Lochac Revisited

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Marco Polo's great work was not, as is sometimes supposed, exclusively an account of his travels but rather, as the title Le Devisement dou Monde straightforwardly implies, a description of the territories of the known world1. Although the separate descriptions of individual places and realms are strung along the thread of the celebrated journey to China and amplified by travels in the interior of that country, the book as a whole constitutes a systematic treatise of topographical description rather than an itinerary, and includes accounts of numerous cities, kingdoms, and events of which Marco had no personal experience, This means that the Devisement is an unreliable guide to the Polan journeys, a state of affairs which in turn exacerbates the already severe difficulties involved in the identification of the place-names mentioned in this unique account of medieval Asia. In his efforts to locate these toponyms the Polan scholar, deprived of the guidance and support afforded by the ordered sequence of a detailed and coherent itinerary, has to rely on phonetic correspondences and such incidental and sometimes unrepresentative — evidence as the text provides.

One place-name which has occasioned a good deal of speculation occurs in the Devisement, in its most reliable reading, as Lochac, and is applied to a grant e riches [sic] "province" somewhere in western South-East Asia. The relevant passage as it appears in the fullest and, generally speaking, the most reliable of all extant manuscripts is as follows:

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CI DEVISE DE L'ISLE DE SONDUR ET DE CELLE DE CONDUR.

Et quant l'en se part de ceste ysle de iaua et il naje entre midi et garbin DCC milles, adonc treuve l'en deus ysles, une grant et une mendre que s'apellent [le une] Sondur et l'autre Condur.

E de cestes ysles se part l'en, et ala por sceloc entor de D milles; et adonc treuvo l'en une provence que est apellé Locac que mout est grant e riches. Il hi a un grant roi et sunt ydres et ont langajes por elz. Il ne iont treu a nelui, por ce que il sunt en tel leu que nul puet aler sor lor tere por maufer. Car, se il i se peust aler, le grant kan le soumeteroit tost sot sa segnorie. En ceste provence naist le be[r]çi domesce en grandisime quantité. Il ont or en grant abondance, si grant que nulz le peust croir qui ne le veist. Il ont leolant e chacejonz e venajonz asez. Et de ceste reigne vont toutes les porcelaine que s'espenent en toutes provences, com jeo vos ai contés. Autre couse ne i a que a mentovoir face, for que je vos di qu'il est si sauvajes leu que pou jens hi vont. Et le roi mesme ne velt que aucun hi aille, ne [que] nul saiche son tresor ne sa condision. Or adonc nos partiron de ci et vos conteron avant d'autre couse.

CI DEVISE DE L'ISLE DE PENTAIN.

Or sachiés que quant l'en se part de Locac, et il ala D milies por midi, adonc treuve l'en une isle que est apellé Pentan, que mout est sauvajus leu².

A. C. Moule's translation of this passage, with additions from a selected number of other good representative recensions incorporated in italics, is as follows³:

HERE HE TELLS OF THE ISLAND OF SONDUR AND OF THOSE OF CONDUR.

And when one departs from this great^a island of Java and he sails between midday and the south-west wind 700 miles, then one finds these^a two islands, one large and one smaller, which are called the one^a Sondur and the other Condur, which islands are uninhabited, and so let it be passed over about them^b. And then^a from these two^a islands one sets out because there is nothing which does to mention^a, and goes again still sailing about ^a 500 miles by the sirocco, and then one finds a province which is on the firm land ^b, which is called Lochac, which is very

Moule and Pelliot, Marco Polo. The description of the world, vol. 1, pp. 369-370.

^{*} From Benedetto's transcription of a text written in the first half of the fourteenth century and now MS. Irançais 1116 in the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris [Marco Polo. Il Milione, pp. 169—170]. This text, now known as the F version, is the longest of all extant manuscripts and retains a good deal of the Gallicized Italian language in which the narrative was probably first recorded. It has also commonly been styled the Geographic Text since it was printed literatim by the Société de Géographie of Paris as volume 1 of Recueil de Voyages et de Mémoires (Paris, 1824). The most compendious statement of the filiation of the more than 150 extant recensions of Polo's text is that of Benedetto [loc. cit., pp. xi-cxxxi], but there are many valuable collations in the Introduction and tables which accompany Moule's variorum edition of the text in English translation: Marco Polo. The description of the world, vol. 1.

great and rich. And in that provinces there is a great king, and the people of ith they are idolaters and have a language for themselves. Andb they pay tribute to none but to their own kinge, because it is very stronge and they are in such a strange and out of the way" place that none in the world in any waya can go upon their land to do thema anyb harm. For if he could go there in any way whatever the great Kaan would very gladly and verya soon put them under his rule. For he has very often put himself to trouble and all the others with him to know how he could overcome them; but he could never do anything. And you may know that a in this province the cultivated brazil grows in very great quantities, which are like lemons and are very goodd to eate, and also much musk and ebonyf. They have gold in verya great abundance, anda so great profusiona that none could believe it who did not see it. They have elephants, and chase and hunting enough. And from this kingdom go all the cowries which are spent in all the otherb provinces of the worlda as I have told you before a. There is no other thing that is worthy of mention, except onlyb that I tell you that it is so strong and out of the way and mountainous andb wild a place that few people go there, and they can go there with difficultyg. And the king himself does not wish that any may go there nor thats any may know his treasure nor his condition. Now then we will depart from telling you of this and will tell you onwards of another thing.

HERE HE TELLS OF THE ISLAND OF PENTAN.

Now you may know again that when one sets out from the province of Lochac and he goes sailing five hundred miles by midday then one finds an island full of mountains h which is called Pentan which is in^h a very wild place...

- (a) MS. 264 in the Bodleian Library, Oxford (FB). This is a translation into Court French made in about A. D. 1400.
- (b) The Zelada Codex (Z), a Latin translation of c. 1470 of a Romance text which is clearly superior to any of the others which have survived. It is now in the Biblioteca Catedral (MS. 49,20) at Toledo and is fully described by Moule in vol. 1 of the work cited in footnote 1.
- (c) MS. Reg. 14. C. xiii in the British Museum (P). This is a fourteenthcentury version of Fra Francesco Pipino's popular Latin translation, itself based on a Venetian recension.
- (d) Bibl. Casanatense, MS. 3999, a Venetian rendering of the F version made early in the fourteenth century (VA).
- (e) An Italian version printed in vol. 2 of Giovanni-Battista Ramusio's Nauigationi et Viaggi of 1559 (R). Benedetto has shown that this text, of which there is no MS version, is based on the P recension.
- (f) MS. Donà delle Rose, 224, Museo Correr, Venice (VB), another Venetian rendering, dated 1446.

- (g) 336 NB 5, Bibl. Pub., Ferrara (L), a Latin compendium compiled early in the fifteenth century.
- (h) C. 32. m. 4 in the British Museum (S). This is a Spanish version, printed at Seville in 1503, of a Venetian recension of 1493 (VL^1) .

The precise significance to be attached to this passage will depend to a large extent on the view taken of the structure of Polo's text at this stage of his narrative. From $Zait\bar{u}n$ (= $Ch'\bar{u}an\text{-}chou^{[1]}$ 4) southwards as far as Ciamba (= $Camp\bar{a}^5$) it is evident that the topographical description is following the supposed sequence of Polo's homeward voyage, but from that point onwards such a contention is difficult to sustain. Immediately following the account of Ciamba is the statement that,

BENEDETTO, Il Milione, p. 169.

⁴ caiton et al. in F, caytun, zaytun, et al. in Z. The identification with Ch'uan-Chou was first proposed by the Jesuit scholar Martino Martini in his Novus Atlas Sinensis (sub "Civencheu"), printed at Amsterdam in 1656. It was subsequently given other than circumstantial substance by J. H. KLAPROTH, who recognized in Zaitūn a transcription of *ts'ie-d'ung |2| (MSC = tz'ŭ-t'ung), a term by which the city was popularly known after trees of that name (probably here to be understood as Acanthropanax riciniiolium, though some have thought Erythrina Indica) had been planted round its walls in about the middle of the Five Dynasties: vide "Renseignemens (sic) sur les ports de Gampou et de Zaithoum décrits par Marco Polo", Journal Asiatique vol 5 (1824), pp. 41-44; also "Description de la Chine sous le règne de la dynastie mongole, traduite du persan et accompagnée de notes", Journal Asiatique, vol. 11. (1833), p. 342. This conclusion has been contested on several occasions, both on general historical grounds (including alleged limitations of the harbourage facilities at Ch'uan-Chou) and because of the obvious imperfection of the transcription, *ts'ied'ung implying a *situn (possibly *sidun if the transcription were pre-tenth century) rather than zailun. However, after an exhaustive review of the whole problem Paul Pellior could only conclude that, despite the apparent inexactness of the transcription, the arguments were overwhelmingly in favour of Ch'uan-Chou [Notes on Marco Polo, vol. 1, pp. 583-597].

⁵ cinba (erroneously) in F, camba in Z, ziamba/ziambi in R. The Cham port-of-call for ships making the southward passage in Polo's time was on the site of present-day Quinhon, then known to the Chinese as Hsin Chou [3]. The precise date of Polo's presumed visit on his homeward voyage is uncertain. Aldo Ricci [Travels of Marco Polo, with introduction and index by Sir E. Denison Ross (George Routledge & Sons, Ltd., London, 1931)] and Benedetto [Il Libro di Messer Marco Polo, cittadino di Venezia detto Milione dove si raccontano Le Meraviglie del Mondo (Milano and Roma, 1932)] adopted the year 1285, Sir Henry Yule favoured 1288 [The Book of Ser Marco Polo the Venetian concerning the kingdoms and marvels of the East, 2 vols. (First edition, John Murray, London 1871). Citations in this paper are to the third edition, revised by Henri Cordier in 1903, and to a third volume compiled by CORDIER in 1920: Notes and addenda to Sir Henry Yule's edition of Ser Marco Polo], and more recently Pelijor has argued for a still later date, possibly 1290 [op. cit., vol. 1, p. 225], that is early in the reign of Jaya Sinhavarman III (1288—1307).

^{1.} 泉州 2. 刺桐 3. 新州、洲

After a eulogistic description of that island there follows the passage relating to Sondur, Condur, and Lochac which is quoted above, including the mention of Pentan some D milles (500 miles) to the southward. Clearly this series of passages can be held to constitute consecutively arranged stages in a voyage through the waters of South-East Asia only by postulating either egregious and repeated errors in direction, distance, sequence, and toponymic transcription of a magnitude and consistency found nowhere else in Polo's narrative, or — as some early Western cartographers did — the existence of land in the ocean to the south of Java? Neither of these alternatives is acceptable, so that today there is no realistic alternative to the view that this section of the text is a schedule of topographical descriptions of places which Marco Polo had either visited or heard about, mainly, but not exclusively, during his homeward voyage.

Ciamba is identified beyond all reasonable doubt, and the same might have been said of jaua had not Professor Benedetto lent his authority to a location in Kalimantan (still known to the Western world as Borneo when he was writing) h. However, this scholar was unduly influenced by a preposterous theory of Chargenon who supposed that Qubilai's campaign of 1292/3 was directed against a Chao-wa [4] (= Java) in south-eastern Indo-

T. Cf., int. al., Linschoten's printed world map of Petrus Plancius of 1592 with its rubric Lucach regnum attached to a landmass far to the south of lava Maior. Linschoten's printed map of eastern Asia (1596) preserved both the general concept of a Terra Australis and its presumed Polan toponymy, though on this occasion the cartographer had adopted a corrupt reading which stemmed ultimately from the Basle edition of 1532, namely Beach < Boeach < Locach. On a map of "Meridional India" included in Emanuel Godinho de Eredia's Declaraçam de Malaca e India Meridional com o Cathay (Goa, 1613), between folios 51 and 53, the cartographer incorporated three versions of this name: Lucac, Lucaveac, and Beach. In this he was probably influenced by one of the maps of either the Mercators or Ortelius, where Lucach and Beach also occur in combination.

^{**}It must be admitted, though, that this is not the view of Dr Colin Jack-Hinton, the latest author to attempt a reconstruction of Polo's South-East Asian toponymy, who has undertaken what in my opinion is the impossible task of trying to combine Marco's topographical descriptions into a coherent itinerary: "Marco Polo in South-East Asia. A preliminary essay in reconstruction", Journal Joil Southeast Asian History, vol. 5, no. 2 (1964), pp. 43—103. His view of the text as a consecutive sequence of voyages is explicit, when he writes in Note 4 on p. 49 of this paper, "To accept the direction as south-east is to identify Lochac with some kingdom in Borneo, and . . . it is unlikely that Polo would have wandered from what we know to have been the main maritime trade route between the Straits of Malacca and the China Sea. To accept the reading south-east as correct is to involve a whole sequence of later corrections in order to reconcile Polo's route with the topography of the area". And again on p. 82: " . . . if Lochac is sought in Borneo, then at least one succeeding direction and relative distance would have to be subjected to 'a deliberate distortion' in order to make any continued sense out of the itinerary".

[&]quot;This is the reading of F and of several derivative recensions. Z has caua; R and VL [Biblioteca Governativa, Lucca, MS. 296, a Venetian text of 1465] read giaua. Other orthographies include yaua, yana, zaua, jana, iauua, and the obvious mislection jajia, but I have not been able to find the Ciaua which Colin Jack-Hinton attributes to Z ["Marco Polo in South-East Asia", p. 80].

¹⁰ BENEDETTO, Il Libro di Messer Marco Polo, p. 443.

^{4.} 爪瓦

china 11. Pellior 12 has cogently refuted Benedetto's arguments, which hinge specifically on the relationship of Java to Java la menor (= Sumatra) 18 and which in any case appear to incorporate a misreading of the text14; and JACK-HINTON'S subsequent suggestion that Polo's notion of Java may have been influenced by confusion with the Bornean toponym "Sabah" is not supported by an appropriate orthography in any extant recension 15. There is, in fact, no reason to doubt that by "Java" Polo meant precisely what contemporary Chinese, Javanese, Malay, Arab, and Persian writers meant by the same word, namely the island of that name, and this conclusion is reinforced by the essential congruence of his description of the island with those in the literatures mentioned. The alleged distance of 1500 Venetian miles from Campa to Java is not wildly unrealistic given the manner in which nautical distances were calculated in the thirteenth century, and a direction of south-south-east not unduly inaccurate if Polo was attempting to indicate the relative positions of Quinhon and the heartland of the empire of Singhasāri in the Brantas valley of eastern Java. In any case there is no reason to suppose that he visited any part of Java, and most modern commentators since Sir Henry Yule 16 have concluded that this section of his book was a digression, a point of view with which I am in entire agreement 17. Such digressions are extremely common in the work but, because they are masked by a uniformity of style, can often be distinguished only inferentially. Perhaps the most ambitious series of such passages is that in which Marco described the countries of the East African littoral, Arabia, Abyssinia, and Socotra, in none of which had he ever set foot. Nor, despite the lengthy descriptions included in his narrative, did he visit Baghdad or Mosul, or for that matter the Burmese capital of Pagan, whose gold- and silver-plated temple spires he described with evident enthusiasm. Nor, indeed, is it always

12 Pelliot, Notes on Marco Polo, vol. 2, pp. 755-756.

BENEDETTO [ibid.] pointed out that Java was not located to the south-east la scirocco] of Campā (but neither is Kalimantan): the text actually reads entre midi et sceloc, that is "between south and south-east" (but cf. Z: inter leuantem & syrocum).

16 YULE, The Book of Ser Marco Polo, vol. 2, p. 274.

¹¹ A. J. H. CHARIGNON, Le Livre de Marco Polo, vol. 3 (Albert Nachbauer, Pékin, 1926), pp. 150—157.

One of Benepetro's reasons [Il Libro, p. 443, sub Giava, la Grande] for rejecting the equivalence jaua = Java was that the island of that name is not situated to the north-east of Java la menor (= Sumatra). The text nowhere provides an explicit statement of this relationship so that it is to be presumed that Benepetro arrived at this conclusion as a result of his emendations of the Polan directions and distances; but I have been unable to discover precisely how he manipulated them. Benepetro's concern that Sumatra (Java la menor) was in fact areally more extensive than Java can be discounted, as the notion that the island reached far to the southward was common to both Arabs and Chinese as a result of their failure to circumnavigate it (cp. also Footnote 7).

JACK-HINTON, op. cit., p. 80. William MARSDEN had made much the same suggestion in 1818, though without adducing the presumed orthographical influence of Sabah: vide The travels of Marco Polo (London, 1818). Re-edited by Thomas Wright (Everyman's Library: J. M. Dent & Sons, Ltd., London, 1908 and E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1907), pp. xv and 334, note 1.

¹⁷ Ricci and Ross alone among recent authors include Java in Marco's homeward itinerary [The travels of Marco Polo, p. viii], although Yule thought that the traveller might have visited Java on a former occasion: ibid.

certain which towns in China Polo visited or if he actually saw with his own eyes Qara-qorum, the first capital of the Mongol empire. Similarly the topographical descriptions associated with his homeward voyage can be combined into a coherent itinerary only if the description of Java is regarded as an excursus dealing with an important country which he heard about but did not visit.

It follows from this interpretation that Polo resumed his narrative from Campā, and that iaua in the first sentence of the above paragraph should be emended to read ciamba. It is to be presumed that the text was originally corrupted by early copyists, possibly by Rustichello himself, who were attempting to disentangle from a series of topographical descriptions what they believed to have been the thread of an originally continuous itinerary. From this point of view the ensuing voyage of seven hundred miles in a south-south-westerly direction is wholly consonant with the communis opinio which, despite an anomaly in the distance involved, equates Sondur et Condur with the Kundur Islands 18. However, at this juncture a second

¹⁸ sondur in F, L, VL, Z, and R; sandur in FA (MS. 5631 of the Bibliotheque Nationale in Paris: a French text of the fourteenth century) and FB; sendor in VA; sandii in VB; cenduz in P; sondus in LT [MS. lat. 3195 in the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris: a Latin text of the fourteenth century]. condur in F, FA, FB, L, VA, VL, Z, R, and TA1 [the celebrated Crusca Text, MS. II. iv. 88 in the Bibl. Nazionale at Florence, dated to about 13051; condior in VB; condus in LT; conduz in P. Other aberrant readings include aira, chodur, and chondur, Although the identification with the Kundur Islands is beyond question, the rationale of Polo's nomenclature is still in doubt. Clearly condur = [Pulau] Kundur (Malay = Gourd [Island]: cp. Khmer Koh Tralach (with the same meaning) and Con-non, the Viet vocalization of the characters pronounced in Modern Standard Chinese as K'un-lun, the transcription applied in the Wu-pei-chih [5] charts (offered to the Throne in 1628 but deriving ultimately from early in the fifteenth century) precisely to Pulau Kundur [chüan 240, folio 13 verso]. Wang Ta-yüan, in his Tao-i Chih-lüeh 🕅 of 1349, also uses the transcription K'un-lun but adds, under the influence of Chinese mythology, the alternative form $Ch\ddot{u}n \cdot l'un \cdot l'$, a corruption of $Hun-lun \cdot l'$ $Hun-lun \cdot l'$ with the primary meaning of "chaos", but also the name of a legendary animal alleged to have inhabited the slopes of the K'un-lun mountains in Central Asia. So much for Condur. But what of Sondur? YULE [The Book of Ser Marco Polo, vol. 2, p. 277] is surely correct in relating this name to the Sundur-Iūlāt (= Sundur-Pulau) of early Arab authors [e. g. 'Akhbar as-Sin wa'l-Hind, Ibn al-Faqih, Al-Idrisi, Ibn Sa'id, Al-Dimashqi, all easily accessible in Gabriel Ferrand, Relations de voyages et textes géographiques arabes, persans et turks relatifs à l'Extrême-Orient du VIIIe au XVIIIe siècle, 2 vols. (Ernest Leroux, Paris, 1913-1914): Pelliot (Notes, vol. 1, p. 406) has cited other instances of Malay and Indonesian toponyms in which, despite the normal syntactical construction, pulau (= island) has been transferred to the end of a compound]. But all Arabic writers place Sundur-Iūlāt AFTER Campā on the sea route from the Middle East to China, that is to the northward of Quinhon, so that it cannot have been one of the islands making up the Kundur archipelago. Pellior (loc. cit.) eventually concluded that it was Culao Cham, a small island to the south-east of Da Nang. However, Polo sailed in a generally southerly direction from Quinhon to Sondur, so that he associated the name with the Kundur group.

^{5.} 武備志 6. 汪大淵, 島夷誌略 7. 軍屯 8. 渾屯

^{9.} 渾沌

digression is introduced, this time in the form of an account of the kingdom of Lochac ¹⁸, which lay five hundred miles por sceloc [= sirocco], that is in a south-easterly direction. The grounds for postulating a digression here are perhaps less conclusive than in the case of Java but, in my opinion, provide the most realistic interpretation of an ambivalent section of the text. This was also the view expressed by Professor Paul Pelliot in what is still the most thorough discussion of the Lochac problem undertaken so far ²⁰.

The reconstruction of the original toponym which Polo (or rather Rustichello) transcribed as Lochac, as well as its location, have already occasioned considerable discussion. As early as 1886 George Phillips had equated it with the *Lâ-jjwvt [12] (MSC = Lo-yüeh) = [Se]luyut at the southern extremity of the Malay Peninsula 21, and this idea had not been entirely abandoned by N. M. Penzer in 1929, though he erroneously identified *Lâ-jjwvt with the whole of the Peninsula 22. In 1897 Tomaschek had suggested that Polo's transcription Lochac had concealed a nasalized vowel and represented a form nearer to Lõchac < *Lonšak, which in turn he regarded as a contraction of Langkasuka, the name of a kingdom with a long history situated in the neighbourhood of Pattani on the Malay Peninsula 23. There are several

Pellior cites certain ancient Việt and Chinese texts which tend to imply that the Chinese first applied their legendary name K'un-lun to Cůlao Cham but subsequently transferred it southwards to Pulau Kundur. It is certainly true that the Chinese referred to Kundur as 'Kundurung (Chûn-tu-lung [10]: cp. Arabic Kundurunj) as late as the eighth century, but not in later times. Possibly the name Sundur also migrated southwards and had by Polo's time also become associated with the Kundur archipelago. Pellior (loc. cit.) suggested that it might have been a vague memory of Sundur as an old name for Cůlao Cham which caused Polo to describe it as the larger of the two islands. On the other hand the contrast in present-day nomenclature between Grand Condore and Petite Condore (K'un-lun Shan and Hsiao K'un-lun [11] on the Wu-pei-chih chart), both in the Kundur archipelago, should not be forgotten. None of this is entirely satisfactory but it does nothing to vitiate the patent fact that by Condur Polo intended to refer to the Kundur archipelago.

¹⁹ lochac is the reading of the F, Z, L, and R recensions, lochach of P and V, and locheac of LT. locac occurs in F and TA¹, and lothac as a mislection in Z. Other corrupt orthographies in less reputable texts include alcay, chacho, locach, jocath, leochar, leocharde, loear, soncal, tac, and thac. Needless to say, these latter

aberrations may be disregarded in the following discussion.

Notes on Marco Polo, vol. 2, pp. 766—770.

²¹ George Phillips, "The seaports of India and Ceylon", Journal of the China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, vol. 21 (1886), p. 34, note. The identification of *Lâ-jjwnt with Seluyut was first proposed by J. L. Moens, "Srīvijaya, Yāva en Katāha", Tijdschrift voor Indische Taal-, Land- en Volkenkunde, vol. 77, pt. 3 (1937), p. 337.

N. M. Penzen (ed.), The most noble and famous travels of Marco Polo together with the travels of Nicolò de' Conti. Edited from the Elizabethan translation of John

Frampton (The Argonaut Press, London, 1929), p. Ivii.

W. Tomaschek in M. Bittner, Die topographischen Capitel des Indischen Seespiegels Mohît (Wien, 1897). Subsequently Gabriel Ferrand added the weight of his authority to this identification ["Malaka, Le Malâyu et Malâyur", Journal Asiatique, 11th. series, vol. 12 (1918), pp. 139—140]. The most recent evaluation of the evidence relating to Langkasuka is by Wheatley, "Langkasuka", Toung Pao, vol. 44 (1956), pp. 387—412.

^{10.} 軍徒弄 11. 小崑崙 12. 羅越

arguments that could be adduced in refutation of this identification, but the most fundamental is the fallacy that a Polan -ch- has the value of a -š-. Nor, we may add, would *Lonšak be a likely — or even a possible — contraction of Langkasuka. Rouffaer introduced an even less tenable variation into the argument when he derived Lochac from Lankā < Langkasuka, which he took to be a name for the whole of the southern or Malay half of the Peninsula *1. Another interpretation which has gained some currency was first put forward by Gerin, who identified Lochac with the ethnikon *Lā-ts'at [13] (MSC = Lo-ch'a) 25. Subsequently this idea was elaborated by Charignon 26, and finally adopted by Benedetto who argued for a specific location in the vicinity of Trengganu 27. However, *Lâ-ts'at was the normal Chinese transcription of Sanskrit $r\bar{a}k\bar{s}asa =$ "demon", and was applied in the seventh century A. D. to the primitive peoples of eastern Indonesia 28, possibly under the influence of a misconstrued Buddhist legend that originally related to Pāṭa-liputra 29.

There have been other attempts to resolve the problem of Lochac but only one need concern us here. This was the suggestion by Sir Henry Yule that

²⁵ G. E. Gerini, Researches on Ptolemy's geography of Eastern Asia (Further India and Indo-Malay Archipelago) (The Royal Asiatic Society and the Royal Geographical Society, London, 1909), pp. 496—497.

²⁶ Charlonon, Le livre de Marco Polo, vol. 3, pp. 160—162. ²⁷ Benedetto, Il libro di Messer Marco Polo, p. 444.

Whereas in the $Tsa\ p'i-y\ddot{u}$ ching 15 , which was translated into Chinese in about A. D. 180, * $l\ddot{a}$ -ls'at demons are mentioned in connexion with the kingdom of * $Pu\ddot{a}$ - $l\ddot{b}$

somewhat hesitantly by Pelliot, Notes on Marco Polo, vol. 2, p. 767.

13. 羅刹

14. 常駿

15. 雑譬喻經

16. 波利弗

17. 婆利

²⁴ G. P. ROUFFAER, "Was Malaka emporium vóór 1400 A. D. genaamd Malajoer? En waar lag Woerawari, Mā-hasin, Langka, Batoesawar"? Bijdragen tot de Toal-, Land- en Volkenkunde van Nederlandsch-Indië, vol. 77 (1921), p. 143.

³⁸ Vide O. W. Wolters, Early Indonesian commerce (Cornell University Press, Ithaca, New-York, 1967), pp. 198-200. The term rākṣasa was applied to those folk societies of eastern Indonesia unaffected by the diffusion of Indian culture by the Chinese envoy Ch'ang Chün [14] who travelled in South-East Asia between A. D. 607 and 610. His report is incorporated in the Sui-shu, chüan 82, ff. 3 recto — 5 verso; in the Pei shih, chuan 95, ff. 11 verso — 14 recto; the T'ai-p'ing yu-lan, chuan 787, ff. 1 verso — 3 recto; and in the Wen-hsien t'ung-k'ao, chüan 331, ff. 2602—3. There is also a mutilated reference to the "La-Is'at, which evidently derives from the same source, in the T'ang hui-yao, chuan 99, 1769. Sundry other brief mentions of this name in Chinese histories and topographies relating to ancient times all stem from Ch'ang Chun's report, but in the seventeenth century the name was revived as a term of opprobrium for the Russians of Albazin: cf. Pellior, review of Corden's "Histoire des relations de la Chine avec les puissances occidentales" in Bulletin de l'Ecole Française d'Extrême-Orient, vol. 3 (1903), p. 686, and Lo-shu Fu, A documentary chronicle of Sino-Western relations (1644-1820). Monograph No. XXII of the Association for Asian Studies (University of Arizona Press, Tucson, 1966), passim.

the Polan orthography was Rustichello's transcription of Marco's vocalization of an aphetic contraction of [Hsien-]lo [18] combined with a South Chinese version of the word for "kingdom", probably in its Cantonese form of kwok |19|30. Lo itself was an abbreviation of Lo-hu |20| (Ancient Chinese *Lâ-yuk), the form into which Chinese authors customarily transcribed the name of the Mon-Khmer state of Lvo, situated in what is today Central Thailand. After this state had been overrun by the Hsien [21] (= Thai) from the northward in 1349 its subordinate status was indicated in Chinese annals by the prefixing of the ethnikon Hsien. Hence the form Hsien Lo-hu, which was soon abbreviated by apocope of the last syllable to Hsien-lo. Yule's thesis was that Lochac = lo (Ancient Chinese *la) combined with kwok, that is "the kingdom of "Lal-yukl". Yule also seemed to think that the syllable lo had an independent existence as the word which is now transcribed as Lao. In this form Yule's theory has not proved tenable. In the first place the Thai did not incorporate Lvo in their polity until 1349, so that Polo could not have heard the form Hsien Lo-hu. Secondly, only very rarely did Polo employ the termination kuo in reporting place-names outside the purely Chinese culture realm, and when, as in the case of Cipingu (< Jih-pen Kuo = Kingdom of Japan) and Caugigu (< Chiao-chih Kuo: an ancient Chinese name for Tong-King), he does use this form it is always as -qu, never as -chac. Moreover. the identification of Lochac with the state of Lvo committed Yule to a location in Thailand, which was totally inconsistent with Polo's direction of "500 miles by the sirocco" from the Kundur Islands. In an attempt to minimize this inconsistency, Yule sought a precise location in what was probably the southernmost territory of Lvo in the thirteenth century, namely the neighbourhood of Ligor 31. Even so this meant that he had to postulate a gross error - approximately south-west (garbin or aufriques) instead of south-east - either in Marco's recollection or in the transmission of the text. Nevertheless, although Yule's thesis cannot be sustained in all its ramifications, its central idea was retained by Pelliot as the basis of a more sophisticated argument.

Pelliot, influenced by his intimate acquaintance with the literatures of South and East Asia, based his identification of *Lochac* primarily on etymological arguments ³². Taking up the theory of Sir Henry Yule mentioned above, he elaborated in considerable detail the phonetic equivalence of *Lochac* and

30 YULE, The Book of Ser Marco Polo, vol. 2, pp. 277-279.

32 Cf. Note 20 above.

PHILLIPS ["The seaports of India and Ceylon", p. 34] and Gerini [Researches into Ptolemy's geography, p. 497] had already contemplated this possibility on what subsequently proved to be spurious phonetic grounds: Nāgara [Śrī Dharmarāja] > Lakhon > Ligor > Lochac.

*Lå- γuk , this latter being a Chinese transcription of Lavo, the ancient Thai rendering of the name of the old Mōn-Khmer kingdom of Lvo (cf. Pāli = Laba[pura]) with its capital on the site of present-day Lopburī. There are two main objections to this interpretation, which Pelliot attempted to counter in an ingenious series of arguments. In the first place the phonetic equivalence is imperfect with regard to the final velar plosives of both Lochac and the reconstructed Chinese morpheme γuk [22], so that Pelliot was forced to postulate an earlier Thai form *Lavok. This expedient in fact could be held to receive somewhat unexpected support from several Arabic texts which employ the epithet $law\bar{a}q\bar{\imath}$, presumably derived from a toponym closely akin to *Lavok*, to denote a particular type of gaharuwood ²³. One of these texts, the Kitāb al-Buldān of Ya'qūbī, dates from as early as 891.

In the second place the equation Lochac = *Lâ-yuk holds only for pre-Sung, or at best early Sung, times. By the thirteenth century the latter word had acquired in North Chinese speech more or less its Modern Standard Chinese pronunciation of Lo-hu, so that Pelliot perforce had to bolster his interpretation with two additional conjectures; (i) that the Chinese had adopted the transcription *Lâ-yuk during an earlier period in the evolution of their language than that in which it is first attested by extant texts; and (ii) that Polo had modelled his pronunciation of Lochac on a South Chinese vocalization which had preserved the ancient sound into the thirteenth century. Neither of these suppositions is inherently unreasonable and the second is somewhat strengthened by a reference in the Buddhist chronicle Fo-tsu li-tai t'ung-tsai [23] 84 of 1333-1344 to a kingdom known by, in MSC form, the name of Lo-hao [24], whither the Sung pretender had escaped by way of Campā in 1278. In some South Chinese speech Lo-hao would have sounded something like *Lok-hok, and it is Pelliot's contention that the Buddhist chronicler was drawing on "a contemporary document of southern origin" for information about the same place as that which Marco Polo knew under the name Lochac 35. The form Lok-hok is certainly very close to Lochac if, as indeed invariably happens, Rustichello's -ch- (or -c-) has the value of a velar plosive before an -a.

On phonetic grounds, then, Pelliot has made a reasonable case for equating Lochac with the Mon-Khmer kingdom of Lvo, but there is a serious impedi-

⁵³ E. g., Ya'qūbī, Ibn al-Baytār, and Abū'l-Fazl, all conveniently accessible in Gabriel Ferrand, Relations de voyages et textes géographiques arabes, persans et turks relatifs à l'Extrême-Orient du VIIIe au XVIIIe siècles traduits, revus et annotés, vol. 1 (Ernest Leroux, París, 1913), pp. 52 and 285, vol. 2 (1914), p. 547.
³⁴ Trípitaka of Meiji, Tökyö edition, Chi, XXXII, f. 41 verso.

³⁵ It is also possible that it was the same state which appeared in Viét annals (in Sinicized form) as *Luo-yak (Lu-ho)|²³]. In 1149 it sought permission to trade at the mouth of the Red River [Vide Pelliot, Notes, vol. 2, p. 768].

ment to a too ready acceptance of this identification. Not even Pelliot's ingenuity could explain away Polo's direction of south-east from Pulau Kundur: "it is a mistake", he said, "whatever solution one may adopt for Lochac'". In fact Lvo lay almost precisely in the opposite direction, in the Venetian seamen's terminology por maistre or "by the plough-beam", that is to the north-west. While directions are frequently recorded inaccurately in Polo's text as it has been transmitted to us, there are few, if any, instances which involve an error of 180°. And such an error was not all that likely to have slipped in as a result of careless copying, for the Polan terms for north-west and south-east, unlike the conventional European abbreviations, have nothing in common from the point of view of graphics. It would be much more probable that a conscientious editor had deliberately altered the direction in an attempt to render Polo's topographical descriptions in the form of a continuing itinerary.

There is, however, one way in which the difficulty of this apparently anomalous direction might be resolved without recourse to textual emendation. A voyage of 500 miles in a roughly south-easterly direction from Pulau Kundur would presuppose a landfall in western Kalimantan, and it was here that just over two centuries later Tomé PIRES was to locate the "island of lane" 36. According to Pires, who was describing Kalimantan (under the rubric Burney < Brunei) from the point of view of a Malakan trader and who consequently approached it by way of the Kampar channel and the island of Lingga. Lane was four days' journey beyond tamJompura (= Tanjungpura), so that Corresão was undoubtedly correct in regarding the version of the name in the extant text as a transcriber's mistake for Laue, a toponym which early Western chroniclers and cartographers located, under divers orthographies and with varying degrees of accuracy, in western Kalimantan. Antonio PIGAFETTA, for example, placed "a large city named Laoë . . . at the end of (in capo de) this island [Kalimantan] toward Java Major" 37, João de Barros 38 and Fernão Lopes de Castanheda 39 in the sixteenth century mentioned a town whose name they wrote respectively as Lave and Laue among the principal trading ports of Borneo (Kalimantan). At some time between 1597 and the end of 1600 Godinho DE EREDIA cited the Sukadana and Laue as "two abundant Rivers in the Southern country of Borneo, wherein

37 Premier voyage autour du monde par le Chevr. Pigaletta, sur l'escadre de Magellan, pendant les années 1519, 20, 21 et 22. Transl, from the Italian by Charles

AMORETTI (H. J. Jansen, Paris, 1801).

³⁸ Armando Cortesão (ed.), The Suma Oriental of Tomé Pires. Hakluyt Society, Second Series, No. XC (London, 1944), vol. 1, pp. 224—225 and vol. 2, p. 450. Pires regarded Kalimantan as made up of a number of islands: cf. Burney sam mujtas Jlhas grandes & pequenas [loc, cit., vol. 2, p. 461].

João DE BARROS, Asia. Decadas I—IV (Lisboā, 1552, 1553, 1563; Madrid, 1615).
 Fernão Lopes DE CASTANHEDA, Historia do descobrimento & conquista da India pelos Portugueses (Coimbra, 1551—1561 and 1933; The Hague, 1929).

large quantities of Precious Stones are found 40, and in 1608 the Dutch merchant Bloemaer reterred to the settlement of Teyen (present-day Tajan) on the River of Lauwe 41. In the cartographic traditions of the sixteenth century this same name occurs under a variety of forms such as Laue (often misread as Lano or Lane), Lao, Llaue, or Lave 42. The general impression left by the maps of the time is of a port lying close to the equator, and the frequent inclusion of some such phrase as döde foi dom manoell de lima 43 must be

** Emanuel Godinho de Eredia, Informação da Aurea Chersoneso, ou Peninsula, e das Ilhas Aurileras, Carbunculas, e Aromaticas. Translated from the Portuguese, with annotations, by J. V. Mills, "Eredia's description of Malaca, Meridional India, and Cathay", Journal of the Malayan Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, vol. 8, pt.

1 (1930), p. 245.

Begin ende Voortgang, vol. I (1646), 15th Voyage (Verhoeven), pp. 98-107. 42 E. g., int. al., laue or lane on an anonymous manuscript thart of the East Indies, c. 1545 (the Penrose Map); lano on the manuscript world charts of Pierre Descellers, 1546, 1550 and 1553; la[u]e on Lopo Homem's world map of 1554 and on Diego Homem's manuscript charts of southern and eastern Asia, 1558 and 1568; Haue on Fernão Vaz Dourado's manuscript charts of eastern and south-east Asia of c. 1568 and 1580 respectively; Iao on Giacomo Gastaldi's printed map of southern Asia of 1561, on Gerard Mercator's world chart of 1569, and on Abraham Ortelius's printed map of Asia of 1570; lave on Arnoldus Langeren's delineation of Jan van Linschoten's material printed in 1596, on a reproduction of the Kalimantan section of this map in the Caert-thresoor of 1598, and on Bartolomeu Lasso's manuscript chart of southern Asia of 1590; Laue on Willem Lodewycksz's printed map of the East Indies of 1598. It is probably this same name which occurs as Laban on Pedro Berthelot's map of Borneo, dated to 1635, and as late as 1727 Alexander Hamilton inscribed Lava to the south of Sukadana [map reproduced in Mansel Longworth Dames, The Book of Duarte Barbosa, vol. 2 (Hakluyt Society, London, 1921), p. 207). There is no basis for the indentification by Andrea DA Mosto [II primo viaggio intorno al globo di Antonio Pigaietta (1894) and subsequent writers of Laue with Laut Bumbu off the south-east coast of Kalimantan. Professor Jan O. M. Broek ["Place names in 16th and 17th century Borneo", Imago Mundi, vol. 16 (1962), p. 135] seems disposed to regard as an early mention of this name the form lawai, which was included by Rakawi Prapanca in his Nagara-Kertagama (1365). It is there listed as a dependency of Majapahit, and mentioned in the same stanza as Sampit, Kota-Waringin, Sambas, and kutalinga (the neighbourhood of present-day Kuching) [Theodore G. Th. PIGEAUD, Java in the tourteenth century. A study in cultural history (Koninklijk Instituut voor Taal-, Land- en Volkenkunde Translation Series, IV, vol. 1 (1960), p. 11, vol. 3 (1960), p. 16, and vol. 4 (1962), p. 31]. ROUFFAER and PIGEAUD [both in PIGEAUD, op. cit., vol. 4, p. 31] also associate lawai with PIGAFETTA's Lace, but I doubt if this is a valid equation. Phonetically lawai is more likely to have been a Javanese transcription of Labai, the name of a tributary of the Mendawak river in Western Kalimantan. My own earlier contention [Albert Herrmann, An historical atlas of China. New edition: general editor Norton Ginsburg (Aldine Publishing Company, Chicago, 1966), pp. xxy-xxvi] that the *llouçam* mentioned by Francisco Rodrigues was another Portuguese transcription of the same indigenous toponym must be abandoned. It is, in lact, a transcription of the name which we now know as Luzon. The confusion between Kalimantan and the Philippines which is betrayed by this name is also evident in the remark of Rui DE Brito that, "Borneu is a large island, it lies between China and the Moluccas, in the open sea of the islands; the people of the island are called lucoees (= Luzons) [Cartas, III, 92-93; quoted in Corresão, The Suma Oriental, vol. 1, p. 132, note 1]. That Rodrigues himself was far from clear about the geography of eastern Kalimantan appears from the inscription on one of his maps (folio 36) which labels that island as A gramde Jlha de maquaçer (The great Island of Makasar) [CORTESÃO, op. cit., vol. 1, p. 226, note 1].

43 This is the phrase as it appears in Vaz Dourado's atlases. On Lopo Homem's world map of 1554 it reads, onde toi do manoel de lima; on Linschoten's printed map of eastern Asia (drawn by Langeren) of 1596 and in the Caert-thresoor of 1598 as donde toy Don Manoel: de lima; on Bartolomeu Lasso's manuscript chart of south-

ern Asia of 1590 donde loy do manoell de lima.

held to imply that it was a voyage of D. Manuel DE LIMA which brought this place to the notice of European cartographers. Cortesão notes that, although this particular voyage is apparently not confirmed by extant Portuguese chronicles. Castanheda does mention the presence of D. Manuel in Malaka in 153744, so that there is no reason to doubt the likelihood of his having visited Laue.

Professor Jan Broek, in the course of a thorough examination of the evidence both cartographical and literary relating to the location of Laue, has demonstrated conclusively that the river of that name was the present-day Kapuas 45. The territory of the state presumably occupied the valley of that river, but the precise site of the capital is still a matter of conjecture 40. Nor is the indigenous form of the name known with certainty. There is a strong presumption that it was Malay, in which case an original Lawa or Lawak would suggest itself 47. In fact there is a Lawak river which flows into the Mendawak just below its confluence with the Kapuas. The final -k in the transcription of such names represents a glottal check, and as such was frequently omitted by early European writers whose ears were untuned to the subtleties of Malay speech and who were, by virtue of their callings, unskilled in the niceties of phonetic transcription. There is thus a strong probability that the name of this river, an affluent of the Kapuas - which was itself known to Bloemaert as the River of Lauwe - preserves the old Malay form which earlier authors and cartographers rendered by Laue and related orthographies 48. Moreover, in view of the easy phonetic interchange between -g- [Rustichello's -ch- before -a] and -v- (-w-), Lawak provides an acceptable phonetic equivalent to the Polan Lochac. The correspondence is at least as good as that between Lochac and Pelliot's reconstructed Thai form 'Lavok,

44 Cortesão, Suma Oriental, vol. 1, p. 224, note 1, quoting Castanheda, Historia

do descobrimento, Book IX, p. clxxviii.

47 Cp., for example, Pires's transcription of Somali Barawa as braua (Corresão)

⁴⁵ Broek, "Place names in 16th and 17th century Borneo", pp. 135-137. Cf. also L. C. D. van Dijk, Neerland's vroegste beirekkingen met Borneo ... (Amsterdam, 1862): not seen but cited from Broek, op. cit., p. 135; P. A. Tiele, "De Europeërs in den Maleischen Archipel van 1509 tot 1623", Bijdragen tot de Taal-, Land- en Volkenkunde van Nederlandsch-Indië, 4th series, vols. 1—8, 5th series 1—2 (1877—1888), p. 338; and R. A. Kern, "Lawai, Lawe", Tijdschrift Kon. Ned. Aardr. Gen., 2nd series, vol. 54 (1937), pp. 391-392.

⁴⁶ G. P. ROUFFAER considered that the Kapuas river formerly reached the sea by way of the channels of the present-day Mendawak and Simpang Lida, and he placed Laue at the point where the Mendawak (that is the former Kapuas) was joined by the Labai river. His argument was based primarily on a comparison of the topographical descriptions of BLOEMAERT, who was in Sukadana early in the seventeenth century, with the present-day drainage pattern ["Tochten (Oudste Ontdekkings-) tot 1497", Encyclopaedie van Nederlandsch Oost-Indië, vol. 4 (First edition, 1905), pp. 363-395]. This interpretation also offers an explanation of the reason why, on a printed map of the East Indies of 1598, Willem Lodewijcksz should have referred to Laue "on the river of Succadana" when other authors unequivocally located that city in the Kapuas valley.

The Suma Oriental, vol. 2, p. 333).

48 One implication of this argument is that the lawāqī gaharuwood mentioned above was a product of Kalimantan rather than of Thailand, as is customarily suppos-

and, because it obviates the need to introduce supporting hypotheses based on phonetic change, offers the desideratum of logical parsimony. However, despite this possible attraction, the linguistic argument is by no means conclusive, and we must now turn to such supplementary information as is available in search of more decisive evidence.

The only extant account of Laue which has so far come to light is that penned by Tomé Pires, who probably acquired his information during his residence in Malaka from 1512 to 1515. Armando Cortesão's transcription of the relevant passage runs as follows:

Ylha de lane esta Jlha De laue he quoatro dias he quoatro dias [sic] damdadura alem de tamJompura hee tamanha como a de çima tem pates tem mujta Jemte todos sã Gemtios tratam com Jaõa & com malaq^a he tamto do Jaõa case como de malaq^a tem diamantes tem Juncõs ouro em mais camtidade que tamJompura tem mercadores hee terra De mujtos mamtimentõs he de boa gemte valem nela as mercadarias q̃ sam ditās em cima valem panos quelijs he terra De bõo trato nom hobedeçe a nemgue sam estes homees casy da maneira dos Jaõs Rebustos valemtes homes de suas p^{as} tem mujta çera ⁴⁹

Cortesão translates this account as follows:

Island of Laue This island of Laue is four days' journey beyond Tanjompura. It is as large as the one above [i. e. Tanjompura = Tanjungpura]. It has pates [= Javanese patih]; it has many inhabitants; they are all heathen. They trade with Java und Malacca, and almost as much with Java as with Malacca. They have diamonds; they have junks; gold in greater quantities than Tanjompura; they have merchants. It is a country with many foodstuffs. The people are good. The merchandise mentioned above [chiefly textiles: vide Cortesão, Suma Oriental, vol. 1, p. 224 and vol. 2, p. 450] is of value here; Kling cloth is of value. It is a good trading country. It does not obey anyone. These people are almost like the Javanese, robust, valiant, manly. They have a great deal of wax 50.

When comparing this passage with that relating to Lochac on page 86 it must be remembered that neither Polo nor Pires had visited the particular countries about which they were writing, and that in any case the two travellers were separated in time by something over two centuries. One fact which impressed both writers was the autonomous status of their respective kingdoms. Late in the thirteenth century Polo wrote that, because of their situation remote from the foci of political power in South-East Asia, the people of Lochac ne font treu a nelui, and attributed supreme authority to un grant roi. Two centuries later Pires remarked that Laue nom hobedece a nemgue. Elsewhere in his book, however, he partially contradicted this statement by including Laue among the fifteenth-century conquests of Pate Unus, ruler of

40 Cortesão, Suma Oriental, vol. 2, p. 450.

⁵⁰ CORTESÃO, Suma Oriental, vol. 1, pp. 224-225.

the North Javanese kingdom of Japara. This is, in fact, more consonant with his subsequent vague reference to the existence of patih, a Javanese term denoting high officers of state. Probably the truth lay somewhere between these two statements. Although Laue was nominally subject to Japara, it is likely that Javanese rule did not weigh too heavily on the peoples of the Kapuas valley.

Polo and Pires agree in their statements that, despite their remote situations, Lochac and Laue both contributed valuable commodities to the stream of South-East Asian trade, but their respective schedules have only a single item in common. That is gold: in such great abundance, according to Polo, that nulz le peust croir qui ne le veist, and em mais camtidade que tam-Jompura according to Pires. The implications of these remarks will be examined in a subsequent paragraph. The impression left by both accounts is of a fairly prosperous kingdom which took advantage of its location remote from the political highways of South-East Asia to maintain either complete, or a substantial degree of, independence.

The ultimate question to be faced, of course, is whether the description of Lochac is more consonant with a location in central Thailand or in western Kalimantan. The phonetic evidence has already been examined at some length, and our conclusion is that, although it is not decisive, it inclines, mainly because it requires fewer supporting assumptions, towards the equation Lochac (vocalized as Logak) = Lawak > Laue, etc. rather than Lochac = *Lå-yuk < *Lavok. From the point of view of Marco Polo's reconstructed itinerary and its incorporated digressions a Kalimantan location is also preferable since it accords more closely with the prescribed distances and directions than does the locality of Lvo in the Chao Phraya valley. In particular it removes the necessity of practically reversing one of Polo's directions. The only item among the locational data which might be held to favour a site in central Thailand is the clause in the Zelada Codex 51 and derivative recensions (but not in the Franco-Italian version) which places Lochac "on the firm land" (que est de tera [sic] firma). The Zelada recension derives from a tradition older than the Franco-Italian text and any addition or emendation it contributes to the narrative deserves careful scrutiny. The implication of a site on the mainland of Asia is not to be lightly dismissed, but must be weighed against the cumulative weight of evidence for a location in Kalimantan. The most that can be urged against it are the possibilities either that Polo, or at least the author of the Zelada Codex, was using the phrase terra firma in the general sense of a large landmass, or that a copyist inserted the expression in an attempt to make sense of a text whose structure he did not fully comprehend.

The meagre roster of cultural characteristics recorded by Polo affords an inadequate basis on which to decide between these two locations. Not even the imputed religious affiliations seem to have much significance for our present enquiry, for the inhabitants of *Lochac* were assigned to the inclusive category of European religious thought known as "idolaters" (ydres in F,

Moule and Pelliot, Marco Polo, vol. 2, p. lxiv.

cuius gentes adorant ydola in Z). However, Marco's descriptions of some of the ethnic groups of Central Asia make it abundantly evident that this term was broad enough to subsume Buddhists. Indeed, Polo seems to have attributed all forms of Asian idolatry to a common founder whom he identified with Sagamoni Burcan (= Sakyamuni Burqan 52). By the end of the thirteenth century, when Polo presumably acquired his information about Lvo, the state religion there was, in fact, Theravada Buddhism, diluted with animism no doubt among the mass of the people. The situation in Laue at this time was obscure, and two centuries later Pires, a devout adherent of the Church of Rome, predictably classed its population simply as heathen (Gemtios). On general grounds it may be premised that at the time of Polo's homeward voyage Laue shared in the amalgam of religious tenets current in the kingdom of Singhasari, namely Bhairava Buddhism in court circles and the ever-present blend of Hindu, Buddhist, and animistic beliefs among the populace at large. In any case the superficiality of Marco's understanding of Buddhist doctrine would have prevented him from disentangling the eclectic, and often syncretistic, characteristics assumed by this religion in

⁵² Sagamoni Burcan is the form, restored by Pelliot (Notes, vol. 2, p. 823), which Polo must have dictated. Although it does not occur in any extant recension of the Devisement dou Monde, it is very close to the transcription Shākamūni-Burkhān used by Rashidu'd-Din in the so-far unpublished part of his work which relates to the history of China. F reads sergamoni borcain, sergomon saint, and sergomoni borcan; Z sogomoni burchan and sogomoni burghan; VB santo brachan, sogomor barchan, and sogomor barcon; LT sergamon borchaym; L sergarmoni borcain; TA1 serghamon borghani; and R sogomombar can and sogomonbarchan. Sagamoni is a transcription of Sigamuni, the colloquial Mongolian rendering of Sakyamuni = Sage of the Sakyas = Gautama Buddha. The etymology of Burgan presents difficulties. The commonly adduced derivation from North Chinese *b'juat |26] (MSC fo: = Buddha) combined with Altaic khan (= sovereign) is not entirely satisfactory [This view was first propounded by Sir E. Dennison Ross in Ricci, The travels of Marco Polo, p. 432: cp. also Louis Hambis, "Notes préliminaires à une biographie de Bayan le Märkit", Journal Asiatique, vol. 241 (1953), p. 224]. Marco himself translated the term to mean "saint": cf. sergamoni borcain, que vaut a dir sergamoni saint [Benedetto, Il Milione, p. 194]. Berthold Laufer ["Burkhan", Journal of the American Oriental Society, vol. 36 (1917), pp. 390 et seq.] and P. K. Kozlow [Mongolei, Amdo und die tote Stadt Chara-choto. Transl. from the Russian (Berlin, 1925), p. 50] assert that the Mongols also used the term in the sense of "idol". In any case burgan occurred at an early date in both Uighur and Mongolian, and by Polo's time had come to constitute part of the name of what Leonardo Olschki has called "a transcendent miracleworker who was obeyed by gods and devils alike, natural and occult forces, and the spirits of the departed" [Marco Polo's Asia (University of California Press, Berkeley and Los Angeles, 1960), p. 256]. Marco's remark on Sagamoni Burgan as the founder of all idolatries is as follows: e de cestui sunt desendue tutes les ydres (BENEDETTO, Il Milione, p. 194). RAMUSIO'S recension also incorporates an alleged statement of Qubilai's beliefs by the Emperor himself in which he refers to "sogomonbarchan who was the first god of the idols" [Moule and Pelliot, Marco Polo, vol. 1, p. 201]. It is noteworthy in this connexion that just over half a century earlier, in 1225, CHAO Ju-kua had referred to a Buddha called Ma-ya-mjuət [27] (= Muḥammad) [Chu-fanchih [28], pt. 1, (Feng Ch'eng-chün's [29] edition, Shanghai, 1938), p. 48.

the several realms of Asia. The most that can be said is that Marco's brief reference to the religion of *Lochac* is inimicable neither to a location in the lower Chao Phraya valley nor to one in western Kalimantan.

Nor, despite emphasis on autonomy, is Marco's information relating to the political status of Lochac at all conclusive. Although Lvo and Laue may have enjoyed effective independence at the close of the thirteenth century. there can be no doubt that in both instances it was a fortuitous and temporary status. In the case of Lvo it was the result of the disruption of the traditional pattern of political authority in the Chao Phraya valley consequent on the consolidation of Thai power and the establishment of a new state at Sukhothai; in the case of Laue such limited autonomy - if, indeed, it existed at all - was probably incidental to the weakening of central authority towards the end of the reign of Kertanagara of Singhasari (1268-1292). More to the point, perhaps, is the unlikelihood that Polo would have comprehended the concept of multiple political allegiance as it was commonly practised in South and East Asia, and which may well have led him, acquiring his information as he did at second-hand, to confuse political opportunism with absolute independence. Polo's insistence on the remoteness of Lochac may be held to favour a situation in Kalimantan rather than in the lower Chao Phraya valley, but his comments on the immunity of that state - or of any other in South-East Asia for that matter - ring rather hollowly when we recall Qubilai's dispatch of a punitive expedition to Java in 1293. In any case *Lâ-yuk (Lvo) did contrive to send tribute missions to the Chinese court in 1289, 1291, 1296, 1297 and 129953, a record which accords poorly with Polo's tale of the ruler of Lochac's reluctance to engage in foreign relations. There is no record of Laue ever having sent envoys to the Dragon Throne.

It was to be hoped that in Marco's list of *Lochac* products there would have been one which would have proved diagnostic of a particular location. Although in the event this hope was not realized the implications of the several items still merit consideration. The emphasis on gold in both *Lochac* and *Laue* has been remarked on above. Placer deposits of this metal occur in considerable quantities in the coastal zone north of the Kapuas river, that is within the area where Pires and sixteenth century European cartographers located *Laue* ⁵⁴. In Thailand, by contrast, although placer gold has been reported in twenty-eight of the seventy changwats, generally speaking resources are rather limited. Moreover, as far as I have been able to ascertain,

⁵³ Yüan Shih, chüan 15, f. 10 recto; chüan 16, f. 9 verso; chüan 19, f. 4 recto and 5 verso; chüan 20, f. 1 recto.

⁵⁴ The extent of these deposits was amply attested in the nineteenth century when some thirty thousand Chinese, who were exploiting not only the placer gold but also the reefs in the hinterland of Pontianak, took over control of the countryside and constituted themselves an imperium in imperio.

there is no extant tradition associating Lopburi (Lvo) with gold production ⁵⁶. The nearest significant deposit is the Krabin lode in Changwat Prachinburi ⁵⁶, but there is no evidence of this having been worked in early times. The only possible conclusion is that the Polan emphasis on the abundance of gold in Lochac, while not conclusive, favours a location in western Kalimantan.

The mention of porcelaine ⁵⁷ in connexion with Lochac deserves special comment. The basic meaning of the term, and the one intended in the present context, is "cowry" ⁵⁸ and, not surprisingly, Pelliot did not fail to recall the long history of cowry currency in Thailand. Some fifty years after Polo dictated his account of Lochac Wang Ta-yüan (1350) remarked that the people of "Lâ-yuk "conducted their trade with cowries (pa-tzŭ) [30] instead of coins" ⁵⁹. A century later Ma Huan, perhaps influenced by Wang's remark, wrote in his Ying-yai sheng-lan [32] that the inhabitants of Hsien-lo "used cowries in their trade transactions just as [we use] copper cash "60, and Fei Hsin in 1436 copied Wang's sentence with only minor variations into his Hsing-

50 Glen F. Brown, Saman Buravas, Jumchet Charaljavanapher, Nitipat Jalichandra, William D. Johnston, Jr., Vija Sresthaputra, and George Taylor, Jr., Geologic reconnaissance of the mineral deposits of Thailand. Geological Survey Bulletin 984 (United

States Government Printing Office, Washington, 1951), pp. 69-70.

58 Vide Pellior's two magnificent expositions in Notes on Marco Polo, vol. 1, pp. 531—563 and vol. 2, pp. 805—812. Derivative meanings of porcelaine included "chinaware" and "mother-of-pearl vases", and, presumably by etymological con-

vergence, "purslane".

Wang Ta-yuan, Tao-i chih-lüeh, edited and annotated by Funta Toyohachi in

Hsüeh-t'ang Ts'ung-k'e [31], f. 32 verso.

W. W. Rockhill, "Notes on the relations and trade of China with the Eastern Archipelago and the coasts of the Indian Ocean during the fourteenth century", Toung Pao, vol. 16 (1915), p. 102.

³⁵ The corpus of legend which associates the city of Uthong (= Source of Gold) with the Suwanp'umi (= Suvannabhūmi [Pāli] = Land of Gold) of earlier times is of no significance. Suvannabhūmi (or Suvannadvīpa [Skt.]) was a legendary name claimed by many South-East Asian cities and polities and, in any case, myths pertaining to the precious metal are so interwoven into the folklore of the region that early writings which mention it can hardly ever be accepted at their face value. Of course, it is not impossible that Polo's informants were repeating myths which they had heard from the local inhabitants rather than reporting an attested mineral occurrence.

⁵⁷ porcellane in Z, L, and LT; porcelane in Z and LT; porcellana in R; pourcelaines in FA¹ | MS. fr. 5631 in the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris, a fourteenth-century text], FA² [MS. fr. 2810 in the same library; c. 1400], FA³ [MS. 3511 in the Bibliothèque de l'Arsenal: c. 1500], FA⁴ [M. 723 in the J. Pierpont Morgan Library, New York: c. 1400], and FB; porzelane and porzellana in various Venetian recensions (V, VA, VB); porciellane in two Tuscan recensions (TA¹ and TA³); and porzellane de mar in VA¹ [an early fourteenth-century Venetian text, now MS. 3999 in the Bibl. Casanatense in Rome].

ch'a sheng-lan [33] 61. This in turn was copied into the Shu-yū chou-tzǔ lu by Yen Ts'ung-chien [36] 62 and more or less similar remarks on the cowry currency of Thailand found their way into Cheng Hsiao's Huang-Ming ssǔ-i k'ao [37] 63 of 1564, Mao Jui-cheng's Huang-Ming hsiang-hsū lu [38] 64 of 1629, Wang Ch'i's Hsū Wen-hsien t'ung-k'ao [39] 65, and Lu Ying-yang's Kuang-yū chi [40] 66 of 1600.

Pelliot incorporated this Thai tradition of cowry money into his theory of the location of Lochace, but I think that he may have been a little hasty in adducing such evidence in support of his argument. It is perhaps worth while to examine the precise wording of Polo's text. The F recension reads simply. Et de ceste reigne vont tou//tes les porcelaine [sic] que s'espenent en toutes provences, com jeo vos ai contés (And from this kingdom go all the cowries which are spent in all the provinces, as I have told you). These previously mentioned "provinces" are Toloman (< T'u-lao Man [41] or T'u-la Man [42] = the T'u-lao or T'u-la barbarians of north-eastern Yün-nan [68]. Caugigu (< Chiao-chih Kuo = the Viétnamese State centred on the Tong-King lowland) 69, Amu (= An-nam > * Annã > * Amau > * Amau > * Amu) 70. and Bangala (= Bengal) 71, and patently reflect the extent of territory intended in Polo's original dictation. However, in some of the Court French recensions a copyist has changed the sense to make Lochac a supplier of cowries to "all the other [Z: an addition which does not significantly change the sense of the passagel provinces of the world [FB]", which is clearly nonsense. Pelliot interpreted Marco's presumed original phrasing as a statement to the effect that the cowries used in Yün-nan and neighbouring territories came

62 Chüan 8, f. 12 recto.

⁶¹ ROCKHILL, op. cit., p. 105. There is a probable clerical error in Fer Hsin's text when he equates 10,000 cowries with 20 taels (liang) [34] in Chung-t'ung [35] paper money, whereas Wang Ta-yūan had written 24 taels. There is a discussion of the real value of this coinage in Pelliot, Notes, vol. 1, p. 552 et seq., where later European references to the Thai cowry currency are also examined.

⁸³ Kuo-hsüeh wen-k'u edition, chüan 1, f. 63.

⁶⁴ Edition of the National Library of Pei-p'ing, chüan 4, f. 16 verso.

Chüan 236, f. 2 verso.
 Chüan 24, f. 11 recto.

⁶⁷ PELLIOT, Notes, vol. 1, p. 552.

⁶⁸ BENEDETTO, Il Milione, p. 127.

no op. cit., p. 125. no op. cit., p. 126.

⁷¹ op. cit., p. 125.

^{33.} 費信, 星槎勝覽 34. 兩 35. 中統 36. 嚴從簡, 殊域周咨錄

^{37.} 鄭晓, 皇明四夷考(國学文庫) 38. 茅瑞徵, 皇明象胥録

^{39.} 王圻, 續文獻通考 40. 陸應陽, 廣興記

^{41.} 秃/土老蠻 42. 秃刺蠻

mainly from Lochac, which he located in the lower Chao Phraya valley 72, Even if Lochac had been situated in present-day Thailand there could be no question of the shells having been produced there in quantities sufficient to sustain a currency. Such a currency can only be operated in areas which are fairly distant from sources of supply, in other words where new coin does not lie ready for the picking on local beaches. Several different species of Cypraea have on occasion been pressed into service as counters of exchange but only two, C. moneta, Linn. and, to a lesser extent, C. annulus, Linn., have ever constituted fully operative currencies. These species occur in adequate quantities in only three regions: on the Maldive coasts, on the shores of equatorial East Africa, and in the eastern sectors of the Malay world. In fact, Thailand has traditionally imported her cowries from the Maldives (Cypraea moneta), and occasionally from the Moluccas and the Philippines (Cypraea annulus)73. Pelliot was aware of this fact, and argued that Lochac was merely the transshipment point for cowries from the Indian Ocean and the islands of South-East Asia which were then traded northwards to Yün-nan. But, as we have seen, cowries have been collected in quantity round the Philippine and Indonesian coasts. Both Schneider and Jackson, authors of detailed monographs on the occurrence and use of cowries, associate them specifically with Kalimantan 74. Moreover, the latter writer observed, without citing his source, that they were taken as ballast by vessels sailing from Kalimantan to Ayutthaya 75, Finally, it must surely be significant that the Thai word for Cypraea (bià: cp. Lao bià hói) is closely related to the Malay name (romanized by English students as bea, but written biya in the modified Arabic script). It is a priori unlikely that the Malays, inhabiting a region which was

Oskar Schneider, Muschelgeld-Studien. Nach dem hinterlassenen Manuskript bearbeitet von Carl Ribbe (Ernst Engelmann's Nachfg., Dresden, 1905), pp. 102, 107, 110, and 118; J. Wilfrid Jackson, Shells as evidence of the migrations of early culture

(at the University Press, Manchester, 1917), p. 171.

75 ibid.

⁷² Pelliot, Notes, vol. 1, p. 552. For a variety of reasons Pelliot discounted the other countries mentioned above. There is, for example, no independent confirmatory evidence that a cowry currency ever existed in Caugigu or Amu, both of which names related to the Viet territories of the time, so it is to be presumed that Polo was in fact referring to the cowry money which circulated in Yün-nan (including the T'u-lao Man territories) and along its southern borders. Bengal was grouped with these regions only because Marco had acquired his information about that country when he was in Yün-nan and at the same time as he had heard about the other cowry coinages.

Simon de la loubère, Description du Royaume de Siam, vol. 2 (first published in 1691: Amsterdam reprint, 1714), pp. 222—223; Domingo Navariere [Tratados historicos, políticos, ethicos y religiosos de la monarchia de China (Madrid, 1676), p. 61]; and Nicolas Gervaise, Histoire naturelle et polítique du Siam (Paris, 1688), p. 152. At an earlier date, 1609, Antonio de Morga had noticed that siguei (= Tagal sigay = cowry) were exported from the Philippines to both Siam and Cambodia [Sucesos de las Islas Filipinas. Translation by H.E.J. Stanley, (Hakluyt Society, London, 1868), p. 285]. Mgr. Pallegoix did remark that, "Les petits coquillages appeles porcelaine... se trouvent en abondance sur les bancs de sable" bordering the Gulf of Siam, but made no reference to their transshipment northwards. In any case his statement must, in the light of Siamese imports of cowries from the Maldives and the Malay world, be understood in a comparative context [Vide Description du Royaume Thai ou Siam, vol. 1 (Vialet et Cie., Lagny, 1854), p. 196].

a major source of cowries, would have borrowed the name used by the Thai in territories where the shells occurred in much reduced quantities. Presumably the loan was from Malay to Thai, following the direction of the cowry trade. In short, Polo's remarks on the importance of cowries in Lochac, while not diagnostic of a specific location, do not exclude a site in Kalimantan. Pelliot's argument, which relates all the cowry references to Yün-nan and neighbouring territories and which plausibly views a state in the lower Chao Phraya valley as the intermediary between producing and consuming regions, is, like so many of Pelliot's theses, rendered intellectually attractive by reason of its parsimony and coherence, but this inherent reasonableness is achieved by construing Polo's phrases as referring exclusively to what we may call the northern Indochinese cowry complex. But the phrases themselves are neutral and may be adduced in support of the production of cowries in Laue (Lawak) equally as readily as of their transshipment through Lvo.

The other natural products of Lochac afford even less reason for dogmatism. The beci domesce (no doubt correctly as bergi in F, L, and Z) 76 is the verzino dimestico or "cultivated brazil-wood" which Pegalorri distinquished from verzino salvatico (lit. = wild brazil-wood) 77. Brazil-wood (modern trade-name = sappan[wood] < Malay sepang: cp. Khmer sban and That fang) is a small, prickly dye-bearing tree, which ranges from India throughout South-East Asia, and it is this commodity to which Pelliot, Moule, and virtually all previous investigators have considered Polo to have been referring. In Malabar in recent times brazil-wood has been both cultivated and exploited in its wild state 78, and Marco himself is usually considered to have described a process of cultivation in Lāmurī 78 in north-west Sumatra (see below). However, these authors have all been puzzled by the addendum in a Venetian version (VA) of the F recension that the fruits of the berci "are like lemons and are very good". Ramusio's Italian translation is more explicit, adding that these fruits are good to eat. By common consent Marco was in grievous error in making this reference to the alleged edibility of the fruits of brazil-wood. Nevertheless, I doubt if we are here dealing with an

Allan Evans, La pratica della mercatura. Medieval Academy of America (Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1936), pp. 295 and 296.

78 YULE, The Book of Ser Marco Polo, vol. 2, p. 380; but in connexion with the following argument note that the trees required some fourteen or fifteen years to

reach maturity.

⁷⁶ Also berci in TA^1 , Z, and R; berer [de mastica] in LT; berzi in VA; birci and lurci in P; oro dimesticho in TA^1 ; verçi in L; verzi in L, V, and VB; verzin and verzino in R.

Polo's dictation was probably Lambri, which occurs in L, LT, P, TA¹, VL, Z, R, and some other recensions. VB reads abraan and lanbren, F and VA labri, VA and Z lanbri. For recent succinct summaries of references to this kingdom see Pelliot, Notes, vol. 2, pp. 761—762, and Wolfers, Early Indonesian commerce, pp. 178—179.

instance of textual corruption ⁸⁰, and certainly not with a misunderstanding by Polo himself. At the conclusion of the passage on Lāmurī already mentioned he remarked,

Et si vos di tout voiremant que nos en aportames de celle seme[n]se a Venese et le seminames sor la terre; si vos di qu'il n'i nasqui noiant. E ce avint por [le] leu froit ⁸¹.

Moreover I tell you quite truly that we brought away some of that [said: FB] seed [of the brazil: FB] to Venese and sowed it on the ground. Yet I tell you that it did not grow there at all; and [I believe: VB] this came about through the cold position, [because they had not hot ground, even very hot: VA] [and the seeds died: VB] *2.

It is evident that, although the attempt to grow the seeds in Venice was unsuccessful, Marco was not unfamiliar with the plant and was certainly likely to have known if its fruits were edible or not. And, despite the use of the dye culinarily as a colouring agent and medicinally as an emmenagogue, there is no question of any part of Caesalpinia sappan being eaten. The clue to the resolution of this apparent parodox lies, I think, in Polo's account of the cultivation of this so-called brazil-wood in Lāmurī.

Et de[l] berçi vos di que il le seminent; e, quant il est nes en petite verge, il le cavent; e le plantent en autre leu. Et iluec le laisent por trois anz et puis les cavent con toute // les rais 83.

And of brazil I tell you that they sow it and when it is grown into a little twig they dig it up and plant it [again: VA] in another place; and there they leave it [to grow: FB] for [the space of: VB] three years, and then they dig it up with all the roots [and plant it again several times: VB]. [And so they sell it: L] 84.

The transplanting of a crop in this manner is a typical legacy of the agricultural techniques of the Old Planter culture of South-East Asia but it is quite unsuitable for the propagation and exploitation of Caesalpinia sappan. In fact, what is here described is almost certainly the garden cultivation of Morinda citrifolia, Linn., var. bracteata, known in the Malay-speaking parts of Sumatra as měkudu (cp. Peninsular Malay měngkudu). It is a small tree grown in villages throughout both mainland and archipelagic South-East Asia and bearing fruits of ellipsoidal shape and greyish white colour, which

⁸⁰ Except in the case of three fifteenth-century Latin texts [MS. barberiniano lat. 2687 in the Bibl. Vaticana (LA^1) ; MS. lat. 18770 of the Staatsbibl., Munich (LA^2) ; MS. 121 in the Bibl. Civ. of Luxemburg (LA^3)], in which the so-called brazil is confused with cowries:

⁽LA¹) ibi nascantur quedam animalia que domesticantur et sunt similes hominibus . . . nascantur etiam ibi portulace tante grossitudinis in stipite, quod in ligni duriliem conversi stipites earum fiunt ex eis pulcerime scutelle utiles ad pulmentum ministrandum (LA² 1 : ad comedendum). Ex his etiam portulacis siccalur (LA 2 1 : secalur) et scinditur ad formam denarii moneta pluribus provinciis usualis [from Moule & Pelliot, Marco Polo, vol. 1, p. 369, note 4].

⁸¹ BENEDETTO, Il Milione, p. 174.

Moule and Pelliot, Marco Polo, vol. 1, p. 376.

⁸³ BENEDETTO, Il Milione, p. 174.

⁸⁴ Moule and Pelliot, Marco Polo, vol. 1, p. 376.

presumably conjured up for Marco a memory of lemons. Although they have a rancid smell, especially when ripe, it is reported from Indochina that they are eaten with a flavouring of salt 85. In the Malay world the fruit, often in an over-ripe state, is, as far as I have been able to ascertain, used only for medicinal purposes, notably as an emmenagogue 86. The point is that the fruit is eaten for one purpose or another. Moreover, the root bark yields a dve which gives permanent shades of red, purple, and chocolate and which was formerly much used in the Javanese batik industry. The indigenous names for Morinda are everywhere distinct from those for Caesalpinia, so we must assume that it was Marco himself who regarded the plant — with which, as we have seen, he was familiar at first-hand - as a species of brazil-wood. It is interesting, though, that Pegalotti also subscribed to this botanical error, which was apparently common among early European travellers in South-East Asia. Where and how it originated is unknown. In any case, like the true brazil-wood, Morinda is so widely diffused throughout South-East Asia that it is of no diagnostic value so far as the location of Lochac is concerned.

In one of the Venetian recensions (VB) musk and ebony (muschio et ha|ba|no) are added to the list of natural products of Lochac. In view of the restriction of this reference to a single manuscript tradition Benedetto is probably correct in regarding muschio as a mislection of domesce carelessly copied as do mesce ⁸⁷. If so, then it was an error which had become an integral part of the recension by the middle of the fifteenth century, for VB was written in 1446. Even if the reference were authentic it could not have been concerned with true musk, the secretion of an accessory sexual gland of the male of Moschus moschiterus, Linn., a deer of Central Asian habitat. Central Thailand lies well beyond the southernmost range of this animal, though there is evidence that musk was traded southwards from Yün-nan at least as early as the ninth century A. D. ⁸⁸ If the Polan text be interpreted at its face

^{*5} I. H. Burkill, A dictionary of the economic products of the Malay Peninsula, vol. 2 (Crown Agents for the Colonies on behalf of the Governments of the Straits Settlements & the Federated Malay States, London, 1935), p. 1493.

⁸⁷ BENEDETTO, Il Libro di Messer Marco Polo, p. 433.

between A.D. 860 and 865, Fan Ch'o [48] mentioned a mart called *D'āi-ngiĕn K'ung [44] (Ta-yin K'ung) at which southern traders from regions such as Java (*Dž'ja-b'uā: She-p'o) and Kalimantan (*B'uət-niei: P'o-ni) [46] obtained gold and musk. The location of *D'āi-ngiĕn K'ung would have remained very uncertain had not the Sung encyclopaedia T'āi-p'ing Yū-lan [chūan 981, f. 5 verso] preserved a passage from an earlier work, the Nan-i Chih [47], which ascribed the same market, though without assigning it a name, to *Nām-tšjāu [48] (Nan-Chao). Note: the Man

^{43.} 奘綽、蠻書 44. 大銀孔 46. 勃泥

^{47.} 南夷志 48. 南詔

value the substance in question was most likely to have been civet-musk, obtained from one of the civet-cats. In Lvo this could have been Viverra zibetha, Linn., and in Laue V. langalunga, Grey. Just over half a century earlier Chao Ju-kua, Superintendent of Maritime Trade (Shih-po Shih [50]) in Fu-chien, had reported that P'o-ni [51] (= Brunei) was "the only foreign country in which wu-na ch'i [52] (= civet) was very abundant". In view of the dubious reliability of the VB recension in this matter we shall not elaborate on the implications of this remark ⁸⁹.

It is difficult to explain away as a copyist's error the reference to ebony which is bracketed with musk in VB, but its occurrence in a single manuscript tradition is not such as to inspire confidence. In 1225 Chao Ju-kua had listed wu-men tzŭ [53] (= ebony) among the products of Tan-ma-ling [54] (= Tāmbra-linga), a territory on the isthmian tract of the Malay Peninsula [60], where it would have been obtained from Diospyros clavigera, C. B. Clarke or D. lucida, Wall. It is probable that during the eleventh and twelfth centuries the territory of Lvo had extended southwards to include part of the Malayan isthmus, so that an apologist for a peninsular location for Lochac might be tempted to argue that Polo had picked up a fragment of popular information from the past and applied it uncritically to his own century. However, ebony from one or other species of Diospyros is found throughout South-East Asia and any argument applicable to Thailand is equally applicable to Kalimantan. The character and reliability of the sole text to mention this wood does not justify an extended discussion of this point.

The mention of elephants (leofant: F; elephantes: Z) in Lochac deserves comment for the natural range of this very distinctive animal did not extend to Kalimantan or Java. But I do not think great importance should be attached to this fact for there are numerous records of elephants being imported into both those countries for use in the rulers' courts.

Shu was apparently lost during the Ming dynasty, but the substances of its contents was preserved under discrete rubrics in the Yung-lo Ta-tien, a massive encyclopaedia compiled under the direction of HSIEH Chin in 1407. In 1773 an anonymous scholar attempted to reconstitute the original work by recombining the relevant passages from the Yung-lo Ta-tien which, in accordance with the information preserved in the Literary Catalogue of the New T'ang History, he arranged in ten chapters. The reconstituted work was printed by the Wu-ying Tien [49] in 1774.

⁹⁶ Vide O. W. Wolters, "Tämbralinga", Bulletin of the School of Oriental and Airican Studies, vol. 21, pt. 3 (1958), pp. 587—607.

49. 武英殿

50. 市舶使

51. 勃泥

52. 膃肭臍

53. 烏橘子

54. 單馬令

⁸⁹ It is just possible, though much less probable, that the musk-like substance referred to was gaharu laut (Malay) or "sea gaharu" the product of Excoecaria agallocha, Linn., that is muskwood, or as Rumpe called it, bastard aloes-wood, a small tree found on the coasts of the Indian Ocean from tropical Africa to Australia. Although formerly used locally wherever it occurred, it is doubtful if the diseased aromatic wood of this tree (as opposed to the sound wood which was used for general carpentry purposes) occurred in sufficient quantities to sustain a regular trade.

In seeking a location for Lochac I think that, in the light of our present knowledge of South-East Asian history, it is necessary to evaluate only two of the numerous hypotheses so far advanced, namely Pelliot's identification with Lvo in present-day central Thailand and the alternative site in western Kalimantan suggested in the preceding pages. Phonetically there is not much to choose between these theories, though the latter requires fewer supporting assumptions. From the point of view of locational data a Kalimantan location accords more closely with Polo's sailing direction of por sceloc. but it requires that the description of Lochac be regarded as a digression. A site in southern Thailand, by contrast, would allow Lochac to be fitted into a coherent itinerary, but only at the cost of a gross distortion of the text. As a matter of fact Pelliot did not adopt this expedient but also supposed the Lochac excursus to be a digression 91, so that he and I are in agreement in regarding Marco — or perhaps more likely Rustichello — as having taken up the narrative from the Kundur Islands. This necessitates the assumption that a well intentioned but ill informed copyist has at some time substituted Lochac for Sondur et Condur at this point in the text in the same way as he has substituted Java for Campā after the previous digression. The stipulated course of D milles por midi to l'isle de Pentan 92 (= Bintan) is then not too gross a distortion of the required direction, although the true distance is somewhat underestimated. The possibility of amending por sceloc to read por garbin in order to sustain the argument for a location on the Malayan isthmus would be gratuitous unless it could be supported by virtually incontrovertible phonetic or cultural evidence, and such an expedient is explicitly rejected in both interpretations. So far as Polo's list of natural products is at issue, none is diagnostic of a specific site, but the references to gold and cowries in my opinion tend to favour Kalimantan rather than Thailand. The mention of musk is of dubious authenticity but, for what it is worth, would also seem to point to Kalimantan, Ebony, berci, and elephants are of indeterminate significance in the present context. On this accounting the balance of probability would seem to incline in favour of a location for Lochac in western Kalimantan. However, when the available evidence is so meagre and ambivalent an arithmetical totting up of probabilities cannot lead to definitive certainty, and this paper does not attempt to prove a Kalimantan site. Rather it is designed to introduce a new element into, and consequently to re-open, a problem which has come to be considered as solved, and the reader is left to balance the probabilities and imponderables in his own mind.

⁶¹ Cf. Pellior's explicit statement to this effect in Notes, vol. 2, p. 769.

This is the reading of VB, Z, and R: pantayn and plantayn occur in FB; pantein and pontain in FA; penta and pitam in TA^3 ; pentai in VB; pentaim in VA; pentain in F and L; pentam, petain, and petam in TA^3 ; pentay, pentayn, and pontauich in LT, pentera and pepetan in VL; pentham in P.