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In the Name of the Almighty

Preface

A significant concern of any scholarship is the degree to which the researcher is true to the facts, be it history, geography or the sciences. The facts of history are of foremost significance along with the study and interpretations that follow. It is often difficult to maintain what is more important – the facts or the interpretation. Facts, like the rays of light, are more often refracted through the minds of the scholar. Interpretations are culturally bound and are influenced by values and judgments. However, both are of equal importance since without the proper facts no conclusions can be drawn and without accurate interpretations, taking into account the element of time, events, culture, language, values and religion, no reliable conclusions can be drawn.

An atlas is “a collection of maps bound into a volume. The figure of the mythological Atlas supporting the heavens was initially used as a frontispiece in certain early collections of maps, such as Mercator’s Atlas (1595 A.D.), and the term came to be used for the collection itself.”¹ Geographical dictionaries or gazetteers are useful in locating and providing essential data about places while geographical atlases might be classified broadly for reference or they may be devoted to special topics. The universal reference atlas attempts to give, on a relatively large scale, as complete an image as possible of all the regions of the world. One of the most recognized and highly respected universal reference atlas is *The Times’ Atlas of the World*, which has been regarded as the most significant world atlas in English since World War II.² Another reference work, *The Times’ Index-Gazetteer of the World*, combined the indices of the five volumes of *The Times’ Atlas of the World* into a single volume, plus some 150,000 additional entries. Published periodically, *The National Geographic Atlas of the World*³ is a compilation of current maps prepared and published by the National Geographic Society.

In ancient Persia, which was a vast empire, the administration of the land would have been impossible without knowledge of geography and the use of various maps. However, in the course of invasions, especially those of Alexander (circa 328 B.C.) and the Arabs (7th century A.D.) many libraries, books and maps were destroyed. Therefore, in the Islamic period scholars relied primarily on non-Persian sources such as those of the Greeks and Romans.

With the rise to power of the “Abbasids and the expansion of the Islamic world, Muslims began to familiarize themselves with what was regarded as scientific geography.”⁴ This became possible because of the intimate knowledge Muslims acquired from the old and proud civilizations of the Persians, Greeks, Egyptians and Indians. The Caliph Abu Jafar al-Mansur (753-75 A.D.), who was also the founder of the city of Baghdad, should be credited as one of the earliest Caliphs who had a keen interest in encouraging the introduction of scientific books

from outside the realm of Islam. Books were translated from all the reputable civilizations of the past, irrespective of religion. This lasted for nearly two hundred years. While books were being translated into Arabic, translators who were often prominent scholars added their own knowledge of geography and astronomy to these texts.”⁵

Of significance is the incorporation of Indian knowledge of geography and astronomy into Muslim scholarship. *Surya-siddhanta* was one of the well known Sanskrit treatises that were translated into Arabic probably during the reign of al-Mansur. It served as the main source of Indian astronomy and geography and formed the basis of numerous works that were later created by Muslim scholars [mostly Persian] such as al-Khwarezmi (d. 847 A.D.) in his well known work entitled *al-Sind Hind al-Saghir*.⁶

Beyond Arab and Indian influences on Muslim geography and cartography, Persian influence was also significant. J. H. Kramers clearly shows that “during the 9th century Greek influence was supreme in Arab geography, but from the end of the 9th century the influence was more from the east than from the west, and it was from Persia [Iran] that these influences mainly came, for most of the authors came from the Iranian provinces.”⁷ Pahlavi texts had already been translated into Arabic by celebrated individuals such as Tabari, Mas’udi and Dinawari. However, they most likely drew their information from Pahlavi texts rendered into Arabic by celebrated scholars like ibn al-Muqaffa’ (d. circa 759 A.D.), who was familiar with both the Arabic and Pahlavi languages.⁸

Physical Geography of the Persian Gulf

Since the beginning of recorded history, the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea have often been defined as one of the two arms of the Indian Ocean. The former reached out into the heartland of the Middle East; the latter into the Mediterranean Sea. The Persian Gulf therefore served as an arterial waterway linking the Orient to the Occident. Situated in southwest Asia, the Persian Gulf extends over a huge waterway from the mouth of the Arvand Rud/ Shatt al-Arab (30° N 48° E) in the northwest to the Strait of Hormuz (26° N 56°30' E) in the southeast.

In the northern end section of this waterway, the north, northeastern and the east connect to Persia (Iran), while in the south and the southeast the Persian Gulf joins Oman and the United Arab Emirates (UAE), and in the west and southwest it links to Qatar, Bahrain and Saudi Arabia. Also, in the north-western region the Persian Gulf connects to Kuwait and Iraq.

The area covered by the Persian Gulf is approximately 230,000 square kilometers. Its length, from the mouth of the Arvand Rud/Shatt al-Arab in the northwest to Ra's Musandam in Oman, is 805 km. Its width ranges from 47 to 370 km., while its narrowest point lies at the mouth of the Strait of Hormuz.

The depth of the Persian Gulf in the eastern end is between 50 and 80 meters while in the western end it is 10 to 30 meters. The deepest portion of the Persian Gulf is 102 meters, approximately located 15 kilometers to the south of the Persian Tunb islands. The Tunb islands are at the entrance of the Persian Gulf overlooking the Strait of Hormuz. The southern region of the Persian Gulf has a depth of no more than 18 to 20 meters.

The Persian Gulf belongs to the third geological era and is estimated to have evolved some 30 million years ago. In the past the Persian Gulf was larger in dimension than it is today, but it has diminished in size because of geological changes and the accumulation of silt and river deposits that constantly pour into this body of water. These rivers, particularly Karkheh and Karun, carry so much silt that the land encroaches on the sea in the form of marsh tongues at the rate of about 50 meters each year.

Because of climatic changes and excessive heat, humidity, storms, sporadic lighting, northern winds, and oceanic whirlwinds, living conditions particularly in the southern shores of the Persian Gulf have always been difficult, if not unbearable.

During the summer, strong winds in the northern end of the Persian Gulf blow from the northwest towards the south, and in September the winds blow across with sporadic short and heavy showers. Local inhabitants identify these winds as *Shomali* (Northern), *Soheili*, *Sharji*, *Nashti*, and Coastal winds. In winter, the Persian Gulf often encounters intense storms carried across from the Mediterranean.

Iran's coastal range from the mouth of the Arvand Rud/Shatt al-Arab to the port of Bandar Abbas, a length of approximately 1259 kilometers, covers the north and northeastern portions of the Persian Gulf. Iraq is located in the western end of this waterway while the Shatt al-Arab/Arvand Rud is situated approximately midway between Iran (Persia) and Iraq and pours into the Persian Gulf. Kuwait has a Persian Gulf coastal length of about 60 km., while Saudi Arabia has a coastal range of 400 km. The UAE, which consists of 7 sheikhdoms, shares a coastal area of about 800 km.

The Persian Gulf holds the largest known oil reserves of the world. It is estimated to have 650 billion barrels of oil from the total estimated world reserves of 991 billion barrels. This is approximately 65% of the entire known oil reserves so far identified. In addition, the Persian Gulf is estimated to have 31 trillion cubic ft. of natural gas, or about 30% of the world's natural gas. These oil and gas reserves extend across the Persian Gulf, where currently more than 700 oil rigs are in active use. It is for good reason that the Persian Gulf is known as the storage house of the world's oil reserves. It is expected that the oil reserves of the Persian Gulf will continue to be a major source of energy throughout the third millennium.

In addition to oil and gas reserves, the Persian Gulf continues to have other mineral resources of significance, such as ferrous oxide, sulfur, iron, chlorine, lead, and tin. It is also one of the main centers for fishing and pearl diving, and at the bottom of the Persian Gulf one cannot but notice oil deposits probably made possible by gradual seepage from the Zagros mountain range.

The Persian Gulf nourishes many plants and animals; however, the high temperatures and the salinity reduce the abundance of available life. The sweet water that pours into the Persian Gulf is essentially from the Tigris, Euphrates and Karun rivers, which pass through Iraq and Iran. The water temperature of the Persian Gulf fluctuates between 75 to 90 degrees Fahrenheit (24-32° Celsius), and in the Strait of Hormuz the change is between 60 to 90 degrees Fahrenheit (16-32° Celsius). These high temperatures result in a swift evaporation of much of the non-saline water that pours into the Persian Gulf.

There are no rivers in the southern shore of the Persian Gulf and nearly all water deposits that pour into the Persian Gulf are from the northern end. In addition to the above-mentioned rivers, others that flow from Iran (Persia) are Jarrahi, Hendijan, Mand, Dalaki, Ahram, Shur, and Minab. The Persian Gulf also contains ports and islands situated in its northern and southern ends.

The Nomenclature of the Persian Gulf

According to one recent study conducted by Professor C. Edmund Bosworth, the earliest records available indicate that references to the Persian Gulf dates back to the Sumerian period in the third millennium B.C. Evidence of trade between Sumerians and the western shores of the upper regions of the Persian Gulf prevailed significantly. There is a historical text belonging to Lugal Zagesi, King of Uruk (2340-2316 B.C.), in which it is stated that "from the Lower Sea, by the Tigris and Euphrates, as far as the Upper Sea, [the god Enlil] provided him with clear routes."⁹ There is also an inscription of Sargon of Akkad, in which it is said that the god Enlil has granted him both the Upper and the Lower Seas. Apparently the Lower Sea refers to the Persian Gulf while the Upper Sea is a reference to the Mediterranean. This also tends to prove that at this point in time the Mesopotamian world controlled the region from the Persian Gulf to the Mediterranean Sea.¹⁰

The term Persian Gulf exists in the oldest available historical records and was used simultaneously by two prevailing civilizations, the Persian and the Greek. Since the Achaemenid dynasty, the Persians have called the Persian Gulf *Draya Parsa*, or the Persian Sea, while the Greeks have referred to it as *Sinus Persicus*, or the Persian Gulf. *Draya Parsa* later found its way into the Roman civilization and became known as *Mare Persicum*. During the Islamic period, Arab and Muslim geographers adopted the existing names from these prevailing and dominant civilizations and used it simultaneously. *Draya Parsa* came to be known as *Bahr-e Fars* (Arabic for Persian Sea) and the Greek *Sinus Persicus* was hence known as the Persian Gulf. Numerous old Arabic and Islamic documents confirm this theory and illustrate the geography behind the nomenclature of the Persian Gulf.

While both Persians and Greeks had different views regarding the geography of the world's waterways, both viewed the earth as a circle contained in an adjacent ocean in which the internal seas (tributaries) were formed from the larger oceans that extended beyond the circle.

Persians of the Achaemenid period believed that the internal waters of the earth consisted of two seas, the Persian Sea and the Western Sea (i.e. Mediterranean Sea). However, the ancient Greeks divided the internal waterways of the world into the *Sinus Persicus* (Persian Gulf), *Mare Caspium* or *Hyrcaenum* (Caspian Sea), the *Sinus Arabicus* (Arabian Gulf/Red Sea) and the Mediterranean. The Achaemenid formulated the policy of connecting the land and the ocean on the basis of the internal waterways of the world, by connecting the Persian Gulf and the Western Sea. During the reign of Darius, the king's road was drawn from Susa near the Persian Gulf to Sard in the Aegean Sea. Darius, the Achaemenid, tried to build a canal connecting the Red Sea to the Pirava (Nile) river, which pours into the Mediterranean. On a stone slab found in a region known as Tell-al-Maskhub (Zaghaziq) near Suez and belonging

to Darius is inscribed "the sea which extends from Persia to here." This tends to prove that the Achaemenid regarded the Red Sea as a mere extension of the Persian Gulf.

During the Achaemenid period the territories of the Persian Gulf formed the southern flank of the Persian federation. During the Parthian period (Arsacids)¹¹ Persians took major steps in improving their naval capacity and knowledge. They built large ships, included naval routes on their maps and were able to influence world naval history. The Arab historian, George Fadlo Hourani, confirmed that the Persians were able to leave behind a significant legacy in naval history.¹²

Although the immigration of Arabs to the southern shores of the Persian Gulf began in the second century of the Christian calendar, Persian domination in the southern regions of the Persian Gulf achieved a more profound status during the Sassanid dynasty (circa 224-642 A.D.).

The political rivalries of the two main powers, the Romans and the Persians in the northern end of the Persian Gulf, placed the Persian borders in the Mesopotamian region. In this region, the Sassanid established their governments by creating Hira (al-Hirah) or Monazereh in the northern and central regions of present day Iraq. This was intended to serve as a protective political wall against Roman pressure. As a geo-strategic response to the Persian forces, the Romans created the frontier government of Ghassan in the region corresponding to the present-day Syria in order to neutralize Persia.

In the Strait of Hormuz, "Mazundum," or "Masundum," means the place of entry into "Masun." Currently this name is referred to as Musnadam and is the place of entry into Masun, Oman from within Iran [Persia]. Oman also existed in the form of Omana and the present day port of Suhar was the name frequently used in the past with reference to the region. Arab migrations from the Arabian Peninsula and from Yemen towards the coastal areas of the Persian Gulf were common, as was the migration from Persia towards the southern coasts. It was on this basis that Arab geographers of the Islamic period like other geographers named the sea that separated Persia from the mass lands of the Arabian Peninsula as the "Sea of Persia," or the "Persian Gulf."¹³

Early historians and geographers of the Arab and Islamic world such as Tabari, Mas'oudi, Ya'qubi claimed that the entire Persian Gulf belonged to the ancient Persian world.

Like the pre-Islamic period, the mass land of the southern shores of the Persian Gulf was divided into two sections: Oman (Mason-e Peshin) and Bahrain (Hagar-e Peshin). Both names of the *Bahr-e Fars* and the Persian Gulf were common in the historical and geographical works of the Islamic period. Arab and Muslim geographers, as their predecessors, the pre-Islamic Persians, sometimes called the sea between the Iranian plateau and the Arabian Peninsula, Persian Sea and occasionally, imitating the ancient Greeks, they referred to it as *Sinus Persicus* (Persian Gulf).

On the other hand, the theory held by ancient Persian geographers that the world was divided by two seas is discussed in detail in the works of Islamic geographers. Among early Muslim geographers, the argument that a dual sea divided the internal waters of the world was

discussed in depth and these two seas were presented as *Bahr-e Fars* (Persian Sea) and *Bahr-e Rum* (Roman Sea); i.e., the Mediterranean.

Suhrah was a Muslim geographer of the 9th century. In his *Ajayeab al-Aqalim al-Sab'at ela Nahayat al-Amarat*, presented the south (eastern) waters of the world as the "*Bahr-e Fars*, and as *al-Bahr al-Junubi al-Kabir* (the southern great sea)." In other words, the *Bahr-e Fars* (Persian Sea) corresponded to the same huge southern (eastern) sea frequently mentioned. During this same period, other Muslim and Arab geographers called the sea in the south the Persian Gulf. For instance Abu Ali Ahmad ibn Umar ibn Rasteh, in his *Kitab al-A'laq al-Nafiseh* (903 A.D./290 A.H.), mentioned "a branch of the Indian Sea in the direction of Persia was called the Persian Sea."

During the 10th century A.D. coastal regions and the islands on the northern end of the Persian Gulf acquired distinct fame and reputation. Ship building and sailing by Persians in the southern waters of the Persian Gulf was again revitalized significantly.

Persian sovereignty over the southern regions of the Persian Sea encountered difficulties throughout the Islamic centuries and local groups emerged in different parts of Persia, and each managed to impose its sovereignty for a brief period of time. It was at the peak of the Safavid dynasty (1502-1723 A.D.) that Shah Abbas expelled the Portuguese from Hormuz, Bahrain and the Persian Gulf region in 1603 A.D., and was able to return the entire southern coastal areas of the Persian Gulf back to Persian control. This situation prevailed until the death of Nader Shah in 1747 A.D.

Though Persian authority and control over the southern regions of the Persian Gulf prior to the Islamic period was clear and well defined, during the Islamic dominance, particularly between the 11th to 14th centuries of the Islamic calendar (16th to 20th centuries A.D.), this authority was vague and uncertain. While autonomous tribes of the southern shores of the Persian Gulf continued to maintain their political affiliations with Oman or Muscat, their chiefs (Sultans and Imams) would enter into bilateral agreements with the Qajar's government and would rent sections of the northern and southern coast of the Persian Gulf and Strait of Hormuz from Persia and use the Persian territories to launch an occasional attack against Bahrain and other settlers on the southern shores of the Persian Gulf. This tenuous relationship between Persia and Oman often prepared the way for autonomous tribes of the region as well as the British to take advantage of the area and to pursue their own interests in a region that often seemed to resemble a no man's land.

However there has, until the British arrived in the Persian Gulf, never been any other authorities and government in the Persian Gulf. Another words, this is to say that Persia (Iran) had until then been only state and government in the entire region of the Persian Gulf; and all places, maritime or costal areas had been directly or indirectly subject to the Persian authorities.

"Persian Gulf: Atlas of Old & Historical Maps"

A careful review of the existing old and historical maps from about 3000 B.C. to 2000 A.D. can well serve as a documented account and a major source for Persian Gulf studies, taking into consideration its historical geography and nomenclature. This is a product of

precisely such a study, based on a chronological account of available atlases and authentic sources, selected and compiled by reputable scholars.

Four periods were taken into consideration for the classification of this atlas. The maps of the Persian Gulf as well as the maps of the eastern hemisphere were essentially divided into four categories as follows:

1. Antiquity (Since 3000 B.C.)
2. The Islamic Period and Middle Ages (8th to 15th century A.D.)
3. The Renaissance (16th through 18th century A.D.)
4. The Modern Era (19th through 20th century A.D.)

1. Antiquity

A. The oldest geographical map of the world is a Babylonian clay tablet belonging to the second to third millennium B.C., which is presented in this collection.

B. In most maps of antiquity on Asia and Africa, renowned cartographers of the world have used the name of *Sinus Persicus* with reference to the Persian Gulf. Claudius Ptolemy (87-150 A.D.), in the map of Arabian Peninsula, has provided a relatively complete account of the Persian Gulf. We have referred to several editions of this atlas such as the Latin version belonging to 15th century is kept in the National Library of Naples, and its Arabic translation bears the seal of the Ottoman Sultan Bayazid II (1481-1512 A.D.), and is available in the Hagia Sophia Library in Istanbul.

Other geographers and cartographers of fame, who have all used the name *Sinus Persicus* or its variants for the Persian Gulf are listed below: Thales of Melitus (546-640 B.C.), Anaximander (610-546 B.C.), St. Bochartus (ca.1500-500 B.C.), Hecataeus (509-472 B.C.), Herodotus (484-425 B.C.), Dicaearchus (347-285 B.C.), Eratosthenes (247-195 B.C.), Hipparchus (160-125 B.C.), Polybius (ca. 143 B.C.), Posidonius (Posidonii) of Apameia (135-50 B.C.), Crates of Mallos (180-145 B.C.), Geminus (ca. 77 B.C.), Strabo or Strabon (12 B.C. to 58 A.D.), Pomponius Mela (ca. 42 A.D.), Dionysius Periegetes (2nd century A.D.), Marinus of Tyr (after 150 A.D.), Marcianus of Heracles (ca. 330 A.D.), Julius Honorius (early 5th century A.D.), Orosius (after 417 A.D.), Cosmas Indicopleustes (6th century A.D.), Isidore of Seville (636-560 A.D.), Saint Beatus (797-730 A.D.), etc.

2. The Islamic Period and Middle Ages (8th to 15th century A.D.)

The earliest available atlases belonging to this period are translations of Ptolemy's Atlas into Arabic. However, the first known atlas of the world prepared by Muslim geographers is known as *Surat al-Mamuniyeh*, or the Map of al-Mamun, the Abbasid Caliph. This map was drawn by geographers and scholars of that period, who added new information on the expanded borders of the Islamic Empire. It is believed that this map was prepared in 833 A.D. under the direction of Abu Musa Khwarezmi (780-847 A.D.), the famous Persian mathematician. The map illustrates Asia, Europe and North Africa. Different versions of this map along with a complete version by Ibn Fadlallah al-'Umari (d. 1349 A.D.), *Masalik al-Absar*, are preserved at the Topkapi Sarayi Library in Istanbul.

During the Islamic period numerous maps were prepared by Muslim mathematicians, geographers and cartographers. The German scholar Konrad Miller (1844-1933) conducted extensive research on Arabic-language maps which he published during 1920-40, in a collection entitled, *Moppae Arabicae*. Miller collected, compared and selected 275 maps by Muslim geographers from various libraries and museums in Europe and managed to have these published as the *Atlas of Islam*. However, Krachkovskii (1883-1951 A.D.), the Russian scholar whose work translates approximately as *The History of Geography in the Islamic World*, describes Miller's work as a Persian Atlas and regards it as a continuation of the works of distinguished Persian geographers, pointing to the resemblance it bears to the geographical divisions provided by the Sassanid Empire (226-641 A.D.).

From among the famous mathematicians, geographers and cartographers of this period, one can mention Abu Yusef Yaqub ibn Is'haq al-Sabbah, known as al-Kindi (801-873 A.D.), Ibn Khordazbeh (820-913 A.D.), Muhammad bin Abdullah bin Jabbar al-Harrani, known as al-Batani (850-929 A.D.), and Abul Hasan Ali bin al-Husain bin Ali al-Mas'oudi (897-964 A.D.), all of whom repeatedly mention *Bahr al-Fars* (Persian Sea) in their maps. However, we have been unable to locate a special map on the Persian Gulf in their works.

After the geographer ibn Howqal, the limits of the Persian Sea gradually changed in the works of cartographers and geographers, sections of which became known as the Indian Sea and the Red Sea (Arabian Sea), as separate seas, and gradually a more precise limit of the Persian Sea became apparent, so much so that in 966 A.D., for the first time we encounter the name of *al-Khalij al-Faresi* [Persian Gulf] in Tahir al-Maqdesi's works.

Among the European cartographers of this period we may refer to the works of Paolo del Pozzo Toscanelli (1397-1482 A.D.), in his world map of 1460, Hartmann Schedel (1440-1514 A.D.); Francisco Rosselli (1445-1513 A.D.), in his spherical map of 1508; Martin Behaim (1459-1507), in his geographical globe and his semi-spherical maps drawn in 1492; and Juan de la Cosa (1460-1510 A.D.), in his world map, Martin Waldseemüller (1470-1518 A.D.) in his map of Arabian Peninsula, Sebastian Münster (1489-1552 A.D.), etc. who all display the Persian Gulf in various languages.

3. The Renaissance (16th through 18th century A.D.)

From the 16th century onward, as in most fields of learning, a significant advance is noticed in European cartography. These advances were made possible as Europeans translated works by Muslim scholars during the Middle Ages and were finally able to use the atlases prepared by Ptolemy and other geographers. New knowledge in mathematics and the science of cartography further advanced the field. This period can well be called the age of European advancements in cartography followed by a corresponding decline in the contribution of Muslim scholars to this field.

Following the Middle Ages, the acceptance of a spherical earth and the discovery of the New World led cartographers to create various map projections. The result of their efforts became the basis for maps and atlases in common usage today, albeit with greater accuracy and precision.

In the early Renaissance period, we refer to the works of Giacomo (Jacopo) Gastaldi (ca. 1500-1565 A.D.), Girolamo Ruscelli (1504-1566 A.D.), Bernardus Sylvanus (16th Century A.D.), Gerard Mercator (1512-1594 A.D.), Abraham Ortelius of Antwerp (1527-1598 A.D.), Battista Agnese (1536-1564 A.D.), Barent Langenes (ca.1548-ca.1602 A.D.), Al-Sharafi of Safax (Safaqesi) Family (1551-1601 A.D./959-1010 H.), John Speed (1552-1629 A.D.), Giovanni Antonio Magini (1555-1617 A.D.), Paolo Forlani (fl.1560-c.1574 A.D.), Petrus Bertius (1565-1629 A.D.), Willem Janszoon Blaeu (1571-1638 A.D.), Pieter van den Keere (ca. 1571-1646 A.D.), Philippus Cluverius (1580-1623 A.D.), Johannes Janssonius (1588-1664 A.D.), Joan Blaeu (1596-1673 A.D.), Henricus Hondius (Hondio) (1597-1651 A.D.), etc.

For the middle part of this era we have used the cartographic works of Frederick de Wit (1610-1698 A.D.), Theodoros Tholing (ca. 1634 A.D.), Nicolas de Fer (1646-1720 A.D.), Nicolaes Jansz. Visscher II (1649-1702 A.D.), Christophoro Weigelio (1654-1725 A.D.), Richard Blome (fl. 1660-1705 A.D.), Theodore Danckerts, (1663-ca. 1727 A.D.), Johann-Baptist Homann (1663/4- 1724 A.D.), Augustin Calmet (1672-1757 A.D.), Guillaume de l'Isle (1675-1726 A.D.), Herman Moll (1680-1732 A.D.), Wilhelmus Stukeley (1687-1765 A.D.), Gilles Robert de Vaugondy (1688-1766 A.D.), John Senex (fl. 1690-1740 A.D.), etc.

And finally at the end of this period Thomas Stackhouse (1706-1784 A.D.), Emanuel Bowen (1720-1767 A.D.), George Louis Le Rouge (1722-1778 A.D.), Rigobert Bonne (1727-1795 A.D.), Isaac Tirion (fl. 1732-1769 A.D.), Charles Francois Delamarche (1740-1817 A.D.), Jean Janvier (ca. 1746-1782 A.D.), Tobias Conradi Lotteri (fl. 1750-1777 A.D.), Samuel Dunn (fl. 1751-1794 A.D.), Louis Brion de la Tour (ca. 1756-1823 A.D.), Samuel John Neel (1758-1824 A.D.), Christian Gottlieb Theophil Reichard (1758-1837 A.D.), Fielding Jr. Lucas (1781-1854 A.D.), Fr. von Stuelpangel, (1781-1865 A.D.), etc. can be considered the most important cartographers.

Among the most famous cartographers of this period who have drawn special maps of the Persian Gulf one must mention Petrus Bertius (1565-1629 A.D.), John Thorntond (1652-1701 A.D.), C. van Keulen (1654-1715 A.D.), Pieter van der Aa (1659-1733 A.D.), Gerrit de Hann (fl. 1760 A.D.), Jean-Baptiste Bourguignon d'Anville (1697-1782 A.D.), Jacques Nicolas Bellin (1703-1772 A.D.), Guillaume Nicolas Delahaye (1727-1802 A.D.), Jacob van der Schely (fl. 1750-1770) and Carsten Niebuhr (1773-1815 A.D.).

A notable geographers of this time were Aaron Arrowsmith (1750-1833 A.D.), cartographer and hydrograph of the Prince of Wales, who in 1813, with the help of Captain Ritchie and Lieutenant Bartholomew R.B., charted a relatively advanced map of the Persian Gulf, entitled, *Chart of the Persian Gulph from Original Materials...*

4. The Modern Period (19th through 20th century A.D.)

The past two centuries have provided us with special maps of the Persian Gulf containing accurate information on the ports, islands, jetties and hydrography of the region. In addition to governments, different companies and agencies have taken part in the preparation and publication of maps of the various regions of the world, which are readily available.

The cartographic section of the British Admiralty was established in 1795. and began to prepare as well as to hydrograph the seas, particularly Africa, the Near East and the Far East. A

collection of 86 large and precise hydrographic maps prepared from 1828 to 1832 were published by Captain James Horseburgh (1762-1836), who was the cartographer as well as the publisher of the East India Company. This collection, which is now available in the Public Record Office (PRO) in London, was published in 4 volumes by the Archive Edition in 1990.

Among the most famous cartographers of this period we may refer to the works of F.A. Garnier (1803-1863), John Thomas (fl. 1814-1869), Louis Etienne (1815-1894), George Percy Badger. (1815-1888), John Dower (fl. 1825- c.1891), James Neele (fl. 1826-1845), George Long (1830-1854.), Thomas Kelly (1835-1843), Victor Levasseur (1838-1854), Peter Jackson (19th century.), Edward Weller (1861-1884), etc.

Regarding the geographical institutions we may refer to the Royal Geographic Society (1830), Orr & Dower (19th century), Tallis & Co. (1838-1851), John Bartholomew & Sons (since 1860) and Johnson & Ward Publishers (1860-1885), etc. All these geographers and institutions have called the waterway between Persia (Iran) and Arabian Peninsula as the Persian Gulf.

With the development and extension of international trade and sailing, the charting and publication of naval maps caused a significant improvement in navigation and ocean travel. After the first and second world wars maps containing precise information for military and civilian use were prepared and published foremost by the British, and later by the American Navy.

Due to the strategic location of the Persian Gulf and its abundant oil and gas reserves, numerous maps of the Persian Gulf have since been prepared which project accurate information on the ports, islands, jetties, hydrography and mineral reserves of the entire waterway.

Conclusion¹⁴

Political events in the past century have played a comparatively significant role in attempting to divert the course of events in the Persian Gulf by attempting to bring about significant changes in the nomenclature of the Persian Gulf. Early in the 20th century, with the granting of the D'Arcy Concession in 1901 and the actual discovery of oil in 1908, Iran [Persia] and the Persian Gulf acquired an all important political and strategic importance for the British. Britain was now here to stay at all costs, not only in Iran but the entire Persian Gulf region, and as long as she could.¹⁵

During World War I, the British role in the Persian Gulf and the Middle East was deliberately in the form of an aggressive expansionist policy of direct control of the region. Britain made sure to acquire control of the newly established Anglo-Iranian Oil Company by gaining access to a greater share of the D'Arcy Concession, but she also initiated a deliberate program of creating a rift among the ethnic groups in the region in order to separate the Arab world from the Ottoman Empire. The masterful plot and the heroic adventures of Lawrence of Arabia is a story well-known to all, whose artful intrigues served well the cause of the British and the Allies and encouraged the Arab Revolt¹⁶

Against the Ottoman hegemony in the Middle East. If the Ottoman Empire had not aligned herself with the Central Powers, perhaps there would have been no deliberate effort to separate the Arab world from the Ottoman Empire, and thus many of the claims which later developed, particularly after W.W.II, would have had a different twist and perhaps a different destiny altogether.

When Arab nationalism made a comeback in the Middle East after W.W.II, initially in Egypt, with the Egyptian Revolution of 1952, and in 1958 with the military coup of Iraq, occasional references to the "Arabian" instead of the "Persian" Gulf were voiced by the new leadership of both these countries. Having removed the monarchy, the military ruling council tried to unite the masses by a greater emphasis on the principals of Arab nationalism. However, this was only voiced foremost by the leadership in these countries, and even concepts such as Arab nationalism, Nasserism, Arab socialism, and Iraqi Ba'athist ideology never managed to unite the entire Arab world under a single leadership or ideology. Thus all efforts to thwart the name of the Persian Gulf hardly met with any measure of success.

Available documents confirm that until 1962 there was no doubt as to the name of the "Persian Gulf," and all of the Arab documents and even Arab school textbooks used the name of the Persian Gulf.¹⁷ However, with the gradual British departure from the region in the 1960s and the 1970s, more and more of the Arab leadership began to revise the historic name of the Persian Gulf. This diversion took on a more organized and intensive form following the 1979 Iranian Revolution, whereby most Arabs initially rallied to assist Iraq in her war efforts against Iran. From the very onset, the Persian Gulf became an "Arabian Gulf" in most Arab countries, and Iraq went so far as to rename the south-western Persian province of Khuzestan as "Arabistan." However, shortly afterwards Iraq turned her hostility towards her own benefactors by attacking Kuwait. Things began to change and many Arab states were more cautious at blindly following slogans which neither helped to economically unite or politically integrate the region under mutually accepted norms and realities. If the Middle East region as a whole, and the Persian Gulf in particular, hopes to move toward a direction which might eventually lead to political and economic integration of the region, one of the essential necessities is to act with discretion and mutual respect for individual, cultural, and historic norms and beliefs. However, despite the political turbulence and agitation in the Middle East in general and the Persian Gulf in particular, reputable academics have continued to remain faithful to the facts, as has the United Nations.¹⁸

The latter has confirmed the historic name of the Persian Gulf on numerous occasions, and tends to use this name on nearly all of its documents and publications. The present atlas is an effort towards documenting the prevailing facts of history. The publication of this atlas is a step in the direction of the efforts of the late scholar, Abbas Sahab, in order to prove the correct name of the Persian Gulf. In past years, our efforts have been concentrated on the collection of maps and records of the Persian Gulf. Fortunately, at present, by collecting over 2,300 maps from museums, libraries, private collections, as well as other records (in addition to those which Master Sahab had collected), we have created a valuable archive of old and historical maps for Persian Gulf studies.

Mohammad Reza Sahab
Tehran, September 2005

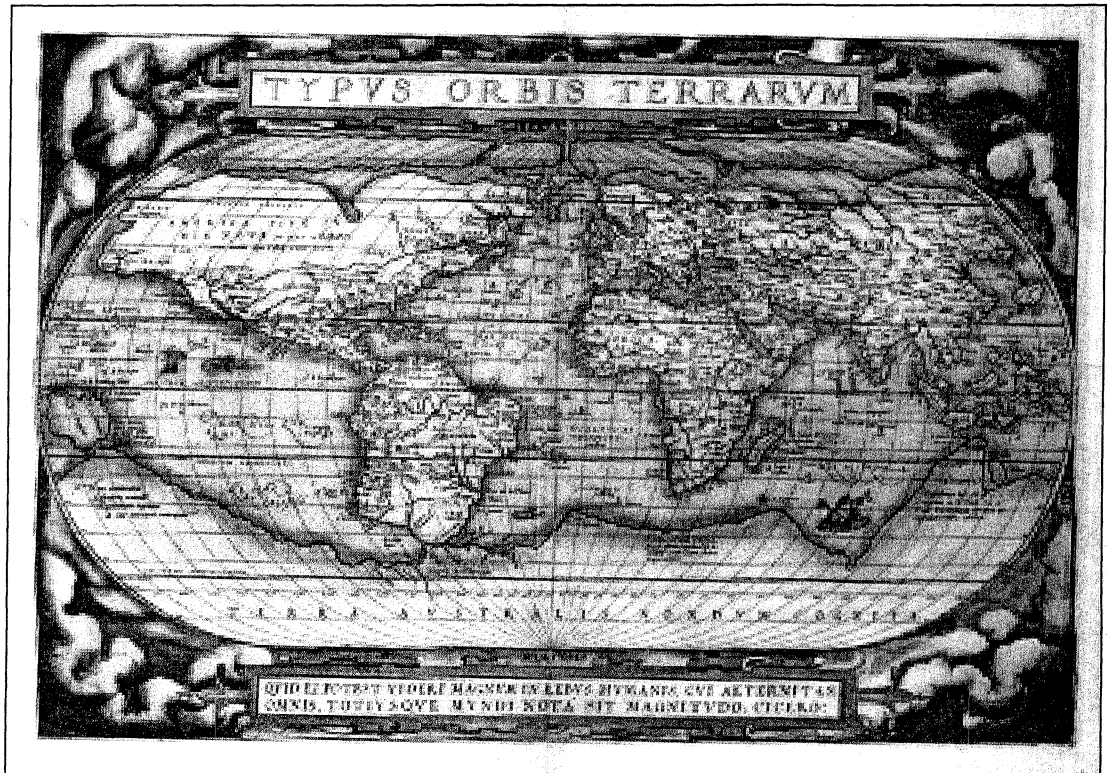
Notes

1. Wilfred G. Moore, *A Dictionary of Geography: Definitions and Explanations of Terms Used in Physical Geography*. (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1967), p. 13.
2. John Bartholomew, ed., *"The Times" Atlas of the World*. London: Times Publishing Co., 1955-59.
3. Meville Bell Grosvenor, ed. *The National Geographic Atlas of the World*. 2nd ed. Washington, D.C.: National Geographic Society, 1966.
4. B. Lewis, C. Pellat, and J. Schacht, *The Encyclopedia of Islam*. New Edition, Vol. II. Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1965, p. 576.
5. Ibid.
6. Ibid., p. 577.
7. J.H. Kramers, *Analecta Orientalia*, I, pp. 147-8.
8. Gholamreza Vatandoust, *Roman, Christian and Islamic Civilizations (Clash or Coexistence)*. Tehran: Booteh, 1378/1999, p. 136.
9. C. Edmund Bosworth, "The Nomenclature of the Persian Gulf," *Iranian Studies*, volume 30, numbers 1-2, Winter/Spring 1997, p. 77.
10. Ibid.
11. The Parthian Dynasty (circa 171 B.C-A.D. 224) began with Arshak, and was followed by Tirdad, Friapati (176-191 B.C.) and Farhad (Fraat) I, prior to the reign of Mithradates I, who is credited as the real founder of the dynasty.
12. Pirouz Mojtahed-Zadeh, *Khalij-e Fars; Khashvarha va Marzha*. Tehran: Atai Publishers, 1378/1990, p. 48.
13. Abul-Qassem Muhammad bin Hawqal al-Nasibi al-Baghdadi, *Surat al-Ardh*, 368 A.H, Leiden 1948, p. 242.
14. For a complete account of the nomenclature of the Persian Gulf in recent decades see Gholam R. Vatandoust, "In Defense of the Persian Gulf: A Response to the Cambridge Encyclopedia." *The Iranian Journal of International Affairs*. Vol. IX, No. 4, Winter 1997/98, pp. 620-627.
15. Robert G. Landen, "The Modernization of the Persian Gulf: The Period of British Dominance," *Proceedings of the Twentieth and Annual Near East Conference*, ed. T. Cuyler Young (Princeton, NJ.: Princeton University Conference, 1969), pp. 1-24.
16. For an account of the Arab Revolt see George Lenczowski, *The Middle East in World Affairs*. Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1952, pp. 57-58.
17. See Gholam R. Vatandoust, *Introduction to Iranian Studies*. University of Washington, 1985 and Pirouz Mojtahedzadeh's article in the *Political & Economic Ettela'at*, Nos. 105-106, p. 26.
18. See UN AD311/1 GEN issued on 5 March 1971 and again UN LA 45.8.2 (C) which was a UN memorandum issued on 10 August 1984.



Al-Biruni, Abu-Reyhan Muhammad ibn Ahmad (973-1048 A.D./362-440 H.):
Maps of the Seven Seas in various manuscripts of Biruni's *Kitab al-Tajhim*, Arabic and Latin text.

Ortelius of Antwerp, Abraham (1527-1598 A.D.)



A. Typvs Orbis Terrarvm.

Ortelius of Antwerp, Abraham (1527-1598 A.D.)

Theatrum Orbis Terrarvm. [Antverpie : Apud A.C. Diesth, 1570]

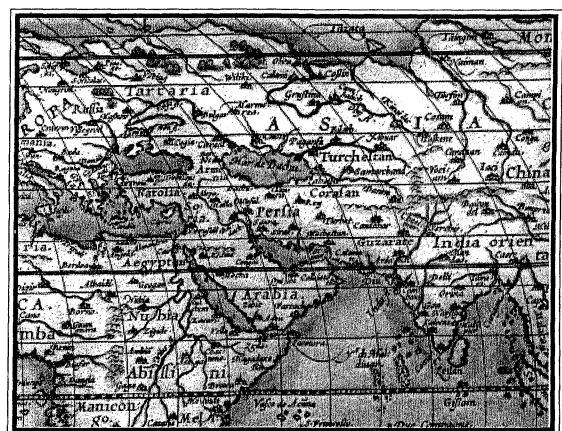
Text on verso of maps: Includes "*De Mona Dravidm insvla*" by H. Llwyd.

1 atlas (53 col. Maps) ; 45 cm.

Original: Library of Congress, Washington D. C.

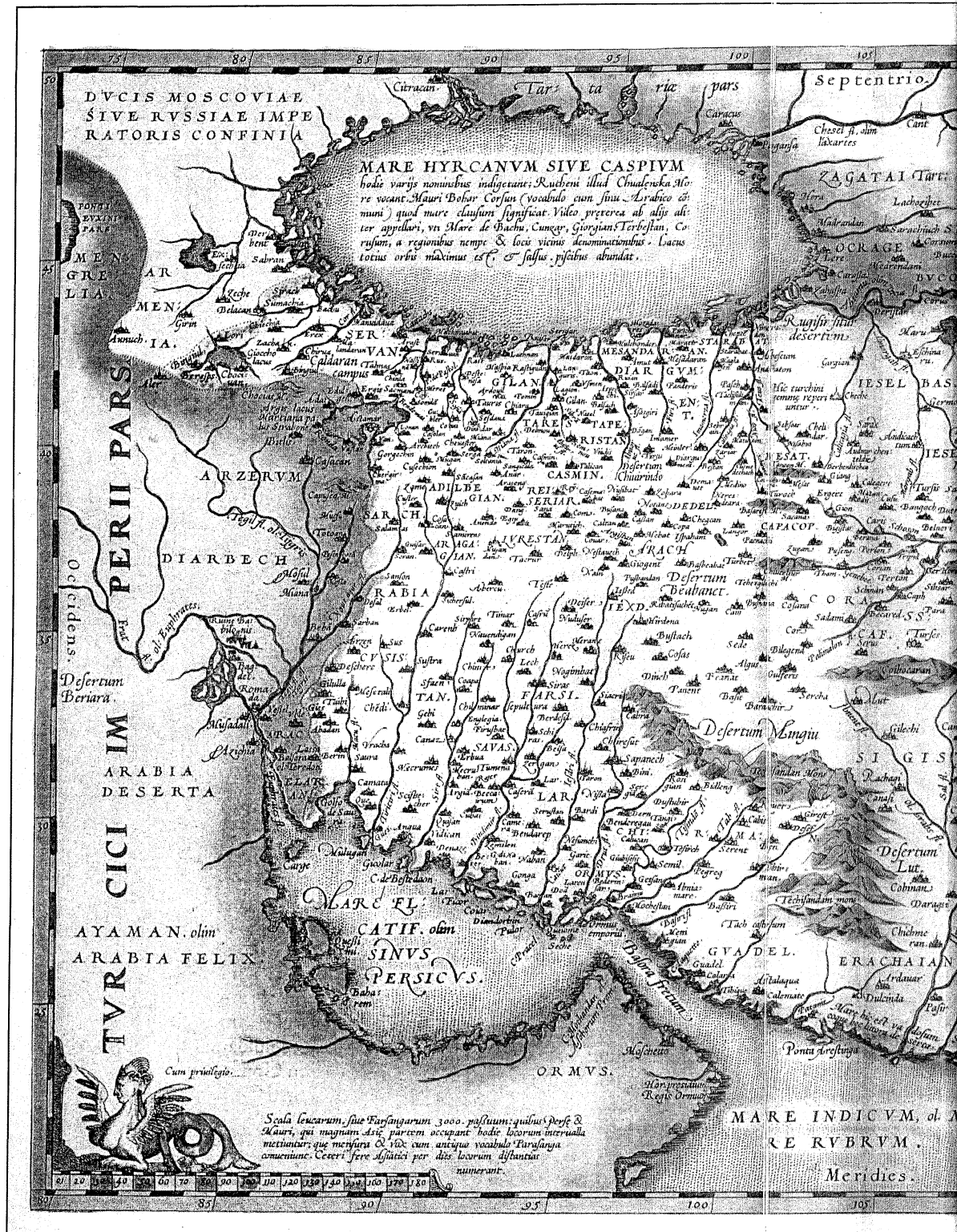
List of selected maps from this atlas:

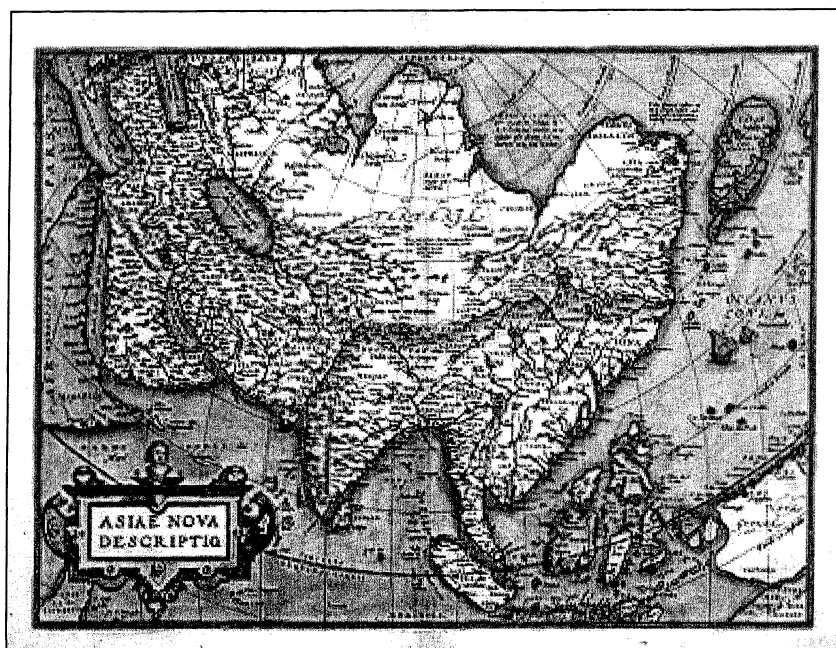
- A. Typvs Orbis Terrarvm
- B. Tvrici Imperii Descriptioe
- C. Persici Sive Sophorvm Regni Typvs
- D. Asiae Nova Descriptio





C. Persici Sive Sophorum
Regni Typus (Persia)





D. Asiae Nova Descriptio.



Sinus Persicus detail from the above map

Persian Gulf: Atlas of Old & Historical Maps



Ortelius of Antwerp, Abraham (1527-1598 A.D.) : *Secundae Partis Asiae*
Copperplate engraving, published in Antwerp c. 1580 A.D.
Original: Private collection of Sultan Bin Muhammad Al-Qasimi, Sharja, U.A.E.



Golfo de Persia in a detailed part of abovel map



Ortelius of Antwerp, Abraham (1527-1598 A.D.) : *Turcicum Imperium*, dated 1577 A. D.
Original: Private collection of *Sultan Bin Muhammad Al-Qasimi*, Sharja, U.A.E.



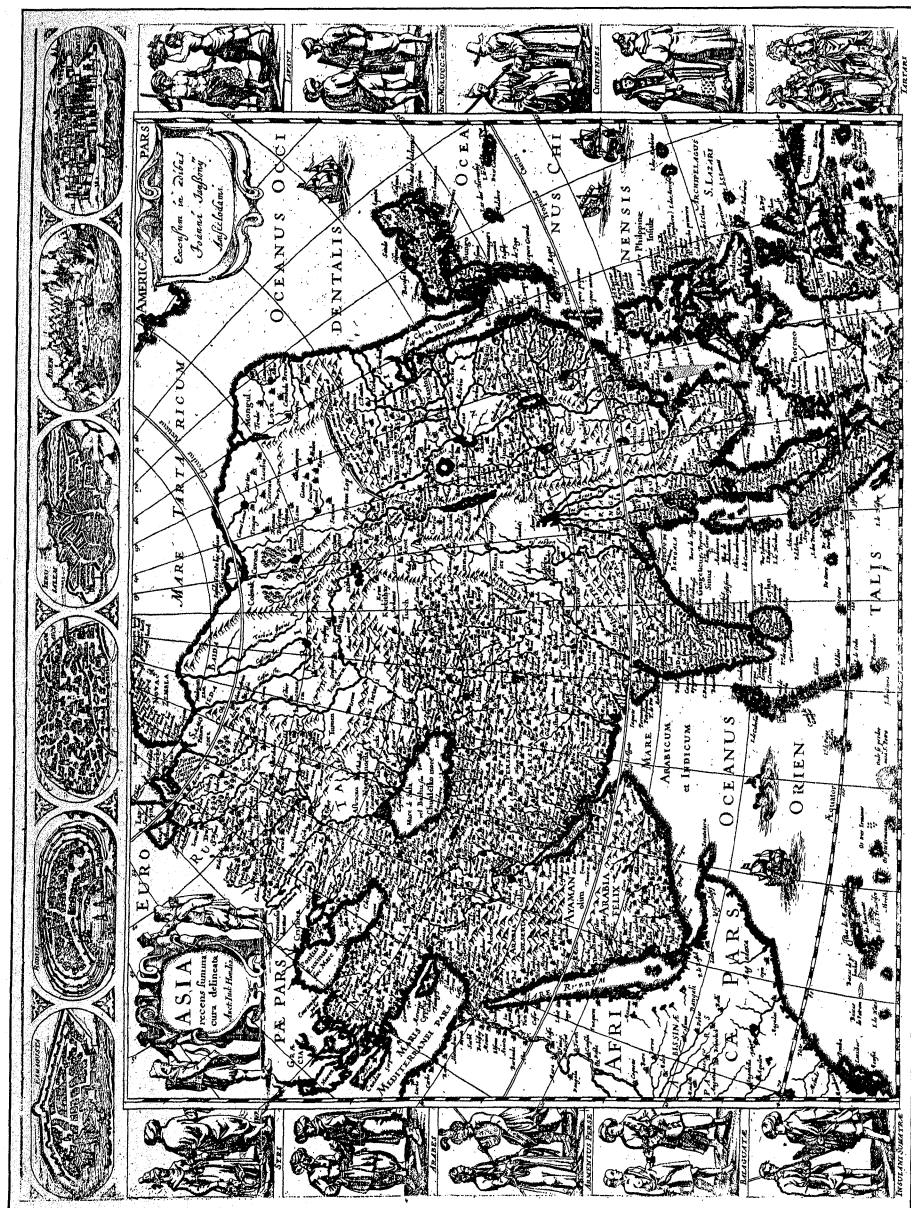
Ortelius of Antwerp, Abraham (1527-1598 A. D.)
Erythraei Sive Rubri Maris Periplus
Cartographer: Anonymous
Interpreted by Abraham Ortelius
Original is published in *A. Ortelius Parergon*, Antverpia
Leiden University Library
(BODEL. Port 193 No. 1191)



Speed, John (1552 - 1629 A.D.)
The Kingdome of Persia
Map dated 1646 A.D.
Original: Private collection of Sultan Bin Muhammad Al-Qasimi, Sharja, U.A.E.



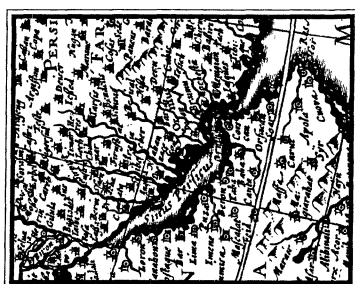
Persian Gulfe detail from the above map



Hondius, Jodocus (1563-1612 A.D.)

Map of Asia, dated ca. 1597/8

Original from: Georges Grosjean and Rudolf Kinauer *Kartenkunst und Kartentechnik vom Altertum bis zum Barock*, published by Verlag Hallwag, Bern & Stuttgart, 1970



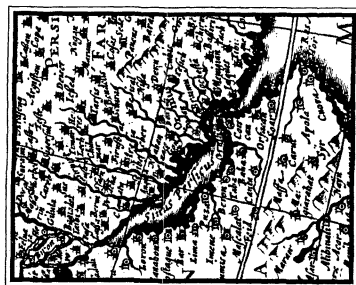
Sinus Persicus
detail from the above map



Hondius, Jodocus (1563-1612 A.D.)

Map of Asia, dated ca. 1597/8

Original from: Georges Grosjean and Rudolf Kinauer *Kartenkunst und Kartentechnik vom Altertum bis zum Barock*, published by Verlag Hallwag, Bern & Stuttgart, 1970

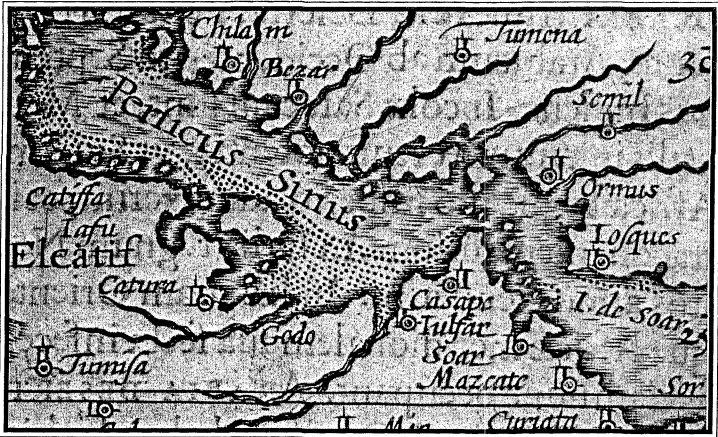


Sinus Persicus
detail from the above map



Bertius, Petrus (1565-1629 A.D.)
Map of Arabia, ca.1610 A.D.
Original: Private collection of Sultan Bin Muhammad Al-Qasimi, Sharja, U.A.E.

Persicus Sinus detail from above map



Persian Gulf: Atlas of Old & Historical Maps



Keere, Pieter van den (1571-ca. 1646 A.D.)

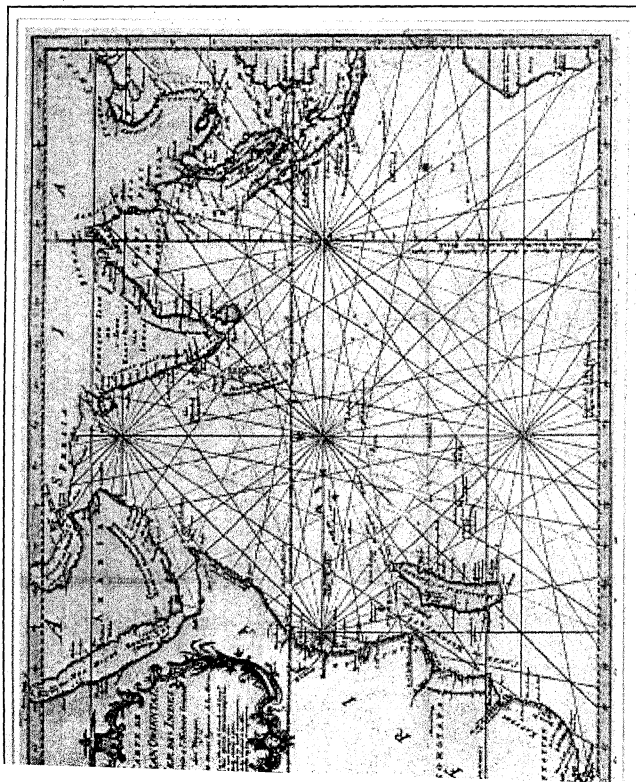
Sophorum Regnum, dated c. 1676 A.D.

Original: Private collection of Sultan Bin Muhammad Al-Qasimi, Sharja, U.A.E.

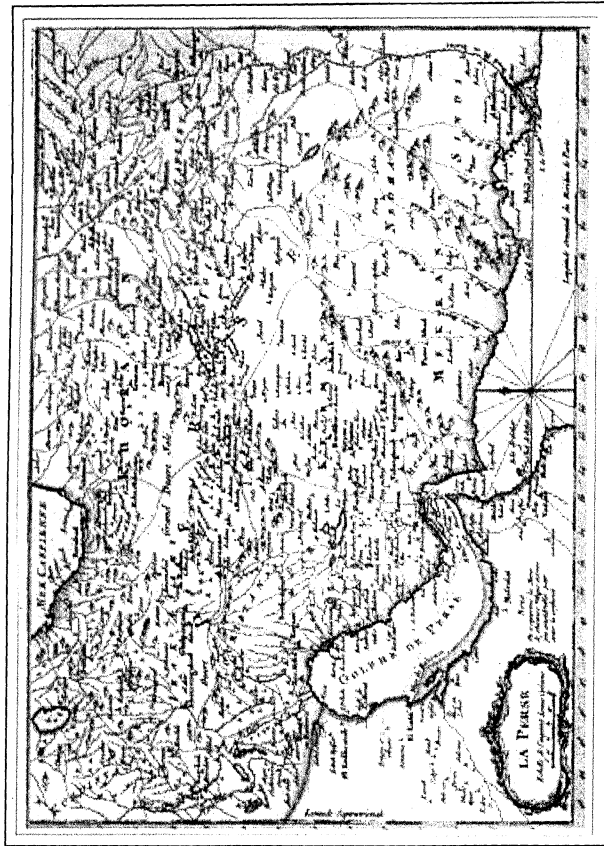


Simus Persicus detail from the above map

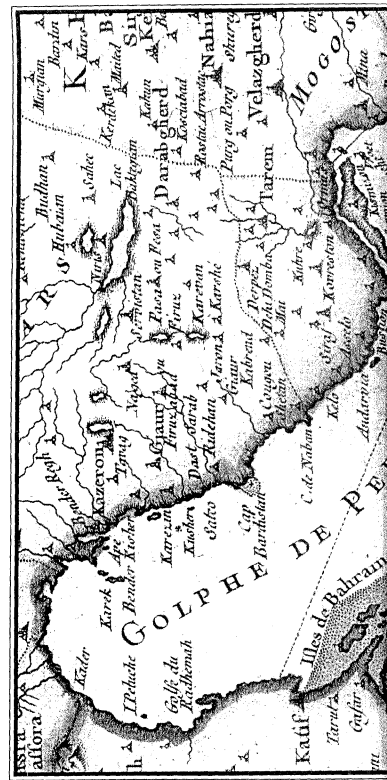
es Nicolas (1703-1772 A.D.)



Bellin, Jacques Nicolas (1703-1772 A.D.)
Carte de L'Océan Oriental ou Mer des Indes, ca. 1750 A.D.
 Original: Private collection of Sultan Bin Muhammad Al-Qasimi, Sharja, U.A.E.



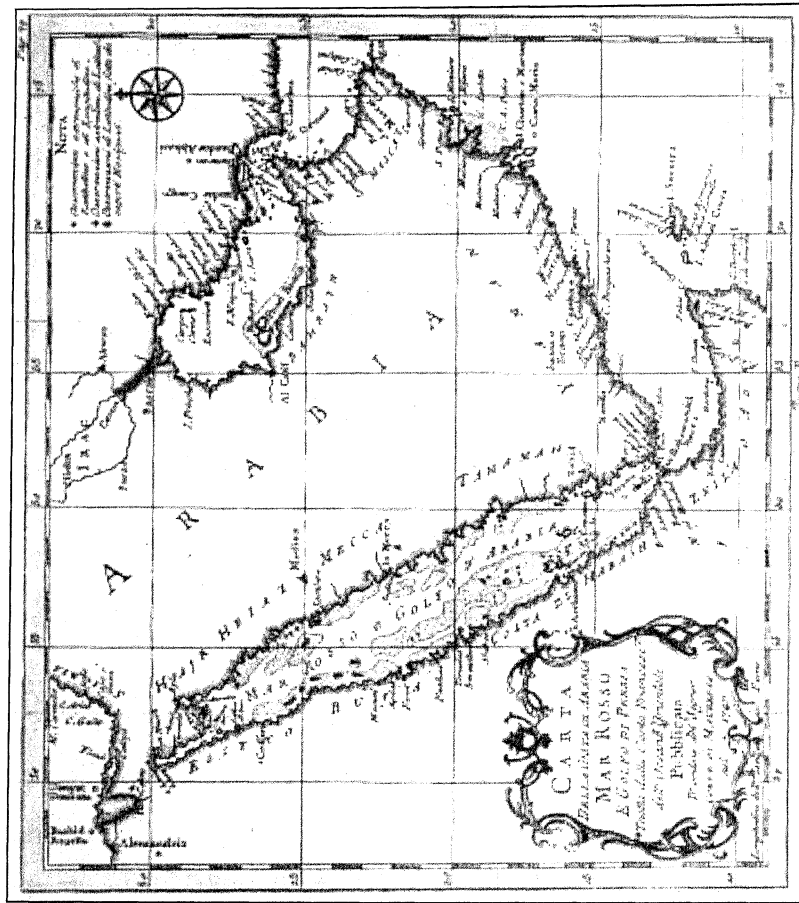
Bellin, Jacques Nicolas (1703-1772 A.D.)
La Perse, ca. 1760 A.D.
 Original: Private collection of Sultan Bin Muhammad Al-Qasimi, Sharja, U.A.E.



Jacques Nicolas (1703-1772 A.D.)

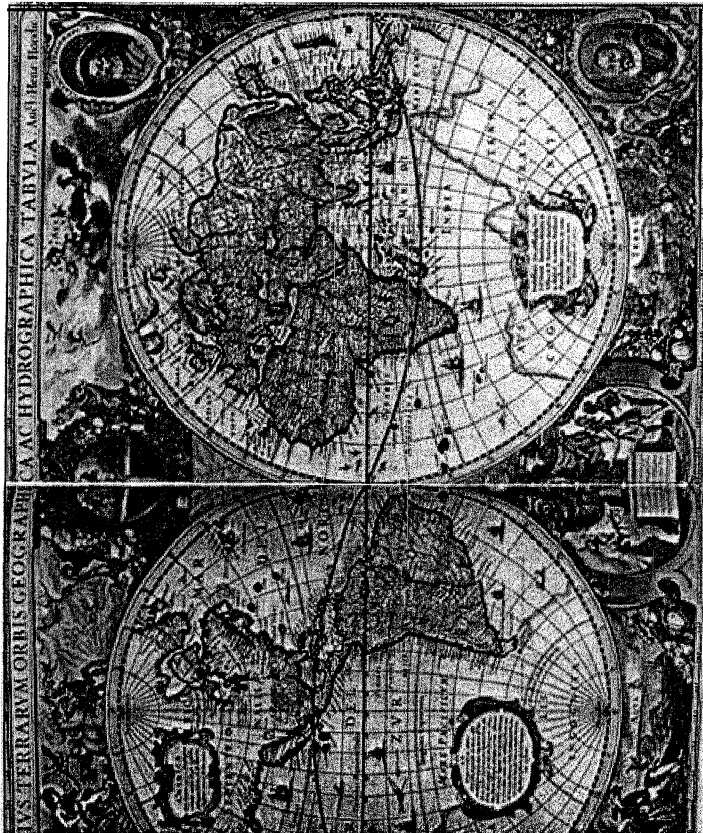


Bellin, Jacques Nicolas (1703-1772 A.D.)
Carte du Golphe Persique ca. 1764 A.D.
 Original: Private collection of Sultan Bin Muhammad Al-Qasimi,
 Sharja, U.A.E.

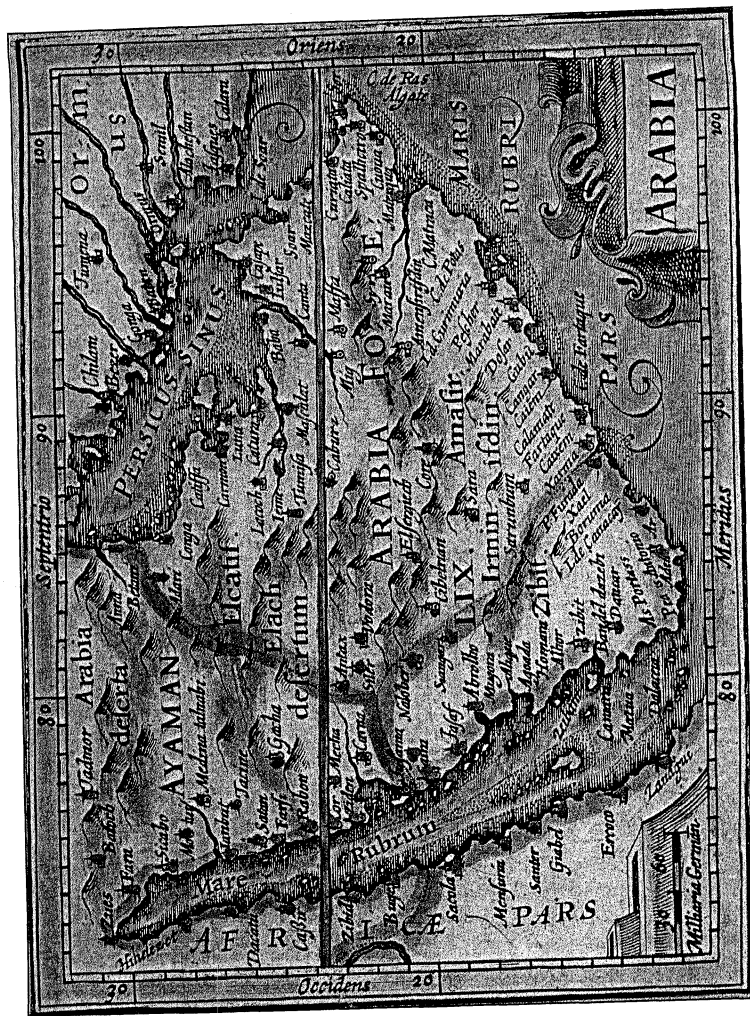


Bellin, Jacques Nicolas (1703-1772 A.D.)
Carta Della Costa di Arabia Mar Rosso E Golfo di Persia, ca. 1740 A.D.
 Original: Private collection of Sultan Bin Muhammad Al-Qasimi,
 Sharja, U.A.E.

Hondio), Henricus (1597-1651A.D.)



Hondius (Hondio), Henricus (1597-1651 A.D.)
 Son of Jodocus Hondius (Flemish)
Nova Totius Terrarum Orbis Geographica Ac Hydrographica Tabula
 dated 1630 A. D.
 Original: Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.



Hondius (Hondio), Henricus (1597-1651 A.D.)
 Son of Jodocus Hondius (Flemish)
Arabia, 1630 A.D.
 Amsterdam, by Hondius and Bertius
 Copper engraving 13.5 x 11 cm.
 Original: Private collection of Sultan Bin Muhammad Al-Qasimi, Sharjah, U.A.E.



Bellin, Jacques Nicolas (1703-1772 A.D.)

Carte du Golphe Persique, ca. 1764 A.D.

Original: Private collection of Sultan Bin Muhammad Al-Qasimi,
Sharja, U.A.E.