SAKKÄYADITTHI. Is usually translated as 'personality view'. The term $sakk\bar{a}ya$ is made up of sat 'existing' and $k\bar{a}ya$, 'body'. $K\bar{a}ya$ in the present context has a more general sense and goes beyond its usual meaning as the physical body, so that the entire term $sakk\bar{a}ya$ stands for 'embodiment', 'identity' or 'personality.

According to the Sakkāya Sutta (S. III, 159), the five aggregates of clinging are what make up sakkāya. Such sakkāya, shows the same discourse, arises due to craving and will cease if craving is overcome. Hence the path leading to the cessation of sakkāya is none other than the noble eightfold path.

The same definition of sakkāya recurs in the Cūļavedalla Sutta (M. I, 299), which elaborates this definition by pointing out that clinging (upādāna) is not identical with the five aggregates, nor something apart from them, but simply refers to desire and lust in regard to them. Since the five aggregates of clinging feature as the summary statement of the nature of dukkha found in the standard definitions of the first noble truth¹ sakkāya is closely related to dukkha and thereby of eminent importance in early Buddhism. Thus it comes as no surprise when another discourse identifies the way leading to the cessation of sakkāya as the way leading to the cessation of dukkha (S. III, 44).

The Āneñjasappāya Sutta offers a complementary definition, taking sakkāya to cover present and future sensual pleasures and material forms, together with experiences of deep concentrative absorption (M. II, 265). This passage is a restatement of the above definition, undertaken from the perspective of different types of experiences.

Such sakkāyaditħi involves a conversion of the instinctive sense of an 'I' at the core of subjective experience into a substantial and possibly even metaphysical entity, an act of 'embodiment' or 'personification' yielding the notion of a self and from this notion evolving into a full fledged view. According to the standard definition of sakkāyaditħi, the genesis of such a full fledged personality view operates based on one or the other of altogether twenty possible modes, arrived at by considering any of the five aggregates to either correspond to the self, or else taking the self to be endowed with the aggregate, or

else by presuming the aggregate to be part of the self, or else by taking the self to be within the aggregate (*M*. I, 300). This twenty-fold matrix sets the paradigm for whatever manifestations of *sakkāyadithi* can be found.

Instances of these twenty modes of personality view make their appearance in several discourses, a short selection of which will help to illustrate the implications of sakkāyaditthi. The Mahātaihāsaikhaya Sutta reports the monk Sāti assuming that the selfsame consciousness continues through the round of rebirths, this consciousness being what speaks and feels and experiences karmic retribution (M. I, 256). In reply to this thorough misunderstanding, the Buddha spoke of the dependent arising of consciousness, thereby indicating that Sāti's mistaken view implied a causally independent self. Such notions of causal independence and mastery are the soil in which sakkāyaditthi grows. Yet neither body nor feelings, perceptions, volitions or consciousness are in the final account amenable to full control, (M. I. 231 and S. III, 66), so that to take any of these to be an independent self turns out to be a thorough illusion.

The monk Sāti was not the only monk falling prey to erroneous self notions. The Mahāpuṇṇama Sutta reports another monk wondering who will be affected by karmic retribution, as all five aggregates are not self (M. III, 19). Just as the monk Sāti had fallen into the error of not taking the dependent origination of consciousness into account, this monk mistakenly believed the denial of self to imply a denial of karmic retribution and empirical continuity. Both these mistaken conceptions are off springs of the same sakkāyaditthi.

Another discourse depicts Māra challenging the nun Vajirāby asking her who had created the 'being' and where the 'being' had come from (S. I, 135). Unlike the two monks mentioned above, the nun Vajirā had developed a deeper understanding of the Dhamma and was thus quick to point out that Māra was under the sway of views, a reference indicating that his notion of a 'being' was an instance of sakkāyadiṭṭhi. Just as a chariot is merely a functional assemblage of parts, she explained, so too the expression 'being' refers merely to the functional assemblage of the five aggregates.

Just as the term 'chariot' is simply a convention, so too the superimposition of the notion of an 'I' on

experience is nothing but a convention. Yet, the above example from the *Mahāpunnama Sutta* shows that disclosing the merely conventional nature of 'I' notions can lead to misunderstandings. In terms of the chariot simile: to reject the existence of an independent, substantial chariot does not render it impossible to ride in the functional assemblage of conditioned and impermanent parts to which the concept 'chariot' refers. In a similar way, to deny the existence of a self does not imply a denial of the individual person, being but the conditioned and impermanent interaction of the five aggregates.

The question posed above by Māra forms part of a whole set of confused types of thinking under the influence of sakkāyadiṭṭħi, described in the Sabbāsava Sutta (M. I, 8). According to this discourse, a worldling is prone to wonder: 'Did I exist in the past or not, and if I existed, what was I in the past?" 'Will I exist in the future or will I not exist?', Am I at present or am I not?' 'Where did this being come from, where will it go to?' Reflecting unwisely in this way, so the Sabbāsava Sutta explains, causes the arising of various types of views about a self. Among these views, one finds not only the view proposed by the monk Sāti, presuming that the self speaks and feels and experiences karmic retribution, but also the view 'no self exists for me', corresponding to the type of thinking occurring in the monk from the Mahāpunnama Sutta. Leaving behind such unwise reflections, the Sabbāsava Sutta continues, and wisely attending to the four noble truths one will abandon the fetter of sakk äyaditthi.

The Mahānidāna Sutta takes up three modes of postulating a self in relation to feeling for closer examination. These three modes proceed by either identifying feeling as the self, or else taking the self to be without feeling, or by presuming that the self feels (D. II, 66). Yet to identify with feelings is unacceptable due to the impermanent nature of feelings, the Buddha explained, while to dissociate self from feelings is contradictory, since in the absence of any feeling, the notion 'I' would not arise in the first place.

Another set of three self notions, this time arisen due to speculating on the nature of perception, can be found in the *Potthapāda Sutta* (D. I, 186): a coarse self (*olarika*), a mind-made self (*manomaya*) and an immaterial self ($ar\bar{u}pa$). To identify with perception

in any of these three ways is however untenable, the Buddha pointed out, as all perceptions arise and pass away.

The altogether twenty possible modes of sakkāyadiṭṭhi form the basic matrix for the arising of all kinds of views. As the monk Isidatta explained to the householder Citta (S. IV, 287), the different types of views described in the Brahmajāla Sutta (D. I, 12) are but the outcome of sakkāyadiṭṭhi. If it were not for Micchādiṭṭhi, such views would not arise.

The same finds confirmation in another discourse, where the Buddha explained why he did not make a pronouncement concerning a set of current philosophical propositions about the nature of the world (eternal or not, boundless or not), the relationship of the soul to the body (identity or not) and the destiny of a tathāgata after death (exists, does not exist, both, neither). According to his explanation, such propositions only arise when one takes the aggregates to be a self in any of the above-mentioned twenty modes (S. IV, 395).

Though sakkāyadiṭṭhi as the root of all views is certainly wrong, it is not necessarily a 'wrong view' (micchādiṭṭhi) in the technical sense of the term. 'Wrong view', so the Buddha declared, necessarily leads to an evil rebirth, either in the animal realm or in hell (A. I, 60). The same cannot be said of all types of sakkāyadiṭṭhi.

One who falls prey to Sakkāyaditthi, and thereby to the erroneous presumption of a self, might still be one who performs wholesome deeds and believes in karmic retribution. Though the mistaken belief in a self would prevent him or her from awakening, it will not prevent a favourable rebirth. It may well be for this reason that the discourses do not explicitly identify Sakkāyaditthi as a micchāditthi and in one instance even list micchāditthi side by side with attānudiṭṭhi (a synonym of Sakkāyadiṭṭhi) as different types of views (A. III, 447). Similarly, the Dhammasanganīs definition of Sakkāyaditthi employs a number of qualifying epithets, among them 'false path', 'wrong road' and 'wrongness'2 but is careful to avoid the expression 'wrong view' (micchāditthi), quite probably because the implications of this expression do not allow including it as a synonym for Sakkāyaditthi.

Even though from a Buddhist perspective Sakkāyadiṭṭħi is certainly incorrect, as long as its practical implications are to encourage moral and wholesome conduct, Sakkāyadiṭṭħi will not have the same evil consequence as micchādiṭṭħi, with its denial of karmic retribution and of the validity of ethical values. Sakkāyadiṭṭħi is a fetter binding to continuous samsāric existence, but not a fetter that inevitably results in such future existence taking place in the lower realms.

Sakkāyadiṭṭhi as a fetter binding to continuous existence in saṃsāra is the first of the three fetters to be overcome with stream-entry (A. I, 242). Since Sakkāyadiṭṭhi in its twenty modes boils down to 'I'-dentifying with the five aggregates, the cure required to gain freedom from Sakkāyadiṭṭhi is to contemplate the five aggregates as devoid of 'mine', 'I am', and 'my self' (S. III, 68). Such contemplation not only covers the last mentioned view 'my self', the Sakkāyadiṭṭhi proper, but also its foundations: the sense of 'I am' as a manifestation of conceit and the mode of craving underlying the attribution of 'mine' to phenomena.³

Concerning the notion 'mine', the Mūlapariyāya Sutta explains that this notion arises out of a basic pattern of conceiving (maññanā) in relation to experienced phenomena (M. I, 1). In the case of earth, for example, based on perceiving earth the process of conceiving typical for a worldling proceeds from forming the conception 'earth', via the creation of a subject-object relationship as 'in earth' and 'from earth', to the notion 'mine' in relation to earth and there- with to the arising of delight in regard to earth. That is, the sensory input of what is perceived first receives real object status and then is appropriated. With this act of appropriation, 'self'- ishness comes into being. To appropriate is to control, so that this act of appropriation as 'mine' enhances and confirms the sense of a substantial subject able to exert control.

Due to this sense of a substantial subject able to exert control, the five aggregates are experienced as embodiments of the notion 'I am'. From the worldling's point of view, the material body is 'where I am', feelings are 'how I am', perceptions are 'what I am' (perceiving), volitions are 'why I am' (acting), and consciousness is 'whereby I am' (experiencing). In this way, each aggregate offers its own contribution to

enacting the reassuring illusion 'I am'. Such 'I am' notions are but erroneous superimpositions on experience, conveying the sense of an autonomous and independent subject reaching out to acquire or reject discrete substantial objects.

It is this basic fundamental notion of an 'I' which in its rationalised form becomes the full-fledged Sakkāyadiṭṭḥi as 'my self' and therewith the basis for all kinds of views. Even a new born baby, though not yet having even a sense of being an individual, nevertheless is already in the possession of the underlying tendency to such Sakkāyadiṭṭḥi (M. I,432).

This passage indicates that the problem posed by Sakkāyadiṭṭhi is not merely a matter of verbally articulating self notions. Expressions such as '1' and 'mine' will still be used by an arahant, for conventional purposes (S. I, 14). Hence to go beyond Sakkāyadiṭṭhi is not a matter of rhetoric, but of overcoming and eradicating the craving, conceit and view forming process that in the case of the ordinary worldling accompany the use of such expressions.

With the attainment of stream-entry, the fetter of Sakkāyadiṭṭhi and therewith the view 'my self' are forever eradicated. The notion 'I am' as an expression of conceit, however, still lingers on and will only be abandoned with full awakening (S.III, 130). For this same reason, the Mūlapariyāya Sutta advises the sekha to avoid taking experienced phenomena as 'mine' and delighting in them (M. I,4)

The notion 'I am' can only occur when there is clinging, so Puṇṇa Mantāniputta once explained to Ananda (S.III, 105) just as only when holding up a mirror will one be able to see one's reflection. Similarly only when clinging to any of the five aggregates will the notion 'I am' arise.

According to the early Buddhist analysis, clinging can be of altogether four types (D. III, 230): clinging to sensuality, to views, to rules and vows and to a doctrine of a self. The last of these four, clinging to a doctrine of self (attavādupādāna), is a type of clinging which according to the Buddha's analysis in the Cūļasīhanāda Sutta is beyond the understanding of other religious teachers (M. I, 66). This fourth type of clinging is none other than a manifestation of Sakkāyadiṭthi (Vbh. 375).

On one occasion the Buddha humorously invited his monks to cling to a self doctrine, if they were able to find a self doctrine which would not result in the arising of *dukkha* (M. I, 137). Since however no self can be found, such clinging and its corresponding views and doctrines are but the prattle of fools.

Nevertheless, the many folk delight in sakkāya and thus remain in the bondage of Māra (It. 92). Fettered, obsessed and enslaved by Sakkāyadiṭṭħi, the worldling is unaware of the possibility to escape from it (M. I, 433). 'See this world with its gods' the Buddha proclaimed, 'conceiving what is not self to be a self' (Sn. 756). In fact, not only men are under the sway of Sakkāyadiṭṭħi, but even gods. Among gods endowed with a long life span the mistaken belief in a permanent self can easily arise. On hearing the Buddha proclaim the impermanent nature of sakkāya, such gods are struck with fear, realizing that they too are caught up in the predicament of sakkāya (A. II, 33).

A monk whose mind does not feel inspired to give up sakkāya is like a weak man who attempts to swim across the Ganges river but is unable to do so (M. I, 435). Lack of inspiration for the relinquishment of sakkāya may sometimes be due to attachment to deeper stages of concentration (A. II, 165). More mundane reasons for delighting in sakkāya can be taking pleasure in activity, in chattering, in sleeping, in company and in conceptual proliferation (A. III, 292).

Once the mind has however gained the inspiration to relinquish sakkāya, it can be reckoned as a mind that is well developed and free, gone beyond the underlying tendency to delight in sakkāya (A. III, 246). The giving up of sakkāya is happiness indeed, so the noble ones proclaim. What the many folk take to be happiness, they see as misery, but what the many folk call misery, the noble ones know to be happiness.

Once Nibbāna is experienced, the Buddha explained in the Māgandiya Sutta (M. I, 511), the much cherished 'I' is seen for what it is: an act of cheating and deluding oneself. Such cheating and deluding oneself through clinging to sakkāya is like being on the near shore of a water expanse (S. IV, 175), a shore beset by danger and fearful, while the other shore, safe and free from danger, is Nibbāna, the cessation of sakkāya.

See also ANATTĀ, ĀTMAN, ATTADIŢŢHI, ATTAVĀDA, UPĀDĀNA

Anālayo

References

- 1 . D. II, 305: sańkhittena pañcupādanakkhandhā dukkhā.
- 2. Dhs. 182: kummagga, micchāpatha, micchatta.
- 3 . SA. II, 98: etaṃ mamāti taṇhāgāho... esohamasmīti mānagāho...eso me attā ti diṭṭhigāho.
- 4. S. IV, 127: Sukhaṃ diṭṭhaṃ ariyehi, sakkāyassa nirodhanaṃ... yaṃ pare sukhato āhu, tad ariyā āhu dukkhato, yaṃ pare dukkhato āhu, tadariyā sukhato vidū.

SAKRA See SAKKA

SAKYA. The clan name of the Buddha Gotama with the alternative form Sākiya is found in canonical and post-canonical Pāli works. Individuals of the Sakya clan are generally referred to by the name Sakka. In Buddhist Sanskrit the terms used are Śākya and at times Śākiya. The form Śākiyāni with the alternatives Śākyayāni, Śākyāyanī are used in referring to Sakya females. Sakyaputtiyā, 'Sons of the Sakya' in Pāli and Śākyaputrīya in Buddhist Sanskrit are commonly used with reference to the disciples of the Buddha. The Buddha also came to be referred to as Śākyamuni (Pāli Sakyamuni) 'the Sakya Sage' and also as Sakyasimha, 'the Sakya Lion'. The Buddha was commonly referred to as Samano Gotamo by non-Buddhists. In introducing himself to the king Bimbisara of Magadha, the recluse Gotama says-

On Himavant's snow –slopes
Yon dwells a people, king
Of wealth and energy
Settlers in Kosala
Lineal kin of the Sun (Ādiccagotta)
Sakyans (Sākiyā) by birth (jātiyā) gone forth
Have I, king, from that clan¹

From this it is clear that the Sakya territory was on the foothills of the Himalayas and, at least in the time of the Buddha, they were included within the Kosala kingdom. In one instance the king Pasenadī Kosala claims both himself and the Buddha to be Kosalas (Bhagavāpi Kosaliko ahampi Kosaliko M.).

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