SPRING 2003 ISSUE No. 92

IM@S JOURNAL



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Journal of the International Map Collectors' Society

SPRING 2003 ISSUE No. 92

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Cover map: 'Alphonsus Lasor a Varea: Isola di Cipro', 1713. Courtesy Bank of Cyprus Cultural Foundation.

Copy and other material for our next issue (Summer) should be submitted by **15 April 2003**. All items for editorial use should be sent to The Editor, Susan Gole, **5 Dunn Cottages, Butterton Lane, Oakhanger, Crewe CW1 5UU**. Tel: (0)1270 878 465. Fax: (0)1270 878 467. E-mail: **susan@gole.fsnet.co.uk**
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From the Editor's Desk

Another year begins, and I hope it is a good one for all IMCoS members. There are many exciting meetings planned for 2003, and we hope that a large proportion of our members will be able to attend most of them. There are dark clouds over our heads at present, but perhaps they will disperse without disaster, so that we can enjoy our maps and our lives in peace. As a precaution, Hans Kok has prepared IMCoS Bulletin No. 8 which covers most of the commonly asked questions about how to insure our maps. It is included within this issue of the Journal, and will be sent as a separate leaflet with the Summer Journal.

Also in the issue we have one more paper from Amsterdam. It was, in fact, presented as two papers during the symposium, and gives an excellent introduction to the history of The Netherlands, why they place so much emphasis on their dykes, why they became so rich that the best early cartographers lived there, and how they came to acquire such a large empire overseas.

It is still early days to register for the 22nd International Symposium in Cyprus, but it would be a good idea to make sure you book a room in the hotel of your choice. They are all three very close to each other, and within easy walking distance of the Cultural Foundation where the sessions will be held. But make a note of the last date before the registration fee is increased (31 May), and make sure that you send in your completed form and payment before that date.

With this issue comes the registration form for the June weekend. The Map Fair will again be held at Olympia, as it provides much more space than we used to have, and the weekend will therefore be organised around it. Two young speakers have been invited to present papers. I am sure you all agree on the need to encourage more young people to take an interest in early maps, and will make a point of coming to hear what they have to say. Both the topics sound fascinating, and I hope there will be a large attendance. The Dinner will be more informal this year, and in a new location. The Fair will be held over two days, with a preview for members only on Saturday afternoon. Bookings for stands are well up this year, and we expect it to be a very profitable event for both buyers and sellers.

I would like to thank all our members who have sent me material for the Journal. I now have a couple of items lined up already for the Summer issue (something that has been very rare in the past). If any cartographic event is likely to take place near where you live, do let me have information about it in time to let other members know. Or if one has already taken place, send me a report. If you have queries about one of your maps, and can't get to the London Collectors' Evening, send them in, perhaps with a photograph, and another reader may be able to help you. As Editor, I am dependent on members' contributions, so please keep them coming, to make our Journal even better.

SUSAN GOLE

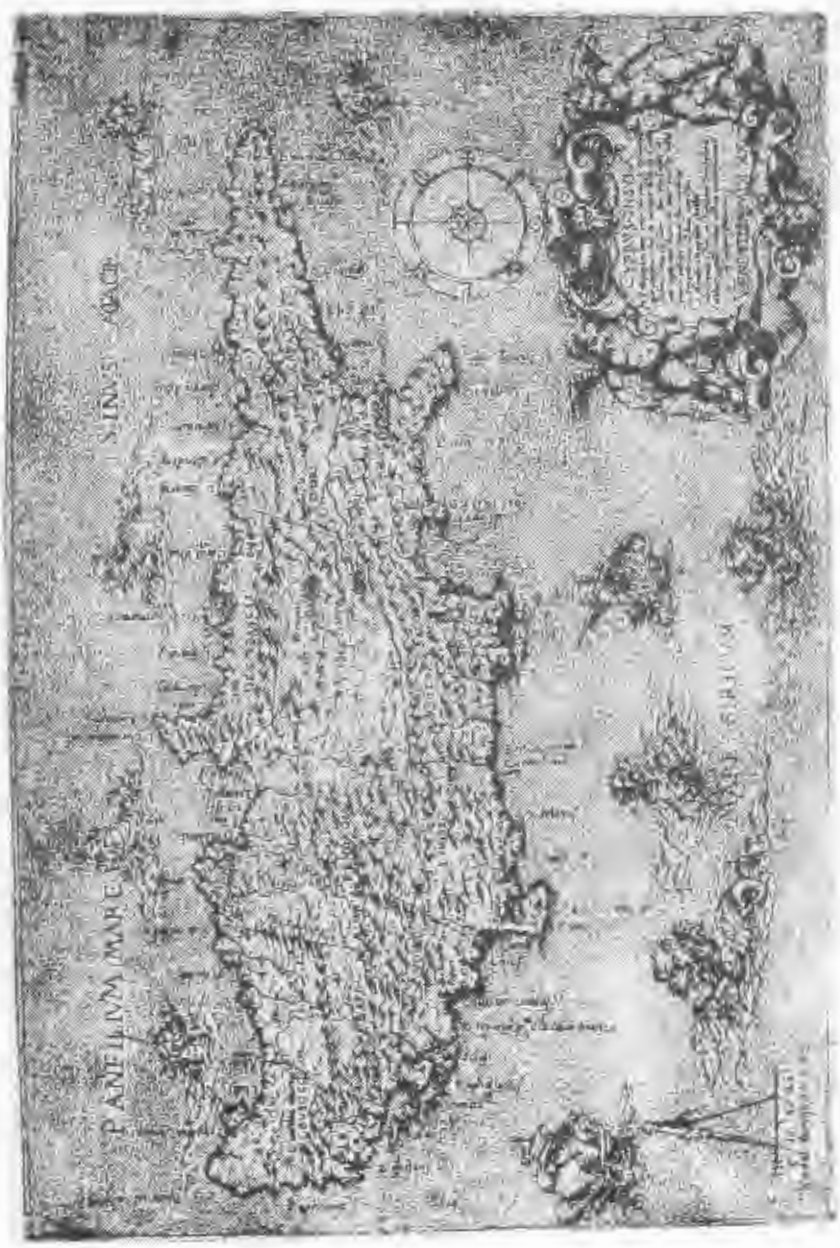
Cover map: Alphonsus Lasor a Varea (Savonarola), 'Isola di Cipro', Patavia, 1713. Orig. Size: 205x152 mm.

'The case of Lasor, pseudonym of Innocenzo Rafaele Savonarola, is a fine example that illustrates the reuse of old plates of the end of the 16th century in books of the 18th century. There are various items concerning Cyprus in Lasor's book, *Universus Terrarum Orbis*. In Volume I there is a map of Cyprus first published in Venice *ca* 1590 in *Raccolta de Disegni ... da Venetia a Constantinopoli* (same map as in the *Viaggio*, entry 18 fig. 21); and also the present map of Cyprus which, though slightly reworked, is the map engraved by Natale Bonifacio whose monogram, 'N.B.F.' occurs at the bottom left corner. This map was originally published by Felice Brunelo *ca* 1570 in Venice. It was subsequently used in various isolaria at the end of the 16th century and here it is re-employed by Lasor with the legend 'T.1. Pag. 315' engraved in the upper left corner of the map surface.'

From *The Bank of Cyprus Cultural Foundation Collections. Vol I: Maps and Atlases*. Compiled by Dr Andreas Hadjipaschalis and Dr Maria Iacovou.

Nadal[e] Bonifacio S[ibenisensis], 'Cyprus Insula, ... Venetiis MDLXX', Venice, 1570.

'A very rare map, of which this is the seventh copy known. It is based on an anonymnous manuscript map preserved in the Bibliothèque Nationale which is itself a larger version of a map by Paolo Forlani. All three of these items were made in Venice in the course of 1570, the year the Venetians lost Cyprus to the Turks. The contents of Bonifacio's map are the same as on Forlani's map; they indicate the eleven medieval districts of Cyprus, not to be found even in later maps of the island which are more detailed and advanced in other respects.'
From *Atlases and Maps, entry 7, fig. 8.*



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Pump or drown
The waterlogged history of Holland

The part of the Netherlands that borders the North Sea also lies below sea level (Fig. 1a). During a long-duration north-westerly storm – the prevailing wind in winter – Great Britain and Scandinavia function as the barrels of a gun and funnel water from the Atlantic and the North Sea on to the Dutch coast (Fig. 2). A probable future is sketched in Fig. 1b with 50 percent of our country permanently drowned by the sea. The sandy islands ringing the coast will be washed away by the strong sea current. Another 16 percent of the country may then be temporarily flooded when the dikes along the rivers fail after an exceptionally heavy rainfall of long duration in Western Europe.

Our perilous situation is unique in the world. Its daily consequences are relevant for every Dutchman, since there is no natural way for rain and seepage water to drain out of this large sink. Our water boards have to pump the excess water into the sea, day in day out. Most of us Dutchman take it for granted, however. Many are not even aware of it, although each household pays the yearly tax levied by its district water board.

How did this risky situation come about and how do the Dutch cope?

During the period of the Ice Ages (the Pleistocene) the Rhine river deposited a thick layer of sand on the Netherlands and its surroundings. This layer still extends far into the North Sea.

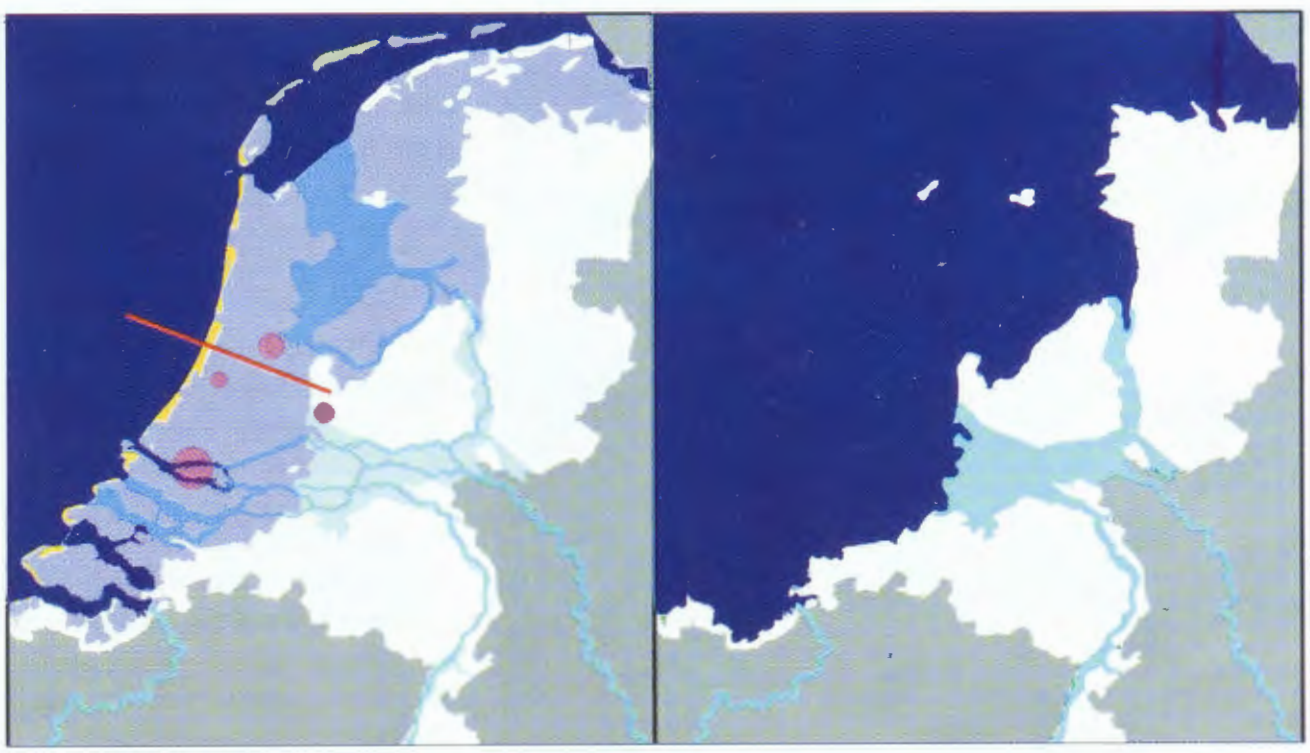


Fig. 1 (left) a. A country at risk, (right) b. The probable future. Dark blue: North Sea; purple: land below sea level; lighter blue colours: fresh water lake and rivers; yellow: dunes; white: sand; grey: other countries. Circles: the cities of Amsterdam (above), Leiden (left), Utrecht (right) and Rotterdam (below). Line indicates position of cross-section (see Fig. 5).



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Its surface slopes down towards the north and the west. After the last Ice Age the melting ice caps caused the sea to rise again. Between the year 10,000 B.C. and today the sea level increased by 55 m up to its present level (Fig. 2).

A strong tidal current runs in a north-easterly direction along the sandy coast and erodes it. Some sand was blown onto the land, which created the coastal dunes. The remainder was and is carried forward to form 'eastward walking' sandy islands, much like the whirls of smoke flowing out of a pipe. Between those islands and the coast many mudflats were (and are still) formed: the so-called Wads. At about the year zero the coast was nearly closed (Figs. 3 and 6a). Today the coastline has retracted several km due to erosion by the tidal current. To counteract the erosion we need to supply our coast each winter season with several million m^3 of sand.

Behind the dunes and along the mudflats the rivers and the rain formed a swamp in which peat formation occurred. This wetland of peat bogs, mudflats and changing islands gradually became the home of the Friesians (Fig. 4), a Teutonic tribe which emigrated from Scandinavia several centuries before the beginning of the western calendar.

After the decline of the Roman Empire another Teutonic (i.e. German) tribe, the Franks ('Braves'), migrated into France. Their influence extended into the southern part of the Netherlands (Fig. 4). A third tribe, the Saxons ('Sword-carriers') spread into present Germany and occupied the eastern part of the Netherlands. The Frankish emperor Charlemagne (768-814) instituted the first feudal estates, many of which became future (mini-) states and are still present as provinces. The Friesians, however, always strove to maintain their independence, also among each other. Their kings were generals, chosen only when necessary and then for a limited period only on meetings called Dings or Things, a democratic structure, which survived in Iceland. Although the Friesian 'farmer republics' became in later times restricted to the northern part of the Netherlands, the 'federal peer democratic' nature remained the way of life within the coastal region. The Friesians were fisherman and traders. They dominated transit trade by ship in north-west Europe in the period between the decline of the Roman Empire until the raids by the Norman (Vikings), i.e. from about 450 to about 850 A.D.

Captions to Figs 2 and 7 on page 8.

Fig. 2. Formation of the North Sea.
B: Belgium; D: Denmark; G: Germany; GB: Great Britain; NL: The Netherlands. Green: an older branch of the Rhine river. Contours sketched in part after Zagwijn, 1991.

Fig. 7. A 4.5 km long stretch of coastline along the western border of the Zuyderzee (*Historical Atlas*, 1990).
The flow through the dike bursts cut out pools coloured light blue by the author. They were deep so the new dike was laid along one side. Seaside pools (sketched) were quickly filled up with sand and disappeared. Those on the landside took much longer to be filled (transparent colour) and are still visible because of their ditch structure and their lower level. Recent pools are still present today.

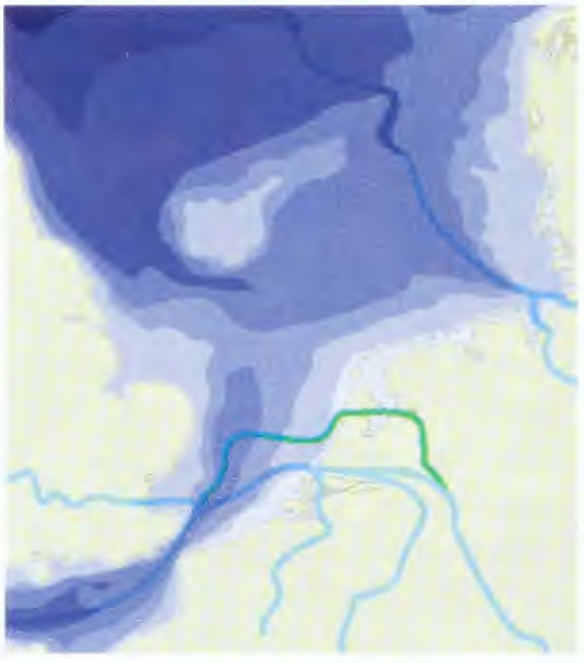


Fig. 2.



Fig. 7.

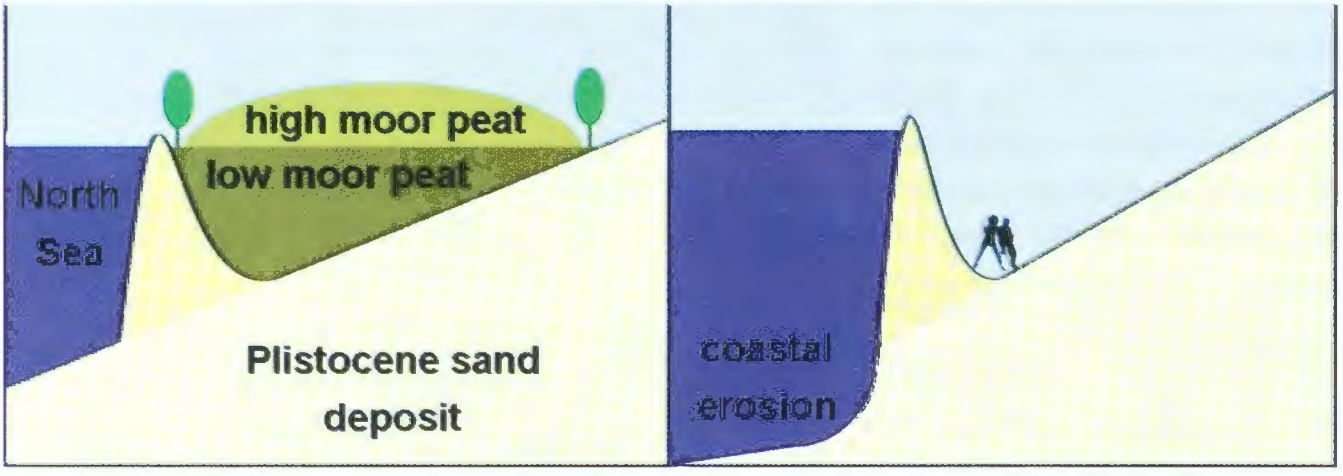


Fig. 5. Simplified cross-section through Holland (see Fig. 1) at A.D. 0 (left) and today (right, with coastal erosion and new dune formation) Dimensions: left to right (west to east) 100 km, vertical 20 m

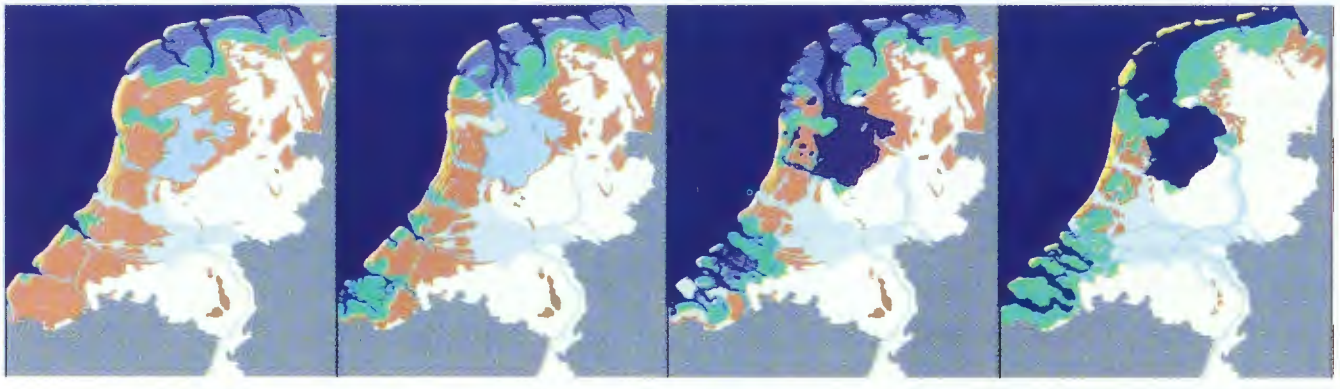


Fig. 6 (from the left) a: 100 A.D. b: 600 A.D. c. 1200 A.D. d. 1900 A.D. Simplified description of the development of the Netherlands Dark blue: sea and (lighter) wads, green: mudflats, brown: peat bogs, light blue: freshwater lake, greyish blue: river beds, white: sand. Drawn after Zagwijn, 1991 (a-c) and Bosatlas, 1995 (d).

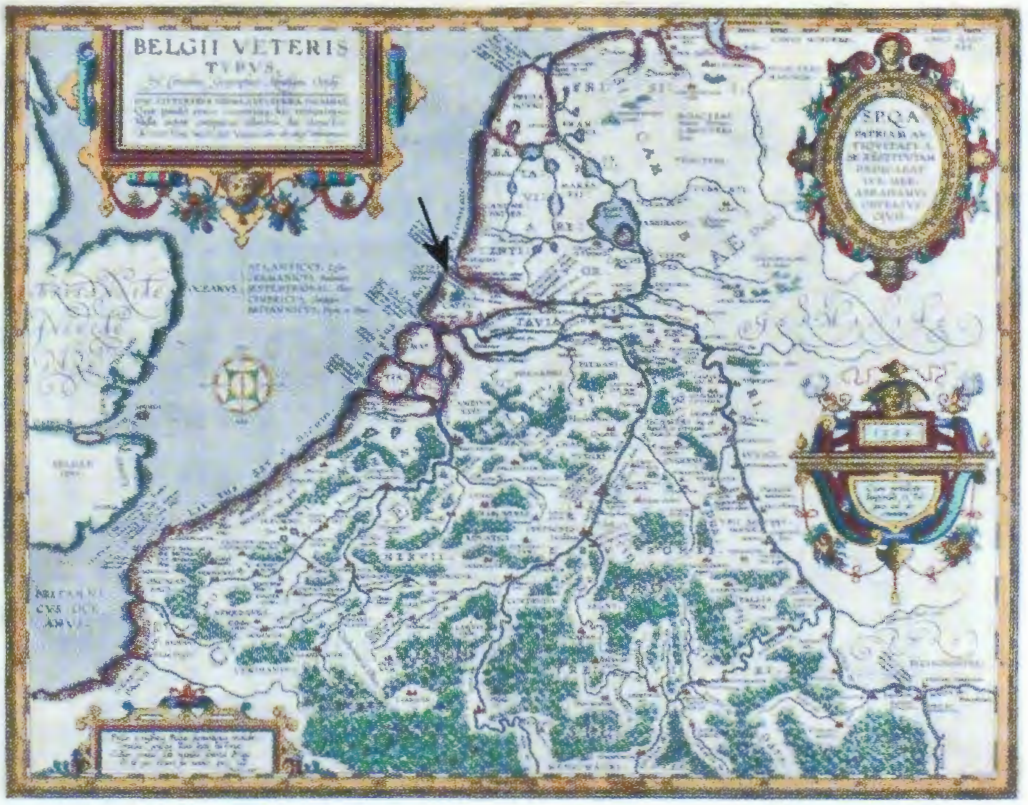


Fig. 3. The Netherlands at the beginning of our era (Ortelius, 1954).
The arrow (drawn by the author) indicates the Roman fortification at Katwijk.
Coastal erosion left it on today's North Sea bottom.

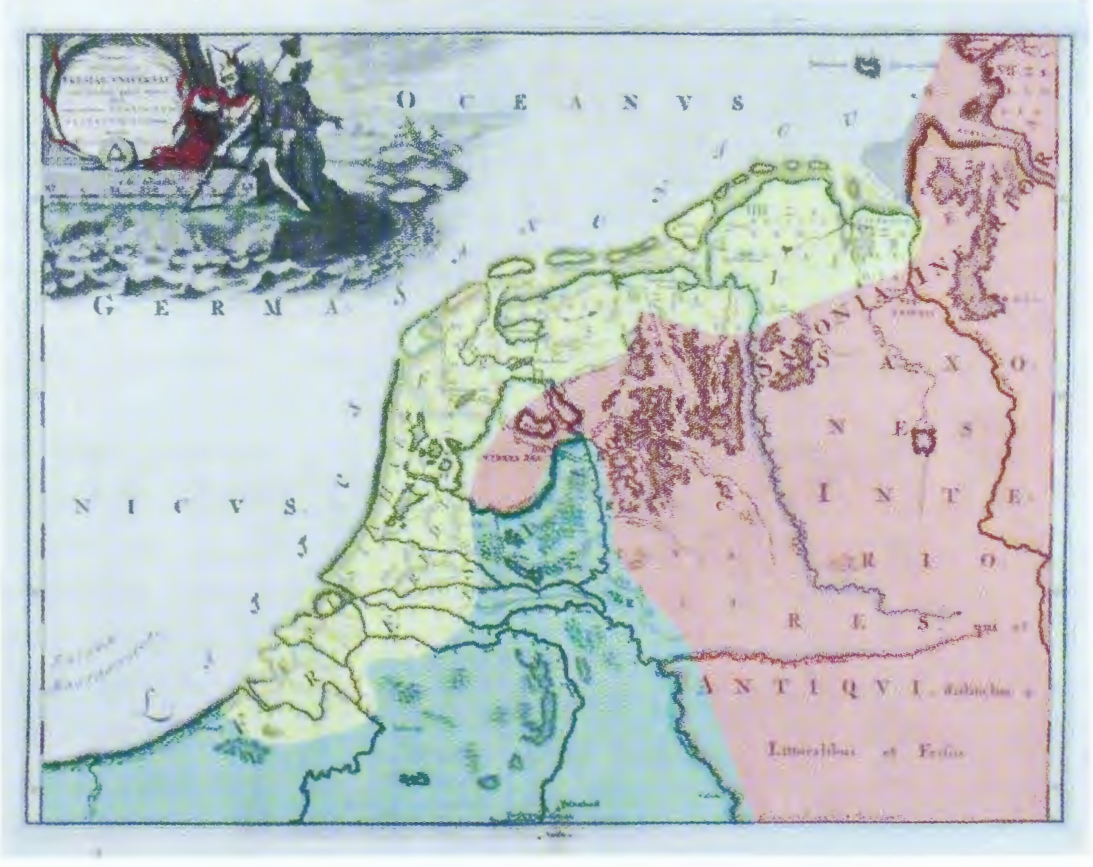
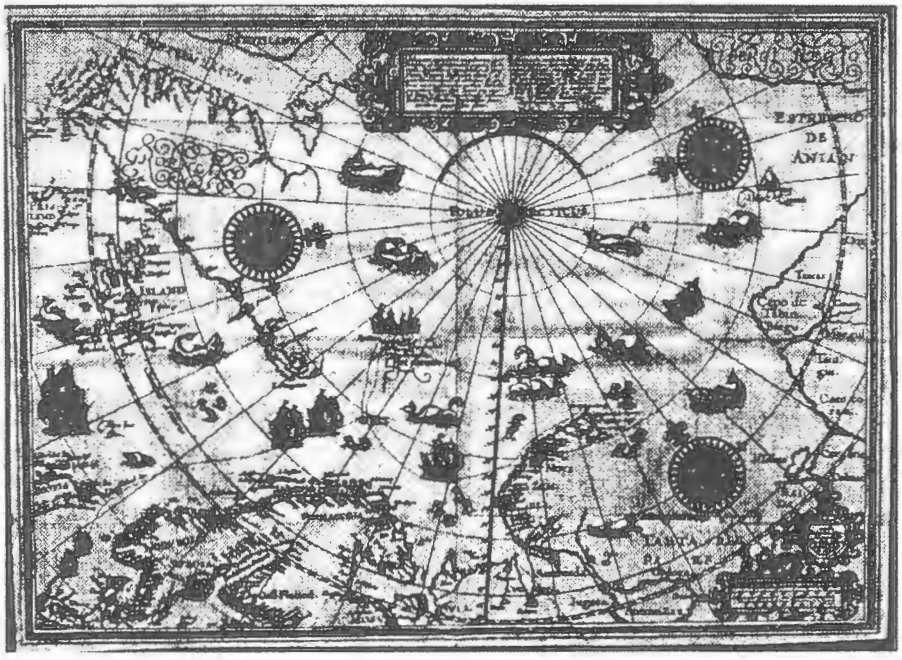


Fig. 4. The Netherlands during the reign of Charlemagne.
Distribution of the three tribes: yellow: Friesians; green: Franks; red: Saxons.
Coloured by the author on a historical map by Alting from ca. 1700.

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The Friesians exported leather and skins from cattle they raised on the mudflats in the north, and salt. In the south-west they mined salty peat which they burned to cook sea water in which they mixed the ashes. The sea replaced the mined flats as a result. Storm surges confounded this situation. This led to our first large-scale ecological disaster: the nearly complete loss to the sea of the present-day province of Zeeland ('Sea-land', Fig. 12) between the years 0 and 1500 (cf. the lower left corners in Figs. 6a-c). Their total export of salt is estimated at 60 billion kg, an average of 40 million kg per year during a period of 1500 years!

Reclamation started at about 1100 A.D. Much land though not all was regained by the erection of 'offensive' dikes around newly deposited mudflats in the region (Figs. 6c and d). Hence the national motto of the people of Zeeland: 'Luctor et Emergo' i.e. 'I struggle and emerge (out of the water)'.

Another ecological disaster was in the making when the coastal inhabitants developed the peat bogs (Fig. 5) for agriculture. Peat consists of a compressed layer of the remnants of plants that grew in the shallow lakes behind the dunes. Since the remnants are submerged in water that is oxygen depleted no further breakdown occurs and thick packets of dense 'low moor' peat are the result. When the packet rises above groundwater level only one single plant species – Sphagnum – is able to grow on it. This moss absorbs and grows on rainwater only. Its remnants also form peat, now drenched in oxygen depleted rainwater. As a result the top of the swamp may reach a height of several meters above the groundwater, hence sea-, level. This so-called high moor peat lacks nutrients and forms a prime-quality fuel with a quite low ash content.

The peat was too wet for agriculture, so from about 800 A.D. the farmers dug ditches to drain the land, as well as quays to prevent inflow of water from higher parts of the peat bog. This worked quite well, but generated serious side effects. Subsidence occurred because the water leaked away. The drainage also allowed the entrance of air into the peat soil. Since air contains oxygen the peat slowly decomposed into water and carbon dioxide and disappeared. Subsidence increased even more and the level of the soil gradually approached the new groundwater level. The ditches were, hence, dug out even more and the cycle repeated itself. The average level of the peat bogs ultimately came down to average sea level, which made natural drainage impossible, while storm surges started to cause the sea to occasionally flow over the land. From 1000 A.D. so-called 'defensive' dikes were built to stem the sea, for seawater poisons the soil. In our country it takes about ten years of rain to wash the salts away.

The gradual increase of sea level and the sinking of our part of the continental plate, though both are not noticeable within a single decade, aggravate our situation. From 1100 A.D. dams with self-regulating sluices that closed at high tide and opened at low tide were built in the natural outlets to the sea. Cities arose around these dams and were called after it. Amsterdam and Rotterdam, for instance, are contractions from the original names



Fig. 8. Water Board of Rijnland.
Light blue: reservoir (note its complex structure, surrounding the individual polders), arrows: pumping stations (upper arrows: into North Sea Canal, lower arrow: into and inlet from Rhine River). Upper left: North Sea, light red: Amsterdam, dark red: Leiden. Modified 1884 map after Beekman 1932.



Fig. 10. The County of Holland. Letters Z = Zeeland, H = Holland proper and WF = West Friesland were drawn by the author on the map by Maurik from 1610-1612.



Fig. 9. Dutch transit trade by sea.
The arrow indicates the Mediterranean and the Levant trade.
Drawing by the author on the map by Blaeu from between 1631 and 1661.

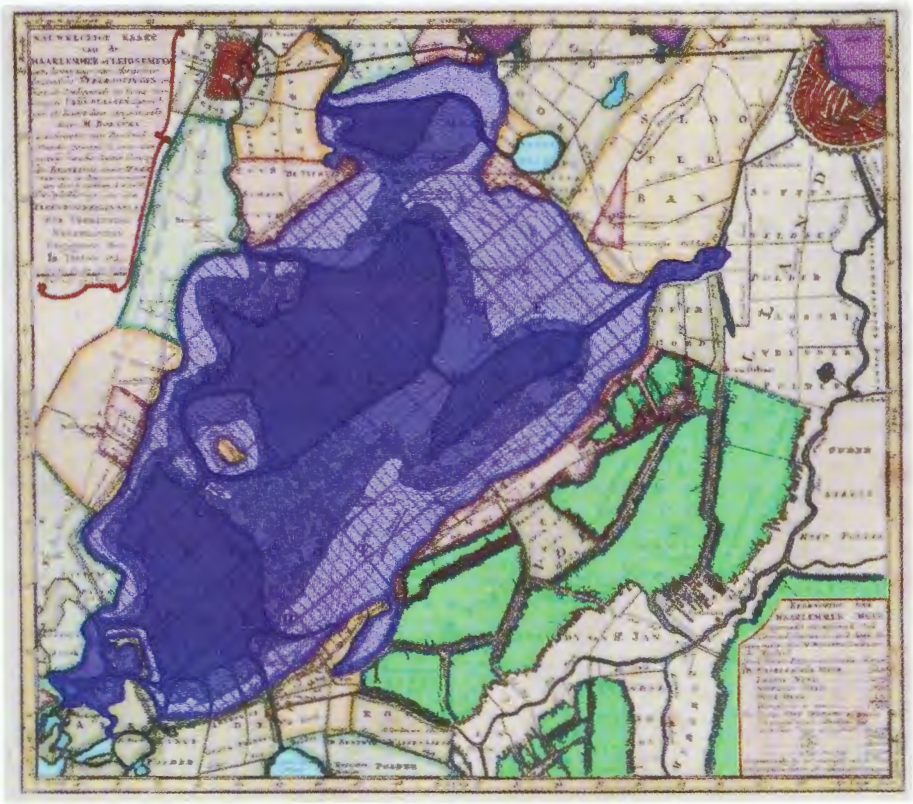


Fig. 11. Increase in size of the Haarlemmermeer ('Haarlem Lake'). Situation in 1531 (dark blue), 1591 (lighter), 1610, 1647, 1687 (indicated by lines) and 1745 (still lighter). Other lakes are coloured light blue. The increase in size of the Haarlemmermeer not only endangered Amsterdam (upper right) and Leiden (just off the lower left corner) but also the lakes generated by peat mining (green) as well as the polders east of the lake. Pumping into the IJ-lagoon in the North (purple) drained the lake. Colouring by the author on the map by Tirion from 1974.



Fig. 12. The seventeen territories of the Low Countries, including the seven states of the Federal Republic of the United Netherlands (1581-1795). Clockwise from above left of centre: Zeeland, Holland, Friesland, Groningen, Overijssel, Gelderland (Gelre) and Utrecht. Coloured by the author on a map by Blaeu from between 1642 and 1662.

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Amstel-Re-Dam and Rotte-Re-Dam, respectively, meaning Amstel- and Rotte-River-Dam.

Each area enclosed by dikes in which the water level was regulated became know as a 'polder'. The participants, the farmers and when present, representatives of the city voted their delegates onto the polder board. The size of the vote and the corresponding tax levied by the board depended upon size and value of the protected property. Conflicting interests between different polders necessitated cooperation on a larger scale. This led to the formation of larger water boards. The water boards regulated the water level in the widely branched reservoir into which the individual polders drained and kept the offensive dikes against the sea and along the large rivers in good condition. Members of a water board were voted by and taxed the much larger number of participants according to the same rules. Polder and water boards, still very much in action today, hence form our oldest democratic institutions.

A legendary (?) farmer lived at about 900 A.D. on a farm he called 'Hol(t)land' situated north of today's city of Leiden (cf. Fig. 1). He and his successors became the self-made Counts of Holland. They carved this state, Holland, out of the larger feudal estate of Utrecht (cf. Fig. 1). The name Holland means either woodland or hollow land, where 'hollow' probably describes the uneven surface of the original moorland. These also literally borderline counts kept the welfare of the local population at heart, in contrast with the attitude of the 'continental' nobility, who even murdered one of the Counts of Holland because of his attitude. In 1018 the Counts learned that the swamps were valuable in defence. The farmers of Count Dirk III of Holland won a pitched battle against Lorraine, for the heavily armoured knights got bogged down in the mud.

Between 1162 and 1248 several heavy storm surges caused the sea to cut through the northern islands and wads and transformed the central Lake Almere (Figs. 6a and b) into a dangerous estuary, the Zuyderzee ('Southern Sea', Figs. 6c and d). This extended the coastal area. Several inland states also became coastal ones (cf. Fig. 12). Since the Zuyderzee also acted as a second catchment basin for the input of seawater during north-western storm surges, additional dike bursts and inundations became our fate (Figs. 7 and 15).

The whole western part of the Netherlands was broken into a series of islands (details not visible in Fig. 6), either bordered by the sea (West Friesland and Zeeland, Fig. 10) or by both sea and rivers (central part, the original state of Holland).

One of the main interests of the Counts of Holland was the defence against the sea. They were instrumental in the promotion of the building of dikes and the formation of the water boards. Our oldest water board 'Rijnland' (Fig. 8) owes its formal existence to a charter issued in 1255 by Count William II of Holland.

After the 12th and 13th century storm surges, transport by boat, already unavoidable, became a way of life and so was trade. The average subsidence of the soil already had about reached sea level. The fields became

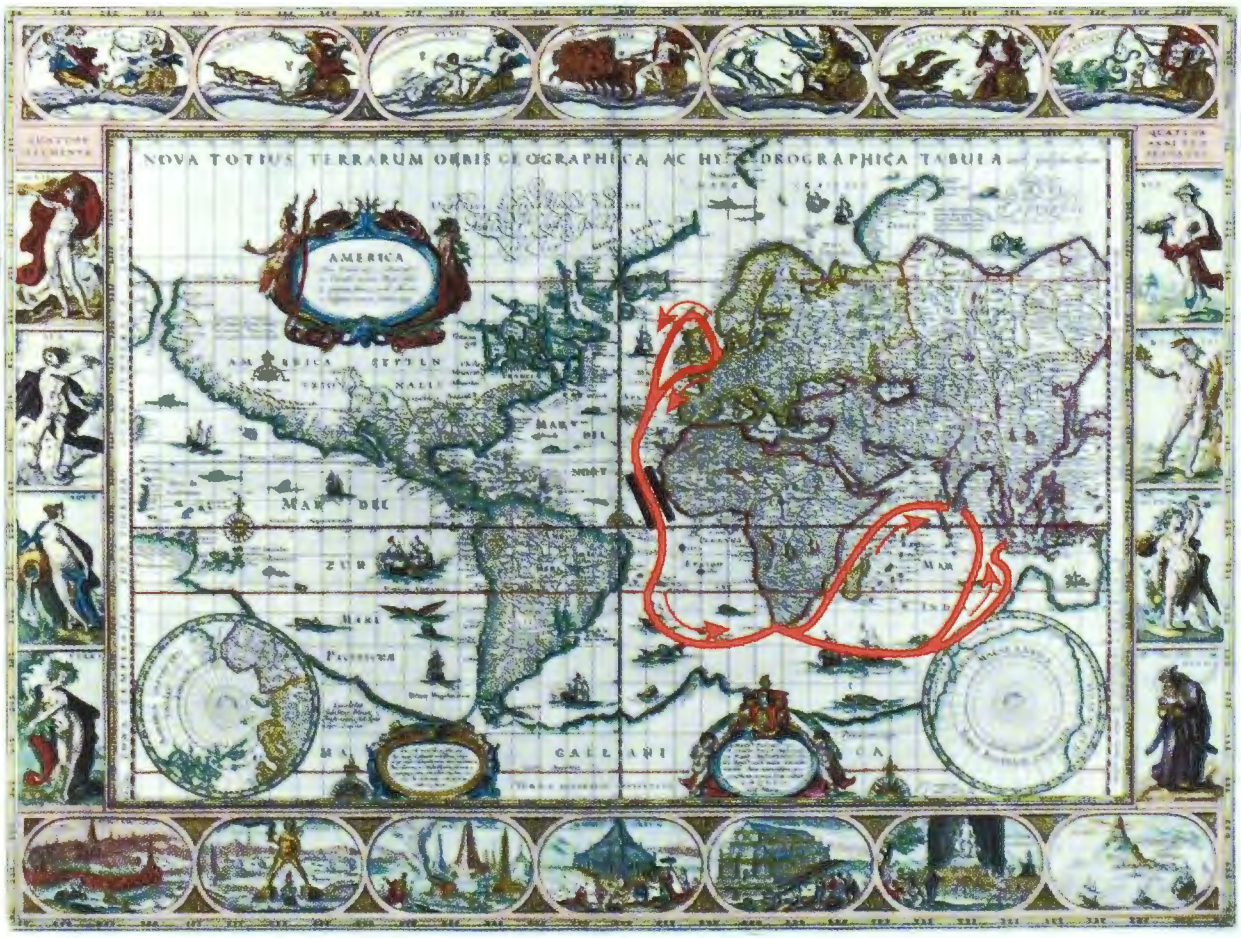


Fig. 13. Sea-lanes of the VOC to the Far East.
The ships had to sail between the two imaginary barriers (black) to prevent the arrival on the coasts of Africa or South America. After data from Gaastra drawn by the author on the map by Blaeu from between 1631 and 1649.

too wet for agriculture and fit for cattle only. The import of grain became of paramount importance to feed the growing population. The Counts of Holland again did not follow convention. They actively stimulated transit trade, especially Count William III (1304-1337). The stormy North Sea and the need to trade in bulk stimulated the development of sturdy ships with a large carrying volume. These boats turned out to be able to withstand the recoil of heavy cannon and were, hence, fitted out with many of them. In several cities of Holland and Zeeland the local merchants formed trading corporations to equip armed cargo fleets. The cities hence engaged on their own account in wars at sea, for instance to break the blockade of the Baltic to reach the granary of Russia. The transit trade in bulk and the availability of peat as a cheap source of energy quickly made the (inhabitants of the) cities and countries very wealthy. They were not affected by the economical recession of 14th century Europe, nor devastated by the Black Death (the plague) which had decimated Europe in the middle of the 14th century. The Dutch dominated West-European trade during the next four centuries (Fig. 9). From 1350 on the County of Holland was the great power at sea (Fig. 10) until Great Britain assumed this role in 1715.

The secretary of Count William III was the first of a long series of merchants who earned a fortune. He and his colleagues became wealthy enough to finance European kings and their wars. This financial support resulted in the relative independence of Holland after the last Count of Holland died in 1299 and the territories of the Low Countries formally succeeded to 'continental' monarchs. The Counts had, in the mean time increased their territory with Zeeland (which kept its territorial integrity, however), and with West-Friesland (Fig. 10).

Participation of the territories in government, based on local traditions, became official under Philip 'The Good One' of Burgundy (1428-1467). He instituted advisory sessions on the state of each of the 17 territories of the Low Countries (the word 'Low' means 'Near' Brussels) approximated by the Benelux (Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg), the so-called State meetings (today: Provincial council). Hence the origin of the word 'state' to denote a country and its government. In 1466 the first general meeting of the states of the Low Countries took place in Brussels, the 'States General', which is still the name of our parliament ('Staten-Generaal').

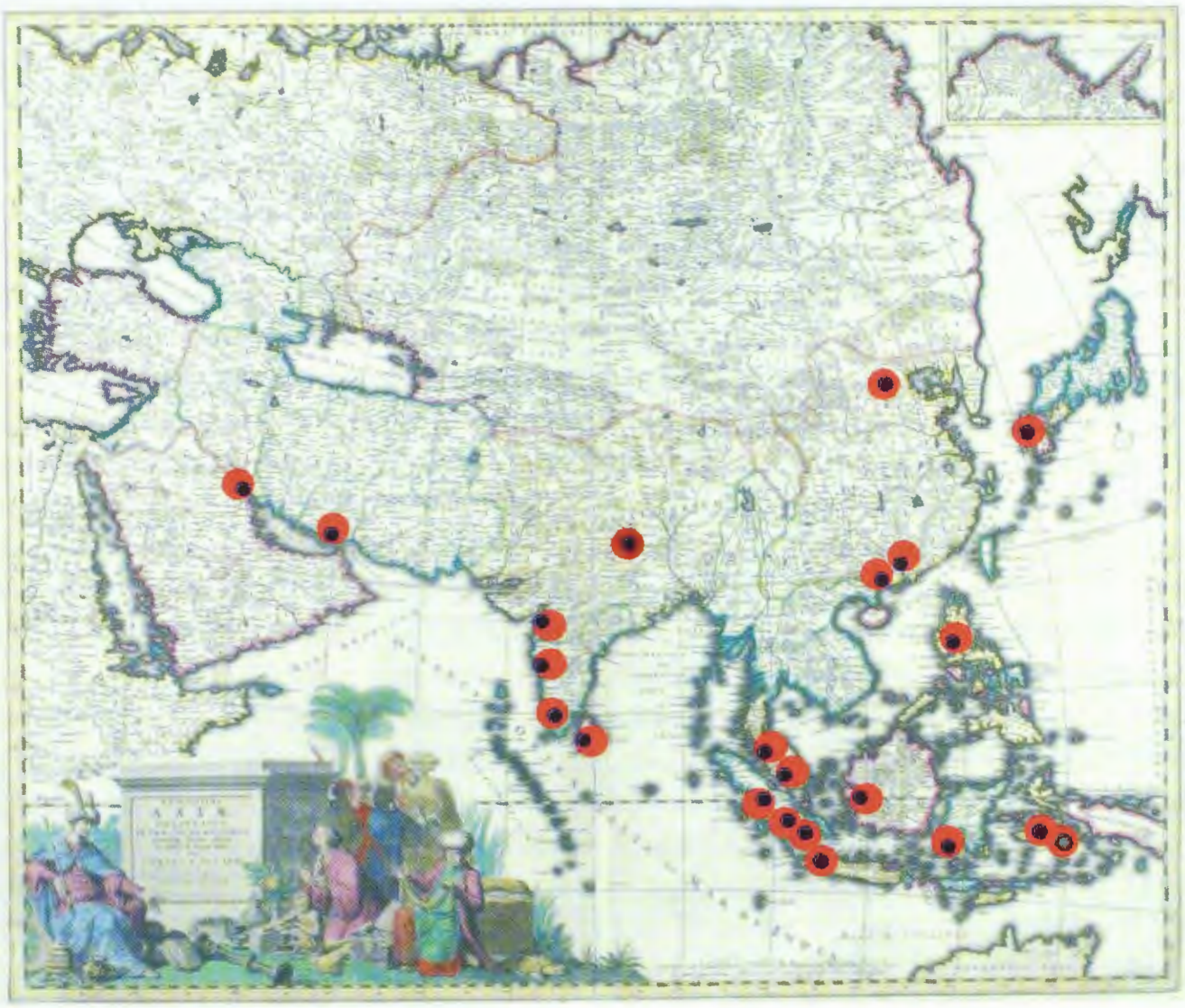


Fig. 14. Trading stations of the VOC in the Far East. After data by Gaastra drawn by the author on the map by C. Allard from between 1691 and 1706.

After 1407 the windmill came into general use, both industrial (it functioned, for instance, in the large shipbuilding industry at the Zaan region north of Amsterdam) and as polder mills to pump water from the polder into the reservoir as well as from the reservoir into the sea. Wet peat soils could, again, be used for agriculture, with the unavoidable activation of the vicious subsidence cycle. The average level of the peat soil crossed sea level at the end of the 15th century as a result (cf. Fig. 15).

Wood had been used as a source of fuel and of building material for many centuries. The woods hence disappeared. Energy remained cheap, however, not only because the wind was extensively used but also because huge amounts of peat were locally available without heavy transport costs. Bricks made of high peat had already been in use since the 14th century. In the 16th century the mining of wet peat for the production of peat bricks was initiated on a large scale, especially in the southern part of Holland. The peat was mined away down to the sandy bottom. This activity not only resulted in the loss of arable soil, but also created many lakes (coloured green in Fig. 11). Storms washed their sides away, creating vast lakes out of the collections of smaller ones (different intensities of dark blue in Fig. 11). Laws issued to regulate peat mining could not prevent these processes, for both population and industry (such as metalworking for cannon, guns and other weapons) needed the bricks in quantity.

The Low Countries succeeded to Charles V of Habsburg, born in Gent (Flanders), who was appointed Lord of the Netherlands in 1515. He was also King of Spain and Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire (Germany). Note that the self-assured Dutchmen of those times mentioned his titles in that order. On 26 June 1548 Charles V decided that the 17 territories of the Netherlands formed a self-governing entity, the Low Countries (Fig. 12). He abdicated in 1555 in favour of his Spanish son Philip II, who became King of Spain. Philip was an absolute monarch, who did not recognise the rights and privileges of his territories. He also wanted to eradicate the Protestants, who had obtained a firm foothold in the Netherlands. This resulted in the Eighty Years' War with Spain (1568-1648). Intermediary at first and, later, leader of the revolt was Prince William of Orange. The seven northern and coastal states formalised their defensive union at Utrecht in 1759. Since King Philip remained unmoved these states took, for monarchical Europe, an unheard of measure in 1581. They abjured monarchy and created the Federal Republic of the United Netherlands (Fig. 12), which from its very beginning was wealthy and powerful. It was a defensive union with autonomous territories and cities, each with its own council. The council of the union itself, the 'Staten Generaal', also governed by common consent. The resulting 'governmental chaos' proved to be quite effective, with tolerance as a spin-off. The Prince of Orange was appointed 'Stadhouder' (from the French 'lieu-tenant', 'to keep the place (out of the hands of the enemy)') and functioned as General of the Army. He was in fact the States' highest civil servant. Like Switzerland and England, the Federation remained an anomaly in monarchical Europe till 1795.

The Dutch merchants were the European distributors of among other goods the spices imported by Portugal and Spain

from the Far East, after their 16th century oceanic discoveries. Business went on as usual during the war with Spain. Dutch traders even kept selling weapons to their enemies (!). In 1585, however, Spain specifically blocked the spice trade with the Dutch. Ten years later, in 1595 merchants of the Dutch merchant cities formed groups (to spread the risks) to send their own armoured merchant fleets to the Far East (Fig. 13). Each city initially formed its own fleet, one per expedition. Each fleet was at first managed by a peer group of officers and merchants, just like a city. To facilitate decision making an admiral was, however, quickly added to the council.

In 1602 the seven merchant cities (situated in Holland and Zeeland) decided to co-operate and they formed the VOC, the Dutch East Indies Company, which on October 8, 1602, issued the first stock certificates, a world première. The company was ruled by an anonymous group of 17 representatives of the seven cities, the 'Heren XVII' ('The Gentleman Seventeen'). At each session a representative of the hosting city functioned as temporary president. This company, active from 1602 to 1799 became extremely powerful (Fig. 14), though the British East India Company founded in 1600 became a serious competitor after 1650. A similar merchant company (the WIC or Dutch West Indies Company) was formed in 1621 to explore the west. One of their trading stations was New Amsterdam (1626), in 1673 called New York after an exchange with the British for Dutch New Guinea (Surinam).

The period from 1581–1715 became known as 'The Golden Century', despite the on-going war with Spain and the havoc created by the storm surges during the 'Little Ice Age' (1400–1720) (Fig. 15). Trade through the use of cargo ships within Europe had already made the Federation the wealthiest nation of Europe. Amsterdam became its financial centre. Its exchange office created dependable money and transactions. Canals to generate reliable public transport by towing barges connected the cities. They were run on a tight time schedule. The night in the cities disappeared for the first time in history after Jan van der Heyden invented an effective oil lamp for streetlights. Industrial windmills powered saws and forges, among other businesses. The shipyards in the Zaan region were run like modern assembly lines and it took only four months to build one ship. They delivered 500 ships per year, of which at most only 25 were used by the VOC. The strategic inventions of the general Prince Maurits of Orange resulted in the ultimate defeat of Spain in 1648.

Able people such as scholars and craftsmen fled the religious persecutions in Flanders, Spain, Portugal, France, Poland and Germany. Their contributions stimulated many industries such as weaving of fine cloth and linen, metalworking, and the diamond industry. Culture flourished with painters like Rembrandt, Vermeer, Frans Hals, philosophers (Descartes, Spinoza) and scientists (Huygens). The atmosphere of tolerance stimulated the production of many books and journals in many different languages. Cartography was stimulated in particular by the world-wide voyages of the VOC and the WIC. Many fine atlases were printed between 1608 (William Blaeu) and 1726

(Gerard van Keulen). Shipworm, a mollusc, infected the wooden sides of the dikes. Dikes were fortified with stones imported from Scandinavia. Private merchant corporations reclaimed large lagoons and lakes in the north of Holland with the use of windmills as pumping stations. These reclamations are easily recognised on the maps by the carefully planned rectangular structure of their ditches. Together with the offensive reclamations of coastal mudflats in Zeeland, Friesland and Groningen these activities drastically altered the geographical shape of the Netherlands.

France as well as Germany would have liked to add the wealthy Republic to their prizes. During a war with France in 1672-78 their 1672/73 invasion was repelled by a system of inundations (coloured red in Fig. 16) in combination with natural expanses of water (light blue) and swamps (dark grey). Note that the protected territory corresponds with the Friesian territory in the year zero A.D. (Fig. 4).

Inundations were a favoured means of defence and several elaborate water defence lines were developed during our history. Even during the Cold War an elaborate inundation system was built along the IJssel River. It was kept functioning from 1951 through 1964.

Power and wealth harbour their own demise. After 1715 the governmental institutions fossilised in the hands of the wealthy burghers (regents). In the 18th century many of the lakes in the south of Holland generated by peat mining were, nevertheless, also pumped dry. The French, however, tried again to obtain the riches of Holland. In 1795 a very cold winter disabled the water defence system and enabled the French to walk over the ice into the heart of the Netherlands. This ended the Republic. Under French occupation the economy decreased and much wealth was lost, though Amsterdam still remained Europe's financial centre. But there were also positive effects, such as the creation of laws, which formalised religious freedom as well as equality before the law and the gradual creation of a national system of water management.

After the defeat of France conservative Europe used this occasion to kill the Republic once and for all. They recreated the old 1581 Burgundian structure (Fig. 17, which covered the regions of today's Belgium, the Netherlands and

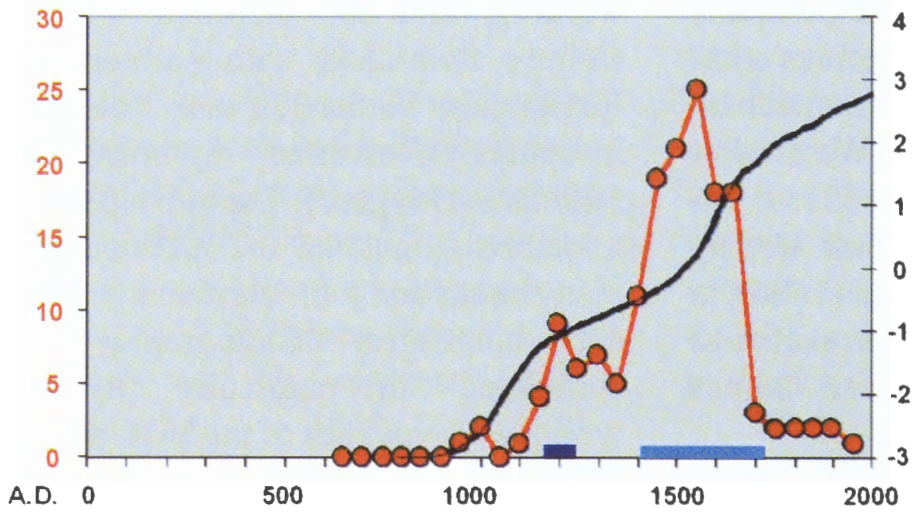
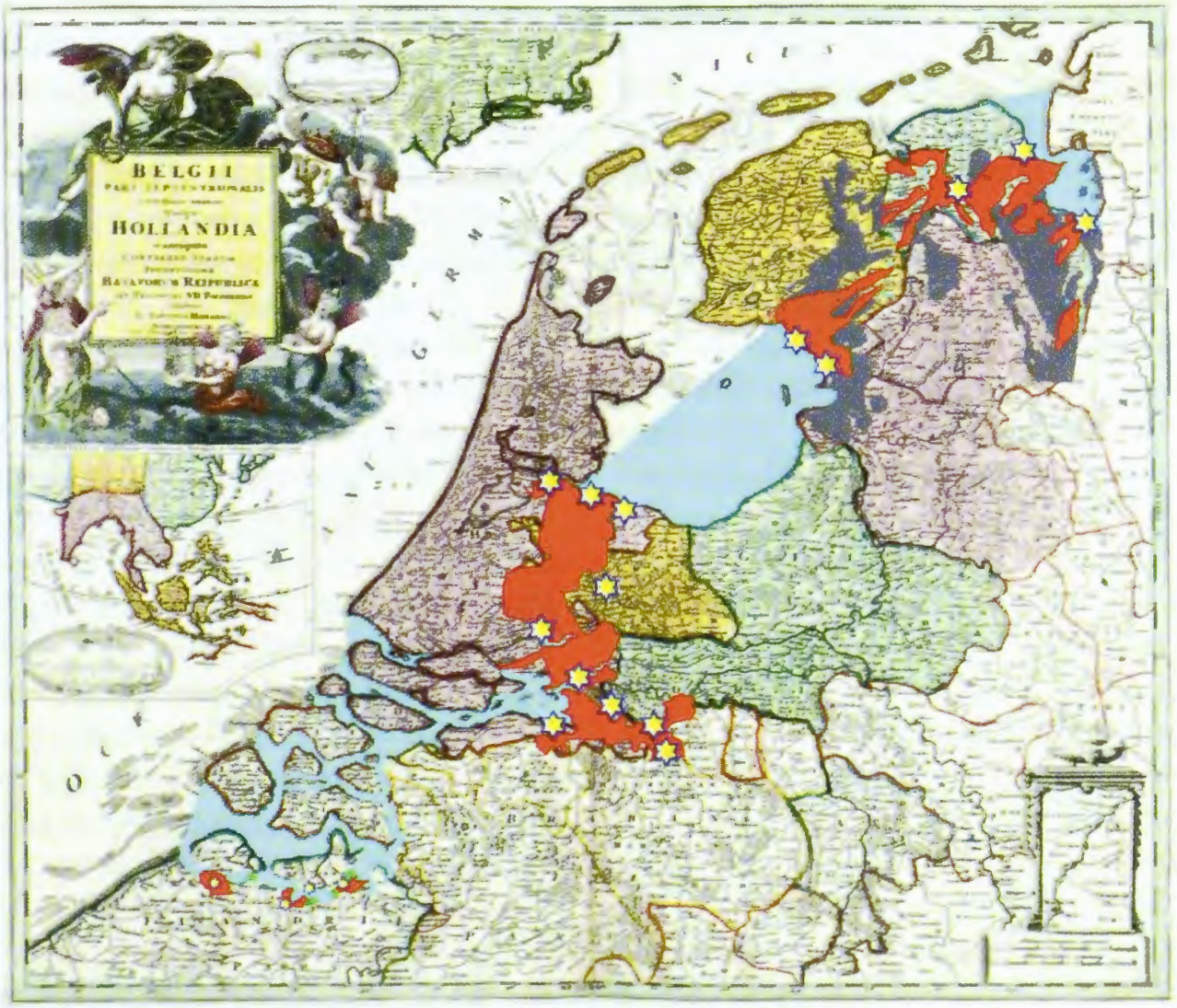


Fig. 15. Growth of the ecological disaster by drainage as well as mining of peat.
Red (left axis): number of inundations per half-century; black (right axis): relative sea level (m). Bars: dark blue: formation of the Zuyderzee; light blue: Little Ice Age. After data by Gottschalk (1971-77) and Huisman et al (1998).





Above: Fig. 16. Inundations of 1672/73 against the French invasion. Coloured by the author after data by Gottschalk (inundations) and by Zagwijn (peat bogs). (See text for explanation). Drawn by the author on a map by Homanno from between 1707 and 1730.

Left: Fig. 17. The Kingdom of the Netherlands constructed in 1815. Map by Wild, 1815.

Luxembourg) at the Congress of Vienna in 1815, and even installed absolute monarchy in the Low Countries. They did, however, keep the old feelings of the population in mind and installed an Orange as king. This structure was a misfit, however. Although King William I of Orange stimulated and financed transport (canals, railways), industry and commerce, the diversity between the different parts of the Low Countries was too large. Belgium seceded in 1830-39 and Luxembourg in 1890. In 1845 King William II was persuaded to install a liberal constitution with voted members of the Second House (States General), Provincial States and Municipal Councils. The ministers became responsible for governmental policies with the King as symbolic head of the nation, in fact the State's foremost civil servant, as is the situation today. After 1860 the basically federal structure of the Netherlands gradually integrated to a national state. The voting rights were extended to all males in 1917 and to all females 1919.

In the 20th century industrialisation and the rise of new (originally) Dutch multinationals like Philips, Shell and Lever Brothers as well as of transit trade by water, road and air and a new local source of energy, natural gas, brought new wealth. The ministry of water management is responsible for the defence against sea and rivers.

After storm surge inundations of Amsterdam and its surroundings in 1916 a closure dike hemmed in the Zuyderzee in 1932. The dike transformed the estuary into the freshwater Lake IJssel, a much-needed extension of our overloaded water reservoir system. Much new land was gained by reclamation within this area. After a massive inundation by the sea in 1953 a very strong system of dikes and active storm surge barrier dams (the 'Delta Works') was build along the coast and across all Zeeland estuaries but two. River dikes were strengthened after the near-inundations of the 1990s. Disasters caused by storm surge inundations by the sea and by river floods after exceptionally heavy rains mistakenly do not form the daily concern of the average Dutchman anymore. 'Normal' rainfall gives us wet feet on occasion and cause protest by the citizens who expect to be free from nature's vagaries.

In the mean time the average level of the original peat soils decreased further to the present 3.5 m below sea level. This process goes on till all the peat is gone and the basal layer of clay or sand has been reached. The already very low level of the agricultural peat polders and of the reclaimed peat-mined lake polders generated another problem, however. Of rain and seepage (750 and 400 mm per year per square meter, respectively) about 450 mm evaporates per year. The remainder cannot be drained away and threatens to raise the water level in the Dutch sink within five years to average sea level. So we pumped and pump: with windmills from 1408 to 1836, then with steam driven pumps and since about 1900 with the use of electricity. However, our fresh groundwater 'bubble' floats on the brackish and salt groundwater 'sea' extending throughout the Netherlands. We deplete it by pumping our polders dry, with upwelling of brackish water and salt-poisoned meadows as a result.

Therefore we need even more rain and use river water in summer to compensate. This is a mixed blessing, however, since river water must be fresh and clean. Plans are under consideration to stop the pumps of our deepest polders to regenerate the lakes.

To regulate our water levels and, hence, pump 700 mm per square meter per year into the sea requires not only a well-kept infrastructure but also much energy. Over an area of half of the Netherlands, about 17,000 square kilometre, we have to pump per year 12 billion cubic meters of water into the sea. At a price of about € 8 per 1000 cubic meters this costs us at present about € 100 million per year.

The amount we pump into the sea is comparable with the yearly outflow of the river Meuse (8 billion cubic meters) or with a sizeable part of the Rhine (66 billion). One plan to cope with the future rise of the sea level consists, therefore, of a large dike all around the Netherlands. Seven giant pumping-stations will take care of the work. One station for the water of the Scheldt river coming out of Belgium, three stations for the rivers Meuse and Rhine, while the remaining three will be used for other outputs (Van der Ven, 1993). This presupposes the availability of cheap energy, however, while our sources of natural gas are finite. The Netherlands, hence, remain a country at risk (see Fig. 1).

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A.A. VERVEEN

The Dutch and the English

Friendship between the Dutch and the English, both the nations and individuals, is exceedingly close, but has not always been so. At the Amsterdam Symposium last year it was inevitable that, at some stage, mention would be made of the three 17th century wars between the two maritime powers. The amusing but very true observation was made that, during these wars, whichever side got the better of a particular engagement proclaimed it a major victory. But the losing side would describe it as a temporary setback, proving that 'spin' is not an invention of present-day politicians. However, there was one Dutch attack that the English had to admit was nothing less than an embarrassing disaster.

In June 1667 Admiral de Ruyter led a fleet through the Thames Estuary and, after landing troops to destroy fortifications at Sheerness, entered the River Medway, broke through harbour defences and burnt English ships. He captured the largest warship, the *Royal Charles,* and towed it back to Holland, but not before sailing up and down the Thames in leisurely fashion and making a threatening thrust towards London. News of all this was received gleefully by the Dutch and duly pictured in maps and other engravings. Illustrated here is a German version of a Dutch map produced in Frankfurt by the Swiss engraver Matthaus Merian, the Young. The larger part shows the approach of the Dutch fleet through the Thames Estuary and up the Thames itself as far as Gravesend. The inset details the positions in the Medway of the most important ships of both fleets and graphically depicts the at-

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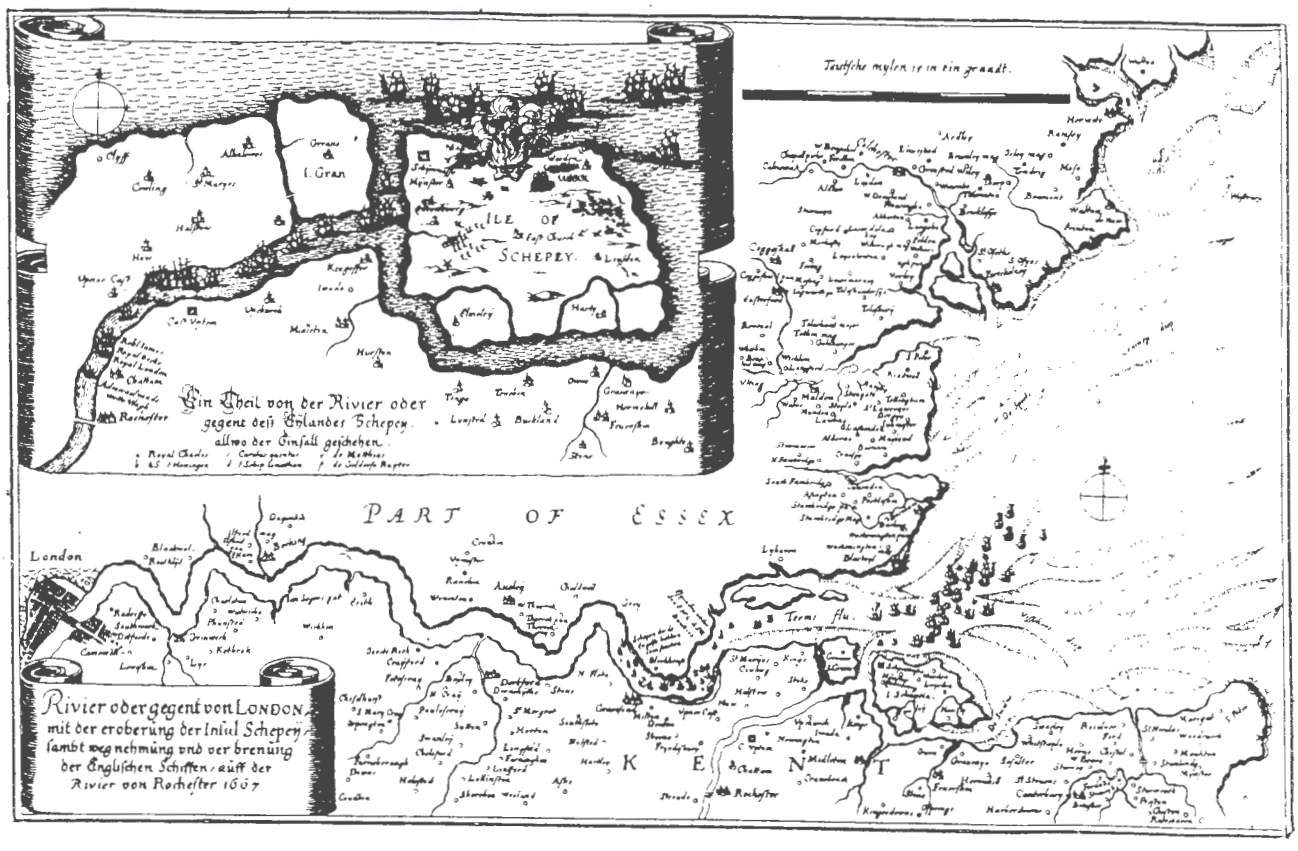
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A German version of a Dutch map produced in Frankfurt in 1667 by the Swiss engraver Matthaus Merian, the Young, showing the Dutch invasion up the Thames.

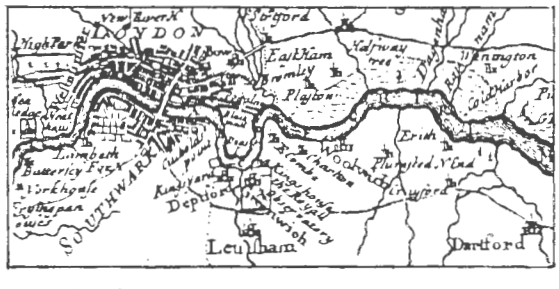
tack on the fortifications at Sheerness on the Isle of Sheppey. More prosaically, over on the eastern side of the island can be seen the activities of a foraging party put ashore to collect sheep and other supplies.

There were several reasons for this English humiliation, quite apart from the ship-handling skills and fighting spirit of the Dutch. The Plague in 1665 and the Great Fire of London in 1666 had taken their toll. Funds for defence had disappeared in corruption and incompetence, leaving sailors unpaid, dockyards empty of stores and forts without guns or powder. Charles II continued a lavish lifestyle regardless. As one writer put it, 'If it could be considered a choice between maintaining a mistress or fitting out a first-rate ship, it was the woman who was kept in commission and the ship laid up'.

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An Unusual Find

Unexpected maps turn up in odd places. Such has been the experience of Texan IMCoS member Mike Moecker who collects early world maps, especially those associated with the works of Macrobius and Gregor Reisch. Like many others in IMCoS he enjoys the quest almost as much as the ownership, and is keen to unravel the history and background to each of his purchases. In 2002 he managed to acquire a copy of the 1508 edition of the *Margarita Philosophica* of Gregor Reisch and was intrigued to find that inside was a coloured world map that was unusual and apparently unrecorded.

Gregor Reisch's *Margarita Philosophica* was an important late medieval encyclopedia which was first published in 1503 and ran through at least 14 editions over the next 100 years. Reisch spent most of his life as a prior at Freiburg: he was one of the teachers of Waldseemüller and a friend of Erasmus and other humanists. The *Margarita* had twelve sections which expounded the classical scholastic disciplines: Grammar, Dialectics, Rhetoric, Arithmetic, Music, Geometry, Astronomy (or Astrology), Natural Philosophy, History, Physiology, Psychology and Moral Philosophy or Ethics. It was thus an essential compendium of knowledge for the degree student or for any cleric seeking to advance through holy orders.

Although there are several maps associated with the name Reisch they are unlikely to be by him personally and were most likely prepared by the printer or publisher. The maps typically found in the earlier editions of his work are as follows:[1]

1. 1503 edition; printer J Schott. A Ptolemaic world map with 12 windheads. Also found in editions of 1504, 1508, 1517, 1520 and 1535.
2. 1504 edition; printer J Grüninger. A smaller Ptolemaic map with 4 windheads. Also found in editions of 1508, 1512, 1513 and 1513. A variant with one of the outer windheads facing in an opposite direction has been reported.
3. 1513 edition; printer J Grüninger. A modernised rectangular map, based on Waldseemüller, included as well as the Ptolemaic one.
4. 1515 edition; printer J Grüninger. A revised version of the modernised rectangular map above; clearly from a different woodblock.

All these maps can be categorised as 'Rare', in that they can be found in copies of the *Margarita* in several major institutional libraries but only infrequently are they offered separately by dealers or at auction.[2]

Mike Moecker was surprised and elated when he found, in the copy of the 1508 Schott *Margarita* that he had bought, a quite different map not corrresponding to any of the those listed. Nor was it on first trawl otherwise listed in Rodney Shirley's *The Mapping of the World*. As shown in Fig. 1, it was a quite different Ptolemaic world map on a barrel-shaped (homeotheric) projection. The outer surround of clouds and



The Ptolemaic world map that appears in the 1583 edition of Gregor Reisch's Margarita Philosophica, *and maybe in other editions as well. (Courtesy of Michael Moecker).*

12 windheads are not at all the same as those on the earlier Reisch maps. Geographically, there are minor differences too; for instance the Indian Ocean is no longer land-locked to the south. A unique feature of the map as found is that it is in fine contemporary colouring.

I myself was initially puzzled when the map was brought to my notice. The style and lettering suggested affinities with the wood-cutting school at Basle and, perhaps, with maps associated with editions of Johannes Honter and Pomponius Mela. Then I recalled the transfer of earlier Reisch woodblocks from northern Germany (Freiburg or Strassburg) to Basle in 1535. In the British Library, examination of the 1535 edition of the *Margarita* as translated by Oronce Fine did not uncover any 'new' map. However in the much later printing of 1583, again from Basle by the firm of Henricpetri with the imprint of Sebastian Petri, we do find an identical Ptolemaic map, which was (incorrectly) reported under entry 150 in all four editions of *Mapping of the World* up to 2001 to be lacking.

In spite of the resolution of the seeming mystery, to the understandable disappointment of Mr Moecker, several questions remain:

? How did the `1583' map come to be placed in a 1508 *Margarita*? Possibly it was a later replacement for the normal map which was damaged or was removed to sell separately. But, as Mr Moecker

states, there is no obvious differentiation of paper or trimming indicating a later insertion. The binding is contemporary limp vellum.

? As suggested under entry 150, the style of the Ptolemaic world map is similar to other maps prepared by Heinrich Petri for his editions of maps originated by Johannes Honter from 1561 onwards. Might the woodblock therefore have been prepared earlier?

? Both the 1535 and 1583 Basle editions utilise a translation of the *Margarita* attributed to the Frech scholar Oronce Fine. His foreword concludes with the date 1523. Might there therefore be an earlier French edition with a map or maps hitherto unidentified?

Regrettably, editions of the *Margarita* have an unfavourable reputation for being tampered with. In the original entry for Reisch (entry no.22) it was noted that sometimes the appropriate world map is missing, or a Schott map substituted for a Grüninger one (or vice versa), or even a facsimile inserted in lieu. Of all the maps found in Reisch's *Margarita*, the two 'modern' ones of 1513 and 1515 are least likely to be present and are thus the scarcest of those cited.

An interesting short research project would be to carry out a worldwide census of known early copies of the *Margarita Philosophica* to obtain a better statistical assessment of their map content.

While this piece was being written Sotheby's offered at their sale of Atlases and Maps in London on 14 November 2002 two Reisch maps—one (lot 218) was the first 1503 map but from the 1508 edition; the other (lot 219) was a new example of the four wind-headed variant mentioned in (2) above, apparently from the 1504 edition. The first lot 218, estimated at £4,000-£6,000 sold for an above-estimate hammer price of £7,500. Lot 219 was unsold. I don't think Sothebys had any reservations as to the genuineness of this lot, but potental buyers may have been deterred by the higher estimate of £8,000-£12,000 and perhaps by the evidence of slight wear and minor restoration, as noted in the catalogue description and evident on inspection.

NOTES

1. For more information and illustrations of these maps see Rodney W Shirley, *The Mapping of the World: Early Printed World Maps 1472-1700*, entries 22, 23, 23(A), 36 and 40. (The current fourth edition, 2001, contains updated information in the Corrigenda and Addenda section.)
2. The British Library pressmark for the 1583 *Margarita* is 8460.dd.32. Other examples are to be found in major institutional libraries.

RODNEY SHIRLEY

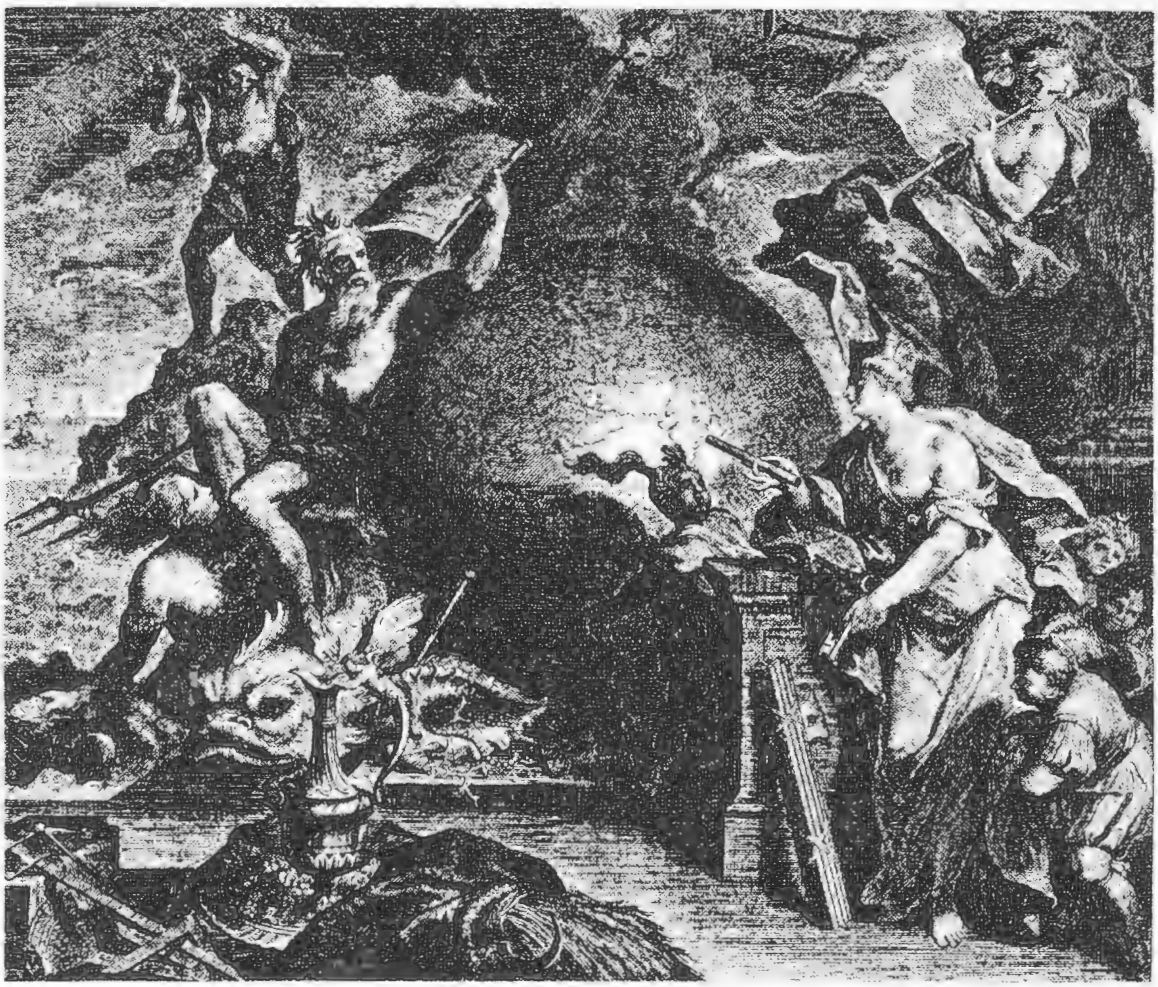
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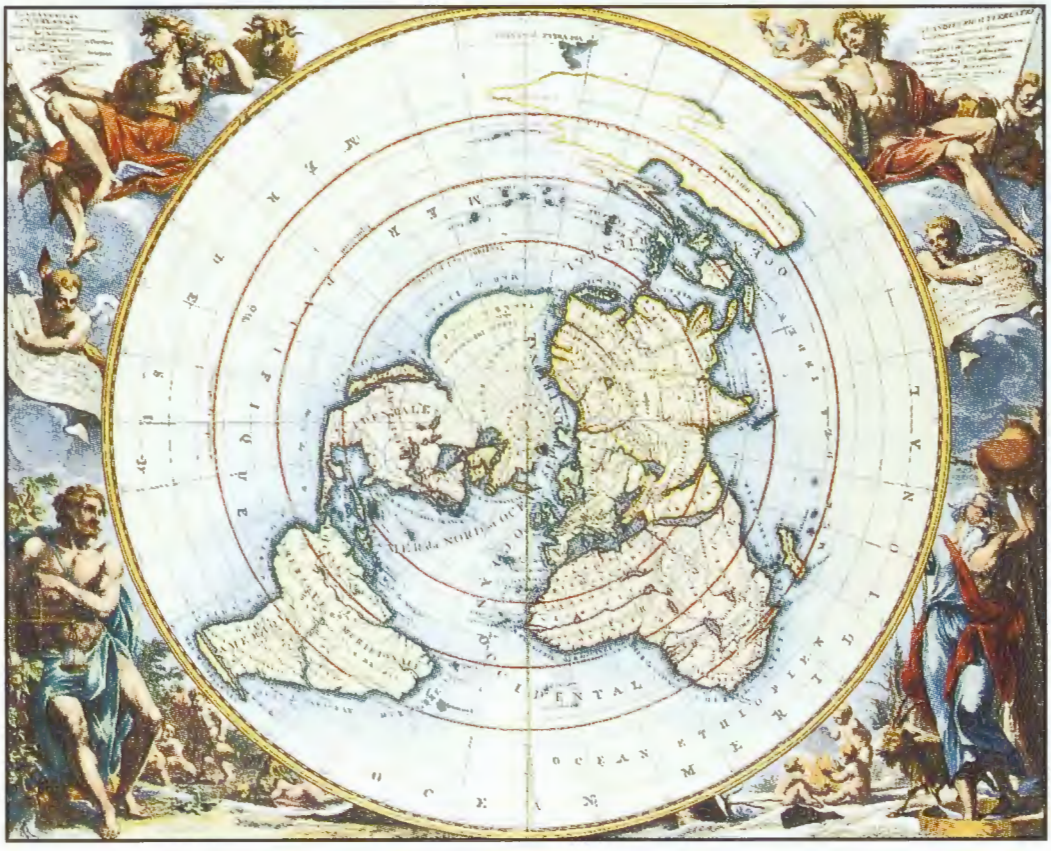


The IMCoS visit to Holkham Hall in the spring of 2002 proved yet again the value of these visits to map research as well as general historical interest. The old libraries of the nobility, mostly set up centuries ago, hold a wealth of information and often rare copies of books, atlases or maps. The Holkham Hall library holds the collection of John Innys purchased by the 1st Earl of Leicester, and this collection of mainly loose material, although some was certainly extracted from books, is now bound up by county, each volume having a standard titlepage:

'A / GENERAL SYSTEM / OF / COSMOGRAPHY. / OR / ELEMENTS / OF / ASTRONOMY / AND / GEOGRAPHY, / ILLUSTRATED / By MAPS, PLANS and VIEWS, / Collected from the most Eminent Authors, / Ancient and Modern, / by John Innys.' KENT Vols: LXXVI, LXXVII, part LXXVIII.

During our visit I turned the pages of one of the Kent volumes to discover several maps and plans unknown, or in a state unknown to me in my 30plus years of collecting and researching Kent maps and plans. I carried out further research on one Kent map in particular on returning home. It was stated to be 'A New Mapp of the County of / KENT / Divided into the five Lathes / And

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Pieter van der Aa's spectacular version of Cassini's planisphere, published in Leiden, in *Nouveau Théâtre du Monde ...*, *c.*1713

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d subdivided into Hundreds / by Phil: Simonson. / With many Additions and Corrections by Phil: Lea'.

Completely new to me it raised serious questions.

1. Simonson was presumably Philip Symonson who produced the first large-scale Kent map with roads in 1596 and is believed to have died in 1598. Why had we no knowledge of the existence of the Symonson original?

2. Why did Phillip Lea (c.1660-1700) produce this particular map when c.1693 he issued another map of Kent on a slightly larger scale? On this map his toponomy was considerably different and yet they must have been issued fairly close together; secondly how and when did it come into Lea's possession?

Some weeks later having re-searched the indexes of the main libraries and specialist collections I still came up empty-handed, but in parallel I was also searching for a Wencelas Hollar (1607-1677) map of Kent and of this only a single copy is recorded. During this time I noticed the similarity in my written description of the Simonson/Lea map to that given by Pennington of the Hollar map. This raised new possibilities.

I finally tracked down the Hollar map in the British Museum Prints & Drawings Dept, and immediately the suspicion was confirmed. I was researching the same map in two different states under different names. The Hollar map dated 1672 gave me its earliest published date and since Hollar died in 1677 one assumes Lea purchased the plate after this date. Therefore the dating of the state two map is probably post-1677 and pre-1693 when he first issued his larger map of Kent in the Saxton/Lea atlas.

Why he should associate Simonson/Symonson with this map is difficult to understand, he had to know it was by Hollar since the original plate was both dated long after Symonson had died and signed by Hollar. One final query is, where the plate of the Hollar map went after the second issue? The c.1693 Kent map certainly went to Thomas and John Bowles and was re-issued twice by them in 1730 and 1733.

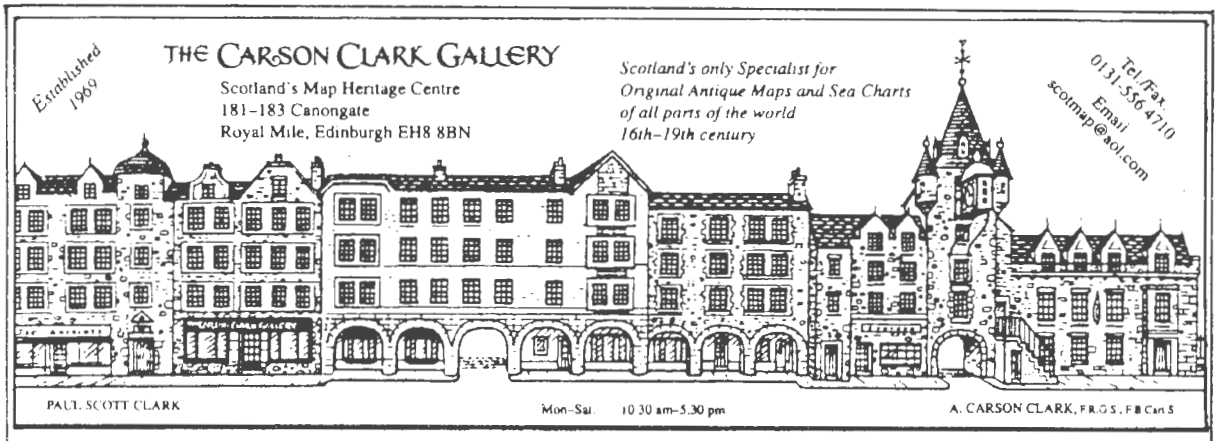
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IMCoS Bulletin No. 8
Insurance for map collections

Compiled by Hans Kok

A. Introduction

Obtaining adequate insurance coverage at acceptable price is a multi-faceted problem, which may differ for small private collections as opposed to large institutional collections. This bulletin applies mainly to the private collector in his search for adequate coverage for normal 'household' risks.

Damage may result from third parties, executing a service on request of the owner, e.g. framing or restoring a map using incorrect mounts, glues, cleaning agents, etc. Damage may also result from the simple fact of possessing a collection of goods, e.g. theft, fire, water, etc. Several forms of insurance are available.

I would like to emphasize the basic difference between 'intent', 'gross-negligence' (containing an 'element of intent') and 'negligence'. In general, intentional damage is not insurable, gross-negligence may or may not be insured under a policy, 'normal' negligence is covered, up to a stipulated maximum amount.

An important point is the fact that slow processes are normally excluded from insurance coverage: the effects of too high humidity, too much light, acid mounting-boards, etc. The insurance claim requires a sudden onset of the damaging process.

B. Third-party liability

A collector may cause damage to the property of a third party and become liable for the amount of the damages. Your third party liability insurance will foot the bill as long as the occurrence is insured under the policy and only up to the maximum amount of the policy. Damages in excess of the maximum covered have to be paid by the perpetrator.
(*Example:* You cause a tear in somebody else's map, spill coffee over it, or 'lose' it)
Remember that damage caused on purpose makes you liable, but is not covered by your insurance; damage caused through gross-negligence makes you liable but your insurance may or may not pay for it.

You may—*vice versa*—find yourself the victim of damage and want to claim it. These claims should be addressed to the perpetrator, who will pass on the claim to his liability insurance, provided he carries this type of insurance. Most regular businesses like framing shops, restoration enterprises and transportation companies carry (adequate?) third party liability insurance; private persons often do not.

Where (inter-)national laws restrict maximum liability (as in aviation for instance), intent and gross-negligence will suffice to remove the restrictions and cause unlimited liability to be applicable. Shippers and forwarding companies are notoriously infamous for their very limited compensation in case of loss/damage. Damages in excess of the insured sum may have to be claimed in court; this may involve heavy legal costs and implies the burden of adequate proof. 'Emotional' damage may be much higher than financial damage but is normally not enforceable. An insurance policy covering new items procured for the collection from the moment of purchase, regardless of location and covering the risks during transportation may therefore be very worthwhile.

C. Damage to your own collection

For potential damage in this case, two solutions—in terms of insurance—are available: through the regular household goods insurance, and by taking out a special art insurance policy.

For larger and more precious collections a tailor-made insurance policy should be arranged, contacting directly a reputable company experienced in the field. A flexible firm will offer a trade-off possibility for premium against security enhancement such as quality locks, alarm system and smoke detectors. They will also assist in matters like damage prevention, packaging, transportation and (re-)valuation of the collection. In case of damage they will have or contact specialists on damage, restoration cost and residual value as required.

A basic distinction between the Fine Art insurance and the amplified household goods insurance lies in the principle of All Risks (every risk with named exclusions) and the insurance against 'named perils' with yes/no accidental damage coverage included.

The beginner-collector is adequately covered through his household goods insurance under a standard policy. Where single items are very valuable, a special clause for just these items should be added to the standard policy. He should realize, however, that depending on the growth of his collection-to-be certain elements in his policy are missing until his collection warrants the special arts insurance discussed above.

A growing collection requires adaptation of the insurance coverage without too much phase-lag to prevent under-insurance. Under-insurance will also result when the collection does not grow in numbers but when its items appreciate in value.

A tentative upgrade may be as follows:

- an extended household goods policy (total value of household goods plus value of the collection) without special coverage, insuring the collection at household rates against household risks.

- an extended household goods policy with special coverage for precious items like art, maps, atlases and globes (split rates may apply).
- an art insurance policy without special building requirements in addition to a regular household goods policy (standard art insurance rate will apply).
- an art insurance policy requiring air conditioning, special locking equipment, alarms of various levels and fire alerting- and suppressing capability (modified negotiable rates will apply).

When the policy contains an index-clause, remember that building or general contents indices may be very different from art/map indices. Also, realize that purchase price (foreign currency!), current value, value after depreciation (sometimes applicable where businesses buy into maps as into business-related items) and residual value after damage are all different considerations.

D. Items on loan to/from Museums, etc

Where maps, etc. are made available on loan-basis, a thorough check whether the different insurance policies match and mesh is required. Consider the following: transportation, framing and de-framing, the framing shop, store-rooms before and after the exposition, packaging, etc. In this respect the 'nail to nail' principle is important, that means from the moment the map leaves the nail until it is back on its nail, whereby it has to be from 'your nail' until 'your nail' and not from 'their nail' until 'their nail'.

It is good practice to ask a museum receiving your maps, etc. on loan, to include a copy of their insurance policy with the loan agreement.

E. Points to check

A number of clauses will differ from country to country, from insurance company to insurance company, but definitely between household goods insurance and dedicated art insurance. The following risks should be assessed:

- falling off the wall, glass breakage and consequential damage
- bursting water pipes, storm, open windows
- pets, vermin, fungus
- restoration after damage, residual value
- depreciation
- temporary ownership, part-ownership
- location at the time of damage
- payments for expertise in case of damage
- single damage/multiple maps as a set, versus reduction in value of the whole set
- overlapping insurance policies
- exclusions.

F. Applicable rates

Rates quoted will depend on:

- size of the collection
- nature of the collection
- uniformity of the collection
- building construction/area
- security measures.

As a general reference, one may assume that standard household goods insurance rates will be increased by about 25% for a Fine Art collection of a non-fragile nature. Rates for 'fragile' and, e.g. Silver, will be even higher. On the other hand, rates may be cheaper than standard household rates in case of a collection of items that are difficult to steal, sell or damage.

A collection of glass items for which an 'easy' market exists will be more expensive to insure because of its fragility and re-sale potential. An expensive statue in the front garden may not be fragile or easily saleable, but the day and night access to the garden will affect quoted rates. For a map collection only, the risk is considered less than average, as stowage in drawers, etc. is considered reasonable protection and the resale of the maps is—statistically —neither common nor easy. It may therefore be preferable to separate the map collection—insurance-wise—from the insurance of other items. Many a map collector will have other fine art pieces in his home in addition to maps.

Also, the map collection may be spread over more than one home under the same insurance policy. It may then be advisable to select as 'collection home-base', the house which statistically lies in the safer area, where lower rates apply. It is important to report split-location to the insurance company and check out the effect on premium if any.

A collection where all items are of comparable value is cheaper to insure than a collection of the same total value where a few items are markedly more valuable than the rest, as these items are more likely to be selected in case of theft.

G. Information

Most insurance companies have Internet sites available for information/contact, e.g. Hiscox at
www.hiscox.com
Hiscox (a sponsor of the IMCoS Symposium at Amsterdam in 2002) operates branch offices at Amsterdam, Brussels, Paris and Munich, whilst the Main Office is located at London.

This Bulletin is published out of sequence for editorial reasons; *Bulletin 7 Cataloguing map collections* will be published at a future date.

Portrayal of the longest siege in world history on maps of the 17th century

The history of the island of Crete from 67 BC until 1898 is a history of foreign rule over the island. This imposed suppression and exploitation on Crete and its inhabitants as the Cretans' perpetual fight for freedom could not be eliminated and they retained their the extraordinary sense of justice combined with a great sense of hospitality. In 67 BC, commissioned by Rome, the Consul Quintus Caecilius Metellus conquered Crete and together with Cyrene from Africa founded the United Roman Province. The period of Roman rule over the island was succeeded by two Byzantine periods, interrupted by the interim Arabic rule of Crete from 824–961. In 1204 came the period of Venetian rule, which was succeeded by Turkish rule in the second half of the 17th century, from which the Cretan inhabitants were not able to liberate themselves, after many heroic revolts, until the end of the 19th century .



Fig. 1: Engraved map 1668 from Messrelationen taken from Stefano Scolari to scale, 40 x 34 cm. 'Disegno del combattimento glorioso seguito tra le galere... Sig6 Francesco Morosini Cavalier Capitan general del mar la notte di 8 marzo 1668...' Portrayal of the sea battle alongside the island of Crete with a multitude of ships depitced by name; in the foreground Morosini is pictured with Turkish prisoners – at the top allegories.

The Cretan War

The 'Cretan War' is considered one of the most significant events of the 17th century. It occurred during the persistant struggle of Venice between 1645 and 1669 with the Turkish power for the salvation of the Cretan Empire (the Venetian name for the island was Candia). This struggle rapidly took on a European scale, since almost all European rulers of each epoch intervened in the chaos of war, in particular during the final years of the siege of the island's capital, Chandax (Citta di Candia = today's Heraklion). The protection of Crete from Turkish seizure was a task of the



Fig. 2: Engraved map 1668 from Stefano Scolari, 37 x 44 cm.
'Candia Per La terza uolta attacatta dall' armi Ottomane..... Francesco Morosini K Capitan General.' Plan of the besieged capital Chandax with a detailed description of the bastions of the fortress walls.

upmost political and military significance, since conquest of the island would distinctly determine the boundaries and relations between two different worlds and cultures. This is the reason why the war was depicted in such detail by both European and Turkish contemporaries and descendants and has concerned people as no other event in world history. Numerous books in the most diverse languages and abundant engraved maps have impressively captured these events.

After the conquest of Cyprus in 1570, Crete remained the only bastion of Christian Europe in the eastern Mediterranean region. The size of Crete, its unusual favourable location, the large ports and fortresses, the wealth and abundance of its products were a permanent challenge for conquest for the Turks. The conquest of Crete was to form the last link in the series of the Turkish conquests in the eastern Mediterranean.

In spring of the year 1645 a large Turkish army of more than 50,000 soldiers with over 100 battle ships and 350 cargo ships landed in the north west of the island of Crete and within a few months had overrun the whole of the north western region of the island including the towns Chania and Rethymnon. Most of the villages and towns in the area were destroyed. The Venetians possessed no effective oppostion to the Turks, who were far superior in numbers, and withdrew to the capital Chandax.

With repeated use of new auxiliary troups, the Turks soon had possession of most of the island and had plundered large areas of land. In May 1648 under their leader Deli Hussein they began the siege of Chandax. Construction of the fortress of Chandax had begun in the first half of the 16th century and been continually extended and improved, was the most powerful in the whole of the East; it had become a model for many Mediterranean fortifications. The walls

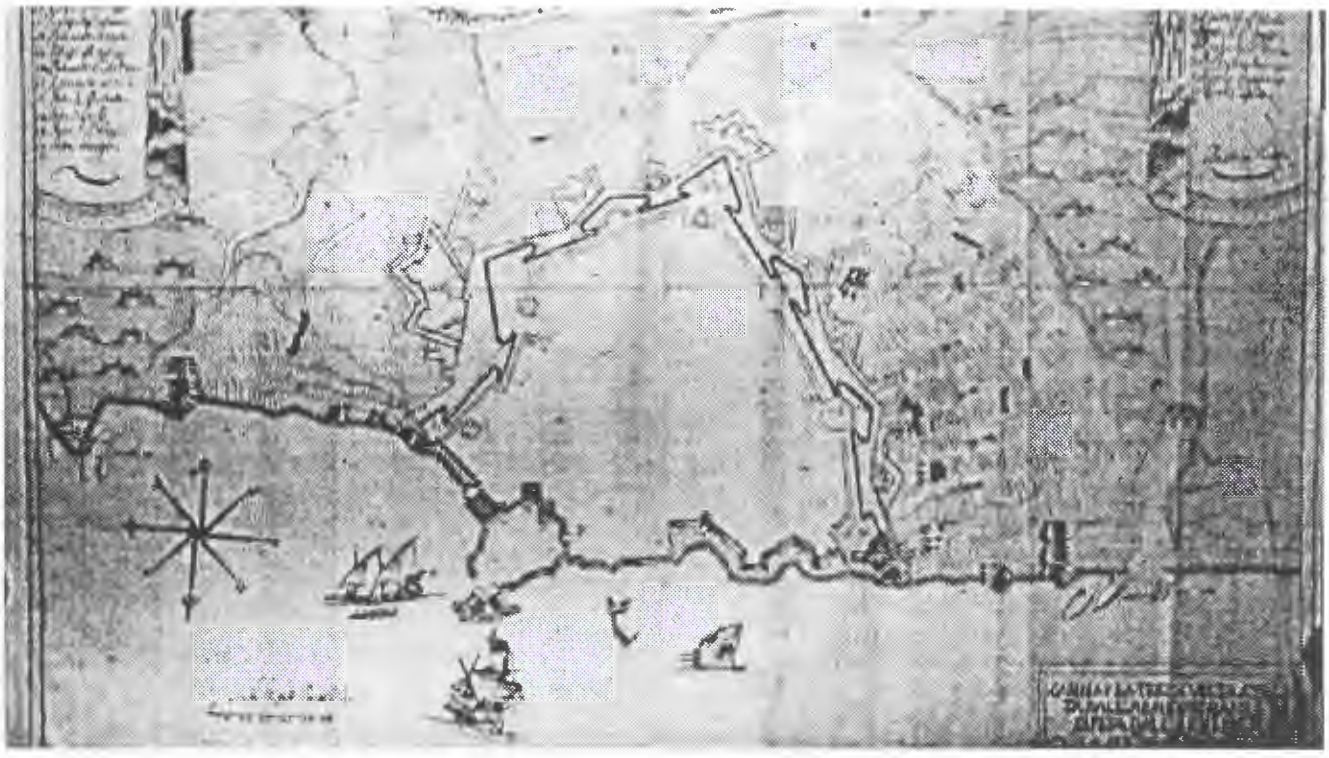


Fig. 3: Manuscript pen and ink drawing approx. 1668 from Bastian Vaniri, 42 x 56 cm 'Candia la terza volta atacata dall arme otomane e difesa dall arme del Laser Rep Venetta.' Plan of the fortress walls of Chandax and the camp sites of the Turkish besiegers with a description of the bastions on the upper side of the plan.

of Chandax were considered impregnable, in particular on account of the famous naval fortress built at the head of the port under the name 'Megalos Koules'.

The first attacks from the Turks on Chandax were easily warded off by the Venetians and their counterattack forced the Turks initially to withdraw. The Turks recognized that the capture of Chandax would only be possible by a lengthy siege and bombardments and constructed a permanent powerful camp on a hill at a distance, somewhat away from the town, which they called Neochandax (Nova Candia). They destroyed the water pipes, which brought water from the sources to Chandax and commenced with their daily attacks on the fortress, accompanied by simultaneous and persistent bombardments. The siege was almost total on the land side: Chandax was enclosed from all sides. The Venetians received their supplies of provisions solely from the side of the sea, where the Venetian fleet was superior to that of the Turks.

For more than 16 years (1649–66) the siege of Chandax was a picture of stagnation; the bombardments, attacks and counterattacks damaged *peu á peu* both sides. However, the fortress seemed to be impregnable. The Venetian fleet, which had absolute supremacy in the Aegean, observed the movements of the Turkish ships and repeatedly destroyed large parts the fleet.

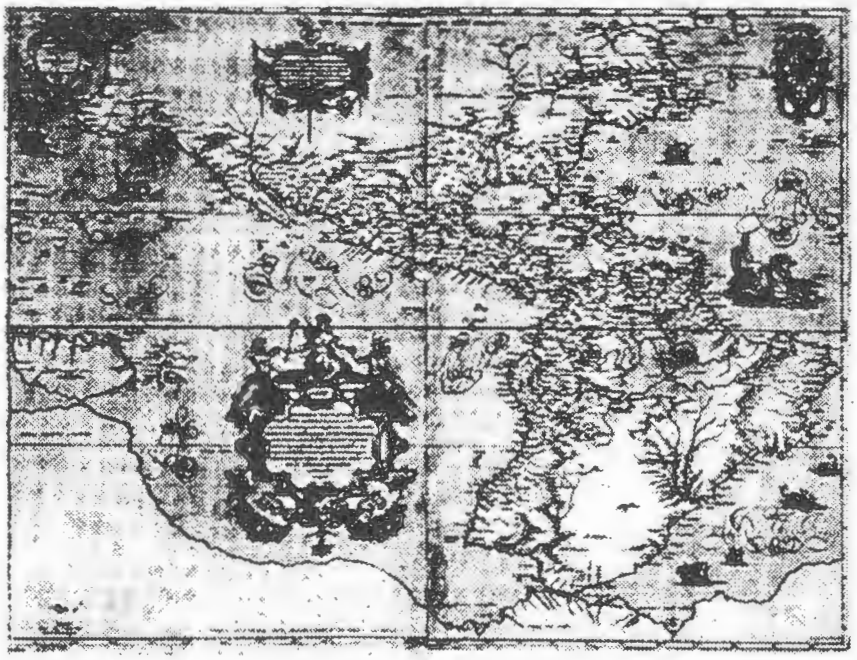
The war had meanwhile taken on a European scale. The appeall of the Venetians to other European rulers, to send reinforcements, despite their differences and conflicts of interest, moved the Christian population of Europe. Firstly the Spaniards supplied the Chandax for-

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tress with grain and eight war galleys as well as considerable financial means. France sent the Prince d'Este with 4000 men to Crete and later sent the General Marquis de Ville with an auxiliary army. The presence of the foreign troups however did not alter the siege situation in any way.

The Turks were then determined to put an end to the exhausting Cretan war after an almost twenty-year-long siege and casualties of several ten thousands of soldiers. Supreme Commander Hussein was summoned back to Constantinople and was beheaded on account of the lack of success, for which he was blamed. He was replaced by Ahmet Köprülü, who had made a name for himself as victor over the Austrians and Germans near Neuhäusel. He arrived in Crete on 3rd November 1666 with a large army and immediately took on the leadership of the Turkish troops and the responsibility of the war campaign. At this point the Cretan war entered into its most dramatic phase. The heaviest artillery of that time was used and daily merciless bombardments led to serious casualties. The conditions of the besieged under the leadership of Supreme General Francesco Morosini were intensified by new auxiliary troops from throughout Europe. Emperor Leopold I sent 2000 men, the Duke of Hanover 4000, the German Holy Order 200 and Venice 900 soldiers. In addition to this large quantities of food and provisions were also shipped as well as a considerable amount of money for the soldiers' wages. The French sent 6000 men under the leadership of the Duke of Beaufort. Count von Waldek led an auxiliary army of 2500 Germans; further auxiliary troops of 1300 men with 60 pieces of artillery came from Bavaria and Strassburg.

The newly kindled hopes of the besieged were however bitterly betrayed, since the foreign generals were not able to agree upon mutual war tactics. In the following period, the losses became increasingly more shocking and induced the French to withdraw. The situation of the besieged became more and more hopeless, so that the Supreme General Morosini decided to open negotiations for the surrender of Chandax. The negotiations commenced in absolute secrecy at the end of August 1669 and lasted for approximately twenty days. The contract, which was concluded with the greatest of care, was ready for signature on 16th September 1669 and led to the immediate cessation of the hostilities. The Venetian Supreme General had a deadline of twelve days to leave the town. According to the stipulations of the contract the Christian population was able to flee from Chandax and take any movable property with them. The town was evacuated by 27th September; the last Christian to leave Chandax was the German Officer Christopher Degenfeld. It was said that only two elderly priests and a woman did not want to flee. Köprülü found a d eserted town in ruins when he moved into Chandax on 4th October 1669 with his army. In this way the longest siege in world history ended, in which approximately 130,000 Turks and more than 40,000 Christians had been killed from the beginning of the siege of Chandax up until the surrender.




FORTEZZA
PASSA CENTO CINQUANTA

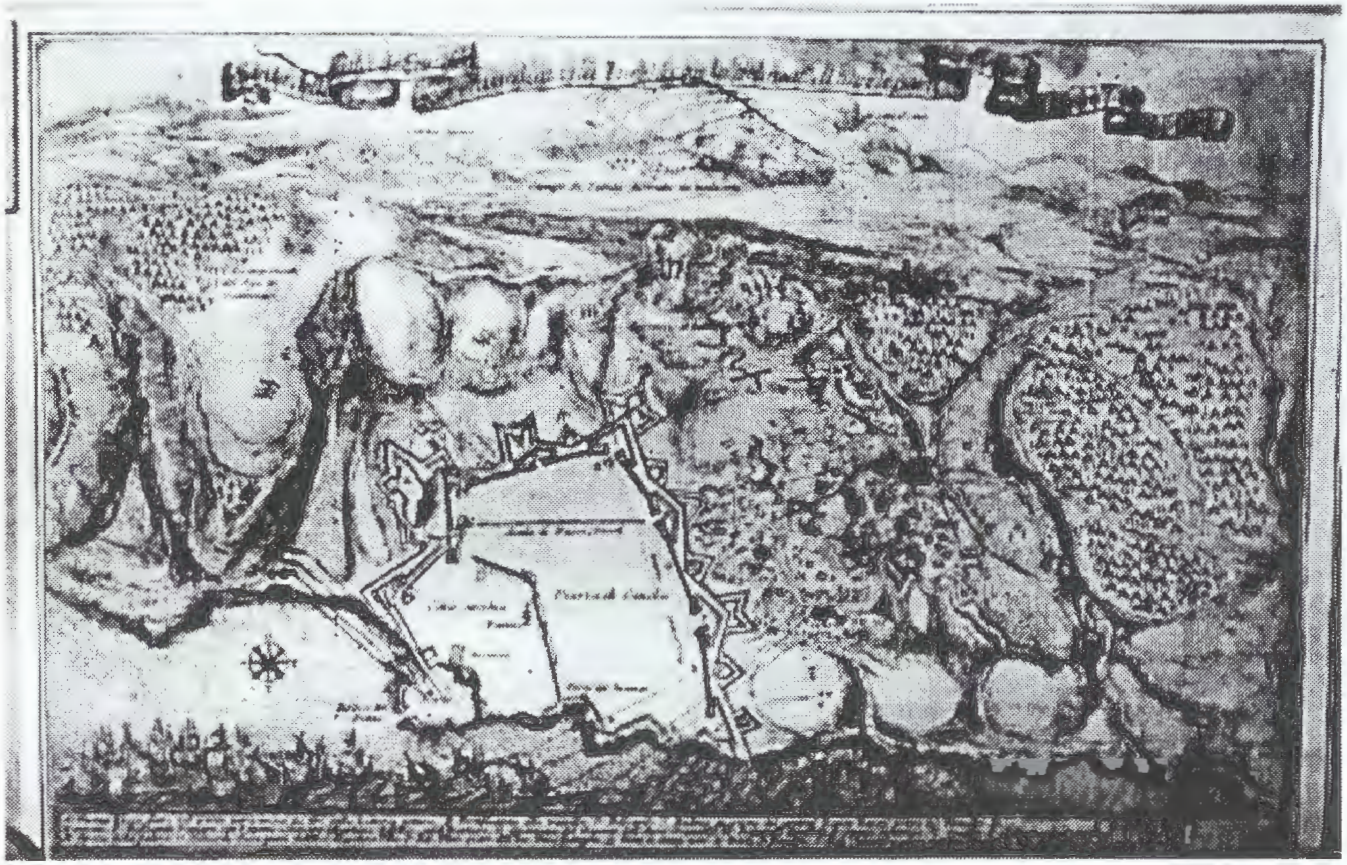


Fig. 6: Engraved map 1651 by Marco Boschini, 41 x 55 cm. 'Citta di Candia assediata' Plan of besieged Chandax with numerous ships and camp sites of the Turkish attackers, as well as a detailed description of the fortress bastions on the sides.

Facing page:
Fig. 4: Anonymous French manuscript pen and ink drawing 1669, 23 x 34 cm
'Le plan des fortifications et du siege de la ville de Candie – Anteo 1669 Perdido.' Plan of besieged Chandax with separate descriptions of the individual camp sites of the Turkish occupiers.
Fig. 5: Anonymous manuscript chart approx. 1650, 29 x 36 cm.
'Fortezza et campo del Turco, piantato controla di Cádia sopra le coline die casal Anbrusa ver' ostro discosto miglia treincirca.' Plan of the fortress and camp set up by the Turks near the island's capital Chandax.

Maps as selected evidence of the battle of Chandax/Crete

There is hardly a theme, which has been depicted more often in the 17th century on maps (manuscript charts, engraved maps, plans, panorama etc.) than the portrayal of Chandax on Crete under the Turkish siege. In almost all the countries which supported the Venetians in the defence of the encircled capital of the island, writings have been published, in which the course of the military conflict on Crete is described in great detail together with vivid illustrations. Thus, a total portrayal of the war is depicted by a series of contemporary authors,





e.g. the maritime officer, politician and high government official from Venice, Andrea Valiero, in his work published in 1679, *Historia della Guerra di Candia* or Giovanni Battista Nani in his two-volume book on the history of Venice. Further books relating to the Cretian War, which were published in Venice in the second half of the 17th century originate from Nikolo Vellaio, Marco Boschini, Anticano Sertonaco, Gio. Battista Rostagno and Girolamo Brusoni. The descriptions of the war by Paul Conrad Balthasar Han published in 1669 and Matthäus Merian, who published *Das lange bestrittene Königreich Candia* (The long disputed Kingdom of Candia) in 1670 in Frankfurt, are among the most famous works in the German language. The collection of relevant memoires and drawings of Francois D'Alquies also contain a description of the war. Further contemporary books on the Cretian War were published in the French language by L. de la Solaye and Joseph du Cros, whilst English authors Thomas Higgons, J. Guilhard and Roger Palmer, Earl of Castlemaine are to be mentioned; the works of the last named were also translated and published in Dutch and German.

A book with numerous points of detail of the immense fortress walls of the island's capital Chandax, from which Arthur Evans, who gained world fame after 1900 as excavator of the Palace of Minos of Knossos, reports that he had never seen such a huge fortress of its kind, was published by J.B. Scheither.

The most important and complete source for the total maritime events in the Aegean region and in particular the Cretan War are the files of the Venetian state archives. These files are supplemented in Venice by the large hand written collections of the Bibliotheca Correr and Marciana. One may refer in particular to the valuable and complete illustrative material which is contained in the Codex Marciana Cl. It. VII 200 Guerra di Candia; beside numerous sea and land charts as well as topographical sketches on every larger sea and land operation during the war from 1645 to 1669 there are manoeuvre and ground plans of great accuracy and clarity.

Charts, maps, plans as well as general views of the besieged Candia, for example, exist from Stefano Scolari, Bastian Vaniri, Marco Boschini, Lud. Sixt, G. Bouttats, N. de Fer, P.C.B. Han, Matthäus Merian, Petri Mortier, J.B.

Facing page:
Fig. 7: Engraved map approx. 1667 by Lud. Sixt, 24 x 36 cm.
'Pianta della citta di Candia assediata da Turchi con la delineat ne di tutte le partt della fortifica et lauori fattida nemici.' Plan of besieged Chandax with numerous ships, Turkish camp sites and battle scenes and a description in the lower margin of the map.
Fig. 8. Engraved map approx. 1668 from Johann Friedrich Leonard, 40 x 48 cm.
'CANDIA'. Overall view of Chandax with numerous ships, siege and shooting scenes, in the upper corners detailed view of the bombarded bastions, below a border with three detailed views, description beneath this.

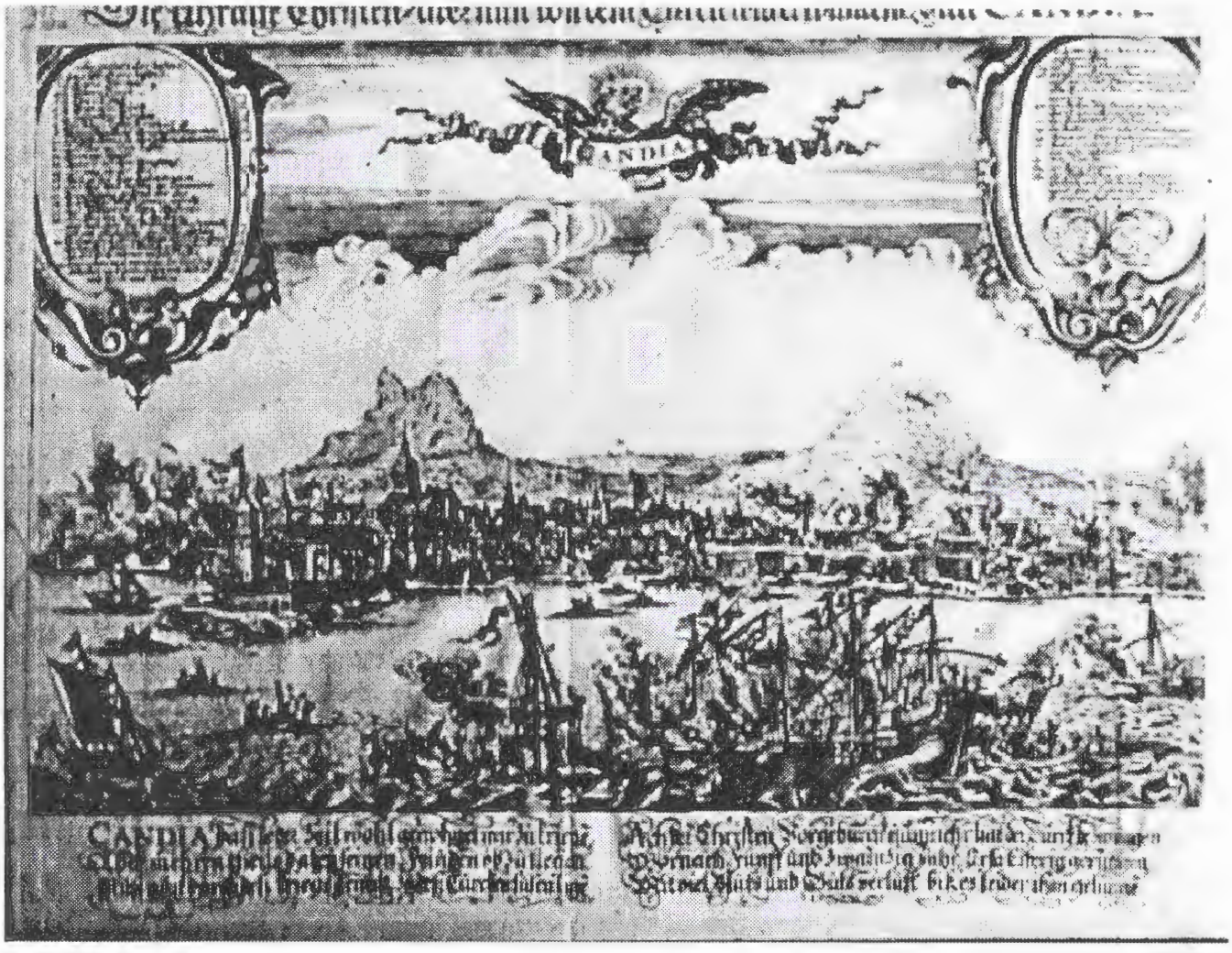


Fig. 9: Engraved map 1670 by P. Fürst, 30.5 x 38.5 cm.
'Die Uhralte Christen = aber nun von dem Türcken überwundene Stat Candia.'
Overall view of Chandax with sea battle in the foreground, in the upper corners a description, German text below.

Scheither, P. du Val, Nicolaes Visscher, Frederik de Wit, Franziscus Collignon, Olfert Dappert, P. Fürst, A. Aueline, Daumont, Imhoff, W. Hollar, Thilott and Johann Friedrich Leonard.

Some of the most interesting charts on the theme of the Cretan War are portrayed in the illustrations, described hereafter.

An engraved map from Stefano Scolari (Fig. 1) shows the portrayal of a sea battle alongside the island of Crete, from which a plan of the besieged capital Chandax with a detailed description of the bastions of the fortress walls originates (Fig. 2). Bastian Vaniri concluded a manuscript pen and ink drawing, in which besides the fortress walls the camp of the Turkish attackers are also depicted (Fig. 3). The same motive is also in an anonymous French pen and ink drawing (Fig. 4), which arose in the final phase of the Cretan War, as did the aforementioned.

An anonymous manuscript chart originates from the early years of the siege, drawn in approximately 1650, with the plan of the fortress and camp set up by the Turks near to the capital Chandax (Fig. 5). The illustrated fortress Inandiye was set up by the Turks

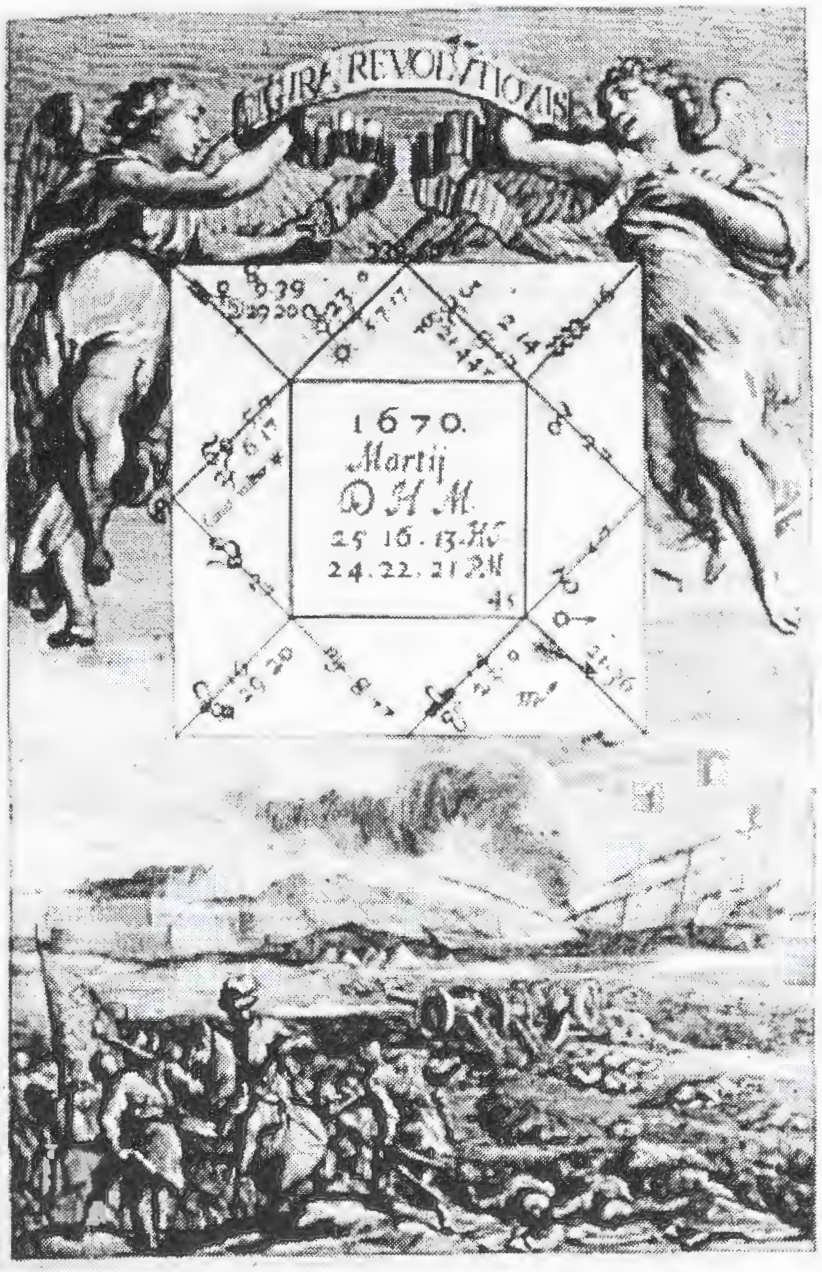


Fig. 10: Front page of the astrological work Figura Revolutionis *from an anonymous author (Venice) 1670. Portrayal of Venetian military units and their allies in front of the Candian walls – above allegories.*

under Deli Hussein in 1649 on the hill Broúsa (known today as Fortétsa). This fortress is marked as Nova or Nea Candia on most maps. Ahmet Köprülü ordered in 1667 that all houses of this Turkish fortress were pulled down except the mosque and its surrounding walls, in order to force the Turkish soldiers to go into the trenches and to fight there until the conquest of Chandax.

Marco Boschini's plan, published in 1651, of besieged Chandax with numerous ships, the camps of the Turkish attackers and a detailed description of the fortress bastions on the sides, originates from the early years of the Cretan War (Fig. 6). Battle scenes alongside the Turkish camps are depicted in the plan of besieged Chandax by Lud. Sixt (Fig. 7). General views of Chandax with battle scenes originate from Johann Friedrich Leonard (Fig. 8) and P. Fürst (Fig. 9), which were published towards the end of the siege. Finally, a curiosity is the work published in Venice in 1670 with the title 'Figura Revolutiones', which contains an astrological retrospective view on the Cretan War and lament for its course and outcome (Fig. 10).

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Han, Paul Conrad Balth: *Venediger Löwen – Muth und Türckischer Übermuth: oder Das hefftig bekriegte/ noch unbesiegte doch hülff – benöthigte Candia*, Nurembug 1669

Han, Paul Conrad Balth: *Kurtze Beschreibung Der Insel und Reichs Creta oder Candia, Ihrer Gelegenheit/Beherrschung/derselben Verenderung/und andern denkwuerdigen Begebenheiten/Wie auch jederzeit gefuehrten Kriegen wider die Tuerken/Vornehmlich von fuenff und zwantzig Jahren her*, Nuremburg 1669

Higgons, Thomas (Sir): *The history of Isuf Bassa Captain General of the Ottoman army at the invasion of Candia*, 1684

La Solaye, L.de: *Mémoires ou Relation Militaire, contenant ce qui s'est passé de plus considerable dans les attaques, dans la deffence de la ville de Candie depuis l'année 1645*, Paris 1670

Merian, Matthäus: *Das lange bestrittene Königreich Candia*, Frankfurt 1670

Palmer, Roger, Earl of Castlemaine: *An account of the present war between the Venetians & Turks; with the state of Candia*, 1666

Palmer, Roger, Earl of Castlemaine: *Wahrhafft und gründlicher Bericht von dem jetzigen Kriege so zwischen den Venetianern und den Türcken geführt wird. Beneben den Zustand der Insul und Stadt Candia*, Frankfurt 1668

Palmer, Roger, Earl of Castlemaine: *Das von den Türcken aufs äußerst bedrängte, aber von der Heroischen Republic Venedig aufs tapferst beschützte Candia von Ao. 1646 biß auf unsere Zeit*, Frankfurt 1669

Scheither, J.B: *Novissima Praxis Militaris*, Braunschweig 1672 (numerous detailed plans of the fortress of Candia, including a engraved map 42 x 53 cm 'Attaccata di Candia')

Valiero, Andrea: *Historia della guerra di Candia*, Venezia 1679

Vellaio, Nicolo: *La Guerra Cretense*, Bologna 1647

The author would be pleased to receive further information or offers of books and maps on the Cretan War from members of IMCoS.

BURKHARD TRAEGER

IMCoS-Helen Wallis Award for 2003

Nominations are invited for the IMCoS-Helen Wallis Award for 2003. This award is granted each year to the individual who, in the opinion of the Selection Committee, has been responsible for cartographic contributions of great merit and wide interest to map collectors worldwide. Though the award is intended to recognise individual merit, in special circumstances a group of people or an organisation could be eligible.

Nominations should be sent in writing to the Chairman of the Selection Committee, Valerie Scott, Oakley House, Mill Street, Aylesbury HP20 1BN, UK, before 15 March. All nominations are treated in strictest confidence.

The Award will be presented at the IMCoS Dinner on Saturday 7 June 2003.

A New View of the Ebstorf World Map

With its area of 12.74 square metres and a total of 2345 text and pictorial entries, the Ebstorf world map is the largest reproduction of the spatial and historical world picture of the high Middle Ages. It offers such a close integration of geography — as understood at the time — with history, religion and mythology that we can indeed speak of a world picture in the sense of a medieval view of the world. The map was named after the place where it was originally kept, the Benedictine monastery at Ebstorf, near Yelzen, in Lower Saxony. It came to light at the Ebstorf Monastery around 1830, and in 1835 it was taken over by the Historical Association in Hanover, where it was consumed by the flames in an air raid on 9 October 1943.

Three faithful facsimiles measuring 3.58 x 3.56 metres can be seen in Ebstorf, Lüneburg and Plessenburg (near Kulmbach).

In recent years the findings of Bernd Ulrich Hucker, Armin Wolf and Hans Martin Schaller have no longer been called into question. There has been no open contradiction of their different variants of an early dating of the map in the years 1208 to 1239 and the authorship of Gervase of Tilbury. Wolf once again establishes a connection between Gervase's genealogical knowledge about the Guelphs and his postulated genealogical dating approach. In the festschrift published in 1997 to mark the 800th anniversary of the first mention of Ebstorf monastery he again summarised his findings to date in abridged form, and Schaller presented the first extensive palaeographic investigation of the manuscript entries in the map. His verdict — the definitive underpinning of the early dating, as it were — was that the texts on the map were to be dated in the first two decades of the 13th century.

The contrasting position of a late dating was put forward for the first time in the same volume by Hartmut Kugler, who takes the special accentuation of grave worship on the map as a sign that it was created in connection with the emergence of the Ebstorf martyr worship. He attributes it to the cultural history setting of the 14th century, and more precisely to the cultural heyday of the monastery in the mid-14th century.

In his extensive dissertation Jürgen Wilke, who studied in the philosophical faculty of the Georg August University in Göttingen, arrives at new conclusions. These are painstakingly documented on 347 pages in the text volume *Die Ebstorfer Weltkarte* (The Ebstorf World Map) and on 167 pages in the volume of tables. The two volumes were published in 2001 by Verlag für Regionalgeschichte, Bielefeld, priced at 40 euro.

The present investigation can be broadly divided into four sections: the first stage reviews the reliability and plausibility of the research to date and its findings. This reveals that the map was not necessarily created at the court of Otto IV, nor that Gervase of Tilbury as the provost of Ebstorf was its spiritual father, nor that its existing dating in the early 13th century is tenable. The second section attempts to draw up a profile

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of the author of the map. To this end it makes a closer scrutiny of his geographical knowledge, his predilection for certain saints and his preference for the Guelphs. This section results in a content-based dating to the late 13th and early 14th century. In order to underpin this finding and arrive at a more precise dating and localisation, the third section undertakes an extensive palaeographic investigation. The result is a palaeographic dating and localisation of the map texts and hence of the map itself. For the first time it shows other written evidence that dates from the same writing tradition as the map. It is also possible for the first time to present two additional items of documentary evidence by the scribe of the Ebstorf Map. Finally, against this background a fourth section raises once again the question of the purpose that the author of the map had in mind when creating the map.

Merely on the basis of a simple stylistic comparison, the graphic elements of the map can be attributed to the Gothic style and hence to the time around 1300. The author does not see any justification for assigning it, as might seem logical on regional grounds, to the zigzag style (Zackenstil) typical of the 13th century in Saxony.

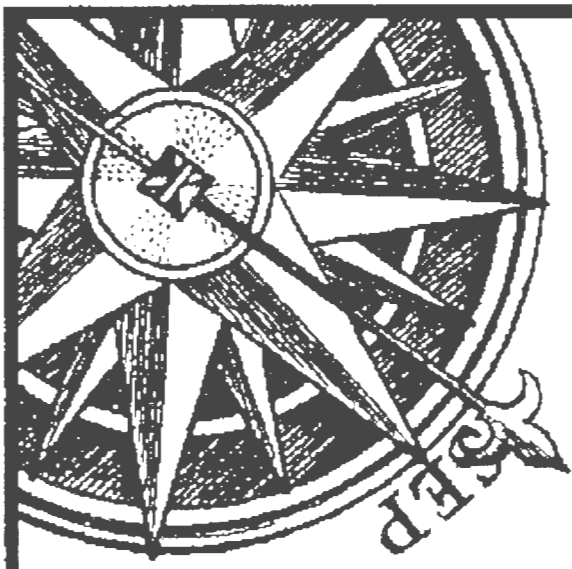
In its structure, the Ebstorf Map shows particularly strong signs of the English world map tradition. Secondary influences of the Spanish cartographic tradition can also be detected. There is no evidence of regional cartographic influences.

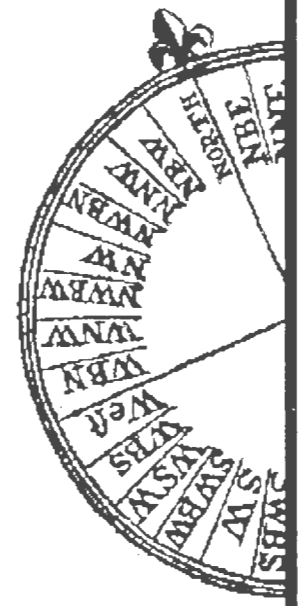
A remarkable piece of cartographic evidence that has not been mentioned by researchers, with the exception of P. Lehmann in 1933, is a map that shows all the provinces of the Franciscan order and that may have originated in the Franciscan monastery of St. Mary in Lüneburg and been transferred at that time or subsequently to the Lüneburg Civic Library. This is the only mediaeval depiction of borders on a map and the first map to provide a cartographic representation of the spatial structure of a corporation, in this case an ecclesiastical order. But the names of the provinces of the order are not found on the Ebstorf map. Since a palaeographic comparison also shows that the two maps were written by different hands, one can presumably exclude the possibility that it served as a basis for the Ebstorf map, which would have been an obvious conclusion. The map, entitled 'fratrum mappa ordinis', was created between 1263 and 1307.

The Ebstorf map most closely approaches the map of Heinrich von Mainz. Wilke assumes that the Hereford map and the Ebstorf map are branches of a further development of an English *mappa mundi*. Whether the Vercelli world map fragment, which is supposed to be of English origin and found its way to Italy in around 1219, is a copy of the map that served as a basis for the other two or whether it represents the missing link with the Ebstorf map is an open question.

The mapping of the places and an associated regional analysis of sources enabled the author to draw conclusions about the choice of localities in the West and Central European region investigated.

The few definitive sources for the map were an English world map of the Hereford type — it remains an open





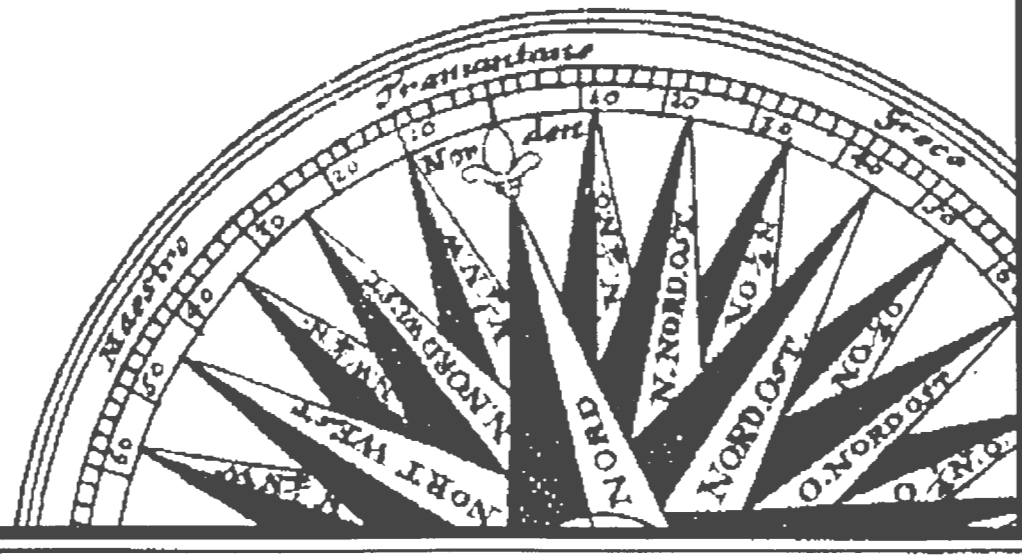
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question whether this was a copy of the Hereford map or a common forerunner of the two maps — and possibly a Beatus map of Central and Southwest France. There are repeated parallels with the Ravenna Cosmography, the Tabula Peutingeriana and the Itinerarium Antonini. Since none of the three was used directly, one might also postulate as a missing link an augmented version of a late ancient or early mediaeval map that was influenced by the Roman cartographers. This amazingly small number of sources was supplemented by information drawn by the author from itineraries handed down by oral or written tradition.

Parallels with the development of writing in Ebstorf and the regional writing scene are revealed by marked matches in the period from about 1270 to 1330. Datings based on art history, content and palaeographic research thus arrive at a unanimous result — which is not, as previously concluded, a fixation on the year 1239 by Armin Wolf. According to the convincing argument of Jürgen Wilke, the Ebstorf world map was written in Ebstorf around 1300 — or more precisely between 1288 and 1314 — by a North German writer embedded in a local writing tradition.

In a marginal note to the map the author erroneously attributed the *mappa mundi* tradition to Julius Caesar. This should really have read Augustus.

A further indication of Wilke's correct assessment is the interpretation of the city signatures of Lüneburg and Vienna on the map, complete with coats of arms, in conjunction with the marriage of Duke Otto II (the Strict) to Mechthild of Bavaria in 1288 and the resulting significant Habsburg connection.

The author makes a very close examination of the biography of Gervase of Tilbury and shows that during the time in question he never left Arelat (Arles) to become provost in Ebstorf and thus author of the map.

The author or commissioner of the map could be provost Albert of Ebstorf, who lived in Ebstorf from 1293 to 1307 before becoming canon and dignitary in Verden until his death in1316.

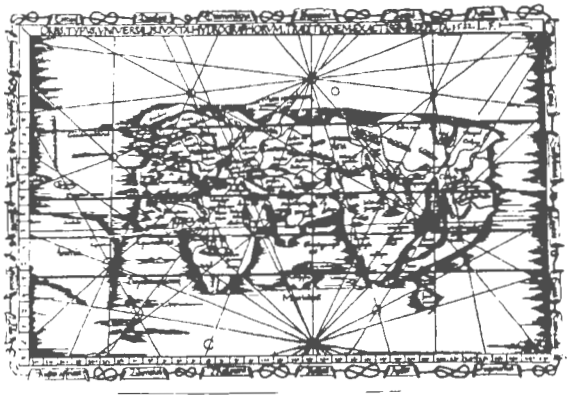
The Ebstorf map was undoubtedly intended to educate its readers and viewers in history, the history of salvation and its exegesis.

It appears certain that its author's concern was to instruct, and not to provide impressive decoration in princely chambers, and that there was indeed an audience for its use to this end at the Ebstorf monastery.

OSWALD DREYER-EIMBCKE

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Reprint of a Colonial Atlas

From 1901 to 1915 Paul Sprigade (1863–1928) and Max Moisel (1869–1920), head of the Institute of Colonial Cartography at the Colonial Department of the German Foreign Office from 1899 onwards, created the 'Great German Colonial Atlas'.

This atlas, which was regarded as the best cartographic work on the German colonies of the time in Africa, Oceania and Kiaochow in China, has now been published as a numbered reprint edition on 39 large-format map sheets by Archiv Verlag, Braunschweig, in close cooperation with the Berlin State Library. The price is 378 euro. An extensive index makes it easier to find even the smallest villages and mission stations.

Missionaries, adventurers, explorers, traders, farmers and emigrants supplied the data that threw more light on 'darkest. Africa' — long before estates, raw materials and European colonial policy became an issue or the tide turned against slave traders and non-European despots.

Their discoveries form the basis of those masterly maps in the Colonial Atlas reprint, indelible first traces for which were provided by the small Swabian missionary Rebmann or the great geographer Heinrich Barth.

On 11 May 1848, in the Chaga country of East Africa, the German missionary Johannes Rebmann climbed up a fabulous mountain that was covered in snow and ice. The natives kept away from the huge volcanic massif because it was said to be the home of murdering spirits.

When Rebmann's reports reached London and Berlin, Europe burst out laughing: snow in Africa, the red-hot continent? Ice below the equator? 'The joke of the century!', people said. The Royal Geographic Society in London spoke of a 'fata morgana', the famous discoverer Alexander von Humboldt talked about sunstroke, and not a few scientists believed that the peak of Kilimanjaro ('Mountain of Evil' in Swahili) might be made of silver.

It was not until 41 years later, on 6 October 1889, that Leipzig geography professor Hans Meyer and Salzburg mountaineer Ludwig Purtscheller proved that the missionary had told the truth: without any Alpine equipment whatever they became the first men to reach the summit of the 5,895 metre volcano. They wrapped a lump of ice in leaves and sent it by bearer down to the valley, where the local Chaga chief and his tribe were fascinated by the unknown ice-cold substance.

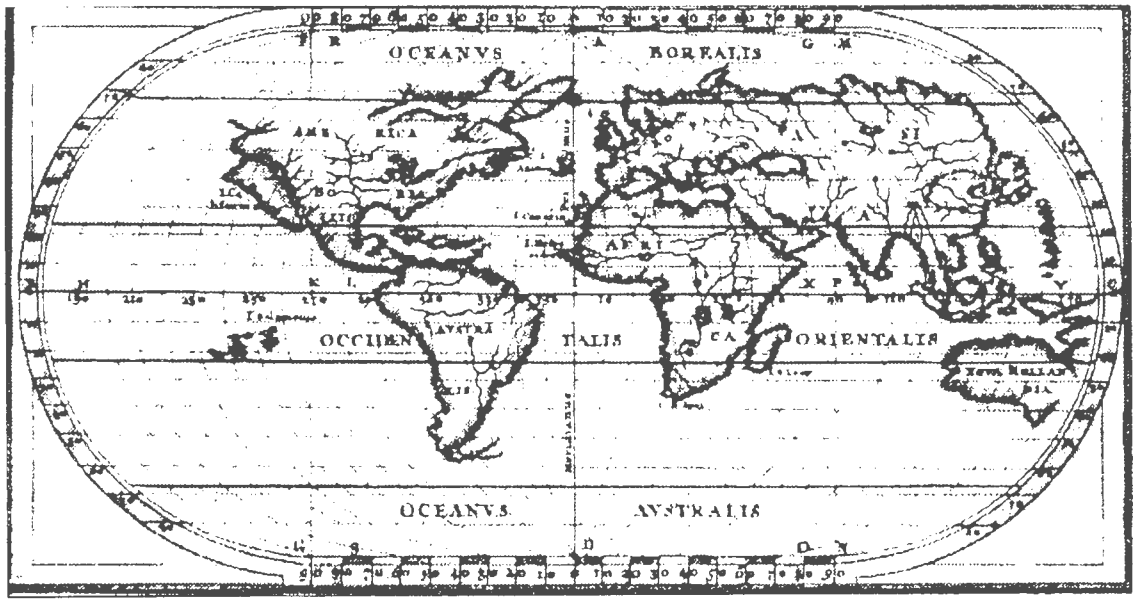
And another 47 years later Ernest Hemingway, as if it was the most natural thing in the world, was able to begin the most famous of his short stories with the words: 'Kilimanjaro is a snow-covered mountain 19,710 feet high, and is said to be the highest mountain in Africa.'

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Parish Maps of Purton, Wiltshire of 1744 and 2000

The idea of producing a Millennium map of the parish of Purton, just to the west of Swindon, was prompted by the survival of a Purton parish map dated 1744 to a scale of 1:10000.

This 1744 map is a photographic copy of the original, which was thought likely to have been commissioned by the Maskelyne family who were substantial landowners in the neighbourhood, because the late Miss Storey Maskelyne presented the photographic copy to the parish council in the middle of the 20th century. The original was known to be in the possession of the last member of the Maskelyne family in this area some 15 years ago. Its present whereabouts has not yet been ascertained, nor is the name of the cartographer known.

This map was kept on top of a cupboard in the Parish Clerk's office, so was not readily accessible even to those few people who knew of its existence. We bought property in the parish in the late 1960s and on learning of the map's existence, arranged to have copies made (from the copy) to present to the local library and the historical society so that the mid 18th century character of the parish could be more widely appreciated.

Long afterwards as the year 2000 approached the parish Millennium Committee initiated a number of imaginative projects to which our contribution was to fund the development of a parish map to compliment that produced two and a half centuries earlier.

We set about discovering what was involved and were fortunate in making contact with a most helpful firm, Customap, of Quidham Street, Bowerchalke, Salisbury most capably run by Messrs Philip Melhuish and John Gaylor.

Not many Parish maps appear to have been produced as millennium projects, which is surprising, but possibly explained by the need to find professional help from one of the few firms who undertake this type of work and the significant 'up-front' cost of bringing the project to the stage where finished maps can be offered to the public.

It may be of interest to outline briefly the process of having such a map developed.

- The purchase by the mapmakers from the Ordnance Survey of the digitised 'Tiles' covering the area concerned and available to a scale of 1:10000 or 1:2500.
- The development of the map to incorporate the additional features required by the customer of which more later.
- The production and sale of the maps to the customer.

The first major decision was the scale of OS tiles to be used. The cost of mapping the Parish using the 1:2500 tiles would have been unaffordable and the physical size of the maps sufficient to show all the detail on the 1:2500 tiles would have been too large. Even using the 1:10000 tiles, six were required to cover the Parish at a cost of £450.

As development progressed it was decided to have two maps, one of the whole parish at 1: 12500 and one of the built up area of the village at 1:5000 (these scales fitted conveniently on A1



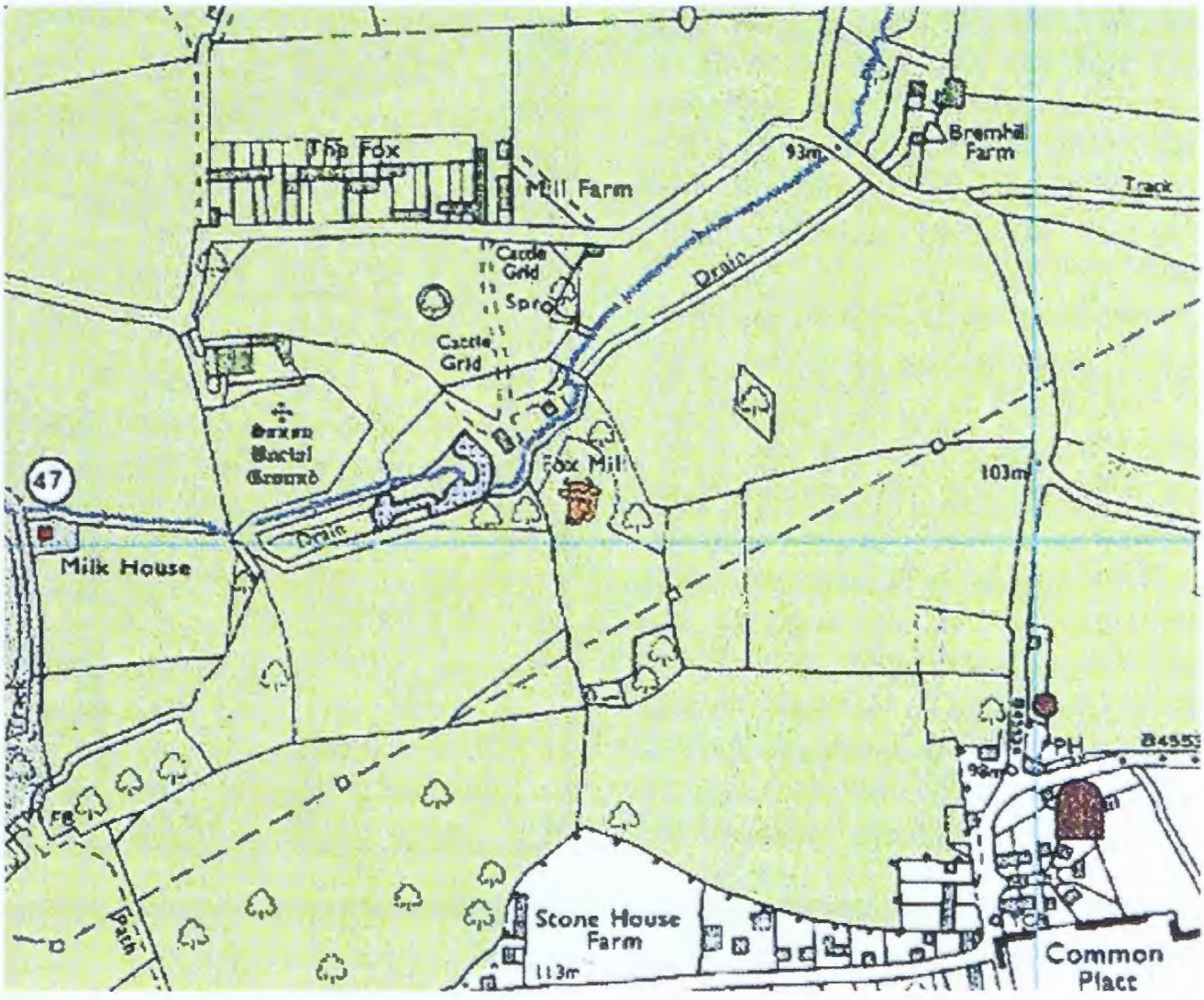
Section of the 1744 map of Purton Parish, Wiltshire.

paper). The development cost was approx £800 which included draft maps, visits by the mapmakers and many alterations and additions as the job progressed. We considered it very good value for money.

The final price to be charged for the maps was kept down by excluding the cost of tiles and development, these being our contribution to the project. Therefore the price charged for a set of three maps, the civil parish, the village only and a Xerox copy of the 1744 map, including the OS 10% royalty, was initially under £30.

In a parish of some 4000 people approximately 70 sets of maps were sold. This sounds disappointing but it was around the figure we had expected. This is not a project with much popular appeal but well worthwhile notwithstanding.

Reverting to the Purton Parish map of 1744, it marks all field boundaries, gives the names of all the fields and through a numbering system, the name of the occupant of each field or building. It is therefore of considerable socio-economic interest as well as providing a direct comparison of the field boundaries, buildings, roads, etc in the mid-18th century compared with the topography of today. It is remarkable to note how many of the field boundaries



Section of the Millennium map of Purton Parish, Wiltshire.

are unchanged and even the names have in some cases survived. The extracts from the 1744 and 2000 maps shown here and which cover our farm contain good examples of continuity of both boundaries and names. The 1744 name 'Dole Mead' is still in use today as is 'Long's ground', abbreviated to Longs by older people who still use the name.

The great increase in the population since the time of the 1744 map made it impractical to record the names of the occupants of houses and the task of checking all current field names for the millennium map was more than we were prepared to undertake. However the new map does include other data which will be of historic interest in years to come, in particular:

- working farms are marked with a cows head.
- Conservation area.
- listed buildings identified by a number referring to a catalogue of property names in the lower margin,
- WW2 pill boxes and tank traps.
- the boundary stones set up on roads, public footpaths and rights of way where they cross the parish boundary.

These boundary stones were another most successful millennium project. Each stone was either a stone step from the old work house or similar stones donated by

individual parishioners. So enthusiastically was this idea received that more stones were sponsored than there were roads to accommodate them, stones were therefore placed on footpaths and rights of way as well as on roads for vehicular traffic.

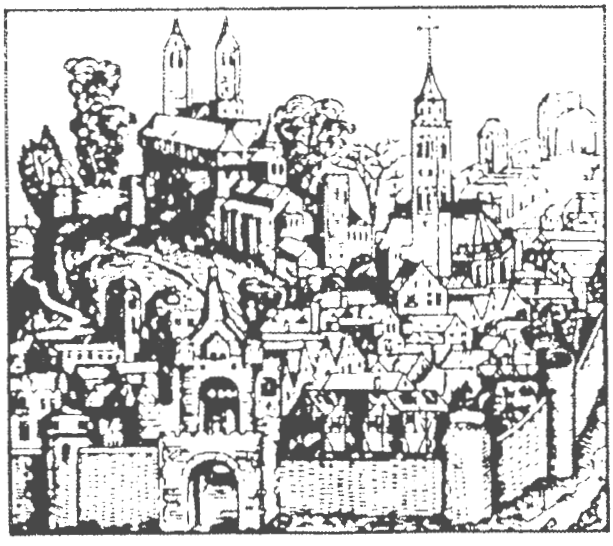
We made no attempt to produce a pictorial map because we believed that the map should be a reference work for those of future generations who undertake research into the history of the parish.

Whilst we hope the map will serve a useful purpose, its development was most enjoyable and bought us into a successful and friendly relationship with Customap who entered into the spirit of the enterprise.

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2004 23rd International Symposium
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2005 24th International Symposium
USA: Denver, Colorado

2006/7 25th International Symposium
Feb 2007, Guatemala

2007 October: to be decided

2008 Probable: New Zealand

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Cyprus 2003

The registration forms for this symposium went out to members with the Winter Journal. There are plenty more with the International Chairman if you have misplaced your copy.

If you have already been to Cyprus, and think you have 'seen it all', think again! Even on the five-day pre-symposium tour there will be plenty of enchanting sights that we will not have time to visit. It will be late in the year for the wild flowers on the Akamas peninsula, but the scenery is stunning even when the flowers are not at their best.

The beautiful lace, for which Cyprus is renowned, is largely to be seen around Lefkara. There the women sit at their doorways with their own produce spread out before them. The Troodos mountains are unique in more ways than one. Everyone knows about the painted churches, and we will be able to visit several. With their long overhanging double roofs, the paintings have been hidden from sunlight, and the colours are often as bright as the day they were painted. Hidden away in the small valleys, the churches were not discovered by non-Christian invaders, and so were not destroyed as so much else was.

In the Troodos we will visit a still-active monastery. In addition to a well-stocked library, which will be open for us, we may be able to sample the wine they make from their own grapes.

Many European countries that lay within the sway of the Roman empire have mosaics, pillars, houses, temples from that period, but I think Cyprus possibly has more in a small area than many other countries. Those at Pafos have been beautifully preserved, and are well worth a visit. And just to the east of Pafos is what is known as 'Palaia Pafos' or Old Pafos, a huge archaeological site not often visited by outsiders. The atmosphere here is so peaceful, and so evocative of past times.

The next year or two are important ones for Cyprus as it looks as if, after so long, the island may once more be united. Our tours will only take us to the southern part of the island, but by then it may be possible to come and go across

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the 'line of control' at will. We certainly all hope so. I have been told that the scenery in the northern part is even more stunning, and look forward to seeing it.

I first saw a neolithic village in Cyprus, nestling on the side of a hill not far from the sea. I was amazed that the walls of the houses had survived to the height they have, and it was only after seeing the one at Choirokoitia that I thought of looking for one in England. To be sure, our ancestors have left their mark here too, and I was able to see one in Cornwall.

The Cultural Foundation has laid on a magnificent few days for us. Quite apart from all the maps we shall see, and the new information we will acquire about this crossroads of the Eastern Mediterranean, we will be lavishly entertained. The Cyprus Map Society was established as a result of the first IMCoS visit to the island, under the leadership of Andreas and Maro Hadjipaschalis. Unfortuantely they are no long living, but I am sure that members of the Society will be most generous in their hospitality.

So don't miss this opportunity to come to Cyprus, to enjoy it with friends, and to share their joy at entering the EEC and hopefully uniting the two halves of their divided land. And in case, you enjoy sun-bathing, I am told that if the weather is kind this year, it will still be warm enough to bathe in October.

News from Germany

Exhibition on the Arctic

Gerard Mercator lived from 1552 until his death in 1594 in Duisburg. The climax of his cartographical career took place in this town where the river Ruhr flows into the river Rhine.

One of the most intriguing early maps, combining antiquated, medieval geographic concepts with some of the most advanced cartography of the day was Gerard Mercator's map of the Artic, the first devoted to this region around the North Pole.

The map, which appeared first as an inset of the same area on the great world map of 1569 was printed on a separate page in the first atlas of 1595 in Duisburg.It displays the 14th century conception of the polar region, in which the oceans of the world flowed into a polar sea through in-drawing streams between four huge islands. Although this was essentially fantasy, the idea of an open polar sea is basically correct and encouraged discoverers particularly from England and the Netherlands to make use of the northern sea passage in their attempts to reach the Pacific Ocean and the Spice Islands in competition to Spain and Portugal.

It is therefore not surprising that the Kultur- und Stadthistorisches Museum in Duisburg is celebrating its hundred-year anniversary with the exhibition 'Ships in the Ice Sea — Gerhard Mercator and modern Arctic research.' The exhibition opened on 24 November 2002 and will remain open until 16 March 2003.

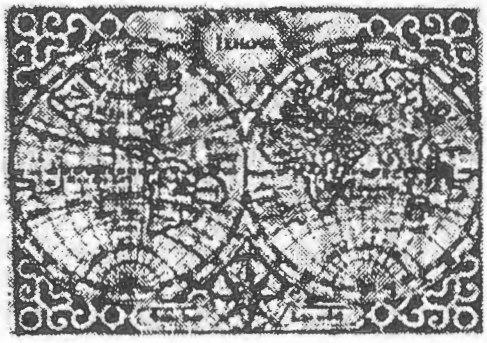
A catalogue which shows amongst others many Arctic maps and nautical instruments is available at Euro 12.50.

Maps have come on loan from many libraries, chief among them being those of Greenwich and Amsterdam. Many of them show the Arctic surrounded by icebergs and floe.

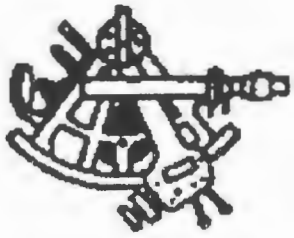
OSWALD DREYER-EIMBCKE

Editor's note: Mercator's map of the Arctic was illustrated on page 46 of the

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IMCoS Winter 2002 Journal. For an excellent book in English on Mercator, see the newly published *Mercator, the man who mapped the planet*, by Nicholas Crane, Weidenfeld & Nicholson, London, 2002.

Major Map Purchase

After trying for ten years, the federal state of Thuringia in Germany has succeeded in acquiring the famous map collection and library of the publishing company Justus Perthes of Gotha, which was founded in 1785. The purchase price of the collection, sold by Stephan Perthes, a descendant of the company's founder, was 6.4 million euro. The family business, which after the Second World War was taken over by the state under the name of 'VEB Hermann Haack Geographisch-kartographische Anstalt', had been returned to him in 1992. World-famous items include the *Stieler Hand Atlas* (since 1817) and the 'Communications from Dr. A.. Petermann', published since 1855, which were furnished with outstanding original maps.

Experts are sceptical about the official figures of more than 400,000 maps and some 120,000 books — figures that reflect the state of the collection at the end of the war. The books and maps are not catalogued, and the building in Gotha was occupied briefly by American troops and subsequently for many years by the Russians. Any losses, however, are more likely to affect the contemporary topographical maps than the historical ones.

It remains to be seen what will come of the plans to found the Gotha 'Museum of the Earth', which was to present the history of geography and cartography and provide a home for the Perthes collection. In 1997 the cost of creating the museum was put at around 15 million euro or US dollars.

OSWALD DREYER-EIMBCKE

Editor's note: Oswald wrote in IMCoS Journal no. 70, Autumn 1997, p.19, about the publishing company H. Berghaus & A. Petermann. At the end of his article he wrote: 'A Foundation for the Promotion of the Perthes Foundation has now been formed with the aim of preserving for posterity the cultural treasures that, regrettably, have hitherto been lying idle. It is planned to transform it into an interactive 'Museum of the Earth' by the start of the next century at the very latest.' Part of this plan has obviously now been achieved.

UK Events

London Collectors' Evening

This Journal should reach most of you before this meeting. If you plan to come and have not yet informed Caroline Batchelor (Tel: (0)1372 843425) , please do so, in order to make catering arrangments easier.

Daniel Crouch of the Shapero Gallery has agreed to host the meeting this year.

Date: Tuesday 25 February 2003

Place: The Shapero Gallery, 24 Bruton Street, London W1J 6QQ

Time: 6.00 pm

Visit to Liverpool
Date: 11–12 April 2003
Place: The Athenaeum, and Liverpool Record Office
Time: 5.30 pm on 11th April
Title: The History and Growth of Liverpool as seen through Maps
The AGM will be held on Saturday afternoon.

Forms for this meeting went out with the Winter Journal. Please contact Jenny Harvey (0208 789 7358) if you do not have one.

Visit to Oxford
Date: Saturday 30 August 2003
Place: Saskatchewan Room, Exeter College, Oxford
Time: 2.20 pm
Title: The Development of Printed Maps of Oxfordshire : An afternoon of English County Mapping with John Leighfield
Forms have been included with this Spring Journal. Please complete and send them to:
IMCoS Financial Secretariat
P.O. Box 412, Aylesbury, HP20 1WA

Maps and Society Lectures at the Warburg Institute, Woburn Square, London . 5.00 pm
March 20. Edwina Proudfoot *(St Andrews Heritage Services, St Andrews)*: 'John Geddy's map of St Andrews (1580). A post and future framework.'
May 1. René Tebel *(Doctoral candidate, University of Vienna)*: 'The significance of the ship image on early modern maps from the 10th to the 17th centuries.'
May 29. Dr Daniel Connolly *(Franke Humanities Institute, University of Chicago)*: 'The performance of history in the itinerary map of Matthew Paris.'



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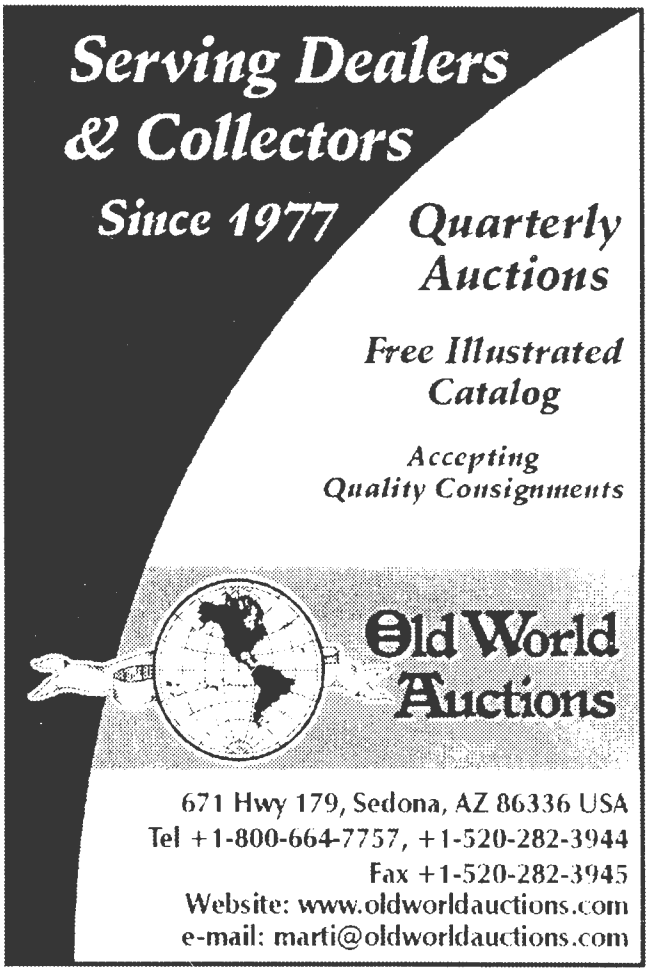
New Membership forms

New forms have been printed, giving more up-to-date information, and telling new and prospective members what the Society is about.

As the subscription fees have been increased this year, members who still have copies of the old forms are requested to dispose of them, so that they are not picked up by interested parties, and sent to the Administrative Officer. It causes confusion when incorrect amounts of money are transferred or sent by cheque. The forms are dated beneath the application form section

If you would like to have forms to give to friends who might be interested, please apply to the Membership Secretary (e-mail: imcos@mapeq.com).

If you are a dealer, please keep them on the counter.



June Weekend

Date: 7–8 June 2003
Place: Olympia, London
Saturday 7th at the Hilton Hotel and Olympia 2
14.30 Alistair S. Maeer: 'The Cartography of Commerce'

17th century English overseas expansion, as represented and understood from English maps, particularly the Thames school of mapmakers.

15.10 Margaret Small: 'Motifs and Mystery: Classical influences on the 16th century image of Northern Europe'

Margaret will discuss how Northern Europe, particularly Scandinavia and northern Russia, remained outside the knowledge of Southern Europeans, many of whom believed that the 'frigid zone' was so inhospitable that it destroyed all life. Olaus Magnus challenged these assumptions and provided historical information on Scandinavia to the rest of Europe.

15.50 Tea
16.30 Map Fair in Olympia 2: Members preview where maps can be seen and bought
19.15 Reception in The Westminster Suite, Hilton Hotel
19.45 Dinner

The IMCoS-Helen Wallis Award will be presented at the Dinner.

Sunday 8th: IMCoS International Map Fair.
Opens at 10.30 am, closes at 5.30 pm.

A cartographic quotation, supplied by Valerie Scott

Stay, bold Adventurer; rest awhile thy limbs
On this commodious Seat! for much remains
Of hard ascent before thou reach the top
Of this huge Eminence, — from blackness named...

Know, if thou grudge not to prolong thy rest
That on the summit whither thou art bound,
A geographic Labourer pitched his tent,
With books supplied and instruments of art,
To measure height and distance; lonely task,
Week after week pursued! - To him was given
Full many a glimpse (but sparingly bestowed
On timid man) of Nature's processes
Upon the exalted hills. He made report
That once, while there he plied his studious work,
Within that canvas Dwelling, colours, lines,
And the whole surface of the out-spread map,
Became invisible: for all around
Had darkness fallen — unthreatened, unproclaimed —
As if the golden day itself had been
Extinguished in a moment; total gloom,
In which he sate alone, with unclosed eyes,
Upon the blinded mountain's silent top! WILLIAM WORDSWORTH

If you come across a reference to cartography or maps in your reading, do send it in for others to enjoy.

IMCoS TRAVEL GRANTS

IMCoS offers Travel Grants to the value of £300 to be awarded to assist young members to travel to, or stay at, the location of either the annual UK symposium, for those coming from outside the UK, or the international symposium, for those coming from outside the host country.

Members are invited to submit their application for the award of this Travel Grant, if they fulfil the following requirements:

1.They should have been a fully paid-up member of IMCoS for two calendar years before the year in which the symposium is held.

2. They should be under the age of 32 years at the time of the symposium.

3. They should undertake to write a report of their attendance at the symposium for publication in the IMCoS Journal.

4. The application should state the member's date of birth, and be reconunended by two fully paid-up members of IMCoS.

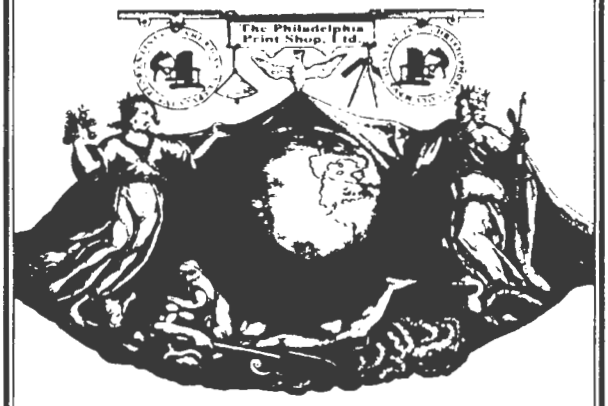
A Travel Grant committee composed of the President of IMCoS, the Executive Chairman, and the International Chairman will decide upon the recipient of the award each year.

Suitable applications are invited at any time during the year, stating the symposium for which the Travel Grant is requested.

The decision of the Travel Grant Committee will be final, and no further correspondence will be entertained. If an applicant's proposal is not accepted, they are free to apply again, so long as they fulfil the above requirements.

Applications should be sent to:
The Chairman, IMCoS, IMCoS Administrative Office, P.O. Box 412,Aylesbury HP20 1WA

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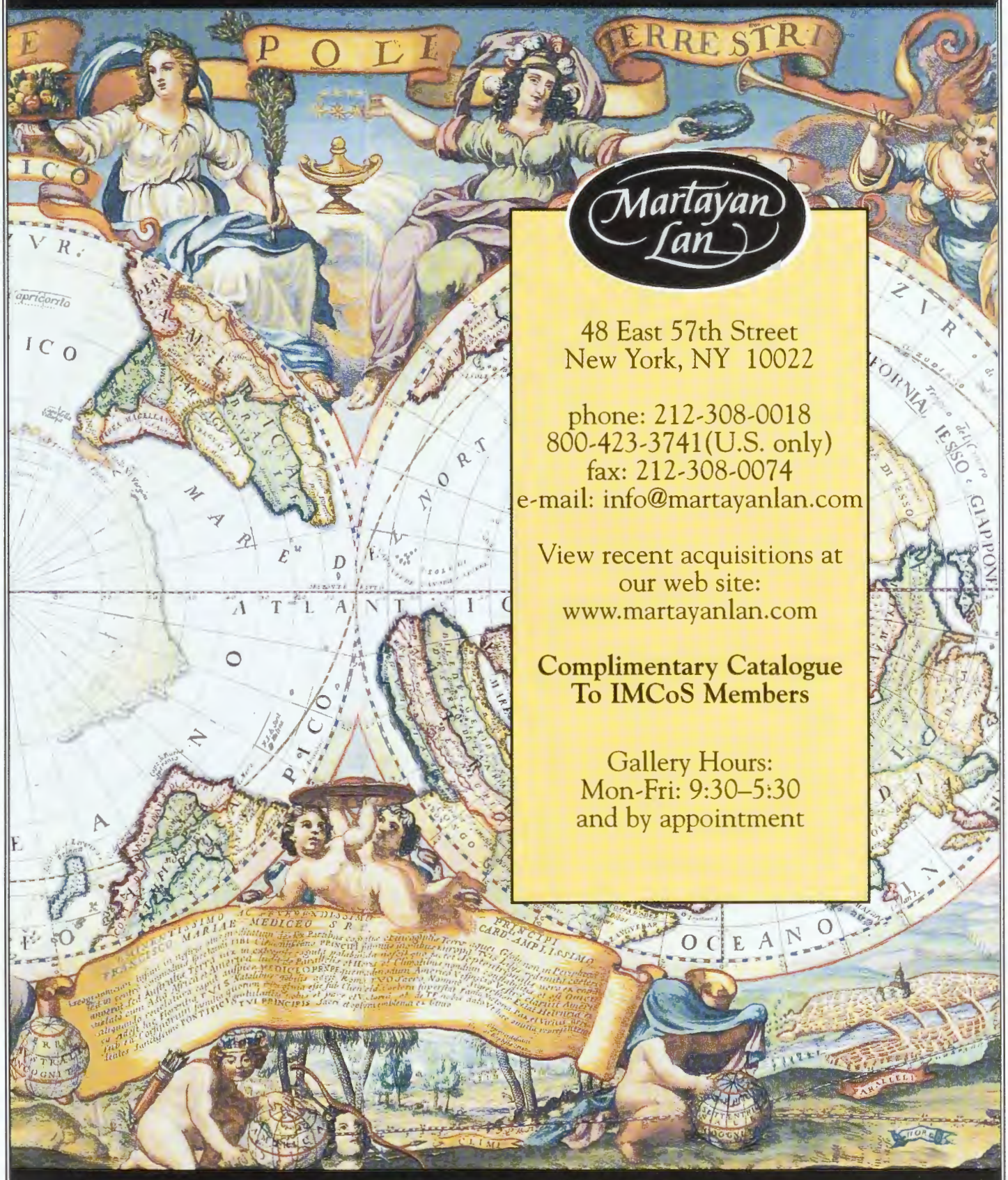
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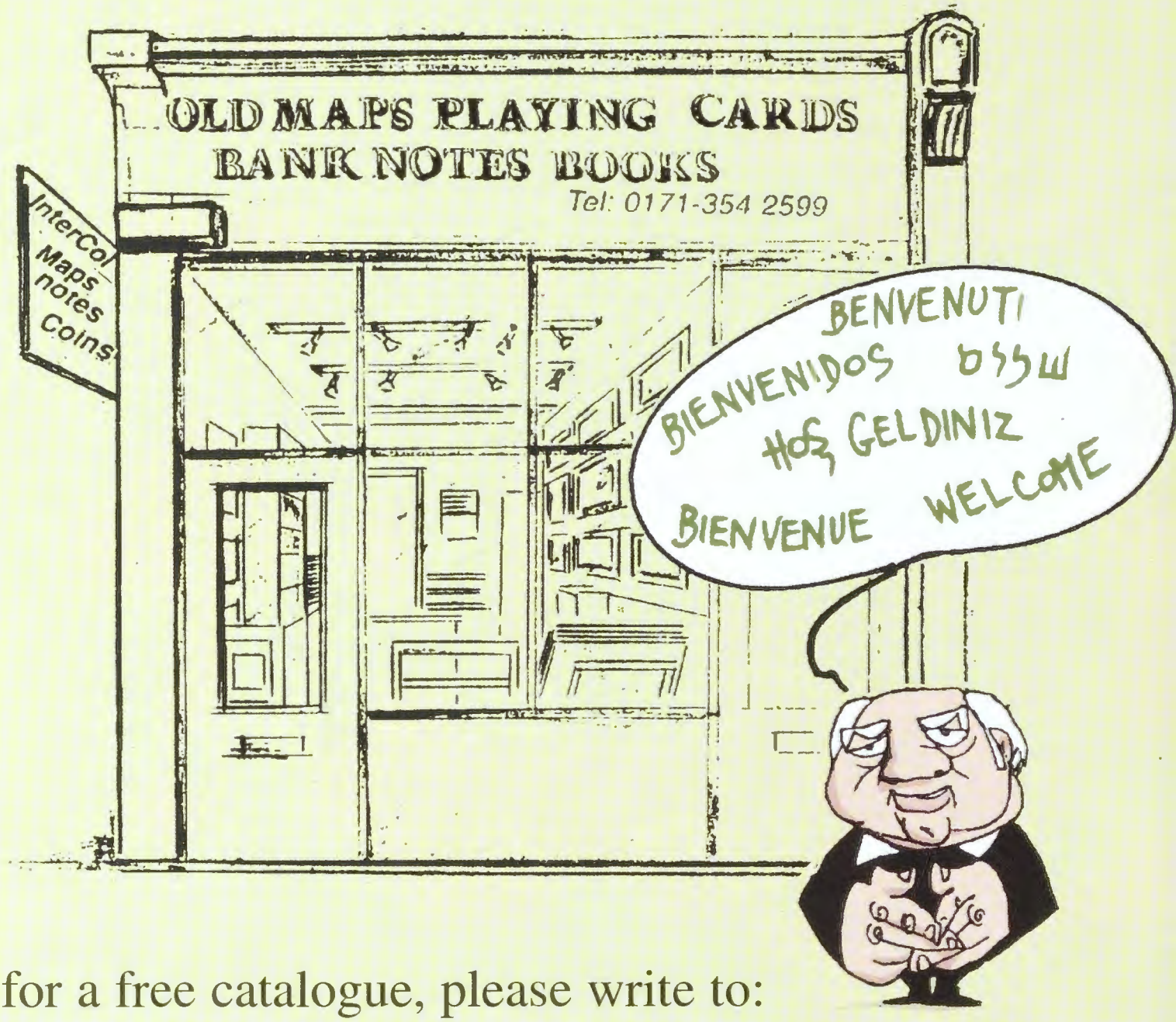
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