VAKANÜVİS- Uluslararası Tarih Araştırmaları Dergisi/ International Journal of Historical Researches, Yıl/Vol. 9, Özel Sayı: Dr. Selma Pehlivan'a Armağan (Special Issue: A Tribute to Dr. Selma Pehlivan), ISSN: 2149-9535 / 2636-7777

Araştırma Makalesi/ Research Article

An Overview of the Royal Geographical Society and Its Activities*

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Makale Gönderim Tarihi
19.08.2024

Makale Kabul Tarihi
11.12.2024

Atıf Bilgisi/Reference Information

Chicago: Erkaya Topcu, F., Kartın, C, "An Overview of the Royal Geographical Society and Its Activities", *Vakanüvis-Uluslararası Tarih Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 9/ Özel Sayı: Dr. Selma Pehlivan'a Armağan (2024): 1959-1997.

APA: Erkaya Topcu, F., Kartın, C. (2024). An Overview of the Royal Geographical Society and Its Activities. *Vakanüvis-Uluslararası Tarih Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 9 (Özel Sayı: Dr. Selma Pehlivan'a Armağan), 1959-1997.

> *"Without geographers, this Empire would never have been created. All over the world you will still find them exploring and surveying unknown lands, drawing borders, planting seeds of trade, pacifying savage tribes and expanding the frontiers of civilisation" (Curzon 1912)*

*This article is based on Fatma Erkaya Topcu's PhD thesis titled 'The Activities of the British Royal Geographical Society in the Ottoman Territories during the reign of Abdul Hamid II (1876-1909)', which is currently being carried out at Erciyes University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of History.

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Abstract

The 15th and 16th centuries in Europe were a period of major events such as Humanism, Reformation, Renaissance and Geographical Discoveries. There were some developments that would lead to the revival of the science of geography depending on these important factors that occurred in the last centuries of the Middle Ages. These developments can be summarised as the discovery of new lands, developments in cartography, various scientific and technological inventions and travels popularised by the magnetic compass and the development of navigation. These developments enabled Europe's economic expansion and the establishment of a global dominance. Britain, which was the first to industrialise and establish global dominance with the process of change known as the Industrial Revolution in the 18th century, was the most powerful imperialist state in the world until recently. The Royal Geographical Society, which was established as a result of these developments in Europe, is an organisation that could produce data that would serve the imperialist expansion and where geography and cartography activities were carried out. This article is a study of the foundation, development, structure, aims and work of the Royal Geographical Society, founded in London in 1830.

Keywords: England, Geography, Discoveries, Royal Geographical Society, Travel.

Kraliyet Coğrafya Topluluğuna ve Faaliyetlerine Genel Bir Bakış

Öz

Avrupa'da XV ve XVI. yüzyıllar Hümanizm, Reform, Rönesans ve Coğrafi Keşifler gibi önemli olayların yaşandığı bir dönem olmuştur. Ortaçağ'ın son asırlarında meydana gelen bu önemli etkenlere bağlı olarak coğrafya ilminin yeniden canlanmasına neden olacak bazı gelişmeler yaşanmıştır. Bu gelişmeler yeni toprakların keşfi, haritacılıktaki gelişmeler, çeşitli bilimsel ve teknolojik buluşlar, navigasyonun gelişmesi ve manyetik pusula ile popüler hale gelen seyahatler şeklinde özetlenebilir. Meydana gelen bu gelişmeler Avrupa'nın iktisadi yayılmasını ve küresel bir egemenlik kurmasını sağlamıştır. XVIII. yüzyılda Sanayi Devrimi olarak bilinen değişim süreciyle ilk sanayileşen ve küresel egemenliği kuran İngiltere yakın tarihlere kadar dünyanın en güçlü emperyalist devleti olmuştur. Avrupa'daki bu gelişmelerin sonucu olarak kurulan Kraliyet Coğrafya Derneği 'de emperyalist yayılmaya hizmet edecek verileri üretebilecek, coğrafya ve haritacılık faaliyetlerinin yürütüldüğü bir kurumdur. Bu çalışma 1830 yılında Londra'da kurulan Kraliyet Coğrafya Derneği'nin kuruluşu, gelişimi, yapısı, hedefleri ve çalışması üzerine bir incelemedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İngiltere, Coğrafya, Keşifler, Kraliyet Coğrafya Derneği, Seyahat.

Introduction

The term "geography" derived from the Ancient Greek words 'geo-' (earth) and 'graphien' (to write), originally referred to the description of places. Its contemporary meaning developed in the 18th century, when the field underwent division into distinct branches, marking its transition to a modern discipline. Geography was divided into various branches in the west, particularly with the increase in geographical discoveries, the recognition of every region of the world and in parallel with the advances in other disciplines. At the end of this development process, today geography has gained the meaning of 'a science that investigates the interaction between the natural environment and people and synthesizes its results'.[1] If we look at the definition on the website of The Royal Geographical Society; 'geography is the field of research that integrates and unites the world's landscapes, peoples, places/spaces and environments'.[2]

With the cultural reawakening in Europe known as the Renaissance, Europe became the centre of geographical knowledge.[3] With the Age of Discoveries (1400-1750), which was a renaissance phase in geography, many geographical expeditions were carried out in Europe, and these travels, which were financed because of commercial returns, also made a significant contribution to geographical knowledge by enabling scientific research and discoveries.[4] In the eighteenth century, knowledge of geography continued to expand with the South Pacific voyages of James Cook and Joseph.[5] Geography, which gained its scientific identity with the works of Humboldt, Ritter, Peschel, Ratzel

[1] Osman Gümüşçü, *Historical Geography*, Istanbul 2016, p. 15.
[2] https://www.rgs.org/about-us/what-is-geography).
[3] N. E. Özgüç-E. Tümertekin, *Geography, Past Concepts, Geographers*, Istanbul 2000, p.50.
[4] Lalita Rana, Geographical Thought: A Systematic Record of Evolution, New Delhi 2008, p.5.
[5] N. Yavan- C.Y. Kurtar Anlı, "Livingstone, D. N., A Brief History of Geography", *International Journal and Geography Education,* 38 (2018), p.312.

and their followers, became a more systematic structure with its place as a discipline in European universities in the nineteenth century.[6] In addition due tothe need to describe the world, geography has rapidly developed into a discipline, and the most accurate evidence of its becoming a discipline is the increase in the number of geographers, geographical societies and their publications.[7] Accordingly, the British Royal Geographical Society has made considerable progress in explorations and continues to support scientific discoveries of this kind today.[8]

In this study, the formation of the British Royal Geographical Society, its conditions, aims, structure and some of the prize-winning works from the travels organized by the society to different parts of the world in order to build the imperialist order will be discussed. The Royal Geographical Journal, started to be published in the 1830s, and the review articles and meeting reports published in the journals that continued to be regularly published under different names in the following years will be the primary source for the study.

The Process Leading to the Foundation of the Royal Geographical Society

It is known that there is a significant connection between England's advances in the science of geography and Geographical Discoveries. No sooner had Britain begun to encourage maritime ventures and the exploration of unknown countries than it needed some instructions by which it could realise its objectives. These instructions became a necessity for the recording and preserving the history of adventure and discovery, for the use of the information obtained, for the training of explorers on land and sea, and for England to become a glorious nation with its explorers and discoveries. In this respect, Sebastian Cabout's[9] contribution to the development of British

[6] Gümüşçü, op.cit., p.198.
[7] Özgür, op.cit., p.45.
[8] Yavan-Anlı, op.cit., p.312.
[9] 'Sebastian Cabot is the earliest English polar explorer who led the first expedition to find the north-west passage from North America between 1508 and 1509' see George Parker Winship, "Sebastian Cabot 1508", The Geographical Journal, 12/2 (1899), pp.204-205.

geographical science by writing the history of British seafaring is an undeniable fact. For nearly 300 years before the Royal Geographical Society was founded, the pioneers of British geography, despite having insufficient resources and limited incentives, carried out various studies for the development of geographical science with their talent and perseverance. For this reason, the Society traces its history back to the time when the British overtook the Portuguese and Spanish, who had preceded them in the race of discovery. From this point of view, diligent geographers such as Richard Eden[10], Richard Hakluyt[11] and Samuel Purchas[12] and their works have been the cornerstones of British geographical science.[13]

During the reign of Elizabeth I, public interest was directed towards geographical research. Since the efforts of explorers were highly respected in England during this period, the greatest passion of young explorers was to increase their fame by making discoveries in distant regions. However, in addition to these young and adventurous explorers, the efforts of scientific geography students were also of great interest. In the sixteenth century, when there was a race for geographical discovery, an association called the Elizabethan Geographical Society was founded, chaired by Richard Hakluyt. On the council of the association there were explorers such as Hawkins, Raleigh, Drake, who are attributed as the forefathers of the science of geography, and mathematicians and cosmographers such as Lancaster, Jenkinson, Gilbert, Davis, Wright, Digges, Dee, Harriott.[14] From an

[10] 'Richard Eden, a close friend of Sebastian Cabot, was born around 1520, and it was during his university years that he first became interested in the scientific cosmographic studies that would occupy him throughout his life.' See David Gwyn, 'Richard Eden Cosmographer and Alchemist', The Sixteenth Century Journal, 15/1 (1984), pp.15-16.

[11] 'Richard Hakluyt, born in 1553, became interested in the art of applied geography after graduating from Christ Church, Oxford, where he learnt and taught geography, and published his 'Diverse Voyages Touching the Discovery of America' in 1582.' See James P. Helfers, 'The Explorer or the Pilgrim?', Studies in Philology, 94/2 (1997), p. 162.

[12] 'Samuel Purchas took his degree from St John's College, Cambridge, and moved from clergyman to clerk in his native Essex. Purchas never travelled more than 200 miles from Essex, and recorded the accounts of sailors returning to England from their voyages.' See E. G. R. Taylor, 'Samuel Purchas', The Geographical Journal,75/6 (1930), p.537.

[13]Clements Robert Markham, *The Fifty Years 'Work of the Royal Geographical Society',* London 1881, p. 1-5.

[14] Markham, op.cit., pp.5-6.

institutional point of view, the idea of establishing a scientific society in England was put forward and partially developed during the Protectorate period, and The Royal Society, founded in 1665, hosted many branches of science from medicine to geology, from mathematics to geography.[15]

The foundation of the Royal Society is one of the first objective products of Rancis Bacon's philosophy work. Sir Archibald Geikie began the 'Foundation and Early History of the Royal Society' section of the Record with these words.[16] This statement is supported by Thomas Sprat's comment in his 1667 History of the Royal Society that 'Lord Bacon's New Atlantis (1627) was the prophetic plan of the Royal Society'.[17] Recently, though, Dr Young has drawn attention to Comenius' visit to England in 1641-1642[18] as one of the previously little-known influences leading to the formation of the Royal Society. Comenius's visit to London marks an important stage in the development of the idea of creating a major institution for scientific research in this country.[19] At this stage, the Invisible College was organized in 1645, the first phase of the Royal Society, by a group of scientists influenced by the intellectual ideas of Comenius.[20]

On the other hand, the work of the Royal Society in 17th-century England was of great importance for the development of experimental science and the recognition of the new philosophy.[21] In England, as in Italy and France, people came together under the influence of both ideas and real needs. As early as 1645, the group, which included scientists such as Robert Boyle, John Wilkins, Christopher Wren, held meetings at Gresham College in London. The design of the association was first taken into consideration by Charles II six months after 28

[15] Markham, op.cit. p.7.
[16] A. C. S. "Notes on the Foundation and History of the Royal Society", *Notes and Records of the Royal Society of London,* 1/1 (1938), p. 32.
[17]Thomas Sprat, *The History of the Royal Society of London, For the Improving of Natural Knowledge,* London 1667, p. 12.
[18] For the author's book see Robert Fitzgibbon Young, *Comenius in England*, 1971.
[19]Dorothy Stimson, "Comenius and Invisible College", *Isis,* 23/2 (1935), p.373.
[20] A. C. S. op.cit., p.34.
[21] Stimson, op. cit., p. 374.

November 1660.[22] At the beginning of the following year, King Charles II declared himself patron of the association and gave it the title of 'Royal Society'.[23]

The first charter of the Royal Society was issued on 15 July 1662 and the second charter on 22 April 1663. On 20 May 1663, the association had 94 members, and on 22 June 1663, it accepted 4 more members, making a total of 98 members. These 98 members are known as Original Fellows and the council consists of 20 members, excluding the president.[24] The history of the Royal Society can be divided into three periods: The 17th century, the next century and a half, and finally the period after the middle of the 19th century. The composition, activities and functions of the Society varied greatly during these three periods, and the first and third periods were the most active periods of activity.[25] Unofficial links between the Royal Society and the English state were strong, and politicians, courtiers, diplomats and government officials made up 23 per cent of the Society's membership between 1660 and 1685.[26]

While the Royal Society was interested in the progress of the other sciences it hosted, it paid less attention to geography than it should have. Hence there was a need for a central organisation to guide, control and manage explorers and to look after their interests more closely. Sir Joseph Banks[27], who was President of the Royal Society for many years,

[22]L. J. Henderson, "The Royal Society", *American Association for the Advancement of Science,* 93/2402 (1941), p.28.

[23]John Barrow, *Sketches of the Royal Society and Royal Society Club,* London 1849, p.1.

[24] E. S. De Beer, "The Earliest Fellows of the Royal Society", *Bulletin of The Institute of Historical Research (University of London),* XV (1938), p.172.

[25] Henderson, op. cit., p. 27.

[26] John Gascoigne, "The Royal Society and the Emergence of Science as an Instrument of State Policy", *The British Journal for the History of Science,* 32/2 (1999), p.172.

[27] 'Joseph Banks was descended from a family dating back to the reign of Edward III. His date of birth was 4 January 1743. He was a diligent and successful student of natural history and botany in general. At the age of 9 he was educated at Harrow School and at the age of 13 at Eton. At the age of 17 he entered Christ Church, Oxford in 1760. In the first year of his undergraduate studies at Oxford, his father died and they rented a house near the Physic garden of the Chelsea Apothecacaries association, where he spent his free time from Oxford. During his time at Oxford his love of botany grew and he was able to organise a class in natural history under the tutelage of the botanist and

was both a keen geographer and a great traveller, and took a leading role in the establishment and management of a separate society to promote geographical exploration.[28] In this respect, in 1788, with the inspiration and efforts of Sir Joseph Banks, a group of enthusiastic and determined geographers such as Lord Rawdon, Earl of Galloway, General Con Way, Sir Adam Fergusson, Major Rennell and others founded the African Association to encourage the exploration of the interior of Africa.[29] At this time, almost all of Africa's coastline and the map of Africa beyond Egypt was unexplored, and the places that had been discovered so far by Europeans had been visited for looting and enslavement. The forementioned association aimed to promote the cause of science and humanity, to explore the mysterious geography, to identify resources and to improve the condition of the inadequate continent. It was through skilled and experienced travellers that the interior of Africa was penetrated as far as possible and information on all subjects was gathered.[30]

Sir Joseph Banks did not limit his geographical endeavours to the African continent. It was Sir Joseph Banks who conceived the idea of establishing a settlement at Botany Bay in Australia, who aided and assisted the East India Company and, most importantly, who, with Mr Barrow, Secretary of the Navy, sought to reassess the problem of Arctic exploration. The aim was geographical exploration. However, with the death on 19 June 1820 of Sir Joseph Banks, who presided over the Royal Society for forty-two years, the activities of British geographers for institutionalization came to a standstill for a while.[31]

During this period of stagnation, The Raleigh Club, which would later lead to the establishment of the Royal Geographical Society, constituted

astronomer Israel Lyons. In 1763 he received an honorary degree and graduated. In 1766 he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society, and in 1777 President of the Royal Society.' See Hector Charles Cameron, Sir Joseph Banks, Great Britain 1952, p.3., 'Sir Joseph Banks K.B.', The Illustrated Magazine of Art, 1/5 (1853), pp.277-279.

[28] Markham, op.cit., p.10.

[29] A. Adu Boahen, "The African Association 1788-1805", *Transactions of the Historical Society of Ghana,*5/1 (1961), vol.5, no.1, p.48.

[30] William Sinclair, "The African Association of 1788", *Journal of the Royal African Society,* 1/1 (1901), p. 146.

[31] Markham, op.cit., p.14.

an important stage. The founder of this club was Sir Arthur De Capell Brooke, a famous traveller of the XIXth century and the first Englishman to travel to Northern Scandinavia.[32] According to Brooke's idea of establishing a club consisting only of travellers, the world would be divided into sections corresponding to the number of members, each section would be represented by a member, and the club would visit almost every part of the globe. Brooke first shared this idea with his close friends Colonel Leake, Deputy Legh, Captain Mangles and Lieutenant Holman and received their approval. A list of the most distinguished travellers was prepared. In 1826 they issued a circular and on 7 February 1827 the club was officially founded as The Raleigh Club. At the meetings where London's most distinguished travellers came together, ideas were exchanged and the idea began to emerge that a more organised body should be formed to help advance the science of British geography. The Raleigh Club kept interest in geographical pursuits alive, refreshed old memories and paved the way for more systematic work, in other words, greased the wheels of science.[33] As mentioned earlier, the club pioneered the establishment of the Royal Geographical Society three years after its foundation and became a member of the society in 1854.[34]

Foundation of the Royal Geographical Society

The founders of the Royal Geographical Society traditionally drew their inspiration from The Raleigh Club, founded as a 'rationalist association'. The fact that some of the members of this club were members of the Royal Geographical Society may be taken as an indication of the close relationship between the two organisations.[35]

[32] 'Arthur de Capell Brooke was born in Northamptonshire in 1791, the son of a landed baronet. In 1812 he enlisted in the Royal Horse Guards. However, his military career was short-lived and in 1816 he joined the travellers' club. With his adventurous urge to travel, he chose Northern Scandinavia as his first place to explore. Brooke, who was also a member of the Royal Society, is the author of Travels in Norway.' See James Marshall-Cornwall, 'An Early Scandinavian Traveller', The Geographical Journal, 144/2 (Jul-1978), pp.250-253.

[33] Markham, op.cit., pp.15-18.

[34] Cornwall, op.cit., p.253.

[35] 'List of members of The Raleigh Club and the Royal Geographical Society', see Markham, op.cit., pp.15-25.

At The Raleigh Club meeting held on 24 May 1830 in Thatched House under the chairmanship of John Barrow, it was suggested that among the numerous literary and scientific societies existing in England, the main purpose of this institution should be to complement its original purpose as a scientific institution for the promotion and dissemination of geography, the most important and entertaining branch of knowledge. The reasons such as the universal interest aroused by the science of geography, the primary importance of its benefits for humanity, the necessity for the prosperity of a maritime nation such as Great Britain, which has many and extensive lands, and the definite benefit of knowing the different concepts of the physical and political relations of the world reveal the necessity of the association. In the meeting held in this framework, it was agreed to establish a new association under the name of the London Geographical Society. [36]

John Barrow pointed out that there are independent institutions and data on geography in the UK and stated that the aims of the newly established association should be:[37]

- ✓ to collect, record and interpret new, interesting and useful information that may be in the possession of the association for public use,
- ✓ to collect the best books on geography, to create a collection of maps and charts from the earliest period to the most advanced period of today, to provide travellers who want to travel to foreign countries with information about the country they will,
- ✓ to provide documents and materials that travellers will need to take with them,
- ✓ to prepare brief instructions for travellers, including the most desirable places to visit and the best ways to proceed there, and to provide financial support from the association's fund for financial,
- ✓ to keep in touch with geographical societies, geographical enthusiasts and British intellectuals living in remote locations around the world,

[36]"Prospectus of the Royal Geographical Society", *JRGSL,* 1 (1831), pp.vii-xii.
[37] Markham, op.cit., p.20.

✓ to connect with all the literary and philosophical communities with which geography is connected.

At this meeting, six members of The Raleigh Club were nominated to the Provisional Committee consisting of Sir John Barrow[38], Robert Brown[39], Roderick I. Murchison[40], John Cam Hobhouse[41], Mountstuart

[38] 'John Barrow was born on 19 June 1764 in Ulverstone, a town in the northern part of North Lancashire. Barrow, who showed an ardent love for adventure and travel from his youth, quit his job at the iron foundry in Liverpool and went on a journey to Greenland with Liverpool merchants. Barrow, who had a curious mind, studied everything down to the manoeuvres of the ship during this trip. Shortly after his return, he was appointed to Lord Macartney's ambassadorial staff and travelled to China. In 1797, accompanied by Lord Macartney, he travelled to the Cape of Good Hope with new assignments and wrote his book Travels to South Africa. Impressed by this book, Lord Melville and the Troy government appointed him second secretary to the Admiralty. A member of the Royal Society, Barrow is also a member of the Raleigh Club and the Royal Geographical Society.' See G.S. Ritchie, 'Sir John Barrow Bart F.R.S.', The Geographical Journal, 130/3 1964, pp.350-354., Auto-Biographical Memoir of Sir John Barrow Bart Late of the Admiralty, London 1847.

[39] 'Robert Brown was born in Montrose on 21 December 1773, the son of the vicar of the Episcopal Church. During his military service in 1798, he benefited from Sir Joseph Banks' library of botanical science, and in 1799, at the invitation of Joseph Banks, he travelled to New Holland (Australia), where he made significant contributions to botanical science with about four thousand new plant species he discovered. Robert Brown, one of the most noble members and president of The Linnean Society, one of the oldest natural history societies in the world, was also elected a member of The Royal Society in 1822.' See 'Obituary Notices of Deceased Fellows', Proceeding of the Royal Society of London, 9 (1857-1859), pp.527-532.

[40] 'Sir Roderick I. Murchison was born in Terradale, East Ross on 19 February 1792. In 1805 he was sent to military school at Great Marlow and in 1807 was commissioned as a midshipman in the 36th Regiment. He retired from military service in 1814 and turned to geological studies through Sir Humphrey Davy, whom he met in 1823. Murchison, who devoted his life to science from then on, took chemistry courses at the Royal Institute in 1824. He was elected as a member of The Geological Society in 1825, The Royal Society and The Raleigh Club in 1826. In 1857, in his presidential address to The Royal Geographical Society, he argued that 'physical geography and geology are inseparable scientific twins'.' See Edmund N. Gilbert, Andrew Goudie, 'Sir Roderick Impey Murchison', The Geographical Journal, 137/4 (Dec 1971), pp.505-511.

[41] 'Born in 1786, John Cam Hobhouse was educated at Westminster School and Cambridge. In 1810 he became a travelling companion of Lord Byron on his journeys to Albania and Greece. He published his famous Travelling to Albania in 1813. Hobhouse, one of the best regulars of The Raleigh Club, had a great interest in geography. In 1831 and 1857-1858 he sat on the Council of the Royal Geographical Society.' See Markham, op.cit., p.22.

Elphinstone[42] and Bartholomew Frere[43].[44] In addition, Captain W. H. Smyth also became a member and the association became stronger with his participation. These were the seven founders of the Royal Geographical Society, whose names should always be remembered by British geographers.[45] The details were determined at meetings held by the interim committee, and a public meeting was held on 16 July 1830 to announce the adopted resolutions. The Society was honoured with the patronage of King William IV and announced its formation as The Royal Geographical Society. [46] President John Barrow stated that the decisions of the society were as follows; [47]

✓ The society honoured by the gracious patronage and permission of His Majesty shall be known as the Royal Geographical Society of London,

✓ There will be no limit to the number of ordinary members, but the number of Honorary Foreign Members will be determined in the future,

✓ The Association shall consist of a president, four vice-presidents, a treasurer, two secretaries and twenty-one other members to conduct the business of the Council,

✓ The council and officers will be elected annually,

✓ The chairmanship shall not be held for more than two consecutive years and the same person may serve as chairman after one year,

[42] 'He was born in 1779 and travelled to India to serve in the Company Civil Service. In 1819 he became Governor of Bombay. After returning to England he began to write the History of the Moghul Reign in India. In 1831 he was a council member and vice-president of The Royal Geographical Society.' See Markham, op.cit, p.23.

[43]'Bartholomew Frere was born in 1776. He was educated at Harrow and Cambridge. He then entered the diplomatic service and served for a time as Chargé d'Affaires in Constantinople. He was a well-read geographer and scientist, and, as Sir Roderick Murchison said, combined a good heart and a good mind. He served the Royal Geographical Society for nearly twenty years and died in 1852. 'See Markham, op.cit., p.22.

[44] *Royal Geographical Society Year Book and Record 1903*, London 1903, p.2.

[45] Markham, op.cit., p.24.

[46] "Prospectus of the Royal Geographical Society", *JRGSL,* p. viii.

[47] "Prospectus of the Royal Geographical Society", *JRGSL,* pp. viii-ix.

- ✓ One of the four presidents will be removed from office every year, but can take office again after one,
- ✓ Seven of the other twenty-one members of the Council will be replaced each year at the general election of the Association,

As soon as these resolutions were adopted, the President, John Barrow, made a speech explaining the general views of the association. He argued that, based on the membership list, there was a favourable view of the benefits likely to accrue from the work of the association. He said that the real benefit would depend not only on knowledge but also on the endeavours and efforts of the president and council in various matters. He requested the assistance and co-operation of both the army and naval officers.[48]

On the other hand, when the membership list of the organization is analysed, it can be interpreted that it consists of eminent people who were involved in many fields of activity. The list of 460 original members included, besides the king, 43 naval officers, 50 army officers and 10 clergymen, many of the leading statesmen of both parties, members of parliament, famous botanists, geologists, engineers, cartographers, toolmakers and marine researchers. Recognising the importance of advancing the science of geography, these members began to colloborate with the association to provide all kinds of support for the prosperous future that was needed.[49] At the same time, the Society was open to receiving valuable input on geographical matters from professionally qualified people with an interest in geography, whether or not they were on the membership list. In particular, it was ready to make use of a variety of information from its citizens living in various parts of the world, from public servants in the British colonies, and from those who had travelled or would travel to foreign countries.[50] The fact that most of the authors of the articles in the journals published by the Royal Geographical Society are not members of the society supports the information given in the last sentence. After its foundation, the society wanted to realise its goals quickly and adopted 'exploration' as its motto for the first ten years of its existence, since it tried to support

[48] Markham, *op.cit.,* p.25.
[49] Markham, *op.cit.,* p.26.
[50] Prospectus of the Royal Geographical Society", *JRGSL,* p. x.

expeditions of explorers in various parts of the world. With the excitement of discovery, the young organization undertook to finance at least three expeditions, even if in a hurry. Captain Alexander's expedition to South Africa[51], Schomburgk's expedition to British Guiana[52] and Ainsworth's expedition to Kurdistan[53], the last of which was described as the most costly and arduous.[54]

The Royal Geographical Society, whose founders were inspired by The Raleigh Club, continued to expand. The letter of association they received from The African Association and The Palestine Association can be shown as evidence of this expansion. At a council meeting, a letter was read from the secretary of the African Association, implying that they were willing to transfer their funds to the Royal Geographical Society and thus merge. The Council unanimously decided to accept this proposal. They were informed that if they agreed to pay dues to the Royal Geographical Society they would have all the privileges of members.[55] The Palestine Union, declaring that the Royal Geographical Society was founded with similar aims to those of their own founding, proposed a merger by transferring all its financial funds, books and

[51] 'The direction of an expedition into South Africa by the council of the Royal Geographical Society of London has been given to Captain Alexander.' See 'Expeditions into the Interior of South Africa', The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London, 4 (1834), p. 372.

[52] 'The members of the Geographical Society decided on an expedition to explore the interior of British Guyana in the second half of 1834. The decision was communicated to the government, received the approval and patronage of His Majesty's ministers, and Robert Hermann Schomburgk was appointed as explorer.' See 'Report of an Expedition into the British Guayana, in 1835-36', The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London, 6 (1836), p. 224.

[53]'The Council, together with the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, approved and supported an expedition to Kurdistan. The purpose of this expedition was to become acquainted with the Nestorian Christians and their mountainous region.' See 'At the Annual General Meeting, May 1838: Report from the Council', The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London, 8 (1838), p.vii.

[54]"The Centenary Meeting: Addresses on the History of the Society", *The Geographical Journal,* 76/6 (Dec 1930), p.460.

[55] 'Five members of the African Association, Lord Clive, Henry Banks, Charles Hoare, H. H. Hoare and John Motteux, were admitted as members of the Royal Geographical Society.' See 'Union of the African Association with the Royal Geographical Society of London', The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London, 1 (1831), pp. 257-258.

documents to the association. The Council accepted the merger proposal of the two organisations after its meeting on this issue.[56] Another expansion proposal came from The Bombay Society. This society was founded in Bombay in 1832 with the support of distinguished surveyors of the Indian Navy to elucidate the geography of western India and neighbouring countries. In a letter from the Bombay secretary, the Bombay Society expressed its wish to merge with the Royal Geographical Society and become a branch of it. This would ensure its own stability and, as a branch of the Royal Geographical Society, it would benefit from its every instruction. The Council received this application cordially and the two societies began to work in co-operation.[57]

Publications of the Society

Journal: The Association decided to publish a journal of its own for reasons such as the usefulness of its research in the field, recording discoveries, disseminating new information, providing instructions for discoveries, and promoting educational activities related to the study of geography.[58]

This journal was to be published under the supervision of the council according to the statutes of the society and maps and illustrations were to be added to these publications when necessary. The first volume of The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London was published in 1832 and consisted of 284 pages. It contained reports read at meetings from November 1830 to June 1831. From the first moment it was recognized as part of the Society's task not only to publish the reports read at the meetings, but also to consider matters of geographical interest. The journal continued to be published until 1880 and comprised a total of fifty volumes, containing a record of all the most important geographical work done at the time.[59]

[56] "Front Matter", *The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London,* 4 (1834), pp. i-iv.

[57] J. Fraser Heddle, "Letter from the Secretary of the Geographical Society at Bombay to the Secretary of the Royal Geographical Society of London", *The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London,* 3 (1833), pp. v-ix.

[58] Markham, *op.cit.,* p.98.

[59] *Year Book and Record 1903 Sıxth Year of Puplications,* pp.31-32.

Proceedings: By the year 1855, the work of the society had increased and it was decided to publish a supplementary publication called Proceedings. This journal was published at frequent intervals during the year and included reports on the minutes of the meetings, summaries of the papers read, and brief announcements on topics of interest. The first volume containing the meetings of 1855-6 and 1856-7 was published in 1857. The journal, 22 volumes in all, continued to be published until 1877-8.[60]

Proceedings (New Series): When Volume 50 of the Journal and Volume 22 of the Proceedings were published, the council decided to merge the two journals into The Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society and Monthly Record of Geography. This was to be a monthly journal containing not only the proceedings of the society but also lists and announcements of all new books and maps. The first volume was published in 1879 and continued until 1892, when it completed its 14th volume.[61]

The Geographical Journal: In 1892, the council decided to make a new change to the periodicals of the society and started to publish the journal under the title The Geographical Journal, which covers the whole field of geography in an even more comprehensive manner. It was published twice a year, with the first volume in January 1893.[62]

History of the Society: In 1881, the society completed its fifty years and The Fifty Years Work of the Royal Geographical Society was published by Clement R. Markham, the secretary of the society.[63]

The Operation of the Society

The affairs of the Society are conducted by the Council with the assistance of permanent staff under the direct supervision of the President and Honorary Secretary. The council meets fortnightly from November to June in the afternoons before the evening meetings. Its task is varied; all important correspondence is brought before it for consideration, it has the management of the finances of the society, it

[60] *Year Book and Record 1903 Sıxth Year of Puplications,* p.32.
[61] *Year Book and Record 1903 Sıxth Year of Puplications,* p.33.
[62] *Year Book and Record 1903 Sıxth Year of Puplications,* p.34.
[63] *Year Book and Record 1903 Sıxth Year of Puplications,* p.32.

is consulted on requests for grants of money and loans of vehicles for expeditions and geographical research. The council is responsible for the election of members, it is responsible for the efficiency of the library and map collection of the association, the reports submitted to the society for reading and publication at meetings are evaluated and referred to the council for reporting, and the prizes awarded by the association are determined by it. These are some of the various tasks of the Council, and matters brought before it are initially referred to committees. The committees, after scrutiny of the subject report, provide the council with a final decision. These committees are Finance, Library and Map, Exploration, Publication and Research. The finance committee meets when necessary, others meet once a month.[64]

House of the Society

The Society's ability to further its objectives, to accumulate and make available geographical knowledge and to advance and assist research and exploration, depends on the public support of the Society. It is only through productive and sustained work that the work of the Geographical Society can be felt and recognized as being of national importance. The overriding aim of the founders of the Society and their successors was to build the reputation of the Society through hard work and to prove the value of their efforts. To realize these aims, the Association first turned to finding solutions to housing problems.[65]

Initially the society met in the rooms of the Horticultural Society in Regent Street from 1830 to 1840, in agreement with the great botanist and one of the founders, Dr Robert Brown. From 1840 to 1854 the Society's rooms were at 3 Waterloo Palace and meetings were held at King's College. From 1854 to 1870 the society rented Whitehall Palace 15 and meetings were held in the library built for the ballroom. From 1858 to 1870 meetings were held in the Royal Society's Hall in a wing of Burlington House.[66]

[64] The Royal Geographical Society "Its Foundation and History Work and Publications Charter and Bye-Laws and ıts House", London April 1939, pp.7-9.
[65] Markham, *op.cit.,* p.113.
[66] *Year Book and Record 1903 Sıxth Year of Puplications,* p.16.

In 1870, Savile Row 1 was purchased for £14,257 and the Map Room was built at a cost of approximately £5000. This was the first time the Society had a building with a council chamber, map room, library, secretary and office manager's rooms. After the old wing of Burlington House was demolished, the society held its meetings in The Royal Institution in Albermarle Street for a short time. However, after 1870 the University of London permitted to use the large theatre hall in Burlington Gardens to hold meetings.[67]

At the beginning of the century, the association had expanded its house, but over time it became clear that it would have to make an effort to enlarge the house or find a new location. It was previously thought that rebuilding would suffice. But in 1911 Earl Curzon of Kedleston was elected president and dedicated himself to making the society have a home again.[68] Lowther Lodge[69] in Kensington Gore was the home of James Lowther, Speaker of the House of Commons, and was purchased for £100,000. The house was divided into sections for a hall for meetings, a library, a map room, a new council chamber and other improvements.[70]

Library of the Society

One of the stated aims of the Society at its founding in 1830 was the creation of a comprehensive geographical library. An article adopted at the first meeting in May 1830 declared that one of the aims of the Society was to "gradually assemble a library of the best books on

[67] Markham, *op.cit.,* p.113.

[68] "It is necessary for me to inform the members of the Royal Geographical Society of the outcome of arrangements for the purchase of new premises for the Society and to make a final appeal to those who have supported this venture." See 'The Society's New House', Geographical Journal, 40/4 (October 1912), pp. 353-356.

[69] "The headquarters of the Royal Geographical Society were designed by architect Richard Norman Shaw and the building is one of the finest and most important examples of nineteenth-century architecture in London. Norman Shaw (1831-1912) was the most distinguished residential architect of the time, and Lowther Lodge was his first major work in the capital. Built in the 'Queen Anne' style, it contains some of the finest interior detailing of the period." See Lynne Walker, "The Geographical Society's House: An Architectural History", The Geographical Journal, 146/2 (July 1980), pp.178-189.

[70] The Royal Geographical Society "Its Foundation and History Work and Publications Charter and Bye-Laws and ıts House", pp.2-3.

geography, to form a collection of maps and charts from the earliest to the most advanced period of crude geographical description, and to provide documents and materials to convey the best information to those who wish to visit foreign countries."[71]

The library made slow progress at first, partly due to a lack of funds and partly due to the lack of a permanent home. At a meeting in 1841, the council expressed their desire to make the society the main focal point of geographical knowledge and were particularly concerned that the library and its collection of maps and charts be as complete as possible.[72]

By 1850 the library had a collection of over 4000 volumes and over 1000 pamphlets. In 1853, in addition to regular book acquisitions under the supervision of the Library Committee, geographical periodicals from British and Foreign Government Departments were the main sources of accession.[73] The travel collections are also very satisfactory and include collections by Astley, Burney, Callander as well as early English collections such as Eden (1555-1577), Hakluyt (1589-1600), Purchas (1617).[74] At the same time, the library was able to add many expensive book indexes to its collection with the support of various ministries of His Majesty's Government such as the Indian Foreign Office, the Ministries of State for Colonies, the Colonial Administrations, the War Office and the Intelligence Department of the Admiralty.[75]

A major renovation of the society's house in 1894, on the other hand, allowed for a major expansion of the library, lightening the crowded shelves and reorganizing the collections. In the fiftieth year of the association's foundation, the library contained over 20,000 books, and

[71] "Prospectus of the Royal Geographical Society", *JRGSL,* pp. vii-viii.

[72] "Very valuable geographical works, travel charts, old atlases and maps, which are very useful for comparative geography, should be acquired for very small sums. Our aim in this matter is that no work of geography, no map or chart, should be absent from the library of the Royal Geographical Society of London. "See "At the Annual General Meeting, May 24, 1841: Report from the Council", The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London, 11 (1841), p.vi.

[73] G. R. Crone, "The Library of the Royal Geographical Society", *The Geographical Journal,* 121/1 (Mart 1955), p. 28.

[74] *Year Book and Record 1903 Sıxth Year of Puplications,* p.44.

[75] Markham, op.cit., p.103.

by 1897 it had grown to over 31,000. When the library was founded, its content consisted entirely of geographical works and travel books, but later on, works on ethnology, geology, history and other subjects were added. [76]

The books in the library were arranged by subject, and the layout of the shelves and catalogs were designed to provide all possible comfort to members who wish to conduct research on geographical topics and consult geographical literature.[77]

The Royal Geographical Society and the Development of Geography as a Science

Considering the commercial and political interests of England after the Industrial Revolution, geography constituted an important pillar of the knowledge it needed, and the innovations developed in this direction began to be applied in the field. [78]

In the 1930s, in addition to fieldwork in Africa and the Polar Regions, there were other developments. The development of the railroad and the Industrial Revolution led to changes in the country's population and social structure. As the urban middle class and the poor grew, academics recognized the need for a radical restructuring of both the aims and methods of education. [79]

Charles Lyell was a pioneer in criticising the intellectual and educational degeneration of the old universities, and in his lectures at King's College, London in 1832 he spoke of the need for a new approach to teaching in English education at Oxford and Cambridge.[80]

When the Society was founded in 1830, Geography was part of the curriculum of most major private schools. A few years later, when

[76] *Year Book and Record 1903 Sıxth Year of Puplications,* p.44.
[77] *Year Book and Record 1903 Sıxth Year of Puplications,* p.49.
[78] Tevfik Orçun Özgün, " George Hayward's Journey to the Central Asia: The Periphery of the British İmperialist Politics", *Hacettepe University Journal of Turkish Studies,* Spring 2021 (34), pp.176-177.
[79] D. R. Stoddart, "Geography, Education and Research", *The Geographical Journal,* 147/3 (Nov 1981), p.287.
[80] D. R. Stoddart, "Geography, Education and Research", *The Geographical Journal,* 147/3 (Nov 1981), p.287.

University College asked for help in giving geography the status of a university subject, it was scorned by the brave naval officers who ran the society. Because for many years the motto of the society was not education but exploration.[81] According to Tom Longstaff, the educational work of the organization is more important than the exploration work. Because even if the society had never existed, exploration would have continued, but there is no other organisation that can press the issue of geographical education and implements it as successfully as the society.[82]

However, it was forty years after its foundation before the Society became seriously interested in geographical education. In 1871, the famous Assyriologist Major-General Sir Henry Rawlinson became its president. According to H. R. Mill, Rawlinson ''established himself as the most learned geographer of the century, occupying a dominant position in both exploration and science''.[83] *The Dictionary of National Biography describes Rawlinson as a good example of the Anglo-Indian officer class, who was described as a soldier, scientist and man of the world.*[84] In the first year of Rawlinson's presidency, the association applied to the vice-chancellors of Oxford and Cambridge universities, and in a letter dated 3 July 1871, emphasised the importance of teaching geography as a subject in universities. However, this letter did not create a significant impact in the above- mentioned period.[85]

[81] Hugh Robert Mıll, *The Record of the Royal Geographical Society 1830-1930,* The Royal Geographical Society Kensington Gore, S.W.7, p.247.

[82] Stoddart, op.cit., p.287.

[83] Edmund W. Gilbert, "The RGS and Geographical Education in 1871", *The Geographical Journal,* 137/2 (Jun 1971), p. 200.

[84] Bkz. Henry Creswicke Rawlinson, *The Dictionary of National Biography,* Volume XVI. p. 773.

[85] 'We wish to emphasise the special importance of geography to the British of to-day. The possession of large and extensive colonies, the unprecedented extension of our commercial interests, the increasing freedom of intercourse between our country and every part of the world, the closeness of the links established by steamship and telegraphy, and the power which binds us to many distant communities, are conditions which greatly increase the value of geographical knowledge. The knowledge of the great routes which commerce has travelled, or is likely to travel, is now much more useful than in former times. The utilisation of geography for different purposes has been frequently referred to in detail. And this is a subject on which the council of the Royal

It is not surprising that the movement to establish geography as a university discipline, which began in the 1870s, was not immediately successful. This is because even eminent physical scientists such as Sir George Darwin could not determine how pure and simple geography could be made the subject of an intellectual discipline. Therefore, society recognized that in order for geography to be adopted, it needs to develop a new concept of what geography would. The success of the association in this regard depends on three factors.[86]

The first factor was Scott Keltie, who was appointed Inspector of Geographical Education in 1884. Keltie, who was 44 years old at the time of his appointment, was characterized by an interest in geography, an ability to gather and digest information, good prose writing and a high degree of diligence. As mentioned above, society, conscious of developing a new concept of what geography was, was interested in developing the educational aspects of geographical studies.[87] In addition to its approaches to the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, it initiated the public schools medal prize for geography in 1869, but decided to cease it in 1884 as the results of the competition were disappointing.[88] Following these unsuccessful attempts, the society commissioned Education Inspector Keltie to visit schools and universities in the UK and abroad to investigate the role of geography in education and to prepare a report.[89] Keltie achieved good results

Geographical Society feel justified in expressing a general view. We do not speak of geography as a limited catalogue of names and facts, but as a science which should be taught liberally, with ample map tools, models and illustrations. We turn to the universities, not only to save geography from being badly taught in the schools of England, but to raise it to a higher standard than it has hitherto attained.' See Gilbert, op.cit., p.201.

[86] Stoddart, op.cit., p.288.

[87] M. J. Wise, "The Scott Keltie Report 1885 and the Teaching of Geography in Great Britain", *The Geographical Journal,* 152/3 (Nov 1986), pp.367-368.

[88] 'In 16 years, 62 medals were awarded to only 16 schools, of which Dulwich College and Liverpool College won 30 medals.' See Gilbert, op. cit., p. 201.

[89] 'Keltie worked on this report with efficiency and speed. On 17 May 1885, less than ten months after his appointment, he delivered the report to the association. It consists of 74 pages of written text. He asked a series of questions of 50 schools and visited 25. Wherever he went he collected pupils' work, textbooks, maps, atlases and teaching aids and sent them to London for an exhibition to be organised as a means of promoting geography. In his report, Keltie noted that the teaching of geography in Britain was

through these visits. In 1885, public exhibitions and lectures were started, and the participation in these exhibitions was much higher than expected.[90] Keltie focussed on proving that Sir George Darwin's doubts about the respectability of geography as a discipline were unfounded and sought to emphasise the functional links between the different levels in the education system. In his view, geography would not be successful unless it was done well in universities, and it would not be taken seriously in schools unless it was practised in universities.[91]

The second factor was the strong advocacy of Francis Galton and Douglas Freshfield within the council, which united the society in its relations with the universities. The battle for the recognition of geography at Oxford and Cambridge was won, and the council meeting resulted in an agreement on the actual payment of the salaries of lecturers to be appointed to the universities. Thirdly, in 1887, Halford Mackinder's article 'On the Scope and Methods of Geography', one of the founding documents of the discipline of geography, was prepared at the request of Henry Walter Bates, the secretary of the society.[92]

These efforts of the society in the teaching of geography were successful. In 1888, Oxford University agreed to appoint Halford Mackinder as a lecturer in geography and to pay half of his salary for five years, half by the university and half by the association. The university authorities realised the importance of geography teaching and re-

extremely poor. At the beginning of the report, Keltie emphasised that geography should not be divided and that physical geography and political geography should be taught according to a common programme. According to him, the source of the problem lies in universities. The Keltie report showed what could be done in the teaching of geography and gave a conceptual basis for the establishment of the subject in British universities.' See Wise, op.cit., pp.370-371.

[90] 'More than 4,000 people attended the exhibition, both in and out of education. The wealth of material on Geographical Education available to schools on the Continent opened the eyes of educators in England. Many visitors copied books, maps and atlases, and leading publishers were encouraged to publish many newly developed test books, maps and atlases. Another important feature of the exhibition was the large attendance of well-known professors and lecturers.' See, The Marquis of Lorne, 'The Annual Address on the Progress of Geography: 1885-6', Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society and Monthly Record of Geography New Monthly Series, 8/7 (Jul 1886), pp.417-418.

[91] Stoddart, op.cit., pp.289-290.

[92] Stoddart, op.cit., p.291.

agreed with the organisation for a second five-year plan. Cambridge University also established a chair of geography in February 1888 and the council contributed two-thirds of the salaries for five years. In 1899 a school of geography was established at Oxford under the supervision of the university and the council of the society, and the school was placed under the supervision of Mr Mackinder, who took a special interest in the historical and practical aspects of the subject.[93] Thus, some momentum was provided to geography education and staff who could eventually become geography teachers in secondary education were trained.[94]

The Discovery Prizes Awarded by the Royal Geographical Society

The Royal Geographical Society's support to encourage exploration and research is one of its most important areas of activity. In this regard, there are four types of support programes adopted by the association. It was presented to distinguished explorers and geographers in the form of gold medals, monetary donations, gold watches and tools. The society also made some initiatives to the government, seeking support for the execution of important expeditions, and in some cases undertook the sending and execution of an expedition itself.[95] In the first half-century of its existence, there was a vast unexplored area of the world and the Society devoted all its resources to accurately exploring this area, and the awards offered formed part of the Society's resources.[96] The Society's explorers were actively engaged in exploration in all parts of the world. For example, the zenith of African exploration was part of the great geographical events of the Society's first half century, the study of the oceans was recognized as an important part of geography since the days of Barrow and Smyth, Captain Sherard Osborn and other Arctic officers brought the renewal of polar exploration by naval vessels before the government through the

[93] *Year Book and Record 1903 Sıxth Year of Puplications,* pp.65-66.
[94] E. H. Brown, *Geography, Yesterday and Tomorrow,* Oxford 1980, p.102.
[95] Markham, op.cit., p.57.
[96] J. Scott Keltie, "Thirty Years Work of the Royal Geographical Society", *The Geographical Journal,* 49/5 (May 1917), p. 352.

council, and Anatolia was recognized as an important area of research since the Society was first founded.[97]

As an encouragement for these discoveries, King William IV granted an annual premium of 50 guineas (Royal Premium), which was paid in cash.[98] The first Royal Premium of 50 guineas was awarded in 1832 to Richard Lander for his services in Niger.[99] The second prize was awarded to John Biscoe for his Antarctic expedition in 1833. Sir John Ross received the third prize for his expedition to the American Arctic Regions which lasted at least four winters. The fourth prize was awarded to Sir Alexander Burnes for his Central Asia expedition from Kabul to Bukhara and back via Persia.[100] The fifth subsequent award was presented as a medal, and after 1836 the awards were presented as medals (Royal Medal).[101] The first Royal Medal was awarded to Sir George Back for his memorable voyage on the Great Fish River. The other two medals were awarded to Captain Robert FitzRoy for his explorations of South America and Patagonia, and Colonel Chesney for the Euphrates Expedition.[102]

With the accession of Queen Victoria, Her Majesty reinstated the 50 guinea donation made by her uncle, and the council decided that two gold medals, each worth 25 guineas, would be awarded annually. One of these two gold medals, the Founder's Medal, bears the portrait of King William IV, who is attributed as the founder, and the other, the Patron's Medal, bears the portrait of the reigning monarch. Both medals are considered equal in value and honor. The Council also decided to award the Victoria Medal in honour of the late Her Majesty Queen Victoria for her commitment to the scientific study of geography.[103]

In addition, the Society has four grants in recognition of valuable work in the field of exploration. The Murchison Grant, with an annual

[97] Year-Book and Record 1914, London: Kensington Gore 1914, p.23.
[98]Charles Close, Hugh Robert Mill, Douglas Freshfield, Francis Younghusband, General Bourgeois, Professor Oberhummer, Filippo de Filippi, Odon de Buen and Lauge Koch, "The Centenary Meeting: Addresses on the History of the Society", *The Geographical Journal,* 76/6 (Dec 1930), p. 455.
[99] Year-Book and Record 1914, p.23.
[100] Markham, op.cit*.,* p.58.
[101] Year-Book and Record 1914, p.23.
[102] Markham, op.cit*.,* pp.58-59.
[103] Year-Book and Record 1914, p.23.

value of £40, was the interest on £1000 bequeathed by Sir Roderick Murchison. It was decided by the Council that the annual income should be given to the traveler who was most successful in advancing the science of geography. The Back Grant, worth about £14 per annum, was interest on £540 bequeathed by Admiral Sir George Back, who died in 1878. Another fund, the Cuthbert Peek Grant, was to be used solely for the expansion of geographical knowledge. Donated by Cuthbert E. Peek in 1882, the £1000 endowment had an annual value of £25. And lastly, in 1886, the Gill Endowment, a gift from his sister, Mrs Gill, in memory of the late Captain WJ Gill, to encourage geographical research, with an annual value of £36.[104]

Exploration Prizes Awarded by the Royal Geographical Society for Explorations in Ottoman Lands

Considering the commercial and political interests of England after the Industrial Revolution, geography constituted an important pillar of the knowledge it needed, and the innovations developed in this direction were started to be implemented in the field.[105] Using these innovations, western travellers and researchers travelled to many regions and countries of the world and sought ways to build an imperialist order for their own countries in these areas.[106] In general, England, which became the empire on which the sun did not set in the world in the 19th and early 20th centuries, played an important role in world domination, with the knowledge that deserves this expression, especially during the reign of Queen Victoria between 1837-1901.[107] In particular, the Royal Geographical Society, which is within the scope of our subject, was the institution where geography and cartography activities were carried out that could produce data that would serve the imperialist expansion.[108] The British organised many trips to the

[104] Year-Book and Record 1914, p.25.

[105] Özgün, 'George Hayward's Journey to the Central Asia: The Periphery of the British Imperialist Politics', pp. 176-177.

[106]Cengiz Kartın, England's Kurdish Policy (1918-1923), Erciyes University Institute of Social Sciences Unpublished PhD Thesis, Kayseri 2014, p.110.

[107] Cengiz Kartın, Necmi Uyanık, 'A Brief Overview of Britain's Eastern Policy through the British Archives and the Works of F. R. Maunsell', Tarihin Peşinde: International Journal of History and Social Research, 26 (2021), p.42.

[108] Markham, op.cit., pp.19-32.

geographies they defined as the East, and the traveller's notes and memoirs obtained from these trips were recorded in the journals and archives of the society.[109]

The contents of the journals of the Royal Geographical Society, which are its publications, can be shown as important indicators in terms of understanding the fields of activity of the society. The travel notes, letters and observations produced during the researches and expeditions were compiled by the publications of the society and shared with the public. Some of these travels to many countries of the world were deemed worthy of Royal Geographical Society awards. It will be useful for our study to give brief information about a few of the prize-winning expeditions in these journals, which were carried out within the Ottoman territory.

Colonel Chesney (Royal Medal, for the General Conduct of the 'Euphrates Expedition' in 1835-36)

The 1838 Royal Prize was awarded by the Council to Lieutenant-Colonel Chesney, Royal Artillery, for his eastward expeditions in search of the Euphrates, which, with great labor and determination, made a valuable contribution to both comparative and physical geography in the exploration of northern Syria, Mesopotamia and the Susiana delta.[110]

Francis Rawdon Chesney is credited as the explorer of the Euphrates River and the general founder of the overland route to India. After the Ottoman-Russian War of 1828-29, he was encouraged by the British ambassador at the Sublime Porte, Sir R. Gordon, to undertake an inspection tour of Egypt and Syria, which led to two important results. One of them was the Suez Canal issue and M. De Lesseps admitted that this endeavour was based on Chesney's report. The other important result was the discovery of the Euphrates Valley in 1831. Chesney led two expeditions to open a route to India via Syria and the Persian Gulf. Having travelled from Kine to Koseyr and inspected Suez, Chesney

[109] Cengiz Kartın, 'Recent Period Turkey Studies, British Archives in terms of Possibilities and Limitations', Tarih Yazımı, 6/1 (2024), p.34.

[110] "At the Annual General Meeting, May 21, 1838: Report from the Council", *The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London,* 8 (1838), pp. iv-v.

decided to investigate the possibilities of an ancient but long-neglected route to India starting from the Syrian coast. He travelled through Palestine to investigate the Euphrates River, which had remained unexplored until then, and began to survey the Euphrates with detailed surveys. In this extremely challenging task, he did not speak the language of the Arabs and secrecy was required for the research. Chesney soon gained the trust of the Arabs and was able to conduct a comprehensive survey. He returned to England to submit a report to the government requesting acceptance of the Euphrates route to India. Over a period of two years, he liaised with King William, Lord Stratford Canning, Lord Ripon and other influential figures, and succeeded in getting a committee appointed to decide on the trial of a scheme of steam transport to India via the Euphrates.[111]

As a result of Chesney's efforts, in 1835, the expedition planned to investigate the river and test the effectiveness of steam power started with two ships named Euphrates and Tigris.[112] Chesney proved that the Euphrates was navigable for steamships along the entire route from the Mediterranean to the Persian Gulf, a distance of about 1200 miles, which was the original purpose of the expedition, and confirmed his earlier views about the docility of the Arab tribes living on the coast.[113]

Lieut John Frederick Anthony Symonds (Patron's Medal for his Survey in Palestine)

The Patron's medal, dedicated to His Majesty's gracious donation, was awarded to Lieutenant Symonds, a Royal engineer who surveyed a large part of Palestine.[114]

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[111] "Chesney", *The Dictionary of National Biography,* vol. IV, Oxford 1917, pp. 195-198.

[112]'We are proud to share the first and final version of the Euphrates Expedition with the public. This expedition is one of the most interesting expeditions ever undertaken for the purpose of establishing steam transport with India. The expedition was led by scientific officers equipped with various instruments, but apart from reasonable successes, the expedition was a failure.' See Colonel Chesney and W. Ainsworth, 'A General Statament of the Labours and Proceedings of the Expedition to the Euphrates under the Command of Colonel Chesney, Royal Artillery FRS', The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London,7 (1837), pp.411-439.

[113] "Chesney", *The Dictionary of National Biography,* p.198.

[114]"Report of Council", *The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society,* London, 13 (1843), p.vi.

The development of 19th century cartography owes much to the efforts of military surveyors who recognised the need for maps more clearly than ever before. By 1840, the general triangulation of a country and topographical studies had been handed over to skilled officers, and 19th century military cartography was carried out in colonial and political contested areas.[115] In 1840, Syria and Palestine were the center of such conflicts. The conflicts between the Governor of Egypt Mehmet Ali Pasha and the Ottoman Sultan posed serious threats to the Ottoman Empire.[116] At this point, thinking that it had become necessary to send forces to Syria, the British commissioned staff and corps officers under the command of Admiral Sir Robert Stopford. Lieutenant J.F.A. Symond arrived in Beirut on 13 December with the ranks under his command, and was sent to Jaffa with a small team to prepare a plan of the fortifications. In February 1841, Symonds arrived in Jerusalem, and in March 1841, he drew a plan of the city at a scale of 1:4800. This work was recognised as 'the first accurate plan of the holy city'. At the same time, Symonds received a message of thanks from the Royal Geographical Society for determining the level of the Dead Sea by the triangulation method.[117]

In addition, he was awarded the Patron's Medal by the council for his services in accurately determining the geographical data of the region located at an important point in the award presentations carried out by the society.[118]

W. J. Hamilton (Founder's Medal for his Research in Asia Minor)

In 1844 the Founder's Medal was awarded to William John Hamilton for his successful work on the physical geography, geology and antiquities of Asia Minor, Armenia and Pontus. In a speech delivered to the Royal Geographical Society, it was stated that this work provided detailed information about the central and northern parts of Asia Minor

[115] Yolande Jones, "British Military Surveys of Palestine and Syria 1840-1841", *The Cartographic Journal,* 10/1 (June 1973), p.30.
[116] For Kavalalı Mehmet Ali Pasha Rebellion, see Şinasi Altundağ, Kavalalı Mehmet Ali Pasha Rebellion and the Egyptian Question, TTK, Ankara 2021.
[117] Jones, op.cit., pp.31-41.
[118] "Presentation of the Gold Medals", *The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London,* 13 (1843), pp.xi-xii.

and made a significant contribution to both physical geography and geology by redefining Armenia.[119]

William John Hamilton (1805-1867) was born in Scotland, studied at the University of Göttingen, and early in his career held diplomatic posts in Madrid, Paris and Florence. He became a member of the Geological Society of London in 1831 and its president in 1854.[120] Hamilton was also an active member of the Royal Geographical Society and served as its president in 1848 and 1849.[121] In the summer of 1836, he shared the reports of his Anatolian travels with the society[122], and in 1842 he published the book in which he gave detailed information about this journey under the title Researches in Asia Minor, Pontus and Armenia. With these travels, Hamilton, who gained a successful place among British travellers, became the first person to climb Mount Erciyes with his scientific researches in Ottoman lands.[123]

Dr. Georg August Wallin of Finland (25 Guineas for his Travels in Arabia)

Dr. Georg August Wallin travelled through a large part of the Arabian Peninsula that had never been traveled by Europeans, and during his travels he collected a great deal of interesting geographical information, which he shared with the Society. In recognition of Wallin's travels in Arabia, the Society presented him with a prize of 25 guineas.[124] He

[119] "Presentation of the Gold Medals", *The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London,* 14 (1844), p.xxvii.

[120] Murat Hanilçe, 'An Ottoman City in 1836 through the Eyes of William John Hamilton: Tokat', Foreign Travelogues on Turkey, Türk Yurdu Yayınları, Ankara-Ar December 2016, pp.175-176.

[121]'In accordance with the practice established by my predecessors during my presidency, I would like to share with you the developments in geography.' See W. J. Hamilton, 'Address to the Royal Geographical Society of London', The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London,18 (1848), p.xxxi.

[122] See W.J. Hamilton, "Extracts from Notes Made on a Journey in Asia Minor in 1836", *the Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London,* 7 (1837), pp.34-61.

[123]'The height of this mountain is so great and so unusual in this part of the world that the inhabitants of this country look upon it with admiration.', See William John Hamilton, Researches in Asia Minor, Pontus and Armenia with Some Account of their Antiquities and Geology', vol.2, London 1842, p.274.

[124]"Presentation of the Royal Premium", *The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London,* 21 (1881), p.liii.

prepared the valuable text titled *Notes Taken during a Journey through Part of Northern Arabia* about his adventures and observations about Arabia.[125]

In the history of Arabian exploration Dr Wallin, the forerunner of Burton, Palgrave and Doughty, occupies an honourable place. He wrote two important articles containing a mass of information about the parts of Arabia he visited.[126] One of his articles was published in 1850 under the title *Notes Taken during a Journey through Part of Northern Arabia*[127], and the other was published in 1854 under the title *Narrative of a Journey from Cairo to Medina and Mecca, by Suez, Araba, Tawila, al-Jauf, Jubbe, Hail and Nejd*[128] in 1845.

Wallin's journey to Wahhabi country began when he applied for a traveling scholarship from the University of Helsingfors, which enabled him to travel in the East. His main goal was to visit Yemen and South Nejd to study Himyarite. However, he achieved neither of these. He spent a total of seven years in the East, with short stays in Syria, Iran and Iraq and longer stays in Egypt, especially in Cairo. During his stay in Cairo, to be able to travel freely in Arabia, he underwent a long period of training in Islam and identified himself as Abdel Wali. During this period, Wallin seemed to be a perfect Muslim, but there is no trace of any connection with the Turkish official class in his diaries. There is only a connection with Arabs from the lower middle class.[129]

W. Gifford Palgrave (25 Guineas for his Journey in Arabia)

Gifford Palgrave's journey to Arabia provided important information about the internal situation of the country and its Wahhabi

[125]Sharif M. Aloboudi, "Najd, the Heart of Arabia", *Arab Studies Quarterly,* 37/3 (2015), p.294.
[126] M. Trautz, "The Penetration of Arabia", *The Geographical Journal,* 76/3 (Sep 1930), p.249.
[127] Georg August Wallin, "Notes Taken during a Journey Through Part of Northern Arabia in 1848", *The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London,* 20 (1850), pp.293-344.
[128] Georg August Wallin, "Narrative of a Journey from Cairo to Medina and Mecca, by Suez, Araba, Tawila, alJauf, Jubbe, Hail and Nejd in 1845", *The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London, 24 (1854),* pp.115-207.
[129] Trautz, op.cit., p.250.

inhabitants.[130] At the anniversary meeting Palgrave was awarded 25 guineas for his journey in Arabia.[131]

Palgrave, a member of the Royal Geographical Society, attracted universal attention with his journey to Arabia in 1862-63. Born in Westminster in 1826, Palgrave was educated at Trinity College, Oxford, and after university entered the army as a lieutenant in the Bombay Native Infantry Regiment. Palgrave, who had a farsighted, energetic, and fearless nature since childhood, left the army within a few years, became a Catholic and joined the Jesuit order and devoted himself to their work for fifteen years. He learnt Arabic while working as an order official in India, Syria and Rome and decided to go to Arabia with the mission of Beirut to see if it would be possible to work as a Christian teacher in Arabia. In this regard, he received the support of the Emperor Napoleon III of France and persuaded his superiors. Palgrave believed that having detailed information about Arabia would be useful for imperialist ambitions.[132]

He completed his mission in 1863, left the Jesuits, and returned to Europe. He narrated his journey and adventures at the February 1864 meetings, and in 1865 he published his article *Personal Narrative of a Year's Journey through Central and Eastern Arabia (1862-1863)* in the journal of the Society.[133]

During his stay in Arabia, Gifford Palgrave introduced himself as a Syrian doctor and befriended Faisal bin Turki bin Abdullah Al Saud. Faysal's son Abdurrahman bin Faysal bin Turki Al Saud accused him of espionage and sentenced him to death. However, Palgrave escaped from these punishments.[134]

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[130]Roderick Impey Murchison, "Address to the Royal Geographical Society", *The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London,* 35 (1865), p.clxxiv.

[131]"Report of the Council", *The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London,* 35 (1865), p. x.

[132] William Gifford Palgrave, *A Vision of Life Semblance and Reality,* London 1891, p.vi.

[133] For detailed information, see W.G. Palgrave, 'Observations Made in Central, Eastern and Southern Arabia during a Journey Through That Country in 1862 and 1863', The Journal of the Royal Geographical Society of London, 34 (1864), pp.111-154.

[134] Palgrave, op.cit., p.viii.

In 1865, he was given a diplomatic mission by the British government and was appointed consul of Trabzon in 1867 and consul general of Bulgaria in 1878. In 1878 he became a member of the Royal Geographical Society and was awarded a gold medal from the French Geographical Society.[135]

On the other hand, the work of Palgrave titled 'Ulysses: or Scenes and Studies in Many Lands' about the Kurds, the future of the Kurds and Kurdistan is quite remarkable. It is quite meaningful that Palgrave argues in this work that the Kurds, if supported by British politicians, could form the core of a nation and become the backbone of resistance against the Russian advance in that part of Asia. This argument points to the influence of people who took various diplomatic missions under the name of travellers on British policy makers.[136]

Charles M. Doughty (the Gill Memorial as a Contrubition towards the Expenses Incurred on his Map of Arabia)

The Gill Memorial Prize of 1888 was awarded to Charles M. Doughty. His travel gives a map of Arabia in addition to studies on Arabia.[137]

Born in 1843 at Theberton Hall, Doughty was educated at Caius College, Cambridge in 1861, enrolled at Dawning College, Cambridge in 1866, and completed his MA at Caius College in 1869. During his undergraduate studies he became interested in antiquarian exploration, and after receiving his diploma he spent two years in London and Oxford on his account.[138] In 1876, he began his travels in Arabia[139], where his reputation as a traveller and scientist was mainly based, establishing close relations with the Arabs and travelling in Egypt, the Sinai Peninsula and Petra. Through his notes, he both organised the first superficial map of the Arabian Peninsula and wrote his work *Arabia in Deserta*, taking a

[135] Palgrave, op.cit., pp.ix-x.
[136] Henry Howorth, Mr Holmwood, Douglas Freshfield and General Strachey, "Kurdistan: Discussion", *The Geographical Journal,* 3/2 (Feb 1894), p.94.
[137] "The Anniversary Meeting May 28th 1888", *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society and Monthly Record of Geography,* 10/7 (Jul 1888), p.468.
[138] D. G. Hogarth, "The Life of Charles Montagu Doughty", *The Geographical Journal,* 72/6 (Dec 1928), pp.555-556.
[139] *RGS/IBG ARCHIVES LONDON,* CB/7 1881-1910, Report on his travels in Northwest Arabia and Najd.

close interest in the life of the people of Arabia.[140] Although this work was written between 1879 and 1883, it was not published until 1888 due to the slow publication process at Cambridge University Press and the length and density of the book.[141] During the war, this work was fully realised and became the principal guidebook for military and political personnel during British activities in Arabia. For this work Charles M. Doughty was awarded an honorary doctorate from Oxford in 1908, the Cambridge Honours in 1920 and the gold medal of the Royal Geographical Society in 1912.[142]

Conclusion

While the XV and XVI centuries in Europe were a period of important events such as reform, Renaissance and geographical discoveries, great transformations were also experienced in geography. While Europe became the center of geographical knowledge because of these important transformations, in the 18th century England became the first country to industrialise with the Industrial Revolution and established the world's most powerful imperialist domination. In the late nineteenth century, when modern European science and imperialism coexisted, Europeans saw geographical knowledge as the key to imperialist power.

The universal interest aroused by the science of geography and the primary importance of its benefits for humanity, the necessity for the prosperity of a nation such as Great Britain with its vast territory, the benefit of knowing the concepts of the physical and political relations of the world, etc. revealed the necessity of establishing an association for geography.

In this regard, the Royal Geographical Society, founded in 1830, worked with all its strength and determination to add more to this power thanks to its officers in the field, starting from the fact that geographical knowledge is the key to the imperialist power. While the Society decided to publish a journal under its structure to benefit from the researches carried out in the field, to record discoveries, to

[140] "Mr C. M. Doughty", *Nature,* 117/204 (1926), p.204.
[141] Andrew C. Long, *Reading Arabia British Orientalism in the Age of Mass Publication 1880-1930,* 2014, p.43.
[142]Doughty, op.cit., *p.204.*

disseminate new information, and to provide encouragement for geographical studies, it also decided to create a library.

The discovery awards, which were implemented to encourage discovery and research, constituted one of the most important fields of activity in the society, and the organization also sought support from the government to reward important explorations. In this article, some conclusions about the awards given for the expeditions made in the Ottoman geography are also included.

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