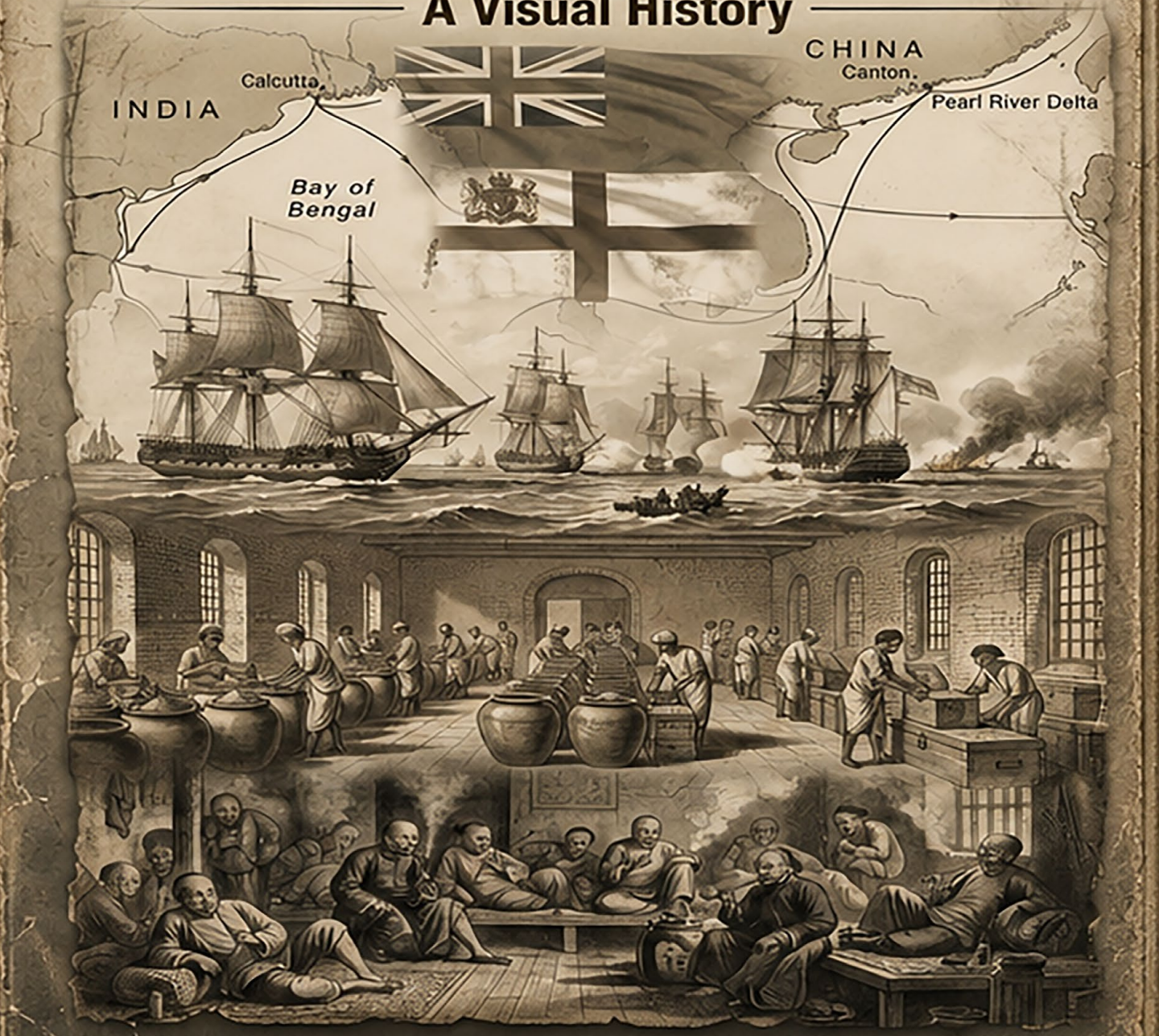
THE OPIUM TRADE:
COLONIAL EXPLOITATION & STATE POWER
A Visual History



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Preface

Throughout history, certain commodities have played pivotal roles in shaping the economic, social, and political landscapes of societies. The history of commodities during the period of colonization is a complex tapestry that intertwines with the evolution of contemporary supply chains and global trade. By examining the colonial past, we gain invaluable insights into the economic and social dynamics that continue to influence modern industrial production, management and trade practices.

During colonization, commodities such as indigo, opium, tobacco, cotton, tea, coffee, and sugarcane were not merely goods to be traded; they were instruments of power and control. European empires established expansive trade networks, exploiting both the natural and human resources of colonized lands. This exploitation laid the groundwork for the global trade systems we see today, where the flow of goods often follows the same routes established during colonial times.

The supply chains that support contemporary global trade have their roots in the colonial era. The infrastructure developed for transporting commodities like cotton and sugarcane from colonies to European markets has evolved into the complex logistical networks that facilitate today's trade. Understanding the historical context of these routes helps us comprehend why certain regions remain central to global trade and why some supply chains are more resilient than others.

Colonialism also established economic patterns of production and trade that persist to this day. The division of labor, where colonies supplied raw materials and the colonizing nations provided manufactured goods, still echoes in the modern world, where developing countries are often suppliers of raw materials to industrialized nations. This historical perspective is crucial for understanding contemporary economic

disparities and trade imbalances.

The institutions that govern global trade, including legal systems and financial structures, are also products of the colonial era. The policies and practices that were implemented to manage the trade of commodities like opium and indigo have been adapted and integrated into current international trade agreements and organizations.

The colonial history of commodities provides a lens through which we can analyze and understand the intricacies of contemporary supply chains and global trade. It reveals the long-standing economic relationships and power dynamics that continue to shape our world. By studying the past, we can strive for a more equitable and sustainable future for global trade.

Through a proposed series of books and other media (including documentaries and Web resources) on the visual histories of such commodities (beginning with this book on indigo), the Foundation to Aid Industrial Recovery (FAIR) seeks to educate and disseminate information that underscores the importance of historical understanding in analyzing present-day industrial production, global trade and supply chains, highlighting the enduring impact of colonial commodity trade on modern economic practices.

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Introduction to the Book

In the tapestry of global history, few commodities have woven as intricate and controversial a narrative as opium. This book, ***THE OPIUM TRADE: COLONIAL EXPLOITATION & STATE POWER*** is a panoramic exploration of this enigmatic substance, whose story is drenched in both splendor and sorrow. Through a vivid collection of images, this book illuminates the dark corners of opium's past, revealing its profound influence on international relations, economics, and culture.

From the opulent poppy fields to the shadowy opium dens, each page turns back the veil of time to showcase the stark contrasts of wealth and exploitation, medicine and addiction, power and subjugation. As we journey through the centuries, we encounter the faces and fates of those who sailed on the tides of the opium trade—merchants and monarchs, soldiers and smugglers, colonists and the exploited.

The book is divided into two parts:

Part One which covers the earliest evidence on opium use up until the early intervention and consolidation by Western colonial forces in opium production and trade (ca. 1820).

Part Two which covers each facet of the colonial system of opium production and trade, including finance, cultivation, production, consumption, trading routes, major corporations and individuals, resistance to colonial trade and widespread local addiction resulting in the opium wars, and technological prowess in the transport of opium. Broadly, this part of the book covers the period 1820 to the late 19th century. The pictures in each chapter, however, may not follow a chronological sequence.

This visual odyssey not only chronicles the historical events that shaped the opium narrative. The book presents a collection of paintings, illustrations, and photographs that capture the essence of an era when opium was a global currency of both prosperity and despair.

The book invites readers to step into a world where the allure of opium is as potent as its peril—a world that continues to captivate the imagination and provoke thought long after the final page is turned.

Acknowledgments

This book is the combined effort of the FAIR-Team, including S. Sreedhar (Project Field Investigator) and Suja N. (Project Research Assistance). We acknowledge the contributions of Dr. Preeta Nath in carefully proof-reading the script. We also wish to thank Jijeesh T. for design and implementation of the project.

We are grateful to Sharvani Bhat at KalaNishkriti for her thoughtful design work and for elevating the visual coherence of this book with care and precision.

The usual caveat, however, applies. The author takes full responsibility of any errors and/or omissions in the book.

Part I

From the Beginning to Early Colonial interventions in Opium Production & Trade (11,000 BC to 1820 CE)

I. The Opium Poppy

Beneath the crimson bloom, the poppy lies,
A siren's call 'neath open skies.
Its petals whisper tales of sleep,
In fields where dreamers dare to leap.

The heart of night in daylight caught,
A paradox in nature wrought.
The opium's gift, a double-edged sword,
In the poppy's shadow, peace and discord.

The opium poppy, scientifically known as Papaver somniferum, is a plant shrouded in mystique and controversy. Native to the Mediterranean, it has traversed the globe, leaving a profound impact on societies and economies.

The opium poppy is an annual herb that can grow up to 100 centimeters tall. Its glaucous appearance gives it a distinctive greyish-green hue, complemented by large lobed leaves and flowers that range from white to mauve or red. The plant's beauty, however, belies its complex nature.

The milky latex found in the unripe seed capsule of the opium poppy is the source of several alkaloids, including opium, morphine, codeine, and heroin. These substances have been used for millennia for their analgesic properties, providing relief from pain and suffering.

Beyond its narcotic uses, the opium poppy also bears tiny nonnarcotic ripe seeds. These seeds are kidney-shaped and range in color from grayish blue to dark blue. They are widely used in bakery products, for seasoning, oil production, and even as birdseed1. The plant's ornamental varieties, with their striking flowers, are a common sight in gardens around the world.

The opium poppy has been a friend to humanity for thousands of years, offering not only its medicinal benefits but also its stunningly beautiful flowers and nutritious seeds. However, its cultivation and trade have often exacted a high price. The opium derived from the poppy has fueled wars, colonial exploitation, and addiction crises, highlighting the duality of its existence.

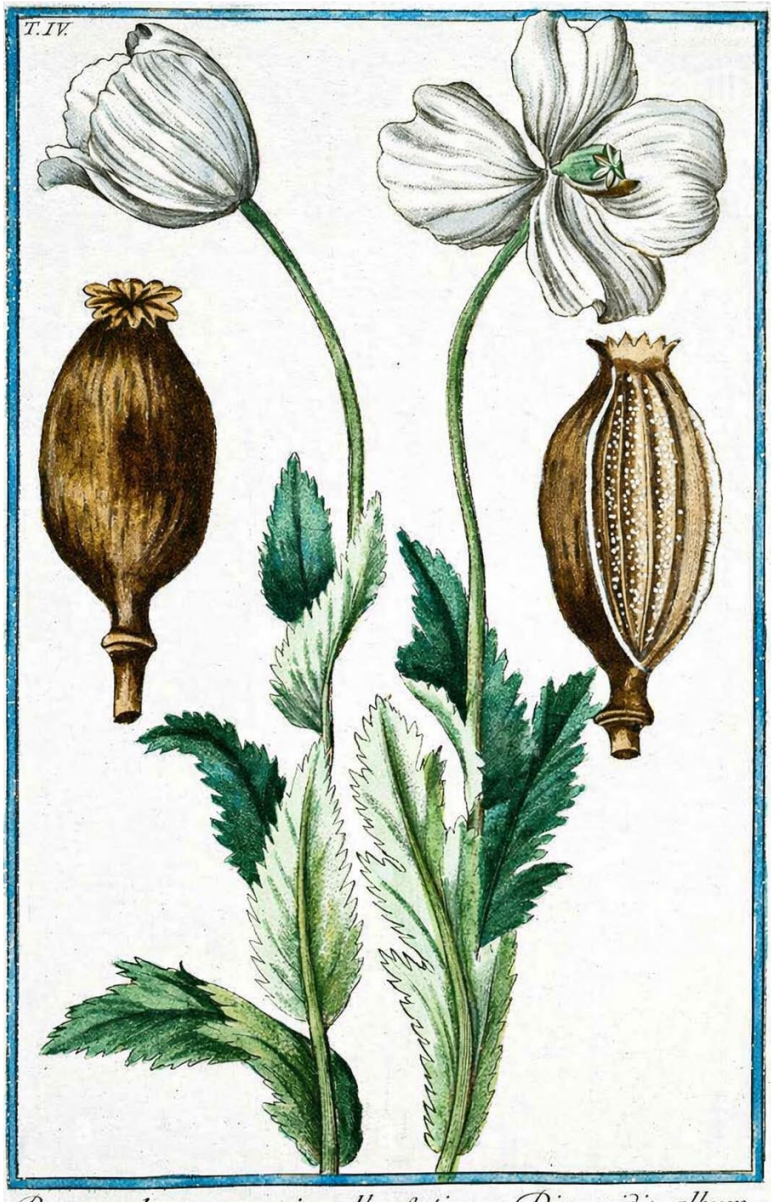
The opium poppy stands as a testament to the intricate relationship between nature and human civilization. It has served as a source of

inspiration, relief, and conflict, reflecting the multifaceted nature of human engagement with the natural world. As we continue to grapple with the challenges and benefits posed by this remarkable plant, the opium poppy remains a symbol of both our ingenuity and our folly.

1. Opium poppy, flowers and seeds, ca. 19th century drawing

2. Opium poppy, Papaver somniferum, Ferdinand Bernhard Vietz (1772-1815) - artist and engraver, Icones plantarum medico-oeconomico-technologicarum, published in Vienna from 1800 to 1822 (top).

3. Opium poppy, G. Bonelli on Hortus Romanus, Rome, 1772 – 93 (right).



Papaver hortense, semine albo, Sativum Dioscoridis, album

4. Giuseppe Castiglione (1688-1766) aka Lang Shining, an Italian Jesuit lay brother and missionary to China, was also an artist who served the Imperial Court of three Emperors. This painting of poppies is part of a collection of paintings known as "Xianyu Changchun" (Immortal Blossoms in an Everlasting Spring) which is now in the National Palace Museum. Castiglione's painting is on silk which requires excellent and extremely precise painting skills as no element once painted can be removed.

II. Opium in the Ancient World

In Summer's fertile crescent bloom,
The joy plant rose from earthen womb.
Hul Gil's whispers in the wind,
A tale of euphoria, soon to begin.

From Tigris banks to Pharaoh's land,
The poppy's power grew in demand.
In Thebes' embrace, it found its fame,
An ancient trade, a sacred flame.

Cyprus' isle with culling knife,
Carved the sap that stirred to life.
A trade of dreams across the sea,
To Troy, to Greece, a legacy.

Through Persian gates, it traveled far,
With Alexander, 'neath the stars.
To India's plains, it laid its roots,
In China's soil, bore forbidden fruits.

The Arab traders, wise and bold,
Brought the baicum's tales untold.
From desert sands to China's door,
A path of silk, opium lore.

In India's fields, the poppies sway,
A crimson tide, night and day.
China's sons, in opium's thrall,
A dynasty's rise, an empire's fall.

So, from Sumer to the Arab sands,
Through time's relentless, shifting hands.
The opium's journey, wide and far,
A history written in the stars ...

The Origins of Opium: From the Sumerians to the Arabs

Opium, derived from the poppy plant, has a history as rich and complex as the civilizations that cultivated it. Its journey through time offers a glimpse into the evolving human relationship with this potent substance.

In southeast Turkey, near the eastern shores of the Mediterranean, lie the archaeological ruins of one of the first agricultural settlements of humankind-Kortik Tepe. It is here that the trail of opium begins. In these ancient ruins, archaeobotanists have found many seeds of the opium poppy, dated to the 11th millennia BCE; it was being grown in one of the earliest known farming communities.

The trail goes cold for several centuries. The next evidence comes from around 3400 BCE in lower Mesopotamia, where the Sumerians supposedly first cultivated the opium poppy, referring to it as Hul Gil, the 'joy plant'. However, archaeobotanists now argue that this entire story is not founded on adequate evidence; the Mesopotamian relief sculpture in P-2.1 below may well pomegranates.

The Egyptians began cultivating opium thebaicum in the famous poppy fields of Thebes around 1300 BCE During the reigns of Thutmose IV, Akhenaton, and King Tutankhamen, the opium trade flourished, with trade routes extending across the Mediterranean into Greece, Carthage, and Europe.

By 1100 BCE, the island of Cyprus became a hub for opium trade and cultivation. The 'Peoples of the Sea' crafted surgical-quality culling knives to harvest opium, which they traded and smoked before the fall of Troy.

The Greeks and Romans also played a significant role in the history of opium. Hippocrates, known as the father of medicine, acknowledged opium's usefulness as a narcotic and styptic around 460 BCE, although he dismissed its magical attributes. The knowledge of opium continued to spread throughout the ancient world, influencing medical practices and social customs alike.

Alexander the Great and the Spread to Persia and India: Alexander the Great was instrumental in introducing opium to Persia and India around 330 BCE His conquests facilitated the spread of opium's use and cultivation across these regions.

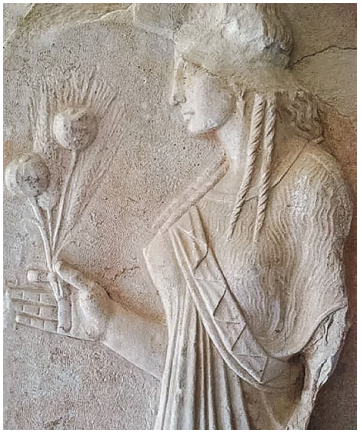
Opium vanished from European historical records for two hundred years during the Holy Inquisition, as anything from the East was associated with the Devil. It wasn't until the 1500s that opium reemerged in Europe, reintroduced into medical literature by Paracelsus as Laudanum.

The journey of opium from the Sumerians to the Arabs is a testament to the profound impact this substance has had on human civilization. It has been a source of joy, relief, and, at times, a catalyst for conflict. As we reflect on opium's origins, we gain insight into the complex interplay between human culture and the natural world, and the enduring legacy of the 'joy plant' that continues to influence societies across the globe.

5. Poppies or pomegranates?

From the left: 6. Meritaton, daughter of Akhenaton, offering narcotic plants to his husband Semenkhare Egyptian Museum, Cairo, (A-P LECA. La médecine Égyptienne au temps des Pharaons, pl. X).; 7. Hathor temple, Egypt. Hathor was a maternal figure and often portrayed as the Divine Mother of the reigning pharaoh. Hathor was also known for music and dancing, and of love and sensual pleasures.

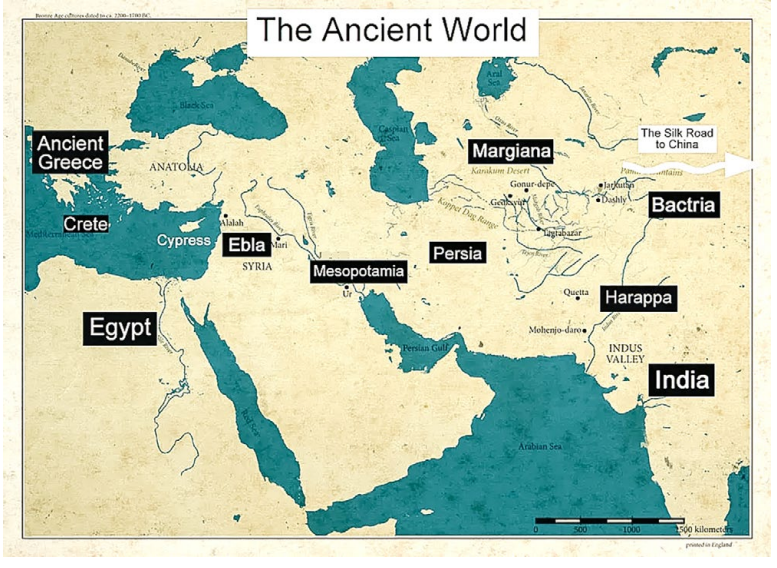
From the left: 8. "Poppy goddess" figurine from the sanctuary at Gazi, Crete. Minoan civilization, ca. 1300 BCE Three removable pins in the unmistakable shape of poppy pods are inserted in her head. Her soporific expression shows she's under the influence of opium. This artwork leaves no doubt about opium and its intended use.; 9. Cypriot jugs were crafted in the shape of the poppy seed pod 3000 years ago.



From the left: 10. The Greek Goddess Demeter bearing the opium poppy along with sheaves of wheat.; 11. Demeter with Poppies and Snakes (Roman, ca. 50 BC-50 AD, Stone Bas-relief). Her hands flow with full heads of wheat, but mixed in are the addictive poppies that soothe pain. Beside her two snakes whisper the secrets of the underworld.

12. Alexander, depicted with his horse Bucephalus, fighting Persian king Darius III, from the Alexander Mosaic of Pompeii (Naples National Archaeological Museum, Italy). Since opium was already known for its properties in the Minoan civilization, it could have been used by Alexander's soldiers but more as a painkiller than a drug.

13. The bone tubes that Sarianidi found in the drug kitchens of Margiana. Traces of the opium poppy were detected inside.



14. Ancient opium trade route.

III. Opium heads East

In the heart of the East, in the dawn of time,
When the world was young, and the sun did climb,
Opium, the poppy's gift, began its prime,
A tale of trade, of power, and of crime.

From the fertile fields of the Persian land,
To the Silk Road's path, by the caravan's hand,
Opium heads east, a journey so grand,
In the annals of history, a saga unplanned.

Through the ages of 700 to 1700 CE,
Opium's tale weaves through history's sea,
A balm for pain, a potion for the free,
In the hands of the sages, a secret decree.

In the courts of China, in the Mongol's reign,
Opium found its place, in pleasure and pain.
In the hands of traders, a profitable gain,
In the lives of the people, a lasting stain.

From the Ottoman Empire to the Mughal's court,
Opium's influence was of a significant sort.
A commodity of trade, a subject of report,
In the annals of time, a powerful cohort.

As opium heads east, in the pages of yore,
We see its impact, profound to the core.
A tale of humanity, of rich and poor,
Opium's journey, a legend of lore.

The pivotal moment in opium's history came when Arab traders introduced opium *the baicum* from the Egyptian fields at Thebes to India and then further into China around 700 CE This marked the beginning of opium's influence on Asian society.

Opium vanished from European historical records for two hundred years during the Holy Inquisition, as anything from the East was associated with the Devil. However, by 1500, The Portuguese, while trading along the East China Sea, initiate the smoking of opium.

In India, Duarte Barbosa in his account of Vijayanagar ca. 1500 CE, records the production and use of opium in Calicut and Cambay (Gujarat). At about the same time, the arrival of Vasco da Gama and opening of trade with India, Portuguese merchants begin carrying cargoes of Indian opium through Macao into China.

In 1527, during the height of the Reformation, opium reemerged in Europe, reintroduced into medical literature by Paracelsus as Laudanum.

In 16th century Iran, during the reign of the Safavids (1501–1722 CE), opium abuse had begun. It was from then that prominent Persian scholars started to think of solutions to this societal problem.

Babur, after several failed attempts, establishes his Mughal Dynasty on the Indian subcontinent, and he becomes the first Mughal emperor (1524-1530). Under his rule poppy cultivation and the sale of opium become state monopolies. Opium becomes an important article of trade with China where it is used mostly for medicinal purposes.

During the reign of the great Moghul emperor Akbar (1556-1605),

poppy land is a regular source of revenue to the state, and production is carefully monitored. According to the testimonies of 16th-century travellers, opium eating in India (usually in beverage form) is common, but not smoking.

Across the Mughal empire's territories, opium – afim – was cultivated, produced, traded and consumed. It should be note, however, that cultivators were free to choose whether or not to cultivate opium and whom to sell it to.

The introduction of Opium into British society began in the early 1600s when the East India Company (EIC) began to trade with India. During this time, other goods were traded from India such as silk and sugar and in return, the British traded back wool and silver. Ships chartered by Elizabeth I are instructed to purchase the finest Indian opium and transport it back to England. Around 1680, English apothecary, Thomas Sydenham, introduces Sydenham's Laudanum, a compound of opium, sherry wine and herbs. His pills along with others of the time become popular remedies for numerous ailments. By 1773, Great Britain had become the most frequent buyers of opium.

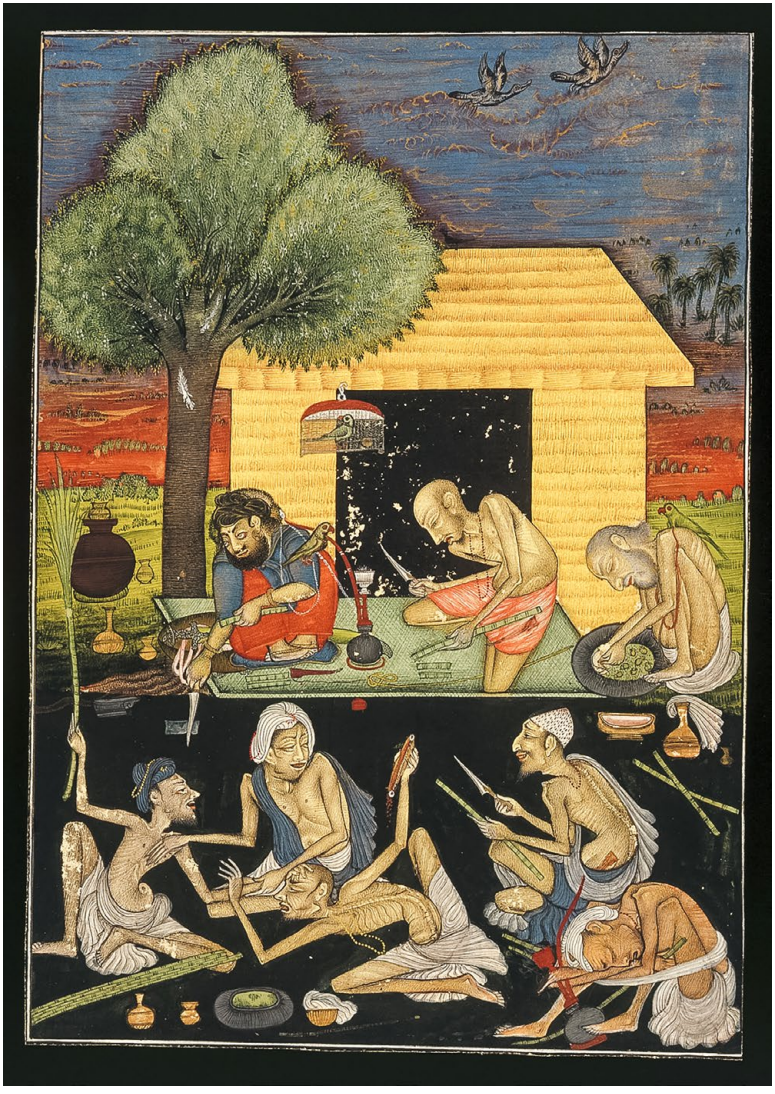
15. Opium heads east.

But if to the Greeks be due the discovery of opium, the Arabs most undoubtedly carried, to the utmost corners of the Eastern countries, the knowledge of that drug. In the first instance, they made it known to Persia and subsequently to India and China. That the followers of the faith of Islám proclaimed the properties of opium to the people of India there can be no doubt, since the Sanskrit and all the vernacular names in this country are traceable to the Semitic corruption of ὀπος or ὄπιον into *Afyún*. Thus its best known Sanskrit name is *Ahiphena* and its Hindí *Afím*. But direct historic records exist which also leave no room for doubt that the poppy was not known to the people of India prior to the Arab influence. The early Chinese works tell of the Arab traders exchanging poppy capsules for the merchandise of China, and its Arabic name became in the Chinese tongue *Ya-pien*. In the time of the Caliphs, the Arabs certainly visited India and China, especially after the founding of Baghdad (A. D. 763); previous to the Táng dynasty the poppy was apparently not known to the Chinese. When first shown to them its urn-shaped capsules, full of millet-like seeds, suggested the names *Mi-nang* (=millet vessels) and *Ying-su* (=jar-millet). The Arab doctors directed the Chinese to prepare of these capsules a soporific beverage and medicine. Hence it may be stated that the introduction of the *ya-pien* followed the *mi-nang*. Interest in the oil-yielding seeds and medicinal capsules had thus been fully aroused in Asiatic countries, long anterior to the introduction of opium. It is, therefore, not difficult to understand the existence of names for these parts of the plant that are undoubtedly more ancient than the word opium; some of which, indeed, even seem, if they are not actually, of an indigenous character in the countries

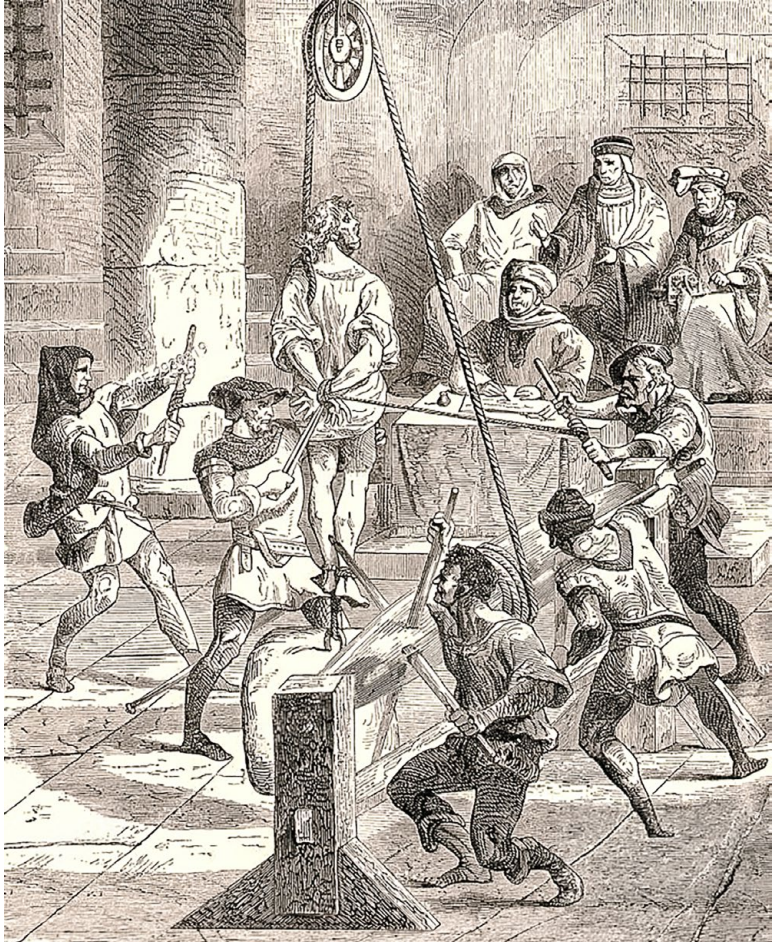
16. Excerpt from George Watt, A Dictionary of the Economic Products of India.

17. Early Arab traders, depicted heading to India and the East, c. 600—700 CE. Traders from the Arabian world controlled overland and sea routes from India to the Levant and Venice. Arabs monopolized trade in drugs, hemp, opium, incense and spices for centuries until the Ottoman Turks broke their stranglehold on Eastern trade in 1453.

18. China, Song Dynasty, 900-1200 CE



19. Opium is introduced to India by Arab merchants. Initially, it is sought after for its medical uses, particularly favoured for its analgesic and sedative effects, ca. 850-900 CE.



20. Inquisition, the cruel torture methods of the Church in the 16th century. Opium had become a taboo subject for those in circles of learning during the Holy Inquisition. In the eyes of the Inquisition, anything from the East was linked to the Devil.

"When the Portuguese appeared unexpectedly at Cochin in 1498, they commenced at once a career of conquest, and quickly made themselves masters of Aden, Hormuz, Goa, Cochin, Calicut, Malacca, and many other cities. With military prestige they joined great activity in commerce, and became the chief merchants in the East. At this time, as we learn from **Barbosa**, opium was among the articles brought to Malacca by Arabs and Gentile merchants, to exchange for the cargoes of Chinese junks. He also states that opium was taken from Arabia to Calicut, and from Cambay to the same place, the Arabian being one-third higher in price than the Cambay. The opium exported from this seaport may be assumed to have been manufactured in Malwa, which lies quite near to it.

"The Arabs, then, had begun to grow opium in India in the sixteenth century. In addition to this we are told that from places on the Coromandel Coast opium was exported to Siam and Pegu. Here we also find clear indications of the activity of Arab traders in extending the cultivation of the poppy in India. The Chinese also at this time imported opium themselves, to be used medicinally. It is important to note this for the proper understanding of the history of Opium in China."

21. The Portuguese and opium trade between India and China.

22. The city of Cambay was an important Indian manufacturing and trading center noted by Marco Polo and illustrated here in the 15th century.

23. & 24. Duarte Barbosa, a Portuguese traveler, makes observations about the opium consumption habits in India. He observes that Indians start to eat small quantities of opium as children and increase their use as they get older. Don Alfonso of Albuquerque, a Portuguese general, claims that Indians are lost without their opium and even informs the King of Portugal about it. At the time, an agreement ratified by people eating opium together is considered binding, a habit that illustrates the accepted and social nature of opium consumption.

25. Arrival of Vasco da Gama at Calicut in 1498.

26. 1527 CE, "Paracelsus Laudanum" written by Paracelsus (born Philippus Aureolus Theophrastus Bombastus von Hohenheim), a Swiss physician and philosopher introduced opium as a medicine to the West at the ripe time it was emerging from the dark ages. Following his travels in Arabia he returned with a famous sword within the pommel of which he kept "Stones of Immortality" compounded from opium, citrus juice, and "quintessence of gold". Laudanum, coming from laudare in Latin, which means "to praise," was aptly named by Paracelsus in light of his strong feelings toward the drug. Paracelsus explained that, in his opinion, laudanum was "superior to all other heroic remedies."

27. Early colour illustrations of psychiatric treatment methods, as drawn by physician, Serefeddin Sabuncuoglu (1385–1468, medieval Ottoman surgeon and physician) used opium in the fourteenth century Ottoman Empire to treat migraine headaches, sciatica, and other painful ailments.

28. The first page (right) and last page (left) of Afyunieh. One of the most famous scholars was Imad al-Din Mahmud ibn Mas'ud Shirazi, who composed a book concerning addiction — Afyunieh, a comprehensive book on the topic of opium and all issues of opium. Furthermore, he recommended methods for reducing opium dose as well as substitution with other medications that had a narrower range of side effects, in order to eradicate dependency upon opium and opium-derived materials. This is most likely the first book that comprehensively addressed opium and discussed drug rehabilitation methodology, in traditional Persian medical literature.[1]

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1. Abdolali Moosavyzadeh et al (2018), The medieval Persian manuscript of Afyunieh: the first individual treatise on the opium and addiction in history, Journal of Integrative Medicine, 16 (2018), pp.77–83.

29. Opium smokers served fruit and bread, ca. 1750. A red sandstone terrace and veranda covered with a straw mat is the setting for an assemblage of more than 30 religious figures and nobles, most of whom are depicted in varying stages of intoxication and hangovers. Some lucidly engage in discussions, while others prepare, ingest, and experience the effects of cannabis or opium known to have been taken regularly by those seeking mind-altering states. Watermelons, apples, and flatbread are being distributed among the assembled guests.

30. The death of Inayat Khan, 1618. This paining depicts the deterioration in the health of Inayat Khan (an attendant of the emperor) from the consumption of opium and alcohol. It was commissioned by the Mughal Emperor Jahangir and painted by Balchand.

From the left: 31. The Mughal Emperor Jahangir was believed to be an addict of alcohol and opium. In his later years, he would consume two and a half grams of opium mixed into six cups of wine almost daily.

32. Jahangir's wine cup, 1607–8, Jade, H. 5.5cm; W. 7.4cm. This wine cup, whose inscriptions tell us that it was intended for the exclusive use of Jahangir is, to date, the oldest piece of jade tableware that can be linked to a Mughal emperor.



33, 34 & 35. Mughal silver opium water flask (Chuski), India, c. 1800s.

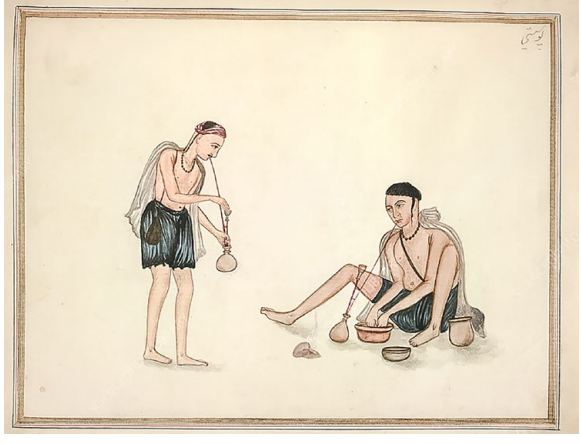

From the left: 36. This elegant cup is carved from jade, thinned to the point of translucence. The artist took inspiration from a poppy, the plant from which opium is derived. Overlapping petals create the basin, and a stem with leaves forms the curving handle. Opium latex, a milky fluid produced by the plant, was dried, then dissolved in wine, milk, or water and drunk from a cup. Opium had been used in India since ancient times, for purposes ranging from medicinal to religious to recreational.
37. Opium Spoon, India, Mughal empire, circa 1675-1725.

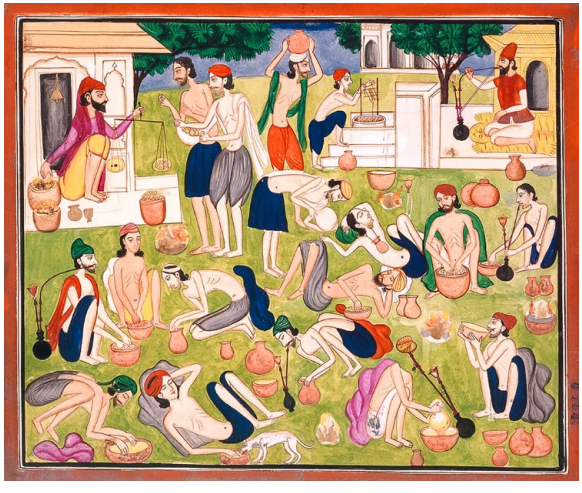
38. A group of opium eaters (postis) with bears and monkeys, Mughal School, 18th century, c. 1800.

39. Opium eaters chasing a mouse, Mughal School, 18th century.

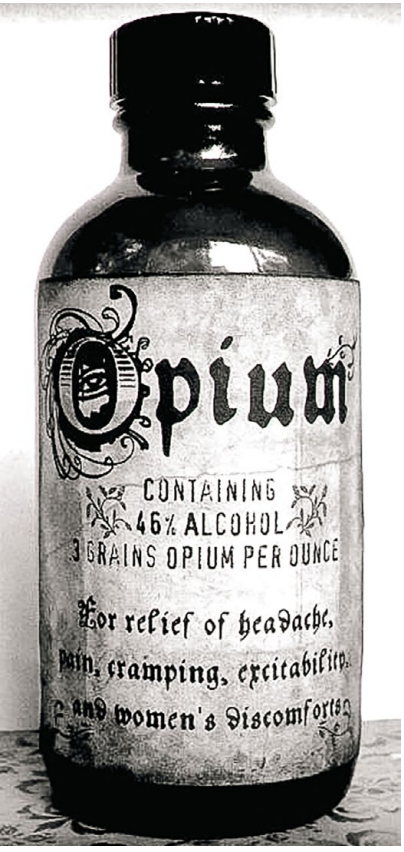
40. Opium eaters, group of Indian men consuming opium. Mughal painting.;
41. Opium Smokers, Mughal period, India, ca. 1660-1670.;
42. Opium smokers in India, 18th century (miniature painting).

43. Watercolour painting with a pen and ink border of three men smoking opium. All three men are seated on the ground; the one on the far-right wears only a loincloth and a white shawl. He has small tufts of hair on his head, and is in the process of smoking from the pipe. He faces the other two men and on the ground in front of him is a blue bag, a vessel and a green shawl. The man in the middle is also smoking from an opium pipe and looks at the man in the loincloth. He wears yellow trousers with a white tunic and a red turban. A green shawl is draped over his shoulders. In front of him is a stick, a bowl and a piece of fabric (?). The third man has a pipe next to him but is not smoking and appears rather dazed. He wears blue trousers with a white tunic and a yellow shawl over his shoulder. On his head is red turban. Company School, Sikh Style, 19th Century.





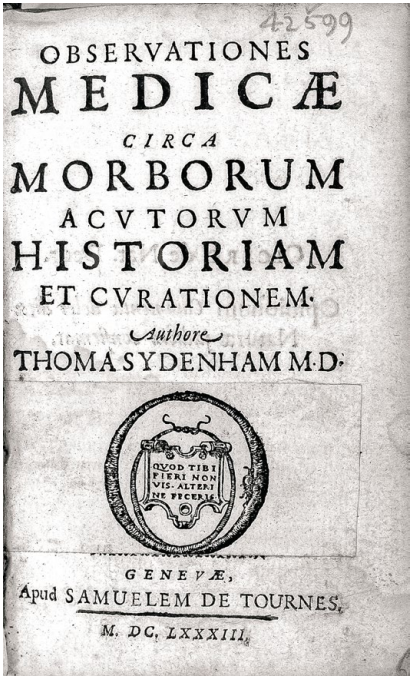
From the top: 44. Two men preparing and smoking opium. Gouache painting by an Indian painter, ca. 19th century.; 45. Two opium addicts. Watercolour. Originally published in ca.1860.; 46. Men smoking opium, sitting or lying on the ground. c.1870. Watercolour.



From the left: 47. Old British bottle of opium sourced from India.
48. The countess, having taken a dose of laudanum nears death, and is kissed by her sickly child held towards her by an elderly maid; her father slips her ring from her finger. Engraving by Louis Gérard Scotin after William Hogarth, 1745. (Source: Science Museum, London).

49. 1676 CE
Thomas Sydenham invents a new recipe for laudanum. Sydenham popularized laudanum and standardized the recipe: two ounces of opium in a pint of strong red wine or port, spiced with saffron, cloves and cinnamon. For the next two centuries pharmacy jars filled with this rust-coloured liquid would be decorated in gold leaf with the motto Laudanum Sydenhamii.

Like Paracelsus, Sydenham was convinced that there were powerful new remedies waiting to be discovered in nature. For him, the queen of medicines was opium, revered since antiquity, unequalled in the relief of pain, the suppression of coughs and respiratory ailments, the treatment of diarrhoea and dysentery and the provision of deep and refreshing sleep. With his standardization of laudanum, Sydenham promoted the ideals of purity and standardized doses. But he also maintained a healthy scepticism about the limits of drugs. The best thing a physician could do for his patients in many cases, he wrote, was "nothing at all."



50. Observationes Medicae circa Morborum Acutorum…
51. A young Jewish woman with long-crowned turban kneels on a mat smoking opium. Engraving, c. 1702.

Part II

The Colonial System of Opium Production & Trade (1820- 1880s)

IV. Colonial Interventions in Opium Trade

In the era of Warren Hastings' reign,
When the East India Company staked its claim,
From Bengal's fields, through the monsoon's rain,
Opium set sail, in a trade of fame.

The ship 'Nonsuch', sturdy and strong,
Carried the opium, all along.
Through stormy seas, and journeys long,
In the annals of history, a sailor's song.

To China's shores, the opium came,
Fuelling addiction, and the Company's fame.
In the heart of the empire, it lit a flame,
A tale of trade, of power, and of blame.

Emperor Jiaqing, on the Dragon Throne,
Saw his people's plight, heard their moan.
Against the opium, his decree was known,
In the halls of the Forbidden City, a stern tone.

Yet, the trade went on, under the moon's glow,
The opium from Bengal, a continuous flow.
A saga of the sea, of high and low,
In the tale of opium, a shadowy show.

By the early 17th century, India dominated the cultivation and production of opium. With the decline of the Mughal empire ca. 1707, the opium trade came under the monopoly of the opium-dealers (pykars). Amongst the larger traders, the Dutch East India Company (VOC – Vereenigde Oostindische Compagnie) was the largest buyer and exporter of opium, from their factory in Bengal. By 1669, the VOC was the richest private company the world had ever seen, with over 150 merchant ships, 40 warships, 50,000 employees, a private army of 10,000 soldiers, and a dividend payment of 40% on the original investment. The VOC would sell the opium chests to small traders who ship it to Malacca in present-day Malaysia). Chinese junks would then come to Malacca and take opium to China.

C. 1750 … the quantum of opium production in Bengal, most of it for export, was perhaps around 2000 chests annually, each chest containing approximately 70 kg of opium.

1757 … The British East India Company (EIC) defeats Siraj-ud-Daulah in the Battle of Plassey and acquires diwani, the right to collect taxes in Bengal in 1765 following the Battle of Buxar. The EIC rises from merchant to merchant-ruler.

1773 … The Governor General of Bengal, Warren Hastings, declares: from now the EIC will have a monopoly of all the opium produced in Bengal, Behar and Orissa. Hastings guarantees that the Dutch, Danes and French would receive a certain quantity of opium annually from the EIC agent. But with the rise of the EIC as merchant-ruler, the Dutch, Danish and French companies would soon fade into history …

1799 … Under Regulation VI, of 1799, the Governor-General in Council of the EIC abolished the contract system and put in place an ‘agency’

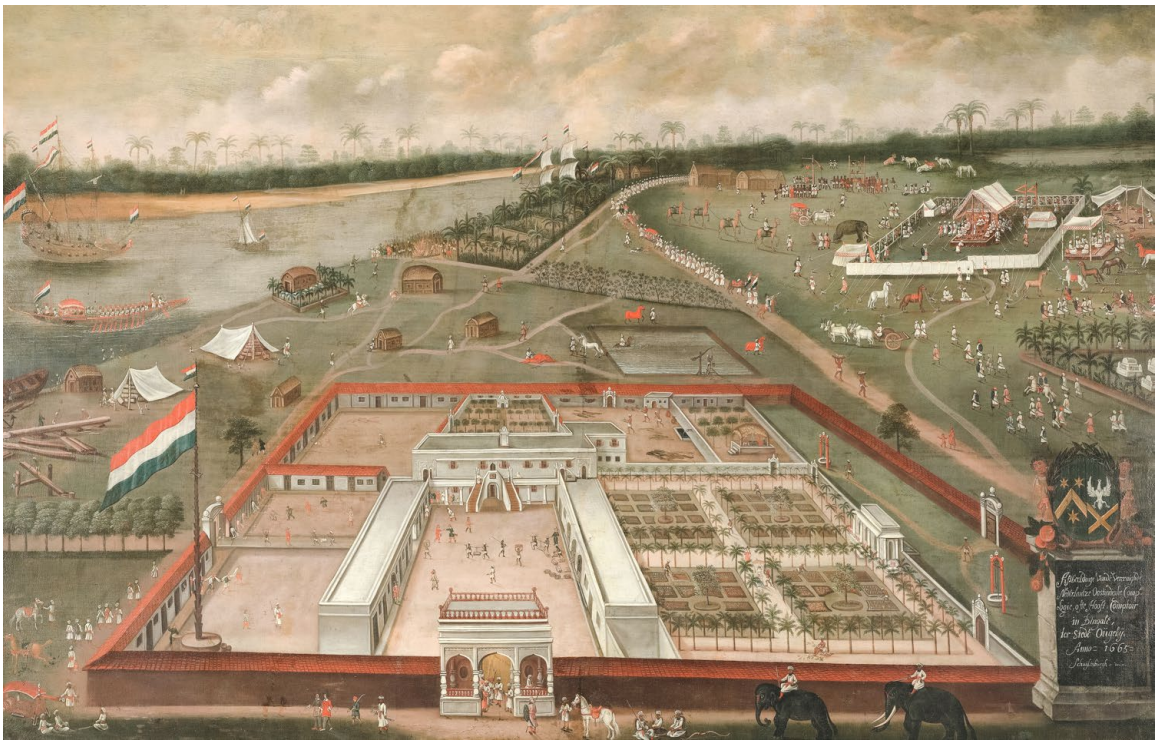
system or an official monopoly. Two Company officers became Opium Agents, one headquartered at Patna and the other at Benares, whose responsibility was to administer the newly established monopoly restricting and regulating the production, sale and export of opium.

At about the same time, ca. 1796, Emperor Jiaqing in China is weary about opium addiction. The imports from India had risen to 4,000 chests from just about 1,000 at the beginning of that decade. He decided to put a stop to this by issuing a proclamation that the production, import and sale of opium in China would no longer be permitted.

At the end of the eighteenth century, the EIC had emerged as the monopoly dealer of opium in Bengal … although its trade with China was vested with private businesses. However, with its monopoly power being curtailed in India and trade of opium banned by Chinese authorities, the company ran a very tidy system: 'grow opium in India and disown it in China.'

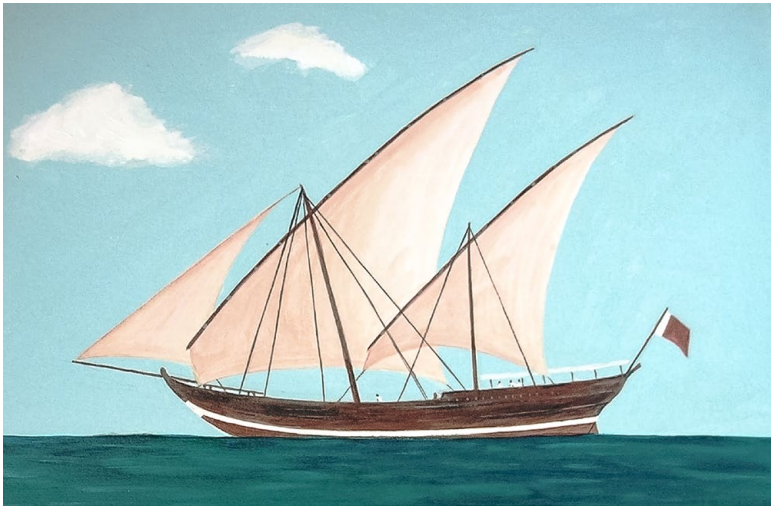
But for how long could this 'arrangement' go on?

The stage is set for a century of violent conflict between the EIC and China over the trade of opium.



52. Dutch East India Company factory in Hugli-Chuchura, Mughal Bengal. Hendrik van Schuylenburgh, 1665.

53. A View of Chinsura the Dutch settlement in Bengal; by William Hodges, 1787.

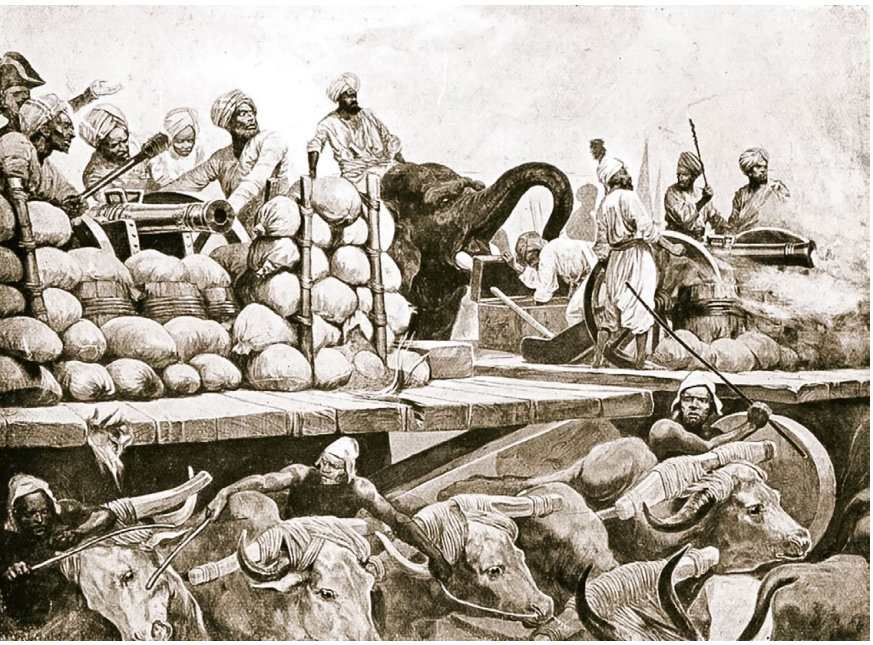


54. Mughal Bengal's baghlah was a type of ship widely used by Dutch traders in the Indian Ocean, the Arabian Sea, the Bay of Bengal, the Strait of Malacca and the South China Sea.

55. Dutch Malacca

56. 'The Fleet at Melaka,1606'. From the Report of the Journey of Cornelis Matelief de Jonge for the Dutch East India Company to the East Indies and China,1605-1608.

57. State's House, Malacca. When the Dutch took Malacca from the Portuguese, they added a stately town hall built after the example of the Dutch city of Hoorn. Soldiers and enslaved people started construction on the town hall in 1641, finishing it in 1660.

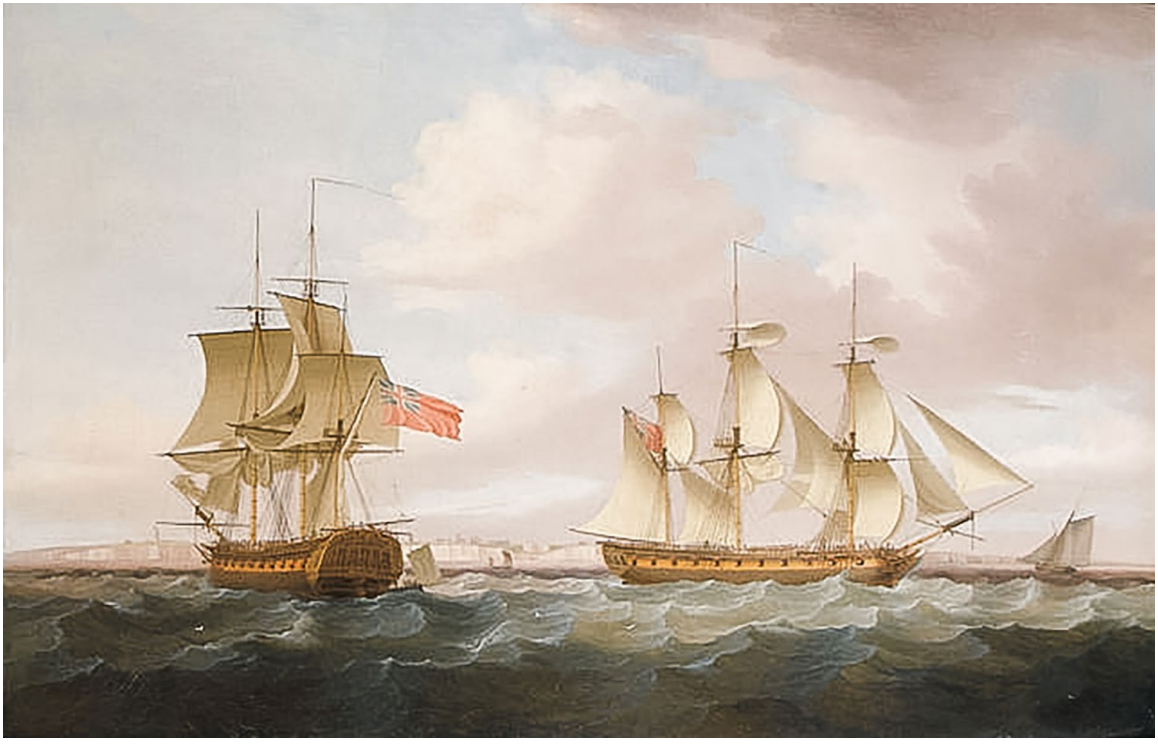


From the left: 58. Battle of Plassey, 23rd June 1757; Decisive British East India Company victory over the Nawab of Bengal and his French allies, establishing Company rule in India. The Nawab's artillery on movable platform. A large stage, raised six feet from the ground, carrying besides the cannon, all the ammunition belonging to it, and the gunners themselves who managed the cannon, on the stage itself. These machines were drawn by 40 or 50 yoke of white oxen, of the largest size, bred in the country of Purnea; and behind each cannon walked an elephant, trained to assist at difficult tugs, by shoving with his forehead against the hinder part of the carriage.

59. From merchant to merchant-ruler. Company painting depicting an official of the East India Company, c. 1760. Artist Dip Chand.

When the Engliſh acquired poſſeſſion of the Duannee, the trade in opium was nominally laid open, though in fact the monopoly was, in a great meaſure, confined to our factory at Patna. The opium, however, was much debaſed from 1765 to 1773, and the trade conſiderably diminiſhed in conſequence. In 1772, when Mr. Haſtings came to the government of Bengal, he ſecured a proportion of this trade for the Company. In 1773, the monopoly was taken into the Company's hands, and became a branch of their revenues. In 1775, it was debated by the Supreme Council, whether the trade ſhould be laid open or not? General Clavering concurred in opinion with Mr. Haſtings, that the manufacture of opium muſt be, what it ever had been, a monopoly.* All Britiſh ſubjects and natives were invited

60. Proclamation by Warren Hastings of 1773 on the EIC's monopoly over opium. From, "A Narrative of the Transactions in Bengal, During the Administration of Mr. Hastings" by Major John Scott, 1784.



61. The Calcutta-trade merchantman 'Nonsuch'. Nonsuch was the first regular Calcutta-built ship and her sequence number in the General Registry there was "1". Lieutenant Colonel Henry Watson, Chief Engineer under Warren Hastings' government built Nonsuch in 1781. Hastings was the first Governor of the Presidency of Fort William (Bengal). Watson proposed to Hastings that the EIC start trading opium to China, and offered Nonsuch for the purpose. China had, however, prohibited the opium trade and the intent was to circumvent the Chinese authorities. Watson also convinced Hastings to provide the armament for Nonsuch, and soldiers to act as marines.

62. The Jiaqing Emperor (13 November 1760 – 2 September 1820) who curbed the smuggling of opium into China.

STATEMENT of the SALES of the AGENCY OPIUM from the Year 1797-8 to 1803-4.

YEARS.	BEHAR.			BENARES.			TOTAL.		
	Chests Sold.	Produce in S. Rupees.	Average per Chest. Sicca Rupees.	Chests Sold.	Produce in S. Rupees.	Average per Chest. Sicca Rupees.	Chests Sold.	Produce in S. Rupees.	Average per Chest. Sicca Rupees.
1797-8.									
1st Sale 20 & 21 Dec. 1798	1,700	6,26,595	368 9 0	300	1,07,475	358 4 0	2,000	7,34,070	367 0 8
2d Sale 18 Feb. 1799	1,750	7,97,540	455 11 9	422	1,99,559	472 14 2	2,172	9,97,099	459 1 1
Total . . .	3,450	14,24,135	412 12 8	722	3,07,034	425 4 0	4,172	17,31,169	414 15 2
1798-9.									
1st Sale, 16 Dec. 1799	1,650	12,96,570	785 12 9	350	2,66,895	762 8 11	2,000	15,63,465	781 11 8
2d Sale, 17 Feb. 1800	1,675	12,98,845	775 6 10	379	2,80,292	739 8 10	2,054	15,79,137	768 13 0
Total . . .	3,325	25,95,415	780 9 2	729	5,47,187	750 9 7	4,054	31,42,602	775 3 0
1799-1800.									
1st Sale, 15 & 16 Dec. 1800.	1,850	13,23,330	715 5 0	430	2,82,455	656 13 11	2,280	16,05,785	704 4 8
2d Sale, 19 & 20 Feb. 1801.	1,815	12,48,680	687 15 7	475	2,88,575	607 8 5	2,290	15,37,255	671 4 7
Total . . .	3,665	25,72,010	701 12 5	905	5,71,030	630 15 6	4,570	31,43,040	687 12 0
1800-1801.									
1st Sale, 15 Dec. 1801	1,575	11,73,305	744 15 0	400	2,92,650	731 10 0	1,975	14,65,955	742 4 0
2d Sale, 18 Feb. 1802	1,573	13,20,363	839 6 3	399	3,34,398	838 1 5	1,972	16,54,761	839 2 0
Total . . .	3,148	24,93,668	792 2 3	799	6,27,048	784 12 7	3,947	31,20,716	790 10 6
1801-1802.									
1st Sale, 15 Dec. 1802	1,285	17,68,400	1,376 2 11	360	4,97,125	1,380 14 5	1,645	22,65,525	1,377 3 6
2d Sale, 18 Feb. 1803	1,285	18,02,950	1,403 1 2	362	4,87,253	1,346 0 0	1,647	22,90,203	1,390 8 5
Total . . .	2,570	35,71,350	1,389 10 1	722	9,84,378	1,363 6 5	3,292	45,55,728	1,383 14 0
1802-1803.									
1st Sale, 15 Dec. 1803	1,112	14,92,070	1,341 12 7	308	3,69,900	1,200 15 7	1,420	18,61,970	1,311 3 11
2d Sale, 17 Feb. 1804	1,112	16,46,146	1,480 5 6	308	4,36,479	1,417 2 2	1,420	20,82,625	1,466 10 2
Total . . .	2,224	31,38,216	1,411 1 1	616	8,06,379	1,309 0 10	2,840	39,44,595	1,388 15 0
1803-1804.									
1st Sale, 14 Dec. 1804	1,190	20,08,220	1,687 9 3	390	6,86,990	1,761 8 2	1,580	26,95,210	1,705 13 3

63 & 64. Sales of agency opium i.e., through the EIC between 1797-98 and 1803-04. The drop in sales is due to the ban on opium imposed by the Jiaqing Emperor.

V. Consolidation of Opium Trade

1800-1821

In the years of 1800 to 1820's tide,
When the East India Company did preside,
Opium trade, its power did confide,
From Bengal to Malwa, a journey wide.

Bengal's fields, with poppies adorned,
To Malwa's lands, the opium was borne.
A trade of wealth, yet many mourned,
In the heart of India, a conflict was born.

The Company's rule, firm and strong,
Consolidated the trade, right or wrong.
In the annals of history, a sorrowful song,
Of a time when opium's reign was long.

Elsewhere, in the dawn of the 19th century's light,
Cabot, Astor, and Cushing took flight.
In the opium trade, they found their might,
From America to Turkey, in the moonlit night.

Through monsoon's rain, and summer's heat,
The opium's journey was no small feat.
Yet, in its wake, a tale bittersweet,
Of a time when two worlds did meet.

As we look back on this time of yore,
We see the scars of opium trade.
A reminder of the past, of the open sore,
In the journey of nations, a lore to explore.

1803 ... In the Battle of Delhi or Battle of Patparganj, the EIC defeated the Marathas and the city of Delhi passed into the hands of the British. The EIC extended their Bengal monopoly system over opium, prohibiting its cultivation in most places and allowing it elsewhere by license only and for exclusive sale of the produce to their Opium Agents. Poppy cultivation of all northern India, except the Punjab and a few Native States, was now in their control and so too the Bengal coast for its export to China.

Nepal and Assam opium, where free cultivation and free trade prevailed, could only enter their territories and reach the sea by coming into the hands of the EIC government. If the opium had to be smuggled then it would have to take a circuitous route through the mountains into Burma.

The opium-dealers under Mughal rule were replaced by the EIC's opium department, with a far stricter control over production and distribution of Indian opium.

Between 1800 and 1820, the EIC restricted export of opium to about 4,000 chests from cultivation of around 30,000 acres. However, with prices rising steadily from Rs.1,000 to Rs.4,500 in this period, revenues also rose steadily from Rs.2 million to Rs.14 million.

The EIC was slowing getting 'addicted' to the increasing revenues from the opium trade.

After the Third Anglo-Maratha War (1817–1819), the EIC decisively ends the rule of the Marathas and takes control over all Maratha territories. Malwa, an opium growing region, would export opium from Bombay to China. The EIC Government passed a regulation

prohibiting cultivation of poppy throughout the Company's territories in Bombay Presidency as well as the export of opium from Bombay to China.

The control of opium trade from Malwa, however, remained virtually impossible even though the EIC were in de facto control over it. The Portuguese were also allowing ships from their ports in Daman and Diu to export opium. The opium even passed all the way to Sind and Karachi through the Mewar, Marwar and Jaisalmer.

Although several Marwari and Parsi traders were involved in the opium business, one of the most prominent traders in Bombay at this time was Rogerio de Faria, the Prince Merchant.

The export of Malwa opium increased significantly since the 1820s, even surpassing the trade from Bengal. Finally, the EIC headquartered at Fort Williams in Calcutta allowed opium trade legally from Bombay. The traders would have to pay a fee of a few hundred rupees per chest. There was no necessity now for them to transport it all the way to Sind and Karachi. The EIC could earn revenues from Malwa opium trade.

Meanwhile, in China, the Qing government in 1820 declared tough new anti-opium legislation. Pirates and the Chinese authorities were making trade through Canton, Whampoa and Macao are untenable.

The solution, Lintin Island (Nei Lingding).

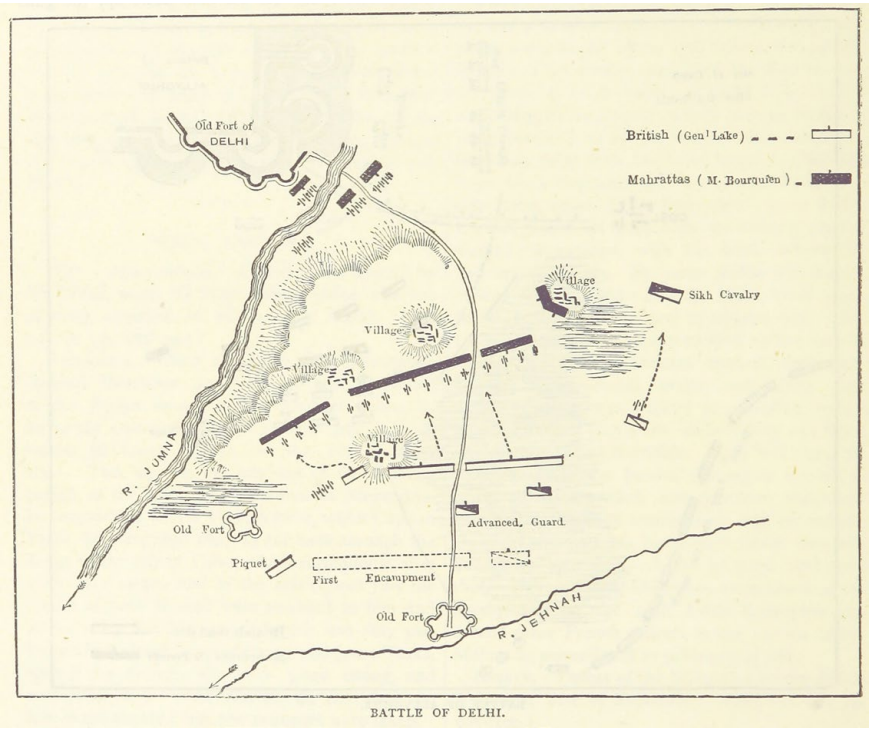
But before we dive into the importance of Lintin Island in the expansion of opium trade, we must introduce the other major players actively engaging in the opium business in the early 19th century; Turkey and the United States of America (USA).

1800 … The British Levant Company procured almost 50% of the opium produced in Smyrna (now Izmir), Turkey, with the sole intention of importing it to Europe and the United States.

1803 … Charles Cabot, a smuggler hailing from Boston, Massachusetts, endeavoured to buy opium from the British and subsequently smuggle it into China, operating under the protection of British smugglers.

1812 … John Cushing, an American who was employed by his uncles' firm, the James and Thomas H. Perkins Company based in Boston, amassed his fortune through the illicit trade of Turkish opium to Canton.

1816 … John Jacob Astor, a resident of New York City, entered the opium smuggling business. His enterprise, the American Fur Company, bought ten tons of Turkish opium, which was then clandestinely transported to Canton aboard the Macedonian. Astor eventually exited the opium trade with China, choosing to deal exclusively with England.



BATTLE OF DELHI.

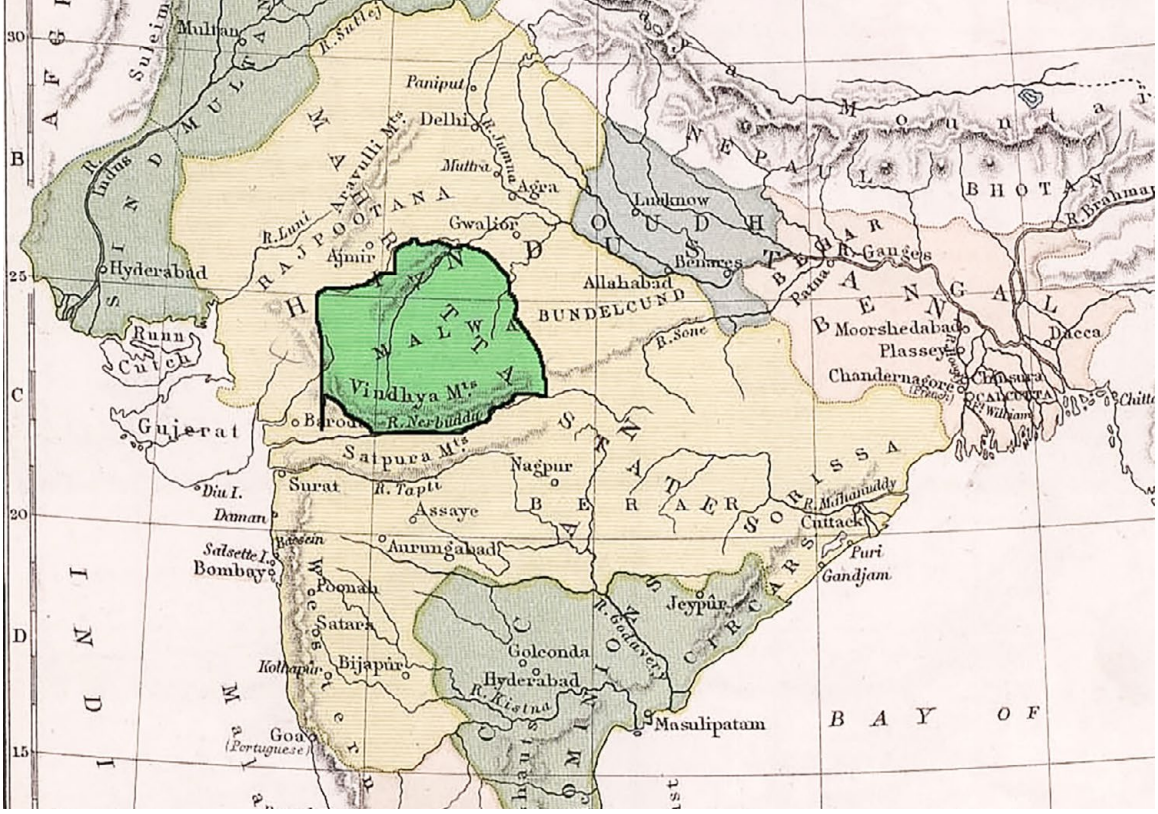
From the left: 65. The 1803 Battle of Delhi, a British East India Company victory over the Maratha Empire.
66. India in 1805. Expansion of the EIC over northern India.

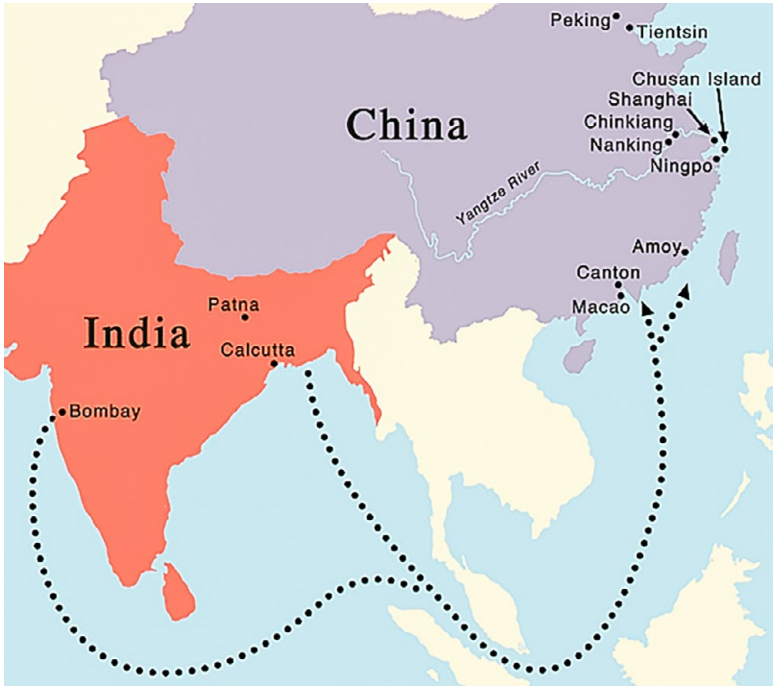
(in chests)

Period	*Bengal*	*Malwa*	*Total*	*Annual Average*
1795-1800	12,261	Nil	12,261	2,043.5
1801-1810	25,648	13,219	38,867	3,887
1811-1820	29,649	14,396	44,045	4,404.5
1821-1830	52,867	62,067	114,234	11,423
1831-1840	77,608	165,940	243,548	24,355

SOURCES : *Bengal Commercial Reports*, vols. 13-52; H. B. Morse : *The International Relations of the Chinese Empire* (Shanghai, 1910), I,209; Hsin-pao Chang: *Commissioner Lin and the Opium War* (Harvard, 1964), p. 223.

67. Expansion in opium production and trade between 1795 and 1840. The increase in Malwa opium is also evident post-1800.

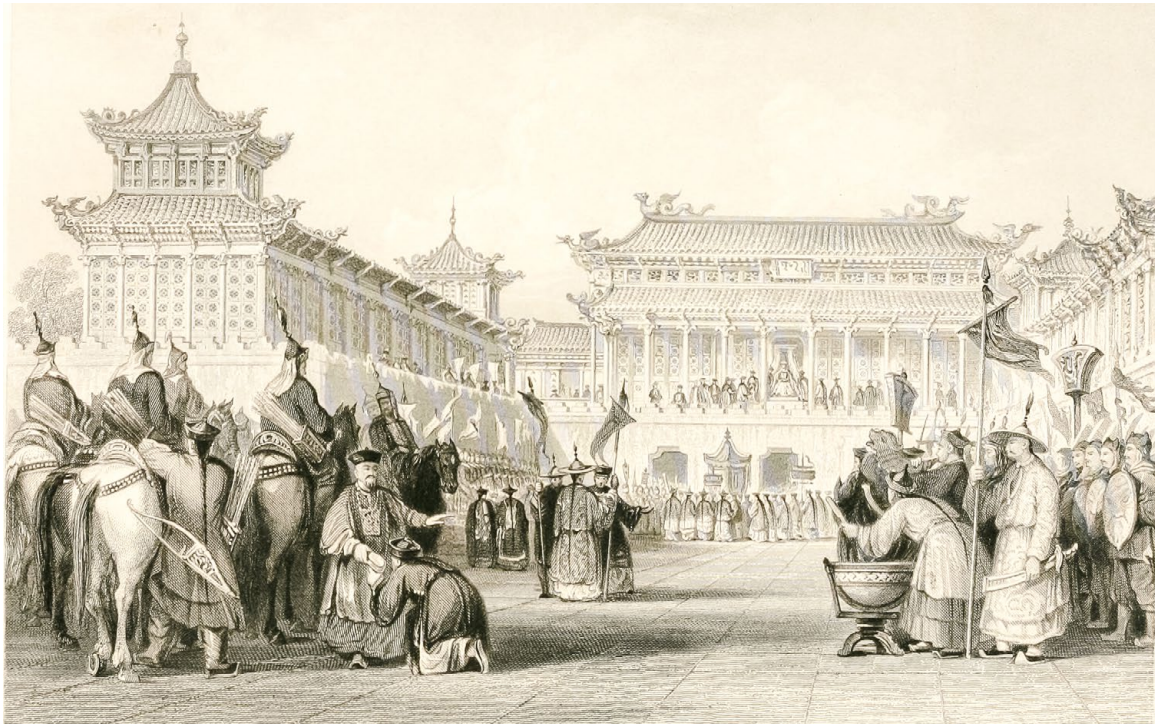




68. Malwa region, 1780 (top).; 69. Opium trade routes from Bengal and Malwa to China (bottom).

70. Opium Fleet Descending the Ganges on the Way to Calcutta.

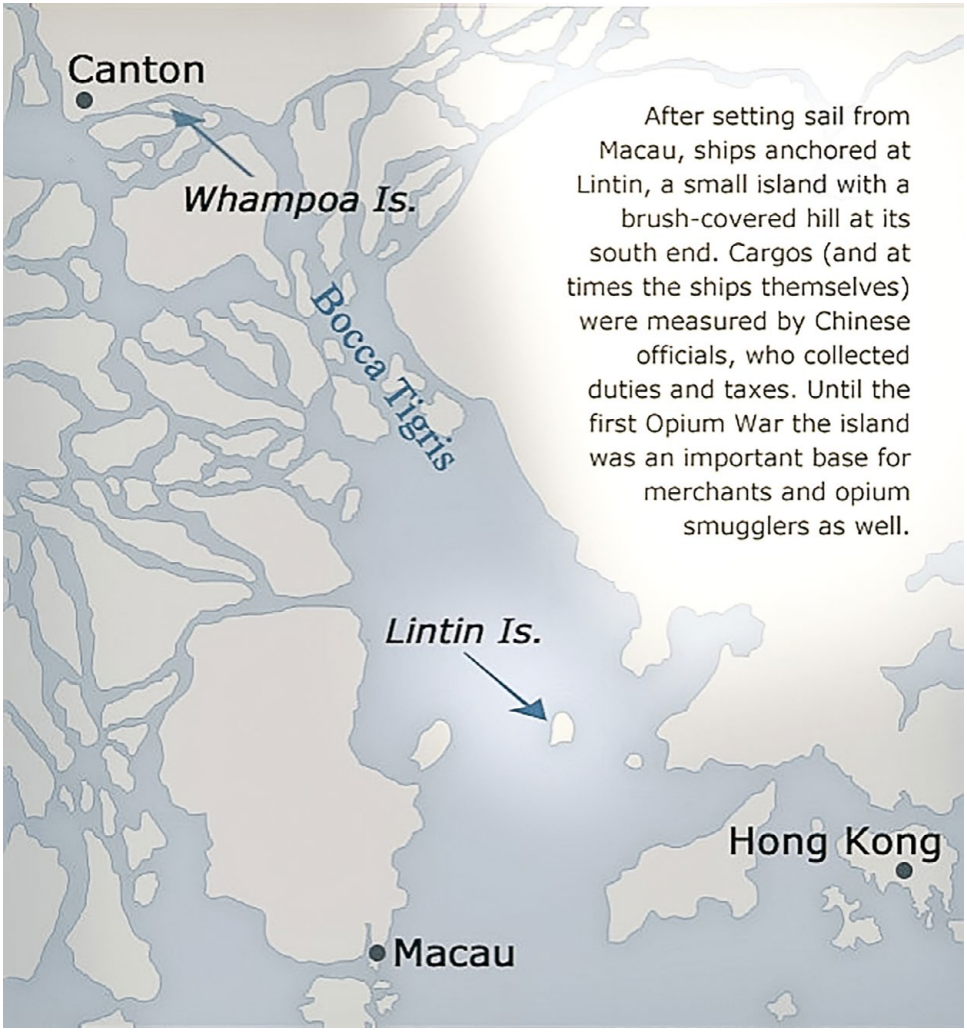
71. The Daoguang Emperor.



72. The Daoguang Emperor inspecting his guards at the Forbidden City.

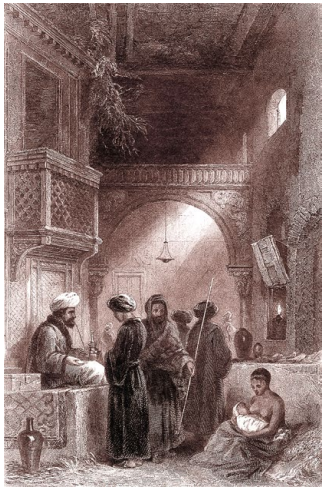
73. Imperial Commissioner Lin Zexu

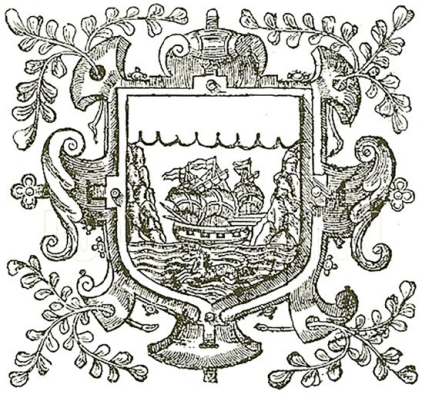
During the Daoguang Emperor's reign, China experienced major problems with opium, which was imported into China by British merchants. The Daoguang Emperor issued many imperial edicts banning opium in the 1820s and 1830s, which were carried out by Lin Zexu, whom he appointed as an Imperial Commissioner to Canton.



74. Map of the Pearl River Delta

75. Lintin (Nei Lingding) Island (seen from Castle Peak, Hong Kong)

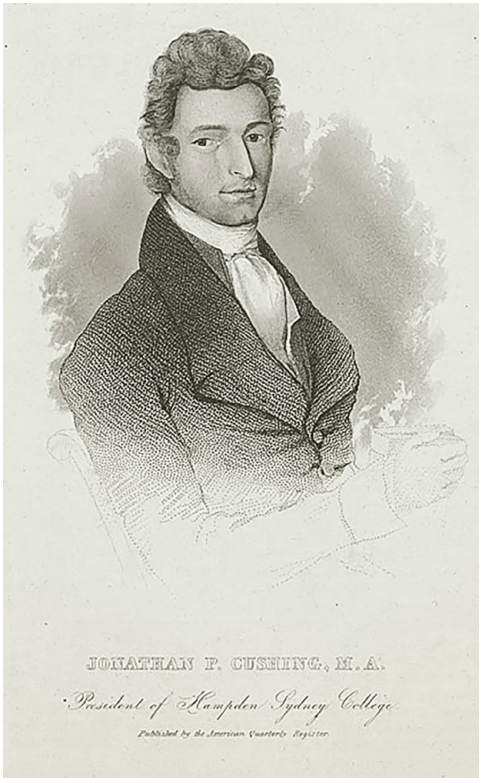




ARMS OF THE LEVANT OR TURKEY COMPANY.
Incorporated by Elizabeth.
Hazlitt, "*Livery Companies of London.*"

From the left: 76. An Ottoman opium seller; engraving from 1850 by Francis William Topham. 77. Arms of the Levant or Turkey Company. Illustration from A Short History of the English People by J R Green (Macmillan, 1892).

78. The route taken by the first boat to travel to China from New York in service of the opium trade.



From the left: 79. Johnathan Cushing; 80. John Jacob Astor, by Gilbert Stuart, c. 1794

VI. Silver, Tea & Opium

In the heart of the 19th century's tide,
When the British East India Company did preside,
Three commodities in the global trade did glide,
Silver, tea, and opium, side by side.

Silver coins from the New World's mine,
In China's market, they did shine.
For tea and opium, they were the line,
In the hands of the Company, a design so fine.

Tea leaves from China's verdant field,
To British cups, their flavour they yield.
A beverage of power, a colonial shield,
In the global market, a profitable yield.

Opium from Bengal's fertile land,
To China's shores, a contraband.
A trade of sorrow, dealt with a sleight hand,
In the heart of the Empire, a crisis (un)planned.

Silver, tea, and opium, a trio of might,
In the dance of trade, a perilous flight.
A tale of power, of wrong and right,
In the pages of history, a haunting sight.

The nineteenth century was a pivotal era in global trade, marked by the complex interplay of tea, opium, and silver. The British East India Company, a significant player in this period, navigated these trade currents, shaping the economic and political landscapes of the nations involved.

Tea has been consumed for thousands of years in China. Indigenous to the country's monsoon regions, it was cultivated by locals long before Europeans developed a taste for it in the early modern period. The Dutch East India Company delivered the first batch of leaves to Amsterdam in 1610, sending semiregular shipments of tea chests to Europe from the 1640s onwards. However, European access to tea remained extremely limited for most of the 17th century. China remained the product's exclusive supplier and set tight controls on the activities of European trading companies. The Dutch could purchase it via their colony on Java, but Europeans were banned from purchasing tea on the Chinese mainland for much of the century.

Opportunities increased after 1685, when China's Kangxi Emperor loosened the country's restrictions on European trade in a bid to bring more silver into the Qing Empire. The English East India Company was eventually permitted access to the port of Canton (Guangzhou), where its movements were closely monitored by Chinese authorities after 1713.

Along with other European companies, it was allowed to rent trading factories along the Pearl River that acted as warehouses, trading posts and administrative offices. Chinese merchants, known as hongs, held imperial authority to make sure that foreign merchants in Canton paid the required taxes on their tea. In the early 1700s, the English East India Company accepted that it needed to work within this system if it wanted to maximise its supply of tea – and gain the upper hand over the Dutch and Portuguese.

The British developed a strong demand for Chinese tea during the 18th and 19th centuries. However, China's insistence on payment in silver for its tea posed a significant challenge for the British. The outflow of silver from Britain to China to pay for the tea was causing a drain on British resources.

To counterbalance the trade deficit caused by the import of tea, the British East India Company began exporting opium from its territories in India to China. Opium, which was illegal in China, was highly addictive and had a ready market. The sale of opium in China allowed the British to acquire the silver they needed to buy Chinese tea.

Silver played a crucial role in this triangular trade. It flowed from Britain to China for tea, from China to Britain for opium, and from Britain to India to pay for the opium production. This circulation of silver facilitated the trade of tea and opium and maintained the balance of trade among the three regions.

This triangular trade had profound impacts. In China, widespread opium addiction led to social and economic disruption, leading to the Opium Wars. In Britain, the tea trade led to the popularization of tea-drinking, shaping British culture. In India, farmers were coerced into poppy cultivation for opium production, impacting local economies and societies.

The intricate relationship between tea, opium, and silver in the nineteenth century under the aegis of the British East India Company underscores the complex dynamics of global trade. It serves as a stark reminder of how commodities can shape the fortunes of empires and the fates of people, echoing through history to our present day.

81. The Production of Tea, 1790-1800, Guangzhou, China, a synoptic depiction of Whampoa Island & the countryside, possibly Bohea Hills of Fukien Province.

82. Tea Warehouse, 1820-1840, Guangzhou, China.

From the left: 83. Figure of a Tea Carrier, ca. 1803 China Unfired clay, wood, paint.
84. Tea drinking, China, Tang dynasty, 9th century.

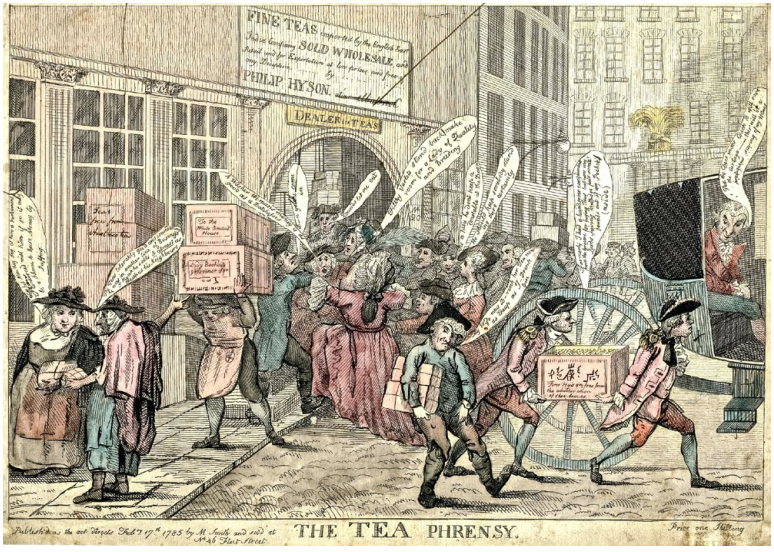
85. Tea drinking, China, Qing dynasty, 18th century.

86. Drum-shaped 10 taels sycee were one of the major silver ingots employed in many regions of the Qing Dynasty (1644-1911), especially in the southwest provinces of Szechuan and Kueichow. The majority of them were 10 tael values.

87. A large silver ingot Chinese Qing dynasty, 19th century.

88. A (British) family being served tea, ca. 1740 (oil on canvas).

89. Richard Collins' 'The Tea Party', ca.1727.



90. The Tea Phrensy (Frenzy) by M. Smith, 1785.

91. English women drinking tea after dinner.

VII. Opium Cultivation

In the heart of India, under the sun's fiery gaze,
In Bengal and Malwa, poppies set ablaze.
A tale of opium, through the smoky haze,
A saga of the peasantry, in the colonial days.

In Bengal's fertile plains, where the Ganges flow,
Poppy fields in bloom, in a radiant show.
In Malwa's rich soil, where the trade winds blow,
Opium's dark seed, the peasants sow.

From dawn to dusk, in the scorching heat,
The peasants toil, their fate to meet.
In the shadow of opium, in deceit,
Their life's blood spilled, in every beat.

The opium trade, a golden tide,
For the East India Company, a source of pride.
But for the peasant, a perilous ride,
In the face of oppression, their tears they hide.

In the heart of the poppy, a poison lies,
Under the indigo sky, a lament rises.
In the echo of history, a truth defies,
The tale of the peasant, never dies.

Opium cultivation in India during the 19th century was a significant aspect of the country's agricultural landscape, particularly in the regions of Bengal and Bihar. This period, marked by the dominance of the British East India Company, saw a transformation in the lives of Indian peasants due to the shift towards cash crop farming.

In the post-1857 decades of the 19th century, the British rulers of India controlled the vast territory and population of the Indian subcontinent. The poppy acreage almost doubled within three years, from 435,000 bighas[2] in 1860–61 to 808,000 bighas in 1863–64. Post the Second Opium War (1856-1860), one million peasant households were growing and harvesting the product. Their major goal was to develop substantial export crops such as opium as income producers for the peasant, the landlord, and for the regime. By the end of the 19th century, poppy farming had an impact on the lives of some 10 million people in what is now the states of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar.

During the decade of 1830, just before the First Opium War (1839-41), the area under opium cultivation doubled in Bengal, while the amount of its exports tripled.

The shift towards opium cultivation had profound impacts on the Indian peasantry. While it provided a source of income, it also led to a form of economic dependency on a single cash crop. This monoculture farming made the peasants vulnerable to fluctuations in the opium market and exposed them to the risks of crop failure.

Moreover, the peasants were often coerced into poppy cultivation. The

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2. 1 bigha = 0.62 acre.

cash crop occupied between a quarter and half of a peasant's holding. This led to a reduction in the cultivation of food crops, contributing to food insecurity among the peasant population.
Meanwhile, the Malwa region, located in the heart of India, played a significant role in the opium trade during the 19th century. Unlike the opium produced under the monopoly of the British East India Company in Bengal, the cultivation of opium in Malwa was less regulated, leading to a unique set of social and economic dynamics.

Opium cultivation in Malwa was primarily carried out by local farmers. The fertile soil and favourable climate of the region made it ideal for poppy cultivation. The farmers would sow the poppy seeds at the onset of winter and harvest the opium in the spring. The opium was then collected, processed, and prepared for trade.

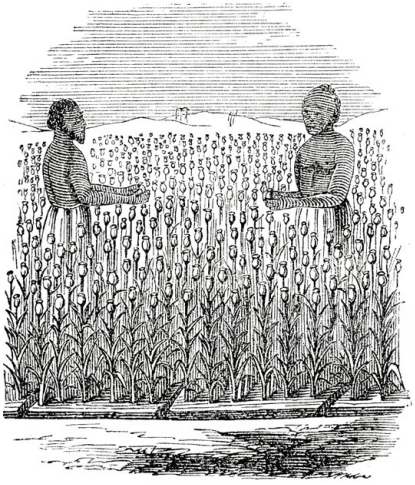
The opium produced in Malwa was highly sought after in the international market, particularly in China. Despite attempts by the British to monopolize the opium trade, Malwa emerged as a significant player due to the high quality of its opium and its strategic location, which facilitated trade with the ports of Bombay and Surat.

The opium trade brought considerable wealth to the region. However, it also led to economic disparities. While some farmers and traders amassed wealth, others fell into debt due to the volatile nature of the opium market and the high taxes imposed by local rulers.

The cultivation of opium had profound social implications in Malwa. It altered agricultural practices and led to changes in the social structure. The wealth generated from the opium trade led to the rise of a new class of opium traders and wealthy farmers. At the same time, it exacerbated social inequalities and led to instances of addiction among the local population.

The history of opium cultivation in India during the 19th century provides a nuanced understanding of the impact of global trade on local societies. It underscores the transformative power of a single commodity and serves as a reminder of the complex interplay between local practices and global forces. As we look back on this period, we gain valuable insights into the socio-economic dynamics of the time and their enduring impact on the region.

92. Opium cultivation scene – 1865, William Simpson, Malwa, India.

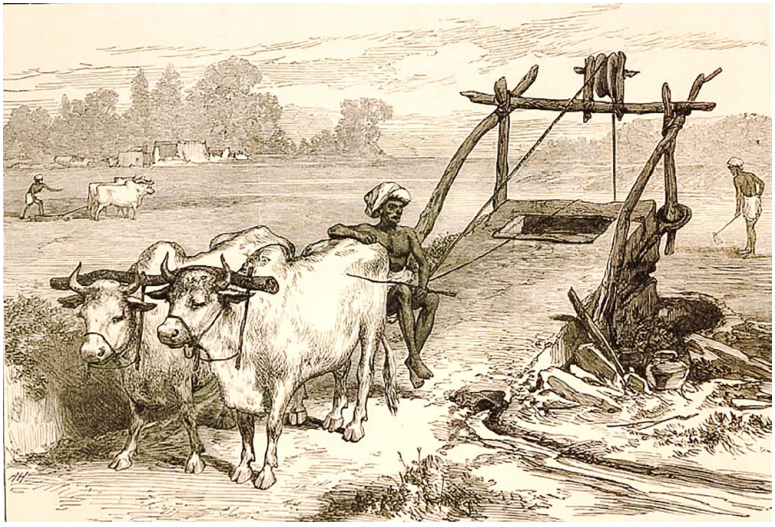


COOLIES GOING TO THE POPPY-FIELDS.

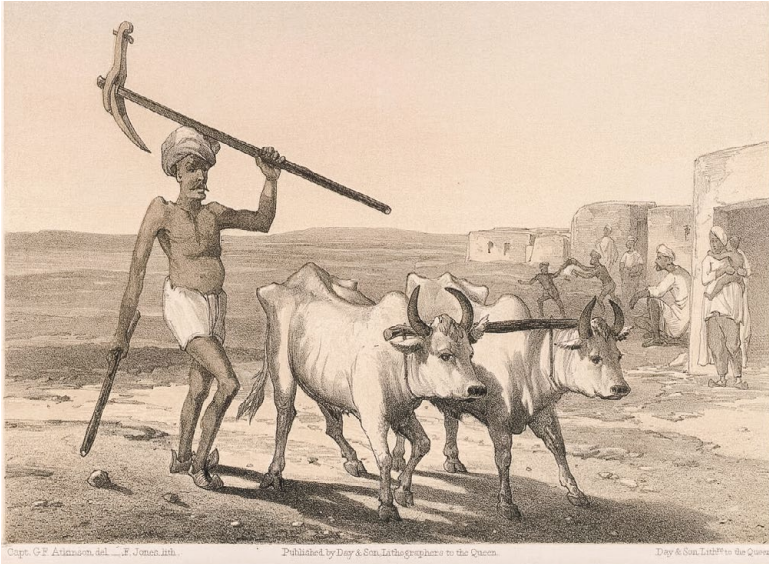
COOLIES COOKING.

From the top left: 93. Vintage engraving from 1864 of farmers growing a field of opium poppies; 94 & 95. Agricultural workers on poppy fields.

96. Grain cart drawn by coolies, 1876-78, Willoughby Wallace Hooper (This image does not pertain specifically to opium but provides the reader a picture of the state of agriculture and the peasantry in the 19th century).

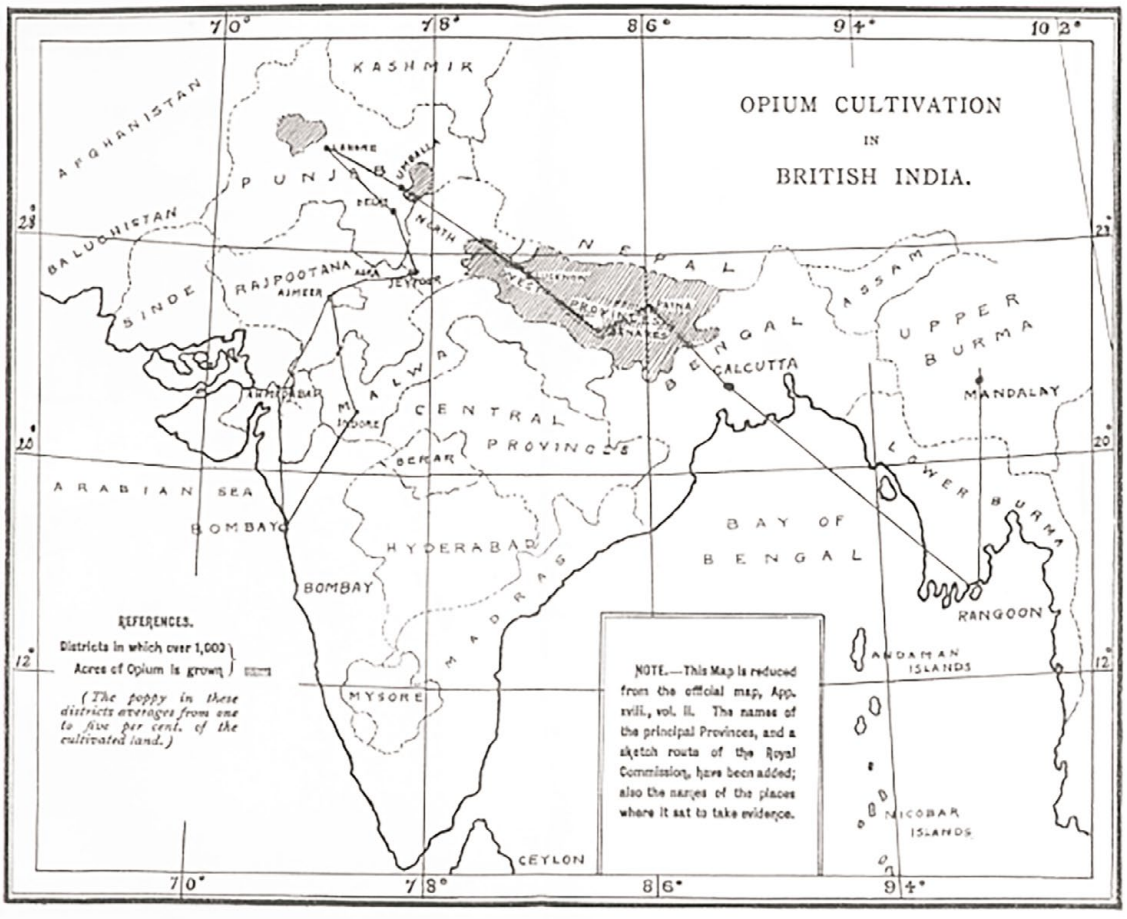


97. Mode of irrigation, India (This image does not pertain specifically to opium but provides the reader a picture of the state of agriculture and the peasantry in the 19th century).



98. Indian farmer and a yoke of oxen farming in India

99. British satire caricature comic cartoon illustration.



100. Opium cultivation in British India, 1893-94

101. Lancing poppy pods to extract opium in India, 1924. Photograph from an English newspaper.

VIII. The Opium Factory

In the heart of the 19th century's dawn,
In India's land, a shadow was drawn.
Opium factories, where hope was pawned,
A tale of trade, of power, and of scorn.

Beneath the sun, in the poppy's bloom,
In the factories' heart, in the weaving loom.
The scent of opium, in the air did loom,
A symbol of prosperity, yet a sign of doom.

Workers toiled, in the heat and grime,
In the rhythm of industry, in the march of time.
The opium trade, in its prime,
A saga of the East, in a poignant rhyme.

From Patna to Ghazipur, the factories stood,
In the heart of India, in the neighbourhood.
A testament to trade, for bad or good,
In the pages of history, a tale understood.

As we look back, on the days of yore,
We see the scars, of the opium lore.
A reminder of the past, of the open sore,
In the journey of nations, a truth to explore.

The 19th century marked a significant period in the history of opium production in India. The British East India Company, which controlled vast territories and populations in India, concentrated its resources on agricultural development. Opium, a high-value narcotic, was one of the substantial export crops developed during this period.

Opium cultivation was primarily confined to two relatively small regions in northern and western India. Despite its high value, opium did not occupy large tracts. By the end of the 19th century, poppy farming had an impact on the lives of some 10 million people in what is now the states of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar.

The Company established its main production centre in Patna, a town in Bihar, 600 kilometres up the Ganges River from Calcutta. They forced Indian labourers to work in the extensive poppy fields and prepare the opium in large mixing rooms and examining halls. A skilled workman was required to produce at least 100 balls of opium per day.

The East India Company also built factories to process opium in India for export to China and elsewhere. The opium factory located in the town of Ghazipur, Uttar Pradesh, during the colonial period, was the first one in India (1820) and was the main source of opium production in India.

A few thousand workers - in two opium factories located on the Ganges river - dried and mixed the milky fluid from the seed, made it into cakes, and packed the opium balls in wooden chests.

The peasants were coerced into poppy cultivation. The cash crop occupied between a quarter and half of a peasant's holding. This led to a reduction in the cultivation of food crops, contributing to food insecurity among the peasant population.

The history of opium factory production in 19th century India provides a stark illustration of the complexities of colonial rule and its impact on the peasantry. While it brought about economic opportunities, it also led to exploitation and vulnerability among the peasant population. This period serves as a critical chapter in India's agrarian history, the effects of which can still be seen in the present day.

From the left: 102. Opium being mixed in a shallow rectangular wooden container.
103. Balls of opium being weighed on a pair of scales.

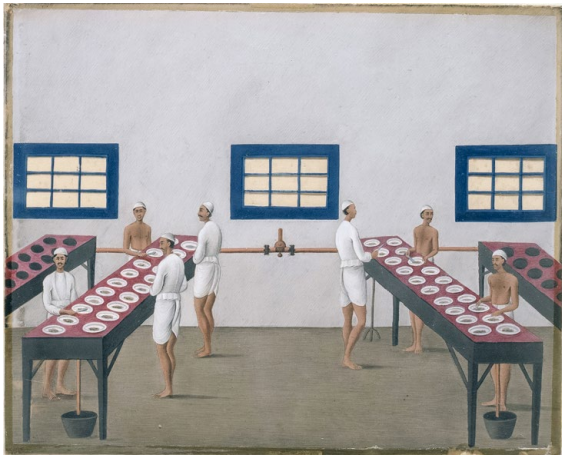
From the left: 104. Opium being ladled out of a large wooden box into bowls.
105. Opium being mixed in a large, square wooden vat.

This Company Painting (a painting made by an Indian artist for the British in India) is done on mica (talc) and comes from a series of nineteen illustrating processes in the manufacture of opium at the opium factory at Gulzarbagh in Patna, Bihar. According to the artist Ishwari Prasad, his grandfather, Shiva Lal (c.1817-1887), began to make the designs for these paintings in 1857. They were commissioned by Dr D. R. Lyall (the personal assistant in charge of opium-making) for a series of wall paintings in the Gulzarbagh factory. However, Lyall was killed in 1857, during the Indian Mutiny, and the scheme was abandoned.

From the left: 106. Receipt of the crude opium, which is being brought in by three men carrying bowls of it on their heads. Eight men are squatting on the ground with more bowls, while an onlooker - perhaps a supervisor - stands at an open doorway.; 107. Opium being tested for purity by a man standing at a table which has bowls and filters on it.

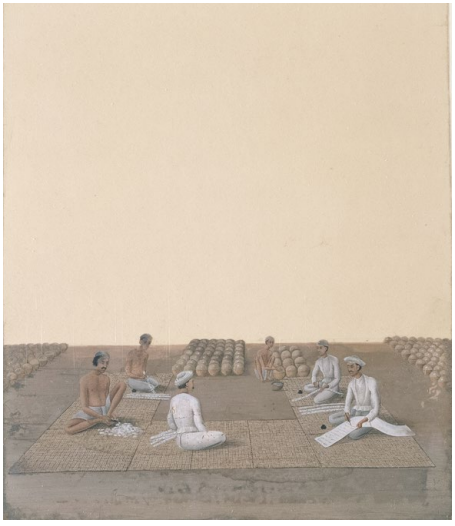
From the left: 108. Receipt of the crude opium in bowls.;
109. Jars of the opium being weighed in a pair of scales.

From the left: 110. Pots of opium that have been put into baskets being labelled ready for despatch.; 111. Opium being weighed.



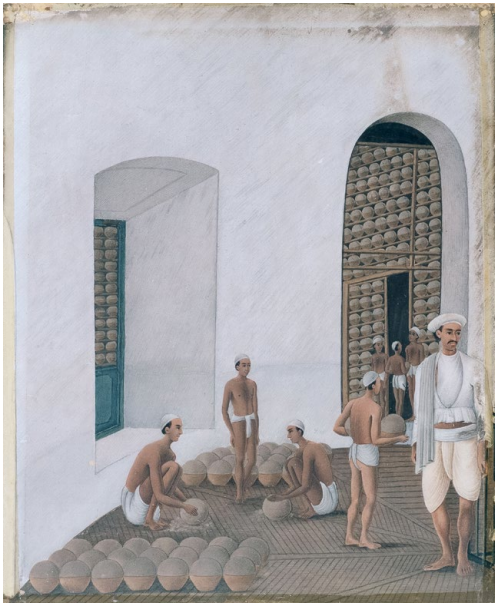
From the left: 112. Two men carrying a pole over their shoulders to which a crate is attached by means of a rope. The crate is marked 'PATNA OPIUM', followed by an East India Company stamp and a stock number.
113. Opium being tested for purity by seven men, who are standing at two high tables laden with plates of it.

From the left: 114. Opium being moulded into a ball and put into a brass cup.; 115. Opium being tested for purity.

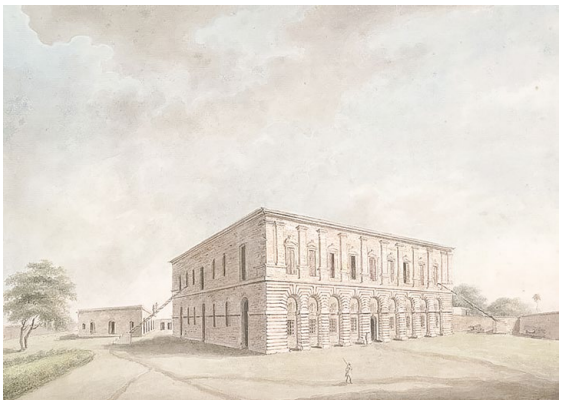


From the left: 116. Clerks seated on matting on the ground labelling and listing the opium balls, which are neatly arranged in rows.; 117. Opium balls being weighed and packed.

From the left: 118. Opium balls being weighed in a pair of scales.;
119. Carpenters making crates with individual compartments for the opium balls.

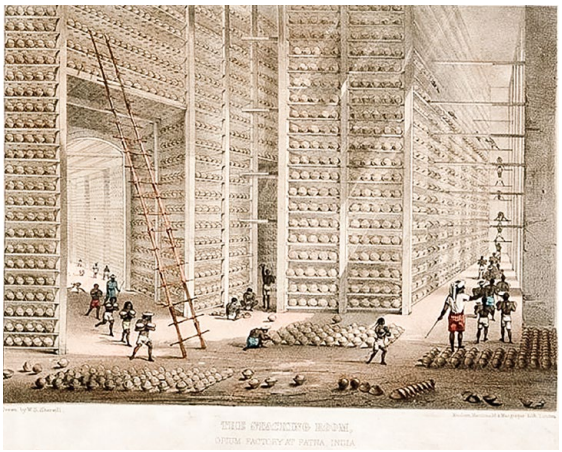


120. Opium being moulded into balls and put into brass cups.



From the left: 121. Watercolour of an Opium Godown (Storehouse) in Patna, Bihar from 'Views by Seeta Ram from Patna to Benares Vol. II' by Sita Ram (1814-15.) Patna was the centre of British opium manufacturing.
122. View from above the Opium Godown at Patna, showing the houses and their grounds to the west, with the Ganges on the right. Sitaram depicts himself sketching on the flat roof of the godown and shows the curve of the earth in the distant prospect. Painting by Sitaram 1814.

From the left: 123. View of the Opium Bungalow and encampment at Gulzarbagh, near Patna City (Bihar); a road coming down to the river - 19 November 1824. Pen and ink drawing by Sir Charles D'Oyly (1781-1845).
124. The interior view of the opium godown at Patna, showing a staircase rising on increasingly high arches - 1814. Artist Sita Ram. The British used Patna as a centre for manufacturing opium for exportation and medicinal purposes. The godown or store was located on the river bank and on the site of an old Dutch Factory.

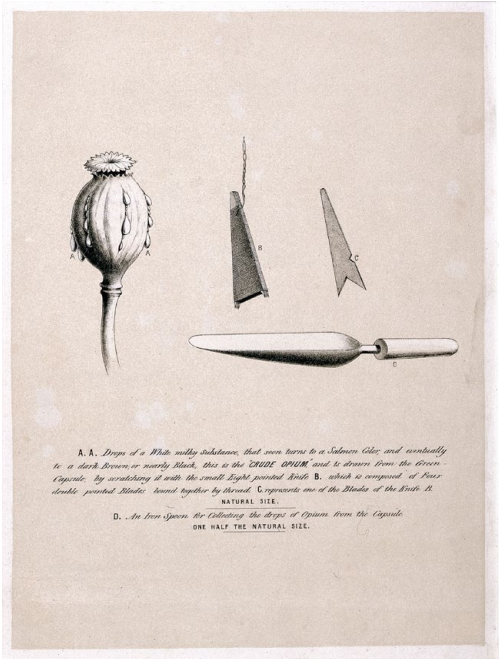


From the left: 125. In the Stacking Room the balls are stacked before being packed in boxes for Calcutta en route to China. A number of boys are constantly engaged in stacking, turning, airing, and examining the balls. To clear them of mildew, moths or insects, they are rubbed with dried and crushed poppy petal dust.
126. In the Drying Room the balls are placed to dry before being stacked. Each ball is placed in a small earthenware cup. Men examine the balls, and puncture with a sharp style those in which gas, arising from fermentation, may be forming.

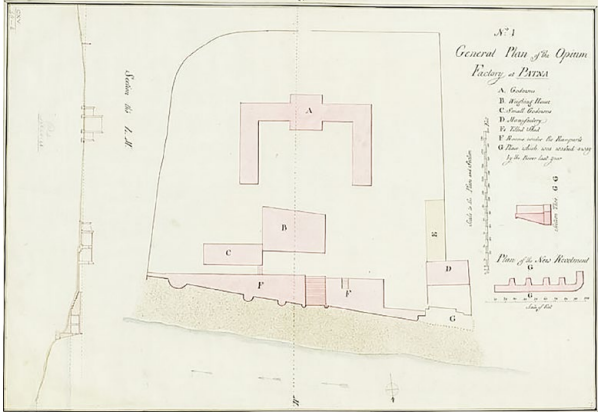
From the left: 127. In the Mixing Room the contents of the earthen pans are thrown into vats and stirred with blind rakes until the whole mass becomes a homogeneous paste.
128. In the Examining Hall the consistency of the crude opium as brought from the country in earthen pans is simply tested, either by the touch, or by thrusting a scoop into the mass. A sample from each pot (the pots being numbered and labelled) is further examined for consistency and purity in the chemical test room.

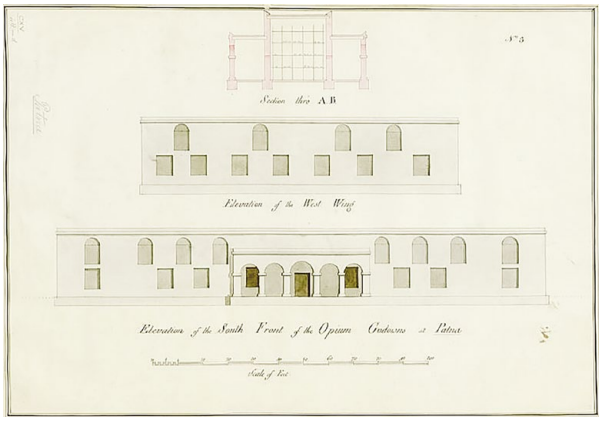
From the left: 129. From the mixing room the crude opium is conveyed to the Balling Room, where it is made into balls. Each ball-maker is furnished with a small table, a stool, and a brass cup to shape the ball in a certain quantity of opium and water called 'Lewa,' and an allowance of poppy petals, in which the opium balls are rolled. Every man is required to make a certain number of balls, all weighing alike. An expert workman will turn out upwards of a hundred balls a day.

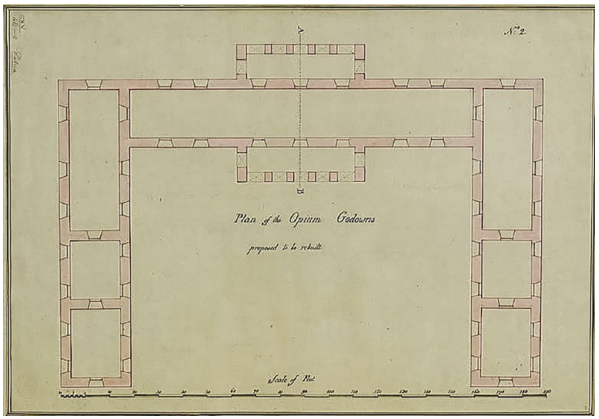
Illustrations of the mode of preparing the Indian opium (8.6a to 8.6e) intended for the Chinese market from drawings by Captain Walter S. Sherwill.



130. A poppy capsule oozing drops of crude opium and tools for its extraction. Lithograph, ca. 1850.



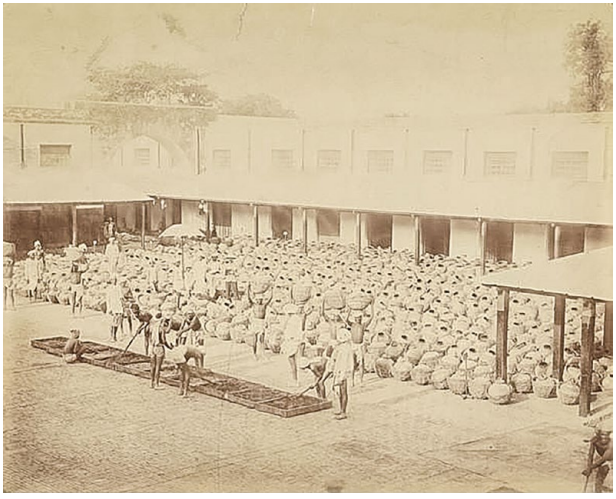


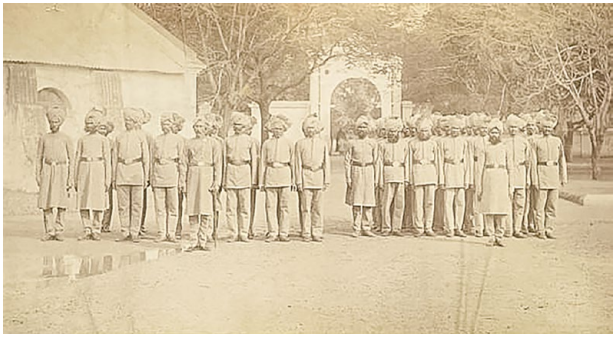


From the top: 131. A plan showing the opium warehouse at Gulzarbagh, Patna in Bihar; the River Ganges to the north; a section on the left; the key in the upper right-hand corner; section of the small godown below; plan of the new revenment below this. Inscribed with title in black ink in the upper right-hand corner.
132. Elevations of the Opium factory at Gulzarbagh, Patna in Bihar; a section above. Inscribed with title and key in black ink below image. Inscribed 'No3' in black ink in the upper right-hand corner.
133. A proposed plan for the opium warehouse at Gulzarbagh, Patna in Bihar. Inscribed with title at centre in black ink. Inscribed 'No2' in upper right-hand corner in black ink. Scale along the lower edge in black ink.

134. Opium manufacture in India, 1899.

135. Weighing opium at a government factory in India, late 19th century, India.



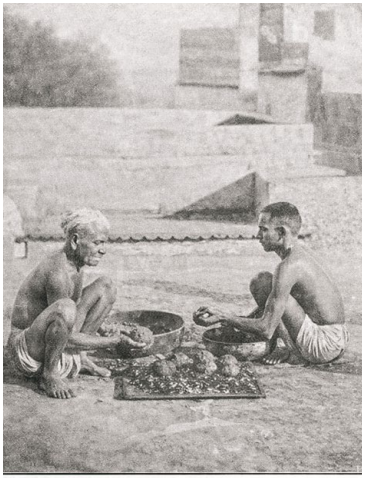


From the top: 135. Weighing opium at a government factory in India, late 19th century, India.
136. Examination of opium. India c. 1920. View shows a European man sitting at a desk (which is on a trolley pushed by an attendant) while an Indian worker shows him a sample of opium taken from one of the large clay pots in the foreground.
137. Opium factory, Ghazipur, 1884.

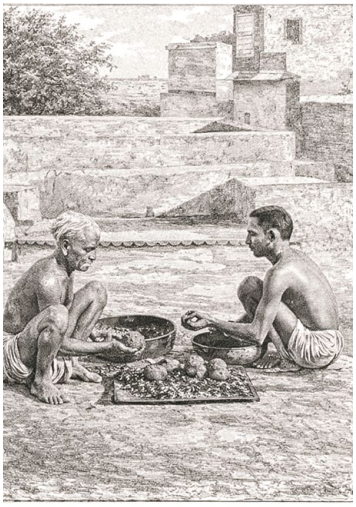
139. Opium factory Ghazipur seen from other side, 1884

THE PREPARATION OF OPIUM FOR THE MARKET: SCENES AT AN OPIUM FACTORY

140. The preparation of opium for the market, scenes at an opium factory (litho).

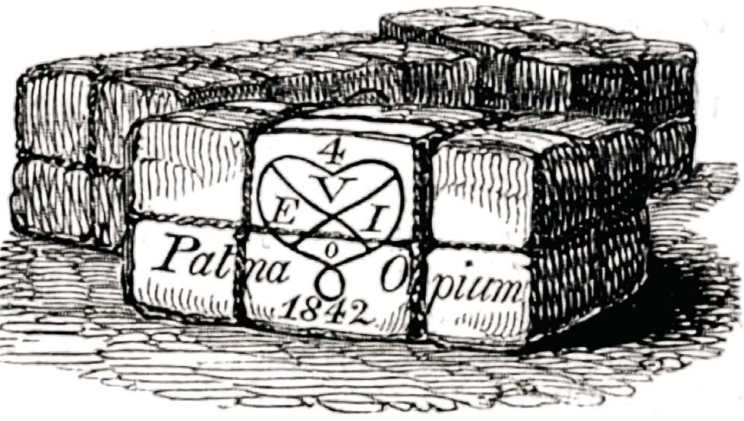


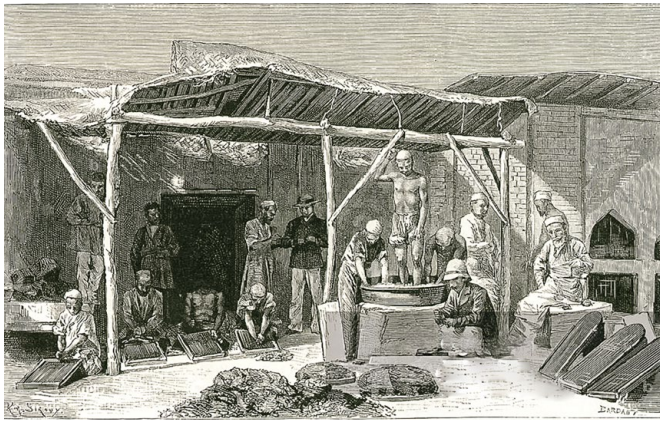
MAKING ROUND CAKES OF OPIUM



141. Making round cakes of opium at a government factory in India, late 19th century.
142. Kneading crude opium with oil to make round or flat cakes at a government factory in India, late 19th century.

143. Where opium is principally made, making opium, trade card advertising John Player & Sons Cigarettes, early 20th century (colour litho).





144. Patna opium; 145. The manufacture of opium for smoking, in Mr. Collignon's factory near Isfahan (Iran), 1881-82.

146. The manufacture of pharmaceutical opium, in M.Collignon's factory, near Isfahan (Iran), 1881-82.

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den have been running regular trips and drawing from 16 to 16·5 feet of water. The completion of this year's work will admit of easy navigation for vessels drawing from 21 to 22 feet of water, which is ample for most foreign vessels that come over the bar off the Golden Gate.—*Min. and Sci. Press.*

How Opium is Produced in India.

[Calcutta Correspondent of San Francisco *Chronicle.*]

Owing to the ever poverty-stricken state of the Indian *raiat*, or husbandman, the government advances the means whereby he can engage in poppy cultivation. The nature of their engagements is about as follows: The cultivator undertakes to sow a *bigha*, or about one-twentieth of an acre, with poppy seed. For this he is given the requisite amount of seed. If a well has to be dug, he is not only given a sum on loan, sufficient to carry out his purpose, but also money enough to buy bullocks in order to enable him to draw water from the well when it is finished. This is termed the first advance, and is simply given to prepare his land for the sowing of poppy seed. The second advance is given when the plant begins to shoot above the earth's surface, and the third, when the plant is about to mature. In January or Feberuary the plant comes to maturity; in that state the pods are lanced in the afternoon. The opium is allowed to exude till next morning, when it is carefully taken off by an iron scraper. At the same time precaution is exercised to close the incisions by running the finger over the cuts. About five to six incisions suffice for the drawing of the juice.

The opium is placed in brass vessels, slightly tilted, so as to drain off the dew or any other watery substance. It is then manipulated and placed in new earthen vessels, and is thus kept till it is brought to the weighing station. The cultivator of poppies does not employ labor. His holdings are mere garden patches; so all the aid he requires, from the sowing of the seed to the maturing of the plant and the gathering of the opium, can be had from the members of his family. The whole of this work is done by himself, his wife, and his little ones. Many of these opium garden plats, worked by the man and family, amount to only one-sixth or one-twelfth of an acre, perhaps; in a few isolated instances one man is wealthy enough to own half an acre.

There are many reasons which conduce to this. First and foremost is that the native does not like to lease more land than he himself can plow and work. Even with the growth of opium, where so many untold advantages are offered for extended enterprise, the Indian husbandman prefers to give his attention to a tiny garden rather than to be put to the expense of working, with paid help, a few acres. His outlay is nothing, and thus he is enabled, at tremendous profit, to grow opium for sale to the government. He does not pay for help; manure is always handy, as human excrement only is used, and nothing is cheaper and more effective. Irrigation is equally simple. A rude well is sunk; two posts and a cross beam, over which is placed a wheel, form the only apparatus for the drawing of water. A rope is passed over the wheel and attached to it a huge leathern bucket, which is let down and drawn up by bullocks. The water is emptied into a reservoir; running from this are numerous drains, which carry off the water and flush the lands requiring moisture. The stronger members of the family are engaged in this toil, while the children, who in other lands would be deemed infants, make themselves generally useful in picking weeds and many other duties necessitating light labor.

Before the sun gilds the horizon, and while the dew is yet fresh on the grass, the family are astir, and from early morning till evening their entire attention is bestowed upon their crop, either in weeding, watering, or picking during the day; and sometimes at night, in keeping wild animals from intruding and destroying in a single hour the labor of years.

The wants of the husbandman are but few. Four mud walls and a thatched roof compose the family mansion; and in such a hovel will he live for generations. A scant cloth tied round his loins serves for coat and pantaloons. When he desires to appear to advantage a huge cotton sheet, thrown in graceful folds around his body, serves as gala costume on occasions of great festivity. His little children are in a state of utter nudity, even in the coldest weather; and when it is borne in mind that from October till February the weather is a great deal colder than it is in San Francisco, some idea of the hardy nature of native children can be formed. The women are somewhat better clothed; a simple petticoat and a gray-colored sheet has for the last three thousand years formed their attire. But, whatever money the husbandman gains, he converts into jewelry, which forms the real wealth of the native landowner, and is regarded by natives much in the same way as a European looks upon a bank account. In times of acute distress he can always part, even at a premium, with his wife's ornaments. The Hindoo religion demands that certain ornaments must be worn by married women. When the contracting parties are poor they make them of lead, but directly fortune smiles favorably they are exchanged for gold and silver. The small farmer lives with but three objects, that is, to load his wife with ornaments, to eat off brass platters, and to be able, on the marriage of his son, to make a grand display. To attain this end he will suffer years of deprivation and inconvenience, and his many years' savings will be wasted in a single week of jollification.

We can imagine how glad must be the raiat when the poppy plant has begun to exude opium, and when his opium has all been gathered he waits patiently for the order to march, with the fruits of his labor, to the weighing station. It depends entirely upon the season as to when the cultivators can bring their opium to the government stations to be weighed.

DISPOSING OF THE CROP.

As a general rule, the month of April is the commencement of the weighing season. Intimation is then given to the opium cultivators that they must present themselves on a certain day with their opium, in order to have it tested and weighed. In the districts where the poppy plant is cultivated all are astir, and grand preparations are made for a general exodus. The opium is collected safely in red earthen pots, which are put in wicker crates, and the whole family, with burdens on their heads, make for the weighing stations. The picturesque Indian lanes are crowded with these men, marching like sheep to their destination. They only travel during the night. The sultry heat of midday forces them to seek the grateful shelter of the gardens and groves so liberally planted along the dusty highways. Directly a halt is called, and preparations are made for the daily meal. After this is finished some lively spirit starts a story, recounting the savage doings of the stranger who rules the land. With terrified countenances and anxious ears they listen to these fabulous tales; but inwardly they bless the "white face" as they think of the money he is soon to disburse.

Many of these ignorant cultivators have never seen, in their life, a European; and accept with easy credulity anything detrimental to the character of their governors. No wonder is it then that the native approaches the sahib or gentleman with the most abject fear painted on every limb. He holds his breath when he hears him speak, and is ready to faint at the slightest display of anger or impatience. These sensational stories are generally propagated by rascally natives, who profit by the credulity of their countrymen in order to extort money. These men represent that nothing can be done without the bakshish or blackmail present, and they are the agents for the sahib, sent by him to collect toll. If the ignorant wretch demurs, his torturer paints a picture to which the torments of hell are but a trifle. The poor fellow, anxious to escape such calamities as he is threatened, pays the demand, and further presents his friend with a trifle in order that nothing should go wrong.

WEIGHING AND TESTING.

Early in the morning the weighing and tests commence. Notice is given to the cultivators, and they proceed to the factory, ranging themselves in a long line before the examining officer. Some men connected with the department then mix up the opium and take out a small quantity for examination. The officer, after inspection, marks the quality on the side of the earthen basin in chalk. The samples are again mixed up and tested with a solution of tincture of iodine. If it happens that the cultivator has been attempting to adulterate his opium with farinaceous matter the solution will discover the deceit. Experienced officers are alone trusted with this important duty, and it is expected of them to be able to distinguish the class of the opium as much by the feel and sight as by a chemical analysis. The consistency of the opium is easily told by a man who has been long at the work by simply turning the opium over with his hand or with the aid of a knife. If the opium is of a first-class quality the color is a rich brown, and it is so stiff that there is some difficulty experienced in turning. The poorer the quality the blacker the color and the thinner the consistency.

After the opium has been weighed and filled into separate jars according to its quality, they are sealed up and dispatched to the factory, where all the opium is again mixed up to a certain consistency and made into balls ready for exportation and sale at Calcutta. After the opium has once been delivered into the hands of the government officer, the cultivator has nothing more to do. He is paid so much by the pound; his former advances are deducted, and the connection between the *raiat* and government closes. When the balls are made they are packed into boxes called "opium chests," and sent down to Calcutta.

Mr. Bishop's Platinum Works.

At the recent convention of Mining Engineers in Philadelphia an excursion was made to the platinum works of Mr. Joaquin Bishop, of Sugartown, Chester County, Pa. Mr. Bishop is said to be the only platinum-worker in the United States, by which must be meant the only one who has an establishment devoted entirely to that metal. He has made a specialty of platinum working for forty years. In 1845 he took a premium, but at that time the demand for platinum was so small that it only occupied him one day in the month, using the metal principally for rivets to fasten artificial teeth. Before the engineers, Mr. Bishop melted a piece of platinum with the ease that a plumber melts lead. The intense heat used may be imagined when it is known that a steel file held in the blast burned like a piece of wood.

The Population Center of the United States.

Ten years ago the center of the population of the United States was about forty-eight miles east of Cincinnati, Ohio. The Superintendent of the late census announces that the growth of the great West during the past decade carried the center of population about fifty miles west, while the large increase in the Southern States carried it a little southward. The result places the center of population within the limits of Cincinnati.

Last Year's Petroleum Product.

The conditions which prevail throughout the petroleum trade—including the export, the home, and the producing elements—are far from flattering to those who look for better prices in the immediate future, as the following points show:

1. The production seems to have continued without decline for the past month, showing an average per day of 72,390 barrels, against an average per day for the preceding month of 72,214 barrels.

2. During the past month we have added to stocks in the region (by excess of receipts into the lines over the quantity shipped from the lines) 1,162,072 barrels. This quantity of addition to stock for one month is unprecedented in the history of the trade.

3. On taking a year's view of the production and shipments of the lines we find that for the twelve months of 1880, while the average daily production was 71,124 barrels, the average daily shipment was 37,100 barrels, showing a daily excess of production over shipment or consumption, for the year, of 34,024 barrels.

4. With a stock of over 20,000,000 barrels—which, with the existing relation of excessive production to demand, must continue to increase for some months to come—there is no reason for buoyancy in the carrying of this stock, and except for the plentitude of money which has prevailed for the past six months, we are of opinion that it could not have been carried at the existing prices.

5. While nothing of any importance has arisen within the past month to indicate an extension of the field, the fact that the production has been so well kept up in the severe winter months just passed rather indicates that we may expect an increase in developments and production as the weather becomes more favorable for operating.

Notwithstanding the exceptional severity of the winter now passing, the table of statistics of drilling wells shows that more wells were drilled during this winter than in any preceding winter; thus showing a persistent determination on the part of the producer to keep up the excess of supply, if possible.

We have endeavored to hope for better condition in the trade by looking at the definition of the territory and at the plethora of money, to support the excessive and growing stocks; but in examining carefully the statistics of the business, we are forced to the conclusion that a substantial appreciation of prices based upon the relation of supply to demand is not likely to come to us for yet awhile. It will take considerable falling off of production and a considerable increase of consumption for the present year as compared with the past year to overcome the excess of 34,024 barrels which we accumulated each day of last year.

Taking the great activity in the region, together with the slow rate at which production has declined in the past few months, we fear some months must yet elapse before there come to us substantial reasons for better permanent prices.—*Stowell's Reporter.*

A New Disease.

A boy lately died at the Sainte Eugénie Hospital, Paris, of hydrophobia. His saliva, taken four hours after death, has been found by M. Pasteur to have remarkable properties, causing what appears to be a new disease. Two rabbits immediately inoculated with the saliva diluted died in about 36 hours. Other rabbits were inoculated with the saliva or with the blood of the first, and death ensued even more rapidly. The process was several times repeated, and with like effects. The animal, in five or six hours, loses appetite, afterward becomes weak and paralyzed, and at length dies of asphyxia. The windpipe is a good deal congested and shows hemorrhage. There is also a swelling of the ganglions on either side, and of the groin and axillæ, etc. M. Pasteur has observed in the blood of the inoculated animals a small organism, or microbe, which (by his method of artificial cultivation) he finds good reason to regard as the agent of the malady. It is a very short rod, slightly contracted about the middle; a sort of aureola appears round it, probably due to mucous substance. It is somewhat like the microbe of chicken cholera, but differs entirely in its effects. Fowls inoculated with it are not in the least affected. It is further singular that while the rabbit is always so quickly killed by the effect of inoculation, the guinea-pig, so closely related to the rabbit, retains its vigor and appetite weeks after inoculation. Whether there may not in this case be a long incubation of the virus remains *sub judice*. The new malady seems thus far distinct from rabies in the absence of the usual incubation, the nature of the anatomical lesions, and the transmission by inoculation with the blood of the dead animal. Further, dogs inoculated with the boy's saliva died in a few days without presenting rabid symptoms. M. Pasteur, however, thinks it would be rash to affirm the absolute independence of the two disorders; and if rabies may be attributed to the presence of a microscopic organism, some hope is offered that science may find a means of attenuating the action of that terrible malady.

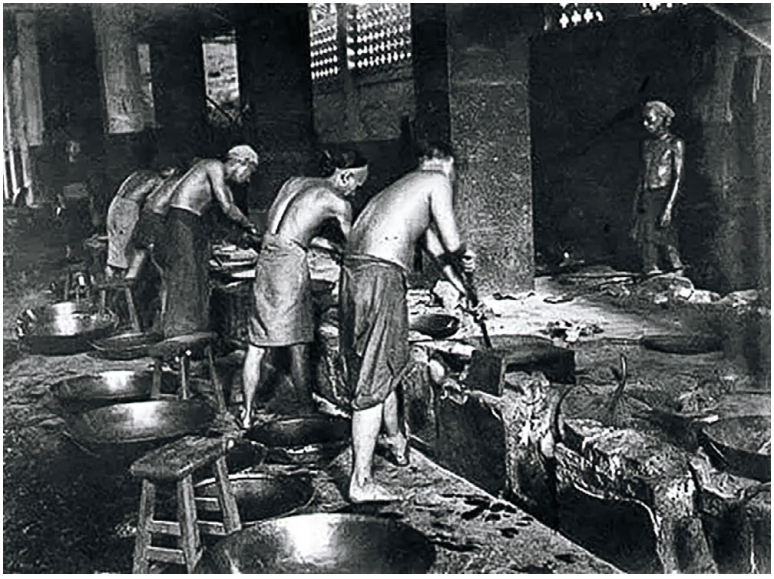
The Jubilee of the Hanover Technical Academy.

Doubtless many of our readers will be interested in the announcement elsewhere in this paper of the 50th anniversary of the Polytechnic Institute of Hanover, Germany, to be celebrated next June. The festival committee are desirous that all former students at that institution shall send in their names at once, even though they cannot accept the cordial invitation to participate.

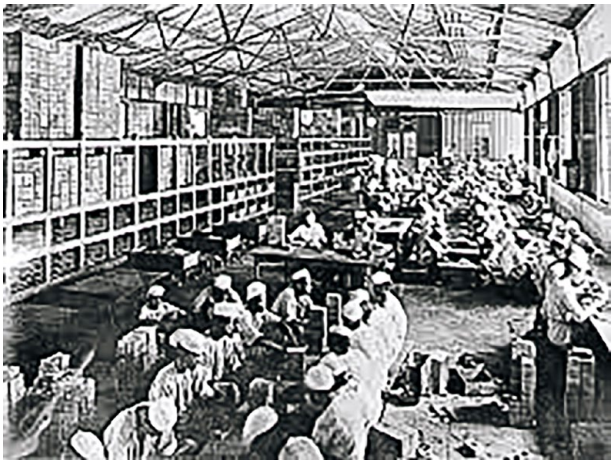
147. How opium is produced in India, Scientific American, 1881.

148. Warehouse scene, India, 1820s. Sir Charles D'Oyly seated at a table, smoking a hookah, his clerks seated nearby, watching opium being weighed.

149. Opium factory, Vietnam, during French colonial period. The primary materials for these factories, especially the one at Hai Ba Trung, came from India. Opium products were later governed by the French government, taxed at 10%, and retailed by Chinese merchants. This "business model" – buying raw Indian resin and refining it at Saigon (Ho Chi Minh City's former name) proved to be a successful business idea of Governor-General Doumer. Under his direction, opium revenues made up about one-third of the colonial government income, from 1882 to the 1910s.



150. Inside the refinery, workers in the process of producing opium products (Vietnam).



151. Inside of the Dutch opium factory, Batavia, 1935.

152. Opium dealer, Iran, 1910.

IX. Opium Consumption & Addiction

In the shadow of the Qing, a sombre tale unfurled,
A trade that wove through seas and souls, around the world.
Opium, the poppy's yield, a bane in disguise,
Brought fleeting bliss to many, yet led to a nation's cries.

From the Tang to Qing, it travelled, a medicinal lore,
But mingled with tobacco leaves, it opened a darker door.
The wealthy smoked in leisure, in rooms of hazy gold,
While the poor found solace in its grasp, a comfort bought and sold.

In the 19th century's heart, the crisis reached its peak,
As millions fell to opium's call, their futures growing bleak.
A dragon bound by chains of smoke, its roar a silent plea,
For the grip of this seductive vice was a lock without a key.

Across the seas, the story echoed, in every corner found,
From the British Isles to distant lands, its roots were deeply wound.
Empires built on poppy fields, where blood and tears were sown,
And the cries of the addicted were lost in a sea of moan.

The wars that came, a bitter fruit of this opulent trade,
Left scars upon the earth and soul, a price too steeply paid.
Two wars named for the opium, that cut through China's heart,
A sovereignty sold for silver, as a nation torn apart.

Yet, let us not forget the lives, in history's vast expanse,
Bound by the chains of opium, lost to its cruel trance.
Their stories whisper through the years, a cautionary tale,
Of a world ensnared by desire, where even the strong may fail.

So, reflect upon this chapter dark, of humanity's past,
And heed the lessons it imparts, for as long as they shall last.
For addiction's shadow lingers still, in modern forms anew,
And the battle against its siren call, is far from being through.

Opium, derived from the poppy plant, has a long history of use for both medicinal and recreational purposes. In the 19th century, opium addiction became a significant social and health issue, particularly in China, but also worldwide. This essay will explore the history of opium consumption and addiction during this period, focusing on its impact in China and its global implications.

Opium's introduction to China can be traced back to the Tang dynasty (618–907 CE), where it was initially used for medicinal purposes. However, by the 19th century, recreational use of opium had become widespread, exacerbated by the introduction of tobacco smoking from the Americas. The practice of opium smoking became a symbol of social status among the wealthy, and over time, it permeated all levels of society.

The widespread addiction in China was not merely a health crisis; it was intertwined with the country's socio-political fabric. The Qing dynasty's attempts to suppress opium consumption were met with resistance, as the drug had become deeply embedded in Chinese culture and economy. The British East India Company capitalized on this demand by smuggling opium into China, leading to the infamous Opium Wars. These conflicts resulted in China's forced acceptance of opium imports, exacerbating the addiction problem and contributing to the weakening of the Qing dynasty.

Opium addiction in China during the 19th century reached alarming levels, with significant social and economic consequences. In 1729, annual imports of opium into China were recorded at 200 chests. By 1800, this number had leaped to 4,500 chests. The 1830s saw a rapid rise in the opium trade, and by 1838, just before the First Opium War, imports had climbed to 40,000 chests. After the Treaty of Nanking in

1842, annual imports rose to 70,000 chests by 1858. It is estimated that as many as 40 million people, or 10 percent of China's population, were addicted by the end of the 19th century.

The opium crisis was not confined to China. In the United States, opium and its derivatives, such as morphine, were widely used to treat various ailments. By the late 19th century, an addiction epidemic had emerged, affecting roughly 1 in 200 Americans. The typical addict was often an upper-class or middle-class white woman, challenging the contemporary stereotypes of substance abuse3.

In Britain, opium use was also prevalent, with the drug being prescribed for a range of conditions. However, the moral and social implications of opium consumption began to stir public debate, leading to changes in attitudes and policies towards the drug.

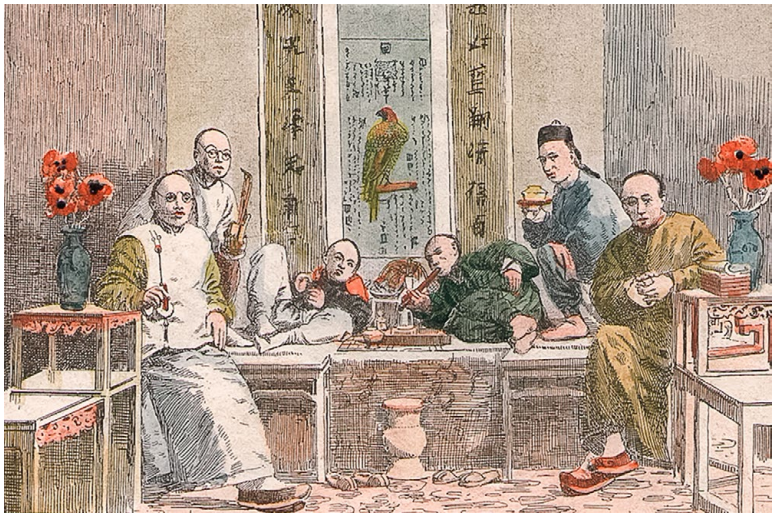
In India, the widespread availability of opium led to a significant addiction problem. Many individuals, including women and children, fell victim to opium's addictive properties. The social fabric of communities was affected, with addiction leading to the neglect of familial and societal responsibilities. The economic impact was also severe, as addiction led to a decline in productivity and contributed to the impoverishment of the rural population.

Some of the other countries which experienced widespread opium consumption were Australia, Burma (Myanmar), Thailand, Persia (Iran) and Turkey. While Japan was involved in the opium trade externally, it did not face the internal social and health issues related to opium consumption that were seen in other countries during the 19th century.

The 19th century opium epidemic left an indelible mark on the world.

In China, it led to significant social upheaval and was a catalyst for political change. Globally, it highlighted the dangers of substance addiction and the need for international cooperation in drug control. The lessons learned from this period continue to inform modern approaches to drug policy and addiction treatment.

153. Chinese picture illustrating the evils of opium, 19th century.



154. A coloured engraving shows people inside an opium den in China during the 19th century.

155. Chinese aristocrat sitting smoking opium - 19th century.

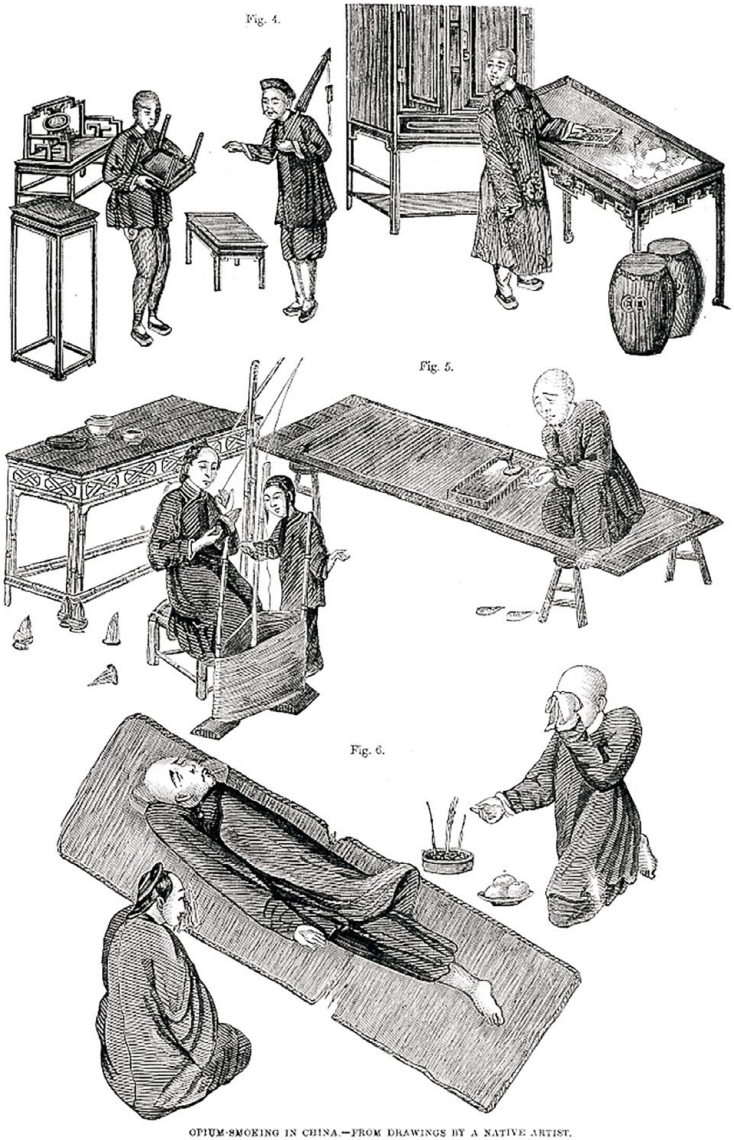
From the top: 156. Opium smokers, China, photograph by William Saunders, 1867.
157. Chinese opium smokers, 1858.
158. Opium merchant in China, weighing and packaging opium to be smuggled into the United States.

159. Opium smokers c1880 by Lai Afong.

160. Opium smokers in illegal den, Beijing, 1932.

161. Opium smokers dreaming, illustration from 'Journal des Voyages', Horace Castell, 1878.

162. Opium smoker's 'progress', China, 1858.

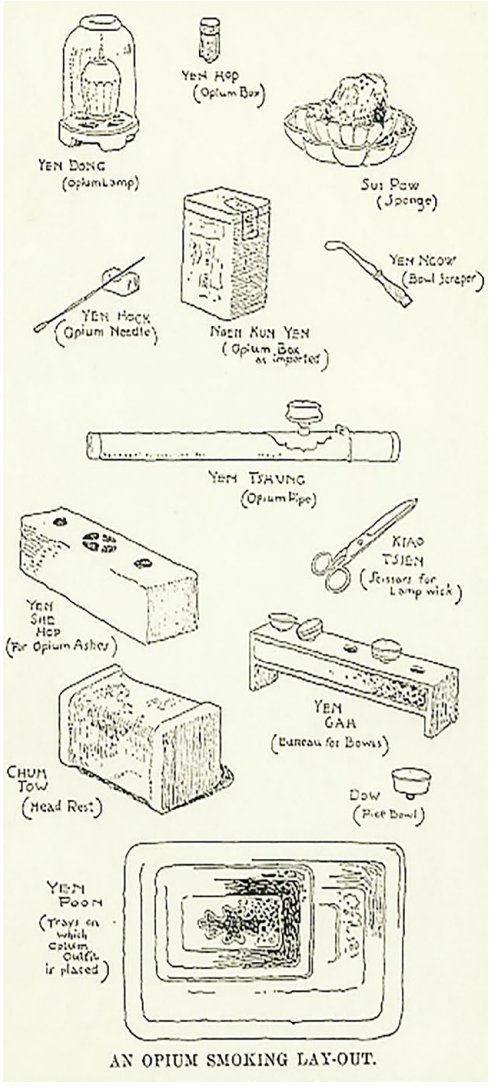


163. Opium smoker's 'progress', China, 1858.

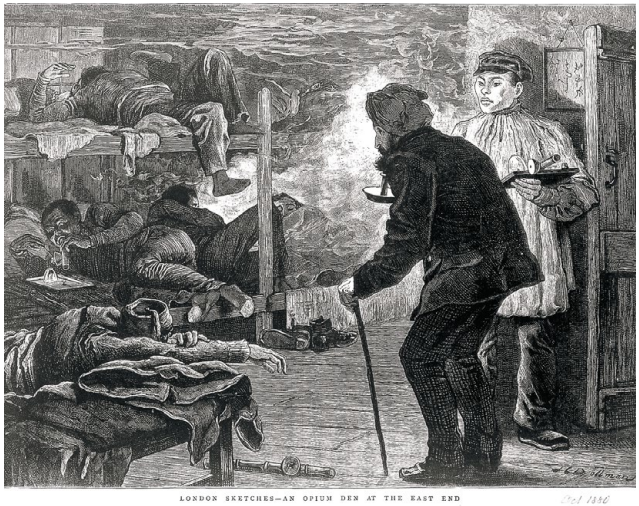
164. Chinese Man Preparing His Opium Pipe, 1859.

165. After sharing wine with a Chinese man, a Frenchman tells him that wine is better than opium. In a drunken stupor the Frenchman tells the Chinese man that he will civilize him.

Translation: "Hey! well ...comrade ... isn't that better than o ... o ... o ... opium. ... I'm here .... here ... will civilize ... go! ...!" ~ December 17, 1858



166. *Opium smoker's paraphernalia, Louis J. Beck's New York's Chinatown, 1898.*

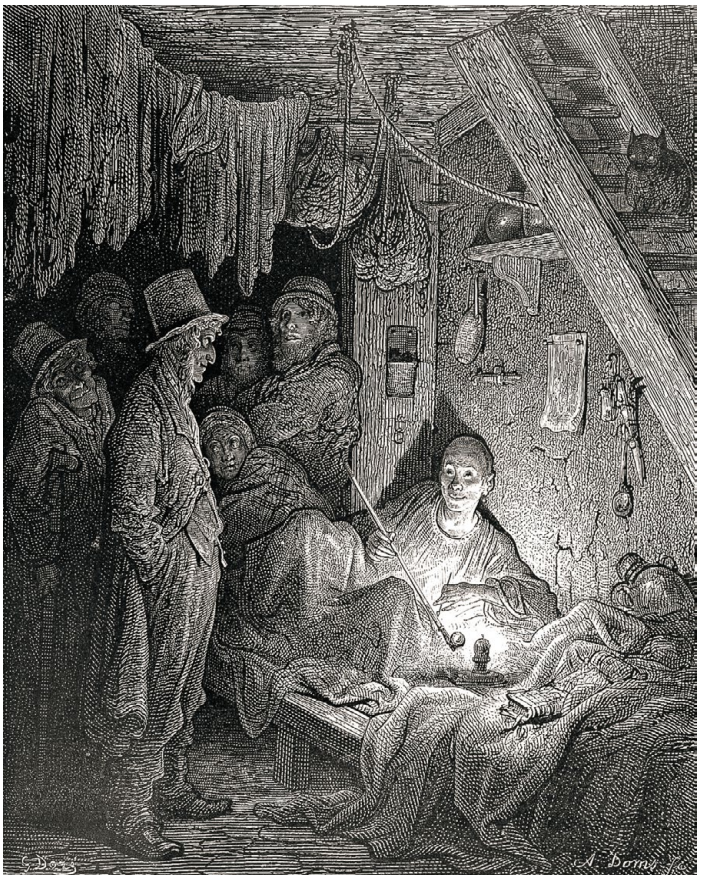


167. *J.C. Dollman's, "London sketches-an opium den at the East End", 1880.*

168. *Portrait of five opium smokers arranged in a Chauki (small bed like furniture) with pipes and other equipment - Eastern Bengal 1860's.*

169. A group of Turkish men smoking opium near a hut at the port, 1890.

170. A Night Inside an East End Opium Den. From The Illustrated London News, Saturday 6th. December 1890.



171. Opium den, East end, London.

172. Java: two opium smokers, one reclining, the other one sitting, 1900s.

173. Opium-den in the East End of London,1874.

174. A Mandarin sits on a mat, smoking a long opium pipe. Coloured aquatint by S. Himely, ca. 1820.

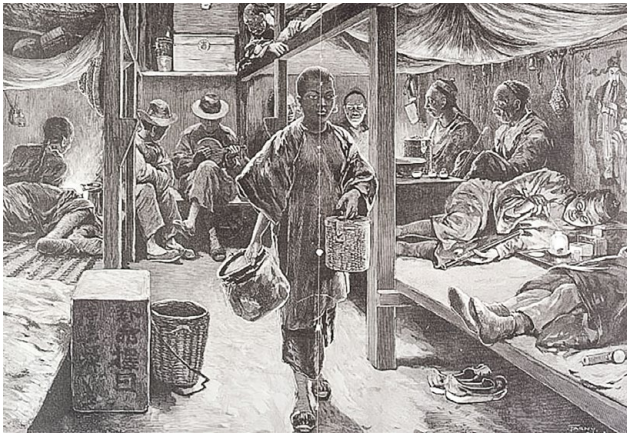
MALAY OPIUM-SMOKERS.

175. Two Malay men and a woman sit and recline on the floor smoking opium. Wood-engraving, late 19th century.

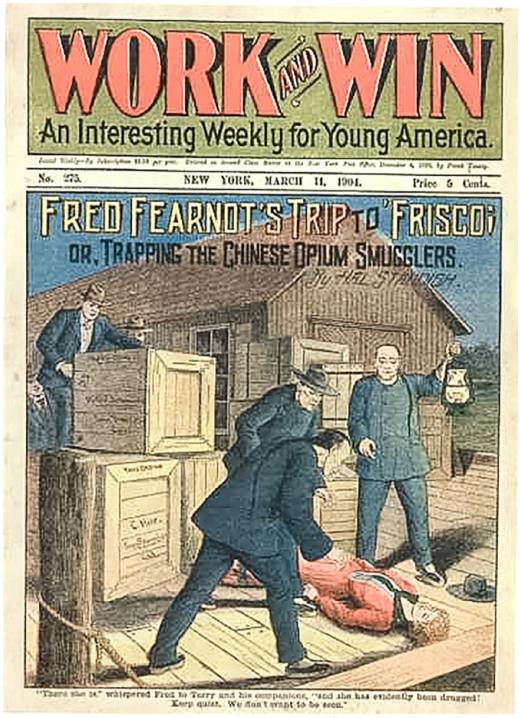
UNA " FUMERIA " D'OPPIO A LONDRA

176 & 177. An Opium Den in London, from 'La Tribuna Illustrata', 16 May 1909.

178. Opium smokers, France, early 1900s.



179. Underground Opium Den in San Francisco, before 1916.



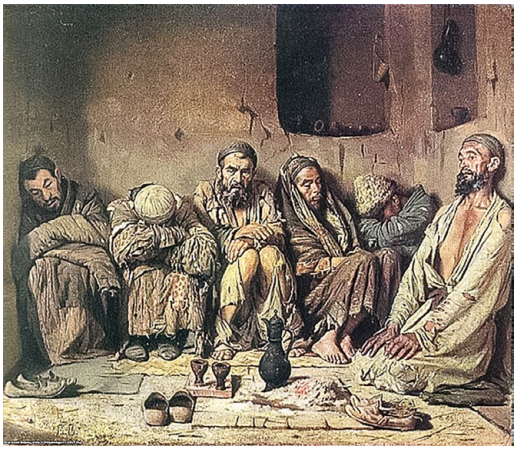
From the left: 180. Work and Win No. 275: Fred Fearnot's Trip to Frisco, or Trapping the Chinese Opium Smuggler. New York: Frank Tousey, March 11, 1904.
181. Working Girls in an Opium Den. Pell Street New York 1883.

182. Opium smokers reclining on low beds and benches in a Chinese clubhouse drawn by Winslow Homer for Harper's Weekly, 1874. According to Homer he "sat for hours with the somewhat malevolent faces of the gods beaming down on him from a wall altar in front of which incense burned and an offering of stuffed birds was placed. Chinese sailors gambled with dominoes. The walls were decorated with scrolls bearing club rules and news of the Celestial Empire. A small altar, with incense and a lamp burning before a scroll listing the names of dead members."

183. 'American Opium Smokers - interior of a New York Opium Den' (1881).

184. A Eunuch's Dream, Jean Lecomte du Nouÿ, 1874. This painting, inspired by Charles Montesquieu's Persian Letters (published in 1721), depicts a eunuch who wanted to marry a harem slave. He experienced a vision of her while smoking his opium pipe, but her little companion holding a knife dripping with blood reminds us that the eunuch's anatomy precludes the fulfilment of his dream. The outline of a hand next to the signature is a khamsa, a symbol used to ward off evil.

185. Opium smoking, Chinatown, New York, 1880s.
New York's Chinatown started growing in the 1870's following the passage of the Burlingame Treaty of 1868. The Burlingame Treaty gave China the status of Most Favoured Nation and also provided that citizens of either the US or China could travel and study freely in the other country. In 1880, the U.S. government renegotiated the Burlingame treaty in an attempt to limit Chinese immigration, which was later reinforced by the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882. Following the exclusion act, new immigration largely stopped, but Chinatown kept growing as a result of an influx of Chinese men already in America. Many of the early Chinese immigrants worked in the western states on the transcontinental railroad, and as violence towards Chinese increased in the 1870s, they started moving into New York's Chinatown.



From the left: 186. Opium eaters, Uzbekistan, Vasily Vereshchagin, 1868.
187. An Opium Den at Sydney, Julian Rossi Ashton, ca. 1881.

From the left: 188. An opium pusher – the consequence of addiction, ca. 1870.
189. Wooden model of an opium pusher – the consequence of addiction, ca. 1900s

190. This carte-de-visite photograph shows two opium smokers on the island of Java. Opium smoking was introduced into Java by the Dutch, who established a major port at Batavia (present-day Jakarta) and imported Indian-grown opium for local sale and later for re-export to China. Opium smoking was at first mainly a part of social life among Javanese upper classes, but in the 19th century it increasingly spread to the labourers who served the expanding colonial economy. The photograph was taken by the firm of Woodbury & Page, which was established by the British photographers Walter Bentley Woodbury and James Page in 1857.

COOLIES GOING TO THE POPPY-FIELDS.

191. Shop of an opium merchant, India.

X. Opium Trade Routes

1600-1839

In the heart of Bengal, where the poppies grow,
A tale of trade and treachery, in whispers low.
From the 1780 to 1839,
A story of opium, on which many did depend.

The East India Company, with a plan so sly,
Cultivated opium under the Indian sky.
Smuggled it to Canton, Macao, and Lintin's shore,
A trade of black gold, legends forevermore.

Beneath the moon's soft glow, ships set sail,
Carrying opium on the monsoon's gale.
To Canton they ventured, through the South China Sea,
Where Chinese mandarins waited anxiously.

Macao, the haven, where smugglers found delight,
Under the cover of the silent night.
Opium exchanged for silver in hand,
An illicit trade, not bound by law or land.

Lintin Island, the outpost in the bay,
Where the opium ships often lay.
A hub of trade in the Pearl River's mouth,
Opium flowed freely, from south to north.

Foreign companies too joined this game,
In the opium trade, they sought their fame.
A dance of power, greed, and deceit,
In the shadow of the opium fleet.

Yet, as the sun sets, remember this tale,
Of a trade that left many a life frail.
A chapter of history, in darkness cast,
A reminder of a troubled past.

In the 16th century, international trade of opium was primarily under the control of the Portuguese but were replaced by the Dutch VOC in the 17th century. Opium was carried by the VOC from its Bengal factory to its headquarters in Batavia (Jakarta, Indonesia) where it was auctioned to opium dealers. Batavia was the port of entry to South East Asia and the opium then found its way to Sumatra, Borneo, the Malay Peninsula and even to China. The Dutch also shipped opium from Bengal to Cochin where it would be exchanged for pepper. By the close of the 17th century, the VOC was trading approximately five tons of opium or some 12,000 chests of 0.4 kg/each.

The opium business and its international trade came in the hands of the English East India Company post-diwani in the latter half of the 18th century. The EIC looked to expand opium trade with China in order to earn the silver and pay off their dues for the tea imported from China. This would ensure reducing net outflows of silver from Britain to China. The EIC opened a Canton treasury where silver collected from opium sales would be collected from traders in return for bills of exchange drawn on Calcutta or London (so that traders did not have to worry about the dangers of carrying silver back). The silver in Canton could be conveniently used by the EIC to purchase tea and other Chinese goods like silk and porcelainwares. The cultivation of poppy would be undertaken by Indian peasants across northern India and processing of opium would take place at their factories in Patna and Ghazipur.

Unfortunately, for the EIC, opium consumption had been banned by the Qing dynasty in 1797, forcing them to take recourse to smuggling it into China through private traders. The EIC did not "officially" trade in opium with China although it was willing to lend necessary military support if things got too hard for the smuggler-traders.

The port of entry into China at that time was Canton (Guangzhou), the only authorised port available to foreign trading companies. At its peak, some 13 foreign trading companies including the EIC, VOC, the Danish, French and others had their factories along the Pearl River waterfront, outside the city's fort wall. From Canton, Internal trade in China was allowed only through "licensed traders" or the "Hong merchants" (the Chinese term for a properly-licensed business). It was open only for a few months in a year, which compelled the trading companies to move base to the Portuguese controlled port of Macao, although the route between Macao and Canton was strictly watched over by the Chinese authorities.

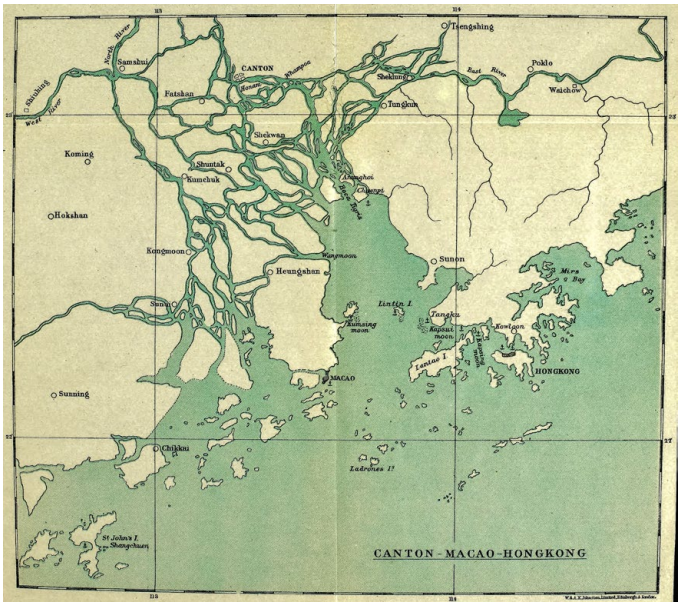
Before the opium wars, opium shipped from Bengal and Bombay found its way to Canton and Macao and from then on, smuggled to Whampoa (Huangpu). Post-1820s, strict anti-smuggling operations enforced by the Chinese authorities compelled the foreign companies to seek an alternative base. Lintin emerged as the key base where opium would be transferred from "floating warehouses" or "outer anchorages" to small boats, which then found its way into Chinese territory.

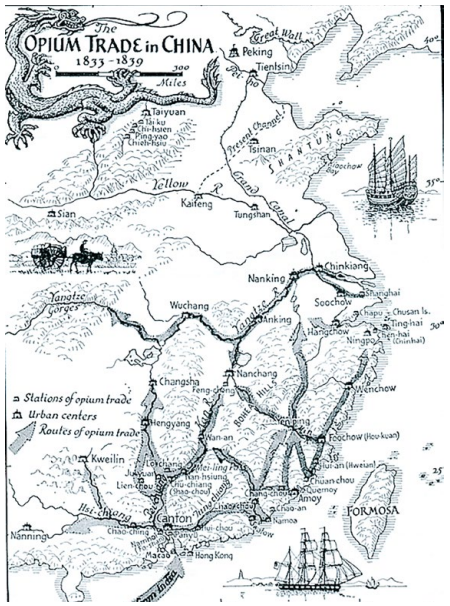
192. Dutch Batavia in 1681, built in what is now North Jakarta.

193. The castle of Batavia, seen from Kali Besar West around 1656. On the foreground a sort of market underneath palm trees.

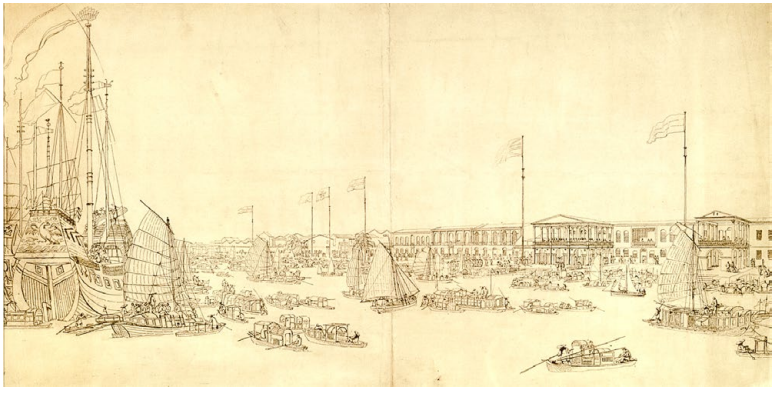
194. Boats leaving Patna. C.1842. Boats laden with indigo and opium leaving Patna. Sepia wash. From an album of drawings with paper covers inscribed 'Unfinished sepia sketches R. Ganges, Calcutta and other parts of India'. Originally published/produced in c.1842.

195. A fleet of ships transporting opium down the Ganges River to the former capital of British India called Calcutta by Walter S. Sherwill, 1850.





From the left: 196. Map of the Canton estuary, aka the Pearl River Delta, in Guangdong province, 1910.
197. The Opium Trade in China, 1833–1839.



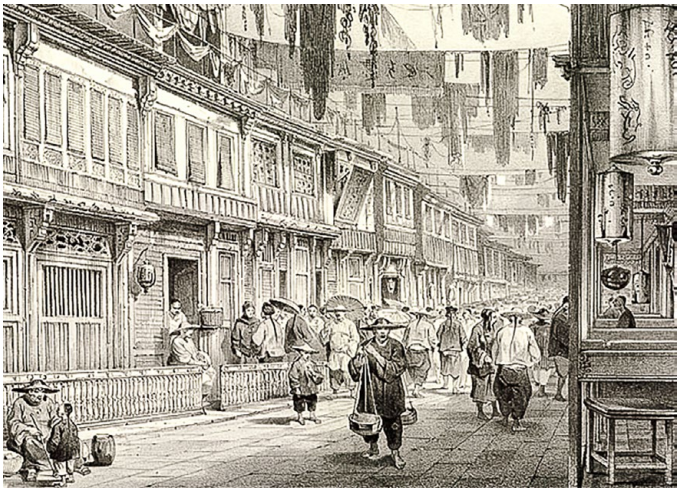
198. ca. 1785 sketch for William Daniell's 1806 The European Factories, Canton.

199. A reverse-glass export painting of the Thirteen Factories in Guangzhou (Canton) China in 1805.

200. William Daniell's c. 1805 View of the Canton Factories.

201. European Factories at Canton (c. 1840) by Auguste Borget.

202. Canton in 1830.



From the left: 203. A view from the Canton foreign factories. Since the Chinese used few dairy products, Western merchants kept their own animals in the yard beneath the hong walls to provide meat and milk for their diet. "Chopboats" with a capacity of 600 chests carried tea and other trade goods to waiting ships, sold daily supplies to the merchants, and served as homes to many Chinese workers and their families.
204. "New China Street in Canton," 1836–1837, by Lauvergne.

205. Old China Street in Canton," 1856, by William Heine.

206. "Loading Tea at Canton," ca. 1852 by Tinqua: The flag on the colorful boat in front says "Heavenly Women," indicating that it is a "flower boat" or floating brothel. The prominent Anglican church and the American steamship Spark, owned by Russell and Co., are lined up behind it. Chinese officials banned Western women from the factory quarters, but several did arrange secret visits. Meanwhile, the foreign and Chinese men found many women to serve their needs in the harbor.

207. An artwork depicting Canton Customs, the official channel through which foreign traders could do business in China during Qing rule, at the Thirteen Hongs Museum in Guangzhou.

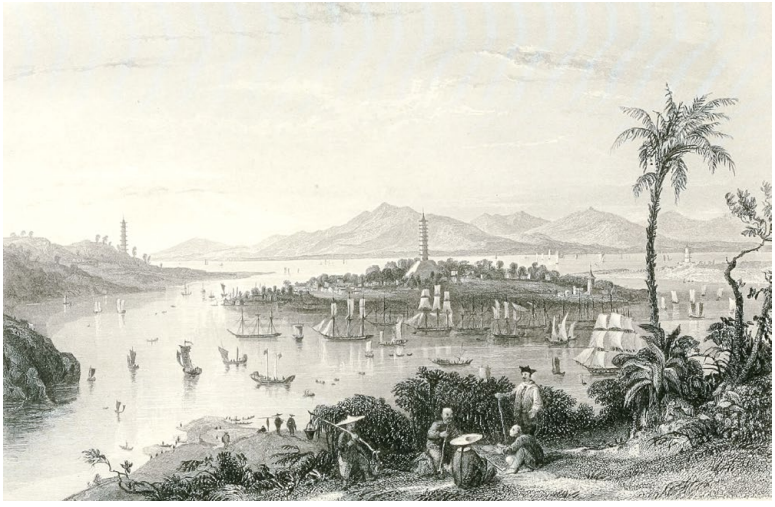
208. Sale of English goods at Canton. The Canton system, trading pattern that developed between Chinese and foreign merchants, especially British, in the South China trading city of Guangzhou (Canton) from the 17th to the 19th century. The major characteristics of the system developed between 1760 and 1842, when all foreign trade coming into China was confined to Canton and the foreign traders entering the city were subject to a series of regulations by the Chinese government.

From the left: 209. Portrait of a hong merchant.
210. Howqua, Chinese hong merchant, 1830.

From the left: 211. View of the Praia Grande, Macau, unknown artist, ca. 1830.
212. Macao in 1834. The settlement of Chinese, British and Portuguese traders.

From the left: 213. Opium smugglers caught by Chinese police, China, illustration by Borget from L'Illustration, Journal Universel, No 406, Volume XVI, ca. mid-1800s.
214. Oil on canvas of the nine-stage pagoda at Whampoa Anchorage, ca. 1830–50.

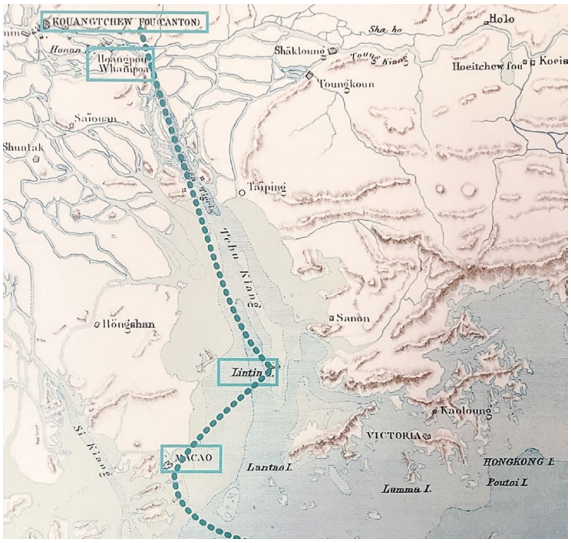
215. Whampoa in China, 1835.



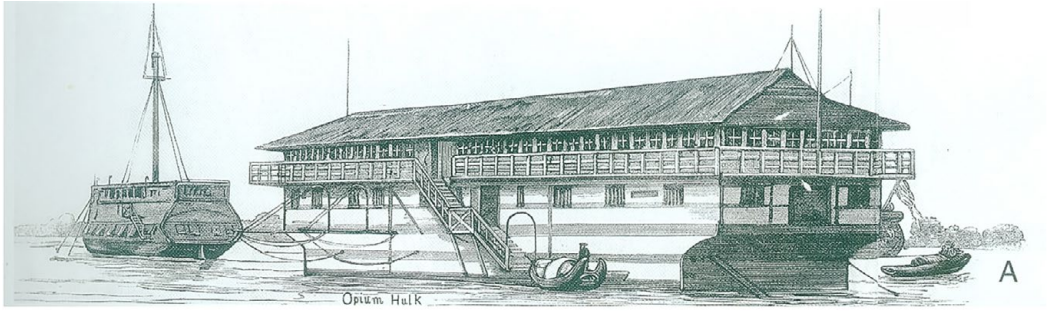
216. The Whampoa anchorage and Changzhou Island (Dane's Island) in the Pearl River in Guangzhou (Canton), 1858.

217. Opium hulk on the Huangpu River, 1860.

218. Opium ships at Lintin in 1824, by William John Huggins.



From the left: 219. Pearl river delta map, 19th century. In order to access the trading ports in China, trade voyages would have first taken them to Macau, a Portuguese Colony located across the Pearl River delta from Hong Kong. Next, the ships would have sailed up the Pearl River to Lintin Island and the Bocca Tigris, then up to the Whampoa anchorage. All foreign traders were required to dock and could not go beyond this area. To transport goods, merchants hired Chinese workers to come and unload the ships, and pay taxes and bribes. Once these needs were met, only then could the ship's Captain and dignitaries travel further up the river on sampans and other small craft to accompany their goods to Gaungzhou, which was then known as Canton.
220. Opium was transferred at sea to junks which could slip in among the local shipping unobserved.



221. Opium hulk

XI. The First Opium War

1839-1842

In the year of 1839, under the Eastern sky,
A tale of war and opium, where truth and morals lie.
The First Opium War, a conflict to behold,
A story of power, greed, and silver sold.

From the fields of Bengal, to China's teeming shore,
Opium was traded, and conflict was in store.
The British East India Company, with imperialist might,
Forced open China's doors, in an unjust fight.

Gunboats on the Pearl River, under a moon so pale,
British forces advanced, with a monsoon gale.
Canton and Nanking, cities of renown,
Fell to foreign powers, the Qing dynasty's crown.

Yet in this tale of war, a lesson we find,
Of the violence of imperialism, and its unkind grind.
Colonial powers, with their expansionist view,
Brought destruction and change, in the lands they knew.

So, remember this story, of the opium's flow,
Of the war that changed East Asia, not so long ago.
A chapter of history, in darkness cast,
A reminder of a colonial past.

In the late 18th century, there was a significant trade imbalance between Britain and China due to the high demand for Chinese tea, porcelain, and silk in Britain. To reduce the trade deficit, the British East India Company and other British merchants turned to smuggling opium into China, primarily from India.

In spring 1839, Lin Zexu, commissioner in the Chinese Qing government confiscated and destroyed more than 20,000 chests of opium—some 1,400 tons of the drug—that were warehoused at Canton (Guangzhou) by British merchants.

The First Opium War began in late 1839 when two British warships broke the Chinese blockade of the Pearl (Zhu) River delta. They destroyed 29 Chinese vessels, setting the tone for a war dominated by the vastly superior British navy.

The British navy had a significant advantage over the Chinese forces, leading to a series of victories for the British. The British Royal Navy, with its technologically superior ships and weapons, launched an expedition in June 1840, which ultimately defeated the Chinese by August 1842.

The conflict ended in 1842 with the signing of the Treaty of Nanking, the first of the unequal treaties imposed by Western powers upon the Qing. This treaty opened up several Chinese ports to Western traders and ceded the island of Hong Kong to Britain.

These events marked the start of the era of unequal treaties and other inroads on Qing sovereignty that helped weaken and ultimately topple the dynasty in favour of republican China in the early 20th century.

The British forces captured several key cities and forts in China, including Canton (Guangzhou), which was a major trading port. Many major battles fought during the First Opium War between the British and the Chinese including:

- First Battle of Chuenpi (1839): A naval engagement fought between British and Chinese ships at the entrance of the Humen strait (Bogue), Guangdong province. The battle began when British frigates opened fire on Chinese ships they perceived as being hostile.

- First Capture of Chusan (Zhoushan) in 1840.

- Second Battle of Cheunpi (1841): The British won a decisive victory in the destroying 11 Junks of the Chinese southern fleet and capturing the Humen forts. The victory allowed the British to set up a blockade of The Bogue, a blow that forced the Qing navy to retreat upriver.

- Battle of the Barrier: This battle took place near the barrier gate at the entrance to the Portuguese colony of Macau.

- Battle of the Bogue: The British forces attacked the Bogue forts at the mouth of the Pearl River, which were key to the defence of Canton.

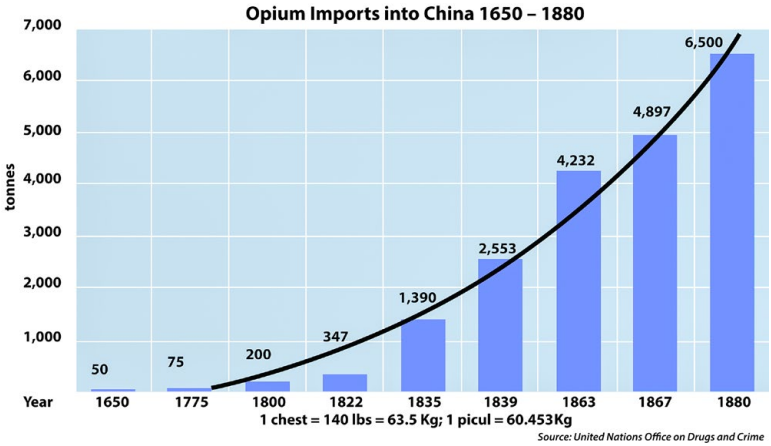
- Battle of Canton (1841): The British forces captured the city of Canton (now Guangzhou) in this battle.

- Battle of Amoy: This was one of the first battles of the war, where the British captured the city of Amoy (now Xiamen).

These battles were significant in shaping the course of the First Opium War.

The opium war was not fought to legalize opium imports into China. In fact, the British envoys negotiating with the Chinese were explicitly prohibited from requiring the Chinese to legalise opium. "'You will state that the admission of opium into China as an article of trade is not one of the demands you have been instructed to make." Chinese sources agree on this, and the Treaty of Nanking only refers to opium in terms of compensation for the product confiscated by Lin Zexu in 1839. The big opium dealer, Jardine argued that legalising opium would harm his profits, as the price would drop!

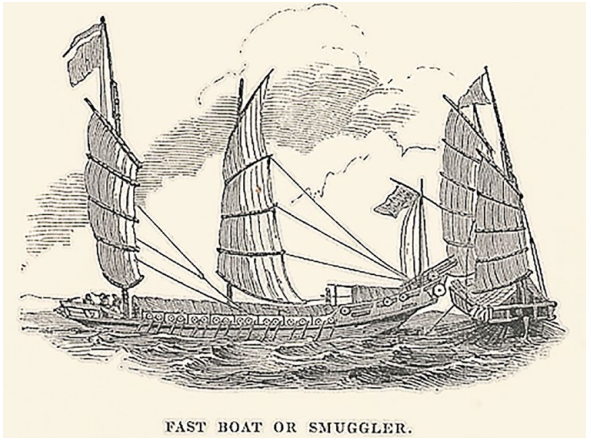
But before we delve into the war, let's look at the vessels that made the surge in opium smuggling possible; the fast boats and ships – clippers – that reduced the time of voyages between India and China, and the Chinese junks – fast and nimble ships that were used to transport opium from the Lintin to Canton along the Pearl River Delta.



222. The phenomenal increase in opium trade – 19th century.

From the left: 223. Jardine Matheson's opium clipper Red Rover off Singapore. The first true opium clipper, Red Rover was launched from the Hooghly River at Calcutta on 12th December 1829. She departed that port 17 days later with 800 chests of opium, and arrived at Macao on 17th February 1830, after sailing though the northeast monsoon in the China Sea. An equally fast return passage to Calcutta resulted in a round trip of 86 days, beating all previous British records.
224. The 'Streatham' and the opium clipper 'Red Rover' The 'Streatham' with the opium clipper 'Red Rover' are shown at anchor in the Hooghly River, Calcutta. The buildings of Calcutta dominate the skyline in the background.

From the left: 225. The opium clipper Sylph off Macao, circa 1838, owned by Mr. Alexander Robertson, supercargo for the firm of Jardine and Matheson.
226. A Chinese junk, 1804. Along with its innovative rudder steering system, junks were built to withstand rough seas, to be easy to manoeuvre, and to move quickly. The strong build of these ships allowed Chinese explorers to venture far and wide.

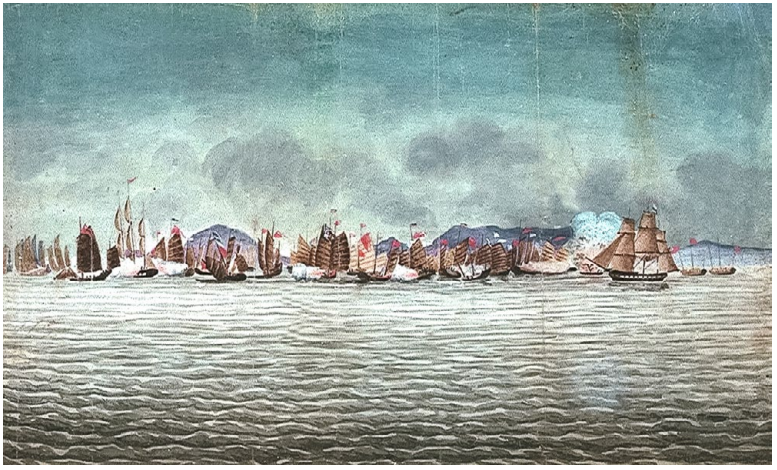


227 & 228. Chinese "fast boat", "fast crab", or "smuggler". In 1831, it was estimated that between 100 and 200 "fast crab" smuggling boats were operating in the waters around Lintin Island, the rendezvous point for opium imports. Ranging from 30 to 70 feet in length, with crews of upwards of 50 or 60 men, these swift rowboats could put on sail for additional speed. They were critical in navigating China's often shallow rivers and delivering opium to the interior.

From the left: 229. Chinese junk.
230. Model of Chinese Junk Boat, Unknown Chinese Maker, 19th century Wood, cloth, metal. Small Chinese junks were fast, nimble, and used to transport opium up the Pearl River to Guangzhou (Canton) from Nei Lingding (LinTin) Island, where larger foreign ships would anchor.

231 & 232. Commissioner Lin ordering the destruction of opium forced on China by the British, June 1839.

From the left: 233. A model of the destruction of opium at Humen. Displayed at the Hong Kong Museum of History.
234. Portrait of Lin Zexu, ca. 1850.



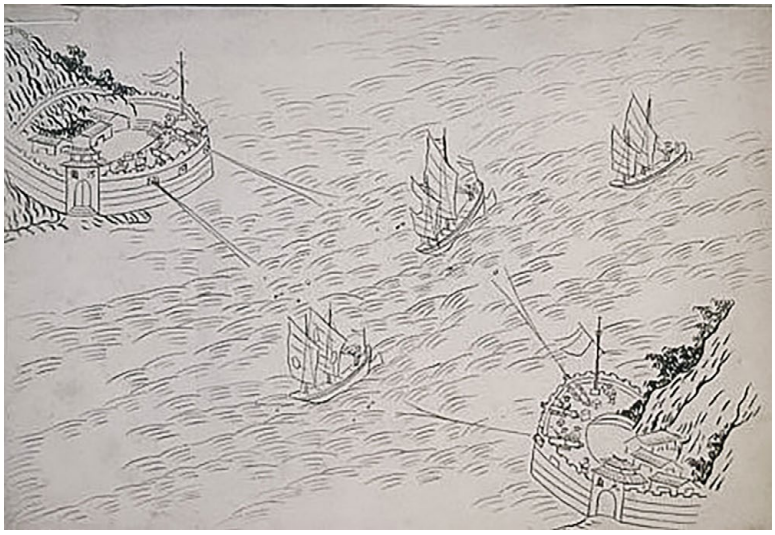
235. The First Battle of Chuenpi, 1839. A naval engagement fought between British and Chinese ships at the entrance of the Humen strait (Bogue), Guangdong province, China. The battle began when the British frigates HMS Hyacinth and HMS Volage opened fire on Chinese ships they perceived as being hostile.

236. Zhoushan valley by Thomas Allom. The British army occupied Zhoushan and expanded into China along the Yangtze River. The image shows the Qing troops defending Zhoushan and preparing to fight the British troops.

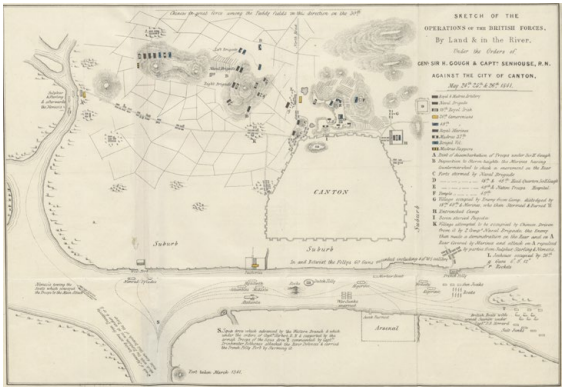
237. British ships attacking the island as the troops prepare to land in Chusan, 1840.

From the left: 238. The Nemesis (right background) destroying Chinese war junks in Anson's Bay, 1841.
239. The storming of the forts and intrenchments of Chuenpee on 7 January 1841.

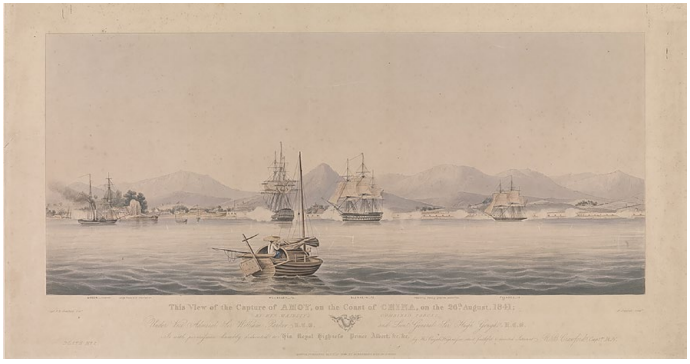
240. View of the Barrier Gate on the isthmus connecting the Macao Peninsula to the mainland. The Battle of the Barrier was fought between British and Chinese forces at the boundary separating Macao from the Chinese mainland in 1840.



241. Battle of the Bogue. Chinese drawing of the Anunghoy forts, found in the house of Guan, representing the expected attack of the British. Fought in the Pearl River Delta, Guangdong province, in 1841 as the British launched an amphibious attack at the Humen strait (Bogue), capturing the forts on the islands of Anunghoy and North Wangtong. This allowed the fleet to proceed further up the Pearl River towards the city of Canton (Guangzhou), which they captured the following month.



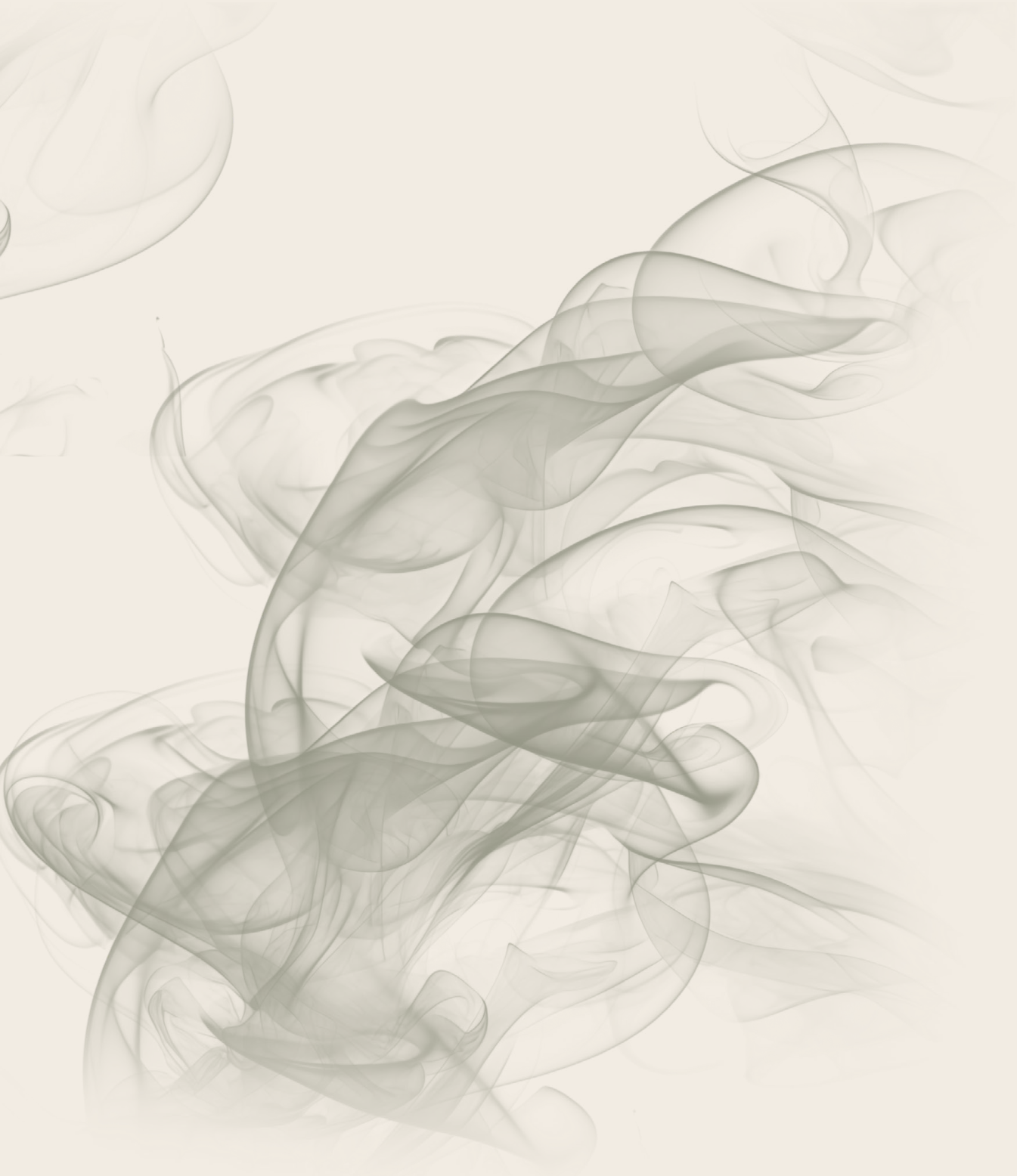
From the left: 242. Battle of Canton during the First Opium War (May 1841).
243. British bombardment of Canton from the surrounding heights.



244- 246. View of the Capture of Amoy on the Coast of China, on the 26th August, 1841, by Her Majesty's Combined Forces, under Vice Admiral Sir William Parker K.C.B. and Lieut. General Sir Hugh Gough… Plate 1, Plate 2, Plate 3.

247. British troops at the Battle of Amoy, 1841.

From the left: 248. The British forces invasion and Second Capture of Chusan, 1841.
249. Capture of henjiang, 1842.



XII. The Imposition of "Free Trade"

In the shadow of the opium's haze,
A nation's fate was set ablaze.
The Qing dynasty, once so grand,
Faced demands it could not withstand.

From Canton to the northern shores,
Foreign powers knocked on China's doors.
With gunboats poised and cannons ready,
Their approach was firm and steady.

The Treaty of Nanking signed, on a ship at sea,
Five ports were ceded, trade was to be free.
Hong Kong was taken, a colony was born,
And China's isolation, was brutally torn.

Between two wars of opium's blight,
China's day turned into night.
Unequal treaties, a series of thefts,
Left the dragon wounded, bereft.

Yet, within the heart of the Middle land,
A resilient spirit took a stand.
For history's wounds may tell of sorrow,
But from the past, a brighter tomorrow.

The period between the First and Second Opium Wars was marked by significant events that influenced the course of Chinese history and its relations with Western powers. Here are the main events that occurred between the two conflicts:

- Treaty of Nanjing (1842): Following the First Opium War, the Treaty of Nanjing was signed, which marked the end of the war and included provisions such as the cession of Hong Kong to Britain, the opening of five treaty ports to foreign trade, and the establishment of a "fair and reasonable" tariff.

- The Treaty of the Bogue (1843): This treaty supplemented the Treaty of Nanjing by granting British citizens extraterritorial rights in China and most-favoured-nation status, meaning any privileges granted to other powers would also apply to Britain.

- Treaty of Wanghia (Wangxia) (1844): The United States signed this treaty with China, which mirrored many of the terms of the Treaty of Nanjing, including extraterritorial rights and most-favoured-nation status.

- Treaty of Whampoa (1844): Similar to the Treaty of Wanghia, France secured this agreement with China, which included the right to send missionaries into the interior of China.

The Opium Trade, however, continued and flourished despite the treaties, the opium trade further exacerbating tensions between China and the Western powers.

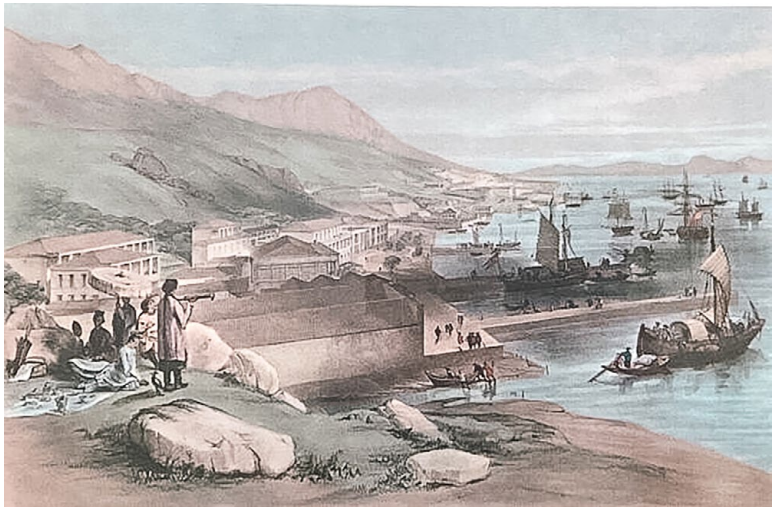
- Internal Rebellions: China faced internal challenges, including the Taiping Rebellion (1850-1864), which significantly weakened the Qing dynasty and diverted resources away from dealing with foreign pressures.

- Arrow Incident (1856): The Second Opium War was sparked by the Arrow Incident, where Chinese officials boarded a British-registered ship, the Arrow, and arrested its crew, leading to diplomatic disputes and eventual conflict.

These events collectively contributed to the deteriorating relationship between China and the Western powers, setting the stage for the Second Opium War. The era was characterized by China's increasing vulnerability to foreign influence and the imposition of "unequal treaties" that eroded its sovereignty.

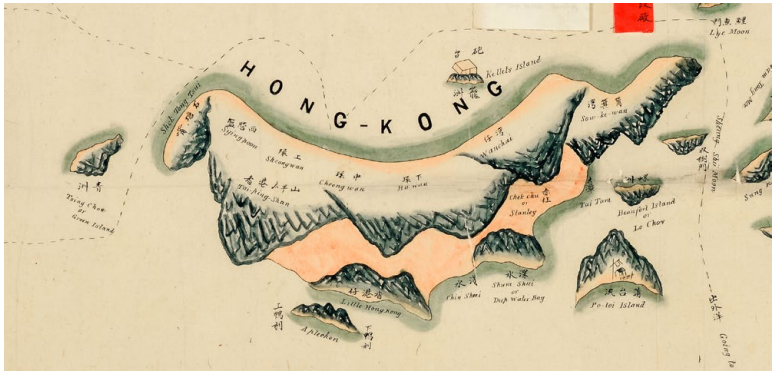
250. The signing of the Treaty of Nanking, August 14, 1842.

251. A treaty that changed the world.



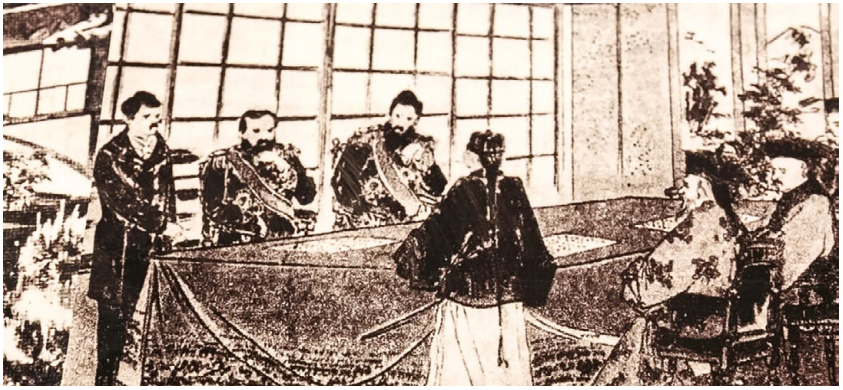
252. Honk Kong, 1850s.

253. Honk Kong, 19th century.

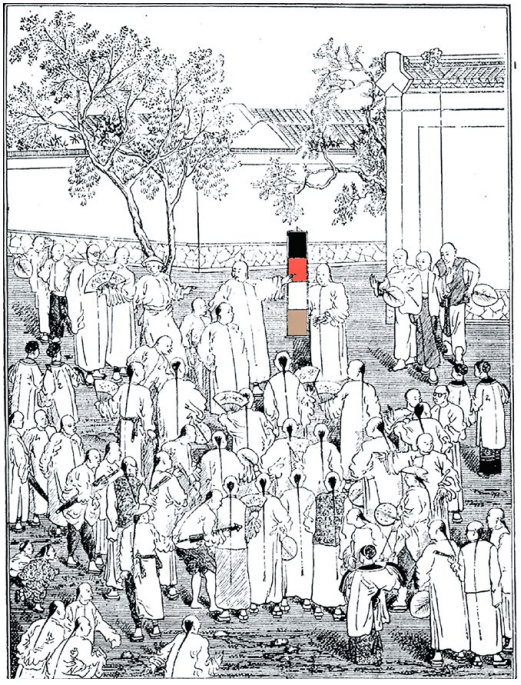


254 & 255. Hong Kong maps.

256. Uncle Sam holding trade treaty with China amid leaders of other nations.



From the left: 257. Caleb Cushing. Responsible for the signing of the Treaty of Wanghia in 1844 that gave the U.S. most-favoured nation status as well as ensured that Americans received extraterritoriality.
258. The Treaty of Whampoa between the French and Chinese, 1844.



From the top left: 259. Missionary preaching in China using The Wordless Book, 19th century.
260. Alleged[a] drawing of Hong Xiuquan, dating from around the early 1850s.
261. The royal seal of the Taiping Heavenly Kingdom.

262. Battle of Tongcheng. A scene of the Taiping Rebellion, 1850-1864.

XIII. The Second Opium War

1856-1860

In the year of fifty-six, the tensions rose again,
A conflict over opium, brought forth the British men.
The Second Opium War, with battles fierce and grave,
A tale of power and greed, the history books engrave.

The Arrow Incident sparked, a fuse to the awaiting gun,
A Chinese seizure of a ship, under the midday sun.
The British claimed insult, on sovereignty's behalf,
Demanded reparations, and took a warlike path.

Canton felt the first strike, the British forces stormed,
The city walls were breached, and its defences deformed.
The forts along the river, fell like dominoes in line,
As gunboats sailed up the Pearl, with victory in their sign.

The Treaty of Tientsin, in eighteen fifty-eight,
Opened more Chinese ports, to the foreigners' freight.
But the ratification stalled, the gates remained closed tight,
And so, the war continued, with renewed imperial might.

The Summer Palace plundered, a cultural jewel defaced,
As Anglo-French troops marched, with a destructive haste.
Artifacts and treasures, looted in the fray,
A symbol of the conquest, that dark October day.

The Dagu Forts were taken, after a bloody fight,
A path to Beijing opened, under the Emperor's fright.
The Convention of Peking, finally brought an end,
To a war that left its scars, too deep to ever mend.

The Second Opium War, also known as the Arrow War or the Anglo-French expedition to China, was a significant conflict that lasted from 1856 to 1860. This war pitted the British Empire and the Second French Empire against the Qing dynasty of China and had far-reaching consequences for the East-West relations.

The war's origins can be traced back to the Treaty of Nanking, which concluded the First Opium War in 1842. The treaty had opened several Chinese ports to foreign trade and ceded Hong Kong to Britain. However, the Western powers were dissatisfied with the limited access they had to China's interior and the Qing government's reluctance to embrace further trade liberalization.

The immediate cause of the Second Opium War was the Arrow Incident in 1856, where the Chinese authorities boarded the Arrow, a ship registered in Hong Kong, claiming it was involved in piracy. The British, asserting that the ship was under their flag and that the Chinese had insulted their national honour, used this incident as a casus belli to initiate military action against China.

Major Battles and Incidents:

- First Battle of Canton (1856): British forces attacked and occupied the city of Canton (Guangzhou), leading to a significant victory early in the war.

- Intervention of France: France joined the war in 1857, following the execution of a French missionary, which was interpreted as an attack on French honour.

- Second Battle of Canton (1857): The allied British and French forces captured Canton again after China had retaken it during the interlude between battles.

- Three Battles of Taku Forts (1858–1860): These were crucial battles fought over the fortifications that guarded the approach to Beijing via the Hai River.

Treaties and Diplomatic Efforts:

- Treaties of Tianjin (1858): These treaties were signed by China with Britain, France, the United States, and Russia. They included provisions for opening additional Chinese ports to foreign trade, allowing foreign legations in Beijing, and the freedom of movement for foreigners within China.

- Convention of Peking (1860): This treaty concluded the war and included the cession of the Kowloon Peninsula to Britain, further opening of Chinese ports to trade, and indemnities to be paid to Britain and France.

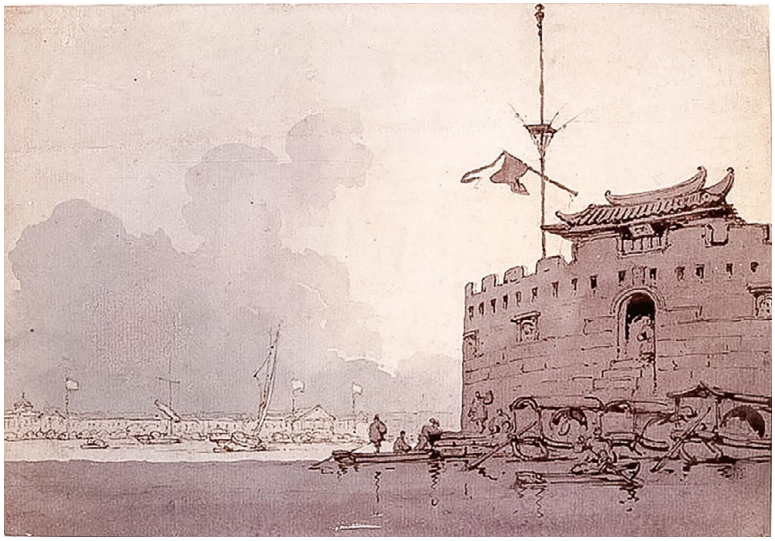
One of the most infamous incidents of the war was the looting and destruction of the Old Summer Palace (Yuanmingyuan) in Beijing by British and French troops in 1860. This act of cultural vandalism was a response to the torture and execution of several envoys who had been sent to negotiate with the Qing government.

The Second Opium War resulted in a second defeat for the Qing dynasty and the forced legalization of the opium trade. It marked a significant expansion of Western influence in China and exposed the weaknesses

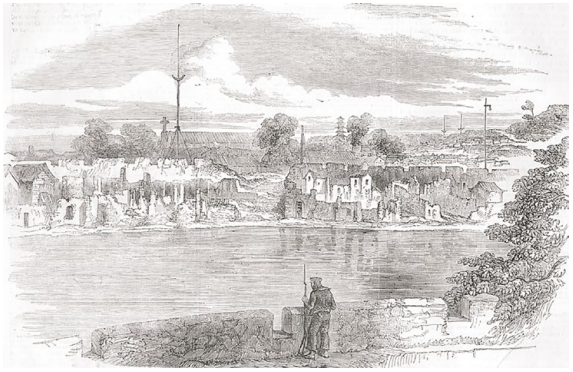
of the Qing government. The war also led to a re-evaluation among Chinese officials, who began to see conflicts with Western powers as part of a national crisis rather than traditional wars.

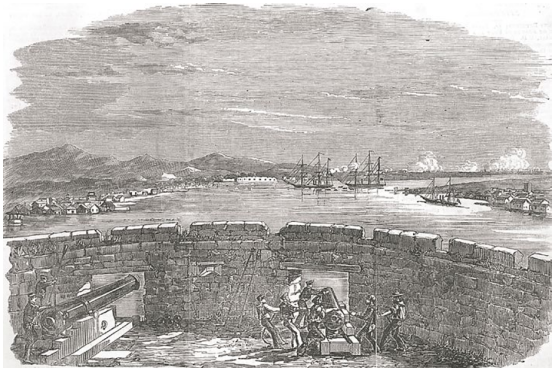
The Second Opium War was a pivotal moment in the history of East-West relations. It not only forced the opium trade deep into China's politics, public health, and economics but also cemented the country's status as both a prize and a battleground for Euro-American imperialist powers. The war and its outcomes had a profound impact on China, setting the stage for further internal strife and external pressures that would eventually lead to the end of the Qing dynasty and the beginning of modern China.

263. An illustration showing Qing officials pulling down the British flag on ship the Arrow on October 8, 1856, sparking the second Opium War.



264. A fort originally built by the Dutch at Canton.

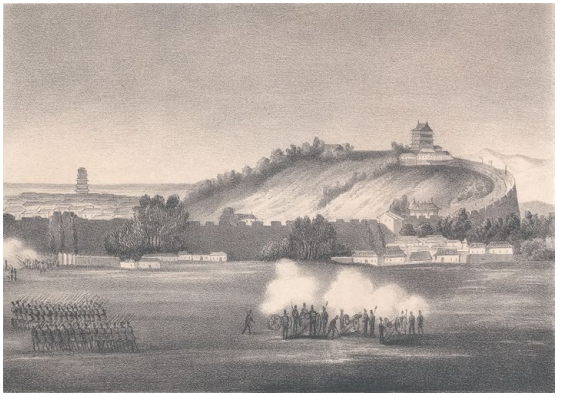




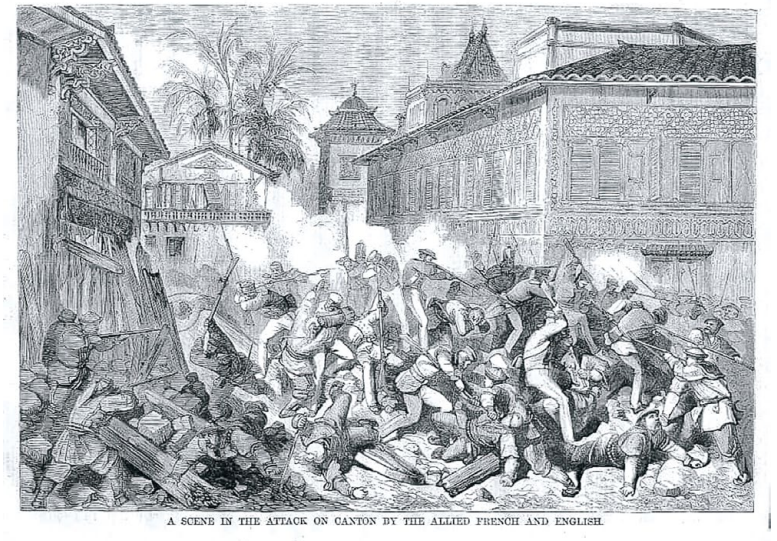
From the left: 265. Part of the destroyed walls of Canton, from the Dutch Folly Fort. From a sketch by an officer engaged in the operations, 1857.
266. Interior of the Dutch Folly Fort, which was captured in 1857.

267. The Battle of the Bogue was fought between British and Chinese forces at the Humen strait (Bogue), Guangdong province, China, on 12–13 November 1856 during the Second Opium War. The British captured the forts in the Wangtong Islands on 12 November and the forts in Anunghoy Island the next day.

From the left: 268. The execution of the Paris Foreign Missions Society missionary Auguste Chapdelaine was the official cause of the French involvement in the Second Opium War. 269. Tortures suffered by Auguste Chapedelaine, missionary in China, martyred in the province of Quang-si (Guangxi), 1857.



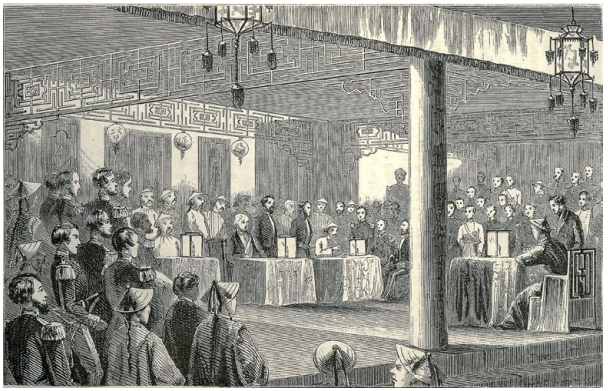
From the left: 270. Augusute Chapdelaine was a French missionary whose execution provided the French with a reason to declare war on the Qing.
271. British and French bombardment of Canton, 28 December 1857.



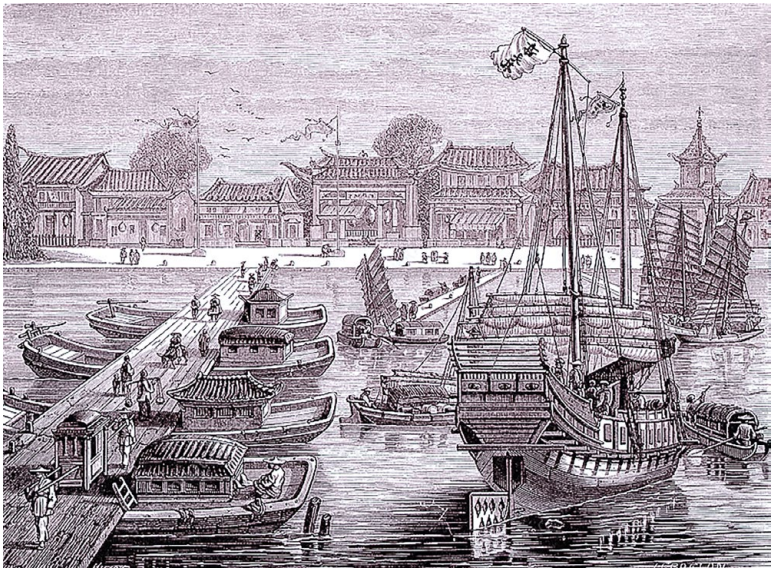
272. A scene in the attack of Canton, 1858.

273. Engagement in battle on the city walls of Canton, 1857.

From the left: 274. Canton, during the conflagration in the city, 1858.
275. Commissioner Ye Mingchen was captured and taken to Calcutta where he starved himself to death a year later. Once the British and French had occupied the city, they established a joint governing commission.

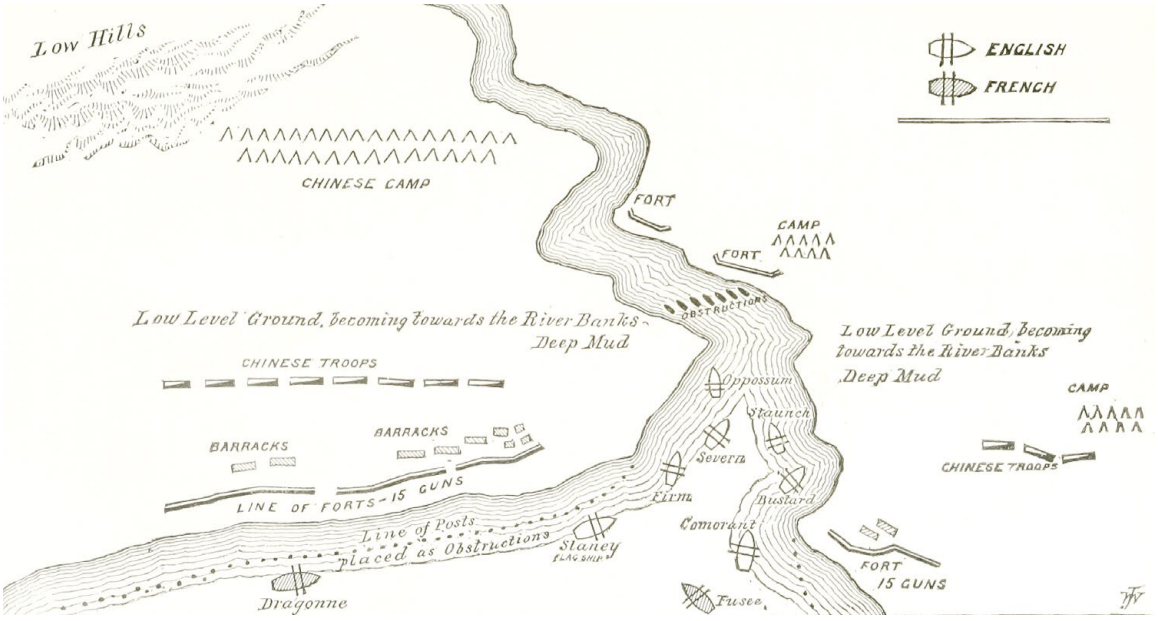


From the left: 276. Signing of the Anglo-Chinese treaty of Tienstin (Tianjin), 1858.
277. Signing of the Tianjin Treaty (Tientsin) in 1858: English and French ambassadors Lord Elgin (James Bruce) - Second opium war between France and England and China (1858-1860).



278. Tianjin harbour, China, 1864 century illustration. The Treaty of Tientsin, signed in 1858, ended the Second Opium War between the British and French, and China.

279. China's treaty ports, 1860

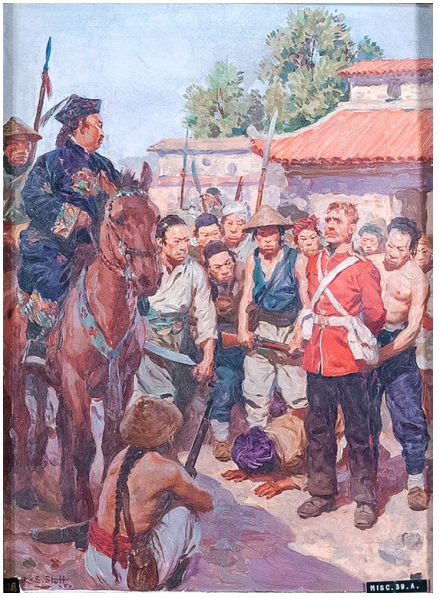


280. Map of the forts on the Peiho River in 1858.

281. The Storming and Capture of the North Fort, Peiho, on 21 August, 1860.

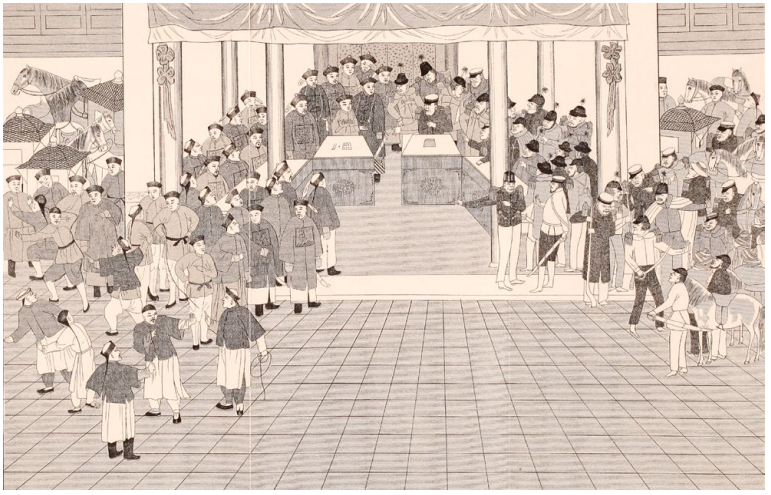
From the left: 282. Taku Fort, China, 1860. Post the Treaty of Tientsin signed on 20 May 1858, a further show of force was thought to be necessary in 1860, during which the Taku Forts were occupied on 12 August.
283. 'Me - on the march, Taku Plain', 1859.

From the top: 284. The North Taku Fort, China, 1860. The British and French captured the Taku Forts, at the mouth of the Peiho River, on 21 August 1860. The Chinese defenders put up a strong fight, but their lances, crossbows and outdated muskets and cannon were no match for the firepower of the Allies and they soon surrendered. This image depicts the French point of entry to the North Fort.
28. Interior of Taku Fort, China, 1860. The corpse-strewn interior of the fort is testament to the savagery of the fighting that took place there. The Chinese defenders suffered terribly, not only from the ferocity of the Anglo-French attack, but also because in their chaotic retreat from the forts they fell victim to their own defensive spiked ditches.



286. Private John Moyse, refusing to kow-tow before the Tartar Mandarin Tsan-koo-lin-sin, 1860. Moyse was captured by Tartar cavalry at the Taku Forts on 12 August 1860 and after refusing to kow-tow (bow) to the Mandarin was executed.

287. Interior of South Taku Fort Showing the Place of Landing, June 25, 1859.



From the left: 288. Ensign Chaplin of the 67th Foot at the battle of Taku Forts.
289. Lord Elgin's procession in Peking as he enters the city to sign the Treaty of Peking.

290. Entry of Lord Elgin into Peking, 1860.

291. Signing of the treaty by Lord Elgin and Prince Gong, 1860. The Convention of Peking or First Convention of Peking is an agreement comprising three distinct unequal treaties concluded between the Qing dynasty of China and Great Britain, France, and the Russian Empire in 1860.

From the left: 292. The Old Summer Palace, also known as Yuanmingyuan was a complex of palaces and gardens in present-day Haidian District, Beijing, China. The Old Summer Palace was known for its extensive collection of gardens, its building architecture and numerous art and historical treasures., and where they handled state affairs; the Forbidden City was used for formal ceremonies.
293. Burning of the Summer Palace. During the Second Opium War, French and British troops captured the palace on 6 October 1860, looting and destroying the imperial collections over the next few days.

XIV. The Free Trade of Opium to its Decline

Late 19th century to Early 20th century

In fields where poppies once did bloom,
A trade began that spelled dark doom.
From Eastern shores to Western greed,
The opium flow did thus proceed.

The wars had passed, yet peace not found,
As merchants' ships did still abound.
With chests of dreams in dark array,
The trade grew strong, come night or day.

Missionaries cried foul play,
Their voices raised in stern dismay.
Against the tide of narco-trade,
A moral war they staunchly waged.

As tea leaves wilted, trade did wane,
The emerald hills bore a new stain.
For opium's bloom, a bane was sown,
In soils where once the tea had grown.

Opium's grip held fast and tight,
A nation's woe in addiction's plight.
But time would tell a different tale,
As efforts strong began to prevail.

The twentieth century brought new dawn,
With laws and hearts, the trade was drawn.
To close an era's sombre page,
And end the opium's potent rage.

So let us not forget the past,
The lessons learned must ever last.
From history's depth, we must take heed,
And plant instead a different seed.

The opium trade, a dark chapter in human history, unfolded against the backdrop of colonialism, greed, and geopolitical manoeuvring. From the end of the Second Opium War (1856–1860) to its eventual decline in the 20th century, this illicit commerce left indelible marks on nations, economies, and countless lives. Let us delve into the intricate tapestry of opium's rise, the role of missionaries, China's cultivation, and the global forces that ultimately led to its demise.

The Treaty of Tientsin, signed after the Second Opium War, granted Western powers significant privileges in China. Among these was the right to trade opium. British merchants, backed by their government, flooded Chinese ports with the narcotic. Opium dens sprouted like poisonous mushrooms, ensnaring millions in addiction.

China, once the world's tea powerhouse, faced a bitter transition. The British appetite for tea had waned, but their hunger for opium grew insatiable. As tea plantations withered, poppy fields flourished. The hills of Yunnan and Sichuan turned crimson, their soil now yielding opium poppies instead of tea leaves.

The Opium Wars had shattered China's pride and sovereignty. The Treaty of Nanking (1842) and the Treaty of Tientsin (1858) forced open ports, ceded territories, and imposed indemnities. Opium, once a symbol of British power, now symbolized China's humiliation. The dragon had been wounded, and its fire dimmed.

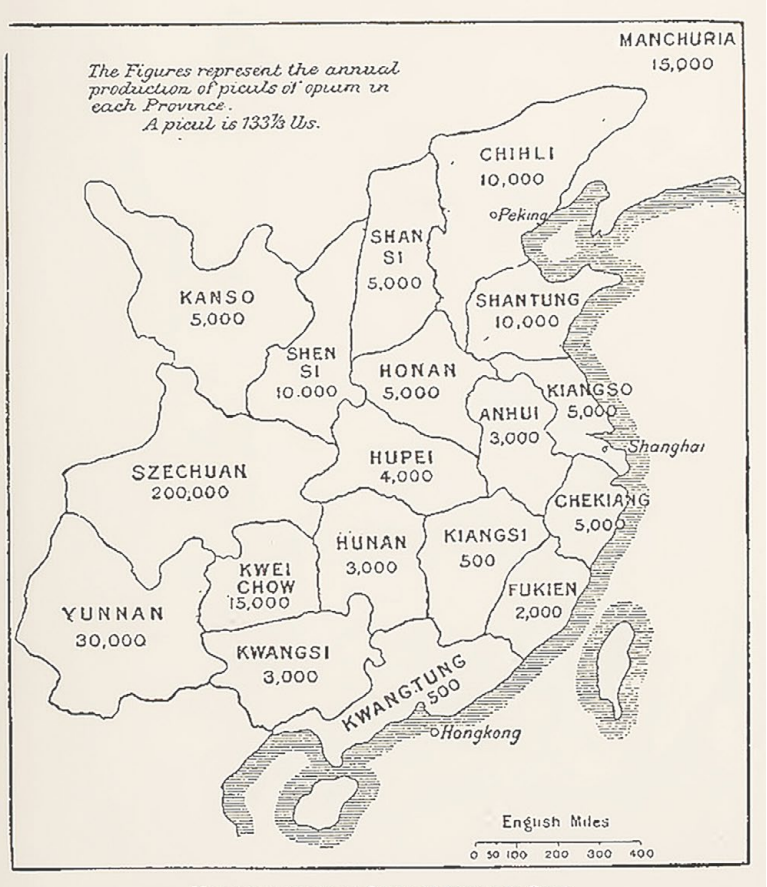
Amidst this opium deluge, missionaries emerged as unlikely heroes. Driven by compassion and religious fervour, they decried the trade's devastating impact. Men like Hudson Taylor and William Milne stood at the forefront, advocating for sobriety and salvation. Their efforts, though often overshadowed, planted seeds of change.

The Boxer Rebellion between 1899 and 1901 was the worst disaster in missionary history. One hundred and eighty-nine Protestant missionaries, including 53 children, (and many Roman Catholic priests and nuns) were killed by Boxers and Chinese soldiers of the Qing dynasty in northern China. The Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists, trained in the Chinese martial arts or, what was commonly known as "Chinese boxing", led this anti-foreign, anti-imperialist, and anti-Christian uprising but was defeated by the Eight-Nation Alliance of foreign powers.

As the 20th century dawned, nationalism surged. China's intellectuals and reformers rallied against foreign dominance. The Xinhai (or Hsinhai) Revolution (1911), a culmination of a decade of agitation, revolts, and uprisings, marked the collapse of the Chinese monarchy, the end of over two millennia of imperial rule in China and over 200 years of the Qing dynasty, and the beginning of China's early republican era. Opium, however, clung to the shadows, feeding on desperation and despair.

World War I and its aftermath reshaped the opium landscape. The League of Nations, alarmed by addiction's toll, convened the International Opium Conference in 1912. Nations pledged to combat the trade. Yet, clandestine networks persisted, fuelled by greed and addiction.

Nonetheless, the colonial legacy of opium trade, once a conduit of wealth and misery, waned. Missionaries, statesmen, and ordinary souls fought against its grip. However, the production, trade and consumption of narcotics continue with different substances and in perhaps even more brutal illegal methods. The battle against colonial opium trade may have been won, but not the war against drugs.

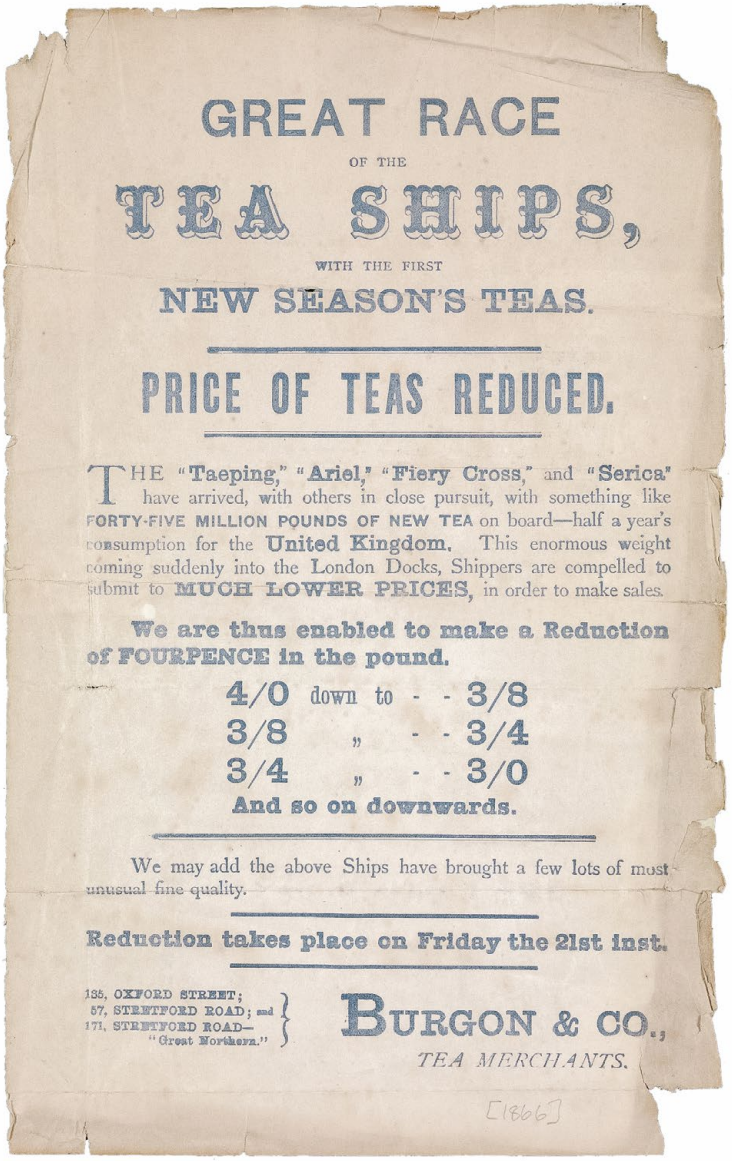


MAP SHOWING WHERE OPIUM IS GROWN IN CHINA

The map is reproduced from the British Government White Paper, *China*, No. 1, 1908. Piculs are nearly equivalent to chests. The figures represent the annual production of piculs of opium in each province.

"We English, by the policy we have pursued, are morally responsible for every acre of land in China which is withdrawn from the cultivation of grain and devoted to that of the poppy; so that the fact of the growth of the drug in China ought only to increase our sense of responsibility."—LORD JUSTICE FRY.

294. Map showing opium growing areas in China, early 20th century.



GREAT RACE

OF THE

TEA SHIPS,

WITH THE FIRST

NEW SEASON'S TEAS.

PRICE OF TEAS REDUCED.

THE "Taeping," "Ariel," "Fiery Cross," and "Serica" have arrived, with others in close pursuit, with something like FORTY-FIVE MILLION POUNDS OF NEW TEA on board—half a year's consumption for the United Kingdom. This enormous weight coming suddenly into the London Docks, Shippers are compelled to submit to MUCH LOWER PRICES, in order to make sales.

We are thus enabled to make a Reduction of FOURPENCE in the pound.

4/0 down to - - 3/8
3/8 „ - - 3/4
3/4 „ - - 3/0

And so on downwards.

We may add the above Ships have brought a few lots of most unusual fine quality.

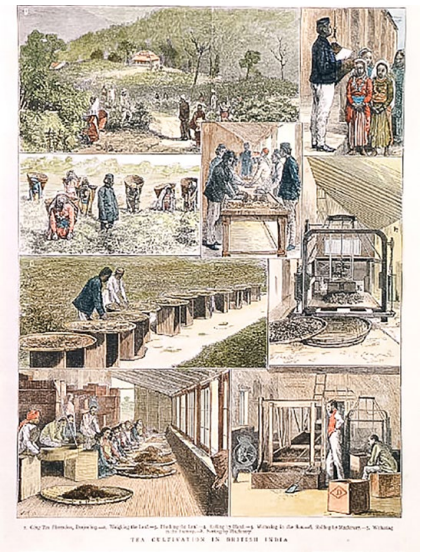
Reduction takes place on Friday the 21st inst.

135, OXFORD STREET;
67, STRETFORD ROAD; and
171, STRETFORD ROAD—
"Great Northern."

BURGON & CO.,
TEA MERCHANTS.

[1866]

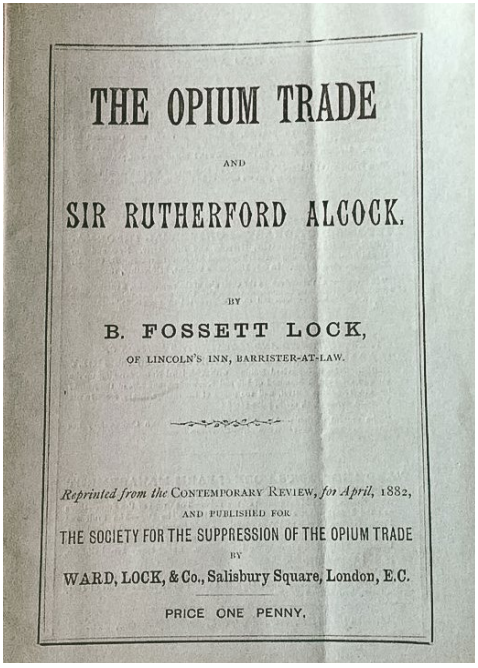
295. Pamphlet advertising the Great Tea Race of 1866 and the ships which had arrived. It was in the aftermath of these wars that the tea trade expanded substantially from the 1860s. New ports opened along the Chang Jiang (Yangtze) river, including Hankou, the tea capital of China. This increased the supply of tea and prompted a fashion in Britain for 'fresh' tea, the first crop of the year. This resulted in tea races, with clipper ships, built for speed, vying to be the first ship into port in London carrying a tea cargo.



Journey's end – March 1836, Kundal Mukh, in the vicinity of Sadiya. Undoubtedly a scene similar to this took place almost 170 years ago in a far-flung part of Empire. This depiction shows the type of nursery that Charles Alexander Bruce would have prepared for the reception of the 20,000 young China tea plants. He and Sergeant Moore, I.C. boats, stand by as the young seedlings are transported between the fleet and the nursery, where Mallis from the Calcutta Botanical Gardens superintend their planting out on specially prepared beds which would, in fact, have extended over a much wider area of generally sandy land. The low angle perspective of the river cannot fully show the mass of sandbanks and water channels that are typical of the upper reaches of the Brahmaputra in the dry weather period in Assam. (*Pen and ink and watercolour, 1999, by John Weatherstone.*)

From the left: 296. Tea production in British India, 1860s.
297. Assam; the ideal location identified for tea production in India.

298. Hudson & Maria Taylor in 1865. The 1859 Awakening in Britain and the work of J. Hudson Taylor (1832–1905) helped increase the number of missionaries in China. By 1865 when Taylor created the China Inland Mission (CIM) there were 30 different Protestant groups at work in China.



THE OPIUM TRADE

AND

SIR RUTHERFORD ALCOCK.

BY

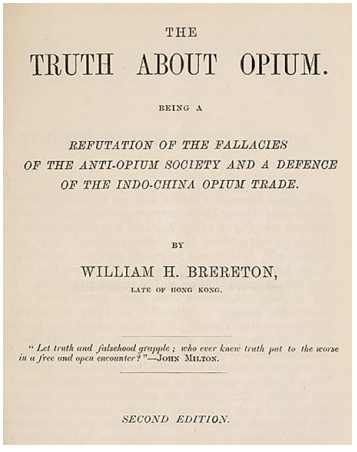
B. FOSSETT LOCK,

OF LINCOLN'S INN, BARRISTER-AT-LAW.

Reprinted from the CONTEMPORARY REVIEW, *for April*, 1882,
AND PUBLISHED FOR
THE SOCIETY FOR THE SUPPRESSION OF THE OPIUM TRADE
BY
WARD, LOCK, & Co., Salisbury Square, London, E.C.

PRICE ONE PENNY.

299. In 1874, a group of Quaker businessmen offered a £200 prize for the best essay on the British opium trade. The winning essay, penned by Rev. Frederick Storrs-Turner, ignited a fervent desire to combat the opium trade. Thus, the Society for the Suppression of the Opium Trade (SSOT) was born.



THE
TRUTH ABOUT OPIUM.

BEING A

REFUTATION OF THE FALLACIES OF THE ANTI-OPIUM SOCIETY AND A DEFENCE OF THE INDO-CHINA OPIUM TRADE.

BY

WILLIAM H. BRERETON,
LATE OF HONG KONG.

"Let truth and falsehood grapple; who ever knew truth put to the worse in a free and open encounter?"—JOHN MILTON.

SECOND EDITION.

From the left: 300. But there were those who opposed the SSOT
301. Torture and murder of Christian nuns and priests during the Boxer rising in China 19 December 1891, from "Le Petit Journal", Paris.

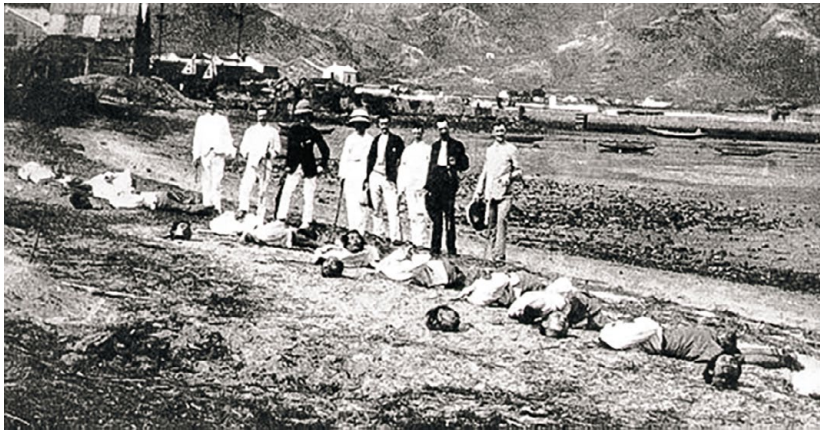
From the left: 302. Two French officers murdered by Chinese Boxer Rebels during the Boxer Uprising 1899.
303. Boxer rebels commit atrocities in the cathedral at Mukden in Manchuria, China 1900.
304. Murder of Clemens August Freiherr von Ketteler (1853 – 1900), was a German career diplomat. He was murdered during the Boxer Rebellion, in China.

305. Troops of the Eight-Nation Alliance in 1900 (Russia excepted); left to right: Britain, United States, Australia, India, Germany, France, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Japan.

306. The Boxer Rebellion and Eight-Nation Alliance, China 1900–1901.

307. Japanese troops bursting through a gate and engaging the Boxer forces at Tianjin, China. Color lithograph by Torajiro Kasai.

308. The Capture of the Forts at Taku, 1900.

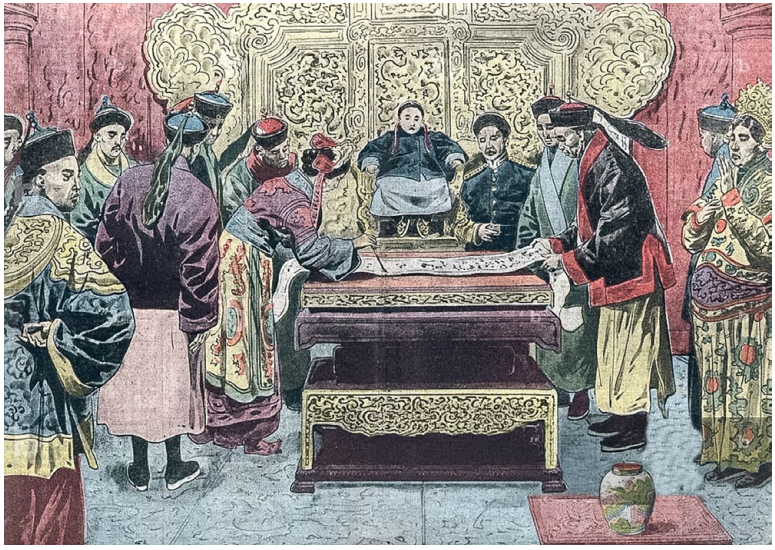


From the left: 309. The Eight-Nation Alliance assembled in Beijing following the defeat of the Boxer Rebellion. Within historic grounds of the Forbidden City in Peking, China, the Allies celebrated victory on Nov. 28, 1900.
310. Executions after the Boxer Uprising, c.1901.

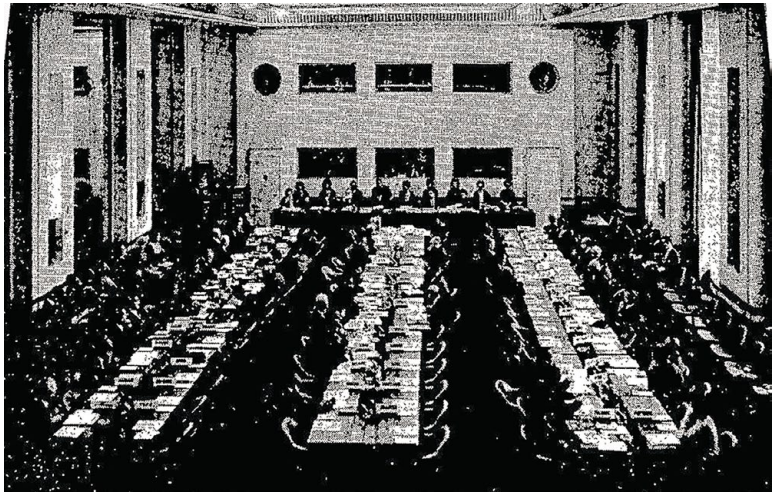
From the left: 311. Three supporters of the Boxer Rebellion about to be executed at the command of the foreign alliance. Process-print after F. de Haenen, 1900.
312. A famous photograph, taken at Caishikou crossroad, during the execution of Boxers' leaders in 1900. It has been later turned into a postcard, colorized, published in books, etc. On the back, pencil, ill-written: "26e year of Koang-hsu" (1900).

315. Russia, Japan, Germany and England as Shylocks gather round a kneeling China (Antonio) and demand their pounds of flesh for the Boxer Rebellion, while Puck urges the US to step in as Portia and rescue China. by John S. Pughe for Puck Magazine.

316. The Xinhai Revolution, 1911 battle at Ta-ping gate, Nanjing. Painting by T. Miyano.



315. Xinhai Revolution or Hsin-hai establishing the Republic of China, 1911: Abdication of the "Last Emperor" Puyi on February 12, 1912".



316. The International Opium Convention was Signed at The Hague, Netherlands, in 1912. This was the First International Drug Control Treaty.

XV. The Opium Oligarchs

In the shadows of empire, where fortunes were spun,
Lies the tale of opium, beneath the blazing sun.
From Bengal's fields to China's distant shore,
The oligarchs thrived, demanding ever more.

Britain's East India, with a charter so grand,
Monopolized the poppy, across the fertile land.
In factories by the Ganges, the opium was pressed,
A bitter harvest, leaving peasants distressed.

Jardine & Co, with their ships on the seas,
Sailed the opium trade, with the greatest of ease.
Sassoon's dynasty, with wealth so vast,
Built their empire, on opium's past.

Across the Atlantic, in mansions of might,
American blue-bloods joined the opium fight.
Astors, Forbes, Perkins and Delanos, with fortunes to gain,
Fed the dragon's hunger, in a ruthless campaign.

In India, the farmers, with no choice but to yield,
Cultivated poppies, on their sorrowful fields.
Jeejeebhoy's name, in Bombay's grand lore,
A merchant prince, in the opium war.

Wars were waged, and treaties were signed,
Opium's dark legacy, forever enshrined.
From Britain to America, the profits did flow,
Leaving a trail of sorrow, wherever they'd go.

Yet in the annals of history, their names are inscribed,
The opium oligarchs, whose power never died.
A reminder of greed, and the cost of their reign,
In the fields of poppies, and the echoes of pain.

Jardine, Matheson & Co., founded by William Jardine and James Matheson in 1832, became a dominant force in the 19th-century opium trade between India and China. Leveraging the British East India Company's opium monopoly in Bengal, they smuggled opium into China, leading to widespread addiction and social disruption. Their lobbying efforts contributed to the First Opium War (1839-1842), resulting in the Treaty of Nanking, which ceded Hong Kong to Britain and opened Chinese ports to foreign trade. While the company amassed great wealth, its legacy is marked by the profound human and social costs of the opium trade.

John Jacob Astor, America's first multimillionaire, significantly profited from the opium trade in the early 19th century. In 1816, Astor purchased ten tons of Turkish opium and smuggled it into China, where opium was in high demand despite being illegal. He traded the opium for valuable goods like tea, pottery, and fabrics, which he then sold in the United States for substantial profits. This venture contributed to his immense wealth and established him as a powerful merchant.

Prominent Boston Brahmin families, such as the Robert Bennet Forbes and Thomas Handasyd Perkins, were deeply involved in the opium trade. They capitalized on the lucrative market by smuggling opium from Turkey and India into China, where it was in high demand despite being illegal. Perkins, for instance, was a key figure in this trade, establishing a permanent trading office in Canton (modern-day Guangzhou) to optimize profits.

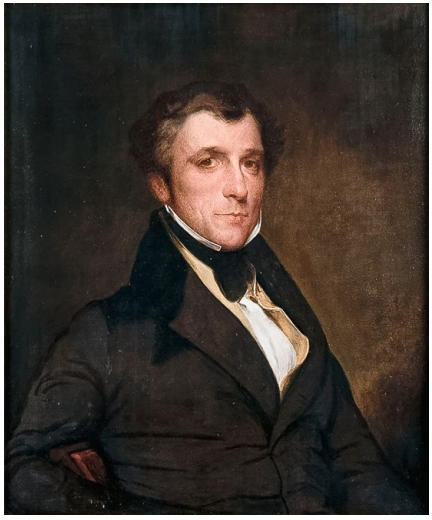
Warren Delano II, grandfather of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, amassed significant wealth through the opium trade in the 19th century. As a senior partner at Russell & Co., Delano played a key role in smuggling opium from Turkey and India into China, despite its illegality. This

trade contributed to widespread addiction in China but also built the Delano family's fortune, which later supported various philanthropic and industrial ventures in the United States.

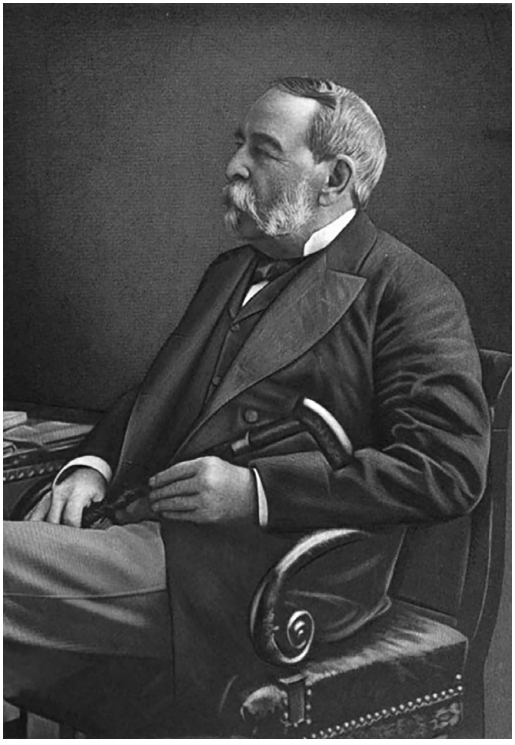
Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy (also spelt Jeejeebhoy), a prominent 19th-century Indian merchant, amassed immense wealth through the opium trade. Born in Bombay in 1783, he began trading opium and cotton with China, leveraging his connections with British traders like William Jardine. Jejeebhoy's success in the opium trade enabled him to become one of India's richest men, earning the title of the first Baronet of Bombay in 1857. Despite the controversial nature of his wealth, Jejeebhoy was a notable philanthropist, funding hospitals, schools, and infrastructure projects in Bombay, leaving a complex legacy intertwined with both commerce and charity.

David Sassoon, a Baghdadi Jewish merchant, settled in Bombay in 1832 and established a vast trading empire centred on the opium trade. Founding David S. Sassoon & Co., he exported opium from India to China, leveraging his connections with British authorities. The wealth generated allowed him to invest in Bombay's development, funding hospitals, schools, and libraries, such as the David Sassoon Library. While his contributions to the city's modernization were significant, his involvement in the opium trade had far-reaching negative consequences in China. Sassoon's legacy is thus marked by both philanthropy and controversy.

From the left: 317. William Jardine and James Matheson.
318. 1846 view of Jardine's original building from Causeway Bay, Hong Kong.

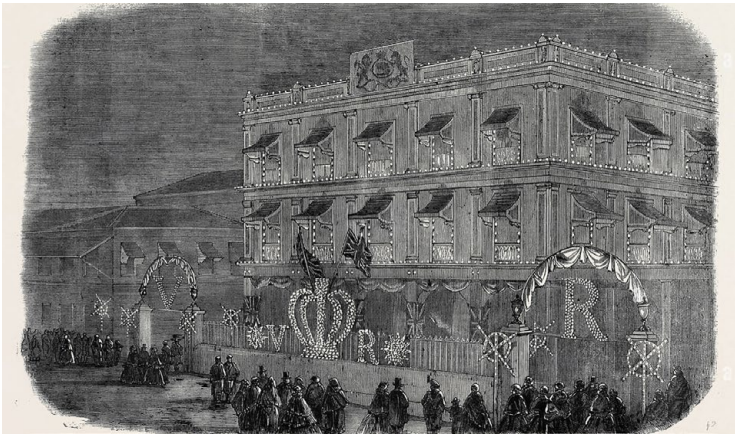


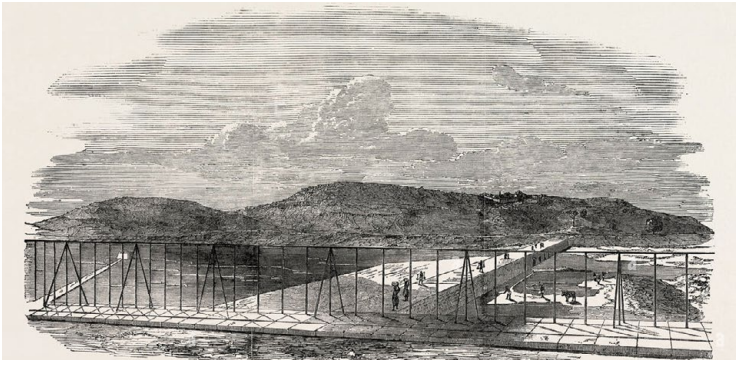
From the left: 319. Thomas Perkins; Perkins and Co. was among the first–if not the first–American companies to establish a permanent trading office in Canton.
320. Robert Bennet Forbes (1804-1889). He began to work for the family's shipping company Perkins & Co. when he assisted with a voyage to China at the age of 13.



From the left: 321. John Jacob Astor (1763-1848); made his fortune mainly in a fur trade monopoly, by exporting opium into China, and by investing in real estate in or around New York City.
322. Warren Delano Jr. (1809–1898) was an American merchant and drug smuggler who made a large fortune smuggling illegal opium into China. He was the maternal grandfather of U.S. President Franklin Delano Roosevelt.

From the top left: 323, 324 & 325. Portraits of Jamesetji Jeejeebhoy, the biggest opium trader.



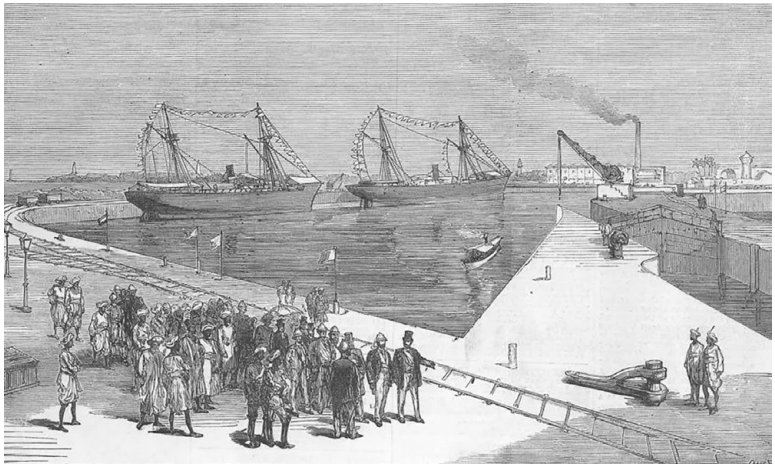


From the top: 326. Residence of Jamsetji Jeejeebhoy.
327. The Jamsetjee Bund, Poonah, The Sluices Open, 1851.
328. Bund Gardens Shewing Bandstand, Poona, c. 1900, built by Phiroze Jamshedji Jeejeebhoy.

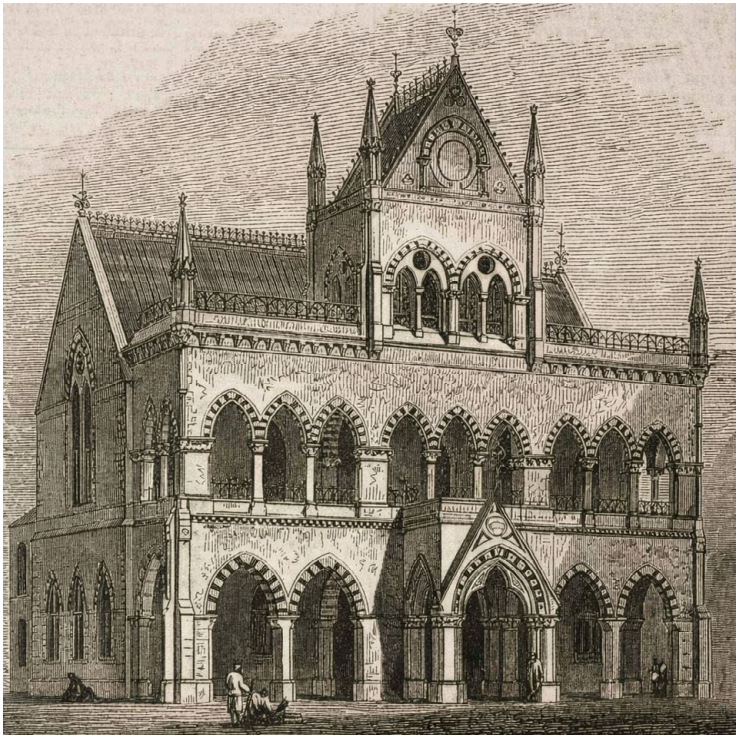
329. Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy Hospital, Bombay.

330. Old Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy Memorial Building, Javji Dadaji Street, Tardeo, Grant Road, Bombay.

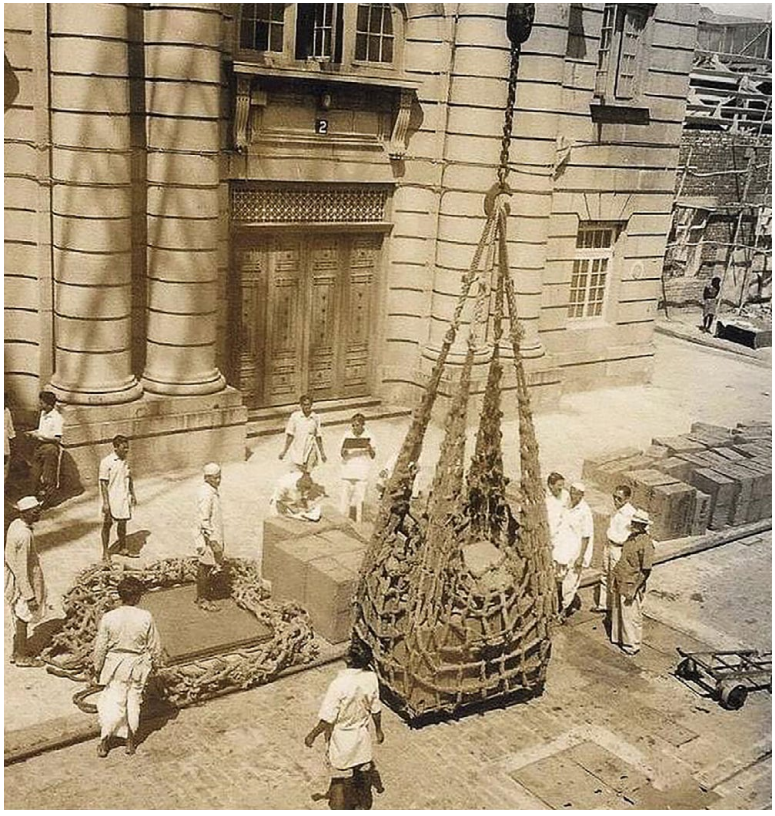
From the left: 331. David Sassoon (seated) and his sons Elias David, Albert Abdallah & Sassoon David. David Sassoon (1792 –1864) was the treasurer of Baghdad between 1817 and 1829. He became the leader of the Jewish community in Mumbai after Baghdadi Jews emigrated there.
332. Sassoon Hospital, Poona, c. 1875.

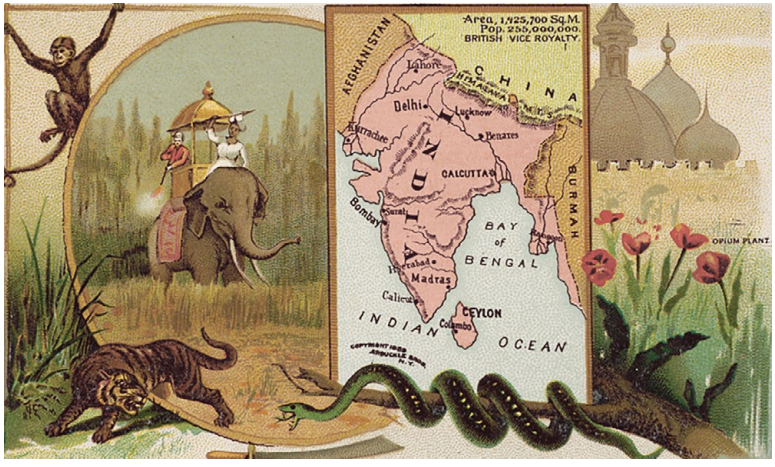


333. Visit of the Viceroy of India to Sassoon Docks, Bombay, From London Illustrated News 1865.



From the top. 334. Sassoon Dock Entrance, Bombay
335. The Sassoon Institute (now David Sassoon Library), Bombay (Mumbai), India, illustration from the magazine The Illustrated London News, volume LXIII, November 15, 1873.





From the top. 336. 'Loading of Opium', Ballard Estate, Bombay.
337. The scourge of opium. An advertising print for British India showing the cultivation of the opium poppy plant on the right, 1860–1925. Courtesy of the National Museum of Singapore, National Heritage Board.

XVI. Opium in Modern Medicine

In fields of green, where poppies bloom,
A tale unfolds, of healing's loom,
From ancient hands to modern minds,
Opium's path through time unwinds.

In the 19th century's dawn,
Morphine's power brightly shone,
A soldier's balm, a healer's friend,
Yet chains of addiction did it send.

Heroin, a hopeful cure,
Promised relief, so pure, so sure,
But shadows deepened, darkness grew,
As lives were lost to its cruel hue.

Cocaine, a leaf of numbing grace,
In medicine, it found its place,
A stimulant, a surgeon's aid,
Yet brought with it a deadly trade.

Through wars and peace, the needle's sting,
Brought solace swift, yet suffering,
Regulations rose, laws were penned,
To curb the tide, to make amends.

Synthetic paths, new drugs were born,
Methadone, a new hope sworn,
Yet still the struggle, still the fight,
To balance pain with human plight.

In hospitals, in quiet rooms,
Opium's legacy still looms,
A double-edged, a potent tool,
In hands of wisdom, not of fools.

The history of opium in medicine is a fascinating journey that spans thousands of years, reflecting both the drug's therapeutic potential and its capacity for addiction and abuse. This essay traces the evolution of opium's use in medicine from ancient times to the mid-20th century.

The 19th century marked significant advancements in the medical use of opium derivatives. In 1804, Friedrich Sertürner isolated morphine from opium, naming it after Morpheus, the Greek god of dreams. Morphine quickly became a popular painkiller, especially during the American Civil War, where it was extensively used to treat wounded soldiers. However, its widespread use led to the first wave of opiate addiction, known as "soldier's disease".

In 1874, chemist C.R. Alder Wright synthesized heroin (diacetylmorphine) from morphine. Initially marketed by Bayer as a non-addictive substitute for morphine and a cough suppressant, heroin was soon found to be highly addictive[5]. By the late 19th and early 20th centuries, heroin and morphine were commonly used in medical practice, but their addictive properties led to growing concerns and the eventual regulation of these substances.

The early 20th century saw increasing awareness of the dangers of opiate addiction. The Harrison Narcotics Tax Act of 1914 in the United States marked the beginning of federal regulation of opiates, requiring prescriptions for their medical use and imposing taxes on their production and distribution[1]. This legislation aimed to curb the widespread abuse of opiates while still allowing their use for legitimate medical purposes.

Despite these regulations, opiates remained a critical component of medical practice. During both World Wars, morphine was indispensable

for pain management on the battlefield. However, the addictive potential of these drugs continued to pose significant challenges for both medical professionals and patients.

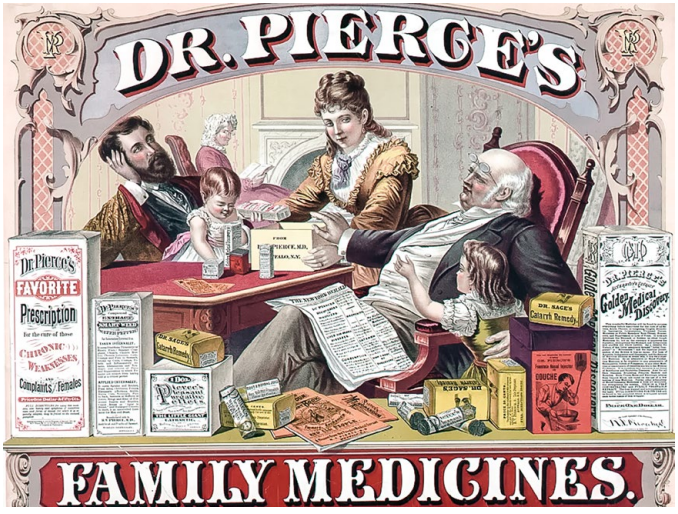
By the mid-20th century, the medical community began to seek alternatives to natural opiates due to their high potential for abuse and addiction. This period saw the development of synthetic opioids, such as methadone and meperidine (Demerol), which were designed to provide pain relief with a lower risk of addiction. These synthetic alternatives marked a new era in pain management, although they too would eventually reveal their own issues with dependency and abuse.

The history of opium in medicine is a complex narrative of discovery, innovation, and caution. From its ancient use as a pain reliever and sedative to the development of powerful derivatives like morphine and heroin, opium has played a pivotal role in the evolution of medical practice. The mid-20th century's shift towards synthetic opioids reflects the ongoing struggle to balance effective pain management with the need to minimize the risk of addiction. This history underscores the importance of continued research and regulation in the field of pain management and addiction treatment.

338. A 19th-century pharmacist compounds medicines, including opium, cocaine, and arsenic, in Louis Dalrymple's The Age of Drugs, from an October 1900 issue of Puck.

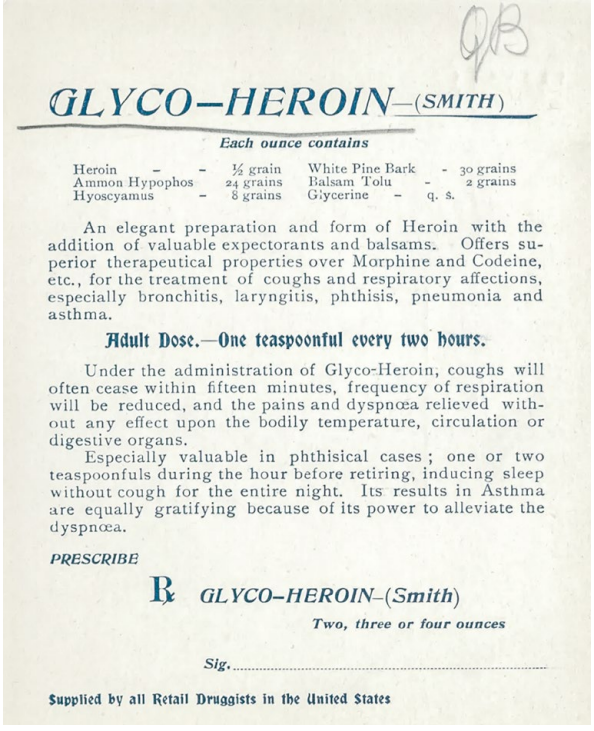
339. Poor child's nurse", a bottle of opium on the table, and a young child in a cot, Punch, 1849

From the left: 340. Laudanum is a 10% solution of powdered opium in alcohol: potent, addictive, and believed by many to be a cure-all.
341. Another tincture of opium in alcohol, prepared and sold from Wilmington, DE by N. B. Danforth, Inc. A close relative of laudanum, paregoric has been familiar to Europeans and Americans since the 17th century. The drug's name comes from the Greek word παρηγορικο*, which means to soothe over (in oratory); the name is apt for a drug that has analgesic, antidiarrheal, and antitussive properties.*



342. A vintage ad for patent medicines, which usually didn't list their active ingredients. We now know that many contained morphine, cocaine, opium and more.

343. 1885 advertisement for Mrs. Winslow's Soothing Syrup. This product was for teething children and contained morphine.



GLYCO–HEROIN–(SMITH)

Each ounce contains

Heroin – –	½ grain	White Pine Bark -	30 grains
Ammon Hypophos	24 grains	Balsam Tolu -	2 grains
Hyoscyamus –	8 grains	Glycerine –	q. s.

An elegant preparation and form of Heroin with the addition of valuable expectorants and balsams. Offers superior therapeutical properties over Morphine and Codeine, etc., for the treatment of coughs and respiratory affections, especially bronchitis, laryngitis, phthisis, pneumonia and asthma.

Adult Dose.—One teaspoonful every two hours.

Under the administration of Glyco-Heroin, coughs will often cease within fifteen minutes, frequency of respiration will be reduced, and the pains and dyspnœa relieved without any effect upon the bodily temperature, circulation or digestive organs.

Especially valuable in phthisical cases; one or two teaspoonfuls during the hour before retiring, inducing sleep without cough for the entire night. Its results in Asthma are equally gratifying because of its power to alleviate the dyspnœa.

PRESCRIBE

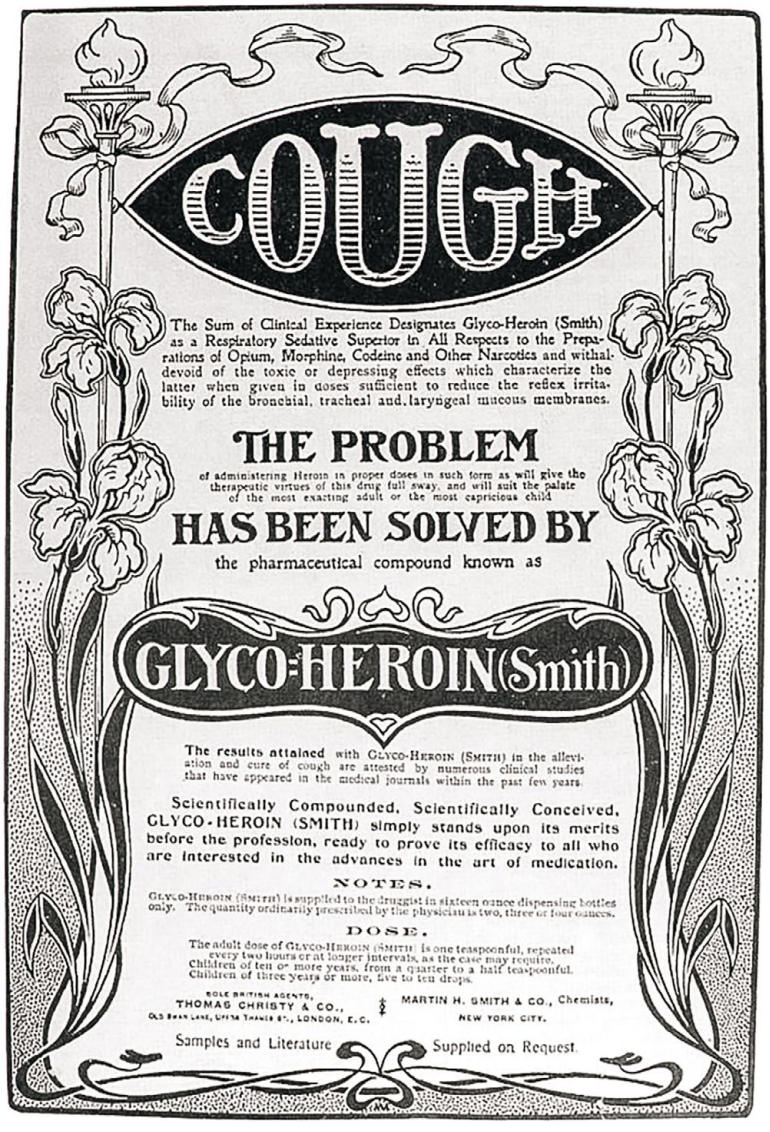
℞ GLYCO–HEROIN–(Smith)

Two, three or four ounces

Sig.....

Supplied by all Retail Druggists in the United States

344. From handbills and pamphlets advertising glyco-heroin 1900-1920, from the College of Physicians of Philadelphia's collection of medical trade ephemera.



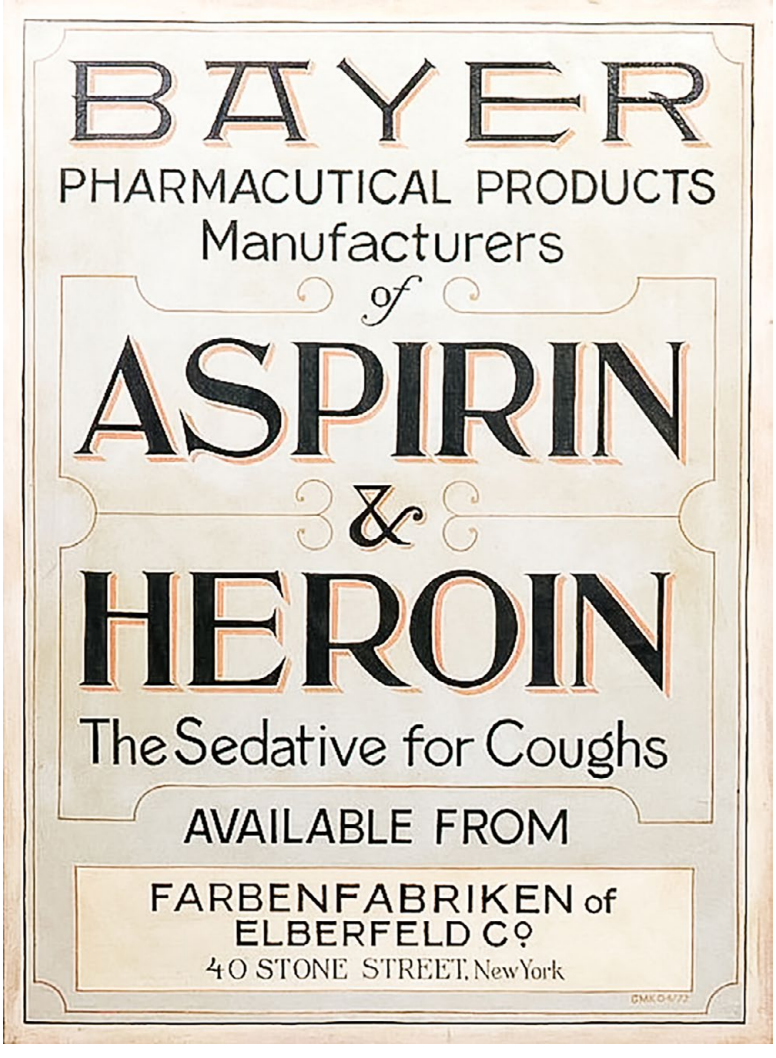
345. Ad for a heroin-based cough medicine which claims superiority to the old opium-morphine-codeine concoctions commonly used.

346. In 1898, the German-based company Bayer commercialized heroin as a non-habit-forming over-the-counter drug that was used to replace morphine in cough suppressants and as a treatment for morphine addicts.

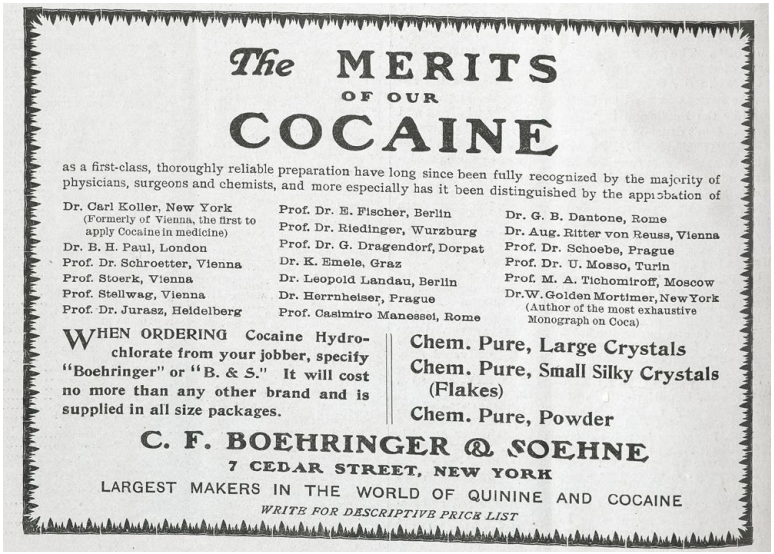
347. Image by Lloyd Manufacturing Company depicts two children playing with Lincoln Logs beside the text, "Cocaine Toothache Drops. Instantaneous Cure! Price 15 Cents. For Sale by all Druggists."

From the left: 348. The Lester H. Greene Co. in Montpelier manufactured and sold a cough syrup, Syrup of Tar, containing alcohol, chloroform and heroin. The company was fined in 1917. 349. Laudanum was reddish-brown tincture that was extremely bitter. It contained almost all of the opium alkaloids, including morphine and codeine.

From the top: 350. Dr. Bell's Pain Killer.
351. Wolcott's Instant Pain Annihilator. Opium Alcohol Wolcott's Pain Annihilator Drug Advertising Lithograph 13x19 c1867.



352. Advertising sign from Bayer for use in US drug stores, dating from before the federal prohibition of heroin in 1924.

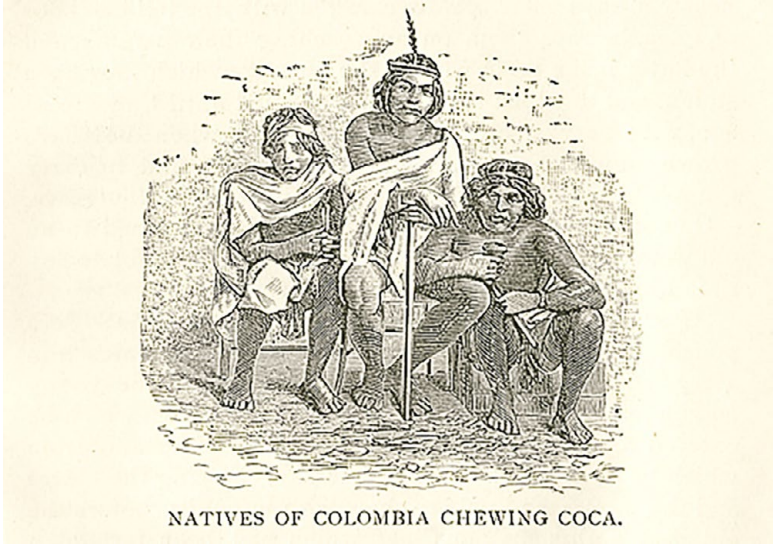


353. Founded in 1885 in Ingelheim am Rhein, Germany, by Albert Boehringer, Boehringer & Soehne (B & S) was one of the leading pharmaceutical companies of its era, mostly selling quinine and cocaine.

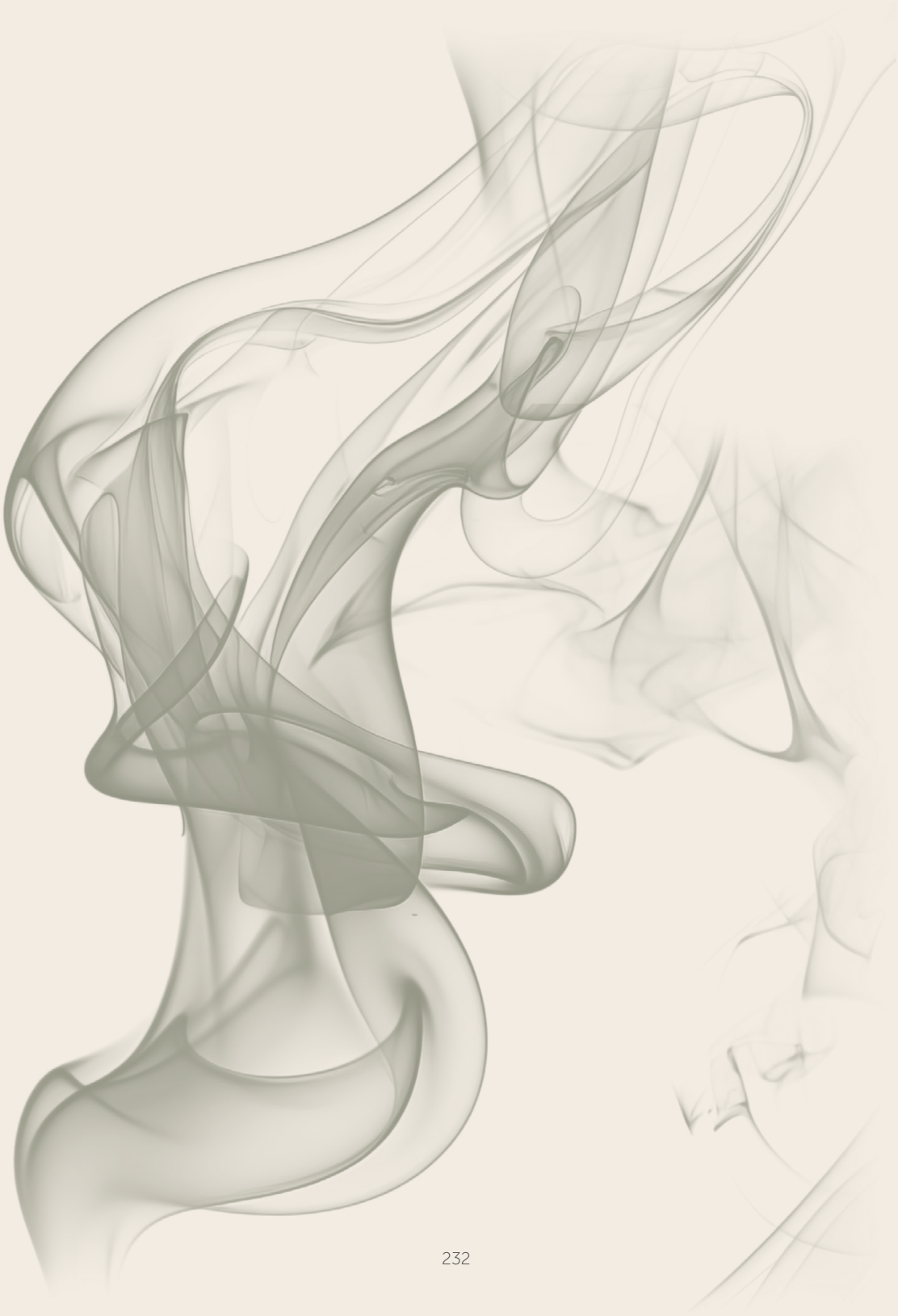
From the left: 354. Cube Morphine, seen in this 1900 American Druggist and Pharmaceutical Record ad, was the cure-du-jour for all things painful.

355. In the late 19th century, the typical cocaine user was a professional man who had been prescribed the drug or a physician administering his own doses. Coca wine was the most popular way to consume cocaine. Vin Mariani was the first coca wine product sold, and for a while, the most successful.

356. The coca wine Vin Mariani was overtaken in popularity by Coca-Cola. Pharmacist John Pemberton created the drink as a non-alcoholic alternative to his Peruvian Wine Coca, after prohibition was adopted in Atlanta in 1886. By the 1890s the drink had become so popular that numerous imitations, with names alluding to their coca content—such as Koke, Cafe-Cola, and Kos-Kola—flooded the market.



357. "Natives of Columbia chewing coca" from Angelo Mariani, COCA and its Therapeutic Application, 1896.



XVII. Opium in Popular Media

In the shadows of history, opium's tale,
Woven through whispers, a haunting wail.
From poppy fields to distant shores,
Its bittersweet essence, a world explores.

In comics' frames, a villain's vice,
A dark allure, a roll of dice.
Heroes clash, in ink and hue,
Opium's grip, a story anew.

Cinema's reels, a silver screen,
Opium's haze, a haunting scene.
From dens of smoke to battles fought,
Its presence lingers, a tangled plot.

In literature's pages, a muse profound,
Opium's dreams, where words are found.
Coleridge's visions, De Quincey's plight,
In prose and verse, it takes its flight.

In paintings' strokes, a vivid dream,
Opium's bloom, a silent scream.
Artists' brush, with colours bold,
Depicts the tales, both young and old.

Through media's lens, its journey traced,
Opium's shadow, never erased.
A muse of sorrow, a tale of woe,
In art and story, its echoes grow.

Opium, derived from the opium poppy, has had a profound influence on various forms of popular media, including literature, paintings, music, cinema, and comics. Its presence has shaped narratives, inspired creativity, and reflected societal attitudes towards addiction and escapism.

Opium's influence on literature is most notable during the Romantic period. Writers like Samuel Taylor Coleridge and Thomas De Quincey used opium both medicinally and recreationally, which significantly impacted their works. Coleridge's "Kubla Khan," written under the influence of opium, is a prime example of how the drug inspired vivid and fantastical imagery. De Quincey's "Confessions of an English Opium-Eater" provides a candid account of his opium use, detailing both the pleasures and the pains of addiction. These works not only highlight the creative potential of opium but also its darker, more destructive side.

In the realm of visual arts, opium has been a subject and a muse. The Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, for instance, was influenced by the altered perceptions induced by opium, which is evident in their detailed and dreamlike compositions. Artists like Pablo Picasso and Amedeo Modigliani were known to frequent opium dens, and their works often reflect the surreal and introspective states induced by the drug. The opium poppy itself has been a recurring motif in art, symbolizing both beauty and the peril of addiction.

Opium's influence extends to music, where it has been both a subject and a source of inspiration. The 19th-century composer Hector Berlioz's "Symphonie Fantastique" is said to have been inspired by his experiences with opium, reflecting the drug's ability to alter mood and perception. In contemporary music, the label "Opium," founded

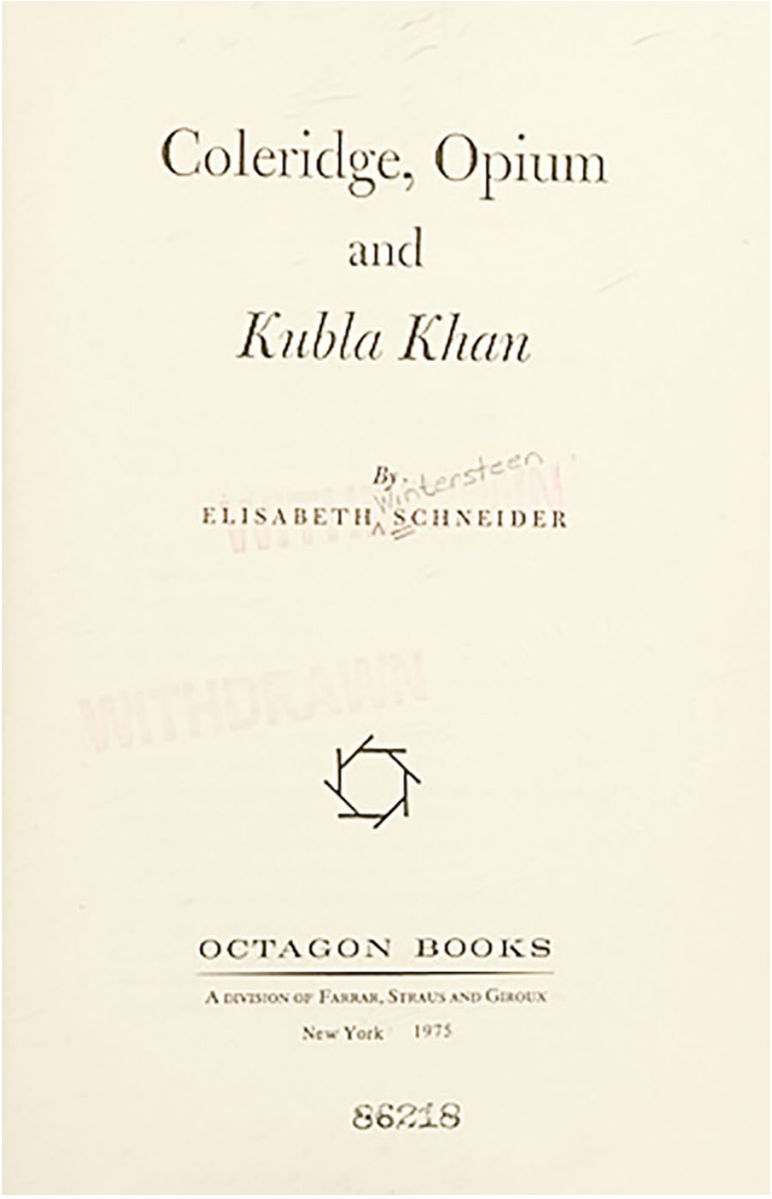
by rapper Playboi Carti, reflects the enigmatic and often controversial allure of the drug, though it focuses more on the cultural impact rather than direct references to opium use6.

Opium has been a recurring theme in cinema, often depicted in films that explore the darker aspects of addiction and the opium trade. Movies like “Once Upon a Time in America” and “The Last Emperor” feature opium as a significant plot element, highlighting its historical and social impact. The portrayal of opium dens in films often serves to illustrate the exotic and dangerous allure of the drug, as well as its devastating effects on individuals and societies.

In comics, opium is frequently portrayed as a villain’s tool or a symbol of corruption and vice. The portrayal of drug use in American comic books often blurs the line between use and addiction, reflecting societal fears and moral judgments. Characters involved with opium are typically depicted as morally compromised or struggling with inner demons, reinforcing the drug’s negative connotations.

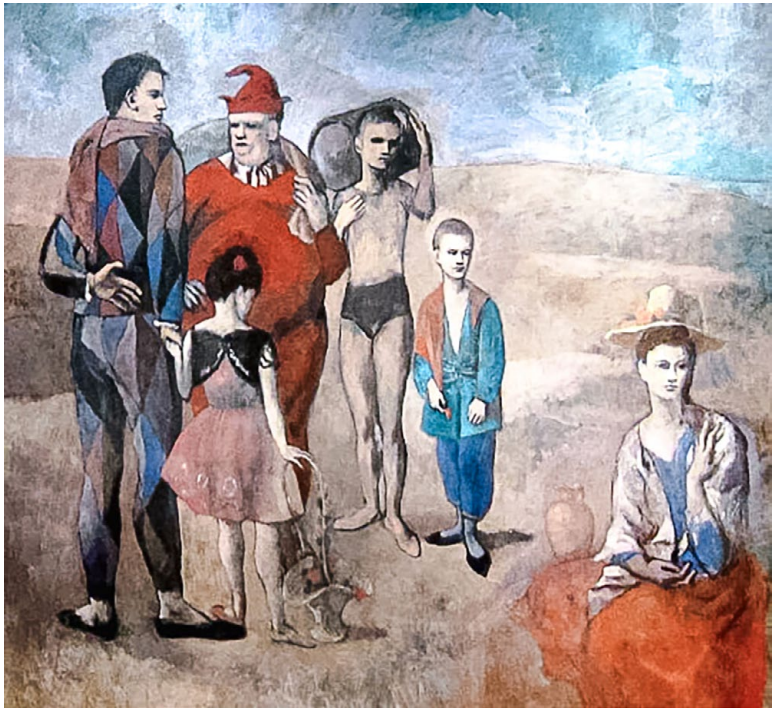
Opium’s role in popular media is multifaceted, serving as both a source of creative inspiration and a symbol of addiction’s destructive power. Its presence in literature, paintings, music, cinema, and comics reflects the complex relationship society has with the drug, oscillating between fascination and fear. Through these various media, opium continues to influence and shape cultural narratives, leaving an indelible mark on the arts.

358. Kubla Khan a vison in a dream (1797).



359. Coleridge, opium, and Kubla Khan by Elisabeth Wintersteen Schneider.

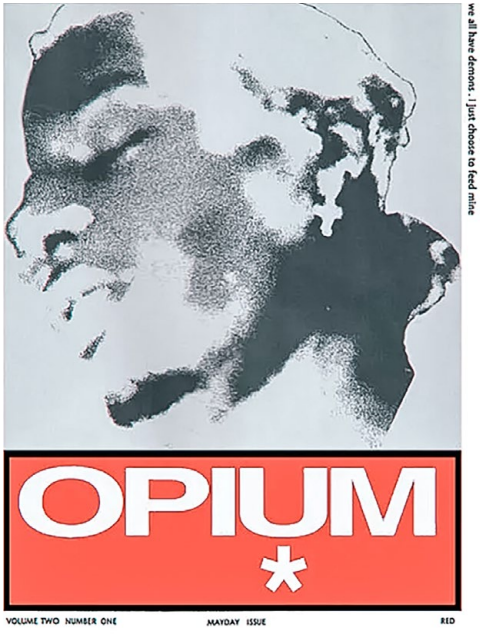
From the top: 360. Confessions of an Opium Eater is a 1962 American crime film, loosely based on the 1821 autobiographical novel, "Confessions of an English Opium-Eater", written by Thomas De Quincey.
361. The Imaginary Museum: The English Opium-Eater.



From the top: 362. Henry Wallis (British, 1830-1916), Chatterton, 1856. Oil paint on canvas. Opium altered artists' perceptions of the world and played an important role both in the development of Pre-Raphaelite composition and in forming the ideas of the Aesthetic Movement. 363. Pablo Picasso; we can see the influence of opium in The Family of Saltimbanques in the figures' weary faces that have little to no expressions, the faces and body language of the figures can be seen as dreary and almost hypnotic.

364. Head of a Young Girl, 1916. Around 1906, Amedeo Modigliani started drinking heavily and used hashish, cocaine, and opium, common habits in art circles at that time.

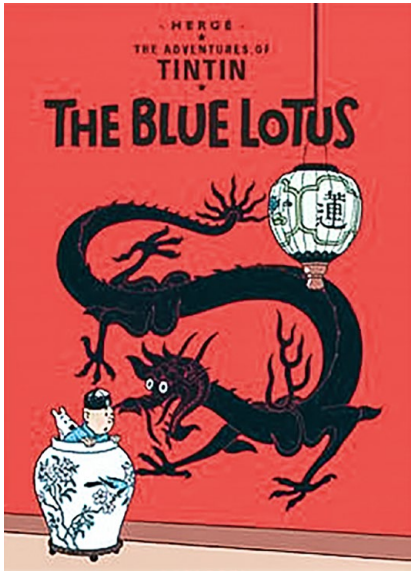
365. de Quincey might also have suggested to Berlioz how opium could work as a motif for the Symphonie itself: as a prism through which his maddening shards of inspiration could be focused into a linear narrative. Just as de Quincey used opium to overlay the bare facts of his life with shifting veils of dream and memory, reverie and vision, so Berlioz uses the dose of opium in the story to interpose multiple layers between the scenes we hear and the real world.



From the left: 366. In this recording, the orchestra is the Orchestre Lamoureux, Paris and the conductor is Igor Markevitch.
367. Opium is an American record label and rap collective that was founded in 2019 by American rapper Playboi Carti.

368 & 369. Opium and Black Opium; Eau De Parfum by Yves Saint Laurent.

370. Yves Saint Laurent advertisement for Opium perfumes using an opium inspired theme.



From the top left: 371. The Opium War (鸦片战争) is a 1997 Chinese historical epic film directed by Xie Jin. The winner of the 1997 Golden Rooster and 1998 Hundred Flowers Awards for Best Picture, the film was screened in several international film festivals, notably Cannes and Montreal.

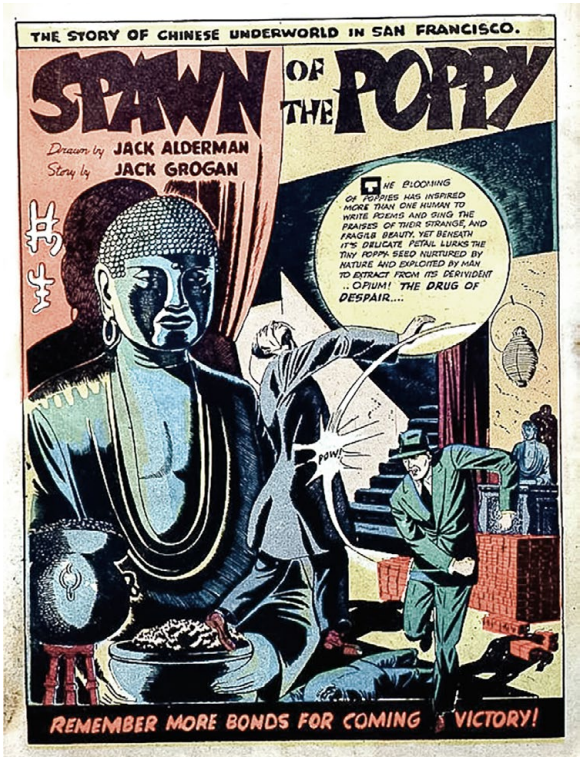
372. An Indo-Filipino movie about an evil princess and opium smuggling, 'The Evil Within' (1970) starred the Indian superstar Dev Anand alongside Zeenat Aman, Prem Nath and Iftekhar.

373. The Opium Eater (2007); A coat-and-tie-wearing social worker scours the countryside in search of wild opium poppies.

374. The Blue Lotus; an opium den.

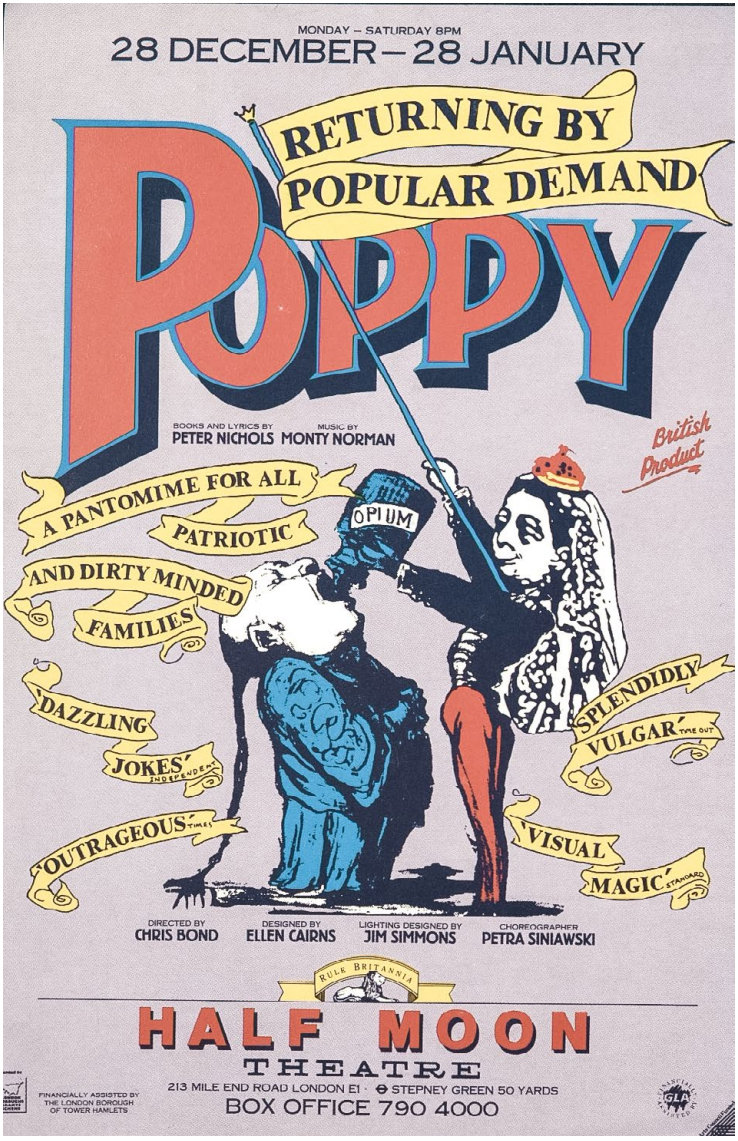
375. 'Ken Shannon' Issue 8, December 1952 published by Quality Comics Group featuring the story 'The Chinatown Murders' where the crime busting private investigator investigates murders in an opium den.

376. "The Queen of Chinatown offered a "correct portrayal" of life in New York's Chinatown. That portrayal involved a gambling joint, a slum mission, a Bowery concert hall and, of course, an opium den.



377. The Spawn of Poppy, while the inset to the cover may be true, popular comics have often shown the villain in the opium trade to be the hero in fighting against its consumption.

378. A German cartoon illustrates what it believed to be the hypocrisy of the British forcing a reluctant China to buy its opium from the Opium Wars of 1839 - 1842.



379. Poppy was performed twice at the Half Moon in London once in August running from the 25th of August to the 24th of September 1988 and the second performance was from the 28th of December to the 28th of January 1989.

XVIII. Anti-Opium Media Campaigns

In smoky dens where shadows creep,
Opium's grip made spirits weep.
But voices rose, a clarion call,
To break the chains, to end the thrall.

Posters bright with urgent plea,
"Awake, arise, and set minds free!"
From London streets to Shanghai's shore,
A battle waged, a silent war.

Ink and paper, truth unfurled,
To cleanse the veins, to heal the world.
Through decades long, the fight endured,
For hearts unbound, for lives secured.

The 19th and 20th centuries witnessed significant efforts to combat the widespread use of opium through various media campaigns, particularly through posters and other visual propaganda. These campaigns played a crucial role in shaping public perception and policy regarding opium use.

In the 19th century, opium was widely used for medicinal purposes and was a common ingredient in many patent medicines. However, its addictive properties soon became apparent, leading to widespread addiction problems. The lack of regulation allowed opium and its derivatives to be marketed freely, often with misleading claims about their benefits.

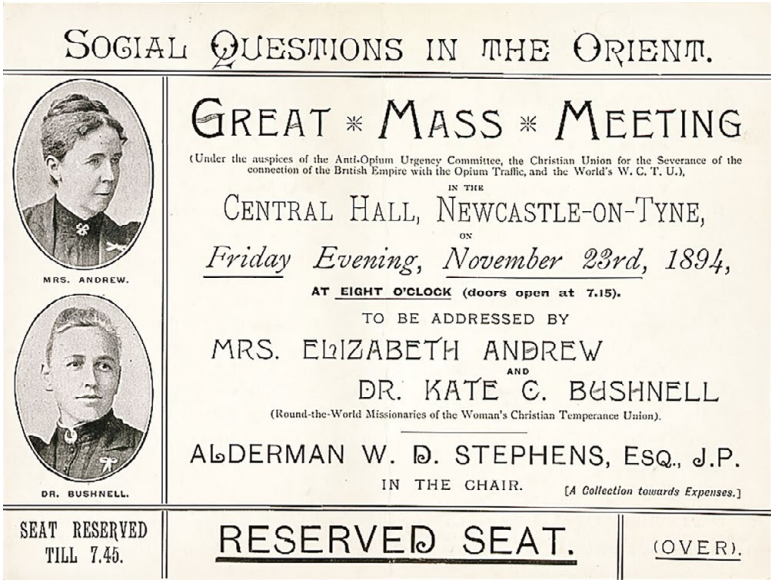
The first significant anti-opium campaigns emerged in the late 19th century. In China, the government recognized the detrimental effects of opium on public health and moral wellbeing. The anti-opium movement gained momentum with the establishment of the National Anti-Opium Association (NAOA) in 1906. The NAOA used posters to deglamourize opium use and present it as a common enemy threatening society.

Posters were a primary tool in these campaigns. They often depicted the negative consequences of opium use, such as addiction and death, to instil fear and discourage consumption. For example, one poster showed a patriotic Chinese citizen spearing animals labelled with the names of addictive drugs, symbolizing the fight against opium2. Another poster warned of severe penalties for opium smokers, including the death penalty, and encouraged addicts to seek help.

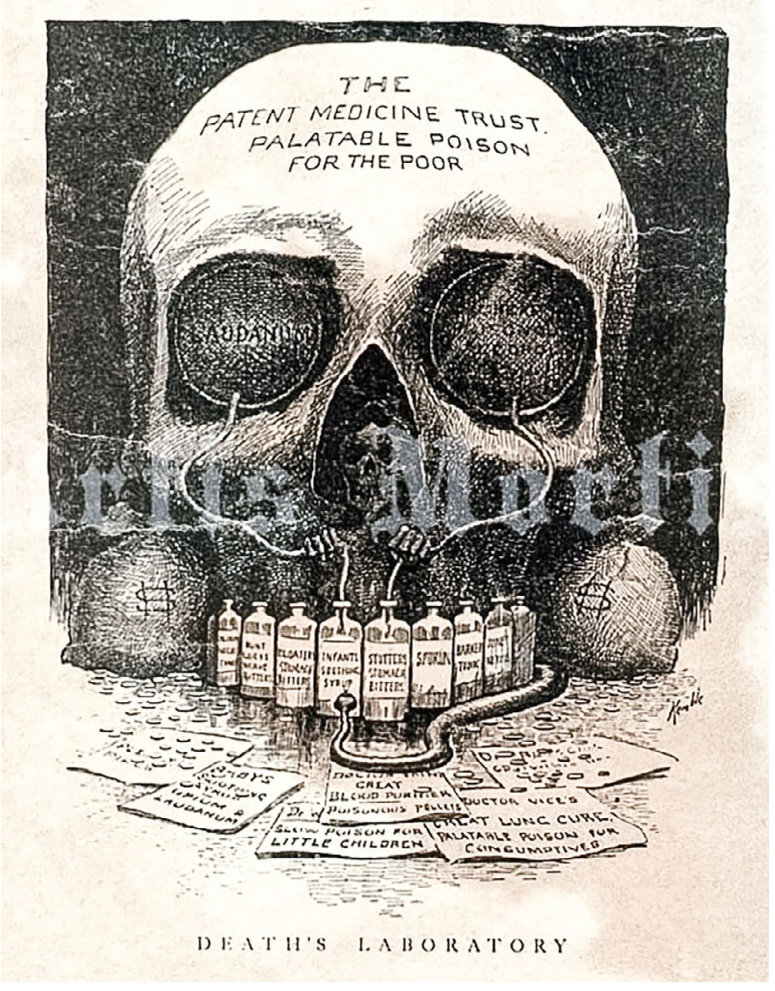
These visual campaigns were effective in reducing opium consumption by changing public attitudes and increasing awareness of the dangers

of opium. The success of these campaigns in China influenced public health initiatives in other countries as well. In the United States, the work of muckraking journalists like Samuel Hopkins Adams exposed the dangers of patent medicines containing opium, leading to the passage of the Pure Food and Drug Act in 19061.

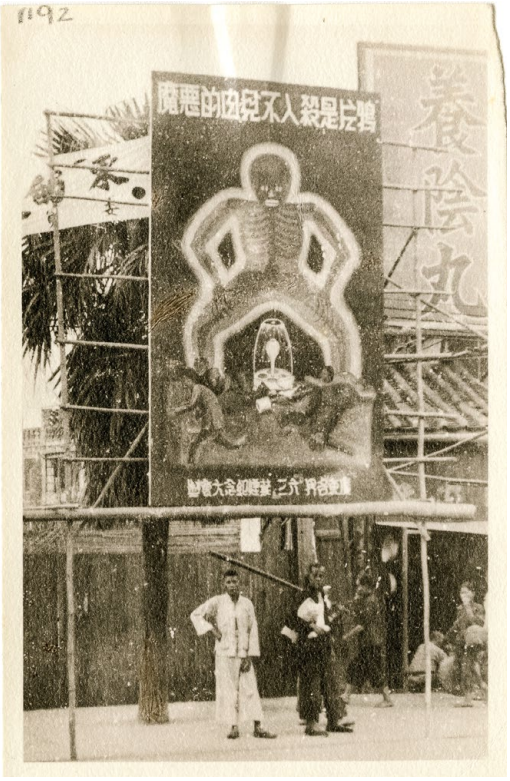
Anti-opium media campaigns in the 19th and 20th centuries were instrumental in combating the opium epidemic. Through the use of powerful visual propaganda, these campaigns succeeded in changing public perceptions and influencing policy, ultimately contributing to the decline in opium use and the improvement of public health.



380. Social questions in the orient: great mass meeting (under the auspices of the Anti-Opium Urgency Committee, the Christian Union for the Severance of the Connection of the British Empire with the Opium Trade, and the World's W.C.T.U.) in the Central Hall, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Friday evening, November 23rd, 1894.



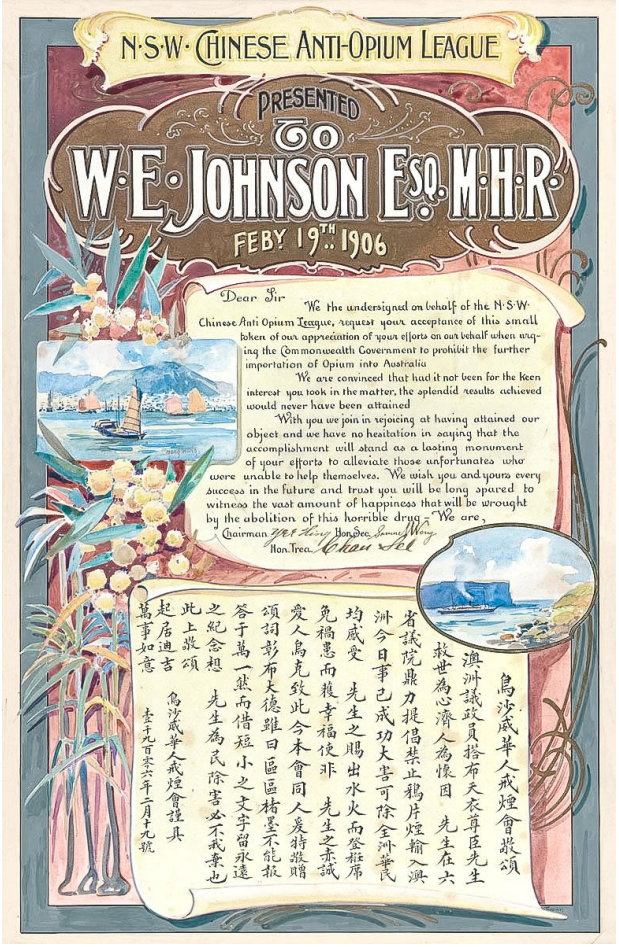
381. Death's Laboratory – vintage medical anti Laudanum art poster



From the left: 382. Photograph by William Warder Cadbury, Canton, of an anti-opium poster with glowing skeleton, c. 1930s.
383. Anti-Opium Visual Propaganda and the Deglamorisation of Opium in China, 1895–1937.

384- 386. Anti-Opium Visual Propaganda and the Deglamorisation of Opium in China, 1895–1937.

From the left: 387. An early Chinese anti-opium poster from 1863. A toad clings to the opium pipe; the exhaled smoke is full of centipedes and the characters underneath the pipe read 'poison yoke'. (Wellcome Library, London).
388. Anti-opium poster, Laos.



From the top: 389. New South Wales (NSW), Chinese anti-opium league.; 390. A game?!

391. An elaborate map of the British Empire in 1886, marked in pink, the traditional colour for imperial British dominions on maps.

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This book unearths the brutal elegance of empire through the lens of one commodity: opium. From the mundane ledgers of East India Company merchants to the scorched harbours of Canton, it traces how narcotic profit fuelled imperial ambition, reshaped global trade, and forged modern statecraft. Through archival images and maps, this visual history reveals the machinery of colonial control—where addiction was policy, and commerce was conquest. A meticulous, haunting journey into the aesthetics of exploitation.

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