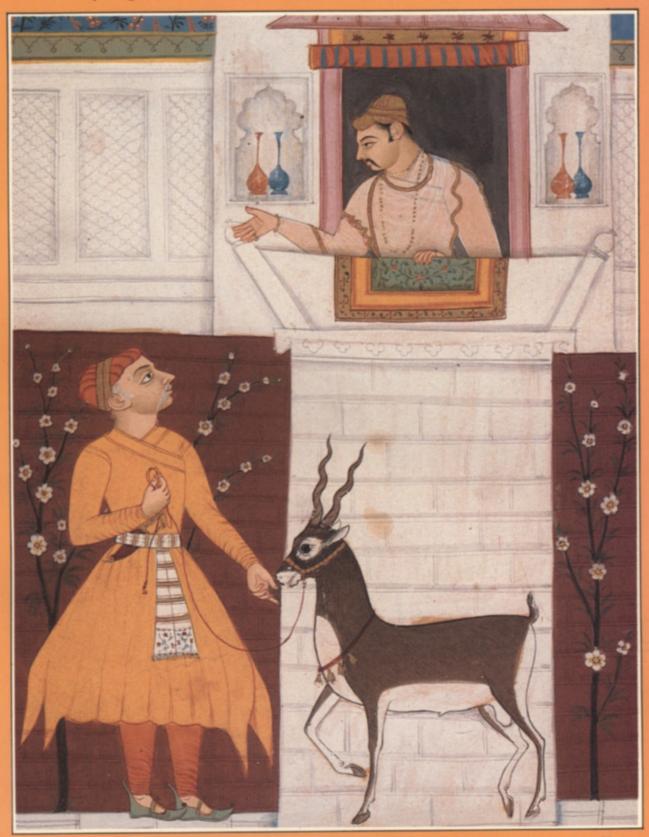
Orientations November 1985 USSS/HK\$25/£2.50

The monthly magazine for collectors and connoisseurs of Oriental art



Festival of India: Kushan Sculpture/Rajput Courtly Painting/Buddhist Pilgrimage Sites

Sowing the Seeds of the Lotus

A Journey to the Great Pilgrimage Sites of Buddhism, Part I

John C. Huntington

There are four places, Ānanda, which the believing man should visit with feelings of reverence and awe. Which are the four? The place at which...the Tathāgata was born..., the place at which...the Tathāgata attained enlightenment..., the place at which...the Tathāgata set up the Āryan kingdom..., and the place at which...the Tathāgata passed away.

(Mahāparinibbāna-sutta, V. 16-22)

7 ith these words in what is widely believed to be one of the earliest and least tampered-with sūtras, the Buddha Śākyamuni established the rite of pilgrimage among the faithful. The place at which the Tathagata (Śākyamuni himself) was born (c. 563 BC) is Lumbini, in the lowland Terai of modern Nepal. The place where the Tathāgata attained enlightenment is Bodhgayā in the heartland of ancient Magadha, now southern Gangetic Bihar. The 'setting up of the Aryan kingdom', also known as 'the preaching of the First Sermon', took place at the Mrgadāva ('Deer Park') just north of Varanasi (Benares) and the Great Passing away (c. 483 BC) took place on a journey at the relatively remote village of Kuśinagara in the extreme eastern end of Uttar Pradesh in modern India (see map, Fig. 1).

Within a very short period of time (by no later than c. 250 BC, but perhaps much before that), four other places had become important sites of pilgrimage as well: Śrāvasti, the place of the 'Great Miracle'; Sāṅkāsya, where the Buddha Śākyamuni descended from Trāyastrimśa heaven after preaching to his deceased mother; Vaiśali, the place of the monkey's gift; and Rājagrha,

where the wild elephant Nālāgiri was subdued. In time, there were many other pilgrimage sites. Virtually every Buddhist region either has locations where Sakyamuni is believed to have visited during his lifetime or surrogate 'life' sites, a visit to which serves as a substitute for visiting the actual site. For example, there are Mahābodhi temples emulating the temple marking the spot where the Buddha attained enlightenment in Beijing in China (see P. Swart's and B. Till's article in Orientations, February 1985, pp. 28-39), Pagan in Burma, Patan in Nepal and Anuradhapura in Sri Lanka. Although the history of the early development of the eight major sites is lost in the oral traditions of the early lay Buddhists, by no later than the fourth century, the tradition of the Eight Great Miracles and the sites associated with them had become a reality of north Indian Buddhist practice.

To this day, pilgrims from all over the Buddhist world visit these shrines in northern India and in the Nepal Terai. Some of the sites are easily accessible and visitors can enjoy all the comforts of modern travel in India. Other sites are best left to the more intrepid traveller and are to be reached

only after long and difficult drives or railway journeys, approached only by poor roads and having only modest, or even no, accommodations. However, to visit any of them is to literally walk in the footsteps of Śākyamuni Buddha. Even for the non-Buddhist, the visit provides a sense of the continuity of history, the timelessness of the Buddhist teachings and an awe-inspiring impression of the reverence people of the past have felt for the great teacher.

o understand the phenomenon of pilgrimage in the Indic context, it is necessary to briefly examine the dual concepts of 'pitha', or 'tirtha', and 'darśana' relative to Indian religions. In the religious context, a pitha (literally 'seat [of kuśa grass belonging to a deity or holy man]') or a tirtha (literally a 'ford at a stream') is the 'sacred site'. Such a place is recognized by some event having taken place there, either through the actions of the deity or by one of the great teachers or sages such as Śākyamuni Buddha. In Buddhism there are hundreds, perhaps thousands, of such sacred sites. Every place associated with the life of the Buddha, many locations of a vision by a teacher or holy man, every location of an attri-



bution of a miracle and even places of attainment by a saint are marked for posterity. These locations become the 'seats', pītha [of the teacher who will aid one's own progress in the path of advancement], or 'fords', tirtha [to cross to the transcendent states of Buddhist eschatology], at which one may become inspired to make similar attainment oneself, or, at the very least, be reminded of the possibility of making the difficult attainments demanded by the Buddhist soteriological methodologies.

The second concept, darśana, literally means 'seeing' or 'viewing' but also carries a more profound concept of essentially identifying with the events that one 'sees'. The idea is much more than just witnessing or observing an important event in the sense that one who experiences darśana of an event becomes part of it and the merit or other benefits that might be gained by the principal participants are also gained to a lesser degree by the observer. In other words, when a great Buddhist teacher gives an initiation, he gains merit (punya) for benefitting others. At

the same time, the initiate gains merit for making commitments to Buddhism; those who participate in the ceremony gain merit for helping others make the commitments; those who attend the ceremony gain merit; and even those who simply pass by in a casual manner gain merit. In Buddhism, even beings in the most unfortunate of births can accrue merit by simply being present and observing events surrounding the teaching of the Dharma (Buddhist 'doctrine' as 'universal truth').

This concept of accruing merit is the underlying motivation behind the pilgrimages. While it is true that an individual might undertake a pilgrimage to gain some sought-after benefit (generally for other members of his family but occasionally for himself and usually related to health or prosperity), the act of making the pilgrimage itself does not generate the benefit but it is the merit attained that allows the believer to then dedicate that merit to some desired objective. The ultimate desired benefit is, of course, to positively affect one's own rebirth into

higher realms. It is believed that there are numerous Buddhist paradises and twenty-eight higher realms of Brahmanical cosmology available to those beings who have accrued enough merit. Among the Buddhist realms (Buddhaksetra), Tusita, presided over by the Bodhisattva Maitreya, and Sukhāvati, presided over by the Buddha Amitābha/ Amitāyus, are the most important; cults promising to lead the faithful to these two paradises have flourished in the Buddhist world since the pre-Christian era. Among the cosmological paradises are those of Trāyastrimśa (the heaven of the thirty-three Vedic gods), presided over by Indra (Śakra of the Buddhist texts); and the Brahmāloka, presided over by the Hindu god Brahmā. In the Pāli canon, for example, there is a clear division as to who will attain the different paradises; the Brahmāloka is where the most accomplished monks will go and is suggestive of higher spiritual attainment, while Trāyastrimśa is the heaven to which the most successful lay followers (mostly defined in the texts according to how munificient their gifts to the Buddhist community were) will go. Thus, a pilgrimage to the holy places is a kind of long-range planning for the future. Ultimately, however, it is the goal of the Buddhist to become either an *arhat* (in Pāli, *arahant*, in the Theravāda tradition) or a bodhisattva (in the Mahāyāna traditions), the latter ultimately becoming a Buddha. Such attainment is facilitated by rebirth either in the higher ranks of the human realm or in the paradises.

In the mundane sense, the eight great pilgrimage sites are where the major events of the life of Sakyamuni Buddha occurred. However, in the supramundane sense, the life events are part of a 'magic show' or, literally, 'conjurer's illusions' (prātihārya) aimed at displaying the nature of Buddhahood. Indeed, the Sanskrit name for the eight great events of the life of Śākyamuni Buddha is Astsamahāprātihārya), the 'Eight Great Conjurer's Illusions'. The implications are that the life essence which was to become Śākyamuni Buddha had other options, but chose the life that he lived as a conscious act of didactic demonstration. As a manifestation (nirmāṇakāya) of the universal nature of Buddhahood (dharmakāya), it was more a matter of exercising his skilful means (upaya) in the instruction of 'trainable men' that caused the 'magic show' to take the form that it did. In other words, for the time and the place (in that particular Buddhaksetra), the show was perfect in its ability to communicate Buddhist soteriological ideals to the populace. In another time and another place (some other Buddhaksetra), the 'show' could be very different yet there would still be the eight great events in the life of the Buddha, whatever his name might be.

To visit the scenes of the eight great events is to experience in a direct way the life of the Buddha as both a demonstration of his perfection and the perfection of all Buddhas. We see and feel the locations of the conjurer's illusion teaching us the same message of Buddhist soteriological methodology that was displayed to his contemporaries. Through this experience, we are taught the fundamentals of the universality of the Buddhist experience and the specifics of the display that took form as Gotama Siddhārtha, the Buddha Śākyamuni.

The Archetypal Pilgrimage of Aśoka Maurya and the Identity of the Sites

The king then fell at the feet of the elder Upagupta and said: 'Elder, I want to honour the places where the Blessed One lived, and mark them with signs as a favour to posterity.'

'Excellent great king,' Upagupta replied, 'your intention is magnificent.

I will show you the sites this very day.'

(J.S. Strong, The Legend of King Asoka, 1983, p. 244)

During the progress of an imperial pilgrimage (or pilgrimages, the historical data are in disagreement on this point), Aśoka Maurya (r. c. 270-c. 220 BC), the first great unifier of all the northern Indic realms, established stūpas and marked the sites with pillars commemorating his visit. Having lived so short a time after the period of Śākyamuni Buddha, it is generally accepted that Aśoka's determinations of the sites (or, presumably, actually those of his spiritual advisor, said in the Aśokāvadana to be Upagupta, a Dharma master from Mathurā) were

correct. Although not all the sites are extensively excavated, there is enough archaeological evidence at each of them to confirm early, at least Maurya (c. 321-185 BC) or pre-Maurya period, activity at each. In some cases, the pillar or shaft of the Aśokan pillar with its inscription still survives; in other cases, only the ornamental capitals survive. Elsewhere, at Bodhgayā for example, an ongoing tradition, obviously from the time of Śākyamuni himself, connects the site with the great Teacher. Whatever the case, it is the discovery of Aśokan monuments that

provides the kind of validation of authenticity which determines the acceptance of a majority of the sites.

Later pilgrims, especially the Chinese and Tibetan monk-pilgrims, have left invaluable records of their visits to the holy sites of northern India. Among the first to identify most of the archaeological sites in the modern sense was General Alexander Cunningham who, working in the last decades of the nineteenth century, followed the writings of the pilgrims Faxian and Xuanzang who toured the Buddhist world of South Asia in 399 to 414 and 629 to 645, respectively. Although many scholars criticize the two Chinese pilgrims for their inaccuracies, the truth is, given the circumstances of their travel and the intervals between the actual trip and the time of writing down their accounts, their narratives are amazingly accurate, on the whole 70 to 80 per cent correct, even to many minor details. Thus, while it is necessary to use caution when deriving information from the pilgrims' accounts, allowing independent corroboration (for example, finding an Asokan pillar at a site verifying the identification as Cunningham did on a number of occasions, or an exact arrangement of monuments as occurred at Jetavana), the accounts have proven invaluable in determining the history of the Buddhist sites of northern India.

Because of their importance, two sites, Bodhgayā and Kuśinagara, have never become strictly archaeological. Throughout history and despite the brutal Muslim conquests of northern India with their wholesale destruction of religious sites, they have remained actively in worship since the time of the Buddha. Another, the Deer Park at Sārnāth was never 'lost', in the sense that its location was uncertain, but it fell into complete disuse during the Muslim period of Indian history.

Aśoka's effort to commemorate the sites of Buddhism were successful beyond any conceivably expected reality. Indeed, because of his surviving stone pillars at many locations, archaeologists argue about the location of an event within limits measured in metres rather than kilometres. Only the location of the Buddha's home city of Kapilavastu (not strictly one of the eight sites, but one always associated

with Lumbini) has been subject to debate. However, in recent years, archaeological discoveries of Gupta period (320-500) plaques commemorating the stūpas of Śākyamuni Buddha's parents, King Suddhodana and Queen Māyādevī, have been discovered at the so-called 'Nepali contender's' site at Tiluarakot (also called Tilurakot) in the Nepalese Terai, verifying at least an early tradition of the identification of the site as Kapilavastu. The 'Indian contender' for recognition as Kapilavastu, Piprahwa (also Piprawa), is one of the few sites with contemporaneous burial of relics of Śākvamuni Buddha in inscribed caskets and may have been one of the as-yet archaeologically unidentified city-states to which relics from the cremation of the deceased Śākyamuni Buddha were taken (to be discussed in part III).

(Fig. 2) Image of Māyādevī giving birth to Gotama Siddhārtha under the aśoka tree c. 5th-6th century (?)
Temple of the Birth, Lumbinī, Nepal

(Fig. 3) Image of Māyādevī giving birth to Gotama Siddhārtha under the aśoka tree 20th century
Temple of the Birth, Lumbinī, Nepal

(Fig. 4) Image of infant Gotama Siddhārtha declaring his world domination and preparing to receive his natal bath.

Modern East Asian (Japanese?)
Temple of the Birth, Lumbini, Nepal



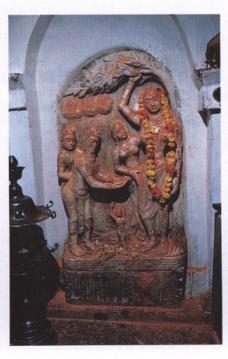
Lumbini and Kapilavastu

Speaking to the King Aśoka, the tree-spirit (yakṣ̄i) who had observed the birth of the Buddha states:

'Throughout Indra's three-fold world, there shone a supernatural light, dazzling like gold and delighting the eye. The earth and its mountains, ringed by the ocean, shook like a ship being tossed at sea.' (J.S. Strong, p. 246)

he Bodhisattva, reigning as regent of the Tusita paradise, realized that the time had come for this final birth in the world of men. He made the appropriate determinations of family (the Śākva family), country (Kapilavastu), time (that it would be appropriately receptive to a Buddha), race (the Iksvāku race) and of mother (Māyādevi, wife of Suddhodana, rāja, or king, of the Śākyas). Māyādevi had dreamt of a white elephant entering her womb. The dream interpreters had told her and her husband that a prince who would either become a universal monarch (cakravartin) or an Enlightened being (Buddha) would be born to them. As her time came, Māyādevi retired to the royal gardens at Lumbini and bathed in a great tank. Holding a branch of an aśoka tree, she gave birth through her right side to the

Bodhisattva (Figs 2 and 3). Received by the god Indra (Sakra or Sataketu of the texts), the infant, born fully conscious and with full faculties, stepped to the ground and took seven steps in each of the four directions, proclaiming to the east, 'I shall reach the highest Nirvana;' to the south, 'I shall be the first of all beings;' to the west, 'This will be my last birth;' and to the north, 'I shall cross the ocean of existence.' (There are several versions of these statements.) Immediately, two streams of water, one warm and one cool, poured forth from the heavens, produced by the nagas (snake beings, specifically cobras, demi-gods of the underworld and guardians of the treasure of knowledge) to provide the infant's natal bath (Fig. 4). Depending on the various descriptions, the events were attended by multitudes of spiritual





beings, the gods, Indra and Brahmā, yakṣas, gandharvas, kiṁnaras, bodhisattvas and many others.

Approached today by modern road from the Nepalese-Indian border at Saunali and part of the Nepalese government's Lumbini development plan headed by Loka Darshan Bajracharya, modern Lumbini (also known as Rummindei and Rumin-dei in the literature) is a grassy parklike setting where only a modest amount of excavation has been undertaken (Fig. 5). The site consists of only a ruined stūpa which, according to the Aśokāvadana, was presumably constructed by Aśoka, a tank (Fig. 6) and a modern temple (Fig. 7) - built on the remains of much earlier structures. A fragment of the lower shaft of an Aśokan pillar, originally to have been surmounted by a capital with a horse sculpture of which fragments recently have been found, carries a definitive identification:

King Priyadasi, beloved of the gods, having been anointed 20 years, came himself and worshipped saying, 'Here Buddha Śākyamuni was born,' and he caused to be made a stone [capital] representing a horse, and he caused this stone pillar to be erected. Because here the worshipful one was born, the village of Lummini has been made free of taxes and a recipient of wealth. (A. Führer, 'Buddha Sakyamuni's Birth-Place', ASINI, vol. VI, 1897, p. 33)

The stūpa mound was believed by Cunningham to commemorate the place where Indra received the child, while the temple commemorates the actual birth site. Other large stūpas at the site and the tank where Māyādevi bathed just prior to or, by some accounts, just after the Birth, are the monuments that one visits. Archaeological work in progress demonstrates extensive activity in historical periods at the site, mostly by workmen of the Indian Kuṣāṇa (1st-3rd centuries AD) and Gupta periods, but later material also indicates the presence of Nepali artisans during the eighth through tenth centuries.

Most important by far is, of course, the Temple of the Birth. Built on the foundations of past temples, the earlier basements have yet to be excavated. (The finding of Maurya period bricks would be very interesting as the lowest layer.) The present temple, however, is a recent construction. Immediately

to the west of it is the Asokan pillar bearing the foregoing inscription while to the east of the plinth and at the entrance of the temple proper is a gigantic pipal tree (Ficus religiosa, in Sanskrit pipal or aśvattha), the bodhi- or enlightenment-tree of Śākyamuni Buddha. Conventionally, the small interior cell of the temple is entered from a door on the south; however, access is also from the 'main' door to the temple on the east (presumably for those practitioners whose rituals demand it). Once inside the simple chamber, one finds a stark simplicity compared to many Buddhist temples. On the west wall are three small niches, the central one containing a badly eroded and broken image of Māyādevi giving birth (Fig. 2). To the left is a modern image of the same subject (Fig. 3) and to the right, a modern gilt figure of the baby Siddhārtha, one hand raised demonstrating the proclamations of the seven steps and standing still in order to receive the bath which will be offerred him by the nāgas (Fig. 4). During the full moon of Vaiśākha (about May), devotees come to the shrine and offer a bath to the image as a demonstration of their commitment to the Buddha and in order to directly partake in the joy of the Birth themselves.

By visiting these ancient shrines and the modern Theravāda temple just to the east of the site (the latter an interesting mixture of Buddhist iconographic traditions), the pilgrim has begun to trace the *tīrtha* of the great journey of realization. The journey traversed by Śākyamuni Buddha and his immediate predecessors is a demonstration that epitomizes the Buddhist promise of the attainment of altruistic compassion and wisdom that leads to one's own salvation.

City of his father, the $r\bar{a}ja$ of the Śākyas, the palace and the environs of Kapilavastu provided the environment for the nurturing of the young Buddha-to-be. The image of the Yakṣa Śākyavardana bowed before him when he was presented at the Śākya family temple. The sage (r;s) Asita foretold his future as either a *cakravartin* or a Buddha. His mother died shortly after his Birth and the young Bodhisattva was raised there by his maternal aunt

Mahāprajāpati Gotami. There were many events of his childhood and early youth, such as the tossing of the dead elephant, the archery contest, his marriage to Yaśodhara (by some accounts, also to [Gopā] about four or five years after Yasodharā and a few years later, either seven days before or on the eve of his departure, to Mrgadja). Not far from Kapilavastu was the village of the ploughing festival where the Bodhisattva first meditated. Because there had been a prediction that the Bodhisattva would leave home by the age of twenty-nine to become an ascetic, the king had guarded the gates to the city, but from these very gates the young prince went forth on four outings on which he encountered the Four Visions: an old man, a sick man, a dead man and a monk (bhiksu), literally begger or mendicant). Late one evening, he felt disgust with the women of his entourage upon envisioning them in dishevelled states while sleeping:

The Bodhisattva looked at the entire gathering of women...some had torn clothing and dishevelled hair; their ornaments and diadems lay on the floor. He saw some had ugly shoulders and long arms dangling; some had ugly or discoloured faces or flawed bodies...He saw women snoring, laughing, mumbling, coughing and gritting their teeth...Struck by the sheer ugliness of the women thus transformed...the Bodhisattva indeed had the impression of a cemetery. (*The Voice of the Buddha [Lalitavistara]*, Dharma Press, 1983, pp. 310-11)

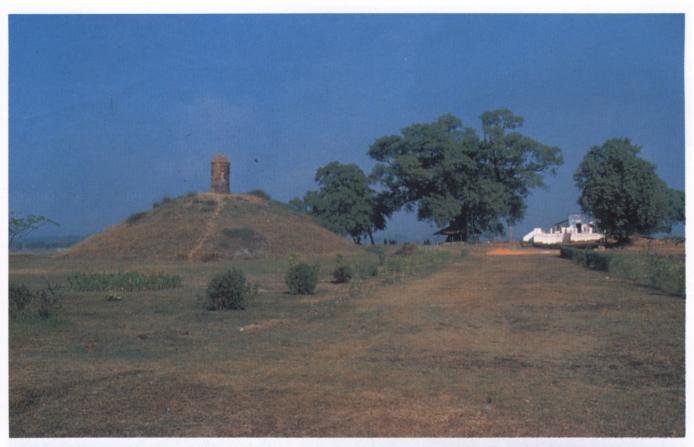
He then summoned his groom and his horse and departed the castle to take up the life of a wandering mendicant.

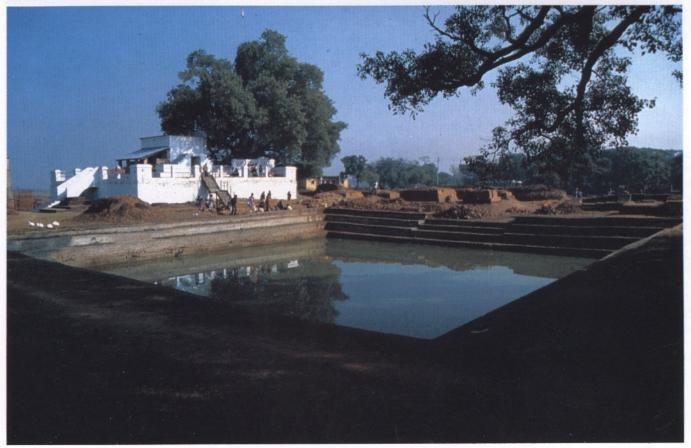
Writing in the fifth century, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim Faxian tells us of Kapilavastu:

Less than a yojana [a day's journey] to the east from this [Lumbini] brought them to the city of Kapilavastu; but in it there was neither king nor people. All was mound

(Fig. 5, opposite top) Overview of stūpa and Temple of the Birth from the south Lumbini, Nepal

(Fig. 6, opposite bottom) Tank in which Māyādevī took her bath and Temple of the Birth from the south Lumbinī, Nepal











(Fig. 7, opposite top) *Stūpas* of Śuddhodana and Māyādevī Kapilavastu, Nepal

(Fig. 8, opposite bottom) 'Palace area' Kapilavastu, Nepal

(Fig. 9) Eastern gateway to the city walls (gate of the Great Departure)
Kapilavastu, Nepal

and desolation. Of inhabitants there were only some monks and a score or two of families of the common people.

No such monument as an Aśokan inscription marks Kapilavastu, which is immediately adjacent to modern Tiluarakot, and which only recently has been identified. Strictly speaking, it is not one of the eight great sites of Buddhism. Yet modern visitors to Lumbini usually go to Kapilavastu on the same trip into Nepal because of the proximity of the two sites. As immigration regulations permit foreigners to

cross the border only at Saunali, one goes to Lumbini first and then follows the new highway in progress to Kapilavastu. (On the day of this author's trip to Kapilavastu in December 1984, the highway was indeed still very much 'in progress' and, on several occasions, impromptu fordings, detours and repairs to the road surface had to be made to facilitate progress along it. Once at the Kapilavastu site, however, staff from the Royal Nepalese Department of Archaeology showed the greatest courtesy and were immensely helpful in making sure that the most important features of the site were visited.) Two stūpa bases (Fig. 7), both much damaged by flooding of the Banganga River (also known as the Bhāgirathi), are on the west side of the ruins of the site. These two stūpas have been identified by recent finds of Gupta period seals as the stūpas of Śuddhodana and Māyādevi, the parents of the Buddha. While these seals do not constitute conclusive proof of the identification of the early site, they provide identification of what was, in effect, the *de facto* site for several centuries, presumably most of the pre-Christian era and early Christian era periods.

What remains of the palace area (Fig. 8) is the brick foundations of the relatively modest structures in the centre of a walled enclosure. While the bricks are of the Kuṣāṇa period, they rest on Maurya period remains, which in turn (presumably) rest on pre-Maurya (Śākya) remains. If this is the case, the structure is small by standards for even modest Asian palaces but in keeping with the remains of structures at Rājāgrha (to be discussed in part III) of approximately the same period. Ultimately, it is the eastern gate of the walled area (Fig. 9), the gate of the Great Departure (Mahābhiniskramaņa), that is the most important spot of the site. It is through this portal that the Bodhisattva, with his groom Chandaka and mounted on the horse Kanthaka, departed the material world of sensedesire. As one looks at this gate, one has to envision what this action must have meant for the young prince who had never known anything but the luxury of the palace, and whose infant son was yet to be born, and whose profound family ties to his father and aunt could only have beckoned him back.

(Fig. 10) Tree shrine at 'Sujātā's Place' Bodhgayā, Bihar state, India

Bodhgayā and its Environs

O Hero, having gently overcome by your love the forces of the crafty demon here on the best of seats you will today obtain incomparable Enlightenment.

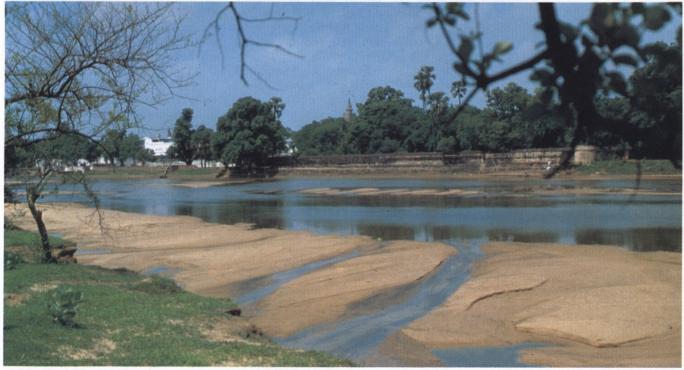
(The Voice of the Buddha, p.510)

Cutting his long hair and discarding his princely jewellery and array, the Bodhisattva changed clothes with a woodcutter and began his life as a mendicant. Studying with various teachers (the

lists of names vary) and joining with five other ascetics (again, the names vary), the Bodhisattva studied the methods of release from the 'unsatisfactoriness' (dukkha) of mundane life



(Fig. 11) Nairañjanā (modern Phalgu) River at a ford directly in line between 'Sujātā's Place' and Mahābodhi Temple Bodhgayā, Bihar state, India





(samsara). Wandering among the hills and streams of lower Gangetic Bihar (ancient Magadha) and practising asceticism to the point of starvation, the Bodhisattva realized that neither extreme pleasure nor extreme privation would lead to release. Taking food and rest. he began to restore himself, but his five companion ascetics, imagining him to lack perseverence, left him in disgust and headed to the Deer Park (Mrgadava) near Varanasi. The Bodhisattva, coming down from the mountains, passed through a village (Fig. 10) where Sujātā (or, alternatively, two sisters, Nandā and Nandābalā) offered him a thick milk soup (by some accounts his first meal). Taking the bowl to the banks of the Nairanjana (modern Phalgu) River, he bathed and changed his rags for the clean white shroud of a dead man. After eating the meal, he crossed the Nairanjanā (Fig. 11) amid wondrous signs of the approaching event. Svastika (in some accounts Kihli), a grass merchant, greeted him and gave him a bundle of kuśa grass on which to make his seat. Coming to the aśvattha tree, he made his seat.

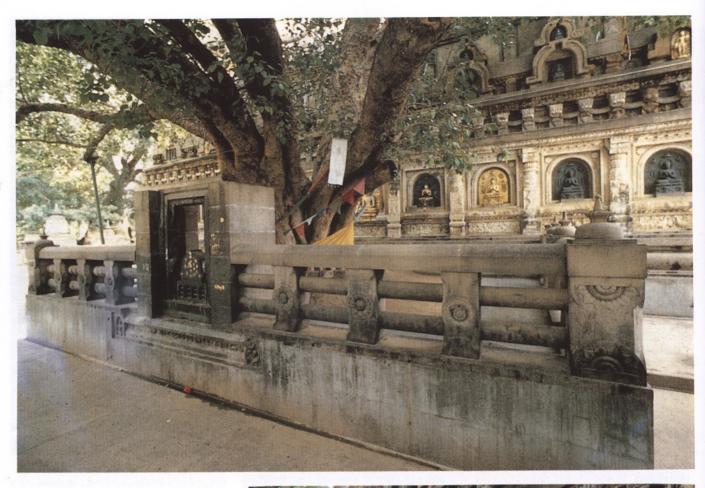
Māra, 'Death' (the personification of the pains and horrors of the endless cycle of rebirth through which every being shall pass until the end of the cosmos itself), confronted the Buddhato-be with every conceivable temptation, threat and challenge, but for each, the Bodhisattva remained unmoved by emotion or attachment. Māra then confronted the Bodhisattva with his own daughters, 'Desire', 'Pleasure' and 'Delight' (various other names also exist), sensuous beauties who tempted the Bodhisattva with their wiles, but to no avail. Before his gaze, they turned into nothing but dishevelled old hags.

At that point, Māra challenged the Buddha-to-be's right to enlightenment. In silent response, the Bodhisattva moved his right hand to his right knee and let his fingers slide over it to touch the ground. Immediately, directly in front of the throne of *kuśa* grass, Bhūmidevī, the goddess of the earth, emerged to bear witness to the Bodhisattva's multitude of past lives of accumulated achievement. The victory over Māra (*Māravijaya*) was complete

(Fig. 12) Mahābodhi (aśvattha) tree shrine from the west (It is either under this tree or its immediate predecessor that the Buddha Śakyamuni became enlightened.) Bodhgaya, Bihar state, India

and his host of demon-armies fled in terror. Freed of all hindrances to enlightenment, the Bodhisattva realized within himself the Twelve-fold Chain of Causation that leads to birth and death, the Four Noble Truths and the Eightfold Path to Salvation.

Following his victory, the then 'Buddha' ('Enlightened One') remained in ecstasy under the aśvattha tree (by dint of his achievement under it, his bodhitree—other Buddhas have different species of trees as their bodhi-trees) for seven days engaging in a detailed examination of his newly-won Enlightenment. According to the 'northern' tradition, he then meditated for seven days under the aśvattha tree, and for an undetermined period of time with the Nāga Mucilinda, and for another seven days in the Bodhimaṇḍa (Bodhgayā area in general) studying the Twelve



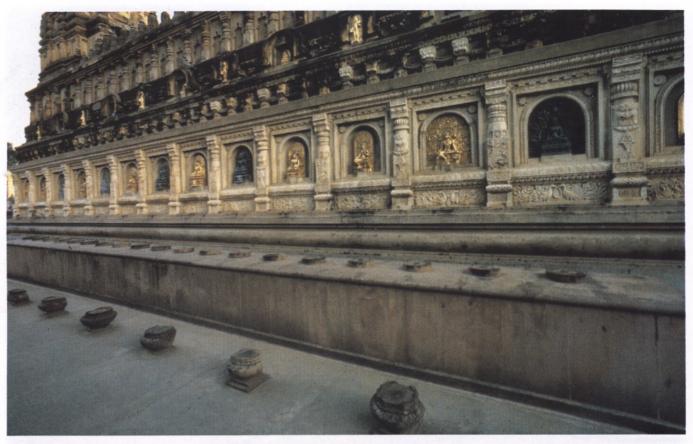
(Fig. 13, *left*) Mahābodhi tree shrine from the southwest showing the devotional area Bodhgayā, Bihar state, India

(Fig. 14, right) Aśokan platform immediately to the west of the Mahābodhi tree Bodhgayā, Bihar state, India

(Fig. 15, *opposite*) Mahābodhi Temple from the northeast Bodhgayā, Bihar state, India









Nidana (Twelve-fold Chain of Causation), from whence he went to Vārānasi's Mṛgadāva to preach. According to the 'southern' tradition, the Buddha (1) stayed under the aśvattha tree for seven days, (2) stood looking at the tree for seven days, (3) walked near the tree but under a patra (Borassus flabellifera, a type of palmyra palm) tree for seven days, (4) sat in a place where the gods (devas) paid obeisance to him for seven days, (5) meditated with the Naga Mucilinda for seven days, (6) sat under the nyagrodha (banyan) tree for seven days, and (7) meditated for seven days in the place where Brahmā requested him to teach. The Theravada list of post-Enlightenment sites is (1) the aśvattha tree where the Buddha meditated for the first seven days, (2) the Animisalocana Stupa where, out of gratitude, the Buddha stood gazing at his bodhi-tree for the second seven days. (3) the promenade (cankramana) where the Buddha walked up and down for the third seven days, (4) the Ratnaghara where the gods paid devotions to him for the fourth seven days, (5) the meditation under the Rājāyatana tree for the fifth seven days, (6) the meditation under the Ajapālā Nigrodha tree for the sixth seven days, and (7) the meditation with the Naga Mucilinda for the seventh seven days. Whatever the case of the post-Enlightenment meditations, the new Buddha, at the request of the god Brahmā who invoked the Buddha's compassion for beings less fortunate than himself and convinced him that there were beings ready and capable of receiving his teachings, left for Vārānasi and the Mrgadāva to begin his ministry.

The Mahābodhi site at Bodhgayā is far more than just the *pitha* of the Buddhist religion. Above all other sites, it epitomizes the soteriological promise of Buddhism. Throughout its history, the Mahābodhi has been the focus of Buddhist pilgrimage and, even in past times, visitors from all over the Asian world have visited the site.

Most important is the shrine of the tree itself (Figs 12 and 13). Said in the Sri Lankan chronicles to have been destroyed in Aśoka's time by a wife jealous of the amount of time Aśoka spent on Buddhism, the same chronicles

(Fig. 16, below) Main image in Mahābodhi Temple, photographed in 1969 Bodhgayā, Bihar state, India

(Fig. 17, opposite top) View of north side of Mahabodhi Temple showing platform and vases marking the place where the Buddha walked Bodhgaya, Bihar state, India

(Fig. 18, opposite bottom) Interior of Nihon no Dera (Japanese Temple) Bodhgaya, Bihar state, India



(Fig. 19) Terracotta plaque believed to depict Mahabodhi Temple as it existed 2nd-4th century AD c. 4th century, found at Patna city Patna Museum, Bihar state, India

(Fig. 20) Section of railing pillar (*yedikā*) from Bharut *stūpa* showing inscribed relief of Mahābodhi Temple as it is believed to have appeared just prior to the construction of the Bhārut *stūpa* (c. 100-80 BC) Indian Museum, Calcutta, India

would have the present tree to be a cutting (or seedling) of the Śri Mahābodhi tree at Anuradhapura in Sri Lanka, itself a cutting of the original tree. Other texts, the Aśokāvadana for example, tell of the attack on the tree but also of its restoration through the loving care of Aśoka. (Speaking as an amateur botanist who has raised aśvattha trees, this author has serious doubts about the ease with which the original tree is said to have been killed. Even a severely damaged tree can regenerate from scions with amazing rapidity. I am therefore inclined to believed the 'restored tree' version of the story.) Whatever the case, the present tree is of great age and size and is the spiritual focus of the Buddhist world. Immediately to the east of the tree (between it and the temple) is an Asokan period platform (Fig. 14), assumed to have been placed there by Aśoka as part of his commemoration of the site. Although often held to be a surrogate for the vairāsana (adamantine throne) of the Enlightenment, its original Aśokan period intention was not as a throne at all but as a platform (ayaka) in front of the tree on which offerings were made to the tree itself.

The Mahābodhi temple (Fig. 15), in spite of its large size and architectural importance, is secondary to the tree. If one keeps the whole concept of the site in mind, it must be realized that the temple is subordinate to the tree and is, in effect, 'under' the tree on the east side. In fact, in the strictest sense, the figure of the Buddha inside the temple is conceived of as seated under the tree and the temple simply houses him. Positioned at the moment of touching the earth (bhūmisparśa-mudrū), the main figure in the temple (Fig. 16) portrays the Buddha at the





crucial moment of summoning the goddess of the earth Bhūmidevī to witness his right to enlightenment. It is this moment, the moment of gaining the right to enlightenment and not the actual Enlightenment, that is the validation of the soteriological methodology taught by the Buddhists. To enter the temple and to pay one's obeisance to the Buddha within is to participate in the very moment of Enlightenment.

The present temple is largely a nineteenth-century British Archaeological Survey of India reconstruction based on what is generally believed to be an approximately fifth-century structure. Prior to that, there seems to have been a pyramidal structure perhaps built in about the second century (Kuṣāṇa period). Knowledge of it comes only from a small, circa fourthcentury terracotta plaque (Fig. 19) found at modern Patna. It is significant that this version does not have the upper terrace with the small temples in the four corners. These small temples. although not used as such today, probably reflected certain esoteric traditions in Buddhism that were emerging more and more into less esoteric contexts by the late fourth and early fifth century. The pyramidal temple probably replaced an open pavilion that had been constructed around the tree and the Asokan platform. Representations of this early temple are found at Sañci, on the toranas of Stūpa I (to be discussed in Part III), dating from around 25 BC, and on a relief carving from the stūpa railing at Bhāhrut (Fig.20), from the early Sunga period (c. 185-c. 73 BC). Clearly identified by an inscription on the roof of the temple in the Bhārhut relief, the Mahābodhi temple was, in Sunga times, an open structure, undoubtedly of wood, enclosing the tree and platform. In the foreground of the relief is a pillar with an elephant capital, identical in type to those of Aśoka and probably indicating his commemorative pillar which still survives (without the capital) at the site. Although we can never be sure of what may have existed in ephemeral materials, it would appear from early reliefs both at Bharhut and on a Sunga period railing at Bodhgayā itself that the original form of the shrine was simply a platform under a tree. This is not surprising

since there is evidence that shrines of this type have had a five thousand-year history in the Indic sphere, ranging from the Harappā civilization (c. 2000-1750 BC) to modern times, where such shrines may be seen in virtually every village and town in India.

Five places of the the seven weeks of meditation are marked in the Bodhgaya area, with the ásvattha bodhi-tree being the most prominent. The Animişalocana Stūpa, where the Buddha stood gazing out of gratitude at his bodhi-tree for the second seven days, is a small temple on a mound (perhaps a stupa mound) to the northeast of the main temple. The promenade where the Buddha walked up and down for the third seven days is clearly marked on the north side of the temple by a series of lotus pedestals (Fig. 17) commemorating those that are said to have sprung forth from the ground at every step of the Buddha. The Ratnaghara (Ratnagrha, 'gem-chamber', or Ratnagiri, 'gem-hill') where the gods paid devotions to him for the fourth seven days is marked by a platform to the north of the walk. Both the place of the meditation under the Rajayatana tree and the place of the meditation under the Ajapālā Nigrodha tree are unidentified. Finally, the meditation with the Naga Mucilinda for the seventh seven days is located some distance from the site but is commemorated by a modern sculpture in the Buddhakunda, a tank to the south of the temple.

In addition to the ancient sites surrounding the Mahābodhi temple, there are at Bodhgayā a number of recently constructed temples and temples under construction. Burmese, Japanese (Fig. 18), Sri Lankans, Thais, Tibetans and other contemporary Buddhist groups have all constructed either temples or temples and guest houses so that their countrymen will have familiar devotional space during their visit to the very heart of the Buddhist world.

Like all religious shrines throughout the world, at certain seasons Bodhgayā is a sea of activity. However, regardless of the many diversions, the beggars, the street vendors and the very eager guides, once one enters the compound of the temple itself, there is a tranquility and earnestness that transcends all distractions. At the shrine of the tree on the west side of the temple, one stands within a few feet of the actual site of the Enlightenment, the gateway to a bright new promise for the future of all beings. After visiting the tree shrine, one enters the temple and there before one, represented in one of the most magnificent of all Pāla period sculptures, is the image of Śākyamuni at the moment of his attainment. In a very real way, the visitor shares in the triumph and carries away some of the essence of the attainment.

Perhaps the old Tibetan woman this author saw during a 1969 visit to Bodhgaya, who was starting her second million full body prostrations in front of the shrine, best characterizes the importance of the shrine — to her and to all Buddhists everywhere, Bodhgayā is the vajrāsana, the indestructible seat that has become the sacred point from which all else in the Buddhist faith emanates. Above all else it is worthy of the reverence and offerings (pūja). from the faithful. It is a Buddhist axiom that each person should practise according to his own ability, and it is here at Bodhgayā that practice, from the most profound discourses on the Dharma to the simplest acts of faith, is most appropriate. Even for the non-Buddhist, to go there is to gain a real sense of the history, the present vitality and the future of Buddhism.

The exhibition 'Flowering of the Lotus: Buddhist Art of India; Photographs by John C. Huntington' will be shown at the University of Chicago (30 Spetember - 28 October); University of Wisconsin (31 October - 3 November); First Street Forum Gallery, St. Louis, Missouri (late February and early March 1986, this showing being sponsored by the Asian Art Society of Washington University); and The Ohio State University (31 March - 2 May 1986). For further information about the exhibition or scheduling a showing, please contact John C. Huntington, Department of the History of Art, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210, U.S.A.

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