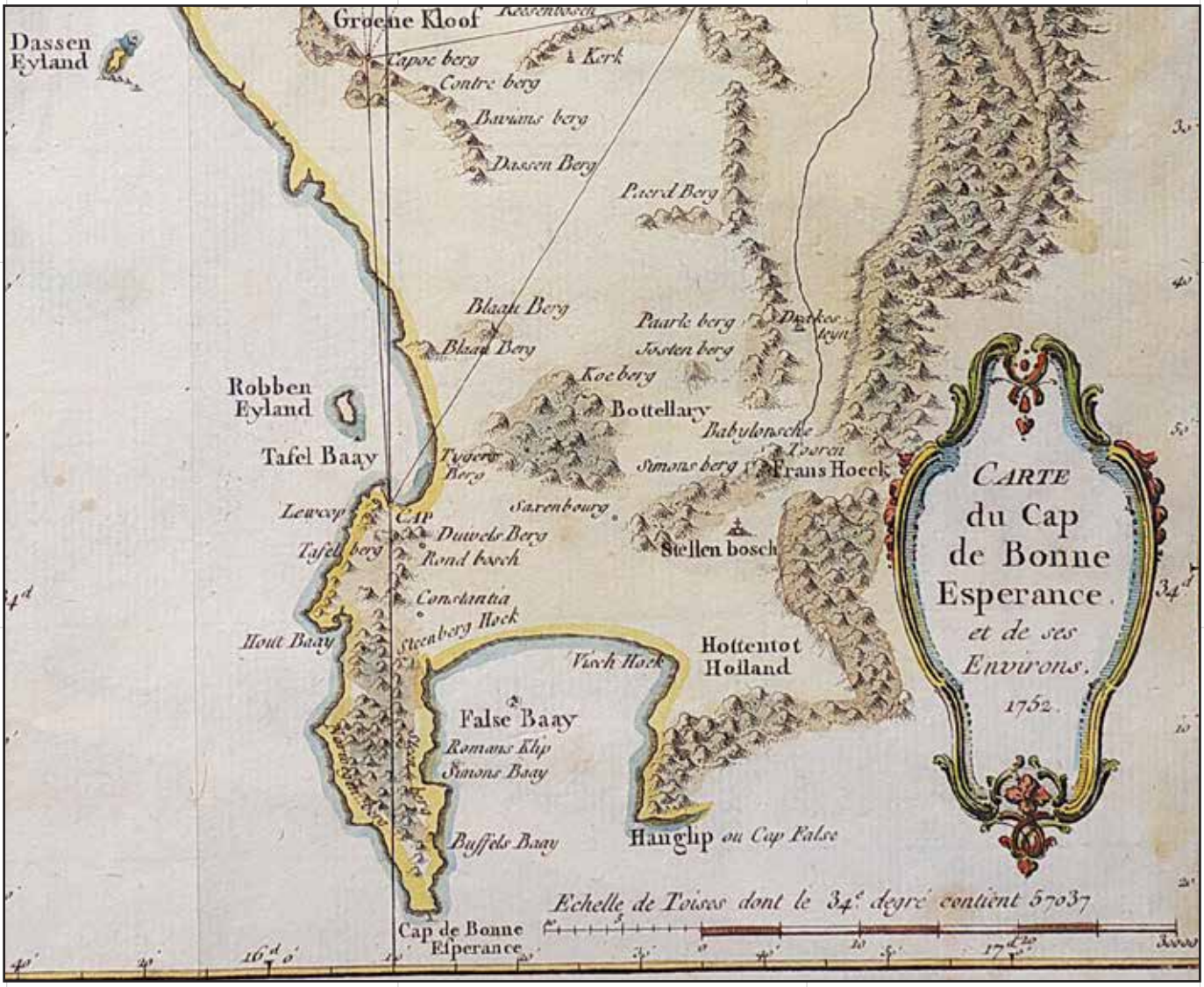
MAPS IN HISTORY

JANUARY 2024
Newsletter No
78

Mapping of the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes
Untangling the authors of the 'Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance'
Marcus Gerards in stitches



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Erratum :
An error inadvertently slipped into the article 'Making a frontier: The Brussels line between Iraq and Turkey' of Maps in History No 77 during the editorial review process: in page 27 the phrase 'the frontier between Syria and Iraq' should instead say 'the frontier between Turkey and Iraq'.
Our apologies to the author and to the readers.

Cover : De Lacaille's small map of the Cape of Good Hope was influential; it was clearly the model for the terrestrial outline and toponyms of 'Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance' - 1752 (see also Fig. 2 - page 22).

Intro

Dear Map Circle Members,

Time's Person of 2023 Taylor Swift once said that, 'Just because you made a good plan, doesn't mean that's what's gonna happen.' In the previous issue of Maps in History, I confidently announced three articles for this January 2024 issue but, unexpectedly, all three have been delayed for unrelated reasons. Fortunately, this has been more than compensated by contributions from half a dozen authors, some of them new to our magazine and whom I warmly welcome.

I am thus glad to share with you Rick Smit's account of the formation of the political borders of Yugoslavia, a prime example of our magazine's founding goal of exploring how maps have played a role in historical events. Articles about other countries' borders may follow in future issues but, hey, please do not take that as a firm promise!

Roger Stewart, for his part, sets the historical record straight about the authorship of an influential French map of the Cape of Good Hope. Roger is a longtime contributor to our magazine and an expert on maps of this South African region.

Art historian and globe enthusiast Isabel Sophie Oberländer gives us a vivid account of the Coronelli Symposium in Berlin and Bernard-Régis Larue reports on the Circle's excursion to Allard Pierson in Amsterdam. Long-time contributors Nicola Boothby and Caroline De Candt complete the issue with, respectively, a 'Look At Books' and a description of an unusual – and very impressive! – hand-made map.

I wish you all a happy 2024 and an enjoyable read.

Luis A. Robles Macías, editor

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Making Maps in History

This issue of Maps in History was edited by Luis Robles.

Paul De Candt did the layout .

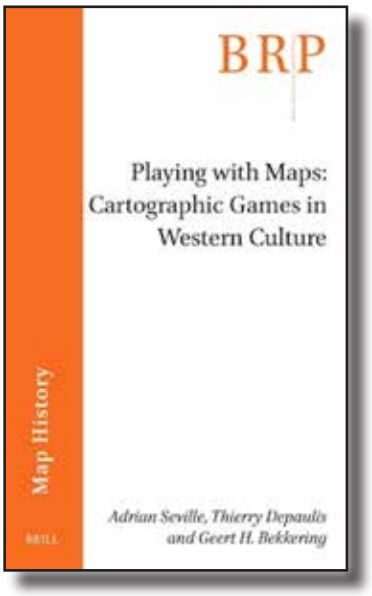
Contents have been checked by
the Editorial Committee comprising
Jean-Louis Renteux, Nicola Boothby, Wouter Bracke, Francis Herbert, Pierre Parmentier, Soetkin Vervust and Luis Robles.

Playing with maps:

Cartographic Games in Western Culture

by Adrian Seville, Thierry Depaulis and Geert H. Bekkering

- Brill, from the Brill Research Perspectives on Map History series
- 155 pages, illustrated in colour, soft back, 23.5 × 15.5 cm
- ISBN 978-90-04-54406-2, EUR 74.20



This is a fascinating book, first and foremost because it stretches the reader's comfort zone. We recognise map designers, engravers and even publishers, but their output is rather different from what we are used to. Some readers may remember Adrian Seville's article for the Map Circle's *Newsletter* – the former name of Maps in History – in January 2005 (NL25) on 'Le Jeu de France – Pierre Duval's Map Game'. Subsequently, in NL 30, he wrote about 'The geographical Jeux de l'Oie of Europe (The Game of the Goose)'. This article was also published in the Belgian Journal of Geography, BELGEO, in 2008.

In *Playing with Maps: Cartographic Games in Western Culture*, Seville defines cartographic games as those 'that show on their surface at least one map'. We are given a definition of a map, and a definition of a game. The book covers three areas of games: playing cards, board games, and jigsaw puzzles in the form of dissected maps, but he stresses that his research here is more about the 'physical realisation' of the games than how they are played – an aspect labelled 'material culture'. Playing card games first came into being as educational tools in the fifteenth century in Italy and a version of the *Game of the Goose* board game was given as a gift by Grand Duke Francesco I de Medici to Philip II of Spain in the late sixteenth. Puzzles – dissected maps – were first produced from the second quarter of the eighteenth century. The authors' research extends into the early twentieth century. They do not look at modern digital games. They also provide a great deal of information on editions, versions, origins and current location/collection of these cartographic artefacts.

Playing Cards

European playing cards can be divided according to their types of suit symbols: Latin, Germanic and French. So-called 'Latin symbols'– cups, coins, swords and batons – used on Italian, Spanish and Portuguese packs are derived from Mamluk origins via Moorish Granada. Germanic systems use acorns, leaves, bells and hearts, while the French system uses spades, clubs, hearts and diamonds. French cardmakers made better and cheaper playing cards, and Britain relied on French imports.

China is thought to have invented paper playing cards. The Mongols are thought to have introduced the Chinese game into Persia. From Persia the new games reached the Mamluk Sultanate where Catalan and Italian traders discovered them in the mid-fourteenth century.

From the start, educational cards were published by book printers or print makers, not by cardmakers who made playing cards for entertainment. By the end of the sixteenth century they moved from woodcut printing to copper engraving, enabling finer detail.

Publishers and engravers of packs of cards are not necessarily well-known, but they often have very well-known connections. The first set from England that the authors mention were published by William Bowes and engraved by Augustine Ryther in 1590. The engraver worked for better-known Christopher Saxton; the maps on the cards are from Saxton's atlas.

In France we hear about Pierre Duval, nephew and pupil of Nicolas Sanson. His cards are known only in the form of sheets, see Fig. 1: *Les Tables de Géographie reduites en un Jeu de Cartes (1669).*
Northern Italy produced tarot packs with 78 cards; its 97-card Florentine variant was called *Minchiate*.

Fig. 1. Pierre Duval, Les Tables de Géographie reduites en un jeu de Cartes, 1669

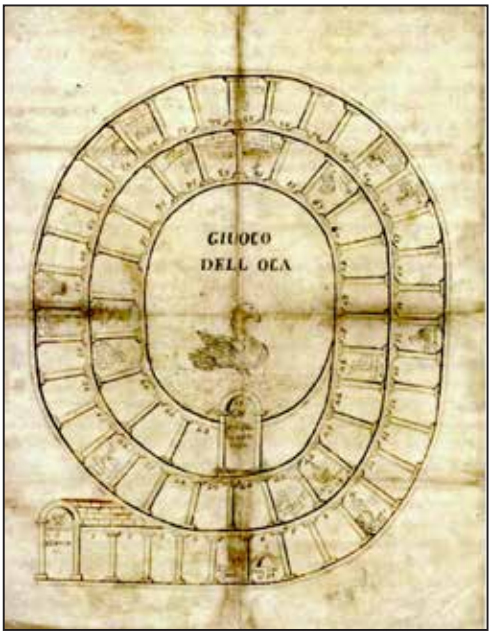


Fig. 2. Manuscript Game of the Goose, Italy, late sixteenth century, Ciompi Collection

We have packs from Germany where the earliest known is the *Europaeische-geographische Spiel-Charte,* published in Nuremberg by Johann Hofmann in 1678.

Pierre Duval's *Tables de Géographie* was translated into German and published around 1690. In the Netherlands Covens and Mortier published the majority of card games, buying almost all engraved games published in Paris from the 1640s to the early eighteenth century. We also have packs of cards from Russia and the United States.

Cartographic Board Games

These games differ from playing card games in that in most cases the maps 'are an essential playing element of the game'. There are various types: race games – the largest category – strategy games and lotteries.

The first example of a simple race game played on a track with undifferentiated spaces is *Mehen* (Serpent) from Egypt dated about 3000 BCE. More recently we have the Game of the Goose, a precursor to cartographic race games, as mentioned above. One of the first aspects that stands out when comparing board race games with playing card games is that the rules of race games are known in a fair amount of detail. The *Game of the Goose,* see Fig. 2, involves moving along a track of numbered spaces according to the throw of the dice or the landing of the spinner. It was played for stakes, but children played for sweets, nuts 'or just counters of no value'. The game's cultural importance lies in its range of variants, especially the educational variants developed in France. These covered history, religion, the arts of war and ... geography.

Games had to move with the times; in England the Gambling Act of 1710 had imposed a duty on cards and dice; games therefore moved to using a small numbered spinning top – a teetotum – to replace the double dice of the *Goose*. History – the restoration of the monarchy in France and the expansion of the German empire, for example – also obliged game-makers to keep up.

Noted makers of board games are Pierre Duval – see playing cards, above – who produced the first board game with geography as its subject, the *Jeu du Monde,* 1645[1].

In 1749 Irishman Thomas Nugent published *The Grand Tour,* the first detailed guidebook for English gentlemen wanting to go on the Grand Tour of Europe. In England it spawned games such as *A Journey through Europe* or the *Play of Geography*, John Jefferys, c.1759. The game was also the first to feature moving tokens along a track on a map and the game sheet states that it is to be played in all respects the same as in the *Game of the Goose.* Games featuring tours became highly popular.

During the nineteenth century early printing techniques were giving way to lithography, hand-colouring to chromolithography. This made it possible to offer a wider range of games, to a wider market. Beautiful boxed games were in vogue, as David Ogilvy's *L'Orient or the Indian Travellers,* but at the other end of the market much cheaper versions were on offer, the 'penny games' from around 1900, for example.

1 See Adrian Seville's cited article in Newsletter No 25.

Fig. 3. John Russell R.A. Portrait of a Young Boy with a Map Jigsaw Puzzle & His Brother seated at a Table c.1780 - Artware Fineart

Fig. 5. Plan of Stockholm 1795 by Fredrik Akrel (1748-1804), dissected city plan, assembled in a flat wooden box with a sliding lid. Nordic Museum, Stockholm

Dissected Maps

The first we hear of dissected maps is in the 1720s and 30s from German and French teachers who described how useful they are for educating children. The earliest commercially available dissected maps were mounted on wood, and dissected along border lines, as we see in John Russell's portrait of children playing, see figure 3.

The main protagonists in England were Madame de Beaumont, a Frenchwoman who came to London to work as a governess, John Spilsbury, cartographer and engraver who worked under Thomas Jefferys, the Royal Geographer, and Le Prince, supposedly Jean-Robert Le Prince, a geographer living in London.

In France dissected maps were often cut along wavy lines, though maps of France itself were cut along the borders of 'départements' (Fig. 4.).

Fig. 4. France dissected maps along borders of the "Départements "

German dissected maps were also often cut into small pieces along wavy lines rather than border lines. Examples include Jakob Friedrich Klemm's *New Atlas for Youth* 1782. In the 1890s the Geographical Patience Games emerged; some were cut into triangles enabling a mosaic pattern puzzle on the reverse. Puzzle globes were also made.

Dissected maps surviving in the Netherlands indicate that they were in common use as educational tools. Those found use maps by De l'Isle and Covens and Mortier, also by Van der Aa. Here pieces continued to be cut along borders in the traditional English way.

In Sweden we see a new development. In the late eighteenth century maps produced here were dissected into irregular pieces, one example being Fred Akrel's Plan of Stockholm 1795, see Fig. 5. While they seem to have been popular there in upper social circles, there is no evidence that they were used in formal educational environments.

The book ends with a list of references, a most useful index of games and a general index.

The book is not an easy introduction to the subject for the uninitiated, but rather a reference book for collectors of playing card, board and puzzle games. Given the detail, especially on the playing cards/playing card sheets, the content of the book would merit larger format illustrations, and indeed a larger size overall. The authors have, however, done an excellent job of communicating the energy and excitement of the games discussed. Looking objectively at the connections between maps and games has been both challenging and enjoyable.

Nicola Boothby
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Orientation map of the current Central Balkans

Fig. 1. ' Serbien u. Montenegro' [Serbia and Montenegro], a map published in 1903 by the Austrian publishing company Artaria & Co.

Mapping of the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes

Introduction

This article is about the mapping of the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes (in local language: Kraljevina Srba, Hrvata i Slovenaca — Kingdom of SHS) just before, during and immediately after World War I. By the end of 1920 its borders were finally drawn. The Kingdom of SHS, as it is also referred to, is the predecessor of Yugoslavia which became the formal name of the country in 1929.
This is the first of a series of articles that will explain — through the use of maps — how borders in the Balkan and neighbouring countries were established after the Great War and defined in different treaties in 1919 and 1920. Articles in preparation are: (a) Albania — a new state on the map, (b) Hungary — the Treaty of Trianon, (c) Bulgaria, Thrace, Greece and Macedonia — where religions and politics collide, (d) Transylvania — the ethnographic question: Romanian or Hungarian? Or German? and (e) Italy, South Tyrol, Istria and Dalmatia — irredentas and strategic interests.

Serbia's pre-war aspirations

Most of the southern territories of what would become the Kingdom of SHS were once part of the Ottoman empire. An exception was Montenegro, a country that had always successfully defended its independence. At the Berlin Congress in 1878, it was decided that Serbia would become an independent country, after having had many years of autonomy under Ottoman rule. Meanwhile the decision was taken that Austria would be allowed to occupy Bosnia and Herzegovina; this took place by the end of the same year. Other areas of what one day would become Yugoslavia remained under the control of the Ottomans — Southern-Serbia, Macedonia, until 1912 — and the Habsburgs —Croatia, Slovenia and Bosnia — until the end of World War I.

During the nineteenth century, nationalist movements, of which Panslavism was the most predominant in the Balkans, gained importance and influence. Serbia was the driver of Panslavism with the initial goal of bringing together all Serbians living in the Ottoman and Habsburg empires into a Serbian state. A first step would be having access to the Adriatic Sea by acquiring Bosnia-Herzegovina, Montenegro, Kosovo and northern Albania. It was clear that Austria's occupation of Bosnia-Herzegovina did not fit into that aspiration, and, as a consequence, tensions between the Serbs and Austrians arose.
In later years Panslavism increasingly focused, with the full support of Russia, on the creation of a state that would also include Croatia, Dalmatia, the northern part of Macedonia and Slovenia.

Austrian mapmakers, such as Artaria and Freytag & Berndt, regularly published updates of maps covering the Balkan countries (fig.1). In 1908 Austria annexed Bosnia-Herzegovina thus strengthening its strategic position in the area but angering Serbia and Russia. As Austria was clearly interested in further expansion to the south, the demand for maps increased. Towards and during the Balkan Wars and World War I, regular updates of Artaria maps were published.
Maps were important to make visible, justify and claim areas that were considered to be Serbian land, or any other ethnic related lands that should become part of a Slav state. Ethnographic maps were used to 'prove' that Slavic populations extended through Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina and the Adriatic region, to Vojvodina (*Treaty of London*[1]) — north of the Danube River — and Kosovo and northern Albania to the south. Serbs had already declared Macedonians as Serbian while the Greeks and Bulgarians claimed Macedonians for their respective interests. Ethnographic maps would refer to e.g. Serbian Albanians (Argonauts) to justify these claims.

The '*Tageskarte zur Serbischen Frage*' (fig. 2) illustrates well how a map may influence the reader. This map is an ethnographic map from a Serbian nationalist point of view: ethnic Serbs are considered to inhabit Croatia, Slavonia, Vojvodina, Dalmatia and Bosnia-Herzegovina (all under Habsburg control), Montenegro and Serbia (independent states), the area around Üsküb/Skopje) and the Sanjak of Novi Pazar (both under Ottoman control in 1910). The Sanjak was the area situated between Montenegro and Serbia and remained part of the Ottoman Empire so as to have a buffer area between these two states. Kosovo and Northern Albania were inhabited by Serbian Albanians (Argonauts). Many of the people living in the mentioned areas did not regard themselves as Serbs. Most of the ethnic groups mentioned disagreed with this definition and did not see themselves as Serbs.
It is remarkable to see that this map was published by a German publishing company: Germany usually did not support Serbia's aspirations as they were contrary to the interests of German ally Austria-Hungary.
As an aside, this map was used by the American Delegation at the Paris Treaty negotiations in 1919.

1 The Treaty of London (1913) dealt with the territorial adjustments arising out of the conclusion of the First Balkan War.

Fig. 2. 'Tageskarte zur Serbischen Frage' [Up-to-date map dealing with the Serbian question] published around 1910 by Justus Perthes. Source: University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Libraries.

The Balkan Wars

In 1911 and 1912 the Ottoman Empire and Italy fought a war over Libya and the Dodecanese islands. By the end of 1912, the Ottomans had lost the fight and ceded these areas to Italy. It was clear that the Ottomans were weak and not well organised at this point in time. Encouraged by Ottoman weakness, Greece, Bulgaria, Montenegro and Serbia created an alliance and jointly declared war on the Ottomans. Serbia was mainly interested in the Sanjak, Kosovo and parts of Albania (Durës/Durazzo) with access to the Adriatic Sea, Montenegro focused on the city of Scutari and surroundings, and Greece would occupy the south of Albania (Northern Epirus). Macedonia would be shared among Bulgaria, Serbia and Greece.

The alliance was successful and, after a brief war, the First Balkan War, a ceasefire was agreed on 3 December 1912. However, repartition of conquered land caused frustration and irritation. Albania had declared independence by end of November, which was fully supported by Austria so as to deny Serbia access to the sea, and by western countries so that Serbia would not allow its supporter Russia to make use of the Durës/Durazzo harbour. Besides, Bulgaria took possession of most parts of Macedonia and showed little willingness to revise its preliminary borders.

With the Treaty of London, signed on 30 May 1913, Albania's independence was recognised by the western countries and its future borders had to be respected by the Balkan states. The Ottoman Empire

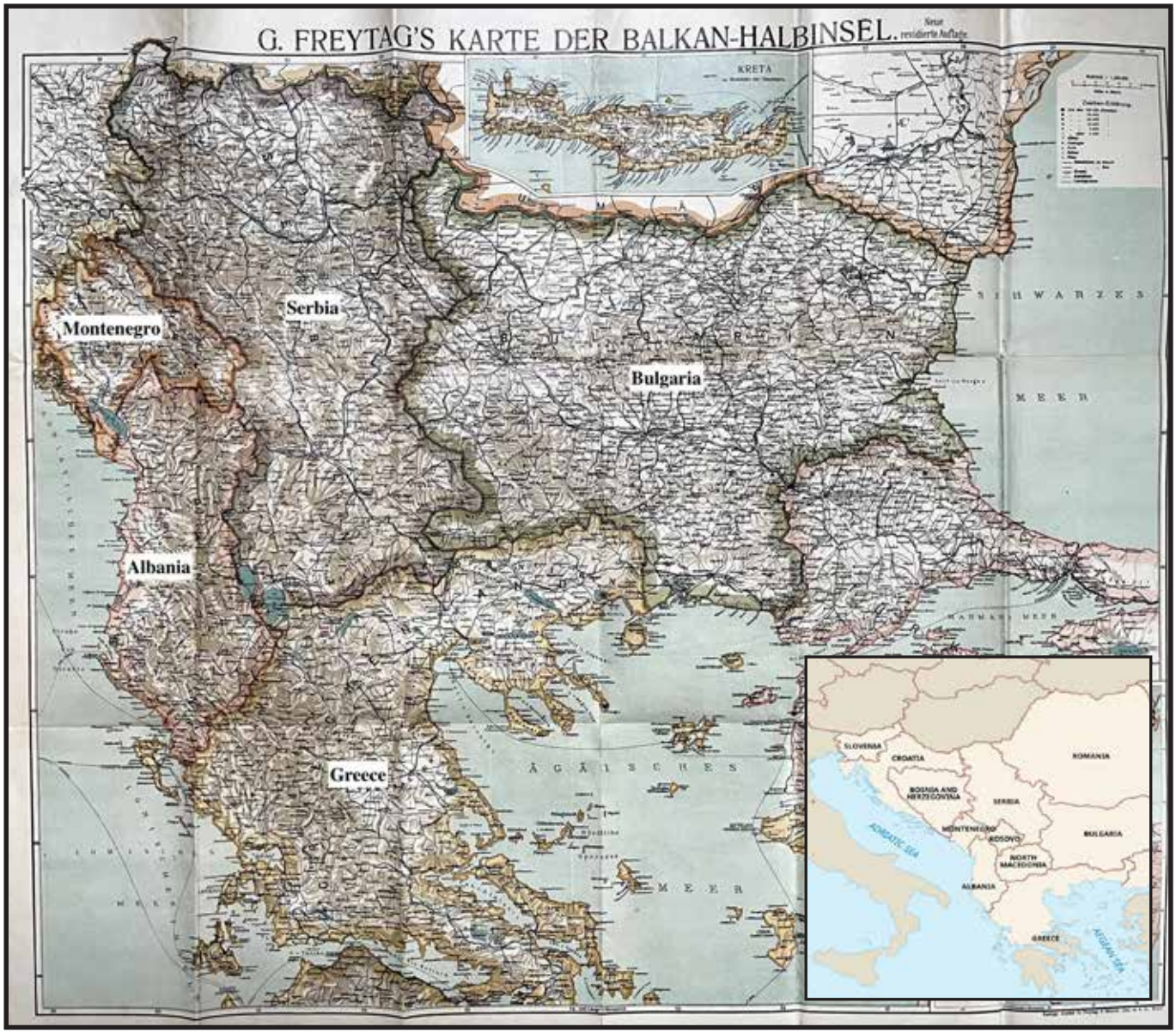

Fig. 3. 'G. Freytag's Karte der Balkan Halbinsel' [G. Freytag's map of the Balkan Peninsula] depicts the new borders after the two Balkan Wars that took place in 1912 and 1913. Albania became independent, Serbia acquired the Sanjak and Kosovo, Greece took possession of southern Epirus, Thessaloniki and parts of Macedonia.

had to cede most of the Aegean islands including Crete to Greece. Fixing the borders of the conquered areas was left to the belligerents themselves.

This led to the Second Balkan War between Serbia — that was frustrated by its lack of access to the Adriatic —, Montenegro and Greece on one side, and Bulgaria on the other side. The goal was to redefine the borders in Macedonia. Bulgaria lost and had to cede most of recently acquired Macedonia to Serbia, Montenegro and Greece.

The Treaty of Bucharest, signed on 10 August 1913, confirmed the new borders between the southern Balkan countries (fig. 3).

The Corfu Conference

Only a year later World War I broke out. One month after the Habsburg Crown Prince was murdered in Sarajevo, Austria-Hungary blamed Serbia for the murder and declared war against Serbia on 28 July 1914. Serbia, initially defending itself successfully, was overrun by the Central Powers (Bulgarian and Habsburg armies) in 1915. Slovenes, Bosnians and Croats, that were fighting in the Central Power armies, fought against the Serbians. After Serbia was defeated, King Petar, the Serbian government, and what remained of the Serbian army, fled to Albania and went to live on the island of Corfu.

Fig. 4. Ethnographic map depicting a Yugoslavia whose borders are claimed for the future pro-Slavic nation.

It was on this island that the idea of the creation of a South-Slavic[2] state further developed: all Slav people living in the former Habsburg and Ottoman lands should be united and live in a new state. The Serbian government in exile, organised around their King Petar I, was focused on a creating a centralised pan-Serbian state, supervised by Serbia, as a structure that they had once experienced in a similar way under Ottoman rule. The South Slavic Committee, represented by the areas that had so far been under the Habsburg regime, were strong supporters of a federal state with a lot of autonomy for the different countries — as they were used to under Habsburg rule: a kind of federal state based on equality among the ethnic groups that were living in the state.

On 20 July 1917 both groups signed the *Corfu Declaration*, stating their intentions to establish a South Slav State — the later Kingdom of SHS. Decisions on the political structure, which languages to use and how to integrate religious diversity were postponed.

A propaganda map was published in 1917 (fig. 4) by a Croatian committee exiled in South America and made by Marcel Kolin, a Panslavic propagandist. The dotted line depicts the wished-for new state border, including disputed areas of Carinthia, the Banat — around Timisoara in today's Romania — and Istria including the city of Trieste.

Corfu Declaration 1917

The preamble stated that the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes were "the same by blood, by language, by the feelings of their unity, by the continuity and integrity of the territory which they inhabit undividedly, and by the common vital interests of their national survival and manifold development of their moral and material life."

The future state was to be called the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes and was to be a constitutional monarchy under the Karadordevic dynasty.

2 Southern Slavs are Slavs living in the countries south of Austria and Hungary: Serbs, Croats, Slovenes, Montenegrins, Bulgarians and Macedonians. Northern Slavs include Czechs, Slovaks and Poles. Eastern Slavs are Russians and White Russians. Ruthenians and Ukrainians are usually regarded as a separate ethnic group.

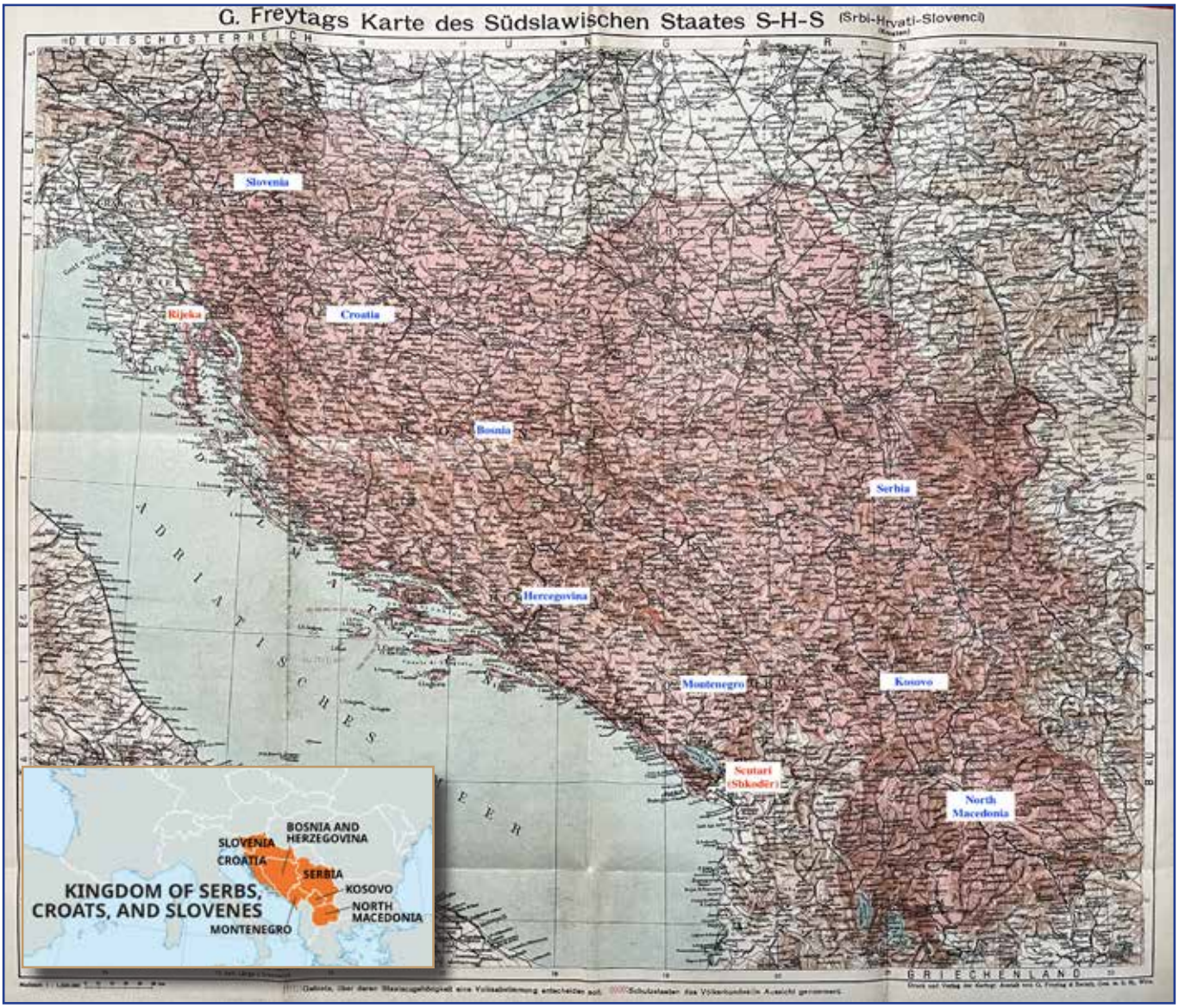

Fig. 6. 'G. Freytag's Karte der Südslawischen Staates (S-H-S)' [G. Freytag's map of the South-Slavic State]. Published in 1919 before the Paris Peace Treaties of Trianon and Neuilly were signed. It depicts the preliminary borders. Note that Scutari (Shkodër)in Albania and Fiume (Rijeka) are still part of the Kingdom of SHS.

Creation of the Kingdom of SHS

Following the defeat of Austria-Hungary in the World War I, on 1 December 1918 the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes was proclaimed. Aside from these ethnic groups, many other minorities such as Hungarians, Germans, Albanians and Romanians were living within the borders of the new state. Serbia considered Macedonians and Montenegrins as Serbians. Five different currencies, four different railway networks and three different bank systems complicated the unity. Three predominant religions, Roman Catholics, Orthodox Christians and Muslims, co-existed next to each other or entirely mixed in several areas while different languages, written in either Cyrillic or in Latin alphabets, were used. Eighty percent of the population were farmers, very often illiterate, and with no interest in the new Kingdom. Those who had an interest usually disagreed with each other, so the state became unstable as from its proclamation. Meanwhile, it had to deal with border disputes with all neighbouring (and unfriendly) countries except for Greece.

Fig. 5. Propaganda postcard showing the victory of the Kingdom of SHS over the Central Powers.

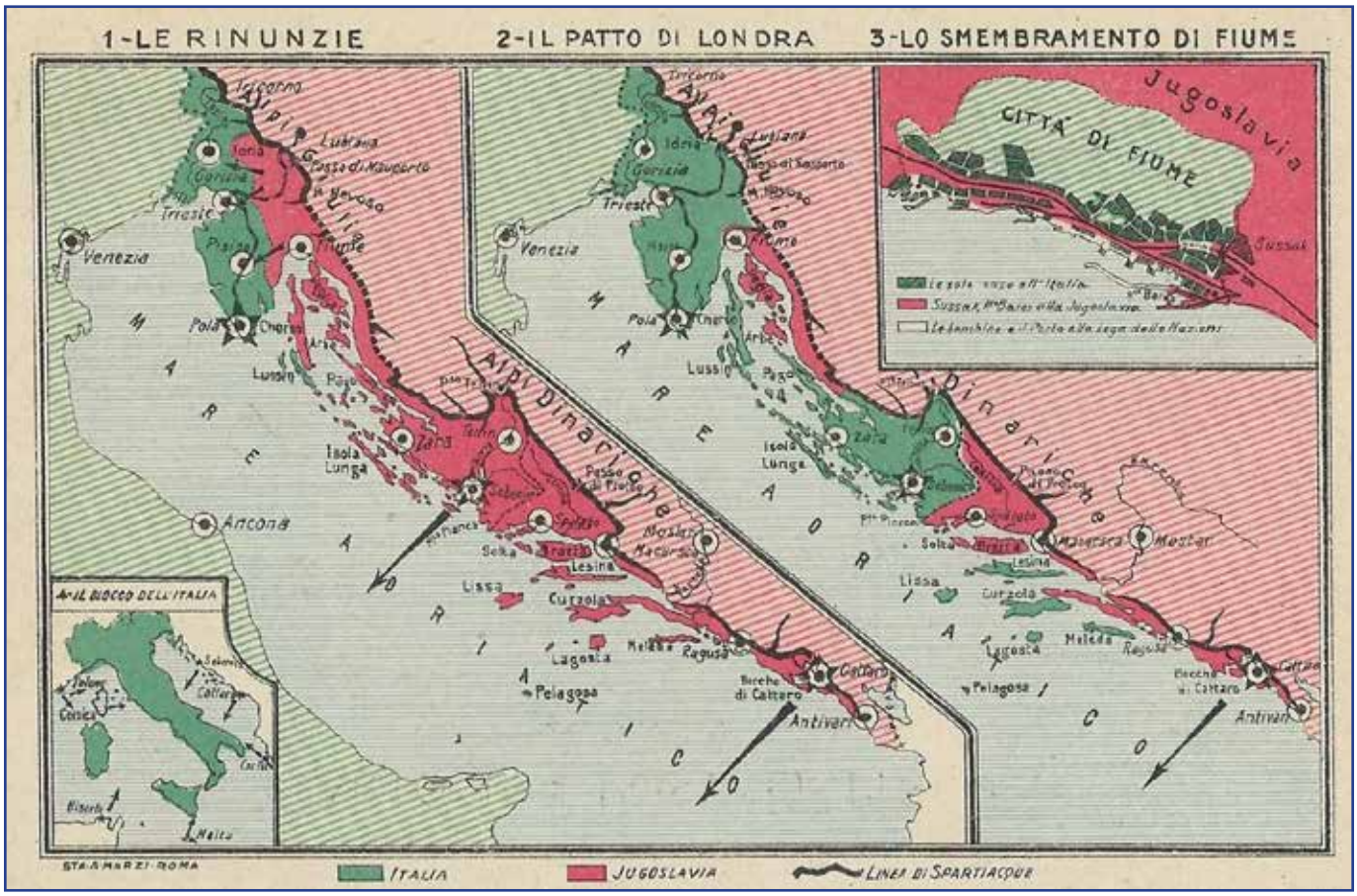

Fig. 7. Italian Propaganda postcard showing Italian claims (1919): 1 – Italian imperial claims in red; 2 – Italian and Yugoslav areas according to the Treaty of London; 3 – Fiume with main port facilities (Italy) and Susak (Yugoslavia).

Border disputes

Italy – Dalmatia and Istria

In 1915, Italy signed the secret Treaty of London with Great Britain, France and Russia. On condition that they would join the war on the side of the Allies, Italy would receive parts of Austrian Tyrol, Istria and Trieste (but not Fiume/Rijeka), parts of Dalmatia and almost all the Dalmatian islands, Valona in Albania, the Dodecanese and a zone on the Turkish Mainland (Adana area).

With respect to Istria and Dalmatia, a dispute between Yugoslavia and Italy arose after the Great War.
The borderlands between Italy and Yugoslavia were complex: ethnic, cultural and military lines did not coincide. With respect to the Dalmatian coast, except for the city of Zara (Zadar), Slavs formed a majority of about 90%. Italy claimed the Dalmatian coast for strategic reasons: to be protected against any possible attack from the east on the Italian Peninsula. In addition, Italy laid claim to Fiume (Rijeka) as a separate city, and backed by political opponents of the Italian government, Italy occupied it in 1919 (fig.7).

Two years of tension between the two countries followed. Only in November 1920 did Italy and The Kingdom sign the Treaty of Rapallo, allocating the city and railway junction at Tarvisio, Istria, parts of today's Slovenia, and a few Dalmatian islands to Italy. The cities of Fiume (Rijeka) and Zara (Zadar) would have the status of a free city with a territorial connection to Italy. The Kingdom of SHS secured the Dalmatian coastlands and most of the islands.

The Croats thus lost their major port and got the neighbouring city of Susak as consolation. Croats blamed the Serbs for having given away Fiume to Italy, thus depriving them of their main economical and logistical centre, and providing Italy with a way to weaken Croatia as an economic power in the Kingdom.

Fig. 9. Detail of 'Die Donauländer' (Artaria, 1920) showing the plebiscite area in Carinthia.
The area would remain in Austria.

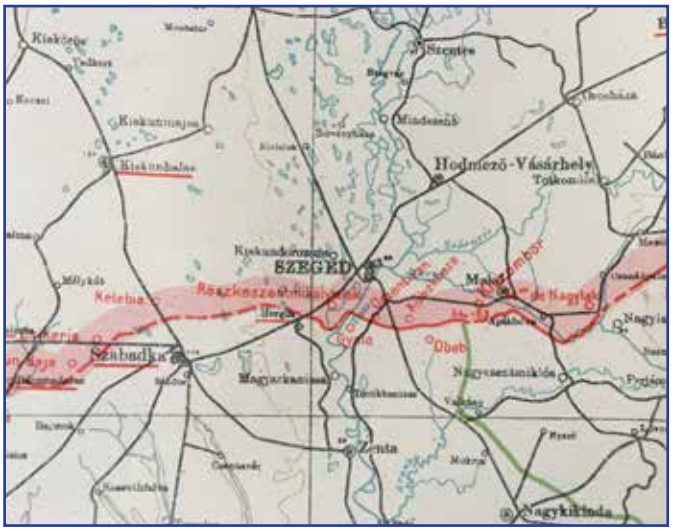

Fig. 10. The new border between the Kingdom of SHS and Hungary (detail from the map attached to the Treaty of Trianon concluded on 4 June 1920 between Hungary and the Allies. Note that the border between Romania and Yugoslavia (the green line) was not yet finally defined.

Austria

By the Treaty of Saint-Germain-en-Laye (1919) that described the peace conditions for Austria, the Klagenfurt area in the southern part of the country, was left to decide by a plebiscite to join either Austria or The Kingdom. The Kingdom claimed the area as historically Slovenian and threatened to occupy it if it was not ceded to them.

The plebiscite area was divided in two zones (fig.9). In October 1920 the southern zone voted to join Austria, making it unnecessary to hold the plebiscite in the northern part. The whole area remained part of Austrian Carinthia, and the Karawanks became the border between Austria and The Kingdom.

Romania and Hungary

The borders with Romania and Hungary were heavily disputed. The Kingdom claimed the Western Banat up to the city of Temesvár and its surroundings, arguing it was ethnically Serbian land (fig. 4 and 10). Moreover, if the Western Banat became Romanian, Belgrade would be vulnerable to attacks from the east due to the lack of effective physical obstacles.

In addition, the Banat was a rich farming area that could contribute to solve The Kingdom's deficit of cereals, although this argument was valid for Romania as well. The area itself was inhabited by an ethnically mixed population.
In the end, The Kingdom got one third of the area, considered as sufficient for its self-defence, leaving negotiations to agree upon development and maintenance in the Banat of border crossing infrastructure (railways, canals) to the two countries.

Bulgaria

Before World War I, Bulgaria had gained territory and got access to the sea. In 1915 Bulgaria joined the Central Powers and was defeated in 1918. The country had to meet the conditions imposed in 1919 by the Treaty of Neuilly, among others by ceding land to surrounding countries. On the western border, it ceded four small areas to The Kingdom that had little Serbian population but were strategically important because they pushed the border away from its railroad lines, rendering them less easy to cut and to capture. (see also fig.11)

Albania

The Kingdom claimed the Scutari area, the Drin valley, and its surroundings, as a protection of the mountainous southwest border, and as the requirement to have an outlet to the Adriatic.

The area was finally allocated to Albania (fig. 11), with the border established through Lake Scutari and River Boyana with no sea outlet for Yugoslavia.

Fig. 11. Harmsworth Atlas of the World, 1922, detail from the map Yugo-Slavia, p. 157.

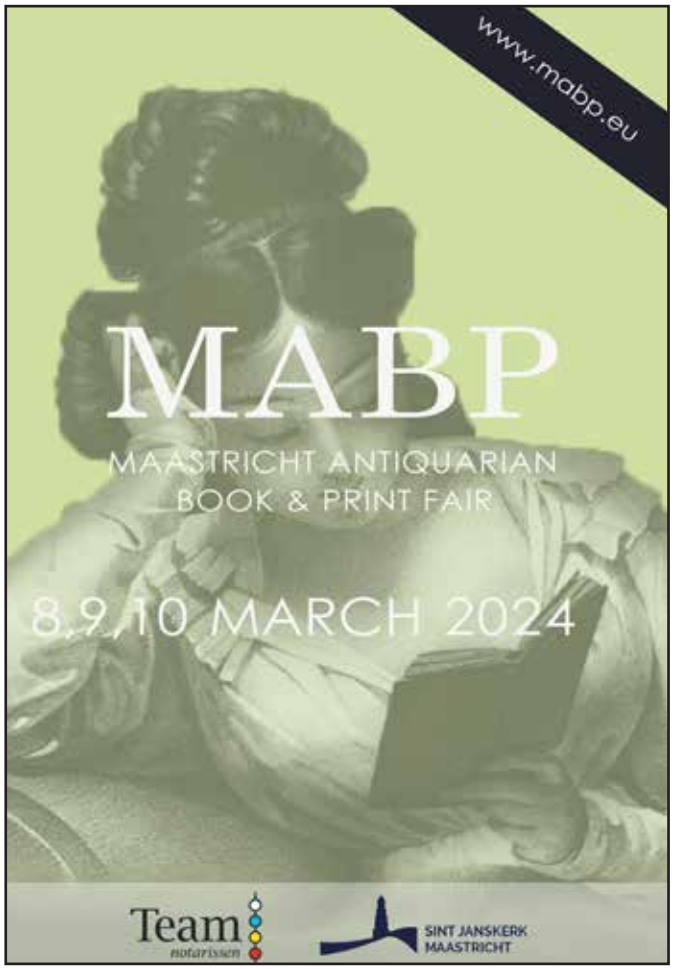

Fig. 12. Propaganda post card of Serbian origin showing the development of the Kingdom of SHS since 1804.

How it continued

The Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes remained an unstable country in the interbellum. Croats and Serbs frequently disagreed between them while frictions with neighbouring states regularly occurred. Serbs claimed a dominant position in the new kingdom, which was not accepted by Croats and was cause for continuous political instability.

In 1929 a political crisis led to the abolishment of the Constitution and to the renaming of the country from the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes to the Kingdom of Yugoslavia. A period of royal dictatorship started which lasted until 1941 when the country was invaded by Nazi Germany.

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The map shows the **Kingdom of Slovenes, Croates and Serbians** with its new and final borders according to the Paris treaties that had been concluded in the previous years.

Although the map is straightforward, it is the first map of the Kingdom alone as an independent state with the new borders in mass production. Most atlases in 1921 were still using maps that were created before the war, to which the new borders were added by having an overprint showing borders (usually in red color).

Fiume was considered to be a free city, but has been depicted as Italian territory on this map: the city had meanwhile become fully integrated in Italy. Istria, Zara (Zadar) as well as a few strategically situated islands (for Italy) in the Adriatic Sea had become part of Italy as well. Only the border with Albania had not been decided upon at the moment of publication; the decision about this border would be taken in November 1921.

Fig. 13.Südslavischer Staat. From G. Freytag's Welt-Atlas, map 73, G. Freytag & Berndt Ges.m.b.h., Vienna, 1921.


R STAAT
20 östl. L.v.Greenwich
Szegedin
Theresiopel
Subotica
Zombor
Becskerek
Esseg
Neusatz
Pančevo
Semlin
Belgrad
Požarevac
Temesvár
Lugos
Arad
Deva
Karansebes
Vidin
Kragujevac
Valjevo
Niš
Pirot
Novipazar
Leskovac
Priština
MONTE NEGRO
(CRNAGORA)
Niksic
Cetinje
Podgorica
Ipek
Djakova
Prizren
Skutari
Skoplje
Veles
Štip
Kratovo
Kočane
Prilep
Bitolj
Ochrida
Tirana
Drač
(Durazzo)
Dulcigno
Kroja
Kustendil
Strumica
Vranja
Mitrovica
BULGARIEN
GRIECHENLAND
Semendria

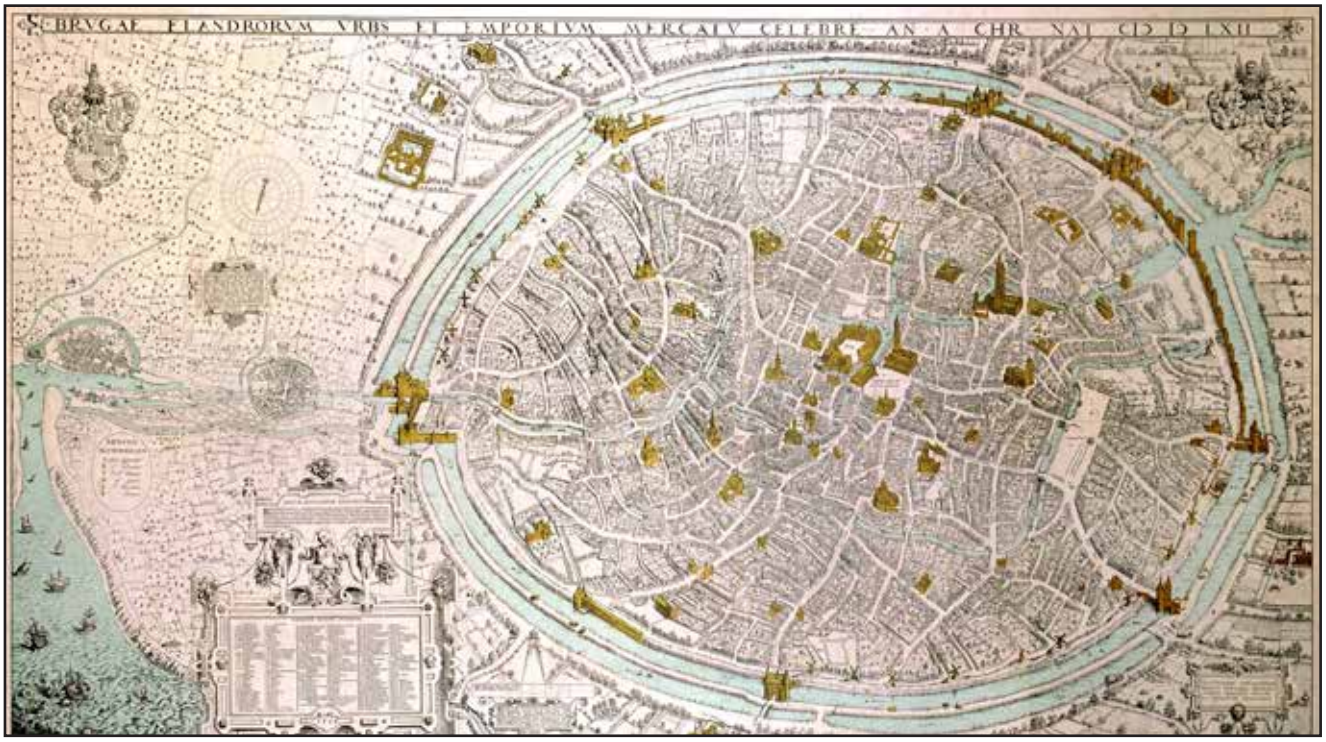

Fig. 1. Marcus Gerards map of Bruges. -
Courtesy of the Groeningemuseum via Wikimedia Commons, without any mention of state or version

Fig. 3. Marcus Gerards map of Bruges. - First state of the map -1563
Collection of the Groeningemuseum

Fig. 4. Marcus Gerards map of Bruges.
- Second state
Collection Stadsarchief Brugge

MARCUS GERARDS IN STITCHES

Our readers will remember the report on the visit of the Brussels Map Circle to the Pourbus exhibition in Bruges in March 2023 (see Maps in History No 76, p. 21).
One of the illustrations shows the most famous ancient map of the city, made in 1562 by Marcus Gerards (fig. 1). On the excursion we also saw the ten original copper plates of this Gerards map in the Gruuthusemuseum. So, imagine the surprise of your reporter when, at a cartographical conference in Brussels, she met a lady who casually dropped into the conversation that she had embroidered this very map. Full-scale!
Here is the story.

Anything but a secluded 'damsel in distress'

For a long time, embroidery was about the only activity a respectable lady was allowed. The word embroidery conjures up images of shielded medieval damsels in draughty halls with inefficient fireplaces, their eyes screwed up in the half-darkness. The contrast with the contemporary lady whose embroidery is the subject of this article could not be greater: neither with a 21st century approach (using the computer) nor with the subject (maps) nor with the place of the action (Africa) and nor, last but not least, with the type of lady! Christine Cocquyt, our embroidery lady, has a resumé that would easily take years to produce in embroidered form. Let a highly abbreviated enumeration of her most striking achievements suffice.

After obtaining her Master of Sciences specialising in Botany, at Ghent University in Belgium in 1977, she took up residence in Burundi from 1979 on. Here her husband was teaching at the university and their two children were born. After the death of her husband in 1990, Christine returned to Belgium and obtained her PhD in Sciences – Botany - in 1997 at the University of Ghent, where she became (senior) researcher, at the same time as working at the National Botanic Garden of Belgium, in Meise. What followed is an endless list of grants and research projects in Belgium and abroad, and publications and projects in Africa[1]. In total, Christine participated in more than twenty scientific missions to Burundi, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Libya, Rwanda, South Africa, Tanzania and Uganda.
The most spectacular no doubt was the Boyekoli Ebale Congo 2010 expedition: a five-week multidisciplinary expedition on the Congo River and some of its tributaries (Itimbiri, Aruwimi and Lomami) between Bumba and Kisangani in which 68 scientists participated. She is currently (2023) President of the Royal Academy for Overseas Sciences Belgium, Director of the Natural and Medical Sciences section.

As becomes clear from the above, with such an idle life you need something to do with your hands!
And Christine chose embroidery. Of maps.

The first steps on the carto-embroidery path

Christine caught the embroidery virus (so far she hasn't been able to isolate it under her microscope) by sheer coincidence (as happens with viruses) by stepping into a shop in Amsterdam where they sold embroidery kits, sometime in 1995.

The result was only visible some ten years later (fig. 2) As a start, it certainly wasn't bad, but the most spectacular was still to come.

Fig. 2. *Belgica Foederata* by Joan Blaeu, included in the Atlas Maior of 1665.
Size of the embroidered work : 115 × 130 cm

1 Well, if you must know, it includes topics like 'Seasonal variability in the abundance and stable carbon-isotopic composition of lipid biomarkers in suspended particulate matter from a stratified equatorial lake (Lake Chala, Kenya/Tanzania): Implications for the sedimentary record.' Satisfied?

The Marcus Gerards map:
***the* original print and *the* original plates?**

The Marcus Gerards map of Bruges was already commented on in the report of the aforementioned visit of the Brussels Map Circle to the Pourbus exhibition, with a picture of 'the' map and mention that the original copper plates are kept in the Gruuthusemuseum. However, upon further investigation the story seems a lot more complicated.

On the internet as well as in the many printed versions of the map that circulate, different versions are shown but almost all fail to mention *exactly which version* is shown. I deliberately use the word 'version' and not 'state', because both exist.
No doubt a still-to-be published book[2] on this most interesting map will hopefully answer all questions.

Suffice it here to give a brief overview:

- In **1562** the copper plates were finished and in 1563 a few prints were made of this **first state**; today only one copy survives, heavily damaged (fig. 3); no names of streets were on the map.
- In the 17th and 18th centuries the copper plates were used several times for reprints, according to the collaborators of the said to-be-published book (no mention is made of changes to the copperplates).
- In **1810**, the city administration of Bruges ordered a local engraver to put the old names of the streets (in the local language, Dutch) on the original copper plates from 1562. In 1811 a printer from Ghent was ordered to print twenty copies[3].So, there is indeed a **second state**, albeit a very late one (fig. 4).
- In 1881 a lithograph was made, also with the street names on it.
- In the 20th century several versions were made, with newer techniques.

Despite the aforementioned recent study (of which the future book is the result), a really clear and unambiguous overview of all versions is still lacking. Let's hope the book contains it.

The map is so popular among people from Bruges that someone even *re-drew* the whole map by hand, just like Marcus Gerards himself drew all the houses and streets almost 500 years ago. It took this person seven years.

Modus operandi: the making of

As this is of course a popular map in Bruges, copies of it hang in several restaurants there. And it was exactly in such a restaurant, at a family gathering, that Christine's family challenged her to embroider it. Some people need very little incentive indeed. And a lot of protection against themselves (or their family!) maybe.

The first question was of course: *which copy of the map to use*? Christine chose the version shown in figure 1, which is the one on Wikimedia Commons.

Second question: how do you go about embroidering such a big, detailed map for which no kit exists?
Being a pure-bred scientist, Christine didn't do a rush job. As she explains: 'Before starting to embroider, I tested how the houses of Bruges could be shown large enough but not too detailed, by embroidering a few houses in cross stitch on cheese linen.' Dryly specifying about the cheese linen, she told me: '14 threads per cm'.

Once Christine had determined the desired size, her son applied a grid to a digital version of the map using a computer drawing programme. 'This only for the part that represents Bruges', Christine states. 'The left part with Damme and the North Sea is not shown on the embroidered map. This resulted in 180 printed A4 sheets (!), each with 5 733 boxes where one box more or less corresponds to one cross stitch; in total 1 031 940 boxes. Compare with Blaeu's map (fig. 2) where there are 30 sheets with approximately 21 924 boxes each, in total 657 720 boxes.

It took Christine some getting used to the fact that north is not located at the top of the map. To make comparison easier, she copied a current map of the city of Bruges from Google Maps and rotated it until it had the same orientation as the Marcus Gerards map.
Besides the omission of Damme and the North Sea, some further adjustments were made.
The compass rose, which fell outside the area to be embroidered, was moved to the lower left next to the compass and yardstick, and Christine also replaced the frame with the names of the buildings.
Where needed, fields and country roads were added.
So, a grand total of 1 031 940 cross stitches were needed.
It's impossible to calculate just how many hours of work this might represent: even counting a few seconds per stitch, there is the constant checking and adjusting of the pattern .
Figures 5 to 9 show some intermediate pictures of the whole process....

2 The book is due to be published by the end of 2024 by Sterck en De Vreese (Gorredijk, The Netherlands) publishers. It will relate the process of re-assembling (digitally) the copper plates and comparing the buildings on the map with the actual ones.

3 Why all this was done is a mystery: at the time, under Napoleon, the whole administration was in French and Bruges had its own printers, without having to rely on one from Ghent.

Fig. 5. Stich by stich

Fig. 6. Slowly progressing

Fig. 7. Credit where credit's due

Fig. 8. Slowly getting there.

All in all it took Christine twelve years
And she adds another dry remark: *'It was about time it was over.'*

Fig. 9. A last detail

Fig. 10. The final result

A different view on Marcus Gerards map?

As Christine experienced from really close up and testifies, compared to the map, many of the buildings represented still exist and the street layout is still pretty much the same.
It is proof that Bruges is rightly known as a city that draws visitors from all over the world precisely for that reason: it is a time capsule.
But above all, it is proof that Marcus Gerards did a pretty decent job with his splendid map.

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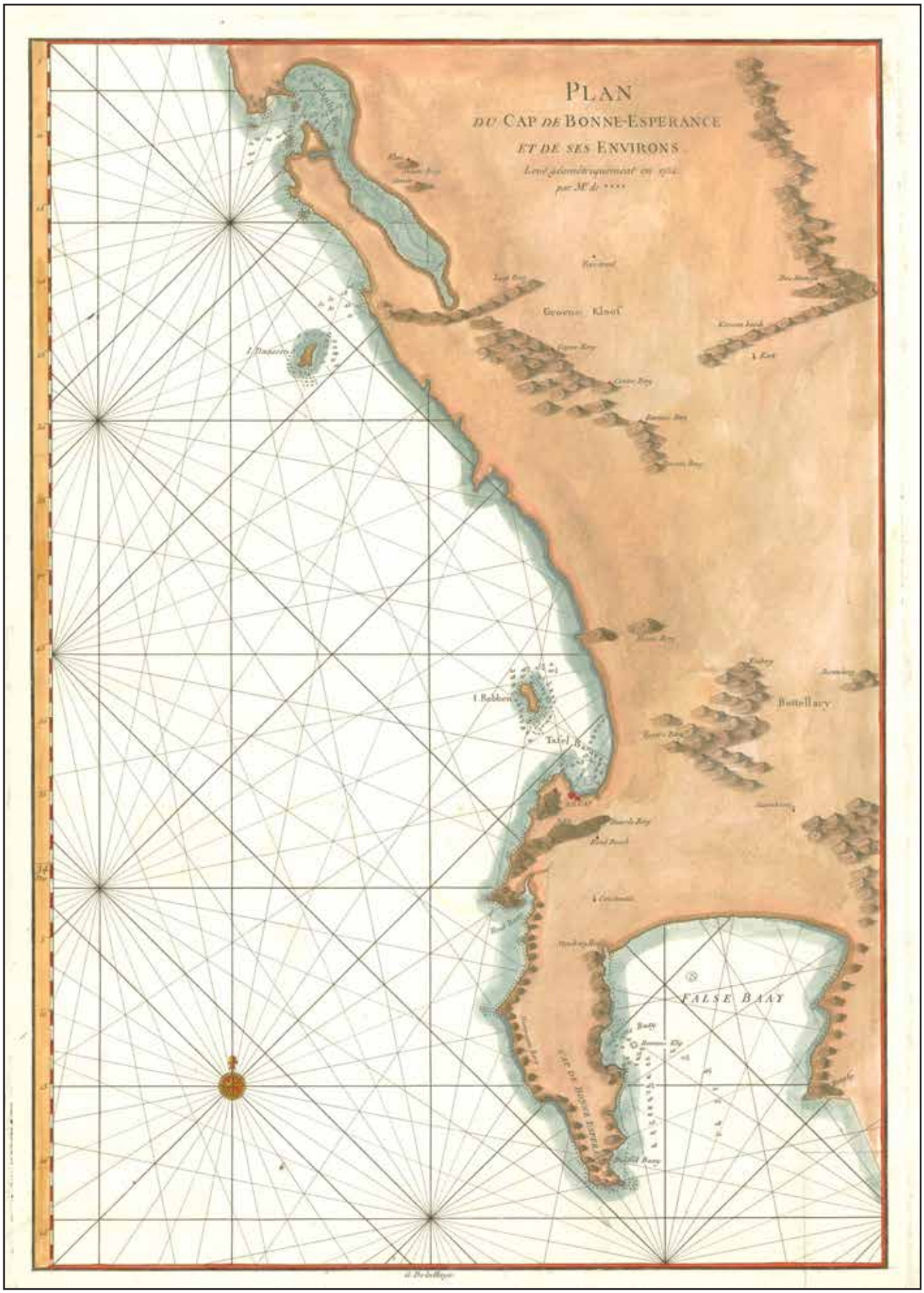

Fig. 1. A misshapen False Bay is the outstanding feature of the rare **first state** of Mannevillette's '*Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance*'

Untangling the authors of the four states of the 'Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance'

Jean-Baptiste d'Après de Mannevillette (1707 — 1780) was a ship's captain and hydrographer in the French East India Company (*Compagnie des Indes Orientales*) and the director of the company's *Dépôt des Cartes et Plans de la Navigation des Indes.*
He is famous for his measurements of longitude and his pilot, the *Neptune Oriental*, which was first published in 1745[1]. He spent decades improving the charting of the East India route, cooperating with his English counterpart, Alexander Dalrymple. Mannevillette's work culminated in the 1775 publication of the expanded, second edition of *Neptune Oriental* that included *Atlas du Neptune Oriental*[2] , 63 charts listed in the index (22 in the 1745 edition), and a text on navigation, *Instruction sur la navigation des Indes Orientales et de la Chine, pour servir au Neptune Oriental.*

In 1781, a year after Mannevillette's death, a supplement of seven new and eleven corrected sea charts, *Supplément au Neptune Oriental*, was published by the same publishers of *Neptune Oriental*[3]. In 1810 a further expanded edition of *Neptune Oriental* was published by the *Dépôt Général de la Marine*: '69 maps from three different sources: 46 maps derive from the 1775 edition of the Neptune Oriental; six maps are added from a separately published supplement of 1781; and 17 French admiralty charts are added, based chiefly on the work of d'Après de Mannevillette, but many of them postdating his death and updated with recent surveys and discoveries.' [4]

Finally, in 1821 the *Dépôt de la Marine* re-issued a scarce edition of the *Supplément* that included more recent charts (nine of the twelve were dated 1798)[5].

The 1775 and all subsequent editions included a chart of the Cape of Good Hope titled '*Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance et de ses Environs* | Levé géométriquement en 1752 par Mr. de ****' (henceforth 'the Plan du Cap')[6]. R.V. Tooley recorded two states of the map and published an illustration of one[7], while Oscar Norwich published an illustration of the other state[8]. Neither author identified the source of the Plan du Cap but, in a scarce bibliography of maps of the Cape of Good Hope, Margaret Cartwright identified that the map illustrated by Tooley was from the 1775 edition of *Neptune Oriental,* while the map illustrated by Norwich was from the 1781, posthumous supplement to *Neptune Oriental*[9].

In this article, I describe the distinguishing features of the four states of the Plan du Cap.

Three were published in *Neptune Oriental* or its supplement, but another, the first state, was not published in *Neptune Oriental*. All but the second state of the chart are rare.

I also report on four manuscript maps (one terrestrial map and three sea charts), which suggest that Nicolas-Louis de Lacaille played an active role in the development of the published sea chart.

I argue that Lacaille, not Mannevillette, probably was the author of the chart.

1 J-B Après de Mannevillette. *Neptune / Oriental / ou / Routier Général / Côtes des / des Indes Orientales / et de la Chine / ... / Dédié à Monseigneur de Orry Fulvy, Conseilleur d'Etat ... / Par M. D'après de Mannevillette, Lieutenant des Vaisseaux de / Compagnie des Indes ... / A Paris / De l'Imprimerie de Jean-François Robustel, Rue de la Calendra près le / Palais, à l'image de Saint Jean /* MDCCXLV.

2 J-B Après de Mannevillette. *Le Neptune Oriental: dedié au Roi / Par M. D'Après de Mannevillette, Chevalier de l'Ordre du Roi, Capitaine des Vaisseaux de la Compagnie des Indes, correspondant de l'Academie Royale des Sciences & Associé de l'Academie Royale de Marine, [Mr. l'Abbe Dicquemare, Alexander Dalrymple ; Guill. De-la-Haye]. A París, rue S. Severin...* ; Et à Brest : Chez Demonville, Imprimeur-Libraire de l'Academie Françoise... : Chez Malassis, Imprimeur Libraire de la Marine 1775.

3 J-B Après de Mannevillette. *Supplément au Neptune Oriental. Brest* : Chez Demonville, Imprimeur-Libraire de l'Académie Françoise... : Chez Malassis, Imprimeur Libraire de la Marine, 1781.

4 J-B. Après de Mannevillette. *Neptune Oriental.* Paris. Dépôt Général de la Marine, 1810, pl 214 (8). Accessed on 12 October 2023 at https://www.davidrumsey.com/luna/servlet/detail/RUMSEY~8~1~312690~90081892.

5 *Supplément au Neptune oriental.* WorldCat. https://worldcat.org/title/560874298.

6 'PLAN | du CAP de BONNE ESPERANCE |ET DE SES ENVIRONS |Levé géométriquement en 1752 par Mr. de ****'. (33 × 48 cm). Engraved by G. (Guillaume-Nicolas) De la Haye. In J-B Après de Mannevillette. *Le Neptune Oriental.* 1775. See Note 2.

7 R.V. Tooley. Collectors' *Guide to the maps of the African Continent and Southern Africa.* London: Carta Press; 1969. Page 7, pl. 7.

8 J. Stone. *Norwich's Maps of Africa.* Norwich: Terra Nova Press. 1997. Map #276.

9 M. Cartwright. *Maps of the South Western Cape of Good Hope. Cape Town:* South African Library; 1992, 64A, p. 25.

1. Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance et de ses Environs

'*Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance et de ses Environs*' is an undated sea chart (33 × 48 cm) that was engraved and signed by 'G. De la Haye' (Guillaume-Nicolas De la Haye 1727 – 1802) (see fig. 1 for the first state).

The title of the chart refers to geometric measurements in 1752 by Mr. de ****, which can only be a reference to Nicolas Louis Lacaille (1713-1762), who conducted the first geodetic survey at the Cape of Good Hope in 1752, during which he fixed the longitude of Cape Town [10]. Mannevillette had taken Lacaille to the Cape in 1751 in *Le Glorieux* and met with him again in 1752 after Mannevillette's return from surveying the south-eastern coast of Africa and the Mascarene islands[11]. Lacaille's astronomical findings, geodetic results and a small map of the Cape of Good Hope were published between 1755 and 1776, i.e. before the publication of the second edition of *Neptune Oriental* [12] [13].,

Not only does ' *Levé géométriquement en 1752 par Mr. de ****** ' in Mannevillette's chart seem to refer to Lacaille's 1752 survey at the Cape of Good Hope, but the few inland place names on his sea chart were also on Lacaille's earlier, influential terrestrial map.[14] They had been either part of Lacaille's survey or were other places he visited that were not included in his survey (e.g. Constantia). Unusually for French maps and charts, most of the place names are in Dutch as these were used locally and he would have heard them while visiting the Cape of Good Hope. Nevertheless, two names, which would have been more widely known, are in French: 'Le Cap' (i.e. Cape Town) and the tip of the western cape of False Bay: 'Cap de Bonne Espérance'.

Fig. 2. De Lacaille's small map of the Cape of Good Hope was influential; it was clearly the model for the terrestrial outline and toponyms of 'Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance' - 1752

2. Saldanha Bay error

There is a major cartographic error in all four states of the Plan du Cap: the southern tip of Saldanha Bay extends 10' too far south. This is a significant error, albeit not a serious danger to shipping: all states show the bay almost double its actual length, with the southern end almost 23 km to the southeast of its true position.

Lacaille's map of the Cape of Good Hope displays a similar error (see Fig. 2). I am unable to explain Mannevillette's and Lacaille's southerly elongation of Saldanha Bay: neither Lacaille nor Mannevillette surveyed the bay and I have been unable to locate a published source of the error that predates their maps.

While the Dutch had surveyed the coastline from Saldanha Bay to False Bay from the mid-seventeenth century [15], they did not publish their charts until more than a century later. Nevertheless, the general shape of Saldanha Bay is a vast improvement on the grossly misshapen bay on other influential maps by, for example, François Valentijn [16] and by the prolific Jacques Bellin[17].

10 R. Stewart. 'Nicolas-Louis de Lacaille: pioneer of scientific cartography in Southern Africa.' *Maps in History* January 2020, 66, pp. 29 – 33. Also Ian S. Glass. *Nicolas-Louis De La Caille, Astronomer and Geodesist*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2013, pp. 67-83.

11 R Raven-Hart. *Nicolas Louis de la Caille Travels at the Cape* 175-53. Cape Town: A.A. Balkema, 1976, pp. 4, 10, 22.

12 N.L. de la Caille. 'Diverses Observations Astronomiques et Physiques, faites au Cap de Bonne Esperance. | Pendant les années 1751 & 1752 & partie de 1753. | Par M. l'Abbé de la Caille.' *Histoire de l'Académie Royale des Sciences*| Année M. DCCLI (1751) | *Avec les Mémoires de Mathématique & de Physique, pour la meme Année. | Tirés des Registres de cette Académie*. Paris : De l'Imprimerie Royale ; M. DDCCLV (1755), pp. 398-456.

13 N.L. de la Caille N.L. *Journal Historique du voyage fait au Cap de Bonne-Espérance*. Paris : Guillyn ; 1763. Paris ; Nyon, 1776.

14 N.L de la Caille. 'Carte de Cap de Bonne Esperance et de ses environs. 1752.' In *Histoire de l'Académie Royale des Sciences...* (see note 12); also, in *Journal Historique...* (see note 13). Lacaille's small map was the source of numerous derivative maps as listed in R. Stewart. A mystery resolved. Lacaille's map of the Cape of Good Hope. *IMCoS Journal* 2009, 119, pp. 7 – 11.

15 B. Brommer, Ed., *Grote Atlas van de Verenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie*. V Afrika. Voorburg: (Netherlands) Atlas Maior; 2009: 202 – 225.

16 Stone, *Norwich's Maps of Africa*, map # 21.

17 'Carte du Pais des Hottentots aux Environs du Cap de Bonne Esperance'. *Petit Atlas Maritime*. Paris: 1763 – 1764: Tome III. No. 111. Also, Tooley, *Collectors' Guide*, pl. 12.

Fig. 3. Changes in the shape of False Bay are the prominent features of the four printed states of the chart, with first to fourth in sequence from left to right.

3. The Four States of 'Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance'

Guillaume de la Haye engraved all four states of the Plan du Cap (Fig. 3). Substantial changes in the shape of False Bay are the prominent feature of three states of the copper plate: the key distinguishing features are the position of *Hanglip*, the south-eastern cape of False Bay, and the shape of the north-eastern corner (now called Gordon's Bay) of False Bay. In the fourth state, however, the engraved changes are only outside the chart border; and a symbol has been stamped on the printed chart, on the northern shore of False Bay.

3.1 First State

The major differentiating feature of the first state of the sea chart is Hanglip (today Hangklip), the south-eastern point of False Bay, which is located 8' too far north (Fig. 1). This is a very significant and potentially dangerous error for shipping on a notorious coastline (today there is a lighthouse on the point: ARLHS Number SAF-005). Hangklip is actually about 2' south and almost 20' east of the Cape of Good Hope, the most southern tip of the Cape Peninsula to its west. Lacaille's published map (1755 – 1763) has the same error (see Fig. 2). As with Lacaille's map, only five places along the coast of Mannevillette's *False Baay* are named, all in Dutch: *Buffels Baay, Romans Klip, Simons Baay, Steen berg Hoec and Hanglip.* The small island of granite close to the northern shore of the bay is unnamed (it is today's Seal Island).

The first state of the chart is scarce: the only copy I have been able to locate in the public domain is in the d'Anville Collection at the *Bibliothèque nationale de France.*[18] The first state of the chart does not have an engraved number, while the other states do. The second and third state of the map are both numbered with an engraved '8 'at the top right outside the neatline, and the fourth state is numbered '214'. The author's example of this rare chart was printed on a single page of firm paper that shows no obvious evidence of having been bound or dissected. However, the left margin to the plate line is 40 mm, while it is 76 mm on the right. Therefore, it is likely that the chart had been bound and cut out from a book, but it was not published in any of the editions of Neptune Oriental, nor was it included in Mannevillette's 1768 publication, *Mémoire sur la navigation de France aux Indes*[19]. I have not been able to identify any other book in which the (unnumbered) first state was bound.

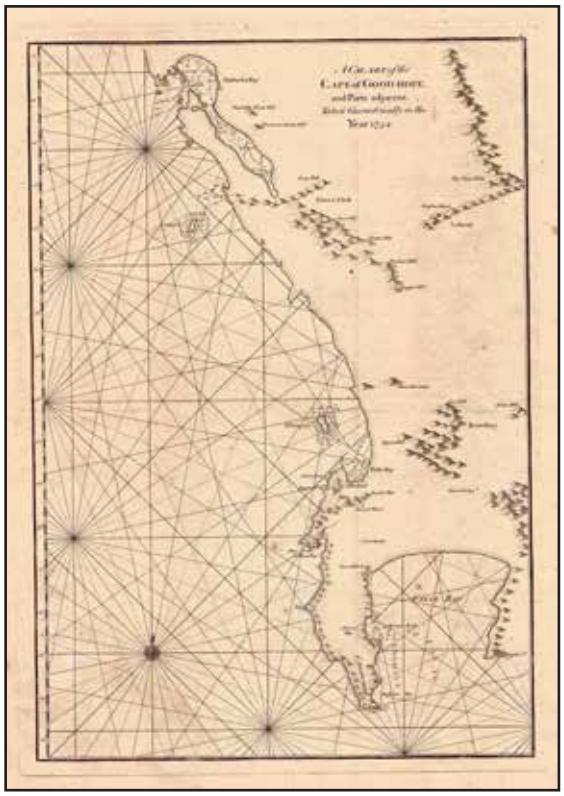

Fig. 4. A misshapen False Bay is the outstanding feature of the rare first state of Mannevillette's '*Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance - 1752*

3.2 Derivatives of the first state

The first state of 'Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance' inspired at least four derivative charts.

The first state may not have been published in *Neptune Oriental,* but it was still influential. Between 1767 and 1800 similar charts of the Cape of Good Hope with the distinctive Hangklip error were published in four widely distributed publications.

18 'Plan du cap de Bonne-Espérance et de ses environs / Levé géométriquement par Mr de [d'Après]'. (52.5 × 38 cm). *Bibliothèque nationale de France* (BnF), département Cartes et plans, CPL GE DD-2987 (8283). https://gallica.bnf.fr/ark:/12148/btv1b84462155?rk=64378;0. The BnF's example of the chart has 32 inscribed outside the plateline.

19 [J-B.] Daprès de Mannevillette. *Mémoire sur la navigation de France aux Indes.* Paris: L'Imprimerie Royale, 1768.

In 1767 William Herbert (1718–1795) published an English version of the map, 'A chart of the Cape of Good Hope and parts adjacent taken geometrically in the year 1752' (32.5 × 47.0 cm); the chart was included in his *New Directory for the East Indies* which was based on the 1745 edition of *Neptune Oriental*[20]. Herbert's chart of the Cape of Good Hope is scarce, presumably because it was popular at sea: six editions of the New Directory were published up to 1780. His chart is an almost identical copy of the first state of the Plan du Cap, but with mostly English toponyms that have been translated from the Dutch. A few were not translated, such as Bottelary (from the Dutch *bottelarij* – a bottling plant). These toponyms were taken from Lacaille (Fig.2).

In 1781, John Bew (fl. 1774 — 12 April 1793) published a similar chart in *The Political Magazine:* 'A map and chart of the Cape of Good Hope, with soundings in Table Bay, False Bay and Saldanha Bay'[21]. The engraver was John Lodge, who had also engraved Lacaille's terrestrial 1755 map. Bew's map (28 × 38 cm) is smaller than the first state of the Plan du Cap. It is not based on the second state, as previously reported by Tooley, Norwich and Cartwright[22].

The first state was also the model for the Plan du Cap (with no reference to the geometric survey) that was published in a book on the voyages of Louis de Grandpré – a naval officer and slave trader – to the west coast of Africa. His map is Norwich's map #226[23].

The part of the first state south of Blaau Berg, was published as a small map (12 × 14 cm) entitled '*Cape of Good Hope*'. The place names are translated into English (or possibly taken from Herbert's chart), for an 1808 publication by John Luffman (1756–1846)[24].

The date of publication of the first state of the Plan du Cap is uncertain. I suggest that it was published between 1755, when Lacaille's map was published, and 1767, when Herbert first published a smaller version in English.

3.3 Second State

The second state of the Plan du Cap is probably the best known and most commonly available state. It was published in the 1775 (i.e. second) edition of Mannevillette's *Neptune Oriental*.

The most prominent change in the second state is the shape of False Bay caused by repositioning Hanglip further south. Now named *C False*, its latitude is 34°21' south, which is a vast improvement on the first state, but it is still a little more than 2' north of its true position. The north-eastern corner of False Bay is slightly west of C False (i.e. Hanglip), but it should be about 2' east. There are no other changes to the place names along the False Bay coastline. However, ocean depths in False Bay (still named *False Baay* in this state of the map) are now recorded not only off the east facing shore, but now also on the other side of the bay.

3.4 Third State

The third state of the map was published in 1781, in the *Supplément au Neptune Oriental*, which was published again in 1821 by *Dépôt Général de la Marine*[25]. This state of the chart is #276 in Norwich[26]. The table of contents to the *Supplément* explains: 'Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance & des Environs, corrigé dans la partie de False-Bay, sur les observations de M. Dalrymple'[27]. Dalrymple's chart was published in 1779[28]. The details of his survey were published in 1781[29]. Dalrymple had surveyed False Bay in August and September 1775 when he was aboard the *Grenville* en route to Madras[30].

The outline of False Bay was again significantly altered, the most prominent change being to the shape of the north-eastern corner of False Bay (i.e. Gordon's Bay today). It extends too far eastwards, and beyond the map border. Another prominent change was the

20 W. Herbert. 'A chart of the Cape of Good Hope and parts adjacent taken geometrically in the year 1752'. (32.5 × 47 cm) *New Directory for the East-Indies: With General and Particular Charts for the Navigation of Those Seas: Wherein the French Neptune Oriental Has Been Chiefly Considered and Examined: with Additions, Corrections, and Explanatory Notes*. London: W Herbert, 1767. Reissued by Henry Gregory between 1777 and 1780. M. Cartwright, see Note 9, 62A. Also reported in R.V. Tooley. No. 61: Printed maps of southern Africa and its parts. London: Map Collectors Circle. 1970, p. 21.

21 'A Map and chart of the Cape of Good Hope, with the soundings in Table Bay, False Bay and Saldanha Bay' (28 × 37.5 cm). In Bew, J. *The Political Magazine* 1781; 2: 279. http://maps.bpl.org/id/14673.

22 Tooley, *Collectors' Guide*; Stone, *Norwich's Maps of Africa* and Cartwright, *Maps of the South Western Cape of Good Hope*.

23 L. de Grandpré. 'Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance et des ses environs...' (28 × 48 cm). In L. de Grandpré. *Voyage à la côte occidentale d'Afrique fait dans les années 1786 et 1787*, Volume 2. Paris: Denut, 1801, p. 320.

24 John Luffman. 'Cape of Good Hope' (12 × 14 cm). In J. Luffman. *Select Plans of the principal cities &c of the world*. London, 1808, vol. 1 No. 41

25 *Supplément au Neptune Oriental*. Paris: Dépôt Général de la Marine, 1821.

26 Stone, *Norwich's Maps of Africa*, map #276. Available at https://searchworks.stanford.edu/view/12113663.

27 *Supplément au Neptune oriental*, see note 8, p. vii.

28 A Dalrymple. 'A Plan of False Bay' in *The East India pilot : a collection of charts, maps and plans for navigation*. London : Published by A. Dalrymple, 1762-1801. A copy of the map is available at the National Library of Australia, https://catalogue.nla.gov.au/catalog/4968858.

29 A Dalrymple. in *Collection of Views of Land and of Plans of Ports in the East-Indies. Published at the charge of the East-India Company by A. Dalrymple*. [Containing text only.].

30 Abercrombie, Burnet, Alexander Dalrymple, Henry Cavendish, and John Alexander Panton. 'Journal of a Voyage to the East Indies, in the Ship Grenville, Captain Burnet Abercrombie, in the Year 1775. By Alexander Dalrymple, Esq. F. R. S. Communicated by the Honourable Henry Cavendish, F. R. S.' *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London 68* (1778): 389–418.

introduction of French toponyms: *False Baay* has been renamed *Baye de False*; a number of additional place names in French were inserted along the western and northern coastlines of the Bay; the previously unnamed Seal Island is now *I de la Baleine;* some names in the earlier states have been translated, although one has been changed (Steenberg Hoek has become *Pic et Pte Maysenberg* – Muysenberg in Dutch and now corrupted to Muizenberg).

Buffel Baay was not altered, but C False was altered to *Cap False.* Two rivulets have been inserted in the north-east corner; the mouth of a small river that drains a lake (now named Zandvlei) has been inserted immediately east of *Maysenberg.* Other place names on the map have not been altered, most still being in Dutch.

3.5 Fourth State

There is yet another, rare state of the Plan du Cap which was included in the posthumous 1810 edition of *Neptune Oriental* published by the *Dépôt Général de la Marine*. The price of the Plan du Cap, 'Prix. Un Franc', has been engraved at the bottom right; and the engraved chart number at the top right of is 'No. 214.' but, in the example at David Rumsey[31], the engraved number has been struck through and replaced in pencil with '8', the original, engraved number of the chart. The engraving of the chart itself is identical to the third state but, on the printed map, the symbol of the *Dépôt Général de la Marine* has been stamped on the northern shore of False Bay.

Fig. 5. In the 1810 edition of *Neptune Oriental*, the engraved plate number has been changed (N° 214) and the price (un Franc) engraved at the bottom right. The symbol of the Dépôt Général de la marine was stamped above False Bay.

31 See note 4.

4. Four Manuscript maps

Jean Baptiste Après de Mannevillette's authorship of the Plan du Cap has not been questioned to date: the chart was published as number 8 in *Neptune Oriental*, 1775 and 1810, with a correction in the *Supplément au Neptune Oriental* in 1781. However, the discovery of an earlier state of the chart poses a conundrum. While all states depict an innocuously elongated Saldanha Bay, the first state of the chart includes a significant misposition of Hanglip (see Fig. 1) that was a potential danger to shipping – and derivatives with the same error had been widely distributed in books.

Lacaille had introduced the error in his small map of the Cape of Good Hope (Fig. 3) but he had not surveyed the False Bay coast. The error is difficult to reconcile with authorship of the chart by Mannevillette, an eminent hydrographer and experienced ship's captain who had sailed past Hanglip on at least two occasions.

'Levé géométriquement en 1752 par Mr. de ****' on all states of the chart can only refer to Lacaille, who conducted geometric measurements in the Cape in 1752[32]. The anonymity of 'Mr. de ****' is an enigma – Mannevillette acknowledged others in a number of his charts and he must have come to know Lacaille well en route to and in Cape Town.

5. Lacaille's manuscript map of his geodetic survey.

One possible explanation of Lacaille's *Hanglip* error is that the engraver of his small terrestrial 'Carte du Cap de Bonne Esperance et de ses Environs' had erred in copying a manuscript map while engraving the eastern shore of False Bay. Lacaille's manuscript map is in the Cape Town repository of the South African Archives (Fig. 6)[33]. It too, has the Hanglip error (see Fig. 6).

Fig. 6. Lacaille's manuscript model of his printed 'Carte du Cap de Bonne Esperance et de ses Environs' also has the Hanglip and Saldanha Bay errors.

32 Glass, *Nicolas-Louis De La Caille;* Raven-Hart, *Nicolas Louis de la Caille Travels at the Cape* 175-53.

33 "Triangulation map showing Devil's Peak, Table Mountain, Lion's Head with applicable information and measurements"

It also reveals that Lacaille's manuscript map was the source of the Saldanha Bay error that was a feature of all four states of the printed sea chart. His editing of the shape of the bay can be seen in red. 'Corrections' in red to False Bay only aggravate the Hanglip error!

Three manuscript sea charts are similar to the first state of the Plan du Cap: two, at the Bibliothèque nationale de France, are attributed to Lacaille and the third, at the British National Archives is attributed to Mannevillette but is based on Lacaille's information.

6. Carte du Cap de Bonne Espérance | Par M. l'Abbé de la Caille [34]

Fig. 7. Carte du Cap de Bonne Espérance
This manuscript chart at the Bibliothèque nationale de France is attributed to Lacaille.

'Carte du Cap de Bonne Espérance / par M. l'Abbé de la Caille' is a manuscript chart that was probably the model for the Plan du Cap. The geographical extent and shape of the manuscript chart are identical to the first state of the printed chart. The ocean depths in False Bay are also identical. On the other hand, the Saldanha depths are similar but not identical to those on the printed chart. Surprisingly for a chart by someone who surveyed the land, the chart includes descriptive, nautical text, in French, on Table Bay.

There are two other, significant differences from the first state of the printed chart: the manuscript 'Carte du Cap de Bonne Espérance' has a longitude scale at the top border of the map, as one would expect from Lacaille, but unusually, the prime meridian is through Cape Town (longitude on Lacaille's printed map is in degrees east of Paris). The rhumb lines on 'Carte du Cap de Bonne Espérance' are what one would expect on a sea chart but not from Lacaille, an astronomer and land surveyor.

This undated manuscript map is a more professional drawing of another, manuscript chart, which has the same coastline features and toponyms that are in both Dutch and French[35]; but it is not clear why some of the toponyms have been excluded from the later manuscript and printed charts. It too includes text on navigation. According to Ian Glass, who has studied Lacaille's work at the Cape of Good Hope[36], the text, but not the signature, is in Lacaille's handwriting[37].

Given the similarities of these manuscript charts attributed to Lacaille, it is tempting to draw the startling conclusion that Lacaille provided the actual manuscript model for the first state of the printed sea chart.

7. Le Cap de Bonne Espérance (Fig. 8)

Another manuscript chart of the Cape of Good Hope adds confusion to the source of the printed Plan du Cap. An undated manuscript sea chart at the British National Archives, with French-only toponyms, is attributed to Mannevillette, but, according to the full title, is based on Lacaille's observations: 'Le Cap de Bonne Espérance ... Tiré de Mr. Dapres (!) les Observaons : Faittes (!) par Mr. Lacaille'.[38]

Fig. 8.Le Cap de Bonne Espérance', at the British National Archives. The manuscript chart was, apparently derived from Mannevillette's observations and drawn by Lacaille.

1752. National Archives of South Africa, Cape Town Archives Repository (KAB), M1/167.

34 'Carte du Cap de Bonne Espérance / par M. l'Abbé de la Caille'. BnF. https://gallica.bnf.fr/ark:/12148/btv1b53168484q/f1.planchecontact#.

35 'Plan du Cap de Bonne Esp[éran]ce | par la Caille'. (35 × 59 cm) BnF CPL SH 18E PF 114 DIV 06 P 37/1 D. http://gallica.bnf.fr/ark:/12148/btv1b7759106k

36 Glass, *Nicolas-Louis De La Caille*.

37 Glass, *Nicolas-Louis De La Caille* and Personal Communication in email, 24 December 2012.

38 Le Cap de Bonne Espérance. Carte de la Bäye et du Cap de Bonne Espérance jusqu'au Cap de False y compris la Bäye de

This sea chart is similar to the one illustrated (see Fig.6) but is by a different hand; there are also two compass roses and additional rhumb lines. The map is devoid of terrestrial toponyms. The coastal toponyms are French, some names being translations, e.g. *Fausse Bay* for *False Baay* and Beux selles Baye, a very strange mistranslation of Buffels Baay (i.e. Buffalo Bay but now Buffelsbaai), near the tip of the Cape Peninsula. The shape of False Bay and its ocean depths are identical to those on 'Carte du Cap de Bonne Espérance Par M. l'Abbé de la Caille', the manuscript map attributed to Lacaille and to the printed 'Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance et de ses Environs'. Ocean depths and Saldanha Bay differ from both.

'Le Cap de Bonne Espérance' has two other significant anomalies: the toponym *Cap de Bonne Esperance* is incorrectly located at the entrance to Hout Bay, on the west coast of the peninsula. The true Cap de Bonne Esperance is named *Cap Des Hottentos* (sic). These errors are most unlikely to have been made by someone who had visited the Cape of Good Hope, as had both Lacaille and Mannevillette.

Despite the attribution in the map title, the anomalies make it difficult to accept that Mannevillette supervised the drawing of this chart, although it could possibly have been drawn by a draughtsman at the *Dépôt des Cartes et Plans* in Lorient, the division of the French East India Company entrusted to Mannevillette in 1762[39], the year of Lacaille's death. How this map ended up in the British National Archives is a mystery, although it is tempting to speculate that the map was sent to Alexander Dalrymple. Mannevillette was on friendly terms with him and co-operated with him.

My conclusion is that neither Lacaille nor Mannevillette had significant influence on the development of the toponyms on 'Le Cap de Bonne Esperance', but that the chart possibly was created within the *Dépôt des Cartes et Plans* by draughtsmen who were unfamiliar with the Cape of Good Hope – perhaps while Mannevillette was at sea 1755-1758.[40]

8. Summary and Conclusions

The 'Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance et de ses Environs' was published in four states; the first, on a date between 1755 and 1767; the second, in 1775 in *Neptune Oriental*; the third, in 1781 in *Supplément au Neptune Oriental* and the fourth in the 1810 edition of *Neptune Oriental.*

The key features of these four states are summarised in Table 1.

High resolution images of the maps and charts referred to in this article are available at https://africanamaps.com/maps/planducap/

I conclude that Lacaille and not Mannevillette was probably the author of the first state of the sea-chart entitled 'Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance et de ses Environs| Levé géométriquement en 1752 par Mr. de ****'. Mannevillette was responsible for some corrective, cartographic changes on the second and third states of the chart and the Dépôt Général de la Marine introduced non-cartographic changes on the fourth and final state of the chart.

Acknowledgements

I am grateful to Jonathan and Gail Schrire for access to their copies of the second and third state and to all of the rare derivatives of the first state of the Plan du Cap that are in the Schrire Africana Map Collection (https://shorturl.at/owQW9).

I am also grateful to Prof. Elri Liebenberg, who drew my attention to the MS chart (Fig. 8) in the British Archives.

	State 1	State 2	State 3	State 4
Published source	Unidentified	Neptune Oriental	Supplément	Neptune Oriental
Date	C. 1760	1775	1781 & 1821	1810
Number top right	No number	8	8	214
Price (Prix Un Franc)	No	No	No	Yes
Hanglip error	Yes	corrected	corrected	corrected
Sandanha Bay error	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Gordon's Bay error	No	No	Yes	Yes
False Bay Soundings	West only	Also east	More in east	More in east
False Bay Toponyms	Dutch	Dutch	Mostly French	Mostly French

Table 1. Key features of the four states of the 'Plan du Cap de Bonne Esperance et de ses Environs'. The errors are explained above. Hanglip error: too far north; Saldanha Bay error: too long; Gordon's Bay error: north-east corner too far east.

ce nom et du Côté du nord jusqu'a la Bäye de Saldagne. Tiré de Mr. Dapres les Observaons : Faittes par Mr. Lacaille' (51 × 78 cm). British National Archives, Kew, Reference CO 700/CapeofGoodHope3a.

39 Filliozat. 'D'Après de Mannevillette, Captain and Hydrographer to the French East India Company (1707 – 1780).' I*ndian Journal of History of Science*; 29 (2) (1994): 329 – 341, see p. 337.

40 Filliozat, 'D'Après de Mannevillette.'

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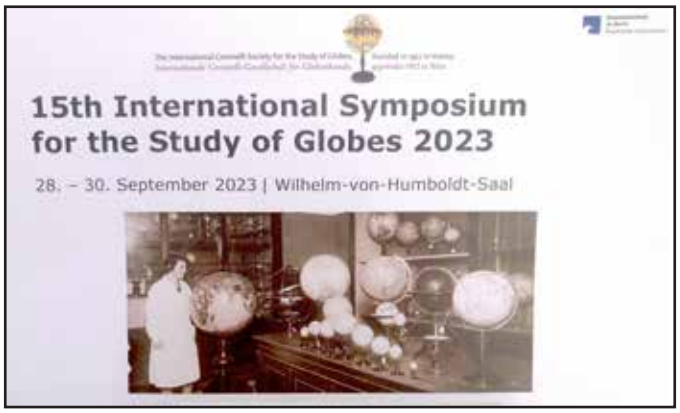
Globes and more: About the 2023 Coronelli Symposium in Berlin



The 15th International Symposium on the Study of Globes took place in Berlin from 28 to 30 September 2023. This time it was hosted by the Map Department of the Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin Preussischer Kulturbesitz. The event followed on from the previous symposium, which had taken place in Zurich in 2019. This was therefore the first major meeting after the coronavirus pandemic. A diverse group of fifty participants from more than twelve countries (including some 8 members of the BMC) followed the presentations and discussions with enthusiasm and interest and took part in the varied programme accompanying the conference.

The get-together kicked off on the evening of 27 September with an informal dinner in the heart of Berlin. For some of the globe enthusiasts, it was a reunion after a long gap, but new members also mingled with familiar faces. Greetings were exchanged, food was shared and networking took place. Valuable insights into current events in globe research and collecting were provided during stimulating conversations. Collectors met restorers and art historians met globe makers. A thoroughly successful evening that increased our anticipation for the coming days.

The main part of the symposium followed with a wide-ranging selection of interdisciplinary presentations that gave collectors, globe restorers and cartographers a chance to have their say. Not only after the presentations themselves, but also during the coffee breaks between the events, there was the opportunity to discuss what had been heard and ask further questions.

Jan Mokre, Head of the Globe Museum in Vienna and Chairman of the Coronelli Society for the Study of Globes, addressed a very warm welcome to the audience. Jan Mokre had organised this excellent symposium in cooperation with Markus Heinz, Head of the Map Department of the Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin, who gave an introduction to the department after Jan Mokre's speech.

It was followed by a comparison of the terrestrial globes by Louis-Charles Desnos 1770 and René Phelipeau 1791 from the private collection of Jean Rochet in Paris (fig. 1).

Fig. 1. Jean Rochet giving his speech 'Presentation and Comparative Analysis of the Terrestrial Globes of Louis-Charles Desnos (1770) and René Phelipeau (1791)'.

This was followed by an intellectual leap to Madrid, as collector César Ovelar presented a recently acquired pair of nineteenth-century terrestrial and celestial globes.

The focus here was on the procedure after the acquisition of globes, with regard to provenance research, repairs and restorations. Willem Jan Neutelings then presented a marginal group of globes, the transparent globes of Robert H. Farquhar. Jan Mokre then spoke about Robert Haart's publication Der Globus im Wandel der Zeiten and Patricia Engel shared her thoughts on globe packaging for magazines,

Fig.2. The Potsdam Institute for Climate Impact Research, just one of many interesting buildings the group visited during the excursion on the Telegrafenberg.

transport projects and exhibitions, which had been developed in collaboration with Friedrich Fialka. In addition, the cultural-historical manifestation of power relations on globes of the United States from the nineteenth century was discussed by scientist Tamara Thornton.

The film screening by artist and art historian Martina Pippal caused a sensation. It was a premiere in two senses, as never before had a film been part of a Coronelli Symposium. In collaboration with Catharina Blänsdorf, Maria Fernanda Falcon Martinez and Thomas Horst, the history of the facsimiles of the Hunt Lenox Globe in the New York Public Library was unveiled. In the film and the accompanying lecture, the owners of the replicas had their say and, in addition to the production method of the facsimiles, light was shed on the thesis of the Viennese globe collector Stefaan Missinne. His claim that the New York globe was merely a cast of the original in his possession was refuted by the film team's research findings. It was not, as Missinne claimed, a globe shell made from ostrich egg fragments, nor did the work originate from the hand of Leonardo da Vinci. The results of the meticulous research work formed the basis for many further rounds of discussions between the globe enthusiasts.

The second day of the symposium began with a change to the agenda as Egil Røssaak's scientific contribution to the classification of Erhard Weigel's globes was unfortunately cancelled at short notice. Due to the change, the group started the day with an introduction of Karin Reich's and Markus Heinz's papers on magnetic globes, followed by Malgorzata Taborska's explanation of the connection between Dietrich Reimer's globe from Cracow and the route tracking of Sputnik 1. Jost Schmid-Lanter then spoke on the didactic role of the Notker globe, while Wolfram Dolz discussed the Copernican tellurium by Willem Jansz. Blaeu. The following lecture by Doris Vickers was also categorised as celestial, as it dealt with the astroscopium of Wilhelm Schickard. Susanne M. Hoffmann, Stamatina Mastorakou and Marica Milanesi concluded the programme with information on three ancient globes, trimmed figures on celestial globes and the restoration of a globe in the Palazzo Vecchio in Florence.

Finally, Markus Heinz gave us a unique opportunity: a visit to the extensive collection of globes in the Staatsbibliothek zu Berlin Preussischer Kulturbesitz. This was the highlight for many globe enthusiasts. We rounded off the evening together with a meal at Gendarmenmarkt, where the Coronelli Society had reserved a separate room in order to spoil us with culinary delights.

The majority of the group used the following day to enjoy a trip to Potsdam together, where the Coronelli Society had organised a guided tour of the Science Park on the Telegrafenberg. The tour not only provided background information on the history of the Park, but also on its technical and cultural significance in Berlin-Brandenburg and the world. Furthermore, during the walk our guide pointed out and explained inside information concerning architectural and artistic landmarks (fig. 2).

Returning to our home towns we will take back many new impressions, innovative ideas and lasting contacts. As we said goodbye, we could already feel the anticipation of the next symposium of the Coronelli Society, which will take place in 2027.

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Visit to the exhibition ’Open kaart – van atlas tot streetmap’ in Amsterdam

Fig. 1. Overlay of World War II maps of Amsterdam ‘Depictions of Amsterdam 1940-1945’ by Gert Jan Kochen (see https://gertjankocken.nl/works/depictions+of+amsterdam+1940+1945/). With Reinder Storm, head of special collections at Allard Pierson, curator of the exhibition and our guide.

On Saturday 30 May 2023, around twelve members of the Brussels Map Circle gathered at the Allard Pierson in Amsterdam. This institution is part of the University of Amsterdam and combines an archeological part with a library of special collections, including a very important collection of maps.

In 1873, just 150 years ago, the Koninklijke Nederlands Aardrijkskundige Genootschap (Royal Dutch Geography Society, KNAG) was created in Amsterdam. Already in 1888, this society entrusted its library and map collection to the Allard Pierson, as a permanent loan. The KNAG thus celebrates its jubilee this year, and Allard Pierson dedicated an exhibition to maps from the KNAG.

We were welcomed and guided through the main part of the exhibition by the curator of the special collections of the Allard Pierson, Reinder Storm, who was also curator of the exhibition.

The exhibition title in Dutch is ‘*Open Kaart – van atlas tot streetmap*’ what means ‘*Open map – from atlas to streetmap*’. It has also a title in English: ‘Maps Unfolded’. The chosen viewpoint is that of a schoolkid who thinks of the world starting with himself, his environment, and widening through Amsterdam, Europe, the other continents and the whole world, with special attention to the former Dutch colonies. The exhibition was scheduled until mid-July but was extended until 20 August 2023.

In the first room, the artist Gert Jan Kocken had combined several maps of Amsterdam made during World War II, including a map indicating the density of the Jewish population. (fig. 1)

The second room is dedicated to Amsterdam. There we find the masterpiece of the exhibition: the recently acquired 1625 map by Balthasar Florisz. van Berckenrode (fig. 2). On nine sheets, measuring 139 × 156.5 cm, it shows a lot of detail including scenes of the daily life at the time: hundreds of ships in the port, horse carts, a funeral, etc. It was even coloured at the time and came complete with the title. It was also the first orthogonal map of Amsterdam, i.e. as seen vertically from above.

Fig. 2. Florisz. van Berckenrode, *Amstelredamum Emporium Hollandiæ Primarium Totiusque Europæ Celeberrimum,* first edition 1625. Collectie Allard Pierson, UvA; OTM- HB-KZL W.X. 020

Fig. 3. Jean Baptiste de Bouge and F. Deleu (engraver), Carte chorographique du Royaume des Pays-Bas comprenant la division territoriale en provinces et arrondissemens... Bruxelles : J.B. de Bouge, 1823. Collectie Allard Pierson, UvA; HB-KZL 28.19.18.

Fig. 5. Peter Schenk, Eclipse os solis sotalis.... Amsterdam : Schenk and Valck, 1715. Collectie Allard Pierson, UvA; HB-KZL 31.04.01

The third room is dedicated to the Netherlands. The most impressive map here, in twenty sheets, shows the Netherlands (now Benelux) as a united kingdom. This 'Carte chorographique du Royaume des Pays-Bas ...' was made and published in 1823 by Brussels native Jean-Baptiste de Bouge, who even put his own portrait on it (fig. 3).

We also found some atlases, including the 1513 Ptolemaeus by Martin Waldseemüller. Other maps show the evolution of the water level of the country's territory, from prehistory to nowadays. The location of a large part of the Netherlands under sea level is impressively rendered on the Elevation Map (Hoogtekaart), made by the Topografisch Bureau in 1865 (fig. 4).

In this room, as in all the others, we find maps from the Bos Atlas, the one used by every Dutch child at school and later at home.`

Then comes Europe. One particularly interesting map here is an eclipse map by Peter Schenk from 1710 (52 × 57cm), showing the paths of the total solar eclipse of 1706 on the map of Europe, and of 1715 in an insert, also with a schema of Sun – Moon – Earth (fig. 5).

In the next room a big wall is covered by caricature maps from World War I. War is the theme of this room, reminding us that all the nice places and resources from the other maps could be lost in such circumstances. The evolution of borders is also a topic in this part of the exhibition.

Fig. 4. Hoogtekaart van Nederland. Topografisch Bureau, 1865. Collectie Allard Pierson, UvA; HB-KZL 23.09.01

Fig. 6. John Cary, *A new map of Africa, : exhibiting its natural and political divisions : delineated from the most recent authorities*. London printed for John Cary, 1819. Collectie Allard Pierson, UvA; HB-KZL 34.35.05

The sixth room is dedicated to the other continents. The curator has a preference for a map of Africa, printed for John Cary in 1819, in four sheets (fig. 6). This one shows very honestly how little was still then known about the interior of the continent!

We also find here a facsimile of the French edition in twelve volumes of Blaeu's Atlas Maior (fig. 7), and a globe by Willem Jansz Blaeu.

The two last rooms are dedicated to the former colonies of the Netherlands, clearly showing the abnormality of slavery. For example, the announcement of an auction for a plantation includes the slaves in the lot!

A school map of 'Insulinde', i.e. the Malay Archipelago that nowadays is mainly Indonesia, showing as an insert the Netherlands at the same scale, highlighted that a tiny country was ruling huge Indonesia (fig. 8). Amazing!

Fig. 7. Facsimilé of Blaeu's Le grand atlas ou Cosmographie blaviane. Amsterdam, 1663 by Theatrum Orbis Terrarum Ltd, Amsterdam, 1967 plus cabinet.

Fig. 8. R. Schuiling, Schoolkaart van Insulinde. Zutphen : Thieme, 1898. Collectie Allard Pierson, UvA; HB-KZL 65.10.15. Bruikleen KNAG.

The masterpiece here is a map of Surinam by Alexander de Lavaux, from 1737. It measures 91 × 133 cm, but the lavish frame brings it to 160 × 189 cm (fig. 9).

Paula van Gestel-van het Schip, in an article in *De Boekenwereld*, labels this frame as almost decadent. It shows the coat of arms of the States General, and of the owners and the 12 administrators of Surinam, two natives and a maroon (i.e. a fugitive slave), and local products. The map shows on the left the plantations, always near water, and on the right an expedition against the maroons, with a military camp and a burning maroon village. Lavaux was obliged to take part in such an expedition.

The exhibited version is from the Rijksmuseum, the Allard Pierson has another one (fig. 10).

After this guided visit, we went to the Eetcafé de Brakke Grond for lunch (fig. 11). And then we had the opportunity to come back to Allard Pierson, to visit the other part of the exhibition, with explanations about the great publishers of atlases of the past, and about the newest map technologies, with TomTom based in Amsterdam.

The scope of the exhibition was very broad, and it offered many interesting pieces for map lovers.

Fig. 9. Members of the Brussels Map Circle looking at the map by Alexander de Lavaux, with explanations from Reinder Storm

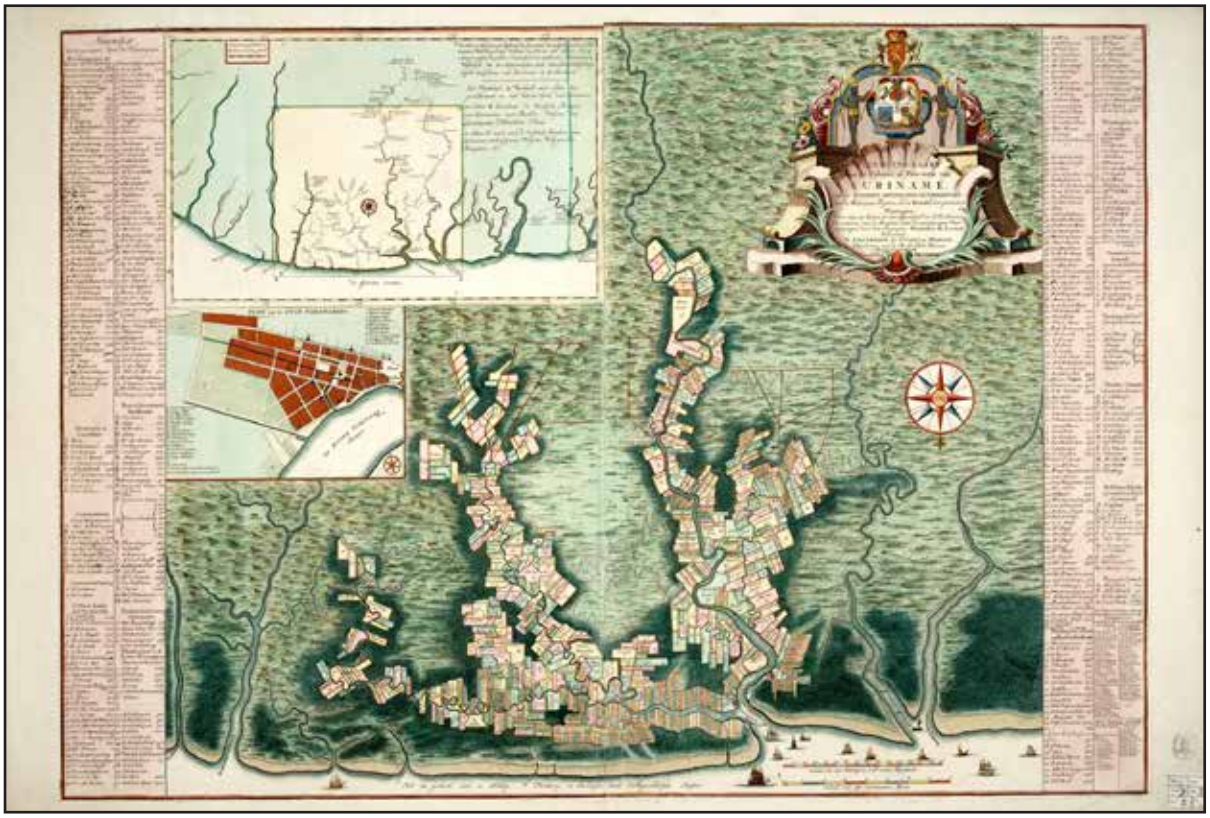

Fig. 10. Alexander de Lavaux, Algemeene kaart van de Colonie of Provintie van Suriname ... [etc.]. Amsterdam : Covens & Mortier, [ca 1758]. Collectie Allard Pierson, UvA; HB-KZL 105.20.03.

Fig. 11. The participants have lunch after the guided tour.

Bernard-Régis Larue
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The Brussels Map Circle

AIMS AND FUNCTIONS

The Circle was created, as the Brussels International Map Collectors' Circle (BIMCC), in 1998 by Wulf Bodenstein.

Now known as the Brussels Map Circle, it is a non-profit making association under Belgian law (asbl/vzw 0464 423 627).

Its aims are to:

1. Provide an informal and convivial forum for all those with a specialist interest in maps, atlases, town views and books with maps, be they collectors, academics, antiquarians, or simply interested in the subject
2. Organise lectures on various aspects of historical cartography, on regions of cartographical interest, on documentation, paper conservation and related subjects
3. Organise visits to exhibitions, and to libraries and institutions holding important map and atlas collections.

In order to achieve these aims, the Circle organises the following annual events:

- A MAP-AFTERNOON in March or April, bringing together all those interested in maps and atlases for an informal chat about an item from their collection – an ideal opportunity to get to know the Circle.
- An EXCURSION to a map collection or exhibition.
- An INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE on a specific major topic in December.

The Brussels Map Circle also publishes *Maps in History* (formerly known as *BIMCC Newsletter)*, three times a year and a monthly electronic news bulletin *'WhatsMap?'*. It also maintains a website.
Information on events and exhibitions to be placed on the calendar of our website and announced in WhatsMap? should be sent to webmaster@bimcc.org

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Members receive three issues of our magazine 'Maps in History' per annum and have free admission to most of the Circle's events.
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MAPS IN HISTORY

The Brussels Map Circle currently publishes three issues per year. It is distributed, not only to Members of the Circle, but also to key institutions (universities, libraries) and to personalities active in the field of the history of cartography, located in 16 different countries.
Please submit articles and contributions to the editor by the following deadlines:

- 15 March for the May edition.
- 15 July for the September edition.
- 15 Nov. for the January edition.

Items presented for publication are submitted to the approval of the Editorial Committee.
Signed articles and reviews reflect solely the opinions of the author.

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