Cristofle colom Colomb est de partie de terre occidentale et de temps après America de euspuse recouvrir la partie et toute ces îles nommées de son nom Amerique.
X marks the spot

Daniel Crouch Rare Books is a specialist dealer in antique atlases, maps, plans, sea charts, globes, scientific instruments, and voyages dating from the fifteenth to the nineteenth centuries. Our particular passions include rare atlases, wall maps, and separately published maps and charts.

*It’s more fun to be a pirate than to join the navy.*

*Steve Jobs*
X marks the spot

1. Moya de Contreras £12,500
2. Blaeu £315,000
3. Spilbergen £30,000
4. De Caus £350,000
5. Caloiro e Oliva £350,000
6. Cromwell £20,000
7. Oliva £450,000
8. Doncker £60,000
9. Blaeu £750,000
10. van Loon £120,000
11. Colom £140,000
12. Blaeu £300,000
13. Blaeu £320,000
14. Esquemelin £173,500
15. [Anonymous] £20,000
16. Dampier £34,000
17. Hacke £9,000
18. Wafer £9,000
19. Cooke £6,000
20. Greenwood £6,000
21. Moll £6,000
22. Frézier £3,000
23. Rogers £5,500
24. Defoe £125,000
25. Barker £108,000
26. Shelvoke £8,500
27. West £11,000
28. Vertue £3,500
29. Price £40,000
30. Popple £140,000
31. Cockburn £3,000
32. Johnson £7,000
33. Bulkeley £4,000
34. Thomas £4,000
35. Mitchell £180,000
36. Bretuill £135,000
37. Cruger £3,000
38. [Anonymous] £2,000
39. Jeffreys £16,000
40. Long £3,800
41. Jeffreys £32,000
42. Edwards £3,200
43. Leard £30,000
44. Barney £32,000
45. Cary £14,000
46. Goodridge £350
47. Robinson £30,000
48. [Anonymous] £2,000
49. Heather £6,000
50. Andrews £10,000
X marks the spot
Introduction

As long as there have been sailors, there have been pirates. The typical perception of pirates is as lawless outcasts: drinking rum, brandishing cutlasses, and gathering treasure for purely personal gain. While there were undoubtedly rum and cutlasses aplenty, the history of piracy is interwoven with the history of warring nation states. While piracy could be severely punished, piracy by another name could be encouraged in the form of privateering, when captains were allowed by authorities to capture ships or attack settlements. This catalogue will examine the role of pirates, privateers, buccaneers and freebooters in the tumultuous relationships between European countries as they expanded their trade and territories beyond their borders.

Many items in the collection reflect the contemporary interest in the types of pirates that still fascinate us today. Alexandre Exquemelin’s work, ‘Bucaniers of America’, (item 14) contains suitably bloodcurdling stories, like one about the French privateer François l’Olonnais, who ripped the heart out of one of a group of prisoners in order to extract information from the others. Charles Johnson’s ‘A General and True History’ (item 32) contains an illustration of Edward Teach, better known as Blackbeard, with the smoking fuses tied into his beard that became an enduring part of his legend. A different perspective, however, is provided by the first map of Nassau (item 25), where the ‘Republic of Pirates’ was formed in the early eighteenth century, before it was flushed out by the British. Although some of the other piracy accounts in the catalogue accentuate the pirates’ lawlessness, Nassau shows quite the opposite. These terrors of the sea formed themselves into a quasi-democratic society, following a code of conduct, and elected Blackbeard at one point to act as their magistrate. The 22 November 2018 marks the 300th anniversary of his death.

The items deal not just with classic piracy, but also with the organizations and governments that battled for supremacy at sea. One of the defining naval battles of the sixteenth century was the defeat of the Spanish Armada by the English, in 1588. The victory was in part down to the sea-craft of the English privateer Sir Francis Drake (item 28), a pirate in the eyes of the Spanish, who had led several raids on Spanish interests in the New World. Drake is, in many ways, the archetypal privateer – plundering Spanish cities and treasure in peacetime, whilst joining forces with Lord Effingham, and Frobisher, to form a proto-Royal Navy, during times of war. The birth of the privateer was, in some ways, due to the limited revenues of the early modern state; Elizabeth I simply did not have the cash to construct and maintain a permanent fleet, and so, by granting private individuals like Drake a commission, or ‘letter of marque’, she was able to out-source many of the costs of maintaining a fleet, while also sharing in the illicit booty that Drake plundered on the Spanish Main.
The end of the sixteenth century saw the rise of the other European states eager for the riches and spoils that naval supremacy could bring. French global ambition is here illustrated by an early portolan world chart by Jean de Caus (item 4) for Cardinal Richelieu. During Richelieu’s time as First Minister he expanded and developed the French navy, in response to earlier attacks on French ports by Huguenot privateers during the French Wars of Religion, and to protect French merchant vessels. There are several items (items 2, 9, 12 & 13) by the great Dutch mapmakers, the Blaeu family. Willem and Joan Blaeu had little personal experience of piracy, save of the purely intellectual kind: their works were often copied by unscrupulous colleagues, but the family were mapmakers for the Dutch East India Company (VOC), which was founded to enter the East Indies trade, but after facing resistance from Portugal adopted an aggressive attitude including privateering.

As the global reach and trade of the European powers grew over the next two centuries, vast wealth would be transported overseas from the East Indies and New World to Europe. This not only led to conflict between European states, but also saw an explosion in piracy. The pirates were often privates, or members of the navy who had been demobilized following conflicts such as the War of Spanish Succession; heavily armed and unemployed, they would become a thorn in the side for the European states. The states’ response was to bolster the power of their navies, and by the end of the eighteenth century, piracy had been severely curtailed.

Although the ushering in of the ‘Pax Britannia’ in the nineteenth century; led to considerably safer seas, pockets of piracy continued to flourish. This is visibly demonstrated on Heather’s flag plate (item 49), which lists all the recognized naval ensigns, including two pirate or “rover” flags. The threats from the pirates in the Caribbean, were significant enough for the United States to set up the West India Squadron, in the 1810s. One of the commanders of the Squadron was Commodore Alexander J Dallas, who many believe is the inspiration for the naming of Dallas, Texas, but also Fort Dallas, in Florida, the earliest settlement in Miami (item 47).

Piracy and its smarter cousin privateering, still holds sway over our collective imagination; be it Jack Sparrow in ‘Pirates of the Caribbean’, Captain Hook in ‘Peter Pan’, or Long John Silver in ‘Treasure Island’. In the epilogue to ‘Treasure Island’, Robert Louis Stevenson wrote: “I am told there are people who do not care for maps, and I find it hard to believe”.

A sentiment we would whole heartedly endorse.
An arrest warrant, ordered by Pedro Moya de Contreras (c.1528-1591), first inquisitor of the Mexican Inquisition, addressed to Don Alonso Sánchez de Miranda, Dean of Guadalajara.

Whilst the life of a pirate promised the potential of great reward, it was still dangerous. The English privateers, John Hawkins and Francis Drake, set sail with five ships on a trading mission to the Caribbean in 1568, in contravention of the Treaty of Tordesillas. The fleet was damaged in a storm off the coast of Florida, so Hawkins negotiated a truce with the local Spanish for the fleet to land at San Juan de Ulúa.

Unfortunately, a Spanish fleet escorting the new viceroy of New Spain, Don Martin Enríquez de Almanza, arrived soon after. Enríquez de Almanza ordered preparations to be made to attack the English, despite the truce, and a fierce battle began while the English were unprepared. Only two ships managed to escape, captained by Drake and Hawkins, leaving hundreds of privateers stranded in New Spain.

Moya de Contreras arrived in New Spain in 1571, as the newly appointed inquisitor. He did not consider the remaining pirates to be mere prisoners of war, but also to be heretics. With the second Act of Supremacy in 1558, Elizabeth I had reaffirmed the decision of her father, Henry VIII, to act as head of the church in England rather than the Pope, and so broke with the Catholic Church. The English pirates were Protestants, and as such subject to the Inquisition’s regulations.

In 1572, Moya de Contreras issued orders for all remaining survivors from the Drake and Hawkins expedition to be apprehended and put on trial in New Spain. As a result, about 36 were condemned for heresy. This group was processed through the Inquisitorial court, where they were subjected to a grand auto-da-fé in 1574, the largest ever held.

Three of these pirates are mentioned in Moya’s letter to Don Alonso Sánchez de Miranda: “Guillermo de Siles, a Frenchman of 24 years of age, small in height, with pale features, with little growth of hair on his face, small blue eyes [presumably from the crew of the French privateer Robert Blondel, who accompanied Hawkins and Drake]... Pablo Haquines de la Cruz (Paul Hawkins), an Englishman [who came] with the armada of John Hawkins, with sturdy shoulders and pale features, with little growth of hair on his face, of about 20 years of age... Andres Martin (Andrew Martin) an Englishman with those from the said armada, young man without growth of hair, tall and slim, with pale features of about 18 years of age.”

The three men escaped the Inquisition by burrowing under the walls of their cell at night. The arrest warrant provides that should anyone contravene the order, or give aid to these heretics, they will face the prospect of “latae sentenciae excommunication”, including the sequestration of their possessions.
Blaeu, Willem Janszoon

A pair of globes: terrestrial and celestial.

Description
Each globe with a diameter of 230mm (nine inches) composed of 12 engraved gores, hand-coloured and heightened in gold, and two polar calottes, all pasted on to a plaster sphere, rotating on brass pinions within brass meridian ring with graduated scale, and a graduated brass altitude quadrant, set into a seventeenth-century Dutch wooden base with an engraved horizon ring, adumbrating scales, calendar, almanacs etc. With usual defects: paper equinoctial tables present gaps that are filled and restored, small splits along the gores, several partially deleted entries, small scattered spots but in general in good condition for such an early globe pair, brass polar rings missing.

References
Van der Krogt BLA III.

Willem Janszoon Blaeu's pair of nine-inch table globes are amongst the rarest to survive in comparison with the smaller or larger globes by Blaeu (four, six, 13.5, and 26 inches). Blaeu’s globes were aimed at wealthy merchants and noblemen. Even at the time, they were a luxury purchase: the terrestrial globe cost 16 guilders and the celestial globe cost 9 guilders. However, it was also the most advanced cartographic document of the age: it was a monument and tool; to be used as much as admired.

Terrestrial globe
Willem Jansz Blaeu collected information that Dutch mariners gathered from around world and brought back to Amsterdam. Crews were instructed to record information about the lands they visited and the skies they saw. Blaeu incorporated these observations in maps and globes. Through his web of contacts and thanks to assiduous research, he was also able to obtain the most recent information about the latest discoveries in the western hemisphere and the South Pacific, where Dutch explorers were particularly active at the time.

Since the globe was published after 1618, Blaeu was able to include the discoveries made by Henry Hudson in his attempt to find a passage to the East Indies. He also included recent Pacific discoveries of the celebrated voyages of Willem Cornelis Schouten and Jacob Le Maire, who both traversed the South Pacific and the Atlantic. The findings of Schouten and Le Maire in the Tierra del Fuego region are also incorporated.

The Strait of Le Maire is drawn and the hypothetical southern continent is labelled ‘Terra Australis Incognita Magallanica’. Olivier van Noort’s track is drawn and labelled. His route is indicated with a broken line and the words: ‘Navigatiois Olivierij ductus’ (several times). There are various decorative features, such as animals on the different continents, many ships on the high seas, and allegorical and mythical figures around the cartouches.

The 9-inch globe is not just a smaller version of the one published in 1599. Drawings of animals and people do often correspond to those on the earlier globe, but Blaeu made several significant changes.
- The west coast of North America is drawn differently and the river system of Brazil is altered.
- The hypothetical southern continent is labelled: ‘Terra Australis Incognita Magallanica’.
- There are nine ocean names in handsome curling letters: Mare Congelatum, Mare Atlanticum, Oceanus Aethiopicus, Mare Arabicum et Indicum, Mare di India, Oceanus Chinensis, Mar del Zor, Mare Pacificum, Mare del Norte.
- Willem Blaeu, always eager to display the latest discoveries, traced the route of Van Noort’s route with a broken line. The findings of the voyage of Schouten and Le Maire in the Tierra del Fuego region are included, despite the 1602 date (names: Fr. Le Maire, Mauritius, Staten Landt, C. Hoorn, L Barneveldt).
Celestial
The first maker of globes from the northern Netherlands was the cartographer Jacob Floris van Langren (before 1525-1610). He published his first terrestrial and celestial globes in 1586 with a diameter of 32.5cm, the terrestrial globes being based on the work of Mercator. The second edition of the celestial globe was improved after the observations of the southern hemisphere by Pieter Dirkz Keyser and Frederik de Houtman were incorporated by the geographer Petrus Plancius (1552–1622), who was also influential as a globe maker.

Two other famous Dutch mapmakers produced celestial globes: Jodocus Hondius the Elder (1563-1612), one of the most notable engravers of his day, and Willem Jansz Blaeu (1571-1638).

Publication history
According to Peter van der Krogt, the following states are known:

Terrestrial
First state: 1602 (no known examples).
Second state, c1618-1621 (no known examples).
Third state: 1602, but c1621 (the present example).

All the states are dated 1602 but the second state must have been published after 1618, since it includes the discoveries of Schouten and Le Maire (1615-1617), but not the name ‘Blaeu’.

Elly Dekker makes no distinction between the different states. The third state can be divided into states 3a and 3b. All globes have a different production number, some of which are illegible today. This terrestrial nine-inch globe is marked with ‘fabr. nr. 4’.

Celestial
First state: 1602 (known in a catalogue record but no known example surviving).
Second state: presumably published after 1621.

All 30 known celestial globes are in the second state, as this one, which is marked with ‘fabr. no. 12’.

Rare: there are 19 recorded examples, of which 14 are in institutions.
A pirate moves from boats to books

The travel accounts of two Dutch mariners, Joris van Spilbergen and Jacob le Maire, and an illustration of the struggles for power played out by privateers for the trading companies springing up in countries with colonial aspirations.

Spilbergen was commissioned by the Dutch East India Company (VOC) to sail to the Moluccas in 1614. Although officially a trading mission, Spilbergen was authorised by the VOC to use force to disrupt the Spanish Pacific trade (Allen). After the Seventeen Provinces had freed themselves from Spanish rule in 1581, they no longer had access to the Habsburg trading empire and needed to establish their own presence in the Pacific. Spilbergen himself believed that "the best and only means of reestablishing our affairs in the Indies and of making ourselves entirely masters of the Moluccas is, in my opinion, to dispatch a fleet and armada direct to the Philippines, in order to attack the Spaniards there, and to overpower all the places and strongholds it may be possible to conquer" (Zaide). Spilbergen's fleet captured and occupied Acapulco for a week, and spent a month in the Philippines raiding Manila-bound shipping.

Jacob le Maire was the son of Isaac le Maire, one of the original founders of the VOC. Isaac left and established his own trading organisation, the Australian Company, and sent his son to try and find a new route to the Moluccas, which would avoid the area monopolised by the VOC. Le Maire's voyage was much quieter than Spilbergen's, and he arrived in Batavia (now Jakarta) in October 1616 after successfully finding a new route, having lost only three crew members.

Unfortunately, a local officer of the VOC claimed that le Maire had infringed the VOC's trade monopoly, despite having taken a new and different route. Le Maire was arrested and his ship, the Eendracht, was confiscated. He was released and escorted back to the Netherlands by Spilbergen, who had arrived shortly afterwards. Sadly, Le Maire died on the voyage. Spilbergen took Le Maire's account of the circumnavigation, and included it with his own travel account, the present book. Isaac le Maire was not able to gain compensation for the ship or permission to trade using his son's route until 1622, by which time the Dutch West Indies Company had claimed the route.

Spilbergen and Le Maire's work was published in both Dutch and Latin in 1619, with both editions published by Nicolaus van Geelkercken. The plates in the book include an important map of Le Maire and Schouten's route across the Pacific, as well as maps of the Strait of Magellan and Manila, the Moluccas, and various ports on the Pacific coast of America.
De Caus, Jean Salomon

Carte Universelle.

Publication

[Paris], par S. de Caus Ingenieur et Architecte du Roy, 1624.

Description

Original manuscript world map on an oval projection, pen and ink and colour wash on vellum.

Dimensions

508 by 810mm (20 by 32 inches).

References


A magnificent manuscript map of the world, probably made for Cardinal Richelieu (1585-1642), the "father of the modern state system" (Kissinger), given the author and content. The map was drawn in 1624, the year in which Richelieu was made principal minister to Louis XIII of France, and de facto ruler of the country. He occupied this position until his death.

Richelieu was keen to expand the power of the French navy, realising that it was essential to establishing France as a global power. He came from a maritime family, and wrote in a memorandum, "It has been till now a great shame that the king who is the eldest son of the Church is inferior in his maritime powers to the smallest prince in Christendom" (Knecht). His efforts began in the year this map was made, with the foundation of a Conseil de Marine to bring naval proposals before the king’s council. At the time, there was no permanent fleet in the Atlantic and a handful of galleys in the Mediterranean; a decade later, there were three squadrons of round ships in the Atlantic, and one in the Mediterranean.

Richelieu was spurred on in his efforts by the Protestant privateers blocking Catholic towns on the Atlantic coast during the Wars of Religion and the Huguenot Rebellions, and the subsequent loss of much of the Atlantic trade to the English and Dutch (James).

In line with France’s new outward-looking foreign policy, the map shows the global reach and ambitions of the French empire. It concentrates in particular on New France in the Americas, which in 1624 included the shores of the St. Lawrence River, Newfoundland, and Nova Scotia (Arcadia), shown on the map as ‘Canada’ and ‘Estotiland’. ‘Virginne’ (Virginia) and ‘Floride’ (Florida), also appear. Amongst the vignettes in the margin is an early image of an ‘habitation en Virginie et floride’ and an Indian village in Virginia, drawn after Theodor de Bry (who published some of de Caus’ works). Another vignette, ‘Quebec habitation de francois en Canada’, is drawn after the travel account of Samuel de Champlain.

Generally speaking, the cartography is based on that of Jean le Clerc’s second separately issued world map, engraved by Jodocus Hondius, and published in Paris in 1602. However, de Caus’ map includes some important updates, including in Le Maire’s Strait and in northern Canada, where the results of Champlain’s expedition ten years earlier are shown.

Richelieu had a particular interest in the French territory of Canada. In 1627, he authorized an association of merchants, the Compagnie de la Nouvelle-France, popularly known as the Compagnie des Cent-Associés, or The One Hundred Associates, to take all steps it might think expedient for the protection of the colony and the expansion of trade and commerce, including a complete monopoly on the fur trade. Both Richelieu and Champlain were members. Richelieu was nominal governor of New France, but Champlain was appointed acting governor. Apart from a brief interruption when the English blockaded the Saint Lawrence River
and captured Quebec between 1629 and 1633, the Compagnie remained proprietor of New France until 1663.

In all, 17 settlements are shown on the map: Rome, ‘Mecha’ (Mecca), Moscou(w), Constantinople, Quebec, Quinsay (Hangchow), Beijing, Jerusalem, ‘La Babylone’, ‘Mexique’ (Mexico City), Leon, Lima, Cusco, ‘Arica Potosi’, ‘ville de la plate’, ‘Fernanborg’ (in Brazil), and ‘Cambalu’ (in Cathay). Regional names and tribal names appear in red and gold.

Those locations of most interest to the French are depicted in eight roundels, each a small masterpiece, in the margin of the map: a map of the port of Havana, with tall ships in the harbor, ‘Havane port en l’isle de Cuba’; the fortified citadel of ‘Quebec - habitation de francois en Canada’; maps of ‘La Goulette surla coste de barbarie pres de tunis’, ‘Isle St. Thomas’, ‘Rodas’, ‘Penon de Velez’, an important and early view of an Indian village in Virginia, ‘habitation en Virginie et floride’; and of ‘Cusco ville metropolitaire du Peru’.

Jean Salomon de Caus (1576-1626) was an architect, engineer, mathematician and author. He is known not only for his works, but also for his extensive writings on how he achieved them, including ‘Hortus Palatinus’ (1620) on his Heidelberg garden designs, and ‘Les raisons des forces mouvantes’ (1615) on the principles of hydraulics behind the automata and fountains in his gardens.

De Caus’ influence was widespread in the courts of the Southern and Northern Netherlands, Germany, and England, where his younger brother Isaac de Caus (1590-1648) worked, long before he became ‘Ingenieur et Architecte du Roy’ for Louis XIII. James I brought him to the English court as drawing-master to his children, Elizabeth and Henry Frederick. At the palace of Richmond, he created amusing fountains and other novel waterworks for the ailing Henry Frederick. On his death, in 1612, de Caus left England. It was for Elizabeth, when she married Elector Friedrich V, that de Caus created the design of the Hortus Palatinus in Heidelberg, begun in about 1614 and left unfinished in 1619.

De Caus arrived in France in 1620, at first in Rouen and then in Paris. He first worked for Louis XIII as an hydraulic engineer, responsible for sanitation and water supply.

Towards the end of his life, de Caus also worked as a cartographer. There are records of a plan of Paris from 1622; a world map, first mentioned by J. Desnoyers in 1870; and another map, also bearing his signature, rediscovered in 1980, and dedicated to Richelieu. This map was probably also made for Cardinal Richelieu; de Caus also dedicated to Richelieu a treatise published in the same year, ‘La practise et demonstration des horloges solaires’. On a more personal level, in this map, de Caus betrays his interest in human engineering and architecture by including several of the wonders of the world on his map: the Great Wall of China, Babylon; and also Bohemia, where he had spent much of his adult life (Morgan).
Provenance:
1. From the collection of Philip Stanhope, 2nd Earl Stanhope (1714-1786), bound in an example of 'Atlas sive cosmographicae meditationes de fabrica mundi et fabricata rerum', (Amsterdam: Gerard Mercator and Jodocus Hondius, 1619), with a presentation inscription dated 9 February 1771 to, and with the bookplate of, Stanhope.
2. With Christie's, 24 May 1995, lot 78 (as part of the above atlas).
3. Separately, as part of a private collection.
CALOIRO E OLIVA, Placido

(Portolan chart of Europe, part of Asia and northern Africa).

Publication
(Messina, c1640).

Description
Pen and ink, and wash colour on vellum, heightened in silver and gold, extending west to east from the Azores to the Holy Land, and north to south from the British Isles to the Red Sea, islands in red, blue and green, rivers in blue, numerous coastal place names in red and espar in semi-italic lettering, 25 city views with flags, ten large and small compass roses, all with fleur-de-lis north points, depiction of the Virgin and Child within a compass rose to neck, above an inset map of the globe including the Americas supported by three windheads, two latitude lines, two large and elaborate scale cartouches, the whole chart divided by red, green, and espar rhumb lines extending from the compass roses, two ornate lateral red borders, old vellum and manuscript overlay repair to upper left shoulder, affecting part of the border the F of Africa and part of the palm tree, a few small nicks to neck and lower margin of chart.

Dimensions
1090 by 585mm (43 by 23 inches).

References

A large, extensive, and richly decorated portolan chart of Europe, North Africa and Western Asia extending from the British Isles to the Red Sea, and including an inset globe showing the Americas.

The chart has been attributed to Placido Caloiro e Oliva, whose family flourished in Messina between 1621 and 1665. The Oliva cartographic dynasty dominated portolan production in Europe during the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries. Charts signed by no fewer than 16 different members of the Oliva family are recorded between 1538 and 1673, and individual members apparently worked throughout the Mediterranean world, as their charts originate from Mallorca, Messina, Naples, Livorno, Florence, Venice, Malta, Palermo, and Marseilles. The exact relationships between the various members are unclear, though similarities in style and content among their works seem to attest to the sharing and transmission of knowledge within the family.

The chart is centered on Sicily and the Mediterranean, with Spain and Portugal, France, Italy and Greece, and includes, in northern Europe: Ireland, England and Wales, with part of Scotland as a separate island; the whole of France, the Flanders, and part of Denmark; in western Asia it shows the northern, western and southern coast of the Black Sea, Anatolia, the whole of the eastern Mediterranean coast including a schematic representation of the Calvary surmounted by three crosses in the Holy Land, in northern Africa, part of the Red Sea and the Nile, a rider on a camel, palm trees, and a lion; in the Atlantic Ocean the Canary Islands and the Azores are shown, divided by two latitude scales, one starting at 33 (23) degrees on the western edge of Africa and cropping at 31 degrees dividing the Canaries, and the second one starting below at 32 and ending at 56 near Ireland. At the neck of the chart is an inset globe within a gold border showing the whole world including Europe with part of Scandinavia and Russia, part of Asia until India, as ‘Goa’, the Arabian peninsula, the whole of Africa with Madagascar in red, the Americas, part of North America and Canada, with Florida, Mexico, Nova Spagna, Terranova and Nova Francia labelled, the West Indies including Cuba and Spagniola, the whole of South America, Magellan’s Strait and terra di Foggia.
The chart presents highly decorative features which are typical of the work of Placido Caloiro e Oliva: the Virgin and Child at the neck, the flagged cities, the elaborate scale bars, the style of the compass roses, the accuracy of the toponyms, the blue-green rivers. The inset globe was a feature introduced in portolan charts by Vesconte Maggiolo, and in the family’s oeuvre by Joan Riccio Oliva; it became a constant feature in the work of Placido Caloiro e Oliva and added a modern dimension to a type of map which originated in the Medieval times. A comparison with a signed chart of 1631 held at the Bibliothèque nationale, Paris, reveals further similarities in the construction, the positioning of rhumb lines and names, the location of major and minor islands.

Pfederer records 27 institutional examples of portolan charts and atlases by Placido Caloiro e Oliva. Including the present example, only two have appeared on the market in the last 20 years.
A letter from the Lord Protector, Oliver Cromwell, to the Grand Vizier for the Ottoman Sultan Mehmed IV, "the High and Excellent Lord the Vizier Azem". The formal letter is a complaint to the Vizier that an English ship, the Resolution, was taken captive by Ottoman men of war while it was on a trade journey to Scanderone (now Aleppo).

Piracy by the Barbary States was a serious foreign policy problem for European powers. Ships trading in the western Mediterranean were particularly vulnerable. In the letter, Cromwell demands an inquiry and that the attackers should be punished.

"As we have now done to the Grand Signor your lord and master, so doe we also to you complaine of an Act of violence and injustice towards divers Merchants of this Commonwealth interested in an English Ship called the Resolution which being laden with Cloth, Tynn & mony & bound for the Grand Signors owne port of Scanderone in a peaceable course of Trading, was notwithstanding in her way neare Candy assaulted by seven Tripoly men of warre actually engaged in the Grand Signors service, & by them carried to Rhods, where the Captaine Bassa both secured the ship and her lading and imprisoned the Master, Mariners & passingers being in number forty five persons".

Cromwell's relationship with the Barbary States during the Protectorate was tumultuous. As many European and Atlantic ports were closed to English trade because of outrage at the execution of Charles I, English merchants turned increasingly to northern Africa and the Levant. Despite diplomatic overtures, British ships were still taken captive, so Cromwell sent his Lord Admiral, Robert Blake, to attack Tunis and Algiers in 1655, forcing the Diwan of Algiers to agree to peace with England. An elegy to Blake after his death recorded his efforts "to make the Turkish Pyrates know by Fire and Sword what 'tis to be thy foe" (Matar).

After this display of English force, a cordial relationship prevailed, but after the Ottoman fleet was defeated by the Venetians in 1656, they looked to English ships in the area to recover. Cromwell's letter here was written in the following year, about the capture of an English vessel, and urges the Grand Vizier to make restitution. His efforts resulted in a treaty with the governor of Tetuan safeguarding British castaways on north African shores, and an agreement with Tunis for peace and the release of 72 British captives.

"Sometimes to make the Turkish Pyrates know by Fire and Sword what 'tis to be thy foe"
OLIVA, Franciscus [II]


Publication
Marseille, 1658.

Description
Portolan atlas (510 by 340mm) comprising of 10 manuscript charts on vellum (six double page and four single page) pasted on thin card, coloured in ink wash and gouache throughout and heightened in gold, lavish decorative motifs on compass roses, scale bars, armorial shields and name cartouches, each chart within a simple yellow border the outlines in sepia, main islands in gold, the rest in red, blue, green, coastlines in red, blue, green and pink, rivers in blue, main names in red and the rest in brown ink. Humblines in sepia, red and green. Some typical signs of wear, particularly on the borders, resulting in some tears and losses which in some cases have been reinstated. Ownership label of Gertrude Hamilton pasted to upper marbled paper pastedown, contemporary vellum binding.

References

A magnificent portolan atlas signed by a member of the leading family of chart-makers of the Mediterranean

The portolan chart originated in thirteenth century Italy, as an aid to the pilots navigating their way across the often treacherous Mediterranean Sea. They are characterized by thumb lines, lines that radiate from the centre in the direction of, often elaborate, wind or compass points that were used by pilots to lay courses from harbour to harbour. Generally drawn on vellum and often embellished in silver and gold, they were, at their height during the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries, some of the most beautiful examples of the mapmaker’s art ever produced.

The current portolan was drawn by Franciscus Oliva of Marseille. The earliest work signed by Franciscus Oliva is dated 1650, although there is a 1643 atlas signed by a Franciscus Caloiro Oliva which bears many stylistic similarities with Franciscus’s later work. Franciscus’s last known signed chart is dated 1664, and there are a number of unsigned works which are undoubtedly attributed to him, attesting to a highly productive workshop (Astengo).

1. Eastern Mediterranean

The chart stretches from Greece and its archipelago, to include Turkey, the Holy Land, Egypt and part of Libya. All blank areas inland are filled with highly embellished elements: ten large and small compass roses, cartouches for the author’s signature and for Africa and Asia, two scale bars topped by an urn motif, four crowned armorial shields of the Ottoman Empire, three crosses for the Calvary, a seated camel, four palm trees.

2. Central Mediterranean with Italy

The chart is centred on Sicily and includes Italy, Corsica, Sardinia, the northern coast of Africa, part of Greece and the entire Adriatic coast. In Africa there are three palm trees, an ostrich, a camel, and an armorial shield of the crescent moon. There are nine large and small compass roses, a scale bar on each page and cartouches naming Africa, Barbaria, and Europa. Malta is coloured red with a black cross to indicate the Order of Saint John.
3. Western Europe
   The chart shows Spain and part of France, each with their armorial shields, the Balearics, part of northern Algeria and Morocco. Cartouches for Barbaria, Africa and Europa, a banderole for Spagnia; France is simply capitalised in red. There are nine large and small compass roses, two scale bars, a crowned armorial shield of the Ottoman Empire and three conjoined palm trees. Majorca is coloured in red and gold to indicate the flag of Aragon.

4. Malta and part of Gozo
   The coastline is well delineated, however the wealth of the information is contained inland: the road network is mapped, including both main roads and secondary ones, with the city of Medina, also know as the Città Vecchia, in the centre. Also marked are forts, the salt lake and the water spring.

5. The Balearics
   A single page chart showing the islands of Ibiza, Majorca, Minorca, Formentera and Cabrera, with two compass roses and a scale bar. The islands are coloured in green and show the mountain ranges. A pier stretching out from today’s Palma indicates a safe port, and soundings and anchorages around the islands are marked.

6. Sicily
   Large chart of Sicily, oriented with north at the bottom. Palermo and Messina are drawn including the city walls and forts, and are topped by gilt crosses, as well as Monreale near Palermo. Messina, Siracusa, Catania, Parti and Cefalu are topped by gilt croziers, as well as Rigio (Reggio Calabria) in the mainland, and Lipari. Muggibello, today’s Etna, is depicted erupting, as well as the eponymous Vulcano, near Lipari.

7. Corsica and Sardinia
   The chart shows the islands of Corsica and Sardinia, each with their heralds, Sardinia as belonging to Spain, and Corsica to the Republic of Genoa.

8. Cyprus
   Large scale chart of Cyprus, with the crescent moon shield within the island. The rivers and mountain ranges are shown, as well as soundings and anchorages.
9. Crete
Large map of Crete, including the islands around. The cities are named and drawn, and the rivers and mountain ranges represented.

10. General map of the Mediterranean
Index map of the entire Mediterranean, stretching from the Atlantic to the Black Sea and showing the coastal outlines of Portugal, Spain, France, Italy, the Adriatic, Greece, Turkey, the Holy Land, North Africa and the islands. The map is drawn within a graticule of parallels and meridians in a cylindrical projection, and bears no toponyms but shows rivers and all the islands.

Provenance:
Ex Libris Gertrude Hamilton (1887-1961), with the Hamilton family motto 'Viridis et Fructifera' under an oak tree. Gertrude was the great-great-granddaughter of Alexander Hamilton.
The most up-to-date sea atlas of the second half of the seventeenth century

Although not the first to publish a sea atlas in Amsterdam — that honour went to Janssonius — the first edition of Doncker’s ‘Zee-Atlas’, published in 1659, was superior both in coverage and utility to the rival publications of Johannes Janssonius and Arnold Colom, neither of which were reprinted after 1659.

Koeman notes: “Doncker’s charts were the most up-to-date in the second half of the seventeenth century. Although there is some similarity to those charts published by Van Loon, Goos, Lootsman, and Doncker, the latter’s charts are original. More frequently than ... [his] contemporaries, Hendrik Doncker corrected and improved his charts. He often replaced obsolete charts by new ones ... This consciousness of the high demands of correctness is reflected by the development of Doncker’s sea atlas”.

The charts of the Americas include the “Pas caert van Nieu Nederland, Virginia en Nieu Engeland” - the third printed chart of the New Netherlands, and the ‘Pascaart vertoonen de Zeecusten van Chili, Peru, Hispania Nova, Nova Grenada en California – orientated with east at the top and depicting California as an island on a larger scale than any earlier sea chart.

The the preliminaries and charts conform to Koeman Don 9B, but contain the additional charts of ‘De cust van Zeelandt...’, and ‘De Cust Vlaenderen...’, which Koeman records as first appearing in the Spanish edition of 1669.

Provenance:
A list of five members of the Lundgren family originally from Onsala, in Sweden, in manuscript to the upper pastedowns. From Captain A. Lundgren in the early eighteenth century to Hans Lundgren, an accountant, of Karlskrona, born in 1908, and hence by decent.
BLAEU, Johannes

Le Grand Atlas, ou Cosmographie blaviane, en laquelle est exactement discrite la terre, le mer, et le ciel.

Publication
Amsterdam, Jean Blaeu, 1663.

Description
12 volumes, folio (540 by 340mm), engraved allegorical or architectural frontispieces, printed titles with engraved vignettes and divisional half-titles, 598 engraved maps and plates, of which two are extra, mostly double-page (some folding), engraved illustrations, coloured throughout in a contemporary hand, heightened in gold, publisher’s vellum gilt with stylised foliate roll, and large centre and corner arabesques, gilt edges, spine divided into eight compartments by horizontal rolls, decorated with fleur-de-lys corner pieces around a central rose tool, with original ties.

References
Brotton, 260-293; Hermann de la Fontaine Verwey, “Het werk van de Blaeus’ , Maandblad Amstelodamum 39 (1952), 103 quoted in Brotton, 265; Van der Krogt, 2:611-2; Shirley, British Library, T:BLA-1q.

An exceptionally attractive example of “the greatest and finest atlas ever published” (Verwey).

The ‘Atlas Major’ in its various editions was the largest atlas ever published. It was justly famed for its production values, its high typographic standard, and the quality of its engraving, ornamentation, binding, and colouring. The atlas frequently served as the official gift of the Dutch Republic to princes and other authorities. It is one of the most lavish and highly prized of all seventeenth-century illustrated books.

“In its sheer size and scale it surpassed all other atlases then in circulation, including the efforts of his great predecessors Ortelius and Mercator” (Brotton). The work was published simultaneously in five different languages: Latin, French, Dutch, Spanish, and German. The French ‘Grand Atlas’ was the largest of the five editions, with the volume concerning France split into two books to make a total of 12 volumes. Blaeu managed to contain the world in a book, an endeavour that in many respects would never be equalled.

Publication history
Blaeu’s great work was born in 1630 when he published his first atlas, the ‘Atlas Appendix’. The book consisted of 60 maps, and was billed by Blaeu as a supplement to Mercator’s atlas. His great rivals, Henricus Hondius and Johannes Janssonius, had expanded and reissued Mercator’s work. They were so frightened of Blaeu’s move into the publication of atlases that they rushed out a rival ‘Appendix’ by the end of the same year.

Over the next 30 years this great publishing rivalry would spur the production of ever larger and more lavish atlases. In 1634, Willem Blaeu produced his ‘Atlas Novus’, containing 161 maps; this was expanded in 1635 to two volumes, containing 207 maps. The house of Blaeu was so successful that in 1637 they moved into larger premises. The new building was the largest printing house in Europe, with its own print foundry and nine letterpresses. Unfortunately, Willem did not live long after the move and he passed away the following year. He was succeeded in business by his son Joan, who also inherited the lucrative and influential post of Hydrographer to the Dutch East India Company (VOC).

Over the next 20 years Joan expanded the ‘Atlas Novus’: adding a third volume in 1640 covering Italy and Greece, in 1645, a fourth volume on the British Isles; and in 1654 a volume relating to China, the Atlas Sinensis. This was the first western atlas of China, based on the work of the Jesuit Marteo Martini. Janssonius managed to keep pace with his more illustrious rival. In 1646 he published a four volume atlas, adding a fifth – the first folio sea atlas – in 1650, and in 1658 a sixth consisting of 450 maps, some 47 more than Blaeu’s similar work.

In 1662, Blaeu announced that he would auction his bookselling business in order to finance the imminent publication of his great atlas.
From a brief look at the numbers it is clear that Blaeu needed capital. The creation of the five editions took six years, from 1659 to 1665. It is estimated that 1,550 copies over all five editions were printed. If one totals up the entire print run, it comes to just over 5.4 million pages of text, and 950,000 copper plate impressions! Such a vast undertaking in capital and labour was reflected in the price of the work, with the French edition the most expensive at 450 guilders. The atlas was not only the costliest ever sold, but also the most expensive book of its day. To give some idea of comparative value, the average price of a house in Amsterdam at the time of publication was 500 guilders.

The maps

The maps are among the most beautiful ever made. Of particular note are the famous side-panelled maps of the continents, the 58 maps devoted to England and Wales (vol. V), Martini’s Atlas of China, the first atlas of China published in Europe (vol. XI), and a series of 23 maps of America, including important early maps of Virginia and New England (vol. XII).

Of particular note is the double hemispheric world map, newly prepared for the atlas by Joan. Jerry Brotton suggests that this is the first world map in an atlas to portray the Copernican solar system.

Contents

Volume I World, Europe and Scandinavia. 60 maps and plates.
Volume II Northern and Eastern Europe. 40 maps and plates.
Volume III Germany. 97 maps (3 folding).
Volume IV The Low Countries. 63 maps.
Volume V England and Wales. 58 maps.
Volume VI Scotland and Ireland. 55 maps.
Volume VII France. 37 maps.
Volume VIII France and Switzerland. 36 maps.
Volume IX Italy. 60 maps.
Volume XI Asia. 28 maps.
Volume XII America. 23 maps.
VAN LOON, Johannes

Klaer-Lichtende Noort-Star ooste zee-atlas; waer in vertoont worde, De gelegentheydt van alle de Zee-kusten des geheelen Aerdtboeems, Nieuwelicksuyt-gegeven, door Joannes van Loon.

Publication
Amsterdam, By Joannes van Loon, Plaet-snyder en Zee-kaert-maker, buiten de S. Antonispoort, aem’t Kerck-hof, in’t Lelystraetje. 1666.

Description
Folio (485 by 305mm), hand-coloured engraved title-page with title and imprint on letterpress paste-over flanked by the figures of Peter Medina and Edward Wright above a vignette of ships sailing towards the North Star, and 34 double-page engraved maps, hand-coloured in outline, contemporary calf, rebacked and recornered, spine in eight compartments separated by raised bands.

References
cf. Koeman Loon 2 and 3; Shirley (Atlases) M.LOON-1a and b.

Johannes van Loon (1611-1686) “was an accomplished mathematician and astronomer. His earliest cartographic works were with Theunisz Jacobs in the 1640s. From 1650 he worked with Joannes Janssonius, engraving amongst other works the plates for his celestial atlas by Cellarius, 1660. In 1661, he published his first work with his brother, Gilles; the ‘Zee Atlas’ containing thirty-five maps. In 1666 the plates were sold to Jan Jansson van Waesberge, with whom he then co-published the atlas. This edition was expanded to forty-seven maps, and by 1676 there were fifty” (Burden).

The atlas contains many important charts, including:
1. ‘Pas-caerte van Groenland Ysland, Straet Davids en Ian Mayen eyland; hoeven de selvige van Hitland en de noord kusten van van Schotlandt en Yrlandt bezeylen mach ’t Amsterdam by Johannes van Loon plaetsnyder en zee caert maker’ - a chart of the North Atlantic, derived from Hendrick Doncker’s of 1659, which in turn followed Pieter Goos’ original design, second state, Burden 364.
2. ‘Pascaert van Ruslant, Laplant, Finmarcken, Spitsbergen en Nova Zembla. ’t Amsterdam, By Johannes van Loon Plaetsnyder en Zeecaertmaker’. 
3. ‘Pascaerte Vande Noort zee, Vertonende van Cales tot Dronten, en tusschen Doeveren en Hitlandt, al de gelegentheyt van havens bayen en revieren, alles op syn behoorlycke cours, veerheyt en brete, mede wat diepte, droogte, en anckergroent men op ider plaets heeft. Nieulyckx int licht gebracht. ’t Amsterdam By Iohannes van Loon, Plaetsnyder en Zee-caert-maeker’.
4. ‘Pascaerte Van’t Westelyckste deel van Oost Indien, en de Eylanden daer onder begrepen, van C. de Bona Esperança tot C. Comorin. ’t Amsterdam, By Iohannes van Loon, Plaetsnyder en Zee-caert-maker’.
5. ‘Pascaerte vaert Oostelyckste deel van Oost-Indien: met alle de Eylanden daer onder gelegen van Cabo Comorin tot aen Iapan. ’t Amsterdam By Johannes van Loon, Plaestsnyder en Zee caert-maker’.
6. ‘Pascaete vande Zuyd-Zee tusschen California en Iblas de Ladrones ’t Amsterdam, By Johannes van Loon, Plaat Snyder en Zee caert-maker’. 
7. ‘Pascaete van Nova Hispania, Peru en Chili. ’t Amsterdam, By Johannes van Loon, Plaetsnyder en Zeecaertmaker’. This chart is derived from Hendrick Doncker of 1659, “although here its presentation is less cluttered, lacking the insets of the earlier map. It improves on Doncker of 1659, by incorporating the east coast of Central America, a feature that Doncker would later add to his own. The nomenclature is largely similar, with the notable exception of the addition of ‘P. Sir Francisco Drac’. The South American coastline is extended further south” (Burden 369).
8. ‘Pascaete vande Straet van Magalaen Synde ’t Suydlyckste deel van Amerika, van C. S. Antonio tot C. de Hoorn; en inde Zuyd-Zee tot

“the earliest Dutch Sea Chart of the Maritimes”
Val Parayso. ’t Amsterdam, By Iohannes van Loon Plaetsnyder en Zeecaert-maker.

9. ‘Pascaerte van’t Westelyckste deel vande Spaense Zee, Tusschen Brasil, de Zoute en Vlaemse Eylanden, en voort westwart op’ Amsterdam, By Ioh. van Loon Plaetsnyder.’ This chart is derived from the Theunis Jacobsz map of c1650, ‘although here the perspective is with the west at the top. Van Loon introduces English nomenclature, conspicuous in its exclusion from the earlier Colom and Doncker charts. He even goes as far as omitting New Amsterdam. Nearby are the Connecticut settlements of ‘Stamfort’ and ‘Nieu haven’, and the Massachusetts coast bears ‘Plymouthe’, ‘Briston’ and ‘Baston’. The title cartouche is decorated with an unusual array of reptiles’ (Burden 368).

10. ‘Pascaerte van de cust van Guaiana ofte de Wilde Cust; en’t Noorder deel van Brazil, met de gelegentheyt vande vermaer: de Rivier van de Amazones, tusschen villa d’Olinda de Pernambuco en R. Oronose.’ ’t Amsterdam, By Johannes van Loon, Plaetsnyder en Zeecaert-maker.

11. ‘Pascaerte vande vaste Cust en Eylanden van Westindien, Als mede de Virginis en Nieu-Nederland, van C. Droge tot C. Cod.’ ’t Amsterdam, By Iohannes van Loon, Plaet-snyder en Zee-caart-maker.’ The chart is derived from the Hessel Gerritzs of c1631, with some differences. “The east coast of North America is extended further north to include Cape Cod, which is the exception to the purely Dutch nomenclature. New Amsterdam is not named. Following Blaeu’s version of 1635, van Loon includes a west coast to Central America. He adorns the Pacific Ocean with a ship for the first time” (Burden 367).

12. ‘Pascaerte vande vaste Cust en Eylanden van Westindien, Als mede de Virginis en Nieu-Nederland, van C. Droge tot C. Cod.’ ’t Amsterdam, By Iohannes van Loon, Plaet-snyder en Zee-caart-maker.’ Similar to Hendrick Doncker’s map of the previous year. “However, further examination reveals numerous differences that enhance the map’s appeal. The coastline of New England is much improved. Drawn from the Janssonius - Visscher series, it continues further north, and although Boston is not identified, Cape Cod is placed in its correct location. A large island in Narragansett Bay is prominently named ‘Rood Eylant’. The Connecticut and Hudson Rivers are not depicted, but the coastline of New Jersey is improved with the delineation of the outer sandbanks” (Burden 366).

15. ‘Pas-caerte van Terra Nova, Nova Francia, Nieuw Engeland en de grote Rivier van Canada.’ ’t Amsterdam, By Iohannes van Loon Plaet-
snyder en Zeecaert-maker’. First published in 1661 by Jan and his brother Gilles van Loon in their ‘Zee Atlas’. It is the earliest Dutch sea chart of the Maritimes… derived from numerous sources, amongst them Blaeu, Champlain, Sanson, and the manuscripts of Gerritsz. Some English knowledge, noticeably of the Avalon Peninsula in Newfoundland, is not employed, even though utilised by Blaeu. Reliance on the latter leads to the omission of Prince Edward Island. The outline of the Grand Banks is drawn from Champlain’ (Burden 365). Second state.

Rare. Koeman only records a single example of the edition of 1666 with 34 maps, that held by Yale, although the Yale copy has the imprint of Wilhelmina Goeree on an overslip. Koeman lists a total of 22 copies of all editions dated between 1661-1706. We are only aware of three examples selling at auction in the past 117 years: Sotheby’s, 1995, lot 108, £42,200; Sotheby’s, 1980, lot 274, £8500; Sotheby’s, 1951, lot 383, £180.
An unrecorded French edition of Jacob Colom’s ‘Atlas of Werelt-Water-Deel’

Jacob Colom ran a successful printing, bookselling, and chartmarking business in Amsterdam during the Dutch Golden Age. He is best known for his hugely successful pilot guide ‘De Vyrrighe Colom’. First issued in a folio format in 1632, the pilot, which detailed the western and eastern navigation, brought Colom into direct competition with Willem Blaeu, at the time the only other chartmaker active in Amsterdam. In response Blaeu issued his own folio pilot, the ‘Havenwyser’, in 1634, in which he accused Colom of plagiarism. The attack seemed not to have affected Colom’s sales unduly, and, whilst Blaeu abandoned his folio pilot – going back to his highly respected ‘Zeespeig’ – Colom’s work would continue in print for another 30 years. So successful was his pilot guide that it was not until 1663 that he felt the need to issue a new work: the ‘Atlas of Werelt-Water-Deel’. Unlike his pilot guide, the atlas covered the whole world and was evidently a response to the sea atlases of Janssonius, Goos, and Donker.

The present example dates from 1668, and contains 44 charts. Of particular note are the chart of the southern Atlantic, the two-sheet chart of the Indian Ocean, and the seven charts that cover North America. Many of the maps are decorated with a glowing column, both a play on Colom’s name and a symbol of wisdom deriving from Biblical references to the Temple of Solomon.

The chart of the southern Atlantic was first published as the south-eastern sheet of Colom’s separately issued wall map of c1655, ‘Dese Vassende-Grade-kaert’, which was based upon Blaeu’s seminal ‘Paskaert’ of c1630. The plate is beautifully engraved with numerous mermen and merwomen frolicking in the surf, and the lower quarters of an elephant in Saharan Africa. Another rare (previously separately issued) chart is Colom’s ‘OostIndische Pas-Caart’: Schilder lists only two examples of this state, and praises the chart for its “summary of discoveries made in Australia before Tasman”. Finally, seven charts cover North America, all of which, according to Burden, are rare, although he makes particular note of the untitled chart of New England. This, he states, “depicts the region at one of the most important stages of English colonial history”, as just a year later the English would capture New Amsterdam from the Dutch and rename it New York, an act that would cement “the English control over the area from Carolina to Massachusetts”.

The atlas is very rare. Koeman records the existence of a French issue from a title-page bound into one of the two known copies with Dutch text of 1668 (sold by Rosenthal in Munich in 1915). We are unable to trace any institutional example.

Provenance:
Mathew Aylmer, 1st Baron Aylmer, (1660-1720). Baron Aylmer took part in the battle of La Hogue, and later became a Rear-Admiral and Governor of Chelsea Hospital.
Unrecorded issue of Blaeu’s monumental wall maps

The Blaeu set of four wall maps of the known continents represents the pinnacle of Dutch Golden Age decorative cartography. Wall maps occupied a prominent place in Dutch culture, as indicators of affluence and intellectual curiosity, as demonstrated by their appearance in several of Johannes Vermeer’s paintings. The leading scholar and scientist, Constantijn Huygens (1596–1687), remarked how he employed his own set of Blaeu’s wall maps of the continents as a tool to enlighten his children: “To encourage them even more, I had the four parts of the world by Willem Blaeu mounted in my entrance hall, where they often played, in order to provide them with a fixed image of the world and its division”.

America
Blaeu’s depiction of the New World was “one of the most influential maps of America ever made” (Burden). He used the voyages of Samuel de Champlain and Pierre Gua de Monts as the basis for the coast of Nova Scotia, while New England is still tentative, presumably reflecting the lack of accurate information from English settlers. The width of South America is exaggerated.

The title cartouche at the lower right is supported by the first Europeans to reach the New World: Christopher Columbus and Amerigo Vespucci. Below are portrait medallions of four contemporary circumnavigators: Ferdinand Magellan, Sir Francis Drake, Sir Thomas Cavendish, and Olivier van Noort. To the left, the King of Spain rides over the Atlantic followed by a procession of marine gods on the way to visit Spanish colonies.

Africa
Blaeu drew on the cartography of Abraham Ortelius for northern Africa, other Dutch sources for regions south of Sierra Leone, and work by the Portuguese cartographer Sebastião Lopes for the rest of the continent. Blaeu’s wall map “seems to have been an original work, independent of the maps in [Blaeu’s] atlas” (Denuce). The imaginary Lake Niger is shown as the source of the river of the same name, which combines with the River Senegal. The swathes of land unknown to Europeans in the heart of the continent is based on Ptolemaic maps, including the mythical Mountains of the Moon, and Ortelius’s maps of the territory of the legendary Christian kingdom of Prester John.

Asia
Blaeu had a distinct advantage when mapping Asia: access to the collections of the Dutch East India Company (VOC) and of Petrus Plancius, who, by way of espionage, acquired manuscripts from Bartolomeo de Lasso in Lisbon. Sri Lanka and the Maldives are derived from Linschoten and Java and Bali show advanced information from Willem Lodewijks’s map during his recent voyage with de Houtman. Japan is derived from...
Ortelius’s 1595 map. The mythical Strait of Anian, the gateway to the Northwest Passage, appears in the northeast, as does the legendary ruler Great Cham in his capital in China.

Nova Zemlya in the Arctic reflects the recent voyages of Willem Barentsz in his attempt to find a Northeast Passage. A diagram accompanied by text on the left side of the Asia map explains how a user can calculate the distance between two points on the map with a compass, demonstrating both its practical use as well as decorative value.

Europe
The large cartouche features Hessel Gerritsz’s double-hemispheric map, surmounted by the arms of the city of Amsterdam, a reference to Blaeu’s official privileges. It explains Blaeu’s position on the prime meridian, in which he rejects the magnetic declination method of determining longitude advocated by some of his contemporaries. The continuing difficulties of determining longitude at sea are partly why Blaeu has extended the Mediterranean too far horizontally.

Blaeu mainly draws on the work of Gerard Mercator and Dutch manuscript sources. Blaeu has included the imaginary island Friesland in Scandinavia and misplaced the Frobisher Strait.

Blaeu’s maps were very popular, to the extent that they were pirated in Italy and France. This edition of Blaeu’s maps was first engraved by Pietro Todeschi in Bologna in the early 1670s and published in 1673, probably by Giuseppe Longhi (Schilder). The current examples appear to be unrecorded, possibly later, issues, with “auct. G.I. Blaeu” included within the title cartouches. Very little is known about Todeschi, but he is known to have re-engraved several maps of Dutch cartographers; Longhi is known to have published a wall map of Italy so would have had the resources to publish the Blaeus.

It is highly unusual for wall maps of this period to survive, especially a complete set. Without the protection of covers, these maps were mounted on canvas and exposed to light, dirt, and other destructive factors.

Schilder records only four complete institutional sets of this Bologna edition of Blaeu’s maps, three of which are without surrounding text panels, as here: Biblioteca Apostolica Vaticana, Vatican City; Royal Geographical Society, London; Società Geografica Italiana, Rome.
BLAEU, Willem Jansz
West Indische Paskaert...
Gedrukt Thansmedam Bij
Jacobus Robijn, inde Nieuwe
Brughe steege inde Stuurman.
Publication
Amsterdam, [c1630-1674].
Description
A separately published large engraved chart printed in four sheets, joined, with
fine contemporary hand-colour lavishly heightened in gold.
Dimensions
810 by 978mm (32 by 38.5 inches).
References

13

The very rare second state (of four) of one of the most important charts published in the seventeenth century, one of the earliest on Mercator’s projection, and the first on the projection for North America.

Waters: ‘the earliest printed chart of the Atlantic … became immediately the standard chart for navigation to America and the Cape of Good Hope.’

Campbell says that only ‘a few examples at most’ of each state have survived. The title indicates that the Paskaert was designed to show the area charted to the West India Company in 1621. Destombes and Gomez suggest that the lack of a privilege on the first state indicates that it was used exclusively by the company and not available to the general public.

Schilder locates just two examples of the first state, which has the imprint of Willem Blaeu and the dedicatory cartouche left blank (Koninklijke Bibliothek, Brussels; Badische Landesbibliothek, Karlsruhe). Burden also locates just two for this second state, with Robijn’s imprint added to the dedicatory cartouche (British Library, London; Bibliotheca National, Paris). Robijn must have acquired the plate at one of the sales of Blaeu’s stock in 1674 … He must have disposed of the plate fairly quickly as the next state is by Pieter Goos who died in March 1675.”

The examples located by Schilder and Burden are on vellum. No census of examples on paper has been compiled. The paper examples are also quite rare, and those that survive were included in luxurious composite atlases. An example of the Robijn state on paper in a private Dutch collection is reproduced in Putnam, ‘Early Sea Charts’ (plate 27).

Destombes and Gomez praised the West Indische Paskaert as “an extremely interesting chart because it is one of the earliest engraved and printed to include latitude… this scientific and artistic document of the first order marks an important date in the history of nautical cartography and is one of the most important contributions that the Lowlands produced in the XVII century.”

The West Indische Paskaerts’s importance extends far beyond its early use of Mercator’s Projection. It appears to be the work of Hessel Gerritsz, “the chief Dutch cartographer of the XVIIth century” (Keuning, ‘Hessel Gerritsz’). Gerritsz was the official cartographer to both the Dutch East and Dutch West India Companies, and before his death in 1632, he constructed a number of well-known maps and charts for Willem Blaeu; the most important must have been this chart for Atlantic navigation. Based upon the date on the title-page of the now-lost accompanying sailing directions, Günter Schilder and others believe the Paskaert was published in 1630, which was a pivotal year in Dutch cartographic history.

The Paskaert is contemporary with Johannes De Laet’s ‘Nieuwe Wereldt’ (eds. of 1625 and 1630), which contained a suite of 14 regional...
maps of America by Gerritz. These maps introduced what Zandvliet calls a “new map image” for America, which was soon duplicated in the regional maps that Gerritz prepared for the great atlases of Blaeu and Jansson. Campbell points out that the Paskaert “betrays knowledge” of the maps added to De Lait. The West Indische Paskaert combines Gerritz’s “new map image” of the regional maps into one great general chart.
EXQUEMELIN, Alexandre Olivier

Bucaniers of America: or, a true account of the most remarkable assaults committed on the late years upon the coasts of the West-Indies, by the Bucaniers of Jamaica and Tortuga, both English and French.

Publication

Description
Second English edition, two volumes bound as one, quarto, (210 by 160mm), eight engraved plates, contemporary calf, rebanded, red morocco title piece, title in gilt.

Collation
A(2), a(4), B-H(4), Aa-Ii(4), Kk(4), 3A-3I(4), 3K-3M(4), A(4), a(4), B-I(4), K-U(4), X-Hh(4); [12], 55, 80, 84, [12]; [16], 212, [24] pages.

References
Frank Cundall, The Governors of Jamaica in Seventeenth Century, (London: The West India Committee, 1936); Church 658 (first Dutch edition of 1678), and 689 (English editions of 1684 and 1685); Hill 99-100 (English editions of 1684 and 1685); Bibl. Diez 1044; Sabin 23478.

The second English edition of Exquemelin’s classic account of piracy in the Americas, with the rare fourth part by Basil Ringrose describing the adventures of Captain Bartholomew Sharp.

Alexandre Olivier Exquemelin (1646-1717), also known as Oexmelin and Esquemelin, was born in Honfleur in northern France into a Huguenot family. He became a barber-surgeon, and arrived in Tortuga in 1666, working for an agent of the Compagnie des Indes. Exquemelin soon left to accompany several pirate expeditions, including those of the notorious Welsh buccaneer Henry Morgan. By 1674 Exquemelin had joined the Dutch Navy, serving with De Ruyter’s fleet in the wars against the French. Following the Admiral’s death in 1667 he was granted citizenship in Amsterdam, where his manuscript was translated into Dutch and edited by the publisher Jan ten Hoorn, and published in 1678 as ‘De Americaensche Zeer-Roozers’. Exquemelin went to the West Indies in 1681 and practiced as a surgeon in San Domingo, but was soon drawn back to the sea and joined an expedition of pirates including Laurens de Graaf and Grammont. He returned on a French navy boat, and subsequently took part in a French attack on Cartagena in Colombia in 1697. In later life, he brought out two subsequent editions containing all his adventures since the first book.

Exquemelin’s work was the primary contemporary source in English on the English and French buccaneers attacking the Spanish colonies in the Caribbean during the seventeenth century. Of particular interest is his account of serving with Henry Morgan, a well-known Welsh pirate.

Morgan was one of the best-known pirates of his time, thanks in no small part to his immortalisation in Exquemelin’s book. Exquemelin describes several raids carried out by Morgan in a campaign against the Spanish, encouraged by the English governor of Jamaica, Sir Thomas Modyford. Morgan took the town of Portobello in Cuba, where Exquemelin claims that he forced captive nuns and friars to act as a human shield in front of the pirates. Morgan and other buccaneers then moved towards Panama, with a stroke of luck on the way when a pirate fired an arrow wrapped with cloth out of his musket towards a local garrison and managed to hit the powder store. The Spanish defended the city fiercely, using a common tactic of stampeding cattle behind enemy lines, but the pirates eventually prevailed.

The English edition has the advantage of including Basil Ringrose’s journal of his time with Captain Bartholomew Sharp. Sharp’s 1680 expedition did not have the official sanction of Morgan’s voyage: it was comprised of a handful of crews, each under a different captain, all driven, as one participant put it, by the “sacred hunger of gold”. They got off to an inauspicious start when one captain decided to return to the Caribbean, and another was killed. Sharp was elected captain in his place, but not all
the men had faith in his leadership abilities, and 70 promptly deserted. The ones that remained were rewarded when they successfully sacked a series of Spanish settlements and ships, the last of which, the Santa Rosario, contained the most valuable treasure of the whole expedition: a book of Spanish charts of the South Sea. It was this book that would save the pirates when they returned to England. To the fury of the Spanish ambassador, the intelligence contained in the charts and the pirates’ success saved them from the gallows.

In an ironic coda to the book, Henry Morgan was rewarded for his service to England through his privateering with the deputy governorship of Jamaica, and a salary of £600 was granted to him by the Assembly of Jamaica in 1675. Although he was supposed to be eradicating piracy from the Caribbean, he remained on good terms with many privateers. In the 1680s, however, he faced opposition in the assembly for these relationships, and when the English translation of Exquemelin’s book was published detailing his exploits and presenting him as a pirate, he promptly sued the publishers. On 8 June 1685 the London Gazette reported the success of the case against the “False, Scandalous and Malitious Reflections on [Morgan’s] Life and Actions”. Morgan argued that he had authority from the Governor of Jamaica for all his actions (Cundall). He would later issue a warrant for the arrest of Bartholomew Sharp.

The book was immensely popular, and was quickly translated and reprinted: the second edition was printed in Nuremberg in German in 1679, a Spanish edition in 1681, and an English edition, the present example, in 1684. It was so popular that the second English edition was printed within three months.
A very unusual piece of cartographic history. It was common for seafarers to have sturdy wooden chests for storage whilst on a voyage, but the owner of this chest chose to have it covered with manuscript maps drawn on vellum, possibly by their own hand, with the decorative ironwork fitted on top. The lid is covered with a map of North and Central America, with the Darien Isthmus labelled to the south, and decorated with an elaborate compass rose and title cartouche supported by figures of Native Americans. The map on the front is decorated with a title cartouche showing a sea god. The sides are covered with maps of the East and West Indies, decorated with ships. It is remarkable that the maps have survived given the treatment they would have encountered at sea.
William Dampier's account of his privateering voyages, including his voyages to 'New Holland', when he was the first Englishman to visit the Australian mainland, and his accounts of all three of his circumnavigations of the world, the first person to do so.

Dampier (1651-1715) "combined a swashbuckling life of adventure with pioneering scientific achievements" (Preston and Preston). His privateering career began with a stint in the Royal Navy, after which he joined a privateering expedition led by Captain Bartholomew Sharp in Jamaica. In 1685, he joined an expedition led by Captain John Cook which adventured along the east coast of Spanish America. The expedition met with Captain Charles Swan, a reluctant pirate whose crew had forced him to turn to privateering, and continued to write letters to the owners of his ship in London asking them for help throughout his raids. Dampier and Swan joined forces attacking Spanish shipping, and then set off to the East Indies on his first circumnavigation. The voyage was difficult, and Dampier writes that the mutinous crew were planning to kill the officers to eat them when supplies ran out. Swan "made a seasonable jape on the occasion of his hearing this. "Ah, Dampier," he said, "you would have made them but a poor Meal". Dampier explains that he was "as lean as the Captain was lusty and fleshy."

Swan remained in the Indies but Dampier continued to New Holland (Australia, only recently known to Europeans). He noted the size of the landmass, and made a survey, becoming the first recorded Englishman to set foot on the Australian mainland. After being voluntarily marooned in the Nicobar Islands, Dampier eventually made his way back to England in 1691. His first travel account was published in 1697, and caught the attention of Admiralty, who commissioned Dampier to return to New Holland the following year.

The voyage was not a success. The crew were suspicious of their former pirate captain, and the ship, HMS Roebuck, was unsound. The first lieutenant, George Fisher, clashed with Dampier from the moment the ship left England, and Dampier eventually had him put ashore and imprisoned in Brazil. They reached New Holland successfully, and explored the area a little further, but the crew was hit by scurvy. The Roebuck finally sank off the Ascension Islands, and the crew had to make their own passage back to England. When he returned in 1701, Dampier was court-martialled for his treatment of Fisher.

Dampier's second circumnavigation was a privateering expedition of two ships to the South Seas in 1703, during the War of the Spanish Succession. He faced problems during the voyage again, being accused of keeping the ransom from Spanish ships to himself. Alexander Selkirk was a member of this expedition, and was voluntarily marooned in the Juan Fernandez Islands because he did not trust the seaworthiness of one of the vessels. He was the partial inspiration for the story of 'Robinson Crusoe'.
Dampier was part of the expedition that rescued Selkirk in 1709, during his third and final circumnavigation, which was a much more successful plundering trip through the South Pacific.

As mentioned, Dampier’s journals were first published in 1697, after his first circumnavigation. The work was a sensation, with six editions printed by 1729. After his subsequent voyages, his publisher James Knapton encouraged him to write sequels. The present books are the first editions of each of his works.

Dampier was not just a privateer but “a pioneering navigator, naturalist, travel writer and explorer, as well as hydrographer who was, indeed, quite happy to seek his fortune as a pirate” (Preston and Preston). His works included scientific information alongside the tales of his daring exploits, and consequently they are often included with the publications of more explicitly scientific expeditions.

Dampier mapped the winds and currents of the world’s oceans for the first time, and his notes on the fauna of the Galapagos Islands inspire Charles Darwin’s research there nearly two centuries later.

The frontispiece map of the world is signed by Herman Moll (?1654-1732), and the other maps that illustrate Dampier’s voyages are also either by or after him. Moll, an émigré cartographer and engraver active in London, was in the same social circle as Dampier and other buccaneers, like Woodes Rogers. His relationships with these adventurers provided him with the latest geographic information, particularly from the south Pacific and Indian Oceans. He also provided the maps for Rogers’s ‘A Cruising Voyage Round the World’ (1712), Daniel Defoe’s ‘Robinson Crusoe’ (1719), and the imaginary maps in Jonathan Swift’s ‘Gulliver’s Travels’ (1726).
HACKE, William

A Collection of Original Voyages: Containing I. Capt. Cowley's Journey over the Isthmus of Darien, and Expedition into the South Seas, Written by himself. II. Capt. Wood's Voyage thro' the Straights of Magellan, and Expedition into the South Seas, Written by himself. III. Capt. Sharp's Journey over the Isthmus of Darien, and Expedition into the South Seas, Written by himself. IV. Mr. Roberts's Adventures among the Corssairs of the Levant; his Account of their Way of Living. Description of the Archipalego Islands, Taking of Scio. 8vo.

Publication

Description
First edition, 8vo., (188 by 120mm), engraved folding map of the world, 5 folding charts and plans by Herman Moll, and a plate of coastal profiles, contemporary tan calf.

Collation
A-C(8), D(7), E(6), F4, G6, H8, I(7), J(6), K4; [16], 45, [1], 1-16, 33-100, 53, [3] pages.

References
Colin Heywood, “Recovering ‘Mr Roberts’: A Seventeenth-Century Aegean Captivity Narrative and its Author”; Hill 741; NMM 4:239; Sabin 29473; Wing H168.

A scarce compendium, published by James Knapton to capitalise on the success of his edition of Dampier's first voyage to the South Seas of 1697. The collection includes the voyages of English buccaneers in the Pacific.

The first and probably most important account is by William Ambrose Cowley, who sailed with the privateer William Dampier in the early 1680s. Cowley's narrative is accompanied by Moll's world map, marking the track of the expedition across the Pacific to Guam, China and then through the Straits of Sunda and the Cape of Good Hope, and his famous chart of the Galapagos Islands. Cowley was also responsible for the phantom island 'Pepys Island', named after Samuel Pepys, who was then Secretary to the Admiralty. He recorded the island in his log, but it has never subsequently been found in the given location: it is possible that he mistook one of the Falkland Islands for a new landmass.

The second account is by Captain Bartholomew Sharp, of the voyage covered by Basil Ringrose (see item 14).

The third account is by Captain John Wood, who sailed with Rear-Admiral Sir John Narborough during his expedition to the South Seas through the Straits of Magellan. Narborough was investigating the possibility of establishing an English colony in the area, which had previously been abandoned for fear of antagonising the Spanish. He carried a passenger who called himself Don Carlos Enriques, who had contacted Charles II claiming he had knowledge of the area and had taken part in an insurrection there, and offering help to the king.

The final account is by an otherwise unknown author, a 'Mr Roberts', a seaman in the English navy who was press-ganged into service by corsairs after his ship, careening after a privateering expedition, capsized off the coast of the island of Nio, or Ios. He served with the corsairs for 16 months before managing to escape to Smyrna, and joins the crew of a Venetian merchant ship. He then transferred to an English vessel, which joined the Venetian fleet on its way to besiege the Ottoman-held island of Chios.

The book was prepared by William Hacke, who started calling himself "Captain Hacke" in about 1695, although there is no evidence that he ever went to sea. Although he is now known chiefly for this compendium, he had made his living selling rutters, manuscript sea atlases copied from the 'derroteros' plundered from Spanish vessels, including that liberated by Bartholomew Sharp in Panama.

The maps are by Herman Moll (1634-1732), and the map of the world shows California as an island. The three unnumbered pages at the end are advertisements for other books printed by Knapton, including works by Dampier and Wafer, works on commerce and trade, and Latin classics.
The second and enlarged edition of “one of the best accounts of the Isthmus of Panama, its natural resources, and the native Indians” (Hill).

Lionel Wafer (1640–1705) was a Welsh explorer, buccaneer and privateer. A ship’s surgeon, Wafer made several voyages to the Pacific and voyaged to Southeast Asia in 1676. The following year he moved to Jamaica, and was approached by the buccaneer Edmund Cooke, who convinced him to become a surgeon for their fleet. In 1680, Wafer met William Dampier at Cartagena and joined in a privateering venture under the leadership of Captain Bartholomew Sharp.

As the crew marched overland through the Isthmus of Darien, Wafer had a terrible accident: one evening while drying his supply of gunpowder, an important task in the humid climate of central America, another crew member walked past with a lit pipe. The powder exploded and injured Wafer’s knee badly. He was unable to keep up, and was left behind with some other crew members. They communicated with the local Kuna people, who treated his knee injury. In turn, he shared some European medical practices with them, including blood-letting. He was formally adopted into a Kuna community, learned the language, and was invited on royal hunting trips and shamanic rituals. So eagerly did he enter into Kuna culture that when he eventually rejoined his shipmates, they did not recognise him under the body paint and lip ornament.

By 1690 Wafer was back in England and in 1695 he published ‘A New Voyage and Description of the Isthmus of America’ - the present work – which described his adventures. It includes Herman Moll’s map of the ‘Isthmus of Darien & Bay of Panama’ with two insets of the North Sea coast ‘of the Isthmus of America to the West of Portobæ’, and of the South Sea coast ‘… to the west of Panama’; and three illustrations of Native Americans bloodletting, smoking tobacco, and ‘marching upon a Visit, or to a Feast’. Wafer’s account was translated into French (1706), German (1759), and Swedish (1789).

Wafer’s work provided an unprecedented view of local life and culture in the area, and the Darien Company hired Wafer as an adviser when it was planning a settlement on the isthmus in 1698.

Provenance:
Engraved heraldic bookplate of James Stanley, 10th Earl of Derby (1664–1736).
Blackbeard’s favourite read?

In 2016, evidence that pirates and privateers closely followed the adventures of their rivals, was revealed when marine archeologists discovered a wad of paper scraps from this edition of Edward Cooke’s book, lodged in the breech-loading cannon chamber, salvaged from the wreck of Blackbeard’s ship the Queen Anne’s Revenge. The wad, “blackened with gunpowder residue, may have served as a gasket for the wooden tampon, a plug that protected the cannon muzzle from the elements” (National Geographic).

Two accounts of Cooke’s voyage were published, with Cooke’s just pipping that of Captain Woodes Rogers to the post. Rogers proposed a scheme to plunder the South Sea trade from France and Spain, to a consortium of prominent citizens of Bristol, England’s second largest port in 1708. Together they purchased two ships: the 320 tons, 30 guns ‘Duke’ and the 260 tons, 26 guns ‘Duchess’. With William Dampier as master of the Duke, and pilot of the expedition. This was Dampier’s third and final circumnavigation of the world.

Cooke was second Captain of the Duchess, which visited the coast of California in 1709, attacking the Spanish on the west coast of South America. There is an account of California, accompanied by an illustration of a native of the area. The second volume includes a description, taken from a Spanish manuscript, of the west coast of America from Tierra del Fuego to California.

Rogers, aboard the Duke, famously rescued Selkirk, the inspiration for Daniel Defoe’s ‘Robinson Crusoe’, from Juan Fernandez. He had previously sailed with Dampier and been marooned on the island for four years.
GREENWOOD, Jonathan

The Sailing and Fighting Instructions or Signals as they are Observed in the Royal Navy of Great Britain.

Publication
[London, 1714-1715].

Description
Duodecimo (149 by 77 mm), unpaginated, engraved title, 2pp. dedication, 70 engraved plates, 65 with original hand colour, manuscript calculation in ink to front free endpaper, dated in a contemporary hand March 4 to title page, contemporary sheep, blind stamped and tooled, spine in six compartments separated by raised bands, title piece to spine, title in ink.

References

A scarce naval signals book, the first to be printed in the English language. The book was the enterprising production of Jonathan Greenwood. Greenwood was born about 1656 and apprenticed in June 1670 in the Stationers’ Company, where he was made free in 1679. He presumably had naval connections, but no other works of his are known and no other record of him as a publisher survives (Mead).

The growth of the British navy led to a demand for a record of the signals used at sea. Commanders might have to manage “as many as a hundred ships in battle, many of which were still privateers”: the vessels might not be trained in Navy discipline (Tritten). James II was the first to co-ordinate British flag signals while still Duke of York, and various manuscript works followed, in an inconvenient folio size.

Greenwood saw the opportunity for a small, cheaper book aimed at “Inferior Officers who cannot have recourse to the Printed Instructions”; although the instructions to the fleet were confidential, the signals were not (Perrin). Each signal is shown by an engraving of a ship displaying the flags of the appropriate signal, coloured where necessary, with an explanation underneath. In the dedication, he explains that he has “disposed matters in such a manner that any instruction may be found out in half a minute”.

Although Greenwood’s work was not an official publication, it was used by at least one Mediterranean fleet commander (Tritten).

The book is dedicated to the six Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, including Sir George Byng, whose son John, also an Admiral, was famously executed in 1757 “pour encourager les autres”, according to Voltaire, after failing to relieve the British garrison during the Battle of Minorca.
The early eighteenth century saw a resurgence in piracy in the Caribbean as the War of the Spanish Succession drew to a close, leaving the sailors and privateers who had fought in the West Indies free to concentrate on the growing cross-Atlantic trade. British privateers were at the forefront, especially after Britain won the asiento, the contract to supply slaves to Spanish colonies in the Americas. The slave trade created a cross-Atlantic triangle: goods were carried from Europe to Africa, slaves from Africa to the Americas, and cash crops like sugar from the Americas to Europe. Furthermore, the Spanish bullion trade continued to provide rich pickings for pirates.

The detailed information on Spanish treasure routes, local geography and sailing conditions was almost certainly contributed by William Dampier and Woodes Rogers, two English buccaneers who were associates of Moll and part of the same intellectual circle, which also included Daniel Defoe and John Locke. William Dampier was the first Englishman to explore Australia, and the first to circumnavigate the world three times (see item 16).

Woodes Rogers hired Dampier as chief pilot for the ship he captained during a privateering expedition in 1707. On another voyage, he was the captain of the ship which rescued the marooned Alexander Selkirk. Like Dampier, he raided ports in South America and won fame after capturing two Spanish treasure ships and bringing them back to Britain.

In a time where the national boundaries were continually redrawn, Moll’s map was “a rallying cry” (Dym and Offen). The labels and colour coding of the map showed that the Caribbean was no longer the almost exclusive preserve of Spain, but was divided between Britain, France and Holland as well. Although Spain retained important mainland colonial possessions (hence the continued flow of Spanish treasure fleets) an ineffective monarchy and continual warfare had severely weakened its hold on the Caribbean and Central America.

To demonstrate the fallibility of the Spanish and the maritime power of the British, Moll made his map a “buccaneer’s manual” (Dym and Offen). It follows the route of the Spanish treasure fleets from their entrada into the Caribbean to their exit through the Florida Strait. Vessels would come between Granada and Trinidad from Spain, and stop at Cartagena to reprovision. They would then continue to Cuba, and use the Gulf Stream current to get to Veracruz, where they were loaded with bullion. From Veracruz, they would most often travel through the Florida Strait between the mainland and the Bahamas, before moving out to the Atlantic by St Augustine, and then returning to Spain.

By showing the courses taken by the fleets in such detail, Moll was essentially providing a how-to guide for aspiring pirates. The map includes detailed notation of maritime features and trade winds. The Florida Strait is marked “The best Passage of all the Islands”: a coded message that...
here lay the best pickings. The carefully chosen inset maps include the bay of Havana, St Augustine, the city of Cartagena, Vera Cruz, and the bay of Porto Bello on the Isthmus of Darien (now the Isthmus of Panama). These were all stopping points for Spanish bullion fleets, and therefore of great interest to privateers. Moll takes care to highlight the defensive features in each port.

In the lower left corner is a bird’s-eye view of Mexico City, incorporating new colonial landmarks like the Palacio Real and the cathedral. The original view and key are copied from a 1628 map by Juan Gomez de Trasmonte, created for an unpublished atlas by Johannes Vingboons. This was the first map of Mexico City to update the one made by Hernan Cortez’s expedition.

The map is dedicated to William Paterson: one of the founders of the Bank of England, an advocate of the Darien Scheme and, like Moll, a stockholder in the ill-fated South Sea Company. The dedication reflects Moll’s lifelong interest in the area, both personal and political.
FRÉZIER, Amédée-François; and Edmond HALLEY

A Voyage to the South-Sea, And along the Coasts of Chili and Peru, in the Years 1712, 1713 and 1714, particularly describing the genius and constitution of the inhabitants, as well Indians as Spaniards: their customs and manners; their natural history, mines, commodities, traffick with Europe, &c. ... With a postscript by Dr. Edmund Halley.

Publication

Description
First English edition. Quarto (239 by 183mm), title-page printed in red and black, 15 folding engraved maps, seven full-page maps, one folding plate, 12 full-page plates, and two folding plates of profiles; contemporary panelled calf, gilt.

Collation
[

References
Borba de Moraes, p.329; Cox II, 627; European Americana 717/66; Field 568; Hill (2004) 654; Sabin 25924; Spence 482.

Including a postscript by Edmund Halley which corrects certain geographical errors made by Frézier, in the first French edition published the year before. The English edition uses the same plates, except for the frontispiece map, including a famous engraving of Fragaria Chilensis, a beautiful strawberry native to Chile, some specimens of which Frézier brought back with him to France: The fruit is generally as big as a walnut, and sometimes as a hen’s egg, of whitish red, and somewhat less delicious of taste than our wood strawberries. I have given some plates of them to Monsieur de Jussieu, for the King’s Garden, where care will be taken to bring them to bear” (page 76). It was one of Frézier’s ancestors, Julius de Berry, after whom Charles III, “the Simple”, named the woodland strawberry, in 916.

Frézier (1682-1773), “a French Royal military engineer, was under contract to sail to Spanish possessions in South America to construct forts for defense against English and Dutch attacks. The French government also ordered him to chart the western coast of South America ... The first part of this book gives an interesting account of the voyage from France around Cape Horn ... The second part relates to the voyage along the coasts of Chile and Peru, describing the chief towns and cities. The observant Frézier brought back information of considerable geographical and scientific value. Much data is included about the native inhabitants ... Frézier introduced the ancestor of the modern strawberry to France from Chile” (Hill page 231).
The second, corrected, edition of one of the most colourful accounts of swashbuckling buccaneers.

Bristol was England’s second largest port, thriving on the growing trade with the American colonies. William Dampier persuaded the merchant and sea captain Woodes Rogers to join him in a circumnavigation (Dampier’s third) in pursuit of Spanish vessels. The War of the Spanish Succession was still under way, so Rogers and a prominent Bristol consortium of respected citizens were receptive to Dampier’s plans to plunder from privateering in the Pacific against England’s enemies, the French and the Spanish.

The consortium purchased two ships: the 320 tons, 30 guns Duke and the 260 tons, 26 guns Duchess. Dampier was to be the “pilot for the South Seas”. They left Bristol on 2 August 1708 and struck out for the long haul to Brazil via Cape Horn, sighting the coast on 14 November. Re-provisioned they arrived in the Pacific and set course for the Juan Fernandez Islands where they famously found and rescued Alexander Selkirk, the source for Defoe’s ‘Robinson Crusoe’: “a Man cloathed in Goat-Skins, who look’d wilder than the first Owners of them” (page 125).

After illness, near mutiny and unrest from unruly crews, the privateers captured the large ship Havre de Grace, attacked and plundered the Spanish stronghold of Guayaquil in Ecuador. There were bitter arguments over the distribution of plunder but Rogers dealt severely with the ringleaders and kept the rest of the crew in check. Their greatest prize was the capture of the Manila Treasure Ship – the galleon Nuestra Señora de la Encarnación Disengaño. During this engagement Rogers was hit on the jaw by musket shot, and had to wait until they made the long voyage to Batavia to have it properly attended by a doctor: “I was shot thro’ the Left Cheek, the Bullet struck away great part of my upper Jaw, and several of my Teeth, part of which dropt down upon the Deck, where I fell;... n the Night I felt something clog my Throat, which I swallow’d with much Pain, and suppose it’s a part of my Jaw Bone, or the Shot, which we can’t yet give an account of, I soon recover’d my self; but my Throat and Head being very much swelled, have much ado to swallow any sort of Liquids for Sustenance” (page 294).

On October 1711, the battered little squadron sailed up the Thames to an enthusiastic reception. They brought back nearly £150,000 from the Manila galleon, and even after legal fees, customs dues and payment to the East India Company there was still a fortune left.

Dampier had fulfilled his ambition of seizing a Spanish treasure ship, although he had difficulty acquiring his share of the spoils. Rogers went on to become Governor of the Bahamas and was instrumental in controlling piracy on the islands. He was also involved in the engagement and death of Edward Teach – otherwise known as Blackbeard.

“a Man cloathed in Goat-Skins, who look’d wilder than the first Owners of them”
The first appearance of ‘The Life of Robinson Crusoe…’, was on the 23rd April 1719, and it was an instant and a huge success, a second and third edition appeared before the year was out. During what was left of his lifetime, it was published four more times, and that was in addition to numerous piracies and abridgements.

‘The Farther Adventures…’ appeared just four months later, on the 18th of August; and the ‘Serious Reflections…’, on the 4th of August 1720.

Before writing his best-seller, Defoe had lived several lives: as speculative businessman, initially a wholesale hosiery, then investing in ships, civet cats, and a diving bell, the export-import business with tobacco, logwood, wine, spirits, and cloth; he owned a brick and pantile factory in Tilbury, with prestigious contracts, including the building of the Greenwich Hospital for sailors. His first bankruptcy happened in 1692, when his debts totaled £17,000 (now about £700,000), and he went to prison for the first of many times. Bizarrely, he then became an accountant; and from 1704, a spy for Robert Harley. All the while, he remained a non-conformist in deed (he had joined Monmouth’s revolt of 1685) and word, writing polemics as diverse as on how to get rich quick, social iniquity, religion, politics and poetry.

The inspirational spark for ‘Robinson Crusoe’, was Woodes Rogers’ rescue of Alexander Selkirk from Juan Fernández, but it “brings all his interests together. Crusoe is a disobedient son, arguing with his father, representing opinions of a new world—one where life in England is uncertain but global opportunity beckons, and children are increasingly torn between traditional obedience to family and individual self-satisfaction. Drawn to the sea regardless of parental and what appear to be providential warnings of catastrophe, he finds unbounded economic opportunity in Brazil. Defoe’s fascination with travel narratives and with Great Britain as an international trading nation shapes the book and especially its sequel. Drawn to the sea regardless of parental and what appear to be providential warnings of catastrophe, he finds unbounded economic opportunity in Brazil. Defoe’s fascination with travel narratives and with Great Britain as an international trading nation shapes the book and especially its sequel. Defoe also writes out of his engagement with religious controversies of the time, especially the Bangorian and Salters’ Hall controversies. When Crusoe instructs Friday in the Christian faith, he is demonstrating the adequacy of scripture and revelation alone. Also inscribed are Defoe’s theories of government and of colonization. Crusoe sets himself up as monarch, prince, generalissimo, and finally colonial governor, and perhaps ironically his abandonment of his island is emblematic of the neglect of which Great Britain was often guilty with its Caribbean colonies. In fact, this novel can be placed within Defoe’s propaganda for the settlement of the New World and especially his writings about the doctrinal controversies splitting and embarrassing dissenters as well as Anglicans. Above all, however, it is the greatest mythic fantasy ever written of the solitary survivor who will never succumb. He will not starve, and he will not give in to his paralysing fear or extended isolation. Physically, mentally, and spiritually he survives and grows stronger” (Paul R. Backscheider for DNB).
BARKER, Captain John

An Exact Plan of the Harbour of Providence.

Publication
C1722.

Description
Original manuscript chart, pen and black ink with colour wash, received the 10th July 1723 with a Duplicate of Capt: Phenny's Letter of 28 March 1722/3 at the lower right corner, 'Bahamas Harbour of Providence' at upper right corner verso, pencilled gridlines, watermarked Strassburg lily within a crowned shield with 'WR' terminal, old folds.

Dimensions
420 by 575mm (16.5 by 22.75 inches).

References
British History Online; Brooks, C. Baylus (personal correspondence); Cecil Headlam (ed.), 'America and West Indies: July 1717 -1718', in 'Calendar of State Papers Colonial, America and West Indies' volume 29, 1716-1717, 336-346 & March 1723 pp. 221-38; National Archives, Kew; ODNB.

The map appears to be the manuscript source for several well-known printed maps, including those of Herman Moll, 1729, and Henry Popple, 1733 (see item 30). We have been unable to trace any printed or manuscript work that pre-dates the present example.

History of the Bahamas

The first settlers
Since their discovery on 12 October 1492 by Christopher Columbus, the Bahamas were claimed, and largely ignored, by Spain. The first European settlers were the Company of the Eleutheran Adventurers, who were a group of English Puritans and religious Independents who left Bermuda to settle on the island of Eleuthera between 1646 and 1648. The group was led by William Sayle, Governor of Bermuda, and had been expelled from Bermuda for their failure to swear allegiance to the Crown, and were searching for a place in which they could freely practice their faith. This group represented the first concerted European effort to colonize the Bahamas. Sayle later became the first governor of colonial South Carolina from 1670–71.

In 1670, King Charles II gave the Bahamas to the Lords Proprietors of Carolina, who, like the Spanish before them, largely left the islands alone, with the settlement of Charles-town on New Providence, reporting a population of about 900. Government-approved privateering took place, justified as necessary for the defence of the settlement. Despite treaties of peace with Madrid signed in 1677 and 1670, the practice continued and, as a consequence, on 19 January 1684, a Spanish expedition from Cuba reduced the settlement to ruins and carried off Governor Roger Clarke. Under a judgement of the Inquisition he was tortured to death and his body roasted.

In December 1686 a small contingent from Jamaica arrived to re-populate the island under the preacher Thomas Bridges. Various proprietary governors ensued, including Nicholas Trott, who, in 1695, rebuilt the town and added a fort, naming it "Nassau", after William III, whose Dutch title was William of Orange-Nassau. The era of piracy in the Bahamas began in 1696, when the privateer Henry Every brought his ship 'The Fancy' loaded with loot from plundering Indian trade ships into Nassau harbour. Every bribed Governor Trott with gold and silver, and even with "The Fancy" itself, still loaded with 50 tons of elephant tusks and 100 barrels of gunpowder. This established Nassau as a base where pirates could operate safely, although various governors regularly made a show of suppressing piracy. Although the governors were still legally in charge, the pirates became increasingly powerful.

The earliest known plan of Nassau, Bahamas: “The Republic of Pirates”
“The Republic of Pirates”

The fort was attacked by the Spanish in 1700, and again by a joint French and Spanish force in 1703. With the War of Spanish Succession raging in Europe, the fort was left in disrepair and undermanned. The treaty of 1713 left many who had privateered under the protection of the flag, unwilling to return to the stricture of navy life and to give up the freedoms they had come to enjoy. Many turned to piracy and found a home in Nassau.

By 1713 there were an estimated 1000 pirates in the town, far outnumbering the 500 inhabitants. This period of pirate rule ran from 1706 to 1718, and the republic was dominated by two famous pirates who were bitter rivals – Benjamin Hornigold and Henry Jennings. Hornigold was mentor to pirates such as the famous Edward Teach (1680–1718), known as “Blackbeard”, along with Sam Bellamy and Stede Bonnet. Jennings was mentor to Charles Vane, ‘Calico’ Jack Rackham, Anne Bonny, and Mary Read. Despite their rivalries, the pirates formed themselves into the ‘Flying Gang’ and quickly became infamous for their exploits. Blackbeard was later voted by the pirates of Nassau to be their Magistrate, to be in command of their republic and enforce law and order as he saw fit.

An interesting account of Nassau at the time was given by Captain Matthew Musson who was ‘cast away’ on the island:

“Capt. Mathew Musson to the Council of Trade and Plantations.

On March last he was cast away on the Bahamas. At Harbour Island he found about 30 families, with several pirates, which frequently are coming and going to purchase provissons for the pirates vessels at Providence. There were there two ships of 90 tons which sold provissons to the said pirates, the sailors of which said they belong’d to Boston. At Habakoe one of the Bahamas he found Capt. Thomas Walker and others who had left Providence by reason of the rudeness of the pirates and settled there. They advis’d him that five pirates made ye harbour of Providence their place of rendezvous vizt. [Benjamin] Horngold, a sloop with 10 guns and about 80 men; [Henry] Jennings, a sloop with 10 guns and 100 men; [Josiah(s)] Burgis, a sloop with 8 guns and about 80 men; [Henry?] White, in a small vessel with 30 men and small armes; [Edward] Thatch, a sloop 6 guns and about 70 men. All took and destroyd ships of all nations except Jennings who took no English; they had taken a Spanish ship of 32 gunns, which they kept in the harbour for a guardship. Ye greatest part of the inhabitants of Providence are already gone into other adjacent islands to secure themselves from ye pirates, who frequently plunder them. Most of the ships and vessels taken by them they burn and destroy when brought into the harbour and oblige the menn to take on with them. The inhabitants of those Isles are in a miserable condition at present, but were in great hopes that H.M. would be
Drain the Swamp
In 1718 George I appointed a Royal Governor to clean up the town. Governor Woods Rogers (c.1679-1732), himself an ex-privateer, arrived in July 1718. Rogers had commanded a privaterating voyage around the world 1708-11, which included amongst its officers William Dampier. It was on this voyage that they found themselves on Juan Fernandez island on 31 January 1709, driven by storms. Two days later they found Alexander Selkirk, a former crewman of Dampier’s who had been abandoned there for four years. Rogers’s ‘Cruising Voyage’, published in 1712, revealed the story to the world, and, in 1719, Daniel Defoe would publish ‘Robinson Crusoe’ based on the tale. Following his return to Bristol, Rogers was approached about the situation in the Bahamas. In 1717 he submitted a proposal to the Lords Commissioners of Trade, subsequently accepted, that the Lords Proprietors of the Bahamas surrender civil and military government of the Bahamas to the Crown, excepting payment of quit rents and royalties. These were then leased to Rogers for twenty-one years. His commission granted him the power to suppress piracy by whatever means he deemed necessary. He also carried a Royal Pardon, which he offered to any pirate willing to give up their way of life. All but two notable pirates accepted: Edward Teach (Blackbeard) and Charles Vane.

Blackbeard’s death
Blackbeard’s flagship ‘Queen Anne’s Revenge’ ran aground off Beaufort, North Carolina in 1718 and was not rediscovered until 2011. Blackbeard himself died a few months later when Governor Spotswood of Virginia sent two ships after him. His death was recorded in the ‘Boston News-Letter’: “[Lieutenant Robert] Maynard and Teach themselves began the fight with their swords, Maynard making a thrust, the point of his sword against Teach’s cartridge box, and bent it to the hilt. Teach broke the guard of it, and wounded Maynard’s fingers but did not disable him, whereupon he jumped back and threw away his sword and fired his pistol, which wounded Teach. Demelt struck in between them with his sword and cut Teach’s face pretty much; in the interim both companies engaged in Maynard’s sloops. Later during the battle, while Teach was loading his pistol he finally died from blood loss. Maynard then cut off his head and hung it from his bow.” Teach had apparently been shot five times and stabbed more than twenty times before he died. Legends about him arose immediately. His decapitated head, required as evidence of his capture, was taken back to England and hung from a pike in Bath.

Governor Rogers was successful in many ways, but disease and laziness among the work force made progress slow. By 1720 he was deeply in debt and becoming ill himself, so decided to return England to fight his cause. He left Nassau in March 1721 and, on reaching London, pleaded for an allowance and further provisions for defence. It fell on deaf ears and he spent some time in debtor’s prison.

Whilst in England, Rogers learned of the appointment of a new Governor, Captain George Phenny. Shortly after arrival on 1 March 1722[23], Phenny sent a letter and plan of the harbour back to London to the Board of Trade, later known as the Colonial Office. This plan — the present example — bears a note on the bottom in a contemporary hand stating that it was ‘received the 10th July 1723 with a Duplicate of Cap: Phenny’s Letter of 2d March 1722/3. The original letter dated 1 March, and the duplicate which accompanied this plan, both survive at the National Archives at Kew (MPG 1/253). It was a common practice of the day to send documents in duplicate to ensure safe arrival. Indeed, Phenny wrote on 1 March to Lord Carteret stating:

“The miscarriage of several letters I have sent home with material papers either thr’ the misfortune or ill conduct of the messengers obliges me to send the bearer etc.”

That bearer was his wife, as attested by a later letter to the same of 24 December 1723:

“hope the letters I sent by Mrs. Phenny came safe to your Lordship, tho’ she to my misfortune had not the honor of seeing you. One motive of my sending her was that I might here some papers were certainly deliver’d having been very ill us’d by the person thro’ whose hands I generally convey’d them, which has occasion’d my being blamed for neglects of which I was not guilty”.

A transcription of the accompanying letter identifies the mapmaker to be Captain John Barker:

“Governor Phenney to the Council of Trade and Plantations. I do myself the honor to enclose several papers for your Lordships inspection, with a draft of the harbour and the design’d Church, which (the materials being arriv’d) will with God’s blessing be soon completed...[Refers to enclosed accounts of excise and tonage duties]…’in which I did all my endeavours to be a good husband. I am forc’d to struggle with a great many difficulties in great measure for want of an Assembly which the people here impatient have again address’d H.M. for...’ [Refers to enclosed trials of pirates etc]... The people of Cart Island have lately quitted that remote place having been so often plunder’d and disturb’d, and now are settled...”
partly on Islathera, others on Harbour Island and Providence. These latter came here but two days ago, and intend immediately to begin a plantation. Captain Barker H.M. Engineer will deliver your Lordships drafts of the forts and hornwork necessary for the defence of the place, and how far we have proceeded. I am designing to open a way into the center of the Island where I don't doubt finding good land for planting. Our present sett of people being mostly seafaring men have not any great notions that way. I have letters from several people of credit and substance that they will speedily come and settle here, and dont in the least question the increase of our numbers when our fortifications are perfected, and especially if we have an Assembly. P.S. The misfortune of a limekiln not being regularly burnt has retarded our work on the King Bason, but I shall set fire to one this week of about 7,000 bushels, which will enable us to finish it with all possible expedition. [Signed,] G. Phenney.

[Enclosed,] Recd. 13th, Read 14th June, 1723. 1 pp. [Enclosed][BHO]

The Map
The “enclosed draft” referred to in the letter is the present map. Little is known about Captain John Barker. Phenney wrote to Charles Delafaye (under-secretary to the Thomas Pelham-Holles, the Duke of Newcastle) on 24 December 1723 stating: -

“I have enclou'd a draft of the Fort the only one I have yet done, fearing lest Mr. [John] Barker who promised me to lay one before your Lordship has not been so good as his word. That person was brought hither and recommended as one of H.M. Engineers and a man of probity by Governor Rogers in their way as they first pretended to St. Lucia, and he had address enough to impose upon me so far that I believed it when I mention'd it to your Lordship, but having heard since by good hands from Bermuda and home a character quite the reverse, I am oblig'd in duty to let your Lordship know it, tho' I blush whilst I am doing it; lest he should have an opportunity thro' my means to tell your Lordship any untruths in relation to this place”.

This map found its way into the hands of Sir William Strickland. The number of paid commissioners of the Board of Trade was set at eight. One of these was Thomas Pelham-Holles (First Duke of Newcastle) who served from 1717-41. In 1724 he was named Secretary of State for the Southern Department, which included all the American colonies. His predecessor was John Carteret (1690-1763). His younger brother was Henry Pelham-Holles (1694-1754), who served as Secretary of War from 1724-30. That position passed to Sir William Strickland from 1730-35. This, or something similar, is likely the way the present manuscript map arrived in the Strickland family, where it remained until the twentieth century.

The map is centred on the Fort at Nassau and illustrates the ‘Eastern Battery’ at ‘Devil’s Pt.’, now the site of Fort Montagu. Opposite is ‘Hogg Island’, now known as Paradise Island. Between them is the small ‘Porters Key’, so-named today, and the conduit for the bridges between the two. ‘Long Key’ remains the same, but Silver Key is known today as ‘Crystal Cay’. ‘Spencer’s Pt.’ is present, and ‘Rush’s Bay’ has since been renamed ‘Goodman Bay’. The harbour area is marked with depth soundings in feet. The whole bears a pencil grid that, on close examination, has been drawn on the paper before the map. This was the guide by which the copy was made.

The map is undoubtedly the source for the first printed plan of the harbour by Hermann Moll, included in the first edition of the ‘Atlas Minor’ published in 1729. It was also the source for Henry Popple’s landmark wall map insert, published in 1733 (see item 30). Moll had for some time an interest in maps which helped to promote British interests. Indeed, he often placed legends strongly supporting British claims. That had likely brought him to the attention of the Board of Trade. By 1724 he was one of the pre-eminent mapmakers in Britain.

Provenance:
2. Edward C. Lowe, catalogue no. 146, item 29, 1951, sold to:
4. Thence by descent.
SHELVOCKE, George

A Voyage Around the World by Way of the Great South Sea, Perform’d in the Years 1719, 20, 21, 22 in the Speedwell of London, of 24 Guns and 100 Men, under His Majesty’s Commission to cruise on the Spaniards in the late War with the Spanish Crown; till she was cast away on the Island of Juan Fernandes, in May 1720; and afterwards continued in the Recovery, the Jesus Maria and Sacra Familia &c.

Publication

Description
First edition. 8vo., (193 by 120mm), folding engraved double-hemisphere map of the world, four engraved plates, of which two are folding, contemporary blind-panelled calf, rebacked to style.

Collation
a(4), a-b(8), *a(2), B-I(8), K-U(8), X-Gg(8), Hh(2); [B], xxxiii, [4], 468 pages.

References
Alden & Landis 726/192; Barrett 2261; Borba de Moraes II:10; Cowan I pp.211-212; Cowan II pp.581-582; Howes S-383; Hill 1557; Leighly California as an Island 159; Sabin 80158; Wagner Northwest Coast 530; Wagner Spanish Southwest 88.

Shelvocke’s (1675-1742) account of his adventures as a privateer in the Pacific includes the second published images of native Californians: ‘An Indian of ye Southermost [sic] parts of California as Returning from Fishing & another on his Barklog’, and ‘Two California Women, the one in a Birds Skin the other in that of a Deer’. Shelvocke also discusses the economic potential of guano and whaling in the Pacific, as well as making tantalizing references to gold on the coast of California.

However, Shelvocke’s piratical adventure is probably best remembered for the passage that inspired Coleridge’s ‘Rime of the Ancient Mariner’:
“… a disconsolate black Albitross, who accompanied us for several days, hovering about us as if he had lost himself, till Hatley, (my second Captain) observing, in one of his melancholy fits, that this bird was always hovering near us, imagined from his colour, that it might be some ill omen. That which, I suppose, induced him the more to encourage his superstition, was the continued series of contrary tempestuous winds, which had oppress’d us ever since we had got into this sea. But be that as it would, he, after some fruitless attempts, at length, shot the Albitross, not doubting (perhaps) that we should have a fair wind after it” (pages 400-401).

In 1719, finding himself impoverished and at a loose end, Shelvocke applied for help to an old sailing comrade, Edward Hughes, who was planning a privateering expedition to the South Seas. “Shelvocke was promised command of the larger of the two vessels, the Success. Letters of marque and reprisal were issued by the high court of Admiralty on 1 January 1719, authorising Hughes and his associates ‘to set upon by force of Arms, and to subdue and take the Men of War, Ships, and other Vessels whatsoever, as also the Goods, Monies and Merchandizes, belonging to the King of Spain, his vassals and Subjects’ (TNA: PRO, HCA 26/29: 5). The ‘Scheme of the Voyage’ presented by the owners to the commanders was rather more specific, and instructed them to raid the town of Paita on the Peruvian coast, and to capture the treasure-ship plying between Lima and Panama. John Clipperton, who had sailed as chief mate with William Dampier in the St George (1703-4), was named commander of the Success, and Shelvocke was given the smaller ship, the Speedwell, a demotion resulting from excesses he committed with ship’s stores while recruiting crew at Ostend” (Jonathan Lamb for DNB).

Shelvocke took umbrage, soon lost touch with Clipperton, and proceeded on his own into the Pacific, where he and his crew raidied Paita on their own, and headed for Juan Fernandez, where in May 1720, the Speedwell was wrecked. Marooned on Selkirk / Robinson Crusoe’s island for five months, Shelvocke and his crew built a new boat from the wreck and set forth on their adventures once again. Re-interpreting their letters of marque, Shelvocke and his crew overpowered other ships and upgraded their vessel twice; after sailing their last and largest prize to Canton, where they sold it, they booked passage to England, relatively wealthy men.

Coleridge’s inspiration for the Ancient Mariner
Pirates may be tried and executed on foreign lands, particularly the Americas.

An important report by Attorney-General Richard West, allowing pirates to be tried and executed in foreign lands, particularly in the Americas.

Since 1536 the law had required anyone accused of piracy to be brought to London and tried by the Admiralty Courts. This proved impractical and expensive, and many pirates escaped prosecution as a result.

The 1700 ‘Act for the More Effectual Suppression of Piracy’, stated: “[I]t hath been found by Experience, that Persons committing Piracies, Robberies and Felonies on the Seas, in or near the East and West Indies, and in Places very remote, cannot be brought to condign Punishment without great Trouble and Charges in sending them into England to be tried within the Realm, as the said Statute directs, insomuch that many idle and profligate Persons have been thereby encouraged to turn Pirates, and betake themselves to that sort of wicked Life, trusting that they shall not, or at least cannot easily, be questioned for such their Piracies and Robberies, by reason of the great Trouble and Expense that will necessarily fall upon such as shall attempt to apprehend and prosecute them for the same…”

The resultant creation of regular colonial courts with the authority to try pirates was effective, but the Act expired after seven years. Parliament renewed it several times following the War of the Spanish Succession, but only made the colonial courts’ jurisdiction over the prosecution of pirates permanent in 1720, as a direct result of West’s document.

The subsequent ‘Act for the More Effectual Suppression of Piracy’, also created an additional offence, that of aiding and abetting piracy: “Be it enacted by the Authority aforesaid, That all and every Person and Persons whatsoever, who shall either on the Land, or upon the Seas, knowingly or wittingly set forth any Pirate, or aid and assist, or maintain, procure, command, counsel or devise any Person or Persons whatsoever, to do or commit any Piracies or Robberies upon the Seas… [or who] receive, entertain or conceal any such Pirate or Robber, or receive or take into his Custody any Ship, Vessel, Goods or Chattels, which have been by any such Pirate or Robber piratically and feloniously taken… are hereby likewise declared… to be accessory to such Piracy and Robbery and shall and may be adjudged as the Principals of such Piracies and Robberies”.

Richard West (c1691-1726), was the first standing counsel to the Board of Trade from 1717 and Lord Chancellor of Ireland from 1725. His position with the Board of Trade made him legal advisor to the government on matters concerning all colonial trade.

Provenance:
Collection of Sir Thomas Phillips (MS 31912).
El Draco! “The finest contemporary portrait of Drake”

A rare contemporary portrait of Sir Francis Drake, celebrating his circumnavigation of the world. Although unsigned, the engraving was attributed to Jodocus Hondius by George Virtue in the eighteenth century, who had discovered the plate “preserved in the family of his descendants”. Hind seems to agree with this attribution, although he also postulates that it may be the work of Remigius Hogengberg. Whoever the engraver may have been, the plate seems not to have been circulated in his lifetime, as only two contemporary examples are known, both of them in unfinished states. It would appear that Virtue took it upon himself to complete the plate, and published a second state with the background heavily shaded, and the globe reworked.

Drake is shown standing, his right hand on a helmet, his left hand holding a baton. Through a window above to the left a landscape is visible; before the window hangs a terrestrial globe or two-hemisphere disc map hanging by an ornamental finial (Kraus).
PRICE, Charles

Atlas Maritimus or New Sea Atlas, Describing the Coasts, Ports, Harbours, Bays, Roads, Rivers, Rocks, Sands, Buoys, Beacons, Sea-Marks, Depth of Water, Bearings and Distances from Place to Place, the Setting and Flowing of the Tides, Currents, Trade-Winds, Monsoons, &c. with an Exact Representation of the most Principal Lands, and Directions for the Knowing of any Place, and how to Harbour a Ship in the same Safety, in all The Known Parts of the Globe. According to the best observations and latest discoveries of the ablest navigators.

Publication


Description

Folio, (515 by 330mm), title page, and 25 double-page engraved charts, of which 14 are in fine original outline colour, some dust soiling, four charts trimmed to within upper neatline, and two within upper and lower neatline, lower right corner of title page skillfully repaired in facsimile, eighteenth century English panelled calf to style.

References

M. PRI-1a; Berkley ff VK801.P8 1732.

The second extant example of Charles Price’s ‘Atlas Maritimus’.

History of the atlas

In 1729, Charles Price published a chart of the English Channel, which included a large note advertising his intention to publish a new sea atlas of the whole world:

“The Great want of a good sett of Sea Charts those now extant in Great Britain (excepting for our own Coasts) being mostly taken from old Dutch Waggoners &c. put me for some years past upon Collecting all the Observations I could for Engraving and Printing A Compleat Sea Atlas containing (besides General Charts) exact Descriptions of all the Coasts, Ports and Harbours in the known World with the full Directions for Sailing into and out of them, Of their Produce and Manufacture, Imports and Exports &c. The whole will be Engraved upon Copper and will contain two hundred and fifty sheets of the same size with this and each Chart as finished will be published and sold by the Author”.

This hugely ambitious project would never be realised in full, as by December 1731 Price was in Fleet Prison for debt. By the time Price died in January 1733, only 30 charts and maps had been engraved, many of which lacked dedicatees or chart numbers, and seven of which bear no imprint. The remaining 23 charts contain numerous bookseller, and instrument maker imprints, these include: J. Atkinson, Cherry-Garden-Stairs, in Rotherhithe, London; J. Eades, at King Edward’s-Stairs, Wapping, London; B. Macy, at the Hermitage-Bridge, London; J. Clarke, bookseller, at the Exchange, London, T. Heath, mathematical instrument maker, next the Fountain-Tavern, in the Strand, London; Mrs Penn, bookseller, Bristol. A further two names appear on the title-page: the booksellers J. Anzdal, in Liverpool, and G. Grierson in Dublin.

The lack of dedicatees, and the numerous and varied imprints on the charts, reinforces the impression that the atlas was rushed to market, most likely in order to recoup some of the money that Price owed. Whether the other sellers were part of a consortium, put together before or after Price’s bankruptcy, to pay down his debts, is unclear. Whatever the motive for the publication of the atlas, it was evidently not a success, with only one other known extant example bearing a title-page.

The first 15 charts cover the English and Irish coast, and are based on the work of Greenville Collins; the next six charts depict Europe’s western coast and the Mediterranean; with the last four charts depicting the Atlantic Ocean and the eastern coast of north and south America.

 Rarity

The only other example to bear a title-page is housed in the University of California, Berkeley. Bound in English panelled calf, the atlas contains 29 charts on 30 sheets (the chart of the Mediterranean is on two sheets).
The Berkeley atlas includes five charts not present in the current atlas:
1. ‘A Correct Chart of Hispaniola…’, (1730).
2. ‘A Correct Chart of Savoy and Genoa…’, (1732).
3. ‘A Correct Chart of the Mediterranean…’, (1730).
4. [The Thames Estuary], (1730).
5. ‘A New Chart of the Bahama Islands’, (1731).

A further group of Charles Price charts was acquired by the British Library in the early 1980s. The BL group has 21 charts, but lacks the title-page, present both here and in the Berkeley example. There is one chart unique to the present atlas: ‘A Correct Chart of the Coast of Portugal’, (1731).

Biography
Charles Price (1679-1733) was apprenticed to John Seller, the father of English sea atlas publishing, in February 1694. He was made free on 1 September 1703, on the same day as John Seller’s son Jeremiah Seller. He worked in partnership with Jeremiah Seller (1700-1705), with John Senex (1705-1710), with George Wildey (1710-1713), and with instrument maker Benjamin Scott (1715-1718). In 1727, he announced that work would begin on “a general atlas for sea and land”. In 1729, on his chart of the English Channel, he advertised for ‘A Compleat Sea Atlas” (the present work), which would cover the whole world and contain some 250 charts. Only 31 charts are known to have been published by Price before he was confined to the Fleet Prison for debt in December 1731. He continued to advertise his work at a reduced price “for ready money... ill fortune and ill usage has constrain[d] me to sell my goods at this cheap rate”. He died early in 1733, leaving his stock equally to his son Charles, his daughter Ann, and his wife Elizabeth.

Full collation available on request.
Popple's 20 sheet ‘Map of the British Empire in America’ is one of the two most important large format maps of North America published in the eighteenth century. Along with John Mitchell’s ‘Map of the British & French Dominions in North America’ (see item 35), the map was a profound statement of England’s designs for dominance of the North American continent; at a time when colonial control of North America was by no means certain.

Henry Popple worked with the Board of Trade & Plantations in 1727 during a period when boundary disputes among both the colonists and with the French began to accelerate the need for detailed maps. In 1730 the Board began requesting detailed maps of the entirety of the provinces and contiguous regions. Popple issued an announcement for his map in 1731, but did not complete work on his 20-sheet map until 1733. Despite his connection to the Board of Trade & Plantations, Popple’s map was not a commercial success, and did not sell well until publication of the map was taken over by William Henry Toms and Samuel Harding in 1739. With the outbreak of the War of Jenkin’s Ear, the map found its commercial moment and sales soared. In 1746, the rights to Popple’s map were sold to Willley and Austen, who published the map until Austen’s death in 1750. As noted by Barbara McCorkle in ‘America Emergent’:

“Little is known of Henry Popple except that he came from a family whose members had served the Board of Trade and Plantations for three generations, a connection that must have been a factor in his undertaking the map, his only known cartographic work” (McCorkle 21.)

Popple’s map is the first large scale printed map to show the thirteen colonies. The map is nearly 8 feet square when joined, and shows the extent of the British, French, and Spanish colonial possessions. The information on the map was based on Popple’s work at the Board of Trade and Plantations in London. Popple’s map was widely copied by other cartographers and remained the standard map of North America for several decades. The map was issued both as a wall map and as an Atlas, with the present example including advertising for the various formats in the lower margin of sheet 17, including pricing of the various formats.

Popple produced the map under the auspices of the Lord Commissioners of Trade and Plantations to help settle disputes arising from the rival expansion of English, Spanish and French colonies. At the time of its publication, “France claimed not only Canada, but also territories drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries - in practical terms, an area of half a continent” (Goss, The Mapping Of North America p.122.).

Popple’s map was also the first English map to name all the original thirteen colonies and one of the first maps to show Georgia. The new Colony of Georgia was chartered in London in July 1732, but developed only in early 1733, with the landing of James Edward Oglethorpe and his small party of 120 colonials. Oglethorpe returned to England in 1734.
and met with the King on July 20, 1734, showing him "several charts and Curious Drawings relating to the new Settlement of Georgia." The same charts and maps must have been almost immediately made available to Popple by Ogilthorpe, as Popple immediately incorporated this new information into a corrective paste-down mounted on Sheet 10 in State 3 of the map. The new information regarding Georgia was then engraved onto the map in State 4 published in late 1734. [Babinski, note 12, 13].

The new Colony of Georgia was considered by the British as an attempt to create an important protective buffer between the more densely populated English Colonies in the north and the Spanish in Florida.

Popple's map was intended among other things to provide a large format, up-to-date map of the region in order to better understand and demarcate the rival claims. On close examination, an engraved dashed line identifying the boundaries of the colonial powers can be seen. However, to facilitate a clearer visual depiction of these boundaries, Popple devised a colour scheme for depicting the claims of the various colonial powers. As noted by Babinski:

"The typical coloring [sic] of fully colored copies... is described best by a contemporary manuscript legend on the end-paper affixing the Key map to the binding in the King George III copy at the British Library: Green - Indian Countrys. Red - English. Yellow - Spanish. Blue - French. Purple - Dutch."

The careful demarcation of the disputed areas by colour makes identification of whether a particular location was in one or another 'zone' a great deal easier. Thus the full original colour examples are particularly important in facilitating the graphical depiction of the international land disputes of the time.

Popple's map was both a cartographic landmark and a visual icon among the social elite of the British Colonies. As noted by Bruckner in The Geographic Revolution in Early America:

"British Americans frequently imported imperial maps during the eighteenth century. Decorative wall maps showing British possessions in North America were favourite articles, purchased primarily by the colonial elite. Strategically displayed in formal settings of the home or provincial office, these maps painted bombastic scenes of territorial conquest and signified the range of the British Empire. For example, maps like Henry Popple's Map of the British Empire in America (1733) reached American audiences upon special orders by the Board of Trade and Plantations, and colonial politicians like Benjamin Franklin eagerly requested Popple's map for public display."

As noted by Babinski, Samuel Harding and William Henry Toms took over the proprietorship of the map from Henry Popple in August, 1739 and advertised it frequently in the newspapers, with their last advertisement in July 1745 [Babinski, Notes 4-8].
“Variety of extraordinary Distresses and Adventures,
and some New and Useful Discoveries”

As Cockburn describes, at length, on his title-page, he and his fellow travelers were: “were taken by a Spanish Guarda-Costa, in the ‘John and Jane’, Edward Burt Master, and set on Shoar at a Place called Porto-Cavalo, naked and wounded, as mentioned in several News-Papers of October, 1731” (title-page). They had been captured by the pirate Captain Henry Johnson, otherwise known as “Henriques the Englishman” (although he was from Ireland) and his partner in piracy, Pedro Poleas: “Johnson is reckoned a Man of great Courage and Bravery, and for those Qualifications is famous in Parts of America,… Tho’ he has but one hand, he fires a Piece with great Dexterity, laying the Barrel upon his Stump, and drawing the Tricker with his Right Hand. In most of our American Plantations there are rewards bid for the taking of him, but I am apt to think that will never be whilst he is alive” (page 8).

Cockburn and his companions escaped from gaol in San Pedro Sula in Honduras, crossed the Isthmus to San Salvador and travelled to Panama overland, and he also gives account of some “New and Useful Discoveries of the Inland of those almost unknown Parts of America: As also, An exact Account of the Manners, Customs, and Behaviour of the several Indians inhabiting a Tract of Land of 2400 Miles; particularly of their Dispositions towards the Spaniards and English” (title-page).
JOHNSON, Charles


Publication
Birmingham, R. Walker, 1742.

Description
Folio, second edition, (275 by 180mm), 17 engraved plates, panelled speckled calf, spine in six compartments, red morocco label, gilt.

Collation
A-I(2), K-U(2), X-Ii(2), Kk-Uu(2), Xx-3I(2), 3K-3U(2), 3X-4I(2), 4K-4U(2), 4X-5I(2), 5K-5Q(2); [4], 427 , [1] pages.

Errors in pagination: 122-123, 233, 236 and 336 misnumbered as 121-122, 236, 233 and 332.

References
Hill 892; Howes J127; Sabin 36194; Boston Public Library 39999063211765.

For many years this work was attributed to Daniel Defoe, but recently that has been called into question. It contains short biographies, many illustrated, of some of the most notorious criminals in Britain's history, including pirates Henry Morgan and Blackbeard, and outlaws Robin Hood, Sir John Falstaff, and Colonel Jack, among others.

In 1724, Daniel Defoe, using the pseudonym Charles Johnson, published 'A General History of the Robberies and Murderers of the Most Notorious Pyrates', a two-volume work intended as a sequel to Exquemeling's Bucaniers of America. Beginning with this publication and continuing even to the present day, a number of pirate books have appeared under the name of the fictitious Captain Charles Johnson. Although related in part to Defoe's History, this work is largely based on Captain Alexander Smith's 1714 The History of the Lives of the Most Noted Highway-men and Captain Johnson's 1724 A General History of the Pyrates. The section on pirates includes chapters on Avery, Marrel, Blackbeard, Bonnet, England, Vane, Rackam, Mary Read, Anne Bonny, Davis, Roberts and Morgan. The first edition was published in 1734 with the name A General and True History of the Lives and Adventures…; it was the first of the many similar works to be published in folio format.
BULKELEY, John; and John CUMMINS

A Voyage to the South-Seas, in the Years 1740–41. Containing A Faithful Narrative of the Loss of His Majesty’s Ship the Wager on A Desolate island.

Publication
London, Printed for Jacob Robinson, Publisher, at the Golden-Lion in Ludgate-Street, 1743.

Description
First issue, with the author’s name printed on the title-page. In 1740, the first lord of the Admiralty, Sir Charles Wager, commissioned George Anson to lead a small squadron, consisting of the Centurion (60 guns), the Gloucester (50 guns), the Severn (50 guns), the Pearl (40 guns), the Wager (28 guns), the little sloop Tryal (8 guns), and two store-ships, against the remote but ill-defended Spanish territory along the coasts of the Pacific. “His orders were to raid and plunder the Pacific coast of South America, to attack Panama if in the meanwhile the Caribbean expedition had gained a foothold on the opposite side of the isthmus, and if possible to capture the annual ‘galleon’ which linked Mexico and the Philippines. In addition he was to encourage rebellion by the native Panamanians against the Spaniards, or by the Spanish colonists against their king” (N.A.M. Rodger for DNB).

In May of 1741, the Wager was wrecked “on a desolate island off the coast of Chile in circumstances in which all discipline vanished. Amid scenes of defiance and violence most of the crew mutinied, and split into groups to attempt their escape. Led by the gunner, the largest of these groups made a small-boat voyage through the Straits of Magellan that stands as a remarkable feat of seamanship” (Williams page 3). The title-page gives a good summary of the main events: “In the Latitude 47 South, Longitude 81:40 West: With the Proceedings and Conduct of the Officers and Crew, and the Hardships they endured in the said Island for the Space of five Months; their bold Attempt for Liberty, in Coasting the Southern Part of the vast Region of Patagonia; setting out with upwards of Eighty Souls in their Boats; the Loss of the Cutter, their Passage through the Straights of Magellan; an Account of their manner of living in the Voyage on Seals, Wild Horses, Dogs, &c. and the incredible Hardships they frequently underwent for Want of Food of any Kind; a Description of the several Places where they touch’d in the Streights of Magellan, with an Account of the Inhabitants, &c. and their safe Arrival to the Brazil, after failing one thousand Leagues in a Long-Boat; their Reception from the Portuguese, an Account of the Disturbances at Rio Grand; their Arrival at Rio Janeiro; their Passage and Usage on Board a Portuguese Ship to Lisbon; and their Return to England. Interspersed with many entertaining and curious Observations not taken Notice of by Sir John Narborough, or any other Journalist”.

As with other similar accounts, Bulkeley, the ‘late gunner’ and carpenter Cummins, go to great lengths to justify their mutinous actions: “our confining the Captain is reckoned an audacious and unprecedented Action, and our not bringing him home with us, is reckon’d worse; but the Reader will find that Necessity absolutely compell’d us to act as we did, and that we had sufficient Reasons for leaving him behind. Our Attempt for Liberty in sailing to the Southward through the Streights of Magellan with such a number of people, stow’d in a Long Boats, has been

“Bold were the Men who on the Ocean first
Spread the new Sails, when Ship-wreck was the worst:
More Dangers Now from Man alone we find,
Than from the Rocks, the Billows, and the Wind”
censur'd as a mad Undertaking: Desperate Diseases require desperate Remedies; had we gone Northward, there appear'd no Probability of escaping the Spaniards, and when we had fallen into their Hands, 'twas not unlikely but they might have employed us as Drudges in their Mines for Life, therefore we rather chose to encounter all Difficulties than to become Slaves to a merciless Enemy" (Preface xv).

The book was a best-seller, went through a number of editions, two in the first year alone.
A scarce account of George Anson’s (1697-1762) second voyage aboard the Centurion. His orders, from the Admiralty, as part of an ongoing strategy to attack Spanish colonies, were “to raid and plunder the Pacific coast of South America, to attack Panama if in the meanwhile the Caribbean expedition had gained a foothold on the opposite side of the isthmus, and if possible to capture the annual ‘galleon’ which linked Mexico and the Philippines. In addition, he was to encourage rebellion by the native Panamanians against the Spaniards, or by the Spanish colonists against their king” (DNB).

Pascoe Thomas, a mathematician aboard the Centurion, published this account before Anson issued his own, based on “a full and faithful daily journal of the incidents of this important four-year voyage. Included are a very interesting list of subscribers names and an appendix giving an account of the treasure taken” (Hill).

True to his calling, in his ‘Appendix’, Thomas outlines and values the total treasure captured from the three main prizes of the Centurion’s voyage, the Manila ‘Nuestra Signora del Buono Carmella’ in September of 1741; the Town of Paita in November of 1741; and the real prize of the voyage, the Manila ‘Nuestra Signora de Cabadonga’ in June of 1743. It amounted to a staggering 355,324L 3s. 6d ½, of silver coin, in addition to “Gold Rings, Chains, Ear-rings, Jewels, Gold and Silver Lace and Twist, with many other valuable Commodities, the Account of which never came to my Knowledge...” Sterling, exclusive of Jewells, Gold Snuff Boxes, Buckles, and the like... Spanish Dollars ... Wrought Plate and Virgin Silver”. However, the plunder was not gained without significant loss. Thomas records that of the 510 men who “left England in the Centurion, about 380 perished on the Voyage, and many more in proportion from every Ship of the Squadron else, which got round into the South-Seas”; in fact only 145 of the more than 1300 members of the original expedition squadron returned to England.

As Thomas details on the title-page he also includes in his book “some historical Accounts of Chili, Peru, Mexico, and the Empire of China; exact Descriptions of such Places of Note as were touch’d; and Variety of occasional Remarks. To which is added, A large and general Table of Longitudes and Latitudes, ascertainment from accurate Observations, or (where those are wanting) from the best printed Books and Manuscripts taken from the Spaniards in the Expedition; Also the Variations of the Compass throughout the Voyage, and the Soundings and Depths of Water along the different Coasts: And lastly, several curious Observations on a Comet seen in the South-Seas on the Coast of Mexico”.

“the Sight of so many dead Men and their Blood is a very great Discouragement to the Survivors”
Mitchell's map is widely regarded as the most important map in American history. Prepared on the eve of the Seven Years' War (or French and Indian War), it was the second large format map of North America printed by the British (the first being Henry Popple's map of 1733), and included the most up to date information of the region: “the result of a uniquely successful solicitation of information from the colonies” (Edney). Over the following two hundred years, it would play a significant role in the resolution of every significant dispute involving the northern border of the then British Colonies and in the definition of the borders of the new United States of America.

John Mitchell (1717–1768) was born in Virginia and educated in medicine in Edinburgh, Scotland. He returned to Virginia and practised as a physician, before emigrating back to England in 1746, where he was introduced to the president of the Board of Trade and Plantations, the Earl of Halifax. Matthew Edney suggests that it was most likely Halifax who approached Mitchell to serve as an expert on colonial affairs, and later commissioned him to draw a map of America to define English territorial rights. Mitchell's first attempt resulted in a manuscript map finished in 1750. This prototype proved insufficient, and Halifax issued a special directive ordering every colonial governor on the North American mainland to send detailed accounts and maps of their colonies and boundaries. He also gave Mitchell access to the Board's archives, including maps by Joshua Fry and Peter Jefferson, Christopher Gist, George Washington, and John Barnwell.

The map was engraved by Thomas Kitchin and published by Andrew Millar. The colouring outlines British colonial claims. There is extensive text throughout describing and explaining various features including natural resources and potential for settlement of frontier regions, as well as notes claiming British boundaries over French ones. The text outlines different legal justifications for British settlements: some areas are declared de facto British because of existing British settlements; others are taken as included in royal charters issued to settlers by British monarchs; and some are marked as acquired from Native Americans. The title cartouche has been carefully designed to suggest the fertile potential of the American colonies, decorated with wheat, a beaver and barrels of molasses. The two Native American figures are shown looking up towards the crest of the royal family and the union flag, indicating the dependence of the colonies upon Britain.

The map was used by Halifax to push his aggressive colonial policies in North America. He was reluctant to concede any territory to the French, and used Mitchell's work to stymie a neutral zone in Ohio proposed by the diplomat Sir Thomas Robinson. Mitchell's work, although imprecisely sourced, was an unapologetic statement of British claims in the continent, to the extent that the chancellor, the Earl of Hardwicke, was worried...
that its publication would lead to public outcry if the government compromised with the French.

Mitchell’s work was immediately popular, and spawned a host of imitations. The map’s credentials, linked to both Halifax and the Board of Trade, gave it an authority beyond contemporary productions: even Henry Popple’s landmark map of America was only produced by the permission of the Board of Trade, rather than with its co-operation. It represented both a landmark in the history of the cartography of America – as the most efficiently sourced and drawn map of the period – but also in the use of cartography in government policy.
BRETEUIL, Louis Charles Auguste le Tonneller, baron de

Description
Manuscript plan of the bay of Rio de Janeiro in pen and ink with wash, signed "Breteuil fecit" [together with] a pen and ink prospect of Rio de Janeiro, both dissected and mounted on canvas.

Dimensions
Plan: 535 by 735mm (21 by 29 inches);
View: 290 by 790mm (11.5 by 31 inches).

References
Pedro Corrêa da Lago and Ruy Souza, Brasiliana Itau (São Paulo: Capivara, 2009);

A detailed map of Rio de Janeiro made in 1757 by the Comte (later Baron) de Breteuil, together with a prospect of the city, sacked by a French corsair in 1711.

Louis Charles Auguste le Tonneller, baron de Breteuil, baron de Preuilly (1730-1807) was a French aristocrat, diplomat and statesman. He was the last Prime Minister of France to serve under the Bourbon monarchy, appointed by Louis XVI only 100 hours before the storming of the Bastille.

Breteuil was born in 1730 at the château of Azay-le-Ferron into a well-connected aristocratic family. He was educated in Paris before joining the army, where he served under Thomas Arthur, comte de Lally, baron de Tollendal (1702-1766) in his ill-fated command of the French forces in India during the Seven Years’ War against England. With orders to join the French forces in India, Lally and Breteuil sailed from France on 2 May 1757 under the command of Vice Admiral Anne Antoine, Comte d’Aché (1701-1780). During the voyage, an epidemic forced the fleet to put in at Rio de Janeiro for six weeks. The Portuguese, neutral in the conflict between France and England, initially refused access to the city. This, quite possibly, was a result of the fact that the French had sacked Rio in 1711 under René Du Guay-Trouin, a former corsair who took the supposedly impregnable city with a force half the size of the defending garrison. It is likely that the present plan and prospect were drawn up during this hiatus, perhaps in contemplation of emulating Du Guay-Trouin’s previous exploits. Indeed, the text states that the map is based upon a plan made during the expedition of “Mr Duguay”, together with corrections. It also indicates that the plan was made in conjunction with a prospect of the city (presumably the accompanying view offered here) and states that the plan and its companion view may be relied upon as accurate.

The plan is titled ‘Plan of the Rio de Janeiro Bay and its Defenses’, and is signed in at the bottom right “Breteuil fecit”. A manuscript legend towards the right of the plan lists the following:


The prospect, or view, is itself inscribed “realised for the Comte de Breteuil”, thereby reinforcing the pairing of the two images, and the text towards the lower right of the image remarks: “This Bay has 8 deep-water anchorages. Two link the Fort Santa Cruz to Rio de Janeiro. Our troops and our crew are camped in San Domingo, which faces that city.”
This view is busy with our vessels. The parts that went imperfectly have been corrected while travelling through the Bay, placing here objects that perspective wouldn’t admit.”

Inside a large text box at the lower right, the following are identified:


Correa do Lago includes a chapter dedicated to drawings and watercolours in his catalogue of the collection of Olavo Setuval. In this he describes a 1760 prospect of the city by Blasco (Prospetto della città del Rio de Janeiro vista da parte norte da Ilha das Cobras) as “the most detailed and complete panorama of the eighteenth century”. The present drawing predates Blasco’s work by some three years. The next oldest prospect in the Setuval collection is dated 1795. Furthermore, no comparable prospect can be found in the Coleção Brasiliiana Fundação Estudar (part of the Oscar Americano collection).

Provenance:
Bibliothèque des ducs de Luynes, Château de Dampierre, France.
Privateers on trial

A set of legal documents relating to a case regarding three British privateers.

The commanders of three British privateering vessels - the Defiance, Delancey and Marlborough - had exceeded their commission by seizing cargo from the Dutch vessel De Vrouw Clara Magdalena, although the Dutch were neutral in the Seven Years' War.

The commanders of the privateers, New Yorkers, would successfully argue that the Dutch were transporting French cargo and so it was a lawful prize.

The Vice Admiralty Court judge overseeing the case, Lewis Morris Jr. (1698-1762), understood that privateering could be financially beneficial to New York. Between 1739 and 1748 privateers brought 91 prizes to New York, attracted there by Morris' efforts on their behalf. As a result of Parliament's Rule of 1756, Morris, who felt that he was an expert at discovering deception in Dutch ships' papers, condemned almost every Dutch ship captured by privateers as "lawful prize".
A sign presumably intended to fit above the doorway for the Charts Room at Chatham Dockyard in Kent. Decorated with a dramatic sea-battle between French and British warships; at the top is a globe, dedicated to George II (1683-1760), and dated 1761, flanked by dolphins. The borders of the sign, with a windhead at each lower corner, are carved to look like rope - the dockyard ropery was a centre of rope-making from 1618 - each ship needing approximately 30 miles of rope, 20 of which were used to rig the sails.

Chatham was the single-most important dockyard in Britain, established in 1547 when the Royal Navy rented two storehouses on 'Jyllingham Water', on the River Medway, at Sunne Hard. By 1570 full dockyard facilities were concentrated below Chatham Church. The first ship, the Merlin, slipped the docks in 1579, followed by Queen Elizabeth I's warship the Sunne, in 1586. In 1618 the dockyard moved downstream to its current location, well placed to support the Royal Navy through a series of trade wars with the Dutch that were mostly fought in the English Channel and North Sea.

Many famous ships were built at Chatham before it closed for good in 1984, including the HMS Victory, Horatio Nelson's flagship.

Provenance:
From the collection of Roland de la Poype (1920-2012), a Second World War fighter ace and member of the Normandie-Niemen squadron serving on the Soviet front.
Spanish America at the end of the Seven Years’ War

Thomas Jefferys published some of “the most important eighteenth century maps of the Americas, a series given cohesion and impetus by the preliminary hostilities and eventual outbreak of the Seven Years’ War” (Laurence Worms for DNB).

This volume was published just before the end of the Seven Years’ War, in which Spain had sided with France against Britain, just a year before the Treaty of Paris was signed in 1763, in which Britain was allocated the Spanish territory of Florida. As Jefferys affirms in his ‘Introduction’ this atlas is largely compiled from captured Spanish charts “…our eyes of course turn towards those parts of Spanish America, where it is most likely the English will principally aim their attacks and while we are in doubtful expectation where next the fury of war will fall, it is intended to confine the pen chiefly to an account of the sea-coasts, harbours, and towns adjacent to them, of the Spanish acquisitions of the West-Indies”.

In the text, Jefferys carefully describes the Spanish possessions in the Caribbean basin, starting with the Venezuelan coast, proceeding to Colombia, Central America, Mexico, Florida, Cuba, Hispaniola, and Puerto Rico. Louisiana is omitted as it was not to come into Spanish hands until 1763, as is Texas which was claimed by both France and Spain.

The maps are:

‘A New Chart of the West Indies, drawn from the best Spanish Maps, and regulated by Astronomical Observation’, Puerto de la Guaira; Puerta de Cavello; Santa Martha; Harbour of Carthagena; City of Carthagena; Bay Zazapa; Porto Bello or Puerto Veo; the Town of Chagre; the Isthmus of Panama; San Fernando de Omoa; Port Royal Laguna; the Road of Vera Cruz; City of La Vera Cruz; Pensacola; Saint Augustine; the Island of Cuba; the City of Havana; Bahia de Matanzas; Bahia de Nipe; Puerto de Baracoa; Guantanamo; Santiago de Cuba; Bahia de Nagua; the Colorados; Bahia Honda; Puerto de Cavanas; Puerto de Mariel; Map of San Domino; City of San Domingo, San Juan de Puerto Rico, and Aguada Nueva.

Thomas Jefferys (c1719-1771) was one of the most important and prolific map publishers of the eighteenth century. He was appointed Cartographer to Frederick, Prince of Wales in 1748, and later provided the same office to Frederick’s son George III. Apart from his publishing business, he produced important atlases and maps of America and the West Indies, and surveyed and engraved many large-scale maps of English counties. The huge cost involved in these projects was a major contribution to his slide into insolvency and he became bankrupt in 1766. Surprisingly, it made little difference to his business activities, “having found some friends who have been compassionate enough to re-instate me in my shop”. One of these friends was Robert Sayer, who joined him in partnership and whose imprint appeared on the later editions of some of Jefferys’ large-scale surveys.
Edward Long's (1734-1813) "most influential work, which cemented his reputation as the leading contemporary commentator on the eighteenth-century British Caribbean" (Morgan for DNB). The book is based on first-hand experience, as well as private papers and public records; Long was the son of a Jamaican plantation owner, and lived there from 1757 to 1769. His work, which included an important account of the origin of maroons, African slaves who were able to escape their bondage, and formed independent settlements in areas inaccessible to European colonists, from which they launched guerrilla attacks on colonial property, influenced that of Bryan Edwards', whose 'History, Civil and Commercial, of the British Colonies in the West Indies' was printed in 1793.

In addition to being the first comprehensive, almost encyclopaedic account of the meteorology, botany, zoology, medicine, history, and laws of Jamaica, the book is a compendium of a variety of political opinion and his own frank pro-slavery commentary.

Provenance:
Library stamp of W. S. Lushington, Rodmersham Lodge, Kent, on title-pages.
A rare edition of Jefferys’ ‘West India Atlas’

Rare edition of Jefferys’s West India Atlas.

The atlas, first published in 1778, was designed to aid the highly lucrative sugar trade, which by this point accounted for around one-fifth of all imports to Europe, eighty percent of which was supplied by French and British colonies in the West Indies. Unfortunately, Europe’s insatiable desire for sugar drove a viler – although no less lucrative – trade: that of the trafficking of slaves from the west coast of Africa to the Caribbean plantations. It is estimated that by the time the atlas was published, some 400,000 enslaved people were at work in the British Caribbean colonies.

Unfortunately, Thomas Jefferys would not live to see the publication of his ‘West Indian Atlas’, and it was left to Robert Sayer who, in partnership with John Bennett, acquired his materials and published the atlas posthumously under Jefferys’ name. The work was evidently a commercial success as there were five subsequent editions under the Sayer and Bennett imprint. In 1794 an expanded and modified version with 61 plates was published under Sayer’s sole imprint. In the same year Laurie & Whittle acquired Sayer’s plates, and they published a further version with the same title page, but with their imprint.

The present atlas, is titled ‘A Complete Pilot of the West Indies’. This form of the work, containing just the charts, was first issued in 1778, as the ‘Neptune Occidental: A Compleat for the West Indies’. In the current work, the title has been reset, bears Sayer’s imprint alone, and should be dated to around 1792, just before he was to sell the plates to Laurie and Whittle.
“the pre-eminent statesman-intellectual of the British West Indes”

Issue without plates as sometimes found. This is Bryan Edwards (1743–1800) most important book, and although it was heavily influenced by Edward Long’s account of Jamaica, and borrows his thoughts on the history of maroons in particular, he had a slightly more enlightened attitude towards slavery: “he articulated the planter view concerning the value of the West Indian colonies to Great Britain, and opposed the abolition of the slave trade. Edwards disputed European scientific speculation that the ‘New World’ environment retarded nature, although his scientific interests have largely gone unnoticed” (Royal Society online).

Edwards’ “History” is a very thorough account of the British colony in Jamaica, including much on the political system, inhabitants, customs, institutions, agriculture and commerce, created from first-hand experience. Edwards was sent to live with his wealthy plantation-owning uncle at an early age. Later, he inherited property from his uncle, and entered local politics. “These years witnessed the later part of the American War of Independence and its aftermath; the French Revolution; a metis and slave revolt in French St Domingue; a maroon rebellion in Jamaica; and the campaign to abolish the Atlantic slave trade. Edwards and his fellow planters engaged in debates and enacted legislation to protest against restrictions imposed on trade and shipping between the British West Indies and the United States; they supported reform of the Atlantic slave trade, but opposed its abolition; they fought to aid French planters in St Domingue who were besieged by metis and slave insurgents; and they supported measures to suppress the maroon rebellion in Jamaica” (Richard B. Sheridan for DNB).

The book was very popular, expanding to five volumes for the 1819 edition, and was translated into five languages.
Marine atlas of Jamaica

Leard's very rare atlas of detailed charts of the Jamaican coastline and surrounding waters, with only one complete example known, in the Library of Congress, without title-page.

This extensive maritime survey of Jamaica, was commissioned by Philip Affleck (died 1799), and he published an equally rare 115-page text to accompany the charts: “Sailing directions for the island of Jamaica and St. Domingue, or Hispaniola, and the windward passages; to be used with the charts and plans that are published from surveys and observations, made by order of Philip Affleck .... in part of the years 1789, 1790, 1791, and part of 1792 ... prepared with the assistance of Leard in 1792”, printed in London by Daniel Bond.

Affleck spent many years stationed in the West Indies, defending the English interests there against the French. Initially dispatched to reinforce Sir George Rodney during the Anglo-French War in the spring of 1780, Affleck distinguished himself in the Battle of the Saintes, or the Battle of Dominica, between the 9th and 12th of April, 1782, although he later criticized Rodney for not pursuing the beaten enemy. Between 1790 and 1792 he was commander-in-chief of the Jamaica station. When he returned home to England he was promoted vice-admiral of the blue, one of the lords of the Admiralty under the earl of Chatham, and towards the end of 1793, elected vice-president of the marine society. By the time of his death in 1799 he had attained Admiral of the White.

Very rare: only one other example has appeared at auction since 1937, in 1972, only the Library of Congress records a complete example, catalogued under a different title, but without a title-page; the Biblioteca Nacional de Madrid and the British National Archives each hold a few separate maps. Of the Affleck’s accommodating sailing directions, only two examples are known: one in the American Philosophical Society, and another in the National Archives of Australia. Not listed in Bibliographia Jamaicensis.

Provenance:
1. Early ownership inscription obscured at foot of label on front cover
2. Auguste Bocquet, “Captaine au long-cours, 1827”, his ownership inscription on the front cover, and annotations on the first map. By styling himself Captain of the Long-Cours, Bocquet is claiming membership of an elite class of master mariner, who had undertaken the long course or long haul route around Cape Horn in pursuit of their trade. The title was not introduced until 1825, and it is possible that this rare pilot was acquired/captured by a French man-of-war during the Napoleonic wars.
BARNEY, Stephen and BLIGH, William

Minutes of the Proceedings of the Court-Martial held at Portsmouth, August 12, 1792 on Ten Persons charged with Mutiny on Board His Majesty's Ship the Bounty. With an Appendix, Containing a Full Account of the Real Causes and Circumstances of that Unhappy Transaction, the Most Material of Which Have Hitherto Been Withheld from the Public.

Publication

Description
First edition. 4to., (273 by 208mm), half calf, marbled paper boards, red morocco, gilt, lettering-piece on the spine, rebacked to style.

Collation
[2], B-I(4), K-L(4); [4], 79 pages.

References
Ferguson I 175; Hill 1162; Kroepelien 43

An “exceedingly rare” (Ferguson) account of the proceedings of the court-martial of only ten Bounty mutineers, that Captain Edward Edwards, of the frigate Pandora, had been able to bring back from Tahiti. It was published in a very small edition, for distribution to those closely involved in the trial, and ministers of state, and not intended for publication. This very famous court martial was held aboard the H.M.S. Duke, with Lord Hood presiding over a panel of twelve sea captains. Joseph Coleman (armorer), Thomas McIntosh, Charles Norman (carpenter's mates), and Michael Byrs (able seaman) were acquitted, at Bligh's instigation, since they remained loyal to him, but since there was no more room in his launch, they had to stay aboard the Bounty. Peter Heywood (midshipman), James Morrison (boatswain's mate), William Muspratt (cook's assistant), and able seamen Thomas Ellison, John Millward and Thomas Burkett were all found guilty and condemned to death. Heywood and Morrison were later given royal pardons; and Muspratt was acquitted owing to the fact that certain evidence had not been entered at the time of the court-martial. Only Burkett, Ellison, and Millward were hanged.

This publication was prepared from the court notes, or minutes, of Stephen Barney, who represented William Muspratt at the trial. The main work begins with Bligh's dramatic deposition to the court: “A little before sunrise, Fletcher Christian, who was mate of the ship, and officer of the watch, with the ship's corporal, came into my cabin, while I was asleep, and seizing me, tied my hands with a cord, assisted by others who were also in the cabin, all armed with muskets and bayonets. I was now threatened with instant death if I spoke a word…” (page 2).

After Bligh's statement was read to the court, since he was already on his way back to the South Pacific to collect more breadfruit, there followed a cross-examination, by the court and the accused, of John Fryer, William Cole, William Purcell, William Peckover, Thomas Hayward, John Smith, John Hallet, Captain Edwards, and lieutenants Larkin and Corner (of the Pandora). At the end is an 'Appendix', containing much detail not otherwise recorded. It includes a defence of the of Fletcher Christian written by his brother Edward, written according to Bligh “for the purpose of vindicating his brother at my expense”: “Until this melancholy event, no young officer was ever more affectionately beloved for his amiable qualities, or more highly respected for his abilities and brave and officer-like conduct. The world has been led to suppose, that the associates in his guilt were attached to him only by his seducing and diabolical villany. But all those who came in the boat, whose sufferings and losses on his account have been so severe, not only speak of him without resentment and with forgiveness, but with a degree of rapture and enthusiasm” (page 75-76).

Rare: OCLC records only 2 institutional examples.
CARY, John and CARY, William

Cary’s New Terrestrial Globe; Cary’s New and Improved Celestial Globe Cary’s New Terrestrial Globe Exhibiting the Tracks and Discoveries made by Captain Cook; also those by Captain Vancouver on the North-West Coast of America, and M. de la Perouse on the Coast of Tartary -- Cary’s New and Improved Celestial Globe, on which is carefully laid down the Whole of the Stars and Nebulae contained in the Astronomical Catalogue of the Rev’d Mr Wollaston, F.R.S. Compiled from the authorities of Flamsteed, De La Caille, Hevelius with an extensive number from the Works of Miss Herschel.

Publication

Description
Diameter of spheres: 53.5 cm. (21 inches); covered with two sets of 18 engraved paper gores, from the equator to the poles. The graduated brass meridian circle is set in a wooden horizon ring, with engraved paper surface containing: amplitude and azimuth; abbreviations for wind directions; zodiac symbols; calendar with names for months. The horizon ring, meridian circle and sphere are within a Sheridan circular mahogany frieze with three turned, tapering reeded legs with brass caps and castors; joined by an Y-shaped stretcher, centered by a circular brass compass with original needles and engraved paper dial. Fine original condition with only a few signs of rubbing.

References

A superb matched pair of English Regency period terrestrial and celestial globes

John Cary, the elder (1755-1835) was a prominent English cartographer, engraver, globe maker and publisher. With his brother William, J. & W. Cary was among the most successful of the thriving London map, globe and instrument trade of their day. Their largest pair of globes, is finely engraved and hand-coloured as issued.

The terrestrial sphere shows the routes of the eighteenth century circumnavigators and explorers of the north Pacific, James Cook and his followers; Vancouver, La Perouse, Phipps, Persikring, and Russian navigators including Rasmymoff. Important new information of the American northwest and Asian northeast coasts appears clearly on the scale afforded by this size globe. Kept up to date, the 1819 edition includes the route and discoveries of John Ross in South Shetland Is. (discovered by William Smith in February, 1819); and the Northwest Passage, found by W.E. Perry in 1819/20 (with the legend Winter’s Har’b’r of Perry & Liddie). In advertisements for his 21 inch globes in various of his geographical works, Cary stated that he had availed himself of the voyages of Mungo Park (West Africa); “Clark & Lewis(!)” (Western U.S.); Humboldt (Latin America); Flinders (Australia); Elphinstone (maritime) and Capt. Ross (Arctic). Of further interest is the political border between the U.S. and Canada, indicating that the U.S. controlled lands well north of what the final resolution would proclaim a few decades later.

The celestial globe, with axis running through the celestial poles, was also kept current with the astronomical findings of scientists including the renowned British astronomer Caroline Herschel, who updated and corrected the “Observations of the Fixed Stars” of Flamsteed. “It contained some 3,500 stars, more than any previous globe.” - Kanas.

Celestial globes had been used in classical Greece to portray the heavens, but it was not until the 1490s that the use of terrestrial globes was recorded. Fine examples were made in limited quantity during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries from engraved gores, and by the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries globes came into popular use.

Sir Herbert G. Fordham, writing in 1925, noted: “Globes, once so essential in polite education, have almost entirely disappeared. John Cary merits special notice as a maker and publisher of globes, both terrestrial and celestial.” Earlier globes often carried obsolete geographical or astronomical information, while Cary’s incorporated many contemporary geographical discoveries made during an historic period of active exploration. That new information is portrayed cartographically on this important pair of globes.
“The survivors lived on sea elephants, penguins, and sea-birds”

First published in 1833, this is an account of a voyage to the Pacific Ocean and the author’s eventual shipwreck on one of the Pacific Crozet deserted islands.

“The survivors lived on sea elephants, penguins, and sea-birds, and endeavored to build a boat, in hopes of finding a rescue vessel. Before it was finished, the American ship Philo touched at the island and rescued them. After an altercation with the captain… they were put ashore on St Paul Island… three months later they were taken to Tasmania, where Goodridge lived for many years” (Hill).

The ‘Addenda’ gives much information about Van Dieman’s Land for the would-be émigré, however: “In my first edition I gave a very lengthened account of Van Dieman’s Land; but as I have found that it was not a subject of general interest, I have now only given the principal points on which enquiries have been made; but shall be happy to reply to any further questions which the information I have obtained by a long residence in that country may enable me to answer.”
The earliest known view of any portion of Miami Florida

The earliest known view of Fort Dallas at the mouth of the Miami River, and as such, the earliest view of any portion of Miami, Florida, also of the earliest known surviving structure in Miami: initially slave quarters, then the Julia Tuttle Mansion, now relocated to Lummus Park.

The map shows both the north and south banks of the Miami River, which is noted as being ‘five miles long’, at the point where the river empties into Biscayne Bay, which is ‘3 to 8 miles wide, 40 miles long’. Fort Dallas appears on the north bank, as a cluster of small unfortified buildings. Each is identified by number in the legend on the upper half of the sheet. The living quarters of the officers stationed at the fort from 1849 to 1850 are shown: Major Woodbridge, Dr Adkins, Lieut Robinson, and Lieut. De Sagnol. They were in charge of a garrison of 51 soldiers, so naturally the view also names the Hospital Tent, the Company F Kitchen, Log House, Bake House, a ‘stone building unfinished company F 2 artillery’, and ‘Stone building unfinished unoccupied’. These last two are clearly the stone structures begun by William English and completed by the army in the 1840s and 1850s.

On the south bank of the Miami river is ‘Mr. Duke’s Officer Boarding House’. Reason Duke was keeper of the lighthouse at Key Biscayne. The artist shows boats in the river, identified as ‘Kate - Lieut. Robinson’s sail boat’, ‘Mary - Mr Duke’s government sail boat’, ‘Lieut. Robinson’s small skiff’, ‘Dallas government Lighter’ and a ‘Canoe’. Elements of earlier native occupation are noted as ‘Mound supposed to have been made by Indians’, as are elements of natural topography and vegetation.

Fort Dallas was named after Commodore Alexander James Dallas of the U.S. Navy. Dallas had had a distinguished carrier in the navy. His most famous exploits came during his time as head of the West India Squadron, in the 1820s, when he fought piracy and slavers in the Caribbean.

Built on private land purchased in the early 1830s by Richard Fitzpatrick. During the Second Seminole War of 1836, the fort consisted of tents and other temporary structures, and was occupied periodically by the Army between 1836 and 1838, and then consistently from October 1839 to January 1842.

By 1843, with the war over, and Fitzpatrick’s plantation in ruins, he sold the land to his nephew William English, who erected more permanent buildings on the site, including stone foundations for a mansion house and slave quarters. Importantly, in 1844, he laid out the village of Miami along the river, and was able to sell a small number of lots, before hightailing it to California and the Gold Rush of 1849. Rather tragically, he died there of a self-inflicted gunshot wound.

During the hiatus between the Second and Third Seminole Wars, in October of 1849, Fort Dallas was again occupied, this time by Company F of the 2nd Artillery Regiment, for a period of about 15 months. In 1855 the fort was occupied long enough for the stone structures to be
completed, and the fort expanded. However, by the Civil War, the fort was abandoned and nothing much left of it by the 1870s. In 1891, Julia Tuttle, the founder of the City of Miami, purchased the site, and converted the slave quarters into a mansion. In the 1920s the building was transported, stone by stone, to Lummus Park, where it is today, acclaimed as the oldest extant structure in Miami.

Though Florida’s southeast coast had been explored in the eighteenth century, Miami appears late in the cartographic record. A 1743 manuscript of South Florida by Father Joseph Xavier Alana, indicates a short-lived Spanish Mission (‘Santa María de Loreto’) on the north bank of the Miami River, but the first ap to use the name ‘Miami’ in the immediate area was Disturnell’s 1847 ‘Mapa de los Estados Unidos de Mejico’. Efforts to locate plates related to William English’s subdivision of the village of Miami in the mid-1840s, have been unsuccessful. The earliest known large-scale maps of the Miami area seem to be the two maps drafted by a member of the Coast Survey in early 1840, being a small plan of ‘The mouth of the Miama [sic] River, entering into Kay Biscaine Bay’, and a small ‘Topographical Sketch of the Miami River’. The anonymous cartographer is probably Second Lieutenant James M. Robinson of New Hampshire, who served in Company F of the 2nd U.S. Artillery Regiment. Robinson is credited with the construction of the two barracks built between 1849 and 1850, and as a source for the Coast Survey maps of 1850 and 1852, by Frederick H. Gerdes (1809-1884), who surveyed the Biscayne Bay area and the Miami River.

Provenance:
Archive of the Pearson family of New Hampshire.
Chart chest

Rare and fine chart case, probably made by the American chart maker, mapseller, and cartographer James R. Hobbs, active in the late eighteenth century. The box is finely painted with a banderole and monogram of an ‘H’ surmounted by a pair of compasses.
HEATHER, William

[Flag plate] To the Right Honourable the Master Wardens, elder Brethren of the Trinity House. This Plate Descriptive of the Maritime Flags of all the Nations, is most Respectfully Dedicated by their Obliged & humble Servt. William Heather.

Publication
London, Published as the Act directs, William Heather, at the Navigation Warehouse, No. 157, Leadenhall Street, July 12th, 1800.

Description
Engraved flag plate, fine original colour, colour key to flags lower right.

Dimensions
650 by 820mm (25.5 by 32.25 inches).

A fine example of William Heather’s flag plate, featuring all the known naval ensigns, including those of privateers and pirates.

The plate consists of 125 naval ensigns, beginning with the principal British flags, and continuing to list all the major European countries, their principal ports, China, Persia, the United States, together with the major trading companies, such as the Dutch and English East India Companies.

Also marked are two pirate flags, named on the plate ‘Rovers’, and ‘Algerine Rover’: the ‘Rover’ coloured red is marked with an hour glass with wings, a raised arm holding a cutlass, and a skull and cross bones; the ‘Algerine Rover’ is also coloured red and marked by human skull.

Although the Rover flag was intended to show three of the most common pirate or privateer marks in use in the Caribbean and New World; this particular arrangement can be traced to the pirate Christopher Moody (1694-1722), who engaged in piracy along the North and South Carolina coast between 1711-1718, and who was famous for sparing no lives. He would later be captured and hanged at Cape Coast Castle in Cabo Corso, in Ghana. The red colour of the flag meant no quarter would be given, the hour glass with wings signified time was running out for his victims, with the message being delicately reinforced by the raised arm with a cutlass, and a skull and cross bones.

Neither of the flags on the chart is coloured the traditional black. There is evidence for both colours being used by pirates, both in the Mediterranean and the New World. It has been suggested that the black flag was flown to tell other vessels that if they surrendered, their lives would be spared. If the warning was not heeded then the red flag would be raised and blood would be spilled.

The Jolly Roger!
Andrews was a Captain in the Royal Navy, a mathematician and author. The first volume is a detailed pilot of the Caribbean; beginning with the Windward Islands, the volume then gives sailing directions for the north coast of South America, from Guyana to the Yucatan Peninsula; the Gulf of Mexico, the Gulf of Florida, Cuba, Jamaica, Haiti, the Dominican Republic, and Bermuda. The text ends with a discussion regarding the prevailing winds and currents in the West Indies, and is accompanied by eight lithographed coastal profiles. The second volume provides information on the individual islands that make up the West Indies, with the notes containing information on the island’s history, topography, governance, and principal manufactures. The entry on the Hayti provides information on the derivation of the word buccaneer:

“The settlers captured the pigs and horned cattle that had become wild, sold the skins to the traders that touched on the coast, and smoked the flesh, both for food and for sale, on a grating of wood called a baucan (sic), whence was given them the name of buccaneers. Joining arms with freebooters, who, in 1632, settled in Tortuga, and who were named filibusters, from the small fast fly-boats in which the expeditions were carried on, they became marauders by sea and land, and their successes rendered the name buccaneer terrible all over the West Indies.”

It has been suggested that the “baucan” used to cook meat was rendered by Spanish colonists as “barbecoa”, or barbecue. “Baucan” became “boucane” in French, and the word “boucanier” was used in to designate local hunters, which in turn became the English word “buccaneer”.

In 1856, just after the publication of the first volume of the work, the major European powers signed the Paris Declaration Respecting Maritime Law. The declaration effectively banned the use and commissioning of privateers, during war time. Thus bring to an end the last vestige of “legalised” piracy. The declaration would later be ratified by 55 states. One notable exception was the United States that argued that, not possessing a great navy, it would be obliged in time of war to rely largely upon merchant ships commissioned as war vessels, and that therefore the abolition of privateering would be entirely in favour of European powers, whose large navies rendered them practically independent of such aid. It did however, eventually sign up to the treaty a year later. Many of the evocative lithographs are after paintings by marine artist, Thomas Goldsworthy Dutton (1820-1891).
Select Bibliography


Church, E and Cole, G. A catalogue of books relating to the discovery and early history of North and South America, forming a part of the library of E.D. Church. (New York: Peter Smith, 1951).


Suárez, T. Early Mapping of Southeast Asia. (Singapore: Periplus, 2008).


Worms, L. and Baynton-Williams, A. British Map Engravers. (London: Rare Book Society, 2011).