



# Forts in Indonesia

Indonesia is blessed with an abundance of heritage that is still to be properly capitalized on. This embarrassingly rich archipelago boasts a great number of heritage buildings built by its own indigenous peoples and also those that came to fruition from foreign influences. Together, they have now become the nation's shared heritage.

This book puts its focus on one such shared heritage that is found scattered throughout almost the whole archipelago of Indonesia in the form of fortification structures. In order to provide a more focused elaboration and to produce articles of sufficient quality that would provide readers with a better understanding and appreciation of the selected forts, the subject of this book is limited to the period between the 16<sup>th</sup> century up to World War I. This time frame is also meant to underline certain milestones in the respective passages of history.

The building of fortification structures in Indonesia began in the 16<sup>th</sup> century with the arrival of western nations in Malacca in 1511 that had drastically altered the trade and defense scenes in the country where the existing vernacular forts were decidedly replaced by colonial forts.

Scattered across numerous islands of the Indonesian archipelago, there are 422 forts found as the result of 'Inventory and Identification of Forts in Indonesia', a research project conducted between 2007-2010 by the Indonesia Architecture Documentation Centre by commission of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, with co-sponsorship by the Government of the Royal Kingdom of the Netherlands.

Cover Photo

Front : Image of harbor in Batavia with Pangrango and Gede mountain, painted by Hendrick Jacobsz Dubbels in 640 – 1676 (collection of Rijksmuseum).

Back : Marlborough (Bengkulu), Buton (Sulawesi), Amsterdam (Maluku), Belgica (Maluku), Vredeburg (Jawa), Otanaha (Sulawesi)



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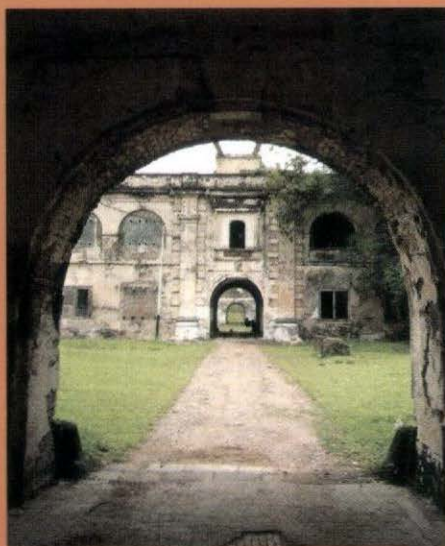


1839 - 1845





# Forts in Indonesia





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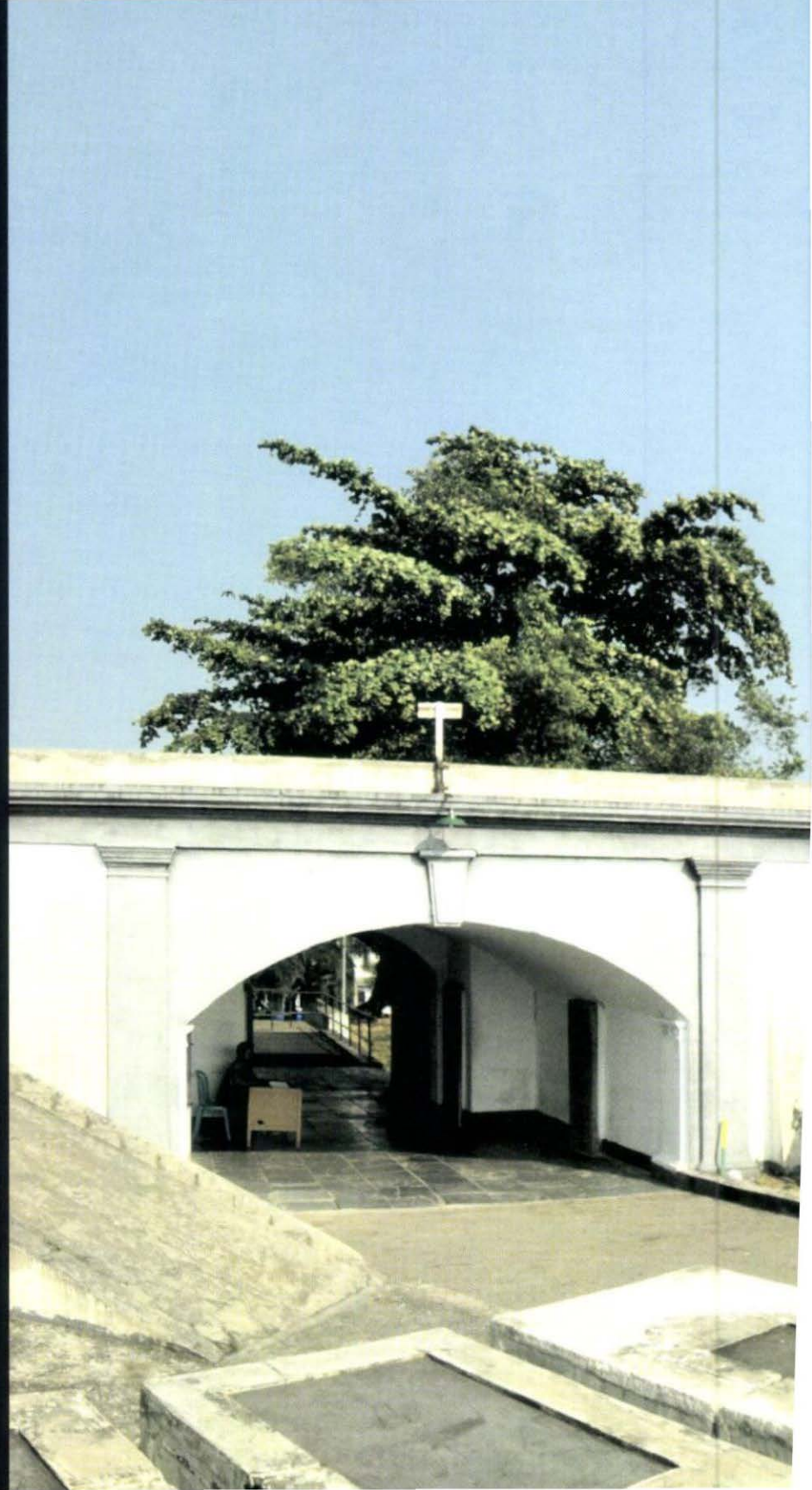
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## Foreword

H.E. PROF. DR. IR. MOHAMMAD NUH, DEA  
MINISTER OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE, REPUBLIC OF INDONESIA

Indonesia possesses a large number of fortification-works as legacies of both native rulers and those structures which were built by European spice trading companies, whose countries later became colonial powers from the 16<sup>th</sup> to the 20<sup>th</sup> centuries. The legacy of fortifications also includes those specific structures built as defense mechanism systems in Indonesia during World War II.

Fortification structures are not only about the legacy of architecture buildings. They are an integral part of the history of the Indonesia as a nation state and its culture. Many fortification structures were built for defense systems and as symbols of power. Thus, they reflect the dynamic interaction among kingdoms within the archipelago as well as kingdoms within the region, and between Europeans and the native political forces.

The Government of the Republic of Indonesia has a national agenda to compile comprehensive documentation of the existing condition of these various types of forts as important parts of our national cultural and historical heritage. The effort of documenting and classifying has been conducted under the direction of the Directorate of Archaeological Heritage, Directorate General of History and Archaeology, of the Ministry of Education and Culture, in cooperation with the Indonesian Center for Architectural Documentation (PDA) and PAC Architects and Consultants from 2007 – 2010. The number of forts or defense works covered by this comprehensive project total 422 to date and the list continues to grow. They are located throughout Indonesia's 33 Provinces.

The publication of this book is one of the outcomes of this comprehensive project. It highlights the impressive diversity of the forts of Indonesia, notably in the period from the 16<sup>th</sup> through to the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Therefore this is a valuable reference and historical work which will be especially appreciated by the young generation.

The fascinating illustrations and well-written articles in this publication reveal the wealth of culture, history, archaeology, and architecture found throughout the vast Indonesian archipelago. Readers will note that the appropriate management of the forts as heritage sites and objects of visitor interest are among the important issues that are covered in the book.

I would like to express our deep appreciation of the generous support given to assist the completion of this study by Dutch experts, heritage institutions in Holland, and the Embassy of the Kingdom of the Netherlands in Jakarta. Only the considerable financial support and close cooperation of the respective governments of Indonesia and the Netherlands made it possible to carry out this worthwhile project.

This book is presented following the vision and mission of the Ministry of Education and Culture to help ensure Indonesia is an intellectually strong and well-informed nation. It demonstrates as well as the firm commitment of the Government of the Republic of Indonesia to make every effort in the documentation and preservation of the nation's rich and diverse cultural heritage and to enable us to implement policies of heritage sustainability.

**Prof. Dr. Ir. Mohammad Nuh, DEA**







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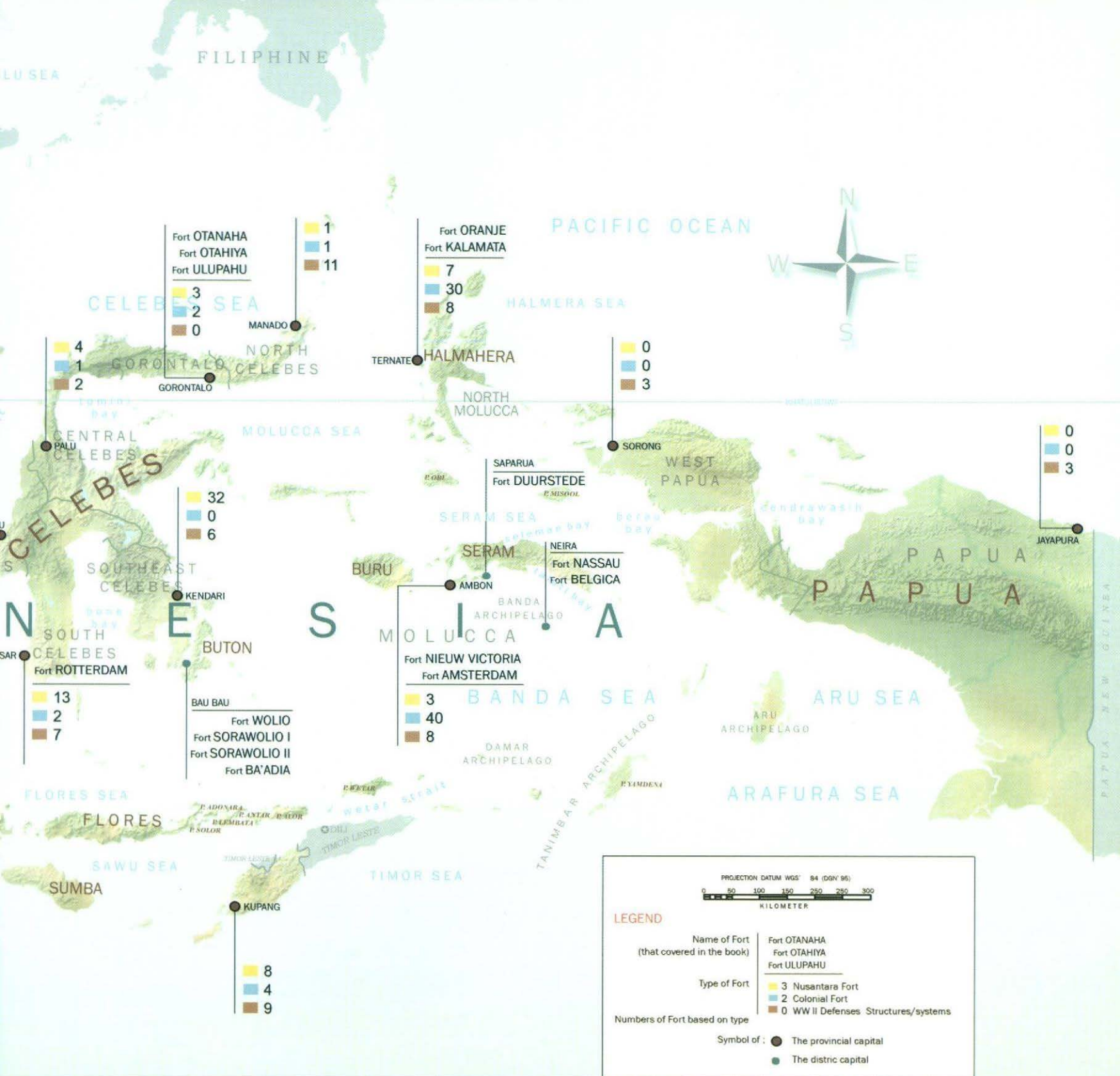
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UNTUK MENINGKATKAN KESEJAHTERAAN RAKYAT

SADA TERTIP NASUN KASATUN  
1. SADI ALIN LATER HAT  
2. KADA PINTU BISI HARAP DITUNJUKAN  
3. DILA KALAU KAD LAMPU DILAN DITUNJUKAN  
4. KACABATU KITA, JAKET DITUNJUK















# Forts in Indonesia: Shaping the future of the respective communities

127  
Elementary students enter the  
gate of Fort Van den Bosch  
(1839), better known as Fort  
Pendem Ngawi.

The 21<sup>st</sup> century has become the century of Asia. This global premise has now become an undeniable fact, considering the development and progress taking place throughout almost all of Asia. Besides economic development, what is also distinctively observable in Asia is the development of commercial buildings in huge scales, as well as multi-storey office buildings, airports and large scale housing estates. Globalization is taking place and impacting the development in Asia. One tangible proof is the ever uniform and unvaried type of architecture style adopted in the construction of buildings. This monotonous trend is taking place in most big cities of the world, particularly in many developing cities of Indonesia. Only a handful of our cities are able to provide pleasant physical or visual environments. Nevertheless, some cities still permeate a distinctive local shade that distinguishes it from other cities, such as Yogyakarta, Sawahlunto and Ubud. Those cities have proven that diverse traditions and heritages, if properly maintained, can indeed generate a significant meaning and value to urban areas.

Indonesia is abundant with a motley rich heritage that is still to be properly capitalized on, for example the heritage buildings that are the products of her own indigenous people as well as foreign elements. Together, they have now become the nation's shared heritage.

This book focuses on one such shared heritage that is found scattered almost throughout the whole archipelago of Indonesia: fortification structures. The Center of Architecture Documentation (Pusat

Dokumentasi Arsitektur – PDA) has recently completed a three-year inventory assignment of forts in Indonesia. The exercise has revealed that there are more than 400 fortification structures in Indonesia, of which only a very small number are utilized for the interests of the communities. In fact, their location distribution, physical conditions and architectural styles are of such interest as to potentially provide great benefit for the respective communities, especially since many of them are found in strategic locations. Furthermore, those fortification structures possess the potential to be developed into distinctive elements of the urban landscape that would eventually become typical landmarks of the respective cities that distinguish them from other cities in the world.

This book exposes just a small number of all the forts that have been inventoried by PDA. The limited numbers of forts have been selected through very tight criteria. One of the main considerations is whether the fortification structures possess the potential to be further developed than the others. This potential is viewed from several aspects such as economic potential, the current physical condition, the location and accessibility as well as their respective status in the official list of heritage structures. In this book there are no forts from Borneo, Bali and Nusa Tenggara, because none of the forts on these islands met the above-mentioned criteria.

In order to better appreciate this book, we herewith provide our definition of a fort (a fortification structure).

**Fort** , a strong or fortified place strategically located, occupied by troops and maintained for defense, built structurally with ramparts, parapets and glacis, and provided with embrasures and traverse. It allows troops to be posted as a first line of defense.

During the initial period of VOC settlement, accommodation requirements were simple and pragmatic. Fortified trading stations were built according to the rules of military architecture. In addition, sufficient building space for merchants and their commercial administration, warehouses to store merchandise, a church, a hospital and of course housing for military garrisons, including a munitions store, were required.

Deriving from the above definition, we understand that in general there are several types of forts. Next to forts as defense structures, there are other types of buildings that are known as kastil or castle, and city walls.



**Castle**, *a large fortified building or a complex of buildings, usually with tall solid walls, battlements and a permanent garrison. In Indonesia, a castle built during the VOC era referred to a fort that was occupied by the ruler of the region (governor or governor-general).*

**City wall**, *a rectangular area enclosed by a fortification wall, with bastions at regular intervals. The two bastions at each corner extend slightly outside the line of the fortifications to provide better vision towards the surrounding countryside and along the length of the wall.*

The above-mentioned definitions underline the differences among the defense structures found in Indonesia; however, in the process of drawing up the inventory list, those structures have been included in the list of forts in Indonesia.

As far as the time frame is concerned, this book limits itself to the period between the 16<sup>th</sup> century up to World War I, in order to provide more focused elaboration and produce articles of sufficient quality that provide the reader with a better understanding and appreciation of the selected forts. The time frame is also meant to underline certain milestones in the respective passages of history. The building of fortification structures in Indonesia began in the 16<sup>th</sup> century with the arrival of Western nations in Malacca in 1511 that had drastically altered the trade and defense scenes in the country. The existing vernacular forts were replaced by colonial forts. During the Dutch occupation of Indonesia, more colonial forts were built, until the arrival of the Japanese when the technique of war changed and another type of defense structure was developed. This happened at the advent of World War I.

We hope that this book will provide a good and objective view of forts in Indonesia. Besides offering attractive illustrations and photographs, the forts mentioned in the book have considerable potential to be immediately developed. Indeed, these forts should be properly maintained and utilized in order for them to take an active part in shaping the future of the respective communities.







# The Story Behind





# Forts **Timeline** in Indonesia

History of Forts in Indonesia is chronologically divided into several periods, based on significant historical events that took place in Indonesia, especially pertaining to the construction of the forts.

- Before 1512 : Prior to the arrival of Westerners
- 1512 : Arrival of the Portuguese in Nusantara (the Archipelago)
- 1799 : End of the VOC
- 1799-1942 : The Netherlands Indies Period
- 1942 : The Japanese Occupation in Indonesia
- 1945 : Independence of Indonesia

The forts described in this book are those built between 1512 and 1942, specifically from the Portuguese arrival through to the Dutch Indies period and before the Japanese invasion. The reason for focusing on this period is because there is sufficiently complete historical data about the forts, they are in relatively good condition and have specific significant architectural characteristics.

Forts that were built before 1512 include:

- Jabung, Pugungraharjo and Negarasaka in Lampung, built during the prehistoric period, are settlement forts made of soil mounds.
- Indrapatra, Indrapuri and Indrapurwa in Aceh Besar, built during the Hindu period around the 13<sup>th</sup> century. These are royal forts.

Between 1512 and 1945 hundreds of Colonial and Nusantara forts were built in the Indonesian Archipelago. Colonial forts are forts built by the Europeans until 1800s, primarily for defensible trade post purposes and were exclusively used by the army afterward. The Nusantara forts are those forts that have been built by different communities of the Indonesian Archipelago. In certain time frames, they also include forts that were built by foreigners upon request of a certain Indonesia community. Several forts considered significant in this period are:

- Colonial forts: Fort Belgica (Banda, Maluku), Fort Rotterdam (Makassar, South Sulawesi), Fort Marlborough (Bengkulu) and Fort Vredeburg (Yogyakarta).
- Nusantara forts: Fort Surosowan (Banten), Fort Keraton Buton (Bau-Bau, South-East Sulawesi) and Fort Sultan Iskandar Muda (Aceh).

Following the Japanese invasion of the Netherland Indies in 1942, the defense system using forts was no longer applied. Modern defense structures were smaller and distributed in a wide range of areas, and consisted of pillboxes, caves, and bunkers. Defense structures such as these can be found in almost all parts of Indonesia. Some of the most significant ones are:

- Japanese defense structures in Kalimantan (East and West): bunkers, pillboxes and caves built between 1936- 1945. One of quite important significant is in Tarakan, East Kalimantan.
- Dago Pakar Caves, Bandung, West Java: bunkers and caves built in 1939- 1942.
- Laha, Air Salobar, Lathualat, Paso and Nusaniwe, in the Moluccas: bunkers and pillboxes built in 1942-1945.
- Japanese defense structures in Sabang and Aceh, built in 1942 - 1945.

## 16<sup>th</sup> century

- Gamlamo, North Maluku 16<sup>th</sup> century
- Tahoele, North Maluku 16<sup>th</sup> century
- Kotalama, Maluku 16<sup>th</sup> century
- Putri Hijau, North Sumatra 16<sup>th</sup> century
- Somba Opu, South Sulawesi 16<sup>th</sup> century
- **Otahiya, Otanaha, Ulupahu, Gorontalo 16<sup>th</sup> century**



- Cobo, North Maluku 16<sup>th</sup> century
- Lohayong, East Nusa Tenggara 16<sup>th</sup> century

## 1512-1599

- Amurang, North Sulawesi 1512
- Kastela, North Maluku 1522
- Kota Janji, North Maluku 1523
- Oranje, Gorontalo 1525
- Kota Wuna, South East Sulawesi 1538
- **Kalamata, North Maluku 1540**



- Sanrobone, Sulawesi 1510
- Tolukko, North Maluku 1513
- Saboga, North Maluku 1548
- Barneveld, North Maluku 1558
- En de Island, East Nusa Tenggara 1570
- **Surosowan, Banten 1570 - 1580**



- Tore, North Maluku 1578
- **Keraton Buton, Southeast Sulawesi 1578**



- Ba'adja, South East Sulawesi 16<sup>th</sup> century
- Sorowolio 1, South East Sulawesi 16<sup>th</sup> century
- Sorowolio 2, South East Sulawesi 16<sup>th</sup> century
- Cepuri Kota Gede, Yogyakarta 1578
- **Nieuw Victoria, Maluku 1580**



- Tallo, South Sulawesi 1593
- **Inong Balee NAD 1599**



## 17<sup>th</sup> century

- Kuta Lubhok, NAD 17<sup>th</sup> century
- Gunung Biram, NAD 17<sup>th</sup> century
- Gamkonora, North Maluku 17<sup>th</sup> century
- Tabilolo, North Maluku 17<sup>th</sup> century
- Sidangoli, North Maluku 17<sup>th</sup> century
- Vollenhaven, Maluku 17<sup>th</sup> century
- Portugis Jepara, Central Java 17<sup>th</sup> century

## 1600-1695

- **Nassau, North Maluku 1600**



- **Oranje, Ternate 1607**

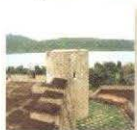


- Takome, North Maluku 1609
- Nassau, North Maluku 1609
- Mareku, North Maluku 1610





## • Belgica, Maluku 1611



- Mauritius, North Maluku 1612
- Revengie, Maluku 1616
- Hollandia-Banda, Maluku 1618-1625
- Batavia's City Wall, DKI Jakarta 1619
- Iskandar Muda, NAD 17<sup>th</sup> century



- Ureng-Banda, Maluku 1624
- Passo, Maluku 1625-1626
- Nieuw Zeelandia, Maluku 1626
- Dender, Maluku 1626
- Oma, Maluku 1627
- Ome, North Maluku 1627
- Concordia, Maluku 1630
- Harderwick, Maluku 1630
- Rotterdam, South Sulawesi 1673



- Rotterdam, Maluku 1633
- Poewatie, North Maluku 1634
- Salomon, Maluku 1636
- Amsterdam, Maluku 1636



- Ureng-Ambon, Maluku 1638
- Dodinga, North Maluku 1640
- Selth, Maluku 1643
- Kapahaha, Maluku 1643
- Overburg, Maluku 1644
- Wantrouw, Maluku 1644
- Concordia, East Nusa Tenggara 1653
- Hollandia-Saparua, Maluku 1654
- Beverwijk, Maluku 1654
- Haarlem - van der Capellen, Maluku 1655
- Delf, Maluku 1656
- Onrust Island, DKI Jakarta 1656

- York, Bengkulu 1658
- Leiden Enkhuizen, Maluku 1599
- Delfshaven, Maluku 1667
- Asakota 1, West Nusa Tenggara 1667-1674
- Asakota 2, West Nusa Tenggara 1667-1674
- VOC Jepara, Central Java 1677
- Den Briel, North Maluku 1677
- Speelwijk, Banten 1684



- Sanana, North Maluku 1689
- Duurstude, Maluku 1691



- Piru, Maluku 1695

## 18<sup>th</sup> century

- Tatas, South Kalimantan early 18<sup>th</sup> century
- Kartosuro's City Wall, Central Java 18<sup>th</sup> century
- Keraton Surakarta's City Wall, Central Java 18<sup>th</sup> century
- Kuto Panji, Bangka Belitung 1789
- Anna, Bengkulu 1798
- Parit Lingga, Riau Archipelago, 18<sup>th</sup> century
- Kuala Daik, Riau Archipelago 18<sup>th</sup> century
- Bukit Cening, Riau Archipelago 18<sup>th</sup> century
- Linau, Bengkulu 18<sup>th</sup> century
- Kotanaka, North Maluku 18<sup>th</sup> century

## 1712-1785

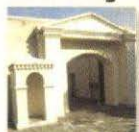
- Liya Southeast Sulawesi 1712
- Marlborough, Bengkulu 1714



- Bangkalan, East Java 1747
- Pekalongan, Central Java 1753
- Willem II, Central Java 1755-1757



- Vredenburg Yogyakarta 1760



- Kayeli, North Maluku 1778
- Vastenburg, Central Java 1779



- Tabanio, South Kalimantan 1779
- Tegal, Central Java 1780
- Kuta Batee Trumponi, NAD 1780
- Kuto Besak, Palembang 1780



- Kalimo ok, East Java 1785
- Hoorn, Maluku 1785
- Baluwarti, Yogyakarta 1785

## 19<sup>th</sup> century

- Panarukan, East Java early 19<sup>th</sup> century
- Van den Bosch, East Java 19<sup>th</sup> century
- Karang Bolong, Central Java End 19<sup>th</sup> century
- Indramayu, West Java 19<sup>th</sup> century
- Van Der Wijck, Central Java 1818



- Klingker, Central Java 19<sup>th</sup> century



- Bukit Kursi, Riau Archipelago 19<sup>th</sup> century
- Bukit Punggawat, Riau Archipelago 19<sup>th</sup> century
- Tundakan, South Kalimantan 19<sup>th</sup> century
- Raden Inten II, Lampung 19<sup>th</sup> century
- Dutch Military Camp Siak, Riau 19<sup>th</sup> century
- Sisingamangaraja, North Sumatra 19<sup>th</sup> century
- Batee Ilie, NAD 19<sup>th</sup> century
- Alla', South Sulawesi 19<sup>th</sup> century
- Marlonga, East Nusa Tenggara 19<sup>th</sup> century

## 1808-1907

- Lodewijk, East Java 1808
- Imam Borjol, West Sumatera 1808
- Sungai Buluh, Bangka Belitung 1816
- Toboali, Bangka Belitung 1816
- Prins Hendrik Tanjung Pinang, Riau Archipelago 1818-1824
- Van der Capellen, West Sumatera 1822
- Kota Batu, West Kalimantan 1822
- Sawaai, Maluku 1823
- De Kock, West Sumatera 1825
- Willem I, Central Java 1833



- Tuhuh Lapis, Riau 1835
- Pendem Cilacap, Central Java 1846
- Bidadari Island, DKI Jakarta 1850
- Cipri Island, DKI Jakarta 1850
- Barus, North Sumatra 1857-1902
- Balangnipa, South Sulawesi 1859
- Madang, South Kalimantan 1860
- Muara Teweh, Central Kalimantan 1877
- Kuta Raja, NAD 1882-1901
- Nanga Pinoh, West Kalimantan 1888
- Fatilo, East Nusa Tenggara 1907







# Forts: People And Trade

159  
Cornelis de Houtman met the ruler of Sumatra, which part of the island was not mentioned

*By observing the locations of forts in Nusantara, our curiosity is invariably kindled by the choice of the respective building sites. Some magnificent structures were built along the coast facing the sea, others stood solidly by the riverside, and some were hidden in the hinterlands.*

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More profound studies would reveal that those forts built along the coast facing the sea were generally constructed in the 17<sup>th</sup> – 18<sup>th</sup> centuries, during the time when the VOC (Dutch East-Indies Company) was at the height of its supremacy. There are also forts – mostly in Sumatra – that were built along the river banks. In Sumatra, the prevailing geographic concept of environment was based on *ulu* (upstream) and *ilir* (downstream); locations along the rivers from time immemorial become the principal thoroughfare of the people. Even Nassau and Mauritius forts, eventually developed into the Castle of Batavia, were also built along the east bank of Ciliwung River. On the other hand, forts built in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, mostly in Java and Sumatra, were mostly located in the inland regions.

By studying the respective locations of forts, we are bound to surmise what functions and reasons behind the building of the forts. The nouns 'fort' and 'fortification' both refer to defense structures including defense systems, which were integral parts of what was called *defensie werken*, according to old Dutch





Fig. 12

A Dutch ship off the coast of India, painted on cotton cloth from the Ceramence coast, dating from the late 1800s

documents. The VOC defense system, comprising the construction of forts in Nusantara, was basically related to maritime trade and trade shipping activities that rapidly developed in the 17th and 18th centuries. It was the period when the Dutch Trading Company succeeded in putting the trade routes and their respective ports under its control through the monopoly system. This exclusivity was gained after defeating local maritime royal powers such as Banten, Palembang and Makassar, and also annexing the North Java coastal area.

Presumably the forts were built not solely as parts of defense systems, but also as trading posts complete with all necessary facilities, including storage of spices that became the prime commodity at the time, administration offices, military training fields, arsenal, soldier barracks, logistics storage and others. Hence, the compound of such buildings was called *loji* - in the Malay language, from the Dutch *Logie*-accommodation.

The 'trade and war' principle was implemented, as trade shipping activities at the time were based on the *mare liberum* (the free sea) concept, a necessity due to the armed forces defending conquered trade routes. This meant that war, piracy and looting of trade ships plying the Eastern waters were not unusual happenings, but were even expected. European trading companies controlled the global seas in the East and West hemispheres. The Dutch, English, Portuguese, Spaniards were the four main actors in the trade wars, while local sea-faring people such as the Buginese, the Malays, the Ilanuns and the Bajaus also played active roles by upsetting the VOC monopoly. Understandably, the VOC regarded those local agitators as 'sea pirates' whereas those people were in fact free people roaming the seas of Nusantara, even ending up in Africa.

Figure 1.1  
A multi-masted Chinese junk in full  
sail, early 20th century





On the other hand, when the territory that is now the Republic of Indonesia was ruled by the Dutch Indies colonial government, forts were built for the sole purpose of defense and war.

In general, local people did not fight against the colonial power by conducting open warfare. The local commanders applied the 'attack and hide' pattern, which explains why most forts built in the 19<sup>th</sup> century were located in the inland regions. For example, Fort Kota Generaal Cochius, which the local people called Fort Bonjol as it was located in Bonjol village, the center of their defense during the Paderi War (1821-1837). A similar case is the forts in the inland region of Aceh for the needs of the Aceh expedition. In Central Java, forts were built based on the chain of defense and attack system, *bentengsteisel*, which eventually weakened the resistance of Prince Diponegoro. This 'fort system' was implemented in 1827, cornering Diponegoro's army and leading to its eventual defeat.

Forts were initially built to protect VOC trading offices located along the coast and river banks, as trade activities at that time were conducted along the sea route and through inland water ways. Trading ships had to dock at ports when loading and unloading trade commodities. In Sumatra, a big river such as the Musi was a trade route from the *ulu* to the estuary, giving prosperity to the Palembang maritime kingdom. Hence, the fort that the VOC built was in fact the residence of the Sultan of Palembang, located along the banks of the Musi River. The new traditional royal palace built by Sultan Mahmud Badaruddin in 1780 was conquered by the Dutch in 1821 and turned into a trading office that also served as a fort.

## Forts and Trade

In the eastern part of Indonesia, European traders competed against each other to establish control over the spices that were to be sold in European markets, while in the western part of Nusantara the prime commodity was pepper. It was planted in almost the entire west coast of Sumatra, from Aceh down to Lampung. Besides pepper, Sumatra also produced *gambier*, dammar and gold. Lampung, as a vassal of the Banten Sultanate, produced pepper which greatly contributed to the riches of the maritime kingdom. Palembang traded in pepper and tin with the VOC: tin was discovered in 1710 in the Bangka and Belitung islands subjugated to the Sultanate of Palembang. In West Sumatra, Pariaman and Padang were busy ports for the pepper trade as the commodity was produced in the area. In Aceh, the main ports of the sultanate were Pedir and Pasai.

1. The first part of the text is about the history of the spice trade. It mentions that the spice trade was one of the most important parts of the economy of the world for many centuries. It was a major source of wealth for many empires and it played a key role in the development of the world's economy.

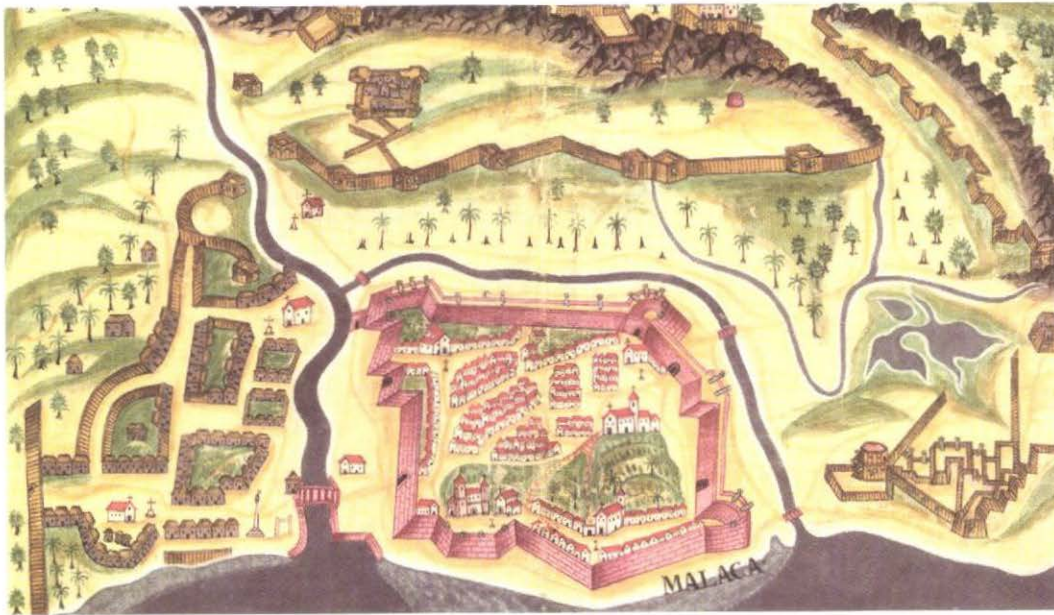
2. The second part of the text is about the spice trade in the 16th century. It mentions that the spice trade was still very important at this time. It was a major source of wealth for many empires and it played a key role in the development of the world's economy.



According to some records, pepper was originally from the coast of Malabar, India, introduced and eventually disseminated throughout the Nusantara, before the arrival of European (Danish, British, Portuguese, Dutch and Swedish) trading companies. The Portuguese, the first European arrival in the East, introduced pepper to European markets. This led to rising competition for the accessibility of spices and other commodities. The fiercest competition was between the English (EIC) and Dutch (VOC), especially due to the continuous presence of the EIC in Sumatra and the Malacca Strait. The competition was officially concluded by the signing of the London Treaty in 1824, though the matter was never actually settled.

It should be noted that the subjugation of Asia by the Europeans was closely connected to the trade commodities. They were not only sold to the European markets but also to Asia, as well from Persia – India – Siam to China. The VOC tried hard to obtain the monopoly of pepper to be traded with silk from Persia, while the Sultanates in Sumatra (Aceh, Palembang and Jambi) traded pepper with India and China. Palembang also traded tin with China.





Page 14

The city of Malacca conquered by the Portuguese in 1511

Hence, forts were built not only in the Nusantara region but also along the maritime trade route from the Cape of Good Hope in South Africa, Ormuz in the bay of Persia, and along the Malabar and Coromandel coasts, from Sri Lanka and Malacca to Formosa (Taiwan) and Japan; the forts were utilized as commodity storage and defense facilities. Each area produced its own indigenous prime trade commodities. Gold and coins (rixdollars, reals, ducats), spices, pepper, silk, textiles, sugar, tea, coffee, saltpeter, metals (silver, copper and tin) and also rice and salt. The latter two commodities were designated for trading in Asia while the rest were for the European markets.

### Forts and the Community

A common pattern of cities in Asia were their locations, either along the coast, the river banks or in the hinterland. Capitals of maritime kingdom had busy ports, but the seat of government was in the Keraton surrounded by walls. Such was also the case with kingdoms located at the estuaries of big rivers. Kingdoms in the hinterlands like Java had their government seats in traditional royal palaces that were also protected by encircling walls.



Figure 10.1  
A historical map of the Malay archipelago showing the location of the Sultanate of Aceh.



The people lived outside the royal palace walls and their settlements were grouped along ethnic lines into their respective quarters. Most cities accommodated Chinese and Arab quarters, and they were respectively called *kampung Cina*, *kampung Arab*. There were also Buginese and Javanese quarters. In non-Malay kingdoms such as in Sulawesi, there were Malay and Javanese quarters. In the height of prosperity, the Aceh Sultanate attracted many Arabs and Indians to settle in its realm.

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Trading generated the spreading of people who later established quarters according to their respective ethnicities. Such a pattern is commonly found in the coastal areas and maritime kingdoms like Banten in Java; Aceh, Palembang and Siak in Sumatra; and Makassar in Sulawesi. Consequently, regulations to administer the ethnicities followed the framework of managing each group under their own chieftain who also acted as *Syuhbandar*—harbor master.

This pattern of regulating non-indigenous settlers in big port cities of the maritime kingdoms was maintained by the Portuguese when they conquered Malacca in 1511. This system of managing the city inhabitants was later adopted by the VOC in Batavia and continued by the Dutch East Indies colonial government. This meant the colonial government did not have to create new patterns of regulating non-indigenous people; it just continued what had been established in earlier centuries. The system grew and developed as a consequence of maritime trading and shipping activities in Asia.







Discover the Legacies









## Fort Inong Balee

Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam, 1599

# Silent Witness of Acehnese Women's Heroics

Remains of artillery holes in the fort's wall

*As the entrance to the Strait of Malacca, Aceh's strategic position in the western tip of Sumatra Island led to visits by many foreign nations for trading and political purposes. The first western nations to come into contact with Aceh were the Portuguese, which later led to conflict. After the Portuguese conquered Malacca in 1511, Aceh became a large kingdom that replaced Malacca as the strait's major trading post. Then the conflict between Aceh Kingdom and the Portuguese resumed until the late 17<sup>th</sup> century.*

Located on a small hill along Krueng Raya Bay overlooking the Indian Ocean, Fort Inong Balee is the silent witness of the brave struggles of Aceh women, heroically led by the female Admiral Keumalahayati. In the Aceh language, Inong Balee means widow.

Keumalahayati built Fort Inong Balee to accommodate the Inong Balee army. Besides fortification, Fort Inong Balee also served as accommodation quarters for women whose husbands were killed in battle, as well as a military training facility where Keumalahayati trained the woman soldiers of Aceh Kingdom, and a military logistics center. With its strategic hill location—approximately 100 meters above sea level—the fort had an unhindered view of all ships coming into the port of Aceh Kingdom. The Inong Balee army could therefore easily attack Portuguese and Dutch warships.

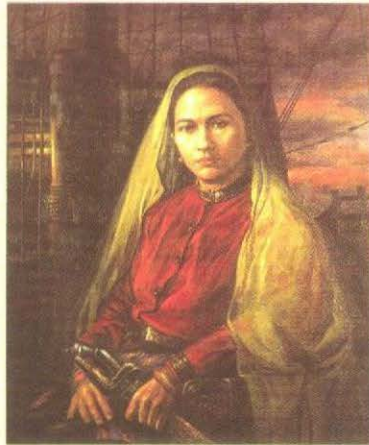


## ADMIRAL KEUMALAHAYATI

Admiral Keumalahayati, widely known as Malayahati was a fearless Acehnese female warrior during the time of the Aceh Darussalam Kingdom. Born into a family of Acehnese aristocrats in the 15<sup>th</sup> century, the young Keumalahayati would often be taken along by her father, Admiral Muhammad Said Syah, to accompany him on the warship. Hence, life aboard a warship was not unfamiliar to her. After finishing her training at the Mahad Baitul Makdis Military Academy, she was appointed as chief of the Palace Guard during the reign of Sultan Saidil Mukammil Alauddin Riayat Syah IV. After successfully leading the women's army, she was promoted to admiral by the Sultan, who did not want any man to hold this position.

Malahayati headed the Inong Balee army that comprised of women whose husbands were killed in battles. Malahayati, who lost her husband during a military expedition against the Portuguese, had vowed to avenge his death. Her brave army was the principal military unit upon which the

Aceh Kingdom depended. For her heroism during the war against the Portuguese to protect the Aceh Kingdom, Keumalahayati became a well-respected and honored figure. As enumerated by the government of Indonesia, her name has been immortalized on the Republic of Indonesia warship KRI Malahayati.



P. 18  
Artist's rendition of  
Keumalahayati by Dede  
Eri Supria

When newly formed, the Inong Balee army only consisted of about 1000 widows whose husbands died in battle against Portuguese on the Haru Sea. Then this widow's army was expanded by Keumalahayati into about 2000 soldiers, including young girls who wished to fight for Aceh.



According to estimates made by the Medan Archaeological Agency, the fort is a rectangular structure measuring about 60 m x 40 m with an encircling stone wall 2 meters thick and 2.5 meters high. On the wall there were half-circle shooting holes directly facing the bay. At present there are remnants of the west wall with 4 loops, parts of the north wall and parts of the east structure foundation. Although now the remnants are regrettably just unkempt ruins, visitors can still enjoy the impressive view of Krueng Raya Bay and Malahayati Harbor. Besides Fort Inong Balee and the tomb of Admiral Malahayati, another remnant of the Inong Balee army around the fort is Inong Balee village, otherwise known as the Village of Widows.

Figure 1.1  
A view of the ruins of the fort  
wall, along the base of the  
stone structure and the stone  
structure.







P. 20

Part of the fort wall that still  
stands.

35



Krueng Raya Bay

Lam Reh Village

P. 21

The ruins of Fort Inong Balee  
facing the Krueng Raya Bay.



P. 22

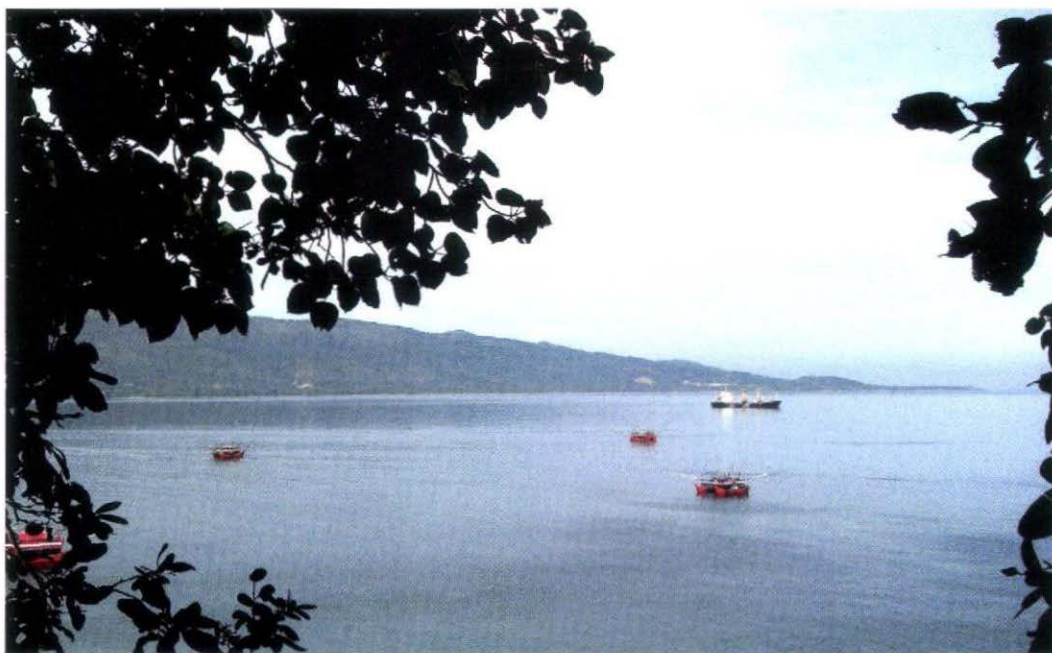
The path will was covered  
by tree roots and grass, silent  
witnesses of the Acehese  
women's struggles. In the past



37

P. 23

View of Klong Raya Bay from  
Klong Raya Bay









## Fort Iskandar Muda

Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam, 17<sup>th</sup> century

### In Defense of the King's Glory

Pl. 24  
loner view of the fort with a  
well and steps leading to the  
elevated courts

*Sumatra Island was ruled by Sultan Iskandar Muda in 1607 – 1636. During this era, the Aceh Kingdom experienced its golden age with a realm spanning from the west coast of Minangkabau to Perak (now part of Malaysia) and was the most powerful kingdom in the Strait of Malacca.*

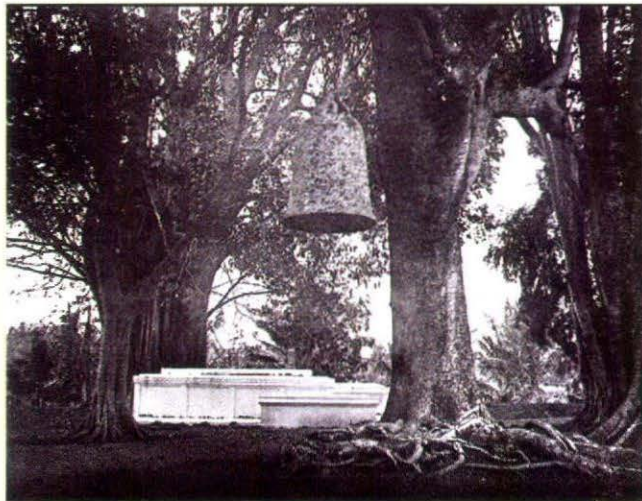
It was also during the reign of Sultan Iskandar Muda that the Aceh Kingdom had a big and powerful military force, with no less than 40,000 soldiers, a 60,000-strong naval army and 200 warships, most of which were provided with cannons. With such a huge army, the Sultan succeeded to drive away the Portuguese from Aceh. In 1629, the Sultan's navy launched an immense attack against Malacca. In addition to developing his military power, Sultan Iskandar Muda also built several defense forts along the coast of Malacca Strait. One of the forts is located at Krueng Raya and to this day is known as Fort Iskandar Muda.

The fort is located along the coast, surrounded by fishponds, coconut plantations and fishermen villages. It is a square structure with an entrance gate and a staircase in the east wall. The wall is made of natural coral stones, and has several shooting holes. There is an adjacent square building inside the fort with stairs on the east and north sides. There are also two old wells encircled by a 40 cm-thick wall and access provided by three doors.



## SULTAN ISKANDAR MUDA

Born in the late 16<sup>th</sup> century, Iskandar Muda was the greatest Sultan of Aceh. During his reign in 1607 – 1636, Aceh achieved its golden age as a great empire that controlled Malacca Straits. From an early age, Iskandar Muda was taught a wide range of sciences by clergies from the kingdom as well as other regions. As an adult he earned the title “Perkasa Alam” for his courage in upholding the truth. Sultan Iskandar Muda successfully developed pepper plantations, making the product a highly-coveted and dependable trade commodity that attracted European and Asian traders. Besides pepper, the Aceh Kingdom also exported rice. Extensive tax regulations were imposed on foreign ships, trading and even treasure troves from shipwrecks. Iskandar Muda established laws and regulations for the Aceh Kingdom and implemented a fair and equitable rule over his Kingdom. During his reign, the Aceh Kingdom was also known as a center for scientific studies in South East Asia, visited by people from other countries to learn. His respect for intellectuals meant that science thrived under his rule. After conquering the Johor Kingdom, he successfully defeated Portuguese forces in Malacca, thus cementing Aceh’s position as the most powerful kingdom in the Strait of Malacca.



P. 25.

The large iron bell on a tree for the regional office Koetaradja, which played a pivotal role in an epic tale during Sultan Iskandar Muda's reign. The photo was taken in December 1915.

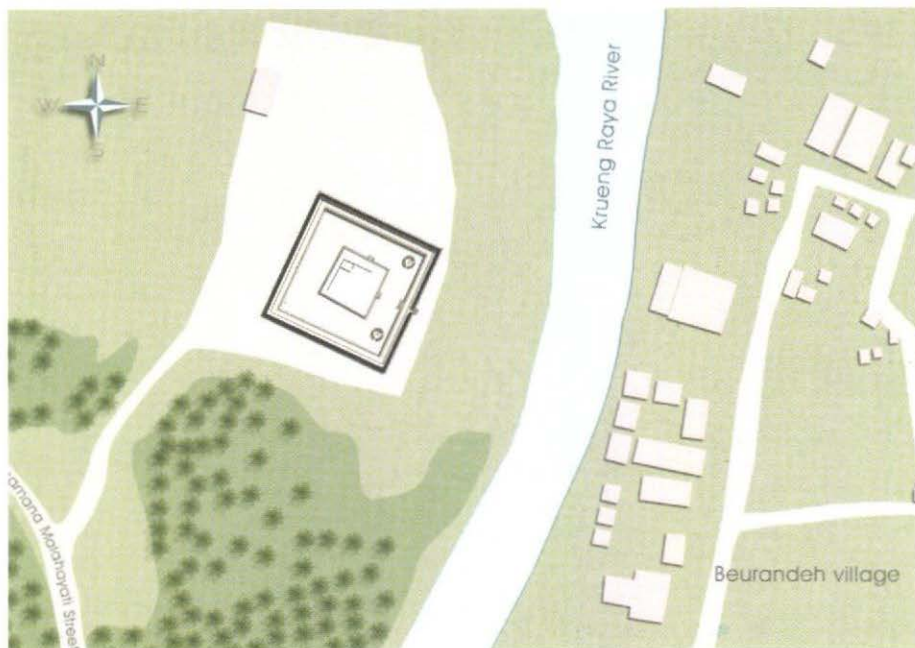




P. 26

The conquest map of Iskandar Muda's reign, during which the Aceh Sultanate reached its maximum extent. During this period, Iskandar Muda launched a series of naval expeditions and military campaigns against Portuguese forces in Malacca, the Johor Sultanate, and other Malay states in Sumatra and the Malay Peninsula, completing the map within a year of the campaign's initiation. Under Iskandar Muda's rule, the Sultanate of Aceh rose to become the dominant power in the region.





P 27

et al.: above: the rectangular shape of Fort Iskandar Muda with tower in the center and two walled the corner. The fort faces Kh and Raya River.

P 28

Right above: Piper Nigrum (pepper) one of the main commodity in Aceh during the powerful reign of Iskandar Muda. Illustration by Franz Eugen Kohler from the book, Kohler's Medicinal Planzen in 1897.



P 29

Fort Iskandar Muda's ruin witnesses to the struggle in Aceh.



P. 30  
 Starts in the inner court of the  
 fort



P. 31  
 several al'ps docked at a small  
 quay in Krung Thaya Bay, near  
 Thachart.





**FORTALEZA DO ACHÉM**

CASAS DEL REY.  
sepulchro del Rey.  
MISQVITA.  
FORTALEZA VELHA.  
RIO DO ACHÉM.  
FORTALEZA NOVA TEM.  
MVITA ARTELHARIA  
GROSSA.

AS FVLTURA DEL REI DO  
ACHEM TEM GRANDÍSIMOS  
THE SOROS DETODOS OS  
REIS PASSADOS.

ASEPULTURA DEL REI DO  
ACHEM TEM. GRANDÍSSIMOS.  
THE SOROS. DETODOS. OS.  
REIS PA SADOS.



# The Aceh War: A tale of construction and significance of fortification

P 32

A Portuguese map showing the main fortifications of the Aceh Sultanate, with special note of the new large Mogul guns mounted in a powerful fortification that was located near the Aceh River estuary. This 'intelligence map' dates from the 17<sup>th</sup> century.

*On the island Sumatra, the northern Aceh region is situated at the west entrance of the Malacca Strait, historically owning an important strategic position. Aceh controlled the trade to Malacca and beyond; during the 16<sup>th</sup> century, the Sultanate of Aceh was the most influential local power in the region.*

When the Portuguese sailor Albuquerque arrived in Asia, he discovered Aceh on the way. After the Portuguese settled in Malacca, the Acehnese besieged this city several times. However, those long and bloody wars eroded Aceh's power. From the mid 17<sup>th</sup> century, Aceh was ruled by female sultanas. They failed to stand their ground against the Dutch and English who arrived in the wake of the Portuguese.

This was considered as a threat to the Islamic government and in 1699, when a new Sultan came to power, he received from the Great Mogul of India substantial weapons aid, including large caliber ordnance. These technologically-advanced guns were constructed from forged iron bars and hoops encased in a bronze casting, a peculiar construction method which was at time practiced in Mogul India. This ordnance was originally emplaced in a strong, newly-built fortress which dominated the Aceh River estuary. On a Portuguese 'intelligence map' of this period, this fortification was called '*Fortaleza nova ten mvita artelharia grossa*' (new fortification with large caliber mounted guns). For centuries, this mighty fortification with its





P. 33

A Mogul gun captured by the Dutch army from the Aceh Keraton in 1874. The gun now rests in Museum Bronbeek.

powerful armaments formed a deterrent against hostile attacks from either the Portuguese or Dutch, thus protecting the strategic Islamic foothold in northern Sumatra. Along the coastline, several other strong stone fortifications existed, including the famous 'Inong Balee', constructed and 'manned', as legend has it, by the widows of fallen fighters.

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For centuries, the Sultanate of Aceh maintained its independence while protected by its mighty fortifications. In the 19th century the situation changed drastically: Singapore was founded, 'independent' European adventurers like James Brooke settled in the region and new colonial powers emerged, such as France, Germany, Italy and the United States. In consequence, the strategic value of Aceh further increased. At that time, Aceh's military power had evaporated and 'political deals' to maintain independence failed, due to the antagonism of the European powers. Far away in London, another deal was concluded by the British and Dutch governments, allowing the Dutch freedom to cope with the situation in Aceh. According to the imperialistic vision of the time, Aceh's independence posed a threat to the stability of the area and the cohesion of the Netherlands East Indies. Piracy and conspiracy were the *casus belli*. A Dutch ultimatum was issued and a military expedition landed in 1873.

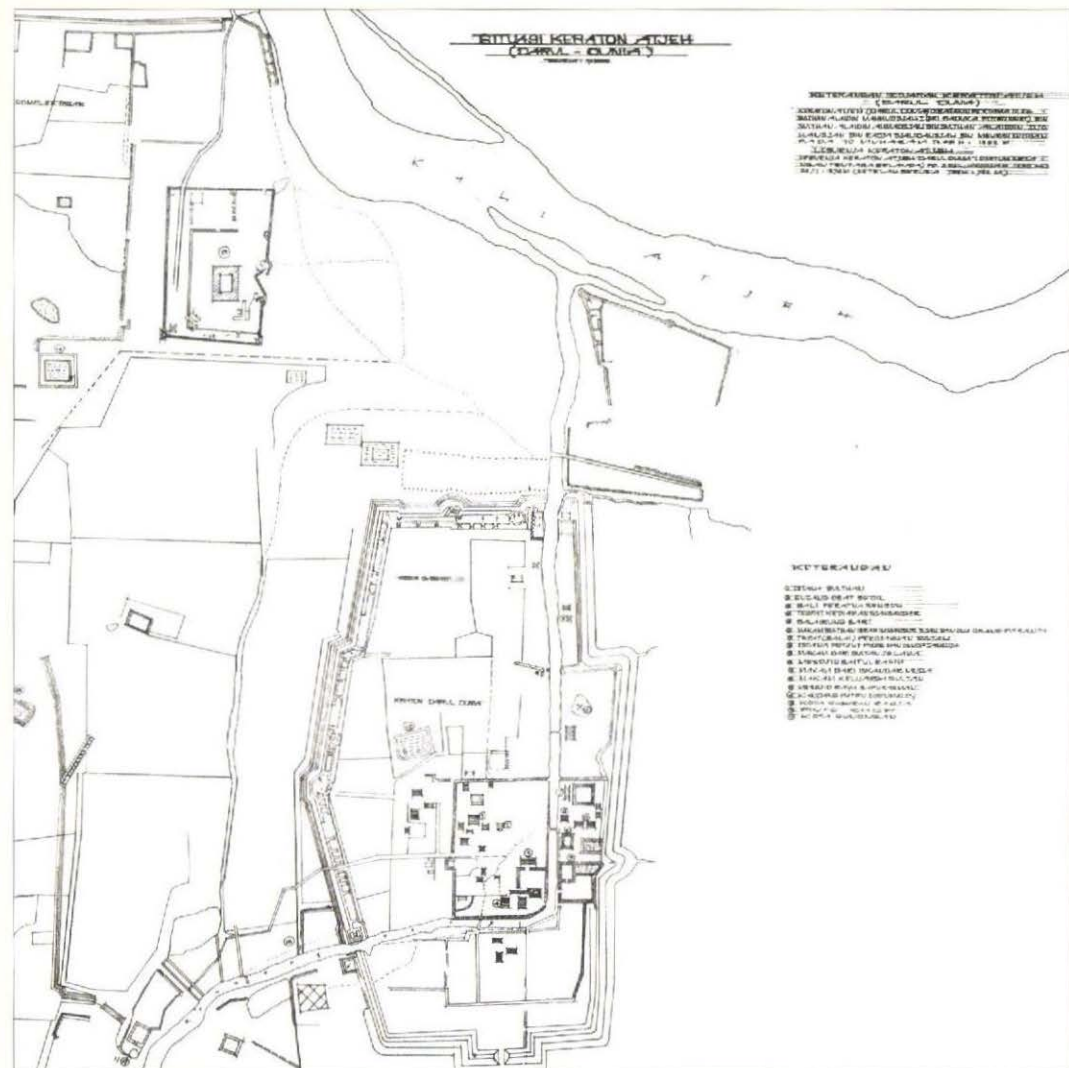
In those days, the fortifications of Aceh were no longer in good condition, though a functioning fortification named Kota Babi existed on or near the site of the '*fortaleza nova*' mentioned above. Most of the great Mogul guns were concentrated in the *keraton* and used for close defense. Their great length and weight resulted in a low rate of fire, making them less useful for fire against fast steamships and for beach defense.



P 34  
Ground plan of the Keraton  
Aceh was showing the  
fortifications in 1874

## THE LONG AND ENDLESS WAR

During the Aceh War (1873-1904), fortification played a major role, not only for the Dutch, but also for the Acehnese. To date, the location names of more than 160 Acehnese and Dutch fortifications have been found in Dutch archives and battle reports. Unfortunately, for the most part details on the exact location and construction are lacking. Let us go back to the start of these long and endless wars.







*Koeta-Radja, Atjehsche Monuimenten.*

P. 35

The old Acehese monuments  
Pintu Khob and Kotta Gunungan  
Both features were transformed  
into mighty fortifications by the  
Achehese in 1873 and 1874.

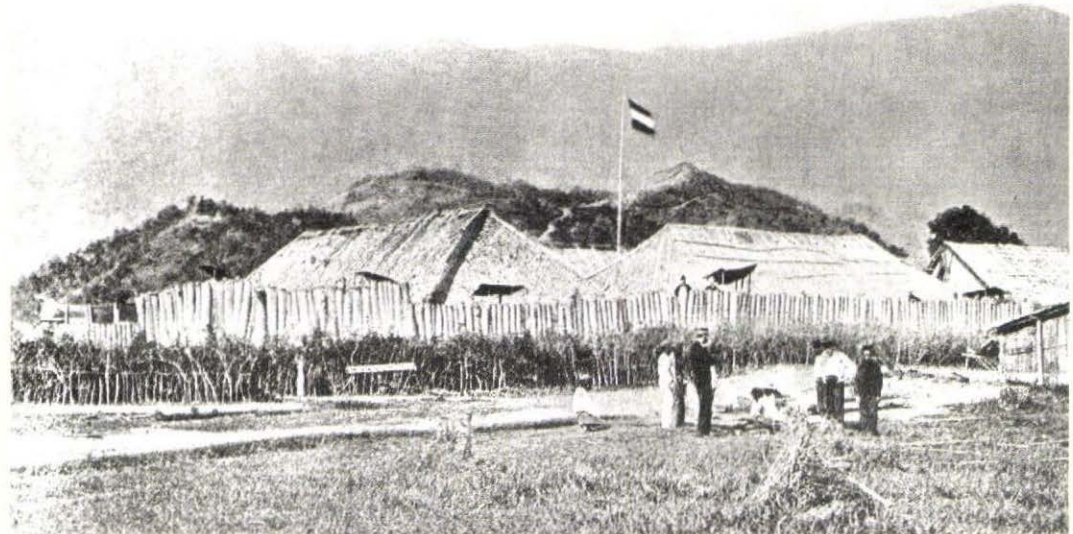
When on January 24<sup>th</sup> 1874, the Aceh Keraton was finally taken by Dutch troops, and 52 artillery pieces were found. Of these guns, around 40 were actually emplaced on the walls: 13 iron and 10 bronze guns formed the armament of the north face, with 5 iron guns and 6 bronze ones used for the defense of the gate. On the west face, nine iron guns and a bronze one were emplaced; on the south face, three iron guns; and on the east face 4 iron guns. Thirty-five of these guns were engaged against the Dutch troops.

Most of the Acehese guns were emplaced on the wall, making it necessary to load the guns from the outside, which exposed the gun crew. However, some guns were emplaced behind embrasures that were provided with suspended cowhide shutters for protection. When firing, the cannonballs pushed up the shutters, which would fall down again upon the passing of these projectiles.

## THE USE OF FORTIFICATIONS AS MEANS OF PACIFICATION

With the taking of the *Keraton*, the Dutch expected the Acehnese to give in. But the Sultan had escaped and the Acehnese continued fighting, not only in the interior, but practically on the doorsteps of Koeta Radja (Banda Aceh). The cost of war, both in terms of money and manpower, were a serious drain on the Dutch Government's resources. A more economical military solution had to be adopted to subdue the Acehnese. First, a tight naval blockade was established to cut off hostile Acehnese from weapons and food supplies by sea. Then on land, the construction of a series of fortifications gradually expanded the area controlled by the Dutch. Within this area, several safety measures were decreed, such as the demolition of all Aceh fortifications and the disarmament of the Acehnese. Although this approach was essentially 'defensive', from time to time more aggressive expeditions were mounted. Instead of creating a peaceful situation at low cost, more troops were needed. Most of the fortifications were built under hostile conditions, within sight of the enemy who tried to stop the construction by all means. Usually, the (convict) laborers were escorted by a strong detachment of soldiers that only left the scene when the fortification was completed and occupied by its garrison. As long as everything went according to plan, there was no problem in this.

P 36  
Dutch fortification Biloel, one  
of the frontline fortifications in  
the 1880's.





Things proved more difficult when a fortification had to be constructed in unknown areas. If there was a shortage of labor force, the troops themselves had to perform the tiresome work of clearing, leveling, digging, felling trees, erecting palisades and more. Lack of knowledge regarding the local terrain made things worse. The story of the fortification construction at Kadjoe in 1876 is a clear example of this. This fortification formed part of the projected defensive perimeter around Koeta Radja. The construction was performed by the main body of an expeditionary force, consisting of three infantry battalions, to which convicts and free laborers were added. The fortification was located near an estuary of a small but navigable river, which flowed into a lagoon. This location guaranteed communication with coastal shipping. The Kadjoe fortification was built on a grassy plain, bordered by some scrubs and a bushy hill. The fortification was of a standard type, measuring 35 by 65 meters, with two diagonally placed bastions, each mounting a field gun. The breastwork consisted of coconut tree stems of 3.5 meter length and 25-30 cm in diameter. These stems were partly emplaced into the ground. When the commander of the new fortification arrived, he observed 'his' area and was appalled by his findings. Partly hidden from vision by the bush trees, a small hill rose two or three meters above the fortification, enabling the Acehnese to dominate the interior of the fortification and fire at will towards the garrison. The fortress commander tried to convince his superior of the wrong choice. However, with so much work already done, the expedition commander was not willing to relocate the nearly-finished fortification. Instead, it was decided to construct a small wooden redoubt on top of the dominating hill. This redoubt was occupied at night by a small detachment of 10 soldiers and a sergeant.

The moment the expeditionary force wanted to depart, a heavy rainfall poured down and transformed the grassy field in a mud pool. This field, which had offered such a good opportunity to construct the fortification without the need of extensive leveling, proved to be a muddy *sawah*, completely unsuitable for construction.

The garrison left in the unfinished fortress consisted of a commander, some officers, 179 soldiers, laborers and families. In all, 230 men, women and children stayed in what was now a mud pool. The fortress commander decided to build footpaths from coconut tree stems. At first, these footpaths seemed to solve the problem, but then the footpaths started to sink away and became slippery with mud. Under these conditions, the health situation and morale of the garrison faltered. In the end, it was decided to build a new fortification in a more suitable place. This place was found on the hill, where a small redoubt was previously built. However, this was not a quick and easy job: the new location had to be cleared and a road

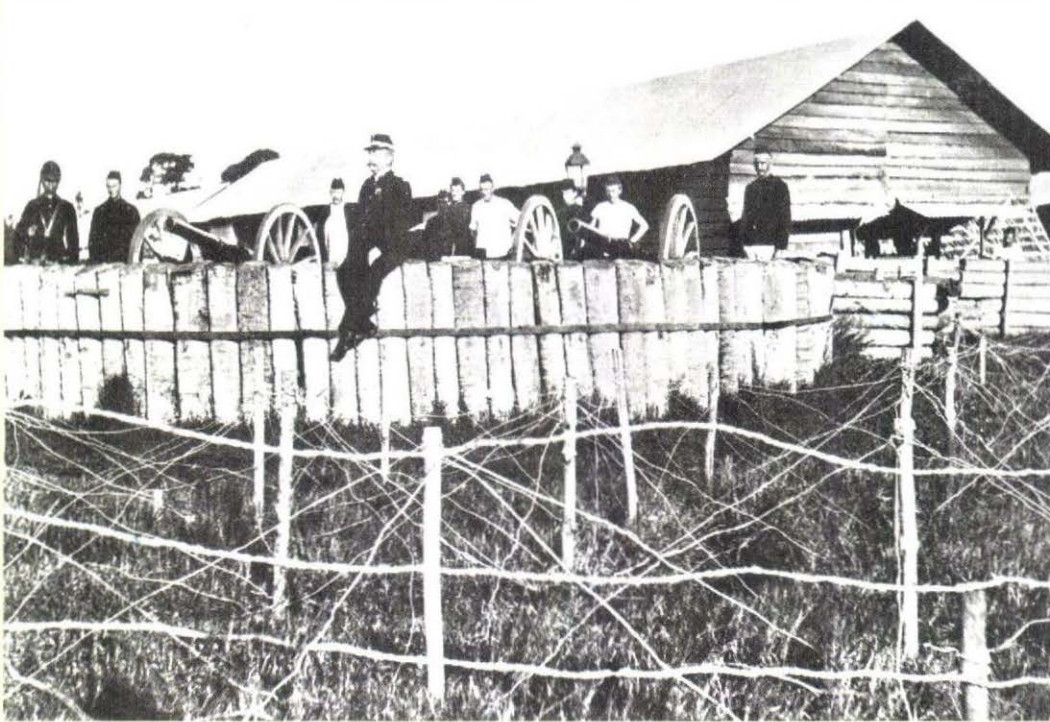
constructed between Koeala-Gigieng and Kadjoe. From 6 to 11 a.m. and 1 to 5 p.m., the soldiers worked on the construction in pouring rain and burning sunshine. About one third of the garrison became too ill to perform any duties.

This desperate situation was noticed by the Acehnese, who concluded that the old fortification was defective. On the night of 12 October 1876, they attacked the weakened garrison but failed to take them by surprise due to the alertness of the watch detachment. Then the Acehnese mounted an attack on the north face where the entrance was located, and simultaneously fired at the soldiers guarding the other faces. The Acehnese made three almost successful attempts at overtaking the fort but were eventually driven away each time. When the new fort was completed, the old one was to be demolished. This proved an equally difficult task, as the palisades were firmly stuck into the muddy ground and required a lot of work to remove them.

The combination of fortification with mobile and guerrilla warfare was in itself not unique in the history of Indonesia, but the intensity and development the design and use of fortifications was. Both Acehnese and Dutch participants started the war with 'traditional concepts' of fortification. During this war, the Dutch adapted their fortifications to cope with Aceh's tactics and the Acehnese adapted their fortification to withstand the disastrous effects of the modern weapons used by their enemies. This resulted in the development of two distinct concepts of fortification. Both concepts were ahead of their time and were later used all over the world, from trench warfare during World War I to present day Israeli wall fortification in the Jordan Valley. As a result, the Aceh War is very important and worth our attention, even though very few traces of the fortifications have actually remained.

Gradually, a loose network of tactical fortifications was built in Aceh by the Dutch army, lacking a sound overall strategic defense plan. For example, fortifications situated at unhealthy places in coastal areas were tactically unsuitable, or were located in remote areas where supplies could only be brought in by crossing enemy territory. Some of the fortifications, like Simpang-Olim and Edi, even lacked their own source of drinking water and had to be supplied daily by Navy ships patrolling the coastal seas. The smallest fortifications, such as blockhouses and guardhouses, proved very vulnerable to attacks. They were especially exposed when situated at some distance from the parent fortification and when shrubs or *alang-alang* impeded the line of sight and optical communications.





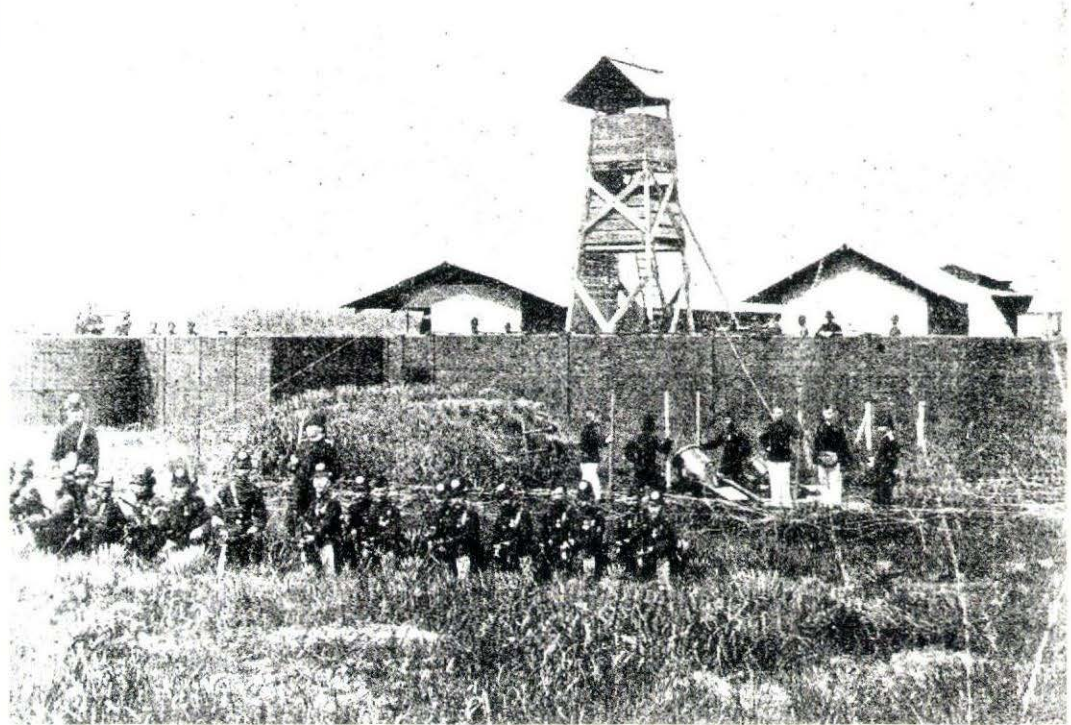
P. 37

Dutch fortification Tjot  
Maritjang, one of the  
fortifications of the  
Geconcentreerde Linie.

## TECHNICAL DEVELOPMENT OF DUTCH FORTIFICATIONS

When the role of fortifications against internal hostilities increased, the Dutch army reconsidered the tactical and technical aspects involved, leading to complete new standard designs based on the following requirements:

- The position should have an all-round defense and be closed at all sides;
- A free field for firing had to be maintained, covered by flanking fire from within the fortification itself;
- The danger of a possible surprise attack by the enemy had to be ruled out;
- The floor plan had to be simple, favoring the best possible defense by a minimum of troops;
- The use of obstacles or natural features should improve the defense against assaults;
- In order to wage an active defense, the fortification should have a number of adequately defended sally ports;
- The garrison had to be quartered in barracks built within the fortification;
- A suitable number of assembling points had to be assigned beforehand;



- The fortification should be resistant to rifle fire and incendiary weapons;
- At night there should be a number of effectively-screened interior lights;
- The dimensions of the fortification should be kept to a minimum in order to be defensible by a small number of troops;
- Buildings used for stables, kitchens and latrines were placed outside the defensive perimeter so they would not interfere with the fields of firing and still be defensible;
- The fortification had to be equipped with an optical or telegraph system for communication with the neighboring fortifications.

Based on their construction methods, fortifications were classified into several types: hasty, temporary and permanent defense works. The hasty defense works were mostly in the form of protected bivouacs. Temporary defense works included blockhouses, ordinary fortifications and protected camps. The blockhouses were built at isolated places and garrisoned by no more than 25 men. To house a stronger



garrison, an ordinary fortification was built. In 1877, a special prefabricated fortification was used in Pedir. The wooden parts, including the palisades, were transported by ship. This was done in order to construct an 'instant' fortification, due to limited time and manpower, and no local building materials available to construct a traditional fortification. A promising concept, albeit lacking in durability. Because of this, it was not accepted for regular use.

In 1885, two perfected designs of fortifications against internal hostilities were issued. The largest type was garrisoned by three officers and 75 soldiers; the smallest type by one officer and 50 soldiers. In order to test these new designs, they were built for the first time on the 'concentrated line' (*Geconcentreerde Linie*) in Aceh.

### THE 'GECONCENTREERDE LINIE'

The aim of the *Geconcentreerde Linie* was to protect and consolidate the Dutch occupied area by keeping out hostile Acehnese, preventing their attacks. This 'security screen' reduced the number of military forces committed and decreased the Dutch government's expenses. The concentration implied the evacuation of less secure territories and the demolition of several existing Dutch fortifications. The design of the defensive line followed the newest principles, using modern techniques for transport (Aceh tramway) and transmission (telegraph). The fortifications were located closely together in order to give mutual support. Roads and a tramway connected the forts and were used for transport of soldiers and cargo. In front of the line of fortifications, a 1000 meter deep uninhabited security zone was created by razing trees and bushes.

The Dutch government did not want to alienate the Acehnese population living within the secure territory and as a rule did not harass its inhabitants with unnecessary harsh measures. However, security still depended on strict measures with regard to the possession of arms, free movement of people, goods and more. At first, all contact between the Acehnese inside and outside the secure territory was forbidden. Later on, contact was permitted during daytime. In order to win the hearts and minds of the Acehnese, the Dutch government restored the Mesjid Raya (destroyed during the fighting of 1874) and encouraged economic growth. In the 19<sup>th</sup> century local warfare, this well-considered approach was quite revolutionary.

The 'Geconcentreerde Linie' consisted of 15 fortresses and three blockhouses. The fortresses that were built consisted of three types:

1. A fortress garrisoned by 150 men, armed with one 12 cm breech-loading gun of 12 cm, one 8 cm gun and one Coehoorn mortar;

- The construction of these fortifications was finished in 1885. During the same year, the security zone in front of the defense line was cleared and the Aceh tramway connecting the fortifications was finished. This





track, connecting Koeta Radja and Lamjong and the branch leading to Pakan Kroeng Tjoet, was completed in early 1886. The connecting paved roads were operational in 1885, with the exception of the part leading from Koeta Radja to Lampeneroet and Lamreng. To enhance the defense line in 1885, two more blockhouses were built near Kroeng Lingga between the fortifications Lampermeij and Tjot Iri and Sabang (1886). When the new fortifications became operational, old fortifications were evacuated and torn down.

When the fortifications of the '*Geconcentreerde Linie*' lived up to expectations, their designs were officially standardized in 1886. Their importance was much valued and the designs were included in the military textbooks in Holland. In due time, all existing Dutch fortifications for defense against internal hostilities were remodeled or replaced by newly-built ones following the design parameters of the '*Geconcentreerde Linie*' fortifications.

The '*Geconcentreerde Linie*' proved successful in reducing the necessary troop strength and saving money, but the resulting monotonous garrison duties soon wore out morale and efficiency, resulting in a total malaise. The Acehnese used to build a 'counter-fortification' wherever a Dutch fortification was established. From these positions, they sniped at the Dutch garrisons, especially targeting soldiers standing guard and caretakers of oil lamps. As the Dutch would not venture outside their fortifications, which also deepened the malaise, the only solution was to provide passive protection. In most cases, additional protection was constructed from wood, but in the case of the Longbatah fortification, armor plates were used. The inventive commander of this fortification also designed an armored observation post, which was mounted high in a tree. From this position, his soldiers were able to silence the Acehnese snipers. Those snipers started to become so familiar that the Dutch soldiers gave them nicknames, derived from their actions or appearance. The soldiers even collected the 'eyed' Acehnese rifle and *lilah* bullets (brass swivel gun), which were sold as souvenirs to visitors. Meanwhile, the Acehnese gave nicknames to the Dutch fortifications, such as Lam Loempoer (mud village) for the fort Lam Koenjit.

To remedy the malaise resulting from the passive situation in 1894, a more active policy was introduced. The allied Acehnese prince Toekoe Djohan was entrusted by the Netherlands East Indies Government with the task of ensuring the pacification of the Acehnese territories outside the *Geconcentreerde Linie*. During this phase in 1894 and 1895, 12 new fortifications and 23 blockhouses were constructed, which formed a new outer line of defense. These fortifications were built to support offensive operations by Toekoe Djohan. In 1896, there were plans to transfer at least some of these fortifications into permanent ones, in

order to enlarge the safe perimeter of the *Geconcentreerde Linie*. The fortifications were garrisoned by the Netherlands Indies Army, the blockhouses mostly by friendly Acehnese, or Toekoe Djohan's troops.

The morale of the Dutch troops reached its lowest point when, on March 29 1896, Toekoe Djohan suddenly changed sides, changed his name in Toekoe Oemar and became a formidable opponent. The recently-constructed fortifications Lam Koenjit, Biloel, Kroeng Kali, Lamgoet, Tjot Rang, Anagaloeng, Lam Barih, Lam Soet, Kroeng Gloempang and Senelop had to be abandoned. Only Tjot Goë and Toengkoeb were kept. The blockhouses were mostly deserted by the Acehnese allies. When offensive actions were resumed, the morale of the army improved again.

### CONSTRUCTION DETAILS

Until the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century permanent fortifications for defense against internal hostilities were usually built from stone. Afterwards, wooden palisades were more frequently used, as tropical hardwood proved very durable. Ironwood was considered the best building material as it was resistant against termites. The palisades were constructed by erecting round timbers or beams, partly driven into the ground. Iron hoops or bands were used to strengthen the construction. The artillery was emplaced on

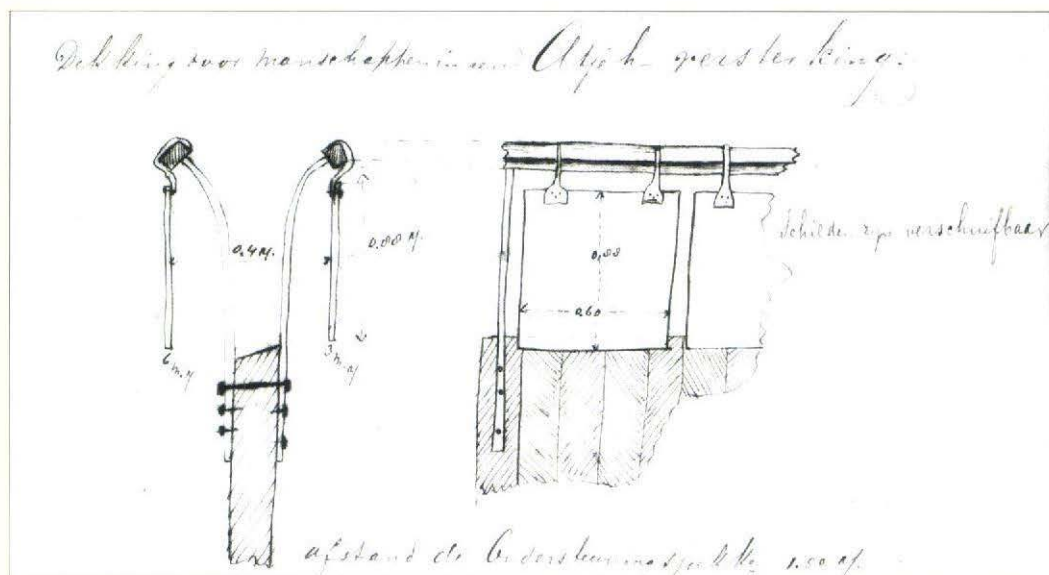
R. 40  
Dutch fort Tjot Rang, one  
of the forward detachment  
fortifications in the eastern  
sector, c. 1890





heightened wooden diagonal bastions. Sometimes firing ports were made, which could be closed with movable wooden shutters. To protect the riflemen firing over the top of the palisades and the gun crews, movable plate iron armour shields were used, suspended from an iron rail. The length of the front side of the fortifications varied between 38 and 73 meters. The fortifications were surrounded by obstacles, like pointed bamboo sticks and pieces of broken glass. Later on, wire entanglements were used. The blockhouses built during the Aceh War were located within a wooden palisade with a height of 3 meters, with two bastions added. This enclosure was surrounded by wire. The main floor level of the blockhouse enabled the garrison to fire over the palisade. Permanent fortifications were often protected by high iron fences. Not only did these fences surround the complex, they were also erected to form compartments between buildings. The introduction of barbed wire made more effective barriers possible. The area around a fortification was lighted with shielded lanterns to prevent night attacks. Guards were placed in wooden watchtowers. Living quarters constructed from bamboo and atap were replaced during the final decade of the 19<sup>th</sup> century by wooden barracks with roofs of corrugated iron. These provided healthier lodgings and were less prone to fire hazards.

The temporary fortifications which were built in 1894 outside the '*Geconcentreerde Linie*' were not of the standard design, as they were often constructed around an existing local fortification or a suitable building. A number of traditional Acehnese houses were incorporated as living quarters for officers and soldiers. However,



P-41

Detail of the armor plates used for protection by soldiers manning the guns of the Dutch fortifications in Aceh. Drawing by a Dutch cadet of the Royal Military Academy Breda, c. 1885

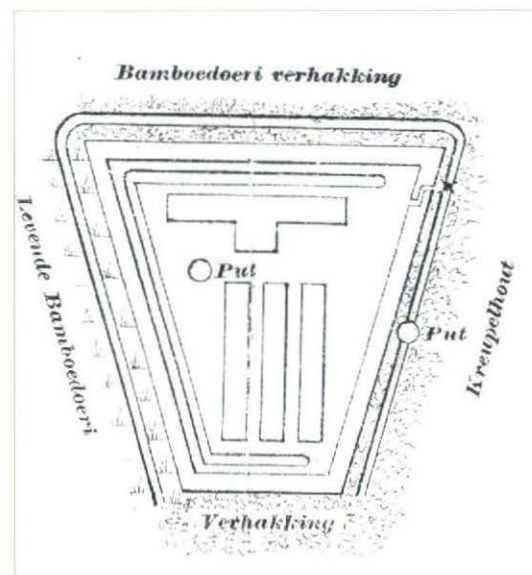
all newly-constructed fortifications were surrounded by a high earth wall and wire entanglements. Artillery pieces and sometimes machine guns were emplaced on the bastions. As a whole, the defense value, living conditions and location of these temporary fortifications were less favorable than those of the fortifications belonging to the *Geconcentreerde Linie*.

In proportion to the progress of the pacification, the fortifications for defense against internal hostilities changed gradually in characteristics: stone walls and wooden palisades were demolished, unhealthy wet moats were filled and obstacles were replaced by barbed wire. In 1904, all artillery armament of fortifications for defense against local enemies were removed, as rifle fire was now more powerful. As a result of the introduction of modern strategy in fighting local enemies, all fortifications for defense against internal hostilities were eventually abolished by the government's decree issued on October 29<sup>th</sup>, 1906.

## FLEXIBILITY OF DUTCH FORTIFICATIONS

The establishment of fortifications against internal hostilities was regarded by the Dutch government as a flexible instrument. When desired pacification was reached, the fortifications were closed down. Depending on the situation, this abandonment was usually executed in phases. The first phase consisted of the decrease or complete withdrawal of the garrison. The semi-permanent fortifications and buildings were then handed over to the civil government (*Binnenlands Bestuur*) that took care of maintenance for

P 42  
Ground plan of an Acehnese  
fortification at Lambaroe. c.  
1890.





the timely reoccupation of empty fortifications by a garrison, should the need arise. In the second phase, the buildings changed purposes, for example a hospital or prison. Sometimes the fortification was used to quarter police forces. Finally in the last phase, the defensive elements of the fortifications, like the defensive walls and bastions, were demolished. This demolition was done by contract, whereas the terrain was sold. Sometimes the buildings and barracks were removed for use elsewhere by the government. As a rule, field fortifications were immediately demolished in order to prevent their use by hostile forces.

## ACEHNESE FORTIFICATIONS

So far we have considered the developments of the Dutch fortifications, but what of the Acehese fortifications? At first, the Acehese combatants used their 'traditional' fortifications that were similar to the fortifications encountered elsewhere in the Indonesian archipelago. From the beginning of the conflict, the Acehese were very adaptive in constructing their defenses: the old walled graveyards in Koeta Radja (Banda Aceh), the Pintu Khob and Kotta Cunungan were all transformed into fortifications that were incorporated in larger complexes. Wood, earth and sod were used for construction. When the Dutch army occupied Aceh from 1874, the character of warfare changed as the Acehese started mobile warfare against Dutch patrols and military infrastructure (roads, tramways, telegraph lines, fortifications). Fixed artillery was hardly used anymore; instead, the portable *lilah* guns were preferred. This mobile warfare was supported by fortifications that had been adapted to their new role as base of operations. In addition, the 'new' fortifications needed more protection against modern Dutch weaponry. Like the Dutch fortifications, the Aceh ones were economical in manpower.

Gradually, a particular design of Aceh's fortifications was developed: more emphasis was placed on earthworks and dugouts below ground level, head covers of stout wooden beams were introduced and deep pits were made to dispatch incoming grenades. The fortifications were made smaller, in order to present a less vulnerable target. These smaller fortifications were cleverly located in the landscape, profiting from natural obstacles and cover. Also, the fortifications were constructed within a mutually-supporting system, creating depth and a flexible all-round defense. Obstacles surrounded the fortifications. Finally, the Acehese excavated complete trench systems, consisting of several parallel fighting trenches that were connected by crawl trenches. This fortification concept proved very effective and predated both the field defenses of the Russo-Japanese war (1905) and the First World War (1914-1918). On the other hand, the nature of the Aceh's resistance, lacking a unified command and the organizing power of a unified state, limited the effectiveness of the new developed Aceh's defenses on a wider scale. The transfer of the



fortification concept within these circumstances, without the existence of dedicated education, remains another remarkable achievement of the Acehnese.

## CONCLUSION

Both the Acehnese and Dutch fortifications have barely left any traces in the landscape. This was mainly due to the building materials used: fortifications and buildings simply decayed over time. The Aceh fortifications, however, were all deliberately destroyed after being seized by the Dutch army, in order to prevent their re-use. The tsunami of 2004 wiped out valuable archaeological traces in the coastal areas. Even written documentation and iconography are scarce, especially with regards to the Acehnese fortifications. These circumstances have rendered the fortifications of the Aceh War as something of an obscurity. This article aims to spark new interest in this unique subject.





## Fort Kuto Besak

Palembang, 1780

# A Royal Palace on the Musi River Bank

► 43  
Fort Kuto Besak, with its massive and solid gates and walls, in its current incarnation, was a military base.

*Viewed from the Kapitan Cina village in the Ulu region, Palembang's downstream panorama appears splendid and impressive, yet at the same time simple and prosaic. With the Musi River flowing in front of it, the city emerges as a flat stretched line, almost blending into the surface of the land with the Ampera Bridge (officially inaugurated in the mid 1960's) ostentatiously rising upwards, connecting the upstream and downstream regions*

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The rather blurred shapes of the distant People's Struggle Monument and the Great Mosque's minaret complement the urban landscape along the Musi River. Towards the west, there rises in the background a tall building that has become one of the city's landmarks: it is the municipality building with the water tank on top (the work of Ir. S. Snuyf in 1928). About 200 meters closer to the Ampera Bridge is a white building, a long, spacious and low structure: Fort Kuto Besak, a military defense post which was previously the last royal palace of the Palembang Sultanate. At present the palace, which became the symbol of Palembang's firm resistance against colonialism, is now utilized as military command quarters.

## PEPPER AND TIN

Since the time of the Sriwijaya kingdom, Palembang has been a strategic node within the network of trade routes for South Sumatra's agricultural commodities (food stuffs, forest products and gold), connecting



the area with important international markets (China and India). Located at the confluence of the Musi, Ogan and Komering rivers, Palembang has inevitably become the key point between the interior regions and the open sea; the main trade commodity being pepper.

In the middle of the 16<sup>th</sup> century, under the supremacy of the Demak kingdom (and later the Mataram kingdom) the seat of Palembang was located at Kuta Gawang, a quadrangular fortified town (approximately 1,2 square kilometers) with walls made of ironwood (ulin) and unglen wood. Palembang's dominance in the pepper trade kindled the VOC's attention ever since the beginning of their relationship in 1618.

Employing several means, the VOC succeeded in obtaining an agreement to take over the monopoly of pepper export during 1641-1621. Palembang, however, was not too enthusiastic with the agreement, which drove the VOC in 1659 to destroy Kuta Gawang and the defense support posts that were scattered in Bangka Strait up to the interior region of Musi River.



Under the leadership of Sultan Abdurrahman (reigned in 1662-1706), Palembang rose up from desolation and destruction and began to unshackle itself from the influence of the Mataram kingdom. The seat of government was moved to a place known as Beringin Janggut (Beard of Banyan tree). The royal palace was moved away from the Musi River bank. In 1710, Bangka Island began to show potential of becoming a promising tin mining site. With the decline of pepper production, tin mining saved Palembang's economy from its slump. In 1722, the VOC succeeded in increase its pressure on Palembang by taking over the monopoly of tin. However, the company's finances deteriorated, which resulted in the VOC losing its control of the tin trade, and the Palembang Sultanate took advantage of the situation.

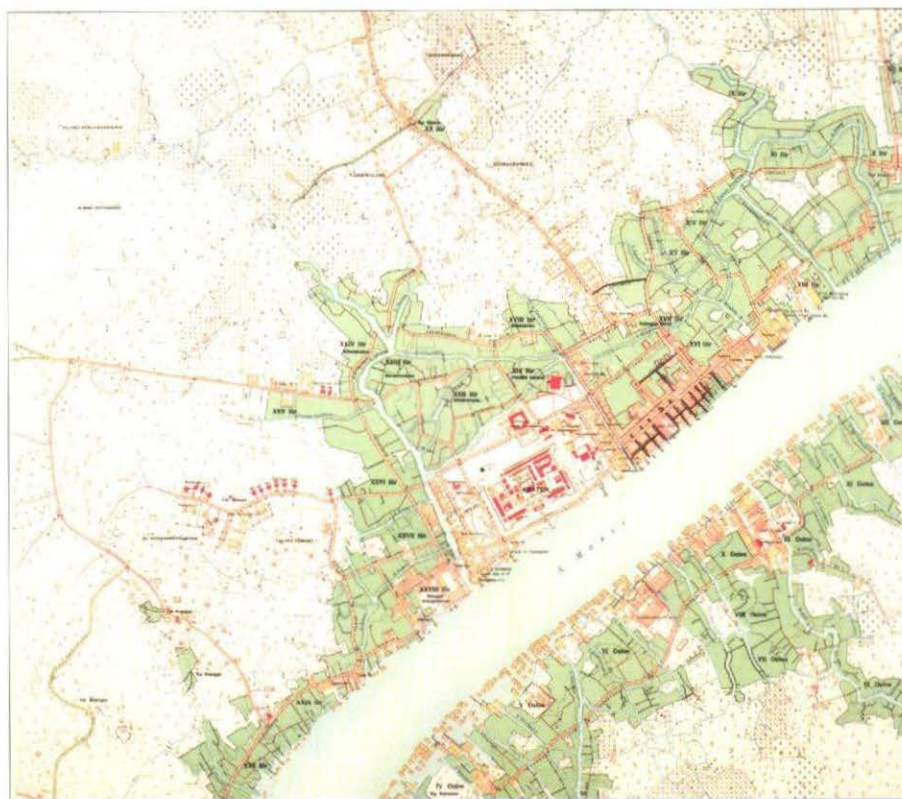
When Sultan Abdurrahman passed away, a time-consuming fight for the throne took place and ended with the appointment of Sultan Mahmud Badarudin (reigned in 1724-1757). A new royal palace was built in 1737 on the Musi River bank. Not long afterwards, a VOC fort was permanently built in 1742 across the Ulu region and was known as *Loji Sungai Aur* (Sungai Aur Lodge); this structure was built in stages, first as a simple post in 1619 then upgraded in 1642. The new royal palace was then named *Kuta Lama* (*de oude kraton* - the old royal palace) and during the reign of Muhamad Baharuddin (1774-1803) a new royal palace was built in 1780 right next to it, and named *Kuto Besak* (*de nieuwe kraton* - the new royal palace).

## KUTO BESAK ROYAL PALACE

Construction of the new royal palace took place in 1780 and on Monday, February 21, 1797 it was officially put in use. Most probably, the architect was a European while the construction was entrusted to Chinese labor. The royal palace faces Musi River, with its three sides being encircled by the river's tributaries (the west side, Sekanak River/ the east side, Tengkuruk River/ the north side, Kapuran River). The royal palace's length of 250 meters faces Musi River, with an inwards width of 180 meters. The height of the palace's walls varies between 6.5 meters to 9 meters (at the entrance gate) with a thickness varying between 2 to 3 meters.

Along the banks of Musi River, in front of the old and new palaces, an outer fence of defense was built and provided with cannons. Between the banks and the palace was an open field of about 80 meters wide. In all corners of the palace bastions had been built; currently the bastion on the west side is still intact while the other three are just half bastion structures. Inside the palace was a layered defense wall, protecting the sultanate's center point known as *dalem* (inner area) or *rumah sirih*. Conforming to the sultanate's hierarchy, the central building is higher than the other buildings. There are also the usual complementary





P. 46  
Town plan of Palembang (1912),  
showing the location of Fort  
Kuto Besak. On the map it was  
named Kraton.

buildings such as the *keputren* (building for the women/female royal members) which is in the west rear area, a fish pond and garden dominated by sawo (a kind of plum) trees. There are also barracks for the guards located in the east rear area. At a glance the atmosphere in the royal palace closely resembled that of royal palaces in Java, in particular those in Solo and Yogya.

## THE WAR OF 1821

In spite of several (mostly disadvantageous) agreements and military intimidation by the VOC (followed by the Dutch government) and the British government, Palembang could still persevere and maintain its presence as the regional power in the southern part of Sumatra, including Bangka and Belitung. However, it was often impossible for both parties to avoid political tensions. When there were signs that Palembang began to show its opposition against the British who had just taken over power from the Dutch, it was impossible to avoid a military confrontation in 1812.

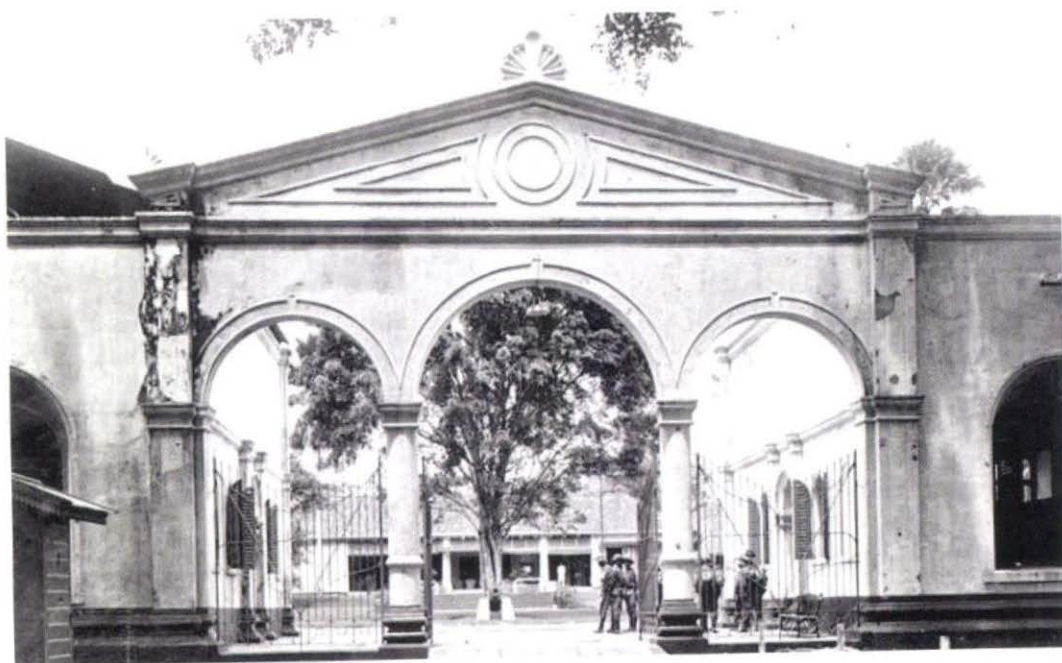
Sultan Mahmud Badaruddin II (reigned during 1804-1812, 1813 and 1818-1821) was defeated by the British in the middle of 1812. He managed to re-occupy the palace but was demoted by Lieutenant Governor Raffles (1811-1816) who preferred Sultan Ahmad Najamuddin (reigned in 1812-1813 and 1813-1818). Not long afterwards, Dutch power over Indonesia was reinstated in 1816.

In 1818 the Dutch put pressure on Palembang, forcing the removal of Najamuddin. Sultan Mahmud Badaruddin II took advantage of the situation and succeeded to withhold Dutch attacks in 1819 (taking place in two stages: June and August-October). During those wars, Kuto Besak and its supporting defense structures proved their strength in withstanding Dutch attacks. Following those defeats, the Dutch assembled a much bigger army and in 1821, Palembang faced the war that would determine its future. With around 2,580 navy men armed with 414 weapons and a land army of more than 4,200 men, the Dutch arrived at Musi River on May 21, 1821. After capturing the supporting defense structures of Kuto Besak one by one, the Dutch managed to approach Kuto Besak, leaving Sultan Badaruddin in a dilemma. The sultan then wisely decided to surrender for the sake of safeguarding the people and the city of Palembang from despair and destruction. When the Dutch entered the palace, they found it in a state of disrepair due to damage inflicted during the 1819 war. On July 1, 1821, the Dutch flag was hoisted in Kuto Besak and the four corner bastions occupied by Dutch soldiers. Sultan Mahmud Badaruddin II was exiled to Ternate. In 1825, during the rule of Governor General Baron van der Capellen (1816-1826), the Palembang Sultanate was extirpated by the Dutch.

## **FORT KUTO BESAK**

The Kuto Besak royal palace was then re-utilized as a Dutch fort. The inner buildings were turned into dwellings for officers, a hospital and barrack to accommodate 1,000 soldiers; built in addition were ammunition storage, artillery storage, a house for residents, a police office, a prison, godowns for private users and a harbor office. In 1832, the buildings inside the fort could no longer accommodate the growing needs. Dwellings for the officers began to be built outside the fort and in the middle of the 19th century the fort was reinforced with a ditch that encircled the outer walls and thorny wild shrubs were grown around the outer side of the ditch. In 1900, Fort Kuto Besak was no longer included in the list of military defense structures and was turned into a compound of government offices. In the current Republic of Indonesia, the Kuto Besak royal palace has been turned into Fort Kuto Besak and is utilized as the office of Sriwijaya Regional Military Command.





P. 47  
Fort Kuto Basak during  
1900-1930



## CLOSING REMARKS

The landmark of Palembang city that became a historical witness to the fierce resistance by the Palembang Sultanate against colonialism is now in consideration to be utilized as a public facility. Although there is still a hospital inside the fort that is accessible to the public, the entirety of Kuto Besak is essentially still a closed venue. When the military is eventually moved to a more suitable place conforming to proper urban planning, Kuto Besak can be restored to its former glory and be utilized as a public facility that will attract thousands of visitors



P. 48  
Part of the inner wall, showing  
the arch door and niche





The rectangular shape of Fort Kuto Besar with four bastions at each corner. Several annex buildings used as military barracks and a hospital still can be found inside the fort.

Toy sellers and children during transaction on an afternoon in front of Fort Kuta Besak.



P. 51

Remnants of the old gate in the south western part, seemingly forgotten and only occasionally admired by visitors who drop by the sidewalk eating stall in the corner, it seems desperate to silently narrate the past as it slips into ancient muted silence.



71

P. 52

From the open yard in front of the fort, people enjoy the mesmerizing glittering of lights at Ampere Bridge in the evening, their bobbing lights reflected in the water of Musi River.







# Fort Marlborough

Bengkulu, 1714

## A British Legacy in Bengkulu

P. 53

The main gate of Marlborough, flanked by two Tuscan pilasters, stands still spanning through the ages.

*Viewed from above, Fort Marlborough looks like a turtle: the turtle's head is the main door, its body is the fort itself while its four feet are the fort bastions. This shape is the typical of forts in Europe; this is understandable since Marlborough is an English fortification built by the East India Company in 1714-1719.*

73

Fort Marlborough is built in an artificial hill. It faces the city of Bengkulu, with its back to the Indian Ocean. Initially the fort was encircled by a ditch which was part of its defense. The ditch separates the entrance door from the main structure, which means that the entrance to the fort is through a bridge.

The fort stands on a site of 44,000 square meters; its physical measurements are around 240 x 170 m. The wall varies between 8 to 8.50 meters high, with a thickness between 1.85 to 3 meters. The fort defense comprised 72 cannons. Inside the fort are several rows of square buildings with gable roofs. The buildings have window blind (*krepyak*) terraces with rows of iron poles. The available notes report that these buildings were utilized in former times as arms storage, detention cells and offices. There is also a fairly large open field in the center of the fort which functioned as the inner court.



## WHO IS THE FIRST DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH?

He was an English soldier and political leader whose career spanned the reigns of five monarchs throughout 1667–1722, pledging allegiance to England (1667–1707) and Great Britain (1707–1722).

His rise to prominence began as an ordinary page in the royal court of Stuart England, but his courage on the field of battle soon ensured quick promotion and recognition from his master and mentor James, Duke of York.

When James became king in 1685, John Churchill played a major role in crushing the Duke of Monmouth's rebellion; but just three years later, Churchill abandoned his Catholic king for the Protestant William of Orange.

During his life, he was involved in several terrible wars such as the Monmouth Rebellion, the Battle of Sedgemoor, the Nine Year War, the Battle of Walcourt, the War of Spanish Succession, the Battle of Schellenberg, the Battle of Blenheim, the Battle of Elixheim, the Battle of Ramillies, the Battle of Oudenarde and the Battle of Malplaquet.



P. 54

John Churchill, First Duke of  
Marlborough Ashe House. (Devon  
26th of May 1650 – Windsor  
Lodge 16th of June 1722.)

P. 55

The plan view of Mariborough, showing a ravelin at south-east. The fort is surrounded by ditch and has a rectangular shape with four arrow-head bastions.

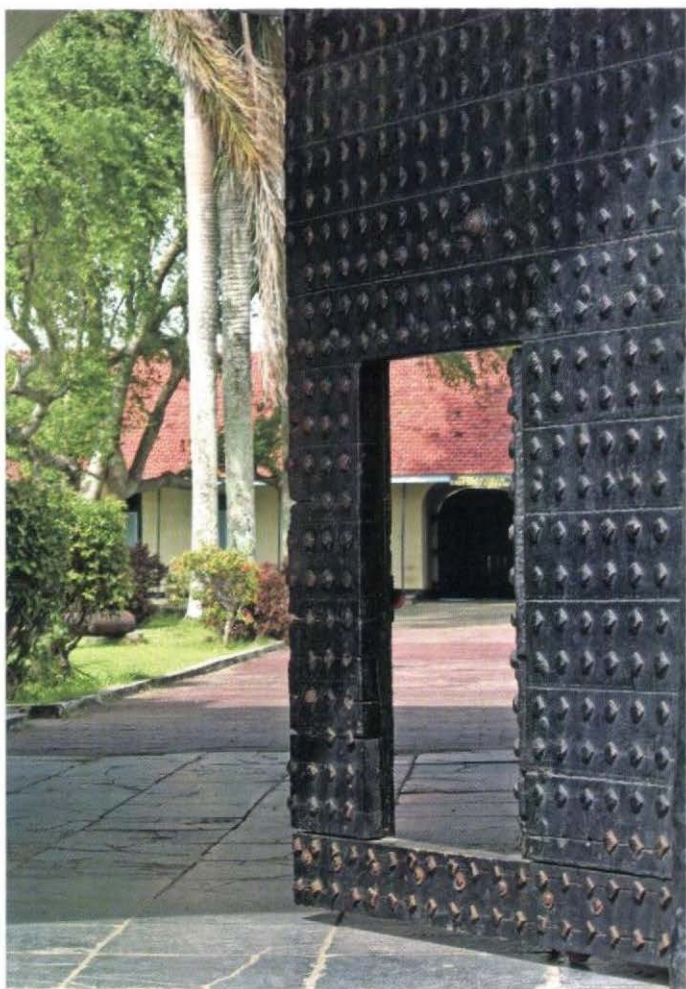


P. 56

A bridge crosses over the ditch, connecting the past and the future.







P. 57

Left: The solid, thick wooden door nailed by rows of iron pegs show its strength.

P. 58

Right: Watching over the footbridge behind the embrasure.

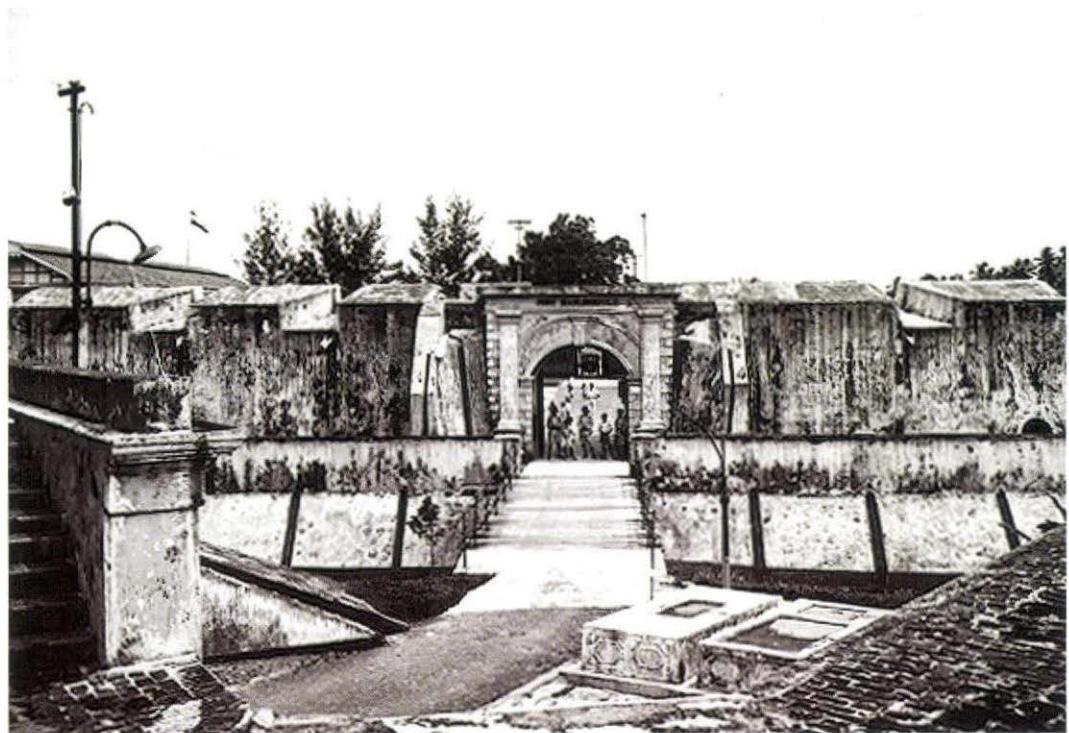
## A BRITISH ENCLAVE IN SUMATRA

The efforts of East India Company to establish themselves in the Moluccas were successfully undermined by the VOC. In 1684 the British managed to sign an agreement with the local chiefs of Bengkulu in Sumatra concerning delivery of pepper and construction of Fort York.

In April 1714, Governor Collet received permission from London to build a new fort four kilometers away from the old fort, towards the sea. It was a square earthen fort with four bastions and brick buildings in and around the inner space. During the construction, the staff lived in the dilapidated Fort York, where several buildings were improved to remain habitable. In 1718 the last employee moved to the new fort which was named Fort Marlborough, after the most famous British general from the Spanish War of Succession and who had become a national hero: John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough (1650-1722). Fort York was then demolished after the garrison moved to the new fort, and the building materials were used to complete the new fort.

P. 59

View from the ravelin towards  
the main gate (1925 – 1937).







P. 60  
City map of Bengkulu (1924)  
showing Fort Marlborough at  
the north.

The relationship between the British and the local people deteriorated. In March 1719 a rebellion broke out, and the people burned the establishment and attacked the fort. The British had to choose between submitting to a siege or leaving. They chose the latter and fled on a ship that happened to be anchored in place. They headed for India but had to stop first at Batavia, which further aggravated their embarrassed.

Following the departure of the British, the sultans of Bengkulu lost their lucrative earnings from the pepper trade, leading to secret deals with the EIC to have a new agreement. In 1723, both parties reached an agreement and the British were allowed to return to their demolished and burnt-out old fort that was reconstructed, and a big, ostentatious bell tower was built as shown in all paintings of the fort at the time. Reconstruction is indeed a necessity but maintenance is equally necessary. Between 1750 and 1760, the governor wrote several reports regarding overdue maintenance work and repair work on the damage caused by two heavy earthquakes. There were insufficient means to maintain the fort as a good defensible structure.

Forts of both the EIC and VOC were primarily fortified trade posts that could ward off attacks from the local people but were completely useless against attacks from European troops. Great Britain and France



P 61

The chambers of military barracks at the south east side.

79

Forts of both the EIC and VOC were primarily fortified trade posts that could ward off attacks from the local people but were completely useless against attacks from European troops. Great Britain and France were engaged in several wars to gain the upper hand in Europe. The Seven-Year War (1756-1763) was conducted not only in Europe but also in their respective colonies in Africa, America and Asia. On April 1, 1760, two French warships appeared in front of Fort Marlborough, under the command of Comte Charles Henri d'Estaing. The sick British people surrendered without a fight and were imprisoned within the fort. Soon, the French were also stricken by the same disease. The number of deaths rose so swiftly, prompting d'Estaing's decision to demolish Fort Marlborough a few months later and abandon it. Through the peace agreement of Paris in 1763, the fort was officially returned to the British.

The EIC learned their lessons from the recent events. The fort was repaired and lodgings were built for the soldiers of a much bigger garrison. In 1782, the ammunition storehouse was struck by lightning and the explosion created severe damage to the fort and the buildings in the vicinity. In the following years, not only was the damage repaired, but the fort was also strengthened by establishing a ravelin in front of the main gate and a glacis around the fort.



During the British interim-period in 1811-1816, Thomas Stamford Raffles became lieutenant governor of Java. Following the return of the colonies to the Dutch in 1816, he was forced to accept the post of governor of Bengkulu. In 1824 the Netherlands and England signed the London Treaty which stipulated that the British relinquished their colonies in Sumatra and obtained Malacca in exchange for Dutch colonies in Malaysia. Raffles, who could never fully digest the return of Java to the Dutch, obtained a new opportunity: he began establishing Singapore.

Fort Marlborough remained utilized by the Netherlands-Indies Army (KNIL) until 1914, and afterwards became a police barrack. During the Japanese occupation, the fort was utilized as the internal camp for women and children (1942-1943). The Dutch occupied Fort Marlborough in 1945 and in 1949 they handed over the fort to the Indonesian military police. Their departure coincided with the restoration of the fort in 1977-1984; the fort has since become a museum.

At present Fort Marlborough has already become a popular tourist destination in Bengkulu. Several buildings inside the fort have been turned into offices but as a whole the fort is open to the public. The surrounding environment has developed in the meantime. On fort's town side, a thriving commercial area has emerged, while on the sea side there is a tourist area with several shop-tents owned by local people.

P. 62  
Panorama of fort, unity of forms  
in the landscape



P. 63

Standing on the ravelin  
overlooks part of the evolving  
old Bengkulu.



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P. 64

A cannon with a rail system that  
can be rotated in a circle.









## Fort Surosowan

Banten, 1570-1580

# The Fury of A Thunderous Marshal

P. 65  
Remains of fort wall

*Bordering Jakarta, the province of Banten possesses several historical remains which still exist until today. Those historical remains tell of the Banten Sultanate's glory of several centuries past. In the past, Banten was a small but busy and prosperous harbor town. In the fifth century, it belonged to the Kingdom of Tarumanagara, and further developed into a harbor city that was frequently visited by trade ships from foreign countries.*

83

The Portuguese and English were the first Europeans who built a lodge in Banten, followed by the Dutch, represented by the Dutch East Indies Company (VOC) who built Fort Speelwijk to protect their interests, since the area had always been ripe for competition over its trade activities. Before the VOC built Fort Speelwijk, there was already Surosowan Royal Palace which was encircled by a fort.

Surosowan was the palace of the Sultan of Banten, which had developed into the most important harbor city in West Java in the 16<sup>th</sup> century. It is said that the royal palace was constructed by Sultan Maulana Hasanuddin (1552-1570) and his successor Sultan Maulana Yusuf (1570-1580).



Following the great fires in 1605 and 1607, the royal palace was completely rebuilt on the same location. Surosowan is encircled by 2-meter high and 5-meter thick brick walls. The area inside the walls measures 300 x 100 meters with a total area of around 3 hectares. Initially, the walls were only to prevent commoners from seeing the palace inhabitants, and not as a protection against attacks.

During the war against his father, Sultan Agung, Sultan Hadji (1671-1690) fortified the royal palace. He was besieged within the palace during the civil war, but was released upon the arrival of Dutch soldiers. The support of the VOC to Sultan Hadji during the civil war eventually led to Banten becoming subordinated to Batavia. After the civil war, damages to the royal palace were repaired. The Dutch stone-mason Cardeel, who took the name of Pangeran Wira Goena after converting to Islam, built in a new wall in 1680-1681 with bastions at the four corners and ravelins in the central and south walls. The Dutch renamed the fortified royal palace Fort Diamant.

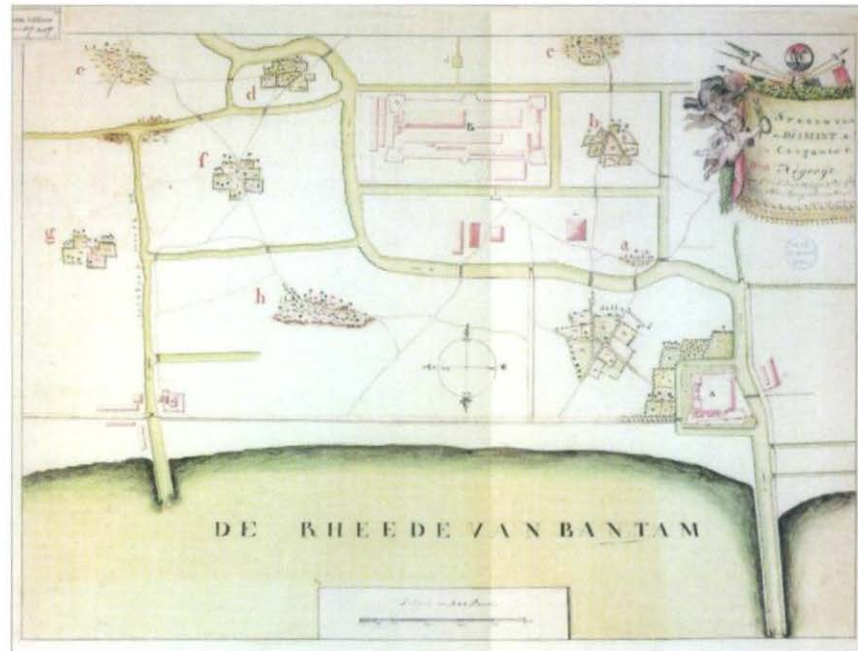


P. 66

The arch gate of Surosowan  
Royal Palace formed by bricks

P. 67

Lusson's sketch of Banten (1780) seen from the sea, showing Fort Surosowan with the Royal Palace inside. Fort Speelwijk was situated at the south east part.



85

P. 68

The rectangular fort's walls with the remnants of the royal palace building inside (2011).





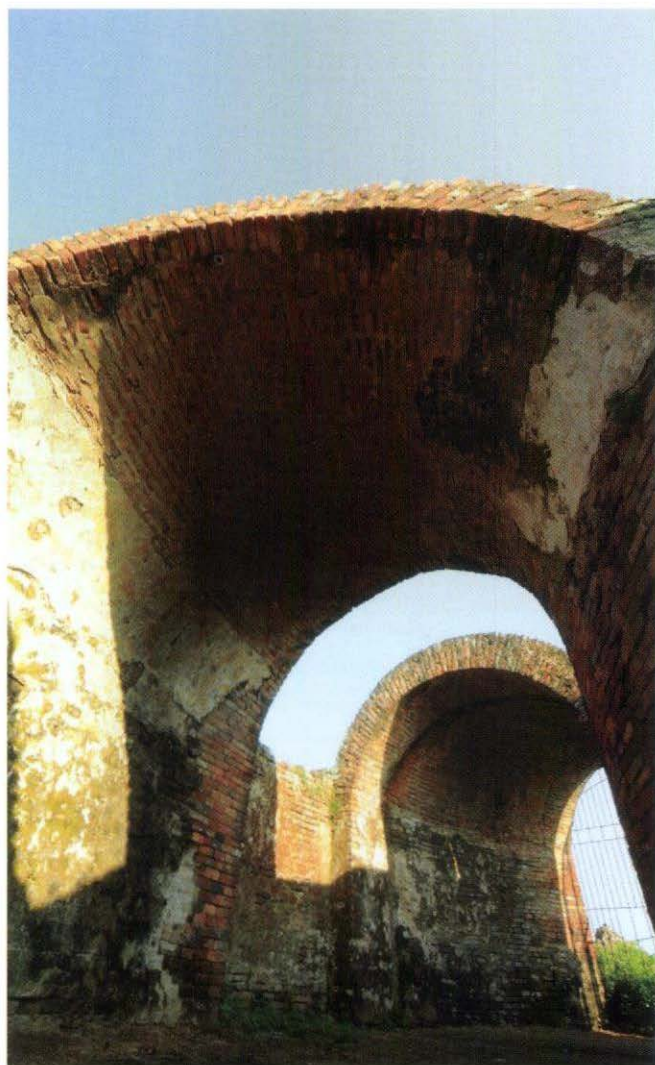
In the 18<sup>th</sup> century, the buildings inside the royal palace were expanded several times. In 1701, Sultan Zainul Abidin installed water pipes between the pools of his country house at Tasik Ardi and the palace. The water ran first through a filter structure and then flowed through a brick aqueduct with lead pipes to the sultan's baths. At present, what remain of the pools where the Sultan and his wives used to take their baths are only the foundations, a small winding stone staircase, and water pipes for the supply and discharge of excessive water.

P 69

Gate with arched ceiling at the east side.

P 70

Remnants of fort's wall seen from inside





P. 71

A hybrid construction of stone  
and brick.



87

P. 72

Remains of a small pool inside  
the palace.





Governor General Daendels (1808-1811) planned to establish a marine port at Meeuwenbaai (Teluk Peucang). He ordered the Sultan to provide laborers for the groundwork. The location, however, was extremely unhealthy, killing a great number of workers and causing many others to run away. Marshal Daendels considered the delay in construction as an act of opposition and warned the sultan that the royal administrator should be personally responsible for the execution of his orders. Daendels dispatched two emissaries to the sultan with the demand to deliver the responsible administrator, the daily supply of 1,000 coolies and to move the royal palace to Anyer where a fort was being built. The Sultan consented to the first two demands but refused to obey the third, since it was against the tradition and was not mentioned in the agreement. The emissaries and their escorts were murdered at the orders of the royal administrator. With 1,000 men, Daendels immediately stormed Fort Diamant which was defended by 3,000 men, most of whom ran away fearing the thundering marshal. The royal palace was then conquered and the Sultan taken as prisoner. The royal administrator was eventually executed, the Sultan deposed and exiled to Ambon, and Banten was declared a Dutch territory. As punishment for the murder of the emissaries, Fort Diamant was demolished, an act that only took place in 1832 as the people refused to demolish the symbol of their rulers.



P. 73

Some remnants of rooms,  
doorway and a big arched  
stairway

P. 74  
Remains of Surosowan Royal  
Palace inside the fort



P. 75  
Remnants of three round  
staircases of the Surosowan  
Royal Palace.







P. 76  
Remnants of one big pool in the  
middle of the Royal Palace



P. 77  
The water ducts running from  
Tasik Ardi to the fort

Banten then “vanished” from the annals of history. In 1893, the curator of the ethnographic collection at the Batavia Museum, Serrurier, obtained a map made by a resident of Banten, depicting the remnants of the city. Between 1915 and 1930, the Archaeological Office restored the ruins. The Indonesian government continued the restoration work and research activities. In the 1970s and 1980s, big scale archaeological excavations were conducted, and the findings were exhibited in the Banten field museum which was officially inaugurated in 1985.

The fort is a rectangular structure with an arrow bastion in each corner. Its wall is double-layered; the outer wall is made of 1.5 m thick coral stones, while the inner wall is made of red bricks 60 cm thick. The main arched entrance door, located in the north, is made of layered bricks. The wall is presently still standing but the buildings within the fort have disappeared. There are presently only foundations of the vanished buildings, ponds and squares. The principal ruin is a large rectangular square with remnants of room partitions and a big arched stairway. Small paths connect the buildings inside the fort. Besides remnants of buildings, there are also remnants of three ponds: one is filled with greenish water covered by algae and moss, one is known by the name of Bale Kambang Rara Denok (Rara Denok floating pavilion) and one is a bathing pond with a fountain named Pancuran Mas (The Golden Fountain). The water of the three ponds originates from a well and from Tasik Ardi (Lake Ardi) located about 2 km from the fort. Presently we can still see remnants of the water ducts running from Lake Ardi to the fort. All the buildings and ponds in the fort are made of layered bricks.





# Fort Speelwijk

Banten, 1684

## Fort as Treaty Seal

P. 78  
The spy tower at north  
bastion faces the daily lives  
surrounding.

*Banten was formerly a very bustling harbor with an open and prosperous society. In the fifth century, the harbor city belonged to the Kingdom of Tarumanagara – a huge empire that flourished and developed during the fourth to sixth centuries, controlling almost all of present-day West Java.*

In time, Banten became part of the Sunda Kingdom until 1552, when Maulana Hasanudin founded the Banten Sultanate which continued to prosper and develop, making its harbor the biggest in South East Asia. As reported by J. de Barros, at the time Banten was located in the center of a bay with a clear water river that was navigable for Chinese boats and galleys.

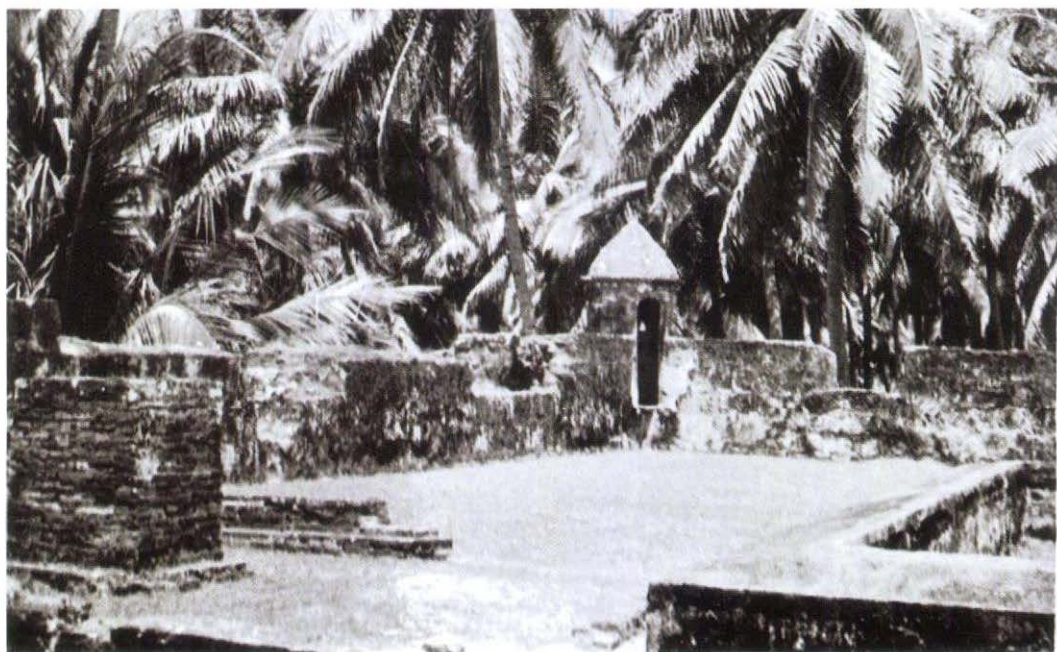
For many years Banten became the most formidable competitor for Batavia. It was an important harbor town where European and Asian merchants bought pepper. The VOC tried to outplay its competitors through a blockade.

In 1682, the Dutch had a unique opportunity to outplay Banten. The ruling Sultan, Abdul Kahar Abun Nazar, also known as Sultan Hadji, requested their assistance in the fight against his father and rival Sultan Ageng Tirtayasa. Accordingly, the VOC dispatched soldiers and the civil war took a decisive development, favoring





P. 79  
Fort Speelwijk in early 20<sup>th</sup>  
century.



Sultan Hadji. The assistance, however, came at a price. On April 17, 1684, the sultan signed the treaty which accorded the VOC the sole right to trade in the kingdom of Banten.

To ensure that the treaty was obeyed, the High Government in Batavia decided to build a fort. The rudimentary elements were already there; in 1682 a group of sailors under the command of Rombout van Hoogstraten occupied a bastion in the sea wall of Banten and called it Fort "Speelwijk", after the Governor General Cornelis Jansz Speelman (1681-1684). Surveyor Ewout Verhagen incorporated the existing structures into his design of the new fort: Speelwijk became the north bastion and the Banten sea wall served as the connection with the new northeast bastion Zeewijk. The southwest bastion was given the name Riverpoint or High Tide Bastion. On the fourth corner was a half bastion named Rottenest and re-named Nieuwpunt after being restored. From this bastion it was possible to fire at the Sultan's palace, Diamant.

On its three sides, the fort was encircled by a ditch, while on the south side a small piece of land separated it from Banten River.

The construction began in 1685 with the erection of a wooden palisade. The land was then piled up with sand and rubble from the destroyed town of Banten. Construction of the encircling wall was given high priority. In the inner area, temporary bamboo structures were erected, and after the wall was finished, the structures were replaced by stone buildings. Within the fort there were watch-posts, storages, barracks, workshops, commander's dwelling and a church. Bastion Speelwijk served as a "*kat*" (a raised fortification). Below this bastion was an ammunition room, while upon the "*kat*" a pavilion was erected, a place where the commander and his guests could spend leisure time. There were three entrance gates in the fort: the Land gate at the riverside, the Water gate and the small commander's gate in the sea wall. The construction of Fort Speelwijk was completed in 1686. The armament comprised 48 cannons.

In the 18<sup>th</sup> century, some improvements were made, such as the construction of ammunition cellars in the Nieuwpunt and the Rivierpunt, and the afore-mentioned new bridges. Due to the impending European war, the ditches were further excavated in 1756, and in front of the Land gate (*Landpoort*), two half-walls were erected. Further repairs were made to the hospital, and the old barracks were replaced.





P 80

Fort's wall in the eastern side  
facing the ditch,



P 81

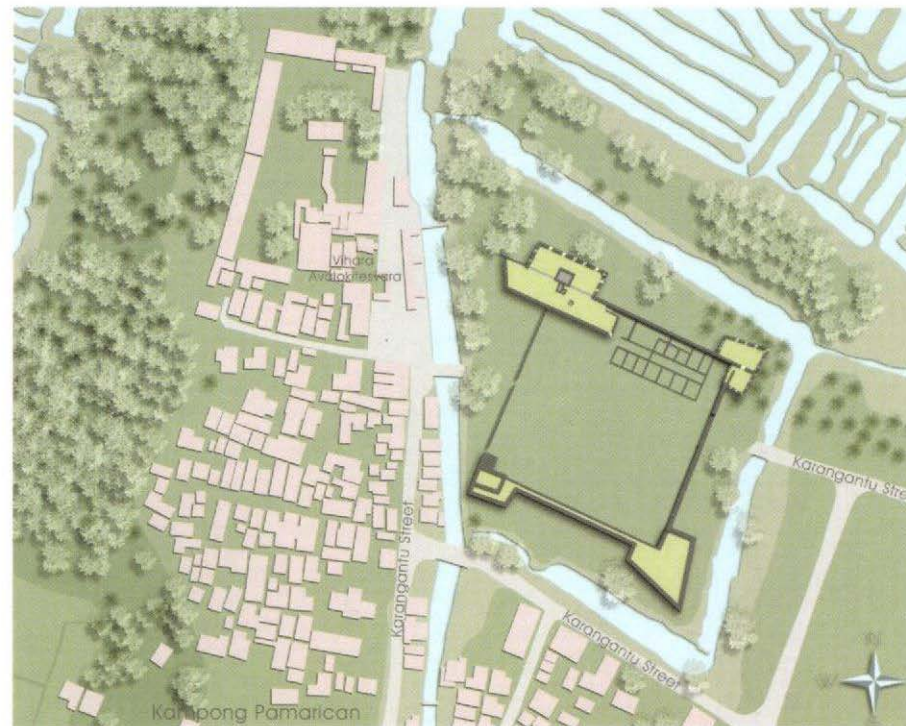
The fort is encircled by ditches  
and a small river called Banten  
River

Because the fort was located on the coast and potable water was in short supply, the soldiers suffered from tropical diseases such as malaria. Governor General Herman Daendels (1808-1811) planned to demolish the decaying and unhealthy fort; however, his plans were overtaken by the clash that erupted between him and the sultan which resulted in Banten being directly subjugated under Dutch authority in 1810 (*see Fort Surosowan*).

The fort had lost its purpose. In 1809 a Dutch infantry unit still occupied it. The following year the name Speelwijk was mentioned for the last time and the abandoned fort slipped into decay.

In 1911, Governor General A.W.F. van Idenburg made a visit to Banten and he ordered the remains of the fort and the European cemetery to be cleaned up and maintained. As a result, Fort Speelwijk became the first protected monument or cultural heritage property in the Netherland Indies. The law on monuments (cultural heritage properties), or the *Monumenten Ordonnantie*, was enacted in 1931.

P. 82  
The irregular square fort with  
a bastion of its four flanks  
encircled with ditches and river







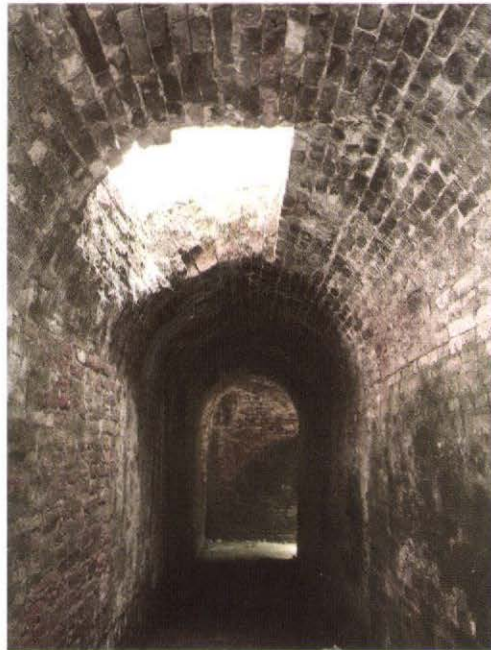
P. 83  
Remains of fort's wall and  
bastion.

The fort is an irregular square structure with a bastion in each of its four flanks. Each of the four bastions has different shapes and measurements. The south east bastion has the shape of an arrow, while the other three bastions have irregular shapes. Each bastion has embrasures and battery platforms. The fort wall is made of layered bricks, natural stones and corals shaped into beams 1.5 – 6 m high and 0.6 – 1.5 m thick. Initially there were 3 entrance doors in the north, west and east sides. Currently, the east entrance door has been blocked by bricks. The biggest entrance door is in the north, with an arched gate. There were also watchtowers, but at present there remains only one in the North West bastion. It is a 2.5 m spy tower with a diameter of 1.1 m. and 5 triangular shooting holes. There were formerly quite a number of additional buildings serving as armor storage, dwellings, trade office and storages. At present only their foundations remain.

The fort is located about 1 kilometer from the coast edge, and one of its sides borders the small Banten River which in the past was navigable for small local boats (*perahu*). The other sides are bordered by an encircling ditch that is connected to the river. Around the fort are dwellings and fishponds owned by local people.

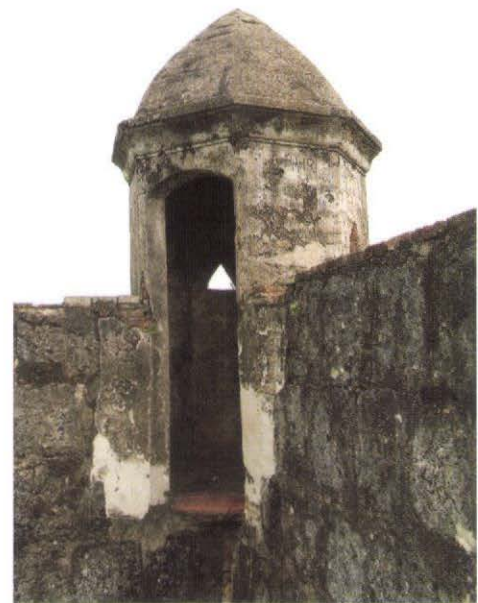
P. 84

Left: An alley inside the bastion and loop in the fort's wall.



P. 85

Right: Spy tower in one of the bastions.



P. 86

Left: The tomb outside the fort.



P. 87

Right: Remains of building foundations and walls inside the fort.







# Fort Vredeburg & Vastenburg

Yogyakarta, 1760 and Solo, 1779

## Twin Forts: Vredeburg and Vastenburg

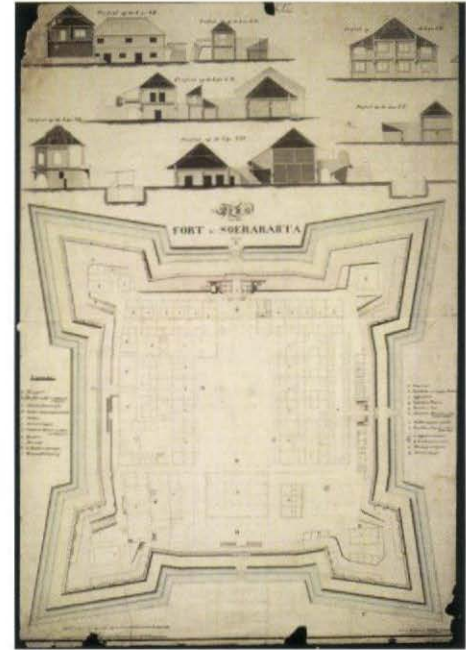
P. 88  
the main gate of Vredeburg;  
with neo-classic style, show four  
Tuscan columns and tympanum

*Fort Vastenburg and Fort Vredeburg are twin forts in two separate respective locations. The first is located at Jenderal Sudirman Street, in the city of Surakarta and the second one at Malioboro Street, in the city of Yogyakarta. Both forts originate from similar historical backgrounds and their shapes as well as measurements are almost identical.*

In the beginning, the military and civilian European communities lived inside the forts. It was only in the second half of the 18<sup>th</sup> century that the residents of Surakarta and Yogyakarta started to live outside the forts, then at the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century both forts became full military compounds. For decades, their beautiful architecture was hidden behind their closed- to-the public functions. A brief observation from the outside shows high and elongated walls that appear quite sinister and neglected. Most people are just superficially acquainted, regarding them as insignificant parts of their cities. Furthermore, the walls of both Company fort compounds are smaller and less imposing than those of the respective royal palaces which are, no doubt, much more looked after.

In the city maps of Surakarta and Yogyakarta from the 1950's, both structures were just noted as 'forts'. Their attractiveness and historical value only came to the foreground when they were stripped of their military functions and were altered to accommodate more public functions. In line with the people's growing





Interest in colonial buildings and structures, Fort Vastenburg and Fort Vredenburg have been recognized as historical assets that certainly need to be preserved. It was, however, from this point on that both forts began to embark on their respective different passages of destiny.

### **MATARAM KINGDOM DIVIDED, FORTS APPEARED**

The birth of the twin forts originated during the crisis that befell the Kingdom of Mataram in the middle of the 18<sup>th</sup> century. Following the riots that were ignited by the Chinese uprising in 1743, Mataram relinquished more of its power over the north coast to the VOC – it was the price which Paku Buwono II had to pay for the protection provided by the VOC during the conflict. The Giyanti Treaty in 1755 marked the increase of the VOC's influence within the political and trade realms of Java which at the same time started the division of Mataram into separate areas ruled by the monarch or Sunan of Surakarta and the Yogyakarta Sultanate. Following the Salatiga Agreement of 1757, the Kadipaten of Mangkunegara was established: an apportioned area within Surakarta ruled by an adipati, a sovereign, who is subjugated to the monarch of Surakarta.

P. 89

Left: The gate of Fort Vastenburg, Solo, with Neo-classic architecture and four Tuscan columns.

P. 90

Right: Plan of fort Vastenburg 1832.

By the mid-18<sup>th</sup> century, the VOC's strategic defense around Mataram was placed along the north coast of Java (Semarang, Pekalongan, Tegal, Jepara, Rembang and Surabaya) and along the road leading to Mataram's center point (Salatiga). In the newly-established territories of Surakarta (1745) and Yogyakarta (1756), the VOC then immediately built temporary wooden forts which became the beginnings of European settlements in both cities. As a consequence of the agreements made between the indigenous royalties and the VOC, permanent VOC forts had to be built at the expense of the Sunan and the Sultan near their respective royal palaces.

## VASTENBURG

A small fort, named Grootmoedigheid (Generosity) was built in Surakarta during the rule of Governor General Baron Von Imhoff (in office 1743-1750) shortly after Pakubuwono II (ruling 1726-1749) moved from Kartasura to his new royal palace in Surakarta in 1746. Van Imhoff was quite eager to build small forts along the trade road that ran from the center of Mataram to the port of Semarang. Plans for a more permanent fort may well have been made not long after the Giyanti Treaty was signed in 1755. In 1775 it was reported that the outer part of the fort in Surakarta had been completed, and cannons were even provided by Sunan Pakubuwono III (ruling 1749-1788).

P 91  
The drawbridge at the west gate stands above the ditch (circa 1900).







P. 92

Taken by Woodbury & Page in 1870; this photo shows the west gate with rows of windows and niches.



P. 93

Only the wall and the ditch still stand. The original buildings inside the fort have vanished.

P. 94

The wall paintings have faded away, covered by bush growth.



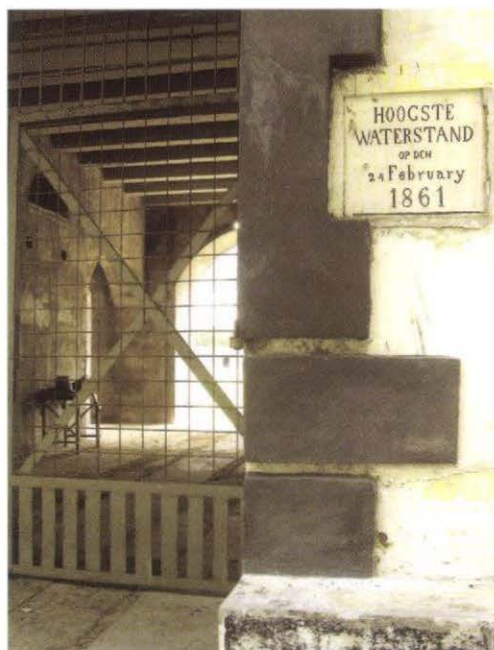
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P. 95

Left: A plaque at the gate reads: The highest water level in  
24 February 1861

P. 96

Right: The door and broken  
glass window on the second  
floor of the main gate.





The VOC fort in Surakarta was finally declared complete in 1779 and could be utilized in 1780. The fort was named Vastenburg (steadfast, durable). Following the reorganization of the Dutch Indies Army after the Diponegoro War (1825-1830) Fort Vastenburg was improved in 1832 – the year “1832” can be seen near the north entrance door. This restored and enlarged fort stood until the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century.



P. 97

The inscription at the north gate, fading away



P. 98

The east gate, with pair of pilasters

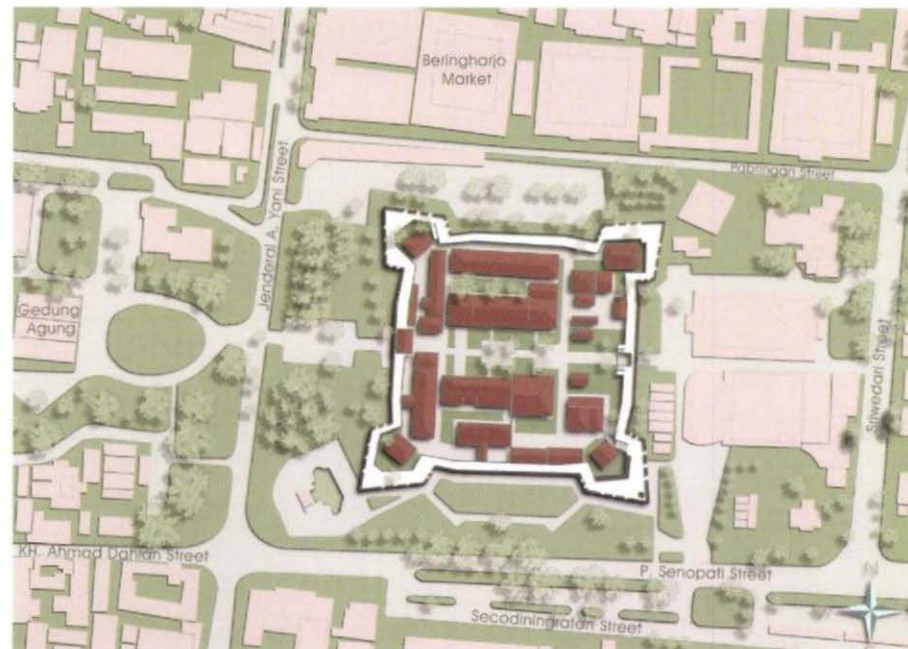
## VREDEBURG

The design of a VOC fort in Yogyakarta already appeared in 1756 and most probably certain preparatory work was also conducted in the same year. However, it was only in 1765 that Sultan Hamengku Buwono I (reigning 1749-1792) showed earnest interest in building a permanent VOC fort near his royal palace – that was after the VOC had urged him several times to do so. Unlike the building of the fort in Surakarta, the construction of the fort in Yogyakarta was rather slow. One of the reasons was because the large scale construction of the royal palace, including that of the huge Taman Sari Water Castle, had demanded considerable attention, manpower and funds of the Sultanate. The Sultan was also not too happy with the prospect of 500 soldiers to be stationed near his palace – at least during his reign. The fort was finally declared complete in 1790 and named Rustenburg (Castle of Rest).

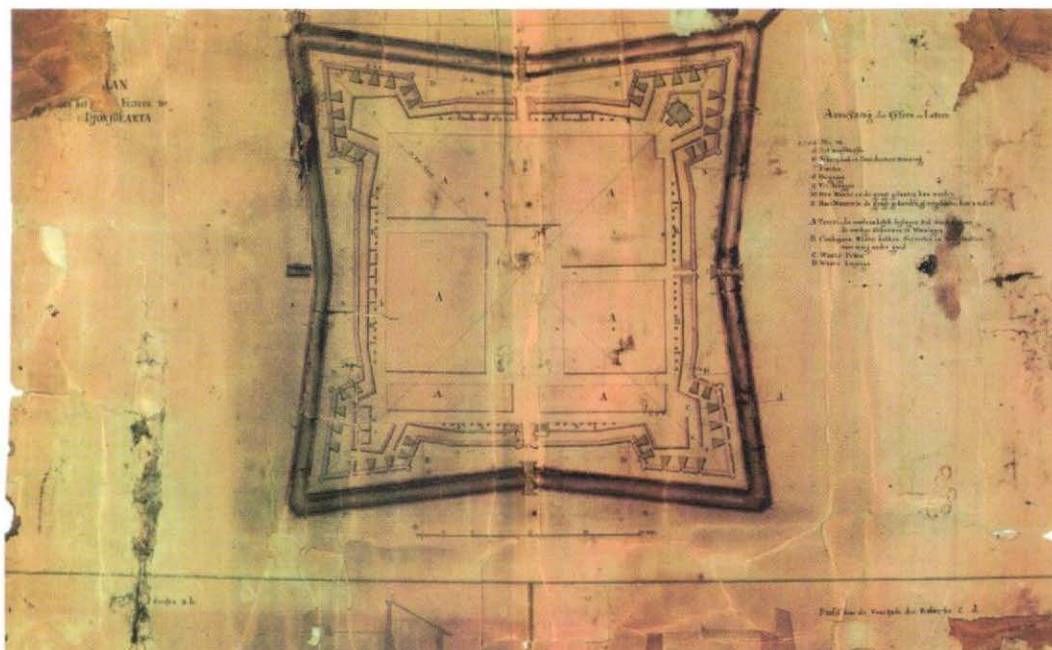
The change of name to Vredeburg (Castle of Peace) may well have been meant to underline the peaceful situation that prevailed after the Diponegoro War, together with the reorganizations conducted among the Dutch Indies Army in the 1830's. Following severe damage caused by an earthquake in 1867, major repairs on the fort were undertaken.

P. 99

The plan view of Fort Vredeburg shows a similar shape with Fort Vastenburg, a quadrangle with four bastions. Most of the buildings inside the fort are still intact







P. 100

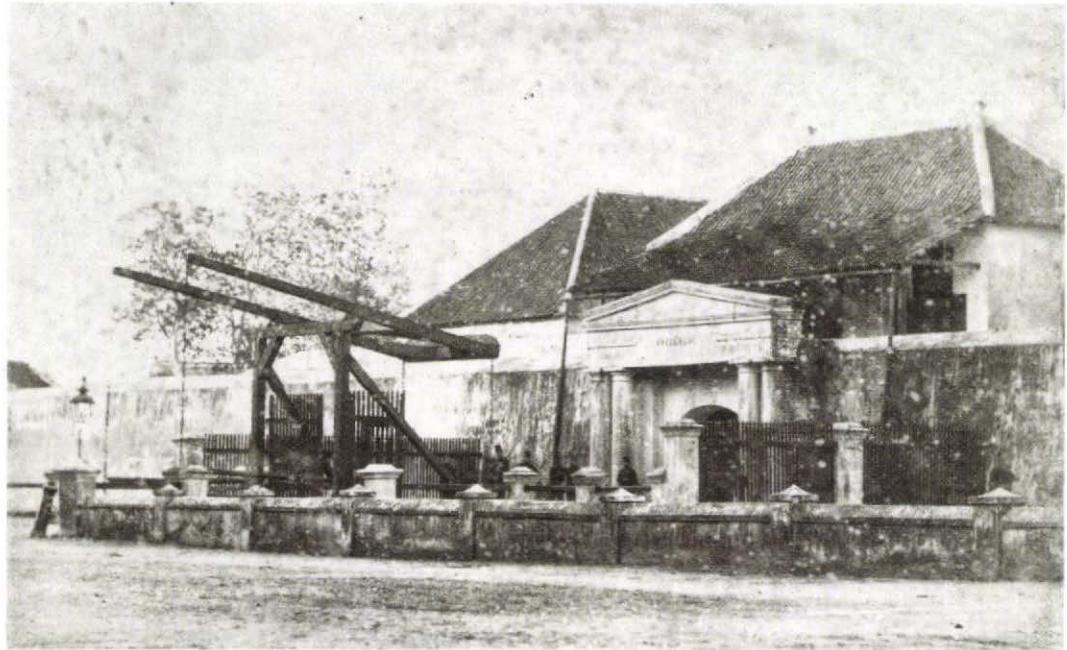
Fort Vredeburg, surrounded by ditch and tree entrance at north, east and south. (1832).



P. 101

Taken by Chepas (circa 1896). It shows the ditch fill with water surround the fort Vredeburg.

Right: The drawbridge in front  
the main gate, still can see in  
photograph by S.W. Camerik



### A QUADRANGULAR FORT WITH FOUR BASTIONS

Fort Vredeburg was built based on designs by engineer Frans Haak (1756). Both Vastenburg and Vredeburg measure about 170 meters each, from one bastion to the other. Considering their identical shapes and measurements, Fort Vastenburg may well have been built based on the same design drawings of Fort Vredeburg. The quadrangular forts each have four arrowhead bastions; this type of fort was developed in Europe during the 16<sup>th</sup> century and was the most simple and cheap kind of fort, but not too reliable in wartime compared to pentagonal or polygonal type of forts which were more solid in facing enemy attacks.

These twin forts could also be called similar but not quite the same as a number of differences appear, such as the different geographic factors, different tastes of their respective builders, different building techniques used and different military managements. Both forts are located in the north side of the north public square, at the east axis of the royal palace. Their main gates both face west and each is immediately connected to the main roads. Both forts are each encircled by a 4.60 meter ditch and provided with a drawbridge to control the comings and goings to and from the forts.



The site of Fort Vredeburg is bigger than that of Fort Vastenburg – the east-west distance is equal, about 360 meters, but the north-south distance is somewhat different: it is 215 meters for Vastenburg and 230 meters for Vredeburg.

Next to the main gate in the west side, there is a secondary door in the east, and a third door in the north – in the design drawing from 1756, the third door of Fort Vredeburg is in the south.

The outer wall is 4.5 meters high and appears not too convincing for a defense fort. At the advent of Indonesia's independence, the twin forts in the two cities played a more political-diplomatic role rather than a military one. Nevertheless, both forts were built in accordance with the principles of military compounds, complete with the necessary facilities such as offices, dwellings, storage, ceremonial squares, communal kitchens, hospitals, ammunition stores, cannons and prisons.

P. 103

Every architectural element shows the neo-classic style

P. 104

The old building now functions as an auditorium and museum shop.



During the army's reorganization in 1832, the facilities at Fort Vastenburg were increased. Several new buildings were also built in 1949-1950. An observation made in 1987 showed that the dwellings of the commander and officers were placed outside the fort, along the west side, facing Jenderal Sudirman Street. The dwellings of the soldiers remained inside and also outside the fort along the east side. Bachelor soldiers were separated from married ones. The ammunition store was located near the bastion corner north of the main door. The prison was located near the bastion corner south of the main door. The communal kitchen was inside the fort along the east side in the north complete with a chimney. Outside the fort in the north was the office of the army's engineering department.

The facilities in Fort Vredenburg are more or less the same with those of Fort Vastenburg; their locations and architecture however, are relatively different. Notes from 1937 show that the officers' dwellings were located in the west side facing Malioboro Street – regretfully those houses were demolished when the fort was given a new function as the Museum Perjuangan (Museum of Struggle) at the end of the 1980's – and also on the east side in the north. The soldier dormitories were scattered inside the fort and an attempt had

P 105  
Corridor of office building.







P 106

A guard post at the southeast bastion.

P 107

Left-below: One of the buildings inside the fort's northeast bastion.

P 108

Right-below: The arch gate.



been made to separate the bachelors from the married soldiers. The commander's house was located right on the east-west axis in the east side within the fort. The ammunition store was hidden and located near the bastion corner south of the east gate. What is interesting is that in 1918 the drinking water network system that had been used inside the fort had been expanded to also serve the people in the Kotabaru settlement.

## **CHANGE OF FORT FUNCTION**

In 1980 Fort Vredeburg finally ended its military role and became the Center of Information and Development of Nusantara Culture. Sultan Hamengku Buwono IX (reign 1940-1988) as owner of Fort Vredeburg agreed to the change of function. On the advice of an Indonesian historian, a large scale preservation program was conducted and the fort was changed into the National Museum of Struggle – inaugurated in 1987. Most of the buildings inside the fort and some outside the fort (especially those on the east side) were still preserved and used by the general public. In 1992 it was finally stipulated as Vredeburg Fort Museum, a popular site for domestic and foreign tourists, including school children and students. The visitors are greeted by statues of two highly-honored soldiers in the history of Indonesia's Independence: General Sudirman and General Oerip Soemohardjo (near the main gate inside the fort).

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It had been quite a different passage of time for Fort Vastenburg, being fully owned by the Armed Forces. A land swap deal at the end of 1980's was unavoidable, because of the fort's highly strategic location in the city center. A sound proposal had once been put forward by Prof. Eko Budihardjo and Prof. Sidharta, combining the fort's commercial and social interests. However, the proposal was not attractive enough for the private sector. Then two proposals of hotel construction within the fort were made at two different time frames; both were unsuccessful, and could not obtain the approval from the central government. In the ensuing development, the large site was divided by the new owner. Except for the fort itself and one house in the south outer side, all buildings inside and outside the fort were gradually demolished and nothing could be done to prevent it. A private bank office now occupies the empty plot in the west side.

Occasional art happenings are conducted on the open field inside the fort, but besides that, only wild grass and shrubs thrive. At present, Fort Vastenburg is still awaiting what change of function it will be accorded, having been vacated for more than 20 years. The fort is destroyed, not by war but because of conservation mismanagement that has failed to accommodate the inevitable change.





BALAI PERTEMUAN  
POLISI DAN MASYARAKAT

FORT WILLEM

MDCC XXXVI

## Fort Willem 2

Ungaran, 1755 -1757

### Fort as Health Resort

P 109

A new lease of life was given to the fort in August 2011. The police restored the fort into a multi-purpose public facility. The new chapter of its history has begun.

*Fort Willem II is located in the town of Ungaran. It has a relatively easy accessibility and can be reached by boarding public transport from the bus terminal in Semarang heading to Ambarawa-Salatiga-Solo-Yogyakarta; one can alight right in front of the fort. Surrounding the fort is a mixed area of dwellings, trade buildings, private offices and government offices.*

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The structure of Fort Willem II is square with bastions in each of its corners. On closer observation the fort resembles a windmill with each arrow-shaped bastion facing four different directions. The walls have a height varying between 4 m to 5 m, with a thickness of 80 cm. There are two gates, one on the west and one on the east, each measuring 2.5 m wide and 3.5 m high. The west gate is arched with pilasters and entablatures bearing the year 1786. Stairs are on the west and east sides of the wall, going up to the rampart on the upper part of the fort and to the second floor of the related buildings. The west door is from wooden planks with a 10 cm thickness. The parapet of the bastion is 80 cm high and 60 cm thick. The walls of the fort are made of bricks with cement plastering.



There are two related buildings in Fort Willem II. The first is rectangular with a saddleback roof and the second is square with a hipped roof. Both buildings have two stories; the flooring of the first story is made of tiles while the second story has a wooden floor. The buildings have wooden blinds windows (*krepyak*).

Currently Fort Willem II is not being utilized and has been abandoned. Once a while interested tourists and the local people visit the fort to have a look. Several local art groups use the fort as their training site. On June 3 – 6, 2010, the Fort Ungaran Festival was held at the initiative of the local cultural heritage group.

Ungaran is located on the slope of a hill along the strategic road between Semarang and Kartasura. During the Chinese uprising (1741-1743) fierce fighting took place between VOC soldiers and the army comprising of Javanese and Chinese people. Learning from the uprising, Governor General Von Imhoff (1743-1750) ordered the building of three small forts at strategic places in the area.

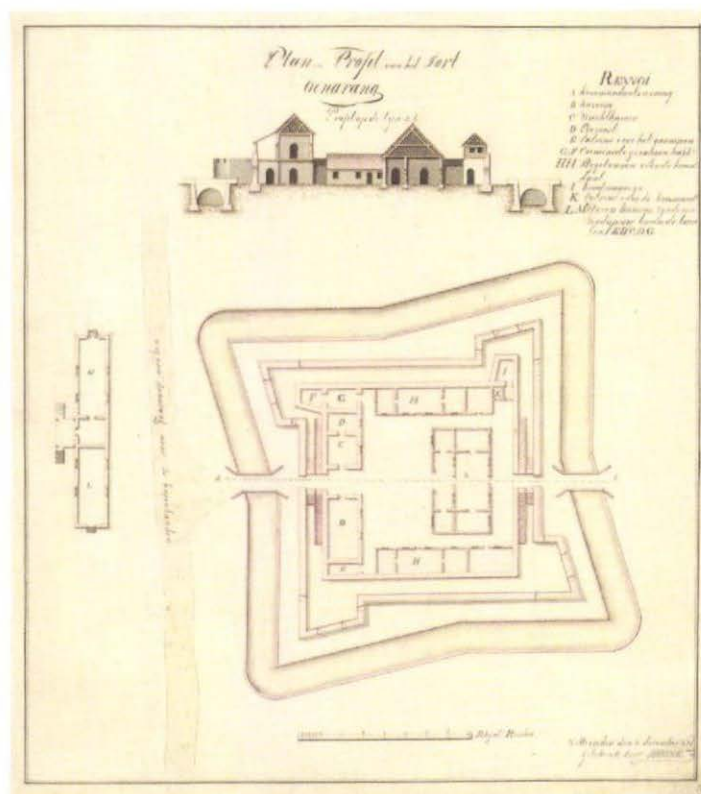
P 110

"Plan and section of Fort Cenang"

Manufacture: "Wetvreden the 6 December 1825, signed by H. Martens" 1876 Acquisitions, Collection Schneider.

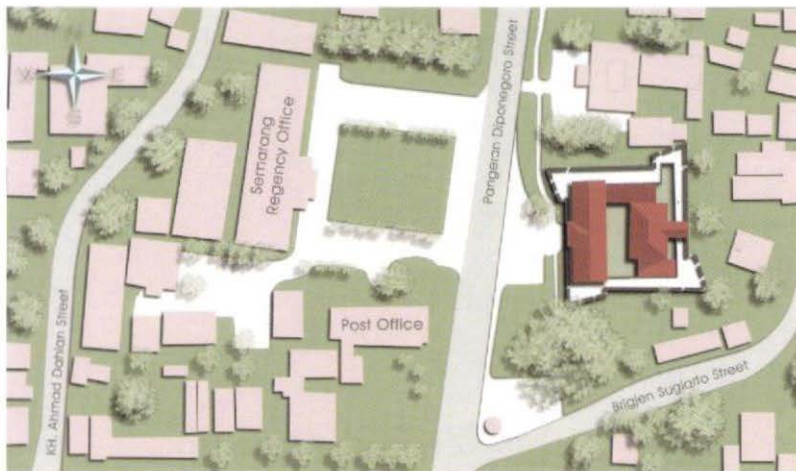
Legend:

- A House of Commander
- B Barrack
- C Guard Room
- D Provost
- E Latrine (toilet) for Garrison
- FG Cells for criminal prisoners
- HH Outbuildings of Commander's House
- I Gunpowder Warehouse
- K Latrine (toilet) for Commander



P. 111

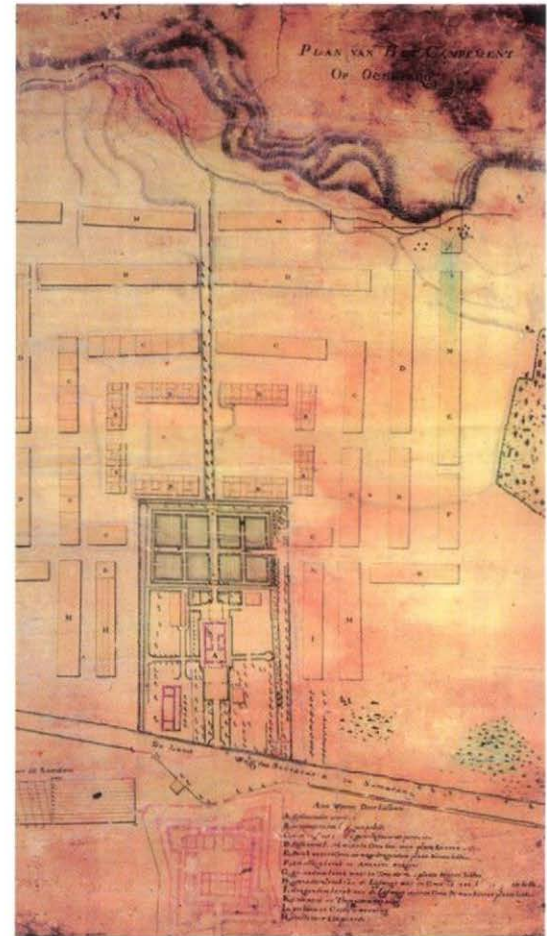
The map of 1784 shows the plan view of Fort Ontmoeting. On the far side are plans for a military encampment.



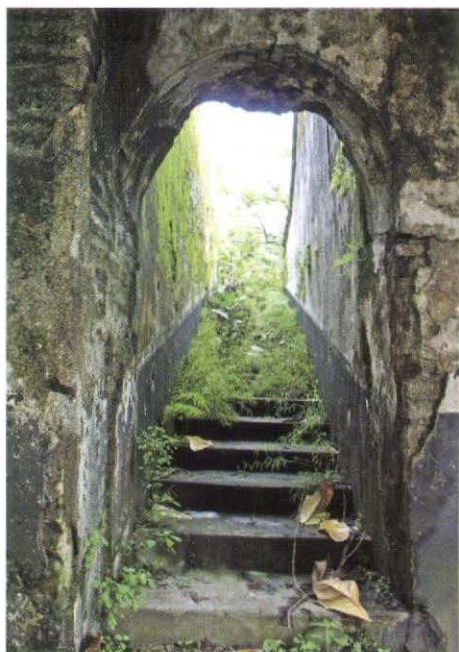
P. 112

The plan view of a rectangular shape and bastions at each corner.

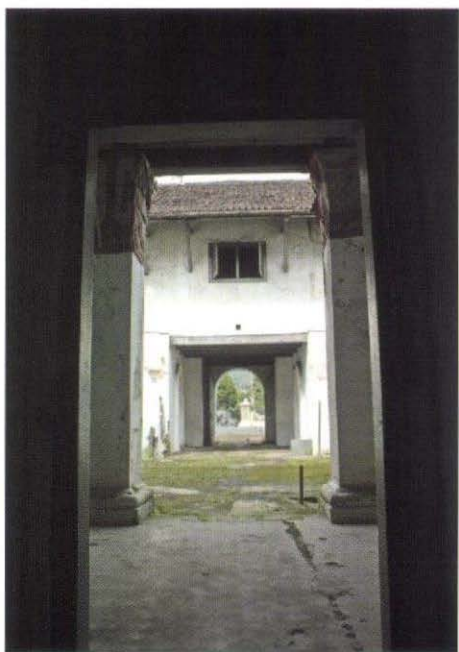
Fort Ungaran was named De Ontmoeting (The Encounter) to commemorate the meeting between Von Imhoff and Sultan Pakubuwono II in 1746. It seemed that a temporary fort was first built. On the gable of the current fort's main gate, the construction year 1786 is engraved. The square fort has four half- bastions, two big gates and a small one. In the inner space are lodgings for the soldiers and the commander's quarters. Since the fort was designated as a purely military facility – which was to control the road from the sea to the Royal Principalities of Yogyakarta and Surakarta – it had no buildings to store trade commodities.







P. 113  
Fort Willem II before  
conservation



P. 114  
Fort Willem II before  
conservation.



When The British landed at Batavia in 1811 and defeated the Dutch-French army at Meester Cornelis (Jatinegara), Governor General Jan Willem Janssens managed to escape and, after assembling a number of escaped soldiers, journeyed through the Great Post Road (*De Groote Postweg*) to Semarang. The British followed him by sea and soon also landed in Semarang. Janssens withdrew to the hinterland, obtained support from Javanese soldiers and moved in a fortification south of Ungaran. Fort De Ontmoeting served as his headquarters. The British attacked but failed to achieve a decisive victory because the Javanese soldiers ran away when the enemy approached. Several shots were still fired from the fort in Ungaran against the British, but then Janssens left to Salatiga with around ten soldiers before the fort was attacked. The British general moved into the fort and from there conducted deliberations which several days later led to the surrender of Governor General Janssens.



Following the return of Java to the Dutch in 1817, the fort was again occupied. There was a garrison of 25 soldiers under the command of an officer. The fort's military purpose vanished completely with the building of the big Fort Willem I in Ambarawa in the 1830's. The new fort and the defense line along Tuntang River were designated to stop enemy attacks from the coast to the hinterland.

Fort De Ontmoeting was given a new designation. The coastal area of Java was extremely unhealthy. The soldiers of the garrison in Semarang often suffered from all kinds of tropical diseases. With the then-available medical service, it was difficult to cure the ill, but it was widely known that staying in cooler places in the hinterland provided good results. Being located on a mountain in the middle of forests, Ungaran was much cooler and healthier than places along the coast.

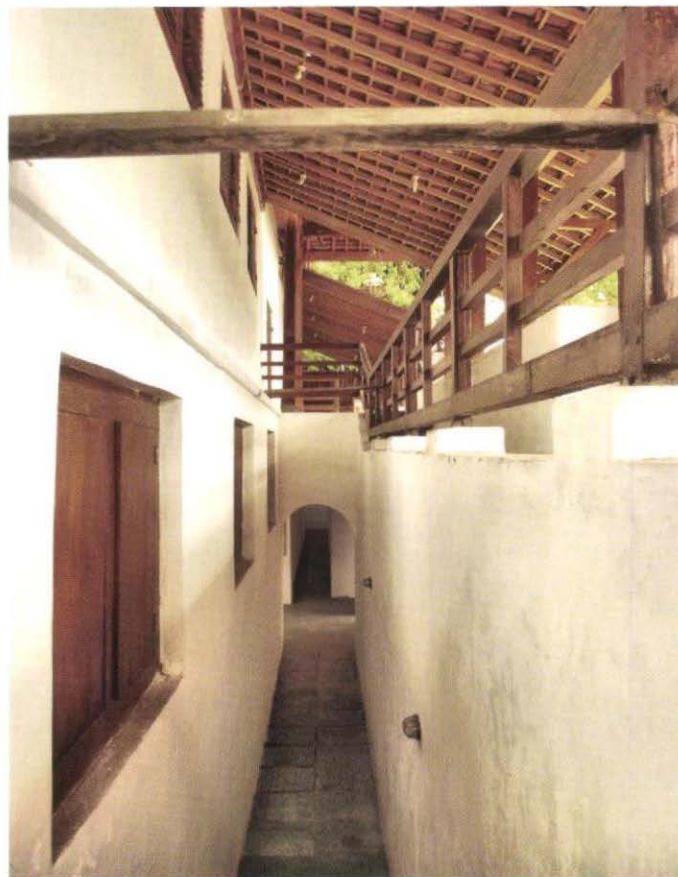
P. 115

Left: The east gate, during its conservation process.

An arch door is flanked by a pair of Tuscan pilasters and crowned by a tympanum

P. 116

Right: The alley covered by the gable roof shows the visual connection between ground floor and upper floor.



P 117

The inner courtyard, revitalized  
in 2011 after five centuries.



121

P 118

Two arch doors flank the alley  
entering the inner courtyard.

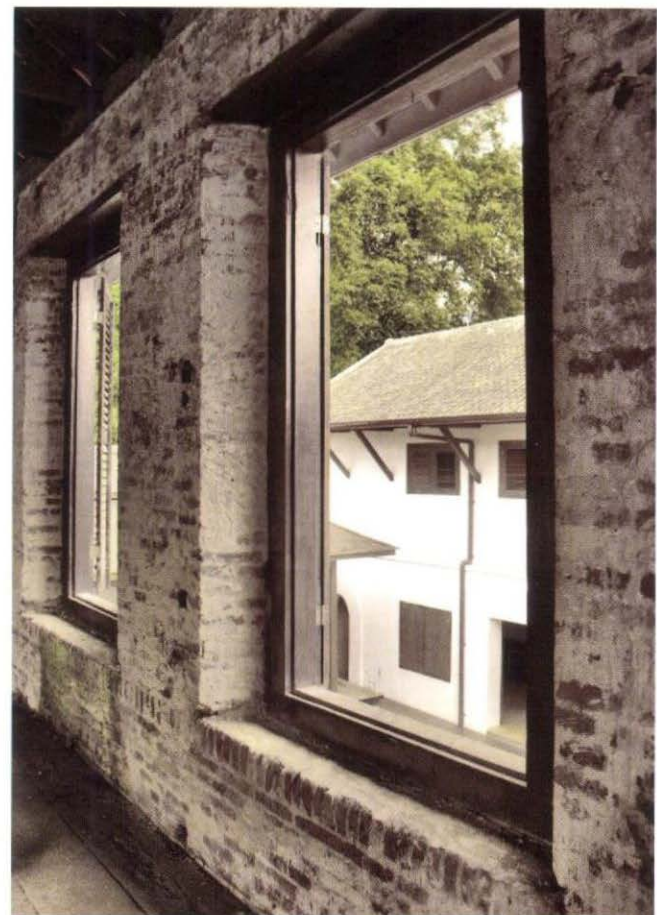




In 1840 a number of patients were sent from Semarang to Ungaran to convalesce. The results were promising. By 1846, only a small garrison was still officially posted in the fort, but a greater part of the fort was converted to take care of about 70 sick soldiers. In 1865, the fort was officially removed from the list of fortifications and from then on only served as a health and convalescence resort for sick soldiers from Semarang, Fort Willem I and Salatiga. It is not known whether the fort had been named after the Dutch King Willem II (1840-1849) but the fort remained utilized as a health resort until 1908.

P. 119

In its conservation process several parts are left incomplete, showing the layers of past and present.



P. 120

Two cannons placed at the embrasures, facing the city of Ungaran.

Fort Ungaran was converted to a prison, and its prisoners were released in September 1945. In October and November, the fort was utilized as the internment camp by the Republic of Indonesia to detain 105 Indo-European men and boys. They were moved out on November 23, 1945 to the camp in Fort Willem I in Ambarawa.

Fort Willem II was then utilized as a police office. At the beginning of the 21st century, a modern police office was built opposite the fort. The families of the policemen remained for some time in the old fort, but since 2008 the building has been empty.







# Fort Van der Wijck

Gombong, 1818

## School of Cadets

P. 121  
Standing solidly for 165 years,  
Fort Cochius – popularly known  
as Fort Van Der Wijck – is  
confidently looking towards its  
future.

*Gombong is a district town located about 17 km from the south coast in Central Java. Traveling on the South Coast road, either from Purwokerto via Kebumen to Yogyakarta or the other way round, one inevitably passes Gombong which is located along the road. Not many people realize, upon passing the small town, the important role it played during the Java War (1826-1830).*

125

About a kilometer from the town's center towards Sedayu in the north stands the solid octagonal fort in blazing red colors. Its present name is Fort Van der Wijck, but when it had just been built by the Dutch it was known as Fort Cochius.

### LOGISTICS STORAGE AND SCHOOL OF CADETS

Around 1840, following the completion of Fort Cochius in Gombong, Bagelen, there were plans to close Kedhung Ombo Reservoir. Governor General Rochussen, however, doubted the merits of the plan particularly as it was part of the preparatory activities to attack the Kingdom of Mataram at Yogyakarta, whose forces he undermined. Bleeker mentioned that in 1846 the fort was still under construction. It was named Fort Cochius in honor of Lieutenant General Frans David Cochius, a commander of the Dutch-Indies armed forces in 1835.



On the wall of the fort there is a plaque bearing the fort's establishment in 1818, but actually there is no mention of it in the archives.

Fort Van der Wijck or Fort Cochius was initially utilized as a military storage for the Dutch soldiers engaged in the Diponegoro War (1825- 1830). In 1856 Fort Cochius was turned into a Pupillen School (school for military cadets) for European youths born in the Dutch East Indies. One of several construction projects by Dutch army engineers, the daily number of laborers who toiled in the construction was 1,400, consisting of 1,200 from the Bagelen Residency and the rest from the Banyumas Residency. The laborers were guarded by *demangs* (local district heads) appointed by the respective residents. The laborers were each paid 15 cents per day, while each supervising *demang* received 1 guilder a day. The necessary building materials such as lime and wood were taken from around the Bagelen Residency, most of them from the Banyumas Residency. The brick was most probably produced from local clay in field kilns on location.

## LIEUTENANT GENERAL FRANS DAVID COCHIUS

F.D. Cochius was an expert in fortification. He designed the prototype of battlefield fortification strategy [Benteng Stelsel]. The fort was built in high terrain, a square building matching coconut tree height of about 7-8 feet. Cannons were installed in the one of diagonal corners of the fort, with two cannons in each corner.

F.D. Cochius was born on the 3rd of December 1787 in Valburg to parents Gerrit Jan Casparus Cochius and Anna Dibbets. Cochius served as a captain in the French military between the years 1811-1814 and in December 1814 was assigned as Captain in Netherlands Army. In May 1822, he was awarded "Ridder IIIe klasse of Officier in de Militaire Willems-Orde" (MWO), or 3<sup>rd</sup> Class Knight in the Order of William Military for his services as engineer based in headquarters during the Waterloo Campaign.



In September 1825 Lieutenant-Colonel F.D. Cochius attacked Jogjakarta. He was the Commander of Garrison of Soerakarta with 2 companies of infantry (Hulptropen from Soemenap and Legion of Mangkoenegaran), 1 platoon of cavalry (Huzar), and 12 Light Infantry (Dragonder).

In October 1825, he designed the prototype of temporary battlefield fortification in Kalidjengking. His designed would be adapted by Fortification Strategy in the following Java War of 1826 - 1830. The Battlefield Fortification means that the fort did not only have a passive role in the military defense, but also an active and important role as quarters for offensive operations, military command and control and logistic purposes. F.D. Cochius died in Huize Vredenoord near Rijswijk, Netherlands on 1<sup>st</sup> of May 1876.

P. 122

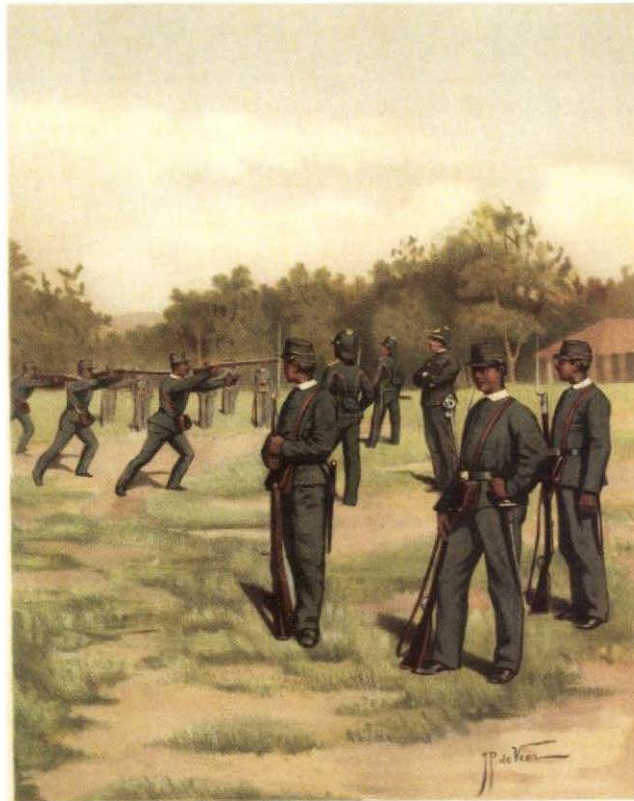
Lieutenant-General Frans David Cochius in 1850 (3rd of December 1787 - 1st of May 1876).

During the Japanese occupation (1942-1945), Fort Van der Wijck was utilized as the training grounds for PETA (Pembela Tanah Air - Defenders of the Fatherland) Army. The soldiers were housed in military barracks built in front of the fort while the fort proper was used to store foodstuffs and Japanese arms. The Japanese painted all Dutch writings within the fort black with the objective to erase Dutch influence.

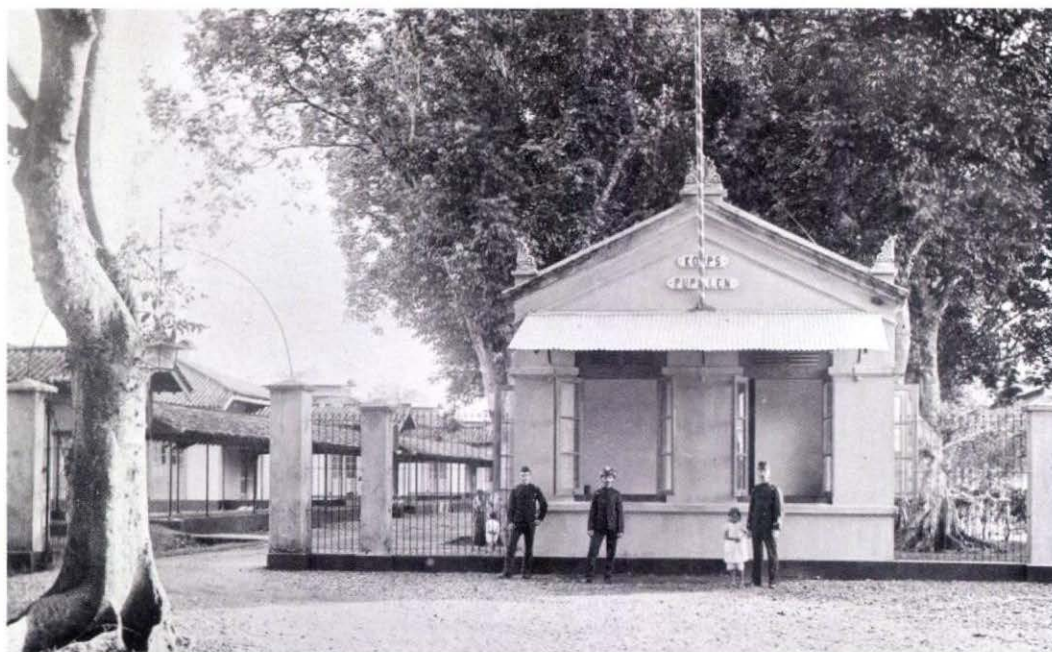
Before the Dutch returned to the town of Gombong in 1947-1949, the fort was used as the command quarters of Badan Keamanan Rakyat (BKR - the People's Security Forces) between 1946-1947. It was then utilized to accommodate the staff and soldiers of the Bandung Infantry Inspectorate and staff of the Bandung Railway Service. According to former BKR personnel, they only used the military barracks in front of the fort while the fort was left unoccupied. At the time of the First Dutch Aggression, Fort Van Der Wijck was utilized by the Dutch as their front defense post to face the forces of the Indonesian Republic who were posted east of the Kemit River.

P 123

The pupils were 9-16 year old children born to Dutch soldiers and Indonesian women. Some of them were orphans at risk of becoming decadent. However, the Pupillenschool was discontinued in 1912.







P. 124

School of Cadets (Pupillen  
School te Gombong) and Fort  
Van Der Wijck in the early 20th  
century.



P. 125

Left-below: The military cadet school of the past is hurtling into Taman Ria Benteng Van Der Wijck (children playground).

The formerly closed to the public fort is now an entertainment fair open to the public.

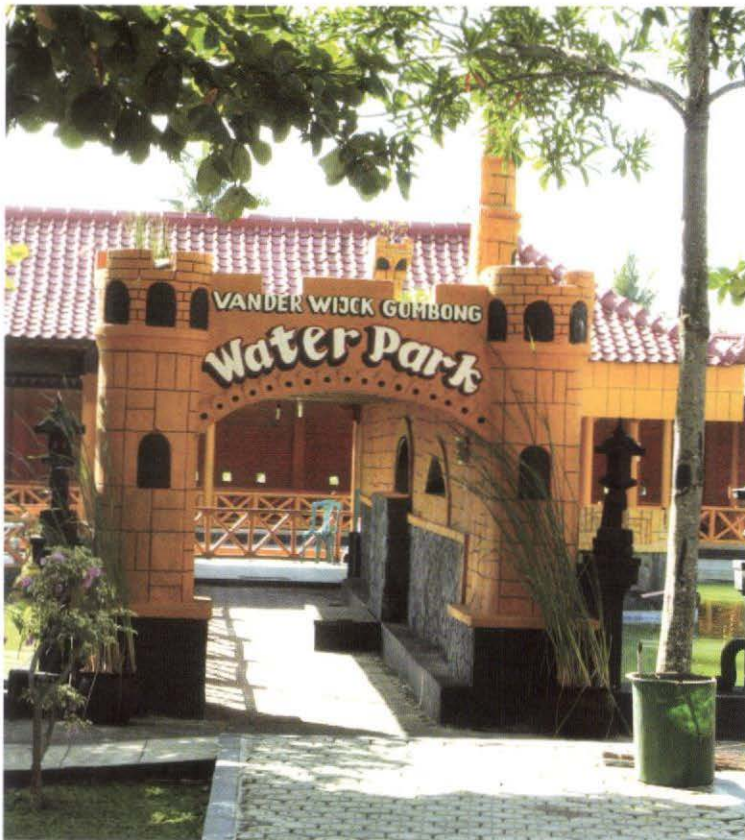
P. 126

Right-below: A corridor of interconnected rooms with rows of arched doors resembling a time passage.

Since 1984, the fort compound was used by the Indonesian Army stationed at Secata A – Sekolah Calon Tamtama (school of cadets) and on December 28, 2000 it was turned into an entertainment park known as Taman Ria Benteng Van Der Wijck with a children's playground.

### AN OCTAGONAL FORT

It is a unique octagonal fort, comprised of two floors with four entrance doors and a main entrance door in the south. There are 16 rooms in the first floor, each interconnected by rows of arched doors forming a corridor. The second floor comprises 16 rooms, each with its own roof. Viewed from above, the roof resembles the segment of a saddleback roof.





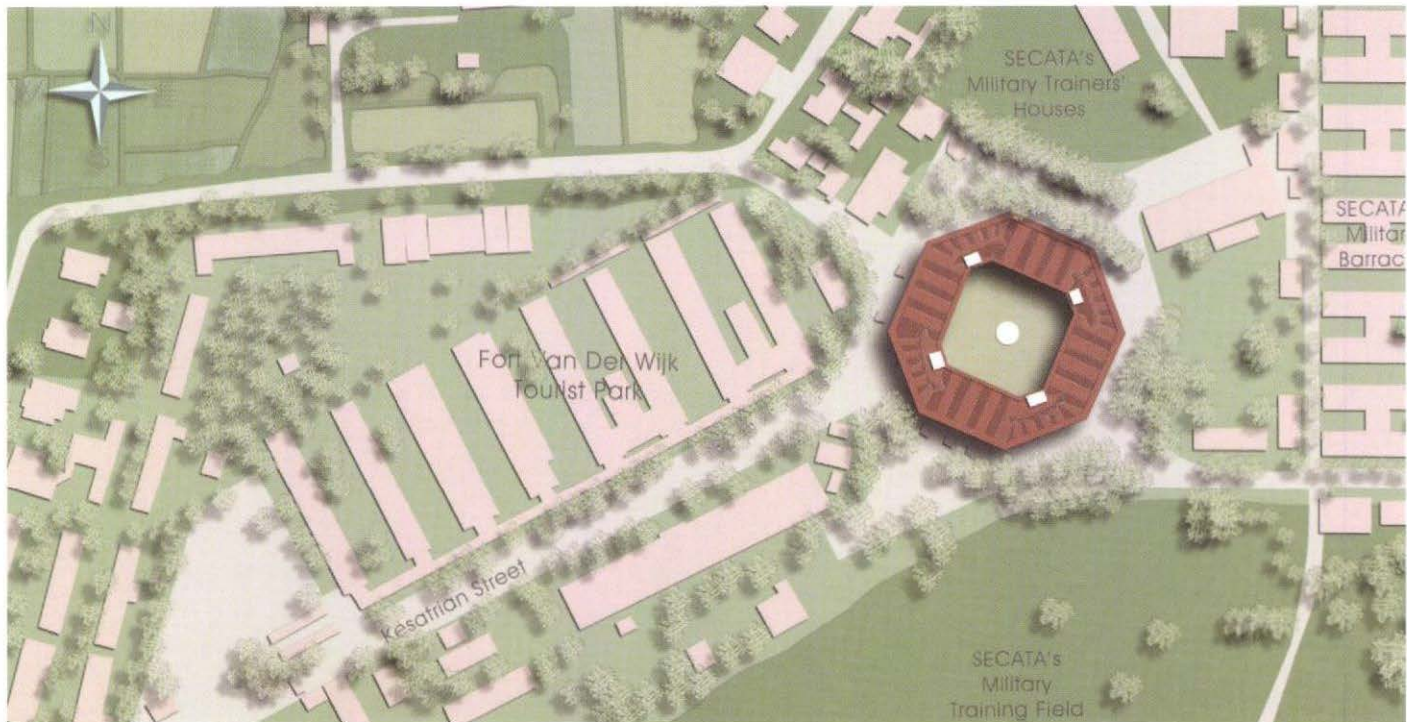
The rooms are also interconnected by a corridor. Each room has doors and windows facing outside. The rooms in the fort have arched ceilings (vaults) which have also a structural function. There are 4 stairs forming a circular space in each corner of the fort.

P 127

Octagonal fort with rows of concentrated rooms, facing the inner courtyard.

The fort's main entrance gate faces southwest, being an arched structure with a rim of brickwork, depicting typical Neo Classical architecture. The whole fort's walls and roof are made of brickwork, as bricks were one of the main building materials produced in Gombong, even at present.

Along the road towards the fort there are rows of buildings that in the past were utilized as military barracks. They are just simple elongated buildings with saddleback roofs and rows of rooms. At present, some military barracks have been turned into guest houses and a meeting hall used by the military as well as by the public. The former military barracks have the shape of typical colonial buildings, with gables at each end and finials in each connecting part.



P. 128

Remnants of military barracks,  
a row of dilapidated window  
blinds (krepyak), struggling to  
voice their existence among a  
fading surrounding.



P. 129

A row of empty rooms, awaiting  
a more definite future utilization.









## Fort Willem 1

Ambarawa, 1883

# Against Foreign Adversaries

P 130

Remnants of related buildings  
which were formerly utilized as  
officers' dwellings.

*Soon after his arrival in the Indies, Governor General Johannes van den Bosch (1830-1833) obtained alarming news from Europe. A revolution broke out in Paris in June 1830, producing ostensible aftermaths in other European countries. In 1825 The Netherlands and Belgium had been unified by the allied powers into one kingdom, creating a strong buffer-state against future French aggression.*

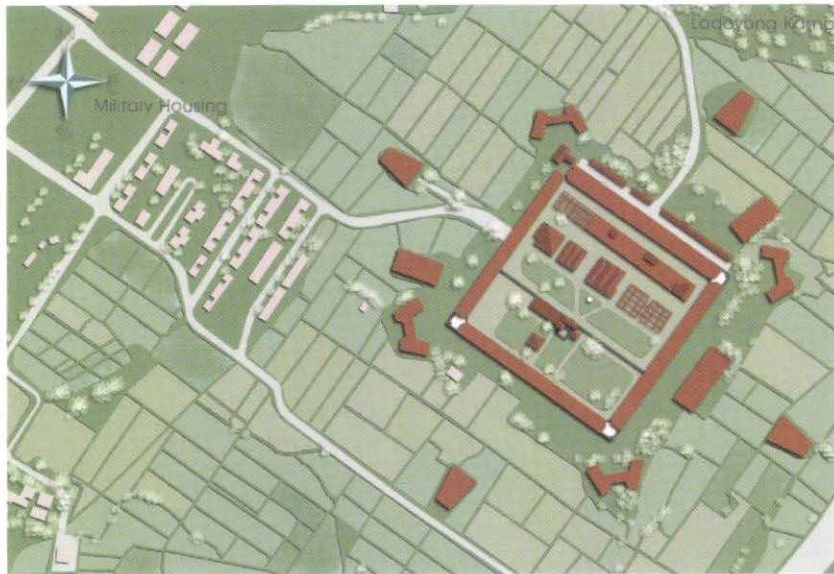
133

Relations between Catholic industrial Belgium and Protestant merchants and farmers in the Netherlands had long been strained; eventually, the less-than-cordial relations had now deteriorated into a separatist war. The Dutch dispatched an army to the south that was forced to withdraw by the arrival of French troops, while Great Britain also acknowledged Belgium's independence. Although belligerent actions between the two nations had ceased, the state of war was maintained due to Willem I's obstinacy. The Netherlands only recognized Belgium's independence in 1839.

Van den Bosch feared that England would exploit the events occurring in Europe as an excuse to launch another invasion of 1811. In hindsight, the apprehension was completely baseless; nevertheless, the governor general and the commander of the Royal Engineers, Colonel Van



der Wijck, initiated the construction of new fortifications in anticipation of foreign adversaries. The king approved the expenditures afterwards and provided the necessary funds for the construction of the planned fortifications.



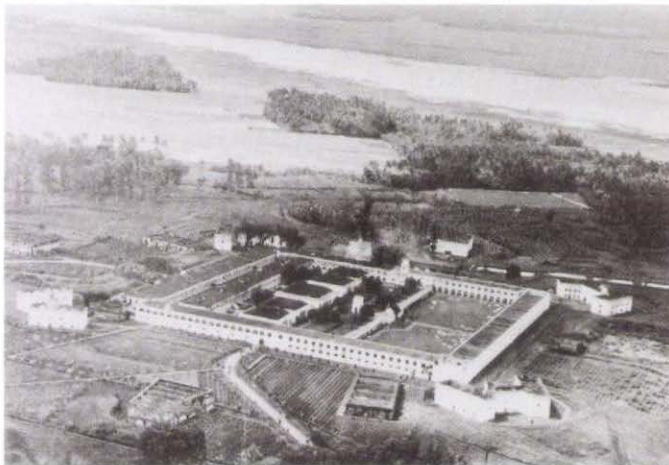
Van den Bosch's reasoning was that an enemy could easily land at any point in the flat north coast of Java. Therefore, forts in Batavia, Semarang and the marine port of Surabaya were assigned to keep the invading enemy army as long as possible in the hazardous coast, where malaria and other tropical diseases would weaken the enemy. The army and the government would in the meantime withdraw into the hinterland to a prepared position behind the Tuntang River, with the large Fort Willem I as the center in the Ambarawa valley and a military position in Banyu Biru. The forts in the east (Ngawi) and west (Gombong) were to prevent the enemy from making a turning movement and attacking from behind the defense line. The only port in the south coast, Cilacap, was reinforced. The enemy would have to choose between remaining in the hazardous coastal area or attack the forts one by one, from whence the Dutch Indies army could conduct the necessary counter attacks.

P. 131

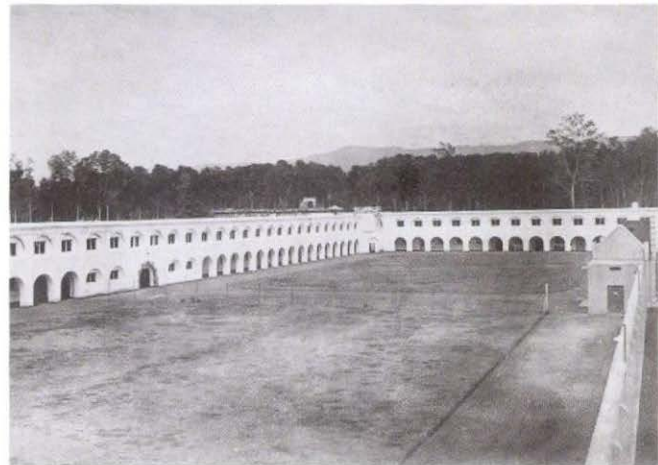
Left-above: The square plan view of Fort Willem I. The hornworks stand at the four corners, and ravelins are at the four diagonal sides.

P. 132

Right-above: The map of Ambarawa and the location of Fort Willem I (1909)



P 133  
 Left: Aerial photo of Fort Willem I (1930). The hornworks in each corner act as a separate building.



P 134  
 Right: The inner courtyard of the fort while it functioned as a prison.

The construction of Fort Willem I started in 1833 with the establishment of a complete village with dwellings, military camps and workshops for the 4,500 people involved in building the fort. Among them were military personnel (engineers and guards), technicians and convicts. The biggest group was 3,000 Javanese coolies who had to do unpaid work for the government for several months.

Building the enormous fort required elaborate logistics. Certain building materials such as bricks and roof tiles were made in situ, but lime and wood had to be transported by carriage along great distances. There was a great shortage of experienced builders, but since the construction took quite a long time, it was possible to train people on the building site. Except for occasional delays caused by fires and impediments in the delivery of building materials, there were no major setbacks during the construction. In 1844 the first batch of military personnel (infantry, cavalry and artillery) were able to inhabit their barracks but it required another six years before all the activities could be accomplished.



In the design, insufficient considerations were made pertaining to the tropical climate. The upper floors in the barracks were too low, causing insufficient natural air circulation and high temperatures. Worse conditions were in the hospital, which was moved a few years later the camp outside the fort.

After 1850, the field army's role became more important in the defense of Java at the cost of the forts. Part of Willem I was converted into a military prison. Earthquakes in 1865 and 1872 damaged the fort. There were no fatalities but the army commander decided to empty the dwelling spaces in the upper floors; the barracks and rooms on the ground floor were still in use. The soldiers moved to the camp outside the fort.

Ambarawa Valley is surrounded by mountains. In 1830 a cannon shot from the hills could not reach the fort. In the second half of the nineteenth century, this became possible because of improvements in the cannons and ammunitions. Hence, at the end of the century the fort was no longer included as a fortification structure. The ditches were filled and the walls were leveled. The camp remained in use.



P-136

An Indies-style building (Indische Woonhuis) with the typical spacious veranda in front, covered by rows of classical columns. This building was formerly an officer's dwelling.



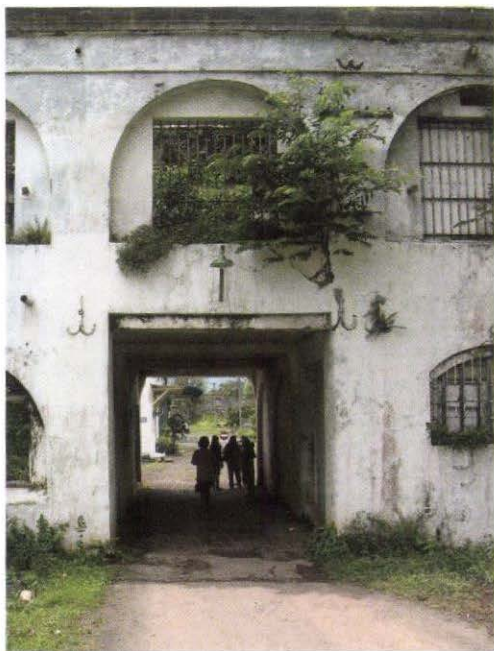
137

After 1850, the field army's role became more important in the defense of Java at the cost of the forts. Part of Willem I was fitted up as a military prison. Earthquakes in 1865 and 1872 damaged the fort. There were no fatalities but the army commander decided to empty the dwelling spaces in the upper floors; the barracks and rooms on the ground floor were still in use. The soldiers moved to the camp outside the fort.

Ambarawa valley is surrounded by mountains. In 1830 a cannon cannot shoot from the hill to reach the fort. In the second half of the nineteenth century, it became possible to shoot the fort because of improvements in the cannons and ammunitions. Hence, at the end of the century the fort was no more included as a fortification structure. The ditches were filled up and the walls were leveled. The camp remained in use.

Fort Ambarawa became notorious because of events in 1942-1945. The Japanese used the fort as a place to detain political suspects and convicts from all groups of inhabitants. An unimaginable strict and cruel regime ruled, causing the death of 150 from the 1,000 detainees. The camps



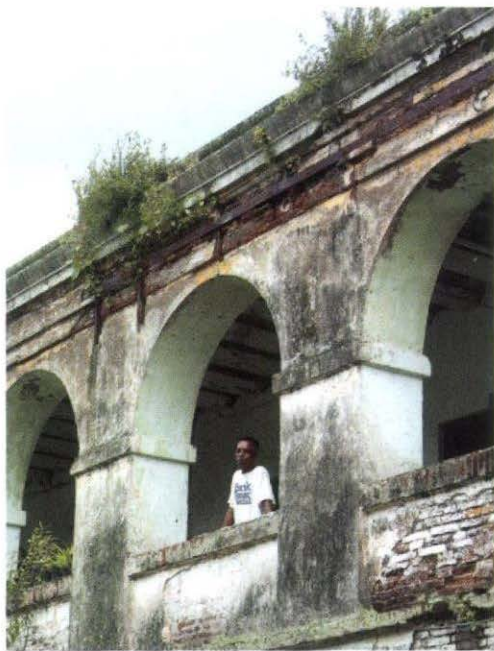


P. 137

Left: The gate as a passage for inhabitants, connecting the inner and outer neighborhoods.

P. 138

Right: A scene of everyday life within the fort.



P. 139

Left: Outer part of second floor veranda in the military dormitories, showing the arch that protects the veranda against the sun and rain.

P. 140

Right: Upper floor veranda in the building utilized as a military dormitory

of Ambarawa and Banyu Biru were since December 1942 used as prisons for European women and children, and since September 1943, boys, sick and old men joined them. The release of camp inhabitants by British military resulted in heavy fighting. In October 1945 about 500 European men were detained in Fort Willem I by the Indonesian youth army. The British managed to have the prisoners released and transported after deliberations but the fort remained in the hands of the Indonesian army. The next internment resulted in heavy fights. On November 23, the British conquered the fort which was then utilized as the transit center for detainees released from the camps. Heavy fighting and artillery shootings, however, impeded their transfer. On December 14, 1945 the last detainees, under protection of British- Indies soldiers left Ambarawa and proceeded to Semarang

Architecturally, Fort Willem I is a square structure. Its walls comprises rows of rooms with arched ceilings interconnected by a veranda. The buildings inside the fort are divided into two groups, with the main group consisting of a prison and offices, while the second group comprises four watch houses, an ammunition storage and a garage for tanks. In each of the prison's corners is a watch house; both the watch posts as well as the prison are two-storey buildings. The ammunition storage and tank house are each located in both directions of the prison's axis line. All buildings in the fort's compound are made of bricks.

The related structures of Fort Willem I are square with pyramidal roofs. Some buildings are rectangular with hipped roofs and flat roofs. The windows and doors have arched linings on their outer sides and square linings on their inside. The related structures were formerly utilized as dwellings for officers, barracks for soldiers and kitchens.

Currently, part of the fort is utilized as a (military) prison. The other part is occupied. The empty buildings have been converted into breeding places for swallows and a collection of edible bird nests. The spacious fort offers great potential for re-utilization.







## Fort Klingker

Cilacap, 19<sup>th</sup> Century

# The Most Exquisite Ruins of Indonesia

P. 141  
Supporting column in the  
center of the fort with  
chambers winding around it.

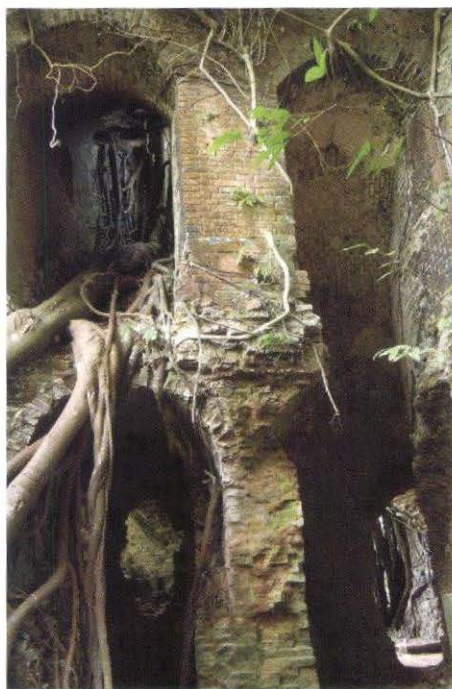
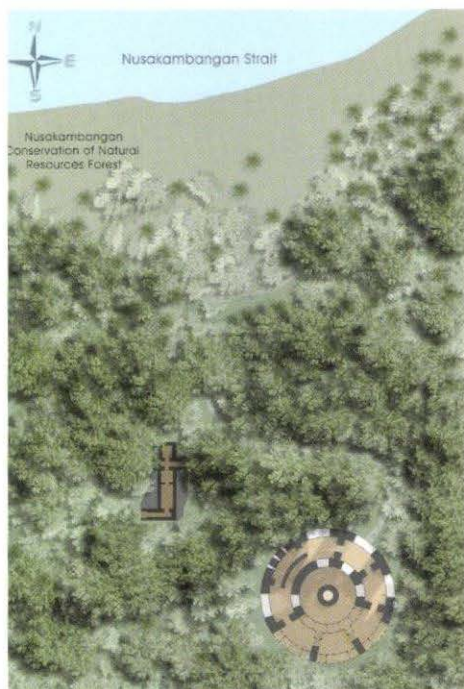
*In spite of its interesting shape and relatively easy access, Fort Klingker in the Cilacap Regency is not very well-known. From the bus terminal in Cilacap, one travels by city transportation for about 15 minutes to Turtle Bay Beach, then continues for about 10 minutes by boat to Karang Tengah Beach, and finally on foot for about 10 minutes through a rather steep path to the fort. .*

141

There is an enormous difference between the north and south coasts of Java. The north coast is flat and miry, where ships can easily anchor at some distance from the coast, with many small ports and several big ones. The south coast, on the other hand, is dangerous and rocky, with big waves splashing from the Indian Ocean. Ships avoid this coast and there are no safe ports, with the exception of the deep river mouth between Cilacap and Nusa Kambangan Island.

The annals of history pertaining to forts in this area began with an attack by sea pirates from the Riau islands upon hamlets on Nusa Kambangan. Hence, in 1814 the British built a small fort on the southern tip of the island, meant to protect the inhabitants from further pirate plundering. The Dutch took over the fort from the English in 1816 with plans to expand it in 1822, but were ultimately never executed.





P. 142

Left: The circular plan view of Fort Klingker shows its convergent chambers.

P. 143

Right: Becomes empty, the fort was occupied by wild plants. The thick brick wall fight against the roots entanglement.

In 1830 Governor General van den Bosch (1830-1833) presented his plan for the defense of Java against European enemies (see text of Fort Willem I). The army and the colonial government would, after the enemy's invasion, withdraw into the hinterland of Java, where they would be cut off from the ports at the north coast. The only available communication with the outside world would be through the port of Cilacap. No blockade along the south coast was possible because of the strong currents, but an enemy warship could sail unimpeded into the river mouth. To prevent this from happening, coastal batteries had to be built and the best location was on Nusa Kambangan Island. The director of the Royal Engineers, Colonel Van der Wijck, designed the forts and in 1833 funds were made available for the construction work.

The most important fort was Karang Bolong located at the southern tip of Nusa Kambangan, where the heavy cannons protected both the sea as well as the entrance of the channel. At this point the coast was so dangerous that it was impossible for enemies to sail to the fort with its extraordinary shape; it had a right-angled tower which was partially excavated from the rocks by the convicts. The spatial division of the tower was identical to a Tour Modele, the standard coastal fortification towers in France at the time of Napoleon, which were built to protect against the attacks by the British fleet. This was the only tower of its kind in Indonesia.

An enemy ship that could pass through the Karang Bolong barricade, in spite of the cannons, would have to sail through the narrow channel to reach the port. Hence, on the east coast of Nusa Kambangan the round tower of Fort Klingker was built on an extension of the channel. This type of fort was first built in 1794 when two British war ships bombarded a tower fort at Mortella in Corsica. Despite the heavy bombardment, the tower remained undamaged and was only taken over after an attack from land. This experience led the British to build dozen of similar towers, called the Martello tower, as protection against French invasions.

Martello towers were also built in other countries. In the Dutch Indies, besides in Nusa Kambangan, they were built on Bidadari and Cipir islands in the Bay of Jakarta. In order to complement the defense, a small fort was built on the opposite side at Cilacap. The three forts were ready in 1850.

Following the War of Java (the Diponegoro War) in 1825-1830, Banyumas came under the rule of Batavia. Because of the introduction of the 'cultivation system', the area became an important sugar manufacturer. The commodities were transported by indigenous small boats (*perahu*) to Cilacap for further shipment. The increasing military and economic importance of the port let to the building of a big modern fort on Cilacap

P. 144  
Roots of vegetation piercing  
through the fort structure





soil in 1850. Benteng Pendem (1861-1879), equipped with 24 cm cannons, became the most protected fort in the Dutch Indies that was built in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. The floor plan and construction method were identical to forts built in the same period in Holland. However, due to many lives lost in the garrison due to an outbreak of malaria, after the opening of the railway line in 1888 the soldiers were transported to healthier places in the hinterland while a small garrison controlled the fort. In 1882 the forts in Nusa Kambangan and Cilacap were scratched off the list of fortifications. The forts in Nusa Kambangan, which had been developed into a penitentiary island for detainees and natural reserve, fell into decay.

At the outbreak of World War II, Cilacap, which was the only port on Java's south coast, became indispensable for communication with Australia.

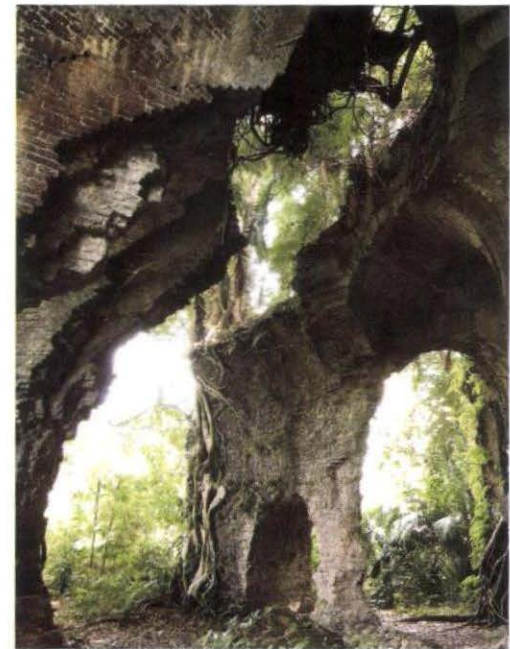
Benteng Pendem was again utilized and bunkers were built inside and outside the fort. In 1942, the port was so heavily bombarded by Japanese planes that the inhabitants had to be evacuated. The Japanese rebuilt the coastal defense in Karang Bolong. In 1946, soldiers of the Indonesian Army (TNI) fired those cannons against a Dutch warship. The coastal batteries were taken over by Dutch marines, after being heavily bombarded from the sea and from the air.

P. 145

Left: The fort's figure in decay, covered with overgrown shrubs and large plants

P. 146

Right: The vault and chamber walls have collapsed over the years, revealing the layers of bricks structure.



Currently, a visit to Cilacap and Nusa Kambangan provides a unique opportunity to observe the comprehensive development of fortification construction in the period of 1830 – 1945. Benteng Pendem has been excellently restored and open to the public. The ruins of the three forts in Nusa Kambangan can also be visited. Fort Klingker is definitely one of the most exquisite and picturesque ruins one can imagine. However, the question is how long this will last. Decay is inevitable, and if no steps are taken, the tower will crumble in a few years' time.

Fort Klingker is classified as a Martello fort. It is a round structure with a diameter of about 21.5 m, has an outside wall about 2.5 m thick and an inner wall about 1.5 m thick. The main building material is red brick mixed with limestone cement; the dominating features are the arched windows and doors.

In the center of the fort is a supporting beam in the form of tube with a 3.5 m diameter. The space inside the fort is divided into two rooms.

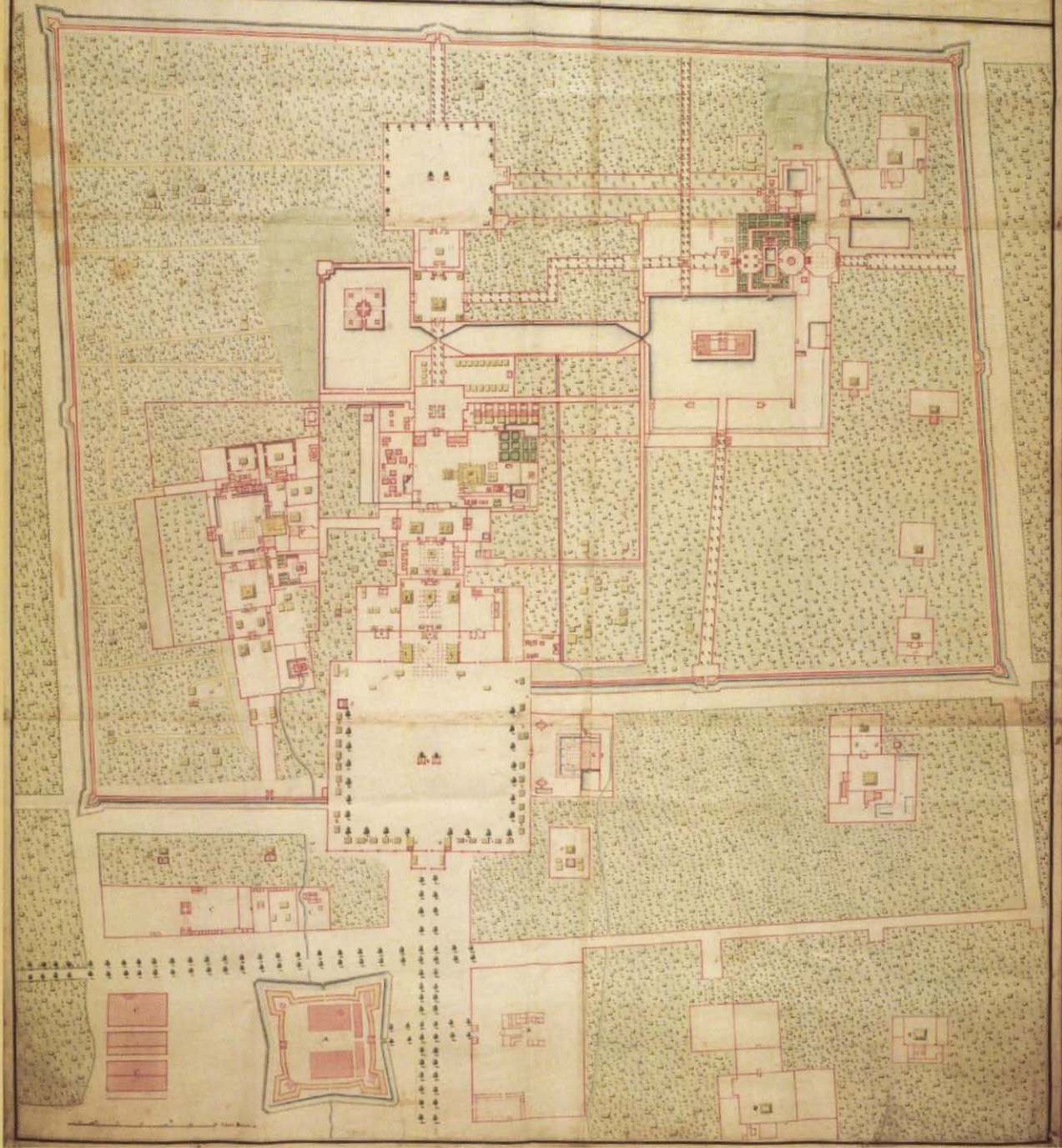
The inner room is immediately adjacent to the supporting beam. Following the inner room is another room right on the outer side of the inner room; it has 6 doors that connect the rooms. At present there are only 4 doors left; the doors are about 2.5 m high and 1.2 m wide; the roof is arched.

The fort has two floors with two staircases standing side by side in the west. At present the staircase that connects the first and second floors has collapsed; the staircase leads only to the room in the west side on the second floor where only the west side has a room. The north-facing fort has an arched door; there are two windows in the west wall and small windows above the floor. The room inside the fort is about 7 meters high and the fort is about 8.9 meters high.

The adjacent *benteng pendem* (buried fort) has 3 doors: one on the south part of the east side, one on the north part of the east side with 8 stairs, and one door on the north part of the west side. This building is rectangular and divided into several rooms with the main room being 3 m wide and 7 m long. In the north side of the main room are 2 rooms that are connected by an arched door of 1.5 m wide and 2.3 m high



Plan de la Citadelle de Namur, par le Sieur de la Motte, Architecte de la Cour, et par le Sieur de la Riviere, Ingenieur de la Place, le 17. Mars 1705.





# The Relation Between the Changing System of Fortification and Staging of Dutch Colonization

With special attention to the period of 1602 and 1850

P. 147

Map of the Keraton Yogyakarta circa the 18<sup>th</sup> century, showing the position of the keraton and Fort Vredenburg. It shows the town and palace forts consisted of cepuri and baluwarti.

*In the pre-colonial Majapahit, the Javanese capital cities were not surrounded by walls. Even the capital of Majapahit did not have a city wall. The center of the Majapahit Kingdom consisted of a number of leading aristocrat manors, each surrounded by brick-wall constructions called kota. The pre-colonial cities in the island's mainland functioned as the center of the agrarian hinterland, not only in economic terms. From a cultural point of view, these cities were not contradictory entities to the hinterland, so they did not need walls to separate them from the rest of the kingdom. Generally, town and palace forts at the time consisted of cepuri (inner wall), and baluwarti (outer wall). Forts in the center of Javanese kingdoms, be they baluwarti or cepuri, were built to protect only the palace and its immediate surroundings, not the whole town. This is evident in the towns of Plered and Kartasura, where the Great Mosque and market were located outside the baluwarti town wall.*

## INTRODUCTION

When Dutch colonials took control of the Javanese trading cities in the middle of the 17<sup>th</sup> century the center of power completely shifted from the south side of the city to the north (for example, see the map of Semarang). This change was also a manifestation of the shifting role of the city from the center of the



hinterland to become "bridgeheads" of the Dutch colonial regime which connected the colony economically and militarily with the motherland. In the later stage of the early colonial period, the Dutch VOC placed different settlements of foreigners and local communities as a kind of security ring in the surrounding areas outside the city wall.

## **THE FORT SYSTEM IN THE ERA OF TRADING COLONIALISM**

In the early colonial period, the coastal Javanese cities were transformed into "bridgeheads" that connected the colonies with the motherland. In this period, the defense system of the Dutch VOC mainly secured its monopoly position in spice trading. On one hand, the focus of the military agenda was to secure trading routes and to protect the Dutch trading ships, while on the other hand, its goal was to destroy other competitors, mainly from England, France, Spain and Portugal. The Dutch normally established forts in the north side of the existing cities facing the open sea. There was no need for the VOC to control the whole city. Furthermore, part of the defense system's role was to protect the production area of spices from other competitors. In executing this agenda, the VOC had the full support of the Royal Dutch Navy.

In 1619, the VOC moved its headquarters from Ternate to Batavia because the latter had a better geo-maritime position to execute the monopoly agenda. The older forts in the eastern island were mostly relocated to more militarily strategic locations or were built next to spice production areas in the islands of Ambon, Ternate, Ceram, Banda, Neira, Haruku, Saparua, Buru, Kisar and more. In this area, between 1599 and 1684 the Dutch developed a defense system of forts consisting of more than 30 locations.

By 1602 the Dutch had been driven away by the Portuguese from Banten, and from the Moluccas Islands in 1605. In 1606, the Dutch claimed the Moluccas as a closed area for other trading nations. The islands of Ternate and Ambon became the most important bases for the Dutch to establish their colonial agenda. Right after taking over military control of the island from the Portuguese, the Dutch established several forts in Ternate: Oranje (1607), Nassau and Willemstad (1609), and Hollandia (1610). Fort Oranje was built on the location of an old local ruler's fort and became the headquarters of the VOC's highest authority before J.P. Coen moved it to Batavia in 1619. Fort Hollandia was actually refurbished from an old Portuguese fort built in 1540.

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The picture shows native guards on the gate of Fort Oranye during the colonial period. The fort was rebuilt in 1607 and named after the Dutch royal family, the House of Oranje.

Fort Oranye is located at the city centre of Ternate on the island of Ternate, Moluccas. It was built when they set about establishing a monopoly on the sultanate's cloves. Until 1619, the fort was the headquarters of the VOC before it moved to Batavia, and was then used as the residence of the Dutch governors in Ternate. Today, the fort is in disrepair, although the walls are in good shape despite numerous earthquakes over the years. Parts are used by the military and police. Public access is allowed.



P. 149

An illustration of the sea battle between the Portuguese and the Dutch VOC. In Banten Bay, 1601. The VOC won the battle only because of the Royal Dutch Navy.







P. 150

Left: The Moluccas Islands from right to left: Ternate, Tidore, Mare, Moti, Makian and Batjan.

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Right: The island of Tidore. Except the Dutch fort Marieco and the Tidore king's fort Gomafo, all other forts were Spanish. Particularly under Sultan Hamzah (reign 1627–1648), Ternate expanded its territory and strengthened its control over the periphery. Dutch influence over the kingdom was limited, though Hamzah and his son and successor, Sultan Mandar Syah (reign 1648–1675) conceded some regions to the Dutch East India Company (VOC) in exchange for help controlling rebellions there. The Spaniards abandoned Ternate and Tidore in 1663.

The rivalry between the Dutch and English continued for almost three and a quarter centuries and culminated in several open wars. The Spanish were defeated 1663 and moved to the Philippines. The English were finally defeated around 1684, leading to the deaths of many English people on Ambon Island. After that, the English changed their strategy and concentrated their territorial claims in the eastern coast of Sumatra. Since the middle of 17th century the Dutch were without doubt the most powerful sea power in South East Asia. In fact, in the same period the Dutch navy was also the most powerful navy in the world.

The early Dutch forts in Javanese cities were mainly constructed as parts of an integrated defense system to support the Dutch trading monopoly system, while the cities were mostly still controlled by local rulers. Examples of these were the opening of trading posts (*handelsloge*) in Ternate (1605), Surabaya (1617), Banten (1682), Cirebon and other coastal cities.

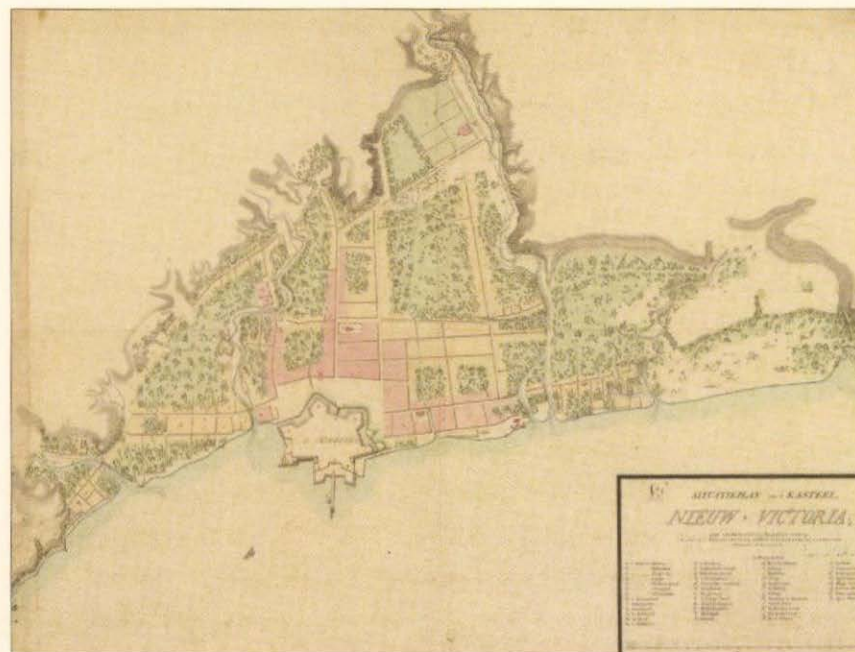
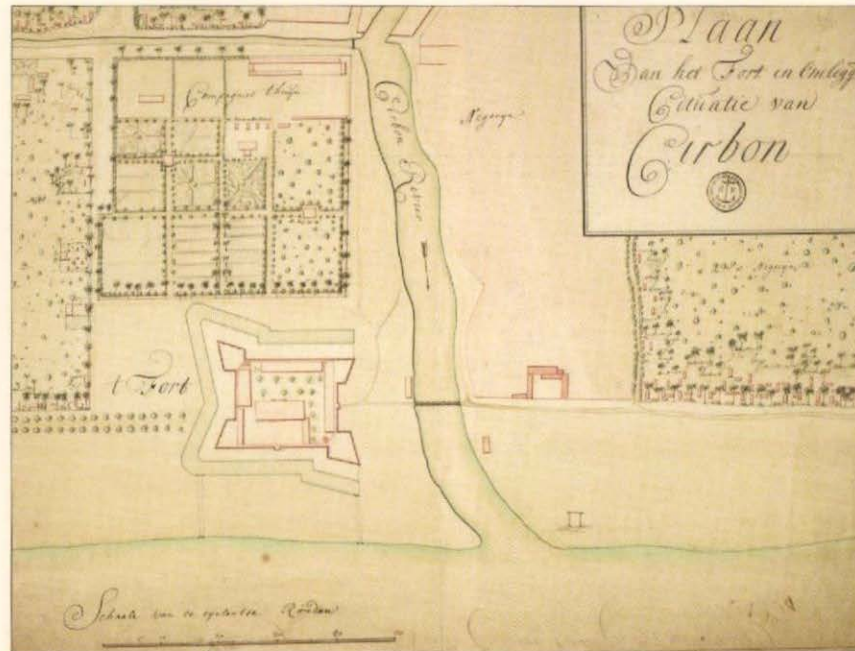
Batavia was an exception because the Dutch, with 17 war ships under J.P. Coen in May 1619, had destroyed the existing pre-colonial city of Jayakarta before starting to construct not only a fort with its trading port but a whole new city. In normal cases, the Dutch concentrated more on their trading interests and paid little interest in the internal situation of the cities.

P. 152

Above: Map of Cirebon  
Below: Map of Fort Victoria,  
Ambon.

These illustrated maps of Dutch forts in Cirebon and Fort Victoria in Ambon clearly show that, in the early colonial period, the VOC preferred its forts located near waterways or the open sea rather than close to the city.

One of the negative impacts was that Dutch settlements were built in unsuitable areas surrounding the forts.





In Ternate, the Dutch were only interested in destroying their Spanish competitors in Tidore. As Sultan Agung was attacking Surabaya during 1624-1625, the VOC took a distant neutral position. This differed from the situation in Jayakarta, the Dutch military never attacked the local ruler and did not control the city of Surabaya until 1677 as the Mataram Kingdom handed over control of all important Javanese coastal cities to the Dutch as compensation for overcoming the rebellion of Trunojoyo. A similar situation was the Dutch fort in Tegal, which was built in 1708, although the city of Tegal remained under Mataram's control until 1743. In most coastal cities, the Dutch took control over the whole city after they became the official protectors of the Mataram Kingdom. In some other cities like Semarang (1687), Indramayu (1681) and Jepara the royal port of Mataram (1677), the forts were built years after the Dutch officially became the protectors of the Javanese rulers.

Although the Dutch built so many forts in the early colonial period, the fortifications themselves were not the real core of their military power. The superiority of Dutch colonialists in the 17th century was actually based on their military superiority in the open sea. The Dutch military system was so strong not because the forts were special, but because they were connected to each other.

During the second siege of Batavia in 1629, the 80.000 soldiers of Sultan Agung fired on the town with cannons and tried to divert the flow of the river and poison its water. The same method was used while attacking Surabaya in 1626. The final decision was not made in Batavia, as the Dutch warships organized water from elsewhere and attacking the food storage from Sultan Agung in Cirebon and Tegal, burning down all the rice granaries, thereby creating hunger among Mataram's soldiers.

Similar evidence occurred during the battle against the Portuguese in Banten 1602, and during the six-month siege of Malacca by the Bugis under Raja Haji in 1784. The siege ended with the arrival of war ships sent by the Dutch Kingdom to support the VOC. The arriving Dutch fleet drove away the Bugis, and after the death of Raja Haji, the Bugis withdrew from Malacca.

It is important to underline that, although the Dutch already acted as a protectorate power in Ternate during the early years of their presence in Moluccas, it did not have any interest in developing the city's economy. In this particular period of colonialism, the Dutch concentrated their efforts in strengthening its monopoly position in spice trading by excluding the Portuguese, Spanish and English. This is the reason why their presence in the cities had only small impacts on overall city development. Until the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the character of the Dutch colonialist as a trading power generally remained the same.

## Map of Semarang

The presence of the Dutch colonials brought a radical change in the spatial structure of the existing city. The pre-colonial indigenous city, with its center in the southern part of the city, was substituted by a new structure with the Dutch fort and settlement in the north as the new center. In the early phase of colonialism, the VOC focused to establish the monopoly of spice trading. This was only possible with the support of Dutch naval power. The Dutch superiority against the Portuguese, Spanish and British in the 17<sup>th</sup> century was not based on the special quality of its forts but on the fact that these several dozen forts were connected with each other by the strongest navy of the world at that time. Due to the importance of this connecting system, the Dutch forts were always located direct on the waterways. Sometimes the Dutch constructed artificial canals to guarantee a smooth connection to the open sea.

As mentioned before, the colonization of Batavia was an exception. The foundation of Batavia was mainly motivated because the location was geopolitically more strategic than Ternate for achieving the monopoly position in spice trading. Because of this, Batavia was not only chosen as the location of the VOC head office but also the headquarters of the Dutch Navy. From this city, the VOC organized its winning war expeditions, i.e. against the Portuguese in Malacca (1641), against Makassar under Hasanudin (1660), and against the British and Malay in Jambi (1687).

In the beginning of 17<sup>th</sup> century, Batavia's interest in the hinterland was only in relation to its logistic function, particularly in supplying food not only for the inhabitants of the city, but also for the whole crew of Dutch trading ships, navy and army forces stationed all over the archipelago. Underlining the importance of this issue was the fact that in 1646, one year after the death of Sultan Agung, the Dutch under Governor General Van der Lijn and Amangkurat I made an agreement on territorial issues and rice trading. Between 1648 and 1654, the VOC sent R. van Goens five times to visit Amangkurat I in order to secure the supply of rice from Mataram (Ottow, W.M., 1954). The agreement allowed the VOC to open trading posts in Cirebon, Semarang, Tegal and Indramayu with the specific purpose of securing the rice supply from Mataram.





The VOC's monopoly trade policy created at least two negative impacts for the economy of the region. The first was the impact of the low price of the spices, which were dictated by the Dutch. Because spice farmers could not make more profit from selling their products, they lost interest in producing it further. Many of them switched their spice farms to food production. The trend to grow rice and other foodstuff was supported through a high price of rice because the Dutch VOC also monopolized rice exports from Mataram.

The second was the permanent insecurity resulting from wars between the trading competitors, which also involved many local rulers. For example, the inhabitants and their local leader were shocked by the cruelty of the wars between Ternate and Tidore which was supported by the Spanish. A number of local indigenous leaders in other parts of Southeast Asia tried to restore peace by forbidding their people to grow the highly-coveted spice plants. Among them, the Sultan of Aceh instructed the destruction of pepper gardens around his palace because his people were spoiled by the high selling price of pepper and neglected to grow foodstuffs, which created an overall food shortage.

### **THE ERA OF PROTECTORATE 1680s – END OF 18<sup>th</sup> CENTURY**

The rebellion of Trunojoyo in the year 1674 marked the beginning for the VOC to conduct more intensive interventions in the political and military situation of the Mataram Kingdom in Java. Whether it was intentionally planned or not, from this time on the character of the Dutch VOC as a maritime-backed trading colonialist had begun to change gradually to a territorial land power. After successfully establishing its monopoly in spice trading, the Dutch started to acquire strategic positions within the trade routes from the agrarian hinterland to the main Javanese coastal cities of Batavia, Semarang and Surabaya. This policy was successful, especially in the peaceful period after 1682 as the VOC became the strongest military land power in Java and the protectors of the Javanese ruler.

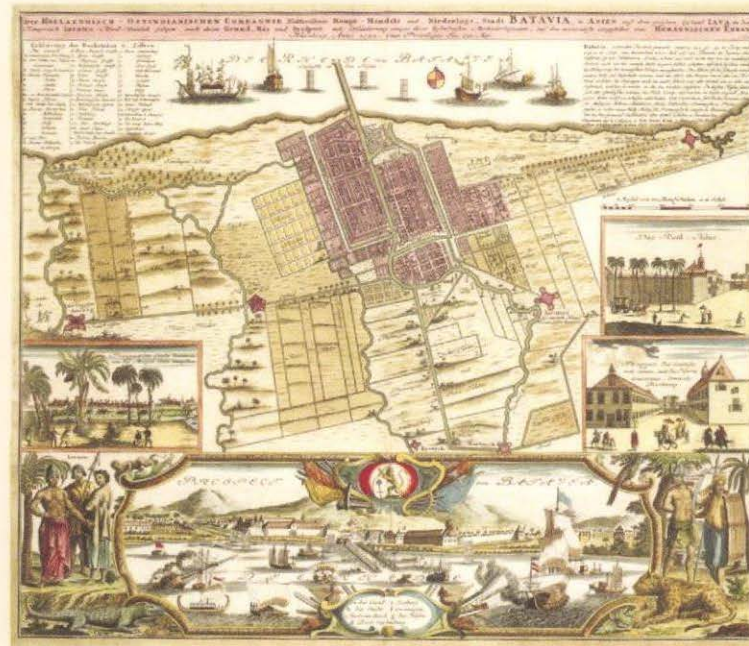
Conversely, it is also not easy to discern how far the change of the Dutch colonial settlement's character in this period was intentionally planned. Did the Dutch start to have more interest in expanding their trading with the hinterland with the intention of embedding the city to its hinterland and strengthen the economic base of the city through this way? Or was the change simply incremental, because of the socio-economic dynamics of the city? The author is in the opinion that, until the end of the VOC (1799), the change was driven more by urban economic growth rather than intentionally planned, through an intensification of the trade between Batavia and other cities included cities in the hinterland, which were developed by non-Dutch traders, especially Chinese immigrants. This opinion is supported by the fact that the overall political situation at that time was not conducive for such trade relations expansion.

The fact is that Amangkurat I of Mataram himself, like his father Sultan Agung, made several statements which show that he did not like the expanding trade relations and tried to reduce them, i.e. by increasing the production of cotton as a substitute for textile import from Holland. This restricted policy from the Javanese rulers against development in coastal cities was the main reason for the rebellion of Trunojoyo.

In his dissertation on the construction of Dutch colonial settlements, Ronald van Oers tried to show that the Dutch VOC apparently tried to develop Batavia from a simple colonial trading port into a multi-functional urban settlement (*Van Oers, 2010*). One of his important findings is that the development of Dutch colonial settlements in general, not only in Nusantara, was guided by an "Ideal Scheme of City" from Simon Stevin. Without knowing the role of Stevin's concept it is difficult to understand the origins of the morphological structure and the social idea of Dutch colonial settlements like Batavia. But this effort to change the character of Batavia could not be effective, since the city of Batavia remained economically isolated from the hinterland of Java and the political condition was not ready. Later developments show that the Dutch colonial regime failed to develop economic relations with the Javanese kingdom. In its protectorate era, the Dutch concentrated their efforts in establishing military superiority.

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The Dutch East India Company's world-famous main commercial in Nederland Indie - at the city of Batavia, located in Java island at the north-west Jacatra Kingdom, presented accurately by Homann Heirs in 1655





At the end of 17<sup>th</sup> century a new type of Dutch fort was constructed in relation with the new political role of the VOC as protectors of the Javanese rulers. This new type was first exemplified by the forts Vastenburg and Vredenburg in the cities of Surakarta and Yogyakarta. Both forts were located as integrated parts of the planned city structure. Their strategic locations were direct consequences of the Dutch's new position as the superior power over its vassal kingdoms. The main objective of the Dutch was to administrate the city in an appropriate way as a protector. The solution was to develop an indirect governance system with the resident as the assistant to the governor general as head of the administration. The assistant resident had full authority in terms of the internal affairs of the Dutch population. But in daily functions as protector, the assistant resident had to work together with the local administration under the *Patih*. A similar dualistic system of direct and indirect governance was also applied to all Dutch colonial cities, even in the *Stads-Gemeente* era of self government after 1902. The local inhabitants of the urban kampongs were not under the *Stads Gemeente*'s auspices but administrated under the local *bupati*.

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Left: Map of Surakarta

P. 156

Right: Map of Yogyakarta



As can be seen in the city maps, the locations of the forts Vredeburg and Vastenburg were integrated from the start in the spatial structure of the two cities (*see maps of Surakarta and Yogyakarta*). The basic structure of the cities Surakarta and Yogyakarta were actually designed by Hamengku Buwana I himself based on the traditional Javanese city conception (*see Jo Santoso, 2008*). In both cities the forts were located on the east side of the main road and the residence of the assistant resident was located on the other side of the main road. The settlements of the Dutch population were located directly behind the fort. The locations of the two forts in the front of the Kraton wall (*baluwarti*) were adequate for the function of the Dutch as protector of the Javanese rulers.

The colonization of Surabaya by the Dutch had a different historical process than Batavia. The construction of the first Dutch trading port in Surabaya was based on agreement between the independent local ruler of the city and the VOC long before Surabaya fell to the hands of Mataram. In 1625-1626, during the attack of Mataram and the conquest of Surabaya by Sultan Agung, the Dutch took a neutral position. After the conquest of Malacca (1641), the Dutch VOC became much stronger and successfully pushed Mataram into giving some concessions which enabled them to expand their trading activities in the city of Surabaya. But Fort Belvedere was constructed after Mataram transferred power over the city to the Dutch in 1667 (*see Asia Major, 1994, p.14, van Oers, 2010, p.67*). The VOC's position in Surabaya became absolute after the Mataram civil war in 1749-1756 which started with the Chinese rebellion in Batavia and quickly spread to the whole of Java, including the capital of Mataram, Kertasura. Once again, the VOC appeared as the savior of the Mataram king. After this civil war, the VOC became the strongest military power not only in Java but in the whole of Nusantara.

The transformation from the protectorate era to the new era can be followed best in the case of Surabaya. Based on the 1787 map, Fort Belvedere in Surabaya had an area the size of 400 x 800 square meters or around 32 hectares, including the Dutch settlement. (*See Map 1787 in van Oers, p.66-67 and Asia Major 1994, p.14*). Fort Belvedere was a separate building from the existing indigenous city and was located on the west side of Kali Mas, whereas the Arab, Chinese and other foreign communities were located on the opposite east side of the river. The fort was constructed to support the development of Surabaya as an important international trading city and to protect the Dutch settlement with its supporting facilities, including church and hospitals.





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City wall of Surabaya 1866.

The Map is showing the city wall with total area around 620 ha, which were included not only the Dutch settlement but also the Chinese, Arabic and other foreign quarters on the east side of the Kali Mas river. (The old fort of Belvidere, had the total area of only 32ha). The city wall was built following the order of Gov. General Van den Bosch. The decision was the consequence from the fact that the Dutch Navy could not compete with the British Navy anymore and had to strengthen their defense system on land. The construction work started in 1835 and completed in 1865 with total cost of 20 Million of Gulden.

One of the impacts of the Java war (1825-1830) was that in 1835 Governor General Johannes Graaf Van den Bosch gave the instruction that the cities should strengthen their defence system (*Asia Major*, 1994, p.16). The decision was a consequence of the experience during the Napoleon War in which the Dutch Navy could no longer compete with the British Navy, so the Dutch had to strengthen their defense system on land. Following Van den Bosch's instructions, Surabaya started to build a new city wall, with a diameter of almost 3000 meters enclosing about 620 hectares of city area. The military core of the city wall was the Prins Hendrik citadel which was located in the north side of the city (see map in *Asia Major*, 1994, p.17). The city wall at the time included the Chinese and Arab quarters. It was clear by then that the Dutch were already aware of the city's important role in terms of its urban economic potentials. The 20 million gulden stronghold of Surabaya was finalized in 1865. Some 6000 military permanent personnel were stationed within this city.

## THE ERA OF EXPANSION TO THE HINTERLAND (1800 – 1870)

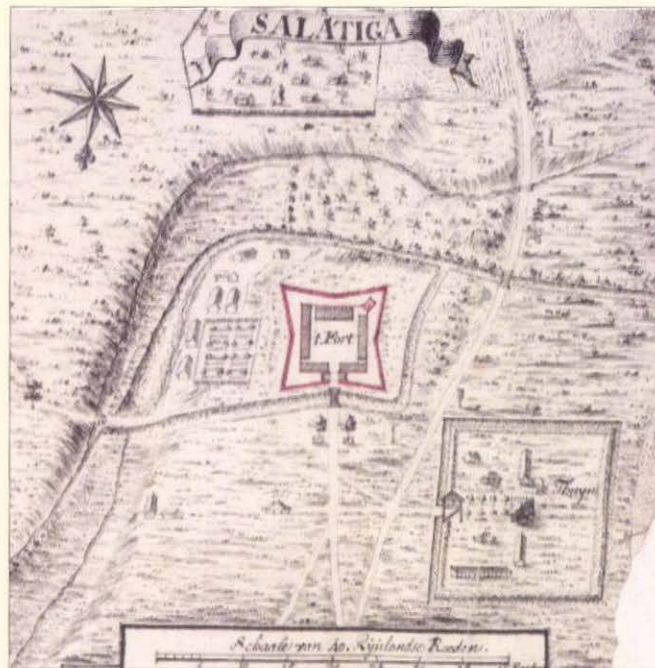
As we know the state of Holland took power over the colony because the VOC was no longer able to manage it. As an association of trade, the VOC lacked vision for which direction the colony should be developed. From the year 1800 the VOC's colony was officially named as the Nederlandsch-Indie (Netherlands Indies), and several years after that Holland was annexed by France under Napoleon. The first initiative to reform the colony came from Dutch-French Governor General Daendels as he started to build road connections between the cities from Anyer on the west coast of Java to Panarukan which was located almost at the east end of Java. This *postweg* was 1000 km long and along the road in regular intervals Daendels established horse care centers, where troops could change horses and continue their journey.

The construction of the *postweg* was part of his plan to anticipate the British invasion. Because without a navy and with an army of only 6,000 men (4,000 of them in Java), it was impossible for him to defend the whole archipelago against the much stronger British navy. Daendels decided to strengthen the defense system in the interior land areas to overcome the weakness on the sea.

When this plan seemed impossible to execute, Daendels ordered the construction of a strong fortification at Meester Cornelis (Jatinegara), and increased his army to around 19,000 men. Surabaya became the new marine port, with Fort Lodewijk at Gresik controlling the strait between Java and Madura. The construction of a fort at Anyer, and the restoration of old VOC forts along the northern coast were completed. While the British controlled the sea, the *postweg* created the possibility for Daendels to move troops between Anyer and Pasuruan.







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Fort Salatiga - one of the first forts in hinterland of Java. This map was made in 1756.

To pay for his enormous military and administrative expenses, Daendels took over land which not owned by native princes and sold it to private persons, mostly Chinese and Europeans. He tried to cultivate the land with new kinds of agrarian products and greatly increased coffee production, but the British blockade prevented the exports. In 1811 Daendels was recalled to Europe by Napoleon.

The more important concept in restructuring the economy of the colony was initiated by the British colonialists during the short period of their rule between 1811 and 1816. The new idea was also based on the cultivation of agrarian land for export products. Raffles, who took his residence at Buitenzorg, worked hard to implement the important steps in this direction. In his relatively short governorship, Raffles negotiated peace and undertook some military expeditions against local princes to integrate them into the new economic structure. His most important policy was to replace the Dutch forced agriculture system with a system of land tenure management, influenced by the writings of Dirk van Hogendorp (1761-1822), a progressive opponent and enemy of the conservative VOC. Instead of requiring labour, Raffles imposed a general tax on land as rent because the government now owned the land and payment was in rice or money.

Raffles made peace with Banten 1813, annexed Cirebon in 1815 and secured the position of Batavia in the hinterland of west Java. He was the one who took the first step to systematically cultivate the island of Java with large scale export-oriented planting as he established the botanical garden of Bogor. In this biological research institution, potential plants were collected from all over the world, then selected and studied for possibilities of cultivation in Java. He introduced further partial self-government by the local rulers, stopped the slave trade, tried to reduce the opium trade by placing strict limitations upon its importation, and led an expedition to rediscover and restore Borobudur and other ancient monuments. Local chiefs could no longer collect swag but were paid a government salary. He introduced smallpox vaccinations and banned gambling houses and cockfights. By 1815 the police would no longer detain slaves for owners. Creditors were forbidden to force their debtors and their families to work as slaves. Later on Raffles established the city of Singapore as permanent British headquarters in the region after the British returned Java to Dutch rule.

### **BENTENGSTELSEL**

As Dutch military operations did not reach their objectives in the beginning of the war, General H.M. de Kock ordered Colonel F.D. Cochijs to invent a new military strategy. F.D. Cochijs came up with a new battlefield fortification called *bentengstelsel* which was implemented in May 1827. In the concept of *bentengstelsel*, forts no longer had a passive role in military defense, but were part of an integrated system that played active and important roles as quarters for offensive operations, military command and control and logistic purposes. In short, *bentengstelsel* was a system of forts which attempted to be a strategy of simultaneous defense and offensive operations.

According to F.D. Cochijs, the designer of the *bentengstelsel* prototype, the forts should be built in high terrain, a square building made to reach coconut tree height of about 7-8 feet. At first, these were rather temporary battlefield fortifications: a simple building for military defense, efficient in raw materials for the building, and the materials were available from the surrounding area. The cannons were applied in the diagonal corners of the fort. Each corner has two cannons. This prototype was successfully implemented in battlefield areas of Bagelen (near Purwodadi), Banjumas, Gowong (near Bruno), Ledok (near Salatiga), Kedu and Yogyakarta.

In the period of May to December 1827 General H.M. de Kock established about 30 forts surrounding the abovementioned areas. This system of forts was developed for defense and limited the movement of



Diponegoro. Later, in order to restore the capability to control the overall situation, the Dutch began to employ small mobile army units and built a total of more than a hundred small fortifications where the local people could live and conduct their trade activities undisturbed. The war ended in 1830 with the capture of Diponegoro, and several years after the war, Dutch control over Java was definitely restored.

The Java War in 1825-1830 was one of the most fierce wars in the history of Dutch colonization. For the first time, the colonial government faced a massive social rebellion covering large parts of Java: about two million Javanese people were took part in the war, and 200,000 Javanese died. On the other hand, Dutch suffered the loss of 8,000 European troops and 7,000 local troops who fought for Dutch, and the war's ultimate cost was about 20 million guilders. The bentengstelsel successfully restored Dutch authority in Java and was the prerequisite for cultivation of the hinterland.

The high military cost after the Java war caused the Nederlandsch-Indies colony deep financial problems and when Van den Bosch was appointed as the new governor general in 1830, he undertook a special mission to overcome these financial problems. Because the cultivation through privatization of the land management brought strong resistance among the population, Van den Bosch did not see any other



P. 160  
Fort Pendem, Cilacap

alternative than intensifying the *cultuurstelsel*. The system required a portion of agricultural production devoted to exporting crops. Meanwhile, the Dutch Government applied the system of poll-tax on Javanese farmers, which could only be paid through delivery of select agrarian products. This system of *cultuurstelsel* also regulated the sorts of plants farmers had to grow.

The *cultuurstelsel* was referred to by the Javanese farmers as *Tanam Paksa* ("enforced planting"), while bringing the Dutch and their Indonesian allies enormous wealth through export growth and income tax. In the end, it brought the Netherlands back from the brink of bankruptcy and made the Dutch East Indies self-sufficient and profitable. The economies of the cities Batavia, Semarang and Surabaya grew very fast and significant numbers of their inhabitants, Dutch and otherwise, became rich. (*Ricklefs, M.C., 1991*).

In this era of colonial exploitation intensification, the government not only built city walls but also a number of new forts, particularly to guarantee the flow of goods from the hinterland and generally to protect economic activities like transportation, transaction and more.

## CONCLUSION

In the early phase, the strength of the Dutch navy created the possibility of executing the VOC's monopoly agenda. But on the other hand, the weakness of the Dutch as a land power limited its influence within the cities. The influence of the Dutch colonials in the hinterland of Java was very marginal. In the era of trading colonialism, the system of fortification was developed to support the main agenda of the VOC in establishing and securing its monopoly claim on spice trading. In this early stage of colonization, the forts were always constructed on the seaside, located in strategic locations to control the movements of competitors or in cities between existing urban settlements and the open sea. The fortifications included the office of the VOC and its supporting administrative and military facilities, some residences and supporting social facilities like hospitals.

The core of the Dutch's defense system strength in this period was not in the quality of any single fort but in the connection of all these forts to each other and to an integrated defense system, which had direct support from the strongest sea power in the entire world at that time, the Royal Dutch Navy. The ideal examples for Dutch forts in this period were the forts in Ambon, Ternate, Cirebon and the first Dutch forts in Semarang and Surabaya.



As the need for residential facilities grew, the Dutch utilized the available area surrounding the forts. From a spatial structure point of view, the Dutch colonial settlements of this period were non-integrated but still an external part of the city, which slowly changed following the growing influence of Dutch presence. Even at the end of this early period of trading colonialism, the center of the power was still in the hands of the local rulers, who were located in the south.

Later on, as the Dutch took control over whole cities, the center of power also shifted from the south to the north. In the period of colonization, the VOC did not have to develop economic relations between the cities and the hinterland. In the beginning of 17<sup>th</sup> century, the city of Batavia's interest in its hinterland was only in relation to logistic functions, especially in supplying food not only for the inhabitants of the city, but also for the whole crew of Dutch trading ships and the navy and army forces

The second period of colonization started in the last two decades of the 17<sup>th</sup> century, as the VOC began to develop their land military power. The first strong involvement of the Dutch in war on land was in 1677, when they supported Amangkurat II in destroying the rebellion of Trunojoyo. As compensation for the restoration of his position, Amangkurat II had to accept the sovereignty of the Dutch over several important coastal cities, i.e. Surabaya and Semarang, and accepted the position of the Mataram as a vassal kingdom of the Dutch colonialists.

Between the end of the 17<sup>th</sup> century and the middle of 18<sup>th</sup> century the Dutch further developed its role as protector and incrementally took over internal security functions within the urban settlements. This trend was clearly indicated in the Dutch forts of Vastenburg and Vredeburg in Surakarta and Yogyakarta. Both forts were built less as a means of securing the city against attacks from other foreign powers outside Java and more as a military manifestation of the VOC's superiority as the protector of the Javanese kingdoms.

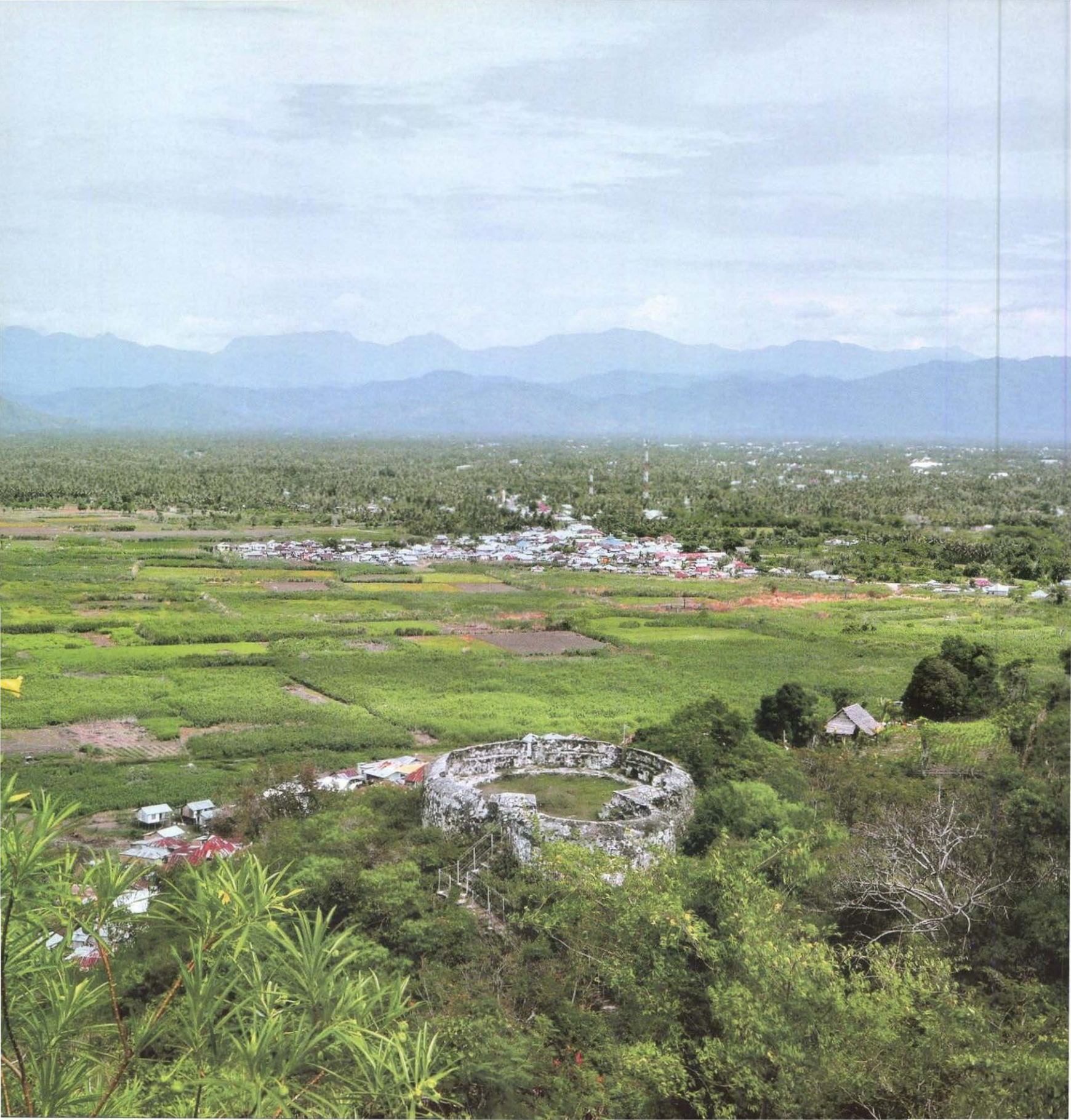
Accordingly, the locations of Dutch forts in this protectorate era were integrated into the spatial conception of the cities. Other Dutch areas, such as the office of the assistant resident and the residential area of Dutch inhabitants were also parts of the planned city structure. But even in the protectorate era, the Dutch did not make significant interventions, be it in the organization of the agrarian production system or in the economic structure of royal cities like Yogyakarta and Surakarta.

In the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the Dutch colonial government under Daendels started to pay more interest in developing a road system which connected the cities with each other. An important fact from this period was that the Dutch had lost their superiority on the sea to the British navy, which took over the position of the Dutch navy as the world's strongest power on the sea. The connecting of coastal cities through a 1000km *postweg* was a concept by Daendels to strengthen the Dutch colony's defense system against threats from the British. The influence of this 1000 km long road on the colonization of the hinterland was not significant, although Daendels thoroughly included the idea in his initial concept, i.e. he was trying to develop the hinterland by encouraging the cultivation of coffee, but the results were very poor. The first most important infrastructure for the colonization of Java's hinterland was actually started by the British in 1811 when implementing new land management by inviting the Chinese and Europeans to be directly involved in the process of agrarian cultivation.

A new military defense system to establish Dutch authority in the hinterland was introduced and implemented by Lieutenant-Governor General Hendrik Merkus de Kock as he ordered Colonel F.D. Cochius to develop a system of *bentengstelsel* during the Java War in 1825-1830. To anticipate the rebellion of Diponegoro, de Kock constructed more than 100 small forts in strategic locations all over the mainland of Java. These forts were connected by roads to each other and to an integrated military defense and control system called *bentengstelsel*. (Brommer, 1995, p.13; Pusat Dokumentasi Arsitektur, 2010, p.42). After the Java War, the Dutch had the de facto ability to directly control the mainland of Java and execute the concept of *cultuurstelsel*. In other words, the *bentengstelsel* was the prerequisite of the new system of a more intensive colonization of the Java hinterland.

Through the establishment of capitalistic production systems in the agrarian sector in particular and the recognition of individual property rights in general, the colony's economy was totally restructured and became part of the world economic system. Since then, the well-being of the whole island and all the cities of Java became heavily dependent on export-oriented production. The whole system collapsed accordingly in the world economic crisis of 1930 which raised critical questions on the legitimation of colonization once again. The battle was no longer decided through different conceptions of fortification, but through social political movements.







## Fort Otahiya, Otanaha, Ulupahu

Gorontalo, 16<sup>th</sup> century

### The Saga of the Three Forts

P 161

Fort Otahiya in the verdurous hills, the silent witness to the passage of Gorontalo history.

*Lake Limboto, also known as Bulalo Limboto, is the center of activities for the local people; the lake is located in lowlands that are surrounded by hills. The province capital city of Gorontalo is only an hour's travel eastward of Lake Limboto. Right between the lake and the city is Dembe village, surrounded by high hills and the location of three forts: Otanaha, Ulupahu and Otahiya. Together, the three forts are among the province's tourism landmarks. Not only replete with historical significance, they also boast of being located in a most splendid natural landscape.*

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A fascinating natural landscape immediately greets the visitor's eyes upon standing at the edge of Fort Otanaha. The distant hills surrounding Lake Limboto and Dembe village offer protection and a truly harmonious panorama.

Lake Limboto is indeed extraordinary. It is the largest lake in Gorontalo with a surface area of around 3 hectares where the following four rivers discharge their water: Bone Bolango, Alo, Daenaa and Molalahu. North west of the lake are a museum and a quay along the lake's shore, formerly the landing area of Catalina water-planes. Those planes were used by Soekarno, the first



## KINGDOM OF GORONTALO

It is not easy to peruse the annals of Gorontalo's history, especially pertaining to the kings who once reigned. Before the VOC's arrival, Gorontalo was a kingdom consisting of five united *pohalaa* (a kind of state): Gorontalo, Limboto, Bone, Boaleo and Atinggola, with the first two being the most significant. Both states were involved in a dispute that was settled in 1672 by an agreement known in the local language as *janjia lu duluwo limo lo pohalaa*, essentially meaning that the two states agreed to collaborate with each other. Five years later, the VOC entered the scene and established its power in Gorontalo.

One of the descendants of the ruling King of Gorontalo came from the Monoarfa family. Iskandar Monoarfa, who ruled in the 18<sup>th</sup> century (1757-1777), was one of the leaders who opposed the Dutch. Below is a photograph of King Monoarfa, taken in 1874 and belonging to the collection of Tropenmuseum and KITLV in the Netherlands. Regretfully, the complete name of King Monoarfa in the photo was not mentioned. From historical studies it is thought that the king may be Zainal Abidin Monoarfa (1859-1878), the last Gorontalo king during the Dutch colonial period.



P 162  
Portrait of King Monoarfa and  
Assistant Resident Gorontalo, in  
1874, taken by photographer H.  
(Hendrik) Veer. King Monoarfa is  
seated on the left.

president of Indonesia, during his attempt to defend the unitary state in 1950. An interesting fact is that Gorontalo, through its local hero Nani Wartabone, already proclaimed independence on January 23<sup>rd</sup>, 1942 - much earlier than the rest of the country.

### **FORTS OF AGREEMENT, DEFENSE AND POWER STRUGGLE**

The historical data pertaining to the three forts is yet to be studied carefully. The stories around them come mostly from folklore passed along from generation to generation. As such, they invite a number of different versions.

Around the 15<sup>th</sup> century, the Kingdom of Gorontalo was ruled by King Ilalto. He was blessed with three children: daughters Ndobu and Tiliaya, and son Naha. In their youth, Naha traveled to neighboring countries, while Ndobu and Tiliaya remained in the kingdom. One day, a Portuguese sailing ship dropped anchor in Gorontalo harbor; they had run out of food due to bad weather and attacks by sea pirates. The crew appeared before King Ilalto, expressing their hope that the king would fill up their provisions. During the meeting, it was agreed that the Portuguese were prepared to strengthen Gorontalo's defense and security, while the kingdom would provide them with their necessities.

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In 1525, the Portuguese fulfilled their promise and built three forts on the hills around Dembe. Afterward, Portuguese captains took advantage of the armies of the two princesses Ndobu and Tiliaya when chasing sea pirates who were raiding fishing villages along the coast. Hence, Ndobu and Tiliaya demanded the Portuguese leave Gorontalo, and mobilized all their people and soldiers. Faced with the fury of Gorontalo's people, the Portuguese captains and their crew immediately left Gorontalo harbor. Ndobu and Tiliaya became warriors that continued to train and prepare their people to fight against future enemy attacks and be ready in case war broke out. Ndobu and Tiliaya strengthened their naval forces by appointing four sea captains, or Apitalau: Lakoro, Lagona, Lakadjo and Djailani.

Around the end of the 16<sup>th</sup> century, Naha returned home from his travels and discovered the three forts. He married a woman by the name of Ohihya and had two sons, Paha (Pahu) and Limonu. At the time a war was being fought against Hemuto, the leader of migrants who came from the north. Naha and Paha were killed in the fight against Hemuto. Limonu took revenge on the death of his father and brother.



Naha, Ohihiya, Paha and Limonu took advantage of the three forts by making them the center of defense, hence their names being immortalized as the names of those forts. The first fort was named Otanaha, with Ota meaning fort and Naha referring to the person who discovered the fort; therefore Otanaha the fort discovered by Naha. The second fort was named Otahiya or Hiya's fort, with Hiya being an abbreviation of Naha's wife Ohihiya. The third fort was named Ulupahu, Ulu being shorthand for Uwole, and Pahu the name of Naha's son; hence Ulupahu means the fort owned by Pahu, son of Naha.

In later years, the forts became the site of family wars between Homuto, leader of the north route, and Naga, leader of the south route. The war between the family members lasted for 200 years and only ended around the end of the 17<sup>th</sup> century.

### **FORTS WITH 348 STEPS**

Fort Otanaha, Ulupahu and Otahiya are located on a hill with four resting places and 348 steps leading to the top of the hill. The numbers of stairs leading to the respective resting places are not the same. From the bottom of the hill to the first resting place there are 52 steps, followed by another 83 to the second resting place, 53 to the third, 89 to the fourth, and finally 71 leading to the site of the forts, a total of 348 steps.

Fort Ulupahu, located at the highest spot on the south west hill, is the biggest. Below it is Fort Otanaha in the east, and the lowest fort is Fort Otahiya in the North West with the shape of the figure "8". If lines are drawn connecting the three forts, they form a triangle. The three forts were built with andesite stones and coral. Historical information reveals that although the constructions of the forts were initiated by King Ilota, they were built in collaboration with the Portuguese; hence the forts resemble other colonial forts, with embrasures in the walls proving this theory.

Fort Otanaha has an outer wall 3 meters high, and a parapet of 1.5 meters. The wall thickness is 140 cm. There are 7 embrasures around the encircling wall of the fort, which is oval-shaped with an arched gate 2 meters high.

Fort Otahiya has an outer wall measuring 3.5 meters and a parapet of 1.8 meters with a wall thickness of 140 cm. There are 8 embrasures around the encircling wall and a gate of 1.4 meters wide.

P. 163  
An oval plan of Fort Otanaha  
with 7 embrasures.



P. 164  
The gate built from natural  
stone forms an arch. Several  
parts have collapsed.





Fort Ulupahu is oval-shaped, with an outer wall 3.7 meters high, a parapet 1.8 meters high, and a wall thickness of 150 cm. There are embrasures in the encircling wall. The inner wall has steps, used for patrolling around the fort.



P. 165

The plan view of Fort Otahiya with 7 embrasures.



P. 166

The horizon stretches above Fort Otahiya which resembles the figure '8'. The embrasures face the Limboto lake, watching from above the hills.

P. 167

The oval plan view of Fort  
Ulupahu with 9 embrasures.



P. 168

Rows of steps leading toward  
Ulupahu, stepping through  
the distant historical past. The  
wall is languishing, unable to  
defend itself from the assaults  
of vandalism.









## Fort Wolio

Buton, 1578

# Legacy of the Buton Kingdom

P 169

Lawana Labunta in the north, decorated with a crown above the door. Lawana means gate.

*From an elevation of 94 meters above sea level, the sprawling Fort Wolio overlooks the city of Bau-Bau. It is the defense system of Buton Sultanate that since five centuries ago has been guarding Buton Island, Banda Sea, Bau-Bau Strait, Buton Strait and Tukang Besi Islands.*

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Buton is a strategic area as it is the crossing point of trade ships sailing from the west to the east, especially during the 16<sup>th</sup> to 19<sup>th</sup> century. Governor General Pieter Both (1610-1614) regarded the Buton Sultanate of great importance. At the time, the Buton Sultanate was located amidst three large sultanates in Central and East Indonesia: Gowa, Talo in Makassar and Ternate in North Moluccas. The VOC considered the Buton Sultanate as such an important fortification that it felt necessary to make separate agreements with Makassar and Ternate stipulating them not to attack Buton. According to traditional oral chronicles, the origins of the Buton community settlement had been established by four non-natives coming from Johor (Malay) in the beginning of the 15<sup>th</sup> century who settled on the coastal fringes around what is now Bau-Bau city. Then the settlement moved to a higher location, about 5 km to the west, in order to avoid attacks by sea pirates from Tobelo. The people of Tobelo lived along the coastal areas of the Moluccas islands and served as the advance soldiers of the Ternate Kingdom in North Moluccas. The new settlement, known by the name of Welia which means 'clearing shrubs,' has been interpreted as the origin of the settlement. Welia (Wolio) has now become the city center of Buton.





P. 170

Lawana Dete. The gate next to the east round bastion of Fort Wolio

## A TALE OF A HUNDRED FORTS

Fort Wolio, built during 1578-1615, is one of more than 100 heritage forts of the Buton Sultanate. Its construction is inseparable from the policy of the 4<sup>th</sup> Sultan La Elangi, also known as Dayanu Ikhsanuddin during his reign (1578-1615). Sultan La Elangi founded the sultanate constitution and named it the Book of Martabat Tujuh. The constitution mentioned the construction of forts and the rights of the people for a piece of land within the fort.

The fort was built as protection against the threats of Tobelo sea pirates who often raided the densely populated areas, and also against the expansionist activities of foreign nations. Next to Fort Wolio, other forts – Fort Sorawolio I dan Fort Sorawolio II – were also built during the same period, and together they formed an integrated defense system.

During the reign of the 29<sup>th</sup> Sultan Muh. Idrus (1824-1851), a new fort named Baadia was built, because the settlement inside Fort Wolio was already overcrowded; then during the reign of the 33<sup>rd</sup> Sultan Muh. Asyikin (1906-1911), laws were enacted pertaining to the building of new forts.

The construction of Fort Wolio required a huge number of labourers and considerable funds. VOC Governor General Pieter Both, on his way to Ternate in 1613, stopped at Buton and observed the construction activities of Fort Wolio. In his notes he wrote that the labourers were recruited from all over the sultanate and that many of them died, so there were hardly any newborn babies in the sultanate. The people were given very limited time to work in their agricultural fields and all their belongings were donated to finance the construction. The fort eventually became a kingdom's fort which unintentionally turned out to be the largest fort built by the Buton Sultanate; it was completed in 10 years.

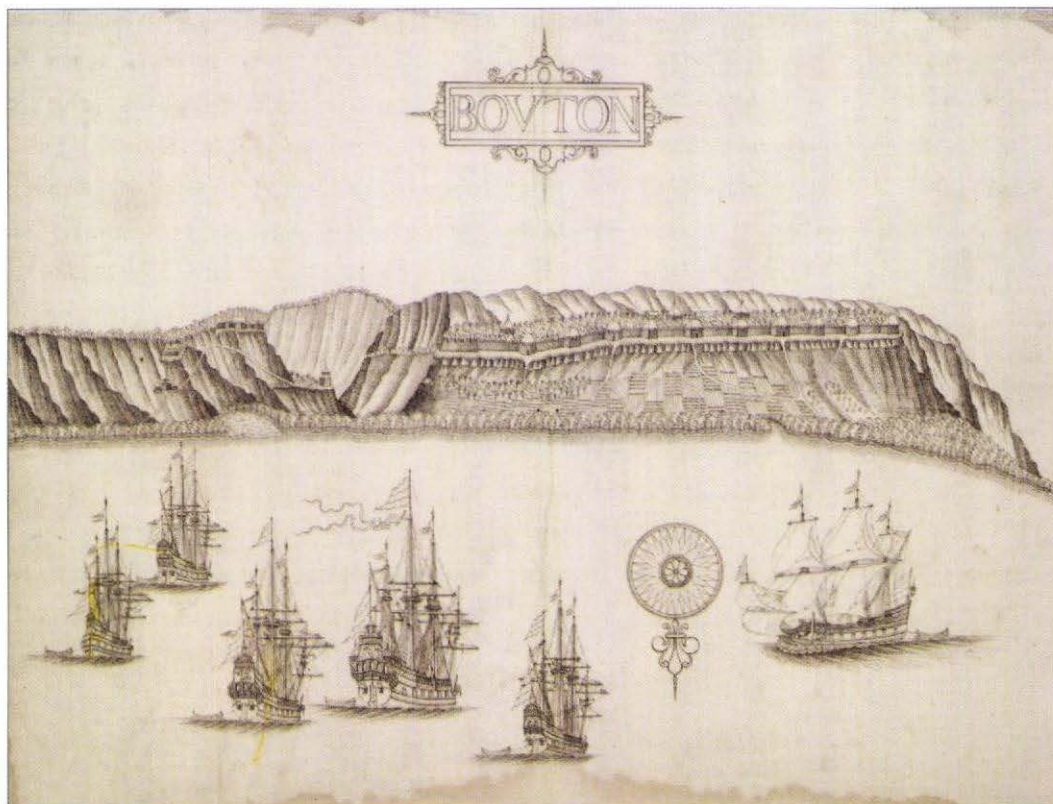
In 1673, VOC Governor General Antonio Van Diemen launched several attacks against Fort Wolio with 700 soldiers, but never succeeded. Diemen eventually employed another method, namely conducting deals by which the VOC at last succeeded to conquer the Buton Sultanate. Following the defeat, Sultan Muh. Idrus moved his royal palace to Baadia and established a new residence, whereas Fort Sangia Kopea became his hiding place and the burial site of leaders as well as of ordinary people. The role of this fort is also mentioned in the Sultanate constitution. At present, Fort Sangia Kopea has long been left in ruins.

## **A FORT CONSTRUCTED UPON ROCK STONES**

As parts of an integrated defense system, the forts of Wolio, Sorawolio I, Sorawolio II and Baadia are located close to each other. Each of the forts is located on a hill or a highland of rock stones. Fort Wolio is the principal and biggest fort with a surface area of 23 hectares, and in 2008 the site was given an award from MURI (MURI: Museum Rekor Indonesia – The Indonesia Museum of Records).

Fort Wolio is built from natural stones, having an irregular shape as the structure follows the topography of the hill; it resembles the letter 'da' (Arabic alphabet), with the north and east sides being longer and the north east corner being narrower. From the north to the east, the fort rises 8 – 10 meters above a steep bank, while the west, south and part of the east sides have an altitude of 3 – 5 m. Along the 2.5 km long fort walls are 14 entrance gates and 18 bastions.



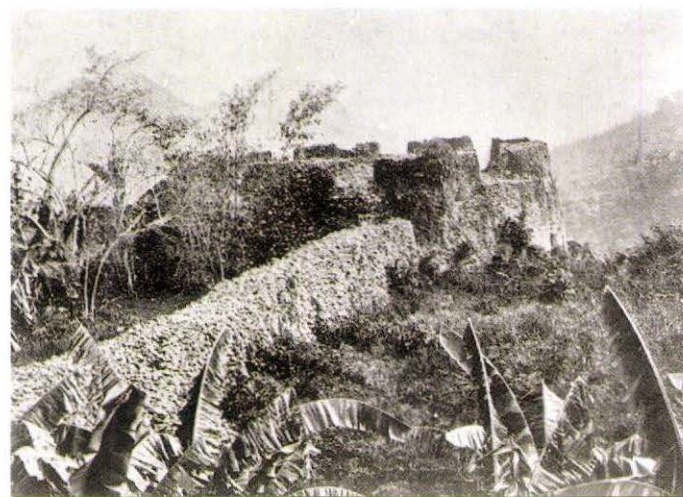


P. 171

The original drawing for the view of the coast and the fortified town of Bau-Bau was probably made in 1655, during the first attack on the island under Arnolds de Vlaming van Oudtshoorn. This was retribution for the murder of the garrison of the company's post on the main island of Buton in that year. This drawing was remade by Johannes Nessel, ca. 1656

P. 172

Below: Fort Wolio during the Dutch occupation in the 1920's



A map of Bau-Bau Town and its surroundings. The town is depicted as a cluster of orange-colored buildings with a black outline. A compass rose in the top left corner indicates North (N), South (S), East (E), and West (W). To the right of the town is a blue river. Three forts are marked: Fort Wolio is located within the town's black outline; Fort Sorawolio 1 is located to the northeast of the town; Fort Sorawolio 2 is located further to the east, near the river; and Fort Ba'adia is located to the southwest of the town. The map also shows green areas representing vegetation and a road network.

[illegible]

Fort Wolio site plan with several villages (kampongs). The mosque at the north and the Keraton (Royal Palaces) are in center of the fort. The fort has several bastions and gates (lawana).



Fort Baadia is a polygonal structure. Many parts of this fort were reconstructed. There are 3 squares with patrol paths along the walls. The walls have a height of between 3 to 5 meters, with a thickness of about 1 - 1.5 meters.



P. 175

Left-above: Site plan of Fort Baadia, showing a polygonal shape with three bastions

P. 176

Right above: Main gate of Fort Baadia on the east side, with a crown ornament above the door. In the wall are embrasures.

P. 177

Below: Side entrance next to the west bastion

Fort Sorawolio-I has an interesting shape: it is a trapezium with an arrow-shaped bastion and a round structure in the corner, showing western influences of fort design. The fort is made of coral stones stacked 4 – 6 meters high in front and 1-2 meters high in the rear. It has 4 bastions; the shape of the front bastion is still recognizable as an arrow head. The shape of the rear bastion can no longer be defined since the rocks have already fallen apart. The upper part of the wall has a thickness of about 1.5 meters. Remnants of the gate have been buried under a pile of fort wall rubble. The gate faces north east. The other door is in the south side of the fort.

P. 178

The trapezium plan of Fort Sorawolio I, with the combination shape of arrows and round bastions. The black line in the plan indicates the north bastion as ruins that are still intact. The other parts are already demolished



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P. 179

Under the shade of foliage, remnants of the once mighty Fort Sorawolio I with its rows of embrasures overlook Bau Bau City





Similarly, Fort Sorawolio II is a trapezium- shaped structure made of stacked coral stones bonded with adhesive; it has two bastions in the north east and south east, and a gate in the east side. Both bastions are round and have parapets and embrasures. The parapet wall of the north east bastion has crumbled down; the fort wall is about 2 m thick; nowadays the wall is about 1-3 meters high.



P 180  
The plan of Sorawolio II, with  
two round bastions



P 181  
The collapsed wall of Fort  
Sorawolio II, covered by shrubs  
and trees

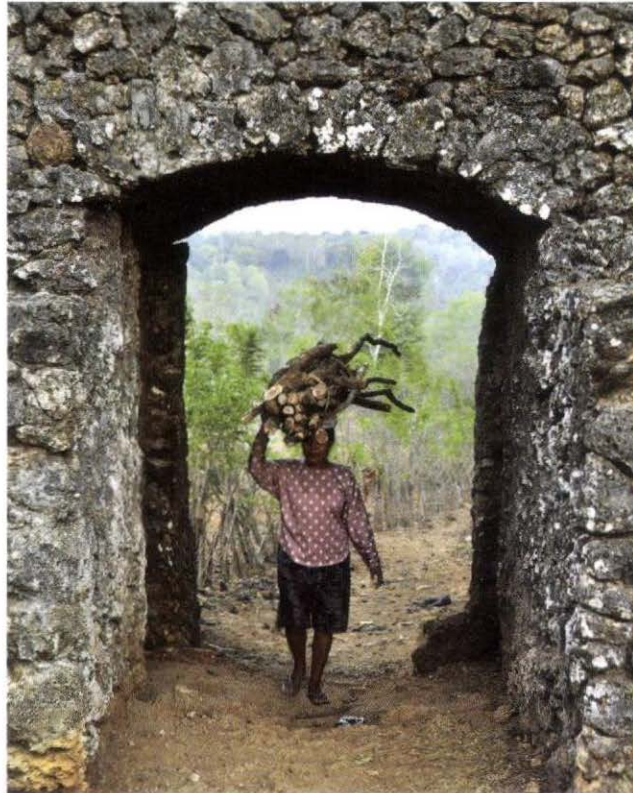
## THE SETTLEMENTS INSIDE FORT WOLIO

As the center of the Buton Sultanate government, within Fort Wolio's walls were the following settlements: Tarisi, Silea, Gundu-Gundu, Melai, Peropa, Lantangau, Kulandodo, Kabumbu, Dete, Gama, Manuru and Lelemaigura. Within the grounds of the fort are several important buildings that had been part of the city structure in the past, such as the palaces of the 32<sup>nd</sup> and 37<sup>th</sup> Sultans, the Royal Palace Mosque (built in 1538), the public meeting place Baruga, and the Rock of Popau where all the Sultans of Buton were inaugurated.

The settlement also includes the Sultan tombs, such as the tomb of Sultan Murhum, the first Sultan of Buton and founder of the Buton Sultanate who was also known as Sultan Kairmuddin and Halu Oleo, and Sultan Nasiruddin alias La Ibi Oputa Musobuna Yi Lawalangke, who ruled Buton in 1709-1711.

P. 182

Passing through the fort gate.



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P. 183

Lawana Kampebuni, in the north east corner of Fort Wolio.



P. 184

Kamali Ibata, one of the multi-story Keraton royal houses, made from wood structures with a stone foundation



P. 185

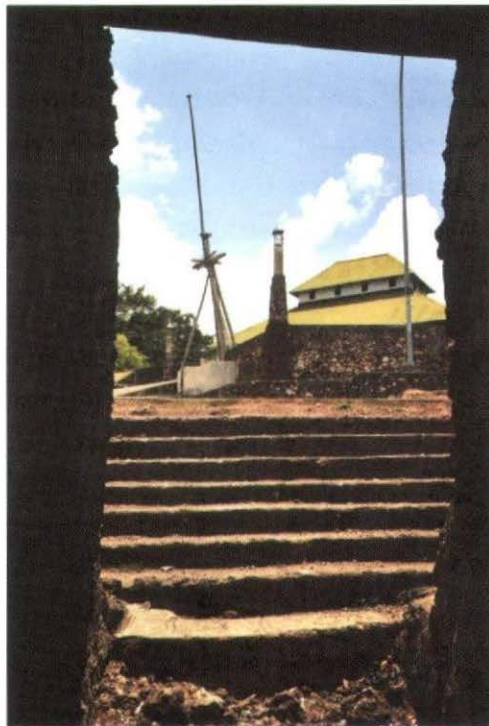
Muslim tradition in Buton is unique, as manifested in the weekly Friday prayers that have been conducted for hundreds of years in the Royal Mosque.

The Chief of the religious leaders is also the Chief of the Tradition Keeper who is greeted by the congregation when he is about to start the Friday prayers. His subordinates are all village tradition keepers in the whole compound of Fort Wolio.



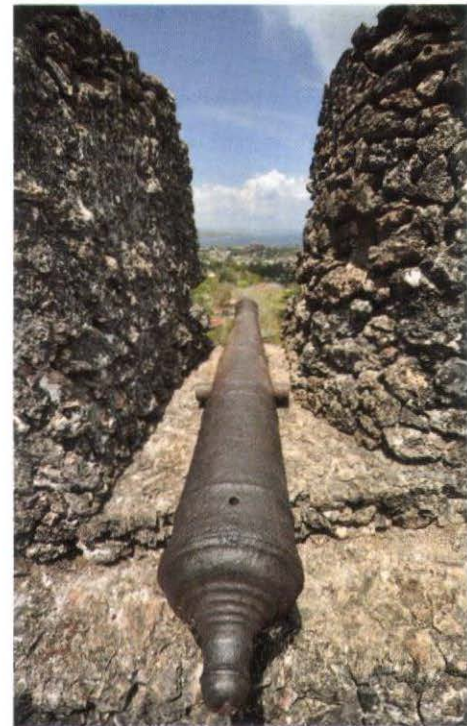
P. 186

Left: The route towards the Royal Mosque passes a gate with steps. Kasulana Tombi is the flag pole that has stood since the mosque was built and is where the royal flag, Longa-Longa, has always been raised.



P. 187

Right: From high above the hills, Fort Wolio oversees the strait of Bau – Bau. The city of Bau – Bau is seen sprawled below.







## Fort Rotterdam

Makassar, 1673

# Guardian of The Makassar Strait

P. 188

An art event at the main gate of  
Fort Rotterdam

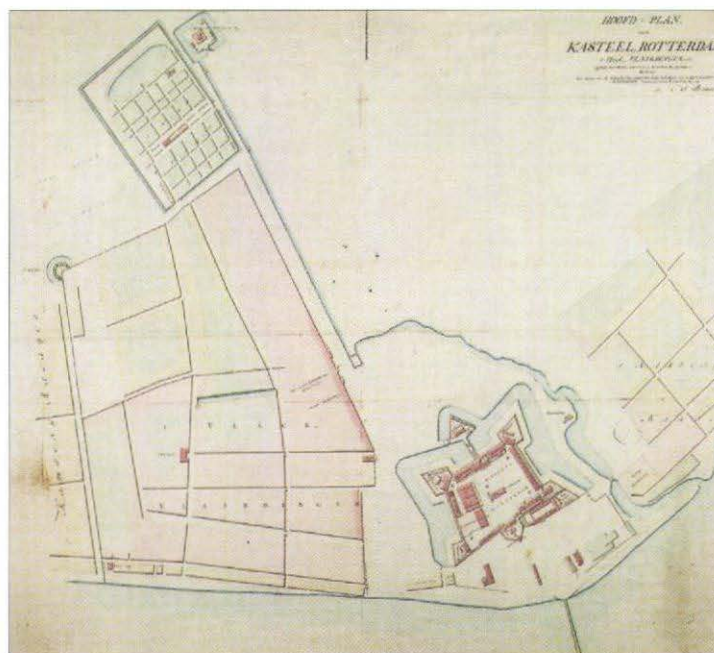
*Through a combination of treaties, transfer fees, divide and conquer politics and military force, in 1650 the United East Indies Company was able to monopolize the spice trade. The competitive European and Asian traders were forcibly expelled from the Moluccas, but through the VOC they sought illegal ways to possess the coveted spices; a brisk smuggling trade flourished.*

The international port city of Makassar in the kingdom of Gowa became the main assembly location of the numerous enemies of the Dutch. Several times the VOC tried unsuccessfully to prevent trade deals, but the sultan was a supporter of free trade and refused to grant any concession that would be disadvantageous to his own long-term interests. In the eyes of the VOC it justified launching a military intervention, but it was clear that a war would be costly. Under advice from the Portuguese, since the beginning of the 17<sup>th</sup> century the Gowa Kingdom built a number of European style forts. By Asian standards, the empire was not to be regarded as an underestimated adversary. At sea, however, it was a different story due to the VOC's fleet being undisputedly the strongest.

The Dutch received an unexpected ally. After the conquest of the Buginese Bone Sultanate in 1663, the Buginese prince Arupalakka and his followers fled to Batavia. On November 24, 1666 Cornelis Speelman

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P 189  
Map of the City of Makassar  
showing the location of Fort  
Rotterdam, by C.F. Reimer ca.  
1791

left with a fleet of 21 ships carrying 600 Dutch and 400 Buginese soldiers to Makassar. The return of Aru Palaka led to a massive uprising which defeated the Buginese of Gowa, and the VOC defeated the fleet of Makassar. Sultan Hassanudin decided to avoid bloodshed and signed the Bungaya treaty on November 18, 1667. A few months later, hostilities flared up again and a second war was fought between April 1667 and June 1669.

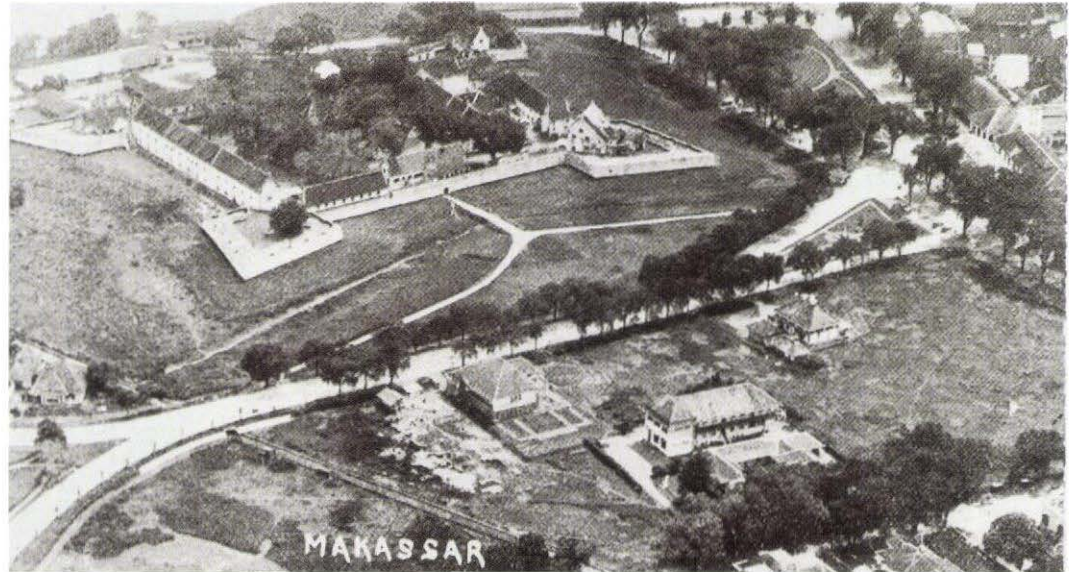
Gowa was forced to abandon all the forts except the Ujung Pandang fortress which was transferred to the Dutch. There are several lectures on the state of the fort when it was acquired in 1667 and how it was later rebuilt. The most probable scenario is that, contrary to the Treaty's provisions, all buildings in the fort were demolished. The Sultan was obliged to build temporary wooden buildings.

## A TURTLE SHAPED FORT

Ujung Pandang fortress, or Castle Rotterdam as the Dutch called it, was fully adapted to the requirements of modern European warfare. There was a permanent station of 700 to 800 men. The fort was the center of the VOC's control over Sulawesi.

P. 190

An aerial photo of Fort Rotterdam and its surroundings.  
ca. 1932



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For about 200 years the Dutch had utilized Fort Rotterdam as its center of government, and the center for economics and other activities. In 1937 Fort Rotterdam was handed over by the Dutch Indies Government to the Fort Rotterdam Foundation. It was registered as a protected historical monument on May 23, 1940.

P. 191

Fort Rotterdam as seen from  
the church's park (ca.1880).







P. 192

Former church building, now  
used as an exhibition and  
meeting hall.

The occupation of the fort by the Dutch caused much discontent among the local people who unsuccessfully tried to storm and occupy the fort in 1673. However, the greatest danger for the defenders of the fort did not come from the attackers, but from the plague that broke out in the fort. Of the 503 men who perished in the fort during the siege, more than 300 died from the disease. Following the experiences during the siege, in 1679 it was decided that a port on the country side should be of the barbican type (a small triangular fortification).

In the late 17<sup>th</sup> century, the European and Chinese built the city of Vlaardingen opposite the fort's ramparts, and was later known by the name Makassar. East of Fort Rotterdam the redoubt Vredenburg was built with the objective to provide support to the fort.

In 1739, a palace quarrel erupted pertaining to the succession of the king of Gowa and to the issue of war against the VOC. On May 16, 1739, the attackers appeared at Fort Rotterdam, led by Karaeng Bonto, pretender to the Langkasa throne. The commander of the fort decided that the best defense was to attack. The garrison, reinforced by local allies, immediately marched forward and defeated the attackers who fled. Three days later, a second attack was repulsed. The attackers retreated to Gowa, which was taken by VOC forces after a siege of one day. Bonto-Langkasa died, thus ending the hostilities.

P. 193

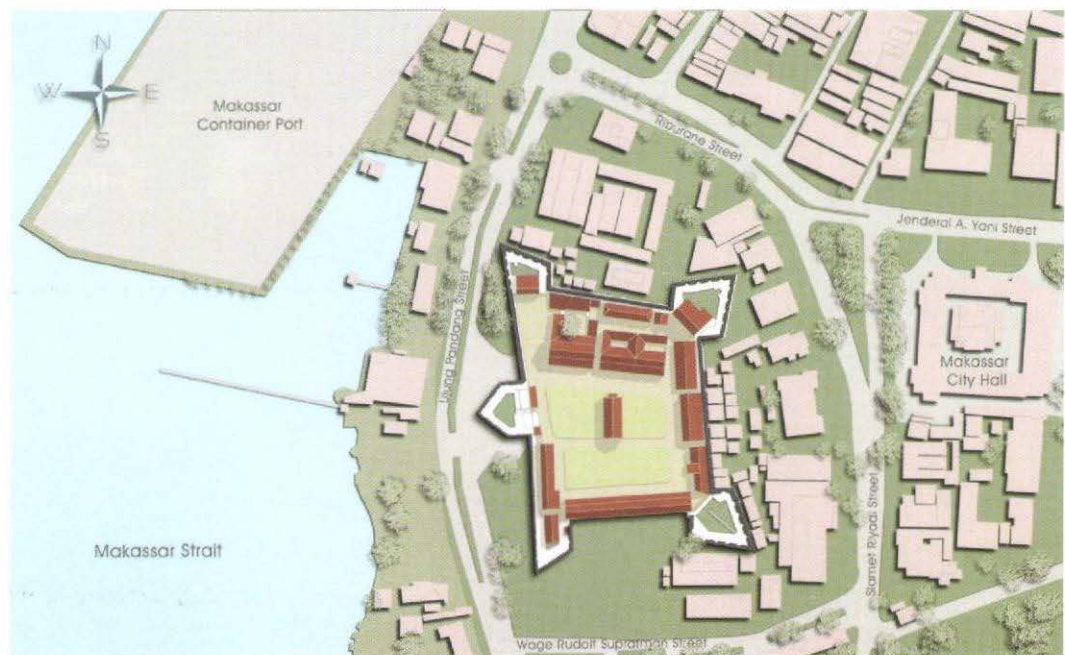
La Galigo Museum in one of the  
buildings inside the fort.



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P. 194

The Fort's pentagonal structure  
resembles a turtle





In 1795, the French revolutionary army occupied the Netherlands, where the incumbent government was replaced by the Batavian Republic. Although the British went to war against the Batavian Republic in 1796 and occupied Ambon and Banda, they left Fort Rotterdam and Makassar untouched. The occupation took place only after Governor General Janssen signed the total capitulation of the colony in 1811. In Makassar, the British sent a small team of *sepoys*, native soldiers from British India who had been trained and armed in the European way.

In September 1816, the British returned the ruined fort to the Dutch. The fort was restored and another garrison stationed. The new house of the governor and the hospital were built outside the fort.

Prince Diponegoro who fought against the Dutch (1825-1830) was captured and was first sent to Manado (1830-1833) and then exiled to Fort Rotterdam, Makassar (1833 – 1855) where he died in 1855 at the age of 70. The walls of the barbican redoubt Vredenburg and the Vlaardingen city wall were demolished after 1900. In 1908, Fort Rotterdam was declared no longer a fortification structure. In 1909, parts of the wall were cut down but fortunately further demolition plans were never carried out. As a result, the area and buildings within the fort still exist to this day, and the church was restored in 1927. Some buildings were left empty while others were occupied by the army and civil administration. In 1937, the fort was transferred to a foundation. On May 23, 1940, Fort Rotterdam was officially listed as a heritage building. The outbreak of World War II prevented further restoration work to the fort.

During the Japanese occupation (1942-1945), the buildings were used as offices of the Japanese Navy Administration in Eastern Indonesia and as a center of agriculture and language study.

In November 1945, the fort was again occupied by the Dutch who handed it over to the Indonesian Army in 1950. The fort continued to be utilized by the military until the early 21<sup>st</sup> century, when the buildings were restored and converted into a cultural center of Sulawesi.

The fort is a pentagonal structure resembling a turtle. When it was utilized by the Gowa Kingdom, the fort was still made of soil and stones. A major restoration was conducted in 1673, and Fort Rotterdam was changed into an 18<sup>th</sup> century Dutch fortification structure, complete with bastions. A gate at the land side was constructed, and in 1679 a ravelin was built, but it has now disappeared. Inside the fort is a wide open field where a Protestant church was built, but is now utilized as the storage of artillery arms; there are also

P. 195

Part of a former church wall  
inside the fort



P. 196

Right: La Galigo Museum in one.  
Public enthusiasm for visits to  
Fort Rotterdam, now a public  
space in Makassar,



P. 197

The entrance and the wall in the  
front façade of the Fort.







P. 198

Fort Rotterdam has now become  
a public space in Makassar

several buildings which were formerly the dwellings of the Governor and high-ranking officials. There were also quarters for the officers, military barracks and ammunition storage. The hospital was built outside the fort, in the city's south part. In the fort and also in some other places, a garrison was stationed together with artillerists and gunners. In 1909 the wall behind the barracks was demolished and the wall on the land side was shortened. The fort was then utilized by both the military and civil services and several related buildings became vacant.

The wall, made of stones and rocks, is 5 to 7 meters high with a thickness between 1.5 to 2 meters. There are 5 arrow-shaped bastions, four in each corner and one in the center of the fort wall facing the sea. There are two entrance gates: the entrance door facing the sea is located right next to the bastion while the gate facing the land is located in the center of the fort wall. Both are arched gates. The buildings inside the fort are still intact and are currently utilized for several different purposes. The upper floor in the building that was formerly a church is now utilized as an exhibition room and a meeting hall, while the lower floor has become the exhibition room for the Makassar Preservation of Archaeological

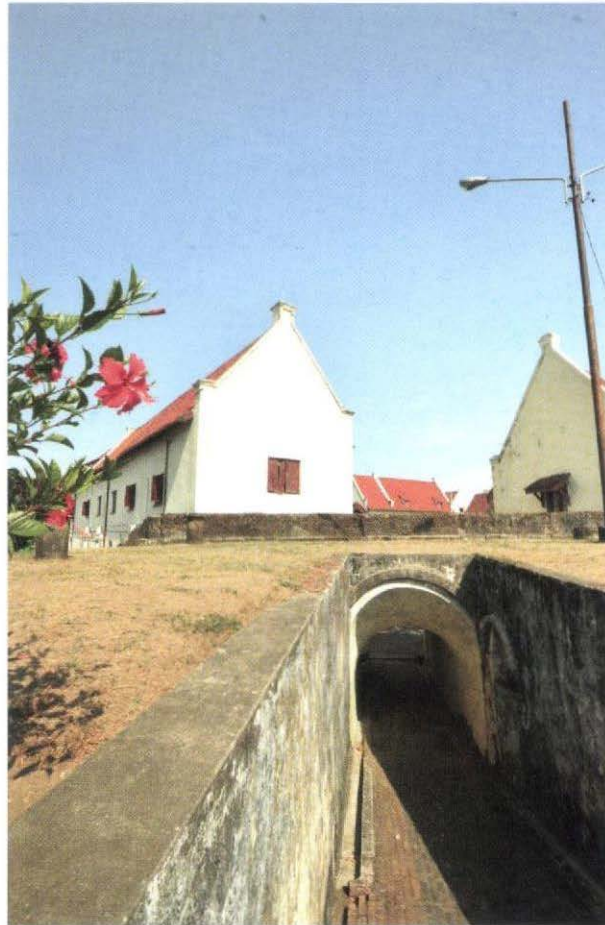
Heritage Properties Agency (BP3). The other buildings are utilized as the office of Makassar BP3 and the La Galigo Museum. There is also a souvenir shop and a guesthouse belonging to Makassar BP3.

The fort is located along Losari Beach in Makassar city center. The area around the fort is an area crowded with offices, shops, tourist facilities, Chinatown and the sea harbor.

Fort Rotterdam is now not only a major tourist attraction but also plays an important role in the social and cultural life of the local people. Fort Rotterdam is thus the best example of successful reuse of a fort in Indonesia.

P. 199

A scene of some buildings  
inside the fort seen from the  
south-east bastion









# Gold, Sea Piracy and Forts

## Political Alliances and Instability in the Gulf of Tomini (North Sula-wesi) in the 18<sup>th</sup> Century

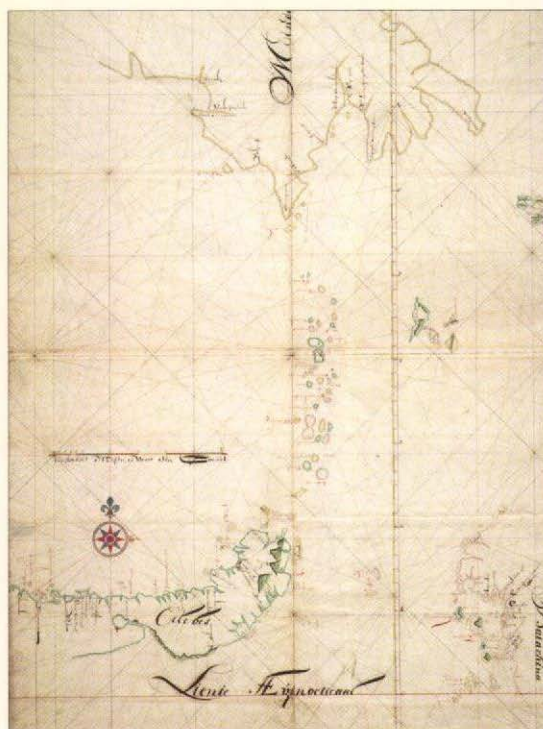
P. 200  
Fort Oranje, Gorontalo. From  
a distance it visible the bay  
of Kwandang at north side of  
Gorontalo nowadays.

*In the late 18<sup>th</sup> century, the Gulf of Tomini was a sea passage that had become more dangerous. It was no longer safe for merchants to ply the waters with their trade vessels. A ship loaded with cargo could be seized by a pirate vessel from Manguindanao or Halmahera that was fitted with revolving cannons on its foredeck. Or it could also be confiscated by a cruising vessel of the VOC, manned by Dutch sailors who could not distinguish friends from foes. It was certainly advisable for merchants to look for safer places on land.*

### **UNSAFE FAIRWAYS: THE GULF OF TOMINI**

The coastal area of North Sulawesi was more unstable as it lay on the fringes of early-modern states like Ternate, Makassar and Manguindanao, and the Muslim Sultanate in the Southern Philippines. For the Europeans, Portuguese, Spaniards and Dutch, Minahasa was of particular importance. It was where rice was cultivated, an important foodstuff for the garrisons stationed at the forts in the Moluccas. The VOC preferred to leave the Gulf of Tomini to the Sultan of Ternate. The Company only became interested in certain places in the mountains, such as Gorontalo, following the discovery of gold there. In turn, the kings of the small kingdoms where gold was found were especially interested in maintaining their own safety. They could barter the gold with the Company for muskets, ammunition and bullets for the defense of

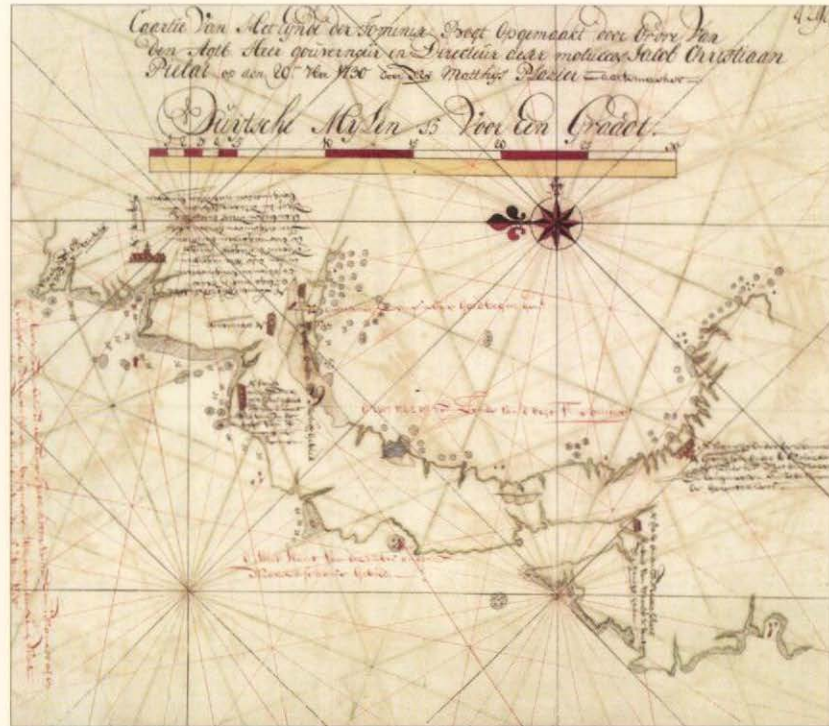




P. 201  
Map of the North Coast of  
Celebes, 1695

their lands, or for Indian textile and cash. At times, those articles could be obtained at cheaper prices from merchants who entered the Gulf from Palu and Parigi, and occasionally the Company would get a profitable offer.

Those looking for forts or traditional defense structures in the Moluccas or in peripheral areas such as North Sulawesi would certainly find an abundance of those structures. Many locations mentioned in the archives have not yet been sufficiently studied. Each area has its own forts which had been built for certain reasons pertaining to the different histories of the respective areas. The Gulf of Tomini is one such area, where both Indonesians as well as the Dutch had to defend themselves against domestic and foreign pirates. In the late 18<sup>th</sup> century, no single power could exert domination in such an extended coastal area, not even the VOC. The Gulf of Tomini was one of the places where the Company was just one of the involved parties. In the 18<sup>th</sup> century, the Company had only around 600 – 800 personnel to serve the whole government of Ternate which extended from Bacan to Sangihe Talaud, and from Gorontalo to Ternate. Around 1780, half of the personnel worked in Fort Oranje and some at several smaller forts in Ternate.



In the late 18<sup>th</sup> century, the Company had just about 130 men in an area as large as Portugal in Europe. The military posts where the Company's flag fluttered in the air, such as Fort Amsterdam in Manado and Fort Nassauw in Gorontalo, were sufficiently strong to withstand an attack for some time, but only with the assistance of the local inhabitants. The smaller posts consisted of simple earth walls, a fence made of bamboo or planks, a house for the officer in charge (usually a sergeant), and at best there was an enclosure wall made of coral stones such as at the small Fort Leiden in Kwandang where a VOC appointed resident lived. The Company's maritime power (or perhaps vulnerability) in Ternate consisted of a few *chialoupes* and a handful of *pencalang* at the most with several hundred sea faring personnel and sailors. The Company could only launch a few vessels to patrol the Gulf, which meant that only the ports of Manado and Gorontalo could be inspected daily.

The main reasons why the Company remained in the area were, on one hand, for its own interest, which was to make sure that the area remained free of spice trees and 'foreign nations' such as the English. On the other hand, there was an increasing demand from several coastal places to be protected against marauders



from South Philippines, Halmahera and other more southern islands. The VOC's arms technology was much in-demand and quality gunpowder was only obtainable from a European power. In addition, the VOC's authority was supported by Batavia and several traditional leaders, among whom the most important was the Sultan of Ternate.

### THE GOVERNMENT OF TERNATE AS 'ENCUMBRANCE'

Centuries before the arrival of the Europeans, the Moluccas spice islands had long been one of the commercial pillars of Nusantara. These islands had been a source of considerable fortune and risks for the maritime powers of Asia, and later of Europe. The cloves (and later the nutmeg of Banda Island as well) could be sold in Europe for enormous profit. In the race for the spices, the VOC (established in 1602) had left the Portuguese and British far behind in Asia. The VOC established in the Moluccas three governments fortified by a number of forts: Ambon, Ternate and Banda. In early modern times, only the clove islands were called 'the Moluccas', whereas originally the volcanic clove islands (Ternate, Tidore and Bacan) were included in the Moluccas.



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Clove and nutmeg illustrations, taken from Köhler's Medicinal Plants (Köhler's *Medizinal-Pflanzen in naturgetreuen Abbildungen mit kurz erläuterndem Texte*: Atlas zur Pharmacopoea germanica). It is a German rare medicinal guide published by Franz Eugen Köhler in 1887 in three volumes. It was written by Hermann Köhler, edited by Gustav Pabst, and contains some 300 full page chromolithography illustrations.

In the 16<sup>th</sup> century, the Portuguese attempted to control this area. However, Sultan Babullah (1570-1586) succeeded in driving away the Portuguese from Ternate in 1575. The Portuguese withdrew to the island of Ambon where they established Ambon City. Thirty years later, on February 23, 1605 with the assistance of the Muslim king of Hitu, the VOC managed to conquer Portuguese Ambon. The Portuguese fort was taken over by a navy squadron led by Steven van der Haghen without any shots being fired. The sultans of the Ternate and Tidore islands, the old center of clove trade, had hopes that they could remain independent now that the Portuguese were defeated. In Tidore, the last Portuguese defense structure was blown apart by a lucky hit in the ammunition tower. Soon afterwards, however, a powerful Spanish fleet of 36 sail ships with 1,300 Spanish and 400 Filipino soldiers arrived from Manila. Sultan Said aldin Berkat Syah of Ternate could offer little defense against this overwhelming Spanish power. On April 1, under command of the Governor General of the Philippines Don Pedro, the Spaniards conquered the former Portuguese Fort Kastela, the oldest Portuguese fort which Said's grandfather, Babullah, repossessed in 1575 from the Portuguese.

The Spaniards exiled Said and his son Hamzah to Manila. Afterwards, all the kings of the Moluccas signed alliances with the Spaniards, who then built several military support points in Tidore. The royal leaders of Ternate, those court noblemen who were allied to the royal palace, then decided to request the assistance of the VOC in Ambon. They succeeded in closing a deal with Admiral Cornelis Matelief. In return for military support against Tidore and the Spaniards, the VOC was given permission to build several forts in Ternate territory. In the village of Malayen, the VOC built Fort Oranje with the assistance of mostly-reluctant Ternatenese laborers. Fort Oranje is regarded as the symbol of Dutch colonial rule over the Moluccas.

Ternate's people, who had remained in the old capital Gammalamo which was controlled by the Spaniards, left the town. They built a new sultan residence in the smaller Malayu, near Fort Oranje. The price which the Sultan of Ternate had to pay to the VOC was the monopoly of the clove supply. The VOC obtained that monopoly in phases. It was quite difficult to manage the military posts profitably through the cultivation of cloves. In 1663, the Spanish governor of Manila decided to withdraw troops from Tidore because Manila was attacked by the Chinese warrior Zheng Chenggong, alias Coxinga.

However, Ternate and its dependences became feudal estates of the VOC which was the 'feudal lord', the feudal ruler. The Sultan was a 'vassal', the party who 'rented' the area from the VOC who had the right to appoint the Sultan. The king and members of his court received yearly 'acceptance-money' which was the



payment to compensate for putting an end to the clove trade. Since the contract of 1651, the Sultan agreed to the systematic extirpation of spice trees in his territory. Through regular 'extirpation campaigns', the clove trees in the Moluccas area were tracked down and destroyed. The Company focused on the governing of Ambon, where the indigenous people were subjugated in 1656 during five bloody wars. During this government, the VOC built most of its forts. The Ternate government was only controlled by the VOC to ensure that its territory remained free of those 'wild plants'.

### **THE RADJAS OF GORONTALO AND LIMBOTTO INSULT THE SULTAN OF TERNATE**

The Gulf of Tomini, the 'inner bend' of North and Central Sulawesi, was an area which had been under the influence of the Ternate sultanate since earlier times. For the Sultan of Ternate, the Gulf of Tomini was an area where he was constantly confronted by competition from several maritime nations of Sulawesi, especially the Makassarese, the Buginese and the Mandarese from West Sulawesi. They conducted a thriving maritime trade originating from harbors like Makassar, Polewali, Mamuju and Palu. It is, however, difficult to define how big the Sultan's influence was in the area since those earlier times. In the so-called Bungaya Treaty which Cornelis Speelman closed with the defeated king of Makassar, it was stipulated that the Gulf of Tomini was recognized as the territory of Ternate. In 1678, however, the Sultan had to relinquish his claims over Gorontalo and Limboto. At the initiative of Governor Robertus Padtbrugge and following a violent engagement by the VOC in 1681, the two small kingdoms became direct feudal territories of the Company.

At the beginning, the change of status brought no big impact for the kings of Gorontalo and Limboto. In the late 17<sup>th</sup> century, more local kings of other places along the coast of North Sulawesi also came directly under the Company, and some of them did so of their own initiative. Sometimes they considered it better to do so rather than subjugate themselves under the violent maritime expeditions of a Sultan. The power of a Sultan depended on the expeditions he carried out with his big fleet of *kora-kora* along the coast. During such raids, tributes were extorted from the coastal villages under severe intimidation. The captured people were shipped and sold as slaves. The Sultan of Ternate was therefore not truly loved by the people on the coastal area of North Sulawesi. The coastal settlements were in a difficult position. If they did not accept the protection of Ternate, they would be exposed to the pirate vessels of other nations: the Mandarese, Buginese, Makassarese or Mangindaoerese.

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The fleets of *kora-kora* commonly used by the Sultanate of Ternate in the 18<sup>th</sup> century.



Although a contract dated March 25, 1678 had been made between the Company and Gorontalo, in 1707 the Company was not too eager to be directly involved with an unstable territory. The contract of 1678 was more of a political nature. It pledged that both sides should provide assistance in the event of war and crisis. It was also stipulated that no Europeans and Catholic missionaries would be allowed; this was, for the Company, the most important point. The Gulf of Tomini did not yield much to the Company. Only the land around the swamps between Gorontalo and Limboto produced rice. The sale of Indian textile was limited, and to man the trade posts would only cost money and manpower. The Supreme Government in Batavia decided in 1709 that, considering the strong anti-Ternate sentiments in Gorontalo, it would be best to renew the contract of 1678 as it was useless to try to bring Gorontalo under Ternate. On July 9, 1710, the old contract was renewed and signed by Naicili Bea and Governor Jacob Claasz.

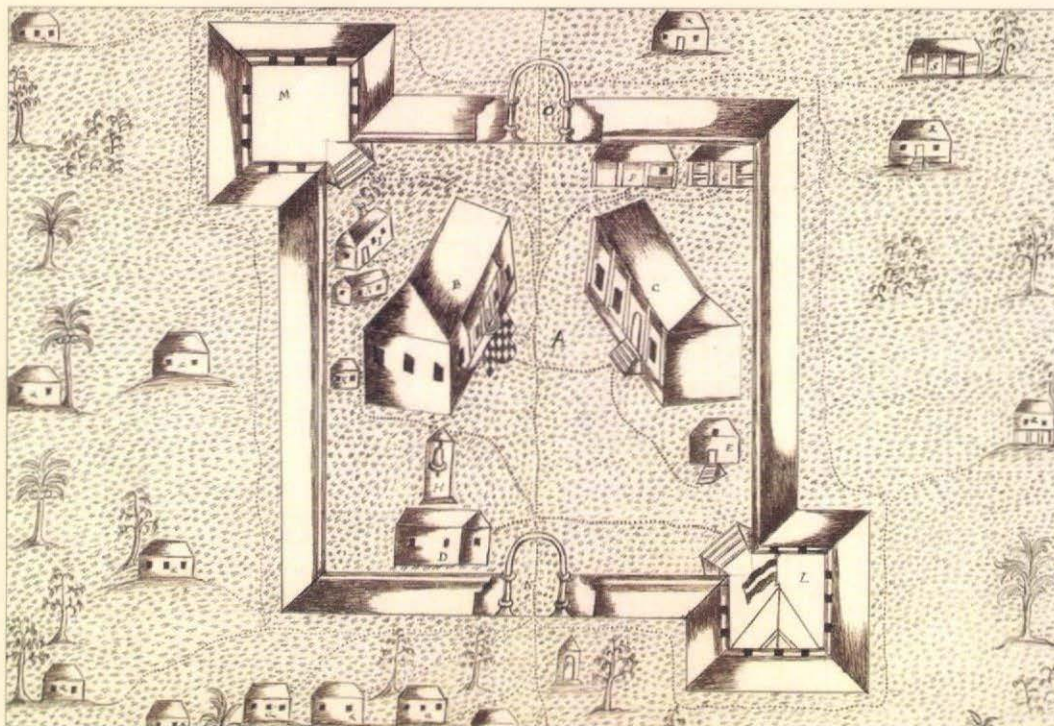
### UNEXPECTED GOLD DISCOVERIES IN THE MOUNTAINS OF GORONTALO

The indifferent attitude of Ternate governors underwent a change at the end of the 1720's when a Chinaman by the name of Simteenko told them that gold was discovered in the mountains between Gorontalo and Kaidipan. The Company immediately claimed, based on the contracts, that the whole area of Gorontalo was



its feudal territory. The Company planned to allow the inhabitants of Gorontalo, Limboto, Attingola and Bolaang to conduct gold-digging in several places on the mountain. In order to control the gold production, the Supreme Government decided in 1729 to appoint a resident in Gorontalo with the duty to supervise and control the collection of gold. On August 4, 1729, a contract was signed with the new young King of Kaidipan, Albert Comput (a Dutch christian name, son of King Willem Comput of Bolaang-Itam). The new king promised that all 'foreign vaga-bonds' such as the Makassarese, Buginese, Mandarese, Butonese and Manginda-naoerese would not be permitted to enter the gold fields. Two years later, the VOC appointed an accountant in Limboto with the duty to keep records of the proceeds.

Now that gold was being mined, all 'trampings and maraudings' in the gulf of Tomini would be counteracted. In 1730, the Company had, in a place named Ilo-lodoa at the mouth of the Gorontalo river, just a simple dwelling: a wooden lodge with storage. These structures were no match against pillaging by sea pirates. But the king of Gorontalo wanted the structures to remain as they were. Only in 1746 could an agreement be reached with the king of Gorontalo to build a stone fortification: Fort Nassauw.



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Fort Nassauw. Gorontalo. 1775.  
illustrated by Moll. J.A., a land  
surveyor.

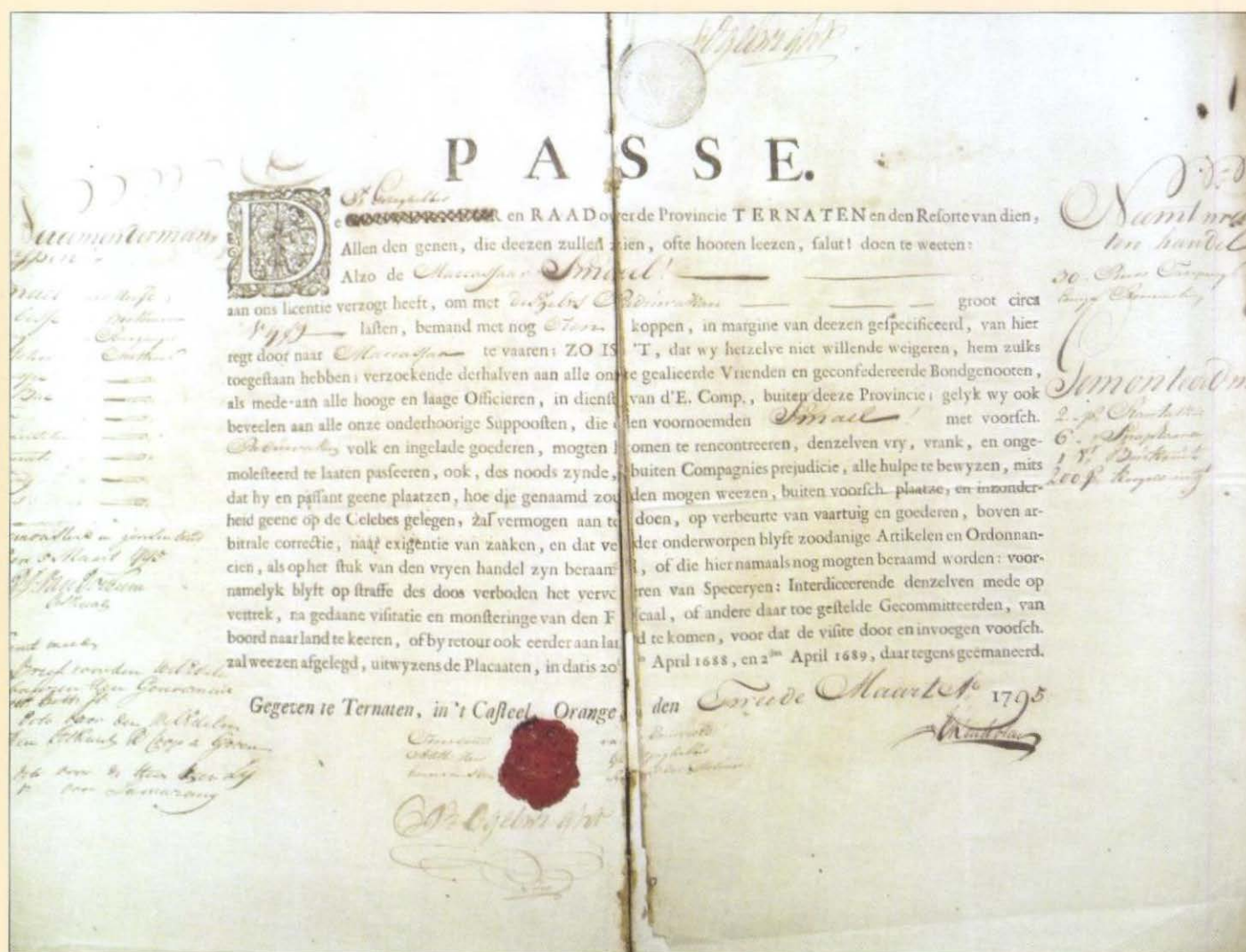
From that one small fort in Gorontalo, it was impossible for the VOC to dominate trade activities in the Gulf of Tomini. Gorontalo remained a key player in the area within the indigenous trade traffic where the Buginese were strongly represented. There was also a Buginese trader community in Gorontalo. In 1730 the Company's residents in Gorontalo and Limboto reported that the people of Lembo, Bega (Tomini) and Parigi had subjugated themselves under the Buginese. Those people became regarded as renegades by their legal ruler, the Sultan of Ternate. The governor of Makassar also failed in his attempts to oppose the Buginese-Makassarese trade activities. In the contract of 1730 with Gorontalo and Limboto, it was agreed to request that the VOC governor of Makassar fight the 'roaming' Makassarese subjects in the territory of the Moluccas, 'since those people are detrimental to the spice territories of the Company'. But the governor of Makassar also failed to control the maritime trade activities of the people of Sulawesi. The sea-faring people of places along the 'outer-bend' of Sulawesi and north east coast of Borneo intensively utilized several short land routes leading to the Gulf of Tomini. Berau on the north east coast of Kalimantan owed a great deal of its growth in the 18<sup>th</sup> century to the trade conducted along the land routes in North Sulawesi.

The Buginese, Makassarese and Mandarese often entered the Gulf of Tomini through these routes. The VOC had no objections to this, on the condition that the traders in Makassar obtained a permit bearing the VOC stamp. The permit stated that it was forbidden to trade in products of which the VOC had a trade monopoly, for example Indian textile.

These were the written permits issued by the VOC to indigenous traders, for ex-ample. With these permits, the indigenous traders were allowed to trade in certain products along certain routes. The indigenous traders who did not accept the monopoly would often sail without VOC permits or would use false or obsolete permits.

It was obvious that the kingdoms of Gorontalo and Limboto, located in the center of North Sulawesi, should be linked with the kingdoms of Parigi and Palu in the south. Such an alliance would cover the whole Gulf of Tomini. The kings of those two parties were, however, did not have a past of friendly terms with each other.





## **THE KING OF PARIGI REQUESTS A VOC FORT**

To derive benefit from the barter trade with the Company's commodities, it was in the Company's favor that the kings of Gorontalo and Limboto achieved peace with the king of Parigi in 1733-34, and actively participated in conducting patrols in the Tomini waters, with the objective to intercept Buginese ships and kill the crew. It was also fortunate that the amount of gold stuff collected for the Company in Gorontalo was already worth 700 reaal per annum in 1736. This meant that regular production was being established. To protect the gold trade, the Company allowed the kings of Gorontalo and Limboto to build stone fortifications.

In the meantime, gold was also discovered in the hills located several kilometers from Parigi. The king of Parigi was also willing to deliver a fixed yearly gold supply to the Company in exchange for military assistance. In 1743, the Supreme Government in Batavia approved the construction of a Company lodge at Parigi to accommodate eleven soldiers and one sergeant. The lodge was permitted to be built on the condition that the king and his nobility assisted in its construction and protection against the Mandarese and Buginese. In addition, the king had to make available 1,000 laborers to dig for gold. Such support would improve the sale of the Company's textiles and the purchase of gold.

In 1750, a number of the Company's officials visited Parigi once more after cruising the Gulf of Tomini with their ship in search of enemy vessels. The king of Parigi again declared that he needed the Company's assistance to fight against the pirates, especially the Manderese Daeng Manimbi who had settled himself at Ampibabo (north of Parigi). The officials requested him to come to Ternate at the first possible opportunity to sign a contract. In July the following year, Kaicili Majumba arrived from Parigi at Fort Oranje to lease the land of Parigi from the Company and to acknowledge the VOC as the feudal master.

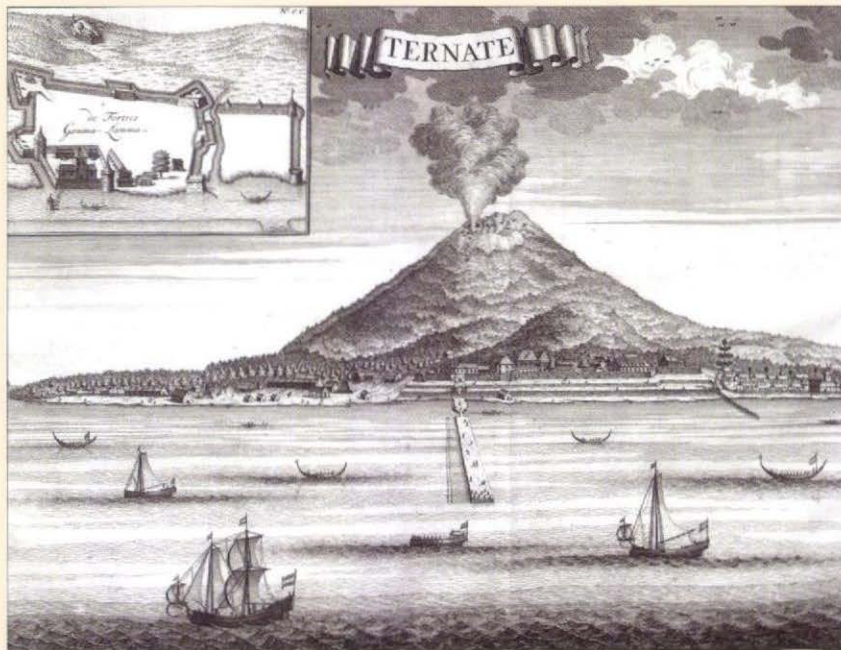
## **DIFFERENT CONSIDERATIONS: THE DUTCH WISHED TO LEAVE THE GULF**

During the 1770's, it became clear to the VOC governors and residents that the strategy of placing local garrisons in important trade places in combination with conducting sea patrols and the annual dispatching of delegates to several lodges did not lead to control of the gold trade and the increased sales of Indian textiles. It was impossible for the garrison to control local trade; the regular gold supply was not even sufficient to balance their expenditures. Local post commanders were even suspected of conducting trade themselves, or selling illegal weapons. The government's principle of maintaining power in the peripheral areas was more often abandoned.



In his 'consideration' of 1774, composed at the request of *Heren 17*, J.J. Craan pleaded to greatly reduce the number of posts and manpower in and around the Gulf of Tomini. The government of Ternate as a whole was financially a detrimental post, and this situation could only be improved by abolishing local military posts and implementing a better gold exploitation scheme in Minahasa. The Company hardly had any grip on the gold trade in the area.

The objection to abandon the important residence of Gorontalo was that it was not possible to retrieve the debts of the kings and nobility of Gorontalo, Limboto, Parigi and Bone which amounted to fl. 12,338 at the closing of the financial administration of 1771-1772. Two-thirds of the debt was accounted to the famous Radja Muhamad Alimudin Iskandar Monoarfa of Gorontalo (he was king in 1757-1776), who was not interested in paying it off. However, the question of whether there really was a debt was also doubtful. Perhaps King Monoarfa had not accepted the calculation made by the Company, as was often the case. He was known as one of the cleverest leaders in the area and managed to take the utmost advantage from his relationship with the VOC. Just like the king of Parigi, King Monoarfa exploited military protection from the local VOC garrison while making himself richer by trading the gold excavated from his hinterland to Indonesian traders, instead of delivering it to the VOC.



P. 207

View of Ternate's island with the fort Gamma Lamma. Illustration from François Valentine's *Old and New East Indies* in 1724 – 1726.

## THE COLLAPSE OF FORT AMSTERDAM AND FORT ORANJE

Whether the Company was finally able to collect the debt of the King of Parigi is in doubt. Several months later, on February 19, 1796, the government of Ambon fell to British hands, followed shortly by Banda. Ternate was, from a military point of view, completely isolated by the British and Nuku's navy and a year later also lost all authority over the peripheral area. On February 23, 1797, the British landed at Kema. Their ship, *The Resistance*, managed to dock at the quay using a diversion maneuver, hoisting Dutch flags and streamers in its mast. The British immediately confiscated *De Lassum*, the Company's *calang*. Afterwards, a British officer traveled by land to Manado to demand Fort Amsterdam, together with the whole Manado residence. Should the resident resist, then the officer would send 450 soldiers and a frigate to Manado. Although Resident G.F. Durr still bravely reported to Ternate that he would not surrender as long as saw no British army, it later turned out that the British officer had been staying in his house and the two gentlemen had emptied a goblet of wine in a friendly atmosphere. As soon as the British frigate *The Bombay* anchored at Manado on March 4, the Dutch flag was lowered and the British flag rose to the accompaniment of three cannon shots. Resident Durr had already taken steps to protect himself, which is why he capitulated by writing to Ternate that he had only 24 healthy men and one ready gunner to defend Fort Amsterdam. Durr also said that the cannons were in such bad condition that after the gunner discharged the cannonballs, the carriage would fall apart.

The troops of Ternate behaved much more bravely, which was also thanks to the military leadership of the one-eyed German captain-engineer Balthasar Fredrik Wilhelm Baron Von Lutzouw. He was able to resist the war *praus* of Nuku and the British ships until June 1801; on November 12 of that year, Nuku was inaugurated in Fort Oranje as Sultan of Tidore. With that, the long episode of Dutch interference in the Gulf of Tomini ended.





## Fort Kalamata

Ternate, 1540

### A Tribute to the Prince

P. 208

Fort Kalamata viewed from the east wall, with the verdurous Maitara and Tidore islands in the background.

*Standing on the yard of Fort Kalamata's main bastion, one gets a view of a marvelous natural scene. In front stretches the blue waters of Maitara Strait with Maitara Island in the distance, while further on you can see Mount Kiematubu on the island of Tidore, wrapped in white clouds. Located south east of Ternate Island, the position of Fort Kalamata is most strategic*

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The fort faces directly the Mollucas Sea, about 3.7 km south of Ternate's city center. The small Ternate Island of 250.85 square kilometers played a key role in various important events in East Indonesia, particularly during the 16<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> centuries.

Therefore, it is no wonder that in the last three centuries the fort had been a coveted object over which several European nations – the Portuguese, Spanish, English and Dutch – fought against and with each other, including the Sultanate of Tidore.

#### **MUDDLED NAMES**

The facade stone that had been put into the wall of Kalamata during the restoration mentioned a vanished fort. Kalamata was demolished in 1798 and in its place the current Fort Kayu Merah was built.





P 209

Southwest bastion with embrasures and an old well in the lower parade ground, facing Mount Gamalama. The fort wall and parade ground floor are made of andesite stones and corals.

Not only the name of Fort Kalamata creates confusion. There is also confusion as to when and by whom the fort was built. It could be the Portuguese, which means that it was built before the Portuguese left Ternate in 1575. Another possibility is that the Dutch built the fort in 1609 as a border post between the Dutch and Spanish territories in Ternate.

In 1605 the Spanish conquered Ternate. The Dutch landed in 1607 on the island but failed to drive away the Spanish from the southwestern part. The Spanish also failed to prevent the Dutch from taking Fort Oranje, resulting in the island being divided into two opposing areas separated by border forts. Once in a while fighting broke and a fort was attacked. In 1627 the Dutch abandoned the fort, which was immediately taken over and utilized by the Spanish garrison of 80 soldiers, several "*papangers*" (Filipino soldiers) and 12 cannons.

Spain and the Netherlands signed a peace treaty in 1648, thus ending the border wars in Ternate. In 1663 the Spanish decided to abolish their settlements in the Moluccas and return to Manila, so they demolished the fort. The Dutch reclaimed, and after repairing the damage, named it

Kalamata after the Prince of Ternate, a brother of Sultan Mandarsjah and an uncle of Sultan Kaicil Sibori Amsterdam. Nothing much is known about the fort during the 18<sup>th</sup> century.



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P. 210  
Fort Kalamata at Ternate, North Maluku, a small island between Sulawesi and Halmahera with an important role in East Indonesian history. From the fort, we can see Maitara Island, while Tidore Island with Mount Kiematubu shrouded in white clouds are visible in the back.

During the Fourth British War (1780-1784) the VOC suffered considerable financial losses and, for the first time since its establishment, had to turn to the Staten-Generaal for financial aid. The assistance also included sending a Military State Commission to inspect VOC forts in Asia and give advice concerning the necessary repair works to be done. During the visit of the commission to Ternate in 1790, it was proposed to completely demolish Fort Kalamata and build the new Fort Kayu Merah on the same location. Land surveyor Carl Friedrich Reimer designed the new fort.

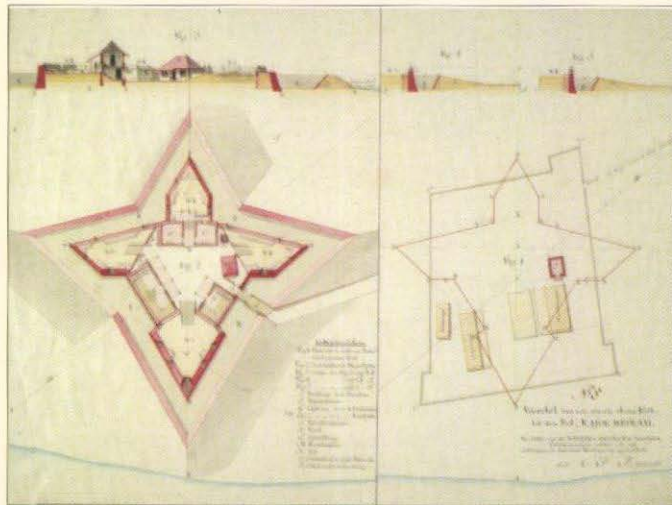
The plans for construction of the new fort remained shelved for several years. In 1795 a change of power took place in the Netherlands, when invading French Revolution forces transformed the Republic of the United Provinces into the Republic of Bataaf, and the country became an ally of France at war against England. The Moluccas were proclaimed to be in a state of defense, Kalamata was demolished and the new Fort Kayu Merah was built (1799-1800). About 100,000 mantraps were installed in the double ditches, meant to make an attack from land impossible. On February 10, 1801 six British ships arrived in Ternate's shore under the command of John Hayes, meeting with Governor Willem Jacob Cranssen's refusal to surrender the Moluccas. The British



## CARL FRIEDRICH REIMER (UNKNOWN -1796)

Carl Friedrich Reimer was born in Königsberg (Kaliningrad, East Prussia), date of birth unknown. It is known that he entered the service of the VOC in 1767, where he worked for some time as a surgeon, then from 1777 he was classified as an engineer employed by the VOC, first in Ceylon (Sri Lanka) and later in Batavia. During his last years there, he was also appointed as "Director of the fortifications". Between 1790 and 1792 he made an inspection trip along VOC factories. In his reports to Governor-

General W.A. Alting, Reimer expressed his interest in Hindu monuments that he visited on his travels. Three watercolors by Reimer are known to be in the Print Room's possession



P. 211  
Drawing plan of Kayu Merah,  
by C.F. Reimer.

landed on Ternate but could only attack Fort Oranje after taking Fort Kayu Merah. Without giving any resistance, the commander surrendered the fort to the British, together with a garrison of two young lieutenants (*vaandrig*), 192 soldiers and 28 cannons. Upon hearing about the betraying surrender of Kayu Merah, Governor Cranssen made a personal reconnaissance inspection. When he saw no movement through his spy-glass, he ordered the Dutch flag to be raised and to fire their weapons, and the British immediately fired back. The most important obstacle toward Fort Oranje was removed, but it was only on June 21 that Governor Cranssen surrendered. At the Peace of Amiens in 1802 the British returned the Moluccas to the Dutch and the following year war broke out again between the two nations.

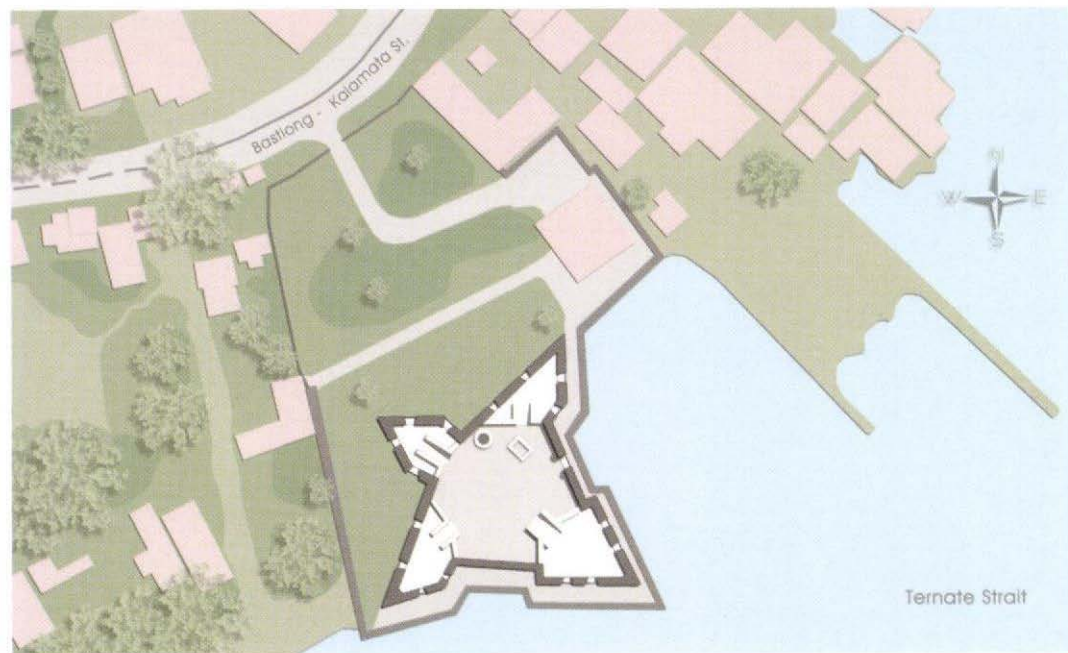
P 212

Fort Kalamata in the 1920's, a bastion corner (left). There are several buildings inside the fort: presently they are all in ruins (right).



P 213

The existing plan view of Fort Kalamata: Triangular shape with four arrow bastions. Each bastion has high platforms complete with stairs or ramps. The gate at the north-east side and a well at the north corner (joint of two bastions).



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In August 1810 the British frigate Dover docked in front of Oranje and an envoy was sent to demand the Dutch to surrender. The governor refused. In the early morning of August 28, 80 British troops landed on Ternate to attack Kayu Merah. This time they did not approach the fort from the high lands but from across the beach. At 10 o'clock in the evening, they were spotted



by the guard who stood outside the fort and he sounded the alarm. The British stormed the fort and managed to climb over the wall with the help of ladders. A number of defenders were killed or managed to escape, while the commander and 68 soldiers surrendered. On the English side there were 3 killed and 16 wounded. After being returned to the Dutch, the fort was again taken in 1817. In 1834 Kayu Merah was removed out from the list of fortifications. In 1995 the ruins were completely restored.

### **A TRIANGULAR FORT WITH FOUR BASTIONS**

Unlike most Dutch forts, Fort Kalamata has a round wall which is not very thick. It is a triangular structure but it has four bastions located diagonally in the four points of the compass. In each arrow-head shaped bastion are several embrasures. The central platform is lower than the bastion's platform, and ramps were built leading to each bastion.



P. 214

The main gate of Kalamata

Inside of the fort, there are remnants of foundations for several buildings that have presently disappeared; in the north side, however, there is still an old well.

The fort wall is about 60 cm thick and 3 meters high; the wall was made by building a wide foundation upon which andesite stones, corals and sand are mixed with lime and coral reefs. With this type of construction, the lower part of the wall protrudes outward. This type of foundation is meant to support the load of the whole wall. Encircling the fort is a path with a low fence of 30 cm, made of the same material.

### **NORTH MALUKU ISLANDS**

It is fairly easy to visit Fort Kalamata. From Ternate city center just follow Bastiong Kalamata Street, the main highway in Ternate island. It only takes a day to travel around the island of Ternate. As the capital city of the province, Ternate is surrounded with scattered small islands that show a tradition of maritime life.

About 1 kilometer from the fort, towards the 50 meter high top of the hill stands Fort Kota Janji, also known as Fort Santo Pedro. It was built by the Portuguese in 1530. From the top of the hill one can see the islands of Ternate, Maitara and Tidore – asserting that Indonesia is indeed an immense archipelago.







DVRSTEDE

OORVONDERDE  
VAN DE  
VAN DE  
DOOR DE  
DOOR DE

1611

## Fort Nieuw Victoria & Duurstude

Ambon, 1580 | Saparua, 1691

### The Battles of Kapitan Pattimura

P 216

A neo-classical style fort, with a tympanum at the crown. Arched door flanked by two pilasters and Tuscan columns.

*In the annals of Indonesian history, the name of Pattimura stands out among the national heroes from the Moluccas. He was born Thomas Matulesy within the royal family of Sahulau who originally came from the southern bay area of Seram Island. His place of birth was Hualoy in South Seram where he first saw the light of life on June 8, 1783 and he perished in Ambon on December 16, 1817.*

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He first joined the British military and climbed to the rank of sergeant before he was nominated by the people of Saparua to lead their resistance against the Dutch and was given the title Kapitan Pattimura. The people of Saparua were discontent when the Dutch reoccupied the Moluccas after the British left the islands. Pattimura led the people's struggle by launching an attack against Fort Duurstede, the symbol of Dutch power.

Since the 17<sup>th</sup> century the Moluccas had been well-known as the world's main producer of spices, ushering many nations into the race to control the area. Through their trading company VOC, the Dutch eventually managed to occupy the Moluccas and dominate the spice trade. However, Dutch authority was seized by the British at the beginning of the 19th century, but was subsequently returned. It was the period after the return of Dutch power over the Moluccas by the British that became the background of the heroic battles carried out by Kapitan Pattimura.



Due to the strategic location of the Moluccas, since the establishment of its trading company VOC the Dutch had made Ambon its center of authority and power by building Fort Nieuw Victoria which was made into the headquarters of power. Other smaller forts were eventually also built on the surrounding islands, designated as fortification posts as well as centers of spice collection. One of those forts was Fort Duurstede on Saparua Island, a small island east of Ambon Island and the producer of nutmeg, cloves and sago. From this small island, Pattimura's fierce struggle was launched by attacking Fort Duurstede until he was eventually captured and sentenced to death in Fort Nieuw Victoria.



P. 217

Image of Ambon with Fort Nieuw Victoria at the left side, painted by François Valentyn, in "Beschryving van Amboina" (Description of Ambon), published in 1726



P. 218

The north view of the fort facing the field for public space.

## THE PATTIMURA WAR

For the inhabitants the British interim rule was much better than the Dutch rule with the heavy duties and the extortion regents. Therefore, they were not very happy when the island was returned to the Dutch. Moreover, the new Dutch rulers managed to become even more unpopular by issuing undiplomatic orders and demanding supplies for which they did not pay. Through diplomatic steps several Dutch regents were able to calm down the resentment in the islands but failed to do so in Saparua, where resident Jan Rudolf Van den Berg further intensified the distrust among the local inhabitants by untactful and hard actions.

### PATTIMURA COMMEMORATION DAY

May 15 is commemorated as the National Pattimura Day by all Moluccan people throughout the whole of Indonesia and even around the world. May 15, 1817 was the last day of Pattimura's battle before he was executed by the Dutch. The Moluccas people, especially those in Ambon and Saparua islands, commemorate the day by holding a traditional ritual that involves all the young generation living in the islands.

On the afternoon of May 14 around 3 pm the Pattimura Torch is lit in Mount Saniri located on Saparua Island, which was famous for its cloves and nutmeg. The mountain was the place where Pattimura (Thomas Mattulessy) assembled his followers before launching the attack against the Dutch in Ambon Island on the following day in 1817. The torch is then marched in a procession along the villages where Pattimura fought his battles. All the village youth are ordered to assemble at the village entrance to await the torch which is then passed on through all the villages. Five youths are assigned to escort the torch while the rest follow by performing the Moluccan ritual war dance, Cakalele. During the process, the torch is also taken through Fort Duurstede, the site where the fierce battle took place between Pattimura against the Dutch soldiers. At around midnight East Indonesia time the torch must arrive at Ambon Island from where it is passed on by Ambonese

youth along about 10 villages, with the procession ending at Fort Victoria in the center of Ambon city, the place where Pattimura was executed.



P. 219

Kapitan Pattimura was inaugurated as a National Hero by the Government of Indonesia, and is immortalized by having his portrait printed in the one thousand rupiah note.



In the beginning of May 1817 a number of men assembled in the settlement of Haria in Saparua to discuss the rumor that the Company was going to exert pressure on them to enlist as soldiers in Batavia. During the assembly, Sergeant Major Thomas Matulesy became the leader of the opposition. On May 15, Resident Van den Berg himself went to Haria and received an unfriendly welcome. The resident sent a short note to Fort Duurstede, requesting for 12 soldiers to be sent to assist him. On their way the soldiers were ambushed and had to return. The resident was nevertheless brought back to Fort Duurstede, occupied by the scribe Ornek, a garrison of five European and twelve indigenous soldiers and a number of civilians, in addition to the resident and his family.

In the early hours of May 16, 1817 the fort was attacked, and the attackers climbed over the wall using ladders. There was no resistance. Almost everybody was eventually murdered. Only the eldest son of the resident, Jan Lubbert van den Berg, survived the massacre because a maid protected the wounded child.

News about the fierce resistance reached the governor in Ambon two days later and a military expedition was immediately sent and landed on May 20 on the beach of Saparua and stormed towards Fort Duurstede. On their way, the 177 soldiers were put under heavy fire, forcing them to return. During the evacuation, panic broke out. Around thirty men managed to escape while the others were killed or drowned in the sea. The wave of resistance spread to Haruku and Hitu.

Between July and September there was a deadlock. The attackers failed to conquer the Dutch fortifications on the other islands. The garrison and marine soldiers in the Moluccas succeeded in restraining the resistance but were unable to eradicate it. Negotiations were conducted but an agreement could not be reached. On August 3 a warship fired at Fort Duurstede and 120 soldiers then took over the unprotected fort. The fort was in the hands of the Dutch but there was insufficient manpower, ammunition and foodstuffs. The well was located outside the fort and those who dared to go outside to take water were immediately shot or fell into several traps laid by the opponents. In the beginning of September support soldiers managed to reach the fort. The garrison then made several attacks but failed to obtain tangible success.

On September 30 the warships and further assistance from Batavia arrived at Ambon. After defeating the revolt in Haruku, the fleet anchored in front of Saparua on November 7. During the following four days, all the fortifications were attacked and fired at from the sea, and from the land troops stormed Fort Duurstede and one by one all the combatants were conquered. Thomas Matulesy was taken prisoner on

November 11, the inhabitants surrendered and the young son of Van den Berg was returned to the island. During the following weeks, the waves of insurgencies in the other islands were concluded either through negotiations or by force. In December, fourteen men, among them Thomas Matulessy, were sentenced to death because of their involvement in the revolt.

Pattimura's resistance and battles, commencing with the attack on Fort Duurstede in Ambon and ending in his being sentenced to death in Fort Nieuw Victoria in Ambon, happened almost 200 years ago but is still being commemorated. The heroic saga has transformed the two forts into sources and backgrounds of the same historical narrative.

### FORT DUURSTUDE

The small island of Saparua in the Moluccas Province is accessible by boat from Ambon city in about 2 to 3 hours. As part of the Lease islands with Haruku Island and Nusa Laut Island, Saparua Island has a magnificent natural panorama with its white sandy beaches and blue sea. From the 16th to the 19th century, it was one of several islands in the area that greatly attracted Europeans to come for the cloves and nutmeg that grew in abundance.

P. 220  
Left: Corner turrets in Fort  
Duurstede facing the Saparua  
bay (1920).

P. 221  
Right: The main gate of  
Duurstede in 1920.

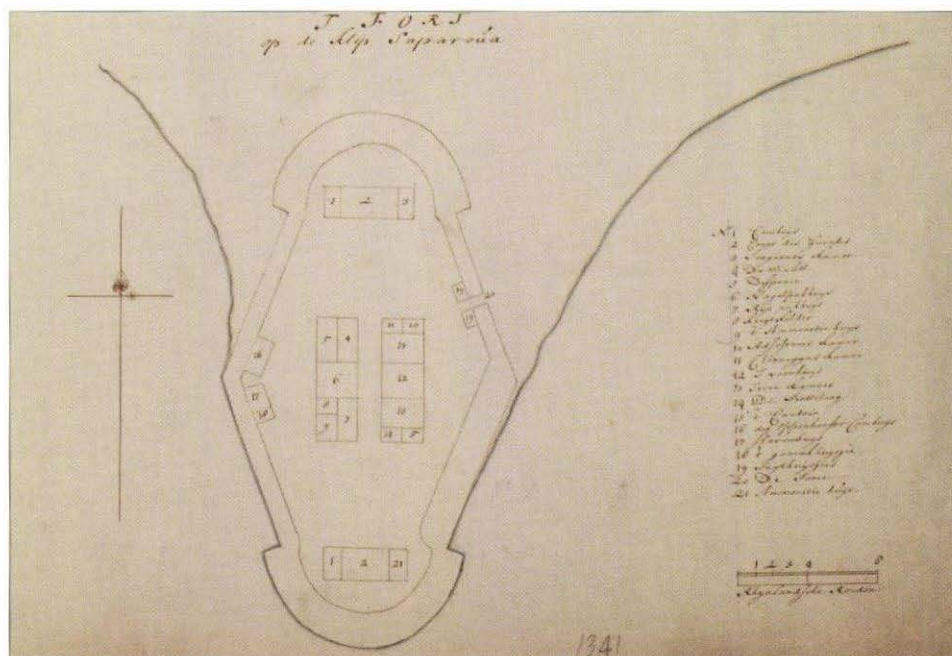






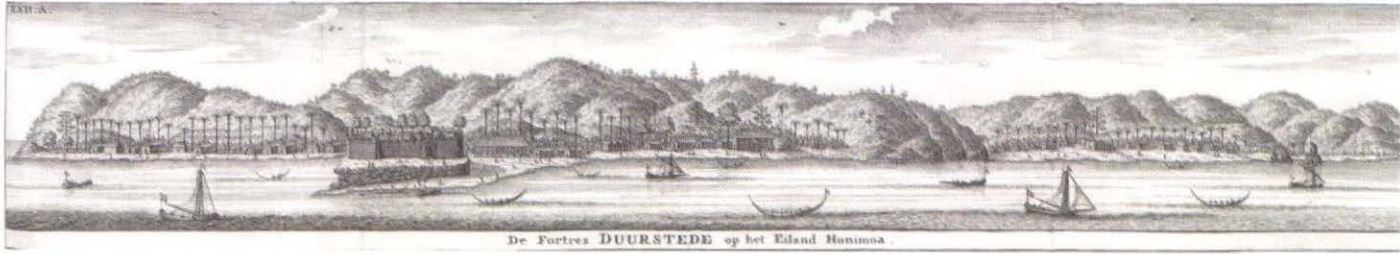
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Below: Lithograph of Fort Duurstede in 1845. Painted by: Charles William Meredith van de Velde



P 223

Ground plan of Fort in Saparua with notes on the allocation of buildings inside the fort. Valentijn (1724) mentions that it had been designed and built by a certain Corie. The legend with the ground plan below right gives an accurate picture of the original inner structure. Besides a clove warehouse (6) – above all, Saparua was of importance for its production of cloves – and a rice warehouse (7), there were a Corps de Garde (guardhouse; 2), the sergeant's room (3), the powder cellar (8), two arsenals (9, 21), a room for assistants (10), a surgeon's room (11), the main hall and another two rooms (12, 13), the bottle store (14), the office (15), the kitchen of the Chief Factor (16), and the slave quarters (17).



P 224  
Drawing and Ground Plan of  
Fort Duurstede, painted by  
François Valentyn, 1726

Approximately one kilometer south east of Saparua city center stands Fort Duurstede on the top of a coral hill, some five meters from the sea surface, providing visitors standing on the south side of the fort with a breathtaking view of the sea and Saparua Bay. Stretching from south to north along the coast, the fort is a most strategic defense structure, particularly in terms of keeping a watchful eye on the sea traffic. From the military point of view, its location allows sufficient surveillance on all the activities of the local people and the movement of ships passing along Saparua Bay.

## REVOLT IN THE MOLUCCAS

In 1626 the VOC built the small and simple Fort Hollandia in Siri Sori on the island of Saparua (Honimoo). In 1669 the fort was improved but in 1690 was in such a dilapidated condition, requiring immediate drastic repairs.

The governor of Ambon, Nicolaes Schagen, decided not to repair Hollandia but instead ordered building master Corle to construct a new fort. It was decided to build it on a rock in the large Saparua village, located west of Siri Sori. The shape of the rock determined the shape of the fort: a diamond shape of around 40 x 200 meters with bastions and ten gun ports on the sharp corners, while on the blunt corners were built small turrets for the guards. The walls were about 3.50 meters high and 3.60 meters thick. There were 24 stairs leading to the gate.

The officials in Batavia were not too happy with the shape of the fort, but when the new governor Bayonville visited the place, not many alterations could be made as the fort was almost entirely completed. Bad communication also caused officials in Batavia to belatedly discover in 1689 that the inhabitants of Honimoo and Nusalaut used to chop off the protruding pieces of the rock to create a passable climb. Their habit took place for 20 years before they were ordered to immediately stop it.



The soldiers moved from the old Fort Hollandia to the new Fort Duurstede in 1692. The garrison in the new fort comprised of 40 soldiers under the command of a sergeant. There were no exceptional events during the 18<sup>th</sup> century in Saparua. Following the occupation of Ambon in 1796, the island came under British control without a single shot being fired. In 1803 the British returned the island to the Dutch, but the following year war between the two nations erupted again, and in 1810 the British again took control of the island and only returned it together with the entire Moluccas to the Dutch in 1817.

## A DIAMOND-SHAPED FORT

The fort is an elongated diamond-shaped structure with a surface area of 3,970 sq. m. In the north west and south east corners are some kind of bastion structures in the shape of half circles, each provided with embrasures. Old cannons are still found at some of the embrasures.

Turrets are found in the north east and south west sides. Entrance into the fort is through a small gate in the north east, with 24 steps made of stone. Above the gate is chiseled the name of the person who ordered the building of the fort and the year of construction: Ambon Governor, Mr. Nicolaes Schagen, 1691. The fort was made of coral layers with a wall of about 3.4 meters high. Upon the wall is a patrol path (rampart) used by soldiers to keep watch on the surrounding area

P. 225

Left: Cylindrical turret in the west corner keeps watch on Saparua Bay. There is a narrow arched door and a half dome roof with finial on its dome

P. 226

Right: Inside the fort, the parade ground shows the ruins of building's foundation









## FORT NIEUW VICTORIA – WHERE IT ALL BEGAN

Ambon, a seaside city that is now the capital of the Moluccas Province, has been well-known for centuries. The spices, which were its most precious trade commodity, lured western nations. Besides searching for direct access to the spices' place of origin, they also had the strong desire to control and monopolize their trade. In 1580 the Portuguese built a simple fort, named Nossa Senhora da Annunciada on the west coast of the southern peninsula of Leitinum. The Dutch, who arrived later, endeavored to seize the fort in 1600; however, their efforts failed. Then the Dutch East Indies Company, VOC, built a small defense post on the north coast of Hitu and named it Kasteel Van Verre. The VOC finally succeeded in conquering the Portuguese fort on February 25, 1605 with an army under the command of Steven van der Haghen, although at the time the fort was guarded by less than 60 soldiers. The VOC then changed the name to Victoria (meaning "victory" as it was quite easy to seize it). The local people, on the other hand, were more familiar with the name of "Kota Laha" (meaning, the fort at Laha Bay).

This Fort was the seat of the first Dutch territory in the Indies, the Government of Amboina; the first to hold the position of governor was Frederik de Houtman (1605-1611). For the next few years after 1605, Victoria Castle served as the general administrative center for the VOC in Asia before Fort Oranje in Ternate.

P. 229

Old cannons lurk through the embrasure, aiming at Saparua Bay.

P. 230

The young generation prepares to celebrate the independence day of Indonesia.



During the reign of Governor Bernardus van Pleuren in 1775-1785, considerable repair work were conducted that changed the fort's appearance and the fort was then named "Nieuw (New) Victoria"

Close to the fort, which was repeatedly expanded and modernized, a considerable residential town grew within a few decades. By the end of the 17th century this had also been fortified with walls and moats. In 1683 there were 770 Europeans living in the town, including the garrison; the number of Company officials in the whole Government of Amboina added up to 1070 people in the period of 1726-1730. After 1656 the Company maintained a force of around 600 soldiers in the Ambon Islands, half of whom were billeted in Victoria Castle; the other half were spread across 18 smaller strongholds. Together with the other islands in the government, between 1796 and 1802, and again from 1810 to 1817, Ambon came into English hands.



Afterwards, the fort was again under the Dutch following the official handover from the British on March 25, 1817. After being the center of colonial power in the Moluccas for more than 300 years, the fort was occupied by the Japanese in World War II.

The Japanese also utilized the fort as the head office of its administration while in the area around the fort a military compound was built to house Dutch prisoners of war.

On November 3, 1950 Lieutenant Colonel Slamet Riyadi from the United Indonesian armed forces was killed during a close-distance attack to seize the fort, but his army succeeded in taking the city of Ambon. It happened when military clashes broke out in Eastern Indonesia in April 1950

The fort is located along the coast of Honipopo in Ambon Bay, where many ships used to take cover avoiding strong winds. Initially, the fort was a square structure encircled by a ditch; the walls were made of natural and lime stones with four attractive bastions, strengthened by compacted soil. Between the two bastions along the sea side is a two-story dwelling where the head trader lived on the upper floor, and the



P 232

Fort Nieuw Victoria: the side facing the sea with the cannon-flanked entrance gate (1930)



P. 233

Left: The gate facing the land of Fort Nieuw Victoria. The shape of the gate has now been altered (1920)



P. 234

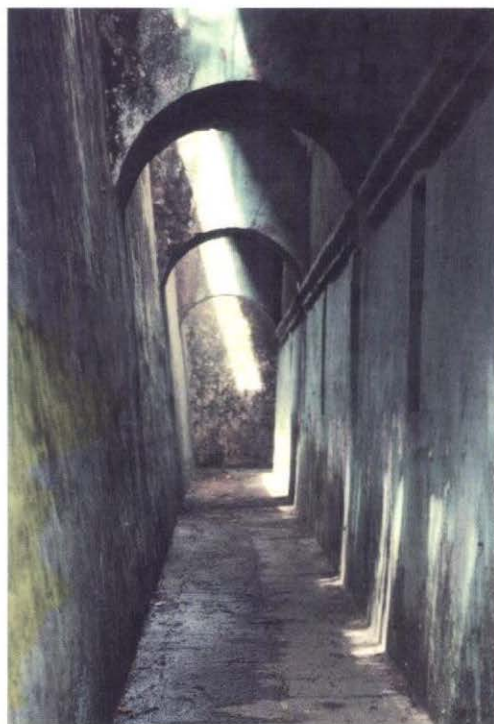
Right: The ammunition warehouse (1934-1935)...

ground floor was used to store trade commodities as well as provisions for the people living in the fort, such as rice, meat, oil, etc.

In time, the fort became an irregular polygonal structure with a bastion in each corner. The 5-meter high walls were made of bricks and stones. There are two main gates, one facing the sea and one facing the land. Inside the fort are a number of related buildings used as barracks, armory storage, ammunition storage, dwellings of the officers and more.

Facing straight toward the sea as if protecting the city of Ambon, what now remains of the fort is part of its irregular polygonal walls and several bastions. The main gate facing the sea is still intact and two related buildings, utilized as armory and sentry post, are also still standing. Several coats of arms of important cities in Holland such as Amsterdam, Hoorn and Enkhuizen can still be seen on several parts of the walls, as well as a number of plaques. Currently the fort is utilized as the Headquarters of the Indonesian Regional Military Command XVI (KODAM) Pattimura. Inside the fort walls there are barracks, armory, offices, dwellings and more.





P. 235  
Remains of the fort wall seen  
from inside the fort

P. 236  
Part of the remaining fort wall  
with its alley

P. 237  
The fort's gate has a plaque with  
1775 on it, marking the year  
when the fort was restored and  
greatly enlarged, completely  
changing the original shape.  
Following the completion of  
the restoration, the fort was  
renamed Nieuw Victoria.

P. 238  
Life around the fort



P 239

The polygonal shape of the fort with five remaining bastions.



P 240

Left: A plaque on the wall stating the construction of two sentry posts during the time of Governor General Reynier de Klerk and Ambon Governor Bernardus van Pleuren. The construction was supervised by Military Captain Lieutenant G.N. van Guericke in 1778 and 1779.



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Right: Plaque on the wall stating that ammunition storage was built by the engineer Hans Erns von Wagner, during the time of Governor General Petrus Albertus van der Parra and Ambon Governor Joan Abraham van der Voort in 1770.









## Fort Oranje

Ternate, 1607

# Spice Rivalries between the Dutch and Spanish

P 242

The main gate facing the sea,  
decorated by an ornament  
resembling a crown.

*Long before the Europeans arrived in the Moluccas, the abundance of spices in Ternate was already the talk of people throughout the world. The first arrival of the Spanish in Ternate at the beginning of the sixteenth century, proved influential in opening direct spice trade route to Europe, putting Ternate in the center of attention among other European nations. In quick succession, the Portuguese, English and Dutch followed the Spanish and they competed among each other to control the lucrative spice trade.*

The great desire of those European nations to control and conquer Ternate was met with severe resistance from the local people and kings; namely the two great sultanates of Ternate and Tidore which had existed since the 14th century. The two neighboring kingdoms, which had been engaged in intense competition with each other since their inceptions, took advantage of the Europeans' arrival in their respective bids to defeat the other. This explains why there is an abundance of ruins of forts scattered in the relatively small islands. One of them, located in Ternate, is Fort Oranje which is at present the largest intact fort in Ternate.

In 1606 the Spanish launched an attack originating from the Philippines on the Moluccas and conquered the territory. Sultan Said of Ternate and his family were taken as prisoners and transported to Manila. From Halmahera, an envoy was sent to Banten requesting the assistance of the VOC.

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## CORNELIS MATELIEFF DE JONGE 1569-1632

Cornelis Matelieff de Jonge (c. 1569-October 17, 1632) was a Dutch admiral who was active in establishing Dutch power in Southeast Asia during the beginning of the 17th century (1606). His fleet was officially on a trading mission, but its true intent was to destroy Portuguese power in the area. Matelieff did not succeed in this mission, in spite of commandeering a fleet with 1400 men on board, including 600 soldiers. The Dutch would ultimately gain control of Malacca more than thirty years later, against joining forces with the Sultanate of Johor, and its new ally Aceh, in 1641. Matelieff died in his birthplace of Rotterdam.



P. 243

Portrait of Cornelis Matelieff de Jonge, painted circa 1700 by Pieter van der Werff

## PIETER BOTH 1550-1615

Pieter Both (1568, Amersfoort – 6 March 1615, Mauritius) was the first Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies. Not much is known of his early years. In 1599 Both was already an admiral in the Brabant Company and traveled to the East Indies with four ships in the same year. When the newly established Dutch East India Company set up a government for the Dutch East Indies, Pieter Both was invited to become the Governor-General and held that position from 19 December 1610 to 6 November 1614. During that period, he concluded contracts with the Moluccans, conquered Timor, and drove the Spanish out of Tidore. After he relinquished his position as Governor-General to Gerard Reynst, he left for the Netherlands with four ships. Two of the ships were shipwrecked near Mauritius, and Pieter Both drowned.



P. 244

Portrait of Pieter Both, painted circa 1750-1800 by Anonymous

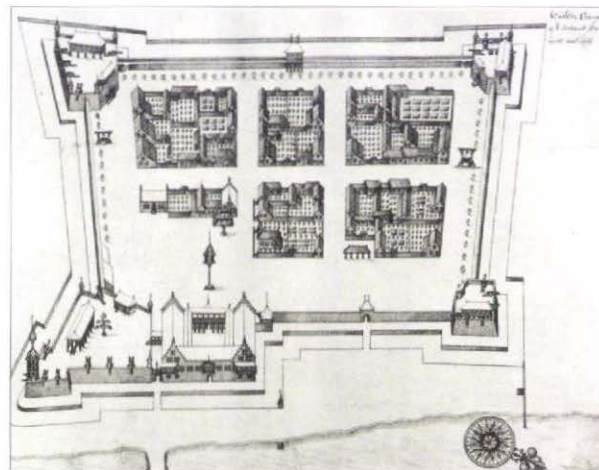
Under the command of Admiral Cornelis Matelieff de Jonge, in 1607 the Dutch endeavored to drive away the Spanish from the island, but to no avail. When they saw that they had failed, they built a fort on the east coast of the island, following the advice of the islanders. It was situated at the Malayu settlement, on the location of former Portuguese fort. Following the departure of the admiral, a garrison of 45 men was stationed at Fort Malayu. The Spanish attacked the unfinished fort with 250 men but were driven back. The fort was further completed and became a rectangular structure with four bastions. In 1609 the name was changed into Castle Oranje; it was encircled by a palisade which was replaced in 1634 by a ditch.

From 1611 until its move to Batavia in 1619, the center of the VOC administration in Asia was in Castle Oranje in Ternate. During their visits to the Moluccas, the governor generals Pieter Both, Gerrit Reijnst, Laurens Reaal and Jan Pieterszoon Coen stayed in the castle. After 1619 it became the seat of the governor of the Moluccas.

Because of the war against Spain, the island of Ternate was divided into two belligerent areas. Once a while a border fort in one area was attacked and occupied by the other area, and the reverse would occur. Then the front line stabilized and the most important forts, the Spanish Gamma Lama and the Dutch Oranje, were no longer seriously threatened. In 1648 the Netherlands and Spain signed a peace agreement which ended the war around the Moluccas. Without success, the VOC endeavored to buy out the Spanish, but eventually accepted the deal stipulating that the Spanish would take a small part of the nutmeg produce. This situation continued until 1663, then the Spanish, on orders from Manila, abandoned their forts in the Moluccas and withdrew to the Philippines.

P 245

Fort Oranje resembled a complete town encircled by a high wall. Inside was a church, officer houses, barracks, ammunition storage and quarters for the authorities. The plan view image was taken from the book *Nederlandsche Oudheden in de Moluccas* by V.I. van de Wall.





Plans were then drawn to reduce the large and expensive Fort Oranje but were never implemented; most probably because, the governor's house was demolished soon after the peace of 1648. A floor plan from 1664 shows an empty space on the site of the governor's house. During this period the sea bastion which housed several offices, including the commander's quarters, was adjusted accordingly.

In the 18<sup>th</sup> century Ternate was not damaged by earthquakes and other serious natural disasters. Nevertheless, new construction activities were undertaken in 1757 which were most probably necessary because of the structure's deteriorated condition. During those years the current water gate with its guardhouse, the ammunition storage, the barrack in the Big Sea bastion and the commander's house were built. In 1791 the Military State Commission made an inspection tour of the fortification structures in the Moluccas. The members proposed a number of improvements for Fort Oranje. Engineer C.F. Reimer made two designs for the improvement of the fort but the plans were never executed.

In 1795 the French revolutionary army occupied The Netherlands. As an ally of France, the new Batavian Republic became involved in the war against the British.

On February 10, 1801 a British fleet of six ships arrived at Ternate. The commander, John Hayes, demanded the surrender of the island but Governor Willem Jacob Cranssen refused. The siege of Castle Oranje ended five months later when several members of the Ternate Board took the governor as their prisoner since they were more anxious about the safety of their possessions and because of their displeasure at the situation. They surrendered on June 21, 1801. The Moluccas islands were returned to the Netherlands with the Treaty of Amiens in 1802, but the following year, war broke out again.

In August 1810, the British frigate *Dover* docked in front of Castle Oranje and an emissary was sent demanding the surrender of the island. However, the governor refused. The British landed at Kayu Merah and took over the fort. The frigate then shot at Fort Oranje, from whence responding shots were fired. The governor, Colonel J.P. Mitzman had a garrison of 150 Europeans, 350 Menadonese and 92 cannons. However, a potential mutiny reared its head among the Menadonese because the governor had sentenced two of them to death after they had lodged complaints about the bad food. Hence, Mitzman decided to capitulate, which brought the whole northern part of the Moluccas under British rule. Upon arriving at Batavia, Mitzman was sentenced to death though it was never carried out.

The second British occupation ended and the Dutch returned in 1817. An inspection report of that time mentioned that there were plans to provide Fort Oranje with a garrison of 250 infantrymen and 40 artillerymen but such numbers were never achieved. The 19th century was a time of decline and decay for the Moluccas.



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P 246

Left-above: The main gate with bell tower (1890)

P 247

Right-above: A guard house next to the entry gate with the stairs leading to ramparts (1920)

P 248

The current plan view of Fort Oranje. It has a trapezium structure with arrow-shaped bastions in each corner. The west wall collapsed and was demolished in 1916





Although the city of Ternate was shaken several times by heavy earthquakes during the 19th century, the strong fort did not suffer too much damage. In the years 1870-1874 several reconstructions were done. Apparently, all gun-ports were plastered up and a big storehouse was built, which still exists today. Around 1916 the west wall on the landside and part of the adjacent bastions were demolished. Fort Oranje is a trapezium structure with arrow-shaped bastions in each corner and three cannons in each bastion. The fort has a wall made of natural stones and coral stones stuck together using kalero (a type of lime). The main gate faces the sea and is decorated by an ornament resembling a crown. The wall has two layers; the outer wall is about one meter thick and the inner wall about 75 cm thick. The encircling wall is 5 meters high, covering and protecting a number of buildings and a large open field inside the fort. On the upper part of the wall is a patrol path which connects the four bastions. Initially, Fort Oranje was like a complete town encircled by a high wall; inside was a church, officer houses, barracks, arms storage and quarters for the authorities. The fort is located in the crowded center of Ternate city, and around it are the city's trade and commercial areas.

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The buildings inside Fort Oranje were then utilized by the military, the police and the municipality of Ternate for the agency office. The majority of its inhabitants had moved out to other places and more buildings were converted into dwelling places. Since 1998 several plans were made for the restoration of the fort but the process only began in 2009. As part of the restoration, the ungainly additional structures and the heaps of waste against the fort's wall were removed. The plan is to turn the fort into a museum of spices.

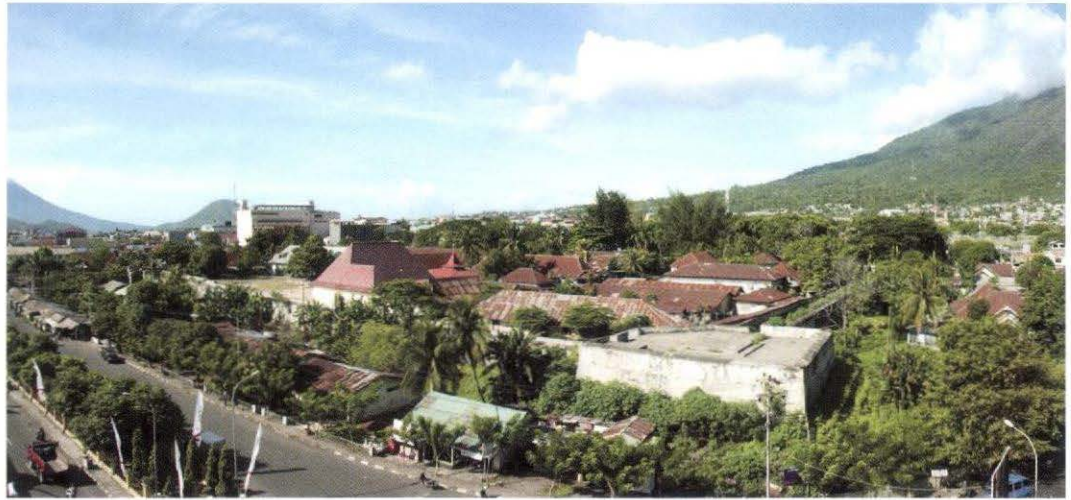
P 249

A typical simple barrack house with rows of windows and doors and a hippeo roof. One of the surviving heritage buildings inside the fort.



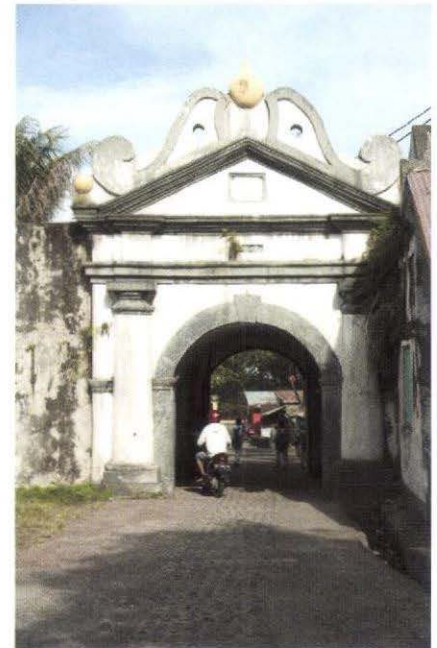
P. 250

Fort Oranje in Ternate's urban landscape surrounded with new buildings and dwellings converge with the landscape of Mount Gamalama at the western part.



P. 251

Left: The daily lives inside the Fort Oranje



P. 252

Right: The main gate







## Fort Nassau & Belgica

Neira, 1600 | 1611

# The Guardian of Banda's Spice Monopoly

P. 253

Main gate of Fort Belgica showing the tympanum and pilaster of Neo Classic style.

*Banda Neira, a small island belonging to the Banda Islands in the Province of Central Moluccas, has been well-known for many centuries. Since the 10th century Chinese traders had been doing their business in Banda, followed by the Arabs, long before the Europeans discovered Banda. At the time, nutmeg and mace had been the most valuable trade commodities of the island.*

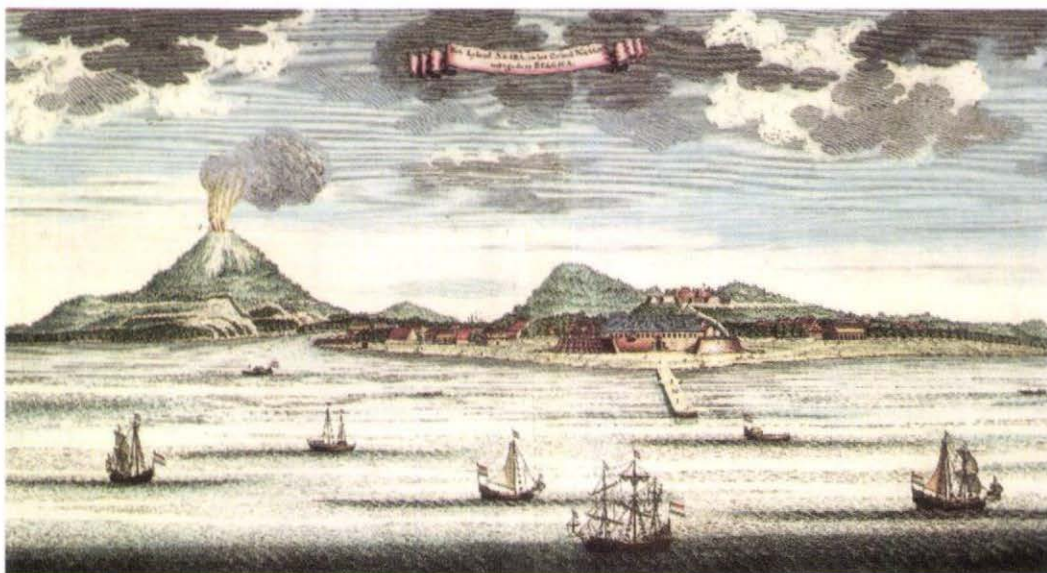
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Initially, the Europeans used nutmeg as medicinal herbs, as spices to enhance the taste of food, and also as food preservatives; they obtained the spices through a chain of Arab and Chinese traders which rendered the price quite high. Therefore, they strongly wished to find a direct access to the source of those spices.

The Banda people realized that they could deliver a unique product and that competition would result in even higher prices. They were prepared to sign delivery contracts but they firmly refused to give the right of monopoly to any of them.

A year after the conquest of Malacca in 1511, the Portuguese succeeded in reaching Banda, followed by the Dutch in 1599 and the English in 1601. Inevitably, fierce competition took place among the Europeans as each of them wished to monopolize the nutmeg trade in Banda. Each of them launched attacks against one another in their quest to become the supreme trader of Banda nutmeg.





P. 254  
View of Banda Neira Island in the Moluccas from Valentine's Old and New East Indies, published in 1724



P. 255  
Left: South gate of Fort Nassau. A pair of Tuscan pilasters flank the arch, featuring the Neo-Classic style.



P. 256  
Right: The gate of Fort Nassau was formed by bricks.

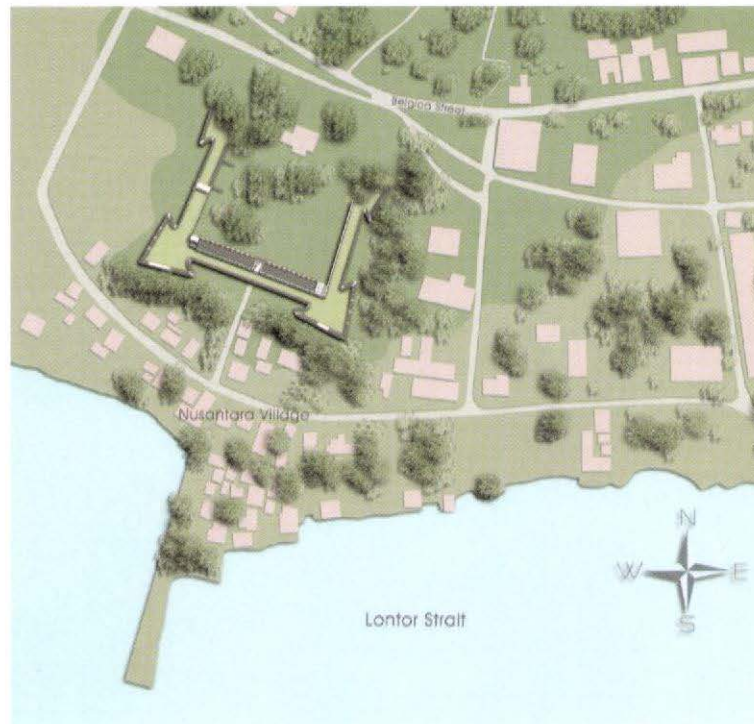
## BLOODY NUTMEG

There was no mention at all regarding the construction of a fort. According to several writers, the Portuguese had a fort but abandoned it after some time. From historical sources, it is only known that the Portuguese conducted their trading activities with Banda from Ambon. On July 13, 1605, Steven Verhagen signed an agreement on behalf of the VOC with the chiefs of Banda. Both parties agreed to protect each other against their enemies. The Dutch obtained the sole right to buy nutmeg and mace. Both parties, however, interpreted the agreement differently. Delivery to other merchants continued as usual.

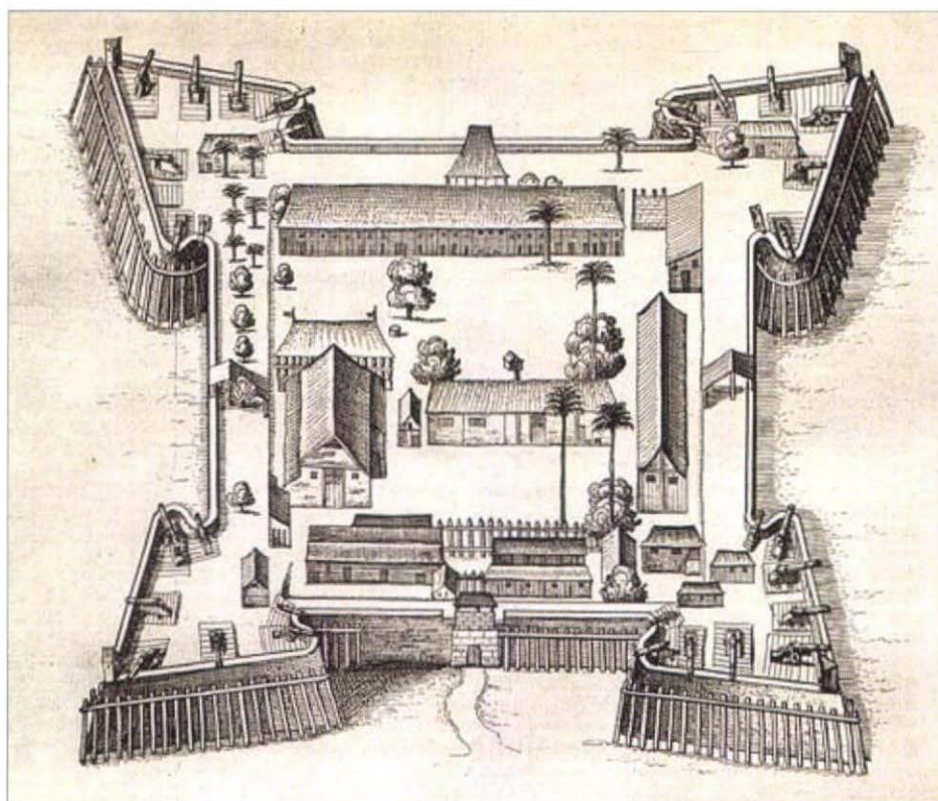
In April 1608, the directors of the VOC decided that all means were permitted to gain monopoly in the trade of nutmeg and cloves, preferably through agreement but otherwise by force. On September 1, 1609, it was decided to have a fort on each of the islands that produced spices in order to guarantee that the agreements were obeyed. Admiral Verhoef had 15 ships with 1,000 men and soldiers to implement this decision. The fleet reached the Banda Islands in April 1609. Their arrival made the inhabitants recall a prophetic omen of an army of white and lank-haired warriors who would conquer their islands; the eruption of Gunung Api

P 257

Right: The current plan of Fort Nassau, a rectangular shape with four arrow bastions. The north part has collapsed into ruins. The annex building inside the fort has been demolished.







P. 258

Fort Nassau on Banda Neira. It shows the typical fort design, a rectangular shape and four arrow bastions at each corner.

P. 259

Left-below: View of Fort Nassau (1920) facing the Banda Strait, with its bastions and ditch.

P. 260

Right-below: The south gate of Fort Nassau. A stone bridge crosses above the ditch (1920)



underlined the approaching disaster. On April 19, 1609, Verhoef read out to 200 chiefs of Banda and Lontor a letter from Prince Maurits, in which a request was made for the building of a fort. This request was certainly not welcome. Verhoef, an able seaman but a bad diplomat, decided to construct the fort by force. On April 25, 700 armed men began the construction of a fort near Kampong Ratu. The site proved to be unsuitable, and it was decided to continue building on the remains of an old fort instead.

The inhabitants had no weapons to force the Dutch to stop the construction of the fort which was given the name Nassau. Even after Verhoef and 34 Dutchmen were killed in a trap, the construction could not be stopped. The inhabitants of Banda Neira dispersed to the other islands and began a guerilla war against the Dutch.

Following negotiations with Hoen, Verhoef successor, an agreement was reached. From then on, Banda only delivered nutmeg to the Dutch who were of the opinion that the agreement covered all the other islands too. However, the inhabitants of Ai Island and Run Island did not think so and they continued to trade with the British. In fact, the inhabitants of other islands also sold their nutmeg "illegally" to whoever offered the highest price. After arriving in 1611, Governor General Pieter Both decided to suppress the opposition by force. Fort Nassau was strengthened and Fort Belgica was built (see Belgica). His successor, Reijnst, occupied Run Island and drove away the British merchants.

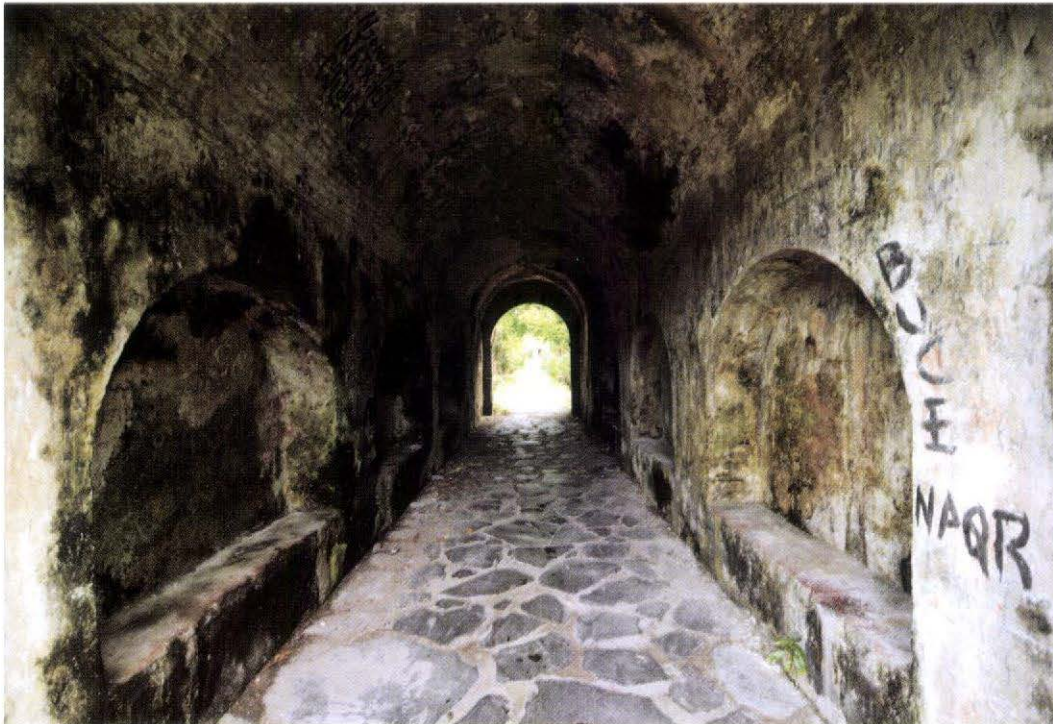
The VOC now possessed all the nutmeg trees but had no manpower to harvest the fruits which then rotted, and the trade stagnated. In 1621, Jan Pieterszoon Coen conducted a brutal massacre and killed almost all people of the islands. Those who survived were deported and Banda became an estate colony; the islands were divided into 70 nutmeg estates where about 20-30 slaves worked in each of them. The VOC leased those estates to its ex-employees who decided to stay in Asia after finishing their work contract. Nutmeg and mace were sold to the company at a fixed price.

Fort Nassau, also known as Waterfort, became the center of the VOC administration in Banda. It was a rectangular structure with four bastions, and in the 18th century, a hornwork was added on its sea side. The ditch around the fort was connected to the sea. Banda was regularly struck by natural disasters. The volcano Gunung Api erupted six times between 1600 and 1800, covering the islands with ash and debris. Earthquakes and seaquakes also shook the islands. Fort Nassau was damaged several times by such natural disasters, but was always repaired accordingly.



Since 1795 the Dutch and British were always at war against each other. On March 3, 1796, a British warship arrived at Banda and demanded the surrender of the island. Governor F. van Boeckholz refused to allow the British into Banda. On March 8, the whole British fleet arrived under the command of rear admiral Peter Rainier. Several shots were fired at the British ships but the defense was merely symbolic, because on the same day the governor signed the surrender. From 1801 to 1803 a short period of peace prevailed before Banda was returned to the Dutch. On August 10, 1810, the British came back and took over the island again without a single shot being fired. In 1817 they returned the islands to the Dutch.

The 19<sup>th</sup> century was an era of decay. In 1864 the forced cultivation of nutmeg for the government was lifted. Two years later Fort Nassau was removed from the list of military fortifications. The buildings in the fort were turned into dwellings for convicts but afterwards the fort was completely abandoned. Around 1900 the buildings on the field and the bastions and walls along the land side were demolished, and the stones used as building material. The ditches were filled. Currently, the fort is a sad example of a completely decayed monument.



P. 261

The tunnel through the main gate, with three niches along the wall. The lime whitewash has faded away and is covered with moss.

P 262

The stone bridge above the  
ditch



P 263

Fort wall at the south gate seen  
from inner courtyard. Nowadays  
the courtyard is a public space  
for the people of Banda





## THE FIVE TOWERS OF BELGICA

Belgica was built to correct a misjudgment in the planning of Fort Nassau which was located on the seaside and could therefore be easily shot at from the hill behind it in the hinterland. The people of Neira Island who had fled to other nearby islands after the ruthless actions of the Dutch in 1609, used to launch guerrilla attacks. From the hill they attacked the garrison in Fort Nassau with fire arrows.

In 1611 Governor General Pieter Both decided to put an end to the irksome inconvenience by building a small fort on the hill named Belgica. A few years later, another small fort, Neira, was built on top of the hill. Around 1660, the two small forts were replaced by a redoubt named Belgica II. After a few years, it was decided to replace the redoubt with a much bigger fortification at the same location. The scientist Rumphius was requested for advice but his design was too expensive and never implemented.

Admiral Cornelis Speelman visited Banda in March 1667. He ordered the engineer Adriaan de Leeuw to make a definitive design of the fort. Belgica II comprised two parts: one was a low-lying pentagonal structure with bastions and a pentagonal platform inside with round towers. The innermost part could be accessed through a wooden staircase and the main gate which led to the inner space. Most of the vaults were interconnected by stairs or underground passages. Construction of the fort in 1672 and 1673 were



P. 264

Fort Belgica, with its tower and bastion facing Gunung Api Island. – Banda Neira.

P. 265

Left: The inscription at the wall of Fort Belgica mentions the year 1611, when Pieter Both made his decision to build.

P. 266

Right-above: Fort Belgica in Banda Neira during the voyage of controller J. van Baal, 1939.

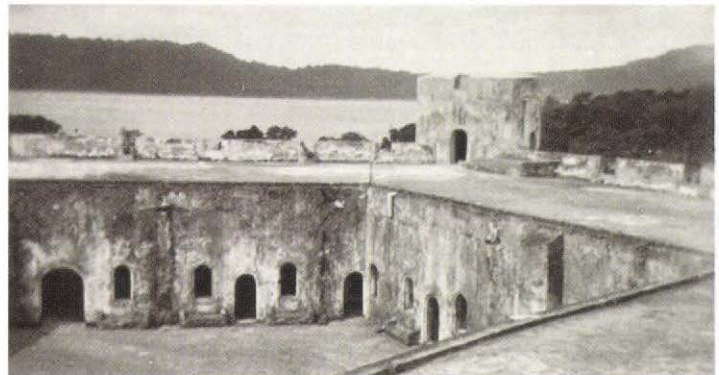
P. 267

Right-below: Garrison at Fort Belgica, 1868.

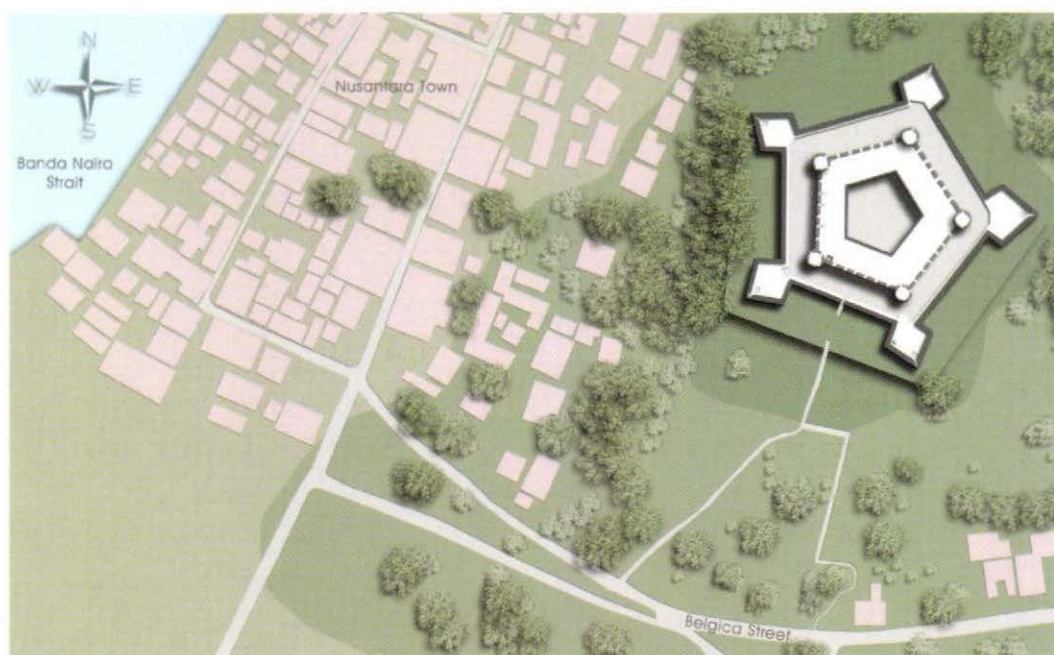
conducted without encountering any problems. Leveling the rock, excavating and the supply of building materials, however, made the expenditures exceed the budget and generated complaints from Batavia.

On March 8, 1796, Banda surrendered to the British without firing a single shot. At the Peace of Amiens in 1701, the Moluccas Islands were returned to the Dutch. In 1803 war was resumed but the British occupied the island in 1810; again with no shooting. In 1817 the British returned the fort to the Dutch.

The fort was improved in the middle of the 18<sup>th</sup> century, during which the commander's dwelling and the small church were most probably built. Belgica became one of the most important forts in Banda Island. It was also the most solid fort as it was, unlike Fort Oranje, never seriously damaged by earthquakes and volcanic eruptions. At the time there were 400 soldiers in the fort with 58 cannons. The actual number of soldiers was often much less. In 1750 there were one lieutenant, four corporals and 21 soldiers.







P. 268

The pentagon shape with five bastions and towers, still intact until now.

P. 269

Left-below: Pentagonal inner court of Fort Belgica.

P. 270

Right-below: A sentry box for guard, covered with hipped roof.



P. 271

Left: One of the cannons, placed  
at the embrasure

P. 272

Right: Daily life of the people of  
Banda. Farming around the fort.

The obligation for the people to cultivate nutmeg for the government was revoked in 1864, making Belgica lose its function as "guardian" of the spice monopoly. The fort remained utilized but the military moved out to a camp.

The most formidable physical attack against Belgica was not caused by wars. Assistant Resident Van Hasselt (1896-1902) was informed by the military commander that the fort should not draw too much attention to foreign enemies. This was interpreted by the overzealous official as an order to demolish the fort's five towers, but which could not be entirely accomplished due to the very solid structure. It was later known that the unclear information actually pertained to the demolition of the already scrapped Fort Oranje.

Belgica's towers had always been the pride of the island's inhabitants. In their opinion, the imprudent demolition marked the beginning of the island's decline. However, a most unexpected solution came up when several inhabitants won a big lottery which enabled *Bandasche Belangen*, a civil association, to rebuild the towers in 1935. In 1991 the fort was repaired with support from Jakarta.









## Fort Amsterdam

Ambon, 1636

# The Mansion of a Botanist

P 273  
Fort Amsterdam shows  
resilience in its fading face.

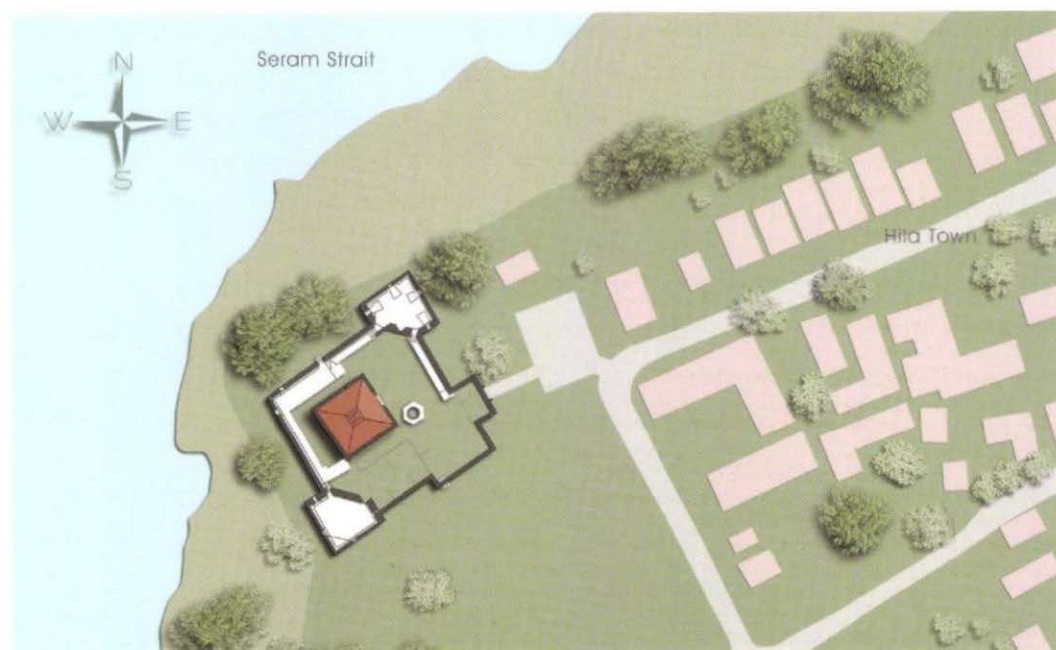
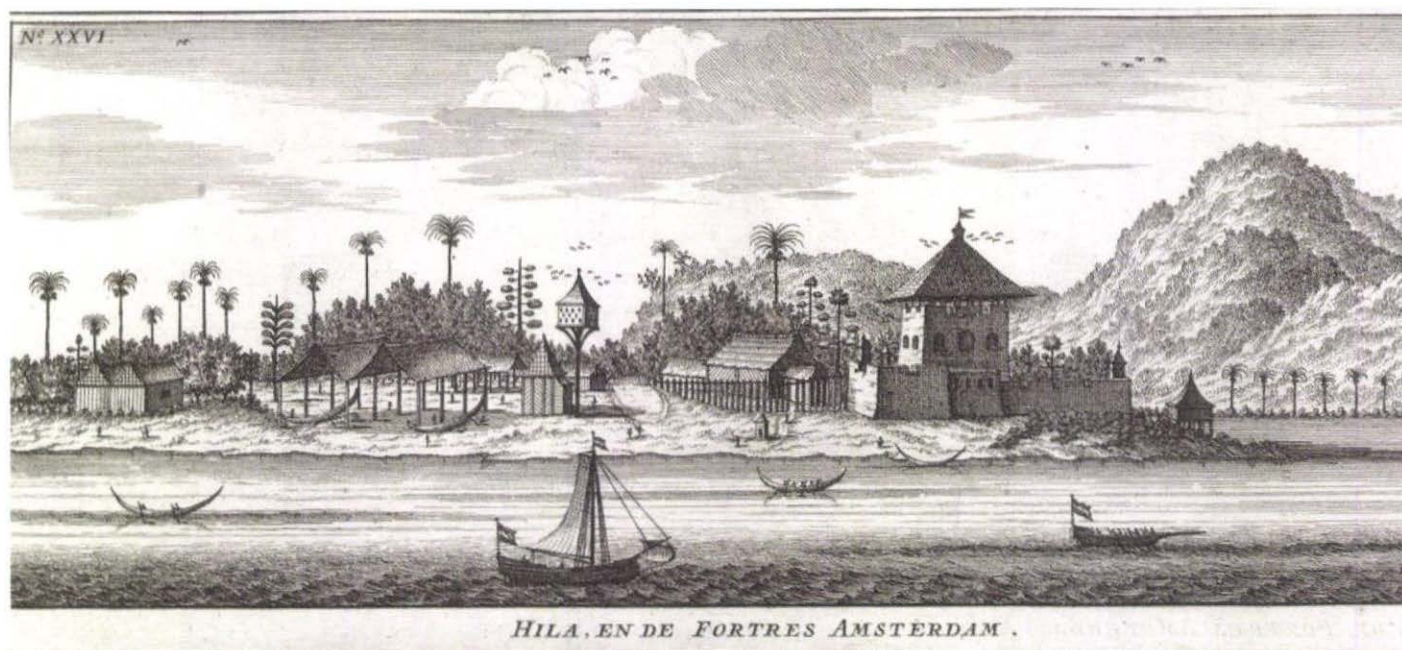
*In the town of Hitu on Ambon Island, part of the Central Moluccas Regency, Fort Amsterdam is located among clove plantations graced with a beautiful beach. The fort can be reached in two hours by car from Ambon, whereas by air from the city's Pattimura Airport it takes one hour.*

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At present, the surrounding environment is a coastal village. In the north stretches the sea of Seram and in the south are hill plantations interspersed with pieces of agricultural land owned by the local people. However, the dominating feature that surrounds the fort is a settlement which is growing steadily due to the area's favorable condition and the availability of relatively good transportation facilities and infrastructures.

The present condition may well differ greatly from when the fort was being built. In 1633, chief merchant Ottens demolished the VOC trade post in Hila and built a stone redoubt with a wooden fence around it. In 1644 the redoubt was damaged by an earthquake.





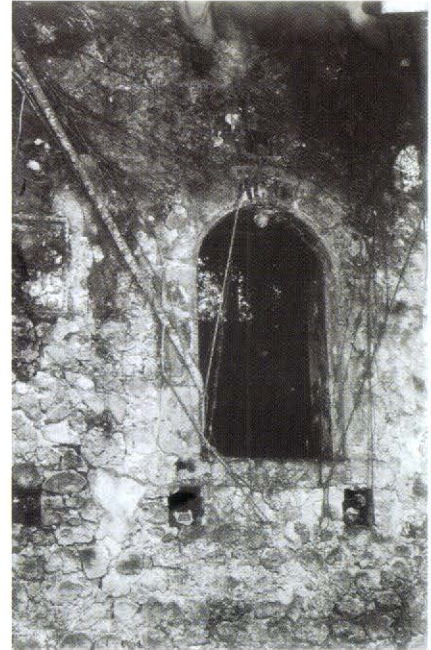
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Above: Fort Amsterdam illustrated Francois Valentijn in 1724 depicts the block house type.

P. 275

Below: Square plan view with a single massive building in the middle. It is surrounded by thick walls and two bastions

P.276  
The 1920's photos of Fort  
Amsterdam by Oudehistorische  
Dienst (Archaeological  
Department). The fort is  
covered by roots.



In 1648 Cornelis de Vlaming enlarged the redoubt and built a stone parapet with two bastions around it. The blockhouse comprised three floors; the first floor was designated as a store room for foodstuffs and ammunition; on the second floor shooting holes were made in the walls; while in the uppermost floor was an open platform encircled by a parapet constructed under a high pointed roof. A memorial stone was placed in the wall bearing the name of de Vlaming. The garrison comprised 40 soldiers under the command of a sergeant, and the fort was armed with 16 cannons. Fort Amsterdam was an excellent example of the small blockhouses that were built by the VOC not only in the Moluccas but also in Formosa (Taiwan), for example. The blockhouses in the Moluccas served as trade posts as well as to keep an eye on smuggling activities.

The German Georg Eberhard Rumphius (1627-1702) went to Asia in 1662 as a midshipman of the VOC. After a short stay in Batavia he was sent to Ambon and was promoted to engineer in 1655. Two years later he transferred to the VOC's civil service and was stationed as assistant merchant in Larike on the southwest coast of Hitu. After promotion to merchant and chief of the entire coast of Hitu, he was stationed in Fort Amsterdam in 1662. He remained in that function until in 1670 when he became blind within a few months. Due to his service and work, the company accorded him a post in the city of Ambon while keeping his rank and salary.



## GEORGE EBERHARD RUMPHIUS 1627 - 1702

The man originally known as Rumpf was a German-born botanist and is best known for his authorship of *Het Amboinsche kruidboek* or *Herbarium Amboinense*, a catalogue of Ambon Island's plants, published posthumously in 1741. The work covers 1,200 species, 930 with definite species names, and another 140 identified to genus level. He provided illustrations and descriptions for the nomenclature type of 350 plants, and his material contributed to the later development of the binomial scientific classification by Linnaeus. His book provided the basis for all future study of the Moluccas flora and his work is still referred to nowadays. Despite the distance he was in communication with scientists in Europe, was a member of a scientific society in Vienna, and even sent a collection of Moluccan sea shells to the Medici in Tuscany.



P. 277

Illustration of Rumphius, printed by Jacob Later (1696)

Besides his daily routine work for the VOC, Rumphius spent his time studying all the plants and animals of the Moluccas, for which he received many compliments and much encouragement from his superiors. In his study he was given great support by the governor generals in Batavia and also by the VOC directors in the Netherlands; the Gentlemen of XVII sent him many books from Holland to Ambon. Rumphius also conducted an extensive correspondence with several scientists and other eminent persons in Europe. After he became blind, he continued his works assisted by his son, Paul August. The company provided him with a draftsman and copyists who helped him finish his work.

In the morning of February 17, 1674, Ambon and the nearby islands were struck by a heavy earthquake followed by a tsunami. The city of Ambon was heavily damaged and among the victims were the wife and daughter of Rumphius. After the earthquake shook Hila, the soldiers in Hila ran out of the fort to the open space where they thought it would be safer. However, a few minutes later a ravaging tsunami swept across the coast; the wave reached the roof of blockhouse Amsterdam, crushing down great parts of the brickwork. The cannons were wrenched from their mountings and hurled around. Some soldiers managed to escape the calamity because they clutched to the cannons with their arms and legs, while

the water rolled them several times. The houses around the fort and in the villages were wiped away. In that morning 1461 people lost their lives; of the 40 garrison soldiers, 28 perished. Rummplius passed away in 1702. His most important works, *Het Amboinsche Kruidboek* and *D'Amboinsche Rariteitkamer*, were published posthumously.

During the Battle of Pattimura in 1817, Fort Amsterdam was attacked but not conquered, before being abandoned and dismantled in 1863. Nevertheless, the local authorities were instructed to maintain the building so it could be utilized again in the event of a rebellion. In 1869 the fort was definitely removed from the list of fortifications.

## **A MASSIVE BLOCKHOUSE**

Fort Amsterdam is a three-storey building with a sentry box on the top of the roof. On the ground floor is a prison and ammunition storage. The building, which is actually a blockhouse, measures 16 x 16 with a 47 cm thick wall. The room inside measures 4.57 x 5.3 m. The main door is in the east wall, and on each side are several windows.

The greater part of the structure is made of stones, has two floors and complemented by a parapet, a wall with a patrol path on the top with a pointed roof which has now disappeared. There is a stone carved with the name of the blockhouse, and the coat of arms of De Vlaming.

The fort is encircled by a quadrangular-shaped wall measuring 52 x 52 m; there are remnants of the foundation that once supported the structure and fence, measuring 62 x 35 m. There are two bastions located in the north east corner and the south west corner which faces the sea. The main gate is in the east side and there are two small gates in the north and south sides, where the door leaves have disappeared.

Following a thorough restoration, Fort Amsterdam was re-opened on October 18, 1994 with a grand ceremony. Parts of the encircling wall and bastions were plastered with cement. The supporting beams on the second and third floors were replaced by concrete covered with wooden planks on the outside. Parts of the staircase and the flooring were replaced by new wooden elements. Currently, the building has a steel roof. The door and window leaves were also replaced by new wooden ones. The wall has been plastered by cement and painted white. On the upper part of the north door in the second floor is a plaque bearing the name 'Amsterdam'.





P. 278

At the edge of north east bastion, a strategic position overlooking the Seram Strait.

P. 279

Left-below: A walkway along the curtain, where guards watch the open sea

P. 280

Right-below: The spacious room at the top floor has openings with embrasures at each side.





P. 281  
Looking out from the heritage  
fort.

P. 282  
Passing over the fort on their  
way to school nearby is a daily  
routine for these children.

P. 283  
In the shadow of leafy trees, a  
gate stands firm.









# ARCHITECTURAL PERSPECTIVE OF FORTS IN INDONESIA

P. 284

View of the Castle from outside  
the wall. A painting by Andries  
Beeckman 1656 – 1657.

*Scattered across numerous islands of the Indonesian archipelago, there are 422 forts found as the result of 'Inventory and Identification of Forts in Indonesia', a research project realized between 2007-2010 by the Indonesia Architecture Documentation Centre by commission of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, with co-sponsorship by the Government of the Royal Kingdom of the Netherlands.*

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## INTRODUCTION

In broad terms, the forts can be classified into two categories. 126 of the 442 fortified structures are considered as a cultural legacy of ethnical or indigenous native accomplishment and listed as benteng Nusantara, while the rest are the various types of forts which were built as a foreign cultural manifestation or benteng kolonial.

Nusantara (meaning intra islands) is the ancient collective name of the archipelago scattered from the Indian Ocean to the Pacific, when the great Malay culture flourished between the 8th and 14th century and formed a linkage of cultural entities. Indonesia is the modern name invented in the late 19th century to denote a political administrative region, then also known as the Nederlands Indie.



Benteng is the general terminology for forts or fortified structures in the Indonesian language. It may describe a range of the various types of defendable buildings or settlements which could be in the form of a massive earth mound indigenously built by the various local ethnic communities, or it could refer to the legacy of western type of forts such as *factorij* (trade office) and *kasteel* (castle) which the VOC (Dutch United East India Trading Company) had built between the 16th and 19th century. Fort also denotes pillboxes and bunkers of the 20th century when the tension of the coming World War II increased and caused a hectic need in the threatened Dutch party, as well as in the Japanese forces that occupied the islands and had to build such defensive fortification buildings.

By tradition in several languages of the world, those structures have different names according to their function, type, location, period, size, form and construction technique, and names for their specific architectural elements. To highlight a selection of those forts from the architecture product angle may enhance appreciation of how past generations of our forefathers made efforts to settle political and armed conflicts by building fortified settlements which have become shared cultural heritage in the present day.

In the case of Indonesia, the forts are regarded as part of a shared cultural heritage mostly with the Netherlands, but also with Portugal, England and Japan. The forts with their individual architectural identities not only have their respective functional qualities but also have aesthetic value in terms of establishing a definite combination of man-made structures and their natural environmental landscapes. They can give primitive or vernacular impressions but also be harmonious in the context of their natural surroundings, such as the earth mounds built as part of an indigenous defense system.

Or they can express a strong and dominant contrast showing off strength to those who dare to oppose, such as the various types of forts designed and built based on the western traditional roots. It should be noted that the various types of defense structures which were built between the 16th and 18th century were of the Renaissance era in Europe, an era in which European culture resurrected classical cultures of Greece and Rome. This was a time in which a *castrum* (a military camp and toponym of the word 'castle') followed the Vitruvius doctrine of *Firmitas, Utilitas Venustas* (strong, useful, and pleasing) in their design. The European fort builders overseas might have directly or indirectly implemented such concepts but were faced by constraints to adjust to the local conditions of climate and availability of building materials, or even for the sake of upholding territorial political dominance. Hence the product of such creation could be a simplified or an innovative version of those fortification structures found in Europe.

## THE NUSANTARA FORTS

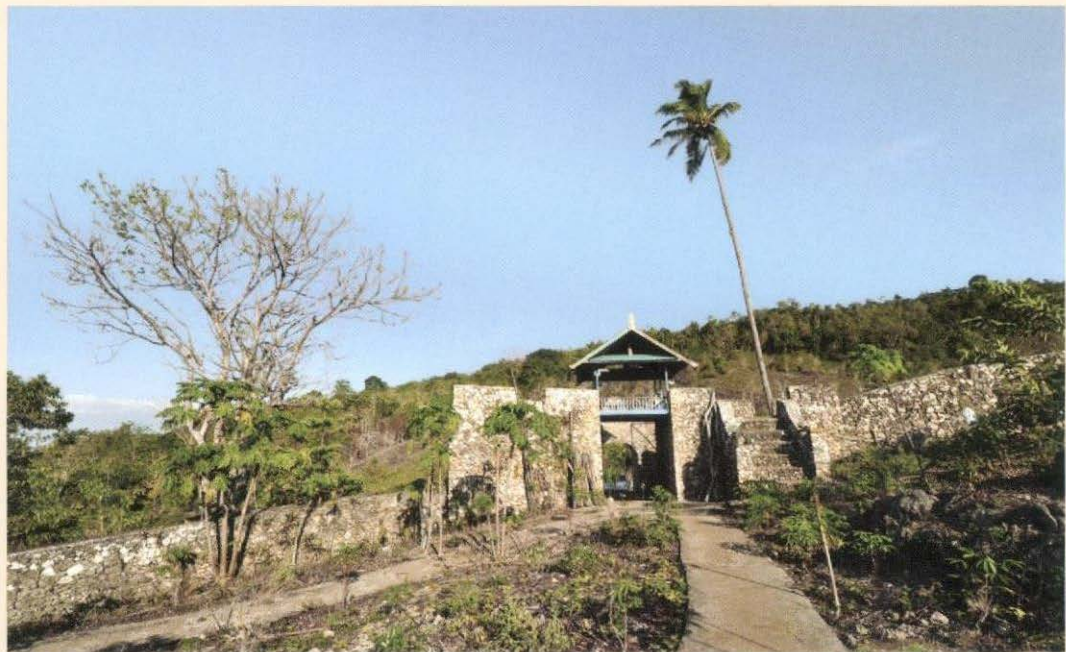
From the total number of the Nusantara Forts found so far, only two were built prior to the 16th century, in which physical traces could only be studied from remnants of their foundations, while their architectural depictions must still be investigated through archaeological research.

Indonesia consists of more than 300 ethnic communities, each with its respective pattern concerning the setting and arrangement of settlement. Essentially, the building of defense structures was an integral part of the construction of housing in which Indonesia is well known for its rich variety of traditional house styles. It was not unusual to ensemble the dwellings in such a way that they could be defendable from intruders by encircling their settlement with a protective mound and surrounding it with heavy plants, and sometimes with a hidden or secret entrance. Likewise in their planning designs, those settlements followed the common procedures of combining them with symbolic geomancy or cosmology. It can be concluded that of the remaining native forts built between 16<sup>th</sup> and the 20<sup>th</sup> century, there is significant variety and diversity in their architecture. In many cases, the architecture of a Nusantara benteng emphasizes safety infrastructure rather than shelter structure. They can be geographically located deep in the mainland, on the plain lands, the coast, or nearby a river, and with a visually vernacular character.

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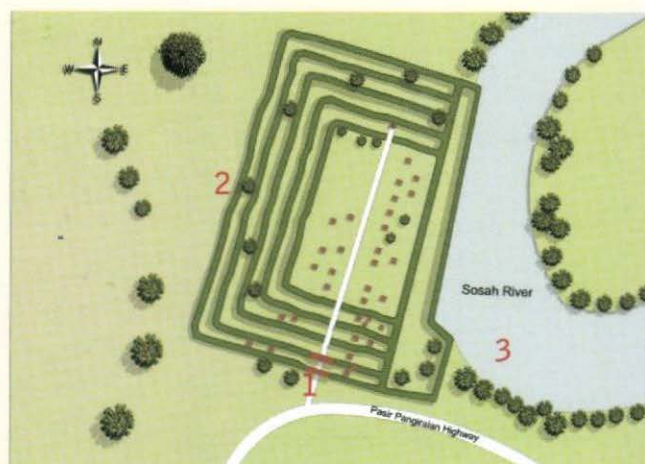
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Fort Takimpo at Buton island,  
South-east Sulawesi, built at the  
end of the 16<sup>th</sup> century.





Benteng Tujuh Lapis (meaning Seven Layers Fort) is a good example of a Nusantara Fort. The site was cleared during archaeological excavation several decades ago at a river bank area of the upper Rokan River. It is located in the Province of Riau on the west side of central Sumatera.



P. 286

The plan view of Benteng Tujuh Lapis

1. Gate or entrance
2. The layers of earth dikes and ditches form a rampart overlooking the river. The mound is 3 m high from the lowest point to the highest level plain. Its size is approximately 300 m x 350 m
3. Sosah River (a creek, branch of Rokan River)

According to local information, the Seven Layers Fort was built in 1835 by Tuanku Tambusai, a prominent follower of Tuanku Imam Bonjol, who was one of the heroic leaders rising up against colonial powers during the Padri War (1828 -1835).

The wall was actually layers of heaped soil forming a terraced dike and fenced with bamboo and wood piles. A 3 m wide ditch was made along three sides of the fort. The highest clearance was used as homesteads and regarded as the last stronghold of their defensive actions. Today, the layers of dikes and ditches are cleared and on the highest level of the mound, villagers descended from the fort builders still live there.

Various Nusantara Forts can be found in a more urbanized setting with a palace of the chief or the sultan, and housing for his subjects. The quality of the built form of such forts can be just a wall of organic material such as wood and coral stones, or made of inorganic building material such as soil, bricks, and natural stones. The construction of such structures applied a more sophisticated building technique compared with the simple or conventional rural defense system.

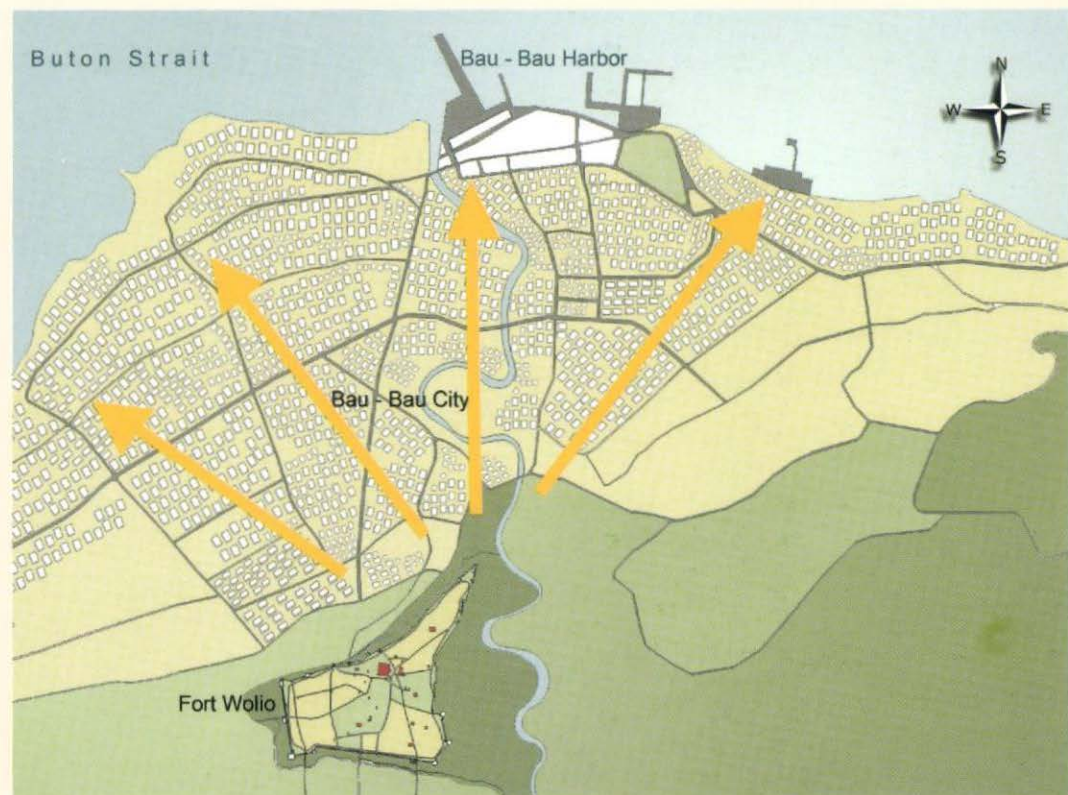
Such forts may have different historical reasons for their existence. They could be primarily for self-protection of the community, or they were built under pressure by respective local elite powers who were involved in conflicts with the colonial rulers.

The classification of the Nusantara forts based on their physical state indicates that 20% are still intact as active monuments, or in active use. The forts in this category must strive to find ways of surviving. Whereas the remaining majority are visually in ruins, and become objects of interest for archaeological researchers.

One of the largest native forts, Benteng Wolio in Buton Island, South West Sulawesi, is a fine example for illustration. Within the circumference of its defensive wall, the fort complex still functions as a clan settlement with the sultan palace at the centre.

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Aerial view of Bau-Bau City which shows the position of Fort Wolio on a hilltop with a height of 118 m above sea level. The fort curtain wall follows the hill contours and the distance to the coast measures between 1,2 km and 1,7 km. The north and east sides of the hill wall are very steep. The fort's ground plan has a polygonal shape and the Sultan Palace was the center of Buton culture.







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The fort wall curtain has seven main embrasures and seven secondary ones between the merlons.

During Sultan La Elangi IV's reign (1578 -1615), the Sultan not only built Fort Wolio but also Surawolio I and Surawolio II in the vicinity of what is now known as Bau-bau City. All three forts took the Islamic cosmology approach (Al Tauhid) in their design, and it is believed that the fort builders were inspired by the 'Al Qasr' forts in the Middle East. Technically speaking, all walls of these forts were made of stone piling with lime as adhesive. In the Fort Wolio compound beside the sultan palace there is a mosque, cemetery, the adat (traditional custom) meeting hall and the market. In the secondary forts of Surawolio I and Surawolio II, a prayer hall and traces of certain symbolic Islamic decorations were complementary architectural elements.

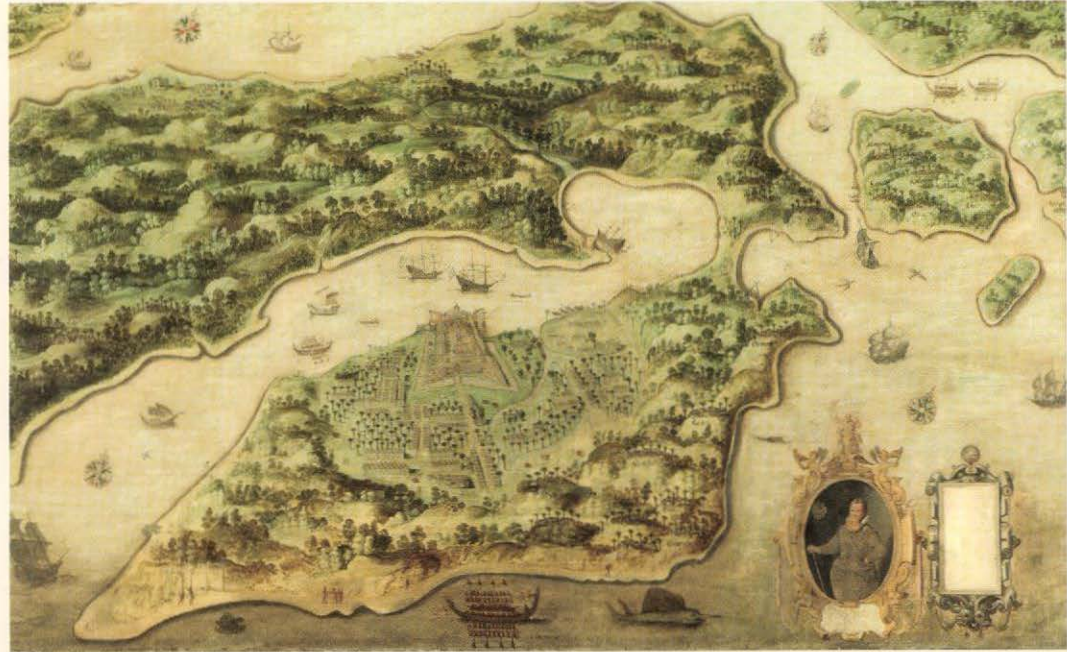
### **FROM TRACES OF VITRUVIUS DOCTRINE TO MODERN WARFARE.**

The arrival of spice traders to Maluku (the Moluccas), especially from Europe, began with the Portuguese in 1512, followed by the Dutch in 1605 which succeeded in driving away the Portuguese from their forts by siege. Between 1605 and 1612 the Dutch constructed several buildings for defence in select strategic small islands in the Moluccas and its neighboring lands. The VOC made Ambon their main factorij or trading post. They built a modest fort by using a combination of solid walls made of stones and bricks brought from Holland as part of the ballast of their ships, and used local building materials for constructing the store houses.



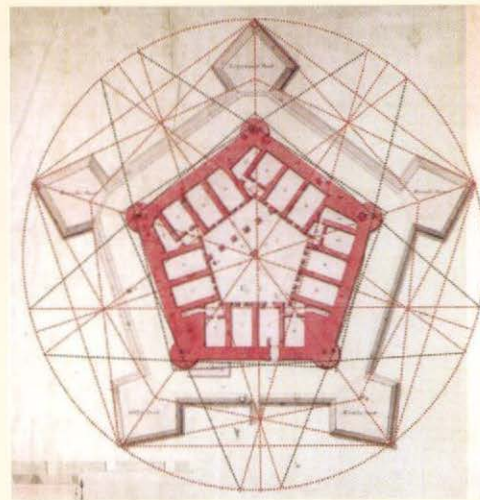
P. 289

Aerial view of Amboina in a cartouche with Neptune crowned with sea creatures and the portrait of Frederick Houtman, governor of Amboina (1605-1611). On the bay, the fort was built by the Portuguese and conquered in 1605 by the Dutch. On the island of Ambon identified to place the various settlements. Various sea wars occurred between Portuguese, English and the Dutch ships, besides attacks from the natives. The VOC's occupation of Ambon began by building a simple trading post (around 1590) and besieging a Portuguese fort before building Fort Batavia on the island of Java in 1617.

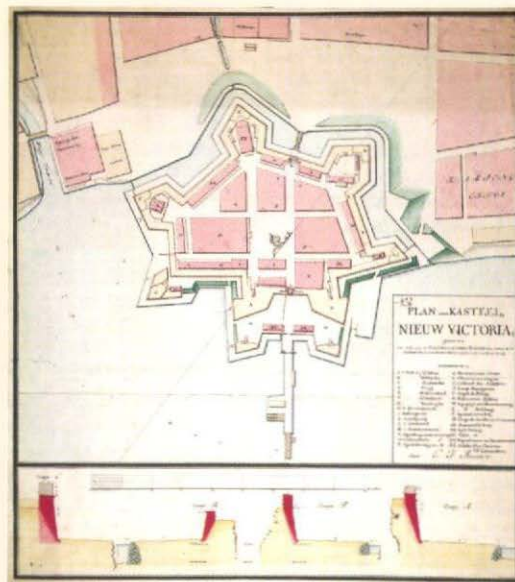


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A new approach in fort design was necessary when cannons became the deadliest weapons. The round tower which formed a dead ground was perfected to become arrowhead bastions. Indonesia has forts of both types. The image above is Fort Belgica in Banda Naira, designed by C.F. Reimer with this new calculation approach.







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In 1575 the Portuguese built the Fortaleza Nossa Senhora in Ambon, which was taken over by the Dutch in 1605 and renamed Kasteel Victoria. The first VOC factorij on Ambon was a simple settlement compound that was safely protected by a solid surrounding wall. The buildings inside it were used as dwelling, food storage, office, weapon rooms, etc. The construction was a combination of local materials and imported stone ballast. Note the three-tiered roof of the 'tower', which was a touch of local building style. In 1775, a volcanic eruption damaged the building, which led it to being rehabilitated and renamed Nieuw (New) Victoria. Between 1810 and 1817 it was under English control. Now it is the headquarters of the regional military. The fort has a polygonal ground plan.

(Left: The Fort of Ambon as it was in the year 1607. Inventory no. H-3113. Right: Plan of the New Victoria palace municipalities during the rule of Lord Weledelgestrenge Vaillant and Graeve Stein Board Verhuel by C.F. Reimer, 1780.



P. 292

A fort with two rounded bastions was built by the Portuguese general Francisco Serrao in 1540 and called Santo Lukas. In 1610, the Dutch besieged and renamed it Hollandia. The native name is Tolukko (toluk means cape). The fort ground plan area is 256 square meter located at a strategic coastal site of 2561 square meters. The main material is stone and lime plaster.

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Round or circular towers known as Martello were constructed as a defense system in the 19th century on many frontier islands in Indonesia, especially Java, following a trend in Europe during the Napoleonic wars. Martello was a name derived from Martella, a coastline in Corsica.



In 1618, the VOC succeeded in shifting their trading center to Java by first acquiring a piece of land at the mouth of Ciliwung River and building a small fort called Mauritius. In later years, they constructed a big fort or kasteel called Batavia. From this castle, the central seat of VOC power, they expanded territory to become the walled city of Batavia which was inaugurated in 1619 by J.P. Coen, the VOC's Governor General. From the point of view of its architecture, the abovementioned Factorij in Ambon and Kasteel of Batavia can only be traced through old drawings, since those two buildings are no longer in existence. But the old drawings can tell the significance of the VOC's contribution to the history of fort architecture in Indonesia.

The listed colonial forts which total 286 in the 'Inventory and Identification' project, can be evaluated according to the period when they were built. First, the period between 16th and 18th century when spice trading reached its zenith in certain Eastern Indonesia islands where the VOC and other spiced traders operated. They built forts in Ambon, Ternate, Tidore, Banda, Halmahera and more (96 in total, excluding those in the Lesser Sunda Islands and Papua)

Second, the period of the 19th century and early 20th century when forts were created as a political strategy of military control, namely for safeguarding or as a regional control network. Control of the trading and transportation route of agricultural commodity products as enforced by the Netherland East India colonial



administration was a priority. Such forts are found in Java and in others major islands of the country. (A total of 65 in Java, Sumatera, Kalimantan and Sulawesi, otherwise known as the Greater Sunda Islands).

Third and last, the structures for defense built in the crucial period of 1935 to 1945. Those are new types of defence system and can be witnessed in many strategic islands in Indonesia to anticipate modern warfare during the Second World War tension. During that crucial period, both the Dutch and the Japanese left behind pillboxes or bunkers scattered on coastal areas or hills with strategic locations throughout the archipelago. (The accumulative number throughout the whole archipelago based on the sampling method comes to a total of 135).

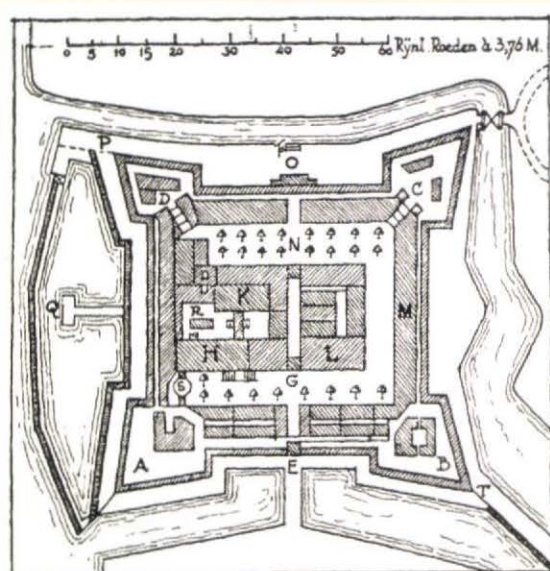
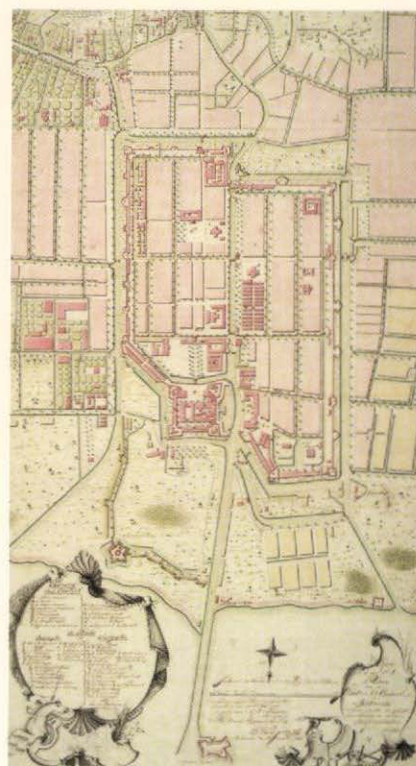


Fig. 13 PLATTEGROND VAN HET KASTEEL OMSTREKS 1740

A Diamant	H Gouvernment	P Vijverpoort
B Robijn	K Raadzaal	Q Speelhuisje
C Saphier	L Loge	R Binnenplaats van het
D Parel	M Wapenkamer	Gouvernment
E Landspoort	N Achterplein	S Kasteelkerk
G Pinangpoort	O Waterpoort	T Delfische poort



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Left: Ground plan of Batavia Fort & Castle circa 1740

The bastions are named according to a precious stone (diamond, ruby, sapphire, and pearl) with a different flag color, respectively. Buildings found in the castle were:

- A. Diamant (bastion)
- B. Robijn (bastion)
- C. Saphier (bastion)
- D. Parel (bastion)
- E. Landspoort
- G. Pinangpoort
- H. Gouvernment (the government office)
- K. Raadzaal (the court of justice)
- L. Lodge (hotel or lodge)
- M. Wapenkamer (armory room)
- N. Achterplein
- O. Waterpoort (water and land gates)
- P. Vijverpoort
- Q. Speelhuisje (club house)
- R. Binnenplaats van het Gouvernment
- S. Kasteelkerk (castle church)
- T. Delfische port (prison for political captives)

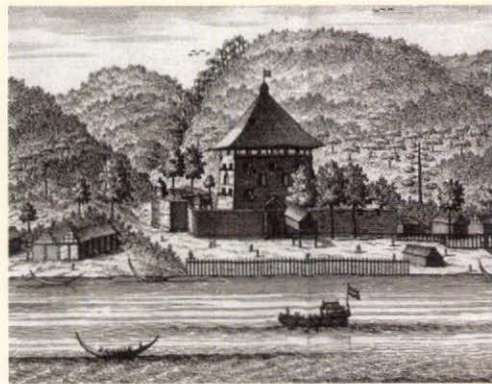
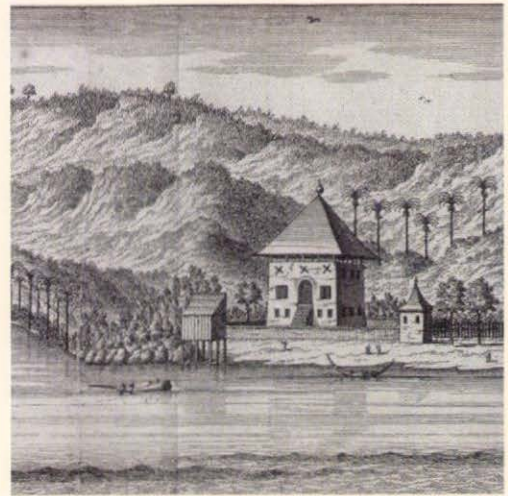
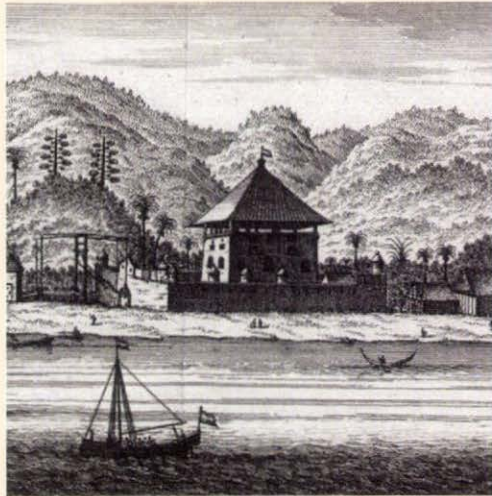
P. 295

Right: Map of the Batavia walled city circa 1762; it depicts when the city wall was completed, and the Great Ciliwung River was diverted straight to the harbor at the Java Sea.

The simpler types of buildings for defensive purposes were the blockhouses, and many examples of redoubts can be found in Maluku and other regions.

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Fort Wantrouw, Fort Beverjik, Fort Overburg and Fort Zeelandia in Maluku (all built in the 17th century), painting by François Valentyn in 1724-1726. They are three story blocks made of stone and lime plaster. The open top floor was used as a shooting gallery. The rooftop reminds a local touch.





The invention of new weapons, especially the cannons of the 18th century in Europe, made the foreign rulers in the archipelago also change the designing of buildings for defensive proposes. First they built Middle Age-type forts with round towers, then ramparts with bastions.

Entering the 19th century until the end of World War II, in 1863 the Netherlands East India government made a list of the state-owned permanent forts (made of stones or bricks walls), coming to a total number of 143. It consisted of two categories, respectively 137 forts to defend against armed native opponents, and 6 forts against European enemies. The forts were designed as massive polygonal buildings with a large inner court for practice. Their size could accommodate from 30 to 200 military personnel. Smaller types of permanent defense structures were the pillboxes, bunkers and caves in accordance with the new defensive strategy. In addition, the Indonesian archipelago had structures which were the product of the short Japanese occupation period between 1942 -1945.



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Fort Van der Wijck, located in Central Java and built in 1818 as center of logistics for the Dutch Army. In 1856 it became a military school. The current owner is the Regional Military Force that uses the fort site as an amusement park. Some of the forts rooms are used as a museum. The building was made of bricks with details resembling a pseudo-Roman construction.

## CONCLUDING NOTES

Architecturally speaking, the easiest way to appreciate the legacy of forts as found in the Indonesian archipelago is through those which are still intact, in use, or in well-maintained condition. Of the 442 forts found today, less than 100 really fulfill such criteria.

Based on their architectural form, there are two categories of forts: the typical native or indigenous fortification works, and those various types which were introduced through foreign (mostly European) cultural assimilation. To keep these forts as active monuments sustainable for the future, great effort must still to be made, in which their socio-cultural, economical and scientific significance must be further studied or revealed.

One can learn about the changes and different shapes of the forts' ground plans, or about their structure and construction, and even study the connection between their function and form.

From the architectural point of view, forts can be regarded as creating space and places for their users or occupants, and as such might leave certain artistic or architectural touches in making forts as their habitat. So far, however, we know more about the background story behind why those forts came to existence rather than their aesthetic qualities.

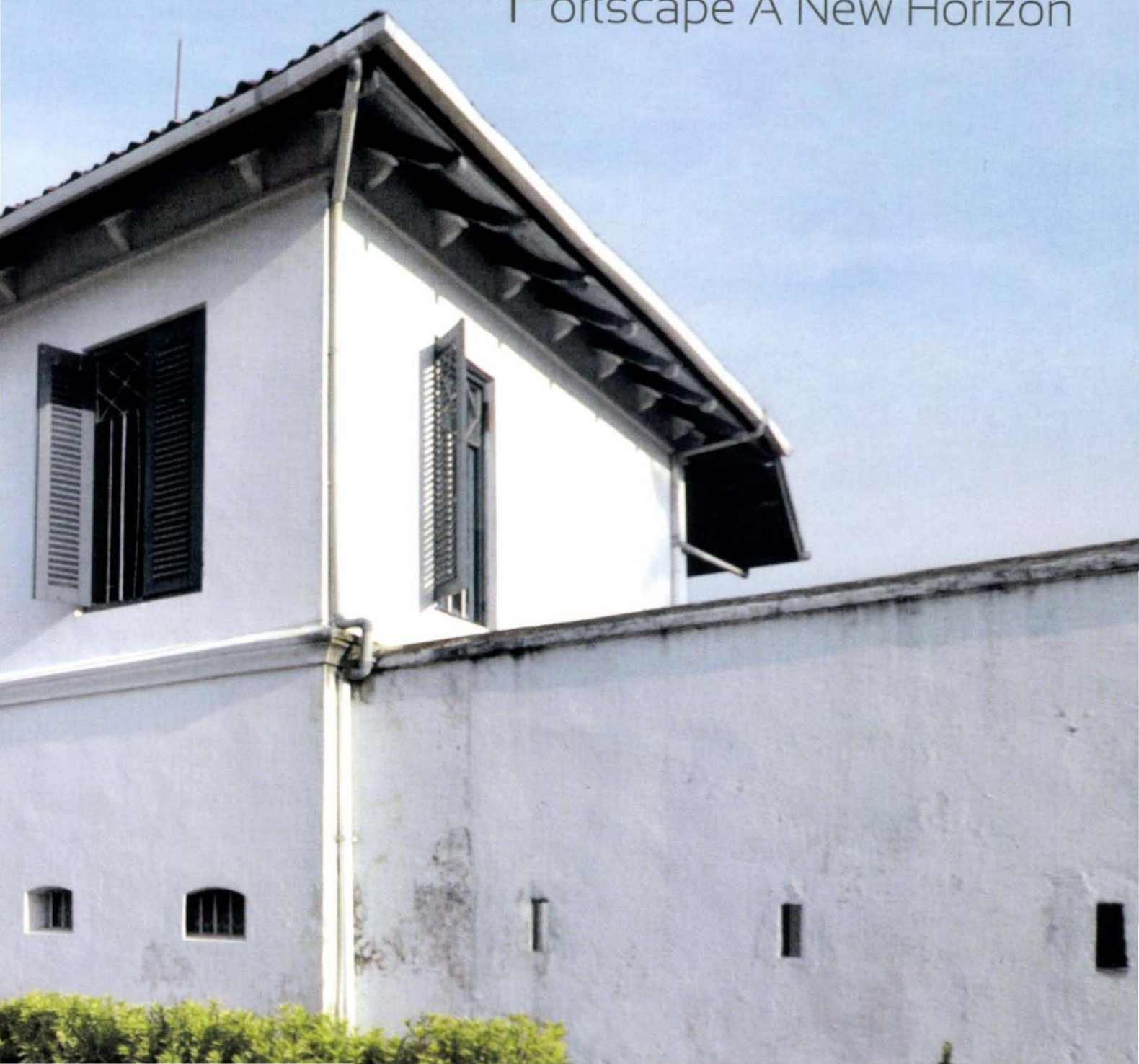
Visually, the physical remains of the forts which the project has listed are not able to inform the public about their architectural beauty. Efforts are being made to make a deeper appreciation of their aesthetic value, also in connection to what these forts may mean to their communities, towns or cities and their prospective or potential goals for enhancing local heritage tourism.







# Fortscape A New Horizon









# Forts, the Legacy of a Turbulent History

P 299  
Children looking through the  
window of Fort Amsterdam,  
Ambon, Maluku

*Indonesia, the great archipelago, is obviously a unique country. The magic and wealth of its nature, particularly the Spice Islands in the east, are a great attraction to explorers of all kinds. Beginning in the early 16th century, the Portuguese were first to arrive, followed by the Spanish, Dutch and the British; all made their presence felt in the south east Asia, including by fighting each other. In those days, there was continuous war in Europe and several of these countries transferred their conflicts to the Indonesian archipelago. Each country tried to acquire a monopoly in the spice trade; it was all about nutmeg and cloves.*

In the Netherlands, after the establishment of the Verenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie (VOC) in 1602, the presence of the Dutch in the Indonesian archipelago began to grow in significance. About a century earlier, the Portuguese had first set foot in Asia and were busily engaged in trade. But, like the Portuguese, the VOC did not hesitate to use military force to secure their interests.





P. 300

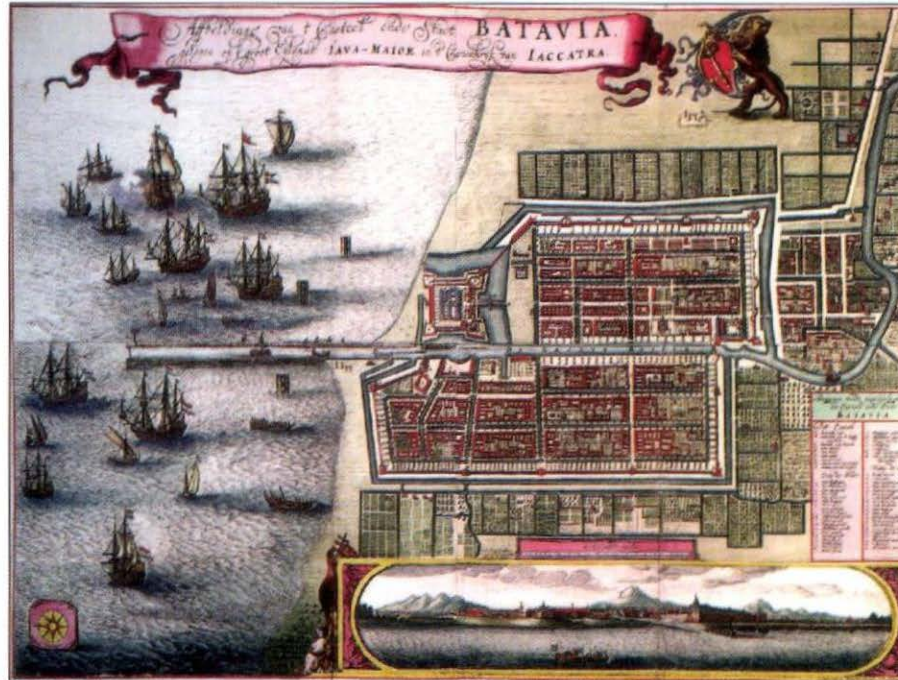
VOC ships at Onrust Island  
near Batavia. Painting by artist  
Abraham Stolk. 1699.

In 1799, the VOC went bankrupt and the end was nigh for this large trading company, which acted as a local ruler in parts of the Indonesian archipelago (Nusantara). After a short interlude of British rule (1811-16), the Kingdom of the Netherlands took over. Numerous forts were built, but no longer to serve only commercial purposes. At the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, Japan was a rising Asian power, while in Europe World War I broke out, followed by the threat of World War II; this stimulated the construction of new types of defense structures. In modern warfare, static forts of old were out of fashion and the new defense structures were more spread out, with various bunkers both big and small were built as regional defense systems. The large number of varied forts and defense structures are the legacy of the turbulent (war) history of Indonesia from centuries past.

### **FORTS, THE PRESENT CONDITION**

Nowadays, we regard forts as relics of a violent past; they are spread across Indonesia. Sometimes, forts are larger structures and a compilation of several buildings; there are also smaller ones as solitary landmarks in

Map of Batavia 1652, illustrated  
by artist C. de Jonghe ca. 1740,  
based on an original from 1652



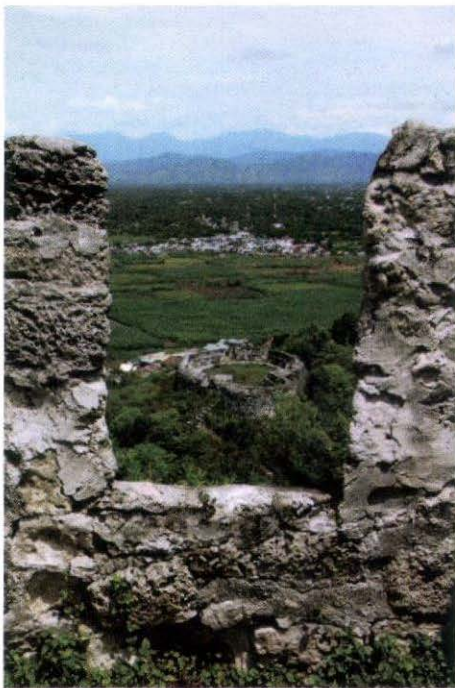
the landscape. In many cases, only ruins or just a few rock piles in a landscape remain. Locations of former fortifications that have completely disappeared are called archaeological sites.

Some smaller fort structures are restored to a few meters above ground level and access paths are constructed for visitors, as in the Gorontalo region (Sulawesi). Other forts are very large and small townships in their own right, like Fort Vredenburg in Yogyakarta or Fort Rotterdam in Makassar.

Many forts have long since disappeared from the map and been demolished, like the former headquarters of the VOC in Batavia (Jakarta Kota, Benteng) or more recently Fort Vastenburg in Solo; or they were destroyed during war, like Fort Amsterdam in Manado which was bombed by the Allies in World War II.

Most of the remaining forts and buildings are no longer in military use, but those that still are (e.g., Fort Nieuw Victoria in Ambon) no longer function as defensible structures, but more as compounds with barracks (tangsi), military equipment storage and military housing.





P. 302  
Fort Otanaha as seen from  
the embrasure of Fort Otahiya,  
Gorontalo.



P. 303  
Ruins of the city wall of Jakarta  
Kota.



P. 304  
Fort Nieuw Victoria, Ambon,  
Maluku

## A NEW FUTURE FOR OLD FORTS

Recently, a forts identification- and inventory program was conducted by the Indonesian government and a large number of forts are placed now on the national and regional lists of monuments.

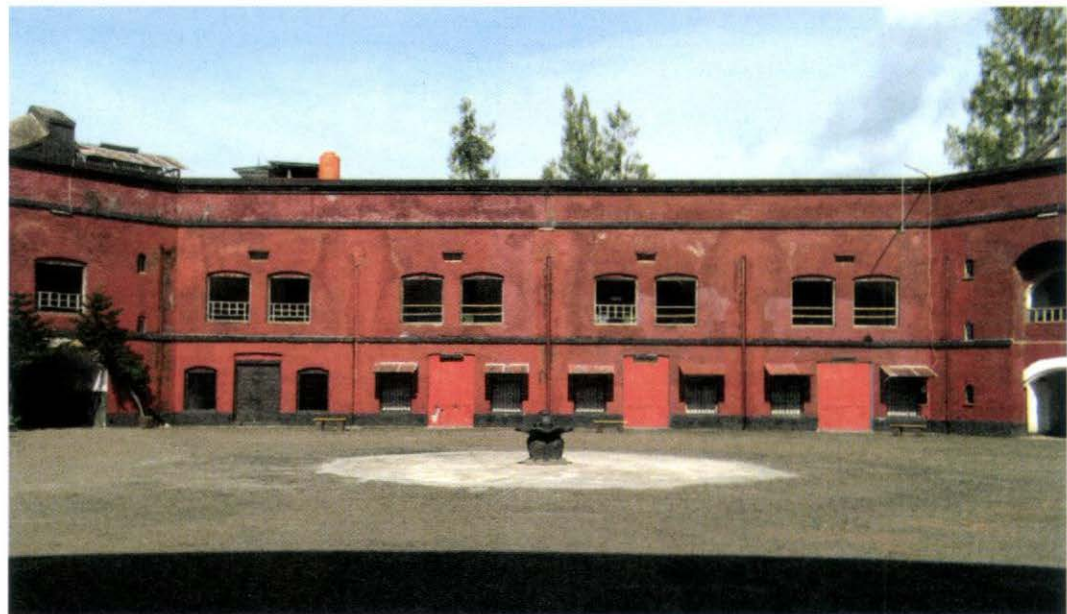
Various Indonesian cities and regions implemented an inventory program concerning the architectural monuments. Historic buildings like forts are a part of scenery in many Indonesian cities, though inhabitants are not always aware of their significance.

When the historic buildings within the walls of Fort Vastenburg were suddenly removed as a result of demolition, it caused a big commotion among the inhabitants and media, raising the subject of how to deal with historic buildings.

Another example is Fort Rotterdam in Makassar, on the northern end of the boulevard (promenade); the fort is an important landmark the city of Makassar. When you think of Makassar, you think of its waterfront by the old fort. It is much more than a tourist attraction, it has emotional value and great economic significance.

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P. 305  
Fort Van Der Wijck at Gombong,  
Central Java





Some of the larger forts are already in use for other purposes, often unplanned and ad hoc. Sometimes, with great respect for the cultural historic uniqueness, the new function is carefully combined with the conservation of the building (e.g. Fort Oranje in Ternate, Fort Vredeburg in Yogyakarta and Fort Rotterdam in Makassar). Sometimes one wonders whether there is sufficient respect for heritage character and if the new functions of the forts are the right choice (e.g. Fort van der Wijck, Gombong).

Protecting architectural heritage such as forts has immediate consequences on the allocation and use of buildings. Furthermore, the protected status of architectural heritage should be part of an urban development plan for the area. The physical and functional qualities of the buildings in the adjacent neighborhood are important as well; as are the quality and layout of the environment at the site.

## **FORTS AND ENVIRONMENT, SOME EXAMPLES OUTSIDE INDONESIA**

All around the world there are interesting examples of fortifications which have been restored. Often these restorations are financed by the government, and the former forts become museums or other social-cultural functions. This can be expensive, because it means a continuous flow of public money which is needed to guarantee the existence of the new function of the fort. Eventually, this becomes unsustainable and it is not possible to give cultural functions to all historic buildings; there is no urgency and it would be economically unfeasible.

Fruitful economic exploitation of forts is not easy and there are no standard solutions available. The opportunities and possibilities for reusing forts depends on numerous factors. The geographic location of the fort plays an important role, as a dense urban environment or isolation in the rural countryside makes a world of difference. The physical condition is also significant, but this may be corrected by renovation. Awareness of preserving originality supersedes complete reconstruction of an old building.

Of course, reuse of forts and fortifications is not a specific Indonesian issue; everywhere in the world one is confronted with it. In brief, we will pay attention to some examples regarding the use of old forts elsewhere in the world.

In the 17<sup>th</sup> century, there were two Dutch trading companies, the VOC (Vereenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie) in the Indian Ocean and the WIC (West Indische Compagnie) in the Atlantic Ocean. The city currently known as New York in the USA was formerly known and established by the WIC as Nieuw Amsterdam. In the Caribbean area, the WIC settled on several islands, currently known as the Netherlands Antilles.

P. 306  
Left: Rif Fort, Willemstad,  
Curacao.

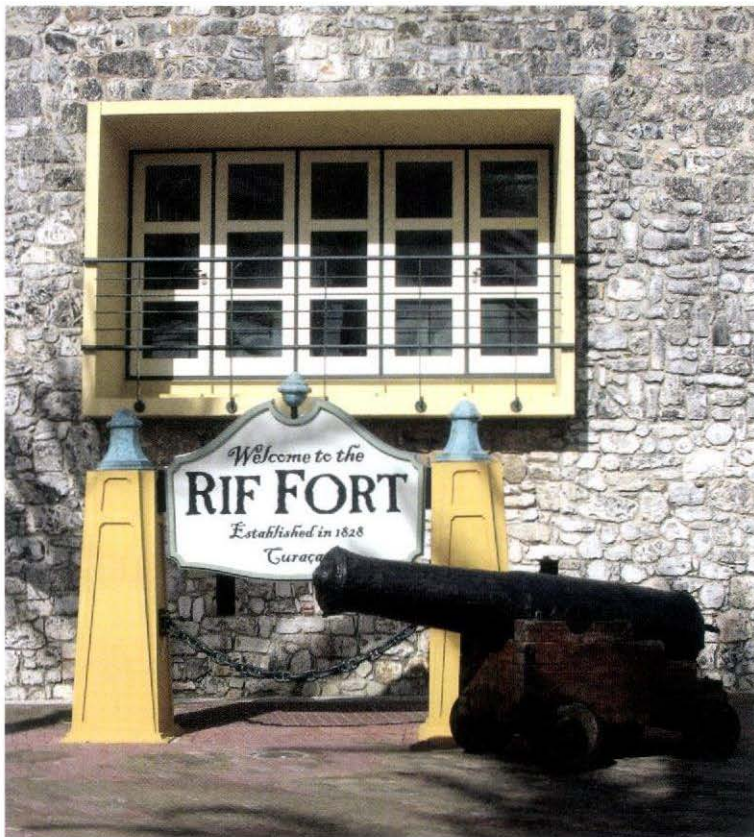
P. 307  
Right- above: Old Willemstad  
waterfront..

P. 308  
Right-below: Fort Amsterdam  
water gate, inside view

On the Caribbean island of Curacao, one may still find historic buildings and the remains of many forts. The capital of Curacao is Willemstad, and the historic part of the town is recognized as a UNESCO World Heritage site. The historic forts along the waterfront such as Fort Amsterdam (1635), Waterford (1826) and Rif Fort (1828) have lost their military significance, but they now host different economic-administrative functions.

Visiting the Rif Fort and Waterford, one finds lots of trendy shops, restaurants and cafes. The buildings of the central government are situated in Fort Amsterdam, and the old church can also be found here. These forts highlight the various waterfronts of the old Willemstad town.

Behind and around the forts, the historic city is laid out. Annually, hundreds of thousands of tourists visit the island with its rich heritage from the past; it is very important for the economic wealth of Curacao and its inhabitants.





Another example is located in the Netherlands, namely the ancient city of 's-Hertogenbosch, the capital of the southern province Brabant. The citadel fort in 's-Hertogenbosch is situated within walking distance of the city center. This fort was built between 1637 and 1645. Like others, this fort also lost its military function and remained empty for a long time. After a restoration between 1983 and 1985, the citadel was revived and now is home to the Historical Information Centre of the province Brabant, and a digital archive on the Internet. The archive also contains a library where historical books are stored. There are facilities for interested visitors to study the books or consult the archive material. They have a small museum, and a number of historic artifacts are on display at the various showcases.



P. 309

Left: Citadel Fort,  
's-Hertogenbosch, Netherlands  
in 2011.

## CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES OF FORTS IN INDONESIA

For a topic like this, one can devote a major study or writing a book as it is a multi-disciplinary subject that includes cultural and historical values, population density and related socio-demographic data. The geographic access to the intended area and the rural or urban location of a fort plays a key role. Besides that, often there is no clarity about the ownership of a fort. The embedding, use and importance of a fort in governmental urban and regional planning is a necessary condition.

One will understand that we may only focus on a limited number of forts and to use our imagination indicating the opportunities and potentials. By doing this, we hope to contribute to the discussion about

P. 310

Right: The city wall bastion in 's-Hertogenbosch. A bastion remnant's new design is marked by a green roof that covers the archaeological site. The roof shape projects the shape of the bastion. Through the clear continuous glass window, visitors can see the remnants and also get inside.

the use of forts and structures. Forts are more than museum pieces; their contribution to the society and its environment are unique, which will prove beneficial for the economy as well.

## **FORT WILLEM II IN UNGARAN**

Fort Willem II in Ungaran (Central Java) is in a poor state of repair and has long been empty. Above the entrance of this compact building with a small courtyard is marked the year 1786. Obviously it is a landmark located on the main road south of Semarang. However, Fort Willem II has been neglected, although some visitors visit the fort. The fort was evacuated in 2007 by the police families who lived there and Kabupaten Semarang reserved a budget to renovate the fort, but troubling issues about the ownership of the compound blocked this initiative. The fort received serious interest from the community and in June 2010 a four day art festival was organized, consisting of theater, dance, music, photography and painting exhibitions and other performances. Due to this event, for a while Fort Willem II became a spontaneous center of culture, a meeting point for participants, artists and visitors. If such usage of the fort is consistent and coincides with the ideas and wishes of the government and society, it might be an excellent new function for this former fort, even though the spatial possibilities are limited.

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P. 311

In 2011, the police as owners  
of the fort restored it for public  
functions.







P. 312

Festival Benteng Ungaran (Fort Ungaran Festival) was held by the heritage community of Semarang in 2009, before the restoration.

Other possible functions include a public-accessible archive combined with an office, or a small heritage hotel. It would be positive, as the building structure would be kept accessible to interested visitors.

Fort Willem II offers many opportunities for reuse, without losing its structure and character. The future of the fort should be anchored by putting it on the list of cultural monuments, and the destination of the fort should be defined in a regional development plan. Hopefully the struggles over the ownership will be resolved soon.

## FORT ROTTERDAM

Fort Rotterdam in Makassar (Sulawesi), was destroyed and rebuilt by the VOC in the mid 17<sup>th</sup> century, and it is around this fort that Makassar city development began. For centuries, the fort was situated by the sea, in an open environmental layout; a walled stronghold surrounded by moats at the south, east and north sides.

In the late colonial period (1940), the city council of Makassar decided to create a development plan for the sea promenade and appointed Fort Rotterdam as a subject of cultural heritage and a landmark in the urban environment. In the last decades of the twentieth century, the urban environment surrounding the fortress changed. At the south, east and north sides arose several public buildings and offices, including a spontaneous residential settlement directly obstructing display of the eastern wall.

Fort Rotterdam is used as the cultural centre of the Makassar region. Besides a tourist destination, it is also the venue of several activities such as student meetings or seminars, venue for several courses, exhibitions (Museum La Galigo) and cultural festivals. The fort is now used by government officials, the community and organizations.

The recent (and ongoing) renovation and revitalization of the fort is a challenge for reconsidering the urban situation as well. We suggest the creation of an integral urban-economic revitalization plan, with the aim of realizing a better, solitary manifestation for Fort Rotterdam in its urban environment, which will reinforce the identity of Makassar as an historically important coastal city again.

P. 313

Fort Rotterdam, a public space  
for culture activities.

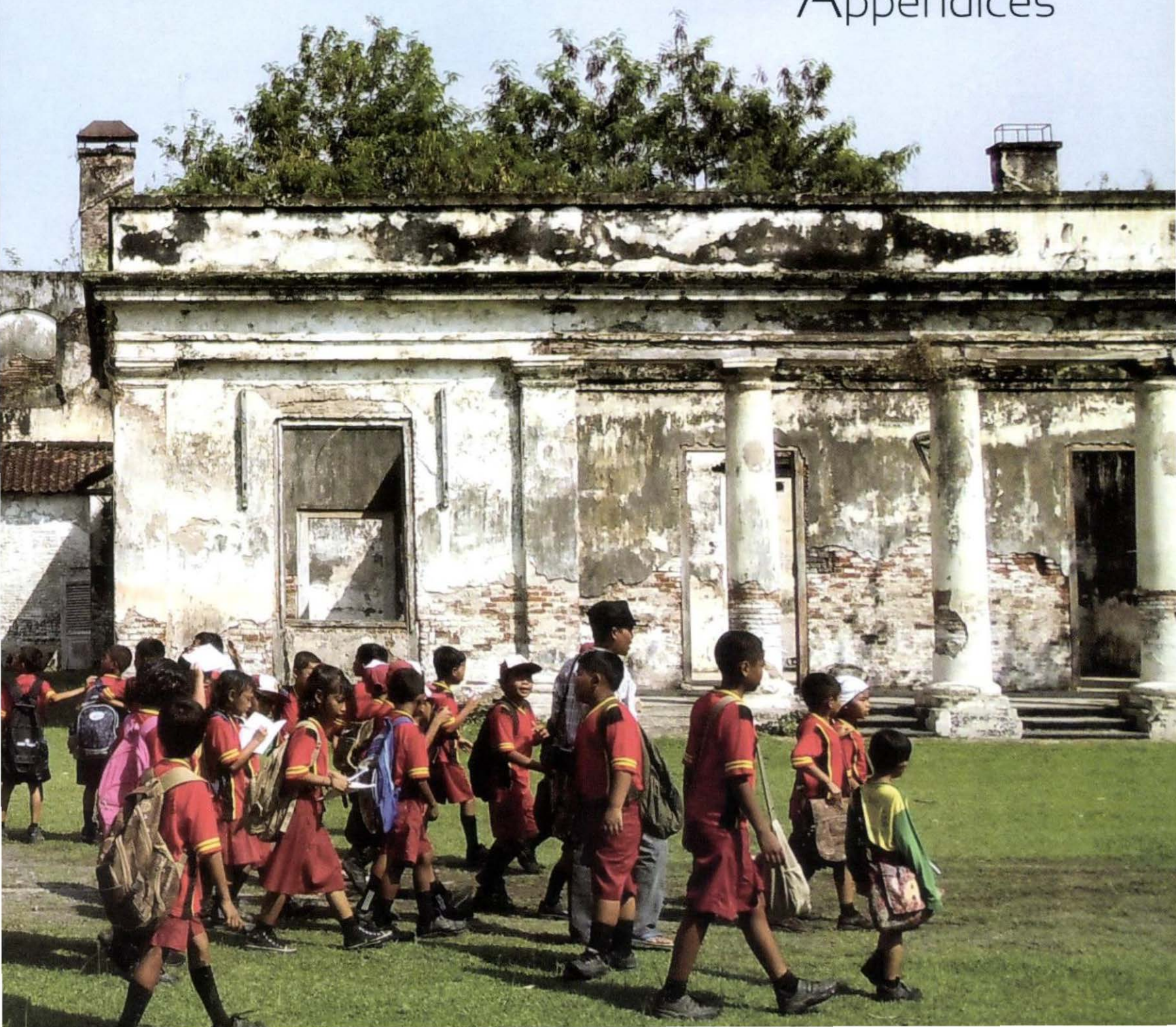








# Appendices







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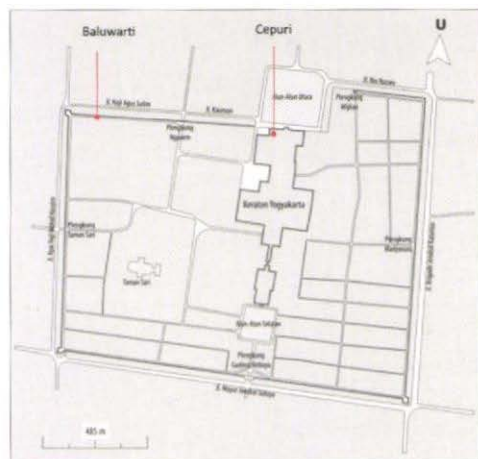
**Alley way**, platform between two walls (alley) as foot path on the top of a wall of a fortification.

P. 316. Alley way



**Baluwarti**, outer city wall of city in Central Java

P. 317. Cepuri and Baluwarti of Keraton Yogyakarta, Central Java



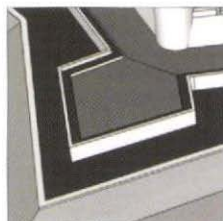
**Barbican**, an advance work protecting the gates of a town or a castle or the approaches to a bridge.

**Bartizan**, a turret projecting from the top of a tower or a wall.

**Barrack building**, a building used to accommodate temporary people or military personnel

**Bastion**, a work which projects from the main wall of a fort and is shaped in the form of a pentagon, as developed by Italian engineers.

P. 318. Bastion

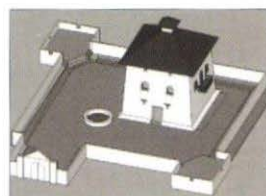


**Battery**, installation place for cannons; sometimes built as small independent defense structures

**Battlement**, a parapet with open spaces built on top of a wall and use for defense or decoration.

**Block house**, small easily defended building or structure of heavy timbers used as a fort having openings through which weapons are fired; can also function as an observation post.

P. 319. Blockhouse



**Bunker**, a fortified shelter or chamber often of reinforced concrete that is largely built below ground and provided with openings for guns.

P. 320. Bunker

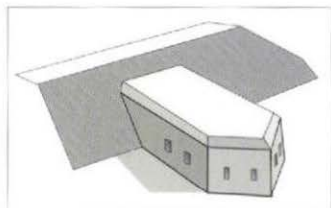




**Cannon**, a large gun consisting of an iron tube or a heavy artillery mounted on a carriage or wheels or on a rotating supporting shaft  
P. 321 cannon

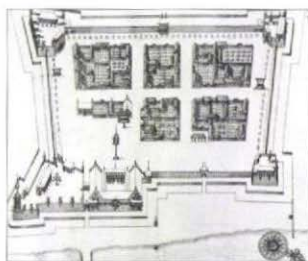
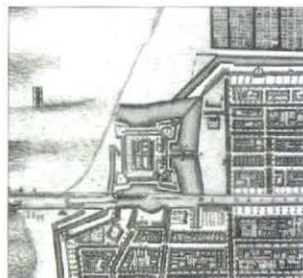


**Caponnière**, sheltered passage across the ditch providing additional flanking fire for the ditch.  
P. 322 Caponnière



**Casemate**, a vaulted chamber with a firing port usually set within a rampart of a work, from which artillery can be fired under protection.

**Castle**, a large fortified building or a complex of buildings, usually with tall solid walls, battlements and a permanent garrison.  
P. 323: castle Batavia and castle Oranye



**Cepuri**, inner city wall of city in Central Java

**Citadel**, a fort forming part of the defences of a town and fortified both towards the town towards the country.

**City wall**, a rectangular area enclosed by a fortification wall, with bastions at regular intervals. The two bastions at each corner extend slightly outside the line of the fortifications to provide a better vision on the surrounding countryside and along the length of the wall. (*Simon Stevin's Ideal Scheme for a City*)

**Command**, The vertical elevation denoting the height of the crest of the parapet which gives a dominant impression of the work.

**Cordon**, a semi-circular projection of masonry placed near the top of a wall to throw off the drip of rain and also act as an obstacle to escalade.

**Counterguard**, a narrow detached rampart immediately in front of an important work that prevents it from being breached or function as a reserve defense.

**Counterscarp**, the exterior of the ditch, below the covered way and glacis.

**Covered Way**, pedestrian way on the outer edge of a ditch protected by a parapet

**Crenelle**, the gap in an embrasure through which weapons are fired, the spaces between merlon.

**Curtain**, fort wall between two bastions

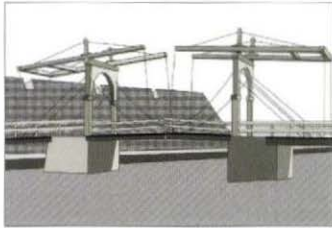
**Demibastion**, a two sided fortification that consists of a wall facing forward and a wall facing a flank.

**Demilune**, an out work resembling a bastion with a crescent shaped gorge.

**Ditch**, the excavation in front of a rampart or surrounding defensive work, it may be wet or dry.

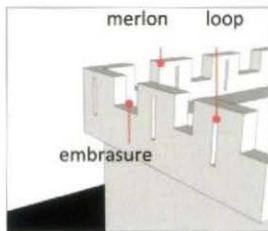
**Drawbridge**, a bridge that is hinged at one end or in the middle and can be lifted to cut off access to a place or allow something to pass beneath it.

P. 324. Drawbridge



**Embrasure**, an opening in a parapet allowing artillery to fire through.

P. 325. Embrasure, merlon and loop



**Escarp**, the inner wall of a ditch below the rampart

**Face**, front side of bastion, facing the outer side

**Flank**, back side of bastion, makes a corner with curtain

**Fort**, a strong or fortified place strategically located, occupied by troops and maintained for defence, built structurally with rampart, parapet and the glacis and provided with embrasures and traverse. It allows troops to be posted as a first line of defence.

During the initial period of VOC settlement, accommodation requirements were simple and pragmatic. Fortified trading stations were built according to the rules of military architecture. In addition sufficient building space for merchants and their commercial administration, warehouses to store merchandise, a church, a hospital and of course housing for military garrison, including a munitions store, were required. (*Cor Passchier, the Past in the Present Architecture in Indonesia*)

**Fortification**, the art or practice of strengthening or creating defences by building a wall, ditch or rampart built in order to strengthen a place defences that can be defended.

**Field fortification**, a temporary defense work intended to exist for a short limited period. Often constructed in the greatest hurry and sometimes in the presence of the enemy

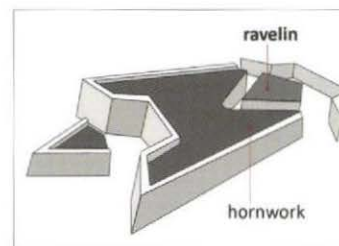
**Forework**, part of a defense structure in front of the main rampart

**Glacis**, The earth on the country side of the ditch sloping outwards from the parapet of the covered way to expose enemy attacking the work.

**Ground sill**, the horizontal piece that form the lowest level member of a frame work of supporting structure.

**Hornwork**, (1) A work to defend a point, such as bridge, and consisting of a bastioned front with two flanks extending back to and obstacle. (2) A work composing two half-bastions and a curtain, with two long sides, paralleling the faces of ravelins or bastions so as to be defended by them, (3) a freestanding quadrilateral fortification providing free in front of a Vauban period fortress.

P. 326. Hornwork



**Jagang**, a ditch or moat, of city wall in Central Java

**Keep**, the stronghold or residential part of a castle by extension an independent self defensible structure within a fort.

**Loop**, an opening in the parapet of a fortification or of an embrasure.

**Martello tower**, a fort in the form of a small circular tower especially one built on the coast for defense against invasion.



**Merlon**, the up standing section of a parapet between the embrasures behind which the defenders can shelter. (see picture 5)

**Moat**, common for ditch

**Palisades**, an obstacle or fence of pointed wooden stakes. May be found surmounting a motte or in the center of a dry ditch.

**Parapet**, a bank or earth ora wall over which a soldier may fire also known as a breastwork.

**Permanent fort**, properly built fortress constructed in time of peace to protect the area against future attack of the enemy. Since 1853, forts in the Dutch Indies that were permanently armed by a garrison were classified into four categories. Categories 1 and 2 were for forts to defend against a European enemy (only in Java). Categories 3 and 4 were considered suitable to defend against indigenous enemies.

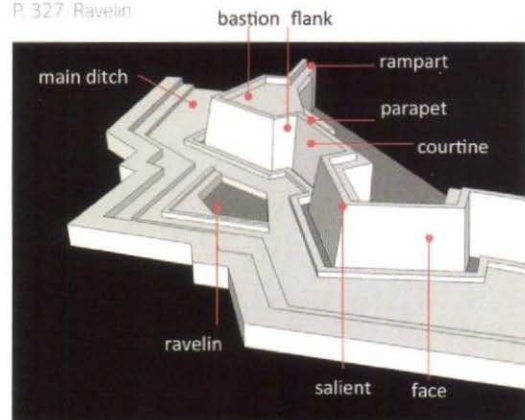
**Polygonal fort**, multi-angle fort with straight flanks with caponnières instead of bastions.

**Rampart**, a bank of earth behind a ditch on top of which is formed a parapet. It is generally built from earth excavated from the ditch and serves to give command to the parapet.

**Retrenchment**, the reduction or cutting back of a wall.

**Ravelin**, a work constructed outside the curtain, of two faces meeting a salient angle, with two demi gorges. Used to cover the curtain, the gates, or the flank of a bastion.

P. 327 Ravelin



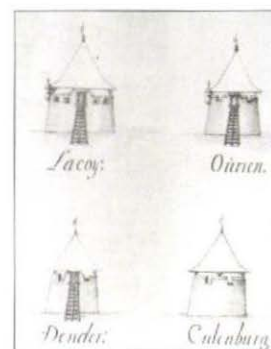
**Redoubt**, a close, independent, work, of square or polygonal trace without bastion.

**Rondelle / round bastion**, is a round or circular figure or object, e.g. panel, window or niche.

**Ravelin**, triangle outwork, placed in the ditch in front of a curtain or entrance gate.

**Redoubt**, a small defense work. VOC redoubts had a defendable tower of three floors with a high roof. It is encircled by bastions or a fence.

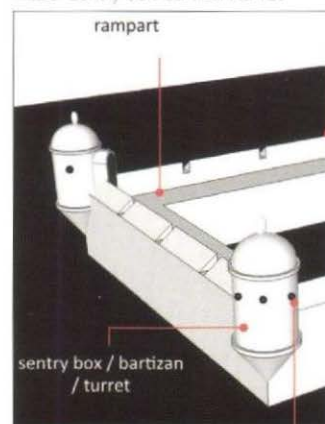
P. 328 Redoubt



**Salient**, a line of defence which thrusts out towards the enemy. Thus the point of a bastion is the 'salient angle'.

**Sentry box**, a small tower in which sentries keep watch or make a look out for the approach of enemy.

P. 329 Sentry box/bartizan/turret



**Terreplain**, an open space inside the fort, could be a wide walkway

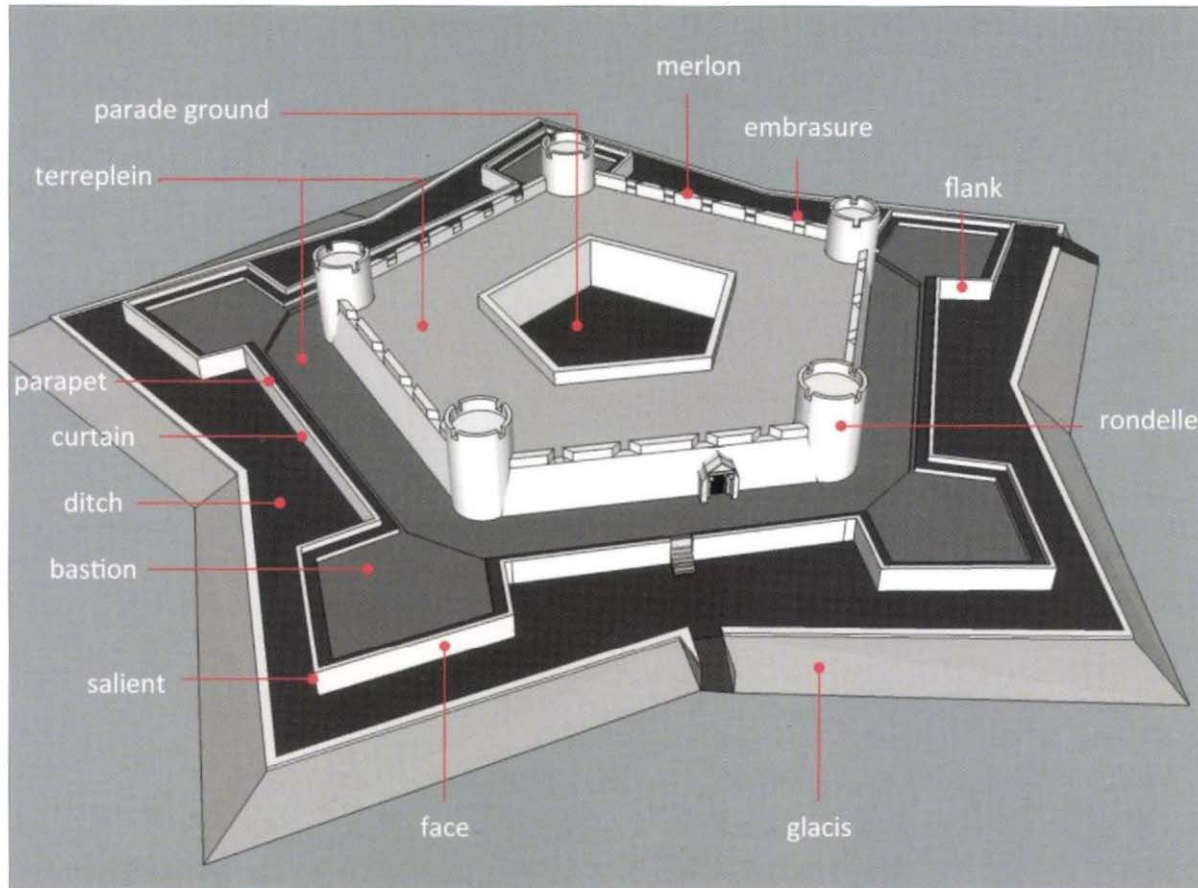
**Tenaillon**, a work sometimes placed before each face of a ravelin, leaving the salient angle exposed.

**Wall**, embankment around a defense structure provided with a parapet

**Walk way / walk-wall**, platform as foot path on the top of a wall of a fortification.

**Watch tower**, a high tower in which sentries keep watch or make a look out for the approach of enemy.

P. 330. Elements of fort. Belgica. Banda. Maluku















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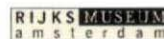
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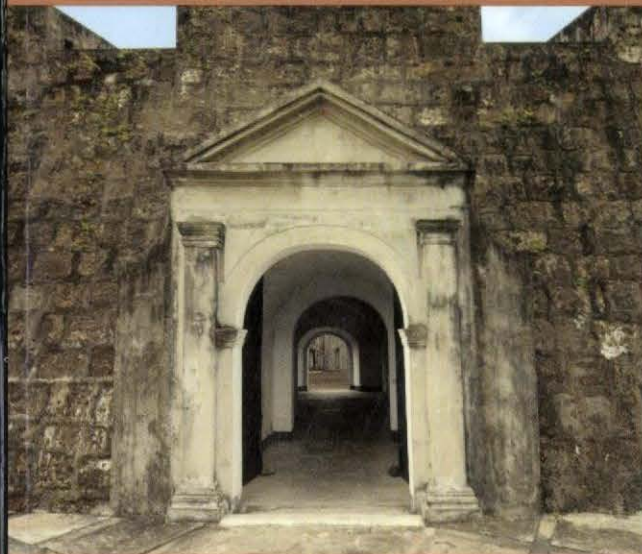


In broad terms, the forts can be classified into two categories. 126 of the 442 fortified structures are considered as a cultural legacy of ethnical or indigenous native accomplishment and listed as Nusantara forts, while the rest are the various types of forts which were built as a foreign cultural manifestation listed as Colonial forts.

Nusantara (meaning intra islands) is the ancient collective name of the archipelago scattered from the Indian Ocean to the Pacific when the great Malay culture flourished between the 8<sup>th</sup> and 14<sup>th</sup> century and formed a linkage of cultural entities. Indonesia is the modern name invented in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century to denote a political administrative region, then also known as the Nederlands Oost Indie.

Benteng is the general terminology for forts or fortified structures in the Indonesian language. It may describe a range of the various types of defendable buildings or settlements which could be in the form of a massive earth mound indigenously built by the various local ethnic communities, or it could refer to the legacy of western type of forts such as *factorij* (trade office) and *kasteel* (castle) which the VOC (Dutch United East India Trading Company) had built between the 16<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> century. Fort also denotes pillboxes and bunkers of the 20<sup>th</sup> century when the tension of the coming World War II increased and caused a hectic need in the threatened Dutch party, as well as in the Japanese forces that occupied the islands and had to build such defensive fortification buildings.

By tradition in several languages of the world, those structures have different names according to their function, type, location, period, size, form and construction technique, and names for their specific architectural elements. To highlight a selection of those forts from the architecture product angle may enhance appreciation of how past generations of our forefathers made efforts to settle political and armed conflicts by building fortified settlements which have become shared cultural heritage in the present day.



*The forts described in this book are those built between the period of the Portuguese arrival to the Dutch East Indies (1512-1942). In this period hundreds of Colonial and Nusantara forts were built in the Indonesian Archipelago. Colonial forts are forts built by the Europeans until the 1800s, primarily to serve as a defence for their trade ports. These forts were then used by the army. The Nusantara forts are those built by different communities of the Indonesian archipelago. During certain period, they also include forts that were built by foreigners based on requests from certain Indonesia communities. The diversities of these forts, its enchanting sites and interesting history are the main attractions of this book.*

# Forts in Indonesia



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