culture as represented by the contemporary Sanskrit literature. Let me present an outline of the basic debates that occurred during this era. 47

From approximately the sixth century BCE, Sanskrit linguists debated the meaning of signs. Some held that signs had intrinsic meanings irrespective of how they are used. Thus, every word had its own meaning and analysis of the lexicon of the culture had to be given priority. A school of linguists known as Yāksa thus engaged in the etymology of words. These linguists were known as the *khandakapaksha* or the analytic school because they dissected sentences into separate words and attempted to interpret the meaning of a sentence, say in a *śloka*, that prescribed and proscribed activities in ritual, legal, literary and perhaps even medical and other procedures. Later, other major linguists such as Pānini, Kathyāyana, Patānjali, Sābara, the Mimānsaka-s, Naiyāyika-s and Vaiseshika-s held the same view.

In contrast, Audumbarayāna, an early linguist, professed that the linguistic sign was constituted of the statement that should be considered in its entirety to determine its meaning, and that the individual words derived their meanings from the way they related to the other words in that context. Audumbarāyana's views were furthered by the Buddhist philosopher Bhartṛhāri. These theorists and their schools of thought were known as *akhandakapaksha* or those who interpreted sentences in śloka-s as complete linguistic signs without dividing them into separate words. Hence their emphasis on grammar or *vyākarana*. That brought them the epithet *Vaiyākaranika*-s. In modern terms, we could say that the *akhandaka*-s emphasized a holistic approach to the meanings of signs or, to use Kunjunni Raja's terminology, the *khandaka*-s may be called an analytical school whereas the *akhandaka*-s could be called gestalt theorists.

The *khandaka/akhandaka* perspectives were not limited to linguistics and the theory of signs. The Mimansaka-s, Naiyayika-s and Vaishesika-s, who adopted the *khandaka* perspectives, were philosophical schools that dealt with the nature of the universe. However, by the turn of the millennium the *akhandaka*-s seem to have gained influence, with Bhartṛhāri making a strong impact on the Buddhist use of signs. Since this essay is about a sign that the Buddhists of his time employed it is necessary to briefly introduce the basic contours of his point of view, particularly his theory of *sphota*.

Sphota, in Bhartṛhāri's usage, is an integral linguistic saṇketa – a relationship between the sign and the thing it signified. Pre-Bhartṛhāri linguists such as Pānini, Kathyāyana, and Patānjali also advocated this notion but what they, as khandakapaksha analysts, had in mind was the individual word as a self-sufficient

⁴⁷ This discussion is based largely on Kunjunni Raja (1963:17-148) and Kane (1971).

symbol that contained the *sphota*. For Bhartṛhāri and his followers, *sphota* meant the entire expression, the complete arrangement of individual words in a given syntax. According to Bhartṛhāri, words as well as sentences have two aspects: sound patterns or *śabda*, and their meanings or *artha*. Although individual words possess the *śabda* aspect they are never independently meaningful (never carry the *artha* component of an independent *sphota*) and are incapable of conveying intelligible messages unless they are combined with other words to constitute a sentence or an intelligible phrase thereof. The rules for combining words form the grammar of the sentence and only within such a structured context can words become meaningful, only as constituents of a message but not as the message itself. The message dictates the vocabulary to be employed to convey the message. The *khandaka*-s upheld the reverse: the vocabulary contained the message.

These views are important in our contexts for several reasons. The school of Buddhism involved in the construction of the $\dot{s}\bar{a}labha\dot{n}jik\bar{a}$ images discussed here used Sanskrit as its official language and thus was influenced by Sanskrit grammar and poetics. Bhartṛhāri as well as Aśvaghosha were monks and were contemporaries. It is likely that the rules of grammar and poetics that they elucidated and employed derived from or were foundational to a larger theory of interpretation of signs where the constituent elements of a signifying statement – a story as told or as depicted in freezes, for example – were meaningful only as parts of a whole but not as independent and self-sufficient units.

The above clarifies the parameters within which signs of the early Buddhist art must be interpreted. Most likely, the śālabhańjikā motif in itself had none of the meanings that the indological archaeologists, lexicographers and Coomaraswamy attributed to it. Fertility, prosperity, voluptuousness, harlot, courtesan, vrkshikā, demoness are all context bound. If the artist wished to represent a deity or a person characterized by one or more of these properties, they merely employed a motif that carried no inherent meanings but received one or more meanings from the context. In different contexts, the motif acquired different properties. Śālabhańjikā herself was only the willowy form of a woman under a tree and nothing more; a convenient and often used casing in which durable goods were elegantly packaged. The use of śālabhańjikā to depict Mahāmāya only expanded the motifs semiotic openness. To use Saussurian terms, the arbitrariness of its use as a signifier increased as it began to float between diametrically opposed notions. In the process the motif itself became merely a decorative element with no inherent meanings except for the graciousness of its form. Exactly how it decorated an idea depended on how, as Wittgenstein would say, its users employed it. 48 The motif was a conventional frame

⁴⁸ Wittgenstein (212:1953:19970).

employed by craftsmen and poets to portray whoever the female they wished to flatter. Śālabhańjikā was an open sign.

But the late 19th and 20th century scholars and researchers in search of definite and predictable universals brought the śālabhańjikā motif under closure and established for it a fixed set of properties. What in the Bhārhut and Sāńchi phases was an open sign that could be used across a wide field of meanings, was converted to a fixed set of meanings to define the motif itself. They did so by trapping śālabhańjikā within a matrix of modernly attributed meanings. What I anticipated as the Buddhist closure of the motif in Amarāvatī and Gandhāra actually challenges this modern closure. The śālabhańjikā -s of Amarāvatī and Gandhāra confirm that there are no necessary or sufficient connections between the motif and the characteristics of voluptuousness and fecundity, attributed to them by the scholars, and compel the viewer to reopen the modern conceptual cage in which they are trapped.

Appendix

Introduction

The significations of the śālabhańjikā motif are both literary and sculptural. Though my essay focuses upon the sculptural expressions, the literary expressions of the motif are, perhaps, much older. Throughout the essay, I presented materials from various literary sources. But these sources are themselves controversial for many reasons. The original texts, such as the Pali Texts and the Sanskrit works, no longer exist. Copies of the original texts were prepared by scribes at various times in various locations were collected much later and edited by nineteenth and twentieth century European scholars. In studying the texts, I found several problems that demanded separate study within the framework of the main essay. As the issues are too divergent to be addressed in the main essay I present them in this appendix, under following sections.

In Section I, I examine the nature of the earliest sources of the Buddhist corpus that provides information on the bodhisattva's birth drama. I also briefly discuss the early Buddhist sect formation and how these sects constructed the early sources.

Section II discusses the nature of the bodhisattva's birth scene in Aśvaghosha's *buddhacarita* as it is found in Sanskrit, Tibetan and Chinese versions. I examine how the scribes and translators have introduced various interpretations of the role of Mahāmāya.

In Section III, I present materials from the *mahāvasthu* to show how the earliest information of Mahāmāya's position of the bodhisattva's birth drama was

later ritualized and how the ritual provided impetus to redefine the birth scene by the 4th century of the CE. This exemplifies the circular relationship between the textual/oral traditions and the ritual tradition.

In Section IV, I present further materials on the *dohada* literary and sculptural motif and the *dohada* ritual to show how they might have originated from the earlier constructions of the birth drama, as found in the *nidhānakathā*.

I

The *nidhāṇakathā* presents the basic elements of the bodhisattva's nativity scene. In the *nidhāṇakathā*, the bodhisattva was residing in the Tusitha heaven when the time arrived for him to leave for the world of humans. The bodhisattva looked for an appropriate womb to enter and found that queen Mahāmayā fulfilled all the requirements. He entered the womb of Māhamayā as the queen was sleeping and she dreamt that a white elephant had entered her womb. She found herself pregnant with a child. After nine months, Māhamayā went to Dévadaha, where her parents lived. On the way she entered the Luṇbini a forest and stood under a great *sāla* tree. She felt labor pains. A *sāla* branch bent towards her. She held and supported herself with the branch as the bodhisattva was born. The Mahābrahma received the infant and passed him on to the four guardian deities.

In contrast to the *nidhānakathā*, the *āccharyaabbhūtadhammasutta* focuses on the miraculous nature of the event and gives a detailed account of the conditions under which the conception, pregnancy and birth occurred. The idea is to distinguish the bodhisattva from mere mortals, although he was a mortal. The bodhisattva is a *mahāpurisa*, a great man, inimitable and unusual, whose existence is beyond the lot of ordinary people.

This apotheosis of the bodhisattva is the work of the Lokottaravādin, an early sub-sect of the Sarvāsthivādin. The Lokottaravādin held that the bodhisattva was superhuman and dwelt on these characteristics. Although the *nidhānakathā* also considers the Buddha as superhuman, it does not describe his superhuman character to the same extent as the *āccharyaabbhūtadhammasutta*. The *āccharyaabbhūtadhamma* refer to the supernormal or miraculous (*āchcharya*) and wonderful (*abbhuta*) nature (*dhamma*) of the hero.

Coomaraswamy considers the *nidhānakathā* account to have been constructed after the *āccharyaabbhūtadhammasutta* of the *majjhima nikāya*.

⁴⁹ The *nidhānakathā* presents the bodhisattva as an extraordinary being with supernatural abilities. It presents the birth drama with a description of the qualities of the mother of the bodhisattva entitled *bodhisattvamatā dhammatā*. (See The Jātaka, I: Fausebøll:Op.Cit. 51-52).

Perhaps, he thinks that the *āccharyaabbhūtadhammasutta* is older because it is a part of the *tripitaka* whereas the *jātaka*-s, of which the *nidhānakathā* is a part, was developed later.

However, I believe it is likely that the Lokottaravādin expressed their ideas in Pali, after the nidhānakathā were composed, and incorporated them into the majjhima nikāya as a sutta. The Lokottaravādi ideas were later elaborated in Sanskrit after the segmentation of the early Buddhist community into the Sthavira (the monastics) and the Mahāsanghika (the greater Buddhist community constituted of the Sthavira and Putujjana (laymen). The Mahāsanghika themselves further segmented because of differing conceptions of reality. The Vińńiānavādin or mentalists among them believed that nothing existed and that everything - including the natural world and the personal and collective definitions and concepts about it. values, customs and the like - was merely a matter of imagination. Others criticized this position and asserted that material reality had an existence independent of an individual's imagination. The Vińńjānavādin labeled their Sthavira critics Sarvāsthivādin (Skt. sarva: all; asthi: existence). The Sarvāsthivādin subsequently produced many other segments with their own orientations. Among them, the Lokottaravādin focused on the miraculous nature of the Buddha. The āchcharvabbhutadhammasutta was an early expression of this position, constructed before the segmentation of the early monastic community into the Pali oriented Sthavira and Sanskrit oriented Mahāsanghika.

The Lokottaravādi scholasticism entered into the corpus like the divyavadhāna and aśokavadhāna, lalitavistara and the mahāvasthu as well as the buddhacarita of Aśvaghosha.

These traditions variously constructed the bodhisattva's birth drama. The divyāvadhāna enacts the scene under a aśoka tree, while the aśokāvadhāna does so under a mango tree. The lalitavistara uses a plakśa tree. The mahāvasthu concurs with the nidhānakathā that the birth drama occurred under a śāla tree. 50 Aśvaghosha, in his buddhacarita, is silent about the identity of the tree. All, except Aśvaghosha, are in agreement with the nidhānakathā regarding all other basic elements.

H

Aśvaghosha's buddhacarita has two versions of the birth drama. The manuscripts edited by Cowell agree with the nidhānakathā. However, the

⁵⁰ But *mahāvasthu* is inconsistent. As Jones shows, elsewhere it gives *plakśa* as the name of the tree (Jones:1952:16:n.3).

buddhacarita edited by Johnston provides a different scenario. According to Johnston's translation, Mahāmayā entered the garden of Lunbini and proceeded to a couch under an awning and the bodhisattva emerged from her side.

This is a much later rendition of Aśvaghosha's buddhacarita. Johnston used the fo-sho-hing-tsan-king, the Chinese translation of the buddhacarita by Dharmaraksha in 420 CE, and a Tibetan manuscript descending from 8th century, to fill the lacunae in the Katmandu manuscript that he translated. But, the Tibetan and the Chinese versions of the poem omit the first twenty-four verses in the Sanskrit. The birth drama is described in Cowell's edition in verse 24 of Canto I. Johnston's edition begins with verse 8 of Canto I, describing the birth drama. Both Cowell and Johnston filled the missing verses with materials from Tibetan and Chinese sources that do not always agree with one another. Both editors state that all manuscripts agree in all the major events from this point onwards. However, the most significant event in the Buddhist drama, the birth of the bodhisattva, is presented in two different motifs indicating that even the verse 24. Canto I in Cowell and verse 8, Canto I in Johnston are also thoroughly edited by the scribes. In Cowell, Mahamaya's pose in the birth drama is that of śālabhańjikā.

"santāhpurajanā dévi kadācidatha luņbini/ jagāmānusate rājāh sambhūtontamadohada //(23) śakhāmālambamānayāh pushpabhārāvalaņbini/ dévyāh kuksim vibighāśu bodhisattvoviniryayau// (24)⁵²

Cowell translates these verses as follows.

Then one day by the king's permission the queen, having a great longing in her mind, went with the inmates of the gynaeceum into the garden of Lumbini (23). As the queen supported herself by a bough which hung laden with a weight of flowers, the Bodhisattva suddenly came forth, cleaving open her womb(24).⁵³

Johnston's text reads as:

⁵¹ Beal (1883) and Johnston (1934).

⁵² buddhakarita: Cowell: 1892.

⁵³ Cowell:1894:1969:5

tasminvané shraumati rājapatnau prasūtikālam samavēkshamānā/ savyām vitanopahitam prapédé nārausahakhairabhinandanāya//⁵⁴

He translates this as:

In that glorious grove the queen perceived that the time of her delivery was at hand and, amidst the welcome of thousands of waiting-women, proceeded to a couch overspread with an awning⁵⁵.

Clearly, the Kathmandu manuscript has a different notion about the bodhisattva's birth drama. Interestingly, while Johnston compared this manuscript with the one used by Cowell he did not notice this glaring difference.

Johnston says that a Nepali pundit named Amrtananda introduced many alterations to the editions used by Cowell and asserts that the Katmandu manuscript is older and less corrupt, and therefore more authentic. He shows many instances where scribes have changed the original construction by Aśvaghosha.

Maybe the scribes found the śālabhańjikā position unnatural or improper, as the nineteenth century European scholars found it to be, and made it more appropriate for a sacred personage such as Mahāmayā and more like the birthing practices of their own community. On the other hand, it is likely that the Sanskrit traditions carried both these scenarios, depending on the region and the cultural orientation of the community. It is also likely that later scholars and scribes altered many of the scenarios as given in the Kathmandu manuscript and realigned the texts with the nidhānakathā version. Against all these speculations it may be asserted that since the iconography of the scene from Amarāvatīand Gandhāra to Nepal and elsewhere follows the nidhānakathā scenario, Aśvaghosha also followed the same. It is remarkable that the "couch" scene appears nowhere else, in literature or in iconography that I have yet seen, except in the Chinese text translated by Beal and perhaps in the Tibetan text (I have not seen one yet) and in Johnston's translation of the Katmandu manuscript. Johnston trusted the Chinese and Tibetan versions.

A careful reading of the Katmandu text edited by Johnston reveals that the "couch" is an addition incorporated by Johnston. " sayyām vitanopahitam " means "lay down under a canopy." Just as the scribes edited the text instead of only copying it, Johnston introduced materials from the Chinese translation and from his own culture and times. The "couch" is a Chinese invention, a device that Johnston finds agreeable and in accordance with the European birthing practices. He

⁵⁴ buddhacarita:I:8; Johnston:1934.

⁵⁵ Johnston:1934:1984::I:8:3.

introduces it to smoothen the "lay down under a canopy" in the Kathmandu manuscript and to dramatize the text to his European readers. He probably regarded the absence of a couch in the Katmandu text as an omission in the original text or in the copy that he edited. Therefore, he 'corrected' the perceived 'omission' in the text. ⁵⁶

Perhaps, if Johnston had tested his rendition of the text against the iconography of the event he would have drawn very different conclusions about the scene of the nativity and about the relative authenticity of the manuscripts involved. Instead he only used chronological evidence and considered the 14th century Kathmandu manuscript as more authentic than the 15th century manuscripts that Cowell edited.

Ш

The *mahāvasthu* presents yet another interesting slant to the birth drama of the bodhisattva. In the *mahāvasthu*, King Suddhodhana allows the queen to go to Lunbini and "break a *sāla* branch" (*śālabhańjakan ca karisyathi*).⁵⁷ Here, the term

"Disliking the clamorous ways of the world. (she remembered) the excellent garden of Lumbini, a pleasant spot, a quiet forest retreat, (with its) trickling fountains, and blooming flowers and fruits.

Quiet and peaceful, delighting in meditation, respectfully she asked the king for liberty to roam therein; the king understanding her earnest desire, was seized with a seldom-felt anxiety (to grant her request).

He commanded his kinsfolk, within and without (the palace), to repair with her to that garden shade; and now the queen Maya knew that her time for childbearing was come.

She rested on a beautiful couch, (surrounded by) a hundred thousand female attendants;...."

Chinese and Tibetan iconography of the bodhisattva's birth drama is structurally not different from the Amaravati, Gandhara and Nepali versions. There, too Mahāmāya is shown standing under a tree. If the Chinese and the Tibetan iconographers learned about the birth drama from the *fo-sho-hing-tsan-king* and its Tibetan equivalent it is likely that Darmaraksha provided that information, rather than a couch scene, in his translation, and that the couch was introduced by Beal. I have no way of testing this hypothesis at present.

⁵⁶ Samuel Beal translates Canto I, (5-8) of the Chinese text as follows:

⁵⁷ sarvéshan bodhisattvānān mātā pratipūrna daśamé māsé prajāyati. subhūtinā śākyéna préshitan rañño. āgacchatu dévi prajāyishyati. rāja pratishédhayati. āgamishyati śālabhańjikan ca karishyati// (Senart:1890:18:7-9).

śālabhańjikā refers to the śāla breaking woman, not a wooden doll, courtesan, harlot or yakshi.

I hypothesize that the Lokottaravādin supernaturalized the *nidhānakathā* version that states that the queen merely stood under a $\delta \bar{a} la$ tree. Her pose later became ritualized through their supernaturalization. Women in certain regions break a $\delta \bar{a} la$ branch in preparation for parturition hoping that their labor pains also might be reduced by this magical act.

Buddhist literature shows that great events were ritualized and individuals performed such rituals to obtain the same results. For example, certain monks of the early Buddhist community ritually meditated under bo (*ficus religiosā*) trees believing that the bo trees had a magical power to cause realization of Truth and buddhahood. This ritual was an imitation of Siddhārtha Gautama's act.

Conversely, it could be that the *nidhānakathā* scenario was itself a literary representation of an ongoing ritual. However, I do not believe this hypothesis likely for numerous reasons.

First, the earliest literature does not speak of a \dot{sala} branch or flower plucking ritual. Even the $nidh\bar{a}nakath\bar{a}$ only uses the $\dot{sala}bha\dot{n}jik\bar{a}$ motif to say that the queen merely held a \dot{sala} branch and supported herself.

Second, as I argue in the main essay, the *nidhānakathā* motif, given its context, does not implicate any concern with fertility. Therefore it is highly unlikely that Mahāmayā's pose represented a *śālabhańjaka* ritual. Coomaraswamy cites the *avadāna cataka* to show the existence of the *sal* branch breaking ritual in literary motifs. ⁵⁸ But the *avadāna cataka* is a later work, composed during the first century Common Era.

Third, while Roy believes, 59 and Coomaraswamy affirms, that worshiping a \hat{sala} tree in full bloom was a pre-Buddhist fertility ritual, this is not the same as the

The mothers of all Bodhisattva's are delivered when the tenth month is completed. The Śākyan Subhūti sent a message to the king, saying, "Let the queen come hither; she shall be delivered here." The king replied that she should come and break the branch of the Sāl tree (Jones"1952:16).

Jones, probably guided by the *nidhānakathā*, footnotes that "...break the branch of the Sāl tree" means that "the Bodhisattva's mother will be delivered as she clings to a branch of this tree. (ibid.:16:n.3).

⁵⁸ 1993 :86.

⁵⁹ Roy (as cited in Coomaraswamy:1993).

śālabhańjikā or śāla -branch-breaking ritual. The nidhānakathā does not say that Mahāmāya worshipped or broke a branch of a śāla tree. She merely held a branch that the devatā or deity of the tree pushed down. The śāla -branch-breaking notion is associated with Mahāmāya's visit to Luņbini only in the mahāvastu. Even the avadāna cataka, as Coomaraswamy indicates, does not associate śāla -branch-breaking with the birth scene of the bodhisattva.

Finally, the *mahāvasthu* is a later work, composed around the fourth century of the CE. The ritualization had occurred earlier than the composition of the *mahāvasthu*. The sculptural remains of Mathurā show remnants of a larger structure that included depictions of what might have been the śāla-branch breaking rituals. Here a female figure is climbing a tree, holding a branch. Mathurā artistic tradition existed concurrently with the early Gandhāra traditions during the first few centuries of the Common Era. The *mahāvasthu* author seems to have redefined the birth scene by using the ritual practiced in his community as the motif for Mahāmāya.

This shows that there is a circular relationship between oral tradition, literature and ritual formation. Inventions in the oral and literary traditions lead to rituals that, in turn, becomes motif for oral and literary traditions of later periods.

IV

Another kindred concept is that of the *dohada*. It means the longing of a pregnant woman or a pregnancy craving. This, too, became ritualized. Ritually, a young or a pregnant woman touches or kicks a tree to cause it to bloom and or bear fruit. Clearly, this is a fertility motif. Coomaraswamy gives Kalidāsa's *mālavikāgnimitra* as his source for this motif. Monier-Williams finds it in Kalidasa's *raghuvaņsa* as well. These appear to be the earliest Sanskrit literary occurrences of the concept. The word or the concept *dohada* does not appear in the *nidhānakathā*. But *dohada* appears in the *jātaka* stories, as *dohala* and its cognates, indicating that these occurrences could be post-Kalidasa additions.

The dohada, as it appears in mālavikāgnimitra and elsewhere, cannot explain Mahāmāya's pose in the birth scenario of the bodhisattva since dohada is a

⁶⁰ Coomaraswamy (Ibid.).

[&]quot;The word is used to indicate the longing of a pregnant woman for particular objects (figuratively said of plants which at budding time long to be touched by the foot or by the mouth (Raghuvamsa:XIX:12) of a lovely woman; any morbid desire or wish" (Monier-Williams:Op. Cit. 499). Monier-Williams also gives the Prakrit term *daurhrida* (ibid.). The Pali term is *dohala* anhd it means the same conditions. Rhys-Davids and Steed give the *jātaka* and *dhammapada atthakathā* as their sources (Op.Cit.:332).

⁶¹ Monier-Williams (Op.Cit.:499).

later cultural construction. We cannot apply meanings of signs retroactively although older meanings of signs may be invoked, depending on the context and the syntax, to define the later applications of the signs. *Dohada* appears in Cowell's edition of the *buddhakarita* as "*jagamānusaté rājah sambhūtontamadohadā*" and is used to show the longing that Mahāmāya had to go to Lunbini. However, these lines in Cowell's edition come from Chinese and Tibetan sources and they are extraneous to the Sanskrit manuscripts that Cowell and Johnston edited. Thus, the notion of *dohada* might have been added by the Chinese and the Tibetans or by the Sanskrit scribes who prepared the manuscripts for the Chinese and the Tibetans later. Clearly, the Chinese and the Tibetans had changed the manuscript to suite their imagining of the Buddha's story. The recasting of the birth scene by the Chinese and the Tibetans as discussed in II above provides further information on this matter.

Special Note:

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Note on transliteration. For the most part, I relied on Gonda (1966). However, I failed to find appropriate diacritical marks in Microsoft Word, for certain Sanskrit syllables. For those, I used n (avalanbya, vilanbita) and n (bhanjika) as they seemed fit depending on the context.

Figures given here are from Bussagli & Sivaramamurti (1972), Cunningham (1879:1998),

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⁶² Dharmaraksha translated the *buddhacarita* into Chinese in the fifth century CE (Beal:Op.Cit.). Kalidasa also lived during this period.

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Figure 1

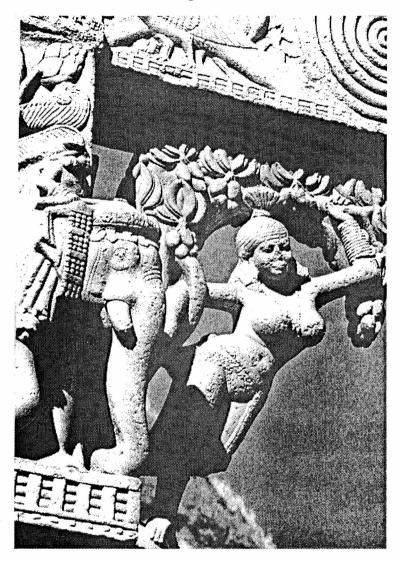


Canda Yakshi



Culakoka Devata

Figure 2



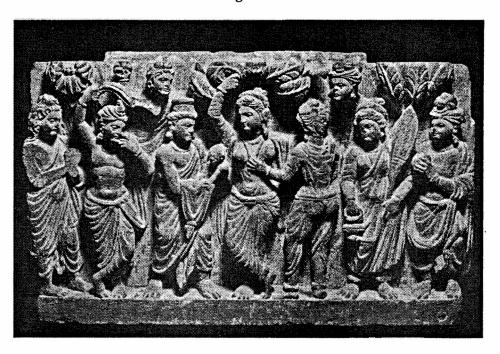
Sanchi

Figure 3



Amaravati

Figure 4



Gandhara