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1. Japan – Mount Fuji / Round-Panorama Early 3-D Map ‘A Spiritual Journey’

歌川 貞秀 [Utagawa SADAHIDE, a.k.a. 五雲亭 貞秀 Gountei SADAHIDE] (1807 – c. 1878/9)].

富士山眞形之絵図 [Fujisan shinkei zenzu. / Complete Map of the True Shape of Mount Fuji].

[Fujiyoshida Sengen Shrine, north-western side of Mount Fuji:] Kaei 1 [1848].

Woodblock print with original colour on thin paper, with protruding pastedown paper ‘crater ring’ and a rectangular overleaf slip (Good, lovely original colour, some light staining in various places seemingly caused by oxidization from print transference, some small holes in the crater, upper centre and top margin areas with very minor loss but not affecting any significant details, some creasing along old folds; lacking original paper slipcase; still stellar condition for such a large, fragile ephemeral work), 97 x 98 cm (38 x 38.5 inches).

One of the most fascinating and sophisticated maps and works of fine art we have ever encountered - very rare - being the first grand round-panorama of Mount Fuji, that can amazingly be folded to become a 3-D representation of the holy mountain, featuring many mutually reenforcing levels of sacred imagery and iconography, the map takes one on a spiritual journey up the slopes of the volcano and through its subterranean world, before arriving at its curiously textured summit, a work that is traditional in content but avant-garde in format, it is the ingenious creation of Utagawa Sadahide, one the greatest Japanese artists of the era (and a professional cartographer), and was printed and distributed at the Fujiyoshida Sengen Shrine, located on north-western side of Mount Fuji, to be given to followers of the ‘Fujikō’ cult as the prepared to undertake the same spiritual journey as depicted on the map.

This is one of the most fascinating maps, and works of fine art, we have ever encountered. It is the first grand round-panorama of Mount Fuji, and amazingly it can also be folded into a 3-D paper model of Japan’s most sacred mountain, and moreover not only shows the surface of the volcano, but also explores its subterranean world. It is the ingenious construction of Utagawa Sadahide, one of the most famous artists of the transitional Late Tokugawa-Early Meiji period. He is best known for his grand landscapes and groundbreaking images of Westerners in Japan, as well as being a professional cartographer.




高本山真形之繪圖

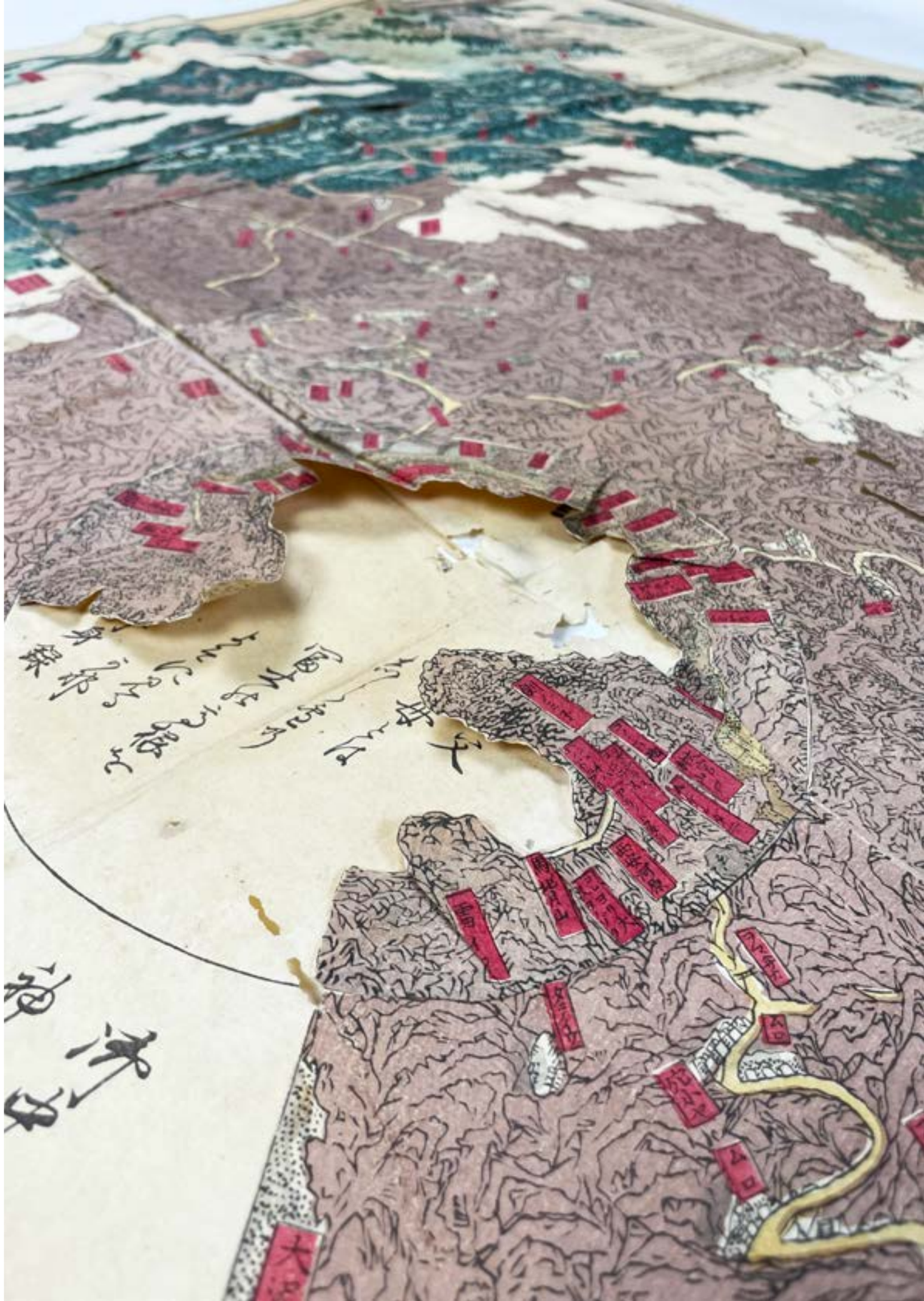
The map takes one on a multi-layered spiritual journey, laden with resplendent pageantry and ritual, while ascending to the summit of the volcano. It prefigures the revolutionary changes to Japanese society and its relationship with the outside world that Sadahide would become so famous for documenting, in that while its content is traditional, its construction is radically modern and innovative. The woodblocks for the map were carved with great skill by Sadahide at his workshop in Yokahama but were then given to the lay officials of the Fujiyoshida Sengen Shrine, on north-western side of Mount Fuji, where the map was printed to be sold to pilgrims of the Fujikō cult who scaled the sacred peak.

Mount Fuji (富士山, Fujisan), at 3,776 metres (12,389 feet), is the highest peak in Japan, a stratovolcano whose nearly perfect shape can be seen from a great distance, being visible from Tokyo on clear days. It is still an active volcano, that while last erupting in 1707-8, remains a potential danger. At the same time, it is a great source of water, sustaining the surrounding lands, while its awesome beauty and imposing size made it the muse for countless artists, poets and writers over the centuries; it is perhaps the most influential single natural feature in the world.

Both mysterious and sublime, Mount Fuji has long been imbued with tremendous sacred significance, as the Shintō faith considers the mountain to be a female deity, Sengen, that allows the spiritual rebirth of the pilgrims who ascend its slopes. Fujisan is today a UNESCO World Heritage Site, so designated as it "inspired artists and poets and has been the object of pilgrimage for centuries" and it slopes feature 25 places of special cultural significance. Of the countless images of the mountain made over the centuries, the present work is certainly amongst the most extraordinary and intriguing.

This large, separately issued woodblock print, which features lovely original colour, captures Mount Fuji from the perspective directly about the volcano's crater, that when the map is in its flat form, appears as a round-panorama, with the direction East on top. The scene seems to take in the full circumference of Mount Fuji to only 300°, leaving out a triangle of negative space on the western side, but this is deceptive, as the view of the mountain's surface is actually complete (as will soon be revealed). The outer, or lower, level of the mountain features a richly forested paradise, full of shrines, rivers, waterfalls (including the renowned Shiraito waterfalls), trails and rest houses, while the upper levels consist of the bare lava beds that surround the crater. The crater itself features a jagged, protruding 'ring', or a pasted overleaf, of paper that mimics the appearance of its rim. Innumerable sites are labeled with red spot signals (rectangular cartouches), while Sadahide ingeniously used perspective to that progressively abstract the tops of trees and houses as pointing towards the top of the peak as one gets ever nearer.

The use of the round-panorama technique to illustrate Mount Fuji is novel, as the volcano had traditionally been depicted from it side profile, as an isosceles triangle, both in art and on maps. A breakthrough occurred when the cartographer Akiyama



Nagatoshi depicted Mount Fuji from above, as 360° cone, in his map, Fujimi jusansbu yochi no zenzu (Map of the Thirteen Provinces where Mount Fuji can be Seen) (1843). However, here Sadahide cearly took things much further!

The map is rich in content on so many levels, in that is shows both the surface of Fujisan, as well as its subterranean world. The key to understanding the spiritual content of the map can be found in the two portraits that appear in the triangular section of negative space that is not included in the round-panorama. These figures, both of whom are shown seated within a cave, are of Kakugyō Tōbutsu (? – 1646), on the left, and Jikigyō Miroku (1671-1733), on the right, the founders of the modern Fujikō cult. Kakugyō established a lineage of lay ascetics dedicated to Sengen, the deity of Mount Fuji. Jikigyō followed in Kakugyō's path and was known for relating the wisdom he gained from an oracle he claimed to have received from Sengen. Seeking an ideal world and the elevation of all souls, he fasted to death as sign of his devotion. After his passing, his followers energized the Fujikō cult to become one of the biggest spiritual movements in late Tokugawa Japan.

The great Fujikō pilgrimage was to climb Fujisan by way of the Yoshida Trail that runs up the north face, departing from the Fujiyoshida Sengen Shrine (which appears in the upper-left corner of the map), and where the present work was published and distributed, and from there climb the slope in a roughly south-westerly direction. Along the Yoshida Trail, is a lava cave that possesses great significance as it is believed that it acts as womb, such that the pilgrims who pass through it are spiritually 'reborn'. One will also notice that Kakugyō and Jikigyō appear to be inside womb-like caves, so maintaining the theme. The overleaf, which at first blends perfectly into the image, can be removed to show the subterranean world of renaissance, where Sadahide signs his name and declares: "I humbly reproduce the true features of the mountain".

Returning to the triangular area that is not part of the round-panorama, below the figures of Kakugyō and Jikigyō, to the left is an image of a stone lodge for pilgrims, while to the far right is an image of a group of Fujikō pilgrims. To their left, is a massive torch, erected for the pilgrims during the Yoshida Fire Festival (which occurs annually on August 26-27), which was the spiritually ideal time to climb Fujisan (the present map captures the mountain during this occasion, so explains the absence of snow on the map; Mount Fuji was only to be ascended during the summer), with the pilgrims carrying torches, departing from the Fujiyoshida Sengen Shrine.

The map is embellished with numerous poems. Notably, the preface to the work, in the upper left corner, written by Sawaguchi Seiō, comes in the form of a Chinese poem, which notes that the map was made in the year Kaei 1 (1848). Elsewhere, there are Japanese and Chinese poems taken from various topographical works, while quotations from classics of literature appear in the margins. In the centre of the volcano's crater are verses thought to have been written by Jikigyō and that were chanted by pilgrims during Fujikō rites.

While the map provides a powerful and unusual perceptive of Mount Fuji while laid flat, as round-panorama, its alternative form would have been even more intriguing to the Fujikō pilgrims. The triangle of space that lies outside of the round-panorama, accounting for around 60° of the circle, featuring the images of Kakugyō and Jikigyō, coincides with the location of the Ōsawa Valley, a deep erosional rift that falls from the summit of the volcano down to its base. Conveniently, it here that the triangle is meant of be folded inwards, while the round-panorama rises, transforming into a 3-D cone. Sadahide's stellar use of perspective comes into its full effect, as the trees and roofs of buildings near the crater, that are shown to bend towards the summit when flat, are here shown to rest comfortably on the slopes of the mountain. The Yoshida and the other trails can be seen snaking up the slopes, weaving amidst a magical realm of natural wonders. Fittingly, by folding the triangle into the 3-D mountain, one places Kakugyō and Jikigyō where they belong, in the caves inside Fujisan, a gesture that would have been greatly appreciated by the pilgrims.

While the map is signed by Sadahide (inside the cave beneath the overlay) and dated (in Sawaguchi Seiō's preface), it does not feature an imprint. The mystery regarding where it was produced is solved by a passage in Sadahide's book, Maps of Japan divided into Regions (1855), whereupon he recalls that having climbed Mount Fuji several times, while sketching the view from all perspectives, he decided to carve the woodblock used for the present map. He recalls that he duly gave the blocks to the oshi of the Fujiyoshida Sengen Shrine, who printed the map at the small press that they operated there.

The oshi were originally ritual performers who promoted the worship of Sengen, travelling across the provinces near Mount Fuji, distributing religious tokens and performing sacred rituals, while collecting donations. Latterly, they mostly settled down to perform sacred rituals and the administer shrines around Fujisan, most notably at the Fujiyoshida Sengen Shrine, with they had special responsibility of lodging, feeding and blessing the pilgrims, as well as collecting tribute. It was in this context that they would have given examples of the present map to pilgrims, in return for their donations. While it was common for shrines to offer pilgrims woodblock prints of sacred sites, the present map, due to its size, the quality of the artistry, and its incredibly unusual form(s), would have been especially memorable to the recipients. Once transformed into a 3-D cone, it would allow a Fujikō to view his upcoming spiritual journey from the Fujiyoshida Sengen Shrine up the Yoshida, past the various sacred sites and through the cave of rebirth, to the summit, in a captivating way that no other object could possibly match.

While Sadahide's work would serve as a precious memento for those who ascended Fujisan, it would also have been valued by those who stayed at home, who were unable to make the pilgrimage. Indeed, many Fujikō were too infirm or did not have the economic means (the travel costs and tribute money necessary were significant) to make the trip, could live the Yoshida pilgrimage vicariously through the map. Moreover, even though Sengen was a female deity, women were traditionally banned from climbing Mount Fuji, and it is thought that such views or mementos of the scared peak were especially appreciated by the wives and daughters of returning Fujikō.

For a superb overview of the present work, please read Fumiko Miyazaki's short article, 'An Artist's Rendering of the Divine Mount Fuji', in Kären Wigen, Sugimoto Fumiko and Cary Karacas (eds.), Cartographic Japan: A History in Maps (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2016), pp. 98-101.

Utagawa Sadahide: Visionary Artist of Japan's Landscape and its Opening to the Outside World

Utagawa Sadahide [歌川 貞秀] (1807 – c. 1878/9), also known as Gountei Sadahide, was one of the most famous Japanese artists of the mid-19th century, the critical period when Japan opened up to the outside world after centuries of self-imposed isolation.

Sadahide was born as Hashimoto Kenjirō in Fusa Province (today's Chiba Prefecture), and in the 1820s became one of the star pupils of Utagawa Kunisada (1786-1865), one of the most influential artists in Japanese history. He worked in the ukiyo-o style, and following tradition took his master's name, while using the art name of 'Gountei'. His first published work appeared in 1824, and by the 1830s he was splendid bird's eye landscape views, taken from firsthand experience, and mucha-o warrior prints, winning great acclaim.

Important to the present work, Sadahide was also, in addition to his artistic pursuits, a professional cartographer, who beginning in the 1840s worked closely with the esteemed geographer Shigenobu Tsurumine (1788-1859), for who he made a world map and drafted maps or his important series of the Six Eastern Provinces of Japan. He also made an accurate world map, after a Dutch model, as well as maps of Edo, Yokohama and a general map of Japan. His most famous cartographic work, in addition to the present round-panorama / 3-D cone, is a colossal 9-sheet view of his adopted hometown, Gokaikō Yokohama ōezu: kan (Complete Picture of the Newly Opened Port of Yokohama) (1859-60).

Sadahide, based in Yokohama, the major city nearest Mount Fuji, developed an intense fascination with the great sacred volcano. He hiked up and extensively sketched Fujisan many times, leading him to create the present map, in 1848, and subsequently, the more conventional but wonderous prints, Dai Nihon Fujisan zetchô no zu (The Summit of Mount Fuji in Great Japan) (1857) and Fuji ryodo ichiran no zu, Fugaku dochu ichiran (Panoramic View of Two Ways to Climb Mt. Fuji and Panoramic View of Routes to Mt. Fuji) (1859).

Sadahide is world famous for his Yokohama-e prints of the foreigners who appeared in Japanese ports in the wake of Japan's 1854 opening to the outside world, after hundreds of years of pursuing an official policy of isolation. Unlike some of his contem-

道ノ夫ト然ニ明治ヒテ中教院ノ官許ノ後ヲ
明治八年中教ニ教會所ヲ設置シ道ヲ弘
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富士山乃(中古ヨリ同ジ
佛峰ノ安置ヒ隨ヒ地名
佛教ノ如キヒ然ヒ廢河國
富郡大宮鎮座國幣中社
淺間神社宮司武甲斐國都
留郡上吉田村富士嶽神社
同國同郡川村淺間
神社駿河國駿東
郡須走村淺間神社
同國同郡須走村
淺間神社祠官
宮野平馬然トシ
上古ニ復セシコトヲ
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ヒ給フニ依リ明治七年七月廿日同年
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別局東富士山講本
社ヘタ假宅ヒルヲ
以テ爰ニ記載セス

contemporaries, who stereotyped the Westerners, often in derisive ways, under the "revere the Emperor, expel the barbarians" attitude, Sadahide showed a certain sensitivity and curiosity towards the outsiders, creating works of beauty and genuine historical documentary value. Amongst his masterpieces in this genre were Edo meisho kenbutsu ijin (Foreigners Viewing Famous Places in Edo). He also wrote and illustrated a five volume guide to Yokohama, Yokohama kaikō kenbun-shi (Things seen and heard at the Yokohama open port) (1862-66), in which he made valuable observations on the foreign presence in the city.

Sadahide also played a key role in defining the perception of 'overseas' lands in the Japanese consciousness. His five volume Kaigai Shinwa (New Overseas Stories) (1850), on the First Opium War in China, was hugely popular, while his Kita Ezo zusetsu (Northern Japan Illustrated) (1855), showcased Hokkaido and the Kurile Islands, and the native Ainu people, lands that while parts of Japan were totally unknown to over 90% of the Japanese population.

In his later life, Sadahide was notably one of Japan's representatives to the 1867 International Exposition in Paris. He moved to Nagasaki, where he focused upon large-scale landscapes and geographical works. He left an enduring and powerful legacy, in that he taught and mentored many young artists who later went on to be renowned figures in their own right. His works are today considered be true masterpieces, held and exhibited by art museums worldwide.

A Note on Editions and Rarity

We are aware of two editions of the map. The first edition was issued in 1848 at the Fujiyoshida Sengen Shrine (the present example is of the first edition). The second edition was produced in 1877, employing Sadahide's original woodblocks. The editions can be distinguished, as the second issue, while being largely faithful to its antecedent, features the addition of a prominent publisher's red handstamp in the lower part, and seems to employ a noticeably darker colour palate.

All examples of the map, in either of the editions, are today very rare. This is not surprising, as the map is very large and printed upon thin paper, which given that expamples were carried around by pilgrims (not to mentions folded into cones), would have led them to an incredibly low survival rate.

We can trace 8 examples of map in institutional collections. In Western libraries we can locate 3 examples (which all appear to be first editions), held by the British Library; University of British Columbia Library; and the University of Manchester, The John Rylands Library. We are aware of 5 examples in Japanese institutions, of which the example held by the Nishio City Iwase Bunko Collection is of the 1877 edition, while we have not been able to confirm as to which editions are the other examples, held by the University of Tokyo Library; Kanagawa Prefectural Museum; Yamanashi Prefectural Museum; and the Fujisawa City Board of Education.

References: University of British Columbia Library: Rare Books and Special Collections, G7962 .K3 1848 S2; University of Manchester, The John Rylands Library: Japanese 70; Cf. (re: 1877 ed.:) Nishio City Iwase Bunko Collection: Tora-50; bibliographical sources: Byron H. EARHART, Mount Fuji: Icon of Japan (Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 2011); Peter F. KORNICKI, 'The Japanese collection in the Bibliotheca-Lindesiana', in Bulletin of the John Rylands University Library of Manchester, 75.2 (1993), pp. 209-300; Fumiko MIYAZAKI, 'An Artist's Rendering of the Divine Mount Fuji', in Kären Wigen, Sugimoto Fumiko and Cary Karacas (eds.), Cartographic Japan: A History in Maps (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2016), pp. 98-101; Ryōtarō NAKANISHI, 'Kaiga ni hyōgen sareta Fuji-san (Mount Fuji in pictures)', Chigaku zasshi, 124:6 (2015), pp. 917-936; Rebecca SALTER, Japanese Popular Prints: From Votive Slips to Playing Cards (Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 2006), p. 71.

12.000 EUR

2. Rhinoceros
‘Apocryphal Monsters’
Ephemeral Lisbon Imprint

Author Anon. / José António da SILVA (fl. 1725 - 1748), publisher.

Relação de hum Horrivel e Formidável Monstro. Que appareceo no Império da Turquia no presente anno de 1735. Tirada de cartas fidedignas escritas de vários Reynos. Com a cópia verdadeira do mesmo Monstro.

Lisbon: Na Officina de Joseph António da Sylva, Impressor da Academia Real, 1735.

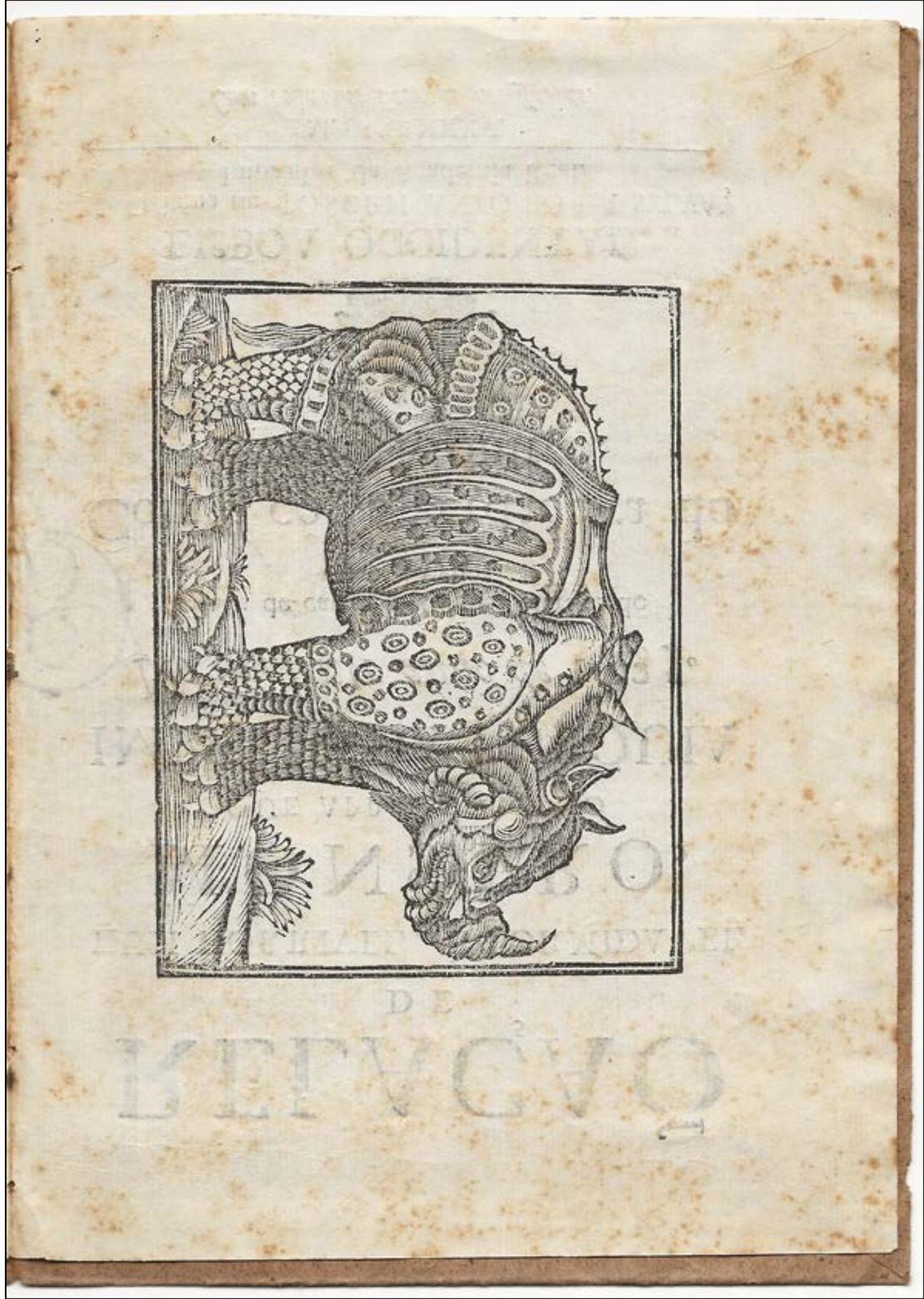
8° (20 x 14 cm): 7 pp., [1 blank], including 1 full page woodcut illustration of a Rhinoceros, bound in old (perhaps circa 1900) buff paper wrappers with pastedown printed private library inventory label (Very Good, wide margins, some foxing to leaves, more pronounced along margins).

A very rare and curious ephemeral pamphlet announcing the recent appearance of a “horrible and formidable monster” near Istanbul that portended the fall of the Ottoman Empire, with an illustration of a Rhinoceros modified from the famed woodcut of ‘Dürer's Rhinoceros’, published in Lisbon and sold on the streets of that city by the ‘Brotherhood of the Blind Men of the Infant Jesus’ in order to take advantage of the bizarre ‘monster mania’ that gripped the contemporary Portuguese public.

Humanity has been fascinated with the notion of ‘monsters’, both apocryphal and real, since Ancient times, although the nature and level of this enthusiasm has varied over the ages.

Curiously, in Portugal, from the 1720s to 1740s, there was bizarre and intense public fascination with foreign and often impossibly exotic beasts. The reasons behind this are complex but had to do with the country long being one of the main nexuses of European interaction with overseas lands, such as India, Africa and Brazil, all regions that featured animals far grander and extraordinary that those native to Europe. It was also connected to Portuguese society’s deep Roman Catholic faith, that often sought to find omens and gain moral lessons from natural phenomena.

While the origin of ‘monster mania’ in Lisbon is not precisely known, it commenced in 1720s, when printers began to publish the first of several cheap, illustrated pamphlets, that described the sightings of exotic beasts in foreign lands, ranging from Paraguay to Anatolia. These works were an intriguing mixture of fact (often including accurate and engaging depictions of faraway lands) sand fiction (describing fantastical non-existent monsters and their totally fabricated appearances in distant lands).



Present here is one of the most intriguing of these pamphlets, that described a "horrible and formidable monster" that appeared near Istanbul, in February 1735. As described and illustrated by a woodcut on page 2, this beast was a rhinoceros (clearly derived from 'Dürer's Rhinoceros', discussed below), an animal that while known to those in certain rarified circles (via print culture or travel to India), it was by this time unfamiliar to most Portuguese readers. Indeed, the rhinoceros is one of the most extraordinary creatures of the real life natural world, with many features that would otherwise be confined to the realm of mythical beasts.

The author of the pamphlet, who employs a moderately sensationalist, yet still credible-sounding, manner of prose, notes that (translated):

"The judgements that are made in all of Turkey, and especially in Constantinople, regarding the appearance of this monster, which is as unknown as it is formidable, are varied and diverse; however, everyone tends to see it as the presage of some inauspicious and unhappy outcome for the Ottoman Empire, with papers even being published in which its extreme ruin was predicted, of which the Persian Wars are already a sign, since in these wars, that Empire [Persia] has always emerged victorious, and this one destroyed…" (p. 7).

It is even said that the Ottoman sultan was so concern about the appearance of the "monster" that he banned the mere mention its existence. Its existence was only known abroad because the "a Christian slave" who escaped "from the barbaric dungeons of that Empire" regaled people with the news.

Here we see that the story of the sighting of a rhinoceros in Ottoman Empire was not merely a source of entertainment, but it also had a moral purpose. The appearance of the "monster" was seen to be a portent of the Sublime Porte's downfall, presumably as God's punishment for the Islamic-ruled empire's failure to follow Christianity. Moreover, on a practical level, Europeans had longed to see the destruction of the Sublime Porte which had threatened their security and commerce for centuries. Thus, the publication of the pamphlet would not only have been approved but was likely even encouraged by the censors of the Portuguese Inquisition, which oversaw Lisbon's vibrant, but heavily regulated, print culture.

The present work was published by José António da Silva (fl. 1725 - 1748), the official printer to the Academia Real. Interestingly, examples would have been sold on the streets of Lisbon by members of the 'Brotherhood of the Blind Men of the Infant Jesus', which since 1707 held an official monopoly on the direct sale of such works.

It is worth noting that Lisbon had a special historical relationship with the rhinoceros. In 1515, Portuguese mariners brought an Indian rhinoceros to Lisbon, as diplomatic gift from an Indian potentate. The poor animal had survived a grueling 120-day voyage, and upon its arrival had the distinction of being the first rhinoceros seen in Europe since Roman times.

This creature was immortalized when a firsthand sketch by an anonymous artist was acquired by the legendary artist, Albrecht Dürer, from which he printed his interpretation of the sketch. The resulting woodcut became a pan-European sensation, popularly known as 'Dürer's Rhinoceros', that while not scientifically accurate, defined the image of the creature in the Western mind for centuries. It has even been said that "probably no animal picture has exerted such a profound influence on the arts" (T.H. Clarke, The Rhinoceros from Dürer to Stubbs: 1515–1799 (London: Sotheby's Publications, 1986), p. 20).

Please see a link to an image of 'Dürer's Rhinoceros', courtesy of the British National Gallery of Art:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/D%C3%BCrer%27s_Rhinoceros#/media/File:The_Rhinoceros_(NGA_1964.8.697)_enhanced.png

The Lisbon rhinoceros was also copied, probably from life, by masons who created an adornment to the Belem Tower (built 1514-20), in what is now the western part of Lisbon, a masterpiece of Manueline architecture that still survives today.

Manual I kept the rhinoceros shackled outside of the Ribeira Palace in downtown Lisbon for some months, before growing tired of its presence. He then decided to gift the creature to Pope Leo X, but sadly the rhinoceros perished on route to Rome when the ship in which it was travelling sank in the Mediterranean during a storm.

The second rhinoceros seen in Europe in modern times arrived in Lisbon from India in 1577. In 1580, it was sent to Madrid for the amusement of Philip II of Spain.

The 'monster mania' in Portugal was extinguished by the Great Lisbon Earthquake (1755), whereupon the city was destroyed by tremors, fires and a tidal wave. It seems that the arrival of the apocalypse at home ensured that there was little interest in discussing portents of doom abroad.

A Note on Rarity

The survival rate of all such ephemeral pamphlets sold on the streets of Lisbon during the era is extremely low; the present work is thus very rare.

We can trace only 4 institutional examples of the work, held by the Biblioteca Nacional de Portugal; Bayerische Staatsbibliothek; Princeton University Library; and the Penn State University Library. We cannot trace any sales records for any other examples.

References: Biblioteca Nacional de Portugal: H.G. 15169//7 P.; Bayerische Staatsbibliothek: Res/Slg.Faust 197; Princeton University Library: QL795.R45 R44.; Penn State University Library (Paterno): QL795.R45R44 1735; OCLC: 163498598, 22315298; Palmira FONTES DA COSTA, 'Between Fact and Fiction: Narratives of Monsters in Eighteenth-Century Portugal', Portuguese Studies, vol. 20 (2004), pp. 63-72; Palmira FONTES DA COSTA, 'O lugar das imagens na percepção e entendimento do corpo monstruoso, 1550-1750', Art Cultura, Uberlândia, vol. 18, no. 32, (Jan.-June 2016), pp. 9-23; Sanjay SUBRAHMANYAM, Empires between Islam and Christianity, 1500-1800 (Albany, NY: State University of New York Press, 2018), pp. 312, 398; Sanjay SUBRAHMANYAM, 'Monsters, Miracles and the World of 'ajā'ib-o-gharā'ib: Intersections between the Early Modern Iberian and Indo-Persian Worlds', in Eddy Stols (ed.), Naturalia, mirabilia & monstrosa en los imperios ibéricos: siglos XV-XIX (Louvain: Louvain University Press, 2006), pp. 302, 305-6.

2.400 EUR


RELAÇAÕ
DE
HUM HORRIVEL, E FORMIDAVEL
MONSTRO,
QUE APPARECEO NO
IMPERIO DA TURQUIA
No preſente anno de 1735.
Tirada de cartas fidedignas eſcritas de varios Reynos.
Com a cópia verdadeira do meſmo Monſtro.
LISBOA OCCIDENTAL,
Na Officina de JOSEPH ANTONIO DA SYLVA,
Impreſſor da Academia Real.
M. DCC. XXXV.
Com todas as licenças neceſſarias.

3. Russia
Kazakhstan - Orenburg Krai / Kazakh Steppe
'The Great Game'

Vladimir Afanasievich OBRUCHEV [Влади́мир Афана́сьевич О́БРУЧЕВ] (1795 - 1866) and Ivan Fedorovich BLARAMBERG [Иван Фёдорович БЛАРАМБЕРГ] (1800 - 1878). / GENERAL STAFF OF THE SEPARATE ORENBURG CORPS [ГЕНЕРАЛЬНОМ ШТАБЕ ОТДЕЛЬНОГО ОРЕНБУРГСКОГО КОРПУСА].

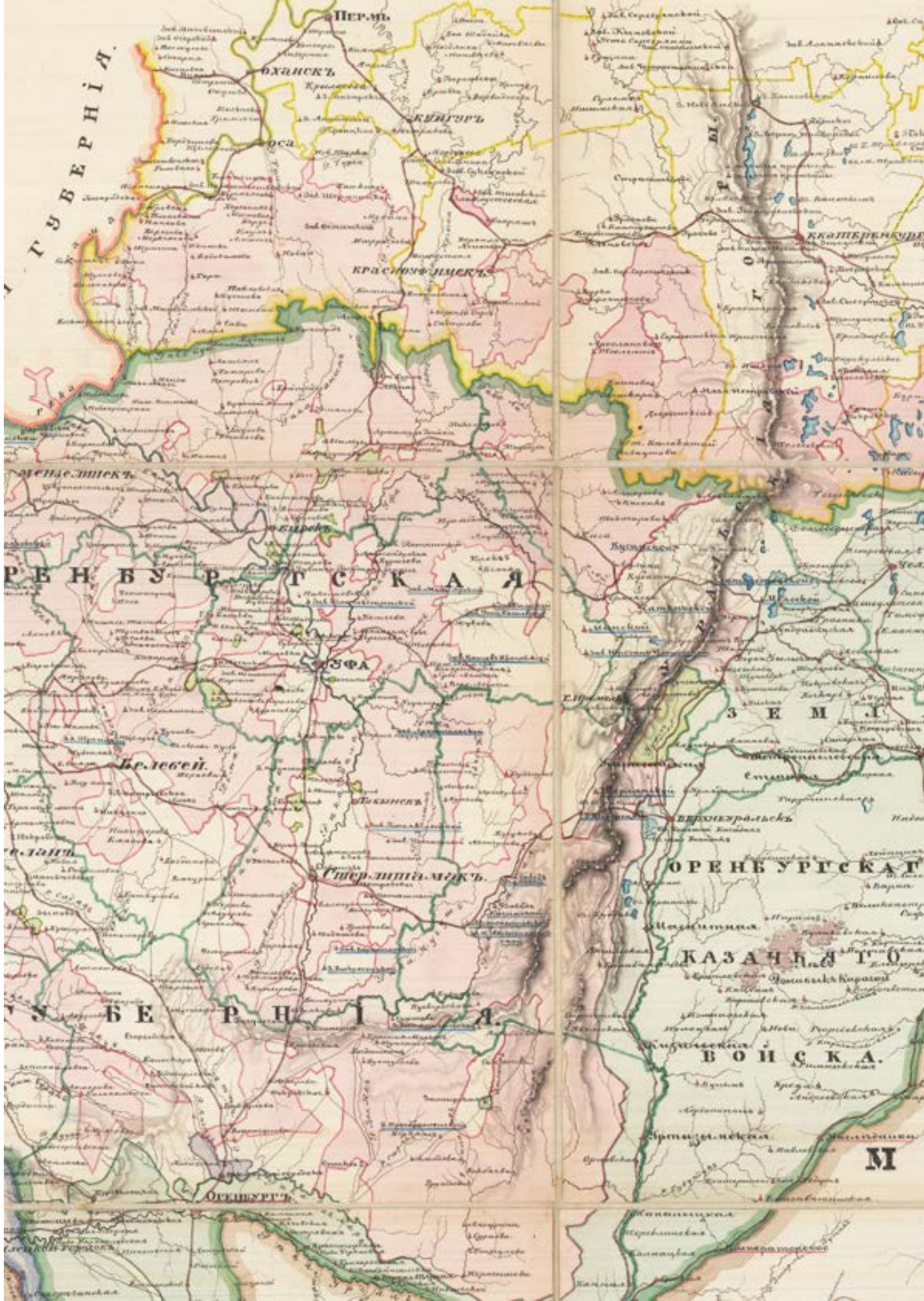
"Карта Оренбургскаго Края 1845." [Map of the Orenburg Krai 1845].

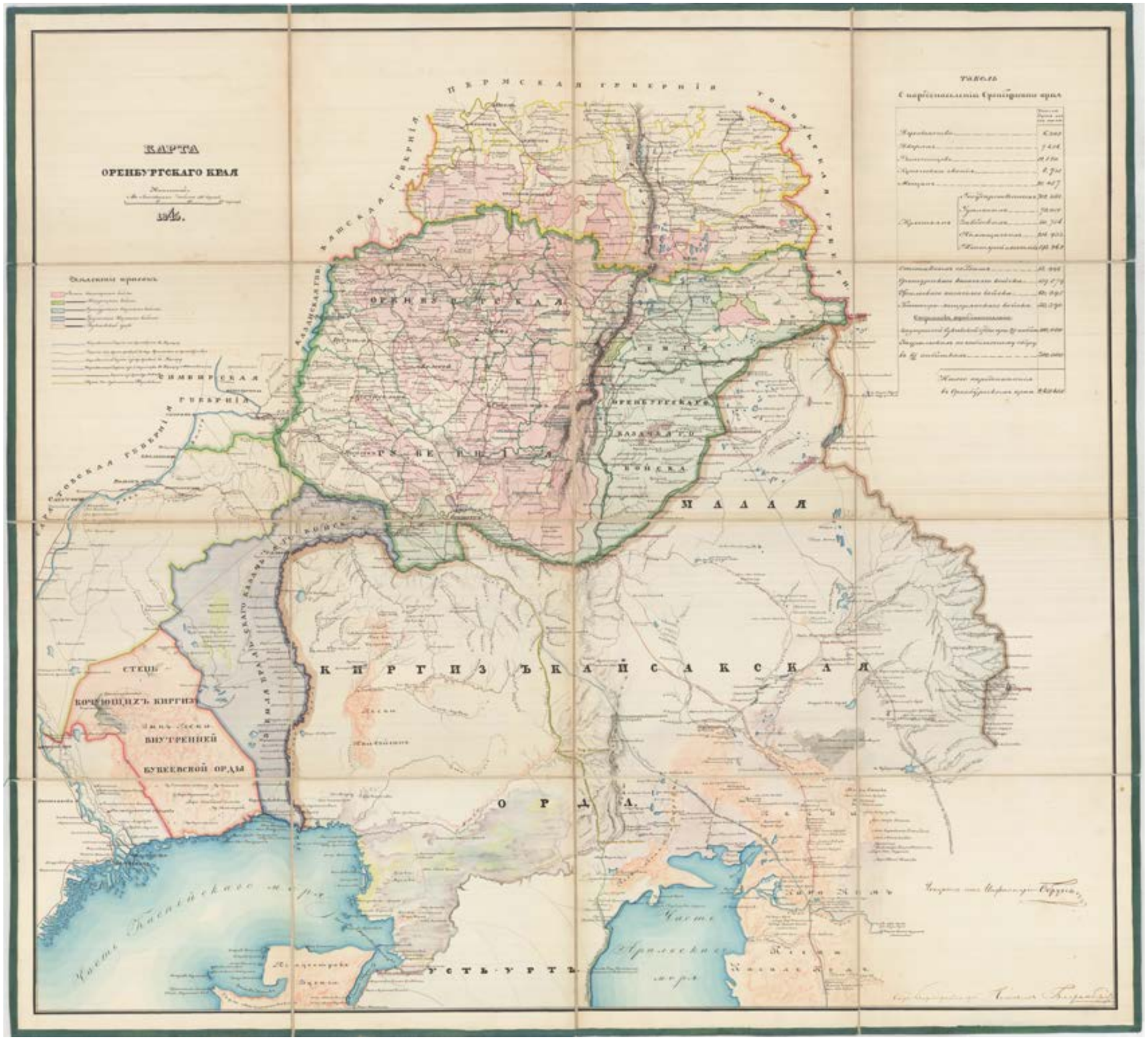
Manuscript, [Orenburg, Russia], 1845.

Manuscript, pen and ink, watercolour and wash, dissected into 16 sections and mounted upon original linen, original blue-green silk edging, signed by the supervising cartographers, General Obruchev and Colonel Blaramberg, lower right (Excellent condition, resplendent original colours, clean and bright, only the slightest toning due to transference), 82 x 89.5 cm (32.5 x 35 inches).

Highly important and unique – the seemingly earliest known original manuscript of the first scientific military survey of Russia's Southern Urals and the adjacent Kazakh Steppe, centred upon the vital Russian base of Orenburg, a presentation piece created immediately before Russia's great offensive which gave them control of much the Kazakh Stepps, the first major successful play in the 'Great Game', the emerging Anglo-Russian contest for control of the heart of Asia; an exceedingly well drafted work predicated upon ground-breaking field surveys conducted by the Separate Orenburg Army Corps under the direct supervision of General Vladimir Afanasievich Obruchev, the Military Governor of Orenburg, and Colonel Ivan Fedorovich Blaramberg, a renown soldier-scholar who later became the chief cartographer of the Russian Army (the map is signed by both men in their own hands).

This amazing, unique artefact of the Great Game and the Russian drive to conquer the Kazakh Steppes, is seemingly the earliest known manuscript of the first scientific military survey of Russia's southern Urals and the Kazakh Steppe, the scene of Russia's first successful major play of the Great Game, the epic Anglo-Russian rivalry for control of the heart of Asia. The map is predicated upon intelligence from pioneering surveying expeditions conducted by the Separate Orenburg Army Corps, under the direction of two famous army commanders and professional military engineers, General Vladimir Afanasievich Obruchev, the Military Governor of Orenburg, and Colonel (later Lieutenant-General) Ivan Fedorovich Blaramberg, an esteemed author and statistician, who subsequently became the chief cartographer of the Russian Army. Exceptionally well drafted, the work is signed in manuscript by Obruchev and Blaramberg (in their




КАРТА
ОРЕНБУРГСКАГО КРАЯ
ТАБЛИЦА
ПЕРМСКАЯ ГУБЕРНІЯ
ОРЕНБУРГСКАЯ
ТЯНЬ-ШАНЬ
ОРЕНБУРГСКАГО
ВОЙСКА
МАЛАЯ
КИРГИЗЪ-КАЙСАКСКАЯ
СТЕПЬ
ВНУТРЕННЕЙ
БУКЕЕВСКОЙ ОРДЫ
ОРДА.
Каспійское море
Аральское море
УСТЬ-УРТЪ

own hands) and, edged in blue-green silk, it appears to be a presentation copy intended for a high-level recipient in St. Petersburg. Importantly, the present manuscript served as the basis for the cartography of the region for over 30 years, being the source of the Russian Military Topographical Depot's authoritative printed map of the area.

The map embraces a great expanse of territory, extending from the Volga Valley (including Saratov and Samara), in the west, over past the Urals and Ekaterinburg, in the east, and from Perm, the north, down south, past the Kazakh Steppe, to the northern Caspian Sea (Astrakhan appears in the lower-left corner), the Aral Sea and the Syr Darya River. The northern part of the map features Russian territory, dominated by the Orenburg Krai, while the southern regions are dominated by the Kazakh Khanate (here called the "Kirghiz-Kazakh Horde", today northwestern Kazakhstan), a once mighty state, the successor of the Golden Horde, but which was by this time a declining, fractured confederacy of nomadic Islamic tribes. To the south, largely off the map, is the Khanate of Khiva, a still potent force that stubbornly resisted Russian advances.

The map was drafted to a very high technical standard, worthy of a presentation piece from senior regional military commanders to their superiors in the capital. Russian jurisdictions are shaded and outlined in their own bright, beautiful tones of watercolour and wash; areas of elevation are expressed by careful shading; deserts are coloured as orange billows; swamps appear in green and purple hues; while the inland seas appear in gradations of bright blue. All Russian cities and towns are marked, as are Kazakh campsites, while all roads, caravan routes and horse paths are delineated; the level of detail and accuracy is unprecedented and impressive.

As shown here, the Orenburg Krai consisted of a special military march district that bordered the Kazakh lands, anchored by the garrison town of Orenburg; and a civilian zone, the largest centre of which was Ufa, while the southern tail of the Ural Mountains running down into the krai.

The legend in the upper left, describes the colour-coding employed for the special military zones in the Orenburg Krai, while the table in the upper left gives population statistics for various jurisdictions.

The town of Orenburg, the largest Russian base in the region, was founded in 1743, as part of the 'Irtysh Line', a series of forty-six forts and ninety-six redoubts constructed in the early to mid-18th century to guard Russia's frontier with Central Asia from incursions by the Kazakhs and other regional antagonists. The Russians had reason to fear their neighbours to the south, as the Kazakhs took advantage of the chaos caused by Pugachev's Rebellion (1773-5) to raid deep into Russian territory, even striking settlements along the Volga.

Until the 1830s, Russia's posture in the region was largely defensive, but that all radically changed when St. Petersburg decided upon a forward course of conquest and military occupation in Central Asia. There were two main reasons for the new policy.

First, Russia was buoyed by its recent success in conquering the Caucuses and believed that taking much of Central Asia would give them valuable agrarian and mineral resources, as well as new lands to be colonized by Russian settlers. Second, Russia was increasingly concerned by British expansion on the Indian Subcontinent and feared that they would eventually try to move into Central Asia, threatening Russian interests (concerns that seemed founded when Britain mounted its, albeit unsuccessful, invasion of Afghanistan in 1839). This emerging contest for control of Central Asia, called the Great Game (known to the Russians as the 'The Tournament of Shadows'), would dominate Anglo-Russian relations, and the fates of many Asian nations, until the 1880s. Largely fought by proxies and diplomatic showdowns, the rivalry was the first 'Cold War'.

In this new era, Orenburg was transformed into being the epicentre of a massive ongoing Russian military campaign, as the main base for Russian expeditions into Central Asia. The first element of the offensive policy was a failure, due to overreach and bad planning. An army of 5,000 troops under General Vasily Perovsky attempted ride all the way from Orenburg to Khiva, in the hopes of toppling the khanate, but the weather was too cold, killing most of the expedition's camels, causing the mission to be abandoned.

As a result of Perovsky's misadventure, Russian policy makers decided upon a more cautious, incremental approach. As the Kazakh Khanate was a vast territory controlled by a series of disparate local potentates, one could not just move and take it over it in one fell swoop, as there was no central power to overthrow. The region, starting with the Kazakh Steppe, needed to be conquered piece by piece, by either defeating, or cajoling individual tribes.

To meet the new challenge, the unit responsible for the Central Asian campaigns, the Separate Orenburg Corps of the Russian Army, was re-organized, and placed in the charge of a first-rate leader, Infantry General Obruchev.

Vladimir Afanasievich Obruchev (1795 - 1866) was born near Archangel to a noble military family; his father was a military engineer, Major General Afanasy Nikolaevich Obruchev. He followed in his father's footsteps and entered the army engineering corps at the age of twelve. Promoted to lieutenant in 1808, during Napoleonic invasion of Russia, he was highly decorated for his heroics in battle.

Following the war, he became the commander of the Narva Infantry Regiment, and in 1823 the Chief of Staff of the larger 2nd Infantry Regiment, with the rank of Major General, an amazing achievement for a man in his late 20s. In this role, he was allegedly a supporter of the Decembrist Revolt (1825), although there is no evidence that he ever participated in the insurrection, and he was never formally implicated.

Obrichev served with success as a front-line commander during the Russo-Turkish War (1828-29) and was highly praised by his superiors for his role in suppressing the November Uprising in Warsaw (1830-1).

He continued to hold increasingly important posts until 1842, when he was made the commander of the Separate Orenburg Corps, as well as the Military Governor of Orenburg.

In Orenburg, Obruchev was fortunate to have as his right-hand man, Colonel Ivan Fedorovich Blaramberg (1800-78), a German-born Russian officer of uncommon intellect. Born as Johann Blaramberg in Frankfurt-am-Main, he studied statistics, mathematics and law at Giessen University.

In 1823, Blaramberg moved to Moscow to live with relatives, where he soon mastered the Russian language and gained a stellar knowledge of his adopted country's history. He also studied mathematics and draftsmanship, skills that would be vital to his future cartographic work. In 1824, he gained Russian citizenship and moved to St. Petersburg, where he studied at the Institute of the Corps of Road Engineers, later graduating with top honours.

He subsequently joined the Russian Army, serving with the engineering corps, whereupon during the Russo-Turkish War 1828-9 he was stationed in the Balkans. There he sketched battle scenes and monuments, with his work later published in Paris.

Blaramberg then served in the Caucuses, whereupon he won credit from his superiors for submitting a brilliant analysis of the military-political situation in the region, "Description of the Caucasus in geographical, historical and military terms".

From 1837-41, he served on a diplomatic mission to Persia, as a military attaché, placing him on the front lines of the Great Game. There he wrote brilliant papers for his superiors on the state of the country and the British invasion of neighboring Afghanistan. He also wrote a statistical analysis of Persia, which was published in 1853.

Blaramberg's uncommon polymath skills, as a military commander, diplomat, linguist and cartographer made him the ideal person to serve as the 'brain trust' of the Russian endeavours out of Orenburg.

Once he arrived in Orenburg, in 1841, Colonel Blaramberg was placed in charge of diplomatic and reconnaissance missions inside Kazakh territory, as well as overseeing the military mapping programmes in the greater region. In 1843, he was elevated to become the Chief Quartermaster General of the Separate Orenburg Corps.

One of the priorities for Obruchev and Blaramberg was performing the first scientific military survey of the Orenburg Krai and adjacent territories, including the Kazakh Steppe, Ustyurt, and the Southern Urals. Blaramberg led sizable teams of troops to conduct various surveys across the region, and while the conditions were difficult, these operations yielded stellar results, mapping that became the basis for the present manuscript.

While Blaramberg was the primary author of the present map, Obruchev, as a professional military engineer, was vitally interested in the project, and was certainly directly involved in its creation. For this reason, both Obruchev and Blaramberg are fittingly signed in their own hands in the lower right corner of the map, as "Генерал от Инфантерии Обручев" [General of the Infantry Obruchev] and "Оберквартермейстер Генерал Бларамберг" [Chief Quartermaster General Blaramberg].

Returning to the details on the map, importantly, as described in the legend, upper left, the coloured lines shown entering Kazakh territory chart the various routes of some of Blaramberg's and other Separate Orenburg Corps' reconnaissance missions into the Kazakh Steppe, with some expeditions penetrating as far the Syr Darya River.

The present manuscript map proved to be incredibly influential, as it served as the basis for all the official Russian cartography of the region for at least the next 30 years. As noted, the present map was likely sent by Obruchev and Blaramberg to their superiors in St. Petersburg as presentation piece, showcasing their martial, diplomatic and cartographic endeavours.

The present work was the basis for a later manuscript map, "Карта Оренбургского края 1850" (today held by the Russian National Library, St. Peterburg):

http://retromap.ru/show_map.php?mcode=1418506

This map seems, in turn, to have been the principal basis for what would be the authoritative printed map of the region for many years, the General Staff of the Separate Orenburg Corps' Генеральная карта Оренбургского Края и частей Хивинского и Бухарского владений [General Map of the Orenburg Territory and parts of the Khiva and Bukhara Possessions] (St. Petersburg: Military Topographic Depot, 1851):

http://retromap.ru/show_map.php?mcode=141851

In 1875, this map was reissued in a revised and expanded edition:

http://retromap.ru/show_pid.php?pid=g7072

Epilogue

Not long after Obruchev and Blaramberg oversaw the drafting of the present manuscript, they launched a successful campaign to invade and occupy most of the Kazakh Steppe. In 1846, Obruchev led a mission to the eastern shore of the Caspian Sea, and the following year his force reached the Syr Darya River, where he erected a fort at Raim.

Notably, in 1852, Blaramberg led a successful expedtion against the key Kazakh base of the Ak-Mechet fortress, in Kokand, leading to his promotion to major general.

These and other ventures of the Orenburg Separate Corps allowed the Russians to construct the Syr Darya Line (1847-53), an archipelago of forts along the northern bank of the Syr Darya, so moving the Russian frontier over 400 km to the south, sealing the first major successful Russian play of the Great Game.

As for Blaramberg, his time in Orenburg and the Kazakh lands gave him the opportunity to write two highly important books, which further burnished his reputation, Военно-статистическое обозрение Оренбургской губернии [Military Statistical Review of the Orenburg Province] (St. Petersburg, 1848) and Военно-статистическое обозрение земель киргиз-кайсаков Внутренней (Букеевской) и Зауральской (Малой) орды Оренбургского ведомства по рекогносцировкам и материалам, собранным на месте [Military-Statistical Review of the Lands of the Kirghiz-Kaisaks of the Inner (Bukeev) and Trans-Ural (Small) Hordes of the Orenburg Department based on Reconnaissance and Materials Collected on the Spot] (St. Petersburg, 1848).

In 1855, Blaramberg was recalled to St. Petersburg and made the director of the Military Topographical Depot, the Russian Army's top mapmaking agency, rising in 1866 to assume full leadership of the body.

Obruchev returned to St. Petersburg in 1851, where he was made a senator, and semi-retiring, he acting a senior statesman.

As for Russia's fortunes in Central Asia, in 1863, St. Petersburg decided to 'dig deep', driving hard to vanquish its regional opponents. This proved successful, as from 1864 to 1868, Russia conquered Kyrgyzstan, as well as capturing the fabled cities of Tashkent and Samarkand, while making the Khanates of Kokand and Bokhara client states. In 1873, it vanquished the Khanate of Khiva, a long-held objective. This made Russia the master of Central Asia, even as Britain held its own south of the Himalayas and east of the Hindu Kush, so perpetuating the Great Game.

References: N/A – Present Manuscript Unrecorded. Cf. [Later, '1850' Related Manuscript:] Russian National Library, St. Petersburg [Российская Национальная библиотека]: К 2-Ур 3/3.

4.800 EUR

4. West Indies – Martinique
American Revolutionary War
Battle Of Martinique (1779)

August Louis de ROSSEL DE CERCY (1736 - 1804), Artist; François Nicolas Barthélemy DEQUEVAUVILLER (1745 – 1807), Engraver.

Combat naval livré le 18 Decembré, 1779 par Mr. le comte de La Motte Picquet chef d'Escadre.

Paris: Chez Bance Editeur, rue St. Denis, [1790].

Copper engraving (Fair to Good, trimmed close, within platemark, abrasions with some surface loss along sides and a tiny scrape left-centre, some small tears near edges with no loss, toned throughout and some foxing on right side, some remnants of old mounting material to verso), 53.5 x 73 cm (21 x 28.5 inches).

An extremely rare, large format separately issued view of the Battle of Martinique (December 18, 1779), an important naval altercation between British and French fleets during the American Revolutionary War, as viewed from Fort-Royal (today Fort-de-France), the island's capital; a work of uncommon artistic virtuosity, it was engraved by François Nicolas Barthélemy Dequevauviller, after the (still existent) painting by the naval officer and artist August Louis de Rossel de Cercy which was created at the request of King Louis XVI; it is by far and

The American Revolutionary War (1775-83) is best remembered for the incomparable saga of the people of the Thirteen Colonies fighting for their self-determination against the mighty British Empire, although, although during the period the events in the West Indian theatre were actually of far greater consequence to the European powers. The slave-sugar economies of the islands produced vastly more revenue for both Britain and France than did North America – politically and economically, sugar was to the 18th century what petroleum is today.

The Battle of Martinique (French: Combat de la Martinique), fought on December 18, 1779, was an important naval encounter of the American Revolutionary War. Technically, it was a defeat for the French, although in practical terms it was a victory. Despite the British Royal Navy's lackluster performance in North American theatre, in the West Indies it often held the upper hand, with the French playing defense. France was intent on protecting its most precious overseas possessions, the sugar colonies of Saint-Domingue (Haiti), Guadeloupe and Martinique. Martinique, while less productive that the larger (but politically unstable) Saint-Domingue, it was the jewel of the French empire, of a manageable size and home to an astoundingly profitable sugar-slave economy.





COMBAT NAVAL

LIVRÉ LE 18 DÉCEMBRE 1779. PAR Mr LE COMTE DE LA MOTTE PICQUET CHEF D'ESCADRE.

Ce Combat fut livré au vent de fort Royal de la Martinique, entre l'Armée Anglaise aux ordres de l'Amiral Hyde Parker, Le Général Français commandant l'Amiral de 24 canons, accompagné d'abord seul contre trois Vaisseaux Anglois, les Vaisseaux le Vengeur et le Protecteur de 64 canons, l'un commandé par Mr de Sillard de Surville, et l'autre par Mr de Vaucresme, tous les deux Capitaines, les seuls que je trouverai en état d'appareiller, trouvai au secours de Mr le Comte de la Motte Picquet, qui battirent toute la journée contre les trois Vaisseaux, et qui soutenus de quatre Vaisseaux français, engagés de vent en poupe, et attaqués sous le Cap Salomon, qui restera en partie au pouvoir du fort Royal.

The British Royal Navy's Leeward Islands Squadron had since 1778 been commanded by Rear Admiral Sir Hyde Parker (1714-82), a seasoned veteran and famed for having acquired immense wealth upon having, in 1762, captured a Spanish treasure galleon worth over £600,000 (£106 million in today's money). While Parker ideally hoped to capture some islands (the British had taken St. Lucia form the French in December 1778, while France had seized Dominica from Britain in September of the same year), if such opportunities did not present themselves, he was intent on devastating the trade of the French colonies, by destroying merchant fleets and raiding seaports.

On December 18, 1779, Parker, commanding a fleet of 13 ships of the line, spotted a lightly armed French merchant fleet of 26 ships en route from Marseille to Martinique, in the St. Lucia Channel (which divided St. Lucia from Martinique). He decided to give chase, for if he could seize or destroy the flotilla, it would deal a devastating blow to the French colonial economy, while leaving Martinique vulnerable to invasion.

Meanwhile, the French Leeward squadron, commanded by Admiral Count Toussaint-Guillaume Picquet de la Motte, often simply known as La Motte-Picquet (1720 - 1791), an esteemed Breton mariner, was in a vulnerable position. Its fleet of eight ships of the line were being refitted in Martinique, and only three vessels, the Annibal (the 74-gun flagship), and the 64-guns each Vengeur and Réfléchi, were fit to sail.

Seeing the plight of the French merchant flotilla, La Motte-Picquet boldly set off in command of only the Annibal and engaged seven British ships of the line for half an hour before being reenforced by the Vengeur and Réfléchi. While Parker's fleet managed to capture nine of the French merchant ships, while destroying four others, half of the French fleet, as well as all three of the La Motte-Picquet's vessels managed to escape, while Parker lost any opportunity to attack Martinique.

The battle, while technically a defeat for La Motte-Picquet, was celebrated as a victory, for he managed to save most of the French vessels against overwhelming odds, while preserving the security of Martinique. It was only for to the French commander's extreme bravery and skill that things did not end up much worse. La Motte-Picquet's exploits were all the more celebrated, as the height of the battle was clearly visible from the quayside of Fort-Royal, the capital of Martinique (the scene showcased by the present work).

Admiral Parker was so impressed by La Motte-Picquet's conduct that he wrote him a heart-felt letter of congratulations, which read:

The conduct of your Excellency in the affair of the 18th of this month fully justifies the reputation which you enjoy among us, and I assure you that I could not witness without envy the skill you showed on that occasion. Our enmity is transient, depending upon our masters; but your merit has stamped upon my heart the greatest admiration for yourself.

La Motte-Piquet was considered a hero by the French people and the royal court of Louis XIV for his exploits off Martinique and, in recognition, he was awarded the prestigious Order of St. Louis.

The present work is the most famous and highest quality graphic record of the Battle of Martinique. It is based upon August Louis de Rossel De Cercy's painting, Combat naval d'une division francaise contre une escadre anglaise 18 decembre 1779 (1788) (today part of the collections of the Musée national des châteaux de Versailles et de Trianon, but displayed in Paris at the Musée national de la Marine).

Please see a link to the painting:

https://www.pop.culture.gouv.fr/notice/joconde/000PE012064

The piece was one of a series of paintings of French 'victories' of the American Revolutionary War executed by Rossel De Cercy upon the commission of Louis XVI.

August Louis de Rossel De Cercy (1736 - 1804) served from 1751 to 1779 as a career naval officer, rising to the rank of captain. He was a highly skilled artist who sketched and painted many of the maritime and battle scenes that he witnessed around the world. His work was valuable for its vibrant realism that could only come from one possessing extensive first-hand experience.

Less than two years after Rossel De Cercy painted the Battle of Martinique, his work was engraved with uncommon skill by François Nicolas Barthélemy Dequevauviller (1745 – 1807), resulting in the present work.

This engaging and vibrant scene captures the battle from a perspective from just above the castellated quayside of Fort-Royal, looking out to sea. In the distance, to the centre right, one can see the Annibal single-handedly engaging the British fleet while, the to the left, the Vengeur and Réfléchi sail towards the battle to support their flagship. The endangered French merchant fleet lies in the far distance to the centre. Along the quayside there is an active scene, showing French soldiers manning cannons, while officers confer in the foreground. In the lower right, Fort-Royal's good and great, accompanied by their slaves, are gripped by the spectacle, with a mixture of fascination and trepidation, as the outcome of the battle could decide the fate of their island.

The following description of the scene appears below the title:

Ce combat fut livré en vue du fort Royal de la Martinique, contre l'armée Anglaise aux ordres de l'amiral Hyde Parker. Le Général Français commandant l'Annibal de 74 canons, combattit d'abord seul contre treize Vaisseaux Ennemis, Les Vaisseaux le Vengeur et le Réfléchi de 64 cannons, l'un commandé par Mr. de Sillard de Surville, et l'autre par Mr. de Fournoue, tous les deux Capitaines, les seuls que se trouverent en etat d'appareiller, vinrent au secours de Mr. le Comte de la Motte Picquet, combattirent toute

la journée contre les forces Anglaises; ce qui favorisa le Convoi Marchand Français, composé de vingt six voiles, et attaqué sour le Cap. Salomon, qui rentra en partie au mouillage du Fort Royal.

[This fight was fought within sight of Fort-Royal, Martinique, against the English fleet under the orders of Admiral Hyde Parker. The French General commanding the Annibal of 74 guns, first fought alone against thirteen enemy vessels, the vessels the Vengeur and the Réfléchi of 64 guns, one commanded by Mr. de Sillard de Surville, and the other by Mr. de Fournoue, both captains, the only ones who were in a condition to sail, came to the aid of Mr. le Comte de la Motte Picquet, fought all day against the English forces; which favored the French merchant convoy, composed of twenty-six sails, and attacked under Cap. Salomon, who partly returned to the Fort Royal anchorage].

While the present print is undated, it is known that it was published in 1790, as it was advertised in issues of the Journal général de France and the Mercure de France from that year.

A Note on Rarity

The present work is today very rare. An expensive work in its day, it would have been made in only a very limited print run, and the survival rate of such large separately issued engravings is very low.

We can locate 5 institutional examples of the present work, held by the Bibliothèque nationale de France; British Museum; Musée d'Aquitaine (Bordeaux); Royal Maritime Museum (Greenwich); and the American Revolution Institute of the Society of Cincinnati (Washington, D.C.). Moreover, we can trace only a single other example as having appeared on the market during the last generation.

It is worth noting that the Musée d'Aquitaine's example was displayed as part of a West Indies-themed exhibition, Regards sur les Antilles: Collection Marcel, held at the museum (September 23, 1999 to January 16, 2000).

The 'Big Money' Showdown: The West Indies Theatre of the American Revolutionary War

The American Revolutionary War (1775-83) was a truly global conflict that had expanded from being a rebellion of American colonists against their British colonial masters into an epic worldwide contest, with Britain, on one side, and France and Spain, on the other. While in popular history the events in the North American theatre that gave birth to the new American Republic far overshadowed the operations in the other theatres, in contemporary reality, both Britain and France had financially far more at stake in the West Indies than they had in the Thirteen Colonies.

The fact is that the Thirteen Colonies had been a net financial burden to Britain for some years before the war, a matter not helped by Whitehall's phenomenal military costs during the conflict itself. On the other hand, Britain's possessions in the West Indies, notably the sugar economies of Jamaica, Barbados and certain Leeward Islands, yielded astounding profits during an era when sugar occupied a similar prominence in the global economy as oil does today. In many years, Jamaica alone produced more net revenue to Britain than all of the Thirteen Colonies combined. The French possessions of Saint-Domingue (Haiti), Martinique and Guadeloupe occupied much the same role in the French imperial economy. Bottom line: the sugar islands were more far important to Britain and France than the fate of America.

France officially joined the American Revolution on the colonists' side in 1778, and when Spain joined the same alliance the following year, the old 'Bourbon Family Compact' was renewed. Not only did the Franco-Spanish alliance aim to deprive Britain of the Thirteen Colonies, but motivated by revanchist sentiment, burned to settle old scores in the West Indies. Following the Treaty of Paris (1763), which ended the Seven Years' War (1756-63), Britain gained possession of Florida from Spain; and the islands of Dominica, Grenada, St. Vincent & the Grenadines and Tobago from France.

Events moved quickly in the West Indies, as France and Britain dispatched naval expeditions to the region. In 1778, France captured Dominica, while Britain seized St. Lucia from France. In 1779, France took St. Vincent and Grenada from Britain; while Spain conquered British Honduras (Belize). That same year, the French successfully resisted British attempts to harass Martinique and ruin its maritime trade, at the Battle of Martinique.

In 1780, a young Horatio Nelson, the future hero of Trafalgar, led the disastrous 'San Juan Expedition', which failed in its aim of taking Nicaragua from Spain. Meanwhile, the Netherlands joined the war on the Franco-Spanish side.

During the 1781 season, events in America and the West Indies became very much intertwined. In February, British forces under Admiral George Rodney, captured and plundered the immensely wealthy Dutch trading entrepôt of St. Eustatius (which hitherto had a key role in smuggling arms to the Americans), but then made the fateful decision to return with his fleet to Europe instead of reinforcing the beleaguered British fleet based out of New York. This allowed the French fleet under Admiral Comte de Grasse to defeat the British fleet at the Battle of the Chesapeake (September 5, 1781), which, in turn, allowed the American-French army to entrap and defeat the main British land forces at the Siege of Yorktown (1781). This proved to be the decisive battle of the war in North America – thus securing the independence of the United States.

It was at this juncture that global attention was refocused to the West Indies. France and Spain had forged a credible plan to capture Jamaica. Both sides knew that a naval invasion that landed a large ground force could easily conquer the island. Jamaica's was defended by only a modest force of troops and local militia, and moreover, the

vast majority of the population was enslaved under especially brutal conditions, while parts of Jamaica's interior was populated by the Maroons, a free society of former slaves who had had mounted a decades-long insurgency against British rule. A surprisingly strong slave rebellion in 1761 had indicated that any Franco-Spanish force had simply to promise the slaves their emancipation in order to completely topple British rule.

An ambitious young Spanish official, Don Bernardo de Gálvez, was chosen to organize the ground forces for the invasion of Jamaica. He had recently gained great acclaim for leading the capture of Pensacola, Florida from the British in May 1781. He charged his lieutenant Francisco Saavedra de Sangronis to make arrangements with the Comte De Grasse (who was to lead the naval aspects) to plan the attack, in what became known as the De Grasse-Saavedra Convention. This design anticipated that De Grasse's large fleet would come down from America to the West Indies, pick up Spanish and French troops, and then go on to strike Jamaica. This was a well-conceived and formidable plan, and British officials became gravely worried upon the receipt of missives from their spies.

However, things did not go as planned for the Franco-Spanish side. In the spring of 1782, Rodney's fleet returned to the West Indies and caught up with De Grasse's fleet off of Dominica. The two evenly matched squadrons enjoined action at the Battle of the Saints (April 9-12, 1782), during which Rodney employed the tactic of 'breaking the line', a daring move by which his ships sliced through the French battle formation, so forcing the latter into chaos. After bloody cannonades, boarding operations and explosions, Rodney decimated the French fleet, capturing De Grasse. This ended any possibility of mounting the invasion of Jamaica.

While it is well known that the British loss of the Thirteen Colonies was the greatest defeat in that nation's history, in truth the war was not a complete loss for Britannia, as she successfully defended her place in the West Indies. At the Treaty of Paris (1783), which ended the war, all of the Caribbean islands that were captured by the various parties were returned to their antebellum owners, expect for Tobago, which was ceded to France; while Florida was returned to Spain. While the loss of the American colonies was a stinging blow to British pride, many in London simply felt relieved that they retained their sugar colonies and that the costly conflict was over. France, for its part, was delighted that it not only managed to hold on to all its West Indian colonies, but also gained Tobago.

References: Bibliothèque nationale de France: DEQUEVAUVILLER (François), n. 94; British Museum: 1893,0612.105; Musée d'Aquitaine (Bordeaux): 2003.4.325; Royal Maritime Museum (Greenwich): PAI6327; The American Revolution Institute of the Society of Cincinnati (Washington, D.C.): P&E L2000F311ff.; MUSÉE D'AQUITAINE, Regards sur les Antilles: Collection Marcel Chatillon: Bordeaux, musée d'Aquitaine, 23 septembre 1999 - 16 janvier 2000 [Exhibition Catalogue] (Bordeaux: musée d'Aquitaine), p. 211; Journal général de France, vol. 1, no. 169 (June 18, 1790), pp. 685-6; Mercure de France, vol. 8 (1790), pp. 347-8. Cf. (re: Rossel de Cercy's original 1788 painting:) musée national des châteaux de Versailles et de Trianon (Versailles): MV 7388; INV 7720; C 390.

3.200 EUR



5. Egypt Atlas – Arabic Language Cartography Egyptian National Awakening Education

MINISTRY OF PUBLIC EDUCATION (EGYPT) / MINISTRY OF FINANCE.

اطلس ابتدائى للقطر المصرى [Elementary Atlas of Egypt].

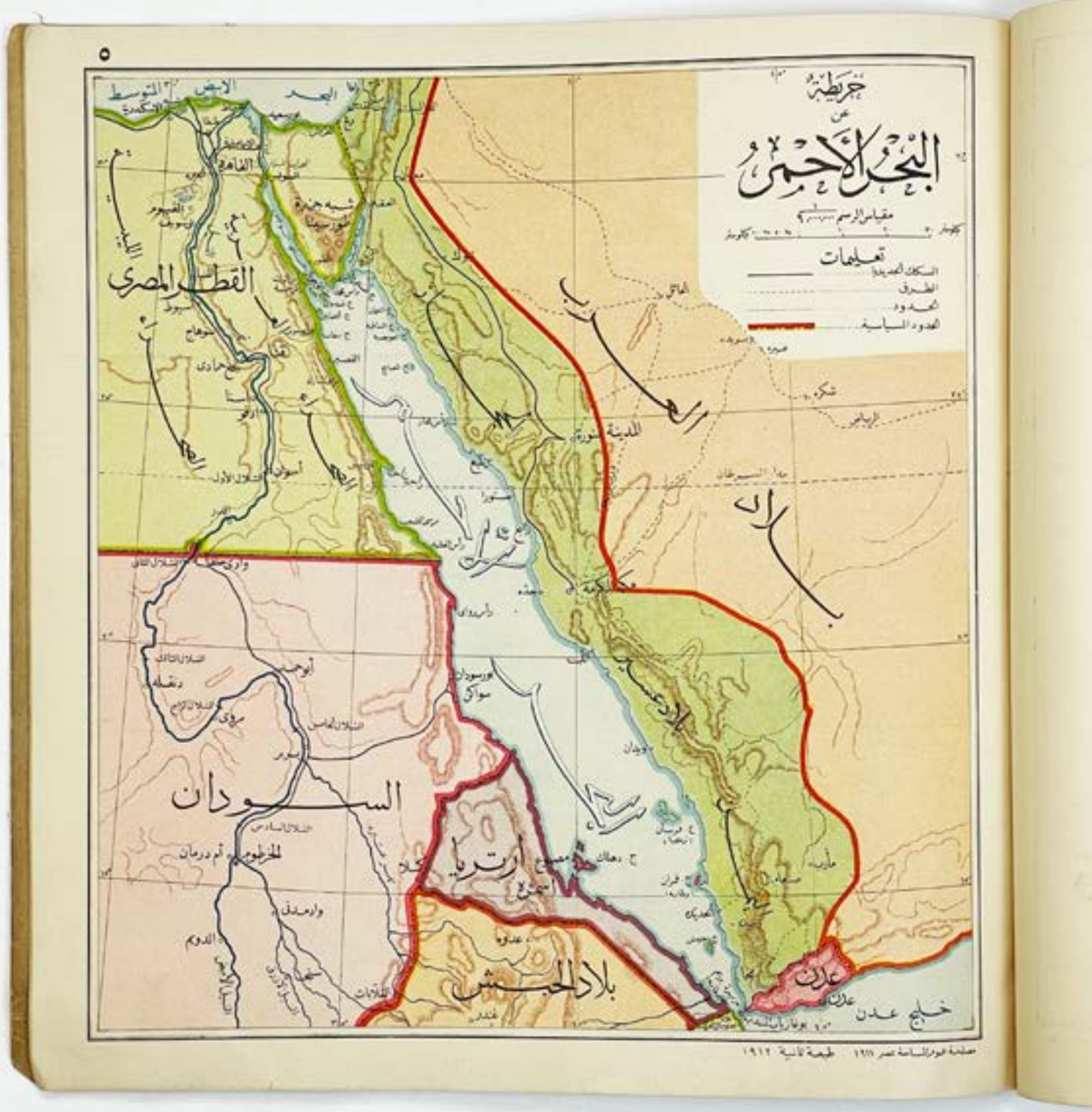
Cairo: General Survey Department, at the expense of the Ministry of Public Education, 1912.

Square 4°. Title page, 12 full page colour lithographed maps, bound in original red card covers with title printed on front cover (Very Good, cover with tiny folds , old bookseller's stamp on the inner side of the front wrapper, margins with hardly noticeable soiling and tiny tears).

A very rare and important Arabic language school atlas of Egypt, commissioned by the country's Education Ministry and Ministry of Finance, emblematic of the country's emerging national awakening whereby Egyptians gradually regained control over their country's economy and institutions from the British quasi-colonial regime; in this vein, such cartographic works in the Arabic language, made for the use of Egyptians, played a key role in the country's ultimately successful quest to reclaim its national identity; the atlas features 12 scientifically accurate maps.

This very rare school atlas of Egypt features text entirely in the Arabic language, and was commissioned by Egyptian officials working in the country's Education Ministry in 1912. This is the second edition, published one year after the first one. It features 12 scientifically accurate colour lithographed maps, including detailed maps of the populated and economically important regions of the country.

The General Survey Department of Egypt was founded by the British in 1898 and soon became one of the most professional and ambitious mapping agencies in the world, making rapid progress towards systematically mapping the entire country in exacting scientific detail to a large scale. The Department was the only operation in Egypt that could create top notch maps in sizable quantities in a cost-effective manner. As Egypt was a British protectorate, the Department was a quasi-colonial entity whose priorities were to serve British military and commercial interests, and not those of the Egyptian people, who were alienated from the exploration of the geography of their own country.



By contrast, the present atlas was expressly made for the use of Egyptian students in their own language. This was of great significance, as the atlas's objective was nothing less than to return the mapping and geographical exploration of Egypt to its people. The atlas was completed in 1912, during the era, which saw the rise of a confident Egyptian nationalism, in which the people sought to gradually take back control of the country's narrative – including its cartography.

The atlas features a title page with a table of contents, followed by 12 full-page, colour lithographed maps. Importantly, the maps are scientifically accurate, reduced from advanced trigonometrical surveys executed by the General Survey Department. The first map features an overview of Egypt within its greater region and map no. 5. Embraces the area of the Red Sea. The remaining 9 maps, executed to a scale 1:1,200,000, are connecting regional maps of the Nile Valley and Delta, along with the Suez Canal. The maps divide the country into muhafazat (governates), which are each distinguished by shading in bright hues and divided by bold red lines. Areas of elevation are defined by careful hachures, while the map labels every city and town of note, along with railways, major roads, and desert caravan routes.

Importantly, one will notice that the atlas's regional maps only cover the populated and economically important parts of Egypt, as it intentionally excludes the virtually deserted bulk of the Sinai, the vast Western Desert regions, and the Red Sea coast. This is consistent with how the country was often represented; the gargantuan Finance Ministry's Atlas of Egypt (2 vols., Cairo: General Survey Department of Egypt, 1914), which featured amazing ultra-large-scale maps, only covered the Nile Valley & Delta and the Suez Canal, as all other areas were not seen to be sufficiently interesting to warrant their own maps (also many these remote desert locales had not yet been surveyed – so there would not be much to show, even if one wanted to!).

The present atlas appears to be a pioneering work of its kind, as we are not aware of any earlier Arabic language educational atlases of Egypt, at least not one with scientifically accurate maps.

A Note on Rarity

The present atlas is very rare. We could not find any institutional examples in Western libraries.

The atlas's rarity is not surprising, as such works made for active use in schools had very low survival rates due to wear and tear. The present example comes down in remarkably stellar condition.

Historical Context: The Long Roads towards Egypt Regaining its National Identity

Egypt has been for 5 millennia one of the great cultural centres of the world and was the nucleus of a succession of great empires. It was also often on the forefront of scientific and geographic discovery, the world's first great geographer, Ptolemy, was from Alexandria. During the early Islamic period, Egypt was a regional superpower and Cairo was one of the world's greatest places of learning.

Following the Ottoman conquest of Egypt in 1517, the country became the wealthiest part of the Ottoman Empire. However, the Mamluk regime that governed Egypt on behalf of Constantinople, concentrated on the agrarian economy and neglected scientific advancement, such that the country fell well behind Europe and Turkey in such fields.

Napoleon Bonaparte's brief but highly consequential invasion and occupation of Egypt (1798-1801) introduced the most advanced European scientific techniques to the country, including the printing press and advanced topographic surveying. The Albanian Ottoman military commander Muhammad Ali Pasha (1769 -1849) took advantage of the power vacuum that developed in the wake of the French withdrawal, taking over the country in 1805. A bold, visionary and hyperactive leader, instead of returning Egypt to it former state and eschewing Western influences, Muhammad adopted the best of European knowledge, spending vast resources to hire foreign advisors and to educate Egyptians in Europe on printing, medicine, manufacturing, etc. He turned Egypt into a de facto independent state (although Egypt remained a de jure part of the Ottoman Empire) and created a military-industrial complex that was the envy of the Islamic world. European leaders and the Ottomans Sultan were weary of crossing him, and he harnessed Western technology to Egypt's advantage, as opposed to it being a tool for foreign interference in the country's affairs.

Muhammad, who reigned for 44-years, died in 1849, and was succeeded by far less competent and vigorous leadership. Beginning in the 1850s, the Western technology that had made Egypt strong and independent now became a Trojan Horse, as Britain and France attempted to take over the country by convincing its leaders to sign unequal business deals. The construction of the Suez Canal (commenced in 1858, completed in 1869), that made Egypt a nexus for global trade, and the railway boom which linked up the country, served only to place the Egyptian government into an untenable debt trap and economic crisis. Britain brutally leveraged this chaos, to compel Egypt to become a British protectorate in 1882, effectively making the country into a colony. Egypt was militarily occupied by Britain, and it was British officials, in addition to French business interests, who took virtually complete control of Egypt's military and economy. The Egyptian Khedive became not much more than a puppet ruler. Apart from Islamic education, scientific and technical bodies in the country became increasingly Europeanized, with the Arabic language reduced to a sideshow, or eliminated altogether.

The British-controlled regime founded the General Survey Department in 1898, a highly advanced mapping organization whose mandate was to map every inch of Egypt to the highest scientific standards, as had been done in many European countries, and by the British in India. The Survey recruited some of the British Empire's

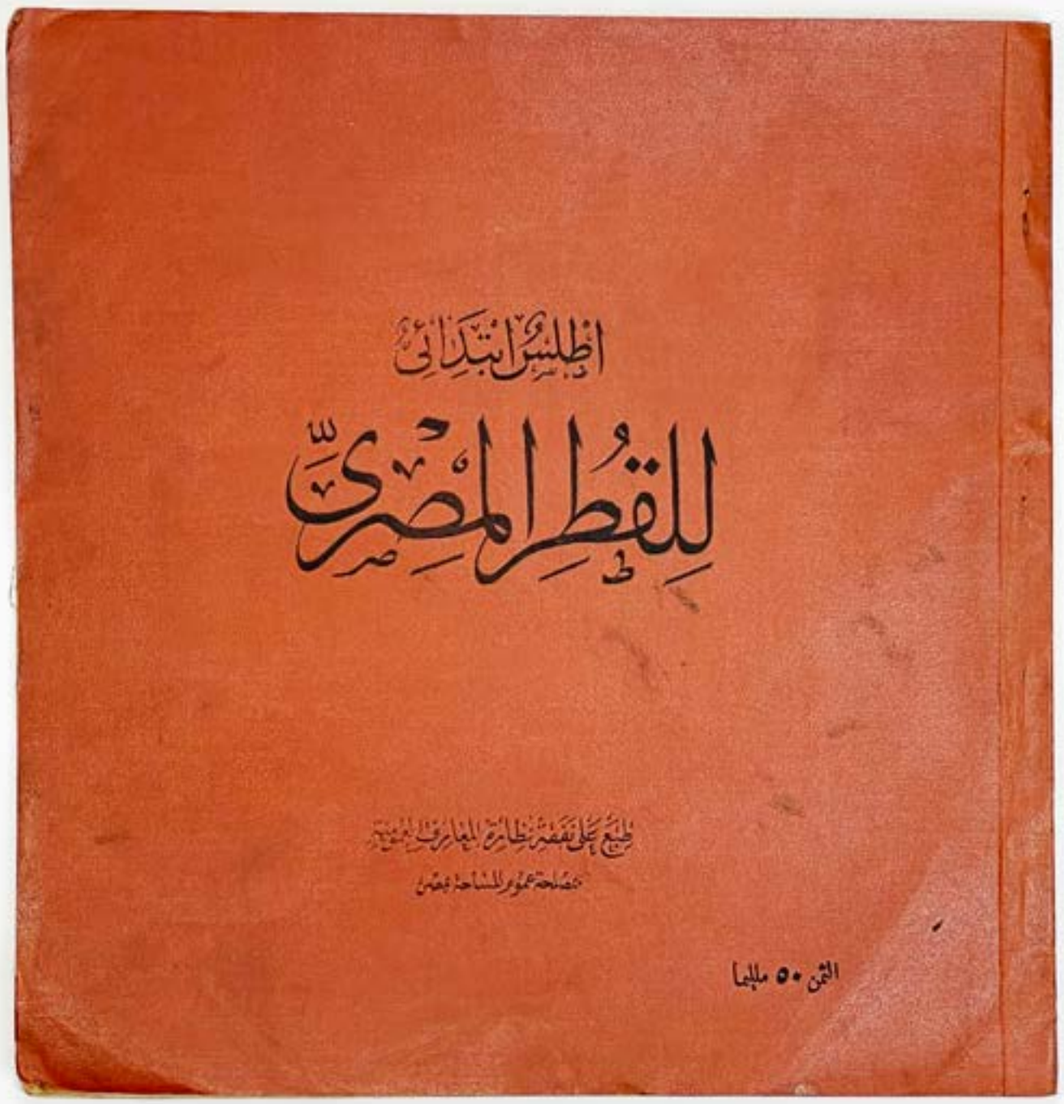
best engineers, surveyors and draftsmen to map the country, while Egyptians occupied supporting roles. Over the next 16 years, they made tremendous progress, mapping the entire Nile Valley and Delta to total exactitude, resulting in the Finance Ministry's aforementioned gargantuan Atlas of Egypt (1914), one of the most impressive national mapping projects ever endeavoured.

While the General Survey Department's mapping projects were hugely impressive, they were executed largely by Europeans to benefit their quasi-colonial regime in Egypt. While some maps were bilingual (English - Arabic), most were only printed in English, such that they could only be used by Europeans or the few Europeanized Egyptians. Ironically, while Egypt became one of the best mapped countries in the world, 99% of Egyptians had no acquaintance with these accomplishments, and were thus disenfranchised from the exploration of the geography of their own country! However, it was not that the Survey Department categorically refused to create works in Arabic for the use of Egyptians, it was simply that it was not a priority.

The alienation of Egyptians from the mapping of their land became more absolute during World War I. The General Survey Department's mandate changed to concentrate 100% on supporting the Entente war effort in the Near and Middle East. Any 'superfluous projects', such as the production of the present atlas, were suddenly mothballed. The Survey Department's vast resources were refocused to make maps of potential battlefronts, not only of places in Egypt, but of subjects abroad, such as Gallipoli. Almost all of these maps were in English (some with French subtitles), made for the use of British and French soldiers, and virtually nothing was made to benefit Egypt's native market.

The situation with cartography mirrored the broader reality, in that Egypt was essentially being 'used' by Britain. It served as its main base for military operations in the Near and Middle East and, as such, it made Egypt a prime target for Ottoman-German attacks. The Central Powers invaded the Sinai and came uncomfortably close to breaching the Suez Canal (which would have left Cairo virtually defenseless), while their spies caused trouble by riling up tribal communities in the Western Desert. Average Egyptians suffered from wartime rationing, curfews and other deprivations, even though they did not consider the conflict to be their war. Egyptians increasingly came to resent the British presence in their country as it cost them much but delivered little in return.

The immediate postwar period saw the rise of a new confidant type of Egyptian, and pan-Arab, nationalism. While such a movement had been developing since the 1870s, the wartime experiences ensured that is spread dramatically, from being the province of elite circles in Cairo and Alexandria, to gaining widespread support amongst the common people, both in the major cities and in the provinces. As the weak and callow Egyptian Sultan and his court seemed only to follow Britain instructions, the initiative to enact change was often left to Egyptian business leaders, journalists and lower ranking officials.



The key to Egypt regaining it independence was not just to ensure the people had a greater say over their own government, but it was also crucial that Egyptians gradually take back control of the country businesses / monopolies, secular education institutions, and technical matters, such as cartography.

During the postwar period, the General Survey Department, formally renamed the 'Survey of Egypt', was increasingly commissioned by Egyptian bureaucrats and community stakeholders to produce more maps in the Arabic language for the use of Egyptians (as exemplified by the present atlas). Importantly, the Survey remained the only institution in Egypt capable of producing high quality cartography in decent volumes, in an affordable manner. Cash strapped and with a lighter workload, the British-controlled Survey was only too happy to oblige. While it still prioritized the creation of maps for British civilian and military uses, increasingly more Arabic maps were published for secular educational purposes and for the use of Egyptian businessmen and community leaders. Slowly but surely, Egyptians took a larger share in the creation and use of the mapping of their own country. This was quite significant, as the being able to view maps of one's own land in your own language was integral to realizing one's national identity in the modern era.

During World War II, Egypt and the Survey reverted to their behaviour during the last global conflict. Erwin Rommel's Afrikakorps came surprisingly close to taking Alexandria, while the civilian population endured similar wartime deprivations. The Survey focused all of its energies on producing maps for the Allied war effort, and Arabic language cartography was placed, once again, on the backburner.

After World War II, it became clear to everyone (except the British) that the quasi-colonial overlords had overstayed their welcome. As colonies all around the world were gaining their independence, Egypt, being a large, proud land with unparalleled historical stature, also demanded its freedom. However, the Anglo-French desire to retain control over the Suez Canal caused Britain to stubbornly maintain its presence in Egypt even though its regime had lost virtually all public support.

During the Egyptian Revolution of 1952, nationalist military officers, eventually led by the ultra-charismatic nationalist Gamal Abdel Nasser, overthrew the pro-British monarchy. Britain was famously caught flat-footed when Nasser forcibly nationalized the Suez Canal in 1956, evicting the British forces from the country. Egypt had regained both its de facto and de jure independence for the first time in centuries.

Under Nasser, the Survey of Egypt continued its stellar work, but under Egyptian leadership. The main language of its publications was changed to Arabic, and mapping of the country was henceforth produced by Egyptians for Egyptians.

2.800 EUR



6. China (Northern) – Geological Map
Advanced Cartography By Asian Scientists

TOKYO GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY. / 東京地學協會 [TŌKYŌ CHIGAKU KYŌKAI].

Geological Map of Northern China. / 北支那地質圖.

Tokyo: Tokyo Geographical Society, Taishō 12 / 1923.

Colour lithograph, dissected into 36 sections and mounted upon original linen, contemporary pastedown label with manuscript title to verso (Good, lovely, vivid colour printing, some spotting throughout, some marginal creasing and some tiny holes, reinforcements to linen backing along 1 panel in lower-left corner), 78.5 x 110 cm (31 x 43.5 inches).

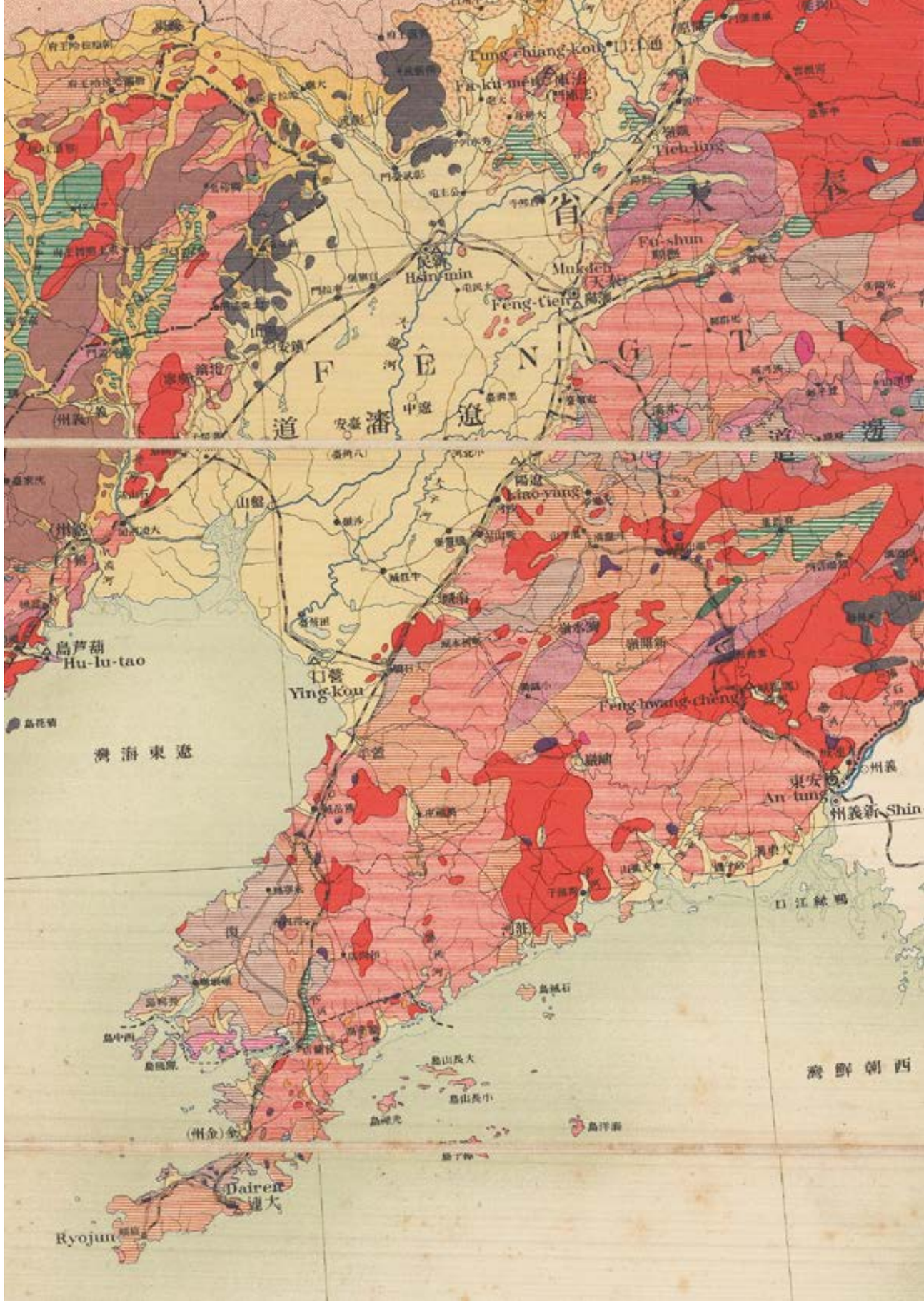
Extremely rare and highly important – the most accurate and influential geological map of Northern China of its era, largely predicated upon the discoveries of scientific expeditions conducted by Japanese geologists resulting in vast improvements upon Ferdinand von Richthofen's famous work, one of the great monuments of advanced scientific geological mapping conducted by Asian (as opposed to Western) scientists, and one of the seminal productions of the Tokyo Geographical Society, the first modern Asian-led earth sciences institute.

This technically impressive and resplendently colourful work is the most accurate geological map of Northern China of its era. It was made by the Tokyo Geographical Society, the oldest Asian-led modern earth sciences institute, and is largely predicated upon recent scientific expeditions throughout the region conducted by expert teams of Japanese geologists.

Importantly, it is a major landmark in the rapid rise of the competencies of Asian geologists and geographers, who in barely two generations went from severely lagging European accomplishments to now producing world-class scientific maps that in some respects even exceeded the qualities of comparable Western works.

The present map marked a great improvement over Ferdinand von Richthofen's famous pioneering geological surveys of Northern China made in the 1870s, and it served as the basis map for all subsequent geological mapping of the region for many years.

The map embraces a large area, roughly centred upon 'Pe-king' (Beijing), and extends to the northeast just past Ch'ang-chun (Changchun), in south-central Manchuria; to 'Kiang-su' (Kiangsu Province), in the southeast; 'His-an' (Xian) in the southwest; and Mongolia, in the northwest.

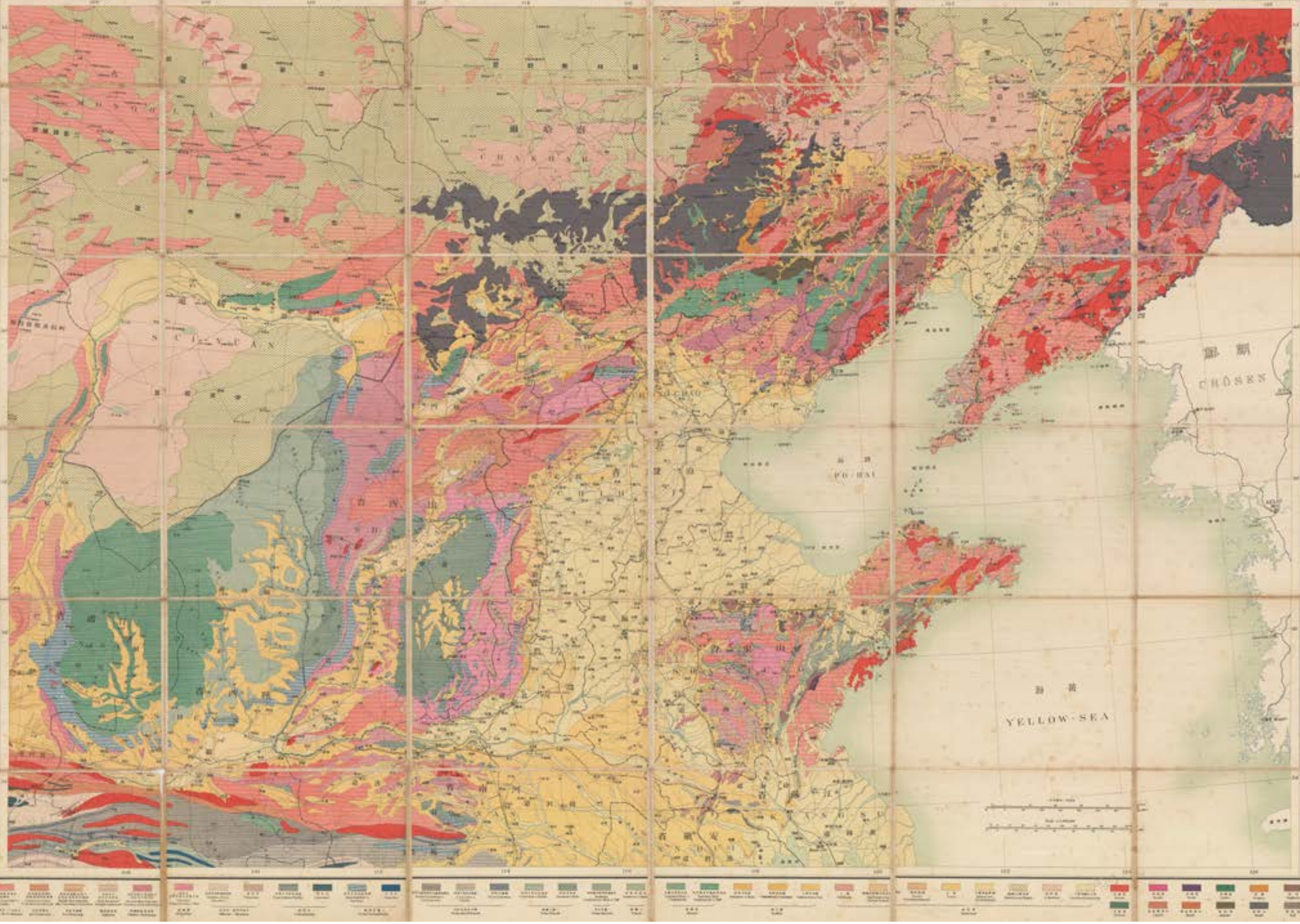


北支那地質圖

Geological Map of Northern China

TOKYO GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY

東京地學協會



Importantly, the map embraces the contemporary Japanese conception of Northern China, which only extends ad far north as Changchun, as that was to upper limit of Japan's realm of economic-politicl influence, with Northern Manchuria being a Russian-international zone. As such, the geological surveying China's northernmost extremity was then of limited interest (that would change in 1931 when Japan gained de facto control over all Manchuria).

The map is mainly bilingual (Japanese-English), with the names of key cities and towns, as well as major bodies of water, provided in English; this was to make the map accessible to an international audience. Built upon a highly accurate topographic template, the map depicts coastlines, rivers, cities and towns (of various sizes), railways and major roads. The map is resplendently colour-coded to identify 44 geological zones, which are explained in the legend in the lower margin, where they are grouped into various classifications (ex. Cambrian, Jurassic), with this information given with unprecedented precision and accuracy.

The map is one of the greatest productions of the Tokyo Geographical Society (東京地學協會 / Tōkyō Chigaku Kyōkai) which, founded in 1879, was the first Asian-run advanced institute for the study and promotion of the earth sciences. It spearheaded the stunning revolution in the geography and geology that occurred during the Meiji Era in Japan (1868-1912) and continued in the decades that followed. This revolution came together with the country's rapid industrialization and modernization, which represented the most rapid and profound socio-economic transformation of any society in world history.

At the beginning of the Meiji Era, Japan possessed an embryonic understanding of scientific geography and geology, at least by European standards. However, by the end of the period, Japanese scientists (many of whom were educated in Europe) amazingly not only managed to catch up to European standards of scientific cartography and analysis, but in some areas (such as in volcanology) managed to exceed them!

The Tokyo Geographical Society was founded after the scholar-diplomats Hiromoto Watanabe (1848-1901) and Takeaki Enomoto (1836-1908) returned from a tour of Europe where they saw how the study and promotion of geosciences produced enormous social and economic benefits to society. Modelled upon London's Royal Geographical Society, and under the prestigious patronage of Prince Yoshihisa Kitashirakawa (1847-1895), the Tokyo Geographical Society was founded in 1879.

The Tokyo Geographical Society was from its inception extremely well financed and organized and it engaged Japan's best minds, sponsoring numerous scientific expeditions to places across Asia, yielding revolutionary discoveries.

By the 1890s, the hyper-industrialized and militarized Japanese state began to realize imperialist ambitions and during the Sino-Japanese War (1894-5) they defeated the ailing Qing Empire, conquered Korea (an autonomous tributary state of China) and Taiwan. During the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5), Japan shocked the world by being the first Asian country to defeat a major European power in a modern full-scale conflict. Japan gained direct control over southern Manchuria's Liaodong Peninsula, taking over 'Ryojun' (Port Arthur, today the Lüshunkou District of Dalian), and Darien' (Dalian) from Russia. Japan was also given economic control over the rest of southern Manchuria, with Changchun being developed into an 'ideal planned city'. Changchun and Port Arthur were connected by the Southern Manchuria Railway, which was the lifeline by which Japan could exploit the region's vast mineral and agrarian resources (desperately needed to fuel Japan's industrial economy).

During World War I, Japan sided the Allies which, in 1914, gave it the opportunity to seize the great port of 'Ch'ing-tao' (Tsingtau / Qingdao), in Shandong Province, from Germany. Thus, by this time Japan not only directly controlled important parts of Northern China, but also had sovereign concessions in various Chinese cities (ex. Beijing, Tianjin), as well as enormous investments in various sectors of the Chinese economy.

Therefore, a priority for the Tokyo Geographical Society was to create accurate geological maps of China that could be used to exploit the country's mineral resources. In the years just before and after World War I, the Society sponsored several grand geological expeditions to China, painstakingly surveying the country, with special emphasis upon regions (such as southern Manchuria) that were known to be rich in minerals.

While also considering maps made by various Western geologists, the Tokyo Geographical Society fashioned the Geological Map of Southern China [東京地學協會] (Taishō 9 [1920]), the sister map to the present work. This was followed by the more important (at least as far as Japanese interests were concerned) present map. Importantly, these two maps, while presumably complementary, were entirely separate publications and were seldom found together.

The Geological Map of Northern China represented a great leap forward from the hitherto authoritative geological mapping of Northern China, being the maps made by the German geographer-explorer Baron Ferdinand von Richthofen (1833 - 1905), who conducted the first comprehensive scientific geological surveys of Northern China in the 1870s. The resulting maps were published in Richthofen's Atlas von China. Ortographische und geologische Karten. Erste Abtheilung: Das nördliche China (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer, 1885).
Please see a link to this work, courtesy of the David Rumsey Map Collection:
https://www.davidrumsey.com/luna/servlet/detail/RUMSEY~8~1~313236~90082394:-Composite-map--Geologic-maps-maps

A comparison of Richthofen's work with the present map reveals the latter to be far more precise, comprehensive and accurate, which is not to detract from Richthofen's amazing accomplishments, made under much more challenging circumstances.

The present map was employed to great effect as Japanese interests in Southern Manchuria, aided by the South Manchurian Railway, were able to extract an enormous amount or rescores from the region. For instance, in the fiscal year after the present map appeared (being 1924-5), Japan took in 13,339,973 metric tons of coal and 418,863 metric tons of iron ore from Sothern Manchuria.

Importantly, the present work served as the base map for the geological cartography of Northern China for many years. Notably, it was the template used to construct the General Geological Map of South Manchuria within Hanzō Murakami's seminal work, The Geology & Mineral Resources of South Manchuria (Dairen: Geological Institute, South Manchuria Railway Company, 1926).

The Kōgen-Kōshi's (Association for Mineralogical and Geological Research, a division of the Tokyo Geographical Society), Geological Atlas of East Asia (1929), a highly important work which contained 17 maps of the Eastern Asia on the same scale (1:2,000,000) as the present work, largely duplicated its mapping from the Geological Map of Northern China for the relevant regions. The 'Forward' of the atlas states that for its deception of China proper "…as a base for the new work, the maps published in 1920 [Geological Map of Southern China] and 1923 [the present work] by the Tokyo Geographical Society (1/2,000,000) were utilized". Please see a link to the Geological Atlas of East Asia (1929), courtesy of the David Rumsey Map Collection:

https://www.davidrumsey.com/luna/servlet/view/search?q==%22Geological%20Atlas%20of%20Eastern%20Asia.%22

Japan's interests in China were greatly heightened when, in 1931, it took over de facto control of all Manchuria, forming it into the puppet Empire of Manchukuo. Japan greatly accelerated its exploitation of the region's natural resources. During the Sino-Japanese War (1937-45), which dovetailed into World War II, Japan conquered much of China, but its cruel occupation of the country was not to last, as Japan was defeated in 1945, so losing all its external possessions. The Chinese Communist regime took over the country in 1949, under which the present work retained its influence for some years.

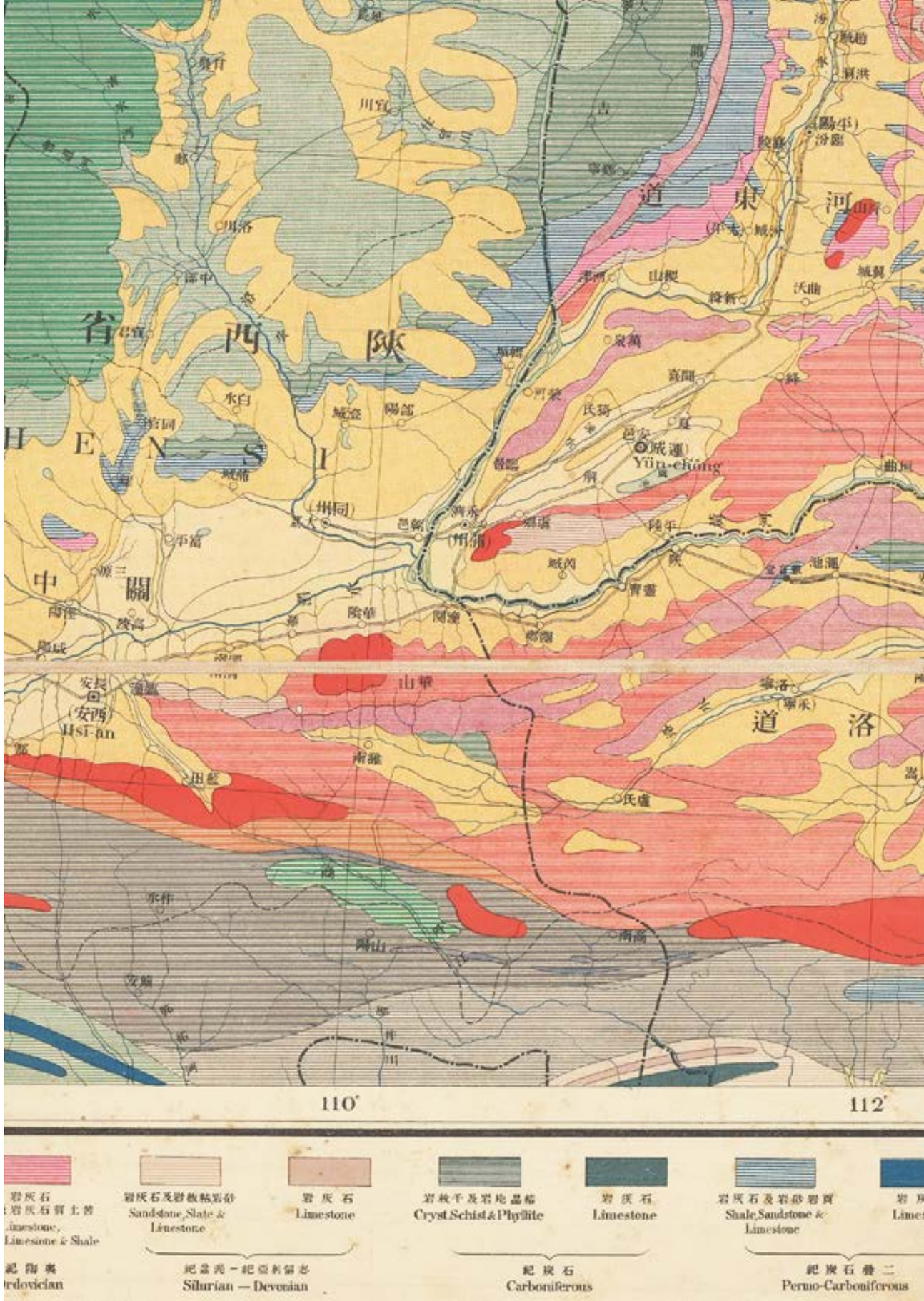
A Note on Rarity

The present map is extremely rare. It seems that it was only issued in a small print run for high level academic, commercial and administrative use.

We can trace only 3 institutional examples, held by the National Diet Library; University of Melbourne Library; and the Royal Geographical Society (London). We are not aware of any other examples of the map as appearing on the market, at least in the last 25 years.

References: National Diet Library: YG913-2626; University of Melbourne Library: 440 a/caq 1923; Royal Geographical Society: MR CHINA G.19; OCLC: 673214943, 271658700; Japanese Journal of Geology and Geography, vols. 1-20 (1924), p. 65; ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY, Recent Geographical Literature, Maps, and Photographs Added to the Society's Collection, Issues 13-24 (1923), p. 88.

2.500 EUR



7. Panama Canal
Ferdinand De Lesseps's 'Dry Run'
Global Financial Scandals

COMPAGNIE UNIVERSELLE DU CANAL INTEROCÉANIQUE DE PANAMA.

Plan Général du Canal (Juillet 1886) / Compagnie universelle du canal interocéanique de Panama.

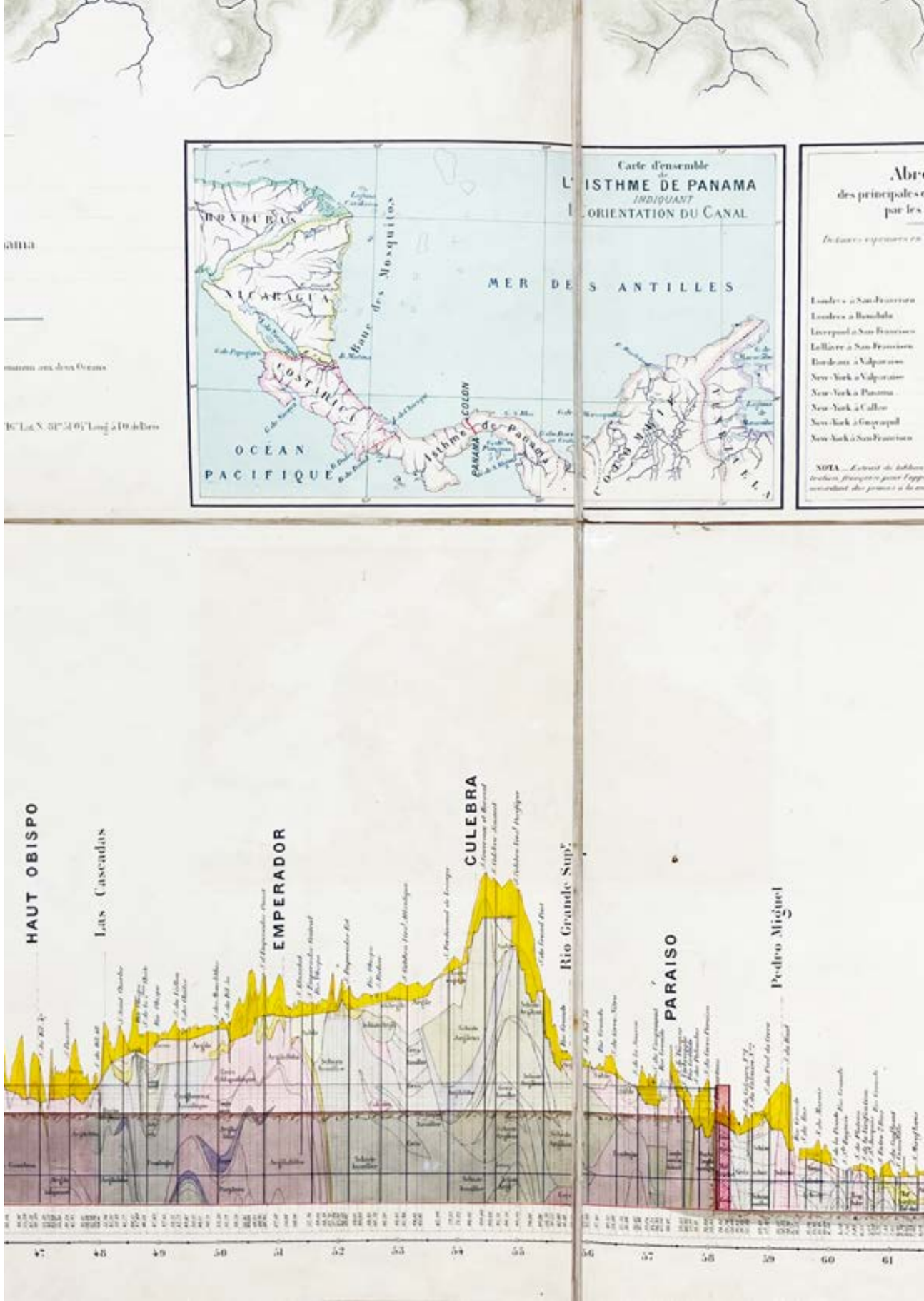
Paris: Erhard frères, 1886.

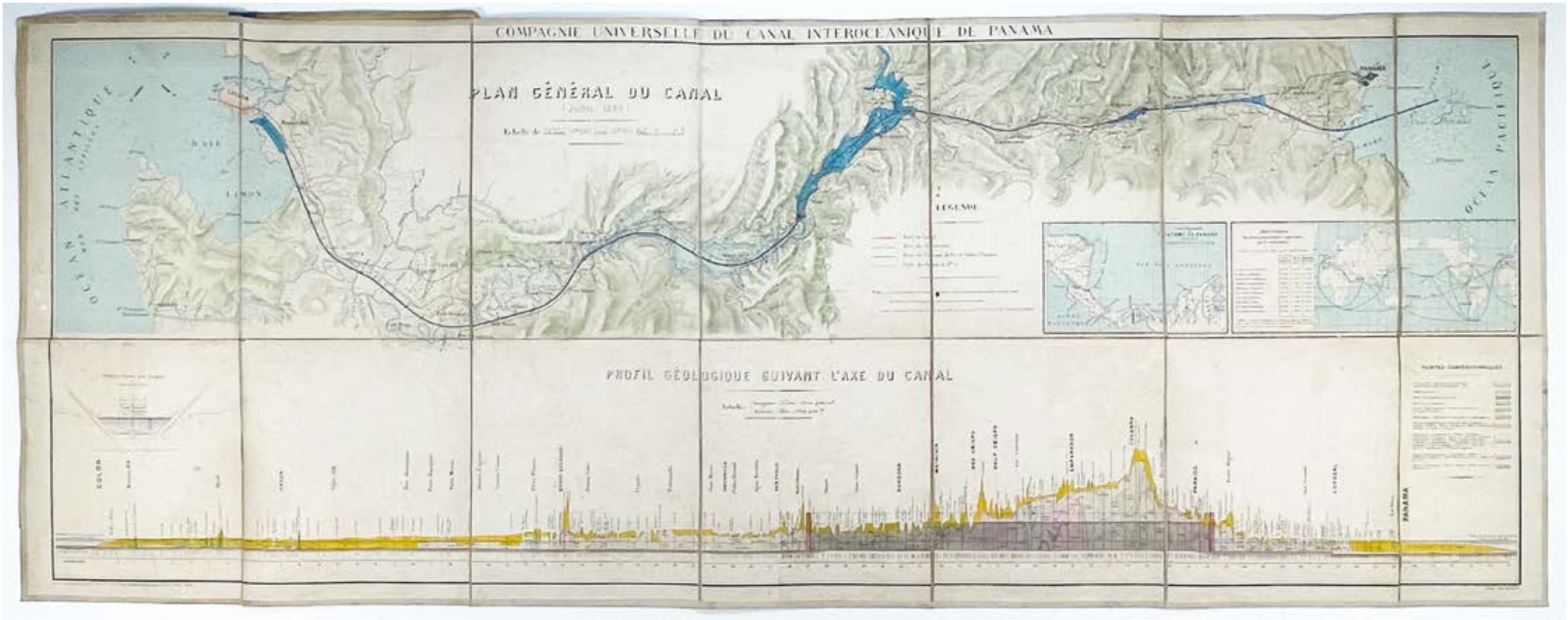
Colour lithograph, dissected into 14 sections and mounted upon original linen, folding into original printed card covers (Very Good, overall clean and bright with lovely colours, just some light toning from print transference), 60 x 158 cm (23.5 x 62 inches).

Very Rare - a colossal (over 1.5 metres wide!) and exquisitely detailed map of the first serious attempt to construct the Panama Canal, overseen in the 1880s by Ferdinand de Lesseps, the builder of the Suez Canal; by far and away the finest published rendering of the project, it traces the route of the intended channel across the rugged topography of the Panamanian Isthmus, while below is an incredibly sophisticated and colourful geological profile of the same; the map was a grand and expensive PR piece intended exclusively for the Canal's prime investors and senior official stakeholders; however, Lesseps's scheme soon ran into severe technical and financial problems, devolving into a giant Ponzi Scheme, one of the modern world's greatest financial scandals, ending in the collapse of the project; the Panama Canal was subsequently completed by American interests employing a different design.

The concept of creating a sailing passage between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, traversing the Panamanian Isthmus, had been a dream ever since it was first proposed by Emperor Charles V in 1534. However, it was not until the mid-19th century that such a feat was considered to be technically feasible. By that time, the word's great powers were well aware that whomever built and controlled such a passage would be conferred immense political power and commercial advantage.

In the 1870s, French interests were the first to sponsor what was the earliest serious attempt to build an interoceanic canal across Panama. This initiative was spearheaded by Ferdinand de Lesseps (1805-94), the French diplomat and business magnate who was by this time a global celebrity, having successfully built the Suez Canal (opened in 1869). Lesseps created a consortium of world-leading geographers, engineers and investors to facilitate the project. Between 1876 and 1879, a 'Scientific Commission




COMPAGNIE UNIVERSELLE DU CANAL INTEROCEANIQUE DE PANAMA
PLAN GÉNÉRAL DU CANAL
OCEAN ATLANTIQUE
OCEAN PACIFIQUE
BAIE
COLON
PANAMA
LEGENDE
PROFIL GÉOLOGIQUE SUIVANT L'AXE DU CANAL
COLON
PANAMA

for the Exploration of the Isthmus', led by Lucien Napoléon Bonaparte-Wyse, a military engineer and member of the former imperial family, conducted two expeditions to Panama to survey the canal route and make a feasibility study. The Commission's engineering specifications for the canal proved to be way too optimistic and even unscientific – they were later revealed to be fraudulent (to attract, as opposed to spook potential investors!). Thus, the project proceeded while relying upon dangerously inaccurate assertions.

In 1879, Lesseps convened in Paris a conference of 136 experts from the world over, even as far away as China, to decided upon the specific nature and design of the canal. Lesseps originally envisaged an all-sea-level canal (like the Suez Canal) but was eventually convinced to construct locks, allowing the channel to rise through the mountains of central Panama.

In 1880, Lesseps incorporated the Compagnie Universelle du Canal Interocéanique, which obtained a concession from the Colombian government (Panama was then a province of that country) to assume control over the strip of land on either side of the canal route and a license to solely operate the canal once it was completed. The following year, it assumed a controlling stake in the existing Panama Canal Railway (in operation since 1855), which crossed the isthmus.

Lesseps promised investors that the canal would cost no more than 600 million Francs, and he and has associates successfully suppressed any doubts or bad news about the project. Indeed, the world-famous engineer, Gustav Eiffel personally reviewed the plans for the canal at Lesseps's request, and while he concluded that the design was a disaster, his objections never saw the light of day. In fact, Lesseps and his acolyte Baron de Reinach presided over an unbelievably sophisticated and far-reaching bribery programme, whereby journalists were 'incentivized' to write pen utopian stories about the canal project, while politicians in both France and Colombia were 'rewarded' for giving it their unqualified support. It also helped that Lesseps was such a famous and revered figure that nobody ever dared to publicly challenge him.

Beginning in 1882, the Compagnie Universelle issued a series of seven bond issues, which were all eagerly snapped up, not only by France's wealthiest and most esteemed businessmen, noblemen and politicians, but also many middle-class people eager to cash in on the next miracle by the man who built the Suez Canal. Over the next six years, as many as 800,000 people invested in the project, many committing their life savings.

Construction of the canal commenced in 1883, employing the most advanced and expensive equipment, including massive digging machines imported from Michigan. However, almost immediately the project was gripped by tragedy. The canal workers started dying, often dozens a day, from yellow fever and malaria, while the construction works suffered severe technical difficulties, especially in the mountainous middle of the isthmus. Despite their best efforts, the project's engineers were not able to prevent landslides from filling in their excessively narrow channels. Lesseps and his people came to the stark realization that the methods used to traverse the flat, dry, sandy Suez Isthmus were in no way transferable to the mountainous, flood-prone and disease-ridden jungles of Panama, a fact obscured by Bonaparte-Wyse's 'whitewashed' feasibility study.

By the time that the present map appeared, the canal project was in total crisis. Its labour force had been utterly decimated by tropical disease, while construction progress was nearly ground to a halt by technical difficulties. Lesseps had long run out of operating capital, and was essentially running giant fraud, or Ponzi Scheme, using the money from new investors to pay out dividends to the early stakeholders (Robbing Pierre to pay Jean-Paul!). There was now no chance of rescuing the project or refunding the investors' capital. By late 1888, "les jeux sont faits", as rumours swept through Paris, revealing that Lesseps's scheme was a bust; an attempt to float a new bond issue in December of that year met with no takers!

In 1889, the Compagnie Universelle went bankrupt and all work on the canal was suspended. It was soon releveled that over 22,000 canal workers died, U.S. $287 million had been lost (then an astounding sum equivalent to billions today!) and many thousands of investors had lost a good percentage of their wealth, if not everything! It was a shocking scandal and the once lionized Lesseps, and his son, were charged by the French authorities with fraud.

While the octogenarian Lesseps managed to avoid prison (he died in 1894 at the age of 88), the scandal extinguished French, and more broadly, any serious European interest in building the canal, despite some half-hearted attempts by some investors to revive the plan. Moreover, in the mid-1890s, the rival on-and-off concept of building an interoceanic canal across Nicaragua was enjoying a (temporary and final) burst of support, so limiting the attractiveness of any Panamanian scheme – at least for the time being.

The Present Map in Focus

This gargantuan plan showcases the Compagnie Universelle du Canal Interocéanique's audacious plan to carve a canal across the Panamanian Isthmus. While, as discussed, the engineering specifications of the design were far too optimistic, the topographical and geological mapping executed for the project, as featured here, was impressively accurate.

This stellar map was primarily made to serve as a PR piece to be gifted to the Compagnie's leading stakeholders and its awesome format and fine presentation, with its meticulous, scientific portrayal of the canal's proposed route, would have served to reassure investors just as Lesseps and his associates were nearing the limitations of their Ponzi Scheme.

The main map, which takes up the upper horizontal half of the composition, showcases the topography cutting across the Panamanian Isthmus, from the port of Colón (on the Caribbean / Atlantic side) through to Panama City (on the Pacific), while the intended route of the canal is showcased in between. The canal proper is shown as a bold double-red line, snaking across the country, following the path of least resistance, from Colón up the Río Chagres and the Río Obispo valleys until making the difficult crossing of the Culebra Mountain and its foothills, before descending the Río Grande valley to the harbour of Panama City. The total route is marked by distance readings per km, with the total route being 75 km, including the shipping channel in the seas on other side.

The canal's 10 intended locks ('Ecluses') which lay between Peña Blanca and Miraflores, would raise the route up to a maximum altitude of 50 metres above sea level at the 'Culebra Cut', where the canal workers managed to remove 14,256,000 cubic metres of soil and rock, lowering the summit of the hill from 64 to 59 meters above sea level, yet forming a channel with a width that proved too narrow to be viable.

The single orange lines that often run near the route of the canal are 'dérivations', or spillway channels, that helped to mitigate flooding and control the water levels in the canal (the area suffered from severe seasonal inundations). The black line that runs near the canal is the route of the Panama Canal Railway.

To the right for the main map are two insets, the 'Carte d'ensemble l'isthme de Panama indiquant l'orientation du canal', which shows the canal's location within a map of Central America; while the 'Abréviation des principales distances à parcourir par les navigàteurs', is a map of the world, showing the new shipping routes that the canal would facilitate, so revolutionizing global transportation.

Perhaps the highlight of the work, that distinguishes it from all the Panama Canals maps we have seen, is the 'Profil géologique suivant l'axe du canal', that takes up the lower horizontal half of the composition. This geological profile follows the axis of the canal and is a highly sophisticated mosaic of 10 different strata, distinguished by attractive colours, creating an extraordinarily visual effect, with the canal, with its locks, shown to rise and descend over the mountains. The cross-section shows that the canal project was divided onto '5 Divisions', while the responsibilities for different sections of the work are delegated to various named construction contractors (ex. the 'Enterprise Jacob et Américain contracting and Dredging company' and the 'Enterprise Andrige et Sondregger et Cie.').

The map was brilliantly colour lithographed by the Paris firm of Erhard frères, France's leading map house specializing in colonial / overseas productions.

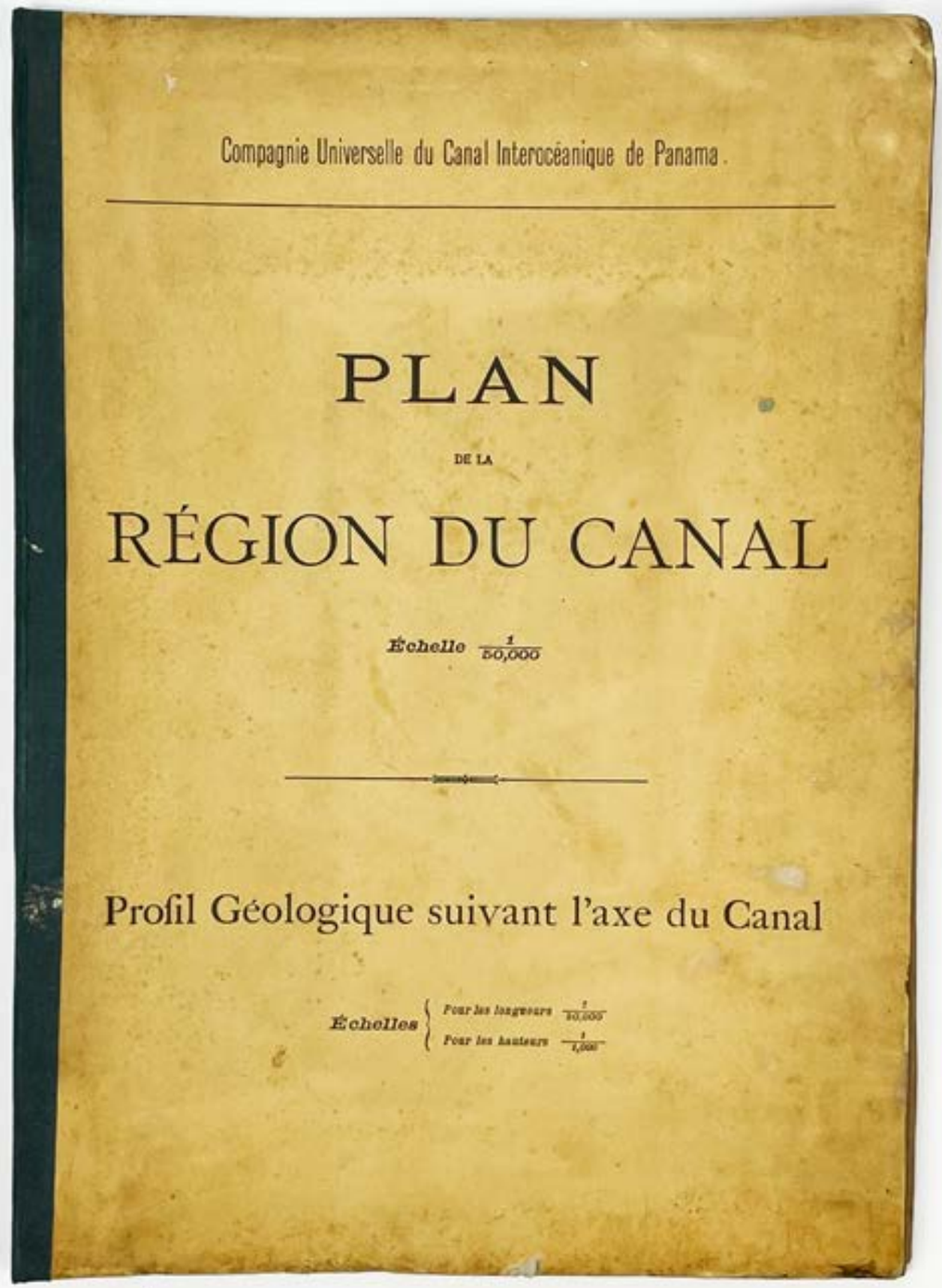
A Note on Rarity

The present map is very rare. A highly expensive work, it would have been issued in only a small print run, almost exclusively to serve as gifts to leading Compagnie Universelle investors and political stakeholders. It does not seem that the map was ever offered for public sale or distribution; it was a private 'in house' production.

We can trace only 3 institutional examples of the map, held by the Bibliothèque nationale de France; Bibliothèque interuniversitaire de la Sorbonne; and the University of Cambridge Library. Moreover, we can only trace a single sales record for another example, being a listing in a 2016 dealer's catalogue.

Epilogue: The Americans Successfully Build the Panama Canal

The United States, as the great power in the Americas, was naturally interested in building and controlling any interoceanic canal in Central America. After seriously flirting with,



but then definitively discarding the concept of backing a trans-Nicaragua canal, the Americans moved to aggressively to full the vacuum in Panama, buying out the French rights and seeking to gain the backing of the Colombian government. On January 22, 1903, the Hay–Herrán Treaty was signed which gave Bogota's consent for the U.S. to build the canal and to control it for a period of 99 years.

However, when Colombia seemed to have second thoughts, U.S. President Theodore Roosevelt concocted and supported a fake 'independence rebellion' in Panama that allowed the region to separate form Colombia, so becoming an American puppet state. The new government of the Republic of Panama immediately approved any and all U.S. demands.

The Americans began constructing the canal in the spring of 1904, with the engineer John Finley Wallace appointed to lead the project. The endeavor was soon rocked, in 1905, by technical problems, disease and Wallace's firing by President Roosevelt. However, it gained a strong footing when the famous railway engineer, John Frank Stevens, assumed leadership. Under his watch, a new scheme for the construction plan was developed that envisaged a raised canal with sets of locks carrying ships up to a height of 26 metres (85 feet) above sea level, before another set brought them back down to the sea on the other side. It is worth noting that Lesseps's Panama project was not entirely in vain, as the some of the abandoned French diggings and works, such as the 'Culebra Cut', proved immensely beneficial to the American endeavours.

While immensely challenging, this plan was followed, and under Steven's successor, George Washington Goethals, the project was brought to completion in the summer of 1914. At a cost of U.S. $375 million (equivalent to $ 9 billion today), it was by far the largest engineering project in the history of the Americas to date.

The first ship, the SS Ancon, passed though the canal, from sea to sea, on August 15, 1914. During the first year of the canal's operation, 1,000 ships made this voyage, revolutionizing global shipping.

The United States retained control of the canal, formally run by the run by the Isthmian Canal Commission, and retained sovereign control of a strip of land running along either side of the channel called the Canal Zone. Control of the canal and the Zone was handed to the Panamanian government in 1979. Today, the canal has retained its vital role in global transport, and since completing renovations in 2016 is able to accommodate the passage of mega-ships (so-called 'New PANAMAX' class vessels).

References: Bibliothèque nationale de France: GE C-3124 (1-2); Bibliothèque interuniversitaire de la Sorbonne: 39.G.4; University of Cambridge Library: Maps.c.680(7).88.1; OCLC: 84968195.

3.200 EUR

8. Early Armenian World Atlas ‘Armenian National Awakening’

Աստուածատուր Վ. Աւագեան [Astvatsatur V. AVAKIAN].

Ատլաս կամ աշխարհացոյց տախտակք Ի պէտս ազգային դպրոցաց / Յօրինեաց եւ ծրագրեաց Հ. Աստուածատուր Վ. Աւագեան ի Մխիթարեան Ուխտէն.

[Atlas or World Map for the National Schools / Devised and Created by Astvatsatur V. Avakian of the Mekhitarist Monastery].

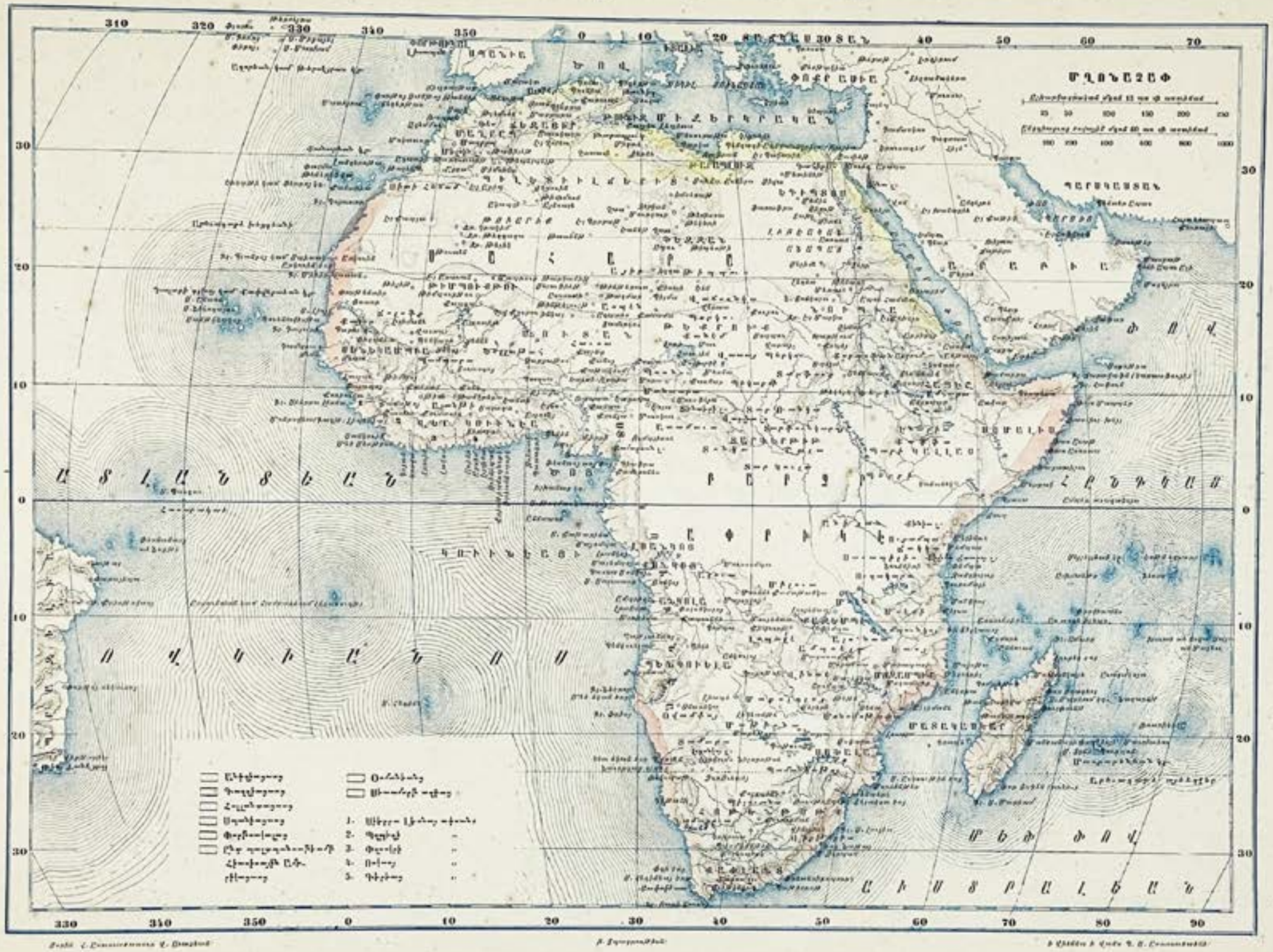
Vienna: Pashtpan S. Astvacacni and B. Tpagrovatian for the Mekhitarist Monastery, 1860.

Oblong Folio: half title and title, 21 maps lithographed in blue with added black letter punch text and original outline hand colour, original turquoise wrappers with lettering (Very Good, internally crisp, half title and title with very light spotting, wrappers with tiny folds and tears in corners).

Extremely rare – one of the great milestones of Armenian language cartography, being the first Armenian school atlas and the second ever Armenian world atlas, created by Astvatsatur Avakian, a monk at the Mekhitarist Monastery in Vienna, a beautifully produced work of 21 maps, importantly including one of the earliest maps to depict a proposed future independent state of ‘Armenia’ cleaved out of the Ottoman Empire, a politically incendiary notion and powerful rhetorical device of the ‘Armenian National Awakening’; the maps printed by an extraordinary technique clearly inspired by the Vienna cartographer Franz Raffelsperger.

This is an important milestone in the history of Armenian language cartography, being the first Armenian school atlas and the second ever Armenian world atlas. It was created by Astvatsatur V. Avakian, a monk at the Mekhitarist Monastery in Vienna, one of the world’s most important Armenian Catholic missions, and was printed by the monastery’s press. It is the most comprehensive Armenian atlas made prior to the 20th Century, featuring 21 beautifully rendered maps, including maps of the continents (Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, South America and Australia/Oceania); individual European countries and regions; and, reflecting the particular interests of the Armenian people, a map of ‘Armenia’; two maps of the Ottoman Empire (in Europe and Asia); Persia; and India and Mainland Southeast Asia (curiously it does not, and never did include a World map). Several of these maps are the earliest, or amongst the earliest, Armenian language maps of the subjects depicted. The maps are rendered of an artistic style and made by an extraordinary printing technique that shows the strong influence, if not the direct involvement, of the brilliantly original Vienna cartographer Franz Raffelsperger.

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Special attention should be given the 'Armenia' map, which shows a proposed future independent Armenian state carved out of the territories of the Ottoman Empire and Persia. The 'country' is clearly labelled, with well-defined boundaries outlined in pink watercolour, taking in the heartland of the former Armenian states of ancient times. This politically incendiary map is a powerful manifestation of the 'Armenian National Awakening', the movement which arose in the mid-19th century that sought self-determination for the Armenian people. Importantly, the map is one of the earliest cartographic works to depict the revival of an independent Armenian state in modern times.

The Mekhitarist Order of Vienna was an organization of the Armenian Catholic Church, that in the 1770s split off from the eponymous order based in Venice. Its mandate was education, and the well-funded order spent vast resources writing, drafting and translating religious, literary and scientific texts for the intellectual betterment of Armenian children and adults, both in Ottoman Empire and throughout the large Armenian global diaspora. The monastery assembled one of the finest Armenian libraries in the world, and since 1812 operated a printing press in Vienna to issue its own works (including the present atlas). The breadth and quality of the press's production was stellar and the books played a major role in the development and preservation of Armenian culture worldwide, as the transfer of Western European knowledge to the Armenian people.

The present atlas was one of the most technically sophisticated works ever published by the Mekhitarist Monastery of Vienna and was intended to educate Armenian high school students on world geography. While such knowledge was important to youth of all nationalities, it had partial resonance for Armenians, a people who no longer ruled their homeland (which was then divided under Ottoman, Russian and Persian control), and many of whom lived in diaspora communities all across the world. It was critical for young Armenians to see where they lived in relation to their ancestral homeland and, given the presence of the 'Armenia' map, holding out hope of someday reclaiming their lost country.

The maps within the present atlas, all bound in plano (each measuring 27 x 36 cm), are of a highly attractive artistic style and made by an extraordinary printing technique that is unmistakably inspired by the work of Franz Raffelsperger (1793 - 1861), an eccentric and brilliant boutique Vienna mapmaker. The maps are made through a combination of lithography (in blue) with all text added in black letterpress, creating a work of elegant visual contrast. This technique was perfected by Raffelsperger in the 1840s, and was exceedingly difficult to execute, requiring great care and precision. The technique of combined lithograph-type punch is demanding and unusual, while the style of this technique employed for the maps in the present atlas is so similar to Raffelsperger's, that it seems likely that the printers working at the Mekhitarist press in Vienna (Mess'rs Astvacacni and Tpagrovatian) were trained by, or worked with, Raffelsperger. Moreover, the artistic style of the maps, especially the detailing of the blue lines that emphasize the coastlines, is a signature of Raffelsperger's work. Indeed, Raffelsperger, who died in 1861, was still very much active in Vienna in the mid-1850s, when the present maps were being prepared. He is recorded as being highly interested in working with printing fonts of scripts other than Latin, although no such works are known to have been made by him. The Raffelsperger-Mekhitarist connection is a subject worthy of future academic research.

Cartographically, the maps in the atlas are not based on original mapping; however, as best as we can tell, they are not verbatim copies of European maps, but seem to be adapted from them. It seems that Avakian was influenced by the maps within the popular German school atlases by Stieler, Sydow and Perthes.

Importantly, the present 1860 edition of the atlas is the second, of two, editions. The first edition was issued in 1857, and the two issues are identical, save for the alteration of the date of publication and minor amendments to the imprint lines on the lower margins of the maps.

Avakian's atlas came on the heels of the first Armenian world atlas, which was issued in by the rival Venetian Mekhitarist Order, Hovhannes Amira Dadian's Ատլաս Աշխարհագոյց պատկերաց, ըստ արքունի աշխարհագրաց Գաղղիոյ, Անգղիոյ, Գերմանիոյ եւ Ռուսաց [Atlas of Geographical Maps The World According to the Old and New Geographies of France, England, Germany and Russia] (Venice, 1849). While the Dadian atlas was much more grand, being a large folio work, it only included ten maps. An example of the Dadian atlas sold at auction at Swann Galleries (New York) for $37,500!

The Avakian atlas proved to be a pathfinder, in that it inspired the creation of future Armenian school atlases and geography textbooks, although it would be many years before another Armenian work was produced that featured so many maps.

The author of the atlas, Astvatsatur V. Avakian (Աստուածատուր Վ. Աւագեան), was a monk at the Mekhitarist Monastery in Vienna, active in the 1850s and '60s, although not much is known about his biography. He was evidently a gifted translator and editor, and in addition to the atlas, he is recorded as the author of Զուարճալիք բնապատմութեան [Exploring Natural History] (Vienna, 1854), a textbook for children, and Սկովտիայի Սթուարթեան թագաւորաց եւ առանձինն Մարիամ Սթուարթ թագուհւոյն պատմութիւնը [The Story of the Stuart Kings of Scotland and Queen Mary Stuart] (Vienna, 1861), an entertaining work of popular history.

List of Contents (21 Maps):

1. ԵԻՐՈՊԱ. [Europe].

Europe was during the 19th Century a great centre of Armenian culture, fuelled by prosperous diaspora communities and home to many monasteries and printing presses that produced the majority of Armenian books.

2. ԱՍԻԱ. [Asia].

The great majority of Armenians lived in Asia; their homeland was the Armenian Highlands of Eastern Anatolia, while diaspora communities existed in most countries, including Persia, China, Philippines, Singapore and India.

3. ԱՖՐԻԿԷ. [Africa].

A fascinating and detailed map of Africa depicting the continent prior to the 'Scramble for Africa'; colour coding identifies the various zones of colonial influence of the various European powers. Egypt was home to thriving Armenian diaspora communities.

4. ՀՅՈՒՍԻՍԱՅԻՆ ԱՄԵՐԻԿԱ. [North America].

This fine map of North America depicts a continent that was to become one of the most important locations of the Armenian diaspora. The first Armenian to arrive in America was a tobacco trader in 1618, and over the next three hundred years a few small Armenian communities flourished there. However, the Armenian-American population remained small until after the mass immigration that occurred in the wake of the Armenian Genocide (1915-23). Today as many as 1.5 million Americans claim Armenian ancestry. Th map labels the U.S. and Mexican states, as well as the British colonies and the districts of the Hudson's Bay Company.

5. ՀԱՐԱՎԱՅԻՆ ԱՄԵՐԻԿԱ. [South America].

Armenians had immigrated to South America throughout the colonial times, and eventually formed large communities in Brazil.

6. ԱՒՍՏՐԱԼԻԱ. [Australia].

This attractive and interesting map of Australia, New Zealand and Oceania labels all the Australian colonies and employs colour-coding to identify the areas controlled by the various European powers. In the 20th Century, Australia would see significant Armenian immigration.

7. ՓՈՐԹՈՒԿԱԼ եւ ՍՊԱՆԻԱ. [Portugal and Spain].

8. ԳԱՂԼԻԱ. [France].

France was an important intellectual centre for the Armenian diaspora, with key communities in Paris and Marseille. In the late 19th Century, the French Armenian diaspora became a hotbed of the 'Armenian National Awakening' and after the Armenian Genocide, Western Europe's leading Armenian centre.

9. ԱՆԳԼԻԱ. [England].

Britain had a small, but very influential Armenian communities that were critical in providing support for Armenian activities worldwide.

10 ԻՏԱԼԻԱ. [Italy].

Italy was long one of the leading centres of Armenian intellectual life, the Armenian Catholic Church was in communion with the Vatican and the Mekhitarist Monastery in Venice was, during the Enlightenment era, the single most important source of Armenian print culture in the world.

11. ԳԵՐՄԱՆԻԱ. [Germany].

While the Armenian communities in the German states were traditionally small, Armenians had strong academic and business ties to German cities and universities.

12. ԱՒՍՏՐԻԱԿԱՆ ՊԵՏՈՒԹԻՒՆ [Austrian Empire].

In the late 18th century the Austrian Empire became one of the leading centres of Armenian culture, due to the foundation of a new branch of the Mekhitarist Order, in Trieste, and then in Vienna. The Armenians were enthusiastically welcomed by the Habsburgs and the country proved to be an excellent place to raise funds and work on creating educational tools for Armenians worldwide. It is also notable that Lvov, Galicia (today, Lviv, Ukraine), which during this time a part of the Austrian Empire, was long home to major Armenian community.

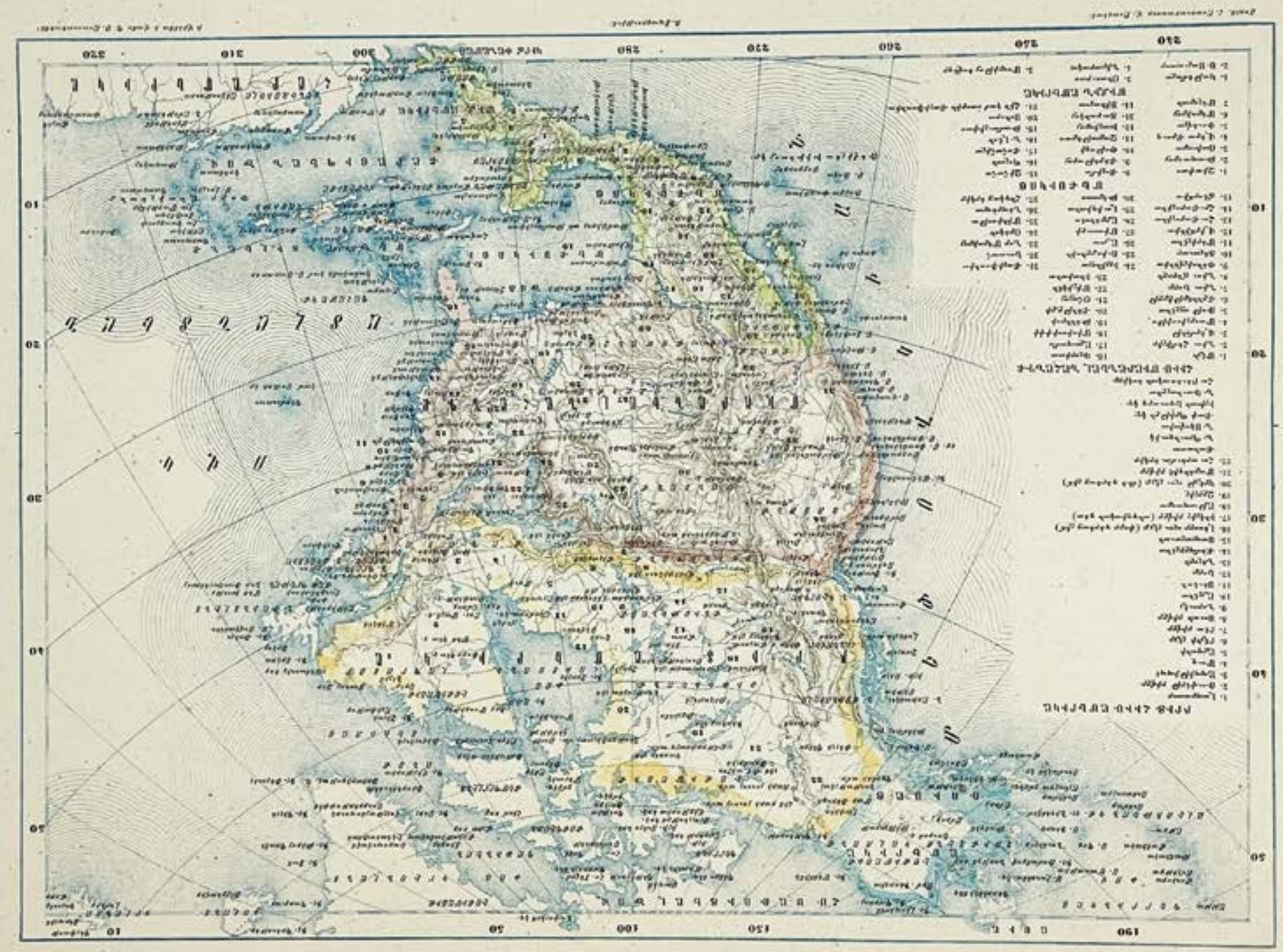
13. ԲՐՈՒՍԻԱ. [Prussia].

14. ԲԵՂԳԻԱ, ՀՈԼԼԱՆՏԱ… [Belgium, Holland and the Northwestern German States).

Amsterdam was one of the great centres of Armenian commercial and intellectual life, many books and the first major Armenian language printed map were issued there.

15. ՌՈՒՍԻԱ ԵՒՐՈՊԻԱՅ. [Russia in Europe].

The Russian and the Armenian peoples have very deep cultural connections, and Russia was home to many large, longstanding Armenian diaspora communities. Most Armenians were also members of the Armenian Orthodox Church, which was closely connected to the main Russian faith. The Lazarev Institute of Oriental Languages, founded in Moscow, in 1815, was one of the most important global centres of Armenian intellectual discovery, while from 1828 Russia ruled a part of the traditional Armenian homeland (the region around Yerevan), having conquered it from Persia. During the 19th century and up to World War I, Russia generally supported the Armenian cause within the Ottoman Empire. The Russian-held Armenian lands became the Armenian SSR in 1920, territory which formed the sovereign Republic of Armenia in 1991.



16. ՅՈՒՆԱՍՏԱՆ եւ ՅՈՒՆԱԿԱՆ ԿՔ. [Greece and the Greek Islands].

Armenians and Greeks had ancient and strong cultural connections, sharing the Christian faith and as well as long histories of struggle for national reawakening against the Ottoman state. Over 80,000 Armenians sought refuge in Greece in the wake of the Armenian Genocide.

17. ՕՍՄԱՆԵԱՆ ՊԵՏՈՒԹԻՒՆ ԵՒՐՈՊԻԱՅ. [Ottoman Empire in Europe].

This map showcases the Ottomans' European territories, in the Southern Balkans, which were home to small but longstanding Armenian communities.

18. ՕՍՄԱՆԵԱՆ ՊԵՏՈՒԹԻՒՆ ԱՍԻԱՅ. [Ottoman Empire in Asia].

This important map depicts the populous part of the Ottoman Empire in Asia (being Anatolia, the Levant and Iraq), and embraces almost all of the territories of the Armenian ancestral homeland. The last independent Armenian state, the Kingdom of Cilia, fell to the Ottomans in 1375, and since then the Armenians lived under foreign rulers. In the mid 19th century, the vast majority of Armenians lived in the Ottoman Empire. Many Armenians in rural Eastern Anatolia lived in poverty and had difficult relations with their Turkish and Kurdish neighbours. Conversely, many of the Armenian communities in the cities, especially in places such as Istanbul, Smyrna (Izmir), Beirut and Aleppo, were prosperous and relatively well integrated into the broader society. Indeed, during the Tanzimat Era (1839-75), Armenians were accorded full legal rights and by the late 19th century, Armenians were serving at the highest levels of the Ottoman government. Ironically, during the same period, the regime of Sultan Abdul Hamid II presided over the 'Hamidian Massacres' of 1894–96, during which hundreds of thousands of Armenians were murdered in Eastern Anatolia. As we all know, during World War I, the Young Turk regime turned on the empire's Armenian communities, enacting the Armenian Genocide (1915-23), which resulted in the deaths of 1.5 million Armenians. The survivors fled abroad, greatly increasing the size of the of Armenian diaspora, while virtually no Armenians were left in the majority of their traditional homeland. While the First Republic of Armenia (1918-20) briefly saw the revival of first independent Armenian state in almost 550 years, at the end of the chaos that followed the war, only the Yerevan region was left to the Armenians, forming the Armenian SSR in 1920, a part of the Soviet Union.

19. ՀԱՅԱՍՏԱՆ. [Armenia].

This is the most important map in the atlas, as it is one of the very first maps to depict a proposed future Armenian state, superimposed over a current-day map of Eastern Anatolia and northwestern Persia. In creating the map, Avakian was clearly inspired by the 'Armenian National Awakening', a movement that arose in the mid-19th century, whereby Armenians in the Ottoman Empire sought autonomy. On a moderate level, the Awaking called for Armenians to be given full civil rights throughout the Ottoman Empire, while Armenians living in areas of a majority Armenian population (in Eastern Anatolia) were to be accorded local self-government within the empire. During the Tanzimat Era (1839-75) the Sublime Porte enacted liberal reforms that accorded religious minorities (including Armenians) comprehensive civil rights, while playing lip service to granting Armenian communities local autonomy (although this was never enacted). However, on more radical direction, some Armenians, particularly in the European diaspora, called for the complete succession of the Armenian Highlands of Eastern Anatolia from the Ottoman Empire, so as to create the first independent Armenian nation in almost 500 years. The zealous elements led to the rise of Armenian militant groups that violently fought the Ottoman state with the view towards obtaining their ultimate objective.

The present map assumes a radical course, as it clearly showcases 'Armenia' as being a distinct political entity, carved out of the Ottoman Empire, in Eastern Anatolia and the extreme northwestern corner of Persia. This 'country' features the printed name ՀԱՅԱՍՏԱՆ ('Armenia'), running across the area, while the 'national' boundaries are demarcated in pink manuscript. The country, roughly centred upon the city of Erzurum, extends down to take in Lake Van and eastwards to western slopes of Mount Ararat, the biblically famous volcanic massif that is the Armenian national symbol. 'Armenia' is show here to take in all of the Ottoman Eyelet (province) of Erzurum and part of the Eyelet of Van. Curiously, the map does not show 'Armenia' to include any of the traditionally Armenian territory that was then held by Russia, this is perhaps in deference to Russia's support for the Armenian cause. Covering the heartland of ancient Armenia, including many areas that then had a majority Armenian population, the map is a powerful rhetorical device advocating for the independent Armenian state 'that could, and should be'. This is a very different thing than many other maps that show historical Armenia states, in the context of the ancient world, as the present map, superimposed over contemporary space, is not retrospective, but rather forward looking, in a radical way.

Needless to say, while this map could be disseminated without concern in diaspora communities, it would have been considered politically subversive, perhaps even treasonous, in the Ottoman Empire. One would have to be very careful handing this atlas out to school children in Istanbul or Erzurum, as this map could land one in serious trouble!

20. ՊԱՐՍԿԱՍՏԱՆ, ԱՖՂԱՆԻՍՏԱՆ եւ ՊԵԼՈՒՋԻՍՏԱՆ. [Iran, Afghanistan and Belochistan].

This especially interesting map depicts all of Qajar Persia, along with Afghanistan and the much of what is today Pakistan (then part of British India). Armenian and Persian history is intimately intertwined, as Persia often ruled all or large portions of the Armenian homeland, at various times over the centuries. For over 2,000 years large Armenian communities existed all across Persia, and Armenian traders played a major role the imperial economy. In 1606, Shah Abbas I invited exiled Armenians to build

Ա. ՏԱԼԱՆ

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1860

their own city, New Julfa, by Isfahan; it retains its distinct character to the present day. The Armenian publishing house, founded by Khachatur Kesaratsi, in New Julfa was the first printing press in Persia.

21. ՀՆԴԿԱՍՏԱՆ. [India].

This fine map depicts all of the Indian Subcontinent, plus mainland Southeast Asia. Armenians had been resident in India since ancient times, often prospering as traders with links to the Silk Road. During the British colonial period, the Armenian communities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras were culturally vibrant and commercially prosperous; several of the leading global patrons of the Armenian cause were Indo-Armenians. In Southeast Asia, Armenians were also well established in centres such as Rangoon and Singapore.

A Note on Rarity

The present atlas is extremely rare, it was an expensive production that would have been produced in only a small print run, while school atlases, being exposed to use, have a very low survival rate.

We can definitively trace only 2 institutional examples of the present 1860 edition of the atlas, held by the Fundamental Scientific Library at the National Academy of Sciences of the Republic of Armenia (Yerevan) and the Charents Museum of Literature and Arts (Yerevan); additionally, there is surely an example held by the Mekhitarist Monastery Library in Vienna, although their catalogue in not available online. The 1857 edition is similarly rare. Moreover, we cannot trace any sales records for either edition of the atlas.

The Foundation of Armenian Culture and the Importance of the Written Word

The Armenians are an ancient people with their own distinct Indo-European language and rich cultural customs. Their homeland is the Armenian Highlands in Eastern Anatolia, as well as the eastern Caucuses and northeastern Persia. Historically, the Armenians formed a succession of national states, the first being the Kingdom of Urartu, founded in 860 BC.
Ancient Armenia reached its apogee under King Tigranes II 'The Great' (r. 95 -55 BC) of the Artaxiad Dynasty, who ruled a realm that extended from the Levant up to the Caspian, being the strongest power to the east of the Roman Empire.

In 305 AD, during the time of the Arsacid Kingdom, Armenia became the first nation in the world to adopt Christianity as the state region. In 405 AD, the monk Mestrop Meshtots created the distinct Armenian alphabet. Even since, Christianity and their language and alphabet have been the cornerstones of Armenians' national identity.

Armenian national sovereignty was interrupted on several occasions by foreign invasions, variously by the Romans, Persians and Arabs, leading to the rise and fall of various Armenian states. Even under foreign rule, the Armenians preserved their cultural identity. As a people who lived off the Silk Road trade, Armenians proved remarkably adaptable to living in foreign lands, often far from home.

The last sovereign Armenian state was the Kingdom of Cilicia (1080 - 1375), which was located outside of the Armenian Highlands, along the coasts of southern Anatolia. It prospered on maritime trade until it fell to the Ottomans.

Since the fall of Cilicia, most Armenians lived under Ottoman rule, under varying conditions. At certain times, in some places, the Armenian communities lived in grinding poverty under violent oppression, while in other circumstances Armenians enjoyed great wealth and political influence.

Over the succeeding centuries, Armenian diaspora communities, often connected to the Silk Road, extended all across Eurasia from China to Portugal. Armenians were often readily accepted in Christian European and its colonies, due to their Christian faith and the fact that that they were highly industrious, making a great contribution to their adopted countries.

The Rise and Proliferation of Armenian Printing

As a people whose identity was deeply rooted in Christianity and their own distinct language and alphabet, they treasured the written word, more so than most. The monasteries of the Armenian Apostolic Church (Oriental Orthodox) and the Armenian Catholic Church (communing with Roman Catholicism), the two branches of Armenian Christianity, were the custodians of the language, developing a rich scriptorial tradition that translated and inscribed religious texts, and on occasion ventured into secular topics.

The first Armenian geographical text, the Աշխարհացոյց [World Mirror], was written between 591 and 610 AD, likely by the mathematician and geographer Anania Shirakatsi. The churches maintained a vast archipelago of monasteries around the world, which was vital to keeping Armenian cultural alive, especially in the diaspora.

Armenian monks occasionally included maps in their manuscript works that tended to either show historical Armenia's place in the world or its relationship to the Holy Land. While these maps were highly stylized, and not particularly scientific, they were often artistically impressive productions.

The Armenian diaspora embraced printing at a fairly early stage, the first book published in Armenian script was the Ուրբաթագիրք [Book of Friday Prayers], issued in Venice in 1512. Armenian printing houses were set up in Constantinople (1567), Rome (1584), Paris (1633), New Julfa (Isfahan, Persia, 1638), Amsterdam (1660), Izmir (1676), Leipzig (1680), London (1736), Vagharshapat (1771), Madras (1772), Trieste (1776), St. Petersburg (1781), Calcutta (1796), Bombay (1810), Vienna (1812), Moscow (1820), Tblisi (1828), Jerusalem (1833) and New York (1857).

The inclusion of maps published in the Armenian language was relatively slow to come, due to the complex nature of the engraving such complicated graphics. However, the first such map came in with bang, in the form of Tovmas Vanandetsi's Համատարած աշխարհագոյցն [Universal Geography] (Amsterdam, 1695), a grand world map entirely engraved in Armenian characters, but otherwise conforming to Dutch Baroque style.

During the 18th century, Armenian printed cartographic production was confined to small, or folding, maps issued within books, highlights of which include the a World map (Venice, 1747); maps of historical Armenia issued in Venice (1751 and 1784) and Madras (1778); while maps of the continents and the Ottoman Empire appeared within serialized issues of geographical books published in Venice from 1784 to 1791.

The Mekhitarist Movement: Leading Armenian Printing and Cartography

At this point, it is important to discuss the Mekhitarist Monastic movement, which played a critical role in Armenian print culture. As a young man, Mekhitar of Sebaste (1676 - 1749), a native of Sebaste (Sivas, Turkey), became deeply concerned with what he considered to be the backward state of education amongst the Armenian communities in the Ottoman Empire. He believed the solution was to translate important religious texts, as well as the best and most recent Western books, and to impart the contained knowledge to the people.

Mekhitar was educated in Rome and was ordained an Armenian Catholic priest in 1696. In 1700, he moved to Constantinople and founded his own monastic movement, attracting a small group of followers. However, he encountered resistance within the city's conservative Armenian community and in 1706, he and his followers moved the Morea, Greece where he founded the first 'Mekhitarist' monastery. While not formally a part of the Benedictine Order, the Mekhitarists followed the Benedictine's rules, and the order was formally recognized by the Vatican in 1712. However, political upheaval in the region caused the Mekhitarists to, once again, pull up stakes.

In 1717, Mekhitar and his associates were welcomed in Venice, where they were given the island of San Lazzaro to build a new monastery, called the 'San Lazzaro degli Armeni'. It became the most important centre of Armenian learning outside of the Ottoman Empire, with the printing press issuing all kinds of magnificent Armenian language educational books.

In 1773, a group of monks at San Lazzaro had a falling out with the head of the order, Abbot Melkhonian. They left Venice, forming their own independent 'Mekhitarist' order in Trieste, then a part of Austria. Empress Maria Theresa was only too happy to welcome a group of Catholics whose mission was to educate people and promote industriousness. In 1775, they set up their own press in Trieste, where they issued Armenian books of the high standard as was done in Venice.

In 1810, the Trieste Mekhitarists moved their headquarters to Vienna, the imperial Austrian capital. Befitting their grand new home, the order became very well financed due to large donations from grandees of the Armenian diaspora. The monks assembled one of the finest libraries of Armenian manuscripts and printed works in the world, as well a stellar numismatic collection. In 1812, they established a printing press in Vienna that specialized in high quality educational works.

Meanwhile, the original Mekhitarist Monastery continued to operate in Venice, completely independent of the Vienna order. Notably, it was the only monastery in Venice that was spared from being decommissioned during Napoleon's occupation of the city, as the French emperor enormously appreciated its role in education. The press at San Lazzaro was responsible for the next great leap in Armenian language cartographic printing, Hovhannes Amira Dadian's Ատլաս Աշխարհագոյց պատկերաց, ըստ արքունի աշխարհագրաց Գաղղիոյ, Անգղիոյ, Գերմանիոյ եւ Ռուսաց [Atlas of Geographical Maps The World According to the Old and New Geographies of France, England, Germany and Russia] (Venice: Monastery of San Lazzaro, 1849). Including ten large folio maps, this grand work had the distinction of being the first Armenian world atlas.

The next important achievement of cartography in the Armenian language was the present atlas authored by Astvatsatur Avakian and published for the Mekhitarist monastery in Vienna in two virtually identical editions, in 1857 and 1860. Avakian's work was the second Armenian world atlas and the first Armenian school atlas; it was also very comprehensive, featuring 21 maps.

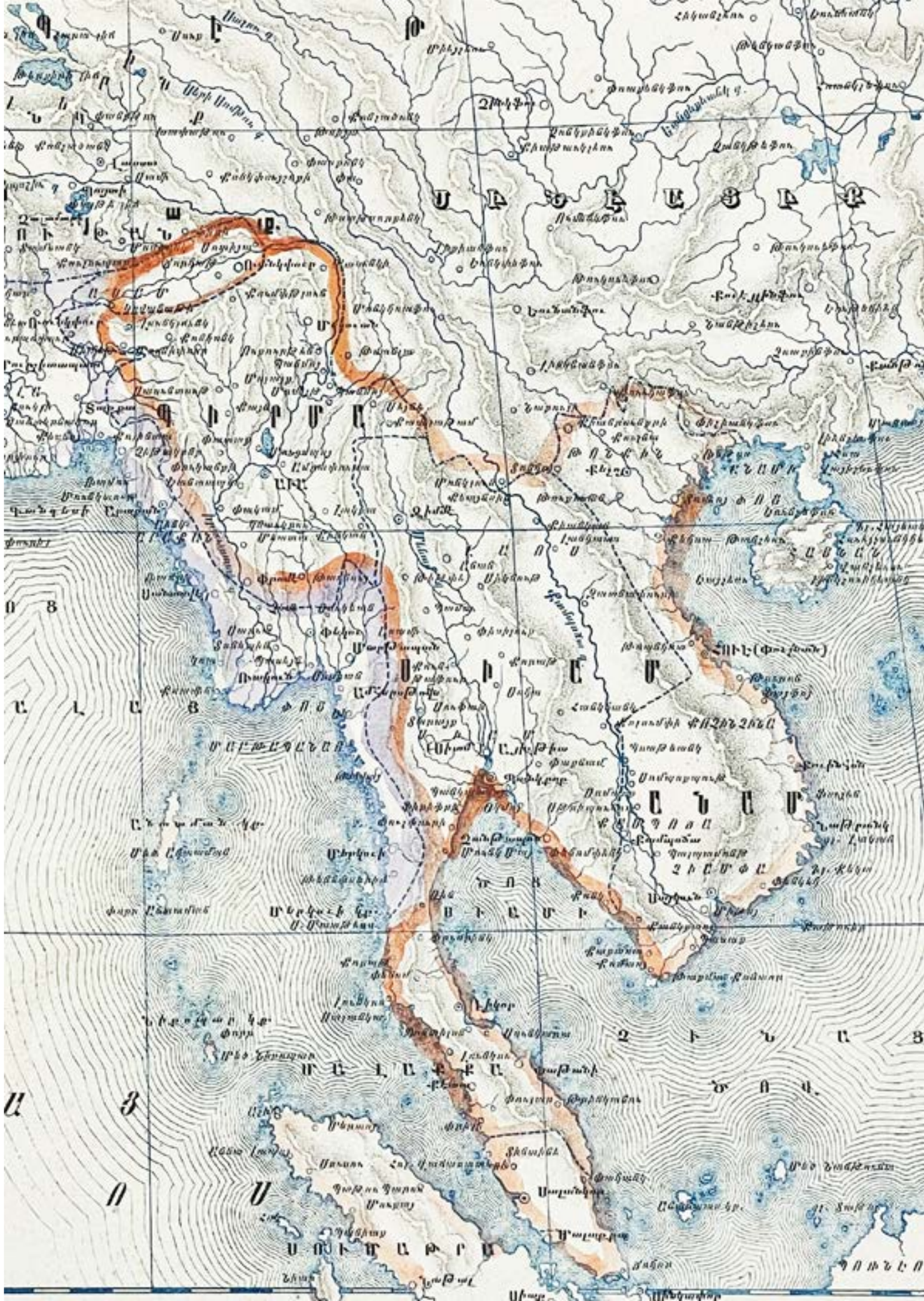
The next important work was the Համատարած աշխարհագրութիւնը [General Geography], a school atlas issued in Venice, in 1862, containing 12 maps that were printed in Paris. The period that followed, saw the proliferation of Armenian language printing, particularly in the Ottoman Empire, issued by popular commercial presses. Istanbul printers, such as Arşag Agop Boyaciyan (1837 - 1914), became major players on the general Ottoman market and were able to produce large print runs of books with sophisticated graphics, including maps. For the first time, the Armenian masses in both the Ottoman Empire and the diaspora had access to cartographic works, in the form of geographic textbooks, historical works, wall maps and atlases.
In the heady years leading up to World War I, when the Armenian National Awakening was in full swing, many patriotic maps depicting both historical and a future independent Armenia were made by the diaspora.

The tragedy of the Armenian Genocide (1915-1923), when over 1.5 million Armenians in the Ottoman Empire were killed, caused the majority of the survivors to flee into exile, creating large new diaspora communities in the Americas, Australia, France, the Levant, and Russia. While the First Republic of Armenia (1918-20) briefly existed as the first sovereign Armenian state in almost 550 years, in the end the Armenians had to settle for the Armenian SSR, part of the Soviet Union, as their only homeland. These developments led to a great increase in the quantity and diversity of Armenian language cartography, including stellar topographical, thematic and propagandist maps.

In July 2000, the Mekhitarist Orders of Vienna and Venice agreed to 'bury the hatchet' after 227 years of separation, merging into a single order. Today, both the monasteries at San Lazzaro and Vienna remain in full operation, and the library of the Mekhitarist Monastery in Vienna boasts one of the largest and finest Armenian bibliographic collections in the world, with 2,800 manuscripts, 120,000 books and 70,000 volumes of magazines.

References: National Academy of Sciences of the Republic of Armenia (Yerevan) - Fundamental Scientific Library: AIV/19; Johannes DÖRFLINGER and Helga HÜHNEL, Atlantes Austriaci: Österreichische Atlanten, 1. Band: 1561-1918 (Vienna: Böhlau Verlag, 1995), Mech / Awa A 2 (pp. 703-4).

4.500 EUR



9. Russo-Japanese War (1904-5). Seige Of Port Arthur Ephemeral Japanese Broadside Poster Map

吉波山大者刷印 [YOSHINOYAMA DAISHA PRESS].

日露交戦地圖. [Russo-Japanese War Theatre]

[Probably Osaka:] Yoshinoyama Daisha Press, Meiji 37 [1904].

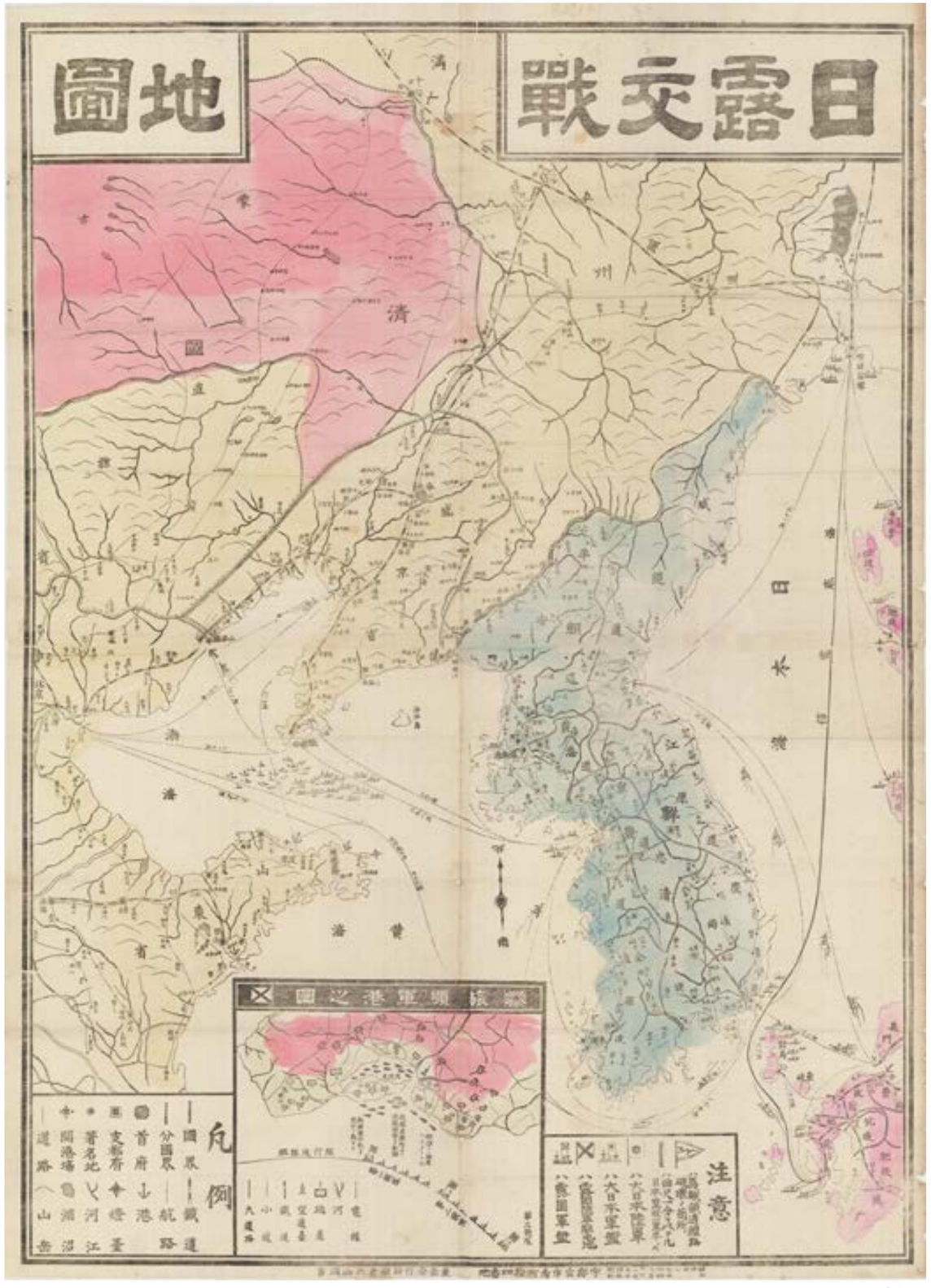
Lithograph with original wash colour, on rice paper (Very Good, lovely colours, overall clean and bright, just some creasing, light wear along old folds and couple tiny marginal tears with no loss), 105 x 77 cm (41.5 x 30.5 inches).

An extremely rare, very large and attractive Japanese broadside, or poster map, of the theatre of the ongoing Russo-Japanese War (1904-5), a momentous showdown that would see an Asian county defeat a great European power in a major conflict in modern history; the map was printed early in the war, in December 1904, in a delightfully crude manner on rice paper, with original pastel colours, and pictorially portrays military assets and battle action, notably showcasing the Siege of the Russian base of Port Arthur, in Manchuria, which resulted in a tremendous Japanese victory, setting the tone for the rest of the conflict.

This very large and extremely rare ephemeral broadside, or poster map, was published, likely in Osaka, to showcase the theatre of the ongoing Russo-Japanese War (1904-5), an epic showdown in which Meiji Japan became the first Asian power to defeat a great European nation in a major conflict in modern history. Most of the land war occurred in Southern Manchuria, which was hitherto a Russian zone of quasi-colonial control but was coveted by Japan for its agrarian and mineral resources, as well as its vast industrial potential.

Printed in a delightfully crude manner on rice paper, with hastily, yet attractive, splashes of wash colour, the map embraces all Southern Manchuria and Korea, as well as the main Russian base in the Far East, Vladivostok, plus the adjacent parts of Japan and China proper. The map also labels all major cities and towns, roads, railways, shipping routes, ports (marked by anchors), political boundaries and key features such as the Great Wall of China.

Forts and ships all across the scene are rendered in pictographic fashion, with Japanese assets marked with the flag of the Rising Sun, while Russian possessions and vessels are distinguished by the solitaire of St. Andrew.



The details on the map suggest that it was printed in December 1904, as it shows the latter stages of the Siege of Port Arthur (August 1, 1904 to January 2, 1905), but taken before the event had concluded. During the siege, massive a Japanese force surrounded (both by land and sea) the key Russian city of Port Arthurs, today the Lüshunkou District of the city of Dalian. The Russians were well armed and in a strongly fortified position, and they held out much longer than the Japanese anticipated, yet they were subjected to one of the most intense artillery barrages ever seen, which progressively wore them down.

Specifically, the main map shows Port Arthur surrounded by Japanese artillery, which having shelled and severely damaged the Russian Pacific fleet offshore, left the job to be finished off by a Japanese flotilla commanded by Admiral Togo, which was accomplished by December 9, 1904. The decimation of the Russian fleet essentially doomed the defenders in Port Arthur, as it left the garrison with no chance of rescue; they surrendered less than month later. This outcome set the tone for the rest of the war, as it was to be the first of many crushing Japanese victories over the Russian forces, leaving Japan as the dominant power in the Far East. The inset map in the lower centre, shows a close-up view of the Siege of Port Arthur, but taken from an earlier juncture, before the Russian and Japanese fleets had enjoined combat.

The present map would likely have been sold at newsstands and in bookshops in order to allow Japanese readers to geographically follow the war, correctly placing the events as described in newspapers. Due to the telegraph, photography and the presence of many imbedded reporters, the Russo-Japanese War was one of the first major conflicts to be covered in real-time, and the Japanese public had an insatiable thirst for battle news, brimming with national pride due to the stunning success of their forces.

The present broadside map is extremely rare. Its large size and fragile nature would have seen that it had a very low survival rate. We cannot find a reference to the map, let alone the current whereabouts of another example, although we can trace a 2016 sales record for what appears to be different edition of the broadside, featuring an alternative inset in the lower part of the work.

While we have encountered many maps of the Russo-Japanese War in various forms, created in several different countries, the present work is perhaps the most extraordinary.

The Russo-Japanese War: The Rise of the First Modern Asian Superpower

The Russo-Japanese War was one of the great global military events of the generation leading up to World War I and was one of the first conflicts to be covered in almost real-time by the world media through photography and breaking news delivered by telegraph.

To make a long story short, by the beginning of the 20th century, Russia and the newly hyperindustrialized Meiji Japan had expanded their zones of control, or influence, in the Far East for decades, with their gains coming largely at the expense of China. Inevitably, Russia and Japan came to loggerheads in Manchuria. Japan coveted the entire region, while Russia was building the Trans-Siberian Railway through the area, having founded the great inland hub of Harbin (in 1898) and acquiring the fine harbour of Port Arthur (today the Lüshunkou District of the city of Dalian), in the same year. Simply put, there was not room for both great powers in Manchuria, and something would have to give.

Japan initiated the Russo-Japanese War (February 8, 1904 – September 5, 1905), deploying its large, well-trained military, backed by the most modern equipment, against Russia's Chinese outposts. Russia was caught off guard, while severely underestimating Japan's capabilities. Officials in St. Petersburg simply could not believe that an 'Asian' country could defeat a leading European power in a modern conflict.

In the opening salvo, the Japanese mounted a 'sneak attack', shelling Russian ships off Port Arthur (without besieging the city), even before a declaration of war was made. Czar Nicholas II considered this to be a dishonourable act, setting an ugly tone for the conflict.

Through the early months of 1904, the Japanese moved massive forces onto Manchuria, while Russian mobilization was slow. Taking Port Arthur was the prime Japanese objective, for as long as the base remained in Russian hands, none of the Japanese gains in Manchuria would be secure.

The Siege of Port Arthur (August 1, 1904 to January 2, 1905) was one of the great global military events of the generation leading up to World War I and was one of the first to be covered in almost real-time by the world media through photography and breaking news delivered by telegraph.

A Japanese force of 150,000 men, under General Count Nogi Maresuke, one of the most revered Meiji commanders, surrounded Port Arthur beginning on August 1, 1904. The city was defended by 50,000 Russian troops, armed with 506 heavy guns, commanded by Major-General Baron Anatoly Stoessel, considered a rather lacklustre leader. The Japanese were initially overconfident, believing that since they had easily taken Port Arthur from China in 1894, that the city would once again fall quickly. This assumption was wrong, as in the previous six years, the Russians had made Port Arthur into one of the most heavily fortified sites in the world.

During what was by far and away the longest and bloodiest aspect of the entire war, Port Arthur was subjected to a constant barrage of heavy ordnance, while the Russians returned fire upon the Japanese lines, often to devastating effect. One of the shocking new inventions used in the siege was the 28-inch howitzer that could lodge 217 kg shells over 8 kilometres!

The events of the siege were followed daily by millions of newspaper readers across the globe. The Russians, running out of supplies and ammunition, finally surrendered to Count Nogi on January 2, 1905. The toll of siege was astounding, the Russians suffered 31,000 casualties, while the Japanese endured 57,000.

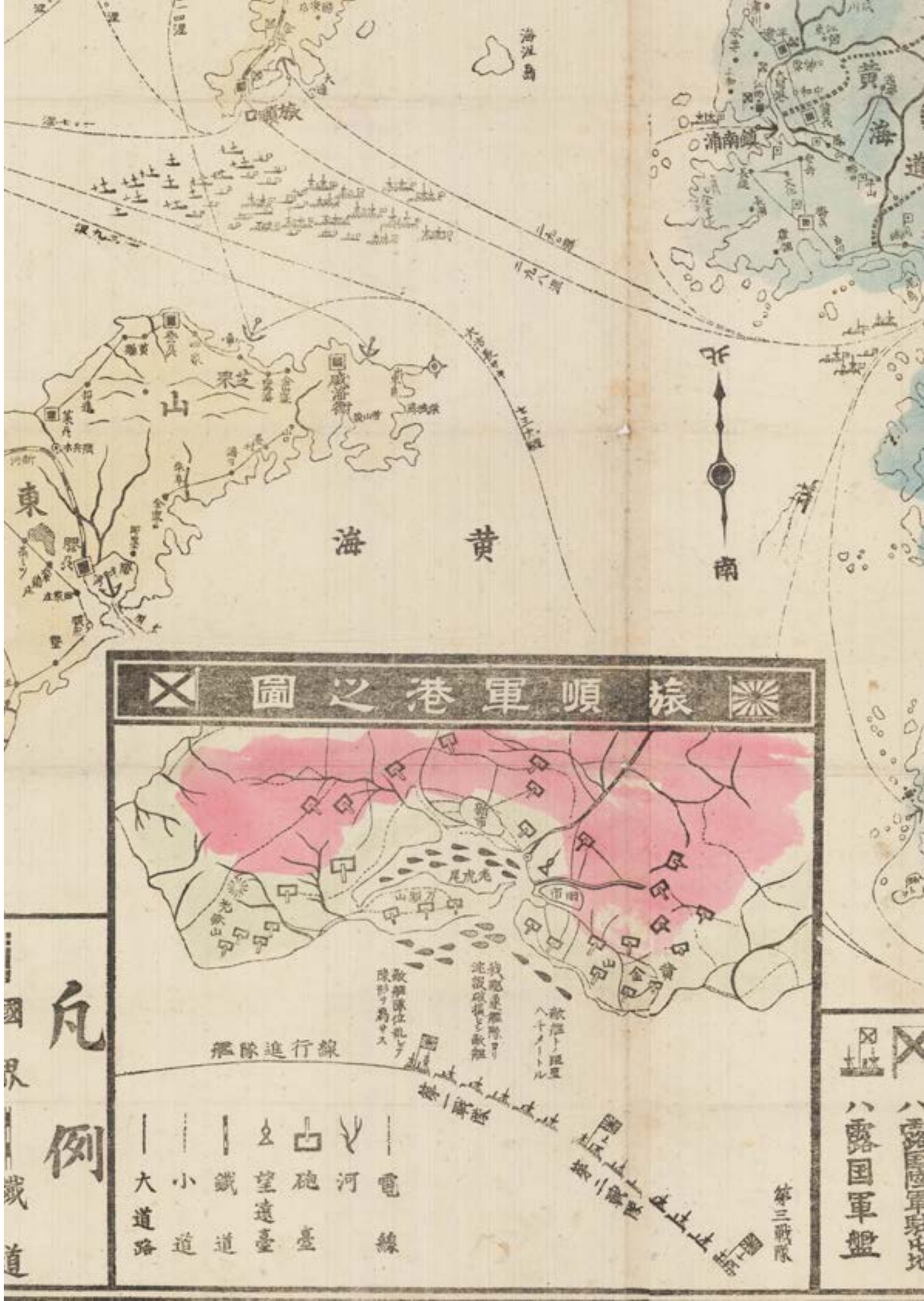
Next, at the Battle of Mukden (Shenyang) (February 19 to March 10, 1905), one of the largest land battles in the world fought between 1813 and WWI, a Japanese army of 270,000 men clashed with a Russian for of 340,000 troops. The Japanese decisively defeated the Russians, giving them control over the land war.

In a "Hail Mary" attempt to reset things, Czar Nicholas II sent a fleet consisting of 38 of the Russian Navy's best and most modern ships all way the from St. Petersburg to the Far East. However, the Russian flotilla was intercepted in the waters between Korea and Japan by a Japanese fleet of 89 ships, which proceeded to utterly decimate the Russian fleet at the Battle of Tsushima (May 27-28, 1905). This defeat knocked Russia out of the war, and facing a rebellion at home, the czar sued for peace, resulting in the Treaty of Portsmouth (September 5, 1905). This agreement confirmed Japan as the foremost power in the Far East until World War II. Its victory stunned the world, as it represented the first time that an Asian country had defeated a major European power in modern times.

At the Treaty of Portsmouth, Japan cemented its place as the preeminent power in the Far East. From Russia, Japan gained control over Southern Manchuria (extending from Port Arthur up to Changchun, including the major industrial centre of Mukden (Shenyang), as well as the southern half of Sakhalin Island (Karafuto). These prizes gave Japan access to vast agrarian and mineral resources that it needed to fuel its industrial economy. However, it also led Japan down the road of militarism and over-confidence that ended in the disaster of World War II.

References: N/A – Broadside Seemingly Unrecorded.

1.400 EUR



10. Middle East – World War I
French Takeover Of Syria & Lebanon
Levant / Turkey / Iraq

SERVICE GÉOGRAPHIQUE DE L'ARMÉE (FRANCE):

Carte de la Turquie d'Asie (moins l'Arabie) / Eschelle de 1 / 1 000 000.

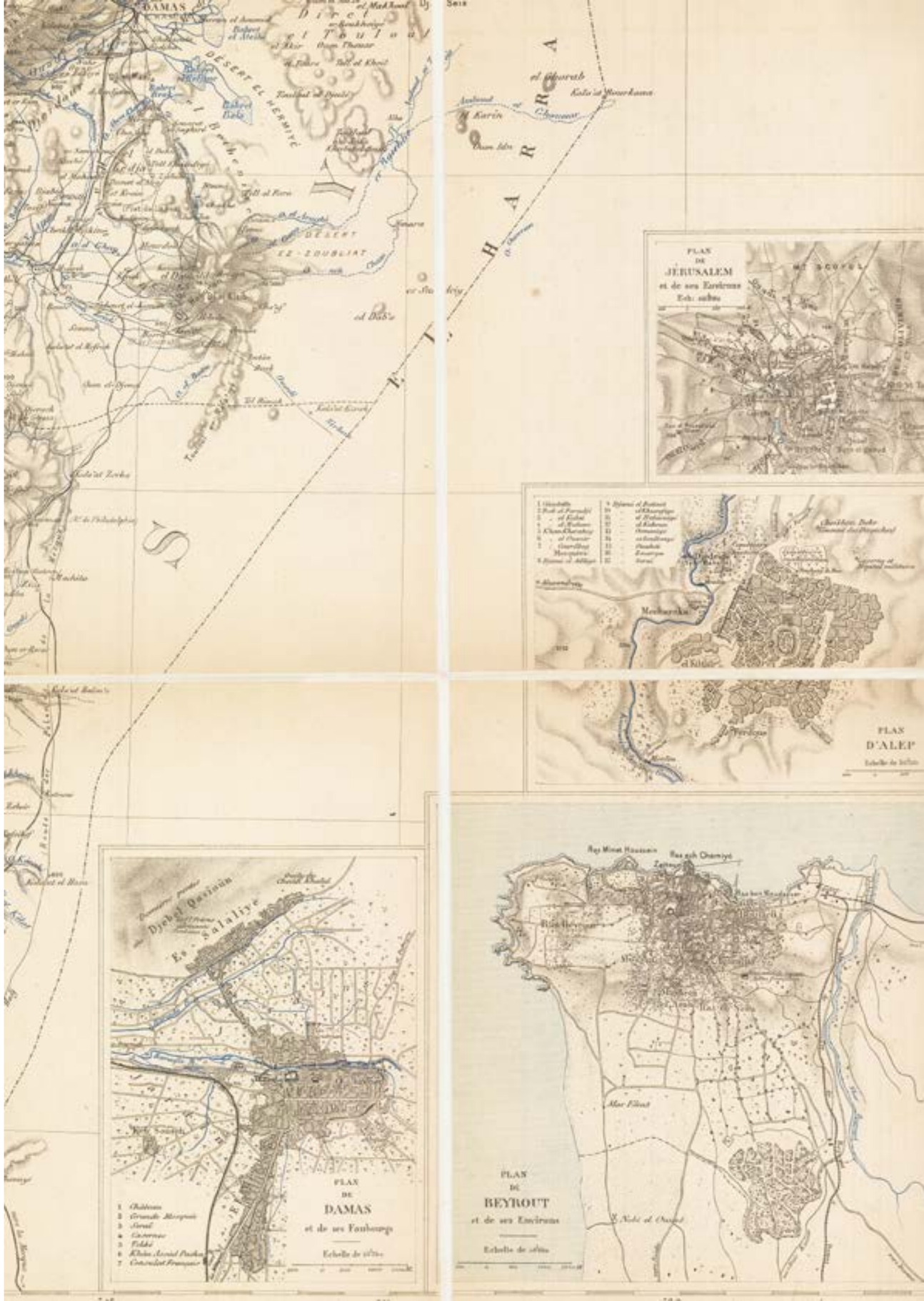
Paris: Service géographique de l'Armée, [1914].

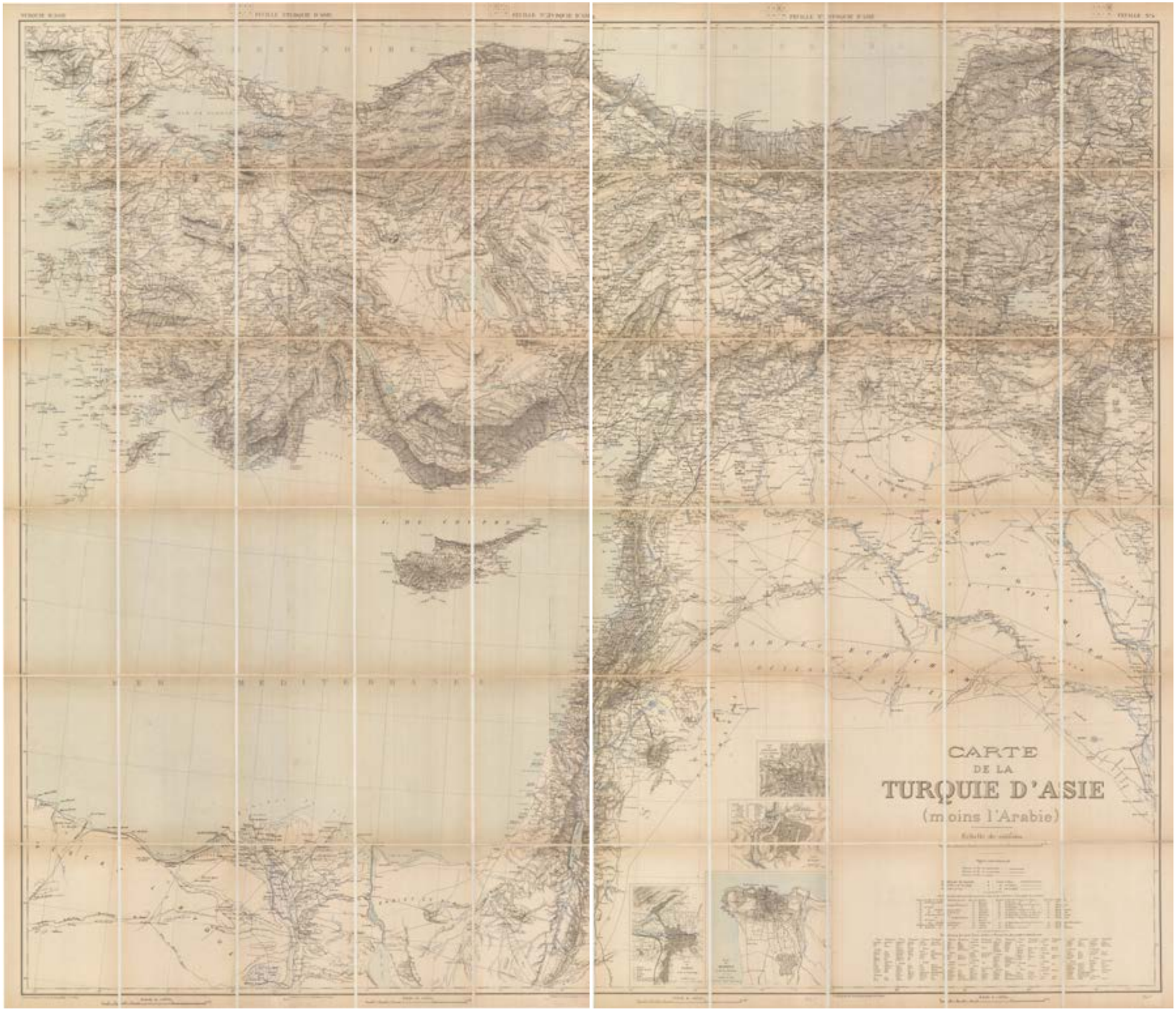
Heliozincograph in 2 colours (black and blue), printed on 8 sheets, but here joined into two parts, each dissected into 30 sections and mounted upon contemporary linen with marbled endpapers and printed mapseller's label of 'Sifton & Praed / The Map House / London', folding into contemporary red cloth slipcase bearing same mapseller's label (Very Good, overall clean and crisp, just some light toning along folds; slipcase with some shelf-wear and light sunning to spine), each part: 149 x 87 cm, if joined would form a map: 149 x 174 cm (58.5 x 68.5 inches).

The colossal, authoritative general map of Anatolia, the Levant, Lower Egypt and western Iraq made for strategic use by the French Army on the eve of World War I; these regions all being scenes of pivotal military action and espionage operations during and in the wake of the conflict, from which France played a critical (and controversial) role in the creation of modern Turkey and the Middle East.

This gargantuan and impressively detailed map embraces all of Anatolia, the Levant, lower Egypt and western Iraq, and was made by the Service géographique de l'Armée, the French army's mapping agency, on the eve of World War I. During and in the immediate wake of this conflict these regions were the scene of major military campaigns and audcaious espionage operations, in which France played a key role. The present map was the authoritative cartographic aid used by France politicians, senior field commanders and spies for strategic planning.

While France was too tied up defending itself along the Western Front to spare vast resources to fighting in the Levant, so playing a secondary role to Britain, its deep cultural and economic ties to the region, backed by its aggressive self-advocacy and espionage operations, ensured that Paris had a definitive role in shaping the outcome of the conflict and the postwar settlement. In the aftermath, France would succeed in gaining enduring control over Lebanon and Syria, even if its designs to dominate Cilicia (south-central Anatolia) did not materialize. France's rule over Beirut and Damascus, and its belated, but consequential, support for the new Republic of Turkey, for both better or worse, helped to define the nature of the modern Near and Middle East with serious ramifications lasting to the present day.




CARTE
DE LA
TURQUIE D'ASIE
(moins l'Arabie)

The map, in grand scale and with great accuracy, showcases a vast area extending from the Anatolian shores of the Aegean Sea, in the northwest; over to Baghdad, in the east; and from the Black Sea in the north; down past Cairo and Ma'an (Jordan), in the south. Relief is shown by shading, while all coastlines, major rivers and lakes are carefully charted. All cities and towns of any note are marked, many of which feature their altitudes labeled in metres. All key roads are shown, while importantly, all railways (whether completed, in progress or planned) are carefully delineated. Of note are the lines of the half-completed Baghdad Railway, running from Istanbul towards Baghdad; and the Hejaz Railway, shown running south from Damascus towards Medina. Both were major Ottoman-German assets, as well as prime targets for Entente attacks, during the conflict.

The map also labels the locations of innumerable archaeological sites, as well as providing the ancient names of modern cities. Also noted, is the route of the Syrian Hajj Road, labeled 'Route des Pelérins de la Mecque', shown heading from Damascus down towards Medina and Mecca.

The mapping is updated form the stellar cartographic template created and continually updated by the German cartographer Heinrich Kiepert (1818-99) and his son, Richard Kiepert (1846 -1915).

In the lower-right, the map is adorned with four intriguing plans of major Levantine cities that are cumulatively seldom seen on general maps of the region. These are the 'Plan de Jérusalem' (Jerusalem); 'Plan d'Alep' (Aleppo); 'Plan de Damas' (Damascus); and 'Plan de Beyrouth' (Beirut).

Further to the right, below the title, is a detailed glossary translating geographical terms in Arabic, French, Persian and Turkish.

A Note on Rarity

The Service géographique de l'Armée published the map in three editions. The first edition was issued in 1897; the second in 1914 (being of the present example); and the third edition, with its 8 sheets issued serially between 1924 and 1928.

While there are several examples of each edition in libraries, the map is very rare on the market, for we cannot trace any sales records going back a generation.

The French Connection: France's Ancient Ties to Turkey and the Levant, World War I and the Creation of the Modern Middle East

France had strong and long-standing historical ties to Turkey and the Levant. From the time that François I and Suleiman the Magnificent formed the Franco-Ottoman Alliance in the 1530s, all the way up the period immediately before World War I, France was the Sublime Porte's principal foreign ally and a leading source of direct investment and technology transfer. France also assumed a role as the 'guardian' of the Ottoman Empire's Christian communities (especially Roman Catholics and Maronites), as well as enjoying special trading privileges in key Ottoman ports, the Echelles du Levant.

France's connection to the Levant was especially strong, as she possessed close ties to the region's large Christian minority (ex. in Lebanon, Christians were even in the majority, while very large populations existed in most regions), while maintaining important trading links with ports such as Beirut, Tripoli, Latakia and Alexandretta (Iskenderun). More recently, in 1860-1, France briefly invaded Lebanon and Syria, supposedly in order to protect the local Christian communities. Subsequently, France was the dominant source of foreign direct investment in the region, notably financing most of the region's earliest railways.

However, the beginning of the 20th century, the Sublime Porte turned its allegiance away from France and Britain and towards Germany, which became the main foreign investor in the country and the took a leading role in training and arming its military. With German technical and financial backing, commencing 1903, the Ottoman regime invested immense resources to build the Baghdad Railway through southern Anatolia (which was to run from Istanbul to Baghdad, although it was not completed until 1940!). The German-advised Hejaz Railway, built between 1900 and 1908, connected Damascus to the holy city of Medina (leaving Hajj pilgrims with only a relatively short final leg to Mecca).

The present map appeared on the eve of the complete rupture of Franco- and Anglo-Ottoman relations, which resulted in World War I. In the critical Levant-Egypt theatre of the conflict, 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 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, holding the enemy well away from the canal.

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, while attacking the Hejaz Railway.

Moreover, in the Spring of 1918, the British mounted two, ultimately unsuccessful,

invasions of Transjordan, of which one of their primary objectives was the seizing and severing the Hejaz Railway.

Contrary to the portrayal of the Ottomans in David Lean's epic film Lawrence of Arabia (1962) as blundering clowns, the Sultan's troops and engineers did a remarkably good job protecting the line and quickly repairing it in the wake of enemy attacks. For the duration of the war, they controlled almost all the railway most of the time, keeping it running in most sectors.

France, in contrast to Britain's muscular approach, was until the end of the war tied down fighting Germany on the Western Front and could spare only limited resources towards the Middle Eastern theatre; it was far from being able to muster an army to execute large-scale operations. France had to rely upon more subtle means to preserve influence and credibility in the region to ensure the preconditions necessary to gain control of Syria and Lebanon.

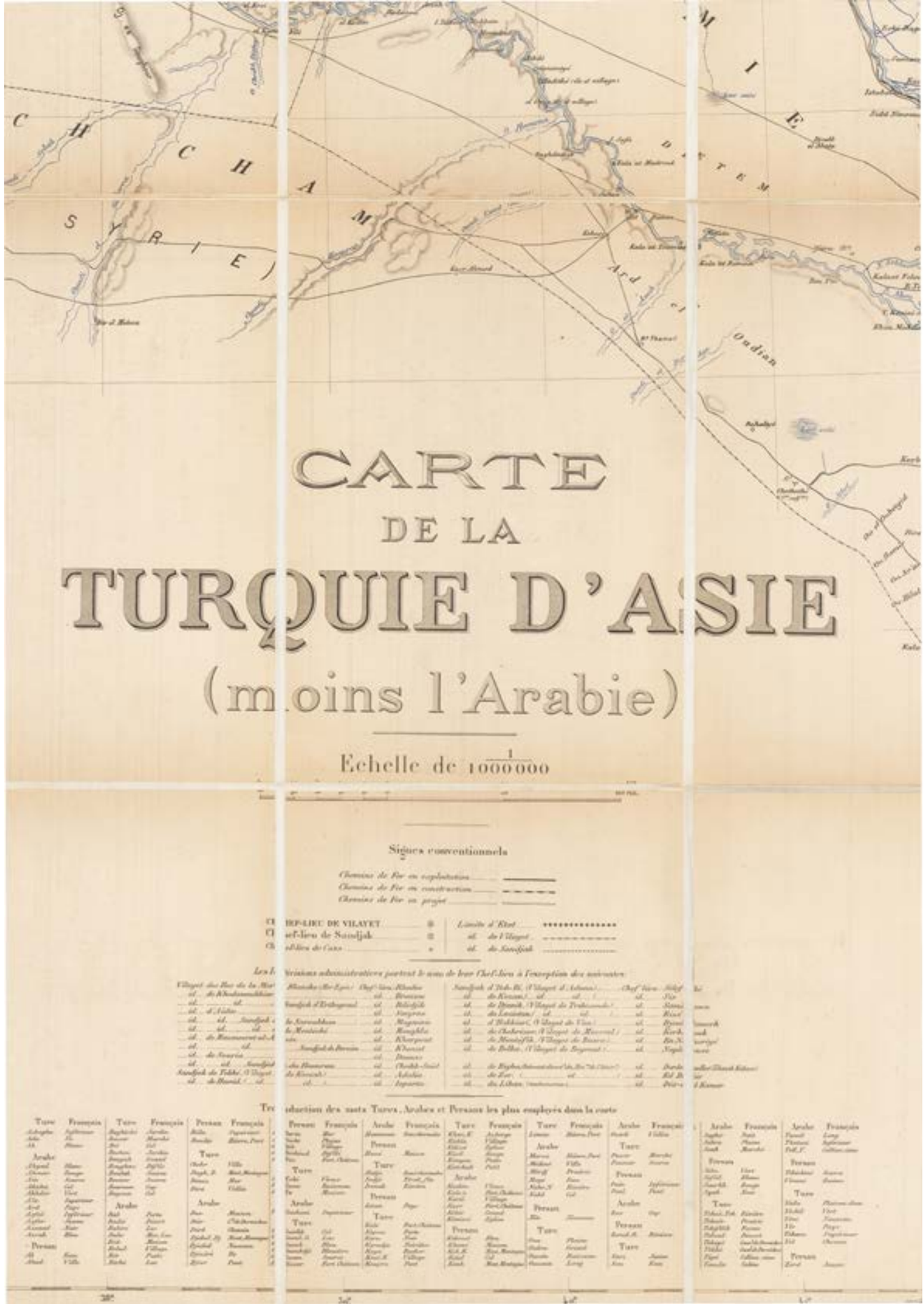
In the spring of 1917, France formed a special espionage command base, known as the Service des informations de la Marine dans le Levant (S.I.L.), operating out of Port Said, at the mouth of the Suez Canal (then the only place in the Middle East where France enjoyed extra-territorial privileges). The S.I.L.'s mandate was to gather and analyse raw intelligence from the field and synthesize the resulting information into reports for the consumption of top-level French officials to implement policy or guide military operations.

With the guidance of S.I.L., France established extensive and effective espionage apparatuses, using its vast network of historical connections to Ottoman officials, Christians, Alawites and even sympathetic Muslims to win support for French hegemony in Syria and Lebanon. This included a sophisticated mixture of working old friendships, espionage and counterespionage operations, propaganda campaigns, as well as outright bribery and coercion.

Returning to the action in the Levant Theatre, 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 soon 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 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 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 Hejazi warriors, broke the lines of an Ottoman-German force of 35,000 troops commanded by General Liman von Sanders.



In the wake of Megiddo, the EEF and their Hejazi allies (who had moved north, having secured control of most of Hejaz and Southern Transjordan) 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 as they retreated northwards. They 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.

The Entente offensive continued until the Ottoman forces were chased to Haritan, Syria (today commonly known in English as Hraytan), just outside of Aleppo. After fierce fighting in that vicinity, the armies gained word that the Sublime Porte and Britain had signed the Armistice of Mudros (October 30, 1918), which formally ended the Ottoman's participation in World War I.

Upon the defeat of the Ottoman Empire, Britain found itself in pole position. British-Arab forces had conquered Iraq, Palestine and, to the detriment of France, were the first to march into Damascus. In the wake of the Paris Peace Conference, the Entente Powers enforced the Treats of Sèvres (August 10, 1920) upon the doomed Sublime Porte, which largely followed the designs of the formerly secret Sykes-Picot Agreement. It was ordained that Britain would be given custodianship of Iraq, Palestine and Transjordan as League of Nations 'Mandates', implying that the lands would not be colonies, but rather semi-autonomous domains in a state of transition towards full independence. France was to be given a similar authority over Syria and Lebanon, although, as we will see, France had a different interpretation of the term 'mandate', preferring to see the designation akin to colonial hegemony. Constantinople, Eastern Thrace and Anatolia were to be de cleaved up into zones of foreign occupation, variously controlled by the Western Entente Powers and Greece.

However, there were two realities that challenged this envisaged new order. First, Britain had dramatically 'overpromised' concessions to its main Arab allies, the Hashemites of Hejaz, as well as the Zionists in Palestine. To make a long story short, they had pledged Lawrence of Arabia's old comrade, Emir Faisal of Hejaz, the throne of Syria and Lebanon, while also pledging to make a large part of Palestine into a Jewish homeland, against the interests of the region's Arab population.

Second, while the ailing and discredited Ottoman regime reluctantly accepted the dismemberment of both its empire and Anatolia, the later design was resolutely opposed by the rising Turkish nationalist movement led by the war hero of Gallipoli, Mustafa Kemal Pasha (Atatürk), who mounted effective military opposition to the Entente and Greek occupation of Turkey, eventually evicting the foreigners from the country.

France found Britain's concessions to Emir Faisal to be unacceptable. France had long distrusted Lawrence of Arabia and the Hashemites and generally had poor relations with the Sunni Muslims on the Levant. France and Britain became "frenemies" in the Middle East; while technically still allies, their mutual interests often clashed as they supported opposing camps. French attempts to forge an agreement with Faisal and his regional allies always seemed doomed and a large and well-trained French force decidedly defeated Faisal at the Battle of Maysalun (July 24, 1920), removing the Hashemite regime from Syria and Lebanon once and for all. France then proceeded to install a quasi-colonial rule over the country (while sectioning Lebanon into a separate state, in the interests of her pro-French Christian majority). France would proceed to dominate Syria and Lebanon for the next generation into World War II.

Turning to Turkey, France, which was promised control over Cilicia (south-central Anatolia, the greater Adana region), by the Sykes-Picot Agreement, formed an alliance with the large local Armenian population, with the ultimate objective of creating a Franco-Armenian protectorate in the region. The Armenians, of course, had suffered at the hands of the Ottomans during the Armenian Genocide (1915-23), which was presaged in Cilicia by the Adana Massacre (1909), when Turkish mobs, supported by the authorities, killed over 20,000 Armenians in what became known as the Adana Massacre.

There was a gripping historical precedent for creating of an Armenian state in Cilicia. From 1080 to 1375, the Armenian Principality (from 1198, raised to become a 'Kingdom') of Cilicia, sometimes referred to as 'New Armenia', flourished in the region. However, the kingdom fell in 1375, causing most its leadership to go into the diaspora, while the remaining Armenians continued to live under varying degrees of repression. Beyond the Armenian Question, Cilicia was of prime strategic importance as it hosted a key stretch of the partially completed Baghdad Railway, the Ottoman-German transport lifeline from Istanbul to the Middle East. Importantly, by October 1918, the Baghdad Railway was completed through all of Anatolia, save for two gaps; the German engineers could not complete the passages across the Taurus Mountains and the Amanus (Nur) Mountains, the latter being in Hatay.

Naturally, the Turks, led by Mustafa Kemal (later 'Atatürk', the founding President of the Republic of Turkey), resisted the France-Armenian designs in Anatolia. This resulted in the Franco-Turkish War, or the Cilicia Campaign (December 1918 – October 1921), whereupon France formed an army of survivors of the Armenian Genocide into the French Armenian Legion, with the objective of conquering Cilicia and presumably making it into an Armenian client state of France. The Franco-Armenian force, with

the backing of the Royal Navy, landed 15,000 men at Mersin on November 7, 1918, and quickly took Adana, but encountered stiff Turkish resistance in the mountains beyond. With great difficulty they managed to expand their zone of control as far as Urfa, deep into the interior to the east.

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

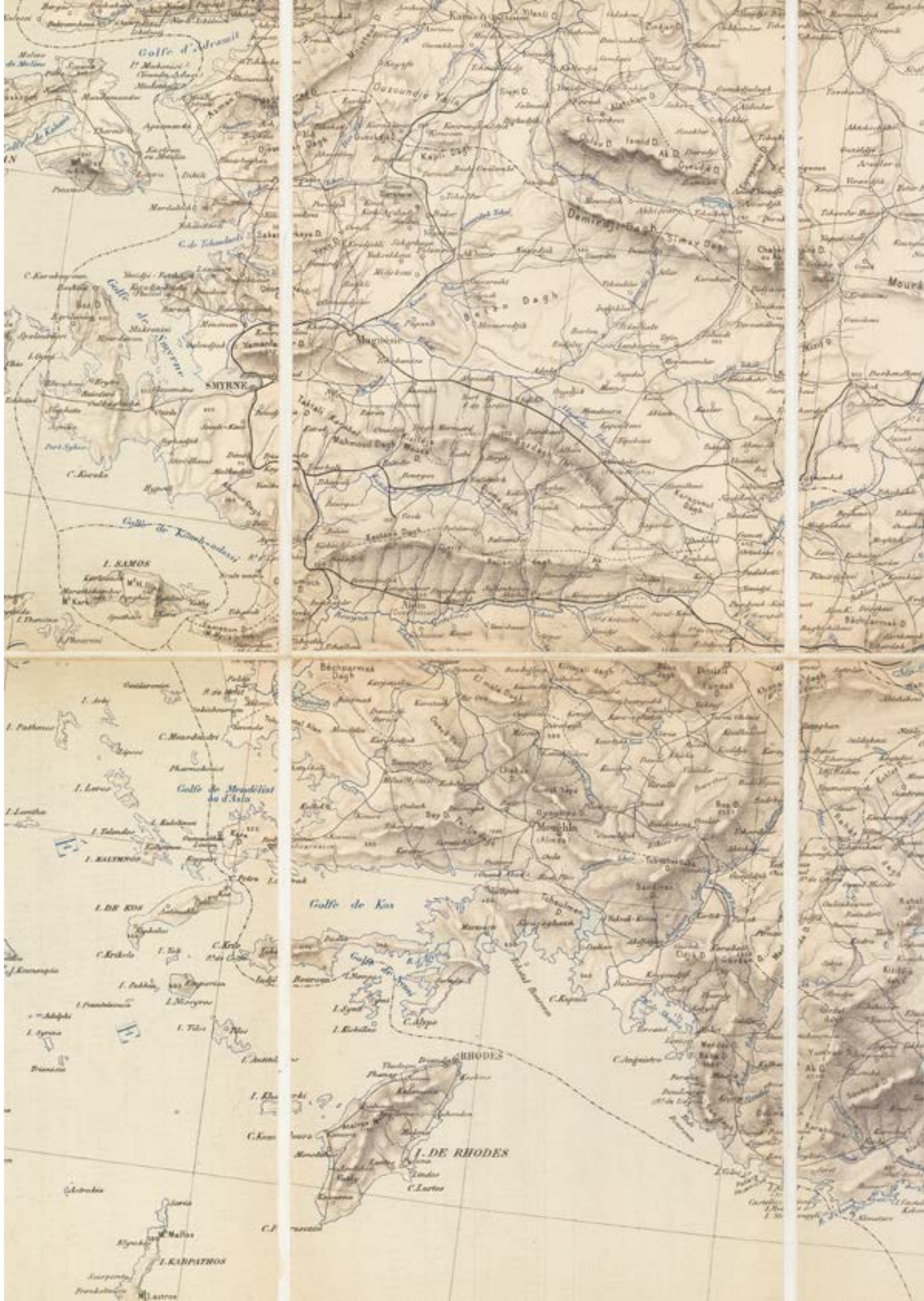
At the brutal 22-day long Battle of Marash (January 21 – February 13, 1920), the Franco-Armenian side was throttled, forcing it into a gradual retreat towards the Adana region. In the fall of 1921, France resolved to abandon its Armenian allies and any hope of controlling Cilicia. It decided to make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

The Armenian people would have to wait another 69 years, until 1991, to regain their own independent state (on roughly the same territory as held by the First Republic). In the wake of Atatürk's victory, and his foundation of the Republic of Turkey in October 1923, France mounted a volte-face, henceforth seeking to become a major economic and political supporter of the new Turkey.

The polices of Britain and France during the heady period in the wake of World War I had profound and long-lasting consequences. The interference of the Western powers in the Levant exacerbated and normalized existing sectarian tensions with consequences that have even persisted to fuel today's Syrian Civil War.

References: Library of Congress: G7430 s1000 .F72; OCLC: 17613852; ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY, 'New Maps and Photographs: Additions to the Map Room', The Geographical Journal, vol. 47, no. 2 (February 1916), pp. 157-160.

2.200 EUR



11. Gigantic Wall Map of Istanbul

REH.

استانبول
[Istanbul]

[Istanbul]: كشفيات و انشاآت تورك انونيم شركتى [Keşfiyat ve İnşaat Türk Anonim Şirketi / Turkish Development and Construction Inc.] [s. d., circa late 1923 – 1928].

Circa 185 x 130 cm (72 x 50 inches), lithograph in colour, printed from two originally joined plates, originally mounted on linen with wooden rollers. With contemporary annotations in pencil and pen.

A rare gigantic wall map of Fatih in the European Part of Istanbul is the first official survey project of the city, made in the newly founded Republic of Turkey.

This gigantic map of Fatih, today a part of Istanbul famous for its historical monuments, was made as a part of the first official survey of the city. It was issued as a part of a set of three maps, each one representing one part of Istanbul. The maps were made for the offices in various parts of the city and were only rarely used together. Our example is annotated with contemporary plans for modernization after the great fire.

The map concentrates on urban and topographic details of the city. Marked are the names of every street, public buildings, mosques, green spaces, roads, steps, walls, water surfaces, distances and elevation. Each square or the grid represents 100 m in length and 100 m in with, so 1 hectare, and each contour line 2 meters of elevation. The distances were according to the legend measured from the Galata Tower, the highest point on the city, overlooking all three parts of Istanbul.

A large part of Fatih is left unmarked and with only improvised street lines, as the area was still largely destroyed by the fire of 1912. The manuscript annotations on our map, show plans for larger streets and expose the elevations of larger hills in the area. According to the imprint the maps were commissioned by the City of Istanbul and published by the Turkish Development and Construction Inc. Due to their enormous impractical size and technical details they were almost certainly mostly used in the governmental institutions.



سرای برونی

طوپقپو سرایی

دارالفنون

بایزید

گلگاشا

سلطان احمد

آخورقپو

قومقپو

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In 1922, the same firm issued similar maps of more practical format in French language, possibly intended for the foreign firms, insurance companies and other non-Ottoman speaking people of Istanbul. They lack the technical details of the slightly latter Ottoman maps and mostly concentrate on the practical details.

These French maps were as our larger Ottoman versions printed on three sheets (please ckick here for one example housed in the David Rumsey Map Collection: Plan Général De La Ville De Constantinople. Feuille 1. Stamboul - David Rumsey Historical Map Collection), but there was also a one-sheet version made (Harvard Image). The map is not dated, but was published between late 1923 and 1928. At least two details help dating the map. The publisher Keşfiyat ve İnşaat Türk Anonim Şirketi (Turkish Development and Construction Inc.), signed on our maps was only renamed from Keşfiyat ve İnşaat Osmanli Anonim Şirketleri (Ottoman Development and Construction Inc.) in the late 1923, after the declaration of the Turkish Republic on October 1923.

Also the part south of Hagia Sofia, which is on the map of 1922 by the same publisher still shown as demolished by the fire, is almost entirely rebuilt on our map.
The upper date, when the maps could be published is 1928, after which Turkey changed the script to Latin characters. In the same year Turkish Development and Construction Inc. was transferred to Ahmet Ari Firm.

Survey of Istanbul in the 1920s and Triangulation from the Galata Tower

After WWI, Istanbul desperately needed a new survey. Part of the city was still destroyed in the fire, people and new investors were immigrating massively in and out of the metropole and infrastructure desperately needed modernization.

Especially groundbreaking was the year 1923, when Turkey became an independent republic and moved the capital to Ankara. Many state offices were moved and governmental buildings needed to be rearranged.

Major factors, which were also calling for the reorganization of the infrastructure of Istanbul were secularization of the state, which changed the purpose of many Islamic buildings, and major demographic shifts, bringing new inhabitants, especially from parts of post-Revolution Russia.

The contemporary maps, such as the 15 sheet detailed tourist map of Necip Bey, printed in 1918, but only published in 1924 by Ahmed Ishan, was useless from the urban point of view, as it failed to show the topography of Istanbul with its hills and exceedingly steep streets.

These maps tried to show various aspects of Istanbul, important for further urban planning. They joined the information of previous and contemporary maps, older surveying of streets for insurance maps, 1918-1919 German surveys of Istanbul streets, which were issued on gigantic sheets, today called Alman mavileri (German Blueprints often wrongly translated as German Blues) and the latest topographic measurements of Istanbul, made with triangulation from the highest point in the city – the Galata Tower.

The first triangulations from the Galata Tower were made by French in 1911 and were followed by Germans during WWI. The data on the legends of our maps states, that the distances for the maps have been measured from this tall monument.
All these details, showcasing the complex geographical and urban structure on the three parts of Istanbul, make these 1920s maps by the Turkish Development and Construction Inc. unique and most probably one of the most detailed wall maps of this magnificent city.

Note on Rarity

The survival rate of these maps is exceedingly low, as they were made in the mid 1920s, on the eve, when in 1928, Turkish Republic changed the official script to Latin characters, making them legally unusable for the governmental offices.

Underappreciated for their size and Ottoman language, which was often frowned upon in the next decades, they would be soon thrown away or would only survive rolled away for decades in dusty corners and attics. They only appear on the market sporadically, usually in a bad condition.

The complete set of the three maps is difficult to find, as they were probably also originally rarely acquired together, as an office of one part of the large city would not need a map of another part.

References: Cf. Hicran Topçu, A Historic-Contextual Approach for the Identification of Built Heritage in Historic Urban Areas: Case of Galata District in Istanbul a Thesis Submitted to the Graduate School of Natural and Applied Sciences of Middle East Technical University, 2004 (page_i.DOC (metu.edu.tr)); İrfan Dağdelen, Alman mavileri, 1913-1914. 1. Dünya Savaşı öncesi İstanbul haritaları, 2016.

2.800 EUR

12. China Under Japanese Occupation – Shinkyō Hsinking (Changchun) 'Ideal' Planned City Capital Of Manchukuo (Manchuria)

著者國際地學協會 [KOKUSAI CHIGAKU KYOKAI / INTERNATIONAL GEOGRAPHICAL COOPERATION ASSOCIATION].

著者國際地學協會[Saishin chōsa Shinkyō Tokubetsu shigai chizu / Latest Shinkyō Special City Map].

[No Place, but likely somewhere in Manchukuo:] 森野商店, [Morino Shōten], [1938].

Photolithograph, printed on both sides, recto in colours, verso in blue-scale (Very Good, overall clean and attractive, just some light even toning and a couple tiny stains, slight wear along old folds, old tack marks to margins, apparently lacking original envelope within which it was issued), 79 x 54 cm (31 x 21 inches).

A very rare large format masterplan of the Japanese planned "ideal modern city" of Shinkyō, or Hsinking (today Changchun, the 'Automotive Capital of China'), then the capital of Manchukuo, the Japanese puppet state that ruled Manchuria from 1932 to 1945; highly detailed, it shows what was the most organized urban era in Asia, with carefully defined and mutually supporting commercial, military, industrial and residential zones, with ample greenspace, all laid out upon a sophisticated geometric layout.

In 1907, two years after Japan assumed de facto control of southern Manchuria, Japanese urban planners, working from a virtual tabula rasa, began to transform the insignificant village of Changchun (a stop on the South Manchuria Railway (SMR), that connected Harbin to Port Arthur) into a grand epicentre for Japanese imperialistic power in northeastern China. Inspired by the plans of European capitals and 'Garden City' principles, Changchun became most organized urban era in Asia, with carefully defined and mutually supporting commercial, military, industrial and residential zones, with ample greenspace, all laid out upon a sophisticated geometric layout. This "ideal modern city" would allow Japan to maximize its control over the region and to extract its vast agrarian and mineral resources which were desperately needed to fuel the hyper-industrialized Japanese economy.

After Japan assumed de facto control over all of Manchuria in 1931, creating the puppet state of Manchukuo the following year, Changchun became the 'national' capital and was renamed Shinkyō (in Japanese), or Hsinking (in Chinese). The original urban plan was greatly expanded and, buoyed by massive Japanese crown investment and the presence of one of the world's largest military bases, the city's population boomed, growing 400% from 1932 to 1939, to reach over 400,000 residents.



The present very rare, large format masterplan shows Shinkyō / Hsinking's in a mature stage of its development, once almost all the major elements of the intended design had been realized. It was printed, likely somewhere in Manchukuo (if not in Shinkyō itself) on the orders of the Kokusai Chigaku Kyōkai (International Geographical Co-operation Association), a Tokyo based think tank closely affiliated with the Japanese government.

The recto of the map features the large format masterplan, showing all the radial avenues and streets, railway stations, parks and major edifices, as well as the delineation of the tramlines. The strict land use designations are colour-coded, as explained in the legend, lower left. A detailed index is placed in the upper left, while insets show the suburban extensions of the city.

The verso of the map is printed in blue-scale with a series of 22 photographic images of the sites in Shinkyō / Hsinking, including some of the new grand public edifices that were built by the Japanese in a unique fashion that was a mélange of Japanese, Manchurian and Chinese styles. The text in the middle provides a highly detailed description of the city.

A Note on Rarity

The present map is very rare; while small scale maps of Shinkyō / Hsinking appear from time to time, the survival rate of large format plans, as here, is quite low.

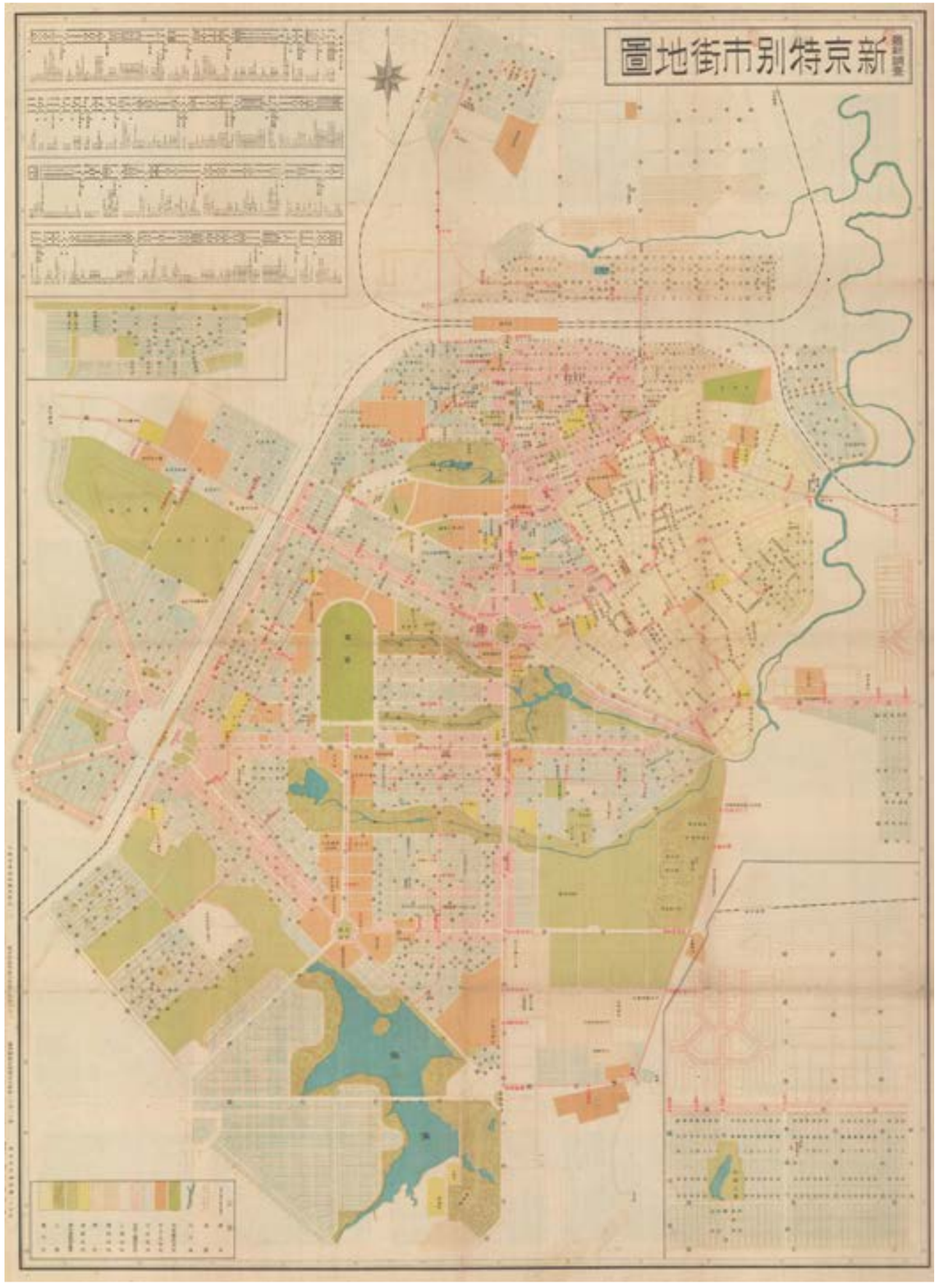
We can trace only a single institutional example of the present map, held by Harvard University's Yenching Library.

Shinkyō / Hsinking (Changchun): The Japanese "Ideal Modern City" in the Heart of Manchuria

Changchun (later for a time Shinkyō / Hsinking) was an unremarkable Manchurian village until 1898, when the southern branch of the Russian-built Chinese Eastern Railway (CER) (later known as the South Manchuria Railway (SMR)) which connected Harbin to Port Arthur (today the Lüshunkou District of Dalian) passed thorough it (Manchuria was then under de facto Russian control). The town, which was considered to possess a fine natural physical location, grew quickly, anchored by its railway station at 'Kuancheng'.

Following the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5), whereby Japan throttled Russia, Japan was given control over Southern Manchuria, with Russia retaining control over the north. Changchun lay along the frontier between the Russian and Japanese zones of influence.

Japan had grand ambitions in Manchuria, for its hyper-industrialized economy desperately needed the region's natural resources (grains, timber, coal and other minerals), as well as a source of cheap labour in the form of the region's unfortunate locals.



The Japanese recognized Changchun to have an especially advantageous strategic location for marshaling resources and serving a military base with which to supplant Russia from all Manchuria.

The Japanese managed to assume control of the entire Changchun area, pushing aside the Russians and ignoring the wishes of the Chinese Qing regime that still had de jure sovereignty over Manchuria. Thousands of acres of land were expropriated from local farmers to create a virtual tabula rasa for the Japanese to build what they envisaged as a grand "ideal modern city".

Beginning in 1907, the Japanese dedicated their best urban planners to Changchun to create a large colonial epicentre that could fulfill multiple functions. Influenced by both Hausmann's 19th century redesigns of Paris and modern 'Garden City' principles, the planners anchored the city plan on the main railway station, with sectors of eight radial avenues emanating from it, forming sectors of even gridded streets. The city would be extremely organized, with its functions carefully placed in relation to each other, with 15% of the city dedicated to residential purposes, 33'% to commerce, 19% to grain depots, 12% to factories, 12% to public entertainment, 12% for the military, and 9% for the civil administration. The boulevards would be wide and tree-lined, with the built-up areas broken up by numerous large parks.

The city quickly took shape as planned, with the Japanese spending an average of 7 million Yen per annum between 1907 and 1931 – then an astounding sum! A new form of architecture was created that merged traditional Japanese, Manchurian and Chinese elements with contemporary international Art Nouveau (and later Art Deco) influences. In 1919, Changchun became the headquarters of the special Japanese force in Manchuria, the Kwantung Army. By 1931, the city occupied an urban construction zone of 3,967 km2 (1,532 sq mi), with one of the world's largest military bases and no less than 18 police stations.

In 1932, Japan took over all of Manchuria, creating the puppet state of the Empire of Manchukuo, that was in effect a colony under the direct control of Tokyo. Changchun was made the capital of the new state and renamed Shinkyō, literally "New Capital", or Hsinking in Chinese.

Over the rest of the '30s, the urban master plan was expanded and fully realized, as the Japanese invested massively to create a city that they could entirely control. Extremely grand government edifices in the new style were constructed, such as the Imperial Palace of Manchukuo (the home of the puppet Emperor Puyi), and the Eight Major Bureaus of Manchukuo (which survive the present day); some of these sites are photographed on the verso of the present work. Major tree planting operations were carried out which made Shinkyō one of the greenest urban spaces in Asia. The present masterplan shows the city in 1938, when its urban plan was quite mature.

Shinkyō / Hsinking was an incredibly orderly and, on the surface, pleasant place, but this masked the horrific regime of repression, slave labour and police surveillance that the ethnic Han Chinese and Manchurian residents was subjected to. The best residential areas and services were reserved for Japanese officials and colonists, while everyone else endured much lower living standards.

Shinkyō grew rapidly, fueled by its massive military sector. Its population grew from 104,305 in 1932 to 415,473 in 1939 (the year after the present map was made) to 863,607 in 1944. About a quarter of the residents were Japanese officials and colonists.

Throughout almost all of World War II, the Japanese were so confident of their ultimate victory that they continued to invest heavily in Shinkyō / Hsinking, expanding the city and making it into one of the world's largest military bases. By the early 1940s, the built-up area accounted for 80 km2 (31 sq mi), plus formal greenspace areas which took up an additional 70.7 km2 (27.3 sq mi).

However, the city became overweighted with respect to the military and administrative presence, viz. the intended urban plan, with the commercial and manufacturing sectors remaining comparatively small. As a result, Shinkyō / Hsinking was something of an artificial society, buoyed by state money, as opposed to an organic social-industrial environment, as was the case in other large Manchurian cities, such as Harbin and Mukden (Shenyang).

Upon Japan's defeat in World War II, in the late summer of 1945, the Japanese soldiers and colonists beat a hasty retreat, with the city being taken by the Soviets, who remained until 1946, returning the city's name to Changchun. After that point, the Chinese nationalists (Kuomintang) took over Changchun, while Manchuria became one of the great fault lines in the Chinese Civil War. The city was surrounded by Chinese Communist force for five months in 1948, in what became known as the Siege of Changchun. Between 150,000 to 330,000 of the city's residents died, mostly from starvation, in what was one of the greatest atrocities of the conflict.

Following the Communist victory, Changchun recovered somewhat and was made the capital of Jilin Province, while heavy investment made it the 'Automotive Capital of China'. The city benefitted from its orderly layout and faired relatively well through the otherwise dark Maoist era.

Changchun took off economically in the 1990s, became a world-class research centre, while producing 9% of China's automobiles. The population has boomed to today reach almost 5 million in the city proper, with over 9 million in the greater metropolitan region.

References: Harvard University - Yenching Library: GEN Manchukuo J-0843; OCLC: 944329751.

850 EUR

13. China – Harbin
Japanese Occupation of Manchuria (Manchukuo)

哈爾濱市立工藝養成所 / 登喜和百貨店 [HARBIN MUNICIPAL CRAFT TRAINING CENTRE / TOKIWA DEPARTMENT STORE].

哈爾濱市街地圖 [Harubin shigai chizu / Map of Harbin & Environs].

Harbin: 哈爾濱市立工藝養成所 [Harbin Municipal Craft Training Centre], [circa 1936].

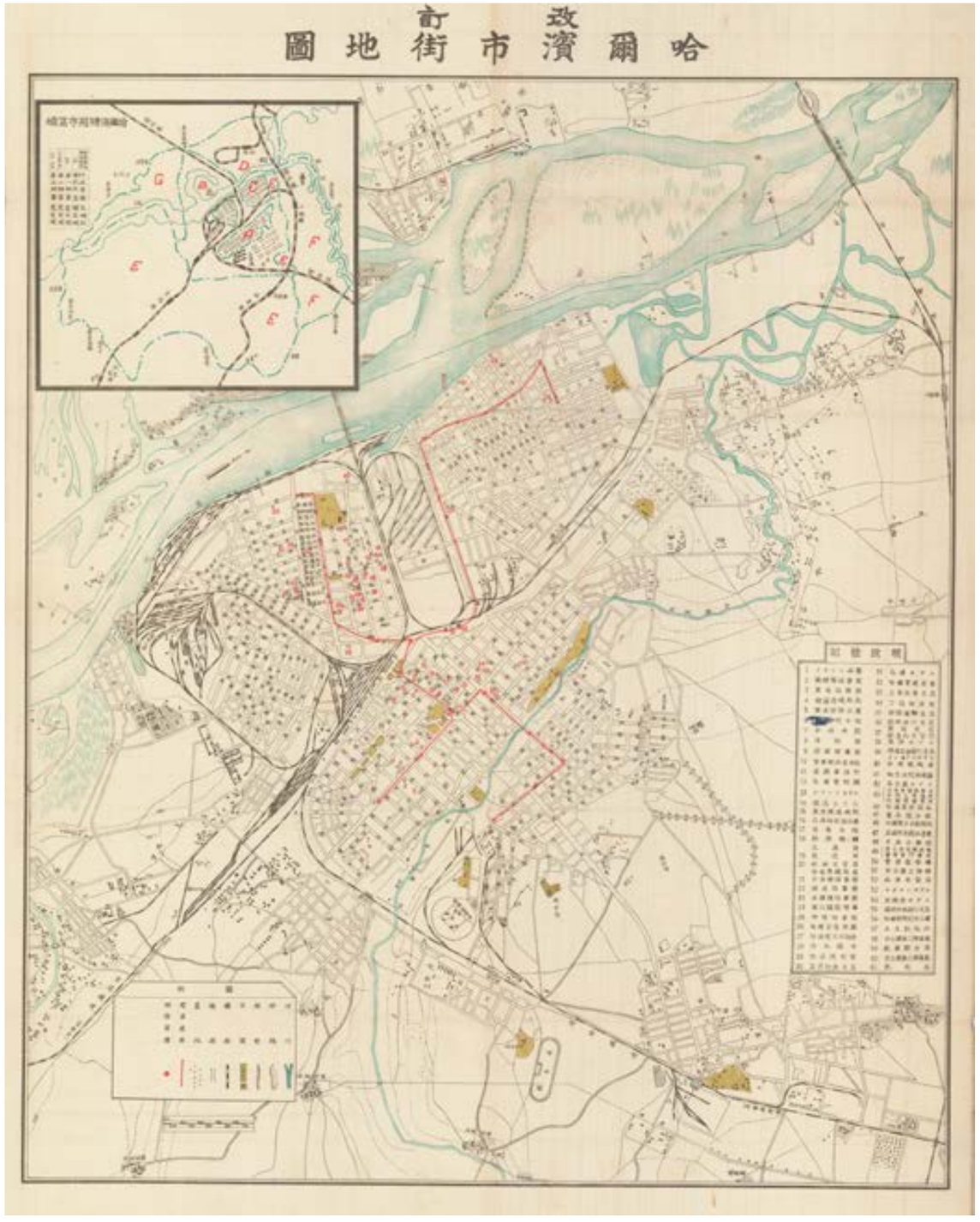
Colour lithograph (Very Good, some light wear and toning along old folds, seemingly lacking original card covers), 68.5 x 54 cm (27 x 21 inches).

A very rare, large format Japanese language map of Harbin, a bustling, multi-cultural commercial and transportation hub and the largest city in what was then 'Manchukuo', the Japanese puppet state ruled Manchuria; printed locally by the officially sanctioned arts and publishing house, the Harbin Municipal Craft Training Centre, under the sponsorship of the Tokiwa Department Store.

This map is a fascinating and attractive artefact from the Japanese occupation of Manchuria (1931-45), a brutal but historically intriguing era. It showcases Harbin, a vibrant, colossal logistics and commercial hub that was founded by the Russians less than four decades prior, but which was now the largest city in the Japanese puppet state of 'Manchukuo', which ruled all of Manchuria.

Manchuria, due to its great natural resources and its strategic location, had since the mid 19th century been one of the geopolitical keystones of the Far East. A watershed moment occurred in 1898, when under foreign pressure, the Chinese Empire allowed Russia to dominate the region. Russia gained Port Arthur (today the Lüshunkou District
of Dalian), and founded the city of Harbin at a key waypoint along the Chinese Eastern Railway (CER), a line that was built across Manchuria from Russian territory to Vladivostok (essentially the CER became the eastern terminus of the Trans-Siberian Railway).

During the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5), Japan utterly throttled Russia, taking over Port Arthur and gaining dominance over southern Manchuria. Russia retained operational control of Northern Manchuria, including Harbin, and the main line of the CER.



By the beginning of the 1930s, Japan had built itself into Asia's most powerful and wealthy military-industrial state and had come to have limitless imperialistic visions of conquest (which ultimately came to disastrous results in World War II). In 1931, Japan invaded and conquered Manchuria, and the following year made the region into the puppet state of Manchukuo. While the Japanese permitted many 'client' peoples to remain in the territory, it proceeded to thoroughly instill Japanese culture and commerce across the region, so setting the scene upon which the present map appeared.

Harbin's story is unlike that of any other city in China. Until it was founded by the Russians as railway hub in 1898, its location was a totally undistinguished rural spot. However, the Russians moved with alacrity to build up the city, hiring Italian and Swiss urban planners to lay out rational grids of streets, parks, squares and room for ample infrastructure, while buildings, many of grand and expensive designs, were built faster than lightening. Thousands of people arrived from across Russia and beyond, riding the CER, which also carried the latest wares from Europe. Harbin's population and economy boomed, creating a metropolis almost out thin air. While the city was dominated by ethnic Russians, there was a very large Jewish community, as well as significant populations of Poles, Tatars, Manchurians, Han Chinese, Japanese, Koreans, and others. This city became one of the great nexuses of cultural exchange in the world, and contemporary accounts describe it as an incredibly exciting place.

Harbin was known as the 'Fashion Capital of the Far East', as it was the first city in where the latest trends arrived from Paris (by was of the CER), weeks or months before they reached Shanghai, Tokyo or Hong Kong. Given Harbin's wealth, its ateliers had the ability to pick off the best suits and accessories before the rest moved further south and east!

During the Russian Civil War (1917-22), thousands of refugees flooded into Harbin fleeing the Soviets, altering its social charter. Many of these 'White Russians' remained in the city after the Japanese takeover in 1931, and through the 1930s Harbin retained its vibrancy, albeit under a very brutal, authoritarian regime.

The present large format, detailed map of Harbin was made in 1936, five years into the Japanese takeover. Based upon official surveys, it was printed by the local arts and publishing house, the Harbin Municipal Craft Training Centre, under the sponsorship of the Tokiwa Department Store. It showcases the city's unique urban plan, showing it to be composed a series of distinct neighborhoods, often separated by spurs of the CER, the lifeblood of the city. The streets and parklands follow rational patterns in line the with the best modern practices of European urban planning, while the red lines running along certain streets represent the city's electric tram system, one of the most modern in Asia. Also, of note, is the great Binzhou Railway Bridge (which still exists to this day), which is seen crossing the Songhua River, carrying the main line of the CER across the Songhua River.

At the end of World War II, the Soviets took over Harbin, before giving way to Chinese Communist administration. Under Mao Zedong's rule the city lost its international character and suffered the levelling of its economy. It was not until the 1990s that Harbin came roaring back; it now has population of over 6 million and one of the most vibrant economies in China.

The map is rare, examples only very seldom appear on the market.

References: National Diet Library: 292.253: Asia.

680 EUR

14. Guyana – Georgetown Urban Masterplan

DIRECTORATE OF OVERSEAS SURVEYS (GREAT BRITAIN).

Greater Georgetown / Guyana. / North Sheet [and] South Sheet.

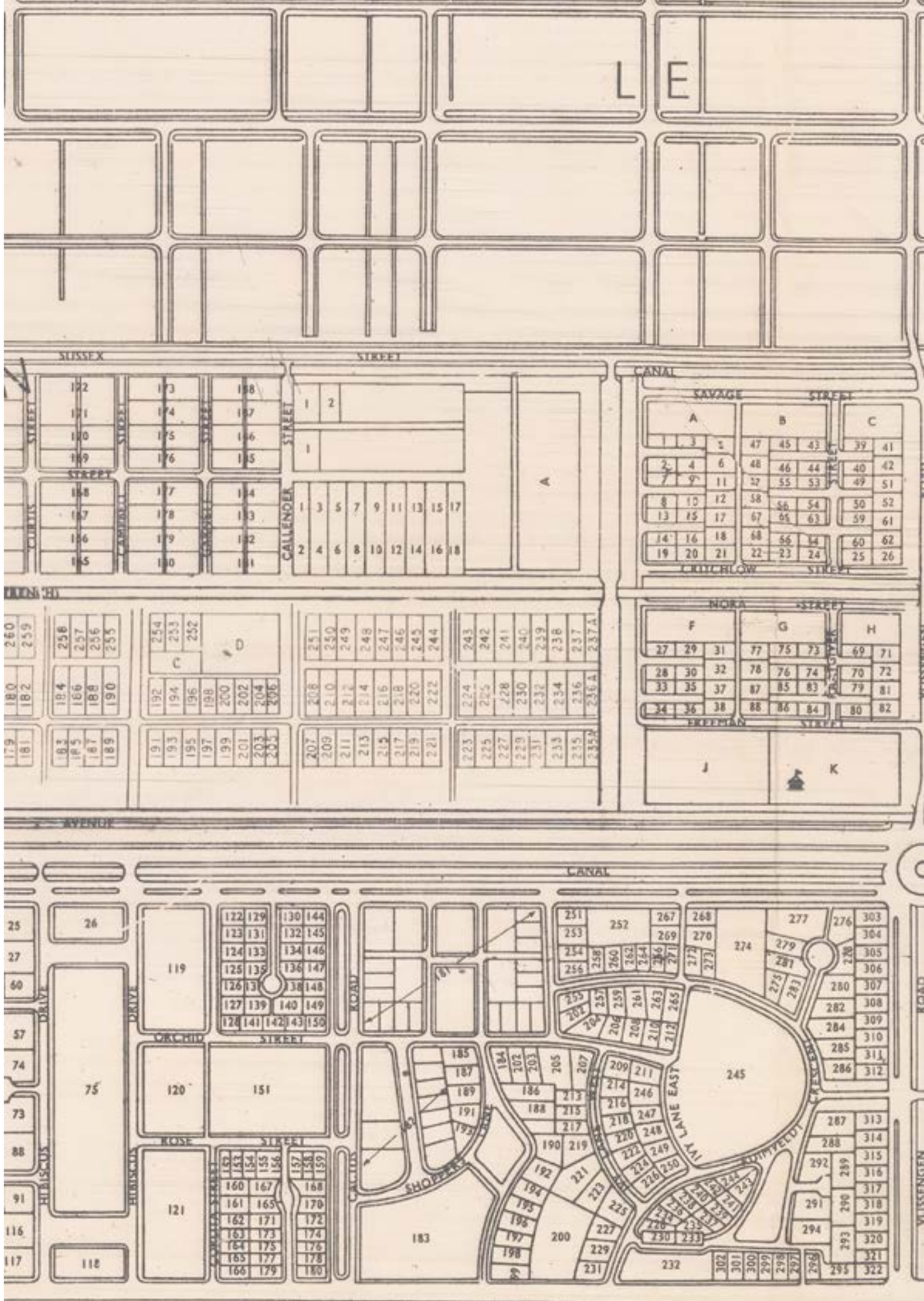
[Tolworth, Surrey:] Directorate of Overseas Surveys, 1961 [but here reproduced very shortly thereafter, in either Britain or British Guiana].

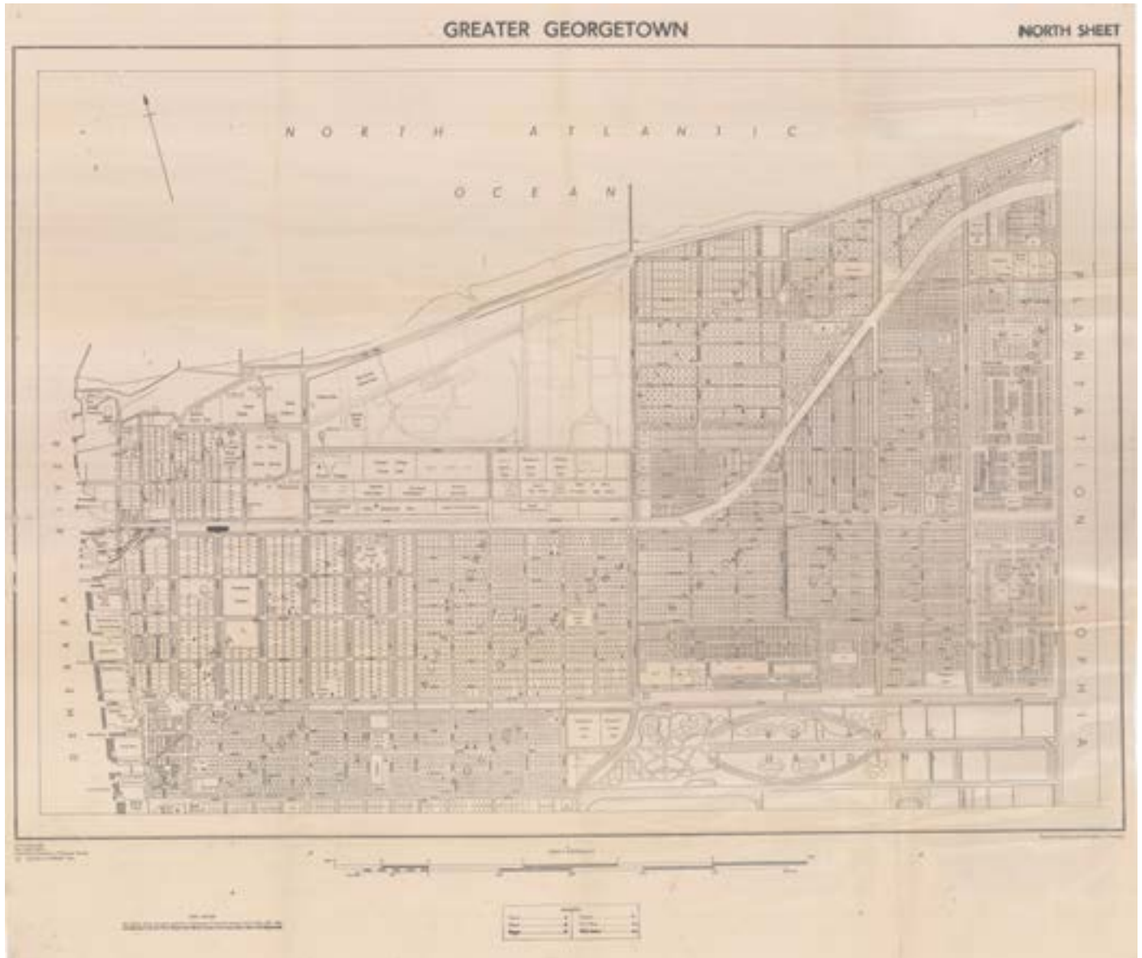
Photographic duplication, on 2 un-joined sheets (Very Good, clean and bright, just some light creasing at some fold vertices), North Sheet: 90 x 99.5 cm; South Sheet: 88 x 101 cm, if joined would form a map: 150.5 x 99.5 cm (59 x 39 inches).

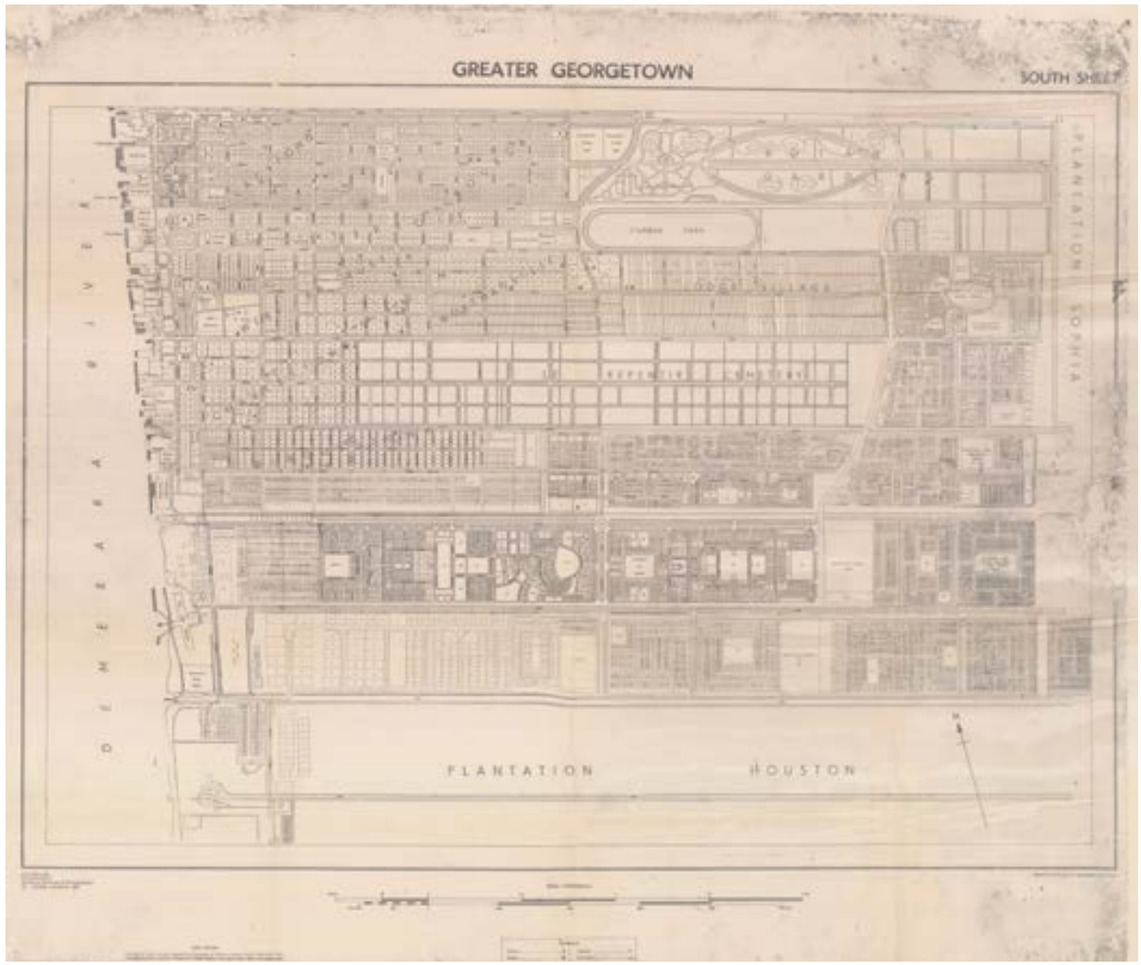
An exceedingly detailed, very large masterplan of Georgetown, then the capital of British Guiana (today Guyana), amazingly defining every property lot, outlining and labeling every major building, depicting all parks and recreational facilities, and delineating every street and alleyway, being one of the most 'panoptic' of all West Indian city maps of its era; created by the Directorate of Overseas Surveys (DOS), the special post-WWII agency that scientifically mapped Britain's colonies as they prepared for their independence, the present example is a contemporary photographic duplication of the Tolworth printing, either made in Britain or in British Guiana.

This is a grand masterplan of Georgetown, then the capital of the colony of British Guiana (today's Guyana), a bustling multicultural port city located where the mighty Demerara River meets the Atlantic Ocean. It was made from the very best and most recent sources, being trigonometrical surveys done by the colonial government, as well as municipal cadastral plans, and issued by the Directorate of Overseas Surveys (DOS), the special post-WWII agency that scientifically mapped Britain's colonies as they prepared for their independence.

Importantly, the present example of the map is a contemporary photographic duplication of the DOS's 1961 first edition Tolworth, Surrey printing, either made in Britain or in British Guiana, probably by either some official authority or land developer. As a large map, produced in a limited print run, originals would seemingly have been in short supply, and it seems that an antecedent example was duplicated sometime within a few years after the first issue. While the print quality is little crude, all details are clear and faithful to the content of the antecedent.




GREATER GEORGETOWN
NORTH SHEET
NORTH ATLANTIC
OCEAN


GREATER GEORGETOWN
SOUTH SHEET
PLANTATION
HOUSTON

Georgetown started out as a small Dutch settlement in the mid-18th century, later named 'Stabroek', amidst a land of sugar plantations. In 1812, after the British took over the colony, they renamed the town after George III. Georgetown grew rapidly due to an ongoing commodities boom, leading to the construction of many grand public and commercial buildings. British Guiana transitioned from the end of slavery in the 1830s, proceeding to import East Indian and Chinese migrant labourers to buttress its agrarian economy, while the lumber and mining sectors remained buoyant. By the early 196os, when the present map was made, Georgetown was one of the most vibrant and well-ordered cities in the West Indies and was preparing the become the national capital of Guyana, which achieved its independence in 1966.

The map showcases the entire city, which is laid out in an orderly grid of streets, protected by a seawall and crossed by canals, legacies of the former Dutch colonial presence and the fact that the city lies almost a metre below sea level, so requiring constant water regulation. Amazingly, the map defines every property lot, outlines and labels every major building, depicts all parks and recreational facilities, and delineates every street and alleyway, making it one of the most detailed of all mid-century West Indian urban plans. It is an incomparable resource for scholars of Georgetown or, more broadly, urban development in the tropical Americas.

The western front of the city, along the Demerara River, is lined with quays and the warehouses of numerous named businesses and crown agencies. All neighbourhoods are labelled and the old downtown, centre-left, features numerous historical sites. These include the 'Parliament Building' (which housed the colonial Assembly, today the National Assembly, designed by the architect Joseph Hatfield and completed in 1834); 'Stabroek Market' (founded in 1792, and since the commercial heart of the city); 'City Hall' (a neo-Gothic structure, built in 1889); St. George's Cathedral (completed in 1899; a magnificent all-wooden church 43.5 metres high); 'Christ Church' (established in 1836 after its Anglican congregation had separated from St. Georges Church); 'St. Andrew's Kirk' (the oldest surviving house of worship in Georgetown, built for a Dutch Reformed Congregation in 1811, but was re-consecrated as a Presbyterian church in 1818); and the 'Brickdam Catholic Cathedral' (more formally the Cathedral of the Immaculate Conception).

Elsewhere are numerous named parks, the most notable of which is the Georgetown Botanical Gardens, a verdant tropical oasis, created in 1878. In the south, are the new suburbs, featuring labyrinthine street plans, while in the city's north are various sports clubs, recreational facilities and educational institutions, located upon large lots. The famous Georgetown Lighthouse (built 1830), above the old colonial bastion of Fort William Henry, guards the entrance to the river.

The Directorate of Overseas Surveys (DOS), which created the map, was a special agency established immediately after World War II whose mandate was to scientifically map Britain's colonies as they prepared for their independence. Headquartered in Tolworth, Surrey, the DOS either applied the best existing aerial surveys or commissioned new ones, to create colonial-national maps of peerless accuracy. Its first major project was a colossal 12-sheet map of Jamacia, published in 1947, done to scale of 1:50,000, based upon controlled mosaic surveys executed for the United States Air Force in 1941-2. This was the inspiration for the mapping of other places, including Barbados, the Leeward Islands and British Guiana.

The Directorate of Overseas Surveys issued the present map in two editions, the first in 1961 (from which the present work is based) and the second, in 1967. While examples of the map are held by several libraries worldwide, many of which had contemporary DOS subscriptions, examples practically never appear on the market.

References: Cf. (re: original 1961 DOS edition:) British Library: Cartographic Items Maps 84010.(28.); OCLC: 557508800, 84992800.

1.200 EUR

15. Philippines - World War II
‘Top Secret’ Japanese Aviation Map

大日本帝國陸地測量部 参謀本部 [Dai Nihon tei kuni rikuchisokuryō-bu sanbō honbu / GENERAL STAFF HEADQUARTERS of the JAPANESE IMPERIAL LAND SURVEY DEPARTMENT].

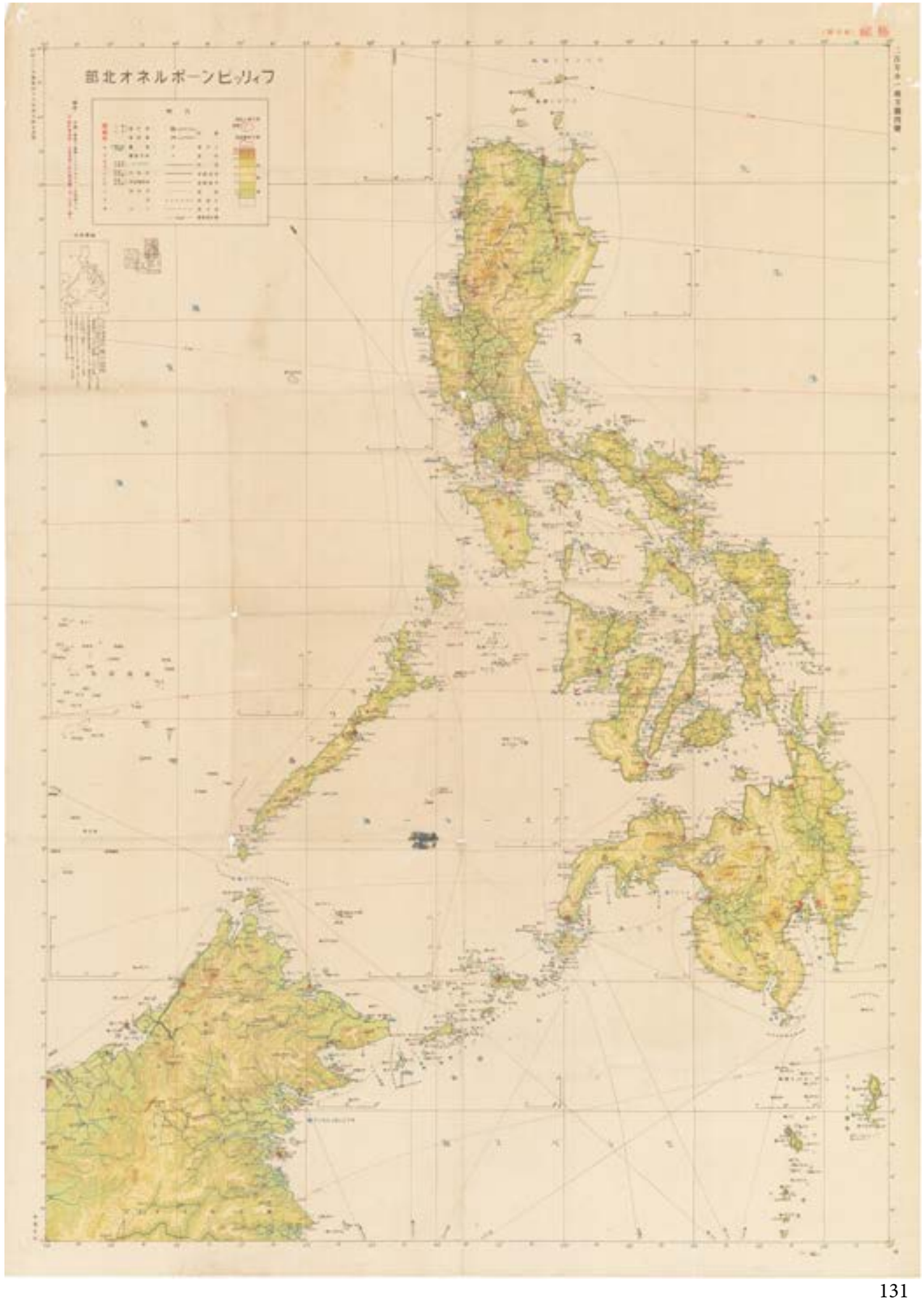
フィリピンーボルネオ北部 [Firipinboruneo hokubu / Philippines – North Borneo].

Tokyo: 参謀本部, [Sanbō Honbu / General Staff], Showa 19 [1944].

Colour lithograph with some contemporary manuscript annotations in rose crayon (Good, some wear and toning along old folds with some small holes at some fold vertices, light even toning and a couple small stains plus a small old ink stain near centre, some minor chipping along blank margins and old tack marks to corners), 109 × 79 cm (43 x 31 inches).

An exceedingly rare and important 極秘 (“Gokuhi” / “Top Secret”) edition of the seminal WWII Japanese aviation map of the Philippines and North Borneo, made by the General Staff of the Imperial Land Survey Department as the primary strategic aid used by the Japanese Air Force in 1944, when the occupying regime had to defend the islands from a massive U.S. invasion led by General Douglas MacArthur, resulting in some of greatest battles of the entire war, during which air power played a decisive role; the present super-classified edition features extensive militarily sensitive information, such as the locations of numerous Japanese airfields and seaplane bases, as well various types of navigational beacons and meteorological stations, intelligence that Tokyo would not want to fall into American or Filipino hands! – the present example featuring manuscript additions seemingly added during the Battle of Luzon, the final chapter of the conflict.

This is an extremely rare and historically important artefact of the World War II Japanese occupation of the Philippines, being a ‘Top Secret’ aviation map of the islands made by the General Staff of the Imperial Land Survey Department, in 1944, just before the Japanese had to defend the Philippines from a massive U.S. invasion led by General Douglas MacArthur, that commenced in October of that year, and led to the famous showdowns of the Battle of Leyte Gulf and the Battle of Luzon, during which air power played a key role. Critically, the map, which shows the locations of Japanese airfields, navigational markers and metrological stations, was the definitive strategic aid used by top Japanese commanders and politicians as they planned how to resist the American juggernaut.



The map embraces the entire Philippine Archipelago, which had been under tenuous Japanese occupation for almost three years, as well as North Borneo (Sabah and Brunei), traditionally a British colonial zone, but likewise under Japanese control. The large format map is built up a highly accurate topographical template, outlining coastlines and waterways; with elevations shown by gradations of colour, with spot height marking major peaks; the labeling of all cities and major towns; the delineation of railways and key roads; the locations of ports; while major shipping routes are represented by black dashed lines. Lines of magnetic variation (as of 1937) are shown by purple dashed lines.

Importantly, the map is marked 極秘 ("Gokuhi" / "Top Secret"), in red, printed in the upper right corner, and for good reason, as it features a great deal of militarily sensitive information that the Japanese high command would not want to fall into the hands of the Americans, or the Filipino guerrillas who had been bravely struggling to liberate their country.

As explained in the legend (upper left), it labels the locations of Japanese airfields (Red Double Circles); Seaplane landing sites (Red Small Single Circles); as well as symbols identifying the locations of various types of navigational beacons and meteorological stations. Thus, it provides Japanese aviators with all the base intelligence they would need to operate around the theatre.

Significantly, the present example of the map shows clear signs of wartime use. It has old tack marks in the corners, suggesting that it was hung up on the wall of a Japanese Air Force HQ. It also features several manuscript annotations in rose crayon, including arrows marking directions in the Lingaya Gulf and Subic Bay in Luzon, as well as in the Verde Islands Strait, which separates Luzon from Mindoro, in addition to some underlining of place names in the Manila area and the circling of the Cordillera Central, in northern Luzon (a key base for Filipino guerillas). The manuscript additions indicate the map was used by Japanese officers during the Battle of Luzon (January 9 – August 15, 1945).

Air power played a critical role in all theatres of World War II, but due the unique geography of the Philippines, which was comprised of numerous, rugged islands, it was especially important in that theatre. The Japanese enjoyed a massive air advantage early in the war which allowed them to take operational control over the islands by the spring of 1942. They maintained this advantage until October 1944, when the Americans flooded the skies with planes, greatly outnumbering the Japanese flyers and shooting down their planes, while bombing their airfields. The U.S. Air Force's dismembering of Japanese air power was critical to the liberation of the islands, which occurred in stages between October 1944 and August 1945.

A Note on Rarity & Editions

The present edition of the map, which is labeled as the 'revised edition of Showa 19 is exceedingly rare; we cannot trace the location of any other examples, nor can we find references to the map. This is not so surprising, as such 'Top Secret' WWII Japanese military maps would only have been issued in a very small quantities for the exclusive use of a tiny circle of very senior Japanese military officers and politicians, while the survival rate of such large fragile maps is remarkably low. Indeed, many examples would likely had been intentionally destroyed to prevent them from falling into American or Filipino hands.

We are aware of two earlier editions of the map, one published in August 1941, not long before the Japanese invasion of the Philippines, and another issued in June 1942. While we have not been able to examine an example of the 1942 edition, we are familiar with the 1941 edition, which, unlike the present 1944 issue, is not marked as 'Top Secret', is printed in greyscale and features far less military information (of course, it does not label Japanese airfields, navigational beacons or meteorological stations). The 1941 and 1942 editions are very rare, known in only a single institutional example each, both held by the National Diet Library.

The Japanese Invasion and Occupation of the Philippines (1941-5) & the American Reprise

The Japanese occupation of the Philippines (1941-45), and the battles that it involved, were amongst the seminal events of World War II in the Pacific. Due the geography of the Philippines, which was an immense archipelago of rugged islands, many hundreds of miles long, aviation played an incredibly important role in the outcome of military events and Japan's ability to maintain any sense of control over the country.
Up the war, the Philippines had been a U.S. protectorate since 1902, in the wake of the conquest the islands during the Spanish-American War of 1898. Yet, the islands were coveted by Japan for their strategic location and their natural resources, while Tokyo found such a major American presence so near their shores to be intolerable.
Japan entered World War II upon its sneak attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941. The American armed forces in the Philippines, led by the brilliant, yet flawed, commander General Douglas MacArthur, were given as much as nine hours advance notice of a possible Japanese attack upon the country but, for whatever reason, did next to nothing.

Almost all the U.S. Air Force squadron in the Philippines, known as the Far East Air Force (FEAF), numbering 200 aircraft, were parked at Clark Airfield, 45 miles north of Manila. A little after midday on December 8, the Japanese air force attacked Clarke Field, destroying half of the American planes, while rendering many more temporarily inoperable. This doomed the American hold over the Philippines.
That same day a massive Japanese landing force, backed by 541 airplanes of the 5th Air Group out of Taiwan, commanded by Lieutenant General Hideyoshi Obata, attacked the Philippines, soon taking control of Manila and other vital centres. American and Filipino forces continued to hold out in some places, but formally surrendered on May 2, 1942. The Japanese treated their 76,000 POWs with atrocious barbarity, with 7-10,000 perishing during the infamous 'Bataan Death March'.

Japan's occupational regime was gratuitously harsh and cruel, subjecting the Filipino people to daily misery and exploitation, while the islands' natural resources were plundered. Over 500,000 Filipinos died during the period. Popular resentment led to the rise of a powerful and widespread guerrilla movement, that succeeded in harrying the Japanese regime, taking control of many rural areas, accounting for 60% of the country. In some regions, Japan's only way to strike the freedom fighters was by air.

On the day that he was forced to flee the Philippines early in the war, General MacArthur promised to return someday to liberate the islands. On October 20, 1944, he landed on Leyte Island, at the head of a colossal force of 174,000 men, who arrived aboard 700 ships, and supported by hundreds of aircraft. It was at this point that Japan lost its air superiority, as the skies were overwhelmed by American planes, a portent of the fall of the occupational regime.

The American invasion led to the Battle of Leyte Gulf (October 23-26, 1944), the greatest naval battle of World War II, during which 300 U.S. ships and 1,500 planes squared off against a Japanese force of 67 vessels and 300 planes. The outgunned Japanese suffered a crushing defeat, which placed them on the backfoot for the duration of the conflict, although they did not go down easily, mounting many kamikaze operations, resulting in great losses to American and Filipino forces.

The final chapter of the war was the Battle of Luzon (January 9 – August 15, 1945), during which the U.S. and Filipino forces fought valiantly to take the country's main island. By this time, Japanese air power had been decimated, mortally wounding Japan's ability to hold the Philippines.

The centrepiece of the Luzon Campaign was the fight for the capital, the Battle of Manila (February 3 to March 3, 1945), which concluded with the Americans evicting the Japanese from the city, but only after much of it was destroyed and over 100,000 of its residents killed.

By the summer of 1945, the Japanese forces were pretty much spent, but they continued to fight until the end of the war in September.

While the Filipino people had suffered greatly during the conflict, they could be proud of their brave and, in many cases successful, resistance to the Japanese occupation. This gave them a new level of national consciousness and self-confidence as the Philippines attained its independence from the United States in 1946.

References: N/A – No examples of the present 1944 edition traced. Cf. (Re: 1941 ed.:) National Diet Library: YG837, OCLC: 683313283; (Re: 1942 ed.:) National Diet Library: YG837-796, OCLC: 676382013.

2.400 EUR

16. Vietnam / Cambodia / Laos Geological Atlas Đà Lạt, Vietnam Imprint

NHA ĐỊA-DƯ QUỐC-GIA VIỆT-NAM (SERVICE GÉOGRAPHIQUE NATIONAL DU VIET-NAM). / André LOCHARD (1880 - 1946), Jacques FROMAGET (1886 - 1956) and Vinh Phuong NGUYỄN, et al.
Bản Đo Địa chat Cam-bot-Lào-Việt-nam 1:500,000 / Carte géologique Viet-Nam – Cambodge – Laos 1:500,000 / Geological Map Vietnam – Cambodia – Laos 1:500,000.

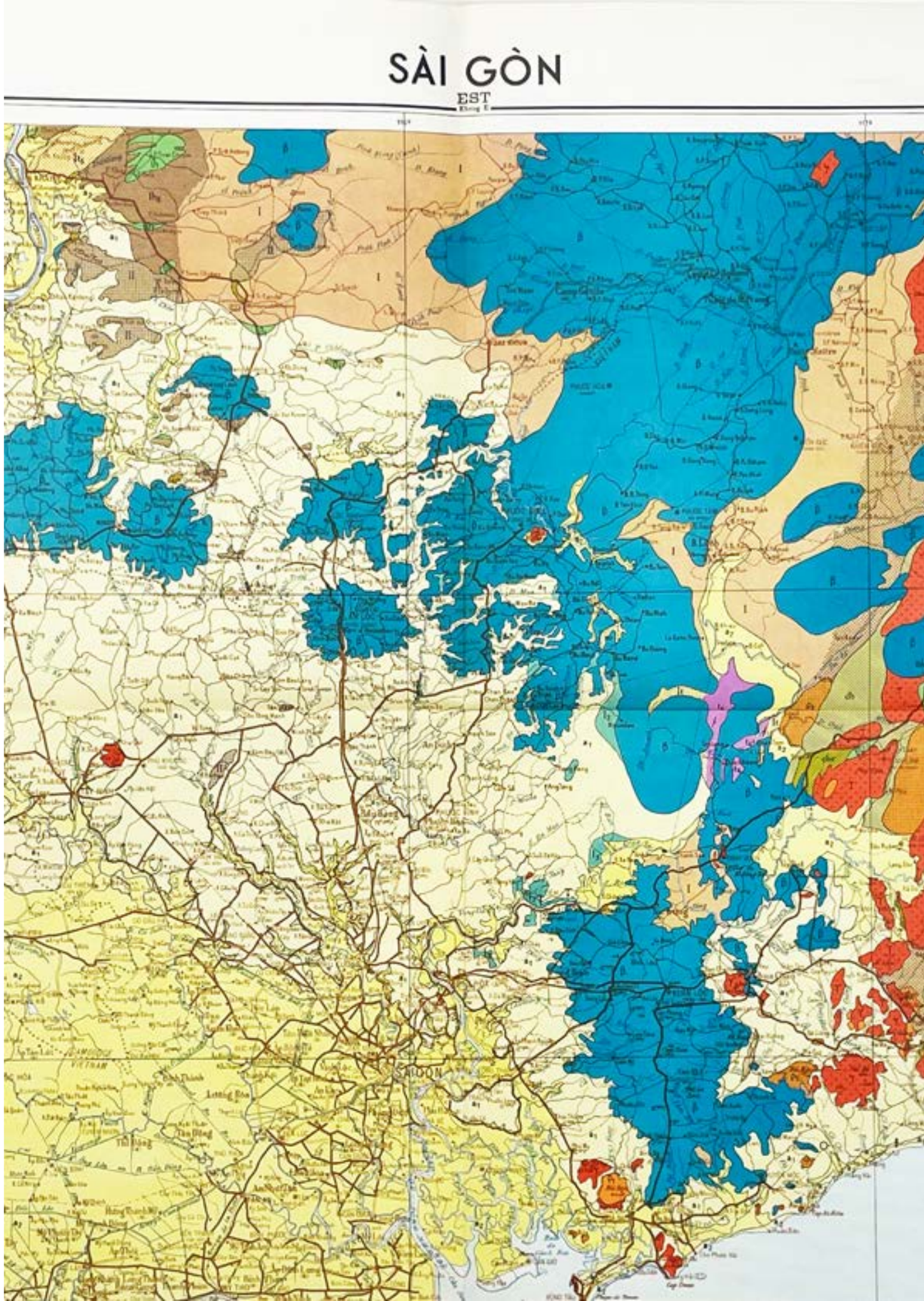
[Đà Lạt (Dalat), South Vietnam:] Service géographique national du Viet-Nam, 1961 – 1963.

Oblong 4º Atlas (31 x 37.5 cm): [1 p. title with key map], 22 folding colour lithographed maps mounted on guards, most 59.5 x 67 cm, but some larger, one up to 59.5 x 89 cm, each with pastedown label to verso; bound in original green half cloth with green 'crocodile pattern' boards, with pastedown title to front cover (Excellent, nearly mint condition, maps remarkably clean and crisp with lovely colours, binding with only the slightest edge-wear); N.B.: The constituent map sheets can potentially be joined to form a giant map of irregular dimensions, maximum approximately: 368.5 x 196 cm (145 x 77 inches).

A practically mint condition example of a beautiful and scientifically sophisticated geological atlas of Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos (comprising the former colony of French Indochina), featuring 22 large format map sheets that can potentially be joined into a colossal geological map (measuring almost 3.7 x 2 metres!); the map was printed while the Vietnam War raged by the National Geological Service of (South) Vietnam, in the hill town of Đà Lạt, northeast of Saigon, and occupies and important place in the history of the earth sciences in the region, being both the apogee of the French colonial geological mapping of Indochina and the genesis of geological exploration by Vietnamese, Cambodian and Laotian scientists – very rare as complete.

This highly attractive and technically impressive atlas, or mega-map (depending on its format), occupies an important place in the history of the earth sciences of Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos. It represents the bridge between the geological mapping of the former colony of French Indochina (which embraces all three said countries), largely conducted by French scientists, and the new post-independence mapping executed by Vietnamese, Cambodian and Laotian specialists, forming the foundation for all the work that had been done up the present day.

The atlas was made by the Service géographique national du Viet-Nam (Bản Đồ Địa chất Cam-bốt-Lào-Việt-nam), the geological mapping institute of South Vietnam, which was the local successor of the long-standing French colonial agency, the Service



VIENTANE

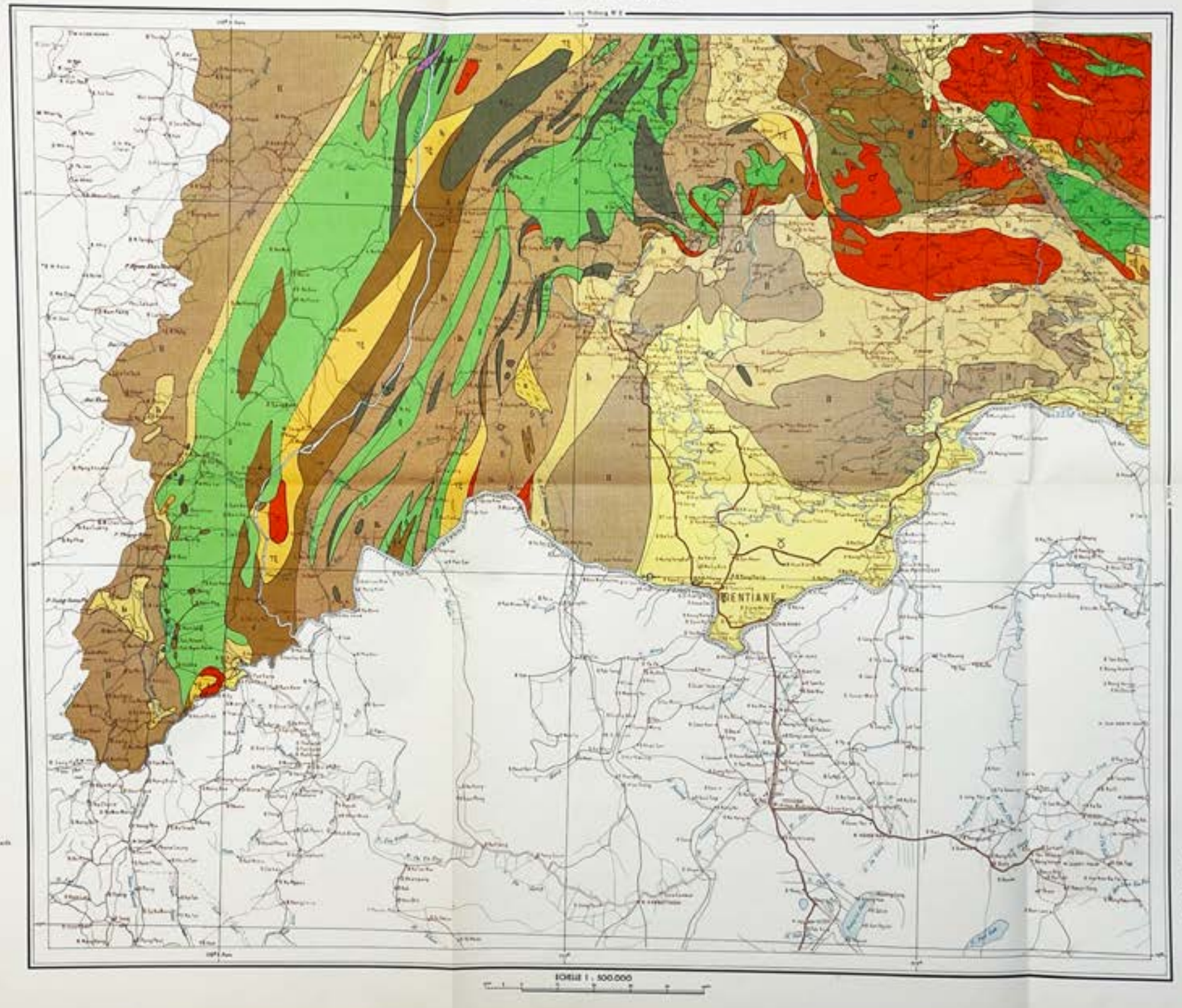
BẢN-ĐỒ ĐỊA-CHẤT
CARTE GÉOLOGIQUE
GEOLOGICAL MAP
1:500.000

FEUILLE N° 7

LÉGENDE

Terrains sédimentaires

Terrains cristallins



géologique de l'Indochine, based in Hanoi (Vietnam gained its independence in 1954 but since 1955 had been divided into the pro-Western capitalist South and the Communist North, resulting in the ongoing Vietnam War (1955-75)).

The atlas features 22 large format folding maps covering all the territory of Vietnam (both North and South), Cambodia and Laos, all colour lithographed in resplendent hues to identify geological zones. The maps were originally separately and serially published between 1961 and 1963 at the Service géographique's headquarters in Đà Lạt, a bucolic resort town that sits at an elevation of 1,500 metres in the mountains, to the northeast of Saigon. The complete series of maps were assembled and bound into atlas form, as here, in 1963. Alternatively, the sheets could be joined to form a geological mega-map of Indochina, of irregular dimensions, with maximum measurements of almost 3.7 x 2 metres.

Each of the finely designed and colour lithographed map sheets is built upon a highly accurate topographic template taken from official trigonometric surveys, and are overprinted in bright hues showing geological zones, which are explained in the margins, including classifications of sedimentary and crystalline rocks. Additionally, in the margins are the symbols used to identify fault lines, and the presence of various minerals and resources, such as gold, iron, oil, copper, graphite, lead, salt, mercury, carbon, antimony, etc. Only the geological zones and resources present on each sheet are noted in the appropriate margins, such that the legends are customized for each map. While the legends of the sheets are only in French, the titles and explanations are trilingual (Vietnamese, French and English).

To be clear, the present atlas includes the complete suite of maps of the series, numbering 22 sheets, although the numbering of the maps is somewhat eccentric. The numbering is not cleanly sequential, as it is based upon an old grid system favoured by the former colonial authorities, such that the map sheets are numbered as 1, 2E, 2W, 4W, 4E, 5W, 5E, 7, 8W, 8E, 11W, 11E, 12, 13, 14W, 14E, 15, 16, 17W, 17E, 18, 20; with 'E' being the eastern part of the quadrant, and 'W' being the western part. It seems that when the map sheets were issued separately, they often were accompanied by a descriptive text sheet; these were omitted when the sheets were bound in atlas form, as here.

The story behind the creation of the atlas is intriguing, and commences in French Indochina (Union indochinoise), the federated mega-colony that comprised of all modern Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos, that existed between 1887 and 1954. While the French regime was responsible for suppressing the local peoples, it did succeed in rapidly modernizing the region, building several grand cities, sophisticated infrastructure and large enterprises of economic development (mines, plantations, ports, etc.).

Geological mapping, including of an advanced nature, commenced in the region not long after the first French colonial holdings were established in Cochinchina (far southern Vietnam) in the 1860s (the first part the future French Indochina), and further geological surveys continued to be undertaken as the French further developed the landscape. By the 1920s, there were stellar geological maps of certain key places, usually of the vicinities of major cities, mining areas or along the routes of railways, etc.; however, the coverage of geological cartography across French Indochina was highly uneven, such that some places were exquisitely mapped, while others were scarcely mapped at all. As France maintained grand colonial ambitions to further develop Indochina, the lack of a systematically and scientifically created geological map of the entire region, executed to a uniform standards and scale, came to be seen as major barrier to progress.

The Service géologique de l'Indochine, headquartered in Hanoi, the capital of Indochina, was established with the purpose of eventually creating such a standardized, advanced, all-encompassing survey of Indochina. This was a monumental endeavour, made even more challenging by unforeseen geopolitical events.

In 1927, the Chief of the Service géologique, André Lochard (1880–1946), commenced fieldwork on the first complete, systematic scientific geological survey of all Indochina. The survey was to be executed upon a large uniform scale, with a plan to print the survey on 15 large sheets, to be separately and serially issued under the title Carte géologique de l'Indochine à l'échelle du 1:500,000 ([Hanoi:] Service géographique de l'Indochine, 1931-53).

The maps were designed and colour lithographed under the supervision of Vinh Phuong Nguyên, the Vietnamese master cartographer and draftsman, whose key role on the Service's team is indicative of the fact that by the 1930s academic ventures in Indochina were increasingly becoming a multicultural affair, as opposed to the exclusive province of French and other European scientists.

From 1933, the project was spearheaded with gusto by Jacques Fromaget (1886–1956), who took over as the Chief of the Service, personally supervising field work to ensure quality control. The endeavour also received the enthusiastic support of Maurice Gassier (1880 - 1957), the Inspecteur Général des Travaux Publics de l'Indochine, who possessed wealth of geological information acquired through his infrastructure projects, as well as immense financial and technical resources, which he shared with the Service.

The sheets of the Carte géologique de l'Indochine continued to be gradually issued. However, the Japanese invasion of conquest of Vietnam, in September 1940, severely retarded the project, although some activities were still permitted by the occupying authorities. To make matters even more difficult, not long after the Japanese were defeated and evicted from Indochina, in the summer of 1945, the region descended into all-out rebellion against French rule during the Indochina War (1946-54). While the Service was able to continue its activities in French-controlled Hanoi, progress was challenging, and the last of the Carte géologique's 16 sheets was only completed in 1953, the year before France was entirely driven from the region (Vietnam gained its

BẢN-ĐỒ ĐỊA-CHẤT

CAM-BỐT _ LÀO _ VIỆT-NAM

TỶ-LỆ 1 : 500.000

independence in 1954, but fractured into South and North Vietnam in 1955). While a small number of sets of the Carte géologique de l'Indochine were bound in atlas form, the separately issued sheets were seldom collected, and the complete work it today very rare, known in only a handful of examples.

Upon the fall of the French colonial regime in 1954, the Service géologique de l'Indochine was disbanded, although it seems that some of its records and resources managed to be transported to South Vietnam. This was fortunate, as geological surveying was then not really a priority for the communist North Vietnamese. Eventually, the Service géographique national du Viet-Nam was founded in the celebrious climate of Đà Lạt, with the ambition of continuing the former French Service's mission. Conducting new field work was virtually impossible, due to the ongoing Vietnam War (1955-75), so the priority was to resurrect, improve and repackage the Carte géologique de l'Indochine, the sheets of which were, even by the late 1950s, very hard to come by.

It was in this context that the present Carte géologique Viet-Nam – Cambodge – Laos was endeavored, with the information from Vinh Phuong Nguyên original 1931-53 map sheets reformatted into 22 (generally smaller) sheets (as opposed to the original 16 sheets). The sheets were also issued with titles and explanations in a trilingual form (Vietnamese, French and English) to honour the home language, while making the work accessible to an international audience (the former sheets were only in French), while some limited improvements were made.

The fall of South Vietnam in 1975, saw the dissolution of the Service géographique national du Viet-Nam, whose activities were rolled into the Communist-run Vietnam Institute of Geosciences and Mineral Resources (headquartered in Hanoi), which during the post-war period eventually came to operate at a high scientific standard. The Carte géologique Viet-Nam – Cambodge – Laos served as the basis for their endeavours and was only superseded after many years, as new field work arrived from across Vietnam, and eventually Cambodia and Laos (which suffered their own political and military tragedies).

A Note on Rarity

A complete collection of the 22 map sheets, either gathered loose, or in atlas form, is very rare. As the sheets were issued separately over two-year period, in limited print runs, within a mildly chaotic wartime environment, it seems that even contemporary subscribers to the Service Géographique National su Viet-Nam's publications had hard time receiving the complete set.

We can trace only 4 institutional holdings of the complete suite of 22 maps, held by Columbia University; University of California – Santa Barbara; University of California – Los Angeles; and the ETH-Bibliothek (Zürich). Various other institutions hold either single sheets or partial sets.

References: Columbia University: G8021.C5 s500.V5; University of California – Santa Barbara: 6737 .I52s C5 500 .V5; University of California – Los Angeles: G8006s .C5 500 NGSVN; ETH-Bibliothek (Zürich): KS Kartensammlung K P 214011; OCLC: 39334351, 496094493.

1.400 EUR

17. China - Mukden (Shenyang)
Japanese Occupation of Manchuria (Manchukuo)

飯尾耕平 [Kōhei IIO].

最新奉天市街地圖: 地番入詳密: 電車バス系統圖: 列車發着時刻表 [Saishin Hōten shi-gai chizu: chibaniri shōmitsu: densha basu keitōzu: ressha hatchaku jikokuhyō / Latest Map of the Mukden City Area: Numbered Cadastral Lots: Train and Bus System: Train Arrival Timetable].

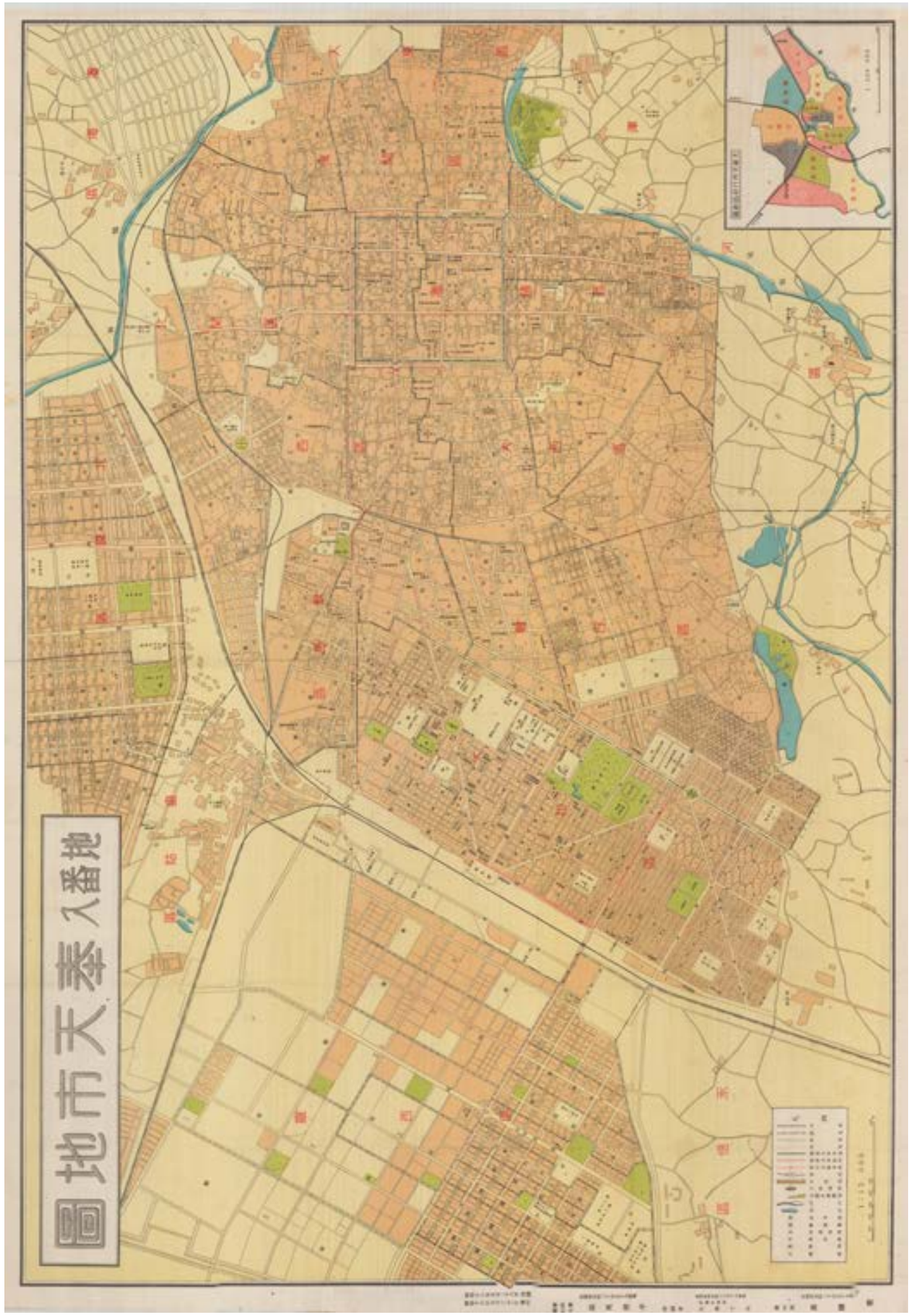
[Seoul, Korea:] Shiseidō, Shōwa 16 [1941].

Colour photolithograph, folding into original printed card covers, small slip of paper with train timetable glued to inside of front cover (Very Good, clean and bright, covers with old repairs to split spine hinge), 53.5 x 75.5 cm (21 x 29.5 inches).

A very rare and detailed map of Mukden (today Shenyang), the city in Southern Manchuria, that was famously the scene of the 'Mukden Incident' (1931), the false flag operation that led to the Japanese takeover of all Manchuria, making it into the puppet state of Manchukuo; the map, published in Seoul, in Japanese-occupied Korea, was made by the cartographer Kōhei Iio just before Japan entered World War II, when Mukden was an industrial colossus and a lynchpin of the Japanese martial effort, with the city shown distinctly comprised of the old walled Chinese town and the sleek, modern Japanese zone; the highly detailed picture features numbered cadastral lots and showcases the state-of the-art train and bus system.

This very high-quality and detailed urban plan showcases Mukden (Shenyang) as it appeared in 1941, when it was the largest industrial centre in Manchuria, which was then the Japanese puppet-state of the Empire of Manchukuo. Captured here on the eve of Japan's formal entry into World War II (in late 1941), Mukden played a central role in Japan's war effort, whereupon Manchukuo's vast agrarian and mineral wealth was converted into ammunitions, manufactured goods and processed food.

The map showcases all of Mukden and its suburbs, a metropolitan area that was then home to almost 1.2 million people, its population having tripled over the last decade. The Chinese / Manchu old town is easily distinguishable on the right-hand side, its labyrinthine blocks of streets, enclosed by its square walls. The new Chinese neighborhoods that had developed, since around 1900, spread out from the old town an all sides.



In a sharp visual contrast, to the centre-right, to the side of line of the South Manchuria Railway (the economic lifeline of the region), is the new Japanese city (today Shenyang's downtown-commercial centre, known as the Zhonghua Road District). It was designed with radial streets emanating from the main station, lined with grand buildings, and neighbourhoods of even grids of streets with ample parks and services. As the map indicates, the Japanese officials and colonists lived the good life in their fine quarters, while the Han Chinese and Manchurian residents, plus the Korean 'guest workers', had to endure much a lower standard in the older neighbourhoods. Beyond the railway lands, are the suburbs which contained a mixture of Japanese colonies and industrial estates.

Impressively, in a feature that rarely appears on such maps, the numerous cadastral lots across the city are individually numbered, information that would have come directly from the municipal property registrer. The lines of Mukden's ultra-modern tram and bus system, one the finest ion Asia, are shown by red bold and intermittent lines. In the lower right corner is a small inset map labeling the city's 17 wards.

The verso of the map's card covers feature a map of Mukden's train and bus system, while a small inset leaf glued inside the front cover features the timetable for the South Manchuria Railway.

The map was published in Seoul, in Japanese-occupied Korea, by the Shiseidō printing house. It was drafted by Kōhei Iio [飯尾耕平], a Japanese cartographer who was employed by Shiseidō throughout the World War II era. In addition to the present work, we are aware of Iio making a travel map of Korea (1941) and city plan of Seoul (1945).

A Note on Rarity

The present map is very rare. We can trace only a single institutional holding, at Harvard University's Yenching Library. Moreover, we are not aware of any other examples as having appeared on the market in recent years.

Mukden (Shenyang): The Industrial Nucleus of Manchuria

This map of Mukden (Shenyang) is a fascinating and attractive artefact from the Japanese occupation of Manchuria (1931-45), a brutal but historically intriguing era.

Mukden (Shenyang), the premier city in southern Manchuria, was an ancient city that attained great importance from 1625 to 1644, when it became the capital of the Manchu polity, the predecessor to the Qing Dynasty that would rule all of China for over 250 years. Through almost all of 19th century, it was an important, but relatively small, regional centre confined within its old walls.

Manchuria, due to its great natural resources and its strategic location, had, since the mid 19th century been one of the geopolitical keystones of the Far East. A watershed moment occurred in 1898, when under foreign pressure, the Chinese Empire allowed Russia to dominate the region. Russia gained Port Arthur (today the Lüshunkou District of Dalian), and founded the city of Harbin at a key waypoint along the Chinese Eastern Railway (CER), a line that was built across Manchuria from Russian territory to Vladivostok (essentially the CER became the eastern terminus of the Trans-Siberian Railway). Meanwhile, Mukden, while an old city, grew dramatically as the major hub of South Manchuria Railway, which ran from Harbin to Port Arthur.

During the Russo-Japanese War (1904-5), Japan utterly throttled Russia, taking over Port Arthur and gaining dominance over southern Manchuria, including Mukden. Russia retained operational control of Northern Manchuria, including Harbin and the main line of the CER.

Mukden rapidly developed a manufacturing base and swelled with Han Chinese and other migrants to serve as manpower, and the built-up area began to spill out of the old walled town, creating new neighborhoods in all directions.

During the Russo-Japanese War, the city became globally famous for being the scene of the Battle of Mukden (February 19 to March 10, 1905), one the largest land battles in the world fought between 1813 and WWI, which featured over 600,000 troops, during which the Japanese decisively defeated the Russians, giving them control over the land war and de facto possession of Southern Manchuria.

In the wake of the conflict, Mukden, under Japanese dominance, continued to grow and industrialize, being one of Asia's leading producers of ammunitions. In 1914, the city's name was officially changed to 'Shenyang', although for many years it was still referred to as Mukden (the traditional Manchu name) in both Japanese and English. A new Japanese ultra-modern designed town, laid out along a rational plan was rapidly but carefully built.

Japan's conquest of Manchuria commenced following the 'Mukden Incident' (September 18, 1931), a 'false flag' operation, whereupon a bomb was set off near the city's main train station, supposedly planted by "Chinese Nationalists" (although the device was set off by the Japanese!). Japan used this 'outrage' invade Manchuria, soon declaring it as Manchukuo.

Under Japanese rule, the regime oppressed Shenyang's Han Chinese majority, shunting them off into bad neighborhoods and relegating them to menial jobs. The Japanese built themselves lavish new residential areas and enjoyed a very high standard of living. The Japanese also hyper-industrialized Shenyang, which unfortunately resulted in most of Manchuria's magnificent forests being cut down to fuel the factories.

After World War II, Shenyang became a major battlefront between the Nationalists and the Communists, with the former eventually taking over the city and all Manchuria. The city's economy suffered under Mao's rule, and would only come roaring back in the 1990s. Today Shenyang is an industrial-commercial colossus with population of over 9 million.

References: Harvard University - Yenching Library: GEN Manchukuo J-0854; OCLC: 944443593.

850 EUR

18. World War II – Eastern Front
Russia – The Air War / 'Case Blue'

[Werner UTTER (1921 - 2006)], Author of Mss. Additions. / GENERALSTAB DER LUFTWAFFE [GENERAL STAFF OF THE GERMAN AIRFORCE], Publisher of Map.

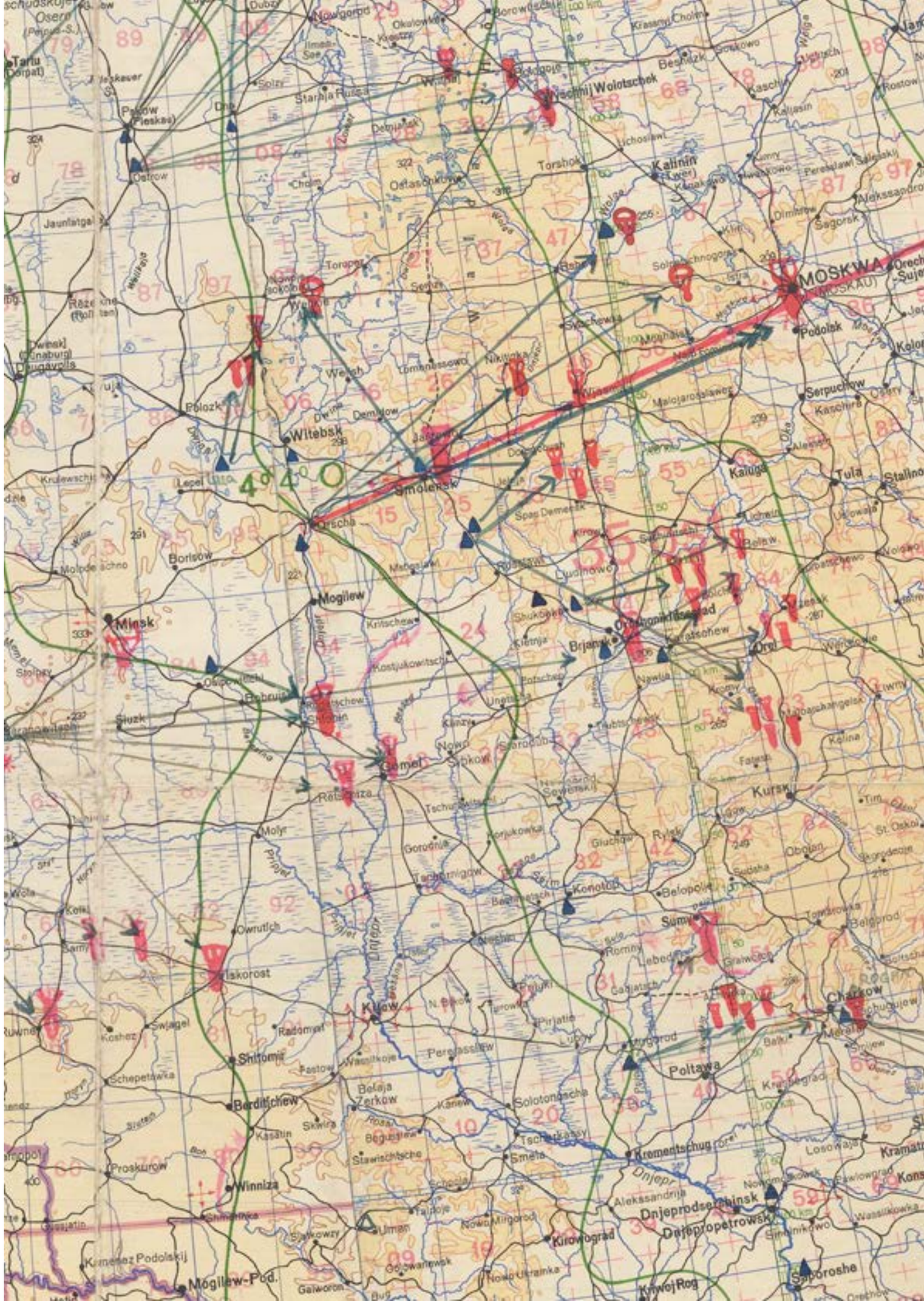
[Landkarte von Luftwaffenzielen im 2. Weltkrieg - Ostfront / Map of Luftwaffe Targets in WWII – Eastern Front].

Berlin: Generalstab der Luftwaffe, March 25, 1942 [but Mss. Additions added between June and November 1942].

Colour photolithograph, a composite template of 3 joined map fragments, with extensive contemporary manuscript additions in coloured marker (Very Good, overall clean and bright, mss. additions clear, some wear along old folds and along edges, old repair from verso to partially split fold upper centre), 87 x 84 cm (34 x 33 inches).

An amazing and unique artefact of the air war along WWII's Eastern Front, a composite map template published by the General Staff of the Luftwaffe, but featuring extensive manuscript additions of German forward bombing targets deep within Soviet territory, along with the sorties' flight trajectories from airfields to objective, added during the 'Case Blue' offensive (June – November 1942) by Oberleutnant Werner Utter, a star Luftwaffe pilot and a pioneer of jet flight, who in the postwar period became the chief pilot of Lufthansa Airlines; the map hails directly from the Family Estate.

This fascinating artefact from the air war along the Eastern Front of World War II is comprised of three joined map fragments collectively depicting all Central and Eastern Europe, published by in the spring of 1942 by the General Staff of the Luftwaffe. Importantly, it is marked up with extensive combat information, in manuscript marker, by Oberleutnant Werner Utter, a star bomber pilot who later became the chief pilot of Lufthansa Airlines. The manuscript additions were clearly added by Utter during the period of 'Case Blue' (Fall Blau), the massive Nazi land and air offensive against the Soviet Union (June 28 to November 24, 1942), the corollary to the largely unfulfilled Operation Barbarossa of the previous season. The main objective of Case Blue was to drive through the southern part of European Russia to seize the Caspian oilfields which were seen as vital to fueling the German war effort; while simultaneously degrading the Soviets' ability to exploit said resources, so crippling their marital capabilities.





The air war, while often overshadowed by the campaign's monumental tank and artillery battles, was critical to the conflict along the Eastern Front. While the Luftwaffe initially enjoyed a massive advantage in the sky, with superior and more numerous planes and better trained pilots, their advantages were gradually negated by the Soviets as a great many German planes were shot down of suffered technical issues in the region's extreme climate, while the Soviets gradually upped their training game and aircraft production. Overall, while German land forces and air sorties managed to penetrate deep into Russia, almost to the edge of Asia, the campaign collapsed in disaster at the Battle of Stalingrad, which proved the be the turning point of the entire war.

The underlying official Luftwaffe map template extends from eastern France, in the west, all the way east, past Russia's Volga Valley, and from Oslo and Leningrad, in the north, down to the northern littoral of Africa, in the south. It is highly accurate and sophisticated, carefully labelling all cities and towns of note; topographical features, including elevation; and lines of magnetic variation; and is overlaid by a reference grid for easy plotting.

Utter clearly used the present map both as strategic aid to plan numerous bombing runs across European Russia, Belarus and northeastern Ukraine during 'Case Blue', as well as to record his sorties already completed. He employs easy-to-understand symbols to denote key features, including Bombing Targets = Bomb Symbols in Red Marker; Airfields used by the Luftwaffe = Triangles in Blue Marker; and Bombing Mission Routes / Trajectories = Arrowed Lines in Green and Red Marker.

While the sheer number of bombing sorties showcased on the map is too great to comprehensively catalogue here, some of the highlights including missions to attack Leningrad, during the ongoing Siege of Leningrad (September 8, 1941 to January 27, 1944), launched from the airfield at Pskov; the bombing of Moscow (which the Germans failed to conquer) and Gorky (formerly and today Nizhny Novgorod; the furthest point of German bombing to the northeast in Russia), launched from the Orsha airfield; the attacks upon Soviet positions around Stalingrad, during the Battle of Stalingrad (August 23, 1942 to February 2, 1943), done in an effort to assist the encircled German army in breaking out and escaping (which largely failed), launched from airfields near Stalino (Donestsk) and "Obiskaja" (the name added here in manuscript); and the bombing of the oil terminals at Astrakhan, on the Caspian Sea (the furthest point of German bombing to the southeast in Russia), launched from the Stalino area; and the bombing the Russian Black Sea ports of Novorossiysk and Tuapse, launched from Crimea; amongst may more sorties of great interest.

Additionally, in the Black Sea, there are manuscript additions regarding the sea war, with a note off Crimea reading "U-Boot-Suche" ("Submarine Search") and off the Kuban, "U-Boot, Geleitzüge, Tanker usw." ("Submarine, convoys, tankers, etc.").

While we have encountered a good number of World War II maps with manuscript additions, the preset artefact stands out for its extraordinary wealth of information that grants a unique and precious insight into the nature of the air war, which was so consequential to the conflict along the Eastern Front, as well as the prerogatives and experiences of a star Luftwaffe pilot bombing targets on the extreme outer edge of the contemporary capabilities of aviation, under extremely dangerous conditions.

While the map is not signed by Utter, it was acquired directly from his family estate. The map was part of Utter's personal papers and his family attests that the manuscript additions are by his hand. Moreover, the manuscript information on the map is clearly of a classified, specialized nature that could only have been added by a Luftwaffe bomber pilot serving on the Eastern Front.

Werner Utter: Star Pilot, from the Luftwaffe to Lufthansa

Werner Utter (1921 - 2006) was one of the most accomplished German aviators of the 20th century, both in the military and commercial-civilian spheres. Born in Crailsheim (Württemberg), he first learned to fly by piloting a glider at the age of 14.

He served as a Luftwaffe bomber pilot from 1941 to 1944, largely as part of the Kampfgeschwader (Combat Wing) 4 "General Wever" on the Eastern Front, attaining the rank of Oberleutnant (Flying Officer). He was an extraordinary skilled and successful pilot, and he was awarded the Iron Cross (First Class) and the German Cross in Gold. He mainly flew the Heinkel He 11 bomber, but importantly was one of the pioneers of jet flight, piloting the Messerschmitt Me 262 and the Arado Ar 243.

After the war, Utter became a commercial pilot, joining Lufthansa when it was relaunched in 1955. He was the first person in the company to be made a flight captain and was one of the first to fly its new jetliners. He skippered all the most prestigious international routes, and in 1967 landed a jet carrying the German president Heinrich Lübke at Kathmandu, Nepal, a feat that was considered to by forbiddingly treacherous.

In 1971, Utter became the Chief Pilot of Lufthansa. His age compelled him to retire from professional flying in 1972, but he was promptly appointed to the Lufthansa executive board, charged with overseeing the company's technical operations. He played a major role in Lufthansa's rise to become one the world's largest and most respected airlines, famed for its use of the lastest equipment and its stellar safely record. He retired from his executive role in 1985 and passed away in 2006 at the age of 85, in Bad Vilbel, near Frankfurt.

The Nazi Invasion of the Soviet Union, 'Case Blue' and the Air War

Nazi Germany invaded the Soviet Union in June 1941 in what was known as Operation Barbarossa, a 'Blitzkreig' (Lightening Warfare) campaign that sought to conquer all the country west of the 'A-A Line' (the imagined meridian running from Archangel down the Astrakhan). The Germans were highly confident as the same techniques of

rapid, mechanized warfare had practically mowed down France the year before.

The air war, while not given as much ink as the land conflict, was always critical to the outcome of events, as aerial bombing was able to rapidly degrade and demoralize the enemy in way that tanks and artillery never could. The Luftwaffe initially enjoyed a massive advantage in the sky, as it had far better planes and a far larger fleet, as well as dramatically better trained pilots.

However, the Wehrmacht severely underestimated the extraordinary bravery and self-sacrifice of the Red Army troops and the severity of the Russian climate. By the end of the 1941 campaign season, while Germany had conquered much of Ukraine and a good part of European Russia, it fell well short of its goal, failing to take Leningrad and Moscow, or reaching the Caucuses. Both sides were incredibly exhausted, having lost astounding amounts of men and equipment.

During the 1942 campaign season, the Nazis pursued Case Blue (June 28 to November 24, 1942), a high-risk/high-reward strategy that aimed to seize the Baku Oil Fields, the realization of which would abundantly fuel the German war machine, while dealing a knockout blow to Soviets. However, the amount of blood and treasure required promised to strain Germany to its extreme limits, risking not only its ambitions in the East, but also its dominant position in Western Europe. The numbers of troops involved in the campaign were astounding, the Germans dedicated 1,715,000 men the effort, while the Soviets forwarded 1,570,287 troops to defending their country.

In the summer 1942, Case Blue saw good early progress, with the Germans crossing the Don River and gradually taking over the northwestern Caucuses.

In late July 1942, Hitler authorized Operation Edelweiss, also known as the Battle of the Caucuses, a strike towards Baku, which represented was the Nazis' most audacious move, occurring as it did almost 2,000 km from home. Hitler knew the high stakes of the campaign, remarking to the commander of the operation, General Paulus, that "If I do not get the oil of Maikop and Grozny [two major Caucasus petroleum producing cities] …then I must end this war".

During the first six weeks of the operation, the Wehrmacht made impressive progress, despite heavy Soviet resistance. The land forces relied heavily on Luftwaffe air cover and the advance aerial bombing of forward objectives. They conquered Rostov-on-Don, the Taman Peninsula, Krasnodar, Novorossiysk, Mozdok and Maykop (the major oil town). However, their supply lines became strained and Soviet opposition intensified, and they failed to take the key port of Tuapse and the oil town of Grozny.

Overshadowing Operation Edelweiss was the ongoing Battle of Stalingrad (August 23, 1942 to February 2, 1943), whereupon hundreds of thousands of German troops were engaged in a death struggle with the Red Army for control of the strategic industrial city on the Volga, to the north of the Caucasus. This horrendous contest tied up German resources that were desperately needed in the Caucasus, and when the Soviets assumed the offensive in Stalingrad, in November 1942, Operation Edelweiss was effectively doomed.

With the Wehrmacht bogged down in the heart of the Caucuses, in December 1942, the Soviets initiated Operation Little Saturn, an offensive that threatened to entrap all German armies beyond the Don River. Through the early months of 1943, the Red Army progressively retook town after town in the Caucasus and the Kuban, as the Germans tried to make an orderly retreat. To make matters worse for the Nazis, their entire remaining force in Stalingrad surrendered at the beginning of February 1943.

As for the air war, at the beginning of Case Blue, Germany still maintained the advantage, employing over 2,000 aircraft, versus the Soviets who had less than 1,700 planes. Moreover, the Luftwaffe had far better trained pilots, like Utter. However, as the campaign went on, the Luftwaffe lost many planes due to increasingly effective Soviet anti-aircraft systems, while the Soviets gradually managed to ramp up their aircraft production and training regimes. By the end of the campaign, the Soviets had nearly levelled things up the air, which placed the Germans' fleeting efforts on land into even greater jeopardy.

The Nazis in the Caucasus were eventually pushed to the 'Kuban Bridgehead', the Taman Peninsula, and were forced to retreat to Crimea in September 1943, forever ending their ambitions to size the oil of the Caspian.

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

References: N/A – Unique, Unrecorded Artefact.

2.800 EUR

19. Belgian Congo – Congo River Atlas
Boma (Congo) Imprint

CONGO BELGE, SERVICE HYDROGRAPHIQUE, SECTION DU HAUT CONGO.

Congo Belge / Service Hydrographique, Section du Haut Congo, Fleuve Congo / Leopoldville – Stanleyville / Travaux effectues sous la direction de J. Lauwers, Hydrographe, Chef de S.H. du H.C. …

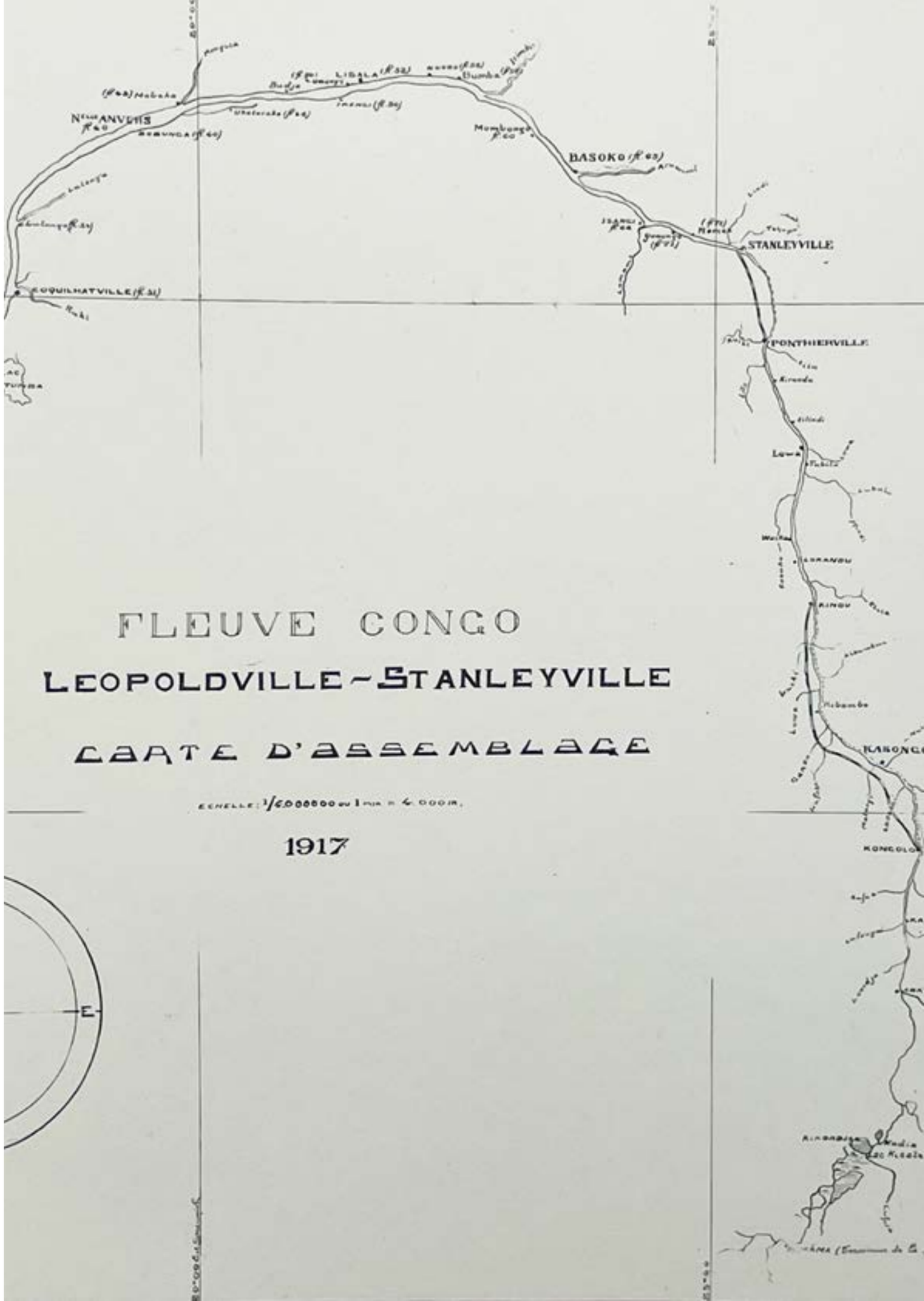
Boma (Belgian Congo): Service Special de l'Hydographie, 1918.

Large Oblong Folio (43 x 61 cm): [2 ff.], 75 plates (including 56 maps, 17 flood charts, 1 text leaf, and 1 distance table), all printed in a 'colonial' photolithographic technique, bound in contemporary half green pebbled cloth and green marbled boards, with pastedown booksellers handstamp and printed label of 'Kahn Frères / Bruxelles' to insides of front cover (Excellent condition, plates remarkably clean, bright and crisp, binding with light shelf-wear).

A stellar moment of African cartography and inland hydrography, being the first atlas, or accurate, complete large-scale map, of the 1,724 km-long navigable route of the Upper Congo River from Léopoldville (Kinshasa) to Stanleyville, the only natural passage into the heart of Africa, made during World War I for the use of steamer captains by the specialist Belgian colonial agency, the Service Hydrographique, Section du Haut Congo, featuring 75 plates (including 56 maps, 17 flood charts, 1 text leaf, and 1 distance table), printed in a charmingly 'colonial' photolithographic technique in the Congolese river port of Boma.

The Congo River, one of the world's mightiest waterways, is the only natural passage into the heart of Africa. While Europeans had a presence along the navigable lower stretch of the river since the late 15th century, above there existed a 300 km-long succession of rapids and cataracts, which prevented European exploration further up the river. In the 1870s, the legendary explorer Henry Morton Stanley entered the deep interior of the Congo Basin, and discovered that a stretch of the Upper Congo (Haut Congo) River, over 1,700 km-long, from what would become Léopoldville (Kinshasa) to Stanleyville, was navigable, and suitable for steamboats. As the Congo was extraordinarily rich in natural resources, the Upper Congo passage promised to serve as lifeline for an incredibly lucrative (if morally bankrupt) colonial empire.

The Belgian King Leopold II, after hiring Stanley to be his agent, established outposts in the Upper Congo, such as Léopoldville (1881), and in 1885 managed to convince the major European powers to grant him personal (as opposed to a Belgian national) possession of around half of the Congo River Basin, a land over 2 million square



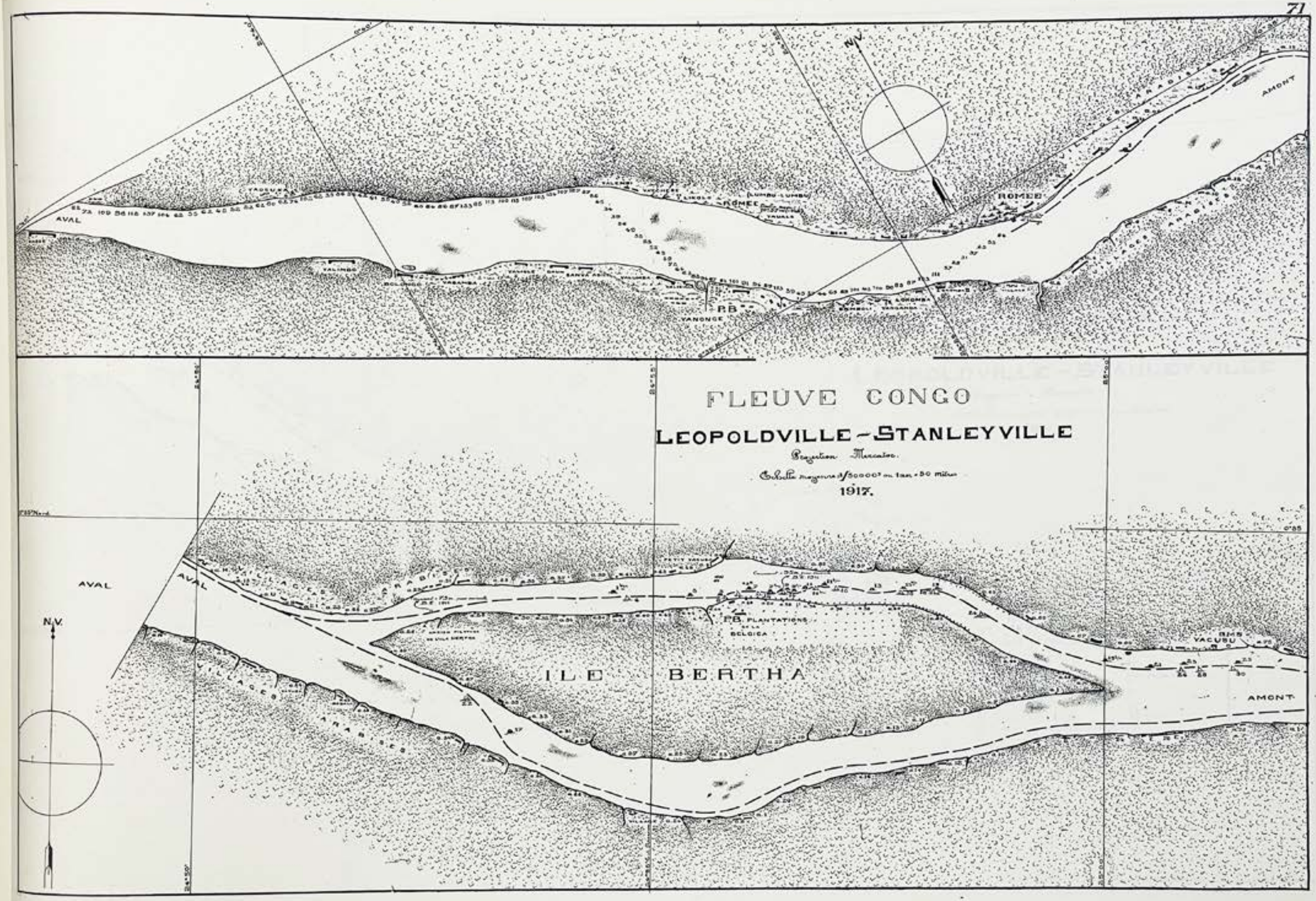
FLEUVE CONGO

LEOPOLDVILLE – STANLEYVILLE

Projection Mercator.

Echelle moyenne d/500000 ou 1cm = 50 miles

1917.



km in area! Leopold II established the Congo Free State, an infamously exploitative commercial empire built upon slavery and terror that was immortalized by Joseph Conrad's The Heart of Darkness. The colony proved to be astoundingly profitable due to its outrageous bounty of rubber, tropical hardwoods and minerals, coming all with scarcely any labour costs.

The abuses of Leopold II's rule were so egregious that in 1908 the Belgian government agreed to assume control of the colony, promising a more ethical and moderate regime. The resulting Belgian Congo proved to be scarcely a moral improvement, but at least it allowed some forum for discussion and accountability.

The Congo River, especially its navigable upper and lower stretches (the middle Congo was blocked by violent rapids, and needed to be bypassed by a railway), was utterly vital to the economic, political and military affairs of the Belgian Congo. Yet, for many years, the river was, except for a few limited sections, not properly charted. His was especially true nature of the Upper Congo, the 1,700 km plus navigable route from Léopoldville to Stanleyville. Steamboats often had to rely upon the practical knowledge of their captains, or that of river pilots, which given the extreme length of the route and the seasonal changes in water levels, created a situation that was inefficient, and often dangerous. An accurate, complete and large-scale charting of the entire navigable stretch of the Haut Congo would prove to be major boon to navigation and the commodious operation of the colony.

In response, the Belgian regime established the Service Special de l'Hydographie to map the Congo River, especially its navigable routes. The charting of the Upper Congo, from Léopoldville to Stanleyville, was charged to a special autonomous unit of the Service Special, the Service Hydrographique, Section du Haut Congo, which was comprised of an expert team of experienced hydrographers and river pilots.

The Atlas in Focus

The present atlas was the seminal achievement of the Service Hydrographique, Section du Haut Congo, being the first atlas, or accurate, complete and comprehensive large-scale map of the great navigable stretch of the Upper Congo. To the scale of 1:50,000 (or 1 mm = 50 metres), it charts the entire 1,724 km-long shipping route from Léopoldville (Kinshasa) to Stanleyville in exacting detail, based upon a careful synthesis of new scientific reconnaissance surveys and information taken for the best existing charts. These sources were carefully analyzed and edited by an expert team of hydrographers led by Monsieur J. Lauwers, the Chief of the Service Hydrographique, Section du Haut Congo, with the 75 plates (including 56 maps, 17 flood charts, 1 text leaf, and 1 distance table) hand-drafted by Monsieur L. Hendrix. The atlas was published in a charmingly crude 'colonial' technique of photolithography at the headquarters of the Service Special de l'Hydographie in Boma, a river port on the Lower Congo. It is likely the most impressive cartographic work to have been published in the Congo during colonial times.

The work is all the more impressive as it was made during the tense period of World War I (1914-8), which raged in East Africa and Cameroon (the latter theatre involving Belgian troops). There, the German colonial forces put up a much tougher fight than expected, and while they threatened the Belgian Congo, the fighting never entered the colony, although it served as major Entente base throughout the war.

The 'Advertissement', near the beginning of the atlas, written by Jules Hyppolyte Nisot (1975 – 1923), the Chief Hydrographer of the Service Special de l'Hydographie, explains the reason for the creation of the atlas and the sources and processes employed. Nisot notes that until the publication of this atlas, steamer captains largely had to rely upon numerous 'croquis' (crude sketch maps) for navigating the Upper Congo. The objective of the atlas is to provide an accurate, detailed and "expeditious view" of this entire stretch of river, which will be "a great service to navigation".

While the sources of the atlas included many different surveys from various hydrographers and pilots, the creators of the atlas successfully ensured that the finished charts conformed to high standards of "mathematical rigour" and "geodetic triangulation", such that they were "sufficiently exact". The atlas's maps all chart the current recommended shipping route (in bold dashed lines), with sufficient room left for one to plot, in manuscript, any new routes that may be revealed over time due to changes in the river's course. The charts were thus thus to be dynamic, living documents, like the river itself.

Nisot reveals that the basis of the atlas were 2 reconnaissance missions conducted by the Service Hydrographique, Section du Haut Congo, in 1915 and 1917, aboard the ship General Staunch, whereupon careful scientific observations were taken with the use of a Thomson astrolabe.

Many parts of the river mapped on the atlas's charts that lay off the main shipping route, and so were not surveyed by the Service, were taken from the chart, The River Congo (1902), executed to a scale of 1:250,000, by the Reverend Grenfell of the Baptist Missionary Society. The atlas's depiction of the French passage through Stanley Pool is taken from Monsieur Roussiline of the Mission hydrographique française's chart, Congo-Oubangui-Sanga (1910-11).

Additionally, Nisot notes that the atlas incorporates information from 6 specific named charts, by the surveyors of the Service Special de l'Hydographie, of key sections of the river, executed between 1910 and 1914.

All these sources were reconciled to a uniform high scientific standard, on a Mercator Projection, by an expert team led by Monsieur Lauwers, with the charts drafted by Monsieur Hendrix.

The 'Légende' (Plate 1), which is signed in print by Nisot, dated April 15, 1918, describes the symbols employed on the charts. These include signs for navigational haz-

ards, such as sand banks, rocks, rapids, shipwrecks and snags. Importantly, the current recommended shipping route up the Haut Congo is shown by bold dotted lines, often accompanied by bathymetric soundings (the shipping routes were subject to change as the river shifted its course over time), along with the lines of former shipping routes. There are also symbols used to denote areas of vegetation; forests; logging camps; buoys of various types; navigation makers of various kinds; as well as numerous signs for advising the direction of steering vessels.

Focusing in on the contents, the atlas features are 55 plates of sectional maps of the river, done to a scale of 1:500,000, with some featuring two river sections per plate. The large-format, monochrome charts have a clean, clear and spacious (non-cluttered), and easy-to-digest appearance. The reader can immediately see how they would be an ideal aid to a steamer captain navigating his vessel in what were often difficult conditions. The atlas clearly succeeded in in providing an accurate and "expeditious view" of the Haut Congo.

In addition to the symbols represented in the legend, the maps clearly show all topographical features in and besides the river (islands, swamps, embankments, etc.), as well as all towns (with their streets grids); roads; the locations of mission stations; native villages; and homesteads, all which are named. Thus, in addition to their hydrographic content, the charts grant an incredibly detailed view of the nature and extent of human settlement in the Upper Congo, representing a precious academic resource.

The final chart in the atlas, Fleuve Congo: Leopoldville – Stanleyville / Carte d'Assemblage (Plate 75), shows the complete overview of the river from Léopoldville to Stanleyville, indicating how the charts could be assembled into a colossal complete 'snake like' map.

The 17 'Courbes des Crues', or charts of Flood Curves, show the water levels per month at a given place along the river, with each line representing specific years. One will notice the great annual variations in river levels, while certain flood years saw torrential inundations. Correctly approximating the seasonal river level was essential to facilitating the proper use of the present atlas and navigating the Haut Congo.

The distance chart (Plate 74) shows the river navigation distances between dozens of key places along the Haut Congo, noting that the entire route between Léopoldville and Stanleyville to be 1,724 km.

A Note on Rarity

The present atlas is very rare. It would have been made in only a small print run for specialist use, while the survival rate of such large, fragile hydrographic works is incredibly low. We can trace 6 institutional examples, held by the Bibliothèque royale de Belgique; KU Leuven Bibliotheken; Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin; Northwestern University Library; Smithsonian Institution Library and the American Museum of Natural History. Beyond that, we are aware of a few examples offered over the years by relatively obscure sources in the Benelux countries.

The Congo River: The Belgian Congo's Passage into The Heart of Darkness
The Congo River is the only natural gateway into the heart of Africa, and its immense natural resources wealth. It has a length of 4,370 km and drains a basin of over 4 million sq. km, or roughly 13% of the African landmass.

While navigable for about 160 km from the sea, the route further upstream for over 300 kms is barred by a succession of astoundingly violent rapids and cataracts. While the Portuguese were the first Europeans to explore the lower part of the river, in 1482, for almost three centuries thereafter, outsiders refrained from attempting to venture above the rapids. While Portugal and the Netherlands maintained small trading posts along the lower stretches of the river, the interior of the Congo was for the longest time never a priority for any colonial power.

All that radically changed in the context of the 'Scramble for Africa', following the legendary Welsh American explorer and tireless self-promoter Henry Morton Stanley's epic expedition of 1876-7, during which he became the first Westerner to explore the upper reaches the Congo, proving that from 'Stanley Pool' (Pool Malebo, near Kinshasa-Brazzaville), the river was navigable for steamboats over 1,700 km further into the interior. This opened the possibility of the creation of a vast inland empire of limitless natural resources wealth. It also availed Christian missionaries with the possibility of 'saving' millions of souls in the heart of Africa, with the first of many missions established in the Congo in 1878.

Meanwhile, Belgium was a new nation (its independence recognized in 1839) and a small country (30,688 km2 / 11,849 sq mi), yet these realities seemed irrelevant to its ruler, King Leopold II (reigned 1865 - 1909). After failing in his bid to convince Spain to sell him the Philippines, Leopold II set his sights upon the Congo, a vast land of inestimably great agrarian and mineral wealth, but also one of the least developed and accessible parts of Africa.

With the assistance of the newly formed Société Royale Belge de Géographie, Leopold II convened the Brussels Geographic Conference in 1876, whereby many of the world's greatest explorers and academics were invited to discuss overseas schemes, and particularly those that would burnish Belgium's prestige and wealth.

In 1881, Leopold II hired Stanley to be his agent with the mandate of establishing the Congo Basin as an empire owned by his person, as opposed to the Belgian state (the kingdom's parliamentary government rejected any involvement in the scheme). With remarkable skill and speed, over the next four years Stanley founded many trading posts along and near the Congo River, including Léopoldville (Kinshasa), later in 1881, ideally located at the base of the Congo's vast inland navigation. The French, led by Pierre Savorgnan de Brazza (the founder of Brazzaville), were also setting up outposts

FLEUVE CONGO

1917

in the right bank of the Congo.

Extraordinarily, Leopold II, riding on Stanley's gravitas, promised to 'civilize' the Congolese people, bringing Christianity, modernity as well as higher living standards. He would develop the economy and make the country a free trade and investment zone by which all European powers could profit.

At the Berlin Conference of 1884-5, whereby the European powers divided most of Africa between themselves, the Big Powers were content to accede to Leopold II's request. They were pleased that the Belgian king was willing to undertake the awesome responsibility of civilizing and developing such a vast land, while opening the county to all; while the fact that Belgium was a small power ensured that Leopold II's regime was unthreatening (i.e., the British preferred that Belgium held the heart of Africa, as opposed to France or Germany).

Leopold II founded the Congo Free State (État indépendant du Congo / Kongo-Vrijstaat), a corporate entity wholly owned by the king, that at 2,344,000 km2 (905,000 sq mi), was 76-times the size of Belgium! The name for the colony was ironic, as it was an absolute terror state, whereby millions of Congolese people were enslaved to create and operate roads, railways, plantations and mines. In only a short time, a vast system of industrial and agrarian production was developed, connected by an ever-growing network of infrastructure (as evident on the present maps). While the Free State soon became the world's largest producer of rubber and ivory, the colonial police service, the Force Publique, meted out sadistic punishments upon the people. The breakdown in the traditional tribal systems, the introduction of foreign diseases and the reallocation of resources to support European objectives resulted in the death of almost half of the Congolese population of 30 million.

The Congo River was the lifeblood of the colony's economy, and the principal means by which the Belgians could maintain control over such a vast land. A watershed moment occurred in 1898, when a railway was completed from Matadi, a port on the Lower Congo that could handle ocean-going vessels, to Léopoldville, that bypassed the rapids, so allowing expeditious transportation, by steamship and train, from the Atlantic all the way to Stanleyville.

While the Free State's economic production was impressive, the terror that gripped the country horrified many of even the most hardened European imperialists, in a dreadful realization best captured by Joseph Conrad novella, Heart of Darkness (1899) (Conrad had worked steamboat captain in the Congo some year earlier). Innumerable reports of atrocities conveyed Christian mercenaries, plus the Casement Report (1904), a shocking exposé on the brutality of the Leopold II's regime penned by an esteemed British-Irish diplomat, finally convinced the Big Powers that the Free State was too severe and unethical to be tolerated - even by their low ethical standards!

In 1908, the Belgian government reluctantly agreed to pay off Leopold II and his associates and assume control of the Congo as a crown colony. While Belgian civil servants lessened the abuses, the Belgian Congo was still perhaps the harshest place in the world (slavery remained legal until 1923)!

The present atlas was made during World War I (1914-8), when the Belgian Congo was on a war-footing. While Belgian African territory was never invaded by German colonial troops, the ferocity of the fighting between the Entente coalition (of which Belgium was a part) and the Kaiser's men in East Africa and Cameroon was surprisingly intense, while the Belgian Congo served as critical Entente base.

The Belgian Congo would not attain its independence until 1960, when it became the Republic of the Congo (later the Democratic Republic of the Congo), and since then it has followed a rocky road haunted by 'Leopold's Ghost' (Recommended: an excellent book, Adam HOCHSCHILD, King Leopold's Ghost: A Story of Greed, Terror, and Heroism in Colonial Africa (New York, 1998)).

References: Bibliothèque royale de Belgique: IV 15.766 B; KU Leuven Bibliotheken: 3D313; Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin: 2" Kart. C 17645; Northwestern University Library: 967.5A S492f; Smithsonian Institution Library: G2602 .C6F618 1918 folio; American Museum of Natural History: 55.1,48(67.5); OCLC: 1159220132, 19882314; French-speaking Central Africa: A Guide to Official Publications in American Libraries (Washington, D.C.: Library of Congress, 1973), p. 12; La Géographie bulletin de la Société de géographie, vol. 32 (Brussels, 1918), 532.

2.500 EUR

20. Ottoman Thematic Cartography
The Arab World / Transportation
The Hajj / Mecca / Hejaz

DAHİLİYE NEZARETİ [OTTOMAN INTERIOR MINISTRY].

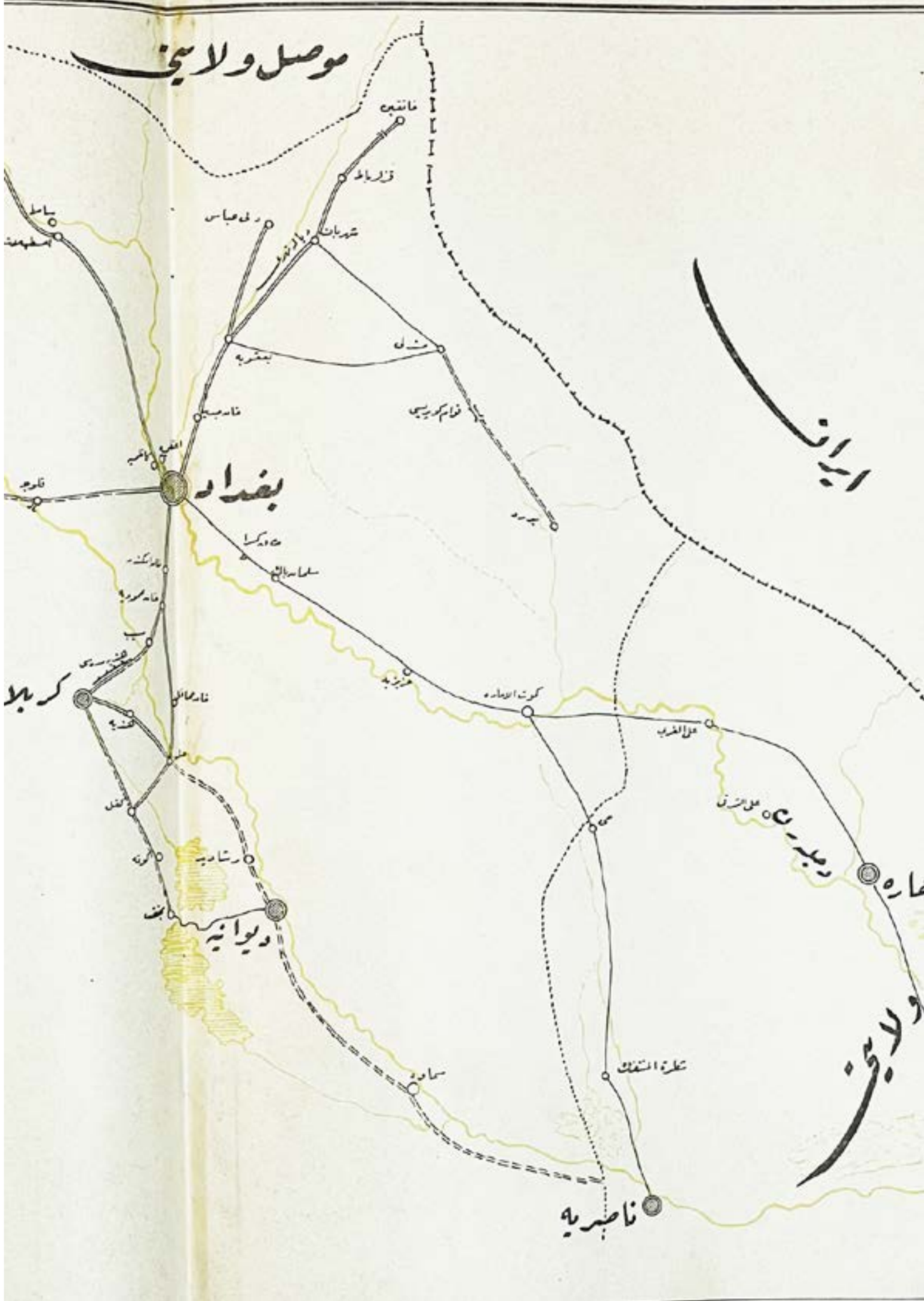
داخليه نظارتی امور محليه ولايات مديريتی ولايات يوللری خريطه سی
[Dahiliye nezareti umür-i mahalliye ve vilayet müdüriyeti vilayet yolları haritasıdır. / The Ministry of Internal Affairs Map of the Provinces and their High Roads].

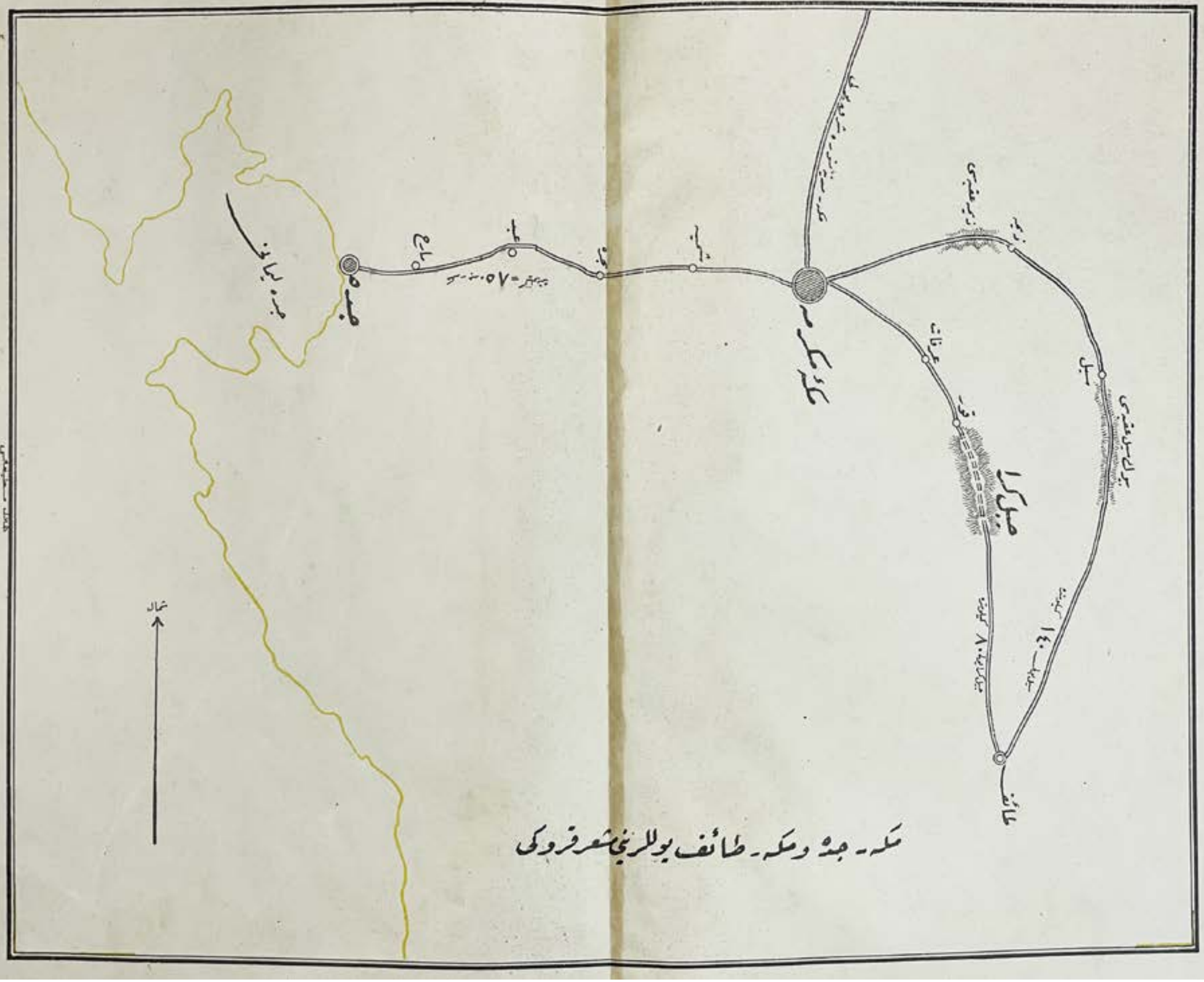
Istanbul: Dahiliye Nezareti Umur-ı Mahalliye-i Vilâyat Müdiriyeti, Hilâl Matbaası, 1329 Rumi Calendar [1913].

Small Folio: Collation Complete - 26 bi-chrome double-page maps, plus interleaved text, all contents unnumbered and in reverse collation; bound in original half black cloth over red boards with cover bearing the title and the Tughra of Sultan Mehmed V Reshad in gilt; all maps and text entirely in Ottoman Turkish (Very Good, internally clean with hardly noticeable foxing and staining, missing front loose endpaper, otherwise same collation as: Marmara Ýlahiyat Fakültesi Kütüphanesi, binding with light discoloration and staining).

Exceedingly rare – one of the great monuments of Late Ottoman cartography, being the only official large-format Ottoman transportation atlas, including 26 double-page maps of an original, ingenious proto-modernist design, of which 8 maps concern the Arab World, including 1 map showcasing Hejaz and 1 map depicting Mecca & Jeddah; backed by detailed text explaining numerous itineraries for the use of the military, civil service and Hajj pilgrims; published entirely in the Ottoman Turkish language for the 'Young Turks' Administration on the eve of World War I.

This is one of the rarest and most extraordinary works of late Ottoman cartography, being the only official large-format Ottoman transportation atlas, produced by the Interior Ministry at the behest of the 'Young Turks' regime on the eve of World War I. Published with text entirely in Ottoman Turkish, the atlas consists of 26 double-page maps, all of an extraordinary proto-modernist design, accompanied by detailed text explaining all of the road itineraries depicted. All of the maps are original productions, predicated upon the latest official sources supplied by both state engineers and private contractors. Of the maps, 8 focus exclusively upon subjects from the Arab World, including a dedicated map of the Hejaz (with the Hejaz Railway and pilgrimage routes), as well as a map focussing upon Mecca and Jeddah. The atlas provides by far and away the most comprehensive and accurate record of the road system throughout the Ottoman Empire, taken in the wake of an unprecedented wave of infrastructure development. Additionally, while not part of the technical remit of the work, the maps





مکہ۔ جدہ و مکہ۔ طائف یو للرنج شعر قرو کی

also provide a stellar overview of the Ottoman railway system, including the Hejaz Railway and the in-progress Anatolian-Baghdad Railway. The atlas therefore gives the most authoritative historical accounts of the technical nature of the empire's key corridors of military and commercial movement, as well as the most important routes of the Hajj Pilgrimage, during a critical historical juncture.

The present atlas was created by the Ottoman Interior Ministry, which had auspices over the imperial Department of Public Works. In this capacity it oversaw all funds for road construction in the empire, as well as managing the construction and maintenance arrangements with (the often foreign) contractors. The stated purpose of the atlas is to showcase the current extent and condition of the empire's roads as they were in 1913, the year before the Ottoman Empire made the fateful decision to enter World War I on the Central Powers side. Importantly, the empire, while still enormous, is shown in its truncated form in the wake of the Italo-Turkish War (1911-2) and the First Balkan War (1912-3), during which the Sublime Porte lost Libya and almost all of its European territories. As such the realm consisted of what it today the Republic of Turkey, plus it Arab World territories in the Levant, Iraq and Red Sea coast of Arabia, extending through Hejaz down to Yemen. As Ottoman road funds were distributed at the provincial (or vilayet) level, the atlas is divided into individual road maps of each of the empire's vilayets, plus a few special maps focussing upon areas of heightened importance.

The proto-modernist design of the atlas's maps and their relationship to the text is extraordinary, being many years ahead of their time. At first glance the maps seem remarkably simplistic, but this is deceiving, as they are actually highly sophisticated visual devices. By intent, the maps feature only vital information, including the locations of major cities, towns and transport junctions, as well as the routes of the major roads and railways, all printed in a minimalistic form in black. While the legend on each map identifies the symbols used to distinguish the nature of the routes (macadam vs. gravel roads; railways, etc.), and seminal details, such as the locations of major bridges and mountain ranges, are also present, the emphasis is upon clarity and economy of expression; all superfluous detail is intentionally omitted. Beyond that, all coastlines, rivers, lakes and waterways are present, but are coloured in a faint yellow hue, so as not to distract the eye from the critical transportation information. Free of clutter, the maps ingeniously allow one to instantaneously process the routes of the roads and railways, being the seminal purpose of the work. However, while the map may be by intent minimalistic, the accompanying text, largely made up of charts, is highly detailed providing by far and way the most acute and precise statistical record of the Ottoman road system ever published. For every map, there is an accompanying chart noting 'Yolların İsimleri' (Names of Each Road); as well a distinguishing 'Şose' (Macadam Roads); 'Tesviye-i Türabiye' (Levelled Gravel Roads); and 'İnşa Edilmemiş' (Unbuilt roads), with the exact distances given for each segment of every route; while the 'Toplam Uzunluk' (Total Length) of every route is likewise given. The text also provides, in some cases lengthy, notes on special features or hazards of the various routes.

The atlas's use of intentionally minimalistic maps, backed up by detailed textual data, is way ahead of its time. Indeed, in 1913, even the most advanced transportation maps tended to be visually heavy, cluttered with data. The cartographers at the Ottoman Interior Ministry responsible for the present work were clearly very familiar with some of the novel experiments in cartography that were being undertaken in France and Germany at the time, but which had not yet gained common currency. The decision to adapt such progressive techniques to the Ottoman context, to create such arresting, entirely original maps, was a bold move, especially for such an important official project. However, upon close inspection of the atlas, even today's viewer cannot help but to be impressed by the amazingly futuristic nature and technically brilliant aspect of the maps.

Of the 26 maps in the atlas, 23 focus upon a vilayet, while 3 maps (Bolou Sanjak (Zonguldak); the Çatalca Line; and Mecca & Jeddah) focus upon specific places within vilayets that were of special interest. The atlas covers every part of the Ottoman Empire, except for three jurisdictions: the Mutasarrifate of Jerusalem; the Vilayet of Yemen and the Vilayet of Basra. These areas were intentionally excluded, as the Ottoman Interior Ministry did not have jurisdiction over these regions for the purposes of infrastructure development. Of the maps, 18 focus upon areas that essentially correspond to regions within what is today the Republic of Turkey, while 8 of the maps feature regions in the Arab World (modern-day Saudi Arabia, Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, Iraq, plus Israel/Palestine).

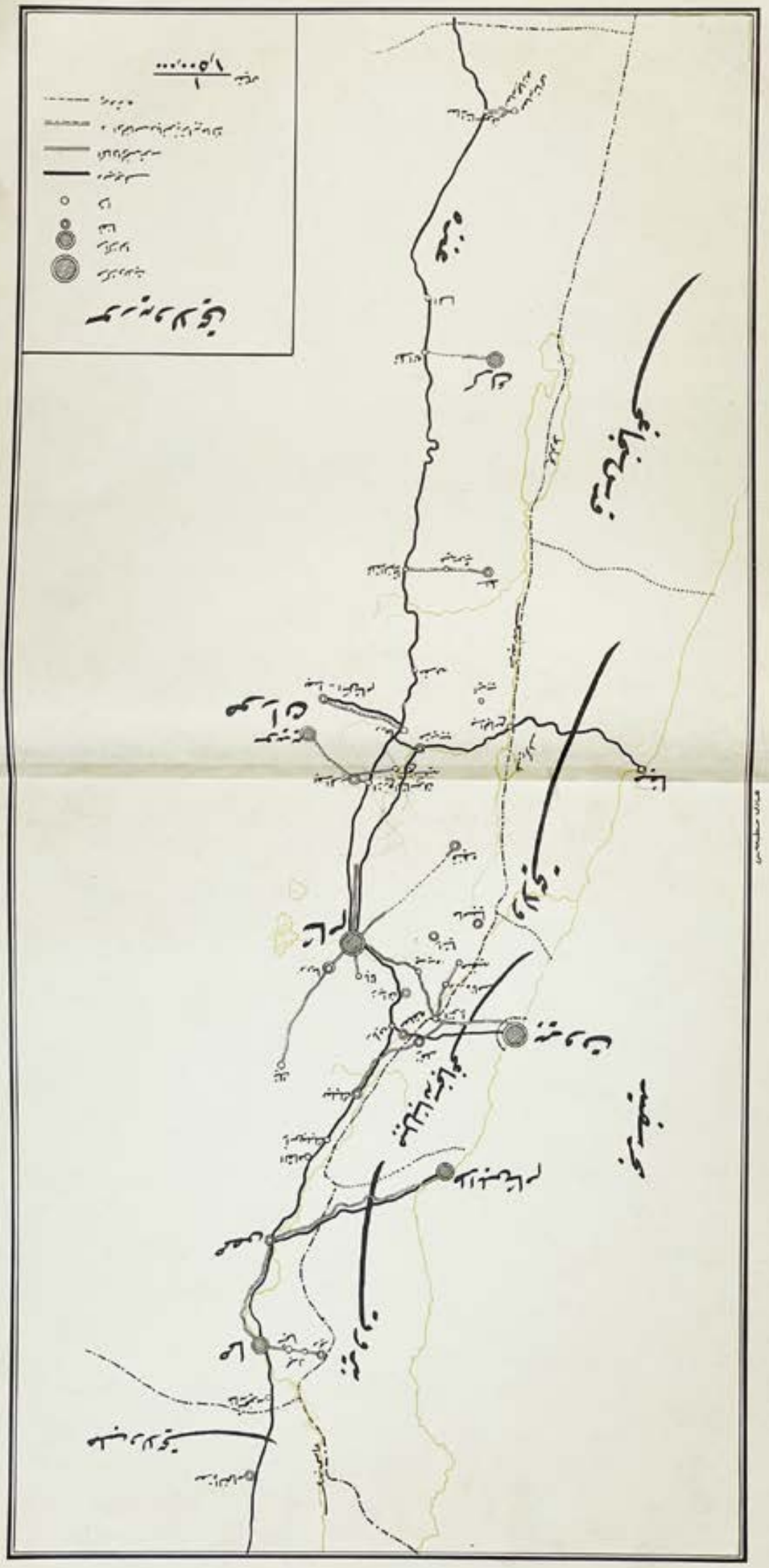
The 26 Maps are as follows (listed in the order in which they appear in the atlas):

1) Angora (Ankara) Vilayet: Located high along the Anatolian Plateau, this province was home to Ankara, the future capital of the Republic of Turkey. Considered to be the 'breadbasket' of Anatolia, due to his wheat production, the map shows that many new macadamized roads had been built through the region so that produce could better reach market. Additionally, Ankara is shown joined to Istanbul by rail, a line that was completed at the end of 1892.

2) Adana Vilayet: This region, along Turkey's south coast, produced vast quantities of semi-tropical cash crops and occupied a key stage along the Anatolian-Baghdad Railway.

3) Aydin Vilayet (Izmir): This province features Izmir (Smyrna), the empire's second most important port, and takes in the south-western corner of Anatolia. It hosted several of the empire's key trading routes, including macadamized roads and railways.

4) Constantinople (Istanbul) Vilayet: This map depicts the greater Constantinople region (Istanbul), the imperial capital, straddling Europe and Asia. It shows many macadamized roads radiating from the city, as well as the termini of the both of the Rumelian Railway (Orient Express) and the Anatolian-Baghdad Railway.


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5) Adrianople (Edirne) Vilayet: Here the picture takes in most of what remains of Ottoman Europe, being Eastern Thrace, including the venerable city of Adrianople (Edirne), a former imperial capital. It hosts all the key roads connecting the empire with the rest of the continent, as well as a key stretch of the Rumelian Railway (Orient Express). The map also depicts the Gallipoli Peninsula, soon to be the scene of spectacular military events.

6) Erzurum Vilayet: The strategically vital region was to feature improved roads, as it was considered to be the empire's great defensive bulwark against attack from Russia (indeed, it would become major battlefront during World War I).

7) Beirut Vilayet: This important map showcases the Vilayet of Beirut, which included virtually all of modern Lebanon, plus adjacent parts of Palestine and Syria. It extends along the Levantine coast, from just past Nablus (Palestine) in the south, all the way up to Latakia (Syria), in the north. Forever a globally important trading centre the region is crossed by several key commercial corridors as well as Hajj routes and other pilgrimage itineraries. Of note is the Beirut-Damascus macadamized road; the Beirut-Damascus Railway (completed in 1895); the Jezreel Valley Railway (completed in 1905), which connects the key port of Haifa to Dera'a (along the Hejaz Railway); and the Homs-Tripoli Railway (completed in 1911).

8) Baghdad Vilayet: This province occupies the heart of historical Mesopotamia, and features Baghdad, the great centre of commerce and learning. It anchored a region of vast agrarian wealth (also thought by some to be rich in oil!) and was in 1913 the focus of a grand Ottoman-German design to link Berlin to the Persian Gulf by way of the Berlin-Baghdad Express (the main component of which was the Bagdadbahn, or Anatolian-Baghdad Railway, which while being built was still far from complete). The region would soon be the scene of intense warfare between Britain and Ottoman-German forces.

9) Bitlis Vilayet: A strategically important province in Turkey's Anatolian heartland.

10) Hejaz Vilayet: This is a stellar map of Hejaz that focuses upon the line of the Hejaz Railway, which was completed as far a south as Medina in 1908. The railway, which roughly follows the route of the legendary Syrian Hajj Road (which runs from Damascus to Mecca), labels all stations along the line. Additionally, the map shows the routes of the region's road system, notably the Yembo-Medina Road, Media-Mecca Road, and what is today known as the Old Mecca-Jeddah Road, which were long critical routes for Hajj pilgrims. Key caravan routes are also shown leading to the Najd and Aqaba (a place soon to be made famous by Lawrence of Arabia and his Arab allies).

11) Aleppo Vilayet: This sprawling vilayet makes up north-western Syria and extends deep into southern Anatolia. It features the famous trading centre of Aleppo and the port of Iskenderun (Alexandretta). The region, being the gateway to the Levant, was traversed by critical highways and Hajj pilgrimage routes, as well as occupying a vital place along the emerging Anatolian-Baghdad Railway.

12) Hüdavendigâr (Bursa) Vilayet: A wealthy province located along the south shore of the Sea of Marmara, featuring Bursa, a former imperial capital.

13) Diyarbakir Vilayet: This is a strategically important region making up the Kurdish heartland.

14) Syria (Damascus) Vilayet: A vital province containing what is today southern Syria and most of Jordan. The provincial capital, Damascus, was a key transport hub, being the departure point of the Syrian Hajj Road, the 1307 km-long route from Damascus to Mecca and the most legendary of all the great Islamic pilgrimage routes (today a candidate for UNESCO World Heritage Status); the head of the Hejaz Railway (since 1908); and one of the termini of the vital Damascus-Beirut macadamized road (completed in 1865). These vital routes, or portions thereof, are all clearly illustrated upon the map.

15) Sivas Vilayet: A keystone province in central Anatolia.

16) Trabzon Vilayet (Eastern Portion): Showcasing the eastern section of this elongated province, including the major Black Sea trading port of Trabzon; traversed by key routes following the ancient Silk Road to Persia.

17) Trabzon Vilayet (Western Portion): Containing the western part of this vilayet, including the port of Samsun.

18) Konya Vilayet: A large province in south-central Anatolia traversed by key highways and a critical section of the Anatolian-Baghdad Railway.

19) Kastamonu Vilayet: A resource-rich vilayet along the Black Sea in north-western Anatolia.

20) Mamuret-ul-Aziz (Harput) Vilayet: a strategically important vilayet near the headwaters of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers.

21) Mosul Vilayet: Comprising what is today Northern Iraq, one of the world's largest oil deposits would soon be discovered there.

22) Van Vilayet: Home to the city of Van, located along the shores of the vast eponymous high-altitude lake.

23) Bolou Sanjak (Zonguldak): This special map focuses upon the Bolou Sanjak of the Kastamonu Vilayet, which was then a locus of major road construction owing to the area's critical role in the empire's participation in the Industrial Revolution; the region was home to vast natural resources, notably the coalmines of Zonguldak.

24) Untitled Map of 'The Çatalca Line': The special map shows the strategically vital section of the isthmus separating the Black Sea from the Sea of Marmara to the west of

Istanbul. The so-called 'Çatalca Line' was considered to be the last stand of defence of the Ottoman capital, as was the case when the Bulgarian Army surged towards Istanbul in the early days of 1913, during the First Balkan War, just months before the present atlas was made; only concerted emergency action by the Ottoman Army saved the capital from capture. Naturally, the delineation of the roads in this region was of vital military interest, while the corridor is also crossed by the Rumelian Railway carrying the Orient Express.

25) Zor Vilayet: This vast desert vilayet takes up much of eastern Syria, and includes a good part of the upper Euphrates valley and the key caravan hub of Deir ez-Zor.

26) Mecca & Jeddah: This is a splendid map of the Mecca, Jeddah and Ta'if area of the Hejaz, featuring routes of the upmost importance to Islam. The holiest city of Mecca appears in the upper-right centre, while the Red Sea port of Jeddah is located to the left side and the city of Ta'if is present to the southeast of Mecca. The map labels the critical route today known as the Old Mecca-Jeddah Road that connected the holy sites to the port that was in the age of steamship travel the key disembarkation point for the faithful. Additionally, the map shows the beginning of the route from Mecca to Medina (the second holiest city in Islam), as well as the two main alternative roads form Mecca to Ta'if, itineraries imbued with tremendous religious significance. Despite the area's extreme importance, maps focussing closely in upon the Mecca-Jeddah area are surprisingly uncommon.

A Note on Rarity

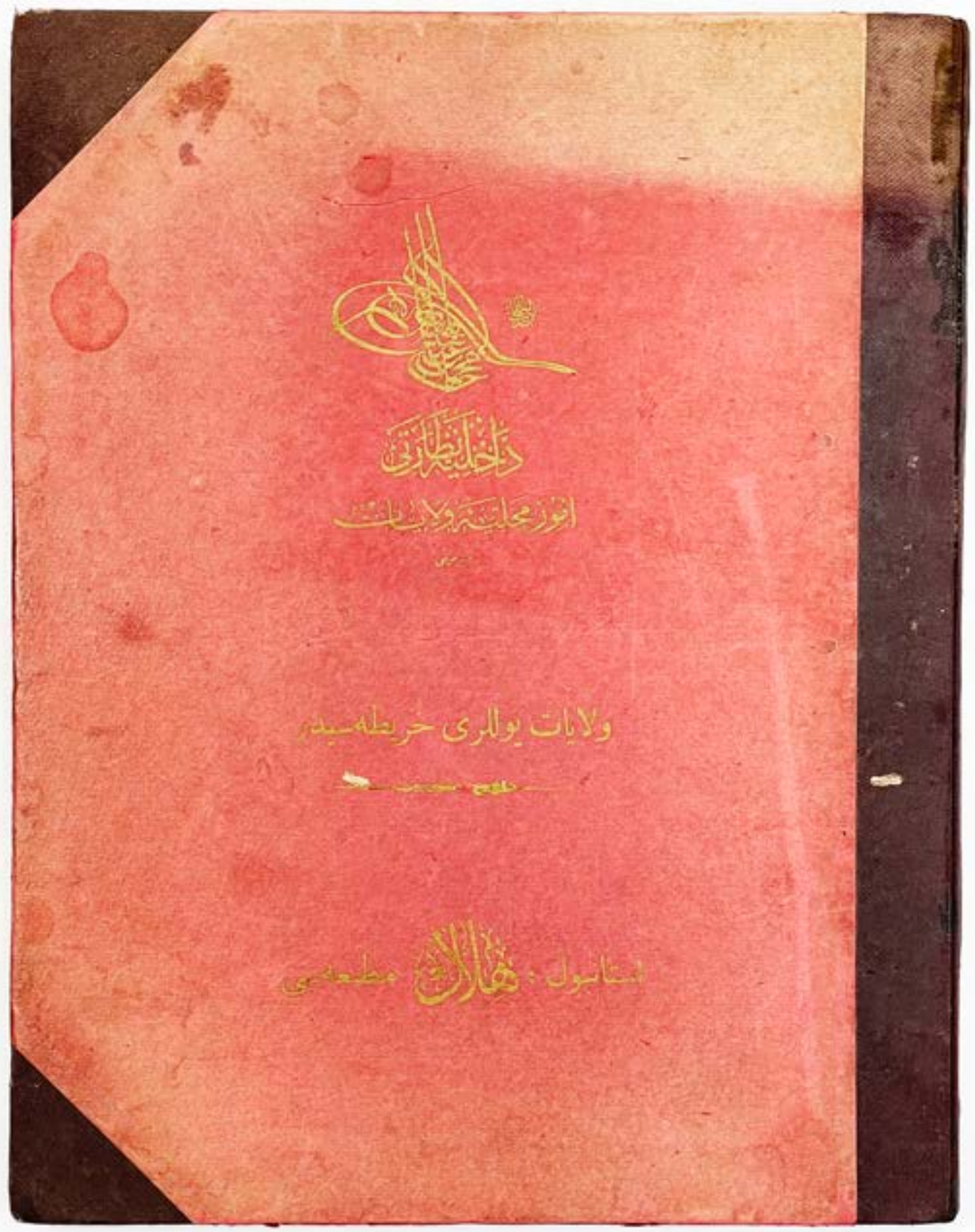
The present atlas is exceedingly rare. It would have been issued in only a very small print run for exclusive circulation to senior Ottoman civil and military officials. Upon the commencement of World War I, the atlas would have been 'restricted', as it contains militarily sensitive information. Printed on thin, fragile paper, its survival rate would have been low.

We can trace only 3 institutional examples of the atlas, all in Turkey.

Historical Context: The Transportation and Cartography Revolution in the Late Ottoman Empire

The decades from the 1860s onwards marked an era of intense modernization of the Ottoman Empire, including the creation of macadamized roads, railways and modern ports. It also hailed the rise of highly sophisticated scientific and thematic cartography of the all regions of the realm created by Ottoman subjects, as opposed to Westerners.

Transportation had always been one of the great challenges confronting the Ottoman Empire. An astoundingly vast realm, traditionally spanning parts of three continents, and traversing some of the World's most rugged and forbidding terrain, overland travel was especially difficult. Historically, the condition of the empire's roads was deplorable; many places were connected only by crude caravan trails. For instance, before the introduction of railways, it took 14-16 days for a horse cart laden with produce to travel from Ankara to Istanbul, while the routes between centres even further part could take months to traverse.



Throughout the 19th Century the territorial integrity of the empire was continually threatened and reduced by the Sublime Porte's foreign and domestic enemies. The inability of the Ottoman Army to quickly deploy to military theatres severely limited the Sultan's authority. Moreover, the extreme travel times between centres hindered the empire's ability to develop a modern industrial national economy, one of the government's ultimate goals.

The empire was also home to Mecca and Medina, the two holiest sites of Islam, the latter of which was the destination of the Hajj, the world's greatest pilgrimage. The Ottoman Sultan's legitimacy rested upon his clam to being the Caliph of Islam, or the Defender of the Faith, which included a responsibility for the protection of pilgrims. As the routes to Mecca were often arduous, if not dangerous, this somewhat undercut the Sultan's effectiveness as the 'protector', a matter which Abdul Hamid II (reigned 1876 - 1909) would go to extraordinary efforts to ameliorate.

Serious investment in the Ottoman road system commenced in the 1860s resulting in the construction of important macadamized roads, such as the Damascus-Beirut Road (completed 1865). However, for many years development was patchy, and a dramatic and comprehensive road construction scheme was not developed until well into the reign of Abdul Hamid II. The Highways Act of 1898 promised to fund thousands of kilometres of roads, while raising new levees from taxes at the vilayet level. While this resulted in some major improvements in the wealthier vilayets that could afford the levees, regions that could not raise the funds did not enjoy much progress.

The rise of the 'Young Turks' administration in 1908 brought a new level of energy to Ottoman road construction. The renewed threat of war and a desire to jump-start the economy, motivated the Young Turks to support an unprecedented programme to expand and improve the road system all across the empire; however, this time funds from the central treasury would be used to ensure that the projects in even the less affluent vilayets could be completed. The 1908 Highways Act promised to build 30,044 km of roads (many macadamized) over the next eight years. The design was to rely heavily upon borrowed foreign capital and the expertise of French contractors, who while expensive, were the best road builders in the world.

Over the next four years, much progress on road construction was made; however, the First and Second Balkan Wars (1912-3), not only robbed the empire of almost all of its European territories (and roads), but also redirected vital finds and manpower away from the road projects in Ottoman Asia. As the present atlas shows, many planned, or in-progress road projects were still far from being realized. While thousands on new kilometres of road had been completed in Ottoman Asia, progress was still far off pace, at the current rate of construction only about a third, or 10,000 km, of the projected new rods roads were on target to be finished in the allotted 8-year period.

While the outbreak of World War I saw the virtual cessation of vital road construction in the empire, and the dismissal of all the French contractors (who now represented an enemy state), in many regions road construction accelerated, as the Ottoman Army, often advised by German engineers, rapidly ploughed through construction to meet the urgent needs of military movement. Thus, in this unexpected way, some of the unfinished projects depicted on the present maps were soon realized.

While the depiction of the Ottoman Empire's railways was not a stated aim of the present work, as it happens, the work features a stellar portrayal of all the country's lines. The three maps that depict what remained of Ottoman Europe (essentially the Edirne to Istanbul corridor) show the eastern section of the Rumelian Railway, which in 1888 became the first line to connect Istanbul with the European system, providing the direct route for the famed Orient Express. On the Asian side, the first great leg of the Anatolian Railway connected Istanbul to Ankara on December 31, 1892. The Anatolian Railway would subsequently be expanded with the ambition of reaching Iraq, creating the Baghdad Railway (a project which would become one of the great factors of World War I). This would be followed by the great railway boom that would occur in the Levant and Arabia, whereby from 1895 to 1908, major centres in Syria, Lebanon and Palestine would be linked, while the legendary Hejaz Railway would connect Damascus to Medina (within relatively close proximity to Mecca). The railways had a revolutionary effect upon the Ottoman Empire, spurring economic development, improving governance and facilitating military movement.

The empire's infrastructure projects and related economic development, administrative and military ventures were a catalyst leading to the creation of advanced thematic cartography in Istanbul. The Sublime Porte's various organs (including the Interior Ministry) provided generous funding for the creation of maps to assist the modernization of the country and the graphic recording of data. This dovetailed into the rise of a vibrant private publishing scene that enjoyed government patronage. Ottoman cartographers were initially schooled in the world's most advanced cartographic methods by French and German instructors (while some Ottoman mapmakers even apprenticed in European geographic publishing houses), although by the late 1880s many Ottoman cartographers had gained the skills and experience to develop their own unique works with an Ottoman flair, well beyond duplicating Western methods.

Of relevance to the present atlas was the Ottoman Army General Staff's production of the Osmanlı Devletinin karayolları haritası (Istanbul, 1893), the first distance-time-route map of the entire Ottoman Empire. While this map showed the approximate routes and travel time between all key points, it did not detail any of the routes. This innovation would be left to the present atlas, which represented the 'next generation' in Ottoman transportation cartography.

References: OCLC 51297423; ÖZEGE, no. 22737; Türkiye Diyanet Vakfı - İslâm Araştırmaları Merkezi (İSAM) [Turkey Diyanet Foundation – Centre for Islamic Studies, Istanbul]: 912.95607 VİL.Y; Dâhiliye Nezareti Umur-ı Mahalliye ve Vilayat Müdürlüğü Evrakı [Archives of the Turkish Interior Ministry, Ankara]: DH. UMVM. 74/31; İstanbul Büyükşehir Belediyesi Atatürk Kitaplığı [Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality Atatürk Library], No. 23589; OCLC: 51297423 [listing the work, but not citing the locations of any examples]; [Re: Citations in Recent Academic Publications]: Emre EROL, The Ottoman Crisis in Western Anatolia: Turkey's Belle Epoque and the and the Transition to a Modern Nation State (London, 2016), pp. 73 and 301; Ahmet KISA, 'II. Meşrutiyet Dönemi'nde Bitlis Vilayeti'nde Karayolları' [Highways in Bitlis Province During the Second Constitutional Era], Tarih ve Gelecek Dergisi, Aralık 2019, Cilt 5, Sayı 3 [Journal of History and the Future, December 2019, Volume 5, Issue 3], pp. 702-11, esp. pp. 707-8.

9.500 EUR

21. Argentina
French Blockade Of The Río De La Plata (1838-40)
Buenos Aires Imprint

Felipe Benicio de la Paz ARANA y Andonaegui (1786 - 1865). / Aimé ROGER.

Note officielle du consul chargé par interim du Consulat General de France a Buenos Aires… / Official Note from the Consul Charged ad Interim of the General Consulate of France in Buenos-Aires, to the Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Argentine Confederation, reclaiming on the authority of international law, that the French, who notoriously and publicly have established themselves in the republic with the same enjoyments and civil liberties as the Argentine citizens, be not considered as domiciliated in the place in which they have established themselves. The answer from the minister and other documents upon the same subject.

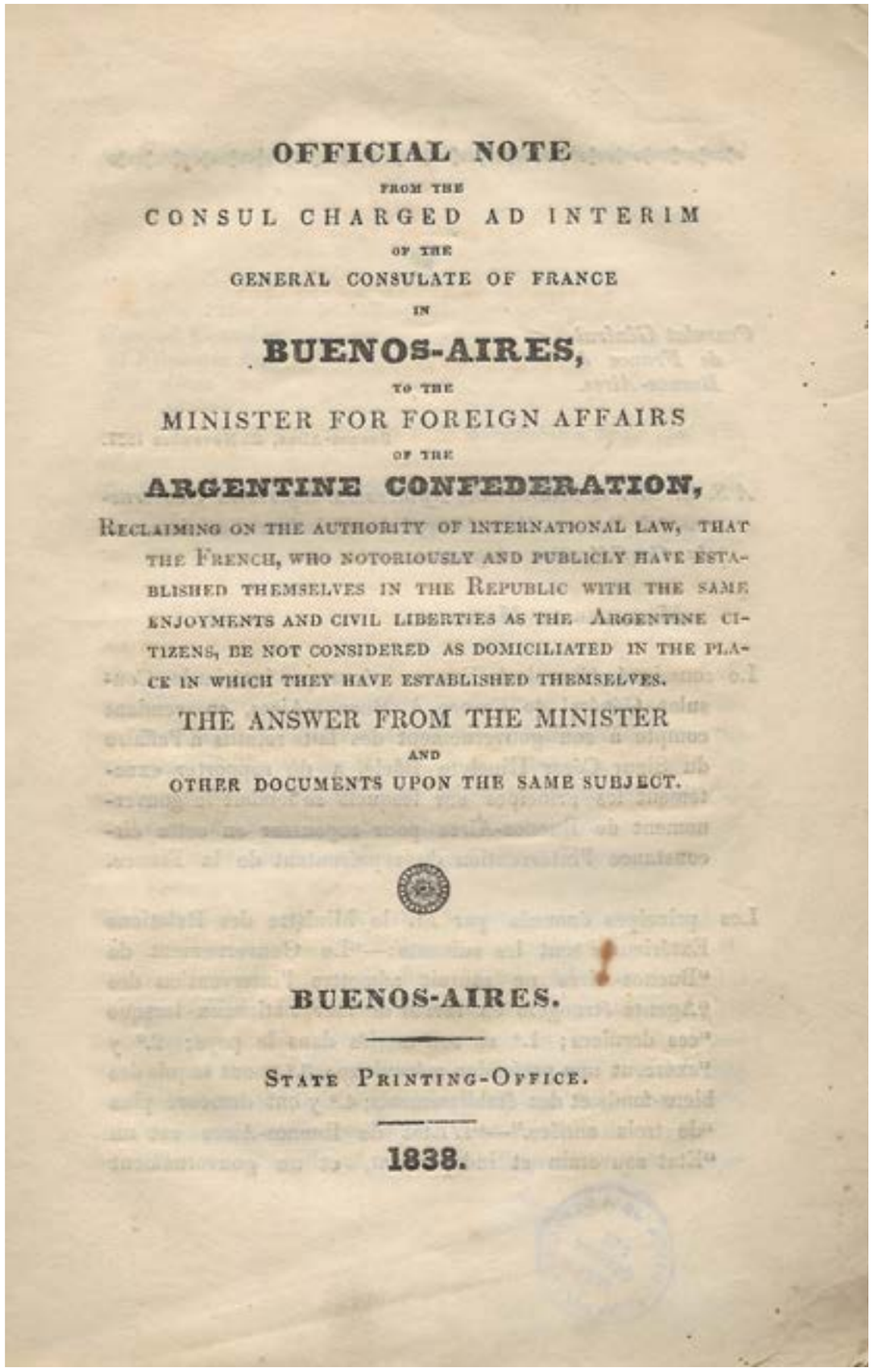
Buenos Aires: State Printing-Office, 1838.

8° (20.5 x 15 cm): 229 pp., later wrappers (two small crossed out stamps, first pages slightly dusty and with minor foxing, corners with soft folds, but overall in a good condition).

A very rare and important work regarding the French Blockade of the Río De La Plata (1838-40), a major event in Latin American diplomatic history, whereby France interfered in regional civil conflicts, closing the port of Buenos Aires for over 2 years; printed by the state press in Buenos Aires on the orders of the Argentine Confederation's Foreign Minter Felipe Benicio de la Paz Arana, featuring 'dueling' correspondence between him and the French Consul Aimé Roger, issued as a sophisticated propaganda piece in an effort to show the international community France was making unreasonable demands upon the Argentine Confederation.

The French blockade of the Río de la Plata (March 28, 1838 to October 29, 1840), whereby the French Navy closed the port of Buenos Aires for over two years, was a major event in Latin American history that had long-lasting implications, as it set a precedent for continued European and American intervention in the region. From the U.S. perspective, it also showed the impotence of the 'Monroe Doctrine', in that Washington was not yet powerful enough to dissuade European powers from adventures in the Americas.

The circumstances surrounding the blockade are incredibly complex. To make a very long story short, Argentina was then a loose confederation of states, dominated by Buenos Aires Province (which included the eponymous city), as opposed to being a unitary political entity. This arrangement was controversial, as the Argentine estab-


OFFICIAL NOTE
FROM THE
CONSUL CHARGED AD INTERIM
OF THE
GENERAL CONSULATE OF FRANCE
IN
BUENOS-AIRES,
TO THE
MINISTER FOR FOREIGN AFFAIRS
OF THE
ARGENTINE CONFEDERATION,
RECLAIMING ON THE AUTHORITY OF INTERNATIONAL LAW, THAT THE FRENCH, WHO NOTORIOUSLY AND PUBLICLY HAVE ESTABLISHED THEMSELVES IN THE REPUBLIC WITH THE SAME ENJOYMENTS AND CIVIL LIBERTIES AS THE ARGENTINE CITIZENS, BE NOT CONSIDERED AS DOMICILIATED IN THE PLACE IN WHICH THEY HAVE ESTABLISHED THEMSELVES.
THE ANSWER FROM THE MINISTER
AND
OTHER DOCUMENTS UPON THE SAME SUBJECT.
BUENOS-AIRES.
STATE PRINTING-OFFICE.
1838.

lishment was split into the Unitiarios (Unitarians), who wanted Argentina to become a centralized, unitary state, while the Federales (Federalists) preferred the status quo.

The Federales were led by the charismatic Juan Manuel de Rosas (1793 - 1877), the Governor of Buenos Aires (1835-52), lionized by his supporters as the 'Restorer of Laws', who wanted to maintain a decentralized system so that Buenos Aires would not have to share its great bounty of customs revenues with Argentina's poorer provinces. To make matters more complex, the Argentine conflict dovetailed into the War of the Confederation (1836-9), a civil conflict that involved Peru and Bolivia, with the Bolivian generalissimo Andrés de Santa Cruz providing crucial support to the Unitarios. The Argentine struggle was also caught up in the Uruguayan Civil War (1839-51), with the Unitarios supporting the Colorado party, led by Fructuoso Rivera, and the Federales supporting the Blanco party, led by Manel Oribe.

The reason why France, Britain and other European powers were interested in the civil conflict in Argentina and neighbouring countries was that the Unitarios were proponents of free trade (good for Europe), while the Federales were in favour of protectionism (bad for Europe). Argentine trade with France and Britain through the Buenos Aires port was immense, so there was a lot of money at stake.

Both France and Britain preferred a Unitarios regime, however, London was determined to maintain a cautious approach, while Paris was eager for confrontation. France sent the hot-headed Aimé Roger to be their envoy to Buenos Aires. He had a mandate to present Rosas and his foreign minister, Felipe Benicio de la Paz Arana, with unreasonable demands (please see below), delivered at gunpoint. The French (correctly) assumed that Rosas would not agree to said blackmail, at which point the French Navy would blockade Buenos Aires's port, and further believed that this would deliver a death blow to the province's economy. They (naively) assumed that this would stoke public anger against Rosas and force him out of power, giving way to weak and plaint Federale leadership.

A French Navy fleet, commanded by Admiral Louis François Jean Leblanc, successfully sealed off the port of Buenos Aires, beginning on March 28, 1838, severely harming the economy of the province. Yet, Rosas dug-in and refused to concede. Instead of resenting Rosas, the citizenry saw him a heroic figure and his popularity went through the roof. The longer the siege dragged on, the more the costs weighed on the French treasury, and the more it seems to have strengthen Rosas's administration. In this context, the present work fulfils a pro-Federale propagandist purpose, as it shows the French to be petulant, unjust and a touch impotent, while Arana (and by extension, Rosas) is shown to be strong, measured and dignified.

Eventually, Britain lost patience with France's fiasco, and placed pressure upon Paris to abandon the endeavour. At the same time, even the most ardent diehards in Paris realized that the writing was on the wall. With the Mackau-Arana Treaty, France ended the blockade on October 29, 1840, leaving Rosas and Federales as the victors in the

victors in the Argentine civil conflicts - at least for the time being. Rosas maintained his protectionist trade policies, much to consternation of European powers.

However, just to show that history repeats itself, and that most countries never learn from their mistakes, Britain and France mounted the five-year-long Anglo-French Blockade of the Río de la Plata (1845-50), against the Rosas regime, for similar reasons (i.e., Buenos Aires's continued protectionist trade policies). The blockade ended with the same result, with Britain and France forced to withdraw, acknowledging the sovereignty of the Argentine Confederation. Yet, the failures of both blockades would not dissuade foreign powers - namely the United States - from mounting costly interventions in Latin America up to the present day, often with disastrous results.

The Present Work in Focus

The present work is a clever piece of pro-Federale propaganda, and is of the best kind, as it is predicated upon entirely factual information. It is a collection of unaltered correspondence between the French Consul Aimé Roger and the Argentine Confederation Foreign Minister Felipe Benicio de la Paz Arana y Andonaegui (1786 - 1865), plus supporting documents. The entire work, consisting of 37 documents, is printed in parallel French-English text, as the work was geared towards an international audience, with French being the established global diplomatic language, while the English text was ideally meant to be consumed by British officials in the hopes that they would pressure France to back down (which eventually happened after over 2 years!).

In essence, it outlines Roger's three demands to Arana that: 1) a pair of French citizens in custody in Buenos Aires be released. These prisoners included César Hipólito Bacle, who was accused of selling sensitive Argentine military cartography to Bolivia, an enemy of the Federales; and Pedro Lavié, who was accused of stealing from an Argentine army regiment in Dolores. 2) That two other dual French-Argentine citizens be excused from military service. 3) In what was by far the biggest 'ask', Roger demanded that France be granted "most favoured nation" trading status, which would confer it extensive commercial privileges that would destroy Rosa's protectionist economic regime. While the first two demands were modest and could have been consented to without too much trouble, the final issue was something that Rosas and Arana could never concede, at least not without being compelled to do so by military force. The documents include Arana's resolutely unyielding responses to Roger's demands.

The propaganda effect of the work is that it essentially shows Roger and the French side to be arrogant, unreasonable, petulant and increasingly impotent, while Arana's tone is calm, measured, dignified and defiant. Any objective reader would be inclined to side with the Argentine Confederation.

There appears to have been two editions of the work. The present issue, which we presume to be the first edition, contains 37 documents and is 229 pages long, while what is apparently the second edition was expanded to include 50 documents, with a collation of 265 pages.

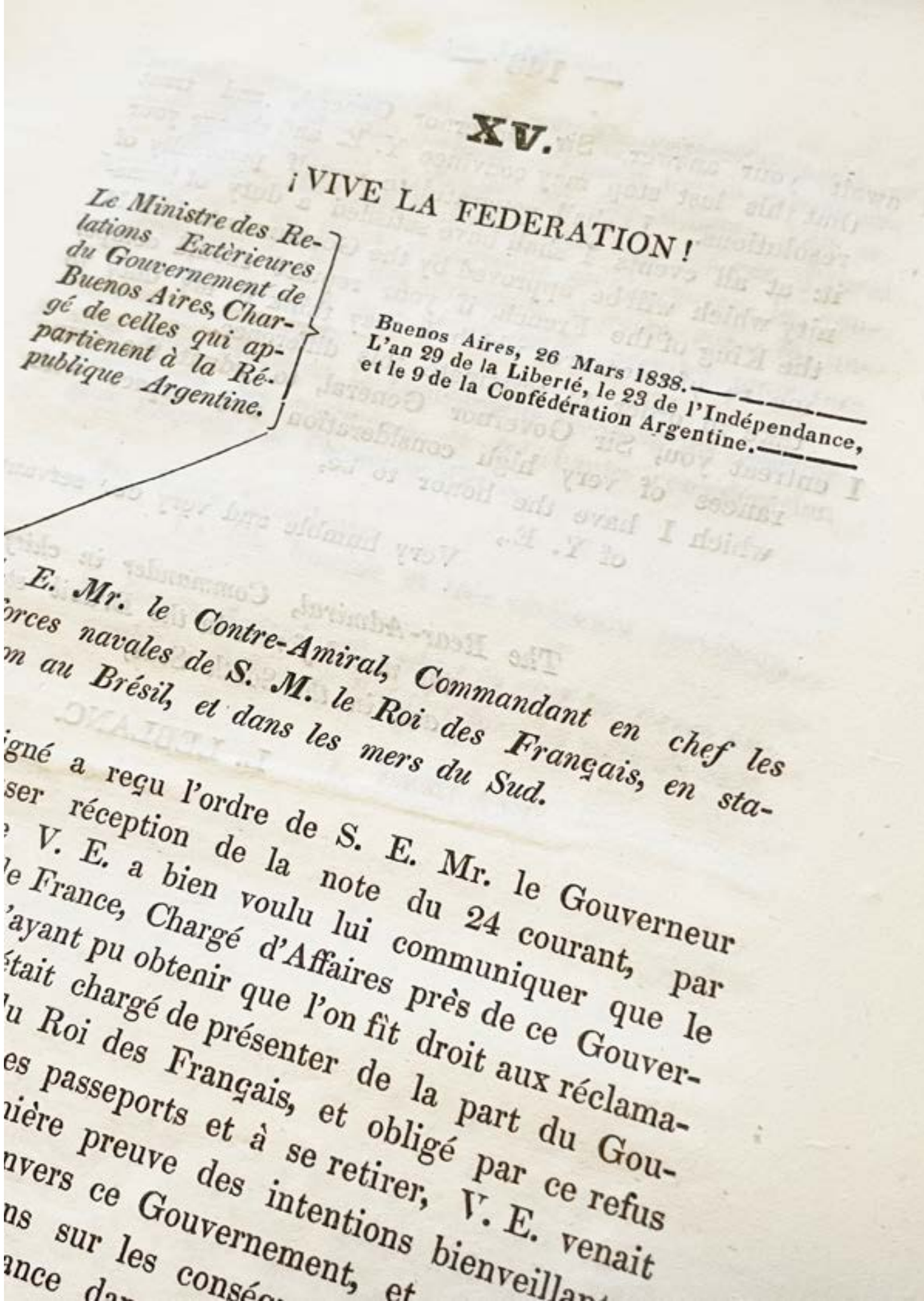
Also, pro-Federale operatives in Montevideo issued a version of the present work with text in Spanish, French and English, Oficio del cónsul encargado interinamente del Consulado General de Francia en Buenos Ayres, al Sr. Ministro de Relaciones Exteriores de la Confederación Argentina reclamando a nombre del derecho de gentes, para que los franceses, que publica y notoriamente se hallan establecidos en la República... contestación del Sr. Ministro y otros documenos relativos al mismo asunto (Montevideo: Impr. Oriental, 1838).

A Note on Rarity

The present work is very rare, we can locate 6 institutional examples of either of the editions, held by the Universidad de Buenos Aires - Facultad de Ciencias Económicas; Biblioteca Nacional de Chile; New York Public Library; Boston Atheneum; University of Kansas – Wheat Law Library; and the Universitätsbibliothek der Eberhard Karls Universität (Tübingen). Beyond that, we can trace only a single sales record from the last 25 years, in an Argentine auction catalogue.

References: Universidad de Buenos Aires - Facultad de Ciencias Económicas: AHA 025291; Biblioteca Nacional de Chile: 327.55082; New York Public Library: *KF 1838 (France. Consulate. Buenos Aires. Official note from the consul); Boston Atheneum: EW .1838 .f; University of Kansas – Wheat Law Library: 1729938; Universitätsbibliothek der Eberhard Karls Universität (Tübingen): Fo XXVIII 39; OCLC: 55277083, 311188308, 37178962; SABIN, no. 9028; Jorge C. BOHDZIEWICZ, Impresos relativos a la guerra franco-argentina, 1835-1842: contribución bibliográfica y crítica (Buenos Aires, 1982), p. 24.

1.400 EUR



XV.

¡VIVE LA FEDERATION!

Le Ministre des Relations Extèrieures du Gouvernement de Buenos Aires, Chargé de celles qui appartienent à la République Argentine.

Buenos Aires, 26 Mars 1838.
L'an 29 de la Liberté, le 23 de l'Indépendance,
et le 9 de la Confédération Argentine.

E. Mr. le Contre-Amiral, Commandant en chef les
orces navales de S. M. le Roi des Français, en sta-
m au Brésil, et dans les mers du Sud.

igné a reçu l'ordre de S. E. Mr. le Gouverneur
ser réception de la note du 24 courant, par
e V. E. a bien voulu lui communiquer que le
le France, Chargé d'Affaires près de ce Gouver-
'ayant pu obtenir que l'on fît droit aux réclama-
était chargé de présenter de la part du Gou-
u Roi des Français, et obligé par ce refus
es passeports et à se retirer, V. E. venait
nière preuve des intentions bienveillant
nvers ce Gouvernement, et
ns sur les conséq
ance da

22. ‘Eccentric’ Late Enlightenment Philosophy
Napoleonic Wars
World Map

Johann Jakob Otto August Rühle von LILIENSTERN (1780 - 1847).

Hieroglyphen oder Blicke aus dem Gebiete der Wissenschaft in die Geschichte des Tages.

Dresden & Leipzig: Carl Gottlob Gärtner, 1809.

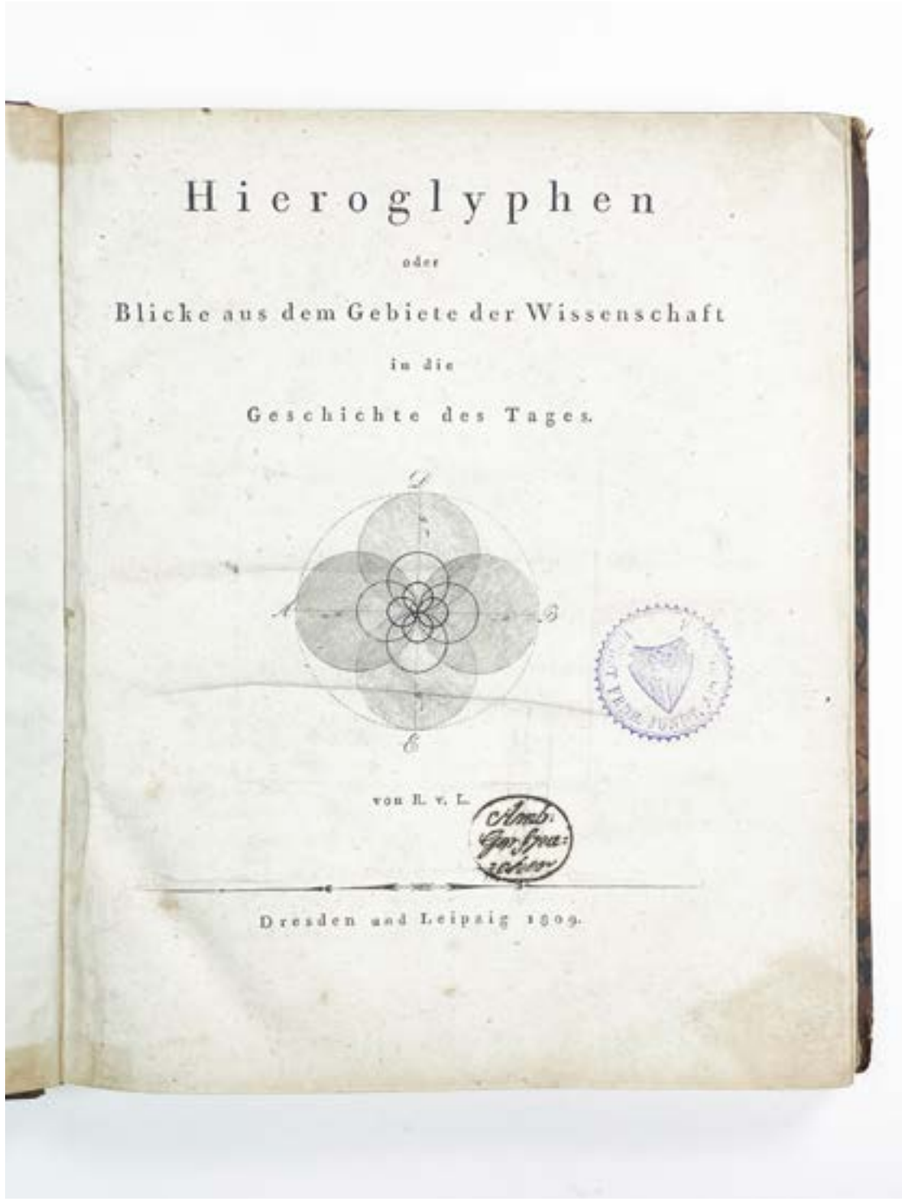
4° (24.5 x 20.5 cm): vi pp., 184 pp., plus a large folding World Map (58.5 x 71.5 cm) with original hand colour printed on thick paper, contemporary quarter calf with marbled boards, gilt designs and title label to spine, 2 old handstamps of private collectors to title and 1 handstamp to front free endpaper (Very Good, light even toning to textblock, small abrasion to 1 leaf (pp. 49/50) with no loss, World Map overall clean and bright with resplendent colours just some light marginal toning, binding worn with some chipping to head of spine).

The very rare first edition of a fascinating and wonderfully eccentric treatise on the philosophical, scientific and political state of the world during the Napoleonic Wars, and the historical journey that led to those times, by the German military scientist Rühle von Lilienstern, illustrated by a large, unique and resplendently coloured World Map on an oblique double-elliptical projection, illustrating the contemporary political state of the world.

This intriguing and highly unusual work epitomizes the Late Enlightenment obsession with eccentric intellectual theories about history and the contemporary state of the world, as Europe and many of its colonies were destabilized by the Napoleonic Wars. Written by the brilliant, yet mercurial, Prussian army officer and man of letters Johann Jakob Otto August Rühle von Lilienstern, the text takes the reader on a wonderfully weird journey through hieroglyphs, philosophy, science and historical vignettes to arrive at an understanding of the world. He lends curious insights into the state of relations between the great powers, particularly involving issues between Britain, India and France, during a time of extreme tension and uncertainty.

The highlight of the book is perhaps the large World map (58.5 x 71.5 cm), Beide Hemisphaeren der Erdoberflaeche auf einem Blatte dargestellt von R. v. L. / Dresden 1807 (printed in Berlin by C. Stein), engraved on thick paper and adorned with resplendent colours.

While the book spends a great deal of time explaining the map, it is often not present with the book, and was perhaps often issued separately (it was published in Berlin, while the book was issued in Dresden/Leipzig).




Nördlicher Grosser oder Stiller Ocean
Atlantischer Ocean
Aethiopischer Ocean
Süd Ocean
Indischer Ocean
Nord Meer
Caribisches Meer
Patagonisches Meer
Ost Meer
Ochotskisches Meer
Japanisches Meer
Gelbes Meer
Caspisches Meer
Schwarzes Meer
Rothes Meer
Persischer Golf
Arabischer Golf
Guinea
Nördliches Eismeer
Erdoberfläche

The map depicts the world on a very unusual oblique double-elliptical projection and showcases the political state of the world during the Napoleonic Wars. The lovely bright hues colour-code the parts of the world dominated by the various great powers during the era of the Napoleonic Wars. It is important to note that France is shown to rule much of continental Europe, while the former colonial empire of the Netherlands (ex. Indonesia, Suriname) is controlled by France and Britain (Cape Colony). The colour-coding is as follows: Spain (light grey); France (purple); Prussia (dark orange); Austria (yellow); Britain (reddish-brown); Russia (mid-orange); China (mid-grey); Persia (pink); Portugal (light orange); North America (i.e., the United States, steel grey); Sweden-Denmark (green); and No Man's Land (light orange).

Johann Jakob Otto August von Lilienstern: Intellectual Soldier in the Age of the Napoleonic Wars

Johann Jakob Otto August Rühle von Lilienstern (1780 - 1847) was a senior Prussian army officer (eventually a Lieutenant General) and intellectual, of a mercurial and eccentric temperament. Born to a well-off military family in Berlin, he joined the Cadet Corps, but contemplated quitting the army as his personality was unsuited to military discipline. However, he soon came under the wing of generals von Geusau and Scharnhorst who recognized him as one who is "distinguished by ability, knowledge and diligence", arranging for him to attend the Academy for Officers, in 1801, from which he graduated.

He was a stellar draftsman, and worked in the Royal Plan Chamber, making maps and elevations, and was given wide latitude by his superiors to study mathematics, natural sciences, philosophy, politics and the music.

In 1806, he joined the staff of the Duke of Hohenlohe, leading him to write an important record of the days before Berlin fell to Napoleon, Bericht eines Augenzeugen von dem Feldzuge der während den Monaten September und October 1806 unter dem Commando des Fürsten von Hohenlohe-Ingelfingen gestandenen Königl. preußischen und kurfürstl. sächsischen Truppen (Tübingen, 1807).

Waylaid after the defeat of Prussia, he lived in Dresden for a time, where he pursued his literary activities fulltime, resulting in the present work. There he befriended many important intellectuals, including the esteemed poet, dramatist and journalist Heinrich von Kleist. In Saxons, he aslo developed a friendship with the French General Count Bernadotte (later the King of Sweden).

Lilienstern later returned to active service, distinguishing himself as a member of the staff of the legendary Field Marshal von Blücher. Towards the end of the Napoleonic Wars, he became the Chief of the General Staff to the military governor of the Rhine Provinces. After the conflict, he moved to Berlin to work in military education, in 1835 promoted to Lieutenant General and becoming the Director of the General War School.

A Note on Editions and Rarity

The present example is of the first edition, published in 1809; a second edition was printed in 1811 by the same publisher.

Both editions of the work are very rare. We can trace 7 institutional examples of the present first edition, with only a single example outside of Germany. We cite holdings at the Bibliothèque nationale de France; Stadtbibliothek zu Berlin; Bayerische Staatsbibliothek; Universitäts- und Stadtbibliothek Köln; TU Darmstadt, Universitäts- und Landesbibliothek; Staatliche Bibliothek Ansbach; and the Bibliothek der Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München.

As for sales records, we can trace 3 examples (but only 2 complete with the map) as appearing on the market in the last 15 years.

References: Stadtbibliothek zu Berlin: 4" Nq 13448; Bayerische Staatsbibliothek: 4 Pol.g. 119 m; Bibliothèque nationale de France: Z-6785; Universitäts- und Stadtbibliothek Köln: AB038; TU Darmstadt, Universitäts- und Landesbibliothek; Signatur: 31/2813; OCLC: 1144274397; Deutsche Biographie (online), 'Rühle v. Lilienstern: Johann Jakob Otto August': https://www.deutsche-biographie.de/sfz77324.html

1.800 EUR

23. Ottoman Mapmaking Cyprus

ANONYMOUS

بر قطعهٔ ارضی فتظم حریطه سی
[A Proper Map of a Split City]

Cyprus: 3 Eylül 322 [September 3rd, 1906].

Water-colours and ink drawing, mounted on a printed template with manuscript additions in black ink. Board, 30 x 35 cm (11.8 x 13.8 inches) , mounted image: 18 x 24 cm (7 x 9.4 inches). (slightly stained, minor holes and scratches in margins, but overall in a good condition).

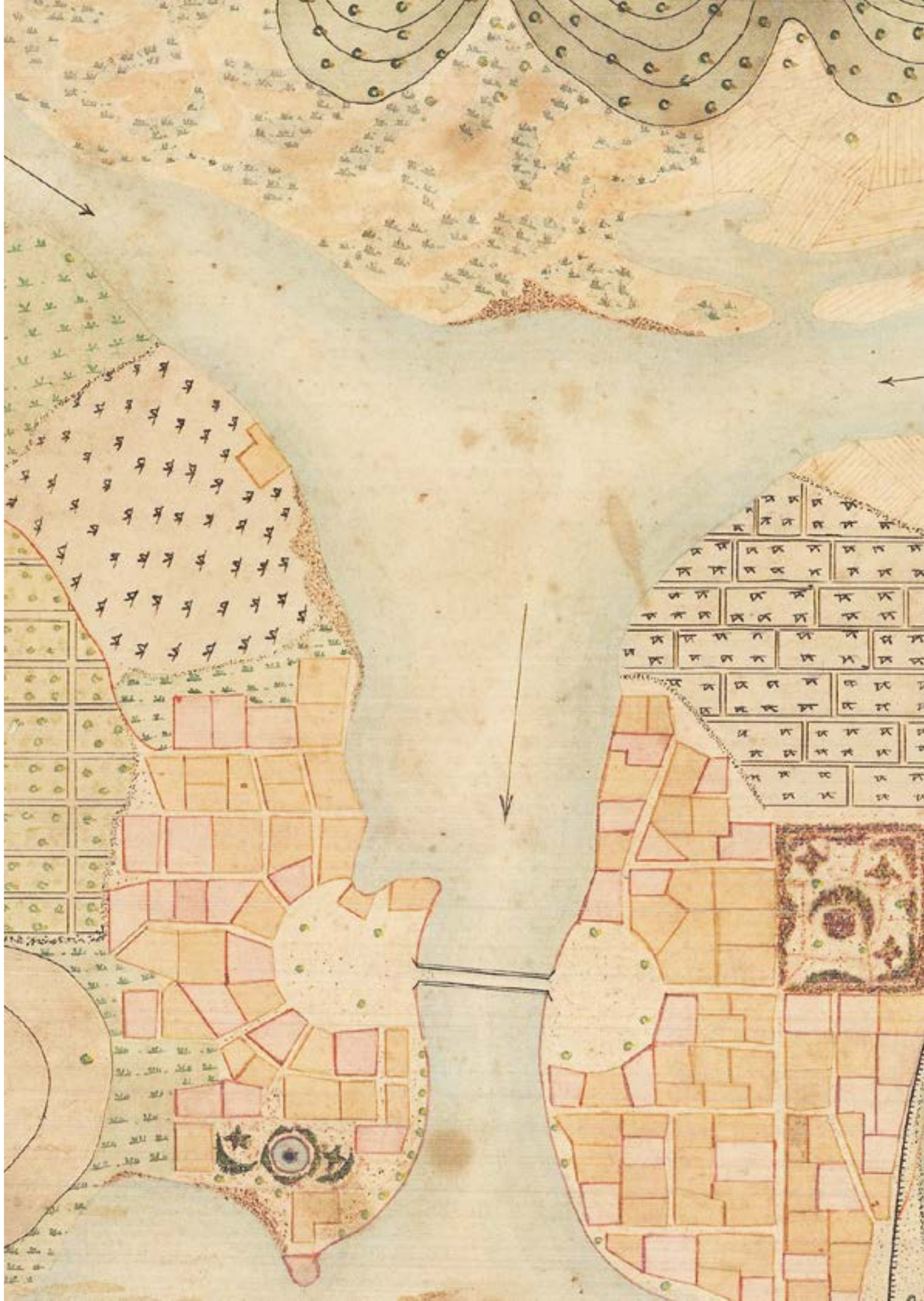
A decorative study of urbanism and map-making in Ottoman language, made in Cyprus

A decorative unique study of an ideal city split between two shores was made by an anonymous Ottoman map-maker in Cyprus, and dated September 3rd, 1906.

Various patterns and colours mark surfaces, elevations, fields, meadows and swamps, urban areas with two various types of buildings and gardens in an utopic city, suggesting, that the sketch was made as a study or possibly a school / university end exam.

The drawing represents a rare preserved example of a map-maker's study from the time of the late Ottoman Empire. The map making of this period still awaits further researches.

620 EUR




بر قطعهٔ اراضی منتظم مربعی
مقیاس : ۱/۵۰۰۰
مساحت بزرگ : ۰٫۰۰۰۵

24. Ottoman Empire Geography

Selim SABIT Efendi (1829 – 1910).

مختصر جغرافيا رساله سى
Muhtasar Coğrafya Risalesi

Istanbul: Matbaa-i Osmaniye 1301 [1884].

Small 8°, 54 pp., [2 pp.] blank, 7 colour printed double-page maps, contemporary marbled paper boards and black cloth spine (binding restored with partly repaired loss of paper, tiny holes in the folds and tiny tears in margins, minor staining, but overall in a good condition).

An early modern Ottoman geography school book

A charming book of geography with 7 double-page maps, printed in colour lithograph, representing the five continents, Turkey and the World.

Selim Sabit Efendi (1829 – 1910) was the pioneer of the Ottoman modern education. He was schooled in Istanbul and studied mathematics, physics and chemistry in Paris and was upon his return to Istanbul accused of breeching the traditional Islamic education, by arranging the classroom in a modern Western way.

Sabit revolutionized the approach to literacy in Ottoman schools by teaching the pupils to memorize the letters in connections with words, instead of memorizing them separately, as previously taught in Islamic schools. He authored two milestones in Ottoman literature Elifbâ-yı Osmanî (Ottoman ABC), a widely used primer, based on the European examples, reprinted several times in the following decades and used in the primary schools, and Rehnümâ-yi Muallimin, a pedagogical guide for teachers.

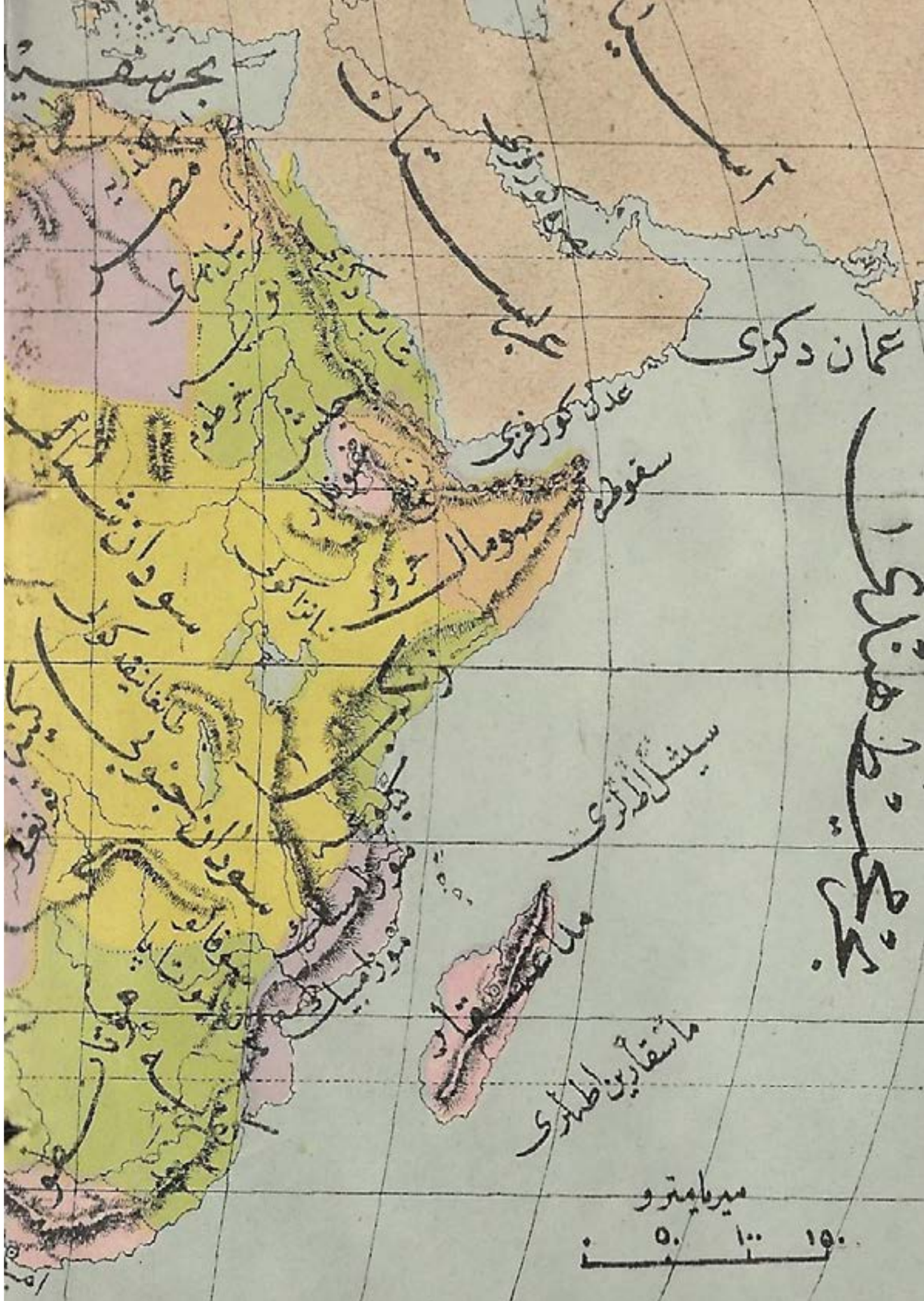
Selim Sabit also wrote several other educational books, such as a grammar manual Mi'yâru'l-Kelâm (Measure of the Word), a mathematics manual Muhtasar Hesâb Risâlesi (Short Calculation Booklet) and our geography book Muhtasar Hesâb Risâlesi (Short Geography Booklet), which is one of the first Ottoman geography school books.
Selim Sabit considered the modern geography to be a very important subject in the secondary classes. In his work Rehnümâ-yi Muallimin, a manual for teachers he states, that the students should learn about the five continents and also should be taught how to draw maps.

There were six editions of this title, with the fist one published in 1876. Ours is the fifth edition.

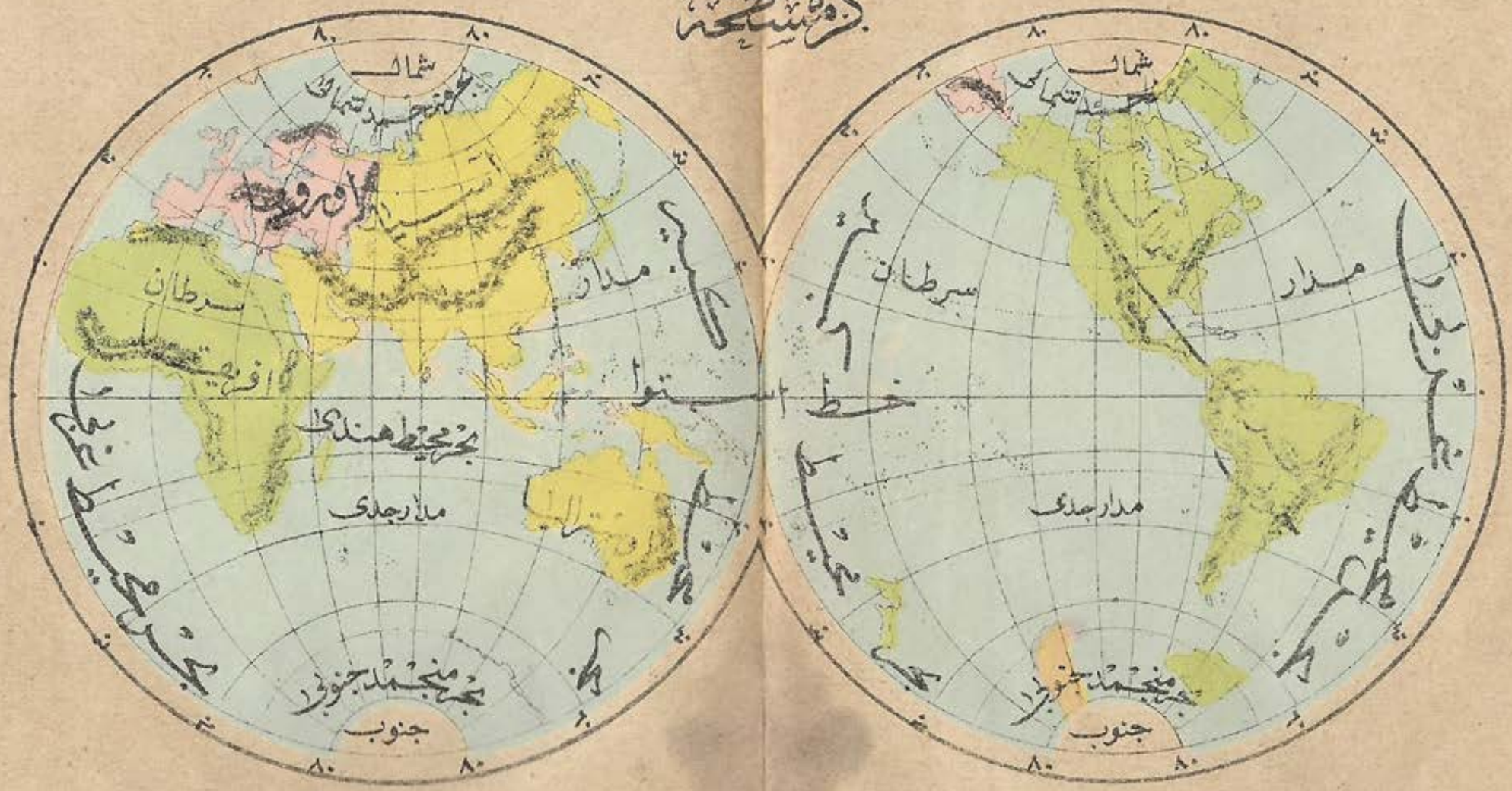
We could not find any institutional examples of the book on Worldcat. Hungarian Academy of Sciences Library houses a 1293 [1876] (first) edition.

References: ÖZEGE 14179. Osmanlı coğrafya literatürü tarihi. History of Geographical Literature during the Ottoman Period, 2000, pp. 411-412, no. 301.

850 EUR



كرة بسيطة


شمال
بحر منجمد شمالی
اوروپا
آسیا
مدار
سرطان
افریقه
استوا
بحر محیط هندی
مدار جدی
آسترالیا
بحر منجمد جنوبی
جنوب
۸۰
۶۰
۴۰
۲۰
۰

25. Ottoman School of Cartography
Blank Atlas

حسين سعادت [Hüseyin Saadet].

فن جغرافيا ايچون ياريسز خريطه دفترى

[Fenn-i Coğrafya İçin Yazısız Harita Defteri. Harita Tersimi Usûlünün Mebâdisi / Blank Map Book for Science of Geography. The Basics of the Map Representation Method]

Istanbul: Matbaa-i Osmaniye [s. d., circa 1914 or before].

6 issues with sequel pagination bound-in-one volume, small 4°, 42 pp. with facing pages marked with same numbers, each issue with original front and back wrappers, original linen boards with debossed crescent on the cover, original calf spine (boards stained and scuffed, small pieces of spine missing, front hinges partly broken, small loss of paper in on the front loose endpaper, first volume slightly stained with tiny tears and folds in margins and a small loss of paper in the margin of the last page, other volumes with light staining and sporadic small scribbles in ink in margins, but overall in a good condition).

A rare complete series of Ottoman atlases with blank maps, published for geography lessons

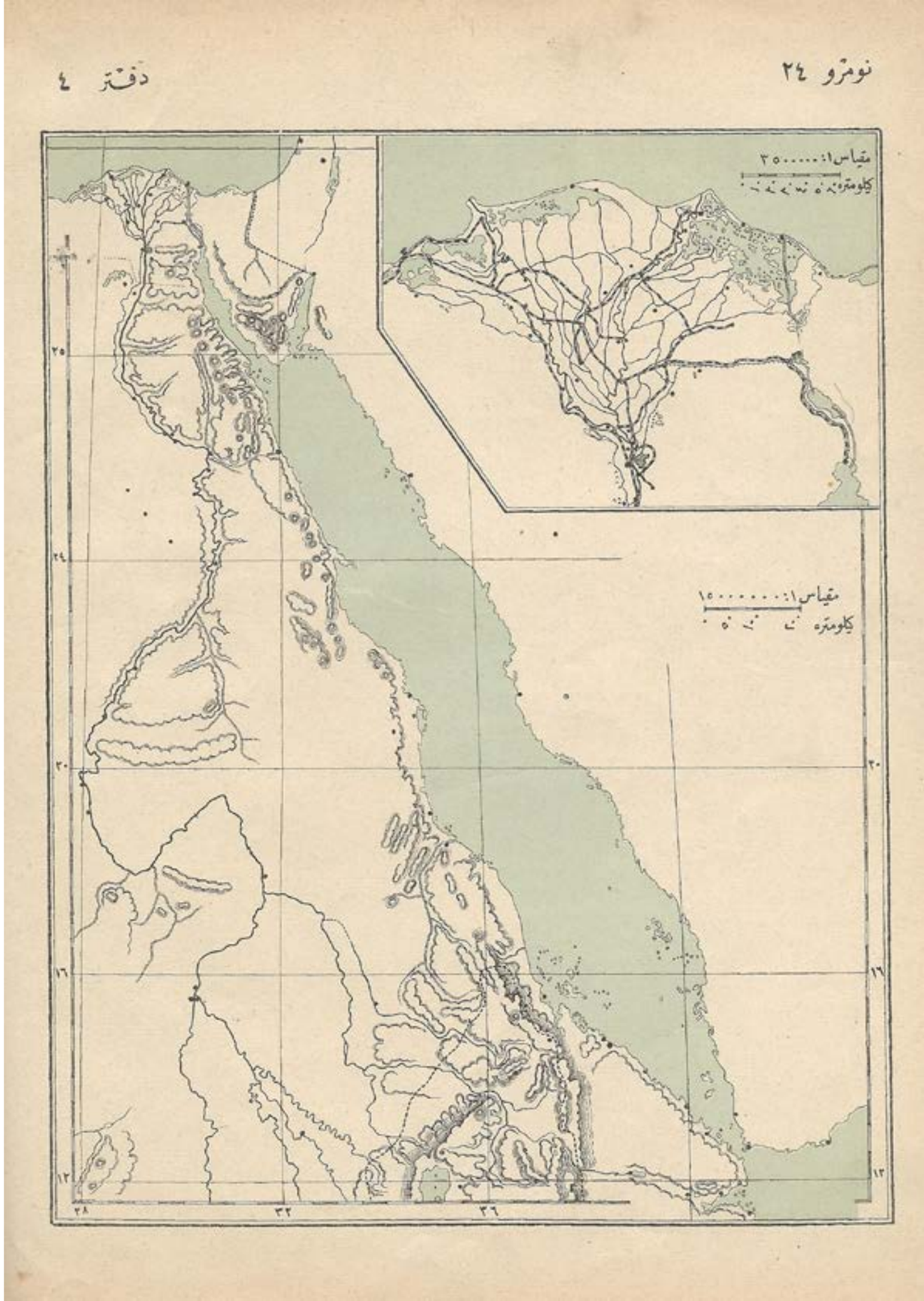
This is a rare complete set of 6 volumes of blank Ottoman ephemeral atlases, which served as school books for geography lessons in high schools and universities. The 6 issues include maps of the following areas: 1 & 2 – Europe, 3 – Asia, 4 - Africa, 5- America, 6 – Oceania and maps of the world.

The maps are left blank, without names, and are juxtaposed with pale imprints of identical images or blank grids. The blank spaces on printed maps were meant for the students to fill in with names of places and the empty grinds on the opposite pages were meant for the exercises of map drawing.

We could not find any institutional examples of complete series on Worldcat.

References. TBTK; 14362.

1.600 EUR




مقياس الخريطة
١٠ ٥ ٠ ١٠ ٢٠ ٣٠ ٤٠ كيلومتر

26. Ottoman Empire
Geography

HILMI.

چوجقلره مخصوص جغرافيا
[Çocuklara Mahsûs Coğrafya / Special Geography for Children]

Istanbul: Mürettibin-i Osmaniye Matbaası 1328 [1912].

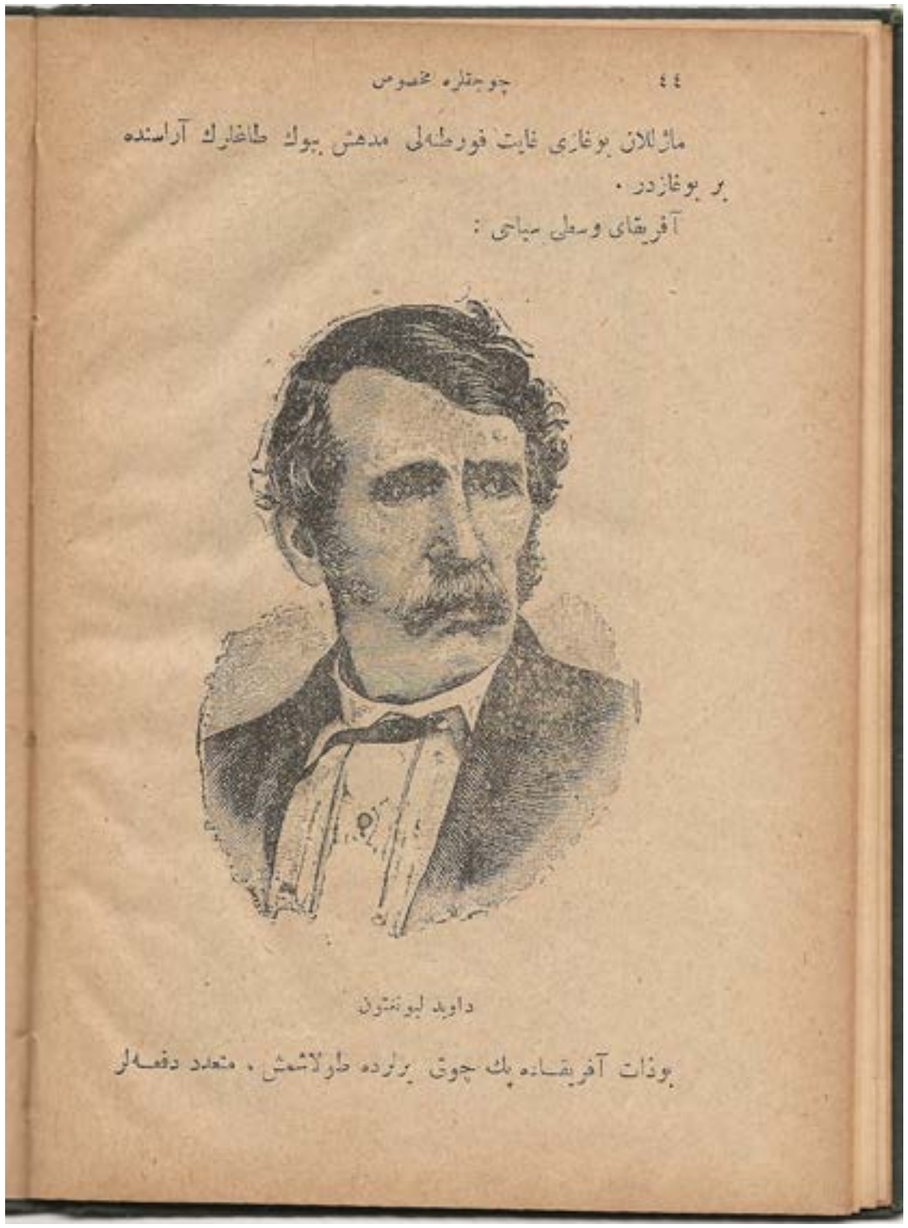
8°, 48 pp. with black and white illustrations, contemporary green cloth binding, original patterned endpapers (slightly age-toned, binding with light staiing, but overall in a good condition).

A short illustrated Ottoman book on geography for children includes basic facts and information on the Earth, images of various inhabitants and portraits of explorers, such as Ferdinand Magellan, Columbus, Livingstone and James Cook.

We could find one institutional example on Worldcat (Center for Research Libraries).

References: OCLC 51231817; BDK - ÖZEGE 24278.

320 EUR



27. Astronomy in the Ottoman Empire
Moon

Amédée GUILLEMIN (1826-1993), author; Mahmud ESAD Efendi (Seydişehrî) (1856-1918), translator.

قمر
[Kamer / The Moon]

Izmir: Vilâyet Matbaası [1311 1894].

8°, 206 pp. with black and white photos, contemporary red boards and black calf spine with gilt decoration and lettering, old small paper stamp with annotations in Ottoman on the cover (minor age-toning and foxing, old collector's rubber stamp on the title page, otherwise a very good example in highly decorative original binding, with only slight wear to the corners).

A rare Ottoman translation of Amédée Guillemin's La Lune is the first separately published text on the Moon in the Ottoman Empire and includes the history of its explorations and the latest discoveries.

The translator Mahmud Esad studied mathematics, physics, astronomy and law in Istanbul and later worked as a higher official at the Ministry of Finance and as a teacher of science and law in Izmir and Istanbul. Around 1914 he became the first professor of law at classes for girls at Darülfünun (University).

Worldcat only lists one example (Universiteitsbibliotheek Leiden), the others appear to be eBooks.

References: OCLC 67057811, 780179406 (eBooks).

550 EUR



28. Mathematics in the Ottoman Empire

Anapali Ahmed Hoca (died 1287 AH / 1879 AD), author; Ahmed Vehbi Alaiyeli bin Hüseyin (احمد وهبی علانیه لی بن الحاجی حسین), editor.

مشرق قواعد حساب
[Maşrık-i Kavâid-i Hesab / Smart Rules for Calculating]

Istanbul: Muhiddin Efendi Matbaası 1288 [1872].

8°. 264 pp., later marbled paper wrappers (light foxing and staining, loss of paper in one corner, sporadic annotations in pencil, soft folds in the corners).

An Ottoman book on mathematics from the late Tanzimat period was based on the notes of Anapali Ahmed Hoca, a teacher at the Military School and Industry School at Tophane, and published by his former student Ahmed Vehbi Alaiyeli. Also known as Hodja Ahmed Bey,

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

References: Ekmeleddin İHSANOĞLU, Ramazan ŞEŞEN, Cevad İZGI, Osmanlı matematik literatürü tarihi. History of mathematical literature during the Ottoman period, 1999, pp. 318-319.

350 EUR

29. Mathematics

[1st Part :]
حسین عونی (Hüseyin Avni).

جبر درسلری
[Cebir Dersleri / Algebra Lessons]

Istanbul: Devlet Matbaası 1927.

Large 8°. 577 pp., contemporary black calf with gilt lettering and decoration, contemporary pink patterned endpapers, gilt edges (Very Good with hardly noticeable traces of wear on the covers).

[and:]
[2nd Part:]
Auguste Clément GRÉVY (1865-1930), author; خلیل خالد (Halil Halid [Birsen]), translator.

جبر
[Cebir / Algebra]

Istanbul: Devlet Matbaası 1928.

Large 8°. 507 pp., contemporary black calf with gilt lettering and decoration, contemporary pink patterned endpapers, gilt edges (Very Good with hardly noticeable traces of wear on the covers).

A finely bound pair of algebra books in Ottoman language

This splendidly preserved pair of Ottoman algebra books in highly decorative contemporary bindings was published in the last year of the Ottoman script, before changing to Latin letters.

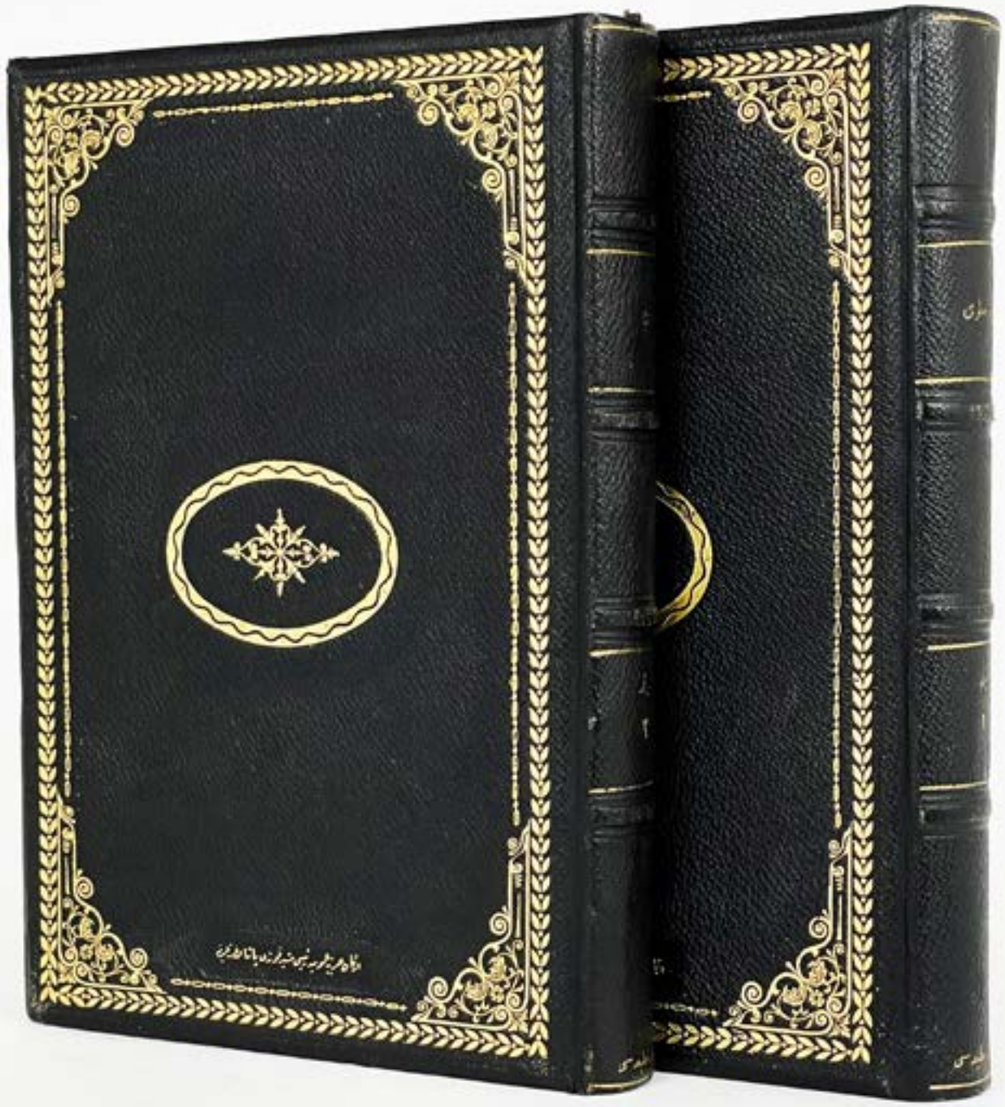
Not much is known about the author of the first book, Hüseyin Avni, who In 1889 wrote another book on mathematics *Mebadi-I Ilm-I Cebr.*

The second book Is a translation after the French author Auguste Clément Grévy (1865-1930), which was first published in the Ottoman in 1917 and twice in 1924. This 1928 edition, which was here issued as a sequel to Hüseyin Avni's *Algebra*, appears to be unrecorded in the literature.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

References: ÖZEGE 2832 (without part 2): Ekmeleddin İHSANOĞLU, Ramazan ŞEŞEN, Cevad İZGI, Osmanlı matematik literatürü tarihi. History of mathematical literature during the Ottoman period, 1999, p. 534. 1 (first part only).

1.600 EUR



هر ایکی مجذور کمیت نامتناهی و مثبت اولورلر . تفاضلاری‌ده طوغرودن طوغرویه حساب ایدیلهمز .

y ك کمیت مزدوجمی ایله ضرب وتقسیم ایدهلم .

$$y=\frac{3x+2}{\sqrt{x^2+4x+1}+\sqrt{x^2+x-1}}$$

اولا x ی مثبت فرض ایدهرك بو کسرك صورت و مخرجنی x ایله تقسیم أیلیهلم .

$$y=\frac{3+\frac{2}{x}}{\sqrt{1+\frac{4}{x}+\frac{1}{x^2}}+\sqrt{1+\frac{1}{x}-\frac{1}{x^2}}}$$

x غیرمحدود اولهرق تزاید ایدرسه غایه

$$\frac{3}{\sqrt{1}+\sqrt{1}}=\frac{3}{2}$$

اولور .

ثانیاً x منفی ایسه

$$\frac{3+\frac{2}{x}}{-\sqrt{1+\frac{4}{x}+\frac{1}{x^2}}-\sqrt{1+\frac{1}{x}-\frac{1}{x^2}}}$$

وغایه

$$\frac{3}{-\sqrt{1}-\sqrt{1}}=-\frac{3}{2}$$

اولور.

اخطار . — x مثبت فرض ایدیلهرك

$$\sqrt{x^2+4x+x}$$

کیفنك x ایله اولان خارج قسمتی

$$\sqrt{1+\frac{4}{x}+\frac{1}{x_2}}$$

صورتنده یازلمشدی. x منفی فرض ایدلدیکی زمان بوخارج قسمت بالعکس

$$-\sqrt{1+\frac{4}{x}+\frac{1}{x^2}}$$

شکلنده یازلمشدی . بونلر (32) اوجله استعمال اولنان رموزلك نتیجهٔ طبیعیسیدر . مع مافیه بو اخطار پك مهم اولدیغندن بوراده بونك اوزرنده توقفی بر وظیفه عد ایدهجکز .

$$\sqrt{x^2+4x+1}$$

افادهسنی x ایله تقسیم ایتمك

$$\frac{1}{x}\sqrt{x^2+4x+1}$$

صورتنده یازمق دیمك اولدیغندن x مثبت ایسه بو عددده مثبت اولوب قیمت مطلقهسی جذریهلر اوزرینه یاپیلان عملیات حسابیه نتیجهسی اولهرق

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{x^2}(x^2+4x+1)}=\sqrt{1+\frac{4}{x}+\frac{1}{x^2}}$$

دن عبارت بولنور .

x منفی ایسه بو عددك قیمت مطلقهسی دائما

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{x^2}(x^2+4x+1)}=\sqrt{1+\frac{4}{x}+\frac{1}{x^2}}$$

اولور. فقط عدد منفی اولدیغندن

30. Tropical Medicine
East Timor (Timor-Leste)
Macau Imprint

Francisco da Silva MAGALHÃES (mid to late 1830s - 1886).

As febres intermittentes ea a hematuria: memoria sobre as febres palustres de Timor.

Macau: Typographia de J. Da Silva, 1874.

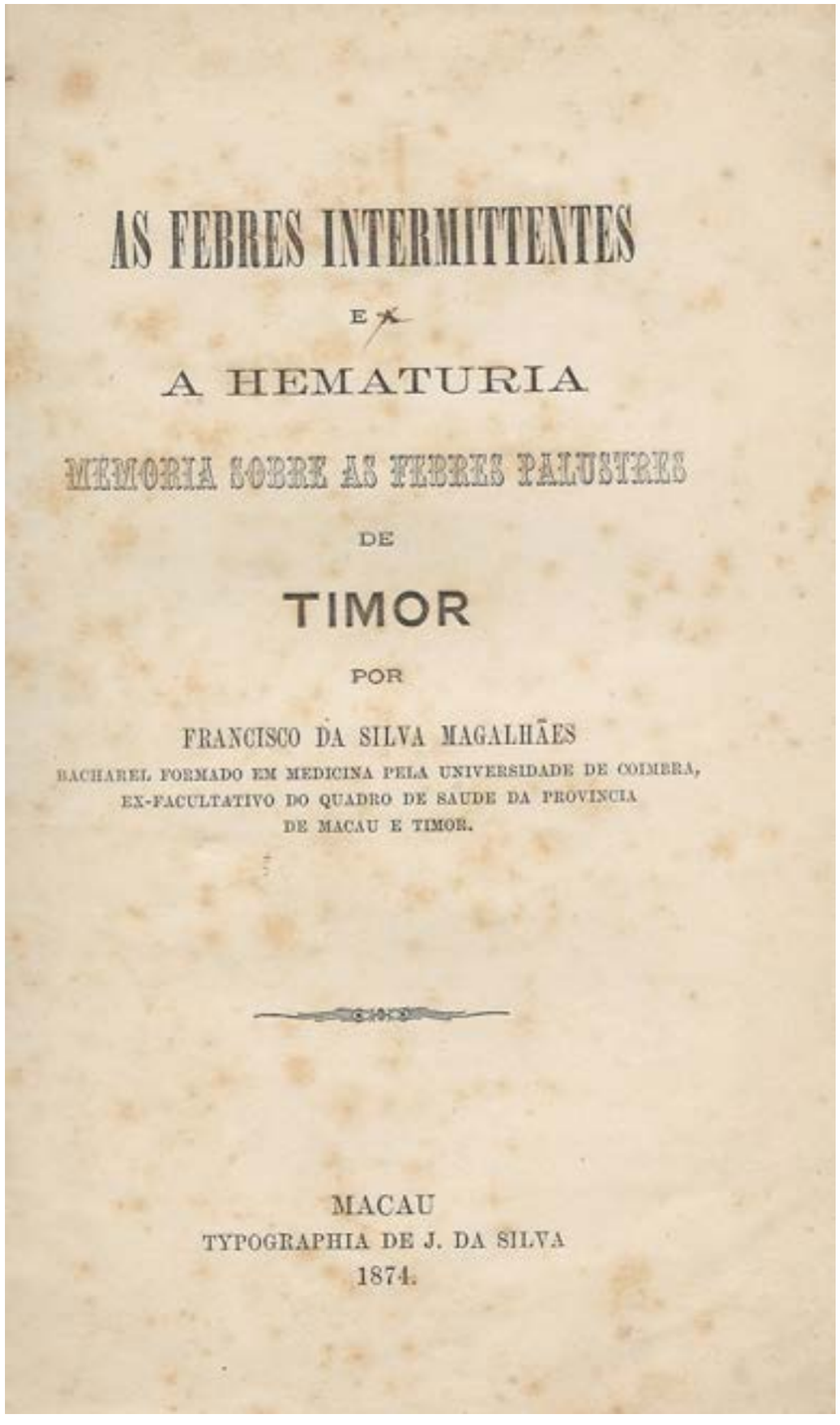
Small 4° (22.5 x 15 cm): 42 pp., bound in original blue printed wrappers (Good, some light foxing especially to earlier and final leaves, some unfortunate old scribbling in black pen to front cover).

Extremely rare – a treatise on the relationship between the established treatment for malaria (using quinine) and hematuria; based upon exhaustive clinical research conducted in East Timor by the Portuguese physician and journalist Francisco da Silva Magalhães, who was exiled to that colony after getting into a dispute with the Governor of Macau; published in Macau.

This extremely rare work is the first and only edition of a fascinating medical treatise written by the Portuguese physician and journalist Francisco da Silva Magalhães, while he was in East Timor (Timor Leste), a Portuguese colony in the Indonesian Archipelago. Magalhães was previously a medical professor in Macau but had been exiled to East Timor for the "crime" of offending the governor of that colony with his strident, liberal newspaper editorials.

While in East Timor, Magalhães decided to study the links between the standard treatment for malaria (a common disease there) and hematuria (blood in the urine). The drug quinine, extracted from the bark of the chinchona tree (native to South America, but cultivatable in the Indonesian Archipelago) was long the standard treatment for malaria, and had since 1850 been the nearly universal prophylaxis proscribed for the disease. However, quinine had may serious side-effects, which physicians worldwide were often at loss to mitigate.

In the present data-driven work, largely based upon firsthand clinical analysis, Magalhães compiled statistics regarding malaria patients in the Military Hospital in Dili (the capital of East Timor), from 1869 to 1873 (p. 7), as well as the roles of several ships' crews that arrived at Dili while infected with malaria (pp. 9-12). Next, he provides


AS FEBRES INTERMITTENTES

E

A HEMATURIA

MEMORIA SOBRE AS FEBRES PALUSTRES

DE

TIMOR

POR

FRANCISCO DA SILVA MAGALHÃES

BACHAREL FORMADO EM MEDICINA PELA UNIVERSIDADE DE COIMBRA,
EX-FACULTATIVO DO QUADRO DE SAUDE DA PROVINCIA
DE MACAU E TIMOR.

MACAU
TYPOGRAPHIA DE J. DA SILVA
1874.

case studies of six named malaria patients regarding their treatment and side effects (pp. 16-28). Magalhães then grants his hypotheses (pp. 28-38) and conclusions (pp. 39-40), followed by a short report, containing the 11 recommendations he submitted to the colonial authorities, entitled 'Delegação de Saúde (no. 156)' (pp. 41-42).

It is worth noting that quinine continued to be the standard treatment for malaria for decades thereafter, while still having powerful side effects. For this reason, it was replaced by chloroquine in the years after World War II. Chloroquine is today infamous for being a much-parroted hoax treatment for Covid-19.

Francisco da Silva Magalhães: Physician, Scientific Researcher and Controversial Journalist in Tropical Asia

Francisco da Silva Magalhães (mid to late 1830s - 1886) was a Portuguese physician and journalist who spent most of his career in Asia. He was born in Tomar, in central Portugal, the brother of António da Silva Magalhães (1834-1897), who became the town's leading printer and photographer.

Magalhães studied medicine at the University of Coimbra, graduating in in 1866. After serving for time as a military doctor, he came to find life in Portugal stifling and decided to seek adventure in Asia. In 1871, he moved to Macau, where he became a surgeon and a professor at the São José Seminary.

In January 1872, Magalhães founded the O Oriente: gazeta hebdomedaria (published by the Macau press of Typographia de J. Da Silva, that also issued the present work), a weekly newspaper with a strongly liberal editorial bent. In the paper, he savagely and repeatedly attacked Januário Correia de Almeida, 1st Count of São Januário, the Governor of Macau (serving March 23, 1872 to December 7, 1874), for what he saw as his corrupt and heavy handed administration.

While Januário was no thug, being and esteemed diplomat, military engineer and scientist, he was very thin skinned, and under dubious legal grounds, in October 1872, he had Magalhães arrested, and O Oriente shuttered.

Januário then had Magalhães exiled to East Timor (Timor-Leste), a Portuguese colony in the Indonesian Archipelago, which was then under Macau's jurisdiction. Magalhães's treatment was highly controversial as was condemned by many key figures in Macau and amongst Hong's Kong's influential Portuguese community.

While being sent to East Timor was often seen as a death sentence, as the island was viewed to possess an incredibly unhealthy climate for Europeans, Magalhães decided to make the best of it, seeing it as a unique opportunity for academic inquiry. The island was home to amazing flora and fauna and great unrealized agrarian potential. It was also an ideal place to learn about various tropical diseases. Magalhães was not imprisoned there but was rather free to roam East Timor. He soon managed to ingratiate himself with local officials and was even appointed as a delegate to the colonial health board while he was still technically a convict!

Magalhães spent three years in East Timor, resulting in the present work, as well as the first serious assessment of tobacco growing in the colony, Instrucções para a cultura do tabaco em Timor (Macau: Typographia mercantil, 1881). He also made many discoveries regarding the island's magnificent natural wonders.

In 1875, Magalhães managed to convince a doctor to grant him medical release from his exile in East Timor, and, given that Governor Januário had since left his post, he felt safe returning to Macau. However, he did not stay there for long and soon moved to the Philippines, where he sent the next seven years practicing as physician. In 1883, Magalhães returned briefly to Macau to teach at the São José Seminary. However, ill health, likely due to his years in the tropics, compelled him to return to Portugal. There he passed away in 1886.
A Note on Rarity

The present work is extremely rare. We can trace only a single institutional example, held by the University of Amsterdam Library. Moreover, we can locate only a single sales record for another example, being a listing in a 2011 dealer's catalogue.

References: Bibliotheek Universiteit van Amsterdam: UBM: 422 E 27; OCLC: 66770624.

550 EUR

31. Mineralogy & Geology
Natural Science in the Ottoman Empire

Dr. Abdullah Bey, i. e. Karl Eduard HAMMERSCHMIDT (1800-1874), author; İbrahim Lütfü, translator.

علم الارض والمعادن
[İlmü'l-arz ve'l-maadin / Geology and Mineralogy].

Istanbul: Mekteb-i Tıbbiye-i Şâhâne Matbaası 1292 [1876].

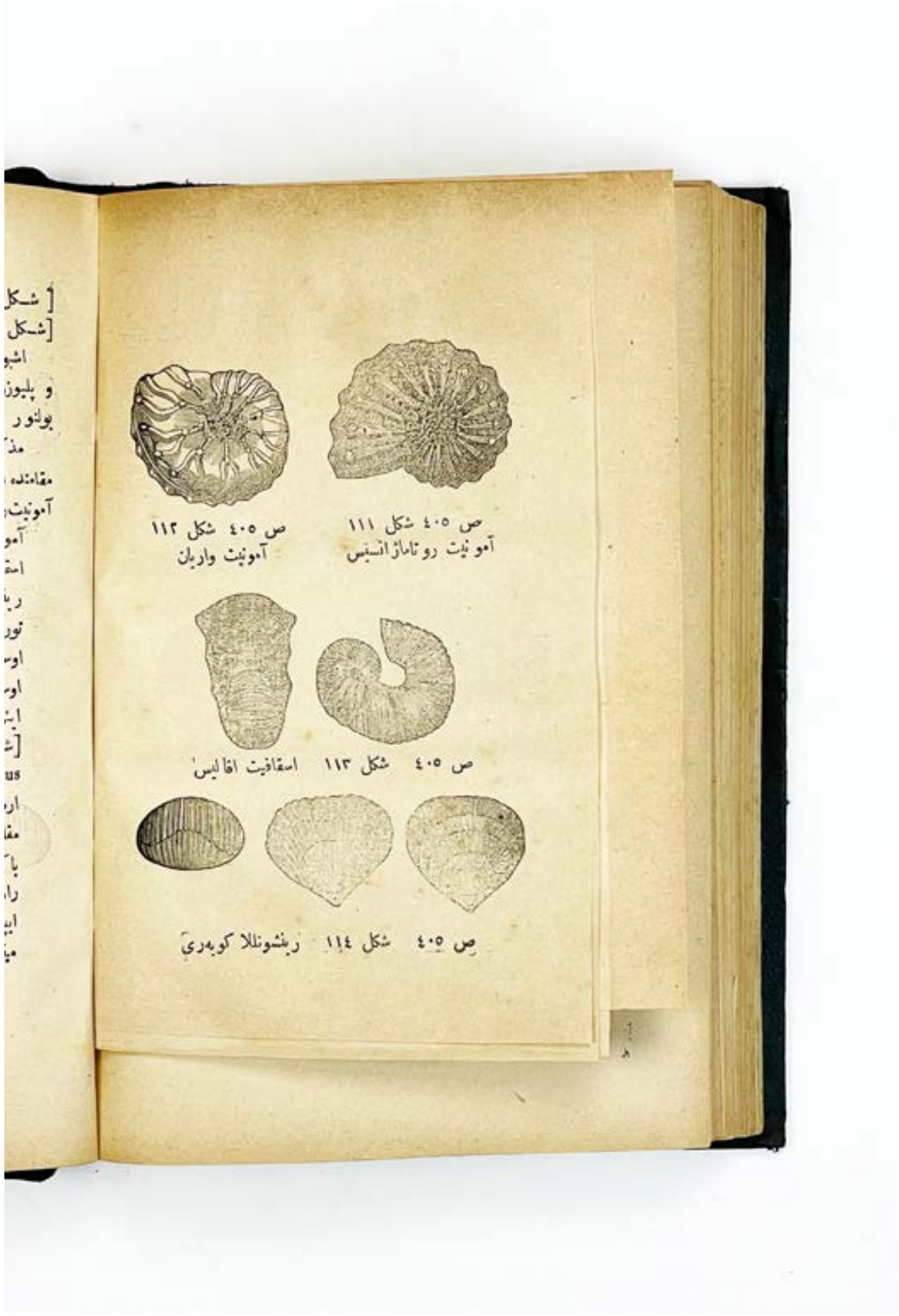
8°, [4 pp.], 584 pp., with 42 full-page and folding illustrations, [2 pp.] blank, contemporary green cloth boards with debossed decoration, original black calf spine with raised bands and gilt decoration and lettering, contemporary patterned endpapers (minor age-toning and hardly noticeable foxing, but inside overall in a clean condition, boards slightly bumped on the corners and with light dents on the front cover).

A rare first and only edition of the Ottoman book on mineralogy, geology and natural science by an Istanbul-based Austrian scientist Karl Eduard Hammerschmidt, who changed his name to Abdullah after converting to Islam.

This a pioneering richly illustrated work on the modern geology, minerology and zoology in Ottoman language, written by an Austrian scientist Karl Eduard Hammerschmidt, a.k.a. Dr. Abdullah Bey. The illustrations represent volcanos, fossils, minerals etc. This is probably the first book in Ottoman language, which points out the similarities between the skeleton of a man and an ape.

Hammerschmidt, who studied law, medicine and natural science in Vienna, fled his home country after the revolution of 1848 to the Ottoman Empire through Transylvania, where he briefly fought on the side of the Polish general Józef Bem. In Istanbul, he was appointed a lecturer at the Imperial Medical School, but was before he could start his job sent as an army doctor to Damascus and later to the Crimea during the war. In that time Karl Eduard Hammerschmidt converted to Islam and changed his name to Abdullah.

After the Crimean War he lectured geology and mineralogy at the Imperial Medical School in Istanbul. In 1867 he was appointed the director of the department.
Dr. Abdullah Bey was the first scientist In the Ottoman Empire, who introduced the modern Western knowledge of minerology and geology to the Ottoman World. He was also one of the founders of the Turkish Red Crescent.



Dr. Abdullah Bey died in Anatolia in 1874 during the geological surveys for the new railway.

The manuscript for this book was originally written in French and was translated for the printed edition by Dr. Abdullah Bey's assistant İbrahim Lütfü, who in the next years published similar books, all based on Dr. Abdullah's notes.

Worldcat lists one institutional example (KOÇ University Library).

References: OCLC 1249172046; ÖZEGE 9044. Cf. Sefa SAYGILI, Türk Kizilayi'nin Kurucusu: Dr. Abdullah Bey, 2010.

2.800 EUR



32. Medicine
Botany

محمد علی بك (Mehmed Ali Bey also Mehmed Ali Pasha) (1835-1916?), lecturer; Esat Şerefeddin [Köprülü] (1866-1942), editor.

علم نباتات طبی دفتری
[İlm-i Nebatât-ı Tıbbiye Defteri / Notebook on the Knowledge on Medical Botany]

Istanbul: مکتب طبیه شاهانیه [Mekteb-i Tıbbiye-i Şahane / Imperial School of Medicine] 1305 [1889] (dates on the title page), 1306-1307 [1890-1891] (dates on the last text page).

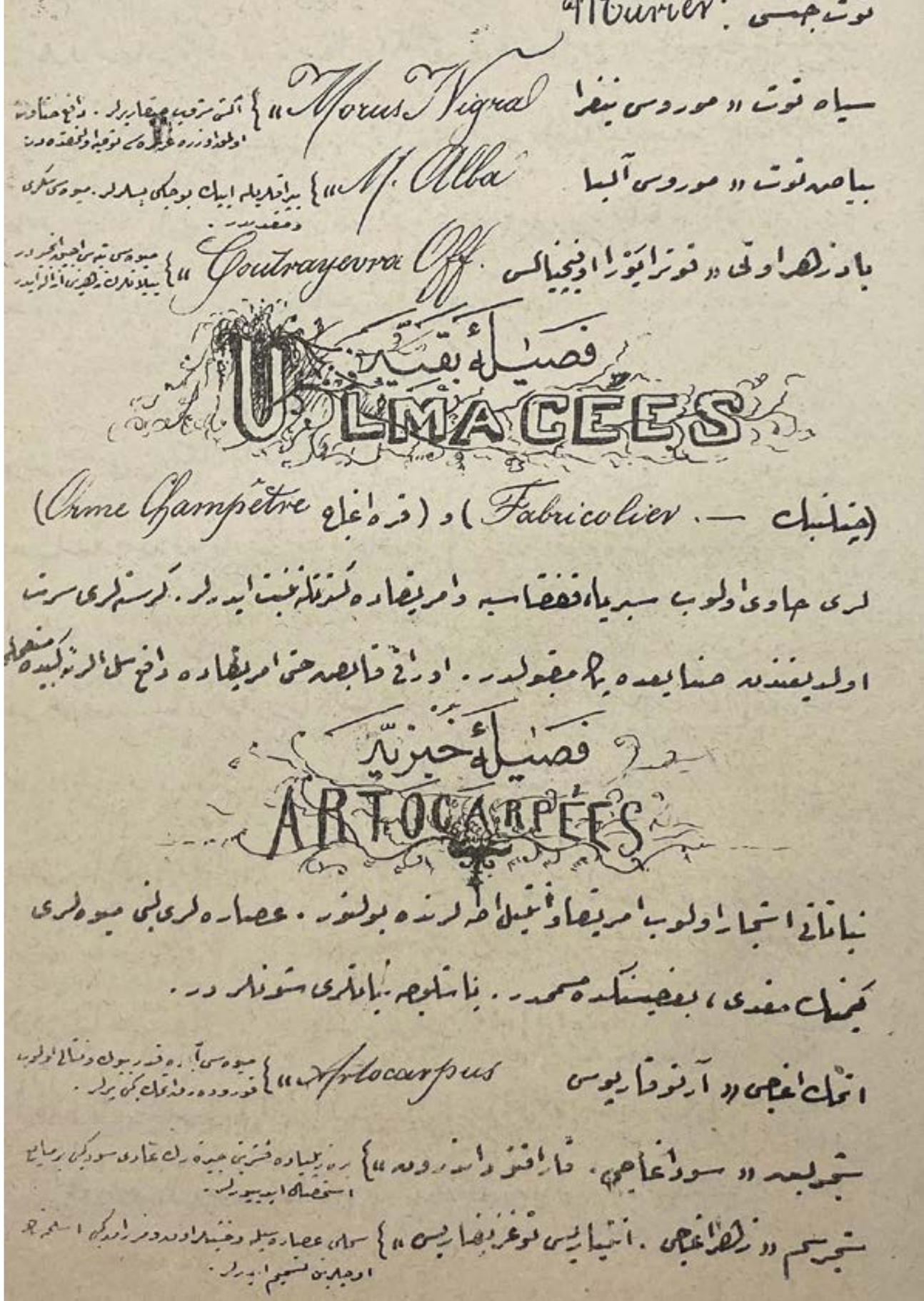
Small 4°, 181 pp. 146 pp., hectograph with illustrations on paper of two different size, contemporary brown boards with debossed decoration, brown calf spine with gilt decoration and lettering (one page with a longer tear without text loss, minor staining and foxing, mostly to the first and last pages, a tiny loss of paper in the margin of the title page, but overall in a good condition with minor wear to the binding).

A rare, seemingly unrecorded hectographed Ottoman book on medical botany, accompanied with charming illustrations and titles and based on the lectures by a veterinarian Mehmed Ali Bey the Imperial Medical School, and edited by Esat Şerefeddin Köprülü, later a famous botanist and professor

The richly illustrated text on the medical botany is based on the lectures, held at the Imperial Medical School in Istanbul, the first institution in the Ottoman Empire to teach botany. The charming numberless illustrations depict plants and their parts and escalate in the second part into fantastic series of titles in Latin letters, combined from various fonts and phytomorphic forms.

The text is made for the lectures of Mehmed Ali Bey (1834-1916?), one of the three pioneers of medical botany in the Ottoman Empire next to Charles Bernard, an Austrian who introduced botany lectures to the Imperial Medical School in Istanbul, and Salih Efendi.

The editor of the text Esat Şerefeddin Köprülü (1866-1942), was a former student of Mehmed Ali and later his assistant and a lecturer from 1889 on. He would in the following years become a known and prolific Ottoman / Turkish botanist and author, who served as a teacher of botany until 1933 at the Medical school, University and at the Military School. He was one of the first Ottoman specialist in botanical medicine. Şerefeddin also served as the chief physician at various hospitals during the Turco-Greek war (1897), the Balkan Wars (1912-1913) and the first World War (1914-1918).



Şerefeddin did not publish his own book until 1901, but our title remains seemingly unrecorded in the literature available to us.

The book was published in a limited edition in the technique of the hectograph only for the students of the institution. The text is based on the Western literature, but was adjusted by Mehmed Ali Bey for the lectures and is today seemingly unrecorded. In 1902 (1318), he published a book with a similar title İlm-i Nebatât-ı Tıbbiye, which was a translation, based on the text by Désiré Cauvet.

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

References: Cf. Asuman BAYTOP - Feza GÜNERGUN, Dr. Esat Şerefeddin Köprülü (1866-1942) ve Botanikle İlgili Çalışmaları. Marmara Üniversitesi Eczacılık Fakültesi Dergisi,Journar of Pharmacy of University of Marmara, 12, 2, 1996, pp. 97-111.

1.600 EUR



33. Medicinal Chemistry

Esat Şerefeddin [Köprülü] (1866-1942), editor.

كمیای عضوی طبی
Chimie Organique Medicale
[Kimya-i Uzvî-i Tıbbî / Medical Organic Chemistry]

Istanbul: مكتب طبيه شاهانيه [Mekteb-i Tıbbiye-i Şahane / Imperial School of Medicine] 1306 [1889].

Small 4°, 421 pp. hectographed text, contemporary brown boards with debossed decoration, brown calf spine with gilt decoration and lettering (minor age-toning and foxing, minor wear and discoloration to the binding, with a small repaired tear in the upper part of the spine).

A rare hectographed Ottoman book on medicinal chemistry, made for the lectures at the Imperial School for Medicine in Istanbul in 1889 and edited by Esat Şerefeddin, who would be come one of the leading late Ottoman / early Turkish botanists. The book was published in a limited edition only for the students of the institution.

The editor of the text Esat Şerefeddin Köprülü (1866-1942), was a lecturer at the Imperial Medical School from 1889 on. He would in the following years become a known and prolific Ottoman / Turkish botanist and author, who served as a teacher of botany until 1933 at the Medical school, University and at the Military School. He was one of the first Ottoman specialist in botanical medicine. Şerefeddin also served as the chief physician at various hospitals during the Turco-Greek war (1897), the Balkan Wars (1912-1913) and the first World War (1914-1918).

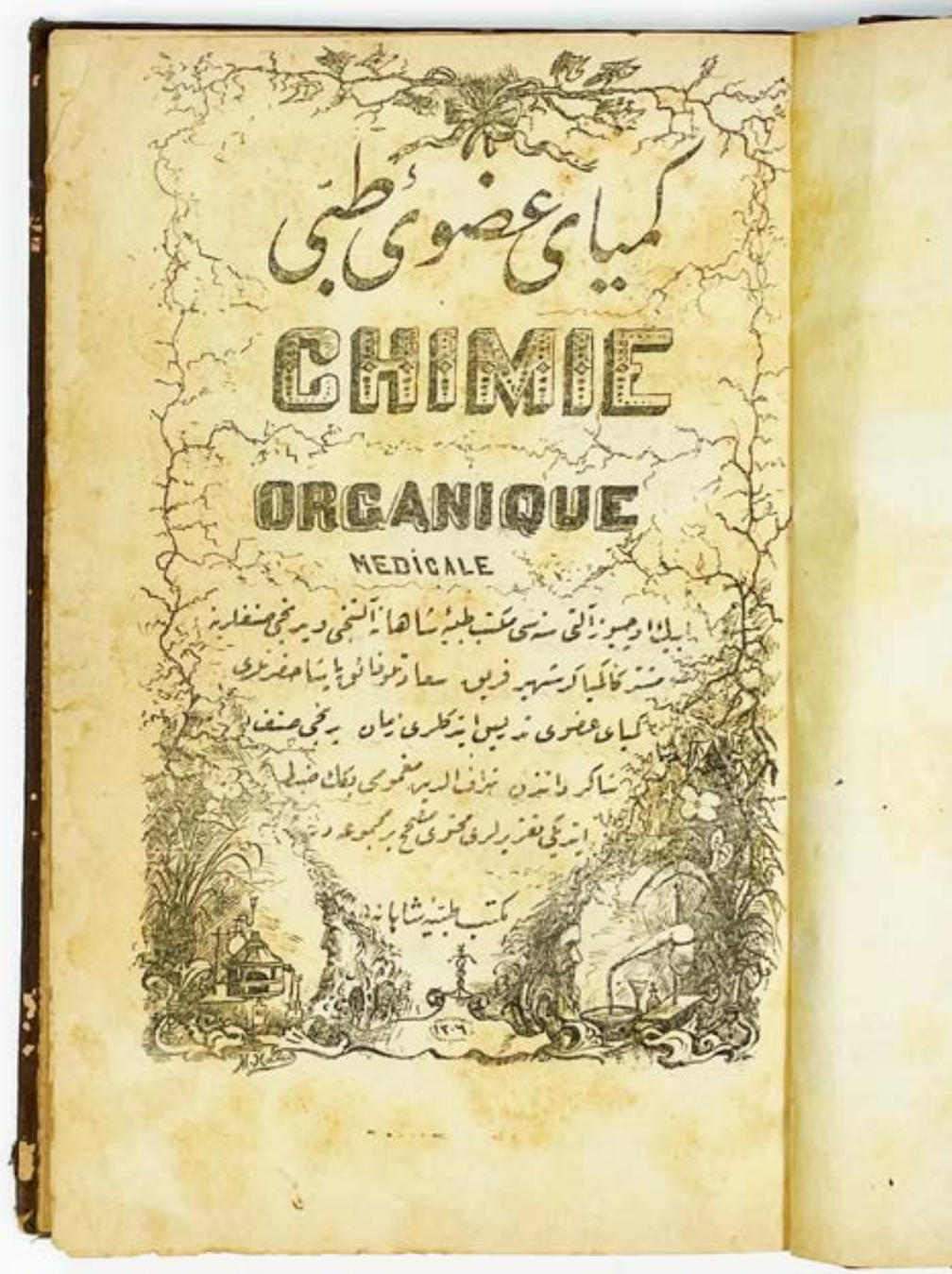
Şerefeddin published his first book in 1901, but the literature does not mention his early works such as our book.

Özege mentions a chemists called Faik Paşa as an author.

We could not find any institutional examples.

References: ÖZEGE 10902. Cf. Asuman BAYTOP - Feza GÜNERGUN, Dr. Esat Şerefeddin Köprülü (1866-1942) ve Botanikle İlgili Çalışmaları. Marmara Üniversitesi Eczacılık Fakültesi Dergisi,Journar of Pharmacy of University of Marmara, 12, 2, 1996, pp. 97-111.

1.400 EUR



34. Medicine in the Ottoman Empire World War I

VARIOUS AUTHORS.

دار الفنون طب فاكولته سى مجموعه سى
[Darülfünün Tıp Fakültesi Mecmuası / Journal of Darülfünün School of Medicine]

Istanbul: Kader Matbaası, March 1332 [1916] - Aaugust 1333 [1917].

Large 8°. 508 pp., with black and white photos and charts, [4 pp.], one interleaved photo, 2 colour charts, one folding black and white chart, contemporary marbled boards with green / light brown calf spine with labels and lettering (printer's error in overprinting on 8 pages, re-paired tear in the folding chart, missing small lower part of one colour folding chart otherwise clean inside, binding slightly rubbed on the corners and around the spine, spine with light discoloration, but overall good).

Rare first 6 editions of an Ottoman medical journal, published by the University in Istanbul during WWI.

A rare first six editions of an Ottoman medical journal include illustrated articles on the modern medicine, such as obstetrics, gynecology, use of x-rays, contemporary German medicine etc. Several articles are connected with war wounds.

The journal was published until 1933 and is very rare. Princeton University Library houses sporadic editions from 1922 on and Duke University Libraries own numbers 2 and 4 of the first year (1916).

References: OCLC 321082787.

1.200 EUR



35. Modern Physics in the Ottoman Empire
Electricity

Hasan Fethi - Abdüllatif Efendi (Mülazım).

حکمت طبیعیه
[Hikmet-i Tabiiye / Wisdom of Nature]

Istanbul: Karabet Matbaası 1312 [1895] (vol. 3), 1313 [1896] (vol. 1,2), Cemal Efendi Matbaası 1314 [1897] (vol. 4).

4 volumes bound-in-one, 8°, [4 pp.], 162 pp., [2 pp.] blank. 155 pp. 87 pp. 136 pp. Contemporary blue cloth boards with debossed decoration and gold crescent, original brown calf spine with gilt decoration (minor staining, spine repaired in the lower part, but overall in a good condition).

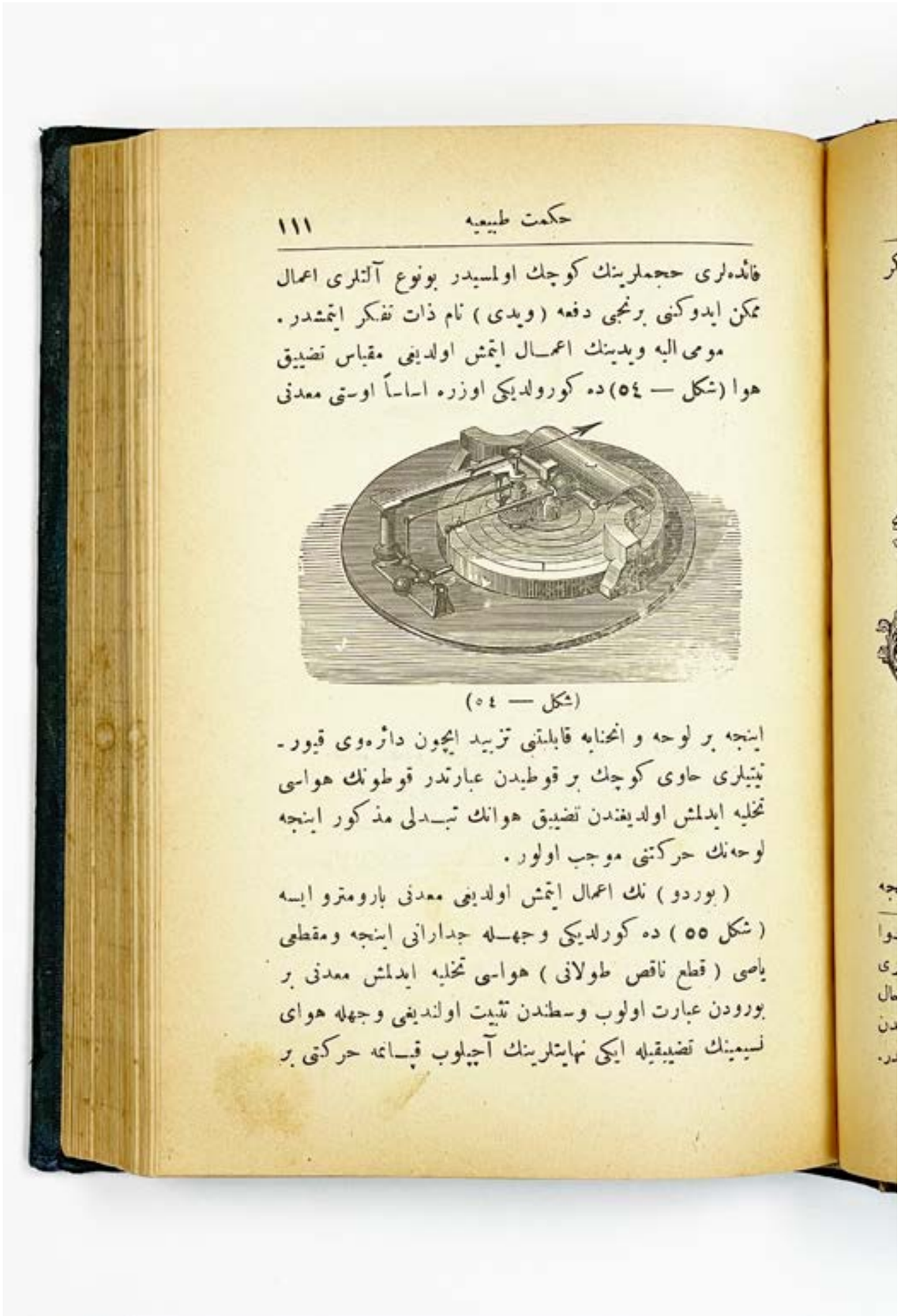
4 volumes on modern physics in Ottoman language with one of the earliest texts on the electricity in the Ottoman Empire.

The series of four richly illustrated books starts with the basics of measurements, gravitation, temperature, magnetism, vacuum and pressure, which could be applied to the engineering, ship-building, machine building and military, and continues through more complicated physics equations and experiments in the second volume. The third volume is dedicated to optics and the fourth to magnetism and electricity, making this book one of the earliest Ottoam publications on the latter subject.

The authors of this extensive work were Abdüllatif Efendi (Mülazım, meaning junior officer), teacher at Darüşşafaka Society, the first non-governmental organization in the Ottoman Empire and at the Military Academy, and a teacher of physics at Darüşşafaka, Hasan Fethi.

References: OCLC 1159241132. BDK - ÖZEGE; 7586 - TBTK 628. Cf: Meltem Kocaman, DARÜŞŞAFAKA'DA FİZİK EĞİTİMİNİN BAŞLANGICI, Osmanlı Bilimi Araştırmaları, XIV/2, 2013, pp. 105.

950 EUR


١١١ حکمت طبیعیه

فائده‌لری حجملرینك کوچك اولمسیدر بونوع آلتلری اعمال
ممکن ایدوکنی برنجی دفعه (ویدی) نام ذات تفکر ایتمشدر .
مومی الیه ویدینك اعمـال ایتمش اولدیغی مقیاس تضییق
هوا (شکل — ٥٤) ده کورولدیکی اوزره اساساً اوستی معدنی

(شکل — ٥٤)

اینجه بر لوحه و انحنایه قابلیتلی تزیید ایچون داثره‌وی قیور .
تیتیلری حاوی کوچك بر قوطیدن عبارتدر قوطونك هوایی
تخلیه ایدلمش اولدیغندن تضییق هوانك تبـدلی مذکور اینجه
لوحه‌نك حرکتنی موجب اولور .

(بوردو) نك اعمال ایتمش اولدیغی معدنی بارومترو ایسه
(شکل ٥٥) ده کورلدیکی وجهـله جدارانی اینجه ومقطعی
یاصی (قطع ناقص طولانی) هوایی تخلیه ایدلمش معدنی بر
بورودن عبارت اولوب وسطندن تثبیت اولندیغی وجهله هوای
نسبینك تضییقیله ایکی نهایتلرینك آچیلوب قپـانمه حرکتی بر

ABDULLAH.

بدايع فنون .حقه بازلق ياخود بو بابده معلومات مكمله
[Bedayi-i Fünûn Hokkabazlık yahud Bu Babda Malûmât-ı Mükemmel / Creative Arts. Magic or Complete Information on This Subject].

Istanbul: Mahmud Bey Matbaası 1311 [1895].

8°. 164 pp. with black and white illustrations in text, later marbled paper wrappers (minor age-toning, soft folds in sporadic pages, newer marbled paper wrappers).

A rare illustrated book represents the tricks for magicians, varying from the more traditional ones with cards and live birds to ones involving the modern chemistry.

Worldcat lists one institutional example (Boğaziçi University Library).

References. OCLC 949548458. ÖZEGE 1749.

620 EUR


(١٤٠)

وكرك قورشونك بشقه‌سى طرفندن ويرلسنه دخى مساعده ايدوب بالكز هر حالده سلاحك كندى حضورنده طولديرلمسى الزمدر .

بواويونك اجراسنده حيله قوللانيلور . سلاح حقه‌بازك اولوبده بلايروا و كمال سربستى ايله طولديردينى كوريلورسه مطلقا اول سلاح شو شكلده‌در .

اشبو طبانجه نه‌قدر طولديرلسه پاتلادلدينى زمان ناملو بوشانيوب ناملوك آلتنده بولنان وحربه ظن اولنان محل پاتلاركه ، آنى حقه‌باز اولدن طولديروب حاضرلامشدر . ايشته بويله برسلاحى سيرجيلره ويروب كندينى قارشوسنه‌كچروسلاح بوشالدقده آووجلرى ايچنده كيزلديكى قورشونلرى ميدانه چيقاروب ويرر .

اكر سلاح سيرجيلردن آلنورسه اوزمان دخى طولديرلدينى اثناده قورشونى هركسه كوستروب معاينه ونشان ايتديره‌رك تمام ناملويه طيقه‌جغى زمان آنى آشيروب كندى الندە كيزلى

37. Molière in Ottoman

MOLIÈRE (1622 - 1673), author. Ziya Pasha (Abdul Hamid Ziyaeddin, 1829- 1880), translator.

تارتوف یاخود ریانگ انجامی
[Tartuffe yahut rüyanın encamı / Tartuffe or The Impostor]

Istanbul: Matbaa-i Ebüzziya 1304 [1883].

8°, 180 pp., original wrappeers with lettering (Very Good, uncut and unread example with minor tears around the spine and a small annotation on the rear wrapper.

This is one of the two first, independently and contemporarily translated Ottoman versions of Tartuffe. Our translation was made by Ziya Pasha, a prominent Ottoman author, for the local theater of Adana, where Ziya worked as a governor, but was only published separately in Istanbul after his death. The other translation was made at the same time by Ahmed Vefik Pasha (1823 – 1891) for the Bursa theatre, in the city, where Ahmed Vefik worked as a governor.

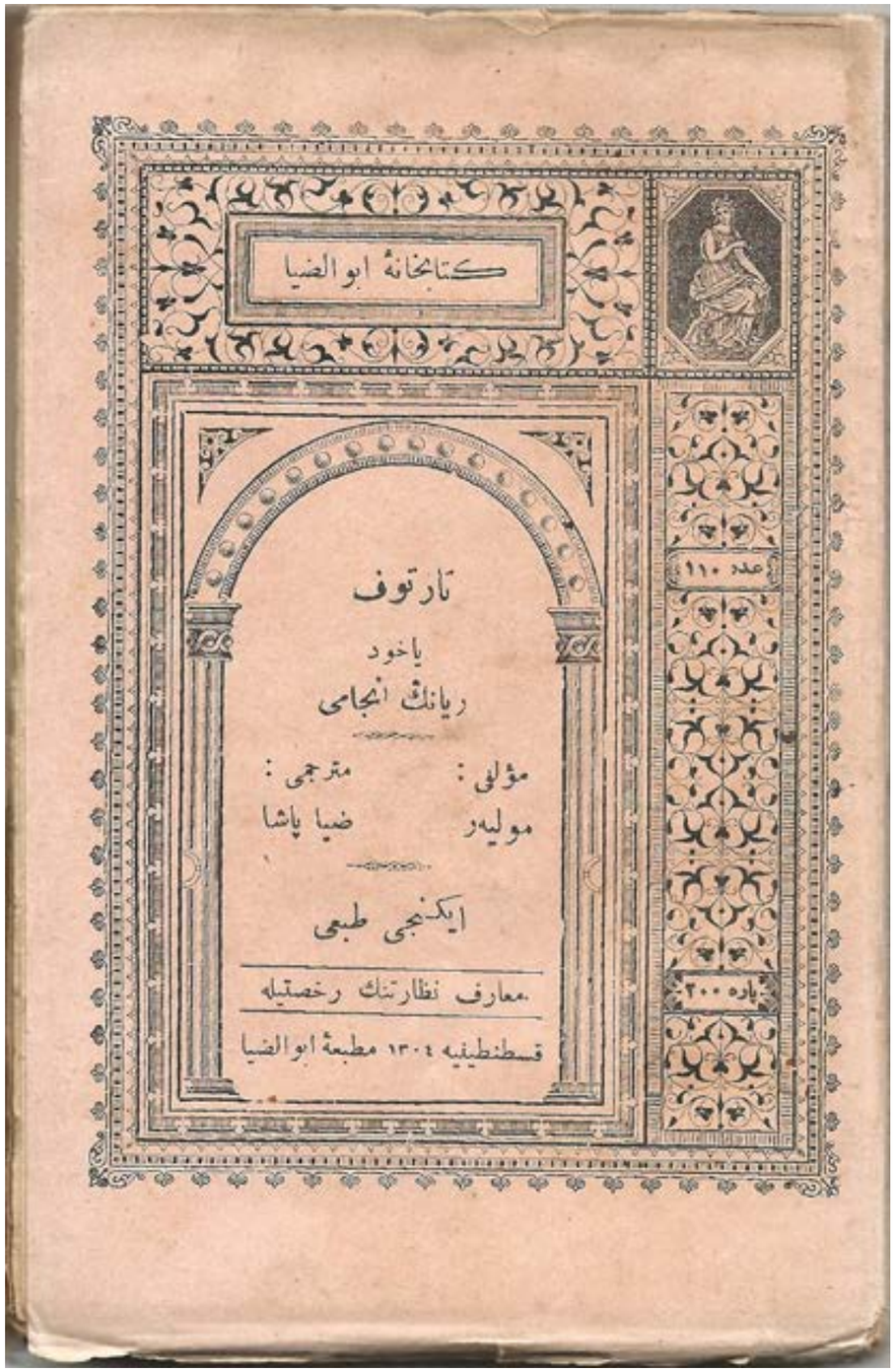
The pamphlet was issued in the first Ottoman series of pocket books with popular subjects, called Kitaphane-i Ebuzziya, which were available to the wider audience, in the sense of the Western pocket books.

The series was called after Ebüzziya Tevfik, a journalist, writer and publisher, who in 1881 opened his printing shop, the so called Matbaa-i Ebüzziya, in Karaköy in Istanbul, close to the Arab Mosque, where he published his own magazine and books. The imprint mentions, this is the second edition. The first edition was possibly published only in parts in a magazine or in a newspaper, as no other separately published editions of Ziya's translation are recorded.

Worldcat records two examples (National Library of Israel, Boğaziçi University Library).

References: OCLC 949547429, 236018875, 782169962.

320 EUR



38. Shakespeare

William SHAKESPEARE (1564 – 1616), author. Milan BOGDANOVIĆ (1892 - 1964), translator.

Ukroćena goropadnica
[The Taming of the Shrew]

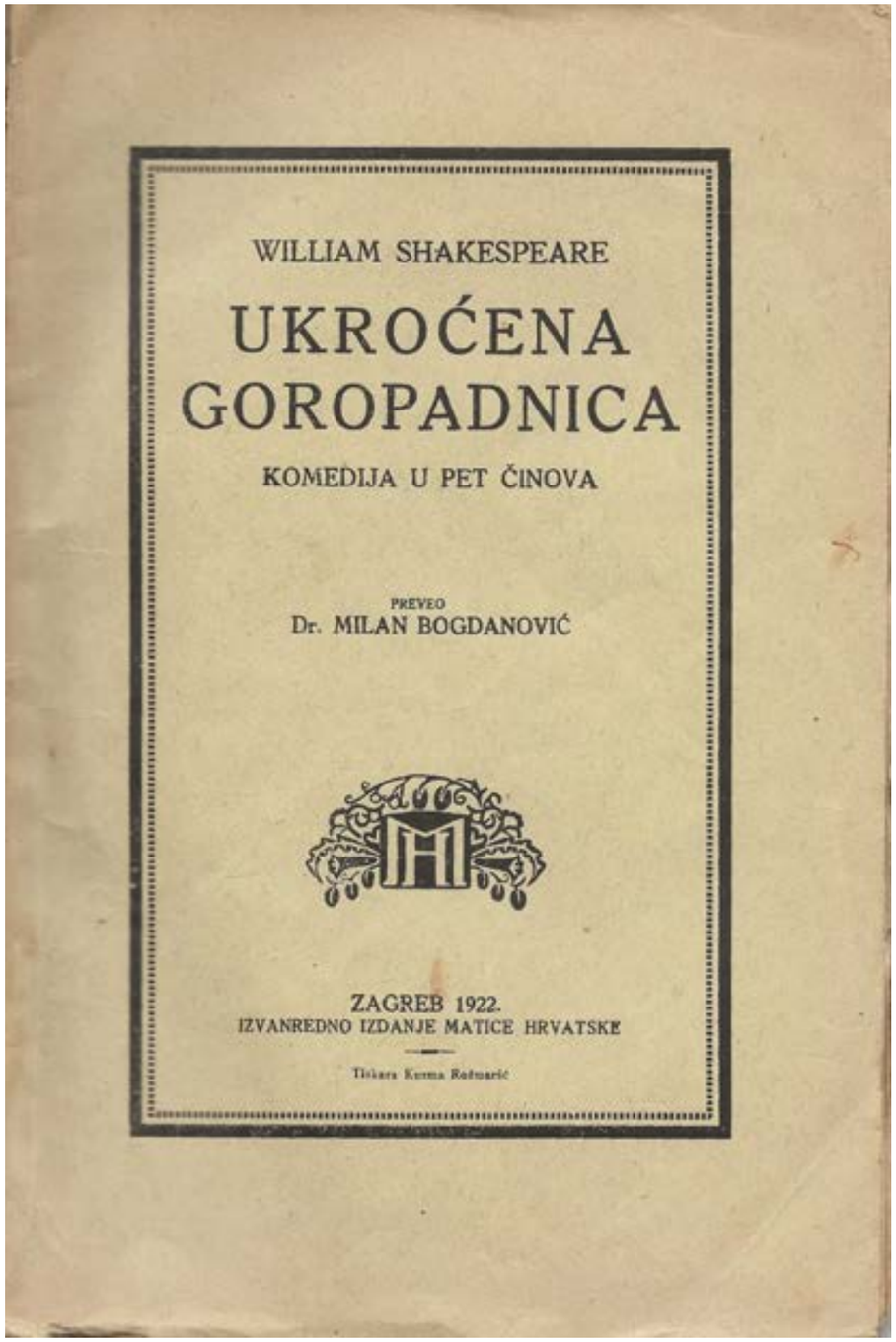
Zagreb: Matica hrvatska 1922.

Large 8°: 140 pp., [4 pp.], original wrappers with lettering (tiny tears in margins, a small hole in the rear wrapper, but otherwise in a good condition)

The first Croatian translation of The Taming of the Shrew by a Serbian author Milan Bogdanović, who was also active as a professor of contemporary Yugoslav literature at the University of Belgrade and a director of the National Theatre in the same city.

References: OCLC 1145117325 (including eBooks).

160 EUR



39. Slavica
Religion

Ignac HOLZAPFEL (1799-1868).

Veniz nedolshnoşti, ali Molitve in nauki mlajshim kristjanam potrebni, de bi svojo nedolshnost ohranili
[The Wreath of Innocence, or Prayers and Lessons Needed for Young Christians, to Keep Their Innocence]

Ljubljana: Blasnik 1838.

16°, 728 pp., [4 pp.], woodcut frontispiece, contemporary brown calf with gilt decoration and lettering on the spine, original patterned endpapers, red edges (Sporadic tiny worm holes in inner white margins, binding with minor wear, but overall in a good and clean condition).

A fine and charming example of early 19th century collection of lectures and prayers for young people in Slovenian language.

Ignac Holzapfel (1799-1868) was a Slovenian priest and poet, who wrote in his native language and in Latin.

Worldcat lists five examples in Slovenian libraries.

References: OCLC 444896952. Kidrič, Francè: Holzapfel, Ignac (1799–1868). Slovenska biografija. Slovenska akademija znanosti in umetnosti, Znanstvenoraziskovalni center SAZU, 2013. http://www.slovenska-biografija.si/oseba/sbi236918/#slovenski-biografski-leksikon (10. marec 2022). Izvirna objava v: Slovenski bijografski leksikon: 3. zv. Hintner - Kocen. Izidor Cankar et al. Ljubljana, Zadružna gospodarska banka, 1928.

520 EUR



VENIZ
NEDOLSHNOSTI,

ali

MOLITVE in NAUKI

mlajſhim kriſtjanam potrebni,

de bi

ſvojo nedolshnoſt ohranili.

Jih je vezhi del is Franzoskiga ſpiſal

H. H.

V' LJUBLJANI,
natiſnil Joshef Blasnik, 1838.

Na prodaj per Janesu Klemensu, bukvovesu.

40. Croatian Travelogue to Istanbul

Adolfo Veber TKALČEVIĆ 1825-1889.

Put u Carigrad. Sa četrdset slika i tlorisom Carigrada
[Travel to Istanbul. With Forty Images and a Map of Istanbul].

Zagreb: Matica hrvatska 1886.

8°, [4 pp.], 239 pp. with black and white illustrations, [5 pp.] index, 2 interleaved double-page views, folding map, contemporary marbled boards and black cloth cpine with lettering, original pink endpapers (old owner's stamps on the inner sides of the boards and title page verso, old signatures, minor staining, boards with minor rubbing to the surface, but overall in a good condition).

A rare first edition of the travelogue from Zagreb to Istanbul by a prolific Croatian writer Adolfo Veber Tkalčević

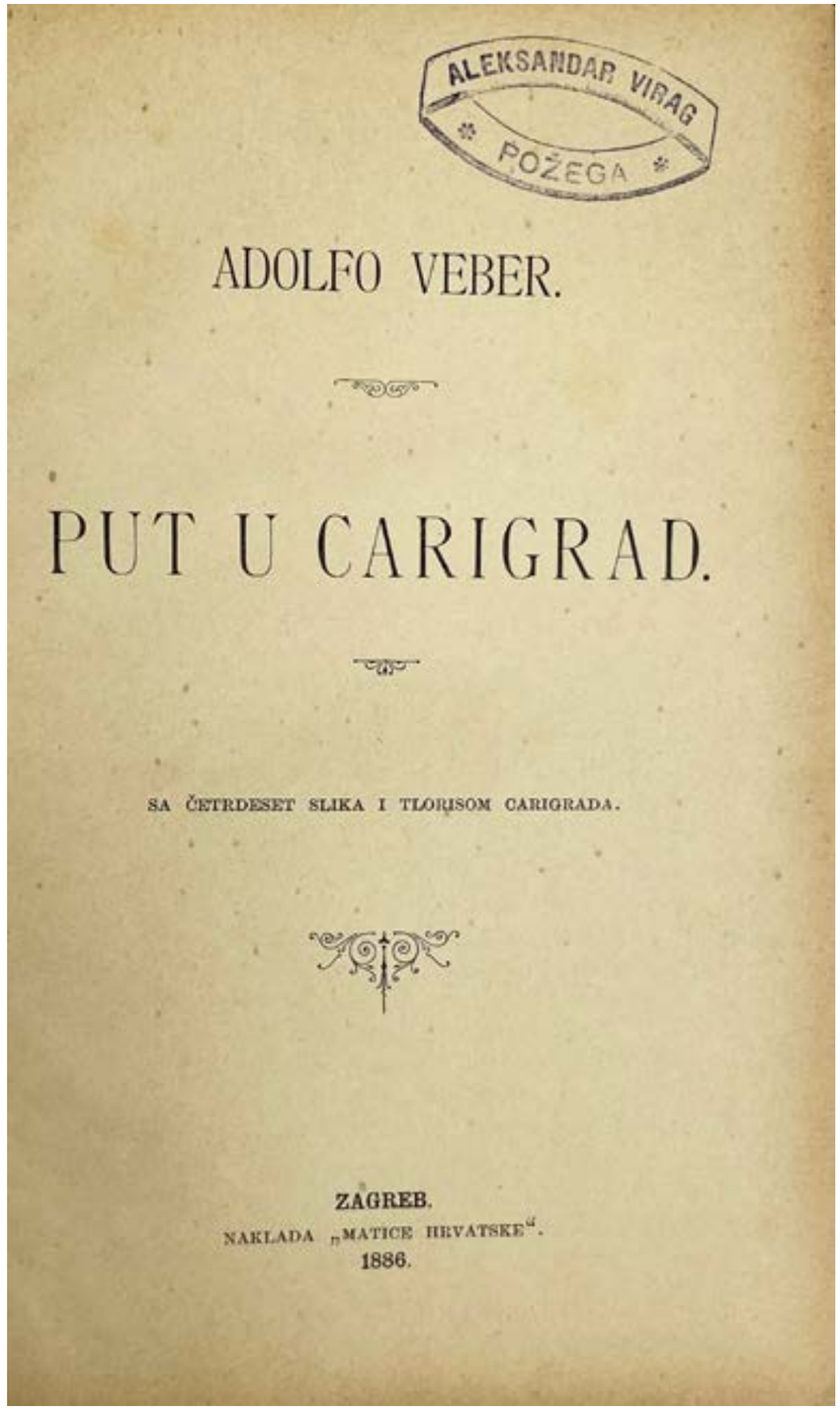
Tkalčević was a prolific and influential Croatian author of the 19th century, who in 1859 authored the first syntax of Croatian literary language, Skladnja ilirskog jezika. His illustrated travelogue to Istanbul starts in Samobor by Zagreb, Croatia, and continues through Serbia and Bulgaria, where he describes the cities, people, customs of the inhabitants and a mixture of nations on the way in the last decades of the falling apart Ottoman Empire in a light and entertaining manner. Tkalčević also includes dialogues and small anecdotes, which makes this book exceedingly pleasant to read more than a century, after it was written.

In Istanbul he describes the monuments and people and also his personal impressions of the atmosphere, streets and events. Especially valuable are reports on his encounters with the Croatian minority of Istanbul.

Worldcat only lists examples in the Slovenian Libraries and examples in The British Library, St. Pancras, University of Oxford and Northwestern University. The other appear to be eBooks.

References: OCLC 79037925, 79037925, 04710878.

640 EUR





CARIGRAD.
(Pogled sa Ejubskih visina).

41. Croatian Travelogue to the Holy Land

Krsto KRILE.

Uspomene iz Svete Zemlje
[Memories of the Holy Land]

Zagreb: C. Albrecht 1914.

8°, XI, 231 pp., interleaved photographs, two folding plates, and three folding maps (Jerusalem, Croatia, the Holy Land), original boards with decoration and lettering, original cloth spine with lettering (hardly noticeable foxing, very light wear to the corners, but overall in a good and clean condition).

A travelogue to the Holy Land through Egypt by a Croatian professor Krsto Krile, published on the eve of WWI.

A Croatian professor Krsto Krile took a pilgrimage from Dubrovnik to the Holy Land in 1911 and held a lecture on the travel upon his return to Croatia.

Krile travelled from Dalmatia to Alexandria, Cairo, Port-Said to Jaffa and Jerusalem and from there to the Dead Sea, Bethlehem, Nazareth, Emmaus and Haifa. He returned through Damascus, Baalbek and Beirut. The author describes his route, cities and monuments, and illustrates the travelogue with photographs, maps and illustrations. The last part of the text contains prayers, read on certain locations, and the two folding maps showcase Krile's route from Dalmatia and the Holy Land with an in-set map of Jerusalem and its surroundings. Marked are railroads and railroads under construction.

The travelogue was published by the Committee of the Holy Land in Zagreb.

We could only trace one example in a Slovenian library (Semeniška knjižnica, Ljubljana) through Worldcat and examples in Croatian libraries.

References: OCLC 451033461.

420 EUR



43. Slovenian Poetry Orientalism

Anton Aškerc (1856-1912) was a prolific Slovenian poet, writer, archivist and amateur and insightful orientalist, who became famous in the late 19th century through his poetry, still widely enjoyed today.

Aškerc chose the profession of a Catholic priest, as it was the only free way for a young man of his background to gain higher education, but was in theological researchers among others also attracted to the Eastern religions and Islam. He had freethinking and progressive ideas, which in the last years distanced him from the Catholic church and from some of his contemporaries.

Anton Aškerc dedicated much of his work to history, especially exploring the early Protestantism and printing of the time, and his travels. He traveled to Istanbul, Saint Petersburg, Moscow, Kiev, Tiflis, Vladikavkaz, Jalta and Egypt, and summed up his impressions in the travelogues Izlet v Carigrad (Trip to Istanbul, 1893) and Dva izleta na Rusko (Two Trips to Russia, 1903) as and in collections of poetry Lirske in epske poezije (Lyrical and epic poetry) and Akropolis in piramide. Poetični sprehodi po Orientu (Acropolis and Pyramids. Poetical Walks through the Orient), issued in 1909.

42. a. Anton AŠKERC (1856-1912).

Lirske in epske poezije
[Lyrical and epic poetry]

Ljubljana: Kleinmayr & Bamberg 1896.

12°, [2 pp.], 196 pp., [2 pp.] blank, original brown cloth binding with gilt decoration and lettering, original patterned endpapers, gilt edges (old signature in black ink on the first blank page, minimal wear, but overall in a very good condition).

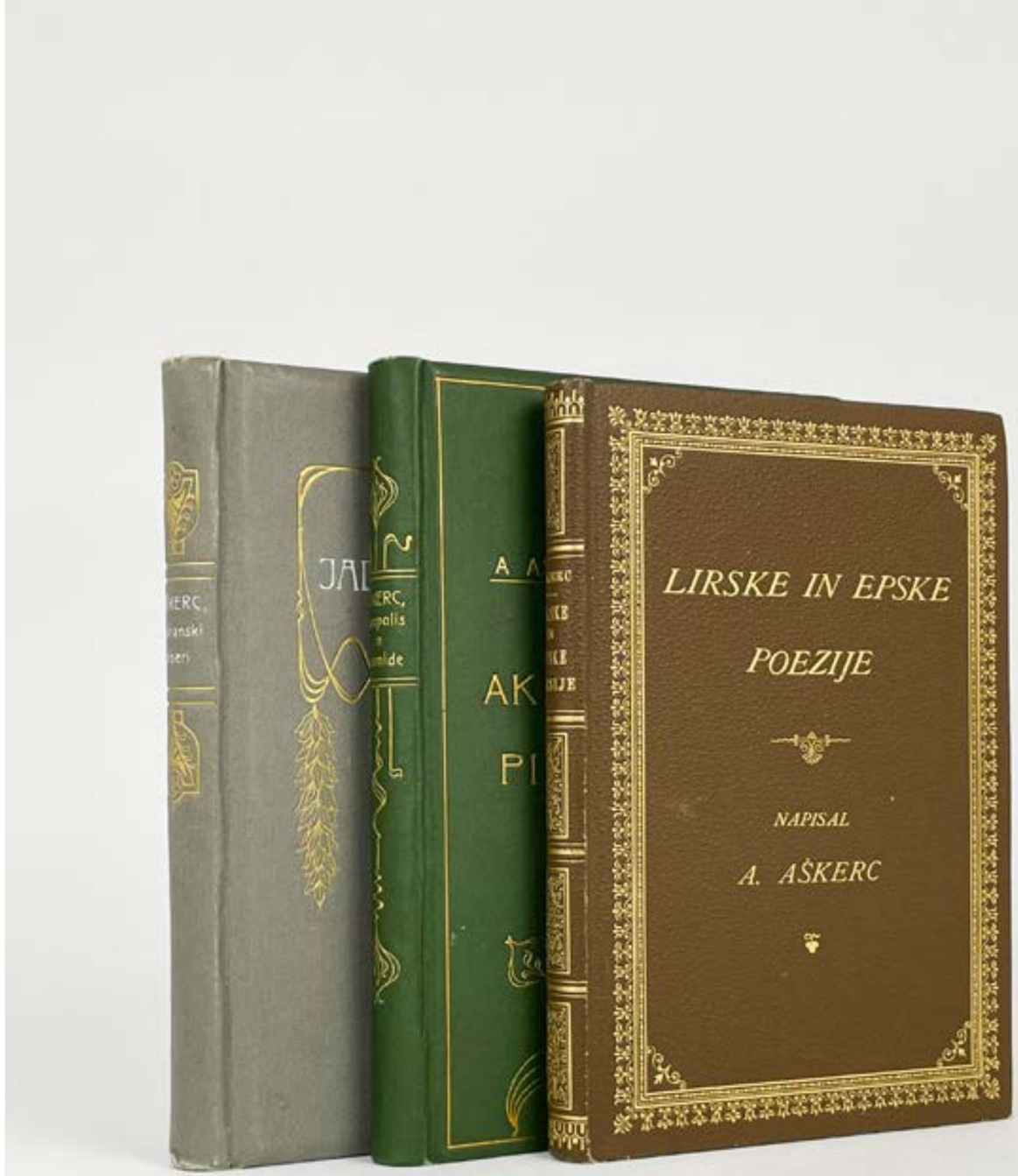
A collection of poems, partly dedicated to the author's trip to Istanbul

The collection of poems is divided in three parts, with the second part being dedicated to the author's trip to Istanbul through Venice, Bosnia and Serbia with descriptions of places and people. Aškerc is especially observant of the Islam, a fascination, that followed him since his times of theology, and of the cultural differences between Christians and Muslims.

Our example is perfectly preserved with original cloth binding.

References: OCLC 455610116 & 255345908.

480 EUR



42. b. Anton AŠKERC (1856-1912).

Jadranski biseri. Balade in romance slovenskih morskih ribičev
[The Pearls of the Adriatic. Ballads and Romances of Slovenian Sea Fishermen]

Lubljana: Schwentner 1908

12°, VIII, 154 pp., [2 pp.], original grey sloth with gilt decoration and white lettering, original patterned endpapers (very light foxing, cloth with minor scuffing on the corners, but overall in a good condition).

In his collection of poems Jadranski biseri, Anton Aškerc edited the lyrics, which he collected in 1906 and 1907 among the Slovenian fishermen in the region between Duino and Trieste, in today's Italy. The lyrics include words and expressions from the local dialects.

References: OCLC 444445202.

350 EUR

42. c. Anton AŠKERC (1856-1912).

Akropolis in piramide. Poetični sprehodi po Orientu
[Acropolis and Pyramids. Poetical Walks through the Orient]

Lubljana: Schwentner 1909.

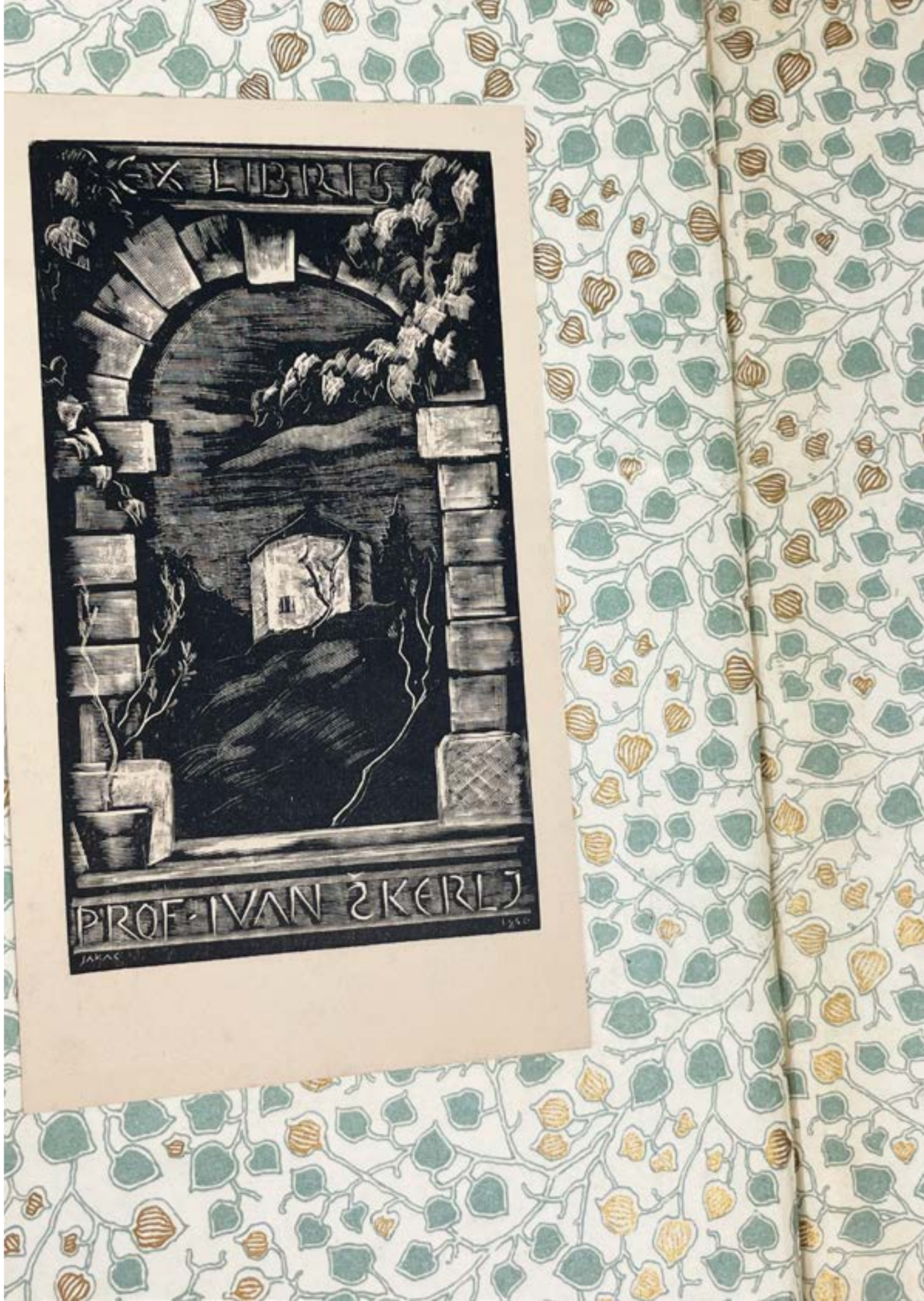
12°, [4 pp.], 170 pp., [2 pp.], original green cloth binding with gilt decoration and lettering, original patterned endpapers, old bookplate mounted on the inner side of the front board (hardly noticeable wear to the upper and lower part of the spine, but overall in an exceedingly good condition).

A collection of poems was written on Anton Aškerc's travel through Greece and Egypt and dedicated to places and legends he encountered on the way.

Our example in an almost mint condition comes from a library of Ivan Škerlj (1884-1956), a professor of Latin and a known book collector. His bookplate, mounted on the inner side of the front cover, was designed by a prolific academic artist Božidar Jakac (1899 –1989).

References: OCLC 444450500, 481874614.

440 EUR



43. Art Nouveau Book Design
Slavica

Dragotin KETTE (1876 – 1899), author; Anton AŠKERC (1856-1912), author of the introduction; Maxim GASPARI (1883-1980), illustrator.

Poezije

Ljubljana: Schwentner 1907.

Large 12°. Portrait with a facsimile signature, XXXVI, [1 pp] text with a portrait, protected with original guard, facsimile of a letter protected with original guard, 182 pp. with illustrated titles and vignettes, original blue cloth binding with gilt and black decoration and lettering, original patterned endpapers, gilt edges (Very Good, with only light traces of wear).

A stunningly well preserved art nouveau luxury edition of poetry by a Slovenian author Dragotin Kette with wonderful illustrations by an academic artis Maksim Gaspari, made in Munich and influenced by contemporary art nouveau.

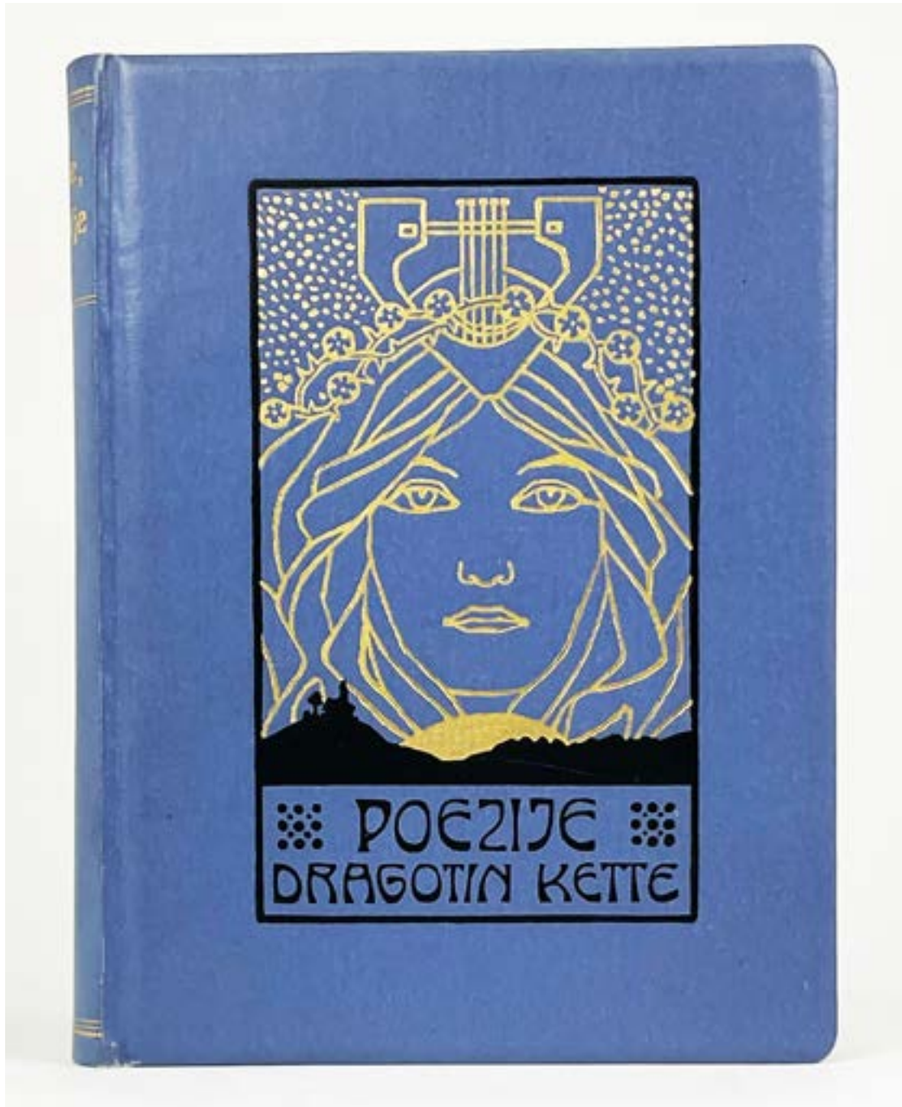
A collection of poems for children and adults and fables for children by a popular Slovenian author Dragotin Kette (1876 – 1899) was decorated by an academic artist Maksim Gaspari, who was at the time living in Munich and was heavily influenced by contemporary Viennese and south Bavarian book design.

First book of Kette's work was only published in 1900, a year after his death at the age of 23.

This is the second edition of Kette's poetry, enlarged with a biography, portrait and a facsimile of his writing, representing the first wonderful monument to the author. Our edition is a rare-to-find limited luxury version in blue linen and gilt decoration. The more known edition was published without illustrations, bound in simple wrappers and subtitled as "Common Edition".

References: OCLC 314461499, 320076396, 442232769, 62644224.

640 EUR




DRAGOTIN KETTE
POPOLNITEV BODI
MOJ EDINI VZOR:
LJČ RESNICA MOJE
DELOVANJE·LJUBI:
CA TI BODI MI IZVOR
SREČE·SMRT PO DE:
LU SLADKO SPANJE
• MAKSO •
• GASPARI •

44. Slavica
Book Design
Original Artwork

France PREŠEREN (1800-1849), author; Miha MALEŠ (1903-1987), designer; Martin BENČINA, author of the introduction; VARIOUS ARTISTS, authors of illustrations.

Strúnam.
Ljubljana: Bibliofilska založba 1940.

[and:]

Deklétam
Ljubljana: Bibliofilska založba 1940.

[and:]

Pod ôknam
Ljubljana: Bibliofilska založba 1941.

All 8°, 31 pp., with illustrations and original linocuts, original linen boards with illustrated cover, original calf spine, contemporary bookplate mounted on the inner side of the front cover (boards slightly dusty on the corners, but overall in a good condition).

A complete set of three bibliophile editions of poems by a Slovenian poet France Prešeren designed by an academic artist Miha Maleš and illustrated with original artwork.

A set for three fine booklets with a poetry by most famous Slovenian poet France Prešeren were published on the eve of WWII by a Bibliophile Publishing House in Ljubljana. The book design was made by a prolific Slovenian academic artist Miha Maleš. Each book includes a poem, followed by various illustrations on the subject by contemporary Slovenian male and female artists, accompanied by the description of the artwork and its origins. As some illustrations are reproductions from mostly larger paintings, the others are imprints from original plates.

Maleš was schooled at art academies in Zagreb, Vienna and Prague, where he graduated in 1927. Influenced by the contemporary Prague art movement with its vivid printing activity, he wanted to lift the art of printing from its reputation of second-rate reproductions to the level of original artwork.



Maleš founded the first Bibliophile Publishing House in Slovenia, where he was printing woodcuts and etchings as illustrations of bibliophile editions of books, to make original artwork more approachable to wider audience. Although a prominent artist in the post WWII era, exhibiting worldwide, his finest work is considered to be from the period of the late 1920s until the mid-1940s, when his activity was interrupted by WWII.

Our three books are fine products of Miha Maleš's Bibliophile Publishing House and were sold with soft covers and in half-calf bindings, ours being the latter version. University of California Los Angeles houses an example of Pod ôknam, otherwise we could not find any examples outside Slovenian libraries

References: OCLC 442980669, 442980711, 442980734.

420 EUR



1940

45. Turkish Poetry Book Design

Attilâ İLHAN (1925-2005), author; Güngör KABAKÇIOĞLU (1933-2011), designer of the cover.

Ben Sana Mecburum

Ankara: Ataç Kitabevi Yayınları 1960.

12°, 109 pp., [3 pp.], original illustrated wrappers (Very Good, unread example with minimal wear to the spine).

The first edition of highly popular Turkish poems by Attilâ İlhan, heavily influenced by contemporary French art movement

Attilâ İlhan (1925-2005) was a Turkish poet, screenwriter and a brother of a famous actress Çolpan İlhan.

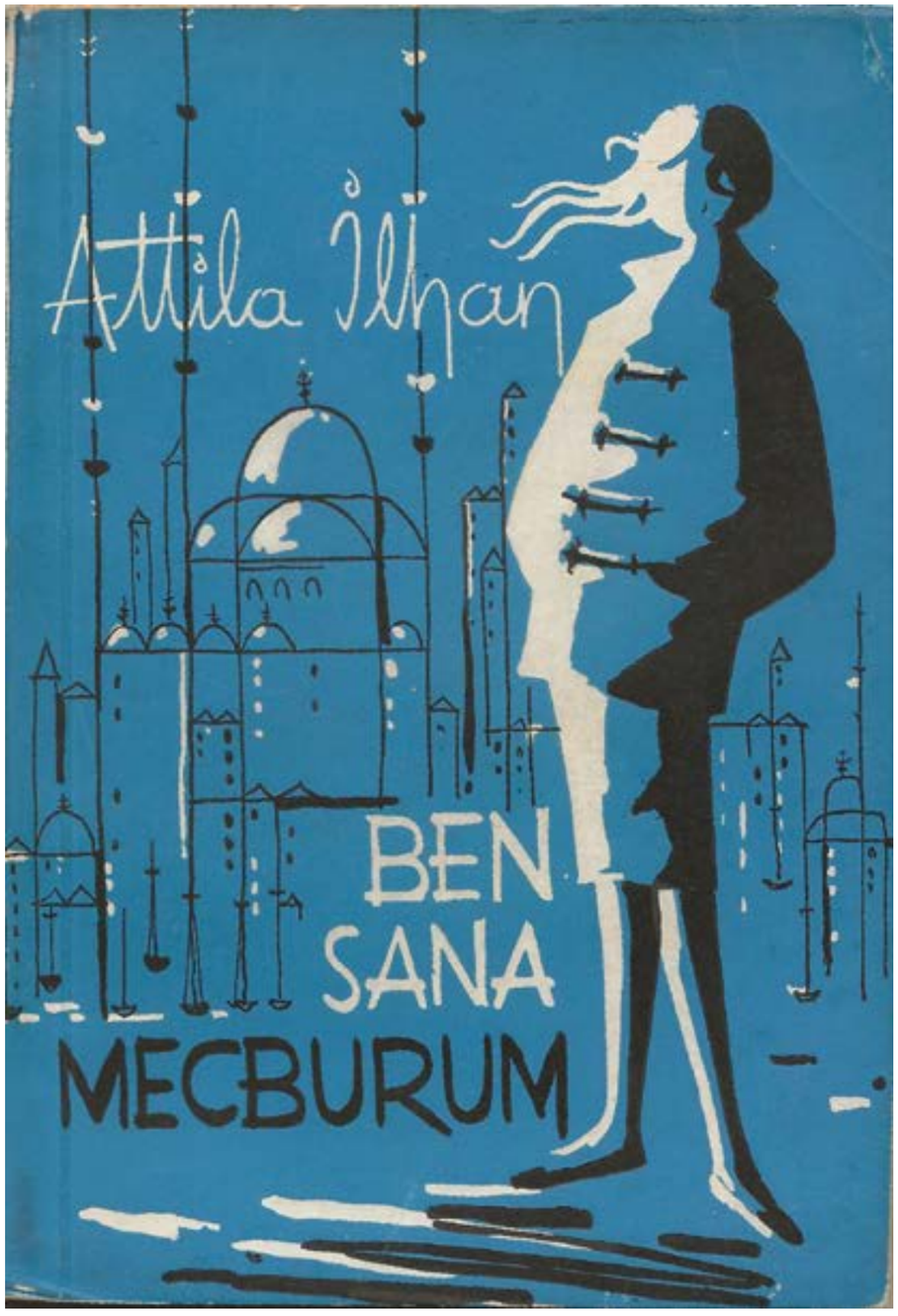
As a socialist and an open supporter of at the time banned poet Nazım Hikmet İlhan was arrested twice already in his teens (first time at the age of 16, when he presented one of the Hikmet's poems to a girl he liked), after which he moved to Paris. Later he lived between Istanbul, Izmir and Paris.

The contemporary French art, poetry and the beatnik movement had a large influence on Attilâ İlhan, who started becoming popular in his home country in the 1950s. The title poem of this collection Ben Sana Mecburum (translated as Compelled to You), heavily influenced by a poem Ne me quitte pas by Jacques Brel, issued a year before, remains one of the most popular Turkish poems, recited by the author himself. The modern mind-century cover design was made by a talented visual artist Güngör Kabakçioğlu (1933-2011), who authored several book covers and was known for his caricatures.

We could find 6 institutional examples on Worldcat (University of Oxford, Boğaziçi University Library, Izmir Institute of Technology, Princeton University Library, Princeton University Library).

References: OCLC 60333665.

280 EUR



46. Early Anti-Hitler Publication
Adolf Hitler

Mustafa Cihad BABAN here signed as Cihat HIKMET (1911 - 1984).

Hitler ve Nasyonal Sosyalizm
[Hitler and the National Socialism]

Istanbul: Şafak Kütüphanesi 1933.

8°, 147 pp., with interleaved sepia photographs, contemporary green cloth binding with gilt lettering on the back (minor staining, but overall in a good condition).

The first separately printed biography of Adolf Hitler in Turkish language, with a critical analysis of the National socialism and a problem of anti-Semitism, published in the year, when Hitler was elected a chancellor.

Signed by the author

This is the first separately published biography of Adolf Hitler in Turkish language, issued in the year of his election as a chancellor, in 1933. The first part is dedicated to the analysis of the uprise of the National Socialism, the problem of the anti-Semitism and fight against the Communism. The second part is Hitler's biography with descriptions of his associates. The text is accompanied with photos.

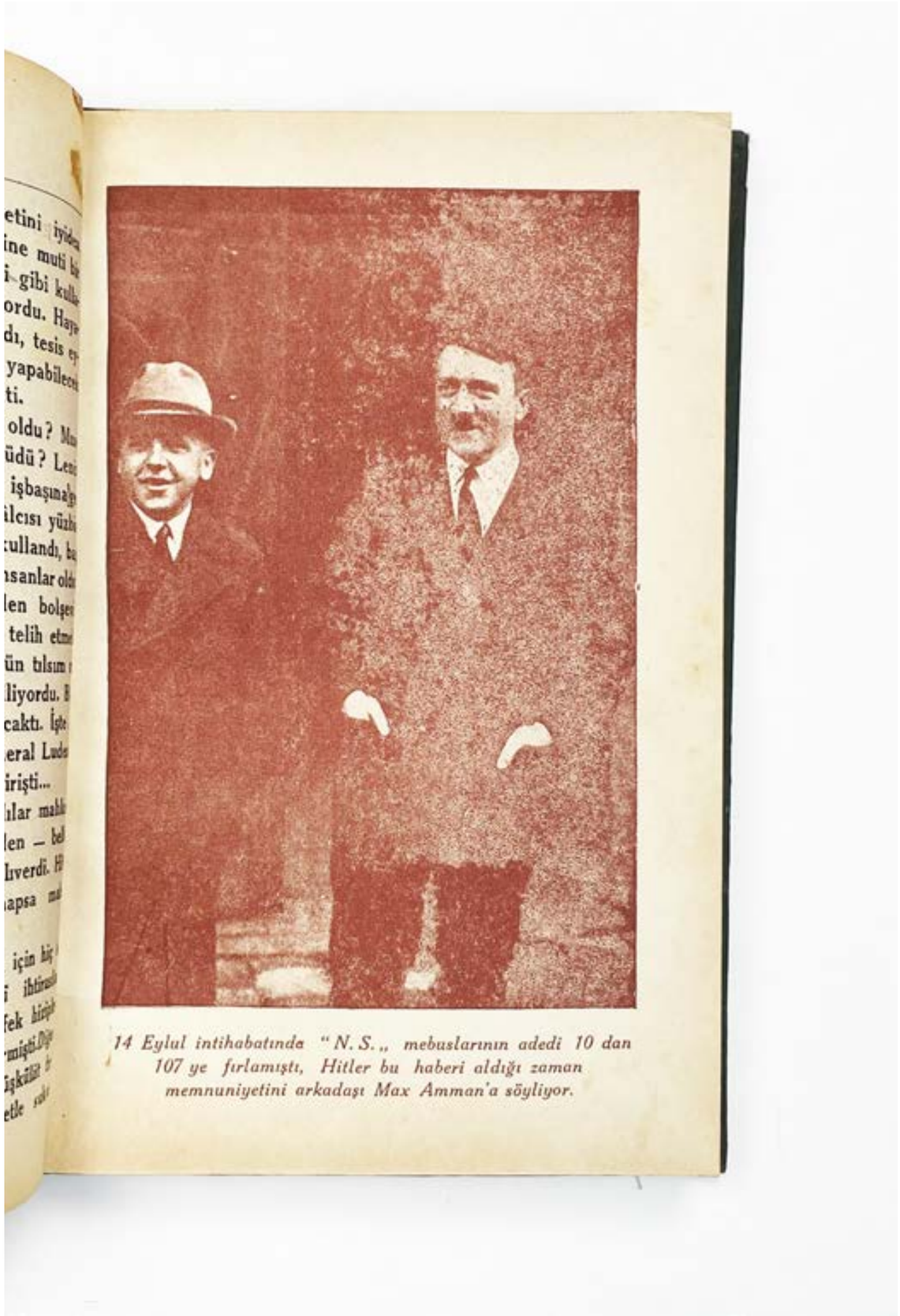
The author Cihad Baban, who wrote the book as a 22 year old student of law at the Istanbul University, later became a prominent journalist and politician. As mentioned in the introduction, the text is a result of his personal researches and analysis of the uprise of Hitler and the Nazi movement, which was only published in the year, when Hitler was elected a chancellor.

The author's tone in the introduction is worrisome about the future and he describes his own work as a pioneering and courageous.

Our example has been dedicated and signed by the author on September 13th, 1933. The book is very rare. Worldcat only lists two institutional exampled (Bayerische Staatsbibliothek and KOÇ University Library).

References: OCLC 165517627, 1030059820, 754966781 (title without institutions).

1.200 EUR


14 Eylul intihabatında "N. S.„ mebuslarının adedi 10 dan 107 ye fırlamıştı, Hitler bu haberi aldığı zaman memnuniyetini arkadaşı Max Amman'a söyliyor.

47. Muslim Population of Crete
Swiss Imprint

DIRECTION GUIRED.

كريد
[Girit / Crete]

Geneve: Direction Guired 1897.

9 issues (of ?), all small 4°, between 4 and 8 pp. cyclostyle. Issues: 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, 11, unnumbered example (soft folds and minor staining, but otherwise good, partly uncut examples).

A rare set of cyclostyled newspapers, printed by Ottoman Cretan immigrants in Switzerland, describing the clashes between the Greeks and the Ottomans on Crete in 1897.

The rare set of magazines, printed in cyclostyle in Ottoman language, was published in Geneve in 1897 by the Muslim Cretan immigrants. The texts describes the clashes between the Greek and Ottoman inhabitants, which was a prelude to the Greco-Turkish war, the Muslim inhabitants of Crete and other contemporary reports. The only image showcases a Muslim child, who was deadly injured during the clashes.

We could not find any institutional examples.

References: Cf. Orhan Kologlu, "La presse turque en Crete", in: Nathalie Clayer/Alexandre Popovic u.a. (Hg.), Presse Turque et Presse de Turkie…, Istanbul – Paris 1992, p. 264.

1.200 EUR



48. Crete

كريد. مضيسى حالى استقبالى
[Girit. Mâzisi, Hâli, İstikbâli /Crete. Past, Present, Future]

Istanbul: Ebüzziya Matbaası 1328 [1912].

8°, 96 pp., advertisement, original illustrated wrappers (slightly stained, a tiny loss of image on the rear wrappers, but otherwise in a good condition).

A detailed illustrated history of Crete in Ottoman language was published, when Crete officially joined the Kingdom of Greece, after the separations from the Ottoman Empire. The text is focused on the Ottoman history and heritage on the island and finishes with the destruction after Cretan intervention by the allies in 1896. Two disturbing photos show an injured Turkish girl and a dead child - the victims of the riots.

The short-lived Cretan State was founded in 1897, when the island separated from the Ottoman Empire, leaving the Ottoman inhabitants devastated. It joined the Kingdom of Greece in 1908 and was officially annexed in 1911.

The pamphlet, made a year later, commemorates the Ottoman past on Crete and questions the future.

References: OCLC 81953010. ÖZEGE 6221.

280 EUR



49. Political Propaganda – The Young Turks Cairo Imprint

Vittorio ALFIERI (1749 – 1803), author; Abdullah CEVDET (1869-1932), translator.

استبداد
[İsdibdad / Della Tirannide / Of Tyranny]

Egypt [Cairo:] Matbaa-i İctihad 1908.

8°. 271 pp. with a portrait, original boards with hand splattered paper and black cloth spine (minimal wear to the cover, but overall in a good condition).

A translation of an Italian work "On Tyranny" was translated into Ottoman as a propaganda piece at the time of the capitulation of Sultan Abdul Hamid II and published in Cairo to avoid the censorship.

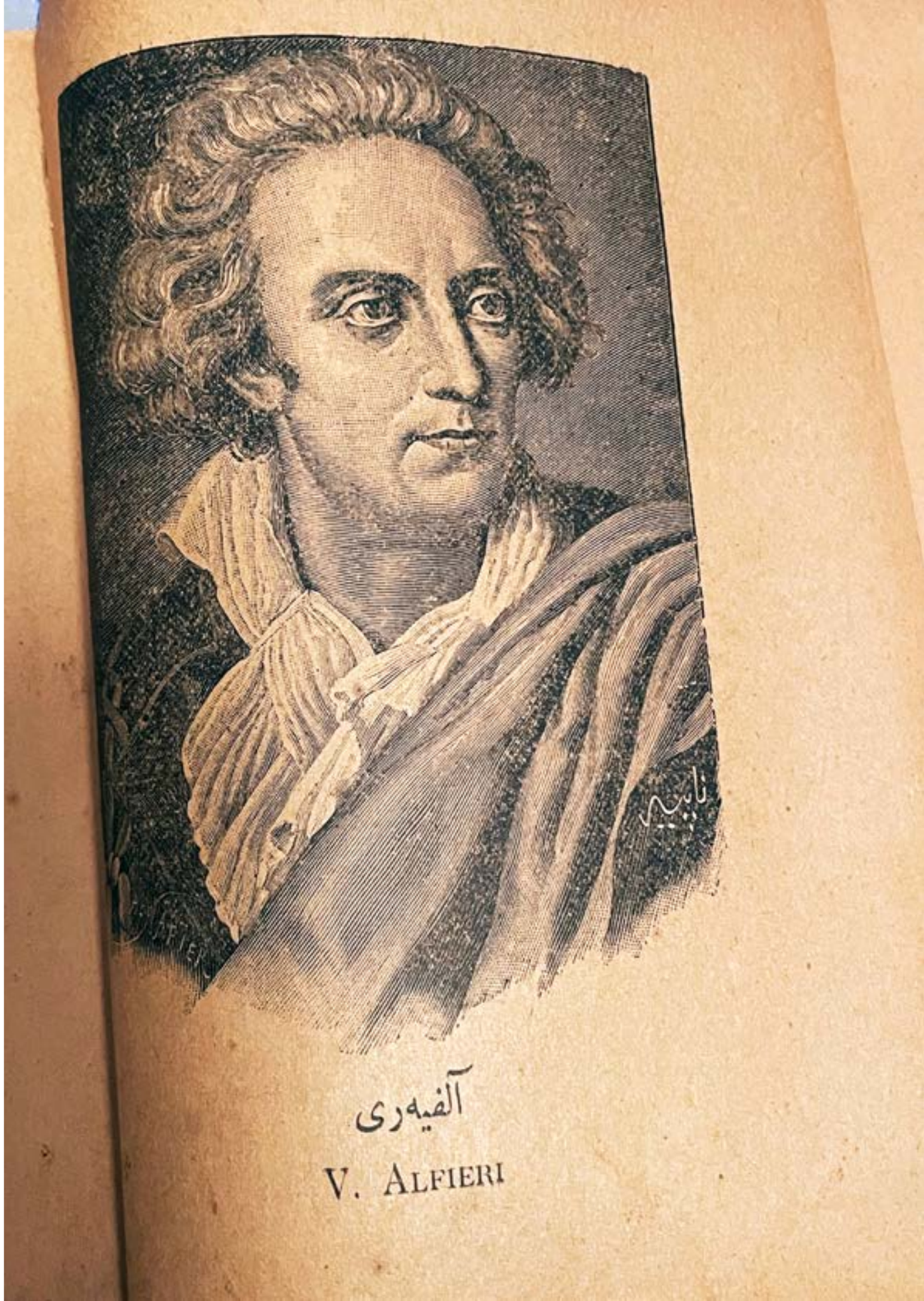
The translation of a late 18th century Italian work on the tyranny, declaring liberty as a universal right, was made in 1908 by Abdullah Cevdet (1869-1932), an Ottoman medical doctor of Kurdish background, who translated and wrote several groundbreaking works in the early 19th century. He was known for his progressive thoughts on the women's liberation and modernization of the Islamic religion, for which he was tried on several occasion.

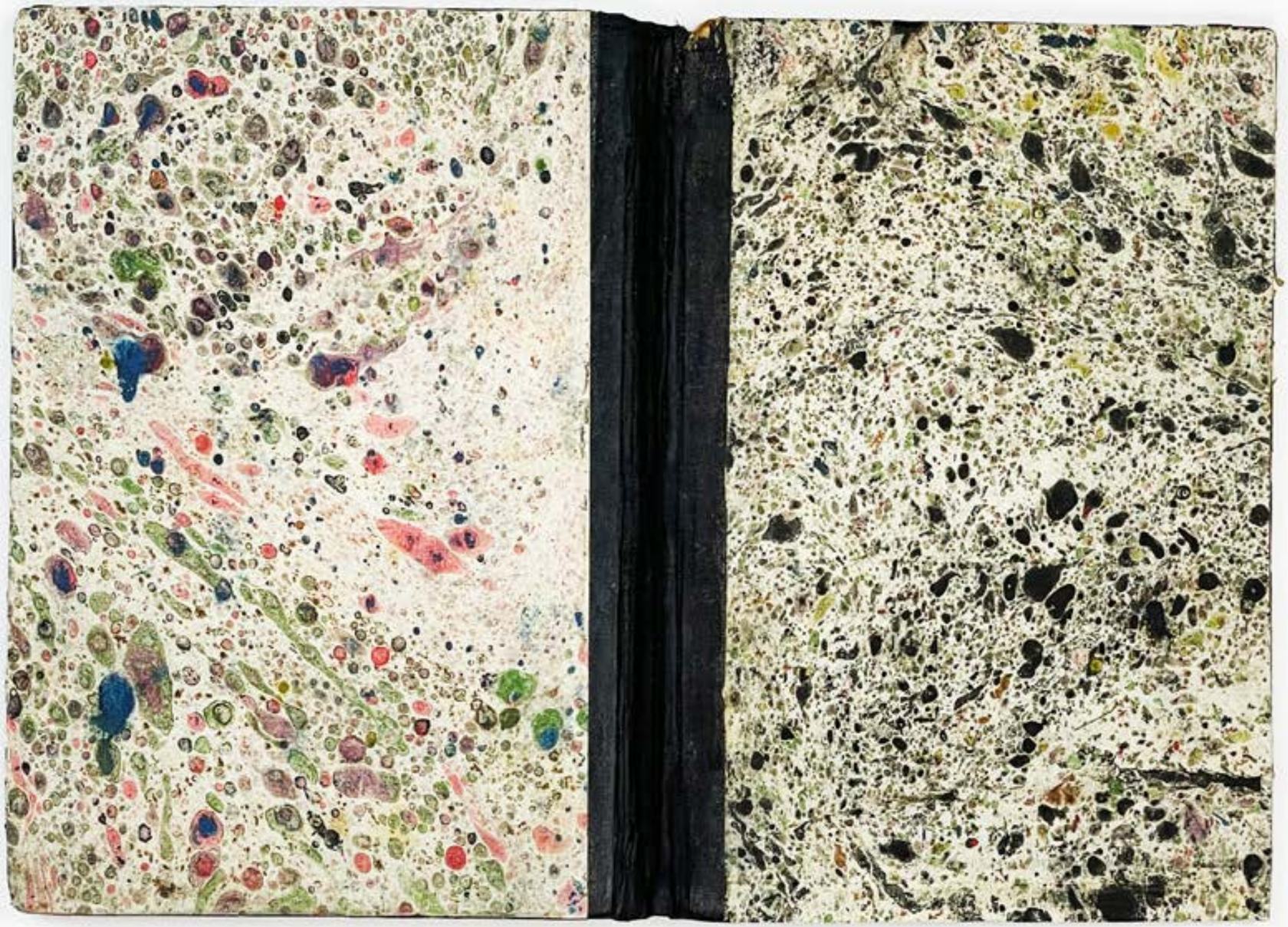
Abdullah Cevdet, a supporter of the Young Turks, translated this work in 1908, when the sultan Abdul Hamid II was deposed by the revolution. Cevdet also translated Shakespeare's Hamlet in the same year and Macbeth a year later. The book on tyranny and both Shakespeare's work, talking about overthrowing the king, were due to the censorship in Istanbul published in Cairo.

The example is bound in a charming original binding with hand splattered paper on covers.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

550 EUR





50. French Colonization of Tunisia
Trade with Central Africa
Algiers Imprint

Désiré BORDIER

Société des sciences physiques, naturelles et climatologiques d'Alger. 19e réunion des délégués des Société savantes à la Sorbonne. Algérie, Tunisie et Afrique centrale. Création d'un service régulier de caravanes entre Djerba et le Centre de l'Afrique

[Society of Physical, Natural and Climatological Sciences of Algiers. 19th meeting of Members of Scientific Society at the Sorbonne. Algeria, Tunisia and Central Africa. Creation of a Regular Caravan Service Between Djerba and Central Africa].

Algiers: Bouyer 1881.

Small 8°, 25 pp., later spine (in a good condition with minor foxing).

A rare pamphlet in French language, printed in Algiers and published in 1881, in the year France took over Tunisia, includes a speech by captain Désiré Bordier, analyzing the strategic position of Tunisian coast and new paths to central Africa.

This rare pamphlet, printed in Algiers, includes a speech by Désiré Bordier, a naval captain, who was also a member of the academy, Meteorological Society of Algiers, and various historical and geographical organizations.

In this speech Bordier discussed the most convenient routes to the interior of Africa from the coast of Tunisia, the country colonialized by France in the same year. As a starting point he suggests the island of Djerba and describes the most convenient routes to reach Sudan. Désiré Bordier calls France to take this new paths to increase its trade with the central Africa, as the their trade is momentarily significantly behind of that of England and Italy.

In the 1880s Bordier authored several other publications on Africa, its routes and monuments.

The pamphlet is very rare. We could only trace one example (Bibliothèque nationale de France).

References: OCLC 458640608.

450 EUR



SOCIÉTÉ DES SCIENCES PHYSIQUES, NATURELLES
ET CLIMATOLOGIQUES D'ALGER

19e RÉUNION
DES
DÉLÉGUÉS DES SOCIÉTÉS SAVANTES A LA SORBONNE

ALGÉRIE, TUNISIE & AFRIQUE CENTRALE

CRÉATION
D'UN
SERVICE RÉGULIER DE CARAVANES
Entre Djerba et le Centre de l'Afrique

PAR
Désiré BORDIER
CAPITAINE AU 81e DE LIGNE
Chevalier de la Légion d'Honneur, Officier d'Académie, Auxiliaire de la Commission de géographie historique de l'ancienne France, Secrétaire-adjoint de la Section économique de la Société languedocienne de Géographie, Délégué de la Société Climatologique d'Alger.

ALGER
TYPOGRAPHIE ET LITHOGRAPHIE A. BOUYER
23 RUE BAB-AZOUN, 23
—
1881

51. Tripolitania – Libya
Early Italian Tendencies to Colonize North Africa

Rizzardo RIZZETTO.

La Tripolitania quale risulta dai viaggi di Gherardo Rohlfs
[Tripolitania, as it Results from the Travels of Gerhard Rohlfs]

Rome: Perelli 1883.

8°. [10 pp.], 125 pp., [3 pp.], original blue wrappers with lettering, later spine (wrappers slightly stained, minor age-toning to the margins, sporadic old annotations in pencil in margins, a small tear in one page but overall good).

A rare Italian report on the travel through the North of Libya by a German explorer Gerhard Rohlfs, written by a lawyer Rizzardo Rizzetto, who in his researches emphasized the importance of Tripolitania for the Italian exploration of Africa, shows an early Italian tendency to colonize the region.

Rizzardo Rizzetto authored several books and articles in the late 19th century, mostly focusing on Tripolitania, the northern part of today's Libya.

In 1881, Ruzzetto held a speech at the Società d'esplorazione commerciale in Africa (Society for Commercial exploration of Africa), where he pointed out the importance of the region for the further exploration of Africa. The speech by a "young lawyer", which was lightened by "elegant words by the narrator" was according to the contemporary report by the Society received with a great applause (L'Esploratore, 5, Società d'esplorazione commerciale in Africa 1881, p. 143).

The speech was held in the same year France took over Tunisia, making Italy paranoid for the future of the North African coasts, once belonging to the Roman Empire.

In the book La Tripolitania quale risulta dai viaggi di Gherardo Rohlfs (Tripolitania, as it Results from the Travels of Gerhard Rohlfs) from 1883, Rizzardo Rizzetto sums up the discoveries, made in 1868-1869 by a German explorer and medical doctor Gerhard Rohlfs (1831 – 1896), who was the first European to cross Africa from Tripoli across the Sahara desert via Lake Chad. Rizzetto finds Rohlfs's discoveries exceedingly important for the potential Italian future presence in the region, which was at the time under the Ottoman Rule. In 1911, Italy took over Tripolitania in the Italo-Turkish War.

Not only were Gerhard Rohlfs's explorations of high significance to Italy, but he became popular on the Apennine Peninsula by stating in 1879, that he is convinced "that within a few years Tripolitania will be once more Italian", the "once more" referring to the possession of the area under the Roman Empire (Cedric James Lowe, F. Marzari , Italian Foreign Policy, 1870-1940, 2002, p. 34).

La Tripolitania quale risulta dai viaggi di Gherardo Rohlfs was published in 1883, two years after the French takeover of Tunisia and in the year the British took control over Egypt, leaving the coast of Libya one of the rear coasts of north Africa, unconquered by the Europeans and a sitting target for Italy.

The book is rare. Worldcat only lists two examples (Biblioteca del Dipartimento di Storia Culture Civiltà, Bologna and Bibliothèque nationale de France).

References: OCLC 24388720.


LA
TRIPOLITANIA
GHERARDO ROHLFS
STUDIO
RIZZARDO RIZZETTO
ROMA

450 EUR

52. Tripolitania – Libya
Early Italian Tendencies to Colonize North Africa

Rizzardo RIZZETTO.

I Commerci di Tripoli e quelli del Sudan
[The Trade of Tripoli and Sudan]

Rome: Civelli 1883.

12°, 118 pp., [^{2} pp.] blank, original blue wrappers with lettering, later spine (minor foxing to the wrappers, otherwise in a good condition).

In the same year, as the previous book in our catalogue Rizzardo Rizzetto, an Italian lawyer, presented the strategic locationof the coasts of Tripolitania, important for the future trade in the Mediterranean and describes the trade routes of Sudan.

This work, first published in the journal Il Dititto (The Law) is another one of Rizzetto's work, encouraging the Italian colonization of Libya (please see the previous item of a longer description).

The book is very rare. We could only find two or three examples on Worldcat (Bibliothèque nationale de France, The British Library, New York Public Library (eBook?)).

References: OCLC 458010180, 753058986, 24388718 (Microfilm).

420 EUR



53. Tripolitania – Libya
Early Italian Tendencies to Colonize North Africa

Emilio LUPI

La Tripolitania secondo le più recenti esplorazioni
[Tripolitania According to the Recent Explorations]

Roma: Loescher, 1885.

8°. 60 pp. with a map, [4 pp.], original wrappers with lettering, later spine (minor staining and foxing, but overall in a good condition).

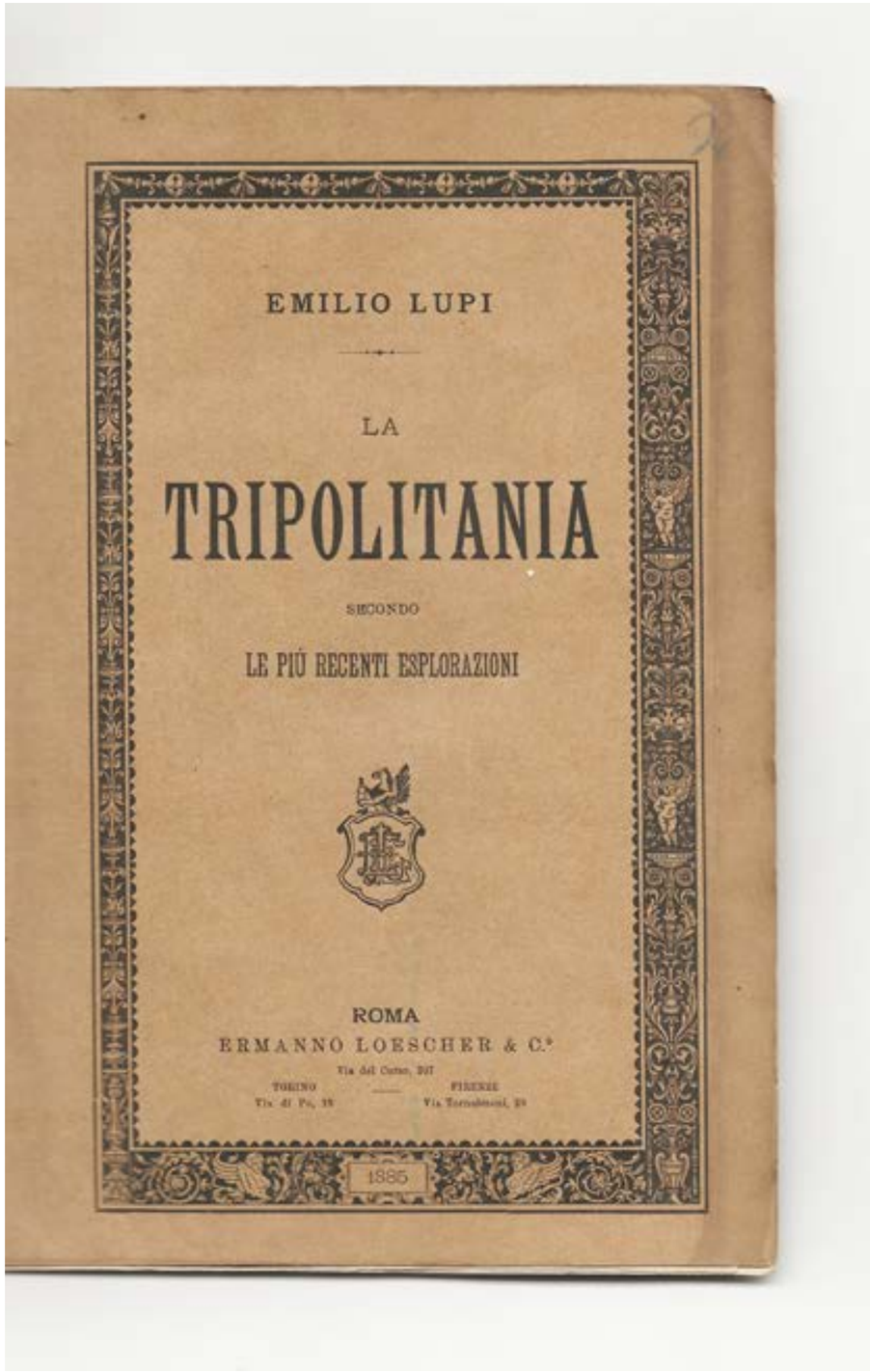
In his book on the latest explorations of today's Libya the Italian author Emilio Lupi advocated Italian dominance of Tripolitania from the ideological point of view. He believes that Italy should expand its contemporary borders across the Mediterranean sea, reclaiming possessions of the former Roman Empire, even if it was of no commercial value, and he expresses his hope, that the county will be "soon better explored under the protection of our flag".

Italian appetite for the Libyan coast was additionally encouraged by the contemporary French tendencies to take over Morocco.

Lupi stated: "Even if the coast of Tripoli were a desert, even if it would not support one peasant or one Italian business firm, we will need to take it to avoid being suffocated in mare nostrum" (Cedric James Lowe, F. Marzari , Italian Foreign Policy, 1870-1940, 2002, p. 34).

References: OCLC 249429041, 918385547.

140 EUR



54. Circassians

محمد فتکری شوئهنو Mehmet Fetgerey Şoenu (1890-1931).

چرکسلر

[Çerkesler / Circassians]

Istanbul: Necm-i İstikbâl Matbaası 1922 – 1238.

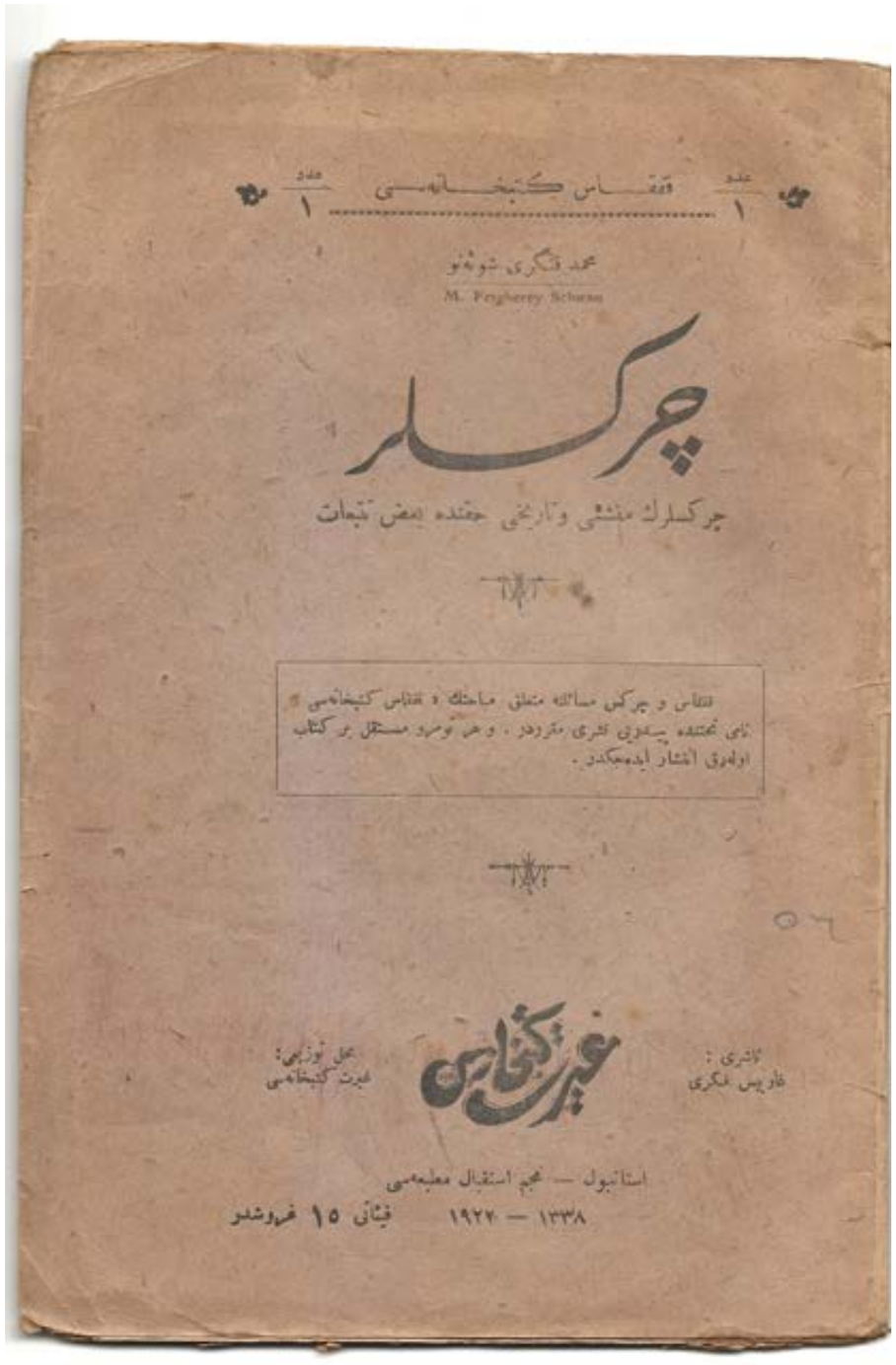
Large 8°. 48 pp., original wrappers (slightly age-toned and with light foxing, tiny tears in margins, but overall in a good condition).

A detailed work on the origins and history of the Circassians in Ottoman language was written by Mehmet Fetgerey Şoenu (1890-1931), 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: ÖZEGE; 3304; OCLC 39394079.

340 EUR



55. Russian Printing in Istanbul

Православныи Христіанскій Молитвословъ
[Pravoslavnyi Hristianskij Molitvoslov / Orthodox Christian Prayer Book]

Istanbul: L. Babok i Sin 1925.

12°. 182 pp. with black and white illustrations, [2] pp., original orange wrappers with lettering (slightly dusty, old annotations in Cyrillic on the title page, wrappers slightly stained, overall in a good condition).

The book of prayers in Russian language was printed for a large Russian population in Istanbul and was according to the text copied after a book, printed by the Synod Press in Saint-Petersburg in 1914.

The pamphlet was probably printed for the White Russian refugees in Istanbul, which in 1925, hosted an exceedingly large number of Russian population, that escaped the revolution only a few year earlier. Several prints were made for them by the local printers and the Orthodox church.

We could not find any institutional examples.

850 EUR



56. Turkish Book Design
Art Deco
Petroleum

Hasan Halet Işıkpınar (1897–1977), author ; Cevdet, illustrator.

L'Industrie Electrique et le Ressource Motrice de la Turquie

Istanbul : Tsitouris Frères 1932.

4°. VIII, 65 pp. with interleaved 16 pp. with black and white illustrations and maps, [16 pp.] black and white advertisements, original illustrated wrappers (wrappers slightly worn with minor scratches, minor foxing, but overall in a good condition).

The first edition of the influential Turkish research on petroleum and other sources of energy in Turkey was published with a beautiful art-deco cover design by Djevdet (also Cevdet), a Turkish illustrator, whose possibly most famous work were drafts for Nazim Hikmet's Jocond ile Si-Ya-U, published in 1929 (see our item: TURKISH AVANT-GARDE: Jocond ile Si-Ya-U [La Gioconda and Si-Ya-U]).

The author Hasan Halet Işıkpınar (1897–1977) was the first Turkish student, who graduated at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, where he published his work A Study of the Natural Resources of Turkey and the Design of a Superpower Net Work in 1928. He later a professor at the Robert College in Istanbul.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

350 EUR



57. Serbian Travelogue to Disneyland, Hawaii, Australia and Indonesia

Radivoje Markovi..(1909-1979).

Aloha, Honolulu

Sarajevo: Džepna knjiga 1958.

8°. 270 pp. with black and white photographs, [2 pp.] index, original illustrated wrappers (Very Good, minimal scratches on the corners of the wrappers, old signature on the top of the title page).

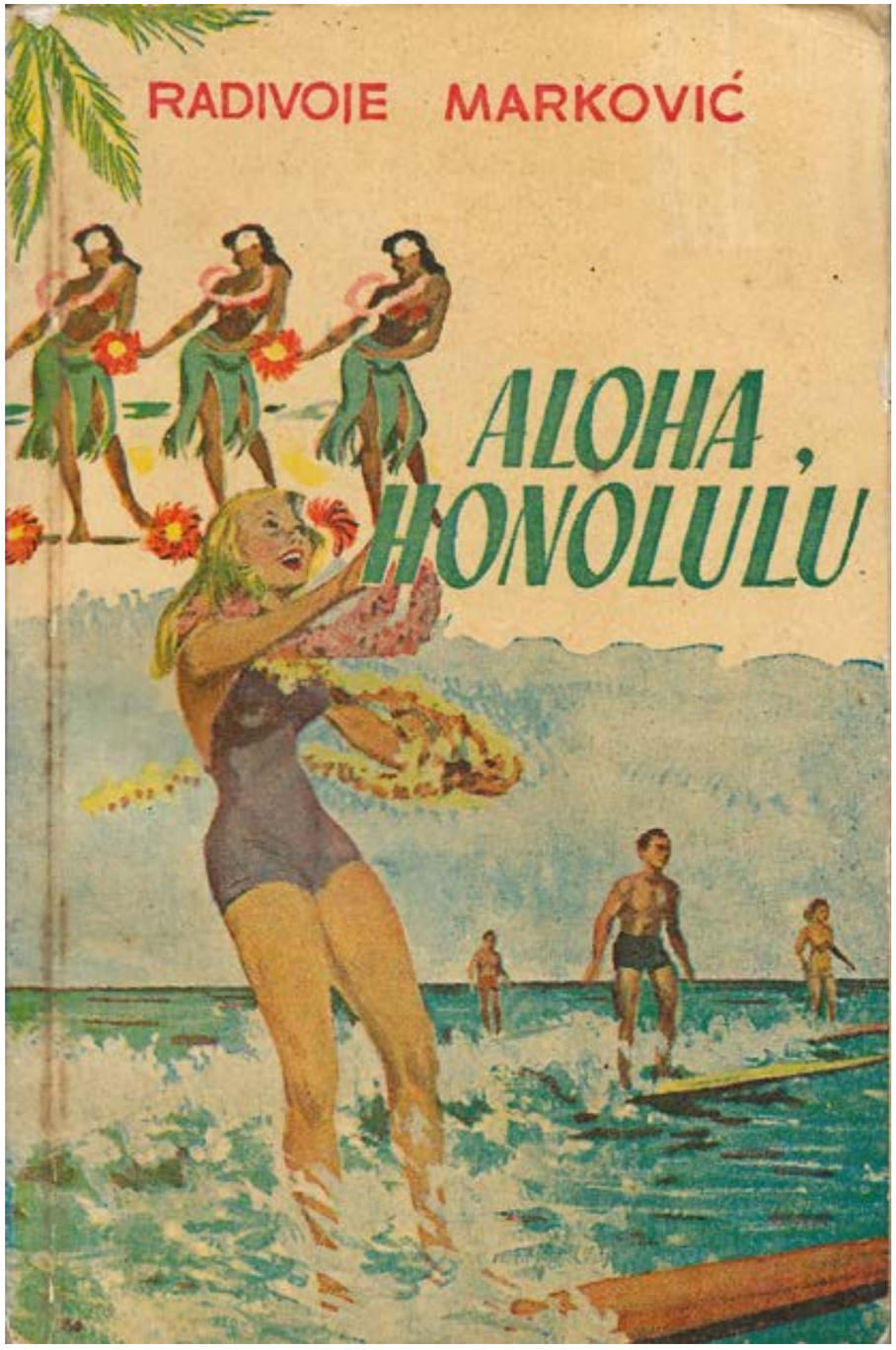
Radivoje Marković was a legendary Serbian journalist and reporter, and one of most popular Yugoslav radio narrators. Known for his eloquence he covered serious news as well as the sport events, including seven Olympic games. He also wrote books and articles, mostly on sport subjects.

Aloha, Honolulu is a charming travelogue, written by Marković in 1958. It starts with his trip from Copenhagen to California per plane Greenland, with several uncomfortable stops. Upon his arrival the author visited Los Angeles and newly built Disneyland, to which he dedicated the whole chapter. From there he travelled to Hawaii, Australia and Indonesia and from there the journalist returned home through Calcutta and Rome.

Worldcat lists one institutional example (The British Library, St. Pancras).

References: OCLC 562330330.

120 EUR



58. Syrian 20th Century History
Political Propaganda

نديم أبو إسماعيل (Nadeem ABU ISMAIL), author; حسن الأطرش (Hasan AL-ATRASH), author of the introduction.

من أسرار الشيشكلي
[Shishakli's secrets]

S. l., S. d. [Syria, poss. 1954].

Large 8°. 96 pp., original illustrated wrappers (wrappers slightly worn with tiny scratches and holes in the upper margin on the cover, but otherwise in a good condition).

A pamphlet in Arabic language with a decorative cover was made as a propaganda against the former Syrian president Adib al-Shishakli after his deposition in 1954.

The pamphlet with illustrated cover was printed after the fall of Adib al-Shishakli (1909 – 1964), the Syrian president in 1953 and 1954, when this former military leader was overthrown by Druze officers, Syrian Communist Party and Ba'ath Party members. The text describes al-Shishakli as a tyrant and a dictator.

The introduction was written by Hasan Al-Atrash, a Syrian prince from a powerful Druze Family. The photographs show various portraits, starting with the new president Hashim al-Atassi, an influential Druze leader Sultan Pasha al-Atrash, who returned to Syria after al-Shishakli's downfall, and a politician Rushdi al-Kikhya.

The pamphlet is rare. Worldcat does not list any institutional examples. We could trace the title in the Arabic Union Catalog bibliographic record.

References: OCLC 4771431008.

420 EUR



