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1. MEXICO / TEXAS - MEXICAN CENTRAL RAILWAY (FERROCARRIL CENTRAL MEXICANO) / MEXICO-U.S.A. NEXUS / 'EL PORFIRIATO'

FERROCARRIL CENTRAL MEXICANO COMPAÑIA LIMITADA.

Mapa del Ferrocarril Central Mexicano desde Paso del Norte pasando por los estados de Chihuahua, Durango, Coahuila, Zacatecas, Aguascalientes, Jalisco, Guanajuato y Queretaro hasta Mexico / [Ferrocarril Central Mexicano] Compañia Limitada. Escala 10 millas = 1 pulgada inglesa / 1/633600.

Philadelphia: McCollin's (draftsmen), [likely 1881].

Cyanotype (blueprint), printed on 2 joined sheets of thick paper, rolled, with the publisher's handstamp of 'McCollin's / Philadelphia' faintly-impressed to verso (Very Good, various marginal tears and a couple clean tears (one being 12 inches long) entering image on right-hand side but with no loss, all tears closed from verso with archival tape, a couple pieces of tape appearing on recto but only in blank margins, still quite remarkable condition for such a large fragile blueprint), 68 x 294 cm (27 x 115.5 inches).

A colossal (almost 3 metre / 10 foot long!) cyanotype (blueprint) engineers' masterplan of the Ferrocarril Central Mexicano (Mexican Central Railway), the 1,969 kilometre-long railroad that connected Mexico City with El Paso, Texas, so creating the first great Mexican-American commercial-trading nexus, revolutionizing Mexico's economy; the railways was by far and away the grandest project of 'El porfiriato' (1876 - 1911), the era of unprecedented political stability, economic growth, scientific progress, and booming infrastructure that Mexico experienced under the rule of the military strongman Porfirio Díaz Mori; the railway was owned by a Boston-based corporate syndicate and was built at lightning speed, between 1880 and 1884, by a team led by several of America's greatest engineers; the unrecorded map, was seemingly executed in 1881, shortly after construction of the railway commenced, and was printed in Philadelphia by an architectural drafting shop in only a handful of examples to be used by the railway's executive board, major investors and the engineering team as a vital strategic aid; it is seemingly the only surviving example of the largest, most detailed, and most beautifully composed cartographic record of Mexico's principal railway, rendering it a critical original artefact from an endeavour that irrevocably linked the socio-economic destinies of Mexico and the Unites States.




Ferrocarril Central Mexicano

Prior to the 1870s, Mexico suffered from a severely underdeveloped economy with very little modern industry, terrible infrastructure, and communications systems, and grinding poverty, following decades of corruption, stagnation, internal instability, and foreign invasions that robbed the country of a third of her territory and much of her potential. This was even though Mexico boasted phenomenal natural resources wealth and human capital. Almost always, the best laid plans came to naught, a situation that frustrated the bright and ambitious figures in the Mexican elite.

All this changed during 'El porfiriato', the 35-year long presidency of Porfirio Díaz Mori (1876 - 1911), which marked an era of unprecedented political stability, economic growth, and scientific progress. That being said, the Porfiriato, which collapsed into a decade of revolutionary turmoil, holds a controversial legacy, as it also saw profligate corruption, cronyism, political repression and rising income inequality.

Díaz succeeded in rapidly modernizing Mexico, fostering industrialization, international trade and foreign investment, infrastructure programs, privatization, educational reforms, and advancements in science. His agenda was anchored in several mutually-dependent developments. First, was the privatization of vast amounts of federal land (new private land investment in Mexico grew from nearly nil in 1876 to £19.7 million in the 1910s). Second, was the professionalization and deployment of the armed forces to secure the countryside and the integrity of the republic's borders. Third, were programs to improve land management, especially with respect to agriculture and forestry. Fourth, was fostering industrialization and mining (decade totals for mining grew from £1.3 million in 1880s to £11.6 million in the 1910s!). Fifth, was encouraging and managing urbanization, as Mexico was transformed from an overwhelmingly rural country into land of fast-growing cities.

However, the critical element enabling all these advancements was the 'Railway Boom'. During 'El porfiriato' the country's railway network grew from only 640.5 km to 24,720 km, utterly transforming the country! Indeed, prior to Díaz's administration, the only significant railway in the entire country was the British-backed Mexican Railway (Ferrocarril Mexicano), completed in 1873, that linked Mexico City to Veracruz on the Gulf of Mexico.

While the Ferrocarril Mexicano represented a great leap forward, what was really needed to jumpstart El porfiriato was a grand trunk line running up the spine of Mexico, from the capital to the U.S. border, connecting the country with its largest foreign inventor and trading partner, and integrating the soon-to-be burgeoning Mexican railway system with that of the U.S. Such a line could dramatically increase economic growth and lead the modern development of central and northern Mexico, especially one its intended spur lines were completed.

Toward the end of the 1870s, the Díaz administration opened tenders for what would be one of the era's most ambitious mega-projects. As with all the other major endeavours in Mexico during the era, it was automatically assumed that it would be spearheaded by foreigners, most likely Americans, as the immense costs and technical expertise far exceeded any domestic capabilities. By from 1876 to 1900, it is estimated that U.S. $500 million of American capital was invested in Mexico, of which 70% went into the railways.

The bidding was won by an American syndicate led by the legendary banking and brokerage firm Kidder, Peabody & Co., which, on February 25, 1880, incorporated the Ferrocarril Central Mexicano Compañia Limitada, charted in Boston, Massachusetts (the railway was to be run exclusively out of downtown Boston for the duration of its existence). The enterprise secured highly favourable terms from President Díaz, who wanted the railway built quickly and securely, regardless of the costs, extending U.S. $32.5 million in construction subsidies (then an astounding sum!), as well as tax breaks and military protection.

Importantly, the railway to be by far and away the financially largest and technically most ambitious endeavour of El porfiriato.

The railway's board immediately proceeded to organize the construction of the Ferrocarril Central Mexicano (Mexican Central Railway), which was to run from Mexico City up to Paso del Norte (from 1888 called Ciudad Juárez), to connect with the U.S. railway system just across the Río Bravo del Norte (Rio Grande) at El Paso, Texas. Shortly thereafter, the Compañia purchased the rights to build major spur lines; one departing the main line from Aguascalientes, through San Luis Potosí, to come to the Gulf Coast at Tampico; and the other to depart for the main line at Irapuato to run to Guadalajara as then the Pacific at San Blas. However, the priority was to build the Mexico City-Paso del Norte trunk line.

The Compañia wisely recruited an all-star team of engineers to plan and construct the railway, that included some of America's most seasoned veterans, plus some of the brightest and most innovative young minds in the field.

The project was overseen by Rudolph Fink (1834 -1913), who served as the railway's General Manager and Chief Engineer. A German immigrant, based in Memphis, Tennessee, he had already been responsible for building several of the key lines in the U.S. South and was a driven and uniquely skilled manager of men and logistics.

Fink's right-hand man was Arthur Mellen Wellington (1847 - 1895), the railway's Assistant General Manager, was a hugely accomplished engineer, who had held senior roles in planning and building many of the great railway projects in the U.S. and Canada. He supervised much of the day-to-day construction of the line. He was well-known for his line "An engineer can do for a dollar what any fool can do for two".

The priority was to set the precise intended route of the railway, an exceedingly difficult task, as it was to run over hundreds of kms of mountains and deserts, while the proper land concessions, etc. needed to be arranged in advance of construction.

This charge was assigned to the brilliant young American engineer and urban planner Frank Henry Olmstead (1858 - 1939), who despite his youth, already had valuable experience working in challenging environments in places such as Idaho and California, as well as being a professional cartographer and draftsman. He subsequently became well known for laying out the urban plans for the cities of Fullerton, California and Billings, Montana.

An exciting and consequential addition to the team was the young Norwegian immigrant Olaf Hoff (1859 - 1924), who was nothing short of a genius when it came to designing

bridges and tunnels. He served as the railway's chief engineer of bridges, and as the chief locating engineer, placing him in charge of fine-tuning Olmstead's plan for running the route – a tremendous level of responsibility for a man in his early 20s!

Critical to the present map, Olmstead and Hoff were responsible for setting the course of the Mexican Central Railway as showcased here in grand scale.

Last, but not least, the other principal of the engineering team was Charles Adelbert Morse (1859 – after 1929), a young man who would subsequently become one of America's greatest railway builders; he served as the Ferrocarril's chief division engineer.

While none of these men are today household names, they all became legends in the field of railway engineering and played critical roles in allowing North America to enter the modern age.

The main line of the Ferrocarril Central Mexicano, running from Mexico City to Paso del Norte (Ciudad Juárez), being 1,969 kilometres (1,224 miles) long, was constructed with stunningly rapid, even lightning speed, albeit with great skill and care, with the entire project completed in only in 3½ years! This was a testament to Fink's superlative organizational skills, the almost super-human abilities of the engineering team, and the lavish funding provided by both the Peabody, Kidder syndicate and the Díaz administration.

Construction started from the south, in Mexico City, on September 25, 1880, and the line was opened to San Juan del Rio the following year, with the continuation northwards as far as Lagos finished by 1882. Meanwhile, in the north, the line was constructed from Paso del Norte to Chihuahua by the end of 1882. By December 31, 1883, the line in both the north and south had progressed such points that only a 153 km gap existed in the middle. This was soon bridged and the mainline was completed on March 22, 1884 and was opened for business on April 10 following.

The completion of the main line of the Ferrocarril almost instantly had a revolutionary effect upon the Mexican economy and its trade and social interaction with the U.S., as it connected to the American rail system at El Paso, allowing smooth integration with the Southern Pacific Railroad, Texas and Pacific Railway, and Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railway. As such goods could now travel in a matter of days from the heart of Mexico to reach virtually anywhere in the continental U.S., voyages that previously took weeks or months. Countless Mexican-U.S. business deals that were traditionally impossible were now rendered extremely cost-effective and desirable. Moreover, passengers could travel from Mexico City to the U.S. border (and vice versa) in only 3 days, which ensured a massive rise in tourism and educational/social trips between the countries.

The railway quickly turned an operating profit, much to the delight of the Peabody, Kidder syndicate, while the Díaz administration earned far more from the higher revenues due the great economic growth that the line created than it had dished out in subsidies, etc. (although Díaz and his cronies had embezzled much of these funds).

As for the two main spur lines, they were, at least initially, built much more slowly than the



main line, as the latter was the priority, at least until its completion in 1884. Regarding the Aguascalientes-San Luis Potosí-Tampico line, the two alternative routes for its course from Aguascalientes to San Luis Potosí were investigated in late 1881, with the northern course being chosen as the route. Construction was slow, with the line reaching San Luis Potosí in 1889, while it was finished to Tampico in April 1890.

As for the intended Irapuato-Guadalajara-San Blas line, the planned route from Irapuato to Guadalajara was surveyed in 1882, although construction did not start until 1887, while it would be completed to Guadalajara in 1889. The planned extension to San Blas was cancelled, in favour of redirecting the Pacific terminus to Manzanillo. This line would not be completed until 1908.

The Present Map in Focus

This colossal, almost luminous, blueprint map (almost 3 metres / 10 feet long!) is an original engineers' 'masterplan' of the Ferrocarril Central Mexicano, seemingly executed in 1881, shortly after construction the railway was commenced. It is apparently the only known example by far and away the largest, most detailed, and most beautifully composed cartographic record of Mexico's principal railway known to survive, rendering it a critical original artefact from El porfiriato's grandest project, responsible for irrevocably linking the socio-economic deities of both Mexico and the Unites States.

The map was printed in Philadelphia, seemingly by an architectural drafting shop, as the handstamp of 'McCollin's / Philadelphia' is faintly impressed to the verso. The map would have been issued in only a handful of examples and would have been used by the directors and the railway's major investors during strategy sessions and presentations and may have been permanently displayed on the railway headquarters' walls. The beautiful decorative Victorian-style title cartouche suggests that the map was intended to be both attractive (fit for presentation to VIPs) and technically useful. Additionally, examples would have been dispatched to Mexico to be used by Fink's engineering team as the authoritative general guide for construction planning.

In brilliant blue tones, the map showcases the immense corridor of the Mexico City-El Paso corridor to the grand scale of 10 miles to 1 inch, showing the 1,969 kilometre-long planned route of the Ferrocarril (the bold tracked line) as designated by Frank Henry Olmstead and refined by Olaf Hoff. Orientated north-by-northeast, the map shows the envisioned route as departing of Mexico City, snaking out of the Valley of Mexico, and through the Sierra Nevada and then crossing the Mexican Plateau, before descending into the deserts of Chihuahua. The topography is very accurately portrayed, with the mountains expressed by hachures and all rivers, arroyos, playas, and lakes charted, while the road system is precisely delineated. This was an impressive feat, as during this time Mexico was very poorly mapped, as such the Ferrocarril's engineers would have to quickly (but carefully) execute trigonometrical surveys of the route under incredibly difficult conditions (often in blazing heat or chilly spells, in a land frequented by banditos). In many cases, these were the first scientific surveys of the areas covered, and the engineers' work would later be incorporated into the El porfiriato's Carta de la Republica Mexicana project, that aimed to map systematically and scientifically all of Mexico's territory, producing a map of 1,100 interconnecting sheets done to a uniform scale of 1:100,000 (the endeavour would only ever be partially completed).

The map labels all the railway's envisioned intended stations, emphasizing the major cities that it would serve, including Mexico City, Querétaro, Aguascalientes, Zacatecas, Fresnillo, Chihuahua and Paso del Norte (Ciudad Juárez). Importantly, the route shown on the map accords to what was eventually completed in 1884, although some additional stations would later be added, especially in the central stretch of the line, between Fresnillo and Lerdo.

Additionally, one will notice the very short spur railway that runs off from the main line at Silao, running to Guanajuato. This line predates the Ferrocarril Central Mexicano and was bought by the Ferrocarril company in 1880.

The map is not dated anywhere, although an analysis of its detail reveals it to have likely been made in 1881, not long after the commencement of construction in September 1880. First, while the map shows a mature, and finalized route for the main line, few of the eventual stations in the midsection, between Fresnillo and Lerdo, are filled in, as such details were not decided upon until 1882 or 1883.

Second, the intended route of the important spur line between Aguascalientes and San Luis Potosí (what was to eventually continue to Tampico) has not been finalized on the map, which rather shows the two alternative proposed routes for the line in the form of competing bold-dashed lines, with one running to the south, and the other running to the north. In late 1881 or early 1882, the line's final route (the northern option) was chosen; thus, the present map predates this decision.

Third, on the map there is not sign whatsoever of the intended spur line that was to run from Irapuato to Guadalajara (and which was eventually be continued to the Pacific coast), which was surveyed in 1882, and thus, the map predates this endeavor.

The map does not feature an imprint of any kind. However, the name of the printer is revealed by the handstamp of 'McCollin's / Philadelphia' faintly impressed to the verso. The map was made through the cyanotype (blueprint) printing technique, which is sometimes referred to as a 'sunprint'. This photographic printing process involved the use of two chemicals: ammonium iron (III) citrate and potassium ferricyanide. Invented in 1842 by the astronomer Sir John Herschel, the technique was favoured by engineers, as it produced technical diagrams of sharp contrast and clarity. It also had the advantage of being very low cost and easy to execute (by those properly trained). In the late 19th and early 20th Centuries, the technique gained wide popularity for architectural and engineering plans (i.e., 'Blueprints'). This led it to be adapted to cartography, often to maps of a technical nature, such as urban models and plans for mines and infrastructure (notably railways). A limitation of the cyanotype medium is that it could yield only a very limited number of copies, such that virtually all cyanotype maps are today extremely rare.

The present map is seemingly unrecorded and is quite likely the only surviving example. This is not surprising, as the map would have been made in only a handful of examples for high-level private use by the railway company's directors in Boston and the senior engineering team in Mexico. While the map is printed on thick paper stock, its large size and the fact that it was intended for active use, would have ensured a very low survival rate due to natural wear and tear. The present example thus comes down to us in remarkably good condition for a map of its genre.

Epilogue

Over the coming years the Ferrocarril Central Mexicano continued to expand, building or purchasing new lines, to remain the dominant railway in Mexico and the country's premier main nexus to the United States. It made ever greater profits, so much so that in 1906, President Díaz, wanted a bigger piece of the action, so he pressured the Peabody, Kidder syndicate to relinquish control of the railway in return for bonds. In 1909, the railway was then merged into the new state-run body of the Ferrocarriles Nacionales de Mexico, which was jointly owned by the Mexican government and private investors. In 1937, all the railways in Mexico were nationalized by President Venustiano Carranza. The old lines of the Ferrocarril Central Mexicano continued to play a critical role in Mexico's economy, although state ownership ensured that it was not managed with the vigour as it had been previously. The lines were re-privatized in the 1990, with most of the former Ferrocarril Central Mexicano network being acquired by the Ferromex firm, which operates them to the present day.

References: N/A – Map seemingly unrecorded. Cf. (re: background:) Hector AGREDANO, 'Rails to Revolution: Railroads, Railroad Workers and the Geographies of the Mexican Revolution', Ph.D. Thesis, City University of New York (2019); FOREIGN OFFICE (GREAT BRITAIN), Diplomatic and Consular Reports, No. 116 (London, 1889), pp. 1-35; Sandra Kuntz Ficker, Empresa extranjera y mercado interno el Ferrocarril Central Mexicano, 1880-1907 (Mexico City, 1995); William Rodney LONG, Railways of Mexico (Washington, D.C., 1925), pp. 15-29; Railway World, 26th year, vol. 8, no. 1 (Philadelphia, 1882), pp. 567-568; Report of the International American Conference Relative to an Intercontinental Railway Line (Washington, D.C., 1890), pp. 90-93.

12.000 EUR



2. IRELAND / THEMATIC CARTOGRAPHY DATA VISUALIZATION – WORLD'S FIRST 'FLOW MAPS' FIRST GEOLOGICAL MAP OF IRELAND

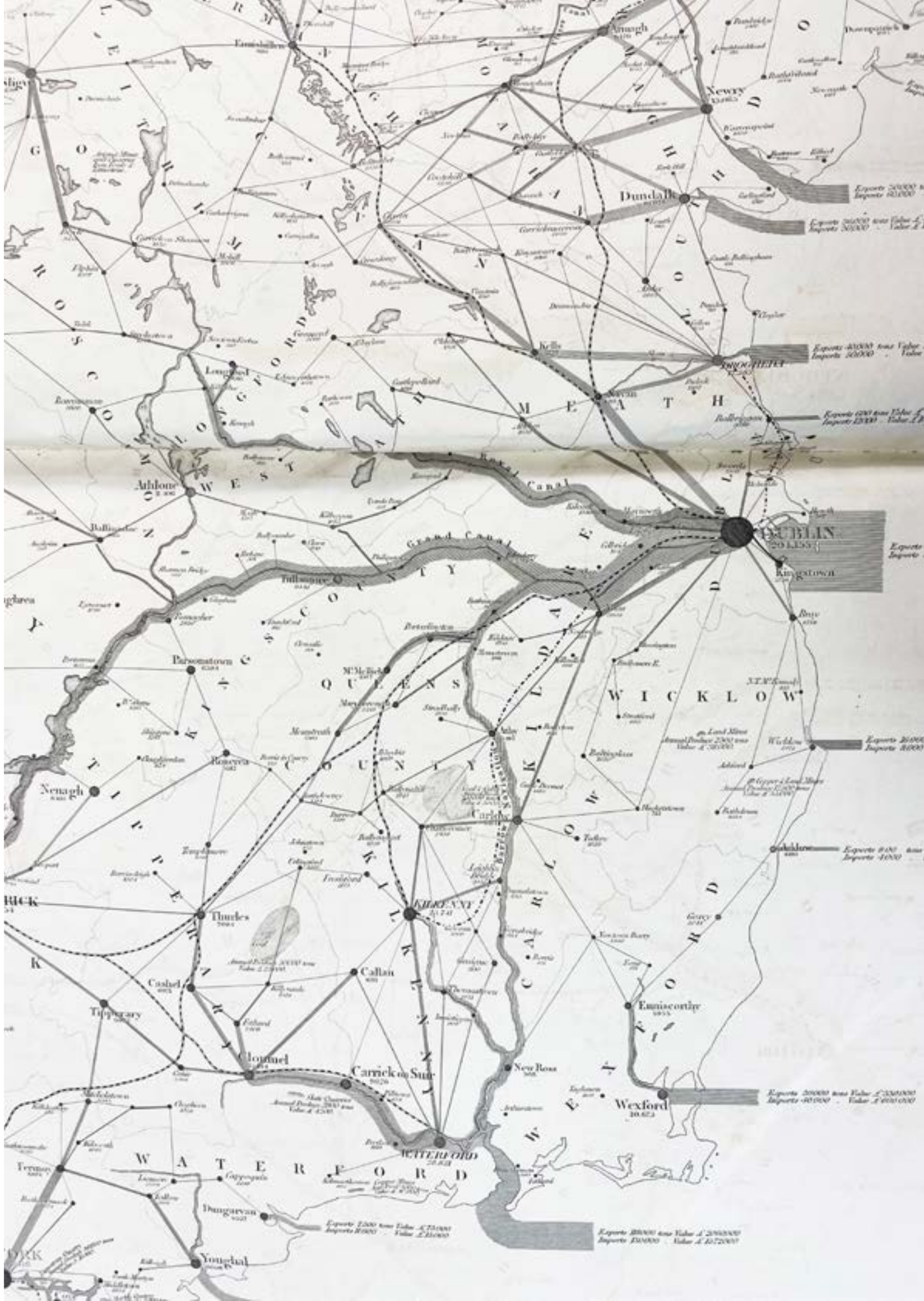
IRISH RAILWAY COMMISSION. / Henry Drury HARNESS (1804 - 1883). / Richard John GRIFFITH (1784 - 1878) / Thomas Aiskew LARCOM (1801 - 1879).

Irish Railway Commission. Maps / Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Majesty. 1838. [Atlas to accompany 2d. Report of the Railway Commissioners, Ireland].

London: James Gardner, 1838.

Elephant Folio (67 x 52 cm): [1 p., title], 6 double page copper engraved maps (each measuring 65 x 96 cm) mounted on guards, one of which has full original hand-colour, bound in late 20th century green half calf over green marbled boards, gilt debossed short title to spine, slip of paper tipped in noting provenance in mss. as being the 'Irish Tourist Board, 590 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10036' (Good, overall quite attractive, but due to the plates being printed on very large brittle sheets of paper it has some minor flaws, plates with a few short marginal tears, Title with some repaired loss in blank marginal areas, and Maps I and II with some short tears with old repairs from verso, Maps I to IV with light print transference, Maps I and VI with tiny chips of loss to neatline, light shelf-wear to binding).

One of the foundational monuments of thematic cartography, being an elephant folio atlas issued for the Irish Railway Commission containing 6 grand double page maps made by an all-star team of experts, including a pair of transportation traffic volume maps of Ireland (freight and passenger) that are the world's first published 'flow maps' (preceding Charles-Joseph Minard's works by 8 years), as well as a population density map of Ireland that is one of the first and perhaps the most sophisticated early choropleth map, all by the military engineer Lieutenant (later General Sir) Henry Drury Harness, as well as the resplendently hand-coloured first printing of the earliest general geological map of Ireland, by the 'Father of Irish Geology' Sir Richard Griffith, plus, a pair of excellent general transportation maps by the master topographer (later Major-General Sir) Thomas Larcom that showcase the British Isles' earliest railways.



TULLAMORE
Rathangan
Sallens
NAAS
Milltown
Seafinn-Mt.
Frankford
Portarlington
Kildare
Corbally
Hollywood
Monasterevan
Old Kilcullen
Mt Mellick
Thonelagee Mt.
MARYBOROUGH
Donard
Stradbally
ATHY
Monnrath
Baltinglass
Lugnaquilla
Rathdrum
Tinahoe
Ballyroan
Castledermot
Ballinakill
Hackets Town
Anglurim
Copper Mines
Durrow
CARLOW
Tullow
Castleomer
Arklow
Urlingford
Leighlin Bridge
KILKENNY
Newtown Barry
Gorey
Gowran
Navigation

Q U E E N S C O U N T Y
K I L D A R E
W I C K L O
C A R L O W
K I L K E N N Y

Prior to the Irish Potato Famine (1845-52), Ireland was a populous and prosperous land with a seemingly bright future, even its wealth was not well-distributed. In the 1830s, the creation of a steam railway network traversing the island was seen as the anchor of Ireland's future economic development. Ireland would be one of the first countries in the world to have a railway system, barely a decade after the world's first network was established in England.

The Irish Railway Commission was created as the crown body to oversee the construction of the Ireland's railway network, with the individual lines to be financed and managed by private corporations operating under concessions approved by the British Parliament.

While the construction of the first railway line in Ireland was approved in 1826, it was not until 1834 that the 10 km (6 mile) line from Dublin to Kingstown (Dún Laoghaire) was completed. However, it was at this point that that the building of an extensive trans-Ireland railway system was to be planned, built largely under the auspices of the William Dargan, the 'the founder of railways in Ireland', and engineered by Charles Blacker Vignoles. The network was to branch out from Dublin to reach all major centres, including Belfast, Galway, Cork, and Limerick, amongst others.

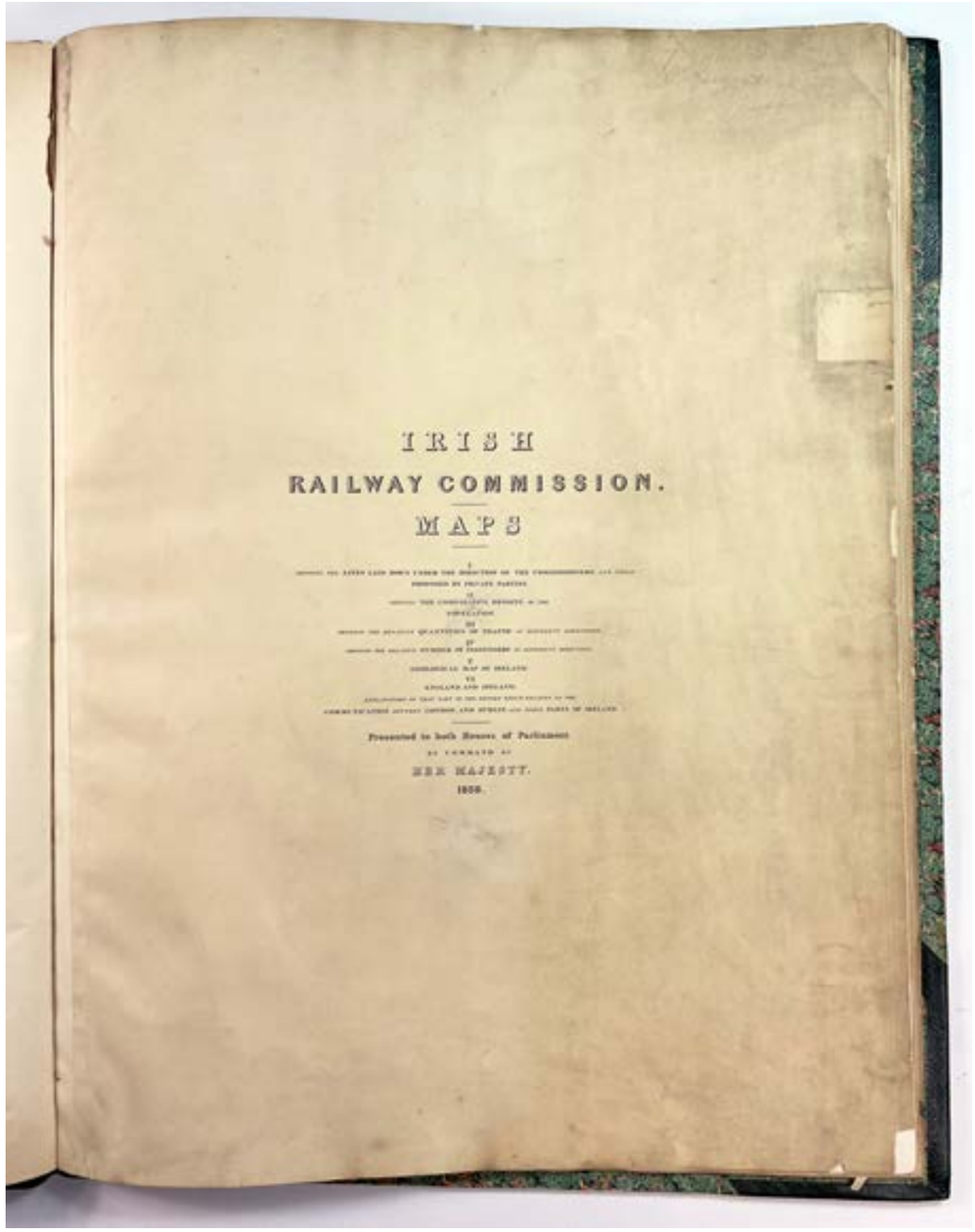
In 1836, construction of the Ulster Railway, Dublin-Belfast line, which would importantly connect the island's two largest cities, was commenced, with the first section finished in 1839.

Yet, the envisaged rail network was to be extremely capital intensive and technically challenging, and while the desired termini of the lines was confirmed, their exact routes, and the sequence of construction, was a matter of debate. Beyond the inherent engineering concerns (viz. the natural topography and distances between points, etc.) were questions of traffic volume along the country's major transportation corridors. Naturally, the immense expenditures of money and effort to build the lines should be prioritized to run along routes where sufficient freight and passenger volume could be guaranteed. It was thus of the upmost important to 'get these decisions right', as any major mistakes in laying out the lines could be ruinous for both the railways' investors and the crown.

In 1837, in anticipation of building the envisaged lines, the Irish Railway Commission went to considerable expense to prepare a report which provided 'feasibility studies' for each of the envisaged routes. The text of this work was published as the Second Report of the Commissioners Appointed to Inquire into the Manner in which Railway Communications can be Most Advantageously Promoted in Ireland (Dublin: Hodges and Smith, 1838). Please see this link:

https://books.google.de/books?id=Ik5EAQAAMAAJ&printsec=frontcover&hl=de&source=gbs_ge_summary_r&cad=0#v=onepage&q&f=false

Unusually, in addition to their textual report, the Irish Railway Commission sponsored the creation of the present grand folio atlas to illustrate their designs and the statistical rationale behind them. For this endeavour, they assembled an all-star team, that included three of the most technically competent and innovative cartographers in Europe of the era.



The atlas, a groundbreaking moment of thematic cartography, contained 6 double page maps that includes a pair of transportation traffic volume maps of Ireland that are importantly the world's first published 'flow maps', by Lieutenant (later General Sir) Henry Drury Harness; as well as Harness's population density map of Ireland, one of the first and perhaps the most sophisticated early choropleth map; the first printing of the earliest general geological map of Ireland by the 'Father of Irish Geology', Sir Richard Griffith; plus, a pair of excellent general transportation maps that showcase the British Isles' earliest railways, by the master topographer (later Major-General Sir) Thomas Larcom.

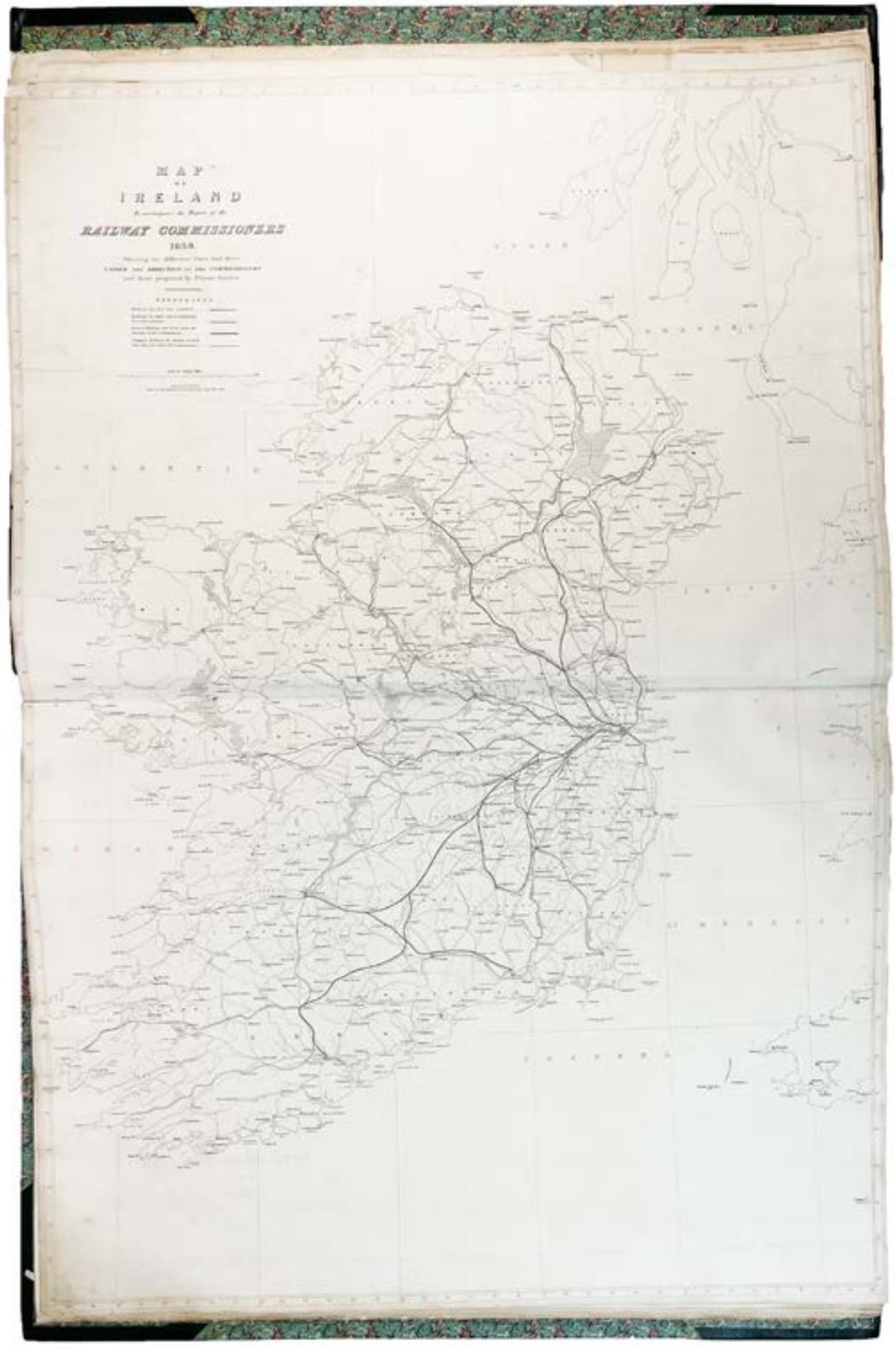
The All-Star Team of Cartographers: Harness, Griffith and Larcom

General Sir Henry Drury Harness (1804 - 1883), one of the pioneering giants of thematic cartography, had an unbelievably varied career that involved numerous transformative achievements, of both a military and civilian nature, on three continents over six decades. Born in Harrow, England, the son of John Harness, M.D., the Commissioner of the British Transport Board, he was trained at the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, he graduating in 1825. While awaiting his army commission, for two years Harness gained valuable experience in Mexico, studying mining engineering at silver mines. In 1827, he was commissioned a second lieutenant of the Royal Engineers. He then served for time in Bermuda before being appointed as an Instructor of Fortifications at Woolwich, in 1834.

In 1836, Harness was appointed by the Irish Railway Commission to develop maps that graphically illustrated population density and transportation traffic volumes in Ireland, leading to the trio of groundbreaking thematic works (2 flow maps and a choropleth/dasymetric population density map) in the present atlas. While it is not known what inspired him to create such arrestingly novel works, Harness was unusually worldly and intellectual curious, and quite likely would have been apprised of cartography innovations on the Continent. Moreover, Harness could rely upon a vast corpus of incredibly accurate and detailed data, as Ireland then had one of the most advance statistics gathering systems in the world. The 1831 census, upon which his population density map is predicated, gathered very precise information down to the most local of levels, while supporting his 'flow maps', transport firms and district constabularies kept perfectly accurate records regarding passenger and commercial traffic volumes along the main roads, canals, and seaports.

While at Woolwich, he developed the 'Harness Papers', a highly popular textbook on fortification which led his promotion to professor.

Harness subsequently served in an amazing variety of posts in disparate fields, all the while gaining promotion in military rank. He variously served as the Inspector of Welsh Roads; Arbitrator for the Royal Post Office; Master of the Royal Mint; Commissioner of Public Works in Ireland; Inspector-General of Fortifications for the British Army during the Crimean War; Commanding Royal Engineer at Malta; Head of the Royal Engineers in India during the Indian Uprising of 1857; and finally as the Director of the Royal Engineer establishment at Chatham (later the Royal School of Military Engineering); he retired in 1878 as a full General.



Sir Richard John Griffith, Baronet (1784 – 1878) was the "Father of Irish Geology". Born in Dublin, the son of a Member of Parliament, he studied at the best Irish schools and the University of Edinburgh, before gaining a commission in the Royal Irish Artillery. However, military life was not for him, and he soon returned to civilian pursuits, dedicating his time to the study of chemistry, mineralogy, and mining engineering.

In Cornwall, Griffith gained national notice when he discovered valuable nickel and cobalt deposits in discarded mine tailings. He was inducted into many of the Britain's premier academic societies, including the newly established Geological Society of London. In 1809, he was appointed to study Ireland's bogs to assess whether they could be drained to be profitably used for agriculture. In 1812, he became a Professor of Geology and Mining Engineering at the Royal Dublin Society.
Inspired by William Smith's A Geological Map of England and Wales and Part of Scotland (1815), the first proper general geological map of any country, Griffith decided to create the first complete, scientific geological map of Ireland, a process that would take almost of a generation.

In the 1820s, Griffith undertook innumerable mineralogical and topographical surveys. He served as the Inspector of mines in Ireland and as the engineer of public works of various southern countries, while creating much infrastructure. He also oversaw boundary surveys of all the island's counties and parishes. From 1827, Griffith served as the Commissioner of Valuation, so evaluating all land and fixed property on the island, a process that was to last over 40 years. These endeavours supplied Griffith with an astounding amount of firsthand intelligence on the geology of Ireland that allowed him to fashion his map.

Griffith completed of the first edition of what was the first scientific general geological map of Ireland, which was published within the present atlas. This was followed by a separate edition, done to an enlarged scale, published in 1839 (an 1855 revised edition followed). Griffith's mapping remained the basis for the geological cartography of Ireland until well into the 20th century.

Major-General Sir Thomas Aiskew Larcom, Baronet (1801 - 1879) was one of the most important topographical surveyor-cartographers in the history of Ireland, as well as a top government administrator. A native of Hampshire, he graduated from the Royal Military Academy as a Royal Engineer in 1820. He first worked for the Ordnance Survey of England but in 1824 transferred to the newly-established Ordnance Survey of Ireland, which endeavoured to create the first complete systematic scientific survey of the island. Larcom soon ended up running the survey's HQ and establishing the meteorological observatory in Dublin. It was during this period that Larcom created the topographical template and the two transport maps for the present atlas. Perhaps more than any other person, he was responsible for the Ordnance Survey completing six-inch maps covering all Ireland in 1846. That year, Larcom joined the Irish Board of Works, where he helped build the campus of Queen's University (Belfast).

In 1853, Larcom was appointed as the Under-Secretary the Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, which essentially meant that he ran the day-to-day operations of the island's government.



While representing a traditionally bigoted regime, Larcom was roundly praised for his even-handedness, as he treated Catholics with same respect as he did Protestants. Retiring in 1868, he was the longest serving and one of the best regarded under-secretaries in the island's history.

The Atlas's 6 Maps in Focus

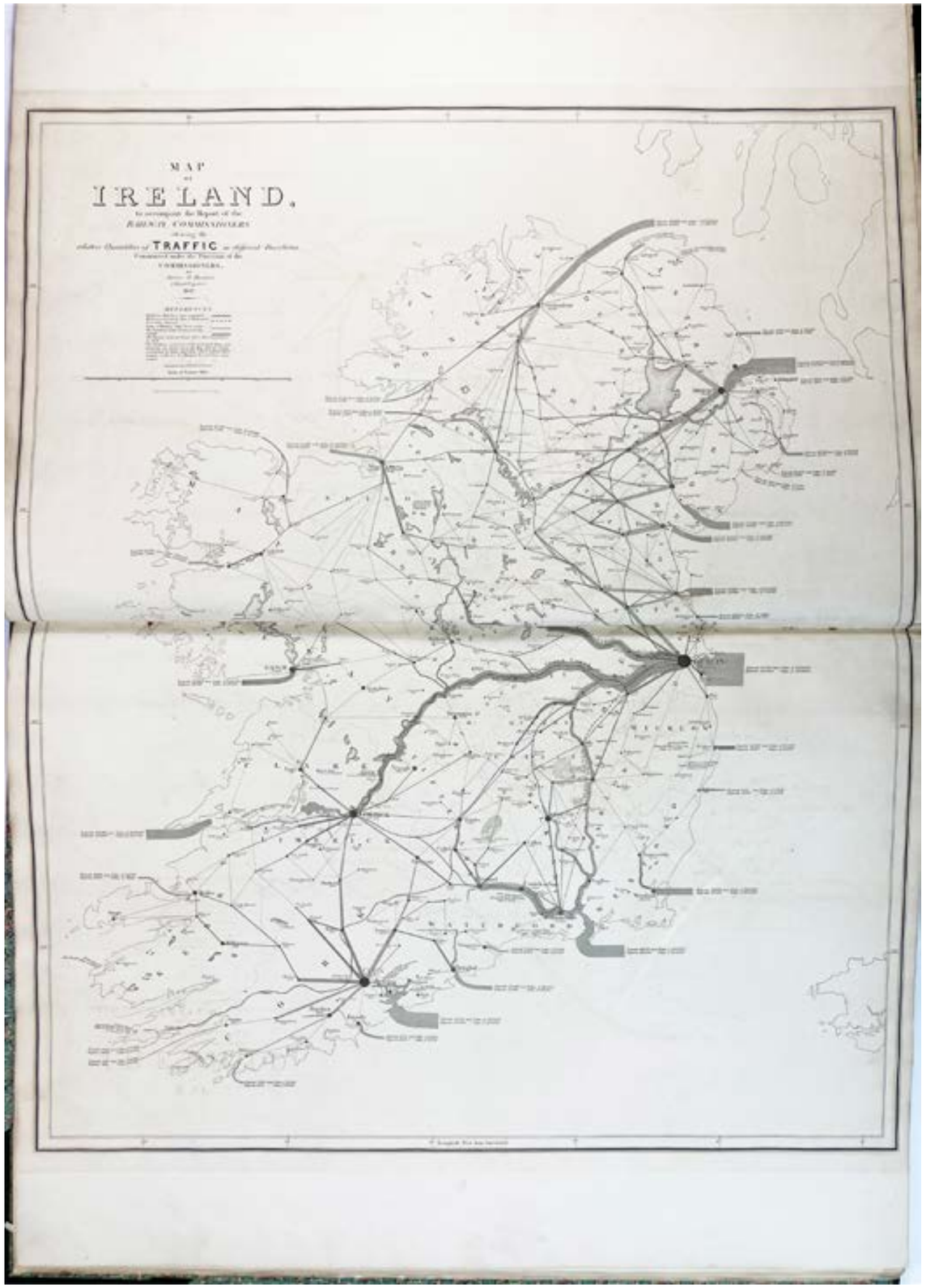
I.
Thomas Aiskew LARCOM (1801 - 1879).
Map of Ireland to accompany the Report of the Railway Commissioners 1838. Shewing the lines laid down Under the Direction of the Commissioners and those proposed by Private Parties. / Prepared & Engraved under the direction of Lieu.t Larcom Royal Eng.rs May 1837.

This map, while not quite as 'exciting' as those to follow, is important as it is the foundational map, or template, upon which the following maps are built. An early precisely accurate general topographical map of the country, composed by Larcom from the work of the Irish Ordnance Survey, it embraces the entire island, and labels its cities, towns, counties, parishes, roads, and canals. Notably, the 'References' explain the state of the country's proposed railways system, classifying the lines by their state of readiness and legal designation; as such: 'Railways that have been completed' = bold solid line; 'Railways for which Acts of Parliament have been obtained' = thick intermittent line; 'Lines of Railways laid down under the direction of the Commissioners' = tracked line; 'Proposed Railways the Surveys of which of which have been laid, before the Commissioners' = thin intermittent line.

II.
Henry Drury HARNESS (1804 - 1883).
Map of Ireland to accompany the Report of the Railway Commissioners shewing the comparative Density of Population. Constructed under the Direction of the Commissioners by Henry D. Harness Lt. Royal Engineers 1837.

This, the first of Henry Harness's revolutionary trio of thematic maps, is one of the world's earliest choropleth maps and is perhaps the most sophisticated population density map made to date. Embracing all Ireland, it is a choropleth map, in that its uses gradations of shading to represent the intensity of a thematic variable (in this case, population density). The map shows Ireland divided into its counties and parishes, and labels all major cities and towns, as well as showing the predicted routes of the island's envisaged railway lines (plus the route of the only existing railway, the short Dublin-Kingstown line).

Importantly, the map employs one of Harness's key innovations, which was the use of graduated circles of various sizes to represent the populations of cities (i.e., the bigger the circle, the larger the city's population). All cities and towns of note are so represented, with their populations also noted in figures.



To its greater purpose, the line below the title reads: 'Note. The Depth of Shade is determined by the Number of Inhabitants pr. square Mile, in each Part'. As such, as the greater the population density, the darker the shading, following the choropleth method.

The present map, prepared by Harness in 1837, was made not long after the appearance of the first population density map, being A. Frère de Montizon's Carte Philosophique figurant la Population de la France (1830), which employed a far more rudimentary method of graphic representation (with simple dots denoting population density). It also comes just over decade after the first choropleth map, being the Frenchman Charles Dupin's Carte figurative de l'instruction populaire de la France (1826), which was followed by other French demographic thematic maps, M. Guerry & A. Balbi's, Statistique comparée de l'état de l'instruction et du nombre des crimes (1829) and that maps within Adolphe de Angeville's Essai sur la statistique de la population française, considerée sous quelques-uns de ses rapports physique et moraux (1836).

Importantly, Harness's map was more sophisticated than the predecessor French maps, as its method of choropleth shading is dasymetric, as in the words of Benjamin Semyonov-Tian-Shansky, who who coined the term in 1911, it depicts "population density, irrespective of any administrative boundaries" such that it "is shown as it is distributed in reality, i.e., by natural spots of concentration and rarefaction". Thus, on Harness's map, for instance, if one observes County Antrim, north Ireland, it shows the lowland parts of the county to densely populated, while the highlands are sparsely peopled, with the representation of data cutting across county and parish boundaries. Ireland's highly advanced and accurate census system permitted Harness to pinpoint population density to such a high level of detail and precision. By contrast, the predecessor French maps showed population density as divided by département, using the averages of population density per jurisdiction.

With respect to the use of dasymetric representation on maps, Harness's work comes only a few years after what is regarded to be the first map to employ this method, George Julius Poulett Scrope's relatively crude population density map of the World (1833), although it is dramatically more sophisticated in nature.

Harness befitted from the fact that the 1831 Irish Census, which was his source of data, was highly accurate and precise, providing the population of places down to the most local of levels.

Beyond academic intrigue, the map had a highly important practical purpose, in that is shows exactly where the more populated corridors of countryside exist between key cities (i.e., railway line termini), such that the intended lines could be run through the more peopled areas, which would yield more traffic and revenue than otherwise running the line along the shortest or technically easiest route. For instance, the envisioned Dublin-Belfast line runs through the interior via Armagh, as opposed to following the coastline, via Drogheda, as the interior route passed through more populated countryside.



III.
Henry Drury HARNESS (1804 - 1883).
Map of Ireland, to accompany the Report of the Railway Commissioners shewing the relative Quantities of Traffic in different Directions. Constructed under the Direction of the Commissioners by Henry D. Harness Lt. Royal Engineers 1837.

This is, along with Map IV, is the first 'flow map' ever published in the world, being one of Harness's brilliant innovations. In her stellar work on the famous flow maps of Charles-Joseph Minard, Sandra Rendgren, while referring to Map IV (but which would also apply to the present map), notes that "It is considered to be the first flow map and preceded Minard's work by a few years. However, there is no sign that the latter had any knowledge of the atlas". Indeed, Minard, who is often incorrectly thought to have been the inventor of flow maps, did not create his such work until 1845.

The purpose of the map is to show the volume of commercial traffic along Ireland's major exiting transportation routes (i.e., roads and canals), and through its seaports. The map, applying Larcom's template from Map I, uses concentric circles for each city and town to denote their populations, and employs flow lines of different widths per the volume of commercial traffic, following each of the main routes, of which the Royal Canal and Grand Canal, were especially important. For clarity, the placement of many of the flow lines is stylized to roughly follow the travel routes, as opposed to meandering along their exact courses, although their application is always clear. The locations of mines are marked, along with their annual production statistics. Critically, flow lines emanate out of each of the licensed seaports, sized to correspond to their trade flows, while statistics note their annual imports and exports in monetary value (in £) and weight (in tons).

This map would have been critically useful to the Irish Railway Commissioners, as it shows the locations of the proposed railway routes across the country in relation to the exiting commercial traffic flows, thus indicating where the railways could benefit most from gaining some of the business carried on the traditional routes.

IV.
Henry Drury HARNESS (1804 - 1883).
Map of Ireland, to accompany the Report of the Railway Commissioners shewing the relative Number of Passengers in different Directions by regular Public Conveyances. Constructed under the Direction of the Commissioners by Henry D. Harness Lt. Royal Engineers 1837.

This work, along with Map III, is the first published flow map and, in the same manner and form, depicts the passenger traffic along island's major existing travel corridors. Cities and towns are represented by concentric circles according to their populations, while flow lines run along the key existing travel routes, being the roads and canals. As noted below the title, the numbers that appear along each section of the flow lines accord to "…the average Number of Passengers conveyed, in one Direction, Weekly". As for the one operating railway line in Ireland, the short Dublin-Kingstown route, Harness notes that its traffic is not reported on the map itself, but he imparts that it is thought to be 13,000 passengers in one direction per week.



As with Map III, the present map was vitally useful to the Irish Railway Commissioners, as it shows the locations of the proposed railway routes across the country in relation to the pattern of exiting passenger traffic flows, thus indicating where the railways could gain most from picking up traffic from the traditional mediums.

V.
Richard John GRIFFITH (1784 - 1878).
Geological Map of Ireland to accompany the Report of the Railway Commissioners 1837 / Shewing the lines laid down Under the Direction of the Commissioners and those proposed by Joint Stock Companies.

This is the first printing of the first published scientific general geological map of Ireland, the result of almost a generation of surveys and investigations by Richard Griffith. The funding and profile provided by the present atlas gave Griffith the perfect opportunity to debut his map, which represented one of the great early achievements of geological cartography in Europe.

The map, using Larcom's topographic template, employs resplendent original hand colours to identify 15 geological zones as described in the 'Explanation of Colours', lower right. The zones are categorized into Sedimentary Rocks, Crystalline Rocks, and Metamorphic Rocks.

In an addition to being of intense intellectual interest, the map had profound practical applications for the construction of Ireland's railways, in two main respects. First, it revealed locations of soils most suitable for laying out the tracks. Second, it helped to identify areas of agrarian or mining potential that would be ideally served by railways.

The present map is executed to a scale of 1 inch to 10 miles. It was soon followed by a larger version, featuring the same content, done to scale of 1 inch to 4 miles, Griffith's A General Map of Ireland to Accompany the Report of the Railway Commissioners shewing the Principal Physical Features and Geological Structure of the Country (London: Longman & Co., 1839); a revised second edition of this map was issued in 1855.

Griffith's geological mapping of Ireland was universally admired in academic and engineering circles, and it remained the gold standard on the subject for generations.

VI.
Thomas Aiskew LARCOM (1801 - 1879).
Map of England and Ireland, Explanatory of that part of the Report of the Railway Commissioners, which relates to communication between London and Dublin, and other parts of Ireland. / Prepared & Engraved under the direction of Lieu.t Larcom Royal Eng.rs May 1837.

This map, the final work in the atlas, depicts all the British Isles and contextualize Ireland's envisaged railway network, showing it along with England's system, which was then the oldest and best developed of any country in the world. Drafted by Larcom, it shows 'Railways completed or for which Acts of Parliament have been obtained' = bold solid lines; 'Proposed Railways' = dotted lines; 'Lines of Railways laid down under the direction of the Railway Commissioners' = tracked lines. The map also shows the major ferry routes (with the distances in miles) connecting Ireland to Great Britain.

Epilogue

While the horror of the Irish Potato Famine (1845-52), which ruined Ireland's economy and depopulated its countryside, severely arrested the realization of the pan-island railway network, the projected lines, largely following what was prescribed in the present atlas, were eventually completed. In 1920, at the height of Ireland's railway history, the island boasted 3,500 route miles (5,630 km) of track.

The present atlas is not rare institutionally, with as many as 20 examples recorded worldwide. We can trace sales records for 4 other examples from the last 30 years, although it seems that most people are completely unaware of the atlas's greater international importance, only recognizing its significance to Irish history.

References: Library of Trinity College (Dublin): ABL/A021; British Library: Cartographic Items Maps 145.e.29.; Library of Congress: G1831.P3 G7 1838; Stanford University (Green Library): TF59 .A23 FF; OCLC: 11775877, 16525427; Gordon L. DAVIES, 'The Oldest Surviving Geological Map of Ireland', The Irish Naturalists' Journal, vol. 17, no. 12 (1973), pp. 397–99; Sandra RENDGREN, The Minard System: The Complete Statistical Graphics of Charles-Joseph Minard (2018), pp. 8-9; Arthur H. ROBINSON, 'The 1837 Maps of Henry Drury Harness', The Geographical Journal, vol. 121, no. 4. (1955), pp. 440-50; Zef SEGAL, 'Flow Mapping through the Times', in Bram Vannieuwenhuyze and Zef Segal (eds.), Mapping Stories and Movement Through Time (2020), p. 82-4; Norman THROWER, Maps & Civilization: Cartography in Culture and Society (1999), 147-9.

12.000 EUR

REFERENCES.

Railways completed
at the date [illegible] of Parliament [illegible] obtained

Proposed Railways

Lines of Railway laid down under the
direction of the Railway Commissioners

A T L A N T I C

O C E A N

MAP
OF
ENGLAND & IRELAND,
Explanatory of that part
of the REPORT of the
RAILWAY COMMISSIONERS,
which relates to the communication between
London and Dublin,
and other parts of
IRELAND.

3. CALLIGRAPHY
JAIPUR LITHOGRAPHY

Hira Lal Bhargav Monis (also Heera Lal, 1921 1853- هیرا لال بارگو مونس).

طغرایِ نستعلیق
[Tughra-i Nastaliq]

Lithographed pages: Jaipur: Hira Lal Press [s. d., but ca 1889]
English pages: Cawnpore [Kanpur]: Law Press – Debi Pershad 1889.

Small Folio, 8 pp., 22 pages with illustrations, printed in black, green, light and dark brown, and facing each other, each page verso blank, [4 pp.] English text on green paper, printed on 2 pages recto, red ornamental margins, original illustrated wrappers, originally bound together with a string (little age-toned and stained, tiny chips in margins, tiny loss of material in the inner upper corner, sporadic leaves loose, overall in a good condition).

A rare colourful lithographed publication with magnificent series of portraits, surrounded by calligraphic medallions, composed of protagonists' names in Nastaliq script.

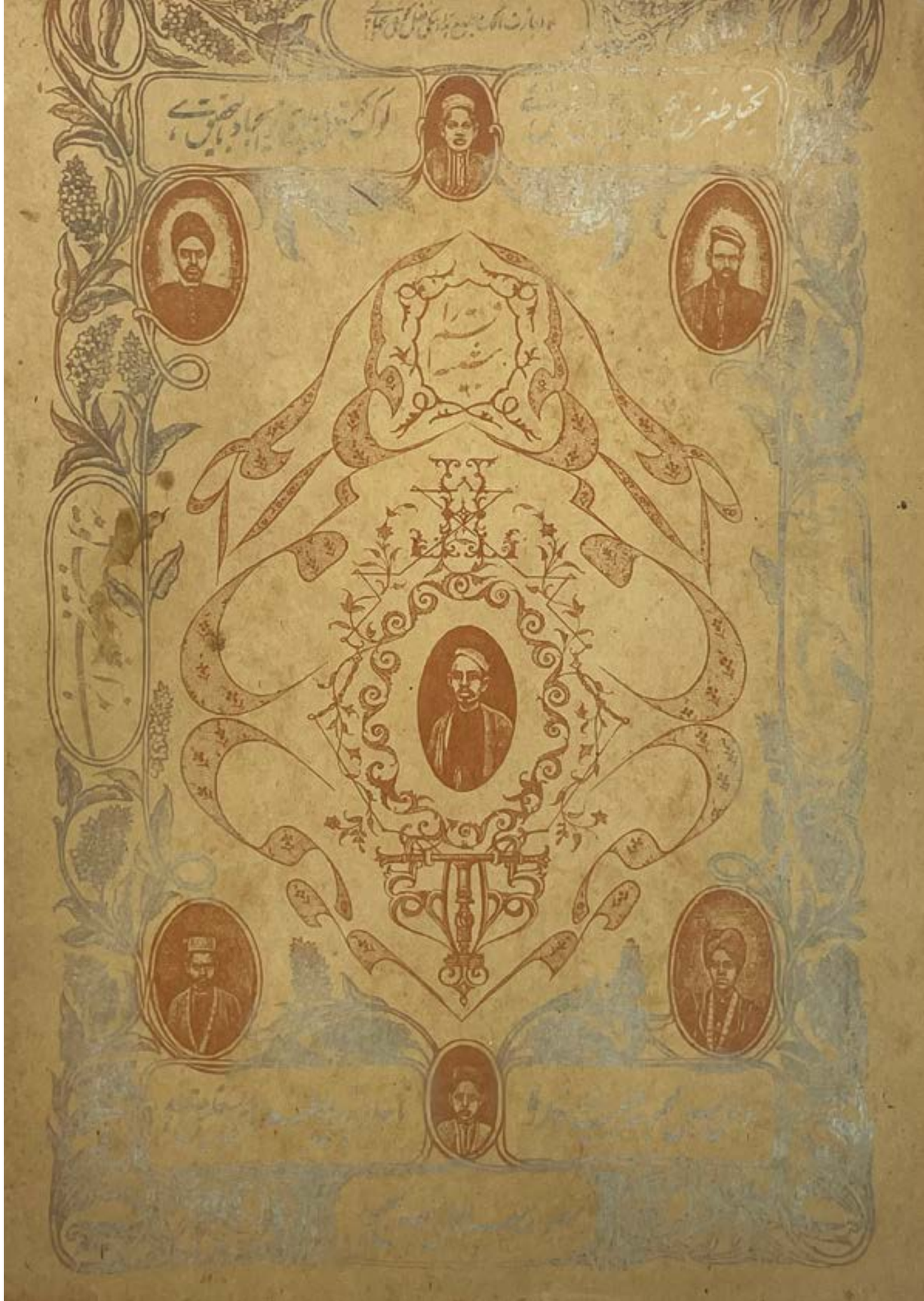
This large format album contains a series of portraits of Hindu gods and goddesses, Mughal sultans, contemporary dignitaries, Muslim saints, a portrait of queen Victoria, as well as ornamental scripts, lithographed in various colours. Each image is decorated with a name in elaborate calligraphy, repeating in its mirror image, surrounding the central field. For easier understanding of calligraphy many images are accompanied with names in Urdu and Devanagari script.

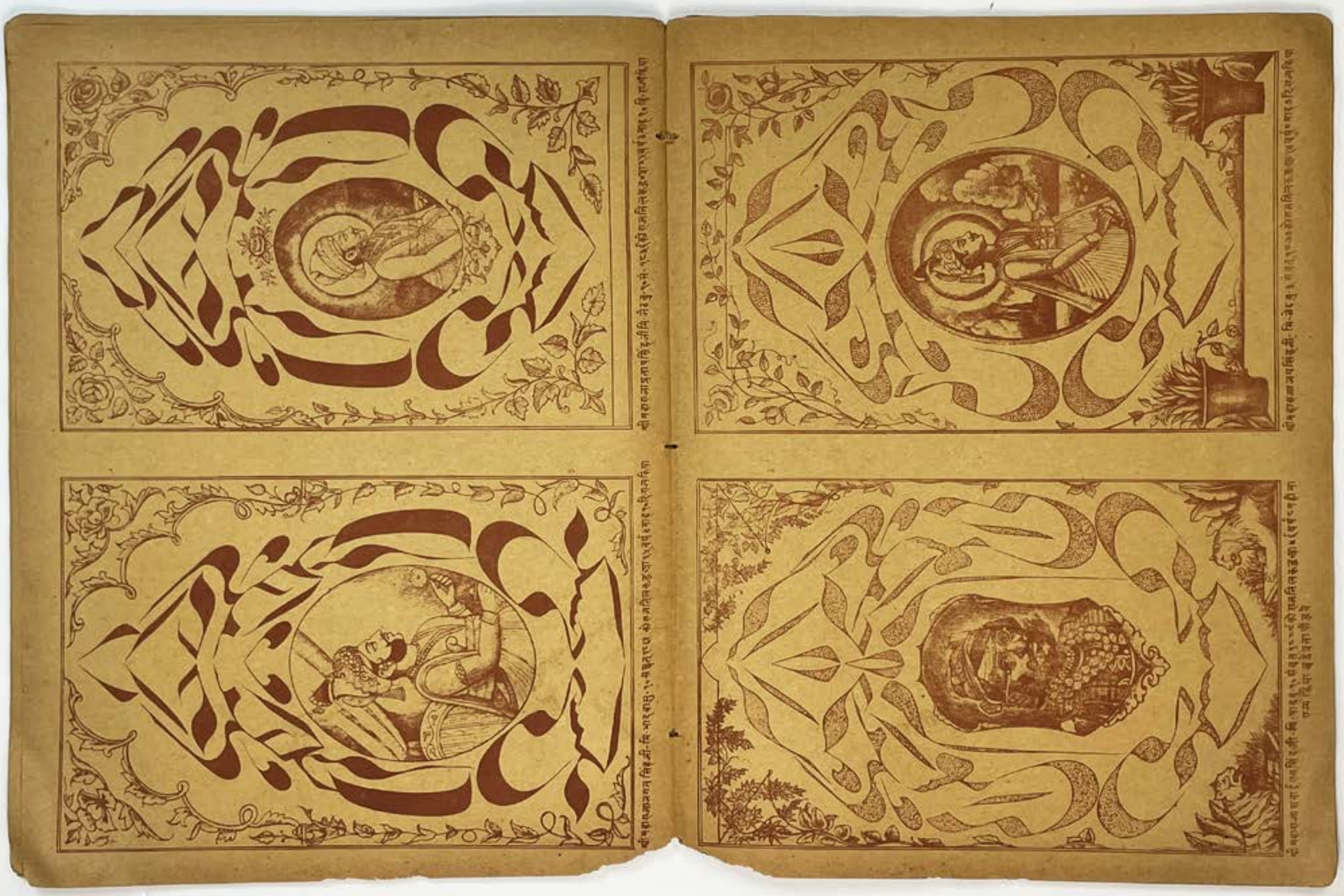
The title of the book could be vaguely translated as Crating Tughras of Nastaliq Script. The word Tughra, which is similar to more known Ottoman Tughra, was a technique of Persian scribes, to shape the name of the ruler into a bow-like element.

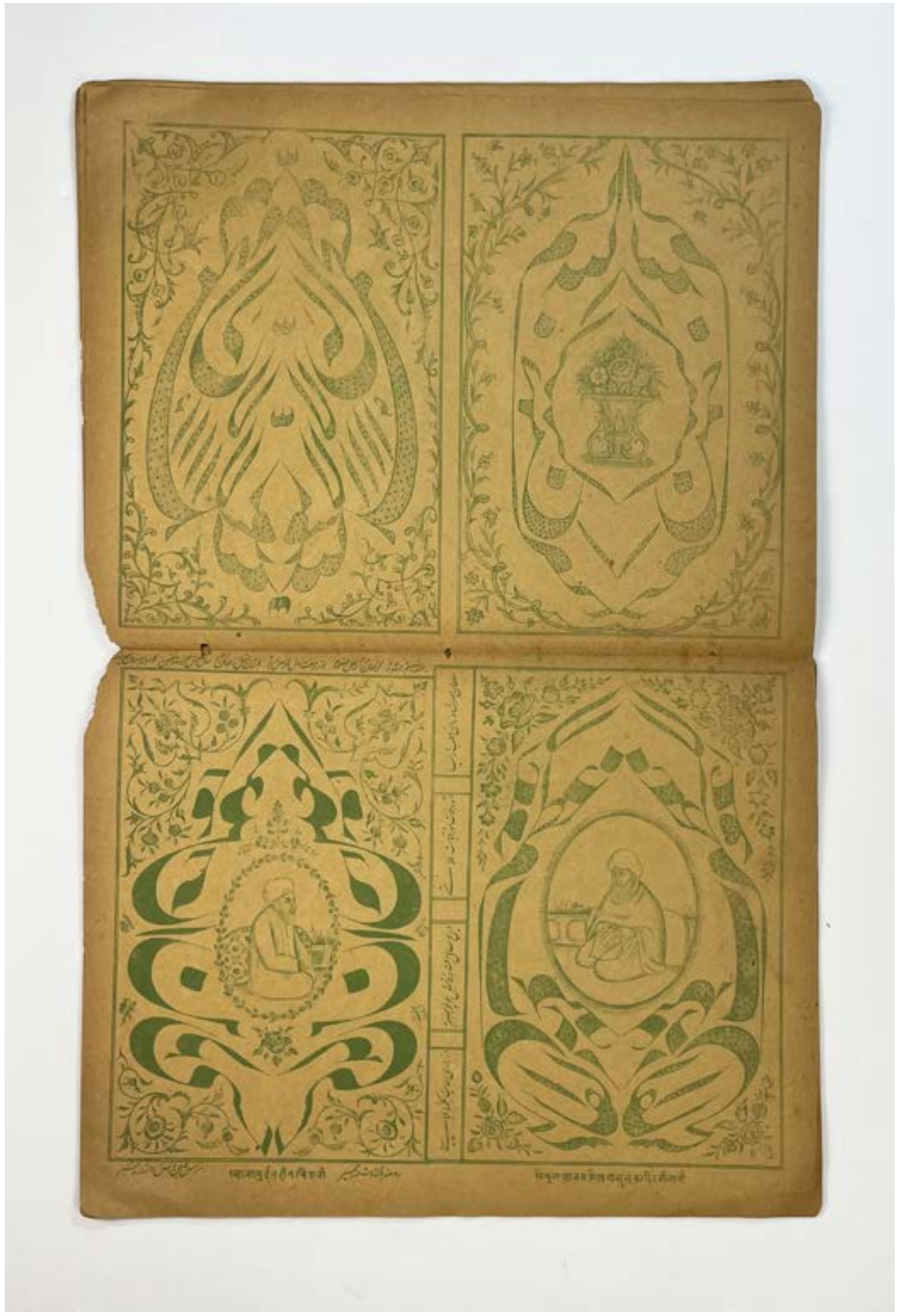
The image on the back page represents Albert Hall Museum in Jaipur, which opened as a public museum in 1887.

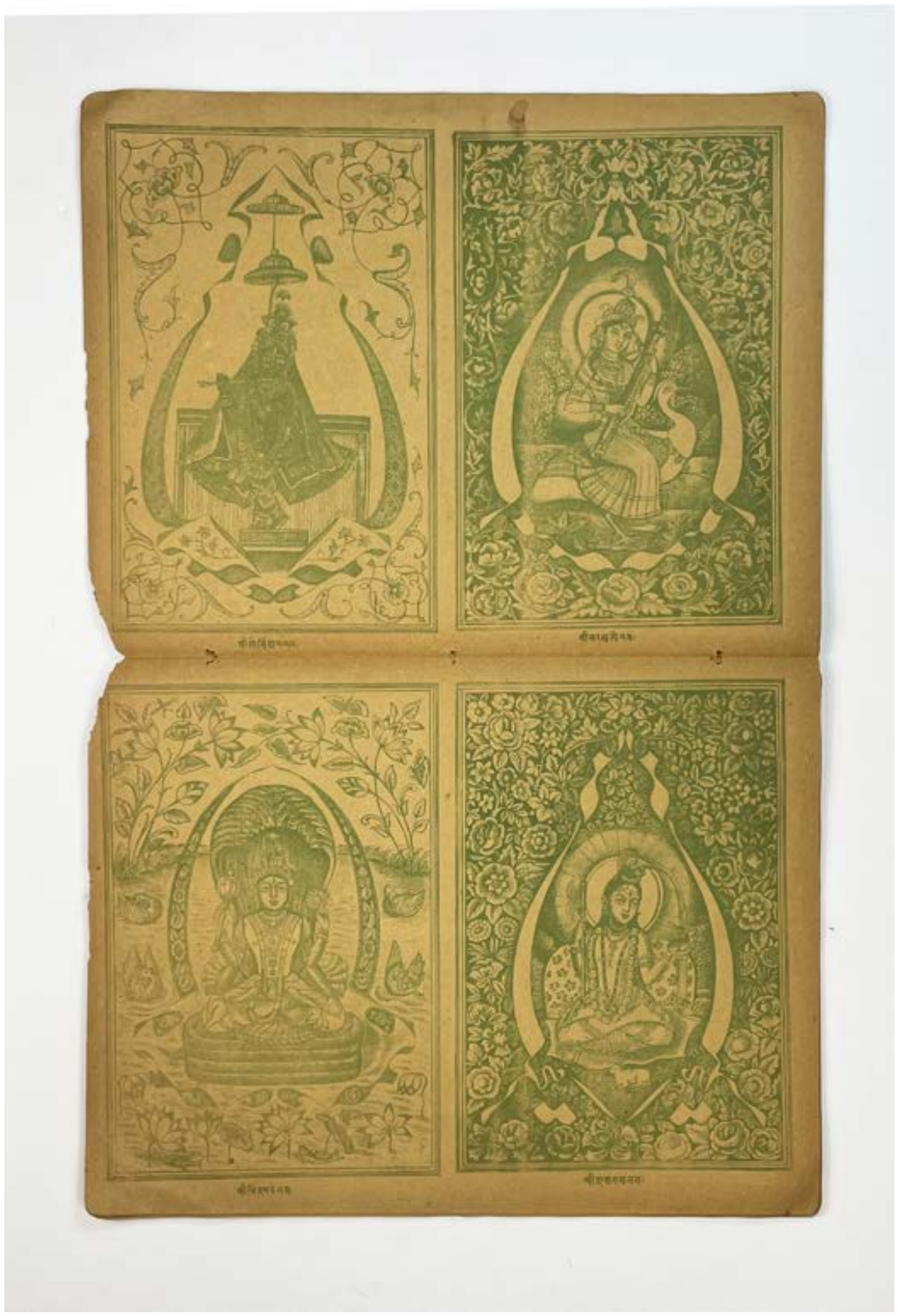
Hira Lal Bhargav Monis

The author, Hira Lal Bhargav Monis, probably presented on the cover of our book, is today considered one of the masters of Urdu, Persian and Arabic calligraphy and Jaipuri lithography.









On the last pages, which were printed in letterpress by Law Press, owed by Debi Pershad in Kanpur, the author describes his life and education in English language. According to his text, the author came from a family of higher officials of Jaipur. He was a son of a mathematician Munshi Ramjiwun, who in 1856 published a math book in Urdu, *Nadir-ul-Hisab*.

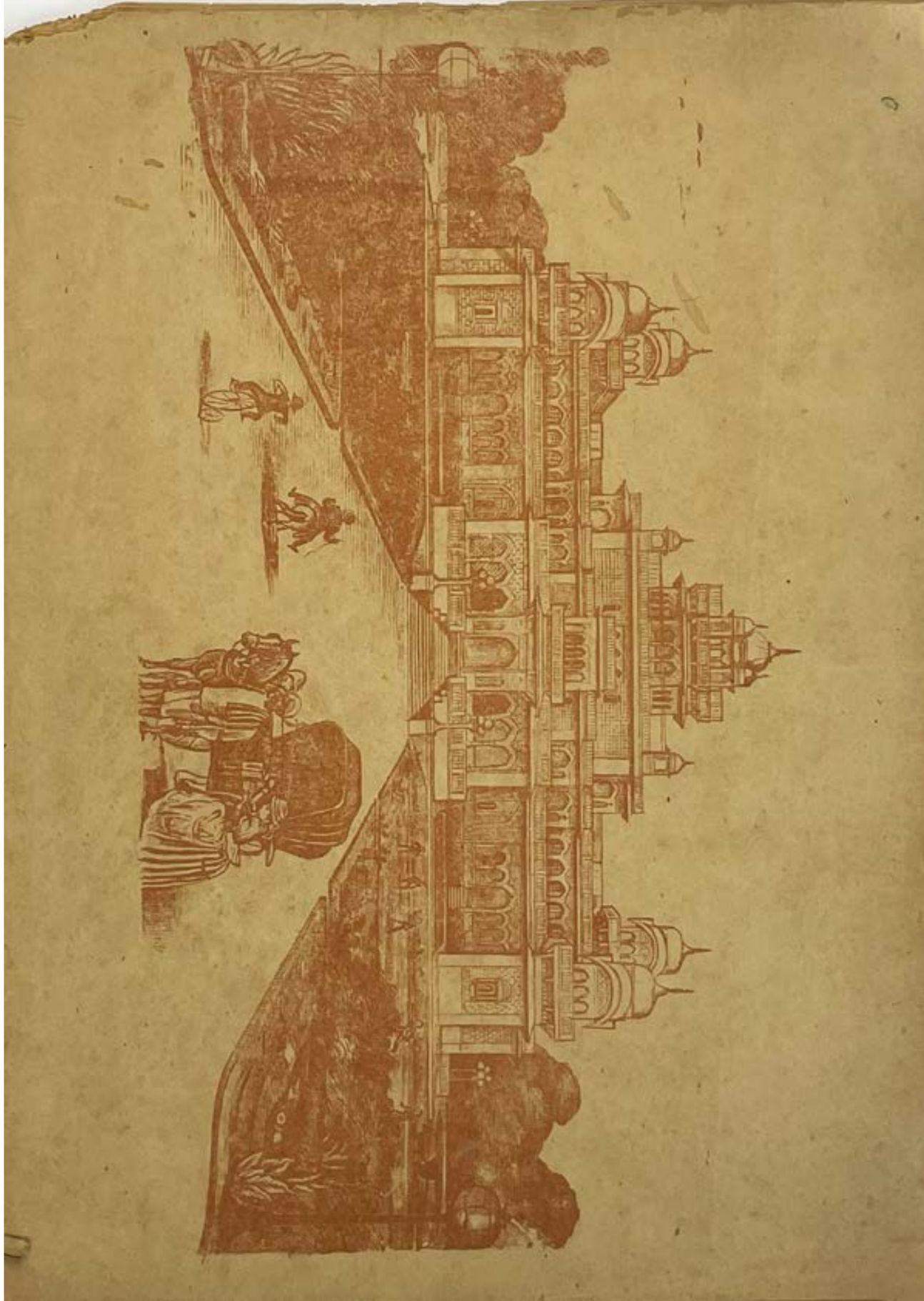
Hira Lal was raised by his uncle Munshi Ram Prasad, a Chief Military Officer, in a palace in Jaipur and first learned calligraphy from Munshi Behari Lal form Delhi, who was a student of one of the most famous Indian calligraphers of all times Sayyid Muhammad Amir Rizvi, nicknamed 'Panjahkash' (died 1857). Hira Lal's education continued with several other esteemed names of the time. He finished Jaipur College, where he learned Persian, Arabic and some English. Two of his brothers continued working at the college as educators.

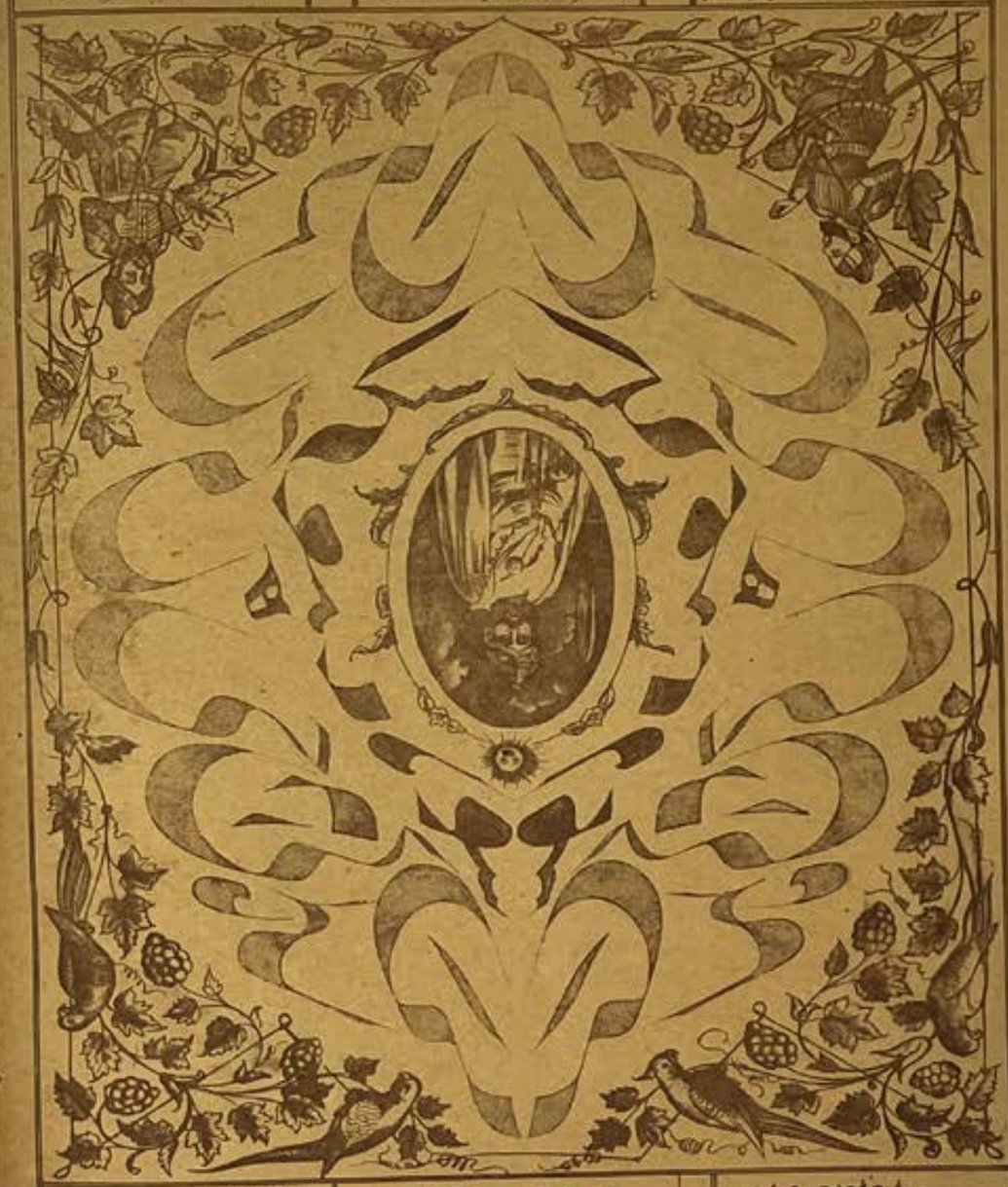
Hira Lal Bhargav Monis mastered several demanding techniques of scripts and calligraphy and was architecting scripts in Urdu, Hindi, Arabis and Persian. In 1887, he founded his own lithographic shop Matba Siraj-ul-Faiz, later known as Hira Lal Press, which remained active even after his death, until 1932.
Hira Lal also authored several books and was publishing a newspaper Dharm Tatva Parbodhni.

In his introduction Hila Lal mentions, that at the moment he is working as a tutor to a sixteen year old Thakur Mahtab Singh, a noble and later a large land owner, who encouraged him to publish his calligraphic creations in a book.

We could only trace one example in a private collection: See: Syed Faizan Raza, Daily Times, May 2nd 2018 (Hira Lal Bhargav Monis: a multifaceted genius - Daily Times).

3.500 EUR





4. PERSIAN LITHOGRAPHED BOOKS

سلیمان میرزا قاجار (Soleiman Mirza Qajar, 1810 - 1859).

تذکرة الاخوان
[Message to Brothers]

[Followed by Title:]

کوز الرموز

Tehran: 1279 [1863].

8°: [148 pp.] lithographed text with illustrated headers, contemporary brown goat, contemporary blue endpapers (old annotation on paper, mounted on the inner side of the rear board, manuscript title in black ink in English on the first blank page, binding little age-toned, stained, and scuffed on the spine and edges, rear endpapers cracked in hinges, but stable, internally crisp and clean).

A lithographed Persian text against Sufism and supporting Sharia, written by a Shah's son Soleiman Mirza Qajar, with especially fine lithographed ornaments and an excellent provenance.

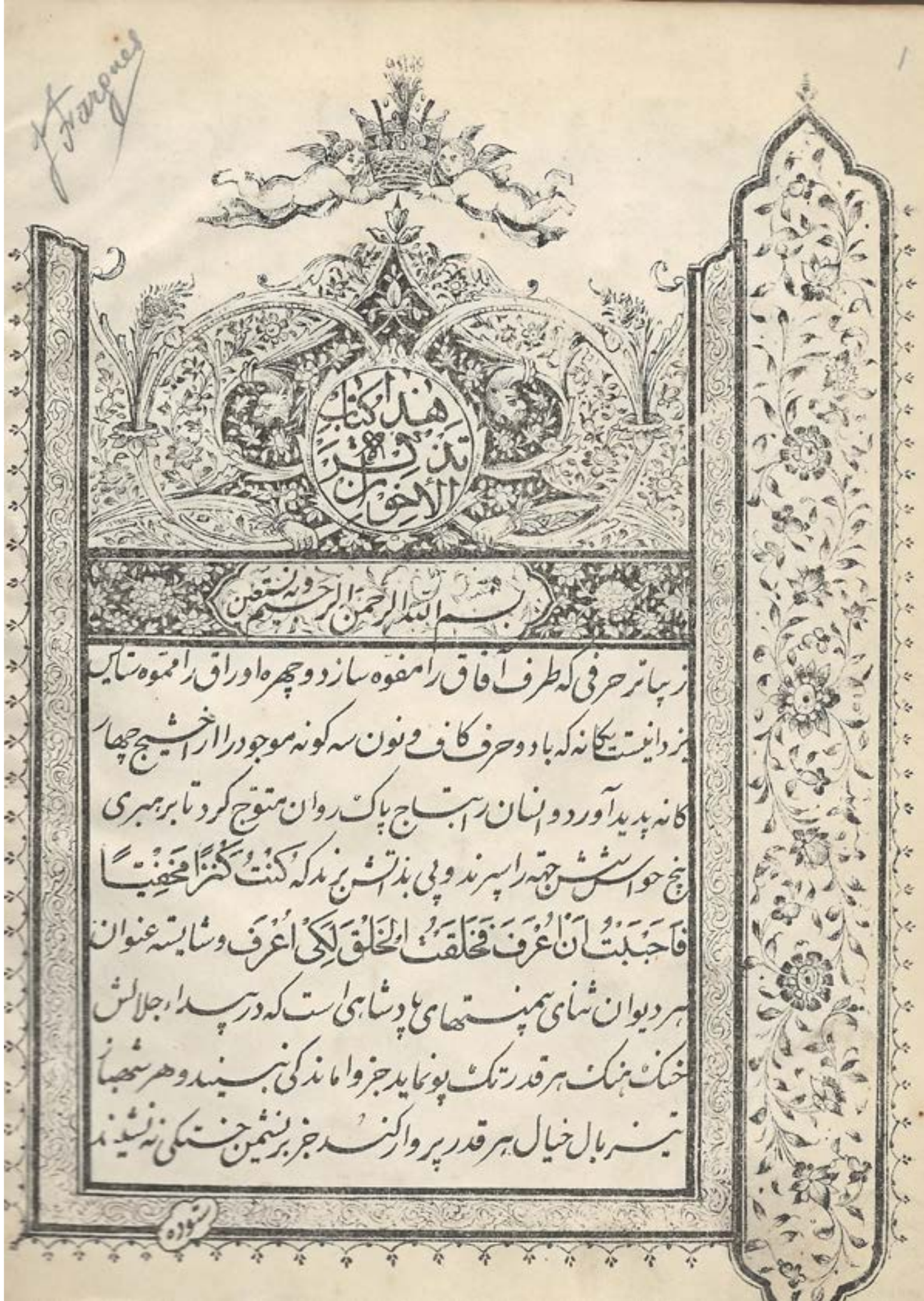
Soleiman Mirza Qajar (1810 - 1859) was the 34th son of the second Shah of Qajar Iran Fath-Ali Shah Qajar (1834 – 1769 ,فتحعلی‌شاه قاجار). In this text he defends the "correct path" of the Muslims, or Sharia, and gives arguments against Sufism.

Not much is known about Soleiman Mirza Qajar, who was a governor of the Karaj district. According to one of the legends, Soleymaniyeh Palace (کاخ سلیمانیه) in this city, with its today's famous decoration and frescos, depicting Fath-Ali Shah Qajar's family, was named after him.

The book is decorated with exceedingly fine illustrations on first text pages.

Provenience

The book was purchased in the second half of the 19th century probably in Persia by John Fargues, an assistant superintendent of the English telegraph staff in Iran, a member of the Asiatic Society in Paris and a translator from Persian. Fargues was known for his translation of a treatise on Persian tiles and ceramics by Ali Muhammas Isfahani (active 1870s-1888) and published it under the title *On the Manufacture of Modern Kashi Earthenware Tiles and Vases* (Karimi 2013, p. 18).

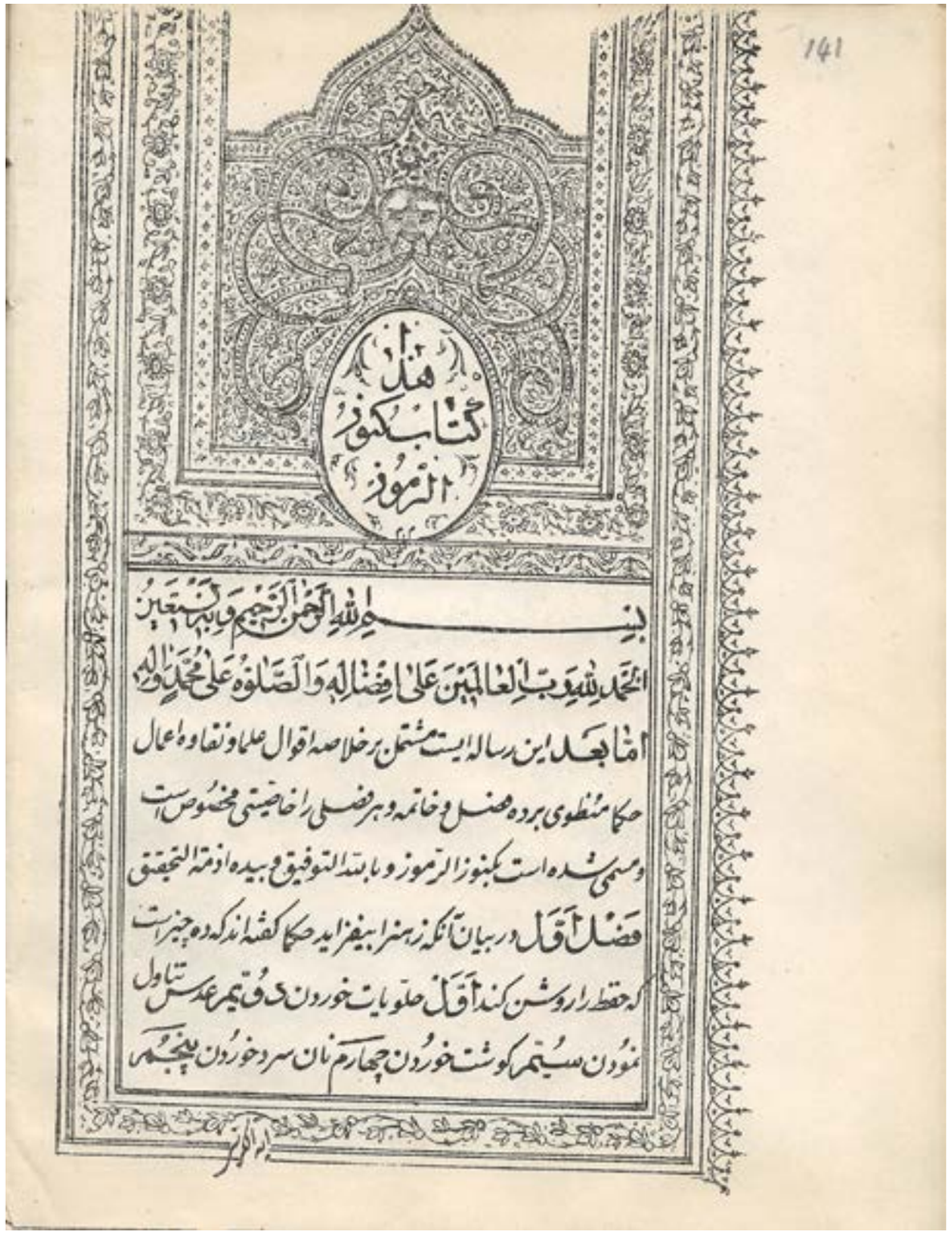


Fargues is signed with a manuscript annotation “Ex Libris J. Fargues” next to a hand-written title in English on the first blank page, and with a signature “J. Fargues” on the first text page.

Still in the 19th century the book came to the collection of Charles-Henri-Auguste Schefer (1820 – 1898), a professor at Ecole des languages orientales, translator and bibliophile. His collection and estate were sold at auctions in 1898 and 1899. The annotations on a paper, mounted in this book, are typical for the collection, the book was purchased with.

References : Moshar I, 377; M. Dorn, Catalogue des ouvreges arabes, persans et turcs, publiés à Constantinople, en Égypte et en Perse, qui se trouvent au Musée asiatique de l’Academie. Bulletin de l’Académie impériale des sciences de St.-Pétersbourg, Vol. 10, 1866, p. 202, n. 24. Cf.: Nader Nasiri-Moghaddam, Schefer, Charles-Henri-Auguste, Encyclopaedia Iranica 2009 (on-line source: SCHEFER, Charles-Henri-Auguste – Encyclopaedia Iranica (iranicaonline.org)) ; Pamela Karimi, Domesticity and Consumer Culture in Iran. Interior Revolutions of the Modern Era, 2013, p. 18.

3.200 EUR



5. MIDDLE EAST – OIL PETROLEUM INDUSTRY

BRIAN ORCHARD LISLE. / THE OIL FORUM.

Fifth (1957) Edition of the Oil Forum Map of Near and Middle East Oil. Prepared by B. Orchard Lisle.

Fort Worth, Texas: The Oil Forum, November 1956.

Colour print on unusual matte finish paper, rolled (Good, overall clean and bright, a few small chips of loss to upper left neatline, an abrasion with a tiny hole lower left, some light irregular vertical folds, a few closed short tears), 96.5 x 127 cm (38 x 50 inches).

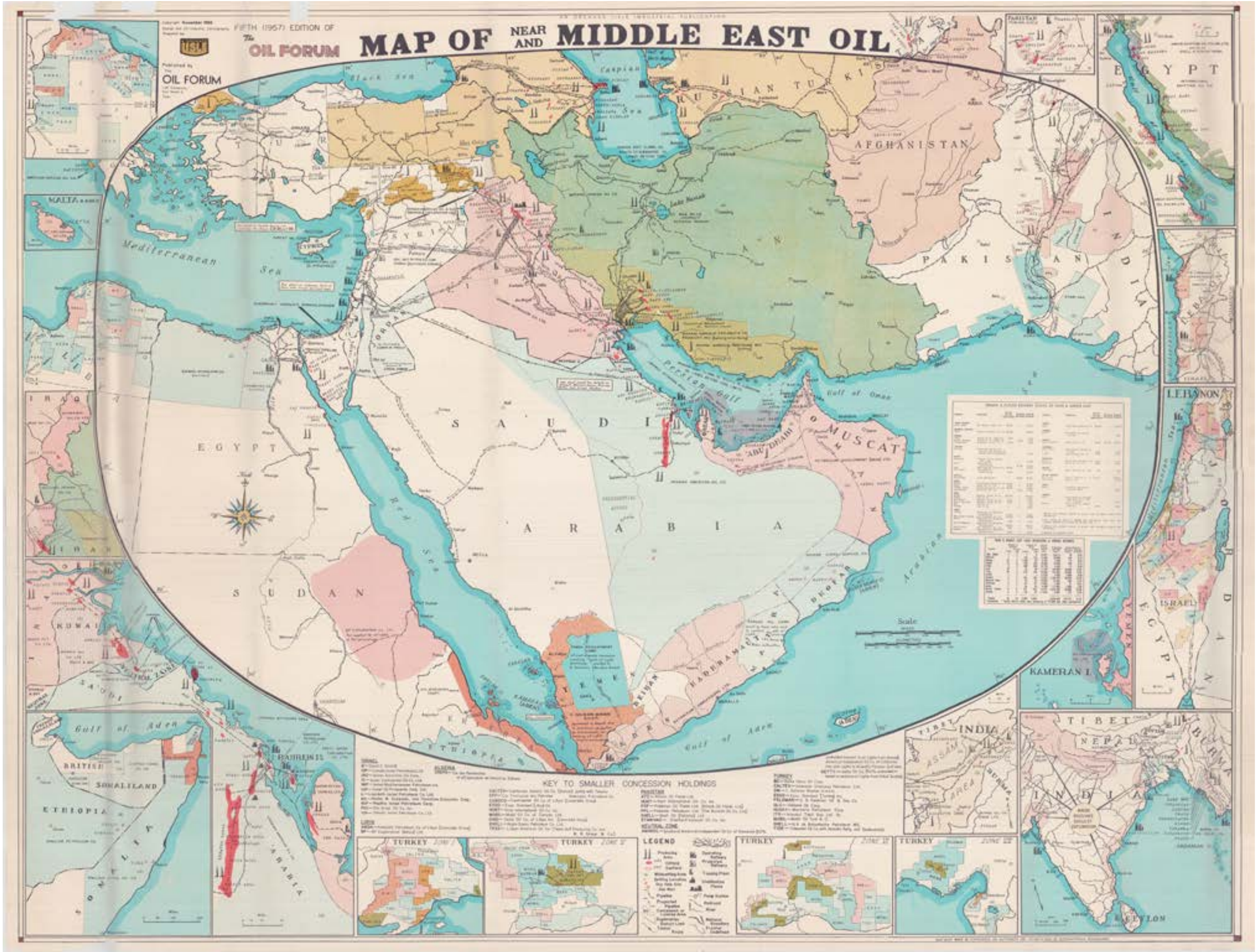
Extremely rare - an early edition of a monumental and colourful production showcasing the petroleum industry across the Middle East and in adjacent regions, made by the flamboyant Brian Orchard Lisle of Fort Worth, Texas, a foremost international promoter of the oil industry; an unrivalled record of the state of play at a critical stage, when the oil industry in Iran, Iraq and Kuwait, still controlled by British concerns, was being challenged by nationalization movements, and when the burgeoning American-sponsored industry in Saudi Arabia was on the cusp of discoveries that would make the country the world's largest oil exporter.

This extremely rare, very large format work is likely the most interesting, detail-packed, and colourful map showcasing the petroleum industry in the Middle East. It is seemingly the earliest known edition of a sequence of maps on the subject produced in Fort Worth, Texas by Brian Orchard Lisle, a globally renown oil promoter with a personality that was as flamboyant as this map, and the founder of The Oil Forum, an industry-leading magazine.

The map, issued in November 1956, captures the state of play at a critical juncture, when the industries in Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, and Saudi Arabia were still largely controlled by British and American energy behemoths, who also dominated many of the smaller producing countries. However, the Anglo-American domination of Middle Eastern petroleum was being challenged by nationalization movements.

The main, almost heart-shaped, map that dominates the composition covers a grand scope, extending from the Aegean and Libya, in the west, and over to the frontiers of India,




FIFTH (1967) EDITION OF
The OIL FORUM
MAP OF NEAR AND MIDDLE EAST OIL
Published by The OIL FORUM
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
RUSSIAN TURKI
AFGHANISTAN
PAKISTAN
INDIA
EGYPT
MALTA
CYPRUS
Mediterranean Sea
SYRIAN
Lake Baikal
Persian Gulf
Gulf of Oman
ABU DHABI
MUSCAT
SAUDI
ARABIA
Red Sea
Arabian Sea
SUDAN
ETHIOPIA
Gulf of Aden
LEBANON
ISRAEL
KUWAIT
NEUTRAL ZONE
BRITISH SOMALILAND
SOMALIA
BAHREIN IS.
KAMERAN I.
TIBET
NEPAL
BURMA
INDIA
CEYLON
ASSAM AREA
KEY TO SMALLER CONCESSION HOLDINGS
LEGEND
TURKEY June 1
TURKEY June 2
TURKEY June 3
TURKEY June 4
Scale

in the east, while the Persian Gulf, the epicentre of the petroleum world, occupies pride of place in the centre. Employing vivid colours, the map shows all the nations shaded in their own hues, major cities and railways are depicted, while the oil concessions, both terrestrial and offshore, shaded and labelled with their holders' names, forming a patchwork quilt pattern in places. Critically, the map showcases the major operational oilfields as red patches, which are connected to refineries and ports by way of networks of pipelines. The greatest concentrations of oilfields are located in south-eastern Iran, Kuwait, northern Iraq, the Gulf Coast of Saudi Arabia, and in Bahrain and Qatar, while the Baku oilfields in Soviet Azerbaijan are shown in the far upper area.

In the lower right of the main map are two charts that record the current state of the oil industry in the region. Starting with the lower chart, 'Near & Middle East Field Operations & Proven Reserves', it lists, per country, the number of oilfields and wells; the maximum drilled depth; oil production (as of mid-1956); and proven reserves (with the percentage of the world total). Highlights record that Saudi Arabia produced 1.045 million barrels per day, but had reserves of 40,000 billion barrels, accounting for 20% of the total reserves (although discoveries in the near future would see these numbers go through the roof!). Kuwait produced 1.2 million barrels per diem, and had an estimated 50 billion barrels in reserves, accounting for 25% of the global total. Iraq produced 735,500 barrels per day and Iran yielded 593,00 per diem. On the bottom, the chart notes that the daily world production of oil was then 3.82 million barrels, while global proven reserves were over 145 billion barrels.

The larger chart above, 'Present & Future Refinery Status of Near and Middle East', lists oil refinery production per country, revealing that some nations had a much larger capacity than they were able to refine, such that they mainly exported crude. The reverse was true of some major oil importing countries. It reveals that Iran produced 270,000 refined barrels per day, but that it was expected to shortly ramp up output to 400,000 per diem. Saudi Arabia produced a total of 210,000 refined barrels per day, while Iraq yielded over refined 50,000 barrels and was anticipated to ramp up to over 70,000. Kuwait was projected to be the biggest short-term winner, as it currently produced 30,000 refined barrels per day, but this was soon to rise to 160,000!

In its margins, the map features numerous cartographic insets detailing oil exploration and development in various regions from Libya to Burma. The inset in the far upper left features a map of Western Libya, which was home to many American-controlled concessions. Below are small maps of Malta and the Iran-Iraq border in Kurdistan, while in the far lower left corner is a map of Somalia.

In the outer lower-left corner is the most important inset, showcasing the ultra-productive Dhahran-Damman area of Saudi Arabia, with the great Ghawar Field, and the nearby petroleum operations in Qatar and Bahrain.

Along the lower tier are maps of oil exploration in Turkey, and a petroleum production map of India's Assam State.

The inset of India in general, in the lower right corner, would have alarmed American

Cold War sensitivities, as it boldly shows areas "Where Russians suggest Exploration", as Jawaharlal Nehru's government was then seeking the USSR's expertise in identifying petroleum resources.

Above, along the right margin are maps of oil exploration and exploitation in Israel, north-western Yemen, Lebanon, Egypt's Gulf of Suez, and Pakistani Punjab.

The present map is labelled as the 'Fifth' edition of Brian Orchard Lisle / The Oil Forum's Map of Near and Middle East Oil, although it is the earliest edition of which we can trace a record (we cannot find any mention of the supposed 1st to 4th editions). While a matter of speculation, perhaps the assumed early editions were made for private distribution to Lisle's friends, such that they were never publicly recorded.

The only other two editions of the map of which we are aware are the 6th (1960) and the 7th editions (1965), which are significantly different in content from each other. For comparison, please see a link to an example of the 1960 edition, courtesy of the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee:

https://collections.lib.uwm.edu/digital/collection/agdm/id/18566

The creator of the map, Brian Orchard Lisle, was a larger-than-life British-born World War II veteran and kayaking champion who moved to Texas in the late 1940s, becoming a foremost oil promoter. He founded the industry-leading The Oil Forum magazine and backed many innovative products and start-ups during a great era of growth in fossil fuels. However, Lisle's most enduring legacy was the series of gigantic and brightly coloured oil maps of different parts of the World. In addition to the present Map of Near and Middle East Oil (1956), his other notable works include the Map of Caribbean Oil (1952); Map of Northern and Middle African Oil (1961); Map of Australasian Oil (1962); and the Map of Far East Oil (1963).

The First 50 Years of the Petroleum Industry in the Middle East

For decades, the Middle East had been the centre of the world oil industry, giving the troubled region an outsized role in geopolitics. The present map was made in late 1956, when the petroleum industry in the region was not even 50 years old but had long risen to dominate global production. While the industries in Iran, Iraq and Kuwait were still largely under British control, although this hegemony was being challenged by nationalization movements. Shortly after present map was issued, Saudi Arabia became the largest oil producer in the world, although by this time the Saudi royal family had muscled its way to becoming an equal partner in the industry.

The petroleum industry in the Middle East commenced in 1908, when the Anglo-Persian Oil Company (APOC), led by the flamboyant Anglo-Australia tycoon William Knox D'Arcy, discovered the region's first commercially viable wells at the at the Maydon-e-Naftune, in Arabistan (Khuzistan), in the extreme southwestern corner of Persia. The British had already secured the rights to oil in the area from the Shah and held quasi-colonial power over southern Persia ever since the signing of the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907, which divided the country into zones of Russian and British control.

APOC built a colossal oil refinery at Abadan, near the mouth of the Shatt al-Arab, that was connected to the oilfields by a 225 kilometres-long pipeline. This source of petroleum proved to be a gamechanger during World War I, as it allowed the British Royal Navy to successfully make the transition from coal to the more convenient and efficient oil as the fuel source for its vessels, providing an advantage over the Germans. It also saw Britain become the world's leading petroleum superpower.

Protecting the Abadan Refinery and the nearby oilfields was one of the main reasons for Britain's invasion of neighbouring Ottoman Iraq, in November 1914. After the brutal Mesopotamian Campaign, Britain secured quasi-colonial domination of Iraq and its rumoured vast oil resources.

In the wake of World War I, the Turkish Petroleum Company (TPC), which was a joint venture between APOC and the Armenian tycoon Calouste Gulbenkian, discovered the world's largest oil field at the Baba Gurgur site, near Kirkuk. Over the coming years many more oilfields were discovered in Iraq, and the country became the world's fifth largest petroleum producer, with the fifth largest provable reserves. This brought tremendous wealth and foreign investment to Iraq, which contributed to the country's famous political instability. The TPC, renamed the Iraq Petroleum Company in 1929, enjoyed most of the proceeds of the country's oil for many years to come.

Meanwhile, in Persia, APOC went from strength to strength, as new wells were opened, while oil prices remained high. By the mid-1920s, the Abadan Refinery was producing almost 4.5 million tonnes of petroleum per annum!

However, the rise of Reza Pahlavi, a Russian-trained military strongman, who gained the Persian throne in 1925, presented a formidable challenge to British power. He was a nationalist, and while too pragmatic to directly oppose Britain, was prepared to curtail APOC's power by indirect means. He eliminated local potentates who were allied to Britain and mounted a diplomatic and public pressure campaign to force the British to renegotiate their oil concessions. After years of haggling, APOC finally agreed to pay the Persian Crown a flat rate of £4 per liquid tonne of oil exported from the country, which was considerably more that the Persians' established 16% take on the Company's profits. In 1935, APOC rebranded itself to become the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company (AIOC) to reflect the country's change in name.

Yet, Reza Shah still felt short-changed and during the early days of World War II, he showed strong sympathies towards the Third Reich. This caused Britain and the Soviet Union to invade Iran in 1941, deposing Reza in favour of his malleable 22-year-old son, Mohammad Reza Pahlavi. In the post-war period, AIOC reached new heights, with the Abadan facility becoming the largest oil refinery in the world.

Saudi Arabia was late the game, in part due the fact that British geologists had made one of their few major errors in the region when, in the 1920s, they pronounced that the land that would become Saudi Arabia (in 1932) possessed little or no viable oil resources. This opened the door to the Americans, who would dominate the industry in the country for decades.

The California-Arabian Standard Oil Company, formed in 1933, took the lead in oil exploration in Saudi Arabia. However, their geologists were for some time frustrated that despite finding the right geological deposits, a big oil strikeeluded them. Finally, in 1938, their people found a massive oil deposit near Dhahran, called Dammam No. 7, that immediately yielded 1,500 per diem, such that it fostered more intense oil exploration in the area. This reconnaissance bore fruit, such in 1944 that the California-Arabian Standard Oil Company was transformed into a grander venture, the Arab American Oil Company (Aramco).

American interests initially wholly owned Aramco; however, in 1950, King Abdulaziz demanded, and received, a 50% share in the enterprise that was to utterly transform his country and, indeed, the global economy at large. Aramco grew explosively due to continuous new discoveries and the fierce global thirst for oil during the post-WW2 economy. In 1951, Aramco discovered the Safinya Oil Field, the largest offshore field ever discovered. However, the greatest find was the Ghawar Field, near the city of Al-Hofuf, in eastern Saudi Arabia, discovered in 1956, being the largest oil field ever discovered before or since. The Saudi Arabian government assumed full ownership of Aramco in 1980, and the company's name was charged in 1988 to Saudi-Aramco. It is today considered by some estimates to be the world's largest company, with over U.S. $300 Billion in annual revenue. Returning to Iran, AIOC's monopoly on the country's oil continued until the country abruptly nationalized its oil industry during the premiership of Mohammad Mosaddegh (1951-3), who deposed Mohammad Reza and set up the National Oil Company of Iran (NIOC) to control the sector. However, in 1953, just a few years before the present map was issued, the CIA and the MI6 deposed Mosaddegh, restoring the Shah's more 'cooperative' regime. While AIOC ended up losing its singular control over Iran's oil in 1954, changing its name to British Petroleum, it remained a major stakeholder in the shared control agreement with NIOC and various foreign enterprises.

The extreme and unyielding resentment of the majority of the Iranian people to the foreign "theft" of their country's most valuable natural resource was one of the main drivers of the 1979 Iranian Revolution, which removed Anglo-American interest from the country, setting Iran upon a new and controversial course.

Regarding Iraq, the Iraq Petroleum Company would essentially be nationalized in 1961. As the decades since have proved, oil has been at times the salvation, but is more often the curse of Iraq and its people.

Kuwait proved the be the most surprising and extreme oil bonanza in the Middle East. Viable petroleum was discovered in 1938 in colossal quantities. It was first exported in 1946 and the quality and intensity of the country's deposits was such that in 1956 Kuwait was the world's largest producer of crude (although it would soon be far surpassed by Saudi Arabia). Kuwait's oil industry was nationalized in 1975.

Regarding the oil industry in the Trucial States, a British protectorate that would become the United Arab Emirates in 1971, just after the present map was issued, in the late 1950s, crude was first discovered at Umm Shaif, Abu Dhabi. This field was brought online in 1962, while additional fields were discovered at Murban, Bu Hasa, Zakum. Abu Dhabi

This field was brought online in 1962, while additional fields were discovered at Murban, Bu Hasa, Zakum. Abu Dhabi commenced exporting oil in 1969, laying the foundation for the UAE's great prosperity and growth.

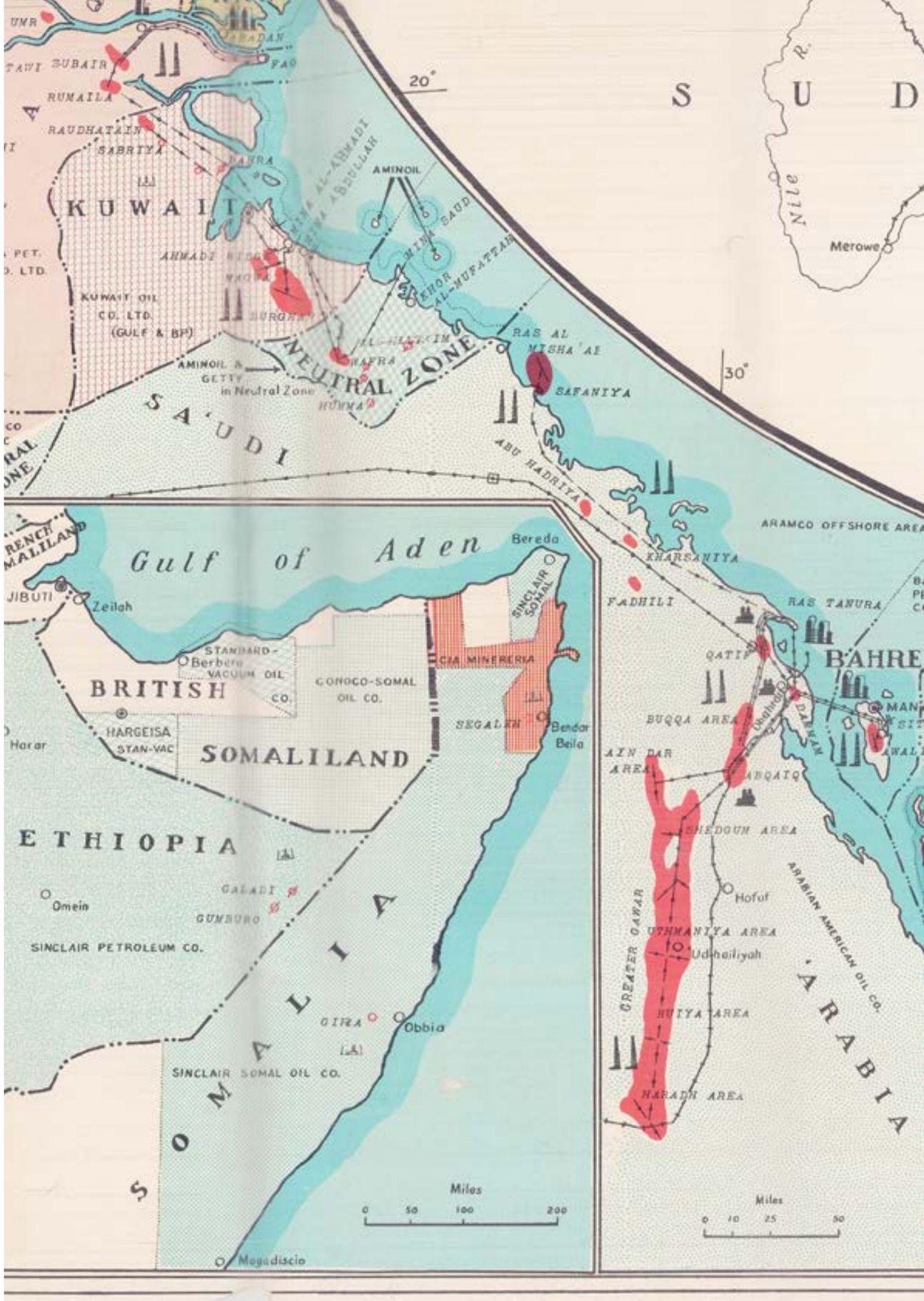
In Qatar, which was a British protectorate until 1971, oil exploration did not begin until 1938. The first viable oilfield was discovered at Dukhan in 1939. Not long after the present map was issued, productive offshore fields were discovered at Idd ash Sharqi (1960) and Maydan Mahzam (1963). Qatar's annual oil production would grow from 60.4 million barrels in 1960 to 208.2 million barrels in 1973, ensuring Qatar a prosperous future.

A Note on Rarity

All the recorded editions of the map are rare. While we can trace around a dozen or so institutional examples of the present 1956 edition, the map appears to be a great rarity commercially, as we cannot trace any sales records for any other examples of any of the editions.

References: Library of Congress: G7421.H8 1957 .L5; Harvard University: G7421.H8 1957.L5; Cornell University: G7481.H8 1957 .O3; Oxford University: D1:9 (176); Bibliothèque nationale de France: GE C-20650; National Library of Israel: 57 C 4030; OCLC: 495093064, 50025176, 10042768; COPYRIGHT OFFICE, LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, Catalog of Copyright Entries, Maps and Atlases January-June 1957, Third Series, vol. 11, part 6, no. 1 (Washington, DC, 1957), p. 26.

8.200 EUR



6. CUBA – IMPORTANT ORIGINAL MANUSCRIPT SPANISH-CUBAN WARS MILITARY SCIENCE

Adolfo T. CASTELLANO (Colonel, Spanish Army in Cuba).

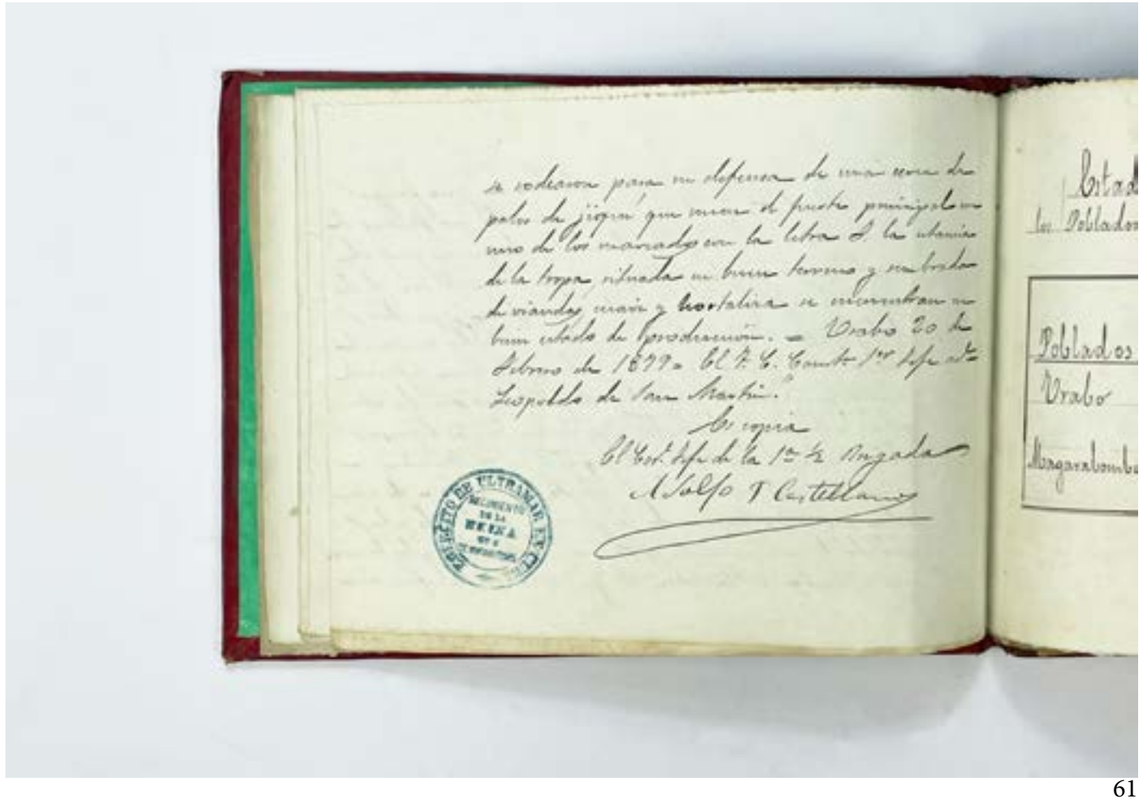
"Zona Militar de Magarabomba. Memoria: en al se consigna, el estado de los Poblados que envisten el la misma, sus Fuertes, alojamientos de tropa y demás edificios de Estado."

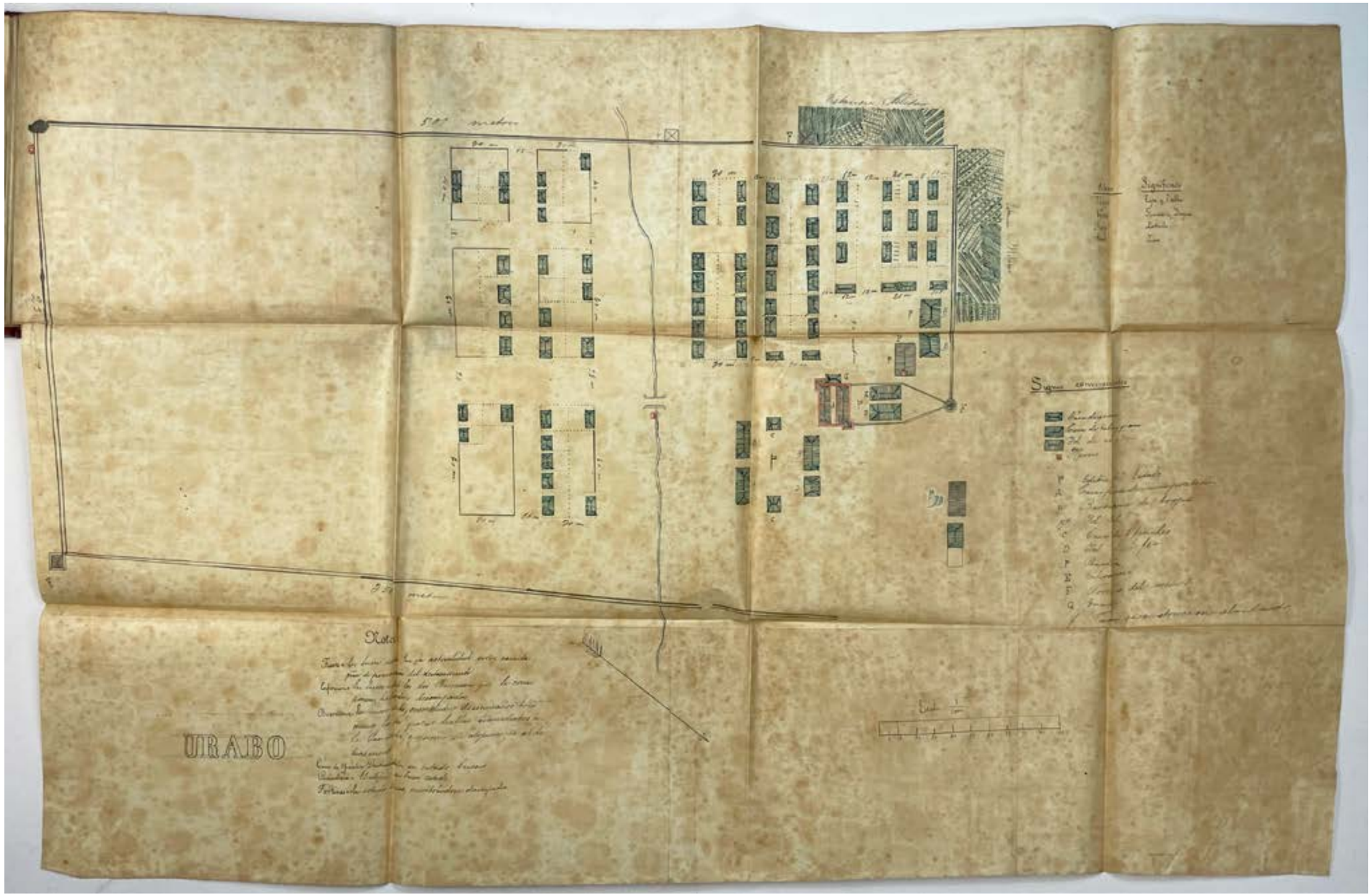
Manuscript, Urabo, Cuba, February 20, 1879.

Oblong Large 8° (17 x 22.5 cm): [1 f., title], [11 pp., including 1 chart], with all text in mss. black pen, original handstamp of the 'Egército de Ultramar en Cuba / Regimiento de la Reina No. 2 de Infantería' to [p. 10], plus, 2 folding manuscript plans (black pen with watercolour) of military settlements on drafting linen (1: "Zonà de Magarabomba", 31 x 32.5 cm; and 2: "Urabo", 46 x 70 cm), and 1 folding manuscript regional map (black pen with watercolour) on drafting linen ("Zona de Urabo", 71 x 56 cm), original elaborate green endpapers, bound in original full red morocco with gilt-debossed short title 'Magarabomba' to front cover (Very Good, text pages clean and bright, maps with some spotting and toning, some wear and a couple minor partial splits along folds, 'Map #1 Magarabomba' with minor tear and no loss at hinge, binding with minor edge-wear).

A unique, fascinating and historically important artefact of Cuban military history and cartography from the immediate wake of the Ten Years' War (1868-78), a horrendous conflict between the Spanish Army and Cuban independentist guerrillas that ravaged the central and eastern regions of the island, exhausting both sides, following which Spain endeavoured to reorganize its forces and infrastructure in preparation for an expected resumption of hostilities; the present work being an original manuscript report, a presentation copy bound in full red morocco, written by Colonel Adolfo T. Castellano, dated February 1879, that details ambitious plans to reform the Spanish Army's operations in the Urabo / Magarabomba military zone, strategically located in the midriff of Cuba, near Puerto Príncipe (Camagüey), that was one of the most hotly contested areas of the island; featuring 3 large original manuscript maps, including a regional map, as well as masterplans of the major Spanish army bases of Magarabomba and Urabo; the work provides valuable, unusually detailed and seldom recorded insights into the nature of the conventional vs. guerilla warfare conflicts that eventually led to Cuban independence.






URABO

From the late 18th through to the mid-19th centuries, Cuba hosted one of the most productive sugar-slave economies in the world, making its elites (landowners, merchants) amongst the wealthiest classes of people in the world. However, this prosperity was built upon the foundation enslaved Africans and their descendants, while many whites, mulattos and free blacks lived in poverty, leading to unrest. Until the 1860s, the Spanish colonial regime was generally easily able to quell any rumblings of dissent. Spain subjected the colony to an unusually strict regime of authoritarianism, including the frequent invocation of martial law and severe censorship, while giving the locals no democratic outlets whatsoever, and subjecting them to very high levels of taxation and bureaucracy. Moreover, Madrid looted the island's treasury, taking the majority of public revenues back to Spain. However, it seemed that as long as the island's elites stayed rich, they had little interest in political reform.

The situation began to change in the 1840s. Due to British pressure, the Transatlantic slave trade was essentially shut down, robbing Cuba's plantations of new sources of labour. Moreover, global economic forces made Cuba's sugar less competitive, confronting the island's planters with lower revenues and higher costs, while their tax bills were outrageous. After Cuba was rocked by severe recessions in 1857 and 1866-7, the situation became unbearable.

Cuba's elites demanded a series of political and economic reforms, but the increasingly conservative regime that ran Spain rebuffed all entreaties. Finally, many of Cuba's elites had had enough!

In what became known as the Ten Years' War (Spanish: Guerra de los Diez Años, or, Guerra Grande, October 10, 1868 to May 28, 1878), the first large-scale rebellion against Spanish rule, Cuban-born plantation owners and their supporters, initially led by Carlos Manuel de Céspedes, mounted an insurrection in far south of Cuba, that soon spread to the Puerto Príncipe region in the centre of the island.

The rebels, popularly known as the Mambises, although severely outgunned and outmanned, initially made impressive headway, as they caught the Spanish off guard. They employed ingenious guerilla techniques that foiled much larger Spanish forces that insisted upon fighting in an inflexible, formal European manner ill-suited to Cuba.

Frustrated by the inability to knock out the Mambises in battle, the Spanish employed utterly savage methods to repress the civilian populations which supported (or who they thought supported) the rebels. They torched entire villages, systematically killing thousands of civilians and their families, leaving entire districts in total ruin. They were motivated by rage, but also by the belief that the only way to defeat a guerilla force was to eliminate the resources and people that sustained it. The Spanish tactics were so horrendous that they began to reverse the Mambises' gains.

For a while, a bloody stalemate ensued with neither side able to knock the other off their game. However, the tide turned in favour of the Spanish in 1876, as the Third Carlist War (1872-6), which had raged in Metropolitan Spain, concluded, feeing up the Spanish Army to focus their energies entirely upon Cuba. Spain flooded the island with over 250,000 troops, who employed the most brutal tactics, ravaging the central parts of Cuba. Meanwhile, the rebels were plagued by infighting, while they were stymied by their inability to spread the revolt to western Cuba.

Eventually, both sides became exhausted as 100,000 Cubans were dead (including 60,000 civilians), while the Spanish forces lost 90,000 men. The leadership of the two sides agreed to a truce at the Pact of Zanjón, which ended the war. It required the Mambises to lay down their arms, while Madrid agreed to allow Cuba to elect member to the Spanish Cortes (parliament), while implementing economic reforms. However, only some of the rebel leaders agreed to the accord, leaving many influential figures to plot their next moves against Spain, while the Spanish authorities took the time to regroup and to tighten their grip upon the island.

As it turned out, Spain had no intention of implementing meaningful reforms, the recalcitrant rebel leaders instigated the Little War (La Guerra Chiquita) between August 26, 1879 and December 3, 1880. However, the Spanish clamped down hard on what was a more limited revolt, crushing it before it got out of hand.

As is well known, the Cubans, once again, rebelled, during what was called the Guerra de Independencia cubana (1895-8). Upon American intervention in the conflict, in what became known as the Spanish-American War (1898), Cuba finally gained its independence from Spain (even if it became an American client state).

Setting the Scene in the Military Keystone of Cuba

The present work focuses upon the region that became the epicentre of the Ten Years' War, in the midriff of Cuba, in the Central Province (later the central part of Puerto Príncipe province, today the borderlands of the Camagüey and Ciego de Ávila provinces). Here, the majority of the plantation owners and city/town dwellers were ardently opposed to Spanish rule, prosecuting a guerrilla war, often to their deaths, for the revolution. The brutality of the Spanish reprisals seemed only to stiffen their resolve. They were resolutely countered by the Spanish Army in Cuba and their roguish allied militias, who built a 'cordon militaire' composed of forts and stockaded walls that ran across the width of the island through the town of Ciego de Ávila, so preventing the rebellion from spilling into western Cuba.

Especially between 1862 and 1876, much of the worst fighting and carnage in Cuba was concentrated in the area between the city of Puerto Príncipe (Camagüey) and the town of Ciego de Ávila. Here the countryside was utterly ravaged, with the majority of the fincas and crops with being completely looted or torched, while many thousands of civilians were killed by both sides, not to mention the incredibly high military casualties.

The 'Zone of Urabo', which comprised the northwestern corner of what in 1879 became the Puerto Príncipe province, was the scene of particularly brutal warfare. As Cuba was then under martial law, the areas within military theatres were divided into 'zonas' (districts) that served as jurisdictions of fused military-civil government. Located along

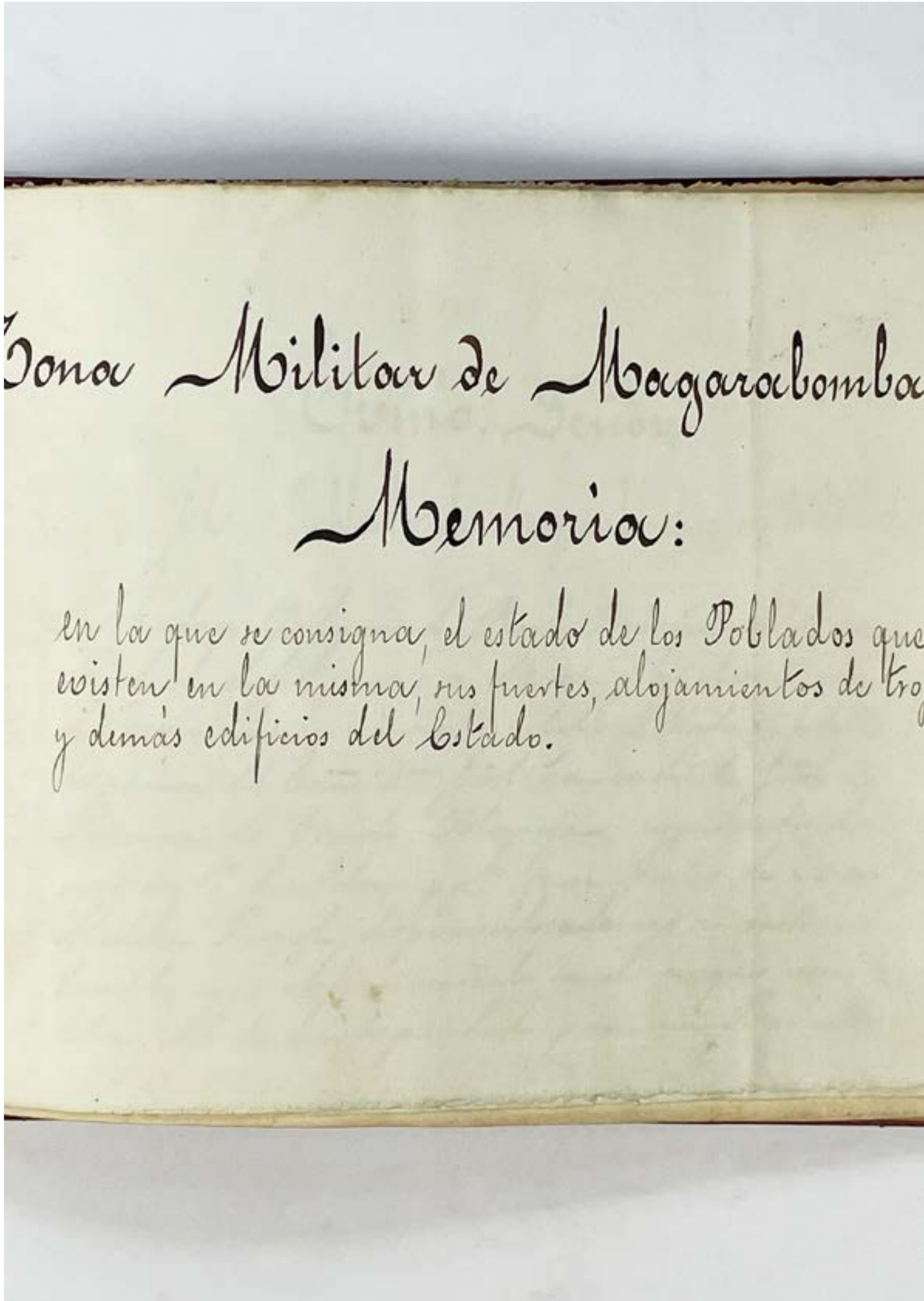
the Camino Real, which ran the length of Cuba, the Urabo Zone was, in many ways, the military keystone of the country, such that whoever controlled it could strike deep east and west into highly populated areas with relative impunity. The main base of the Spanish Army in the zone was located at the village of Urabo, on the Camino Real. While Urabo was home to a large and varied assortment of facilities, including forts, pillboxes, barracks, administrative buildings, etc., and had proven quite defensible throughout the late rebellion, its location was unhealthy, exposing the Spanish troops to tropical diseases.

In late 1878 and early 1879, in the immediate wake of the Ten Years' War, the colonial authorities decided to embark upon wide-ranging reforms of the government and armed forces. However, these measures did not concern the types of liberalizing reforms promised by the Pact of Zanjón, but rather sought to make the existing Spanish military rule more efficient. Cuba was divided into many more provinces, to ensure more focused regional oversight, within which were the military zones. In some case the HQs of the military zones were to be moved to better locations. This was the case with the Zona de Urabo, where the location of the district HQ was to be moved to the village of Magarabomba (today sometimes spelt as 'Macarabomba'), just a little way northwest up the Camino Real from Urabo.
Magarabomba had for some years been home to a small military outpost but was otherwise scarcely more than a cluster of farmhouses. However, it was viewed to possess a healthful climate, with good access to water and food sources sufficient to support a pinned-down army, at least for some time. Indeed, the Spanish military (correctly) believed that the newly gained peace would be short-lived, such that their forces needed to remain upon a wartime footing, taking advantage of the lull to regroup.

Accordingly, on February 1, 1879, General Camilo García de Polavieja y del Castillo-Negrete (1838 - 1914), the commander of the Spanish Army in central Cuba (later the Governor-General of Cuba (1890-2) and of the Philippines (1896-7)), ordered that Magarabomba should be rapidly developed into the zone's new army HQ, replacing Urabo. This would be a significant undertaking of organization and logistics, especially as the area had been totally ravaged. As a result, the army engineers would have to improvise, using the basic materials that would still be locally available, such as guano and yagua (palm husks), as many things, like prime timber, masonry and bricks, were in short supply.

The Present Manuscript in Focus

The present work is an official original manuscript report, illustrated with 3 maps, whose title translates to "Magarabomba Military Zone. Memorial: regarding the Consignment, the State of the Towns that enclose the same, their Forts, Troop Accommodations, and other State Buildings". Written just after the first anniversary of the end of the Ten Years' War, it concerns the reorganization of the Military Zone of Urabo into the new Military Zone of Magarabomba, including a detailed plan for building a large garrison at Magarabomba, the state of the outgoing HQ at Urabo, as well as a stellar overview map of the zone.


Zona Militar de Magarabomba
Memoria:
en la que se consigna, el estado de los Poblados que
existen en la misma, sus fuertes, alojamientos de tro
y demás edificios del Estado.

The report was written by Colonel Adolfo T. Castellano, the commander of the Spanish Army in Cuba's 1½ Brigade, and is dated at Urabo, February 20, 1879, and addressed to General Leopoldo de San Martín, the military commandant of Central Cuba. While we cannot find much inflation on Colonel Castellano, he was evidently the man placed in charge of reorganizing the relevant military zone and overseeing the construction of the new base at Magarbomba. Given the technical nature of the report, it is likely that Castellano was a military engineer.

The manuscript is a presentation copy, lavishly bound in full red morocco, featuring the contemporary handstamp of the 'Egército de Ultramar en Cuba / Regimiento de la Reina No. 2 de Infantería', which notarizes its validity.
The focal point of the work are the 2 folding manuscript plans (black pen with watercolour) military settlements on drafting linen, entitled "Zonà de Magarabomba" and "Urabo", and the folding manuscript regional map (black pen with watercolour) on drafting linen, "Zona de Urabo". The text of the report explains these maps in detail and places them in context.

The methodical but very readable text is intended to be consumed while consulting the maps. While it physically appears as the final element of the volume, it is perhaps best to first consult the regional map, "Zona de Urabo" (soon the become the 'Zona de Magarabomba') (measuring 71 x 56 cm), as it contextualizes the accompanying plans of military bases.

The present work is a unique, fascinating, and historically important artefact from the era leading up to Cuban independence. Its original manuscript maps and supporting textual descriptions provides valuable, unusually detailed, and seldom recorded insights into the nature of the conventional vs. guerilla warfare conflicts that eventually led to Cuban independence.

Importantly, the present maps focus upon key frontier outposts in the heart of a theatre of asymmetrical warfare, where most of the fighting in Cuba occurred. As such, they often provide far more valuable insights into the nature of the conflict than the far better-known maps of large urban bastions (ex. in Havana or Santiago).

While many maps, both printed and manuscript, from the Cuban War of Independence (1895-8) survive today, relatively few such works remain from the Ten Years' War era, and most of these were manuscript maps, such as those present, made for confidential, high-level military use; very few maps were published. Cuban manuscript maps from the period hardly ever appear on the market, and the only sizeable institutional collection of such works is held by the Biblioteca Centro de Documentación de Defensa (CDOC), in Madrid.

The zonal map, drafted in black ink and attractive watercolours, embraces the upper central part of the new Province of Puerto Príncipe, and delineates and names rivers and creeks, with rough contours expressing highlands, while in the upper part the Atlantic coast is charted.



The “Referencias”, in the lower left, identifies the symbols used to denote details, with Empty black circles = ‘Fincas’ (farms / estates) then under reconstruction (as most properties had been destroyed during a recent war); Red circles topped by a flag = towns hosting military detachments; Red lines = roads; while the Black dashed lines = the boundaries of the zone. Notably, the Camino Real (the double red line) is shown to travel diagonally southeast to northwest, through the zone, with Urabo, located in the lower centre, and with Magarbomba to the northwest.

Castellano commences his narrative by explaining that “The town of Magarabomba is located 12 leagues [1 Spanish league = 2.6 miles, so this distance is around 31 miles, or 50 km] from Puerto Príncipe on the Camino Real from said point to Moron and on the site occupied by the Caserío [hamlet] of the same name: said Town was established by order of the General Commander of this Province Don Camilo …on February 1st [1879] to be the centre of the Zone and Mayor’s Office having in addition to constructing a Barracks…” [p. 1].

Castellano next focuses upon the plan of “Magarabomba” (31 x 32.5 cm) which showcases the entire settlement and the envisioned military base in considerable detail. Orientated with the west roughly on top, the hamlet is bordered by the Arroyo de Magarabomba, to the left, with farm fields in the upper left and a few private homes to their right, with the lower 60% of the plan dominated by the military HQ proper. The various aspects of the base are identified by letters (M, N, P and S) and numbers (1-16), which are explained in the text, in lieu of a legend upon the plan itself. Importantly, this plan largely shows what is projected or intended, as only very little of what is depicted had yet been built, even if work was already underway.

Castellano writes that the largest compound, in the lower centre, comprises the “Barracks”, which “marked in the sketch with the letter M will have capacity for a Battalion”, and will also contain an infirmary. Within, and “conveniently distributed” are “lookouts” and with numbers 1 and 6 marking the exit points; 2 represents the room for “storing flags” and other textiles; 3 is the guardhouse; 4 is the dungeon; 5 is the warehouse; 7 is the “nurses' dispensary”; 8 is the pharmacy; 9 is the “sick room”; 10 is the recreational room for the sergeants; 11 represents the troops’ recreational room; 12 and 13 is the Sergeants quarters, 14 are the troops quarters. Numbers 15 and 16 are not, for whatever reason, described, but 15 may be for an armoury / storage area, while 16 is obviously a parade ground / courtyard [pp. 1-2].

He continues noting that his orders from Polavieja were that “once this building is finished you will go on to build the Hut marked with the letter N, which I divide into departments, as indicated in the sketch will serve as accommodation for Senior civilian civil servants and officials”, referring to the compound to the right of the main barracks. Moving to the building to the left of the main barracks “the oven marked with the letter R is also under construction, with the capacity to bake 200 servings of bread: the fort marked with the letter P, is a two-story wooden stockade hosting 8 men and capable of good defence, the wooden hut S” will provide “troop accommodation” until the main barracks are finished. He notes that “At present there are only three neighbours to the fort in said Town… but in the vicinity, there is a large population” [pp. 1-3].

Castellano remarks that “The territory in which the Village is located, according to experience is very healthy: it has good waters, constituting the wells marked on the map [noted in red and labelled as “Pozo”] and the stream marked on the same that stops a few meters from the Village: The immediate area… is not very good for agriculture …[however,] with some work, it will produce all kinds of food and vegetables, but less than a league away, in all directions are very fertile lands… dedicated to agriculture. [pp. 3-4].

It is then mentioned how the Queen’s 2nd Battalion, the main Spanish force in the zone, is to henceforth be distributed, such that there will be 4 Companies in Magarabomba, 1 Company in Urabo, while in the neigbouring Zona Central, headquartered in Caobillas, there is another Company.

Castellano notes that “The army postal / message service in the area is carried out by groups of 10, 15 or 20 men who cover it every day, the troops serving two days a week… the mail is received and forwarded to Caobillas and from this point they go and return to [Puerto]. Príncipe…”. The infantry troops “have daily exercise in the morning and in the afternoon” go for “target shooting”, while there is a “daily academy” for senior civilian officials and officers [pp. 4-5].

Castellano then shifts to describe Urabo, the zone’s outgoing army HQ. He notes that Urabo is “Located eight leagues [around 20 km] from Puerto Príncipe on the Camino Real… it is made up of seventy-four houses made of wood, guano and yagua”. Many of the buildings have been “abandoned”, and that more will likely be vacated once most of the troops move to Magarabomba [pp. 5-6]. During the war the civilian population of the Urabo area swelled, as pro-Spanish planters sought refuge near the base; however, many had since returned to their farms. Furthermore, it is described that “the town is surrounded” by an area “that is an almost destroyed”.

Turning to the accompanying manuscript plan of “Urabo” (measuring 46 x 70 cm), it shows the base to occupy a massive walled compound of an irregular rectangular form, approximately 500 by 250 metres. The plan is meticulous in that it precisely defines the numerous structures, providing measurements (in metres) of the various elements. The compound is bisected by an arroyo that is “muddy almost all year round and the bridge built [over it] by the Queen's forces is quite solid and loaded wagons can pass through it”.

The plan features a detailed legend, while further information is featured in the “Nota”, lower left, and in the text [pp. 6-10]. The “Nota” describes the materials from which the buildings are constructed that reveals that Black = Teja y Tabla [tile and board]; Green = Guano and Yagua; Red = Ladrillo [brick]; and Blue = Zinc.

The “Signos convencionales”, on the left-hand side, explains the symbols and letters that identify the major structures. The small compound which is separately walled-off, marked by a flag, is the “Edificio de Estado”, the bureau for the zone’s civil governance. Within is A, marking the “Casa fuerte” [strong house], the inner sanctum where top officials could seek refuge in the event of a breach of the fort’s other walls. It is “in good condition”, and currently serves as the home of the small detachment that still guards Urabo. It is made of “masonry and tile” and walled in by brick. However, indicative of unsuitability of the

Urabo base, it is “poorly made” while “inside the accommodation is bad” and that it had been traditionally used for “the deposit of rations, keeping these poorly”, instead of being used by senior officials. Also, within the “Edificio de Estado” compound is E, the Enfermaría [Infirmary], and while “the two Barracks that make it up are in good condition”, they are described as being sickly dwellings, unfit for purpose.

The letter B marks the “Barracones de tropa” [Barracks] that are “in good condition” although “unoccupied” save for the “two that are immediately next to the Bakery”. However, during Urabo’s heyday they could host 400 soldiers.

The letter C marks the “Casa de Oficiales” [Officials’ Quarters] and D labels the Casa de jefes [Command Officer’s Quarters], that while now “Uninhabited, their status is good”.

The building marked as P is the “Panadería” [Bakery], which is in “good condition” and has a “horno” (oven) “capable of cooking 200 servings”.

The outer wall of the base is protected by F, “Fortines” [Pillboxes] and f – “Fortines en construcción ou abandonada” [Pilboxes that are either under construction or abandoned], while within the base its security is managed from G – “Guardia” [Guard Station]. The gardens, located just outside of the walls, upper right, are described as being upon “good land” hosting “vegetables that are in a good state of production”.

The final element of the text is the chart [p. 11], “Estado que manifiesta la fortificaciones, casas y vecinos que tienen los Poblados de esta Zona” [State of the fortifications, houses, and neighbouring properties of the Zone’s towns], outlining the types of buildings in Urabo and those projected for Magarabomba. Regarding Urabo, it has Fortifications (1 fort, 3 pillboxes, 7 barracks); Houses (4 owned by the state, 10 military); and 15 neighbours. Concerning Magarabomba, it will have Fortifications (1 fort, 1 pillbox, 1 barracks); Houses (none owned by the state, 7 military); and 7 neighbours.

References: N/A – present manuscript seemingly unrecorded.

5.500 EUR



7. HAVANA, CUBA
AUTHORITATIVE MASTERPLAN

Estéban PICHARDO y Tapia (1799 - 1879), Surveyor-Cartographer. / José VALDEPARES, Editor.

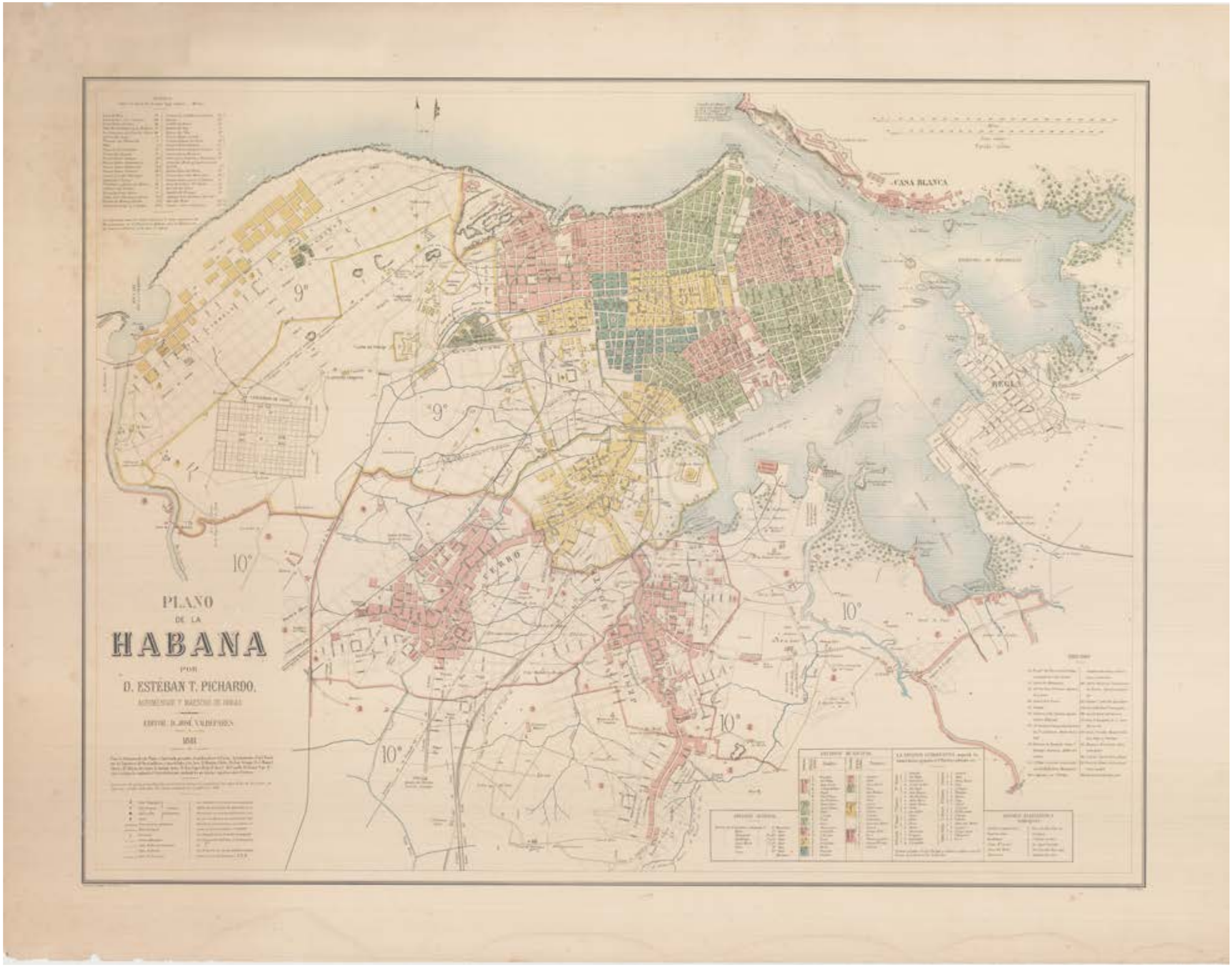
Plano de la Habana por D. Estéban T. Pichardo, agrimensor y maestro de obras. / Editor: D. José Valdepares. / 1881.

Paris: A. Simon for Imprimerie Becquet, 1881.

Colour lithograph, rolled (Very Good, especially given its natural fragility, overall very attractive with wide blank margins, light even toning with some light stains in upper left quadrant, light stains in lower blank margin, some archivally closed marginal tears, and a 16 cm inconspicuous clean tear entering image upper left archivally closed from verso, some tiny holes), 86 x 111 cm (34 x 44 inches).

Extremely rare – a grand, separately issued work that is the finest and most influential map of Havana of the generation leading up to and during Cuban Independence, after the surveys of Estéban Pichardo, the 'Father of Cuban Geography', it showcases Havana in unprecedented detail and precision, not only capturing the old town, but all Havana Harbour and the city's fast-growing suburbs; published in Paris in 1881, it served as the masterplan of metro Havana through the period of U.S. Military Government in Cuba (1898 - 1902), upon which the map was copied and issued in the U.S. for a variety of martial an civilian administrative purposes.

This extremely rare, grand format separately issued work is the finest and most important map of Havana and its environs made in the twilight years of the Spanish colonial era. It was created by Estéban Pichardo, the 'Father of Cuban Geography', who mapped the country to top-notch modern systematic scientific standards. It captures the Cuban capital as it appeared in the 1870s, when it had a population of around 180,000, and was one of the most beautiful, cultured, and well-appointed cities in the Americas. While central and southeastern Cuba was then engulfed in the turmoil of the Cuban insurrectionist conflicts of the Guerra de los Diez Años (1868-78) and La Guerra Chiquita (1879-80), Havana was not directly involved in the fighting. In fact, the city's economy benefitted from war contracts, while its population continued to grow briskly, largely due to arrival of immigrants from Spain.


CASA BLANCA
REGLA
PLANO
DE LA
HABANA
POR
D. ESTEBAN T. PICHARDO.
EDITOR D. JOSÉ VALDESPINA
1851

The map embraces the entire harbour of Havana and environs, and depicts the city proper, plus all its fast-growing suburbs and exurbs. Every street is pictured and labeled, with the street numbers given per block, while the city's numerous parks, squares, public institutions, and grand facilities (ex. forts, barracks, hospitals, schools/colleges, religious places, and large business campuses, etc.) are noted. Indicative of metro Havana's rapid growth, the streets of the several projected areas of development are shown by intermittent lines.

The city proper is shown divided into its 10 numbered and individually coloured 'distritos' (wards), within which are numbered 'barrios' (neighbourhoods), as listed in the chart, 'División municipal', lower left. Additionally, the map labels the other types of administrative divisions, including the 'División gubernativa', 'División eclesiástica' and 'División judicial'.

The old city of Havana is shown to occupy the tip of the peninsula that guards the western side of the mouth of the harbour, with the Calle del Monserrate and the Calle del Egido marking the location of the city's former old walls, which were torn down in 1863 to make way for the city's expansion. The relatively new suburban districts are shown to grow, following neat grids with grand boulevards, to the west, including both wealthy barrios and many working-class areas. The Vedado neighbourhood, which would soon become the favoured haunt of the city's wealthy, is shown to be under construction. Meanwhile, formerly small villages considered far distant from the capital, are now shown to have become large towns, integrated into metro Havana.

Havana's tramway system is shown, while the railway lines that connected city to the countryside and the plantations of the remaining sugar-slave economy (slavery would not be abolished in Cuba until 1886) are shown to radiate out of the city. Indeed, Cuba was only the fifth country in the world to have railways, with its first route opening in 1837, being the Havana-Bejucal line. Below the title, the legend identifies the various symbols used to locate telegraph stations, as well as facilities used by Havana's fire department.

The level of detail and the accuracy of the map ensures that it is one of the seminal historical documents recorded Havana in the critical generation leading up to Cuban Independence. It is thus an indispensable resource for those seeking to understand Cuban history and urbanism in the Latin America and the West Indies during the Industrial Age.

The map was created by Estéban Pichardo while the esteemed polymath-cartographer was in his 70s. He bases the map upon his own surveys, as well as the best mapping done for the army and Havana's Public Works Department, creating an unrivalled graphic record of the city. The map was edited by a local draftsman, José Valdepares.

The map was first published bearing the same title as the present, Plano de la Habana por D. Estéban T. Pichardo, agrimensor y maestro de obras. / Editor: D. José Valdepares (Paris: A. Simon for Imp. Becquet, 1874). However, this first edition seems to have been a 'trial run', as it is known to survive today in only a single institutional example, held by the Biblioteca Centro de Documentación de Defensa, in Madrid (shelfmark: 729.12 La Habana); this example has a numbered manuscript grid laid over it, and seems to have been used a working copy.

The second edition, represented by the present example, was issued in 1881, two years after Pichardo's passing, and is faithful to the 1874 edition, save that it is far more beautifully coloured and executed to a higher quality of lithography. Although this edition was made in only a small print run, for high level administrative and commercial use, it proved to be highly influential.

Upon the U.S. Invasion of Cuba during the Spanish-American War (1898) and during the subsequent U.S. Military Government in Cuba (1898 - 1902), the present map was used as the 'masterplan' of Havana by the Americans for all manners of military and civilian planning, as well as explaining the operations of U.S. entities in Cuba to Congress. Various editions of the Pichardo map, with modifications to suit specific purposes, were published in the Unities States.

These American derivatives include the Military Map of Habana and Vicinity (Washington, DC: War Department, Adjutant-General's Office, 1898); as well as several different version of the map, modified by the engineer William Murray Black to depict the city's road works, sanitation and drainage systems, etc., variously published between 1900 and 1902 by Julius Bien (New York); A. Hoen & Co. (Baltimore); and for the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers by Guggenheimer, Weil & Co. (Baltimore).

The 'real' Pichardo map of 1881 is easily distinguishable from the America derivatives which, in addition to their modified content, were produced to much lower quality of lithography. Most of the American derivates are quite common, having been issued in relatively large print runs, compared to the extremely rare 1881 edition.

Estéban Pichardo y Tapia: The 'Father of Cuban Geography'

Estéban Pichardo y Tapia (1799 - 1879), also 'Estéban Tapia Pichardo', was a Cuban polymath and by far and away the most important and influential geographer on the island during the 19th century. A native of Santo Domingo, he moved with his affluent family to Cuba while he was still a boy, settling in Puerto Príncipe (Camagüey). He was highly educated, gaining a Bachelor of Arts from the Real y Conciliar Seminario de San Carlos y San Ambrosio and a law degree from the Royal University of Havana. As a young man, he came to sympathize with the cause of Cuban sovereignty, and during a tour of Puerto Rico, the United States, and Europe, he was arrested by Spanish authorities while visiting Madrid, on account of his political beliefs. While he was soon released, the experience only hardened his support for the Cuban patriotic cause.

Pichardo practiced as one of Havana's premier lawyers for many years, although his true passion was geography, while he was also an accomplished musician, lexicographer, poet, and novelist. As Pichardo grew in wealth and seniority, he increasingly dedicated time away from the legal profession to geographic pursuits. He seems to have along the way gained formal training as surveyor, a skill for which he proved exceedingly gifted.

Up to the mid-19th century, the terrestrial mapping of Cuba and its cities and regions was

rather haphazard, with surveys made of variable quality, usually by the Spanish military, often for episodic use. Little effort was endeavoured to survey or gazetteer the island in a systematic scientific fashion. It was at the juncture that Pichardo would play a transformative role.
Highlights of Pichardo's oeuvre include masterly maps of the Matanzas region (1840) and city of Matanzas (1846); Geografia de la isla de Cuba, 4 vols. (1854-5), the finest and first comprehensive work on the island's geography; Nociones de agrimensura legal de la isla de Cuba (1863), a critical treatise on surveying in Cuba; and Caminos de la isla de Cuba Itinerarios (1865), the authoritative guide to the island's roads.

The present map of Havana represented the apogee of Pichardo's urban / regional mapping and was proved to be his most internationally influential work.
Pichardo's magnum opus was the Carta geotopográfica de la Isla de Cuba (1875), a colossal 35-sheet map of Cuba, executed to scale of 1:200,000, which saw that the island better mapped than most European countries. Including many inset city plans, the superbly detailed map, predicated upon numerous very high-quality surveys, was one of the most impressive achievements of scientific cartography made in the Americas during the 19th century, and was not fully superseded until the 1950s!
Notable examples of Pichardo's non-geographic works include the Diccionario Provincial de Voces y frases cubanas (1836), the first work on Cuban vernacular language; and El Fatalista. Novela cubana (1866).
A Note on Rarity
The present map is extremely rare. It would have been issued in a limited print run, as it was an expensive work geared for high-level administrative and commercial use. Moreover, the map is of a large format and printed upon fragile paper, leading to a very low survival rate.

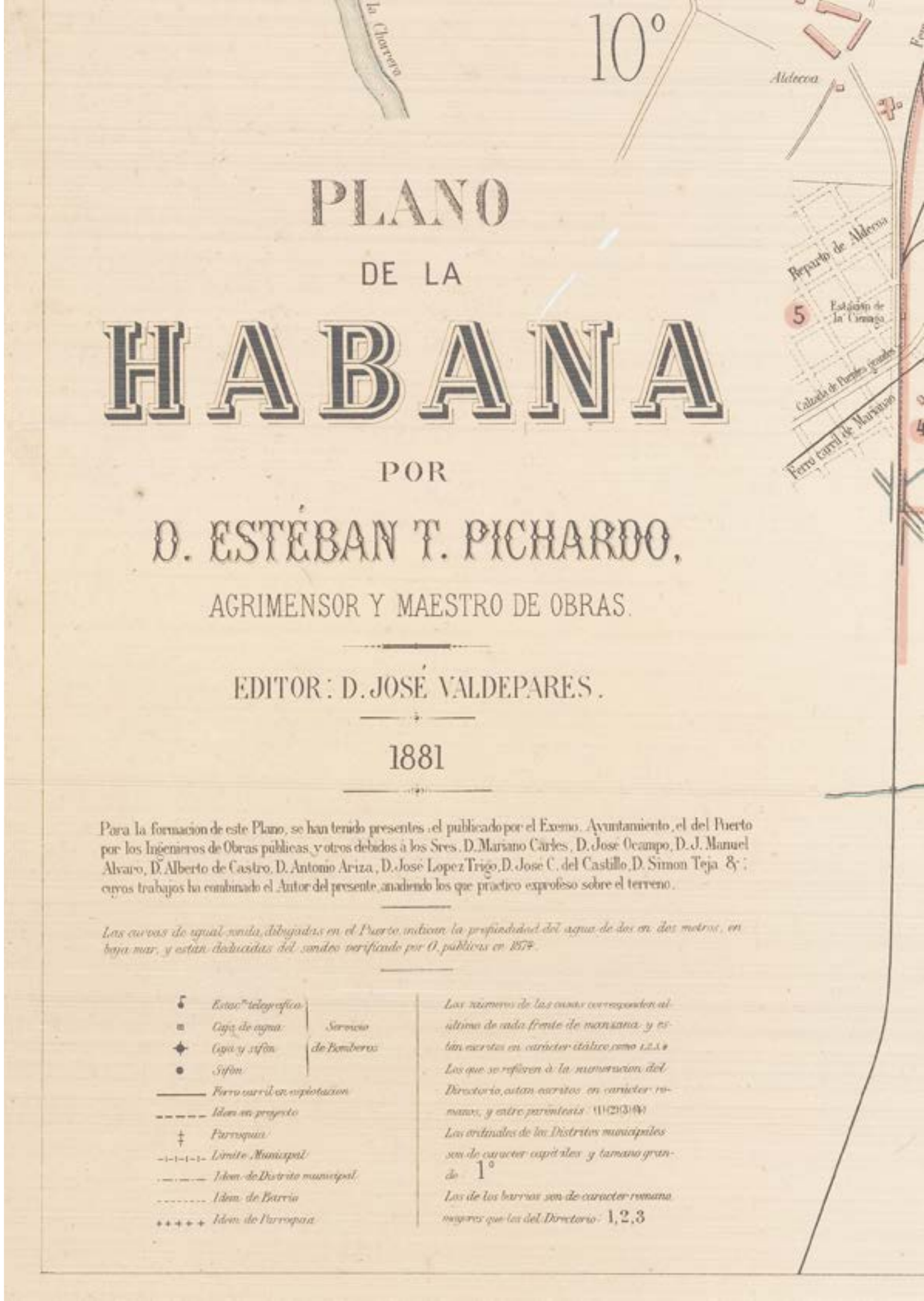
We can trace only 4 institutional examples of the present 1881 edition of the map, held by the Biblioteca Centro de Documentación de Defensa (Madrid); Archivo del Museo Naval de Madrid; Bibliothèque nationale de France; and the Bancroft Library (University of California-Berkeley). Moreover, we are not aware of any sales records for any other examples.

The 1874 first edition is known in only a single institutional example, held by the Biblioteca Centro de Documentación de Defensa (Madrid).

Most of the American derivatives of the map are considerably less rare and appear with relative frequency on the market.

References: Biblioteca Centro de Documentación de Defensa (Madrid): 729.12 La Habana; Archivo del Museo Naval de Madrid: MN- 16-A-6; Bibliothèque nationale de France: GE FF-9680; Bancroft Library (University of California-Berkeley): Map F1799 1881 .P6; Emilio CUETO, Cuba in Old Maps (Miami: Historical Museum of Southern Florida, 1999), p. 176.

3.500 EUR



8. MEXICO – MEXICAN-AMERICAN WAR (1846-8)
'SANTA ANNA'S DEFENSE'
MEXICO CITY IMPRINT

Antonio López de SANTA ANNA (1794 - 1876).

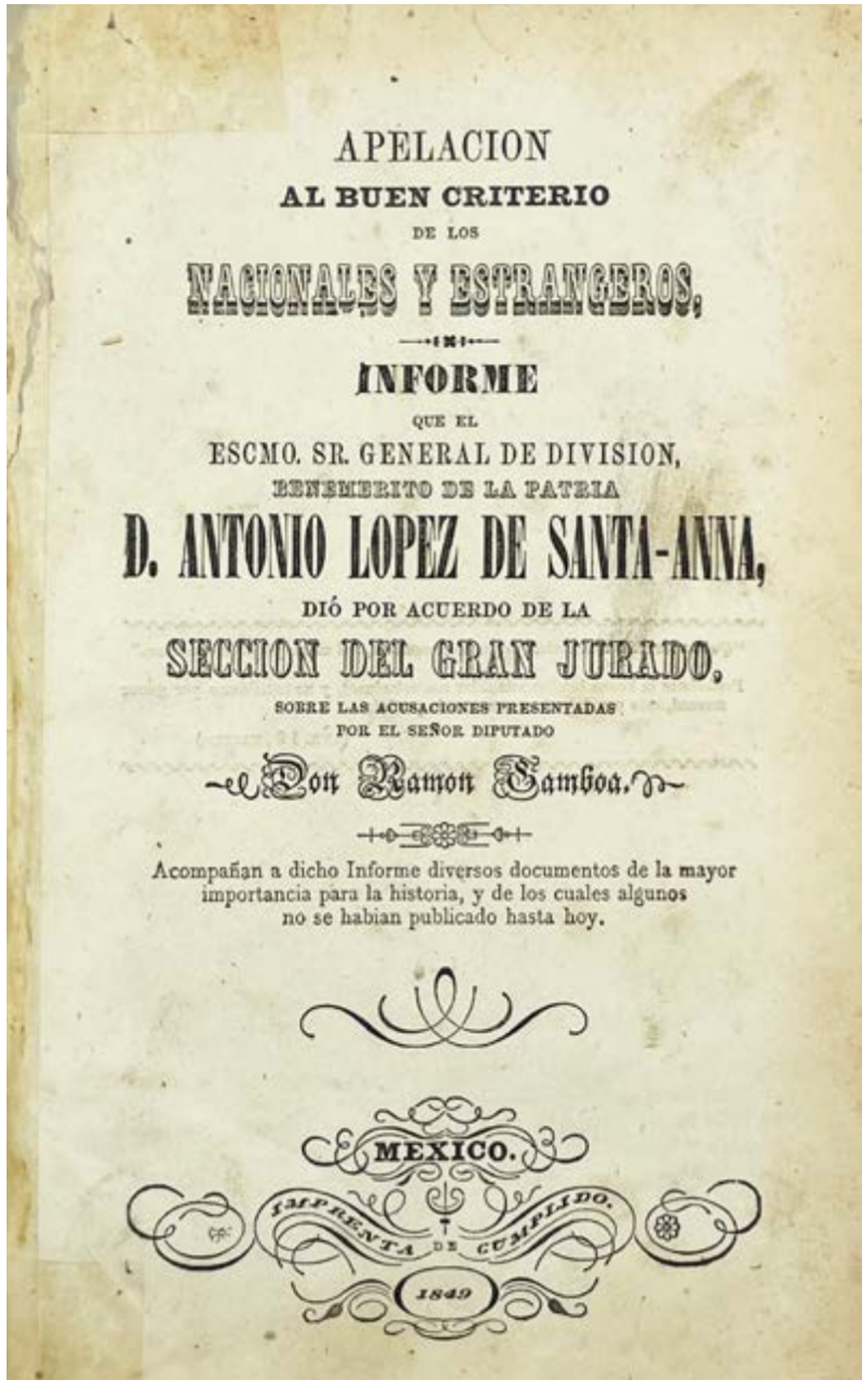
Apelación al buen criterio de los nacionales y estrangeros: informe que el Escmo. Sr. General de división, benemérito de la patria Antonio López de Santa-Ana, dió por acuerdo del gran jurado, sobre las acusaciones presentadas por el señor diputado Ramón Gamboa. / Acompañan á dicho informe diversos documentos de la mayor importancia para la historia, y de los cuales algunos no se habian publicado hasta hoy.

Mexico City: Imprenta de Cumplido, 1849.

8° (21 x 14 cm): viii, 71, 184 pp., bound in contemporary Mexican full calf with gilt tooling to spine and margins of covers, pastedown leather title compartment (Good, save for title leaf being partially torn along hinge and re-adhered with archival tape by previous owner, leaves of pp. 159 to 168 with small old stain to upper area, else clean with just the odd light spot; lovely binding with some wear to spine and some loss to title compartment and some light edge-wear).

Highly important – the charismatic and controversial former (and future) Mexican President Antonio López de Santa Anna's official and most detailed defense of his leadership when he oversaw the cession of Texas (1836) and the total defeat of this armies during the Mexican-American War (1846-8); the superficially persuasive but 'creative with the truth' narrative was written while Santa Anna was in exile in Jamaica, and largely seeks to pin blame for Mexico's defeats upon his supposedly disloyal or incompetent lieutenants while painting himself as an indefatigable warrior for his country, his arguments backed up by the full texts of 13 selectively chosen, but nevertheless highly important, documents not printed anywhere else; an anchor of Santa Anna's successful PR campaign that allowed him to briefly return to serve as President for a final time – rare.

Antonio López de Santa Anna was one of the most consequential and controversial figures in Mexican history. The President of Mexico for six terms intermittently from 1833 and 1855, the historian Enrique Krause described him as "the Man of Destiny who loomed over his time like a melodramatic colossus, the uncrowned monarch" (Enrique Krause, Mexico: Biography of Power, p. 88).


APELACION
AL BUEN CRITERIO
DE LOS
NACIONALES Y ESTRANGEROS,
INFORME
QUE EL
ESCMO. SR. GENERAL DE DIVISION,
BENEMERITO DE LA PATRIA
D. ANTONIO LOPEZ DE SANTA-ANNA,
DIÓ POR ACUERDO DE LA
SECCION DEL GRAN JURADO,
SOBRE LAS ACUSACIONES PRESENTADAS
POR EL SEÑOR DIPUTADO
Don Ramon Gamboa.
Acompañan a dicho Informe diversos documentos de la mayor importancia para la historia, y de los cuales algunos no se habian publicado hasta hoy.
MEXICO.
IMPRENTA DE CUMPLIDO.
1849

Santa Anna had many strengths; he was a hero of Mexican War of Independence; an incredibly charismatic leader with hundreds of thousands of ardent followers; and a very wily negotiator and diplomat. He was also a survivor, as no matter how hard or how many times he got knocked down, he immediately picked himself up and continued to fight for power. However, Santa Anna was astoundingly corrupt (even by contemporary Latin American standards), and one of the ineptest administrators and military field commanders in the world during the 19th century.

He is best known for presiding over Mexico when it suffered its worst historical tragedies. He failed to quell a rebellion in Texas that led to its succession in 1836, and during the Mexican-American War (1846-8), he allowed the American army to capture Mexico City, which led the country surrenderinf 529,000 square miles (1,370,000 km2) of land, over a third of its territory, to the United States at the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (February 2, 1848).

During the war, even before the Americans took Mexico City, the conduct of the Mexican Army under Santa Anna's command was at best shambolic, even tragicomical, as his forces lost battles that many considered 'unlosable'.

To many Mexicans, Santa Anna's incompetence amounted to treason, he having led his country to ruin, while to his many amazingly resilient followers, he was merely a victim of circumstances, an extraordinary leader let down by the mediocrity of his subordinates.

One of the fiercest and most memorable 'take downs' of Santa Anna was mounted less than three weeks before the fall of Mexico City. On August 27, 1847, Deputy Ramón Gamboa tabled before to Congress a series charges against Santa Anna, essentially equating his conduct of the war to treason. On November 15, 1847, Gamboa would submit a supplementary report, doubling down on the charges.

Gamboa's accusations hung like a dark cloud over Santa Anna as the Americans seized the capital during the Battle for Mexico City (September 8-15, 1847). This defeat forced Santa Anna to cede power and he was, in due course, forced into exile in Jamaica. From there, seemingly completely unbothered by having led his country to disaster, the former president plotted his return to power. Naturally, many powerful figures in Mexico were adamant that that should never happen.

The historian Hubert Howe Bancroft aptly summed up the former Mexican President's predicament:

"Santa Anna's late military efforts had failed, partly through the lack of morale among his troops; it had been beaten out of them by constant revolutions, or if not by these, certainly by their defeats in the northern campaign. But the blame falls also upon his own blunders and shortcomings, his uneven capacity and instability of purpose, manifested especially in the battle-field. He redeems himself, on the other hand, with many a diplomatic triumph, and shines with his energy, in rising indomitably after every disaster, in creating resources, forming armies, directing a number of admirable measures, and inspiring all around with zeal." (Bancroft, p. 533).

In 1848 and 1849, a PR war broke out in Mexico City, pitting Santa Anna and his amazingly supporters against his growing number of opponents. This contest manifested itself in dueling books, pamphlets, newspaper articles and speeches.

It was during this time that Ramón Gamboa revived his 1847 charges against Santa Anna, seeking to mortally wound the former president's reputation, such that he would not be able to return to reassume power.

Gamboa's well-reasoned and, frankly, convincing arguments were published as the Impugnación al informe del señor general Santa-Anna, y constancias en que se apoyan las ampliaciones de la acusación del Sr Diputado Gamboa (Mexico City: Imprenta de Vicente Garcia Torres, 1849). Please see this link to read this text:

https://books.google.de/books?id=g-MCAAAAYAAJ&printsec=frontcover&hl=de&source=gbs_ge_summary_r&cad=0#v=onepage&q&f=false

The Present Work in Focus

This is Santa Anna's official and most detailed defense of his leadership during the Texas Revolution (1835-6) and the Mexican-American War. While he issued other defenses of his conduct in various formats, this work is by far and away preeminent, as it is the most thorough and authoritative. It was written by Santa Anna while his he was still in exile, with his preface dated Kingston, Jamaica, February 1, 1849. It was intended to be a direct response to Gamboa's charges, submitted to the 'Gran Jurado' of the Mexican Congress that would consider the case and decide whether to ban the former president from holding public office for life.

The work consists of a lengthy thesis in which Santa Anna defends his actions, followed by the text of 13 documents that he carefully selected that paint him in a good light, being secret reports, decrees, generals' testimonials, diplomatic circulars, and battlefield notes. These documents are historically important, as many of them had never been otherwise printed.

As Bancroft wrote, in the Apelación, Santa Anna "…addressed the…defence of his conduct to the president of the grand jury in Mexico. In it he reviews his career from the commencement of his campaign in Texas down to his departure from Mexico, and endeavors to refute Gamboa's charges. He naturally repudiates the accusations of bad generalship and treachery, and enters into explanations of what he considered the causes of the disasters which attended the Mexican army. He supports his argument by a number of official documents, which occupy the last 184 pages of the Apelacion." (Bancroft, p. 553).

While Santa Anna, being a master of rhetoric, provides what are, at first glance, strong arguments, when one analyses his reasoning, his thesis begins to fall flat. The totally unrepentant and self-assured former president selectively chooses topics and evidence that favour him. When he raises an unavoidable subject that might likely make him look bad (ex. a major military defeat), he conveniently finds anyone but himself to blame, casting (often ridiculous) accusations against his former subordinates. The implication is that

DOCUMENTOS JUSTIFICATIVOS

A QUE SE REFIEREN LAS NOTAS

DEL ANTERIOR INFORME.

NUMERO 1.

(PÁGINAS 7 Y 8.)

"Para los gastos de esta campaña se puso á mi disposicion solamente un decreto ,,del congreso general, que autorizaba al gobierno á proporcionarme hasta quinientos ,,mil pesos, bajo las reglas que prescribia, y no fueron pocos mis apuros por este mo- ,,tivo. No es, pues, cierto que hubiera yo contado con otros recursos."

Secretaría de hacienda.—Seccion primera.—El Escmo. Sr. presidente interino de la república Mexicana se ha servido dirigirme el decreto que sigue:

El presidente interino de la república Mexicana, á los habitantes de ella, sabed: que el congreso general ha decretado lo siguiente:

"Se faculta al gobierno para que se proporcione hasta la cantidad de quinientos mil pesos, precisamente en numerario, y del modo ménos oneroso, destinándola esclusivamente á las atenciones de la guerra.—*José M. del Castillo*, presidente.—*José de Jesus D. y Prieto*, secretario.—*José Rafael Olaguíbel*, secretario."

Por tanto, mando se imprima, publique, circule y se le dé el debido cumplimiento. Palacio nacional de México á 23 de Noviembre de 1835.—Comunícolo á V. para su inteligencia y efectos correspondientes.

Dios y libertad. México, Noviembre 23 de 1835.—*Vallejo.*



MINISTERIO DE GUERRA Y MARINA.

ESTADO que manifiesta la fuerza disponible, la destinada y el total de toda la que ecsiste en los Estados que se citan.

ESTADOS.	SRES. COMANDANTES GENERALES GEFES DE LAS ARMAS.	Disponible.				Destinada.				Total de fuerza.			
		GENERALES.	GEFES.	OFICIALES	TROPA.	GENERALES.	GEFES.	OFICIALES	TROPA.	GENERALES.	GEFES.	OFICIALES	TROPA.
Veracruz.	Sr. general D. Matías Peña y Barragan	2	19	36	249	....	„	„	...	2	19	36	249
Chiapas.	Sr. general graduado D. Santiago Rodriguez	„	2	14	110	....	1	11	117	„	3	25	287
Oajaca.	Teniente coronel D. José María Castellanos	„	8	49	657	....	„	„	...	„	8	49	657
Puebla.	Sr. general de brigada D. Antonio Gaona.	1	4	10	116	....	„	„	...	1	4	10	116
S. Luis Potosí.	Sr. general graduado D. José María Ortega	1	26	91	823	....	„	„	...	1	26	91	823
Jalisco.	Sr. general graduado D. José María Yañez	„	10	58	377	....	„	1	52	„	10	59	439
Querétaro.	E. S. gral. D. Vicente Filisola, gefe del ejército de operaciones.	2	52	221	2683	....	3	59	249	2	55	280	2932
Zacatecas.	Sr. general de brigada D. Agustin de Bustillos.	1	6	7	59	....	„	„	...	1	6	7	59
Michoacán.	Sr. general de brigada D. Manuel Rodriguez de Cela	1	11	59	130	....	4	18	513	1	15	77	643
Durango.	Sr. general de brigada D. José Urrea.	3	5	5	59	....	2	7	125	3	7	12	184
Chihuahua.	Sr. general graduado D. Angel Trias.	„	7	28	240	....	1	13	199	„	8	41	439
México.	Sr. gral. D. Benito Quijano y E. S. D. J. Alvarez, en gefe del Sur.	2	34	136	1282	....	„	„	...	2	34	136	1282
	Total de la fuerza permanente y activa.	13	184	714	6785	....	11	109	1315	13	195	823	8109

Querétaro, Noviembre 19 *de* 1847.

Es copia. México, Marzo 30 *de* 1849.

9. CURAÇAO – HISTORY
CURAÇAO IMPRINT

Antoine Theodoor BRUSSE (1833 - 1895).

Curaçao en zijne bewoners door A.T. Brusse.

[Willemstad,] Curaçao: Internationale drukkerij, 1882.

8° (22.5 x 15 cm): 1 p., ii, 172 pp., [3 pp.], bound in modern olive coloured cloth with gilt title to spine (Very Good, wide margined example, overall clean with just a few light spots to early and final leaves, traces of original wrappers to title, minor and subtle repairs with archival tape to outer blank margins and hinges to first two leaves).

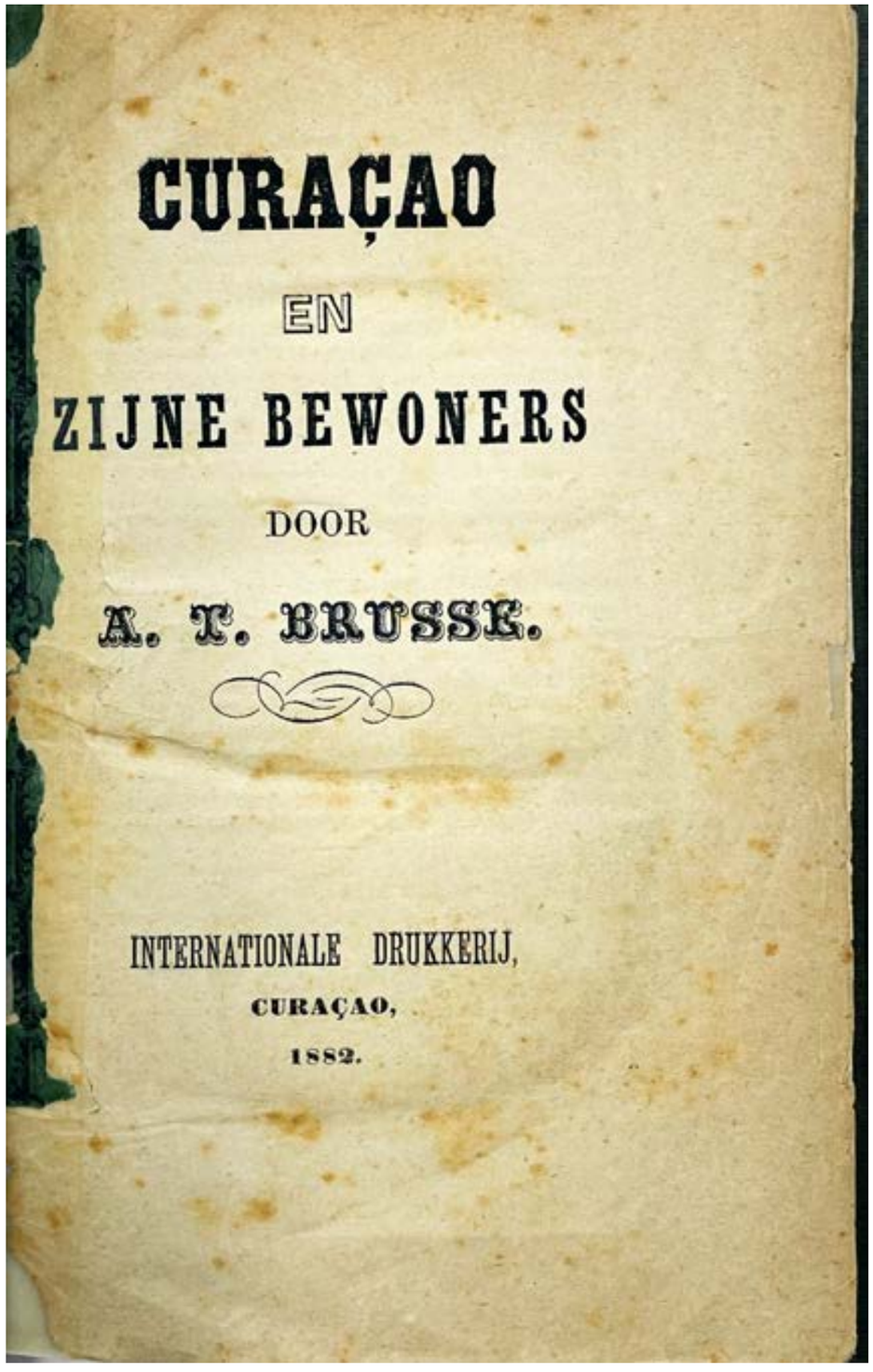
Very rare – an important and early description and history of Curaçao considered today to be an authoritative source on the island, written by Antoine Brusse, a Willemstad schoolmaster, it provides a fascinating 'insider's account' of the current state of the island, including many entertaining vignettes, as well as information on Curaçao's past, including accounts of slave revolts and Emancipation, the Jewish community, local print culture, military invasions, privateers and Latin American dictators – published in Curaçao by the Internationale drukkerij.

Curaçao is an island of 444 sq. km, located just a short distance off the Venezuelan coast, and was taken over by the Netherlands (via their West India Company, the 'WIC') in 1634, whereupon its main city, Willemstad, became the capital of the Netherlands Antilles (Nederlandse Antillen). Curaçao was a freeport, and for much of the 17th and 18th centuries, it thrived as one of the New World's premier trading hubs (including for slaves), where the authorities often turned a blind eye to smuggling and piracy (in foreign waters). It was also a place of refuge for many Latin American dissidents and luminaries, such as Simón Bolívar.

Curaçao came to possess amazing demographic diversity and cultural richness. It was home to many different peoples from Europe, Africa and Latin America, and its Jewish population was one of the largest and most vibrant in the Western Hemisphere. On the island there also developed a unique patois language, Papiamento, still spoken by a majority of Curaçaons. The island's history is especially fascinating, as it included many dramatic incidents with an international resonance.

The Present Work in Focus

This is an important and early description and history of Curaçao, written by the Willemstad schoolmaster Antoine Brusse, who married into a prominent island family. An



engaging 'insider's account', it includes many vignettes and statistics gained from local knowledge not found anywhere else, while his account of the island's history includes many intriguing accounts of momentous events that have an international resonance. The book, printed in Willemstad by the Internationale drukkerij, is one of the most significant works published in Curaçao during its era, while all 19th imprints from the island are today great rarities.

Following the author's brief preface, the work commences with the a 'Short Geographical Description' of Curaçao (pp. 1-53), featuring a large section focusing upon the capital, Willemstad, which is said to then have 8,000 residents. Noted is the establishment of the new Jewish synagogue in 1730 (p. 34), as well as a discussion of the island's printing establishments and their history, from the time that the first press was introduced in 1812 (p. 35-6). Brusse notes that the publisher of the present work, the Internationale drukkerij, was established in 1871 for the purpose of publishing a Papiamento newspaper.

The main section of the work is the 'Overview of the History of Curaçao' (pp. 54 – 172), which engagingly recounts fascinating events, including many stories that seem to come from local knowledge or lore, not just taken out of published works. It commences with the story of Columbus's discovery of the island in 1499 and the following period under Spanish rule, although Curaçao was scarcely settled, largely the domain of smugglers and brigands (pp. 58-70). It then moves on to discuss the seizure of the island by the Dutch WIC in 1634 (p. 71), and their decision to invite Sephardic Jews to settle on the island in 1659, creating one of the greatest Jewish communities in the Americas (p. 76). Brusse also covers the unsuccessful French attempts to capture the island in the 1670s (pp. 78 – 80).
In the 18th century, great attention is given to Curaçao's role during the American Revolutionary War (1775-83), when the island was a major base for privateers and traders seeking to break the British blockade of the coasts of the Thirteen Colonies (the Netherlands supported the U.S.), bringing tremendous wealth to the island. (pp. 86 - 90).

Brusse provides a valuable account of the 1795 Curaçao Slave Revolt, which was brutally put down by the Dutch authorities (pp. 92-99).

Next, is the coverage of the Napoleonic Wars, which were very traumatic for the islands (pp. 99 - 119). France made the Dutch Republic a client state in 1795 and took it over completely in 1806. In 1807, Curaçao was invaded and occupied by Britain; the island was returned to the Netherlands in 1815. Brusse gives an account the activities of Luis Brión (1782 -1821), a native of Curaçao, who became a leading lieutenant to Simón Bolívar (who briefly took refuge in Curaçao in 1812), and who rose to become an Admiral of Gran Colombia, and is regarded as a national hero in Venezuela.

Importantly, Brusse provides a recollection of an event he eyewitnessed, being the emancipation of Curaçao's slaves, although his condescension towards people of African decent is evident. He recalls the day on "July 1, 1863, when 50,000 slaves [across the Dutch Empire] were set free. The motherland weaved itself through the emancipation of these unfortunates, an unfading wreath of glory, the more so as it compensated the slaveholders. The momentous event took place without the slaves being prepared to act as free citizens; [but since] …their behaviour and law-abiding, proved that they were not without reason regarded as much more civilized than their brethren in Surname" (p. 136).

Next, there is an account of some curious political intrigue that centred upon Willemstad's Aspinwall and American Hotels (pp. 146-50).

In 1881, Venezuelan President Antonio Guzmán Blanco, known as the 'Illustrious American', sent agents to Curaçao to gather the body of Luis Brión, and take it to Caracas to be interred in Venezuela's Panteón Nacional. However, the following year (right before the present work was printed), he (spurriously) accused Curaçao's government of aiding rebels in Venezuela and, in retaliation, imposed a trade embargo upon the island, which severely harmed the local economy (pp. 170-1).

The Appendix features some interesting facts, including that Curaçao's population at the end of 1881 was recorded as being 24,596, of which 21,912 were Roman Catholics, 1,692 were Dutch Reformed and 897 were Jews. It is also notes that in 1865, there was schism within Curaçao's Jewish community and that 86 of the synagogue's congregation had left form their own minion.

Antoine Theodoor Brusse: Chronicler of Curaçao

Antoine Theodoor Brusse (1833 – 1895), a native of Amsterdam, was educated in Protestant theology and worked as teacher. He immigrated to Curaçao in 1837, following in the wake of his older bother, Hermanus, who was already settled there. He soon married Elizabeth Hoyer, the daughter a wealthy planter from an old local slave-owning family. This gave Brusse a level of financial security and status, and in 1862 he opened a private school, which he ran until 1879. He adhered to a very rigid, conservative interpretation of Calvinism, and was not particularly sympathetic to the plight of Black Curaçaons, whether they be enslaved or free, and this occasionally comes out in his work.

Brusse's passion was the history of Curaçao, and the present work was his magnum opus. As a very well-connected member of the Willemstad community, he had access to unrivalled sources, as well as being able to interview protagonists of recent events. Also, Brusse was himself an eyewitness to many momentous occurrences, including the end of slavery (1864-73) and the melodrama surrounding Guzmán Blanco's embargo of Curaçao.
Brusse's work remains a critically important source, especially on Curaçao during the 19th century history, being reprinted in 1969 (Amsterdam: S. Emmering).

A Note on Rarity

Like all 19th century Curaçao imprints, which tended to be produced in only very small print runs, the present work is very rare. Unfortunately, the online catalogues seem to convolute listings for the original 1882 edition with those for the 1969 reprint and electronic copies such that ascertaining the number of true examples is a fool's errand. However, there seems to be in the ballpark of half a dozen or so institutional examples. We can trace only a single sales record for another example, having been offered at Dutch auction in 2014.

References: Library of Congress: F2049 .B91.; University of Leiden Library: 156 D 32; OCLC: 9483532260, 558593383; Pepijn BRANDON, Guno JONES, Nancy JOUWE and Matthias van ROSSUM (eds.), De slavernij in Oost en West: Het Amsterdam-onderzoek (2020), n.p.; W.E. RENKEMA, Een Leven in de West; Van Raders en Zijn Werkzaamheden Op Curacao (2009), p. 557.

1.400 EUR

10. FEMALE AUTHORS
ORIGINAL MANUSCRIPT TRAVELOGUE

Anonymous (Possibly Miss ? MOUBRAY)

Journal of a Seven Week's Tour. Vol I

[S. l., S. d., but probaby Cockairnie, Scotland: late 1840s]

[and:]

Les Chroniques du Forth, ou Souvenirs anciens et modernes des Français en Ecosse.

Cockairnie, Scotland: 1850

2 volumes, both 4°. Vol. 1: [316 pp.] manuscript in English in blue and black ink and pencil, with contemporary corrections by the author, on light blue paper. Vol 2: [427 pp. manuscript in French in blue and black ink with contemporary corrections by the author, [8 pp.] blank. Both volumes together with circa 75 xylographs, 151 steel engravings, 10 coloured plates representing costumes, 7 lithographs, 8 ink drawings, 1 water colour, 1 pencil drawing and one map. Contemporary brown calf with gilt-decorated spines and covers (bindings slightly rubbed and scuffed on the corners, volume 1: later pencil transcription of sporadic words, sporadic hardly noticeable staining, volume 2: hinges in front endpapers cracked and re-paired, last part of the book with small brown stains in lower margin and larger on the rear end papers, overall in a good condition).

Inserted a letter on blue paper with a monogram [4 pp.] addressed to Miss Moubray from Al. Stockwell and dated September 19. Hand written visiting card "Madame L'Eveque, 7 Belgrave Cresct.".

A pair of manuscripts by a female author, describing her travel to Europe and monuments of Scotland, accompanied with over 250 images

The first volume, titled *Journal of a Seven Week's Tour* describes the author's travel from Edinburgh through Glasgow, Liverpool, Birmingham, London and Brighton to the port of Dieppe and then through Rouen to Paris, starting on May 12, 1845.

The text, accompanied with dozens images, describes the travel, people and friends met on the way, history, monuments, stories connected to monuments, includes passages from other works, quotes, poems etc.



Londonnier pour tout le pays latin d'Edimbourg. C'est à Rien pour tous les Hospitaux Collèges etc que nous proposons en Mariage Royal en un Registre Office

" Il est vous manque que des Couvents pour que cela dépende parfaitement du pays de la Sorbonne dit Mr Ligo

" Nous avons en outre pour ici, dit Mr de Lacy deux Monastères l'un de Bénédictins Sœurs de plus pour - Un Collège de Prêtres et une Église Collégiale - Voilà l'Église des prêtres pour Église appelée Sainte Marie Grey friars Church - Il y a plus encore tombeaux et Monuments Sépulcraux qui sont assez curieux - Buchanan - historien Écossais et précepteur de Jacques VI est enterré dans la Cimetière - Voilà Hôpital des Orphelins et plus loin plusieurs autres qui sont Moins beaux - A propos de Couvents nous en avons un magnifique à Edimbourg [illegible] Reste du temps que Charles X fut en Exil

" Qui en a fait probablement fermé la première prière " dit Mr Ligo

Cela lui Ecosse Hérétique dit Mr de Lacy mais je ne sais pas s'il en fait

" Comment Monsieur dans le Cimetière demande Mr Ligo

C'est le Couvent de Ste Marguerite ~~Reine de Ecosse~~ Il était qui nous [illegible] Mr Ligo

Mais de loin ici nous voulez le nous c'est un joli Promenade à travers les Prairies

La Proposition fut bien accueillie et le tiers prit le Chemin du Couvent

" Toutes les filles de Ste Marguerite sont elles Orphelines ? demande Mr Ligo -

" Non Certaines elles sont pensionnaires répondit Mr de Lacy Il y eut [illegible] depuis

proposé que [illegible] Professeurs dans le Couvent et encore bien d'elles [illegible] proposé dans son

Couvent en Savoie [illegible] Il y a

Maintenant que deux Professeurs à Ste Marguerite sont bien, étant riche depuis très

les biens à la Couvent en quittant la vie du Monde - C'est la règle de cette institution

d'Instituts de les jeunes personnes riches bien à offrir à son couvent, qui les reçoit et je ne

sais pas encore si elle l'a donné en entier; Au reste l'histoire de cette dernière est

assez intéressante, seulement pour vous la conter il me faudra puiser en Couleurs peu

agréables sur de vos compatriotes - Ce qui ne serait pas poli de ma part. "

" Dites toujours Mons Abbé Nous vous pardonnerons de notre bois lorsqu'il sera

Mr Ligo Nous vous promettons tous les torts que vous jugerez à propos.

" Il sujet de plus que de bien " mauvais torts dit Mr de Lacy - Nous leur obligeons encore

de la Religion -

" Espérons vous dont Monsieur, dit Mr Ligo que dans la Religion nous tout à fait -

Souriant alors les auditeurs sont bien Mais d'ennuis, Mr de Lacy reprit la parole

et leur conta l'histoire suivante - " C'est un peu long cependant " pardon Mr

de Lacy - Mais on voit les pauvres "

Ces paroles intéressent tellement Mr Ligo que si Mr ne retire à bord il ne saurait l'écrit

[illegible] dépendance d'après sa Conte - Quelques pauvres [illegible]

[illegible] Les saints privilèges en restent tout Comme les racontes Mr de Lacy

[illegible] puis, que dans la famille de Clarence [illegible] par Shakespeare

[illegible] notre narrateur



[Heriot's Hospital, from the Castle Hill, Edinburgh.]

Mr de Lacy en cette fait un récit dont les détails sont [illegible] exactement amplifiés et

[illegible] tellement supportés, il est probable que les auditeurs auront [illegible]

The author, who is not named, is according to the context most probably a woman. The introduction is written for her mother, who is at the time at the coastal resort of Burntisland, and who told the author to take detailed notes of the trip, which are presented in this work.

It appears that the work, was written for educational and entertaining purposes, possibly to illustrate the voyage to the mother, mentioned in the introduction. The author travelled with one or more companions, only mentioned as “we”.

This is volume one only, covering the trip to Paris, and it is unclear, if the sequels, describing all seven weeks of the tour, were ever written. The beginning of the text describes a planned larger tour around the continent.

The second volume is written in French language and describes various cities in Scotland with first-hand accounts from the travels, historical facts and passages from other literature.

Both volumes are accompanied with circa 250 mounted images of described places, executed in various printing techniques as well as per hand and are bound in decorative bindings, ornated with gold tooling.

Authorship

Later annotations in pencil on the front endpapers of the first volume wrongly attribute the manuscript to an author and amateur painter Elizabeth Frances Batty (1791-1875), who wrote at the time popular a book Italian Scenery, published in 1820. The author of our manuscript could not be Batty, by the time already Mrs. Martinaeu, for various reasons, starting with the first text page, where the author mentions her mother staying at the coastal resort of Burntisland in Scotland. By 1845, Elizabeth Frances Batty’s mother was deceased for several years.

The author of the manuscripts could be more likely located to Scotland, more precisely to a family Moubray of Cockairnie. Cockairnie, a charming cottage overlooking the Otterston Loch, on the Fife coast, is referred to in the books at least twice. On the first text page, the author mentions their returning to “our dear circle at Cockairnie” after her trip and the name repeats on the last page of the second manuscript as the location, where the work was finished in 1850. From that we can conclude, that the writer lived at the cottage.

Cockairnie belonged to the Moubray family from 1511 until the early 1970s.

The fact, that the author was a lady from the above mentioned family, also confirms a letter, inserted into the manuscript and addressed to one Miss Moubray.

The voyage undertaken in 1845 and the second manuscript, dated 1850 at Cockairnie, could be attributed to one of the daughters of Lieut.-col. Sir Robert Moubray (1774 - 1848) and Laura Moubray, née Hobson, the owners of the cottage at the time. The Moubrays



had seven daughters: Ann (1812–1886), Jane Laura (1814–1883), Adeline Frances (1817–1855), Matilda (1820–?), Emily (1822–1886), Ellen (1827–1894) and Clara (1830- 1871).

Our search can be narrowed down to the sisters, who were by 1850 possibly still unmarried and living at the estate. There are no records about Matilda (born 1820), nor any information if she lived to her adulthood. Ann, Jane Laura and Ellen Moubray all died in their seventies, probably unmarried, and could have authored the manuscript.

We could gather most information on the youngest and most adventurous of the sisters, Clara Moubray, who could have undertaken the first journey at the age of 15 and completed the manuscripts in her twentieth year. In 1852, Clara married David Henry Lee at Cockairnie and by 1853 they already lived in Calcutta, where she, as a wife of a tea planter, gave birth to John Henry Alexander Lee (1853-1927), who later worked as a surveyor in Australia. In 1869, widowed Clara was back in the United Kingdom, marrying Dr Cuthbert Collingwood (1826-1908), a medical doctor, marine zoologist, professor and author, known for his correspondence with Charles Darwin. Clara passed on only two years after the marriage, aged 40 or 41.

A detailed analyses of the textwould probably help identifying the author among the sisters.

3.600 EUR



In the inside of the prison were found the most horrible instruments of torture & an iron cage 12 feet in height. With the skeleton of a man in it. Among the prisoners released were - Major White a Scotsman Lord Mayo[illegible] an Irishman & the Comte de Solages. The first appeared to have his intellectual faculties totally impaired & had forgotten the use of speech. Lord Mayo[illegible] on his arrival at the British shore eagerly sprang out of the boat, fell on his knees & kissed the enthusiasm of the moment fell overcame him & he exclaimed "God bless this land of liberty!" - The Comte de Solages had arrived at a very advanced period of life & was exhibited to the public in the Palais Royal, after his liberation his dejected pale countenance, his white beard reaching to his waist & a total insensibility, caused by his long imprisonment were well calculated to operate upon the minds of a people struggling to reject oppression & raise the standard of liberty in their country. "It is indeed impossible not to participate in the exultation which a capital & country so long oppressed must have experienced in the destruction of this justly dreaded & hateful fortress -

With the Bastille expired the tyranny of the French princes their long subsistence upon the people & their arbitrary power seemed to tender unapproachable & which neither the calamities of the long reign of Louis XIV the enormities & profligacy of the succeeding regency & reign of Louis XV had even shaken. That power which had it been directed to the true welfare of the country would ever have been venerated by a loyal & affectionate people, by abuse of the confidence so freely granted by those qualities in the subject, fell forever in the dust."

* Sultrin.

In the year 1793

[illegible] a Statue of Liberty was many months with pomp & prayers in the place where the Bastille stood & at the same time the Statue of Liberty was set up in the Place de la Revolution & over the door was placed a Statue of "Heureux Peuple" with uplifted arm Conquering Chains on the tomb-stones fluttered little tricoloured flags & Liberty caps. The Jews had commenced & the new Revolutionary Calendar was published for the 1st year of the Republic - the year 1793 "



[Design for the Fountain of the Elephant at Paris.]

* Antiquity

11. SINGAPORE / MALAYSIA
INDONESIA – SOUTH CHINA SEA
SINGAPORE STRAITS

Heinrich Karl Wilhelm BERGHAUS (1797 - 1884).

Reduzirte Karte vom Chinesischen Meere / 1.stes oder Südliches Blatt.

Gotha: Justus Perthes, 1835.

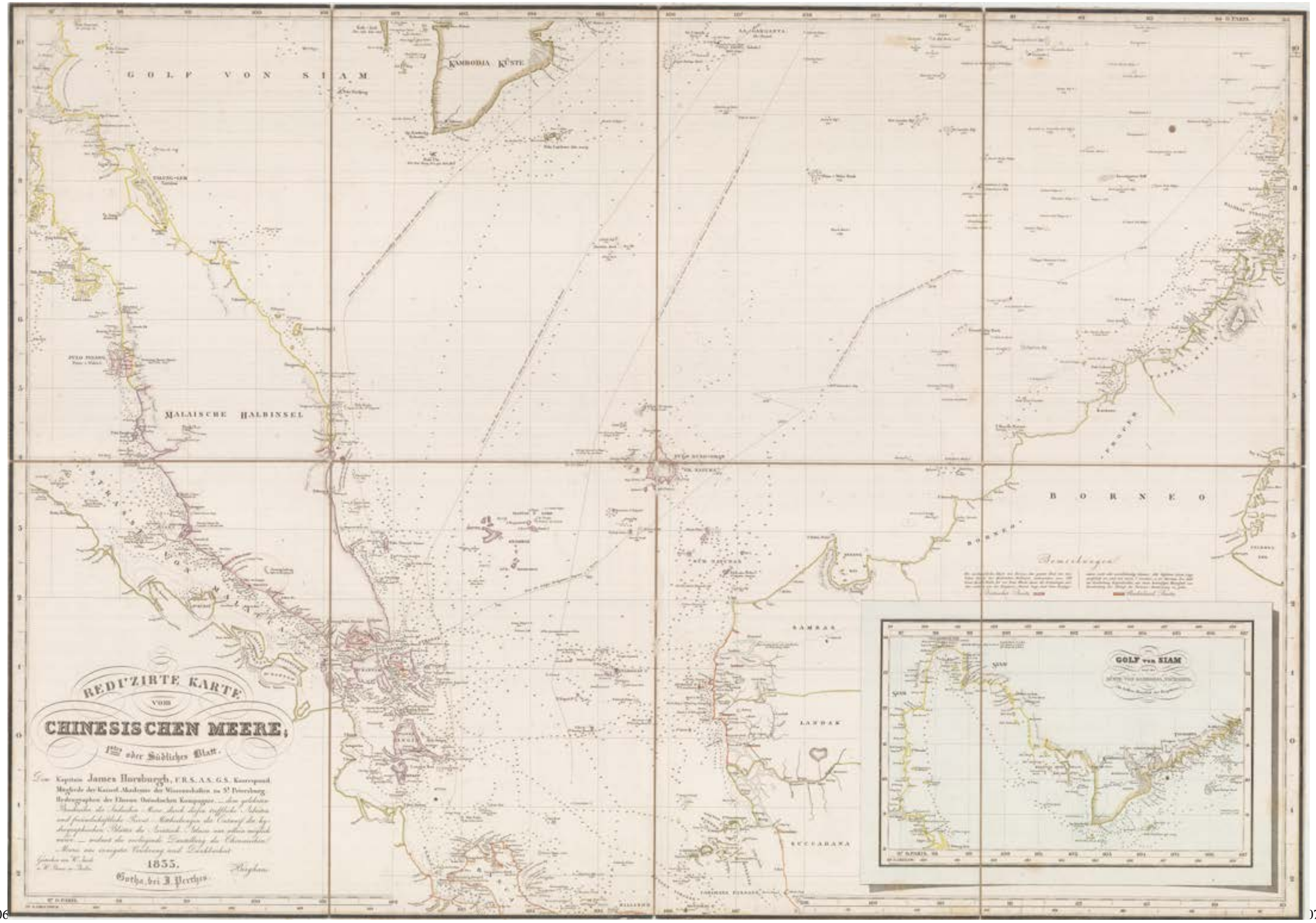
Lithograph with original outline hand colour, dissected into 8 sections and mounted upon contemporary grey linen, trimmed to outer edge of neatline excising some imprint information, period pastedown mss. label to verso (Very Good, overall clean and bright, lovely original colours, just a few minor spots, some wear along folds of linen backing with some short partial separations), 62.5 x 89 cm (24.5 x 35 inches).

A stellar sea chart of the Singapore Straits-South China Sea nexus, created by the eminent German cartographer Heinrich Karl Wilhelm Berghaus, with resplendent original outline hand colour, predicated upon excellent sources, it embraces all of Malaya, the Singapore Straits, the north coast of Borneo and the lower half of the South China Sea up to the southern tip of Vietnam; published in Gotha by the venerable map house of Justus Perthes – very rare on the market.

This is one of the most attractive and engaging 19th century sea charts of the Singapore Straits-South China Sea nexus, for millennia one of the world's greatest maritime travel corridors, connecting the Indian Ocean with the Far East. It was made by the esteemed cartographer Heinrich Karl Wilhelm Berghaus, and was published by the preeminent German map house of Justus Perthes of Gotha, Saxony (founded 1785).

The chart embraces a grand scope, taking in the entire southern half of the South China Sea and adjacent regions. The entire 'Malaische Halbinsel' (Malay Peninsula) appears on the left-hand side (noting the locations of the British trading bases of Singapore, founded 1819; and Georgetown, founded 1786), while the 'Strasse von Malacca' (Strait of Malacca) appear to its left, beyond which is Sumatra. The 'Singapore Strasse' (Singapore Straits), the main nexus of trade and cross-cultural exchange between Europe, India and the Far East is shown in great detail, while the expanse of the South China Sea (dotted with countless islands and treacherous shallows) opens up, with Borneo to the southeast and the 'Kambodja Küste' ('Cambodia Coast', but actually the southern tip of Cohinchina, or southern Vietnam) at the top.

The chart features copious hydrographic information, including the locations of banks, reefs, and hazards, along with innumerable bathymetric soundings within the straits, inshore waters and along marked shipping routes.


GOLF VON SIAM
KAMBODIA KÜSTE
MALAISCHE HALBINSEL
BORNEO
REDUZIRTE KARTE
VOM
CHINESISCHEN MEERE;
1ster oder Südlicher Blatt.
Von Kapitän James Horsburgh, F.R.S. A.S. G.S. Korrespond. Mitglede der Kaiserl. Akademie der Wissenschaften zu St. Petersburg Herausgegeben der Ehinesischen Ostindischen Kompagnie
1835.
Gotha, bei J. Perthes.
LAMBAK
SUCCADANA
GOLF von SIAM

The chart labels several standard seasonal shipping routes, which were critical to follow, as the monsoons would bar passage to any vessels that did not respect tried-and-true courses. Of note, the chart depicts the route of Captain Timins of the British EIC ship Bridgewater, as it negotiated the monsoons to travel from the Singapore Straits to Canton, China.

Unlike most contemporary sea charts, and in the 'Gotha Style' of the Perthes map house, the present chart features lovely original wash hand colour, which codes the political state of play. As explained in the 'Bemerkungen' (Remarks), on the right, areas outlined in pink = British colonial possessions (namely Singapore, Malacca and Georgetown in Malaya) and places outlined in brown = Dutch colonial possessions (namely Banka and parts of Sumatra and Borneo), while areas outlined in other colours are still controlled by indigenous rulers (ex. Siam = yellow, Vietnam = green, the various Malay states = blue-grey).

The inset, in the lower right corner, comes in the form of a trompe l'oeil, seemingly as if it was a separate map thrown over the main chart, and is entitled 'Golf von Siam und die Küste on Kambodja, Tschampa. Im halben Maassstab der Hauptkarte', depicting the Gulf of Thailand area up to Bangkok, done to half the scale of the main chart.

As best as we can tell, the present chart does not seem to be derived from any one map, but a carefully chosen mélange of sources. These were obviously very good ones, as in the dedication, located below the title, Berghaus reveals that James Horsburgh (1762 - 1836), the Hydrographer of the British East India Company, and the world's foremost international authority on the maritime mapping of Asia, assisted Berghaus in creating the present chart, by corresponding with him and reviewing his drafts. Indeed, in several parts of the chart, one can see Horsburgh's influence, although other areas seem to be inspired by the works of others.

The dedication reads:

Dem Kapitain James Horsburgh, F.R.S., A.S., G.S., Korrespond. Mitgliede der Kaiserl. Akademie der Wissenschaften zu St. Petersburg, Hydrographen der Ehrenw. Ostindischen Kompagnie, - dem gelehrten Beschreiber der Indischen Meere, durch dessen treffliche Arbeiten und freündschaftliche Privat-Mittheilungen der Entwurf der hydrographischen Blatter des Asiatisch Atlases nur allein möglich wurde, - widmet die vorliegende Darstellung des Chinesischen Meeres aus innigster Verehrung und Dankbarkeit. H Berghaus

[To Captain James Horsburgh, F.R.S., A.S., G.S., Corresponding Member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences in St. Petersburg, Hydrographer of the Hon. East India Company, - the learned descriptor of the Indian Seas, through whose excellent work and friendly private communications the draft of the hydrographic sheets of the Asiatic Atlases was only possible, - dedicates the present depiction of the China Sea out of deepest admiration and gratitude. H Berghaus].

The present map was separately-issued as a stand-alone publication. However, it was intended to be Map no. 14 of Berghaus's envisaged Atlas von Asia (1832-43). However, the Atlas von Asia was not an atlas in the conventional sense, as all the maps were issued separately in Gotha by Justus Perthes over a period of 11 years. The project was never completed as not all the planned 19 maps were published (the intended maps nos. 1, 3, 4 and 18 were never issued), although from 1843 onwards groupings of the 15 realised maps were sometimes bound together to form an improvised atlas. Despite the very high quality of the series' maps, and while Berghaus was a financially successful cartographer, for unknown reasons, all the Atlas von Asia maps were issued in only very limited print runs and are all today quite scarce.

The present map corresponds to Reduzirte Karte vom Chinesischen Meere / 2tes Blatt den Nördlichen Theil (Gotha: Justus Perthes, 1832), being Map no. 15 of the atlas, which showcases the northern half of the South China Sea; however, the two map were issued 3 years apart and are often not found together.

Heinrich Karl Wilhelm Berghaus (1797 - 1884) was a towering figure in German cartography. Trained as a military surveyor during the Napoleonic Wars, he subsequently worked on the Prussian trigonometrical survey. In the late 1820s, he formed a geographical school in Potsdam that served as a salon for Prussia's greatest geographers and a workshop for drafting ground-breaking maps and topographic publications. Berghaus was a scientifically minded cartographer, and he was always committed to employing only the best empirical sources, as well as being a pioneer of thematic cartography. His innumerable works included the Physikalischer Atlas (Gotha, 1838–1848), Allgemeine Länder- und Völkerkunde (Stuttgart, 1837–1840), Grundriss der Geographie in fünf Büchern (Berlin, 1842), Die Völker des Erdballs (Leipzig, 1845–1847), Was man von der Erde weiß (Berlin, 1856–1860), and the Briefwechsel mit Alexander von Humboldt (Leipzig, 1863).

A Note on Rarity

The present map was issued in only a limited print run, and while we can trace around a dozen separate institutional examples (seemingly all in the European libraries, most of which had contemporary subscriptions to Justus Perthes publications), with a few more recorded bound within examples of the unfinished Atlas von Asia, the map is very rare on the market; we can trace only 2 sales records from the last 30 years, the most recent of which is from 2009.

References: Bayerische Staatsbibliothek: Hbks/F 121 a; Württembergische Landesbibliothek, Stuttgart (2 examples): 1Cg/1128 and 1Cg/827.; Niedersächsische Staats- und Universitätsbibliothek (Göttingen): MAPP 1299:14; British Library: Cartographic Items Maps 143.e.10.; Royal Danish Library: KBK 1611-1-1835/1 x-2012/20; Universitätbibliothek Wien: AC04126042; Universiteitsbibliotheek Utrecht: KAART: Ackersdijck 869 (Dk27-19); OCLC: 165176491, 1225585184, 760244337, 556906324; P.L. PHILLIPS, A List of Geographical Atlases in the Library of Congress, vol. 1 (Washington, DC, 1909), p. 1174.

2.800 EUR

12. RUSSIAN INVASION OF BRANDENBURG BATTLE OF ZORNDORF (1758) – THE RUSSIAN PERSPECTIVE

Anon.

Карта положение медь между Город б. ландсберхомъ.
[Map of the position between the city of Landsberg…]

[Probably Brandenburg, 1758].

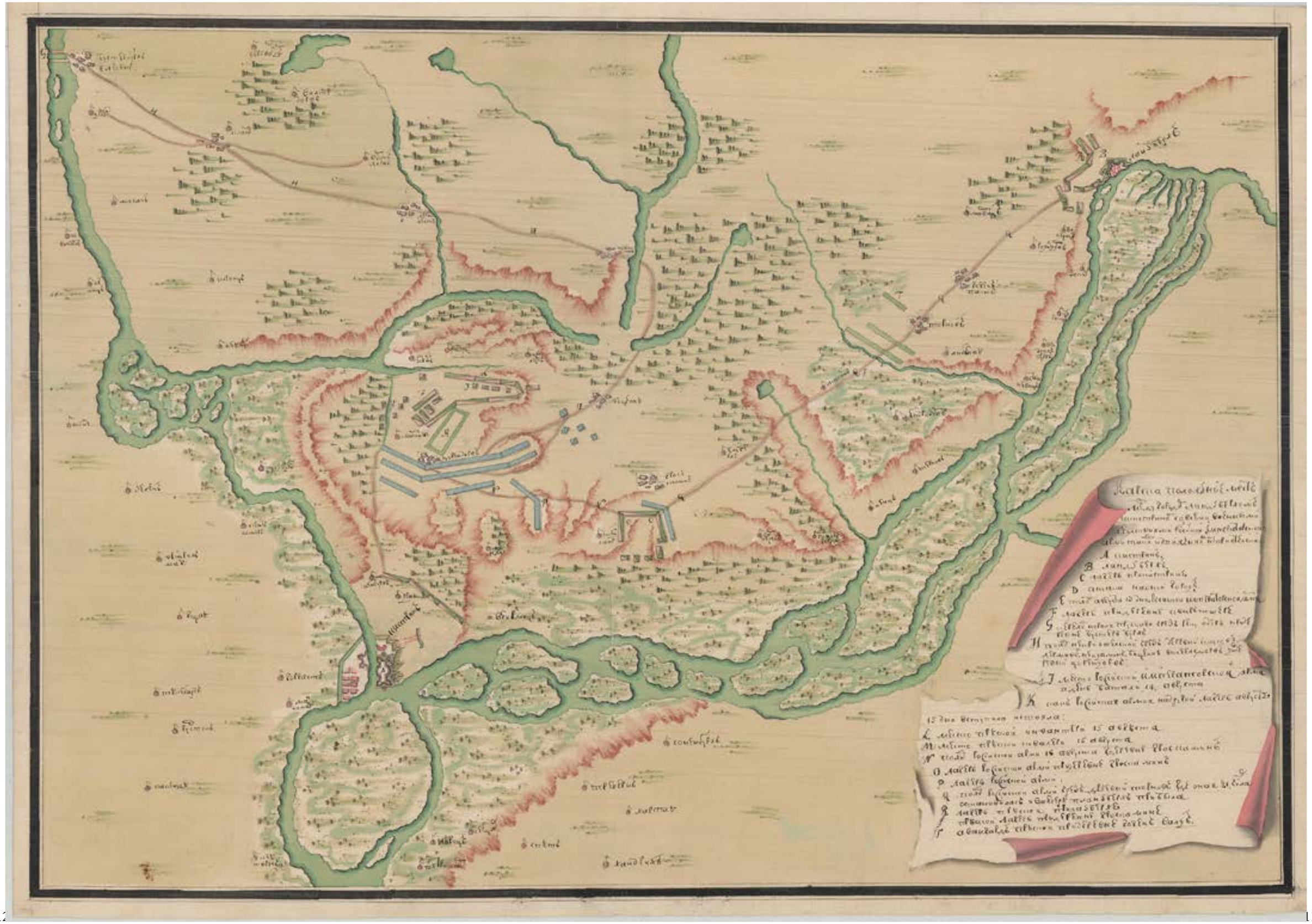
Manuscript, pen and ink and watercolour and wash on fine laid paper bearing a watermark of fleur-de-lys within a shield surmounted by a crown (Excellent condition, clean and bright, with lovely colours), 37 x 53 cm.

An exquisitely rendered Russian manuscript map of the Battle of Zorndorf (August 25, 1758), a critical showdown of the Seven Years' War, and one of the most ferocious altercations of the entire conflict, during which Frederick the Great's forces narrowly prevented the Russians from marching upon Berlin; in beautiful bright hues of watercolour and wash, and with all text in cursive Russian Cyrillic, the map depicts the crucial Landsberg-Küstrin corridor, noting major bastions and the Prussian and Russian battle lines, with a key labelling 19 sites; it was made by Russian military engineers/draftsmen to serve as an official memorial of the battle, one of only very few surviving original maps to portray the contest from the Russian perspective.

While the Seven Years' War (1756 - 1763) immortalized Frederick the Great as one of history's greatest military leaders and battle tacticians, the lengthy conflict produced many potentially cataclysmic 'close calls' for Prussia. Prussia had the unenviable task of fighting a war on two fronts; on the Western Front it had to battle France, while on the Eastern Front it faced Austria and Russia.

In January 1758, Frederick mounted an (ultimately unsuccessful) invasion of Austrian Moravia, which distracted him from the Russian threat.

Sensing an opportunity, Empress Elizabeth ordered an invasion of Prussia. This was spearheaded by a massive army of 70,000 men under Count Villim Vilimovich Fermor (1704 – 1771), which effortlessly swept into East Prussia, which had been left only very lightly defended. Violating Poland's neutrality, the Russian army advanced westwards, while Frederick paid little heed, concentrating upon Moravia, as he believed that he could knock Austria out of the war altogether (this proved to be a severe miscalculation).



At the beginning of July, Fermor, using Posen (Poznań) as a base, descended the Warta River, invading Brandenburg-Neumark (eastern Brandenburg), whereupon the small Prussian forces in the region retreated in their advance. In early August 1785, the Russians made Landsberg an der Warthe (today Powiat Gorzowski, Poland) their forward base.

The Russians were now uncomfortably close (only about 30 km away) from Küstrin (Kostrzyn nad Odrą), on the Oder, the fortified town that was the gateway to the Prussian heartland. It was at this pout that Frederick became startlingly aware of the existential threat the Russians posed to his kingdom. He proceeded to Neumark to lead his army in what was to be a critical showdown.

At the Battle of Zorndorf (August 25, 1758), Frederick'y army of 36,000 men met Fermor's 43,000 troops near the village of Zorndorf (Sarbinowo, Poland), which was only a few kms from the Oder River. Stakes were high, especially for Frederick, as Berlin lay only 100 km away; if his lines were to brake, the Prussian capital would be in grave danger.

The battle was described as one of the most vicious and bloody of the entire war. The event is famous for Frederick rallying his troops by grabbing the Prussian standard and racing right to the front of the battle lines. While Frederick's men initially had success in breaking the weaker Russian right flank, which was composed of poorly trained conscripts, they were unable to made headway against the Russian right flank, experienced spirited resistance. Eventually, both sides ran low on gunpowder, resorting to brutal hand-to-hand combat. It was not long before both sides became totally exhausted and withdrew from the engagement. The Russians had lost 16,000 men, while the Prussians had suffered 13,000 casualties – shocking by any metric.
In the aftermath, a Prussian officer grimly observed that the "bodies of Russians covered the field row by row; they kissed their cannons while their bodies were cut to pieces by our sabres, but still they would not retreat". Frederick notably recalled that "it's easier to kill the Russians than to win over them".

While the Battle of Zorndorf was technically considered to be a draw, it was a strategic Prussian victory, as the Russians were so badly mauled that they were compelled to retreat eastwards into Neumark, abandoning any hope of marching on Berlin (at least for the foreseeable future). While the Prussian force had likewise suffered terribly, their supply lines remained intact, and they were relieved to have escaped a total disaster. Moreover, Frederick the Great learned valuable lessons that would make him a stronger commander going forward.

However, the Russians would return to briefly take Berlin in 1760, before almost inexplicably relinquishing the city. They would continue to occupy East Prussia until 1762.

The Present Manuscript Map in Focus

While numerous Prussian maps of the Russian invasion of Brandenburg of 1758 and the Battle of Zorndorf survive in various archives, very few Russian maps from the same campaign are known. While the Russians employed highly skilled mapmakers, their engineering-drafting corps was nowhere near as large as that of the Prussians, such that they made far fewer maps. Moreover, the internal turmoil within Russia in the succeeding generation ensured that only a handful of such maps survive.

Present map is an exquisitely drafted Russian manuscript map of the Warta-Oder corridor where most of the action of the Russian invasion of Brandenburg occurred, with an emphasis upon the action of the Battle of Zorndorf itself. Employing attractive hues of watercolour and wash, with text entirely in cursive Russian Cyrillic, the map adheres to the highest standards of European contemporary military draftsmanship. It carefully outlines the defensive works enveloping the key towns, the delineation of roads, the locations of villages and hamlets, and contours of the rivers and swamps, while elevation is expressed by hachures, and forested lands are shown pictorially.
The fortified town of Landsberg (Powiat Gorzowski) appears in the upper right, with the Warta flowing down towards the southwest, where Küstrin (Kostrzyn nad Odrą) is located at its confluence with the Oder, which flows northwards.

Further details on the map, especially the military action, are explained in the legend, lower right, which employs a lettered key locating 19 sites. The lines of the combatants as they stood in the immediate advance of the Battle of Zorndorf are shown, with the Russian lines coloured in Green and Pink, while the Prussian lines are coloured in light blue.

The map shows the arrangement of the Russians (placed to the north) and Prussian forces (placed to the south) at the Battle of Zorndorf, located just northeast of Küstrin, by the eponymous village. Meanwhile, further Russian detachments are shown to the east of Küstrin, with a Prussian-Russian standoff occurring just up the Warta, while further east, they control the river up to Landsberg.

The map shows that the Prussians occupied a highly vulnerable position, as if their lines were to be broken at Zorndorf, Berlin would be a sitting duck for the Russians. The battle was thus hugely consequential to the course of the Seven Years' War and the epic of Frederick the Great, who won great acclaim for his bravery in leading his men on the front lines.

The map was clearly made by Russian army engineers-draftsmen to serve as record, or memorial, of the battle, as opposed to being a strategic aid, even though its depiction of the topography and was sufficiently detailed to inform operational planning.

References: N/A – Map seemingly unrecorded.

2.800 EUR

13. EASTERN EUROPE
SLAVIC ETHNOGRAPHIC MAP
THE 'SLAVIC AWAKENING'

Тимофей Дмитриевич ФЛОРИНСКИЙ [Timofei Dmitrievich FLORINSKY] (1854 - 1919) / В.Л. Войцѣховскимъ [V.L. VOITSECHOVSKY].

Этнографическая карта западного славянства и Западной Руси. По новѣйшниъ даннымъ составлена профессоромъ Т.Д. Флоринскимъ. Исполнена техникомъ В.Л. Войцѣховскимъ. Изданіе С.-Петербургскаго Славянскаго благотворительнаго общества.
[Ethnographic Map of Western Slavs and Western Rus'. According to the Latest Data, it was compiled by Professor T.D. Florinsky. Executed by technician V.L. Voitsechovsky. Publication of the St. Petersburg Slavic Charitable Society].

Kyiv: Тип. С.В. Кульженко [Typ. S.V. Kulzhenko], 1911.

Colour lithograph, dissected into 16 sections and mounted upon original linen; Florinsky's 27-page explanatory pamphlet which was meant to accompany the map, is not present (Good, some toning and spotting, especially in upper left quadrant, some wear and minor splitting to linen backing along folds), 117 x 97 cm (46 x 38 inches).

Extremely rare and highly influential, a grand ethnographic map of Central and Eastern Europe that details the lands with majority populations of 11 different Slavic peoples and 10 non-Slavic groups, created by Professor Timofei Dmitrievich Florinsky, the controversial, but leading Slavistics authority; the map, based upon decades of his research and the most recent census information, it represent the apogee of ethnographic cartography made in the Russian Empire; it remained the authoritative map on the subject or many years, while today it remains a vital source on the demographics of Europe before the great upheaval caused by the World War I, published in Kyiv.

The 19th century saw the reawakening of national identity in the Slavic world, after centuries of such sentiments being smothered by polyethnic imperial dynasties. The Awakening came in two main (opposing) strains. First, was Pan-Slavism, which sought to revive interest in Slavic culture and languages to forge a common Slavic identity in the face of oppression from non-Slavic hegemonies. Second, was a narrow nationalist ethic, that sought to promote certain Slavic cultures and languages as the expense of, or to prove their superiority to, others (ex. Russian attempts to subordinate Ukrainians and Belarusians); this often led to conflict.



The Slavic Awakening manifested itself in many forms, ranging from the beautiful and universally beneficial, in the form of distinct, world-class works of art, music and literature, to the negative and ugly, such as chauvinism, xenophobia and warfare.

While some Slavic identities were very clear cut, being dramatically different from their neighbours (ex. Polish), other shared many similarities (at least superficially) to their neighbours, opening debates as to whether they were distinct national/ethnic entities, or merely subsets of the same ethnic group (ex. Russian vs. Ukrainian).

The Slavic Awakening inspired intense academic enquiry and debate across Central and Eastern Europe. Slavic authorities analyzes and categorizes Slavic cultures, often arriving at very different conclusions from their peers, predicated upon their biases or identities.

Importantly, the study of Slavic ethnicities is inextricably linked to the study of dialectology, as much of the identities of the various groups are captured by their languages.

The academic exploration of Slavistics produced many books, articles, and thematic maps, often of great sophistication and intellectual merit.

Enter Timofey Dmitrievich Florinsky

Тимофей Дмитриевич Флоринский [Timofei Dmitrievich Florinsky] (1854 - 1919) was one of the giants of Slavic studies in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. A highly controversial, but brilliant mind, he was an ardent Russian nationalist who spent most of his career in the Ukraine (then a part of the Russian Empire). As such, while he was a rigourous scholar, who backed up his assertions with data and citations of strong evidence, his work was always tinged by his Russophile bias.

Important, while today most intelligent and right-minded people recognize Ukrainian as a stand-alone national and ethnic entity, with its own language, distinct from Russian, in the era of the Russian Empire this was not always so clear. A fierce debate amongst Slavic academics ensued as to the nature of Ukrainian (often called Мало Русский, 'Little Russian'), with Ukrainophiles asserting its cultural distinctness, while Russophiles maintained that it was merely a subset, or, dialect of Russian. Florinsky was very much in the latter category. Florinsky was born to an esteemed ecclesiastical-academic ethnic Russian family in St. Petersburg. He studied at the Third St. Petersburg Classic Gymnasium, whereupon he graduated with the Gold Medal. Reading history and philology at St. Petersburg University, he studied under the famous professors V. I. Lamansky and V. G. Vasilevsky. In 1881, he was awarded his doctorate upon defending his dissertation, 'South Slavs and Byzantium in the second quarter of the XIV century'.

Florinsky subsequently became a professor of philology (and eventually a dean) at the University of Kiev, where he taught for over three decades. He was an extreme workaholic, often giving nine hours of lectures a day, while publishing a prodigious output of groundbreaking books, articles, and maps. While his work was varied, extending well beyond the Russian-Ukrainian debate, covering many fields, including Czech and Yugoslavian cultures.

Highlights of his work include (with their titles translated from the original Russian), in addition to the present map, Monuments of the Legislative Activity of Dushan, King of the Serbs and Greeks (1888); Lectures on Slavic Linguistics (1895-8); A Few Words about the Little Russian Language (Dialect)… (1899); Foreign Rus' and its Bitter Lot (1900); Little Russian language and "Ukrainian-Russian" Literary Separatism (1900); The Slavic Tribe. Statistical and Ethnographic Review of Modern Slavdom (1907); History of Serbo-Croatian Literature (1900); Slavic Studies (1911); Course of Slavic-Russian Paleography (1913); Handbook for Lectures on the History of the Czechs (Kyiv), 1915; Lectures on Slavic Linguistics (1897); Little Russian Language and Ukrainian-Russian Literary Separatism (1900); Critical and Bibliographic Review of the Latest Works and Publications on Slavic Studies (1904).

Florinsky was, on several occasions, accorded the Russia's most prestigious academic awards, including the Lomonosov Prize of the Imperial Academy of Sciences the large gold medal of the Imperial Russian Geographical Society. The eminant Slavist V. N. Korablev described Florinsky: "None of the students of Prof. Lamansky and the venerable teacher himself did not write as many valuable works on Slavism as Timofei Dmitrievich Florinsky. A modern scholar studying Slavism cannot do without Florinsky"s.

Florinsky was one of the founders of the Club of Russian Nationalists in Kyiv and was a principal of the Slavic Charitable Society of St. Petersburg (which sponsored the creation of the present map). He raised funds to support certain Slavic groups in Austrian Galicia and ardently opposed Polish independence (from Russia) as he regarded the country to be a necessary buffer to protect Russia from German aggression.

While all recognized Florinsky's brilliance and work ethic, he acquired many enemies. Ukrainian nationalists naturally despised him and, as a relatively rightwing imperialist, he was disliked by leftists of all ethnic backgrounds.

Naturally, upon the Bolshevik takeover of Kyiv, in 1919, Florinsky was a prime target for the new regime's ire. It is not disputed that was killed by the Communists, although, the exact nature of his demise is still a matter of debate. A contemporary American author claimed in, reference the Bolsheviks' general purges in Kyiv, that "The most flagrant instance was the murder of Professor Florinsky of Kiev University, an international authority on Slavic history and jurisprudence. Hauled before the Revolutionary Tribunal for examination, he was shot in open court by one of his judges - a woman member, named Rosa Swartz. This woman, a former prostitute, was apparently under the influence of liquor. Irritated by one of the professor's answers to a question, she drew her revolver and fired at him, killing him instantly" (Lothrop Stoddard, The Revolt Against Civilization (New York, 1922), footnote p. 192).

The Present Map in Focus

In devising the present map, Timofei Dmitrievich Florinsky relied upon decades of his own research and recent census date to precisely determined the correct geographic placement of the lands populated by the various Slavic (and non-Slavic) peoples of Cen-


Краков
Львовъ
Житомиръ
Кіевъ
Одесса
Будапештъ
Сомборъ
Карпаты
Днѣпръ

tral and Eastern Europe. In doing so, he was inspired by previous Slavic ethnographic maps, such as Alexander Fedorovich Rittikh's Карта западных и южных славян [Map of Western and Southern Slavs] (St. Petersburg, 1875); and M. F. Mirkovich & Rittikh's Этнографическая карта славянских народностей [Ethnographic Map of the Slavic Peoples] (St. Petersburg, 1875). However, Florinsky's present map is more accurate and sophisticated, representing the next generation in the ethnographic cartography of the greater region.

While the content of the present map was meticulously planned by Florinsky, the professor was not a cartographer, and plotting ethnographic information upon such a large tableau required a skilled mapmaker. Florinsky thus entrusted this task to the draftsman V.L. Voitsechovsky, who is credited in the title.

The grand map covers a large area of Central and Eastern Europe, extending from Smolensk and Kherson, in the east, over to the west as far as Trieste and Leipzig, and from Istanbul and Thessaloniki, in the south, and up north as far as Klaipeda. The map is underlaid with a rendering of all the coasts, rivers and railway lines, and labels of all cities and towns of any note, along with international boundaries. Most of the Slavic lands in the areas covered were ruled by either the Russian Empire or Austro-Hungarian Empire, although the Ottomans still controlled a large part of the Balkans, containing significant Slavic populations.

The map employs colour coding to show the majority ethnic populations in every area depicted, creating a sophisticated mosaic.

Critically, and controversially, here Florinsky classifies Великоруссы (Big Russian / Russian), Бѣлоруссы (Belorussian), Малороссы (Little Russian / Ukrainian), as being merely subsets of 'Русскіе' (Russian), with each distinguished by different shades of pink, as Florinsky did not believe the Ukrainians and Belarussians to be distinct people from Russians. This was then a controversial, but still widely held view, although it is today considered by most intelligent, right-minded people to be untrue.

Beyond the Russian-Ukrainian-Belarusian debate, the map labels the geographic locations of eight additional Slavic peoples, including Bulgarians, Serbs & Croats (also controversial grouping these peoples together!), Slovenians, Czechs, Slovaks, Sorbs, Poles and Kashubians.

The map also details the ethnic territories of 10 non-Slavic peoples, including Lithuanians, Germans, Italians, Rumanians, Greeks, Albanians, Hungarians, Turks, Tatars, and Jews.

The inset map, in the lower left corner, shows Eurasia and depicts the areas with Slavic majority populations shaded in orange, while the non-Slavic areas are shaded in blue.

Importantly, it should be noted that the map was generally published accompanied by Florinsky's 27-page explanatory pamphlet, Этнографическая карта западного славянства и Западной Руси. Приложение. Объяснения. Источники и пособия. Статистические данные. Поправки [Ethnographic Map of Western Slavs and Western and Western Rus': Application. Explanations. Sources and Aids. Statistical Data. Amendments] (S.V. Kulzhenko, 1911); however, this pamphlet it not present here.

In many key respects, Florinsky's map remained the most academically authoritative ethnographic map of the Slavic populations of Central and Eastern Europe for many years. The map not only represented the apogee of ethnographic cartography in the Russian Empire, but today remains a critical source of information on the nature the demographics of Central and Eastern Europe in the period before for the turmoil brought about by World War I, which saw the mass movement of peoples away from their longtime homelands. The details of the map were incorporated within many works produced in Western Europe, while various derivates appeared, such as the Carte ethnographique des russes, polonais et luthuaniens (Paris 1923), which depicted only the northern sectors of the Florinsky map.

The longevity of the supremacy of the Florinsky map was extended beyond what it might have normally enjoyed, as the Soviet regime, at least initially, discouraged ethnographic studies, as they saw them as being a threat to the supposedly anti-nationalist ethic of Communism. As such, scholarship in the field was frozen for some time in what was traditionally the greatest centre of Slavic studies.

A Note on Rarity

The Florisnsky map, despite its profound influence, is today extremely rare. It seems that it was only issued in a limited print run for select academic use.

While there are surely some institutional examples held Ukrainian and Russian libraries, their locations have proven hard to trace. The only example that we can find is held by the National Library of Georgia (Tbilisi). Moreover, we are not aware of any sales records for the map.

References: National Library of Georgia (Tbilisi): R 16.363/4; Lyudmila PAVLENKO, 'Scientific Research on Czech Presence in Ukraine in the 1920s', Acta Musei Nationalis Pragae Historia, vol. 73, nos. 1-2 (2019), pp. 49–57, esp., p. 50. Cf. Catherine GIBSON, 'Shading, Lines, Colors: Mapping Ethnographic Taxonomies of European Russia, 1851-1875', Nationalities Papers, vol. 46, no. 4 (2018), pp. 589- 611.

1.400 EUR

14. JAPANESE PICTORIAL MAP

Ogawa JIHEI (小川治平, 1887 - 1925) - Senpan MAEKAWA (前川 千帆, 1888 –1960).

世界新漫画鳥瞰圖
[New Pictorial Bird's Eye View of the World]

Tokyo: [International Information Company] 1923.

Colour lithograph, 78 x 110 cm (30.7 x 43.3 inches) (soft folds with small holes partly repaired with tape, tiny tears in margins, otherwise in a good condition).

A 1923 pictorial map of the world by a Japanese manga artist Ogawa Jihei.

A Japanese pictorial map of the world represents countries through caricatures of inhabitants, historical figures, animals and local habits. The images are accompanied with short, often

The map. printed on December 25, 1923 and issued on January 1st, 1924, as a supplement to a magazine Kokusai Shashin Joho (The International Graphic Magazine), was made by a master 20th century Japanese illustration and a manga artist Ogawa Jihei (小川治平, 1887 – 1925) and a famous woodblock printer Senpan Maekawa (前川 千帆 1888 – 1960).

1.200 EUR




古今新發現亞鳥瞰圖
北
亞
歐
非
洲
美
洲
大
洋
洲

15. CHINA (SOUHTHERN – GUANGDONG HONG KONG / GUANGXI, ETC.) TRANSPORTATION MAP GUANGZHOUWAN FRENCH COLONY IMPRINT

[FRENCH COLONIAL ADMINISTRATORS - GUANGZHOUWAN].

Kouang-si et Pays Limitrophes.

Fort-Bayard, French Guangzhouwan Territory [today Zhanjiang, China], September 7, 1930.

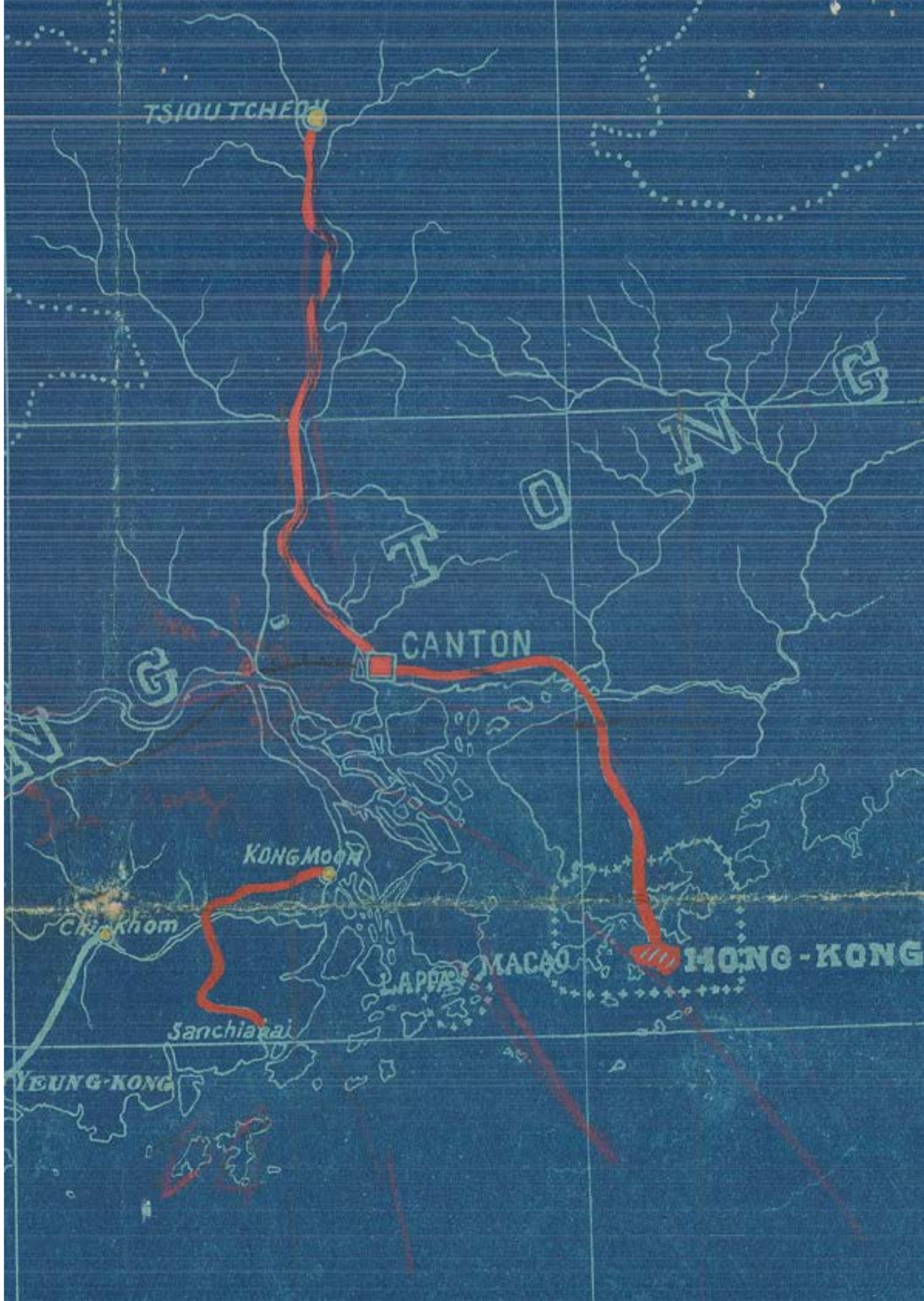
Cyanotype (blueprint), with original manuscript highlights in orange and yellow hand colouring, a few further contemporary manuscript annotations in orange hand colouring (Very Good, overall clean and pleasing, some wear along old folds, some slight loss to blank corners around old tack marks), 37.5 x 47 cm (15 x 18.5 inches).

A seemingly unrecorded blueprint map of Southern China depicting major railways routes, made by French colonial administrators in the French Leased Territory of Guangzhouwan (Kouang-Tchéou-Wan) who used the map as strategic aid to oversee the extensive French commercial interests in the region (mines, factories, plantations, etc., as well as the railway lines themselves) during a time of booming business and diplomatic intrigue; printed in Fort-Bayard, the administrative HQ of Guangzhouwan (today Zhanjiang, Guangdong).

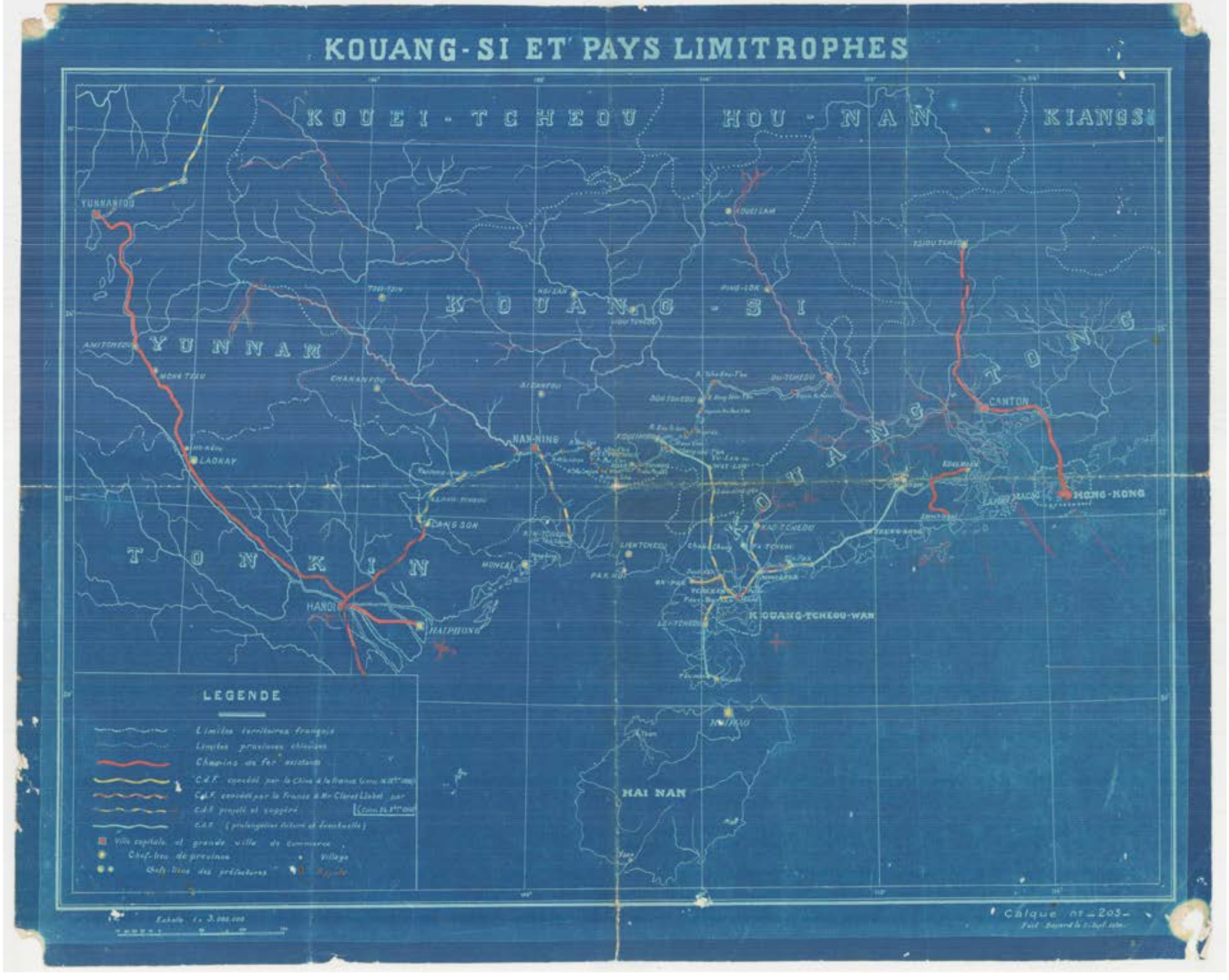
In 1898, France gained control of the leased Leased Territory of Guangzhouwan (Territoire de Kouang-Tchéou-Wan), located on the eastern side the Leizhou Peninsula, in far southern Guangdong. The French were given authority over the territory for a period of 99 years (the same term as the British were given for Hong Kong's New Territories). While the area was not well developed, the 1,300 sq. km (500 sq. mi) territory was valuable as it lay along the estuary of the Maxie River, which was navigable for large warships, while there were coal mines in the interior.

Instead of creating a separate colonial government for the territory (as the British had with Hong Kong), the French ruled Guangzhouwan from Hanoi, and considered it the be a part of French Indochina, while sending administrators to the territory to implement their polices and orders. They built Fort-Bayard as the territory's administrative HQ, strategically located at the mouth of the Maxie.

Guangzhouwan was classified as "commercially unimportant but strategically located", so unlike the situation in other European colonial, or quasi-colonial, entities in China (ex.



KOUANG-SI ET PAYS LIMITROPHES



Hong Kong, German Tsingtao, and the Shanghai Concessions, etc.), France made little effort to develop the territory into an urban-commercial centre, and merely used it to as a military base to oversee the considerable French business interests and assents in Southern China, and to protect the many French Christian missionaries there.

The population of Guangzhouwan grew slowly, rising from 189,000 in 1911 to 206,000 in 1931 (the year after the present map was made), of which only 270 of the residents were Europeans.

In 1943, during World War II, Japan conquered Guangzhouwan from France. While the territory was returned to France in September 1945, Paris decided to hand it over to the Chinese Nationalists on November 20, 1945, as they were too distracted with turmoil in Vietnam to concern themselves with the small territory. Guangzhouwan was then reintegrated into China's Guangdong Province, with the area reverting to the preferred local name of 'Zhanjiang'.

In the 1950s, the Chinese Communist regime dedicated massive resources into Zhanjiang, taking advantage of its advantageous geographic location. Today, Zhanjiang is a great port and industrial centre, home to 7 million people.

The Present Map in Focus

Prior to World War II, France maintained very extensive commercial interests throughout the Southern Chinese provinces of Guangdong, Guangxi, and Yunnan, in form of mines, railways, factories and plantations. The French military garrison at Fort-Bayard was responsible for ensuring the security of these assets. This was a 'hot issues' as the French and Chinese governments had frequent, sometimes heated, disagreements regarding France's extraterritorial rights within China. One of the keys to maintaining the security of French assets and citizens in Southern China was maintaining oversight of the region's main transportation corridors, namely the railways, especially those under French ownership/management, in addition to the navigable rivers.

The present map is an unrecorded cyanotype (blueprint) made in Fort-Bayard by the French authorities administering Guangzhouwan (either civilian or military) in September 1930, when the business carried on by French companies in Southern China was still booming, as the Great Depression had not yet affected the Far East.

The map embraces a sizeable portion of Southern China and northernmost Vietnam (part of French Indochina), and extends from 'Yunnanfou' (Kunming), in the upper left over to Hong Kong, on the right, and then below to take in Hanoi and Hankou Island. The French territory of 'Kouang-Tcheou-Wan' (Guangzhouwan) is located near the centre, while the map otherwise focuses upon Guangdong, Guangxi, and Hong Kong.

The work's purpose is the serve as a transportation map, and it intentionally depicts the topography in a skeletal manner, cleanly delineating the major rivers and coastlines, as well as marking only places that were critical to commerce and logistics.

The 'Legende', lower left, explains the symbols used to identify the boundaries of French territories (represented by dashed lines), internal boundaries (dotted lines), existing (operational) railways (bold orange lines; including the critical Yunnan–Haiphong Railway, completed 1910); French controlled railways in China (bold yellow lines); Railways in China entrusted to French control but subcontracted to a Monsieur Llonet according to a 1902 agreement (mixed orange and yellow lines); proposed new railways (intermittent yellow lines); and planned extensions of existing lines (bold white lines). Red boxes mark 'capital cities or great cities of commerce' (ex. Hanoi, Hong Kong, Canton, Yunnanfou); yellow dots mark provincial capitals, while white dots are lesser cities. Additionally, the black bars lined in orange placed across some rivers mark the locations of rapids, so barring boat traffic.

The map was made through the cyanotype (blueprint) printing technique, which is sometimes referred to as a 'sunprint'. This photographic printing process involved the use of two chemicals: ammonium iron (III) citrate and potassium ferricyanide. Invented in 1842 by the astronomer Sir John Herschel, the technique was favoured by engineers, as it produced technical diagrams of sharp contrast and clarity. It also had the advantage of being very low cost and easy to execute (by those properly trained). In the late 19th and early 20th Centuries, the technique gained wide popularity for architectural and engineering plans (i.e., 'Blueprints'). This led it to be adapted to cartography, often to maps of a technical nature, such as urban models and plans for mines and infrastructure (notably railways). A limitation of the cyanotype medium is that it could yield only a very limited number of copies, such that virtually all cyanotype maps are today extremely rare.

The present map is seemingly unrecorded, which is not surprising as it would have been made in only a very small print run reserved for high level use by senior French officials in Guangzhouwan. The survival rate of such fragile maps made in Tropical Asian colonies is incredibly low. Moreover, this is the only document of any kind we have ever encountered printed in Fort-Bayard, making it an unusual artefact of a curious aspect of Franco-Chinese history.

References: N / A – Map seemingly Unrecorded.

1.200 EUR

16. NAIROBI, KENYA – COLOSSAL MASTERPLAN NAIROBI IMPRINT

EAST AFRICA SURVEY GROUP (BRITISH ARMY) - 157TH (EAST AFRICA & SOUTHERN RHODESIA) BASE SURVEY COMPANY.

Nairobi 1:10.000. Provisional Unchecked Edition.

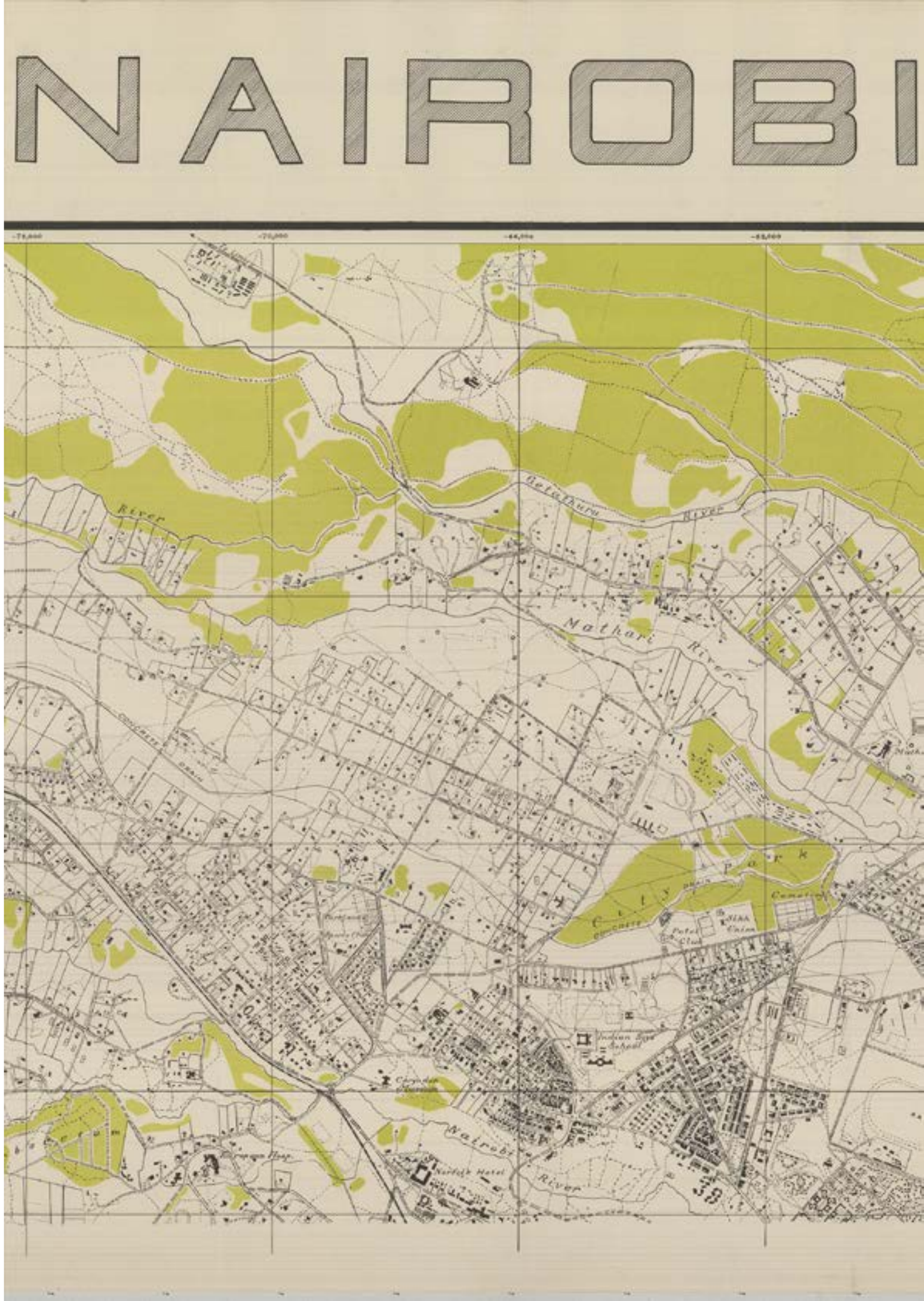
[Nairobi:] No.1 (East Africa Reproduction) Section [Survey Directorate, East Africa Command], April 1946.

Bi-chrome (black and green) photolithographic print, on 6 un-joined sheets, rolled (Very Good, overall clean and bright, just a few minor stains and areas of slight toning, some old light folds and marginal creasing, a few discreet short, closed tears to Sheet 5 with no loss), sheets of variable sizes but averaging approximately 65 x 90 cm, would if joined form a map approximately 124 x 196 cm (49 x 77 inches).

Very rare - a colossal masterplan of Nairobi, printed on six sheets, that if joined would measure nigh 2 metres wide, published in Nairobi by the British Army's East Africa Survey Group just after the end of World War II; in grand scale it delineates every street and laneway, outlines all buildings and labels all major businesses, institutions and recreation centres, an unprecedented showcasing of the commercial, political and military nucleus of East Africa, taken before the city's post-colonial era of explosive growth, certainly one of the finest and most engaging African urban plans of the 20th century.

This is the 'Provisional Unchecked Edition' of the colossal six-sheet masterplan of Nairobi made by the British Army in the immediate wake of World War II. Measuring nigh 2 metres (if the sheets were joined), and done to scale of 1:10,000 (6.33 inches to 1 mile), the map showcases the entire city and its environs in unprecedented detail. Every street and laneway are sharply delineated; every building is shown in outline; all major edifices and institution are labeled; while the city's many parks and greenspaces are well defined. One of the most impressive plans of any African city of the modern era, the map captures Nairobi just as Kenya was about to commence is final (albeit bloody) march to independence, and before it was utterly transformed by explosive growth (the city then had around 100,000 residents, today it has over 4.5 million!).

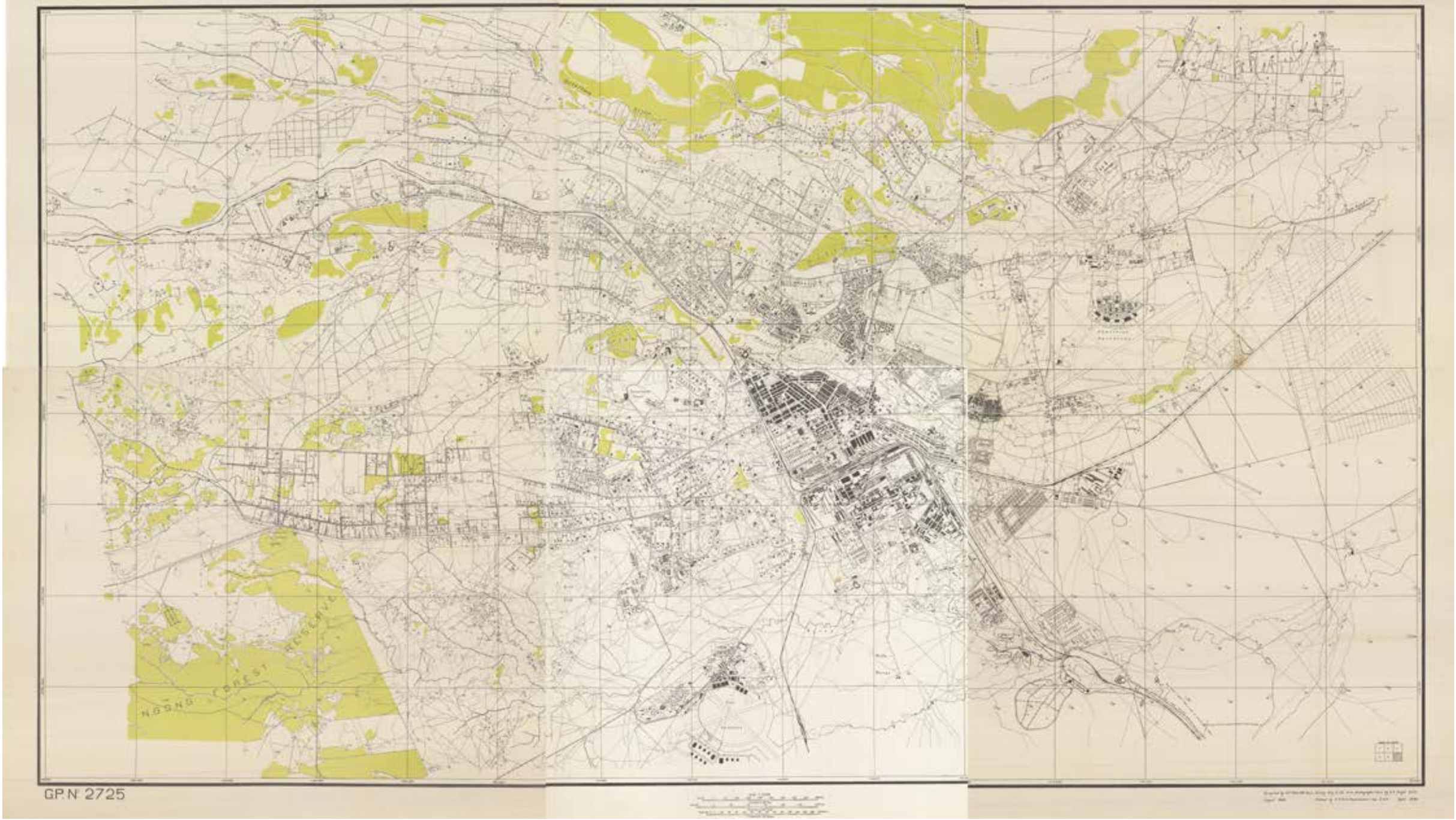
Nairobi had by this time been for almost four decades the military, commercial and political hub of East Africa, and during World War II is played a key role as the British forces



NAIROBI

1:10.000

PROVISIONAL UNCHECKED EDITION



GP.N. 2725

HQ for the greater region. In August 1945, once the armed forces were largely free of their wartime duties, mapping Nairobi to an ultra-grand scale with precise accuracy became a priority. The responsibility for the project was given to the East Africa Survey Group (EASG), a special cartographic corps of the British Army formed in August 1940 in Nairobi, that had the responsibility producing high quality maps of sectors of the war theatre in East Africa and the Indian Ocean. Led by Major J.E.S. Bradford, the crack corps employed numerous engineers, surveyors, draftsmen, photographic technicians and printers who were veterans in working in challenging conditions in Africa or Asia.

Specifically, a special photographic squadron of the Royal Air Force took photographa of the Nairobi area employing 'controlled mosaic' photographic techniques, by which aerial photographs are made in a systematic fashion to unform standards, anchored to base-points determined by astronomical observations.

These photographs were then given to the 157th (East Africa & Southern Rhodesia) Base Survey Company, a division of the EASG, who combined and edited them at their Nairobi workshop, producing a giant manuscript, a process that took months, due the need for precision nda accuracy. This manuscript was published in April 1946 by the No.1 (East Africa Reproduction) Section on the press of the Survey Directorate, East Africa Command, in Nairobi, making it likely the largest and most exacting map ever issued in Kenya to date. Even though this first state is noted as being a 'Provisional Unchecked Edition', any errors or omissions it featured were probably quite minor and were easily cleared up for subsequent print runs.

Focusing in on the map, the central business district appears in the middle of the view, distinguished by a great concentration of large edifices built upon a rational grid of streets, while to the south are the massive yards the Uganda Railway, the economic lifeline of Kenya. Beyond, the city, which then had the form of something like a semi-rural bucolic landscape, spreads out along plains amidst small rivers and streams, punctuated by ample woodlands and greenspaces. Wide avenues connect various residential subdivisions and estates, while the urbanscape features numerous institutions of government (ex. the great neo-classical Government House, built in 1907); healthcare (ex. the modern European Hospital); education (ex. Kenton College, Indian Boys School, Prince of Wales School, the Coryndon Museum); religion (St. Andrew's Church, Sikh Union, St. Austen's Mission); recreation (the City Park, Royal Nairobi Gold Club, Muthaiga Club); the airport, the 'Civil Aerodrome', is located to the city's south; while and the magnificent Ngong Forest Reserve is appears in the southwest. Indicative of the city's fast growth, many planned, or in progress, subdivisions can be seen in Nairobi's outskirts, especially to the east.

The present map proved highly influential, as it become the basis for the succeeding, continuously updated masterplans of Nairobi, printed as the City of Nairobi: 1:10,000 Cadastral Series, published in the form of 3 large sheets by the Survey of Kenya from 1950 to 1976.

A Note on Rarity

The present map is extremely rare, which is not surprising given that it would have been issued in only a very small print run for high level official use. Moreover, its survival rate would be very low due to its large size and fragility.

We can trace only 2 institutional examples of the map, held by the British Library and the Library of Congress. We do not know if these examples are of the 'Provisional Unchecked Edition' or of a revised issue. Moreover, we are not aware of any other examples as having appeared on the market.

Nairobi: The Commercial and Military Epicentre of East Africa

For centuries, the place that would become Nairobi was inhabited by the Maasai and Kikuyu peoples, although it traditionally never had any significance.

In 1896, the British began building the Uganda Railway, the 1,060 km-long line that was to connect the port of Mombasa with Lake Victoria. In 1899, they established a rail depot at the site of Nairobi, attracted by the location's high elevation (1,795 metres), which was malaria free with easy access to water; the area was also green, sunny and attractive.

The Nairobi camp grew rabidly, becoming a township in 1900. The British heavily favoured the healthful climate, and established homesteads, businesses and local government offices there. Native Kenyan peoples and immigrants from the Indian Subcontinent followed.

In the early 19-noughts, the British regime that ran the East Africa Protectorate (which became Kenya in 1920), envisaged turning Nairobi into their colonial epicentre. They designed a spacious unbanscape on 'garden city principles', with many parks, wide streets, good services, well-appointed insitituons and clubs, and grand public buildings.

Nairobi was made the colonial capital in 1907, replacing crowded, malarial Mombasa. In line with the racist views of the time, the British intended Nairobi to be a 'White City', with Black Africans and East Indians relegated to second class status. A form of Apartheid was enacted, whereby non-Whites were compelled to live only in certain neighborhoods and their access to services was limited. Yet, Kenyans and Indians still moved to the city, as the promise of good jobs and entrepreneurial opportunities seemed to outweigh the injustices.

Known as the 'Green City in the Sun', Nairobi continued to grow, but until World War II remained a small city with an almost bucolic semi-rural atmosphere and only manageable urban problems.

Nairobi first came to global importance during World War I, when it was the main British base against the German General Paul Lettow-Vorbeck's surprisingly effective campaign to upset the British and Portuguese colonial regime in East and Southern Africa. While the German threat was eventually contained, many sleepless nights were had at the British HQ in Nairobi.

World War II was a watershed moment for Nairobi, for during this time it was transformed from what was essentially a big town into a major, bustling city. Once again, the

the British Army HQ buzzed with activity, as during the East Africa Campaign (June 10, 1940 – November 27, 1941), Britain countered an Italian invasion of Kenya and went on to conquer Italian East Africa.

Meanwhile, thousands more Black Kenyans and East Indians moved to Nairobi, in search of jobs, as the local economy went into hyper-drive buoyed by the war effort. Nairobi became a major commercial centre of the first time, while almost 100,000 Kenyans joined the King's African Riles, the British frontier crack force, many serving with tremendous bravery and distinction.

The impact of the war upon Nairobi's demography was profound, as from 1941 to 1948 the city's population grew at an annual rate of 17%, such that by 1948 the city had almost 119,000 residents. These changes shattered the naively bigoted notion of Nairobi a being a 'White City', as it was now overwhelmingly Black and East Indian.

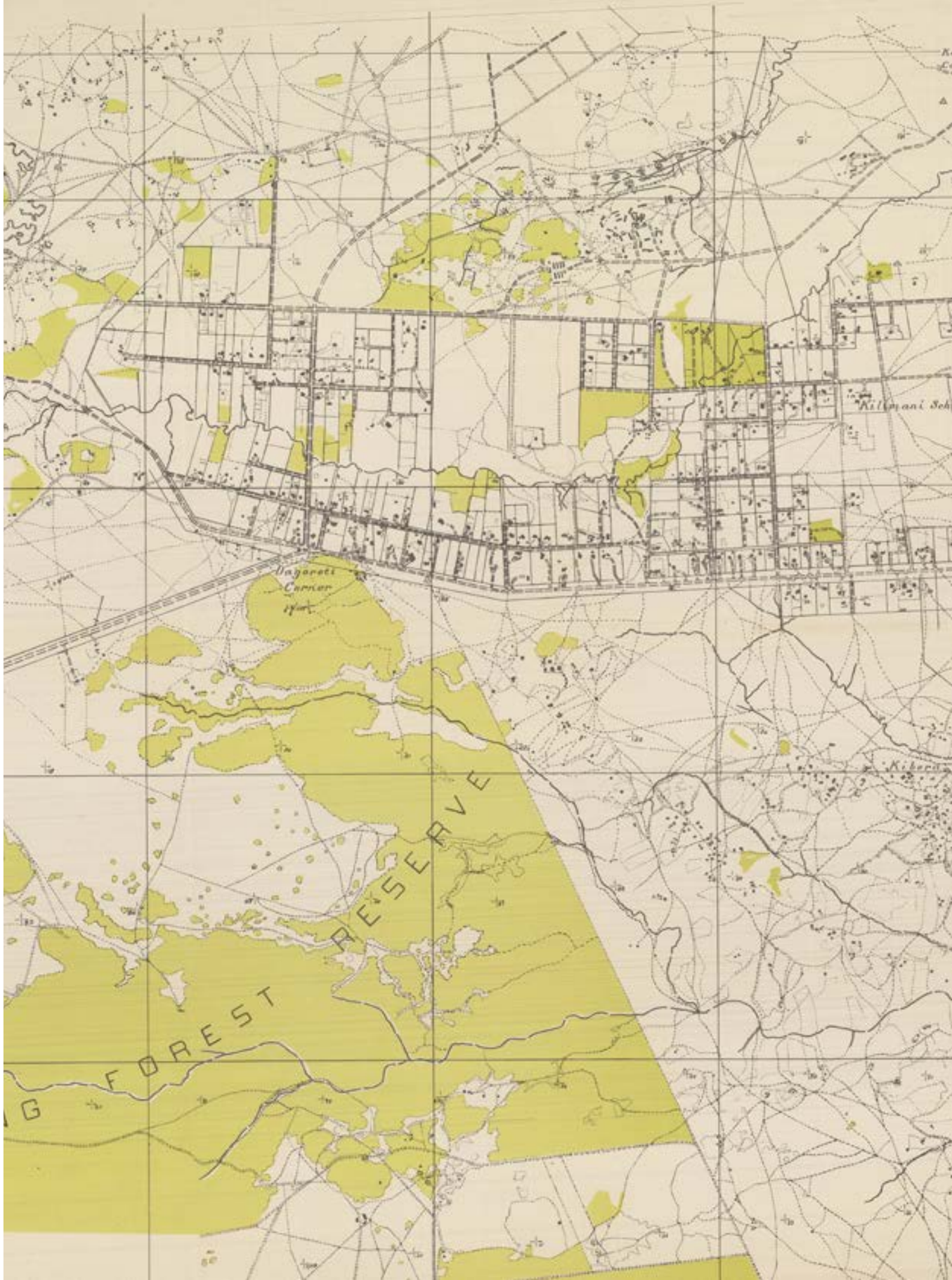
In the immediate wake of the war, when the present map was made, Nairobi was a bustling centre of government, commerce and culture. Yet, the British regime paid local workers low wages and heavily taxed the East Indian merchant class, while unemployment rose due the cessation of wartime government spending. Black Kenyans especially came to feel that their noble service to the crown during the war were underappreciated and a general discontent with the British colonial regime prevailed.

Nairobi soon became the heart of the Kenyan independence movement, led by Jomo Kenyatta. Tensions soon boiled over into civil war, in the form of the Mau Mau Uprising (1952-60), whereby the British regime and their local allies brutally crushed the independence movement. Yet, despite this 'victory', the British were thoroughly discredited in Kenya, and soon saw the writing on the wall. Nairobi became the capital of the independent Republic of Kenya in 1963.

Meanwhile, Nairobi continued to grow rapidly, reach a population of 400,000 in 1962. Up to then, the growth was overall manageable. However, from that point, economic dislocation in the countryside, compelled tens of thousands of Kenyans per year moved to the capital seeking better lives. By the 1970s, the growth had reached epic proportions, and while the city centre and some suburbs remained orderly and pleasant, numerous giant shantytowns sprung up in the suburbs. Nairobi reached a population of 1.3 million in 1989, and has today swelled to 4.5 million in the city proper (with a metropolitan population of over 10.5 million!).

References: British Library: Cartographic Items Maps MOD GP 2725; Library of Congress: G8414.N2 1946 .G7; OCLC: 497632158, 671866195; LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, Kenya: Subject Guide to Official Publications (Washington, D.C., 1978), p. 183.

1.400 EUR



17. ARMENIAN ATLAS

Աստուածատուր Վ. Աւագեան [Astvatsatur V. AVAKIAN].

EARLY ARMENIAN WORLD ATLAS / 'ARMENIAN NATIONAL AWAKENING':

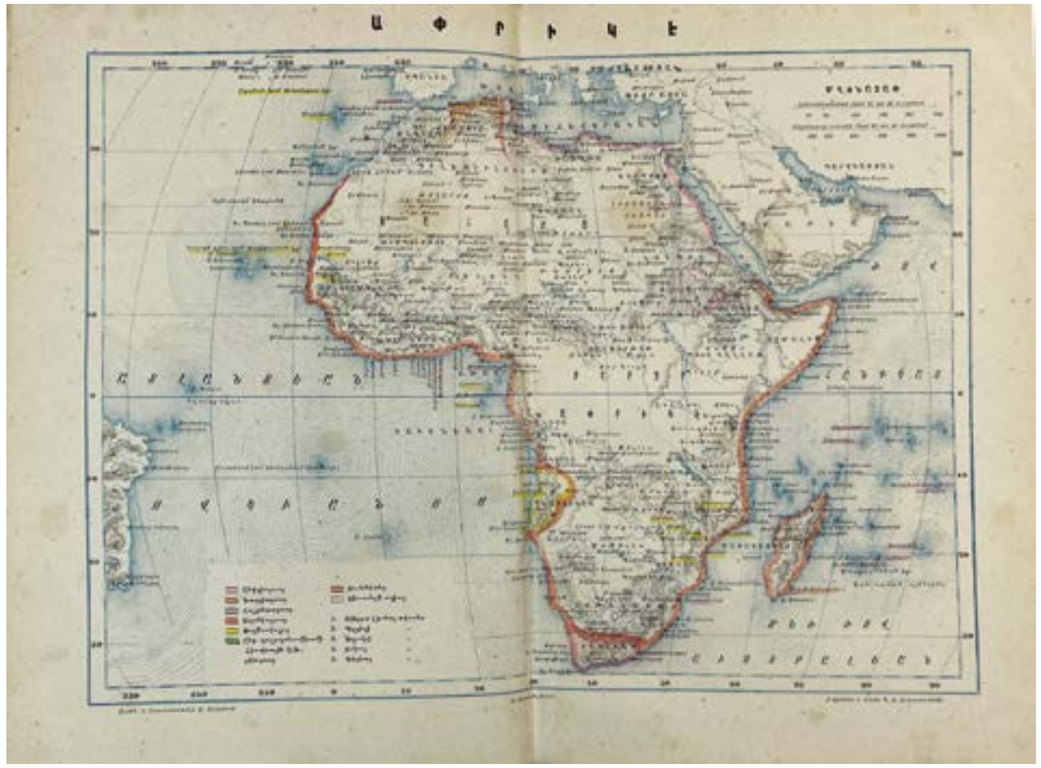
Ատլաս կամ աշխարհացոյց տախտակք Ի պէտս ազգային դպրոցաց / Յօրինեաց եւ ծրագրեաց Հ. Աստուածատուր Վ. Աւագեան ի Մխիթարեան Ուխտէն. [Atlas or World Map for the National Schools / Devised and Created by Astvatsatur V. Avakian of the Mekhitarist Monastery].

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

4° (27.5 x 20.5 cm): [2 ff. half title and title, bound in plano], 21 maps lithographed in blue with added black letter punch text and original outline hand colour, all bound in plano (thus all double-page sized); original brown marbled boards with maroon cloth spine (Very Good, internally crisp, half title and title with spotting, maps with resplendent original colours and areas of light spotting; binding with shelf-wear and surface abrasions to covers).

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.

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. ԵՒՐՈՊԱ. [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. ԱՓՐԻԿԷ. [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].

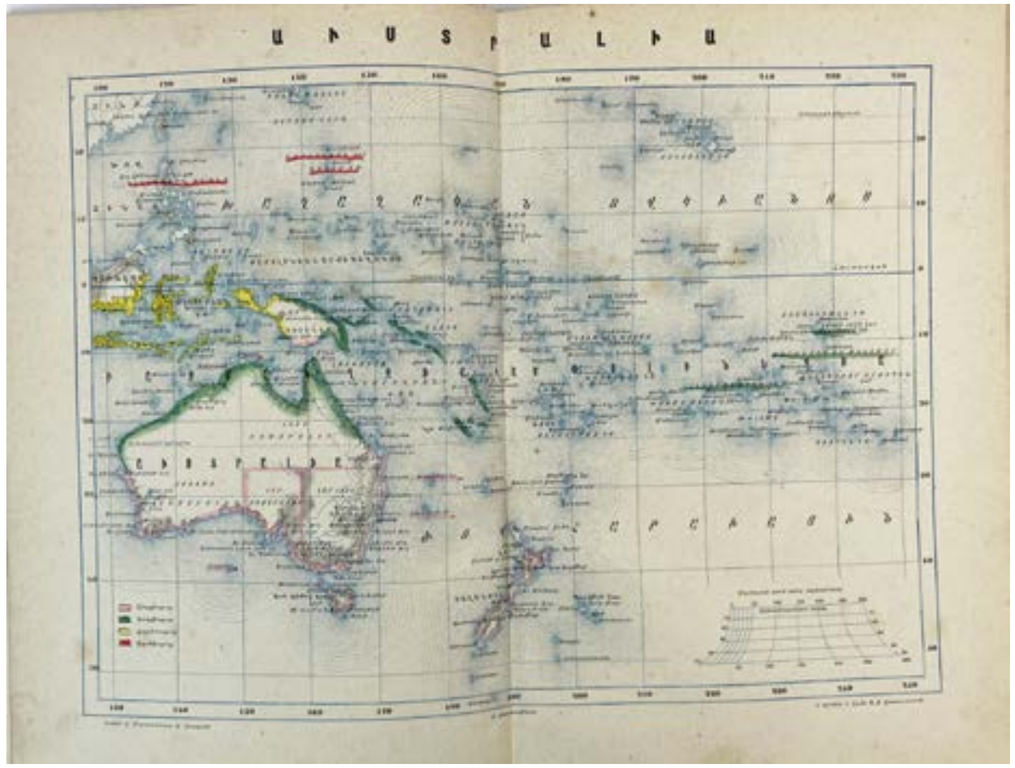
France was an important intellectual centre for the Armenian diaspora, with key communities in Paris and Marseille. In the late 19th Century, the French Armenian diaspora became a hotbed of the 'Armenian National Awakening' and after the Armenian Genocide, Western Europe's leading Armenian centre.

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. ԲԵԼԳԻԱ, 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 ՊԵԼՈՒՉԻՍՏԱՆ. [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 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 3 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), the Charents Museum of Literature and Arts (Yerevan) and in the Library of Congress; 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 աշխարհացոյցն [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 Աշխարհացոյց պատկերաց, ըստ արդունի 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.

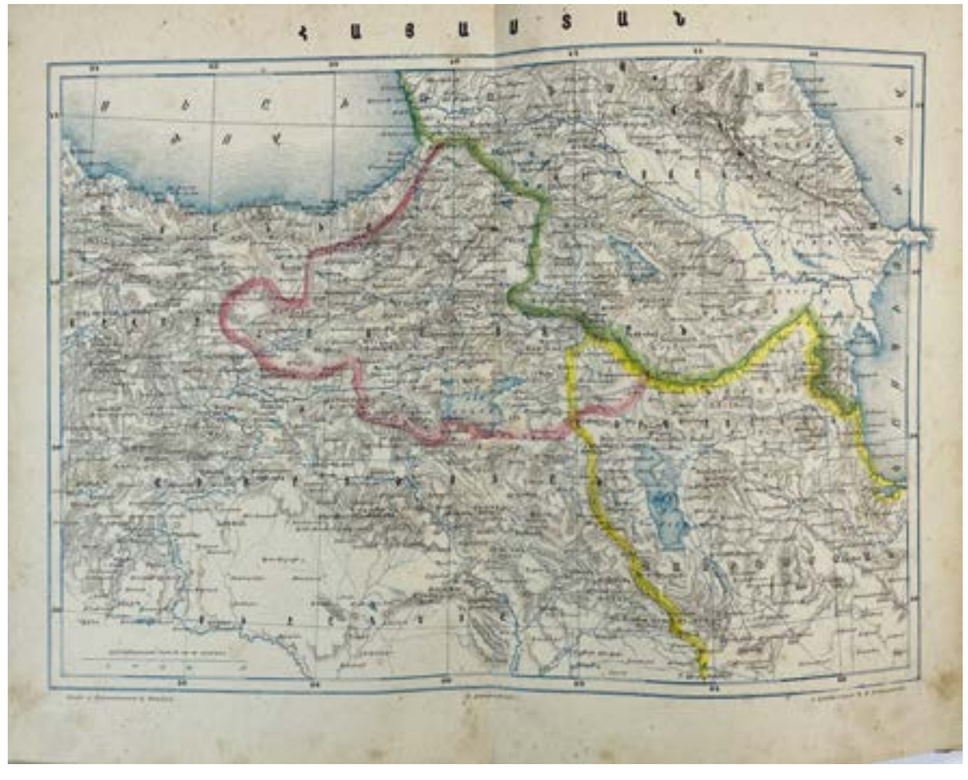
The tragedy of the Armenian Genocide (1915-1923), when over 1.5 million Armenians in the Ottoman Empire were killed, caused the majority of the survivors to flee into exile, creating large new diaspora communities in the Americas, Australia, France, the Levant, and Russia. While the First Republic of 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





18. AFRICA
MIDDLE EAST

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

AFRICA / LATE OTTOMAN SCRIPT CARTOGRAPHY:
یکی افریقا
[Yeni Afrika / New Africa].

Istanbul: Aladdin Matba-sı, 1927.

Colour off-set print (Good, some light staining, wear and some very minor loss along old folds,tiny loss of paper in folds on the right-hand side) 63 x 94 cm (25 x 37 inches).

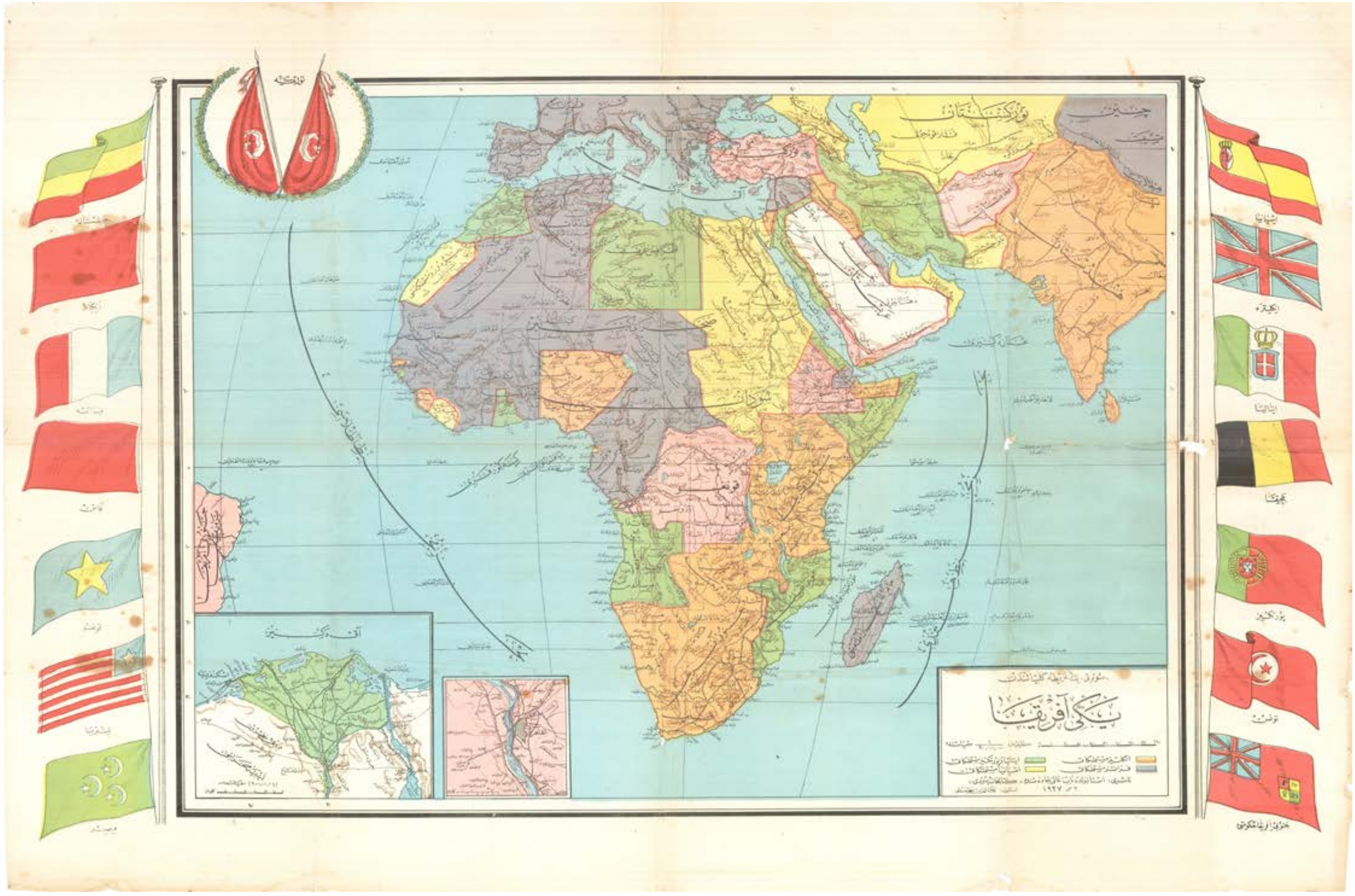
A very rare, large format, separately issued map of Africa that is perhaps the last great map of the continent to be printed in Ottoman Turkish script, with attractive colours and adorned with the flags of major African states and colonies, published in Istanbul for the Kitabhane-yi Sudi bookshop.

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

The map shows the state of play in Africa in the post-World War I era, after Britain, France and Belgium took over Germany's former empire on the continent (Britain gained Namibia and what is today mainland Tanzania; France took over Togo and most of Cameroon; while Belgium gained Rwanda and Burundi). As such, France is shown to have consolidated control over most of the northwestern quadrant of Africa, while Britain finally realized Cecil Rhodes's dream of possessing an uninterrupted expanse of territory from the 'the Cape to Cairo' (when counting Egypt and Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, which were not colonies, but rather British protectorates). Liberia and Ethiopia remain the only parts of Africa not under some form of European control. Belgium possesses an enlarged empire in the Congo, while Italy controls Libya, Eritrea and much of Somalia. The insets in the lower left corner detail the Nile Delta and Greater Cairo.

The map is beautifully adorned on both sides with flags, including (on the left, top to bottom:) Ethiopia, Zanzibar, France, Fez (Morocco), Belgian Congo, Liberia and Egypt; (on the right, top to bottom:) Spain, England, Italy, Belgium, Portugal and South Africa.
All of the maps from the Kitabhane-yi Sudi series of the continents are today very rare, as due to their large size and separate issue they have a low survival rate.

650 EUR


تركيه
جبل طارق
ايطاليا
بلجيكا
البرتغال
تونس
بريطانيا العظمى
خريطة أفريقيا السياسية
١٩٢٧

19. KHARTOUM, SUDAN
IMPORTANT MSS. ADDITIONS
MALCOLM FORBES COLLECTION

ANGLO-EGYTIAN STATE SURVEYORS. / Edward Alexander STANTON (1867 - 1947).

Khartoum City / Scale 4 Inches = 1 Mile.

[Probably Khartoum: Muderieh Press, 1904].

Bi-Chrome lithograph, with contemporary mss. additions of an itinerary route in coloured crayon and inscription in mss. in black pen singed in lower part by Khartoum Governor Edward A. Stanton, January 29, 1905, bearing blue ink handstamp in English and Arabic of 'Mudir's Office / Khartoum Muderieh / 20 Oct 1904'; Malcolm Forbes's former inventory code "A82033F ROOSEVELT" in pencil to verso (Very Good, overall clean and bright, light wear along vertical centrefold and tiny chip out of blank margin top centre), 30 x 38.5 cm (12 x 15 inches).

A unique example of a seemingly unrecorded map of Khartoum from the early days of Anglo-Egyptian regime, a highly detailed view showcasing the newly redeveloped city built upon a rational geometric plan, with a key noting 46 sites, plus, an additional 20 locations labelled directly on the map; based upon surveys by Anglo-Egyptian engineers under the supervision of the Khartoum Governor (known locally as the 'Mudir') Edward Alexander Stanton, himself an professional surveyor-cartographer, the map was likely published in Khartoum in 1904 by the Muderieh Press for high-level official use, as evidenced here, as the map features the manuscript itinerary of a city tour, with an inscription signed by Stanton – with an intriguing provenance, having one been once owned by the flamboyant mega-collector Malcolm Forbes (1919-90).

Khartoum, today the capital of the Republic of Sudan, with a metro population of over 6 million, is strategically located on the Blue Nile, near where it joins the White Nile to form the (great) Nile. It was founded in 1821 as an outpost by the Egyptian generalissimo Ibrahim Pasha and was made the capital of Egyptian Sudan in 1830. By the 1860s, Khartoum was a major trading hub, and the location of foreign consulates and mercantile establishments.

In 1884-5, Khartoum was besieged by the armies of the Mahdist Islamist movement, which eventually stormed the city, slaughtering its Anglo-Egyptian garrison and killing the British war hero, Sir Charles Gordon, in what was one of the greatest disasters in the history of the British Empire.




KHARTOUM CITY.
Scale 6 Inches = 1 Mile.
N I L E
B L U E
BRITISH BARRACKS
ARAB SQUARE
Reference.
1. Gordon College
2. Supply Yard
3. Military Hospital
4. Medical Officers
5. Egyptian Officers Club
6. Officers Houses
7. Secretary General's House
8. Stone Barracks
9. Roman Catholic Mission & Church
10. Sweden Club
11. Officers Quarters
12. Works Department
13. The Palace
14. Government Offices
15. Post & Telegraph Offices
16. Modern Houses
17. Financial Sec.ys House
18. Government Quarter
19. Adjutant Generals Quarters
20. Commandants House
21. Director of Morals House
22. Vacant Site
23. Said Ali Morphano's House
24. Slavery Dept. House
25. Coptic Church
26. Grand Hotel
27. Zoological Gardens
28. Tennis Courts
29. Mercado landing place
30. Mudirie Offices & Civil Courts
31. Government Shops
32. Bank of Egypt
33. All Saints (British Church)
34. British N.C.O's Mess & Quarters
35. Moravian Church
36. Military School
37. Site of Civil Hospital
38. National Bank of Egypt
39. Covered Bazaar
40. Fish, Meat & Vegetable Market
41. Mosque
42. Greek Church
43. Native Markets
44. Christian Cemetery
45. Municipal Stables
46. Provision Depôt
Route per Carriage -
Q. 30 AM Monday Feb 6th
out to Gordon College.
back through Town
MUDIR'S OFFICE
20 OCT 1904
KHARTOUM MUDERIEH
29.1.85.
Sw. Klin. Pr Minister.

In September 1898, a British expeditionary force led by the famed General Horatio Kitchener recaptured Khartoum from the Mahdists, making Sudan into an Anglo-Egyptian condominium. In 1899, Khartoum became the capital of Sudan; however, the city had been almost destroyed during the conflicts. It was rebuilt according to a rational geometric plan devised by Kitchener (who was a professional surveyor-cartographer), as shown upon the present map.

Considerable sums were spent to revive Khartoum, and within a short time, it became one of the best-appointed cities in Africa, with many grand public edifices and commercial premises. In 1902, its population was recorded as being 25,000, and was rapidly growing, as the city would have 69,349 residents by 1907!

A transformative figure in the history of Khartoum was Colonel (later General Sir) Edward Alexander Stanton (1867-1947), who served as the Governor of Khartoum Province from 1900 to 1907. Locally, his title was known as the 'Mudir' (from the Ottoman müdür, meaning director or chief), and his office was known as the 'Muderieh'.

Stanton was a military engineer who made many important maps for Kitchener's Expedition of 1898, during which he was credited for meritorious service. Stanton was instrumental in overseeing the construction of the new city of Khartoum according to Kitchener's urban plan. As Mudir, he was seen as highly competent leader, who gained the respect of the locals, while ensuring the orderly growth of the city. Stanton subsequently served as the military governor of Haifa (Palestine), from 1918 to 1920, a highly sensitive role.

The Present Map in Focus

The map presents one of the most detailed impressions of Khartoum from the early period of Anglo-Egyptian rule. It marvelously showcases Kitchener's rational geometric urban plan, with even grids and diagonal streets, framing squares and greenspaces. The Blue Nile runs to the North, with Khartoum's waterfront lined by its famous palm groves and quays, while sites such as markets, the statue of General Gordon, and various army barracks are labelled. An impressive sign of modernity, a tramway is shown to cross the city.

The 'References', in the lower right, identifies 46 sites, noting public institutions, places of worship, clubs, commercial premises, military facilities, and recreational sites. Highlights include: 1. Gordon Memorial College (founded 1903), the impressive educational institution that is today the University of Khartoum; 13. The Palace; 15. Post & Telegraph Office; 16. the Mudir's house; and the 26. Grand Hotel.

The map is predicated upon surveys undertaken by Arab surveyors (likely Egyptians) operating under Governor Stanton's close supervision. They surveyors are credited on a related map (today held by the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Library, please see below), with the line 'Mul. Awal. Muhd. Eff. El. Said. Samaha. Khartoum Surveyor'.

While the map does not feature a date or imprint, it was likely issued in Khartoum in 1904 by the press of the Muderieh (established in 1899). It features a blue ink handstamp, in the lower left corner, in English and Arabic, that rads 'Mudir's Office / Khartoum Muderieh / 20 Oct 1904', so certifying the map as an official issue of the governor's administration.

Making the map a special artefact of the early Anglo-Egyptian Khartoum, it features a manuscript itinerary of a city tour, in coloured crayon, with an inscription, in black pen, signed by Governor Stanton in the lower part that reads: "Route for Carriage - / 9.30 AM Monday Feb 6th / out to Gordon College. / back through Town / E.A. Stanton / 29.1.05 / Gov. Ktm…". The note seemingly refers to a tour that was undertaken by a visiting dignitary who was a guest of the Mudir.

The present map seems to be unrecorded, which is not so surprising, as it would have been issued in only a handful of examples for the private use of the Mudir and his associates. We can trace a single record for what seems to be a similar map, credited to Stanton, Khartoum City. Mudiria Map no.2 (Provisional) (but obviously misdated '1895' in the library catalogue; it certainly dates from after 1899), held by the Bodleian Library (Oxford University).

The content of the present map seems to have been incorporated into a map of the broader Khartoum-Omdurman area, Provisional map of Khartoum City: Khartoum North and Omdurman / Compiled for use of the Khartoum Mudiria by Lieut. Colonel E.A. Stanton, Governor Khartoum Province (n.d., but likely Khartoum: Muderieh Press, 1905-6), which was gifted by Stanford in 1906 to the American Geographical Society Library (today held by the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Library):

https://collections.lib.uwm.edu/digital/collection/agdm/id/987/

An Intriguing Provenance

The present example of the map bears a wonderful provenance, having belonged to Malcolm Forbes (1919 – 1990), the American publishing tycoon who was known for his flamboyant lifestyle. One of the greatest connoisseurs of the 20th century, he is best known for his grand collection of Faberge Eggs, although he was also one of the world greatest collectors of books, manuscripts, and maps. Indeed, his bibliophilic collection was said to have filled several mansions in three continents! After his death, his collections were sold at a variety of venues. The present map bears his former inventory code of "A82033F ROOSEVELT", in pencil to the verso.

References: N/A – Present map seemingly unrecorded. Cf. (re: related maps:)
Bodleian Library (Oxford University): E4:20 Khartoum (7); American Geographical Society Library, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Libraries: (AGS) (MAPS) 317-d .K42 A-[1906].

850 EUR

20. FIRST PRINTED BOOK ON MODERN PHYSICS IN THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Mehmet Emin Derviş Paşa (1817-1878).

اصول حکمت طبیعیه
[Usûl-i Hikmet-i Tabiiye / Principals of Natural Science]

Istanbul: Matbaa-i Âmire 1281 [1865].

8°. [8] pp. index, [3 pp.] introduction, 454 pp. letterpress, 24 lithographed folding plated with 337 images, contemporary dark brown morocco with gold tooling and title on the spine, contemporary marbled endpapers, marbled edges (binding slightly scuffed and rubbed with small loss of material on the spine, cracks along the hinges, small scribbles to the rear of the front loose endpaper, tiny ink staining on verso of the last plate, plates with light folds and tiny tears in margins, but otherwise internally clean with minor light staining mostly to the plates).

The first printed book on modern physics in the Ottoman Empire.

The author Mehmet Emin Derviş Paşa (1817-1878) studied engineering in Istanbul, London and Paris. After his return to the Ottoman Empire he became a teacher of physics, engineering, geometry and chemistry at the Military and Medical Schools. In 1863, Mehmet Emin Derviş Paşa became the first professor of modern applied physics at the Istanbul University.

This book, being the first printed book on modern physics in the Ottoman Empire, gathered the contemporary Western knowledge on hydraulics, compass, sound, gravitation, pressure, temperature, light, camera obscura, projections, optics, use of mirrors, telescope, surveying with modern equipment, electricity, lightnings and natural phenomena in the sky.

Collation

The book includes 24 folding plates, which the bibliography of the Ottoman printed books, written by Özege, fails to mention. We have encountered several incomplete examples on the market.

Note on Rarity

The book is very rare. There were two editions of the book, ours, dated 1281(1865) on the

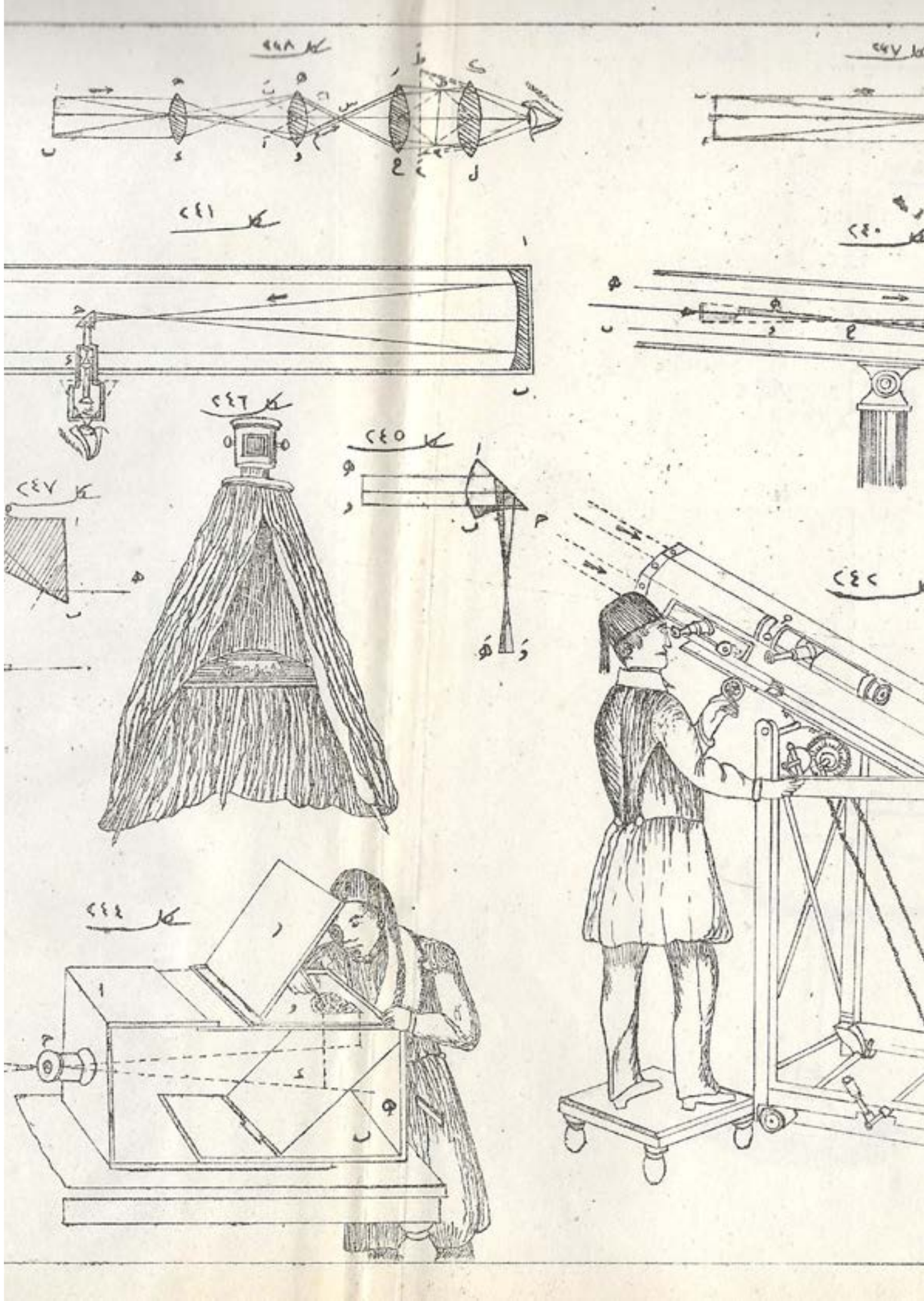


last text page, and a second, 1287 (1871) edition, printed by Mekteb-i Sanayi Matbaası.

We could only trace one example of this first edition (The British Library, OCLC 1064656565) and three examples of the second edition (Leiden University Libraries, Princeton University Library, OCLC 49368193 and National Library of Israel, OCLC 1285864743).

References: OCLC 1064656565; ÖZEGE 22161.

1.400 EUR



21. GEOGRAPHY
PERSIA
DAR UL-FUNUN, TEHRAN

عبدالغفار نجم‌الدوله
[Abdul Ghaffar Khan Najm al-Dawlah, also Najm al-Mulk 1839 or 1840 - 1908].

فایت الجغرافیا
[Principles of Geography]

Tehran: Dar ul-Funun 1319 [1903].

12°. 290 pp. lithographed text with illustrations and a map, folding map, contemporary half reddish-brown goat with black linen boards (binding hardly noticeable rubbed and stained, small old signature in black ink on the inner side of the back board, old black book-sellers' stamps, but otherwise in a good condition with only light sporadic staining)

A rare illustrated Persian book on geography, written by the leading Tehran-based astronomer and geographer Abdul Ghaffar Najm al-Mulk and published by Dar ul-Funun.

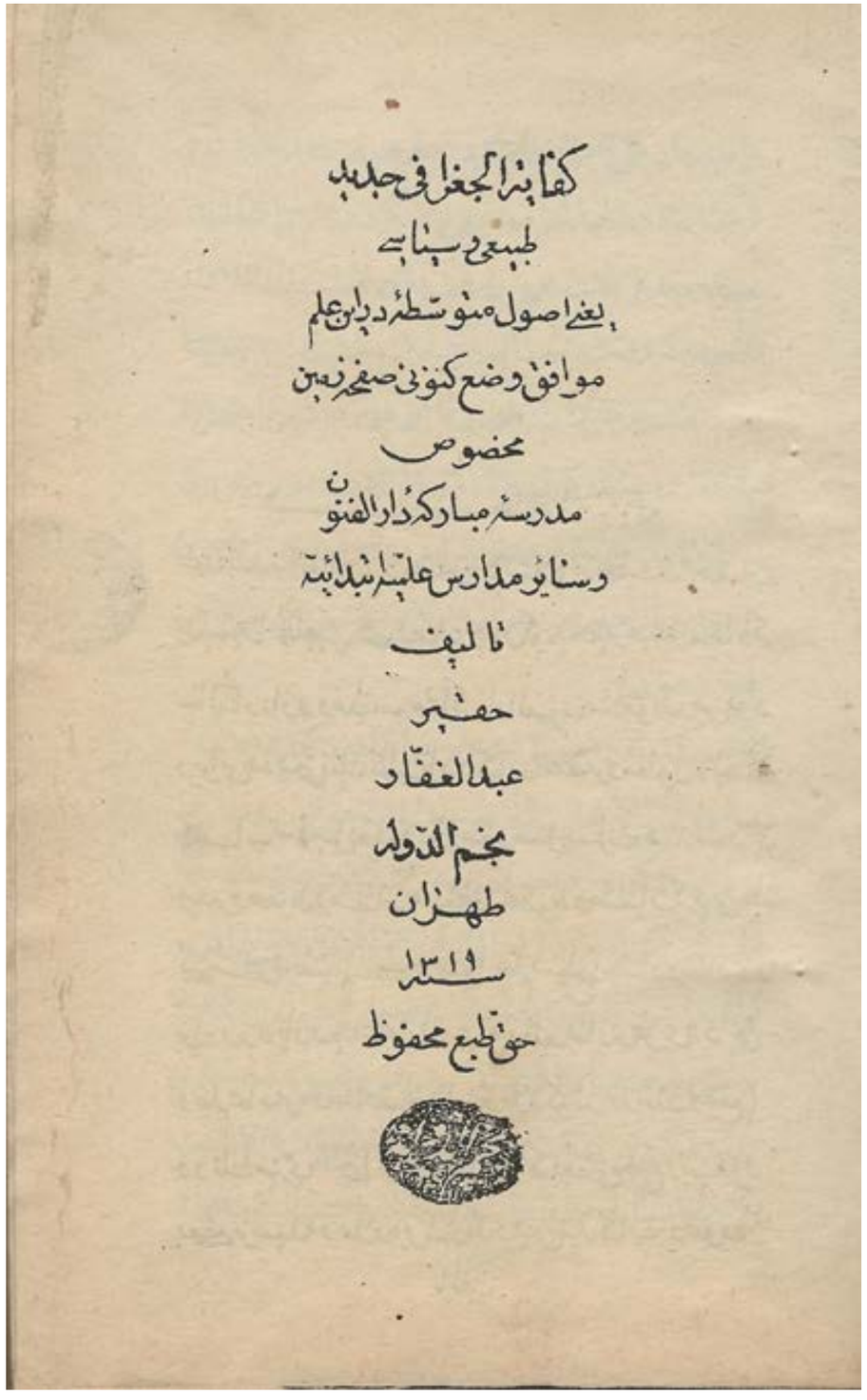
The work was written by Abdul Ghaffar Najm al-Dawlah, also known as Najm al-Mulk (نجم الملك), a leading Persian astronomer, surveyor and mathematician of the late 19th and early 20th century.

His father Mulla 'Ali Muhammad Isfahani (Esfahani) was one of the pioneers of Persian modern mathematics and on of the first professors at Dar al-Funun (university) in Tehran. Najm al-Dawlah became one of the earliest graduates of Dar al-Funun, where he was soon named "Professor of all the exact sciences" his main subjects were mathematics and engineering, but he also spent large amounts of time researching astronomy and geography, a knowledge that was not appreciated on this level until some decades later. He is today mostly known for his map of Tehran, preservation of historical monuments and his adjustment of the calendar.

We could not find any institutional examples on Woldcat.

References: Cf.: Maryam Saghafi, Abd al-Ghaffar Najm al-Mulk and his role in the transition from traditional geography to modern geography. C . A. Storey, Persian Literature. A Bio-Bibliographicsl Survey, Vol. 2., Brill, p. 19, n. 50.

1.600 EUR


كفاية الجغرافي جديد
طبعي وسياسي
يعني اصول متوسطه درباره علم
موافق وضع كنوني صفحه زمين
مخصوص
مدرسه مباركه دار الفنون
وسايره مدارس علميه ابتدائيه
تاليف
حقير
عبدالغفار
نجم الدوله
طهران
سنه ١٣١٩
حق طبع محفوظ



که انجا بعضی بناها مینمایند تا انکه کشتی بتواند با یمنی
و اطمینان انجا ایستاده بار گیری کند و بار خود را
خالی کند و بنا در هم بعضی اسامی خاصی دارند

بوغاز دربند حلق س ۱۴۷ معبر تنگ و باریکی
است که دریا میان زمین و خاک باز کرده باشد

بوغاز بر چند قسم است بعضی را **تنگه** و **مضیق**
و بعضی را **فار** و **لبغر** گویند و بعضی بوغازها
جلی تنگ و معروف اند باسم **مثعب** و **خانق** و **عنق**

اصطلاحات متعلقه ببرآمدگی خاک

اجزای خاکی که با اختلاف درجه بر بلندی و بلندی دانی نسبت
بکفه دریا **برآمدگی** زمین گویند

دشت س ۱۴۷ زمینی است هموار و کلیتاً گفته
بکفه دریا بلندی زیاد ندارد

فلات س ۱۵۷ زمینی است بلند و غالب هموار و انرا
نجد و **نجف** نیز گویند

تپه گرد بوه بلندی زمین باشد و در افغانستان و
ارتفاعش از کفه دریا کمتر از ۵۰۰ متر باشد و در افغانی

نقشهٔ ایران قدیم

بحر خزر

کارمانی

مدی

پارتیان

هرکانیا

آریا

کویر کارمانی

درانژیان

کویر عربستان

فارس

جدروزی

22. ASTRONOMY
OTTOMAN EMPIRE

حسن بدرالدين (Hasan BEDRETTIN (BEDREDDIN) KÜTAHYALI also Hasan BEDRETTIN Pasha, 1850-1914).

قوزموغرافيا ياخود علم احوال سما
[Kozmografya yahud İlm-i Ahvâl-i Sema / Cosmography or Knowledge of Situation of the Sky. Second Edition]

Istanbul: Mekteb-i Fünûn-u Harbiye-i Şâhâne Matbaası 1301 [1885].

8°. [16 pp.], 362 pp. with black and white printed and mounted illustrations in text, 17 interleaved black and white illustrations, including one folding plate, contemporary black linen boards with debossed lined and gold debossed Ottoman insignia, greenish-brown leather spine with gold tooling and lettering, original purple endpapers (annotations in pencil to the title page and rear loose endpaper, traces of pink paper from original wrappers on the cover, internally clean with minor age-toning, endpapers with soft folds and tiny tears in margins, binding slightly scuffed with tiny chips and bumps on the corners).

An Ottoman book on astronomy, illustrated with fine black and white aquatints, was written for educational purposes and was based on the latest French popular works on astronomy, such as books by Amédée Guillemin (1826 – 1893) and Charles Briot (1817-1882).

The author of the book was Hasan Bedreddin (1850-1914), who was at the time working as officer, educator and translator at the military school. He later became a known playwright, working closely with Manastırlı Mehmet Rıfat (1851-1907). In 1876, Hasan Bedreddin, together with Mehmet Rıfat , became one of the leaders of the coup, which overthrew sultan Abdulaziz.

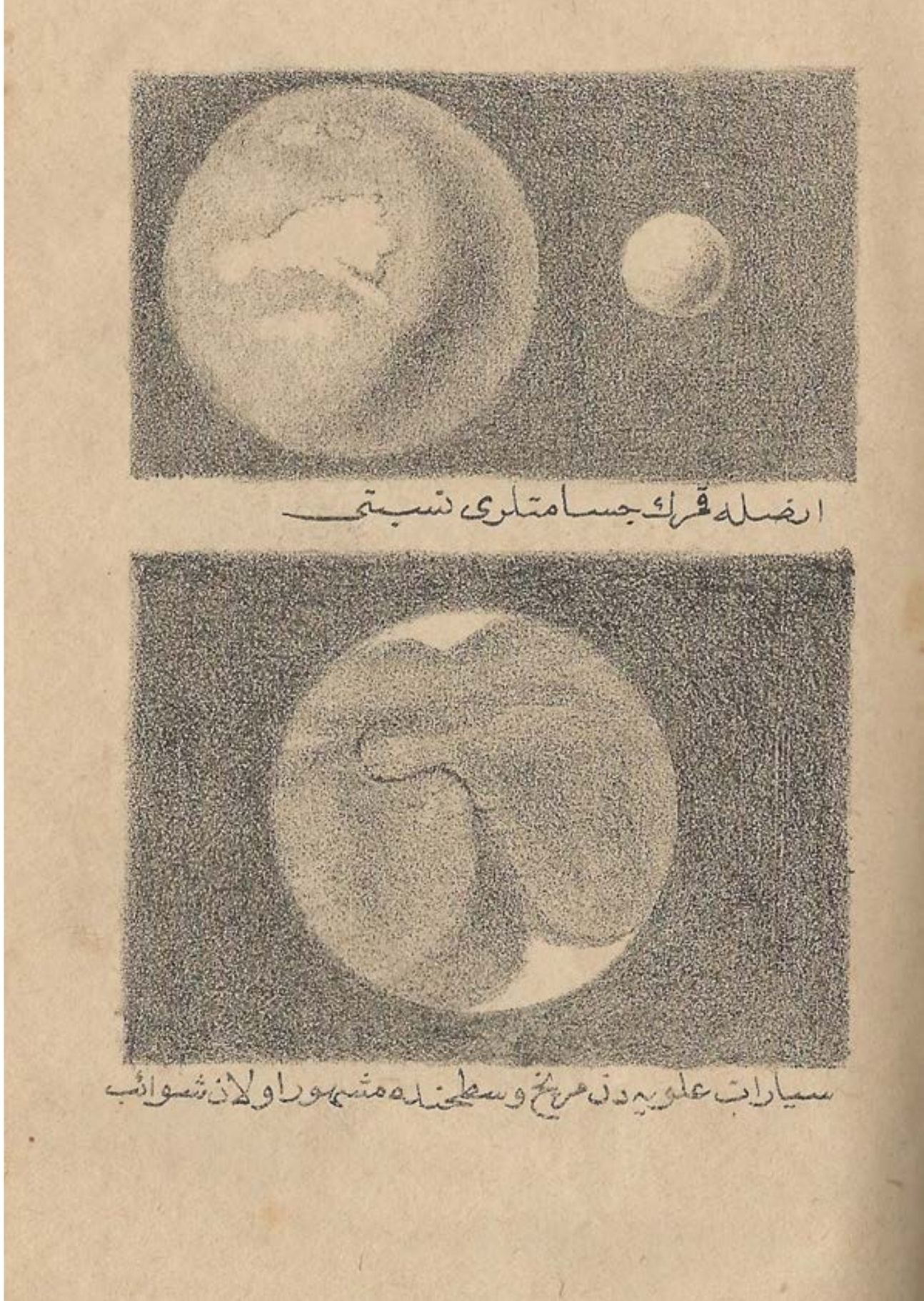
This is the second edition. The first edition was made for the school year of 1292 of the Ottoman Hijri calendar, suggesting it was made 1876 AD or before.

There were at least four editions, which differ by numbers of plates. Some later editions kept the date 1292 on the title page.

We could find four examples of the first edition on Worldcat (National Library of Israel, Universiteitsbibliotheek Leiden, Boğaziçi University Library, Linda Hall). Our, second edition, is dated 1301 on the last page.

References: BDK - ÖZEGE 11206 - TBTK 11732. Osmanlı astronomi literat ü r ü tari - hi. History of astronomy literature during the Ottoman period, 1997, pp. 695-696. no. 536.

620 EUR



23. SAUDI ARABIA

محمد طارق الافريقى الخبيري (Muhammad Tariq Al-Afriqi, 1888-1955)

الدولة السعودية فى الجزيرة العربية
[The Saudi State in the Arabian Peninsula]

Damascus: 1944.

8°, [4 pp.], portrait, 48 pp. with a map in text, 3 interleaved illustrations, original wrappers with illustrated cover, errata mounted on the inner side of the front cover (cover with folds, tiny chips in margins, spine repaired with modern tape).

A detailed history on the foundation of modern Saudi Arabia under Ibn Saud, written by the first Saudi minister of war Muhammad Tariq Al-Afriqi.

The book, describing the foundation of modern Saudi Arabia with its first years under king Abdulaziz bin Abdul Rahman Al Saud (reign 1926 – 1932), was written by a military commander Muhammad Tariq Al-Afriqi (1888-1955), with a real name Muhammad Tariq Ibn Abdulkadir Al-Tarabulsi (محمد طارق عبد القادر الطرابلسي), also known as Tariq the African (Tariq Al-Afriqi) or The Black Tiger of Jerusalem (نمر القدس الأسود). He earned his nickname "the African" for being of Libyan origins with Nigerian mother. After World War I he obtained Syrian citizenship.

Tariq Al-Afriqi started his career in the Ottoman Empire under Wehib Pasha and later, as one of the founders of modern Saudi army, climbed to the rank of Major General in Saudi Arabia. He served as the first head of Ministry of war under king Ibn Saud. Tariq Al-Afriqi was known for several campaigns, important for the independence of Arabic people, such as battles against Italians and French in north Africa and British in Egypt.

Worldcat lists one institutional example (American University of Beirut).

References: OCLC 1041875946.

960 EUR



24. PERSIAN LITHOGRAPHED BOOKS

Ahmad bin Mohammad-Mahdi Naraqi (died 1244 AH / 1828).

تقدس
[Taqdis]

[S. l., S. n., but probably Tehran, ca 1860s-1880s].

Large 8°: 185 pp. lithographed text with illustrations, contemporary green goat with small paper label with title in black ink on the spine, two fragments of lithographed pages from other books used as paste down endpapers (Persian black book-seller's stamps in white margins, Russian blind book seller's stamp in white margins, binding with small scratches and age-toning, sporadic margins trimmed into the upper text, with tiny loss of lettering, otherwise a crisp, clean and partly uncut example, first blank page with old lettering in blue pencil and mounted paper with annotations by a previous owner).

Educational and moral stories in verses, accompanied with illustrations.

A rare Persian lithographed book contains illustrated short stories. We could not find any record in literature available to us nor any institutional example son Worldcat, although tracing Persian books with variations in titles is not always precise.

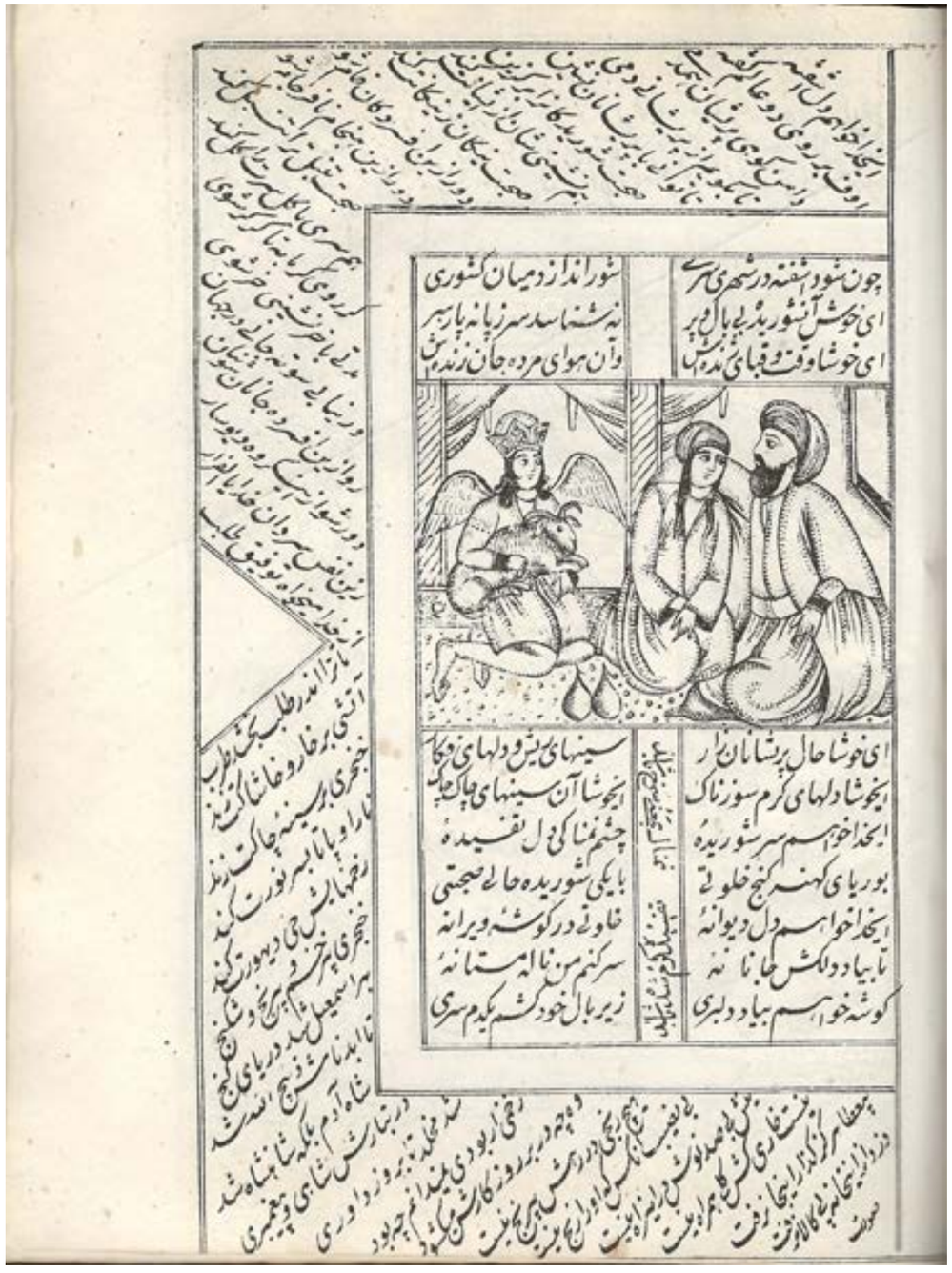
Provenience

The book was purchased in the second half of the 19th century probably in Persia by John Fargues, an assistant superintendent of the English telegraph staff in Iran, a member of the Asiatic Society in Paris and a translator from Persian. Fargues was known for his translation of a treatise on Persian tiles and ceramics by Ali Muhammas Isfahani (active 1870s-1888) and published it under the title On the Manufacture of Modern Kashi Earthenware Tiles and Vases (Karimi 2013, p. 18).

Fargues is signed with a manuscript annotation "J. Fargues" on the first blank page.

Still in the 19th century the book came to the collection of Charles-Henri-Auguste Schefer (1820 – 1898), a professor at Ecole des languages orientales, translator and bibliophile. His collection and estate were sold at auctions in 1898 and 1899. The annotations on a paper, mounted in this book, are typical for the collection, the book was purchased with. Several books connect this collection and the inserted notes directly with Charles-Henri-Auguste Schefer through the auction catalogues of his estate and through his ex-libris.

2.800 EUR



25. ORIENATLISM IN PRAGUE RESEARCHES ON AFRICA, MIDDLE EAST AND INDIA IN AUSTRO-HUNGARY

ANONYMOUS.

Linguistische Verein in Prag
[Linguistic Society in Prague]

[S. l., S. d., but Prague: circa 1895].

Gelatin silver photo, contemporary mounted on thick card, manuscript numbers recto in margin, black manuscript in black ink and pencil on the back, 12 x 16,5 cm (4.7 x 6.5 inches), (minor foxing verso, overall in a good condition).

A photograph of today little known Prague-based Linguistic Society, joining the prominent Austro-Hungarian researchers of Africa, as well as Indian, Arabic and Classical languages.

A (Scientific) Society for Folklore and Linguistics ((Wissenschaftliches) Verein für Volkskunde und Linguistik) was founded in Prague in 1893 with the first meeting held on February 20. The group under the directorship of professor Otto Keller and composed of men and women, gathered once per month in an upper class Prague hotel, where one of the academical members held a lecture (Hochschul Nachrichten, nr. 30, March 26, 1893, p. 23).
The members of the society were several prominent scientists of the time, such as the Africa explorer Oskar Lenz, Arabist Max Grünert and Indologist Alfred Ludwig. It is unclear how long the Society was active, but they issued several important publications into the early 20th century (last one 1906?).

Our photo names on reverse in handwriting 15 people of 31 present, which could be identifies as following:

[no. nr. 1]

2. Alois Rzach (1850 - 1935) Austrian professor of classic philology and author.

3. Mr. Quoika, probably Anton Quoika, a merchant in sugar and other products from Prague (Jahrbuch des Prager Dombau-Vereins 1893, p. 70; Handels- und Gewerbe-Adressbuch des österreichischen Kaiserstaates enthaltend: die sämmtlichen, nach dem neuen mit 1. Juli 1863… 1976, p. 385; et al.).




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4. Max Grünert (1849 - 1929), Orientalist and Arabist.

5. Otto Keller (1838 - 1927) a German classical philologist and president of the society.

6. Alfred Ludwig (1832 - 1912), an Austrian Indologist and professor.

7. Oskar Lenz (1848 - 1925), a geologist and Africa explorer, who in 1879 - 1880 led the first trans-Sahara expedition from Morocco to Senegal and in 1885 - 1887 the Austro-Hungarian Congo Expedition.

8. Mrs. Scholz.

9. Elsa Maly, later Mrs. Lederer.

10. Mr. Scholz and his wife.

11. Paula Lenz, née Ridolfi, wife of prof. Oscar Lenz.

12. Mrs. Quoika, née Morawcz, wife of Mr. Quoika (Jahrbuch des Prager Dombau-Vereins 1893, p. 70).

13. Wife of a State Council Willkomm (Frau Staatsr. Willkomm), probably the wife of a botanist and one of a founding members of the Society, Moritz Willkomm (1821-1895), who also held a title of a state council (Staatsrat Dr. Moritz Willkomm, Allgemeine Botanische Zeitschrift 1, 1895, pp. 89-92). Willkomm married Klara Angelika Contius in 1854. They allegedly had five daughters and two sons.

14. Eugenie Keller, wife of Otto Keller.

15. Clothilde Keller (1874-1958), daughter of Otto and Eugenie Keller. In 1901, she married Rudolf Schaar, the state building engineer, and worked as an artist.

16. Minnerl (i. e. Wilhelmine) Quoika, probably a daughter of a wealthy Prague-based merchant Anton and his wife (Jahrbuch des Prager Dombau-Vereins 1893, p. 70).

The manuscript on the back reads on the bottom: “Präs. D. Verein: Mein Vater Otto Keller” (President of the Society: My Father Otto Keller), indicating that the owner of the photo was one of the children of professor Keller. Keller had two sons and one daughter: Sigmund (1870-1943), a prominent law historian and librarian, Wolfgang (1873-1943), a professor of literature and English, and Clothilde (1874-1958), an artist.

The photo is described on the back as made between 1890 and 1900, but had to be made in or after 1893, when the Society was founded. We could probably put its date closer to its foundation or around 1895, as Otto Keller appears slightly younger than on his portrait from 1897. Possibly the photo was made at a soirée, dedicated to the botanist and one of the founding members of the Society for Folklore and Linguistics, Moritz Willkomm, who passed on on August 26, 1895. A lady named “Mrs. State Council Willkomm” is seated in the center of the front row, infront of the president Otto Keller, and wearing a different, somehow more outstanding dress than other women of her age appears to be the guest of honour.

Only scarce information on this international Prague-based society, active for about two decades, are known today, mostly through contemporary sources.

The photo is an ephemeral insight into a little-known academic Bohemian, Austrian and German association, combining knowledge from ancient Greece, to contemporary Arabic and Indian languages as well as surveys of Africa, that should in the future deserve further researches.

550 EUR

26. TYPOGRAPHY
OTTOMAN INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL FOR GIRLS
WOMAN EMANCIPATION

Fatma NEVBER.

حديت مارقه لرى
[Hürriyet Markaları]

Laleli [Istanbul:] Dârülmuallimât - Ali Naki Efendi [S.d., but circa 1910].

8°, [48 pp.] with 24 full-page lithographed plates, facing in pairs and blank verso, original wrappers with red lettering (wrappers with light foxing and staining, small tears in margins and Ottoman bookseller's stamp, Ottoman annotations in pencil on the first blank page and in the upper margins, of plates, margins with small age-toning and tiny folds, sporadic sheets restored at hinges).

A rare book of patterns for letters, made for an Ottoman industrial school for girls by a feminist Fatma Nevber.

A rare book with various full-page ornamental Ottoman / Arabic letters was published by Dârülmuallimât, an Industrial School for Girls at the Lalei district in Istanbul. On the title page of the book the author is named as Fatma Nevber, the first teacher at Preveza İnas Rüşdiye Mektebi (Preveza Secondary School for Girls).

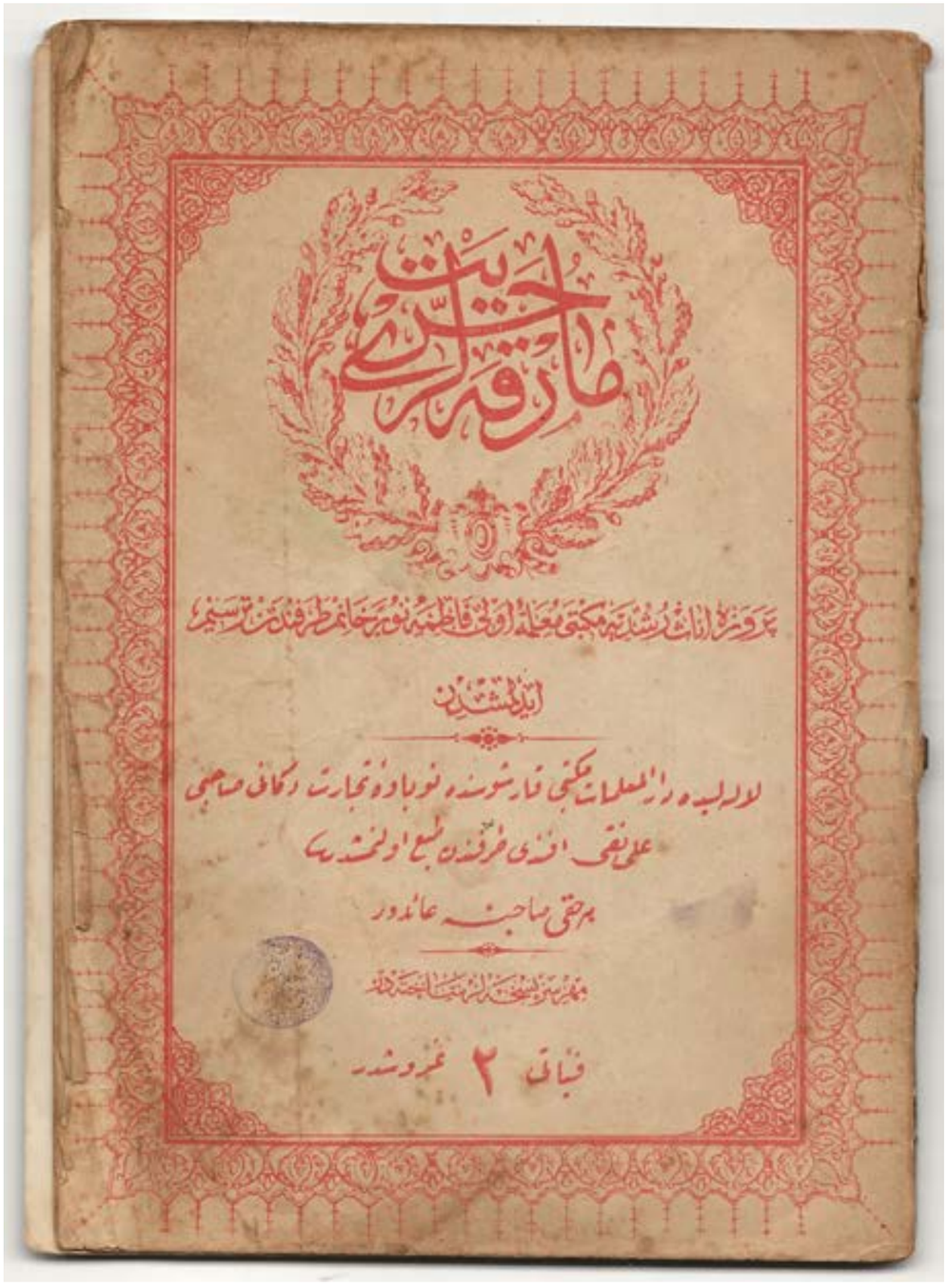
The author is probably identical with Fatma Nevber, one of the pioneering Ottoman feminists and journalists. She was one of the founders and editors of the first Ottoman feminist magazine, established on January 18, 1886. Nevber was fighting a stereotype, made by the Ottoman men, which described women as "long hair and short mind". She was also one of the first public women, who was using her own family name and not the one of her father or husband. Most of the women of her time were in the Ottoman Empire only known by their first name.

A sschool for girls *Dârülmuallimât* was a progressive institution in the Ottoman Empire, founded during the Tanzimat period. In the late 19th and early 20th century, it developed in various branches, one of them being the Industrial School for Girls, which made an important step in educating girls and young women.

We could not find any institutional examples on Worldcat.

References: ÖZEGE; 8092.

780 EUR



ع حنى



ظ حنى



27. PRIMER
EDUCATION OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN

S. İLHAMI.

جمحوريت جوچوقلرينه كلمه اوصوليله صوك توركجه الفبا
[Cumhuriyet Çocuklarına Kelime Usûliyle Son Türkçe Elifba / The Latest Turkish Elifba with a Word Learning Method for Children of the Republic, 4th edition]

Istanbul: Ibrahim Hilmi 1928.

8°: 64 pp. with black and white illustrations in text, original illustrated wrappers (wrappers little stained and chipped in margins, internally clean, one wormhole going throughout the book, price stamp on the rear wrapper).

A primer in Perso-Arabic letters, made in the first years of the Turkish Republic with an attractive cover, showcasing a woman educating children.

A rare primer, printed in the last year of the use of Perso-Arabic letters in Turkish Republic, is accompanied with black and white illustrations, partly taken from Western sources.

The primer not only promotes the education of children, but with its cover also the importance of educated women.

Not much is known about the first two editions, but the third and the fourth one were both published in 1928 and differ slightly by their covers.

We could not trace any institutional examples on Worldcat.

Referrences: ÖZEGE 315.

380 EUR



28. WOMAN EMANCIPATION
EROTICA
REPUBLIC OF TURKEY

Abdülhak Hamit, Cenap Şahabettin, Faik Ali, Celal Sahir, Reşad Nuri, Halide Nusret Zorlutuna, Güzide Osman, Peyami Safa, Mehmet Refik Bey et al.

نوسال ادبی
[Nevsâl-i Edebî 1340/ Youthful Literature 1924]

Istanbul: Amedî Matbaası 1339 - 1342 [1923 - 1926].

Large 8°: 80 pp. with black and white illustrations in text, original wrappers with illustrated cover (small tears in margins, wrappers slightly rubbed with soft folds and tiny tears, left margin cut into image with a narrow stripe of image missing).

A stunning publication in Ottoman language with erotic illustrations, glorifying the new liberties gained by women only recently in the newly founded Republic of Turkey.

An Ottoman pamphlet with a stunning cover, representing two modern Turkish women with an image of a nude woman on the beach on the wall behind them, contains various short stories and poems by contemporary female and male authors. The illustrations in this publication represent women in modern clothing, partly dressed and also nude and glorify the female body, as men are presented as old-fashioned caricatures.

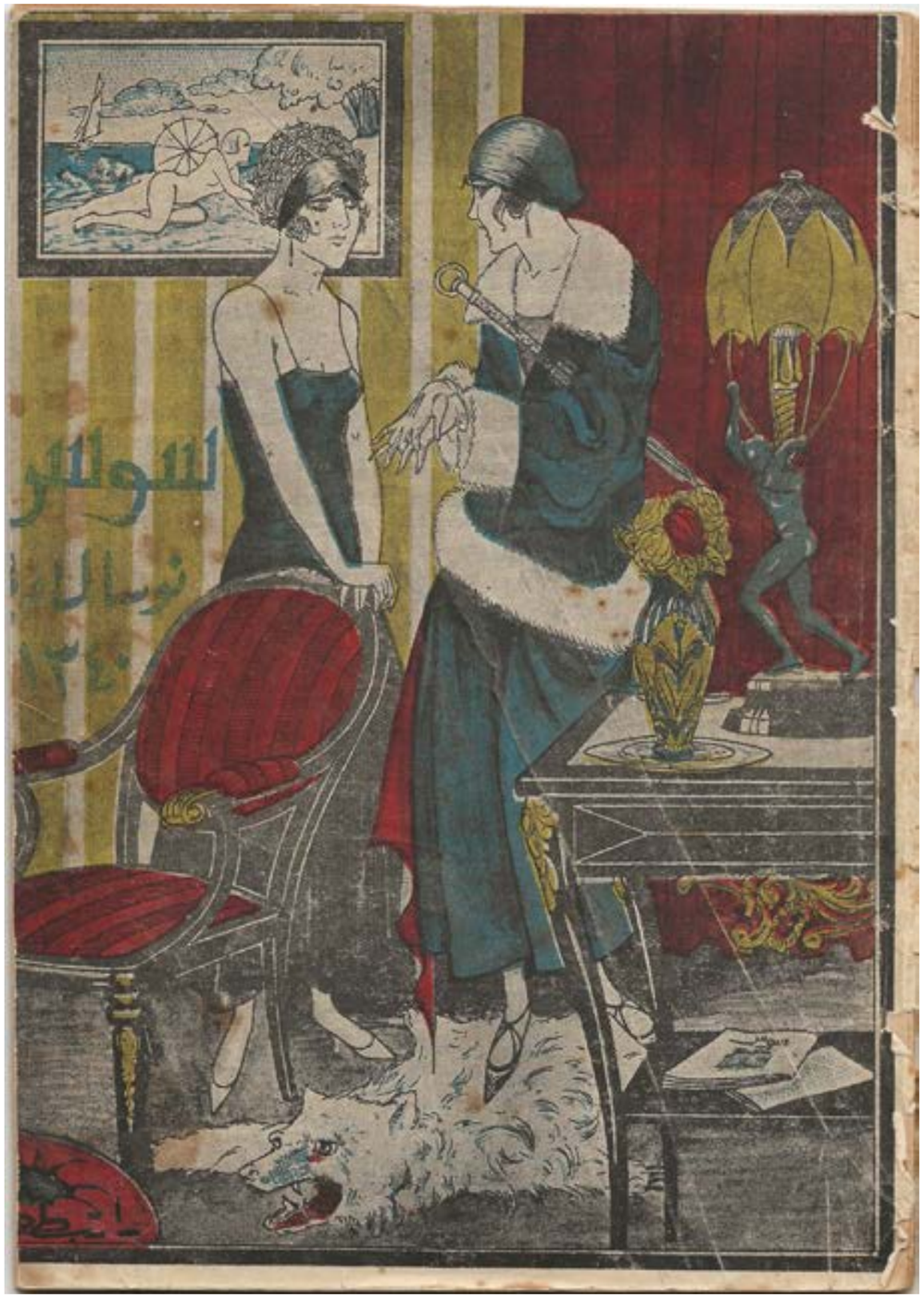
The books was published by a shortly lived magazine Süs, which was issued between June 16 1923 and 1924, and was dedicated to women, their education and liberties.

After the foundation of the Turkish Republic women gained a series of revolutionary new rights, such as public appearances without a veil, which enabled them the enjoyment of the western 1920s lifestyle. Many modern women embraced the new liberties rapidly, what was projected in contemporary art, literature and publications, such as this one.

We could trace one institutional example on Worldcat (Princeton University Library). The others appear to be eBooks.

References: OCLC 780194993, 283679353.

420 EUR



29. COOKBOOKS
MUMBAI IMPRINT

American Women's Club of Bombay

Favorite recipes used by American Women's Club of Bombay

Bombay: [S. d., but circa 1930].

8°: [6 pp.], 107 pp. with black and white advertisements and interleaved advertisements, [7 pp.], original green boards with illustrated cover, green cloth spine (binding slightly age-toned, but otherwise in a good condition with only minor foxing to the first and last pages).

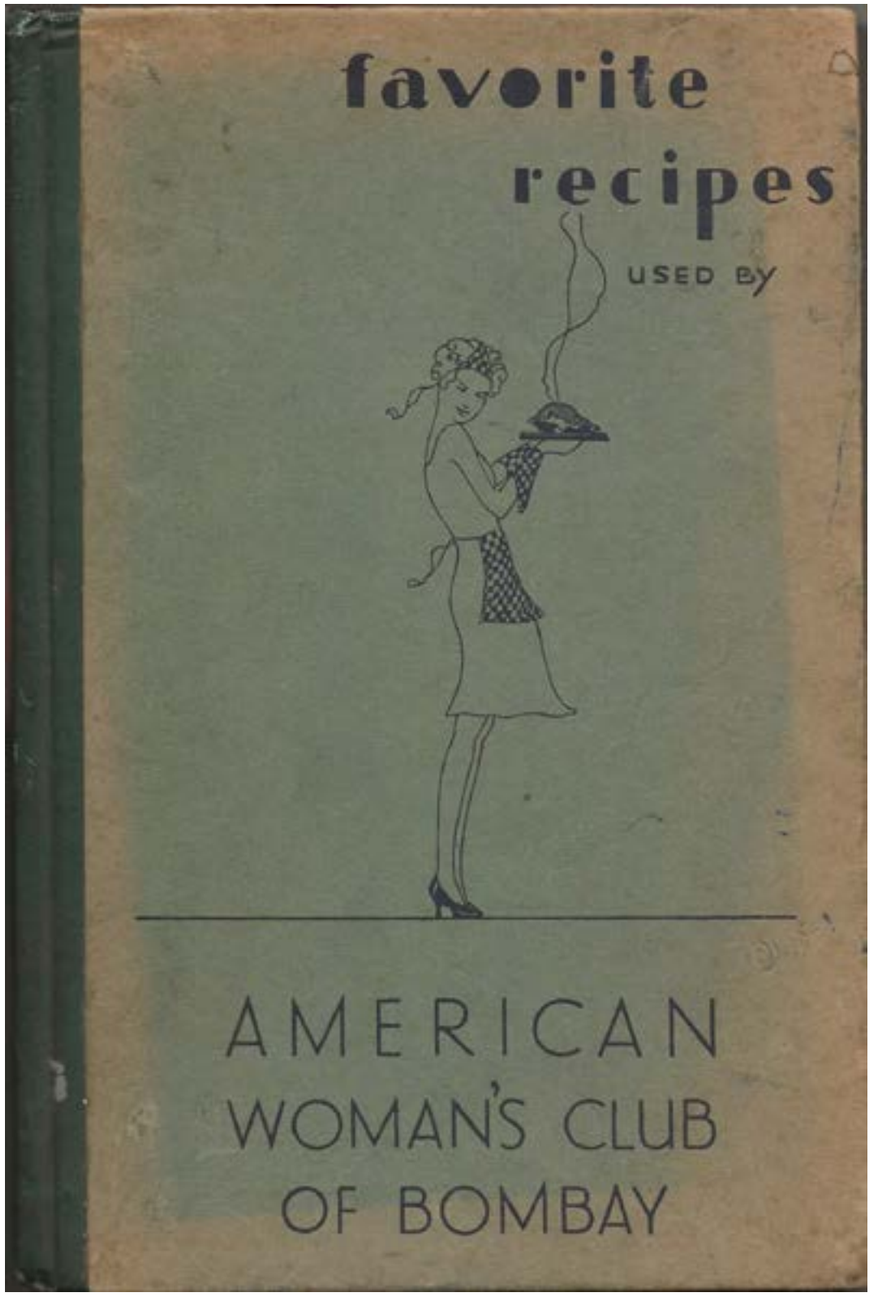
A cook book with recipes mostly from North America, England and Australia, but also Asia and Europa, were published in Mumbai around 1930 by the American Women's Club of Bombay.

Only two pages with four recipes are dedicated to Indian dishes.

The text is accompanied with charming Western advertisements for kitchen appliances, beauty products, food etc.

We could trace four institutional examples on Worldcat (Oxford Brookes University, Harvard University, New York University, University of Michigan).

650 EUR



30. FINE CALLIGRAPHY BINDINGS ROYAL PROVENANCE

SOCIETE PHILHARMONIQUE DE WAVRE.

Société Philharmonique de Wavre Placée Sous Haut Patronage De S.A.R. Monseigneur le Duc de Brabant. Diplôme De Président D'Honneur

Wavre : August 12, 1859.

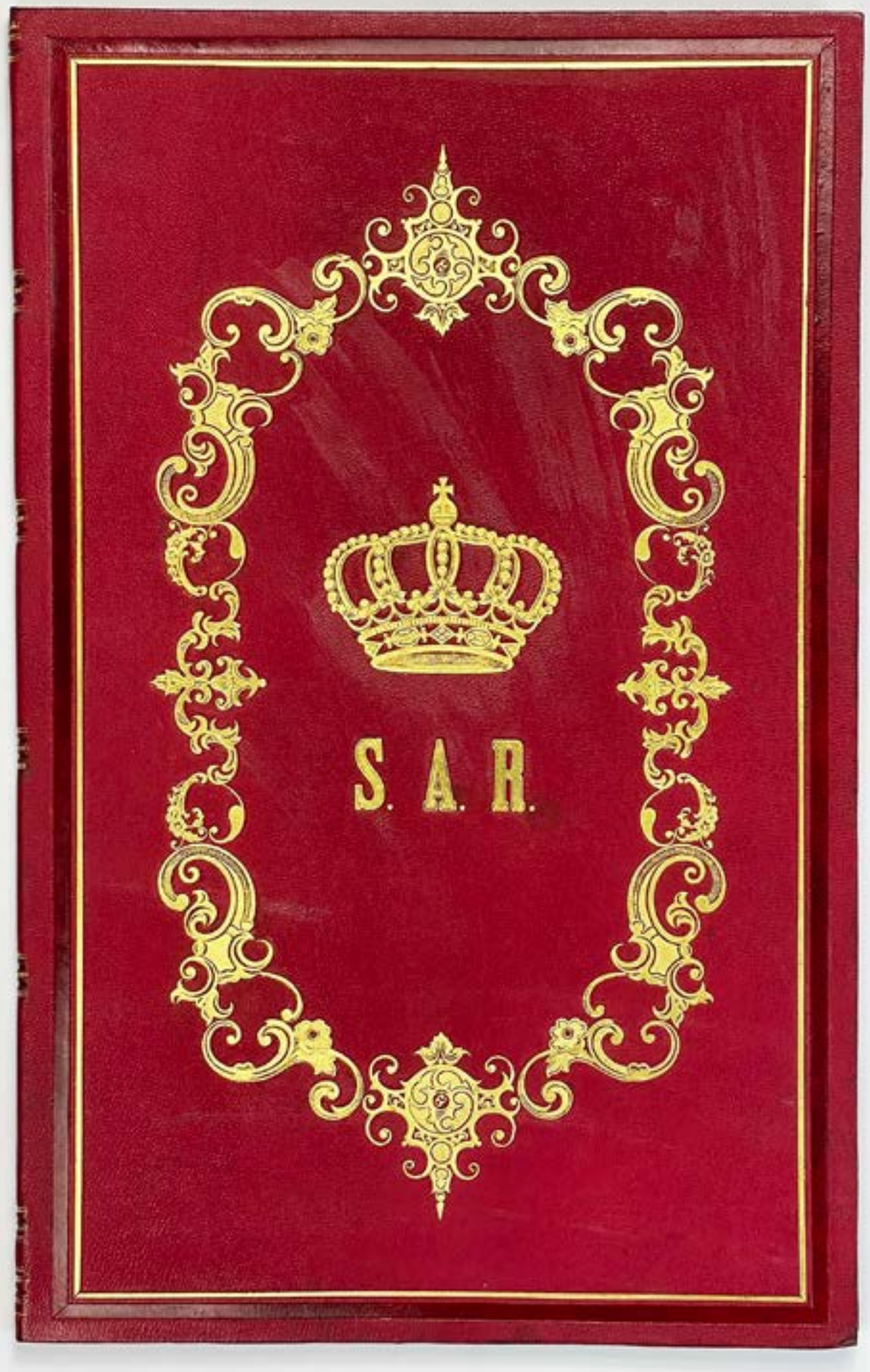
Small Folio (35,7 x 22,6 cm), [8 pp.] blank, 2 pages with manuscript recto, blank, contemporary red hard-grained morocco with gold and blind tooling and lettering, gilt floral turn-ins, gilt edges, white moiré paper end-papers, white moiré paper pastedowns with gold tooling, red silk bookmark, inserted in contemporary moiré card box (box with minor staining and a tiny crack in the upper right corner, hardly noticeable lines on the front cover, otherwise in a crisp and clean condition).

A beautifully executed manuscript diploma for Duke of Brabant, the future Belgian king Leopold II, the honorary president of the Philharmonic Society of Wavre, Belgium.

The document with one manuscript text page, handsomely decorated with gold, silver and blue title and signed by the board of the Philharmonic Society, is followed by a page with signatures of over 30 members of the association.

The manuscript is beautifully bound in red hard-grained Morocco, signed by a Brussels-based bookbinder S.J.G. Mertens.

1.400 EUR



Société Philharmonique de Wavre

Placée sous haut Patronage de

S. A. R.

Monseigneur le Duc de Brabant

Diplôme de Président d'Honneur.

Les Membres de la Société Philharmonique ont, dans leur réunion du 8 juillet 1859, pris, à l'unanimité et par acclamation, la décision d'offrir à Monseigneur le Duc de Brabant le titre de Président d'Honneur.

L. A. R. ayant bien voulu, le 27 juillet suivant, accepter ce titre, les Membres de la dite Société lui en ont remis le diplôme revêtu de leur signature.

Wavre, le 12 Août 1859.

Le Conseil d'Administration

Le Secrétaire-Conservateur
Buisseret

Le Président
Hanot

Le Président d'âge
Ph. Antoine

Le Vice-Président-Conservateur
Goossens

Le Directeur
E. Renard

Le Vice-Président
Devillez

31. SLAVICA
AVIATION

Jakob ZUPANČIČ.

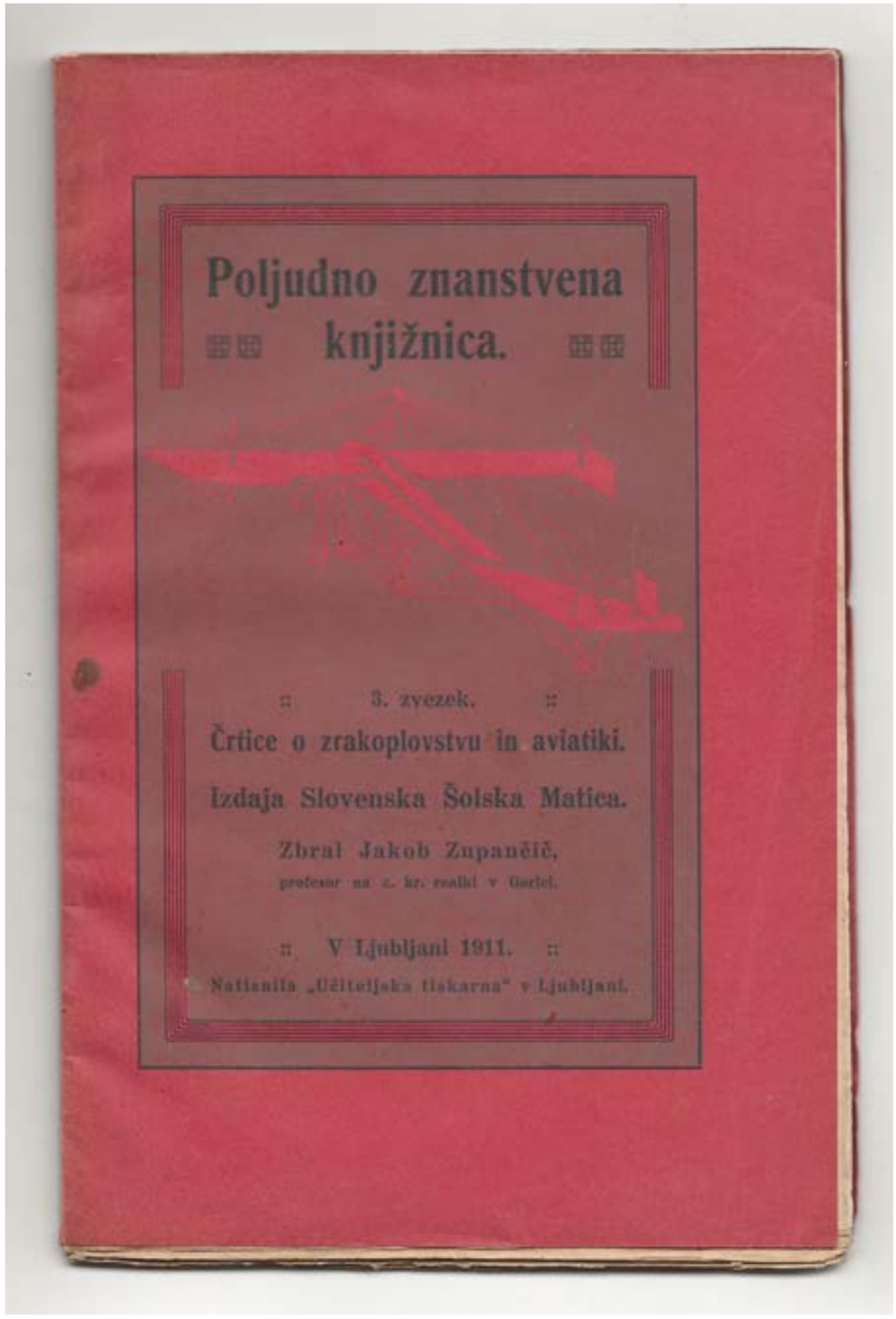
Črtice o zrakoplovstvu in aviatiki
[Short Stories on Air Travel and Aviation]

Ljubljana: Učiteljska tiskarna 1911.

8°. 73 pp. with black and white illustrations in text, [7 pp.], original illustrated wrappers (minor foxing, small repairs with modern tape to the lower corner on the rear wrapper, otherwise in a good condition).

A pamphlet in Slovenian language with attractive, well preserved cover, describes the latest achievements on the field of aviation in Slovenia and in the world. The book was published in 1911, in the year of death of the pioneer of Slovenian aviation Edvard Rusjan (1886 – 1911), who is depicted on the first text page.

220 EUR



32. OTTOMAN PRIZE BINDING

Rıdvan Nafiz [ERGÜDER].

كوچوك تورك تاريخي
[Küçük Türk Tarihi / A Small History of Turkey].

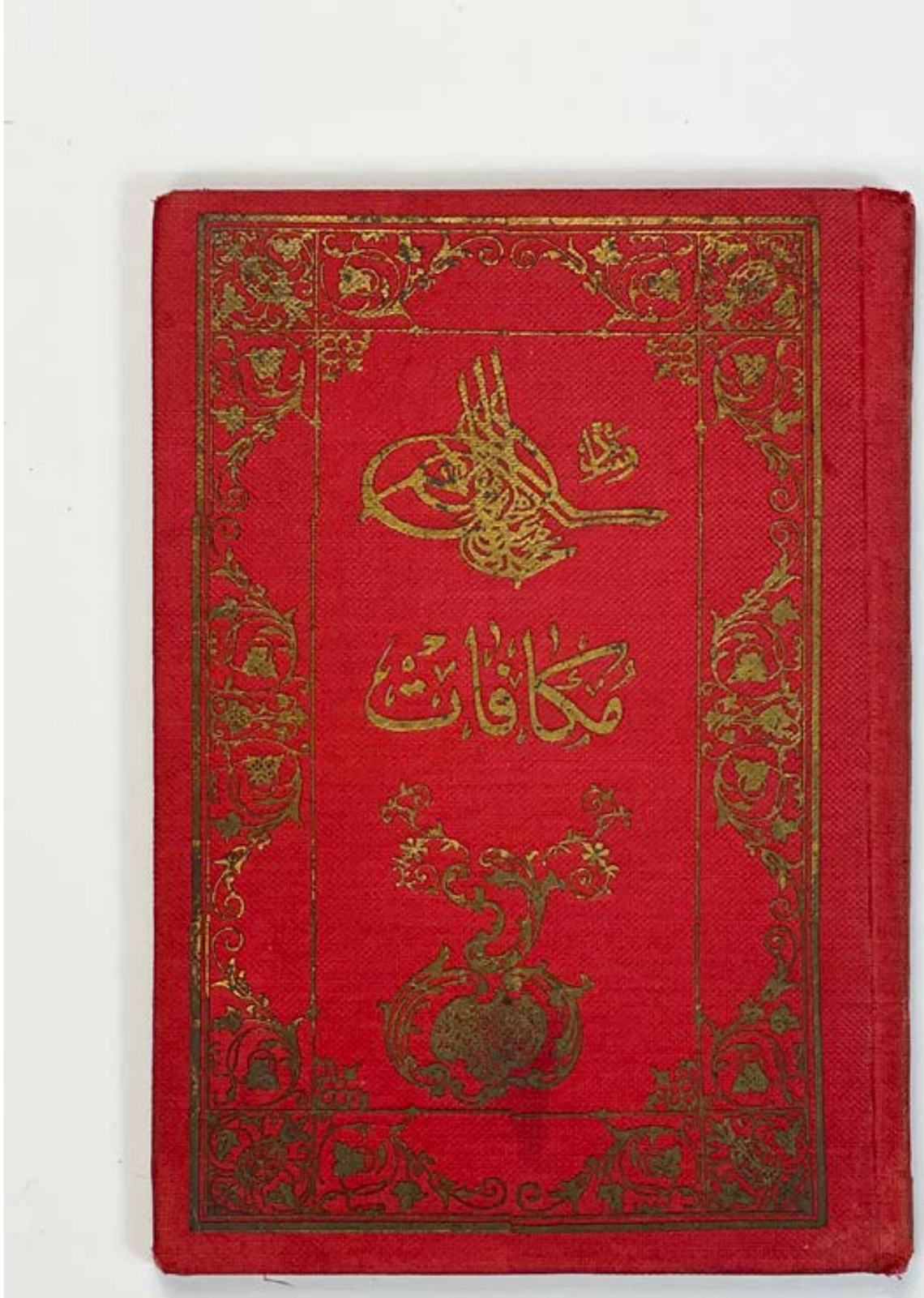
Istanbul: İkdam Matbaası [s. d., but ca 1913].

Small 8°, 96 pp. with black and white illustrations, original wrappers with black and red lettering, contemporary red linen binding with gold tooling and lettering, contemporary endpapers with a star and a crescent printed in red, bookbinder's stamp on the inner side of the front cover (old dedication, dated 1330 Rumi (1914 Gregorian) and a stamp on the front wrapper, minor wear to the binding, but overall in a good and clean condition).

A short illustrated history of Turkey, bound in an attractive prize binding with Ottoman insignia was given to a student for good notes. The sign مكافات on the cover reads "prize".

References: OCLC 777556150, 260079261.

240 EUR



33. OTTOMAN BINDING
HAJI BEKTASH VELI

Ahmed CEMALEDDIN.

بكتاشي سري نام رساله يه مدافعه
[Bektaşi Sırrı Nam Risaleye Müdafaa / Defending the Message of Haji Bektash Veli]

Istanbul: Manzume-i Efkâr Matbaası 1328 [1912].

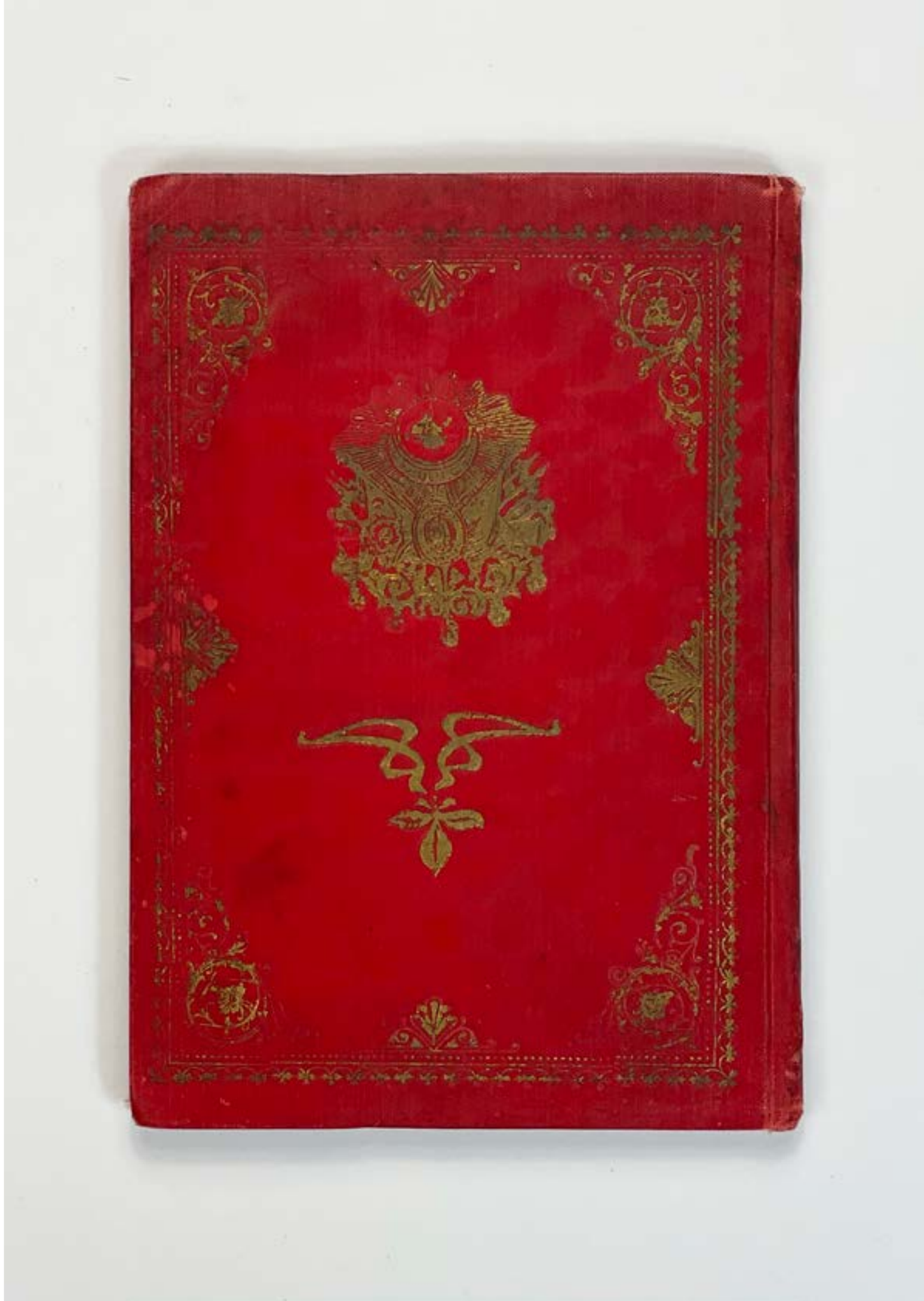
8°, 192 pp. with black and white images, contemporary red cloth binding with gold tooling, original patterned endpapers (Sporadic offset printing, binding little scratched and bumped on the corners, hinges in the front endpapers cracked, a tiny chip in the rear loose endpaper, hardly notice foxing to sporadic pages, but overall in a good condition).

A detailed Ottoman work on Haji Bektash Veli (1209 – 1271), a Muslim saint and mystic, revered among the Alevi and Bektashi Muslims. In the late Ottoman empire the followers of Haji Bektash were often suppressed and the Bektashi order was banned in Turkey in 1925.

The example is bound in a decorative red cloth binding with Ottoman insignia.

References: ÖZEGE 1794; OCLC 794909998, 162677826, 12960381, 754955082, 217377686.

320 EUR



34. OTTOMAN LITERATURE

Abdulhak Hamid TARHAN (1852 - 1937).

روحلر
[Ruhlar. / The Spirits]

Istanbul: مطبعه اقدام سی] Ikdam matbaası] 1338 [1922].

8°. 68 pp. letterpress, original wrappers with red lettering, stapled (minor foxing, wrappers slightly stained and with minor tears in the spine, otherwise in a good condition).

A poem on the spirits, influenced by the contemporary spiritism was written by one of the most esteemed poets of the late Ottoman Empire Abdulhak Hamid Tarhan.

Abdulhak Hamid Tarhan (but known for most of his life simply as Abdulhak Hamid) was born in Constantinople in 1852 into an esteemed family of intellectuals and statesmen. His father, Hayrullah Efendi, was a leading historian and ambassador, while his grandfather Abdulhak Molla was a poet and court physician to the Sultan. Abdulhak was partially raised in Paris where his father was posted, gaining a magnificent education in French language and literature. From 1864 to 1867, he followed his father to Tehran, where he studied Persian and Arabic languages and poetry.

By the time he returned to Constantinople to apprentice in the Ottoman Foreign Ministry, in 1867, aged only fifteen, he was profoundly knowledgeable of great genres of foreign literature, theatre and music. He published his first work of prose, Macera-yı Aşk [Love Affair] (1871), a memoir of his time in Persia; which was followed by the plays Sabr-u Sebat [Perseverance in Patience] (1875), İçli Kız [The Oversensitive Girl] (1875), and the Dukhter-i Hindu.

Abdulhak 's work was revolutionary in that he created a unique manner of writing both prose and poetry that departed from both traditional forms in both style and subject. Writing with elegant subtlety, he addressed sensitive issues such as the role of women, sexuality and multiculturalism. He was heavily influenced by French Romanticism; the enlightened political reforms of the Tanzimat Era (1839-75); and the works of his older colleague, the author Namık Kemal (1840-88).

While his work broke from tradition, his writing always maintained sophisticated echoes of the great Turkish, Persian and Ottoman classics for which he maintained reverence.

In 1876, Abdulhak was appointed to the Ottoman Embassy in Paris. In 1878, he published the play Nesteren in Paris, featuring a protagonist that rebels against a tyrannical emperor. Sultan Abdul Hamid II was so offended by the performance that he fired Abdulhak from his diplomatic posting, although he remained on the Foreign Ministry payroll. Abdulhak was appointed consul general to Poti, Russian Georgia in 1881, before receiving a big promotion to head the Ottoman consulate in Bombay in 1883. However, he was compelled to return home in 1885, whereupon his beloved first wife, Fatma, died en route. This tragic event caused Abdulhak to pen the poem Makber [The Grave], which became immensely popular.

Abdulhak continued in the diplomatic service, being posted in London and The Hague. He continued to write and publish regularly and was, once again, suspended from his overseas postings for publishing his play Zeynep.

In 1908, Abdulhak supported the Young Turk Rebellion and became a Senator. He spent part of the World War I in Vienna, but returned to Turkey in 1923, upon the creation of the new republic. He still wrote and published great works, including the powerful play, Garam [My Passion] (1923). As a friend of the Turkish President Atatürk he saw his political star rise, and in 1928 was elected member of the National Assembly for Istanbul. Adopting the surname 'Tarhan', he spent the last part of this long life as one of the Turkey's leading elder statesmen and perhaps its most revered intellectual figure. Atatürk accorded him a full state funeral upon his death in 1937.



Abdulhak Hamid is to this day admired as one of the legendary figures of Turkish literature, immortalized as 'Şair-i Azam' [The Grand Poet] and 'Dahi-i Azam' [The Grand Genius]. Many of his three dozen or so published works of poetry, prose, drama and autobiography remain best sellers. We could only trace two examples on Worlcat (Durham University, Bill Bryson Library & The National Library of Israel).

References: Özege 17101; OCLC 162307723, 1122570350, 283803965, 644417660 & 1015513775.

380 EUR

35. SCHOOL BOOKS

Siraceddin Hasırcıoğlu [also Seraceddin Hasırcıoğlu]

چوجوق كتابى قولاي قرائت
[Çocuk Kitabı Kolay Kıraat. İlk Mekteb Birinci Sınıf / Children's Book of Easy Reading. First School. First Class]

Istanbul: Orhaniye Matbaası 1928.

8°: 70 pp. with black and white illustrations in text, [2 pp.], original orange wrappers eith red and green illustrations and lettering (small folds and tears in margins, otherwise a good, partly uncut condition).

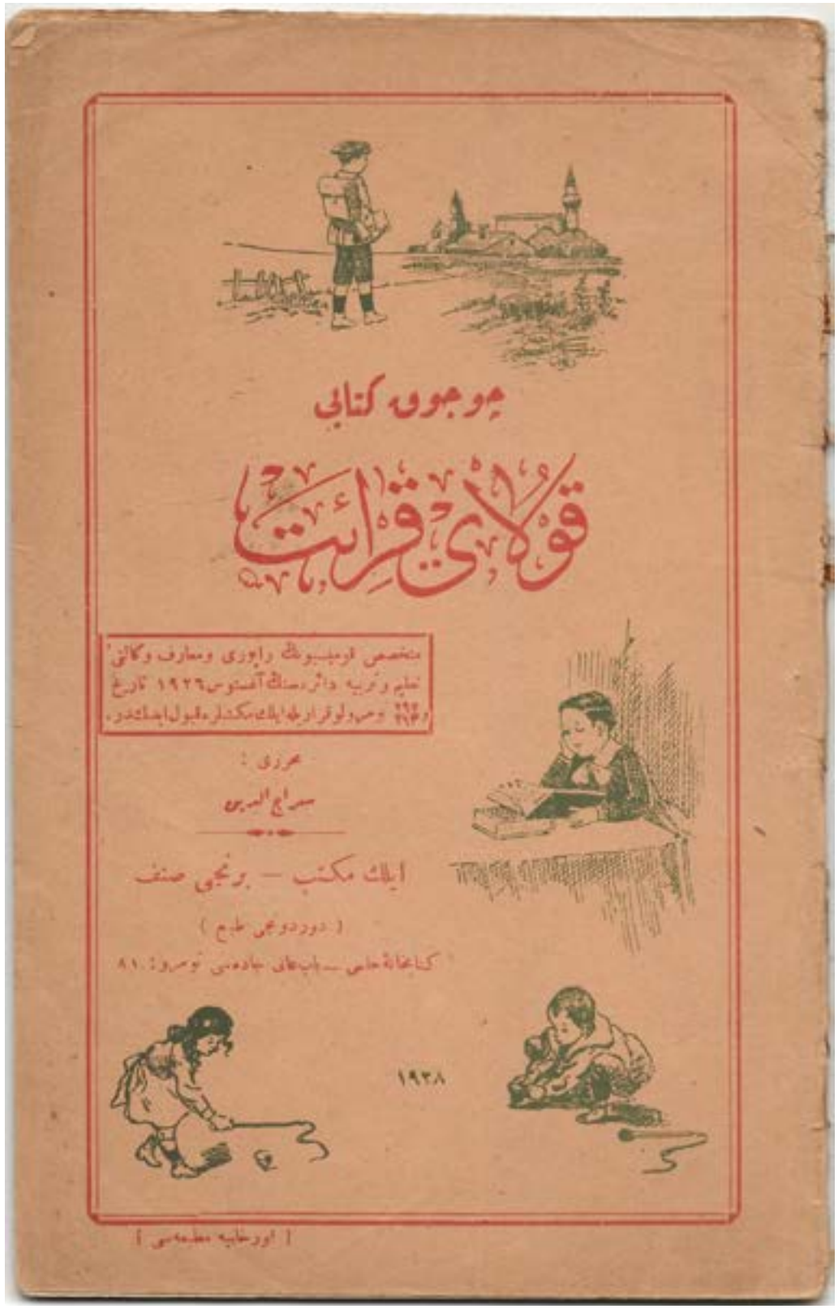
An illustrated book of short texts for first classes of primary school, written by a Turkish educator Siraceddin Hasırcıoğlu .

Short texts, accompanied by black and white illustrations, are mostly based on Western stories and fables, as a part of the school program of the First years of the Republic of Turkey. The book was printed in the last year of the use of Perso-Arabic letters in Turkish Republic before switching to Latin types.

The school book was printed in a series of popular educatioal books issued between 1925 and 1928.

References: ÖZEGE 3404.

280 EUR



36. CRETE IMPRINT

ابن شيخ احمد عفى عنه (Ibn Shaikh Ahmad Afiana).

حزور المسلمين مع مفيد الصلوة
Crete: مطبع كريمى [Kerimi Press] [s. d., prob. late 19th century].

8°, 40 pp. lithographed text with illustrated front cover, originally bound with a sting (tiny chips in margins, but overall in a good condition).

A rare lithographed prayer in Arabic language, accompanied with lithographed text in Ottoman and an attractive cover, was printed in Crete.

220 EUR



37. BULAQ IMPRINT

عبد الرحمن بن نصر الشيرزي
(Abd al-Raḥmān ibn Naṣr Shayzarī, died 1193))

كتاب نهج السلوك فى سياسة الملوك
[Kitap nehc üs-sülûk fi siyaset ül-mülûk also Nahj al-Suluk fi siyasat al-Muluk / An Approach to Behavior in the Politics of Kings]

Bulaq, Cairo: Matbaa Amire 1257 [1841]

8°: 153 pp. letterpress, later European binding with marbled boards an green cloth spine with gold lettering, marbled endpapers (binding slightly rubbed on the corners, but otherwise in a good condition).

An Ottoman translation of an Arabic classic work on the politics, printed in Bulaq, Cairo.

Abd al-Raḥmān ibn Naṣr Shayzarī (died 1193) authored several books, probably most famous of them being The book of the Islamic market inspector (Nihāyat al-Rutba fi Ṭalab al-Ḥisba), where he describes the slave trade of the time, together with other trading activities.

This is a first edition of a privately contracted publication. The second one was published in 1272 (1855).

For the full scan of the book, see the link of the Ohio State University Library:
Kitap nehc üs-sülûk fi siyaset ül-mülûk : Shayzarī, Abd al-Raḥmān ibn Naṣr, active 12th century, author : Free Download, Borrow, and Streaming : Internet Archive.

The Bulaq or Al-Amiriya Press (Amiri Press, Amiria Press), the first Muslim official and governmental printing press established in Egypt, was founded in 1820 by the viceroy of Egypt Muhammad Ali (1769-1849). Already in 1815, the first delegation was sent from Cairo to Milan to learn the printing techniques. After the construction of the press was finished in the autumn of 1820, it took another two years to transport the machines and school the employees. The first book, an Arabic-Italian dictionary, was published in 1822. In the next decades the Bulaq Press became the leading publishing house for the Arab world, also printing books in Ottoman Turkish.

References: OCLC 1047464443 (including eBooks); Hsu Cheng Hsiang, The First Years of Arabic Printing in Egypt 1238-1269. 1822-1851. The Checklist, p. 389, no. 295.

960 EUR



39. EDUCATION IN THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE
RHYMING DICTIONARY OF PERSIAN LANGUAGE
BULAQ IMPRINT

Sünbülzâde VEHBÎ (1718 - 1809).

تحفه وهبی
[Tuhfe-i Vehbî also Tuhfa-i Wahbi / The Gift of Vehbi]

Bulaq, Cairo: Matbaa Amire 1260 [1843].

8°: 60 pp. letterpress, contemporary decorated paper boards an brown goat spine (old title written in ink on the first blank page, old annotations on front endpapers, boards slightly rubbed and scuffed, small wormholes in the inner margin of the rear endpapers and last pages, internally clean).

An handsome example of an early, seemingly unrecorded printed edition of a highly popular rhyming dictionary of Persian language, written by an Ottoman poet and diplomat Sünbülzâde Vehbî and issued in Bulaq, Egypt.

The Gift of Vehbi or Vehbî's Rhyming Dictionary was a highly popular text, used to educate Ottoman children in Persian language, with a method of repetitive repeating and memorizing the text, a didactic routine at the time used by Islamic schools, madrasas, which employed memorizing the Quran as the basics of children's knowledge. The western methods of presenting information to students only entered the Ottoman educational system in the second half of the 19th century.

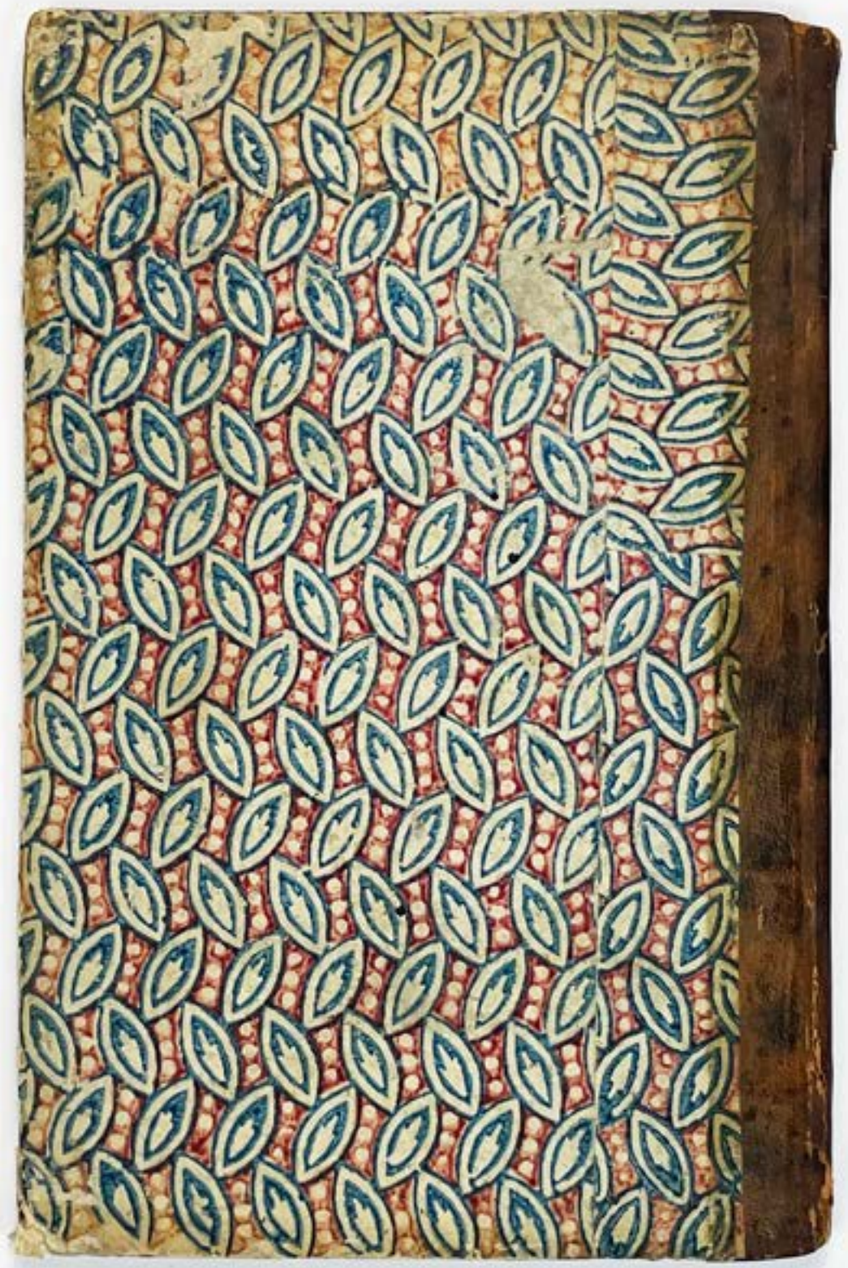
The text was written by Sünbülzâde Vehbî (1718 - 1809), an Ottoman author and ambassador to Iran in 1783. It was printed over 50 times between 1798 and 1909. This is an early edition, printed by the Bulaq press in Egypt.

There were at least 7 editions of Tuhfe-i Vehbî printed in Bulaq between 1245 (1829) and 1282 (1865). The bibliography of Bulaq books, Hsu Cheng Hsiang, The First Years of Arabic Printing, does not mention this edition.

We could not trace any examples of this edition on Worldcat.

References: Not in: Hsu Cheng Hsiang, The First Years of Arabic Printing in Egypt 1238-1269. 1822-1851. The Checklist, no. 530; Cf.: Murat Umut Inan, Imperial Ambitions, Mystical Aspirations. Persian Learning in the Ottoman World.The Persianate World, The Frontiers of a Eurasian Lingua Franca, 2019, p. 88.

1.200 EUR



40. NEW TESTAMENT IN OTTOMAN

عهد جديد يعنى انجيل شريف
[Ahdı Cedid yani İncili Şerif]

Istanbul: Boyacıyan Agob Matbaası 1877.

12°: [3 pp.], 621 pp., contemporary brown goat with blind tooling and gold title on the spine, gilt to all edges (spine slightly age-toned and scuffed, minor foxing, front loose endpaper detached and with light water staining, overall in a good used condition).

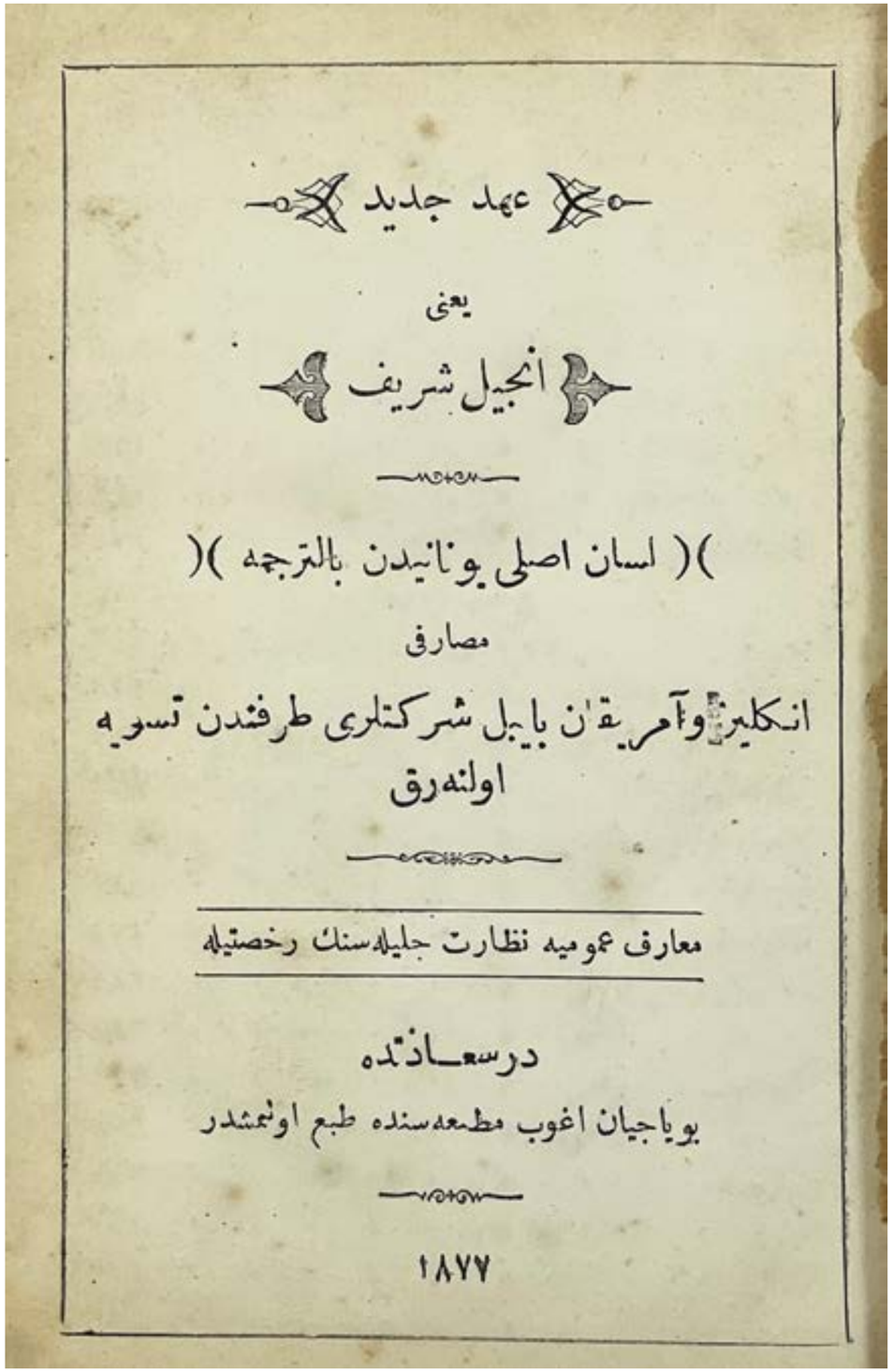
An Ottoman pocket Bible, printed in Istanbul in 1877 under sponsorship of American missionaries

Works like this were the lifeblood of a subtle and very clever propaganda campaign that sought to convert Orthodox Christians in the Balkans and Anatolia to Protestantism. It is important to remember that Christian proselytizing to Muslims was specifically illegal in the Ottoman Empire (an while this still occurred on a very limited basis, it was risky and seldom effective), thus the main objective of the American Protestant missionaries in the lands of the Sublime Porte, as well as in the newly independent as Bulgaria, was to show 'wayward' Christians the 'right way' to worship.

Books such as this present here were often accompanied by offering access to high quality education and social services support as part of integrated campaign to welcome locals 'into the fold'. Robert College, founded by American missionaries in 1863 in Istanbul was their crowning achievement, as it was responsible for educating an amazing number of future elites of the southeastern Balkans and Turkey. While the missionaries never succeeded in mass conversion, they did ensure that small but highly influential Protestant communities developed in Turkey and Bulgaria.

The Bible was printed by Agob Boyacıyan, a leading Armenian printer of Christian material in various language, sponsored by American missionaries. Boyacıyan printed over 20 editions of the pocket Bible in Ottoman between 1875 and 1920.

350 EUR


عهد جديد

يعنى

انجيل شريف

)(لسان اصلى يونانيدن بالترجمه)(

مصارفى

انكليز وآمريقان بايبل شركتلرى طرفندن تسويه
اولنه رق

معارف عموميه نظارت جليله سنك رخصتيله

درسعادته

بوياجيان اغوب مطبعه سنده طبع اولنمشدر

١٨٧٧

41. PARTISAN WARFARE
ARABIC TRANSLATIONS
ARABIC BOOK DESIGN

Cecil Aubrey DIXON - Otto HEILBRUNN, Authors; أكرم الديري
[Akram DEIRI, circa 1925 – 1990] - Translator.

حرب العصابات السوفييتية
[Communist Guerilla Warfare lit. Soviet Guerilla Warfare. Second Edition]

Beirut: المؤسسة العربية للدراسات والنشر [Arab Foudation for Studies and Publishing] 1979.

Large 8°. [2 pp.], 245 pp. with illustrations in text, original illustrated wrappers (minimal age-toning to the paper and hardly noticeable wear to the wrappers, but overall in a good and clean condition).

The second edition of an Arabic translation of the book Communist Guerilla Warfare*, describing the warfare tactics of the Soviets and also Yugoslav partisans during WWII.*

The translator was a military officer and politician in the time of United Arab Republic Akram Deiri (circa 1925 – 1990) from a prominent Syrian family.

This is the second edition. The first one was published in 1968. Both editions are very rare in the West. Wordcat mentions titles with no listed examples in Western libraries.

References: OCLC 4771120478, 4770561896, 4770549641.

180 EUR



42. NUREMBERG TRIALS
RUDOLF HESS

Alfred SEIDL (1911-1993).

Plaedoyer fuer Rudolf Hess vor dem Internationalen Militaergerichtshof Nuernberg im Prozess gegen Hermann Goering and andere. Von Dr. jur. Alfred Seidl Rechtsanwalt. Verteidiger des Angeklagten Rudolf Hess

[The Closing Arguments for Rudolf Hess at the International Military Court Nuremberg in process against Herman Göring and Others. By Dr. Iur. Alfred Seidl, Lawyer, Defender of the Sued Rudolf Hess]

[S. l., S. d., but Nuremberg 1946].

Large 4°, Carbon copy of typescript, [1, title], 82 numbered pages, printed recto only, with first two pages marked as 1-2 and 2-4, and with additional pages 31a, 37a, 39a, 60a, 67a, 67b, 67c, inserted in old pink folder, marked “Rudolf Hess” (punch holes in left margins, but unbound, some punch holes torn, small tears in margins partly repaired with tape, with foxing - stronger to sporadic pages, title page with small dents).

The carbon copy is a transcript of the closing speech by a German lawyer Dr Alfred Seidl (1911-1993) for Rudolf Hess (Rudolf Heß, 1894 –1987) a leading member of the Nazi Party in Nazi Germany, and the second official heir to Hitler’s position following Herman Göring, in case of the Fuhrer”s death. Hess was one of the inventors of antisemitic laws, starting in the 1930s, that led to the holocaust shortly after.

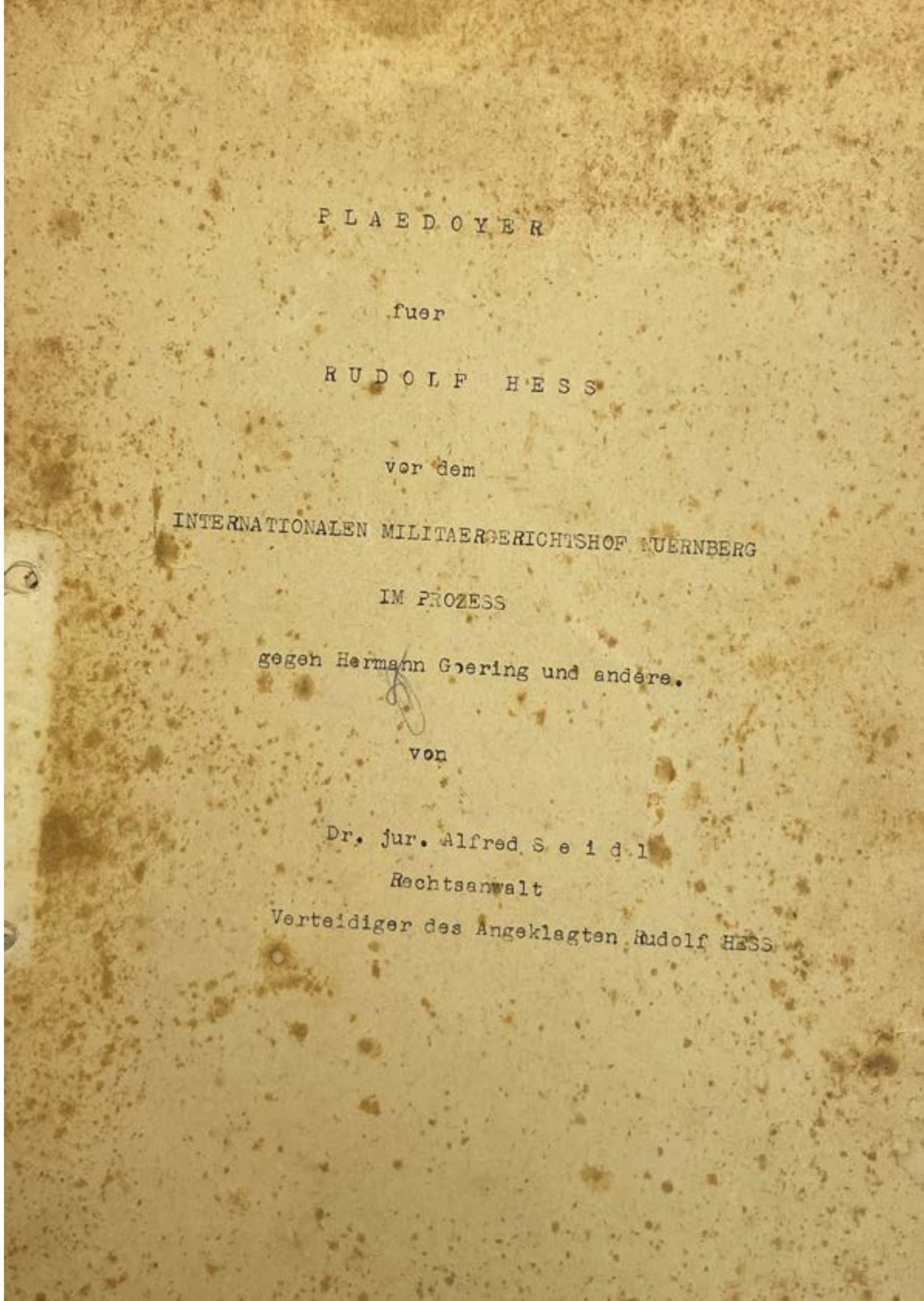
In 1941, Hess was arrested after an airplane crash in Scotland in what appeared to be an self-directed unsuccessful flight allegedly with a goal to arrange peace talks with the Duke of Hamilton. He was imprisoned in Britain throughout the war until 1946, when he was sent to the Nuremberg trials. There he was given a life sentence for crimes against peace and conspiracy with other German leaders to commit crimes.

Unlike the rest of the accused at the Nuremberg trials Hess never participated in Word Was II due to his imprisonment in Great Britain.

On August 17, 1987, being the last imprisoned person at the Spandau Prison in Berlin, Hess, notorious for his decades-long uncooperative mood and isolation, committed suicide at the age of 93 at the prison’s library.

All contemporary carbon copies of original typescripts of any proceedings from the Nuremburg Trials are today very rare; they were made in only very small quantities exclusively for dissemination to court officers. Only a small number of examples are preserved in institutional collections worldwide, while examples of any kind only seldom appear on the market.

1.800 EUR


PLAEDOYER

fuer

RUDOLF HESS

vor dem

INTERNATIONALEN MILITAERGERICHTSHOF NUERNBERG

IM PROZESS

gegen Hermann Goering und andere.

von

Dr. jur. Alfred S e i d l

Rechtsanwalt

Verteidiger des Angeklagten Rudolf HESS

Allgemeine Geschäftsbedingungen (AGB) für Bestellungen beim Antiquariat Dasa Pahor GbR, Alexander Johnson & Dasa Pahor, Jakob-Klar-Str. 12, 80796 München (Deutschland). Telefon +49-8033-91499, FAX +49-8033- 309888; E-Mail: antiquariat@pahor.de; Internet: www.pahor.de; Umsatzsteuer-ID-Nr. DE300219701

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