exited of the area, which caused their operations to go through a great deal of 'trial and error'. As soon as the dust had settled and the peace with the Senussi was signed, Williams was dispatched to make a detailed reconnaissance of the area, for the benefit of possible future campaigns.

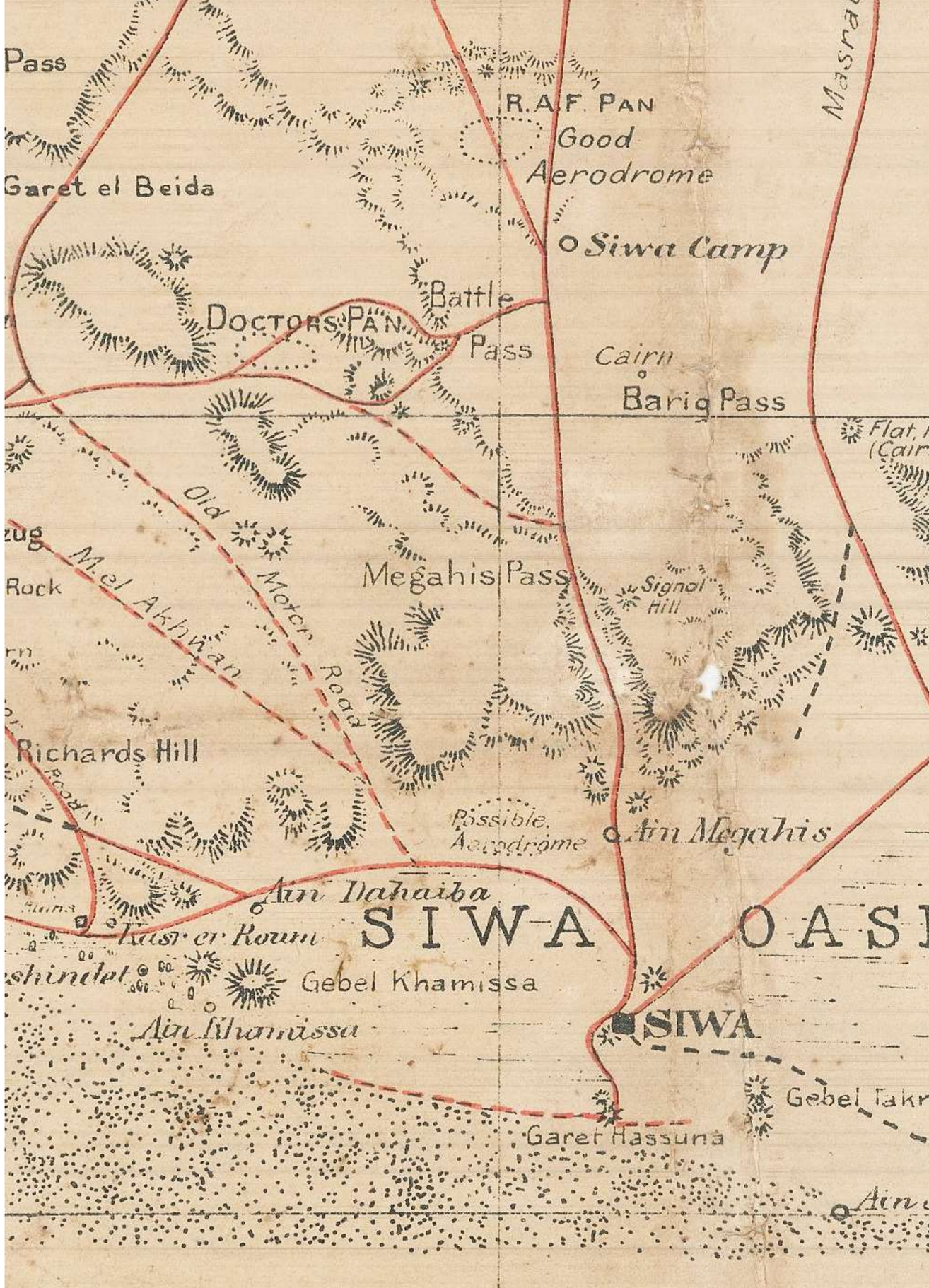
In 1916, before the Girba and Siwa oases become a battle zone, the Survey of Egypt had sent Dr. John Ball to reconnoitre the area, but due to the dangerous conditions, he was limited in what he could achieve. However, his *Military Notes on Western Egypt* (London: Ministry of Defence, 1916) granted Williams a basis upon which to build more refined observations. Ball returned to the area in April 1917 the make some astronomical observations.

In June of 1917, Williams proceeded to draft the manuscript for the present map, based in his battle experiences and his extensive new reconnaissance. The note in the lower left corner explains how the map was prepared:

'From a plane-table Survey made in May and June, 1917, by 2/Lt C H Williams, 1st Pembroke Yeomanry, commanding No. 5 Light Car Patrol. Based on positions astronomically determined by Dr Ball, of the Survey of Egypt, in April and May, 1917. (Latitudes by Observation, Longitudes by wireless time-signals from Europe).'

Especially considering that circumstances did not permit systematic trigonometrical surveys, the map, executed to an ample scale of 1;250,000, is a remarkably impressive work. It extends from 'Jarabub' (Jaghbub), located just inside the Libyan territory (the boundary is not marked here), southwestward to include the Girba and Siwa oases, as far as Lake Zeitoun. The map captures the extreme and forbidding topography of the area, as steep escarpments collapse into the oases and salt deserts, with rocky 'broken country' and sand dunes beyond.

The 'Reference', located below the title, provides the symbols used to identify 'Routes Possible for Armoured Cars' (bold red lines); 'Routes Possible for Light Cars' (intermittent red lines); 'Camel Routes



unexplored or not possible for Cars' (intermittent black lines);white pictographically represented are 'Sabakha (Salt Bog)'; 'Scrub'; and 'Salt Lakes'.

Williams was very thorough with marking the various routes, noting the passes through the escarpments, marking transport corridors of all kinds, and identifying topographical markers for orientation (such as cairns and prominent headlands, etc.), the locations of villages and encampments, as well as the sites of the recent Anglo-Senussi battles. He also noted, is the 'possible' future location of an 'aerodrome' in the Siwa Oasis. The map accurately renders all the information that could possibly be useful to a British patrol on the move.

The map was made to complement Williams' detailed report on the region and on Light Car warfare in general that he submitted the Department of Defense; this work was intended to develop Ball's preliminary report. The map was accompanied by another map by Williams, *Route Map of the North-Western Desert of Egypt* (Cairo: Survey of Egypt, 1919), which presented an overview of the greater region, done to a smaller scale than the present work (this explains why the present map is marked as 'No. 2', while the other map is labeled as 'No. 1').

The British authorities were so concerned by the military sensitivity of Williams' maps and report that they barred them from being published, even in secret, until after the end of World War I. The maps were published by the Survey of Egypt in March 1919 (four months after the end of the war), while Williams written report was issued as the *Report on the Military Geography of the North-Western Desert of Egypt* (London: Ministry of Defence, 1919). The *Report* and the maps, although issued separately from each other, were supposedly meant to be united. Moreover, the Survey of Egypt would have run off a very small number of examples of the maps to be used by the army high command in Cairo, separate from the *Report*.

Importantly, the maps and the *Report* were classified as 'top secret' and would not be declassified until 1963! The regime of secrecy was taken so seriously, that when, some years after the war (but well before 1963), Williams asked the Department of Defense to furnish him with another copy of his own report - his request was denied!

The Department of Defense's concerns were perhaps well founded. During World War II, the Senussi sided with Britain against Germany and Italy. The Libyan-Egyptian frontier become a major battle zone, between the German General Erwin Rommel's famed Afrikakorps and the British Western Desert Force. Rommel's HQ would have loved to have obtained an example of the present map, as no other good map of the area existed. It is worth noting that the Siege of Giarabub (Jaghbub) (December 25, 1940 – March 21, 1941) was fought within the territory depicted on the present map, whereupon the British (perhaps aided by an example of the map – the present example shows signs of field use!) seized the town from the Italians.

A Note on Rarity

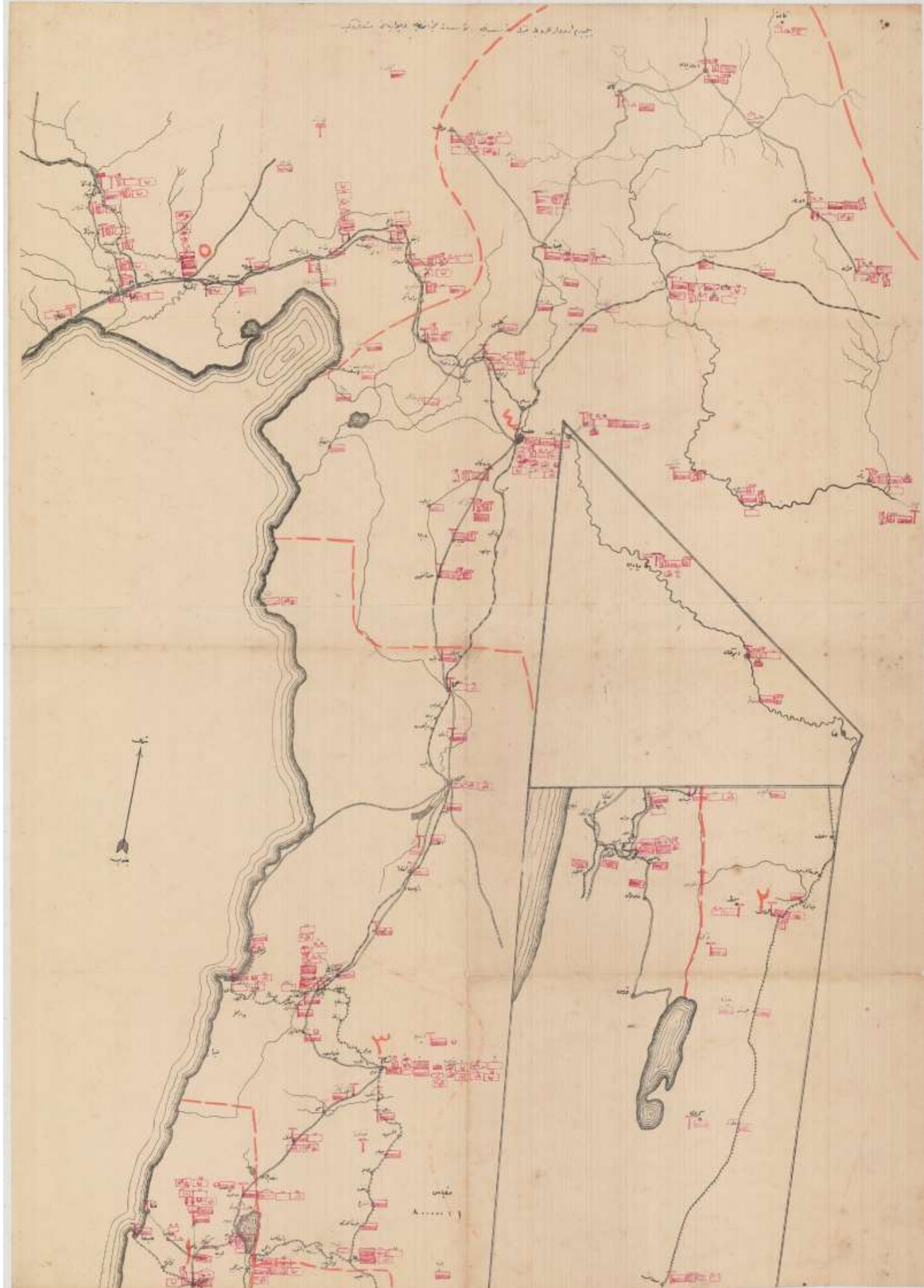
The present map, whether issued separately, or, as a loose-leaf complement to Williams' report, is today exceedingly rare. Due to the regime of secrecy, very few examples would have been issued.

We can trace only two institutional examples of the map, one held as a separate map by the Bodleian Library (Oxford University), and another example inserted within Williams' full report, held by the Victoria University of Wellington (New Zealand).

References: Bodleian Library (Oxford University): E13:4 (8), OCLC: 47174834; (re: Williams' original complete report with present map) Victoria University of Wellington (New Zealand): JC Beaglehole Room UA995 E32 W722 R., OCLC: 156756368. Cf. John BALL, *Military Notes on Western Egypt* (London: Ministry of Defence, 1916); Claud H. WILLIAMS, *Report on the Military Geography of the North-Western Desert of Egypt* (London: Ministry of Defence, 1919); Claud WILLIAMS, ed. by Russell MCGUIRK, *Light Car Patrols 1916-19: War and Exploration in Egypt and Libya with the Model T Ford* (Silphium Press for the Royal Geographic Society, 2016), p. vii (with the present map reproduced and folded into back pocket).

950 EUR

19. WWI Middle East
Syria / Israel / Palestine
Jordan / Lebanon / Turkey
Army Field Medicine
Yildirim Army Group / ‘Pursuit To Haritan’



YILDIRIM ARMY GROUP HIGH COMMAND.

بيلديرم اردولر عروبو منزل مؤسستيله مؤسساته صٰحيه انسانيه و حيوانيهسنى

[“Yıldırım ordular grubu menzil muessesatıyla muessesat-ı sıhhiye-i insaniye ve hayvaniyesini...” / “The Yıldırım Army Group Bases showing Health Stations for People and Animals…”].

[*Perhaps* Damascus, Spring-Summer 1918].

Monochrome lithographed template contemporary overlaid with numerous red handstamps denoting symbols, with contemporary manuscript addition of the title in black pen, some place names added in pencil and military districts defined in orange crayon, on thick paper (Very Good, overall clean, some wear and light toning and staining along old folds, contemporary tack marks to corners), 78 x 55.5 cm (30.5 x 22 inches).

An extraordinary, unique map of the Levant made for the high command of the Yıldırım (‘Thunderbolt’) Army Group, a recently formed elite Ottoman-German force, made during the Spring-Summer 1918, just before the Ottomans’ ‘last stand’ in World War I; the work overlaid upon a black skeletal map of the Levant, curiously employs red handstamped symbols to locate numerous Ottoman army bases, centres for medical and

veterinary services, troop detachments, munitions supplies, as well as communications and transportation services, featuring numerous manuscript additions, likely made in Damascus to be displayed at army HQs.

This intriguing and unique map of the Levant was made in the Spring or Summer of 1918, just in advance of the Ottomans' 'last stand' in World War I and was created for the high command of the Yıldırım Army Group, a recently formed elite Ottoman-German force serving in the Palestine Campaign. The large format, separately issued map, entitled in manuscript, "The Yıldırım Army Group Bases showing Health Stations for People and Animals…", consists of three scenes, being a main map, and two insets, of which all aspects are built upon the template of a black skeletal map which outlines basic topographical features, names key cities and towns, and details transportation routes. The main map embraces the coastal Northern Levant and southcentral Anatolia, from Haifa (today in Israel) and Dera'a (Syria), in the south, and then as far north as Adana, in today's Turkey; in between are the major centres of Damascus, Beirut, Tripoli, Homs, Aleppo and Iskenderun. The inset in the lower right extends the coverage southward, as far as Ma'an (Jordan), and includes Jerusalem, the Dead Sea, Amman and Nablus. Above, the third inset, embraces eastern Syria, notably the Euphrates Valley, including Deir ez-Zor. Of note the black template labels all major roads and, most importantly, the railway system which was the lifeblood of the Central Powers' operations. These delineated lines include a key stretch of the Baghdad Railway, in the north; the rail line down from there to Damascus; the Damascus-Beirut Railway; the northern part of the Hejaz Railway; and the Jezreel Valley Railway, connecting Dera'a to Haifa. The underlying map template, which is printed upon thick paper, could have been made almost anywhere, but likely either in Istanbul or Damascus.

Overlaying the black map template are a series of red handstamps and manuscript additions, perhaps added in Damascus, for the Yıldırım Army Group high command. First, the dashed lines and numbering in orange crayon divide the region into 5 military zones. However, the dominant feature of the map are the copious clusters of red handstamps placed at virtually every major city and town, representing numerous different symbols for the locations of Ottoman army hospitals, veterinary clinics (for cavalry), as well as the locations of barracks, troop placements, munitions supplies and the services available to Ottoman and German forces (including post offices, telegraph offices, mechanics' garages, petroleum depots, etc.). The map's emphasis on medical and veterinary services are features not often seen on military maps, even though they were always necessary factors in maintaining military success.

Featuring highly sensitive, secret information, the map was clearly designed to have been hung on the walls of an Ottoman Army HQ (it even sports tack marks in the corners) for strategic consultation by senior officers. It is brilliantly successful in conveying a vast amount of sophisticated information in a simple and easily digestible fashion, ideal for guiding those who had to make quick decisions under high pressure. Additionally, in manuscript, the map labels several additional towns that are not present upon the template.

The Yıldırım ('Thunderbolt') Army Group was a special elite force of the Ottoman Army formed in June 1917, just after the war in the Levant had turned strongly against the Central Powers. It had a joint Ottoman-German command structure and included the highly competent German 'Asia Corps'. The best and most experienced commanders were charged with leading the force, which included many crack troops trained in infiltration tactics, supplied with the latest close-combat weapons and backed by modern heavy artillery. Comprised of 150,000 troops, the Yıldırım Army was intended to turbo-charge the Ottoman defense of Palestine, and while ultimately unsuccessful, it succeeded in greatly hindering the progress of the British forces. The force was initially led by Field Marshall Eric von Falkenhayn, the former Prussian War Minister, but in February 1918, he was replaced by General Otto Liman von Sanders, a respected veteran of the Gallipoli Campaign; the present map was made under Sanders' watch. The army was led in its final days by General Mustafa Kemal Pasha (later known as '*Atatürk*', the founding President of Turkey) when it mounted the Ottomans' last stand in World War I in the Levant.

We have come across literally hundreds of World War I military maps, both in the trade and in institutional collections, but we have never encountered a map anything like this, in terms of its design and mode of production. Perhaps a handful of examples of the map were made (with each being slightly different from each other), although it is more than likely that this is only survivor, as almost all such ephemeral wartime wall maps perished.

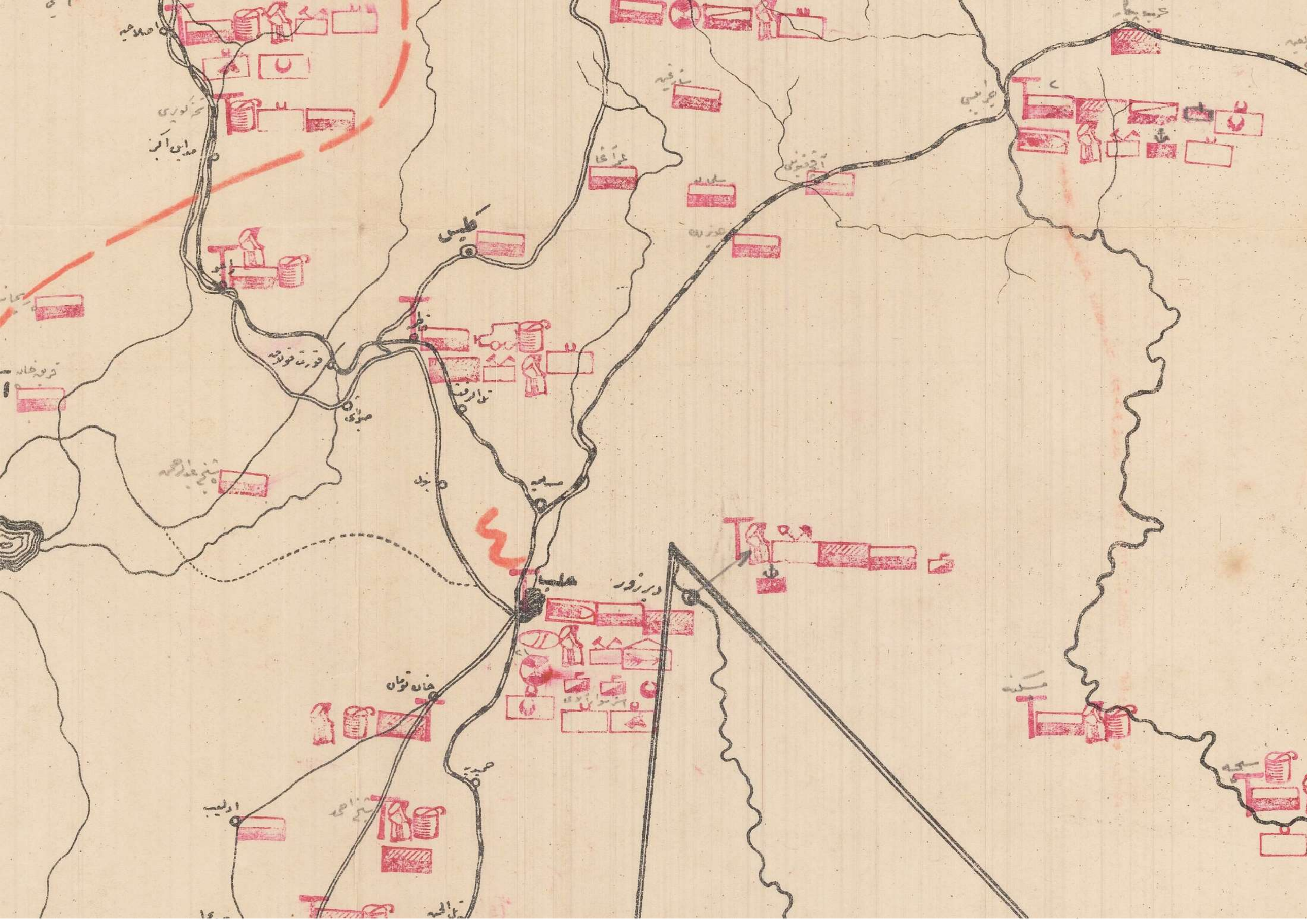
While the map is not dated, its place in the chronology of the war can be determined by the red handstamped details on the map. First, the map only shows the Ottoman positions as extending in Palestine only as far south as the Judean Hills. This indicates that the map postdated the British capture of Jerusalem in December 1917. Also, the map shows no Ottoman positions to the immediate north and east of Jerusalem suggesting that the map dated from after March 1918, when the British managed to gain control of that area. The concentration of Ottoman positions and the seeming 'line of control' as running through the Judean Hills, to south Nablus, and down the Jordan River (the Ottomans retained control of Transjordan until very late in the war), indicates that the present map was made in the spring or summer of 1918, when the Ottoman-German and British positions in Palestine were deadlocked. Indeed, the Central Powers defensive positions in the Judean Hills were so formidable, that despite constant herculean efforts, the British were unable to progress for six months.

The deadlock in the Judean Hills was only resolved by the momentous British victory at the Battle of Megiddo (September 19-25, 1918), the 'Breakthrough at Nablus', following which the Entente forces (the British and their Arab allies) invaded Syria and Lebanon. This set up the final act of World War I in the Levant, the 'Pursuit to Haritan', the flight of the Ottoman forces, moving just ahead of the British, all the way to a town in northern Syria, whereupon the end of hostilities was declared on October 30, 1918.

The Ottomans' Last Stand: WWI in the Levant and the 'Pursuit to Haritan'

During World War I, the Levant and Egypt were considered to be strategically critical for both sides. Britain had to defend the Suez Canal, the lifeline of its empire, while Palestine, Lebanon and Syria, mainly populated by Arabs who resented the sultan's rule, were seen to comprise the 'soft underbelly' of the Ottoman Empire, as well as providing the bridgehead between Turkey and the Arabian Peninsula and the holiest cities of Islam (Mecca and Medina).

In this theatre, the British Imperial forces, headquartered in Cairo, assumed the form of the Egyptian Expeditionary Force (EEF). The Central Powers side, headquartered in Damascus, was dominated by Ottoman Troops, but had a mixed Turkish-German command structure. For much of the war, this force was dominated by the Ottoman Fourth Army, technically led the Djemal Pasha, one of the 'Young Turk' triumvirs, although it was commanded in the field by the German Colonel Kress von Kressenstein. Laterally, and relevant to the present map, the Central Powers reenforced their effort upon the formation


حلب
دير زور
حماه
حمص
طرطوس
اللاذقية
ادلب
الرقة
تل الحصى
القامشلي
الحسكة
عين العرب
منبج
الباب
جرابلس
اعزاز
عفرين
تل رفعت
سلمية
السفيرة
مسكنة

(in June 1917) of the Yıldırım ('Thunderbolt') Army Group, which featured well-armed crack troops and was led successively by the former Prussian War Minister, Field Marshal Eric von Falkenhayn, and the famed Gallipoli veterans, the German General Liman von Sanders and General Mustafa Kemal Pasha ('*Atatürk*').

For the first two years of the war, the Ottoman-German side was generally on the offensive, terrifying the British by invading the Sinai and mounting two (albeit unsuccessful) assaults upon the Suez Canal.

However, in 1916, the British were gradually able to improve their performance in Egypt. Meanwhile, the Arab Revolt (June 1916 – October 1918), in which forces loyal to the Sharif of Mecca, advised by 'Lawrence of Arabia', mounted an insurgency against the Ottomans in Hejaz and Transjordan, began to sap the Sublime Porte's strength and their authority in the Arab World.

By the beginning of 1917, the EEF had turned the tables, crossing onto Palestine and, albeit with difficulty, taking Jerusalem in December of that year.

However, the EEF seen lost its momentum, as it was compelled to send thousands of troops to the Western Front to counter a great German offensive. Despite valiant efforts, they became bogged down fighting in the Judean Hills and failed on two separate occasions to open up a new front by invading Transjordan in the Spring of 1918. However, the Ottoman-German side was worn down by the attacks and began to suffer from supply shortages.

The present map was made during the stalemate period, in the spring or summer of 1918, and graphically illustrates how the strong concentration of Ottoman forces in the Northern Levant would have discouraged the northward progress of British forces.

The gridlock was only shattered by the Battle of Megiddo, the 'Breakthrough at Nablus' (September 19-25, 1918), whereupon a force of 70,000 British Imperial troops, under General Edmund Allenby, backed by over 4,000 warriors loyal to Emir Faisal of Hejaz, broke the lines of an Ottoman force of 35,000 troops commanded by Liman von Sanders.

In the wake of Megiddo, the EEF and their Hejazi allies embarked upon a campaign to conquer Syria and Lebanon in anticipation of the end of the war; such an achievement would strengthen the Entente's leverage in any post-war settlement.

In what became known as the 'Pursuit to Haritan' the British-Hejazi forces chased the Ottoman *Yıldırım* Army and their allied detachments as they retreated northwards. The Entente forces mounted their offensive in two prongs, one departed from Haifa along the coast, on September 29, while the other would attempt to conquer Damascus (the headquarters of the Ottoman-German forces in the Levant and Arabia), before moving north through the interior, up the Beqaa Valley, and then over to Homs, Hama and Aleppo.

The Entente forces captured Damascus on October 1, 1918, just after the *Ottoman-Germans* beat a hasty retreat northward. Lawrence of Arabia, who was part of the conquering force, was disappointed not to have been amongst the first Entente troops to enter the city, especially as he envisaged Damascus as the future capital of an independent and unified Arab state.

Deploying from Damascus on October 3, the interior offensive forces entered Baalbek, in the Beqaa Valley, on October 10, after the town had been abandoned by the Ottomans. Next, the Entente forces briefly besieged Homs, taking the city on October 16. From there it was considered fairly easy running towards Aleppo.

Meanwhile, the Entente force's coastal campaign made short work of conquering Lebanon, encountered only very light resistance. They took Beirut on October 10, and Tripoli three days later. After consolidating their gains, the coastal force was able to re-enforce the inland Entente armies. The scene was now set for the attack on Aleppo.

Aleppo was considered to be the ultimate strategic prize in the Levant. With its famous ancient bazaar, Aleppo, with a population of 150,000, was the gateway to the heart of the Ottoman Empire. It was also in close proximity to the vital railway junction at Mouslimie Station, where the Levant-Hejaz railway system linked up with the Baghdad Railway, both systems being the main arteries of the Central Powers' war effort in the Middle East.

Aleppo was defenced by two Yıldırım Army divisions, one led by Nehen Pasha, and the other by Mustafa Kemal Pasha. Unfortunately for the defenders, they had only 7,000 troops at the disposal, as most of the Ottoman forces had withdrawn further to the north.

On October 23, the British commanders asked Mustafa Kemal Pasha to surrender the city, in return for favourable terms. This was refused.

On October 25, the forces of Emir Faisal of Hejaz took the initiative, mounting a daytime attack, but this was repulsed. However, the Hejazi forces executed another attack on the night of October 25-26, which caught the Ottomans on the back foot, and Aleppo fell, although only after hours of brutal street-by-street, hand-to-hand combat.

Mustafa Kemal Pasha's force held at Haritan, today commonly known in English as Hraytan. On October 26, in what became known as the 'Charge at Hartian', Indian detachments of the EEF, the Jodhpore and Mysore Lancer Regiments, made what at first seemed like a rash frontal attack upon the Ottoman lines (they were far outnumbered), and the attack was repulsed. The Indians tried again and were, once again, pushed back. However, while unsuccessful in and of itself, the frontal attacks proved strategically successful, as the following night they compelled Kemal to withdraw his force to Deir el Jemel, 32 km away from Aleppo, giving the Entente forces some valuable breathing room. Importantly, the Charge at Haritan was the last significant military action fought in the Levant during World War I.

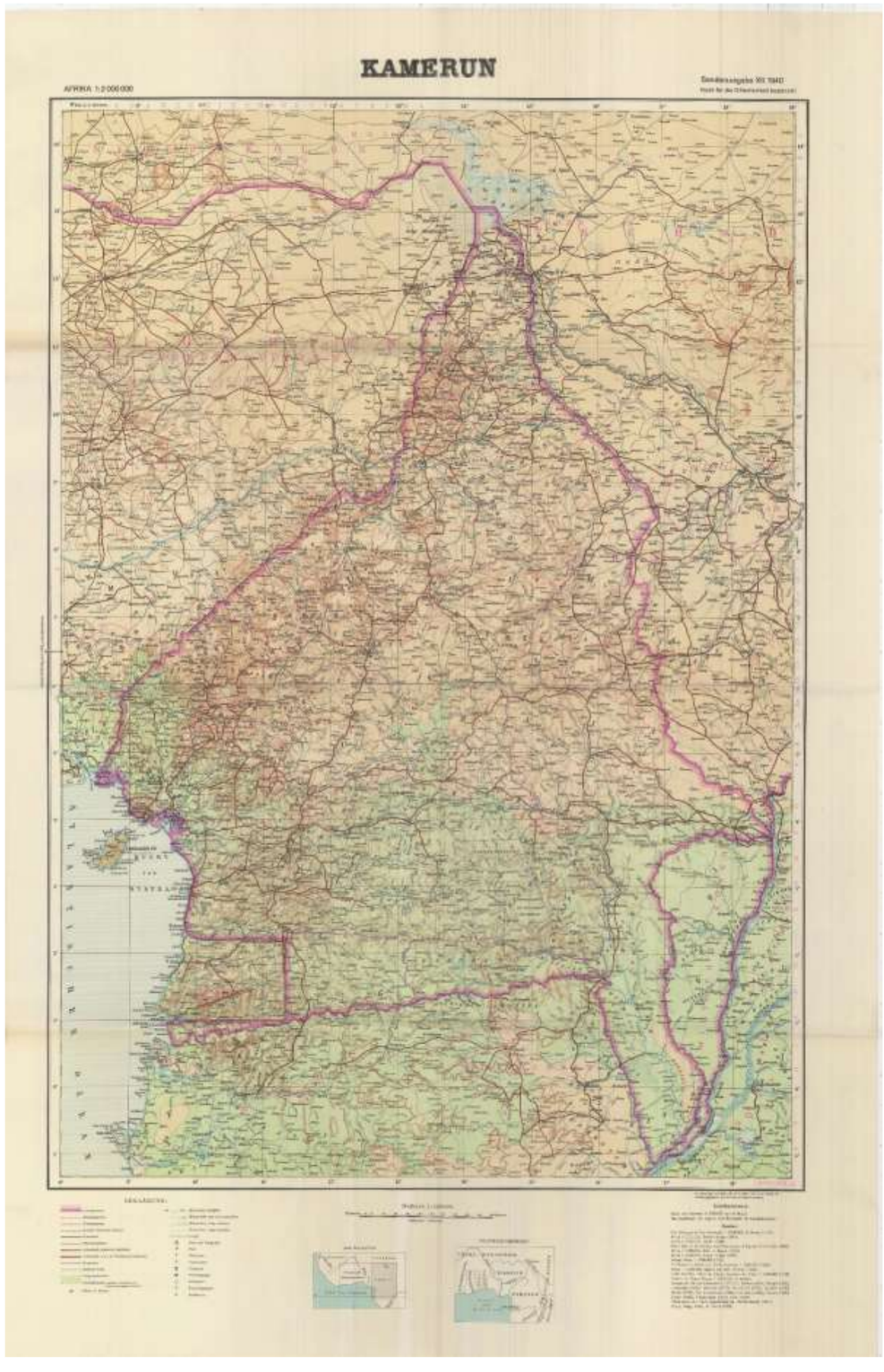
On October 29, Hejazi forces took control of the vital railway junction at Mouslimie Station, so cutting all contact between Istanbul and the Ottoman forces in Iraq (as the railway was paired with the telegraph lines).

As it turned out, delegates representing the Sublime Porte and Britain signed the Armistice of Mudros (October 30, 1918), which formally ended the Ottoman's participation in World War I. It also ensured the collapse of the Ottoman Empire and the birth of the modern Middle East and the Republic of Turkey.

References: N/A – Map is an Unrecorded, Unique Item.

2.200 EUR

20. Cameroon / ‘Grand Kamerun’
WWII Nazi Designs In Africa
Intellectual Propaganda



HEER GENERALSTAB (DEUTHCHES REICH) / ARMY GENERAL STAFF (NAZI GERMANY):

Kamerun / Afrika 1:2 000 000 / Sonderausg. XII.1940.

Berlin: Generalstab Des Heeres - Abteilung für Kriegskarten und Vermessungswesen, December 1940.

Colour print (Excellent condition, remarkably, clean, crisp and bright, original folds, only a tiny repaired tear in blank lower left margin), 110 x 71 cm (28 x 43.5 inches).

An extremely rare, separately issued, large format map of Cameroon, curiously showing it in the enlarged form as ‘Grand Kamerun’ that it embodied during the final years of German colonial rule, just before the country was conquered and divided between Britain and France during World War I; the present map was issued by the German Army General Staff during the early part of World War II asa work of ‘intellectual propaganda’ to advance a serious, but ultimately ill-fated, Nazi scheme to regain Germany’s former colonial possessions in Africa.

The present map is one of the great ‘irredentist’ maps of Africa; made by the General Staff of the Nazi German Army in 1940, early in World War II. It depicts ‘Grand Kamerun’, as the German colony was enlarged in 1911, that consisted of all of modern Cameroon, plus, parts so today’s Chad, Central African Republic, the Republic of Congo and Gabon. Germany controlled this vast realm until it was conquered by Britain and France in 1916, during World War I, after a tough contest. After the war, Grand Kamerun was divided between Britain and France, which ruled these territories as League of Nations mandates.

In the 1930s, elements of the Nazi hierarchy became wedded to the ideal of seeking the return of Germany's former African colonies, including Grand Kamerun, to the 'Vaterland'. During the early part of World War II, when the present map was made (which shows Grand Kamerun to still be a reality!), they hoped to leverage 'going easy' on Britain in exchange for certain concessions, including the return of the lost colonies. While this never came about in the end, when the present map was made the notion was still considered by many to be a serious possibility.

The present map was made by the special printing house of the General Staff of the Nazi German Army in Berlin, the *Abteilung für Kriegskarten und Vermessungswesen* (War Maps and Surveying Department), in December 1940, when the notion of Germany regaining Grand Kamerun was on the table.

Indeed, while the map appears, at first blush, to be a formal military topographical survey (it certainly meets the high scientific standards of that purpose), in reality, it is a work of 'intellectual propaganda', that seeks to show a revived German-controlled Grand Kamerun as matter of destiny. Yet, despite the fact that the map bears the note 'Nur für öffentlicher bestimmt!' (Only intended for public use!), in the upper right corner, in reality the map would have been made in only a very small print run to lobby members of the Nazi hierarchy; there is no evidence to suggest that the map was ever publicly distributed.

The map depicts Grand Kamerun and its adjacent colonies to an ample scale of 1:2,000,000 and shows the boundaries of the colony in bold pink and purple double-shaded lanes, implying that this was still the legitimate form of the colony, despite Britain and France's 'interventions' for over the last two decades.

The map is highly detailed and accurate, apart from its revisionist political aspects, and shows the infrastructure updated to the present day. The 'Erklärung' (Explanation), in the lower left margin, identifies the symbols used for boundaries (noting the 'Mandatsgrenze' the actual borders of the day, but only in subtle lines!); roads of various kinds; railways; telegraph lines; waterways, post offices; telegraph offices; radios stations; airfields; seaplane landing sites; and lighthouses.

The heading 'Grundkartenwerk' (Base Map), in the lower right margin, identifies

Max Moisel's superb map, *Kamerun mit Togo 1:2 000 000. Bearbeitet von Max Moisel* (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer, 1913), as the template upon which the present work is built. Below, the 'Quellen' (Sources) lists the numerous German French, Belgian and British maps, dating from 1914 to 1938, which were used to update the present map from Moisel's base.

In the lower centre margin, the cartographic inset, 'Lage des Blattes' (Location of Sheets), shows that while the present map is complete in and of itself, it links up to another map that the Nazis made in 1940, 'Togo und Nachbärlander', showing Togo, the other former German colony in West Africa, along with its neighbours. To the left, is the 'Politische Übersicht' (Political Overview), showing Grand Kamerun's place in the context of its surroundings.

A Note on Rarity

The present map is extremely rare. We can trace only a single institutional example, held by the Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin, while we are not aware of any sales records.

The map's great rarity is due the fact that it would have been made in only a handful of examples used in rarified Nazi circles, and being large and fragile, it would have had a very low survival rate. It is thus remarkable that the present example of the map comes down in almost perfect condition.

Nazi Designs in Africa: The Last Chapter of 'Grand Kamerun'

In the 1880s, following the 'Scramble for Africa', Germany acquired a large colonial empire in Africa, which consisted of Kamerun (Cameroon), Togoland (modern Togo), Deutsch-Südwest-Afrika (Namibia) and Deutsch-Ostafrika (modern mainland Tanzania, Rwanda and Burundi).

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

For around three decades, Germany's Kamerun played a key role in the country's global trading economy, while the German presence had a profound effect upon its native peoples, while transforming the landscape (through the building of railways, plantations, etc.).

Kamerun eventually became a major focus of geopolitics. Cameroon's governor, Otto Geim, believed that the colony's development was severely hindered by the lack of access to the interior, a problem that the building of railroads could only partially remedy. He reasoned that the colony needed access to the great partly navigable interior rivers, the Congo and Ubangi, that ran though French and Belgian territory to the east and south of Cameroon. Gleim managed to convince the German foreign minister, Alfred von Kiderlen-Waechter, to cash in some major diplomatic chits to convince France to cede massive territories to Cameroon's east and south.

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

During World War I, conquering Germany's African colonies was a priority for Britain and her allies. In what became known as the Kamerun Campaign (August 6, 1914 to March 10, 1916), Britain invaded Kamerun from Nigeria, France moved in from Gabon and Chad, while the Belgians provided support from the Congo. While the German *Schutztruppe* (Protection Force) that defended Kamerun was severely outnumbered, for the better part of two years they managed to put up a good fight, at times even taking the offensive.

However, the Entente forces eventually overcame the Germans, conquering all of Grand Kamerun. Yet, the skill and bravery of the Schutztruppe was a rare source of pride for Germany in the context of a war was an unprecedented disaster for the country.

The Treaty of Versailles (1919) saw Germany lose all her colonies, which were divided between British and French trusteeship. The legality of the loss of Germany's African colonies, including Grand Kamerun, was questioned by many Germans, most of all those affiliated with the DKG, who still referred to these lands as 'German colonies' and longed for the day when they could regain possession of these lands, either through diplomacy or force.

Upon the rise of the Nazi regime in 1933, Adolf Hitler and his top lieutenants were not especially sympathetic to the notion of regaining the African colonies. They were far more interested in projecting German power in Europe, and saw the African ambitions as an unnecessary, and potentially costly, distraction.

However, many of Hitler's key backers, especially in the business community, were great enthusiasts of Germany regaining its 'place in the sun'. In addition to any symbolic significance, reacquiring the German African colonies would give the military-industrial complex access to vital minerals and tropical resources that were otherwise in short supply. While Hitler was never keen, their lobbying eventually succeeded in raising the colonial question to a high place on the Third Reich's agenda.

In 1937, the Nazis created the Reichskolonialbund (RKB) (English: State Colonial League), a an organization whose mandate was to "keep the population informed about the loss of the German Imperial colonies, to maintain contact with the former colonial territories and to create conditions in opinion favourable to a new German African Empire". Led by old African hands, the RKB was highly influential in Nazi industrial and academic circles.

Following Neville Chamberlain's complete capitulation to the Nazis at the Munich Conference (1938), many in Berlin believed that Britain, and by extension France, could be badgered into agreeing to virtually any diplomatic concession, in return for not having to face the German war machine. The RKB proposed that Germany should request that Britain and France return all of Germany's African colonies in return for continued peace. While no formal German demands of this kind were ever made, the notion was seriously entertained at the highest levels.

The outbreak of World War II only seemed to strengthen the hand of German colonial interests, as Britain and France looked pathetically weak, with many believing that the Entente forces could be either quickly vanquished or forced into a peace on terms heavily favouring Germany, including the return of its former African colonies.

In preparation of the possible German return of its former African colonies, the RKB realized that it needed up-to-date intelligence on the situation on the ground in the African lands in question. Germany had relatively little knowledge of affairs within the Belgian Congo and much had changed in the twenty years or so since they left their own colonies.

It formed the Nationalsozialistischer Bund Deutscher Technik. Arbeitsgruppe "Kolonialstrassenbau" (National Socialist Federation of German Technology, Working Group "Colonial Road Construction") to gain an advanced assessment of the state of roads in the target colonies. The bureau was led by Dr. Ernst W. Goerner (1901–1991), a highly esteemed transportation engineer and one of the fathers of Germany's autobahns, the world's first system of modern freeways. The Arbeitsgruppe would have played a major in in assisting the cartographers at the German Army General Staff's *Abteilung für Kriegskarten und Vermessungswesen* in creating the present map.

The hopes of the German Africa lobby were raised when the Wehrmacht totally rolled over Belgium and France during the Blitzkrieg invasions of these countries (May 10 to June 25, 1940). However, colonial concerns were crowded out in the frenzy that followed the victory, along with Germany's failure to break Churchill's resolve at the Battle of Britain (July 10 to October 31, 1940).

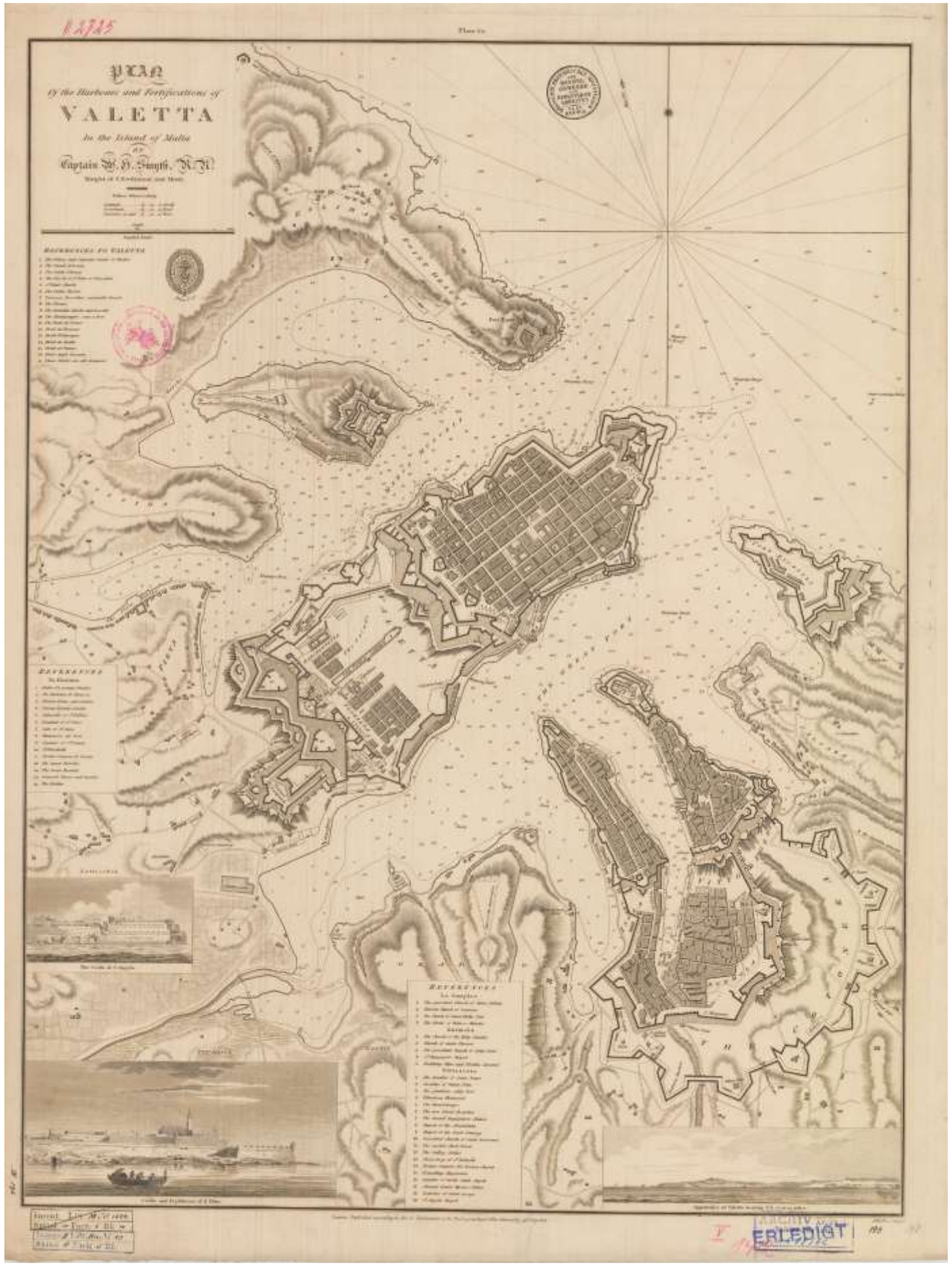
In 1941, Germany became embroiled in its ultimately disastrous invasion of the Soviet Union, and this killed any practical notion of Germany regaining her colonies. It was clear that Britain would not made any diplomatic settlement with Nazi Germany, including allowing Cameroon to be ceded to Berlin, while Germany no longer possessed the military resources, let alone will, to take the colony by force.

Germany's African ambitions were officially extinguished in 1943 when Martin Bornmann dissolved the Reichskolonialbund, deeming its purpose to be of "kriegsunwichtiger Tätigkeit" (an "activity irrelevant to the war"). Grand Kamerun was thus irrevocably consigned to the realm of history.

References: Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin: 2 K 8852, OCLC: 837500201.

650 EUR

21. Malta
Valletta



Lieutenant R.H. Smyth

Plan of the Harbours and Fortifications of Valetta In the Island of Malta By Captain W. H. Smith, R.N. Knight of St. Ferdinand and Merit.

London: Hydrographical Office Admirality 1823

Copper engraving, 50 x 67 cm (inches) (minor age-toning and staining, old stamps and inventory numbers and a stamp Erledigt (meaning ‘Deaccessioned’).

A detailed map of Valletta with in-set views of Castle of San Angelo and the Castle and Lighthouse of San Elmo was drafted by lieutenant R.H. Smyth, who based in Sicily, surveyed the coasts of Italy and Africa in 1815, following the Napoleonic wars.

Provenience

The present chart bears the handstamps of Deutsches Hydrographisches Institut (German Hydrographical Institute) in Hamburg, where in 1945, following the end of World War II, the Kiel and Wilhelmshaven map libraries were moved and merged into the archive of the newly-formed institute. The Institut was the successor of the Norddeutsche Seewarte (North German Naval Observatory), and henceforth became the main library of the West German Navy. The present chart features the handstamp of the Institut, near the title, as well as, in the bottom margin, an ‘Archiv D.H.I.’ handstamp over-stamped with the word ‘Erledigt’ (meaning ‘Deaccessioned’), and well another D.H.I. handstamp labelling chart as a ‘Doppel (Ausleiheexemplar)’, meaning ‘Duplicate’ and ‘Loan Copy’, also over-stamped with ‘Erledigt’. This mean that the present chart was a duplicate that was officially deaccessioned for the library. Indeed, following German reunification in 1990, the BHI was reorganized as the Bundesamt für Seeschifffahrt und Hydrographie (BSH, Federal Maritime and Hydrographic Agency of Germany), which had premises in both Hamburg and Rostock.

The BSH decided to deaccession many (usually duplicate) items from its archives, including the present chart.

Worldcat only lists one institutional example (Bibliothèque nationale de France).

References: OCLC 494891965.

550 EUR

22. Croatia
Far-Right Nationalist Propaganda
Cartographic Propganda
Ante Pavelić
Australian Imprint

Anon.

***Za dom spremni*. [For Homeland - Ready].**

Australia, [*c.* 1950s or later].

Colour off-set print on thick paper (Good, some wear long old folds, some tape repairs to map surface on top margin and closing 2 tears entering map from bottom), 33 x 43 cm (13 x 17 inches).

A seemingly unrecorded ephemeral map made by far right-wing Croatian nationalists in Australia in the wake of World War II, glorifying the medieval Kingdom of Croatia, and the short-lived Nazi-Allied 'Independent State of Croatia', but here showing Croatia with extreme maximal boundaries in excess of commonly accepted historical Croatian territory.

Croatians are a Slavic people of the Western Balkans, who formed an independent state, the Kingdom Croatia, that embraced most of today's Croatia and Bosnia & Hercegovina, and which lasted from 925 to 1102. Subsequently, the Croatian lands were taken over by a variety of different powers, including the Venetians, Ottomans and Austrian Hapsburgs, while Croatians often had difficult relations with their fellow Slavic neighbours. In the wake of World War I, Croatia became part of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia, while a strong new form of rightwing Croatian nationalism progressively came to the fore.

In 1930, a lawyer, Ante Pavelić (1889 - 1959), formed the ultra-nationalist Ustaša movement. However, for years it seemed highly unlikely that Pavelić would ever gain power.



ZA DOM SPREMNI

925 — 928

HRVATSKI KRALJEVI I POGLAVARI KROZ TISUĆLJETA HRVATSKE POVIJESTI

1941 — 1945



PRVI HRVATSKI KRALJ
TOMISLAV
925-928





POGLAVNIK N.D. HRVATSKE
DR. ANTE PAVELIĆ
1941-1945







ART DESIGNED AND PRINTED IN AUSTRALIA

Nazi Germany's invasion of Yugoslavia in April 1941 represented a unique opportunity for the Ustaša. Hitler craved the domination of all of Europe, but often preferred to govern conquered states through puppet local dictators, who were both loyal to and reliant upon him, yet giving the regimes a pseudo-veneer of legitimacy.

The Nazis and the Italian dictator Benito Mussolini (a longtime friend of Pavelić) allowed the Ustaša to form the *Nezavisna Država Hrvatska* (NDH, Independent State of Croatia) which, contrary to its name, was an Axis puppet state. The NDH was given the territories that embraced most of traditional Croatia and Bosnia & Hercegovina, plus parts of adjacent countries. Pavelić was made the dictator of the NDH, with the title of 'Poglavnik'. Pavelić was brutally oppressive and he showed a tremendous personal enthusiasm for the killing of people of ethnic groups his disliked, namely Jews and Serbians, but also any political opponents of any demographic. His sadistic regime was almost totally dependent upon the Wehrmacht for its defense against Tito's increasingly effective Partisan movement, which fought all Axis forces in Yugoslavia.

The NDH collapsed along with the Third Reich in May 1945, and Croatia became part of Tito's Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. Many pro-Ustaša Croatians fled the country, often for places overseas that had large, well-established Croatian diaspora communities, such as the United States, Canada, Australia and Argentina. Despite the fact the some of the individuals in question had clear ties to the Axis powers, the governments of their new home countries often welcomed them, as reliable anti-communists were valued under the new Cold War reality.

Some of these exiles remained ardent enthusiasts for the cause and longed for the day when they could return to 'liberate' their country. Indeed, the title of the present work, *Za dom spremni*. [For Homeland - Ready], is the Ustaša salute (like the Nazi *Sieg Heil!*).

The present work, which features the label 'Art Designed and Printed in Australia' was made by group of Croatian immigrants who were likely former Ustaša members. The composition is an unadulterated celebration of extreme patriotic fervour. The map, which dominates the work, entitled 'Hrvatska u svojim povijesnim granicama' [Croatia within its Historical Borders], shows a colossal Croatian state that transcended the boundaries of both the medieval Kingdom of Croatia and the NDH, showing the 'rightful' Croatian state to not only embrace all of modern Croatia and Bosnia & Hercegovina, but large chunks of Serbia all the way to Subotica, as well as Novi Pazar, in addition to all of the Slovenian seacoast.

Bordering the map are a series of portraits of historical figures, entitled, 'Hrvatski Kraljevi i Poglavari kroz Tisucljeta Hravatke Povijecti' [Croatian Kings and Leaders throughout the Millennium of Croatian History]. Starting with King Tomislav I, the founder of the medieval Kingdom of Croatia, the panels picture numerous Croatian luminaries, ending with Ante Pavelić.

The enthusiasm for the Ustaša and ultra-nationalism died out in Australia's Croatian community, as people integrated into the general society.

The present work is seemingly unrecorded, which is not surprising, as it is an ultra-ephemeral work printed by what was a fringe group in Australia. While the design is very good, the print quality is atrocious, and few examples would have been made, while their survival rate would have been virtually nil.

References: N/A – Map seemingly unrecorded.

550 EUR



23. Iran- World War II
Farsi Language Printing
Allied Propaganda

VICTORY HOUSE (WWII BRITISH ‘CULTURAL’ (PROPAGANDA) CENTRE IN TEHRAN).

افریقای شمالی

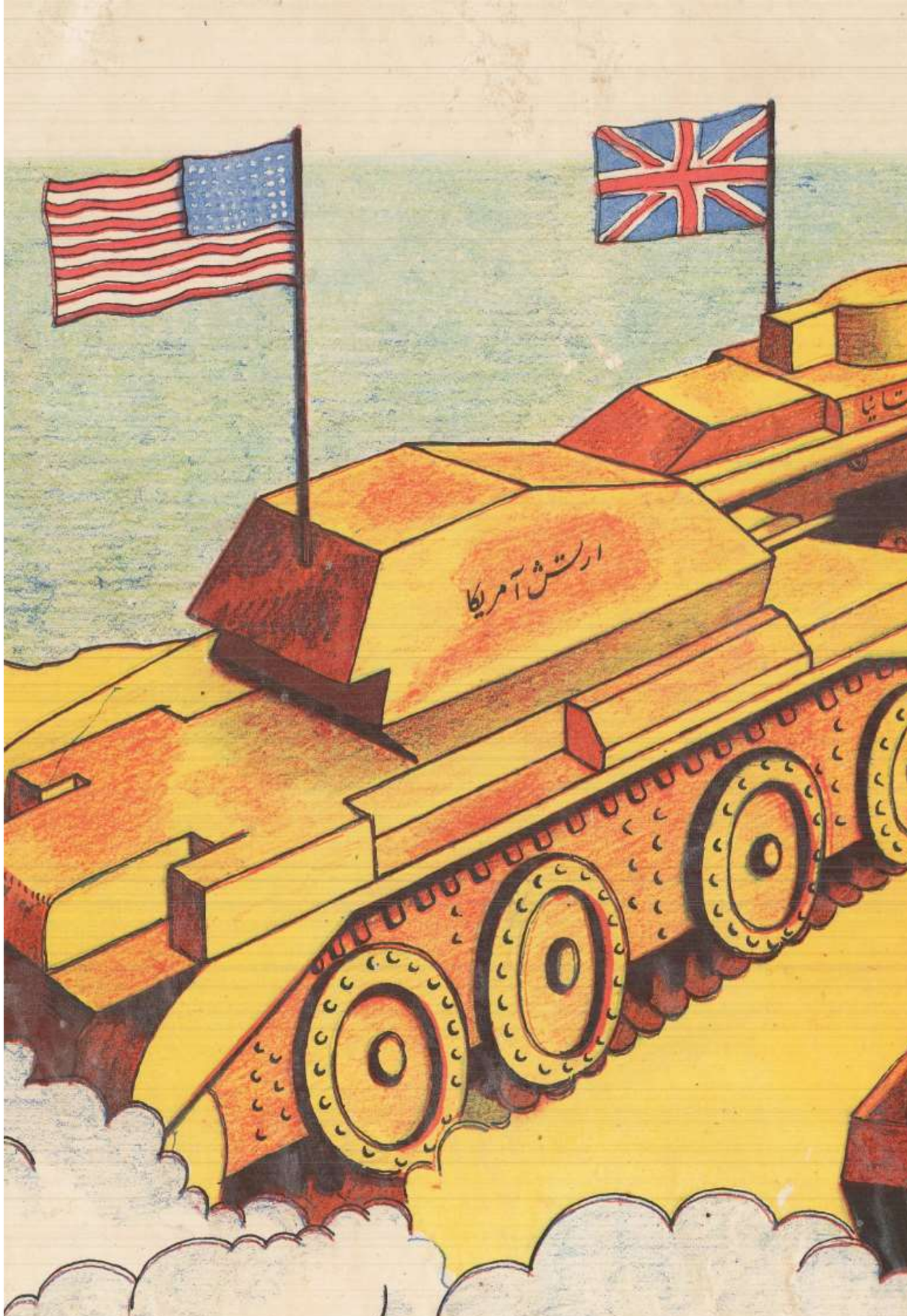
[North Africa…]

Tehran: Victory House Press, [Early 1943].

Colour photolithograph poster (very light staining and hardly noticeable scratches, overall in a good condition), 42 x 62 cm (16.5 x 24.4 inches).

An exceedingly rare map poster printed by ‘Victory House’, the special British propaganda unit that operated in Tehran during World War II, led by Dr. Ann Lambton, whose mandate was to turn Iranian public opinion in favour of the Allies, largely by convincing them that Britain and her partners were destined the win the war; the present work employs brightly coloured humorous imagery, with text in Farsi, to depict Hitler and Mussolini on the northern tip of Tunisia, cowering before fast advancing Allied tanks, published shortly before the Axis were completely driven from North Africa in the spring 1943.

During World War II, Iran, the ‘keystone’ of Western Asia, teetered on the brink of backing Germany against its established quasi-colonial overlords, Britain and the Soviet Union. While the Allies invaded Iran and deposed the pro-German Shah in September 1941, Iranian public opinion remained ardently anti-Anglo-Soviet. If these sentiments became inflamed, the Allies could not possibly hope to contain the fallout. The prospect of losing Iran posed dire military and economic consequences.





V. H. C. 4. چاپ تهران

A
VICTORY HOUSE
PRODUCTION

In response, the British set up ‘Victory House’ in Tehran, a well-funded and sophisticated propaganda unit, to mount an elaborate multi-media campaign to win Iranian ‘Hearts and Minds’. Victory House was led by Dr. Ann Lambton, a brilliant Persianist, who brough her great force and energy to the project. She was one in a line of extraordinary female figures, such as Gertrude Bell, whose efforts were of great consequence to the course of events in the Middle East.

It was not thought likely that the British could suddenly convince Iranians to forsake their decades of resentment and suddenly form a love of the Sceptered Isle and its agents. As such, Victory House’s case mainly rested upon convincing Iranians that the Allied victory in the war was inevitable and that opposing them was a fool’s errand.

Lambton and her colleagues were challenged by the fact that only about 10-15% of Iranians were literate. As such, they had to create propaganda works of powerful visual effects, where the message could be understood even without words (which were relegated to adding emphasis or nuance to the case).

Perhaps the most impressive of Victory House’s works were a series of large format broadside maps, or posters, that used bright colours, vivid imagery, and sometimes humour, combined with geography, to convey the onward march of Allied victory.

The present work is a stellar example of Victory House’s map posters. It focusses upon the imminent complete defeat of the Axis forces in North Africa, in what was to be the Allies’ first major campaign victory. Such a PR opportunity could not be missed!

While Germany, in the form of Erwin Rommel’s famed Afrikakorps, starting in the Spring of 1941, took the offensive against the British in the region, and had come close to taking Alexandria, they suffered a crushing defeat at the Second Battle of Al Alamein (October 23 - November 11, 1942). From that point onwards, the Germans and their hapless Italian partners were throttled and forced ever westwards. Meanwhile, the Allies were landing forces to take over Vichy French Morocco and Algeria.

The Axis’ last stand in North Africa was in Tunisia. In what would be known as the Tunisian Campaign (November 17, 1942 – May 13, 1943), a coalition of British Imperial, American, and Free French troops forced the Axis army into an increasingly small pocket in northern Tunisia. The Axis forces were eventually compelled to surrender, with the Allies taking 250,000 POWs, while expelling Germany and Italy from Africa for good.

The present map poster was made during the Tunisian Campaign, in the early months of 1943, when it was clear that ultimate Allied victory was assured, being only matter of time. Employing an element of humour, it shows caricatures of Hitler and an infantile Mussolini cowering on the northern tip of Tunisia, as British, American and Free French tanks hurtle towards them, while Royal Navy vessels close in from the sea. The Fuhrer and Il Duce are defenseless, protected by only a sad row of stakes that will be effortlessly overrun Allied tanks.

Here, the message to the Iranian people is clear – the Allies are going to win, the Axis are toast, and the only smart choice is to get on board!!

A Note on Rarity

We have not been able to trace another example of this map poster. This is not so surprising as the survival rate of such ephemeral works is extremely low as they were exposed to much wear.

WWII in Iran and Allied Farsi Propaganda

Iran, due to its large size, oil wealth and strategic location, between British India, the Arab World and the Soviet Union, was the keystone of Western Asia. Therefore, during World War II, Iran’s position was of the most vital consequence.

For the first two to three years of the war, the Axis Powers had the upper hand. Nazi Germany had taken over most of Europe and in 1941 invaded the Soviet Union, with the aim of taking the Caucasus oil fields, in a region that bordered Iran. Meanwhile, in the east, Japan was going from strength to strength, mowing down all opposition.

The ruler of Iran, Reza Pahlavi Shah (*reigned* 1925-41), was military strongman who deeply resented the British and Soviet quasi-colonial presence in his country. Indeed, while Iran was technically a sovereign state, in reality, since 1907, the country had been divided into Russian and British zones of influence, with the later taking much of the country’s oil wealth. While Britain had some sympathizers in Tehran (usually wealthy families and Western oriented businessmen) and the Soviets had their own Persian supporters (the Communist Tudeh Party was major underground player), generally both countries were extremely unpopular amongst the Iranian populace.

Naturally, during the early part of the war, the existing sentiments, combined with the reality of German strength and Britain-Soviet weakness, naturally caused Reza Shah, and many of his subjects to favour the Axis side. While Iran remained technically neutral, the Shah’s not-so-secret preferences were unacceptable to London and Moscow.

In August 1941, Britain and the Soviet Union invaded Iran, taking over most of the country, including the key cities. Reza Shah was forced to abdicate the following month and was exiled to South Africa. He was replaced by his 22-year-old son, Mohammed Pahlavi Shah (*reigned* 1941-79), who proved to be an Anglo-American puppet. However, while the Allies had gotten rid of a forceful adversary, the new shah’s lack of authority and gravitas posed its own problems, as while he could not effectively oppose the Allied cause, he was, at least initially, of little use in advancing it. The Allies would have to carry the weight of keeping the peace in Iran themselves.

The reality remained that it the Iranian people were motivated to rise up strongly against the Britain and Soviets, then the situation would become untenable. While the Allies were able to overcome any Iranian conventional army, they could not possibly hope to contain mass civil unrest or a guerilla war.

In short, the Allies had to convince the Iranian people that the British-Soviet side was destined to win the war, and that it was futile to oppose them, and that it was in their best interests to tolerate them, if not support them.

The solution was to mount elaborate and expensive propaganda campaigns, the likes of which were had never been seen in Iran.

The Soviets maintained their own Communist-themed propaganda apparatus in Tehran, in cooperation with the Tudeh Party, separate of the activities of the Western Allies. While the America would become more prominent in Iran following the war, Western Allied propaganda would be largely left up to Britain.

The run their propaganda machine, the British created a dedicated ‘cultural centre’ associated with the British Embassy. The British evicted the Germans from what was their ‘cultural centre’ in the ‘Brown House’, renaming it as the ‘Victory House’. The name was carefully chosen, as the success of the new

organziation's PR efforts rested upon their ability to convince the Iranian people that the Allies were destined to win the war.

Victory House was placed in the charge of Dr. (later Professor) Ann Lambton (1912 - 2008), who was a most extraordinary figure. Lambton, who hailed from the noble house of the Earls of Durham, and who completed her Ph.D. on Medieval Persia in 1939, was already widely recognized as one of the most prescient observers of Iran. In such chauvinistic times and circumstances, it is a testament to Lambton's abilities and the esteem by which she was held that a 29-year-old woman was given such responsibility. Lambton would later go on to be a Professor of Persian Studies at the University of London (1953-79) and one of the leading authorities on the Farsi language and Persian politics and culture, consulted by work leaders and academies the world over. Upon the Islamic Revolution of 1979, she memorably remarked "I have never worn a chador in my life, and I do not intend to start now" – she never returned to Iran.

At Victory House, Lambton was ably assisted by the well-known Iranian figures, Bozorg Alavi and Ehsan Tabari, and was given a very large budget and a wide degree of freedom to win Iranian hearts and minds.

Victory House established its own press, publishing the Farsi language newspaper *Rahbar* (Leader) and the English language *Tehran Daily News*. The organization also created numerous pamphlets and broadsides, but perhaps its most remarkable works were its beautifully designed and brightly coloured posters and maps (such as the present work), which powerfully conveyed the message that Allied victory was inevitable and that Iranians should join the 'winners'.

Victory House also hosted innumerable parties and receptions to ingratiate Britain with diverse aspects of Iranian society, such intellectuals and business and community leaders. These well-staged events became major dates on the Tehran social calendar.

The year 1943 marked a turning point in World War II, providing a great boon to the Allied propaganda campaigns in Iran. Germany suffered a crushing defeat at the hand of the Soviets at the Battle of Stalingrad (August 1942 – February 1943), which hailed the beginning of the end of their invasion of Russia. In May, the Allies finally drove the Nazis out of North Africa (the focus of the present map!), and in September they took the offensive, concerning their invasion of Italy.

However, Lambton and Victory House's efforts benefitted most of all from the Tehran Conference (November 28 – December 1, 1943), whereby the 'Big Three' leaders, Churchill, Roosevelt and Stalin, met in the Iranian capital to formulate their plans for winning the war. Importantly, the Allied leaders singed separate agreement that promised Iran its full sovereignty after the war, so providing stellar PR for the Allies.

It is very difficult to assess the impact, or success, of the Victory House's propaganda campaign in Iran. Certainly, the quality of their work was very high, and the practical reality was that the country did not break put into a pro-Axis or anti-Western rebellion during the war period. Moreover, the mission's endeavours did help to strengthen the West's ties with many influential figures who would remain useful to Britain and the United States in the future. However, Iranian public opinion, while no longer pro-Axis, had not moved in favour of the West.

In the wake of the war, the Red Army refused to leave northern Iran, as had been promised, sparking what became known as the Iran Crisis of 1946. In one of the earliest and most potentially incendiary events of the Cold War, Western and local pressure had to be brought to bear to force their departure.

In 1951, the nationalist Mohammad Mosaddegh became Iran's prime minister. He advocated a platform of nationalizing the oil industry and severely limiting Western and other foreign interference in Iran's affairs. Mosaddegh rode a wave of popularity and assumed full control of the country, deposing the Shah. This caused the Americans and the British to orchestrate the 1953 Coup that overthrew Mossadegh and restored the Shah, a Western puppet, to power. This had the effect of permanently alienating most Iranians from the West and was major driver towards the 1979 Islamic Revolution.

References: N/A – No other examples traced.

1.500 EUR

24. Iran- World War II
Farsi Language Printing
Allied Propaganda

VICTORY HOUSE (WWII BRITISH 'CULTURAL' (PROPAGANDA) CENTRE IN TEHRAN).

مستر چرچیل نتایج پیروزی افریقای شمالی را بیان میکند

[Mr. Churchill Announces the Results of the North African Victory]

Tehran: Victory House Press, [Early 1943].

Colour photolithograph poster, 50 x 71 cm (19.7 x 28 inches).

An exceedingly rare map poster printed by 'Victory House', the special British propaganda unit that operated in Tehran during World War II, led by Dr. Ann Lambton, whose mandate was to turn Iranian public opinion in favour of the Allies, largely by convincing them that Britain and her partners were destined the win the war; the present work employs brightly coloured humorous imagery, with text in Farsi, to depict Hitler and Mussolini on the northern tip of Tunisia, cowering before fast advancing Allied tanks, published shortly before the Axis were completely driven from North Africa in the spring 1943.

During World War II, Iran, the 'keystone' of Western Asia, teetered on the brink of backing Germany against its established quasi-colonial overlords, Britain and the Soviet Union. While the Allies invaded Iran and deposed the pro-German Shah in September 1941, Iranian public opinion remained ardently anti-Anglo-Soviet. If these sentiments became inflamed, the Allies could not possibly hope to contain the fallout. The prospect of losing Iran posed dire military and economic consequences.

In response, the British set up 'Victory House' in Tehran, a well-funded and sophisticated propaganda unit, to mount an elaborate multi-media campaign to win Iranian 'Hearts and Minds'. Victory House



مستر چرچیل نتایج پیروزی افریقای شمالی را بیان میکند

نبرد افریقا بپایان رسید امپراطوری افریقائی موسولینی و تاکتیک سرجوخه سابق هیتلر منهدم و متلاشی گردید امپراطور حبشه بار دیگر بر تخت سلطنت خود که در اثر استعمال گازهای سمی نیروی موسولینی ناگزیر بترک آن شده بود جلوس کرد کلیه سرزمینهای پهناور از ماداگاسکار تا مراکش - از قاهره تا کازابلانکا و از عدن تا داکار در قلمرو بریتانیا و آمریکا و یا فرانسه میباشد و بالاخره یک قاره از بیداد گری فاشیست ها و نازیها برای همیشه خلاصی یافته است هوی و هوس جهانگشائی این دو دیکتاتور در افریقا بقیمت جان ۹۵۰،۰۰۰ سرباز کشته و اسیر برای کشورهای آنان تمام شد بعلاوه قریب ۲،۴۰۰،۰۰۰ تن از کشتیهای محور غرق و تقریبا ۸۰۰ هواپیما منهدم گردید همچنین دشمن ۲۰۰ع توپ و ۲۵۵۰ تانک و ۷۰،۰۰۰ وسیله نقلیه موتوری از دست داد. ما بنوبه خویش با کمال مسرت میتوانیم اظهار کنیم که "یک قاره نجات یافت"

قسمتی از سخنرانی ۲۸ اردیبهشت ۱۳۲۲ مستر چرچیل نخست وزیر بریتانیا در کنگره کشورهای متحد آمریکا



V. H. S. 5.

was led by Dr. Ann Lambton, a brilliant Persianist, who brough her great force and energy to the project. She was one in a line of extraordinary female figures, such as Gertrude Bell, whose efforts were of great consequence to the course of events in the Middle East.

It was not thought likely that the British could suddenly convince Iranians to forsake their decades of resentment and suddenly form a love of the Sceptered Isle and its agents. As such, Victory House's case mainly rested upon convincing Iranians that the Allied victory in the war was inevitable and that opposing them was a fool's errand.

Lambton and her colleagues were challenged by the fact that only about 10-15% of Iranians were literate. As such, they had to create propaganda works of powerful visual effects, where the message could be understood even without words (which were relegated to adding emphasis or nuance to the case).

Perhaps the most impressive of Victory House's works were a series of large format broadside maps, or posters, that used bright colours, vivid imagery, and sometimes humour, combined with geography, to convey the onward march of Allied victory.

The present work is a stellar example of Victory House's map posters. It focusses upon the imminent complete defeat of the Axis forces in North Africa, in what was to be the Allies' first major campaign victory. Such a PR opportunity could not be missed!

While Germany, in the form of Erwin Rommel's famed Afrikakorps, starting in the Spring of 1941, took the offensive against the British in the region, and had come close to taking Alexandria, they suffered a crushing defeat at the Second Battle of Al Alamein (October 23 - November 11, 1942). From that point onwards, the Germans and their hapless Italian partners were throttled and forced ever westwards. Meanwhile, the Allies were landing forces to take over Vichy French Morocco and Algeria.

The Axis' last stand in North Africa was in Tunisia. In what would be known as the Tunisian Campaign (November 17, 1942 – May 13, 1943), a coalition of British Imperial, American, and Free French troops forced the Axis army into an increasingly small pocket in northern Tunisia. The Axis forces were eventually compelled to surrender, with the Allies taking 250,000 POWs, while expelling Germany and Italy from Africa for good.

The present map poster was made during the Tunisian Campaign, in the early months of 1943, when it was clear that ultimate Allied victory was assured, being only matter of time. Employing an element of humour, it shows caricatures of Hitler and an infantile Mussolini cowering on the northern tip of Tunisia, as British, American and Free French tanks hurtle towards them, while Royal Navy vessels close in from the sea. The Fuhrer and Il Duce are defenseless, protected by only a sad row of stakes that will be effortlessly overrun Allied tanks.

Here, the message to the Iranian people is clear – the Allies are going to win, the Axis are toast, and the only smart choice is to get on board!!

A Note on Rarity

We have not been able to trace another example of this map poster. This is not so surprising as the survival rate of such ephemeral works is extremely low as they were exposed to much wear.

WWII in Iran and Allied Farsi Propaganda

Iran, due to its large size, oil wealth and strategic location, between British India, the Arab World and the Soviet Union, was the keystone of Western Asia. Therefore, during World War II, Iran's position was of the most vital consequence.

For the first two to three years of the war, the Axis Powers had the upper hand. Nazi Germany had taken over most of Europe and in 1941 invaded the Soviet Union, with the aim of taking the Caucasus oil fields, in a region that bordered Iran. Meanwhile, in the east, Japan was going from strength to strength, mowing down all opposition.

The ruler of Iran, Reza Pahlavi Shah (*reigned* 1925-41), was military strongman who deeply resented the British and Soviet quasi-colonial presence in his country. Indeed, while Iran was technically a sovereign state, in reality, since 1907, the country had been divided into Russian and British zones of influence, with the later taking much of the country's oil wealth. While Britain had some sympathizers in Tehran (usually wealthy families and Western oriented businessmen) and the Soviets had their own Persian supporters (the Communist Tudeh Party was major underground player), generally both countries were extremely unpopular amongst the Iranian populace.

Naturally, during the early part of the war, the existing sentiments, combined with the reality of German strength and Britain-Soviet weakness, naturally caused Reza Shah, and many of his subjects to favour the Axis side. While Iran remained technically neutral, the Shah's not-so-secret preferences were unacceptable to London and Moscow.

In August 1941, Britain and the Soviet Union invaded Iran, taking over most of the country, including the key cities. Reza Shah was forced to abdicate the following month and was exiled to South Africa. He was replaced by his 22-year-old son, Mohammed Pahlavi Shah (*reigned* 1941-79), who proved to be an Anglo-American puppet. However, while the Allies had gotten rid of a forceful adversary, the new shah's lack of authority and gravitas posed its own problems, as while he could not effectively oppose the Allied cause, he was, at least initially, of little use in advancing it. The Allies would have to carry the weight of keeping the peace in Iran themselves.

The reality remained that it the Iranian people were motivated to rise up strongly against the Britain and Soviets, then the situation would become untenable. While the Allies were able to overcome any Iranian conventional army, they could not possibly hope to contain mass civil unrest or a guerilla war.

In short, the Allies had to convince the Iranian people that the British-Soviet side was destined to win the war, and that it was futile to oppose them, and that it was in their best interests to tolerate them, if not support them.

The solution was to mount elaborate and expensive propaganda campaigns, the likes of which were had never been seen in Iran.

The Soviets maintained their own Communist-themed propaganda apparatus in Tehran, in cooperation with the Tudeh Party, separate of the activities of the Western Allies. While the America would become more prominent in Iran following the war, Western Allied propaganda would be largely left up to Britain.

The run their propaganda machine, the British created a dedicated 'cultural centre' associated with the British Embassy. The British evicted the Germans from what was their 'cultural centre' in the 'Brown House', renaming it as the 'Victory House'. The name was carefully chosen, as the success of the new

organization's PR efforts rested upon their ability to convince the Iranian people that the Allies were destined to win the war.

Victory House was placed in the charge of Dr. (later Professor) Ann Lambton (1912 - 2008), who was a most extraordinary figure. Lambton, who hailed from the noble house of the Earls of Durham, and who completed her Ph.D. on Medieval Persia in 1939, was already widely recognized as one of the most prescient observers of Iran. In such chauvinistic times and circumstances, it is a testament to Lambton's abilities and the esteem by which she was held that a 29-year-old woman was given such responsibility. Lambton would later go on to be a Professor of Persian Studies at the University of London (1953-79) and one of the leading authorities on the Farsi language and Persian politics and culture, consulted by work leaders and academies the world over. Upon the Islamic Revolution of 1979, she memorably remarked "I have never worn a chador in my life, and I do not intend to start now" – she never returned to Iran.

At Victory House, Lambton was ably assisted by the well-known Iranian figures, Bozorg Alavi and Ehsan Tabari, and was given a very large budget and a wide degree of freedom to win Iranian hearts and minds.

Victory House established its own press, publishing the Farsi language newspaper *Rahbar* (Leader) and the English language *Tehran Daily News*. The organization also created numerous pamphlets and broadsides, but perhaps its most remarkable works were its beautifully designed and brightly coloured posters and maps (such as the present work), which powerfully conveyed the message that Allied victory was inevitable and that Iranians should join the 'winners'.

Victory House also hosted innumerable parties and receptions to ingratiate Britain with diverse aspects of Iranian society, such intellectuals and business and community leaders. These well-staged events became major dates on the Tehran social calendar.

The year 1943 marked a turning point in World War II, providing a great boon to the Allied propaganda campaigns in Iran. Germany suffered a crushing defeat at the hand of the Soviets at the Battle of Stalingrad (August 1942 – February 1943), which hailed the beginning of the end of their invasion of Russia. In May, the Allies finally drove the Nazis out of North Africa (the focus of the present map!), and in September they took the offensive, concerning their invasion of Italy.

However, Lambton and Victory House's efforts benefitted most of all from the Tehran Conference (November 28 – December 1, 1943), whereby the 'Big Three' leaders, Churchill, Roosevelt and Stalin, met in the Iranian capital to formulate their plans for winning the war. Importantly, the Allied leaders singed separate agreement that promised Iran its full sovereignty after the war, so providing stellar PR for the Allies.

It is very difficult to assess the impact, or success, of the Victory House's propaganda campaign in Iran. Certainly, the quality of their work was very high, and the practical reality was that the country did not break put into a pro-Axis or anti-Western rebellion during the war period. Moreover, the mission's endeavours did help to strengthen the West's ties with many influential figures who would remain useful to Britain and the United States in the future. However, Iranian public opinion, while no longer pro-Axis, had not moved in favour of the West.

In the wake of the war, the Red Army refused to leave northern Iran, as had been promised, sparking what became known as the Iran Crisis of 1946. In one of the earliest and most potentially incendiary events of the Cold War, Western and local pressure had to be brought to bear to force their departure.

In 1951, the nationalist Mohammad Mosaddegh became Iran's prime minister. He advocated a platform of nationalizing the oil industry and severely limiting Western and other foreign interference in Iran's affairs. Mosaddegh rode a wave of popularity and assumed full control of the country, deposing the Shah. This caused the Americans and the British to orchestrate the 1953 Coup that overthrew Mossadegh and restored the Shah, a Western puppet, to power. This had the effect of permanently alienating most Iranians from the West and was major driver towards the 1979 Islamic Revolution.

References: N/A – No other examples traced.

1.500 EUR

25. World War II – Siege Of Leningrad
Oranienbaum Bridgehead
Original Aerial Reconnaissance Photographs
Photo-Cartography
Tank (Panzer) Warfare



AUSWERTUNG HEER 406 [GERMAN ARMY RECONNAISSANCE UNIT 406].

[Pair (2) Original Aerial Reconnaissance Photographs:]

#1.

[Near Lebyazhye, Oranienbaum Bridgehead] "Ort: 22 km NW Oranienbaum / Dat: 6.10.41 / Zeit: 10.03 Uhr."

[AND]

#2.

[Near Shepelovo, Oranienbaum Bridgehead] "Ort: 33 km NW Oranienbaum / Dat: 6.10.41 / Zeit: 10.03 Uhr."

[Leningrad Oblast, Russia], October 6, 1941.

Pair (2) of original photographs contemporarily augmented with markings in white, both with Wehrmacht handstamps in red ink marked 'Nur für den Dienstgebrauch!' (For Official Use Only!) to

verso (both Very Good, strong images, both a few very light stains and with slight marginal creases and knicks, Photo #1 - Lebyazhye with subtle crease across upper right quadrant), each 23.5 x 29 cm (9.25 x 11.5 inches).

*A pair of original German Army aerial intelligence photographs of two important Soviet defensive positions within the critical '*Oranienbaum Bridgehead*' during the Siege of Leningrad, one of the longest and bloodiest engagements of World War II; the highly classified photographs were taken by special reconnaissance units for the use of the Wehrmacht district high command, and are heavily marked up with analytical annotations, that reveal the strength of the Soviet defensive infrastructure; they provide authentic and valuable insights into how geographic intelligence was collected and utilized during one of the greatest events in modern military history.*

In June 1941, Nazi Germany mounted *Operation Barbarossa*, its 'Blitzkrieg' (Lightning War) invasion of the Soviet Union. Its aim was to overrun Ukraine and most of European Russia, up to the 'A-A line' (the virtual meridian running from Archangel down to Astrakhan) during the first campaign season.

While much progress was made during this brutal first season, the German designs hit a great snag. Upon attacking Leningrad in September 1941, they found that the city refused to surrender and could not be taken. What followed was the Siege of Leningrad (September 8, 1941 to January 27, 1944), during which the city was encircled by German-Finnish forces that numbered as much as 750,000 troops for 872 days, being one of the longest and most deadly aspects of the Word War II. Despite enduring mass starvation and constant artillery and aerial bombardment, the Soviet troops and the city's 2.5 million civilians refused to give up.

An often overlooked, but nonetheless highly important, aspect of the Siege of Leningrad was the situation in what became known as the *Oranienbaum Bridgehead* (Ораниенбаумский плацдарм), an enclave of territory along the south shore of the Gulf of Finland (about 65 km long and 25 km deep) that remained in Soviet hands throughout the siege. The *Bridgehead*, named after the great Oranienbaum czarist palace complex, was discontiguous with Leningrad, and was surrounded by German-held territory on all landward sides; however, by water and over the ice in winter, the enclave maintained an, albeit tenuous, connection with Leningrad.

Through the entire siege, the *Oranienbaum Bridgehead* was held by the Soviets, despite numerous serious German attempts to seize it. The defending Soviet soldiers and sailors were well armed and benefited from the numerous fortifications that had long been constructed in the area to defend Leningrad (St. Petersburg) from seaward attack. The area was home to farms, which could produce food for the defenders, but sadly not enough to meaningfully reduce the starvation in Leningrad.

The Soviets constructed elaborate and extensive systems of anti-tank and anti-aircraft defenses all across the Bridgehead, often of ingenious designs. They also employed clever tactics and managed their resources wisely. Consequently, while on paper the Wehrmacht still possessed an overwhelming advantage in troops and arms that should have been sufficient to take the Bridgehead, and despite their concerted efforts, the line of control barely moved.

On October 5-10, 1941, The Soviets made an ill-fated attempt to break out of the *Oranienbaum* Bridgehead and link up to Leningrad, by taking the Peterhof area (the Germans held territory between *Oranienbaum and Leningrad*), but this operation failed. From that point onwards, until the period near the end of the siege, the Soviets in the Bridgehead mainly assumed a defensive posture.

The continued existence of the *Oranienbaum Bridgehead* was a nightmare for the German high command. As they were bogged down in the futile attempts to break Leningrad, they had to always look over their shoulder towards the threat posed by the Soviets in the Bridgehead. Indeed, the Wehrmacht had to divert much valuable resources to containing the Bridgehead, and this burden only became more onerous as the siege dragged on, and as German resources and morale declined.

Critically, the *Oranienbaum Bridgehead* played a key role in the liberation of Leningrad. On January 14, 1944, the Soviet 2nd Shock Army managed to overcome the German lines around the Bridgehead and able to link up the Red Army forces as they were breaking out of Leningrad. This led to the lifting of the siege less than two weeks later, on January 27. The Soviet Bridgehead forces had played a decisive role by opening another flank against the Germans, without which Leningrad would not have been liberated during that time.

The liberation of Leningrad was not only a massive relief for its citizens, but a tremendous morale boost for the entire Soviet Union, as it spent the next 15 months pressing ever westward towards Berlin, forcing the complete collapse of the Third Reich.

The Present Photographs in Focus

Throughout the Siege of Leningrad, the Wehrmacht went to vast efforts to assess the Soviets' defensive infrastructure in order to detect any weaknesses, or to identify key targets for bombing raids. The most important aspect of this surveillance was the dispatch of highly trained reconnaissance units, who aboard Luftwaffe flights, often flying at about 3,000 metres (10,000 feet), took high quality photographs with special cameras of the Soviet positions.

Once on the ground, these photographs were quickly developed and then carefully analyzed to tease out details as to the Soviets' defensive positions and troop/vehicle movements. As the German army leaned heavily on the formidable Panzer divisions during its offensive operations in Russia, the nature of the Soviet's anti-tank capabilities was of particular concern.

The analysis of the photographs was difficult, exacting work, yet had to be undertaken with both great speed and care. The photographs were marked up accordingly to clearly note all relevant details and were considered to be first-grade intelligence. They were immediately forwarded to the high command where they formed the basis for operational planning. They were also given to the 'Mobile Surveying and Mapping Detachments' that travelled with the various German armies, who integrated details from the photographs into their secret maps intended for the use of the high command.

In this particular case, these very high-quality photographs were made by the

Auswertung Heer 406 (German Army Reconnaissance Unit 406), while flying above the *Oranienbaum Bridgehead* aboard Luftwaffe planes, at an altitude of 3,000 metres (as noted on Photograph #1), on the morning of October 6, 1941. Both photographs are stamped on the verso with the note 'Nur für den

Datum: 6. 10. 41 Zeit: 10[00]
Ort: 33km NW Oranienbaum
Maßstab: 1:6 000

Fl. Bi. Sch. Z 50/40 B 358
Auswertung Heer 406

Riegelstellung auf einer Landbrücke 33km NW Oranienbaum
Bei der Aufstellung von schweren Flakbatterien bevorzugt der Russe dieselbe trapezförmige Aufstellung wie der Engländer. Vorzüglich ist die Tarnung der schweren Flakbatterien bei „E".
Nicht mehr fahrbare, aber noch kampffähige Panzerkampfwagen stellt der Russe in Bereitschaftsstellungen auf. (wie bei „C")

A) Kampfwagensperre aus Pfählen
B) Flächendrahtsperre
C) Belegte Bereitschaftsstellungen für nicht mehr fahrb. aber noch kampffähige Pzkws
D) Schartenstand
E) Getarnte schw. Flakstellung (Beleg. nicht erkennbar.)
F) schwere Flakstellung (unbelgt)
G) Fla-M.G.-Stellung
H) Schartenstände in gemeinsamer Rundumflächendrahtsperre
J) Offener Pakstand m. Bereitsch.-Raum
K) Verm. Beobachtungsstand m. Kabelgraben
L) Trampelspuren lassen auf militär. Gebäude schließen (Unterkunft)
M) Verm. getarnte Kampfanlage

Dienstgebrauch!' (For Official Use Only!), as well as lines of text threatening severe legal repercussions for unauthorized dissemination (warnings that were wise to follow under the Third Reich!).

Critically, during that time, the Soviets were engaged in (an ultimately unsuccessful) effort to break out of the enclave by attacking the German lines at the Peterhof (the slice of territory that physically separated the *Oranienbaum Bridgehead* from Leningrad). Intelligence on Soviet positions and movements was especially critical during this time, as while the photographs do not concern positions near the Peterhof front, the Germans were looking for any gaps or mistakes that the Soviets might have made elsewhere, so as to potentially mount an action against the Soviets' rear flank. The Germans was hoped that the Soviet offensive on the Peterhof might cause them to 'let their guard down' and make errors elsewhere in the *Oranienbaum Bridgehead*. A strong attack upon the Soviet positions from the rear, to the west of the Peterhof, would undermine the Soviet offensive and likely cause the collapse of the entire Bridgehead.

Specifically, the present photographs depict two critical Soviet defensive positions: Photograph #1 shows a site near the town of Lebyazhye (Лебя́жье), in the middle north of the *Bridgehead*, about 22 km northwest of the Oranienbaum town (today named Lomonosov). Photograph #2 captures a site near the village of *Shepelovo* (Шепелёво), in the northwest of the *Bridgehead*, about 33 km northwest of Oranienbaum. These locations were considered to be prime targets for any possible German offensive to the rear of the Soviets Bridgehead forces.

Photograph #1.

This photograph, taken of Soviet positions near Lebyazhye, is marked as "Ort: 22 km NW Oranienbaum / Dat: 6.10.41 / Zeit: 10.03 Uhr.", meaning that it was taken at 10:03 AM on October 6, 1941, and goes on to remark that that the image was captured from an altitude of 3,000 metres, resulting in a map to a scale of 1:6000. The Lebyazhye area was an especially important location at it guarded the westward approaches to the fort of Krasnaya Gorka (Красная Горка, meaning Red Hill), only a few kilometres away, that often served as the Headquarters of the Soviet forces within the *Bridgehead*.

The image is labelled as 'Auswertung: Riegelstellung NW Oranienbaum (im Bau)' (Reconnaissance: defensive position NW Oranienbaum (under construction)), as it shows an elaborate series of Soviet defensive works located at crossroads, that while not yet complete, nevertheless created a formable obstacle to German Panzer (tank) movements. In the lower right corner, the photograph marked up with detailed intelligence notes, employing letters to identify the locations of specific types of defensive infrastructure, including anti-tank barriers, anti-aircraft (flak) facilities, minefields, bunkers, communications systems, artillery positions, etc., as transcribed here:

A) Panzerabwehrgraben. [Anti-tank trench].

B) Panzerfalle. [tank trap].

C) Panzerfalle mit davorliegender doppelreiniger (Pfahlsperre). [Tank trap with double barrier in front].
D) schwere Flakstellung belegt. [heavy flak position occupied].

E) Stellung für mittlere Flak, unbelegt. [Position for medium flak, unoccupied].

F) Funkturm. [radio tower].

G) durch Pfahlsperre gesicherte Bähndamme. [railway dams].

H) Schützennester. [riflemen's nests].

J) Kleinkampfanlage. [Small combat facility].

K) durch Kampfanlangen und Infantriestellungen ausgebauter. [extensive combat systems and infantry positions].

L) vermutl. Minen. [presumably Mines].

M) offener Pakstand. [open artillery stand].

N) oberirdische Stromleitung. [overhead power line].

O) Geschützstellung (unbelegt) Art nicht festellbar. [Gun position (unoccupied) Type not detectable].

Photograph #2.

The second photograph, taken at 10AM on the same morning, to the same scale and specifications, depicts the Soviet defensive positions near *Shepelovo*, a key location on a narrow spit of land between the Gulf of Finland and the lake of Gorovaldayskoye Ozero.

A detailed note in the upper right concerns the site's flak facilities:

"Riegelstellung au einer landbrücke 33 km NW Oranienbaum. Bei der Aufstellung von schweren Flakbaterien bevorzugt der Russe dieselbe trapezförmige Aufstellung wie der Engländer. Vorzüglich is die Tarnung der schweren Flakbatterien bei "E". Nicht mehr fahrbare aber noch Kampflähige Panzerkampfwagen stellt der Russe in Bereitschaftsstellungen".

["Defensive position on a land bridge 33 km NW Oranienbaum. Bhen setting up heavy flak batteries, the Russians prefer the same trapezoidal set-up as the English. The camouflage of the heavy flak batteries at "E" is excellent. The Russians put armored vehicles in readiness that were no longer drivable but still capable of fighting"].

The legend, in the lower right, provides detailed information similar to that present upon the other photograph:

A) Kampfwagensperre aus Pfählen. [Anti-vehicle barrier on stakes].

B) Flächendrahtsperre. [Area wire barrier].

C) Beegte Berietschaftstellungen für nucht mehr fahrb. Aber noch kampfäh. Pzkws [Confirmed advisory positions for nothing more mobile, but still capable of fighting].

D) Schartenstand. [Small Bunker].

E) Getarnte schw[eren] Flakstellung. (Beleg. nicht erkennbar.) [Camouflaged heavy flak position (unclear is occupied.)].

F) schwere Flakstellung (unbelegt.) [heavy flak position (unoccupied)].

G) Fla-M.G.-Stellung [Machine gun station].

H) Schartenstände in gemeinsamer Rundumflächendrahtsperre. [Small bunkers along the common all-round wire barrier].

J) Offener Pakstand m. Berietsch.-Raum. [Anti-tank bunker with observation room]

K) Verm. Beobachtungsstand m. Kabelgraben. [presumably Observation platform with cable trench].

L) Tampelspuren lassen auf militär. Gebände schließen (Unterkunft). [Leave tamping marks on military ones. Closing bonds (cities)].

M) Verm. Getarnete Kampfanlage. [presumably Camouflaged combat system].

These photographs would have been highly valued by the German high command near Leningrad as they moved to stave off the Soviet offensive against the Peterhof. As it turned out, the Germans declined to mount a full-on offensive against the rear of the Soviet positions in the Bridgehead at that time. The decision to hold off was perhaps in part due the formidable state of the Soviet defensive positions as shown on intelligence photographs like those present here.

The Photographs: Unrecorded

We cannot trace any references to either of the present photographs, let alone the locations of any other examples. This is not surprising, as only a few examples would have been made, reserved for secret high-level use, while they would generally have been destroyed after use. The photographs are thus extraordinary original artefacts from some of the most dramatic events along the Eastern Front of World War II.

The Siege of Leningrad: Soviet Bravery during 872 Days of Terror

The 872-day long Siege of Leningrad was one of the most horrific events of World War II, that showcased both the Third Reich's depravity and the bravery of the Soviet people to their maximal extents.

The Third Reich and the Soviets signed the Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact (August 23, 1939) forging an alliance of convenience, dividing Poland between them. However, as Germany steamrolled the Allies in Western Europe, Hitler (against the advice of many of his generals) felt emboldened to follow his avaricious instincts. As part of his design to gain 'lebensraum' (living space) for the German race, the Third Reich formed the 'Generalplan Ost', a genocidal scheme to invade and completely depopulate European Russia of its indigenous inhabitants, so leaving room to create and re-settle a gigantic Germany extending to the gates of Asia.

On June 22, 1941, Germany invaded the Soviet Union, in what was called *Operation Barbarossa*. This massive endeavour employed over 4 million Axis troops and aimed to duplicate the Blizkrieg that had easily crushed France the year previous, by making a lightning strike across the Russian plains to take all the territory west of the 'A-A Line', which ran north-south from Archangel to Astrakhan, before the onset of the winter. This plan assumed that both Leningrad and Moscow could be taken with relative ease. The Germans possessed an overwhelming technological and organizational advantage, and assumed that the Soviets would 'fold' without too much trouble, as the Russians had in the early part of World War I.

However, while the Germans initially held the upper-hand and made progress into Soviet territory, they severely underestimated the commitment and bravery of the Red Army. Even with comparatively poor weaponry, and with variable leadership, the Soviet troops fought tirelessly and fearlessly; even after enduring horrendous casualties, their resolve remained undiminished.

Taking Leningrad was of vital importance to the 'Generalplan Ost'. While no longer the national capital of Russia, the city was the USSR's window to the world, a great symbol Russian pride, as well as being a major industrial centre. Hitler's plan was to almost completely level the city, killing or exiling all of its inhabitants, whereupon Germany would annex the territory south of the Neva River, while its Axis ally Finland would take the land to the north. The fact that the Nazis were content to kill millions of civilians and erase one of the world's great cultural gems is indicative of their total barbarity.

In early September, the Germans were able to take the land to the south of Leningrad, while the Finns captured the territory to the north of the city, completely surrounding the metropolis, at least on all its landward sides. Leningrad's 2.5 million residents were trapped inside the city, with only very limited stores of food and other supplies. Meanwhile, what remained of the Soviet Baltic fleet fled to the island naval base of Kronstadt, which remained in Soviet hands, while the Germans enforced a complete naval blockade.

So confident was Hitler of quickly taking the city, that he even had invitations printed for a victory celebration to be held at Leningrad's luxurious Astor Hotel. However, events did not turn out that way.

All able-bodied Soviets were called to man anti-tank and anti-aircraft guns (of which there were many), and to defend the city's perimeters. Meanwhile, the Axis forces of about 725,000 that enveloped Leningrad proceeded to mercilessly bombard the city and to continually test it defenses. The Nazis were confident that, given the shortage of food and supplies in the city, Leningrad would either surrender or fall sooner than later.

However, Leningrad's citizens showed remarkable drive and bravery. Even as thousands of civilians started to die of hunger and as bombs reigned down seemingly everywhere, they kept fighting and succeeded in preventing any Axis violations of the city's perimeters. Additionally, as noted above, the Soviet's retention of the 'Oranienbaum Bridgehead' proved to be a severe liability and distraction to the Wehrmacht. The German high command grew increasingly frustrated as their attempts to attack Kronstadt over the winter ice failed, while despite their best efforts, nothing shook the Soviet resolve to hold Leningrad.

Meanwhile, the situation around Leningrad came to mirror the general state of play along the Eastern Front. The Barbarossa Campaign came nowhere near reaching the A-A Line, while the vicious Winter

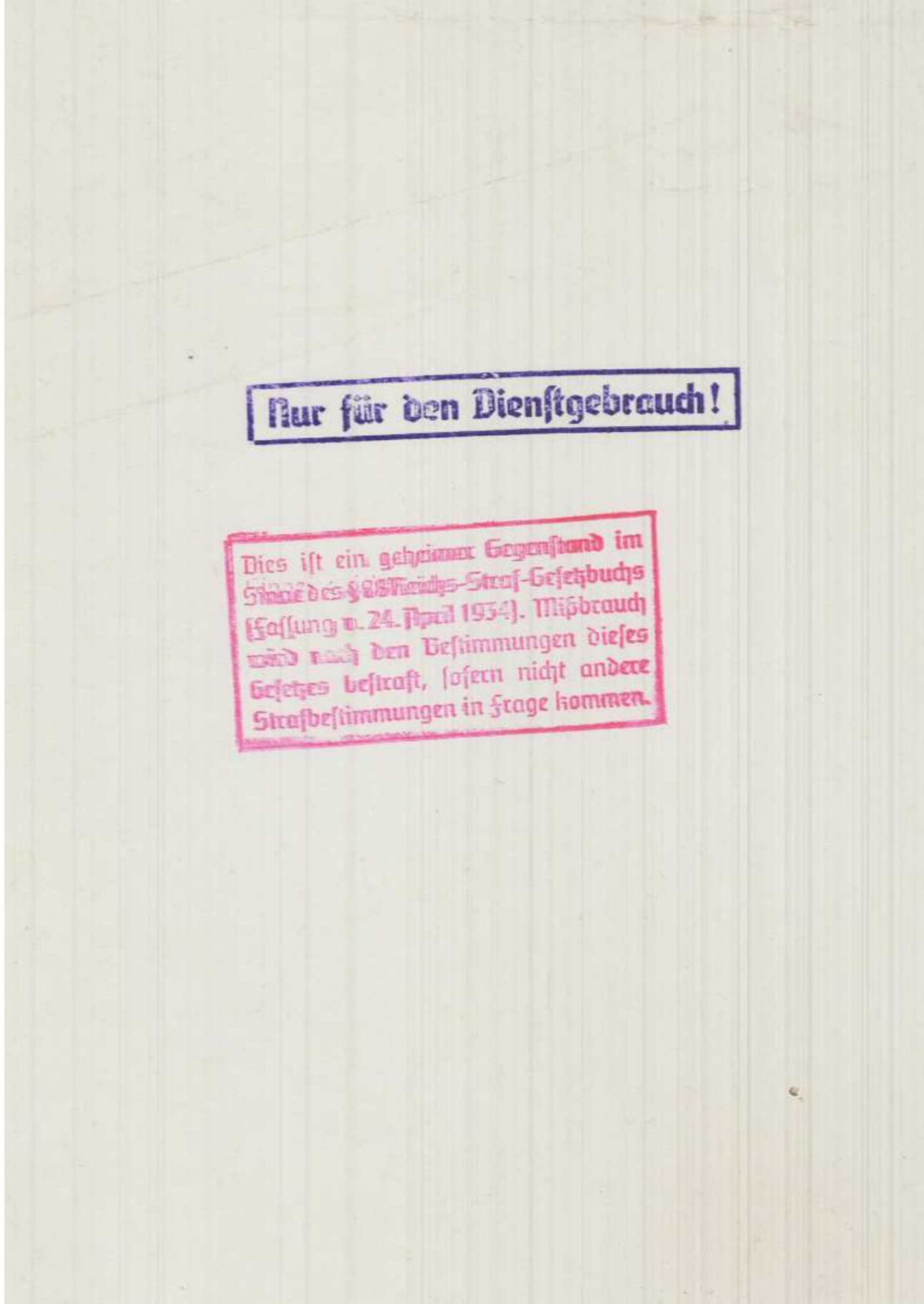
of 1941-42 set in. The Nazis' progress was slowed by heavy Soviet resistance, and at the end of the next campaign season, the Germans suffered a crushing defeat at the Battle of Stalingrad (August 23, 1942 – February 2, 1943), whereupon a large portion of their Eastern army was encircled and destroyed, in one of the most atrocious military events in world history. From that point onwards, the Germans were on the defensive, with many resources still being dedicated towards taking Leningrad.

Indeed, even after suffering hundreds of thousands of casualties, in an endless scene of almost unparalleled suffering, the defenders of Leningrad simply refused to stop fighting. Finally, the Axis side was so worn down that in January 1944, the Soviets, critically including those from the Oranienbaum Bridgehead, moved to break the siege, driving the Germans away from Leningrad, and liberating the city.

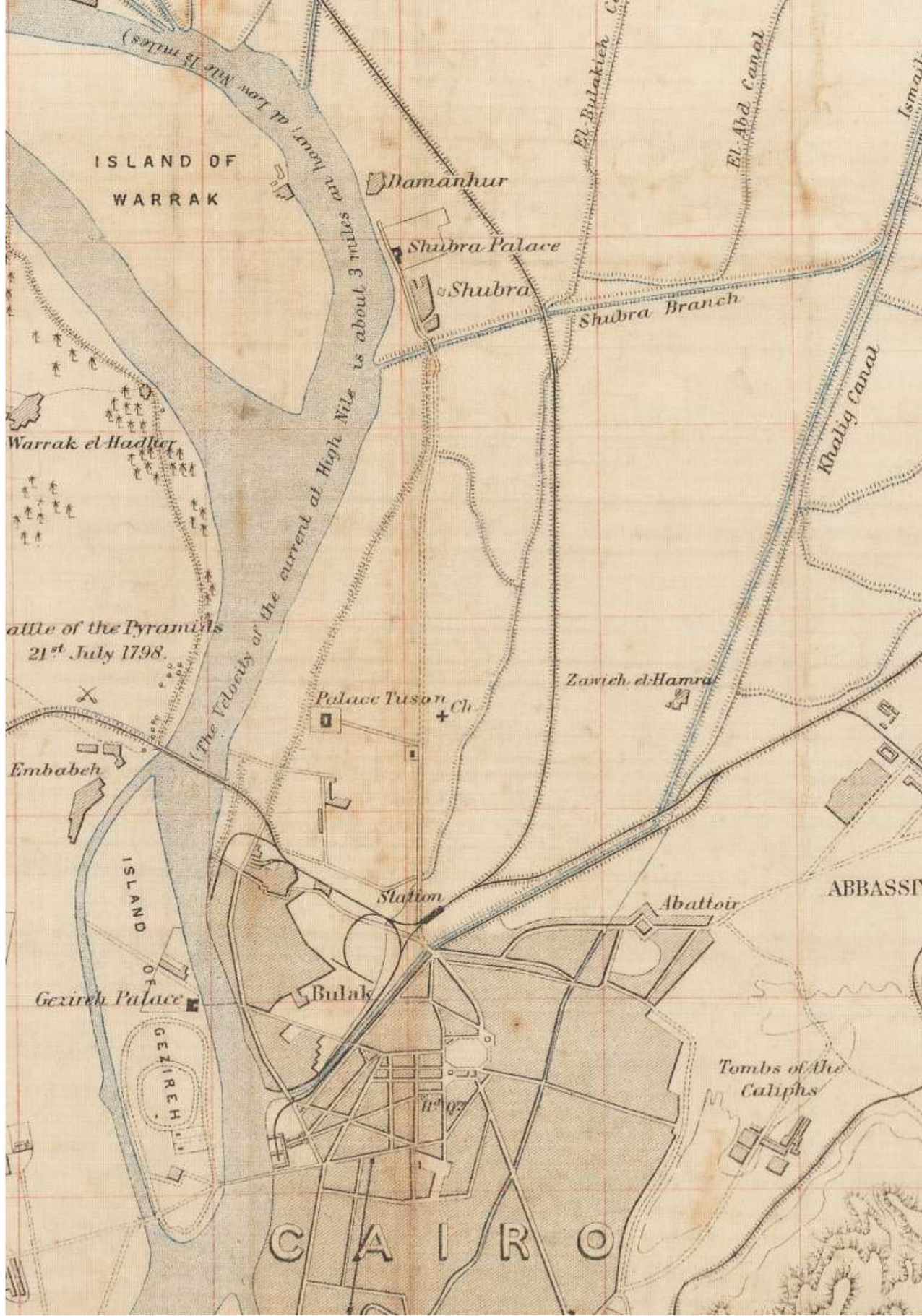
While the resistance of Leningrad represents one of the greatest examples of bravery and human strength in history, it came at a horrendous cost. Almost 1.1 million of the city's residents died, in addition to over 500,000 Soviet troops. However, many of the Leningrad's great edifices and historical sites survived, and the city managed to revive itself in the postwar era, although the memory of the siege remains vivid to the present day.

References: N/A – Both Photographs Seemingly Unrecorded.

1.800 EUR



26. Cairo, Egypt
African-Middle Eastern Urbanism
Archaeology
Important Military Cartography



BRITISH ARMY HEADQUARTERS, CAIRO. / Reginald Arthur James TALBOT (1841 - 1929), Supervising Editor.

Map of Country around Cairo / Compiled in the Head Quarters Office from reconnaissances by Officers by order of Major General the Hon: R.A.J. Talbot, C.B. Commanding the Forces in Egypt.

[London:] Intelligence Division, War Office, November 1899.

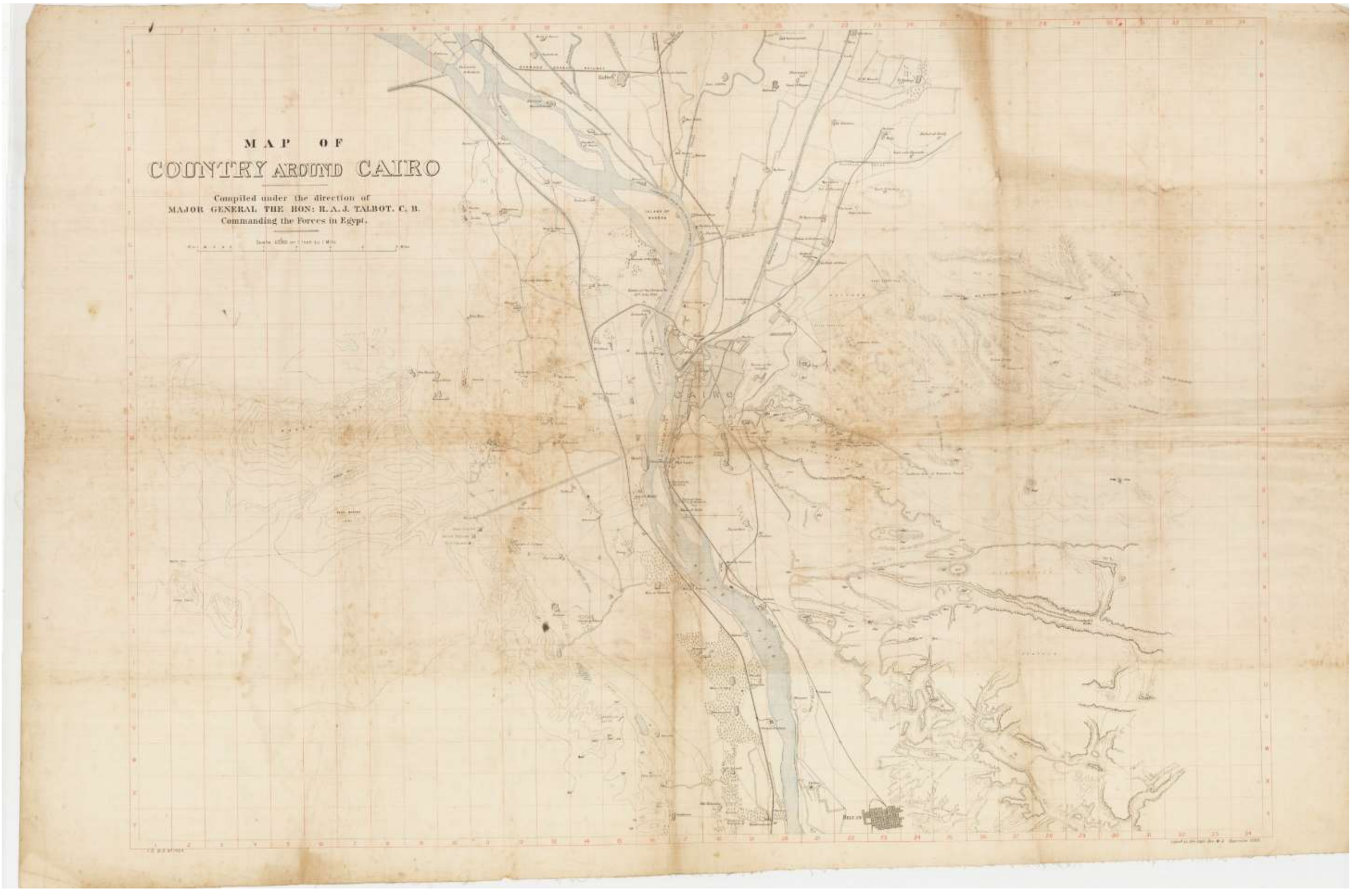
Coloured zincograph printed on cloth, with contemporary manuscript additions in black pen (Good, save for some pronounced foxing and staining along old folds and in central area), 70 x 105 cm (27.6 x 41.3 inches).

The first edition of an extremely rare – and a possibly a unique example printed on cloth – of a large map of Cairo and environs, made under the supervision of Major General R.A.J. Talbot, the Commander of the British Forces in Egypt, with many fascinating details concerning urbanism and archology, published in London by the Intelligence Division of the War Office.

This extremely rare large format map, printed on cloth (for easy field use), depicts Cairo and its environs roughly 10 to 15 miles around, to the ample scale of 1 mile to the inch. Predicated upon bespoke

MAP OF
COUNTRY AROUND CAIRO

Compiled under the direction of
MAJOR GENERAL THE HON: R. A. J. TALBOT, C. B.
Commanding the Forces in Egypt.



surveys, it was made by the mapping corps attacked to the Headquarters of the British Army in Cairo on the orders and under the supervision of Major General Reginald Arthur James Talbot, the Commander of the British forces in Egypt. It was made in November 1899, just after Anglo-Egyptian forces had put down the Mahdist Revolt (1881-99) in Sudan, and when Britain was granted an opportunity to strengthen its authority over Egypt (which had been a British protectorate since 1882).

The map is of a very pleasing design, depicting all built-up areas, waterways (coloured in blue), roads, railway lines and stations, cultivated areas, points of elevation and wadis, and archaeological sites, all in an unusually clear manner, and placed upon a red reference grid.

The city of Cairo (which then had a population of only about 600,000 – compared to over 20 million today), is located dead centre, and while a large city for the time, it occupied only a small fraction of today's metro area which spreads over most of the territory shown on the present map.

The map shows that the downtown of Cairo had by this time shifted to the area of straight streets and squares near the Nile, and away from its traditional hub below the 'Citadel', to the southeast. This dramatic change to Cairo's urbanscape was made on the orders of Isma'il Pasha, the Khedive of Egypt (r. 1863-79), and was by this time home to many grand public buildings, including the 'Hd. Qts.' (Headquarters of the British Army), where the manuscript for the present map was drafted. To the northwest of Cairo proper, on the Nile, is the port town of Bulak, home to the famous Arabic printing house. To the northeast of Cairo, near Abbasiyeh, is the 'Polygon', a giant British Army base, with an extensive 'Firing Range', etc.

To the northeast of Cairo is discreetly marked 'Heliopolis', then just the remains of ancient site, but which would soon become the home of Cairo's most luxurious suburb, of the same name, initiated in 1905 by the Belgian 'empresario' Edouard Empain. Heliopolis is today also the site of Cairo International Airport.

To the south of Cairo is 'Old Cairo', home of the 'Nilometer', the all-important instrument that gaged the river level, and the prospects for good crops in the Nile Delta. Across the river is 'Giza', and the strait road towards the Mena House royal lodge (today a luxurious hotel), at the foot of the Great Pyramids, which are each distinguished pictographically. Many other fascinating sites are marked, for example the 'Tombs of the Caliph' and the 'Tombs of the Mamelukes', just outside of Cairo; the 'Pyramids of Abu Syr' and the 'Statues of Ramses II', both south of Giza; the 'Northern line of Petrified Forest', referring to an amazing desert of fossilized trees, east-southeast of Cairo; and across the river from Cairo, to the north, the site of the 'Battle of the Pyramids, 21st July 1798', the famous Napoleonic showdown.

The map was issued in two editions, being the present first edition, published in November 1899, and the second edition, marked as 'Revised August 1901'. The second addition features notable amendments and additions. Please see an image of the second edition, courtesy of the National Library of Australia:

https://nla.gov.au/nla.obj-234582195/view

Interestingly, the present example of the map features extensive manuscript additions, mainly of numerous spot heights upon the hills on both sides of the Nile, as well as a note regarding the water level of the 'Moses Spring', to the east of Cairo. It is quite possible that the present example was used as something like a proof for preparing the second edition of the map, as virtually all of these manuscript additions were subsequently printed on the 1901 issue.

The map was commissioned by Major General Reginald Arthur James Talbot (1841 - 1929), who served as the Commander of the British forces in Egypt from 1899 to 1903. Talbot was known to be a micromanager, and likely took an active role in overseeing the drafting of map. Talbot was an interesting and consequential figure, who hailed from a noble family and attended Harrow before joining the army. He subsequently took a leave from the force and from 1869 to 1875 served as the MP for Stafford. He later rejoined active service, fighting in South Africa in the Zulu War (1879), as well as taking part in the 1885 relief mission that unsuccessfully sought to rescue General Charles Gordon during the Mahdist Revolt. Following his successful role in leading the forces in Egypt, one of the most important roles in the military, Talbot was appointed as the Governor of Victoria, Australia (serving from 1904 to 1908). There he worked energetically and successfully to improve the state's economy and educational system.

A Note on Rarity

All examples of either edition of the map are extremely rare. The map would have been issued in only a small print run and would have been restricted for use only by senior British military officers and members of the defense establishment. We can trace 5 examples of the map in institutional collections, in either of the editions. The British Library holds 2 examples, while a single example is held by the Collège de France (Paris), although it is not clear whether these are first or second editions. The Bodleian Library (Oxford University) and the National Library of Australia hold examples of the second edition. Moreover, we are not aware of any sales records for the map.

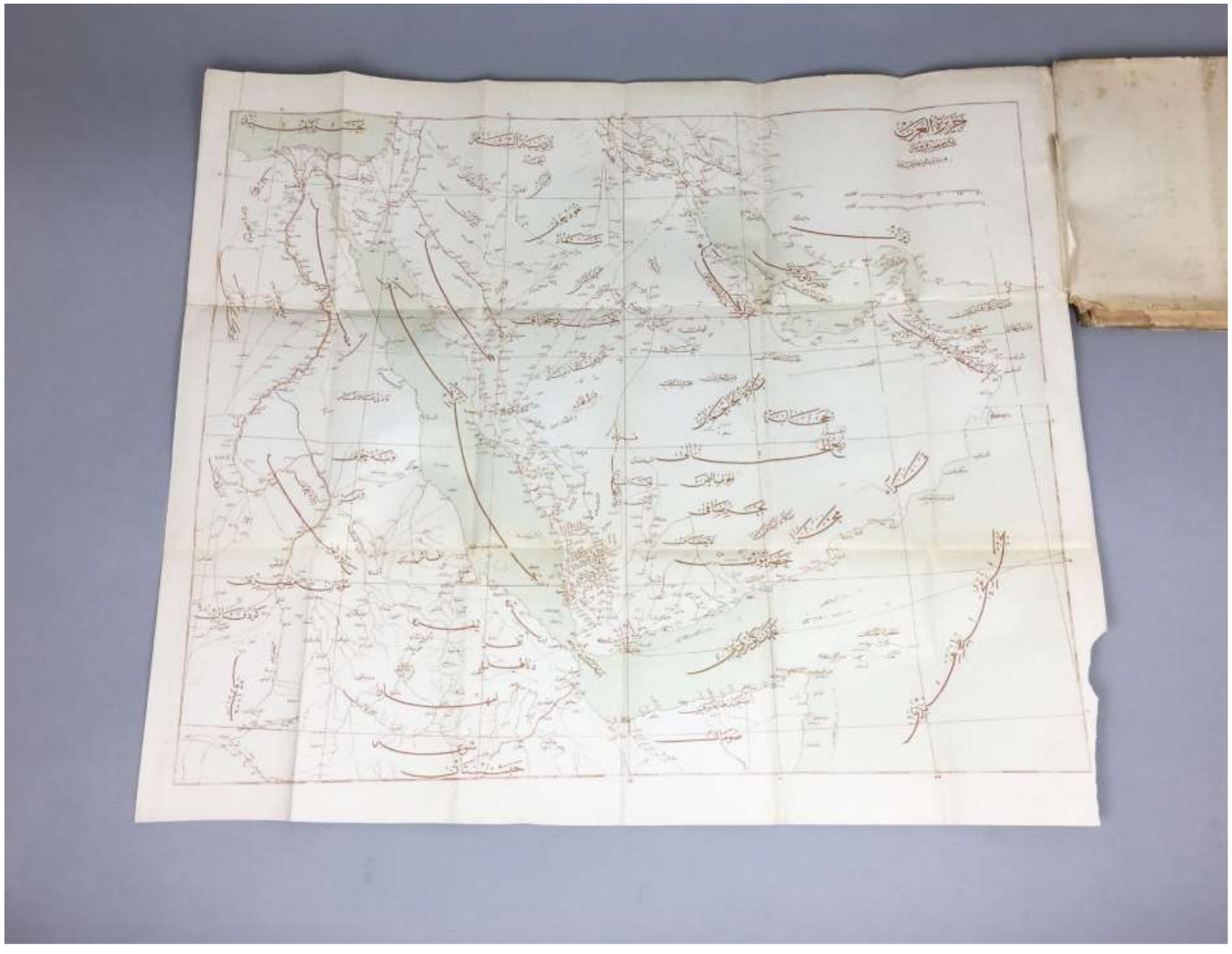
Importantly, the present example may be unique, as it is a first edition printed on cloth, with the other surviving examples likely issued on paper.

References: [Re: institutional examples of either edition:] British Library: Maps 64480.(5.) and Maps MOD IDWO 1434; Bodleian Library (Oxford University): E13:18 (12); National Library of Australia: 6491616; OCLC: 894671629, 556771147, 497569023 and 47113652.

950 EUR

27. Yemen
Zaidi Rebellion
Important Map of Arabia

Da'an (1911), which ended the lengthy Zaidi Rebellion, restoring Ottoman de jure sovereignty in North Yemen; authored by Rüşdü Pasha, a senior Ottoman officer who served extensively on the front line in Yemen; the work is still heavily cited as one of the most authoritative sources on modern Yemeni military, political, social and cartographic history, and in particular for its coverage of the root causes of today's Yemeni Civil War.



Mirliva RÜŞDÜ PASHA (1872 - 1926).

يمن خاتره سى

[Yemen Hatırası / Memories of Yemen].

Istanbul: Kitbhne-i slm ve 'Asker for *İbrahim Hilmi* / Matbaa-i Osmaniye, 1325/7 [1909/11].

8°: 201 pp., [1 p. errata], plus 6 illustrated plates interleaved through text, plus 8 large folding lithographed plates (including 1 colour lithographed map of Arabia, 55 x 49 cm. (21.6 x 19.3 inches)), bound in original colour illustrated wrappers (inside in a good, clean, uncut condition with only minor foxing and small water staining in the bottom corner, wrappers with light foxing and water staining in the bottom corner, small tears, cracks and loss of paper to the margins of the wrappers, spine renewed).

Extremely rare - one of the seminal works on early 20th century Yemen, profusely illustrated with 6 plates of images and 8 large folding maps/views, including a bespoke version of the Ottoman General Staff's highly important large format map of the 'Arabian Peninsula and the Red Sea'; released the year of the Treaty of

This extremely rare, profusely illustrated work is one of the seminal works on Yemen during the early 20th century. It was written by Rüşdü Pasha, a highly intellectual, but controversial Ottoman army commander, who served for many years in Yemen, Asir and Hejaz. It was released the same year as the Treaty of Da'an (1911), which ended a seven year-long war between the Ottomans and the forces of Imam Yahya Muhammad Hamid ed-Din, the leader of the Shi'a Zaidi movement, based in Sana'a, which had been fighting the Sublime Porte on-and-off for 300 years. The accord left the Ottomans as sovereigns over all of North Yemen (South Yemen was the British Protectorate of Aden), although the Zaidi imam was guaranteed extensive autonomy over the country. Importantly, the work had recently enjoyed something of revival in interest, as it is one of the key sources revealing the root causes of the ongoing *Yemeni Civil War (2014 – Present)*.

Based in large part upon Rüşdü's own firsthand experiences and research conducted during the Zaidi Rebellion, it forms a peerless account of Yemen at a critical historical juncture. It commences with a very sensitive and enlightened discussion on how the conflict was a horrendous human rights tragedy, for those on both sides; many young Ottoman soldiers met horrible deaths, while the fighting and related depravations were destroying an entire generation of Yemeni youth. Rüşdü is very critical of the command of his own Ottoman Army for its abuses of the locals, as well as its neglect of its own frontline troops. His sensitivity and humanity are very much ahead of the time and place, which otherwise had a high tolerance of such horrors.

The work goes onto provide highly detailed descriptions of the main events of the war and a reasoned assessment of its protagonists. Rüşdü then gives descriptions of the country's major cities and historical sites, natural wanders and economy, as well as the cultures and traditions of its people. He also grants a valuable insiders' view into the nature of the Ottoman high command and administration, as well as providing fascinating vignettes from Yemeni history. The work features a wealth of information available nowhere else and is imbued with great credibility, as the author attempts to be as objective as possible, trying to see things though both Ottoman and Yemeni eyes.

The text is interleaved with 6 plates featuring photographs and views of Yemeni people and sites, while at the end, are 8 large folding plates of maps and views, including a highly important Ottoman map of the Arabian Peninsula.

To clear up some confusion, the title page of the work features one date (1305 / 1909) and publisher (Matbaa-i Osmaniye), where the covers feature another date (1307 / 1911) and publisher (Kitbhne-i slm ve 'Asker for *İbrahim Hilmi*). This is not uncommon with Ottoman books of period, where the publishing industry was very fluid. In this case, it seems that Matbaa-i Osmaniye had commenced printing Rüşdü's manuscript by 1305 (1909), but perhaps ran into financial trouble, and so handed the project off to *İbrahim Hilmi*, one of Istanbul's most successful publishers, to finish the job. This was accomplished two years later, just in time to coincide with the Treaty of Da'an (October 1911), which ended the conflict that so horrified Rüşdü.

There was only one contemporary edition of the work (the present), and it would not be reprinted in full for over a century.

<u>The 8 Folding Maps / Views in Focus</u>:

1.

MAP OF THE ARABIAN PENINSULA:

***After the* Erkan-I Harbiye-I Umumiye. [General Staff of the Ottoman Army]**

عربستان و بحر أحمر[Arabian Peninsula and the Red Sea].

Bi-Chrome lithograph (brown and blue) (Very Good, some light toning along lower horizontal fold and some loss to blank lower right corner), 54 x 63 cm.

This is a bespoke edition of one of the only large format Ottoman maps to focus on the Arabian Peninsula, printed especially for the present work, after the Erkan-I Harbiye-I Umumiye's [General Staff of The Ottoman Army] map, the 'Arabian Peninsula and the Red Sea', first published in Istanbul in 1897.

The present map semes to have been issued from the same printing matrix as the first edition. It is printed in different tints than the original and strips away the shading used to express elevation; however, it is of the same scale and features all of the details present on the original, yet, importantly, provides far greater detail with respect to its portrayal of Yemen.

Please see a link to the 1897 edition, courtesy of the David Rumsey Collection:

https://www.davidrumsey.com/luna/servlet/detail/RUMSEY~8~1~328278~90096758:عربستان-و-بحر-أحمر-=-Arabistan-wa-B?sort=Pub_List_No_InitialSort%2CPub_Date%2CPub_List_No%2CSeries_No&qvq=q:ottoman%20arabia;sort:Pub_List_No_InitialSort%2CPub_Date%2CPub_List_No%2CSeries_No;lc:RUMSEY~8~1&mi=1&trs=13

It is worth noting that the 1897 edition of the map is incredibly rare (known in only 2 examples), while the present edition, issued within Rüşdü's work, is the only other version of the map of which we are aware.

The map was conceived when when the Sublime Porte was going to great lengths to shore up its authority in the Red Sea region (Hejaz, Asir and Yemen), while being pressured by Britain to retreat from the domains it claimed in the Persian Gulf region (Kuwait, Al-Qatif/Hofuf and Qatar).

The map was of great value to Ottoman generals and cabinet officials for strategic planning, as Arabia was increasingly a focus of global attention and interference. The map encompasses all of the Arabian Peninsula, and extends north as far as Haifa and Baghdad, and west to embrace Egypt, Sudan, and the Nile Valley, and runs south to Ethiopia and the Horn of Africa, while Persia appears in the upper right. The map has a very clean and precise appearance, making it easy to read and analyze, its design seemingly influenced by the German engineers who were then advising the Ottoman Army. The coastlines, rivers and swamplands are crisply depicted; all cities and towns of note are labelled; the names of regions and tribal areas are noted; while all key roads and Hajj caravan routes are delineated.

The map was predicated upon recent scientific mapping and is methodically empiricist in nature; all conjectural information is avoided. Sultan Abdul Hamid II (reigned 1876 - 1909) was obsessed with maintaining control of Hejaz and Islam's holiest cities of Mecca and Medina, as the possession of these sites underpinned his claim to being the Caliph (Protector) of Islam. Mecca appears near the centre of the map, while the nearby port of Jeddah was home to the Red Sea command of the Ottoman Navy; while to the north is Medina. Much of the Syrian Hajj Road, perhaps the most frequented single overland route for pilgrims, is shown to run down to Mecca from the direction of Damascus.

To the south of Hejaz is the region of Asir, and beyond northern Yemen, both areas to which the Ottomans had in recent years deployed massive military resources in an effort to subdue determined local unrest. Further still, is the British protectorate of Aden, home to a key Royal Navy Base, and up the coast, Oman, long a British protectorate.

The map features stellar coverage of the Persian Gulf, labelling all the constituent sheikhdoms of the Trucial States, the future United Arab Emirates (Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Ras el Khaimah, etc.); Qatar (then an autonomous part of the Ottoman Empire); Bahrain (a British protectorate prized for its fine natural harbour); and Kuwait, an autonomous sheikhdom within the Ottoman Empire that would shortly become a British protectorate. Inland, the map details the Saudi-Wahhabi domains Nejd, with its capital Riyadh, while to the northwest is the territory of the rival Al-Rashid clan, with its capital Ha'il. Squeezed on both sides by Kuwait and Persia, the map shows that the Ottomans' only remaining window to the Persian Gulf was the river port of Basra, on the Shatt al-Arab waterway, a major commercial centre and the regional headquarters of the Ottoman Army and Navy. Notably, extending from Najaf, Iraq, down to Mecca is one of the great Shia Hajj caravan routes.

Rüşdü Pasha's work remains the most authoritative account of the Zaidi Rebellion, as well a key source on the geography and social and political history of Yemen from the *fin de siècle* period. It is often cited by academics today, and the work was translated into modern Turkish and republished in 2004 and 2013, where it reached a surprising wide audience, no doubt augmented by the interest in the ongoing *Yemeni Civil War (2014 – Present)*, which has its historical roots in the events described in the present work.

Rüşdü Pasha: Consequential and Controversial Turkish Soldier, Author and Statesman

Rüşdü Pasha (1872 – 1926) was a highly consequential and controversial figure in late Ottoman and early Turkish Republican history. He graduated in 1893 from the Military Academy in Istanbul as an artillery lieutenant. In the early 1900s, he served for several years as a senior officer in Yemen, Asir and Hejaz, and commanded anti-guerilla operations against the Zaidi rebels. A man of great intellect, he developed a keen interest in the mapping of the country, as well as regional history and cultures.

Following his service in Arabia, Rüşdü wrote the present profusely illustrated work which remains the authoritative source on the Zaidi Rebellion and the condition of Yemen during the *fin de siècle* period. He also published a work on Aqaba, a place that was soon to become world famous as the location of Lawrence of Arabia's greatest achievement.

Rüşdü served in the Balkan Wars (1912-3), and during World War I, he commanded divisions against the Russians in Eastern Anatolia and Caucasus, for which the Sultan elevated him to the title of 'Pasha'. During the Turkish War of Independence, he played a key role in the great victory at the Battle of Sakayra (1921), after which he was promoted to the rank of 'Mirliva' (Major General).

After the war, he was a senior member of President Mustafa *Kemal Atatürk's* People's Party (CHP), and was elected as the deputy for his native city of Erzurum.

An issue that remains of tremendous controversy today is the nature of the dissent that existed against *Atatürk* within his own ranks, and the president's reaction to it. Rüşdü Pasha was one of the major figures who had issues with *Atatürk*'s autocratic leadership, and held company with many figures who were allegedly prepared to take radical means to contest it.

In June 1926, *Atatürk*'s police arrested dozens of senior Turkish figures, including Rüşdü Pasha, accusing them of being involved in the 'Izmir Plot', an apparent design to assassinate *Atatürk* while he visited Izmir on June 14, 1926. As it turned out, the planned visit to the city never transpired, yet the supposed 'plotters' were quickly apprehended. After speedy trials, many of the accused, including Rüşdü Pasha, were executed, while others were jailed or exiled. It is not clear, even today, whether the Izmir Plot actually existed, and if it did, how serious it was or who was involved. Many believe that *Atatürk* exaggerated the extent of the plot as an excuse for purging his enemies. In any event, the elimination of the 'plotters' solidified *Atatürk*'s hold on power as the absolute ruler of Turkey.

A Note on Rarity

The present work is extremely rare, with its low survival rate no doubt affected by its very fragile physical nature. Moreover, despite its great influence, it would have had a relatively low print run, as it was an expensive and sophisticated work issued.

While a number of electronic examples are recorded in online databases, we can definitively trace only 3 institutional examples, held by the *Turkish Historical Society Library (Ankara), the* University of Toronto, and the University of Leiden. We cannot locate any sales records and are not aware of any anecdotal evidence of it appearing on the market going back many years.

A Brief History of Ottoman Yemen

Yemen is one of the most ancient and culturally rich and diverse lands in the Middle East. It was traditionally also the source of great wealth; its interior produced coffee and silver, while its coastal ports were for millennia great marts of trade. Its strategic location often ensured that control of Yemen led to naval dominance of the Red Sea, the most vital maritime link between South and East Asia and Europe.

The Ottomans first conquered much of the country in 1517, creating the Eyelet of Yemen, which extended from the Bab-el-Mandeb northwards to include what are today the Jazan and Asir provinces of Saudi Arabia (the Aden region and the Hadramawt were then considered peripheral). From the eyelet's capital, the port of Mocha, the Ottomans derived considerable revenue from trading the region's commodities and slaves, while their presence in Yemen anchored their control of the Red Sea. However, over the succeeding decades the Ottomans faced increasingly effective resistance from communities in the interior, such that their effective rule was confined the 'Tihama', the coastal plain along the Red Sea. In particular, the warriors of Qasim the Great (ruled 1597-1620), a Zaidi imam (a Shi'a Islamic community base din Sana'a), severely weakened Ottoman rule, to the point where the Turks withdrew form Yemen altogether in 1636. For the next two centuries Yemen remained free of direct Ottoman influence and was generally governed by a succession of local potentates.

In 1839, Britain founded a naval base at Aden, and gradually attempted to spread its influence throughout the Arabian Sea coast of Yemen. Meanwhile, the Sublime Porte was facing tremendous pressure from Egypt, its unruly and powerful former vassal. The government of Ottoman Sultan Abdulmejid I faced the prospect of being squeezed out of the Red Sea altogether. Most worrisome was the threat of loosing control of the Hejaz, which contained the Holy Cities of Mecca and Medina. If that were to happen the Sultan's claim to be the Caliph, or the Protector, of Islam would be undercut. Accordingly, Ottoman forces were sent to reconquer Yemen in 1849.

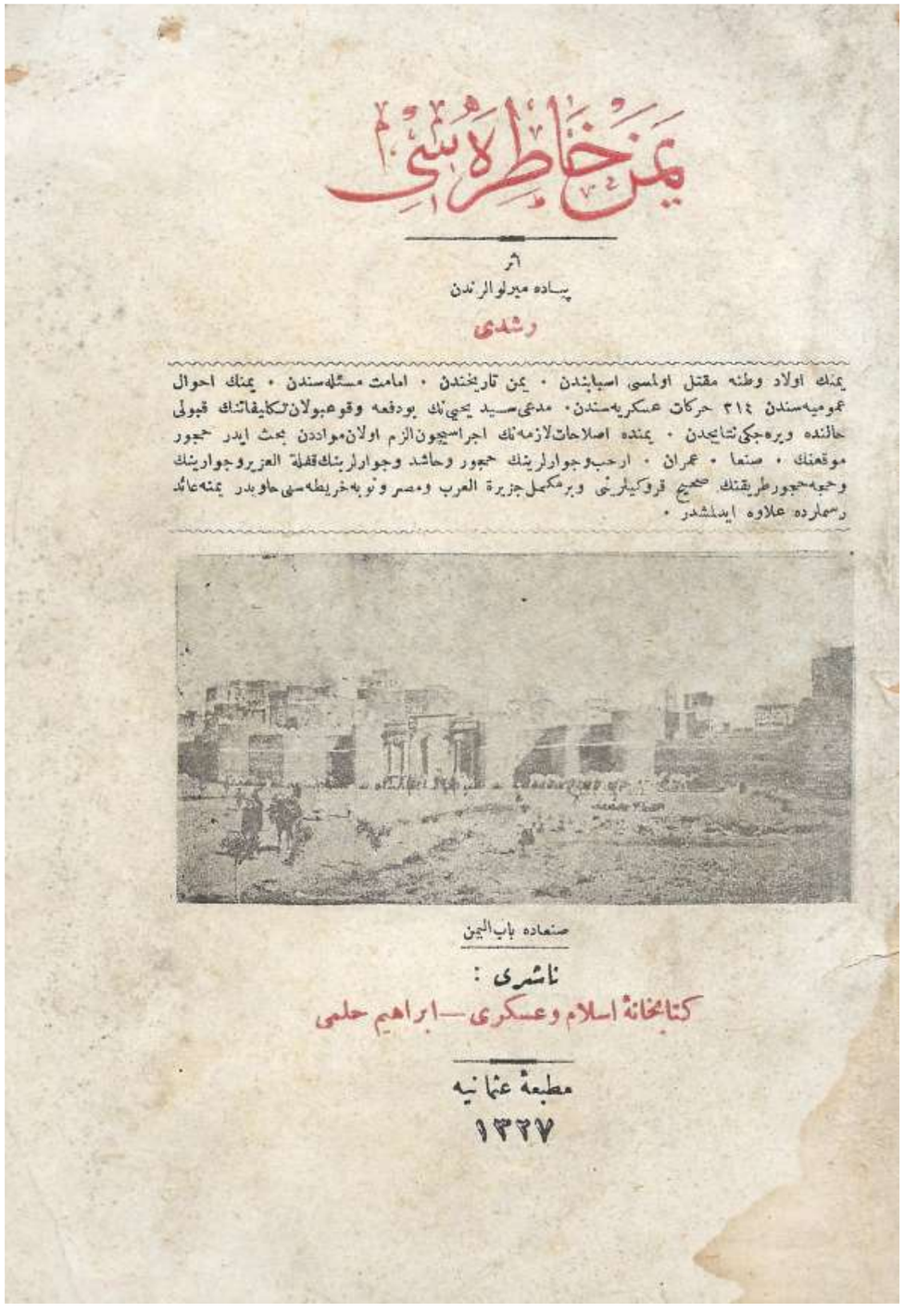
While it helped that some Yemeni tribes welcomed the Ottomans, hoping to unite with them against their local enemies, Turkish forces had a difficult time pacifying the country and their power was for many years limited the Tihama coastal plain. Control of the interior, with its wealth in silver and coffee, remained elusive, as on old opponents, the Zaidiyyah imams, mounted an effective resistance.

The opening of the Anglo-French dominated Suez Canal, in 1869, intensified the Ottoman resolve to control Yemen. In 1872, massive Ottoman forces invaded the country, defeating the Zaidiyyah and taking Sana'a. They create the Vilayet of Yemen and sought to integrate the country into the Ottoman Empire. However, continuous guerrilla resistance hindered their ability to control the rural interior, despite concerted military strikes and the payment of large bribes to various tribal leaders.

In 1904, Yahya Muhammad Hamid ed-Din (1869 – 1948), the Imam of the Zaidis, mounted a large-scale and well-organized rebellion that pinned down vast numbers of Ottoman troops. Despite the best efforts of the Turkish commanders, the insurrection seemed to only gain strength as the years drew on. Eventually, the Sublime Porte, facing severe pressures elsewhere, simply could not continue paying the heavy price in blood and treasure. At the Treaty of Da'an (October 1911), in the same year that the present work was released, the Ottomans made peace with Yahya Muhammad Hamid ed-Din, whereby his regime was to be given autonomous control over Northern Yemen, while technically recognizing de jure Ottoman sovereignty. This state of play continued until the Ottoman Empire collapsed at the end of World War I (1914-8), whereupon all Turkish forces were withdrawn from Yemen.

Yemen was a key theatre in World War I, with the Zaidis supporting the Ottomans, while the British backed the Idrisids. The Ottoman Empire collapsed upon the end of the conflict in 1918, whereupon Imam Yayha declared himself ruler of the Mutawakkilite Kingdom of Yemen, forming a regime that would persist until 1962 (after which the country became the Yen Arab Republic, popularly known as North Yemen). After fighting an exhausting war against the Zaidis, the Idrisids lands were absorbed into Saudi Arabia in 1934. The British continued to rule their Aden Protectorate until 1967, after which point the country became the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen, popularly known as South Yemen. North Yemen and South Yemen were unified in 1990.

Sadly, however, since 2015, Yemen's old rivalries have retuned to the fore, upon the outbreak of the ongoing Yemeni Civil War, which in many ways mirrors the Zaidi Rebellion, as it sees the Houthi rebels (Zaidi Shi'ite Muslims) battling an international alliance of Sunni forces for control of North Yemen.


يمن خاطراتي

اثر

پياده ميرلوالرندن

رشدي

يمنك اولاد وطنه مقتل اولمسي اسبابندن • يمن تاريخندن • امامت مسئلهسندن • يمنك احوال عموميهسندن ٣١٤ حركات عسكريهسندن • مدعي سيد يحيي‌نك بودفعه وقوعبولان تكليفاتنك قبولي حالنده ويرهجكي نتايجدن • يمنده اصلاحات لازمهنك اجراسيچون الزم اولان موادن بحث ايدر حجور موقعنك • صنعا • عمران • ارحب وجوارلرينك حجور وحاشد وجوارلرينك قفلة العزيز وجوارينك وحيه حجور طريقنك صحيح قروكيلرخي وبرمكمل جزيرة العرب ومصر وتوبه خريطه سي حاويدر يمنه عائد رسملرده علاوه ايدلمشدر •

صنعاده باب اليمن

ناشري :

كتابخانهٔ اسلام وعسكري — ابراهيم حلمي

مطبعهٔ عثمانيه

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References: ÖZEGE, no. 22944; *Türk Tarih Kurumu Kütüphanesi (Turkish Historical Society Library, Ankara)*: A/0436; University of Toronto: DS247 .Y42 R8; University of Leiden: 2049 D 7; OCLC: 977697033

5.500 EUR

28. Arabian Horses

محمد عبد القادر الجزائري الحسنى [Muhammad ibn al-Amir Abd al-Qadir al-Jazairi]

كتاب عقد الاجياد في الصافنات الجياد

[Kitāb ‘Iqd al-agyad fi 's-ṣafinat al-giyad]

[Beirut]: 1293 [1877]

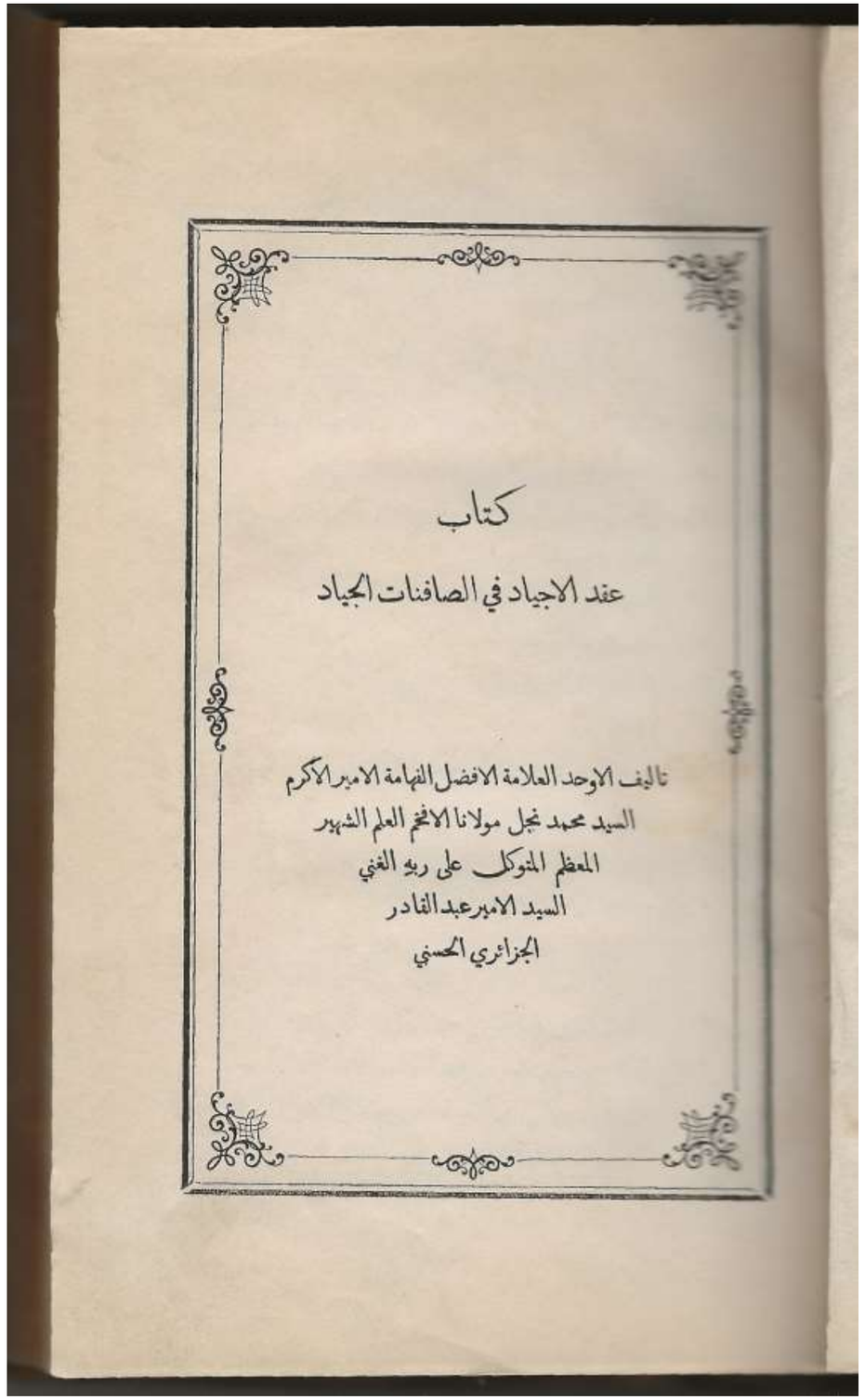
8°, 410 pp., contemporary brown cloth boards with debossed lines, green calf spine with debossed decoration and lettering, original green endpapers (binding lightly scuffed on the corners, small light brown stains on two pages, last page with a tiny piece of end-paper mounted over the text, tiny tears in endpapers, otherwise in a good, clean condition)

A rare book in Arabic langue on Arabian horses, their characteristic and role in the Islamic world

This is a rare first edition of a treatise on Arabic horses by Muhammad ibn al-Amir Abd al-Qadir al-Jazairi, the son of Algerian legendary military and spiritual leader Abdelkader ibn Muhieddine (1808 – 1883), who after leading the rebellion against the French in Algeria and imprisonment in France, settled in Damascus. Muhammad al-Jazairi was known as breeder of Arabian horses.

The words *as-safinat-ul-giyad* in the title imply the horses, which are very calm and quiet, but can reach high speeds when running.

The book, describing the virtue of the horses, is divided in 5 parts, each one with five or more chapters, and a conclusion, The first part quotes Prophet Muhammad’s references and the passages from the


كتاب

عقد الاجياد في الصافنات الجياد

تاليف الاوحد العلامة الافضل الفهامة الامير الاكرم

السيد محمد نجل مولانا الافخم العلم الشهير

المعظم المتوكل على ربه الغني

السيد الامير عبد القادر

الجزائري الحسني

Quran, mentioning the virtues of horses. It also quotes the basic of treating horses, such as a prohibition of castration or eating horse meat.

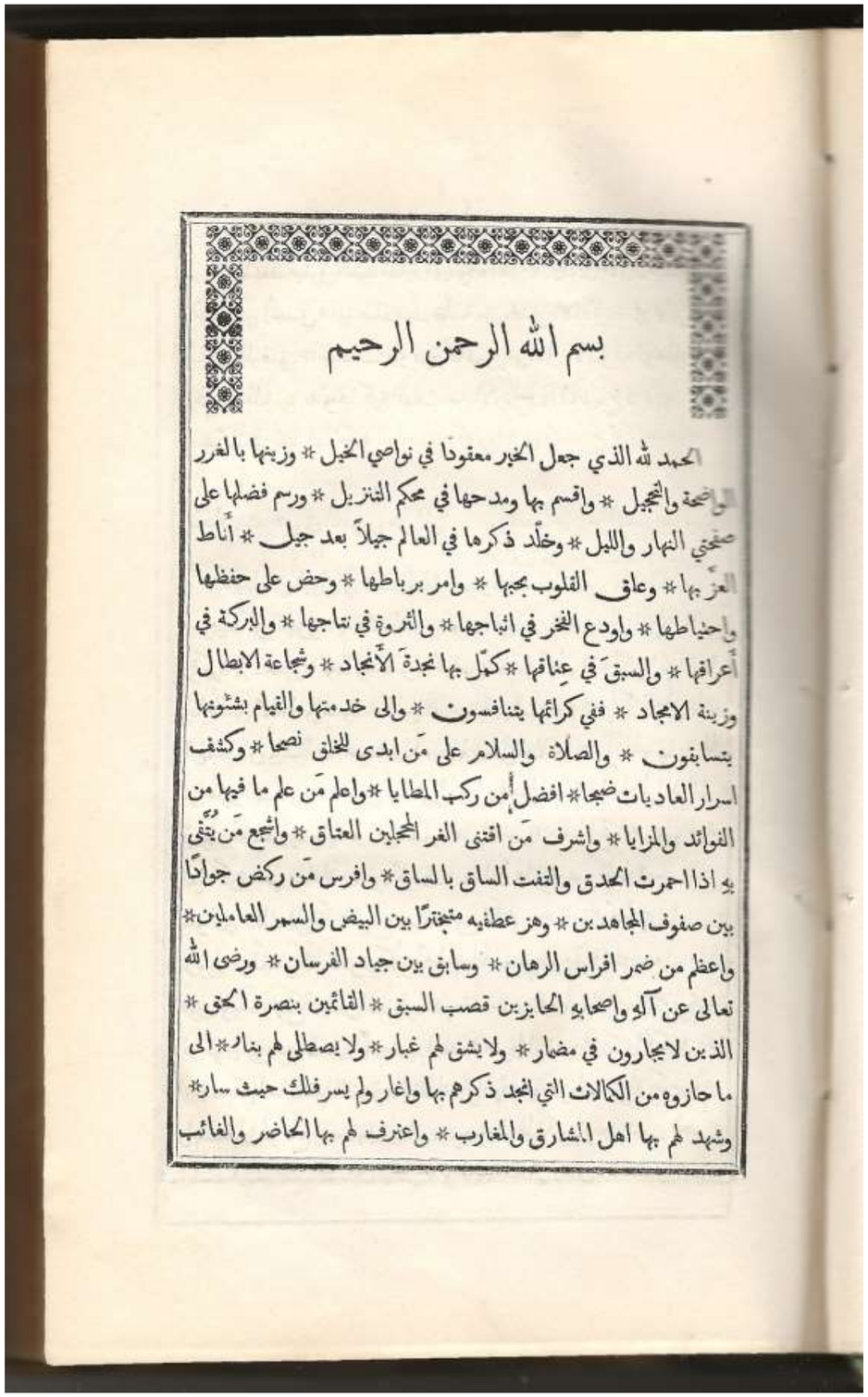
The second part is describing the types of the Arab horses and preferences of a male horse over a mare. The following part analyses the colours and quotes some descriptions of Arab horses by famous writers. In part four, the writer describes the nature, head physiognomy and neighs of Arabian horses. The chapter five represents the praised and reprehensible epithets of horses and their differences in different regions. The books finishes with veterinary advices and conclusions regarding the treatment, training and naming of Arab horses from political and religious view.

This is a rare first edition, published in Lebanon (جاسر، حمد, معجم أسماء خيل العرب وفرسانها, Vol 2, p. 46). The second, shortened and more common edition was published in Beirut in 1326 (1908) under the title نخبة عقد الاجياد في الصافنات الجياد (Nukhbat ʿiqd al-ajyād fī al-ṣāfināt al-jīyād).

We could trace three institutional examples on Worldcat (Universität Konstanz, Orient-Institut Beirut, National Library of Israel)

References: OCLC 1232421076, 311370556.

2.400 EUR



بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

الحمد لله الذي جعل الخير معقودًا في نواصي الخيل * وزينها بالغرر
الواضحة والتحجيل * واقسم بها ومدحها في محكم التنزيل * ورسم فضلها على
صفحتي النهار والليل * وخلّد ذكرها في العالم جيلاً بعد جيل * أناط
العز بها * وعاق القلوب بحبها * وامر برباطها * وحض على حفظها
واحتياطها * واودع الفخر في اثباجها * والثروة في نتاجها * والبركة في
أعراقها * والسبق في عِناقها * كمّل بها نجدةَ الأنجاد * وشجاعة الابطال
وزينة الامجاد * ففي كرائمها يتنافسون * والى خدمتها والقيام بشئونها
يتسابقون * والصلاة والسلام على مَن ابدى للخلق نصحا * وكشف
اسرار العاديات ضبحا * افضل أمن ركب المطايا * واعلم مَن علم ما فيها من
الفوائد والمزايا * واشرف مَن اقتنى الغر المحجلين العتاق * واشجع مَن يُتّقى
به اذا احمرت الحدق والتفت الساق بالساق * وافرس مَن ركض جوادًا
بين صفوف المجاهدين * وهز عطفيه متجترًا بين البيض والسمر العاملين *
واعظم من ضمر افراس الرهان * وسابق بين جياد الفرسان * ورضى الله
تعالى عن آله واصحابه الحايزين قصب السبق * القائمين بنصرة الحق *
الذين لايجارون في مضمار * ولا يشق لهم غبار * ولا يصطلى لهم بنار * الى
ما حازوه من الكمالات التي انجد ذكرهم بها واغار ولم يسر فلك حيث سار *
وشهد لهم بها اهل المشارق والمغارب * واعترف لهم بها الحاضر والغائب

29. Quran
Bakhchysarai Imprint

كلام قديم

[Kalamun Qadim also Kalam Qadim]

Bakhchysarai: مطبعة ترجمان [Matbaa Tercüman] 1898

16°, 522 pp., [6 pp.] blank, printed on thin pink paper, original full calf with flap, gilt and silver decoration, gilt edges. Housed in an original calf slipcase with gilt and silver decoration.
Tiny tears in margins of first leaves and three tiny dents with minor scuffing in the bottom edge, binding with hardly noticeable wear in the corners, slipcase with small cracks and torn alongside one side. Overall in a good condition.

A charming small Quran was printed on pink paper in Bakhchysarai, a city in central Crimea which was for decades the cultural center of the Crimean Tatars

A small format Quran, printed on thin pink paper and bound in a charming binding was issued in a central Crimean city Bakhchysarai under the patronage of Ismail Gaspirali (اسميل غصپرينسكى also Gaspirinsky) (1851-1914).
Gaspirali was one of the pioneers of the modern education among the Muslims in the Russian Empire. He encouragedthe solidarity among the Turkic peoples and encouraged modernization through Europeanization. In 1883, he founded the first Tatar newspaper in Bakhchysarai, named Tercüman. Our Quran was published by the same publishing house.

Worldcat lists five institutional examples. Fondation du Roi Abdul-Aziz Al Saoud pour les Etudes Islamiques et les Sciences Humaines - Casablanca, Holy Spirit University of Kaslik (USEK), National Library of Israel, Jewish National Library, Middlebury College Library, University of Utah.

References: OCLC 236011386.

1.600 EUR



كلام قديم

طبع بمعرفة محرر جريدة ترجمان اسمعيل غصپرنسكى

فى بلدة بخچه سراى
روسيه

بادن نظارت المطبوعات فى اوكتابر سنة ١٨٩٨
س . پترسبورغ

فى مطبعة ترجمان
١٣١٦



30. Quran
Gallipoli Campaign

غازی ارقداشلرمه

[Gazi Arkadaşlarıma / To My Veteran Friends]

Istanbul: مطبعه إحمد احسان و شركاسی [Matbaa Ahmed İhsan ve Şürekâsı] 1332-1333 [1916-1917]

35 pp., with two black and white images, original green wrappers, signature in red pen by Enver Pasha on the cover (minor staining, tiny tears in the spine and in the gutters of the pages, some repaired with small pieces of tape, pages slightly loose, overall in a good condition).

A rare small ephemeral Enam-ı Şerif, a prayer manual, was printed for the Ottoman veterans of the Gallipoli campaign, who were treated in the hospitals. The first two pages are ornated with photographs of Mecca and Medina.

The booklets were given to the veterans by the military officer Enver Pasha (1881-1922), who also signed our example in red ink on the cover with words (Başkumandan Vekili Enver).

We could not find any institutional examples.

850 EUR



سورة فاتحة الكتاب

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

الحمد لله رب العالمين ۞ الرحمن
الرحيم ۞ مالك يوم الدين ۞
إياك نعبد وإياك نستعين ۞
اهدنا الصراط المستقيم ۞
صراط الذين أنعمت عليهم غير
المغضوب عليهم ولا الضالين ۞

سورة البقرة مدنية وهي

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

الم ۞ ذلك الكتاب لا ريب فيه هدى
للمتقين ۞ الذين يؤمنون بالغيب
ويقيمون الصلوة ومما رزقناهم ينفقون
۞ والذين يؤمنون بما أنزل إليك وما أنزل
من قبلك وبالآخرة هم يوقنون ۞ أولئك
على هدى من ربهم وأولئك هم المفلحون ۞

31. Quran
First Translation to Modern Turkish

Naci Kasım, introduction.

Camili Kur’anı Keriym

Meşhur hattat Hafız Osman merhumun yazdığı secavendleri havi camili Kur'âni Keriym

Istanbul: Maarif Kitaphanesi 1936

8°, 5 pp., 488 pp. with partly colour printing, original red cloth with a flap and gilt decoration (binding with hardly noticeable staining and minor wear to the edges, but overall in a good condition).

This is the first translation of the Quran to modern Turkish. It was made after the Atatürk’s reform of the Turkish alphabet in 1928, when he replaced the traditional writing in Perso-Arabic letters with Latin characters.

The translation was based on a version with signs of stopping in the text and a layout, made by a Ottoman calligrapher Hâfiz Osman (1642–1698), who was famous not only for his writing, but also for improving the Ottoman script.

According to the introduction by Naci Kasım, the text had been translated by several experts in order to approach the Turkish people

Worldcat lists three institutional examples (Berlin-Brandenburgische Akademie der Wissenschaften - Akademiebibliothek, Universitätsbibliothek Regensburg, Bayerische Staatsbibliothek).

References: OCLC 634313930.

550 EUR



sûretü fâtihatilkitâbi

﴿1﴾ bismillâhirrahmânirrahıymi

﴿2﴾ elhamdü lillâhi rabbilʂâlemıyne[1a] ﴿﴾

﴿3﴾ errahmânirrahıymi[1a]

﴿4﴾ mâliki yevmiddiyni

﴿5﴾ iyyâkę naʂbüdü ve iyyâke nesteʂıynü[1] ﴿6﴾ ihdinaʂʂırâtalmüstekıyme[1a]

﴿7﴾ ʂırâtalleżiyne enʂamte ʂaleyhim[1a] ġayrilmağdûbi ʂaleyhim veladdâlliyn ﴿﴾

mekkiyyetün ve hiye sebʂu âyâtin

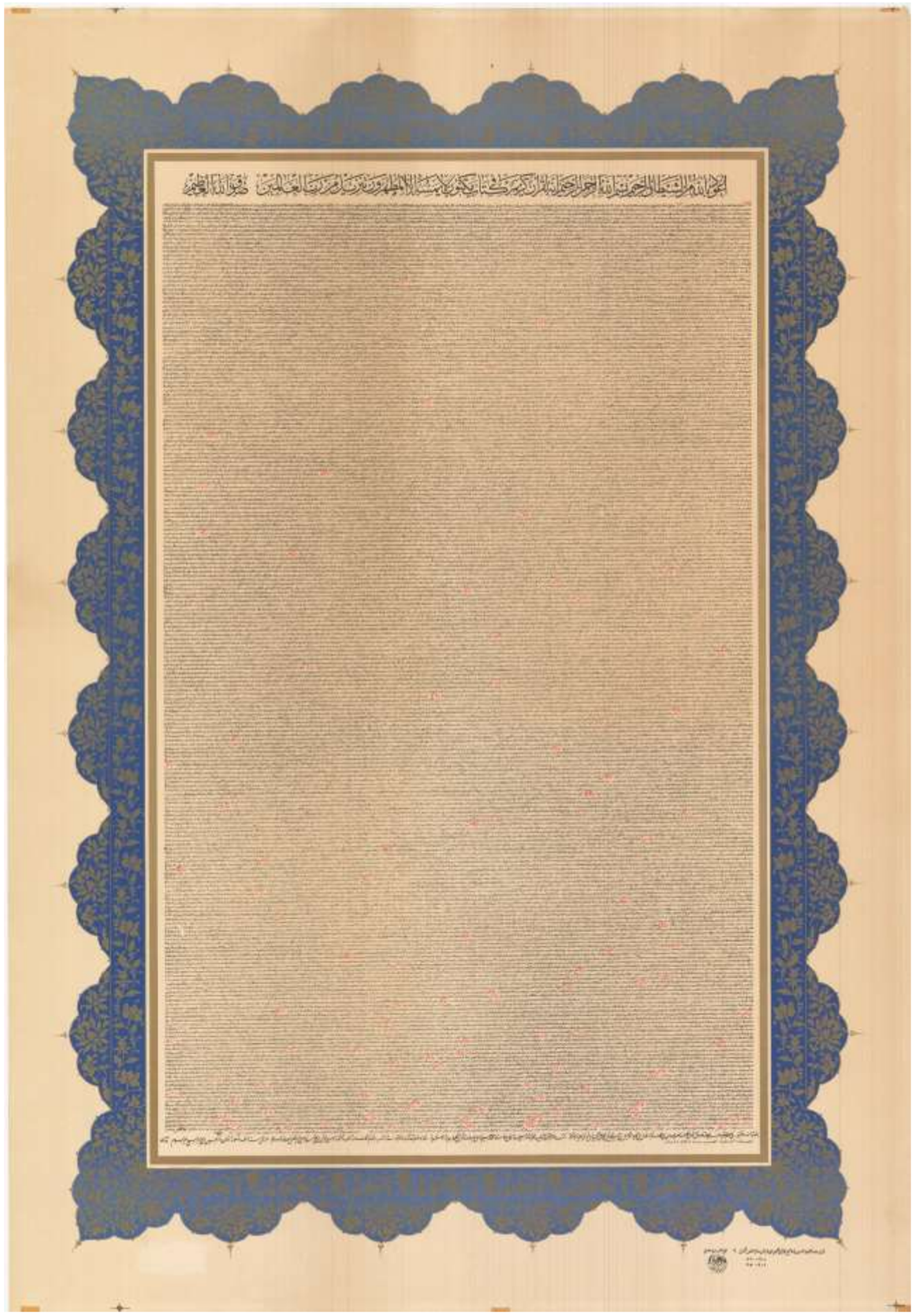
sûretülbekareti medeniyyetün ve hiye

bismillâhirrahmânirrahıymi

﴿1﴾ elif lâm mîym[e] ﴿2﴾ żâlikelkitâbü lâ reybe fiyhi[e] hüden lilmüttekıyne[1a] ﴿3﴾ elleżiyne yü'minûne bilġaybi ve yükıymûnaʂʂalâte ve mimmâ rezaknâhüm yünfikûne[1a] ﴿4﴾ velleżiyne yü'minûne bimâ ünzile ıleyke ve mâ ünzile min kablike[e] ve bil'âhıreti hüm yûkınûne[1] ﴿5﴾ ülâike ʂulâ hüden min rabbihim ve ülâike hümülmüflihûne

mietani ve sittün ve semânûne âyeten

32. Quran



محمد ابراهيم (Mohammad Ibrahim)

[Quran]

Lithograph: 82 x 57 cm (32.3 x 14.6 inches) (light age-toning, overall in a good condition).

[Cairo]: مصلحه المساحه المصريه (Egyptian Survey Office) 1948 (script), 1951 (dated in the lower right margin).

A stunning large sheet includes the entire text of the Quran.

The text was written by professor Mohammad Ibrahim, the founder and director of the school for improvement of writing in Alexandria in 1949 and was confirmed as correct two years later by Sheikh al-Muqri al-Misriyya (شيخ المقارئ المصرية).

The history of the printed Qur'an goes back to the 16th century, when the text was published for the first time in 1537/1538 in Venice. The printed text was full of errors. In the next centuries, when the Qur'an was printed in parts or with commentaries in the West, the Islamic world opposed of printing of religious texts. In the East, in Russia, Catherine the Great allowed printing of the Qur'an in 1787 (followed by 1790 and 1793) by the Tatar and Turkic press in Saint-Petersburg. The Gymnasium Press in Kazan published the Qur'an in 1803. Until the al-Azhar Qur'an from 1924, which became the basics for the later editions, the most influential printed edition of the Qur'an was the one published in Leipzig in 1834.

2800 EUR

أعوذ بالله من الشيطان الرجيم بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم إنه لقرآن كريم في كتاب مكنون لا يمسه إلا المطهرون تنزيل من رب العالمين صدق الله العظيم

33. Hajj
Mecca / Medina

2 HAJJ CERTIFICATES

2 sheets, each circa 40 x 55 cm (15.8 x 21.6 inches) (soft folds, minor staining, small tears in margins, overall in a good condition)

A highly attractive set of 2 Hajj certificates

The set includes 2 exceedingly charming Hajj certificates with views of Masjid al-Haram and Kaaba in the center and with Al-Masjid an-Nabawi in Medina, surrounded by smaller views of the important monuments and stops on the Hajj. The printed template under the large images, where the gaps should be filled in with hand-written name of the pilgrim and the date, have been left blank.

The history of the Hajj certificates goes back to the Seljuk empire when elaborately hand-made illustrated documents, usually in forms of scrolls showcased the stations on the way to Mecca with Kaaba as the final destination and the centerpiece of the composition.

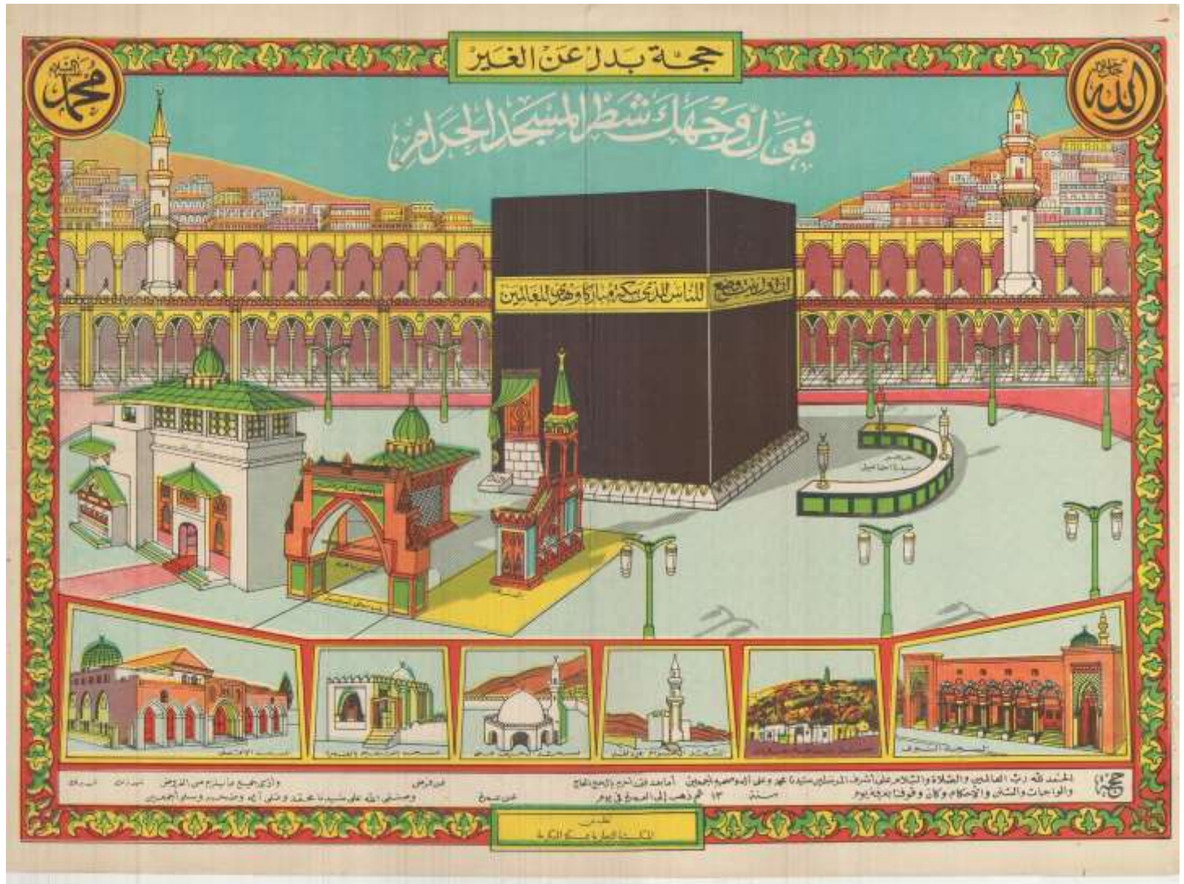
The certificates were ordered by people who made the pilgrimage as a proof and souvenir of their important journey and also as a talisman. For centuries they were only available to wealthier classes, but the cheaper printing techniques in the late 19th century and cheaper paper made them available to the wider population.

The charming colourful certificates, such as ours, are typical for the mid 20th century and were printed in Mecca. They respect the traditional composition of the images and positions of the titles based on the older manuscripts.

These today hugely underappreciated mid-Century prints were usually preserved framed on the walls of family apartments in the second half of the 20th century, but as so many ephemeral items became rare in the last decades and are disappearing form the market.

References: Cf. Ulrich MARZOLPH, *Muqarnas*. From Mecca To Mashhad: The Narrative of an Illustrated Shiʿi Pilgrimage Scroll from the Qajar Period, Vol. 31 (2014), pp. 207-242.

880 EUR



بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

مجموعة الأماكن الإسلامية المقدسة

جلالة الله

عليه السلام محمد

قال رسول الله صلى الله عليه وسلم لا تشد الرحال إلا إلى ثلاثة مساجد

المسجد الحرام ومسجدي هذا والمسجد الأقصى

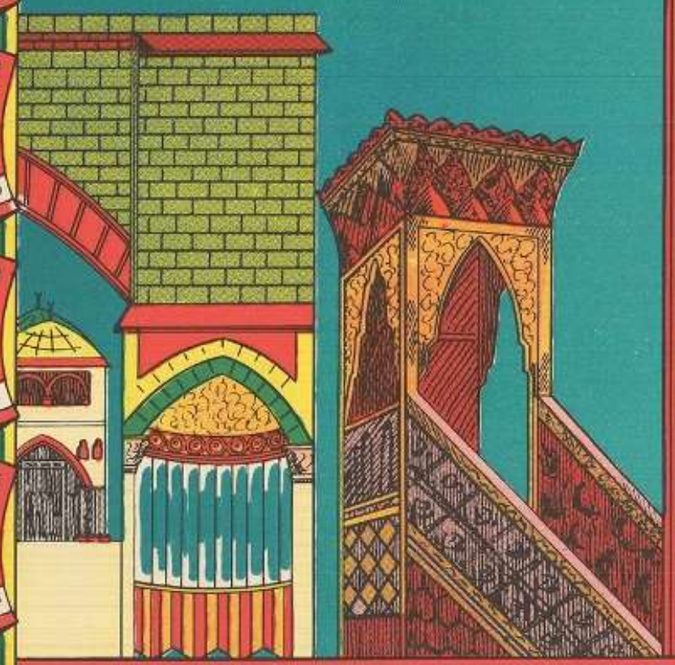
أبو بكر — عثمان — علي

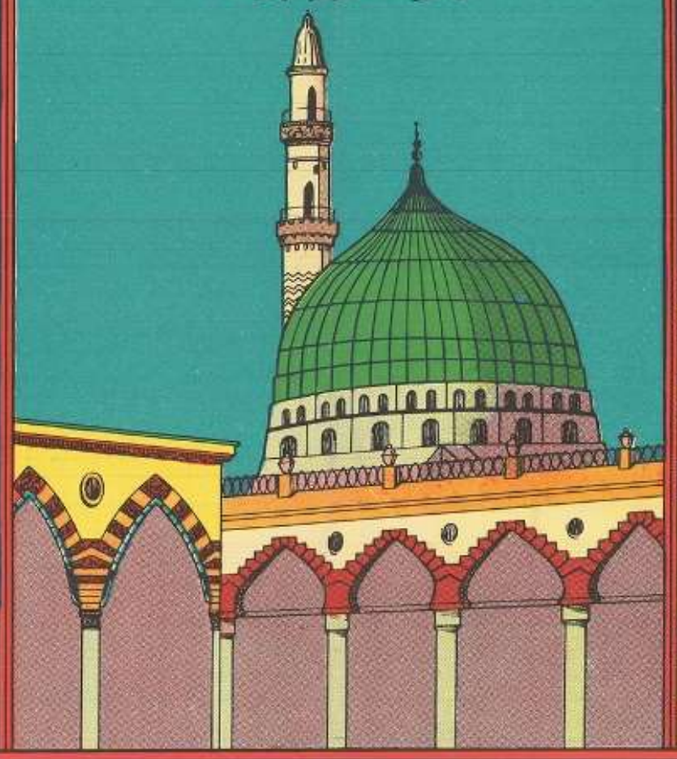
وما أرسلناك إلا رحمة للعالمين

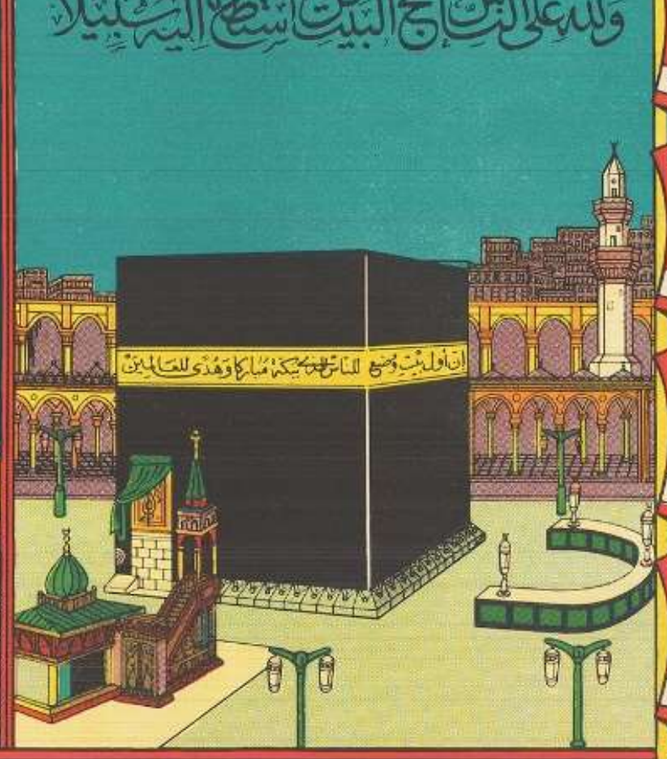
وأذن في الناس بالحج يأتوك رجالا وعلى كل ضامر يأتين من كل فج عميق

وله على الناس حج البيت من استطاع إليه سبيلا

سبحان الذي أسرى بعبده ليلا من المسجد الحرام إلى المسجد الأقصى







الحمد لله الذي وفق الحاج وبعون الملك الوهاب وصلت الى بيت المقدس الكريم

لأداء مناسك الحج والعمرة وكان وقوفه بعرفة يوم وقد أدى ما عليه من واجبات وسنن راجيا من الله القبول

سنة وبفضل الله تعالى وصلت لزيارة المسجد النبوي

الحاج:

تطلب من
المكتبة التجارية بمكة المكرمة

جمرة العقبة — مسجد التنعيم بالعمرة — مسجد الخيف بمنى — جبل الرحمة بعرفات — المشعر الحرام بمزدلفة — الحجر الأسود

توسعة المسجد النبوي — باب السلام

البقيع — الصفا والمروة

مسجد القبلتين — جبل أحد

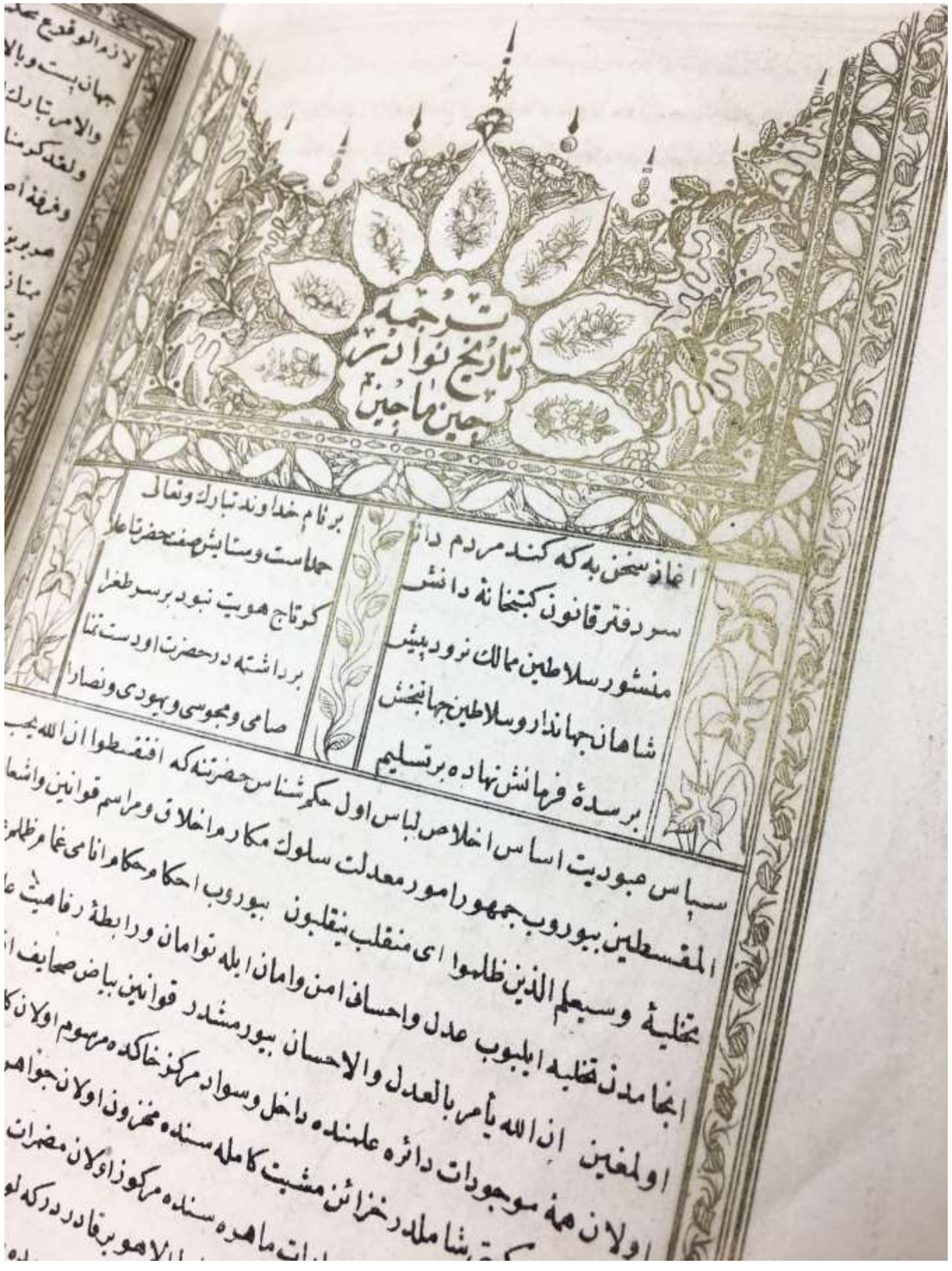
بئر زمزم — جبل النور

مسجد نمرة بعرفات — غار الثور

رواق المسجد الأقصى — المعلاة

الروضة الشريفة — مسجد قباء — مزار سيدنا حمزة — المواجهة الشريفة

34. China Travelouge Hitayname



Ali Ekber

ترجمه تاريخ نوارى جين ماجين

[Tercüme-i Tarih-i Nevâdir-i Çin-i Maçin / Translation of the Stories of History of China and the Greater China]

Istanbul: Tophane-i Âmire İstihkâm Alayı Litoğrafya Destgâhı, [1270, 1854]

8°, 70 pp. lithograph, first two pages with gilt margins, later blue cloth boards with brown cloth spine, grey printed endpapers (minor staining overall in a good condition).

This is the first printed edition of an detailed travelogue to China in Ottoman language. It is lithographed in fine smooth paper and the first two pages are decorated with gilt lithograph in attractive forms of chinoiseries.

Described are the borders, settlements, administration, traditions, religions, cities, postal system, army organization, monuments, imperial palaces, official holidays, agriculture and gardening, art, science, laws, money, painting collections, printing, education, the situation of Islam in China, relations with the Western world, Tibetans, history etc.

The travel was made in the years 1506-1508 by a merchant Ali Akbar, who upon his return wrote a travelogue in Persian language, known under the name Hitayname (خطاي نامه), what could vaguely translate in Travelogue to China.

The work was originally written in Persian and presented in 1515 or 1516 to sultan Selim I and after his death to Suleyman the Great. the first Ottoman translation was made at an unknown date and was titled Hıtâ ve Hotan ve Çin ve Mâçîn mülûklerinin kānûnnâmesi (It was translated into Ottoman in or just before 1853, when it was first published in a printed version in this book.

Worldcat lists 7 examples (Cornell University Library, Boğaziçi University Library, McGill University Library, Library of Congress, Universitätsbibliothek München, Orient-Institut Istanbul, Hungarian Academy of Sciences Library).

References: OCLC 1014872612, 635150145, 61541237, 15010217.

1.200 EUR

35. Christopher Columbus in Ottoman Literature



Mehmed Raif

بحثه اول وندیك وجنویزلی کمیجیلرنیك کشف ایلدکي جزایر و ثانیا قرستوف قولومبك امریقا بولمسی

Bahs-i evvel Venedik ve Cenevizli gemicilerin keşfeylediği Cezayir ve saniyen Kristof Kolombun Amerikayı bulması / First Search: Venetians and Genoese Sailors Discover Islands. Second: Christopher Columbus's Discovery of America]

Also:

Amerika kıt'asının hîn-i keşf ü istîlâsında zuhûra gelen vukūât-ı garîbenin târîhi. Bahs-i evvel, Venedik ve Cenevizli gemicilerinin keşf eylediği cezâyir ve sâniyen Kristof Kolomb'un Amerika'yı bulması beyânındadır

Istanbul: [s. n.] 1273 [1857]

8°, 56 pp., p. 48 wrongly numbered as 40, original illustrated lithographed wrappers, later marbled paper wrappers (small folds in corners, original wrappers with small tears, tiny holes and folds, otherwise a good, partly uncut example)

This is an early printed (lithographed), possibly first separately issued publication on Christopher Columbus and the discovery of America in Ottoman press.

We could only find circa one institutional example on Worldcat (University of California Libraries). The others appear to be eBooks.

References: OCLC 16519682. BDK – ÖZEGE; 1591; 22639 – TBTK; 4412 – 5557.

650 EUR

36. Late Ottoman Empire
Arabic Language
Cairo Imprint

Midhat Pasha (احمد شفيق مدحت پاشا, 1822 – 1883), author - Ali Haydar Mithat Bey, author of the introduction.

ماضي واستقبال الممالك العثمانيه

[The Past and the Future of the Ottoman Empire]

Cairo: 1317 [1901].

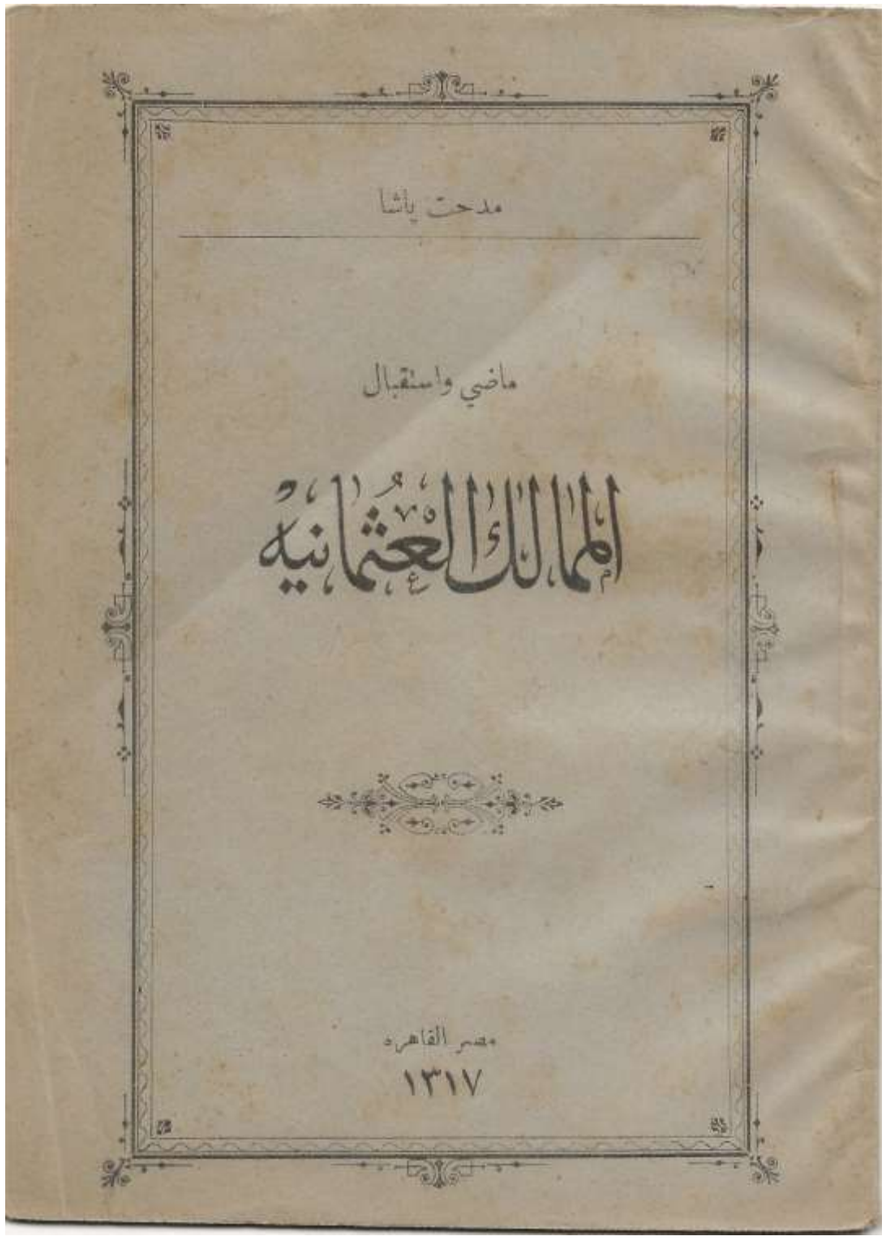
Large 12°, 24 pp, original wrappers with lettering (wrappers with minor foxing and soft folds, a tiny modern label on the rear cover, otherwise in a good condition).

The first Arabic translation of Midhat Pasha's important newspaper article The Past, Present and Future of Turkey, which was originally published in English language in 1878, was issued in Cairo in 1901 by the author's son Ali Haydar.

This is an uncommon first Arabic translation of an important article of an Ottoman statesman Midhat Pasha, which was originally issued in English language in a newspaper under the title *The Past, Present, and Future of Turkey*, as the author was exiled to London.

Midhat Pasha (1822-84), the greatest of all of the Ottoman reforming statesmen in his time, who lead the Ottoman constitutional movement of 1876 and introduced the First Constitutional Era. Among other he served as a governor of Niš, Danube Province, Baghdad and Syria, and was appointed Grand Vizier 1872 and 1876.

In 1877, Midhat Pasha was briefly exiled by his powerful enemy sultan Abdul Hamid, who was opposed the constitutionalism. During that time he spent some months in London, where he authored our text in May 1878.



Midhat Pasha returned briefly to the Ottoman Empire and politics as the governor of the Vilayet of Izmir, but was arrested only months afterwards on the charges of the murder of sultan Abdülaziz. He died in mysterious consequences in his prison cell in Taif in Hejaz on 26 April 1883.

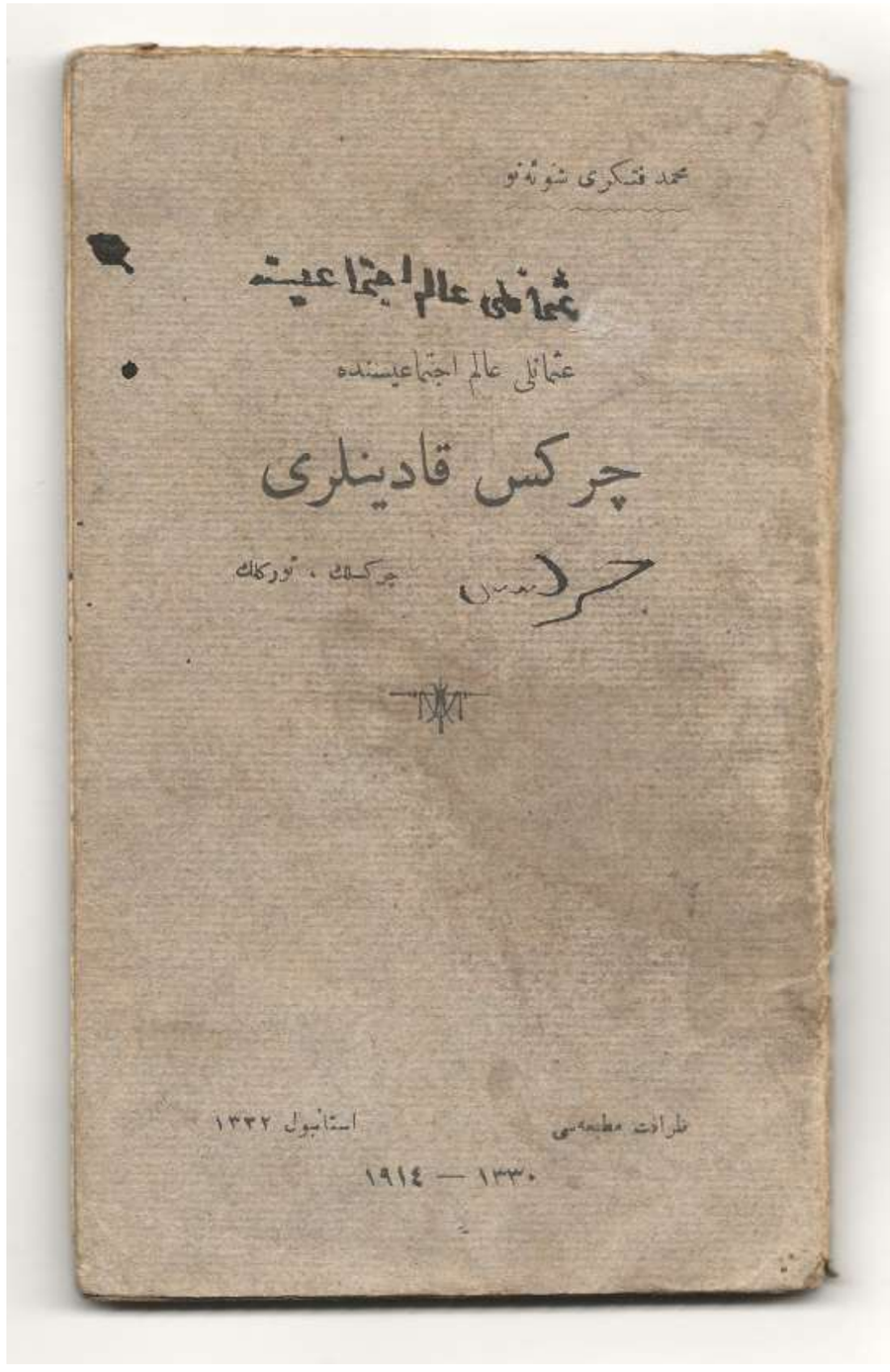
In this article Midhat Pasha discusses the crisis of the Ottoman Empire in its last years and blames the Russian influence for the separation of the Slavic / Christian states on the Balkans. The article was first published in a June edition of the newspaper The Nineteenth Century. In the same year it was followed by the separate publication and a French translation *La Turquie, son passé, son avenir*.

The Midhat Pasha's text was strongly criticized by contemporary British press for his view of the superiority of Muslim religion over the Christian one.

This Arabic translation was made by the author's son Ali Haydar, who two years later authored his father's biography *The Life of Midhat Pasha. A Record of His Services, Political Reforms, Banishment, and Judicial Murder, Derived from Private Documents and Reminiscences.* As the author explains in the introduction, he made translations into Arabic and Ottoman, to make this text accessible to the readers in the Ottoman Empire.

420 EUR

37. Circassians Women



Mehmet Fetgerey Şoenu محمد فتکری شونه نو (1890-1931)

عثمانلی علام اجتماعیسندس چرکس قادینلری

[Osmanlı alem-i ictimaisinde Çerkes kadınları. Çerkeslik. Türklük / Circassian Women in the Ottoman Society. Circassian World vs. Turkish World]
Istanbul: ظرافت مطبعه سی [Zerafet Matbaası] 1914

Large 12°, 63 pp., [2 pp.], original wrappers with lettering (light foxing, old annotations in black ink in Ottoman on the cover and title page, wrappers slightly stained, party uncut example).

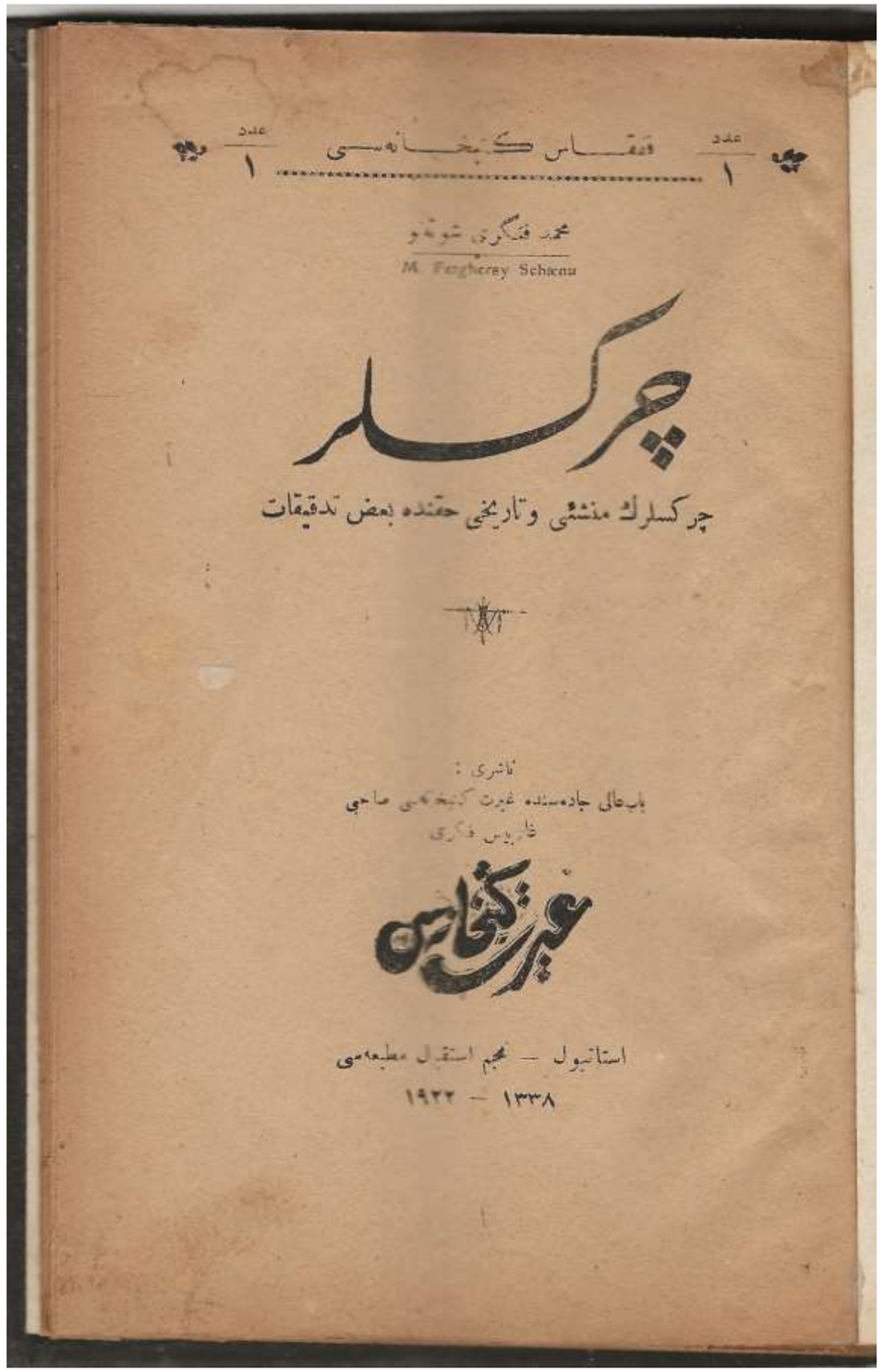
This work in Ottoman language focuses on the Circassian women, their role in the Ottoman Empire and false stereotypes. As the Circassians in the Ottoman Empire were always cherished for their military skills, the women were admired for their beauty and fair skin. They were much desirable by the Ottoman sultans and influential men as wives and consorts in harems.

The author Mehmet Fetgerey Şoenu (1890-1931) was a Circassian patriot, who during his short life wrote several works on his ethnic group and on the Caucasus. He was born in to the parents, who escaped the Circassian genocide, a mass slaughtering of this ethnic group by the Russian Empire. He was also one of the leading Ottoman and European wrestles of his time and authored several works on sports.

References: OCLC 1030754346, 777197273. MİL - ÖZEGE; 15848 Sefer E. Berzeg, Kafkasya ve Çerkesler bibliyografyası 1996, no 326.

380 EUR

38. Circassians



Mehmet Fetgerey Şoenu محمد فتکری شونه نو (1890-1931)

چركسلر

[Çerkesler / Circassians]

Istanbul: نجم استقبل مطبعه سی [Necm-i İstikbâl Matbaası] 1338 - 1922

8°, 48 pp, later black cloth binding with gilt lettering (light age-toning and staining, minor staining to the cloth, sporadic white margins trimmed, imprint from original wrapper mounted on the bottom of the last page, old price written on the inner side of the

An important work on the Circassians and their history was written during the Turkish War of Independence. In 1922, when the book was published, Turks removed 14 Circassian villages and resettled the inhabitants across Anatolia. Today the Circassians are one of the largest ethnic minorities in Turkey.

The author Mehmet Fetgerey Şoenu (1890-1931) was a Circassian patriot, who during his short life wrote several works on his ethnic group and on the Caucasus. He was born in to the parents, who escaped the Circassian genocide, a mass slaughtering of this ethnic group by the Russian Empire. He was also one of the leading Ottoman and European wrestles of his time and authored several works on sports.

We could find one institutional example on Worldcat (Michigan State University Libraries).

References: OCLC 39394079; ÖZEGE; 3304.

340 EUR

39. Circassians
Arabic Books
Amman Imprint

Shora Bekmurzin NOGMOW - Adolf BERGÉ (1828-1886), translator into German

موجز تاريخ الچركس [Title on the Wrappers]

موجزتاريخ الاديكه (الجركس) القديم [Title on the Title Page]

[Muğaz tārīẖ al-Ādīkh (al-Girkas) al-qadīm / История адыхейского народа (Istoriia adykheĭskogo naroda) / History of the Adyghe Nation]

Amman: مطبعة الارعن [Maṭba'at al-Urdun] [1953]

172 pp. with black and white illustrations, two folding plates, full page black and white illustrations, [2 pp.] index, original wrappers with lettering (wrappers slightly age-toned and scuffed on the spine, one corner replaced with later papers, one page trimmed in white margins, two old annotations in Turkish mounted on the title page, one folding plate trimmed in margins, minor waving to the last pages)

A detailed work on the Circassians and their history is an Arabic translation of a work, originally published under the title История адыхейского народа (Istoriia adykheĭskogo naroda) in Tiflis in 1861. Our translation is based on the German version titled *Die Sagen und Lieder des Tscherkessen-Volks, gesammelt vom Kabardiner Schora-Bekmursin-Nogmow, bearbeitet und mit einer Vorrede versehen* by Adolf Bergé, a Russian Orientalist historian and the Tiflis-based Caucasian Archaeographical Commission.

The work includes numberless illustrations and charts.

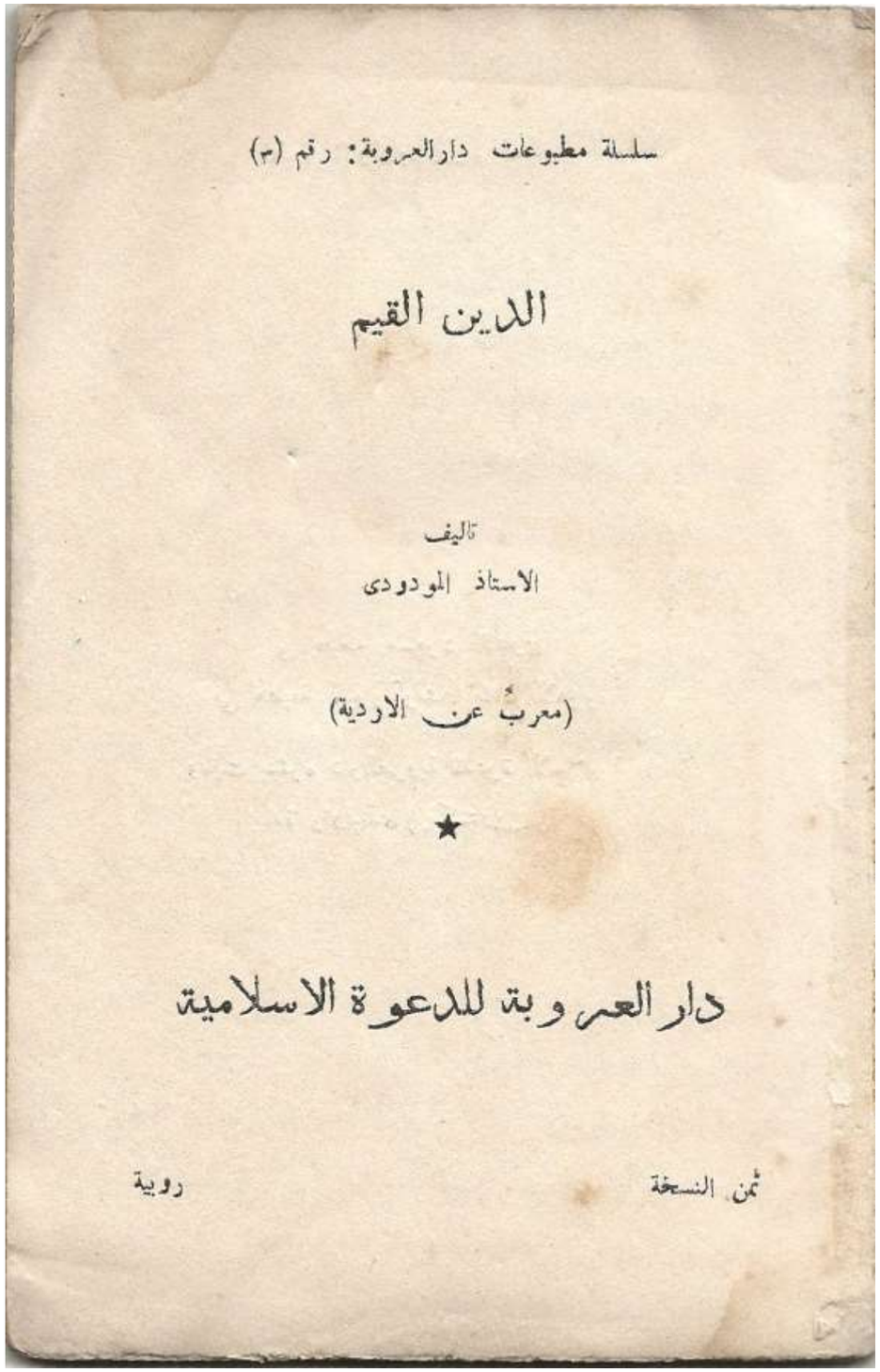
Worldcat only lists only institutional example (AECID. Biblioteca – Madrid, Spain).

References: OCLC 912613679.

320 EUR



40. Pakistan Imprint
Islam



Abul A'la Maududi ابو الاعلى مودودى (1903 – 1979)

الدين القيم

[Values of Religion]

Rawalpindi: دار العروبة الدعوة الاسلامية [s. d., but mid 20th century]

8°, title page, 51 pp., original front wrapper with lettering (light water-staining in corners, without rear wrapper, front wrapper stained).

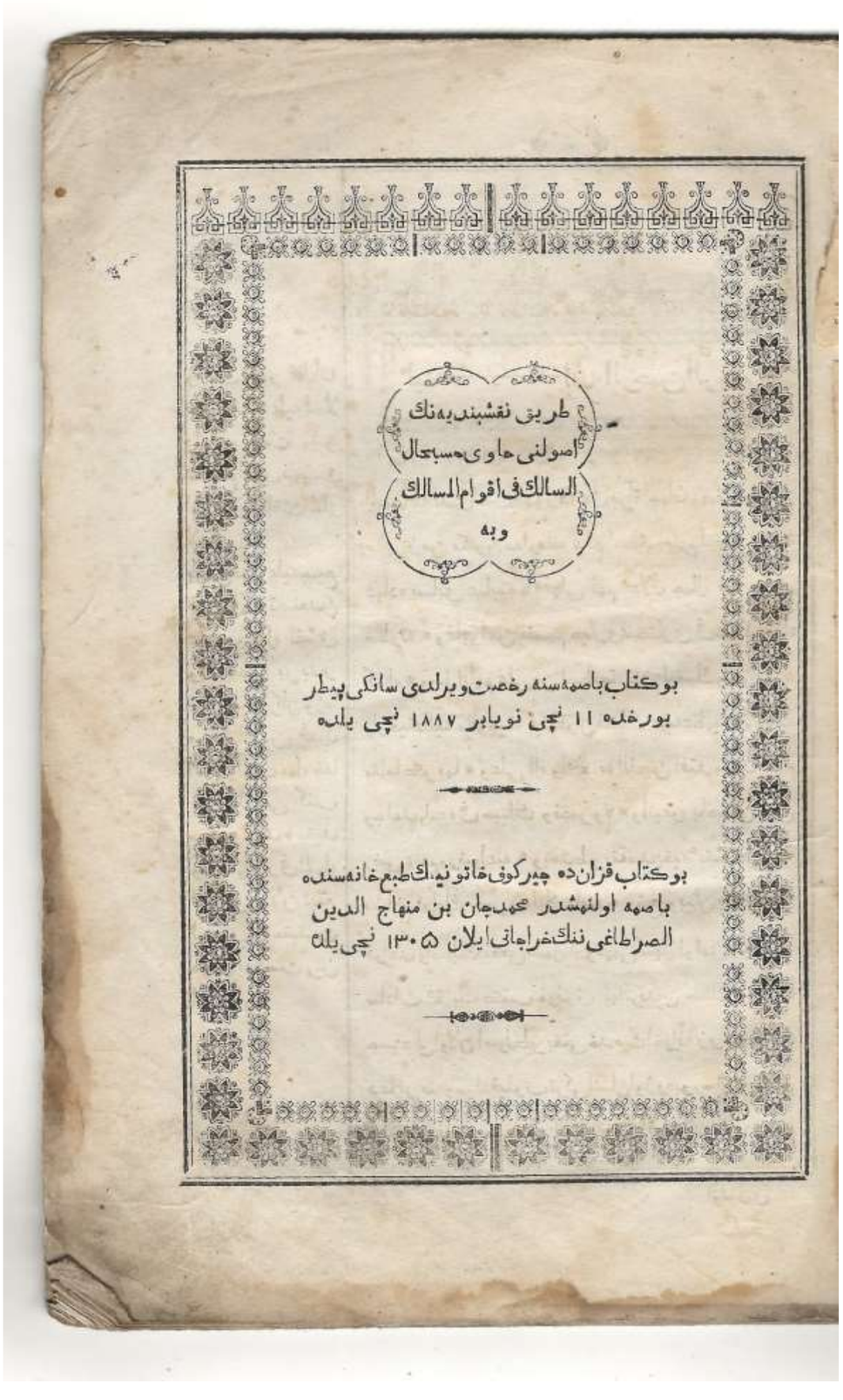
This is an uncommon text on the values of the Islam, published in Arabic language in Rawalpindi, Pakistan by *Abul A'la Maududi*

Abul A'la Maududi (1903 – 1979) was an Islamic scholar, author and philosopher in British India and after the partition in Pakistan. He was a founder of Jamaat-e-Islami, the then largest Islamic organization in Asia, and opposed the partition of India. Abul A'la Maududi was working closely with Saudi Arabia , where he was rewarded for his service in Islam the first recipient of the Saudi Arabian King Faisal International Award (1979) and was part of establishing and running of Islamic University of Medina.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

280 EUR

41. Naqshbandi Sufi Brotherhood in Volga Ural Region



طريق نقشبنديه نك اصوانى حاوى حسبحال السالك فى اقوام المسالك

[Tarık-ı Nakşibendi'nin Usulünü havi Hasbihal Üs-Salik Fi Akvam'il Mesalik / Speeches of the Nakşibendi Religious Leaders to Their Followers]

Kazan: 1305 [1889]

8°. 63 pp., later marbled paper wrappers with fragments of original blank wrappers inside (soft folds in the corners, first pages with light age-toning in margins, original white wrappers stained with loss of paper and old annotations in pencil).

A rare pamphlet with texts by the Naqshbandi Sufi brotherhood in Tatar was published in Kazan in 1889. The Naqshbandi order, a major Sunni order of Sufism was strongly present in the Volga Ural region, but was suppressed under the Soviets and had a revival after the dissolution of the Soviet Union.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

320 EUR

42. Iraqi Turkmen Publication
Kirkuk
Baghdad Imprint

شاكر صابر الضابط (Şakir Sabir Zabit, 1913 – 1990).

عراق توركانلرى آتالر سوزى

[Irak Türkleri Ağzindan Atalarsözü / Proverbs in the Dialect of the Iraqi Turkmen]

Bagdad: مطبعة دار البصرى [Matbaatü Dar ül-Basri] 1962

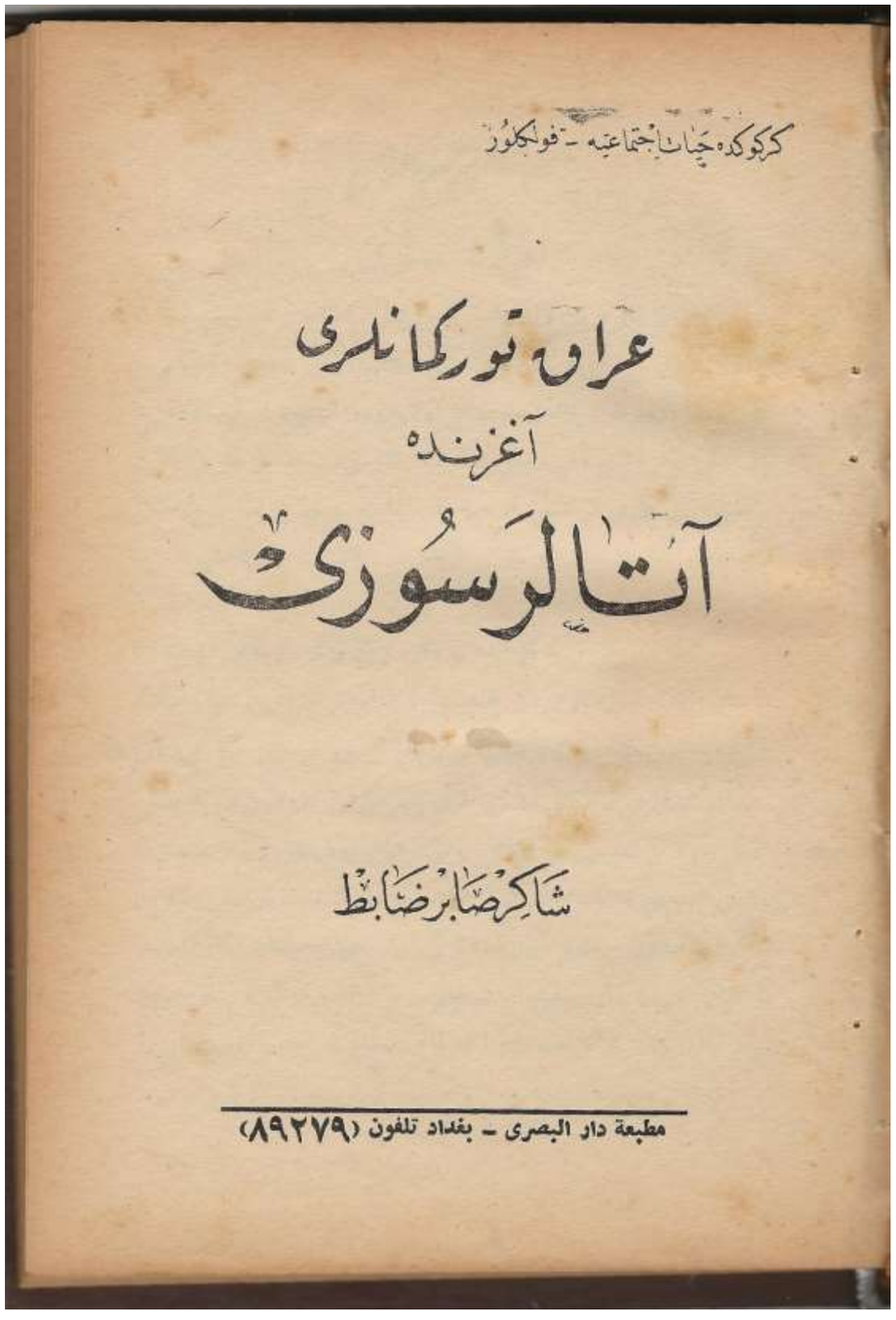
8°. [2 pp.] portrait and text, 98 pp., later brown cloth with gilt lettering (light foxing, cracked in the gutter of the first two pages, binding with minor staining, overall in a good condition).

A pamphlet on the proverbs in the Iraqi Turkmen dialects with was written by Şakir Sabir Zabit (1913 – 1990).

Sabir Zabit, a former officer, was an editor, publisher, writer, historian and a collector of manuscripts and books. He was a the first Turkmen to be awarded by the Union of Arab Historians prize.

We could not find any institutional examples on Woldcat.

150 EUR



43. Maltese Language
Siberia



G. C. SALIBA – Alfred M. GALEA

Kalb is-silg ta's-Siberia

[Frozen Heart of Siberia]

Valletta: G. Muscat 1910 [1909 date inside]

8°. 64 pp, original wrappers with lettering (slightly age toned, wrappers stained with small cracks and loss of paper).

An unusual series of 3 short stories, set in Siberia in the late 18th and 19th centuries were written under the influence of the foreign literature in Maltese language and were inspired by the Russian novels. The introductions and the epilogue present the land and landscape of Siberia and Russia to the Maltese reader.

We would not find any institutional examples.

320 EUR

44. Kurmanji (Northern Kurdish) Dialect
First Edition



Molla Halil Siirdî (1754-1843)

نهج الاناما

[Nehcü'l-enam]

Istanbul: مطبعه اوقاف اسلاميه و عسكريه [Matbaa-i Evkāf-i İslâmiyye ve Askeriyye] 1337 [1921]

8°, 30 pp. (misbound 1-12, 15-16, 13-14, 19-20, 17-18, 21-30) lithography, original wrappers with lithographed title, spine with hand- stitched cloth (old annotations on the wrappers, slightly age-toned and stained, soft folds, small tears and tiny loss of paper repaired with modern tape).

An uncommon first printed edition of *Nehcü'l-enam*, a famous work of a poetic religious work, was written in Kurmanji dialect of Kurdish by Molla Halil Siirdî (1754-1843) and was intended for the students, who are just starting their education at madrasas.

Molla Halil Siirdî wrote 24 works in Arabic and Kurdish with *Nehcü'l-enam* being his most famous work.

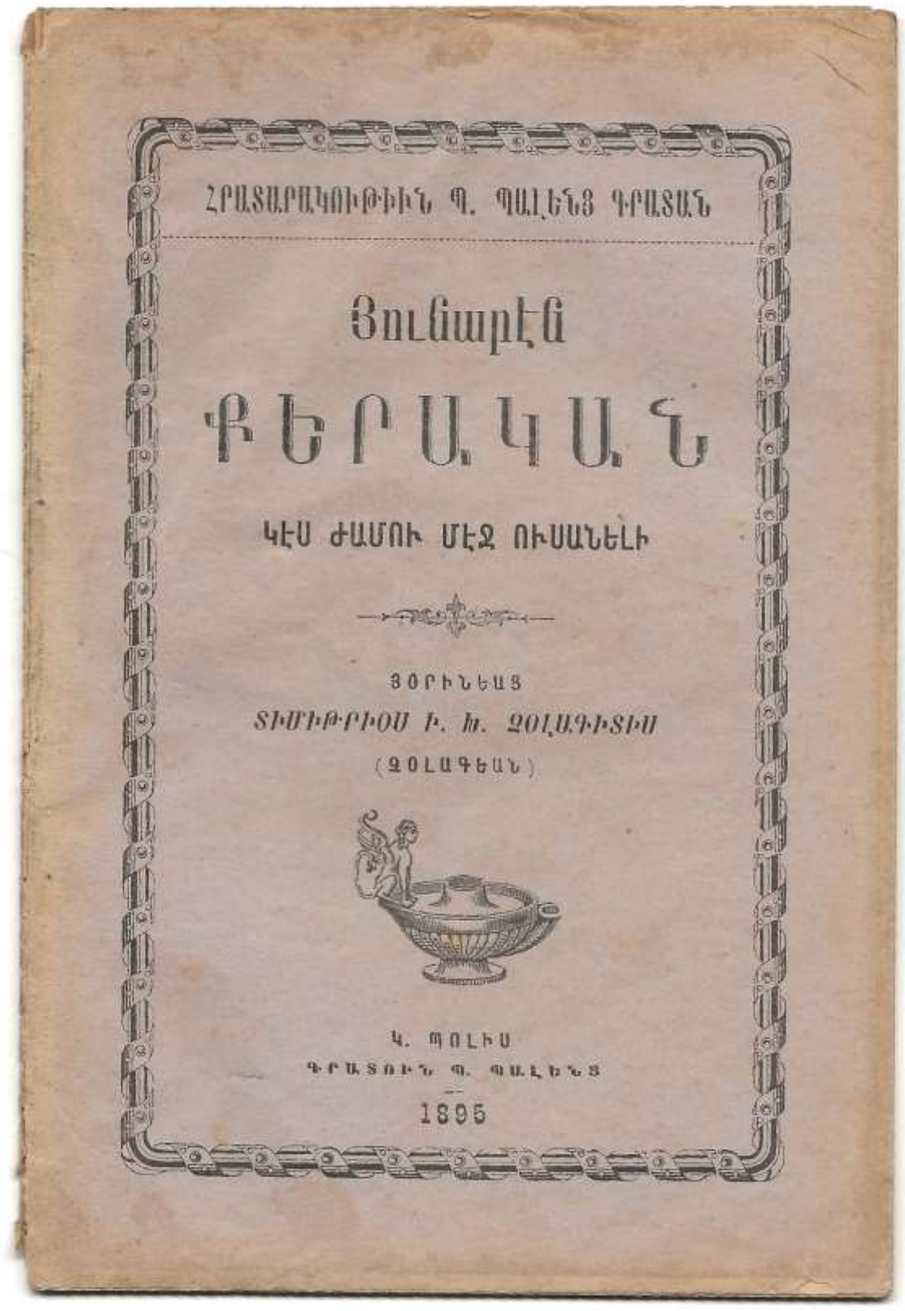
The script used in our book is Perso-Arabic. Today Kurmanji dialect of the Kurdish language is written in an extended Latin alphabet.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

References: Cf. ÖMER PAKİŞ, MOLLA HALİL SİİRDÎ, (1754-1843), Osmanlı âlimi (MOLLA HALİL SİİRDÎ - TDV İslâm Ansiklopedisi (islamansiklopedisi.org.tr)).

650 EUR

45. Karamanli Turkish
Hayhurum
Greek Language written with Armenian Letters



Dimitros İ. H. Colakidis (Չօլագիտիս, Տիմիթրիոս (Չօլագեան)

Յունարէն քերական կէս ժամու մէջ ուսնելի

[How to Learn Greek in 30 Minutes]

Istanbul: Կ. Պոլիս 1895.

8°, 31 pp., original wrappers with lettering (wrappers with minor staining and small folds, slightly age-toned and stained, overall in a good condition).

An unusual manual for Greek language, using Armenian, Greek, Karamanli Turkish (Turkish written in Greek letters) and Hayhurum script (Greek written in Armenian letters)

Hayhurum was a relatively small group Armeno-Greeks in Ottoman Armenian or better said Armenian speaking members of the Greek Orthodox church. The name comes from *Hay* meaning Armenian, *hu* meaning and, and *Rûm* meaning Greeks living in Turkey. The script they were using was Armenian, but written in Greek language.

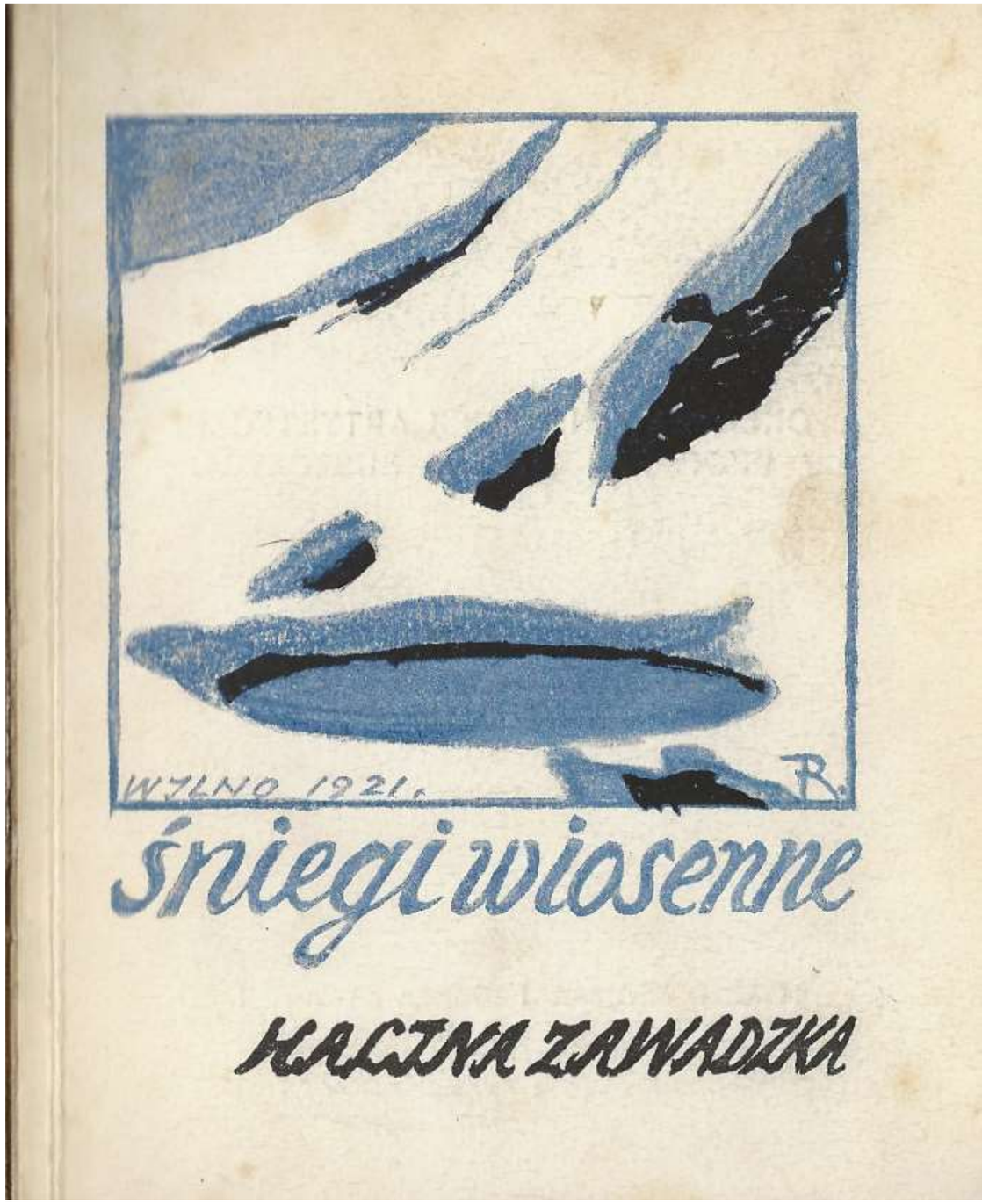
In 1923, Hayhurum were forced out of Turkey and settled in Greece.

All the Hayhurum material is exceedingly rare and usually of ephemeral nature with a low surviving rate. This overlooked and almost forgotten group and its literature still awaits better researches.

We could trace two institutional examples (National Library of Armenia, University of Michigan).

500 EUR

46. Polish Poetry
Polish Book Design



Five scarce collections of poetry in Polish language, printed in Vilnius and Warsaw in 1920 and 1921 from a library of a Polish intellectual Stanisław Cywiński, who died in a Soviet prison camp, after the occupation of Vilnius by the Red Army

12 °, 5 titles in one volume. Bound in contemporary red cloth with hand written title on the spine. Bookplate of Stanisław Cywiński on the inner side of the front cover

(Binding with minor staining, old manuscript with a listo of titles on the front end-papers, overall in a good condition).

1. **Halina Zawadzka, author. Ferdynand Ruszczyc (1870–1936), designer.**

Śniegi wiosenne

Vilnius: J. Zawadzki 1921.

119 pp. with blue titles and ornated capitals, cover lithographed in black and blue (missing the back cover).

A collection of poetry by a Polish female writer Halina Zawadzka with an attractive book design was made by a Polish academic artist Ferdynand Ruszczyc (1870–1936), who studied in Saint-Petersburg.

References: OCLC 837205467.

2. **Zdzisław Kleszczyński (1889 – 1938)**

Podróż poślubna

Warsaw : "Ignis", 1920

29 pp., lithographed cover in black and red (missing back cover, a tiny fold in the front cover)

References: OCLC 837119955.

3. **Maria Salmonowiczówna**

Bajka o sonacie

Vilnius: [s. n.] 1920

53 pp., [2 pp.] blank (without wrappers)

References: OCLC 899850248.

4. **Stefan Wierzyński**

Żołnierka

Cracow – Vilnius: Nakład Harcerskiej Spólki Wydawniczej 1921.

30 pp., [2 pp.] blank (two tiny holes in the last blank page, missing wrappers).

References: OCLC 751523968.

5. **Stefan Wierzyński**

Śmietnik.

Vilnius: L. Chomiński 1921

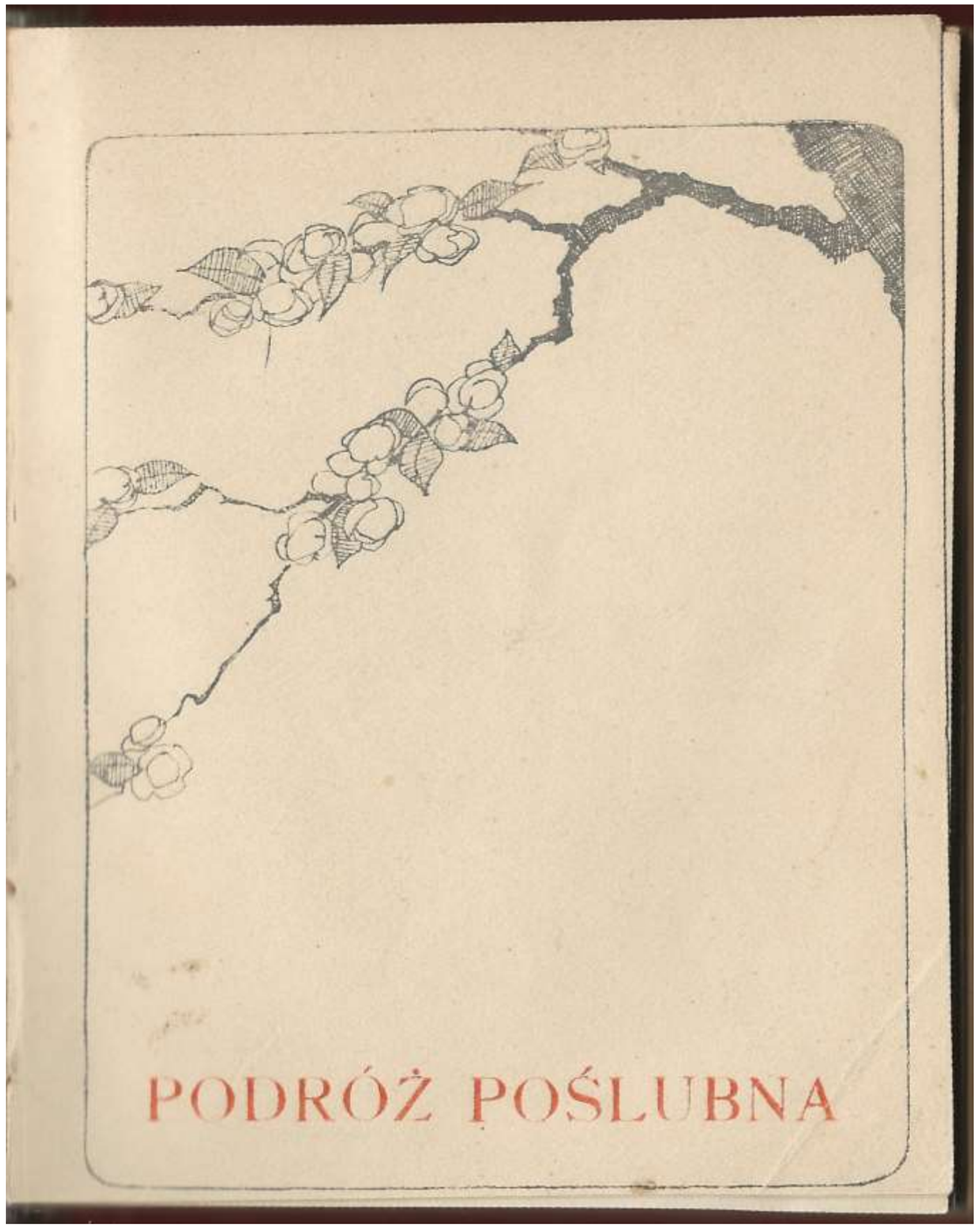
91 pp., [4 pp.] index, with a dedication of the author to Stanisław Cywiński on the first page (sporadic words underlined and annotated in black ink, missing wrappers).

References: OCLC 837627348.

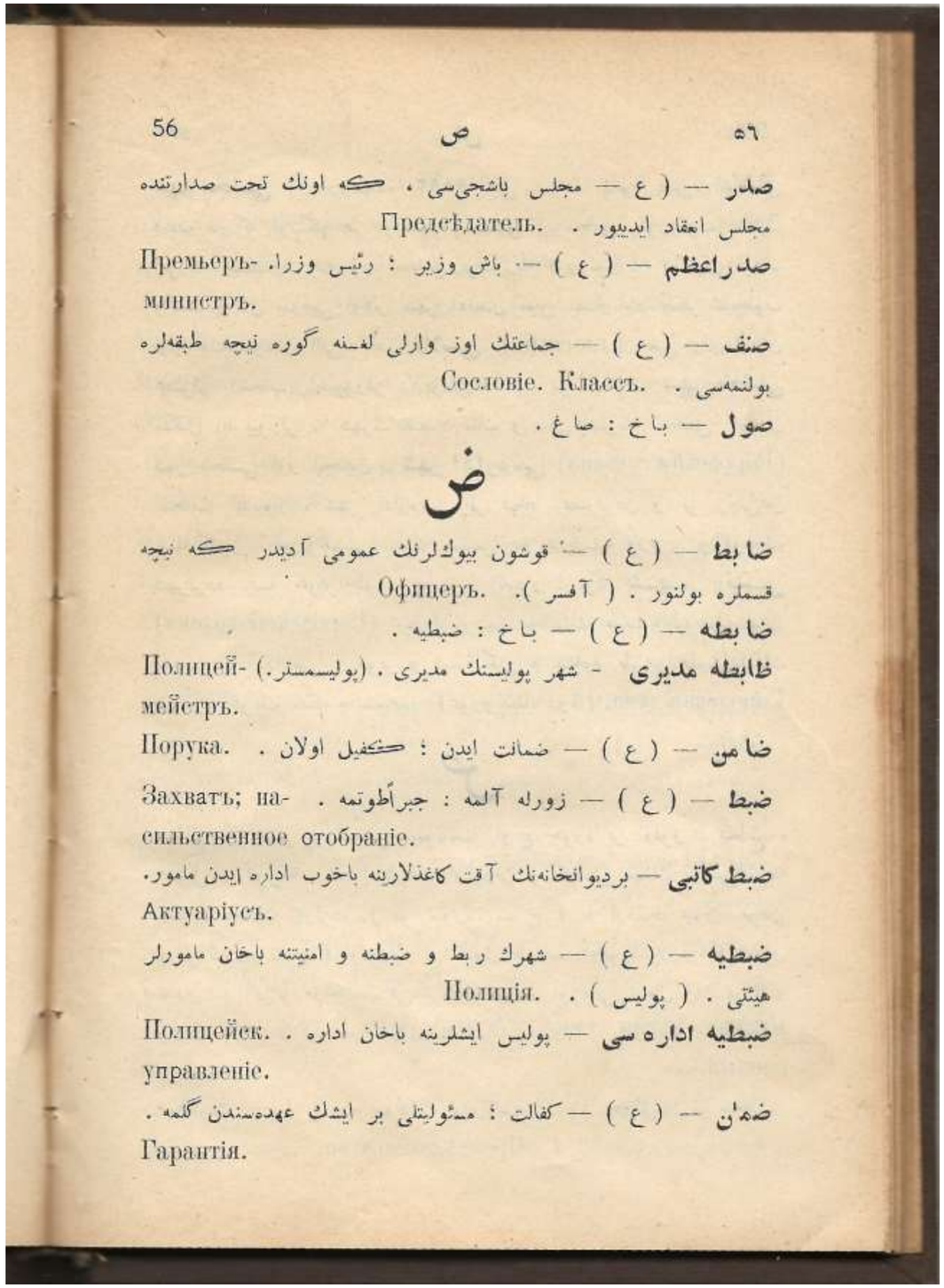
A collection of scarce five poetry publications in Polish language, bound in one volume, comes from a private library of Stanisław Cywiński (1887-1941), a Polish intellectual, author, editor and professor, mostly active in Vilnius. He was arrested by the Soviet authorities after the occupation of city by the Red Army and died in 1941 in a prison camp.

All the titles are first editions. Worldcat does not list any examples outside of Polish libraries.

750 EUR



47. Tatar-Russian Dictionary
Baku Imprint



Uzeyir HAJIBEYOV (Üzeyir Hacıbəyov, 1885-1948)

Русско-Татарскій и Татарско-Русскій Словари… / ترك ـ روسی و روسی ـ ترك لغتی

مطبوعاتده مستعمل سیاسی، حقوقی، اقتصادی وعسگري سوزلرك .

[Turkic-Russian and Russian-Turkic Dictionary of Political, Legal, Economic and Military Terms, Used in Press]

Baku: M. Расулъ-Заде. Типография Бр. Оруджевыхъ, Николаевск. 1907

8°, [4 pp.] title page and introduction, 94 pp., [2 pp.], 28, in Cyrillic and Perso-Arabic script, later brown cloth binding with gilt lettering (minor staining in margins, tiny repairs in white margins and endpapers, old hand-written price on the inner side of the rear cover, small tears in the gutter of the endpapers, otherwise in a good condition).

An important early Tatar-Russian dictionary, written by a famous Azerbaijani playwright, composer and public figure Uzeyir Hajibeyov, who authored the Azerbaijani national anthem

This important modern Turkic-Russian dictionary, published in Baku in 1907 includes according to the note on the title page the latest contemporary words, taken from Tatar magazines, books and Russian translations.

The author Uzeyir Hajibeyov (Üzeyir Hacıbəyov 1885 – 1948) was a pioneer of the Azeri opera and the first composer of an opera in the Islamic world. He also composed the national anthem of Azerbaijan Democratic Republic and the anthem, used by Azerbaijan during the Soviet period. He was also a writer, publicist and a social figure.

We could find one institutional example (National Library of Israel).

References: OCLC 1182506143.

550 EUR

48. New Azerbaijani Script
Soviet Union



Yeni Türk Elifba Komitesi

Jeni Jol. No. 49-52, 55.

[New Way]

Baku: February 26th, February 28th, March 1st, March 2nd, March 5th 1926

5 issues. All folio, 4 pp. with illustrations (slightly age-toned, soft folds with tiny tears, overall in a good condition).

A rare first Azerbaijani newspaper to promote the new Azerbaijani alphabet with Latin characters, developed as a part of the latinisation of the Soviet Union, which would soon become an official script for all non-Slavic languages in the country.

These is a series of scarce Azerbaijani newspaper, the first one to promote the new script.

The script used in the newspapers is a so called Yañalif, which was the first Latin alphabet used during the latinisation in the Soviet Union. It was invented in the early 1920s by the Soviets to isolate the Muslim inhabitants from the Arabic-Islamic world and religion, and in the case of Azerbaijan also its natural alliance with Iran. The first reforms were made in 1922 and the script was officially introduced in 1923 in Baku at a Congress of Turcology. By 1930, all the not-Slavic language in the Soviet Union, 69 in total, were forced to adopt versions of this script.

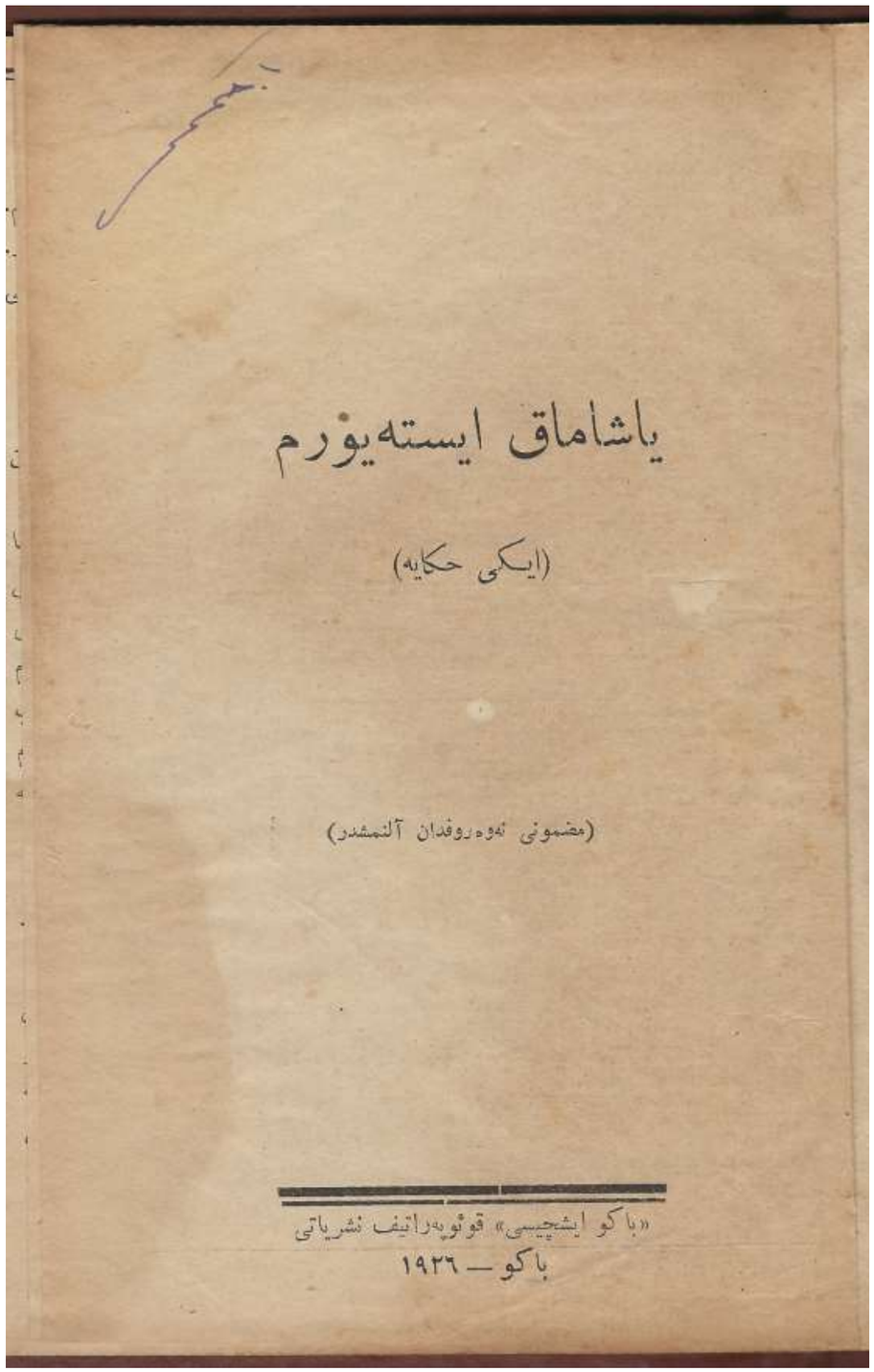
The newspaper was published by the Committee of the New Turkic Alphabet. The newspapers include articles on the new alphabet, politics, illustrations and caricatures. One caricature mocks the Perso-Arabic writing with one dropping of a fly changing the meaning of the word.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

References: Betül Aslan, Atatürk Üniversitesi Atatürk İlkeleri ve İnkılâp. Tarihi Enstitüsü. Azerbaycan'da Latin Alfabesi'ne Geçiş Sürecinde Yeni Yol Gazetesi, 2004. Cem KARAKILIÇ - Oğuzhan AYDIN, Atatürk Üniversitesi Türkiyat Araştırmaları Enstitüsü Dergisi. Azerbaycan da latin alfabespne geçiş sürecinde Yeni Yol gazetesi, 43, 2010, pp. 181-203.

420 EUR

49. Soviet proletarian literature
Baku, Azerbaijan



Alexander NEVEROV (Алекса́ндр Серге́евич Неверов) (1886 – 1923)

ياشاماق استه يورم

[Yaşamak istiyorum / Я хочу жить / I Want to Live]

Baku: باكو ايشچيسى قونوپه راتيف نشرياتى 1924

8°, 18 pp., later brown cloth binding with gilt lettering (slightly age-toned and stained, old hand-written price in the inner side of the last board, old signature on the title page, otherwise in a good condition).

A Azerbaijani translation of a Russian short novel by Alexander Neverov was published in Baku as a part of the program to introduce the Soviet proletarian literature to Azerbaijan in the 1920s.

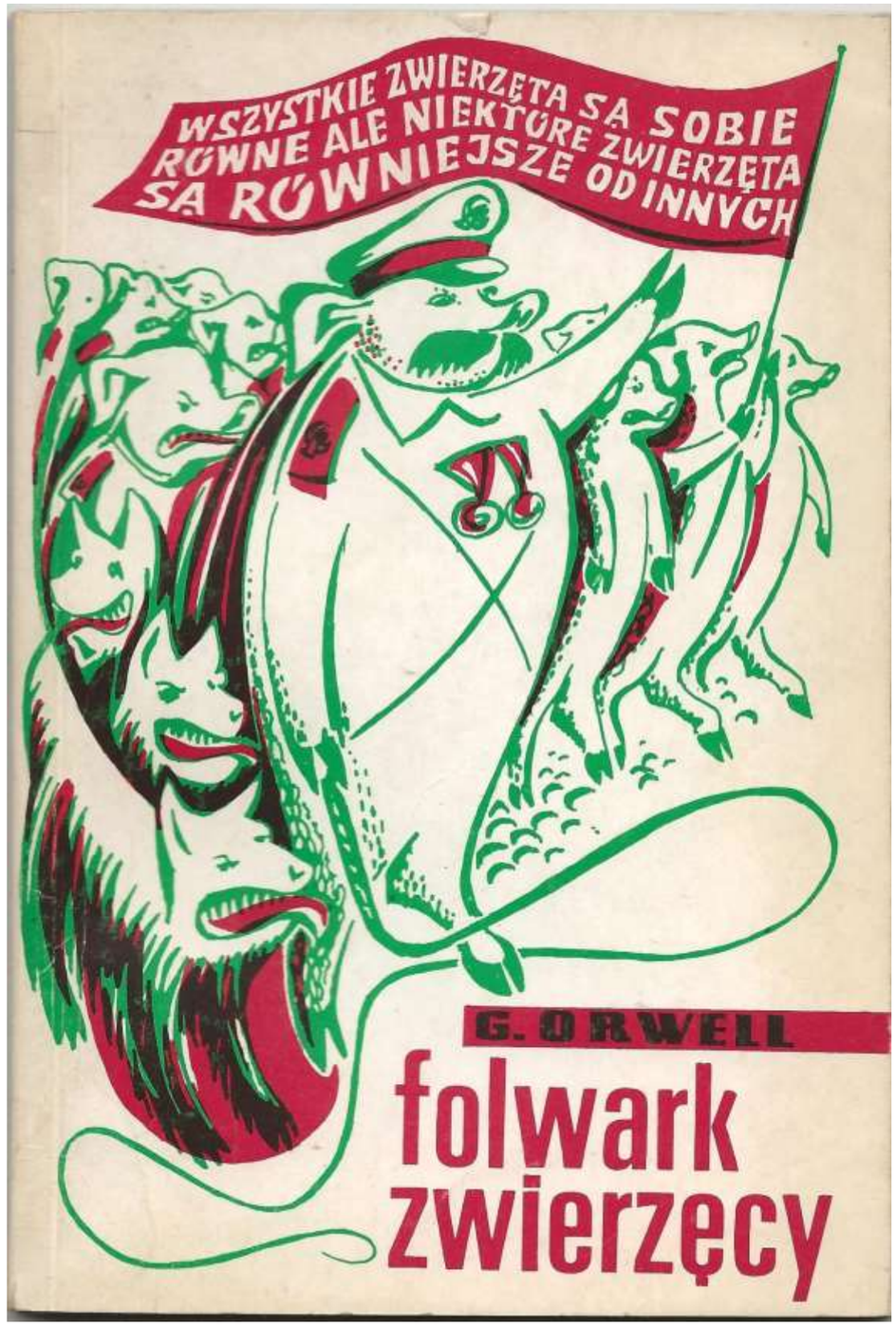
Upon Azerbaijan becoming a part of the Soviet Union, the communist Soviet authorities made a program to introduce the proletarian literature to the Turkic speaking population. This is a rare translation of Alexander Neverov's short novel *I want to Live*, issued in the early years of the program.

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 (please see our previous item).

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

320 EUR

50. Animal Farm



George ORWELL (1903-1950) - Teresa JELEŃSKA (1892-1969)

Folwark zwierzęcy

[Animal Farm]

London: Odnowa 1974.

8°, 94 pp., [2 pp.], original illustrated wrappers (Very Good, minor damages in the margins of the wrappers).

A rare Polish edition of Animal Farm was printed in London for the Polish market, where the work was banned

This is a rare edition of a Polish translation of the novel *Animal Farm*, published in 1974 by an émigré press in London. The book was banned in Poland until 1988 and was only distributed through the sources in England or as samizdats.

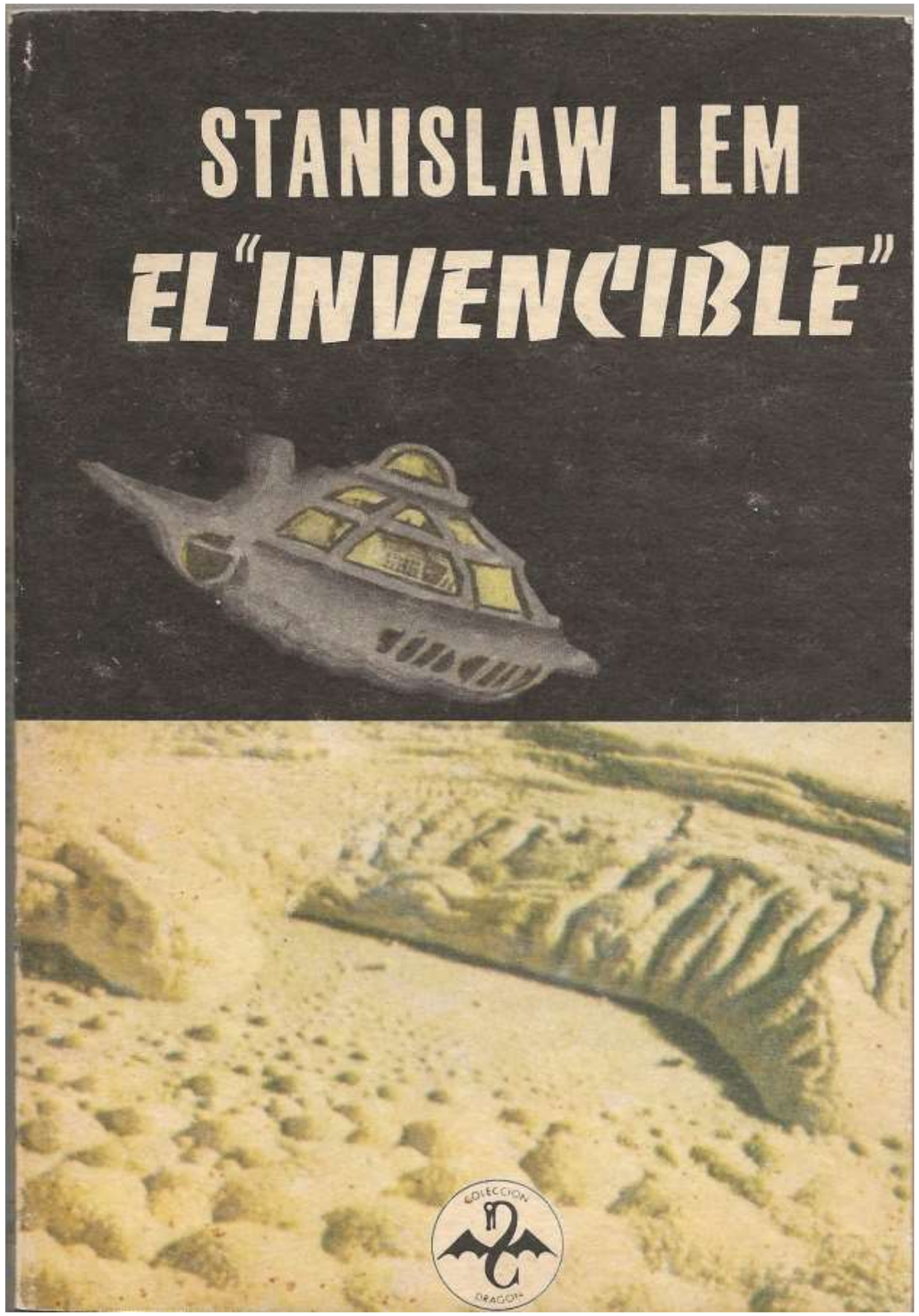
The translator Teresa Jeleńska befriended George Orwell in 1945 and became a translator of his works. Her translation of Animal Farm is the first translation of this work in any languages. The next two editions were published in London without her permission with a goal to distribute them in Poland.

The book is very rare. We could only find one institutional examples on Worldcat (The British Library).

References: OCLC 562014529.

850 EUR

51. Science-Fiction
Havana, Cuba



Stanisław LEM (1921-2006)

El invencible

Havana: Editorial Arte y Literatura 1988

8°, 231 pp., [8 pp.], original illustrated wrappers (paper with sporadic soft folds – as issued, hardly noticeable wear to the wrappers, overall in a good, seemingly unread condition).

A rare ephemeral Spanish edition of a Polish hard science-fiction novel The Invincible (*Niezwyciężony), involving* artificial swarm intelligence, "necroevolution", microrobots and smartdust was published in Havana, Cuba.

Thew novel was written by a Polish author and first published in 1964.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

140 EUR

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