

East Asian Landscapes and Legitimation

Localizing Authority Through Sacred Sites in China and Vietnam

Yasmin Koppen

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Umschlagabbildung: Sacrificial Building at the Tomb of Emperor Minh Mang (r. 1820–1841) in Huế © Yasmin Koppen







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Abbreviations

AT Aarne-Thompson Index.

CIG Common Interest Group.

DNNTC Đại Nam Nhất Thống Chí 大南一統志 [C].

DVSKTT Đại Việt Sử Ký Toàn Thư 大越史記全書 [C].

HYCD Gudai Hanyu Cidian 古代汉语词典 Beijing: Shangwu Yinshuguan,

2009.

HYGZ Huayang Guozhi 華陽國志 [C].

LNCQ Lính Nam Chích Quái 嶺南摭怪 [C].

LNCQLT Lính Nam Chích Quái Liệt Truyện 嶺南摭怪列傳 (EFFEO A. 33

edition) [C].

LXT Stele Inscription of chùa Linh Xứng of Ngưỡng Sơn 仰山靈稱寺碑銘.

PDB Buswell and Lopez. *The Princeton Dictionary of Buddhism*.

PM Placed Material.

RNIS Regulatory-Normative Institutional Sphere.

SES Social-Experiential Sphere.
STX Santai Xianzhi 三台县志 [C].

SWBJ Shuwang Benji 蜀王本紀 [C].

TUTA Thiện Uyển Tập Anh 禪苑集英 [C].

TPQ Terminus post quantem.

VSL Việt Nam Sử Lược 越南史略 [V]. ZLMZZ Zhili Mianzhouzhi 直隸綿州志 [C].

Chinese and Vietnamese Dynasties

Timeline with selected rulers according to their appearance in the text. Mythical dynasties and rulers in cursive.

China		Vietnam	
Xia	2200—1600 BCE	Hồng Bàng Dynasty	2879—258 BCE
Shang	1600—1046 BCE		
Western Zhou	1046—771 BCE		
Eastern Zhou	770—256 BCE	Đông Sơn	1000 BCE—1 CE
Kaiming Dynasty	666—316 BCE	_Âu Lạc	257—179 BCE
Warring States	475—221 BCE	An Dương V	Tương 安陽王
Qin Dynasty	221—207 BCE		
Han Dynasty	202 BCE—9 CE	Nam Việt	204—111 BCE
	25 CE—220 CE	Zhao Tuo 趙佗	(r. 203—137 BCE)
Ma Yuan 馬援 (14 BC)	E—49 CE)	Jiaozhi	111 BCE—905 CE
		(Occupation)	111 DCE—905 CE
Three Kingdoms	220—280 CE		
Shu-Han Dynasty	221—263 CE		
Zhuge Liang 諸葛	葛亮 (181—234 CE)		
Jin Dynasty	265—420 CE		
Northern and	386—589 CE		
Southern Dynasties			
Sui Dynasty	581—619 CE		
Sui Wendi 隋文帝 (r. 5	581—604)		
Tang Dynasty	618—907 CE		
Five Dynasties and	907—960 CE	Autonomous Phase	905—939 CE
Ten Kingdoms			
Former Shu	907—925 CE		
Wang Jian \pm	建 (847—918)		
Later Shu	934—965 CE		

China		Vietnam	
Song Dynasty	960—1279	Ngô Dynasty	939—968 CE
Song Taizu 宋太祖 (r.	960—976)	Đinh Dynasty	968—980 CE
Song Renzong 宋仁宗	(r. 1022—1063)	Earlier Lê Dynasty	980—1009
Song Huizong 宋徽宗	(r. 1100—1126)	Later Lý Dynasty	1009—1224
_ Liao	916—1125	Lý Thái Tổ 李太祖 (r. 1	1009—1028)
_ Jin	1125—1234	Lý Thái Tông 李太宗 (
_ Southern Song	1126—1279	Lý Thánh Tông 李聖宗	
		Lý Nhân Tông 李仁宗	
		Lý Anh Tông 李英宗 (r. 1138—1175)
Yuan Dynasty	1279—1368	Trần Dynasty	1225—1400
Da Xia	1362—1371	Trần Thái Tông 陳太宗	
Ming Yuzhen 明玉珍	(1331—1366)	Trần Nhân Tông 陳仁語	宗 (r. 1278—1293)
Ming Dynasty	1368—1644	Hồ Dynasty	1400—1407
Hongwu Emperor 洪声	t (r. 1368—1398)	Ming Occupation	1407—1427
Yongle Emperor 永樂 (r. 1402—1424)		Later Lê Dynasty	1427—1778
Xuande Emperor 宣德 (r. 1425—1435)		Lê Thái Tổ 黎太祖 (r. 1428—1433)	
Jiajing Emperor 嘉靖 (r. 1521—1567) Wanli Emperor 萬曆 (r. 1572—1620)		Lê Thánh Tông 黎聖宗	(r. 1460—1497)
Wanli Emperor 禺僧 (r. 15/2—1620)	Nguyễn Hoàng 阮潢 (1	1525—1613)
		_ Mạc Dynasty	1527—1627
		_Trịnh & Nguyễn	1627—1777
		Lords	
		_Đàng Ngoài	1627—1789
		Lê Huyên Tông 黎玄宗	₹ (r. 1654—1671)
		Đàng Trong	1627—1744
		Nguyễn Phúc Trăn 阮衲	福溙 (r. 1687—1691)
		Nguyễn Phúc Chu 阮褚	畐淍 (r. 1691—1725)
Qing Dynasty	1644—1911	Tây Sơn Dynasty	1778—1802
Kangxi Emperor 康熙	(r.1661—1722)	Nguyễn Dynasty	1802—1883
Yongzheng Emperor 🔻	誰正 (r. 1723—1735)	Gia Long 嘉隆 (1762—1820)	
Qianlong Emperor 乾	隆 (r. 1735—1799)	Minh Mạng 明命 (r. 1820—1841)	
Jiaqing Emperor 嘉慶	(1796—1820)	Thiệu Trị 紹治 (r. 1841	
		Tự Đức 嗣德 (r. 1847–	-1883)

China		Vietnam	
Republic	1912—1949	French Colonial 1858—1954 Reign	
		Đồng Khánh 同慶 (r. 1885—1889)	
		Thành Thái 成泰 (r. 1889—1907).	
		Khải Định 啟定 (r. 1916—1925)	
		Bảo Đại 保大 (r. 1926—1	945)
PR China	Since 1949	SR Vietnam S	ince 1945

Sacred Site Glossary

This glossary provides the most important categories of sacred sites in China and Vietnam that contain at least one building. In the Chinese language, the categories are usually presented as suffixes, in the Vietnamese language, they are presented as prefixes. Not included are numinous places without constructions, like lakes or riversides. Terms like *dong* 洞 "caves/grottos" or *lin* 林 "forests" may either serve *as* temples — containing icons and shrines — or to refer to the temples contained inside such places.

Temple Categories in China

gong 宮 A closed space with multiple worship options, usually with-

out a central tablet/icon.

miao 廟 A singular building or architectural complex with multiple

worship options and a central tablet/icon.

ci 词 Originally a single shrine, later also an architectural com-

plex, dedicated to ancestors and deified persons. Although everybody can establish a *ci*, their objects of worship are

commonly tied to imperial orthodoxy.

si 寺 A term for a government office that is used to refer to Bud-

dhist temples after the Han dynasty. It is at times used for

temples of other religions as well.

guanyuan 觀院 After the Han dynasty, this term for a pavilion on a platform

began to refer to Daoist temples and monasteries. Both characters may occur as an independent suffix and *-yuan* alone may refer to individual courtyards inside larger architectural

complexes or to governmental courts.

A freestanding pavilion with a square, round, hexagonal or octagonal base that may contain a sacred object or stele. Inside a temple complex they may be empty. The *ting* originated in freestanding huts which, like the *lu*, served as resting stops for travelers. Older examples had no walls to preserve the view into the landscape, but later variants that housed objects did.

A small, roofed shrine with or without walls and a square or round base. It is commonly freestanding, placed in nature as a wayside shrine. Occasionally, the *an* is associated with female deities, female worship, and female practitioners. As such, the suffix may denote a nunnery.

lu 庐 Originally referred to a funeral hut, then to shelters for traveling scholars along popular routes, of which some turned into wayside shrines.

Some architectural units are used inside temple complexes but may also occur independently:

dian 殿	The <i>dian</i> is the basic unit to compartmentalize complex
	buildings. In a religious context, it is a hall that contains
	at least one shrine or altar, but may contain several more
	in a hierarchical order. This sometimes refers to religious
	spaces adjacent to nonreligious buildings.
tang 堂	A main hall in various types of architecture.
ge 閣	A pavilion or pagoda with a room and possibly a sacred

object at its base.

tan 壇 A high platform which serves as an altar, originally made from stamped earth, later also from ceramics and bricks.

an 庵

Temple Categories in Vietnam

chùa

A prefix usually referring to a Buddhist temple. It originally described the $th\acute{a}p$ 塔 "stupa" and is used instead of $t\iota\iota$ 寺. Chinese temple names ending in $-t\iota\iota$ 寺 that did not actually refer to a Buddhist place are marked in modern Vietnamese with the prefix $d\acute{e}n$. Due to Buddhism's strong influence on Vietnamese history, any temple can be called $ch\grave{u}a$.

công

This small and narrow site is often rendered in Chinese as *gong* 宮 because of its similar structure and function. *Công* rarely contain more than a single icon or group of icons and are common in Đao Mẫu sites.

đền

This category encompasses all shrines not associated with other organized religions. Because the entities venerated here are often heroes or ancestors, $d\hat{e}n$ are commonly rendered as ci 祠 in Chinese text, but nature spirits are also venerated with imperial framing. In Chu Nôm, the characters 展 or 殿 are used to represent this term.

đình

Although rendered as *ting* 亭 and sometimes *ding* 庭 in Chinese text, the *đình is* completely different from the Chinese structures. It is a communal house in the center of each village, characterized by an extremely wide platform, that is dedicated to local deities and ancestors. The *hậu cung* 後宮 "back hall" of larger *đình* contains the main shrine.

miếu

The Sinitic *miao* 廟 is used for sacred sites of Chinese association. However, the northern *miếu* are commonly also dedicated to the spirits of mountains, water and earth, preferably established in remote areas or at the back of a village. For most of the year they are left alone to not to disturb possibly malevolent nature spirits. In the south, the term refers to very small (<10 m²) places of worship similar to *đến* or *am*. Small wayside shrines for local and nature spirits may also be called *miễu*.

am Correlates to the Chinese term an 庵. Small, simple

shrines in free nature mostly used by Buddhist nuns and dedicated to hungry ghosts, the tutelary deities of small

settlements and Buddhas.

điện Although rendered as dian 殿 in Chinese script, in con-

trast to China, these sites are larger than *miếu*, but smaller than *đển*. They are established communally or privately, originally for Daoism inspired worship. Later, Đạo Mẫu, Buddhism and regional cults also have used this category.

Phủ Rendered as fu 府 or fu 婦 in Chinese text, this is a greater

temple and pilgrimage destination of Đạo Mẫu, usually located outside of urban and settled areas. The oldest known *phủ* date from the seventeenth century. In Thanh Hóa, a

đền may also be called phủ.

nghè A transposed temple used for a new settlement, related

to an ancestor of an older village or if the main temple of a cult is hard to reach. The oldest known *nghè* date to the

seventeenth century.

quán 觀 This is usually a Daoist temple just like in China, but can

also be a site of a popular religion.

văn chỉ 文址 This is a small Confucian temple built by literati to propa-

gate imperial ideology. A simple and small site that is not normally visited by the common people outside of events.

Preface

In the spring of 2011, while conducting field research for my Master's thesis, I came across the Longmafutu Temple 龍馬負圖寺 in Mengjin, roughly forty minutes by car from Luoyang. The "Dragon Horse" (longma 龍馬) is a reference to classical Chinese mythology. Officially, the temple was presented as Confucian. Arriving there, I perceived multiple disharmonies regarding that claim — the presence of drum and bell towers, the color of the roof tiles, and the relationship of building sizes, which were in contradiction to their placement. A large Fuxi Hall was in the center, and at the end of the central axis, there was also a great hall dedicated to the Three Emperors. 1 My impression of the mismatch was confirmed when I discovered an undecorated hall in the temple's west side which contained the entire ensemble of icons that one would actually expect of a Buddhist temple — certainly not from a Confucian one. Rarely, Buddhist icons may find their way into Confucian temples but an entire ensemble in one room was highly unusual, so this warranted further investigation. My research showed that this site had been established as a Buddhist temple in the fourth century CE. About thousand years later, in the 1560s, Neo-Confucians officially claimed the site, so Buddhists and Neo-Confucians were obliged to use it simultaneously. Since then, the temple has switched multiple times the suffixes that identified it as either a Buddhist or a different type of Chinese temple. The Neo-Confucians were determined to change the site's perception, but the Buddhist religious practices continued to be more relevant for the local population. The full switch of the temple's official alignment thus only occurred after a temporary desacralization in the twentieth century. However, contemporary practice within the temple continues to favor Buddhist and popular content.

It was the fascinating history of the Longmafutu Temple's destruction, reconstruction, and reinterpretation that ignited my interest in the dynamics of claims and spatial markings as they point to changes of ideological dominance, religious practice, and political control.

.......

¹ Here: The Yellow Emperor Huangdi, the Flame Emperor Yandi and the cultural deity Fuxi.

I found that similar events to those in the Longmafutu Temple's history have occurred worldwide: like the rededication of Latin American pyramids or Mesopotamian temples; the protection or destruction of former Buddhist sites by Muslims in Central Asia; the polysemantic use of St. George churches in Israel, or the Christian occupation of Roman temples, synagogues, and especially of healing springs in Ireland and Germany. This made me aware of the discrepancies in historical sources, especially between material-physical evidence, text evidence, and religious behavior as described or observed. I found that architecture reflected very well the discrepancies between religious practice and historiography. This eventually led to my research questions.

I wanted to know what kinds of change led to such rededications. Who benefited from rededications, how were they carried out, and how did they affect local cultures? All these questions led me to examine the possible differences between local and transregional religious ideas, practices, politics, and their interactions in relation to spatiality. "Transregional" refers here to individuals and ideas that transcend specific geographical boundaries, carrying with them both tangible and intangible cultural elements. For instance, a monk transporting a sutra amulet from one region to another spreads the practice of placing miniature sutras as protective elements within amulet shells, thus disseminating the idea beyond its place of origin. The term underscores the interconnectedness of cultural exchange and the diffusion of beliefs and practices across diverse regions.

This book sheds some light on situations of transcultural contact, where the familiar local and the unfamiliar transregional are forced to react to each other's presence. These reactions range from efforts to preserve local identity to attempts to establish political supremacy over an (superficially) unified realm. Water-centric temples serve as prime example sites for such contacts. The legitimation of local authorities rested to no uncertain degree on such sites since they provided the spiritual control over rainmaking and flood prevention. For this reason, water-centric temples became ideological battlegrounds between different local and transregional factions vying for supremacy and water control. As contested spaces, these temples were actively involved in the production of new worldviews and were the places where competing fragments of local and transregional spatial ideas merged and reinterpreted.

Contested religious sites assume multiple identities. The power struggles between these identities are reflected in the spatial configuration (the relationship of buildings to each other), the content (images, icons, altars, the use of symbols and colors), their external perception and the actual usage of a site. Spatial reconfigurations manipulate the socio-spatial traits of religious sites, altering their structure, representation, and portrayal in media to encourage transcultural ideology transfer. This manipulation is usually aimed at securing religious or political dominance for the sponsors of such reconfigurations. This means that contextualizing the traces of spatial reconfiguration events found in material evidence with relevant textual sources, approaches from the cognitive science of religion, and theories of broader historical dynamics provides a better understanding of local historical developments.

In this book, I introduce the Experiential Architecture Analysis (EAA) as a novel methodological approach to uncover the different reconfiguration tactics that religious and political authorities applied (and still apply) to the material structure, cultural content, and the media treatment of significant sites (Chapter II–IV). Through my research, I have verified its significance as a vital tool for the comparative study of institutional change that expands our understanding of identity negotiation and ideology transfer in transcultural contexts.

Sacred sites serve as the principal instruments for initiating and perpetuating such processes of transfer and negotiation. Whether as collaborators or competitors, religious and political authorities have compelling reasons to reconfigure sacred sites using either aggressive or mediative reconfiguration tactics to convey their ideology — even in alien environments. Such reconfiguration events commonly create tensions between the subjective, socially constructed meanings of sacred sites and their politically imposed ones. A high level of such tensions is detrimental to the success of transcultural ideology transfer.

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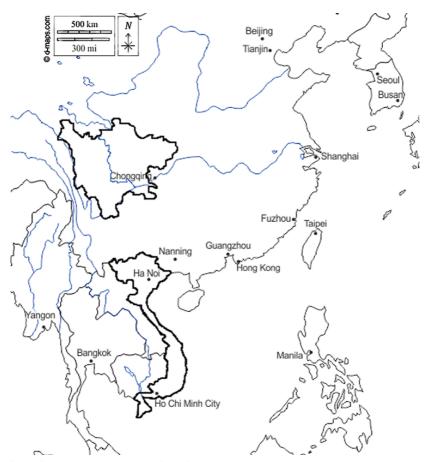
I feel deeply indebted to Dac Chien Truong who selflessly supported me during my fieldwork in Vietnam, smoothed out the networking process and helped me to access Vietnamese sources and literature. Heartfelt gratitude goes towards Ngô thị Diễm Hằng for her collaboration and translating in the city of Việt Trì, and to Kim Oanh for her trust and commitment, although we were strangers when we met. I am grateful for Kẻ Phản Diện's advice on studying the Đạo Mẫu religious movements. My deep gratitude to Kingshuk Datta who worked tirelessly to redraw my layout drafts for the book edition.

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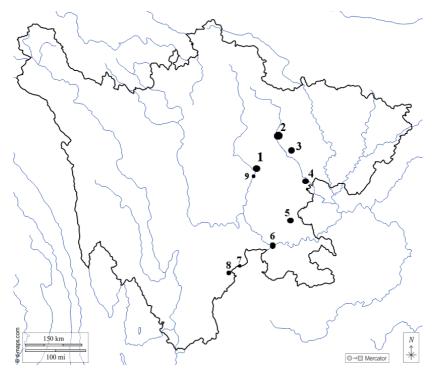
My sincere thanks go out to the many people who helped me find locations, make contacts, get permissions for visits, surveys, and photographs at temple sites or to translate questions and answers into local dialects — especially to Guo Guanghui and Cui Longhao who supported me in Sichuan, likewise to Tanja and Denis Katzer regarding Leibo and Mahu. My deepest gratitude goes to my parents Heinz-Hermann and Lorna and to my godparents Sigrid and Reiner, for missing out on me so much and yet being full of emotional and financial support. I thank Amr Nfady for his optimism and information on Saudi Arabian use of territorial marking and my friends Marleen Klum and Katja Siling for taking care of my sanity during the darkest hours of working on this project.

I dedicate this book to Annaliese Wulf (1922~2000), a German author and journalist who wrote extensively about Southeast Asia. Her book *Vietnam*. *Pagoden und Tempel im Reisfeld — im Fokus chinesischer und indischer Kultur* ['Vietnam. Pagodas and Temples in the Rice Field — in the Focus of Chinese and Indian Culture'] (1995), though billed as a travel guide, was one of the first and most profound art historical studies of Vietnam in German. It introduced critical topics that turned out intensively relevant to Vietnamese Studies decades later. In this sense, I would like to recognize Gerd Hoffmann and Prof. Dr. Wilfried Lulei for providing personal information about Annaliese Wulf.



[Img. 1] Map of Sichuan Province (China) and Vietnam in their modern locations. Created with d-maps.com,² modified with emphasis and with Dadu River added

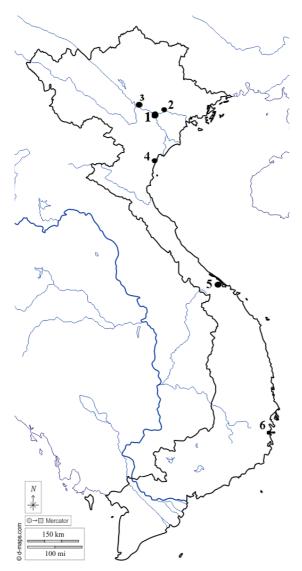
d-maps: https://d-maps.com/carte.php?num_car=28781&lang=en (February 2024).



Legend: (1) Chengdu; (2) Mianyang; (3) Santai; (4) Suining; (5) Neijiang; (6) Yibin; (7) Mahu; (8) Leibo; (9) Huanglongxi.

[Img. 2] Map of the Sichuan province (China) created with d-maps.com,³ modified with cities, numbers and the Fu River

d-maps: https://d-maps.com/carte.php?num_car=18057&lang=en (February 2024).



Legend: (1) Hanoi; (2) Bắc Ninh; (3) Việt Trì; (4) Thanh Hóa; (5) Huế; (6) Nha Trang. [Img. 3] Map of Vietnam created with d-maps.com, 4 modified with cities and numbers

d-maps: https://d-maps.com/m/asia/vietnam/vietnam08.gif (February 2024).

Introduction

There is the widespread misconception that from the very moment that a society is conquered by a foreign power, its cultural identity is in jeopardy. After transcultural military conquests, new rulers introduce new ideologies to integrate their foreign subjects. Such new ideologies are often expressed through changes in sacred sites. Spatially reconfigured sites then become vehicles for ideology transfer, which is essential for the establishment of political and cultural dominance. A focus on material religion⁵ elucidates transcultural relations before, during, and after historical colonization, because material settings and objects often reveal new information about how people interacted with them. Sacred sites, in this sense, are themselves contained networks of objects with which their visitors interact three-dimensionally. Studying sacred sites through the lens of material religion — as informants — thus opens an additional level of local history, one that was commonly left out of text documents written by the colonizers. This approach demonstrates that although conquest and colonization commonly resulted in a significant loss of cultural identity, the process of ideology transfer is bidirectional. Threatened cultures are not passive or helpless; they actively engage in identity negotiation and are just as capable to utilize spatial reconfigurations to defend their cultural identity, to influence the ideologies of their oppressors, and to take from them what is needed to create opportunities for the restoration of sovereignty.

More than two thousand years ago, the Chinese Empire was still young, yet eager for growth. Concisely, its center lay in the Central Plains (zhongyuan 中原) which surrounded the lower and middle reaches of the Huanghe — the Yellow River. From there, the empire advanced into the south and southwest and conquered territories that seemed unfamiliar and strange. They were filled with

⁵ Different perspectives on material religion and the material turns in religious studies have been excellently summarized in: Bräunlein, Peter J. "Thinking Religion Through Things. Reflections on the Material Turn in the Scientific Study of Religion\s." Method and Theory in the Study of Religion 28 (2016): 365–399.