Early Western Images of Asia
EARLY WESTERN IMAGES OF ASIA

An Exhibition Mounted by the John Carter Brown Library
for the
1982 Annual Meeting of the New England Conference
of the Association for Asian Studies

October 16, 1982
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On the occasion of the 1982 Annual Meeting of the New England Conference of the Association for Asian Studies, the John Carter Brown Library welcomes the opportunity to look at its collection from a different perspective. Instead of viewing the materials from an Americanist point of view - the ways in which the discovery of America influenced Europe - the Discovery is here considered as only one element on the larger stage of Eastern-focused travel in the Renaissance. Wealth and exoticism, early Western images of Asia which captured the European imagination, can be followed through books here in the John Carter Brown Library, for the discovery of America was part of the same dynamic as the European push toward the Spiceries and was treated as such by many early writers and chroniclers.

Vasco da Gama’s voyage around the tip of Africa to India in 1497-99 and his establishment of a factory at Mozambique in 1503 built the foundation for the Portuguese foothold in the East. Bolstered by strict security, she developed and strengthened her hold on the spice-producing areas during the first part of the sixteenth century. A small country burdened with a vast empire to manage, Portugal inevitably lost her monopolistic grip on Asian commerce; agents couldn’t be everywhere, and as the century progressed the repeated prodding and testing of Lusitanian muscle revealed weaknesses that were eventually capitalized upon by her competitors, especially Holland and England.

This exhibition makes no attempt to explore the complex historical events which shaped the European presence in the East. With the understanding that the product of the printing press was both an agent and a reflection of change, however, we can offer a taste of the kinds of eastern images that were offered up to Europeans in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

After the most basic European question about Asia - Is it possible to get there from here? - was answered, it is apparent that a publication pattern gradually emerged in dealing with information on the East. Simply put, the years before
and during active Portuguese control were characterized by reports of free-
lance, non-Portuguese, non-official travellers, while the late sixteenth
century and the seventeenth century (the years which witnessed the decline
of Portugal's power) were marked by the Lusitanian chronicles, the English
collections of travel literature, and the publication of the reports of Dutch
activities in the Spice Islands.

Both before and during the early years of Portuguese control, individuals of
many nationalities travelled extensively in Asia and brought back tantalizing
tales of wealth and possibilities. The impact of their reports on organized
national activity was slight, however, because these accounts were essentially
eclectic and were absorbed on a "catch as catch can" basis into the general
body of European romance and knowledge. Dependent on the charisma of the
storyteller and upon the particular moment, these early commentaries often
were not integrated into a formal, growing body of information. But as Portu-
gal's hold on eastern trade weakened, the character of European published
works on Asia shifted from the half-true, half-romantic tales of the early tra-
vellers to the chronicles and collections of the closing years of the sixteenth
century. England and Holland marshalled reports and travel relations into
coherent pictures to provide the information necessary for capitalizing on gaps
in Lusitanian control, and publication of the accounts of the voyages of the English
and Dutch developed an increasing geographical, navigational sophistication. A
positive outgrowth of managing a previously unmanageable expanse of ocean, this
knowledge was certainly an element in building the confidence necessary to assert
national economic imperatives in the East.

While the great works of Portuguese literature looked back to the days of grandeur,
English publications about Asia were most usually organized with the express pur-
pose of encouraging present and stimulating future activity. It might even be sug-
gested that while the Portuguese (who looked back) and the English (who looked to
the future) published works which were romantic in concept, the Dutch, always
grounded in the present, produced reports which were the most practical. The
ongoing process of integrating traditional, romantic images of Asia with real-
ity provided the information necessary to challenge Portugal and usurp her pre-
eminent place in Eastern trade. For the challengers, then, graphic and written images of the East were in many ways a rallying point for expansion of empire.

Exhibitions tend to teach the compiler more than they instruct the audience. Initially, it was assumed that this occasion would provide an opportunity for displaying books in our collection which have seldom been formally presented here, for opening cornerstone books of an Americana library to pages not ordinarily displayed. Yet most rewarding has been a renewed appreciation for the universality of the "great books" in the John Carter Brown Library.

Acknowledgements

Thanks are due to the Annmary Brown Memorial for the loan of In somnium Scipionis by Macrobius and Trattato dell'Indie by Sir John Mandeville, and to the John Hay Library for the loan of von Breydenbach's Die Heiligen Reysen. Thomas H. Henry, an Associate of the John Carter Brown Library and a collector of material on Southeast Asia, has kindly consented to lend four early Dutch manuscript charts from his private collection.

We would like to especially thank Professor Lea Williams for his suggestion to mount an exhibition on Asia, as well as for his thoughtful comments throughout the entire process. Production of the catalogue has been supported by the New England Conference of the Association for Asian Studies.

Catalogue and exhibition by Susan L. Danforth
With the assistance of Ann Hintenlang
CASE I - BACKGROUND


Rome was the center of authority and unification in the West in the first century B.C. Relative stability encouraged direct trade with the East which continued until the third century A.D. when the rise of Arab powers rendered free European travel impossible. Strabo wrote six books on Asia, and although he was aware of the eastern trade he preferred to perpetuate the legends of Homer rather than to incorporate the factual data which no doubt flowed in through commercial channels. Though he made no step forward, his writings conserved the works of earlier geographers which might otherwise have been lost.


Although little more than conventionalized pictures of the earth and its waters, ecclesiastical maps of the Middle Ages (so-called T O maps) retained the truth in respect to a junction between the Indian Ocean and a continuous ocean surrounding the landmass which made up the known world of Europe, Asia and Africa.

Macrobius' picture presents a traditional, but extended view. His known world is surrounded by water and Africa is peninsular in nature, but an ocean separates the landmass of the north from the conjectured balancing antipodes in the south. The basis for the printed map shown here was a tenth-century drawing which illustrated Macrobius's fifth-century exposition on the habitable character of the southern zone.

From the collection of the Annmary Brown Memorial.
Before Ptolemy's time, popular knowledge and conjecture pointed to an open Indian Ocean and a peninsular Africa. There is reason to believe that this concept of world geography was a commonplace in the minds of European sailors and merchants when Ptolemy's maps, showing an enclosed Indian Ocean, were first printed in 1477.

The cartography is called "Ptolemaic," but scholars have concluded that neither the maps nor the text in the Geographia are Ptolemy's original work. It is, rather, an academic compilation by Byzantine scholars of the tenth and eleventh centuries based on Ptolemy's theory of mapmaking and his extensive list of the locations of cities.

Pierre d'Ailly was probably aware of early travels to Asia; nonetheless, he relied upon the traditional accounts of Pliny, Solinus and Isidore of Seville and chose to perpetuate legends of griffins and other fantastic beasts. But from Roger Bacon's writings he learned of Aristotle's belief in the open Indian Ocean, insular Africa, and a habitable tropic zone. The presence of Columbus' annotated copy of Imago Mundi in the Biblioteca Colombina in Seville makes it probable that the Discoverer derived inspiration and confirmation in this volume for his own hopes of reaching Asia by sailing westward.

CASE II - EARLY TRAVELLERS

Early in the thirteenth century Genghis Khan established his authority over the Mongols in Central Asia and, after subduing China, embarked on a campaign of wider conquests toward the West across South Russia into Poland. Eventually, the Tartars settled down to the consolidation of their vast domains and developed an administrative system which was so efficient that travellers could cross the vast expanses of Central Asia with safety. Both missionaries and merchants took advantage of this situation, and for about a century there was a surprising volume of travel between Western Europe and the Orient.

In his journey to Cathay Marco Polo followed closely behind the initial group of Western friars who took advantage of the Tartar peace. He returned to Italy shortly before 1300 to dictate his *Divisament dou monde*, the most popular and influential book of its type, being represented by about 140 still-extant manuscript copies. Although Polo's travels were first written down in a form of the French language, the account was first printed in German in 1477 and a French edition was not published until 1556.

Events in the mid-fourteenth century radically altered the freedom of movement from Europe to the East: the Black Death swept Europe in 1348-49; the rise of the Ottoman Turks created a barrier between East and West; and, finally, the beneficent Tartar Empire ended its sway in China when the descendants of Kublai Khan were driven from the capital in 1368.


When Ludovico de Varthema of Bologna set out for the Near East in 1502, he found it wise to disguise himself as a Moslem. After travelling widely in the Indies, he cast off his Islamic pretensions among the Portuguese in Malabar and returned to Europe aboard a Portuguese ship in 1508. Varthema prepared a narrative for publication upon his return which immediately caught the imagination of the reading public—a popular success, many editions were published throughout Europe. Varthema was one of the last free-lance travellers to span the gap between the followers of Marco Polo and the Portuguese conquerors of the sixteenth century.


When Sebastian Brant was born in Strasburg in 1457, Gutenberg's press at Mainz had just begun its revolution in communication. When Brant matriculated at the University of Basel in 1475, the first edition of Ptolemy's *Geographia* was coming off the press at Vicenza. His *Ship of Fools* followed
Columbus' voyage by two years, and he died in Strassburg two weeks after Magellan's death in the Philippines.

Brant was part of a generation which witnessed phenomenal changes, but he was by no means an enthusiast for all the new ideas. His commentary on his contemporaries' fascination for the new and the unknown probably represented the views of many educated Europeans. Unwilling to accept as positive all the novel things and ideas brought to light by the eastern and western discoveries, Brant admonished the practitioners of the new geography to seek a more introspective life - "Many have mastered far-off lands still not a one himself understands."


This, the so-called Stevens-Brown map, is an earlier, though substantially similar version of the world map which appears in the 1513 Ptolemy. The outstanding anachronism in this map is the appearance of a second peninsula to the east of the Malay peninsula. This error occurred when Waldseemüller attempted to superimpose the geographical information of Marco Polo and the Portuguese explorers upon the Ptolemaic framework.

In the traditional Ptolemaic world map, an exaggeration of Indo-China joined with the non-existent Terra Incognita to give a southern boundary to the Indian Ocean. After news of da Gama's voyage around Africa across the Indian Ocean to India was incorporated by mapmakers, it became necessary to remove the old Terra Incognita which enclosed the Indian Ocean. At that time, however, it was not realized that the Indo-Chinese extension was also imaginary. This feature was retained in the maps, but without a Terra Incognita to tie it to, cartographers were forced to portray this land as a peninsula.


This map of Asia also appeared in the 1513 Ptolemy. In contrast to the
world map, however, there is no second Asian peninsula - an example of the difficulty in correlating new information with traditional viewpoints.

CASE III - THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA FROM AN ASIAN POINT-OF-VIEW

In viewing the discovery of America from an Asian rather than an American point-of-view, it is apparent that in the years following Columbus' arrival this western landmass underwent a gradual conceptual transformation. Beginning as the dream of Asia realized, North and South America gradually came to be viewed as a massive barrier to the riches of the East. As time went on and settlement became more secure, the New World was appreciated by Spain as a way-station and by her competitors as a convenient situation for forays against the yearly plate fleet which sailed from Manila to Spain via Acapulco.

The Dream of Asia Realized

10. Christopher Columbus. Epistola de insulis de novo repertis. Paris [after April 29, 1493]

Columbus, of course, believed to his dying day that he had made landfall on one of the off-shore Asian islands. When he returned to Spain from his first voyage in February, 1493 he composed an account to serve as a public announcement of the discovery. This was enclosed with a letter, now lost, to the Spanish sovereigns who were his sponsors. Transcriptions of the account were the basis for printed versions which circulated the news through Europe - ten editions in Spanish and Latin appeared in 1493-1494. This is the scarce Paris edition of which there are only two other copies in this country.
These hemispheres (the eastern is on the verso) copied from Martin Waldseemüller's great wall map of 1507, display rather dramatically perennial cartographical problems - the incorporation of new information into a standard body of accepted truth and the accommodation of small-area sketches and verbal information into a wider world picture. Waldseemüller here presents the Colombian view of the Discovery as an off-shore Asian landmass. However, by an inspired guess, he lays down the lands of North and South America (of which only discontinuous sections had been discovered) as an uninterrupted coastline, prefiguring the Pacific Ocean six years before Balboa's discovery.

The New World as a Barrier

Eventually, it became obvious that Columbus had not achieved Asia and coasting voyages along the eastern shores proved the extent and impenetrability of the northern and southern continents. Magellan's discovery of a southern passage to the Pacific was an event of the greatest import, but the difficulty and danger of this route convinced other nations (especially England) that the location of a passage in northern latitudes was of utmost importance to effective and profitable trading relations with Asia.

This map was drawn by or for Michael Lok, a London merchant who was the principal investor in Frobisher's expeditions of 1576-78. Published by Richard Hakluyt in his Divers Voyages, one of its principal purposes was to illustrate access routes from the North Atlantic to the Pacific. The Sea of Verrazzano in Lat. 40° N., with the narrow neck of land separating the Atlantic from the Pacific, was an illusion which arose from Verrazzano's misreading of the nature of the Carolina Outer Banks, a tantalizing misconception which was to make a deep impression on the minds of Englishmen.
The New World as a Way-Station


One of the earliest portrayals of the Solomon Islands, this map lays out the Spanish trade network and demonstrates both the way-station and the barrier aspects of North and South America.

CASE IV - Images


Most legends placed the dog-headed man in India. Many of his companions on this page, however, migrated to various lands according to the convictions of particular authors. The big-footed man (who used his foot as a sunshade) was sometimes located in South America.


The series of voyages published by De Bry in Germany might be loosely described as a kind of early seventeenth-century National Geographic. These volumes provided Europeans with a lavish, graphic view of the expanding world brought to light through the writings of the discoverers and explorers.

Above is a (very European) depiction of the Chinese and their costume.


This illustration describes an elephant hunt in Patani on the Malay Peninsula. Tame female elephants were used to lure wild males into a trap.

Few of the original watercolors which served as the engravers' models for book illustrations have been preserved. This copy of Thévenot's Relations was made up for presentation to Louis XIV and contains eighteen watercolors which describe Chinese costumes, customs, cities and monuments. Sixteen of these watercolors were used for the series of plates which appeared in Part III of this work.

The city depicted here (with a palm tree in the foreground) is Peking.

CASE V - Images and Legends of the East Interwoven with Tales of Early Travelers


This woodcut by Hans Holbein is one of the most attractive early world maps. Although geographically inaccurate and out of date when it appeared, its imaginative illustration and decoration make it highly prized for map collectors today. The border images include rare eastern plants, elephants, legendary peoples and the early traveler, Ludovico de Varthema (at lower right).

The diffusion of the Barlaam and Josaphat legend is an example of the spread of Indian literary themes into Europe. This version of the life and parables of Buddha, derived in all probability from the Bhagavan Bodhisattvascha, migrated first to the Levant. Translated into Latin, Barlaam and Josaphat were gradually absorbed into Christian mythology and were carried into Roman martyrology where they still figure today on November 27. In the thirteenth century Vincent of Beauvais incorporated an abstract of the legend in his Speculum historiale, and Voragine reproduced certain of its parables in the Golden Legend.


Although Sir John Mandeville claimed to have visited the lands he discussed, it seems certain that he never traveled much outside Western Europe. Nevertheless, many of his contemporaries accepted his claims at face value, and his book was so widely read that it was translated into every major language before 1500.

More than any other single work, Mandeville's Travels set the stylized half-realistic, half-fanciful image of the East that predominated in Western Europe during the Renaissance. Unlike Boccaccio, Mandeville utilized travel and mission accounts to their fullest and sought to integrate the newer knowledge with the more traditional views of the world.

From the collection of the Annmary Brown Memorial.


Throughout the late fifteenth century and into the first years of the sixteenth, the pilgrimage to the Holy Land continued to be popular. Although such journeys were of slight geographical consequence, the pilgrims did return with a wider mental horizon which bore fruit in the popular interest in
Renaissance exploration.

Most pictorial of all accounts is that of Bernhard von Breydenbach, Canon of Mainz, whose journey was notable, not for his commentary, which was medieval and unimaginative, but for the illustrations which accompanied his book. The woodcut shown here purports to give a true description of animals in the Holy Land. The drawing of the camel (its first representation in a printed book), the lop-eared Barbary goat, the dromedary and apes are, with a certain elasticity of imagination, easily recognizable. Although the unicorn is certainly fictitious, this was a serious attempt to depict animals of a foreign land.

From the Lownes Collection. The John Hay Library.

CASE VI - The Portuguese Hold on the Indies

Portugal made every effort to protect her eastern interests with tight security, even though the Crown's constant requirement for foreign capital resulted in numerous leaks of information. There were, however, no official or unofficial reports of national activities published inside Portugal in the first half of the sixteenth century, and not until her monopoly on the spice trade began to loosen did Portuguese chroniclers make use of available archival records to celebrate national accomplishments in print.


Just as the discovery of America was announced to Europe by the newsletters of Columbus and Vespucci, this same type of ephemeral literature heralded the Portuguese conquests in the Orient. The first official report of Portugal's activities in southern Asia is this Latin oration delivered to Pope Julius II by Diogo Pacheco, King Manuel's Vatican representative.

This piece relates to the campaigns of Francisco de Almeida along the coasts of East Africa and Malabar. Its publication history is typical of the way in which information about Portuguese activity was distributed throughout Europe. First published in Latin in Rome in 1506, another Latin edition appeared in Cologne in 1507, and Latin and German editions were brought out in Nuremberg in 1507. There was no Portuguese edition.


Italian capital helped finance many Portuguese commercial voyages, and Italians often accompanied these early ventures as record-keepers. This weak link in Portuguese security was a source for Eastern news disseminated by the presses in European publishing centers.

The Suma Orientale of Tomé Pires (1510-1512) and the Book of Duarte Barbosa (1518), both on the subject of Portugal's eastern empire, were first published by Ramusio in Italy. Even so, Ramusio did not know Pires' name and was unable to acquire information pertaining to the Spiceries, so tight was Portuguese security.

From the earliest years of their hold on the Eastern Spiceries, the Portuguese had available in Lisbon extensive documentation on all parts of Asia. Aside from the data gleaned in the course of administration of empire, there were several substantial narratives which explored Asian geography and native social practices. These works, however, were guarded as close secrets and were not published in Lisbon during the sixteenth century.

Christoval Acosta was born in Mozambique and practiced medicine for many years in India where he pursued his study of natural history. He evidently found time for extensive travel in the Orient, in the course of which he suffered shipwreck, captivity, and other hardships. His Tractado, written after he had come to Europe and settled in Spain, is of special interest since it contains many woodcuts of Eastern medicinal plants previously unknown in Europe.

26. Pedro Teixeira. Relaciones ... de un viage hecho por el mismo autor dende la India Orientale hasta Italia por tierra. Antwerp, 1610.

Considering the duration and extent of the Portuguese colonial effort in Asia, there are surprisingly few narratives of personal travel in the East. Perhaps here, too, the strictures of Portuguese security inhibited both the travel of free-lance adventurers and the publication of accounts of actual journeys.

One of the few known Portuguese private travellers was Pedro Teixeira, who made two voyages to India. After spending fourteen years in the East, he returned across the Pacific to Mexico, and from there to Portugal, the first man to go around the world from west to east. In 1604 he was back in Goa, shortly to return overland from Basra to Aleppo. His Relaciones is for the most part a description of the Basra-Aleppo journey, but he also gives an account of the Persian monarchy.


João de Barros, called the Portuguese Livy, began his career of literature as a boy. After service in West Africa, he entered the India House in Lisbon in 1528. He served there for forty years, and his position gave him
access to all the archives connected with Portugal's discoveries and conquests. In about 1540, he set to work chronicling the story of Lusitanian overseas empire, publishing the first volume in 1552. Distinguished both historically and stylistically, Barros' *Decades* (though the work is called, simply, *Asia*) follows Portuguese activity from 1420 through 1538. Shown here is an Italian translation of 1561.


The *Lusiads* is indeed the national poem and the supreme epic of Portugal's conquests in the East. The voyage of Vasco da Gama occasioned its composition and was the idea around which it grew; specifically, the Tenth Canto relates the deeds of the Portuguese in India up to the days of Camoens, himself. The *Lusiads* is to Portuguese poetry what Barros' *Asia* is to Portuguese prose.

CASE VII - Dutch Competition

29. Jan Huyghen van Linschoten. *Itinerario*. Amsterdam, 1596. Map: *Exacta & accurata delineatio ... in regionibus China, Cauchinchina, etc.*

In much the same way that Hakluyt's *Voyages* emphasized the possibilities of Oriental trade to Englishmen, Linschoten's *Itinerario* extolled that trade to the Dutch. In 1583, Linschoten had travelled from Lisbon to Goa, and for six years he lived (though apparently a Protestant) as a dependent of the Portuguese Archbishop. Although he never went far from Goa, he acquired detailed information about places as far afield as the Spice Islands and China, while his insight enabled him to realize the growing weakness of Portugal's power. After his return to Holland, Linschoten devoted his time to persuading his countrymen to send expeditions to the East.
His Itinerario was translated into English, German, Latin and French, and became the navigator's main guide for Eastern seas. The map of the East Indies shown here was drawn from Portuguese maps of the area and covers in great detail the eastern world known to Spain and Portugal, and to no other western countries, at the close of the sixteenth century.

30. Jacob Corneliszoon van Neck. Het tweede boeck, journael oft Daghe-register ... Middleburg, 1601.

In 1598 four fleets sailed from Holland to the East - two (Mahu and van Noort) by the Strait of Magellan and two (Houtman and van Neck) by the Cape route. Houtman's expedition proved disastrous; the commander was killed and John Davis, chief pilot on the voyage, offered his services and information to the English East India Company on his return. Better luck awaited van Neck, who was able to establish a factory on Bantam and return with a profitable cargo. This latter voyage did much to establish Dutch supremacy in the archipelago and led to the formation of the Dutch East India Company (1602) and the concentration of Dutch colonial activity on Java and the Spice Islands.

31. Olivier van Noort. Description Du Penible Voyage Faict Entour De L'Uni-vers ... Amsterdam, 1602.

Various Dutch voyages through the Strait of Magellan were described in popular narratives. The account of van Noort's circumnavigation is especially interesting because of its descriptive passages on Japan; the engravings of Japanese shipping and natives are among the earliest done in Europe.


Willem Schouten's story of his passage around Cape Horn was printed in Amsterdam in 1619. The journal of his shipmate, Jacob Le Maire (who, it is said, died in a fit of frustration at having his ship confiscated by
Dutch authorities in Java for infringement of trade monopoly) was included with the official account of Spilbergen's voyage, the fifth circumnavigation of the globe.

Accounts such as these, which included stories of piratical forays against the Spanish and Portuguese, emphasized successful Dutch challenges to established sovereignty in the New World and the East Indies.


This is a revised and enlarged edition of a geographical encyclopedia first published in 1695. It contains the earliest detailed representations of Dutch men and ships ever printed in a Japanese book.


This ethnographical work depicts a man and a woman from each of the forty-two barbarian countries (including China) outside of Japan. While most of the representations are purely fanciful and are probably derived from Chinese sources, the Dutch couple, dressed in costume of ca. 1680, are apparently drawn from life.

CASE VIII - English Efforts


Anthony Jenkinson, an Englishman in the employ of the Muscovy Company, sailed to Russia in 1557 with the immediate purpose of establishing trading relations in Central Asia. He also cast an eye toward following in Marco Polo's footsteps to China, but the eastern lands were in turmoil, and trade with Cathay had all but ceased. Although his ultimate goal of reaching China was frustrated, Jenkinson was the first Englishman to visit
Central Asia. The northern land route never proved practical for organized and regular trading relations with the East, but Jenkinson's geographical observations were incorporated by Ortelius into the first modern map of Russia.

Before the mid-sixteenth century, England produced few geographical works of major importance. In the seventy-five years which followed, however, English writers came into their own with the kind of travel literature for which that country became so well-known - collections of voyages. The works published by Eden, Hakluyt and Purchas were more complete than any that had gone before, but they also served an important function as propagandist pleadings for the creation of an English overseas empire.


Dressed as a Moslem, John Newbery set out on a private trading journey through the Middle East in 1581. The venture was a success and he had no difficulty finding associates to accompany him on his next enterprise to India in 1583. The travellers were gone for eight years, during which time Newbery died somewhere in Asia. One of his companions, Ralph Fitch, returned to London and gave a detailed report to Richard Hakluyt. Fitch was observant; he described trading routes and pinpointed areas of Portuguese weakness. This was the kind of first-hand data which Hakluyt eagerly sought for his publications.


In 1607 William Hawkins went to India as an agent of the East India Company
on the first of the company's ventures to touch the Indian mainland. After a year of negotiations he gained entrance to the court of the Great Mogul where he remained for three years. Although well-treated, he was unable to obtain a formal grant to establish an English factory. Utterly frustrated at having to conduct business on an unofficial, day-to-day basis he finally joined a caravan and began the long journey home. Hawkins died in Baghdad but his journal, which contained an excellent description of India and the trade routes, was brought back to London by his servant and utilized by Purchas.


The ultimate propaganda piece for expansion, the story of Drake's circumnavigation celebrates English mastery of the seas and her willingness to challenge other nations' established assumptions of domain in the Eastern and Western hemispheres. In the words of the title-page, this work was "offered ... for the stirring up of [England's] sick spirits, to benefit their Countrie, and eternize their names by like noble attempts."


The East India Company had been active commercially since the days of Queen Elizabeth and had struggled with varying degrees of success to compete with Portuguese and Dutch trading interests. Richard Hakluyt played an active part in founding the Company and was the probable author of a memorial written in 1600 entitled Certaine Reasons why the English merchants may trade into the East Indies.
The continuing struggle (and the propaganda required to keep the struggle alive) is illustrated by this Company tract. The enumeration of concerns on the title page echoes the sentiments expressed by Hakluyt eight-one years before.

CASE A

40. [Bombay Harbor, 1678?] Manuscript, in ink and colors on vellum.

When Charles II married Catherine of Braganza in 1662, Bombay, Tangier, and a large sum of money constituted her dowry. Her father, the Portuguese king, was willing to pay a price to gain English military support in his struggle to maintain independence from Spain, but there was no enthusiasm on his part or on the part of his subjects for the cession of territory in India.

Bombay was the first piece of Far Eastern soil to come under the sovereignty of England, but resistance by the Portuguese took various forms short of actual hostilities. This chart, a part of the Library's Blathwayt Atlas of seventeenth-century English empire, was used by the Plantations Office in the prolonged Anglo-Portuguese dispute concerning Bombay and its harbor.
CASE B

The Brown Papers, consisting of some 350,000 manuscript documents dating from 1726 to 1913, constitute a rich source for the study of American business practices. These papers form the archives of one of the earliest American commercial houses to base its operations on diversity of business enterprise. Almost every form of investment is represented—shipping in the West Indies and the Orient, banking, manufacturing, transportation, western lands and corporate investment. Shown here is a sampling of material pertaining to trade with the Orient.


42. "Goods del. for Gibbs & Channing. 1804. From Ship Arthurs Cargo"


44. A New Chart of the Southern Coast of Africa... Map in The Oriental Pilot, London, 1799.

Manuscript annotations, voyage of 1817.
The Dutch replaced the Portuguese as the major European power in the East Indies in 1641 with the capture of Malacca. For the next 150 years the Dutch East India Company (the VOC) controlled trade and navigation in the archipelago. The wealth of the Indies was widely dispersed throughout thinly populated islands which covered an area larger than the United States, and the VOC ships were required to navigate shallow, reef-strewn seas in order to call at the many small ports. Because the acquisition of navigational knowledge was expensive in terms of lost ships and cargo, information was jealously guarded; and in order to control the number of charts in circulation and to keep them from the hands of competing English and Danish merchants, the VOC chose to use hand-drawn charts rather than to employ mass production techniques such as engraving.

Immediately upon its formation in 1602, the Company appointed Petrus Plancius as Hydrographer to supervise the cartographic process. In the early years, all chartmaking was done in Amsterdam under the supervision of Plancius and his successors, the Blaeus and the van Keulens, but another office was established in Batavia (now Jakarta) about 1660. Charts were usually made by several assistants - one in charge of the actual drafting of geographic outlines, while others lettered titles and placenames. The finished chart was issued to a ship’s master or mate who was required to review it at the end of his voyage and to report any new information which should be incorporated into a revised chart. The hydrographer would then have his assistant add this new data to all similar charts as they passed through the office.

The four charts displayed in Panels 1 and 2 are typical of seventeenth and eighteenth century Dutch sea charts and are representative of charts made by many nations for use by seamen at sea. Although vast quantities of these manuscripts were produced, most were casualties of heavy use and few survive today. The three parchment charts are after the school of Blaeu, possibly made in Amsterdam between 1650 and 1700. Finely drawn in several hands, they include information added at various times after their initial production. The paper chart of Bouton Strait was made in Batavia about 1745. While it is a good navigation chart, it lacks the beauty of those produced in Amsterdam.
45. [Coasts of Borneo and Java. Amsterdam? between 1650 and 1700] Manuscript chart, in ink and colors on vellum.

From the collection of Thomas H. Henry.

46. [Coast of Sumatra. Amsterdam? between 1650 and 1700] Manuscript chart, in ink and colors on vellum.

From the collection of Thomas H. Henry.

47. [Coasts of Borneo, Malaya, Siam, Cambodia, etc., Amsterdam? between 1650 and 1700] Manuscript chart, in ink and colors on vellum.

From the collection of Thomas H. Henry.


From the collection of Thomas H. Henry.

PANEL 3 - The Philippines


Pedro Murillo Velarde, a Spanish Jesuit, was dispatched to the Philippines in 1723. He had always shown a talent for cartography and sometime after his arrival in Manila he set to work gathering material for a chart of the archipelago.

In 1734 his large chart appeared, accompanied by engraved panels which depicted the dress and customs of the inhabitants of Manila, both native and foreign. The design of the panels and the engraving and printing of the chart
were accomplished by Nicolás de la Cruz Bagay and Francisco Suarez, native Tagalogs working in Manila.

In 1744 Murillo Velarde published a reduced version of this chart which became the standard model for European maps of the archipelago for more than a century. Shown here is a German copy of 1760.

50. [Chart of Manila Bay and the Straits of San Bernardino, ca.1780] Manuscript chart, in ink and colors on vellum.

51. [Chart of the west coast of Luzon Island, ca.1780] Manuscript chart, in ink and colors on vellum.

The dealer from whom the Library acquired these charts described them as having been drawn in England sometime in the early eighteenth century (ca.1720). Upon examination, however, it became apparent that neither the attributed place of origin nor the date was correct. Though the final word has not yet been said, it seems probable that they are late eighteenth century charts of Spanish or Portuguese origin.

Errors of placename transcription and placement on the larger chart are most striking and the spelling mistakes point to the possibility of a Portuguese draftsman. While many questions remain unresolved, it does seem certain that the maker of this chart had no first-hand knowledge of the area.

PANEL 4 - Japanese World Maps

Although maps were imported from Holland in the seventeenth century, European influence on the development of Japanese cartography was minimal since most of these maps were destined as presents for the Shogun or passed into the hands of officials who made little use of them. Scholars and cartographers who might have utilized Dutch cartographic materials were not permitted to learn the language and were compelled to rely upon treatises printed in Japan by the Jesuits for foreign scientific information.
In 1745, Japanese interpreters were officially encouraged to acquire proficiency in the Dutch language and translations of Dutch works were printed and circulated. Even so, evidence of Holland's impact on Japanese cartographic technique and practice is sparse until the closing years of the eighteenth century. The influence of the Dutch is more perceptible, however, in the genre of popular geographical literature, and it is obvious that there was a fair amount of general information about the outside world available to educated Japanese.

52. Nova Totius Terrarum Orbis Geographica Ac Hydrographica Tabula auct: Guiljelmo Blaeuw. Amsterdam [ca.1635]

This world map by Blaeuw is representative of the type of cartographic material brought into Japan by the Dutch in the seventeenth century.


This map bears traces of the Sino-European influence derived from the Jesuit cartographers, although it appears to be based chiefly on a late seventeenth century Dutch model. An interesting and apparently unique feature of this map is the Dutch words, *Algemeene Waereld Kaart* printed in Roman type on the stiff outer cover of karakami.

54. Sekisui Nagakubo. [World map] Mito [ca.1800]

PANEL 5 - Japanese World Map
