KĀMALOKA: A RARE PĀLI LOAN WORD IN OLD JAVANESE?

In a note to "Śiva-Buddhism in Java and Bali", J. Ensink (1978: p. 178 note 8) observed that: "There is little evidence of Pāli, Pāli literature and Theravāda Buddhism in the whole of the Indo-Javanese and Indo-Balinese culture". Indeed, this scholar adduces only four items: 1) Old Javanese wiku as a very early loan and a development from Pāli bhikkhu, 1 2) Old Javanese palanka, "throne, seat for a priest" and Balinese pělankan, the term for the seat of the brahmin priest, from Pāli pallanka, 3) Balinese pataraṇa, the square cushion of a Balinese Buddhist priest from Pāli pattharaṇa, and 4) the seeming preference of the spelling Poruṣāda over Puruṣāda in the Old Javanese Sutasoma, 2 a poem which may have been inspired by the Mahāsutasoma Jātaka.

The text passage which may possibly furnish a fifth borrowing from Pāli is to be found in a late fourteenth or early fifteenth century Old Javanese Buddhist didactic poem, entitled Kuñjarakarṇadharmakathana and written by mpu Dusun. This text has been edited and translated by Teeuw and Robson (1981). The context of the passage in question is as follows: Pūrṇawijaya, the king of the gods named widyādharas (ratu nin dewa widyādharākhya, 13.4b), together with his wife Kusumagandhawatī and attendants who were "not different from the host of Manmatha" (= Kāma), has departed (32.5a) from his residence in the heaven of Indra (kendran), to pay their respects to the Buddha Wairocana. Arriving at His abode (32.6a), the wihāra named Bodhicitta, Pūrṇawijaya, accompanied by the hosts of gods, performs the worship (amūjā). Music follows (33.1), to which dance (33.2) and songs (kidun)

¹ Gonda (1973: pp. 158, 274) says that Old Javanese *wiku* derives from Middle Indic *bhikkhu*. Pāli is, of course, also Middle Indic.

² cf. Soewito Santoso, *Sutasoma: A Study in Javanese Wajrayana*, Delhi, 1975 (Sata-Piṭaka Series no. 213).

which are hymns of praise in the divine worship (*prastutī dewapūjā*) are added (33.4). After describing how the sashes (*sasampur*) of the dancers slipped down, as if to display their slim waists, Kuñjarakarṇa 33.6 states:

san atĕlasan anṛttāninditānwam tuwuhnya inirin i wuri len tan cārakākweh ri wuntat pilih amĕnan atanḍin rūm saken kāmaloka hayu nika tuwin ansal yan tĕken rūmnya dewī

Teeuw and Robson (1981: 147) translate:

Those who had finished dancing were in the prime of youth;

They were let to the back, together with the many attendants behind.

Probably they would win a contest with the beauties of Kāma's realm—

Their beauty might even be successful against the charms of a goddess!

Before offering a slightly different translation, we may note a few details. The rendering of aměnaň ataṇḍin rūm and tuwin ansal by conditionals is perhaps unfortunate, since neither aměnaň nor ansal includes an irrealis (the suffix a). True, one could read aměnaňa, but this would force one to read taṇḍin rūm, which, as the verbal phrase 'to compare/measure in/with respect to beauty', is not likely.

Secondly, and much more important, the translation "Kāma's realm" for $k\bar{a}maloka$, where $k\bar{a}ma$ is taken, as it here is, as the proper name of the god of love, is questionable. The reasons are: 1) the term $k\bar{a}maloka$ is not otherwise attested in Old Javanese, 1 2) the compound $k\bar{a}maloka$ is completely absent from all standard Sanskrit dictionaries, 2 and 3) Kāma,

being generally a secondary or attendant rather than a presiding or central divinity in Hinduism or Buddhism, does not have a world (scil. heaven, loka) of his own, unlike, for example, Viṣṇu, Śiva, Brahmā or Indra. Words for each of these worlds (viṣṇuloka, śivaloka, brahmaloka, indraloka) are attested in Sanskrit as well as in Old Javanese.²

Therefore, instead of the "the world of [the god] Kāma", \$\frac{3}{k\tilde{a}}\$ must mean "the world of desire", that is, the world(s) in which desire is operative. In Buddhist Sanskrit cosmographic terminology this is called the \$k\tilde{a}madh\tilde{a}tu\$, the sphere of existence below the worlds of form \$(r\tilde{u}padh\tilde{a}tu)\$ and the worlds of non-form \$(ar\tilde{u}padh\tilde{a}tu)\$. Hence, when the poem notes that the dancers are superior in beauty to those of the worlds of desire, this makes much sense insofar as, having left the heaven of Indra and having arrived at the \$wih\tilde{a}ra\$ Bodhicitta, the residence of the Buddha, the performers are as such no longer part of the sensual sphere and therefore must be superior to its inhabitants.

Apte, Mylius, Edgerton (Buddhist Hybrid), Conze (Prajñāpārāmitā literature), and Sircar (epigraphic). Das (1985: p. 691) supplies both $k\bar{a}madh\bar{a}tu$ and $k\bar{a}maloka$ for Tibetan 'dod khams' but does not supply text-references. Given that this dictionary reference is the only one furnished by Chandra (1976: p. 1261) in his Tibetan-Sanskrit dictionary and in the light of the absent of $k\bar{a}maloka$ in all the above dictionaries, one may be inclined to consider this as a 'ghost translation', the more because $k\bar{a}maloka$ is also absent from the Mahāvyutpatti, as well as from the index on the Abhidharmakośa (la Vallée Poussin) and its $bh\bar{a}sya$ (Hirakawa).

¹ That is, there is no entry under $k\bar{a}maloka$ in Zoetmulder's Old Javanese dictionary (1982) at all.

² That is, from Böhtlingk and Roth (St. Petersburg), Schmidt, Monier-Williams,

¹ See, however, Stuti and Stava no. 405, the Smarastava, (Goudriaan and Hooykaas 1971: p. 253), a hymn used in Śaivite circles, where Kāmadeva is said to prevail over Īśvara, Brahmā, Mahādeva and Viṣnu (verse 6) and to be worshipped by the triple world (*trailokyasevitas*, verse 7d).

² Nor do hypothetical synonyms such as *kāmabhuvana, *kāmabhūmi or *kāmapada appear to be attested in either language.

³ Kāma and Ratih, moreover, are the patrons of poets and the *dalang*, the performer of the *wayang* plays, on Bali (Gonda 1975: p. 46. see C. Hooykaas, "The Function of the *dalang*", in *Akten des 24. intern. Orientalisten-Kongresses*, München, 1957). However, the context of the Kuñjarakarna does not appear to permit an understanding of 'the world of Kāma', that is, as the *wayang*.

As for the dancers being superior in beauty to a "goddess" (dewi), this would amount to the same thing, since, in Buddhist cosmology, the worlds of the gods (devaloka)1 are superordinate to the worlds of demons, men, animals, ghosts and hell-beings, but still within the realm of desire. Nevertheless, we ought to consider if dewi could be a proper name, for "in her Sundanese (West Javanese) form as Devī Śrī she is a divine princess, able to descend from heaven and closely related to the vidvādharīs, a class of kindly fairies who in part of the Archipelago are believed to preside over love and in Java to revive the deceased. They are in all probability a body of indigenous deities who have assumed an Indian name, taking over the role played, in India, by the apsaras" (Gonda 1975: p. 30).² The Kuñjarakarna identifies the dancers as Apsaras and divine women (apsara mwań surastrī, 33.2a). In itself this is not a problem for identifying dewi, since the poem does not seem rigorously to distinguish between apsaras and widyādharīs. Moreover, since Pūrņawijaya, king of the widyādharas and lord of the apsaras (26.4a, 31.7c, 37.2a, etc.) has returned from a spell in the aweci (sic) hell where he had been boiled in the hell-cauldron while his body lay in bed at home as if dead (25.2a, 29.1), only to engage in love with his wife (31.7), the identification of dewi as Devi would appear to be a reasonable possibility.

With the above considerations in mind, we may now retranslate the verse from the Kuñjarakarna.

They who had finished dancing were flawless, youthful in age.

They were escorted to the back together with the many female attendants who were behind [them].

Certainly they are victorious measured in beauty compared to those in the world[s] of desire.

Their loveliness also obtains when compared to the beauty of a goddess (or: Devi).

The difficulty therefore is: if $k\bar{a}maloka$ is truly not available in Sanskrit, has the author of the Kuñjarakarṇa forged the compound by himself combining the very common items $k\bar{a}ma$ and loka? The answer to this would seem to be in the negative, since 1) the parallel termini $ar\bar{u}paloka$ and $r\bar{u}paloka$ are also not attested in Sanskrit or Old Javanese, and 2) the expected Sanskrit terms $k\bar{a}madh\bar{a}tu$, $r\bar{u}padh\bar{a}tu$ and $ar\bar{u}padh\bar{a}tu$ are attested in the Old Javanese San Hyan Kamahāyānikan. Therefore, because the words $k\bar{a}madh\bar{a}tu$, etc., are attested in Old Javanese, it does not seem plausible that the poet would have assumed the interchangeability of loka and $dh\bar{a}tu$ unless he knew that loka in this Buddhist cosmological sense existed. Consequently, it is likely that the term $k\bar{a}maloka$, meaning the world(s) subject to desire, is borrowed from Pāli, where we find $k\bar{a}ma$ -, $r\bar{u}pa$ - and $ar\bar{u}paloka$ as precise cosmological equivalents to $k\bar{a}ma$ -, $r\bar{u}pa$ - and $ar\bar{u}padh\bar{a}tu$ in Sanskrit.

Beyond the merely linguistic interest of an addition to the trifling number of Pāli loan words in Old Javanese, the import of this conclusion is that there must have existed, at some time or another and at some place or another in the Archipelago, a Pāli text from which this word could have been borrowed.² As for which text, where and when, it is impossible to say with any certainty. Given that the Ratu Baka inscription of 792/3 A.D. mentions the foundation of the monastery Abhayagiri for the Sinhalese (abhayagirivihārah kāritah sinhalānām)³ and given the

 $^{^1}$ These worlds, of which there are generally six, are also known as the $k\bar{a}m\bar{a}vacar\bar{a}h$.

² Gonda refers here to K.A.H. Hidding, *Nji Pohatji Sangjang Sri*, Leiden, 1929, which is not available to me.

¹ Kats 1910: 55.4, 10, 13 respectively.

² As a cosmological term *kāmaloka* also may be distinguished from the material items cushion (*patarana*) and throne (*palanka*) furnished by Ensink (supra).

³ cf. de Casparis 1961. Sarkar (1971: p. 48) translates "The people of Ceylon

mention of Sinhalese as foreigners resident on Java in inscriptions of king Airlanga in the eleventh century, we may opine that this may have been many centuries before the composition of the Kunjarakarnadharmakathana. Indeed, it is conceivable that this could have been as early as the seventh century, since I Ching observes that agama texts on Buddha's nirvana were translated in Java and since, according to Gonda (1975: p. 7), these texts belonged to the "Hīnayāna". Further, we may refer to the work of Lokesh Chandra (1986) who makes a reasonable case for the existence of Abhayagirivāsins hailing from Ceylon on Java. Accordingly, one may conjecture that kāmaloka as a Pāli loan word in Old Javanese might ultimately have been borrowed from one or other text brought to Java by these monks sometime prior to 792/3, the date of the Ratu Baka inscription.

Lastly, an observation: even if one should prefer to hold, when all is said and done, that $k\bar{a}maloka$ in the Old Javanese Kuñjarakarṇadharma-kathana was minted in Java itself, it is, from an anthropological perspective, not insignificant that * $k\bar{a}maloka$ is seemingly absent in the enormous literature available in Sanskrit. Given the multifaceted compass of this literature, its lack is all the more piquant. One can only wonder why the term is not available, for, after all, given that the god Kāma also has the name Ananga, 'he without a body', one is inclined to suspect that some adroit Sanskrit poet would have found occasion to make a word-play on these two terms. That, somewhere, sometime, no one did make such a palpably obvious pun must mean something, if only that this would seem to presuppose the omnipresence — sensate and religious — of the realm of desire.

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have erected the monastery called Abhayagiri". See also Chandra 1986, who discusses this inscription with reference to its bearing on the Barabudur.

1 cf. Ensink, *loc, cit.*

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VIMUTTIMAGGA AND ABHAYAGIRI: THE FORM-AGGREGATE ACCORDING TO THE SAMSKRTĀSAMSKRTA-VINIŚCAYA

A. Introduction

The *Vimuttimagga* is a comprehensive manual of the Theravādin school; lost in the original Pāli (or, less probably, Sanskrit),¹ it is preserved in a complete Chinese translation, made by a *bhikṣu* of Funan in the early 6th century.² This version has been translated into English in full under the title *The Path of Freedom*.³

While both Chinese and Pāli sources agree that the name of the author is Upatissa (Skt Upatiṣya),⁴ there is some confusion about the Sanskrit form of the translator's name. In 1883 Bunyiu Nanjio gave the name Saṃghapāla, with the alternative Saṃghavarman.⁵ In 1915 Sylvain Lévi rejected the form Saṃghapāla as erroneous, and suggested

¹ cf. Bechert 1992, pp. 95–96, and Skilling 1993A, p. 167. See, however, Louis Renou and Jean Filliozat (edd.), *L'Inde classique* II (Hanoi, 1953) § 2147: "à en juger par les noms ou termes transcrits, la version chinoise du *Chemin de la Libération* ne semble pas être faite sur un original de langue pāli; on n'y trouve aucun nom singhalais ... tout indique, pour cet original, une origine indienne et non singhalaise". Sylvain Lévi (1915, p. 26) notes, with reference to the *Mahāmāyūrī*, that *Saṃghabhara "paraît être un sanscritiste et un indianiste médiocre".

²T 1648 (Vol. XXXII), KBC 968, Chieh t'o tao lun.

³ See Bibliography: the English translation is hereafter referred to as *Path*.

⁴ The name, prefaced by "arhat", is transcribed at the head of the Chinese version; in the Visuddhimagga Commentary the author is described as thera (Paramatthamañjusā, cited at Path xxxvi, ekacce ti upatissatheram sandhāyāha, tena hi vimuttimagge tathā vuttam).

⁵ Bunyiu Nanjio, A Catalogue of the Chinese Translation of the Buddhist Tripitaka, the Sacred Canon of the Buddhists in China and Japan, [Oxford, 1883] San Francisco, 1975, § 1293 "Samghapāla"; Appendix II § 102, "Samghapāla or Samghavarman".