

CATALOGUE– AUGUST #3:

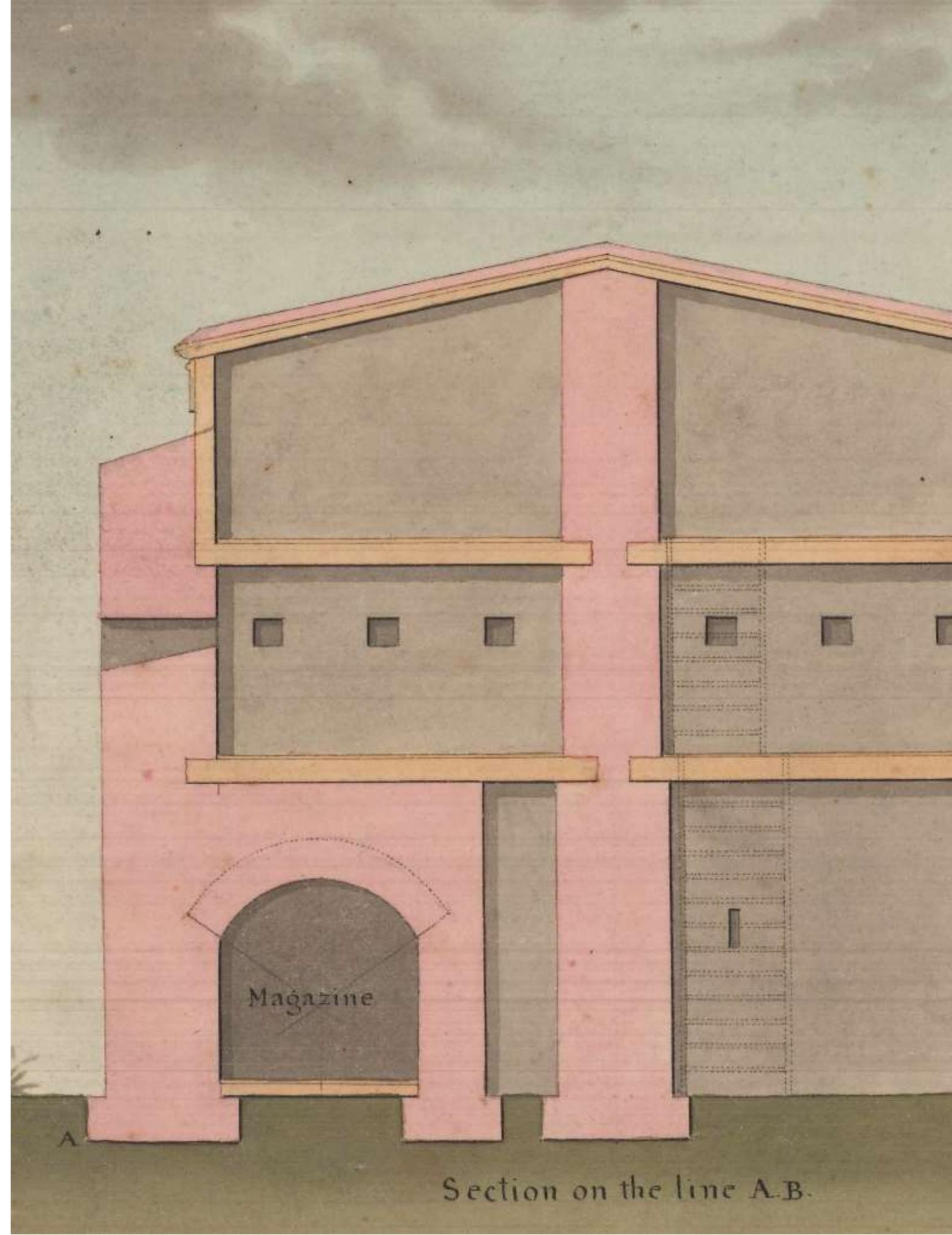
GEOGRAPHY & HISTORY

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ANSWERS TO THE MOST COMMONLY ASKED QUESTIONS

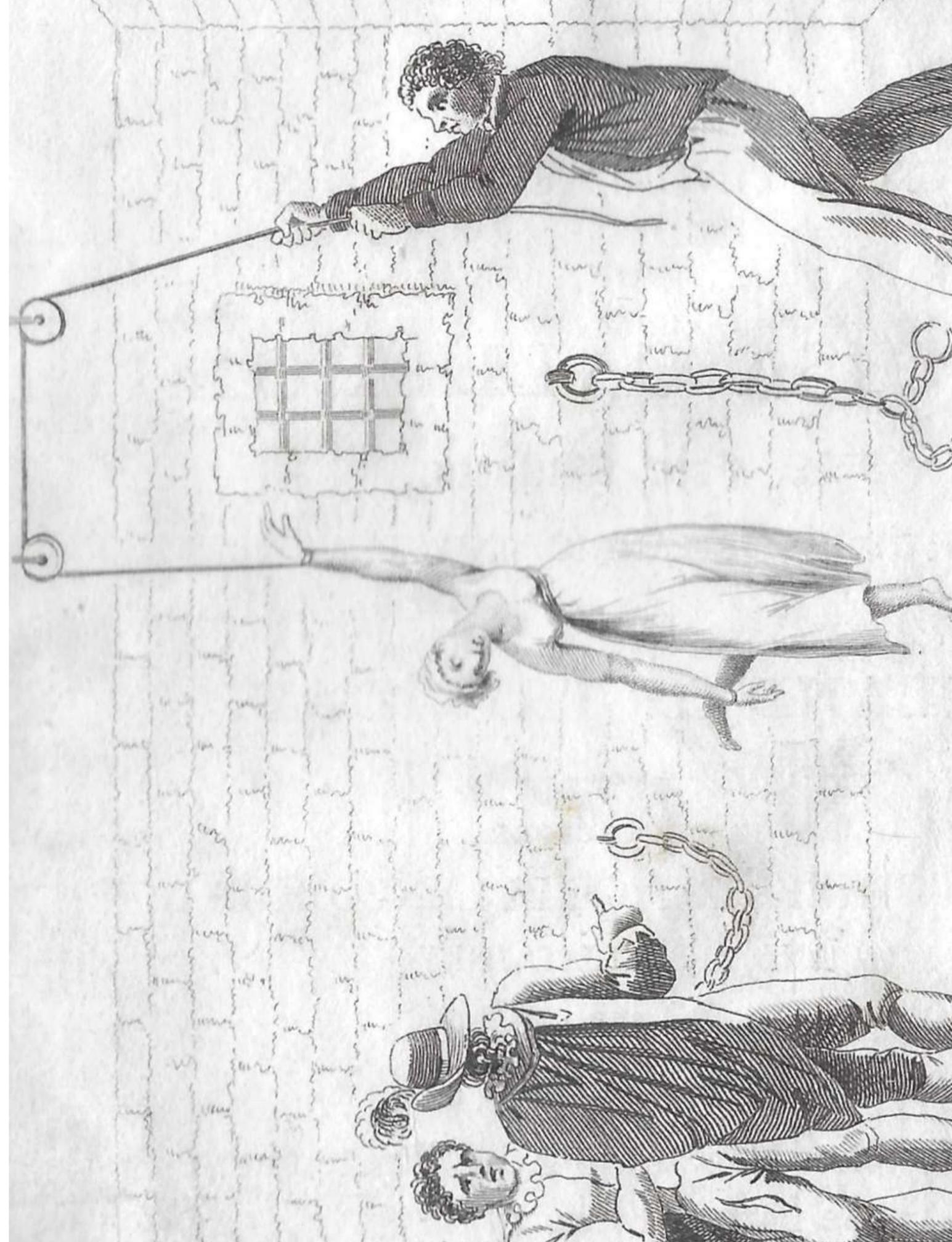
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In 2019 we would like to invite you to our stand at the [Amsterdam Antiquarian Book Fair](#), on October 5th-6th, and at the [ASEEES Annual Convention in San Francisco, from November 23rd to 26th](#).

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Yours truly,

Daša & Alex



1. [George BRIDGES, RE (1757/8 - 1825)].

SOUTH AFRICA – CAPE TOWN FORTIFICATIONS – THE PRINCE OF WALES BLOCKHOUSE – ORIGINAL MANUSCRIPT PLANS:

Part A.

[George BRIDGES, RE (1757/8 - 1825)].

“Plan and Section of the Prince of Wales’s Tower at the Redoubt or Battery”.

[Cape Town, circa 1797 - 1799].

Manuscript, black pen and ink with full watercolour and wash on wove paper watermarked ‘1794 J Whatman’ (Very Good, except cleanly segmented in half horizontally roughly along register boundary – it could be easily re-joined; else some very slight stains and toning, old vertical folds, a couple tiny marginal tears; resplendent original colours), if joined, 49.5 x 61.5 cm (19.5 x 24 inches).

[Accompanied by:]

Part B.

[George BRIDGES, RE (1757/8 - 1825)].

“Plan and Section of the Tower at the Prince of Wales’s Tower at the Redoubt or Battery”.

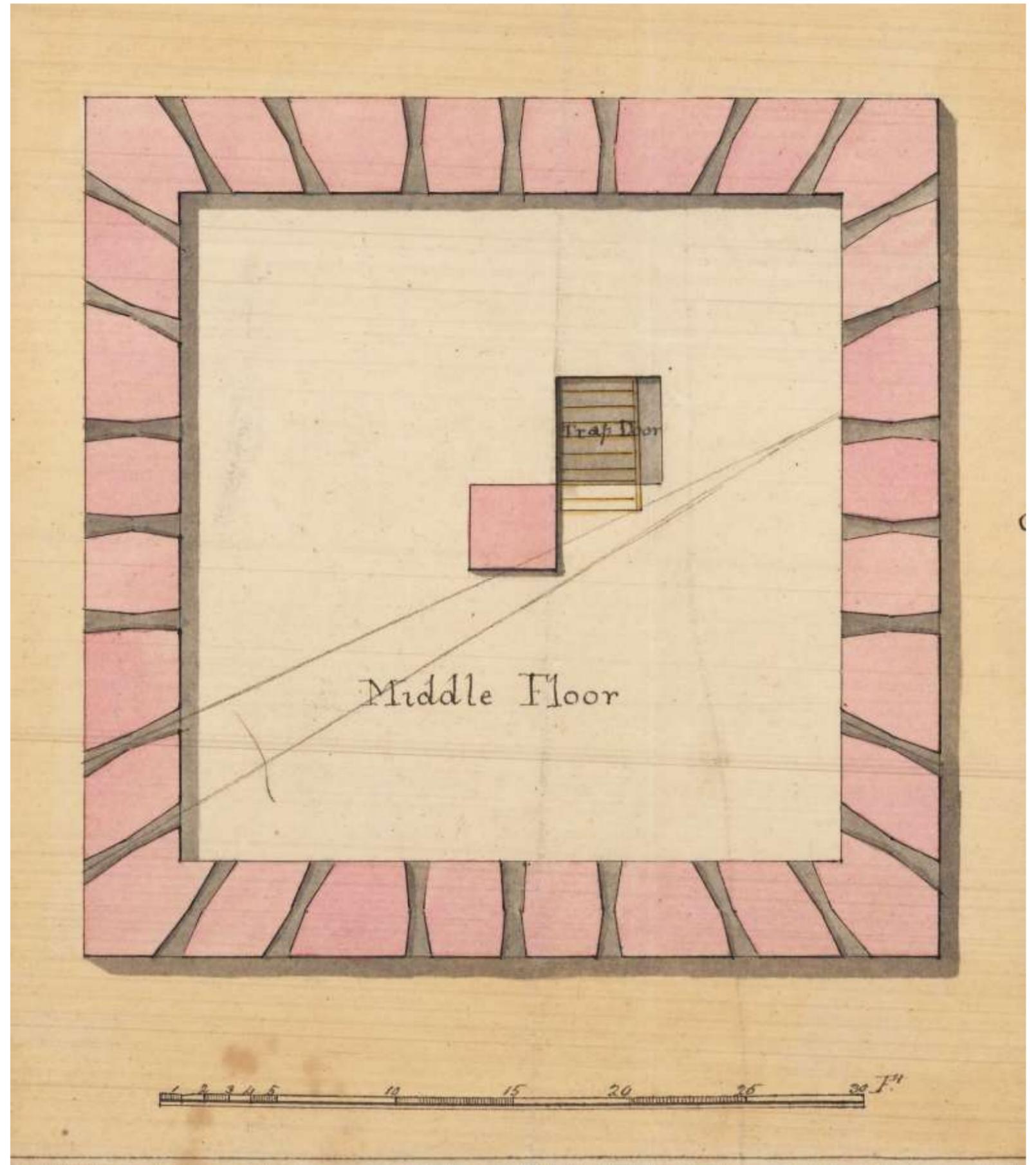
[Cape Town, circa 1797 - 1799].

Manuscript, black pen and ink with full watercolour and wash on wove paper watermarked ‘J Whatman’, fragment, being the upper register (half) of another slightly different example of *Part A* (Very Good, except cleanly segmented in half vertically - it could be easily re-joined; else slight stains and toning, old vertical folds, a couple tiny marginal tears; resplendent original colours), if joined, 24.5 x 61.5 cm (10 x 24 inches).

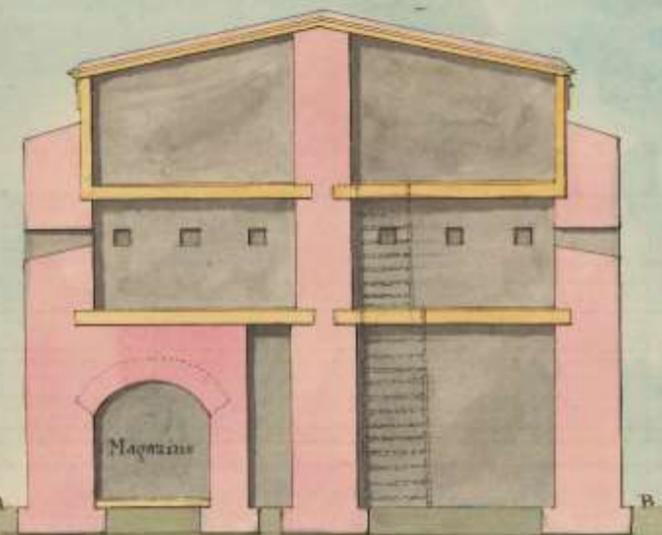
A set of original, exquisitely executed manuscript plans of the blockhouse of the Prince of Wales Battery, one of the key components of the elaborate new defensive system that the British constructed around Cape Town (South Africa) during their first occupation of the colony from 1795 to 1803; drafted by Captain (later Major-General) George Bridges, the commanding Royal Engineer in the colony; one of only very few early original manuscript fortification plans of South Africa to ever come to market.

Present here is a set of original manuscript sectional views and floorplans of the Tower at the Prince of Wales Battery, constructed in the late 1790s to guard the south-eastern landward approaches to Cape Town (South Africa). The plans were drafted by Captain George Bridges, who oversaw the construction of the battery, as well as the re-vamping of the entire fortification system in the greater Cape Town area. The plans are executed to a very high degree of technical artistry, with clean lines, painted in resplendent watercolour hues.

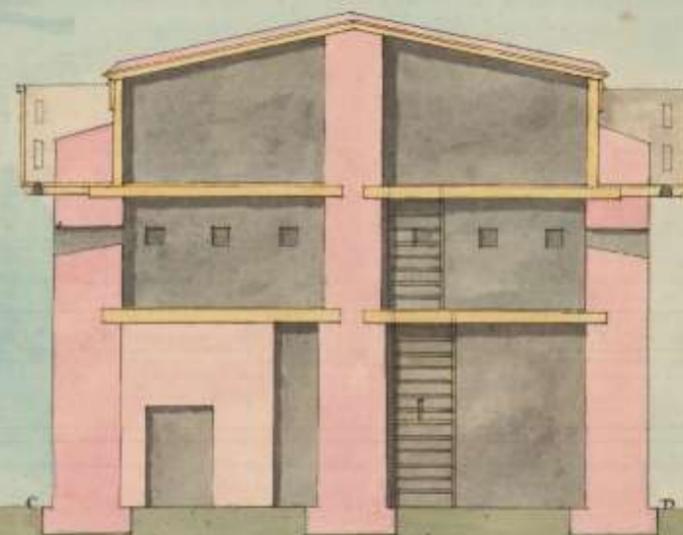
The Prince of Wales Battery was a vital part of the new defensive system that Bridges and his colleagues transformed to protect Cape Town. To shore up the city’s over-exposed landward approaches from the southeast, three blockhouses were built on the slopes of the Devil’s Peak, being the Prince of Wales, York and King’s batteries, of which the Prince of Wales Battery was located on the lowest level, on the far south-eastern side of the peak’s slope.



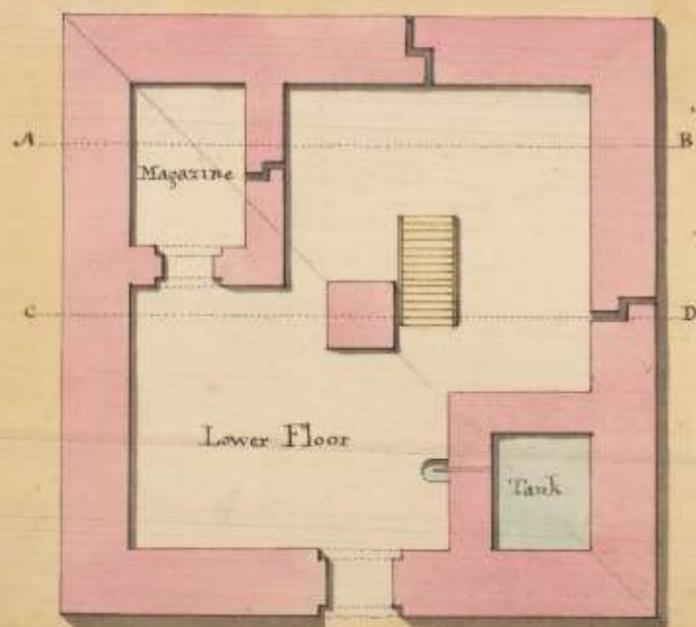
Plans and Sections of Prince of Wales's Tower at the Redoubt or Battery.



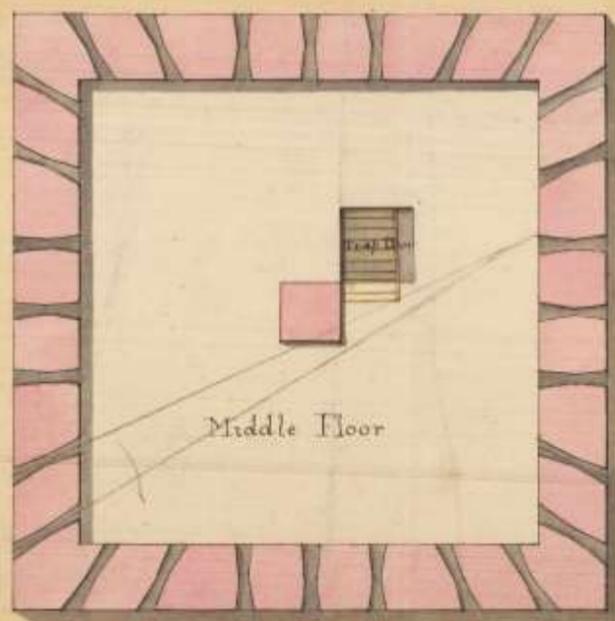
Section on the Line A B



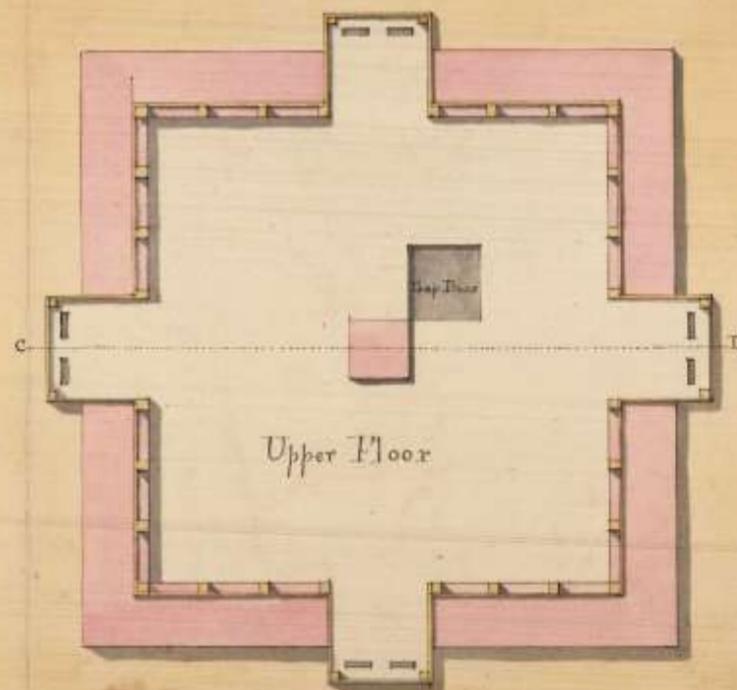
Section on the Line C D



Lower Floor



Middle Floor



Upper Floor



Each of the batteries was identical in their design and nearly identical in size. They comprised a blockhouse fronted by a semi-circular artillery platform.

The blockhouses were of a novel design, heavily influenced by that of Martello towers, recently 'discovered' by British engineers. Martello towers were traditional Genoese batteries of a round construction that came to the attention of the British royal engineers in 1794 in Corsica, when British forces had an unbelievably difficult time taking the Tower of Mortella (so leading to the name 'Martello'). The British were highly impressed by the tower's strength and versatility and elected to copy its ingenious design.

Part A is the "Plan and Section of the Prince of Wales's Tower at the Redoubt or Battery", a folio manuscript sheet of two horizontal registers of plans that seems to have been cleanly cut some time ago roughly along the division between the registers into two parts (it could easily be re-joined). The quality of the draughtsmanship and watercolouring is exceedingly high, indicative of Captain George Bridges' refined professional style. The upper register features two cross-sections (elevations) of the blockhouse, from different vantage points (*A to B* and *C to D*). The lower register features floor plans of the blockhouse taken from each of its three levels.

Part B is a fragment (the upper register only) of another example of the above, but with a slightly different title. Curiously, it has also been cleanly split in half, seemingly some time ago, but in this case vertically through the image in the area between the two cross-sections.

It was then common practice for engineers in the field to make multiple finished manuscript copies of the same subject for distribution to various military and crown offices, as well as perhaps retain images for their own personal records. Indeed, it seems that Bridges brought examples of many of his plans and maps home from the Cape, as several of his works preserved today at the National Archives U.K. feature the annotation "Brought home by Majr Bridges, 1801".

The design of the tower at the Prince of Wales Battery is influenced by that of a Martello tower, and in this respect, it is of a transitional construction. Unlike a Martello, this tower has the square form of a conventional 18th Century British blockhouse with a triangular roof, similar as those built across the British Empire. However, like a Martello, it was composed of thick masonry walls and three floors with rooms custom designated for powder magazines, storerooms, officers' and soldiers' quarters, as well as cisterns and storage areas for food; fireplaces were built into the walls to facilitate cooking and heating, while the upper floor were accessed by a ladder. The machicolated (slotted) external walls of the lower levels allowed the blockhouse to be defended by musket fire, while the top floor could host heavy artillery pieces (the Martello towers featured a different roof design which allowed rotating artillery pieces to fire upon a 360° arc). The Prince of Wales Tower, like the Martello towers, could host a compliment of as many as 24 men to endure sieges of considerable length, as it was 'self-contained', with secure supplies of food, water and ammunition, while the thick walls protected it from both enemy fire and forms of harsh weather. The tower would have been fronted by a small crescent-shaped battery platform, forming a fine defensive position for a strategic, yet isolated location guarding what was previously a the 'blind spot' in Cape Town's defences. Notably, Bridges also oversaw the construction of two true Martello towers in the Cape Town area, the tower at Simon's Town, as well as the Craig Tower. Subsequently, Bridges also oversaw the completion of the Martello tower at Hambantota, Ceylon (Sri Lanka).

While the present manuscript plans are unsigned, they can be safely attributed to Captain George Bridges. First, they correspond in both their content and style to Bridges' signed "Plans and Sections of the Tower at the Prince of Wales's Redoubt or Battery", 1799 (U.K. National Archives), which is of the exact same size as the present *Part A*. Also relevant, but of a different perspective, is Bridges' "Position, Plan and Section of the Battery of the Prince of Wales' Battery", circa 1797 (*Western Cape Archives, Cape Town*). Moreover, Bridges was the obvious author of plans of the battery, as he was recorded in many contemporary sources as having personally overseen its construction (as well as that of the other similar batteries). Additionally, to confirm the dating of the present plans, they are drafted on sheets of wove paper watermarked 'J. Whatman', with the sheet of *Part A* featuring the date '1794'. This is precisely the type of paper stock that was issued to the Royal Engineers during 1795 Cape Town Expedition.

The Prince of Wales, as well as the York and King's Batteries, remained in active service until 1827, whereupon the introduction of modern rifled artillery made them obsolete. In 1829, their ownership was transferred to local colonial authorities, who decommissioned them, allowing their masonry to be used for other purposes. Today only the foundations of the Prince of Wales Battery remain, for it was by 1925 deconstructed to construct an adjacent civilian building. However, the blockhouse of the King's Battery survives largely intact to the present day, and thus provides a faithful example of what the Prince of Wales Blockhouse would have been.

Not surprisingly, all original manuscript fortification plans from South Africa from the period in question are exceedingly rare. While some survive in archives in institutions in London and Cape Town, examples of any kind hardly ever appear on the market. The present example is of exceptionally high quality, drafted by one of the most important military engineers in Cape history.

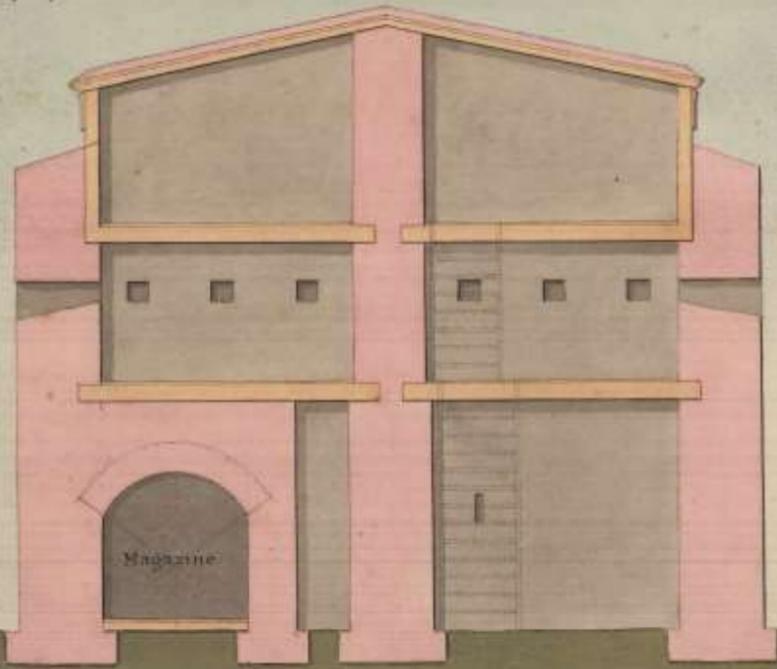
Historical Context: The First British Occupation of the Cape of Good Hope (1795 – 1803)

During the French Revolutionary Wars (1792-1802), which subsequently dovetailed into the Napoleonic Wars, France and Britain fought a global contest in theatres on five continents. Importantly, Cape Town, the centre of the Dutch colony of the Cape of Good Hope, guarded the sea routes from England to India, the jewel of the British Empire. At the end of 1794, France invaded the Netherlands, overthrew its government and created the Batavian Republic, a French puppet state. The Dutch colonial regime in the Cape swore loyalty to the new regime, while the British received intelligence that France intended to land considerable forces there, threatening to transform the Cape into a lethal danger to British-Indian shipping. This menace would be combined with the established threat of French privateers that preyed upon British vessels in the Indian Ocean from their base on the Ile de France (Mauritius). Whitehall believed it imperative that the Cape Colony be captured, and the French designs thwarted.

In April 1795, the British organized an invasion force under Admiral Sir George Keith Elphinstone, consisting of 1,800 men, carried by 5 ships of the line and 2 sloops. Aboard was General Sir James Henry Craig, who was to both command the land forces and to lead an interim colonial government should the mission be successful. Also present was Captain George Bridges, the Commanding Royal Engineer, who was to play a vital role in analysing the Cape's defences, identifying any weaknesses.

Meanwhile, the VOC (Dutch East India Company) regime at the Cape was commanded by Governor-General Abraham Josias Sluysken, supported by force of 3,600 troops, of which only

Plans and Sections of the Tower at the Prince of Wales's Redoubt or Battery



Section on the line A.B.



Section on the line C.D.

1,000 were regulars. Cape Town's defences had since 1786 been dramatically improved under the supervision of Louis-Michel Thibault, a professional architect and military engineer in VOC service. However, while the venerable star-shaped citadel of the Castle of Good Hope and the 'French Lines', a string of batteries that protected the city's eastern flank, ensured that Cape Town would be difficult to attack directly from the sea, the colony's defensive systems had serious blindspots.

The British expedition arrived off the Cape on June 10, 1795. Bridges and other officers recognized that False Bay, the large inlet that was the underbelly of the Cape, was poorly defended. On July 14, they landed their main force at Simon's Town, on the western shore of False Bay, about 40 km south of Cape Town. After a parley with Governor Sluysken, the two sides forged what can only be described as a bizarre truce, which allowed Bridges and his engineers to freely roam the surroundings of Cape Town, analysing the Dutch fortifications.

On August 7, the Anglo-Dutch negotiations faltered, and Craig's men advanced to attack the Dutch forces during what became known as the Battle of Muizenberg, near the pass that led to Cape Town's vulnerable south-eastern approaches. This ushered in a protracted weeks-long event that initially resulted in a stalemate. In due course, the British received massive re-enforcements under Major-General Alured Clark, in the form of 4,000 troops. This allowed them to close the net, forcing Sluysken to surrender the colony on September 15, saving the British from having to attack Cape Town.

The Cape Colony was now under British occupation, although it was not formally ceded to their sovereignty. Whitehall, recognizing the Cape's strategic importance, hoped to retain it permanently under any post-war settlement, so proceeded to upgrade the area's military and transportation infrastructure as if it would forever be part of the British Empire. Craig was appointed to be the colonial governor, and he charged Captain Bridges with overseeing an ambitious military engineering programme. This included the strengthening of all existing Dutch fortifications, including the Cape Castle and the French Lines, as well as the creation of a new line of positions on Devil's Peak (notably including the Prince of Wales, York and King's Batteries), as well as shoring up the defences around False Bay. Additionally, Bridges and his team oversaw the creation of many new roads and bridges. The British regime was eventually aided by Louis-Michel Thibault, who had defected to their side.

Following the Peace of Amiens (1802), Britain and France (along with the Batavian Republic) agreed to end their mutual hostilities. The accord was savagely attacked in many quarters in Britain, as it was viewed as an unnecessary capitulation. Britain was compelled to cede most of its recent conquests, including returning the Cape Colony to the Netherlands, a transfer which occurred in 1803. The British officers and troops who had worked so hard to conquer the Cape and to improve its defensive infrastructure were understandably furious that their efforts were now seemingly all for not.

However, and perhaps predictably, British and France once again came to blows, as from 1804 the Napoleonic Wars commenced with terrific melodrama.

Britain was determined to re-capture the Cape of Good Hope and towards the end of 1805 dispatched a force of over 5,000 troops under Lieutenant-General Sir David Baird to achieve this objective. Ironically, Bridges and his men had done such a good job with their engineering works that Baird considered a direct assault upon Cape Town from any angle to be untenable. On

January 6-7, 1806, the British landed their forces a good distance to the north of Cape Town. The Dutch Governor Jan Willem Janssens unwisely decided to leave the safety of Cape Town with his force of only around 2,000 men to comfort the British army in the open country. At the Battle of Blaauwberg (January 8, 1806), Baird's force easily overcame the defenders, ensuring that the colony was shortly surrendered to British control.

This time the British would retain enduring sovereignty over the Cape Colony (a role confirmed by the Congress of Vienna in 1814) and would work to further maintain and improve the city's defensive perimeter, ensuring that Cape Town would never again be attacked by any adversary, foreign or domestic.

George Bridges: Leading Military Engineer and Cartographer of the Cape

Major-General George Bridges, RE (1757/8 - 1825) was one of the most important figures in military engineering and cartography during the first British occupation of the Cape of Good Hope. He was a native of Walsingham, Norfolk, and as a teenager entered the Woolwich Military Academy, where he studied engineering and draughtsmanship. He graduated in 1776, becoming a Second Lieutenant; he joined the Royal Engineers in December of that year.

In December 1777, Bridges was posted to the West Indies, a volatile theatre during the American Revolutionary War, whereupon he assisted in planning the bombardment of enemy positions; drafting and building plans of forts; and executing regional surveys of various islands in the Lesser Antilles. He returned to England in 1785, and was promoted to First Lieutenant in March 1786, and Captain in September 1793.

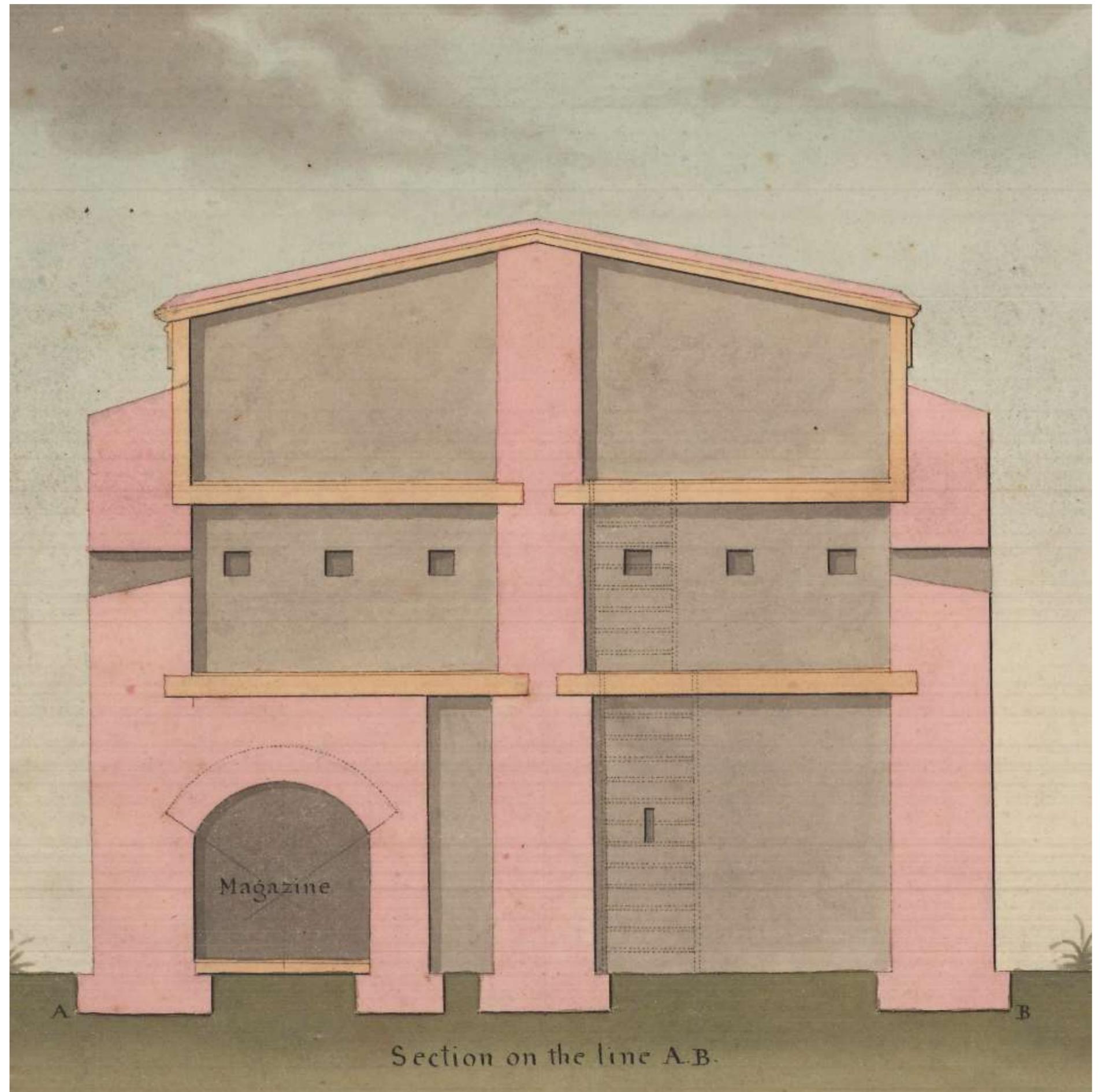
In May 1795, Bridges was appointed the Commanding Royal Engineer for Admiral Elphinstone's expedition to take the Cape of Good Hope. This was a highly important role, as the success of the mission rested heavily on analysing the strength of the Dutch fortified positions around Cape Town. In the wake of the successful British conquest of the Cape, in September 1795, Bridges led an expert team that included James Carmichael-Smyth, one of the great cartographers of the region. Bridges was likewise a highly accomplished surveyor who made many excellent manuscript topographical maps of the Cape region, many of which are today preserved at the U.K. National Archives. Bridges remained at the Cape until 1801.

In late 1802, Bridges was promoted to Major and appointed as the Commanding Royal Engineer in Ceylon, a highly valuable colony that the British had conquered from the Dutch in 1795-6. The defences of Ceylon's major centres required radical upgrading, as the security of the colony was threatened by potential French and Dutch naval invasion, as well as landward attack from the mighty Kandyan Kingdom that dominated the interior of the island. Bridges (who was promoted to Lieutenant-Colonel in 1805) remained in Ceylon for eight years, whereupon he oversaw the completion of extensive and advanced fortification projects, many of which were inspired by those he built at the Cape.

After over thirty years in difficult field assignments on three continents, Bridges returned home and assumed a senior administrative role in the Royal Engineers' headquarters. In 1813, he was promoted to the rank of Colonel, and finally Major-General in 1819. He passed away at Greenwich on June 1, 1825, at the age of 67.

References: Cf. [Similar Bridges Plans in Institutional Collections:] George Bridges, "Plans and sections of the Tower at the Prince of Wales's Redoubt or Battery", Mss., 1799 (U.K. National Archives: MPH 1/705); George Bridges, "Position, Plan and Section of the Battery of the Prince of Wales' Battery", circa 1797 (*Western Cape Archives, Cape Town: E 3487*); [Historical Background / Context:] Ute A. SEEMANN, 'Forts and Fortifications at the Cape Peninsula 1781-1829: A survey of defence works with special references to the Hout Bay forts', Masters Dissertation, University of Cape Town (September 1993); Ute A. SEEMANN, *Fortifications of the Cape Peninsula, 1647-1829* (Cape Town: Castle Military Museum, 1997).

3.200 EUR



2. **Auguste-Henri DUFOUR (1798 - 1865).**

CUBA:

Carta topografica de la Isla de Cuba compuesta par A.H. Dufour geografo.

Paris: Bulla Frères, 1842.

Copper engraving with original outline hand colour, dissected into 12 sections and mounted upon original linen, bearing contemporary German label to verso 'Insel Cuba' (Good, some noticeable areas of staining and discolouration, fine original outline hand colours, contemporarily trimmed to outer edge of neatline), 63.5 x 91 cm (25 x 36 inches).

The first edition of an excellent separately issued large format map of Cuba, one of the finest representations of the island from its last great sugar boom; compiled by the leading French cartographer Auguste-Henri Dufour from the best official Cuban sources and published in Paris; with symbols and statistical tables detailing a wealth of information.

This is the first edition of Auguste-Henri Dufour's stellar large format map of Cuba, a valuable artefact showcasing the island during its last great sugar boom. The finely engraved map showcases Cuba in great detail; the island is divided into three departments, outlined in original colours, which are further divided into governates (yellow lines) and bishoprics (red lines). All cities, towns and village of any importance are noted, while all roads of various levels are delineated. Importantly, dozens and 'haciendas', being major plantations, are named; sugar (and slavery) were still the lifeblood of the Spanish colony's economy.

The map is embellished by finely detailed inset plans of Cuba's major cities, including Havana (lower left corner); while in the lower right corner are maps of Sta. Maria de Puerto Principe, Trinidad, and Santiago de Cuba.

In the upper right quadrant of the map is the 'Cuadro estadístico de la Isla de Cuba' which notes the land areas and populations of all of Cuba's districts, plus the populations of the capital cities of each, along with their geodetic coordinates. The tables reveal that Cuba's population totalled 755,195, of which 44% were white; 15% were free coloured; 41% were slaves (slavery was legal in Cuba until 1886!). Much of the island's population was concentrated in Havana, which had 251,641 residents. In the lower left quadrant is a distance table showing the mileage between all the island's major towns.

The map was created by the leading French cartographer Auguste-Henri Dufour and was printed in the Spanish language to serve the thriving market for Cuban maps, prints and books fuelled by the great wealth due to the island's final sugar boom.

The fact that the present map was published in Paris follows a long tradition of printing important maps of Spanish Latin America in the French capital. The Bourbon 'Family Compact' between the Spanish and French royal families that existed since the early 1700s, ensured that Spanish map makers formed close ties to Parisian printing houses which had the ability to convert

manuscripts sent for the Americas into large format, top quality printed maps at a very reasonable cost. By comparison, it was technically difficult to produce complex large format graphics in Havana or Mexico City, and relatively expensive to produce such works on Madrid. Indeed, throughout the 18th and 19th Centuries many of the most important maps of Spanish Latin America were published in Paris.

The present example is of the first edition of the map, published in 1842. The map proved commercially successful and subsequent editions were issued in 1847, 1854, 1860 and 1867.

References: Bibliothèque nationale de France, département Cartes et plans, GE DL 1842-69 / OCLC: 494674868; Carlos Manuel Trelles, *Bibliografía cubana del siglo XIX* (Matanzas, Cuba, 1911), p. 30; Ezequiel Uricoechea, *Mapoteca Colombiana* (London, 1860), Antillas no. 128 (p. 66).

650 EUR



3. Walter SIEMERS / Erich RAEDER (1876 - 1960).

NUREMBERG TRIALS / WAR CRIMES / ORIGINAL DOCUMENTS / GRAND ADMIRAL ERICH RAEDER.

Plaedoyer vor dem Internationalen Militärgerichtshof zu Nürnberg im Prozeß gegen Hermann Göring und andere von Dr. Walter Siemers, Rechtsanwalt zu Hamburg, Verteidiger des Angeklagten Grossadmiral Dr. h.c. Erich Raeder. Nürnberg, Juli 1946. [Closing Arguments at the International Military Tribunal in Nuremberg in the trial of Hermann Goering and others by Dr. Walter Siemers, Attorney at Hamburg, Attorney for the Defendant High Admiral Erich Raeder, Nuremberg, July 1946].

Nuremberg, July 1946.

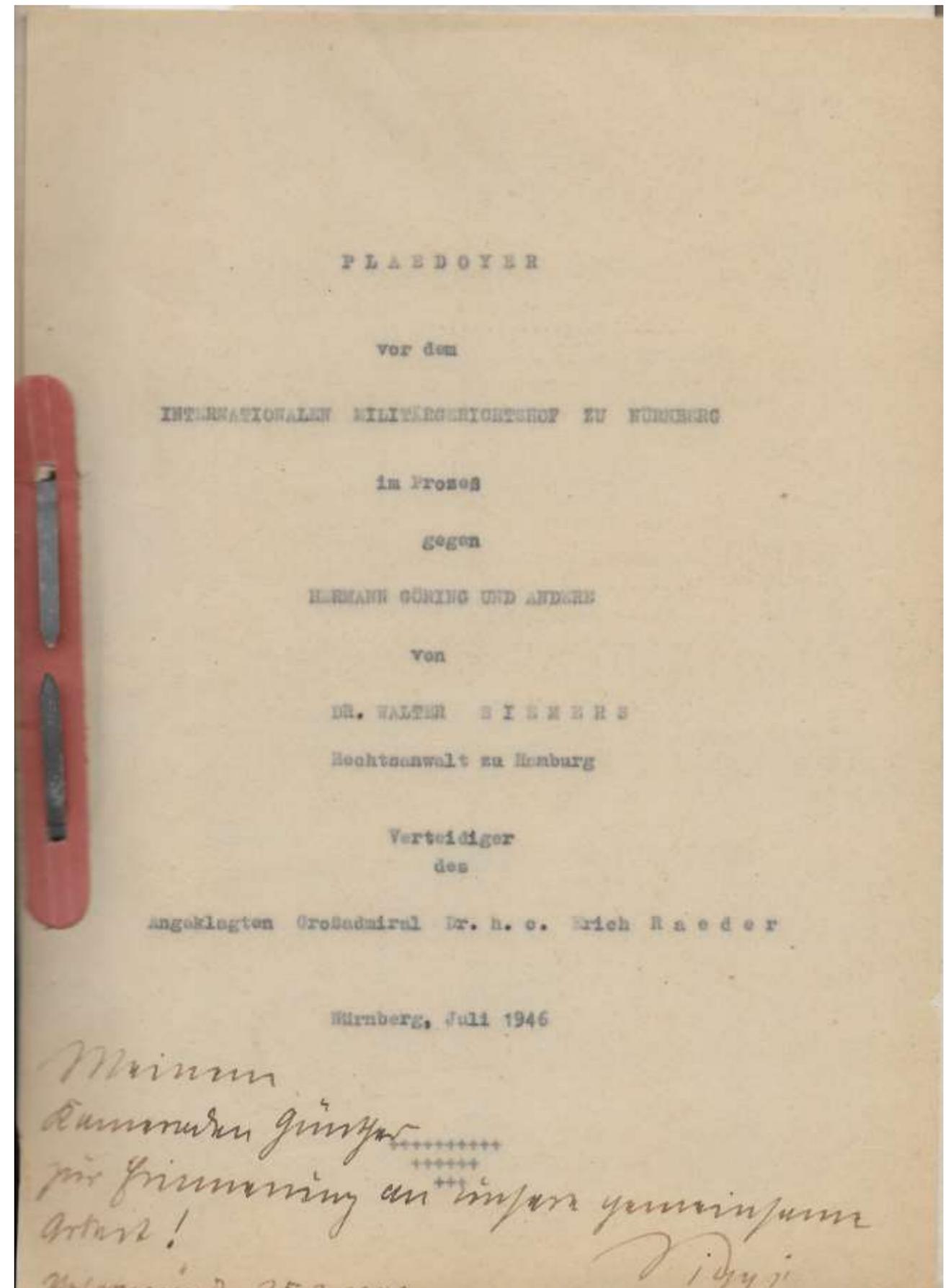
4° (A4 size): Carbon Copy of Typescript, [2], 45 ff.; [2], all printed single sided on watermarked wove paper, a couple minor contemporary manuscript corrections, manuscript presentation inscription dated 1947 on title, bound in period manila commercial folder with metal clasps with short title in manuscript to front cover (Very Good, some fraying to bottom margin of title, light even toning, overall quite clean; some fraying to margins of covers).

A contemporary carbon copy of the original typescript of the closing arguments of the defence of High Admiral Erich Raeder, the former head of the German Navy, at the Nuremberg Trial, by his lawyer Walter Siemers; plus, Raeder's own closing statement to the court - extremely rare documents from one of the key events of the World's most famous war crimes trials.

This is an important document from the Nuremberg Trials, being a contemporary carbon copy of the original typescript of the closing arguments of the defence of High Admiral Erich Raeder, the former head of the Kriegsmarine (German Navy), as delivered by his lead attorney Walter Siemers; plus, Raeder's own closing statement to the court. These documents are extremely rare original artefacts from a key event of the greatest war crimes trials in history. This example has a wonderfully authentic appearance, being bound in a period commercial manila folder, bearing the short title in manuscript, plus a manuscript presentation inscription on the title: from "Siggi" to "Günther" in memory of their work together, dated Wesermünde, March 25, 1947. We are not certain as to the identity of these individuals (perhaps "Siggi" was Siemer's nickname?), but they evidently relate to members of Raeder's legal team.

The Nuremberg Trials (German: *Die Nürnberger Prozesse*) were then greatest war crimes proceedings ever convened. In the wake of World War II, the main Allied powers (USA, Britain, Russian and France) assembled the International Military Tribunal (IMT) to try the political and military leadership of the Third Reich for their atrocious crimes against humanity and the rules of war. In the end, twenty-two defendants faced trial before a panel of Allied judges, prosecuted by prominent Allied lawyers, during proceedings that lasted from November 20, 1945 to October 1, 1946.

A senior Nuremberg defendant was High Admiral Erich Raeder (1876 - 1960), a career German naval officer. The son of a Schleswig school principal, he joined the German Navy in 1894, quickly rising in rank until World War I, whereupon he served as High Admiral von Hipper's Chief of staff. Remaining in the service following the war, he became the commander-in-chief of the German Navy in 1928. He played a key role in rearming and expanding the Kriegsmarine



during the first years of the Third Reich and was promoted by Hitler to the rank of High Admiral in 1939.

Raeder was the head of the Kriegsmarine for the first half of the World War II, during which he played a key role in the successful invasions of Norway, Denmark and Greece, as well as mounting devastating U-boat attacks against Allied shipping in the Atlantic and Arctic Oceans. While he met with early success, by late 1942 the Kriegsmarine was suffering sharp reversals, causing Raeder to resign his post on January 30, 1943. He was replaced by High Admiral Karl Dönitz, and henceforth remained outside of major decision making, assuming the ceremonial post of Chief Inspector of the Navy.

On June 23, 1945, following the end of the war, Raeder was captured by the Russians and sent to Moscow, where he was imprisoned under harsh conditions. The following month, he was brought to Nuremberg to stand trial for war crimes.

There was a near universal belief that 'monsters' such as Göring, Keitel and Jodl, Frank, Ribbentrop and Streicher, who were fanatical drivers of the Holocaust, not to mention innumerable other crimes against civilians, should be tried at Nuremberg and executed. However, many Allied figures had strong reservations about meting out 'victors' justice' upon certain commanders who, while serving a criminal regime, had shown little enthusiasm for war crimes, and were considered to have largely behaved as professional military men just like their Allied counterparts. These figures included High Admiral Raeder, his successor Dönitz. In fact, the British Admiralty and the command of the U.S. Navy pressured the Nuremberg prosecutors to spare Raeder and Dönitz from any prosecution whatsoever. However, the Russian and French governments, as well as the trial persecutors would not hear of it and the high admirals were both charged and brought to dock.

Raeder was charged with three counts: (1) conspiracy to commit crimes against peace, war crimes, and crimes against humanity; (2) planning, initiating, and waging wars of aggression; and (3) crimes against the laws of war. Notably, he was spared the more serious charge of "unrestricted submarine warfare".

Raeder was defended by Walter Siemers, a Hamburg lawyer. While the admiral and his lead attorney had never met before, they quickly formed strong personal bond, and Siemers worked tirelessly for his client. The case was to be prosecuted by Sir David Maxwell Fyfe, a Scottish barrister and MP, who would later serve as the British Home Secretary.

The prosecution sought to prove that far from being a decent, professional career naval officer, Raeder was, from the start, a zealous political follower of Hitler who illegally rearmed the Kriegsmarine with the express intent of making war upon other nations. Moreover, Fyfe asserted that Raeder guided the navy to prosecute a dirty war against the accepted international rules and norms of combat.

Siemers endeavoured to counter that Raeder was merely a professional military man carrying out his commission to the best of his abilities. It followed that he was not a devout follower of Hitler, nor part of his political apparatus, but merely supported the Third Reich as it was committed to strengthening the Kriegsmarine. Moreover, Siemers claimed that Raeder was not previously aware of Hitler's bellicose intentions towards other nations, but when the war commenced, he was obligated to defend his country's interests. Any acts that were committed by the Kriegsmarine

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2. Mußte Raeder in den folgenden Jahren eine Angriffsabsicht bei Hitler erkennen ?	10 - 15
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IV. Der Fall "Athenia".....	25 - 27
V. Griechenland.....	27 - 29
VI. Norwegen.....	29 - 38
VII. Rußland.....	38 - 39
VIII. U.S.A. - Brasilien.....	39 - 40
IX. Verteilung der Zuständigkeit und der Verantwortung innerhalb der diktatorischen Regierung Hitlers und allgemeine Ausführungen	40 - 45
<u>Anhang:</u>	
Schlußwort des Großadmiral Dr.h.c. Raeder	
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against the laws of war were not intentional, and we no worse than those committed by the Allied navies.

The relationship between the defence and prosecution was testy, as Siemers complained that he was repeatedly denied access to vital documents, while Fyfe was permitted to ‘gaslight’ him with the surprise introduction of new evidence. Moreover, Siemers was not allowed to bring in comparative evidence of misconduct by the Allied navies, which would place the charges against his client in a more favourable context.

Raeder’s trial lasted between May 15 and May 21, 1946. There remains a great deal of controversy about Siemer’s trial techniques. His manner throughout was inarguably long-winded and dry, boring everyone in attendance. Some saw this this as a lack of verve, resulting in many lost opportunities, while others held that it was part of ‘crazy like a fox’ strategy to blunt the effect of the prosecution’s charges. In contrast, Fyfe’s manner, especially his cross-examination of Raeder, was sharp, quick, and bordered on aggressive.

Nevertheless, Siemers succeeding in introducing exculpatory evidence that, while not overturning the charges, led many to believe that Raeder’s guilt was qualified by extenuating circumstances. Siemers’ strategy was supported by his excellent choice of high-profile witnesses who convincingly attested to Raeder’s personal and professional good character.

While the court was deluged with hundreds of letters from Western naval officers asking for clemency for the former High Admiral, Raeder was found guilty on all three counts and on October 1, 1946 was sentenced to life imprisonment. While this might, at first, seem like a ‘loss’ for Siemers, he was pleased with the outcome, as Raeder was saved from the hangman almost certainly due to his lawyer’s efforts to convince the court that Raeder’s intentions were not as bad as his actions.

Curiously, while Raeder was pleased to be spared the dishonourable death of hanging, he preferred death to life imprisonment and formally requested that he face a firing squad. This motion was denied, as the Nuremberg court had no authority to stiffen a sentence. Raeder was incarcerated in Spandau Prison under rather harsh conditions.

Siemers remained devoted to Raeder, and energetically sought his release. These efforts eventually bore fruit, as the 79-year old Raeder was released on “heath grounds” on September 26, 1955.

Raeder spent the rest of his life visiting veterans’ meetings and writing his memoirs, published as *Mein Leben* (1957). He died in 1960. Raeder’s prosecution and his level of responsibility for the crimes of the Third Reich remain a matter of great controversy.

The Present Documents in Focus

The present documents are contemporary carbon copies of the original typescripts of Walter Siemers’ closing arguments in his defence of Raeder; plus, the text of Raeder’s final speech to the court. Such carbon copies of typescript were made in only very small numbers and were distributed exclusively to court officers (lawyers, judges, defendants, recorders) and were not meant for public distribution. These typescript documents were subsequently used as the basis for the formal published records of the trial. Accordingly, any such documents are exceedingly rare,

with only a small number of examples being preserved in institutional collections, while examples of any kind appear only very seldom on the market.

The main document, entitled “Plaedoyer” refers to the official German legal term for a closing statement in a trial. The statement is carefully divided into an introduction and nine sections, as listed in the ‘Inhaltsverzeichnis’ [Contents]. Following Siemers’ summary of his arguments in his ‘Einleitung’ [Introduction], he goes on to counter the charges that Raeder violated pre-war disarmament treaties. In ‘I. Versailler Vertrag’ [The Treaty of Versailles], he refutes the allegation that Raeder committed criminal acts by rearming the Kriegsmarine in contravention of this 1919 accord which ended World War I. In ‘II. Deutsch-Englisch Flottenabkommen’ [The German-English Fleet Agreement], Siemers took issue with the prosecutor’s assertion that Raeder is legally culpable for Germany ramping up its naval strength in contravention of the Anglo-German Naval Accord of 1935 (revised in 1937).

In the next section, ‘III. Verschwörung zur Führung von Angriffskriegen [Conspiracy to Lead Offensive Wars]’, Siemers seeks to counter the charge that Raeder was a political supporter of Hitler and that he had pre-knowledge of Hitler’s intention to attack other nations. This section is further divided into three parts. In ‘1. Wie kam Raeder zu Hitler und musste er zu dieser Zeit mit einer Angriffsabsicht Hitlers rechnen? [How did Raeder come to Hitler and did he have reason to expect that Hitler had intent to attack other countries at that time?]’, Siemers sought to prove that Raeder was not a political supporter of Hitler but merely came into the Führer’s orbit due to his pre-existing role as the head of the German Navy; his mission as professional (labelled as ‘Masjid Suliman’ on the middle of the of the far-left side of the present map), military officer was simply to support the government of the day. In ‘2. Mußte Raeder in den folgenden Jahren eine Angriffsabsicht bei Hitler erkennen? [Did Raeder have the responsibly to recognize an Hitler’s intention to attack other countries in the following years?]’, Siemers counters that Raeder could not have reasonably been expected to anticipate that Hitler intended to attack other countries; the admiral was merely ramping up the navy to improve national security. In ‘3. Die sogenannten Schlüsseldokumente (4 Reden Hitlers vor den Oberbefehlshabern) [The so-called key documents (4 speeches by Hitler to his Commanders-in-Chief)]’, Siemers addresses a damning piece of evidence against Raeder, being 4 addresses given by Hitler to his military chiefs of staff in 1939, prior to the outbreak of World War II, in which the Führer makes plain that he intends to invade other countries.

In the next section, Siemers addresses specific charges that Raeder led the Kriegsmarine to prosecute warfare in an illegal fashion, violating established military conventions. In ‘IV. Der Fall “Athenia” [The Case of the *Athenia*]’, Siemers defends the accusation that a German U-Boat illegally and intentionally sunk the *Athenia*, a British civilian vessel on September 3, 1939 (the Germans did indeed sink the vessel, but it was apparently an accident). Next, Siemers defends Raeder’s conduct in the German invasion of ‘V. Griechenland [Greece]’ and ‘VI. Norwegen [Norway]’, declaring that these moves were actually defensive operations to prevent these countries from being seized by Britain and used to attack Axis nations. Next, Siemers defended the Kriegsmarine’s operations in waters off ‘VII. Rußland [Russia]’ and the Americas ‘VIII: U.S.A. – Brasilien [U.S.A. - Brazil]’, notably the prosecution of submarine warfare.

Finally, in ‘IX. Verteilung der Zuständigkeit und der Verantwortung innerhalb der diktatorischen Regierung Hitlers und allgemeine Ausführungen. [Distribution of responsibility within Hitler’s dictatorial government]’, Siemers counters the notion that Raeder had political control over the Kriegsmarine’s actions, which rather resided with Hitler.

The second and final document is 'Anhang: Schlußwort des Großadmiral Dr. h. c. Raeder [Appendix: Conclusion by the High Admiral Dr. Raeder]', which features Raeder's final remarks to the Nuremberg court. Here he defiantly and stoically defends the moral integrity of his actions and, more generally, of the role of the Kriegsmarine. He is totally unapologetic and unrepentant and seems to consider that the true injustice is the court case itself. He asserts that "The German Navy stands before this Court and before the world with a clean shield and an unstained flag".

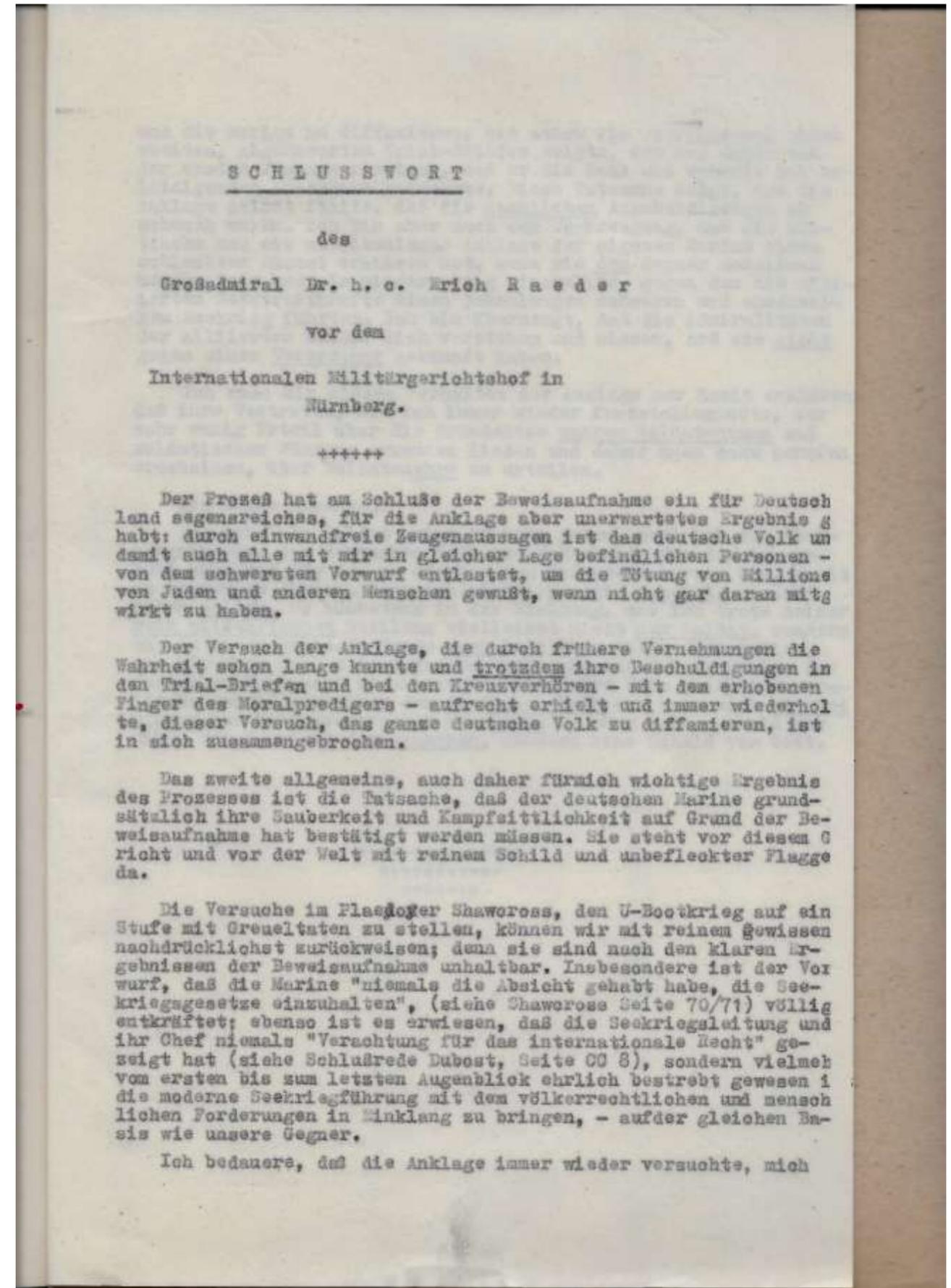
A Note on Rarity

All contemporary carbon copies of original typescripts of any proceedings from the Nuremberg Trials are today exceedingly 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 very seldom appear on the market.

We can trace only 2 institutional examples of the present carbon copies, held by the Zentrum Informationsarbeit Bundeswehr (the German Military Archives in Berlin), albeit with a different collation; and an example within the Nachlass Dr. Friedrich Drischel at the Landesarchiv Baden-Württemberg (Stuttgart).

References: Landesarchiv Baden-Württemberg - Nachlass Dr. Friedrich Drischel: 5-883850. Cf. Keith Bird, Erich Raeder: Admiral of the Third Reich (2013), Chapter 11: Defending the Navy, 1943-1960; Eugene Davidson, The Trial of the Germans: An Account of the Twenty-Two Defendants Before the International Military Tribunal at Nuremberg (1997), pp. 390-2.

1.200 EUR



4. Benjamin CROSBY & Co. (Publisher).

SLAVERY & EMANCIPTATION / WEST INDIES – TRINIDAD / CELEBRITY TRIALS:

The Trial of Governor T. Picton, for Inflicting the Torture on Louisa Calderon, A Free Mulatto, and one of His Britannic Majesty's Subjects, in the Island of Trinidad. Tried before Lord Chief Justice Ellenborough and a Special Jury, and Found Guilty. Taken in Short-Hand during the Proceedings on the 24th of February, 1806.

London: Dewick & Clarke for B. Crosby & Co., 1806.

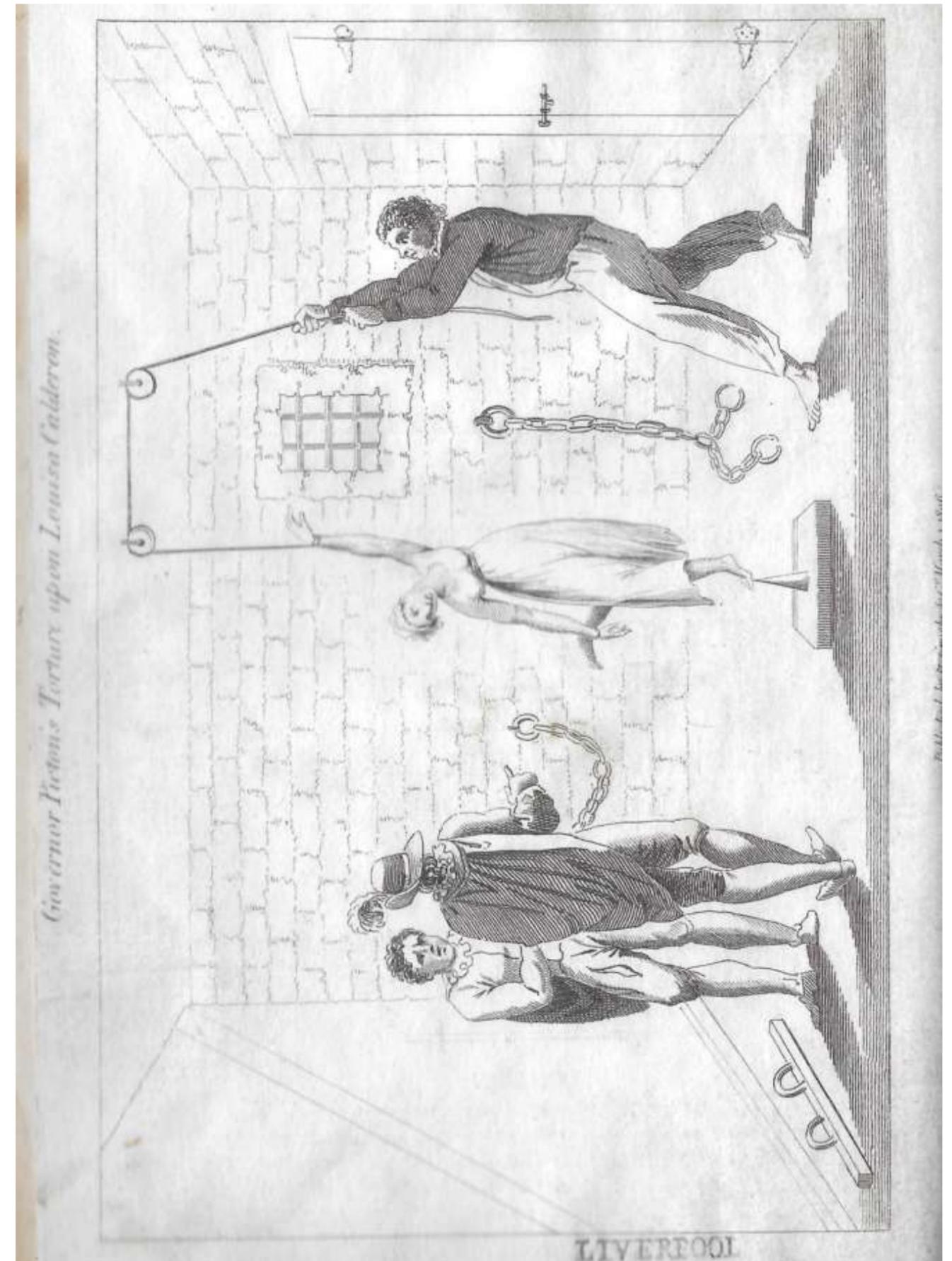
8° (22 x 14 cm): 126 pp., bound in contemporary green boards with later white card spine to style (Good, some scattered foxing and staining, printers' creases in blank margins to a handful of leaves, very short (1 cm) clean tear in blank margin of frontispiece, small handstamp of the 'Liverpool Library' in blank margin of frontispiece; contemporary boards with edgewear and little stained, still an attractive example).

Very rare – the first edition of the most authoritative eye-witness account of the trial of Thomas Picton, the former Governor of Trinidad (later famous for his final act at the Battle of Waterloo), who was found guilty of illegally ordering the torture of Luisa Calderón, a free mulatto woman; the event was one of the British Empire's great media spectacles of the era, dividing public opinion and raising serious questions about the rule of law and the rights of free people of colour in British-ruled territories.

This is the very rare first edition of the most authoritative eyewitness account of one of the great media sensations of the British Empire during the early 19th Century. On February 24, 1806, Brigadier-General Thomas Picton, the former Governor of Trinidad, was placed on trial for ordering the torture of Luisa Calderón, a free mulatto woman (Picton is today perhaps most famous for having been the Duke of Wellington's 'righthand man', killed in action at the Battle of Waterloo). Tried before Lord Chief Justice Ellenborough, after a single day of arguments and only five minutes of jury deliberations, Picton was found guilty!

The trial and related developments riveted audiences across the globe, conveyed by a press that was already ramped up into high gear by the Napoleonic Wars. It shocked everyone and sharply divided public opinion, raising critical questions about the application of law in British-ruled territories, as well as, more sensationally, exposing uncomfortable truths about the empire's role with respect to national security, race, sexuality and violence during a time of revolution and war. The present work is the most accurate and complete transcript of the Picton Trial, based on notes taken in shorthand during the proceedings. It was considered in its time be the authoritative first-hand account of the trial, a distinction which is supported by historians to the present day.

In 1797, amidst the French Revolutionary Wars (1792 - 1802), during which Britain and France were engaged in an epic global war, a British expeditionary force seized the island of Trinidad, which had hitherto been a province of Spanish Venezuela (Spain was then allied to France). As the island had not yet been formally ceded to Britain, a provisional administration was established, whereby the island would continue be ruled under the existing Spanish legal system. Colonel Thomas Picton was appointed to be the island's governor, leading a civil service consisting mostly of remaining Spanish officials.



The British takeover of Trinidad occurred during a period of global turmoil and internal debate on the nature of governance and race relations within the British Empire. The inhumanity of the immensely lucrative sugar economy of Britain's existing West India colonies (Jamaica, Barbados, etc.) was facing increasingly strong opposition from Enlightenment-liberal elements in Metropolitan Britain. While abolishing slavery was still a long way off, calls to improve the treatment of enslaved people, while abolishing the global slave trade, were gaining traction in both the law courts and Parliament. These liberal forces were resolutely opposed by the well-funded plantation lobby.

While the overall direction of travel favoured the liberal side, the events of the 1790s emboldened conservative-pro-slavery forces. The ongoing Haitian Revolution (1791 - 1804), the West Indies' first successful slave uprising, exposed the colony's French plantocracy to shocking violence and ruined what was the region's most valuable economy. Also, during the Second Maroon War of 1795-6, the British subdued a rebellious free black community Western Jamaica, but only at great difficulty and cost. These events led many Britons to question the wisdom liberalizing laws towards not only slaves, but also free blacks.

Adding to the tension, Trinidad, and all the other British-held West Indian islands, were on a constant war footing, prepared to face French attack at any time. A fear, nearing paranoia, developed amongst some British officials that the 'rebellious impulses' of both slaves and free people of colour posed a potentially mortal danger to the empire's ability to defend these islands.

Trinidad was still an underdeveloped island, yet one which had undergone rapid demographic and economic change in the period immediately before the British takeover. In 1777, Trinidad was a remote Venezuelan province that had a population of only 1,400. Beginning in 1783, to spur development, the Spanish government invited French planters and merchants to move to Trinidad, along with their slaves, which soon formed an embryonic sugar economy. Notably, an unusually large number of Trinidad's new arrivals were free blacks, who in addition to the economic opportunities of a growing frontier economy, were drawn to Trinidad by the liberal social policies of the island's last Spanish governor, José María Chacón (in office 1784-97). Chacón had a relatively benevolent attitude towards free blacks, mulattos and Amerindians, granting them many of the same rights as enjoyed by the common white residents.

In 1797, Trinidad had a population of 17,718, of which 2,151 were Europeans; 4,476 were "free blacks and people, of colour"; 10,009 were slaves and 1,082 were Amerindians. While this figure represented dramatic growth from twenty years previous, the island was still undeveloped. For comparison, Jamaica which had twice the land area of Trinidad, had a population of almost 300,000, of which 90% were slaves.

Trinidad was seen as test case for Britain's overall attitude towards slavery and the treatment of free people of colour: If Trinidad was allowed to develop into a mass sugar-slave state like Jamaica, than slavery would be given a new lease on life; but if Trinidad was saved from coming completely under the spell the ignoble institution, then there would be hope that slavery could be abolished across the empire.

It was in this context that Thomas Picton (1758 - 1815) came to govern Trinidad. Picton was a controversial Welsh military man, who was "respected for his courage and feared for his irascible temperament", while the Duke of Wellington described him as stellar soldier, but "a rough foul-

mouthed devil as ever lived". Picton was an arch-conservative and authoritarian by nature; he had little natural sympathy for the plight of slaves or free people of colour, and he wished to make Trinidad into a brutal slave-sugar society like Jamaica. He aimed to reverse the liberalizing trends of the former Chacón regime and believed that the wartime environment justified his imposition of something akin to martial law.

Picton believed that his small army garrison was totally inadequate to defend Trinidad from foreign invasion, as well as ensuring the security of a White community that made up only 8% of the island's population. He instituted a severe and reactionary regime, whereby slaves and free persons of colour were subjected to exceptionally harsh and arbitrary justice. There were countless instances of Picton authorizing indefinite arrests, torture and even executions of people without trials or evidence. Notably, he had an obsession for punishing people who practiced *obeah*, certain syncretic spiritual practices. He was also openly corrupt, using his office to engage in land speculation and slave trading. While some plantation owners and military types adored Picton, most of the island's grandees found him to be unnecessarily cruel and greedy.

In a decision that was to later haunt him, in December 1801, Picton authorized his police to torture Luisa Calderón, a 14-year old free mulatto woman, for the alleged crime of assisting a man, Carlos González, to steal £500 from her criollo lover Pedro Ruíz (with whom Calderón was living). Ruíz had reported the theft to a sympathetic Picton, who promised him that if Calderón "did not confess who had taken the money, he would order the hangman to put his hand on her". There was no evidence whatsoever that Calderón was involved in the crime, nor did she confess or show any signs of guilt. On December 22, one of Picton's officials, frustrated by the lack of progress in his investigation, requested the governor's permission to torture Calderón to gain a confession; authorization that was duly granted.

On December 23, Picton's officials performed the torture of 'picketing' on Calderón, a painful military punishment, that called for trussing her up by one wrist from the ceiling while she had to stand with one leg on a flat-topped peg. The first session lasted for 55 minutes, while the second session, lasting 25 minutes, occurred the following day. Throughout the entire ordeal, Calderón maintained amazing composure and no usable confession was forthcoming. She was held in prison for another eight months, before being released, as no evidence or confession ever materialized.

Innumerable reports of Picton's bad governance reached London. The new Addington administration, which had assumed office in March 1801, did not favour Picton and had reservations about the island turning into a traditional plantation economy. In 1802, Addington removed the governor's authority, and arranged for Trinidad to be ruled by a triumvirate of commissioners, including Picton, Admiral Samuel Hood (a close personal friend of Picton), and Colonel William Fullerton (1754 - 1808), a Scottish intellectual, long-time MP and a famed hero from the Second Anglo-Mysore War (1780-4) in India. Unfortunately for Picton he was to be the most junior member of the triumvirate, which was to be chaired by Fullerton.

Fullerton, a liberal product of the Scottish Enlightenment, was horrified by Picton's abuses of the legal system and his sadistic mistreatment of many of Trinidad's people, a regime that he described as "let them hate so long as they fear". Fullerton made it his personal mission to bring Picton to justice, and while on the island he interviewed dozens of witnesses and collected voluminous written evidence. Fullerton had a powerful ally, Lord Hobart, the Colonial Secretary, who was a close friend from his time in India.

In 1803, both Picton and Fullerton left Trinidad. Picton joined Admiral Hood in military operations in Tobago and St. Lucia, while Fullerton returned to London to make his case against the former governor. Fullerton used his stellar political connections to ensure the Privy Council carefully reviewed his dossiers of accusations that included the punishment of those engaged in obeah; cruelty to slaves; and the imprisonment and execution of suspects without due process.

In November 1803, Picton was arrested on the orders of the Privy Council on charges that included 39 counts of being responsible for the “unlawful deaths” of slaves, free coloured people and even some of his own soldiers. This included giving orders for people to be decapitated and burned alive. Additionally, he was charged with numerous counts of torture and illegal detention, as well as acts of corruption.

For reasons that are not entirely clear, the Privy Council elected to deal with almost all the charges, including the most serious ones, in a ‘quiet’ manner, behind closed doors. They referred only the charge of Picton ordering the illegal torture of Luisa Calderón to the crown prosecutor to be tried at the Court of the King’s Bench (the British supreme court).

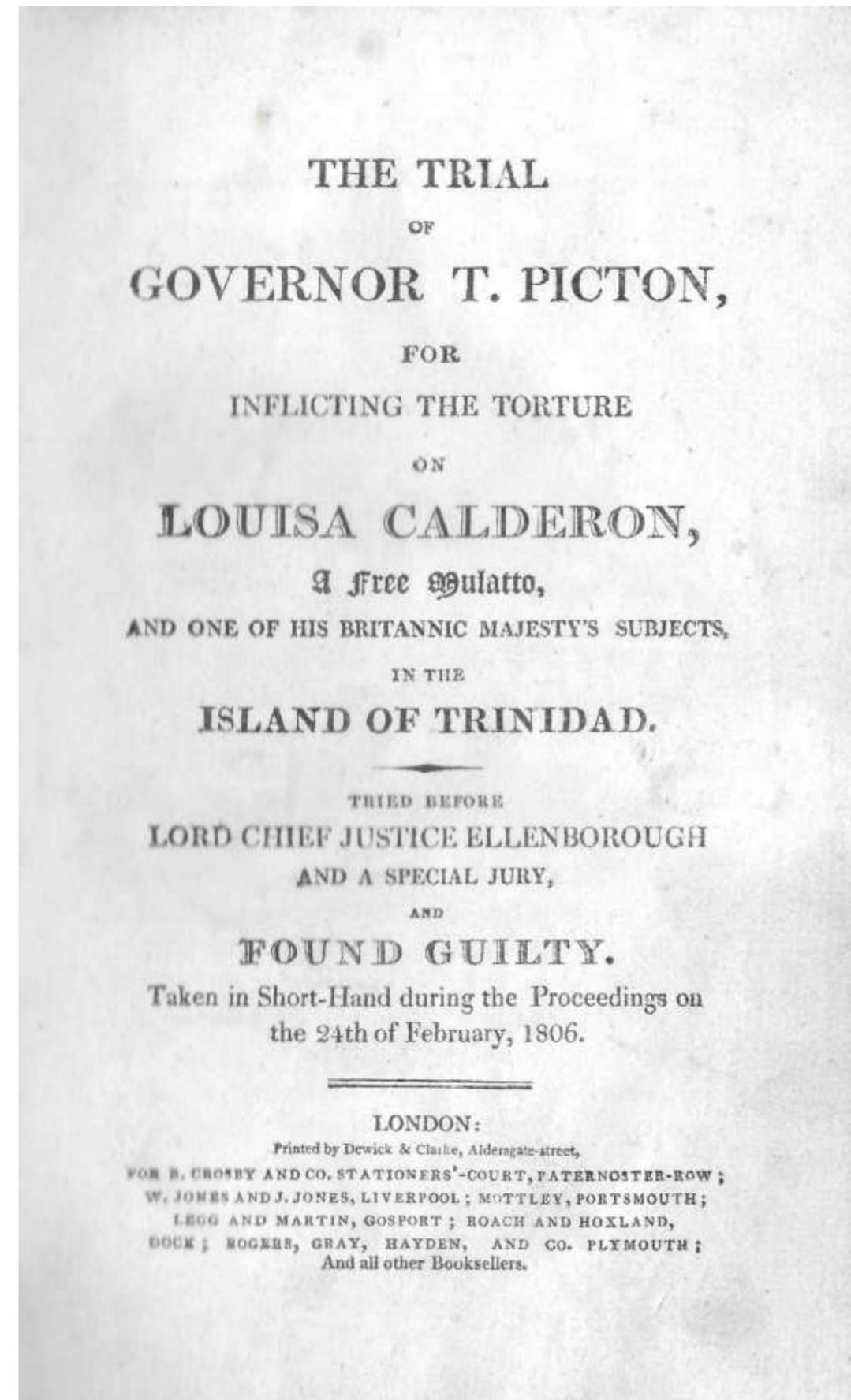
News of the case against Picton viz. the torture of Luisa Calderón caused a media storm across the British Empire. Fullerton orchestrated a massive propaganda campaign against the former governor, who became the ‘poster boy’ for what liberals saw as the outgoing, discredited cruel empire of exploitation and slavery. Calderón’s ordeal, which could be dramatically illustrated and easily understood by all, compelled average Britons to directly confront the horrors that were regularly committed abroad in the name of their country. This exposé was countered by a PR-effort orchestrated by conservative-military types and plantation owners who felt that Picton was being unfairly martyred for doing this duty, making tough decisions necessary to defend the empire in a time of war and political instability.

The Prosecution of Picton & the Present Account of the Trial

After a series of procedural delays, Picton finally went to trial at the Court of the King’s Bench, convened at fabulously impressive Westminster Hall, on February 24, 1806. The trial was of the utmost importance and was presided over by Chief Justice Ellenborough. The crown pulled out all the stops, appointing as the prosecutor William Garrow, Britain’s most famous barrister and a charismatic showman who was one of the world’s first trial lawyers in the modern sense. The defence was led by Robert Dallas (later a respected judge) while both sides went to tremendous expense to bring witnesses from Trinidad to testify in their favour. Most importantly, Fullerton arranged for Luisa Calderón to testify in person at the trial.

The trial room was packed with reporters from every imaginable newspaper, as well as many prominent citizens, both for and against Picton. Calderón’s presence created quite a stir, as she came across as beautiful and dignified, with a strong, credible bearing. As a reporter from the *Sun* newspaper opined “Her appearance was extremely interesting, and her countenance, which was that of a Mulatto, extremely pre-possessing and agreeable”.

The present work features the most faithful transcript of the entire trial, taken in shorthand by a correspondent working for the publisher Benjamin Crosby & Company. As the present record shows, Garrow painted Picton as a rogue governor who disgraced both his office and the empire though his flagrant disregard of the standards of conduct, not to mention the rule of law, that should have been the cornerstone of his mandate. Dallas countered that the West Indies was a dangerous place where Metropolitan British conventions do not, and should not, prevail and that



Picton did his duty in maintaining order on Trinidad against outrageous odds. Dredging up old prejudices concerning the links between race and sexuality, Dallas cast aspersions on Calderón's character, as she was a mulatto teenager living in sin with an older white man.

The apex of the trial was Garrow's examination of Calderón, who gave a composed, yet moving, account of her ordeal at the hands of Picton's men. Dramatically, she showed the court the scars from her torture, appearing as "a seam or callus formed on both wrists." To graphically dramatize the testimony, Garrow showed the court "a drawing in water colours . . . representing in striking manner her situation with the executioner and his attendants during the application of the torture".

It eventually became clear that the outcome of the trial hinged on whether Picton broke Spanish law, the code the governor was to follow when administering the island. Dallas argued that judicial torture was a common and accepted legal practice in the Spanish West Indies.

Picton's case fell apart when Garrow grilled Archibald Gloster, the former Attorney General of Trinidad, who was the prosecution's star witness. After maintaining that Picton's employment of torture was legal according to the Spanish legal codes, under spirited questioning, he admitted that not only could not cite a single instance of torture being mentioned in Spanish legal text, he could he even read a word of Spanish! It was soon established that while torture might have been practiced in Spanish Trinidad, it was not sanctioned by any laws.

At 7 PM, after almost eight hours of testimony, Ellenborough tasked the jury with deliberating. They returned after only five minutes to pronounce Picton guilty!

The verdict caused a sensation across the empire, sharply dividing public opinion. It was been a major victory for the liberal-anti-slavery lobby, which succeeded in having the empire ban the global slave trade the following year. It proved that, at least temporarily, justice could be served for coloured subjects of the British Empire, even against the forces of powerful elite-conservative interests.

In addition to extensive coverage in newspapers and magazines, four contemporary pamphlets recording the Picton Trial were produced. Importantly, Professor James Epstein, the foremost authority on the event, described the present account, published by B. Crosby & Co., as "the most complete contemporary trial text"; it was even used a seminal source in composing the record of trial within Cobbett & Howell's *State Trials*, the 'gold standard' account of major British judicial proceedings during the era. The present work is still today heavily cited in academic articles and books on the history of Trinidad and the British presence in the West Indies.

Epilogue

The advent of the Napoleonic Wars and changes in the administration at Whitehall caused Picton's crimes to be "swept under the rug". Dallas, who immediately appealed the 1806 verdict arranged for Picton to remain free on bail. He was given a re-trial in 1808, which resulted in a bizarre "special verdict" that, without any evidence, found that judicial torture was indeed a legally sanctioned practiced in Spanish Trinidad, thus pronouncing Picton not guilty. Moreover, the massive dossier of the other (more serious) charges that were supposedly being investigated by the Privy Council were quietly dismissed. It did not help that by this time Fullerton had died, and there was nobody to lead a public campaign against the former governor.

The truth was that Whitehall considered Picton to be a top-notch battle commander and his talents were far more important in the struggle to defeat Napoleon, than was the desire to correct the wrongs he seemed to have committed in a faraway colony years earlier.

In 1810, the Duke of Wellington selected Picton, by then a major-general, to be one of this division commanders during the Peninsular War. There he distinguished himself as a brave and clever tactician, playing a pivotal role in many battles.

Picton died leading his men at the Battle of Waterloo (June 18, 1815), making him the most senior officer killed in that decisive showdown which ended the Napoleonic Wars. For this, he was lionized as a martyr for the empire, overshadowing his ghastly conduct in Trinidad.

Yet, the Picton Trial had an enduring legacy, in that it helped to expose to the public of Metropolitan Britain to the extreme violence that was being meted out to people of colour in the colonies. It made many realize that Luisa Calderón, a young mulatto woman, was a dignified human being, worthy of the full protection of British common law; as were hundreds of thousands other British subjects just like her. The Picton Trial was instrumental in ensuring that a sugar economy in Trinidad based upon the mass exploitation of slavery did not develop (slavery was applied in Trinidad but was relatively limited). It also played a role in turning public opinion against slavery throughout the empire, which was abolished in stages between 1834 and 1840.

A Note on Rarity

The present work is extremely rare on the market; the last sales or auction record we can trace is from Sotheby's in 1972.

References: Yale Law Library: TrialsB P589; SABIN, no. 62684; Selwyn Reginald CUDJOE, *Beyond Boundaries: The Intellectual Tradition of Trinidad and Tobago in the Nineteenth Century* (Wellesley, MA: University of Massachusetts Press, 2003), 'Chapter 1: The Menace of Colour', pp. 7-21; James EPSTEIN, 'Politics of Colonial Sensation: The Trial of Thomas Picton and the Cause of Louisa Calderon', *The American Historical Review*, vol. 112, no. 3 (2007), pp. 712-41; James EPSTEIN, "'The Shrug of Horror': Creole Performance at King's Bench", in V. Agnew and J. Lamb (eds.), *Settler and Creole Reenactment* (London: Palgrave Macmillan, 2009), pp. 94-106; Jak PEAKE, *Between the Bocas: A Literary Geography of Western Trinidad* (Oxford, 2017), esp. pp. 52-56. Cf. 'Proceedings before the King's Bench, in the Case of Thomas Picton, Esq....1804-1812', in William Cobbett and T.B. Howell, eds., *A Complete Collection of State Trials*, vol. 30 (London, 1822), pp. 226-960.

1.800 EUR

5. IRAQ / KUWAIT / IRAN / WWI / OIL / ESPIONAGE.

BRITISH WAR OFFICE, GEOGRAPHICAL SECTION.

Lower Mesopotamia between Baghdad and the Persian Gulf.

Berlin: Kartographische Abteilung des Stellvertretenden Generalstabes des Armees, 1915.

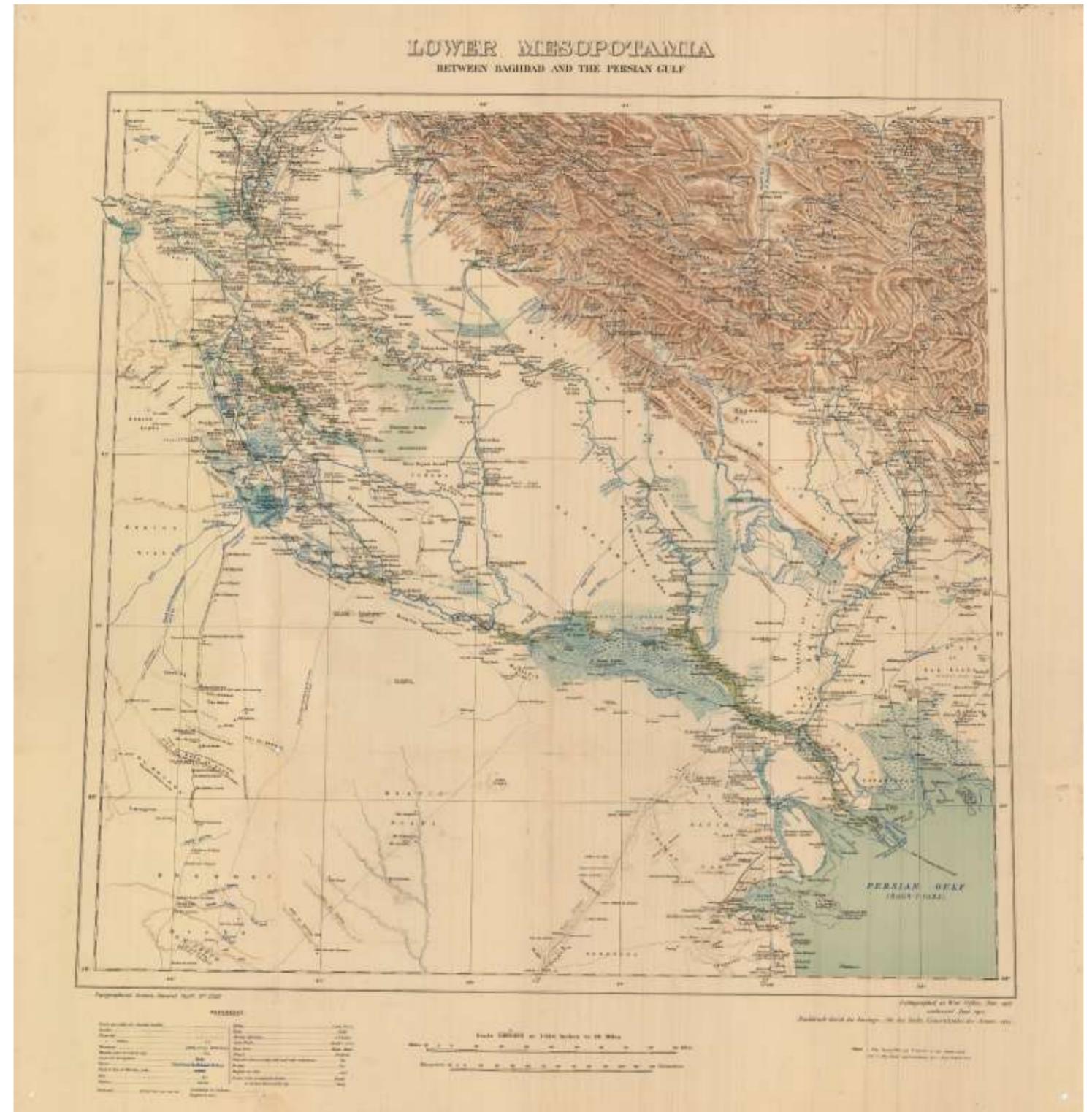
Colour lithograph (Very Good, some light wear along old folds and tiny holes at some fold vertices, a few very light stains, some tiny holes in upper-left blank margin, overall clean and attractive), 72.5 x 71 cm (28.5 x 28 inches).

The exceedingly rare first German 'pirated edition' of the first accurate topographical general map of Central and Southern Iraq, Kuwait and Khuzestan (Iran), created by the British War Office, the culmination of three generations of espionage and exploration missions, capped by late breaking discoveries; the authoritative map used by both sides during World War I's 'Mesopotamia Campaign', Britain's dramatic invasion of Iraq, opposed by Ottoman-German forces; the present edition published early in the war by the Cartographic Service of the General Staff of the German Army in Berlin.

This highly important, yet exceedingly rare map is the first German 'pirated edition' of the first accurate topographic general map of Central and Southern Iraq, Kuwait and Khuzestan (Iran), created by the British War Office in 1911. This map was dramatically superior in all respects to previous maps, the culmination of over three generations of espionage and exploration activities, capped by critical late-breaking discoveries. The War Office map was the authoritative map used by both sides during the Mesopotamia Campaign, Britain's invasion of Ottoman Iraq, one of most dramatic and surprising theatres of World War I. While the defence of Mesopotamia was largely left up to Ottoman troops, the Germans played a critical role in guiding and arming the Turkish side, and it was in this context that early in the campaign the Cartographic Division of the General Staff of the German Army in Berlin copied and published the map in a very small print run for the exclusive use of high-ranking German and Ottoman commanders.

Importantly, this edition of the map was the one used by the legendary German Field Marshall Colmar Freiherr von der Goltz (popularly known by his Turkish name 'Goltz Pasha), who oversaw the successful Ottoman-German defence of the Battle of Battle of Ctesiphon (November 22-25, 1915), and their capture of the main British army at the Siege of Kut-al-Amara (December 7, 1915 – April 29, 1916). While the Ottoman-German side ended up losing the Mesopotamia Campaign (and the greater war), the present map would have been vitally useful in their ability to mount what was much stronger than expected resistance to the British juggernaut in 1915-1916. The present example of the map has tack marks in the corners, suggesting that it may have been pinned up on the wall at a field headquarters (if only maps could speak!).

The map embraces all of central and southern Iraq (dominated by the great basin of the Euphrates and Tigris Rivers), from Baghdad and the lower part of the 'Sunni Triangle' in the north; down past Basra, the gateway to the Persian Gulf, in the south; plus, most of Kuwait and the Khuzestan Province (also known as 'Arabistan' due to its high Arab population), in southwestern Persia. Critically, upon the outbreak of World War I, the part of Mesopotamia depicted here made up the Ottoman vilayets of Basra and Baghdad, while Kuwait was a British protectorate, while southern Persia was a British zone of influence (dominated by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, the forerunner to British Petroleum).



The map is the first accurate general topographical rendering of the region. While initially created in the pre-war years to aid oil exploration, the building of pipelines, as well as transportation infrastructure, the British War Office always had its obvious military utility in mind. Due to the desert climate of Iraq, the water levels of the mighty Euphrates and Tigris Rivers, and the surrounding swamps, experience dramatic seasonal fluctuations, making the area incredibly difficult to traverse. The present map features all the necessary information into aid military movement, including the locations of the various channels of the rivers; swampy areas, labelled as 'liable to flood'; the locations of towns; cultivated areas; roads; railways; fortifications; desert wells; telegraph lines; caravan tracks; as well as points of elevation. The map features extensive annotations on the nature of the terrain; the identities of the native tribes; as well as countless archaeological sites in what was the cradle of Middle Eastern-European Civilization.

The present German 'pirated edition' is faithfully copied from the 1911 British War Office map which was the apex of three generations of espionage and military, commercial and archaeological exploration. Its depiction of Iraq includes highly important new discoveries from such sources as Sir William Willcock's irrigation surveys of Lower *Mesopotamia*, conducted on behalf of the Ottoman Government from 1909 to 1911; river maps made for the Lynch Brothers Shipping Company in 1909, an enterprise which sought a monopoly on commercial shipping on the Tigris and Euphrates; *Captain Frank R Teesdale's military reconnaissance of the Lower Euphrates*; amongst many other stellar sources.

The depiction of Kuwait is ground-breaking, predicated upon the 1910 surveys by the famed British military adventurer, Captain William Henry Irvine Shakespear (1878 - 1915), who befriended the country's ruler which also forging an alliance with the Saud Dynasty of the Nejd. Much of the mapping of Khuzestan, Persia, comes from oil and infrastructure surveys conducted by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company in 1910; while a good part of the area connecting Iraq and Persia is based upon the itinerary maps of the esteemed archaeologist Dr. Ernst Herzfeld, notably his *Routenkarte von Bagdad nach Shiraz* (1907) – indicating that the modern mapping of the region was never an entirely British exercise. .

The Genealogy and Sequencing of the map of Lower Mesopotamia between Baghdad and the Persian Gulf

The Geographical Section of the General Staff of the British War Office issued the first edition of the present map in November 1907, although this work was far less detailed and accurate than the later editions, as it did not feature the aforementioned vital information from new discoveries in 1909-1911. This first edition of the map is exceedingly rare and did not seem to have been publicly distributed. The War Office issued a much-improved edition of the map embracing the new discoveries in June 1911. This edition of the map, which is scarce, was made available for public sale through the War Office's private sector partners.

The 1911 War Office map was copied and published by the *Kartographische Abteilung des Stellvertretenden Generalstabes des Armees*, the map division of the German Army command in Berlin, probably early in 1915 (this being the present edition). This German 'pirate edition' is identical to its antecedent in all respects save for the addition of the German language imprint in the lower right margin. This edition was seemingly made in only a very small print run for the exclusive use of senior German and Ottoman officers. Importantly, this was the edition of the map used by the Ottoman-German side during the height of the Mesopotamian Campaign.



In December 1915, the British War Office issued a revised version of the map, with some additions from new information gleaned in the field over the previous 13 months. This map was issued in conjunction with Edward Stanford Ltd., the War Office's principal private sector partner. Another, even further revised, edition was issued by the War Office and Stanford in August 1916.

Early in 1917, the German army issued another 'pirate edition' of the map, based upon the August 1916 edition, but this time published by the Königlich *Preußische Landesaufnahme (Royal Prussian Surveying Office)*, in Berlin.

Following Britain's conquest of Mesopotamia and the end of World War I, the British remained in what became Iraq as the League of Nations mandatory authority. To assist in their oversight of the country, the War Office issued a final, further revised, edition of the map in 1919.

A Note on Rarity

While all editions of the map *Lower Mesopotamia between Baghdad and the Persian Gulf* are today scarce, the present first German 'pirate edition' of the map seems to be the rarest of the editions – we can trace only a single other example (held by the Bayerische Staatsbibliothek, Munich), while we cannot find any sales records. The great rarity of this edition is likely due to the fact that it was issued in only a very small print run exclusively for the use of high-ranking German and Ottoman officials and battle commanders during the height of the Mesopotamia campaign (it was never sold or made publicly available, unlike some of the British editions). The survival rate for such maps that were often used in the battle theatre is exceedingly low.

Espionage, Oil, War and the Contest for Mesopotamia

Mesopotamia, today known as Iraq, was the cradle of civilization in the Middle East and Europe, having over the millennia formed a key part of many empires. Since 1534, the region fell to Suleiman the Magnificent's armies, becoming part of the Ottoman Empire. It was duly divided into the three vilayets (provinces) of Basra, Baghdad and Mosul. Mesopotamia was perhaps the most ethnically and religiously diverse part of the Middle East and Ottoman rule over the country was generally weak, with practical power invested in local leaders.

In the wake of the Napoleonic Wars, Britain aimed to expand its empire in India and to gain total dominance over the Indian Ocean. The Persian Gulf was viewed by Whitehall as vital to its strategic interests and, beginning in 1820, Britain began signing protectorate treaties with the Arab Gulf States, hitherto known as the 'Trucial States', which progressively allowed the Royal Navy to make the Gulf into a 'British lake'.

Beyond its proximity the Gulf, Mesopotamia held a special place in the British mind. Those intellectually inclined were enthralled by the possibility of uncovering the archaeological wonders of the region, while figures of a more business-like disposition saw Mesopotamia as providing the key part of an overland route from Europe to India.

Beginning in 1826, members of the British Indian Navy, with the Sublime Porte's reluctant permission (Britain was a key ally of Constantinople, albeit a meddling and exploitative one), commenced charting the notoriously treacherous Euphrates and Tigris Rivers in search of routes for steamships that would account for a critical stretch of the overland route.

Beginning in the 1850s, British Indian engineers commenced topographical surveys of the lowlands near the rivers, while also conducting rudimentary archaeological surveys. In the 1860s, the British proceeded to make surveys and set up telegraph lines in Mesopotamia, as part of an eventual rapid communications system connecting India with Berlin and London (via Persia and Russia).

Importantly, while these surveys were conducted for their stated purposes, they all had a dual role. The surveyors were all spies, under instructions to make observations on the land, the local people and the political and military situation, before presenting their findings to officials in both London and Calcutta. By the late 19th Century, Britain had a stellar knowledge of the region that was, in some respects, more comprehensive than that possessed by the Sublime Porte! British merchants in Basra and Baghdad also played a key role in the economy of the country.

To assert its control of the head of the Persian Gulf, in 1899 Britain recognized Kuwait as separate state from the Ottoman Empire. In 1914, Kuwait became a British protectorate, in a manner like the Trucial States.

Around the turn of the century, geologists were reporting that the Persian Gulf region was likely home to vast petroleum reserves. Oil was not only the key fuel for the next stage in the West's industrial development, but if supplies enough to support the Royal Navy's fleets to transition from coal to petroleum, it promised to give Britain an indomitable military edge.

With the signing of the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907, whereupon Britain and Russia ended 'The Great Game', their decades-long cold war, Britain gained suzerainty over southern Persia.

The British War Office produced the first edition of the present map in November 1907 with these imperatives in mind.

In 1908, oil was discovered in Persia at Masjed Suleyman, in the Khuzestan region of southwestern Persia (labelled as 'Masjid Suliman' on the middle of the of the far-left side of the present map), and the British founded the *Anglo-Persian Oil Company (APOC)* to guard and exploit these discoveries (APOC was the precursor of today's British Petroleum).

The British then turned their sights to Mesopotamia, which geologists believed contained massive petroleum deposits, in both the north (the Mosul and Kirkuk region), as well the far south of the country, near Basra (adjacent to Khuzestan). This sparked a massive surge in British interest in Mesopotamia, including a diverse array of megaprojects from irrigation schemes, to shipping lines, to mercantile enterprise and military reconnaissance missions. In a familiar refrain, all these endeavours were also espionage missions, with detailed intelligence being reported in a steady stream to Whitehall.

Enter Germany, which likewise possessed extensive interests in Mesopotamia. Since the late 1880s, it had worked to gradually displace Britain and France as the major foreign financial and military player at the Sublime Porte. Deutsche Bank, Kaiser Wilhelm II's preferred financial vehicle, assumed control of the Orient Express (the famed rail route that connected Constantinople to the heart to Europe) and the Anatolian Railway, the uncompleted line that was to run across Turkey. In 1903, the Germans agreed to expand the Anatolian route through to Baghdad (and perhaps even Basra), creating the Baghdad Railway (German: *Bagdadbahn*), the envisaged Berlin-Baghdad Express. This line, if ever completed, would pose a terrifying threat to British interests in the Persian Gulf, especially the petroleum industry.

In 1912, the British backed the formation of the Turkish Oil Company to search for petroleum in Mesopotamia. This international affair curiously not only included British investors, but in an example of ‘keeping your enemies closer’, had Deutsche Bank as a major stakeholder, while the firm was headed by the brilliant Armenian tycoon and art collector Calouste Gulbenkian. Ironically, despite its name, the company did not feature the involvement of the Sublime Porte. While the venture showed enormous promise, the advent of the World War I ensured that any projects could not be realized for some years.

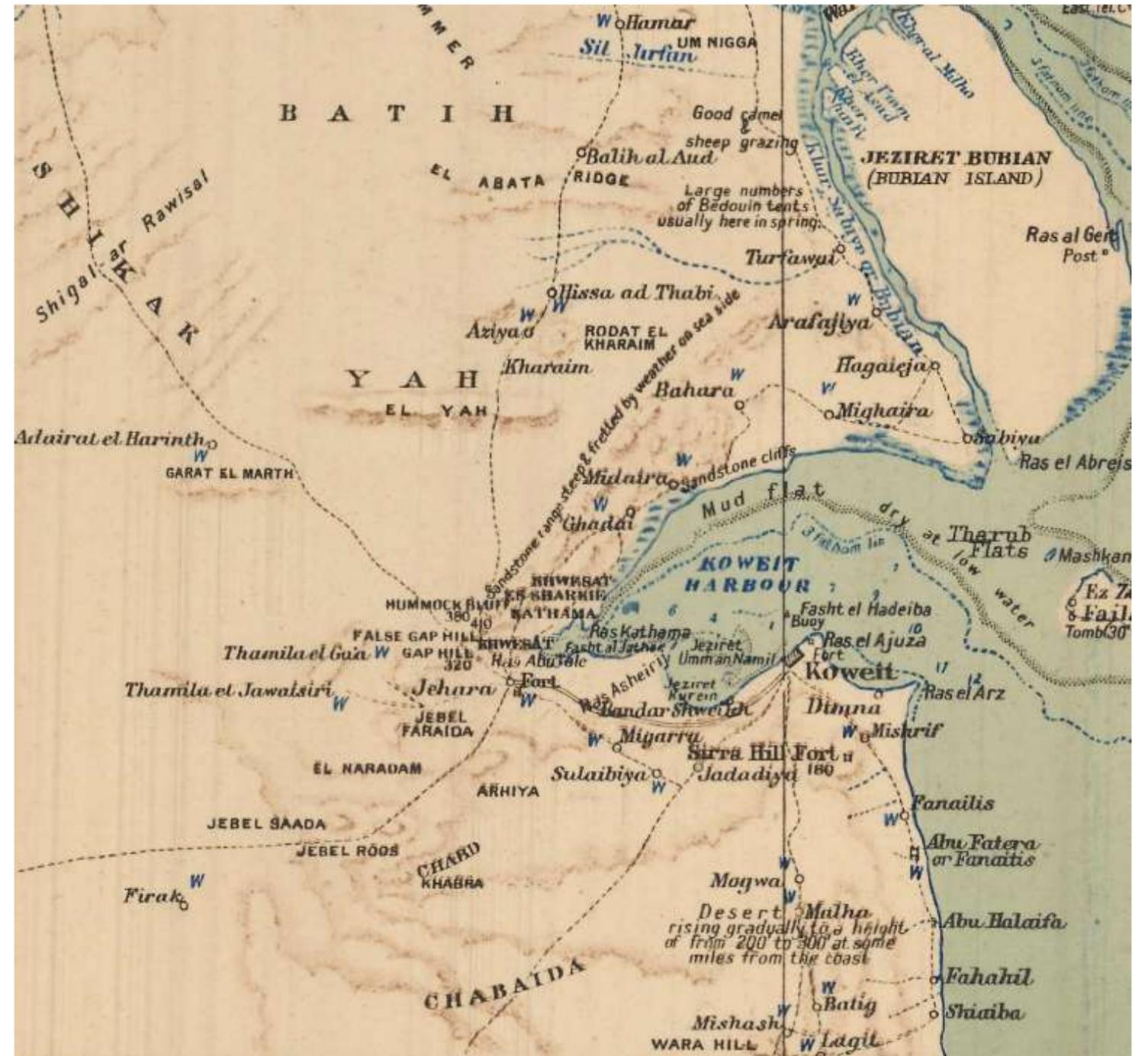
The outbreak of the Great War seemed to catch everyone in the Middle East a bit by surprise. However, the British, fearing for its interests in the Persian Gulf, had the Indian Army move quickly to invade Mesopotamia. In what became known as the Mesopotamian Campaign, the Indian Army arrived on scene in November 1914 and easily took Basra and most of the surrounding vilayet.

Importantly, during World War I both sides placed an incredibly high priority on obtaining geographic intelligence, especially in the Turkish-Middle Eastern theatres, where the topography was not so well known. The creation and acquisition of maps sufficiently accurate and detailed to aid military movement was often not only a supporting, but rather a decisive, factor upon tactical operations in theatres such as Gallipoli, the Sinai and Mesopotamia. The present map is one of the most consequential examples of the transference of geographic intelligence between sides during the conflict.

In 1915, the British gradually advanced up the Tigris and Euphrates valleys, scoring victory after victory against the Ottomans. However, they grew overconfident and overextended their lines. Meanwhile, the Ottomans received major reinforcements from Turkey (carried by the partially completed Bagdadbahn, which could transport troops from Constantinople to Baghdad in only 21 days), while the Germans provided massive assistance in the form of sophisticated artillery and airplanes. Moreover, they dispatched Field Marshal Colmar Freiherr von der Goltz, better known as ‘Goltz Pasha’, the famed Prussian strategist and long-time military advisor to the Sublime Porte, to oversee the Central Powers’ efforts.

The British rashly attempted to take Baghdad but were defeated by the reinvigorated Ottoman-German forces at the Battle of Ctesiphon (November 22-25, 1915), only 35 miles south of the city. The main British force under Major-General Charles Townshend was then driven south to the strategically important (yet vulnerable) town of Kut-al-Amara, located on a bend in the Tigris, about 160 miles south-east of Baghdad (in upper centre of the map). The town was encircled by Goltz Pasha and the Ottomans, commencing the Siege of Kut (December 7, 1915 to April 29, 1916). After almost five months, the starving British garrison surrendered to the Ottomans. In what was one of the greatest Allied defeats of the war, only 13,164 of the original 45,000 British imperial troops had survived the siege (while most of these men subsequently died during the POWs’ ‘death march’ to Anatolia). This was not only a devastating blow to British pride and morale, but for a while it threatened to cause the many of the hundreds of millions of Muslims living in the British Empire to question their loyalty to the seemingly flagging Allied case.

Later in 1916, the British were determined to recover and avenge their defeat, sending massive reinforcements to Mesopotamia commanded by a vigorous new leader, Lieutenant-General Sir Stanley Maude. Meanwhile, the death of Goltz Pasha, due to cholera, on April 19, 1916, was a great blow to the Ottoman-German effort.

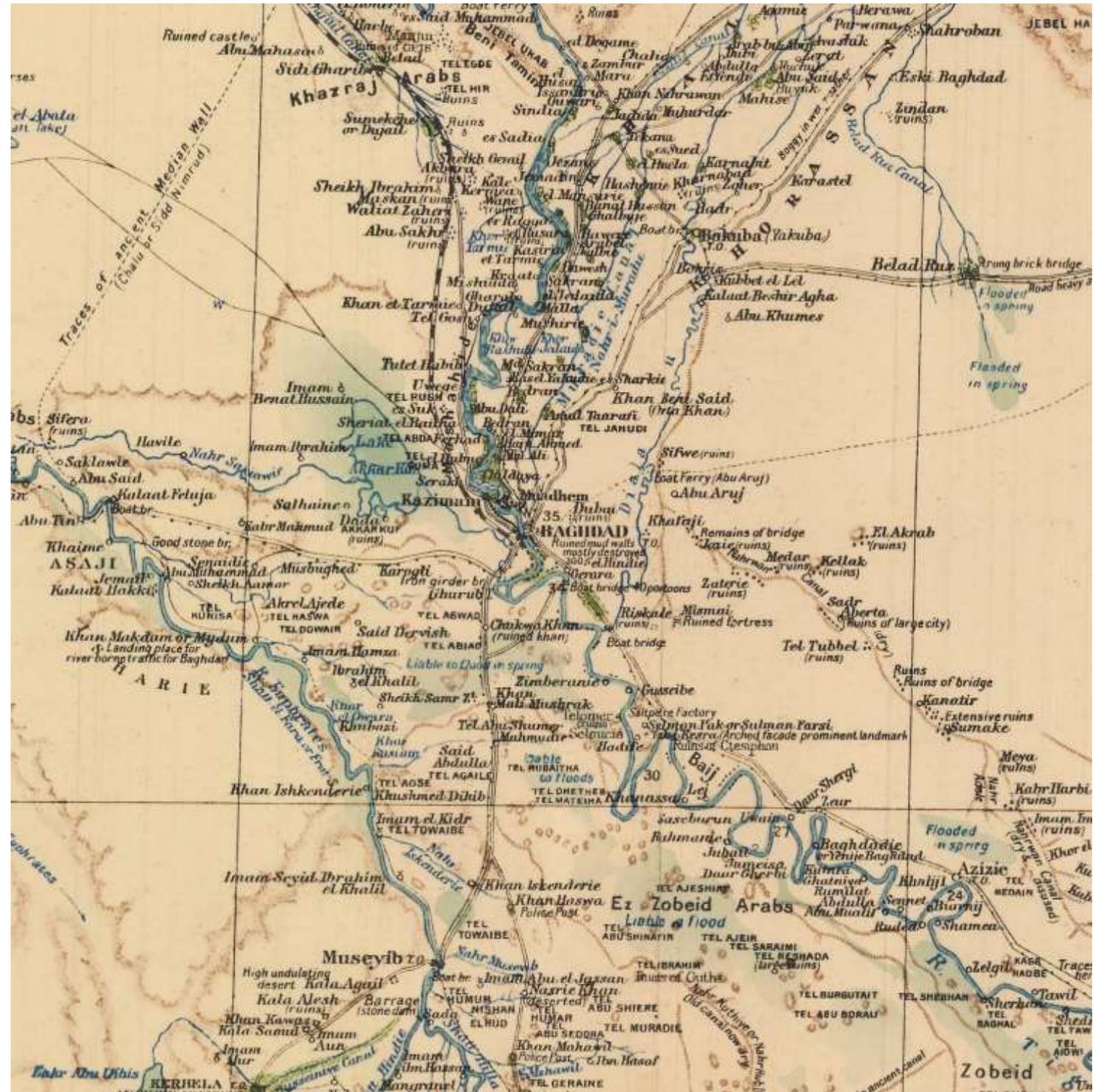


Beginning in December 1916, Maude's force methodically made its way up the Tigris and Euphrates. The British spooked the Ottomans into retreating, abandoning Baghdad to Maude on December 11, 1917. Henceforth, the British continued their conquest northward, albeit slowly. While World War I in the Ottoman lands ended upon the Armistice of Mudros (October 30, 1918), in contravention of the agreement, British forces continued to move north, taking Mosul on November 14, 1918 (so giving British control of the most promising potential petroleum region!).

The Treaty of Versailles (1919) hailed the dissolution of the Ottoman Empire and made Iraq into British-controlled mandate (essentially a protectorate). The Turkish Petroleum Company ramped up its exploration ventures, discovering the massive Kirkuk fields in 1927. Renamed the Iraq Petroleum Company in 1929, the firm went on to discover many new oil fields, including in the Basra region, located on the present map. While Iraq technically became independent in 1932, Britain continued to dominate its politics and oil production until the July 14 Revolution of 1958 brought in a nationalist republican regime opposed to Western hegemony.

References: Bayerische Staatsbibliothek: BV019385778.

1.200 EUR



6. KUWAIT - GEOLOGICAL MAP

وزارة التجارة والصنعت. Ministry of Commerce and Industry [Wizārat al-Tijārah wa-al-Şinā'ah].
Compiled by the Geological Survey of Austria.

دولة الكويت. Synoptic Geologic Map of the State of Kuwait.

This is a giant version of a first geological map of Kuwait, made in cooperation with the Geological Survey of Austria in 1968.

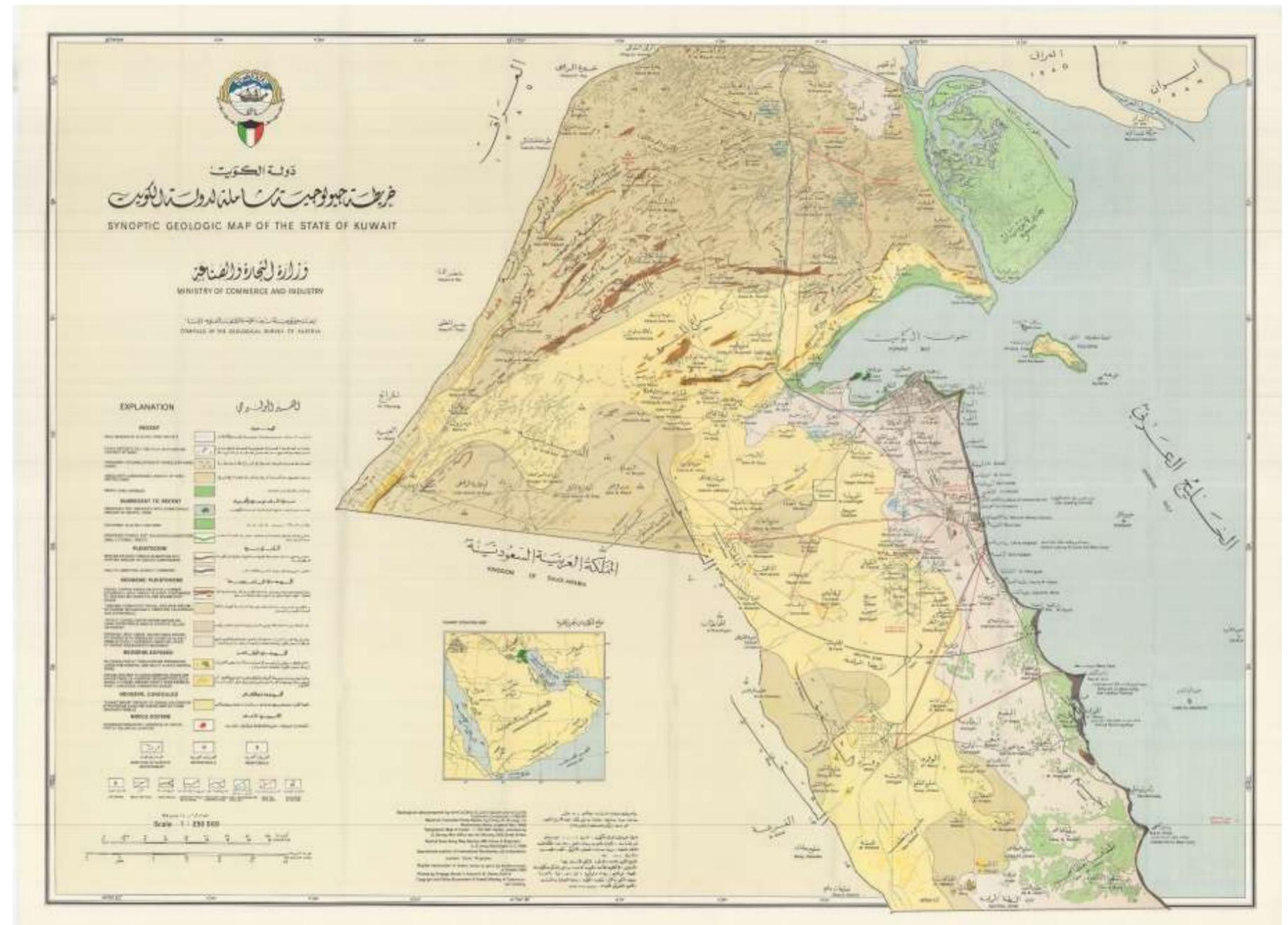
Vienna [1968].

Lithograph in colour (Very Good, soft folds) 81 x 114 cm (31.9 x 44.9 inches).

This is a large version of the first geological map of Kuwait, made in 1968 in cooperation with the Geological Survey of Austria. The map was accompanied by text, written by H.F. Holzer, T.E. Gattinger and W. Fuchs, which was published in Vienna.

References: Bob Parry, Chris Perkins, World Mapping Today, 2002, p. 505;
Y. Y. Youash, Geology and Mineral Resources of Kuwait, Non-Metallic Mineral Ores, 1984, p. 38.

980 EUR



7. NEW ZEALAND / MAORI WARS – TRIO OF ILLUSTRATED BROADSIDES:

#1.

Octavius Lawes Woodthorpe BOUSFIELD (1830 - 1882), Surveyor
/ John BUCHANAN (1819 - 1898), Draftsman.

[MAP OF THE ATTACK UPON NGATAPA FORTRESS:]

Plan of Ngatapa Pa, Poverty Bay taken by Col. Whitmore with the Colonial Force from the Hau Hau under Te Kooti.

[Wellington:] Printed at the Gen. Gov. Lith. Press by J. Earle, [1869].

Lithograph with original outline hand colour (Very Good, lovely original colours, some very slight foxing), 44 x 29 cm (17.5 x 11.5 inches).

#2.

OCTAVIUS LAWES WOODTHORPE BOUSFIELD (1830 - 1882), SURVEYOR

/ JOHN BUCHANAN (1819 - 1898), DRAFTSMAN.

[NGATAPA FORTRESS – CROSS SECTIONS:]

SECTIONS OF NGATAPA PA, POVERTY BAY TAKEN BY THE COLONIAL FORCES UNDER COL. WHITMORE 5TH JANY. 1869.

[WELLINGTON:] PRINTED AT THE GEN. GOV. LITH. PRESS BY J. EARLE, [1869].

Lithograph (Very Good, a few small closed marginal tears, some slight foxing and staining, mostly confined to margins), 30.5 x 50.5 cm (12 x 20 inches).

#3.

John BUCHANAN (1819 - 1898).

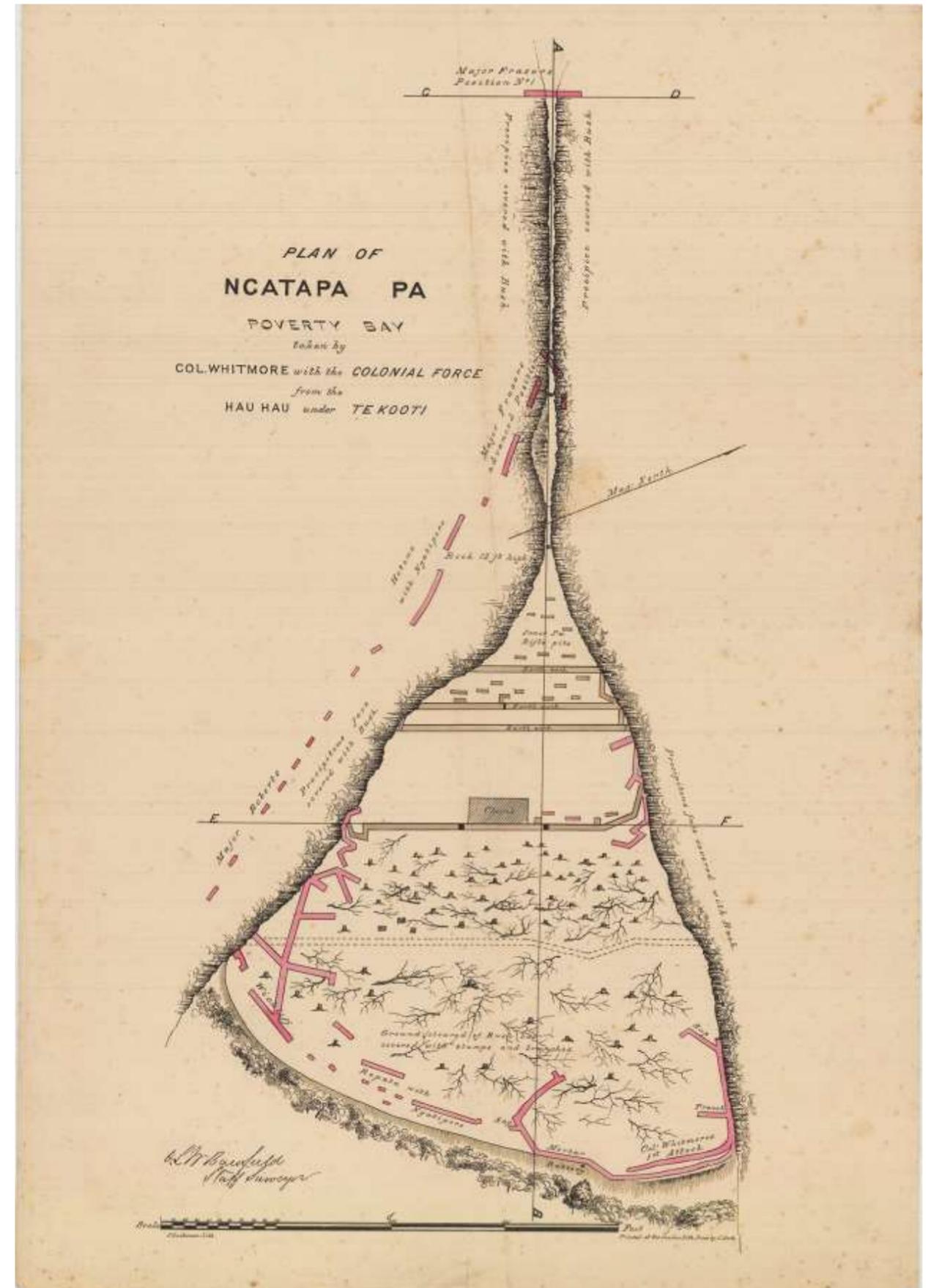
[TAURANGA-IKA FORT – CROSS SECTIONS:]

Sections of Taurangaika Pa, West Coast.

[Wellington:] Printed at the Gen. Gov. Lith. Press by J. Earle, [1869].

Lithograph (Good, some creasing along centerfold, some minor loss in blank space bottom centre, some small closed tears at head of centerfold, and remains of old improvised guard on verso of centerfold (where supposedly previously bound into a composite album), reinforced with archival tape on verso at head and tail of centerfold), 42 x 56 cm (16.5 x 22 inches).

Very rare monuments of colonial New Zealand printing and history - a trio of broadsides depicting the locations of the decisive battles of both Te Kooti's War and Titokowaru's War, the last major armed Maori uprisings against British colonial rule, published in Wellington, in 1869, by the General Government Lithographic Press.



Presented here is a trio of very rare broadsides illustrating the scenes of the decisive events of the final Maori Wars. Printed in 1869, at the General Government Lithographic Press in Wellington, they are amongst the most historically important images ever published in New Zealand, being stellar and authentic records of Maori military architecture and battle tactics, in addition to being records of the specific events themselves. The first two of the broadsides concern the siege of the Ngatapa Pa, a fortress in the eastern North Island, that marked the decisive showdown of Te Kooti's War, in December 1868-January 1869. The third broadside concerns the siege of Tauranga-ika Pa, a fortress in the Taranaki region of the western North Island, that was marked the definitive end of Titokowaru's War, in February 1869. In both cases, these seemingly impregnable fortresses were abandoned by the respective leaders of the Maori uprisings, at the very height of the sieges, leaving both the bastions and the war theatres, in general, in the hands of the British Colonial forces. Importantly, the end of these uprisings also marked the end of major Maori armed resistance to the colonial regime in New Zealand.

The present broadsides are of the very rare, original, first editions published in Wellington by the General Government Lithographic Press, in 1869. As the images featured were highly important and influential, from the 1880s onwards, they were reproduced in various forms, in various publications. Importantly, the original issues should not be confused with the later copies, which on inspection are dramatically different in appearance.

The Broadside in Focus

The first two of the present broadsides are intimately related, being [#1] *Plan of Ngatapa Pa, Poverty Bay* and [#2] *Sections of Ngatapa Pa*. They depict the Maori fortress of Ngatapa Pa, which is located about 15 km inland from Gisborne and Poverty Bay, in the far east of the North Island. Ngatapa Pa was the scene of the decisive showdown between the Maori uprising leader Te Kooti and the colonial forces under Colonel George Whitmore, which lasted from December 31, 1868 to January 6, 1869. The siege concluded when the colonial forces realized that Te Kooti and a small number of his followers had successfully fled the fortress for refuge in the interior of the island, so effectively ending the uprising.

As shown, on the first broadside, the Ngatapa Pa was located atop a 700 metre high triangular mountain, which was surrounded on three sides by steep rock cliffs. As shown, the fortress proper occupied four sections at the tip of the triangle, each protected by earth works. The 'Inner Pa', with rattle pits, occupied the very tip of triangle, while the 'Church' (Maori temple), occupied the fourth, or outermost section. Amidst these sections were as complex series of mazes, walkways and pits, which would ensure that any attempt to storm the bastion would immediately become a bloody endeavour. The large expanse beyond the outermost wall, occupying the base of the triangle, was comprised of 'Ground cleared of bush, but covered with stones and branches', while beyond was an outer wall. This area was intended by the fort's defenders to be a trap, bogging down an invading force within a sea of obstacles of abatis, while exposing them to fire from within the fortress. The scene is augmented with the positions of the besieging colonial forces, coloured in pink, that virtually surrounded the fortress on January 5, 1869.

The plan on the first broadside is traversed by cross-section lines, *A to B*; *C to D*; and *E to F*. The lines correspond to [#2] *Sections of Ngatapa Pa*, which shows the formidable visual appearance of the fortress in profile, so completing the scene.

The third of the trio of present broadsides, [#3] *Sections of Taurangaika Pa, West Coast.*, concerns to an entirely different conflict. The siege of the Maori fort of Tauranga-ika in February 1869, was the decisive showdown of the Titokowaru's War, a Maori uprising in the Taranaki region, in the far west of the North Island.

The cross-sections depicted on the present broadside relate to another broadside (not present here), *Plan of Taurangaika Pa, West Coast.*, an image of the example in the collections of the New Zealand Museum (Te Papa Tongawara) should be consulted for context, please see link: <http://collections.tepapa.govt.nz/object/240330>

As shown on the link, Tauranga-ika Pa was of a diamond shape, tapered at the ends, 135 metres long on each side, protected by walls 5 metres high, atop of which were rattle pits parapets and towers, along with gaps in the base to allow for ground-level defensive firing. Inside were mazes of pits, walkways and trenches, which would make storming the fort an unpleasant prospect. Moreover, the timber and earthen construction would act as insulation against most forms of European artillery. Colonel Whitmore, the colonial commander who besieged to fort, considered it be the most formidable bastion in New Zealand, remarking that "No troops in the world could have hewn their way through a double row of strong palisades, backed by rifle pits and flanked by two-story erections, such as are constructed in this fortification, defended by excellent shots and desperate men."

The present Taurang-ika broadside depicts cross-sections, *A to B*, and *C to D*, of the fort as featured on the linked broadside in the collections of the New Zealand Museum. Here the impressive construction of the fort is evident, with its imposing walls, barracks, palisades, along with other buildings. Below, is an image of kilted Maori warriors at their battle stations, firing through the double palisades.

This all being said, the siege of Tauranga-ika ended anti-climactically, as Titokowaru and his men had abandoned the fort by stealth on the night of February 2-3, 1869. This action caused their hitherto successful uprising to fizzle, so ending armed Maori resistance in the west of the North Island.

The Creators of Broadside in Focus

All three of the featured broadsides were designed by John Buchanan (1819 - 1898), a Scotsman who was 19th Century New Zealand's leading botanical artist, as well an important draftsman of topographical views and maps. While Buchanan was also the creator of the original sketch for the third broadside, *Sections of Taurangaika Pa*, the two broadsides of Ngatapa Pa were based on sketches by Octavius Laws Woodthorpe Bousfield (1830 - 1882), a state surveyor, who as a resident of nearby Napier, was called to personally survey Ngatapa Pa immediately in the wake of the battle. Bousfield, whose name is sometimes misspelled as 'Boresfield', arrived in New Zealand from England in 1850, and for over a generation was one of the North Island's most important surveyors.

New Zealand and the Final Maori Uprisings

The dramatic events that relate to the present broadsides, Te Kooti's War, in the far east of the North island, and Titokowaru's War, in the far west of the North Island, represented the last mass

armed uprisings of the Maori against British colonial rule in New Zealand, ending over a generation of intermittent, yet fierce warfare.

From 1800 until the 1840s, the European presence in New Zealand was fleeting, confined to tiny missionary outposts and whaling stations, most of which were temporary in nature. The islands' remote location, and the Europeans' complex and, at times, hostile relations with the Maori, were major inhibitors to founding a proper colony.

The New Zealand Company was founded in 1825 in an effort to establish a permanent, thriving British presence on the islands. After a false start, in 1837, the Company was given a royal charter to settle New Zealand. From 1839, these efforts began to enjoy some measurable success. In 1840, the Company founded the first enduring major European settlement in New Zealand, Wellington, on the shores of Port Nicholson. A modest, but steady flow of settlers began to arrive in the islands, finding the mild climate and abundant natural resources to be a pleasant place to start a new society.

However, the Maori nations were not reconciled to the influx of Europeans into their territories. While the Treaty of Waitangi (1840), signed between the New Zealand Company and the major Maori Chiefs, is traditionally thought to have codified Britain's claim over the islands, confining the Maori people to reservations (North American style), by modern standards the hastily arranged agreement reads more like a 'stitch up'. From 1843 to 1848, major sections of the Maori society rose up against the Waitangi terms and the British encroachments upon their land. After a series of small, but brutal wars, in 1848, peace was finally made. Some Maori tribes had agreed to new treaties, while others had been hammered into submission by the British forces, with the result of having their lands confiscated. Many Maori communities were left virtually landless and in dire straits. Even many of the Maori communities that had retained some of their lands, had agreed to the new treaties under duress, and continued to resent the terms. The enforced peace would not last.

Meanwhile, while the New Zealand Company had succeeded in settling 12,000 European settlers on the islands and had founded several of the New Zealand's enduring centres, including Wellington, Nelson, Taranaki, and Wanganui; while having an important supporting role in the foundation of Otago and Canterbury, the Company suffered from inept management. Its principals quarreled with both the Colonial Office and missionary societies, all of which were immensely powerful stakeholders. By 1843, the Company fell into serious financial trouble, from which it was never to recover. While the Company continued to operate, its powers were greatly limited upon the granting of responsible government to the colony in 1853; and the Company was officially dissolved in 1858.

As the British colonial regime consolidated its hold over New Zealand tensions between the Maori nations and the colonial government continued to rise. The European population grew steadily, from 132,000 in 1850, to 220,000 in 1868. This placed much added pressure on Maori communities, especially as the British authorities granted lands to settlers that had clearly been allocated to the Maoris by the treaties.

The Maori response was formidable. In 1858, a sizable number of Maori tribes selected their own king, in an effort to challenge the authority of the British sovereign, a design that became known as the Maori King Movement. This very much offended the British officials' Victorian

sentiments, and they responded by confiscating land from Maori tribes that supported the movement.

The same period also saw a revival in traditional Maori customs and religious beliefs, leading to the establishment of syncretic spiritual movements, such as the Pai Marire movement (popularly known as Hauhau).

The clash between Maori defiance and British imperializing ambitions resulted in a series of sharp military conflicts on the North Island, including the First Taranaki War (1860-1); the British Invasion of Waikato (1861); the Second Taranaki War (1863-6) and the East Cape War (1865-6). The British colonial side was aided by the decision, in 1864, to organize a New Zealand militia, the Armed Constabulary, comprised of local settlers, which would offset the perennial deficiency in imperial troops sent from abroad, as well as having the effect of increasing local authority over the conflict. That being said, the Maori mounted a strong resistance. While the Colonial forces crushed the Maori in Waikato and won in the East Cape, they failed to inflict a decisive result in Taranaki.

Meanwhile, the colonial regime had enacted the New Zealand Settlements Act (1863), which permitted them to confiscate the lands of any Maori tribes that were in rebellion after January 1, 1863. This resulted in the confiscation of over 12 million hectares of territory. The government thereby sold these lands to settlers, and used the proceeds to finance the wars; so, ironically, the Maori were paying for their own destruction with their own property. Even more worrying for the rebellious Maori tribes, following the British strategy of 'divide and conquer' in India, the Colonial government had managed to coopt many of the large Maori tribes into officially joining the British side, becoming the so-called Kupapa, or 'friendly natives'.

As of 1868, the British and their Kupapa allies had subdued much of the Maori resistance movement on the North Island. However, their harsh actions had made them enemies who were determined to make a last stand against the complete British domination of New Zealand.

The final Maori armed insurrections against British rule were Te Kooti's War (July 1868-May 1872), fought in the Poverty Bay-Bay of Plenty region of the far western North Island; and Titokowaru's War (June 1868 - March 1869), fought in the Taranaki region, in the far east of the North Island.

Te Kooti's War: The Final Showdown in the East

Te Kooti's War was a small-scale, but remarkably bloody conflict. Te Kooti Arikirangi Te Turuki (c. 1832 - 1893) was an extraordinary Maori leader, brave and charismatic, yet eccentric and undisciplined. Hailing from the Gisborne-Poverty Bay area, in 1865, he was actually a Kupapa leader, fighting with the British Colonial authorities against his fellow Maori. However, he was accused of spying for the enemy (he claimed falsely) and he and his followers were summarily exiled to the remote Chatham Islands. There, Te Kooti gained the devotion of his people, in good part through his development of the Ringatu religious movement, which he based on a mixture of Old Testament morals, with traditional Maori beliefs and traditions.

In June 1868, Te Kooti and 168 of his followers' commandeered a schooner and escaped their exile, returning to the North Island. There they tried to open a civil dialogue with the colonial authorities, but were sharply rebuffed.

Te Kooti, seeking revenge for his 'unjust' treatment, carried out the 'Poverty Bay Massacre' (November 10, 1868), in which his men slaughtered 54 British and Maori (mainly civilians), near Gisborne. This enraged the Colonial authorities, who immediately launched a man-hunt for Te Kooti, which turned out to be the biggest in New Zealand's history, resulting in 30 separate expeditions and several sharp battles.

Te Kooti's nemeses were Colonel George Stoddart Whitmore (30 May 1829 – 16 March 1903), the commander of the New Zealand armed forces, and future defense minister; and Ropata Wahawaha (c. 1820 – 1897), a Kupapa Maori chief who had distinguished himself fighting against his fellow Maoris during the East Cape War.

In late November 1868, Ropata's army pursued Te Kooti's forces through the dense woods of the Poverty Bay region. Te Kooti and his party took refuge within the formidable fortress of Ngatapa Pa, about 15 kilometres inland from Gisborne. The bastion, located upon a triangle of land atop a mountain, could only be attacked directly from its eastern side, which was itself protected by abatis and earthworks.

On December 3, 1868, Ropata's force of 150 men mounted a lightning strike upon Ngatapa Pa and made impressive progress, coming close to penetrating the fortresses' inner walls. However, they ran out of ammunition, and were forced to abandon the attack and retreat from the scene.

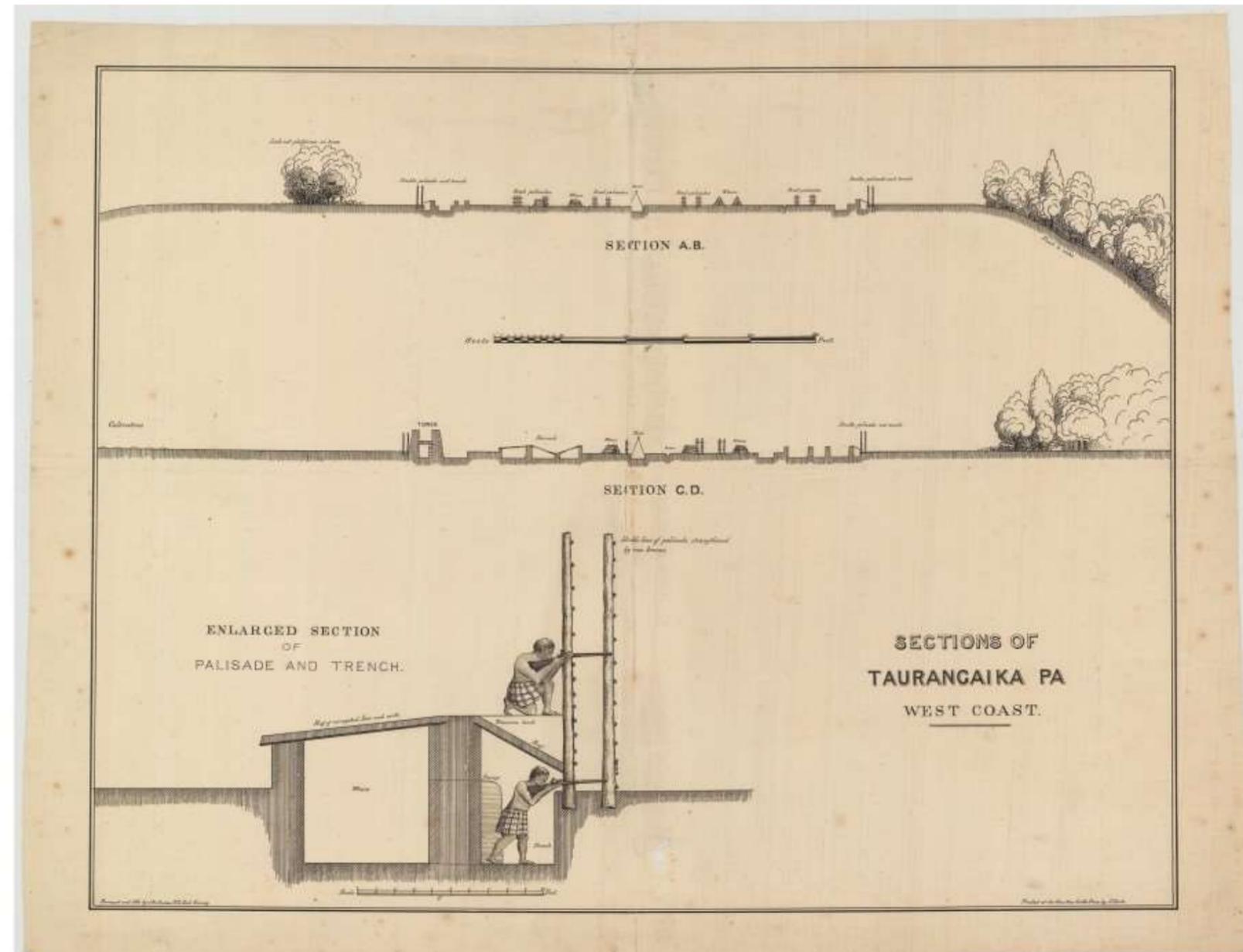
Meanwhile, Te Kooti was in desperate shape, as he had lost about third of his men over the previous fortnight and was himself low on ammunition. A raid upon a nearby Kupapa post failed to ameliorate the situation, so he and his remaining men holed themselves up in Ngatapa, hoping for the best.

On December 31, 1868, a Colonial force under Colonel Whitmore and Ropata, numbering over 600 (over double the size of Te Kooti's force) began to invest Ngatapa Pa. As shown on the present [#1] *Plan of Ngatapa Pa*, the Colonial forces almost surrounded the fortress, leaving only a small gap on its northern side, which featured cliffs so steep that it was assumed nobody

could use the gap to make an escape. The colonial force at first paused to gauge the situation, but, on January 5, 1869, commenced a mortal attack upon the fortress, although most of these salvos ricocheted off the bastion's walls. Kupapa warriors then commenced the risky move of climbing the rock faces, in an effort to pierce the heart of Ngatapa's defenses. Te Kooti knew that the gig was up, and against all expectations, managed, along with some of his followers, to climb down the cliffs at the gap in the colonial siege cordon, so making his escape into the dense bush. When the Colonial forces stormed the fortress, on January 6, 1869, they realized that Te Kooti was gone.

While Te Kooti had made the Colonial forces look a touch foolish for allowing him to escape, he had lost most of his men at Ngatapa Pa, and was no longer a formidable fighting force. He disappeared into the interior of the North Island, where sympathizers protected him. While the Colonial forces and Te Kooti's men fought a few skirmishes until 1872, the war on the east coast of the North Island was effectively over.

For over decade, Te Kooti eluded New Zealand's most intense manhunt, which was supported by a huge (£5000) bounty. He was never caught, and came in from the cold in 1883, only after he was given an amnesty by the colonial government, in return for promising to never again take up arms.



Titokowaru's War: The Final Showdown in the West

The other conflict, Titokowaru's War, to which the present third broadside, *Sections of Taurangaika Pa*, relates, was a Maori uprising in the long unstable Taranaki region, on the west coast of the North Island. Riwha Titokowaru (c. 1823–1888) was Maori chief, HauHau priest, and a leading member of the Maori King Movement, who had distinguished himself as a military leader fighting colonial forces during both the First and Second Taranaki Wars. A daring tactician, he was by far the most feared Maori leader, as his lightning strikes had repeatedly defeated much larger and better-armed opponents.

Titokowaru rose up gains against the colonial government in June 1868, angered by the continued confiscation of Maori land in Taranaki. His actions coincided with Te Kooti's return from exile on the Chatham Islands, and so these

two events combined to cause the European settler population to believe that a mass, island-wide Maori rebellion was in the works.

Titokowaru's forces enjoyed early successes, taking control of all of the territory in the Taranaki region between New Plymouth and Wanganui. They famously ambushed a force of the Armed Constabulary at e Ngutu o Te Manu (September 7, 1868), killing the flamboyant Prussian-New Zealand soldier Gustavus Ferdinand von Tempsky. This was followed by another defeat of Colonial forces, at Moturoa, who were commanded by the same Colonel George Whitmore who would later besiege Ngatapa Pa. The Colonial defeat at Moturoa stunned officials in Wellington, and it was remarked that "Whitmore was simply unfortunate enough to be a good general matched against an excellent one [Titokowaru]."

In October 1868, Whitmore retreated with his force to defend the outlying European settlements at Wanganui. Meanwhile, Titokowaru's force shadowed them at a distance, while redefining the Maori fort of Tauranga-ika, a single day's march, or 29 km for Wanganui. A tense situation prevailed through November, and on December 2, Whitmore left the western theatre to fight Te Kooti at Ngatapa. He left a force of 600 Imperial troops to defend Wanganui, which would soon be joined by reinforcements, bringing the colonial force up to 2,000 men by the beginning of January 1869. At the same time, Titokowaru raided isolated settlements and strengthening Tauranga-ika Pa.

On January 18, 1869, Colonel Whitmore returned to Wanganui, buoyed by having subdued Te Kooti's rebellion in the east. Whitmore set out with an expeditionary force of 1,000 men to attack Tauranga-ika Pa, hugging the coasts most of the way in order to avoid Titokowaru's now famous forest ambushes.

On February 1, Whitmore's force came before Tauranga-ika Pa, which was viewed as an incredibly formidable bastion. They dug in for what they anticipated to be a long and bloody siege. The following day, they started bombarding Tauranga-ika Pa with heavy artillery, but with disappointingly little effect. Then, on the morning of February 3, a Kupapa scouting party noticed that the fortress seemed to be abandoned. Apparently, Titokowaru and his entire party had quietly slipped out of the fort during the night, leaving it totally empty.

Whitmore was stunned by this news, and although he was a bit chagrined at not being able to gain glory and Titokowaru's head following an epic battle, he noted that

"My object was to gain possession of the district and if I could do this without loss and without putting too heavy a strain on my raw troops they would be encouraged."

The abandonment of Tauranga-ika Pa signaled the effective end of the Maori Wars in the Western North Island. It is not known why Titokowaru abandoned the fortress (and his cause); however, it was rumoured that this was because he had lost his moral authority after sleeping with the wife of one of his allied chiefs. Whatever the reason, Titokowaru, like Te Kooti, disappeared into the interior of the North Island. He would not be heard of again until 1886, when he was taken into colonial custody following a disturbance. He died in prison in 1888.

The end of the uprisings of Te Kooti and Titokowaru also signaled the end of significant Maori armed resistance to British colonial power in New Zealand. From that point onwards, treaties and court cases would settle disputes between New Zealand's original and new societies.

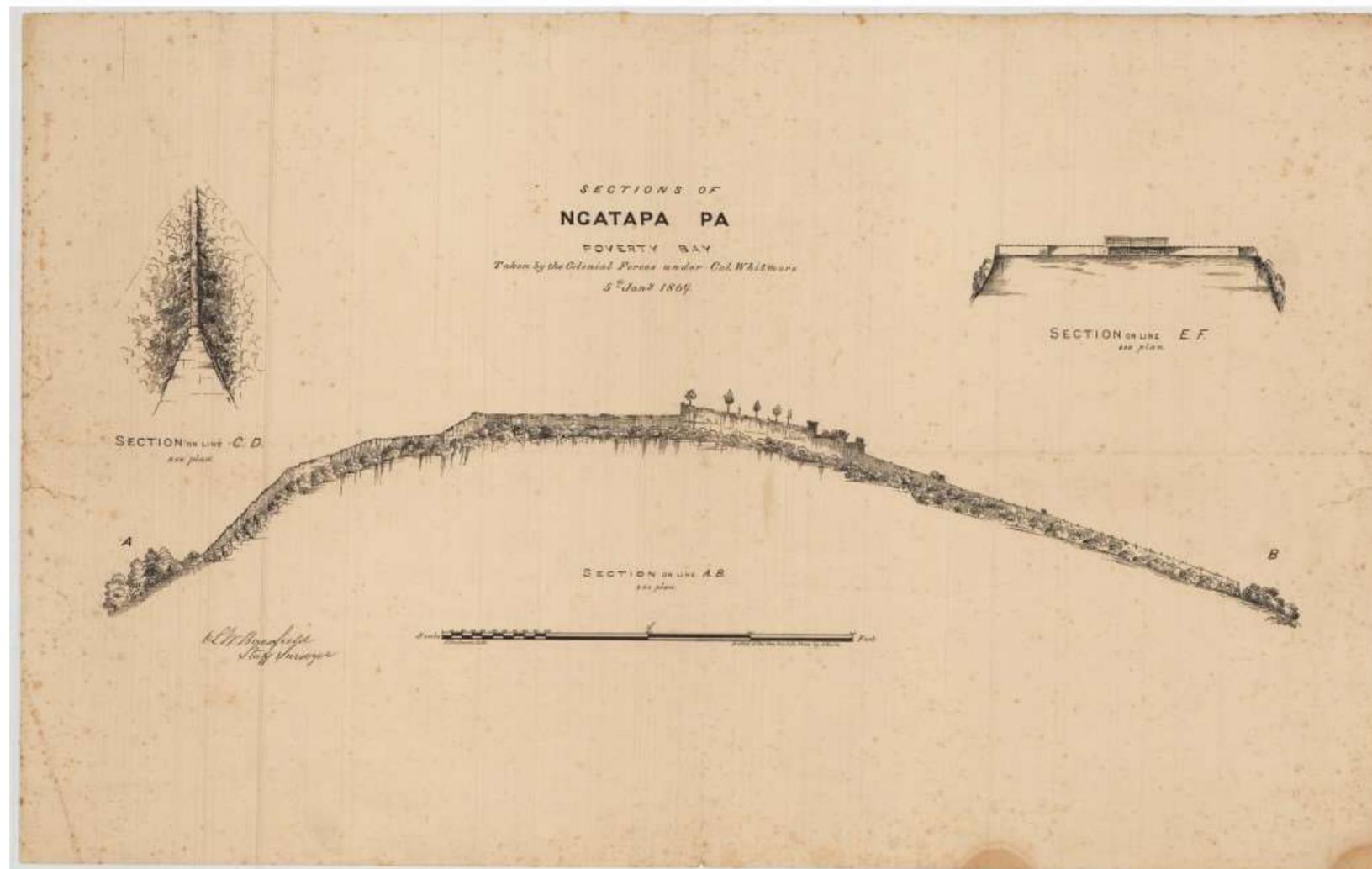
A Note on Rarity

All of the present broadsides are very rare. We can trace examples of each of the 2 broadsides relating to Ngatapa Pa at the Auckland Museum Library, New Zealand Museum (Te Papa Tongewara) and the National Library of Australia; while we can trace examples of the *Sections of Taurangaika Pa* broadside at the New Zealand Museum (Te Papa Tongewara) and the National

Library of Australia; beyond that, we are aware of no other institutional holdings. The broadsides are rare on the market, we are aware of only a single example of only the *Plan of Ngatapa Pa* broadside appearing at auction during the last generation. It is worth noting that the Auckland Museum Library possesses Buchanan's original manuscript sketch for the *Sections of Ngatapa Pa*.

References: [Ref. # 1:] New Zealand Museum (Te Papa Tongewara): CA000501/006/0001; National Library of Australia: Map NK 6574 A; Auckland Museum Library: C 995.171 ece 1869; Jeremy Black, *Maps of War: Mapping Conflict Through the Centuries*, p. 129; Judith Binney, *Redemption Songs: A Life of Te Kooti Arikirangi Te Turuki*, p. 138. [Ref. # 2:] Auckland Museum Library: C 995.171 ece 1869; New Zealand Museum (Te Papa Tongewara): MU000049/003/0002; National Library of Australia: Map NK 6574 C. [Ref. # 3:] New Zealand Museum (Te Papa Tongewara): MU000049/002/0008; National Library of Australia: Map NK 6574D.

1.200 EUR



8. CHINA, TAIWAN, KOREA AND JAPAN

A MAP OF THE SEA COASTS OF CHINA FROM TONQUIN TO COREA, ALSO OF THE ISLANDS OF JAPON.

Alexander HAMILTON (fl. 1688 - 1733).

Edinburgh, 1727.

A rare and unusual map of coastal China, Taiwan, Korea and Japan made by the Scottish adventurer and privateer Alexander Hamilton.

Copper engraving on fine watermarked paper (Very Good, old soft folds, barely noticeable small hairline tear just entering map at left-hand border, lower left-hand blank margin professionally instated to fill former binding gap), 33 x 39.5 cm (13 x 15.5 i)

This rare and curious map of coastal China, Taiwan, Korea and Japan was made by Alexander Hamilton, a larger-than-life Scottish adventurer, privateer and pirate-hunter, who spent 35-years in Asian waters as an affiliate of the English East India Company (EIC). The map is of a very unusual style that was seemingly influenced by the sea charts made by the 'Thames School' of cartographers in London who operated in the second half of the 17th Century and were closely associate with the EIC (as a long time EIC affiliate Hamilton was almost certainly familiar with their work). The coastlines are delineated in a somewhat stylized manner, with major ports and cities of interest labelled, while the interior is mostly left intentionally blank. The large quarter compass rose is a signature feature of manuscript sea charts, such as those done by the Thames School.

China's coasts are shown from southern Guangdong, labelled here as 'Quantung', northwards, with the 'Canton R.' and 'Maccoa' (Macao) labelled, along with the old Portuguese names for various coastal features. Further north, is Fujian, labelled here as 'Foquin', which features the port of 'Amoy'. Further north still, is labelled 'Chequian' (Zhejiang) with 'Limpo' (Ningbo) and 'Xantung' (Shandong), while 'Nankin' (Nanking) appears in the interior.

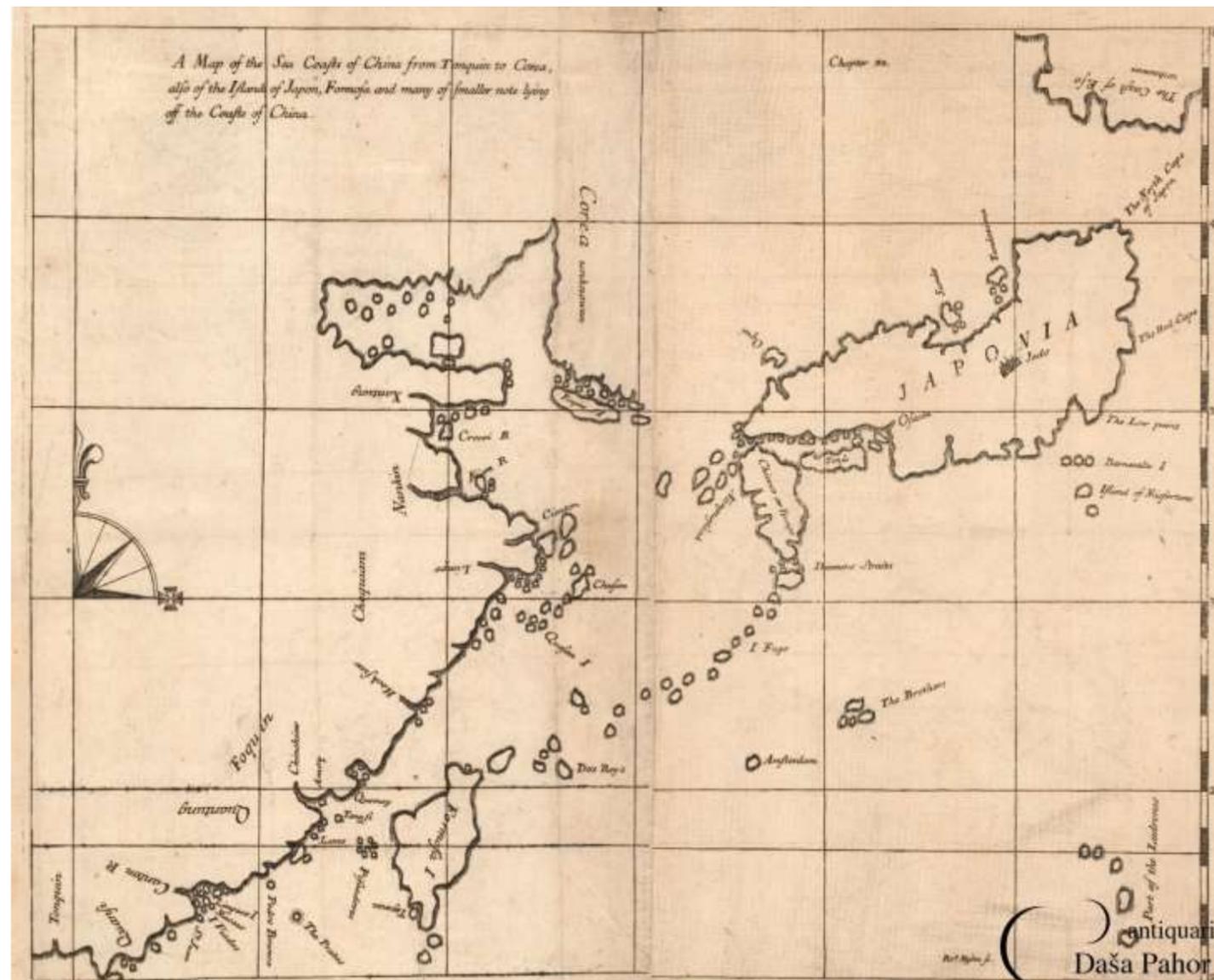
Taiwan is labelled a 'Formosa I', while the city of Taoyuan is labelled as 'Teywan'.

Korea is shown in partial outline, seemingly as a peninsula, and is labelled as 'Corea unknown'. Indeed, during this period the Joseon

Dynasty of Korea absolutely forbade Westerners from visiting their country, making it one of the last major coastal nations to remain an almost complete enigma to Europeans.

Turing to Japan, Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu are easily identifiable to the modern observer, although Hamilton makes a mistake common to many contemporary Westerners in misidentifying Kyushu as 'Chicoco' (Shikoku, which is here labelled as 'Tonsa'). Major cities are labelled, such as 'Nanguesaak' (Nagasaki), 'Osacca' (Osaka) and, of course 'Jedo' (Yedo, modern Tokyo), which is pictographically represented. Hokkaido is partially depicted, far distant from the northern tip of Honshu and is labelled as 'The Coast of Eso unknown'.

Captain Alexander Hamilton (fl. 1688 - 1733) was a Scottish adventurer, merchant, privateer and pirate-hunter. He spent the years 1688 to 1723 largely based out of India, but often sailing throughout the Indian Ocean, Southeast and East Asia. The present map appeared in the first edition of his highly entertaining and informative memoir of his time in Asia, written while he was in retirement in Scotland, *A New Account of the East Indies: being the observations and remarks of Capt. Alexander Hamilton, who spent his time there from the year 1688 to 1723, trading and travelling, by sea and land, to most of the countries and islands of commerce and navigation, between the cape of Good-hope, and the island of Japon, 2 vols.* (Edinburgh, J. Mosman, 1727).



In his book, Hamilton recounts his early years as privateer off of the Barbary Coast and the West Indies. In 1688, he arrived to Bombay, then the main British base in India, and indeed all of Asia. He was briefly pressed into military service by the EIC during Child's War (1686-90), the Company's ill-fated contest against the Mughal Empire. After that, he went out on his own as a free agent merchant mariner and privateer, scouring the seas for opportunities, based out of the port of Surat (Gujarat). He made frequent trips to Southeast and East Asia and traded out of Canton, China, sailing as far as Nagasaki, Japan. The EIC authorities were impressed by his skills, and in 1717 they appointed him to become the Commander of the Bombay Marine, where he spent the next six years suppressing the fierce pirates of the Konkan Coast. In 1723, he returned home to Scotland to write his memoirs and is last recorded as being active in 1733.

The present map is quite rare, as is Hamilton's *A New Account of the East Indies*. We cannot trace another example of the map appearing individually on the market during the last 20 years.

References: Walter Lutz, *Japan: A Cartographic Vision*, no. 75, p. 219.

600 EUR

9. QUEBEC CITY, CANADA / SEVEN YEARS' WAR

A Plan of Quebec.

Edward OAKLEY (fl. 1730 - 1766). / John ROCQUE (c. 1709 - 1762).
London: John Rocque, 1759.

Rare – a highly attractive broadside plan of Quebec City, printed in London just as British forces were consolidating their control over the city following the Battle of the Plains of Abraham.

Broadside: Copper engraving with original full hand color (Very Good, stellar original color, crisp engraving, small professional restoration to upper left corner outside of platemark, old discreet vertical fold through centre), 37 x 53.5 cm (14.5 x 21 in

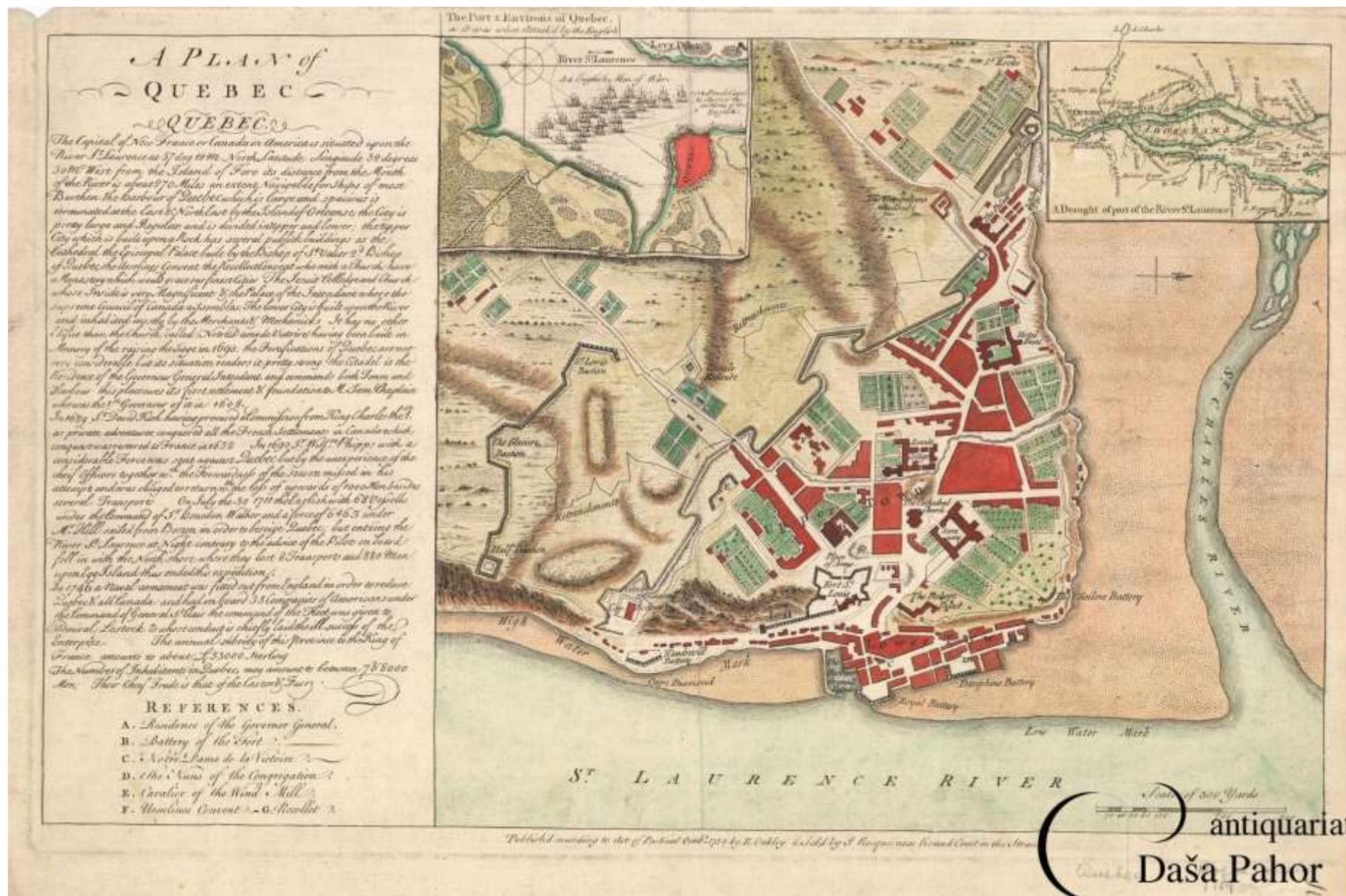
This rare and unusually attractive broadside plan of Quebec City, featuring brilliant original hand color, was issued in London in October 1759, just as British forces were consolidating their control over Quebec City, having seized it the month before at the battle of the Plains of Abraham. Devised by the architect Edward Oakley, it was published by John Rocque, the leading British engraver of city plans.

The colorful and detailed map of Quebec City dominates the right two-thirds of the composition, and is based on authoritative French sources. The city is shown perched upon the promontory of Cap Diamant, where the St. Lawrence River narrows before opening to its maritime estuary. The Lower Town, the commercial center, features the city's port, while above, the walled government centre of the Upper Town features the city's official civil and ecclesiastic buildings, as well as the finest residences.

In the Upper Town, of note, is the 'Fort St. Louis'; the 'Bishop's

Palace', the Jesuit College; the 'Cathedral Church'; the Hotel Dieu (hospital) and the 'Kings Magazine' (arsenal). Towards the bottom of the text, to the left, are the 'References', which identify 7 additional sites across the city: A. Residence of the Governor General; B. Battery of the Fort; C. Notre Dame de la Victoire (an important church); D. The Nuns of the Congregation; E. The Cavaliers of the Windmill; F. Ursulines Convent; and G. Recollets (monastery).

The relatively detailed text features notes on the geography, history and economy of Quebec City (founded in 1608) and New France. Notably, it also lends a fine summary of the several British attacks upon Quebec City, which occurred from 1629 to 1746. These missions included Sir David Kirks's successful seizure of the town in 1629 (although Quebec was returned to France in 1632); Sir William Phipps' siege of Quebec of 1690, famously repelled by Governor Frontenac; the unsuccessful 1711 attempt to take the city mounted by Hovenden Walker and John Hill; and finally, Admiral Richard Lestock's disastrous expedition of 1746.



Returning to the map, the inset in the upper left, 'The Port & Environs of Quebec, as it was when Attack'd by the English', depicts Phipps's squadron of 34 ships during their abortive mission of 1690. The inset in the upper right, 'A Draught of the port of the River St. Laurence' depicts the greater area, including the maritime approaches to the city around the Ile d'Orléans.

Immediate Historical Context

The present broadside was printed in London in October 1759, just weeks after the British had taken Quebec City, but before news of the event had reached the Britain. The conquest of Quebec marked the apex of the Seven Years' War (1756-63), a global conflict that was, in essence, a contest between Britain and France to establish which would become the dominant international empire. Britain's principal objective in the Americas was to capture New France, of which Quebec City was the key target.

While the war started out badly for Britain, the tide turned in July 1758, when the British captured the fortress of Louisburg, on Cape Breton Island, the gateway to Canada. After that point, it became an open secret that Britain's next move would be upon Quebec City. In the late months of 1758, and through 1759, discussions about Quebec prevailed in the coffee houses and salons of London.

The British assembled a force of 4,400 men, under the command of General James Wolfe, carried by a flotilla under Admiral Charles Saunders. The British arrived at the Ile d'Orléans on June 27, 1759, and soon set up headquarters in Lévis, just across the river from Quebec, and proceeded to besiege the city. However, the French forces, numbering 3,500 men, under the Marquis de Montcalm, were well prepared. On July 31, a British attempt to land forces downriver at Beauport was easily repelled. For the next two months it looked as if the British were trapped, frozen in a race against time, unable to find a way to strike the heavily fortified city before winter would set in.

Finally, on the early morning of September 13, 1759, following intelligence, British forces managed to scale the cliffs behind the city, forming their army upon the Plains of Abraham. Ignoring all the rules of military science, for unknown reasons, Montcalm, rashly led his force out of the safety of the town and moved to challenge the British in a set piece field battle, precisely the kind of combat at which the British Redcoats excelled. The British crushed the French on the field, but the battle was bloody for both sides, and both Wolfe and Montcalm perished. Quebec surrendered to the British on September 18, 1759.

To make a long story short, the seizure of Quebec demoralized French resistance and severed all connections between the interior of New France and the mother country. Although the British still had much work hard to consolidate their gains, France was to be almost entirely driven out of North America, leaving all of the continent east of the Mississippi in the possession of Britain. It is no exaggeration to say that the taking of Quebec marked one of the great turning points in modern world history, as it consolidated British domination of Canada, and sewed the seeds of the American Revolution.

The present example of the broadside represents the second (of two) states of the production. The first state was issued in January 1759, and is identical to the second state, except that the latter changed the publication date in the imprint (from January to October 1759) and adds the inset 'A Draught of the port of the River St. Laurence', in the upper right.

The author of the broadside, Edward Oakley (*fl.* 1730 - 1766) was a prominent London architect, who dabbled in cartography, seemingly motivated by his interests in urban planning and military engineering. He produced *The Magazine of Architecture, Perspective and Sculpture: in Five Parts* (London, 1730), as well as a practical treatise, *Every Man a Compleat Builder, or, Easy rules and proportions for drawing and working the several parts of Architecture* (London, 1766). Oakley was also a strong advocate of the creation of London's Blackfriars Bridge

(constructed between 1760 to 1769), issuing *The Expedience, Utility, and Necessity of a New Bridge, at or near Blackfryars* (London, 1756).

Oakley was a good friend of John Rocque (*c.* 1709 - 1762), the prominent Huguenot cartographer and engraver, who is best known for his monumental map of London (1746). With Rocque's support, Oakley's maps of French cities were published, including: Calais (1750), Thionville (1753); Metz (1754); Rochefort (1757); Brest (1757) and Dunkirk (*n.d.*).

With its brilliant palette of original colors, Oakley's Quebec broadside stands out as one of the most attractive of all Seven Years' War urban plans. An example of the present second state was featured in the exhibition '1759: Britain's Year of Victories' at the William L. Clements Library (Ann Arbor, Michigan, June 8 - October 9, 2009).

Like most 18th Century broadsides, which have a very low survival rate, both states of Oakley's Quebec map are rare. We know of only 3 other examples of the second state, and only a single example of the first state appearing on the market during the last 20 years.

References: Kershaw, *Early Printed Maps of Canada*, vol. 4, no. 1062, plate 821: Stevens & Tree, 72b. ; OCLC: 54656815.

1.200 EUR

10. MONTEVIDEO, URUGUAY / URBANISM

Gabino MONEGAL (b. 1848).

Montevideo: Mége y Aubriot, 1877.

Ultimo plano de Montevideo ampliado según los datos oficiales con la delineación proyectada para la novísima ciudad, indicación de edificios judiciales nueva numeración del principio de cada cuadra y guía general de Tramway

Extremely rare – Gabino Monegal’s fascinating 1877 map of Montevideo, brilliantly showcasing the city’s rapid transformation from a provincial sea port into one of Latin America’s most advanced and cosmopolitan cities, published in Montevideo by the firm of Mége y Aubriot.

Lithograph, folding into original grey printed paper covers (Fair, foxing throughout, some light wear along original folds, covers with light wear and minor stains), 56 x 53 cm (22 x 21 inches).

This unusually fascinating map showcases Montevideo’s rapid metamorphosis from a provincial seaport into one of Latin America’s most vibrant and stylish metropolises. As such it is one of the era’s most dynamic images of urbanism, capturing Montevideo a third of the way into its three-generation long boom period. The map was made by Gabino Monegal, a respected military engineer, predicated on the best information from the city council and the Uruguayan army.

The monochrome map employs careful shading, labelling and a wide variety of symbols to convey a great wealth of information. The title of the map translates as: ‘Latest Plan of Montevideo expanded according to the official data with the projected delineation for the new city, indication of judicial buildings new numbering of the beginning of each block and general guide of Tramways, Ferro-Rails, etc.’, with the symbols employed on the map explained in the ‘Referencias’, on the right side.

Of great interest, the map shows the rapid actual growth, as well as the projected expansion of Montevideo. The *Ciudad Vieja* (Old City) occupies only the peninsula on the south side of the harbour, up to the Plaza de Independencia, the built blocks of which are identified in the ‘Edificado’ of the ‘Referencias’ as featuring leftward diagonal hatch marks. Beyond, is the *Ciudad Nueva* (New City), an incipient area of active expansion, the building blocks of which are identified with rightward diagonal hatch marks. Further beyond, the projected plan of the city, continuing the established system of neat grids and squares (including ‘novísima’ blocks that were already built out (filled with vertical hatch marks), plus blocks not yet laid out (bordered by intermittent lines)) is shown superimposed over the outgoing pastoral landscape, with its meandering country roads. Symbolically, the map shows the formal urban order of the rising, forward-looking Montevideo conquering the old rural Uruguay. All streets, both realized and proposed, are named. Notably, the proposed expanded layout for the city as shown here was almost precisely followed as built out over the next 20 years.

The map labels major military installations, including the locations of artillery and infantry companies. The map also delineates the rail lines which entered Montevideo, and which had been

constructed over the previous eight years. Moreover, different lines are used to trace the routes of the eight different horse-tram lines that traversed the city, of which an explanation for each line appears below the map.

The ‘Referencias’ also employ letters to locate 26 major sites across Montevideo, including the famous Teatro Solís (built 1856); the university, churches, hospitals, markets, train stations, the city hall and the stock exchange.

Gabino Monegal: Cartographer of the New Uruguay

The author of the present map, who is identified on the work only as “G.M.”, is in fact Gabino Monegal, an important Uruguayan military engineer and cartographer. Born in 1848, he joined the army at a young age and fought in Paraguayan War (1864-70). During the conflict he received advanced training in surveying and draftsmanship, and subsequently became one of Uruguay’s leading surveyor-cartographers, executing both military and civilian commissions. His first major published work for public consumption was his excellent *Mapa de la República Oriental del Uruguay (Montevideo, 1876)*, which was followed in quick succession by the present map of *Montevideo*. Monegal remained for many years thereafter in active army service, attaining the rank of colonel in 1887.

The Rise of Montevideo

San Felipe y Santiago de Montevideo was founded in 1724 by the Spanish on a fine natural harbour on the north side of the Río de la Plata Estuary. Initially populated by fifty families from Galicia and the Canary Islands, Montevideo was intended to be a simple buffer fortress to keep the Portuguese, from Brazil, out of the area, preserving Spain’s control over Buenos Aires and the Estuary. Over the coming decades, the town experienced steady growth, as mariners preferred Montevideo’s harbour to that of Buenos Aires, causing a rivalry between the two cities. In 1776, Montevideo received a great boost when it was selected as the Armada Real’s principal naval base (Real Apostadero de Marina) for the South Atlantic. By the end of the century, the Old Town (Ciudad Vieja) had developed on the peninsula located along the southern side of the harbour.

The first half of the 19th Century was unkind to Montevideo, as the Banda Oriental, the region that what would become Uruguay, was continually swept up by political instability and warfare. The city was variously invaded, besieged and contested by several different parties during the era of the Napoleonic Wars and the Latin American Wars of Independence, of which the brief British occupation of the city in 1807 was especially memorable. The Banda Oriental was annexed to Brazil in 1816, something resented by Montevideo’s majority Spanish-speaking population. However, the region eventually won its independence, founding the new República Oriental del Uruguay in 1828, with Montevideo as its capital.

For a brief moment, all was looking up for Montevideo. The city walls were demolished in 1829, with grand plans to expand the city into the Ciudad Nueva. However, this was not to be – at least not for many years. Uruguay quickly descended into internal discord, leading to the Guerra

Grande (1843-51), during which Montevideo was besieged for eight years, only occasionally receiving provisions from the sea.

Following the war, Montevideo experienced steady growth and gained many modern improvements. Scheduled stagecoach lines connected the city to the rest of the country from 1853, and gas streetlights were introduced shortly thereafter. A modern sewer system as constructed from 1854 to 1861 and by 1866, Montevideo was connected to Buenos Aires by a telegraph line. By this time, the building out of the Ciudad Nueva was progressing a strong pace and, in 1868, the community of Villa del Cerro was established at the other end of Montevideo Bay. That same year the *Compañía de Tranvías al Paso del Molino y Cerro* established a system of horse-drawn trams across the city, of which its subsequently expanded network is depicted on the present map. The railway arrived in Montevideo in 1869 and, during the following years, the barrios of Colón, Nuevo París and La Comercial were founded. By 1877, Montevideo had a population of around 90,000.

In the period after the creation of the present map, Montevideo continued to grow rapidly. In 1878, the Bulevar Circunvalación was built (later renamed Artigas Boulevard) which framed the development around the east end of the bay. In 1882, Montevideo installed its first telephone lines and, in 1886, its first electric street lights.

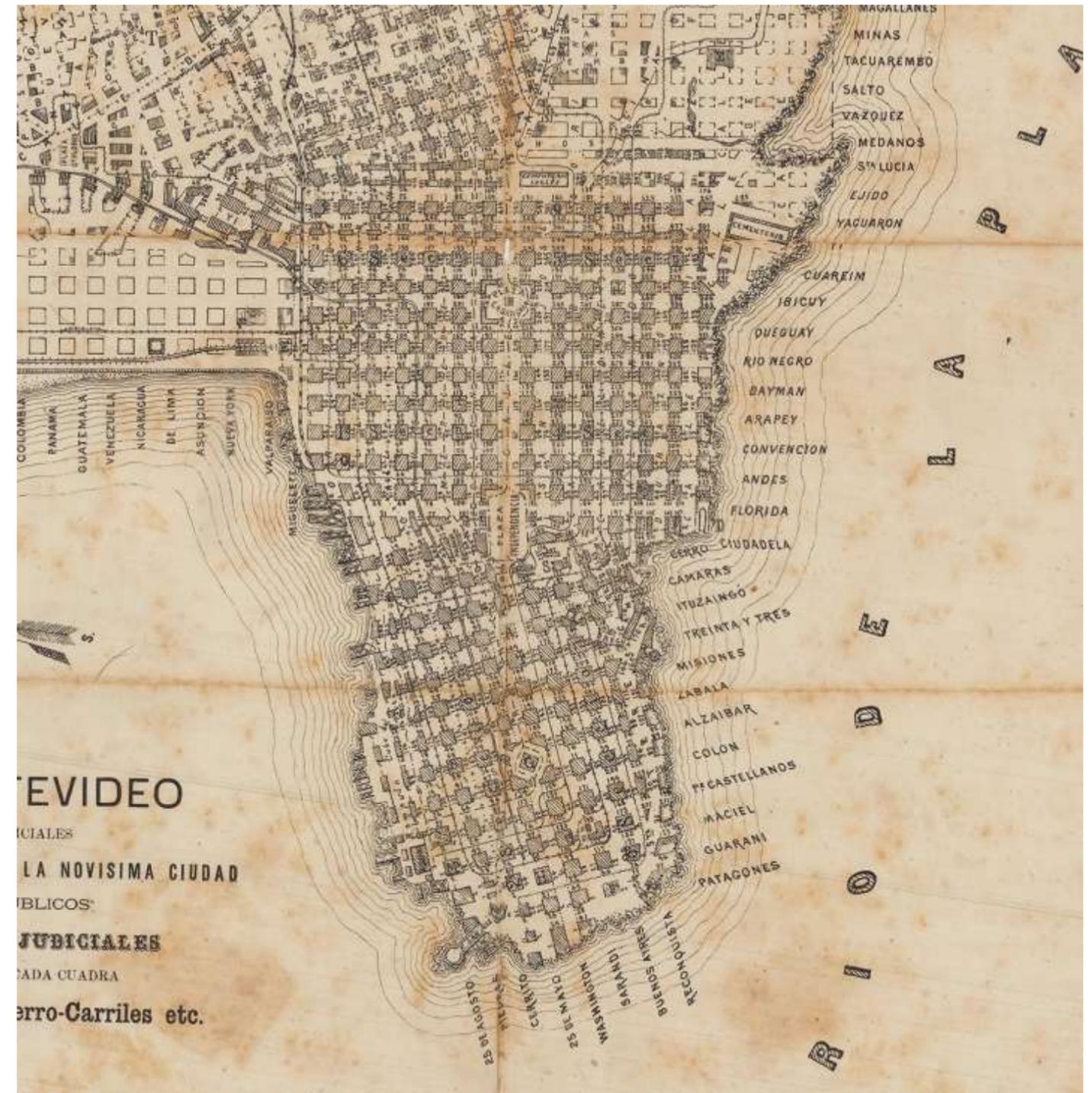
After recovering from a brief recession brought about by the collapse of Baring's Bank (a prime underwriter of investment in Uruguay), Montevideo resumed its expansion. The new port was built in 1894 and the Central Railway Station was completed in 1897.

In 1903, José Batlle y Ordoñez was elected president, ushering in a generation of economic prosperity and relative political stability for Uruguay. Montevideo saw mass immigration from Europe (particularly from Italy and Germany) and great foreign investment. From 1900 to 1930, Montevideo's population doubled from 250,000 to 500,000, fuelling an intense and sustained building boom, which resulted in many Art Nouveau and Art Deco masterpieces. The good times would roll through Montevideo hosting the first Football World Cup in 1930, after which the Great Depression dampened the city's economy.

A Note on Rarity

Gabino Monegal's map of Montevideo was produced only the single edition of 1877. The map is extremely rare today, we note only a single institutional example (Biblioteca Nacional de Uruguay), and cannot trace any sales records.

References: Biblioteca Nacional de Uruguay: I.02.043.G5374.M7.1877.M4; Inspección General de Marina (Uruguay), *Catálogo del archivo cartográfico histórico* (Montevideo, 1956), p. 273 (referring to the BNU example). Cf. [Monegal's Biography:] J.M. Fernández Saldaña, *Diccionario Uruguayo de Biografías 1810 – 1940* (Montevideo, 1945), pp. 842-4.



11. NEW ZEALAND

Carl RITTER (1779 - 1859).

Berlin: Wilhelm Besser, 1842.

Die Colonisation von Neu-Seeland. Ein Vortrag, im wissenschaftlichen Vereine zu Berlin am 22. Januar 1842, von Karl Ritter.

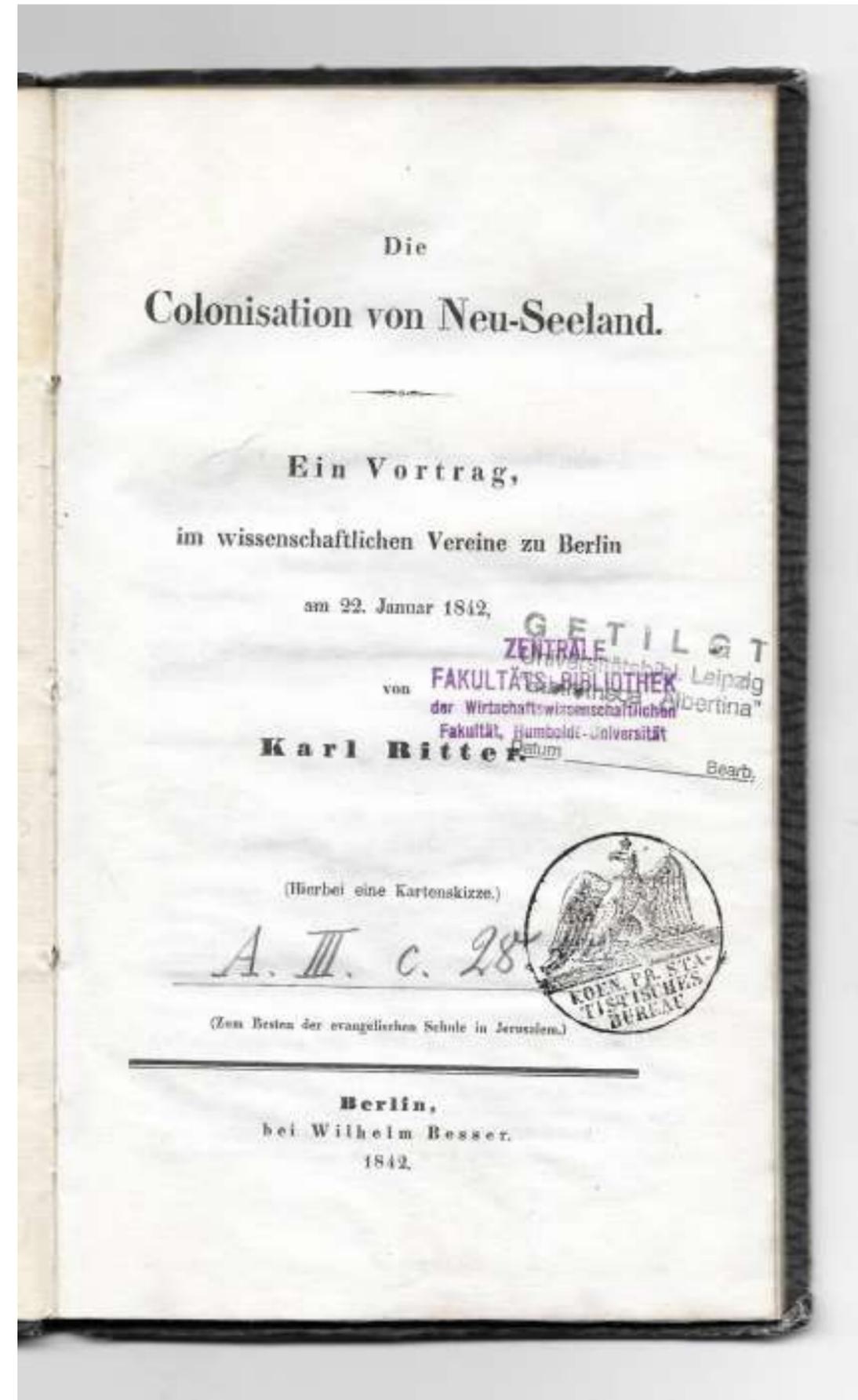
Very rare – the first printing of the famous geographer Carl Ritter’s insightful and influential discourse on the early colonization of New Zealand, based upon his extensive interviews of principals of the New Zealand Company, featuring an original map, published in Berlin in 1842.

8° (20.5 x 12.5 cm / 8 x 5 inches): Collation Complete – 52 pp., 1 folding map (23.5 x 28 cm / 9 x 11 inches), bound in contemporary marbled boards (Very Good, old library stamps to title, text and map clean and crisp, binding with shelf-ware).

This is the very rare first printing of Carl Ritter’s discourse on the early colonization of New Zealand, published in Berlin barely four years after the New Zealand Company had begun its activities in earnest. Ritter, along with his friend Alexander von Humboldt, is considered to be the father of modern geography, and while he never stepped foot anywhere near New Zealand, he maintained a particular fascination for this distant land, with its unusual geography, native Maori peoples, and endemic species of wildlife. In 1841, Ritter traveled to London to interview several of the main backers of the New Zealand Company, the syndicate that possessed the official mandate to settle and develop New Zealand on behalf of the British Crown. These interviewees included politicians and financiers, as well as Company employees who had returned to England from New Zealand. Ritter had such a great international reputation; the Company’s principals were honoured by the opportunity, as so provided the German geographer with remarkably candid and detailed insights into the early colonization of New Zealand. This imbues the present work with considerable historical value.

Ritter consolidated the valuable insights gleaned in London into a speech he delivered the Economic Union of Berlin on January 22, 1842. The present work is thus the text of his speech, slightly edited for style. It is jam-packed with fascinating facts and statistics, as well as detailed observations on the history, geography, natural sciences, native peoples, climate and economic potential of New Zealand. Importantly, the discourse provides insider information on the early development of the Company’s colonization schemes, which were then focused on settling parts of the North Island.

Ritter provides a highly positive impression of New Zealand, as having the ideal climate to foster a modern European society on the other side of the globe. He highly rates the character of the



Company's officers glowingly and commends the organization's plans for developing the islands. He predicts a bright future for New Zealand.

Indeed, as of 1841, the Company seemed to have made a good start towards their initial goals. It had made peace with Maori, upon signing the Treaty of Waitangi (1840); it had ensured that New Zealand was formally made a colony (1841); and it had successfully established several towns, which would subsequently become some of New Zealand's major cities. It was only in 1843 that the Company started to fall into serious financial and organizational problems. Thus, Ritter's assessment seemed astute at the time.

A highlight of Ritter's work is an attractive original folding map that features the world in two hemispheres, noting New Zealand's global position and the fastest travel route between England and New Zealand. The composition is completed with two cartographic insets: one with a map of the Cook Strait (which divides the North and South Islands); and the other being a map of Port Nicholson, the location of Wellington.

Importantly, Ritter's discourse proved to be highly influential, and the New Zealand Company was delighted that an international celebrity intellectual such as Ritter had endorsed their endeavours. At the Company's instigation, the present work was promptly translated into English and published in London as, *The Colonization of New Zealand by Charles Ritter* (London: Smith, Elder & Co., 1842). Copies were distributed to potential investors and the heads of settler's groups as an intellectual form of promotional material. Ritter's discourse was also quoted in innumerable contemporary scholarly and promotional works.

Historical Context: The New Zealand Company & the Early European Settlement of New Zealand

The New Zealand Company played a critical role in settling the islands and establishing the foundation of modern New Zealand. From 1800 until the 1840s, the European presence in New Zealand was fleeting, confined to tiny missionary outposts and whaling stations, most of which were temporary in nature. The islands' remote location, and the Europeans' complex and, at times, hostile relations with the indigenous Maori peoples, were major inhibitors to founding a proper colony.

The New Zealand Company was founded in 1825 in an effort to establish a permanent, thriving British presence on the islands. The company followed a colonial model devised by its founder, Edward Gibbon Wakefield, a colourful figure who was once jailed for abducting a 15-year old heiress. Gibbon held visions of founding an antipodean "Utopia" in New Zealand, or an idealized little England with a similar social class systems and a small mixed-farm economy. The Company would aim to settle poor, but industrious, migrant labourers from Britain in New Zealand, who through their own hard work would gradually be able to purchase the land plots assigned to them, and to cover much of the Company's expenses.

The Company's initial efforts proved unsuccessful, as it was unable to find suitable locations for settlement, let alone a significant number of settlers willing to sail across the World to start new lives in an utterly unknown land. However, the Company's principals persisted and, in 1837, it

was given a royal charter to settle New Zealand. Many important British noblemen, politicians and business figures lent their names to the endeavour.

From 1839, the Company began to enjoy some measurable success. In 1840, it founded the first enduring major European settlement in New Zealand, Wellington, on the shores of Port Nicholson. A modest, but steady flow of settlers began to arrive in the islands, finding the mild climate and abundant natural resources to be a pleasant place to start to new society.

The Treaty of Waitangi (1840) ensured peace between the British and the Maori, and New Zealand formally became a colony under the Company's guidance in 1841. From 1840 to 1850, the Company succeeded in bringing 12,000 settlers to the islands, increasing New Zealand's European population from 2,050 to 22,108 over that period. While this may seem modest by contemporary American, or even Australian terms, it must be noted that the logistical challenges and the costs of settling New Zealand were extreme.

The Company founded several of the island's enduring centres, including Wellington, Nelson, Taranaki, and Wanganui; while having an important supporting role in the foundation of Otago and Canterbury.

With reference to cartography, the Company's surveying corps was responsible for the first accurate terrestrial maps of the islands, surveying thousands of square miles of territory, laying out the plans for several towns, delineating hundreds of miles of roads, as well as thousands of cadastral plots.

That all being said, the New Zealand Company suffered from inept management. Its principals quarreled with both the Colonial Office and missionary societies, all of which were immensely powerful stakeholders. By 1843, the Company fell into serious financial trouble, from which it was never to recover. Moreover, peace with the Maori broke down, resulting in several fierce conflicts fought between the native peoples and the new colonial regime. While the Company continued to operate, its powers were greatly limited upon the granting of responsible government to the colony in 1853; and the Company was officially dissolved in 1858. It would not be until the 1860s, when New Zealand began to enjoy a prolonged economic and settlement boom, that the foundation built by the New Zealand Company would reach its potential.

Carl Ritter: The Co-Founder of Modern Geography

Carl Ritter (1779 – 1859) is considered, along with his friend Alexander von Humboldt, to be the founder of modern geography. His methodology on how to study the subject remains highly influential to this day. He was a prolific writer whose brilliant gaze touched virtually every region of the world, and his global reputation allowed him to obtain the best information from explorers, foreign governments and other writers. He was the first chair of geography at the University of Berlin, from 1825 until his death, mentoring generations of scholars.

Carl Ritter was born in the bucolic town of Quedlingburg, Saxony, the son of a successful doctor. While his father died when Carl was only two, his family was left with an ample inheritance, sufficient to pay for Carl to receive a good education. He attended the Schnepfenthal Salzmann School, where he studied under the famous educator, Johann Christoph Friedrich GutsMuths. There he became fascinated with the study of natural sciences. He also came to follow the 3-stage learning methodology of Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi, which called for one to collect objects, compare the material, and then establish findings into a general system.

In 1798, after graduating from high school, Ritter who had spent all of his inheritance, benefitted from being introduced to the wealthy Frankfurt banker Johann Jakob Bethmann Hollweg. The banker agreed to sponsor an arrangement whereby Ritter tutored his children, and in return he would pay Ritter's tuition at the University of Halle, plus living expenses. This arrangement was subsequently extended to allow Ritter to specialize in geography at the University of Göttingen.

Ritter completely redefined the study of geography in his 19 volume masterpiece *Die Erdkunde im Verhältniss zur Natur und zur Geschichte des Menschen*, written between 1816 and 1859. In this work, he connects the influences of physical geography to human activity and the development of various societies. Ritter's approach was universally adopted scholars worldwide and, along with the works of Humboldt, formed the foundation of modern scientific geography.

Amongst Ritter's memorable quotations are:

"Geography was a kind of physiology and comparative anatomy of the earth: rivers, mountains, glaciers, &c., were so many distinct organs, each with its own appropriate functions; and, as his physical frame is the basis of the man, determinative to a large extent of his life, so the structure of each country is a leading element in the historic progress of the nation."

He also articulated that:

"The earth is a cosmic individual with a particular organization, an ens sui generis with a progressive development: the exploration of this individuality of the earth is the task of geography".

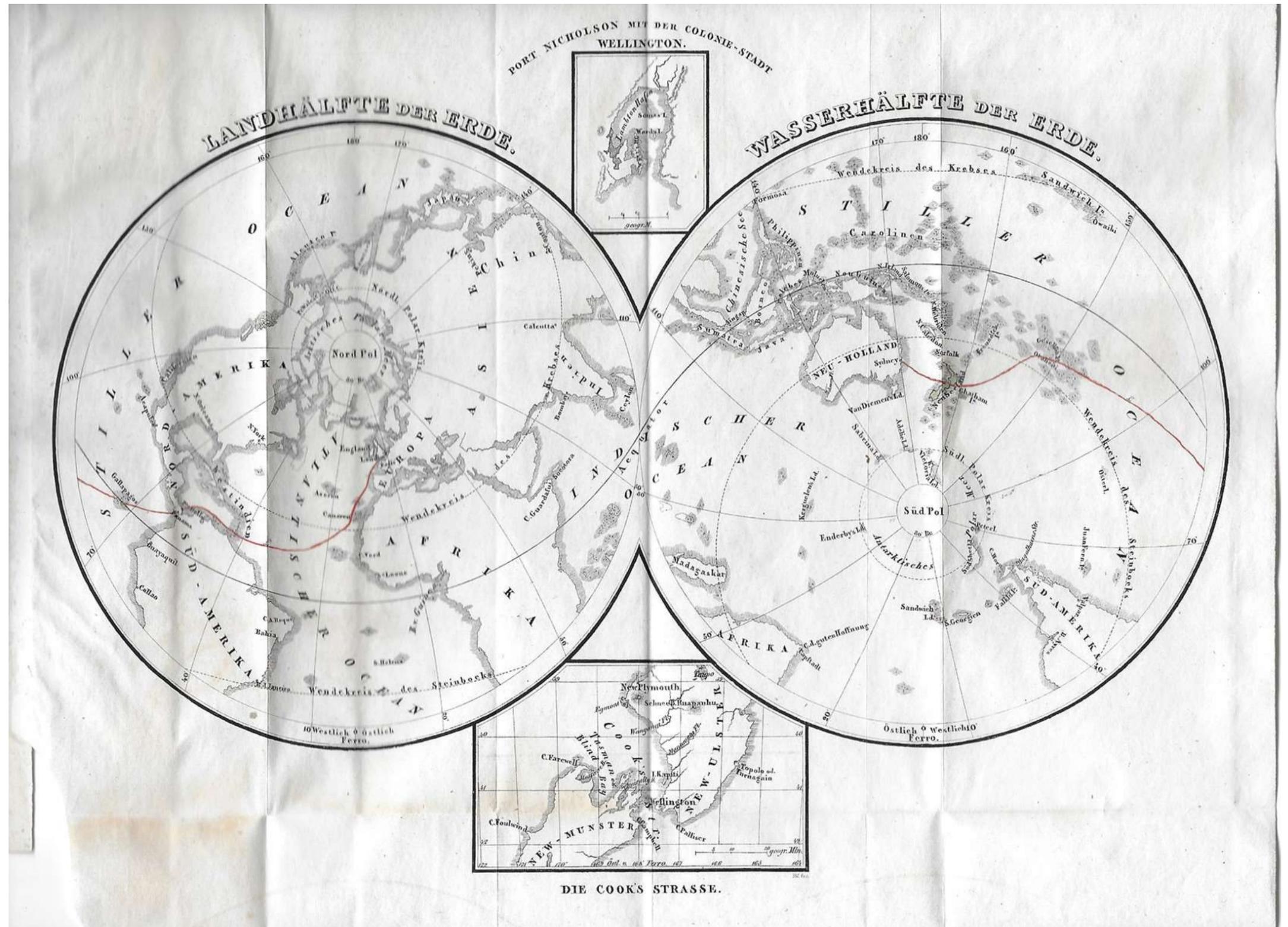
Ritter also wrote innumerable articles and short treatises (such as the present work) on a wide variety of international subjects. He received many prestigious awards and was a fellow of scientific and learned societies all over the globe. By the time that he wrote the present work on New Zealand, he was one of the most famous and universally respected intellectuals in the world.

A Note on Rarity

The present original edition of Ritter's work on New Zealand is very rare. While we note around a dozen or so examples in institutional holdings worldwide, we cannot trace any records of another example appearing on the market since 1950.

References: Thomas Morland Hocken, *A Bibliography of the Literature relating to New Zealand*, p. 105; OCLC: 948018177 / 930527146.

480 EUR



12. BUENOS AIRES, ARGENTINA

Deutsche Schiffsagentur.

[Buenos Aires: Deutsche Schiffsagentur, circa 1928-1930].

Vodić kroz Buenos Aires [Guide of Buenos Aires].

A seemingly unrecorded guidebook of Buenos Aires in Croatian language with a map, was printed in the late 1920s for the Croatian immigrants, providing basic information on the city and useful addresses.

12°: 48 pp. with illustrations in text, original wrappers with printed covers, stapled (slightly aged-toned and stained, small tears on the spine, soft folds in corners, otherwise in a good condition).

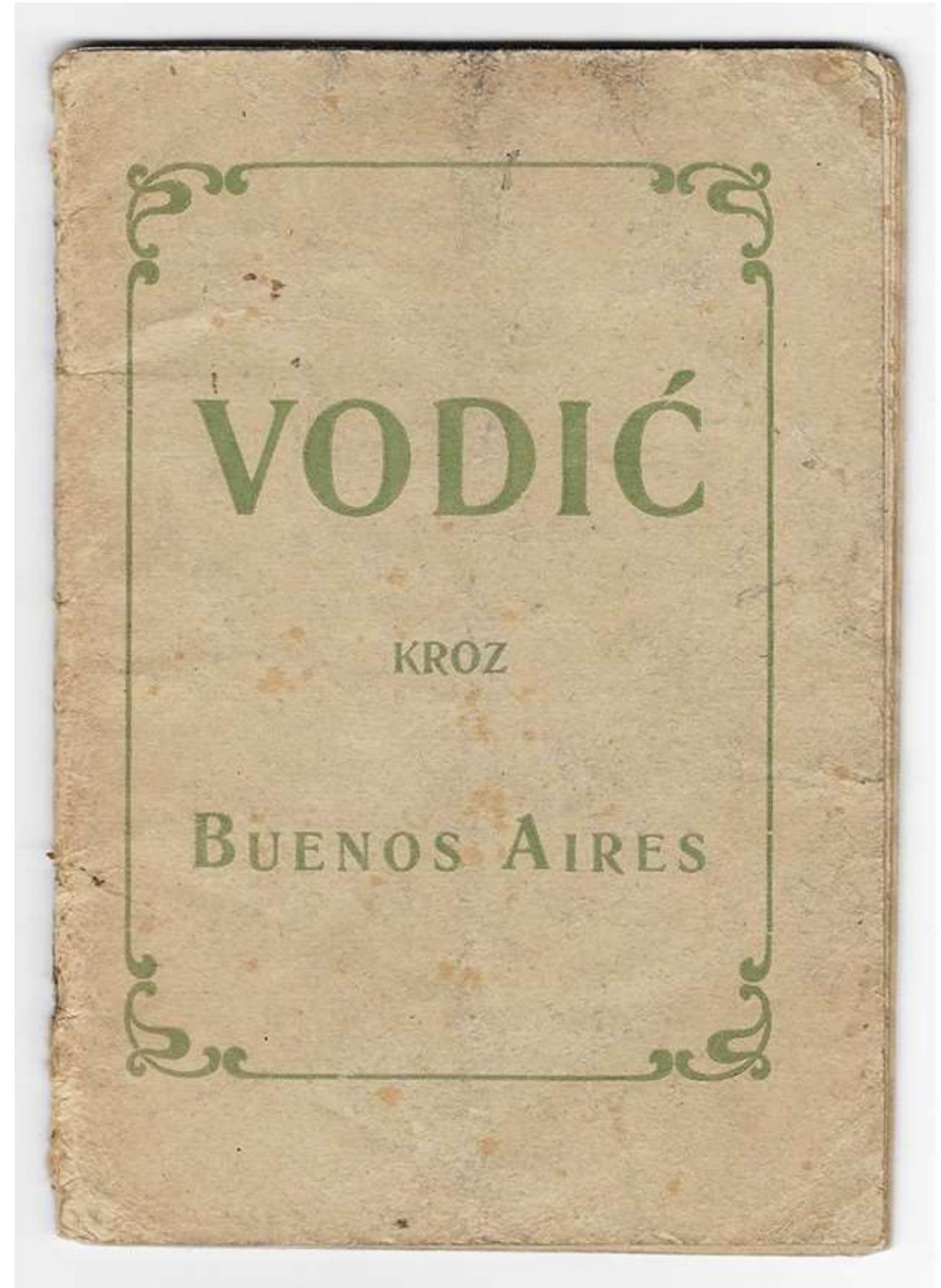
A rare, seemingly unrecorded guidebook of Buenos Aires was printed in Croatian language by a German transportation and shipping company and agency for immigrants *Deutsche Schiffsagentur*.

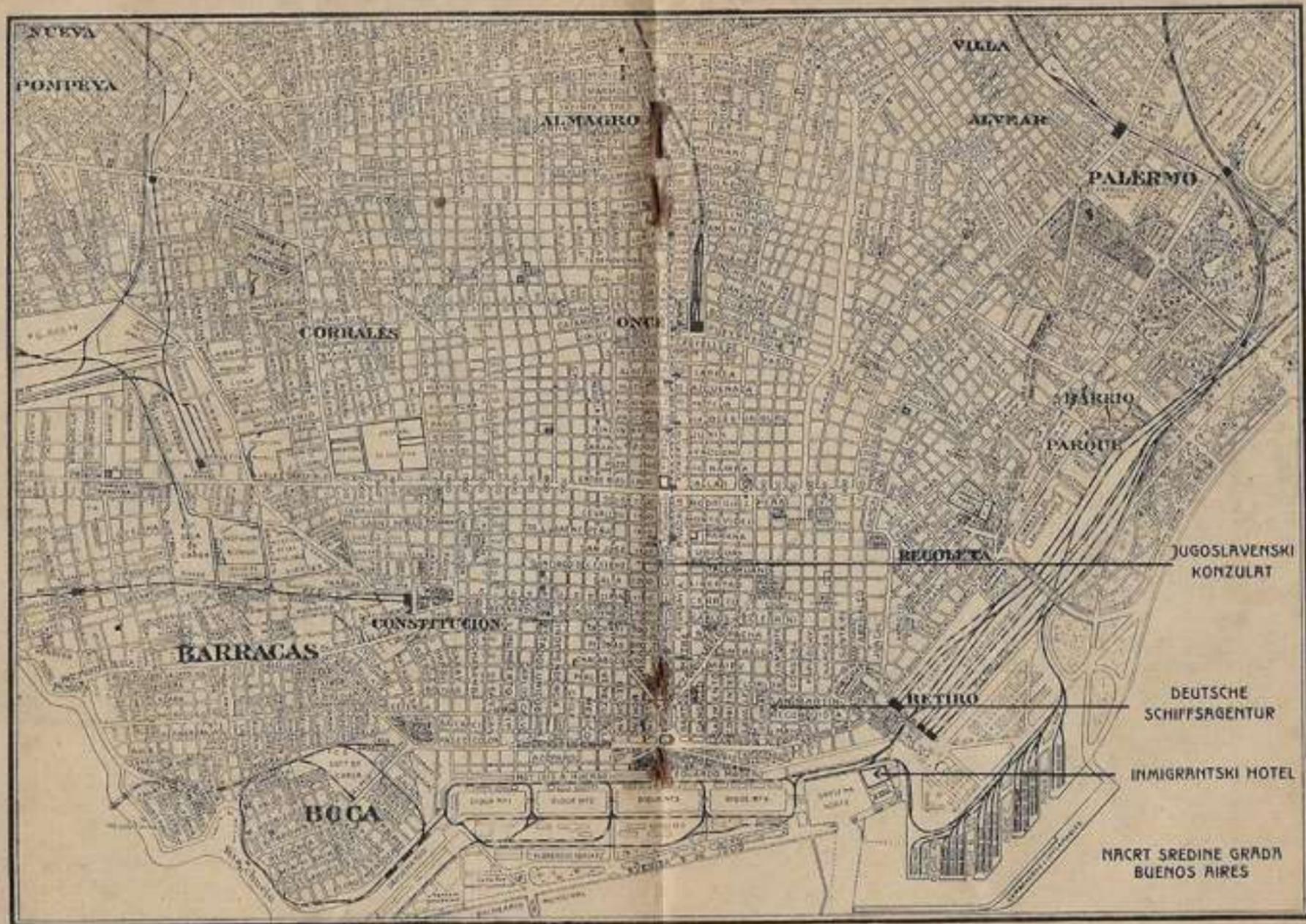
The book, which presents Buenos Aires as a place of great opportunities for earning money and progress, but also a place when lives and property are in danger, gives newly arrived immigrants instructions where to ask for information, how to send money and post back home, how to arrange paperwork and bank account (all these arrangements could be made through *Deutsche Schiffsagentur*), it gives basic information on the country, what to do in case of illness or death, lists addresses of Yugoslav consulates, and ends with a dictionary.

Argentina was one of the main destinations of immigration of Croatians and other Yugoslav nations, from the mid 19th century until the beginning of WWII. Around 1900 there were 133 settlements, with some 120,000 Croats in Argentina. The second wave of immigration followed immediately after WWII.

The guidebook is very rare. We could not trace any other examples on the market nor in institutions worldwide.

180 EUR





13. ALBANIA / GEOLOGY – ORIGINAL PUBLISHER’S PROOF:

Franz Baron NOPCSA von Felső-Szilvás (1877 - 1933).

Budapest: Magyar Állami Földtani Intézet [Geological Institute of Hungary], [1929].

Geologische Karte von Nordalbanien aufgenommen von Dr. Franz Baron Nopcsa 1905 – 1916.

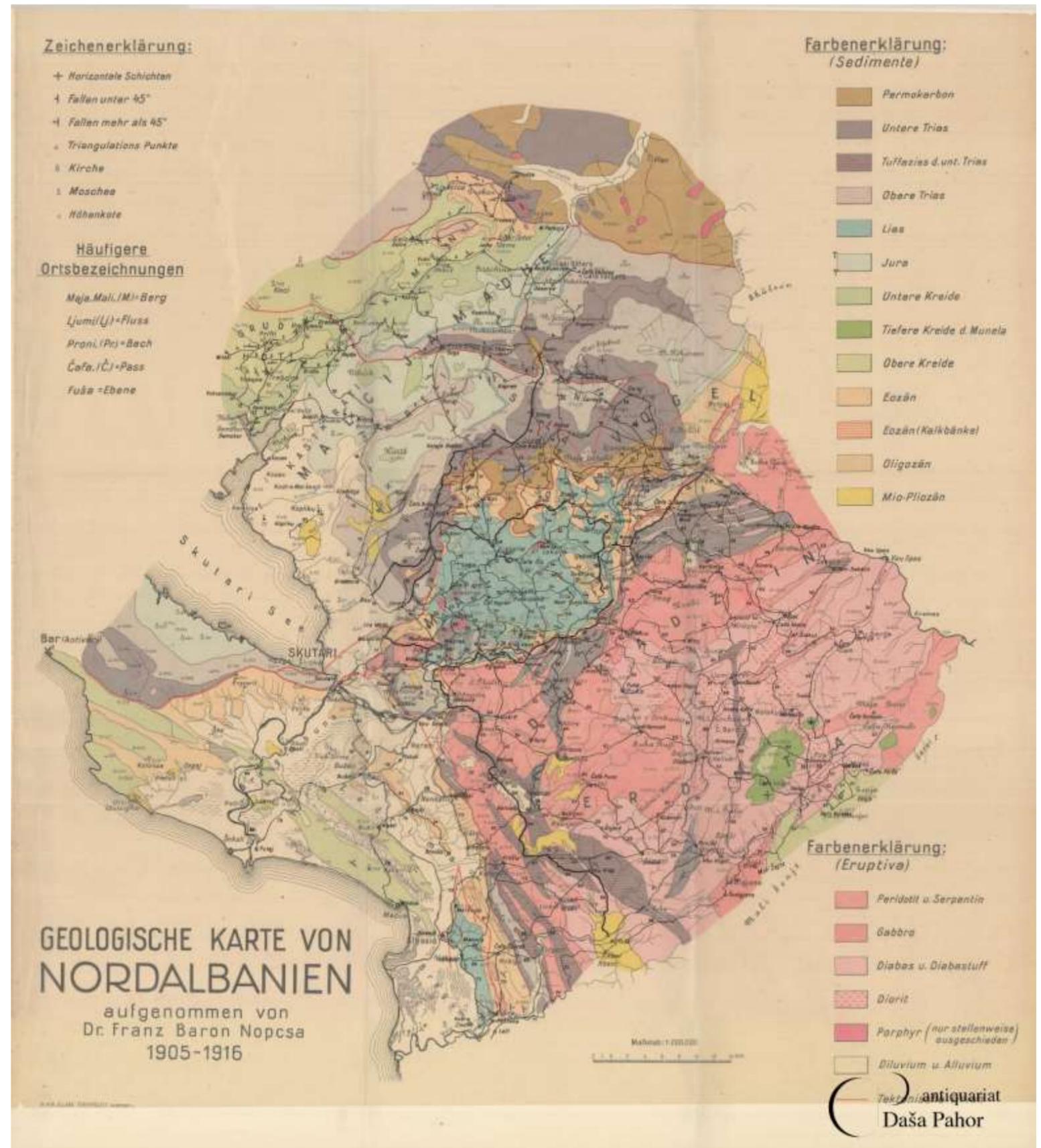
The original publisher’s proof of Franz Baron von Nopcsa’s geological map of Northern Albania, the first scientific geological map of the region.

Chromolithograph with monochrome lithographed overlay on transparent paper (Excellent, clean old vertical and horizontal folds), 66 x 60 cm (26 x 23.5 inches).

This intriguing production is the original publisher’s proof from the Magyar Állami Földtani Intézet (Geological Institute of Hungary) of Franz Baron Nopcsa’s geological map of Northern Albania, being the first scientific geological map of that region. Nopcsa was a Hungarian nobleman, and a world-renowned paleontologist and geologist, who from 1905 to 1916, resided in Albania, where he became a leading authority on that nation’s history, culture and natural sciences, as well as a prominent member of its independence movement. He remains one of the biggest names in modern Albanian history. During his time in Albania, Nopcsa conducted the first scientific geological reconnaissance of the country, with a particular focus on the northern regions.

The present publisher’s proof consists of two distinct physical parts: first, the lower chromolithographed map is based directly on Baron Nopcsa’s original manuscript geological sketch map of the region; second, the transparent overlay, featuring a highly precise monochrome skeletal road map of the region, was intended to both contextualize Nopcsa’s geological mapping and to correct his relatively geodetic errors. For the resulting printed map, issued to accompany Nopcsa’s academic article, ‘Geographie und Geologie Nordalbaniens’, within the journal *Geologica Hungarica*, Series Geologica, vol. 3 (Budapest: Magyar Állami Földtani Intézet, 1929), these two components were combined, such that the information upon the overlay was integrated into the main map, which naturally necessitated some amendments to the positioning of certain features.

Northern Albania was a region of exceptionally rugged topography, and traditionally an area of great political instability, meaning that it was one of the last regions of Europe to be geologically surveyed. Nopcsa’s principally German-language map embraces all of Albania north of the Ishem River (labeled here as the ‘Mata’), a land dominated by the North Albanian Alps, and including the area around the major city of ‘Scutari’ (Shkoder), extending its overage a little ways into coastal Montenegro, as far as Bar.



The various geological zones are colour-coded, identified on the two legends on the right side of the map, the 'Farbenerklärung [Explanation of Colours] (Sediment)' notes 13 sedimentary zones; while the 'Farbenerklärung (Eruptiva)' notes 6 zones created by volcanic activity, plus noting the red lines that demarcates tectonic faults. The 'Zeichenklärung' (Explanation of Symbols), in the upper left corner, identifies: Horizontal Layers, Cliffs with gradients under 45 degrees, Cliffs with gradients over 45 degrees, Triangulation Points, Churches, Mosques, and Highpoints (with elevations in metres). Below, the 'Häufigere Ortsbezeichnungen' (Frequent Place Names) translates the Albanian words employed to denote: Mountains, Rivers, Creeks, Passes and Plains.

The present map dramatically surpassed any previously effort to express the complex geology of the region, forms a critical component of the modern geological mapping of the Balkans, in general.

Franz Baron Nopcsa: A Giant of Geology, Paleontology and Albanian History

Franz Baron Nopcsa von Felső-Szilvás (1877 - 1933) was a world-renowned geologist, paleontologist, and the founder of modern Albanian studies. He was born into a noble Hungarian family near what is today Sântămăria-Orlea, Transylvania, Romania (then in Hungary). When dinosaur bones were discovered on the family estate, Nopcsa became transfixed by paleontology and his brilliant, virtuous talent led to his acceptance to the University of Vienna. He conducted groundbreaking fieldwork and wrote many papers that ensured that he became one of the most respected paleontologists in Europe by his late 20s. He was considered to be one of the founders of 'paleobiology', whereby he attempted to reconstruct how dinosaurs actually lived, not being content to simply assemble bones like many of his colleagues. Especially important was his assertion that some Mesozoic reptiles are warm blooded, a belief today shared by many scientists.

Nopcsa developed a deep love for Albania, which was then a rebellious province of the Ottoman Empire. Extremely mountainous and politically unstable, Albania was largely an enigma to outsiders. Nopcsa spent over a decade, from 1905 to 1916, in Albania, mastering its difficult dialects and being accepted as an insider by its clan leaders. Largely based in the northern part of the county, Nopcsa found the time and license to conduct the first ever scientific reconnaissance of the region's geology, geography, paleontology, botany and ethnology, producing a vast corpus of notes and sketches. He published numerous articles and books on Albania on a wide variety of social and scientific topics, and today this oeuvre is considered to be the foundation of modern Albanian studies.

Nopcsa became a major figure in the Albanian independence movement during the Albanian Revolt of January to August 1912. He supplied intelligence and smuggled arms into the country, leading to the success of the revolution and the country's independence. For a time, Nopcsa was on the shortlist to become the first modern King of Albania, and although he was passed over, he remained an influential figure. Intriguingly, while Nopcsa's love for Albania was certainly sincere, it has since been revealed that he was all-along a spy for the Austro-Hungarian government.

Upon Austria-Hungary's defeat and dissolution following World War I, Nopcsa lost his ancestral estates, in what became Romania. This placed him under financial pressure, compelling him to land a desk job, in this case, at the Hungarian Geological Institute. There he focused upon publishing his geological discoveries of Northern Albania. He issued a valuable article on the geology of the coastal regions of the county, 'Zur Geologie der Küstenketten Nordalbaniens', *Mitteilungen aus dem Jahrbuche der kgl. Ungarischen Geologischen Anstalt* (Budapest, 1925), and that same year collaborated with the Czech geologist Ernst Nowack on the *Geologische Karte von Albanien* (Berlin, 1925, reissued Vienna, 1928), which was the first general geological map of the county (although its coverage of northern Albania was not as comprehensive as that featured upon the present map). The present publisher's proof was prepared by the Geological Institute to form the first published scientific geological map focusing on Northern Albania, which was to appear within Nopcsa's aforementioned article 'Geographie und Geologie Nordalbaniens' (1929).

Latterly, Nopcsa moved to Vienna with his Albanian secretary and lover, Bajazid Elmas Doda, where they concentrated on studying fossils. Although Nopcsa sold his fossil collection to the Natural History Museum in London for a good sum, he fell into severe financial problems and became depressed. Sadly, in 1933, he shot Doda dead before taking his own life. However, he left behind many unpublished notes, sketches and maps, many of which eventually formed the core of the Albanological section of the National Library of Albania (Tirana).

References: Cf. (Re: the published map itself) Hermann Haack (ed.), *Petermann's Geographische Mitteilungen*, vol. 75 (1929), p. 288; (re: Article) *József Hála, Franz Baron von Nopcsa: Anmerkungen zu seiner Familie und seine Beziehungen zu Albanien – Eine Bibliographie* (Vienna, 1993), no. 51 (p. 40).

450 EUR

14. ALASKA – ETHNOGRAPHIC MAP

Henrik Johan HOLMBERG (1818 - 1864).

Helsinki: F. Liewendal, 1855.

Ethnographische Skizzen über die Völker des Russischen Amerika. Erste Abteilung: Die Thlinkithen. Die Konjagen. Karte des Russischen Amerika. Nach den neuesten Quellen gezeichnet von H. J. Holmberg. 1854.

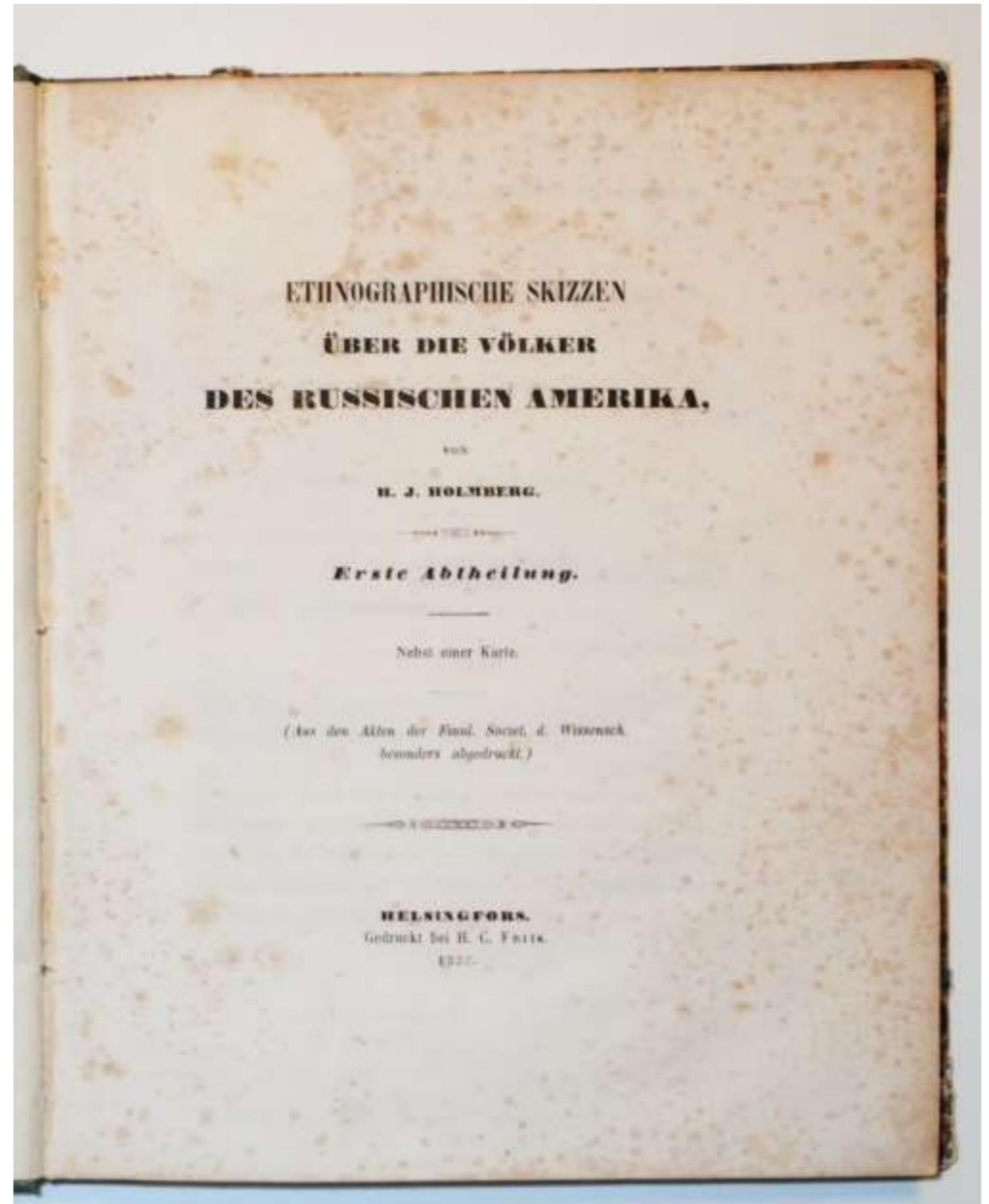
The first ethnographic map of Alaska, by the Finnish anthropologist H.J. Holmberg, bound within the accompanying Part 1 (of 2 independently-issued parts) of Holmberg's groundbreaking study of the region.

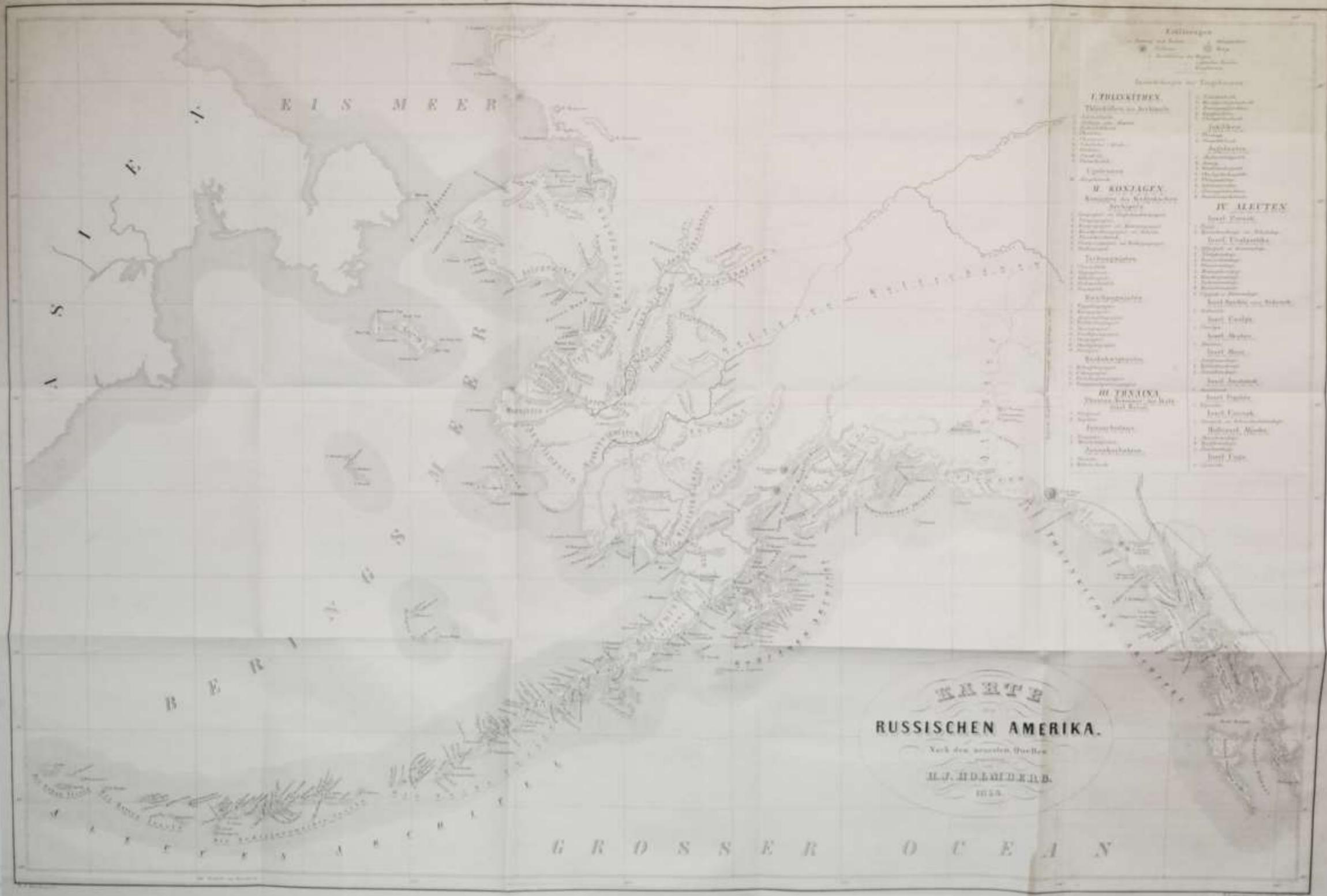
4°: 141 pp. + folding lithographed Map (17.5 x 26.5 inches / 44.5 x 67.4 cm), bound in contemporary quarter cloth with marbled boards (Very Good, some light areas of foxing to text, map with areas of minor discoloration, binding with minor shelf ware, more pronounced along front fore-edge).

This fascinating work features the first ethnographic map of Alaska, drafted by the eminent Finnish anthropologist and naturalist Henrik Johan Holmberg, bound within Part 1 (of 2) of Holmberg's magnificent description of Russian America (Part 2 of Holmberg's work was issued independently 8 years later). The map, made during the twilight of Russian hegemony in what would later become Alaska, is the first to detail the territories of the 4 major Native American First Nations within the region: the Tlinget; the Kodiak; the Dena'ina and other Athabaskan peoples; and the Aleut peoples, which are further divided into the domains of specific named tribes. Importantly, this is the first map to pay proper respect to the established societies of Alaska in an era when Europeans still maintained a relatively light footprint.

Geographically, the map's coverage embraces the southern four-fifths of Alaska (all but the Northern Slope), with its coastal areas being quite accurate, predicated upon the latest sources, such as the early 1840s surveys of Laurentii Alekseevich Zagoskin. However, its coverage of the interior is quite limited, with only a sketchy delineation of the 'Fl. Jukchana' (Yukon River). Geographical features are copiously labeled, areas of elevation are shown with hachures, with shading emphasizing the coastlines. The 'Erklärungen' (Legend of Symbols), in the upper right, identifies: 'Festung' (forts); 'Vulkane' (volcanoes); 'odinotschka' (monasteries / missions); 'Berge' (mountains); 'Ansiedelung der Russen' (Russian settlements); 'Russischen Kreolon' (mixed Russian-Native American settlements); 'Eingebornen' (Native American settlements).

The various Native American Nations (and their sub-divisions), as classified in the table 'Ansiedelungen der Eingebornen' (Settlements of the Natives), in the upper right, are labeled throughout the map as follows: I. 'Thlinkiten' (Tlinget), including 2 geographic divisions and 10 tribes, with names on the map underlined by lines composed entirely of dots, occupying the Panhandle in Southeastern Alaska; II. 'Konjagen' (Alutiiq peoples and those speaking other Eskimo languages), including 4 geographic divisions and 25 tribes, underlined by dashed lines,





Legende

I. THUNDSTEN
 Thundsteden in Sachalin
 Thundsteden in Kamtschatka
 Thundsteden in Alaska
 Thundsteden in den Aleuten
 Thundsteden in den Kurilen
 Thundsteden in den Komandoren
 Thundsteden in den Kurilen
 Thundsteden in den Komandoren
 Thundsteden in den Kurilen
 Thundsteden in den Komandoren

II. KONTZAGEN
 Kontzagen in Sachalin
 Kontzagen in Kamtschatka
 Kontzagen in Alaska
 Kontzagen in den Aleuten
 Kontzagen in den Kurilen
 Kontzagen in den Komandoren
 Kontzagen in den Kurilen
 Kontzagen in den Komandoren
 Kontzagen in den Kurilen
 Kontzagen in den Komandoren

III. DAWSON
 Dawson in Alaska
 Dawson in den Aleuten
 Dawson in den Kurilen
 Dawson in den Komandoren
 Dawson in den Kurilen
 Dawson in den Komandoren
 Dawson in den Kurilen
 Dawson in den Komandoren

IV. ALEUTEN
 Aleuten in Alaska
 Aleuten in den Aleuten
 Aleuten in den Kurilen
 Aleuten in den Komandoren
 Aleuten in den Kurilen
 Aleuten in den Komandoren
 Aleuten in den Kurilen
 Aleuten in den Komandoren

KARTE
DER
RUSSISCHEN AMERIKA.
 Nach den neuesten Quellen
 H. J. HEDLERS
 1813

G R O S S E R O C E A N

occupying a band of territory extending from the Pacific at Kodiak Island, the southern Kenai Peninsula and Prince William Sound, and then across and up along the shores of the Bering Sea; III. ‘Thnainia’ (Dena’ina and other Athabaskan peoples), including 5 geographic divisions and 21 tribes, underlined with lines of dashes and crosses, occupying most of the interior and the coastal areas on an around the Kenai Peninsula (the Anchorage region); and IV. ‘Aleuten’ (Aleutian), including 11 geographic divisions and 24 tribes, underlined by dashes and dots, occupying the Alaska Peninsula and the Aleutian Islands.

While the book in which the map appears was published by H.C. Friis, the map was lithographed by Frans Oscar Liewendal, who was the country’s leading practitioner of the medium and the proprietor of Finland’s first lithographic press (founded in 1834).

Holmberg’s present book (which translates as ‘Ethnographic Sketches About the Peoples of Russian America. Part 1. The Tlingits. The Kodiak people’), in which the present map resides, is a complete work in and of itself. It features the entirety of Holmberg’s ethnographic analysis of the Native Nations of Alaska, whereas the second volume of Holmberg’s work was issued independently 8 years later and which focuses on a different subject matter (being the history of Russian activities in Alaska).

The present Part 1 contains Holmberg’s groundbreaking ethnographic study of Alaska’s Native Nations, being among the first sensitive and intelligent treatments of the topic, and certainly the earliest comprehensive study of its kind. Holmberg described the work as being “ethnographic sketches - collected partly from Russian reports, partly from my own observations during a stay of eighteen months in those parts”. He spent some time living among the Tlingit of Southeastern Alaska and the Koniag Alutiq people of Kodiak Island, giving an especially authoritative account of their settlements, religion, hunting, fishing, weddings, festivities, shamanism and dress. He also carefully selected information from the accounts of the geologist Constantine Grewingk, the zoologist I.G. Vosnezenski, and the missionary Ivan Evseyevich Popov-Veniaminov. Holmberg’s insights were of great interest at the time, and are today of immense value to historians who seek to understand the traditional ways of these societies before they were completely transformed by Euro-American influences.

Henrik Johan Holmberg (1818 - 1864) was a Finnish ethnographer, geologist and naturalist whose studies in a range of diverse disciplines remained influential even long after his time. While Finland had been part of the Russian Empire since 1809, Holmberg generally wrote in the German, as that language that was then favored by the intelligentsia in the Baltic region. In 1839, he enrolled in the school of the Mining Inspectorate of Finland and joined its staff upon graduation. In 1850, he joined the Russian American Company and travelled to Alaska in search of gold. However, he soon became transfixed by the amazing cultures of the Native Nations, as well as the geography and history of the region. He proved himself to be an exceedingly perceptive and open-minded observer of life in Alaska, and had an uncanny ability to master a varied number of academic disciplines, including those far outside of his formal education. He learned a number of dialects of Alaskan languages and acquired an unprecedented collection of ethnographic and natural specimens. He also conducted interviews with tribal elders, recording eyewitness accounts of pivotal historical events, such as the 1784 Awa’uq Massacre.

Holmberg returned to Helsinki in 1852 and his adventures in Alaska fascinated the members of the Finnish Society of Sciences and Letters (an affiliated organization of the Academy of Sciences in St. Petersburg). The Society became a major patron of his work, agreeing to sponsor the publication of his accounts of Alaska. Holmberg penned other publications, including works on the geology of Finland, *Mineralogischer wegweiser durch Finland* (1857) and *Materealien zur geognosie Finlands* (1858); and a pioneering study of Finnish Neolithic and Bronze Age archaeology, *List and Illustrations of Finnish Antiquities* (1863). Holmberg also undertook scientific expeditions to Sweden and Norway and served as curator of the Historical Museum of Finland. In 1860, he was appointed to the important post of Inspector of Fisheries of Finland.

The present work represents the second printing of the first part of Holmberg’s two-part study of Alaska. Part 1 of Holmberg’s *Ethnographische Skizzen* was first issued as part of the transactions of the Finnish Academy of Sciences, *Akten der Finnlandischen Societaet de Wissenschaften*, vol. 4 (1855). Shortly thereafter, this treatise was separately published as a stand-alone book, being the present work, including his great map. Part 1 included the entirety of Holmberg’s published ethnographic study on Alaska, and while it anticipated a second volume (regarding a different subject matter), it acts on its own as a self-contained work.

Part 2 of Holmberg’s study of Alaska, subtitled *Entwicklung der Russisch-Amerikanischen Compagnie* [The Development of the Russian-American Company] concerned the history and development of the Russian-American Company. It included the expeditions of its protagonists, notably the late 18th Century settlement founded by Grigory Shelikhov on Kodiak Island. It was published within *Akten der Finnlandischen Societaet de Wissenschaften*, vol. 7 (1862). Thus, the distinct first and second parts of Holmberg’s study were separately issued from one another and are today scarcely ever found together.

Holmberg’s ethnographic analysis has an enduring legacy as an invaluable source on Alaska’s Native Nations. His pioneering ethnographic map of Alaska remained the authoritative work of its kind for three decades, being superseded in detail and accuracy only by Ivan Petroff’s *Map of Alaska And Adjoining Regions compiled by Ivan Petroff Special Agent Tenth Census 1880. Showing The Distribution of Native Tribes* (Washington, D.C., 1884).

All editions of the parts of Holmberg’s study of Alaska are today rare.

References: Re: Book: Russica, H1059; Sabin, 32572; Not in Lada-Mocarski; Re: Map only: M.W. Falk, *Alaskan Maps: A Cartobibliography of Alaska to 1900* (1983), 1855-12.

750 EUR

15. DALMATIA, CROATIA:

Dalmacija nacrtao i narisao ju J.J. Pauliny u Beču. Nakladom Albrechta i Fiedlera u Zagrebu.

Jacob Josef PAULINY (1827 – 1899).

Zagreb: Albrecht & Fiedler, [1877].

An extremely rare and colossal wall map of Dalmatia (1.4 x 2.4 metres), printed by a resplendent technique of chromolithography, designed by the Austro-Hungarian cartographer Jacob Josef Pauliny and printed in Zagreb by Albrecht & Fiedler.

Chromolithograph on 12 sheets (Complete), uncut and un-joined (Very Good, splendid chromolithography, marginal chipping and various marginal tears, a few hairline tears just entering image but with no loss, some wear and minor creasing along old centrefolds of sheets, all tears closed on verso with archival tape), each sheet (with blank margins): 49 x 62 cm (19 x 24.5 inches), if all sheets joined would form a map approximately 140 x 240 cm (55 x 94.5 inches).

This colossal 12-sheet wall map showcases all of Dalmatia in spectacular detail, being the largest map of the region we have even seen (1.4 x 2.4 metres / 4.5 x 8 feet). Designed by the prominent Austro-Hungarian military engineer Jacob Josef Pauliny, and predicated on the latest official surveys, the map was chromolithographed using a most resplendent technique and issued in Zagreb by the leading publisher Albrecht & Fiedler. Its scope extends along the Adriatic, from just beyond Zadar, in the north, all the way down to Kotor (Montenegro), in the south, with the major centres of *Šibenik, Split and Dubrovnik in between*. In the interior, the map's scope extends inland to include the southern two thirds of Bosnia & Herzegovina, including Sarajevo, going as far east as *Čačak*, Serbia.

The map is predicated on the latest Austro-Hungarian government surveys, which, during this time employed amongst the most advanced scientific techniques in the world. The map's chromolithography employs an exquisite palate of colours to represent the varied topography and heavily indented, island-strewn coastline of Dalmatia. Croatian toponymy is employed throughout the map, and its legend (lower left corner) explains the host of symbols used to identify cities, towns and villages of various sizes; regional administrative centres; as well as the locations of castles, churches, mosques, monasteries, post offices, rural guesthouses and mines. Also noted are major roads, railways and railway stations. The map also grants sophisticated information on land use, including farmland and forests, as well as various types of topographical and fluvial features.

While the map is undated, its appearance in a list of newly published maps in the 1878 edition of Petermann's *Mitteilungen* confirms the date of issue as 1877.

Historical Context

Dalmatia is a region of stunning natural beauty and cultural wealth, occupying a rugged coastal region along the Adriatic, the nexus for a variety of different cultures since ancient times. Split

was famously the birthplace and frequent home of the Roman Emperor Diocletian (244–312 AD), and for centuries Dalmatia played a central role in the Pan-Mediterranean economy. From 1358 to 1808 the southern part of Dalmatia, centred on Dubrovnik, was the independent state of the Republic of Ragusa, an immensely wealthy maritime trading power, generally allied to the Ottoman Empire. Most of the rest of Dalmatia, was part of the Republic of Venice, and while also thriving on seaborne trade, had to continuously fight epic battles for survival against the Ottomans, who occupied Bosnia, the borders of which lay only short distance inland.

Venice and Ragusa dominated Dalmatia until the Napoleonic Wars, when the region was taken over by Napoleon Bonaparte's legions. It became part of the French Province of Illyria. Following the wars, at the Congress of Vienna (1815), Dalmatia, along with the rest of the Croatian lands was given to the Austrian Habsburg Empire.

Under Austrian rule, Dalmatia played a critical role in the development of the Empire's rapidly rising international maritime economic and military presence. In particular, a large percentage of the sailors in the Austrian Navy, as well as the staff of the globally prominent shipping line Austrian Lloyd (*Österreichischer Lloyd*, founded 1833) were Dalmatians.

The present map was published in 1877, during a critical time, when Dalmatia was of particular strategic significance. Through the 19th Century, the Ottoman Empire had been progressively losing its grip upon its European possessions, and upon the Balkan Crisis (1875-6), Bosnia & Herzegovina broke into open rebellion. The Russo-Turkish War of 1877-8 caused whatever remained of Turkish power in the Balkans to collapse, and Austria-Hungary moved into that power vacuum. At the Congress of Berlin (1878), Austrian Hungary was awarded all of Bosnia & Herzegovina, and for the first time in its modern history, Dalmatia did not have to worry about the threat of the Ottomans attack. This ushered in a period of great prosperity for Dalmatia that was to last until World War I.

Jacob Josef Pauliny: Innovative Austro-Hungarian Cartographer

Jacob Josef Pauliny (1827 – 1899) was an important Austro-Hungarian cartographer, whose maps of the Balkans were especially notable. He was born into a military family in Nagyszombat, Hungary (today Trnava, Slovakia) and entered the Austrian army at a young age. While a simple infantryman, Pauliny's exceptional talent was recognized by his commanders and, in 1846, he was assigned to train at the Militär-Mappierungs-Direktion (Military Directorate) in Prague, where he studied draftsmanship at that city's prestigious Arts Academy. In 1850, he became a draftsman at the Topographical Department of the Militärgeographischen Instituts (Military Geographical Institute) in Vienna. He remained with the institute for the next 39 years, eventually becoming one of its directors in 1881.

The Austrian army permitted its draftsman to act a 'freelancers' as long it did not interfere with their official work. Pauliny had access to the latest military and civilian surveys, and so was well placed to take advantage of this. After representing the Militärgeographischen Instituts at the 1855 Paris Exhibition, he became acquainted with the latest cartographic reproduction techniques and this allowed his to design maps of especially high and progressive qualities. Pauliny worked with many of the Europe's leading map publishing houses, including Artaria, Perthes, Stieler and Sydow. In addition to his present monumental map of Dalmatia, Pauliny produced the *Carta di Montenegro* (1859/60); *Küsten Karte d. Adriat. Meeres* (c. 1860); *Das Herzogthum Kärnten* (ca. 1860); *Knjazestvo Crnagora oder d. Fürstenthum Montenegro* (1862); *Specialkarte d. Eisenbahnen v. Mittel-Europa* (1864); *Gen-Karte d. Herzogthümer Schleswig, Holstein u.*

Lauenburg (1864); *Karte d. Russ.-Türk. Grenzgebiethe in Kleinasien* (1877); and his innovative *Schneeberg, Rax Alpe u. Semmering* (1898).

Interestingly, from 1867 to 1871, Pauliny took a sabbatical from his post in Vienna. On the appointment of the Khedive of Egypt, Isma'il Pasha, he moved to Cairo and founded the Topographical-Lithographic Press Department of Egypt, which was to be run on the Austrian model. Some years later, while back in Vienna, he also made major advancements in creating nearly counterfeit-proof stamps and paper currency for the Austrian crown.

The present map was published by the leading Zagreb firm of Albrecht & Fiedler. Founded by Carl Albrecht in 1861, the company quickly became important lithographers and booksellers, notably serving as the official printers for Austrian Lloyd and the University of Zagreb. They also printed and sold many maps, although the present work is by far their most impressive cartographic production. Carl Albrecht maintained the firm until 1903.

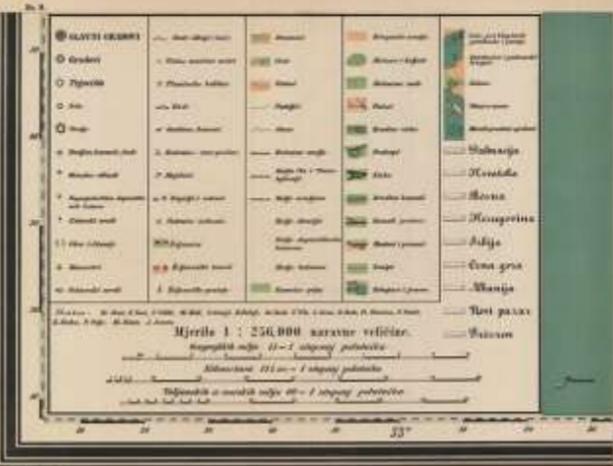
A Note on Rarity

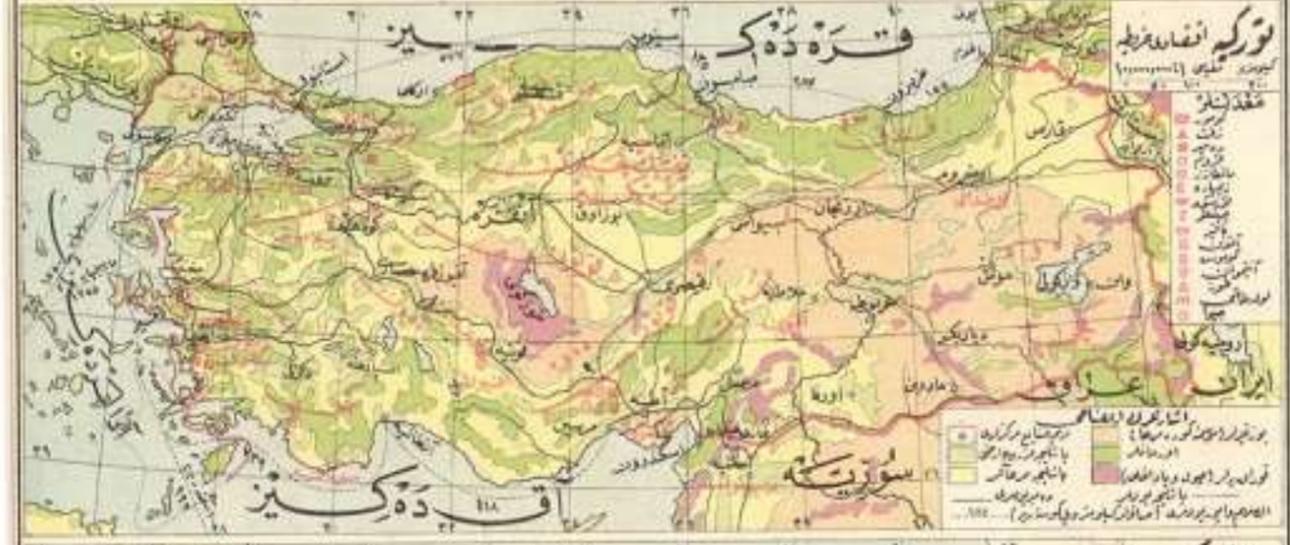
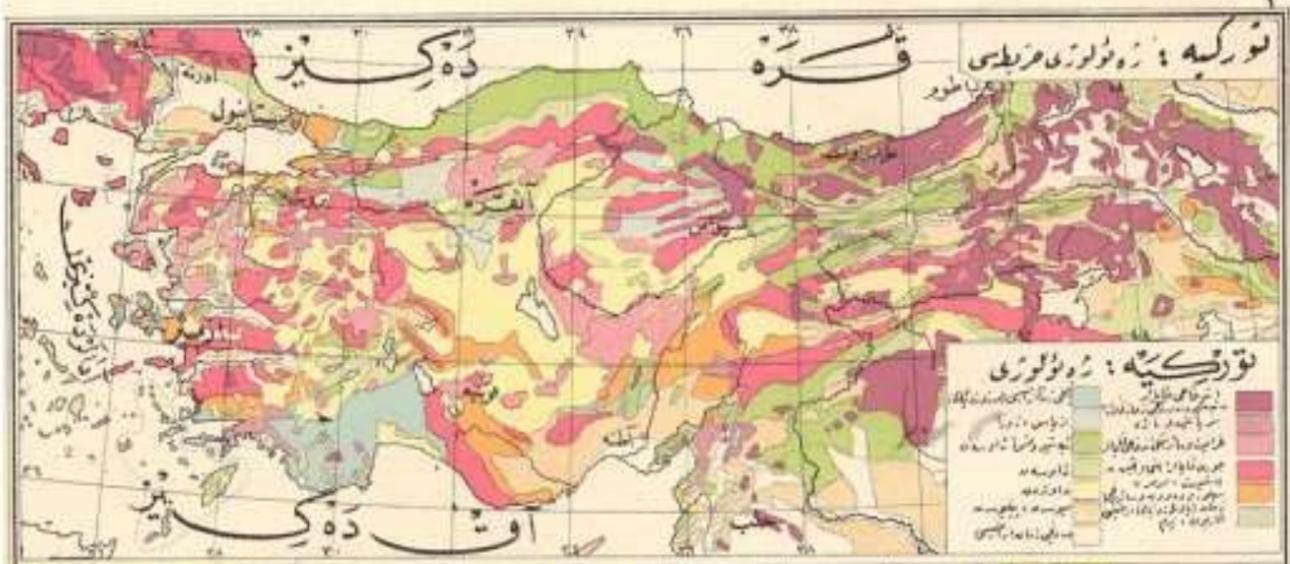
The present map is extremely rare. We cannot trace any sales records and can locate only a single institutional

example, at the British Library.

References:
 British Library:
 Maps
 44250.(12.);
 OCLC:
 557015452;
 August
 Petermann (ed.),
*Mitteilungen aus
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 Cf. [On Pauliny:]
 Erich Hillbrand,
 'Pauliny, Jakob
 Josef', in *Neue
 Deutsche
 Biographie* 20
 (2001), p. 126.

550 EUR





مدرس

فائق صبر

اوقاتنا اظلالسن

لیسه لره و زمانه مکتبانه مخصوص

معارف و کالتی نعیم و تربیتینک ۹ خنوس ۹۲۷ تاریخی و
 ۱۱۲ نومرو نو قراره لیه لره ، معلم مکتبانه و اوقاتنا مکتبانه

قبول ایلندر .
 بزنجی طبع
 ۱۹۲۸

ناسری : قناعت کتبخانه سی : اشانبول

نورکجه و ده مورج قلیب و کتدی بینه طبعه سنه و طبع ایلندر .

17. OTTOMAN SCHOOL ATLAS

ایلك اطلاس [Ilk Atlas / First Atlas]

Faik Sabri DURAN (1882 - 1943).

Istanbul: Kanaat Kütüphanesi 1927.

The first edition of the first modern Turkish primary school atlas for children was published in 1927 in Istanbul by a geographer and a founder of the department for Geography at the Istanbul University Faik Sabri Duran under the influence of the western education system.

Small 4°: 16 pp with cromolithographed plates, original card brown binding printed from inner and outer side, linen spine (Very Good).

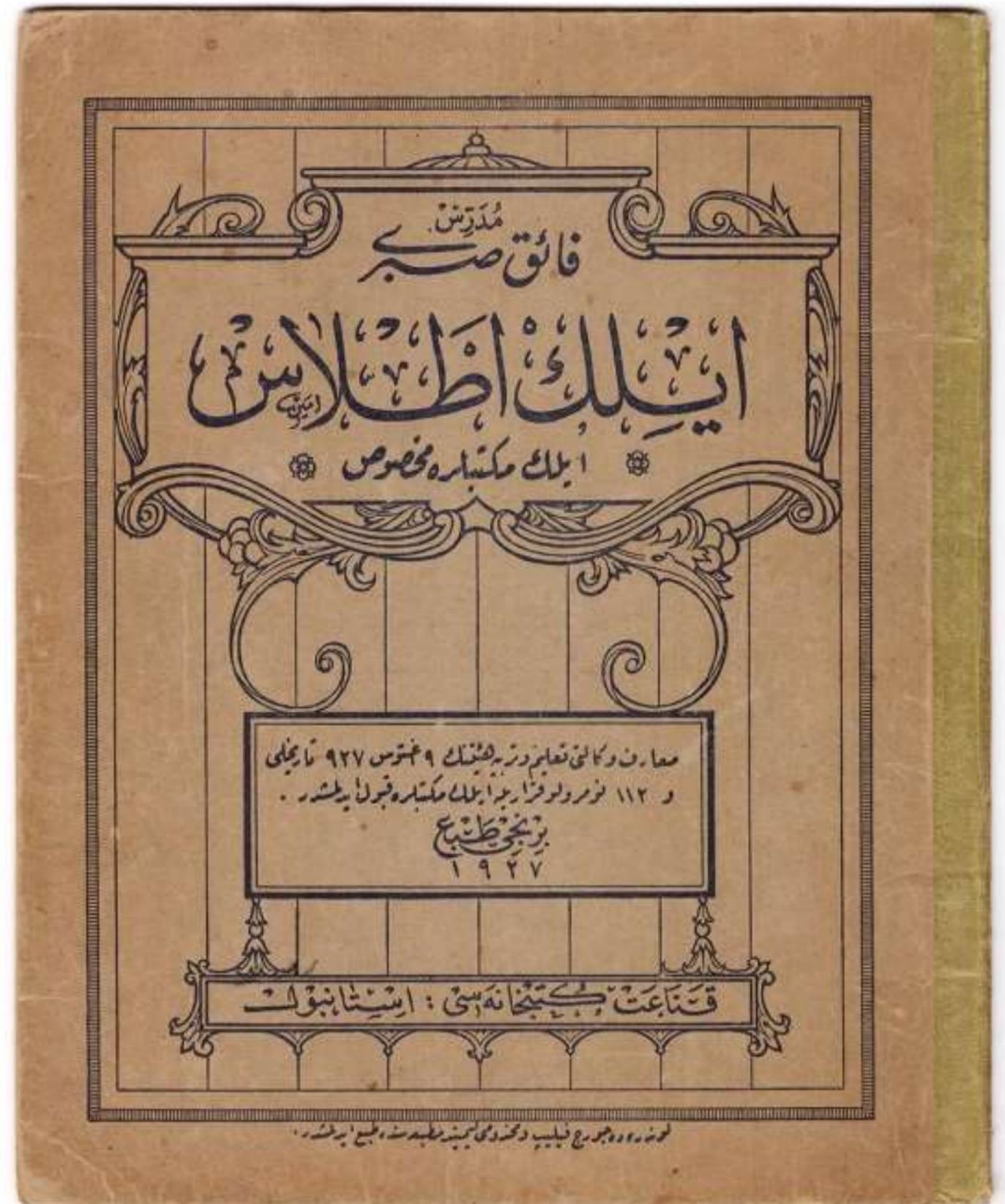
A beautifully designed elementary atlas for education of children in Turkish schools, was made in 1927 by a Turkish cartographer Faik Sabri Duran. It includes maps of the continents, two world maps and maps of climate. Some of the sizes of the continents are compared to the size of Turkey. The geographer Faik Sabri Duran was born in Üsküdar, Istanbul in 1882. He studied geography at the Sorbonne and was active in publishing articles for different magazines. He returned to Istanbul in 1912, but was invited to Germany as cartographer during WWI. With a German professor Erich Obst Duran established a department for Geography at the Istanbul University. He received 10 awards for his work by the sultan Abdülhamit. Duran participated at the First Geography Congress in 1941 and was one of the founders of the Turkish Geography Institute. After 1920 Duran spent a lot of time in Paris and London.

Faik Sabri Duran was an author of many books and atlases, which were the first modern school atlases for children. Duran believed in visual education and also included some tematical maps, based on the drafts he learned in his travelling abroad.

Faik Sabri Duran also insisted on same education of geography for boys and girls.

Duran's early atlases are rare. We could not find any examples of this atlas in libraries worldwide. The more common second edition was published in 1933 in Latin script.

350 EUR



18. TURKEY – STATISTICAL MINING ATLAS

معادن احصائياتي اطلسي [Maden Ihsaiyati Atlasi / Mining Atlas of Turkey].

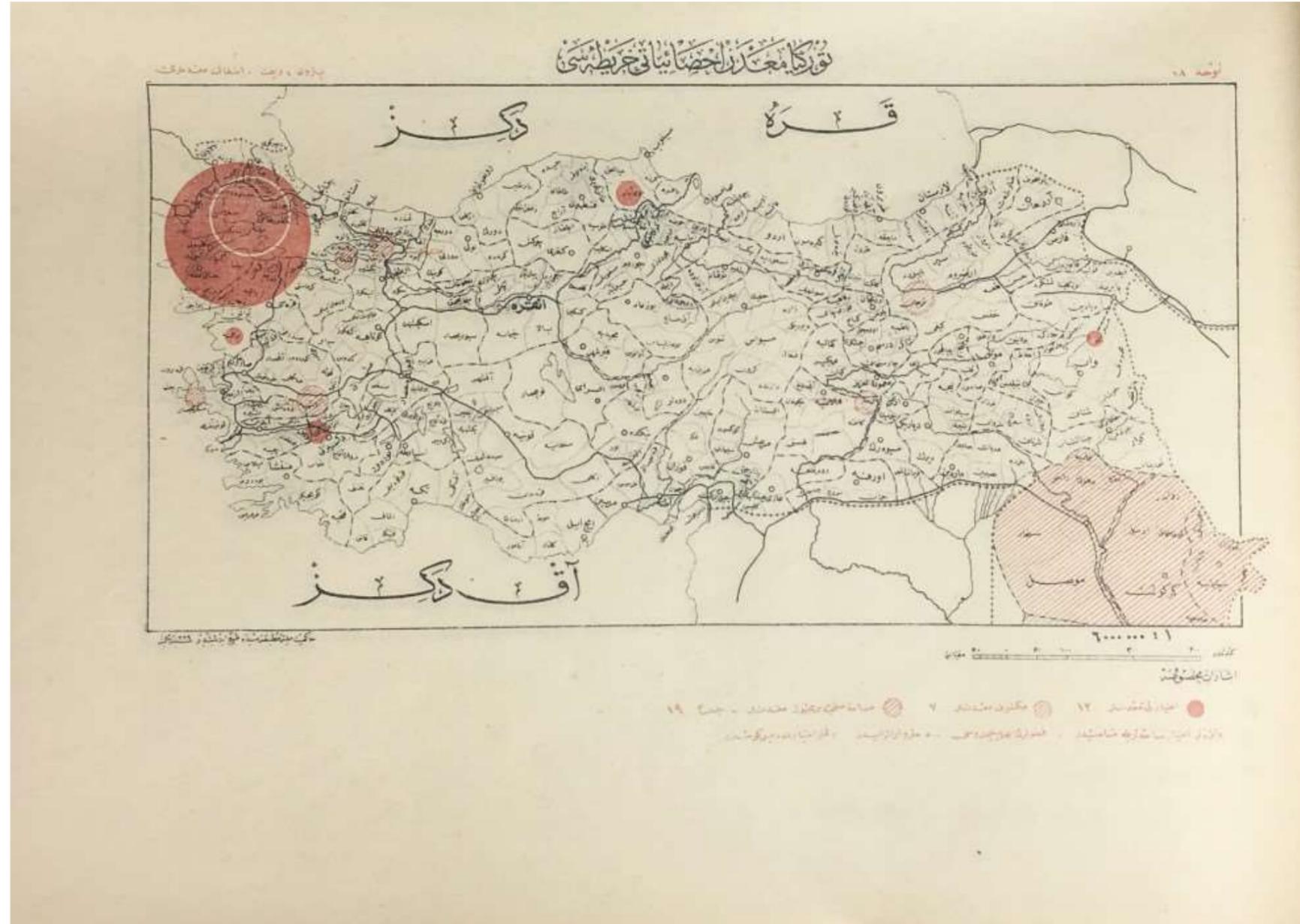
TURKIYE CUMHURİYETİ TICARET VEKÂLETİ [TURKISH REPUBLIC MINISTRY OF TRADE].

Ankara: Recep Zühdi Matbaası, 1340 [1924].

Extremely Rare – a highly sophisticated statistical mining and mineralogy atlas of the newly-founded Republic of Turkey, one of the earliest ‘Kemalist’ graphic scientific publications, and the first advanced thematic atlas ever produced in the Turkic world, printed in Ottoman Script shortly before that writing system was retired.

Oblong Small Folio (26 x 38.5 cm / 10 x 15 inches): Collation Complete - 36 maps (35 numbered, 1 unnumbered) each in bi-chrome off-set printing, bound in original salmon-coloured printed wrappers (Good, all maps generally clean and bright, just a few light marginal stains; covers with some reinstated loss at corners and some small closed tears).

This extremely rare and surprising statistical mining atlas is one of the most impressive works of Turkish thematic cartography, perfectly embodying the modernist, scientific ethic of the Kemalist regime that established the new Republic of Turkey in 1923, mere months before the present work was issued. The atlas was printed in Ankara for the Turkish Ministry of Trade, which oversaw the country’s mines and quarries, and is the result of an unprecedentedly thorough and accurate scientific assessment of the nation’s abundant mineralogical wealth, done in the effort to support President Kemal Mustafa Atatürk’s ambitions national economic development programme. Significantly, the present work is the first advanced thematic atlas ever created in the Turkic world.



The atlas is comprised of 36 sophisticated thematic maps, each based on the same template of a black skeleton map of the republic, divided into its provinces, upon which is over-printed (in colour) the particular thematic information that distinguishes each map. The maps illustrate a variety of themes including the distribution of particular minerals; the locations of mines and quarries; transportation and infrastructure; and the locations of factories and markets. Many of the plates are augmented by graphs that appear below the main map. In spite of the rudimentary nature of their off-set printing, executed in immediate post-war Ankara, the maps are impressively innovative and sophisticated thematic works. In sum, the atlas presents a valuable insight into Turkey’s economy on the eve of its Kemalist restructuring, and into the great value that the new regime placed upon science and cartography.

The atlas exclusively employs Ottoman Turkish script and is dated by the Ottoman Rumi Calendar (1340, roughly equivalent to the Gregorian year 1924). In 1927, Atatürk would replace the Ottoman script with the Latin Alphabet, and the Rumi with the Gregorian calendar, as part of his larger programme of Western-style modernizing reforms.

Historical Context: The New Republic of Turkey & Kemalism

The present atlas is one of the earliest and most impressive graphic scientific publications of the new ‘Kemalist’ regime that ruled Turkey from the early 1920s onwards. It was published only a matter months after the Turkish National Movement won the Turkish War of Independence (1919-23) and declared the foundation of the Republic of Turkey (October 29, 1923), a state that was to be reformed on radically modern, secular lines.

Science played a major role in the late Ottoman Empire, the massive, pan-national entity that the Republic of Turkey supplanted in Anatolia and Eastern Rumelia. However, the late Ottoman production of thematic cartography was quite limited and tended to be linked to episodic commercial projects or noble patronage, and often appeared within the context of value-laden narrative.

The new 'Kemalist' regime, so named for Mustafa Kemal 'Atatürk' (1881-1938), the Turkish National Movement's legendary leader and the founding president of the Turkish Republic, ushered in a radical state ideology that had profound ramifications for science and cartography. Kemalism was founded upon six fundamental pillars, or the 'Six Arrows': Republicanism; Populism; Nationalism; Secularism; Statism and Reformism. In short Atatürk sought to replace the ancient pan-national, religious and inefficient old Ottoman state with a modern, Westernized nation focused upon the popular aspirations of the Turkish people. The new state was to foster progress through education and economic development, backed by modern science and technology.

In 1924, Atatürk was hailed as hero by the vast majority of his people. However, he faced many forbidding challenges. The late war, which was both civil (Nationalists vs. Royalists) and a multi-fronted fight against external enemies (France, Britain, Greece, Armenia, and various Arabic entities) had caused immense physical destruction to the country and great dislocation to Turkey's workforce, resulting in high unemployment. The Ottoman Empire had also left the prime industrial entities with inherent inefficiencies that made them ill-suited to the Kemalist vision. Atatürk knew that he had to rapidly and radically reform and jump-start the national economy, otherwise popular support for his regime, and his radical agenda, would crumble.

Turkey was fortunate to possess an excellent location for global trade and was rich in natural and human resources. The new regime had to quickly take stock of both the readily exploitable and the latent potential of these resources in order to guide the new state enterprises and private consortiums that were to fuel the national economy.

Mining, metal refining and quarries were seen as especially important to the new Turkish economy. Anatolia lies along the geologically productive Alpine-Himalayan tectonic belt, and the region is home to 50 different metals and minerals that are commercially viable for exploitation; possesses 2.5% of the World's industrial raw material; 1% of its coal and 0.4% of its metallic mineral reserves (of which copper, gold, nickel and zinc were most important). Anatolia was also long a world leader in the production of natural stone, and, in particular, is the largest global source of marble.

This all being said, the Turkish state had to allocate the appropriate capital, human resources and infrastructure to efficiently exploit the nation's mineral wealth. The mines and quarries could provide hundreds of thousands of jobs, while the resulting raw materials could fuel factories, infrastructure development and exports (thus yielding foreign exchange).

Kemalist officials commenced their scientific appraisal of Turkey's mineral resources while the War of Independence was still ongoing. The Nationalists controlled most of the heart of Anatolia (containing the best mining areas) from

early on in the conflict, and the wartime priorities for these investigations concentrated on the acquisition of war materials.

As soon as the war ended, in May 1923, Atatürk placed oversight of Turkey's mines and quarries under the auspices of the incipient Ministry of Trade. The Ministry duly charged the nation's best engineers and geologists to gather the most authoritative information and to conduct field research of unprecedented scope and thoroughness, resulting in an accurate assessment of the Turkey's mining wealth, and importantly, how these resources could best be exploited.

The emphasis was on creating assessments based upon hard empirical data, as opposed to the value-laden assumptions and pseudo-science that often crept into late Ottoman projects. This new ethic was one of the triumphs of the early Kemalist era, during which Turkey experienced rapid modernization and economic growth, so redeeming Atatürk's vision.

The present atlas was the result of the expeditious, yet careful, work of Atatürk's scientists, and contains an unprecedented wealth of accurate and highly useful information on Turkey's natural resources and their efficient exploitation, all rendered as sophisticated thematic maps. Such an atlas would have been considered highly impressive in any Western industrialized state, but is here all the more amazing for its publication in Ankara (the new Turkish capital) only a matter of months after the end of the war.

The present atlas would have been considered immensely useful to Turkish government officials, corporate leaders, and those who managed infrastructure and trade. It set the gold standard for thematic cartography in Turkey that would develop in the coming decades.



A Note of Rarity

The present atlas is extremely rare. To our knowledge, an example has not appeared on the market outside of Turkey during the last generation. Online records of sales and institutional holdings within Turkey are not reliably available; however, a well placed-Istanbul collector, with 40 years of active experience, has informed us that he has never seen a complete example of the atlas on the market. An incomplete example (with only 26 maps) appeared in a Turkish auction in 2014. We can trace only 2 institutional examples of the atlas in the United States, at the Library of Congress and the University of Chicago Library.

References: Library of Congress: G2211.H1 M3 1924; OCLC: 964046270.

550 EUR

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