Concomitant Recital of a Prolonged Reign: Dilation of the Dutch Empire and Enticement of Ascendency, Delineating Batavia, Victim and Valedictorian

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ABSTRACT

The VOC (Verenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie) was both the absolutist and the pacifier as it sought to colonize Sunda Kelapa through the displacement of indigenous population, architecture, and regimen; the VOC was deployed catalyst to the marking of a golden era, roughly spanning the 17th century through which architecture, trade, science, and military boomed, marking Jakarta a resilient harbour to the world's finest trades. Batavia, modern day Jakarta, welded a myriad of names, endorsing its irrefutable paramount; one of which, "Queen of the East", paraphrased an allusion to its urban beauty. Until its last derogatory stages, before the Dutch surrendered to the Japanese, the name Batavia ricocheted across the globe, as reverberation to its resilience, urban beauty, varsity of cultures, and robust trade as the Dutch East India Company. The VOC has, unequivocally, paved the road of prominence for the glorious city of Jakarta, manifesting a discourse of exalt. Analysing the egress and relinquishment of the Dutch Empire and its appurtenant colony, delineating the urban tableau, a prevalent architectural resplendence. The unravelling of holistic fabric through which urban planning, architectonics, politics and sociology interweave, meandering the gradual transition of the Dutch East Indies, yearning subordinate to Jakarta; the unwavering proclaimed prerogative.

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1. Forge of an Empire

1.1. Introduction

The VOC, Vereenigde Oostindische Compagnie, acknowledged as the epitome to multi-national companies, was an amassed joint company constituted of six different major Dutch companies. The Compagnie was a culmination of Dutch efforts to surpass competing European trading companies thriving in the East Indies, the world’s largest archipelago, encompassing 17,500 islands, one of which is Java, a relatively young island acknowledged for its remarkable fertility due to its geographical constitution. A trade port since the twelfth century, Jayakarta, origin of today’s name Jakarta, lied in central Java and was, therefore, sought by traders from Asia and...
Europe due to its strategic location, breeding dispute and wage of wars as companies competed for sovereign foothold. The power-shift labyrinth is palpably manifested through each ruling power’s attempt at alluding to its reign in the city’s ever-changing urban morphology, architecture, culture, socioeconomics, and, subsequently, name. Batavia, an allusion to the Dutch republic’s legendary ancestors, was assigned to the colonial city by the VOC Governor-General, Jan Pieterszoon Coen, and has quivered a ricochet in Jakarta’s history as its ruling power, the VOC, laid the foundation to the city’s thriving, prompting a golden age through which the East Indies’ economy soared. This monograph is a historical, urban, architectural, and sociological record of Jakarta’s colonial and post-colonial environs through which the Dutch Compagnie’s influence is discernible, affecting both the Indonesian context and its dwellers. The methods employed in the study are therefore dependent on a thorough reconstruction of the historical events, surveying of the city’s urban morphology, analysing of the sociological inbred hybridity, and conducting of a comparative analysis thereafter which, in turn, denotes a tenacious integration between the colonial past and post-colonial present, rendering both elements inseparable.

1.2. Formation of Batavia

Early Jakarta was part of Tarumanagara kingdom in the fourth century; Hinduism and Buddhism domineered the region, granting central Java the name Land of Thousand Temples. Amongst the integral apparatus to Jakarta’s political and social power was Sunda Kelapa’s port which was part of the Srivijaya Empire in the seventh century, a power that consolidated its tenure until the thirteenth century. A univocal trade sovereign first attracted Europeans into the region in the sixteenth century when the Portuguese merchants first ventured forays to the region and, eventually, established concord with the Sunda Kingdom, building their own port in 1522. It wasn’t until 1527 that the city waned in the face of the powerful Banten Sultanate and was named Jayakarta.

The fifteenth century was marked by the Portuguese efforts to enlighten the Europeans of the world’s broad oceans in hopes of emphasizing an annex to the European market through the cheaply provided spices of the East. It was the venturesome expeditions initiated by the Portuguese, followed by the Spanish that sparked an interest in the Dutch Republic to explore the Indies. The first Dutch expedition to Indonesia, taking place from 1595 to 1597, was instrumental to the viability of the soon to be founded VOC and its lucrative contribution to the Indonesian spice trade. Compagnie van Verre, the first Dutch expedition, raised 290,000 guilders, cobbling four ships: the Mauritius, Amsterdam, Hollandia, and Duyfken. The fleet faced plenty of obstacles, many of which were a direct result of bad leadership skills offered by Cornelis de Houtman, the de facto leader of the expedition. Suffering many losses and earning very few allocation of spices, Compagnie van Verre yielded many of its recruits due to illness or sporadic unfriendliness towards the natives which cost the Dutch wars the armada.
couldn’t handle. The following expedition, taking place from 1598 to 1600, raised a tremendous amount of 800,000 guilders, an unprecedented amount of money ever to be reconciled in the Netherlands for a private venture. Corelius van Neck brought strategic and administrative measures to the expedition as he exploited predecessor shortcomings into employing a route that cut the journey’s duration in half. Van Neck, moreover, exerted greater control over the Bantamese natives as he shrewdly offered protection against a mutual enemy, the Portuguese, granting the Dutch fleet a surplus of spices in exchange for their assistance. Putting a democratic apparatus to work earned the expedition a tremendous success, netting a 400% profit for its backers. In light of the successful expedition and following successes launched thereafter, an apprehension of subsequent dispute rising between Dutch merchants declared it mandatory that the Dutch unify their efforts into a singular entity: Vereenigde Oostindische Compagnie. The VOC had a very clear objective: securing a Dutch foothold in Asian trade, which meant eradicating any competitors to achieve domination. The Staten-Generaal played a substantial role into the fulfilment of the VOC’s goal by granting them rights to build fortresses, declare defensive wars, and amend treaties that served their end. In 1611, the VOC existed merely as a trading post in Jayakarta, confined by the power of Prince Jayawikarta whose tenure abode by the Banten Sultanate. It was the escalating Dutch power that ticked off Prince Jayawikarta, adhering to a discourse that sought the British Company’s aid. The agitated prince initiated an attack with the help of the British on the Dutch Fort Jacatra. Shortly after the turbulent events, the Bantanese authorities addressed their exasperation of the unapproved alliance with the British forces to the prince. Jan Pieterszoon Coen, governor-general of the VOC, took advantage of the political plight in Jayakarta and razed it to the ground, marking the beginning of Batavia.

1.3. Escalating Power

“Now we have defeated those from Bantam out of Jacatra and have foot and domin in the land of Java. Her (these are the English) wickedness has been punished with in reason. Certainly, this victory and the flight of the haughty English will create much terror throughout the Indies. The honour and reputation of the Dutch will improve enormously by it. Everyone will search to be our friend. The foundation of the so long wished for rendez-vous has been laid. A large part of the most fertile land and seas of the Indies can be called yours”

Governor General Coen write to the Gentlemen XVII in the Netherlands (Coen I, pp 472)

The Dutch left a strong imprint on Jakarta’s urban fabric as well as on local affairs that have morphed radically in the 17th century, marking Jakarta’s golden age. The Compagnie’s growing jurisdiction is reflected through the commission of various constructions that still stand today in Jakarta’s old town and Batavia’s headquarters, Kota Tua; amongst which are factories and warehouses that tended to the booming of the city’s welfare. After having taken control of Jayakarta, Coen started a spatial reconfiguration of the city that included a new fort, nine times the size of the old Fort Jacatra, and walled settlements, later separated from the fort and castle by a canal named Kasteelgracht, located south of the archaic city’s centre. Saving very little of the original context of Jayakarta, Coen intended for the city to reflect Dutch sovereignty and encompass only Dutch residents, expelling all of Jayakarta’s ingenuous occupants. Planned
settlements were shrewdly aligned parallel to the river and perpendicular to the sea, ergo, to the fort, ensuring the protection of the settlements. Land and water development in the orderly parcelling of the city establishes physical evidence to the Dutch persona sought to be deployed, which stood the test of time as the city continues to reflect that persona. A very intricate and elaborate urban scheme was unravelling from 1622 onward: the maps demonstrate a paraphrasing of the settlements, amassing a startling shift over the 1618-1627 interval.

Figure 4. 1618 map shows the Dutch’s limited jurisdiction in the city of then Jayakarta. F.de Haan. Oud Batavia

Figure 5. 1619 map shows Jayakarta after the Dutch annexed the city to the south. Het Voormalige Batavia

Figure 6. 1622 map shows stronger jurisdiction in the alignment of settlements and newly entrenched canals. Het Voormalige Batavia

Figure 7. 1627 map emphasizes a well-defined layout of settlements as well as a new canal. Het Voormalige Batavia.
An evident pattern of influenced planning doctrine can be seen in maps of Batavia. An entrenching of three canals to the east of the Ciliwung river initiated in 1622, signifying signs of civilization through the orderly aligning of settlements and nuances of a walled city declared in the rudimentary map of Batavia. Leeuwengracht, Groenegracht, and Steenhouwersgracht, an exemplary manifestation of Dutch planning, extrapolated within their environs Batavia’s first church and town-hall. Implements of connecting the three grachts through the Tijgersgracht started in 1627. A truly remarkable addition to Batavia’s s tape was the Tijgersgracht canal as its vista encompassed the rather cordial aligning of buildings and streets of Dutch design, welcoming its observer with “agreeable shadow”, as one historian comments, and scenic outlook on Batavia.

![Figure 8. View of the island and the city of Batavia, underscoring Dutch planning doctrine. Daumont, Paris c. 1780. NL. Universiteit Bibliotheek.](image)

2. Siege of Batavia

2.1. The Siege

Siege of Batavia occupies a cornerstone in Jakarta’s historically bustling timeline. A military campaign was led by Sultan Agung of Mataram to capture the Dutch port settlement of Batavia. Batavia’s future hung in the balance as it fell prey to Sultan Agung’s desire to unite the whole of Java under his rule. The Mataram and the VOC’s tense relationship dated back to the early years of Sultan Agung’s reign. Sultan Agung Hanyakkrakusuma, the third Sultan of Mataram in Central Java, was a skilled soldier and powerful ruler. Agung’s reign denotes as the golden age of the Mataram as under his reign, almost the entirety of Java Island was reconciled. The European port and settlement, Batavia, became the single unattainable entity in Java Island. A treaty was forth between the two opposing forces, the Mataram and the Dutch East Indies, in the early 1600s; one that granted the establishment of the VOC’s trading post in Jepara. The VOC, to return the kindness, had to aid the Mataram in the relinquishment of Surabaya. However, busy as the VOC was with setting foothold in Moluccas and eventually Jayakarta, the VOC refused to help the adamant Sultan with his endeavours, triggering a retaliation that burned the VOC’s trade port in Jepara. Shortly after, the VOC counter-stroke the Mataram’s capital, inflicting heavy damage. Since then, the relation between the Mataram and the VOC deteriorated gravely.

Confirming the Dutch’s doubts, an escalating number of Mataram ships followed the vanguard several days later, prompting the Dutch to pull all personnel into the castle and open fire on incoming Javanese. Sultan Agung sent two forces: one by sea and another overland. Jan Pieterszoon Coen articulately handled the landing of Mataram on Batavia’s soil by burning most of Batavia’s bamboo shack suburbs, denying the Mataram of any shelter. As the number of Mataram ships arriving on Batavia’s bay increased and eventually launched their first attacks on Fort Hollandia, 120 VOC troops fought back the
attack, inflicting heavy damage to the Javanese. The Mataram retaliated by blockading all roads running south and west of the city and tried, henceforth, to dam the Ciliwung river to limit the Dutch’s water supply. Consequently, the Mataram’s attempts were futile as they had not come prepared for a long siege so far from home, in an area devoid of local logistical support. The Mataram was running out of supplies and perseverance in the face of the Dutch’s hefty military and fortifications. Shortly afterwards, the Dutch learned that their opponents had marched home. A second attempt arose as the Sultan was determined to conquer Batavia. The second strike was bigger and more prepared but was, however, of no success as the VOC burned down the Mataram’s supplies, forcing the Sultan to retreat and surrender to the VOC’s unassailable existence.

2.2. Following the Siege
The key element in Jayakarta’s transition was the sequential morphing of its urban fabric and architecture that served as a testimony to the events the city has endured. Siege of Batavia foresaw a need to update the city’s defence system. Batavia had only occupied the eastern sector of the Ciliwung River’s vista. Governor-General, Jacques Specx, resorted to the planning stratagem of a renowned Dutch military engineer, Simon Stevin, designing a moat and extending the city walls to the west of Batavia. The defensive stratagem followed an application of arithmetic units, strict symmetry, and Dutch engineering and fortification works from the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Stevin’s ideal city alludes to the typical Greek and Roman cities; the city followed a grid that yearned to the existence of a primary axis which, deployed by the river or a canal, allocated the city’s functions. An ideal city had an encompassing water moat and a canal scheme that ran through the city’s grid. According to Stevin’s De Stercktenbouwing, military buildings were constructed like forts: with fortification walls, canals, locks, dikes, and bridges. De Stercktenbouwing also mentions the principles upon which the fortifications are built: a geometric basis which would be adapted to the projectile orbits of the new firearms, instead of the archaic cross-bow. Batavia’s fortifications were constructed using earthen walls as they are, according to Stevin, more resistant to the impact of bullets. The ideal city bore an exhaustive canal system that tended to both the city’s connectivity and protection; the canal system, however, caused a tremendous amount of problems to the capital both by its restricted capacity and unhygienic circumstances; a predicament that forebode a city centre shift.

Figure 10. The development of Batavia based on the military defensive engineering stratagem by Simon Stevin. Tropenmuseum, part of the National Museum of World Cultures.

3. Colonial Demise
3.1. Fully Fledged Colony
Batavia continued to thrive affluently in the first half of the 17th century, drawing migrants from all around its environs. Since Batavia was built to reflect the centre of colonial administration, the city’s walls welcomed only peers of that administration. Outside the walls, henceforth, offered settlement for rural migrants. The colonial town constituted a societal system, distinguishing the residents of Kota from the local residents in indigenous Kampungs. In this system of societal separation between the Europeans ranked as first-class citizens and the Chinese and other alien orientals second, an architectural and spatial configuration deployed physical emphasis in terms of infrastructure sufficiency, security, and building material that resulted in a drastic shift in architectural character between inside and outside the city walls. The activity carried out outside the walls eventually disturbed Batavia’s equilibrium as large-scale cultivation of the hinterland resulted in coastal erosion of northern Batavia. Moreover, maintenance of the canals was extensive as a result of frequent closures. In the 18th century, Batavia grew to be more unsafe, a predicament that propelled Malaria epidemics, killing many Europeans, earning the city the nickname Het Kerkhof der Europeanen, translating to The Cemetery of the Europeans. It didn’t take long until the wealthier settlers of Batavia abandoned Kota
and moved to southern regions of higher elevation. Somewhere in the middle of Kota’s relinquishment, the VOC started to decline. The decline which eventually led to the dissolution of the Compagnie was caused by several internal and external factors. Lack of market for certain commodities and corruption amongst the VOC’s personnel were among the reasons behind the Compagnie’s downfall. After the VOC went bankrupt, eventually, and was dismantled in 1799, all of the Compagnie’s assets and wealth were taken over and liquidated by the Dutch government, nationalizing the VOC’s territorial claims into a fully-fledged colony, the Dutch East Indies.

Figure 11. Batavia’s spatial configuration map circa 1744 (Plan de la Ville et du Château Batavia, Jacques Nicolas).

3.1.1. Development of Weltevreden

Early nineteenth century marked the beginning of the French and British interregnum, taking place from 1806 to 1815; a relatively short period that had momentous influence in the history of the Dutch East Indies and Java’s urban morphology. Java underwent vigorous infrastructure rehabilitation and reformation of administration in the colony. The French Empire and the British East India Company (EIC) contended for the control of Java. King Lodewijik Napoleon assigned one his generals, Herman Willem Daendels, to be acting Governor-General of the East Indies and strengthen Java’s defence system to uphold the British-anticipated-invasion. A martial ruler, Daendels built new roads, hospitals, military barracks, and new arms factories in Surabaya and Semarang. Daendels also gave rise to a new city centre, namely several kilometres to the south of the old city and named it Weltevreden. Kasteel Batavia was demolished and replaced, in light of military appropriations against the EIC, by a robust structure in Surabaya named after the king, Fort Lodewijik.

The rise of the British EIC was among the causes after which the VOC collapsed and it’s in the culmination of their conflicts that the Dutch rises again and recaptures the Dutch East Indies. The period of the British Interregnum, 1811-1815, yielded a great many changes to the archipelago. Thomas Raffles, appointed lieutenant governor of Java by Baron Minto, implemented liberal economic principles and liberalized the system of land tenure, putting a stop to compulsory cultivation in Java. It was under Raffles that a large number of ancient Javanese monuments were rediscovered and excavated, contributing majorly to the welfare of the city’s identity. In 1816 the Dutch regained full control of their colony and resumed conquering other independent polities in the means of fulfilling full control of the archipelago. Batavia prospered in the second Dutch reign. The city now held two city centres: Batavia-stad and Weltevreden. Batavia-stad, formerly Kota Tua, acted as the business hub where offices, warehouses of shipping, and trading companies were located. Weltevreden, on the other hand, served as the new home for government, military, and commercial insets. The two centres were connected by a canal, Molenvliet Canal, and a road that ran parallel to the waterway. A new architectural style emerged, exemplar of the era’s prospering, and was named Indies Empire Style after the colony. The style deploys sophistication and beauty, deployable in its white plastered villas and grand front porches. The efforts dedicated to the beautification of Batavia earned it the nickname De Koningen van het Oosten or Queen of the East.

Figure 12. Javasche Bank, Batavia. Extract from Batavia-Weltevreden-Meester Cornelis,
3.1.2. The Second Dutch Reign

Persevering a yet another influential reign, the Dutch effectuated a cultivation system in the mid-nineteenth century that imposed all agricultural productions of Batavia devote a portion to export crops; a cultivation tax, the Cultuurstelsel. The 1860s marked the start of a rather remarkable period, the Liberal Period, which highlighted an effort to right the injustices employed by the Cultuurstelsel and culminated at bringing an end to the system. Abolition of the system made way for the establishment of a great many advances to the city’s trade and private enterprise. In light of the abolition, Kota or Batavia-stad replenished its deteriorating structures and replaced them with auxiliary structures that would serve as first hand recipient of goods brought through the Ciliwung River. Batavia continued to thrive as it established its first railway system in 1867, contributing to a more efficient transportation network throughout Java. Batavia’s welfare drew a perpetual increase in the city’s population which, in turn, gave rise to a general atmosphere of restlessness caused by the uprising demand for housing and dense living condition. In a time of change that few could adapt to, crop failures and outbreaks of disease concurred as a direct response to escalating absence of public amenities and subsequent poor sanitation. In 1901, the Dutch queen, Wilhelmina of the Netherlands, announced the government’s willingness to bear “moral duty” towards their colonial polity and the subjects whom the Netherlands bore a “debt of honour” towards as a result to the remarkable Cultuurstelsel profits. This Politiek called for new and extensive government initiatives to expand public schooling, improve healthcare, modernize infrastructure, and reduce poverty. The goals set by the Politiek, however, delivered little real fruit as substantial funding was required to set-forth such drastic measures to the Indonesian population’s welfare. The Politiek, however intangible some of its goals were, brought improvement to roads, communication, and flood control to Batavia which also cued transmigration policies to relieve population pressure in Java. By the late 1920s, the colonial government’s efforts have moved a long way from the idealistic goals the Politiek had set for the now growing Indonesian demands for independence; demands that had grown as ricochet to the rising Indonesian awareness brought forth by the modernized and politically broad education system.

3.2. A National Awakening

A crucial sequential element to the upheaval of the Indonesian Nationalist conscience is the rise of westernized education; the notion that drew unbiased parallelism in the education of both indigenous and European students. In the process, Javanese students became quickly
aware of what a tiny majority they shaped up in their very own society. Beginning to coalesce as a society very much aware of their diversity, the indigenous graduates imagined a modern society of their own; based on achievement rather than innate traits that made up the race; devotion to modernity rather than tradition. They believed they could dictate rules to the remainder of the century and change history’s course. Soon enough a discourse in action was mandatory to Indonesians who began to speak of Pergerakan; a concept aimed mainly at obtaining freedom from the Dutch rule. Nationalist movements developed rapidly in the first decade of the twentieth century upon which associations such as PKI prompted sabotage and rebellion in Western Java and Sumatra. Chants that posed a challenge to Dutch supremacy spread throughout the archipelago. The Dutch government grew outrageous and frightened of the perpetual insurrections, leading to brutal amendments as arresting and exiling thousands of communists which effectively shut the associations down only until the Dutch were abolished by the Japanese.

“We have ruled here for 300 years with the whip and the club, and we shall still be doing it for another 300 years”

Dutch Governor-General Bonifacius C. de Jonge

March the 5th, 1942, the Dutch formally surrendered to the Japanese occupation forces, transferring the rule of the colony to Japan under which the city has morphed drastically. Under German occupation, the Dutch barely acted to maintain its acquisition of Indonesia. The Japanese, unlike the Dutch, facilitated education, trained, and armed young Indonesians, bringing their existence and political voice into eminence. It was under Japanese occupation that the notion of Indonesian Independence emanated, and the city was renamed Jakarta. The Netherlands, sought to reclaim the Indies but the Indonesians’ striving to maintain what they’ve only recently acquired, their identity, ensued a social and military struggle which resulted in the Netherlands’ recognition of Indonesian Sovereignty in December 1949.

4. Morphology of the City: A Conclusion
4.1. Sociology of the Dutch East Indies

“Whoever wishes to contemplate the Company in the possession of regal and princely power, must seek her in Asia, where she sits enthroned; is mistress of life and death; deposes and raises up kings; makes war and peace; has her own mint; and possesses all the attributes and signs pertaining to independent sovereigns”

Jan de Marre, Batavia

The Dutch ubiquity in the East was determined by men throughout the 19th century. The phenomenon of a societal concept in the Dutch East Indies reverberates the gradient collimate in colonial political ideologies. Availing the ascendancy of phallic dominance. Portraying a condescending European colonizer to the native populace, an echoic of domestic male dominance, conveyed by policies reassuring concubinage and the discriminating prohibition of female immigration to the colony. An alteration in ideological principles, an exigency, a quodlibet of degeneracy and the endeavour of women. A preeminent change to a more European destined colony, where they were the superior race and in control of economic affairs, having a strong stable society based on families. As a reverberation, outmoded policies were abscised, acquainting novel regulations, allowing liberal immigration practices, the fiscal patronize of European families and the provision of inevitable amenities, endorsing a colonial society settled or dictated upon Dutch scruples. With the VOC becoming a contrivance templet for divergent metropolitan bourgeoises and sovereigns, exalting, amongst others, the English East India Company and the umpteen French Compagnies des Indes Orientales. Persisting as one of the most prospering, hybrid colonial endeavours. Authorizing mercantile emulation, noesis, traversing the globe. A deviation, ranging from the mercantilism of spices and clothes in Indonesia and India, to the industrialization of sugar in Brazil and the slave trade in Africa. An ensuing, indispensable in the sociological field. A primal component, apprehending the formation of the global colonial system, elucidating the causal factors of an attainment, a downfall and systemic transformation. A perfunctory coup d’oeil at the dire straits of Indonesia, accenting Jakarta, the cardinal plinth and demesne of the Dutch empire, bewrays a radical and volatile modus vivendi of colonial domination. A concomitant,
the displacement of the ancien régime styles of accumulation and rule and the segue of Dutch colonialism from a company rule towards a more bureaucratic, socially interventionist system. The suburbanization of Jakarta, an efficacious pragmatic of sociology. With the emergency of accruing poverty, irrupting of slums and the lack of a safety net. The dependency of Jakarta’s residents upon the dynamic inclement of the urban and built environment. As an emphasis, the Dutch East Indies, merely a class-conscious society.

4.2. Colonial Architecture

“Cities and Thrones and Powers Stand in Time’s eye, Almost as long as flowers, Which daily die; But, as new buds put forth, To glad new men, Out of the spent and unconsidered Earth, The Cities rise again” Rudyard Kipling, "Cities and Thrones and Powers", Puck of Pook's Hill

An imperative and expedient location, Batavia has been scrutinized in original old maps, delineating the chef-d’oeuvre in progress or furtherance. Culminating a vignette of the fortifications, a work that has progressed over the decades, raising questions regarding the efficiency of the town’s defence. The study reveals the construction progress and its development over the years, keeping up with modern types of bastion construction. Castle of Batavia, proverbial, Kasteel Batavia, a fortification used as the administrative centre of the Dutch East India Company, settled at the mouth of Ciliwung river in Jakarta. An amalgam of Dutch and Italian contriver, a geometrical basis, adapted to the novel armament. Castle of Batavia, at its expanse, a framework square-shaped, was armoured or accoutred with four protrusive bastions, entitled to the appellation of inestimable stones; the sturdy bastions protruded from every corner. Perusing 17th century itineraries, one can decipher that those who visited the castle, described it as being substantially spacious. The accretion or alluvion of the coast of Batavia depicts a mid-18th century conundrum. A prosaicagnise, the castle of Batavia unreasonably outlined the seashore as defence for the mouth of the harbour. In need of a more pragmatic alternative, the construction of a new fortification initiated in 1741; entitled Waterkasteel. Located at the end of the foreland, the fort was perceived as a preliminary palisade of the city, bringing forth the Trace Italienne, reiterated; the Italian outline was an exordium to a vogue, conglomerated with a gradualist plan of conquest. The fort was of profound influence to the settlers of the colony, rearticulating the colonial representations; the formation of a “culture of fear” where Colonial architecture and culture arrogated. Colonial culture has compelled the invention of a new post-colonial identity; nuances of Indonesian identity in architecture has sizeable imprint in the history of the nation, shaping the nation’s political culture and its spatial configuration in urbanism. The role of racial and societal identity has direct impact on the nation’s cultural politics. Moreover, the significance of space is accountable for unravelling of collective subjectivities and the ‘culture of fear’ in the urban space of contemporary Indonesia. It is therefore, discernible through the study that architecture and urban space can be interpreted as both historical and theoretical representation of political and cultural tendencies that characterize an emerging and a declining social order, concurrently. The map displays the formerly known Kasteelweg and Kasteelstraat, at the present-day street Jalan Tongkol, traverses through the centre where Castle of Batavia once stood. The area is designated as part of Kota Tua, Jakarta's old town. Also discernible are the Dutch urban planning practices of the seventeenth century in the Indies, demonstrating Dutch hierarchy. Jakarta presents a vivid illustration of how a city’s very form served to expose the Dutch aspect, inherent in cities that has yearned to its dominion.

Figure 15. Plan, elevations and sections of the castle of Batavia, 1762. [Nationaal Archief, Verzameling Buitenlandse Kaarten Leupe, Inventaris nr. 1198]
4.3. Urban Fabric

Jakarta’s urban morphology remains an important testimony to the Dutch Compagnie’s influence which gravely altered the archipelago’s structure through its prolonged reign. Java constitutes a rather geographically prestigious site which justifies conflict over its acquisition. Moreover, one of the most remarkable features Jakarta’s urban morphology deploys is the palpable shift in the city’s planning, constituting a paradigm to the historical events the city has underwent and the culminating diverse identity. The city emanates at the northern port and diverges through canals and settlements that constituted the canals’ vista. The city grew gradually to divulge evolution of elaborate military strength, sovereign, and economic welfare. The Dutch surrounded the city with sturdy walls and moats, a defensive stratagem typical Dutch planning manifests. It wasn’t until wars like the Siege of Batavia that the city expanded grandly to outgrow the preliminary Jan Pieterszoon Coen drafts of Batavia and Fort Jacatra. The French and British Interregnum contributed greatly to the city’s southern parceling and eventual configuration of two centers: Batavia-stad or Kota Tua and Weltevreden. Kota and Kampung were two distinct demonstrations of architectural character and spatial structure. Kampungs resembled informal settlements that resided outside city walls and lacked proper building materials and sufficient infrastructure which Kota affluently conveys. The city then underwent beautification initiatives in its second Dutch Reign which glorified the new city centre, Weltevreden, appropriating it with squares, parks, and elitist architecture. Mediating Kota, now a business hub, and Weltevreden was a canal and road that ran alongside the waterway, proliferating a medium that connected both realms of the future and past. The city continued to grow about these two media notably after the declaration of Indonesian Sovereignty in 1949. Modern-day Jakarta still cherishes the two centres in its urban formation as they hold the main canals, roads, the city’s main functions, and heritage of both colonial and post-colonial Jakarta.
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