A REVIEW ARTICLE

A GUIDE THROUGH SOME RECENT SUKHOTHAI HISTORIOGRAPHY

by

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The present article was intended first of all as a review of Mom Chao Chand Chirayu Rajani's Guide Through the Inscriptions of Sukhothai, but since much of Guide is based on highly original interpretations of inscriptions and chronicles, and since Prince Chand's interpretations had as their point of departure some rather severe criticism of the work of Mr. A. B. Griswold and Dr. Prasert Na Nagara in their Epigraphic and Historical Studies, the latter work must also be discussed.

The controversial nature of Prince Chand's Guide would not be at all evident to the ordinary reader, nor even to an historian of Thailand who had not devoted more than casual attention to Sukhothai sources. In the entire work there is hardly any indication of the controversies or of the difficult nature of most of the sources; and Prince Chand's readings of the latter are presented as clear-cut history about which there should no longer be any serious argument.

In reviewing Guide it is therefore essential to show how Prince Chand differs from Griswold and Prasert, which will involve detailed references to his own and their earlier writings, and will also include some opinion by the reviewer as to the quality of the arguments on both sides. On some points I prefer Prince Chand's solutions, on others Griswold and Prasert's, while on still others I will suggest interpretations differing from anything hitherto proposed; and this will involve extended discussion of some of the sources themselves.

Because of the unavoidable length of this undertaking, quotations to illustrate the arguments will be kept at a minimum, but there will be thorough references to the relevant articles and source collections, and I must assume that the interested reader will have them at hand for consultation.


2 Abbreviated as EHS with number, and the joint authors will be cited as G/P in the footnotes. For full bibliographic data on all abbreviated references, see the appended bibliography. Prince Chand's earlier critical studies were three review articles in JSS which I shall cite as "Review 1972", "Review Jan. 1973", and "Review July 1973".

3 On p. 12 of Guide the controversies are briefly noted, but since Guide contains not a single footnote nor any specific reference to the various 'chronicles' cited for support of Prince Chand's arguments, the reader will not find it easy to check sources or thread his way through the difficulties.
Some remarks on method

Prince Chand once suggested to me that since Sukhothai history was written by people who were not primarily historians, it might be useful to examine the writing on Sukhothai history from the point of view of the trained, practicing historian.

I agree that this is a useful starting point for a review of Guide and EHS, but a difficult problem which arises at the very beginning is to define what a historian is, or what kind of historian is to be the model against which to judge the writings in question.

This is not the place for an essay on history and the historian, but since I have accepted for myself the role of historian and intend to follow this suggestion of the principal author under review, it is proper that I set out my own views on what historians should do with the type of evidence available for the history of Sukhothai.

Most simply, of course, a historian is anyone who studies the past in a methodical manner, and since anything that occurred before the lifetime of living persons is not directly knowable, the historian studying earlier times depends on documents, which may be written records, more or less faithful to events, or non-written remains, such as buildings, works of art, or anything else resulting from human activity.

It should be obvious to the reader without adducing detailed evidence that the further back one searches into the past, the less numerous are the documents and the more tendentious those which have been preserved. There is also near mathematical certainty that when old literature was recopied by hand in the days before printing became common, errors accumulated with each generation of copying—which complicates the task of studying Southeast Asian chronicles. Thus for the historian of early times, such as the Sukhothai period, writing history means first of all the discovery of documents and their interpretation, and after that the construction of the most plausible synthesis of the information derived from the documents.

Both the interpretation of the documents and the final synthesis must conform to general rules of scientific method concerning formation of hypotheses, search for evidence, confirmation or negation of hypotheses, and so on, and in the study of the past it is the adherence to such rules of evidence which distinguishes history from historical fiction.

Prasert, who in his own writings has shown more sensitivity to questions of method than either Griswold or Prince Chand, at one time remarked that Thai historians should not blindly copy the formulations of their predecessors and fit new evidence into them, but should search for new inferences to link new pieces of evidence. Prasert was probably thinking of the acceptance of everything written by Prince Damrong and George Coedès as ultimate truth, and in that context his remark was useful, but the distinction between a historian and a writer of

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5 Prasert na Nagara, "Results of research in Thai history", p. 33.
historical fiction is drawn along a narrow line which separates legitimate and illegitimate inferences connecting the various pieces of evidence.

The area of history in which the most attention has been given to method and rules of evidence is archæology, and this is fortunate for our purposes since the main evidence for Sukhothai history consists of inscriptions, which are archæological records just as much as the buildings which sometimes accompany them or the potsherds which may be found near them. Summarized as simply as possible, the rules of archæological evidence are that the place of each artifact (record) in its temporal and spatial context should be determined as closely as possible. Then each piece must be examined (read) individually for whatever information it can reveal about itself. After that, pieces which appear to be closely related are fitted into sequences or patterns by means of objective techniques such as stratigraphy and seriation, and this process of fitting together ever more pieces is carried out both spatially and temporally until boundaries are reached beyond which the material seems to be unrelated. Only as a final step is the information obtained directly from the original material itself compared with other types of evidence, such as ancient literature, purporting to deal with the same time and place.

With respect to the Sukhothai inscriptions, these rules of evidence mean that each inscription must be read as literally as possible without regard to what we imagine we know from some other source. Words which have a common, well-known meaning must not be arbitrarily given some unusual meaning without a full argument of justification including recorded contexts showing the unusual usage; and lacunae must not be filled in, either in the original text or translation, without showing that the restoration involves precisely the number of characters missing from the stone and fits the metre if the composition is in verse. When this has been done for all inscriptions we then see whether they all fall together into a consistent story or pattern. The technique of seriation may play a part here. For example, No. IX placed in series with earlier and later inscriptions proves that the king known as Sai Udaiy was grandson of Udaiy; and a seriated comparison of vowel or tone marks may indicate the date of an inscription which lacks chronological indications.

If the several inscriptions do fit a pattern or immediately provide a consistent story, we may presume our translations and preliminary interpretations to be correct, and we may proceed to write history. Most frequently there will appear to be contradictions among some of the sources, and we must always assume this to mean that we have not understood them properly. We must not assume that the author did not know what he was doing.

Some of the apparent contradictions will be due to lack of information about people, events, and whole time periods not mentioned in the inscriptions, and if we feel the best transla-

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7 The inscriptions of the Thai corpus will be designated as “No.” plus Roman numeral. Nos. I-XV are in George Coedes, *Recueil*; Nos. XXX-LXXXIV are in Šilú Čárêk III, and Nos. LXXXV-CXXX plus a fragment of No. XL in Šilú Čárêk IV.

8 *Guide*, p. 20.
tion of the extant documents has been achieved we may try to link the inscriptive evidence together by interpretation and inference. This is where we must beware of slipping over the boundary into fiction. Construction of a plausible story is not sufficient to write history and if the gaps to be filled by inference are too large or susceptible to too many different inferences, then it may be better to leave them unfilled, as I have suggested below with regard to Nos. XI and XL.

Important rules for inferential reconstruction concern fidelity to the evidence, consistency and systematic use of evidence, and economy of explanation. All inferences must be somehow embedded in the evidence. That is, when an inscription mentions a vague prabha it may (note the emphasis) be legitimate to identify him with a real person known from other material; but it is not legitimate to link two sets of information by postulating the existence of a person who has no existence in any other sources, or to infer marriage or blood ties not implied by any source, or to justify an interpretation on the basis of what some fourteenth-fifteenth century individual might have thought or felt. When all the sources have been exhaustively studied they may provide some possibility of understanding fourteenth-fifteenth century thought, but assumptions about the latter will do more harm than good in the interpretation of the former.

With respect to consistency, we must not say that a certain phrase or title 'means' one thing in one context and something else in another without a full justificatory argument; and inferences which may be systematically applied to more than one situation are better than those which fit only one. Finally, in our inferential reconstructions we must not unnecessarily multiply assumptions. In principle the simplest reconstruction will always be the best, and although plausible stories may be constructed by means of elaborate assumptions, or 'epicycles', this process may easily result in, and in any case cannot be distinguished from, historical fiction.

Only as the very last step in writing the history of Sukhothai should we compare the combined evidence of the inscriptions with the literary evidence; that is, the chronicles, and where they differ it should be presumed that it is the inscriptions, not the chronicles, which tell the better story. Of course the chronicles may in some cases help in filling lacunae in the inscriptive picture, but in no case should the evidence of the inscriptions be distorted, or given an arbitrary, unusual reading to force it into the story of the chronicles.

9 It should already be clear that I reject the ideas associated with R.G. Collingwood's *The Idea of History*, Oxford University Press Paperback, 1967, p. 228, about all history being the "re-enactment of past thought in the historian's mind", or that the historian's "proper task [is] penetrating to the thought of the agents whose acts they are studying". What the Sukhothai sources still require is the "positivistic" type of analysis against which Collingwood so strongly argued.

10 Even within the realm of pure science Kenneth Boulding, *History and Theory* VII, 1 (1968), p. 89, said "one has the uneasy thought that if the computer had been around then, we could have handled the Ptolemaic system quite easily with computerized epicycles, and the great Copernican simplification might never have happened ... ." The best concise statement I have seen on scientific method and history is in Gordon Leff, *History and Social Theory*, Anchor Books, N.Y., 1971, pp. 109-110: "[Although] the incompleteness of knowledge accessible to the historian ... restricts his conclusions to being at most inferentially probable ... [he] is subject to the same canons of correct reasoning and technical competence which apply to all intellectual disciplines. If he omits or distorts or makes a faulty implication his failure will be just as palpable as similar shortcomings in the exact sciences ... . The historian is as accountable to his evidence and the correct way of reasoning from it as the practitioners of any body of knowledge; it is that obligation which makes history a branch of knowledge and not of the creative arts".
The first general criticism I would make of all the work under review here is that it is often methodologically unsound, generally proceeding from interpretation to fact, rather than the other way around. In nearly every one of their EHS, Griswold and Prasert start off with a historical background picture based on a synthesis, sometimes rather arbitrary, of the various chronicles, and then they fit—sometimes really force—the inscriptions into it. Prince Chand often criticizes their reconstructions on matters of detail, but apparently does not object to their method, and himself seems to favor the epicyclical method of reconstructing situations to fill the gaps in the inscriptive information.

In the present review I intend to concentrate on the inscriptions. Space will not permit me to analyze fully the use which has been made of the chronicles. Thus I shall not attempt to prove that Griswold and Prasert are always wrong in the background pictures they draw from the chronicles; in fact, they may sometimes be right. Right or wrong it is the opposite of proper method, and what I do intend to show is that even the potentially accurate background pictures may not be related to the inscriptions in the way Griswold and Prasert believe, and that where arbitrary or inconsistent interpretations of inscriptive details are involved the scenarios are almost certain to be wrong.

Some preliminary discussion

Prince Chand’s Guide follows a chronological plan with nine chapters, most of which cover, according to their titles, specific periods, from “Background to the Sukhothai story” (chap. 1) to “Reign of Ramatipati II [of Ayutthaya] and after” (chap. 9). In my review I shall also follow the chronological scheme, comparing Prince Chand’s work with the relevant EHS of Griswold and Prasert, and discussing the sources themselves where necessary.

Before proceeding directly with discussion of the chronological periods, it is necessary to devote some attention to a few matters of general interest to several parts both of Prince Chand’s and Griswold and Prasert’s writings.

(a) The historical character of Sukhothai inscriptions

Griswold and Prasert, and Coedès before them, concluded that each inscription was erected to commemorate a specific event or act. This is an opinion which I share, but about which Prince Chand seems to entertain some doubt, and it also seems to be true of Angkorean epigraphy, which undoubtedly influenced Coedès in his work on Thai inscriptions. In Angkorean inscriptions it is a general rule that the date of the event commemorated, and the ‘official’ date of erection of the inscription, is contained in the opening lines of the text. In Griswold and Prasert’s work on Sukhothai inscriptions, there seems to be a tacit assumption that such was the norm in Sukhothai, although they naturally do not ignore the cases in which a series of dated events is clearly indicated.

It is interesting, though, that of the 28 inscriptions discussed by Griswold and Prasert in their EHS on Sukhothai history, only 10 are unequivocally texts referring to a single event at a specified date. In addition, Nos. XL and LXIV were probably single-event texts, but they are fragmentary and contain no date; No. X is too fragmentary to be judged; and the very time period of No. XI is a matter of controversy. On the other hand, 12 inscriptions are clearly historical; that is, the opening date, or first date found in the text, is not the date at which the inscription was erected, but only marks the first of two or more events recorded. Sometimes the events are rather far apart, as in No. IX, and at other times they are close together, as in No. LXII, where the two specified dates, only a year or so apart, are in the middle of the text after a historical narrative leading up to them. Even a very short inscription may have this character. In the four-line, gold plate text reproduced in EHS 10, pages 147-48, there is a very specific opening date at which time a vihāra was finished. Then there is mention of another event four months later; and finally it is stated that an eighteen-cubit Buddha image was made—something which could well have taken several months. The true date of the inscription may therefore be over a year later than the date recorded in it.

This historical-narrative character of over half the Sukhothai inscriptions is interesting in its own right, but I wish to emphasize it because I shall seek to prove that two others, No. XCIII (Asokaram) and No. CVI (Vat Traîn Jāh Phōak), are also of that type and that their dating has been misunderstood by Griswold and Prasert. The argument will be more convincing if it is clear that the structure I impute to Nos. XCIII and CVI was common throughout Sukhothai epigraphy.

(b) Two confusing inscriptions, Nos. XI and XL

Inscription No. XI has provoked extreme disagreement among scholars as to its date, and this has naturally led to very divergent interpretations of its meaning. Coedes believed the mention of "Brah Rāma, his younger brother" proved that the inscription was the work of Mahādharmarāja IV who together with his younger brother Bāṇā Rām is mentioned in LP in 1419, and that face I of the inscription was later than that date. Coedes considered face II to be even later.

In Towards Griswold said face I was from the time of Līdaiy, and he based his argument on its style—"direct, orderly and vivid"—a bit too subjective, it would seem to me. He considered that the "beloved younger brother" was Rāmadhipati I of Ayutthaya.

In Prasert's earlier work on this inscription he suggested that face I was from the time of Līdaiy, around 1359-61, and that face II was later, due to the mention of Brah Mahāthera SāriśāddhāraJayācūlamūṇi, and was in content similar to No. II. The last point is important for
the dating of No. II as well. Prasert’s reasoning with respect to face I was based on systematic paleography, a much more solid foundation than “style”; No. XI does not contain the mark ‘&tmmm, which was first used by L’daiy around 1361, and it must therefore be earlier than that date. As for face II, his argument was based on its contents, and he considered “Braḥ Rāma” to be Baḥa Gāṁhaēh Braḥ Rām, mentioned in No. II18.

Following this Prince Chand published a critique of these ideas in which he apparently argued that the Mahādharmarāja of No. XI was Lo’daiy who was offering merit to his father Braḥyā Rām, that is Rām Gāṁhaēh (RK)19, which as Prasert rightly answered does not square with the explicit statement of the inscription that Rām was “younger brother”20. Prasert’s second argument, that Mahādharmarāja was the personal name (w[m]w[hm]w[m]) of L’daiy, is weaker in view of the fact that it was also given to the three succeeding kings of Sukhothai, and could well have been used by Lo’daiy, too21. Returning to face II, Prasert here added paleographical evidence for his choice of date, that it mixes ‘&tmmm with doubled final consonants, a feature found in other inscriptions between 1361 and 1392.

In Guide Prince Chand has apparently accepted Prasert’s paleographic argument and agrees that both sides were written, one after the other in L’daiy’s reign, but both by Srīsṛaddhā. He still insists, however, that “Braḥ Rāma” refers to RK, younger brother of Bām Mo’āh, but it is unclear why this attribute of RK should have been emphasized, and I find Prince Chand’s proposal unconvincing22.

The most recent discussions of No. XI are in EHS 10(face II) and EHS 11-1 (face I), and they do little to clear up the controversies because they are at times mutually contradictory23. It is stated in both that L’daiy was author of face I and Srīsṛaddhā of face II. But in EHS 10, Griswold and Prasert express uncertainty about the relative dates of the two sides, and suggest that face II was written in the 1350s, which contradicts all of Prasert’s earlier paleographic arguments. In EHS 11-1, on the other hand, they return to the theory that face II is later and was written sometime in the 1360s, and they remain agnostic on the identity of the younger brother, Braḥ Rāma.

My own view is that face I is simply too fragmentary even to permit determination of its author, and that there is no way to determine the identity of the Braḥ Mahādharmarāja who is mentioned, although I find Prasert’s paleographic arguments the most convincing for the rough dating of the inscription itself. As for the identity of “Braḥ Rāma”, all the proposals to date seem implausible, and I would say that speculation about it on the basis of extant evidence is useless. Concerning face II, its content certainly does resemble part of No. II, and the

18 Prasert, op. cit., pp. 48, 50. The name ‘Srīsṛaddhārājaculāmūnī’ will be abbreviated henceforth as ‘Srīsṛaddhā’.

19 Prince Chand’s article was in s[m]v[m]v[m], February 2511 B.E. (1968 A.D.). I have not seen it, and am relying on the information in Prasert’s answer. The name ‘Rām Gāṁhaēh/Khāṁhaēh’ will be abbreviated ‘RK’.

20 Prasert, op. cit., p. 55.

21 Mahādharmarāja II, III, IV.


23 EHS 10, pp. 135-44: EHS 11-1, pp. 112-118.
opinions of Griswold and Prasert and Prince Chand that it refers to Srisraddha are acceptable, although the assertion that he was author is not certain.

I would say in conclusion that all historical reconstructions based on No. XI must be set aside pending further study24.

Inscription No. XL was the subject of EHS 5, which has been criticized by Prince Chand both in a review article and in Guide25. This inscription, whose year date has disappeared, is apparently some kind of pact between two princes who are described as uncle and nephew, the former ruler of Sukhothai, and the latter given the title "samtécau brañña"). Griswold and Prasert assume that "samtécau brañña" means he was king of Ayutthaya, although their reasons for this assumption are not clear; they further assume that "uncle" and "nephew" are to be taken literally26, and then, on the basis of extrapolation from Wolters' bi-polar theory27, they erect a story about Sukhothai-Ayutthaya relations which, with all due respect, I find quite unconvinced. As for the identification of the "uncle" and "nephew", they offer three possibilities, all of which imply a date between 1369 and sometime after 140028.

Prince Chand, on the other hand, considers that the inscription dates from 1438, and that the uncle and nephew were respectively the ruler of Chaliang—according to him the Baññá Rám of LP's entry for 781/1419—and Prince Rámeśvara, later King Trailokanáññh29. Prince Chand's story involves just the sort of filling in which historians should avoid—in particular there is no evidence that the Baññá Rám of LP became Baññá Chaliang—but of most importance for critical scholars of Sukhothai history, it is based on a misconception which has long gone undetected, the idea that King Trailokanáññh's mother, queen of Paramarajas II, was a Sukhothai princess. According to Prince Chand, when King Indaraja of Ayutthaya imposed his will on the north in 1419 he "very likely" married his son, Sám Brañña, to a daughter of Sai Lidaiy, and thus Rámeśvara/Trailokanáññh would have been nephew of Sai Lidaiy's son Baññá Rám30.

Charnvit Kasetsiri has also repeated this story as though it were common knowledge, saying, "a Sukhothai princess was given to the city's [Chainat] ruler, Chao Samphraya," and "one result was the future King Trailok". Charnvit also adds, "Trailok...claim(ed) that as a lineal descendant of the Sukhothai family through his mother ...."31

24 In addition to the above, see G/P, "On kingship", p. 62.
26 This is noteworthy since in EHS 4, p. 129, n. 15; EHS 1, p. 218; and Towards, p. 39, they emphasize that such kinship terms should not be taken literally.
27 See discussion below and compare with their remarks in EHS 5, pp. 94-95.
28 EHS 5, pp. 98-102.
30 Ibid., p. 289.
31 Charnvit Kasetsiri, The Rise of Ayudhya, pp. 131-32. Several things need to be said about Charnvit's statements, but they are not directly relevant to the present subject and I will save them for a forthcoming review of Charnvit's book. It is only necessary to mention here that no extant source shows Trailok 'claiming' anything, least of all about his ancestry. Charnvit cites only an obscure passage in Yüan bájí Yüan Phäit (YP), p. 41, which does not necessarily have to be interpreted, it seems to me, as Charnvit, and others, have done. The key word, dviJiya (correct dvitiya) both in Sanskrit and standard Thai is glossed as 'second', suggesting that the author of YP wished to say that Trailok was second son, not that he was born of two royal dynasties.
This story is also found in some other works of Thai history, but I had considerable difficulty tracing any other origins for it until I happened on a reference in Prince Chula Chakrabongse’s *Lords of Life* where Prince Damrong’s *Nidhan Porunagati* is given as the source.\(^{32}\)

In the latter work Prince Damrong cites *Rājādhīrāj*, the Mon history, which says Dhammaceti of Hansavati received from Trailokanāth a gold plate inscribed with the title “brah mahādhammarāja”, which had been the name of Trailok’s paternal grandfather. In reading this passage Prince Damrong “newly found out that King Param Trailokanāth was the grandson of Brahma Dhammarāja of Sukhothai”\(^{33}\). He then added that Indarāja had asked for a daughter of Mahā Dhammarāja IV [sic] for his son Sām Bañā, and she was the mother of Trailokanāth.

A check of *Rājādhīrāj*, however, reveals quite a different situation. There it only says that the king of Ayutthaya, plausibly Trailokanāth, sent to the king of Hansavati a gold plate inscribed with a new title, “brah mahā rājādhīpati” [note the difference], saying, “this royal name was the royal designation (naṭga) of our paternal grandfather who ruled Kruh Śrī Ayudhayā previously”\(^{34}\). Thus there is no reference to Sukhothai antecedents for Trailokanāth, and all reconstructions based on such an idea are to be rejected. Furthermore the passage from *Rājādhīrāj* is in a section which seeks to show that all the titles attributed to Dhammaceti had been granted by neighboring rulers and its purpose is to explain details of Hansavati history, not of its neighbors. There is nevertheless some evidence that Trailokanāth’s Ayutthayan grandfather, Indarāja, may really have had the title rājādhīpati, which reinforces the Ayutthayan, not Sukhothai, allusion expressed in the passage.\(^{35}\)

So far as I can determine, Griswold and Prasert nowhere allude to any Sukhothai ancestry in Trailok’s family, not even in their study of *Yuan Phat*, nor in Griswold’s “Yudhiṣṭhira”, where the subject should naturally arise.\(^{36}\) This can only be termed an avoidance of the issue, which must mean that Griswold and Prasert reject, correctly, such a story, but for some reason do not wish to reject it explicitly.

Although the reconstruction of Prince Chand must be rejected, there is some evidence favoring a relatively late date for No. XL. That is the [？] mark which “appears several times . . . unusual among the Sukhodayan inscriptions”\(^{37}\). Well, it is unusual for the period in which Griswold and Prasert wish to place No. XL, but appears later. In his own studies Prasert first considered No. XL to represent a treaty between Rāmeśvara I and Līdaiy, but in a footnote stated that the use of modern [？] means it must be placed somewhere between the reigns of Mahādhāmmarāja II and Trailokanāth;\(^{38}\) and in another context he considered


\(^{35}\) See Vickery, review of van Vliet, p. 227.

\(^{36}\) G/P, “A Siamese historical poem”; and Griswold, “Yudhiṣṭhira”.

\(^{37}\) EHS 5, p. 90.

\(^{38}\) Prasert, *op. cit.*, p. 48, dated 1967. The footnote apparently dates from 1971, the date of latest publication. I have found no statement about the first use of modern [？].
that precise identification of the "uncle" and "nephew" was not possible, but that No. XL was at least proof of family ties between the dynasties of Sukhothai and Ayutthaya.39

This brings us back to the question of samtec cau brahā, which Prasert considered to be proof that the "nephew" was Ayutthayan. His identification of the title as Ayutthayan was based on Chinese sources, and indeed the Chinese seem to have used samtec cau brahā for certain rulers of early Ayutthaya.40 Ayutthaya, though, was not the only polity to use this title, and Griswold and Prasert should have seen that there was a much more plausible source within the context of their corpus of inscriptions. In their EHS 4, page 105, they have reproduced a short inscription from Nan in which the ruler of that polity is entitled samtec cau brahā. The date is 1426, within the period suggested both by Prince Chand and by paleographic considerations for No. XL, and the long history of close relations between Nan and Sukhothai adds to the plausibility of such an interpretation.41 With this in mind one might even suggest that the "[oath] to the grandfather Brahā"42 referred to the earlier Nan-Sukhothai treaty recorded in No. XLV (see below).

There is, however, a further difficulty. The text of No. XL ends with "... rājassa yasodharādhipassa, etc.", which Griswold and Prasert realize might mean "King of Yasodhara"43. They suggest that Yasodhara, part of the classical name for Angkor, would here mean Ayutthaya, a suggestion which I find attractive at that date, but the phrase is too fragmentary to permit interpretation.

We must conclude, I am afraid, that No. XL is simply too fragmentary to permit identification of its date and authors or interpretation of its meaning, that it therefore cannot be used in syntheses of Sukhothai history, and that all such syntheses so far proposed by Griswold and Prasert and Chand are not sustained by the evidence.45

(c) The bi-polar theory of early Ayutthayan policy

In several of their studies Griswold and Prasert have made use of a bi-polar theory of Ayutthayan policy, first enunciated by O.W. Wolters, as a basis for their conjectural reconstructions of the historical background to the inscriptions.46 According to this theory Rāmadhipati I of Ayutthaya and his son Rāmeśvara, continuing the policy of the earlier kings of Lavo from whom they possibly descended, gave precedence to warfare against Angkor,

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39 Prasert, op. cit., p. 58.
41 See EHS 3.
42 EHS 5, p. 112, lines 14-16.
43 EHS 5, p. 113, n. 56.
44 I believe it would have been connected with strong Angkorean influences in early Ayutthaya, but discussion of this would go far beyond the present subject.
45 See also Guide, pp. 79-81.
46 O.W. Wolters, "A Western teacher and the history of early Ayudhya", The Social Science Review, Sūngamātīya parīdāsin, Special Number 3 (June 2509: 1966), pp. 96-97; and O.W. Wolters, "The Khmer king at Basan (1371-3) and the restoration of the Cambodian chronology during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries", Asia Major XII, 1 (1966), pp. 83-84. The theory is explicitly noted by G/P in EHS 10, pp. 26-22, 28, n. 11, 38 and elsewhere.
while the competing, and ultimately victorious, Suphanburi line of Ayutthayan royalty preferred a policy of expansion against Sukhothai. Wolters based this interpretation on the apparently contradictory chronicle traditions of LP and the long Ayutthayan chronicles, the former of which records only one early invasion of Cambodia in 1431 while the latter have three—in about 1352, between 1384-86, and in 1421. Wolters further ‘refined’ these dates, on the basis of the Cambodian Ang Eng Fragment, to 1369 and 1389, the first at the very end of the reign of Rāmadhipati and the second in the reign of Rāmesvara.

Griswold and Prasert’s use of this reconstruction is rather strange, since throughout their work they emphatically rely on LP alone for early Ayutthayan events, while Wolters’ theory depends on modified acceptance of the long versions’ scenario. Moreover, Griswold and Prasert accept LP’s 1431, in the reign of Paramarāja II of the Suphanburi line, for the sole conquest of Angkor by Ayutthaya; and they also consider Jinakālamālī’s invasion of Kambuja in the 1360s, which Wolters equated with his first war against Cambodia, to refer only to events in central Siam.

Thus what Griswold and Prasert have really done is to rely on Wolters’ bi-polar theory when it suits their purposes for conjectural reconstruction but to reject it implicitly when it would be unfavorable to their argument. This is one of the types of inconsistency which is contrary to good historical method. If a hypothesis such as Wolters’ does not fit all relevant cases, it means either that the hypothesis is to be rejected or that the cases in some other respect have not been properly understood.

It can now be stated with virtual certainty that Wolters’ bi-polar theory, and all of Griswold and Prasert’s interpretations based on it, must be rejected. In a recently completed dissertation I have demonstrated (i) that Wolters misunderstood the Ang Eng Fragment, and that invasions in 1369 and 1389 cannot be reconstructed either from it or from the Chinese records Wolters used in support; (ii) the chronology of the long Ayutthayan chronicles as a whole derives from that of LP and thus only the latter may be used in further historical study; and (iii) the first two invasions of Cambodia in the long versions, in about 1352 and the 1380s, are entirely misplaced. Thus the LP entry of 1431 is the only direct statement of Ayutthayan attacks on Cambodia in the fourteenth-fifteenth centuries, although, as I have shown elsewhere, the LP entry of 771/1409 may disguise an earlier Ayutthayan intervention in Cambodia at that date, but not one which would support the bi-polar theory as it now stands. As for the other pole of the theory, warfare against Sukhothai, there is ample evidence for it in LP, but the only possible interpretation is that expansion northward was a constant feature of Ayutthayan policy from the fourteenth century—a policy which was maintained until King Chulalongkorn unified all of present-day Thailand at the end of the nineteenth century.

47 For the latter Wolters referred to the ‘Paramanujit’ recension, or the version of Samtec Brah Banarat. Insofar as the present subject is concerned, this version is also represented by the Royal Autograph Chronicle (RA), the so-called British Museum version, and Bāncāndanumās.


Before concluding this matter, I should like to discuss briefly one of the contexts in which Griswold and Prasert made use of the bi-polar theory, their EHS 5. They start out by saying, “Pdaiya was on very friendly terms with ... Ramādhipati I”, which must be an extrapolation from the bi-polar theory since nowhere, either in inscriptions or chronicles, is there information about the feelings of these two rulers. “Ramādhipati, whose grand design was to conquer Cambodia”, is strictly bi-polar theory, and a strange statement for Griswold and Prasert, all of whose work implicitly rejects the chronicle entries on which it is based. Equally bi-polar is “Ramesvara was no less amicably disposed toward Sukhodaya”, and it is equally without foundation in any other evidence. Of course, the attacks against Sukhothai which followed under Paramarāja I are explicit in LP, but outside of the bi-polar hypothesis there is no evidence that they were in contrast to another policy favored by Ramādhipati. Whether “Rāmeśvara quickly reverted to [a] policy of friendship with Sukhodaya” is quite unknown, since there is no information at all about his reign from his coronation in 1388 to his death in 1395. Elsewhere Griswold and Prasert propose that the “reticence” of the chronicles for this period suggests that “Ayudhya was on the verge of civil war”, presumably because of the bi-polar tensions, but gaps of seven years or more occur all through the fourteenth century (for example 1351-1369, 1378-1386, and 1395-1409), and I would say they imply nothing more than a lack of early records when the original LP was composed in 1680-81.

As I said earlier, space forbids full analysis of the totality of Griswold and Prasert’s background reconstructions, and some of them may turn out to be accurate, but all of those based on the bi-polar theory, and extrapolations from it about ideas of rulers in Sukhothai or Ayutthaya, must certainly be rejected.

Sukhothai ‘protohistory’

Discussion of Guide and EHS should logically begin with what I shall call, with some distortion of the term, ‘protohistory’, using it to mean the period for which there is no contemporary written evidence and which has been reconstructed solely from writings of a later period.

This subject is also treated briefly in Prince Chand’s first chapter, although this chapter continues with short descriptions of some of the sources for later periods of Sukhothai history as well.

The main source for ‘protohistory’ is inscription No. II, apparently written in mid-fourteenth century but part of which describes events of about 100 years earlier. In addition to No. II mention must be made of Brah Ruo/Phra Ruang, sometimes treated as a specific king of Sukhothai and sometimes as a legendary ancestor.

51 EHS 5, pp. 94-95; LP, pp. 132-33.
52 EHS 1, p. 213.
55 EHS 10, p. 87; Guide, p. 2.
I concur with Prince Chand in his opinion that the legends of Brah Ruŏn developed after the end of the Sukhothai period and that the name is generic, but would suggest that it is even more generic than he imagines and is not limited to Indrādity, Râm Gāmhaēn, Lo’daiy and Ḥdaiy.\footnote{Guide, p.1.}

The name Ruŏn/Ruang, written .AppendLine(416), has apparently been accepted as .AppendLine(416), equivalent to .AppendLine(416), a bright, shining; and the Pali translation rocariya of Sinakālamāli indicates that it was understood the same way in the sixteenth century.\footnote{Bučaniinukram rājapānīsathāni | Royal Institute Dictionary (RID), p. 755.} In various chronicles and legendary stories written much later than the period under discussion the name has been loosely applied to kings of Sukhothai, but it is never found in Sukhothai inscriptions in reference to any contemporary ruler. Moreover, the sole epigraphic occurrence so far recognized is in No. XIII, as the name of a vague ancestor, pu braňā (jī wāya), of a local ruler in 1510.\footnote{Coedes, "Documents", p. 88, n. 3.}

I would like to suggest further that ‘Ruŏn’, in a slightly disguised form, also occurs in No. XLV, in a context which reinforces its legendary aspect. In line 4, the first legible name in the list of “ancestral spirits” is pu ro’n (jī sā), “ancestor ro’n”, with the vowel sā which was used frequently for sā in early texts. That is, ruŏn is equivalent to ro’an, for which ro’n could have been a common spelling in the fourteenth-fifteenth centuries. It is also interesting that Pu Ro’n heads the list of Nan, not Sukhothai, ancestors; and if we could find ‘ruŏn’ or some other recognizable variant of the name in still another Thai mythology it would be proof that the Brah Ruŏn stories are not specific for Sukhothai, but are part of a body of ancient common folklore which was carried and modified by the different Thai peoples after they split and moved from their original homeland.

This is a complex and largely unexplored subject. It is accepted today that the Thai languages are descended from a common stock which can be located in prehistoric times in what is now southeastern China and northeastern Viet Nam, and a corollary of that is that there would have been a rather homogenous population speaking the dialects of that common stock at that time. We can then postulate that those people had a common religion or common stock of cosmological beliefs. As they gradually separated through migrations which resulted in greater diversity of their languages they would have carried their old beliefs with them, but just as languages changed and were influenced by languages of different stocks, so too the ancient beliefs of each Thai group would have been modified internally to each group over time and by external influences from other belief systems. Some, but not necessarily the same, elements of the old common cosmology would have been preserved in each Thai group, and it is a reasonable hypothesis that when we find similar stories in two or more widely separated Thai groups they are relics of the common mythology, or that when a story of the}

\footnote{Coedes, Recueil, pp. 157–60; EHS 14; note EHS 1, p. 218, that pū, ‘grandfather’, does not need to be taken literally; and see also Dorothy Crawford Fiffinger, "Kinship terms of the Black Tai people", JSS LIX, 1 (Jan. 1971), for various uses of ‘pū’ in another Thai language.}
ancient history of one group is duplicated in that of another, the stories are in fact common mythology. In fact, some support for the hypothesis that the Brah Ruon stories might derive from common Thai mythology can be found in the Ahom chronicles. There Khun Lung and Khun Lai, brothers, are the first ancestors who descend from heaven to be kings on earth, and Khun Lung had a son called Tao Leu. Furthermore, Khun Lung and Khun Lai were considered by the Ahom to have been grandsons of Indra, and Indra, who was ‘Lord of Thunder’, and ‘Lord of Heaven’, gave Khun Lung a special sword as a palladium.

Now given the circumstance that in Thai languages ‘l’ often alternates with ‘r’, ‘lung’ is a plausible doublet of ‘ruon’, and even the most casual student of Sukhothai history cannot fail to note the resemblance between the Ahom legend and the early history of Sukhothai, where Rām Gāṁhaē (RK), one of the brah ruon, is son of Indrā (dity) and has a son Lo’ (dity), and where one of the remote ancestors of Sukhothai history received a sword from the ‘Lord of Heaven’ (śiva), so far identified as the king of Angkor.

The differences in the structures of the two stories would be due, at least in part, to the fact that part, or even all, of the Sukhothai structure is true, but it seems likely that old common Thai mythology was strong enough that the leaders of Sukhothai wished to adapt their early history to it.

The first protohistorical figures who look like real persons are found in No. II. There seem to have been two families involved, one the family of the inscription’s probable author, Srisraddha, and the other the family of the kings of Sukhothai, ancestors of RK. Prince Chand thinks these two families were closely related, but this is an extrapolation which is impermissible for a historian, even if it should have been true. Prince Chand also feels that some of these ancestors should be considered true kings of Sukhothai, contrary to the more common opinion which begins that office with Indradity, after the presumed liberation of Sukhothai from the Khmer, and, more controversially, Prince Chand denies that Sukhothai was ever subordinate to Angkor, an argument which Griswold has energetically countered. Griswold is justified, I would say, in his contention that the grant of a sword-palladium and daughter by the king of Angkor is rather good evidence of suzerain status, but I believe Prince Chand is closer to the mark in his remarks about the Khôm, Khloī Lāṁbaī/Lamppong, and the evidence does not permit establishment of the latter’s identity so long as the full

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61 Ahom Baranjī, Calcutta, 1930, pp. 4-11, 14-15.
63 Justification for this argument will be presented below. See text with n. 139.
64 Guide, p. 3.
65 Guide, pp. 2-4, 6, 21.
meaning of ‘khom’ is unclear. Even if khom is equivalent to “khmer”, this is not sufficient to make him an Angkorean official67.

As for the rest of the story, the interpretation of Coedès, followed by Griswold and Prasert, seems to be about as far as one can carry the evidence, and the only other comment I would like to add concerns still more elements of the story which may be due to the influence of common Thai mythology.

The earliest ancestor mentioned is Braññ, or Ba Khun, Sri Nāv Nāṃ Tham. ‘Nāv tham’ is one of the readings of the name meaning ‘submerged’, ‘drowned’, which I discuss in detail below. Within Sukhothai mythology submerging, or drowning, is one of the attributes of Braññ Ruon, and it is possible that the author of No. II was using it as a claim that his line descended from Braññ Ruon, the most prestigious earthly ancestor.

This may be important in interpreting the information about the enormous extent of his kingdom. As Griswold and Prasert note, the indications of distance are unclear. Moreover, the inscription is so badly damaged that it is not even certain what the original episode was. Prince Chand, however, wished to interpret it literally in the largest sense, which in addition to the other objections, may be meaningless if the very identity of Nāṃ Tham is mythical68.

In the next generation we have two individuals, Phā Mo’an, son of Nāṃ Tham, and Bāh Klān Hāv, of indeterminate ancestry. ‘Klān hāv’ means ‘middle of the sky’, and one of the elements of old Thai mythology identified by Maspero was a belief that the first rulers of the first Thai kingdom came from a region outside the vault of heaven to settle and organize the first mo’an ‘under the sky’, which then became the homeland of the Thai69.

The Ahom stories also make an interesting contribution. Just as in the Sukhothai genealogy, where there are two possibly rival lines (on this point see farther below), in the Ahom cosmology Khun Lung was accompanied to earth by his brother Khun Lai and the latter’s descendant in the third generation was Chao Phā (cau fa?) Phā Klān Jeng Klān Rai (=rau?). Ahom ‘rau’ is cognate with Sukhothai ‘hāv’, ‘air’, and Ahom ‘j’ corresponds to Sukhothai and modern Thai ‘y’; and therefore phā klān jeng is unavoidably reminiscent of Sukhothai’s mo’an pān yān, the home of Bāh Klān Hāv, part of whose name, in the form ‘klān rāi’, is also found in the Ahom context70.

The author of No. II says that the ancestor (possibly his own) Phā Mo’an received a sword from the god (phi fa) of Sodhara, which as I have already indicated bears some resemblance to the Ahom story. Given the close cultural relations which may be presumed between Sukhothai and Angkor, it seems doubtful that a real king of Angkor would be called phi fa. However, sometime after the classical Angkor period Yasodharapura came to be known as

67 He could have been an official of a non-Angkor Khmer state in central Siam. See my remarks on Khom in JSS, January 1972, pp. 409-10; JSS, July 1973, pp. 208-09; and “Lion Prince”, pp. 332-33, n. 24.
69 Maspero, op. cit.
70 Ahom Burwii, p. 4: “Ahom language”, pp. 84-85, 118, 136. What I am arguing here is rather speculative. It is that the Ahom symbols for vowels ‘ai’ and ‘au’ are easily confused, and that ‘rau’ may have been written for ‘rau’ in the title concerned.
Indrapraṣṭha, ‘establishment of Indra’\(^{71}\), and the intention of No. II may have been to make a connection, not with the real Angkor, but only with its new, legendary, status as the city of Indra, the chief god, who gave a sword to one of the first Thai chiefs on earth.

These considerations can be continued one step further. In No. I, RK says his mother, wife of Indrāditya, was named Nāṇ So’ān (Naos), a name which apparently no longer has a literal meaning in standard Thai. In the Ahom cosmology the figure identified with Indra had a sister, Nang Sheng Dao, of which ‘sheng’, a plausible cognate with ‘so’ān’, means ‘ray of light’\(^{72}\).

There are clearly mythological elements in the account of the protohistorical period, but it is impossible at this point to draw the line between pure myth and myth adapted to true history. One of the possibly mythical elements is the connection made in No. II between Sukhothai and Angkor and which has occasioned disagreement between Thai and Western scholars. I would say that if that element, grant of a sword and daughter, is true history, then Sukhothai was a real vassal of Angkor, at least at the time of Pha Mo’ān. If, however, the mythical structure I have postulated is accepted, then such a connection between Sukhothai and Angkor may be rejected, for the other arguments put forward by Griswold, for example, are not sufficient. Neither artistic nor linguistic influence implies political subjection, and both could have been transmitted through peaceful intercourse between sovereign polities\(^{73}\).

There are still interesting things to note about the Sukhothai royal genealogy in this period. Pha Mo’ān is said to have transferred his title, ‘Śrī Indrapatindрайya’, to his contemporary, Bāṅ Klāṅ Hāṅv. In the following passage of No. II it says Śrī Indrāditya had a son named Rāmarāja, and this makes a connection between No. II and No. I, in which RK is said to have been son of Śrī Indrāditya, and it also allows the identification of Rāmarāja with RK.

All students of Sukhothai history have assumed that ‘indrapatindрайya’ and ‘indrāditya’ were equivalent, and that for some reason the original title had simply been abbreviated. The difference, though, must not be ignored. The form ‘indrāditya’, found in two inscriptions set up within one or two generations, must be accepted as a probably true title, especially since titles including a god’s name followed by ‘ādiya were rather common in the Angkor period and in particular for the dynasty of Jayavarman VII\(^{74}\).

The title ‘indrapatind्रयya’, however, is quite another matter. It suggests, superficially, an embellishment of the title ‘indrāditya’, implying perhaps an even higher rank; and according to No. II it was this more impressive title which had been granted by the phī fā of Angkor to Phā Mo’ān, the direct ancestor of the inscription’s protagonist.

The title consists of the elements ‘indra- patti- indra- ādiya, or indra- ‘chief, lord’ + indra- ‘sun’. Titles of this form, with ‘patti, are known in Angkorean usage—for example, Nṛpatin-

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\(^{71}\) See discussion of this in Vickery, “Cambodia after Angkor”, pp. 214, 291, 485-86.

\(^{72}\) Ahom Buranjī, p. 31; and “Ahom language”, p.138. ‘Dao’, in standard Thai, is ‘star’.

\(^{73}\) Griswold, “Notes and comments”, pp.150-51.

\(^{74}\) See EHS 10, p. 112; the index of names in George Coedes, Inscriptions du Cambodge (IC), VI\(b\); and Coedes’ remarks in IC, V,p.281.
drádiya, Bhúpatindrādīya, Mahiipatindrādīya, Rājapatindrādīya, and perhaps others, but nowhere else is there an Indrapatindrādīya. The reason is not hard to conjecture. In all such genuine titles ṇati is used as ‘lord of’, and compounded as above gives the meanings, respectively, Indrādīya who is ‘lord of men’ (nr), ‘lord of the earth’ (bhū, maḥi), and ‘lord of kings’ (rija). Since, however, Indra is the chief god it makes no sense to say ‘lord of Indras’ (Indrapati), and I suggest therefore that the title is the invention of a later generation and never really in use76.

The titular embellishment, I suggest, was a deliberate invention of Phū Mo’an’s descendants who were responsible for No. II, in order to enhance the prestige of their line over the family of Indrādīya, father of RK. It is noteworthy that No. II barely mentions the contemporary royalty of Sukhothai and nowhere gives them conspicuous praise. It suggests a rivalry between two families with the author of No. II retrospectively surrounding his ancestors with spurious attributes. This might explain Nām Thām as the most ancient ancestor. According to one cycle of legends, Braḥ Ruṇ himself was the king who drowned, and the author of No. II would have been claiming direct descent for his line from the most important legendary hero of the Thai.

While on the subject of Sukhothai royal ancestors we should again consider No. XLV, which starts out by invoking ‘ancestral spirits’ as witnesses to a treaty, apparently between Sukhothai and Nan, and to which Prince Chand gives attention immediately after his remarks on the protohistorical period.

Ever since No. XLV was discovered in 1956 it has caused considerable excitement among Sukhothai scholars, prompting them to add, at the very least, two new names, unknown to Prince Damrong and Coedes, to the list of Sukhothai kings. At the extreme Kachorn Sukhabanij has apparently argued that all the names of No. XLV should be considered kings of Sukhothai; Prasert, in one of his early studies, accepted them all as some kind of cau mōān, but only those with the title pū brahā as kings; and Griswold and Prasert together still accept only the latter as true kings77.

Prince Chand argues that both Saiy Saṅgrām and Nūa Nām Thām were true kings of Sukhothai, but his explanation involves the assumption that the vāh nā (mahā uparāj, ‘second king’) institution of Bangkok times already existed at Sukhothai, and he provides a table of family relationships which is pure conjecture78. Even if his reading of ‘Sueng’ in place of ‘Lueng’ (loān) is correct it does not justify the setting up of a two-branch family as he has done.

In an earlier article I argued that both Nūa Nām Thām and Saiy Saṅgrām were legendary figures, that is not real people, and based this argument to a great extent on the unlikely circumstance that both are also found in similar relative positions in the chroniclers history of Chiang
Mai. Prince Chand has challenged my argument, which I wish to renew with further evidence at the present time.  

In his note to my “Lion Prince”, pages 285-87, Prince Chand says that the names Nām Thaum, Nām Thum, Nām Duom (น้ำหน้า,น้ำหนโอม,น้ำหนโอม) mean, not that the person concerned was drowned, but was “flooded”; that is, he was born during a flood; that there “must have been hundreds of such people, both princes and commoners”; with such a name; and that the two so-called princes of Sukhothai and Chiang Mai were therefore real persons. He adds, moreover, that the terms in Thai for ‘flooded’ and ‘drowned’ are not synonymous, and that the latter would be น้ำหนโอม. It would be presumptuous of me to argue a point of Thai language with Prince Chand on my own authority, and so I shall merely demonstrate that scholars, both Thai and foreign, and including Prince Chand himself, who have studied the names in question, have generally agreed that they mean ‘drowned’, or in some way ‘covered over with water’, at least until I showed the unexpected conclusion that could be derived from this.  

First there was Ratanapaṇīja of Chiang Mai who in the sixteenth century wrote Jinakālamālī. In the admittedly confused Sukhothai genealogy found in that work he inserted the name “Udakajottataraja”, obviously corresponding to the Nām Thaum of the No. XLV list and which Coedes translated as “the king who plunged into the water”. There is no ambiguity about the Pali term. It cannot mean ‘flooded’ in the sense that a flood occurred, but only that the person in question, by accident or voluntarily, went below the surface of the water. A modern Thai scholar, บัตรราช (Saen Manvidur), in his Thai translation of the same story, has explained the same Pali term as ฉันทัง, literally ‘the king who sunk into/ was submerged/ in water’, or ฉันทัน, indicating that at least one Thai authority considered the two concepts synonymous, that is the king in either case was covered over with water.  

As for the Nām Thaum of Chiang Mai history, this name was rendered in Jinakālamālī by “Najjotthara”, which Khun Saen agrees was meant to be Nām Thaum, although he seems to wonder whether the Pali translation is accurate. Coedes in this case gave the equivalent “Nam Thaum”, and cited Bañšāvatīr Yonak, a late and often inaccurate synthesis, for the explanation, “born during a flood”. My innovation here was to suggest that the Pali “Najjothara” was intended to mean ‘covered by water’ and that there was a legendary connection between him and the Sukhothai Nām Thaum/Thuom.  

Prasert in one of his early writings has accepted that the Nūa Nām Thaum of No. XLV and the Nām Thum of Mūlasāsanā are equivalent to one another and to Nām Duom (น้ำหน่น่วา), and that they may be compared with the “Udakajottata” of Jinakālamālī; while Griswold and Prasert together explain Nām Duom as either “submerged in water” or “flooded”, showing that

81 Saen Manvidur, trans., Jinakalamalipakarn, p.110, n. 5.  
82 Saen, ap. cit., p. 103, n. 3.  
one more Thai authority admits the possible synonymity of the terms in this case. Griswold and Prasert go on to relate Nām Duom to the relevant Pali terms found in *Jinakālamāli* and *Sīhiṅgamidāna*, which they translate respectively as “covered with water” and “overflowing with water”⁸⁴.

As for Prince Chand, on the first page of his *Guide*, he refers to “Ngua Nam Thom”, “said to have been Bān Mueng’s son or grandson” in the chronicles, and he explains the name as “the king who was drowned [or] the wording here could also mean the king who was flooded, that is, he was born when there was a flood”. The reference to descent from Bān Mueng shows Prince Chand is thinking of the passage in *Jinakālamāli* mentioned above, and his explanation proves that before reading “Lion Prince” he was ready to accept ‘Nām Thom/Thuom’ as containing both meanings, ‘drowned’ and ‘flooded’ and he preferred the former. The same opinion comes forth clearly on his page 5, where, discussing No. XLV, he says, “... Pu Phya Ngua Nam Thom... called the ‘king who was drowned’ ”, with no mention of ‘flood’⁸⁵.

So much for the literal readings of these terms. For the hypothesis that I put forward in “Lion Prince”, the literal meaning in modern standard Thai is less important than the acceptance by Prince Chand, along with other authorities, that all the various spellings of ‘Nām Thuom’ in the different sources are equivalent, and the agreement of qualified scholars that ‘Nām Thuom’ has been rendered in Pali works by terms which mean in some sense ‘covered by water’ or ‘submerged’. As Coedès realized, and as I emphasized in “Lion Prince”, these names very likely have some relationship to the legend of Brah Ruori disappearing in a river. Prince Chand refuses to admit such a relationship, and says simply that there were hundreds of real people, both princes and commoners, who were named ‘Nām Thuom’ through birth at flood time. All I can say to this is that if all the people born during floods were so named, names for those generations would no longer serve their primary purpose of distinguishing one individual from another. Of course I cannot prove that certain princes were not named after floods, and, emphasizing again that historical reconstruction is based on probabilities, I will only reassert that (a) the consensus of expert opinion before I wrote “Lion Prince” was that the names in question more likely meant ‘submerged’ than ‘[born] flooded’, which is sufficient answer to Prince Chand’s argument; (b) this theme is clearly related to a legend of Brah Ruori; (c) the Nām Thuom-type names occur in similar structural sequences in both Sukhothai and Chiang Mai sources, and in the latter in a reign sequence which is suspect in other ways; and (d) therefore we are entitled to suspect interpolation of common legendary material in both places.

There is also other evidence that the theme of a prince submerging in water was part of Thai mythology, even when the name ‘Nām Thuom’ was not used. In the eighteenth century there were political upheavals in the northern Thai states and for a time there was no ruler at Lampang. According to the Chiang Mai chronicles the chief monk recommended a certain Nai T’ip’a Chak (devacakra, possibly *divya caksu*, ‘supernatural vision’.

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⁸⁴ Prasert, *op. cit.*, pp. 25, 40: EHS 11-1, p. 72, n. 6.
⁸⁵ See also *Guide*, p. 57, “Ngua Nam Thom died (possibly by drowning as the chronicles state)
⁸⁶ *Devacakra*, ‘divine wheel’, might possibly mean the sun, which would relate it to one of the names of Brah Ruori, ‘aruna’, for which see PN, pp. 8-11. Another possible etymology for ‘T’ip’a Chak’ would be *dīrīya caksu*, ‘supernatural vision’.
and the latter was later crowned as P‘raya Sula Leii Xai (พระยาสุลละลีเข้ายา). He was succeeded by a son, Xai Keo (เชื้อเกื้อ) who was given the title P‘raya Xai Songkram (พระยาเชื้อสังกรม). The latter was also succeeded by a son named Chao Xai Keo (จักรเชื้อเกื้อ) who settled a conflict with a rival by means of an ordeal to see who could survive submersion in water. Chao Xai Keo won easily; “he descended and sat peacefully at the bottom of the water” (เขาลงไปทรงนั่งอยู่ใต้น้ำ)

The reader cannot have failed to notice here a familiar structural sequence: a king Lo’ (โล), and in fact โล might be a corruption of โลด/daiy) followed by a king Jaiy Saṅgrām, followed by a submersible king, a veritable Nām Thuom. Perhaps Prince Chand would argue that this is merely a straightforward recounting of events which happened just as stated. I would find such an explanation utterly incredible, but of course there is no proof. There is strong probability, though, that a persistent old myth surrounding the beginnings of Thai history has influenced the writing of history for a period when another new dynasty was being formed.

Prince Chand also took issue with my interpretation of the names Saiy/Jaiy Saṅgrām, arguing that they are quite different, Saiy meaning ‘4’ and Jaiy ‘victory’. If he is correct, then my argument about similar structures in the Sukhothai and Chiang Mai reign sequences is considerably weakened. Saiy occurs in a number of traditional titles in a variety of sources and Griswold and Prasert as well as Chand have sought to interpret it as ‘4’, meaning the person concerned was the fourth son of his father. As evidence they can point to the list of Tilokaraj’s brothers where all are given apparently numerical names and where the fourth son is designated “sai”. On the other hand one can see in the Nan chronicle that the personal name Saiy need not have this connotation. In an undated episode of the very early history of Nan there is a cau khun sai who has no brother, and in cula 684 we find a cau sai who was sixth son.

Whatever the practice with respect to the use of sai alone as a personal name, sai in this usage is not the point of interest. What I am concerned with is the combination sai sangriim, which is something quite different. It appears to be a title belonging to a class of titles of which the second element is saṅgrām, ‘warfare’. Among such titles are not only jaiy and sai saṅgrām, but bijaiy saṅgrām, mahā saṅgrām, rāj saṅgrām, kera:stṛ saṅgrām, rāmaranrang saṅgrām, bejrāi saṅgrām, kāṅhaen saṅgrām, and others; and there is no title in which saṅgrām alone follows a personal name or a ya rank. Saṅgrām is always the second element of a two or more-element title. Thus even if sai is not equivalent to jaiy, neither is it likely to mean ‘fourth son’ in such a context.

The proof that sai and jaiy in this context are equivalents is rather lengthy and wide-ranging. First, in certain Thai dialects, including some in the north, the sound of ‘j’ has 87 Camille Notton, Annales du Siam III, “Chronique de Xiang Mai”, pp. 192-95; Tamnan, pp. 87-90. Romanization here is according to Notton. The story will henceforth be referred to as CMC.
88 Prasert, op. cit., p. 57; G/P, EHS 2, p. 38, n. 5.
89 Tamnan, p. 48.
90 Nan Chronicle (NC), pp. 294, 298.
become /s/, pronounced like 's'/'m', although it is written with a special consonant equivalent to standard Thai 's'. Thus jaiy saṅgrām in the north is pronounced /sa sāngrām/, and this is seen in Coedès' and Notton's translation by the use of 'x', as in xai, xaya, whereas 's' is used for 's'92. The difficulty is that in No. XLV we find sai (tā) saṅgrām instead of the la we would expect if my hypothesis is correct, and the only certain confusion between Σ and ə which I have found concerns the particle "at", sometimes written "a"93. Otherwise the writing of whatever period seems to distinguish between /s/ (ə) and /s/ (a).

The purely linguistic evidence, then, is inadequate, and indirect proof must be derived from the usage in various texts. In inscription LXXXVI94, set up in 1528, the most important official mentioned is brahṇā sri sairaṇāraṅg saṅgrām, apparently someone of cau mo'ani level in the Sukhothai-Phitsanulok area. The language is Thai but the script Khmer, which has no symbol for 'l', and thus all /s/ sounds are written with the Khmer equivalent of 'm'; but it would seem that in the dialect of that place and time the sounds of j/s and s/m had not coalesced, and thus sai still seems anomalous. The title I have cited from the inscription is not found as such in other sources, but if corrupted in later texts or usage it could easily devolve to sairaṇāraṅg, sairaṇaṅg, or sai saṅgrām.

In the reign of King Naresuor, during a war with the Burmese, the troops of 23 third and fourth-class provinces were placed under command of Bra:eśā sri saiyaraṅg and Bra:ja rājSrīdhānant, and the linking of these two officials shows that they were from Phitsanulok, proving, I would say, that the old title had devolved in one of the ways I described95. A bit later Ayutthaya conquered Tenasserim and Tavoy and Bra:jā sri saiyaraṅg was made governor of the former; and the use of this title for governors of Tenasserim continues in several more entries of the chronicle96.

Now the real titles of Tenasserim governors under the Ayutthayan system are known from the Hierarchy Law and contemporary seventeenth-century letters which show them as dhē jaiyya adhipati nāraṅg / jaiy96a. These titles are easily abbreviated to jaiyaraṅg, which with the exception of 'j' for 's' is the title of the official whom Naresuor moved from Phitsanulok to Tenasserim and which was continued in the new location after the original holder's death.

Thus, for whatever reasons, and even though the linguistic evidence is defective, it is clear that Thai bureaucrats and scholars of the time when these titles were in use considered sai and jaiy in such a context as equivalents; and my earlier argument about the structural similarities of the king lists of No. XLV and the Chiang Mai chronicle still holds.

There are still other things to say about the 'ancestor' lists of No. XLV and their value

92 The indication /.../ is to show rough phonetic approximation; underlining indicates transliteration of the written symbols.
93 Śīla cārīk III, pp. 83, 137, 148 for examples.
94 In Śīla cārīk IV.
95 RA, p. 158; and see Laws 1, p. 317, where brah rājSrīdhānant is still listed as Balat of Phitsanulok.
96a Laws 1, p. 321; PCS 4, pp. 4-7; Dhani Nivat and E. Seidenfaden, "Early trade relations between Denmark and Siam", JSS XXXII, 1 (1939), 1-15.
for historical reconstruction. The 'ancestors' are explicitly invoked as ārakkṣ, 'spirits', and while genuine ancestors may be venerated as protective spirits, it is by no means certain that all spirits invoked in a given context were real people. I mentioned above that the first one in the list of Nan spirits seems to be the legendary Ruōn. Following him are several more names which Griswold and Prasert try awkwardly to assimilate to the list of early Nan kings found in the Nan Chronicle. This is an extremely risky procedure and it would be preferable to recognize that we are simply faced with two quite contradictory lists of Nan 'ancestors', either one, or both, of which could be fictional (one of them must be fictional).

The Sukhothai list starts with khun cít and khun cót, according to Griswold and Prasert, with no evidence, father and uncle of Sri Indradity, but whom even Prince Chand apparently dismisses as mythical, the "Humpty Dumpty predecessors of Phra Ruang and Phra Lue". Prince Chand might have given thought, however, to the reason why the name 'Phra Ruang' is missing from the Sukhothai side of No. XLV. We should also note that in Lao history there was a khun cet, son of the mythical khun bulōm, and later on several more cet, including one called cet cöt/cét cõi. Part of Lao mythology is thereby included in No. XLV, strengthening the argument that some of it may be common Thai mythology.

Finally, it should be pointed out to those who, like Griswold and Prasert and Prince Chand, wish to consider the list of spirits in No. XLV as genuine ancestors, that No. XLV and No. II, for the period before Sri Indradity, are contradictory, and it is thus impossible that both are true. Again we must acknowledge that, beyond the father of RK, Sukhothai history, from whatever source, has been mixed with common Thai mythology to such an extent that the identification of real personalities may remain impossible:

The spirit list of No. XLV, then, is a mixture of former genuine kings and mythical figures and it is not in itself sufficient to modify the Sukhothai reign sequence determined from other inscriptions. Specifically, if Sai Saṅgrām and Nba Nâm Thăm continue to prove difficult to fit into the picture it is best to reject them.

The Rām Gāmhaeān period

The first historical, as opposed to protohistorical, period of Sukhothai history is the reign of the king who has come to be known as Rām Gāmhaeān/Khamhaeng (RK) even though all sources but No. I call him Rāmarāj. Prince Chand devotes little attention to this reign, he seems to feel that it is a period of few problems, and he apparently disagrees with the standard treatment only with respect to the date of RK's death. The RK inscription, however, No. I of the Thai corpus, is discussed in his chapters 2 and 3, and it is one of the great merits of Prince Chand's work to emphasize that inscription No. I may not be from

97 G/P feel that the ārakkṣ are unnamed 'guardian spirits' distinct from the 'ancestral spirits'. See EHS 3, p. 80.
98 EHS 3, p. 81, n. 15.
99 EHS 3, p. 82, n. 20; Guide, p. 5.
the reign of RK at all. This is a line of discussion which only a Thai scholar could initiate, and when it is raised by such figures as Prince Chand and Khun Prida Srichalalai, whose nationalist spirit is beyond question, it deserves serious attention\textsuperscript{101}.

The standard view of No. I has always been that it is a production of RK's reign, and its statements that he invented the system of writing used in it and that certain territories were subject to Sukhothai have been taken at face value. Thus Sukhothai, the first Thai state, appears under its greatest king nearly as vast as present-day Thailand. This standard version of the RK story has had to ignore, or explain away in an \textit{ad hoc} manner, certain peculiar features of the composition and writing of No. I, and to neglect the question of whether a government located at Sukhothai could plausibly have exercised control over such a wide area given the contemporary possibilities for wealth accumulation and communication in the thirteenth century. This standard view has proved embarrassing in the face of certain other evidence, such as mention of a \textit{kamraten} (ruler) of Phetchaburi at a time when Sukhothai is supposed to have dominated that area, and the apparently unequivocal statement of contemporary Chinese writers that Hsien, assumed to mean Sukhothai, was not far from the coast; and these details have had to be dismissed by means of more or less ingenious assumptions\textsuperscript{102}.

In EHS 9, Griswold and Prasert have provided a massive new treatment along standard lines and within that framework it at least has the merit of being accessible to many more readers than Coedes' French translation in the old first volume of Thai inscriptions \textsuperscript{103}. It is regrettable, given the problems still remaining in the interpretation of No. I, that Griswold and Prasert did not see fit to provide legible facsimile plates instead of the various copies reproduced from old works which now have only curio value. Prince Chand has earlier criticized several details of Griswold and Prasert's translation, but not in a way which affects the historical significance of the inscription, and I do not intend to touch on this matter in the present review\textsuperscript{104}.

Prince Chand's main substantive disagreement with Griswold and Prasert for the RK period, and the major point of controversy within the standard treatment, is the date of RK's death. The inscription itself throws no light on this point. It contains dates equivalent to 1283, 1285, 1292, presumably in RK's maturity near the end of his reign, and the dates for its beginning and end have always been calculated on the basis of remarks in other sources of unequal value. Griswold and Prasert suggest his date of accession to be 1279, based on information in the inscription, and that his death occurred in 1298, based on a remark in the Chinese history of the Yuan dynasty\textsuperscript{105}.

Prince Chand would place RK's accession a couple of years earlier and his death not until about 1316, and both conclusions are based on comparisons with the Mon chronicle \textit{Rajadhiraj}.

\textsuperscript{101} Guide, p. 30; Prasert, \textit{op. cit.}, p. 83.
\textsuperscript{102} See George Coedes, \textit{The Indianized States of Southeast Asia}, p. 205; E. Thadeus Flood, "Sukhothai-Mongol relations", \textit{JSS} LVII, 2 (July 1969), pp. 223, 244-46; Wolters, "A Western teacher", pp. 95-96.
\textsuperscript{103} Coedes, \textit{Recueil}.
\textsuperscript{105} EHS 9, p. 214, n. 99; EHS 10, p. 21, n. 2; G/P, "On kingship", p. 38.
and on Prince Chand’s denial that Sien/Hsien in the Chinese records ever meant Sukhothai. As for Rājādirāj, it is one of the sources which may not, at least for that early period, be accepted without full analysis, and although Prince Chand may be right about RK living beyond 1298, Rājādirāj, which in any case speaks of Brahma Ruoň, not RK or Rāmarāj, is not good evidence for it.

Whatever the true date of RK’s death, which in my opinion is not determinable, I agree with Prince Chand that Hsien did not mean Sukhothai and that therefore the Yuan records cannot be used to determine dates of Sukhothai history. The full argument to support this position would be rather long and will not be attempted here since it only affects the dates of RK’s death and Lo’daiy’s accession, neither of which is very important at this stage in the reconstruction of Sukhothai history. I will do no more than point out that confidence in the Hsien/Sukhothai equation has been decreasing in recent years. All are now agreed that by 1349 in any case Hsien meant, not Sukhothai, but some place in the lower Menam basin, and the most recent writer to devote a full study to the Yuan records on Siam recognizes “problems remaining in the unswerving identification of ... ‘Hsien’ ... with Sukhothai”.

We may now return to the RK inscription itself and to its value as direct testimony for the situation of Sukhothai at the end of the thirteenth century. Prince Chand thinks the inscription is really due to Līdaiy, basing his argument on the third-person references to RK and to Līdaiy’s need for No. I and its three companion inscriptions for propaganda value.

Of more interest to the question of the authenticity of RK is its writing system, which has several curious features. First, the vowel signs for ‘i’, ‘i’, ‘u’, ‘u’, and all those signs now written above and below the consonant symbols, are written on the line to the left of the associated consonant and are of the same size. Such a system is not found in any other southeast Asian alphabet, and perhaps not even in any alphabet of the Indic type anywhere, and more attention should have been given to the anomaly of such an arrangement in the “first system of Thai writing” and to the reasons why it was not carried on into later inscriptions. Thus the RK inscription is absolutely unique; and even if it was the first Thai writing, later scripts could not have been based exclusively on it, but must have adopted traits from other systems as well.

Another curious feature of RK is that tonal marks are used very much as in modern Thai, while later inscriptions have a defective tonal marking system. That is, tone marks are either entirely lacking or are used irregularly, and there is only a gradual development towards the complete system in use in modern times. The same is true of the vowel system, which in No. I is more complete than in inscriptions which were supposedly erected later.

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107 EHS 10, p. 41.
110 I have not been able to make a complete survey. If one is found, it would be valuable for dating the possible influence on the RK alphabet.
111 It is misleading to speak of the RK script spreading to other areas, as G/P did in their paper, “Remarks on relations between Keng Tung and Chiang Mai before the mid-16th century”, read at the Seventh Conference of the International Association of Historians of Asia, Bangkok, 22-26 August 1977. It was the Sukhothai script as represented by the other inscriptions, not the script of No. I, which eventually spread.
112 Coedes illustrated this long ago in “L’inscription de Nagara Jum”, JSS XIII, 3 (1919), pp. 5-6.
Such anomalies did not disturb traditional scholars who would have accepted the idea of a perfect writing system suddenly produced by a great culture hero only to degenerate under weaker successors; but it is a commonplace of modern archaeology and art history that the perfect creation comes at the end of a long period of development, not at the beginning.

Still another difficulty for the traditional interpretation of No. 1 is that spelling is inconsistent from one face to another, something which is common in Thai texts of later periods but unexpected in the first, consciously created, Thai script.

Griswold and Prasert take no cognizance of this point of view and accept that No. 1, with the possible exception of “Epilogue II”, was composed by RK himself and written while he was still alive. They also seem to accept that the script was truly invented by RK as the first Thai script, and thus their accounting for certain anomalies seems tortuous. They believe that RK composed the entire inscription in his mind, then dictated it to several scribes who prepared drafts of different sections for the engraver, and they assume that the scribes, “then as now, were allowed to use any spelling they liked”, that some of them “may have been more progressive in their spelling than others, or they may have pronounced certain words differently and based spelling on their own pronunciation.” However, if RK had just devised a new system of writing surely he would have taken pains to see that his scribes remained faithful to it; and if it was a new system of Thai script, where would the “progressive” scribes have imitated the features of spelling which are characteristic of later periods? What does “more progressive” mean when there is supposedly only the one, newly devised, system of Thai writing at hand? Griswold and Prasert’s explanation is appropriate for texts of later periods when in fact scribes were educated in different traditions, but not for the putative period of RK; and if the inscription is accepted as a genuine composition of RK’s reign, then the statement in its face IV/8-11 about the invention of Thai writing must be accounted false.

What needs to be done now is to cease speculation and ad hoc rationalization about the anomalies of No. 1, and to set up a comparative analysis of tone marks, vowels and consonants to see precisely where the system of No. 1 fits in the chain of development of all Sukhothai inscriptions. As for the odd position of vowel marks on the line, a thorough search must be made for such a system among all the Indic alphabets, and if another one is found we must determine when it might have influenced the script of Sukhothai. Such drastic innovations do not just spring forth from a great mind. Changes in writing, as in art styles, are gradual and due to complex influences, and had there been no such outside influences, the author of No. 1 would certainly have placed his vowels in the manner of other alphabets used earlier in the areas surrounding Sukhothai.

The only problem in the content of No. 1, which I wish to discuss in detail, is that of the epilogues. Epilogue I lists several Thai peoples between Sukhothai and present-day Laos who were subject to RK. As Griswold and Prasert remark, the area covered is relatively small, but it is credible given the material circumstances of the time and the dispersion routes of the Thai

114 EHS 9, p. 194.
peoples\textsuperscript{115}. Epilogue II gives a much longer list of vassal territories covering all of central Siam, parts of Laos, the Malay Peninsula as far as Nakhon Si Thammarat, and extending westward as far as Hailsavati, or Pegu, in present-day Burma. This is the list which has hitherto been used to define the true extent of political control of the Sukhothai kingdom in RK’s time. Griswold and Prasert believe, or at least believed in 1971, that Epilogue I had been composed in 1292, and Epilogue II soon after RK’s death; and thus the enormous expansion of his realm would have been carried out in the last seven years of his reign\textsuperscript{116}.

In a more recent article, however, Griswold and Prasert accept that Epilogue II does not mean physical conquest or the exercise of continuous political control, but only that rulers of those outlying regions voluntarily submitted or became vassals. “A good many rulers, observing his prowess as a warrior, may have called him in to dislodge an enemy and then made an act of vassalage to gain his permanent protection; and others, even though not facing any immediate danger, might think themselves secure under his suzerainty.”\textsuperscript{117} Unfortunately they resort to pure speculation to account for such submission, at times basing their arguments on chronicles of uncertain reliability\textsuperscript{118}, including Rājādhirāj which they rightly rejected on the question of RK’s death.

Besides this, they have derived proof of the vassals’ submission from ideas about Buddha images which were palladia and which were sent to the suzerain’s capital as signs of submission. The difficulty with this argument is that there is not a single instance in which such a practice can be demonstrated. “The chronicles” which “tell stories of certain images . . . that were palladia”, are very weak evidence, as Griswold and Prasert themselves emphasize in other contexts, and they do not in any case tell of palladia being sent voluntarily by vassals to suzerains\textsuperscript{119}; there is no evidence whether the colossal Dvārāvati image was ever a palladium at all or how it came to Sukhothai\textsuperscript{120}; and the importation of a learned monk from Nakhon Si Thammarat to Sukhothai is in no way a sign of the former city’s political submission. Furthermore, the Bayon cult of images to which Griswold and Prasert refer was something quite different. Although images at the Bayon seem to have represented provinces of the realm, there is no sign that the images were made anywhere but in the capital\textsuperscript{121}.

Whatever the final decision on these arguments, an important point for the present review is that Griswold and Prasert now admit that Epilogue II is probably more of a propaganda statement than a description of political fact; and it should no longer stand in the way of modification of received ideas about the history of those areas included in the list of Sukhothai vassals. Furthermore, everyone has always recognized that Epilogue II is a real epilogue, that it was written later than the rest of No. 1, and by a different hand\textsuperscript{122}. Once this is admitted,

\textsuperscript{115} EHS 9, p. 195, and see note 60, above.
\textsuperscript{116} EHS 9, pp. 194-95.
\textsuperscript{118} Ibid., pp. 40-43; EHS 10, pp. 26-47.
\textsuperscript{119} On the lack of reliability of the ‘inserted’ stories of Buddha images see EHS 11-1, p. 73, n. 6; and EHS 12, p. 117.
\textsuperscript{120} G/P “On kingship”, pp. 41-42. Chand, “Review 1972”, pp. 273-74, has some pertinent remarks on this theory of ‘palladia’.
\textsuperscript{121} G/P, “On kingship”, p. 41, n. 9; George Coedès, Pour mieux comprendre Angkor, English translation, Angkor, chapter VI.
\textsuperscript{122} Coedès, Recueil, pp. 37-38: EHS 9, p. 196.
there is no way to give any precise date for it, and it can only be assigned to a time period
within the very broad limits established by the use of certain place names such as Srahluoñ, Briaek, and Sôh Gvae, which later became obsolete. The epilogue, which still places all vowel symbols on the line, would then have been a deliberate attempt to mislead, and its list of vassals would have no historical value at all.

It should be clear to the reader that I have a good deal of sympathy for Prince Chand’s view that No. I really dates from later than the RK period. I also think there is some circumstantial evidence for Prince Chand’s choice of the Lidaiy period, although this still fails to explain the writing of vowel symbols on the line.

Above I have tried to show that No. II reflected a rivalry between two families of Sukhothai nobility with No. I representing the viewpoint of a family other than that of the legitimate kings. I suggest that No. I, if it is of Lidaiy’s reign, represents the response of Lidaiy to his rivals. Thus, the list of vassals duplicates more precisely the area roughly claimed for Srisradha’s ancestor, Nam Tham; Lidaiy’s grandfather Ramaraja duplicates the elephant duel feat of No. II’s hero; and Ramaraja, son of Indrādiy, is given a prestigious-sounding title, Braj Ram Ganghaen, which nearly duplicates the title, Ganghaen Braj Ram, given to the son of Indrapatiindrādiy in No. II. These features seem to support Prince Chand’s contention that No. I was a propaganda effort, and that it was written after No. II, thus plausibly sometime in the reign of Lidaiy.

It is likely that when Prince Chand’s opinion reaches a wider public its opponents might wish to make use of certain art historical evidence to disprove it. According to Griswold and Prasert the purpose of No. I was to commemorate the erection of Ram Ganghaen’s stone throne, and indeed the first dated passage of No. I refers to this throne. The stone seat is decorated with a band of stylized lotus petals, which in comparison with other art work might serve to date it, and these lotus petals have been given considerable attention in the recent dissertation of the art historian Hiram W. Woodward, Jr.

According to Woodward, “the lotus petals . . . are of an unusual and complicated type”, and the throne itself “stands apart from almost everything else in Sukhothai.” There is only one other place where a lotus petal anything like those on Ram Khamhaeng’s throne appears”, at the Mahâdhâtu in Lop Buri. Even there, it is only a single petal, amidst stucco decor of several styles, which seems to resemble the petals of the RK throne, and moreover, this petal “is entirely different from any of the other examples at the Mahâdhâtu.” It seems to be chiefly on the evidence of this single petal that Woodward dates the Mahâdhâtu close to 1292, which he accepts as the date of the throne and No. II.

123 Such limits have not yet been determined. For some remarks about them see Vickery, review of van Vliet, pp. 221-22: and Vickery, “The 2/k.125 Fragment,” pp. 52-53.
Were it not for that petal, which is the primary evidence "for narrowing the time span [of the Mahâdhâtu] down to the closing decades of the 13th century", the Mahâdhâtu could otherwise be "restricted merely to the 13th century, or possibly, to the first half of the 14th", in Sukhothai terms possibly very close to the beginning of Liiday’s reign. Furthermore, Woodward sees close similarities between certain elements of decor at the Mahâdhâtu and at Wat Som, which "can be placed with some confidence in the second half of the 14th century." Since, however, he has decided that the date 1292 is a fixed datum, he is forced to postulate a second generation artist who created the element in question at Wat Som in imitation of an element at the Mahâdhâtu.

What this means for the history of Sukhothai is that if Prince Chand is right about No. I, and I am inclined to think he is, then the date 1292 for the stone throne is no longer certain, and the only other closely related piece of art can, in its other relationships, be placed from the middle to the second half of the fourteenth century, precisely in the reign of Liiday.

A further consideration is that Woodward sees Burmese influence in the lotus petal of the Mahâdhâtu and since communication between Sukhothai and Burma must have been quite easy, and the lotus petals of the throne and the Mahâdhâtu in each case unique motifs surrounded by quite different art styles, is it too much to postulate independent imitation of Burmese art, which would mean that neither the throne nor the Mahâdhâtu could be dated by comparison with one another?

Although Prince Chand has made an important contribution in suggesting that No. I needs to be redated, he ignored the implications this could have for a whole series of important questions in the history of Sukhothai, and he appears equivocal as to the veracity of the content of No. I. Although stating that Liiday put up No. I and three other identical, undiscovered, inscriptions, he nonetheless believes that the autobiographical part had at sometime been written by RK himself and "Li Thai copied it from somewhere", utilizing RK’s own way of writing. Thus Prince Chand is able to have his new interpretation while still preserving the old beliefs.

The reign of Lo’daiy

The reign of Lo’daiy is one of the most difficult of the Sukhothai periods to study because of the paucity of factual information which may be imputed to it. Lo’daiy himself appears in four inscriptions, none of which is really concerned with him or his reign. Even his regnal dates are uncertain, and the one proposed by Griswold and Prasert for his enthronement, 1298, depends on the Hsien/Sukhothai equation which may eventually have to be revised.

Prince Chand proposes 1322 for Lo’daiy’s accession, having accepted circa 1318, based on the inadequate evidence of Ratjâdhiraj, for the death of RK, and his justification for 1322 merits discussion. Prince Chand says that according to a "chronicle", Braṭ Ruoh, which in

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129 Ibid., p. 12.
131 No. I, No. II, No. III, No. XLV.
this case means Lidaiy, "erased" or diminished the era (sakarat) and that this is confirmed by No. IV132. That is, since No. IV is from the reign of Lidaiy, and says something about changing the calendar, the reference in PN must also be to Lidaiy. Prince Chand then says that Lidaiy's new era began in 1322 "for reasons that will become apparent later". These reasons, apparently, are that in the story of Nāh Nabamī (NN), Brah Ruōn, who in that context is supposed to be Lo'daiy, ruled until the eighteenth year of the new saka era, or 1340, and "in the latter year Phra Ruang (Loe Thai) died after being on the throne 18 years", or from 1322. Prince Chand goes on to say, "Loe Thai died after 18 years on the throne", apparently basing this on NN133.

Firstly, Coedès, in his version of No. IV, showed clearly that the calendrical reform mentioned there involved the calculation of days and months, not years, and it thus has nothing to do with changing an era, and does not prove that the Brah Ruōn who supposedly changed the era was Lidaiy134.

Furthermore I have demonstrated in an earlier study that the stories of Brah Ruōn changing an era have to do with the establishment of the cola era, 600 years earlier135. Of course Prince Chand realizes that this cannot be any of the postulated Brah Ruōn of Sukhothai, and he would apparently agree that no Brah Ruōn established the real cola era. The stories, however, are explicit, although it is possible that Lidaiy's calendrical reform contributed to the legend, and it will simply not do say that they 'really meant' a change of era in the Sukhothai period. We might also ask why such a new era, with all the importance attributed to it, was never used in any contemporary source. The whole series of Sukhothai inscriptions shows nothing but saka later cola, and occasionally a few Buddhist era dates, but no example of a date resembling the so-called new saka era of Lidaiy136.

Nothing then may be said about Lo'daiy's accession date except that he probably succeeded RK. Prince Chand, however, states that his calculations prove an interregnum between RK and Lo'daiy which must have been filled by the reign of Saiy Saŋgrām. That is, Lo'daiy took the throne in 1322 and RK died in either 1298/99 or about 1318, leaving a period of 5 to 25 years to be accounted for137. As I have indicated, both those dates for RK's death are highly conjectural; the first is based on evidence which may possibly not even concern Sukhothai, and even if the evidence for the second is accepted as relevant, there is a possible margin of error of several years either way. Whatever the date of Lo'daiy's accession we do not need to postulate an interregnum; and as for Saiy Saŋgrām, found only in the spirit list of No. XLV, I maintain my contention that he was not a real ancestor or king. Griswold and Prasert consider Saiy Saŋgrām to have been a real ancestor, but not a king of Sukhothai and they also accept that Lo'daiy succeeded RK138.

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132 Guide, p. 55. The "chronicle" is probably PN; see its pp. 11-13.
134 Coedès, Recueil, pp. 98-99, n. 3. This interpretation has been accepted by G/P, EHS 11-1, p. 138.
135 Vickery, "A note on the date of the Traiphummitakatha", JSS LXII, 2 (July 1974), pp. 275-84;
136 See Vickery, "Lion Prince", for more information on changes of eras.
138 See above and G/P, EHS 3, p. 82, n. 20.
The major contemporary document of Lo'daiy's reign is No. II, which I used above for evidence of Sukhothai prehistory, noting that my use of it would require further justification. There has been a good deal of controversy surrounding the authorship and meaning of this inscription, controversy which to my view has been somewhat disguised in the literature to date. Coedes considered that the object of the inscription was the foundation of the Mahādhatu of Sukhothai and that the author was not the Srīsraddha whose activities figure prominently all through it, but another person who begins to speak in the first person mid-way through face II. Griswold accepted the second point and added that Lo'daiy was the author. He also noted correctly that No. II speaks of rebuilding a Mahādhatu, not its foundation, and he thought the Mahādhatu was probably founded by Indradity, the postulated first King of Sukhothai.

At this point I would only like to note that the change of person in the narrative of No. II is not a strong argument, since all agree that its style lacks clarity, and it is a particularly poor argument for those who have never considered the change of person in No. I to be an obstacle to its attribution in entirety to RK.

By the time Griswold and Prasert studied No. II together they had become less certain about its authorship, and they stated that the author was "either Lōdaiya or Srīsraddha", thus implicitly rejecting the argument about change in the style of narrative. They still maintain that its purpose was the reconstruction of the Mahādhatu at Sukhothai, and they followed Coedes in breaking up the text into a 'primary text' and 'postscript' which alternate back and forth from face to face of the stone.

Prince Chand will have none of this. For him the "inscription has nothing to do with the Mahā Dhatu at Sukhothai at all, nor with Sukhothai after the author left the country"; and Prince Chand also feels that Griswold and Prasert's rearrangement of the text is unnecessary, although he fails to argue these points in detail.

I am in full agreement with Prince Chand on the first question, but I am afraid that, as Coedes already made clear, the division of the inscription into two parts is indicated on the stone itself.

As to the purpose of the inscription, Griswold and Prasert accept that several passages up to face II, line 40, relate Srīsraddha's activities in Ceylon. Then the inscription says, "the Samtec Brah Mahāsāmi, leaving Sihala, etc.", which would seem to mean 'leaving Ceylon', and would also mean that the Mahādhatu mentioned in face II, lines 45-48, must be somewhere else, possibly at Sukhothai. The difficulty with this interpretation, relegated to the fine print of footnotes, is that between "leaving Sihala" and mention of the Mahādhatu, we find Srīsraddha.

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139 See above, n. 63 ff.
140 Face II, line 45 ff.; Coedes, Recueil, pp. 49-50.
141 Griswold, Towards, pp. 17, 3, respectively.
142 EHS 10, p. 75.
143 EHS 10, pp. 77-78.
busy near the river “Māvalikagaṅga”, at the Mahiyāṅgana Mahāceti, which are famous locations in Ceylon; and Griswold and Prasert accept that “the author has jumped from Ceylon to Sukhodaya . . . [and] back again to Ceylon before returning to Sukhodaya145”.

The way out of this difficulty appears farther along in the same footnote. There we have a clear explanation that Ceylon at that time was divided into two parts, that Srisraddhā probably considered Sihala to mean Anurādhapura, and that “leaving Sihala” simply meant going to another part of the island where the Mahiyāṅgana Mahāceti was located.

It is thus clear that the Mahādhātu mentioned in face II/45-48 is the latter edifice in Ceylon, where the Kesadhātu and Givadhātu of face II/49-65 were really located. This interpretation would seem confirmed by Srisraddhā's explicit remarks about the “religion in [my emphasis] Lāṇkādīpa”, which Griswold and Prasert have revised to “religion of Lāṇkādīpa”, and “the natives of Sihala146”; and it is now definitely clinched by the identification of Kambalai as a location in Ceylon. Even so, however, Griswold and Prasert refuse to draw the obvious conclusion and propose to cut and rearrange the inscription to replace mention of Kambalai in a context less embarrassing for their theory147.

The importance of this analysis of No. II is to demonstrate that its evidence for Sukhothai history lies only in the protohistorical period, not the reign of Lo’daiy; that Lo’daiy had nothing to do with it; and that to the extent the author, probably Srisraddhā, dealt with Sukhothai history at all, it was to glorify a family other than that of the Sukhothai kings and who may plausibly be seen as his ancestors and their rivals148.

The next controversial aspect of Griswold and Prasert’s reconstruction of the reign of Lo’daiy is their reliance on interpretations of a variety of secondary chronicle sources. Without them, of course, the reign of Lo’daiy would be nearly blank, since so few inscriptions have been preserved from his reign. All of these chronicles are, or contain sections, of dubious accuracy, and Griswold and Prasert’s method of extracting parts of them as literal truth to combine, sometimes with ad hoc emendation, overt or covert, into a historical synthesis is entirely contrary to proper method149, although this does not necessarily mean that all of their reconstructions are false.

The chronicles used by Griswold and Prasert are, in order of their appearance in EHS 10 pages 29-70: The Sankhep chronicle, Rājādhīraj, Mulasasana and Jinakalamāli. A general criticism of these sources cannot be undertaken here, and I shall confine myself to some of the more obvious weak points.

Griswold and Prasert use Sankhep to establish certain facts about the town of Traiptītha, assumed to have belonged to RK because it is not mentioned in his list of territories, and to

145 EHS 10, p. 127, n. 149.
146 EHS 10, p. 131, n. 164; pp. 132-33, and n. 184.
148 Pace Griswold, Towards, p. 17, n. 46, Srisraddhā’s notice of Dharmanāja (Lo’daiy) is hardly a ‘eulogy’, but merely a perfunctory compliment, the very least that would have been due the reigning king.
149 Such chronicles should not be used in synthesis until they have been carefully dissected, and the sources of their information identified. See my “Lion Prince” for an attempt at such an analysis, and Vickery, “Cambodia after Angkor”, for a complete study of the Cambodian chronicles up to about A.D. 1600.
establish certain details about the family background of Rámádhipati I of Ayutthaya. *Sankhep* was written only in 1850 as a summary of the Ayutthayan chronicle of 1795, but with certain details incorporated from the van Vliet/Sangtiyavangsi tradition150. Its chronology is known to be inaccurate from early in the fourteenth century to about 1630, it incorporates a list of Ayutthayan tributaries which Griswold and Prasert recognize as a later interpolation151, and given such serious defects it is simply not permissible to leap on another part of *Sankhep*, concerning the antecedents of Rámádhipati I, and treat it as historical truth.

The sources for the *Sankhep* story are unknown, but it is significant that it makes Rámádhipati I descend from northern princely families and that it was composed by a prince of the Bangkok dynasty, one of whose major preoccupations in the nineteenth century was the subjection of northern Siam to Bangkok authority.

After Griswold and Prasert had produced their EHS 10, Charnvit Kasetsiri collected a number of different stories about the background of Rámádhipati I and concluded that he originated from Petchaburi, not the north. I find Charnvit’s reasoning no more convincing than that of Griswold and Prasert, but at least his study proves that there are many versions of the antecedents of Rámádhipati I, all possibly of equal validity (or none), and the historian must not choose any one of them without offering strong evidence for the rejection of the others. My own view at this writing is that all such stories may be legend, that Rámádhipati I did not have to come from anywhere, and that he may have been of a strictly local family in the lower Menam basin152.

*Mulasasana* and *Jinakalamiili* are used together for the story of the propagation of the Sihalabhikku community in Siam and this story is also relevant for dating certain parts of the reigns of Lo’daiy and Li’daiy. The whole story seems to begin in 1331, a date read into *Mül* by Griswold and Prasert, and ends in 1369 with the monk Sumana’s arrival in Lamphun as recorded in No. LXII of Wat Phra Yūn153. In between these dates, according to Griswold and Prasert, Sumana would have studied in Martaban in the early 1330s, would have returned to Sukhothai in the late 1330s, would have been reordained in Martaban in 1339-40, and would soon thereafter have gone to reside in the Mango Grove in Sukhothai while his companion resided at the Red Forest Monastery in Sri Sajjanālai. These dates are based on *Mül*. *Mül* also indicates the existence of separate rulers of Sukhothai and Sajjanālai, the first of whom was entitled Dharmarāja; and Griswold and Prasert identify them as Lo’daiy and Li’daiy, respectively king of Sukhothai and viceroy of Sajjanālai, which accords with the view, supported by No. IV, that Li’daiy was appointed chief of Sajjanālai in 1340 and resided there until 1347154.

151 EHS 10, p. 37. Griswold’s reliance on such chronicles in EHS is surprising, since in his “Thoughts on a centenary”, *JSS* LII, 1 (April 1964), pp. 21-56, he took a very critical view of certain chronicles such as PN and Bohtsarat Yonuk, and to the extent that *Sankhep* purports to break new ground it is no more reliable than the former two.
152 Charnvit Kasetsiri, *The Rise of Ayudhya*, pp. 58-68. This would be awkward for those who insist that Rámádhipati I was Thai, since it is now admitted that the delta population in the 14th century was probably more Mon or Khmer. See G&P, “On kingship”, pp. 29, 33-34; EHS 3, p. 62.
153 EHS 10, p. 55, n. 3; p. 60 and n. 24; EHS 13.
154 EHS 10, pp. 61, 64.
In general, but with an important difference, Jinakālamāli relates the same story. A difficulty with this story is that epigraphic evidence seems to indicate that the Red Forest Monastery and the Mango Grove Monastery were not founded until 1359 and 1361 respectively. Griswold and Prasert struggle unconvincingly to rationalize their way around this difficulty, and conclude with a remarkable bit of special pleading: “While epigraphic evidence is certainly preferable to chronicular, is the conjectural interpretation of an inscription preferable to the straightforward testimony of two chronicles whose accounts are plausible in themselves and internally consistent enough?”

Besides the fact that utterly fictional accounts may be “plausible” and “internally consistent”, there are other important considerations which tend to support the evidence of the inscriptions. Mīlū, from which Griswold and Prasert’s dating derives, contains an extremely confusing chronology, which even Griswold and Prasert admit, and even there a much longer time period than 1331-1340 could easily be read into the events it describes. Finally, and this is what I meant by ‘covert emendation’, Griswold and Prasert have ignored the explicit indication of Jina, which they otherwise accept as the chronologically most accurate northern chronicle, that the story of Sumana should be placed between 1355 and 1369, which fits very well with, and reinforces, the statements of the inscriptions.

This last point has relevance for certain other problems in Sukhothai history. Jina, like Mīlū, also mentions two separate rulers in Sukhothai and Sajjanālai, “Dhammaraja” and his son “Lideyyaraja”; and in the 1350s the former could only have been Līdaiy, which would mean that the latter was the king thus far known to historians as Mahādharmarāja II.

Griswold and Prasert returned to this question again in an appendix to EHS 12, pages 114-19, and they finally recognized that the testimony of Jina poses a real problem. Still they do not face the evidence squarely. Although noting that the account of Sumana falls between 1355 and 1385, they say Jina does not give a precise date for the time when Dhammaraja was reigning at Sukhothai. The wording of Jina, however, is, following the coronation of Kilana in 1355 and the installation of his brother in Chiang Rai, “at that time [my emphasis] King Dhammaraja was reigning in Sukhodayapura.” It is clear that the writer of Jina meant this to correspond to the time of Kilana, and there is no reason, within the context of Jina, to invoke the possibility, as Griswold and Prasert do, on page 116, that Jina’s account mentions two different Dhammarajas.

Griswold and Prasert attempt to get around the problem in another way (p. 117), by admitting first that Mīlū is corrupt. They then say the account of Sumana in Jina “seems to be based largely on M [Mīlū]”—something not hitherto apparent to other scholars and which requires demonstration—and that Jina is therefore not good independent evidence. But if Jina

155 EHS 10, p. 71.
156 EHS 10, p. 72. It should be emphasized that the chronicles, especially Mīlū, are anything but straightforward, and the evidence of the inscriptions on the dates of these monasteries is not conjectural.
157 EHS 10, pp. 53-54, n. 2, and p. 55, n. 3.
160 Ibid., p. 95.
is based on "why does it have quite different dates? They also say the story in question is one of the inserted narratives of Jina which are not so reliable as the basic text, even though it is precisely this inserted narrative which is most frequently used by Griswold and Prasert as a basis for other conclusions in their EHS161.

Finally though, on page 119, they are almost forced to admit that Sumana may not have come to Sukhothai or discovered the relic until 1361, that therefore the Dhammaraja of Jina could not have been Lo'daiy, but was Lideyya, and that the Lideyya of Jina would thus be one of his sons, "perhaps the 'Father Lodeya'" of No. XLV who "may have been an elder half-brother of Mahadharmaraja II".

This last explanation still involves covert assumptions—that Mahadharmaraja II could not have been named Lideyya/Lo'daiy, or that in 1361 Mahadharmaraja was too young to have been viceroy in Sajjanalai—and I intend to show below that the explicit time period of Jina fits together with epigraphic evidence to prove that the personal name of Mahadharmaraja II, hitherto undiscovered162, was something which could be palicized as 'lideyya', that he was the Lideyya of Jina's Sumana episode, and that this enables us to modify the readings of certain inscriptions which have caused difficulty.

Prince Chand is also in disagreement with Griswold and Prasert's treatment of this period. In an earlier critical review he stated that the "contemporaries" of Lo'daiy discussed by Griswold and Prasert were really contemporaries of Lideyya, after 1347, and that the three important monks mentioned in Mul and Jina were involved in Lideyya's ordination in 1361/62163. In Guide Prince Chand renews this criticism, referring briefly to the discrepancies in the chronicles which I noted above164. He also, in chapters 4 and 5, gives a long detailed version of the history of Buddhism in Siam up to the fourteenth century, and he describes Lo'daiy's ordination in detail as a major event. This history of Buddhism depends on a wide range of sources and more attention will be given to it below.

On the specific point of the arrival in Siam of certain important monks, Udumbara, Anomadassi, and Sumana, my critique above would imply the same conclusions as Prince Chand's, but pending a full analysis of the chronicles, I would prefer to reserve judgement on the true factual details of these events and merely suggest how certain of the sources may or may not be used.

One final comment may be made on the only political aspect of Lo'daiy's reign which Griswold and Prasert felt was clear, the loss of the vast territories subordinate to RK165. Prince Chand has suggested that No. 1 was in fact a propaganda effort of Lideyya and I have emphasized that Epilogue II is very weak evidence for real conquests of RK at all. Thus those territories may never have been Lo'daiy's to lose. Griswold and Prasert themselves in one of their latest articles have given an entirely new meaning to Epilogue II, and one which loosens

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161 EHS I, p. 212; EHS 3, pp. 62-66. See also n. 119, above.
162 See text with n. 241, below.
165 EHS 10, pp. 25-47.
the ties between the outlying territories and Sukhothai to nothing more than vague vassalage; and already in EHS 10 they were hard put to show when or how certain places were lost. We are thus no longer obliged to accept that Lo’day lost RK’s realm, that his reign was therefore politically traumatic, or that later apparent expansions of Sukhothai were undertaken in a revisionist spirit.

The reign of Li’daiy

Perhaps the only fact of Lo’day’s life about which there is solid evidence is the approximate date of his death, 1347, at which time, according to No. IV, his son Li’daiy marched from Sajjanalai to take the throne in Sukhothai. Thus began another reign for which, in spite of abundant inscriptions, relatively little political detail is certain. Since No. IV says he moved from Sajjanalai to be crowned at Sukhothai in 1347, and that in 1361 he had “ruled and reigned at Srí Sajjanalaya Sukhodaya for 22 years”, or since 1340, historians have reasonably inferred that he was appointed to some position such as uparaj in Sajjanalai in 1340 during the lifetime of his father.

Less reasonably, I would say, Griswold and Prasert assert that when Lo’day died “the throne was usurped by a man called Nūa Nām Thām”, and that this accounts for the apparent violence of Li’daiy’s move to Sukhothai. I have already elaborated my view of Nūa Nām Thām, and here I would only add that it would seem unlikely for the list of spirits in No. XLV, which was meant to be auspicious, and which was set up by the direct heir of Lo’day and Li’daiy, to include an ancestor who had tried through usurpation to upset the accepted chain of succession to the detriment of the line responsible for the inscription. That there was some obstacle to Li’daiy’s accession in Sukhothai seems clear from No. IV, but there is absolutely no way, in the realm of history rather than romance, to ascribe this difficulty to Nūa Nām Thām.

For Prince Chand, Nūa Nām Thām’s reign would have been even longer, from 1322 to 1340, on the grounds that Lo’day died at the earlier date. Prince Chand’s calculation, however, is based on the information of Nāh Nabamāś which I have already shown to be unacceptable.

According to Griswold and Prasert, one of the important political achievements of Li’daiy was to reunify a large part of RK’s old realm which had been lost under Lo’day. I have noted above the difficulty of accepting the territorial statement of No. I, and the lack of evidence for a genuine loss of Sukhothai territory, but Griswold and Prasert base their argument on a very badly damaged portion of No. III which seems to refer to divisions of the realm. Coedès, however, seemed to feel it concerned the administrative divisions of the kingdom, and Griswold

167 EHS 11-1, p. 73.
168 In EHS 11-1, p.71, G/P says he was definitely uparāja, but in the absence of that term from the inscriptions we may not be certain of it, or even that the institution of uparāja existed at Sukhothai.
169 EHS 11-1, pp. 72, 136.
170 Guide, pp. 16, 57; Vickery, “A note, etc.” (see n. 135 above).
171 No. III, face II, lines 12-25; EHS 11-1, p. 91-92, 106-07.
and Prasert’s version is only achieved through massive emendations of the mutilated passages without even demonstrating that the emendations would fit properly into the destroyed portions of the stone. Given the extremely fragmentary character of the passage, either Coedès or Griswold and Prasert may well be correct in their general interpretation of the original meaning, but this is a case in which it would have been better to give only the literal translation of the remaining sentence fragments and remain agnostic about the original. In particular I see no way to derive “acting independently” from face II, line 23; and in face II, line 25, the phrase  can just as well refer to Līdaï himself and there would be no need to translate “forced [all] those lords and rulers [to submit].”

The only other political acts which may be understood from the inscriptions are a campaign against Nan and Prae and a seven-year sojourn in Phitsanulok which Griswold and Prasert plausibly place respectively in 1362 and between 1362 and 1370.

Again Prince Chand is in disagreement over basic details. For him Līdaï’s sojourn in Phitsanulok was between the years 1347 and 1359 but was broken by visits to other localities. His reasoning is again based on acceptance of a passage in a “chronicle”, this time PN, and assimilation of the passage to information in the inscriptions; and the whole thing is related to his interpretation of a detail of art history discussed in his chapter 4.

According to PN the “Jinarāj trio”, the Buddha images Jinarāj, Jinasih and Śādā at Phitsanulok, were all cast at the same time with some difficulty arising in the casting of the Jinarāj. Prince Chand accepts this story, believes the date to have been 1359, in the reign of Līdaï, at which time No. IX also seems to be telling of an image which caused difficulty, although the latter image would seem to have been in Śri Sajjanālai. Most art historians deny that the three statues were cast at the same time, and Griswold places all of them at later dates.

Whatever the dates of the images, the story of PN cannot be accepted, the passage of No. IX must be taken as referring to Śri Sajjanālai, and, I would add, there is even some doubt that it refers to casting an image at all. The phrase is  of which the last three terms mean ‘our lord’, possibly a royal person rather than an image, and the first, according to modern dictionaries, “to put into”, “to fill up with”, “to insert”. Coedès, however, felt the passage referred to the setting up of an image, although he had some doubts about 181; and it is not the term generally used in passages clearly relating to casting.

This is the type of case, mentioned at the beginning of this review, when those proposing an

172 Coedès, Recueil, pp. 78, 88; EHS 11-1, pp. 106-08, nn. 109, 114, 117, for ex.
173 EHS 11-1, pp. 92, 107, and 107, n. 114.
174 EHS 11-1, pp. 92, 108, and 108, n. 117. I have enclosed G/P’s emendations in brackets.
175 EHS 11-2, pp. 103-04, 109.
177 EHS 12, p. 105.
179 See Griswold, “Thoughts on a centenary”, which also cites Prince Damrong’s opinion (n. 151, above).
181 Coedès, Recueil, p. 136, line 15, “mettre en place (?)”.


unusual meaning for a term must give explicit evidence that the new meaning is justified. Still another usage of ณณ, not included in all the standard dictionaries, but which can easily be attested in the reliquaries of modern Thai temples, is the 'deposit of ashes' (ณณณณณ) after cremation; and it is worth noting that in Khmer, which is recognized as relevant for the interpretation of Sukhothai inscriptions, the term is used particularly for the deposit of the ashes of royalty. 181a

As in the case of Lo'daiy, there seems to be much more information about Lidaiy's religious activities, in particular his ordination in 1361. The basic details of this event are found in inscriptions 182; and other details, including identification of the monks involved, have been derived from the same chronicle passages used by Griswold and Prasert for the religious activities of Lo'daiy and concerning which Prince Chand is in disagreement.

Nearly all of Prince Chand's chapters 4 and 5 are devoted to this subject, and while I agree that Griswold and Prasert's interpretation is much too arbitrary, and that Prince Chand is probably correct about the time period to which the stories of Jina and Mid refer, his own further interpretations are just as arbitrary as those of Griswold and Prasert. I shall not try to sort out these arguments in detail, for it would take an enormous amount of space, and because I believe the first step must be a thorough critical study of the chronicles concerned.

Prince Chand's chapter 4 is entitled "Biographies of three Sukhothai monks", but it is less about three monks than about interpretations of certain inscriptions that differ from Griswold and Prasert without making the differences explicit. Four monks are mentioned with equal emphasis, and I am not sure which are the three of the title.

Among the original interpretations are the question of the Jinaraj trio, already discussed, the identity of some of the names of No. XLV, and the date of Lidaiy's death, which will be discussed below.

Chapter 5 is a whole new history of Buddhism in Siam, the purpose of which is to show that Theravada Buddhism was introduced there by Lidaiy at the time of his ordination in 1361, and that Buddhism in Siam before that time had been non-Theravada.

This argument leads Prince Chand through almost the whole religious history of central and peninsular Siam, Burma, and Ceylon as well as into sources which cannot be discussed here due to lack of space and insufficient competence of the reviewer in the fields of Ceylonese and religious history. Nevertheless, a few definite remarks must be made. Much of Prince Chand's argument is based on some of the last writings of Senarat Paranavitana in his Ceylon and Malaysia, and it is now known that the new 'discoveries' revealed in that work were an elaborate hoax. That is, certain inscriptions, in small script between the lines of other inscrip-

181a The use of ณณณณณ (ณณณณณ) for the deposit of relics in the early fifteenth century is attested in Nos. L and LI, from Chaimat. See Silā vara'k III, pp. 89,90.
182 EHS 11-1, pp. 119-176.
tions, seen only by the eyes of S. Paranavitana, and which linked the history of Ceylon and the
peninsula in unsuspected ways, are now admitted to be nonexistent.\textsuperscript{183}

Thus all of Prince Chand’s interpretation which depends on that part of Paranavitana’s
work, and in particular, all statements about peninsular origins of certain branches of Cey-
lonese royalty, must be rejected\textsuperscript{184}; and critical judgement of Prince Chand’s interpretation
must await a complete reworking of the entire body of evidence.

Prince Chand and Griswold and Prasert also have very divergent ideas about Liḍāiy’s
death, and both interpretations are based on secondary sources, there being no clear statement
in any inscription.

In an article written in 1966 Prasert suggested Liḍāiy had died in 1368 on the basis of
Jina, which says a certain Dhammarājā died before Paramarājā’s campaign against Suk-
hothai in 1371, and statements in Chinese sources about the submission of Hsien to Lo-hu
by 1368.\textsuperscript{185} We know now of course that the latter information is irrelevant for Sukhothai
history.

Two years later Prasert took up the same question again and decided that Liḍāiy’s death
had occurred at some time between 1368 and 1373. He provided no further reason for the
earlier limit, but based the later date on No. CVI, which seems to indicate that Liḍāiy was
still alive in the 1370s but had died before 1377.\textsuperscript{186} Apparently Prasert at the time discounted
the value of Jina’s testimony.

In Towards Griswold interpreted the Jina evidence to mean simply that Liḍāiy had died
after Rāmadhipati and he added that there was evidence for believing Liḍāiy had survived
until 1374. This latter evidence seems to be oral tradition about what was still visible on No.
CII in the days of King Vajiravudh, and of course this cannot be accepted.\textsuperscript{187}

Since a certain passage of Jina has been interpreted in two different ways by Griswold and
Prasert, it is useful to note precisely what that passage contains. First, it is part of one of the
inserted stories of miraculous Buddha images which Griswold and Prasert more than once
admit to be of dubious value.\textsuperscript{188} Moreover, the Sukhothai genealogy is manifestly jumbled,
being given there as Rocaraja (Bhra Ruoṅ), Rāmarājā (Rk), Pālarājā (Bān Mo’āṅ), Udakaj-
joṭhatarājā (Nāṅ Tham), and Iḍeyyarājā (Iḍāiy). RK and Bān Mo’āṅ are reversed and
Lo’daiy is not mentioned at all. It is thus difficult to attribute any exactitude to any of the
reigns as found in Jina. Finally, the campaign of Paramarājā (Vattitejo) to which Prasert

\textsuperscript{183} See W.H. McLeod, “Inter-linear inscriptions in Sri Lanka”, South Asia III (August 1973), University
of Western Australia Press, pp. 105-06. This information has been part of the ‘oral tradition’ of Southeast
Asian specialists for some time. O.W. Wolters, The Fall of Srivijaya in Malay History, chap. VI, n. 36 shows
he was aware of the dubious character of Paranavitana’s work as early as 1970, although he made use of it to
illustrate other points in chap. I, n. 7 and chap. VI, n. 43.

\textsuperscript{184} Guide, pp. 39-40.

\textsuperscript{185} Prasert, op. cit., p. 37. This assumes that the statement in Jina refers to the LP entry of 733/1371
concerning an Ayutthayan campaign against the north.

\textsuperscript{186} Prasert, op. cit., p. 26. The reason for the choice of 1373 is still not clear; and see below, my treatment
of No. CVI.

\textsuperscript{187} Griswold, Towards, p. 39, n. 108; EHS 7, pp. 158-60.

\textsuperscript{188} See notes 119 and 161 above.
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alluded, does not correspond precisely to any detail of LP, and one may wonder whether it is an event not recorded there, or pure invention made necessary by the story of the Sihing Buddha 189.

Griswold and Prasert's final statement on Lidaiy's death is that it occurred "between 1370, when Paramaraja seized the throne of Ayudhya, and 1375, when Paramaraja took Son Gve" 190. This interpretation is based on LP plus Jina, but even here there are certain assumptions which merit discussion. Neither Jina nor LP mention "Soh Gve". LP speaks of Phitsanulok, which in fact might suggest that this entry of LP is an inaccurate late interpolation since it seems certain that in 1375 the name 'Phitsanulok' had not yet replaced the older name 'Son Gve' 191; and Jina gives the location as Jayanāda (Chainat).

Griswold and Prasert lose no opportunity to assert that Jayanāda in this context really means Sōn Gve/Phitsanulok 192, even though this forces them to assume serious errors in Jina and Sihingganidāna, which they otherwise try to use to support their interpretation. Thus, "in both S and J, Rāmādhīpatī seizes Sōn Gve . . . But it would be out of keeping with everything we know about Rāmādhīpatī's policy . . . for him to lay hold of the city." 193 In fact, Jina doesn't say Sōn Gve, but Jayanāda, while Sihingganidāna says Dvisakhanagara, "confluence city", which fits Chainat just as well as Phitsanulok, and a seizure of Chainat could easily be presumed to fit Rāmādhīpatī's policy even if a seizure of Phitsanulok could not 194. The only apparently good evidence that Jayanāda really meant Phitsanulok is found in Yuan Phai, concerning events nearly 100 years later 195, but there is very good nearly contemporary proof in No. XLVIII, dated 1408, that modern Chainat (Jayanāda) was known by a Jaya-type name, "Jayasthan" 196.

I think it should be clear that all of the relevant evidence is very complex and that all of the various dates put forward by Griswold and Prasert for Lidaiy's death are little more than speculation.

Prince Chand's proposal is entirely different. He ignores the statements of Jina and Sihingganidāna, and at one time asserted that Lidaiy died sometime between 1378 and 1388 and, more precisely, that he must have died shortly before the writing of No. XCIV in 1384 197. In Guide Prince Chand said Lidaiy's death was between 1378 and 1384, and then pinpointed it to 1379 198.

190 EHS 11-2, p. 109.
191 See LP, entry for cola 737. The earliest date for the usage of 'Phitsanulok' has not yet been determined.
193 EHS 11-2, p. 108.
194 I would deny that we know anything about 'Rāmādhīpatī's policy'. This seems to derive from the bi-polar policy discussed above.
195 Even then one could argue against the identification by pointing out that the Chiang Mai attack on Jayanāda in YP corresponds to a CMC passage which says they went as far as Pak Yom, generally accepted as meaning Nakhon Sawan, and which is only about 30 miles north of Chainat. See G/P, "A Siamese historical poem", p. 143; and Nottin, p. 113. No. XII, depending on how it is translated, is also relevant to this question. See Coedes, Recueil, pp. 151-56; PCSA, p. 27; and my review of PCSA in JSS LX, 2 (July 1972), pp. 321-22.
196 Sīla Caru'k III, p. 78.
His only evidence for this supposition appears to be No. CII, containing the date 1379 and indicating that a Mahādharmarāja, presumably $t$-Idaiy, was already dead. Prince Chand had to settle on the latest date permitted by this inscription because of his conviction that the Mahādharmarāja who, according to LP, surrendered to Ayutthaya in 1378 was $t$-Idaiy, whereas for Griswold and Prasert that Mahādharmarāja was Mahādharmarāja II\(^{199}\).

Thus the end of $t$-Idaiy's reign, for which there is no unequivocal evidence anywhere, depends for both Prince Chand and Griswold and Prasert on their interpretations of the reign of Mahādharmarāja II and it, as I will demonstrate, depends on their respective views of the evidence concerning Sai $t$-Idaiy. For Griswold and Prasert, Mahādharmarāja II, of unknown personal name, was the son and successor of $t$-Idaiy, was the king who surrendered to Ayutthaya in 1378, and was the father of Sai $t$-Idaiy, the next ruler of Sukhothai\(^{200}\). Prince Chand, however, while admitting that there was a prince who corresponds to Griswold and Prasert's Mahādharmarāja II, denies that he was ever king or that he was father of Sai $t$-Idaiy\(^{201}\). In view of such basic disagreement let us turn directly to the evidence.

**Mahādharmarāja II**

Mahādharmarāja II is indeed the most mysterious character among the identifiable figures of Sukhothai history. He is mentioned, in the view of Griswold and Prasert, in only one inscription, and that posthumously\(^{202}\), no monument or statue may be ascribed to him\(^{203}\), and except for his surrender to Ayutthaya in 1378, which is after all only a conjecture, nothing is known of his political or religious activities. It would seem that his reign is nothing more than a necessary inference to fill the space between $t$-Idaiy's death and the reign of Sai $t$-Idaiy which could not have begun, according to Griswold and Prasert, until circa 1400. Griswold and Prasert give the reign of Mahādharmarāja II as 1368/1374 to around 1399, adding that the only certainties are that he was alive in 1390 and dead by 1399 when No. XCIII was written\(^{204}\). It is presumed that he was king in 1393 when No. XLV was set up, since he has not been recognized among the 'ancestral spirits', but since Sai $t$-Idaiy is apparently the acting ruler, assuming No. LXIV to be coeval with No. XLV, Griswold and Prasert are forced to speculate about a temporary retirement of Mahādharmarāja II\(^{205}\).

Since all these conjectures about Mahādharmarāja II are based on inscriptions featuring, or in the reign of, Sai $t$-Idaiy, it is necessary to review that evidence before discussing in detail the interpretations of Griswold and Prasert or Prince Chand regarding Mahādharmarāja II.

**The Sai $t$-Idaiy period**

There are more inscriptions available for the Sai $t$-Idaiy period than for any other segment of Sukhothai history, but I am going to contend that Griswold and Prasert's historical method,

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200 EHS I, pp. 210-11, 214.
201 Guide, pp. 69, 72, 73, 76.
202 No. XCIII, EHS 2, pp. 37, 44.
203 Griswold, Towards, p. 49.
204 EHS 2, p. 37. The date "1390" is based on their interpretation of No. XCIII, face II.
setting up a scenario on the basis of heterogenous chronicles and then fitting the inscriptions into it, has distorted the meaning of the inscriptions, the details of Sai Lidaï's reign, and the reign of his predecessor. Even the name, 'Sai Lidaï' which I shall continue to use because of its familiarity, is foreign to the inscriptions, which call him Mahâdharmarâjâ, Lidaï, Lidaiy, and, I will argue, by other titles as well. 'Sai Lidaï' is the name found in the Chiang Mai chronicle for a king of Sukhothai who apparently belongs to the appropriate time period and Griswold and Prasert have decided to adopt it as his personal name.

Griswold and Prasert's background story for this period of Sukhothai history, based on the chronicles, is the story of Sukhothai-Ayutthaya relations and the gradual expansion of the latter to absorb the former. This expansion of Ayutthaya is of course the major development of Thai history throughout several centuries, and, strangely, there has been little effort to explain it. It has apparently been viewed as the natural, inevitable order of events, and it has not been thought necessary to ask why Sukhothai failed to expand and form a modern Siam controlled from the old inland capital206.

A sketchy, and probably true, outline of this story for the fourteenth-fifteenth centuries is found in the laconic entries of LP. Griswold and Prasert have attempted to put some flesh on the bare bones of this outline through combining LP with other chronicles such as Jina and those of Chiang Mai (CMC) and Nan (NC), and also by bringing the content of the Sukhothai inscriptions, particularly those for the period of Sai Lidaï, into the picture of Ayutthayan expansion.

Griswold and Prasert's story is found in EHS I, the main purpose of which was to present Sukhothai's 'Declaration of Independence' in 1400 from a first Ayutthayan conquest (No. XLVI), and an Ayutthayan reaction in 1417 (No. XLIX). Their decision about the purpose of the two inscriptions has forced them to load the evidence in favor of their interpretations of several other inscriptions which were only presented in later EHS, but the conclusions from which form part of the story of EHS 207.

Since the main interest in the present review is the epigraphy, the chronicles cannot be discussed in detail, but it is useful to demonstrate some of the more tendentious points of Griswold's and Prasert's synthesis in EHS I before going on to the inscriptions themselves.

Griswold and Prasert make much of the submission of Mahâdharmarâjâ II to Paramarâjâ of Ayutthaya in 1378, an event mentioned without any additional detail in LP, and only there208. They add gratuitously that Paramarâjâ "made him swear allegiance and sent him back to rule in Sukhothai as his vassal", and in later EHS they use Mahâdharmarâjâ's presumed fidelity to his oath to account for certain mysterious features of the inscriptions, such as Mahâdhâmarâjâ's apparent absence from the action of Nos. XLV and LXIV at a time when he was presumably ruler of Sukhothai209.

206 A few hints and suggestions for the resolution of this problem may be found in O.W. Wolters, The Fall of Srîvijaya, pp. 66-67; Charnvit Kasetsiri, The Rise of Ayudhya; Vickery, "The 2/k.125 Fragment", pp. 79-80; Vickery, "Cambodia after Angkor", pp. 222-23, 509-22.
207 EHS I, pp. 213-220.
208 EHS I, p. 210: LP, entry for cula 740. Moreover, it depends on an assumption, probably legitimate in this case, that 'mahârâjâ', usually meaning kings of Chiang Mai, has been substituted for 'mahâdhâmarâjâ'. 
It looks as though Griswold and Prasert are imputing an idealized version of European feudal culture to fourteenth-century Thailand; and besides the generally risky nature of assumptions which go so far beyond the evidence, it is now commonly accepted by historians that one may not project the attitudes or political morality of one period onto the actors of another, particularly when the culture of the latter is different or largely unknown. We really have no evidence that Mahadharmaraja II swore an oath at all, and even if he did, the political culture of later centuries in the Thai area, which is a more relevant standard for comparison than European practices, permitted weaker countries to form multiple liens of vassalage and in such a system it would have been possible for Mahadharmaraja II to swear an oath to Ayutthaya and at the same time enter into a treaty with Nan.210

Along the same line of reasoning one may also take issue with Griswold and Prasert’s remarks that in 1390 the title ‘Samtec Mahadharmarajādhiraja’ of the Sukhothai king was “reserved for a sovereign monarch with vassals of his own”, whereas in 1426, when Sukhothai seems clearly to have been under Ayutthayan suzerainty, “evidently rājādhirāja by that time no longer denoted a sovereign monarch and was hardly more than part of a proper name”.211 This violates the criterion of consistency which I evoked earlier, for it is unlikely that the political significance, if any, of rājādhirāja changed so drastically in 36 years, and it would be better to conclude that the term is not diagnostic at all with respect to vassal/suzerain status. Again, later Thai usage shows that Bangkok vassals were given titles that sounded fully royal and the Cambodian Ang Eng, 1779-1796, perhaps one of the weakest vassals of all time, was granted one of the longest and most impressive royal titles on record.212

For the events following Mahadharmaraja II’s surrender, Griswold and Prasert have combined LP, Jina and CMC in ingenious ways. The story of difficulties in Kamphaeng Phet, followed by the machinations of a certain Mahabrahma of Chiang Rai and warfare among Ayutthaya, Sukhothai, and Chiang Mai occurs both in Jina and CMC, but in Jina it all comes before 1371 while in CMC it is inserted after 1385. Usually Griswold and Prasert accept the chronology of Jina as superior, but for some reason, perhaps LP’s entry of 748/1386 which ‘must be’ equivalent to one of the episodes of the CMC story, they have opted for CMC’s chronology in this section. This is another example of inconsistency in the use of evidence and requires at the very least a full justificatory argument.213

Furthermore, the activities of Mahabrahma, both in Jina and CMC, are part of the inserted story of the Sihing Buddha, are centered around efforts to acquire it for the northern kingdom, and may therefore be fiction, at whatever date they are placed.214 Griswold and Prasert are not even faithful to the sources they choose. In summarizing the complex relations among Ayutthaya, Sukhothai and Chiang Mai, they say “Mahadharmaraja II felt bound by his vassal’s oath not to take any action against Paramaraja”, ignoring CMC’s explicit statement.

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210 Pace G/P, EHS 1, pp. 217-18. On southeast Asian vassalage in later times, see Steinberg et al., In Search of South-East Asia, pp. 64, 66-67, 120-21.
211 EHS I, pp. 216, 241.
212 “Records of appointments”, p. 7.
that the king of Sukhothai attempted to conquer Ayutthaya\textsuperscript{215}. At the present stage of investigation it would be best to frankly recognize that the chronicles are at times contradictory and may not yet be used in synthesis.

Griswold and Prasert's story goes on with events in Sukhothai in 1390, neglecting to warn the reader that '1390' is based on a controversial interpretation of No. XCIII, not presented until EHS 2\textsuperscript{216}; and all through this background story we find remarks about the personalities and opinions of individuals which derive from the bi-polar theory discussed earlier.

This is as far as I intend to go in the analysis of Griswold and Prasert's use of the chronicles, the main purpose being to show that their synthesis is not firmly enough grounded to justify any attempt to interpret the inscriptions into it if the meaning of the latter in that respect is not absolutely clear.

Returning to the inscriptions the first fact to note about the life of Sai Lidaiy is that according to No. IX he was grandson of Lidaiy. Or, more precisely, at a date between 1388 and 1406 No. IX refers to Mahādharmarāja ‘the grandson’ and at the dates 1359 and 1361 Mahādharmarāja ‘the grandfather’. There is no reference to the intervening generation presumably represented by Mahādharmarāja II\textsuperscript{217}. The importance of this unequivocal information of No. IX is that there must have been a generation between Lidaiy and Sai Lidaiy, and any interpretation of other inscriptions which would tend to make Sai Lidaiy son of Lidaiy is to be rejected. It does not prove though that the individual of the intervening generation ever ruled.

The earliest inscription which seems to refer to Sai Lidaiy is No. CII (EHS 7), dated explicitly 1379/80. At that time, according to Griswold and Prasert, Mahādharmarāja II was king; but in Prince Chand’s view it was Lidaiy. The protagonist of the inscription is a certain pā nān ǧām, “Aunt Princess Ǧām,” who was responsible for the construction of a temple and erection of the inscription. Since nearly all Sukhothai inscriptions are concerned with royal family affairs, it is safe to assume along with Griswold and Prasert that she was the aunt of a Sukhothai ruler\textsuperscript{218} or, but this has not been suggested by Griswold and Prasert, aunt of some other royal prince figuring in the inscription.

At two points in the inscription Aunt Ǧām is mentioned together with the ruler’s uncle (lūn khūm), which would be further evidence that she is aunt of that khun, whom Griswold and Prasert identify with Mahādharmarāja II, the presumed king of Sukhothai. Of course ‘khun’ has had different degrees of meaning, all the way from full king down to low-level chief, and if there were another more plausible candidate, ‘khūm’ in this context would not necessarily be Mahādharmarāja II.

\textsuperscript{214} See notes 119 and 161 above.
\textsuperscript{215} EHS 1, p. 212; Notton, p. 89.
\textsuperscript{216} EHS 1, pp. 213-15; EHS 2, pp. 50-51, n. 55; and see below on No. XCIII.
\textsuperscript{217} EHS 12, pp. 96, 104, 106, 109.
\textsuperscript{218} EHS 7, p. 162.
Immediately after the paragraph announcing the object of the inscription there is mention that the monastery had been falling into ruin, then a lacuna, and then the phrase, pun (‘merit’) bi āy (‘eldest brother’) dān (‘sir’) brah śrī rāj auras (‘the royal son’) cau mo’an sukhodai ni (‘lord of this mo’an Sukhothai’). Because of the lacuna it is not clear what pun refers to. Griswold and Prasert say it could be either ‘merit to’ or ‘meritorious work of’ the royal son. They opt for the former, implying that he is dead. They also inexplicably consider ‘Brah śrī’ to be his personal name, rather than merely an appropriate title preceding mention of any royal personage219. Thus the ‘royal son’ for Griswold and Prasert becomes a son of Mahādhamarāja I, or even Lo’daiy.

In my opinion the first important consideration is that use of rāj auras, ‘royal son’, implies that the father, presumably the reigning king, is still alive. Since every male is also a son, the only reason to emphasize this quality in a title is in opposition or reference to the father, and I believe it is very unusual to find mention in chronicles or inscriptions of a prince specifically designated ‘son’ as part of his title except when his father was still alive or very recently dead. ‘Royal son’ in such a context may be taken as equivalent to ‘crown prince’. The royal son here would then be son of the reigning king, for Griswold and Prasert Mahādhamarāja II. Another point of interest is that the royal son is described as ‘lord of this mo’an Sukhothai’, which, without unnecessary interpretation, would seem to mean ‘living lord of this mo’an Sukhothai at the present time’. He would thus have been governing for his father who was either absent or present but retired from an active role in government.

Of course the phrase bi āy remains to be explained, but because of the lacuna only speculation is possible. Any restoration proposed must indicate the precise number of characters which would fit into the lacuna and the precise Thai words to be inserted. The bi āy could be an entirely different person, and because of another lacuna at the beginning of line 24, we could also assume that the original intention was ‘the royal son, Princess Aunt Giiful and the ruler’s uncle assigned’, etc.

Finally, ‘the ruler’ (Khun) would most plausibly be, not Mahādhamarāja II, nor Līdaiy, but the ‘royal son’, ‘lord of this mo’an Sukhothai’ of the preceding line, and Aunt Gām would be his own aunt, not the aunt of his father220. As son of Mahādhamarāja II, we might speculate further that the ‘royal son’, who is also khun, is in fact the future Sai Līdaiy, something I shall try to demonstrate below.

We should also note, for purposes of interpreting another inscription later on, that the ‘overseer’ of the construction was a certain ‘nāy’ named āy ind221.

With respect to Griswold and Prasert’s treatment of this inscription a few more remarks are required. (a) The supposed original opening date, due to the circumstances of the stone’s discovery, may not be accepted as more than a hypothesis, and may not be used in further

219 EHS 7, p. 163. They accept śrī as simply part of a title in ‘brah śrī nāv nām tham’, ‘śrī indrādity’ (EHS 10, pp. 108, 112; and EHS 8, p. 203).
220 EHS 7, p. 166, lines 22-24, and p. 168.
221 EHS 7, p. 166, line 24, and p. 168; and see below, n. 261.
reconstruction, such as the date 1375 for the beginning of restoration work on the temple\textsuperscript{222}, (b) It is not good reasoning to suggest that Mahādharmarāja II was called \textit{khun} rather than something more elaborate just because he was at the time a vassal of Ayutthaya. I have shown that the \textit{khun} was probably not Mahādharmarāja II, and earlier I adduced some evidence that royal titles are not significant for the indication of vassal or suzerain status; and Griswold and Prasert themselves in another context showed that another supposedly vassal ruler had elaborate titles usually associated with an independent monarch\textsuperscript{223}. (c) All the hypotheses about relationships among the royal family on their pages 162-64 are untenable in so far as they are based on No. CII.

Prince Chand’s most serious criticism of EHS 7 concerned the translation of the phrase, \textit{pun bi āy}, etc.\textsuperscript{224}. Prince Chand considers that at that date Ĺidaiy was king, but that Sai Ĺidaiy was not his son, and he thus had to attempt a translation which would fit that picture. According to Prince Chand, \textit{bi āy dän brah śrī rāj auras} means, “the royal son of the eldest brother”, and he insists that \textit{bi āy} and \textit{dän brah śrī rāj auras} are two separate persons. I have already indicated that this is possible, if not certain, and Prince Chand, like myself, believes the royal son to be Sai Ĺidaiy; but with all due respect I venture to suggest that as a translation “royal son of the eldest brother” violates Thai syntax. It transpires, however, that Prince Chand did not mean it as a direct translation, but as an interpretation, after hypothetical restoration of the lacuna\textsuperscript{225}. Then it becomes, “... the eldest brother (\textit{bi āy}) [died], his royal son (\textit{dän brah śrī rāj auras}) (became) king ...”. However, Prince Chand’s, like Griswold and Prasert’s, \textit{ad hoc} restorations may not be taken as anything but more or less plausible hypotheses, and they are all of the type best avoided by historians. I am also skeptical of Prince Chand’s identification of \textit{bi āy} as “Poh Loë Thai”, which depends on his reading of No. XLV, but I shall discuss this elsewhere.

A second point separating Prince Chand from Griswold and Prasert is the phrase, \textit{(ṃ) ra ṭa ṭaḥ}, which would seem to mean, just as Prince Chand says, “the queen came to the throne,” although Griswold and Prasert have reinterpreted it as “[whatever kings] succeed to the throne”, an interpretation which I agree with Prince Chand to be entirely inadmissible. Since the phrase is in a passage full of lacunae, I would prefer to dismiss it as incomprehensible and noninterpretable. Prince Chand’s interpretation is that Ĺidaiy’s queen had become regent for Sai Ĺidaiy, but this does not come forth from the remainder of the phrase, “\textit{ṃraḥ} ...”, which Griswold and Prasert translate, plausibly, as “may they [or he, she] uphold ...”, the type of injunction with which many inscriptions conclude. I thus feel that both Griswold and Prasert’s and Prince Chand’s interpretations of this phrase are dubious, but I intend to show later that Prince Chand is probably correct about unusual circumstances during the reign of Sai Ĺidaiy, although not necessarily a regency under Ĺidaiy’s queen.

The preliminary conclusions to draw from this inscription are that Sai Ĺidaiy in 1379/80 was already acknowledged as either king, or governor of the city of Sukhothai during the

\textsuperscript{222} EHS 7, pp. 158-59.
\textsuperscript{223} EHS 7, pp. 161-62; EHS 1, p. 241.
lifetime of his father or shortly after the latter's death. One might wonder if Sai Lidaiy were not too young for such a position, since according to the interpretations of Prince Chand and myself he would have been only 12 years old, while for Griswold and Prasert he was perhaps even younger. Age 12 for a crown prince, or viceroy, should be acceptable for Griswold and Prasert since they postulate elsewhere that Rāmeśvara was sent as viceroy to Phitsanulok at the age of 7 in 1438; and in nearly contemporary Europe the future Henry VIII of England was appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland at the age of 3, and his brother Arthur was made a royal commissioner dealing with the government of Wales at the age of 6.

EHS 8 concerns No. CVI, the next piece of evidence, which was erected by a person whom Griswold and Prasert call "Foster-Father Sai Tām", with "foster-father" their translation of wāi, literally 'breast-father', which seems absurd, but is justified on the grounds that he was husband of 'breast-mother' (wāi) Dēt, who could well have been a wet-nurse or foster-mother. An alternative interpretation, favored by Prince Chand, is that wāi, 'banam'/'phanom', 'mountain', was simply a proper name.

It is my contention that Griswold and Prasert have missed important features of the structure of this inscription and that properly understood it helps build up a picture of the reign of Sai Lidaiy in which several inscriptions fall into place.

As Griswold and Prasert have recognized in their footnotes 33 and 40, the text of the inscription is poorly organized and full of digressions. It opens with a B.E. date equivalent to 1384, which Griswold and Prasert take to be the date of its execution; and at that time the author had some reason to think of his future existences after death. There follow (a) a flashback to events of 1361, (b) mention (lines 20-28) of the death of a Mahādharmarāja, apparently Lidaiy, which Griswold and Prasert believe occurred in 1368-74, and the death of his queen, (c) a note (lines 28-32) that a certain braṇi had taken the author out of monkhood to serve the state, (d) in lines 32-42 description of religious works performed by the author in a snake year which Griswold and Prasert consider must be 1377, earlier than 1384, although they note the unusually long time between the beginning of the work and its dedication, (e) in face II, lines 12-18 another mention of the braṇi, (f) in face II, lines 19-31, more religious works, (g) in face II, lines 31-37, a digression, and (h) a continuing description of religious works up to the end of the inscription.

Griswold and Prasert recognize that the section of face II, lines 12-19, is a digression which should belong with the first mention of the braṇi. They also recognize that lines II/11-12 and II/19 are nearly identical and should be connected. Thus the story of the author's religious works, in a Snake Year, continues to the end of face II and is later than the episode of the braṇi. If that is so, then the Snake Year is probably the latest date in the text and would be 1389. That 1384 is not the real final date of the inscription would also seem confirmed by the

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226 See below, discussion of No. XCI of Wat Asokaram.
227 I have found no precise statement by G/P on the birth of Sai Lidaiy, but they at least believe he was old enough to father a son in 1390-91, the year when, according to No. XII, Mahādharmarāja IV was born.
final section, clearly the conclusion of its story (face III, lines 12-35)\(^{230}\), for there Banam Sai Tām is abbot of the monastery dedicated in a Snake Year, whereas in 1384 he was still a layman contemplating reentry into the monkhood.

I would therefore like to suggest the following absolute chronological slots for the different sections of the inscription: face I/10-20, 1361; I/20-28, 1370s; I/28-32 and II/I/12-19, between the death of Lidaï and 1384; I/3-10, 1384; I/32-42, Snake Year 1389; II/remainder and all of face III, after 1389, perhaps even several years later.

The most interesting remark about contemporary events contained in the inscription is the statement that Banam Sai Tām was taken out of the monkhood by a certain Braṇā Debāhurāja, “to help build the kingdom”. For Griswold and Prasert the title braṇā “certainly means a king”, and according to their reign sequence it must have been Mahādharmarāja II, even though the title is not attested elsewhere\(^{231}\). Proof one way or another is impossible, but I am going to argue that there were internal difficulties in Sukhothai at that time, possibly a regency during the early years of Sai Lidaï, and that Braṇā Debāhurāja might have been an otherwise unknown member of the nobility active in state affairs in the reign of a very young and weak king.

Prince Chand is convinced that there indeed was a regency government, that Braṇā Debāhurāja was a member, and that he succeeded Lidaï’s Mahā Devī as chief regent around 1381\(^{232}\). As I have pointed out above, his belief that Mahā Devī was regent is based on the last line of No. CII, and is untenable, and thus there can be no conclusion about a change of regent in 1381, even though I agree with Prince Chand about the possibility of a regency government.

A further intriguing detail is that in another connection Banam Sai Tām consecrated merit to a certain Cau Brahm Jai, a name also mentioned in Jina. This has led Griswold and Prasert into complex speculations. I find it impossible on the evidence available to account for Cau Brahm Jai, and prefer to remain entirely agnostic on the matter\(^{233}\).

In his remarks about this period Prince Chand is also in error about a date in No. IX at which time Sai Lidaï appears to be full king. He says it was 1388, but the correct date in that inscription was 768/1406, at which time Mahādharmarājadhīrāj (Sai Lidaï), Śrī Rājamātā (his mother) and an unidentified pū brahīṇā settled a monastic dispute\(^{234}\).

The next relevant inscription is No. XCIV, described by Griswold and Prasert in EHS 11-2, pp. 124-25, and also noted by Prince Chand\(^{235}\). It is a very short gold plate text, dated 746/1384, in which a Sāṅgharāja, who had been teacher (griñ) of a certain Mahādhammarāja has made a stupa for the relics, brahī dhātu, of that same Mahādhammarāja, which implies,

\(^{230}\) EHS 8, p. 208.

\(^{231}\) EHS 8, p. 193.


\(^{233}\) EHS 8, p. 207; Prasert, op. cit., pp. 63-64; Coedes, “Documents”, p. 100.


Prince Chand thinks, that the Mahādharmarājā in question was either Līdaiy (Griswold and Prasert’s choice) or Mahādharmarājā II, recently dead. I intend to refer to this again below.

Prince Chand also cites No. XCV, which mentions both a Mahādharmarājā, “the grandfather” (phū pū), and a Brahma Mahādharmarājā. He considers it important in proving his contention that Sai Līdaiy succeeded Līdaiy, but since the inscription is undated I would say it cannot be integrated into the story.

There seems to be full agreement among Griswold and Prasert and Chand on the basic meaning of the next evidence, Nos. XLV and LXIV. The two inscriptions together are considered to be separate records of a treaty between Sukhothai and Nan in 1393. This is based on several assumptions which deserve to be made explicit, although my insistence on this does not necessarily mean that I find the assumptions impermissible.

The first assumption is that No. LXIV, although undated, is of the same time period as No. XLV and refers to the same events. So far there is no serious objection to this assumption. The second assumption is that the Līdaiy named in LXIV, but not in XLV, as representative of the Sukhothai side, must have been Sai Līdaiy, since Līdaiy was dead; and this depends on the subassumption that the name “Līdaiy” can only refer to one of those two persons. I intend to offer arguments against this last belief. Finally it has been assumed that Mahādharmarājā II was the reigning king and that he must have been at the time a monk, or retired, or for some other reason had delegated authority to Sai Līdaiy. I hope to show that Mahādharmarājā II was probably already dead and that no other hypotheses are necessary to account for his apparent absence from the action.

In fact, since so much of these inscriptions has been destroyed, their purpose is no longer determinable, and the most important point for discussion at this stage is the identity of the Sukhothai ruler. The problem is centered on the title ‘Līdaiy’, and the discussion relates both to No. XLV and to certain other inscriptions which are discussed below. ‘Līdaiy’ (ηηηηη) occurs unequivocally as the name of two kings, Līdaiy I and Sai Līdaiy, while ‘Lo’daiy’ (ταιν, υαιν) is found as the name of Līdaiy’s father and, written εαιν, as the name of a person in the ‘ancestor’ list of No. XLV whose identity has occasioned some disagreement. Whatever the latter’s identity, the two names appear to have alternated throughout four generations of Sukhothai royalty. I will not try to speculate on the origin or meaning of the two terms, but since the use of vowel signs in the early Sukhothai inscriptions indicates that there was frequently confusion in the use of vowel symbols, the two titles may have been synonymous, but written differently from generation to generation in order to distinguish the bearers.

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236 EHS 3; Guide, pp. 54-68.
237 EHS 1, p. 217; EHS 3, p. 67.
239 Silā cārāk V, where the vowel system in the inscriptions of the Jataka panels, Vat Śrī Jum, is incomplete in modern terms. See also EHS 9, p. 193: EHS 11-1, pp. 79-80, 113, 145-6, and passim in later EHS.
Furthermore the syllable แ in those days, in Thai, Khmer and Pali was often written แ, giving Ledaiy, Ledaya, or Lideyya; and Liday in Pali is Lidaya or Lideyya. There is even one context in which Griswold and Prasert consider Lo'daiy to have been rendered in Pali by "Lideyya"240, which could easily lead to confusion if contexts were not absolutely clear. For some reason it has always been assumed that Mahādharmarāja II could not have had one of these names and that the Ba Lo'daiy of No. XLV must have been some non-reigning member of the dynasty, even though his name is of a type that was in other cases given only to reigning kings.

The main point to remember is that the names Ledaiy and Lo'daiy could be confused, particularly when written in Pali; and this will permit us a bit later to see that one of these terms, probably 'Lo'daiy', was the name of Mahādharmarāja II, and that he was the ba lo'daiy of No. XLV. This last point was almost admitted by Griswold and Prasert in one of their later EHS, and perhaps they were only held back by the assumptions which they had upheld in their earlier studies241.

The records of Sukhothai history continue in No. XXXVIII, and here I am going to suggest that both Griswold and Prasert's interpretation, and Prince Chand's critique, have totally confused the context. The date is 1397242 and the opening statement reads: "this capital [Sukhothai] is under the authority of samtec pabitr mahā rājaputra . . . rāja sī paramacakra bartrirāja who has succeeded to the throne . . . in accordance with the royal wish. This sacred kingdom [..]" Here, I suggest, Griswold and Prasert have forced the evidence. As their own note 11 admits, etc., should really mean, in a Sukhothai context, 'the dharmarāja realm', that is, the kingdom of Sukhothai.

In addition to this, Griswold and Prasert neglected to translate ริจนำ preceded by ม. etc., and although it may appear presumptuous to question Griswold and Prasert's translation, the point is extremely important. In the standard dictionaries ม is glossed, "to reward, recompense, replace, a substitute"243 which suggests the idea of succeeding to a realm also244. Modern dictionary definitions would not alone be sufficient basis for asserting this, but in a Thai version of the fifteenth-century Mūlasasana we find the expression, ริจนำนā, meaning 'succeed to the realm'245. Thus I feel that lines 2-4 from "this capital" to "Tabatinsa" should be read as a single sentence, and the translation should be revised to "... in accordance with the royal wish succeeding to this dharmarāja realm [Sukhothai] like the Tabatinsa". The meaning then is that the rājaputra ('royal son', 'crown prince') succeeded to the throne of Sukhothai, not Ayutthaya.

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240 EHS 11-1, p. 72, n. 6.

241 See above, text between notes 161 and 162.

242 See EHS 4, n. 8 for discussion; and it must be emphasized that the systematic calculation of the several elements of the date proves conclusively that 759/1397 is the correct year and that the day must be mu'il hmau. The reader may check this for himself by working through the formulae of Roger Billard. "Les cycles chronographiques chinois dans les inscriptions thaïs", BEFEO 11, 2 (1968), 400-31.

243 McFarland, Thai-English Dictionary, p. 394; RID, pp. 441, 475.

244 G/P's "succeeded to the throne" is the translation of "ริจนำนā . . ."

245 Tamnan Mulasasana, ed. by Sommai Premchit, Translation Series IX, Dept. of Sociology and Anthropology, Chiang Mai University, Jan. 1976, p. 23.
This rājaputra went to Kamphaeng Phet with his retinue, which included his maternal uncle (mātulā, luṅ), who had reared him, and this mention of luṅ repeats the familiar structure of No. CII in which a luṅ figured prominently along with a rājauras, synonym of rājaputra. It is thus most probable that the rājaputra was Sai Lidaï who was announcing his assumption of full control over the government of Sukhothai.

Also included in the king's retinue were four officials entitled brahā + bāthin (mās) + the name of a place, and who seem to have been connected with rivers. Such titles have not been found in any other source. The geographical location of all four is in strictly Sukhothai territory, and the last-named, from Nagar Daiy, is called bi brahā dān bāthin nagar dāiy246, “the elder brother/of the ruler/who bāthin . . . “, indicating that bāthin is to be separated from brahā and is probably a verb acting on the following noun. Thus brahā + bāthin could be ‘the brahā who bāthin’ a certain location. In the absence of other comparable examples no further interpretation is possible, but it is clear that we are faced with a peculiar Sukhothai institution which has not appeared from other sources. Griswold and Prasert found the passage baffling since they had already assumed the inscription to be Ayutthayan247, but without such an assumption there is no mystery about the context as a whole, even if the details are incompletely understood. The ruler of Nagar Daiy, as ‘elder brother’ of the new ruler of Sukhothai, not Ayutthaya, presents no structural problem, particularly if, accepting Griswold and Prasert’s reasoning, the term need not be taken literally; and it may only indicate respect for an older person.

Griswold and Prasert’s assumption that the inscription had to be Ayutthayan is based first on the text of the law, which bears some resemblance to the “Law on Abduction” (Jātikāparamaṇa) dated B.E. 1899/1355 of the 1805 Ayutthayan law collection248, and perhaps also on the title sṛtī paramaṇacakrabartrījā, a title frequently used by Ayutthayan kings.

The first consideration is certainly not sufficient, since laws concerning fugitives would have been equally necessary in the societies of both Sukhothai and Ayutthaya, and could have developed independently, although regardless of the degree of interdependence of the two polities, reciprocal influences in all aspects of their higher cultures may reasonably be supposed. The law text itself would only be evidence of Ayutthayan action if it were virtually identical to the Ayutthayan code and if it could be demonstrated that the influence could not have gone the other way. Griswold and Prasert themselves note that the two law texts are quite different, but they attribute this to later interpolations in the Ayutthayan code, which is a reasonable hypothesis but one which must be tested by thorough textual study of the laws before any general historical conclusions may be drawn. Griswold and Prasert might wish to argue that Sukhothai society was not such as to promote the promulgation of such a law, an idea which seems to appear in one of their latest articles249. Otherwise there is little point in discussing

246 In Thai script ขัติกริณา วัฒน์ วัฒน์ วัฒน์ วัฒน์ วัฒน์. The term “‘μu” here could either refer to bi brahā, with the relative sense, “who”, or could refer to the king, giving the sense, “the elder brother of the king”.

247 EHS 4, p. 129, n. 15.


249 G/P, “On kingship”; their analysis of Sukhothai society is drawn almost entirely from No. I, which because of its anomalous character cannot be taken as authoritative on such matters. The other Sukhothai inscriptions and the material remains of Sukhothai culture indicate that Sukhothai society may not have been much different from Ayutthaya or Angkor.
the text of the law here except for one passage which is virtually identical to a passage of the Ayutthayan law 250.

The inscription lists, after Sukhothai, the towns of Jalyân, Kāmbën Bejra, Dun Yääh, Pák Yam, and Sôn Gwae, all squarely within the Sukhothai realm, and prescribes what to do if a slave in one of those places runs away to another person's house. The Ayutthayan law text also lists Jalyan, Sukhothai, Dun Yääh, Pân [Pák?] Yam, Sôn Kaev [Gwae], and Kāmbën Bej, plus two other Sukhothai towns, Sahluôn and Jävtæráv, and prescribes what to do if slaves run away to them. In the inscription such locations fit logically into the picture of runaway slaves, but they seem quite out of place in the Ayutthayan law text. Since Sukhothai was still independent in 1355, its territory might have been a goal of runaway slaves from Ayutthaya, at least the strongest and most enterprising of them, but surely most runaways would seek refuge in areas less distant; and a meaningful Ayutthayan law would deal with areas within the Ayutthayan king's jurisdiction, not the far-off Sukhothai towns over which he had no authority. If we laid aside all preconceptions, we might offer the interpretation that the Sukhothai law, preserved in the inscription, is the older text; and that later, when Sukhothai had been incorporated into the Ayutthayan system, part of its legislation was directly incorporated into the Ayutthayan code, attributed to earlier Ayutthayan kings, and slight changes made to fit Ayutthayan circumstances.

Evidence in favor of careless modification in the original text is the Buddhist Era date of the Ayutthayan law. At that time the common era of Ayutthaya was साकां and the Buddhist Era date of the law probably indicates tampering with the text at a later date when it was believed that use of the Buddhist Era had preceded the साका and चुला eras.

For myself a much stronger indication of Ayutthayan identity for the राजपुत्र of No. XXXVIII would be his title चक्रबार्तिरिजा, since I believe patterns in titles are important, whereas Griswoed and Prasert do not 252, and चक्रबार्तिरिजा seems to have been used much more consistently at Ayutthaya than elsewhere. However, it was also apparently used at Chiang Mai 253, and patterns of titles did change over time through borrowing of auspicious elements from other polities. Sukhothai in the reign of Sai Lidaiy was apparently often weak and subject to influences both from north and south, and its elite could well have been experimenting with borrowed titles and institutions. Thus the title चक्रबार्तिरिजा is not sufficient to prove that the राजपुत्र could only have been from Ayutthaya, and it may have been taken purposely by Sai Lidaiy at a time when he was apparently trying to increase, or consolidate, his power within the realm. Moreover the epithet ‘royal son’ is scarcely credible for the Ayutthayan Râmaraja, who had become full king two years earlier 254, but it and other details fit a Sukhothai pattern.

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250 EHS 4, p. 132; Laws III, pp.1-2.
251 Nearly all of the extant contemporary Ayutthayan records dating from before the Burmese invasion of 1569 use साका. Most of them are listed or cited in Vickery, “The Khmer inscriptions of Tenasserim”, JSS LXI, 1 (Jan. 1973), 51-70.
253 Coedes, “Documents”, pp. 108, 109, 110, 129. where one of Tiloka’s titles was “Siritthañmacakkavattibilakaraññadhiraññ”.
254 EHS 4, p. 128, n. 9.
which begins with No. CII. The emphasis on 'royal son' probably indicates that for some reason Sai Udaiy had not been allowed to assume full authority at the death of his father and that, as Prince Chand emphasizes, some sort of regency council had prevailed.

Inscription No. XXXVIII, then, continues the dynastic picture beginning with No. CII, is solely concerned with Sukhothai matters, and all inferences from it about Ayutthaya-Sukhothai relations are misplaced.

Prince Chand's main argument over No. XXXVIII concerns the date, which he thinks should be about 100 years later\textsuperscript{255}, but he also notes pertinently that Griswold and Prasert's interpretation is essential to their theory of Ayutthayan interference in the affairs of Sukhothai, a theory which fully merits the skepticism Prince Chand appears to feel. He accepts, however, along with Griswold and Prasert, that the rājaputra is Ayutthayan, but that he was either Trai lokanāth or the latter's son, Rāmādhipati II. He says the information on the king's relatives fits only these two princes, something I fail to understand unless it is based on the idea of Trai lokanāth's mother being a daughter of Sai Udaiy, a theory I have already shown untenable\textsuperscript{256}.

Prince Chand also says the language of the introductory part is of the fifteenth century and that anyone who can read Thai should be able to see it, although he neglected to point out the diagnostic details. He apparently offered these arguments in an earlier article, for Prasert answered them in two of his own studies\textsuperscript{257}. Prasert wrote that he was unable to judge the date of the language, which would indicate that Prince Chand's reasoning on this point is unclear even to Thai experts.

The next relevant inscription is No. XLVI dated 1404. The individuals given prominence are Sai Udaiy, called Samtee mahādharma rājādhipati sīrī suryavans, and his mother; and it appears that they had recently increased the territorial extent of the Sukhothai kingdom. Griswold and Prasert have called this a declaration of independence, but such an inference seems exaggerated, particularly if the supposed oath of Mahādharma rāja II is only an imaginative reconstruction and if No. XXXVIII, as I propose, has no connection with Ayutthayan interference in Sukhothai. It is possible, however, that at the beginning of the fifteenth century weakness in Ayutthaya gave Sai Udaiy the chance to enlarge his kingdom\textsuperscript{258}.

We should again note No. IX, which two years later in 1406 gives the same political prominence to the queen mother that is found in No. XLVI.

According to Griswold and Prasert and Prince Chand the next inscription of interest, No. XLIX, depicts the visit of an Ayutthayan king to Sukhothai in 1417, although Prince Chand thinks it was a mere social visit while Griswold and Prasert claim it represents the reassertion of Ayutthayan suzerainty over Sukhothai\textsuperscript{259}. Among the persons figuring in the inscription


\textsuperscript{256} See above, "Two confusing inscriptions".

\textsuperscript{257} Prasert, \textit{op. cit.}, 49, 52-54. He referred to an article by Prince Chand in \textit{W.H.S.}, Feb. 2511 (1968), which I have not read.

\textsuperscript{258} See EHS 1.

we find the king of Sukhothai, Sai Lidaiy, who is first entitled bō ayū hīa cau da ûkya dharmarāja then more simply cau bra jāva and bō ayū hīa cau, all of which Griswold and Prasert take to mean he was a vassal ruler. Then in 1417, when the temple had been built, there was a visit by braḥ param rājādhīpati śrī mahā cāk [ra] bātirāj together with his queen mother, and his maternal aunt. According to Griswold and Prasert and Prince Chand this was the royal family of Ayutthaya, but is such an interpretation necessary? Among the royal titles we find rājādhīpati260, which was among the titles of Sai Lidaiy in No. XLVI, and the element cākra bātirāj which, I have argued, was adopted by Sai Lidaiy in No. XXXVIII. Moreover, Sai Lidaiy’s mother was given prominence in Nos. XLVI and IX, and here again the queen mother accompanies the ruler. The third royal person is a maternal aunt, and in No. CII an aunt seemed to be a guardian of the much younger Sai Lidaiy. Furthermore, a maternal uncle of the king (the ûkya dharmarāja), who was a monk, is also given an important role in the inscription, and in both Nos. CII and XXXVIII we have noted such an uncle, not yet a monk, as one of the major figures close to Sai Lidaiy. Thus all of these inscriptions seem to show a similar royal family structure which is strictly that of the family of Sukhothai.

One more character of No. XLIX who deserves a note is Nay Inda Sarasakti, the man in charge of the construction of the temple, and whom Griswold and Prasert, but not Prince Chand, call the “Ayudhyan Chief Resident” in Sukhothai. We should recall, however, that in No. CII there was a certain “nay named Ay Ind” who also took charge of temple construction over 30 years earlier, and it is quite likely that it is the same individual with a higher rank denoted by the title sarasakti who figures in No. XLIX. Rather than “Ayudhyan Chief Resident” he was probably something like chief municipal engineer of Sukhothai261.

Skeptics might still argue that the different royal titles show that two different rulers are involved in the story. I do not think this is a necessary conclusion. Inscription No. XLIX is admitted to contain several peculiarities of language261a, and as a matter of method, until they are explained in general no single one of them may be picked out and arbitrarily given a special meaning. We should also remember, as I noted earlier, that the weight of later evidence is that vassal rulers continued to hold full royal titles. Finally, the inscription was explicitly erected by the Mahāthera, uncle of the Sukhothai king, and Nay Sarasakti, who had served the royal family for half a lifetime. It would be quite natural for these men to refer to Sai Lidaiy by short titles equivalent to ‘the king’ in the sections devoted to the preparations for construction and to then use his full titles when recording his official visit.

260 “Rājādhīpati” was also an Ayutthayan title: see Vickery, review of van Vliet, p. 227, where I did not argue against G/P’s interpretation of No. XLIX. Since it is clear that “rājādhīpati” in XLVI refers to Sai Lidaiy, it is proof that certain titles at that time were shared by Sukhothai and Ayutthayan royalty.

261 See above n. 221. In a review of Yoneo Ishii et al., A Glossarial Index of the Sukhothai Inscriptions, JSS LXII, 1 (Jan. 1974), pp. 258-59, I argued against his being ‘Ayutthayan Chief Resident’ on other grounds, which I now realize may not be so solid as I once thought, due to the higher rank of such titles as ‘nay’ and ‘khun’ in earlier times (see Vickery, “The 2/k. 125 Fragment”, p. 54). I still deny that he was Ayutthayan Chief Resident, but think the comparison of Nos. CII and XLIX provides a better argument, and my earlier remarks about ‘sarasakti’ would still hold.

I would thus conclude that No. XLIX bears no evidence for Sukhothai-Ayutthaya relations.

An inscription which will be more difficult to fit into the revisionist picture is No. XCII of Wat Asokaram concerning which there are serious differences of opinion between Prince Chand and Griswold and Prasert. It includes the date 1399 at which time all the authorities agree that Sai Lidaiy was king of Sukhothai.

The principal personage is the founder of the monastery, entitled samtec brah rajaidebi sri culalaksha, etc. Griswold and Prasert have decided that she was wife and half-sister of Mahadharmaraja II, Sai Lidaiy's mother, and thus identical to the rajaide of No. XLVI, while Prince Chand says she was Lidaiy's second queen and mother of Mahadharmaraja II 262.

In the inscription this lady is called jiyā, "wife", or as Griswold and Prasert say, "consort", of Samtec Mahadharmarajadhiraja. In their note 10 Griswold and Prasert also say "consort" really means "widow", since they have decided that she must have been consort of Mahadharmaraja II, already dead in 1399, but there is no precedent for such an interpretation of jiyā. The term jiyā plus arrgarajatamahest, 'chief queen', of her titles, can only mean she was chief queen and consort of the reigning Mahadharmaraja, that is Sai Lidaiy 263.

This identification is supported by two other phrases which Griswold and Prasert have treated in a somewhat arbitrary manner. Within the space of a few lines there is mention of a mae ayu hua building temples and a bo ayu hua becoming a monk. Griswold and Prasert translated these titles, normally, as "queen" and "king" and identified them respectively as Sri Cualaksha and Sai Lidaiy. However, if bo ayu hua thus means the reigning king, which is easy to accept, then mae ayu hua should logically be his consort, not his mother, and if mae ayu hua is, as Griswold and Prasert say, Sri Cualaksha, then by a second chain of reasoning she was consort of Sai Lidaiy 264.

I would also suggest that Griswold and Prasert have distorted the meaning of samtec bo ok 265. As they admit, this title would normally refer to the lady's own father, but this will not do in view of their decision about her own identity; and the distortion is carried through to their identification of the deceased Samtec Brah Rajamata and the translation of the list of people receiving merit from Sri Cualaksha's good works 266. On their reading of this passage depend also their remarks, page 37, about the sibling relationship between Sri Cualaksha and Mahadharmaraja II.

Here Prince Chand's translation, if not his interpretation, is definitely superior. The merit was dedicated to samtec pā brah (Lidaiy), bo ok (her own father), mae ok (her own mother), samtec mahadharmarajadhiraja, and brah sri dharmaraja māta. Griswold and Prasert

263 EHS 2, p. 44. The reader should not be misled by 'madapravara', which G/P left untranslated. I have no suggestion for it either, but māda is not the word for 'mother', which is mātā.
264 EHS 2, p. 46.
265 EHS 2, p. 47, n. 35.
266 EHS 2, p. 48.
consider the last two to be Mahādharmarāja II, the donor’s husband, and the latter’s mother, both dead; while Prince Chand says they were Sai Līday, and his mother, both alive.

In most cases transfer of merit only concerns those who are already dead, and thus Prince Chand’s suggestion would be unlikely. He argues that a clear case of transferring merit to someone still alive is found in No. XLIX, but there Nay Ind only states that he would transfer to the king (perhaps only after the latter’s death) the merit accruing from a temple which he intended to build. The situation is thus quite different and in fact in No. XLIX, which is complete and which records the completion of the temple, there is no statement about really transferring merit, perhaps because the king was still alive267.

I think we must accept that the Mahādharmarāja in question cannot be the living Sai Līday, but must be an earlier Mahādharmarāja, and the Brahm Śrī Dharmarājamātā must be Sai Līday’s mother268.

This revision, which seems fairly straightforward from face I, becomes much more complicated by the evidence, and lacunae, of face II. The latter is in Pali and there is considerable controversy over its interpretation.

The first difficulty is in Griswold and Prasert’s rendering of lines 5-12, which is an interpretive paraphrase rather than a translation, the latter being partially provided in their note 53269. Taking the important elements in literal order we have, “in 730/1368... Dharmarāja-dhirāja of Līdayarāja’s... queen Śrī Dhammarājamātā... was born” (lines 5-9). Now Griswold and Prasert and Prince Chand have assumed that “Līdaya” can only be one individual, the king reigning between circa 1347 and 1374, and they also implicitly assume, with a logic that quite escapes me, that since the name of Mahādharmarāja II has not been preserved it could not have been “Līday”. As I have shown above Pali ‘Līdaya’/ ‘Līdayya’ could represent either ‘Lo’daiy’ or ‘Līday’, and there is no reason why Mahādharmarāja II could not have had one of these names. If the Līday of this inscription was Mahādharmarāja II then the Dharmarāja who was born in 1368 would have been Sai Līday, and his mother is seen to have had the same basic titles as in the unequivocal No. XLVI.

The date fits very well into the known period of Sai Līday’s life and so do some of the other passages of the inscription. It continues, “when he was sixteen years old”, and then there is a one-line lacuna so we do not know what happened in 745-46/1383-84, but two other inscriptions allude to the importance of that year and thus mention of the date fits an already established pattern without hazarding guesses as to its precise meaning270.

Then in line 13 we find, “when he was thirty-eight, in the year seven hundred...”, followed by a lacuna where the rest of the date should be. I would accept the metrically correct interpolation of attusathī, ‘sixty-eight’, making a date 768/1406. Griswold and Prasert cannot accept that because of their belief that the inscription was written in 1399, and their insistence

268 Prince Chand, however, does not accept Mahādharmarāja II as father of Mahādharmarāja III, which is discussed further below.
269 EHS 2, p. 50.
270 Pace G/P, EHS 2, p. 50, n. 54. The other two inscriptions are Nos. CVI and XCIV.
that the Mahādharmarāja concerned was not Sai Lidaiy, but Mahādharmarāja II, already dead by that date. Prince Chand calls attention to another reason why 1368 would be unacceptable for the birth of Mahādharmarāja II in Griswold and Prasert’s genealogical scheme. It would make him only 23 years old in 1391 at the birth of his grandson Mahādharmarāja IV, son of Sai Lidaiy, and such a genealogy is impossible.

Prince Chand’s own argument is that “1399 was the foundation date of the wat, but not necessarily the date of the inscription”, and he implies that the latter date could have been as late as 1406, on both of which points I am in full agreement. He also insists, rightly, that reconstruction of the lacuna in lines 13-14 of the Pali face must obey the metre, and that the date must therefore be 768/1406. Since Prince Chand, however, like Griswold and Prasert believes the Mahādharmarāja concerned to be the second, and since he realizes that a genealogy Lidaiy - Mahādharmarāja II - Sai Lidaiy - Mahādharmarāja IV is not possible with this assumption and with the dates of No. XCIII, he postulates an entirely different family structure in which Lidaiy - Ba Lo’daiy (No. XLV) - Sai Lidaiy would represent the main line of the family with Sai Lidaiy taking the throne in 1379, the year of Lidaiy’s death, and in which Mahādharamarāja II would be a half-brother of Ba Lo’daiy and a contemporary of Sai Lidaiy.

This solution, which is a speculative reconstruction, forces Prince Chand into further epicyclic reasoning to tie up loose ends, such as the question why Ba Lo’daiy never reigned and is not mentioned anywhere but in No. XLV, and the problem of Mahādharmarāja II being given such a title at birth, even though in Prince Chand’s own explanation he did not reign at all. For an answer to the first problem he produces a story in which Ba Lo’daiy, and also Nam Moañ, another figure of No. XLV, are killed off in the war of 1378, but this is precisely the type of story which, having no supporting evidence at all, is best avoided by the historian. For the second problem Prince Chand postulates a rivalry between the women whom he has identified as the two queens of Lidaiy, Rājamātā of No. XLVI, mother of Sai Lidaiy, and Sri Culālaksāṇa of No. XCIII, mother of the contemporary Mahādharmarāja II; and he says that the title “mahādharmarāja” for the prince whom we known as the second of that name, and who never really became king, is a false claim by his mother which is found only in No. XCIII. As evidence for such rivalry, he points to different styles in the temples they built and supposedly different territories claimed by Nos. XLVI and XCIII. But differences in architectural style in no way imply political rivalry, and with respect to the claims of territory, the passage of No. XLVI is fragmentary, that of No. XCIII is poorly understood and probably adjusted to the exigencies of Pali metre, and the two statements, both made about 1406 according to Prince Chand’s and my readings, could easily be understood as referring to the same general area.

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271 EHS 2, p. 50, n. 55.
272 Chand, “Review Jan. 1973”, p. 278; Guide, p. 69. The date of birth of Mahādharmarāja IV may be inferred from No. XII.
275 Guide, pp. 33, 73.
276 Guide, pp. 70-71, 73.
277 See EHS 1, p. 225, lines 7-9, p. 227; and EHS 2, p. 51. Note also that in Angkorean inscriptions such mundane details are often incomplete in the Sanskrit portion due to metrical requirements and are more accurately rendered in the Khmer passages.
Of course Prince Chand's main point here was to argue against Griswold and Prasert's contention that the queens of Nos. XLVI and CXIII were the same person. To that extent I agree with him, but otherwise I feel that his reconstruction is based on very tenuous speculations and must be rejected.

One other suggestion of Prince Chand, that the Prince Asoka of No. XCIII went to Lanka to obtain the relics, must also be rejected278. He has evidently been misled by the Thai translation of the inscription in Śīlā Čāru'k IV, which in fact makes it appear that Asoka went to Lanka, but the structure of the Pali text and Griswold and Prasert's translation show that this is impossible279.

Griswold and Prasert's reconstruction is based on an assumption about the identity of "Lidaya" shared by Prince Chand; a belief that all the dates of the inscription must be earlier than 1399, which both Prince Chand and I reject280; and a conviction that Mahādharmarāja II was dead in 1399, which I, but not Prince Chand, would also accept.

Let us first take the question of the date. As Prince Chand pointed out, 761/1399 is only mentioned as the date at which the temple was built, and in face I other things are mentioned as having occurred later. Thus, (a) four months later an image of the Buddha (lacuna, "was erected"), and four months after Phaggupa/Phalguna is already into the next year, 762/1400, (b) then sacred texts were assembled, and (c) then people and land were donated to the temple. Following this the inscription relates that the same lady also built six other temples and a monastic residence; and, pace Griswold and Prasert, there is no necessity to assume that they were all built earlier than the Asokarama (their note 37 is based on all the assumptions about identities of individuals which I am attempting to disprove). It is clear that the inscription was set up later than the date it includes, in the absence of any further date in face I the intervening time could have been a matter of years, and there is no conflict with the metrically correct conjecture that the missing date of face II should be 768/1406. Indeed the boundaries mentioned at that time, although in Palicized form and not entirely clear, fit the picture of Sai Lidaiy expanding or taking stock of his realm as in No. XLVI, dated 1404. Once this feature of the dating is recognized there is no longer any temporal objection to identifying Sai Lidaiy as the prince whose birth is recorded in 1368 and Cullālakaśa as his queen.

We must now return to the two passages transferring merit to other members of the donor's family281. Prince Chand feels that Griswold and Prasert have "doctored" their version and I consider his criticism to be just. However, I do not agree with Prince Chand that both passages should contain the same details, and that the Pali text should be interpreted to conform to the Thai282. As a literal translation, and that is what we must first work with, Prince Chand's rendering of the Thai passage, illustrated above, is far superior to that of Griswold and Prasert.

278 Chand, "Review Jan. 1973", p. 280; Gāthā, pp. 70, 73.
279 Śīlā Čāru'k IV, p. 55, line 10 from the top; EHS 2, p. 42, lines 33-41 and p. 52, from II/29-34 through II/35-42. I should make clear here that I have no pretensions to be a Pali scholar, and only claim sufficient basic Pali to identify passages in a translation with the corresponding passages of the original.
281 EHS 2, pp. 48 and 55 for G/P's translations.
However, since literal translation forces us to understand the donor, Sri Culālakṣāṇa, as queen of Sai Lidaiy, and since standard practice forces us to assume that all the persons mentioned were dead, we must take the last two individuals mentioned as a Mahādharmarāja preceding Sai Lidaiy, presumably his father, and his mother, who is given part of the same titles as found in No. XLVI. Since No. XLIX, as I read it, shows this lady still alive in 1417, No. XCIII could only have been written after that date.

As for the passage in the Pali face, which according to both Prince Chand’s and my own readings would have been later than 1399, and perhaps even much later, the donor, still the same lady, refers to her parents, and then to her husband in a phrase, “sāmiko me mahādharmarājadhirājanāmako”, and finally to the “royal mother”, using the same “Sri Dhammarājāmātā” as found in the Thai face and in No. XLVI. In this case Prince Chand’s interpretation that “sāmiko” and “mahādharmarāja’ are to be separated and made into two persons is just not tenable. The Pali phrase, literally “my husband named Mahādharmarājadhirāja”, is quite clear and we must prefer the rendition of Griswold and Prasert who also assume that the individual named was dead.

Where my reading differs from Griswold and Prasert is in identifying the donor’s husband as Sai Lidaiy instead of Mahādharmarāja II; and since we know the date of Sai Lidaiy’s death, 1419, this leads to the conclusion that the Pali side, but not the Thai side in which Sai Lidaiy is clearly alive, was not written until after that date. With this conclusion there is no longer any problem with Queen Culālakṣāṇa’s son being called Mahādharmarāja. He was Sai Lidaiy’s son, Mahādharmarāja IV, who would have been on the throne at the date the Pali inscription was written.

Thus without any interpretive paraphrases instead of translation, without any epicycles, and with only two assumptions (since 1399 records the beginning of the activities rather than their end, the inscription could have been erected within any time period which could reasonably fit into the lifetime of Sri Culālakṣāṇa; and since no other name has been recorded for Mahādharmarāja II, there is no objection to accepting him as the “Lidaya” of the Pali face), we can achieve a reading of No. XCIII which fits it into the picture based on earlier inscriptions and which is, I submit, much more acceptable from the point of view of historical method.

As for the Prince Asoka of No. XCIII, speculation about him and the significance of his name is not very helpful in the absence of all evidence. It is in any case not a unique instance of the name. ‘Asoka’ had been used by royalty in central Siam since the thirteenth century, and just because so few individuals are named in Sukhothai inscriptions we may not therefore assume that there were not many more princes in each generation.

283 Guide, p. 70.
284 That is, the problem of why he was apparently given such a title at birth. See Chand, “Review Jan. 1973”, p. 280.
Some conclusions

I stated earlier that all conclusions about the end of Ldaiy’s reign and the reign of Mahādharmarāja II depend on the inscriptions of the Sai Ldaiy period, and since the latter have been discussed it is time to go back to the earlier problems.

Since there is no unequivocal statement about the death of Ldaiy, and since there is hardly any unequivocal evidence for Mahādharmarāja II at all, the reader might still find part of Prince Chand’s theory attractive: Ldaiy died in 1379 and was succeeded by Sai Ldaiy, still a minor. The rāj auras of the latter’s title would refer to his relationship with Ba Lo’daiy and there would have been no Mahādharmarāja II at all. No. IX precludes that scenario, for it unequivocally calls Ldaiy “grandfather” and Sai Ldaiy “grandson”; and there is as yet no permissible way to reinterpret these terms. There was thus an intervening generation whose representative must have been considered king in order for his son Sai Ldaiy to be called “brah sri rāj auras”; and there is no objection if we continue to use the title “Mahādharmarāja II.”

The only thing we can say for certain about the time period of his reign is that it would have begun at the death of Ldaiy in 1368, or 1374, or 1379, and that it must have ended by 1397 when Sai Ldaiy in No. XXXVIII, still entitled ‘crown prince’, appears to be asserting his full authority. The total lack of information about Mahādharmarāja II and the uncertainty in No. CII about who was ruling in Sukhothai between 1379 and 1389 lend credence to Prince Chand’s supposition that, for a large part of Sai Ldaiy’s reign, power was in the hands of a regency. However, since Sai Ldaiy was still ‘crown prince’ or ‘heir apparent’ long after attaining his majority, and only asserted full authority in Sukhothai in 1397, perhaps together with a regency or without it, there were serious conflicts among factions of Sukhothai royalty or among the Sukhothai cities, and Mahādharmarāja II may have been a real ‘roi fainéant’. This is a speculative reconstruction, based on very incomplete evidence, and I shall carry it no further. All we can say for certain is that Sukhothai history between the 1360s and the 1390s is very unclear, the kingdom appears to have suffered a decline, and nothing of importance was accomplished by Mahādharmarāja II. This supposed decline of Sukhothai may well have been related to the constant Ayutthayan pressures recorded in LP and other chronicles, but I think it should be clear now that the inscriptions are concerned with strictly internal Sukhothai affairs and their factual content may not be integrated into any scenario of Ayutthayan expansion.

As a positive contribution it is perhaps possible to establish more closely the date of Mahādharmarāja II’s death. This will be based on three inscriptions, Nos. CVI, XCIV, and XCIII, all of which give a special importance to the year 1383-84.

In No. CVI a certain gentleman whose wife may reasonably be assumed to have been foster-mother to a prince is seen giving thought to basic existential problems early in the year 1384. Although not explicit, this year must have had some special significance, since, as I have shown, it was not the date of the inscription.

Inscription No. XCIV, the short gold plate reproduced in EHS 11-2, pp. 124-25, says a Sangharaja, who had been teacher of a certain Mahadharmaraja, had just built a stupa for the relics of that Mahadharmaraja, whom Prince Chand considers could have been either Lidaiy or Mahadharmaraja II. If Lidaiy died between 1368 and 1374 (Griswold and Prasert), or even in 1379 (Chand), 1384 seems rather late to consecrate his relics. But if Mahadharmaraja II had just died this circumstance would fit the picture of the inscription much better.

Finally, No. XCIII notes some important occurrence for the life of Sai Lidaiy in 1383-84, although the details have disappeared from the stone. None of these statements are at all specific, and although it gets dangerously close to the type of speculative reconstruction against which I have been warning, I would like to offer the hypothesis that the important event of 1384, or slightly earlier, was the death of Mahadharmaraja II.

With respect to No. XCIV, however, Prince Chand's preference, as well as Griswold and Prasert's is that it refers to Lidaiy. Couldn't we then suppose that Lidaiy himself had lived until 1383-84, and that Mahadharmaraja II's reign was from 1384 until sometime in the 1390s? Then the "brah sri rāj auras" of No. CII would be Mahadharmaraja II, he might still have been alive, but retired, as Griswold and Prasert say, in 1393, date of No. XLV, and he would only have died shortly before 1397 at which time his mahārajaputra", Sai Lidaiy, asserted his authority in Sukhothai.

This would be an acceptable reconstruction if we wished to ignore, as Prince Chand does, the statement of Jina that a certain Dhammaraja had died during events which seem to be dated by LP in the 1360s or 1370s. I have discussed this portion of Jina above, and pointed out some of its weaknesses, but it is so close to other, better, sources, that its statements may not be ignored. I therefore agree with Griswold and Prasert that on the basis of Jina we must date the death of Lidaiy somewhere between 1368 and 1374, and in such case the "brah sri rāj auras" of 1379 can only be Sai Lidaiy.

One more positive contribution centers on the personal name of Mahadharmaraja II. No. XCIII shows that it was something which could be Palicized as "Lidaya", and Pali lidaya could represent both the Thai Lidaiy and Lo'daiy. Griswold and Prasert have already accepted that the mysterious ba lo'daiy of No. XLV was of the same generation as Mahadharmaraja II, perhaps an "elder half-brother". The only reason for not identifying him directly as Mahadharmaraja II was Griswold and Prasert's view of No. XCIII, which I have attempted to show untenable, and I believe we must accept that the Lidaya of No. XCIII, hitherto known only as Mahadharmaraja II, was also the ba lo'daiy of No. XLV, with the term 'ba' indicating that he was of the father generation to the reigning king Sai Lidaiy.

Later Sukhothai

Prince Chand's chapters 8 and 9 continue beyond the reign of Sai Lidaiy into a period which Griswold and Prasert have treated, but not exhaustively, in their study of "Yuan Pai"
Since Prince Chand generally approves of those two studies, and since there are few inscriptions, there is much less controversy, which is not to say that the history of this late Sukhothai period has been explained in a more satisfactory manner than the early reigns. Details about which there is general agreement are the death of Sai Lidaiy in 1419 as recorded in LP and the ensuing reign of his son, Mahādharmanārāja IV, who finds mention in No. XII, dated 1426, and whose reign may have come to an end in 1438 when LP seems to be noting direct Ayutthayan interference in Sukhothai affairs. Beyond this the scarcity and nature of the sources permit conflicting conjectures which cannot yet be resolved.

Part of Prince Chand’s chapter 8 concerns art and architectural matters which I deliberately ignore in the present review, but most of it is Prince Chand’s own narrative of the “Union of Ayudia and Sukhothai”, a history of the relations among Sukhothai, Ayutthaya and Chiang Mai in the last three quarters of the fifteenth century. It is based on the chronicles and its acceptability will depend on a full analysis of those texts.

Only a few critical remarks need to be made here. In the “Genealogical Table VII”, page 78, Prince Chand again shows Trailokanāth born of a Sukhothai princess, something I discussed above; and he indicates that “Phya Rām”, mentioned in the LP entry of 781/1419, was appointed as “Phya Chalieng”, a detail for which there is no evidence. He also states unequivocally that Yudhisthira was son of this Phya Rām, and he seems to believe that the inclusion of ‘Ramarajissara’ (in Pali) among Yudhisthira’s titles shows that his father’s name was Rāma. However, the frequent occurrence of ‘Rāma’ in the names or titles of numerous kings in several polities eliminates the possibility of attributing any specific significance to it. Griswold originally settled for “scion of the old ruling family”, and Griswold and Prasert have more recently suggested he was “son of the deceased king”, Mahādharmanārāja IV; and we must conclude that his parentage may not be determined with any certainty. Prince Chand also repeats his ideas about No. XL, which I have discussed above.

Although Prince Chand accepts Griswold’s “Yudhisthira” for much of the fifteenth-century story, he gives somewhat more emphasis to a difficulty which Griswold tended to gloss over and which illustrates the pitfalls of reconstructing history from the chronicles without first undertaking their full critical analysis.

The problem is a battle between the northern and southern forces recorded in CMC in 819/1457 and in LP in 825/1463. It is obvious that one or the other date is wrong, which both Griswold and Prince Chand admit, but Griswold considered it of “little importance”, while Prince Chand realizes that it spoils the whole reconstructed story. Besides this, if a comparative table of events in LP and CMC is set up it will be seen that the LP entry of 825

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288 G/P, “A Siamese historical poem”.
289 LP, entries for culi 781, 800; EHS I, p. 241; Vickery, “The 2/k. 125 Fragment”, pp. 75-76.
292 Guide, pp. 79, 81; and see above, “Two confusing inscriptions”.
294 See also G/P, “A Siamese historical poem”, p. 135.
may also be related to the CMC entries of 821 and 813, which latter are also related to LP entries of 822/23 and 813 respectively. If LP is taken as the most accurate framework, as has been done by most historians, then CMC for this period is a confusing jumble and its details may not be inserted directly into the LP structure.

A small error occurs in Prince Chand’s reference to the Wat Chulamani/cufama~i inscription. It is not just the “last two paragraphs”, but the entire inscription which dates from 1680-81 (not 1679) even though it purports to record information from the fifteenth century.

In Prince Chand’s chapter 9, he first reviews the history of Ayutthaya as recorded in LP and notes appropriately that some of its entries are obscure. He again insists that No. XXXVIII belongs to this period, but otherwise his remarks on the inscriptions of the late fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries, which are too few to provide a coherent historical picture, are not controversial, and his only excursion into unsupported conjecture is in the final paragraph, on events of the first quarter of the sixteenth century, which he admits is only a hypothesis.

As a final comment I can only emphasize that the history of Sukhothai, in a form acceptable to modern historians, remains to be written. The difficulty is not in the literal understanding of the sources, for surely Prince Chand and Dr. Prasert could come to terms on satisfactory readings of even the most difficult Thai texts. The barrier to an acceptable history of Sukhothai has so far been in certain rather traditional attitudes about what is important in history, and to what extent the historian may give rein to his imagination in recreating the events of the past. It may be that the sources are altogether insufficient to write history at the biographical and political level, at which attention is devoted to the actions and interactions of individuals or to the attitudes and policies of the ruling families of Sukhothai, Chiang Mai and Ayutthaya. It is undoubtedly the concentration on this aspect of history which has led to the very speculative, conjectural reconstructions which characterize the works reviewed here. I would suggest that it may be necessary to move to a more abstract, and possibly more interesting, level and to devote our attentions to the implications of material remains for social and economic life; and some of the important problems would be (a) whether new economic forces affecting all of Southeast Asia caused the growth of Ayutthaya and its expansion against Sukhothai; (b) whether control of pottery manufacture and trade routes played an important role in the fifteenth-century wars between Sukhothai, Ayutthaya, and Chiang Mai; and (c) to what extent Ayutthaya changed as it gradually absorbed the more Thai areas in north-central Siam in the fifteenth-sixteenth centuries. The inscriptions and chronicles will have an important role to play in the study of all such questions, but they must be treated in a much more rigorous manner than has been done to date, and many of the problems to which Mr. Griswold, Dr. Prasert and Prince Chand gave greatest attention may not be soluble due to lack of sufficient evidence in extant sources.

297 See above, n. 242.

BANCANDANUMAS: พระราหูสารคตอนรุ้ขามุรี ฉบับพิมพ์ที่สองสมบูรณ์ (ฉบับ) ภน พระเจ้าพระคุณที่ (อาที), กรุงวิทยา, 2507.


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