The Role of Place Names in Preserving Cultural Heritage in Indonesia[1], [2]

Multamia RMT Lauder
Indonesia

Introduction

UNGEGN and the UN mandate for standardizing place names

The problem of the standardization of geographical names was first raised during the debates of the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) in 1948. In 1955, ECOSOC resolution 715A (XXVII) produced at the First Regional Cartographic Conference for Asia and the Pacific, requested the Secretary-General to encourage nations to take part in the international standardization and co-ordination of geographical names, to establish an organization that could take responsibility for this and to create a body of experts in supporting fields. The First United Nations Conference on the Standardization of Geographical Names convened at Geneva from 4 to 22 September 1967. After a second conference in 1972, the ad hoc experts group was formalized as the United Nations Group of Experts on Geographical Names (UNGEGN), to carry forward the programme of cooperation between conferences. Today, UNGEGN is one of the seven standing expert bodies of ECOSOC[3]. The first pilot training course in Indonesia took place in 1982[4]. Since then, under the guidance of the National Coordinating Agency for Surveys and Mapping (*Badan Koordinasi Survei dan Pemetaan Nasional* - BAKOSURTANAL[5]), Indonesia has been implementing the UN mandate at the national level by coordinating the collection of data for the standardization of geographical names, on land and undersea. The organization today reaches down to the provincial, district and village levels.

This paper looks at some of the historical, cultural and other aspects of place names in the task of standardization in Indonesia today.

Indonesia at a glance

The standardizing of geographical names needs first of all to take into consideration Indonesia's geography, demography and ethnolinguistic characteristics. Indonesia is an archipelago of 13,466 islands. Its land territory covers 1,913,578.68 km^2. while its territorial waters extend over 3.1 million km^2. Its population in December 2012, was 251,857,940. Indonesian, the national language, is spoken throughout the country and is the medium of education is schools. In addition to Indonesian, a total of 742 regional indigenous languages are also spoken. These languages are repositories of culture and local knowledge and identity. Religious belief is an important part of the lives of the majority of Indonesians. While a majority adhere to Islam, the country also officially recognizes a number of other faiths: Catholicism, Protestantism, Hinduism, Buddhism, and Confucianism.

The country is divided into administrative areas of different sizes. The largest of these areas are the 34 provinces which are run by Governors. Below the provincial level, the administrative areas distinguish rural and urban areas. Cities are divided into boroughs. Meanwhile, provinces are divided in rural areas into regencies, districts and villages. This administrative structure is shown in Figure 1.

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[1] United Nations Group of Experts on Geographical Names (UNGEGN) Asia, South-East Division, Place Names Preserving Cultural Heritage, Brunei, 13-14 May 2013.

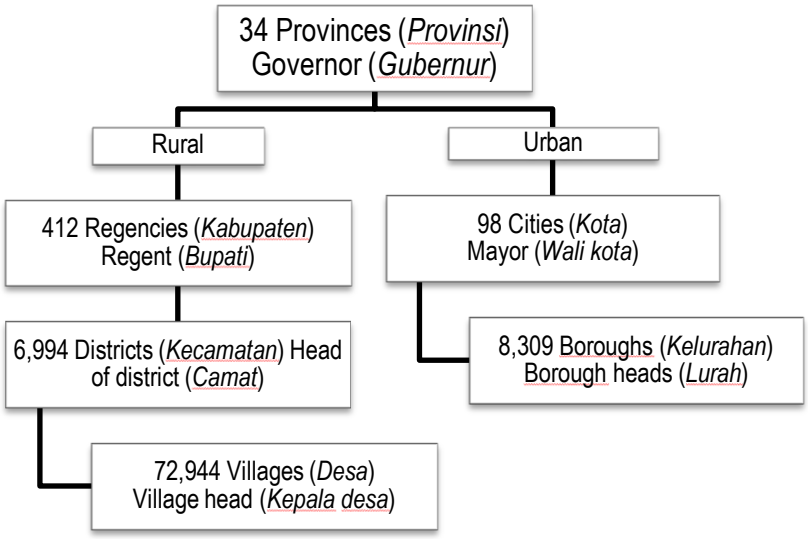
[2] Parts of this paper have previously appeared as training materials for the *4th United Nations Group of Experts on Geographical Names Training Course on Toponymy*. Yogyakarta, September 2012.

[3] Source: UNGEGN Mandate at http://unstats.un.org/unsd/geoinfo/ungegn/mandate.html.

[4] See: UNGEGN Bulletin 33, http://unstats.un.org/unsd/geoinfo/ungegn/docs/Bulletin/ungegnbulletin33.pdf.

[5] BAKOSURTANAL has now adopted the name *Badan Informasi Geospasial* (BIG) or the Geospatial Information Agency.

Figure 1 Administrative structure in Indonesia



Geographical naming in Indonesia

National Body for the Standardization of Geographical Names

The organizational structure for the standardizing of place names in Indonesia is set out in Presidential Decree No. 112/2006 on the National Committee for the Standardization of Geographical Names. Three teams are described, the National Committee for the Standardization of Geographical Names being the highest, tasked with oversight and policy, the National Executive Team for the Standardization of Geographical Names, and the National Team of Experts for the standardization of geographical names. The composition of these is shown in Table 1.

Table 1 National bodies for the standardization of geographical names

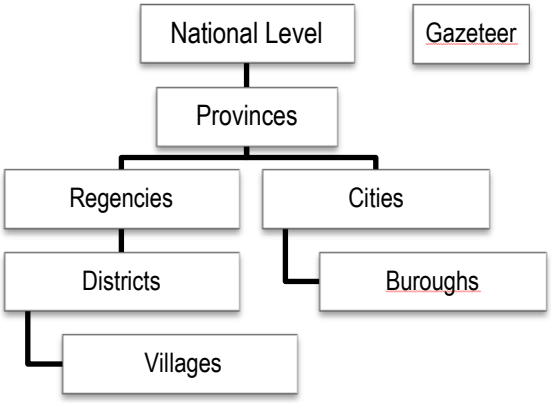
Team and position	**Personnel**
National Committee for the Standardization of Geographical Names	
Head of the Committee:	Home Affairs Minister
Members:	Defense Minister, Foreign Affairs Minister, Marine Affairs and Fisheries Minister, Education Minister
Secretary 1:	Head of Geospatial Information Agency (BIG)
Secretary 2:	Director General of Public Administration, Home Affairs Ministry
National Executive Team for the Standardization of Geographical Names	
Head:	Head of Geospatial Information Agency (BIG)
Deputy Head:	Director General of Public Administration, Home Affairs Ministry
Members:	Officials responsible for geographical names
National Team of Experts for the standardization of geographical names	
Experts	Experts on geography, linguistics, history, anthropology, and other disciplines related to toponymy

Data Collection

A good deal of coordination and decision making is required for data collection. The head of the district (*camat*) or other administrative area should perform an inventory of geographical names in their area. The inventory of geographical names should cover all the geographical features whether they do not yet have names or already do. Where it is found that an existing name violates the principles for geographical naming, then a new name should be suggested by the senior government official their (village head, district head, or other official in charge) after taking into consideration name(s) submitted by the local community. The resulting inventory of names of geographical features should be delivered by the local government head to the District or City Committee.

The District or City Committee should conduct an inventory and review of the proposed standardization of the names of the topographic features submitted by all the villages (or other buroughs) in the region. The completed review should be reported to the Provincial Committee. The Provincial Committee should inventorize and review these submissions from the District or City level Committees in their area. These completed reviews should in turn be reported to the National Team. The National Team should review the names of geographical features suggested for standardization by the Provincial Committees.

Figure 2 National structure for data collection



Names are needed not only for geographical features on land, but also for undersea features. Examples are basin, a depression in the sea floor and reef, a mass of rocks lying near the sea surface, e.g. Great Barrier Reef. Undersea feature names are standardized, the main reference being International Hydrographic Organization and Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission (2008). See Appendix 1 for a list of names for generic undersea features.

Steps in Geographical Naming for Field Workers

The naming of geographical features involves a number of steps. These can be described briefly as follows:

- Step 1 involves obtaining basic information about the history, language and culture of the local community.
- Step 2 consists of doing field work to collect the geographical names used by the local community and attempting to identity the generic place names in the local language.
- Step 3 involves making accurate notes of place names, place name spellings and their pronunciations recorded from local language speaker informants.
- Step 4 is the investigation of the origins of geographical names (etymology) in order to understand the history and culture of the local community.

Principles for Geographical Naming

Based on Home Affairs Minister Regulation No. 39/2008: Manual for the Standardization of Geographical Names; Chapter 3, Article 6. A number of principles have been established to guide the process of creating or standardizing geographical names. These are part of a process of standardization, which take into consideration culture, history, religion, philosophy, politics and linguistics. The principles, which are widely agreed on, provide an external set of conditions that make it possible to justify decisions taken in geographical naming.

Eight principles are described here. They cover such issues as the choice of script, whether to use a local or non-local name, or whether to use the national language (Indonesian), a regional language(*bahasa daerah*), or some other language. They also include socio-political and cultural factors such as complying with government legislation, and the need to respect the existence of ethnicity, religion, race and class. Beyond these are pragmatic issues such as keeping names short and not using the names of living individuals.

Principle 1 Use the Roman script

There are three main kinds of script: alphabetic (Roman, Cyrillic, Arabic), syllabic (Japanese hiragana and katakana; Korean hangul) and ideographic (Chinese hanzi). It is possible to write any human language in any script. However, some scripts are more suited to writing a particular language than others. For example, Chinese characters (ideographs) are very suitable for writing Chinese because Chinese words do not change their endings to indicate such things as plural (in nouns), or past tense (in verbs). However, the Japanese language does.

The alphabetic scripts are not better *per se*, but they are more widespread than the other two kinds of sytems and they are more flexible in representing aspects found in many languages. Some alphabetic scripts do not use diacritic marks. English is one. However, others, such as Czech, use a number of additonal marks to distinguish different sounds.

UNGEGN advises that the Roman script is used without additional distinguishing marks (diacritics); this is in order to make international communication simpler. Indonesian names should also use the Roman script without diacritics. Geographical names in the form of a symbol, formula, sign or emblem should be written in roman letters. Geographical names which are written in a distinctive, unfamiliar script or have an unfamiliar pronunciation, should be presented using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)[6].

Principle 2 Use one name per geographic feature

Confusion can arise if two different topographic features both have the same name. Let's say that you are giving someone directions to go to Jalan Merdeka, but there are two different Jalan Merdekas. In that case, without further clarification, your friend could end up in the wrong location.

Therefore, this principle requires that if we come across such a case, with two locations sharing the same name, then we should append some additional word in order to distinguish the two. For example, in case there are two housing estates named *Perumahan Menteng* (Menteng Housing Estate), then one could be renamed *Perumahan Menteng Bintaro* (Bintaro, a district) and the other *Perumahan Bukit Menteng* (Menteng Hill).

Another cause for confusion is where a single place has multiple names. In such cases, a single name should be chosen as the recognized name and recorded as such in the National Gazetteer with the others also listed as variants.

Principle 3 Use local names

In a highly diverse country like Indonesia, there are a great many indigenous ethno-linguistic groups and languages. When faced with a choice between a name that comes from the local people and their

[6] The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) is an alphabetic system of phonetic notation based primarily on the Latin alphabet. It was devised as a standardized representation of the sounds of oral language.

language, or the language of officials who come from a majority group or from the capital, Jakarta, the principle to follow is to use the local name.

Local names are preferred for naming geographical features in order to preserve and respect the communities who live where those features are found. Local names reflect and preserve the local community's history, their upheavals, settlement and migrations and their cultural heritage. Using local names is therefore seen as beneficial.

Principle 4 Comply with government legislation

Topographic naming should not break any government regulation, so people who are working on the standardization of geographical names need to be aware of what the prevailing relevant laws are. Naming should respect and comply with government regulation on naming. These regulations and laws are those produced by the relevant authorities.

Principle 5 Respect the existence of ethnicity, religion, race and class

Indonesia is extremely diverse with respect to ethnicity and language and we can also find differences of religion, class, and other social markers. This means that where there is a choice among competing groups, the choice of one geographical name rather than another has the potential to cause offense or stir up conflict between groups. This means that there is a power or status dimension to names. Names should not cause offense and so those working in geographical naming need to be aware of these differences and be sensitive to them when choosing names. By respecting these different sensitivities, we can help to maintain and promote social harmony.

Principle 6 Do not use proper personal names of people who are still alive

It is possible to find examples of businesses which are named after their founders. The name and company are strongly linked. This may seem acceptable if the founder is credited with the company's success. However, when you name a place after a living person, a number of problems come in. One is envy. If your street is renamed after your (living) neighbour, you might think it dishonestly promotes him as a great and important person, when you know otherwise. Proper personal names of living people are not used for naming geographical features because doing so has the potential to exagerrate the individual's importance, to make them into a cult figure, and to give them an unfair advantage in society. This is ultimately not beneficial for the healthy growth of democracy, human rights and social equity. Meanwhile proper names of existing private or public organizations are not used for naming geographical features because the publicity has the potential to give that organization an unfair advantage over its competitors. However, this principle on proper names of people applies only to living people. Proper personal names may be used to name geographical features if the person has been dead for at least five years, and they have made a significant contribution to the state or the local community.

Principle 7 Use Indonesian and/or the regional languages

In principle, a geographical feature can be given any name and one which already has a name can be renamed. An example is the town of Makassar in South Sulawesi. During the Soeharto era, this local name was changed to one based on Indonesian, Ujung Pandang. Recently, the name was changed back to its earlier name, Makassar because this is part of the place's history, culture and identity. The principle here is that when there is a choice between a name in the national language and one of the regional languages, we should use the regional language or local name. However, if the choice is between a foreign name and one in Indonesian, the Indonesian name is preferred. The use of Indonesian or one of the regional languages is advised because this supports the intended functions of each, namely national unity and the preservation of and support for cultural diversity in Indonesia.

Principle 8 Limit names to a maximum of three words

Names can be long or short and they can consist of one or more words. Some are memorable because they are so long. For example, the following 67 character name of a train station in North Wales, Great Britain: *Gorsafawddacha'idraigodanheddogleddolonpenrhynareurdraethceredigion*, gets quoted a lot and provokes interest with potential tourists. People may go there partly because the name is so long. However, for daily life, shorter names are best.

Keeping place names short or restricting the number of words in the name has the advantage of making them easier to remember and use in daily communication while, on maps, they take up less space. Most people would approve that the name *Los Angeles* is used for the US city rather than the 12 word version which it is abbreviated from: *El Pueblo de Nuestra Senora la Reina de los Angeles de Porciuncula*.

Therefore, in Indonesia names should be long enough to be unique, but short enough to be useful and consist of no more than three words.

Toponymy and world language relatedness

Toponymy, the study of geographical names, encompasses all of the names used by all of humanity. The United States Census Bureau (USCB) estimated that the world population exceeded 7 billion on March 12, 2012. These people live in 195 independent sovereign states in the world (including disputed but defacto independent Taiwan), plus about 60 dependent areas, and five disputed territories, like Kosovo. People distinguish themselves on the basis of national identity, culture, history, place and language. There are approximately 6,000 languages spoken today in the world. Those with the most speakers are shown in Table 2 which is based on data in Comrie et al. (2003). There are more speakers of Javanese than of Italian or Korean.

Table 2 World languages with the most mother tongue speakers

Language	Speakers*	Language	Speakers
Chinese	1,000	French	70
English	350	Punjabi	70
Spanish	250	Javanese	65
Hindi	200	Bihari	65
Arabic	150	Italian	60
Bengali	150	Korean	60
Russian	150	Telugu	55
Portuguese	135	Tamil	55
Japanese	120	Marathi	50
German	100	Vietnamese	50

*Number of speakers (in millions).

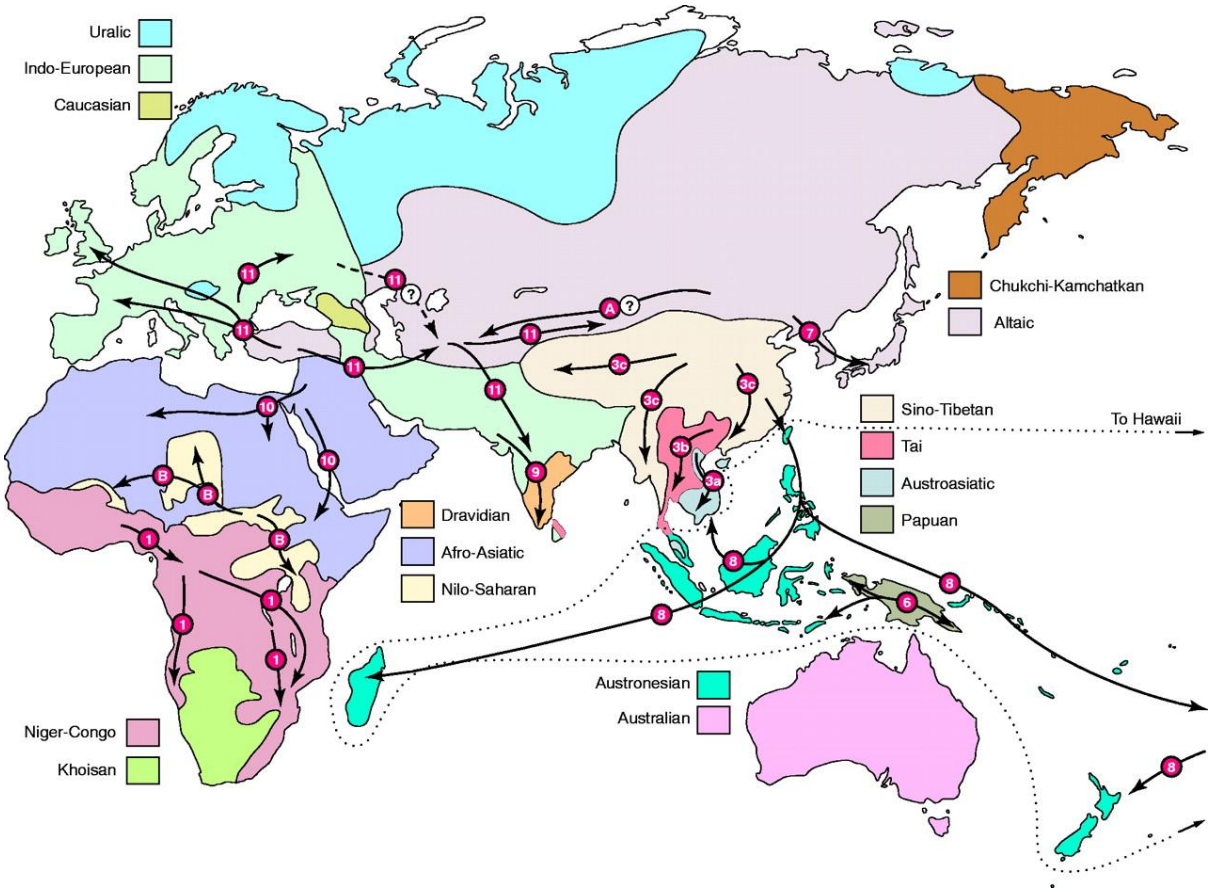
Language origins and the relatedness of the world languages

Many different languages are spoken around the world. A question that has been asked is whether they are related in any way and where they came from. The scientific study of language, linguistics, has shown that languages, like individuals in a family, are related and that present day members can trace their lineage back to individuals from former generations. This genealogical relationship allows us to place languages used today into groups, or language families. This means that groups that are similar, are indeed related. For example, English and French related and members of the Indo-European language family. If we go back further in time, we will find that languages that appear unrelated are in fact part of the same family. For example, Hindi shares the same ancestor as English,

and is a member of the same language family. Figure 3 shows the geographical areas occupied by the main language families in Europe and Asia.

The lines on the map indicate ancient ancestral migration routes at different time depths. As can be seen, Indonesians trace their ancestry back on a route through Kalimantan, the Philippines and Taiwan to mainland China. It should also be obvious that their past involved seafaring.

Figure 3 Language family areas in the 'old world' and ancestral migratory routes



Source: http://emedia.leeward.hawaii.edu/hurley/Ling102web/mod6_world/6mod6.1_historical.htm

The story of human language is then one of human migration and dispersion going back thousands, and even tens of thousands of years. Evidence from written sources only goes back a few thousand, so we use evidence from anthropology, archaeology, and genetics, among others to try to see further back in time. This multi-disciplinary evidence can be used to trace the expansions and migrations of human ancestors out of Africa into Europe, Asia and the Americas along with their approximate dates. (Aitchison, 2000).

In recent years, this work has revealed an increasingly clear picture that language probably began to emerge in our ancestors approximately 100 thousand years ago and that all humans living today are descended from a small group of approximately 100 individuals who made the journey out of the Rift Valley area of north east Africa about 50 to 80 thousand years ago. Italian geneticist Cavalli-Sforza noted that there are important similarities between the evolution of genes and languages. The human genetic family tree is a close match with the tree of language families (Cavalli-Sforza, 2001).

Using methods such as studying the similarities in grammar, vocabulary and sounds, the world's approximately 6,000 languages can be grouped into about 17 major families (Comrie et al., 2003).

The oldest linguistic families are known to be African: of the four existing today, Niger-Kordofanian, Nilo-Saharan, Khoisan, and Afro-Asiatic, Khoisan is considered to be the oldest. Khoisan may be the most direct descendant of the people who were responsible for the first expansion from Africa to Asia.

According to some anthropologists, the Khoisan (bushmen) people who now live in Southern Africa once lived further north, in East Africa or perhaps even northeastern Africa. Of all Africans, East Africans are most similar to Asians (Cavalli-Sforza, 2001: 149-168).

Languages inventory in Indonesia

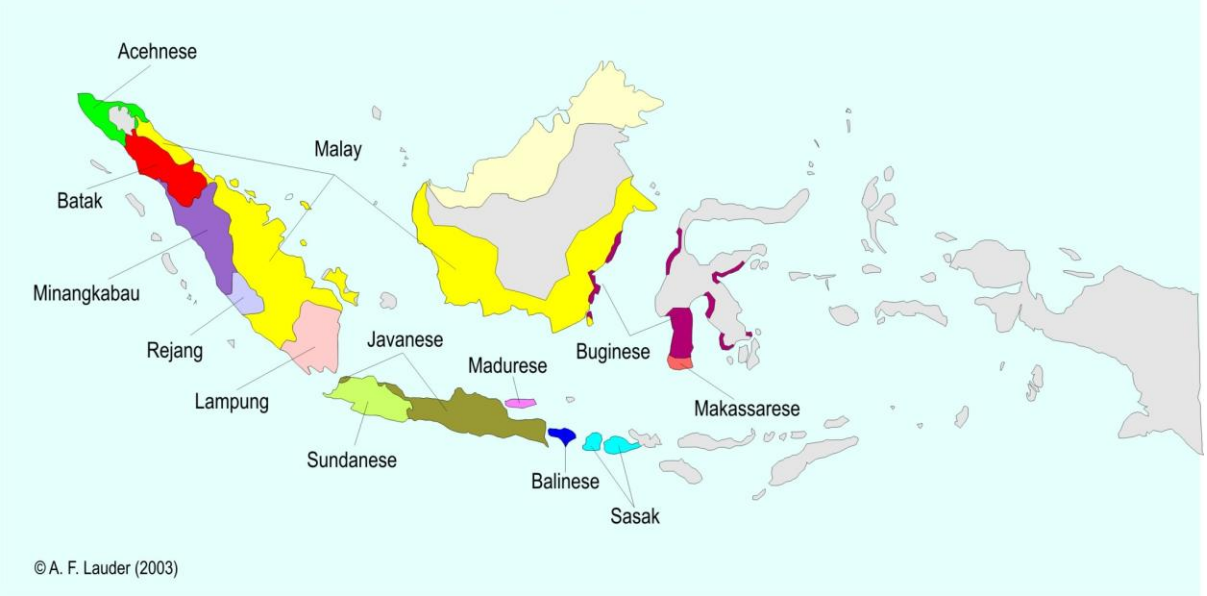
The Indonesian language is a member of the Austronesian language family. The majority of Indonesia's 742 regional languages belong to the Austronesian language family, the rest to the Indo-Pacific family (Lewis, 2009). Austronesian and Indo-Pacific languages are distantly related and found over an extremely wide area that stretches from Madagascar in the east to Easter Island in the west and from New Zealand in the south to Taiwan and Hawaii in the north.

Austronesian and Non-Austronesian contacts: While the majority of Indonesia's indigenous regional languages belong to the Austronesian language family, a significant number of non-Austronesian languages are also found. A study of words borrowed from Austronesian into non-Austronesian languages can throw light on former contacts between Austronesian and non-Austronesian peoples.

While the majority (498/67%) of Indonesia's 742 languages are members of the Austronesian language family, 244 (33 %) are classified as 'non-Austronesian' (or Papuan) (SIL International Indonesia Branch, 2006). These languages form a very diverse group mostly located in Papua (210 languages), but are also to be found in Maluku (17) and East Nusa Tenggara (17).

Indonesia is home to 12.36% of all world languages. The size and diversity of this family of languages in the total picture of Indonesia's languages deserves adequate attention if a complete understanding of the naming of generic geographical features is to be achieved. Figure 4 shows the geographical distribution of the 13 largest regional languages in Indonesia.

Figure 4 Distribution of 13 largest regional languages in Indonesia



The indigenous regional languages or mother tongues continue to play an important part in everyday life in Indonesia, particularly in the domain of home use. 85% of Indonesia's population still use one of the regional languages for daily communication in the home (Muhadjir and Lauder, 1992). These mother tongues have a number of functions related to identity, culture and tradition. They act as a "window" for people to perceive the complex reality of the world (world view and sense of self). They are also a means for people to express values, norms, laws, traditions, and other local wisdom such as respect for and knowledge about living in harmony with the environment.

Numbers of language speakers

There is considerable variation in speaker numbers among the 742 indigenous languages found in Indonesia. Javanese, for example, the largest of all the local languages, has more than 75,200,000 speakers. Beside this, Buginese, spoken in Sulawesi, with 3,500,000 speakers seems relatively small. But there are many languages with less than 100 thousand speakers. For example, Enggano, spoken in Sumatra, has less than 1,000 speakers, Punan Merah, in Kalimantan, has just 137 speakers, and at the low end of the scale, there is Kayeli, spoken in Maluku, with just 3 speakers, and Hukumina, also in Maluku, with just one. Speaker population sizes are a factor in the ability of a language to continue to exist in a world where small languages are under threat of shrinking to the point of extinction.

Historical data for geographical names

Scripts heritage

An understanding of archaeological inscriptions and old manuscripts can support historical research into geographical names. Understanding local scripts can be one factor in helping to maintain local languages. Texts written in local scripts preserve traditional local knowledge, wisdom, beliefs, skills, technologies (e.g. knowledge about, medicines, the environment, architecture, agriculture).

Indigenous language writing systems

Indonesian, Malay and the larger indigenous languages of Indonesia have a long history as written languages. The first evidence of writing is in ancient stone inscriptions but there is also a rich tradition of writing in which we can find examples of literary manuscripts, grammars, religious texts, letters of all sorts from diplomatic to amourous, and instructional texts. Traditional writing may be found on a variety of materials: – stone inscriptions, metal inscriptions, *lontar* leaves, *nipah* leaves, *dluwang* leaves, bark, buffalo hide, wood, paper and fabric.

A variety of scripts have been used or developed locally. Malay was written in an Arabic derived script known as *Jawi*, but it has also been written in Indic and Latin scripts. Javanese has been written in scripts derived in the *Nagari* and *Pallava* scripts of India and in a locally derived one based on them called *Kawi*. It has also been written in a script derived from Arabic and in the Latin scripts. Generic names for places, people and products were written in Chinese characters in Imperial China although the Chinese script has never been adapted to write Indonesian languages (Taylor, 2003: 29).

Given that any language can potentially be written in any number of different kinds of script, it will be obvious that some scripts may be more suitable than others. Because the majority of the smaller indigenous languages are oral or pre-literate cultures which do not have scripts, there is a need to create appropriate scripts for them.

The value of geographical names

The study of geographical names may seem to the average person a trivial activity compared to studying medicine, agriculture or economics. Geographical names are largely taken for granted. The assumption is that they simply serve to refer to geographical features and that everything is obvious. They might also assume that studying them would be a waste of time. But nothing could be further from the truth.

In fact, geographical names can often tell a story. They can give us clues to a cultural landscape from the past; they can also provide evidence of the sequence of human migration and settlement in an area, even when time has erased all physical evidence. Geographical names also have value as they play a part in the efficient operation of modern urban societies. When linked to a coordinated system of house numbers and postal codes, a city's street names become elements of a geolocational system that makes life easier in many ways for many people. Government authorities can provide public services or collect taxes. Commercial companies can target potential customers. Ordinary people can find their way to a place they have never been before.

Names are an essential and useful part of our daily life. While they certainly remain further down the scale of human priorities than health, food security and economic prosperity, we can still argue that they are not trivial and that we should indeed study them to should ensure they serve us well.

Toponymy today

The field of toponymy has experienced a major transformation over the course of the last 20 years. A variety of new thematic concerns have been explored, and there is now a far greater recognition that toponymic research should be firmly grounded in an explicit engagement with critical theories of space, place, and landscape (Rose-Redwood et al., 2010: 458).

Place naming has links with political power because places are often named after powerful political figures. The semiotic association between place naming and political power can be traced back throughout the course of history. It is relatively common to name places after their founder or some person of influence; for example, the main international airport for Jakarta is *Bandara Soekarno-Hatta*, named after the country's first President and Vice President. We also see examples of naming places (streets, airports, etc.) after national heroes or historical figures; for example, a major arterial road in the business heart of Jakarta is *Jalan Jenderal Sudirman* (old spelling *Soedirman*), named after the highly respected Indonesian general who fought for Indonesia's independence.

The image-generating power of toponyms has long played a role in the political economy of place promotion. Place-naming rights are increasingly bought and sold like commodities, used to project the power of corporations and privatize public space and memory (Boyd, 2000, Yurchak, 2000)

Case study: The special region of Yogyakarta

The history and prehistory of a place is often implicated in geographical names. *Yogyakarta* proves to be a unique and fascinating site, with a long history. It is the site of ancient kingdoms and prehistoric settlements. By looking into its past and its place names, we can begin to see the connection between its history, geography, archaeology and cultural heritage.

Yogyakarta

Yogyakarta today is home to the last surviving Javanese monarch, and as he has no male heir, there is the possibility that the monarchy will end with him. Now, the monarchy is considering whether to establish a new rule that would allow a female to be the head of the monarchy. This has not been without opposition as the brothers of the king see their own claims to power would be lost.

Back in the sixteenth century, *Yogyakarta* was at the centre of the *Mataram* kingdom which emerged between 1550 and 1594. Formerly subject to the *Pajang* Kingdom, *Mataram* became independent in the 1580s. In about 1588, *Mataram's* ruler, *Senapati*, defeated *Pajang* (Cribb, 2000: 89). *Mataram* reached the height of its power between 1622 and 1645 with its influence extending west to *Batavia* and east to *Madura*. The following short historical narratives illustrate the connection between history, power, place and names. The city exudes the past.

Mentaok

In 1558, the King of *Pajang* gave land in the area of *Mentaok* to *Ki Ageng Pemanahan* and land in the area of *Pati* to *Ki Panjawi* because they had helped to kill his enemy *Arya Penangsang*.

Mentaok was forested and unpopulated. *Ki Ageng Pemanahan* encouraged people to move there from *Pajang* and *Grobogan*. According to historical records, during the journey to *Mentaok*, the migrants – the ancestors of the *Mataram* kingdom – stopped on the way to rest at the village of *Taji* in the *Prambanan* area. They were welcomed there by *Ki Gede Karanglo* with great hospitality (de Graaf, 1941: 63–64).

The forested area of *Metaok* was cleared to make way for human settlement which developed into the *Mataram* kingdom. All of the *Mataram* kings can trace their ancestry back to *Ki Ageng Sela* (who

came from *Sesela* village in the *Grobogan* region). *Ki Ageng Sela* had a grandson named *Ki Ageng Pemanahan* (after the village *Manahan*).

Capital Cities of Mataram

Since its beginnings, the *Mataram* Kingdom has had its capital in several different cities (Daldjoeni, 1984). Apart from Yogyakarta, its capital has also been located in *Kota Gede* (also spelled *Kuta Gede*), *Kartasura*, and *Plered*.

- **Kota Gede** is now known as *Pasar Gede* and is located in *Yogyakarta*. One of the old capitals of Mataram, the area now has an archaeological site which contains the remains of the *kraton* (palace), the royal cemetery, and royal mosque of Mataram, dating from the late 16th and early 17th centuries.
- **Kartasura** (also spelled *Kartosuro*) is an Indonesian district (*kecamatan*) in the *Sukoharjo* Regency, Central Java, and functions today as a satellite city of *Surakarta*. *Kartasura* was the capital of the Sultanate of *Mataram* in the seventeenth century during the *Kartasura* period of the *Mataram* sultanate.
- **Plered** was the Mataram capital during Sultan Agung's Reign (1613-1645). It is located in the district of *Bantul*. In mid-1677, the forces of Trunojoyo who had staged a rebellion captured Plered.

Mataram in decline

By the beginning of the 1700s, after a number of military challenges including from the Dutch, *Mataram* was facing truncation. With enemies on all sides pressing for territorial control, *Mataram's* borders shrank during the 1700s. Based on The *Giyanti* Treaty with the Dutch Colonial Government, the *Mataram* Sultanate was split into two on February 13, 1755 becoming the *Yogyakarta* Sultanate and the *Surakarta* Sultanate.

The 1800s saw a number of battles in the former *Mataram* heartland during the *Diponegoro* rebellion (1825-1830). In the 1830s, there were three large princely states in central Java, Yogyakarta, *Surakarta-Solo*, and *Mangkuengaran*. There was also the smaller territory of *Pakualaman*.

Figure 5 shows the maximum extent of Mataram Sultanate expansions during the reign of Sultan Agung Hanyokrokusumo (1613-1645). The map shows, in the darker colour, the Sultanate territory at the beginning of his reign and, in the medium colour, the extent of expansion by the end.

Figure 5 The Mataram Sultanate during Sultan Agung's reign (1613-1645)

To the present

The Special Region of Yogyakarta was created after the war of independence ended and was legalized on August 3, 1950. The Sultan is the Head of the Special Region of Yogyakarta. He has responsibility as the Head of the Territory and takes the title of Governor. The present Sultan, *Hamengkubwono X* ascended in 1998.

The *Kraton Ngayogyakarta Hadiningrat* is the primary *kraton* (palace) of the Yogyakarta Sultanate. The sultan and the royal court have their seat there. The complex consists of a number of low-lying buildings such as audience halls, museums, and the residences of the sultan and the queen.

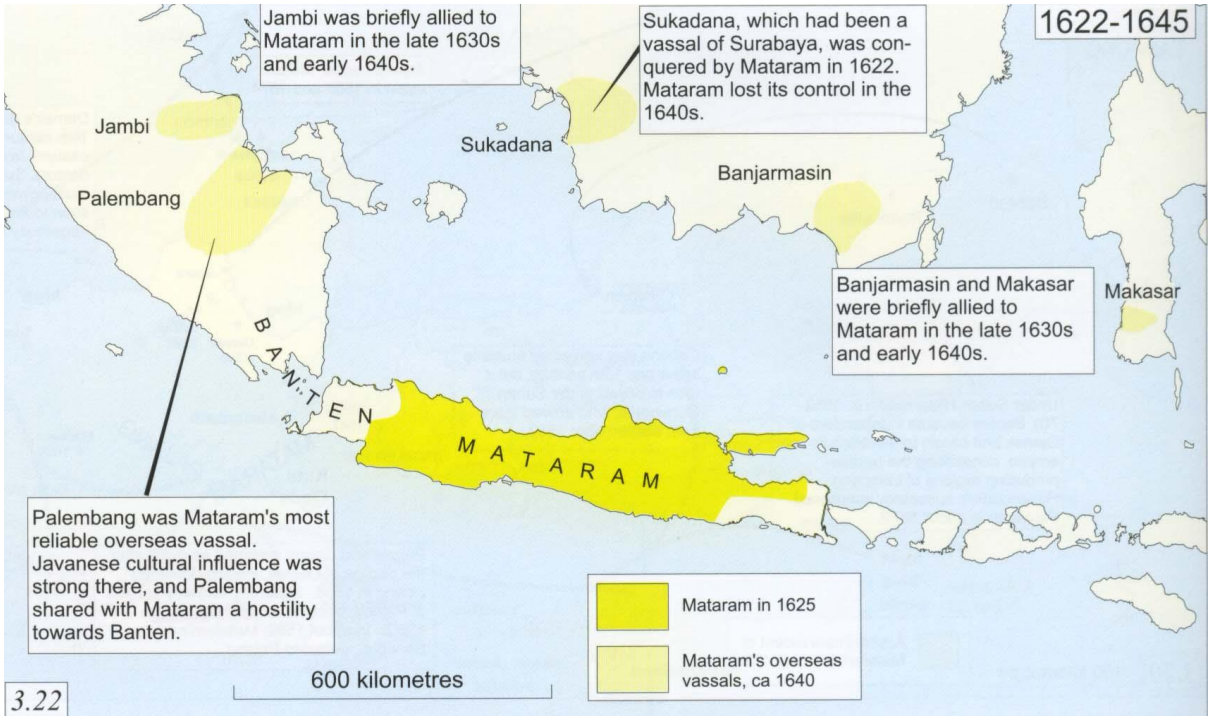
Pagelaran, the front hall of the Yogyakarta Palace (*Kraton*), is a multi-purpose building. It is situated facing the northern city square (*Alun-alun Lor*).

Traces of Mataram in names

Traces of the expansion of the *Mataram* kingdom outside its main area of power can be found in the place names of the Special Region of Jakarta. *Matraman* District, East Jakarta was the location of the *Mataram* troops final defence in the campaign against Batavia (Ruchiat, 2011: 113–115). *Pegangsaan* Sub-district, Central Jakarta was formerly a handicraft centre for fine metal workers in bronze (*gangsa*) (Ruchiat, 2011: 123). Many of the artisans came from *Mataram* in Java. *Jagakarsa* District, South Jakarta originated from a general called *Raden Bagus Jagakarsa Surobinangun* during the Mataram war of 1625. After his defeat against Batavia, he decided not to return to *Mataram*, fearing that he might be beheaded (Zaenuddin, 2012: 257–258).

The historical records for the Mataram Kingdom tell us that a number of names have been found. Names in the Special Region of Yogyakarta include: *Mentaok, Pati, Pajang, Grobogan, Prambanan, Taji, Sesela, Lawiyan, Manahan, Kota Gede, Karta, Plered, Surakarta,* and *Yogyakarta*. Meanwhile, names in the Special Region of Jakarta include: *Matraman, Pegangsaan,* and *Jagakarsa*. Tracing these names from history is possible, especially if we also include information from prehistoric settlements from old manuscripts or inscriptions. Figure 6 shows the extent of the Mataram kingdom's overseas empire in the period 1622-1645. Its overseas vassals were found in Palembang and Jambi in Sumatra, and in Sukadana, Banjarmasin and Makasar.

Figure 6 Mataram's overseas empire



Source: Cribb (2000: 89).

Figure 7 The Yogyakarta Kraton

Figure 7 shows *Pagelaran*, the front hall of the Yogyakarta Palace (*Kraton*). It is a multi-purpose building situated facing the northern city square (Alun-alun Lor).

© Gunawan Kartapranata 6 June 2008, Wikipedia

Figure 8 Princes and princesses of the Yogyakarta Sultanate (1870)

The photo in Figure 8 was taken around 1870. It shows young princes and princesses of the Yogyakarta royal family. They are, from left to right: Gusti Raden Mas Soedjadi, Gusti Raden Mas Poentoadji, Gusti Raden Mas Poetra, Gusti Raden Mas Soegiri, Bendara Raden Mas Soegirman.

These children, when they became adults, were accorded royal titles as follows, again from left to right: Bendara Pangeran Harjo Soerjodiningrat, Kanjeng Gusti Pangeran Hadipati Djoeminah, Sampejan Dalem Kanjeng Gusti Anom Pangeran Adipati Hamengkunegara, Gusti Pangeran Harjo Mangkukusumo, Ngarsa Sampejan Dalem Dalem Ingkang Sinuwun Kanjeng Sultan HB VIII.

Source: Tropenmuseum; Photographer: Kassian Cephas (1845–1912). Wikipedia

Spatial archaeology

Spatial archaeology does not focus on individual artefacts but rather on their distribution. It also looks at the spatial distribution of sites, and the relation between ancient sites and the kinds of human activity that were found in prehistoric times. Spatial archaeology research can tell us about the

location of archaeological sites, and help to trace the existence of present day villages which were first settled hundreds or even thousands of years ago.

Mundardjito (2002) performed spatial archaeological research on the location of sites from the Hindu-Buda period in *Sleman* and *Bantul*, Yogyakarta. He found that there was evidence that the old temples had been built using the ancient Indian texts *Manasara-Silapasastra* and *Silpa Prakasa*.

See Appendix 2 for a list of temples (candi) in Yogyakarta and their locations from spatial archaeology research by Mundardjito (2002: 54-60)

History and local names

UNGEGN advises that local names are used for toponyms. The benefit of this is that it will help to preserve the history of the local community, their upheavals, settlements and migrations. Even a brief, introductory survey of the archaeology and prehistory of Yogyakarta reveals that its past is like layer upon layer of different kingdoms and civilizations. Places grew and were lost; names came and went; taken together, it is a rich story that should not be lost by time. Knowing about these names is important and it is possible to identify them. All past geographical names, whether of natural features, man-made features or administrative areas, can be identified through spatial archaeological research. This will have a positive impact in preserving and respecting the culture of the local community, and in enriching the identity of the people living today and in the future.

Conclusion

Toponymy needs to consider the languages and cultures of the people living in the areas where place names are to be standardized.

Multidisciplinary research has revealed that human prehistory is a story of migration and resettlement. By studying the relatedness of languages, of genes, and the archeological record scientists can now determine where the ancestors of present-day ethnolinguistic communities came from. In this way, we can identify cultural practices that are part of the community's own identity, and those which have been borrowed at some point of time.

One important source of evidence in understanding cultural histories is through studying the historical and pre-historical record, tracing the names of topographic features back in time. Doing this makes it possible to learn whether geographical names are relatively new innovations, or if they have been in use for much longer. Names have histories and these histories throw light on people, places and events which were considered important. These historical and cultural meanings may have been lost over time and the names just known as labels.

Tracking the name of historical topographic features requires the involvement of a team of people with different expertise. Linguists, who are specialists in geographical linguistics, should work with archaeologists, who are specialists in spatial archaeology and other experts in geography, mapping, biologists and geneticists to build a clear picture of the past through its place names.

In this way, we will not only contribute to the pragmatic goals of UNGEGN in standardizing geographical names, but also to uncover the cultural attributes of communities of people that form part of their unique identity and also their relatedness to all humanity.

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Appendix 1

Undersea Features: Terms and Definitions

ABYSSAL HILL(S) An isolated (or tract of) small elevation(s) on the deep seafloor.

ABYSSAL PLAIN An extensive, flat, gently sloping or nearly level region at abyssal depths. e.g.: Biscay Abyssal Plain

APRON A gently dipping surface, underlain primarily by sediment, at the base of any steeper SLOPE. e.g.: West Aves Apron

ARCHIPELAGIC APRON A gentle SLOPE with a generally smooth surface of the sea floor, characteristically found around groups of islands or SEAMOUNTS. e.g.: Marquesas Archipelagic Apron

BANK(S) An isolated (or group of) elevation(s) of the sea floor, over which the depth of water is relatively shallow, but sufficient for safe surface navigation. e.g.: Georges Bank

BASIN A depression, in the sea floor, more or less equidimensional in plan and of variable extent. e.g.: Brazil Basin

BORDERLAND A region adjacent to a continent, normally occupied by or bordering a SHELF and sometimes emerging as islands, that is irregular or blocky in plan or profile, with depths well in excess of those typical of a SHELF. e.g.: California Borderland

CALDERA A collapsed or partially-collapsed SEAMOUNT, commonly of annular shape. e.g.: Albacora Caldera (off Portugal)

CANYON(S) An isolated (or group of) relatively narrow, deep depression(s) with steep sides, the bottom of which generally deepens continuously, developed characteristically on some continental SLOPES. e.g.: Hudson Canyon

CONE (See FAN)

CONTINENTAL MARGIN The zone, generally consisting of SHELF, SLOPE and CONTINENTAL RISE, separating the continent from the deep sea floor or ABYSSAL PLAIN. Occasionally a TRENCH may be present in place of a CONTINENTAL RISE.

CONTINENTAL RISE A gentle slope rising from the oceanic depths towards the foot of a continental SLOPE.

CONTINENTAL SHELF (See SHELF)

DEEP(S) An isolated (or group of) localized deep area(s) within the confines of a larger feature, such as a TROUGH, BASIN or TRENCH. e.g.: Challenger Deep

ESCARPMENT An elongated, characteristically linear, steep slope separating horizontal or gently sloping sectors of the sea floor in non-SHELF areas. Also abbreviated to SCARP. e.g.: Mendocino Escarpment

FAN A relatively smooth, fan-like, depositional feature normally sloping away from the outer termination of a CANYON or canyon system. Also called CONE. e.g.: Delgada Fan

FRACTURE ZONE An extensive linear zone of irregular topography, mountainous or faulted, characterized by steep-sided or asymmetrical RIDGES, clefts, TROUGHS or ESCARPMENTS. e.g.: Murray Fracture Zone

GAP (See PASSAGE)

GUYOT(S) An isolated (or group of) SEAMOUNT(S) having a comparatively smooth flat top. Also called TABLEMOUNT(S). See also SEAMOUNT(S). e.g.: Welker Guyot

HILL(S) An isolated (or group of) elevation(s), smaller than a SEAMOUNT. See also ABYSSAL HILL(S) and KNOLL(S). e.g.: Nukak Hill (Caribbean Sea)

HOLE A small local depression, often steep sided, in the sea floor. e.g.: Tenza Hole (Caribbean Sea)

KNOLL(S) An elevation somewhat smaller than a SEAMOUNT and of rounded profile, characteristically isolated or as a cluster on the sea floor. See also HILL(S). e.g.: Cantabria Knoll.

LEVEE A depositional natural embankment bordering a CANYON, VALLEY or SEACHANNEL on the ocean floor.

MEDIAN VALLEY The axial depression of the MID-OCEANIC RIDGE system.

MID-OCEANIC RIDGE (See RIDGE (c) and RISE (b))

MOAT An annular depression that may not be continuous, located at the base of many SEAMOUNTS, oceanic islands and other isolated elevations. e.g.: Hawaiian Moat.

PASSAGE A narrow break in a RIDGE or a RISE. Also called GAP. e.g.: Theta Gap

PEAK(S) An isolated (or group of) prominent elevation(s) either pointed or of a very limited extent across the summit. e.g. Confederation Peak.

PINNACLE(S) A discrete (or group of) high tower or spire-shaped pillar(s) of rock, or coral, isolated or cresting a summit. e.g.: Gardner Pinnacles.

PLATEAU A flat or nearly flat elevation of considerable areal extent, dropping off abruptly on one or more sides. e.g.: Blake Plateau.

PROMONTORY A major SPUR-like protrusion of the continental SLOPE extending to the deep seafloor. Characteristically, the crest deepens seaward. e.g.: Estremadura Promontory (off Portugal)

PROVINCE A region identifiable by a number of shared physiographic characteristics that are markedly in contrast with those in the surrounding areas. e.g.: Gulf of Alaska Seamount Province

REEF(S) A mass (or group) of rock(s) or other indurated material lying at or near the sea surface that may constitute a hazard to surface navigation. e.g.: Great Barrier Reef

RIDGE(S) (Several meanings)

(a) An isolated (or group of) elongated narrow elevation(s) of varying complexity having steep sides. e.g.: Wyville-Thomson Ridge

(b) An isolated (or group of) elongated narrow elevation(s), often separating ocean BASINS. e.g.: Walvis Ridge.

(c) The linked major mid-oceanic mountain systems of global extent. Also called MID-OCEANIC RIDGE. e.g.: Mid-Atlantic Ridge.

RISE (Several meanings)

(a) A broad elevation that rises gently and generally smoothly from the sea floor. e.g.: Argentine Rise.

(b) The linked major mid-oceanic mountain systems of global extent. Also called MID-OCEANIC RIDGE. e.g.: East Pacific Rise.

SADDLE A broad pass or col, resembling in shape a riding saddle, in a RIDGE or between contiguous elevations. e.g.: Montebello Saddle

SCARP (See ESCARPMENT)

SEA VALLEY(S) (See VALLEY(S))

SEACHANNEL(S) A continuously sloping elongated discrete (or group of) depression(s) found in FANS or ABYSSAL PLAINS and customarily bordered by LEVEES on one or both sides. e.g.: Moresby Seachannel

SEAMOUNT(S) A discrete (or group of) large isolated elevation(s), greater than 1,000m in relief above the sea floor, characteristically of conical form. See also GUYOT. e.g.: New England Seamounts, Emperor Seamounts.

SEAMOUNT CHAIN A linear or arcuate alignment of discrete SEAMOUNTS, with their bases clearly separated. See also SEAMOUNT(S).

SHELF A zone adjacent to a continent (or around an island) and extending from the low water line to a depth at which there is usually a marked increase of slope towards oceanic depths. e.g.: Scotian Shelf.

SHELF BREAK (See SHELF-EDGE)

SHELF-EDGE The line along which there is marked increase of slope at the seaward margin of a CONTINENTAL (or island) SHELF. Also called SHELF BREAK.

SHOAL(S) An isolated (or group of) offshore hazard(s) to surface navigation with substantially less clearance than the surrounding area and composed of unconsolidated material. e.g.: Georges Shoal.

SILL A sea floor barrier of relatively shallow depth restricting water movement between BASINS.

SLOPE The deepening sea floor out from the SHELF-EDGE to the upper limit of the CONTINENTAL RISE, or the point where there is a general decrease in steepness.

SPUR A subordinate elevation or RIDGE protruding from a larger feature, such as a PLATEAU or island foundation.

SUBMARINE VALLEY(S) (See VALLEY(S))

TABLEMOUNT(S) (See GUYOT(S))

TERRACE(S) An isolated (or group of) relatively flat horizontal or gently inclined surface(s), sometimes long and narrow, which is(are) bounded by a steeper ascending slope on one side and by a steeper descending slope on the opposite side. e.g.: Meriadzek Terrace.

TRENCH A long narrow, characteristically very deep and asymmetrical depression of the sea floor, with relatively steep sides. e.g.: Marianas Trench; Tonga Trench.

TROUGH A long depression of the sea floor characteristically flat bottomed and steep sided and normally shallower than a TRENCH. e.g.: Rockall Trough, Langseth Trough.

VALLEY(S) An isolated (or group of) relatively shallow, wide depression(s), the bottom of which usually has a continuous gradient. This term is generally not used for features that have CANYON-like characteristics for a significant portion of their extent. Also called SUBMARINE VALLEY(S) or SEA VALLEY(S). e.g.: Natal Valley.

Source: International Hydrographic Organization and Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission (2008).

Appendix 2

Examples of temple site names and locations in the Yogyakarta area as a resource for tracing geographical names.

No.	Site Name	Locale	Village	District	Regency
1	Ganggong	Ganggang	Bangunkerto	Turi	Sleman
2	Randusongo	Randusongo	Donokerto	Turi	Sleman
3	Karanggawang	Karanggawang	Girikerto	Turi	Sleman
4	Tawangharjo	Canditawangharjo	Purwobinangun	Pakem	Sleman
5	Besalen	Besalen	Glagahharjo	Cangkringan	Sleman
6	Cangkringan	Cangkringan	Argomulyo	Cangkringan	Sleman
7	Soko	Sokowetan	Merdikorejo	Tempel	Sleman
8	Plumbon	Plumbon	Mororejo	Tempel	Sleman
9	Lengkong-Kidul	Lengkong	Sumberrejo	Tempel	Sleman
10	Jalakan	Jalakan	Banyurejo	Tempel	Sleman
11	Batang	Batang	Tambakrejo	Tempel	Sleman
12	Sebayu	Sebayu	Triharjo	Sleman	Sleman

No.	Site Name	Locale	Village	District	Regency
13	Mangunan	Mangunan	Caturharjo	Sleman	Sleman
14	Kepitu	Kepitu	Trimulyo	Sleman	Sleman
15	Jogopaten	Jogopaten	Pendowoharjo	Sleman	Sleman
16	Ngepas	Ngepas	Donoharjo	Ngaglik	Sleman
17	Sembung	Sembung	Sukoharjo	Ngaglik	Sleman
18	Randugowang	Randugowang	Sariharjo	Ngaglik	Sleman
19	Palgading	Palgading	Sindurejo	Ngaglik	Sleman
20	Candi-Morangan	Morangan	Sindumartani	Ngemplak	Sleman
21	Candi-Gebang	Gebang	Wed omartani	Ngemplak	Sleman
22	Kedungprahu	Kedungprahu	Sendangrejo	Minggir	Sleman
23	Parakan	Parakan	Sendangsari	Minggir	Sleman
24	Kebonagung	Kebonagung	Sendangagung	Minggir	Sleman
25	Prapag	Prapag	Sendangmulyo	Minggir	Sleman
26	Jombokan	Jombokan	Sendangarum	Minggir	Sleman
27	Susukan	Susukan	Margokaton	Seyegan	Sleman
28	Sawahcandi	Gentan	Margoagung	Seyegan	Sleman
29	Mrincingan	Mrincingan	Margomulyo	Seyegan	Sleman
30	Grogol	Grogol	Margodadi	Seyegan	Sleman
31	Klaci	Klaci-Lor	Margoluwih	Seyegan	Sleman
32	Jonggrangan	Jonggrangan	Sumberhadi	Mlati	Sleman
33	Candi-Cebongan	Cebongan	Tlogoadi	Mlati	Sleman
34	Ngaglik	Ngaglik	Sinduhadi	Mlati	Sleman
35	Pundong	Pundong	Tirtoadi	Mlati	Sleman
36	Karanggeneng	Karanggeneng	Sendanghadi	Mlati	Sleman
37	Pucung	Pucung	Tamanmartani	Kalasan	Sleman
38	Pondok	Pondok	Selomartani	Kalasan	Sleman
39	Ngagiik	Cupuwatu	Purwomartani	Kalasan	Sleman
40	Candi-Kalasan	Kalibening	Tirtomartani	Kalasan	Sleman
41	Bandelan	Bandelan	Sumberarum	Moyudan	Sleman
42	Gedongan	Gedongan	Sumberagung	Moyudan	Sleman
43	Kembangan	Kembangan	Sumberrahayu	Moyudan	Sleman
44	Sukohino	Ngaglik	Sumbersari	Moyudan	Sleman
45	Beluran	Beluran	Sidomoyo	Godean	Sleman
46	Pare	Pare	Sidorejo	Godean	Sleman
47	Sukonilo	Sukonilo	Sidoluhur	Godean	Sleman
48	Rewulu-Kulon	Rewulu	Sidokerto	Godean	Sleman
49	Kronggahan	Kronggahan	Trihanggo	Gamping	Sleman
50	Mejing	Mejing	Nogotirto	Gamping	Sleman
51	Bodeh	Bodeh	Ambarketawang	Gamping	Sleman
52	Gamol	Gamol	Balecatur	Gamping	Sleman
53	Candisari	Kalangan	Maguwoharjo	Depok	Sleman
54	Ratuboko	Dawungberbah	Bokoharjo	Prambanan	Sleman

No.	Site Name	Locale	Village	District	Regency
55	Gupolo	Groyokan	Sambirejo	Prambanan	Sleman
56	Candi-Polengan	Polengan	Madurejo	Prambanan	Sleman
57	Candi-Krapyak	Krapyak	Sumberharjo	Prambanan	Sleman
58	Jagalan	Jagalan	Kalitirto	Berbah	Sleman
59	Kuton	Kuton	Tegaltirto	Berbah	Sleman
60	Tanjungtirto	Tanjungtirto	Tanjungtirto	Berbah	Sleman
61	Candi-Abang	Blambangan	Jogotirto	Berbah	Sleman
62	Kemusuk	Kemusuk	Argomulyo	Sedayu	Bantul
63	Semampir	Semampir	Argorejo	Sedayu	Bantul
64	Kasihan	Kasihan	Tamantirto	Kasihan	Bantul
65	Gedongkuning	Gedongkuning	Banguntapan	Banguntapan	Bantul
66	Sampangan	Mantup	Baturetno	Banguntapan	Bantul
67	Mayungan	Salakan	Patarana	Banguntapan	Bantu!
68	Bintaran	Bintaran	Srimulyo	Piyungan	Bantul
69	Semail	Semail	Bangunharjo	Sewon	Bantul
70	Karanggede	Karanggede	Panggungharjo	Sewon	Bantu!
71	Cepit	Cepit	Pendowoharjo	Sewon	Bantul
72	Watugedog	Watugedog	Guwosari	Pajangan	Bantul
73	Can di-Mangir	Mangir	Sendangsari	Pajangan	Bantul
74	Grojogan	Grojogan	Bantul	Bantul	Bantul
75	Code	Code	Trihanggo	Bantul	Bantul
76	Jopaitan	Serut	Palbapang	Bantul	Bantul
77	Gunungkelir	Gunungkelir	Plered	Plered	Bantul
78	Jonggalan	Jonggalan	Trimulyo	Jets	Bantul
79	Kauman	Kauman	Wijirejo	Pandak	Bantul
80	Janggan	Watugilang	Gilangharjo	Pandak	Bantul
81	Besole	Besole	Poncosari	Srandakan	Bantu!
82	Gokerten	Gokerten	Srigading	Sanden	Bantul

Source: Mundardjito (2002: 54-60) Table 3.1.1. *Daftar Nama Situs dan Nama Daerah Administrasi*